ELSEVIER

Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

Carbohydrate Polymers

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/carbpol



Short communication

Inhibition of acetylcholinesterase by gallic acid-grafted-chitosans

Young-Sook Cho^a, Se-Kwon Kim^a, Chang-Bum Ahn^b, Jae-Young Je^{b,*}

- ^a Department of Chemistry and Marine Bioprocess Research Center, Pukyong National University, 608-737, Republic of Korea
- ^b School of Food Technology and Nutrition, Chonnam National University, Yeosu 550-749, Republic of Korea

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:
Received 25 October 2010
Received in revised form
13 December 2010
Accepted 13 December 2010
Available online 21 December 2010

Keywords: Acetylcholinesterase Chitosan derivatives Inhibition Kinetic

ABSTRACT

This paper discusses acetylcholinesterase inhibitory properties of gallic acid-grafted-chitosans (GAg-chitosans) with different grafting ratios. The GA-g-chitosans exhibited potent acetylcholinesterase inhibitory effects in a dose-dependent manner, and their IC50 values ranged from 138.5 ± 0.25 to $397.6\pm5.2~\mu g/mL$. The acetylcholinesterase inhibition kinetics of the GA-g-chitosan (I) by Lineweaver–Burk plots showed a decrease in V_{max} , whereas K_m was not altered, thus suggesting a noncompetitive mode of inhibition. The inhibition constant, K_i , was found to be $64.85~\mu g/mL$ by the secondary plot of the Lineweaver–Burk plots. In addition, the GA-g-chitosan (I) did not exert any significant cyto-toxicity against PC12 cells, and the cellular acetylcholinesterase activity in PC12 cells was significantly inhibited by the GA-g-chitosan (I). This is the first report on acetylcholinesterase inhibition by the grafting of GA onto chitosan, and this compound might be helpful in preventing Alzheimer's disease by elevating cholinergic transmission.

© 2010 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

1. Introduction

Alzheimer's disease is a progressive neurodegenerative disease of the brain that is characterized by memory impairment, cognitive dysfunction, and personality changes (Bartolucci, Perola, Pilger, Fels & Lambal, 2001). Based on the cholinergic hypothesis, a deficiency of cholinergic neurotransmitters in the basal forebrains is predominantly involved in Alzheimer's disease. Therefore, augmenting brain cholinergic neurotransmission is a promising strategy in the treatment of Alzheimer's disease, and it is an important approach for the inhibition of acetylcholinesterase based on the cholinergic hypothesis. Acetylcholinesterase catalyses the hydrolysis of the neurotransmitter, acetylcholine to choline and acetate, in both the peripheral nervous system and central nervous system. Therefore, using acetylcholinesterase inhibitors is among the best accepted approach toward the treatment of Alzheimer's disease by increasing cholinergic neurotransmitters by inhibiting the degradation of acetylcholine. Currently, acetylcholinesterase inhibitors are widely used for patients to inhibit the hydrolysis of acetylcholine in order to augment cholinergic neurotransmitters, as a result, the symptoms of patients with Alzheimer's disease are alleviated. Over the past few years, synthetic acetylcholinesterase inhibitors including tacrine, donepezil, and the natural productbased rivastigmine have been employed in clinical treatments. However, the insufficient activity and side effects of these drugs, including hepatotoxicity and gastrointestinal disturbances, are leading to the development of new acetylcholinesterase inhibitors from natural bioresources that are non-toxic and have outstanding activity (Schulz, 2003).

