

INSTITUTO DE TECNOLOGIA DE ALIMENTOS
Ciência e Qualidade de Alimentos (CCQA)

DANIEL SARAIVA LOPES

AVALIAÇÃO DO POTENCIAL ANTIOXIDANTE DE HIDROLISADOS
PROTEICOS DA SEMENTE DO GIRASSOL SOBRE CÉLULAS INTESTINAIS
CACO-2

CAMPINAS

2024

DANIEL SARAIVA LOPES

AVALIAÇÃO DO POTENCIAL ANTIOXIDANTE DE HIDROLISADOS
PROTEICOS DA SEMENTE DO GIRASSOL SOBRE CÉLULAS INTESTINAIS
CACO-2

*Dissertação apresentada ao Instituto de
Tecnologia de Alimentos para obtenção do
título de Mestre em Ciência e Tecnologia
de Alimentos.*

Aluno: Daniel Saraiva Lopes

Orientador: Dr^a. Fabiana A. B. Galland

Co-orientador: Dr^a. Maria Teresa B.
Pacheco

Este exemplar corresponde à versão final da Dissertação defendida pelo aluno Daniel Saraiva Lopes e orientado pela Prof(a). Dr(a). Fabiana Andrea Barrera Galland.

CAMPINAS

2024

Agência(s): O presente trabalho foi realizado com apoio da Fundação de Amparo à Pesquisa do Estado de São Paulo - FAPESP

Nº do proc.: 2022/01204-8

FICHA CATALOGRÁFICA

Elaborada por Lucilene P. Silva - Bibliotecária CRB/8 - 8507

Instituto de Tecnologia de Alimentos – ITAL

L864a Lopes, Daniel Saraiva.

Avaliação do potencial antioxidante de hidrolisados proteicos da semente do girassol sobre células intestinais CACO-2. / Daniel Saraiva Lopes. Dissertação de Mestrado em Ciência e Tecnologia de Alimentos. Campinas, SP: Ital, 2024.

104 f.

Orientadora: Dra. Fabiana Andrea Barrera Galland.

1. Composto bioativo. 2. Peptídeos do girassol. 3. Hidrólise de proteínas. 4. Digestão simulada. 5.

Atividade antioxidante. I. Instituto de Tecnologia de Alimentos (Ital). Centro de Ciência e Qualidade de Alimentos (CCQA). II. Galland, Fabiana Andrea Barrera. III. Título.

Título em inglês: Evaluation of the antioxidant potential of sunflower seed protein hydrolysates on Caco-2 intestinal cells

Keywords: bioactive compound; sunflower peptides; protein hydrolysis; simulated digestion; antioxidant activity

Titulação: Mestre em Ciência e Tecnologia de Alimentos

Banca Examinadora: Dr^a. Fabiana Andrea Barrera Galland, Dr^a. Taliana Kenia Alves Bezerra e Dr. Paulo Roberto de Araújo Berni

Data da Defesa: 05/02/2024

Programa de Pós-graduação em Ciência e Tecnologia de Alimentos

BANCA EXAMINADORA

Este exemplar corresponde à redação final da Dissertação de Mestrado defendida por Daniel Saraiva Lopes aprovada pela Comissão Julgadora em 05/02/2024.

Prof.(a) Dr.(a) Fabiana Andrea Barrera Galland
CCQA - (Presidente)

Dr.(a) Taliana Kenia Alves Bezerra
Universidade Federal da Paraíba-IFPB (titular)

Dr. Paulo Roberto de Araújo Berni
Universidade Federal do Estado do Rio de Janeiro-UNIRIO
(titular)

A ata de defesa de dissertação de mestrado com as respectivas assinaturas dos membros da banca encontra-se arquivada junto à documentação do aluno.

DEDICATÓRIA

Aos meus pais: Jucileide e José Lopes,
que me incentivam a perseguir minha realização pessoal e profissional,
proporcionando-me todo o suporte necessário.

A vocês, muito obrigado! <3

AGRADECIMENTOS

Agradeço primeiramente a Deus, por todo o aprendizado, preparo profissional e renovação pessoal. Aos meus familiares e amigos de Bom Jesus do Itabapoana/RJ e Campinas/SP, por todo incentivo e apoio incondicional.

A minha maravilhosa e incrível orientadora: Fabiana Galland, pela confiança, paciência e dedicação, além de todo aprendizado durante este trabalho. Muito obrigado, Fab! <3.

Agradeço a Fundação de Amparo à Pesquisa do Estado de São Paulo-FAPESP, pela concessão da bolsa e apoio ao projeto.

Ao Instituto de Tecnologia de Alimentos - ITAL por toda estrutura concedida para realização desse trabalho e ao seu corpo de funcionários, uma família que levarei no coração!

Muito obrigado! <3

RESUMO

O estresse oxidativo, causado pela desregulação entre a formação de substâncias pró-oxidantes e antioxidantes, está associado a um aumento da incidência de doenças crónicas não transmissíveis (diabetes tipo II, doença de Parkinson e alguns tipos de câncer). A farinha de girassol, um co-produto da produção de biodiesel, é rica em proteínas com funcionalidade desconhecida. Estudos mostram que os peptídeos, gerados após um processo de hidrólise, podem ter uma ação antioxidante benéfica para a saúde. Contudo, estas características foram pouco estudadas em hidrolisados do girassol. Frente ao exposto, o presente trabalho visou avaliar a atividade antioxidant de hidrolisados peptídicos derivados do girassol por métodos químicos *in vitro*, *in silico* e sobre células intestinais Caco-2. A proteína da farinha desengordurada foi isolada por pH isoelétrico (4,5) e os compostos fenólicos foram removidos por extração com álcool (70%). O isolado proteico de girassol (SFPi) foi hidrolisado pela enzima alcalase (pH 9, a 50°C/90 min) e ultrafiltrado (<5kDa), gerando a fração filtrada do hidrolisado de girassol (SPHf). A hidrólise com alcalase gerou peptídeos de baixo peso molecular (<1 kDa) e este resultado foi intensificado pela digestão simulada. Apesar da alta concentração de aminoácidos ácidos e hidrofóbicos, o perfil de hidrofobicidade foi reduzido após a hidrólise. A SPHf aumentou significativamente a atividade antioxidant em comparação com a SFPi digerido nos ensaios ABTS e DPPH. Após a digestão, a atividade antioxidant por ORAC foi mantida na fração SPHf. Dos 196 peptídeos identificados, 13 apresentaram maior probabilidade de atividade antioxidant utilizando uma ferramenta de análise de bioinformática de aprendizagem profunda. Além disso, vários peptídeos continham di- e tri-peptídeos com atividade antioxidant na sua estrutura, com referências cruzadas em bases de dados de peptídeos bioativos alimentares. O SPHf não apresentou atividade antimicrobiana, contudo atenuou a produção de espécies reativas de oxigênio induzido por peróxido de hidrogênio em células gastrointestinais Caco-2. O hidrolisado de girassol foi capaz de reverter o aumento do teor de GSH e da atividade da CAT induzido pelo estímulo de H₂O₂. Embora não significativo, o mesmo perfil foi observado com a atividade da SOD. Através de métodos químicos, biológicos e de bioinformática, este estudo mostra o potencial efeito antioxidant dos peptídeos do girassol com baixo teor de fenólicos. A identificação das

sequências peptídicas possibilitou a análise química e estrutural relacionado com a funcionalidade bioativa dos peptídeos do girassol, abrindo novas perspectivas para o estudo de biomoléculas alimentares com efeito positivo sobre a saúde e o surgimento de novos ingredientes para produção de suplementos ou medicamentos.

Palavras-chave: composto bioativo; peptídeos do girassol; hidrólise de proteínas; digestão simulada; atividade antioxidante

ABSTRACT

Oxidative stress, caused by deregulation between the formation of pro-oxidant and antioxidant substances, is associated with an increased incidence of chronic non-communicable diseases (type II diabetes, Parkinson's disease, and some types of cancer). Sunflower meal, a co-product of biodiesel production, is rich in proteins with unknown functionality. Studies show that peptides, generated after a process of hydrolysis, may have an antioxidant action beneficial to health. However, these characteristics have been little studied in sunflower hydrolysates. In view of the above, this study aimed to evaluate the antioxidant activity of peptide hydrolysates derived from sunflower using chemical methods in vitro, in silico and on Caco-2 intestinal cells. The protein from the defatted flour was isolated by isoelectric pH (4.5) and the phenolic compounds were removed by alcohol extraction (70%). The sunflower protein isolate (SFPi) was hydrolyzed by the enzyme alcalase (pH 9, at 50°C/90 min) and ultrafiltered <5kDa, generating the filtered fraction of sunflower hydrolysate (SPHf). Hydrolysis with alcalase generated low molecular weight peptides (<1 kDa) and this result was intensified by simulated digestion. Despite the high concentration of acidic and hydrophobic amino acids, the hydrophobicity profile was reduced after hydrolysis. SPHf significantly increased antioxidant activity compared to digested SFPi in the ABTS and DPPH assays. After digestion, antioxidant activity by ORAC was maintained in the SPHf fractions. Of the 196 peptides identified, 13 showed a higher probability of antioxidant activity using the deep learning bioinformatics analysis tool. In addition, several peptides contained di- and tri-peptides with antioxidant activity in their structure, cross-referenced in food bioactive peptide databases. SPHf did not show antimicrobial activity, but it did prevent hydrogen peroxide-induced oxidative stress in Caco-2 gastrointestinal cells. Sunflower hydrolysate was able to reverse the increase in GSH content and CAT activity induced by H₂O₂ stimulation. Although not significant, the same profile was observed with SOD activity. Using chemical and biological methods, this study shows the potential antioxidant effect of sunflower peptides with a low phenolic content. The identification of peptide sequences enabled chemical and structural analysis related to the bioactive functionality of sunflower peptides, opening new perspectives for the study of food biomolecules with a positive effect.

on health and the emergence of new ingredients to produce supplements or medicines.

Keywords: bioactive compound; sunflower peptides; protein hydrolysis; simulated digestion; antioxidant activity

SUMÁRIO

INTRODUÇÃO	3
OBJETIVOS	5
Objetivo principal.....	5
Objetivos específicos	5
CAPÍTULO 1.....	6
REVISÃO BIBLIOGRÁFICA.....	6
Avanços da aplicação de compostos bioativos do girassol (<i>Helianthus annuus L.</i>) frente ao estresse oxidativo.....	6
CAPÍTULO 2.....	29
ANTIOXIDANT BIOACTIVITY AND SEQUENCE IDENTIFICATION OF SUNFLOWER PROTEIN HYDROLYSATES BEFORE AND AFTER <i>in vitro</i> INFOGEST PROTOCOL	29
CAPÍTULO 3.....	57
SUNFLOWER PROTEIN HYDROLYSATE WITH LOW PHENOLIC CONTENT PROMOTE ANTIOXIDANT EFFECT ON CACO-2 CELLS	57
CONCLUSÕES	85
ANEXOS.....	86
Supplementary material.....	86

LISTA DE ABREVIATURAS E SIGLAS

AA – aminoácido	CO ₂ : Dióxido de carbono
AAAB: α-aminobutyric acid	CONAB: Companhia Nacional de Abastecimento
AAPH: 2,2'-azobis(2-amidino-propano) dihidroclorado	Da: Dalton
AAT: Antioxidant activity	DAD: Diode array detector
ABTS: 2,2-azino-bis (ethylbenzo-thiazoline6-sulfonic acid	DCF: Dichlorofluorescein
AC: Ácido clorogênico/ Chlorogenic acid	DH: Degree of hydrolysis
AG: Ácido gálico	DNA: Ácido desoxirribonucleico
AOAC - Association of Official Analytical Chemists	DPPH: 2,2-difenil-1-picril-hidrazil
ATCC: American Type Culture Collection	DS: Deffated sunflower
B: volume of consumed base	EDTA: Ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid
BHI: Brain heart infusion	EO: Estresse oxidativo
CaCl ₂ : Cloreto de cálcio	ERN: Espécies reativas de nitrogênio
Caco-2: Adenocarcinoma de cólon humano	EROs: Espécies reativas de oxigênio
CAT: Catalase	FAO: Food and Agriculture Organization
	SE-FPLC: Molecular exclusion chromatography
	g: Grama

GAE: Gallic acid equivalent	O ₂ ⁻ : Radical superóxidos
GSH: Glutathione peroxidase	OH: Hidroxila
H ₂ O ₂ : Peróxido de hidrogênio	ORAC: Capacidade de Absorção de Radicais de Oxigênio
HCL: Ácido clorídrico	pH: Potencial hidrogeniônico
htotal: total peptide bond content	Predicted chelation score (CHEL)
INFOGEST: Static in vitro simulation of gastrointestinal food digestion	Predicted free radical scavenger score (FRS)
KDa: Kilodalton	PTFE: Hydrophilic polytetrafluoroethylene
kHz: Kilohertz	RP-HPLC: Reversed-phase high-performance liquid chromatography
M: Mol	SDS-PAGE/SDS: Sodium dodecyl sulfate-polyacrilamide gel
mg: Milograma	SPHf: Filtered sunflower hydrolysates
MIC: Inhibitory concentration	SFPi: Sunflower protein isolate
mL: Mililitro	SPHr: Retained sunflower hydrolysates
mmol: Milimol	SOD: Superóxido dismutase
Mp: mass of protein	TFA: Trifluoroacetic acid
NaCl: Cloreto de sódio	U/g: Unidade enzimática
NaNO ₂ : Nitrato de sódio	UV: Ultra violeta
NaOH: Hidróxido de sódio	α : average degree of dissociation
Nb: normality of the base	
nM: Nanômetro	
NO/NO ⁻ : Óxido nítrico	

INTRODUÇÃO

O mercado consumidor de alimentos tem se tornado cada vez mais exigente quanto a qualidade, origem e contribuições nutricionais e funcionais dos alimentos. Acredita-se que essa modificação tenha ocorrido após a grande difusão provocada pelos meios de comunicação em tempo real, o que facilitou o acesso a informações relacionadas ao impacto dos alimentos à saúde. Associado a isso, a indústria alimentícia tem buscado por medidas que atendam a esses novos padrões.

Tem se estudado que o girassol, uma cultura oleaginosa destinada principalmente a produção de óleos para consumo humano e biocombustível, apresenta em sua constituição compostos bioativos que podem trazer benefícios a saúde do consumidor. Entre esses compostos destaca-se o alto conteúdo proteico da farinha desengordurada do girassol, que vem sendo aplicado na fortificação de produtos de panificação a base de cereais (LAI *et al.*, 2017). O isolamento e descoberta de novas propriedades das proteínas vegetais são de grande interesse na indústria alimentícia, assim como apresenta benefícios ecológicos e sustentáveis, uma vez que encontra aplicação à subprodutos da extração do óleo das culturas oleaginosas.

Uma das propriedades fisiológicas dos compostos bioativos presentes nos alimentares é a atividade antioxidante, uma vez que o estresse oxidativo é um dos principais fatores envolvidos no surgimento/desenvolvimento de doenças crônico degenerativas não transmissíveis, como a doença inflamatória intestinal (VELLOSA *et al.*, 2020). A hidrólise das proteínas do isolado do girassol pode expor sítios específicos da proteína com propriedades antioxidantes ausentes na proteína íntegra e representar uma alternativa promissora a prevenção/tratamento dessa doença.

Este trabalho propôs a caracterização físico-química de hidrolisados proteicos do girassol, o estudo da bioatividade através de ensaios antioxidantes químicos *in vitro*, cultura celular e métodos *in silico* de bioinformática. A atividade biológica dos peptídeos para ter impacto fisiológico, deve permanecer após o processo digestivo. Dessa forma foi avaliado a resistência da bioatividade dos peptídeos após digestão simulada. O estudo com cultura de células adiciona fatores biológicos intrínsecos de uma célula e interação com o composto

alimentar. A célula Caco-2, escolhidas para este estudo, é um modelo biológico de linhagem celular de enterócito e corresponde ao primeiro tipo celular a entrar em contato com os metabólitos oriundos do processo digestivo. Os enterócitos são susceptíveis ao estresse oxidativo frequentemente ocasionado no ambiente gástrico-intestinal, representando um bom modelo de estudo para avaliação de propriedades antioxidantes. Diante disso, na literatura, existem poucas informações a respeito dos potenciais efeitos antioxidantes que os peptídeos bioativos do girassol com baixo teor de compostos fenólicos provocam em células Caco-2 e sua relação com estrutura e função.

OBJETIVOS

Objetivo principal

- ✓ Avaliar a atividade antioxidante de hidrolisados peptídicos derivados do girassol por métodos químicos *in vitro*, *in silico* e sobre células intestinais Caco-2.

