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2	TRANSEPITHELIAL TRANSPORT OF LUNASIN AND DERIVED PEPTIDES: INHIBITORY EFFECTS
3	ON THE GASTROINTESTINAL CANCER CELLS VIABILITY
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23 ABSTRACT

Lunasin is a soybean peptide with demonstrated chemopreventive properties. Upon its oral 24 intake, studies dealing with the effect of the digestive process on lunasin's properties are 25 26 crucial. The present study describes, for the first time, the behavior of lunasin and fragments 27 derived from its digestion in the Caco-2 cell monolayer. The sequences SKWQHQQDSC and 28 KIQGRGDDDDDDDD showed a notable resistance against the epithelial brush-border 29 peptidases, although some fragments were generated as cellular hydrolysis products. Lunasin and RKQLQGVN were absorbed intact across the intestinal epithelium. The tight 30 junction disruptor cytochalasin D increased their transport, suggesting that the paracellular 31 passive diffusion was the main mechanism involved. The study on the cancer cells viability 32 showed that lunasin and SKWQHQQDSC exerted the highest effects on colorectal cancer HT-33 34 29 cells. The stability assay suggested that the cell line type was determinant in the behavior 35 of lunasin added to the culture medium, and therefore in the anti-proliferative activity of 36 released fragments.

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38 KEYWORDS: peptide lunasin; lunasin-fragments; gastrointestinal digestion; Caco-2 cells
 39 transport; cancer cells; cell viability; food analysis; food composition

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45 **1. INTRODUCTION**

46 The gastrointestinal epithelium acts not only as a physical barrier against the external environment, but also is the place where food digestion and absorption of nutrients occur. 47 48 The gastrointestinal tract is known to play a key role on the physiological relevance of orally administered bioactive components (Shimizu and Hachimura, 2011). Firstly, the resistance of 49 bioactive peptides to pepsin and pancreatic enzymes in gastric and intestinal fluids, 50 51 respectively, must be one of the primary aspects to be addressed before their potential 52 application into functional foods or drugs (Segura-Campos et al., 2011). Moreover, other factors such as the epithelial brush-border membrane peptidases, the absorption rate 53 54 through the intestinal barrier, the possibility of active intracellular peptidases in case of 55 transcellular transport, as well as the potential action of serum peptidases can be determinant leading to the formation and/or degradation of bioactive peptides upon oral 56 57 administration. These peptides might be absorbed and reach the target tissues acting at 58 systemic level or exert their effects locally in the gastrointestinal tract.

In the last years, several studies have employed in vitro gastrointestinal digestion and 59 Caco-2 cell absorption models to estimate the bioavailability of bioactive peptides (Sánchez-60 61 Rivera et al., 2014). The human Caco-2 cells are able to spontaneously differentiate into 62 enterocyte-like monolayers with morphological polarity with an apical and basolateral side, 63 and develop feature characteristics such as apical microvillus and brush-border hydrolases, 64 intercellular tight junctions (TJs), and active receptors and transport systems, including those for peptide transport (Deferme et al., 2008). Among the several routes described for the 65 transport of peptides in the gut, the main mechanisms include the PepT1, a proton-coupled 66 67 membrane transporter (Brodin et al., 2002), the paracellular passive pathway through 68 intercellular TJs, the transcellular passive diffusion, and the vesicle-mediated transcytosis

(Ziv and Bendayan, 2000). For oligopeptides, susceptibility to brush-border peptidases has
been recognized as the primary factor affecting to the apical-to-basolateral transport rate,
with both the paracellular and transcytosis transports identified as the principal involved
mechanisms (Shmizu et al., 1997).

73 Lunasin is a 43-amino acid peptide naturally present in soybean, with a variety of 74 biological functions demonstrated by cell cultures and animal models (Fernández-Tomé and 75 Hernández-Ledesma, 2016). In vitro studies simulating the gastrointestinal digestion have proposed that this peptide was able to resist the action of digestive enzymes due to 76 77 naturally present protease inhibitors in foods, such as Bowman-Birk protease inhibitor (BBI) and Kunitz trypsin inhibitor (Jeong et al., 2007; Park et al., 2007). Moreover, Hsieh and co-78 workers (2010) showed that lunasin was bioavailable when orally administered to mice and 79 80 rats, and Dia et al. (2009) reported the presence of this peptide in human plasma after 81 consumption of soy protein. These findings suggest that lunasin is absorbed in the intestine 82 and reaches the bloodstream. Although brush-border intestinal peptidases are key factors limiting the half-life and leading to the transformation of dietary peptides in the digestive 83 84 tract (Picariello et al., 2015), to our knowledge, the behaviour of the lunasin sequence in 85 contact with this epithelial membrane has not been previously evaluated.

Our group has recently identified the peptide patterns of gastric and gastrointestinal digests of lunasin by *in vitro* digestion and reverse phase-high liquid chromatography coupled with tandem mass spectrometry (HPLC-MS/MS) analysis, confirming the protective role played by the major Bowman-Birk family isoinhibitor 1 (IBB1) on the digestion of this peptide. Moreover, the final digests were found to exhibit anti-proliferative properties against the growth of colorectal cancer HT-29 and Caco-2 cells (Cruz-Huerta et al., 2015).

Thus, the aims of the present study are i) to investigate whether lunasin and selected lunasin-derived fragments arising from its digestion are resistant to brush-border peptidases and susceptible to intestinal transepithelial transport in Caco-2 monolayers, identifying the potential mechanism involved in the intestinal absorption by using selective inhibitors. and ii) to evaluate the anti-proliferative effect of lunasin and released peptides on human adenocarcinoma gastric (AGS) and colorectal (HT-29 and Caco-2) cells.

