



## Low molecular weight chitosan prepared with the aid of cellulase, lysozyme and chitinase: Characterisation and antibacterial activity

Shih-Bin Lin<sup>a,b,\*</sup>, Yi-Chun Lin<sup>b</sup>, Hui-Huang Chen<sup>b</sup>

<sup>a</sup> Institute of Biotechnology, National Ilan University, No. 1, Sec. 1, Shen-Lung Rd., Ilan City, Ilan County 26041, Taiwan

<sup>b</sup> Department of Food Science, National Ilan University, Ilan 26041, Taiwan

### ARTICLE INFO

#### Article history:

Received 19 September 2008

Received in revised form 27 December 2008

Accepted 4 February 2009

#### Keywords:

Chitosan

LMWC

Antibacterial activity

Solubility

Chitinase

Lysozyme

Cellulase

### ABSTRACT

A continuous set of low molecular weight chitosan (LMWC) products was successfully made for this study by coordinating three enzymes (chitinase, lysozyme and cellulase) and two different deacetylated chitosan substrates (80% and 92%). It was observed that the intrinsic viscosity molecular weight ( $M_v$ ) and SEC-HPLC-determined  $M_w$  distribution of LMWC were directed by both the used enzyme and the degree of chitosan substrate acetylation. LMWC prepared using lysozyme and 92%-deacetylated chitosan had larger  $M_w$  and, therefore, possessed higher antibacterial activity, as compared to other combinations. LMWC enzyme-directed properties suggest chitinase is more predictable and flexible to produce the specified  $M_v$  of LMWC. LMWC's solubility and antibacterial activity, determined as minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC), against *Escherichia coli* exhibited a negative linear relationship with  $\log M_v$ . *E. coli* strains showed much higher susceptibility to LMWCs than *Staphylococcus aureus* strains did. Both species also showed intra-species sensitivity diversity toward LMWC.

© 2009 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

### 1. Introduction

Chitin, the raw material of chitosan composed of *N*-acetyl-glucosamine (NAG), is an offal product of the seafood processing industry. Chitosan, obtained by partial de-*N*-acetylation of chitin, has drawn increasing attention due to its superior solubility and reactivity, in comparison with chitin, which gives the former enhanced anti-microbial, anti-tumour, hypolipidaemic, hypocholesterolaemic, and immuno-stimulation biofunctionalities (Kim & Rajapakse, 2005; Tharanathan & Kittur, 2003). Chitosan's biofunctionalities are highly related to its molecular weight and degree of acetylation. The antibacterial functions of chitosan and its derivatives represents their primary utility in biological applications. Regardless of the source of chitosan, its antibacterial efficacy is influenced by a number of factors, which include degree of polymerisation (Park, Kim, & Lee, 2002; Park, Lee, & Kim, 2004; Tsai, Zhang, & Shieh, 2004), microorganism species (Gerasimenko, Avdienko, Bannikova, Zueva, & Varlamov, 2004; Park, Je, Byun, Moon, & Kim, 2004), and the degree of deacetylation (DD) at which anti-

bacterial activity increases (Tsai, Su, Chen, & Pan, 2002). Low molecular weight chitosan (LMWC), due to its ready solubility in water, is more amenable for a wide variety of biomedical applications. It was reported that LMWC (5–10 kDa) had the highest bactericidal activity against pathogenic bacteria (Jeon, Park, & Kim, 2001), whereas a 20 kDa product prevented progression of diabetes mellitus and showed a higher affinity for lipopolysaccharides than the native chitosan of about 140 kDa (Kondo, Nakatani, Hayashi, & Ito, 2000). Several studies revealed its antimicrobial potential as dependent on degree of acetylation (Jeon et al., 2001). Besides, LMWC of 5–10 kDa has also been shown to hold potential as a DNA delivery system (Richardson, Kolbe, & Duncan, 1999).

Chitosan could be depolymerised into LMWC by physical, chemical or enzymatic methods (Cheng & Li, 2000; Ogawa, Chripinas, Yoshida, Inoue, & Kariya, 2001). Physical methods (e.g., sonication, shearing) require special equipment, while reactions from chemical hydrolysis using HCl, H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, or HNO<sub>2</sub> are difficult to control, often resulting in inconsistent and over-depolymerised products. Enzymatic depolymerisation, based on either specific or non-specific enzymes, holds specific advantages over the other two methods, as it minimises the cited drawbacks while offering easy control of reactions. Chitosanase, a specific enzyme for chitosan analysis, is expensive, unavailable in bulk and often results in a preferential formation of chitoooligomers-monomers due to its specificity. On the other hand, non-specific enzymes

\* Corresponding author. Institute of Biotechnology, National Ilan University, No. 1, Sec. 1, Shen-Lung Rd., Ilan City, Ilan County 26041, Taiwan. Tel.: +886 3 935 7400; fax: +886 3 935 1829.

E-mail addresses: [sblin@niu.edu.tw](mailto:sblin@niu.edu.tw) (S.-B. Lin), [f86400241982@yahoo.com.tw](mailto:f86400241982@yahoo.com.tw) (Y.-C. Lin), [hhchen@niu.edu.tw](mailto:hhchen@niu.edu.tw) (H.-H. Chen).

(e.g., pectinase, papain), which are inexpensive and commercially available, result mainly in the formation of LMWC (Kittur, Kumar, Gowda, & Tharanathan, 2003; Vishu Kumar, Varadaraj, Lalitha, & Tharanathan, 2004). By varying reaction conditions (e.g., reaction medium pH, temperature and time), LMWC of  $M_w$  in the range  $9.0 \pm 0.5$  kDa was obtained by depolymerising chitosan using the non-specific enzyme pronase (Vishu Kumar, Gowda, & Tharanathan, 2004).

It has been demonstrated that lysozyme only recognizes the NAG<sub>(3-5)</sub> section along the polymer as a hydrolysing site (Kurita, Kaji, Mori, & Nishiyama, 2000). However, chitinase, a glycosidase (EC 3.2.1.14), can cut the  $\beta$ -1,4-glycosidic bond at the non-reducing end of NAG (Liu, Kao, Tzeng, & Feng, 2003). The production of chitooligosaccharide with an acceptable degree of polymerisation was made possible by selectively breaking down *N*-acetylated chitosan on an acetylated site with chitinases (Aiba, 1994). Chitinases have been used intensively for the purpose of generating fungal protoplasts (Kumari & Panda, 1992) and are an attractive alternative to fungicides and insecticides as environmentally safe bio-control agents in the inhibition of phytopathogens (Lorito, Hayes, Di Pietro, Woo, & Harman, 1994). Cellulase, similar to chitinase, is an endo-glycosidase (EC 3.2.1.4) able to cut randomly the  $\beta$ -1,4-glycosidic bond along the chitosan fibre.