Objetivos específicos

- Obtenção de isolado proteico a partir da farinha desengordurada do girassol e processo de extração dos fenólicos
- Obtenção de potenciais peptídeos bioativos do girassol a partir da hidrólise empregando a enzima Alcalase®
- Caracterização do girassol e hidrolisados peptídicos quanto ao teor de proteína, umidade, grau de hidrólise, tamanho molecular e hidrofobicidade
- Avaliação da atividade antioxidante dos hidrolisados peptídicos utilizando técnicas *in vitro* tais como DPPH, ORAC e ABTS, antes e após digestão simulada (Infogest)
- Identificação de sequências peptídicas com bioatividade antioxidante por espectrometria de massas
- Avaliação do potencial efeito antimicrobiano de peptídeos bioativos do girassol obtidos por hidrólise enzimática (Alcalase®)
- Avaliação da atividade antioxidante dos isolados peptídicos em células Caco-2 estimuladas com peróxido: avaliação da viabilidade celular, produção de espécies reativas de oxigênio, produção de óxido nítrico, conteúdo de glutationa e atividade da super peróxido dismutase e catalase
- Avaliação *in silico* da atividade antioxidante por meio de ferramentas de bioinformática, cruzamento com banco de dados (BIOPEP-UWM) e predição por algoritmo de aprendizagem (*deep learning*)

CAPÍTULO 1

REVISÃO BIBLIOGRÁFICA

AVANÇOS DA APLICAÇÃO DE COMPOSTOS BIOATIVOS DO GIRASSOL *(Helianthus annuus L.)* FRENTE AO ESTRESSE OXIDATIVO

Daniel S. Lopes e Fabiana A. B. Galland.

O artigo será submetido à revista *Brazilian Journal of Food Technology*.

RESUMO

A farinha desengordurada do girassol, co-produto da produção de biodiesel, é rica em compostos bioativos como compostos fenólicos, proteínas e peptídeos, com potencialidade para serem usados como ingredientes funcionais em alimentos. Apesar disso, existem ainda poucas aplicações comerciais deste subproduto em alimentos funcionais. Dentre as diversas funcionalidades a potencialidade antioxidante de compostos alimentares tem sido alvo de estudo, de forma a amenizar os impactos à saúde induzidas pelo estresse oxidativo observado em diversas patologias. O objetivo desta revisão foi avaliar os principais estudos com compostos bioativos da farinha do girassol em relação a sua potencialidade antioxidante. Os principais compostos bioativos estudados na farinha do girassol foram os compostos fenólicos e peptídeos derivados da hidrólise. O principal método de extração dos fenólicos foram o metanólico e hidroetanólico, e a principal enzima estudada para geração de peptídeos foi a alcalase. Estes compostos apresentaram potencial antioxidante, apesar de poucos estudos avaliarem a resistência a processos digestivos e a presença de compostos fenólicos em hidrolisados proteicos. Os estudos para avaliação da atividade antioxidante se baseiam principalmente em ensaios químicos, como ABTS, DPPH e ORAC e em menor escala em ensaios biológicos, com o uso de cultura de células. Neste contexto, a falta de estudos em modelos biológicos avaliando a potencial ação antioxidante dos bioativos do girassol se fazem necessária, visando a compreensão dos mecanismos de ação na maquinaria celular. Ainda, a relação estrutura função dos compostos isolados é pouco compreendida. Este estudo traz uma perspectiva de novas áreas de pesquisa para melhor exploração desta matriz e entendimento do potencial bioativo da torta do girassol. Também, novas aplicações pela indústria de alimentos e farmacêutica.

Palavras chaves: girassol; compostos fenólicos; peptídeos bioativos; atividade antioxidante; estresse oxidativo

1 Introdução

O girassol (*Helianthus annuus L.*) é uma cultura oleaginosa de grande importância econômica mundial destinada principalmente a produção de óleo e biodiesel (UDSA, 2023). Após o processamento da extração do óleo, forma-se um resíduo/subproduto, a torta do girassol, que pode trazer impactos ambientais caso seja descartada de forma incorreta na natureza. Contudo, de forma a deixar o processo mais sustentável, os compostos presentes na torta do girassol tem sido alvo de estudo para novas aplicações em alimentos. Este subproduto é rico em compostos bioativos com potencial para serem usados como matéria prima para produção de novos alimentos funcionais (KACHRIMANIDOU *et al.*, 2015).

Os compostos bioativos derivados de alimentos podem apresentar diversas funções com impactos positivos à saúde (HAN *et al.*, 2019). Uma das propriedades fisiológicas mais visadas dos compostos alimentares é a atividade antioxidante, uma vez que o estresse oxidativo é um dos principais fatores envolvidos nas doenças crônicas degenerativas, como diabetes do tipo II, Parkinson e outras (HAN *et al.*, 2019).

Esta revisão reúne os principais estudos que avaliaram o potencial antioxidante de fenólicos e peptídeos derivados da farinha do girassol, as principais metodologias utilizadas e os mecanismos de ação sugeridos para tal bioatividade. Este estudo traz uma perspectiva de novas áreas de estudo para melhor exploração desta matriz e contribui para melhor entendimento do potencial bioativo da torta do girassol e novas aplicações pela indústria de alimentos e farmacêutica.

2 Semente do girassol

Originária do continente americano, o girassol, é uma planta dicotiledônea, de ciclo anual e adaptada a diferentes condições climáticas (SEILER *et al.*, 2012; KAYA *et al.*, 2012 e 2014). É cultivada em diversos países como Argentina, Rússia, Turquia, Ucrânia e outros (USDA, 2023). No Brasil, a cultura teve sua inserção no final da década de 1990, sendo cultivada principalmente no Centro-Oeste, com destaque para os estados do Mato Grosso, Goiás e o Distrito Federal. Para a safra de 22/23, a produção da semente no Brasil atingiu a marca de 85,2 mil toneladas, tendo como valor médio de

produtividade de 1,520 kg/hectar dentro de uma área de cultivo de 56,1 mil hectares (CONAB, 2023).

O grande interesse pela cultura se dá devido a sua alta aplicabilidade na produção de óleo para consumo humano, biocombustível e em menor escala para a produção de ração de animais e alimentos derivados (RIZZELLO *et al.*, 2016; CHALAMAIAH *et al.*, 2019). Cerca de 40-50% do conteúdo da semente de girassol é composto por lipídeos (LEITE *et al.*, 2005). O óleo gerado na extração tem uma alta valorização no mercado em comparação outros óleos vegetais, devido a sua cor clara e sabor suave.

No geral, o óleo do girassol é obtido por prensagem a frio, método mais indicado ao consumo humano por se tratar de um processamento menos tóxico e por preservar os constituintes químicos presentes no óleo (GONZALEZ-PÉREZ *et al.*, 2007). Esse processamento gera um co-produto, a torta do girassol, com riqueza de compostos nutricionais passíveis de serem usados em outras aplicações na indústria de alimentos. A descoberta de novas aplicações da torta do girassol pode minimizar os impactos ambientais decorrentes de seu descarte, além de tornar o processo mais sustentável.

2. 1 Composição química da semente desengordurada

Assim como na semente, a torta do girassol é rica em diversos compostos importantes para a nutrição (ALAGAWANY *et al.*, 2015; PREMNATH *et al.*, 2016). A Tabela 1 reúne informações sobre a composição nutricional da torta do girassol realizada por diversos trabalhos.

Tabela 1. Composição da farinha/torta do girassol desengordurada (g/100g).

Componente (base seca)	Mandarino (1992)	González- Pérez <i>et al.</i> (2003)	Leite <i>et al</i> (2005)	Grasso <i>et al.</i> (2019)	Alexandrino <i>et al.</i> (2017)	Prado <i>et al.</i> (2020)
Carboidratos	±28	±18-26	±20	-	±13	±57,5
Fibras	±12	-	±12	-	±16	-
Lipídeos	±3	-	±3	±1,84	±1,70	±2,32
Minerais	±3-4	±3-4	±4	±7,12	±8,63	-
Proteína	±50	±20-40	±24	±38	±61	±28
Compostos Fenólicos	-	±0,3-3	±0,3-3	-	-	-

Observa-se que os estudos citados na tabela 1 apresentam variações nos resultados, como em carboidratos e proteínas. As variáveis entre os estudos podem ser justificadas pela diferença entre as metodologias adotadas para a dosagem de tais compostos, variáveis de solo e cultivo, e processamento da semente.

A torta do girassol é considerada uma boa fonte em proteínas, característica que viabiliza, por exemplo, a sua aplicabilidade para fabricação de produtos com alto valor proteico de origem vegetal, como os plant-based. O rendimento e aplicação proteica em produtos alimentícios pode ser afetado pelo método de extração do óleo. Alguns tipos de processamento, com aplicação de altas temperaturas, podem desnaturar a proteína, resultando em uma torta de girassol com maior teor de proteínas insolúveis (GONZÁLES-PERES; VEREJKEN *et al.*, 2007).

- Carboidratos, minerais e vitaminas

A depender do tipo de variedade utilizada e processamento, a torta do girassol apresenta em sua constituição os carboidratos: glicose, rafinose, sacarose e trealose (cerca de 0,6; 3,22 e 2,29%, respectivamente) (CARRÃO PANIZZI; MANDARINO, 1994). Com relação a minerais, a matriz é rica em cálcio, fósforo e potássio (120; 837 e 920 mg/100g). Além disso, a torta do girassol é constituída de vitaminas do complexo B (ácido nicotínico, tiamina, ácido pantotênico, riboflavina e biotina) (LEITE *et al.*, 2005).

- Fibras

A torta do girassol gerada após a extração do óleo é rica em fibras, das quais a grande fração presente se classifica como insolúvel (lignina e celulose) (GROMPONE, 2005). Na saúde humana, o consumo de alimentos ricos em fibras insolúveis contribui benficialmente ao bom funcionamento do intestino e consequente redução de tempo da passagem do bolo alimentar pelo sistema digestivo, contribuição da circulação entero-hepática e redução dos níveis de colesterol no sangue e outros (COPPINI *et al.*, 2004; MAKKI K. *et al.* 2018). Nesse contexto, não foram encontrados trabalhos que exploram o emprego como alimento funcional. Uma oportunidade que poderia ser explorada, pois

durante o isolamento proteico da proteína do girassol, um subproduto rico em fibras é gerado (WILDERMUTH *et al.*, 2016).

- Proteína do girassol

A torta de girassol tem sido considerada atrativa pelo seu alto conteúdo proteico. Esta característica confere a potencialidade para ser utilizada como fonte de proteica a produtos fortificados ou plant-based. As proteínas vegetais, oriundas de subprodutos agroindustriais, têm tido grande interesse pelo mercado consumidor de alimentos saudáveis, uma vez que a sua obtenção gera menor impacto ambiental, menor risco de contaminação por doenças de origem animal, além de ser uma alternativa mais sustentável no processo de produção. Contudo, a variabilidade das proteinas e o conteúdo de aminoácidos essenciais são importantes para a qualidade nutricional proteíca (HAN *et al.*, 2015; RIZZELLO *et al.*, 2016).

A torta do girassol é composta maioritariamente por proteínas do tipo: globulina (55-60%) albuminas (17-60%), gluteínas (11-17%) e prolaminas (1-4%) (PRADO *et al.*, 2020). Quanto ao conteúdo de aminoácidos, na Tabela 2 é mostrado a distribuição de aminoácidos essências e sua relação com os valores recomendados pela FAO (2007) para uma ingestão diária balanceada. Neste cenário, o aminoácido essencial lisina, não atende ao padrão de referência proteica estabelecido pelo órgão. Apesar disso, a sua falta pode ser complementada através do uso em paralelo com outras proteínas vegetais as quais os valores para o aminoácido em questão não seja limitante (CONDE *et al.*, 2005; SOSULSKI, 1979).

As proteínas do girassol são ricas em aminoácidos ácidos e hidrofóbicos (Valina, Isoleucina, Fenilalanina e Metionina) (Tabela 2) (PICKARDT *et al.*, 2015; ALEXANDRINO *et al.*, 2017). Esta característica pode influenciar diretamente nas propriedades bioativas que as proteínas podem apresentar no organismo. É importante salientar que o teor aminoacídico da semente pode sofrer variações a depender das condições de cultivo, variedade adotada, o processamento adotado e manejo com a cultura (GONZALEZ-PÉREZ; VEREJKEN, 2007; CONDE *et al.*, 2005).

Tabela 2. Composição de aminoácidos essenciais na proteína isolada do girassol (mg/g).

Aminoácido	Padrão FAO	Proteína Isolada
Isoleucina	30	24-32
Leucina	59	41-86
Lisina	45	33-37
Metionina+cisteína	22	19-29
Fenilalanina+tirosina	38	72-82
Treonina	23	31-39
Triptofano	6	10-31
Valina	39	45-50

Fonte: Leite *et al.* (2005) e Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) (2007).

Quando aplicada como ingrediente em produtos alimentício, a proteína do girassol contribui para as propriedades tecnológicas e funcionais. Essa característica pode estar relacionada a composição aminoacídica (histidina, triptofano, fenilalanina, prolina, isoleucina, valina, metionina, tirosina). Estudos indicam que estes aminoácidos contribuem para uma boa capacidade de formação de espumas e de estabilidade proteica em emulsões e géis (Tabela 3).

Como ingrediente na produção de alimentos, a farinha do girassol tem sido empregada na formulação de: pães (DELLA GATTA; PIERGIOVANNI, 1996), muffins (GRASSO *et al.*, 2020a), biscoitos (SRILATHA; KRISHNAKUMARI, 2003; GRASSO *et al.*, 2019) e salsichas (GRASSO *et al.*, 2020b).

Tabela 3. Aplicações tecno/funcionais da proteína do girassol em alimentos.

Aplicação	Referência
Solubilidade	VERMEESCH <i>et al.</i> (1987); GHEYASUDDIN <i>et al.</i> (1970); SOSULSKI; FLEMING (1977); CANELLA (1978); ROSSI <i>et al.</i> (1985)
Formação de gel	BILANI <i>et al.</i> (1989); SÁNCHEZ; BURGOS, (1995; 1996 e 1997a, 1997b); PAWAR <i>et al.</i> (2001); FLEMING; SOSULSKI, (1975); BULMAGA, <i>et al.</i> (1989);
Propriedades tensioativas/de formação de emulsão	VENKTESH; PRAKASH. (1993); RAHMA; RAO. (1981); HUFFMAN <i>et al.</i> (1975); BOOMA; PRAKASH. (1990); PAWAR <i>et al.</i> (2001); CANELLA (1978); ROSSI (1982 and 1985) e KABIRULLA; WILLS. (1988)

Fonte: Adaptado de GONZALEZ-PÉREZ e VEREJKEN, 2007.

- Compostos fenólicos

Os compostos fenólicos podem ser definidos como metabólitos secundários produzidos pelas plantas a partir de variados estímulos (estresse hídrico, nutricional e térmico, defesa e outros) e podem desempenhar diferentes papéis em sua fisiologia (KAMMERER *et al.*, 2007). Cerca de 4% da farinha do girassol refere-se a compostos fenólicos, dos quais o ácido clorogênico (AC) se destaca majoritariamente (aproximadamente 70%) (CARRÃO-PANIZZL; MANDARINO, 1994; WEISZ *et al.*, 2009). O AC é formado por um grupamento de ésteres de ácido hidroxicinamico (ácido caféico, ferúlico e cumárico, ligado ao ácido quínico) (BODOIRA; MAESTRI, 2020; NACZK e SHAHIDI, 2004; NAKATANI *et al.*, 2000).

No que se refere a aplicabilidade da torta do girassol em alimentos há o grande desafio de reduzir a cor esverdeada que eventualmente é gerada durante o processamento em função do AC. Fatores como altas temperaturas (durante e após o período de maturação da semente) e variação de pH (solubilização das fibras e precipitação isoelétrica das proteínas em meio alcalino), podem favorecer o surgimento de uma coloração amarelo-esverdeada, derivada do processo oxidativo do AC e consequente escurecimento. Tal reação se dá em detrimento a presença da enzima polifenoloxidase, a qual tem como substrato o AC (MANDARINO, 1992; LEITE *et al.*, 2005). Diversos métodos para extração do AC da farinha do girassol têm sido propostos, como por exemplo, o uso de antioxidantes ou inibidores das enzimas oxidativas ou mesmo melhoramento genético. Contudo, estes procedimentos podem ser de custo elevado quando se pensa na aplicação desta farinha em escala industrial.

Portanto, a presença dos fenólicos pode ser responsável pela perda das características sensoriais e propriedades tecnológicas da proteína (GONZÁLEZ-PÉREZ; VEREJKEN *et al.*, 2007). No estudo de Grasso *et al.* (2019), a farinha do girassol foi adicionada como ingrediente proteico complementar na formulação de salsichas. Foi observado o surgimento de uma coloração escura no produto. Entretanto, este foi aceito sensorialmente.

2. 2 Estresse oxidativo e defesa antioxidantante

Nos últimos anos, doenças crônicas não transmissíveis têm aumentado na população humana, tais como diabetes do tipo II, Parkinson e alguns tipos de câncer (SANTI *et al.*, 2011). Tal decorrência pode estar associada a diversos fatores, dentre eles o desbalanço provocado entre as defesas endógenas antioxidantes das células e tecidos *versus* a produção e acúmulo de radicais livres (HUSSAIN *et al.*, 2016). Dessa forma, diversas moléculas naturais são estudadas com o intuito de amenizar ou prevenir a produção de radicais livres.

