



Received on 14 April 2023; received in revised form, 21 August 2023; accepted, 21 November 2023; published 01 January 2024

A REVIEW ON ACETYLCHOLINESTERASE INHIBITING THERAPEUTICS AND RECENT BREAKTHROUGHS IN THE FIELD OF ALZHEIMER'S DISEASE

Pardeep Singh¹, Ritu Karwasra³, Ajay Sharma² and Tarana Umar^{*3}

Department of Chemistry¹, UIS, Chandigarh University, Mohali - 140413, Punjab, India.

Department of Pharmacognosy & Phytochemistry², Delhi Pharmaceutical Sciences and Research University, Tughlakabad - 110017, New Delhi, India.

Central Council for Research in Unani Medicine (CCRUM)³, Ministry of AYUSH, Government of India, Janakpuri - 110058, New Delhi, India.

Keywords:

Alzheimer's disease treatment,
Dementia, Donepezil,
Neurodegenerative disorder,
Lecanemab

Correspondence to Author:

Dr. Tarana Umar

Assistant Professor,
Central Council for Research in Unani
Medicine (CCRUM), Ministry of
AYUSH, Government of India,
Janakpuri - 110058, New Delhi, India.

E-mail: taranaumar@gmail.com

ABSTRACT: Alzheimer's disease (AD) is one of the most well-studied neurodegenerative conditions. It is a debilitating chronic disease of the central nervous system (CNS). Almost 131.5 million individuals are predicted to be affected by the disease by 2050. The main effects of AD are cognitive decline and language problems. One of the factors contributing to AD is the gradual decrease in the brain's concentrations of the neurotransmitter acetylcholine. The breakdown of acetylcholine is carried out by the increased activity of the acetylcholinesterase (AChE) enzyme within the brain. Many natural and synthetic acetylcholinesterase inhibitors (AChEIs) have been created in order to slow down the progression of the disease over the years. Currently, there are two potential AChEIs (Donepezil and Galantamine) that have shown positive clinical advantages. Furthermore, Rivastigmine is claimed to be an anti-AChE molecule showing the effects similar to Donepezil and Galantamine. The knowledge of specific as well as multitargeted molecules to treat or cure AD is the ultimate route to reach achievements in the field of AD medication. The intention of this review article is to give an overview of different types of cholinesterase Inhibitors (ChEIs) such as single and multi-target inhibitors and natural organic compounds used in curing AD. Furthermore, the recent breakthroughs in the field of AD are also discussed.

INTRODUCTION: In today's world, Alzheimer's disease (AD), due to its prevalence, is one of the most researched neurodegenerative diseases. AD was first identified by Dr. Alois Alzheimer who was a German psychiatrist. He saw the symptoms (memory loss and language disorder) of AD in one his patients in 1901¹.

The Global Alzheimer Survey 2016 estimates that there are currently 46.8 million AD patients worldwide. Almost 131.5 million individuals are predicted to be affected by the disease by 2050. All global regions will experience a sharp rise in dementia prevalence as a result of population ageing.

After cardiovascular disorders, AD is now the major contributor to disability and mortality in the older population². It often begins at age 65 and is defined by a gradual decline in mental abilities. Disease development differs from patient to patient, possibly due to concomitant conditions that

<p>QUICK RESPONSE CODE</p> 	<p>DOI: 10.13040/IJPSR.0975-8232.15(1).35-44</p> <hr/> <p>This article can be accessed online on www.ijpsr.com</p> <hr/> <p>DOI link: https://doi.org/10.13040/IJPSR.0975-8232.15(1).35-44</p>
---	---

contribute to the intensity of symptoms. The specific reasons of AD onset and progression are yet unknown. Based on what we know so far, this disease can be classified as a multifaceted disease depending on the factors like hereditary and environmental conditions³. There are now seven contending hypotheses related with the onset of AD⁴.

Changes in the cholinergic system⁵. Improper disintegration of the precursor protein of amyloid causes the formation of beta-amyloid clumps⁶. Development of intracellular neurofibrillary tangles⁷. Oxidative stress⁸ neuro-inflammation⁹. Heavy metal concentrations are high¹⁰. Disorders of the metabolism arising from the interruption in cholesterol homeostasis¹¹ and obesity¹².

In this paper, only the first hypothesis *i.e.*; changes in the cholinergic system and the recent breakthroughs in AD field will be thoroughly discussed. According to this hypothesis, a significant decline in the levels of acetylcholine (ACh) neurons is thought to be the primary factor behind the normal slowdown of learning and memory functions observed in AD⁵. As a result, numerous pharmaceutical methods have been developed with the goal of slowing AD signs and restoring ACh concentration in the synaptic cleft by using cholinergic agonists to improve the synthesis of neurotransmitter ACh. Unfortunately, due to severe side effects, such tactics were mainly ineffectual in the treatment of AD. Many mechanisms, including decreased activity of the enzyme choline O-acetyltransferase, which produces ACh, and increased catalytic activity of the acetylcholinesterase enzyme, which destroys it, could be to blame for the drop in ACh concentration⁴.

Therapeutic treatments aimed at the inhibition of the acetylcholinesterase (AChE) enzyme were frequently chosen as a target. AChE inhibitors (AChEIs) are found to be highly effective in the increment of ACh concentration which improves cholinergic neurotransmission and allows patients with AD to regain cognitive abilities¹³. AChEIs, on the other hand, are not without side effects. They can be non-selective in inhibition¹⁴. The human body has also other types of cholinesterase besides AChE. AChE is present in the neural synapses

while butyrylcholinesterase (BuChE) is present in the liver and neurotic plaques.¹⁵ They both have different physiological substrates. Acetylcholine (ACh) is the physiological substrate for AChE while butyrylcholine (BuCh) is the physiological substrate for BuChE¹⁶. Some ChEIs lack sufficient selectivity since they can't tell the difference between AChE and BuChE. Therefore, there were a need of designing and producing some novel specific inhibitors⁴.

