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SPECIALTY SECTION

This article was submitted to
Experimental Pharmacology and Drug
Discovery, a section of
the journal
Frontiers in Pharmacology

RECEIVED 16 September 2022

ACCEPTED 17 October 2022

PUBLISHED 04 November 2022

CITATION

Pradeep S, Prabhushwaminath SC,
Reddy P, Srinivasa SM, Shati AA,
Alfaifi MY, Eldin I. Elbehairi S, Achar RR,
Silina E, Stupin V, Manturova N,
Glossman-Mitnik D, Shivamallu C and
Kollur SP (2022), Anticholinesterase
activity of Areca Catechu: In Vitro and in
silico green synthesis approach in
search for therapeutic agents against
Alzheimer's disease.
Front. Pharmacol. 13:1044248.
doi: 10.3389/fphar.2022.1044248

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Shivamallu and Kollur. This is an open-
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Anticholinesterase activity of *Areca Catechu*: In Vitro and in silico green synthesis approach in search for therapeutic agents against Alzheimer's disease

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For many years, the primary focus has been on finding effective treatments for Alzheimer's disease (AD), which has led to the identification of promising therapeutic targets. The necessity for AD stage-dependent optimal settings necessitated a herbal therapy strategy. The plant species *Areca Catechu* L. (AC) was selected based on the traditional uses against CNS-related diseases. AC leaf extract were prepared using a Soxhlet extraction method and hydroxyapatite nanoparticles (HAp-NPs) were synthesized from the same (AC-HAp-NPs). Powder X-ray diffractometer (XRD), scanning electron microscopy (SEM), transmission electron microscopy (TEM), selected area electron diffraction (SAED) and fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) were used to confirm the structure and morphology of the as-prepared AC-HAp-NPs. The crystalline character of the AC-HAp-NPs was visible in the XRD pattern. The

Abbreviations: AD, Alzheimer's disease; AChE, Acetylcholinesterase; APP, Amyloid precursor protein; ATCI, Acetylthiocholine iodide; BChE, Butyrylcholinesterase; BSA, Bovine serum albumin; BTCl, Butyrylthiocholine iodide; CNS, Central nervous system; DTNB, 5, 5'-Dithio-bis-(2-nitrobenzoic acid); XRD, X-ray diffraction; SEM, scanning electron microscopy; TEM, transmission electron microscopy; SAED, selected area electron diffraction; FTIR, Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy; MDS, Molecular Dynamics Simulations; MD, Molecular Docking; RMSD, Root Mean Square Deviation; RMSF, Root Mean Square Fluctuation.

synthesized material was found to be nanoflake, with an average diameter of 15–20 nm, according to SEM analysis. The TEM and SAED pictures also revealed the form and size of AC-HAp-NPs. *In vitro* anti-acetylcholinesterase and butyrylcholinesterase (AChE and BChE) activities of hydroxyapatite nanoparticles produced from an AC leaf extract was tested in this study. When compared to control, AC-HAp-NPs had higher anti-AChE and BChE activity. The anti-acetylcholinesterase action of phytoconstituents generated from AC leaf extract was mediated by 4AQD and 4EY7, according to a mechanistic study conducted utilizing *in silico* research. The global and local descriptors, which are the underpinnings of Conceptual Density Functional Theory (CDFT), have been predicted through the MN12SX/Def2TZVP/H₂O model chemistry to help in the comprehension of the chemical reactivity properties of the five ligands considered in this study. The CDFT experiments are supplemented by the calculation of several useful calculated pharmacokinetics indices, their expected biological targets connected to the bioavailability of the five ligands in order to further the goal of studying their bioactivity.

KEYWORDS

Alzheimer's disease, anti-acetylcholinesterase and butyrylcholinesterase activity, neurofibrillary tangles, amyloid plaques, *Areca catechu* L., hydroxyapatite nanoparticles, molecular docking, Conceptual Density Functional Theory

1 Introduction

Alzheimer's disease (AD) is a devastating neurological disease characterized by memory loss and cognitive impairment, which are the two most frequent symptoms (Uddin et al., 2021). Due to the degeneration of cholinergic neurons in the basal forebrain, including senile plaques and neurofibrillary tangles, cognitive deficiency is consistent with the existence of cholinergic deficit in the neuropathological symptoms of Alzheimer's disease (Sushma et al., 2020). Acetylcholine (ACh), the brain's most essential natural neurotransmitter, is involved in memory formation, verbal and logical reasoning, and concentration. Both acetylcholinesterase (AChE) and butyrylcholinesterase (BChE) enzymes, on the other hand, significantly reduce ACh activity (Waring and Rosenberg, 2008). Inhibition of the cholinesterase enzymes (AChE and BChE) can ameliorate symptoms associated with the progressive loss of cholinergic function in AD by increasing ACh levels in various areas of the brain. Increased ACh concentration in the brain also promotes the expression of nicotinic ACh receptors linked to cognitive function, according to studies. This process could aid Alzheimer's patients in forming new memories and recalling old ones. As a result of this "cholinergic hypothesis," AChE and BChE inhibition has been recognized as the main therapeutic target (Atatreh et al., 2019).

Rather than targeting the etiological pathways, pharmacological treatment for AD focuses on treating symptoms and severity in advanced stages. The majority of the drugs now approved for AD are cholinesterase inhibitors, such as donepezil, rivastigmine, galantamine, and the NMDA

antagonist memantine (Kim, 2018). Only donepezil, one of the most regularly prescribed AChE inhibitors, has been authorized for the treatment of all stages of AD. However, this medication causes a number of serious adverse effects, including GIT abnormalities, liver difficulties and gastrointestinal disturbances (Nistor et al., 2007). Given these constraints, it is worthwhile to seek out new lead compounds from a variety of sources, including plant-derived natural products. Natural compounds have shown to be promising sources of AChE inhibitors. Galantamine and rivastigmine, two currently approved medications for AD, are plant-derived alkaloids that provide symptomatic relief (Mahley et al., 2006).

In this regard, drug discovery research has focused on the design and development of therapeutic agents based on the numerous mechanisms implicated in AD. Although the design and synthesis of selective ligands pointing to single disease targets has traditionally been the key method in drug discovery research, due to the multifactorial pathophysiology of many diseases such as AD, this strategy has not always been fruitful. In this context, phytotherapy, which uses a combination of ingredients to treat a variety of ailments, is a novel and effective therapeutic option (Kametani and Hasegawa, 2018). *Areca Catechu* L. is a member of the Arecaceae family that can be found throughout Asia, the tropical Pacific, and parts of India. The plant's leaves contains a variety of phytochemicals including as alkaloids, tannins, and polyphenols, and it has been shown to be effective in reducing the symptoms of AD (Martorana et al., 2010; Ferreira-Vieira et al., 2016). Our research aims to identify and compare possible candidates from the *A. catechu* seed for anticholinesterase activity in memory and cognitive function rejuvenation and improvement.

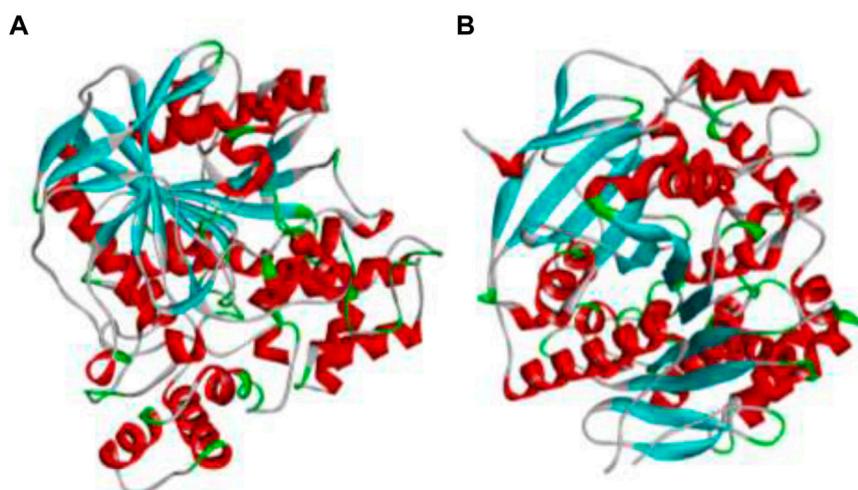


FIGURE 1
The 3D protein structures of (A) BChE (4AQD) and (B) AChE (4EY7) using Discovery Studio 3.1. visualization software.

The goal of *in-silico* molecular docking (MD) approaches is to anticipate a ligand's optimum binding mode to a macromolecular protein. It entails the creation of a variety of potential ligand conformations/orientations, or poses, within the protein binding site. Thus, a molecule target's 3-D structure through X-ray crystallography/NMR or through computational approach based homology modeling forms a pre-requisite for MD. The molecular docking method utilizes several scoring standards to obtain the confirmation and affinity of the compound with the selected target. The best-docked pose of protein-drug complexes is subjected to molecular dynamics simulation (MDS), which is a computational technique for simulating the dynamic behaviour of molecular systems as a function of time, with all entities in the simulation box (ligands, proteins, and any explicit fluids) treated as flexible. In addition, protein-ligand complexes formed during the MDS were assessed to determine the types of binding free energies, which are used for the complex formation. Considering the anti-neuronal efficacy of the phytochemicals from *A. catechu*, 25 major phytochemicals were assessed against the major proteins responsible for causing AD, using the computational experiments listed above.

2 Materials and methods

The study's entire chemical supply came from Loba Chemicals (Bangalore, India). Demineralized water was obtained using an ELGA RO system and used throughout the testing (Elga Veolia, Lane End, United Kingdom). Cu K (1.5406) radiation was used to record the crystalline phases using a Bruker X-ray diffractometer with a scan range of 20–70° and a scan rate of 2°/min (Bruker, Karlsruhe, Germany). The morphology and elemental composition of the samples, which were photographed using a Zeiss microscope,

were examined using SEM and EDX mapping (Carl Zeiss, White Plains, NY, United States). TEM images and SAED patterns were obtained on a JEOL 2100F FEG apparatus operating at 200 kV after casting a drop of sample material for dispersion in ethanol on a Cu grid (JEOL, Akishima, Tokyo, Japan).