Apesar dos radicais livres serem comumente associados a distúrbios, eles também têm funções fisiológicas, atuando na sinalização celular, ativação de genes, bem como defesa contra patógenos. Contudo, em condições patológicas ocorre a produção em grande quantidade de espécies reativas de oxigênio (EROs), associada a uma baixa taxa de consumo ou eliminação dessas moléculas. Este distúrbio é chamado de estresse oxidativo (EO) (WANG *et al.*, 2020). O EO promove danos celulares e genotóxicos ao organismo. Essas reações provocam a oxidação de moléculas vitais, como proteínas, lipídeos e DNA, as quais perdem suas funções, desencadeando um desequilíbrio homeostático no organismo (AHMADINEJAD *et al.*, 2017).

Radicais livres são moléculas que apresentam um elétron desemparelhado na última camada eletrônica, oriundos de reações enzimáticas que ocorrem principalmente na mitocôndria em função da redução univaleente do O_2 . Os principais radicais formados são o radical superóxidos (O_2^-), hidroxila (OH), e o peróxido de hidrogênio (H_2O_2) (BARBOSA *et al.*, 2014). O peróxido de hidrogênio, apesar de não ser um radical livre, por não possuir um elétron desemparelhado, apresenta também alto potencial reativo. O excesso dessas moléculas em um organismo propicia reações de oxidação (perda de um elétron) às células saudáveis, prejudicando assim as suas funções fisiológicas (WANG *et al.*, 2020).

De forma a combater essas reações danosas, o organismo possui mecanismo de defesa antioxidante endógena (moléculas produzidas na própria célula) ou exógenas (compostos obtidos na alimentação) (VELLOSA *et al.*, 2020). Os antioxidantes podem atuar de forma enzimática e não enzimática (SANTI *et al.*, 2011). Enzimas endógenas tais como a superóxido dismutase (SOD), catalase (CAT) e glutationa peroxidase (GSH-Px) apresentam papel fundamental no combate ao estresse oxidativo primário, interrompendo a

oxidação de diversas moléculas. A SOD promove a conversão de O_2^- em H_2O_2 . Este último serve de substrato para a CAT, resultando na formação de água e oxigênio. Já GSH-Px, promove a redução de H_2O_2 e hidroperóxidos orgânicos em reação dependente de glutatona reduzida (GSH), que é oxidada a glutatona oxidada (GSSG) (MUNTEANU *et al.*, 2021).

Já no contexto não enzimático, fontes exógenas ao corpo humano, advindos da alimentação, por exemplo, podem se caracterizar como uma fonte de defesa antioxidante alternativa. Neste contexto, os compostos bioativos (fenólicos e peptídeos) do girassol, podem representar uma alternativa promissora a atenuação do estresse oxidativo.

Dessa forma, diversos estudos são dedicados a avaliar a capacidade de prevenir ou reverter o estresse oxidativo e o consequente desenvolvimento de doenças a partir de moléculas antioxidantes derivadas dos alimentos. O interesse da indústria farmacológica e de alimentos por produtos naturais pode estar relacionado ao fato destas apresentarem baixa toxicidade, serem excelentes eliminadores de radicais livres e potenciais substituintes dos antioxidantes sintéticos (FABIANOWSKA-MAJEWSKA *et al.*, 2021).

2. 3 Métodos Químicos para avaliação da atividade antioxidante

Existem diversos métodos químicos que podem ser empregados na avaliação da atividade antioxidante de forma acessível, rápida e automatizada, sendo uma alternativa a triagem e avaliação inicial de novos compostos antioxidantes. Entretanto, para a confiabilidade do ensaio, diversos fatores devem ser levados em consideração, tais como: características do analito; reproducibilidade (intra e inter ensaios); possuir um único resultado avaliativo (simples e claro); equipamentos e reagentes de fácil obtenção; não apresentar limitações a polaridades do analito, bem como ser passível de controle de qualidade (MUNTEANU *et al.*, 2021).

Dois mecanismos de atuação são normalmente avaliados nos ensaios químicos: a capacidade de doação de elétrons, ou a capacidade de transferência de próton (PRIOR *et al.*, 2005). Os testes baseados na transferência do átomo de hidrogênio medem a capacidade de um antioxidante em remover os radicais livres doando um átomo de hidrogênio, como o ensaio de ABTS (2,2-azino-bis(ethylbenzo-thiazoline6-sulfonic acid) e ORAC (Capacidade de Absorção de

Radicais de Oxigênio). Os testes baseados na transferência de elétrons, detectam a capacidade de um antioxidante de transferir um elétron para reduzir íons, grupos carbonila e radicais livres, como é o caso do DPPH (sequestro do radical 2,2-difenil-1-picril-hidrazil). Devido ao baixo custo comercial dos reagentes, estabilidade dos radicais livres formados, solubilidade da molécula antioxidante e baixa interferência, tais modelos são excelentes ferramentas de avaliação dos compostos bioativos do girassol (AYOKA *et al.*, 2022).

Os métodos químicos mais utilizados para avaliação da atividade antioxidante do girassol foram o ABTS, DPPH e ORAC. De forma geral, podemos dizer que o método ABTS atua na avaliação da molécula antioxidante em sequestrar radical ABTS⁺. Já o método DPPH, avalia a capacidade de redução do radical DPPH e o método ORAC, avalia a capacidade da molécula em proteger fluoresceína do dano oxidativo, provocados por radicais peroxila (SUCUPIRA *et al.*, 2012).

A atividade antioxidante de um composto não pode ser atestada em apenas um único método, pois a depender das especificidades do composto (carga, solubilidade e outros), estes podem interferir na resposta/avaliação. Além disso, um fator importante que deve ser destacado é que as respostas dos modelos químicos podem não representar a totalidade de uma fisiológica, sendo necessária à sua complementação em modelos biológicos de estudo (MUNTEANU *et al.*, 2021).

2. 3. 2 Métodos Biológicos para avaliação da atividade antioxidante

A avaliação antioxidante de compostos naturais pode ser estudada através de ensaios que utilizem organismos biológicos como modelo de estudo. Entre os organismos mais utilizados podemos citar as células isoladas em cultivo no laboratório. Este modelo permite avaliar a interação do composto em estudo com a maquinaria biológica celular, como membranas biológicas, receptores, transportadores e enzimas. Através de um estímulo oxidativo é possível criar, na célula, um desequilíbrio entre radicais livres e antioxidantes. Nesta condição patológica é possível avaliar se o composto de estudo consegue amenizar ou reverter tal condição e apresentar ação antioxidante (SHANI-LEVI *et al.*, 2017).

Através do uso das células pode-se avaliar mecanismo de ação pelo qual o composto age. É possível que este atue simplesmente como um agente

redutor, doando elétrons para os radicais livres, cortando a cadeia oxidativa, como é o caso do ácido ascórbico (vitamina C) (NJUS *et al.*, 2020). Ainda um composto antioxidante pode modular vias intracelulares de defesa antioxidante, através da interação com fatores de transcrição chave, que regulam a expressão de enzimas antioxidantes na célula, como é o caso do NRF2. A ativação deste fator de transcrição estimula a síntese de importantes enzimas antioxidantes tais como SOD, CAT e GPX, os quais combatem o estresse oxidativo e promovem citoproteção (PALL; LEVINE, 2015).

Linhagens celulares são células imortalizadas disponíveis em bancos de células, podendo ser a sua origem de diversas espécies. Seu uso tem crescido nos últimos anos, devido a fatores como: fácil manutenção em laboratório, baixo custo e por mimetizarem respostas fisiológicas similares a células sadias. Além disso, são consideradas como uma alternativa ao uso de animais em pesquisa (TYARKHT *et al.*, 2014).

A célula Caco-2, oriunda de um adenocarcinoma de cólon humano, é um dos modelos celulares mais estudados para avaliação de compostos derivados de alimentos. Este modelo mimetiza enterócitos, tipo celular que entra em contato com os metabólitos oriundos do processo digestivo (BALIMANE; CHONG, 2005). Entretanto, o modelo não permite a representação da total complexidade do processo digestivo humano, bem como a recriação de todas as suas funções. Apesar disso, partes desse processo podem ser simuladas gerando resultados fidedignos (HUR *et al.*, 2011; SHANI-LEVI *et al.*, 2017).

2. 4 Compostos bioativos do girassol e sua atuação antioxidant

2. 4. 1 Compostos fenólicos

Dentre os constituintes químicos naturais presentes na torta do girassol, compostos fenólicos é uma molécula com potencial ação bioativa. Como comentado anteriormente, a presença de fenólicos, especificamente do ácido clorogênico, pode ser desfavorável para fins tecnológicos do uso da farinha como alimento. Contudo, o isolamento de extratos ricos em fenólicos podem ser utilizados para aplicação em produtos com ação funcional em suplementos. Na literatura, diversas formas são utilizadas para a extração/obtenção desses compostos: metanol, etanol, resina de adsorção, extração ácida branca e de troca iônica (WEISZ *et al.*, 2009, GONZÁLEZ-PEREZ *et al.* 2002, PICKARDT *et*

al. 2015). O método de extração pode influenciar no rendimento de obtenção e na bioatividade do produto gerado. O método com extração etanólica é um dos mais utilizado.

Os compostos fenólicos possuem bioatividade em diversas patologias. Estudos experimentais com os compostos fenólicos relatam efeitos bioativos efetivos no tratamento de doenças cardiovasculares e doenças crônicas neurodegenerativas, como agente anti-inflamatório e como agente antioxidante (SANTANA-GÁLVEZ *et al.*, 2017).

Em relação ao mecanismo de ação antioxidante, os compostos fenólicos, em específico do AC, apresentam ésteres em sua constituição (C_4 , C_8 E C_{12}), os quais inibem a formação de EROs (doação de elétrons) advindas da oxidação de lipídeos, por exemplo (NÁTHIA-NEVES; ALONSO, 2021). No ambiente celular, essa característica pode proteger os ácidos graxos presentes na membrana plasmática (ZOU *et al.*, 2016). Os estudo mais recentes (últimos cinco anos) empregando as metodologias químicas citadas anteriormente, se encontram dispostos na Tabela 4.

Na comparação dos dados entre os diferentes estudos pode-se observar que a atividade antioxidante por μmol de equivalente de trólox é bastante variável. Um dos motivos pode estar relacionado ao método de extração do fenólico, como já citado anteriormente. Ainda, a atividade antioxidante pode variar em relação a classe dos fenólicos extraídos da amostra (ácidos hidroxibenzoicos, ácidos hidroxicinâmicos, flavonóides e outros). Entretanto, o ácido clorogênico e cafeico são os compostos majoritários (ABDALLA *et al.*, 2021).

Tabela 4. Avaliação antioxidante de compostos fenólicos do girassol em modelos químicos.

Forma de obtenção	Método	Resultado (μmol Trólox eq/g)	Referência
Extração etanólica (75%)	DPPH	(0.005 – 0.10%) Dose dependente	Ivanova <i>et al.</i> (2021)
	DPPH	22,5	Zoumpoulakis <i>et al.</i> (2017)
Extração com hexano e metanol	DPPH	$\pm 22 - 40$	Abdalla <i>et al.</i> (2021)
	ABTS	$\pm 19-31$	

Extração com bissulfito de sódio	ORAC	$\pm 5,88$	Alexandrino <i>et al.</i> (2021)
	DPPH	$\pm 0,40$	
	ABTS	$\pm 0,41$	
Extração com solução etanólica (70%)	ORAC	$\pm 7,35$	
	DPPH	$\pm 0,70$	
	ABTS	$\pm 0,53$	
Extração etanólica (80%)	ORAC	$\pm 8,50$	Amakura <i>et al.</i> (2013)
Extração etanólica (70%)		203	Náthia-Neves; Alonso (2021)

2. 4. 1. 2 Hidrolisados proteicos/peptídeos bioativos

Atualmente, proteínas vegetais têm sido submetidas a processos enzimáticos com a finalidade de obtenção de hidrolisados com maior valor bioativo (TONON *et al.*, 2016). Diversos processos enzimáticos podem ser aplicados visando a obtenção de hidrolisados proteicos/peptídeos bioativos. Processos fermentativos, hidrólise enzimática e digestão podem ser citados (GARCÍA *et al.*, 2013; NAJAFIAN; BABJI, 2012; OPHEIM *et al.*, 2015; BRODKORB, *et al.*, 2019; TAVANO, 2013).

A hidrólise de proteínas gera cadeias polipeptídicas menores, as quais podem expor sítios da proteína, antes escondidos dentro da estrutura terciária e quaternária da proteína. Nos peptídeos formados, propriedades funcionais diversas da proteína original podem ser geradas. No decorrer da quebra enzimática, os fragmentos da proteína se tornam mais solúveis. Tal fato se dá em virtude ao rompimento das ligações peptídicas, resultando na formação de grupos aminoacídicos menores (AGYEI *et al.*, 2016).

Os chamados peptídeos bioativos apresentam características de cadeias curtas (2-20 aminoácidos), com variedade de alvos extra e intracelulares, os quais podem agir sobre receptores e vias bioquímicas e ainda apresentar efeitos positivos sobre a saúde do consumidor (LEMES *et al.*, 2016, 2020; RIZZELLO *et al.*, 2016; CORROCHANO *et al.*, 2019).

Dados recentes (< cinco anos), referentes a atividade antioxidante de hidrolisados proteicos do girassol utilizando métodos químicos, encontram-se dispostos na tabela 5 a seguir.

Tabela 5. Avaliação antioxidante de hidrolisados proteicos do girassol em modelos químicos.

Forma de obtenção	Método	Resultado ($\mu\text{mol Trólox eq/g}$)	Referência
Hidrólise com alcalase	ABTS	15 – 25% Dose dependente	Dabbour <i>et al.</i> (2019a)
	DPPH	17,41	Dabbour, <i>et al.</i> (2019b)
Hidrólise com Neutraser® e Flavorzyme®	ABTS	$\pm 30,000$	Prado <i>et al.</i> (2022)
	DPPH	± 300	
Hidrólise com xilose e cisteína	DPPH	50 – 90% Dose dependente	Habinshuti <i>et al.</i> (2019)
Hidrólise com pancreatina e pepsina (Infogest)	ABTS	± 175	Bisinotto <i>et al.</i> (2023)
	DPPH	± 250	
	ORAC	± 1000	

Como observado na tabela 5, os hidrolisados proteicos do girassol foram obtidos a partir de diferentes enzimas. O emprego de diferentes enzimas no processo enzimático resulta na formação de peptídeos com bioatividade distintas, uma vez que cada enzima possui uma região de clivagem preferencial, formando peptídeos com terminações, estruturas, composição e propriedades variadas (TONON *et al.*, 2016). As principais enzimas utilizadas foram as comerciais, provavelmente por permitirem a formação de peptídeos de forma mais econômica, padronizável e escalonável. Apenas um trabalho trouxe dados referentes a digestão dos peptídeos com simulação gastro-intestinal. Necessariamente para atingir o tecido alvo e exercer sua bioatividade, os peptídeos devem resistir ao processo digestivo e serem capazes de serem absorvidos. Dessa forma, estudos que trazem a bioacessibilidade de peptídeos após a digestão são importantes, pois conferem propriedades fisiológicas relevantes.

Embora estes resultados sejam promissores, acredita-se que a atividade antioxidante possa ter tido influência do conteúdo de fenólico presente nos hidrolisados/peptídeos, uma vez que não foi mencionado nenhum processo de remoção/redução destes nos estudos avaliados. Sabe-se que partes dos fenólicos podem ficar aderidos na estrutura peptídica (LI *et al.*, 2021). Portanto,

avaliar a bioatividade antioxidante de hidrolisados proteicos do girassol com baixo conteúdo em fenólico se faz necessária.

2. 4. 2 Modelos biológicos

Em girassol, apenas o estudo de Megías *et al.* (2009) avaliou a estabilidade de hidrolisados proteicos de girassol após simulação de digestão humana e de células Caco-2 e a manutenção de sua bioatividade. Uma sequência peptídica FVNPQAGS foi resistente a ambos os processos e sua bioatividade (inibição da enzima conversora da angiotensina) foi preservada.

Em estudos recentes com hidrolisados proteicos do girassol obtidos por hidrólise gastrointestinal (simulado), três sequências peptídicas (DVAMPVPK; TTHTNPPPEAE e PADVTPEEKPEV), foram capazes de reduzir a produção de ROS em células Caco-2. Embora o trabalho ateste que a sequência PADVTPEEKPEV tenha sido capaz de reduzir os níveis de NF-κB (gene pró-inflamatório), nenhuma sequência foi capaz de inibir a NRF2 (molécula sinalizadora para a resposta antioxidante). Além disso, atividade antioxidante medida por moléculas endógenas à célula (GSH, SOD e CAT), não foram avaliadas (TONOLO *et al.*, 2024).

Embora existam os referidos trabalhos citados, empregando hidrolisados proteicos/peptídeos do girassol, a avaliação de sua ação como agentes antioxidantes em cultura celular ainda não foi realizada. Em se tratando dessa lacuna, trabalhos que visem essa temática tornam-se necessários para o bom reaproveitamento e uso das potencialidades bioativas da referida matriz a nível de saúde.