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99 2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

100 **2.1. Reagents and peptides**

Hanks' balanced salt solution (HBSS), trifluoroacetic acid, Lucifer yellow, cytochalasin D, wortmannin, dimethylsulfoxide (DMSO) and 3-(4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyl tetrazolium bromide (MTT) were purchased from Sigma Chemical Co. (Madrid, Spain). The rest of chemicals used were of HPLC grade.

Lunasin and lunasin-derived peptides used in this study (Table 1) were provided by Chengdu KaiJie Biopharm Co., Ltd (Chengdu, Sichuan, P. R. China) that synthesized them by the conventional Fmoc solid-phase synthesis method. The purity of synthetic peptides was determined by HPLC-MS analysis through peptide peak area integration.

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111 2.2. Cell cultures

112 The human gastric adenocarcinoma cell line (AGS) and two human colorectal 113 adenocarcinoma cell lines (HT-29 and Caco-2) were obtained from the American Type 114 Culture Collection (ATCC, Rockville, MD, USA). AGS, HT-29 and Caco-2 cells were grown in

115 RPMI medium (Biowest, Nuaillé, France), McCoy's medium (Lonza Group Ltd, Basel, Switzerland), and Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM, Biowest), respectively, 116 supplemented with 10% (v:v) fetal bovine serum (FBS, Biowest) and 1% (v:v) 117 penicillin/streptomycin/amphotericin B solution (Biowest). A non-essential amino acid 118 119 solution (Lonza Group Ltd) was also added to DMEM medium (1%, v:v) for the culture of 120 Caco-2 cells. Cells were maintained in plastic 75-cm² culture flasks at 37 °C in a humidified 121 incubator containing 5% CO₂ and 95% air. The culture medium was changed every two days, 122 and cells were kept sub-confluent by using trypsin/EDTA (Lonza Group Ltd) weekly.

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124 **2.3. Transport studies**

125 2.3.1. Culture of Caco-2 monolayers

126 Caco-2 cells were used to evaluate the transport of peptides following the recommendations described by Hubatsch et al. (2007). Cells were seeded onto 12-well 127 Transwell polycarbonate permeable membrane supports (12 mm diameter, 0.4 µm pore 128 size, 1.12 cm² growth surface area, Costar, Corning, NY, USA) at a density of 1.5×10^5 129 130 cells/filter, with 0.5 mL of suspended cells in the apical chamber and 1.5 mL of DMEM in the 131 basolateral side. Filters were pre-wet with 0.1 mL of DMEM before seeding. Medium was replaced at days four and seven after seeding, and 24 h before the experiment. To allow 132 133 transport studies, cells were used nine days after seeding. Previous to the assay, the integrity of the monolayer of differentiated cells was evaluated by measuring the 134 transepithelial electrical resistance (TEER) value with an EVOM epithelial volt/ohm meter 135 136 (World Precision Instruments, Sarasota, FL, USA). Cells monolayers with values higher than 137 400 $\Omega \times cm^2$ were considered confluent and used in the assays (García-Nebot et al., 2014).

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2.3.2. Transepithelial transport of peptides

Transport experiments were performed as described by Quirós and co-workers 140 (2008), with some modifications. Cell monolayers were rinsed with DMEM and transferred 141 142 into new 12-well plates (Costar) containing HBSS (1.5 mL) in the basolateral side to remove 143 interferences with medium components. HBSS (0.5 mL) was carefully added to the apical 144 side, and monolayers were equilibrated at 37 °C for 20 min. Then, peptides were dissolved in 145 HBSS [lunasin at 10 µM, and fragments f(1-10), f(11-18), f(19-28), and f(29-43) at 1000 µM], 146 and added to the apical chamber. Transwell cultures were incubated at 37 °C for 60 min, and apical and basolateral samples were withdrawn, freeze-dried, and kept at - 20 ºC until 147 analysis by HPLC-MS/MS. At the end of transport experiments, TEER values were measured 148 149 again and the flux of Lucifer Yellow (a marker for paracellular permeability) was monitored. 150 Chambers were rinsed with HBSS and incubated at 37 °C for 30 min. Afterwards, Lucifer Yelow in HBSS (50 µM) was added to the apical compartment and incubated at 37 °C for 60 151 min. Aliquots from both the apical and the basolateral sides were taken, and fluorescence 152 153 levels were determined (excitation 485 nm and emission 520 nm) in a FLUOstar OPTIMA 154 plate reader (BMG Labtech, Offenburg, Germany). The post-assay TEER values and the Lucifer Yellow transport (<1% added to apical chamber) were used as parameters to confirm 155 156 the Caco-2 monolayer integrity during experiments (Broeders et al., 2012). At least, three independent replicates per peptide were evaluated, and the apparent permeability 157 coefficient (P_{app} , cm/s) was calculated according to Contreras et al. (2012) as P_{app} = 158 $\frac{\Delta Q}{\Delta t} \times \frac{1}{A} \times \frac{1}{C_0}$; where $\frac{\Delta Q}{\Delta t}$ is the transport rate (µmol/s), A is the surface area of the membrane 159 (1.12 cm²), and C_0 is the initial peptide concentration in the apical chamber (μ mol/mL). 160

To study the mechanism involved in the transepithelial transport of peptides, prior to the experiments described above, cell monolayers were incubated with cytochalasin D (a TJs disruptor, 0.5 µg/mL) and wortmannin (a transcytosis inhibitor, 500 nM) for 30 min before addition of peptides (Quirós et al., 2008). Cytochalasin D and wortmannin were dissolved in DMSO (final concentration in HBSS 0.044%). As control, DMSO supplementation was used. Experiments were carried out in duplicate, and peptide quantification in the basolateral side was expressed as relative percentage of control.