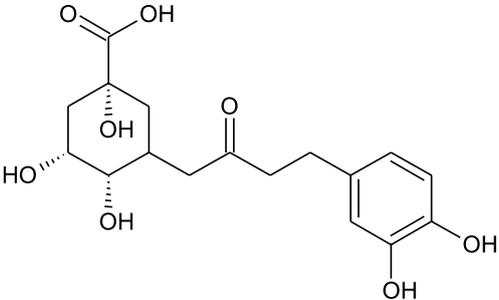
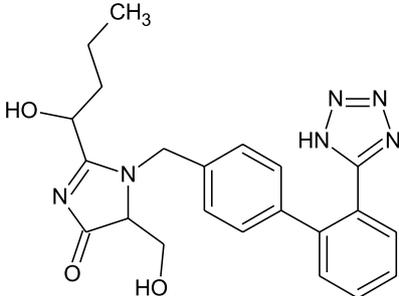
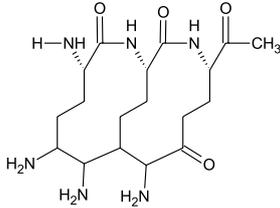
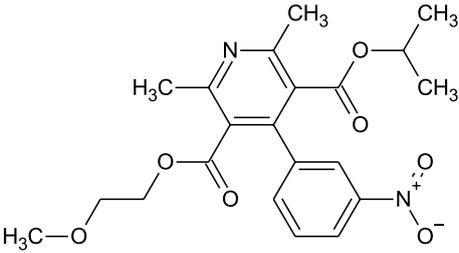
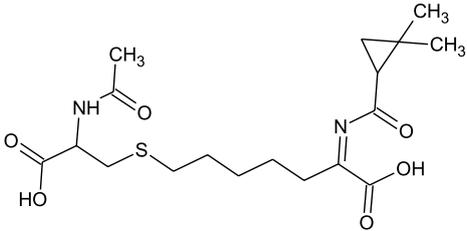
2.1 Plant material collection

Dr Shivlingaih performed the unambiguous authentication of the specimen that was then deposited in the herbarium with the voucher specimen number AC126 in the Department of Biotechnology and Bioinformatics, JSS AHER, Mysore, Karnataka, India. The *Areca Catechu* L. leaves material available in the university was collected and was further subjected to sterilization. To get rid of microscopic organisms and other dust particles, the leaves were first washed in single distilled water and 0.5% sodium hypochlorite solution, then in double distilled water. They were then shade dried for 45 days at room temperature (28.5°C). The dry components were then ground into a fine powder using a blender (Kollur et al., 2021).

2.2 Extraction of plant material and determination of phytochemicals

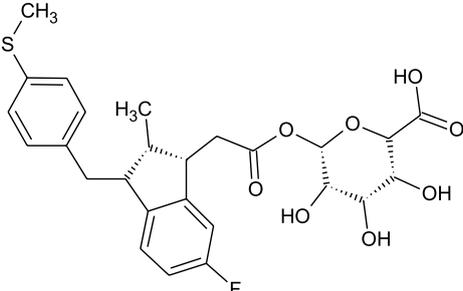
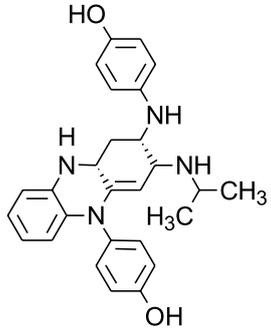
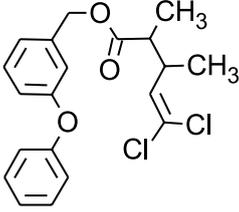
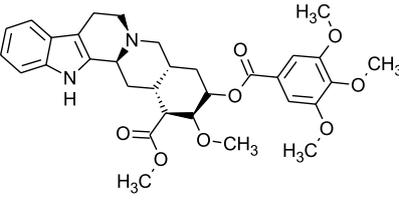
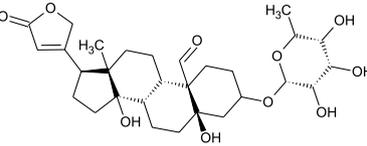
The Soxhlet apparatus was used to extract the powdered sample. 80 g of sample was placed in a thimble and extracted for 8 h with methanol as the solvent (24 cycles). The extracted materials were air-dried and kept at 4°C. It was also subjected to phytochemical analysis, both qualitative and quantitative, to determine the presence of different phytochemicals in the leaf

TABLE 1 Representing the 2D images of all the 25 ligands and their binding energy details against 4AQD and 4EY7 proteins.

Ligand no	Compound/molecule name	Binding energy (kcal/mol)		Structure
		4AQD	4EY7	
1	Chlorogenic acid	-7.2	-9.6	
2	Lorartan Metabolite	-7.9	-11.3	
3	Gln Gln Gln	-6.7	-8.6	
4	Dehydronimodipine	-10.1	-11.7	
5	N-Acetylcilartatin	-6.7	-8.6	

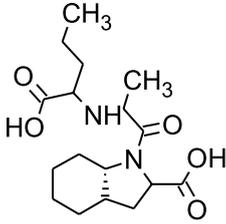
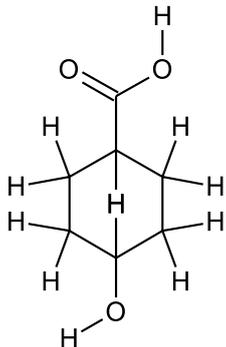
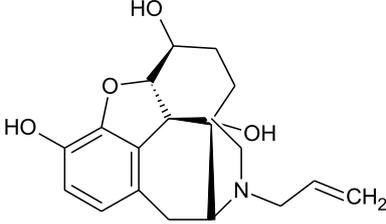
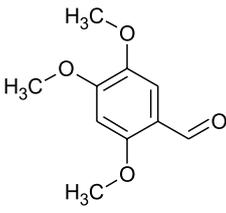
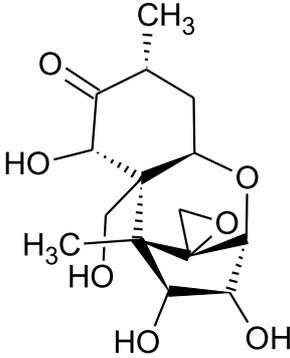
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TABLE 1 (Continued) Representing the 2D images of all the 25 ligands and their binding energy details against 4AQD and 4EY7 proteins.

Ligand no	Compound/molecule name	Binding energy (kcal/mol)		Structure
		4AQD	4EY7	
6	Sulindac sulfide glucuronide	-1.1	-1.1	
7	Clofazimine	-8.4	-7.6	
8	Permethrin	-6.8	-10.4	
9	Deserpidine	-9.4	-10.7	
10	Convallatoxin	-8.4	-7.0	

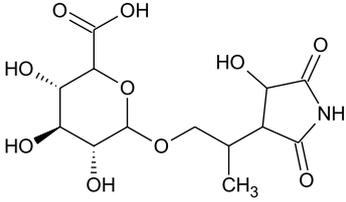
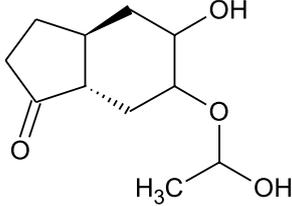
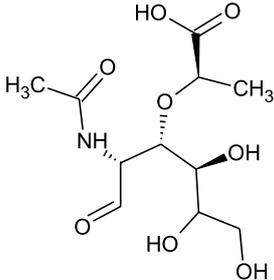
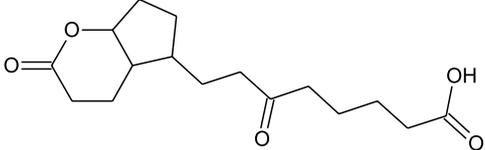
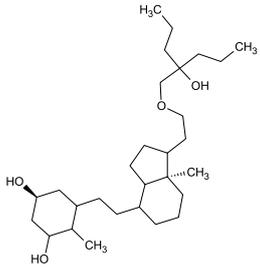
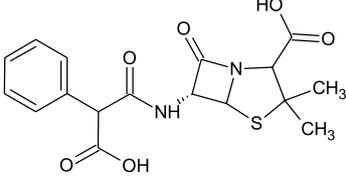
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TABLE 1 (Continued) Representing the 2D images of all the 25 ligands and their binding energy details against 4AQD and 4EY7 proteins.

Ligand no	Compound/molecule name	Binding energy (kcal/mol)		Structure
		4AQD	4EY7	
11	Perindoprilat	-7.7	-9.3	
12	Hydroxycyclohexane -carboxylic acid	-5.5	-7.0	
13	7,8- Dihydro- 14- hydroxynormorphine	-8.0	-9.9	
14	Asarylaldehyde	-5.3	-6.7	
15	Nivalenol	-7.4	-7.2	

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TABLE 1 (Continued) Representing the 2D images of all the 25 ligands and their binding energy details against 4AQD and 4EY7 proteins.

Ligand no	Compound/molecule name	Binding energy (kcal/mol)		Structure
		4AQD	4EY7	
16	Ethoruximide M3 glucaronide	-7.7	-9.6	
17	Epi- 4- hydroxyjarmonic acid	-7.7	-10.3	
18	N- Acetylmuramic acid	-7.7	-8.7	
19	Lactone	-6.5	-8.0	
20	26,27- Diethyl- 1- alpha, 25- dihydroxyvitamin D3	-6.2	-7.1	
21	Carbenicillin	-6.9	-9.3	

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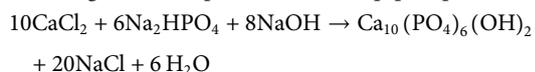
TABLE 1 (Continued) Representing the 2D images of all the 25 ligands and their binding energy details against 4AQD and 4EY7 proteins.