This study was intended to use these three enzymes to produce a series of LMWC. Due to the different catalytical behaviours of these enzymes in reaction with chitosan, a series of LMWC products with a more complete molecular weight spectrum could possibly be created by hydrolysing adjusted-DD chitosan through flexibly manipulating cellulase, chitinase, and lysozyme. Such a study should provide more complete information, in order to understand how LMWC exerts its antibacterial efficacy and how this is affected by DD,  $M_w$ , bacteria species, and solubility during antibacterial action. Furthermore, the complete molecular weight spectrum can also provide a more precise range of molecular size based on specific biofunctionality need.

## 2. Materials and methods

### 2.1. Materials

*N*-acetyl-D-glucosamine, tri-*N*-acetylchitotriose, and hexa-*N*-acetyl-chitohexaose were purchased from Sigma (St. Louis, MO). Lysozyme (EC 3.2.1.17) and cellulase (EC 3.2.1.4, produced by *Trichoderma reesei* (ATCC 26921) were purchased from Sigma C2730. A crude chitinase enzyme was prepared by inducing *Trichoderma harzianum* (BCRC 30821) into a chitin-containing medium. This research also made use of Difco culture media (BD, Franklin Lakes, NJ). Chemicals and solvents were all analytical grade and purchased from Merck (Darmstadt, Germany). Chitin was purchased from Sigma and chitosans with DDs of 92 and 80, determined by Fourier Transform infrared (FTIR) spectroscopy, were purchased from a local company.

### 2.2. Microorganisms

Microorganisms used in this study were all purchased from the Bioresource Collection and Research Centre of the Food Industry Research and Development Institute (FIRDI, Taiwan). The five strains of bacteria used for testing the antibacterial activity of LMWC included three strains of *S. aureus* (BCRC 10451, 10780, and 10781) and two strains of *E. coli* (BCRC 10314 and 10675). *T. harzianum* (BCRC 30821) was used to prepare crude chitinase. *E. coli* was cultured in nutrient broth medium at 37 °C, and *S. aureus* was cultured in trypticase soy broth medium at 37 °C.

### 2.3. Preparation of crude chitinase enzyme complex and chitinolytic activity assay

Chitinase was prepared according to Felse and Panda (2000). The seed culture medium contained (in g/l): dextrose, 10; (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>, 4.2; NaH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>, 6.9; KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>, 2.0; MgSO<sub>4</sub> · 7H<sub>2</sub>O, 0.3; peptone, 1.0; citric acid monohydrate, 10.5; and urea, 0.3. The medium was inoculated with *T. harzianum* spores (approximately  $5 \times 10^5$  spores per ml) from a 120-h-old slant. The chitinases induction medium had the following composition (in g/l): colloidal chitin 10; (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>, 4.2; NaH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>, 6.9; KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>, 2.0; MgSO<sub>4</sub> · 7H<sub>2</sub>O, 0.3; Tween 80, 0.2; FeSO<sub>4</sub> · 7H<sub>2</sub>O, 0.005; MnSO<sub>4</sub>, 0.0016; ZnSO<sub>4</sub>, 0.0014; CaCl<sub>2</sub> · 2H<sub>2</sub>O, 0.002; pH 5.0. The induction medium was inoculated with 5% (v/v) 48-h-old seed culture and cultured for 5 days at 30 °C to obtain an optimal chitinase yield.

The chitinolytic activities of enzymes used in this study were assessed by measuring enzyme-released reducing sugar in the hydrolysing reaction through the dinitrosalicylic acid (DNS) method (Ilyina, Tikhonov, Albulov, & Varlamov, 2000). An enzymatic hydrolysing reaction was performed by mixing 1% colloidal chitin solution (pH 4.0) with properly diluted enzyme solutions and reacting in a 42 °C water bath for 1 h. Enzymes were then inactivated by heating at 100 °C for 10 min. Supernatant of reaction mixture obtained after a centrifugation at 10,000g for 10 min was mixed with a 2-fold volume of DNS reagent and boiled for 15 min, followed by a quick cool down in water. The result was read at OD<sub>590</sub>, using a Biomate-3 spectrophotometer (Thermo Spectronic, Rochester, NY). One unit of enzyme activity represented one  $\mu$ mole equivalent of NAG produced per hour.

### 2.4. Preparation of enzymatic chitosan hydrolysates

Two hundred millilitres of 2.2% chitosan (DD80 or 92), dissolved in 100 mM sodium acetate buffer (pH 4.0), was mixed with 20 ml crude chitinases, cellulase, or lysozyme at 100 U/ml. This mixture was then incubated at 42 °C. An aliquot (10 ml) of the mixture was withdrawn at the necessary time and then boiled for 10 min to stop the enzymatic reaction. The chitosan hydrolysate prepared from a specified condition is designated as DD#\_enz\_time, where # represents the value of DD, enz represents the used enzyme, and time represents the hydrolysing period. For example, an LMWC product produced by hydrolysing DD92 chitosan with chitinase for 24 h would be designated as DD92\_chit\_24 h. Chitosan hydrolysate samples were kept at -20 °C until use.

### 2.5. The assay of degree of LMWC polymerization

Chitosan hydrolysates were sampled at 3, 6, 9, 24, 48, 72, 96, 120, 144, 168 h and measured for viscosity. The  $M_v$  of LMWC was determined based on its intrinsic viscosity, obtained in 0.25 M HAC/0.25 M NaAc at 25 °C, according to the equation of Mark-Houwink-Sakurada (MHS) (Kasaai, Arul, & Charlet, 2000) stated as:

$$[\eta] = 1.49 \times 10^{-4} M_v^{0.79}$$

Due to viscometry limitations, the measurable range for  $M_v$  reaches only about 6 kDa.

### 2.6. SEC-HPLC

The  $M_w$  profiles of LMWC samples were determined by a size-exclusion column, TSKgel G3000PW (7.5 × 300 mm, Tosoh Co., Tokyo, Japan). The HPLC system was composed of an isocratic pump (SpectraSeries P100; ThermoQuest, San Jose, CA) and a differential refractive index detector (Shodex RI-101; Showa Denko Co., Tokyo, Japan). The mobile phase was composed of a 100 mM sodium acetate buffer (pH 4.0) at a flow rate of 1.0 ml/min. The monomer,

trimer, and hexamer of *N*-acetyl-*D*-glucosamine and dextran with 10 kDa were standard markers.