3 Conclusão

Em suma, a farinha desengordurada do girassol apresenta em sua constituição compostos bioativos com potencial ação antioxidante, como os fenólicos e peptídeos. A bioatividade antioxidante destes compostos podem variar em relação ao método de extração, enzima utilizada ou resistência a processos digestivos. A avaliação da atividade antioxidante foi predominantemente avaliada por métodos químicos e muito poucos com métodos biológicos, como em cultura celular. O aprofundamento destes estudos é essencial para confirmar a potencialidade antioxidante fisiológica dos compostos, bem como melhor compreensão dos mecanismos de ação. Na maior

parte dos estudos a bioatividade foi avaliada em matrizes complexas, com mistura de compostos, sem a discriminação e identificação destes. Trabalhos que isolem, identifiquem e avaliem individualmente o composto podem trazer resultados mais promissores da relação entre atividade e estrutura.

4 Referências

- AGYEI, D. et al. Bioprocess challenges to the isolation and purification of bioactive peptides. **Food and Bioproducts Processing**, 98, 244–256. 2016. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fbp.2016.02.003>
- AHMADINEJAD, F. et al. Molecular Mechanisms behind Free Radical Scavengers Function against Oxidative Stress. **Antioxidants**, v. 6, n. 51. 2017. <https://doi.org/10.3390/antiox6030051>.
- ABDALLA, A. A. A. et al. Phenolic profile, antioxidant and enzyme inhibition properties of seed methanolic extract of seven new Sunflower lines: From fields to industrial applications. **Process Biochemistry**, 111, 53–61. 2021. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.procbio.2021.10.014>
- ALAGAWANY, M. et al. The Practical Application of Sunflower Meal in Poultry Nutrition. **Adv. Anim. Vet. Sci.** V. 3 n. 12 p. 634-648. 2015. Disponível em: <http://dx.doi.org/10.14737/journal.aavs/2015/3.12.634.648>.
- ALEXANDRINO et al. Fractioning of the sunflower flour components: Physical, chemical and nutritional evaluation of the fractions. **LWT**, 84, 426–432. 2017. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lwt.2017.05.062>
- AYOKA, T. O. et al. Antioxidants for the Prevention and Treatment of Non-communicable Diseases. **Journal of Exploratory Research in Pharmacology**, 000(000), 000–000. 2022. <https://doi.org/10.14218/JERP.2022.00028>
- BARBOSA, M. R. et al. Geração e desintoxicação enzimática de espécies reativas de oxigênio em plantas. **Ciência Rural**, v. 44 n. 3 p. 453-60. 2014. <https://doi.org/10.1590/S0103-84782014000300011>.

BODOIRA, R.; MAESTRI, D. Phenolic Compounds from Nuts: Extraction, Chemical Profiles, and Bioactivity. **Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry**, 68(4), 927–942. 2020. <https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.jafc.9b07160>

CARRÃO-PANIZZI, M. C.; MANDARINO, J. M. G. Produtos proteicos do girassol. In: LEITE et al. Girassol no Brasil. Londrina: Embrapa Soja, 1994. <https://ainfo.cnptia.embrapa.br/digital/bitstream/doc/468445/1/Capitulo-4.pdf>.

CHALAMAIAH, M. et al. Regulatory requirements of bioactive peptides (protein hydrolysates) from food proteins. **Journal of Functional Foods**, 58. 2019. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jff.2019.04.050>

COMPANHIA NACIONAL DE ABASTACEIMENTO – CONAB. **Boletim da safra de grãos. 1º Levantamento - Safra 2023/24.** 2023. <https://www.conab.gov.br/info-agro/safras/graos/boletim-da-safra-de-graos>.

CONDE, J. M. et al. Effect of Enzymatic Treatment of Extracted Sunflower Proteins on Solubility, Amino Acid Composition, and Surface Activity. **Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry**, 53(20), 8038–8045. 2005. <https://doi.org/10.1021/jf051026i>

DELLA GATTA, C.; PIERGIOVANNI, A. Technological and nutritional aspects in hyperproteic bread prepared with the addition of sunflower meal. **Food Chemistry**, 57, 493–496. 1996. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0308-8146\(95\)00200-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/0308-8146(95)00200-6)

FOOD AND AGRICULTURE ORGANIZATION OF THE UNITED NATIONS-FAO/WHO/ONU. Report of a joint FAO/WHO/UNU expert consultation. **Geneva: Protein and amino acid requirements in human nutrition.** 2007<https://apps.who.int/iris/handle/10665/43411>

GONZÁLEZ-PÉREZ, S. et al. Isolation and characterization of undenatured chlorogenic acid free sunflower (*Helianthus annuus*) proteins. **Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry**, 50(6), 1713–1719. 2003. <https://doi.org/10.1021/jf011245d>.

GONZÁLEZ-PÉREZ, S.; VEREJKEN, J. M. Sunflower proteins: overview of their physicochemical, structural and functional properties. **Journal of the Science of Food and Agriculture**, n. 87. p.12. 2007. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jsfa.2971>.

GRASSO, S. *et al.* The use of upcycled defatted sunflower seed flour as a functional ingredient in biscuits. **Foods**, 8, 305. 2019. <https://doi.org/10.3390%2Ffoods8080305>

GRASSO, S., *et al.* Potential of a Sunflower Seed By-Product as Animal Fat Replacer in Healthier Frankfurters. **Foods**, 9, 445. 2020.

GROMPONE, M.A. Sunflower oil. In: SHAHIDI, F. **Bailey's industrial oil & fat products**. 6.ed. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons, 2005. V.2.

HAN, R. *et al.* Identification of angiotensin converting enzyme and dipeptidyl peptidase-IV inhibitory peptides derived from oilseed proteins using two integrated bioinformatic approaches. **Food research international**, v. 115, p. 283-291, 2019. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodres.2018.12.015>.

HUSSAIN, S. T. *et al.* Kurt Lewin's change model: A critical review of the role of leadership and employee involvement in organizational change. **Journal of Innovation & Knowledge**, 3(3), 123–127. 2018. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jik.2016.07.002>

HUR, S.J. *et al.* In vitro human digestion models for food applications. **Food Chemistry**, v. 125, p. 1-12, 2011. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2010.08.036>.

KACHRIMANIDOU, V. *et al.* Integrated sunflower-based biorefinery for the production of antioxidants, protein isolate and poly(3-hydroxybutyrate). **Industrial Crops and Products**, 71, 106–113. 2015. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.indcrop.2015.03.003>

KAYA, Y. Sunflower. In: (Ed.). **Alien Gene Transfer in Crop Plants**, Volume 2: Springer, 2014. p.281-315. ISBN 1461495717.

KAYA, Y.; JOCIC, S.; MILADINOVIC, D. Sunflower. In: (Ed.). **Technological Innovations in Major World Oil Crops, Volume 1**: Springer, 2012. p.85-129. ISBN 1461403553.

LEITE, R. M. V. B. C. et al. **Girassol no Brasil**. Londrina: Embrapa Soja, 2005. <https://www.embrapa.br/busca-de-publicacoes/-/publicacao/468161/girassol-no-brasil>

MANDARINO, J. M. G. **Características do óleo de girassol: Características do farelo de girassol; Melhoramento genético e a qualidade do grão; O óleo de girassol e a saúde humana**. Londrina: EMBRAPA-CNPSO, 1992.

MUNTEANU, I.G.; APETREI, C. Analytical Methods Used in Determining Antioxidant Activity: A Review. **Int. J. Mol. Sci.** 22, 3380. 2021. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms22073380>

NÁTHIA-NEVES, G.; ALONSO, E. Valorization of sunflower by-product using microwave-assisted extraction to obtain a rich protein flour: Recovery of chlorogenic acid, phenolic content and antioxidant capacity. **Food and Bioproducts Processing**, 125, 57–67. 2021. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fbp.2020.10.008>

NJUS, D. et al. Ascorbic acid: The chemistry underlying its antioxidant properties. **Free Radical Biology and Medicine**, v. 159, p. 37-43, 2020. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.freeradbiomed.2020.07.013>

PICKARDT, C. et al. Optimisation of mild-acidic protein extraction from defatted sunflower (*Helianthus annus*, L.) meal. **Food Hydrocoll.** 23:1966–73. 2009. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodhyd.2009.02.001>.

PALL, M. L.; LEVINE, S. Nrf2, a master regulator of detoxification and also antioxidant, anti-inflammatory and other cytoprotective mechanisms, is raised by health promoting factors. **Sheng Li Xue Bao**, v. 67, n. 1, p. 1-18, 2015. [10.13294/j.apb.2015.0001](https://doi.org/10.13294/j.apb.2015.0001)

PRADO et al. Extraction of bioactive proteins from seeds (corn, sorghum, and sunflower) and sunflower byproduct: Enzymatic hydrolysis and antioxidant

properties. **Current Nutrition & Food Science**, 16, 1–11. 2020.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.2174/1573401316999200731005803>.

PREMNATH, A. et al. Mapping quantitative trait loci controlling oil content, oleic acid and linoleic acid content in sunflower (*Helianthus annuus L.*). **Molecular Breeding**. 36. 10.1007/s11032-016-0527-2. 2016. doi: 10.1007/s11032-016-0527-2.

RIZZELLO, C. G. et al. Bioactive peptides from vegetable food matrices: Research trends and novel biotechnologies for synthesis and recovery. **Journal of Functional Foods**, 27. 2016. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jff.2016.09.023>

SANTI, A. et al. Biomarcadores de estresse oxidativo e atividade da acetilcolinesterase em eritrócitos humanos expostos ao clomazone (in vitro). **Interdisciplinary Toxicology**, v. 4 n. 3 p. 149-53. 2011.
<https://doi.org/10.2478/v10102-011-0023-9>.

CANELLA, M. Whipping properties of sunflower protein dispersions. **Food Sci Technol.** 11:259–263 (1978).

VERMEESCH, G. et al. Sunflower proteins in human food. **Rev Fr Corps Gras.** 7/8:333–344 (1987).

BILANI, N. et al. Utilization of sunflower proteins in yogurt. **J Food Sci Technol.** 26:205–209. 1989.

S'ANCHEZ, A. C.; BURGOS, J. Thermal gelation of sunflower proteins, in **Food Macromolecules and Colloids**, ed. By Dickinson, E. and Lorient, D. Royal Society of Chemistry, Cambridge, pp. 426–430. 1995.

ROSSI, M. et al. Emulsifying and foaming properties of sunflower protein derivatives. **Lebensm Wiss Technol.** 18:293–299. 1985.

RIZZELLO, C. G. et al. Bioactive peptides from vegetable food matrices: Research trends and novel biotechnologies for synthesis and recovery. **Journal of Functional Foods**, 27. 2016. Disponível em:
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jff.2016.09.023>.

SOSULSKI, F. W. *et al.* Diffusion extraction of chlorogenic acid from sunflower kernels. **J Food Sci.** 37:253–256. 1972.

GHEYASUDDIN, S. *et al.* Preparation of a colourless sunflower protein isolate. **Food Technol.** 24:242–243.1970.

SANTANA-GÁLVEZ, J. *et al.* Chlorogenic Acid: Recent Advances on Its Dual Role as a Food Additive and a Nutraceutical against Metabolic Syndrome. **Molecules**, 22(3), 358. 2017. <https://doi.org/10.3390/molecules22030358>

SEILER, G. J. *et al.* Collection and evaluation of wild perennial *Helianthus pumilus* achenes for oil concentration and fatty acid composition. 2012. p.711-716.

[https://www.isasunflower.org/fileadmin/documents/aaProceedings/18thISAAргентина-](https://www.isasunflower.org/fileadmin/documents/aaProceedings/18thISAAргентина/)

[vol1/Breeding/Collection_and_Evaluation_of_Wild_Perennial_Helianthus_pumilus_Achenes_for_Oil_Concentration_and_Fatty_Acid_Composition.pdf](https://www.isasunflower.org/fileadmin/documents/aaProceedings/18thISAAргентина/vol1/Breeding/Collection_and_Evaluation_of_Wild_Perennial_Helianthus_pumilus_Achenes_for_Oil_Concentration_and_Fatty_Acid_Composition.pdf)

SOSULSKI, F. and FLEMING, S. E. Chemical, functional, and nutritional properties of sunflower protein products. **J Am Oil Chem Soc.** 54:100A–104A 1979.

SRILATHA, K.; KRISHNAKUMARI, K. Proximate composition and protein quality evaluation of recipes containing sunflower cake. **Plant Foods for Human Nutrition**, 58, 1–11. 2003.

<https://doi.org/10.1023/B:QUAL.0000041139.37434.5c>

SHANI-LEVI, C. *et al.* Extending in vitro digestion models to specific human populations: Perspectives, practical tools and bio-relevant information. **Trends in Food Science & Technology**, n. 60 p. 52–63. 2017. doi:10.1016/j.tifs.2016.10.017.

TYAKHT, A.V. *et al.* RNA-Seq gene expression profiling of HepG2 cells: the influence of experimental factors and comparison with liver tissue. **BMC Genomics** 15, 1108 (2014). <https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2164-15-1108>

TONON, R. V. *et al.* Coupling of ultrafiltration and enzymatic hydrolysis aiming at valorizing shrimp wastewater. **Food chemistry**, v. 198, p. 20-27, 2016. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2015.11.094>.

TONOLO, F., *et al.* Sunflower seed-derived bioactive peptides show antioxidant and anti-inflammatory activity: From in silico simulation to the animal model. **Food Chemistry**, 439, 138124. 2024. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2023.138124>

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE-USDA. **Oilseeds: World Markets and Trade.** Mar 2023. <https://downloads.usda.library.cornell.edu/usda-esmis/files/tx31qh68h/8336jf16z/tq57q421z/oilseeds.pdf>

WANG, Y. *et al.* New insights in intestinal oxidative stress damage and the health intervention effects of nutrients: A review. **Journal of Functional Foods**, 75, 104248. 2020. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jff.2020.104248>

WAN, H. *et al.* A Caco-2 cell-based quantitative antioxidant activity assay for antioxidants. **Food Chemistry**, 175, 601–608. 2015. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2014.11.128>.

WILDERMUTH, S. R. *et al.* Chlorogenic acid oxidation and its reaction with sunflower proteins to form green-colored complexes. **Comprehensive Reviews in Food Science and Food Safety**, 0, 1–15. 2016. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1541-4337.12213>

CAPÍTULO 2

ANTIOXIDANT BIOACTIVITY AND SEQUENCE IDENTIFICATION OF SUNFLOWER PROTEIN HYDROLYSATES BEFORE AND AFTER *in vitro* INFOGEST PROTOCOL

Daniel S. Lopes, Lilian G. V. C. Almeida, Agustina E. Nardo, María C, Añon,
Lucilene D. dos Santos, Bruno C. Rossini, Maria T. B. Pacheco and Fabiana A.
B. Galland.

O artigo foi submetido à revista *Food Chemistry*.

ABSTRACT

A sunflower protein hydrolysate was evaluated for its antioxidant bioactivity before and after *in vitro* simulated gastrointestinal digestion and sequence peptide identified for function-structure relationship studies. Sunflower protein isolate (SFPI) with low phenolic content was hydrolyzed by alcalase. Filtered sunflower hydrolysates (SPHf, < 5 kDa) and retained (SPHr, > 5kDa) fraction showed small molecular weight. Despite the high concentration of acidic and hydrophobic amino acids, the hydrophobicity profile was reduced after hydrolysis. SPHf significant increased antioxidant activity in comparison to SFPI in ABTS and DPPH assay. After digestion the antioxidant activity by ORAC was maintained in SPHf fractions. From 196 identified peptide, 13 presented predicted antioxidant properties using deep learning analysis tool. Furthermore, several peptides contained in its structure di- and tripeptides with antioxidant activity cross-referred in food databases. This study brings for the first-time results regarding sunflower peptide digestion stability and identified potential bioactive sequence.

Keywords: Sunflower, Antioxidant Peptide, Protein Bioactivity, Food Peptides, Oxidative Stress

1. Introduction

Sunflower, a crop of global importance, is used to produce edible oil and biofuel. As a co-product of oil extraction, the sunflower cake, presents high levels of protein content ($\pm 20\text{--}\pm 40\text{g}/100\text{g}$) (SRIVASTAVA; VERMA, 2014; KAUR; SARAF, 2022). In parallel, there is a growing demand for protein products and the current consumer public has opted for healthier and more sustainable products. The plant-based products/meat analogs grew by about 70% in Brazil in the years 2015 to 2019, representing a big economic potential for sunflower products (BROUWER *et al.*, 2022; TVS, 2019).