Ligand no	Compound/molecule name	Binding energy (kcal/mol)		Structure
		4AQD	4EY7	
22	Roramarinic acid	-7.7	-9.3	
23	Methyl 8-octanoate	-7.3	-8.7	
24	Idebenone	-6.8	-8.2	
25	Gemfibrozil M1	-6.8	-9.0	

extract (Pradeep et al., 2021). The produced extract was further utilized to prepare hydroxyapatite nanoparticles which intern was used to study the cholinesterase inhibitory activity.

2.3 Green synthesis of *Areca Catechu* derived hydroxyapatite nanoparticles

In order to synthesize HAP-NPs, leaf extract was used as the solvent to make 1M CaCl₂ and 0.6M Na₂HPO₄, which were then each individually adjusted to pH 10.0 using 0.8M NaOH solution. A magnetic stirrer was used to vigorously agitate the CaCl₂ solution at room temperature, and then Na₂HPO₄ solution was added drop by drop to produce a gelatinous precipitate. The following is a description of how HAP precipitates:



The resulting precipitate was subjected to centrifugation to remove byproducts before being dried in a hot air oven for 6 h at 130°C to

produce a dry cake that was ground into powder (Pradeep et al., 2021). To confirm the presence, formation, size and structure of nanoparticle the obtained HAP-NPs were further subjected to different characterization techniques such as SEM, EDX, TEM, XRD and FTIR.

2.4 Determination of cholinesterase (AChE/BChE) inhibitory assay

ChE inhibitory activity was determined using Ellman's technique, which was previously described in a study. The enzyme hydrolyzes the substrate acetylthiocholine to create thiocholine, which interacts with Ellman's reagent (DTNB) to yield 2-nitrobenzoate-5-mercaptothiocholine and 5-thio-2-nitrobenzoate, which can be detected at 405 nm. In this assay, 25 µl of acetylthiocholine iodide (5 mM), 125 µl of DTNB (3 mM), 50 µl of buffer B (50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8, 0.1 percent BSA), and test extract solution at different volume (20, 40, 80, 160 and 320 µl) or a negative control (25% DMSO in MeOH) were mixed and incubated for 10 min at 37°C. 25 µL of 0.05 U/mL AChE was added to start the reaction. At 405 nm,

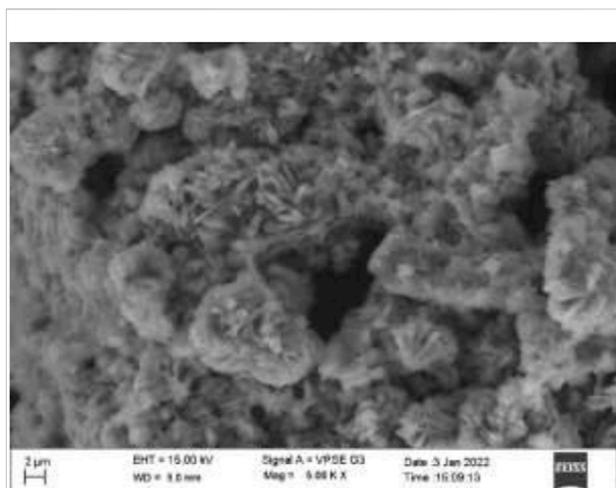


FIGURE 2
SEM image of *Areca Catechu* L. leaf extract derived hydroxy apatite nanoparticles showing nanoflake like morphology.

the absorbance was measured. BChE inhibition was determined in the same method as previously described, using 25 μ L of 5 mM butyrylthiocholine iodide as a substrate and 0.05 U/ml of BChE as an enzyme. For both enzymes, galantamine was utilized as a positive control (Pradeep et al., 2021; Uddin et al., 2021).

2.5 *In silico* molecular docking studies

2.5.1 Protein preparation, validation and active site prediction

The AChE and BChE are the main receptors that are majorly responsible in causing AD and their three dimensional structures

were downloaded from Protein Data Bank with PDB IDs 4EY7 and 4AQD. These structures were visualized in Discovery Studio 3.1. software, where the other small molecules already attached to the structures were removed and required amount of hydrogens were added, thus the resulting structures as shown in Figure 1 were saved and utilized for further *in silico* analysis (Pradeep et al., 2021).

An active site/catalytic site is a tiny area or cleft where the ligand molecule can attach to the receptor protein and create the desired result (Prasad et al., 2021). The identification of this active site residue in the target protein structure has numerous uses in molecular docking and new drug development. Due to the target protein's frequent structural changes, identifying this catalytic binding site is difficult (Ankegowda et al., 2020).

2.5.2 Lead molecule optimization

The IMPPAT (Indian Medicinal Plants, Phytochemistry and Therapeutics) database, which covers more than 1700 Indian medicinal plants with 1,100 therapeutic uses (<https://cb.imsc.res.in/imppat/basicsearchauth>), was used to search for the phytochemicals of *Areca catechu* leaf. According to their ADMET properties, the identified phytochemicals were retrieved, and the active compounds were checked for a number of parameters, including oral bioavailability (OB) 30%, blood-brain barrier (BBB), half-life (HL) 3 h, Lipinski's rule of five, Caco-2 cells, drug-induced liver injury (DILI), clearance (CL) > 15 ml, molecular weight (MW), hydrogen bond donors (HbD) (PAINS).

Among which 25 compounds were selected for the *in silico* studies (Table 1). Their structures were drawn using Chemscketch software (Jain et al., 2021) and the geometry optimization and energy minimization of each molecule were carried out for all the structures using OpenBabel and Argus Lab software (Prasad K. S. et al., 2020).

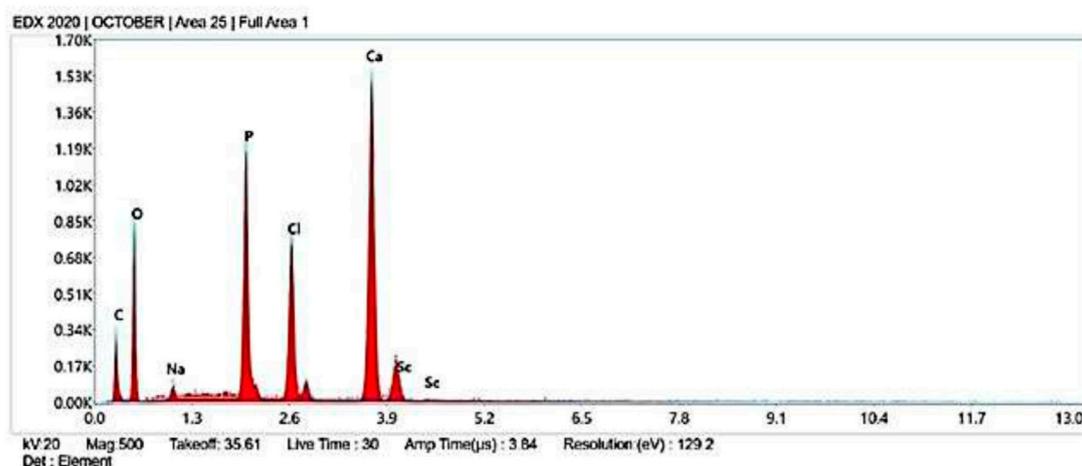
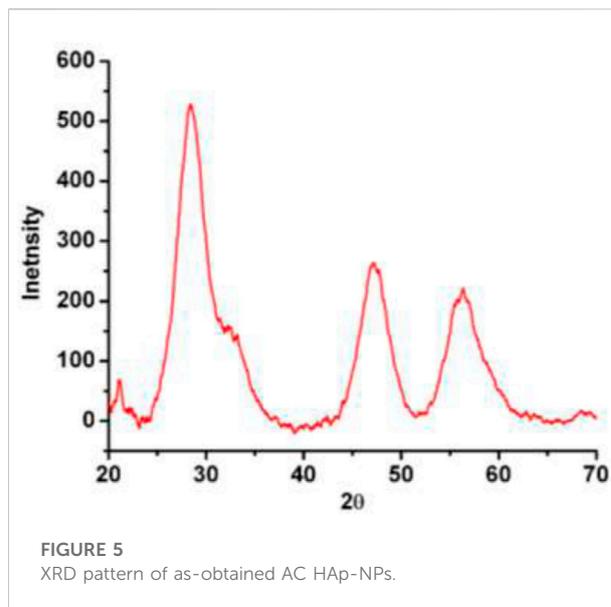
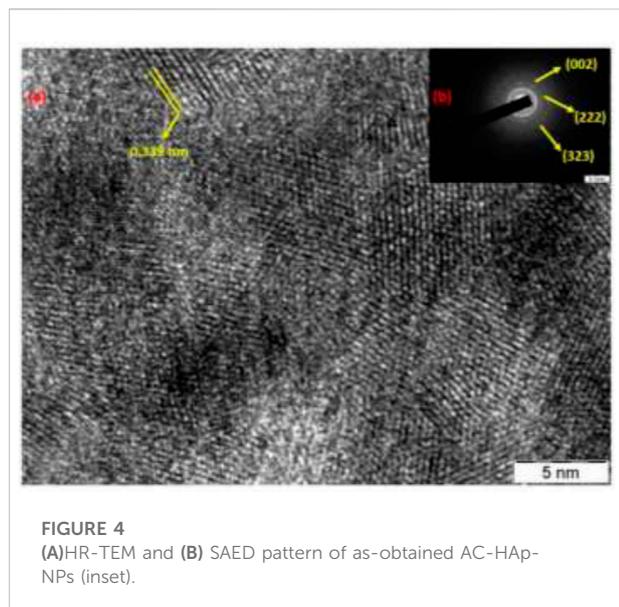


FIGURE 3
EDX images of *Areca Catechu* L. leaf extract derived hydroxy apatite nanoparticles.



