

Enzymatic hydrolysis of thermally pre-treated chitin and antimicrobial activity of N,N'-diacetylchitobiose

Article

Accepted Version

Zainal Abidin, M., Kourmentza, C., Karatzas, K. A. and Niranjana, K. ORCID: <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-6525-1543> (2019) Enzymatic hydrolysis of thermally pre-treated chitin and antimicrobial activity of N,N'-diacetylchitobiose. *Journal of Chemical Technology and Biotechnology*, 94 (8). pp. 2529-2536. ISSN 1097-4660 doi: <https://doi.org/10.1002/jctb.6043> Available at <https://centaur.reading.ac.uk/83411/>

It is advisable to refer to the publisher's version if you intend to cite from the work. See [Guidance on citing](#).

To link to this article DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/jctb.6043>

Publisher: Wiley

All outputs in CentAUR are protected by Intellectual Property Rights law, including copyright law. Copyright and IPR is retained by the creators or other copyright holders. Terms and conditions for use of this material are defined in the [End User Agreement](#).

www.reading.ac.uk/centaur

CentAUR

Central Archive at the University of Reading

Reading's research outputs online

Enzymatic hydrolysis of thermally pre-treated chitin and antimicrobial activity of *N,N'*-diacetylchitobiose

Munira Zainal Abidin^{1,2}, Constantina Kourmentza¹, Andreas Kimon Karatzas¹,
Keshavan Niranjana^{1*}

¹Department of Food and Nutritional Sciences, University of Reading, Whiteknights,
Reading RG6 6AP, UK.

²Department of Technology and Natural Resources, Faculty of Applied Sciences and
Technology, Universiti Tun Hussein Onn Malaysia, 84600 Panchor, Johor, Malaysia.

Abstract

BACKGROUND: *N,N'*-diacetylchitobiose (GlcNAc₂) is known to be highly functional and offers a wide range of applications, especially as an antimicrobial agent. In this study, a thermal pre-treatment process using steam under pressure in an autoclave, has been employed to facilitate subsequent enzymatic hydrolysis of chitin with chitinase from *Streptomyces griseus*.

RESULTS: Pre-treatment of chitin with 0.05 M sodium acetate buffer (pH=6.0) at 121 °C for 60 min, followed by enzymatic hydrolysis involving 24 h incubation, was found to be the best condition for producing the GlcNAc₂. The GlcNAc₂ obtained was tested regarding its antimicrobial activity against Gram-negative and Gram-positive strains

* Corresponding author: Tel: +44 (0) 118 378 8388

E-mail: afsniran@reading.ac.uk (K. Niranjana)

This article has been accepted for publication and undergone full peer review but has not been through the copyediting, typesetting, pagination and proofreading process which may lead to differences between this version and the Version of Record. Please cite this article as doi: 10.1002/jctb.6043

and showed minimum inhibitory concentrations (MIC) at 5 and 10% w/v against *Escherichia coli* K-12 and *Listeria monocytogenes* 10403S, respectively.

CONCLUSION: The extent of swelling and crystallite size of chitin increased with the pre-treatment residence time, and enhanced the rate of subsequent hydrolysis using chitinase.

Keywords: Thermal pre-treatment; enzymatic hydrolysis; GlcNAc₂; antimicrobial activity.

INTRODUCTION

Chitin is a polymer consisting of *N*-acetyl-D-glucosamine (GlcNAc) monomeric units that form covalent β -(1→4)-linkages and is the second most abundant polysaccharide in nature after cellulose. It is a dominant component of the cell walls in most fungi, crustaceans and insect exoskeletons, and offers a wide range of structural and protection functionality.¹ *N,N'*-diacetylchitobiose (GlcNAc₂) is an oligomer composed of two GlcNAc units, which can be produced by the acidic or enzymatic hydrolysis of chitin. The oligomers, that are composed of approximately ten or less GlcNAc residues, have received considerable attention because they offer excellent solubility in water, nontoxicity, biocompatibility and numerous biological properties such as antimicrobial and antitumor activities.^{1,2} It has also been reported previously that the oligomers inhibit the growth of Gram-positive (*B. cereus*, *L. monocytogenes* and *S. aureus*) and Gram-negative bacteria (*B. fragilis*, *E. coli*, *P.*

aeruginosa, *P. melaninogenica*, *Shigella dysenteriae* and *V. cholera*) more effectively than chitin and chitosan.^{3–5}

Hydrolysis of chitin, using either acid or enzyme, is normally restricted due to its highly crystalline structure caused by the strong dipole–dipole interactions between polysaccharide chains.³ Several chitin pre-treatment methods, such as gamma irradiation, grinding, microwave irradiation, steam explosion, supercritical water and ultrasonication, have been proposed to assist the hydrolysis.¹ These pre-treatment methods have been reported to reduce the chitin crystallinity, particle size and molecular weight, as well as increase the crystallite size and extent of deacetylation. In addition to such physical pre-treatment, the use of ionic liquid as solvent has been studied in polysaccharides for removing their native recalcitrant such as cellulose and lignocellulose^{6,7} Ionic liquids have also been used for chitin pre-treatment, which is reported to have induced greater enzyme accessibility to the substrate during hydrolysis with chitinases.^{8,9} It is interesting to note that the pre-treatments reported so far are fairly complex and difficult to scale up. To date, the effectiveness of simple autoclaving as a pre-treatment process has not been explored. Therefore, the aim of this study was to investigate the effectiveness of thermal pre-treatment of chitin under autoclaving conditions (121 °C, 204.7 kPa) in order to assist the production of GlcNAc₂ by enzymatic hydrolysis, and assess the antimicrobial activity of the product against Gram-negative and Gram-positive organisms.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Commercial chitin from shrimp shells (practical grade powder) and chitinase from *Streptomyces griseus* were obtained from Sigma Aldrich, UK. Gram-negative bacterium *Escherichia coli* K-12 and Gram-positive bacterium *Listeria monocytogenes* 10403S were cultivated in-house (Department of Food and Nutritional Sciences, University of Reading, UK). The chitin was sieved through a 125 µm sieve to produce particles in the narrow size range of less than 125 µm and was stored in opaque plastic bottles at ambient temperature until further use. All other reagents used in this study were of analytical grade and commercially available.

Pre-treatment of chitin

One percent w/v chitin in 0.05 M sodium acetate buffer at pH 6.0 was thermally pre-treated in an autoclave at 121 °C (204.7 kPa) for time durations ranging between 15 and 60 min. Immediately after pre-treatment, the sample was rapidly cooled under running tap water, and separated into an aqueous solution and a non-soluble solid fraction by centrifugation at 5000 rpm for 15 min.¹⁰ The solid fraction was thoroughly washed with distilled water and then left to dry at 60 °C for 10 h. The aqueous solution was stored at 4 °C prior to analysis.¹¹

Characterisation of chitin

Reducing sugars

Accepted Article

The amount of reducing sugars produced during pre-treatment in the aqueous solution were determined by the dinitrosalicylic acid (DNS) method. The DNS reagent was prepared by mixing 10 g of DNS powder with 300 g of sodium potassium tartrate (Rochelle salt) and 2 N NaOH in 800 mL of distilled water. The mixture was gently heated to dissolve the solids, and the volume was made up to 1 L with distilled water. This method was proposed by Saqib and Whitney¹² but the concentrations of NaOH solutions used in this work were different. Prior to the analysis, the sample was prepared by mixing the aqueous solution with distilled water and DNS reagent at a ratio of 1:1:3 and boiled in a water bath for 10 min.¹¹ After boiling, the sample was allowed to cool under running tap water. Colour formation was determined by measuring absorbance against blank at a wavelength of 530 nm through UV-Vis spectrophotometer (Cecil CE 7400, Cambridge, UK). The defined absorbance value of the sample was converted to the amount of reducing sugars produced during the reaction using a GlcNAc standard curve.