Acetylcholinesterase: AChE has been demonstrated to be the primary treatment target for the clinical relief of AD. It is a key enzyme found in the peripheral and the central nervous system. Its principal function is to catalyse ACh hydrolysis, which results in the production of choline and acetate ions. AChE can also be present in the red blood cells where it forms the antigen of the Yt blood group. It facilitates identifying a person's blood type¹⁷. It can be found in two distinct molecular forms such as homomeric and heteromeric oligomers. Homomeric form of AChE is typically exists in soluble form within the cells. These oligomers are secreted or connected with the exterior membrane *via* glycol-phospholipid attachment. Heteromeric oligomers are more commonly detected in the neural synapses. These oligomers are found on the cell membrane's outer surface where they are present in the form of catalytic subunits consisting of tetramers subunits joined with the next subunits.

AChE is one of the most efficient enzymes ever examined in terms of kinetics. AChE has an average turnover period of 100 microseconds and a molecule of this enzyme can hydrolyse 6×10^5 ACh molecules each minute. The majority of ACh degradation occurs at the nerve level, where AChEs are found in the postsynaptic membrane of cholinergic junctions⁵. BuChE also hydrolyses ACh but its affinity for ACh is very less¹⁸.

Acetylcholinesterase Inhibitors: Inhibition of the acetylcholinesterase (AChE) enzyme is a commonly chosen target and is achieved by AChE inhibitors (AChEIs). AChEIs inhibit the cholinesterase enzyme from degrading ACh, hence they extend the neurotransmitter activity. According to their structure and method of action, inhibitors that affect ChE activity can be

categorised into two groups: (i) Inhibitors that can form covalent bonds with the enzyme such as organophosphates; (ii) Inhibitors that can form reversible bonds with the enzyme, typically containing aminic groups¹⁹.

These inhibitors mainly inhibit the enzyme's action and keep ACh available in the brain. During the moderate phase of the disease, they can also help with cognitive (memory, concentration) and behavioural (disinterest, aggression, hallucinations) symptoms²⁰. Unfortunately, as the neurodegenerative condition progresses, this capacity deteriorates. AChE inhibitors have side effects too. The most prevalent side effects are nausea and cardiac arrhythmia in some circumstances^{21, 22}.

Despite the fact that only a small percentage of patients react to therapy, these inhibitors are the first choice in curing AD. The Cholinesterase inhibitors are classified into two groups: (i) single-target (ii) multi-target inhibitors. Single-target inhibitors especially inhibit AChE or BuChE while multi-target inhibitor influences other enzymatic pathways and alter various biological processes which are responsible for AD⁴.

Single-Target AChEIs: Single-target AChEIs are the most frequently prescribed drugs for treating early to moderate AD. The drugs which are currently available in the market for curing early to mid-stage AD are Donepezil, Rivastigmine and

Galantamine¹⁴. Some general characteristics of these drugs are discussed below:

Donepezil: Donepezil (shown in **Fig. 1**) was licenced in 1996 and is usually given at a daily dose of 5 mg for the first month of therapy. The dose of this drug can be raised to 10 mg for curing moderate AD. Donepezil was also authorised for severe Alzheimer disease in 2010 with a posology of 23 mg/day²³. Diarrhoea, muscular cramps, and tiredness are the most commonly reported side effects.

Rivastigmine: Rivastigmine (shown in **Fig. 1**) was approved for the treatment of AD in 2000. It inhibits both AChE and BuChE in a non-competitive, pseudo-irreversible manner. It is used to treat mild to severe AD at a starting dose of 3 mg per day and can be increased up to 12mg per day. In comparison to donepezil, rivastigmine treatment usually results in a more global rehabilitation of cognitive functions. Nausea, vomiting and diarrhoea are the most common side effects of this medicine^{24, 25}.

Galantamine: Galantamine (shown in **Fig. 1**) was approved for the treatment of AD in 2001. It is a strong AChE inhibitor that is competitive and reversible. It's usually taken at a dose of 16 mg each day. Galantamine improves the quality of sleep. Nausea, diarrhoea, asthenia, and fatigue are the most common side effects of this medicine²⁶.

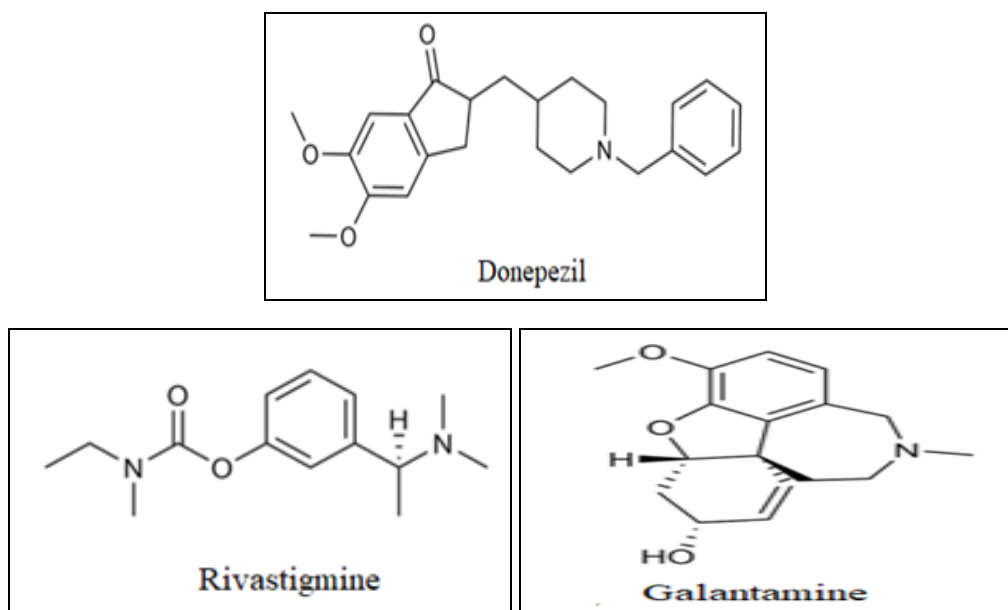


FIG. 1: STRUCTURES OF SINGLE-TARGET AChEIs (CURRENTLY AVAILABLE IN THE MARKET)

Single-Target Natural AChEIs:

Huperzine A (HupA): HupA (shown in Fig. 2) is a Lycopodium alkaloid derived from the herb *Huperzia serrata*. It has a higher penetration through the blood-brain barrier than classic inhibitors. In comparison to donepezil, HupA is 8 times more effective at raising cortical ACh levels while having a more enduring effect²⁷. It is a highly selective AChE inhibitor that has been studied for its low toxicity²⁸.