Sunflower flour can be an excellent alternative for the production of protein products, with technological value and effects beyond nutrition, such as functional contributions to health (WILDERMUTH *et al.*, 2016; FILHO *et al.*, 2021). Particularly, sunflower protein hydrolysates have shown angiotensin converting enzyme (ACE) inhibitory capacity (LUO; HE, 2018), antimicrobial (HABINSHUTI *et al.*, 2019) and anti-inflammatory activity (VELLIQUETTE *et al.*, 2020). Regarding antioxidant activity, studies shown bioactivity in phenolics and protein

hydrolysates. Most studies in sunflower protein hydrolysates uses chemical antioxidant methods, such as ABTS, DPPH and FRAP (DABBOUR *et al.*, 2019a and 2019b; PRADO *et al.*, 2020; HABINSHUTI *et al.*, 2019). Very few evaluated the bioactivity and resistance of antioxidant peptide fraction in cell culture (MEGIAS *et al.*, 2009). Furthermore, little attention has been paid to the phenolic content remaining in sunflower hydrolysates, which may overestimate the bioactive effect of the peptides per se. Chlorogenic acid (CA) is the most abundant phenolic in sunflower meal and its oxidation during alkaline solubilization of the protein generates an undesirable greenish pigmentation, limiting the use of the sunflower by-product in the food industry (WILDERMUTH *et al.*, 2016). Therefore, the isolation of sunflower protein from AC may represent a good alternative for application in food.

The enzyme alcalase has been preferentially used for sunflower protein hydrolysis to generates small molecular weight peptides with antioxidant potential (DABBOUR, *et al.*, 2019a; PRADO *et al.*, 2020; HABINSHUTI *et al.*, 2019). However, the use of commercial enzymes does not guarantee the stability of the generated peptide in the digestion tract. To promote physiological antioxidant bioactivity, peptides must resist the acid and enzymatic conditions of the gastrointestinal system to be absorbed into the circulation. Therefore, peptide integrity and bioavailability throughout digestion may be important to maintain functionality (MEGÍAS *et al.*, 2009).

The present work aimed to obtain sunflower hydrolysates with alcalase from protein isolates with low phenolic content. The sunflower hydrolysates were characterized physicochemical regarding size, amino acid composition and hydrophobicity profile. Since sunflower physiological peptide bioactivity depends on its structure and digestion resistance, it was evaluated the antioxidant bioactivity before and after simulated gastrointestinal digestion and identified the sequence of peptide cross-checking with the bioactivity database.

2. Materials and Method

2.1 Chemical reagents, characterization and phenolic compounds

- *Protein determination:* moisture content and total protein (Kjedahl method, Nx 5,75) of samples was performed as described by AOAC methods (LATIMER Jr, 2012).

- *Sunflower protein preparation*: Defatted sunflower meal (*Helianthus annuus L.*) was produced and donated by Sunbloom protein Company. Sunflower protein was isolated by sequential extractions using 70% ethanol, according to Salgado *et al.* (2010). Briefly, sunflower flour at 1:15 (w/v) ratio, pH 5 was stirred for 1 h at room temperature, centrifuged at 11000×g for 20 min at 20°C. The precipitate (fibers and proteins) was dispersed in distilled water (5 mL) and pH adjustment to 9 (NaOH 1 mol/L), stirred for 1 h, centrifuged at 11000×g for 20 min at 20°C. Supernatants were submitted to isoelectric precipitation (pH 4.5/ HCl 1 mol/L), resting overnight, and centrifuged at 11000×g for 20 min at 4°C. This procedure was done twice to optimize phenolic extraction. Decanted sunflower isolate protein were centrifuged at 11000×g for 20 min at 4°C and lyophilized.

- *Total phenolics*: Phenolic compounds were determined by reaction with Folin-Ciocalteu according to Singleton *et al.* (1965), and the result was expressed in mg gallic acid equivalent (GAE)/g sample.

- *Amino acid profile*: was determined by RP-HPLC, coupled to a UV detector (Shimadzu Corporation, Tokyo, Japan), equipped with a Luna/Phenomenex C18 column (250 mm × 4.6 mm ×, 5 µm; Phenomenex Inc., Torrence, USA), using the wavelength of 254 nm. Identification and quantification were performed using the external standard (Pierce / PN 20088), and α-aminobutyric acid (AAAB) as internal standard (Aldrich, Milwaukee-USA), as described by White *et al.* (1986).

2. 2 Preparation of sunflower hydrolysates with alcalase

Sunflower protein isolate (SFPI) was hydrolyzate according to Dabbour *et al.* (2018). Briefly, sample was diluted to 5% in water and sonicated (37 kHz – Unique ultrasonic cleaner / 8000) at 50°C, pH 9.0 for 20 min. Hydrolysis was carried out by addition of Alcalase® (0.3 U/g protein) at pH 9.0 for 90 min at 50°C; reaction was stopped by pH reduction to 5. The hydrolysates were fractionated and filtered using an ultrafiltration system (Labscale TFF 29751 model - Millipore) and cellulose membrane (<5kDa). All the fractions obtained (filtered (<5kDa) and retained (>5kDa)) were lyophilized. The alcalase concentration was corrected by its enzymatic activity measured by (CASTRO; SATO, 2013) with azocasein as substrate. The degree of hydrolysis (DH) was determined according to Adler-Nissen (1986), with pH-stat employing the following equation:

$$DH (\%) = \frac{BNb}{\alpha Mph_{total}} \times 100$$

Where: DH= degree of hydrolysis; B= volume of consumed base (mL); Nb= normality of the base; α = average degree of dissociation; Mp= mass of protein; htotal= total peptide bond content (mmol/g).

2. 3 Molecular exclusion chromatography

Samples were analyzed by size exclusion chromatography (SE-FPLC) using Fast Protein Liquid Chromatograph (Akta Pure Chromatograph, GE Healthcare, Chicago, Illinois, USA) with gel filtration columns connected in series (models Superdex 200 and Superdex 30). Samples (5mg/mL) were diluted and sonicated for 20 min. Both the sample and standard (1 mg/mL) were diluted in 25 mM sodium phosphate buffer (pH 7.4 with 150 mM NaCl) and filtered in a hydrophilic polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE; 0.45 µm) membrane. Samples were injected (0.5 mL/min, 120 min) and readings at 280 nm UV detection. The standards were α -Lactalbumin (14178 Da), Insulin (5807.6 Da), Vitamin B12 (1355.4 Da), L- β -4-Dihydroxyphenylalanine (197.2 Da) or L-Norleucine (131.17 Da). The wavelength of 280 nM was employed (VANDER HEYDEN, 2002; BISINOTTO *et al.*, 2020).

2. 4 Electrophoresis

Protein samples were analyzed in sodium dodecyl sulfate-polyacrilamide gel (12%) (SDS-PAGE). Samples at 2 mg/mL were homogenized in a sample buffer (0.0625M tris-HCl, pH 6.8, 2% (w/v) SDS, 5% (w/v) b-mercaptoethanol, 10% (v/v) glycerol, 0.002% (w/v) bromophenol blue) and subsequently boiled for 5 min and centrifuged at 10.000 g. Protein content was measured by Lowry's method, modified by Peterson, using bovine serum albumin as standard (PETERSON, 1979). Equal amounts (20 µg) of total protein was electrophoresed in a 10% (w/v) SDS-polyacrylamide gel. Gel was run in 120 V constant for 1,5 h and protein fixed and stained with 0.006% (w/v) de Coomassie Blue R e 6% (v/v) of acetic acid. Molecular weights of the polypeptides were estimated by using low molecular weight standards (Sigma) mol wt 6,500-66,000 Da.

2. 5 Hydrophobic profile

Reverse phase high performance liquid chromatography (RPHPLC) was performed on an Agilent liquid chromatograph with a semipreparative and analytical quaternary pump system and a diode array detector (DAD) (Agilent,

Waldbonn, Germany) on a Microsorb – MV™ C18 column (4.6 mm× 250 mm; 5 µm particle size) (Rainin, Woburn, MA, USA) following Caetano-Silva *et al.* (2017). Composition of solvent A – 0.04% TFA in ultrapure water and solvent B – 0.03% TFA in acetonitrile. The gradient Elution conditions were 100% A from 0 to 40 min, from 40 to 45 min 70% B and 30% A, and 45 to 60 min, 100% A. Detection was at 214 nm, and the sample injection volume was 50 µL (3 mg protein/mL for the samples).

2. 6 Oxygen Radical Absorbance Capacity (ORAC)

The ORAC assay was performed as described by Corrochano *et al.* (2019). Samples and standard was diluted in 75 mM potassium phosphate buffer (pH 7.4). In a microplate: 20 µl of sample or standard, 120 µl of fluorescein solution (0.17 µM), 60 µl of AAPH solution (40 mM) were added and monitored for 2 h at 90-second intervals at 485 nm excitation and 520 nm emission wavelength in a microplate reader (Varioskan Lux, ThermoFisher, Singapore). Trolox standard curve (12.5–400 µM) was used to express the results as µmol Trolox equivalent/g sample.

2. 7 DPPH antioxidant activity assay

The DPPH assay was performed as described by Torres (2021), with minor modifications. A solution of 80 µM of 2,2-diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl was prepared in a dark bottle using methanol. It was mixed with diluted concentrations in standard Trolox series (1.5 to 100 µM). The mixture was stirred and incubated at room temperature for 30 minutes. Then, a volume of 200 µL was dispensed into a 96-well microplate and read at an absorbance of 517 nM. The elimination activity of the tested samples was extrapolated into the DPPH inhibitory percentage using the equation; AA (%) = ((Abs White-(Abs Sample))/(Abs White)) x 100. A standard Trolox curve was used to express the DPPH values of the samples at different concentrations. The results were expressed as µmol equivalents of Trolox/g of sample, in triplicate.

2. 8 Antioxidant activity assay – ABTS

The ABTS assay was performed as described by Meera *et al.*, (2019). A mixture of potassium persulfate in 2.45 mM aqueous solution and 7 mM ABTS was prepared (2,2'-azino-bis (3-ethylbenzothiazoline-6-sulfonic acid radical

solution (ABTS+)). This was left to stand in the dark for 12 hours. Its absorbance was adjusted to 0.7 ± 0.02 at 734 nm using a UV-Vis spectrophotometer before analysis. Then, 10 µL aliquot of the sample was placed in a microplate and with subsequent addition 190 µL of ABTS+ solution (Abs 0.7 ± 0.02) was added. After six minutes, the absorbance was read at 730 nm on the microplate. The results were expressed as µmol/Trolox equivalent/g sample in triplicate or by the percentage of antioxidant activity (AAT), calculated and expressed according to the equation (DRYÁKOVÁ *et al.*, 2010). AAT (%) = ((Abs White-(Abs Sample))/(Abs White)) x 100).

2. 9 In vitro digestion assay

The fractions SFPi, SPHr and SPHf were submitted to the INFOGEST assay (BRODKORB *et al.*, 2019), obtaining the digested fractions. No enzyme was used to digest starch and fat (amylase, bile and pancreatic lipase) since the sample was protein isolates. The enzymatic activity of the enzyme's pepsin and pancreatin was measured prior to the digestion process, according to methods suggested in INFOGEST supplementary material. For the oral phase, the sample was mixed with salivary fluid in a ratio of (1:1 w/v) with 10 mL of total volume. CaCl₂ 0.3 M was added to the salivary fluid immediately before the test, in a bath at 37 °C with stirring, for 2 min. In the gastric phase, a 1:1 w/v ratio of oral bolus was mixed with simulated gastric fluid containing 0.3 M CaCl₂ freshly added, pH adjusted to 3.0 and sequentially added pepsin enzyme (2000 U/mL), with the volume adjusted to 20 mL. This remained in a bath at 37 °C under stirring for 2 h. For the intestinal phase, the gastric chyme was mixed in a ratio of 1:1 w/v with intestinal fluid with CaCl₂, pH adjusted to 7.0 with 5 M NaOH and addition of pancreatin dilution to reach the final concentration final of 100 U/mL in the intestinal phase. The total volume was adjusted to 40 mL at this stage. The intestinal mixture was placed in a bath at 37 °C for 2 h. Enzyme activity was inhibited by sample incubation in a bath at 85 °C for 10 min/cold bath and centrifuged at 7000 g for 20 min at 4 °C. Supernatant was collected and lyophilized and stored under freezing conditions for later analysis.

2. 10 Identification of sequences by LC/MS/MS (Nano-coupled liquid chromatography QExactive mass)

For the test, SPHf and digested samples were analyzed. First, the samples were resuspended in LC/MS water with 0.1% formic acid and their protein content quantified by the Qubit Protein Assay method. Subsequently, chromatography was performed on a PicoChip source (Model 1PCH-550; 75 µm ReproSil Pur C18 3 µm silica matrix; New Objective, USA) at a continuous flow rate of 0.300 µl/min. 1 ug of sample was injected into an Acclaim PepMap 100 trap (75 µm ID, C18 3 µm; Thermo Fisher Scientific). Sample separation took place in a gradient of 2-40% mobile phase B for 120 min, followed by 10 min in 80% mobile phase B and column reequilibration for 10 min in 2% mobile phase B. The mobile phases of the chromatography included: mobile phase A water/0.1% formic acid, and phase B acetonitrile/0.1% formic acid. Mass spectra were acquired from a QExactive mass spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific) by the DDA method (data-dependent acquisition, Full MS/MS) with selection of the 10 best counts. The precursor ion search was performed at 300-1,750 m/z at a resolution of 70,000. An isolation window of 2 m/z was selected, with collision energy NCE 15 and 30, followed by MS/MS acquisition at 17,500 resolutions. The automatic gain control (AGC) target of 1 and 4 and maximum injection time of 100 ms. Loads 1 and greater than 5 were excluded. A dynamic exclusion time of 30 s was used. Samples were analyzed in duplicate. The spectra were analyzed with PatternLab for Proteomics (CARVALHO *et al.*, 2015) using the *Helianthus annuus* database from the UNIPROT database (<https://www.uniprot.org>). The search for peptides was carried out with the NOVOR software (MA, 2015) (available at <https://novor.cloud/>), using predefined definitions and the *Helianthus annuus* database as a reference. The sequencing results were checked against bioactivity in the BIOPEP-UWM database (<https://biochemia.uwm.edu.pl/en/biopep-uwm-2/>). The potential antioxidant activity of peptides identify was also evaluated in silico using AnOxPePred webserver (<https://services.healthtech.dtu.dk/service.php?AnOxPePred-1.0>). This server uses deep learning method for prediction of free radical scavenging (FRS) and metal chelating properties of peptides (OLSEN *et al.*, 2020).

2. 11 Statistical analyses

Statistical analysis was performed using SPSS 16.0 software (SPSS Inc., Chicago IL). An ANOVA was performed followed by Duncan post-test to assess

differences between groups. The mean \pm standard error was used to represent the data from each in vitro experiment, which was repeated at least five times. Statistical significance was determined as $p < 0.05$.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1 Production of sunflower protein isolates with low phenolic content

Protein content increased from 48 to 92 % in sunflower protein isolates (SFPI). In hydrolyzed fractions filtered (SPHf) and retented (SPHr) protein content reduced to 71 and 56%, respectively, probably because of a dilution in the hydrolysis process. The phenolic compounds in SFPI content was eliminated a 95% compared to the original flour (Table 1). However, SPHf and SPHr showed 76 % of phenolic content eliminations. In this study phenolic compounds reduction in isolate protein was similar to results obtained by Alexandrino *et al.* (2017). Nevertheless, a residual fraction of phenolics remains attached to the protein isolates, which are released and detected only after hydrolysis. The alkaline environment in the protein isolation process favors the interaction between phenolics and protein (LI *et al.*, 2021). However, during hydrolysis occurs protein cleavage exposing internal sites and releasing the phenolics previously hidden.

Numerous processes can be used for removal of phenolic compounds, such as extraction with methanol, ethanol, adsorption resin, white acid extraction, ion exchange and others (SINGH *et al.*, 2012; ARRUDA *et al.*, 2016). Among the methods of phenolics extraction, the use of ethanol was shown to be more effective to the removal of chlorogenic acid from protein isolates, since disrupt bonds between phenolic and protein (ALEXANDRINO *et al.*, 2017; SALGADO *et al.*, 2012). A complete phenolic removal its hardly achieved, since the interaction between polyphenol and protein can be of several forms, such as covalent and non-covalent, between hydrophobic and hydrophilic amino acids and other factors (KANAKIS *et al.*, 2011; OZDAL *et al.*, 2013; YILMAZ *et al.* 2022; HAN *et al.*, 2020; QUAN *et al.*, 2019). In this study antioxidant bioactivity was evaluated in sunflower protein hydrolysate with reduced content of phenolic compounds.

Table 1. Protein content and quantification of total phenolic compounds of the samples

Sample	Protein content (%)	Phenolic content (mg AG /100g)	Total phenolic content elimination (%)
Defatted sunflower (DS)	48 ± 1.1	488 ± 4.7	-
Sunflower protein isolates (SFPi)	92 ± 0.1	26 ± 2.4	95
Sunflower protein hydrolysate filtered (SPHf)	71 ± 0.8	118 ± 1.50	76
Sunflower protein hydrolysate retentated (SPHr)	56 ± 0.3	116 ± 0.82	76

3.2 Protein hydrolysis and molecular size evaluation

Since low molecular weight peptides have been related with better bioactivity, two fractions of hydrolysates were prepared: SPHf, smaller than 5kDa; and SPHr. The hydrolysis with alcalase induced $30.3 \pm 2.6\%$ of degree hydrolysis (DH). This value was in accordance to previously published data (10 to 30% of DH) employing the same enzyme at equivalent concentration (PRADO *et al.*, 2020; UGOLINI, *et al.*, 2015; REN *et al.*, 2016). The effective hydrolysis obtained for sunflower samples may be related to the ultrasound treatment (20 min), which induced the opening of the protein structure and consequently the larger contact area of the enzyme during hydrolysis (YANJUN *et al.*, 2014).