2.5.3 Molecular docking studies

Evaluation of binding mode and its stability of ligand with BChE (4AQD) and AChE (4EY7) were performed using PyRx module of Autodock Vina. The two major steps of MD are an engine for sampling conformations and orientations and a scoring function that assigns a score to each projected position (Pradeep et al., 2021). The sampling procedure should seek the conformational space given by the free energy landscape, where energy is approximated by the scoring function in docking. The scoring function should be able to link the native bound-conformation to the energy hypersurface's global minimum, as it will be used to separate putative valid binding modes and binders from non-binders in the pool of poses created by the sampling engine (Prasad et al., 2021).

The binding pockets of the respective proteins were set in the grid boxes. In case of BChE protein (PDB ID: 4AQD), the grid box measuring $39 \text{ \AA} \times 39 \text{ \AA} \times 39 \text{ \AA}$ was coordinated at $x = 18.743,000$, $y = 27.587,000$, and $z = 11.264,000$. Similarly, receptor AChE protein (PDB ID: 4EY7) was coordinated in a grid box of $34 \text{ \AA} \times 34 \text{ \AA} \times 34 \text{ \AA}$ dimensions at $x = -29.345,000$, $y = 39.443,000$, and $z = 16.481,000$.

It employs the Broyden-Fletcher-Goldfarb-Shanno (BGFS) method, which evaluates each ligand conformation's scoring function for perturbation and local ligand optimization at the target location. In the MDS, ligands were treated as flexible while proteins were treated as stiff due to the high number of torsions generated during ligand formation. For ligand molecules, however, 10 degrees of freedom were allowed. Out of ten binding poses generated, the first one with zero root mean square deviation (RMSD) of atomic positions is declared fairly acceptable.

2.6 Molecular dynamics simulation studies

The GROMACS suite 2021 software was used to create a simulation of the ligand-enzyme combination. For molecular dynamics simulation (MDS), the ligand-enzyme complexes with the lowest binding energy were chosen. In the context of the CHARMM 27, the ligand parameters were examined utilizing the PRODRG online service (Prasad et al., 2021). Under periodic boundary circumstances, the ligand-enzyme complex was solvated utilizing a simple point charge water box with 1.0 nm gap between the protein and the box faces. For complicated systems, Cl or Na + counter ions were used to neutralise the system. The steepest descent approach was used to reduce energy consumption for 1,000 steps. The systems were equilibrated for 100 ps at 300 K under constant number of particles, volume, and temperature circumstances, then for 100 ps under constant number of particles, pressure, and temperature conditions for the goal of flowing energy minimization (Srinivasa et al., 2022; Jain et al., 2021). The Linear Constraint Solver technique was used to limit all covalent connections with hydrogen atoms. The Particle Mesh Ewald approach was used to handle the electrostatic interactions. Finally, a 100 ns MD simulation was used to test the stability of the ligand-enzyme complexes (Prasad A. et al., 2020).

Using the GROMACS functions `g_rmsd`, `g_rmsf`, and `g_hbond`, the potential of each trajectory produced by MDS was investigated. The root mean square deviation (RMSD), root mean square fluctuation (RMSF), and the number of H-bonds formed between the ligand and the enzyme were calculated. The XM grace tool was used to create the graphs (Prasad et al., 2021).

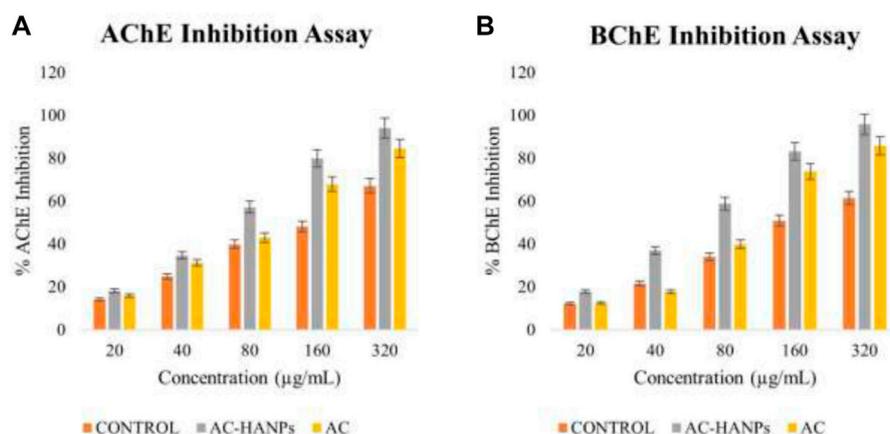


FIGURE 6

(A) Acetylcholinesterase (AChE) and (B) Butyrylcholinesterase (BChE) activity of AC-HANPs, AC extract and Tacrine as positive control in grey, yellow and orange respectively.

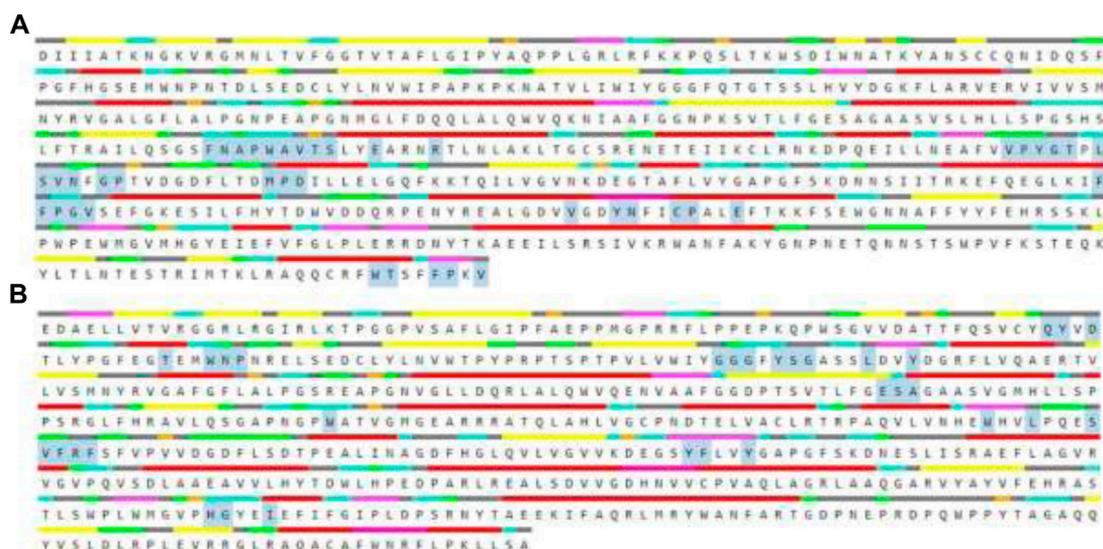


FIGURE 7

The amino acid residues highlighted in grey specifies the binding pocket of the selected receptors (A) BChE (4AQD) and (B) AChE (4EY7).

2.7 Binding energy calculations

With the help of the Molecular Mechanics/Poisson-Boltzmann Surface Area (MM-PBSA) method, binding free energy calculations were performed on the results of the MDS run for all of the target proteins complexed with dehydronimodipine. To ascertain the degree of ligand interaction with protein, molecular dynamics simulations and thermodynamics are once again used. The binding free energy for each ligand-protein combination was calculated using the gmpbsa software and MmPbStat.py script,

which takes the GROMACS 2018.1 trajectories as input Prasad et al. (2020b). The binding free energy is determined by the g mmpbsa program using three different factors: molecular mechanical energy, polar and a polar solvation energies, and molecular mechanical energy. Using MDS, the calculation is completed. To compute ΔG with dt 1,000 frames, the latest 100 ns of trajectory were taken into consideration. It is assessed using polar and a polar solvation energies, as well as molecular mechanical energy. Below are Eqs 1, 2 that are used to determine the free binding energy (Avinash et al., 2021).

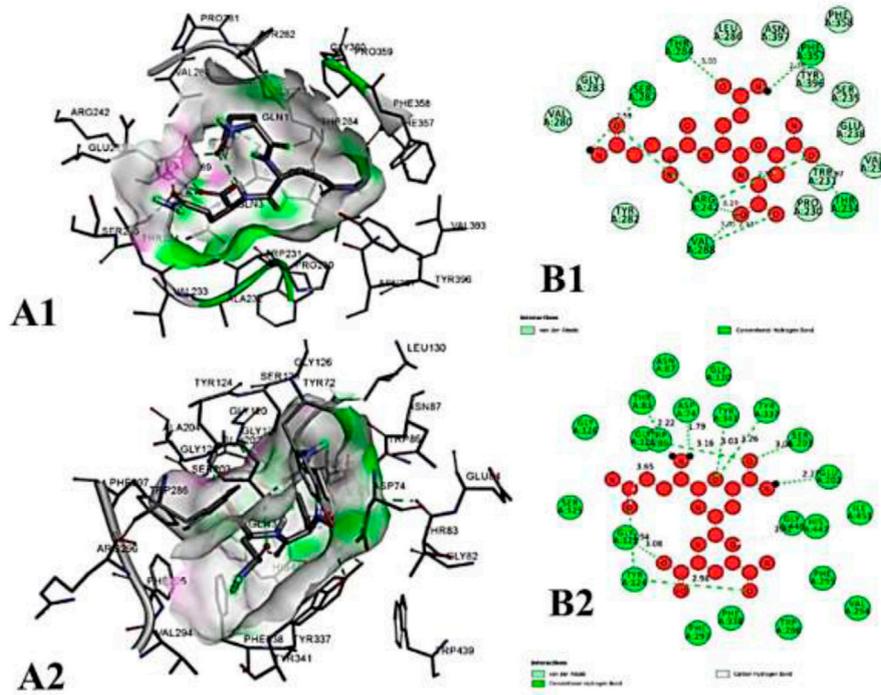


FIGURE 8
The molecular docking interactions of ligand dehydronimodipine with (A) 4AQD and (B) 4EY7 receptors in 2D and 3D representation.