Huperzine B (HupB): HupB (shown in Fig. 2) is the minor lycopodium alkaloid derived from the herb *Huperzia serrata*. Compared to HupA, it is less effective and selective in inhibiting AChE²⁷. HupB restored the disturbance of memory retention caused by sodium nitrite and cycloheximide in mice during behavioural trials, and it enhanced memory retention in aged mice. Subsequent investigations also showed that HupB had neuroprotective effects by lessening damage brought on by hydrogen peroxide²⁹.

Physostigmine Derivatives: Physostigmine (shown in Fig. 2) derivatives were employed as a model for the development of new potential ligands. It is a natural alkaloid derived from the Calabar bean that affects the activity of the enzyme ChE. It was never employed in therapy due to its negative impacts³⁰. Tolserine and eseroline are two physostigmine derivatives.

Tolserine: Tolserine (shown in Fig. 2) has been shown in experiments to be a more effective

inhibitor of erythrocytic Ache than physostigmine. In reality, with a partial non-competitive inhibitory mechanism, its IC₅₀ value was discovered to be 8.13 nM. However, no information about preclinical research on this drug is currently available³¹.

Eseroline: Eseroline (shown in Fig. 2) is a derivative of physostigmine. It is a reversible cholinesterase inhibitor. It is hard to figure out potential dangers and benefits of Eseroline in preclinical and clinical trials due to the lack of sufficient studies about this compound. The cyclic alkyl carbamate derivative of this compound was found to be a very potential inhibitor of the cholinesterase enzyme³².

Cardanol Derivatives: Cardanol (shown in Fig. 2) development is attractive due to the availability of the raw material. It is a lipid derived from the nutshell of the *Anacardium occidentale*. The N, N-dimethylcarbamoyl substitution exhibited similarities to rivastigmine in theoretical investigations, suggesting that they could be future AChE inhibitors³³.

Tacrine Analogues: Many artificial analogues containing the key functional moieties generated from various chemotype like acridine showed their pharmacological effects. Many tacrine (shown in Fig. 2) analogues, such as 7-methoxytacrine (shown in Fig. 2), were found to have significant AChE inhibitory action³⁴.

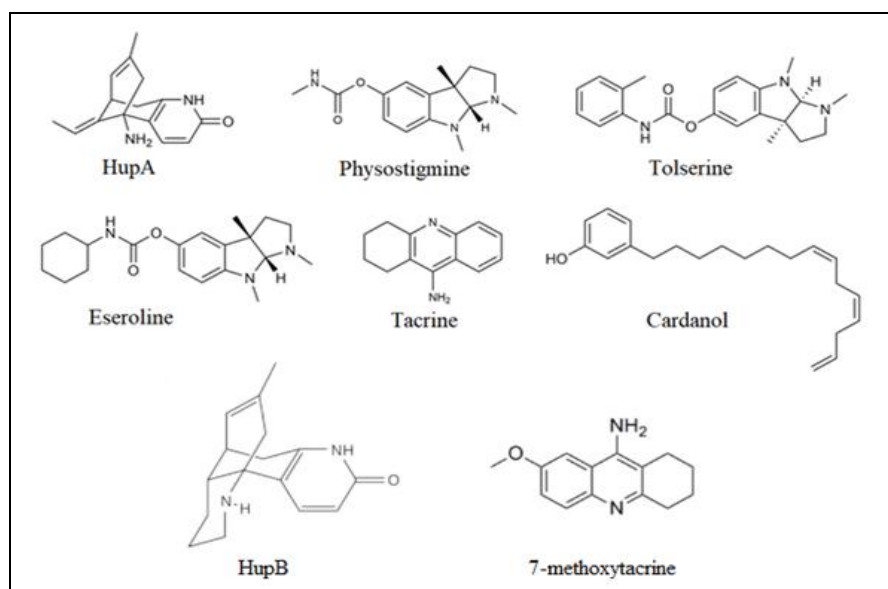


FIG. 2: STRUCTURES OF SINGLE-TARGET NATURAL AChEIs

Multi-Target AChEIs: Since, AD is a complex disorder there is a need of "one compound, multi targets" strategy. As the name suggests multi-target AChE inhibitors target more than one enzymatic pathway at a time to combat AD. Some multi-target AChE inhibitors are discussed below:

Ladostigil: Current development in pharmacology have enabled the creation of multifunctional molecules that work at several levels and may allow for improved control of the progression of AD. Ladostigil (shown in **Fig. 3**) has MAO-A/-B and ChE inhibiting property. This compound's dual effect made it particularly attractive for clinical trials³⁵.

Hybrid Compounds: Researchers chose to study the prospect of synthesising hybrid compounds in their search for effective AChE inhibitors. These ligands were created with the goal of binding to the peripheral sites in AChE as well as having a secondary effect on β -amyloid aggregation.

The hybrid compound, donepezil-AP2238 (shown in **Fig. 3**), was found to inhibit $A\beta$ -mediated toxicity more effectively than donepezil, while being capable of binding to both anionic spots in AChE^{36,37}.

Other hybrid ChEIs such as tacrine-ferulic acid (T6FA, shown in **Fig. 3**) and tacrine-8-hydroxyquinoline (shown in **Fig. 3**) found more efficient in inhibiting the cholinesterase enzyme *in-vitro*^{38,39}. Donepezil-tacrine composites (shown in Figure 3) were also discovered to inhibit AChE and beta amyloid aggregation. They were found to be more effective than their parent compounds⁴⁰.

Remarkable results were shown by the compound, donepezil-chromone-melatonin, by exhibiting strong inhibition of cholinesterase enzyme as well as antioxidant capabilities⁴¹. In addition, tacrine-acridine hybrids are being studied as multi-target medicines in the treatment of AD⁴².

