



Glycolipids from the aerial parts of *Orostachys japonicus* with fatty acid synthase inhibitory and cytotoxic activities

HaiYan Zhang^a, Joonseok Oh^b, Tae-Su Jang^c, Byung Sun Min^d, MinKyun Na^{a,*}

^a College of Pharmacy, Yeungnam University, Gyeongsan, Gyeongbuk 712-749, Republic of Korea

^b Department of Pharmacognosy, School of Pharmacy, The University of Mississippi, University, MS 38677, USA

^c College of Medicine, CHA University, Seoul 135-080, Republic of Korea

^d College of Pharmacy, Catholic University of Daegu, Gyeongsan, Gyeongbuk 712-702, Republic of Korea

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ABSTRACT

Inhibition of fatty acid synthase (FAS) has been proposed as a new therapeutic target for the treatment of cancer. In our preliminary study, a MeOH extract of the aerial parts of *Orostachys japonicus* A. Berger (Crassulaceae) inhibited FAS activity (>95% inhibition at 62.5 µg/mL). Through bioassay-guided fractionation, we isolated three cerebroside (1–3), including one new compound (1), and seven glyceroglycolipids (4–10) from a FAS inhibitory hexane-soluble fraction of the MeOH extract of *O. japonicus*. On the basis of physicochemical and spectroscopic analyses including 1D and 2D NMR, HRFABMS, and ESIMS/MS, the structure of the new compound 1 was 1-O-(β-D-glucopyranosyl)-(2S,3S,4R,6Z,10E)-2-[(2'R,6'Z,9'Z)-2-hydroxyeicosa-6',9'-dienoylamino]-1,3,4-trihydroxytetracos-6,10-diene, and it was named orostachys-cerebroside A. Compounds 1–10 were tested for their *in vitro* FAS inhibitory activity, and compounds 1, 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8 inhibited the enzyme with micro-molar IC₅₀ values both in the incorporation of [³H] acetyl CoA (from 52.2 to 108.0 µM) and in the oxidation of NADPH (from 19.5 to 30.3 µM). Interestingly, compounds 1, 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8 with FAS inhibitory activity showed cytotoxic activity against HL-60 (human leukemia) and A549 (human lung adenocarcinoma) cancer cells, while none of them displayed cytotoxicity against MCF-7 (human breast adenocarcinoma) cells. This is the first report on the inhibition of FAS by glycolipids from *O. japonicus* and their cytotoxic activity and may provide a scientific basis for the folk remedy using the plant to treat cancer.

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1. Introduction

Fatty acid synthase (FAS) is a sophisticated multifunctional enzyme that is responsible for the reductive *de novo* synthesis of long-chain fatty acids from acetyl-CoA, malonyl-CoA, and nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate (NADPH) (Wakil, 1989). Recently, inhibition of this enzyme was suggested to hold promise as a strategy for cancer chemoprevention because increased expression of FAS has emerged as a common phenotype of most human carcinomas (Kuhajda, 2000). Indeed, the expression and activity of FAS is extremely low in nearly all nonmalignant adult tissues, whereas FAS is significantly up-regulated or highly activated in various cancer cell types (Kuhajda, 2006). Therefore, FAS inhibitors could be developed into ideal anti-cancer agents that are selectively cytotoxic to human cancer cells. The pioneering observations that inhibition of FAS by cerulenin or C75 selectively kills cancer cells via apoptosis induction and tumor growth inhibition in a number of *in vitro* and *in vivo* studies have validated the

reliance of cancer cell survival on FAS activity (Pizer et al., 2000; Wang et al., 2005; Zhou et al., 2003). Other reported FAS inhibitors such as the green tea polyphenol epigallocatechin-3-gallate (EGCG) and flavonoids (i.e., luteolin, quercetin, and kaempferol) inhibited cancer cell growth by inducing apoptotic cell death, also suggesting that those FAS inhibitors could be developed into a lead drug for anti-neoplastic properties (Lupu & Menendez, 2006). However, these reported FAS inhibitor candidates have limitations in practical use. Cerulenin was reported to be chemically unstable and C75 (Swinnen, Brusselmans, & Verhoeven, 2006), a more chemically stable derivative of cerulenin, induced significant weight loss in an *in vivo* assay (Pizer et al., 2000). Therefore, more potent and clinically suitable leads for FAS inhibitors should be explored from natural product libraries given the fact that 77.8% of approved anti-neoplastic agents during last two decades were either natural products themselves or structurally based on them, or were their semi-synthetic analogs (Newman & Cragg, 2007). The discovery of cerulenin and plantensimycin in a natural product pool as possible FAS inhibitors (Hata et al., 1960; Wright & Reynolds, 2007) confirms that such pools are a huge source of potential templates for FAS inhibitors. Hundreds of plant extracts were screened

* Corresponding author. Tel.: +82 53 810 2820; fax: +82 53 810 4654.

E-mail address: mkna@ynu.ac.kr (M. Na).

for FAS inhibition, and a MeOH extract of the aerial parts of *Orostachys japonicus* (Crassulaceae) exhibited potent FAS inhibitory activity (>95% inhibition at 62.5 $\mu\text{g/mL}$).