### 2.7. Solubility assay

The solubility of each LMWC sample was defined as the water-soluble solid content (w/v) in a neutral solution. The LMWC sample was neutralised with 200 mM phosphate buffer at a volume ratio of 1:1. The insoluble solid of the mixture was precipitated by centrifugation at 6000g for 30 min and washed three times with distilled water to remove solvent residue. Total solids and insoluble solids were dried in an oven at 60 °C until a constant weight was obtained. Solubility (g/l) was calculated as:

(total solid dried weight – insoluble solid dried weight)/sample volume.

### 2.8. Minimal inhibition concentration (MIC) test

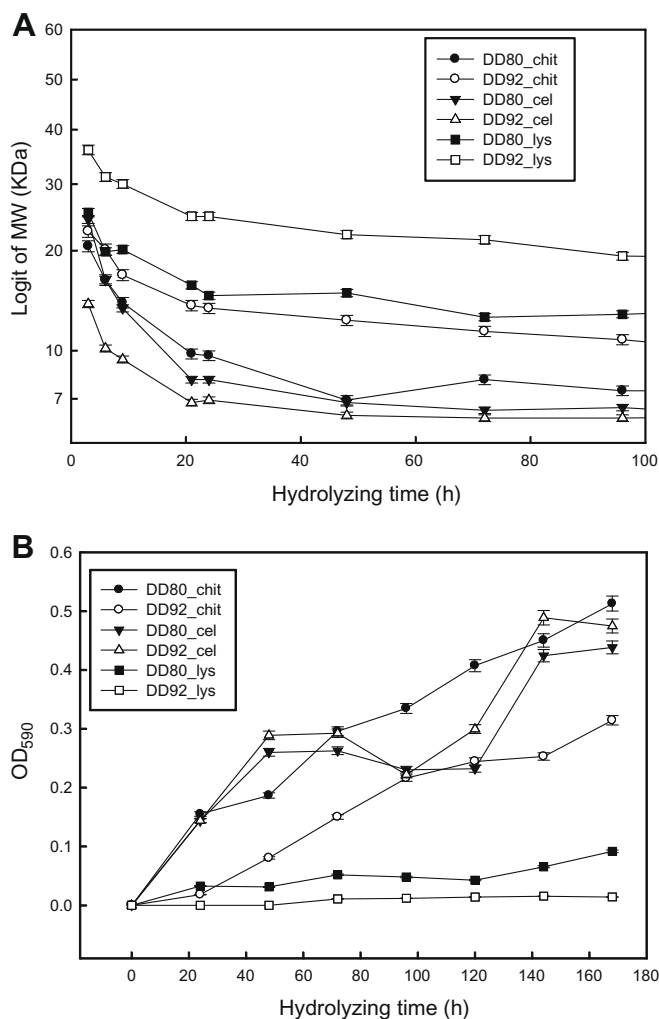
One hundred microlitres of each 16-hour-old,  $\sim 5 \times 10^6$  cfu/ml tested microorganism was mixed with 100  $\mu$ l sterilised chitosan hydrolysate samples, which were 2-fold serially diluted in advance with a corresponding medium buffered with 100 mM phosphate buffer (pH 7.0) to the designated concentration. A corresponding mixture containing no tested strain was used as a control. The mixture was then applied to each well of a 96-well microplate and incubated for 48 h at a temperature suited for each microorganism. Growth of the tested microorganism was monitored at  $OD_{590}$  every 6 h for 48 h by an ELISA reader (Biolog, Hayward, CA). All treatments were conducted five times. MIC was ultimately defined as the lowest concentration of the sample required to inhibit bacterial growth for over 48 h beyond that of the control sample.

### 2.9. Statistical analysis

Mean values and standard deviations were calculated from the data of tests performed five times per sample. Results were compared by the least significant difference test, paired *t*-test, multiple regression, and Pearson correlation analysis using SAS Version 8.01 (SAS Institute, Cary, NC).

## 3. Results and discussion

According to the catalytic behaviours of lysozyme and chitinase, as mentioned in the introduction section, in hydrolysing chitosan, the chitosan with higher DD will be digested into larger fragments. Kurita et al. (2000) suggested the best DD for chitosan to be hydrolysed by lysozyme to be about 56%, and that chitosan with DDs of 11% and 97% (having, respectively, too many or too few continuous NAG) cannot be hydrolysed by lysozyme. Therefore, in order to create a continuous  $M_v$  spectrum for LMWC products, this study chose to use chitosans of DD80 and DD92. The expected result was observed in Fig. 1A, which indicated the relationship between LMWC's  $M_v$  and the hydrolysing time interval. The  $M_v$  of LMWC was determined in weak acid solution by intrinsic viscosity. Due to viscometry limitations, the measurable range for  $M_v$  reaches only about 6 kDa. Apparently, the  $M_v$  of LMWC from each of the combinations decreased steeply during the first 3 h (from 323.7 kDa (DD92) and 371.5 kDa (DD80) to 15–38 kDa) and approached stable sizes by 24 h. LMWC products collected at a hydrolysing time of 96 h, representing the near completion of reaction, produce molecular sizes (from largest to smallest) as: DD92\_lys (22.2 kDa), DD80\_lys (13.9 kDa), DD92\_chit (11.2 kDa), DD80\_chit (8.3 kDa), DD80\_cel (<6 kDa), and DD92\_cel (<6 kDa). By performing the paired *t*-test (Fig. 1A), the products prepared from DD80 were significantly smaller than that from DD92 in their  $M_v$  at



**Fig. 1.** The decrease in molecular weight of chitosan hydrolysates (A) and DNS-reacted reducing sugar released (B) in the enzymatical hydrolysis of chitosan. Chitosan with DD of 80 (solid symbol) and 92% (open symbol) were hydrolysed using one of three enzymes (chitinase [circle], cellulase [triangle], and lysozyme [rectangle]) to create six chitosan hydrolysate sample groups. To better highlight y-scale values,  $M_v$  (kDa) was transformed using a logit calculation. The paired *t*-test was performed to analyse the DD effect (80% and 92%) on the LMWC's  $M_v$  prepared using lysozyme, chitinase, and cellulase, and the significance level of difference (*p*) for each enzyme was 0.001, 0.036, and 0.025, respectively.

corresponding hydrolysing time for lysozyme ( $p = 0.001$ ) and chitinase ( $p = 0.036$ ), except cellulase. Chitinase and lysozyme can recognize NAG and (NAG)<sub>3-5</sub>, respectively, which also helps explain the smaller molecular size of LMWC\_chit as compared with LMWC\_lys, due to the fact that NAG sites can be found more easily, in theory, than (NAG)<sub>3-5</sub> sites along the chitosan molecule. Besides, both the chitinase and cellulase used in this study were mixtures of endo- and exoenzymes. Fast degradation during the early hydrolysis stage was attributed to endoenzyme activity. Exoenzymes modified the initial LMWC product into smaller fragments by liberating dimer and monomer NAG or AG flanked on the reducing end of chitosan. Taking another perspective, LMWC\_chit demonstrates better flexibility in producing a variable  $M_v$  range as compared with LMWC\_lys because the former can be further modified by exo-chitinase.