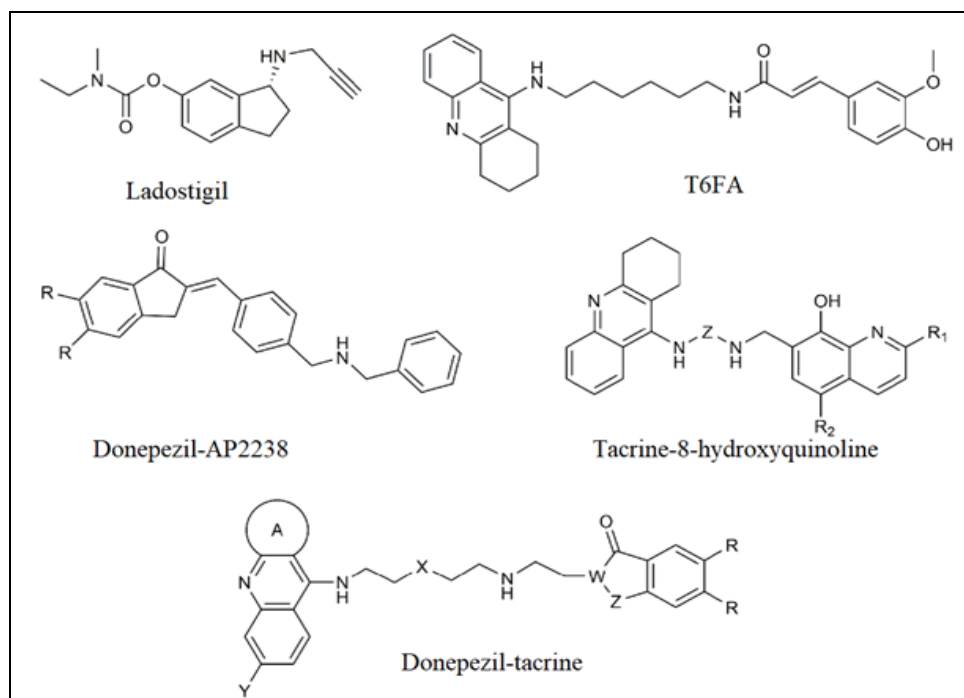


FIG. 3: STRUCTURES OF MULTI-TARGET ACHEIS (LADOSTIGIL AND HYBRID COMPOUNDS)

Multi-Target Natural AChEIs:

Flavonoids: It is well recognised that phytochemicals, particularly flavonoids, can be used to prevent and treat disease. Flavonoids can be found naturally in fruits and vegetables. It is a class of natural chemicals which is recognised for their ability to scavenge free radicals. They were widely utilised in traditional Chinese medicine and can be

derived from plants. Galangin (shown in **Fig. 4**), a flavonol, demonstrated a 55 percent AChE inhibitory action *in vitro* with an IC_{50} of 120 μM ⁴³.

Phenserine: Phenserine (shown in **Fig. 3**) also exhibits neuroprotective effects. It is a phenylcarbamate of physostigmine. When compared to standard anti-ChEs, it is a highly

selective AChE inhibitor with fewer side effects. It was utilised to treat cognitive problems caused by traumatic brain damage in mice and can be regarded as a multi-target medication because of its capacity to prevent A β -aggregation^{44, 45}. Phenserine was also evaluated in Phase II tests, and it was found to be somewhat effective⁴⁶. Indeed, after 12 weeks of treatment with phenserine (10 and 15 mg) patients' cognitive capabilities improved significantly. These results corroborated phenserine's potential efficacy in the treatment of AD symptoms. Further research is being carried out in order to understand its mechanism of action⁴⁷.

Algal Metabolites: Numerous researchers around the world have focused their attention on numerous algal metabolites such as alkaloids, polysaccharides and carotenoidsover the last decade⁴⁸. Several preclinical investigations have verified such drugs'

neuroprotective effect in metabolic ailments. Furthermore, algal metabolites have anti-inflammatory characteristics, as well as the ability to participate in defence processes^{49, 50}.

Fucoxanthin (shown in **Fig. 4**), a carotenoid, binds to the AChE anionic site in a non-competitive manner with an IC₅₀ of 81.2 μ M.⁵¹ Different types of ChEs are inhibited by fucosterol (shown in **Fig. 4**) isolated from different algae species. The most effective is one from *Ecklonia stolonifera*, which has an IC₅₀ of about 422 μ M for BuChE⁵². When fucosterol and fucoxanthin are evaluated *in-vitro* and *vivo* experiments both resulted in an improvement in inflammation *via* MAPK mediated pathway^{53, 54}. Fucosterol decreases the neurotoxicity in hippocampal neurons induced by A β -aggregation⁵⁵.

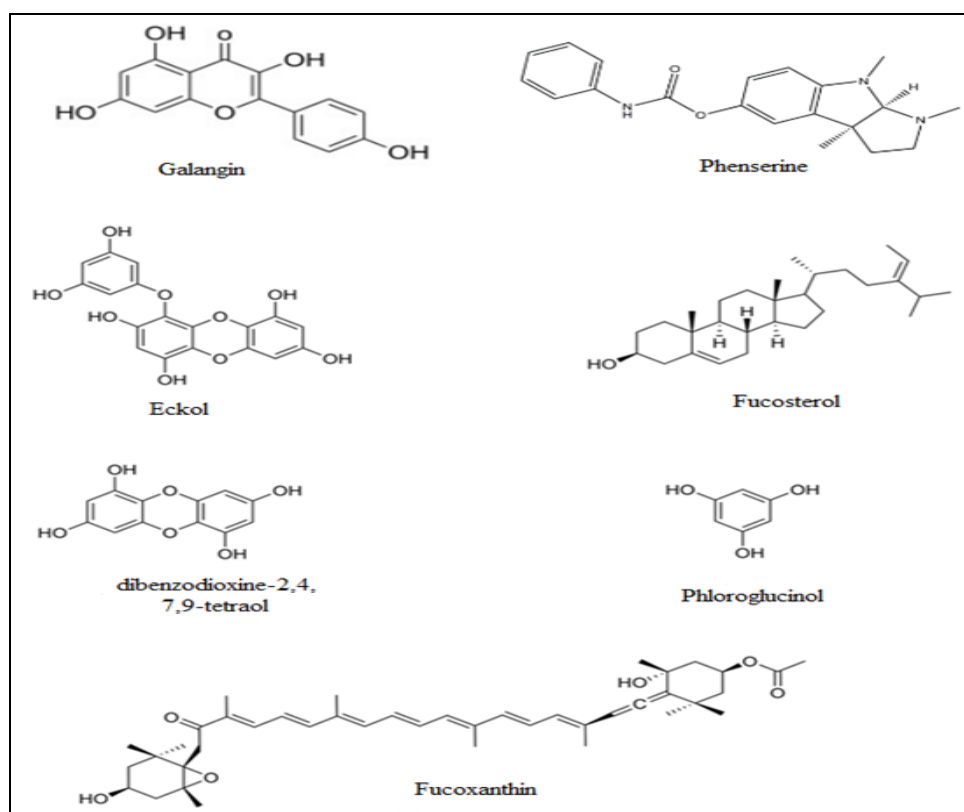


FIG. 4: STRUCTURES OF MULTI-TARGET NATURAL AChEIS

With IC₅₀ values ranging from 76.7 to 579.3 M, Phloroglucinoland Ecklonia maxima (both shown in **Fig. 4**) are considered to be powerful and selective inhibitors.

