

A Scoping Review on Bioactive Peptides from Meat and Some Daily Food and Their Role in Human Health and Nutrition

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ABSTRACT: The objective of the proposed review was focused in studying bioactive peptides from daily foods and their role on human health and nutrition. It offers major potential for incorporation into functional foods and nutraceuticals. It can be derived from plant and animal origin. Methods of producing peptides are occurred in the proteolytic digestion of parent proteins, plant and bacterial proteases. It has physiological effect on the main body systems. There are some challenges in bioactive peptides such as fermented products compared to the raw materials could change in amino acid composition, size and sequence of the peptides. It is obvious that these peptides can be used for health promotion and disease risk reduction, especially because they have some advantages compared to synthetic drugs.

Key words: functional food, animal origin, bioactive peptides, bioactivities, production human health and nutrition

Date of Submission: 15-08-2019

Date of Acceptance: 29-08-2019

I. INTRODUCTION

Peptides are considered as proteins formed in the cell within large prepropeptides forms, which can lead to active products. Bioactive peptides act as a main role in physiological functions and pathogenesis. They have been defined as food derived components that can lead to several effects in the body. Bioactive peptides can be absorbed through small intestine where they enter through the circulatory system to do various physiological effects, or they make some other effects in the digestive tract (Lafarga et al., 2016).

Protein hydrolysates and peptides from natural resources can be used as functional foods or as technological components. The functional products may include the whole hydrolysate with purified peptides (Lafarga et al., 2016). Peptides with different effects might be derived from a monohydrolysate. So, sometimes additional stages are required in order to incorporate peptides with intended effects in the final product. This isolation process is carried out by controlling the process of enzymolysis (Zou et al., 2016).

The objective of the proposed review was focused in studying bioactive peptides from daily foods and their role on human health and nutrition with providing a comprehensive overview of the activities that have been reported for protein hydrolysates from various protein sources.

Sources Of Peptides And Production

History of Bioactive Peptide Discovery

Bioactive peptide discoveries have increased considerably since 1959, focusing on the identification of bioactive peptides from milk proteins. Historically, the first derived bioactive peptide was considered in 1950 when Mellander published that casein phosphorylated peptides has enhanced vitamin D-independent bone calcification in rachitic infants (Lafarga et al., 2016; Zou et al., 2016; Micewicz et al., 2015).

Bioactive Peptides in food processing

Meat is considered a high-quality protein which it can represent the most widely investigated source for separating in a closing system of bioactive peptides. Table 1 shows different mechanisms for bioactive peptide

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generation. Calpains and cathepsins endogenous enzymes are the key process that affects the de-structuration of proteins and release of a large number of peptides and free amino acids.

In a recent study, Bauchart et al. (2017) have found an increase of bioactive peptides in meat after two weeks of storing than in fresh meat. Fu et al (2017) has indicated that storing meat can generate bioactive peptides in muscles after 20 days of extensive proteolysis which can be driven by oxidation processes. Zhang et al, (2013) have mentioned that oxidation process can regulate the endogenous enzymatic activity. Korhonen et al (1998) and Leygonie et al (2012) have indicated that changing of temperature and pH can affect the content of bioactive peptides during meat storage. Pihlanto et al (2015) has mentioned that during gastrointestinal proteolysis, ingested meat-derivative proteins are attacked by digestive enzymes secreted in the small intestine. It should be stimulated to generate peptides similar to one released in a physiological digestion process. Verduyck et al, (2005) have indicated that enzymatic hydrolysis is a famous method selected to produce bioactive peptides products.

Table 1. Schematic representation of processes for obtaining meat bioactive peptides.

Product	Process	Carrier/Regulation	Functionality	Peptide Sequence	Reference
Meat	Proteolysis, oxidation	Endogenous enzymes	ACE-I activity	APPPPAEVPEVHEEVH, PPPAEVPEVHEEVH, IPITAAKASRNIA, LPLGG, FAGGRGG, APPPPAEVP	Bauchart et al 2017
Collagen	Enzymatic hydrolysis	Bacterial collagenase, exogenous enzymes, protease from <i>Aspergillus oryzae</i>	ACE-I and antioxidant activity	AKGANGAPGIAGAPGFPGAR, GSPGPQGPSGPP, PAGNPGADGQPGAKGANGAP, GAXGLXGP, GPRGF, VGPV, QGAR, LQGM, LQGMH, LC	Arihara et al 2006
Cured products	Proteolysis	Endogenous enzymes	Antioxidant activity	DSGVT, IEAEGE, EELDNLN, VPSIDDQEELM, DAQEKLE, ALTA, SLTA, VT, SAGNPN	Fu 2017
Fermented products	Proteolysis	Presence of starter cultures	Antioxidant activity	FGG, DM	Escudero et al 2013

Xu et al. (2015) have reported that the amounts of essential amino acids has increased rapidly in fermentation of soybean. Kleekayai et al. (2015) has identified two peptides (SV and IF) and one antioxidant peptide (WP) from fermented shrimp. Pan et al. (2005) has obtained two antihypertensive peptides with amino acid sequences of VPP and IPP from skimmed milk hydrolysed digested by cell-free extract of *Lactobacillus helveticus*.