Chitosans, naturally occurring biopolymers, are linear mucopolysaccharides composed of D-glucosamine and N-acetyl-D-glucosamine units. Over the past decade, numerous biological properties of chitosans and their derivatives, including antioxidant, antihypertensive, antimicrobial, anticancer and immune-stimulating effects, have been documented (Je, Park & Kim, 2006; Jeon & Kim, 2001; Jeon, Park & Kim, 2001; Muzzarelli & Muzzarelli, 2005; Sugano, Yoshida, Hashimoto, Enomoto & Hirano, 1992). Therefore, the development of chitosan derivatives is of great importance to obtain new materials that can be applied in the industry. As part of our ongoing investigation on the development of chitosan derivatives, we grafted gallic acid onto chitosan, and herein is the first report on the anti-acetylcholinesterase activity of gallic acid-grafted-chitosans.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Materials

Chitosan from crab chitin was obtained from Kitto Life Co. (Seoul, Korea), and its average molecular weight and degree of deacetylation were 310 kDa and 90%, respectively. Gallic acid, acetylcholinesterase (electric eel), and acetylthiocholine were pur-

^{*} Corresponding author. Tel.: +82 61 659 3416; fax: +82 61 659 3419. E-mail address: jjy1915@jnu.ac.kr (J.-Y. Je).

chased from Sigma Chemical Co. (St. Louis, MO, USA). All other chemicals and reagents used in this study were of analytical grade and commercially available.

2.2. Preparation and characterization of GA-g-chitosans

The preparation of gallic acid-grafted-chitosans (GA-g-chtiosans) was performed according to our previous report (Cho, Kim, Ahn & Je, 2010). Briefly, the chitosan (0.5 g) was dissolved in 50 mL of 2% acetic acid (v/v), and then 1 mL of 1.0 M H₂O₂ containing 0.054 g of ascorbic acid was added. After 30 min, different amounts of gallic acid were added to the mixture at the following molar ratios of residue of chitosan to gallic acid: 1:1, 1:0.5, 1:0.25 and 1:0.1. These GA-g-chitosans were designated as GA-g-chitosan (IV), respectively. Finally, the mixture was allowed to sit at 25 °C for 24 h under atmospheric air, and then dialyzed with distilled water for 48 h in order to remove the unreacted gallic acid. ¹H NMR spectra were obtained with a JEOL JNM ECP-400 NMR spectrometer under a static magnetic field of 400 MHz.

Plain chitosan: 1 H NMR (400 MHz, $D_{2}O$) δ : 5.30 (1H, H-1), 3.63–4.35 (1H, H-2/6), 2.51 (H-Ac), 4.8 ($D_{2}O$). GA-g-chitosan: 1 H NMR (400 MHz, $D_{2}O$) δ : 7.63 (phenyl protons of gallic acid), 5.33 (1H, H-1), 3.65–4.36 (1H, H-2/6), 2.51–2.54 (H-Ac), 4.8 ($D_{2}O$).

2.3. Assay for inhibition of acetylcholinesterase

The acetylcholinesterase inhibition assay was conducted via the spectrophotometric method developed by Ellman, Courtney, Andres, and Featherstone (1961) with slight modification. Acetylthiocholine chloride was employed as the substrate to assay the inhibition of acetylcholinesterase. The reaction mixture contained: 140 µL of 100 mM sodium phosphate buffer (pH 8.0), 20 µL of test sample solution, and 20 µL of acetylcholinesterase (0.36 U/mL), which were mixed and incubated for 15 min at room temperature. The reactions were then initiated via the addition of 10 µL of 5-5'-thiobis-2-nitrobenzoic acid (0.5 mM) and 10 µL of acetylthiocholine chloride (0.6 mM). The hydrolysis of acetylthiocholine chloride was monitored by the following formation of yellow 5thio-2-nitrobenzoate anion at 412 nm for 15 min, which resulted from the reaction of 5-5'-thiobis-2-nitrobenzoic acid with thiocholine, released by the enzymatic hydrolysis of acetylthiocholine chloride.

2.4. Determination of kinetic parameters and mode of inhibition

Kinetic parameters, Michaelis constant (K_m) and maximal velocity (V_{max}) were determined via the Lineweaver–Burk plot and inhibition constant (K_i) derived from slope of primary plot vs concentration of inhibitor.

2.5. Cell culture

PC12 cells were obtained from the American Type Culture Collection (Rockville, MD). The cells were cultured in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS), 2 mM glutamine, $100\,U/mL$ of penicillin, and $100\,\mu g/mL$ of streptomycin. The cells were incubated at $37\,^{\circ}C$ in a humidified atmosphere (5% CO_2).

