C-glucosidic ellagitannins and galloylated glucoses as potential functional food ingredients with anti-diabetic properties: a study of α -glucosidase and α -amylase inhibition

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1 Abstract

2 Diabetes mellitus is a metabolic disorder characterized by hyperglycemia, which can be 3 counteracted by inhibition of α -glucosidase and α -amylase, both involved in the carbohydrate 4 metabolism. Fourteen C-glucosidic ellagitannins and three galloylated glucoses were studied as 5 potential α -glucosidase and α -amylase inhibitors. Most of the compounds were found to be 6 moderate inhibitors of α -amylase, but potent inhibitors of α -glucosidase, showing low-micromolar 7 IC₅₀ values, far lower than that of the antidiabetic drug acarbose. This selectivity can be an 8 advantage for their possible application as functional food ingredients with anti-diabetic properties 9 because strong α-amylase inhibition generally causes undesired side effects. The best inhibitors 10 were selected for further studies. Intrinsic fluorescence measurements confirmed their high affinity 11 towards a-glucosidase, highlighting a static quenching mechanism. Circular dichroism 12 measurements and kinetics of inhibition indicated that the most active C-glucosidic ellagitannin 13 roburin D (**RobD**) is a competitive inhibitor, whereas α -pentagalloylglucose (α -PGG) acts as a 14 mixed-type inhibitor.

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- **Keywords:** Hydrolyzable tannins, hypoglycemic activity, α-glucosidase inhibition, α-amylase
- 23 inhibition, intrinsic fluorescence, inhibition kinetics

24 **1. Introduction**

25 Diabetes mellitus (DM) is a rapidly growing metabolic disorder characterized by insulin hormone 26 dysfunction, and as a result, by high blood glucose levels. Type 2 diabetes (non-insulin-dependent), 27 most frequent in adults, accounts for around 90% of all cases of diabetes. The glycemic control is 28 crucial in patients with DM disease; postprandial hyperglycemia may increase the risk of type 2 29 diabetes and subsequent complications, such as cardiovascular disease, nephropathy, neuropathy, 30 angiopathy and others (Zheng, Ley, & Hu, 2018). Furthermore, hyperglycemia increases the 31 production of reactive oxygen species, causing oxidative tissue damage (Fiorentino, Prioletta, Zuo, 32 & Folli, 2013). One of the strategies to manage the resulting hyperglycemia is the inhibition of 33 carbohydrate hydrolyzing enzymes, such as α -amylase and α -glucosidase, both involved in the 34 breakdown of dietary carbohydrates (Hakamata, Kurihara, Okuda, Nishio, & Oku, 2009). Acarbose, miglitol and voglibose are currently employed antidiabetic drugs based on carbohydrate structure, 35 able to inhibit both α -amylase and α -glucosidase, thus reducing carbohydrate hydrolysis and 36 37 consequently glucose absorption. Nevertheless, some undesired side effects, such as flatulence, 38 diarrhea, abdominal and liver disorders, have been reported for acarbose (Godbout & Chiasson, 39 2007) and similar drugs. Thus, the search for new α -glucosidase and/or α -amylase inhibitors with 40 minor or absent undesired effects is of great importance for DM management. In recent years, 41 natural products were found to be a promising source of α -glucosidase and/or α -amylase inhibitors 42 (Brown, Anderson, Racicot, Pilkenton, & Apostolidis, 2017), thus inspiring the synthesis of new potential antidiabetic agents. Among natural products, some polyphenols occurring in edible plants 43 44 show α -glucosidase inhibitory activity are attractive as hypoglycemic agents in consideration of 45 their antioxidant properties, which are able to reduce the oxidative damage associated with diabetes complications (Fiorentino et al., 2013). In this framework, some natural product analogues, namely 46 47 stilbenoid glycosides (Cardullo, Spatafora, Musso, Barresi, Condorelli, & Tringali, 2015), bisphenol neolignans (Pulvirenti, Muccilli, Cardullo, Spatafora, & Tringali, 2017), and rosmarinic acid amides 48

49 (Cardullo et al., 2019) were also evaluated as α -glucosidase inhibitors. Among plant polyphenols with antidiabetic properties, tanning raise considerable interest. This group of natural products 50 51 includes structurally complex plant phenolics that can reach high molecular masses, widely 52 distributed in higher plants, and found in almost all plant foods and beverages. Tannins have 53 attracted scientific interest for their promising biological properties, including antioxidant, 54 antimicrobial, antitumor and antidiabetic activity (Ajebli & Eddouks, 2019; Goncalves, Mateus, & de Freitas, 2011; Serrano, Puupponen-Pimia, Dauer, Aura, & Saura-Calixto, 2009). Considering 55 56 their structural features, tannins can be classified into three major groups: 1) condensed tannins, 2) 57 hydrolyzable tannins (mainly ellagitannins and gallotannins), and 3) phlorotannins (Quideau, 58 Deffieux, Douat-Casassus, & Pouysegu, 2011). In recent years, the α -glucosidase and/or α -amylase 59 inhibitory activity of ellagi- and gallotannins isolated from different sources have been reported 60 (Ma et al., 2015; Serrano et al., 2009). In this context, commercial tannin mixtures employed in 61 oenology have been recently examined, obtaining fractions enriched in hydrolyzable tannins with 62 high antioxidative capacity and/or α -glucosidase inhibitory activity (Cardullo, Muccilli, Saletti, Giovando, & Tringali, 2018; Muccilli, Cardullo, Spatafora, Cunsolo, & Tringali, 2017; Spinaci, 63 64 Bucci, Muccilli, Cardullo, Nerozzi, & Galeati, 2019; Spinaci et al., 2018). Tannins are also reported 65 as inhibitors of formation of advanced glycation end-products that contribute to the development 66 and progression of diabetes (Khangholi, Majid, Berwary, Ahmad & Aziz, 2016). All of these 67 findings highlight that tannins found in food and beverages may have a relevant role in the 68 prevention or treatment of DM pathologies, mostly considering their low or absent toxicity. They 69 could also be exploited as components of functional food ingredients with antidiabetic properties. 70 Nevertheless, the difficulty in obtaining tannin samples with satisfactory purity causes a scarcity of 71 systematic studies on the inhibitory properties of individual tannins towards enzymes involved in 72 glucose absorption. Moreover, the search of potential antidiabetic agents from natural sources is frequently limited to the evaluation of α -glucosidase inhibitory activity, since this enzyme 73