Electrophoretic profiles of the sunflower isolate and hydrolyzed fractions are shown in Figure 1. No bands were observed in the hydrolyzed fractions, suggesting the predominance of low molecular weight peptides, which migrated rapidly through the electrophoresis and lost in the gel. SFPi sample shows bands in the range of 10 and 50 kDa. Two main protein groups are present in sunflower seeds: globulins, which correspond to the range of 20-60 kDa and 40-90% of total proteins, and albumins with 11-20 kDa, which represent 10-30% of total proteins. Among the globulins classified by sedimentation coefficient, 11S globulin (or heliantinin) is the main class; and for albumin, 2S albumins prevail (GONZÁLEZ-PEREZ *et al.*, 2002 and 2007).

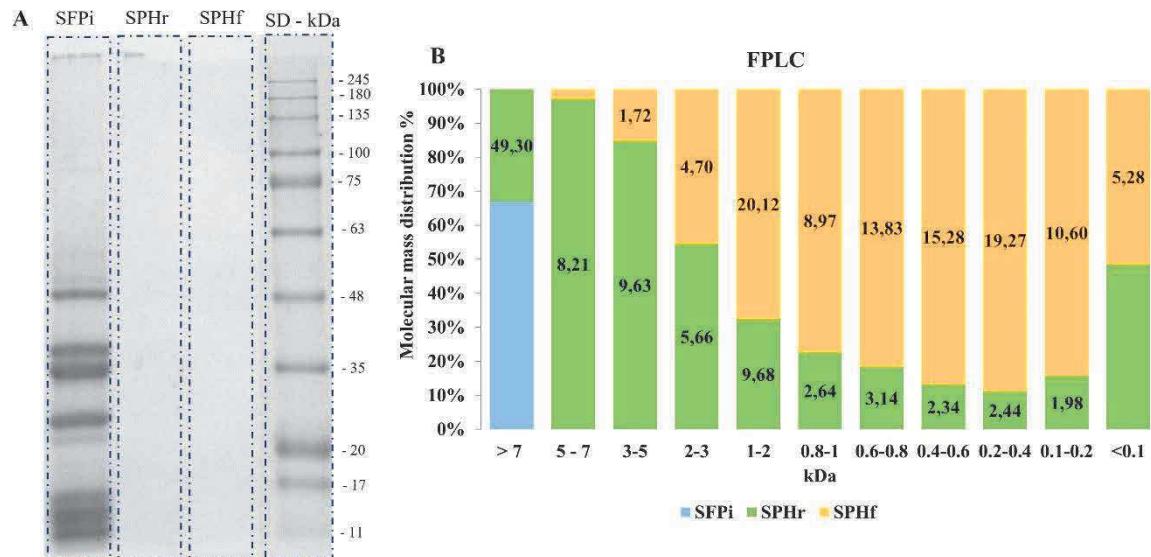


Figure 1. Electrophoretogram and molecular size distribution profile of samples. A: SDS-PAGE gel of SFPi and hydrolysates retained (SPHr) and filtered (SPHf) (SD=molecular mass standard) and B: Molecular weight (MW) distribution profile of SFPi, SPHf and SPHr in molecular size exclusion chromatography.

To evaluate with better precision, the molecular size range of each hydrolyzed fraction, samples were analyzed by molecular size exclusion chromatography, showed in Figure 1B. All proteins in SFPi were above 7 kDa, which corroborates with electrophoresis analysis and corresponds to albumin and globulins, the main proteins present in sunflower (CARRÃO-PANIZZI; MANDARINO, 1994). SPHr presented a wide distribution in different molecular weights, but still showed a large proportion in the range above 7 kDa. This data indicates that alcalase hydrolysis was not complete and some proteins remained intact after the hydrolysis process. Interestingly, this large molecular weight proteins were not observed in electrophoresis analysis, probably because low assay sensitivity. In the other hand, the SPHf fraction showed all peptides with smaller size than 3 kDa. Most peptides were found in the range smaller than 600 Da (REN *et al.*, 2016; UGOLINI *et al.*, 2015; DABBOUR *et al.*, 2019a and 2019b). The molecular size of peptides has been extensively associated with better bioactivity. In previously review it was shown that of 42 antioxidant peptides from different food sources, 70% presented a molecular size range from 400 to 650 Da (ZOU *et al.*, 2016).

3.6 Amino acid composition and hydrophobicity profile

Although the SFPi sample presents all the indispensables amino acids, as expected for a pseudo-cereal, lysine appears as the limiting amino acid (Table 2), following the FAO reference standard (CARRÃO-PANIZZI; MANDARINO, 1994). The hydrolysis process impaired the distribution of total essential amino acids regarding Met + Cys and Leu, probably being lost through their release into free amino acids. Most amino acids of SFPi were classified into hydrophobic and acids, which may directly implicate in the bioactivity of the formed peptides. Despite limited in lysine, the sunflower protein can be considered of good quality, and this low lysine levels can be corrected by adding other protein sources that have surplus values for the limited amino acid (LIN *et al.* 1974; GILBERT *et al.*, 2011; RAMACHANDRAN *et al.*, 2007; SALGADO *et al.*, 2010 and 2012; ALEXANDRINO *et al.*, 2017).

Table 2. Total amino acid composition of sunflower protein isolates and hydrolysates

Amino acids (AA)	WHO/FAO/U NU mg/g ref. protein	SFPi	SPHf	SPHr
		mg/g protein	mg/g protein	mg/g protein
Indispensable	Lys	45	25.0 ± 0.00	16.2 ± 0.00
	Trp	6	31.0 ± 0.00	24.3 ± 0.00
	Phe + Tyr	38	82.8 ± 0.00	64.4 ± 0.01
	Met + Cys	22	28.6 ± 0.01	15.2 ± 0.01
	Thr	23	31.0 ± 0.01	24.3 ± 0.00
	Leu	59	60.9 ± 0.0	46.6 ± 0.00
	Ile	30	40.1± 0.00	31.4 ± 0.00
	Val	39	49.0 ± 0.01	38.8 ± 0.01
	His	15	26.9 ± 0.01	20.2 ± 0.00
AA distribution (%)	Hydrophobic		27.91	15.58
	Hydrophilic		10.21	5.53
	Ácids		28.75	15.36
				15.60

	Básics		13.28	6.92	7.40
--	--------	--	-------	------	------

Source: Values are means \pm standard deviations of three measurements. Protein determinate by Kjeldahl. Abbreviations includes: Asp: Aspartic acid; Ala: Alanine; Arg: Arginine; Glu: Glutamic acid; His: Histidine; Gly: Glycine; Cys: Cysteine; Ile: Isoleucine; Leu: Leucine; Lys: Lysine; Met: Methionine; Phe: Phenylalanine; Pro: Proline; Ser: Serine; Thr: Threonine; Glu: glutamic acid; Tyr: Tyrosine; Val: Valine. Hydrophobic (Ala, Val, Met, Phe, Leu, Ile, Pro), Hyrophilic (Gly, Thr, Tyr, Cys) Basics: Arg, His, Lys) and Acids AA (Glu; Asp). Score to adults > 18 years (FAO, 2007).

The hydrophobicity profile of SFPi and the hydrolyzed fraction (SPHr and SPHf) were analyzed and shown in Figure 2. For a better interpretation of the results, the area of the chromatogram was divided into three zones, corresponding to the concentration of the mobile phase at 60 min: 1 to 20 min, hydrophilic zone; 20 to 40 min, intermediate zone and 40 to 60 min, hydrophobic zone (LEGAY *et al.*, 1997; NATRELLA *et al.*, 2023). It is possible to observe a reduction in hydrophobicity after the hydrolysis process with alcalase, since chromatographic picks of SPHr and SPHf are shifted to the left, in the zone I and II of medium and low hydrophobicity. A possible explanation could be the reduction of hydrophobic amino acids (Val, Met, Phe, Leu and Ile) in the peptide sequence after the hydrolysis process, as observed in Table 2 in SPHr and SPHf. Alternatively, the hydrophobicity profile of the peptide may be related to the DH. Previous work with sunflower protein showed an increase in hydrophobicity with lower DH (0 and 18%), but reduced hydrophobicity with an increase in DH (18 and 24%). This was attributed to protein-protein interaction and restriction of hydrophobic zones to aggregates (DABBOUR *et al.*, 2019a). In fact, these results are in accordance with our higher DH (>27%).

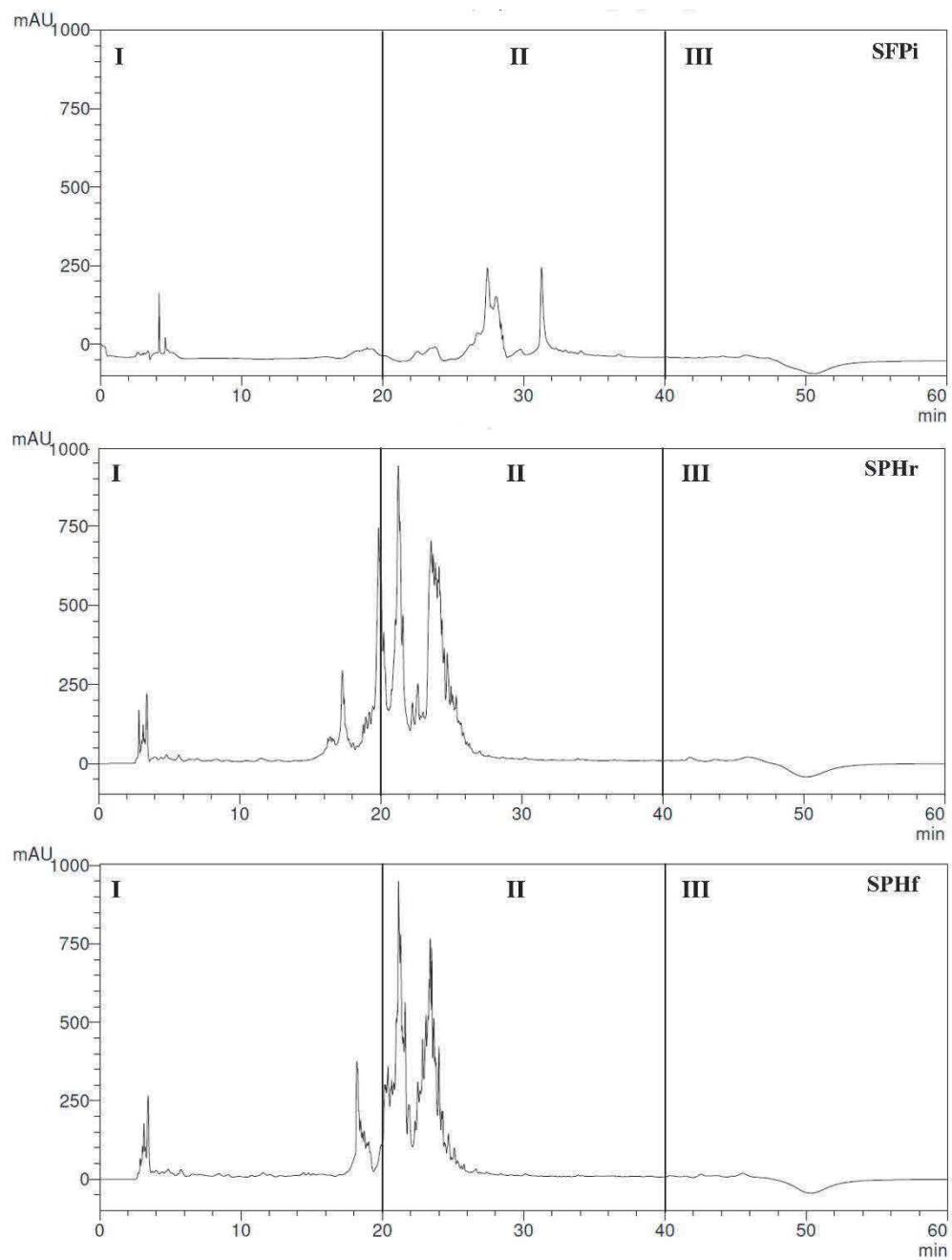


Figure 2. Hydrophobic profile of sunflower protein isolates and hydrolyzed fractions by alcalase. Chromatograms are divided in hydrophobicity zones, related to retention time and mobile phase concentration where: 0–25% Mobile Phase B corresponds to low hydrophobicity (I), 25–50%

medium hydrophobicity (II), 50–100% and high hydrophobicity (III). SFPI=sunflower protein isolates; SPHr= sunflower hydrolysates retentate and SHPf = sunflower protein filtered.

3. 4 Antioxidant activity

Three antioxidant assays with different mechanism of action were used to evaluate the potential antioxidant: ABTS, DPPH and ORAC. Since the peptides obtained from hydrolysis by alcalase must have their physiological effect confirmed only after the gastrointestinal digestion, the resistance of the antioxidant bioactivity was also evaluated after the simulated digestion process. The results are summarized in Figure 3 (before and after digestion).

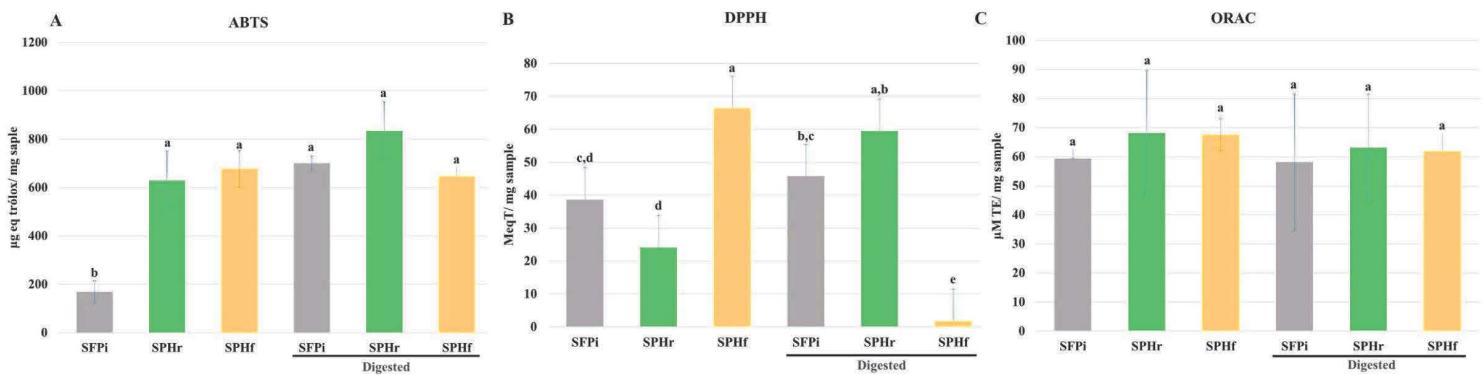


Figure 3. Antioxidant activity of the sunflower protein hydrolysates before and after digestion. A: ABTS; B: DPPH and, C: ORAC. Samples were analyzed in 0.6 mg/mL. Each value is the mean of standard error of at least 5 experiments. Statistical analysis was

performed using one-way ANOVA followed by Duncan's test, with p<0.05. SFPI=sunflower protein isolates; SPHr= sunflower hydrolysates retained and SHPf = sunflower protein filtered.

Although the bioactivity of peptides is related to their molecular size, this analysis has not previously been reported for sunflower peptides. It is noticeable that after alcalase hydrolysis (before digestion), the antioxidant activity increased more than 350 % in ABTS and 150 % in DPPH assay in filtered fraction (SPHf), confirming that low molecular size of the peptides may confer greater antioxidant capacity than larger fractions. An improvement in antioxidant bioactivity after the hydrolysis process with alcalase corroborates with previous results in sunflower hydrolysates treated with dual-frequency ultrasonic (DABBOUR *et al.*, 2019b). The production of bioactive peptides must be enzyme-dependent since sunflower protein hydrolysis with other commercial enzymes such as Neutrase and Flavourzym was not as effective for antioxidant peptide production (PRADO *et al.*, 2020).

The antioxidant activity by ORAC was similar for the samples, despite the tendency for hydrolyzed fractions to increase. This difference in antioxidant results can be explained by the specificity of each method. The ORAC assay measures the ability of the antioxidant compound to inhibit oxidation induced by peroxy radical through proton transfer, while ABTS and DPPH is focused on antioxidant activity through electron transfer (PRIOR *et al.*, 2005).

After digestion the SFPI increased antioxidant activity in ABTS assay, probably by an increase in hydrolysis of integral protein and formation of peptide during digestion process. This suggests that the consumption of integral sunflower protein would be sufficient to obtain bioactive peptides with antioxidant potential, without the need for their prior hydrolysis with commercial enzymes, such as alcalase, as verified in recent work by our group (BISINOTTO *et al.*, 2023).