2.6. Cytotoxicity assay

The cytotoxicity of the GA-g-chitosan (I) was measured using the 3-(4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide (MTT) assay. The cells were grown in 96-well plates at a

density of 1×10^4 cells/well. After 24 h, the cells were treated with control medium or medium supplemented with different concentrations of GA-g-chitosan (I). After incubation for 24 h, MTT solution (1 mg/mL) was added and incubated for another 4 h. Finally, 100 μ L of DMSO was added to solubilize the formed formazan crystals. The amount of formazan crystals was determined by measuring the absorbance at 540 nm using an ELISA reader (SpectraMax® M2/M2e, CA).

2.7. Acetylcholinesterase inhibitory activity on PC12 cell line

PC12 cells were grown in 10 cm culture dish, and at 70–80% confluence, the cells were treated with GA-g-chitosan (I) with the desired concentrations and incubated for 24 h. After incubation, the cells were collected and washed three times with PBS. Then, the cells were lysed in 1 mL lysis buffer (50 mM Tris–HCl, pH 7.5, 1% Triton X-100, 1 M NaCl and 50 mM MgCl₂) for 2 h. The supernatants were obtained by centrifugation at 10,000 rpm at 4 °C for 30 min and the protein content was determined via BCA assay kit (bicinchoninic acid, Sigma Co., St. Louis, MO), using bovine serum albumin as a standard.

Acetylcholinesterase assay of the cell lysates was performed as the above mention method, and acetylcholinesterase activity was expressed as U/mg protein using standard curve.

2.8. Statistics

All assays were carried out in triplicate, and the results are reported as means \pm standard deviations. The statistical significance of difference was analyzed by Student's t-test using SPSS (Chicago, IL, USA).

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Acetylcholinesterase inhibitory capacities of GA-g-chitosans

Acetylcholinesterase inhibitors have been well-characterized in clinical studies as the most promising Alzheimer's disease therapeutic agents by increasing endogenous levels of acetylcholine and cholinergic neurotransmission in the brains of Alzheimer's type dementia patients (Yu, Utsuki, Brossi & Greig, 1999). Therefore, we evaluated the anti-acetylcholinesterase activities of the GA-g-chitosans in order to help address the paucity of information on GA-g-chitosans as acetylcholinesterase inhibitors.

The acetylcholinesterase inhibitory capacities of the GA-g-chitosans are depicted in Fig. 1. First, plain chitosan, which was produced by the same preparation process as the GA-g-chitosan without the addition of gallic acid, showed weak acetylcholinesterase inhibitory activity as 40% inhibition at 400 µg/mL. However, the acetylcholinesterase inhibitory capacities of the GA-g-chitosans were higher than that of the plain chitosan. All GA-g-chitosans had inhibitory potency toward acetylcholinesterase in a dose-dependent manner, and their inhibition activity were recorded as 87.31% [GA-g-chitosan (I)], 75.77% [GA-g-chitosan (II)], 57.57% [GA-g-chitosan (III)], and 50.36% [GA-g-chitosan (IV)] at the concentration of 400 µg/mL. These activities were augmented with increasing gallic acid content in the grafted chitosans. Table 1 summarizes the IC₅₀ values of the GA-g-chitosans, which are the concentrations necessary to inhibit 50% of acetylcholinesterase activity. The IC₅₀ values were calculated by the non-linear regression method. As depicted in Fig. 1, GA-g-chitosan (I) showed the most potent acetylcholinesterase inhibitory capacity with an IC50 value of $138.5 \pm 2.5 \,\mu g/mL$, followed by GA-g-chitosan (II)>GA-g-chitosan (III) > GA-g-chitosan (IV), respectively.