inhibition is part of an established protocol for diabetes therapy and corresponds to the assay most frequently employed in the preliminary steps of the search for new antidiabetic drugs. Thus, the present study is aimed at improving the understanding on the antidiabetic properties of pure *C*glucosidic ellagitannins and galloylated glucoses through a study of *in vitro* inhibitory effect both on α -glucosidase and α -amylase by using a combination of UV-Vis absorption, fluorescence, circular dichroism and enzyme kinetic analysis.

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81 **2. Materials and methods**

82 2.1. Samples and chemicals

83 Fourteen C-glucosidic ellagitannins, namely castalagin (CSG), vescalagin (VSG), castalin 84 (CSN), vescalin (VSN), vescalene (VSE), roburins A-E (RobA-RobE), grandinin (GRA), acutissimin A (AcuA), acutissimin B (AcuB), epiacutissimin B (EAcuB), and three galloylated 85 86 glucoses, namely β -glucogallin (β -GGa), β -pentagalloylglucose (β -PGG), α -pentagalloylglucose 87 (a-PGG), were either extracted and purified from natural sources or generated by chemical 88 (hemi)synthesis. CSG, VSG, RobA-RobE and GRA were extracted and purified from oak 89 heartwood according to previously described protocols (Quideau et al., 2004; Vilhelmova-Ilieva, 90 Jacquet, Quideau, & Galabov, 2014). CSN, VSN and VSE were generated through acidic 91 hydrolytic treatments of CSG and VSN (Quideau et al., 2005). AcuA, AcuB and EAcuB were 92 produced by hemisynthesis from VSG and either catechin or epicatechin as previously described 93 (Quideau et al., 2005; Quideau, Jourdes, Saucier, Glories, Pardon, & Baudry, 2003). β-GGa, β-94 **PGG** and **a-PGG** were produced by total synthesis according to previously described protocols 95 (Sylla, Pouysegu, Da Costa, Deffieux, Monti, & Quideau, 2015). The purity of each compound was 96 assessed by HPLC-UV; detailed data are reported in Supplementary material (Table S1). Quercetin, 97 α -glucosidase from Saccharomyces cerevisiae (EC 3.2.1.20, Type I, lyophilized powder, ≥ 10 98 units/mg protein; α -GLU), porcine pancreas α -amylase (EC 3.2.1.1, Type VI-B, > 5 units/mg solid; 99 α -AMY), *p*-nitrophenyl- α -D-glucopyranoside (*p*-NP- α -Glc), starch from potato, 3,5-dinitrosalicylic 100 acid (DNS), sodium potassium tartrate tetrahydrate, acarbose, NaH₂PO₄, Na₂HPO₄ 7 H₂O were 101 purchased from Sigma Aldrich. All the chemicals were of analytical purity or higher and distilled 102 water freshly filtered on 0.22 µm was employed in the experiments.

103 2.2. Measurements of α -glucosidase inhibition

104 The α -glucosidase inhibition assay was performed using the conditions previously reported 105 (Nunzio Cardullo et al., 2019). Briefly, in a 96-well microplate, the α-glucosidase solution (0.25 U/ml in 50 mM phosphate buffer, pH 6.8; 100 µl) was mixed with different aliquots (2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 106 107 15 µl) of tested compounds (stock solutions in methanol ranging from 1.2 mM to 0.6 mM). Then, 108 the substrate pNP- α -G (78 μ M; 100 μ l) was added and the microplate was incubated at 37 °C for 109 30 min under shaking. The reaction was stopped by adding 1 M Na₂CO₃ solution (10 μ l) and the 110 absorbance of pNP- α -G was measured at 405 nm with the Synergy H1 microplate reader (BioTek, 111 Bad Friedrichshall, Germany). Acarbose and guercetin were used as reference standards. The 112 assays were performed in triplicate with five different concentrations for each compound. The 113 amount of methanol used in the experiment did not affect the glucosidase inhibitory activity. The 114 inhibition percentage was calculated by the following equation:

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$$inhibition \% = \frac{(A_{control} - A_{sample})}{A_{control}} * 100$$
 (1)

where $A_{control}$ is the absorbance measured for the mixture enzyme/substrate (without tested compounds); A_{sample} is the absorbance measured in the same conditions and in the presence of the tested compounds. The concentration required to inhibit 50% activity of the enzyme (IC₅₀) was calculated by regression analysis.