Production of Bioactive Peptides

Many published works have described the isolation of bioactive peptides following bacterial fermentation of milk and meat proteins. However, microbial fermentation of meat proteins has been less successful. Methods are based on enzymatic hydrolysis which can lead to an advantage because they are more predictable to the end products. Enzymes can be taken from plants, microorganisms or animals, and can be used alone or mixed with other enzymes. It is important that isolation of peptides by enzymatic hydrolysis is performed under certain conditions of such as temperature, pH, time taken, etc.

The production of bioactive peptides by enzymatic hydrolysis is shown in Fig 1. The fractionation; purification and identification of bioactive peptides are taking part in the procedure.

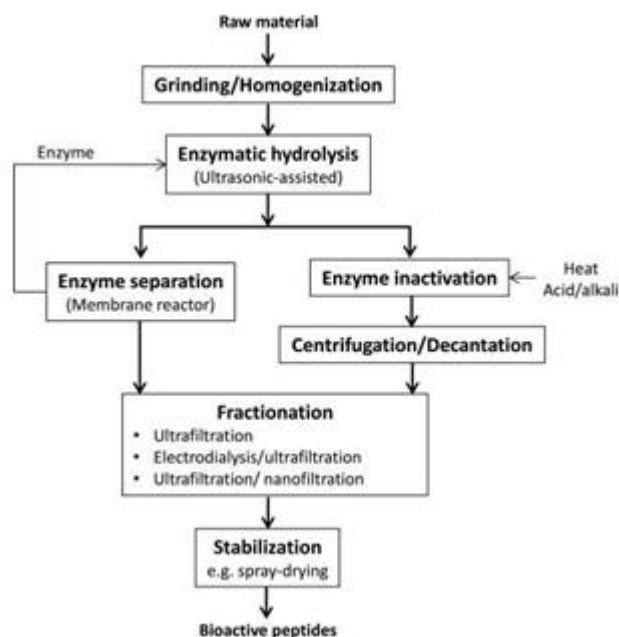


Figure 1. Flow diagram for the production of bioactive peptides.

Bioactivity Of Peptides

Bioactive Peptides on Immune System

An overview of reported effects on immune system is given in Table 2, which also shows the suggested peptides responsible for the effects.

Table 2. Effects of bioactive peptides on immune system.

Effects	Origin	Amino acid sequence (in single-letter code)	Reference
Antifungal peptides	Crab	RRWCFRVCYRGFCYRKCR, RRWCFRVCYKGFYRKCR, RWCFRVCYRGICYRKCR, KWCFRVCYRGICYRRCR, YLAFRCGRYSPCLDDGPNVNLVYSCCSFY, DYDWSLRGPPKCATYGGKCRITW SPPNCCWNLRCKAFRCRPR	Miyata et al., 1989; Murakami et al., 1991; Ohta et al., 1992; Kawabata et al., 1996; Osaki et al., 1999
	Blood of immune-challenged and untreated mussels (Mytilus edulis)	DCCRKPFKHCWDCTAGTPYYGYSTRNIFGCTC	Charlet et al., 1996
	Bass	FFHHIFRGIVHVGKTIHKLVTG	Lauth et al., 2002
	Salmon	—	Kamal and Motohiro, 1986
	Sea hare	—	Woyke et al., 2001; Pettit et al., 1998
	Shrimp	YRGGYTGPPIRPPPIGRPPFRVPCNACYRLSVSD ARNCCIKFGSCCHLVKG, QVYKGGYTRPIRPPPFV RPLPGGPIGPYNGCPVSCRGISFSQARSCSRLGRCHVKGKYS, LVVAVTDGDADSAVPNLHENTEYNYHYSHGVS, VTDGDADSAVPNLHENTEYNYH YSGHGVYVDPK, FEDLPNFGH IQKVFNHGEHIIH, PEVYKGGYTRPIRPPFVRPLPGGPIGPYNG CPVSCRGISFSQARSCSRLGRCHVKGKYS, VYKGGYTRPVPRPPF VRPLPGGPIGPYNGCP VSCRGISFSQARSCSRLGRCHVKGKYS, VYKGGYTRPIRPPFVRPVP GPIGPYNGCPVS CRGISFSQARSCSRLGRCHVKGKYS	Destoumieux et al., 1991, 2000; Destoumieux-Garzon et al., 2001
	Oyster (Muscle)	CLEDFYIG	Liu et al., 2008
	Mushroom	AGTEIVTCYNAGTKVPRGPSAXGGAIDFFN, ATRVVCNRRSGSV VGGDDTVYYEG, AGTEIVTCYNAGTKVPRGPSAXGGAIDFFN	Wang and Ng, 2004; Lam and Ng, 2001
	Bean	KTCENLADTFRGPCFATSNC, KTCENLADTYKGPCFTTGSCDDHCK, KTCENLADTYKGPCFTTG, TENLADTYWGPFTGRS, KTCENLADTY, KTCGNLANQYPCFTTNSCDDHCKNEHLRSGRCRDDFRCWCTK, KTYENLADTYKGPYFTTGSDDHYKNEHLRSGRMRDDFF, KTYENLADTYKGPYFTTGSDDHYKNEHLRSGRYRDDFF	Wong et al., 2012; Chan et al., 2012; Chan and Ng, 2013; Lam and Ng, 2013; Leung et al., 2008; Lin et al., 2010; Wang and Ng, 2007; Wu