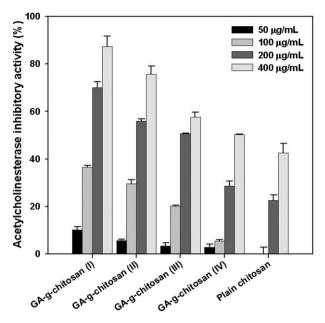


Fig. 1. Acetylcholinesterase inhibitory activities of gallic acid-*grafted*-chitosans. Results are expressed as means \pm SD of three determinations.

Table 1 IC₅₀ values of GA-g-chitosans.

Samples	IC ₅₀ (μg/mL)	
GA-g-chitosan (I)	138.5 ± 2.5	
GA-g-chitosan (II)	177.9 ± 3.3	
GA-g-chitosan (III)	196.4 ± 1.7	
GA-g-chitosan (IV)	397.6 ± 5.2	

Scanty information regarding polysaccharide-based acetylcholinesterase inhibitors is available, and herein we are the first to report on the acetylcholinesterase inhibitory activities of naturally occurring polysaccharide based derivatives, namely GA-g-chitosans, and demonstrated that GA-g-chitosans possess high acetylcholinesterase inhibitory capacities compared to plain chitosan. This result suggests that gallic acid improves the acetylcholinesterase inhibitory activity of plain chitosan. In our previous report, we found that chitooligosaccharides (COSs), derivatives of chitosan, possess acetylcholinesterase inhibitory activity, and their activity is dependent on their molecular weight and degree of deacetylation (Lee, Park, Kim, Ahn & Je, 2009). The IC₅₀ values of the COSs ranged from 1.67 to 3.52 mg/mL. In this study, the GA-g-chitosans showed enhanced acetylcholinesterase inhibitory activities compared to the COSs. Yoon, Ngo, and Kim (2009) also reported that aminoalkylated COSs inhibited acetylcholinesterase, and inhibitory activity was dependent on the type of aminoalkyl groups introduced onto the COSs. The activities of these aminoalkylated COSs appear to be more potent than those of GA-g-chitosans. It is also developed chitosan and its oligomers as neuroprotective agents, particularly with regard to oxidative stress because increased oxidative stress is a widely accepted factor in the development and progression of Alzheimer's disease. Khodagholi, Eftekharzadeh, Maghsoudi, and Rezaei (2010) reported that chitosan prevents oxidative stress-induced amyloid β formation and

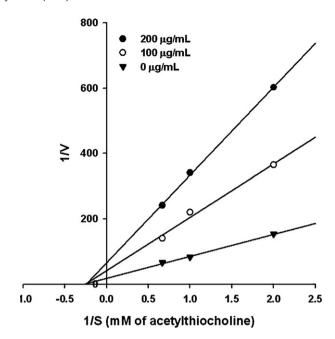


Fig. 2. Lineweaver–Burk plots of acetylcholinesterase with and without gallic acid-grafted-chitosan (I).

Table 2Kinetic parameters of acetylcholinesterase in the presence of GA-g-chitosan (I).

μg/mL	K _m (mM)	$V_{\max} \left(\Delta \text{OD}_{412} / \text{min} \right)$
0	4.079	0.053
100	4.079	0.023
200	4.079	0.015

cytotoxicity in NT2 neurons, and Xu, Huang, Lin, and Jiang (2010) also reported that chitosan oligomer protected rat cortical neurons by copper-induced oxidative stress. In addition, chitins and chitosans could be used for the repair of wounded nerve tissue, and reduced the oxidative stress by radical scavenging activity (Muzzarelli, 2009; Castagnino et al., 2008).