O. japonicus A. Berger (Crassulaceae) is a perennial herb that is distributed in Korea, China, and Japan. In Korea, it is widely utilized as a traditional remedy for hepatitis, boils, hemorrhoids (Kim, 1984), fever, gingivitis, and cancers (Lee, Seo, Shin, Lee, & Sung, 2008). In addition to the medicinal application, the plant is also used as a healthy food (Lee et al., 2011), and several kinds of health beverages and food supplements containing *O. japonicus* are commercialized in Korea. On the basis of these traditional clinical practices, a number of bioactivities of the medicinal plant have been verified, including the calpain inhibitory effect (Kim et al., 2009), anti-ulcerogenic effects (Jung, Choi, Nam, & Park, 2007), augmentation of hepatic alcohol dehydrogenase, anti-apoptotic activity in neuronal cells (Yoon et al., 2000), and antioxidant effect (Lee et al., 2011). Despite the traditional practices for alleviating cancer-related diseases, the number of reports investigating the possibility that *O. japonicus* could provide useful and novel compounds for the treatment of cancer diseases is relatively negligible. Furthermore, whether the medicinal plant could be a lucrative chemical pool to produce a lead template to develop into a FAS inhibitor has never been researched. Previous phytochemical studies only reported that *O. japonicus* produced secondary metabolites including epicatechin gallate (Kim et al., 2009), acylated sterol glucoside (Yoon, Min, Lee, Park, & Choi, 2005), and flavonoids (Sung, Jung, & Kim, 2002), which leaves a vast selection of unexplored secondary metabolites with the potential to produce cytotoxic lead compounds. Bioassay-guided fractionation was therefore performed using the MeOH extract of *O. japonicus*, which showed promising *in vitro* inhibitory activity on FAS in the preliminary screening. Three cerebrosides (**1–3**) including one new compound **1** named orostachyscerebroside A, and seven glyceroglycolipids (**4–10**) were purified from the hexane-soluble fraction of the MeOH extract. All the isolated compounds were evaluated for FAS inhibitory activity and cytotoxic activities against HL-60 (human leukemia), A549 (human lung adenocarcinoma), and MCF-7 (human breast adenocarcinoma) cancer cells. This is the first report on the inhibition of FAS by glycolipids from *O. japonicus* and their cytotoxic activity.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. General experimental procedures

Optical rotations were measured on a JASCO DIP-370 (Tokyo, Japan) automatic digital polarimeter. VLC was performed on Merck silica gel (70–230 mesh). MPLC was carried out with Biotage Isolera™. Reversed phase C₁₈ SNAP Cartridge KP-C₁₈-HS (120 g, Biotage) and silica gel SNAP Cartridge HP-Sil (100 g, Biotage) were used for MPLC. HPLC separation was performed with a Gilson system with a UV detector and a Luna C₁₈ column (250 \times 21.2 mm, 10 μm). High and low resolution FABMS data were obtained on a JEOL JMS-700. The LCQ advantage trap mass spectrometer (Thermo Finnigan, San Jose, CA, USA) was equipped with an electrospray ionization (ESI) source. TLC was performed on glass plates pre-coated with silica gel F₂₅₄ (20 \times 20 cm, 200 μm , 60 Å, Merck). NMR spectra were recorded on JEOL ECA-500 (¹H, 500 MHz, ¹³C, 125 MHz) and Varian VNS600 (¹H, 600 MHz, ¹³C, 150 MHz) spectrometers. Conventional pulse sequences were used for COSY, HMQC and HMBC. All NMR experiments were performed at 294 K, using pyridine-*d*₅ (**1–3**) or CD₃OD (**4–10**) as the solvent. Chemical shifts were given on the δ scale and referenced by pyridine-*d*₅ as an internal standard ($\delta_{\text{H}}=7.19$, $\delta_{\text{C}}=123.5$) or CD₃OD as an internal standard ($\delta_{\text{H}}=3.31$, $\delta_{\text{C}}=49.0$). Coupling constants (*J*) are in Hz. Data processing was carried out with MestReNova

v6.0.2 program. Optical density (OD) values in the cytotoxic activity by 3-(4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide (MTT) assays were read on a TECAN ELISA Microplate Reader.

2.2. Plant material

The aerial parts of *O. japonicus* were purchased from “Gaya Wasong”, a commercial farm in Gyeongnam, Korea, in July 2008, and identified by Prof. MinKyun Na of the College of Pharmacy, Yeungnam University. A voucher specimen (2008-0196A) was deposited in the herbarium of College of Pharmacy, Yeungnam University.