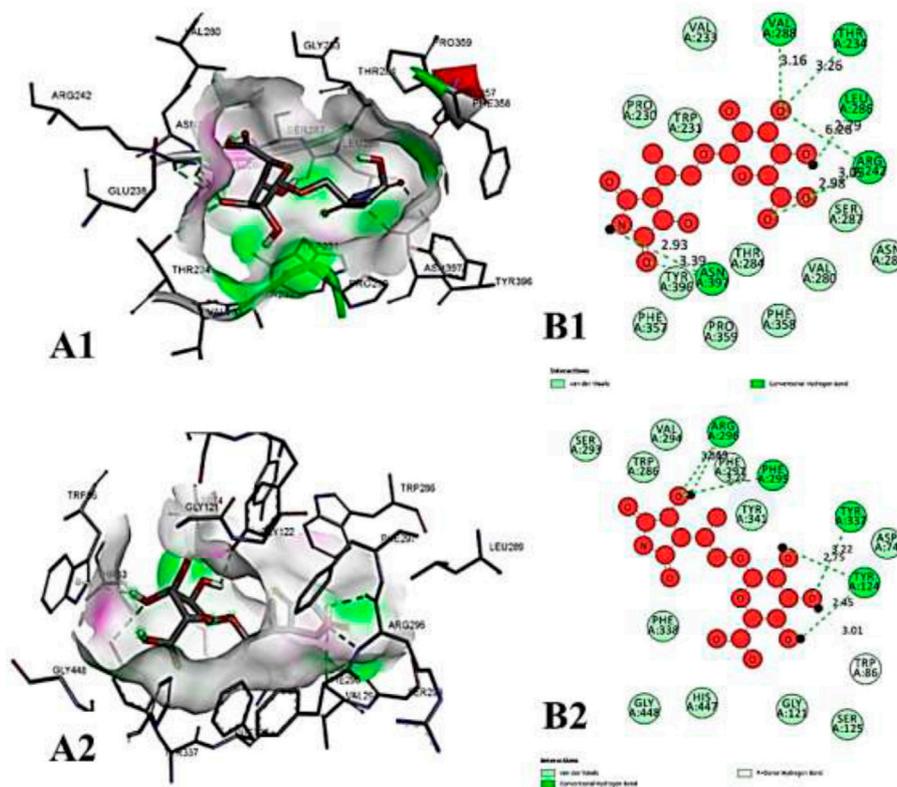


FIGURE 9
The molecular docking interactions of ligand *N*- acetylmuramic acid with (A) 4AQD and (B) 4EY7 receptors in 2D and 3D representation.

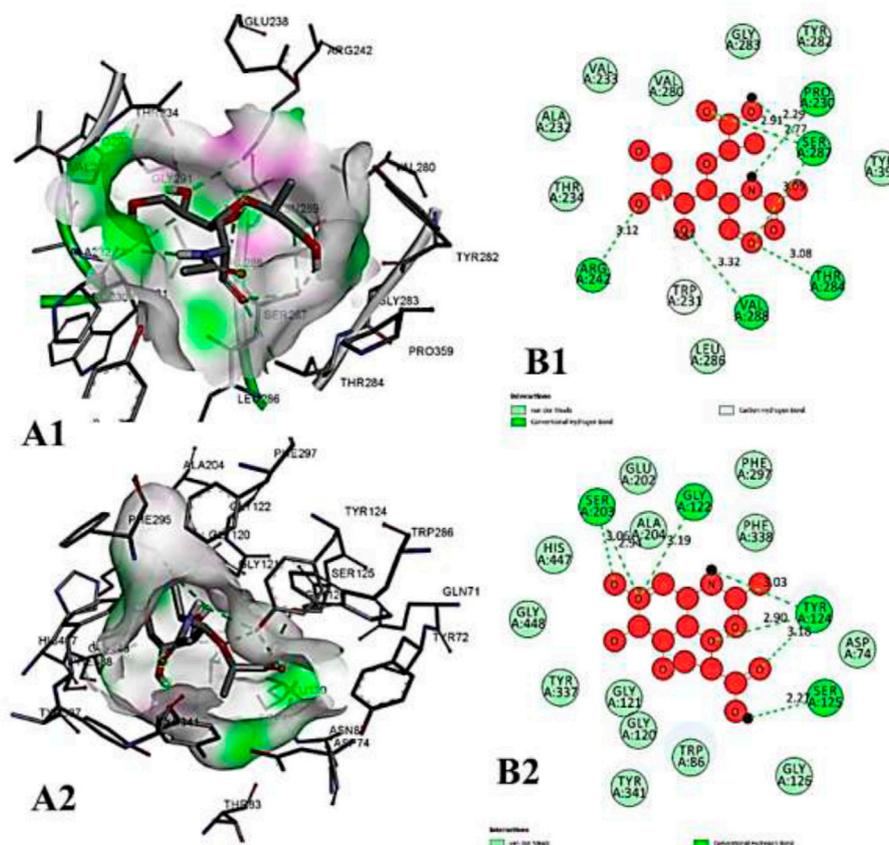


FIGURE 10

The molecular docking interactions of ligand 26,27-diethyl-1- α ,25-dihydroxyvitamin D3 with (A) 4AQQ and (B) 4EY7 receptors in 2D and 3D representation.

$$\Delta G_{\text{Binding}} = G_{\text{Complex}} - (G_{\text{Protein}} + G_{\text{Ligand}})$$

$$\Delta G = \Delta E_{\text{MM}} + \Delta G_{\text{Solvation}} - T\Delta S$$

$$= \Delta E_{(\text{Bonded}+\text{nonbonded})} + \Delta G_{(\text{Polar}+\text{nonpolar})} - T\Delta S$$

G_{Binding} : binding free energy, G_{Complex} : total free energy of the protein-ligand complex, G_{Protein} and G_{Ligand} : total free energies of the isolated protein and ligand in solvent, respectively, ΔG : standard free energy, ΔE_{MM} : average molecular mechanics potential energy in vacuum, $\Delta G_{\text{Solvation}}$: solvation energy, ΔE : total energy of bonded as well as non-bonded interactions, ΔS : change in entropy of the system upon ligand binding, T : temperature in Kelvin.

2.8 Density functional theory calculations

Frontier orbitals HOMO (Highest Occupied Molecular Orbital) and LUMO (Lowest Unoccupied Molecular Orbital) are intrinsically related to the chemical reactivity of the molecules, and can be calculated using the Kohn-Sham (KS) method, which calculates

molecular energy, electronic density, and orbital energies (Young, 2001; Lewars, 2003; Cramer, 2004; Jensen, 2007). This methodology is convenient when thinking of quantitative qualities related with Conceptual DFT descriptors (Geerlings et al., 2003; Gazquez et al., 2007; Chattaraj et al., 2009; Geerlings et al., 2020). This methodology is convenient when thinking of quantitative qualities related with Conceptual DFT (Geerlings et al., 2020). The definitions for the global reactivity descriptors are (Chattaraj et al., 2009). Electronegativity as $\chi \approx 1/2 (\epsilon_L + \epsilon_H)$, Global Hardness as $\eta \approx (\epsilon_L - \epsilon_H)$, Electrophilicity as $\omega \approx (\epsilon_L + \epsilon_H)^2/4 (\epsilon_L - \epsilon_H)$, Electrodonating Power as $\omega^- \approx (3\epsilon_H + \epsilon_L)^2/16\eta$, Electroaccepting Power as $\omega^+ \approx (\epsilon_H + 3\epsilon_L)^2/16\eta$ and Net Electrophilicity as $\Delta\omega = \omega^+ - (-\omega^-) = \omega^+ + \omega^-$. These global reactivity descriptors that arise from Conceptual DFT has been complemented by a Nucleophilicity Index N (Domingo et al., 2008; Jaramillo et al., 2008; Domingo and Sa'ez, 2009; Domingo and Perez, 2011; Domingo et al., 2016) that accounts for the HOMO energy level calculated with an arbitrarily shifted origin and tetracyanoethylene (TCE) as the reference.

Molecular Mechanics calculations using the comprehensiveMMFF94 force field were used in MarvinView

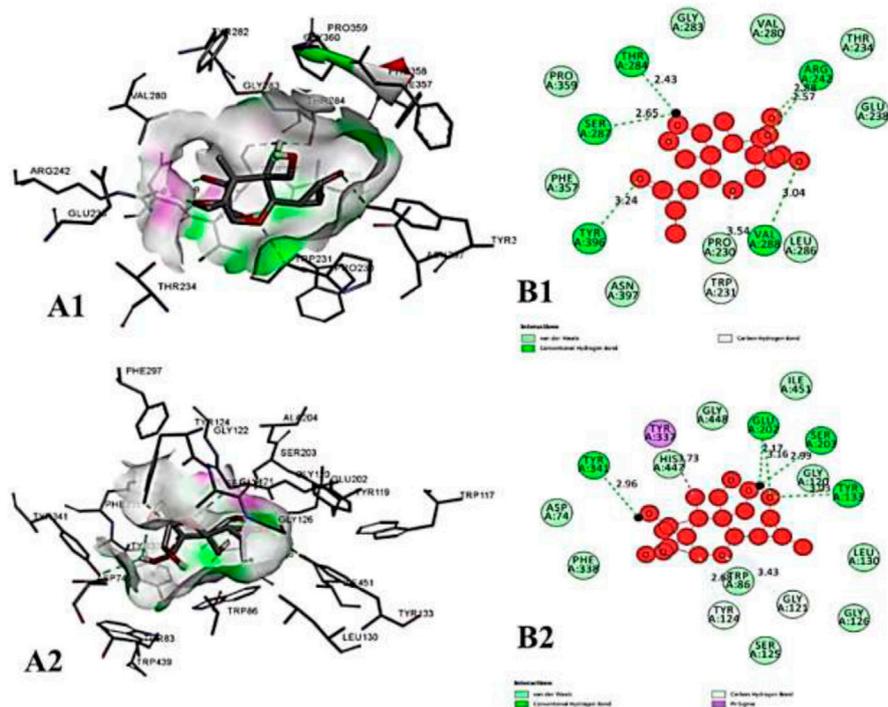


FIGURE 12

The molecular docking interactions of ligand nivalenol with (A) 4AQD and (B) 4EY7 receptors in 2D and 3D representation.