	Venom of the social wasp (Polybiapaulista)	ILGTILGLLKSL	et al., 2011
Antimicrobial peptides	Oyster (Muscle)	CLEDFYIG	Wang et al., 2016
	Bass	FFHHIFRGIVHV GKTIIHKLVTG	Liu et al., 2008
	Crab	RRWCFRVCYRGFCYRKCR, RRWCFRVCYKGFYRKCR, RWCFRVCYRGI CYRKCR, KWCFRVCYRGICYRRCR, YLAFRCGRYSPCLDDGPNVNLVSCCSFY, DYDWSLRGPPKCATYGGKCRTWSPNCCWNLRCKAFRCRPR	Lauth et al., 2002
	Crayfish	FKVQNQHGVV KIFHH	Miyata et al., 1989; Murakami et al., 1991; Osaki et al., 1999; Kawabata et al., 1996
	Flounder	GWGSFFKAAHV GKHVGAALTHYL	Lee et al., 2002
	Loach	RQRVEELSKFSKKGAAARRR	Cole et al., 1997
	Lobster	IVENTSLEPHAGRCLLHTMCVKGDFTPPSPIR, QYGNLLSLLNGYR MMKLVLLCVLGLAV, MLKLVLLCVLGLALG, MLKLVLLCVLGLALG, MLRLVLLCVLGLAVG	Park et al., 1997
	Salmon	—	Pisuttharachai et al., 2009; Battison et al., 2008
	Atlantic salmon rest raw material	—	Uyttendaele and Debevere, 1994
	Shrimp	MRLVCLVFLASFALVCQG, YRGGYTGPIRPPPIGRPPFRPVCNA	Opheim et al., 2015
			Cuthbertson et al., 2002;

Table 2. Effects of bioactive peptides on immune system (continued).

Effects	Origin	Amino acid sequence (in single-letter code)	Reference
Antimicrobial peptides	Marine mussels	HPHVCTSYYSKFCGCTAGCTRYGCRNLHRGKLCFCLHCSR, HSHACTSYWCGKFCGTASCTHYLCRVLHPGKMCACVHCSR, QSVACRSYYSKFCGSAGCSLYGCYLLHPGKICYCLHCSR, SCASRCKGHCRARRCGYVSVLYRGRICYCKCLRC, GFGCPNNYACHQHCKSIRGYCGGYCASWFRLRCTCYRCG, GFGCPNDYPCHRHCKSIPGRYGGYCGGXHRLRCTC, GFGCPNDYCHRHCKSIPGRXGGYCGGXHRLRCTCYR, GCASRCKAKCAGRRCKGWASASFRGRCYCKCFRC	Padhi and Verghese, 2008; Balseiro et al., 2011; Mitta et al., 2000; Charlet et al., 1996
	Anchovy cooking wastewater	GLSRLFTALK	Tang et al., 2015
	Penaeid shrimp	FEDLPNFGHIQVKVFNHGEHIHH	Petit et al., 2016
	Zebrafish phosphovitin	—	Ding et al., 2012
	Tegillarcagranosa hemoglobin	PSVQDAAAQISADVKK, VLASLNFQDR, ISAAEFGK, ISAEAFGAINPEMK, GHAILTYALNNFVDSLDDPSR, MGSYYSDECAAAWALVAVVQAAL, LNGHGLTLWYGIQNFVDQLDNADDLEDVARK	Bao et al., 2016
	Beef muscle	GFHI, DFHING, FHG, GLSDGEWQ	Jang et al., 2008
	Bovine hemoglobin	VNFKLLSHSLVTLASHL, TKAVEHLDDLPGALSELSDLHAHKLKRVDPVNFKLLSHSL, LDDLPGALSELSDLHAHKLKRVDPVNFKLLSHSL, KLLSHSL, LLSHSL	Hu et al., 2011; Adje et al., 2011
	Deer, sheep, pig, and cattle blood	—	Bah et al., 2016
	Frogs	IKIPAVKDTLKKVAKGVLSAVAGALTQ, IKLSPETKDNLKKVLKGAIKGAIYAVAKMV, LKIPGFVKDTLKKVAKGIFSAVAGAMTPS, IKIPAFVKDTLKKVAKGVISAVAGALTQ, IKIPPIVKDTLKKVAKGVLSIAGALST, IKLSPETKDNLKKVLKGAIKGAIYAVAKMV, GLVGTLLGHIGKAILG, GLVGTLLGHIGKAILS	Mechkarska et al., 2012; Mechkarska et al., 2013; Mechkarska et al., 2014; Conlon et al., 2014
	Bovine mammary epithelial cell line	—	Malvisi et al., 2015)
	Venom of the social wasp Polybiapaulista	ILGTILGLLKSL, IDWKLLDAAKQIL	Souza et al., 2005
	Milk	LRLKKYVPQL, VYQHQKAMKPWQPKTKVIPYVRYL, IKHQGLPQE, VLNENLLR, SDIPNPIGSENSEK	Mohanty et al., 2015; McCann et al., 2006; Hayes et al., 2006
	Human milk	EQLTK, GYGGVSLPEWVCTTFALCSEK, CKDDQNPDISCDFE, GRRRRSVQWCAVSQPEATKCFQWQR, NMRKVRGPPVSCIKRDSPIQCIQA	Pellegrini et al., 1999; Hunter et al., 2005
	Egg	IVSDGDGMNAW, HGLDNYR	Mine et al., 2004; Mine