The antioxidant activity was preserved in digested SPHf in ABTS and ORAC, but drastically reduced in DPPH analysis. In the other hand, in digested SPHr the antioxidant activity was maintained or even increased, probably due to the hydrolysis of proteins

that remained intact after alcalase hydrolysis. The reduction in the antioxidant bioactivity of SPHf after digestion with the DPPH assay and the persistence of bioactivity in digested SPHr may indicate a greater susceptibility of the smaller peptides to hydrolysis promoted by gastrointestinal enzymes. Like our results, copper chelating sunflower peptides produced by hydrolysis with alcalase were partially resistant to incubation with simulated gastric and intestinal fluids (MEGIAS *et al.*, 2009).

3. 5 Peptide identification with mass spectrometry

To better understand structure-function relationship of generated peptides after alcalase hydrolysis and after digestion, mass spectrometry of the SPHf and digested fractions samples was performed. The data regarding the peptide sequences of the fractions are shown in Table 1 (supplementary material 1). Spectra analysis of SPHf and digested was performed with Pattern lab using *Helianthus annuus* database from Uniprot, to obtain exclusive peptides from sunflower. Several 196 peptide sequences were identified for SPHf and only 5 for digested fraction. This result can have two interpretations: (1) a significant reduction in peptides variability after the digestive process, that is, few peptides remain intact after the action of digestive enzymes, so less sequence were identified; (2) most of peptide size formed after digestion were smaller than 400 Da. These molecular sizes are not detected in the analyzed equipment since it is below the ionization range threshold. Given that bioactivity of the digested fraction is maintained (at least in the ABTS and ORAC assay) and the SE-FPLC analysis of the SPHf fraction showed low molecular weight peptides, the second option seems to be more feasible. According to Zou *et al.* (2016), peptides with antioxidant bioactivity have an average size of 400 to 650 Da. Interestingly, three sequence were identified in both fraction (IERGRGIQ, IIRPPQ and VVRPPIRIQ), which means that these peptides were resistant to digestion in an intact form.

The sequenced peptides of the SPHf fraction were originated from 10 proteins, mostly represented by 11S globulin (73%), followed by glutein (10%). This result correlate with our sample, since globulins are predominantly found in seeds and constitute most of the sunflower proteins, ranging from about 40 to 90% (GONZALES-PEREZ *et al.*, 2007). Homologous peptides in 11S globulin derived peptides are observed, which vary in lengths (in few amino acids

upstream or downstream protein sequence) (subscript numbers in supplementary material Table 1). The peptide sequences obtained from sunflower hydrolysate are derived from different parts of 11S globulin protein sequence, showing that most of the protein was fragmented (Box 1 of the supplementary material). Although the alcalase enzyme has broad specificity, it prefers to cleave the carboxylic region of the amino acids Glu (E), Met (M), Leu (L), Tyr (Y), Lys (K) and Gln (Q) (ADAMSON; REYNOLDS, 1996). In fact, big part of sequenced amino acids has these amino acids in their C-terminal region.

Peptide sequences identified were cross-checked with BIOPEP-UWM database, which contain mainly food peptide sequences with bioactivity already reported in *in vivo* or *in vitro* previous studies (MINKIEWICZ *et al.*, 2022). However, no sequence identified in our sample showed bioactivity with 100% similarity. This result was expected, since there is little data in the literature relating functionality with sequence structure of plant derived peptide. In fact, our study seems to be the first to relate the structure of hydrolyzed sunflower peptides to antioxidant bioactivity.

Although we did not find direct bioactivity in the intact sunflower peptide sequence, we found several di- and tri-peptides contained within the sequence that were previously related to antioxidant activity (Table 3). Note that several antioxidant peptides have been found in plant sources, like sunflower in protein content and rich in homologous proteins, such as soybeans. Therefore, it is possible that the smaller peptides, not identified in our sample because of the ionization threshold, may be also associated with antioxidant activity, as observed in the *in vitro* antioxidant analysis (Figure 3). Interestingly, antioxidant fragments are rich in Tyrosine (Y), leucine (L) and proline (P) which have been previously associated with antioxidant activity (ZOU, 2016).

Finally, the potential antioxidant activity of peptides identify was also evaluated *in silico*. The AnOxPePred web server use a deep learning method for prediction of free radical scavenging (FRS) and metal chelating properties of the whole peptides (OLSEN *et al.*, 2020). The top scoring peptides were considered as potential antioxidants (Table 3). Thirteen peptides from our sample had FRS above 0,5 score, which were considered as potentially bioactive when compared in experimental assays. These results are also in agreement with those published

by Deka and Saikia (2023) who studied the potential in silico activity of different 11S globulin including sunflower. However, the antioxidant potential of the 3-digestion resistant peptide (supplementary material with asterisks) presented FRS under 0,5 score: IERGRGIQ (0,36); IIRPPQ (0,44); VVRPPPIIQ (0,43).

Table 3. Identification of sunflower peptides with potential shorter sequences with antioxidant activity in previous studies

Peptide sequence Identified	Predicted free radical scavenger (FRS) score	Predicted chelation (CHEL) score	Biopeptide extracted from original peptide sequence	Origin of biopeptide extracted	Reference
AEK HL QPN	0.46477	0.25367	HL		10.1021/jf950833m
SFKFPILE HL	0.38542	0.24877			
AIQS PHWTIN	0.50619	0.22474	PHW		10.1021/jf021191n
IQS PHWTIN	0.48768	0.23813			
LLP YY PNTPE	0.60884	0.20892	PYY		10.1021/jf950833m
TG RHQ QSQRPGWE	0.33960	0.22997			
TG RHQ QTQRPSWE	0.36449	0.22708			
GERLPFDED RHQ	0.33966	0.25427			
RLPFDED RHQ	0.40462	0.24493			
RLPFDED RHQ KVE	0.44578	0.22719			10.1021/jf021191n
TDR HQ KIH	0.38660	0.25712			
Synthetic peptides of soybean protein					
GGRRGGGEGNQD RHQ	0.47151	0.25095		Hydrolysetes of Sardinelle by-products proteins (<i>Sardinella aurita</i>)	10.1016/j.foodchem.2009.05.021
GLLL PYY PNTPELVY	0.61410	0.20455	PYY	Hydrolysates of potato protein	10.1021/jf101556n
				Synthetic peptides of soybean protein	10.1021/jf950833m
AER EL RPN	0.38660	0.25712			
GNSVFDN ELRE	0.34326	0.22190	EL		
GNSVFDN ELREG	0.31211	0.21325			
Synthetic casein protein					
					10.1016/s0955-2863(99)00083-2

HNDGNT EL	0.38281	0.25362					
HNDGNT EL VVV	0.34314	0.20508					
NNGQD ELVII	0.30653	0.19021					
SADRG ELRPN	0.35424	0.21353					
TRDN VYAGF	0.38825	0.22466					
DN VYAGF	0.45668	0.21403	VY	Hydrolysates of potato protein		10.1021/jf101556n	
LTRDN VYAGF	0.39129	0.22000					
ENIDNPSH ADFVNPK	0.44330	0.28437					
HADFVNPK	0.38009	0.28488					
IDNPSH ADFVNPK	0.47559	0.26434	ADF	Synthetic peptide from Okara protein		10.3136/fstr.8.357	
NIDNPSH ADFVNPK	0.46417	0.25458					
PSH ADFVNPK	0.35244	0.26510					
LLPSYVNTP I LAF	0.44343	0.20053	LAF	Synthetic of mung bean meal protein		10.3390/molecules26061515	
RIQPQG LLLPSYVNTP I LAF	0.52577	0.21034					
NIDDPSNAD LYNPQ	0.39043	0.25190	LY	Hydrolysates peptide from soybean protein		10.1007/s00217-009-1093-1	
RDN VYAGF	0.44729	0.22303	VY	Hydrolysates of potato protein		10.1021/jf101556n	
VVL A YEPVWAIGTGK	0.48772	0.15001	AY	Synthetic peptide from Okara protein		10.3136/fstr.8.357	
RAGEQGS RWVSF	0.43841	0.17751	RW				
TNRAPL K SPL	0.30750	0.26199					
NRAPL K SPL	0.31359	0.25321	LK				
GVDF IRH	0.35857	0.21452					
IIRPPQ	0.44182	0.27872					
IIRPPQAR	0.36838	0.28227	IR	Hydrolyzed of egg protein		10.1016/j.foodchem.2010.04.083	
QI IIRPPQAR	0.41122	0.25741					
NN ENQLDEY	0.34481	0.23910	NEN	Synthetic from β -Lactoglobulin		10.1007/s13594-015-0226-5	
RGFQDR RHQKIR	0.45211	0.23101	RHQ	Synthetic peptides of soybean protein		10.1021/jf021191n	
KLPLLQ	0.35917	0.29142	LPL	Synthetic peptide from hemp seed (<i>Cannabis sativa L.</i>)		10.1016/j.jff.2013.11.005	
QVVRPPI RIQ	0.41680	0.22782					
RGLQVVRPPI RIQ	0.44215	0.18801					
VERGLQVVRPPI RIQ	0.44334	0.16774	IR	Hydrolyzed of egg protein		10.1016/j.foodchem.2010.04.083	
VVRPPI RIQ	0.43123	0.23234					
DIPWPF	0.53734	0.28542	PW	Peptide fraction of buckwheat protein		10.1016/j.foodchem.2009.05.024	
DMPFDIPWPF RPS	0.61714	0.26588					

EIPFDMPFDI PW PFRPS	0.56245	0.23478				
FDI PW PFRPS	0.63753	0.26920				
FDMPFDI PW PFRPS	0.59280	0.26175				
MPFDI PW PFRPS	0.55048	0.26555				
PFDI PW PF	0.57696	0.26467				
PFDI PW PFRPS	0.41910	0.19481				
AGEDKGR LW PF	0.63753	0.26920	LW	Hydrolysates fraction of marine bivalve peptides (<i>Macra veneriformis</i>)	10.1016/j.foodchem.2014.06.113	
KDDDLK AY	0.27976	0.24703	AY	Synthetic peptide from Okara protein	10.3136/fstr.8.357	
				Hydrolysates of tuna (Katsuwonus pelamis)	10.2331/suisan.65.92	
				Hydrolyzed of egg protein	10.1016/j.foodchem.2010.04.083	
SEDK AD FR	0.28384	0.22623	ADF	Synthetic peptide from Okara protein	10.3136/fstr.8.357	
ADRG EL RPN	0.36833	0.21247	EL	Synthetic casein peptide	10.1016/s0955-2863(99)00083-2	
WL PS PF PI	0.50706	0.26398	WLP	Peptides from sea squirt (<i>Halocynthia roretzi</i>)	10.1039/d2fo00729k rsc.li/food-function	
VVRPPI RI Q	0.43123	0.23234	IR	Hydrolyzed of ovotransferrin	10.1016/j.foodchem.2010.04.083	
I IRPPQ	0.44182	0.27872		Hydrolyzed of ovotransferrin	10.1016/j.foodchem.2010.04.083	

Source: A = Ala; C = Cys; D = Asp; E = Glu; F = Phe; G = Gly; H = His; I = Ile; K = Lys; L = Leu; M = Met; N = Asn; P = Pro; Q = Gln; R = Arg; S = Ser; T = Tre; V = Val; W = Thr; Y = Tyr. In red are the di- and tri-peptides contained in the sequence that have previously been linked to antioxidant activity.

4 Conclusion

Protein hydrolysates from sunflower isolate with low phenolic content was obtained, as well as peptides with low molecular size have been generated by hydrolysis with alcalase enzyme. However, part of the proteins after hydrolysis remained intact, as observed in the retained fraction. Despite the high content of hydrophobic amino acids composing the sample, the hydrophobicity profile of the peptides was reduced after hydrolysis. The low molecular size of the filtered fraction of sunflower hydrolysate was associated with a greater antioxidant bioactivity by the ABTS and DPPH methods. However, the resistivity to the digestive process was partially maintained in low molecular weight peptides. For the first time the sequence of sunflower bioactive peptide was identified and cross-checked with bioactive database. These results contribute to a better understanding between the structure and bioactivity of sunflower peptides. Sunflower protein hydrolysates may be an excellent protein source for human nutrition and for application in

plant-based products because of its excellent functionality. If enzymatically processed, it is suggested that generated peptides may be protected by microencapsulation to preserve bioavailability.

Acknowledgment

This work was financially supported by FAPESP (grant 2019/01896-4 and 2018/12546-1). Daniel Saraiva acknowledges FAPESP for the fellowship (process 2022/01204-8).

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare there was no conflict of interest to declare.

5 References

ADAMSON, N. J.; REYNOLDS, E. C. Characterization of casein phosphopeptides prepared using alcalase: Determination of enzyme specificity. **Enzyme and microbial technology**, 19(3), 202-207. 1996. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0141-0229\(95\)00232-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/0141-0229(95)00232-4).

ADLER-NISSEN, J. **Enzymic hydrolysis of food proteins**. New York: Elsevier Applies Science Publishers, 1986.

ALEXANDRINO *et al.* Fractioning of the sunflower flour components: Physical, chemical and nutritional evaluation of the fractions. **LWT**, 84, 426–432. 2017. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lwt.2017.05.062>

ARRUDA *et al.* Optimization of Extraction Parameters of Total Phenolics from *Annona crassiflora Mart. (Araticum)* Fruits Using Response Surface Methodology. **Food Analytical Methods**, p. 1-11, 2016. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12161-016-0554-y>

BISINOTTO *et al.* Bioaccessibility of cashew nut kernel flour compounds released after simulated in vitro human gastrointestinal digestion. **Food Research International**, 139, 109906. 2020. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodres.2020.109906>

BRODKORB, et al. INFOGEST static in vitro simulation of gastrointestinal food digestion. **Nature Protocols**, 14(4), 991–1014. 2019.
<https://doi.org/10.1038/s41596-018-0119-1>

BROUWER et al. Value attitude behaviour and social stigma in the adoption of veganism: An integrated model. **Food Quality and Preference**, v. 97, p. 104479, 2022. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodqual.2021.104479>

BISINOTTO, M. S. et al. Sunflower and Palm Kernel Meal Present Bioaccessible Compounds after Digestion with Antioxidant Activity. **Foods**, 12(17), 3283. 2023. <https://doi.org/10.3390/foods12173283>

CAETANO-SILVA et al. Synthesis of whey peptide-iron complexes: Influence of using different iron precursor compounds. **Food Research International**, v. 101, p. 73-81, 2017. 10.1016/j.foodres.2017.08.056.

CARRÃO-PANIZZI, M. C.; MANDARINO, J. M. G. Produtos proteicos do girassol. In: LEITE et al. Girassol no Brasil. Londrina: Embrapa Soja, 1994. Disponível in: <https://ainfo.cnptia.embrapa.br/digital/bitstream/doc/468445/1/Capitulo-4.pdf>.

CARVALHO, et al. Integrated analysis of shotgun proteomic data with PatternLab for proteomics 4.0. **Nature Protocols**, 11 (1), 102–117. 2015.
<https://doi.org/10.1038/nprot.2015.133>

CASTRO, R. J. S; SATO, H. H. Synergistic effects of agroindustrial wastes on simultaneous production of protease and α-amylase under solid state fermentation using a simplex centroid mixture design. **Ind. Crops Prod.** 49, 813–821. 2023. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.indcrop.2013.07.002>.

CORROCHANO et al Comparison of antioxidant activities of bovine whey proteins before and after simulated gastrointestinal digestion. **Journal of Dairy Science**, 102(1), 54–67. 2019a. <https://doi.org/10.3168/jds.2018-14581>

DABBOUR et al. Changes in functionalities, conformational characteristics and antioxidative capacities of sunflower protein by controlled enzymolysis and

ultrasonication action. **Ultrasonics Sonochemistry**, 58, 104625. 2019a. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ultsonch.2019.104625>

DABBOUR *et al.* Antioxidant activities of sunflower protein hydrolysates treated with dual-frequency ultrasonic: Optimization study. **Journal of Food Process Engineering**, 42(5). 2019b. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jfpe.13084>

DABBOUR *et al.* Optimization of ultrasound assisted extraction of protein from sunflower meal and its physicochemical and functional properties. **Journal of Food Process Engineering**, 41(5), e12799. 2018.

DEKA, A.; SAIKIA, V. Prediction of ACE-inhibitory and antioxidant peptides from storage proteins of edible seeds and nuts using in silico approaches. **Sustainable Food Proteins**, 1(2), 84-98. 2023. <https://doi.org/10.1002/sfp2.1013>

DRYÁKOVÁ *et al.* Antioxidant properties of whey protein hydrolysates as measured by three methods. **European Food Research and Technology**, 230(6), 865–874. 2010. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00217-010-1231-9>

FOOD AND AGRICULTURE ORGANIZATION OF THE UNITED NATIONS-FAO/WHO/ONU. Report of a joint FAO/WHO/UNU expert consultation. **Geneva: Protein and amino acid requirements in human nutrition.** 2007. <https://apps.who.int/iris/handle/10665/43411>

FILHO, J. G. O.; EGEA, M. B. Sunflower seed byproduct and its fractions for food application: An attempt to improve the sustainability of the oil process. **J Food Sci.** 2021. n. 86 p. 1497– 1510. 2021. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1750-3841.15719>.