Interestingly, the DD conversely affected the  $M_v$  profile of LMWC when produced with cellulase, by which the LMWC made from DD80 was significant larger than DD92 ( $p = 0.025$ ). This phenomenon could be attributed to the higher solubility of chitosan\_92. Since it is well-known that higher DD of chitosan is

more soluble in weak acid solution, the lower solubility of chitosan\_DD80 could slightly limit its accessibility to cellulase and result in a slower reaction.

In order to further investigate the stability of product molecular sizes in relation to hydrolysing time, the amount of reducing sugar was monitored using the DNS method. Fig. 1B shows how the reducing sugar of DD92\_chit, DD92\_lys, and DD80\_lys gradually stopped increasing at 96 h of hydrolysing time, and the other combinations, DD80\_chit, DD80\_cel, and DD92\_cel, kept releasing reducing sugar afterward along the hydrolysing time and became smaller in molecular size. The extensive degradation of LMWCs in DD80\_cel and DD92\_cel reaction was attributed to the nonspecific digesting behaviour of cellulase, which led the digestion of chitosan to be more complete. A similar result, although the

released reducing sugar was not as much, was observed from LMWC\_DD80\_chit, which could be due to the chitosan\_DD80 provided plenty of NAG cutting sites to chitinase, especially exochitinase.

LMWC is generally known to possess many specific biological functions, especially antibacterial functions, that are dependent on its size. Specifying an exact size range for LMWC, however, has proven difficult. Several researchers reported that the  $M_w$  of LMWC, created using only one kind of enzyme, can be managed by controlling hydrolysing time (Vishu Kumar, Varadaraj, Gowda, & Tharanathan, 2007). Apparently, this does not represent a very practical commercial method for producing a particular molecular size range of LMWC products. Our results suggest that creating a series of LMWC products with fairly continuous nominal  $M_w$  is

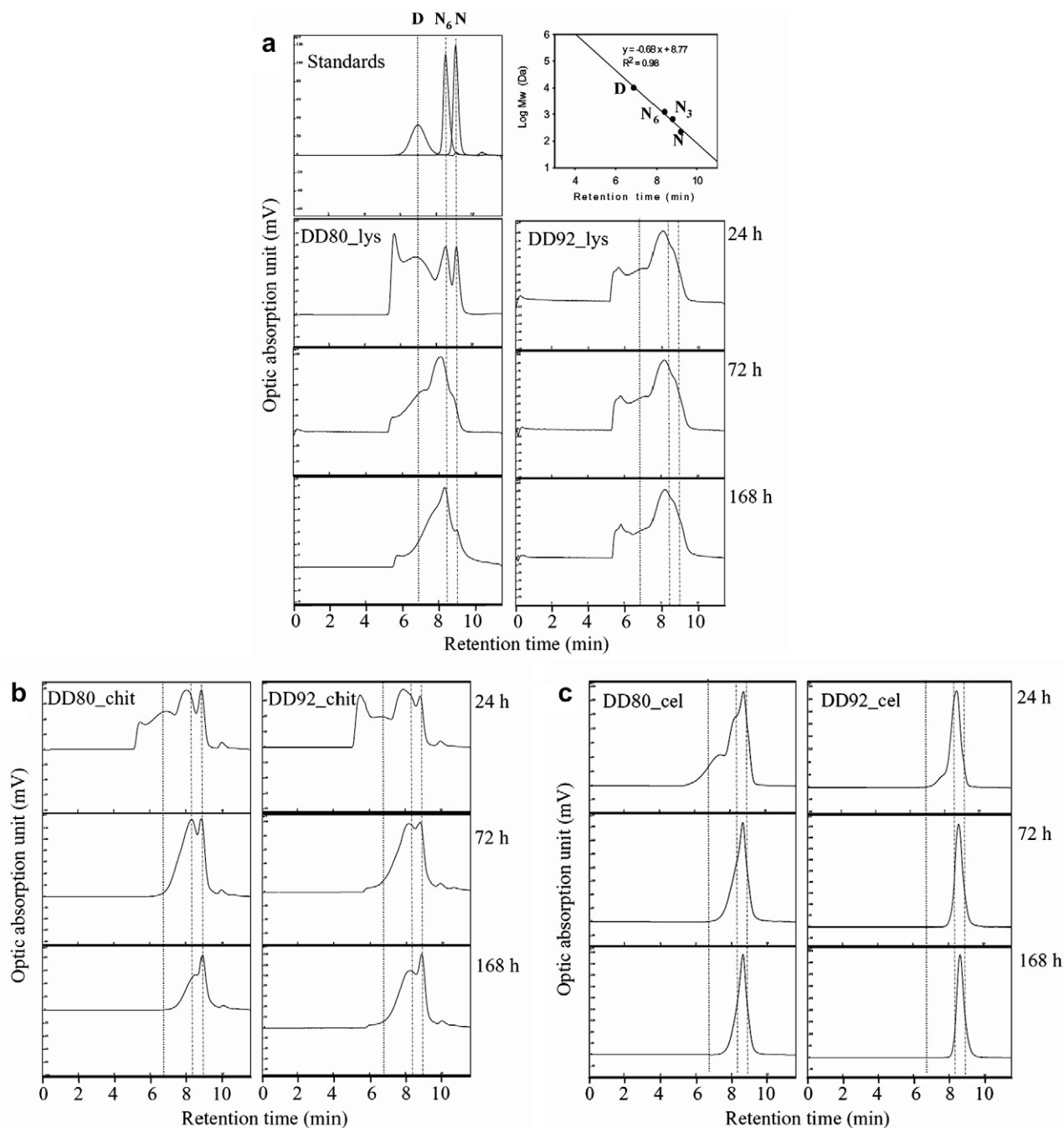


Fig. 2. SEC-HPLC profiles of standard marker, LMWC\_lys (A), LMWC\_chit (B), and LMWC\_cel (C), sampled at hydrolysing times of 24, 72, and 168 h. Standard markers: D, dextran (~10 kDa); N, NAG monomer; N<sub>6</sub>, NAG. hexamer.

possible by adjusting chitosan DD by associating it with a suitable target-specified enzyme.