Dibenzodioxine-2,4,7,9-tetraol (shown in **Fig. 4**) is also found to be an effective anti-AChE molecule⁵⁶.

Recent Breakthroughs in the Field of Alzheimer's Disease: The scientific community has long been perplexed by Alzheimer's disease, which was identified in 1906 and is currently the second biggest cause of mortality worldwide². The best technique to treat it in a clinically precise manner has not yet been determined, despite

decades of research identifying the disease's hallmarks, such as the drop in acetylcholine concentration in the brain and the existence of amyloid plaques between neurons. Several scientists now concur that Alzheimer's disease precursors start to build up in the brain ten or more years before its signs appear. Over time, amyloid plaques can accumulate and eventually set off an inflammatory reaction that can quickly kill brain cells. A variety of factors, including family history, environmental factors etc. can have an impact on these impairments. Thus, the possibility of treating Alzheimer's disease can be increased by a combination of therapies. Now a days, targeting the amyloid plaques has become a major area of pharmacological research.

Lecanemab, a drug, is the latest breakthrough in the field of Alzheimer's disease. Lecanemab was given accelerated approval by the Food and Drug Administration of the United States (FDA) on January 6, 2023. It may help people with early Alzheimer's disease to slow down their mild cognitive loss and diminish amyloid- plaques of the effected neurons within the brain cells⁵⁷. It is a humanized IgG1 monoclonal antibody having more selectivity (>1000-fold) for large soluble amyloid clusters than small (monomers) amyloid clusters⁵⁸.

Another monoclonal antibody, Aducanumab, was granted a provisional approval by the FDA on June 7, 2021. It is a highly selective monoclonal antibody for amyloid aggregates. Some professionals voiced concern with the FDA's decision after it was approved. The insufficient data about phase III trials of this compound was the main reason of the controversy⁵⁹. Another anti-amyloid plaque compound, Sodium oligomannate (GV-971), a marine oligosaccharide, received its first conditional approval on 2 November, 2019 in China for the treatment of mild to moderate AD. Shanghai Green Valley Pharmaceuticals in China made the initial discovery of this compound. They obtained the licensing rights for this compound in 2009. In phase III clinical trials performed in China, GV-971 dramatically decreased beta-amyloid plaque aggregates inside the brain cells. The phase III trial of GV-971 is still ongoing in US and Canada⁶⁰. Docosahexaenoic acid (DHA), an omega-3 fatty acid, has recently been created by the researchers that can penetrate into the retina of

the eye to prevent the loss of vision associated with Alzheimer's disease. The DHA that is generally included in fish oil capsules and other dietary supplements is known as triacylglycerol (TAG) DHA. TAG-DHA has advantages in other regions of the body, but it cannot enter the retina from the bloodstream. Thus, LPC-DHA, a brand-new lysophospholipid version of DHA, was produced for the study. LPC-DHA successfully raised DHA level in the retina and decreased eye related issues in a trial involving mice. The amount of LPC-DHA employed in this study was comparable to 250 to 500 mg of omega-3 fatty acids consumed by an adult daily. To confirm that LPC-DHA is safe for usage in people, additional research is required as these trials were carried out in mice⁶¹.

Conclusion and Future Prospective: AD is one of the most well-studied neurodegenerative conditions; with more than 60% of individuals progressing to dementia. Recent research has revealed the molecular pathways behind the pathology as well as the development of reliable procedures of accurate diagnosis and efficient treatments. Alteration developed in the cholinergic system and the formation of amyloid plaques in the brain neurons are the major cause of progression of this disease.

Donepezil, rivastigmine, and galantamine are three anti-AChE medicines currently available in the market. Such chemicals have shown to be effective in lowering AD-related clinical symptoms, such as cognitive and behavioural impairments, as well as increasing the quality of life. Studies have revealed that AChE inhibitor therapy is beneficial in the initial phases of the illness, when symptoms are minor to mild.

New generation of ChE inhibitors have been designed and explored in this area, although only a few have entered clinical trials thus far. AChEIs can also act as multi-targeted medicines that can affect ChE as well as other enzymatic processes that take place in the person having AD. Numerous studies have been conducted in an effort to find more potent AChE inhibitors since the recognition of the very first inhibitor, physostigmine. AD is a serious aging-related health issue that places a significant burden on the world's healthcare systems. Though some symptomatic medications

have been approved, they have no effect on the development of the disease and only offer moderate clinical benefits. The FDA granted fast approval to one anti-amyloid antibody (aducanumab); however, it did not completely address the deserving need for AD treatment. As a result, Lecanemab, a second antibody, is discovered which shows the higher beta-amyloid plaque resistance property than Aducanumab. Hence, the development of disease-modifying medicines is essential to both enhancing the quality of life for AD patients and reducing the disease's overall burden.

More research is needed to understand the link between the various components involved in AD aetiology and development at the molecular level. Preclinical AD research may one day lead to effective medicines to treat the disease in its early stages and slow its progression. However, in order to identify patients with preclinical AD, it is important to set up inexpensive screening globally with the support of AD specialists and neurologists. Since AD progression depends upon various factors, researchers should develop a particular molecule capable of targeting several AD-related factors. Therefore, the challenge before researchers is to develop new effective drugs for the treatment of different phases of AD.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS: The author P. Singh wishes to appreciate Chandigarh University for its kind assistance.