TABLE 2 Molecular docking binding energy and interactions of five ligands against 4AQD.

Ligand no	Molecular name	Bonded interactions	Non-bonded interactions
4	Dehydronimodipine	9 interactions THR-234, ARG-242, THR-284, SER-287, VAL-288, PHE-357	PRO-230, TRP-231, VAL-233, SER-235, GLU-238, VAL-280, TYR-282, GLY-283, LEU-286, PHE-358, TYR-396, ASN-397
18	<i>N</i> - Acetylmuramic acid	8 interactions THR-234, ARG-242, LEU-286, VAL-288, ASN-397	PRO-230, TRP-231, VAL-233, VAL-280, THR-284, SER-287, ASN-289, PHE-357, PHE-358, PRO-359, TYR-396
20	26,27- Diethyl- 1- alpha, 25- dihydroxyvitamin D3	7 interactions PRO-230, ARG-242, THR-284, SER-287, VAL-288	TRP-231, ALA-232, VAL-233, THR-234, VAL-280, TYR-282, GLY-283, LEU-286, TYR-396
5	<i>N</i> -Acetylcilartatin	8 interactions ARG-242, THR-284, SER-287, GLY-360, TYR-396	PRO-230, TRP-231, GLU-238, VAL-280, TYR-282, GLY-283, LEU-286, VAL-288, PHE-357, PHE-358, PRO-359, VAL-361, ASN-397
15	Nivalenol	7 interactions PRO-230, TRP-231, ARG-242, THR-284, SER-287, VAL-288, TYR-396	THR-234, GLU-238, VAL-280, GLY-283, LEU-286, PHE-357, PRO-359, ASN-397

TABLE 3 Molecular docking binding energy and interactions of five ligands against 4EY7.

Ligand no	Molecular name	Bonded interactions	Non-bonded interactions
4	Dehydronimodipine	12 interactions ASP-74, THR-83, TRP-86, GLY-121, GLY-122, TYR-124, GLU-202, SER-203, TYR-337, TYR-341	ASN-87, GLY-120, SER-125, GLY-126, TRP-286, PHE-295, PHE-297, VAL-294, PHE-295, HIS-447, ILE-451
18	N- Acetylmuramic acid	7 interactions TRP-86, TYR-124, PHE-295, ARG-296, TYR-337	ASP-74, GLY-121, SER-125, TRP-286, SER-293, VAL-294, PHE-297, PHE-338, TYR-341, HIS-447, GLY-448
20	26,27- Diethyl- 1- alpha, 25- dihydroxyvitamin D3	7 interactions GLY-122, TYR-124, SER-125, SER-203	ASP-74, TRP-86, GLY-120, GLY-121, GLY-126, GLU-202, ALA-204, PHE-297, TYR-337, PHE-338, TYR-341, HIS-447, TYR-448
5	N-Acetylcilartatin	6 interactions GLY-122, TYR-124, SER-125, SER-203, HIS-447	ASP-74, THR-83, TRP-86, GLY-121, GLY-126, LEU-130, TYR-133, GLU-202, ALA-204, TRP-236, PHE-295, PHE-297, TYR-337, PHE-338, TYR-341, GLY-448
15	Nivalenol	7 interactions GLU-202, SER-203, GLY-121, TYR-124, TYR-133, TYR-341	ASP-74, TRP-86, SER-125, GLY-120, GLY-126, LEU-130, TYR-337, PHE-338, HIS-447, GLY-448, ILE-451

atomic and weight percentages of the constituent particles. Further, the presence of different functional groups was confirmed by FT-IR analysis (Supplementary Figure S1).

3.1.3 TEM analysis

Figure 4 shows TEM images of as-obtained AC-HAp-NPs nanoflakes. TEM confirmed that the AC-HAp-NPs flakes are full of holes. The interplanar lattice spacings was found to be of 0.339 nm as shown in Figure 4A. Further, the SAED pattern (Figure 4B) revealed that this is in good agreement with the (002) interplanar distance (Pradeep et al., 2021).

3.1.4 XRD analysis

XRD pattern of the resultant AC-HAp-NPs is shown in Figure 5. The diffraction peaks at $2\theta = 28.09, 46.93$ and 57.35° , corresponding to (002), (222) and (323) planes, respectively, which is in good agreement with the hexagonal system consisting primitive lattice. In addition, the average particle size was calculated using FWHM by Scherrer' formula, $D = k\lambda/\beta\cos\theta$, which revealed that the as-obtained AC-HAp-NPs was about 35 nm (Pradeep et al., 2021).

3.2 AC-HAp NPs inhibits anti-AChE and anti-BChE activity

Inhibitors increase acetylcholine levels by inhibiting AChE and BChE of the cholinergic synapse, improving function and alleviating

symptoms of neurological disorders such as AD. Plant-derived extracts are a key source of AChE and BChE inhibitors, in addition to alkaloid-derived compounds. AChE and BChE activity has been shown to be inhibited by HAp-NPs derived from the leaves of *Areca Catechu* L. As a result, AC-HAp-NPs from the AC leaf were discovered to inhibit both AChE and BChE. Surprisingly, AC-HAp-NPs had significantly higher anti-AChE and anti-BChE activity with an IC_{50} value of 79.92 (anti-AChE) and 82.5 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ (anti-BChE) compared to positive control Tacrine (IC_{50} of 118.73 $\mu\text{g/ml}$) and leaf extract alone (IC_{50} of 110.43 $\mu\text{g/ml}$) as represented in Figure 6.

3.3 In silico analysis

3.3.1 Protein binding site prediction

Protein binding sites are defined as residues in a protein that interact with a ligand. The CASTp 3.0 server, which stands for Computed Atlas of Surface Topography of Proteins (<http://sts.bioe.uic.edu/castp/index.html?4jii>), was used to anticipate this binding site (Figure 7). CASTp detects and measures surface pockets and internal cavities. The server identifies the amino acids that are important for binding interactions, and the modelled protein is utilized to predict ligand binding sites (Mariwamy et al., 2022).

3.3.2 Molecular docking studies

We compiled a list of ligand binding conformations based on binding energy from docking studies. The binding conformation

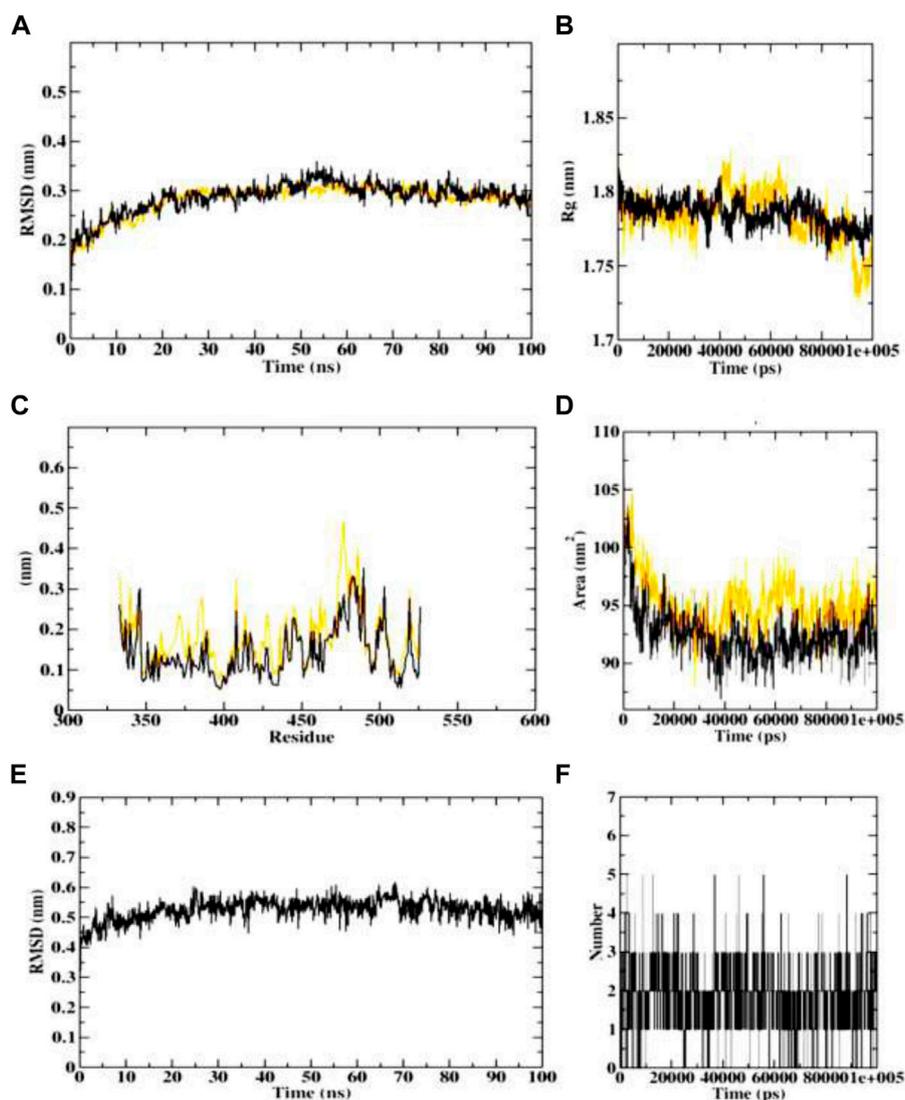


FIGURE 13

Visualization of MD trajectories of dehydronimodipine complexed with 4EY7 Run for 100 ns (A) protein-ligand complex RMSD, (B) protein-ligand complex Rg, (C) protein-ligand complex RMSF, (D) protein-ligand complex SASA, (E) ligand RMSD, (F) ligand hydrogen bonds. (red: protein backbone atoms, black: protein-ligand complex).