LMWC products produced from different enzymes, even though they share a similar  $M_v$ , may have significantly different molecular size distribution. The  $M_w$  profiles of LMWCs were further analysed by SEC-HPLC and the results were shown in Fig. 2. A molecular weight standard curve (Fig. 2A) was constructed by plotting  $\log M_w$  of standards, NAG (221 Da), NAG<sub>3</sub> (627 Da), NAG<sub>6</sub> (1236 Da), and dextran (10 kDa), against retention time, which demonstrated a high linear relationship ( $r^2 = 0.98$ ). DD92\_lys exhibited the best stability in molecular size distribution, with largest molecule of ~50 kDa, from 24- to 168-h LMWC\_lys products (Fig. 2A). The DD80\_lys (Fig. 2B) and DD92\_chit (Fig. 2C) approached stability in 72 h, with  $M_w$  principally scattering between 1236 Da (NAG<sub>6</sub>) and 10 kDa (dextran). Besides, the major form of sugars continuously released during hydrolysing process was NAG for LMWC\_chit but (NAG)<sub>2-5</sub> for LMWC\_cel (Fig. 2C). Actually, many workers have observed similar results of releasing (NAG)<sub>2-5</sub> in the degradation of chitosan by cellulases obtained from various microbial sources, including *Bacillus cereus*, *Trichoderma viride*, *Streptomyces griseus*, etc. (Xia, Liu, & Liu, 2008). Chitosan\_DD92\_cel was almost converted into (NAG)<sub>2-5</sub> in 72 h and exhibited a better digestibility to cellulase than chitosan\_DD80, which can also explain the faster degradation of DD92\_cel than DD80\_cel found in Fig. 1A.

In this study, for each of the three enzymes, the same amount of chitinolytic activity unit (100 U/ml), defined with colloidal chitin as substrate, was applied in each hydrolysing reaction. However, cellulase displayed a stronger catalysing capability than lysozyme and chitinase, here indicating its nonspecific cutting behaviour instead of its high chitinolytic activity, and LMWC\_cel product profile almost centred at a peak close to (NAG)<sub>2-5</sub>, which was far off 10 kDa. In contrast, the profiles of LMWC\_chit and LMWC\_lys were distributed wider somewhere around dextran. The result suggested that to produce an LMWC\_cel product with the specified  $M_w$  by controlling hydrolysing time was not as easy, as compared with LMWC\_lys and, especially, LMWC\_chit.

The effective dose of chitosan for antibacterial activity is known to be influenced by DD, degree of polymerisation (DP), solubility and the microorganism species. Generally, higher DD and DP provide enhanced antibacterial efficacy. However, several studies on the relationship between effectiveness and  $M_w$  have made

widely conflicting statements, with one suggesting LMWC effective only at an  $M_w$  larger than 10 kDa and another reporting LMWC effective at  $M_w$  less than 1 kDa. Most Gram positive strains of bacteria (especially *S. aureus*) were found to be more resistant to chitosan than Gram negative strains (Chung et al., 2004) (e.g., *E. coli*). However, some studies disagree with this result (No, Young Park, Ho Lee, & Meyers, 2002). Such varying results may arise from one or more of the following: different enzymes used to produce LMWC; microorganism strains tested; and methods used to determine  $M_w$ , among others. To resolve these disputes, LMWC products with continuous  $M_v$  prepared with three catalytically different enzymes were used in antibacterial activity tests in this study. Table 1 shows *E. coli* to be much more susceptible to LMWC than *S. aureus* in each set of LMWC products. With regard to specific bacteria species, it has previously been demonstrated that Gram-negative bacteria are more susceptible to chitosan than Gram-positive bacteria due to the higher negatively-charged cell wall surface (Chung et al., 2004). These results help to explain different levels of sensitivity to LMWC between bacteria species found in this study, with *E. coli* (BCRC 10314) and *S. aureus* (BCRC 10780), respectively, the most and the least sensitive. As found in several similar studies, LMWC of higher DD (DD92) and larger  $M_w$  is more effective than LMWC of lower DD (DD80) and smaller  $M_w$ .

In this study, the two *E. coli* strains showed a more complete MIC spectrum to various LMWC, in comparison with the three tested *S. aureus* strains, and were used for follow-on tests to reveal the effects of  $M_v$ , substrate's DD, enzyme source, and solubility on LMWC antibacterial activity. The paired *t*-test result (data not shown) revealed a significant difference ( $p < 0.005$ ) between two *E. coli* strains, BCRC10314 and BCRC10675, in their sensitivity to the corresponding LMWC samples. In order to inspect the effect of  $M_v$  on MIC value, a continuous  $\log M_v$  spectrum, constructed by using LMWC\_chit and LMWC\_lys, was plotted against both *E. coli* strains; here DD and enzyme effects were ignored. The result (Fig. 3) revealed LMWC was more effective against BCRC 10314 and with a higher relationship ( $r^2 = 0.77$ ) between its  $\log M_v$  and the resulting MIC than to BCRC 10675 ( $r^2 = 0.54$ ). The imperfect relationship may arise from the unique property of LMWC product directed by the specified substrate's DD and enzyme.

To realise the effects of  $M_v$ , substrate's DD, and enzyme source on LMWC's antibacterial activity, multiple regression analysis was performed against MIC toward two *E. coli* strains separately.