120 2.4. Measurements of α -amylase inhibition

The inhibition assay with the α-amylase was performed with slight modifications of a
previously reported method (Ali, Houghton, & Soumyanath, 2006). A stock solution of starch

123 (0.5%) was prepared in 20 mM phosphate buffer (pH 6.9) containing 6.7 mM NaCl, the mixture was stirred at 90 °C for 20 min before use. In a typical experiment, the enzyme solution (6 U/ml in 124 125 20 mM phosphate buffer containing 6.7 mM NaCl; 300 µl) was incubated at 37 °C for 10 min with 126 different aliquots (10, 20, 40, 60, 100 µl) of the tested compounds (stock solutions were prepared in 127 water or methanol ranging from 1.2 mM to 0.6 mM). Then, the starch solution (300 µl) was added 128 in the test tubes and the mixtures were incubated at 37 °C for 15 min. The reaction was terminated 129 by the addition of 600 µl of colour reagent solution (96mM DNS with 30% sodium potassium 130 tartrate in 2N NaOH) and the mixtures were heated at 100 °C for 10 min. Each mixture was diluted 131 with water (2 ml) and the absorbance was measured at 540 nm with a Jasco V 750 UV-Vis spectrophotometer (Milan, Italy). For each compound, the assay was performed in triplicate at five 132 133 different concentrations, acarbose was used as a positive reference. The control, representing 100% enzyme activity, was carried out in the same fashion as for the other experiments, replacing the 134 135 aliquots of the tested compounds with buffer. The inhibition percentage was calculated by the 136 following equation:

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$$inhibition \% = \frac{(A_{control} - A_{sample})}{A_{control}} * 100$$
 (2)

138 The concentration required to inhibit 50% activity of the enzyme (IC_{50}) was calculated by 139 regression analysis.

140 2.5. Fluorescence spectra measurements

141 The fluorescence spectra of α -glucosidase and α -amylase were recorded on an Agilent Cary Eclipse 142 fluorescence spectrophotometer (Milan, Italy) in the range 300-450 nm, setting the excitation 143 wavelength at 295 nm. Both the slits of excitation and emission were 10 nm. For each tested 144 compound, the experiments (each in triplicate) were performed at 25, 30 and 37 °C; quercetin was 145 employed as a reference compound. The tested compounds did not show fluorescence when 146 irradiated at 295 nm. The concentration of starting solutions of the *C*-glucosidic ellagitannins and

147 galloylated glucoses were chosen on the basis of the IC₅₀ values. In a typical experiment, the α -148 glucosidase (0.5 µM in 0.1 M phosphate buffer containing 0.1 M NaCl, pH 6.8; 2 ml) or the α-149 amylase (8.0 µM; 2 ml) was titrated by successive additions of 5 or 10 µl of the tested compounds as follows: for **RobB** and **RobD** from 0 to 2.0 x 10^{-6} mol 1^{-1} (curves a \rightarrow q, Fig. 2A and 2B), for a-150 **PGG** from 0 to 3.6 x 10⁻⁶ mol l⁻¹ (curves $a \rightarrow z$, Fig. 2C), for **RobB** and **RobC** from 0 to 11.0 x 10⁻⁶ 151 mol I^{-1} (curves a \rightarrow h, Fig. 2D and 2E). The fluorescence spectrum was acquired 5 min after each 152 153 addition. The fluorescence measurements were elaborated according to the Stern-Volmer equation 154 (Peng, Zhang, Liao, & Gong, 2016):

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$$\frac{F_0}{F} = 1 + K_{sv}[Q] = 1 + K_q \tau_0[Q]$$
(3)

156 and equation (4) to have information on static quenching.

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$$\log \frac{F_0 - F}{F} = \log K_a + n \log[Q] \tag{4}$$

F₀ and F are the fluorescence intensities of enzyme before and after the addition of quencher, respectively; [Q] represents the concentration of quencher (quercetin, α -PGG, RobB, RobC, **RobD**); τ_0 is the average life of the fluorophore without quencher, generally valued about 10⁻⁸ s (Lakowicz, 2006); K_{SV} and K_q represent the quenching constant and the quenching rate constant, respectively, K_a the binding constant and *n* the number of binding sites.

163 2.6. CD spectra measurements

164 CD spectra were recorded on a Jasco J715 spectropolarimeter (Milan, Italy) equipped with a Peltier 165 temperature controller set at 37 °C, and using a 1.0 mm path length quartz cuvette. CD 166 measurements were performed in the range 190-250 nm, in the presence or absence of the tested 167 compounds. Briefly, in each experiment, the α -glucosidase (1 μ M in 100 mM phosphate buffer, pH 6.8; 250 µl) was titrated with aliquots (1 or 2 µl) of RobD (0.27 mM) or a-PGG (0.35 mM), thus 168 169 the concentration of tested compounds was increased from 0:1 to 4:1 for RobD and from 0:1 to 6:1 170 for α -PGG. The spectra were collected after each addition and corrected by subtraction of the blank 171 (100 mM phosphate buffer). CD spectra of **RobD** and *a*-PGG, at the highest concentration tested, were acquired under the same conditions. The changes of secondary structures of α -glucosidase were estimated with the DichroWeb program (Whitmore & Wallace, 2004, 2008).