CONFLICTS OF INTEREST: The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

REFERENCES:

- Bangar P, Pilaji P, Wakode S, Nayak R and Rambade A: Alzheimer's Disease and Its Effective Pharmacological Management. *World J Pharm Res* 2023; 12(6): 350–368. <https://doi.org/10.20959/wjpr20236-27804>.
- Du X, Wang X and Geng M: Alzheimer's disease hypothesis and related therapies. *Transl Neurodegener* 2018; 7(1): 1–7. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40035-018-0107-y>.
- 2020 Alzheimer's disease Facts and Figures. *Alzheimer's Dement* 2020; 16(3): 391–460. <https://doi.org/10.1002/alz.12068>.
- Vecchio I, Sorrentino L, Paoletti A, Marra R and Arbitrio M: The State of The Art on Acetylcholinesterase Inhibitors in the Treatment of Alzheimer's Disease. *J Cent Nerv Syst Dis* 2021; 13: 117957352110291. <https://doi.org/10.1177/11795735211029113>.
- Stanciu GD, Luca A, Rusu RN, Bild V, Chiriac SIB, Solcan C, Bild W and Ababei DC: Alzheimer's Disease Pharmacotherapy in Relation to Cholinergic System Involvement. *Biomolecules* 2020; 10(1): 1–20. <https://doi.org/10.3390/biom10010040>.
- Ferreira S, Raimundo A, Menezes R and Martins I: Islet amyloid polypeptide & amyloid beta peptide roles in alzheimer's disease: two triggers, one disease. *Neural Regen Res* 2021; 16(6): 1127–1130. <https://doi.org/10.4103/1673-5374.300323>.
- Chong FP, Ng KY, Koh RY and Chye SM: Tau proteins and tauopathies in alzheimer's disease. *Cell Mol Neurobiol* 2018; 38(5): 965–980. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10571-017-0574-1>.
- Devi S, Kumar V, Singh SK, Dubey AK and Kim JJ: Flavonoids: potential candidates for the treatment of neurodegenerative disorders. *Biomedicines* 2021; 9(2): 1–22. <https://doi.org/10.3390/biomedicines9020099>.
- Guzman-Martinez L, Maccioni RB, Andrade V, Navarrete, LP and Pastor MG: Ramos-Escobar, N. Neuroinflammation as a Common Feature of Neurodegenerative Disorders. *Front. Pharmacol* 2019; 10(9). <https://doi.org/10.3389/fphar.2019.01008>.
- Huat TJ, Camats-Perna J, Newcombe EA, Valmas N, Kitazawa M and Medeiros R: Metal Toxicity Links to Alzheimer's Disease and Neuroinflammation. *J Mol Biol* 2019; 431(9): 1843–1868. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jmb.2019.01.018>.
- Mouzat K, Chudinova A, Polge A, Kantar J, Camu W, Raoul C and Lumbroso S: Regulation of brain cholesterol: what role do liver x receptors play in neurodegenerative diseases. *Int J Mol Sci* 2019; 20(16). <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms20163858>.
- Frohlich J, Chaldakov GN and Vinciguerra M: Cardio-and neurometabolic adipobiology: consequences and implications for therapy. *Int J Mol Sci* 2021; 22(8). <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms22084137>.
- Huang Q, Liao C, Ge F, Ao J and Liu T: Acetylcholine bidirectionally regulates learning and memory. *J Neurorestoratology* 2022; 10(2). <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jnrt.2022.100002>.
- Marucci G, Buccioni M, Ben DD, Lambertucci C, Volpini, R and Amenta F: Efficacy of acetylcholinesterase inhibitors in alzheimer's disease. *Neuropharmacology* 2021; 190: 108352. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuropharm.2020.108352>.
- Abubakar MU and Abubakar D: Characterization of Acetylcholinesterase from Various Sources: A Mini Review. *J Environ Bioremediation Toxicol* 2021; 4(1): 24–30. <https://doi.org/10.54987/jebat.v4i1.581>.
- Ha ZY, Mathew S and Yeong KY: Butyrylcholinesterase: A Multifaceted Pharmacological Target and Tool. *Curr. Protein Pept Sci* 2019; 21(1): 99–109. <https://doi.org/10.2174/1389203720666191107094949>.
- Hagman JR and Story JR: Other Protein Blood Groups. In Rossi's Principles of Transfusion Medicine; Simon, T., McCullough, J., Synder, E., Eds.; John Wiley & Sons Ltd., 2016; 185–192. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781119719809.ch11>.
- van der Kop ML: Status of Acetylcholinesterase and butyrylcholinesterase in alzheimer's disease and type 2 diabetes mellitus. *Physiol Behav* 2018; 176(5): 139–148.
- Colovic MB, Krstic DZ, Lazarevic-Pasti TD, Bondzic AM and Vasic VM: Acetylcholinesterase inhibitors: pharmacology and toxicology. *Curr Neuropharmacol* 2013; 11(3): 315–335. <https://doi.org/10.2174/1570159x11311030006>.
- Dou KX, Tan MS, Tan CC, Cao XP, Hou XH, Guo QH, Tan L, Mok V and Yu JT: Comparative Safety and