**Table 1**

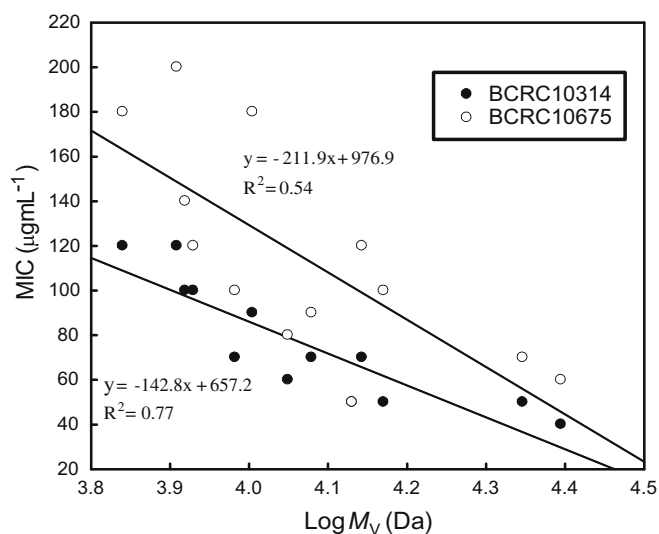
The MIC values of two *E. coli* strains and three *S. aureus* strains as compared against LMWC prepared from two chitosan DDs (80% and 92%) in an enzymatic process using chitinase (Chit), cellulase (Cel), and lysozyme (Lys). LMWC products were collected at several different points in time.

DD	Enzyme	Processing time (h)	$M_v$ (kDa)	Solubility (g L <sup>-1</sup> )	<i>E. coli</i> <sup>A</sup> (BCRC 10314)	<i>E. coli</i> (BCRC 10675)	<i>S. aureus</i> (BCRC 10451)	<i>S. aureus</i> (BCRC 10780)	<i>S. aureus</i> (BCRC 10781)		
92%	Initial	0	323.7								
		Chit	24	13.5	1.54	50 ± 0.0 <sup>a</sup>	50 ± 0.0 <sup>a</sup>	480 ± 178.9 <sup>ae</sup>	1600 ± 0.0 <sup>a</sup>	800 ± 0.0 <sup>a</sup>	
			72	11.2	1.86	60 ± 11.2 <sup>b</sup>	80 ± 13.7 <sup>be</sup>	1120 ± 219.1 <sup>b</sup>	NI	1520 ± 178.9 <sup>b</sup>	
	168	Chit	24	8.5	5.39	100 ± 0.0 <sup>c</sup>	120 ± 22.4 <sup>c</sup>	NI	NI	NI	
			72	6.9	7.73	120 ± 22.4 <sup>d</sup>	180 ± 22.4 <sup>d</sup>	NI	NI	NI	
		Cel	24	<6	>10.0	NI <sup>B</sup>	NI	NI	NI	NI	
	Lys	24	24.8	0.16	40 ± 13.7 <sup>a</sup>	60 ± 11.2 <sup>e</sup>	ND <sup>C</sup>	NI	ND		
		72	22.2	0.79	50 ± 0.0 <sup>a</sup>	70 ± 13.7 <sup>ef</sup>	800 ± 0.0 <sup>c</sup>	NI	880 ± 178.9 <sup>a</sup>		
		168	12.0	1.70	70 ± 13.7 <sup>be</sup>	90 ± 11.2 <sup>f</sup>	NI	NI	NI		
	80%	Initial		371.5							
			Chit	24	9.6	3.35	70 ± 13.7 <sup>be</sup>	100 ± 0.0 <sup>e</sup>	880 ± 178.9 <sup>c</sup>	NI	NI
				72	8.3	5.48	100 ± 0.0 <sup>c</sup>	140 ± 27.4 <sup>cd</sup>	1600 ± 0.0 <sup>d</sup>	NI	NI
168		Chit	24	<6	>10.0	NI	NI	NI	NI	NI	
			72	8.1	6.23	120 ± 22.4 <sup>d</sup>	200 ± 0.0 <sup>b</sup>	NI	NI	NI	
		Cel	24	<6	>10.0	NI	NI	NI	NI	NI	
Lys		24	14.8	0.83	50 ± 0.0 <sup>a</sup>	100 ± 0.0 <sup>e</sup>	400 ± 0.0 <sup>e</sup>	800 ± 0.0 <sup>b</sup>	720 ± 178.9 <sup>a</sup>		
		72	13.9	1.20	70 ± 13.7 <sup>be</sup>	120 ± 22.4 <sup>c</sup>	880 ± 178.9 <sup>c</sup>	1040 ± 219.1 <sup>c</sup>	880 ± 178.9 <sup>a</sup>		
		168	10.1	2.80	90 ± 11.2 <sup>e</sup>	180 ± 22.4 <sup>d</sup>	NI	NI	NI		

<sup>A</sup> MIC (μg ml<sup>-1</sup>). Values are mean ± standard deviation. Means in the same column followed by different letters are significantly different ( $p < 0.05$ ).

<sup>B</sup> NI: No inhibition, MIC > 1600 μg ml<sup>-1</sup>

<sup>C</sup> ND: Not determined owing to low solubility.



**Fig. 3.** The relationship between  $\log M_V$  and the MIC of LMWC against two *E. coli* strains, BCRC10314 and BCRC10675.

Cellulase was excluded in this test because of only limited MIC data available. According to the statistical result (Table 2), the influence of substrate's DD on LMWC's antibacterial activity, exhibited as the standardised partial regression coefficient (b), could be ignored against BCRC10314 strain ( $b = 0.06$ ,  $p = 0.54$ ) and BCRC10675 ( $b = 0.15$ ,  $p = 0.1$ ). Furthermore, the influence of enzyme source on MIC of LMWC against both strains ( $b = 0.25$ ,  $p = 0.03$  and  $0.48$ ,  $P = 0.01$ , respectively) was found significant but not as strong as  $M_V$ , which showed a much higher regression coefficient to MIC against both *E. coli* strains ( $b = -0.83$  and  $-0.85$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). Although chitinase and lysozyme share similar chitinolytic behaviour, regarding antibacterial properties, the result showed unignorable differences between them in producing LMWC. LMWC\_chit may have better homogeneous properties than LMWC\_lys because the NAG residues flanked on the reducing ends are more likely to be removed by exo-chitinase instead of lysozyme. This may be partially explained by performing Pearson correlation analysis between  $\log M_V$  and the resulted MIC value according to the enzyme source. The results in Table 3 demonstrated a significant correlation existed between the  $\log M_V$  and MIC against BCRC 10314 and BCRC 10675, where LMWC-chit ( $-0.77$ ,  $-0.72$ ) could be better predicted than LMWC\_lys ( $-0.63$ ,  $-0.60$ ).

Good chitosan solubility is of the greatest concern, as low solubility limits applicability of this product in the food sector. Partially hydrolysed chitosan was found to have a better antibacterial efficacy than chitosan submitted to extended hydrolysis (Uchida, Izume, Ohtakara, Uchida, Izume, & Ohtakara, 1989), although it is less soluble at neutral pH. Actually, it has been established that enzymatically-hydrolysed chitosan with a  $M_V$  between 5 and

**Table 2**  
Multiple regression analysis for the factors in preparing LMWC, including  $M_V$ , enzyme source, and chitosan's DD, against the resultant MIC toward two tested *E. coli* strains.