174 2.6. Kinetics of α -glucosidase inhibition

The modes of inhibition of α -glucosidase by **RobB**, **RobD** and α -PGG were determined by 175 176 Lineweaver-Burk plots. The experiments to determine the Michaelis-Menten constant (K_m) and the 177 maximal velocity (v_{max}) were carried out in 96-well microplates (final volume 200 µl), employing a 178 fixed concentration of the enzyme (3.3 mM; 5 μ l) and increasing concentrations of pNP- α -G (0.15, 179 0.33, 0.50, 0.80, 1.00, 1.25, 1.50, and 2.00 mM in 50 mM phosphate buffer, pH 6.8) in the absence 180 or presence of the inhibitors. The experiments were carried out in triplicate. The mixtures were incubated at 37 °C and the optical density was read at 405 nm every 1 min for 30 min with the 181 182 Synergy H1 microplate reader. Optimal amounts of the tested compounds were chosen on the basis of the IC₅₀ values. 183

184 The inhibition constants were either obtained graphically from secondary plots or were calculated185 from the following equations:

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$$\nu = \frac{\nu_{max}S}{K_m \left(1 + \frac{1}{K_i}\right) + S}$$
(5)

187 for the competitive inhibitor **RobD**;

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$$v = \frac{v_{max}S}{K_m \left(1 + \frac{I}{K_i}\right) + S \left(1 + \frac{I}{K'_i}\right)}$$
(6)

189 for the mixed-type inhibitor α -PGG;

190 v is the initial velocity in the absence and presence of the inhibitor, S and I are the concentration of 191 substrate and inhibitor, respectively; v_{max} is the maximum velocity, K_m is the Michaelis-Menten 192 constant, K_i is the competitive inhibition constant, and K'_i is the uncompetitive inhibition constant. 193 The replot of slope and Y-intercept of reciprocal plots *versus* the inhibitor concentration gave a

- 175 The replot of slope and 1 intercept of recipioear plots versus the initiation concentration gave a
- 194 straight line, corresponding to K_i and K'_i values, respectively (Meiering et al., 2005).

All the data obtained were compared using Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). P values < 0.05 were
considered statistically significant.

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198 **3. Results and discussion**

199 3.1. α -Glucosidase and α -amylase inhibitory activity assay.

As mentioned in the Introduction, in many studies carried out searching for antidiabetic agents with 200 201 negligible side effects, hydrolyzable tannins from different natural sources were identified as a-202 glucosidase and/or α-amylase inhibitors. However, these reported data seldom referred to purified 203 tannins and the study of enzyme interaction or inhibition mechanism is rarely carried out. Thus, in 204 this work, fourteen ellagitannins (CSG, VSG, CSN, VSN, VSE, RobA-E, GRA, AcuA, AcuB, 205 **EAcuB**) and three galloylated glucoses (β -GGa, β -PGG, α -PGG) listed in Material and Methods, 206 the structures of which are displayed in Fig. 1, were examined for α -glucosidase and α -amylase 207 inhibition.

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Fig.1. Chemical structures of the *C*-glucosidic ellagitannins and galloylated glucoses tested herein. NB: the representation of the atropoisomerism of the nonahydroxytriphenoyl (NHTP) units of the ellagitannins is depicted throughout this Figure according to the structural revision recently reported

by Matsuo and co-workers for vescalagin (VSG) and castalagin (CSG) (Matsuo, Wakamatsu, Omar, & Tanaka, 2015; Richieu, Peixoto, Pouysegu,

213 Deffieux, & Quideau, 2017).

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All of these *C*-glucosidic ellagitannins and galloylated glucoses were subjected to *in vitro* enzymatic activity assays towards yeast α -glucosidase (α -GLU) and porcine pancreatic α -amylase (α -AMY), employing previously reported spectrophotometric methods (Ali et al., 2006; Cardullo et al., 2018). The inhibitory activity data for both α -GLU and α -AMY are reported in Table 1 as the concentration inhibiting 50% of the enzyme activity (IC₅₀, μ M); the antidiabetic drug acarbose and the natural flavonoid quercetin were used in the assays as reference standards.

220

Table 1

222 α -Glucosidase (α -GLU) and α -amylase (α -AM

223 inhibition activity of ellagitannins and galloylated

224 glucoses.

Acronym ^a	$IC_{50} \pm SD \ (\mu M)$	
	α-GLU	α-AMY
AcuA	5.7 ± 1.6	101.9 ± 18.7
AcuB	5.0 ± 1.5	166.5 ± 16.7
EAcuB	5.8 ± 1.0	248.0 ± 23.7
GRA	8.9 ± 1.8	412.3 ± 23.7
RobA	5.4 ± 0.9	36.2 ± 4.1
RobB	3.5 ± 0.2	15.6 ± 2.0
RobC	10.9 ± 1.6	8.7 ± 0.9
RobD	2.6 ± 0.2	88.5 ± 9.1
RobE	7.4 ± 2.1	97.9 ± 6.4
VSN	n. i. ^b	n. i. ^{<i>b</i>}
CSN	n. i. ^b	n. i. ^{<i>b</i>}
VSE	14.4 ± 0.8	84.7 ± 7.2
VSG	7.2 ± 2.3	89.7 ± 9.3
CSG	7.3 ± 1.6	100.9 ± 11.2
β-GGa	n. i. ^{<i>b</i>}	n. i. ^b
a-PGG	1.2 ± 0.3	32.9 ± 1.8
β-PGG	1.4 ± 0.2	17.2 ± 1.6
Que	16.4 ± 1.3	33.7 ± 1.6
Aca	260.5 ± 15.2	50.2 ± 4.2