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169 2.4. Analysis by HPLC-MS/MS

170 Analysis of synthetic peptides and samples from apical and basolateral solutions was carried out as previously described (Cruz-Huerta et al., 2015), with minor modifications. 171 172 Peptides were eluted with a linear gradient of solvent B (acetonitrile:trifluoroacetic acid, 173 1000:0.27, v/v) in solvent A (water:trifluoroacetic acid, 1000:0.37, v/v) going from 0% to 45% in 60 min. Spectra were recorded over the mass/charge (m/z) 200-2000, selecting the 174 molecular ion of peptides as the target mass, *m/z* 1258 (lunasin), *m/z* 1247 [f(1-10)], *m/z* 943 175 176 [f(11-18)], m/z 1201 [f(19-28)], and m/z 1694 [f(29-43)]. Peptides were identified by their 177 retention times and fragmentation profiles. Data obtained were processed and transformed to spectra representing mass values using the Data Analysis program (version 4.0, Bruker 178 179 Daltonik). To process the MS/MS spectra and to perform peptide sequencing BioTools (version 3.2, Bruker Daltonik) was used. 180

Previous to the analysis, for lunasin transport experiments (10 μ M), freeze-dried samples from apical and basolateral solutions were reconstituted in the initial volume, or concentrated twenty times, respectively, in Milli-Q water. In the case of the four lunasin-

184 derived peptides (1000 µM), apical samples were reconstituted in the initial volume and then diluted 1:24 (v:v), and basolateral samples were concentrated ten times. Five-point 185 external calibration curves were prepared with synthetic lunasin (from 0.5 to 10.0 µM), and 186 187 lunasin-derived fragments (from 0.9 to 46.4 µM). Duplicate injections were performed for 188 each point of the calibration curve. The area under the curve of the extracted molecular ions 189 of peptides and their sodium and potassium adducts, when formed, was measured and 190 linear or polynomial regression curves were estimated depending on the fit: lunasin, $y = -4 \times 10^8 + 3 \times 10^9 x$ (R²=0.998); f(1-10), $y = 1 \times 10^8 + 7 \times 10^7 x$ (R²=0.994); f(11-18), 191 $y = 1 \times 10^8 + 1 \times 10^8 x$ (R²=0.976); f(19-28), $y = 2 \times 10^8 + 1 \times 10^8 x$ (R²=0.992); and f(29-43), 192 $y = -8 \times 10^{6} + 1 \times 10^{8} x - 2 \times 10^{6} x^{2}$ (R²=0.996). 193

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195 2.5. Cell viability experiments

196 *2.5.1. MTT assay*

The MTT assay was performed to evaluate the effect of peptides on the viability of 197 AGS, Caco-2 and HT-29 cells. Cells were seeded in 96-well plates (Costar) at a density of 5 × 198 199 10^3 cells/well (AGS) (Wang et al., 2016), and 5 × 10^4 cells/well (Caco-2 and HT-29) (Dia and de Mejia, 2010). After 24 h incubation, cells were treated with lunasin and all lunasin-200 201 derived fragments (Table 1) at different concentrations (10, 50, 100, and 200 µM) for 24, 48, 202 and 72 h. After the different treatment times, cells were washed with phosphate buffer 203 saline (PBS, Lonza Group Ltd), and incubated for 2 h with a MTT solution (0.5 mg/mL final 204 concentration). The supernatants were discarded, and insoluble formazan crystals formed 205 were dissolved in DMSO:ethanol (1:1, v:v). After gently mixing, the absorbance was 206 measured at 570 nm in a FLUOstar OPTIMA plate reader (BMG Labtech). Experiments were

207 carried out in triplicate and results were expressed as percentage of the control, non-treated208 cells.

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210 2.5.2. Morphological analysis

AGS, Caco-2 and HT-29 cells were plated in 6-well plates (Costar) at a density of 5.0 × 10⁵, 3.5×10^4 and 6.7×10^5 cells/well, respectively. After 24 h incubation, cells contained in four of six wells were treated with lunasin (100 and 200 μ M) for 48 h. Two wells were used as control (untreated) cells. Afterwards, cell images were taken by using an optical microscope Leica DM2500 (Leica Lasertechnik GmbH, Mannheim, Germany) at 10X magnification, coupled to a camera Leica DFC420 C (Leica Lasertechnik GmbH). This assay was carried out in duplicate.

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219 2.5.3. Stability of lunasin

AGS, Caco-2 and HT-29 cells were plated as described above for morphological analysis, and treated with 10 μM lunasin for 72 h, taking aliquots of the medium at 0, 2, 24, 48, and 72 h of incubation. Aliquots of cultures with non-treated medium were also taken at these times. Samples were evaluated in duplicate and analysed by HPLC-MS/MS as indicated above for transepithelial transport experiments.

225 **2.6. Statistics**

Data were analyzed using GraphPad Prism 5.03 software (San Diego, CA, USA) by a one-way ANOVA, followed by the Bonferroni *post hoc* test. Differences with a *P* value < 0.05 were considered significant.

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230 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

231 **3.1. Effect of epithelial peptidases on lunasin and lunasin-peptides**

In a previous study, our group had demonstrated that more than 5% of synthetic 232 233 lunasin resisted at the end of an *in vitro* simulated pepsin-pancreatin digestion when IBB1 234 was present (lunasin:IBB1 ratio of 1:2, w:w). Moreover, the peptides released in the gastric 235 and gastrointestinal digests of lunasin were identified by HPLC-MS/MS (Cruz-Huerta et al., 236 2015). Therefore, in this transepithelial study, the lunasin-derived peptides f(1-10), f(11-18), f(19-28), and f(29-43) arising from its digestion were selected according to their proven 237 resistance to the gastrointestinal enzymes. In order to evaluate a possible structure/activity 238 239 relationship, peptide lunasin and these four fragments integrating the complete 43-amino 240 acid sequence were assessed for their resistance to brush-border peptidases and their 241 intestinal transport by using Caco-2 monolayers.