Strain	Standardized partial regression coefficients (b)			
	$\log M_V$	Enzyme	DD	Multiple $r^{2b}$
BCRC10314	$-0.83$ ( $p < 0.001$ ) <sup>a</sup>	$0.25$ ( $p = 0.03$ )	$0.06$ ( $p = 0.54$ )	$0.650$ ( $p < 0.001$ )
BCRC10675	$0.85$ ( $p < 0.001$ )	$0.48$ ( $p < 0.01$ )	$0.15$ ( $p = 0.1$ )	$0.606$ ( $p < 0.001$ )

<sup>a</sup> Significance level.

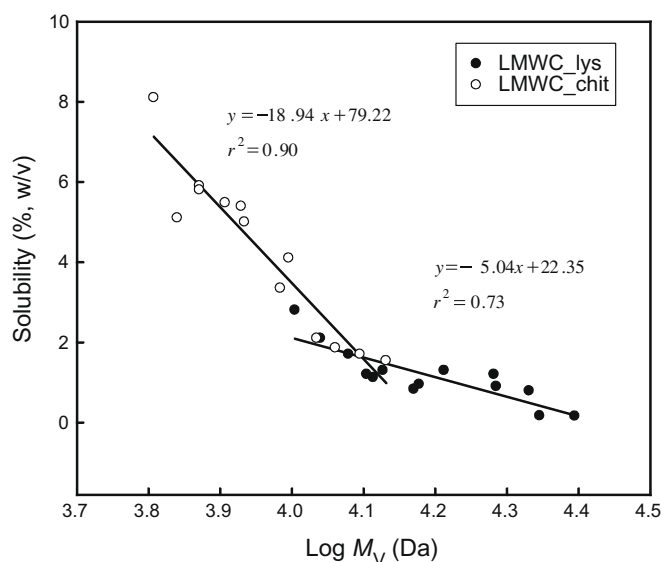
<sup>b</sup> Correlation coefficient.

**Table 3**

Pearson correlation analysis between  $\log M_V$  of LMWC, prepared from chitinase and lysozyme, and the resultant MIC.

	MIC	
	BCRC10314	BCRC10675
$\log M_V$		
LMWC_chit	$r_p^2 = -0.77$	$r_p^2 = -0.72$
LMWC_lys	$r_p^2 = -0.63$	$r_p^2 = -0.60$

$r_p^2$ , Pearson correlation coefficient ( $p < 0.001$ ).



**Fig. 4.** The relationship between the  $\log M_V$  and solubility of LMWC prepared using chitinase and lysozyme.

27 kDa demonstrates adequate antibacterial efficacy, due to improved solubility over its unaltered form (Gerasimenko et al., 2004). Furthermore, chitosan with an  $M_V$  greater than 30 kDa cannot be used as an antibacterial agent, due to poor solubility in aqueous solutions at a neutral pH (Sekiguchi et al., 1994). The data shown in Table 1 indicated similar results that  $M_V$  less than 6 kDa showed no antibacterial activity and  $M_V$  higher than  $\sim 25$  kDa had relatively low solubility. Fig. 4 shows that solubility decreased linearly with  $\log M_V$  for LMWC\_lys ( $r^2 = 0.73$ ), and, especially, for LMWC\_chit ( $r^2 = 0.90$ ). Also, at a similar  $M_V$ , LMWC\_chit showed better solubility as compared with LMWC\_lys. Such results may be attributed to the more uniform and higher DD of LMWC\_chit, which, may also enhance its antibacterial activity.

#### 4. Conclusion

The results reported here demonstrated that a broad and more complete  $M_V$  spectrum of LMWC can be obtained by coordinating these three enzymes, chitinase, lysozyme and cellulase, and chitosan substrate DDs. The LMWC prepared from chitosan\_DD92 has larger  $M_V$  and, therefore, possess higher antibacterial activity as compared to chitosan\_80. In this study, using chitosan\_DD92 as the example, the ideal enzyme to produce a given molecular size range of LMWC is suggested as: lysozyme:  $M_V > 12$  kDa, chitinase:  $M_V > 8.5$  kDa, and cellulase:  $M_V < 6.9$  kDa. According to obtained results, we can conclude that chitinase is more predictable and flexible to produce LMWC exhibiting a specified molecular weight. Besides, in various applications, chitinase is the better choice with which to produce LMWC if inhibition of Gram-negative bacteria

and high solubility represent primary concerns. Compared to chitinase, lysozyme-catalysed LMWC, with a higher range of  $M_v$ , is less soluble but more effective against both *E. coli* and *S. aureus*. Therefore, lysozyme may be considered first if low MIC or Gram-positive bacteria inhibition represent primary concerns. Cellulase-catalysed chitosan hydrolysate, although highly soluble, lost its antibacterial activity due to extensive hydrolysis. With improved understanding regarding the strong relationships between chitosan biofunctionalities and its molecular weight and acetylation degree, the technique proposed in this paper should provide more flexible utilisation of chitosan as a biomaterial.