^a A list of the compound names with their
acronyms is given in Materials and Methods
(Table S1)

228 ^{*b*} No inhibition observed up to 500 μ M

231 approximate range $1 - 10 \mu M$, lower than that of quercetin (16.4 μM), and proved to be far more 232 potent than acarbose (260.5 μ M). The observed inhibition of α -AMY is generally weaker, with only 233 four compounds showing IC₅₀ in the range $8.7 - 32.9 \mu$ M, all four being more active than quercetin 234 $(33.7 \ \mu\text{M})$ and acarbose $(50.2 \ \mu\text{M})$. This is paradoxically a positive result, because a strong 235 inhibition of α -AMY is generally associated with undesired side effects, and a correct therapeutic 236 approach should be based on a potent α -GLU inhibition associated with a moderate α -AMY 237 inhibition (Costamagna et al., 2016; Ranilla, Kwon, Apostolidis, & Shetty, 2010). Only three 238 compounds, namely VSN, CSN, and β -GGa showed no inhibition towards both enzymes up to 500 239 µM. Interestingly, these compounds have both lower molecular masses and a fewer number of 240 phenolic groups than all of the other compounds examined, except the olefinic **VSE**, closely related 241 to the benzylic alcohols VSN and CSN; this suggests that a more complex polyphenolic structure 242 would be associated with stronger inhibition, at least towards α -GLU. In particular, the effective α -243 GLU inhibitors **VSG** and **CSG** (IC₅₀ = 7.2, 7.3 μ M, respectively) differ from the inactive **VSN** and 244 CSN by the presence of a hexahydroxydiphenoyl unit at the 4-O- and 6-O-glucose positions. Apart 245 from that, looking at the structures of the compounds evaluated in this study, no obvious structure-246 activity relationship can be highlighted, except that the epimeric pentagalloylglucoses α -PGG and β -PGG, showing IC₅₀ values of 1.2 μ M and 1.4 μ M, are markedly more potent inhibitors of α -GLU 247 than all of the ellagitannins. IC₅₀ values in the low micromolar range $(2.6 - 10.9 \mu M)$ were obtained 248 249 for the complex flavano-ellagitannins AcuA, AcuB, and EAcuB, as well as for the dimeric C-250 glucosidic ellagitannins RobA, RobB, RobC and RobD, the latter being the most potent ellagitannin inhibiting α -GLU. Comparable IC₅₀ values towards α -GLU were obtained for the 251 252 epimeric couples AcuB/EAcuB (5.0/5.8 µM), VSG/CSG (7.2/7.3 µM) and GRA/RobE (8.9/7.4 μ M), but this is not confirmed for the epimers **RobA/RobD** (5.4/2.6 μ M), and **RobB/RobC** 253 254 (3.5/10.9 µM).

The large majority of the tested compounds strongly inhibited α -GLU with IC₅₀ values in the

255 The most effective inhibitors of α -AMY are **RobC**, **RobB**, α -PGG and β -PGG (IC₅₀ in the range $8.7 - 32.9 \mu$ M), whilst also being potent inhibitors of α -GLU. The ellagitannins AcuA, AcuB, 256 **EAcuB**, **GRA** and **CSG** are effective inhibitors of α -GLU, but they are only mild inhibitors of α -257 AMY (IC₅₀ in the range 100.9 – 412.3 µM). Analogously, **RobD**, **RobE**, **VSE**, and **VSG**, good or 258 259 very good inhibitors of α -GLU, are only moderate inhibitors of α -AMY (IC₅₀ in the range 84.7 – 260 89.7 µM). Based on these results, the ellagitannins **RobB** and **RobD**, as well as the pentagalloylated 261 glucose α -PGG, potent inhibitors of α -GLU, were selected for a deeper evaluation of the 262 interaction with this enzyme, based on intrinsic fluorescence measurements. Analogously, **RobB** and **RobC**, the most effective inhibitors of α -AMY, were evaluated for the interaction with this 263 264 enzyme. The pentagalloylated glucose β -PGG, epimer of α -PGG, was not included in this step because its inhibitory effect on both α -GLU and α -AMY is well documented, and our results are in 265 266 agreement with literature data (Gyemant et al., 2009; Toda, Kawabata, & Kasai, 2001).

267

268 *3.2. Fluorescence spectra measurements*

269 The interaction between the selected compounds and α -GLU or α -AMY was investigated by 270 fluorescence quenching experiments. In a protein, tryptophan (Trp) is the main amino acid able to 271 emit fluorescence. The interaction between the enzyme and the substrate modifies the 272 microenvironment of Trp residues, thus producing a decrease in fluorescence (Li, Gao, Shan, Bian, 273 & Zhao, 2009).