The integrity of the monolayers was confirmed by measuring TEER values and the flux 242 243 of Lucifer Yellow before and after the experiments. Cell monolayers maintained intact along the incubation with lunasin-derived peptides at 1000 μ M while lunasin at 50-1000 μ M 244 resulted in a reduction of the TJs strength indicating altered integrity of the monolayers . 245 246 However, lunasin at 10 µM did not exert a drop on TEER values. Previous studies carried out 247 in our group had demonstrated that lunasin at concentrations ranged from 0.5 to 25 μ M did not damage cell integrity during the period of incubation of this peptide with differentiated 248 human Caco-2 (García-Nebot et al., 2014), and liver HepG2 cells (Fernández-Tomé et al., 249 250 2014). Thus, 10 µM was the lunasin's concentration selected to carry out the following 251 transport studies. As illustrated in Figure 1A, lunasin was shown to reduce its concentration in a 42.8% \pm 1.3, while lunasin-peptides f(11-18) and f(19-28) remained intact in a 79.7 \pm 2.1 252

253 and 78.7% \pm 8.4 of the initial peptide, respectively. However, peptides f(1-10) and f(29-43) 254 maintained nearly intact after 60 min incubation with Caco-2 peptidases. This confers further resistance for these peptides in the intestine epithelium, beyond that was previously 255 256 shown against pepsin and pancreatic proteases (Cruz-Huerta et al., 2015). Similarly, some 257 food-derived antihypertensive peptides from milk caseins such as VPP and IPP (Ohsawa et 258 al., 2008), and HLPLP (Quirós et al., 2008), and from egg white QIGLF (Ding et al., 2014), and 259 the immunomodulatory peptide β -casein f(193-209) (Regazzo et al., 2010) have shown 260 remarkable resistance against intestinal brush-border peptidases. As shown in Figure 1B, when lunasin was added to the apical side of Caco-2 monolayers, brush-border intestinal 261 peptidases were found to cleave at the central region at the peptide bonds ¹⁵Q-G¹⁶, ¹⁸N-L¹⁹, 262 ¹⁹L-T²⁰, ²²C-E²³, and ²³E-K²⁴. These findings suggest a higher susceptibility to epithelial 263 264 peptidases for the central region of lunasin sequence than the N- and C-terminal domains. 265 Interestingly, this central region sited between amino acids 11 and 28 was also described to 266 be predominantly cleaved by pepsin and pancreatin when lunasin was subjected to a twostage hydrolysis process simulating gastrointestinal digestion in absence of IBB1, but 267 268 enclosed and protected from the enzymatic action when the protease inhibitor was present 269 (Cruz-Huerta et al., 2015).

In the case of the lunasin-derived peptides, the fragments found were mostly formed as consequence of cleavages at the N-terminus (Figure 1B). Caco-2 cells have been demonstrated to express up to eight membrane peptidases on the apical side. Among them, the serine protease dipeptidyl peptidase IV (DPPIV) that predominantly cleaves at the Nterminal position has shown to have the highest activity, especially when Caco-2 cells are completely differentiated (Howell et al., 1992). Besides, N-terminal hydrophobic or basic

276 amino acid residues represented a preferred substrate for the enzymatic action of DPPIV, while proline residue was fairly resistant (Mentlein, 1999). In our study, degradation by 277 DPPIV presumably occurred at the peptide bonds ${}^{1}S-K^{2}$ in f(1-10), ${}^{11}R-K^{12}$ in f(11-18), ${}^{19}L-T^{20}$ in 278 f(19-28), and ²⁹K-I³⁰ in f(29-43), while the peptide bond ²⁰T-P²¹ maintained its integrity. The 279 280 effect of DPPIV enzyme had been also suggested to be responsible for the N-terminal 281 degradation of bioactive peptides LHLPLP (Quirós et al., 2008), FRADHPFL (Miguel et al., 282 2008), RYLGY and AYFYPEL (Contreras et al., 2012), and RVPSL (Ding et al., 2015) in Caco-2 283 monolayers.

284 Despite the enzymatic attack shown on lunasin and derived fragments prior to their possible transport, these peptides have shown a notable resistance against Caco-2 285 peptidases, especially f(1-10) and f(29-43), when compared to other bioactives peptides 286 287 such as the μ -opioid receptor agonists β -casomorphin-5 and -7 from both bovine (Sienkiewicz-Szlapka et al., 2009), and human (Iwan et al., 2008) origins that nearly 288 disappeared after incubation in the apical side of Caco-2 monolayers. These results imply the 289 relevance of studying the resistance of bioactive peptides to the epithelial brush-border 290 291 membrane as first attempt to evaluate their *in vivo* bioavailability.

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3.2. Transepithelial transport of lunasin and lunasin-fragment f(11-18)

Analysis by HPLC-MS/MS of standard curves prepared with five-point dilutions of synthetic peptides allowed the quantification of peptides in the basolateral solutions. Only lunasin and derived-peptide f(11-18) were absorbed through the cell monolayer, while the rest of lunasin-fragments were not detected at the basolateral side. Any of the released fragments by the action of brush-border peptidases were able to flux across the Caco-2 299 monolayer. After 60 min incubation in the apical compartment, the P_{app} values calculated for the apical-to-basolateral transport of lunasin and f(11-18) were 3.32×10^{-7} cm/s and $2.50 \times$ 300 301 10^{-7} cm/s, respectively (Figure 2A). These values were similar to those found for other bioactive peptides on this transepithelial model such as AYFYPEL (2.60 \times 10⁻⁷ cm/s) and 302 RYLGY (2.20 \times 10⁻⁷ cm/s) (Contreras et al., 2012), and VLPVP (2.78 \times 10⁻⁷ cm/s) (Lei et al., 303 304 2008). Several studies have been focused on the in vitro transport of bioactive peptides 305 through Caco-2 monolayers, with different permeability values reported for peptides VPP and IPP (0.50 and 1.00×10^{-8} cm/s, respectively) (Foltz et al., 2008), RVPSL (6.97 $\times 10^{-6}$ cm/s) 306 (Ding et al., 2015), and SRYPSY $(9.21 \times 10^{-6} \text{ cm/s})$ (Sienkiewicz-Szlapka et al., 2009). 307