## References

- Aiba, S.-I. (1994). Preparation of N-acetylchitoooligosaccharides by hydrolysis of chitosan with chitinase followed by N-acetylation. *Carbohydrate Research*, 265, 323–328.
- Cheng, C. Y., & Li, Y. K. (2000). An *Aspergillus* chitinase with potential for large-scale preparation of chitosan oligosaccharides. *Biotechnology and Applied Biochemistry*, 32(Pt 3), 197–203.
- Chung, Y. C., Su, Y. P., Chen, C. C., Jia, G., Wang, H. L., Wu, J. C., & Lin, J. G. (2004). Relationship between antibacterial activity of chitosan and surface characteristics of cell wall. *Acta Pharmacologica Sinica*, 25, 932–936.
- Felse, P. A., & Panda, T. (2000). Submerged culture production of chitinase by *Trichoderma harzianum* in stirred tank bioreactors – The influence of agitator speed. *Biochemical Engineering Journal*, 4, 115–120.
- Gerasimenko, D. V., Avdienko, I. D., Bannikova, G. E., Zueva, O., & Varlamov, V. P. (2004). Antibacterial effects of water-soluble low-molecular-weight chitosans on different microorganisms. *Prikladnaia Biokhimiia i Mikrobiologiya*, 40, 301–306.
- Ilyina, A. V., Tikhonov, V. E., Albulov, A. I., & Varlamov, V. P. (2000). Enzymic preparation of acid-free-water-soluble chitosan. *Process Biochemistry*, 35, 563–568.
- Jeon, Y.-J., Park, P.-J., & Kim, S.-K. (2001). Antimicrobial effect of chitoooligosaccharides produced by bioreactor. *Carbohydrate Polymers*, 44, 71–76.
- Kasaai, M. R., Arul, J., & Charlet, G. (2000). Intrinsic viscosity –Molecular weight relationship for chitosan. *Journal of Polymer Science Part B: Polymer Physics*, 38, 2591–2598.
- Kim, S.-K., & Rajapakse, N. (2005). Enzymatic production and biological activities of chitosan oligosaccharides (COS): A review. *Carbohydrate Polymers*, 62, 357–368.
- Kittur, F. S., Kumar, A. B. V., Gowda, L. R., & Tharanathan, R. N. (2003). Chitosan analysis by a pectinase isozyme of *Aspergillus niger* – A non-specific activity. *Carbohydrate Polymers*, 53, 191–196.
- Kondo, Y., Nakatani, A., Hayashi, K., & Ito, M. (2000). Low molecular weight chitosan prevents the progression of low dose streptozotocin induced slowly progressive diabetes mellitus in mice. *Biological and Pharmaceutical Bulletin*, 23, 1458–1464.
- Kumari, A. A., & Panda, T. (1992). Studies on critical analysis of factors influencing improved production of protoplasts from *Trichoderma reesei* mycelium. *Enzyme and Microbial Technology*, 14, 241–248.
- Kurita, K., Kaji, Y., Mori, T., & Nishiyama, Y. (2000). Enzymatic degradation of  $\beta$ -chitin: Susceptibility and the influence of deacetylation. *Carbohydrate Polymers*, 42, 19–21.
- Liu, B. L., Kao, P. M., Tzeng, Y. M., & Feng, K. C. (2003). Production of chitinase from *Verticillium lecanii* F091 using submerged fermentation. *Enzyme and Microbial Technology*, 33, 410–415.
- Lorito, M., Hayes, C. K., Di Pietro, A., Woo, S. L., & Harman, G. E. (1994). Purification, characterization, and synergistic activity of a glucan 1,3-beta-glucosidase and an N-acetyl-beta-glucosaminidase from *Trichoderma harzianum*. *Phytopathology*, 84, 398–405.
- No, H. K., Young Park, N., Ho Lee, S., & Meyers, S. P. (2002). Antibacterial activity of chitosans and chitosan oligomers with different molecular weights. *International Journal of Food Microbiology*, 74, 65–72.
- Ogawa, K., Chrispinas, O. A., Yoshida, N., Inoue, J., & Kariya, K. (2001). Chitosanase, its manufacture, and manufacture of chito-oligosaccharides. In J.K.T. Koho (Ed.), (p. 0069975). JP.
- Park, P. J., Je, J. Y., Byun, H. G., Moon, S. H., & Kim, S. K. (2004). Antimicrobial activity of hetero-chitosans and their oligosaccharides with different molecular weights. *Journal of Microbiology and Biotechnology*, 14b, 317–323.
- Park, P. J., Kim, S. K., & Lee, H. K. (2002). Antimicrobial activity of chitoooligosaccharides on *Vibrio parahaemolyticus*. *Journal of Chitin and Chitosan*, 7, 225–230.
- Park, P. J., Lee, H. K., & Kim, S. K. (2004). Preparation of hetero-chitoooligosaccharides and their antimicrobial activity on *Vibrio parahaemolyticus*. *Journal of Microbiology and Biotechnology*, 14, 41–47.
- Richardson, S. C. W., Kolbe, H. V. J., & Duncan, R. (1999). Potential of low molecular mass chitosan as a DNA delivery system: Biocompatibility, body distribution and ability to complex and protect DNA. *International Journal of Pharmaceutics*, 178, 231–243.
- Sekiguchi, S., Miura, Y., Kaneko, H., Nishimura, S. I., Nishi, N., Iwase, M., & Tokura, S. (1994). Molecular weight dependency of antimicrobial activity by chitosan oligomers. In K. Nishinari & E. Doi (Eds.), *Food hydrocolloids: Structure, properties and functions* (pp. 71–76). New York: Plenum Press.
- Tharanathan, R. N., & Kittur, F. S. (2003). Chitin – The undisputed biomolecule of great potential. *Critical Reviews in Food Science and Nutrition*, 43, 61–87.
- Tsai, G.-J., Su, W.-H., Chen, H.-C., & Pan, C.-L. (2002). Antimicrobial activity of shrimp chitin and chitosan from different treatments and applications of fish preservation. *Fisheries Science*, 68, 170–177.
- Tsai, G. J., Zhang, S. L., & Shieh, P. L. (2004). Antimicrobial activity of a low-molecular-weight chitosan obtained from cellulase digestion of chitosan. *Journal of Food Protection*, 67, 396–398.
- Uchida, Y., Izume, M., Ohtakara, A., Uchida, Y., Izume, M., & Ohtakara, A. (1989). Preparation of chitosan oligomers with purified chitinase and its application. In G. Braek, T. Anthonsen, & P. Sandford (Eds.), *Chitin and chitosan: Sources, chemistry, biochemistry, physical properties and applications* (pp. 372–382). Barking, UK: Elsevier Applied Science.
- Vishu Kumar, A. B., Gowda, L. R., & Tharanathan, R. N. (2004). Non-specific depolymerization of chitosan by pronase and characterization of the resultant products. *European Journal of Biochemistry*, 271, 713–723.
- Vishu Kumar, A. B., Varadaraj, M. C., Gowda, L. R., & Tharanathan, R. N. (2007). Low molecular weight chitosans – Preparation with the aid of pronase, characterization and their bactericidal activity towards *Bacillus cereus* and *Escherichia coli*. *Biochimica et Biophysica Acta (BBA) – General Subjects*, 1770, 495–505.
- Vishu Kumar, A. B., Varadaraj, M. C., Lalitha, R. G., & Tharanathan, R. N. (2004). Low molecular weight chitosans: Preparation with the aid of papain and characterization. *Biochimica et Biophysica Acta (BBA) – General Subjects*, 1670, 137–146.
- Xia, W., Liu, P., & Liu, J. (2008). Advance in chitosan hydrolysis by non-specific cellulases. *Bioresource Technology*, 99, 6751–6762.