- effectiveness of cholinesterase inhibitors and memantine for alzheimer's disease: a network meta-analysis of 41 randomized controlled trials. *Alzheimer's Res Ther* 2018; 10(1): 1–10. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13195-018-0457-9>.
21. Breijyeh Z and Karaman R: Comprehensive Review on Alzheimer's disease: Causes and Treatment. *Molecules* 2020; 25: 5789. <https://doi.org/doi:10.3390/molecules25245789>.
 22. Kho J, Ioannou A, Mandal AKJ and Missouri CG: Donepezil induces ventricular arrhythmias by delayed repolarisation. *Naunyn Schmiedebergs Arch Pharmacol* 2021; 394(3): 559–560. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00210-020-02028-4>.
 23. Haake A, Nguyen K, Friedman L, Chakkampambil B and Grossberg GT: An update on the utility and safety of cholinesterase inhibitors for the treatment of alzheimer's disease. *Expert Opin Drug Saf* 2020; 19(2): 147–157. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14740338.2020.1721456>.
 24. Schneider SL: A critical review of cholinesterase inhibitors as a treatment modality in alzheimer's disease. *Dialogues Clin Neurosci* 2022; 2(2): 111–128. <https://doi.org/10.31887/dcms.2000.2.2/schneider>.
 25. Liu Y, Li W, Ma X, He J, Lin Y and Lin D: Rivastigmine Regulates the HIF-1 α /VEGF Signaling Pathway to Induce Angiogenesis and Improves the Survival of Random Flaps in Rats. *Front. Pharmacol* 2022; 12: 1–11. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fphar.2021.818907>.
 26. Pardo-Moreno T, González-Acedo A, Rivas-Domínguez, A, García-Morales V, García-Cozar FJ, Ramos-Rodríguez, JJ and Melguizo-Rodríguez L: Therapeutic Approach to Alzheimer's Disease: Current Treatments and New Perspectives. *Pharmaceutics* 2022; 14(6): 1–20. <https://doi.org/10.3390/pharmaceutics14061117>.
 27. Bai D: Development of Huperzine A and B for Treatment of Alzheimer's disease. *Pure Appl Chem* 2007; 79(4): 469–479. <https://doi.org/10.1351/pac200779040469>.
 28. Yan YP, Chen JY and Lu JH: Disease-modifying activity of huperzine a on alzheimer's disease: evidence from preclinical studies on rodent models. *Int J Mol Sci* 2022; 23(23): 15238. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms232315238>.
 29. Shi YF, Zhang HY, Wang W, Fu Y, Xia Y, Tang XC, Bai DL and He XC: Novel 16-Substituted Bifunctional Derivatives of Huperzine B: Multifunctional Cholinesterase Inhibitors. *Acta Pharmacol Sin* 2009; 30(8): 1195–1203. <https://doi.org/10.1038/aps.2009.91>.
 30. Coelho Filho JMC and Birks J: Physostigmine for Dementia Due to Alzheimer's disease. *Cochrane Database Syst. Rev* 2001; 2010(1). <https://doi.org/10.1002/14651858.CD001499>.
 31. Rashid U and Ansari FL: Challenges in Designing Therapeutic Agents for Treating Alzheimer's disease-from Serendipity to Rationality; Bentham Science Publishers 2014. <https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-803959-5.50002-7>.
 32. Zhan ZJ, Bian HL, Wang JW and Shan WG: Synthesis of physostigmine analogues and evaluation of their anticholinesterase activities. *Bioorganic Med Chem Lett* 2010; 20(5): 1532–1534. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bmcl.2010.01.097>.
 33. Uliassi E, de Oliveira AS, Nascente L de C, Romeiro LAS and Bolognesi ML: Cashew Nut Shell Liquid (CNSL) as a Source of Drugs for Alzheimer's disease. *Molecules* 2021; 26(18): 5441. <https://doi.org/10.3390/molecules26185441>.
 34. Kristofikova Z, Rícný J, Soukup O, Korabecný J, Nepovimová E, Kuca K and Ripová D: Inhibitors of Acetylcholinesterase Derived from 7-Methoxytacrine and Their Effects on the Choline Transporter CHT1. *Dement. Geriatr Cogn Disord* 2017; 43(1–2): 45–58. <https://doi.org/10.1159/000453256>.
 35. Uddin MS, Kabir MT, Rahman MM, Mathew B, Shah MA and Ashraf GM: TV 3326 for Alzheimer's Dementia: A Novel Multimodal ChE and MAO Inhibitors to Mitigate Alzheimer's-like Neuropathology *J Pharm Pharmacol* 2020; 72(8): 1001–1012. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jphp.13244>.
 36. Uddin MS, Al Mamun A, Kabir MT, Ashraf GM, Bin-Jumah MN and Abdel-Daim MM: Multi-Target Drug Candidates for Multifactorial Alzheimer's Disease: AChE and NMDAR as Molecular Targets. *Mol Neurobiol* 2021; 58(1): 281–303. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12035-020-02116-9>.
 37. Mishra P, Kumar A and Panda G: Anti-Cholinesterase hybrids as multi-target-directed ligands against alzheimer's disease (1998–2018). *Bioorganic Med Chem* 2019; 27(6): 895–930. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bmc.2019.01.025>.
 38. Bacci A, Runfola M, Sestito S and Rapposelli S: Beyond Antioxidant Effects: Nature-Based Templates Unveil New Strategies for Neurodegenerative Diseases. *Antioxidants* 2021; 10(3): 1–25. <https://doi.org/10.3390/antiox10030367>.
 39. Danao K, Kodape Y, Mahapatra D, Borikar S and Karande N: Highlights on Synthetic, Natural, and Hybrid Cholinesterase Inhibitors for Effective Treatment of Alzheimer's Disease: A Review. *Int J Curr Res Rev* 2021; 13(11): 27–34. <https://doi.org/10.31782/ijcrr.2021.131107>.
 40. Mitra S, Muni M, Shawon NJ, Das R, Emran T, Bin Sharma R, Chandran D, Islam F, Hossain MJ, Safi SZ and Sweilam SH: Tacrine Derivatives in Neurological Disorders: Focus on Molecular Mechanisms and Neurotherapeutic Potential. *Oxid Med Cell Longev* 2022; 2022: 22. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2022/7252882>.
 41. Pachón-Angona I, Refouvelet B, Andrés R, Martín H, Luzet V, Iriepa I, Moraleda I, Diez-Iriepa D, Oset-Gasque MJ, Marco-Contelles J, Musilek K and Ismaili L: Donepezil + Chromone + Melatonin Hybrids as Promising Agents for Alzheimer's Disease Therapy. *J Enzyme Inhib Med Chem* 2019; 34(1): 479–489. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14756366.2018.1545766>.
 42. Chufarova N, Czarnańska K, Skibiński R, Cuchra M, Majsterek I and Szymański P: New Tacrine–Acridine Hybrids as Promising Multifunctional Drugs for Potential Treatment of Alzheimer's Disease. *Arch Pharm (Weinheim)* 2018; 351(7): 1–11. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ardp.201800050>.
 43. Guo AJY, Xie HQ, Choi RCY, Zheng KYZ, Bi CWC, Xu SL, Dong TTX and Tsim KWK: Galangin, a Flavonol Derived from Rhizoma Alpiniae Officinarum, Inhibits Acetylcholinesterase Activity *in-vitro* *Chem Biol Interact* 2010; 187(1–3): 246–248. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cbi.2010.05.002>.
 44. Tweedie D, Fukui K, Li Y, Yu QS, Barak S, Tamargo IA, Rubovitch V, Holloway HW, Lehrmann E, Wood WH, Zhang Y, Becker KG, Perez E, Van Praag H, Luo Y, Hoffer BJ, Becker RE, Pick CG and Greig NH: Cognitive impairments induced by concussive mild traumatic brain injury in mouse are ameliorated by treatment with phenserine *via* multiple non-cholinergic and cholinergic mechanisms. *PLoS One* 2016; 11(6): 1–26. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0156493>.
 45. Greig NH, Lecca D, Hsueh SC, Nogueras-Ortiz C, Kapogiannis D, Tweedie D, Glotfelty EJ, Becker RE, Chiang YH and Hoffer BJ: (–)-Phenserine Tartrate (PhenT) as a Treatment for Traumatic Brain Injury. *CNS*