			and Kovacs-Nolan, 2006 Dallas et al., 2016
Antiviral peptides	Bovine milk	YQEPVLPVVRGPFPI,YQEPVLPVVRGPFPIIV,EVFGKEKVN, SDIPNPIGSENSEK,RPKHPKHQGLPQEVLNENLLRF,VLNENLLR	
	Oyster(Muscle)	LLEYSI,LLLEYSL	Lee et al., 1998 Murakami et al., 1991; Masuda et al., 1992
	Crab	KWCFRVCYRGICYRRCR, RRWCYRKCYKGYCYRKCR	Plaza et al., 2007; Plaza et al., 2009; Andjelic et al., 2008
	Sponge	—	Lam and Ng, 2001 Lin et al., 2010 Bergaoui et al., 2013
Immunomodulatory peptides	Mushroom Bean	AGTEIVTCYNAGTKVPRGPSAXGGAIIDFFN KTCGNLANQYYPCFTTNSCDDHCKNKEHLRSGRCRDDFRCWCTK	
	Frog skin	ALWMTLLKKVLKAAAKAALNAVLVGANA	
	Atlantic salmon (Salmosalar)	—	Opheim et al., 2015
	Muscadomestica larvae	—	Sun et al., 2014
	Chlorella vulgarian	—	Morris et al., 2009
	Zebrafishphosvitin	—	Ding et al., 2012

Table 2. Effects of bioactive peptides on immune system (continued).

Effects	Origin	Amino acid sequence (in single-letter code)	Reference
Immunomodulatory peptides	Soybean	MITLAIPVVKPGR, MITLAIPVN, MITL, HCQRPR, QRPR, MITLAIPVVKPGR	Yoshikawa et al., 2000; Singh et al., 2014; Capriotti et al., 2015
	Rice	GYPMYPLPR	Takahashi et al., 1994
	Mushroom	—	Sheu et al., 2004; Lin et al., 2013
	Wheat Buckwheat pollen	— — RKYVD	Horiguchi et al., 2005 Liu et al., 1998
	Turmeric (Curcuma longa)	—	Aravind and Krishnan, 2016
	Chickpea	—	Clemente et al., 1999
	Frog skin	GLVGTLLGHIGKAILG, GLVGTLLGHIGKAILS, IKLSPE TKDNLKKVLKGAIKGAIKAVAKMV	Mechkarska et al., 2014; Conlon et al., 2014; Mechkarska et al., 2013
	Bovine mammary epithelial cell line	—	Malvisi et al., 2015
	Egg	—	Xie et al., 2002; Fan et al., 2003
	Milk	TTMPLW, YPFPVYPQRTTMPLW, YQEPVLPVVR, LLY	Meisel, 2005; Mohanty et al., 2015; Elfahri et al., 2014; Hernandez-Ledesma et al., 2004; Berthou et al., 1987
	Camel milk	QEPVPDPVVRGLHP	El Hatmi et al., 2016
	Whey	—	Mercier et al., 2004
	Bovine milk	PGPIP, YQEPVLPVVRGPFPIIV, PGPIP, LYQEPVLPVVRGPFPIIV	Boutrou et al., 2013; Dallas et al., 2016
	Bursa of Fabricius (BF) in chicken	YEYAY, RMYEE, GPPAT, AGCCNG, RRL	Feng et al., 2012
	Human milk	VEPIPY	Parker et al., 1984
	Egg	SVNVHSSL,YRGGLEPIN	Goldberg et al., 2003
Cytomodulatorypepti des	Bovine milk	KAVYPQ,PYPQ, RTLGYLE,RTLGYL, YPFPGPI YVFPYPFPFG, AVP YPQR,RETIESLSSESSEESIPEYK, QPTIPFFDPQIPK	Kampa et al., 1997; Nagaune et al., 1989; Hernandez- Ledesma et al., 2004
	Camel milk	KRKEMPLLQSPV	El Hatmi et al., 2016
Antiproliferative,anti- tumor peptides	Casein	EPVLPVVRGP	Zhao et al., 2014
	Bean (Phaseolus vulgaris L.)	KTYENLADTYKGPYF TTGSHDDHYKNKEHLRSGRMRDDFF, KTCGNLANQYYTPCFTTNSCDDHCKNKEHLRSGRCRDDFRCWCT K, KTYENLADTYKGPYFTTGSHTDDHYKNKEHLRSGRYRDDFF	Wang and Ng, 2007; Lin et al., 2010; Wu et al., 2011
	Mushroom Flammulina velutipes	—	Lin et al., 2013