of the compounds to the chosen proteins was identified, and among the possible conformations, the one with the lowest binding energy was produced (Uppar et al., 2021). Among the 25 ligands the molecular interactions of top five compounds with least binding energy and highest binding affinity of dehydronimodipine, *N*-acetylmuramic acid, 26,27-diethyl-1- α , 25-dihydroxyvitamin D₃, *N*-acetylcilartatin and nivalenol figures have been represented from Figures 8–12 and their respective bonded and non-bonded interaction details are given in Tables 2, 3. In comparison to higher energy values, lower energy scores indicate better protein-ligand binding affinity. Among all the 25 compounds the ligand dehydronimodipine has the least binding affinity

of -11.7 kcal/mol with and AChE (4EY7), binding energy value with BChE (4AQD) was -10.1 kcal/mol.

3.3.2.1 Hydrogen bond interactions

The ligand dehydronimodipine propensity for binding to proteins was studied in depth. The residues ASP-74 (1.79Å), THR-83 (2.22Å), TRP-86 (3.16Å, 2.22Å), GLY-121 (3.65Å), GLY-122 (3.08Å), TYR-124 (2.98Å, 2.94Å), GLU-202 (2.27Å), SER-203 (3.00Å), TYR-337 (3.26Å) and TYR-341 (3.03Å) are in H-bond contact with the ligand and share twelve hydrogen bonds, according to an analysis of the ligand binding mode into the catalytic site of 4EY7. The residues THR-234 (2.87Å), ARG-242 (2.85Å, 3.03Å), THR-284 (3.00Å), SER-287 (2.58Å),

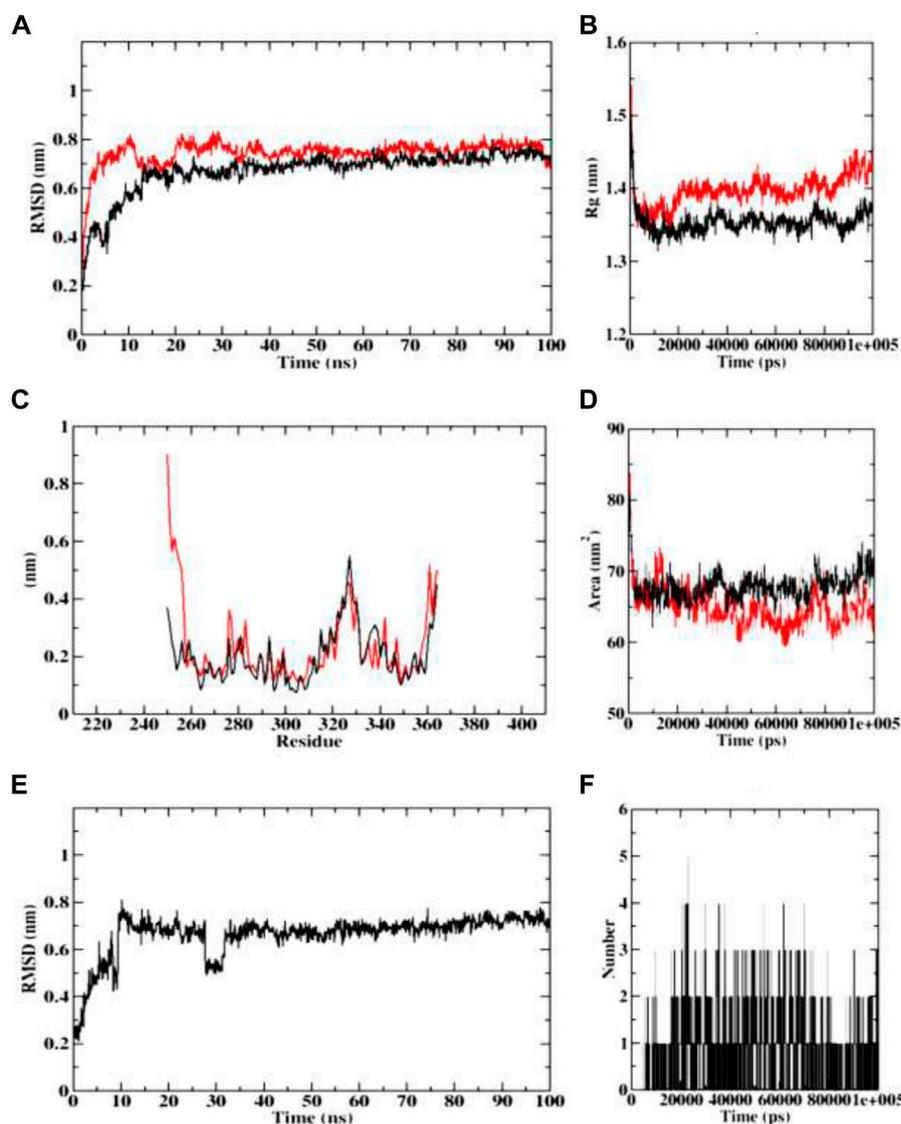


FIGURE 14

Visualization of MD trajectories of dehydronimodipine complexed with 4AQD Run for 100 ns (A) protein-ligand complex RMSD, (B) protein-ligand complex Rg, (C) protein-ligand complex RMSF, (D) protein-ligand complex SASA, (E) ligand RMSD, (F) ligand hydrogen bonds. (red: protein backbone atoms, black: protein-ligand complex).

TABLE 4 Binding free energy calculations of 4EY7 and 4AQD target protein complexed with dehydronimodipine.

Categories	4EY7- dehydronimodipine complex		4AQD- dehydronimodipine complex	
	Values (kJ/mol)	Standard deviation (kJ/mol)	Values (kJ/mol)	Standard deviation (kJ/mol)
Van der Waal's energy	-189.746	+/-159.137	-152.635	+/-152.976
Electrostatic energy	-45.672	+/-39.198	-41.095	+/-34.088
Polar solvation energy	78.164	+/-68.852	84.734	+/-67.923
SASA energy	-23.120	+/-15.227	-24.459	+/-14.872
Binding energy	-145.440	+/-129.163	-112.873	+/-11.566

TABLE 5 Frontier orbital energies, HOMO-LUMO gap and the KID descriptors for the studied molecules (all in eV).

Molecule	HOMO	LUMO	SOMO	H-L gap	J_I	J_A	J_{HL}	ΔSL
MOL1	-7.27	-3.71	-3.40	3.56	0.280	0.588	0.652	0.307
MOL2	-6.91	-1.18	-1.05	5.73	0.216	0.126	0.250	0.138
MOL3	-6.14	-1.90	-1.67	4.25	0.714	0.373	0.805	0.225
MOL4	-7.08	-2.20	-1.89	4.88	0.119	0.414	0.431	0.309
MOL5	-5.68	-1.23	-1.06	4.45	0.275	0.324	0.425	0.173

VAL-288 (2.93Å, 3.05Å) and PHE-357 (2.38Å) are implicated in the H-bond interaction, and they provided eight hydrogen bonds, according to the binding mechanism of ligand with 4AQD. The interaction of dehydronimodipine with 4AQD and 4EY7 reveals that both polar and aromatic amino acids play a key role in the ligand binding relationship.

3.3.2.2 Hydrophobic interactions

The ligand-enzyme interaction is significantly influenced by hydrophobic interactions. Using the visualization tool Discovery Studio, the residues of BChE 4AQD and AChE (4EY7) involved in the hydrophobic interaction with ligand were examined. In dehydronimodipine-4EY7 complex analysis, ASN-87, GLY-120, SER-125, GLY-126, TRP-286, PHE-295, PHE-297, VAL-294, PHE-295, HIS-447 and ILE-451 were formed hydrophobic bonds with ligand. From the dehydronimodipine-4AQD complex analysis, it is found that the residues PRO-230, TRP-231, VAL-233, SER-235, GLU-238, VAL-280, TYR-282, GLY-283, LEU-286, PHE-358, TYR-396 and ASN-397 are participating in hydrophobic interactions with ligand. In contrast to the other AChE (4EY7), more residues in the two complexes contributed to the hydrophobic contact with BChE 4AQD.

In contemporary structure-based medication design, *in silico* MD has proven to be an effective approach. AC demonstrated effective inhibition in this anticholinesterase screening testing. Here, the docking study was undertaken to discover the responsible molecules from AC on anticholinesterase potential. However, evidence for our claimed biological consequence may be found in the binding affinities and binding poses of particular chemicals with the AChE and BChE. All of the ligands shown

TABLE 6 Global reactivity descriptors for the studied molecules (all in eV), but Softness S, in eV⁻¹.