Crystallinity index (I_{CR}) and crystallite size (nm)

Crystallinity of the dried pre-treated chitin was determined by X-ray powder diffraction (Bruker D8 Advance, Karlsruhe, Germany) with an incident radiation CuK α and $\lambda = 1.5418 \text{ \AA}$ in the range of $2\theta = 4.5\text{-}50$ with steps of 0.02° (CAF, University of Reading, UK). The method described was identical to the one reported by Villa-Lerma et al.¹³

Crystallinity index (I_{CR}) is a quantitative indicator of the crystalline fraction in the chitin material.^{14,15} I_{CR} of the samples was determined using intensities of the peaks at [1 1 0] around $2\theta = 20^\circ$ (corresponding to the maximal intensity, I_{110}) and at $2\theta = 16^\circ$ (amorphous diffraction, I_{am}).^{2,13}

$$I_{CR} (\%) = \left(\frac{I_{110} - I_{am}}{I_{110}} \right) \times 100 \quad (1)$$

Crystallite size (nm) of the chitin at [1 1 0] lattice was calculated by using the Scherrer equation.²

$$L = \frac{0.9\lambda}{(H \cos \theta)} \quad (2)$$

where L is the crystallite size perpendicular to the plane; H is the full-width at half-maximum of the deflection peak; and θ is the Bragg's angle.

CP/MAS ^{13}C -NMR spectroscopy

Structure of the pre-treated solid chitin was determined by carbon nuclear magnetic resonance (^{13}C -NMR) spectroscopy in an AV500 two-channel NMR instrument (Bruker Advance III 500 MHz, Germany) operating at Larmor frequency of 125.77 MHz with the use of 4 mm MAS probe spun at 10 kHz rate (CAF, University of Reading, UK). The spectra were obtained over 1024 number of scans with 10 s relaxation delays at ambient temperature. The CP contact time was 2.0 ms, and the 90° pulse width was 3.7 μs at 38 W power level. All spectra were referenced to

external adamantane signal as a secondary reference (frequency peak at 38.5 ppm with respect to tetramethylsilane (TMS)).

Enzymatic hydrolysis of pre-treated chitin

Enzymatic hydrolysis was conducted by mixing the pre-treated chitin solution, i.e. 1.0% (w/v) chitin in 0.05 M sodium acetate buffer at pH 6.0, with 0.1% (w/v) of enzyme chitinase from *Streptomyces griseus* (Sigma Aldrich, UK). The reaction mixture was incubated in a shaker water bath at 40 °C for different time intervals. The reaction was stopped by boiling for 10 min to denature the chitinase and centrifuged for 15 min at 5000 rpm. The supernatant was collected and filtered with 0.22 µm pore size of PVDF membrane syringe filter and stored at 4 °C for HPLC analysis.² The filtrate was lyophilized and stored at -20 °C until further use.

GlcNAc₂ composition

The GlcNAc₂ composition was determined using high pressure liquid chromatography by an Agilent 1100 Series HPLC System (Agilent Technologies, Italy) equipped with a UV detector, at a wavelength 205 nm. The product was identified through a Nucleosil® NH₂ HPLC column, with 5 µm particle size (L × I.D. 25 cm × 4.6 mm), using 70% acetonitrile and 30% ultra-pure water as the mobile phase, at a flow rate of 1.0 mL/min at 50 °C. A calibration curve was constructed by measuring the peak area of standard GlcNAc₂ (Sigma Aldrich, UK). The concentration of the GlcNAc₂ in the enzymatic reaction mixture was estimated by

comparison with the calibration standard, and the yield was calculated by the following equation.^{2,16}

$$\text{Product yield (\%)} = \frac{\text{Weight of GlcNAc}_2 \text{ produced}}{\text{Weight of chitin used}} \times 100 \quad (3)$$

Mass spectrum of the GlcNAc₂ was obtained by liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry (LC-MS) using a Thermo Scientific Accela HPLC system coupled with a Thermo Scientific LTQ Orbitrap XL mass spectrometer. The mass spectrum (m/z) of GlcNAc₂ was theoretically calculated by the following equation:¹⁷

$$\text{Mass spectrum (m/z)} = ([\text{DP} \times \text{C}_8\text{H}_{13}\text{O}_5\text{N}] + \text{H}_2\text{O}) + \text{adduct ions} \quad (4)$$

where DP is the degree of polymerisation, C₈H₁₃O₅N is the chitin molecular weight, H₂O is the water molecule attached to the GlcNAc₂ after hydrolysis and Na⁺ or H⁺ the cationised adduct ions transferred from the solvent (0.1% formic acid in 30% water and 70% acetonitrile).

Antimicrobial activity determination

The antimicrobial activity of GlcNAc₂ was evaluated following the broth microdilution methodology as described previously.¹⁸ Antibacterial susceptibility tests were performed against the Gram-negative bacterium *E. coli* K-12 and Gram-positive bacteria *L. monocytogenes* 10403S. The minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) was defined as the lowest concentration of GlcNAc₂, in which bacteria were not able to grow after 24 h of incubation.¹⁹

E. coli and *L. monocytogenes* were grown on Tryptic Soy (TS) and Brain Heart Infusion (BHI) agar respectively, at 37 °C for 24 h. Agar plates were then stored at 4 °C for up to 3 weeks prior to use. For the bacterial suspension preparation, 2-3 colonies were picked from each agar plate using a sterile plastic loop. Colonies of *E. coli* and *L. monocytogenes* were transferred to sterile Mueller Hinton (MH) and Tryptic Soy (TS) broth respectively and incubated at 37 °C for 16-18 h. The optical density (OD) of the suspension was then adjusted to 0.5 McFarland using a UV-Vis spectrophotometer (Orion AquaMate 8000, Thermo Scientific, UK) at 620 nm, which corresponds to approximately 1.5×10^8 CFU/mL. Then, the suspensions were diluted to give a final colony count of 1.5×10^5 CFU/mL and used as inoculum for the determination of the MIC determination in the presence of GlcNAc₂.