274 More specifically, α -GLU displays an intrinsic fluorescence emission peak near 340 nm when 275 excited at 295 nm; analogously, α -AMY shows an emission peak at near 345 nm when excited at 276 295 nm. In Figures 2A-C the fluorescence spectra of α -GLU in presence of increasing 277 concentrations of **RobB**, **RobD** and α -PGG, respectively, are reported, whereas Figures 2D and 2E 278 show the spectra of α -AMY in presence of increasing concentrations of **RobB** or **RobC**.





280Fig. 2. Fluorescence spectra of α-GLU in the presence of different concentrations of: A) RobB, B)281RobD, C) α -PGG. Fluorescence spectra of α-AMY in the presence of different concentrations of :282D) RobB, E) RobC.

In all the experiments, the fluorescence intensity of both α -GLU and α -AMY was progressively lowered by adding increasing amounts of the tested compounds, thus giving direct evidence of the interaction between these molecules and the enzyme. The experiments were performed at three different temperatures, namely at 25, 30 and 37 °C (See Figure S1 in Supplementary material for experiments carried out at 30 and 37 °C), in order to have some information on the mechanism of quenching. Fluorescence quenching occurs mainly through a static or dynamic mechanism: the

former implies the formation of a non-fluorescent complex, whereas the latter occurs through 290 291 energy-transfer collisional processes causing the fluorescence quenching (Eftink & Ghiron, 1981). 292 The static mechanism is characterized by a lowering of quenching constant values (K_{sv}) with 293 increasing temperatures because the non-fluorescent complex formation is progressively reduced. Furthermore, in these processes, the rate constant K_q is much higher than 2.0 x 10¹⁰ l mol⁻¹ s⁻¹ (Li, 294 295 Zhou, Gao, Bian, & Shan, 2009). Conversely, in dynamic quenching a temperature increase causes 296 an increasing number of collisions with the consequent raising of K_{SV} values, and K_q is lower than $2.0 \ge 10^{10} \ 1 \ \text{mol}^{-1} \ \text{s}^{-1}$. 297

298 The K_{SV} and K_q values for **RobB**, **RobC**, **RobD** and **\alpha-PGG** were achieved by linear plots of the Stern-Volmer equation (eq. 3), reporting F_0/F vs [Q]. In Table 2, the K_{sv} and K_q values obtained by 299 300 plotting F_0/F vs [Q] are reported. As it is evident from these data, for all the tested compounds, the $K_{\rm sv}$ values decrease with increasing temperature (25, 30 and 37 °C), and the resulting $K_{\rm q}$ values are 301 three order of magnitude greater than 2.0 x 10^{10} , strongly indicating that fluorescence quenching 302 occurs by static mechanism (Peng et al., 2016). In Table 2, we also report the K_{sv} and K_q values 303 304 obtained for the interaction of quercetin (Que) with α -GLU or α -AMY; these data are in perfect 305 agreement with those previously reported in analogous experiments by other authors (Li et al., 306 2009; Li et al., 2009).

307 Further parameters useful to study enzyme-tannin interactions, namely the binding constant (K_a) 308 and the number of binding sites per enzyme molecule (n) were obtained using eq. (4) and are reported in Table 2. It is evident that K_a values are inversely correlated with the temperature, in 309 310 accordance with the variation of K_{SV} , and this corroborates the above assumption of a static quenching mechanism. Moreover, the K_a values determined for α -GLU were in the order of $10^5 l$ 311 mol⁻¹ for **RobB** and **RobD** and even 10^6 1 mol⁻¹ for **\alpha-PGG**, suggesting a higher affinity between 312 313 this pentagalloyglucose and α -GLU, in accordance with a lower IC₅₀ value (1.2 μ M) in respect to 314 those obtained for the ellagitannins **RobB** (3.5 μ M) and **RobD** (2.6 μ M). The K_a values obtained for 315 the interaction of **RobB** and **RobC** with α -AMY were respectively in the order of magnitude 10⁴

316	and 10 ⁵ 1 mol ⁻¹ , suggesting the strongest affinity of RobC with the enzyme; also these data are in
317	agreement with the observed IC_{50} values of roburins (Table 1). Furthermore, the number of binding
318	sites n was close to 1 for all the tested compounds, indicating that, in our experiments, fluorophore
319	and quencher can form a one-to-one complex, excluding a possible interaction by cooperativity
320	(Lissi, Calderon, & Campos, 2013).

322 **Table 2**

323 Quenching constants K_{SV} , quenching rate constants K_q and binding constants K_a of the interaction of 324 **RobB**, **RobC**, **RobD** and *a*-**PGG** with the proper enzyme.