Further experiments were conducted in order to evaluate the mechanism involved in 308 309 the transepithelial transport of intact peptides lunasin and f(11-18). Three main mechanisms 310 have been described for the flux of peptides across intestinal epithelium, the PepT1-311 mediated transport, the TJs-mediated paracellular pathway, and the vesicle-mediated transcytosis route (Shimizu and Son, 2007). Peptides longer than three amino acids residues 312 have been described as not substrates for the PepT1 transporter (Vig et al., 2006). 313 Therefore, in this study, Caco-2 monolayers were pre-incubated with wortmannin (a 314 315 transcytosis inhibitor), and cytochalasin D (a TJs disruptor) for 30 min before the 316 transepithelial experiments (Quirós et al., 2008). As illustrated in Figure 2B, the presence of 317 wortmannin hardly modified the intensity of neither peptides lunasin nor f(11-18) in the basolateral chamber, suggesting that the vesicle-mediated mechanism was not involved on 318 319 the transport of these peptides, in disagreement with other peptides such as the β -casein 320 f(193-209) (Regazzo et al., 2010). However, cytochalasin D was shown to induce an 321 approximately 1.5-fold increase in the presence of both lunasin and f(11-18) compared to

322 controls. The enhanced transport was accompanied by a TEER value decrease (21.2% average), which also pointed toward the involvement of an expanded intercellular effect on 323 324 the peptides flux (Regazzo et al., 2010). The paracellular route is characterized by the passive 325 diffusion of molecules between adjacent cells, and is regulated by the intercellular TJs 326 forming a biological barrier with selective permeation function (Segura-Campos et al., 2011). 327 The aqueous nature of this pathway makes it favourable for the absorption of water-soluble 328 substances including oligopeptides (Salamat-Miller and Johnston, 2005), and allows the flux 329 to the basolateral side avoiding the enzymatic role of intracellular peptidases. Together, 330 these findings suggested that the paracellular pathway via TJs was the mainly route for the transepithelial transport of lunasin and f(11-18), consistent with the transport of many 331 peptides, such as VPP (Satake et al., 2002), GGYR (Shimizu et al., 1997), HLPLP (Quirós et al., 332 333 2008), QIGLF (Ding et al., 2014), RVPSL (Ding et al., 2015), TNGIIR (Ding et al., 2016), and 334 VLPLP (Lei et al., 2008). In addition, the permeability of paracellular-transported compounds 335 has been considered to be underestimated in Caco-2 monolayers because of the colonic origin of these cells that present a relatively higher TJs tightness in comparison with human 336 337 or animal small intestinal epithelial cells (Antunes et al., 2013), which ultimately might imply 338 a higher in vivo transepithelial transport for the peptides lunasin and derived fragment f(11-339 18) than that found in this study.

This is the first study that evaluates the behaviour of lunasin and some digestionfragments on the Caco-2 monolayer. Artursson and Karlsson (1991) established an association between the P_{app} coefficient in Caco-2 cells and the oral drug *in vivo* absorption. Later on, numerous studies on this cellular model have also found a high correlation for several compounds compared to the human intestinal transport (Cheng et al., 2008; Press et 345 al., 2008). In this sense, Dia et al. (2009) estimated in humans an average of 4.5% lunasin absorption from the total lunasin ingested in 50 g of soy protein, which is in agreement with 346 the P_{app} coefficient found in this study (3.32×10^{-7} cm/s). Regarding the absorption of 347 348 lunasin, a relative long 43-amino acid peptide, it is worthy to mention that other 349 polypeptides in this size range such as the therapeutics 32-amino acid calcitonin, and 51-350 amino acid insulin have been also reported to be transportable in the Caco-2 model 351 (Antunes et al., 2013). This is similar to the flux found for some dietary whey protein-derived peptides in the β -lactoglobulin sequence f(114-146) (Picariello et al., 2013). The RGD-motif 352 found in lunasin sequence at amino acids 33-35 had been demonstrated to allow the 353 attachment of this peptide to the extracellular matrix, suggesting its role in the 354 internalization into mammalian cells (Galvez et al., 2001). Besides, RGD-motif was suggested 355 356 as the recognizing sequence for the $\alpha_5\beta_1$ integrin-mediated antiproliferative activity of 357 lunasin on colorectal cancer cells (Dia and de Mejia, 2011). Nevertheless, in this study, the 358 RGD-containing peptide f(29-43) was not transported across the Caco-2 monolayer. The peptide f(11-18) was the only fragment resembling the transepithelial behaviour of the 359 360 parent peptide, thus it may be hypothesized whether this peptide is the presumable target 361 sequence for the intact absorption of complete lunasin across the intestinal epithelium. 362 However, more studies by modifying this region of the sequence are thus required to 363 confirm these findings.