GlcNAc₂ was dissolved in the respective growth medium (MHB or TSB), and the maximum concentration tested was 10% w/v. Two-fold dilutions were performed and 100 µL of each dilution were placed in each column of a flat bottomed 96-well plate (Cellstar, Greiner bio-one Ltd., UK). Column 11 of the 96-well plate contained only the growth medium and, upon inoculation, served as a growth control while column 12 contained 200 µL of the GlcNAc₂ tested at its maximum concentration (10 % w/v) and served as a sterility control. In all columns, apart from column 12, 100 µL of each bacterial suspension were added and 96-well plates were incubated at 37 °C for 24 h. The optical density of the cultures was assessed at 620 nm (OD_{620nm}) after 24 hours using a FLUOstar Omega multi-detection microplate reader (BMG Labtech,

UK) in order to detect the MIC for each case. All experiments were performed in triplicate.

Statistical analysis

Minitab® 18 (USA) statistical software was used for analysis of the difference in means by Tukey's multiple range test. The results were determined by one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) at a significance level of 0.05 ($P < 0.05$). The pre-treatment was undertaken in duplicate and each replication was run for analysis of crystallite size, crystallinity index, reducing sugar contents and GlcNAc₂ yield. The experiments on antimicrobial activity were run in triplicate regardless of pre-treatment replication due to the lyophilisation of GlcNAc₂ from the hydrolysate that accumulated after hydrolysis.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Effect of thermal pre-treatment on chitin

The crystallite size is referred to as the size of individual crystal of lattice [1 1 0] inside a chitin particle. The changes in crystallite size of the chitin after pre-treatment is shown in Figure 1. It is evident that the crystallite size did not significantly change when the chitin was exposed to the pre-treatment between 15 and 45 min. The crystallite size of the control, and that after 60 min of pre-treatment, were not significantly different from the chitin that underwent pre-treatment for 15 to 45 min. However, after 60 min of exposure to the pre-treatment, the crystallite size changed

Accepted Article

significantly ($P<0.05$) from 7 nm (control sample) to 9 nm. This increase may be attributed to swelling of the chitin during autoclaving. This observation is consistent with an earlier study which showed that crystallite size increased by almost 30 to 40% when chitin was pre-treated between 300 and 400 °C for times up to 5 min.^{2,20} These authors reported that the crystallite size increased with autoclaving time initially, but then went through a turning point. They also noted that chitin swelling occurred due to increased spacing of the [1 1 0] planes of the individual cell lattice.²

The crystallinity index (I_{CR}) was used to quantify the relative amount of crystalline material in chitin.²¹ The I_{CR} of chitin, reported in Table 1, shows no significant differences between control and various pre-treated samples. The absence of decrystallisation suggests that the chitin structure survives 60 min of autoclaving. In a previous study, by Osada et al.²⁰, it has been reported that the decrystallisation of the crystalline region did not occur even at higher temperature between 180 and 400 °C unless the chitin was subjected to mechanical grinding and the I_{CR} was reduced to 27%. Nishino et al.²² also reported that the molecular chain of α -chitin was mechanically stable against heating at 150 °C.

The reducing sugar content of chitin aqueous solution seems to increase very marginally after pre-treatment at 121 °C between 15 and 60 min as shown in Table 1. No reducing sugar was detected in the starting sample. This suggests that the pre-treated aqueous solution may contain some partially degraded chitin polymers. The oligomers (GlcNAc₁₋₁₀) were not detected in the aqueous solution by HPLC

(data not shown), indicating that the chitin degraded to some extent due to the action of free aldehyde group at reducing end (carbon C1) accepting hydrogen atoms from the water molecule during pre-treatment.^{23,24} Villa-Lerma et al.¹³ observed that the highest reducing sugar contents of chitin in the water was detected after 1 h exposure to the steam explosion at 240 °C. In addition to steam explosion, there are a few studies on chitin pre-treatment that employed high temperatures between 180 and 400 °C and have concluded that these methods could lead to partial hydrolysis of chitin.^{2,13,20,25}

Solid state ¹³CP/MAS NMR shown in Figure 2 was performed in order to observe the changes occurring in chitin structure during pre-treatment. There are eight signals for eight carbon atoms of *N*-acetyl-D-glucosamine residue observed between 20 and 110 ppm which correspond to C1-C6, C=O and CH₃. The spectra shows that the samples possess high structural homogeneity as the peaks C1 (104 ppm), C2 (55.1 ppm), C3 (73.4 ppm), C4 (83.2 ppm), C5 (75.6 ppm) and C6 (60.8 ppm), which remain unchanged with autoclaving. On the other hand, the C=O and CH₃ peaks at 173.6 and 22.6 ppm respectively, were less pronounced above 15 min of autoclaving, which shows enhanced deacetylation while transforming to chitosan. It has been reported previously that, the higher the deacetylation, the lower the intensity of C=O and CH₃ peaks due to removal of the acetyl group.^{26,27} Kasai²⁷ reported that the peaks of carbonyl and methyl groups of the chitin obtained by ¹³CP/MAS NMR became less pronounced as the degree of acetylation (DA) decreased from 1.0 to 0.58. According to Villa-Lerma et al.²⁵, pre-treatment with

steam explosion at 180 °C for 8 min was sufficient to decrease the degree of acetylation of the chitin from 98 to 92 %. Furthermore, it has been reported that the use of elevated temperature and pressure also enhanced deacetylation as these conditions promote acidic hydrolysis by the formation of acetic acid from acetyl groups.^{13,28}

In this present study, the pre-treatment time employed has been limited to 60 min in order to avoid significant formation of chitosan by deacetylation, which can potentially lower the yield of GlcNAc₂ after hydrolysis.

Enzymatic hydrolysis of chitin

Enzymatic hydrolysis of chitin, with chitinase from *Streptomyces griseus*, mainly produced GlcNAc₂ and a relatively small amount of GlcNAc which is shown in Figure 5. Given the relatively small concentrations of the monomer, further discussion and indeed figures will only focus on the GlcNAc₂ levels as this compound is the dominant product of hydrolysis. As shown in Figure 3, the HPLC chromatogram of the standard GlcNAc₂ was comparable with the hydrolysate sample obtained by 24 h hydrolysis at 40 °C of the chitin autoclaved for 60 mins (i.e. PC-60 referred earlier). The retention time of the standard GlcNAc₂, as well as the sample obtained in this work, corresponded to the peak visible after 4.2 min. The chromatogram of the chitin hydrolysate detected by HPLC was also confirmed by the LC/MS mass spectra shown in Figure 4. The GlcNAc₂ spectrum detected at m/z 425.17 and 447.15 corresponds to the chitin dimer cationised by proton (H⁺) and sodium (Na),

Accepted Article

respectively. Moreover, the spectrum shows that the GlcNAc (222.09 m/z) and GlcNAc₂ were the only compounds detected in the hydrolysate of the chitin pre-treatment PC-60, and the absence of the higher oligomers. These results are consistent with an earlier study by Osada et al.², who employed a similar chitinase, i.e from *Streptomyces griseus*, to hydrolyse chitin into monomer and dimer of GlcNAc. Thus, the present, and indeed previous studies, suggest that the hydrolysis occurred by the following steps: (1) random cleaving to form the intermediate oligomers, i.e trimer (GlcNAc₃) and tetramer (GlcNAc₄) and (b) breaking down of the intermediate oligomers into GlcNAc and GlcNAc₂.²⁹

The concentration of GlcNAc and GlcNAc₂ obtained by the hydrolysis of the control and PC-60 pre-treated chitins were monitored between 12 and 48 h by HPLC. Figure 5 shows that the concentration of GlcNAc₂ in the hydrolysate obtained from PC-60 reached a maximum value after 24 h, whereas the concentration in the hydrolysate obtained from the control sample reached similar values after 36 h. The higher hydrolysis rate observed in the case of the pre-treated chitin may be attributed to the partial degradation and swelling of the chitin caused during pre-treatment, which also improves enzyme accessibility. Osada et al.² also reported swelling of chitin pre-treated at 400 °C for 1 min which resulted in a significantly higher formation of GlcNAc₂ after hydrolysis. Thus, thermal pre-treatment involving autoclaving in steam at a pressure of 204.7 kPa at 121 °C for 60 min, accelerated chitin hydrolysis with its crystalline structure preserved.