molecule	T (°C)	$K_{\rm SV}$ (x 10 ⁵ 1 mol ⁻¹)	$K_{\rm q} ({\rm x10^{13}1mol^{-1}})$	\mathbb{R}^2	$K_{\rm a}({\rm x10^5lmol^{-1}})$	n	\mathbf{R}^2
α-glucosidase							
	25	0.97 ± 0.01	0.97 ± 0.01	0.996	1.98 ± 0.01	0.99	0.994
Que	30	0.92 ± 0.01	0.92 ± 0.01	0.993	1.55 ± 0.03	1.03	0.995
	37	0.91 ± 0.01	0.91 ± 0.01	0.996	1.33 ± 0.02	1.06	0.992
	25	6.52 ± 0.03	6.52 ± 0.03	0.995	9.18 ± 0.04	0.87	0.997
RobB	30	5.78 ± 0.02	5.78 ± 0.02	0.995	6.48 ± 0.07	1.00	0.992
	37	5.41 ± 0.02	5.41 ± 0.02	0.998	1.26 ± 0.02	1.04	0.999
	25	4.15 ± 0.01	4.15 ± 0.01	0.998	9.55 ± 0.07	0.91	0.998
RobD	30	4.00 ± 0.03	4.00 ± 0.03	0.998	2.34 ± 0.05	0.95	0.997
	37	3.92 ± 0.02	3.92 ± 0.02	0.997	1.27 ± 0.03	1.06	0.993
	25	9.80 ± 0.04	9.80 ± 0.04	0.995	87.47 ± 0.12	1.09	0.996
α-PGG	30	9.52 ± 0.02	9.52 ± 0.02	0.990	50.11 ± 0.16	1.10	0.994
	37	8.84 ± 0.03	8.84 ± 0.03	0.998	27.33 ± 0.08	1.12	0.996
α-amylase							
	25	0.46 ± 0.01	0.46 ± 0.01	0.999	1.38 ± 0.05	0.98	0.996
Que	30	0.39 ± 0.02	0.39 ± 0.02	0.994	1.24 ± 0.03	0.99	0.992
	37	0.35 ± 0.03	0.35 ± 0.04	0.999	1.15 ± 0.03	1.08	0.997
	25	0.41 ± 0.02	0.41 ± 0.03	0.994	0.66 ± 0.02	0.99	0.996
RobB	30	0.36 ± 0.01	0.36 ± 0.02	0.991	0.59 ± 0.01	1.00	0.998
	37	0.18 ± 0.01	0.18 ± 0.02	0.995	0.41 ± 0.02	1.10	0.999
	25	1.15 ± 0.01	1.15 ± 0.01	0.998	2.25 ± 0.02	0.91	0.995
RobC	30	1.10 ± 0.03	1.10 ± 0.02	0.994	133 ± 0.02	1.05	0.997
	37	1.10 - 0.05	$1.10 \div 0.02$	0.997	1.55 - 0.02	1.08	0.998

		0.98 ± 0.01	0.98 ± 0.02	1.02 ± 0.03	
325					
326					
327					
328					
329					
330	3.3. CD spectra me	asurements			

331 Circular dichroism (CD) spectroscopy is mostly used to provide information on the secondary 332 structure of proteins in solution and, more specifically, in monitoring conformational changes of a 333 given protein in the presence of a ligand (Allahdad, Varidi, Zadmard, & Saboury, 2018; Kayukawa, 334 de Oliveira, Kaspchak, Sanchuki, Igarashi-Mafra, & Mafra, 2019). Thus, to achieve further 335 confirmation of the interaction of selected tannins with α -GLU, we carried out CD measurements of 336 this enzyme in the absence and presence of different aliquots of **RobD** and *a*-PGG, the compounds 337 showing the higher inhibitory activity towards this enzyme. This step of the study was not extended 338 to α-AMY, considering that both C-glucosidic ellagitannins and galloylated glucoses showed lower 339 inhibitory activity and weaker affinity for this enzyme. 340 CD Spectra of α-GLU in the presence of **RobD** or α-PGG were acquired in the range 195-250 nm

and are reported respectively in Figures 3A and 3B.





343 Fig.3.

344	CD spectra of α -glucosidase (c = 1 x 10 ⁻⁶ mol l ⁻¹)
345	in the presence of increasing amounts of: A)
346	RobD , B) α-PGG . Dashed black line corresponds
347	to the algebraic sum of the individual spectra.
348	Insets: spectra of the α -GLU (blue line) and Rob
349	D / α-PGG alone (black line).

350

The CD spectrum of α -GLU shows two negative bands around 210 and 222 nm, attributable to n $\rightarrow \pi^*$ transition for the peptide bond of α -helix structures, in agreement with previously reported findings (Peng et al., 2016). The CD spectra of **RobD** and α -PGG in the absence of α -GLU at the highest concentration tested were acquired as well (Figure 3, insets). As shown in Figure 3, the intensity of both bands observed in the spectrum of α -GLU decreases by addition of increasing amounts of **RobD** or α -PGG, indicating the loss of part of the α -helix structures. This variation in 357 the secondary structure of the α -GLU could originate from the interaction with **RobD** or α -PGG. 358 The CD spectra obtained by titration of the enzyme with increasing amount of ligand show a 359 marked change in spectroscopic signals compared with the theoretical spectra of α -GLU and **Rob** 360 **D**/ α -PGG at the highest concentration tested (Figure 3, dashed black lines), thus suggesting that an 361 enzyme-ligand interaction has occurred.

362 CD data were further analysed by the DichroWeb program in order to quantify changes in the secondary structure. According to these data (reported in Table S2 in Supplementary material), the 363 364 interaction between the α -GLU and **RobD** caused a decrease of α -helix content (from 30% to 26%) at the highest concentration of inhibitor tested). Analogously, the α -helix content for α -GLU 365 gradually decreased with increasing amounts of *a*-PGG (from 30% to 20% at the highest 366 367 concentration of inhibitor tested). These findings further support the data obtained by fluorescence measurements. The decrease in α -helix induced by **RobD** and α -PGG is in agreement with the 368 369 same behaviour previously observed for the interaction of other tannin-related compounds with α -370 glucosidase (Ma et al., 2015).