2.3. Extraction and isolation

The dried aerial parts of *O. japonicus* (1.8 kg) were extracted with methanol (MeOH, 3 \times 8 L) at room temperature for 7 days. The dried MeOH extract (395 g) was suspended in water and partitioned sequentially with *n*-hexane, CH₂Cl₂, and EtOAc. The *n*-hexane-soluble fraction (53 g) that showed FAS inhibitory activity was subjected to silica gel VLC (20 \times 25 cm), and eluted with a step-wise gradient of *n*-hexane/EtOAc and EtOAc/MeOH [90:10, 80:20, 70:30, 60:40, 50:50, 40:60, 30:70, 100:0, 60:40, 0:100 (each 3 L)] to give 10 fractions (Fr. 1–10). Fr. 3–9 showed higher FAS inhibitory activity than the original fraction. Fr. 9 (2.8 g, eluted with 60:40) was further divided into five fractions (Fr. 9–1 to 9–5) using MPLC [silica gel SNAP Cartridge HP-Sil (100 g, Biotage) column; UV 254 and 210 nm] with a gradient of CH₂Cl₂/MeOH (from 95:5 to 100:0; v/v). Fr. 9–3 (1.18 g) was fractionated by C₁₈ [C₁₈ SNAP Cartridge KP-C₁₈-HS (120 g, Biotage) column; UV 254 and 210 nm] MPLC using a gradient of MeOH/H₂O (from 60:40 to 70:30; v/v) to yield five subfractions (Fr. 9-3-1 to 9-3-5). Purification of Fr. 9-3-2 (784.1 mg) using the reversed phase HPLC [Luna 10u C₈ column; 21.2 \times 250 mm; 10 μm particle size; 6 mL/min; MeOH/H₂O (from 75:25 to 100:0; v/v); UV 210 and 203 nm] and reversed phase HPLC [Luna C₁₈ column; 21.2 \times 250 mm; 10 μm particle size; 6 mL/min; MeOH/H₂O (from 75:25 to 100:0; v/v); UV 210 and 203 nm] resulted in the isolation of compounds **1** (25.0 mg, *t*_R = 79 min), mixture of **2** and **3** (63.7 mg, *t*_R = 73 min), **4** (22.2 mg, *t*_R = 69 min), **5** (5.1 mg, *t*_R = 71 min), **6** (17.8 mg, *t*_R = 61 min), **7** (22.2 mg, *t*_R = 66 min), **8** (5.1 mg, *t*_R = 67 min), **9** (7.1 mg, *t*_R = 29 min), **10** (13.3 mg, *t*_R = 31 min).

Compound **1**: colorless amorphous powder; $[\alpha]_{\text{D}}^{25} + 6.8^\circ$ (*c* = 0.1, MeOH); ¹H and ¹³C NMR data, see Table 1; FABMS *m/z*: 866 [M + H]⁺, 704 [(M + H) – 162]⁺; ESIMS/MS *m/z*: 866 [M + H]⁺, 848 [(M + H) – H₂O]⁺, 704 [(M + H) – 162]⁺, 686 [(M + H) – H₂O]⁺, 500 [(M + H) – 366]⁺. HRFABMS *m/z*: 866.6724 [M + H]⁺ (Calcd for C₅₀H₉₁NO₁₀: 866.6721).

Compounds **2** and **3**: white amorphous powder; $[\alpha]_{\text{D}}^{25} + 7.8^\circ$ (*c* = 0.1, MeOH); ¹H and ¹³C NMR data, see Supplementary data; FABMS *m/z*: 736 [M + Na]⁺, 574 [(M + H) – 162]⁺, 534 [(M + H) – 162 – H₂O]⁺, 482 [fatty acid unit + Na]⁺.

Compound **4**: colorless oil; $[\alpha]_{\text{D}}^{25} + 47.6^\circ$ (*c* = 0.1, MeOH); ¹H and ¹³C NMR data, see Supplementary data; FABMS *m/z*: 939 [M + Na]⁺, 777 [(M + Na) – 162]⁺, 405, 363, 347; ESIMS/MS *m/z*: 939 [M + Na]⁺, 777 [(M + Na) – 162]⁺, 659 [(M + Na) – R₁COOH]⁺, 683 [(M + Na) – R₂COOH]⁺, 497 [(M + Na) – 162 – R₁COOH]⁺, 521 [(M + Na) – 162 – R₂COOH]⁺, 405, 363, 347.

Compound **5**: colorless oil; $[\alpha]_{\text{D}}^{25} + 32.1^\circ$ (*c* = 0.1, MeOH); ¹H and ¹³C NMR data, see Supplementary data; FABMS *m/z*: 965 [M + Na]⁺, 405, 363, 347; ESIMS/MS *m/z*: 965 [M + Na]⁺, 803 [(M + Na) – 162]⁺, 681 [(M + Na) – R₁COOH]⁺, 687 [(M + Na) – R₂COOH]⁺, 519 [(M + Na) – 162 – R₁COOH]⁺, 405, 363, 347.

Compound **6**: colorless oil; $[\alpha]_{\text{D}}^{25} + 14.6^\circ$ (*c* = 0.1, MeOH); ¹H and ¹³C NMR data, see Supplementary data; FABMS *m/z*: 991 [M + Na]⁺, 347; ESIMS/MS *m/z*: 991 [M + Na]⁺, 829 [(M + Na) – 162]⁺, 811 [(M + Na) – 162 – H₂O]⁺, 681 [(M + Na) – R₁COOH]⁺, 713

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