Effect of GlcNAc₂ on antimicrobial properties

Growth of *E.coli* and *L. monocytogenes* were significantly inhibited by the presence of GlcNAc₂ as shown in Figure 6 and Figure 7, respectively. The growth of these bacteria was found to be completely inhibited with the addition of 5% and 10% w/v of GlcNAc₂ respectively, which represent their respective MIC.

The inhibitory effect on Gram-negative and Gram-positive bacteria seems to increase with the concentration of GlcNAc₂. It has to be noted here that there has been only one study that reported the antimicrobial activity of the chitin dimer GlcNAc₂, compared to studies performed on the mixture of chitin and chitosan oligomers.³⁰ For example, molecules composed of dimer to hexamer (GlcNAc—GlcN)₂₋₆, which have molecular weights greater than monomer and dimer, are more likely to exert antimicrobial activity.^{5,30-32} Benhabiles et al.³ and Raut et al.⁴ found that *E. coli* was completely inhibited when treated with 0.1% (w/v) chitin and chitosan oligomers as well as chitin monomer. Low molecular weight chitosan oligomers have also been reported to effectively inhibit the bacteria.³³ No et al.³³ observed that 1.0% w/v of 1 kDa chitosan oligomers were more effective in inhibiting Gram-negative bacteria, including *E. coli*, compared to higher molecular weight oligomers. Benhabiles et al.³ also reported that the chitin and chitosan oligomers possess higher antibacterial activity with the MIC values being much lower than their native compounds. However, it has been argued by Kittur et al.⁵ that the chitosan monomer, GlcN, has lower antimicrobial activity than its hexamer, GlcN₆. This

indicates that the antimicrobial activity of the oligomers is dependent on their molecular weight. The higher the molecular weight of the oligomers, the greater its antimicrobial activity in the case of Gram-negative bacteria.

Studies on the inhibitory effect of the chitin against *L. monocytogenes* are very limited because of its functionality on the chitinolytic system. This bacteria possesses two chitinases, ChiA and ChiB, which can convert the chitin oligomers into monomers.^{34,35} Chitosan has been reported to be more active than its oligomers in inhibiting *L. monocytogenes* Scott A, having an MIC at 0.1% (w/v) in the presence of acetic acid after 24 h of incubation.³³ In that study, 1% acetic acid had been used as the chitosan solvent and was proven effective in inhibiting the growth of several Gram-negative and Gram-positive bacteria, apart from lactic acid bacteria that were more effectively suppressed when 1% lactic or formic acid was used. Chitin and chitosan are insoluble in water, therefore, strong inorganic and organic acids respectively, are required to dissolve these compounds.^{3,4,33} According to Bjarnsholt et al.³⁶, 0.5% acetic acid in AB minimal medium resulted in a pH equal to 4.33 that led to complete killing *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* PAO1. It was also revealed that the pH had a significant influence on the effectiveness of acetic acid as an antimicrobial agent.

In the present study, the mechanism of bacterial inactivation may be attributable either to (1) its ability to bind to and weaken the barrier function of the cell wall, followed by the destruction of the cell membrane; or to (2) the deposition of the

GlcNAc₂ on the cell wall thereby blocking the flow of nutrients into the cell.^{5,37,38} In addition, the MIC of the GlcNAc₂ against both Gram-negative and Gram-positive bacteria obtained in the present study cannot be directly compared to previously reported studies, in terms of the antibacterial activity of chitin and its derivatives, due to the variations between the degree of polymerisation, degree of acetylation and the presence of other functional group.³²

CONCLUSION

In this study, the accessibility limitation of the β -glycosidic bonds in the crystalline chitin for enzymatic reactions was overcome by employing thermal pre-treatment in an autoclave prior to hydrolysis with chitinase from *Streptomyces griseus*. Pre-treatment of chitin at 121 °C for 60 min was found to be effective for substrate modification prior to enzymatic hydrolysis. The crystallite size of chitin increased and deacetylation occurred as the pre-treatment residence time increased. The hydrolysis of pre-treated chitin with chitinase was completed within 24 h, showing that the proposed condition for pre-treatment accelerated the enzymatic reaction. The dominant GlcNAc₂ produced has advantages regarding its application as an antimicrobial agent since it is more readily soluble in water. The GlcNAc₂ produced in this study exhibited strong antimicrobial activity against *E. coli* and *L. monocytogenes*, showing MIC values of 5 and 10% w/v, respectively.

References

1. Abidin MZ, Junqueira-Gonçalves MP, Khutoryanskiy VV., Niranjana K. Intensifying chitin hydrolysis by adjunct treatments – an overview. *J Chem Technol Biotechnol* **92**:2787–2798 (2017).
2. Osada M, Miura C, Nakagawa YS, Kaihara M, Nikaido M, Totani K, Effect of sub- and supercritical water pretreatment on enzymatic degradation of chitin. *Carbohydr Polym* **88**:308–312 (2012).
3. Benhabiles MS, Salah R, Lounici H, Drouiche N, Goosen MFA, Mameri N, Antibacterial activity of chitin, chitosan and its oligomers prepared from shrimp shell waste. *Food Hydrocoll* **29**:48–56 (2012).
4. Raut AV, Satvekar RK, Rohiwal SS, Tiwari AP, Gnanamani A, Pushpavanam S, Nanaware SG, Pawar SH, In vitro biocompatibility and antimicrobial activity of chitin monomer obtained from hollow fiber membrane. *Des Monomers Polym* **19**:445–455 (2016).
5. Kittur FS, Vishu Kumar AB, Varadaraj MC, Tharanathan RN, Chitooligosaccharides - Preparation with the aid of pectinase isozyme from *Aspergillus niger* and their antibacterial activity. *Carbohydr Res* **340**:1239–1245 (2005).
6. Ling Z, Chen S, Zhang X, Takabe K, Xu F, Unraveling variations of crystalline cellulose induced by ionic liquid and their effects on enzymatic hydrolysis. *Sci*

Rep 7:1–11 (2017).