	Soybean	XMLPSYSPY, SKWQHQQDSCRKQKQGV NLTPCEKHIMEKIQGRGDDDDDDDD	Kim et al., 2000; Valjakka et al., 1997
	Turmeric (Curcuma longa)	—	Aravind and Krishnan, 2016
	Bean	KTCGNLANQYPCFTTSCDDHCKNKEHLRSGRCRDDFRCWCTK	Lin et al., 2010
	Frog skin	IKLSPETKDNLKKVLKGAIKGAIIVAKMV, GLWSKIKEAAKAAGKAALNAVTGLVNQGDQPS, GLVG TLLGHIGKAILG, GLVGTTLLGHIGKAILS	Attoub et al., 2013; Conlon et al., 2007; Mechkarska et al., 2014; Conlon et al., 2014
	Sea hare (Dolabellaauricularia)	XVXXX	Madden et al., 2000; Pettit et al., 1998; Turner et al., 1998; Vaishampayan et al., 2000
	Muscadomestica larvae	—	Sun et al., 2014
	Fish sauce	—	Lee et al., 2003, 2004
	Sea hare (Dolabellaauricularia)	XVXXX	Madden et al., 2000
	Cod, plaice, salmon	—	Xhindoli et al., 2016; Ngo et al., 2012
	Tuna muscle	LPHVLTPEAGAT, PTAEGGVYMT	Hsu et al., 2011
	Fish backbone	—	Zhang et al., 2013; Ngo et al., 2012
	Sardine muscle	VY	Matsui et al., 2005
	Shrimp shell	—	Kannan et al., 2011
	Sea slug (Pleurobranchus forskalii)	—	Wesson and Hamann, 1996
	Bovine Milk	VENLHLPLLL, NLHLPLLL, ENLHLPLLL, ALNENLLRFFVAPFPEVFG, LNENLLRFFVAPFPEVFG, NENLLRFFVAPFPEVFG, ENLLRFFVAPFPEVFG, FVAPFPEVFG	Juillerat-Jeaneret et al., 2011
Antimutagenic and antigenotoxic peptides	Kefir	—	Guzel-Seydim et al., 2011
	Bovine plasma, globulin and albumin	—	Park and Hyun, 2002
	Silk fibroin	—	Park et al., 2002

Bioactive Peptides on Nervous System

An overview of reported effects of peptides on nervous system is listed in Table 3. Brantl et al. (1985) have reviewed the pharmacological management of various types of pain in the most recent years. There is also a great concern related to the side effects of opioids such as morphine, codeine, addiction, hyperalgesia, abuse, and toxicity (Nair et al., 2015; Brantl et al., 1985).

Cakir-Kiefer et al. (2011) have discussed in vitro digestibility of α -casozepine, a benzodiazepine-like peptide from bovine casein, and biological activity of its main proteolytic fragment.

Zou et al. (2015) have indicated that bioactive peptides obtained from porcine cerebral hydrolysate have the ability to protect from any effects by reducing the Pb₂C concentration of the blood and brain. Su et al. (2016) have revealed that *Coiliumystus* protein hydrolysate has therapeutic potential for memory deficit through inhibition of acetyl-cholinesterase (AChE).