364

365 3.3. Effects of lunasin and derived peptides on the viability of gastric and colorectal cancer
 366 cells

367 Several food-derived peptides have been described to exert potential chemopreventive properties against the proliferation of malignant cells (Hernández-Ledesma and 368 Hsieh, 2015). Peptide lunasin has demonstrated anti-proliferative activity in colorectal 369 370 cancer HCT-116, HT-29, KM12L4, and RKO cells (Dia and de Mejia, 2010, 2011). Cruz-Huerta 371 et al. (2015) recently showed an inhibitory effect for the gastrointestinal digests of 372 lunasin:IBB1 mixtures in colorectal cancer HT-29 and Caco-2 cells. Since the amount of 373 lunasin in these digests was low (ranged between 0.1% and 5.3% from initial lunasin), 374 peptides released during digestion of lunasin might contribute on the anti-proliferative 375 effects observed. Thus, in this study, lunasin and some new derived fragments (Table 1) 376 were evaluated for their potential anti-proliferative effect in the gastrointestinal tract by the 377 MTT protocol.

378 As shown in Figure 3, peptide lunasin affected the viability of the three cell lines, with 379 relatively higher effects on HT-29 cells. After 24 h treatment, lunasin provoked a ca. 10% 380 significant induction of non-viable cells at all concentrations assessed (Figure 3A). However, after 48 and 72 h treatment, a dose-dependent statistical trend was found for lunasin 381 382 activity with the maximum inhibitory effect found at 200 μ M (19.1 and 23.8%, respectively). 383 Moreover, a time-dependent lunasin's effect was revealed, showing a significant enhanced activity for this peptide at 50-200 µM from 24 to 72 h (12.4% average). Dia and de Mejia 384 385 (2010) had previously found that lunasin induced a cytotoxic effect ranging from 19.3% (10 μ M) to 62.8% (100 μ M) on HT-29 cells. While these authors assessed the activity of purified 386 lunasin (~90%) from defatted soybean flour, we have evaluated the effect of the synthetic 387 388 peptide. The lower activity found in this study might be due to differences in the secondary 389 and tertiary structures between plant-purified lunasin and the synthetic peptide. In Caco-2 390 cells, lunasin 50-200 μ M, and 10-200 μ M was able to induce an average ca. 10% significant increase on the number of non-viable cells after 24 and 48 h treatment, respectively (Figure 391 392 3B). In these cells, a dose-dependent trend was not clearly shown; however a notable time-393 dependent difference was demonstrated at 72 h. At this time, any anti-proliferative outcome 394 was shown, suggesting that lunasin's effects at 24 and 48 h were insufficient to induce a 395 marked inhibition on treated cells, which were found to recover and grow at the same ratio 396 as control cells after 72 h. As shown in Figure 3C, lunasin showed a significant dosedependent activity in AGS cells. At 10 and 50 μ M, this peptide did not present any statistical 397 difference from control cells. However, lunasin 100 and 200 µM modestly induced an 398 399 average inhibitory effect ca. 7% and 15%, respectively. Figure 4 illustrates the morphological analysis of non-treated and lunasin-treated cells, which showed a visual change in viable 400 401 cells as compared with the homogenous growth of control cells over the plate. Together 402 these findings indicated the higher susceptibility of HT-29 cells than both Caco-2 and AGS 403 cells to peptide lunasin, in agreement with previous results that found a more evident antiproliferative effect for lunasin:IBB1 gastrointestinal digests on the former colorectal cancer 404 405 cells (Cruz-Huerta et al., 2015). Likewise, the cytotoxic activity of this peptide has been 406 proposed to be dependent on the type of cell line treated with inhibitory concentration 407 (IC_{50}) values ranging from 13 μ M in colorectal cancer KM12L4 cells (Dia and de Mejia, 2011) 408 to 181 μ M in breast cancer MDA-MB-231 cells (Hernández-Ledesma et al., 2011).

Following the same methodology, gastric and colorectal cancer cells were treated with seven lunasin-derived peptides (10-200 μ M, 24-72 h). In HT-29 cells, peptide f(1-10) induced a time-dependent trend on the percentage of non-viable cells compared to control non-treated cells (Figure 5A). This peptide showed an increasing effect with the dose at 24 h

413 from 9.4% to 15.1% inhibition, while no statistical differences between concentrations were demonstrated at 48 and 72 h. The highest effect, 25.8% inhibition, was found at 72 h for the 414 415 dose of 200 μ M. As shown in Figure 5B, peptide f(17-28) reproduced these anti-proliferative 416 properties, but to a lower extent, with a dose-dependent trend (10-100 µM) at 24 and 48 h, 417 and an enhanced activity along the treatment time. The maximum inhibitory effect found for 418 this fragment was observed at 72 h for all the concentrations evaluated (17.3% average). 419 Lunasin-peptides f(19-28), f(29-41), and f(29-43) (10-200 μ M) showed a ca. 10% inhibitory 420 activity at 48 and 72 h, while f(11-18) and f(34-43) did not cause significant effect at any 421 condition evaluated in HT-29 cells (data not shown). In Caco-2 cells, f(1-10) and f(17-28) 422 were also the most active peptides among all lunasin-fragments assessed. Lunasin-peptides f(1-10) exhibited the highest effect after 24 h treatment with 200 μ M (18.6%) (Figure 5C), 423 424 and f(17-28) after 48 h treatment with 200 µM (22.8%) with a marked dose-dependent 425 statistically different activity at this time, but not at 24 h (Figure 5D). As it was shown for 426 lunasin treatment on Caco-2 cells, the activity of both fragments was notably decreased after 48 h, with any statistical difference from control cells at 72 h. While peptide f(29-41) 427 428 showed a ca. 8% inhibitory activity at 24 and 48 h, none of the rest lunasin-peptides induced 429 cytotoxic effects on these cells (data not shown). Therefore, in colorectal HT-29 cells, 430 peptide f(1-10) might be the main contributor to the anti-proliferative activity proven for the 431 complete lunasin. Despite the inhibitory activity exerted by lunasin and its fragments f(1-10) and f(17-28), the functionality of these peptides on Caco-2 cells was not absolutely 432 established due to the higher resistance of these cells, showing weaker effects that lead to a 433 434 recovery to control levels after 72 h treatment. Similarly to that was observed for lunasin in 435 gastric AGS cells, all derived fragments showed modest results in the range of 10-15%