7. Zhang Z, Zhao ZK, Solid acid and microwave-assisted hydrolysis of cellulose in ionic liquid. *Carbohydr Res* **344**:2069–2072 (2009).
8. Husson E, Hadad C, Huet G, Laclef S, Lesur D, Lambertyn V, Jamali A, Gottis S, Sarazin C, Nguyen Van Nhien A, The effect of room temperature ionic liquids on the selective biocatalytic hydrolysis of chitin via sequential or simultaneously strategies. *Green Chem.* Royal Society of Chemistry; **19**:4122–4131 (2017).
9. Berton P, Shamshina JL, Rogers RD, Ostadjoo S, King CA, Enzymatic hydrolysis of ionic liquid-extracted chitin. *Carbohydr Polym* [Internet]. Elsevier; **199**:228–2235 (2018).
10. No HK, Nah JW, Meyers SP, Effect of time/temperature treatment parameters on depolymerization of chitosan. *J Appl Polym Sci* **87**:1890–1894 (2003).
11. Das S, Sen R, Roy D, Enzymatic processing of chitinaceous wastes for N-acetyl-D-glucosamine production: An example of green and efficient environmental management. *Environ Eng Manag J* **11**:1849–1855 (2012).
12. Saqib AAN, Whitney PJ, Differential behaviour of the dinitrosalicylic acid (DNS) reagent towards mono- and di-saccharide sugars. *Biomass Bioenerg* **35**:4748–4750 (2011).

- Accepted Article
13. Villa-Lerma G, González-Márquez H, Gimeno M, Trombotto S, David L, Ifuku S, Shirai K, Enzymatic hydrolysis of chitin pretreated by rapid depressurization from supercritical 1,1,1,2-tetrafluoroethane toward highly acetylated oligosaccharides. *Bioresour Technol* **209**:180–186 (2016).
 14. Sa Y, Guo Y, Feng X, Wang M, Li P, Gao Y, Yang X, Jiang T, Are different crystallinity-index-calculating methods of hydroxyapatite efficient and consistent? *New J Chem* **41**:5723–5731 (2017).
 15. Ioelovich M, Crystallinity and hydrophilicity of chitin and chitosan. *J Chem* **3**:7–14 (2014).
 16. Liao H, Tzeng H, Chen S, Yen Y, Hospital MM, Science L, Preparation of chitooligosaccharides from chitin hydrolyzates with anti-leukemia activity, in *Asian Pacific Confederation of Chemical Engineering Congress*, The Society of Chemical Engineers, Japan, pp 800 (2004).
 17. Trombotto S, Ladavière C, Delolme F, Domard A, Chemical preparation and structural characterization of a homogeneous series of chitin / chitosan oligomers. *Biomacromolecules* **9**:1731–1738 (2008).
 18. Qaiyumi S, Macro- and microdilution methods of antimicrobial susceptibility testing, in *Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing Protocols*, ed by Schwalbe R, Steele-Moore L, Goodwin A. CRC Press, Taylor & Francis Group, pp 75-81 (2007).

- Accepted Article
19. Andrews JM, Determination of minimum inhibitory concentrations. *J Antimicrob Chemother* **48**:5–16 (2001).
 20. Osada M, Miura C, Nakagawa YS, Kaihara M, Nikaido M, Totani K, Effects of supercritical water and mechanochemical grinding treatments on physicochemical properties of chitin. *Carbohydr Polym* **92**:1573–1578 (2013).
 21. Park S, Baker JO, Himmel ME, Parilla PA, Johnson DK, Cellulose crystallinity index: Measurement techniques and their impact on interpreting cellulase performance. *Biotechnol Biofuels* **3**:1–10 (2010).
 22. Nishino T, Matsui R, Nakamae K, Elastic modulus of the crystalline regions of chitin and chitosan. *J Polym Sci Part B Polym Phys* **37**:1191–1196 (1999).
 23. Kunz T, Lee EJ, Schiwiek V, Seewald T, Methner FJ, Glucose – A reducing sugar? Reducing properties of sugars in beverages and food. *Brew Sci* **64**:61–67 (2011).
 24. Roy I, Mondal K, Gupta MN, Accelerating enzymatic hydrolysis of chitin by microwave pretreatment. *Biotechnol Prog* **19**:1648–1653 (2003).
 25. Villa-Ierma G, González-márquez H, Gimeno M, López-luna A, Bárzana E, Shirai K, Ultrasonication and steam-explosion as chitin pretreatments for chitin oligosaccharide production by chitinases of *Lecanicillium lecanii*. *Bioresour Technol* **146**:794–798 (2013).

- Accepted Article
26. Younes I, Hajji S, Frachet V, Rinaudo M, Jellouli K, Nasri M, Chitin extraction from shrimp shell using enzymatic treatment. Antitumor, antioxidant and antimicrobial activities of chitosan. *Int J Biol Macromol* **69**:489–498 (2014).
 27. Kasaai MR, Determination of the degree of N-acetylation for chitin and chitosan by various NMR spectroscopy techniques: A review. *Carbohydr Polym* **79**:801–810 (2010).
 28. Alvira P, Tomás-Pejó E, Ballesteros M, Negro MJ, Pretreatment technologies for an efficient bioethanol production process based on enzymatic hydrolysis: A review. *Bioresour Technol* **101**:4851–4861 (2010).
 29. Berger L, Reynold DM, The chitinase system of a strain of *Streptomyces Griseus*. *Biochim Biophys Acta* **29**:522–534 (1958).
 30. Kumar ABV, Varadaraj MC, Gowda LR, Tharanathan RN, Characterization of chito-oligosaccharides prepared by chitosanolsysis with the aid of papain and Pronase, and their bactericidal action against *Bacillus cereus* and *Escherichia coli*. *Biochem J* **175**:167–175 (2005).
 31. Jeon Y, Kim S, Production of chitooligosaccharides using an ultrafiltration membrane reactor and their antibacterial activity. *Carbohydr Polym* **41**:133–141 (2000).
 32. Jeon Y, Park P, Kim S, Antimicrobial effect of chitooligosaccharides produced by bioreactor. *Carbohydr Polym* **44**:71–76 (2001).

- Accepted Article
33. No HK, Park NY, Lee SH, Meyers SP, Antibacterial activity of chitosans and chitosan oligomers with different molecular weights. *Int J Food Microbiol* **74**:65–72 (2002).
 34. Paspaliari DK, Loose JSM, Larsen MH, Vaaje-Kolstad G, *Listeria monocytogenes* has a functional chitinolytic system and an active lytic polysaccharide monooxygenase. *FEBS J* **282**:921–936 (2015).
 35. Leisner JJ, Larsen MH, Jørgensen RL, Brøndsted L, Thomsen LE, Ingmer H, Chitin hydrolysis by *Listeria* spp., including *L. monocytogenes*. *Appl Environ Microbiol* **74**:3823–3830 (2008).
 36. Bjarnsholt T, Alhede M, Jensen PØ, Nielsen AK, Johansen HK, Homøe P, Høiby N, Givskov M, Kirketerp-Møller K, Antibiofilm properties of acetic acid. *Adv Wound Care* **4**:363–372 (2015).
 37. Chung YC, Chen CY, Antibacterial characteristics and activity of acid-soluble chitosan. *Bioresour Technol* **99**:2806–2814 (2008).
 38. Helander IM, Nurmiaho-Lassila EL, Ahvenainen R, Rhoades J, Roller S, Chitosan disrupts the barrier properties of the outer membrane of Gram-negative bacteria. *Int J Food Microbiol* **71**:235–244 (2001).