3.2. Determination of kinetic parameters and mode of inhibition

The inhibition mode of the GA-g-chitosans on acetylcholinesterase was analyzed using Lineweaver-Burk plots. Determination of the inhibition type is important to understand the mechanism of enzyme action and the inhibitor binding site. Considering acetylcholinesterase inhibitory activity, we used GA-g-chitosan (I) as a representative in kinetic analysis. The Lineweaver-Burk plots of acetylcholinesterase with and without GA-g-chitosan (I) (at two concentrations, 100 and 200 $\mu g/mL$) are presented in Fig. 2, showing that the lines intersect on the *x*-axis. Therefore, the inhibition mode of GA-g-chitosan (I) toward acetylcholinesterase is non-competitive inhibition where GA-g-chitosan (I) reversibly binds to an allosteric site on acetylcholinesterase, preventing the substrate from binding to the active site. This means GA-g-chitosan (I) acts as an acetylcholinesterase inhibitor by forming enzyme-substrate-inhibitor and enzyme-inhibitor complexes during the reaction to reduce the efficiency of catalysis. Kinetic

 Table 3

 Cellular acetylcholinesterase inhibitory activity of GA-g-chitosan (I) on PC12 cells.

	GA-g-chitosan (I) (µg/mL)				
	0	25	50	100	200
Acetylcholineterase activity (U/mg protein)	10.16 ± 0.27	9.18 ± 0.39	8.12 ± 0.32	7.49 ± 0.35	6.58 ± 0.27

parameters such as $K_{\rm m}$, $V_{\rm max}$ and $K_{\rm i}$ were analyzed using primary and secondary Lineweaver–Burk plots, and the values are summarized in Table 2. In the presence of GA-g-chitosan (I), $V_{\rm max}$ decreased with increasing concentrations of GA-g-chitosan (I), but $K_{\rm m}$ was not altered. The $K_{\rm i}$ value was calculated by the secondary plot of Lineweaver–Burk, which the slopes of each line in the Lineweaver–Burk plot were plotted against different concentrations of GA-g-chitosan (I), and the $K_{\rm i}$ value is the intercept on the x-axis. The obtained $K_{\rm i}$ value was found to be 64.85 μ g/mL.

3.3. Cytotoxicity and acetylcholinesterase inhibitory activity in PC12 cell line

Pheochromocytoma (PC12) cells, rich in acetylcholinesterase activity, were employed for further investigation on the effect of GA-g-chitosan (I) against acetylcholinesterase activity. Prior to investigate the acetylcholinesterase inhibitory activity of GA-g-chitosan (I) in PC12 cells, cytotoxic level of GA-g-chitosan (I) was determined using MTT assay. The GA-g-chitosan (I) did not exert any significant (p<0.01) toxic effect on the PC12 cells after 24 h of treatment (0–200 μ g/mL). Therefore, non-toxic concentrations of GA-g-chitosan (I) were applied for the effect on acetylcholinesterase activity in PC12 cells.

For determination of cellular acetylcholinesterase inhibitory activity, the GA-g-chitosan (I) with various concentrations was treated in PC12 cells and further incubated for 24 h. As shown in Table 3, acetylcholinesterase activities of the cell lysates including treatment with GA-g-chitosan (I) were observed that acetylcholinesterase activity was decreased with increased concentrations of GA-g-chitosan (I). In the absence of GA-g-chitosan (I), acetylcholinesterase activity was observed 10.16 U/mg protein, but in the presence of GA-g-chitosan (I) at the concentration of 200 μ g/mL, acetylcholinesterase activity was observed 6.58 U/mg protein.

4. Conclusion

In this study, we firstly reported acetylcholinesterase inhibitory activity of GA-g-chitosans. The GA-g-chitosans exhibited potent acetylcholinesterase inhibitory activity in a dose-dependent manner compared to plain chitosan, and acetylcholinesterase inhibitory activity was dependent on GA content in the GA-g-chitosans. The inhibition mode of the GA-g-chitosan (I) was found to be non-competitive, and K_i value was found to be 64.85 μ g/mL. In addition,

the GA-g-chitosan (I) did not exert any significant cytotoxicity against PC12 cells, and the cellular acetylcholinesterase activity in PC12 cells was significantly inhibited by the GA-g-chitosan (I). Our present findings suggest that GA-g-chitosans might be beneficial materials in the prevention and treatment of Alzheimer's disease, and provide a chemical framework for the development of new acetylcholinesterase inhibitors based on chitosan.