Table 3. Effects of bioactive peptides on nervous system.
Bioactive Peptides on Gastrointestinal System

Effects	Origin	Amino acid sequence (in single-letter code)	Reference
Opioid and antinociceptive peptides	Wheat	GYYPY, YPISL	Takahashi et al., 2000; Fukudome and Yoshikawa, 1993
	Lactalbumin	YGLF, YLLF	Yoshikawa et al., 1986
	Bovine milk	YPPFGP, YPPFGPI	Boutrou et al., 2013
	Bovine / β -casein	YPPFGPI	Brandl et al., 1979
	Bovine milk-derived lactoferrin	—	Hayashida et al., 2003
	Kefir microorganisms on bovine milk	YPPFGPI, YPVEPF, YPSYGLN, YPPFGPIP, YPPFGPIPNSLPQ	Dallas et al., 2016
	Camel milk	YFPPIQFVQSR, YPSYGIN	El Hatmi et al., 2016
	Human milk	YVPPF, YPFV, YPFVE, YGLF	Kampa et al., 1996; Kostyra et al., 2004; Brandl, 1985
	Bovine milk-derived lactoferrin	—	Hayashida et al., 2003
	Milk-derived	—	Tsuchiya et al., 2006
Relaxing peptides	Human lactoferrin	—	Raju et al., 2005
	Bovine Casein	YLGYLEQLLR, YLGYLEQ	Çakir-Kiefer et al., 2011; Messaoudi et al., 2005
	Bovine α 1-casein	YLGYLEQLLR	Miclo et al., 2001; Hernandez-Ledesma et al., 2014
	Bovine milk lactoferrin	—	Takeuchi et al., 2003; Kamei et al., 2004

Bioactive Peptides on Gastrointestinal System

Table 3 presents an overview of reported effects of peptides on gastrointestinal system. Micewicz et al., 2015 has mentioned that obesity has turned into one of the most serious health problems in the current century and it is believed to elevate the probability of heart disease, type-2 diabetes, obstructive sleep apnea, certain types of cancer, and osteoarthritis, among others.

Beucher et al. (1994) has showed that glycomacropptide is released from dietary casein during gastric digestion via stimulation of CCK release by intestinal cells. It also is supported by Pedersen et al. (2000), who indicated that dietary amount of CMP can stimulate pancreatic secretion through CCK release. In vivo study, There are many recent researches for bioactive peptides and proteins have been considered for their effects on probiotics (Oda et al., 2013, Nishi et al., 2003a, Yu et al. 2016).

Table 3. Effects of bioactive peptides on gastrointestinal system.

Effects	Origin	Amino acid sequence (in single-letter code)	Reference
Anti-obesity	Soybean	LPYPR, VRIRLLQRFNKRS	Takenaka et al., 2000; Nishi et al., 2003
	Milk	MAIPBTSZPGACVMILYFHKR	Beucher et al., 1994; Pedersen et al., 2000
	Neuromedin U	XXFRPN	Micewicz et al., 2015
Prebiotic	Blue whiting (Micromesistius poutassou) and brown shrimp (Penaeus aztecus)	—	Cudennec et al., 2008
	Bovine whey protein	—	Ibrahim and Bezkorovainy, 1994
	Bovine lactoferrin	APRKNVRWCTISQPEWLECIRA	Oda et al., 2013
Protective effect on the gut mucosa	Casein	—	Zhang et al., 2011; Prasanna et al., 2012
	Whey protein	YLLF	Claustre et al., 2002
	Casein	AYFYPEL, YFYPEL	Martinez-Maqueda et al., 2013a, b Martinez-Maqueda et al., 2013a, b

Mineral binding

Casein phosphopeptides simulate mineral binding properties and are useful in dental care. They also increase the absorption and bioavailability of calcium and some other minerals, such as manganese, zinc, copper and iron in the intestine. Most Casein phosphopeptides have a common design, such as a sequence of three phosphoserine followed by two glutamic acid residues (Gobbetti et al. 2007).

These sequences provide the peptides with the unique capacity to keep Ca, P and other mineral in a solution at intestinal pH. Most phosphopeptides containing the cluster sequence -Ser(P)-Ser(P)-Ser(P)-Glu(E)-Glu(E)- have been identified from whole bovine casein (Sharma et al. 2011). The negatively charged side chains, represent the binding sites for minerals (Gobbetti et al. 2007).

Table 4. Commercially products of peptides.

Product	Source	Claimed application	Type of fraction	Manufacturer
Lactium	Milk	Relaxing	Peptide (YLGYLEQLL)	Ingredia, Arras Cedex, France
Myprotein™	Whey	Sport nutrition	Whole hydrolysate	The Hut, Ltd, UK
Sato Marine Super P	Sardine	Antihypertensive	Peptide (VY)	Sato Pharmaceutical Co., Ltd., Tokyo, Japan
Hyvital	Whey or casein	Infant nutrition	Whole hydrolysate	FrieslandCampina, Netherlands
Proyield	Nonanimal protein (soy, cotton seed, wheat, pea)	Biopharmaceutical cell culture media	Whole hydrolysate	FrieslandCampina, Netherlands
Stedygro	Protein from casein, soy, malt, gelatin, and cotton	Microbial culture media	Whole hydrolysate	FrieslandCampina, Netherlands
Lacprodan	Protein from casein and whey	Sport nutrition and beverage	Whole hydrolysate	Arla Foods Ingredients, Denmark
Ameal S	Milk casein	ACE inhibition	Peptides (IPP and VPP)	Calpis, Japan
Vasotensin	Bonito	Anti-hypertension	Peptide (LKPNM)	Metagenics, US
Peptide Nori S	Porphyrae zoensis	Anti-hypertension	Peptide (AKYSY)	Riken Vitamin, Japan
Stabilium 200	Fish	Relaxing	Whole hydrolysate	Yalacta, France
Seishou-sabou	Bovine and porcine blood	Anti-obesity	Peptide (VVYP)	Moringa & Co., Ltd., Japan
Marine peptide	Sardine	ACE inhibition	Peptides	SenmiEkisu, Japan
BioZate	Whey	Anti-hypertension	Peptides	Davisco Foods, US
NOW	Whey	Sport nutrition	Whole hydrolysate	NOWfoods, US
Nutripeptin™	Cod	Hypotriglyceridemic	Whole hydrolysate	Nutrimarine Life Science AS, Norway
VERISOL	Collagen	Anti-aging	Peptides	GELITA Inc., US
Remake Cholesterol Block	Soy protein	Hypocholesterolemic	Peptide (CSPHP)	Kyowa Hakko, Japan