Molecule	χ	η	ω	S	N	ω^-	ω^+	$\Delta\omega^\pm$
MOL1	5.49	3.56	4.23	0.28	1.52	11.43	5.94	17.38
MOL2	4.05	5.73	1.43	0.17	1.88	5.24	1.19	6.45
MOL3	4.02	4.25	1.90	0.24	2.65	6.08	2.06	8.14
MOL4	4.64	4.88	2.21	0.20	1.71	7.04	2.40	9.43
MOL5	3.46	4.45	1.34	0.22	3.11	4.70	1.24	5.93

strong binding affinities, and some of them interacted with the protein's catalytic site. The drugs with the highest binding affinities to AChE and BChE were dehydronimodipine, *N*-acetylmuramic Acid, 26,27-diethyl-1-alpha, 25-dihydroxy, *N*-acetylcilartatin, and nivalenol.

3.3.3 Molecular dynamics simulation studies

The protein-ligand complex's dynamic behaviour with respect to time in a solvated environment was investigated using MDS in addition to docking. Therefore, the stability of these complexes under simulated conditions was mapped using the reference ligand and the best active developed ligand. The simulation study provides analysis of the secondary structure pattern between the protein and their complexes as well as the root mean square deviation (RMSD), radius of gyration (Rg), solvent accessible surface area (SASA), ligand RMSD, and number of ligand hydrogen bonds maintained throughout the simulation time.

The RMSD of protein-ligand complex depicts the extent of stability of the same throughout the simulation. The radius of gyration (Rg) considers the varied masses calculated to root mean square distances considering the central axis of rotation. It considers the capability, shape and folding during each time step of the whole trajectory throughout the simulation. The protein structural areas that deviate most/least from the mean are the focus of the RMSF. Additionally, by measuring root mean square distances from the rotational axis. Solvent accessible surface area (SASA) measures the area around the hydrophobic core formed between protein-ligand complexes. Further, ligand RMSD depicts the stability of ligand during the simulation process. In addition, H-bonds appear during the whole simulation period of the molecular docking study that is being examined. During the analysis, all intermolecular H-bonds between the ligands and the specific protein were taken into account and shown appropriately. Independently, 4 simulations were performed at 100 ns time with the native protein alone and in complex with the dehydronimodipine. The primary goal of performing MD simulation is to understand binding affinities at a time-bound stability among ligands to proteins bound complexes.

In case of AChE (4EY7), the protein-ligand complex RMSD plots depict that both protein backbone atoms and protein-ligand complexes were found to be completely stable after 20 ns. both

the plots were concurrent throughout the simulation period, and equilibrated at 0.3 nm. The Rg plots of both the protein and protein-ligand complex also equilibrated within 1.75–1.8 nm, indicating the stability of the protein-ligand complex. Both the SASA plots of protein and protein-ligand complex were predicted with the value of 90–95.5 nm², indicating the consistency in complex formation. Further, ligand RMSD also depicted the stability of the dehydronimodipine, by getting stable after 20 ns and equilibrating at 0.5 nm. Furthermore, maximum number of ligand hydrogen bonds were predicted to be 12 as shown in Figure 13.

In course of dynamics simulation of BChE (4AQD), the RMSD plots of both the protein backbone atoms and protein-ligand complexes were found to become stable after initial fluctuations at 20 ns. The concurrent plots of both the molecular entities are visible without major fluctuations throughout the simulation process, and predict the stable interaction of dehydronimodipine with the BChE protein. Finally, both the plots equilibrate at 0.7 nm, representing structural flexibility of proteins being reserved when in complex with ligands than in the free form. The Rg plots also indicate the stability and reports no abnormality in protein-ligand complex formation. Both the protein backbone and protein-ligand complexes were predicted with the Rg value ranging between 1.35 and 1.45 nm. The RMSF plots were predicted with fluctuations only at the terminal ends and loop regions, indicating the stable interactions between protein and ligand. The similar pattern was observed in case of SASA plots, showing the range of 60–75 nm² area, which depicts the consistency of the protein-ligand complex formation throughout the simulation. Further, ligand RMSD plot indicated that the ligand became stable after the initial fluctuation at 10 ns. However, the ligand continues to achieve stability despite a setback in stability at 30 ns, reaching equilibration at 0.7 nm. Furthermore, dehydronimodipine was found to form a maximum of 9 hydrogen bonds during the simulation process as shown in Figure 14.

3.3.4 Binding free energy calculations

Various energy metrics such as Van der Waal's, electrostatic, polar solvation, SASA, and binding energies are utilized to measure the extent of ligand-target protein binding interactions during molecular dynamics simulations. In this study, the Van der Waal energy was primarily used to construct the protein-ligand combination. Electrostatic energy, SASA energy, and binding energy came next. Polar solvation energy was predicted with no contribution for the protein-ligand complex formation, as the values appeared in positive. The AChE (4EY7) and BChE (4AQD) complexed with dehydronimodipine was predicted with the highest binding affinity and hence was considered for binding energy calculation studies. In addition, the protein-ligand complex standard deviations were calculated. A lower standard deviation means the data values are closer to the mean (or expected value), whereas a high standard deviation means the data values are spread out over a wider range.

However, in the complex there was no high standard deviations. This indicates that dehydronimodipine binds to the protein with high binding affinity and stable interaction. The binding free energy calculations of protein-ligand complex have been given in Table 4.

3.4 Conceptual DFT report

The quality of a density functional can be assessed by contrasting its predictions with either experimental data or findings from more advanced calculations. However, this comparison is sometimes computationally problematic because of a lack of experimental results for the molecular systems under consideration or because the molecules themselves are too big. A methodology called KID (Koopmans in DFT) has been developed by our research group (Frau and Glossman-Mitnik, 2018b; 2018c; 2018d; 2018e; 2018f; Flores-Holguín et al., 2019a; 2019b; 2019c; Flores-Holguín et al., 2020a; 2020b; 2020c; Flores-Holguín et al., 2021), for the validation of a given density functional in terms of its internal coherence. Based on prior work showing that the MN12SX/Def2TZVP/H₂O model chemistry is superior to other density functionals (Flores-Holguín et al., 2022) like LC- ω HPBE, CAM-B3LYP, and ω B97XD when it comes to fulfilling and Ionization theorems, especially when studying large molecules, we have chosen this model chemistry for our computational determinations of the CDFT reactivity descriptors. In spite of this, we believe it is important to offer further support for the application of this model chemistry by estimating the KID parameters for the molecules under investigation and confirming that their values are close to zero. Table 5 displays the outcomes of these calculations.

Where MOL1 is dehydronimodipine, MOL2 is *N*-acetylmuramic acid, MOL3 is *N*-acetylcilastatin, MOL4 is nivalenol, and MOL5 is 26,27-diethyl- one- alpha, 25-dihydroxyvitamin D3.

The results for the KID descriptors present in Table 5 indicate that the MN12SX/Def2TZVP/H₂O model chemistry describes adequately the behavior of the molecular system in relation to the verification of Ionization Energy theorem within the Generalized Kohn–Sham (GKS) model.

The results for the determination of the conceptual DFT reactivity descriptors for the studied molecules are displayed in Table 6.

The results for the global reactivity descriptors derived from CDFT for the five studied molecules allow to obtain a glimpse of the chemical reactivities of them. As the global hardness η represents the opposition of the molecular system to be deformed, it is clear that a large global hardness implies lower reactivity. Thus, MOL1 will be the most reactive, while MOL2 will be the least reactive of the five molecular systems considered here. The global electrophilicity ω represents a compromise between the behavior explicated by the electronegativity χ and that of the global hardness η and the results presented in Table 6 indicates that MOL1 will be display

the most electrophilic character while for MOL5 it will be the opposite. In a similar way, MOL5 will be the molecule displaying the large nucleophilic character while MOL1 shows the minimum electrophilic character of all the systems. In accordance with this, MOL1 will top as having the large electrodonating character while MOL2 and MOL5 will be the ones with the smallest electroaccepting power.

4 Conclusion and future perspective

The currently approved medications for Alzheimer's disease are centered on increasing cholinergic transmission by inhibiting ChE, however they only give modest improvements in memory and cognition. *Areca Catechu* L. leaf can be chosen as a prospective source of efficient ChE inhibitors, according to this research. Using a computational technique, this study sought to identify phytoconstituents that might bind to the crucial AD amyloid hypothesis targets while also testing the ability of the synthesized AC-HAP NPs to inhibit AChE. The produced material assumed a nanoflake particle, as evidenced by the analysis of AC-HAP NPs obtained by electron microscope examinations. Additionally, compared to AC extract, the AC-HAP NPs demonstrated improved anti-AChE and anti-BChE activity. According to docking scores and an examination of the interactions between the compounds, the majority of the compounds produced from *Areca Catechu* L. leaf extract had the capacity to bind to the chosen targets. The active compounds such as dehydronimodipine, *N*-acetylmuramic acid, 26,27-diethyl-1- α , 25-dihydroxy, *N*-acetylcilartatin, and nivalenol must be identified and their safety and bioavailability in animal models must be assessed further. Additional *in vivo* investigations of compounds would result in therapeutically efficient molecules for treating the issues related to AD.

Data availability statement

The original contributions presented in the study are included in the article/Supplementary Material, further inquiries can be directed to the corresponding authors.

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Author contributions

Conceptualization, SP and CS; methodology, PR and SP; software, SP; validation, ES, VS, NM, RRA, SPK, SP, and CS; formal analysis, ES, VS, NA, RRA, and SMS; investigation, SP; data curation, SP, CS, and SPK; writing—original draft preparation, SP, SCP, and DG-M; writing—review and editing, CS, SP, AAS, MYA, SEIE; visualization, SP. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

Funding

This research is funded by Deanship of Scientific Research at King Khalid University under the project grant number R.G.P. 2/78/43.

Conflict of interest

Author SE was employed by Egyptian Organization for Biological Products and Vaccines (VACSERA Holding Company).

The remaining authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

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Supplementary material

The Supplementary Material for this article can be found online at: <https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/fphar.2022.1044248/full#supplementary-material>

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