371

372 3.4. Kinetics of α -glucosidase inhibition

As a final step of this research, the kinetic of α -GLU inhibition by **RobD** and α -PGG was studied 373 by means of UV spectroscopy and the mode of inhibition was determined by plotting the reciprocal 374 375 of substrate concentration against the reciprocal of respective product formation rate, thus obtaining 376 the Lineweaver-Burk plots. The obtained values for the kinetic parameters are listed in Table S3 377 (Supplementary material). As shown in Figure 4A, the data lines of the Lineweaver–Burk plot obtained for **RobD** intersected the y-axes in the first quadrant, indicating that this C-glucosidic 378 ellagitannin acts as a competitive inhibitor. Increasing concentration of **RobD** unaffected the V_{max} 379 value (0.40 μ M min⁻¹), whereas it increased the $K_{\rm m}$ value (from 3.03 to 7.88 μ M), supporting the 380 381 finding that **RobD** inhibits the α -GLU activity competitively. Moreover, a dissociation constant (K_i) 382 value of 1.60 µM for the enzyme-inhibitor complex was determined from the slope replot of 383 Lineweaver–Burk lines *versus* the concentration of **RobD**. As reported in the inset of Figure 4A, the 384 data linearly fitted, suggesting a complete competitive inhibition and confirming that **RobD** bound 385 to the free α -GLU.

386 The data lines on the Lineweaver–Burk plot obtained for α-PGG intersected in the second quadrant, 387 indicating that this pentagalloylglucose acts as a mixed-type inhibitor (Figure 4B). The inhibition caused by α -PGG modified both V_{max} (from 0.15 to 0.08 μ M min⁻¹) and K_m (from 0.50 to 1.62 μ M) 388 389 values with increasing concentration of inhibitor (Table S3). From the Eq. (6), the dissociation 390 constants K_i , which is related with the formation of an enzyme-inhibitor complex (EI), and K'_i , 391 which is related with the interaction of inhibitor with the enzyme-substrate complex (IES), were 392 calculated. Furthermore, the replots of slope and Y-intercept versus a-PGG concentration (insets in 393 Figure 4B) were linearly fitted, suggesting for this inhibitor a complete and single inhibition site or 394 a single class of inhibition site on the enzyme (Peng et al., 2016), in agreement with the *n* value 395 obtained by fluorescence measurements. Finally, a K_i value of 0.52 µM and a K'_i value of 2.32 µM 396 were obtained, indicating that α -PGG was able to bind more easily to the free α -glucosidase rather 397 than the ES complex.



400 Fig. 4. Lineweaver-Burk plots of α -glucosidase inhibition at different concentrations of substrate 401 (pNP-a-G) of: A) RobD; B) a-PGG. The insets depict the secondary plots of slope and Y-intercept 402 vs inhibitors concentration.

403

404 4. Conclusions

In this work, we evaluated as inhibitors of yeast α -glucosidase and porcine pancreatic α -405 406 amylase fourteen C-glucosidic ellagitannins and three galloylated glucoses. Many compounds were potent inhibitors of α-GLU, showing IC₅₀ values less than 10 µM, far lower than that of the 407 408 antidiabetic drug acarbose (260.5 µM). Conversely, only four compounds significantly inhibited α409 AMY with IC₅₀ lower than those of quercetin or acarbose. Since a strong inhibition of α -AMY 410 generally causes undesired side effects, this could be an advantage for possible therapeutic applications. The ellagitannins **RobB** and **RobD**, as well as the galloylated glucose α -PGG, the 411 most potent α -GLU inhibitors and moderate to good inhibitors of α -AMY, were selected for a study 412 413 of the interaction with α -glucosidase, employing fluorescence quenching experiments. Analogously, 414 **RobB** and **RobC** were evaluated for the interaction with α -amylase. The fluorescence experiments 415 confirmed a strong interaction of these tannins with α -GLU; moreover, K_{sv} and K_q values were in 416 agreement with a static quenching mechanism. A similar behaviour was observed for α-AMY. More 417 specifically, the K_a values obtained for α -GLU suggested a higher affinity between α -PGG and the enzyme with respect to **RobB** and **RobD**, in agreement with IC_{50} values. Analogously, the K_a value 418 419 obtained for the interaction of **RobC** with α-AMY was higher than that obtained for **RobB**. Further 420 confirmation of the interaction with α-GLU was obtained through CD spectra measurements, 421 showing that the addition of inhibitors causes a progressive loss of α -helix portions in the structure of the enzyme. As a final step, the kinetics of α-GLU inhibition by **RobD** and α-PGG was studied 422 423 by means of UV spectroscopy. The results of Lineweaver-Burk plots pointed out that the 424 ellagitannin **RobD** is a competitive inhibitor, whereas the pentagalloylglucose **a-PGG** acts as a 425 mixed-type inhibitor.

426 Overall, the data obtained in this work show that both *C*-glucosidic ellagitannins and certain 427 galloylated glucopyranoses may have a relevant role in the prevention of Diabetes Mellitus and 428 suggest a possible development of their use as functional food ingredients with antidiabetic 429 properties.

430

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- 438

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