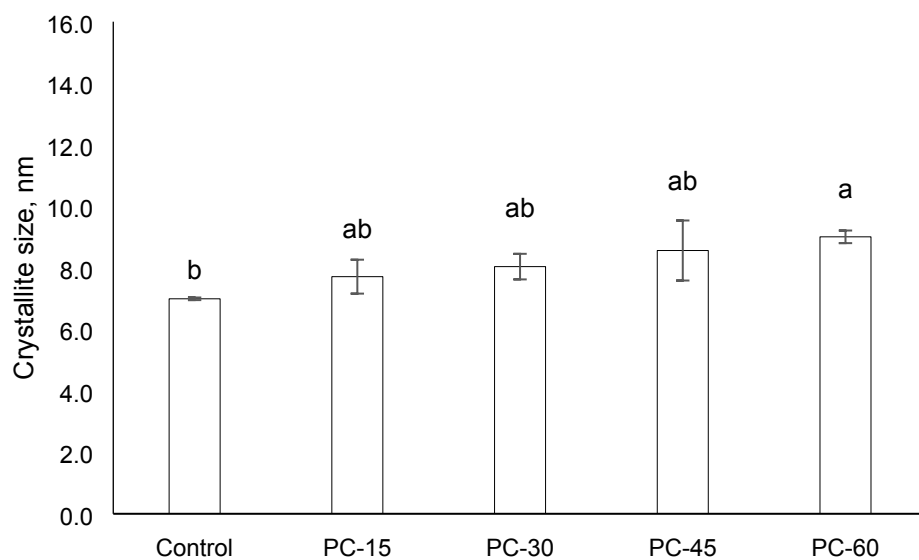


Figure 1. Crystallite size (nm) of chitin in sodium acetate buffer (pH 6.0) after autoclaving at 121 °C for time durations between 15 and 60 min. Control represents non-autoclaved chitin in the same solution. Different letters above each bar indicate significant differences ($P < 0.05$) between pre-treatment conditions.

Table 1. Effect of autoclaving chitin at 121 °C (204.7 kPa) for various times on the reducing sugar content and crystallinity index (I_{CR}).

Sample	Time (min)	Reducing sugars (mg/mL)	I_{CR} (%)
Control	-	ND	74.534 a
PC-15	15	0.005 b	75.394 a
PC-30	30	0.003 b	73.933 a
PC-45	45	0.006 b	74.182 a
PC-60	60	0.010 a	74.894 a

*ND, not detected

** Different letters in each column indicate significant differences ($P<0.05$) among pre-treatment conditions

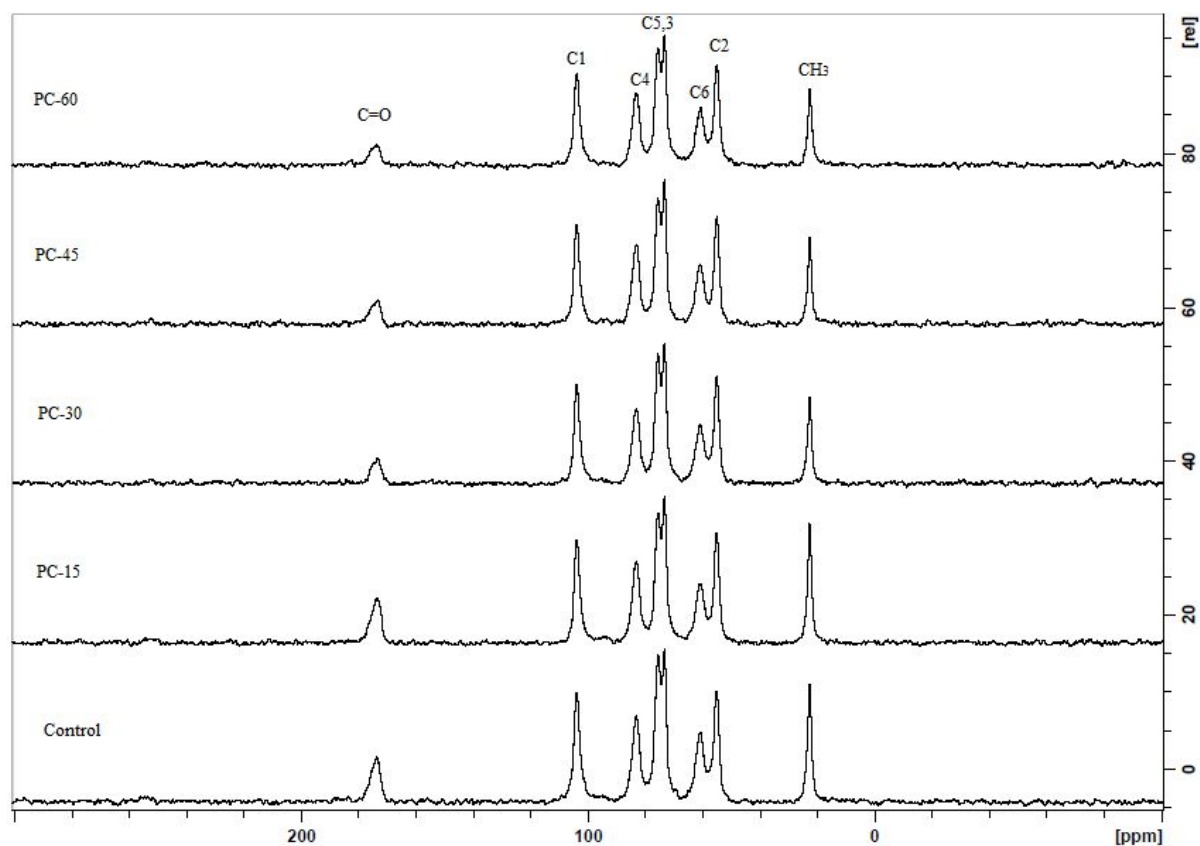


Figure 2. ^{13}C CP/MAS NMR spectra of control and thermal pre-treated chitin in sodium acetate buffer with pH 6.0 at 121 °C between 15 and 60 min.