436 inhibition, especially at 100 and 200 µM (data not shown). Thus, the effect of lunasin on these cells seems to be unspecific and independent of the assessed region within the 437 complete 43-amino acid peptide. The chemo-preventive properties of lunasin had been 438 439 attributed to its C-terminal domain that presents: (i) a predicted helix with structural 440 homology to a conserved region of chromatin-binding proteins, (ii) an RGD cell adhesion 441 motif, and (iii) a poly-D tail, with a high negatively charge, known to preferentially bind to 442 positively charged deacetylated histories and hypoacetylated chromatin (Galvez et al., 2001). 443 To date, to the best of our knowledge, only one study had evaluated a possible structure-444 activity relationship with different lunasin fragments on breast cancer MDA-MB-231 cells 445 (Hernández-Ledesma et al., 2011). Whereas peptide lunasin inhibited the malignant growth with an IC₅₀ value of 181 μ M, these authors proved that the C-terminal region was more 446 447 active than the complete peptide with IC₅₀ values of 175 and 138 μ M for lunasin-fragments 448 EKHIMEKIQGRG f(23-34), and EKHIMEKIQGRGDDDDDDDD f(23-43), respectively, while the fragment SKWQHQQDSCRKQLQGVNLTPC f(1-22) at the N-terminal domain was less potent 449 (IC₅₀: 323 µM). Therefore, this is the first study suggesting a protective role for the N-450 451 terminal region of lunasin, especially for f(1-10) in HT-29 cells. In this line, Chang et al. (2014) 452 recently found that a truncated peptide lacking the RGD-motif and the poly-D was equally 453 active than the complete lunasin sequence on the immunomodulatory activation of natural 454 killer cells. However, in the present study, neither lunasin nor lunasin-derived peptides 455 exerted the protective activity previously shown for lunasin: IBB1 digests (Cruz-Huerta et al., 456 2015). Therefore, the inhibitory properties of other compounds in the digests or a possible 457 synergistic effect between the peptides identified could not be discarded in this study. 458 Moreover, it should be highlighted that culture conditions have been recently found to

notably modulate the anti-proliferative activity of lunasin on non-small cell lung cancer cells (McConnell et al., 2015). These authors demonstrated that anchorage-independent growth conditions, more closely mimicking the *in vivo* tumor environment, increased the sensitivity of cancer cells to lunasin. In our study under anchorage-dependent growth conditions, the moderate biological MTT-activity would be presumably meaningful in a more physiological state.

465

466 **3.4. Stability of lunasin on gastric and colorectal cancer cells**

As shown in Table 2, by HPLC-MS/MS analysis, the residual intact lunasin in the cell 467 468 cultures was quantified and the derived fragments released by cellular enzymatic action were identified. In AGS cells, lunasin remained intact for up to 24 h incubation, and showed 469 470 a 13.2% and 27.0% reduction in its content after 48 and 72 h, respectively. Furthermore, at 48 h 471 incubation, the lunasin fragments EKHIMEKIQGRGDDDDDDDD f(23-43), HIMEKIQGRGDDDDDDDD f(25-43), and KIQGRGDDDDDDDD f(29-43) were generated and 472 remained in the culture after 72 h. In HT-29 cells, a relatively higher cellular enzymatic 473 474 activity was evidenced, with residual lunasin percentages being decreased in a time-475 dependent manner from 2 h (97.3%) to 72 h (68.0%), and the identification of the same three lunasin-derived peptides from 24 h incubation, as well as the new fragment 476 477 GRGDDDDDDDD f(32-43) at 72 h. In addition to peptide hydrolysis, degradation by the enzymatic response of cells to incubation with peptide explained the decrease in lunasin 478 concentration. It might be also due to peptide's internalization into AGS and HT-29 cells, as it 479 480 has been demonstrated in murine fibroblast C3H10T1/2 cells (Galvez et al., 2001), and 481 human THP-1 macrophages (Cam et al., 2013), colorectal cancer KM12L4 cells (Dia and de

482 Mejia, 2011), and prostate epithelial RWPE-2 cells (Galvez et al., 2011). Four lunasin-derived fragments were formed corresponding to the C-terminal region of the sequence from the 483 484 amino acid residue 23. Among them, fragment f(29-43) coincided with the sequence of one 485 lunasin-peptide that showed a ca. 10% inhibitory activity on AGS and HT-29 cells in this 486 study, and had been identified in in vitro gastrointestinal digests of lunasin (Cruz-Huerta et 487 al., 2015). In this sense, it is worthy to mention that the lunasin-derived peptide 488 SKWQHQQDSC f(1-10) was not formed during the stability assay, although it was the most active in the MTT assay. The enzymatic action of digestive peptidases would be thus 489 required to release this fragment. Moreover, the fragments f(25-43), f(29-43), and f(32-43) 490 491 had been already identified in a previous study of lunasin's stability in human liver HepG2 cells (Fernández-Tomé et al., 2014), which suggested that these cultures might share 492 493 enzymatic activities upon incubation with lunasin peptide. In contrast, neither lunasin 494 decrease nor derived fragments were demonstrated in Caco-2 cells along the incubation 495 time (data not shown). Lunasin degradation in this culture was thus not the cause of the anti-proliferative activity loss showed after 72 h treatment. Therefore, it might be suggested 496 497 that the cell line type is determinant in the behavior of lunasin added to the culture medium.