Food Protein-Derived Bioactive Peptides

The primary purpose of protein consumption is to provide essential amino acids, which are used by the body to synthesize various structural (muscles, bones, hair) and functional (enzymes, hormones) proteins required for homeostasis maintenance. However, the increasing popularity of functional foods and nutraceuticals has led scientists to seek protein-derived fragments (peptides) that could prevent or even treat chronic metabolic disorders. A bioactive peptide consists of a certain number of amino acids (2-20) that are usually encrypted (hence the term ‘cryptides’) within the linear protein chain (Figure. 2) and remain inactive until released by digestion.

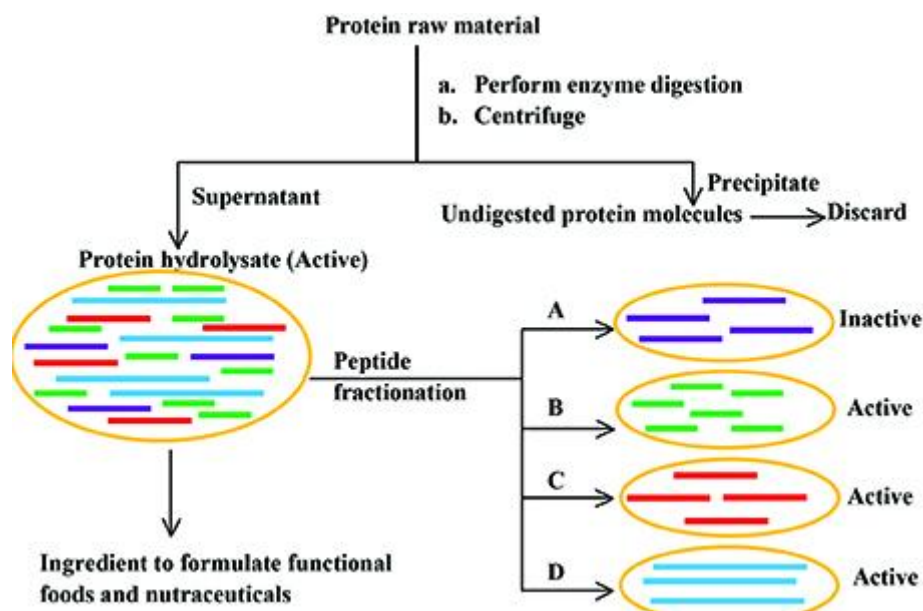


Figure. 2 Food Protein-derived Bioactive Peptides.

A protein chain can contain several cryptides that may be similar (same length and amino acid sequence) or dissimilar (same or different length with different amino acid sequence). Thus, it follows that under appropriate gastrointestinal tract (GIT) digestion conditions, food proteins could yield bioactive peptides. High peptide solubility increases absorption potential during oral consumption and hence ensures a more effective

bioavailability. This method produces a 'peptide soup' called a protein hydrolysate that contains cryptides and non-cryptides with peptides of different sizes, amino acid composition or sequence and activity. The protein hydrolysate can be tested for desirable activity and if positive may be used directly to formulate functional foods and nutraceuticals. High levels of cryptides will enhance bioactive properties of the protein hydrolysate. Therefore, subsequent separation techniques (membrane ultrafiltration, column chromatography) can be used to enrich the product with highly active peptides (fractions B, C, D) through removal of the inactive or less active components (fraction A) as shown in Fig. 1. Peptide separation is based mainly on size, net charge and hydrophobicity to produce distinct and homogenous fractions with better bioactive properties than the original protein hydrolysate. However, in some cases, peptide separation actually produces fractions with reduced bioactive properties than the original protein hydrolysate. The strong bioactive properties of such protein hydrolysates has been attributed to synergistic effects whereby the peptide interactions produce stronger effects than the sum of individual peptides. Therefore, loss of synergy as a result of peptide separation causes reductions in bioactive effects of the peptide fractions; in such cases, use of the protein hydrolysate without further peptide separation is preferred

Challenges In Bioactive Peptides Application

Challenges in application of bioactive peptides and hydrolysates in industries have been discussed by many authors (Lafarga and Hayes2016, Harnedy and FitzGerald, 2012; Lafarga and Hayes, 2016;Korhonen2009).