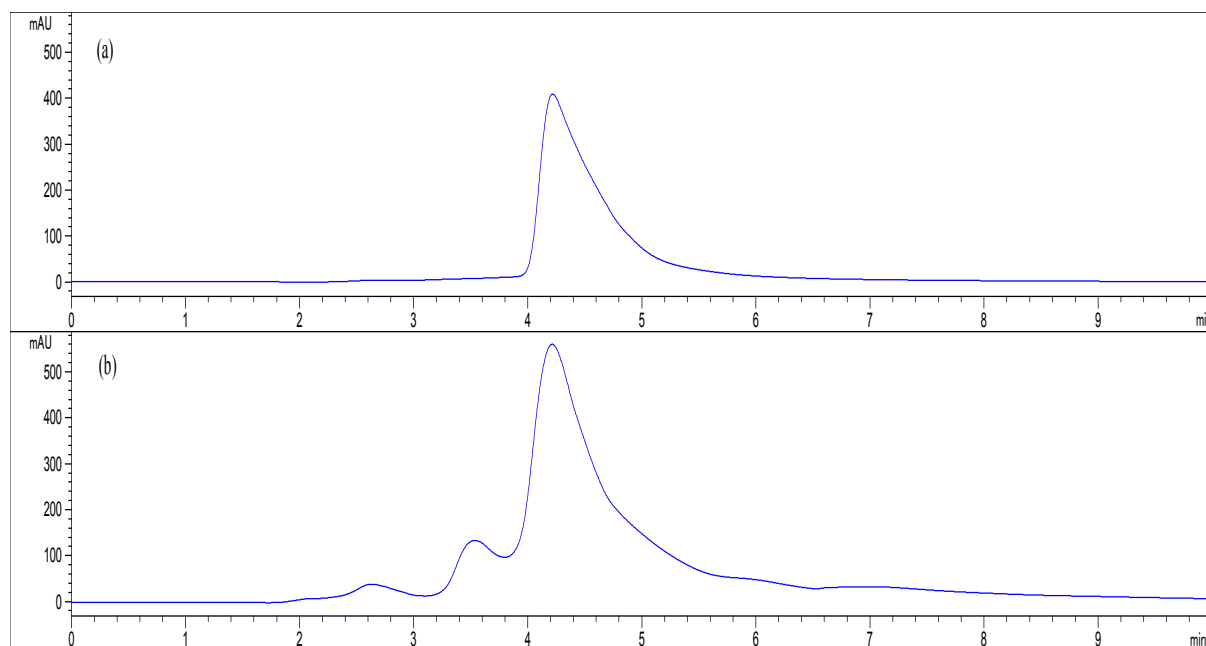


Figure 3. HPLC chromatography of (a) standard GlcNAc₂ and (b) sample GlcNAc₂ obtained in this study (i.e. hydrolysate obtained by reacting pre-treated chitin sample, i.e. PC-60, with chitinase from *Streptomyces griseus* at 40 °C for 24 h).

250319_MZA_NH1_KN#191-249 RT: 3.79-4.97 AV: 30 NL: 2.75E7
T: FTMS + p ESI Full ms [85.00-2000.00]

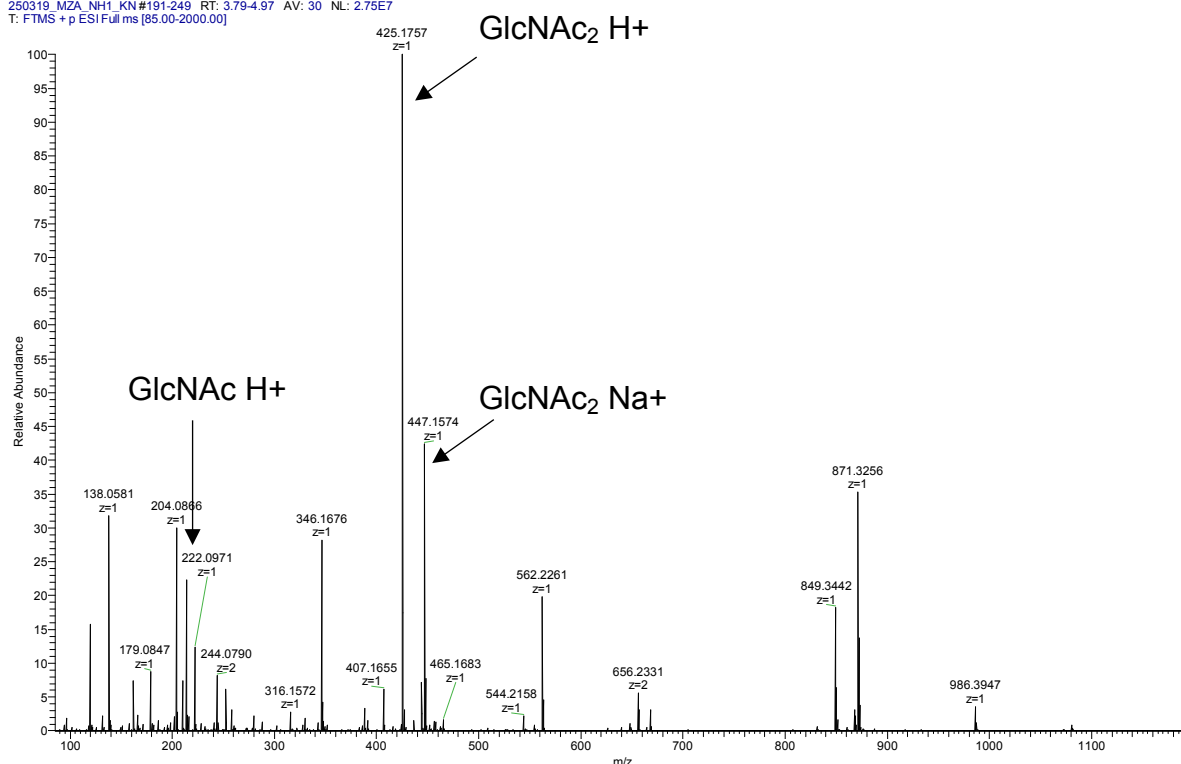


Figure 4. Mass spectra obtained by LC/MS of the hydrolysate formed from PC-60 after hydrolysis at 40 °C for 24 h by chitinase from *Streptomyces griseus*.

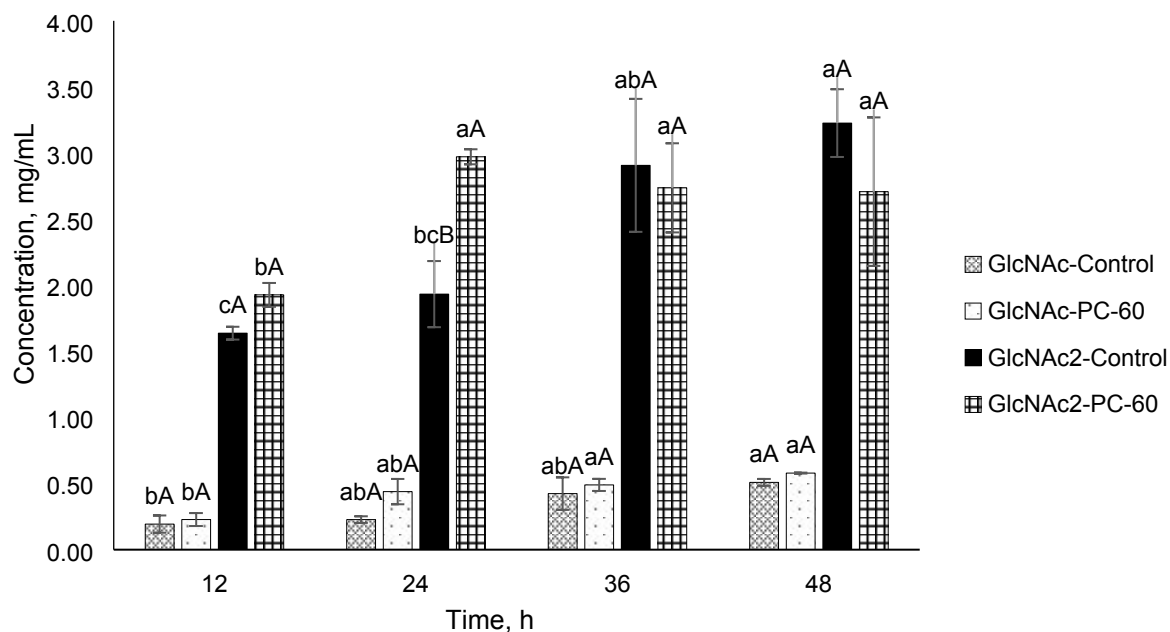


Figure 5. Time course of enzymatic hydrolysis of pre-treated (PC-60) and untreated (control) chitin with chitinase from *Streptomyces griseus* at 40 °C. Different small and capital letters indicate significant differences ($P < 0.05$) between incubation time (h) and pre-treatment conditions of each compound, respectively.