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499 4. Conclusions

The present study has been focused on the analysis of peptides lunasin and lunasindigestion fragments at the intestinal epithelium. The results pointed out for the first time a notable resistance against the epithelial brush-border membrane of Caco-2 monolayers, especially for peptides f(1-10) and f(29-43). Lunasin and f(11-18) were demonstrated to cross the intestinal epithelial barrier, with the paracellular route found as the main transport 505 mechanism involved. The f(11-18) might be proposed as preferred target sequence for the 506 transepithelial transport of lunasin peptide. These findings might imply biological relevance of lunasin and derived-fragments, suggesting potential to exert bioactive effects both locally 507 508 in the gastrointestinal tract as well as at a systemic level. Studies focused on detecting 509 lunasin-derived peptides in plasma and target tissues should be needed to confirm their 510 demonstrated in vitro bioavailability. Lunasin and lunasin-released peptides after simulated 511 in vitro digestion were shown to play moderate protective properties against the growth of 512 gastric and colorectal cancer cells, with the maximum inhibitory effects shown for lunasin and f(1-10) in HT-29 cells. Therefore, this is the first study that postulates a preventive role 513 for the N-terminal region of lunasin. It has been suggested that the cell line type is 514 515 determinant for the different behaviour of lunasin-derived sequences.

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666 **FIGURE CAPTIONS**

Figure 1. Behaviour of lunasin and lunasin-fragments added to Caco-2 monolayers. Analysis 667 by HPLC-MS/MS of peptides in apical solutions after incubation of lunasin 10 μ M and 668 lunasin-fragments 1000 µM with Caco-2 monolayers for 60 min. (A) Remaining intact 669 670 peptide in apical solutions was evaluated by the extracted molecular ions of lunasin 671 mass/charge (*m/z*) 1258.0 (charge +4) and *m/z* 1677.2 (charge +3), f(1-10) *m/z* 1246.3 672 (charge +1), f(11-18) *m/z* 942.3 (charge +1), f(19-28) *m/z* 1200.7 (charge +1), and f(29-43) 673 m/z 1694.0 (charge +1). Sodium and potassium adducts were considered, when formed. 674 Data are represented as relative percentage of initial peptide added to the chamber, and 675 expressed as mean ± standard error of the mean (SEM) of at least three independent replicates. (B) Intact peptides presented in the apical chamber and derived fragments 676 677 released by brush-border intestinal peptidases are shown. Sequence of peptide added to the 678 apical solution is marked with an arrow: Lunasin, SKWQHQQDSCRKQLQGVNLTPCEKHIMEKIQGRGDDDDDDDD; f(1-10), SKWQHQQDSC; f(11-679 18), RKQLQGVN; f(19-28), LTPCEKHIME; and f(29-43), KIQGRGDDDDDDDD. 680

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Figure 2. Transepithelial transport of peptides lunasin and f(11-18), RKQLQGVN. (A) Peptides were analyzed by HPLC-MS/MS in the basolateral solutions after incubation of 10 μ M lunasin and 1000 μ M lunasin-fragment f(11-18). The apparent permeability coefficient (P_{app}) was calculated as described in Materials and methods section, and represented as mean ± standard error of the mean (SEM) of at least three independent replicates per assayed peptide. (B) Effects of cytochalasin D and wortmannin on the transepithelial transport of peptides. Cells were pre-incubated with cytochalasin D (0.5 μ g/mL) and wortmannin (500

nM) for 30 min, or Hanks' Balanced Salt Solution (HBSS) with 0.044% dimethylsulfoxide (DMSO) (control), before addition of 10 μ M lunasin and 1000 μ M lunasin-fragment f(11-18). Experiments were carried out in duplicate, and results were represented as relative peptide intensity in the basolateral chamber (% of control, mean ± SEM). (*, *P* < 0.05) denotes statistically significant differences versus control by a one-way ANOVA followed by the Bonferroni *post hoc* test.

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696 Figure 3. Effects of lunasin on cancer cells viability. Cell viability was evaluated by the 3-(4,5dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyl tetrazolium bromide (MTT) assay after treatment of 697 698 human adenocarcinoma colorectal (A) HT-29 and (B) Caco-2 cells and (C) gastric cancer AGS cells with lunasin (10-200 µM, 24-72 h). Results were expressed as percentage of non-viable 699 700 cells compared to control, considered as 0% (% of control, mean ± standard error of the 701 mean, SEM). Experiments were carried out in triplicate, and analysed by a one-way ANOVA 702 followed by the Bonferroni post hoc test. Lower case letters denote statistically significant 703 differences (P < 0.05) between doses and control, considered as (a). Capital letters denote 704 statistically significant differences (P < 0.05) for the same dose between treatment times.

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Figure 4. Morphological analysis. Representative images, taken by using an optical microscope at 10X magnification, of HT-29, Caco-2, and AGS (A-C, respectively) non-treated cells, and (D-F, respectively) lunasin-treated cells (200 μM, 48 h). Lunasin-treated cells showed areas with minor cellular density (arrows), compared to non-treated control cells presenting a continuous growth over the plate.

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712 Figure 5. Effects of lunasin-derived fragments on cancer cells viability. Cell viability was 713 evaluated by the 3-(4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyl tetrazolium bromide (MTT) assay 714 after treatment of human adenocarcinoma colorectal (A and B) HT-29 and (C and D) Caco-2 cells with (A and C) peptide SKWQHQQDSC, f(1-10) and (B and D) peptide VNLTPCEKHIME, 715 716 f(17-28) at concentrations ranging from 10 to 200 μ M for 24-72 h. Results were expressed as 717 percentage of non-viable cells compared to control, considered as 0% (% of control, mean ± 718 standard error of the mean, SEM). Experiments were carried out in triplicate, and analysed 719 by a one-way ANOVA followed by the Bonferroni post hoc test. Lower case letters denote 720 statistically significant differences (P < 0.05) between doses and control, considered as (a). 721 Capital letters denote statistically significant differences (P < 0.05) for the same dose 722 between treatment times.