- Neurosci Ther 2020; 26(6): 636–649. <https://doi.org/10.1111/cns.13274>.
46. Klein J: Phenserine. *Expert Opin. Investig Drugs* 2007; 16(7): 1087–1097. <https://doi.org/10.1517/13543784.16.7.1087>.
 47. Winblad B, Giacobini E, Frölich L, Friedhoff LT, Bruinsma G, Becker RE and Greig NH: Phenserine Efficacy in Alzheimer's Disease. *J Alzheimer's Dis* 2010; 22(4): 1201–1208. <https://doi.org/10.3233/JAD-2010-101311>.
 48. Hannan MA, Dash R, Haque MN, Mohibullah M, Sohag AAM, Rahman MA, Uddin MJ, Alam M and Moon IS: Neuroprotective Potentials of Marine Algae and Their Bioactive Metabolites: Pharmacological Insights and Therapeutic Advances. *Drugs* 2020; 18(7). <https://doi.org/10.3390/md18070347>.
 49. Alghazwi M, Kan YQ, Zhang W, Gai WP, Garson MJ and Smid S: Neuroprotective Activities of Natural Products from Marine Macroalgae during 1999–2015. *J Appl Phycol* 2016; 28(6): 3599–3616. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10811-016-0908-2>.
 50. Barbalace MC, Malaguti M, Giusti L, Lucacchini A, Hrelia S and Angeloni C: Anti-Inflammatory activities of marine algae in neurodegenerative diseases. *Int J Mol Sci* 2019; 20(12). <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms20123061>.
 51. Lin J, Huang L, Yu J, Xiang S, Wang J, Zhang J, Yan X, Cui W, He S and Wang Q: Fucoxanthin, a Marine Carotenoid, Reverses Scopalamine-Induced Cognitive Impairments in Mice and Inhibits Acetylcholinesterase *in vitro* *Drugs* 2016; 14(4): <https://doi.org/10.3390/md14040067>.
 52. Manandhar B, Wagle A, Seong SH, Paudel P, Kim HR, Jung HA and Choi JS: Phlorotannins with Potential Anti-Tyrosinase and Antioxidant Activity Isolated from the Marine Seaweed *Ecklonia Stolonifera*. *Antioxidants* 2019; 8(8). <https://doi.org/10.3390/antiox8080240>.
 53. Zhao D, Kwon SH, Chun YS, Gu MY and Yang HO: Anti-Neuroinflammatory Effects of Fucoxanthin *via* Inhibition of Akt/NF-KB and MAPKs/AP-1 Pathways and Activation of PKA/CREB Pathway in Lipopolysaccharide-Activated BV-2 Microglial Cells. *Neurochem Res* 2017; 42(2): 667–677. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11064-016-2123-6>.
 54. Jung HA, Jin SE, Ahn BR, Lee CM and Choi JS: Anti-Inflammatory Activity of Edible Brown Alga *Eisenia Bicyclis* and Its Constituents Fucosterol and Phlorotannins in LPS-Stimulated RAW264.7 Macrophages. *Food Chem Toxicol* 2013; 59: 199–206. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fct.2013.05.061>.
 55. Oh JH, Choi JS and Nam TJ: Fucosterol from an Edible Brown Alga *Ecklonia stolonifera* Prevents Soluble Amyloid Beta-Induced Cognitive Dysfunction in Aging Rats. *Mar Drugs* 2018; 16(10): 1–15. <https://doi.org/10.3390/md16100368>.
 56. Kannan RRR, Aderogba MA, Ndhala AR, Stirk WA and Van Staden J: Acetylcholinesterase Inhibitory Activity of Phlorotannins Isolated from the Brown Alga, *Ecklonia Maxima* (Osbeck) Papenfuss. *Food Res Int* 2013; 54 (1): 1250–1254. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodres.2012.11.017>.
 57. Larkin HD: Lecanemab Gains FDA Approval for Early Alzheimer Disease. *JAMA* 2023; 329(5): 363. <https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.2022.24490>.
 58. McDade E, Cummings JL, Dhadda S, Swanson CJ, Reyderman L, Kanekiyo M, Koyama A, Irizarry M, Kramer LD and Bateman RJ: Lecanemab in patients with early alzheimer's disease: detailed results on biomarker, cognitive, and clinical effects from the randomized and open-label extension of the phase 2 proof-of-concept study. *Alzheimer's Res Ther* 2022; 14(1): 1–17. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13195-022-01124-2>.
 59. Vaz M, Silva V, Monteiro C and Silvestre S: Role of aducanumab in the treatment of alzheimer's disease: challenges and opportunities. *Clin Interv Aging* 2022; 17(5): 797–810. <https://doi.org/10.2147/CIA.S325026>.
 60. Summary E: Sodium Oligomannate (GV-971) 2021; 1–9.
 61. Johnson AF: New form of omega-3 could prevent visual decline with Alzheimer's disease. *American Society for Biochemistry and Molecular Biology* <https://www.sciencedaily.com/releases/2023/03/230328145514.htm> (accessed 2023-04-07).

How to cite this article:

Singh P, Karwasra R, Sharma A and Umar T: A review on acetylcholinesterase inhibiting therapeutics and recent breakthroughs in the field of alzheimer's disease. *Int J Pharm Sci & Res* 2024; 15(1): 35-44. doi: 10.13040/IJPSR.0975-8232.15(1).35-44.

All © 2024 are reserved by International Journal of Pharmaceutical Sciences and Research. This Journal licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial-ShareAlike 3.0 Unported License.

This article can be downloaded to **Android OS** based mobile. Scan QR Code using Code/Bar Scanner from your mobile. (Scanners are available on Google Playstore)