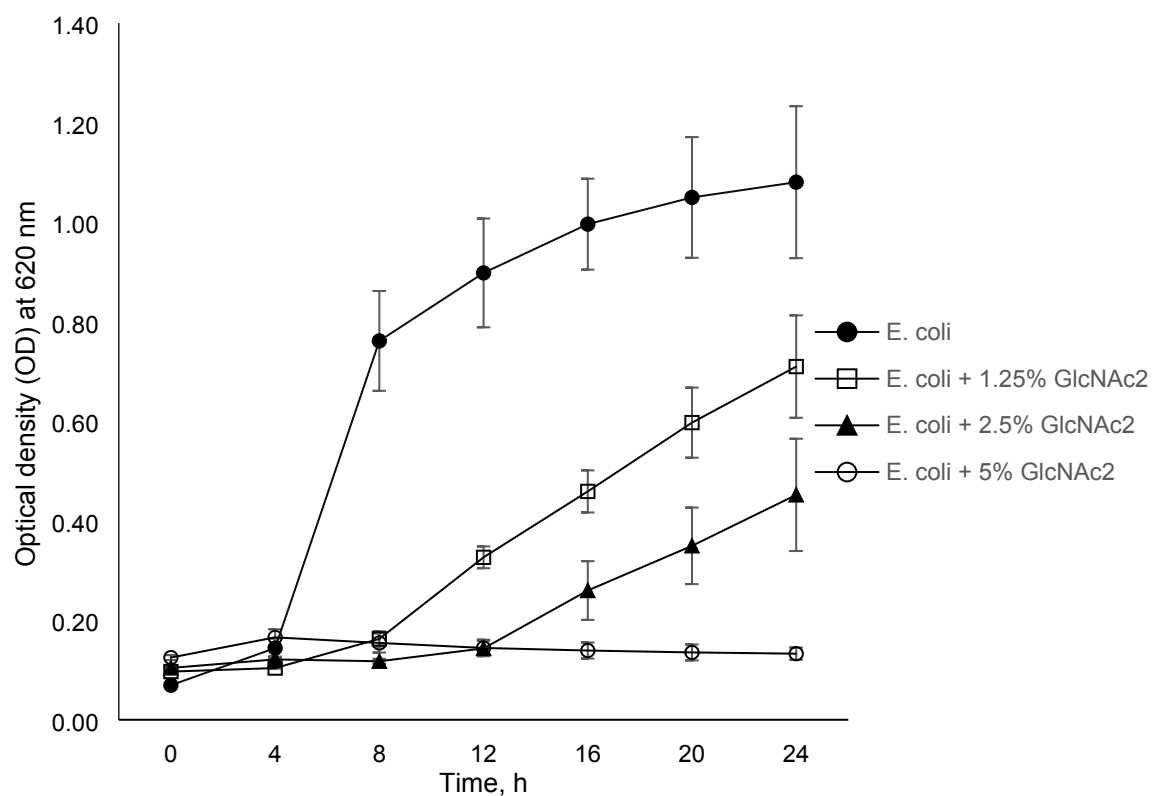


Figure 6. Effect of GlcNAc₂ on growth of *E. coli* K-12 at 37 °C for 24 h.

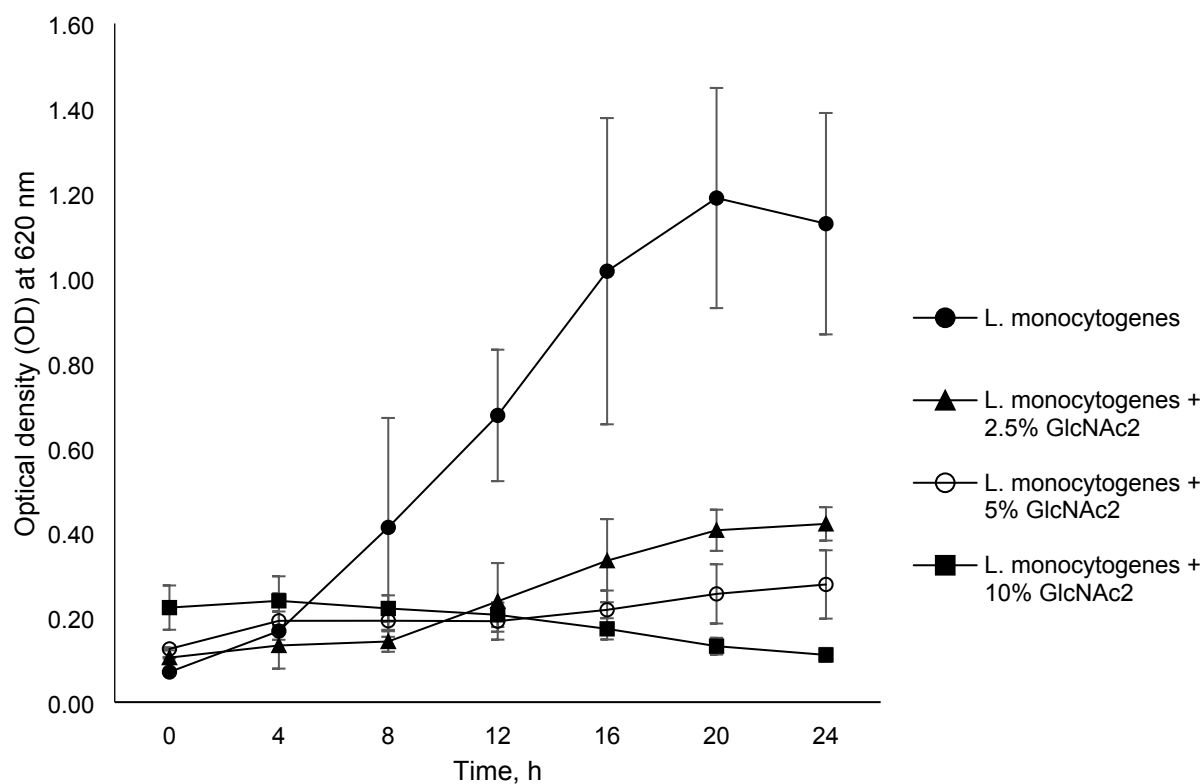


Figure 7. Effect of GlcNAc₂ on the growth of *L. monocytogenes* 10403S at 37 °C for 24 h.