Grienke et al. (2014) has pointed to the importance of collaboration to reach a condition to exploit favorable bioactive peptides foods.

Another application of bioactive peptides and hydrolysates related to the effects of peptides on humans. Although there have been several *in vivo* investigations proving the bioactivity of peptides and hydrolysates in animal models, the results of these studies cannot be confidently generalized to humans.

Different methods have been proposed to reduce bitterness of the peptides. The degree of bitterness is evaluated in mole concentration of quinine sulfate solution (Matsuoka et al., 1991; Habibi-Najafi and Lee, 1996).

Peptides that reduce cell proliferation may be important tools in the fight against cancer. Using various cancer cell lines (liver, breast and cervical), rapeseed peptides obtained through fermentation significantly reduced cell proliferation but without cell toxicity. Similarly, a peptide (Trp-Pro-Pro) isolated from an enzymatic hydrolysate of blood clam muscle showed toxicity and antiproliferative effects when incubated with various cancer cell lines. In the presence of Trp-Pro-Pro (5 and 15 mg/ml), apoptosis of human prostate cancer cells (PC-3) increased 2-fold, which suggests anticancer potentials for the peptide. Cowpea protein hydrolysates have demonstrated potential cholesterol-reducing abilities through *in vitro* inhibition of 3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl coenzyme A reductase, the enzyme that catalyzes the rate determining step during hepatic cholesterol synthesis³⁷. If absorbed from the GIT, the cowpea protein hydrolysate could interfere with and decrease *in situ* cholesterol synthesis, which would lead to lowering of blood cholesterol and associated health benefits. The cowpea protein hydrolysate also interfered with micellar solubilization of cholesterol during *in vitro* tests. Since cholesterol solubilization is an important prerequisite for absorption from the GIT into blood circulation, consumption of the micellar-disrupting cowpea protein hydrolysate may enhance fecal removal of cholesterol and promote low blood cholesterol levels. Protein hydrolysates have also been tested for immune-modulating activities, especially to promote cellular expression of anti-inflammatory hormones (cytokines). Using a lipopolysaccharide/interferon γ -stimulated RAW 264.7 NO(-) macrophages, PPH treatment was shown to inhibit NO production by up to 20% when compared to non-treated cells³⁸. The PPH also significantly inhibited secretion of the pro-inflammatory cytokines, TNF- α and IL-6, by 35 and 80%, respectively. Mice that received an oral administration of PPH displayed enhanced peritoneal macrophages phagocytic activity in addition to stimulated gut mucosa immune response. The enhanced immune response was typified by an increased number of IgA+ cells in the small intestine lamina propria as well as higher numbers of IL-4+, IL-10+ and IFN- γ + cells³⁸. The authors concluded that the PPH may be used as an alternative therapy to prevent inflammatory-related diseases.

To sum up, there is still a long investigation to make use of bioactive peptides from natural resources. In recent years, many companies have been inclined toward manufacture of foods from bioactive peptides. This may be caused by two main factors, technical and price. Functional foods have accounted for the major part of products depend on bioactive peptides and hydrolysates from the nature. Moreover, medical applications of this kind of peptides are forbidden because of their toxicity of the peptides when applied systemically. Fully synthetic peptides and peptidomimetics have been proposed to overcome any problems. Production of anti-aging cosmetics is based on bioactive peptides from natural resources with appropriate level.

II. CONCLUSION

There are many varieties of resources of protein hydrolysates from plant, animal origins, chemical, enzymatic, and microbial procedures. Different effects on immune, cardiovascular, nervous, and gastrointestinal systems have been discussed. They have also discussed the functional and antioxidant properties in food systems. Applications of bioactive and challenges depend on the sources from which the peptides and hydrolysates are

obtained. Different methods have been discussed to reduce bitterness of the peptides. Despite a few optimistic findings, no single method has been presented to fully remove the bitter taste of the peptides to be economical in industrial scales.

Recently a trend in this regard for the characterization and purification of peptides with stronger and more specific effects has been shown. Although, the recent research is focused in the production of peptide-based foods, there is still a big gap between wide academic findings and commercialization of bioactive peptides from natural products. By considering bioactive activities of these peptides and their effect on health, and millions of deaths caused diseases, it is clear that these peptides can be used for health promotion and slowing down disease risk.

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"Dauda Sa-Adu Abiola" Bioactive peptides from meat and some daily food and their role on human health and nutrition" *International Journal of Engineering And Science*, vol. 09, no. 01, 2019, pp. 40-51