References

- Bartolucci, C., Perola, E., Pilger, C., Fels, G., & Lambal, D. (2001). Three-dimensional structure of a complex of galanthamine (Nivalin®) with acetylcholinesterase from Torpedo californica: Implications for the design of new anti-Alzheimer drugs. *Proteins*, 42, 182–191.
- Castagnino, E., Ottaviani, M. F., Cangiotti, M., Morelli, M., Casettari, L., & Muzzarelli, R. A. A. (2008). Radical scavenging activity of 5-methylpyrrolidinone chitosan and dibutyl chitin. *Carbohydrate Polymers*, 74, 640-647.
- Cho, Y. S., Kim, S. K., Ahn, C. B., & Je, J. Y. (2010). Preparation, characterization and antioxidant properties of gallic acid-grafted-chitosans. Carbohydrate Polymers, doi:10.1016/j.carbpol.2010.10.019
- Ellman, G. L., Courtney, D., Andres, K. D. V., & Featherstone, R. M. (1961). A new and rapid colorimetric determination of acetylcholinesterase activity. *Biochemical Pharmacology*, 7, 88–95.
- Je, J. Y., Park, P. J., Kim, B., & Kim, S. K. (2006). Antihypertensive activity of chitin derivatives. *Biopolymers*, 83, 250–254.
- Jeon, Y. J., & Kim, S. K. (2001). Potential immune-stimulating effect of antitumoral fraction of chitosan oligosaccharides. *Journal of Chitin Chitosan*, 6, 163–167.
- Jeon, Y. J., Park, P. J., & Kim, S. K. (2001). Antimicrobial effect of chitooligosaccharides produced by bioreactor. *Carbohydrate Polymers*, 44, 71–76.
- Khodagholi, F., Eftekharzadeh, B., Maghsoudi, N., & Rezaei, P. F. (2010). Chitosan prevents oxidative stress-induced amyloid β formation and cytotoxicity in NT2 neurons: Involvement of transcription factors Nrf2 and NF-κB. *Molecular and Cellular Biochemistry*, 337, 39–51.
- Lee, S. H., Park, J. S., Kim, S. K., Ahn, C. B., & Je, J. Y. (2009). Chitooligosaccharides suppress the level of protein expression and acetylcholinesterase activity induced by Aβ₂₅₋₃₅ in PC12 cells. *Bioorganic & Medicinal Chemistry Letters*, 19, 860–862.
- Muzzarelli, R. A. A., & Muzzarelli, C. (2005). Chitosan chemistry: Relevance to the biochemical sciences. *Advance in Polymer Sciences*, *186*, 151–209.
- Muzzarelli, R. A. A. (2009). Chitins and chitosans for the repair of wounded skin, nerve, cartilage and bone. Carbohydrate Polymers, 76, 167–182.
- Schulz, V. (2003). Ginkgo extract or cholinesterase inhibitors in patients with dementia. What clinical trials and guidelines fail to consider. *Phytomedicine*, 10, 74–79.
- Sugano, M., Yoshida, K., Hashimoto, H., Enomoto, K., & Hirano, S. (1992). In C. J. Brine, P. A. Sanford, & J. P. Zikakis (Eds.), Advances in chitin and chitosan (pp. 472–478). London and New York: Elsevier Applied Science.
- Xu, W., Huang, H. C., Lin, C. J., & Jiang, Z. F. (2010). Chitooligosaccharides protect rat cortical neurons against copper-induced damage by attenuating intracellular levels of reactive oxygen species. *Bioorganic & Medicinal Chemistry Letters*, 20, 3084–3088.
- Yoon, N. Y., Ngo, D. N., & Kim, S. K. (2009). Acetylcholinesterase inhibitory activity of novel chitooligosaccharides derivatives. Carbohydrate Polymers, 78, 869–872.
- Yu, S. Q., Utsuki, H. W., Brossi, T., & Greig, A. N. H. (1999). Synthesis of novel phenserine-based-selective inhibitors of butyrylcholinesterase for Alzheimer's disease. *Journal of Medicinal Chemistry*, 42, 1855–1861.