GILBERT *et al.* Effect of proteins from different sources on body composition. **Nutrition, Metabolism and Cardiovascular Diseases**, 21, B16–B31. 2011. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.numecd.2010.12.008>

GONZALEZ-PEREZ *et al.* Isolation and characterization of undenatured chlorogenic acid free sunflower (*Helianthus annuus*) proteins. **Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry**, 50(6), 1713e1719. 2002. <https://doi.org/10.1021/jf011245d>

GONZÁLEZ-PÉREZ *et al.* Sunflower proteins: overview of their physicochemical, structural and functional properties. **Journal of the Science of Food and Agriculture**, 87(12), 2173–2191. 2007. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jsfa.2971>

HABINSHUTI *et al.* Antimicrobial, antioxidant and sensory properties of Maillard reaction products (MRPs) derived from sunflower, soybean and corn meal hydrolysates. **LWT – Food Science and Technology**, 101, 694–702. 2019. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lwt.2018.11.083>

HAN *et al.* Polyphenol-Mediated assembly of proteins for engineering functional materials. **Angew Chem Int Ed Engl.** 59:15618–625. 2020. doi: 10.1002/anie.202002089

KANAKIS *et al.* Milk β -lactoglobulin complexes with tea polyphenols. **Food Chemistry**, 127, 1046–1055. 2011. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2011.01.079>

KAUR, C.; SARAF, S. Phytoconstituents as photoprotective novel cosmetic formulations. **Pharmacognosy Reviews**, 4, 1. 2:22–25. 2010. doi: 10.4103/0974-8490.60586.

LATIMER, G.W., Jr. (Ed.). (2012). **Official methods of analysis of AOAC International (19th ed.)**. Gaithersburg, Maryland, USA: AOAC International.

LEGAY *et al.* Comparative study of enzymatic hydrolysis of α/β - and γ -gliadins. **Food / Nahrung**, 41(4), 201–207. 1997. <https://doi.org/10.1002/food.19970410404>

LI *et al.* Recent Progress on Protein-Polyphenol Complexes: Effect on Stability and Nutrients Delivery of Oil-in-Water Emulsion System. **Frontiers in Nutrition**, 8. 2021. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fnut.2021.765589>

LIN *et al.* CERTAIN FUNCTIONAL PROPERTIES OF SUNFLOWER MEAL PRODUCTS. **Journal of Food Science**, 39(2), 368–370. 1974. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2621.1974.tb02896.x>

LUO, P.; HER, D. Preparation of liposome encapsulating angiotensin-I-converting enzyme inhibitory peptides from sunflower protein hydrolysates. **Molecular Medicine Reports**. 2018. <https://doi.org/10.3892/mmr.2018.8474>

MA. Novor: Real-time peptide de novo sequencing software. **Journal of the American Society for Mass Spectrometry**, 26(11), 1885–1894. 2015. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13361-015-1204-0>

MEERA *et al.* A 96 well-microtiter plate abts based assay for estimation of antioxidant activity in green leafy vegetables. **Biotechnology International** 12 (2): 22-29.

MEGÍAS *et al.* Stability of sunflower protein hydrolysates in simulated gastric and intestinal fluids and Caco-2 cell extracts. **LWT - Food Science and Technology**, 42(9), 1496–1500. 2009. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.LWT.2009.04.008>

MINKIEWICZ *et al.* BIOPEP-UWM Virtual—A Novel Database of Food-Derived Peptides with In Silico-Predicted Biological Activity. **Applied Sciences**, 12(14), 7204. 2022. <https://doi.org/10.3390/app12147204>.

NATRELLA *et al.* Impact of Milk Thermization on the Quality Characteristics of P.D.O. “Canestrato Pugliese” Ovine Hard Cheese. **Foods**, 12(5), 1080. 2023. <https://doi.org/10.3390/foods12051080>

OLSEN, T. H. *et al.* AnOxPePred: using deep learning for the prediction of antioxidative properties of peptides. **Sci Rep.** 10, 21471. 2020. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-020-78319-w>

OZDAL *et al.* A review on protein–phenolic interactions and associated changes. **Food Research International**, 51(2), 954–970. 2013. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodres.2013.02.009>

PETERSON, G. L. Review of the folin phenol protein quantitation method of lowry, rosebrough, farr and randall. **Analytical Biochemistry**, 100(2), 201–220. 1979. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0003-2697\(79\)90222-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/0003-2697(79)90222-7)

PRADO *et al.* Extraction of bioactive proteins from seeds (corn, sorghum, and sunflower) and sunflower byproduct: Enzymatic hydrolysis and antioxidant properties. **Current Nutrition & Food Science**, 16, 1–11. 2020. <http://dx.doi.org/10.2174/1573401316999200731005803>.

PRIOR *et al.* Standardized Methods for the Determination of Antioxidant Capacity and Phenolics in Foods and Dietary Supplements. **Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry**, 53(10), 4290–4302. 2005. <https://doi.org/10.1021/jf0502698>

QUAN *et al.* Protein-polyphenol conjugates: antioxidant property, functionalities and their applications. **Trends Food Sci Technol.** 91:507–17. 2019. doi: 10.1016/j.tifs.2019.07.049

RAMACHANDRAN *et al.* Oil cakes and their biotechnological applications – A review. **Bioresource Technology**, 98(10), 2000–2007. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biortech.2006.08.002>

REN *et al.* Effect of Hydrolysis Degree on Structural and Interfacial Properties of Sunflower Protein Isolates. **Journal of Food Processing and Preservation**, 41(1), e13092. 2017. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jfpp.13092>

SALGADO *et al.* Production and characterization of sunflower (*Helianthus annuus L.*) proteinenriched products obtained at pilot plant scale. **LWT - Food Science and Technology**, 45(1), 65e72. 2012. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lwt.2011.07.021>

SALGADO *et al.* Sunflower protein concentrates and isolates prepared from oil cakes have high water solubility and antioxidant capacity. **JAOCs, Journal of the American Oil Chemists' Society**, 88(3), 351e360. 2010. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11746-010-1673-z>

SINGH *et al.* Optimization of extraction of antioxidants from wheat bran (*Triticum spp.*) using response surface methodology. **Journal of Food Science and Technology**, v. 49, n. 3, p. 294-308, 2012. <https://doi.org/10.1007%2Fs13197-011-0276-5>

SINGLETON *et al.* Colorimetry of Total Phenolics with Phosphomolybdic-Phosphotungstic Acid Reagents. **American Journal of Enology and Viticulture**, 16(3), 144–158. 1965. <https://doi.org/10.5344/ajev.1965.16.3.144>

SRIVASTAVA, A.; VERMA A. Nutritional composition of sunflower seeds flour and nutritive value of products prepared by incorporating sunflower seeds flour. **International Journal of Pharmaceutical Research and Allied Sciences**, 3, 45–49. 2014.

<https://ijpras.com/storage/models/article/gSoAOClKfyDfQsTBvwmbgRrVitVeXWG7w5pek98lwzuOpAD7jWmYNLLPcShx/nutritional-composition-of-sunflower-seeds-flour-and-nutritive-value-of-products-prepared-by-incor.pdf>.

THE VEGAN SOCIETY – TVS. **Market insights - A thriving meat alternative industry**. <https://www.vegansociety.com/news/media/statistics/worldwide>.

TORRES *et al.* Determination of sulfate in algal polysaccharide samples: a step-by-step protocol using microplate reader. **Ocean and Coastal Research**. 69. 2021. 10.1590/2675-2824069.21-010pbt.

UGOLINI *et al.* Production of an enzymatic protein hydrolyzate from defatted sunflower seed meal for potential application as a plant biostimulant. **Industrial Crops and Products**, 75, 15–23. 2015.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.indcrop.2014.11.026>.

VANDER HEYDEN *et al.* Evaluation of size-exclusion chromatography and size-exclusion electrochromatography calibration curves. **Journal of Chromatography A**, 957(2), 127–137. 2002. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0021-9673\(02\)00311-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0021-9673(02)00311-4).

WHITE *et al.* An evaluation of the Waters Pico-Tag system for the amino-acid analysis of food materials. **Journal of Automatic Chemistry**, v. 8, n. 4, p. 170–177, 1986.

WILDERMUTH *et al.* Chlorogenic acid oxidation and its reaction with sunflower proteins to form green-colored complexes. **Comprehensive Reviews in Food Science and Food Safety**, v.0, p. 1-15, 2016.

YANJUN *et al.* Effect of power ultrasound pre-treatment on the physical and functional properties of reconstituted milk protein concentrate. **Journal of Food Engineering**, 124, 11–18. 2014. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jfoodeng.2013.09.013>.

YILMAZ *et al.* Chemistry of Protein-Phenolic Interactions Toward the Microbiota and Microbial Infections. **Frontiers in Nutrition**, 9. 2022. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fnut.2022.914118>.

ZOU, T.-B. *et al.* The Structure-Activity Relationship of the Antioxidant Peptides from Natural Proteins. **Molecules**, 21(1), 72. 2016. <https://doi.org/10.3390/molecules21010072>.

CAPÍTULO 3

SUNFLOWER PROTEIN HYDROLYSATE WITH LOW PHENOLIC CONTENT PROMOTE ANTIOXIDANT EFFECT ON CACO-2 CELLS

Daniel S. Lopes, Lilian G. V. C. Almeida, Cristian M. B. Pinilla, Maria T. B. Pacheco, and Fabiana A. B. Galland

O artigo será submetido à revista *Food Research International*

ABSTRACT

Recent studies have shown that gastrointestinal diseases are associated with oxidative stress, caused by the dysregulation between the formation of pro-oxidant and antioxidant substances. Sunflower meal, a co-product of biodiesel production, is rich in proteins with unknown functionality. Studies show that the peptides, generated after a hydrolysis process, may have an antioxidant action beneficial to health, however little explored for sunflower peptides. This study evaluated the antioxidant potential of sunflower protein hydrolysates with low phenolic content in Caco-2 intestinal cells and the mechanism of action of this process. The protein from the defatted flour was isolated by isoelectric pH (4.5) and the phenolic compounds were removed by alcohol extraction (70%). The sunflower protein isolate (SI) was hydrolyzed by the enzyme alcalase (pH 9, at 50°C/90 min) and ultrafiltered <5kDa, generating the filtered fraction of sunflower hydrolysate (SPHf). SPHf did not show antimicrobial activity against major foodborne pathogens. However, SPHf prevented hydrogen peroxide-induced oxidative stress in Caco-2 gastrointestinal cells. Sunflower hydrolysate was able to attenuate reactive oxygen species production and reverse the increase in GSH content and CAT activity induced by the stimulus with H₂O₂. A total of 189 peptide sequences from the SPHf fraction were identified, with an average number of 10 amino acid per peptide, and low molecular weight ranging from 500 - 2000 Da. Most peptides presented hydrophobic property and C and N-terminal regions showed higher incidence of hydrophobic and acid amino acids. These structure characteristics may influence the capacity of compounds to act as an electron donor to antioxidant bioactivity. This study brings for the first-time data on the mechanism of antioxidant action of sunflower peptides in gastrointestinal cells and associate important structure relation properties. These data support new physiological application for sunflower products.

Keywords: sunflower; oxidative stress; bioactive compound; bioactive peptides; antioxidant peptide

1 Introduction

Defatted sunflower meal, a rich protein by-product of oil extraction, can be used as a raw material to increase the nutritional value of foods, contributing for the alternative protein market. However, the application of this ingredient in the

production of new functional foods has been ineffective, largely due to the lack of knowledge about its physiological properties.

Once hydrolyzed, proteins can present new physiological bioactivities, not presented in the original structure, that can beneficially impact health (PRADO *et al.*, 2020). During hydrolytic process, smaller polypeptide chains are formed, exposing previously hidden protein sites. These compounds with smaller size and new properties may favor the interaction with receptors and other regulatory molecules in the cell, emerging various bioactive properties, such as antioxidant capacity (AGYEI *et al.*, 2016).

The human intestine, an organ that has several functions, including that of a barrier, can become susceptible to oxidative stress (OS). This can potentiate the onset of inflammatory bowel diseases, for example (WAN *et al.*, 2015). Due to their antioxidant properties and their potential for the treatment/prevention of diseases associated with OE, food-derived peptides have been studied (TONON *et al.*, 2016). However, the potential antioxidant effect of sunflower peptides, obtained by enzymatic hydrolysis with the commercial enzyme alcalase, has been little explored *in vitro* and especially in biological systems. Caco-2 cells refer to a colonocyte cell lineage model for the study of enterocytes, which mimic the physiological responses of mature human epithelial cells (WAN *et al.*, 2015).

Oxidative stress (OS), triggered by the imbalance between the production and elimination of reactive oxygen species (ROS), nitrogen (RNS). Under these conditions, endogenous antioxidants are not enough to minimize the pathological effects (AHMADINEJAD *et al.*, 2017).

Therefore, this study evaluated the antioxidant potential of sunflower protein hydrolysates in Caco-2 intestinal cells and the mechanism antioxidant action of this process. In addition, it was evaluated the potential antimicrobial action against the main food-borne pathogens. Finally, the identified peptides were analyzed for their structure-function relationship.

2 Materials and Method

2. 1 Chemical reagents and characterization

- *Sunflower protein preparation:* Defatted sunflower meal (*Helianthus annuus L.*) was produced and donated by Sunbloom protein Company. Sunflower protein

was isolated by sequential extractions using 70% ethanol, according to Salgado *et al.* (2010). Briefly, sunflower meal at 1:15 (w/v) ratio, pH 5 was stirred for 1 h at room temperature, centrifuged at 11000×g for 20 min at 20°C. The precipitate (fibers and proteins) was dispersed in distilled water (5 mL) and pH adjustment to 9 (NaOH 1 mol/L), stirred for 1 h, centrifuged at 11000×g for 20 min at 20°C. Supernatants were submitted to isoelectric precipitation (pH 4.5/ HCl 1 mol/L), resting overnight, and centrifuged at 11000×g for 20 min at 4°C. This procedure was done twice to optimize phenolic extraction. Decanted sunflower isolate protein were centrifuged at 11000×g for 20 min at 4°C and lyophilized.

2. 1. 1 Preparation of sunflower hydrolysates with alcalase

Sunflower protein isolate (SFPi) was hydrolysate according to Dabbour *et al.* (2018). Briefly, sample was diluted to 5% in water and sonicated (37 kHz – Unique ultrasonic cleaner / 8000) at 50°C, pH 9.0 for 20 min. Hydrolysis was carried out by addition of Alcalase® (0.3 U/g protein) at pH 9.0 for 90 min at 50°C; reaction was stopped by pH reduction to 5. Hydrolysates were fractioned by ultrafiltration (<5kDa) and filtered and retained fractions were freezedried. The alcalase concentration was corrected by its enzymatic activity measured by (CASTRO; SATO, 2013) with azocasein as substrate. The degree of hydrolysis (DH) was determined according to Adler-Nissen (1986), with pH-stat employing the following equation:

$$DH (\%) = \frac{BNb}{\alpha Mp_{total}} \times 100$$

Where: DH= degree of hydrolysis; B= volume of consumed base (mL); Nb= normality of the base; α= average degree of dissociation; Mp= mass of protein; ht_{total}= total peptide bond content (mmol/g).

2. 2 Caco-2 cell culture

Human adenocarcinoma cells derived from human intestinal epithelium (Caco-2) were obtained by Cells Bank in Rio de Janeiro (code 0059) and donated from Dr. Juliana Alves Macedo Laboratory. These cells were seeded in 25 cm² flasks and cultured in DMEM containing 10% fetal bovine serum, 1% Penicillin/streptomycin, 8.4mM Hepes, 1% sodium pyruvate, 1% non-essential amino acids and 1% L-glutamine under 5% CO₂ and 37°C condition. Medium was change every 2 days. The exponentially growing cells were trypsinized and seeded

in 24-well plates (with a cell density of 10×10^4 cells/well) or 96-well plates (2×10^4 cells/well) depending on the type of treatment adopted.

2. 2. 1 Treatment

Caco-2 cells were submitted to a pretreatment with or without sunflower hydrolysate for 1h, followed by stimulation in the presence or absence of hydrogen peroxide H_2O_2 (1 mM) for 3h. For this evaluation, the following concentration curve of peptide hydrolysates were adopted: 0.6; 0,3 and 0,015 mg/mL.

2. 3 Assessment of cell viability by MTT

The effect of the metabolic activity of cell internalization of 3-(4,5-dimethylthiazol-2yl)-2,5-diphenyl tetrazoline bromide or MTT (M5655, Sigma-Aldrich St. Louis, MO, USA) was investigated. The dissolution of the crystals, resulting in the conversion of MTT into insoluble purple crystalline formazan, was measured by reading the absorbance in a microplate reader (Varioskan Lux, Thermo Fisher, Singapore) at wavelengths of 560 and 650 nm, respectively (LEITE, et al., 2009). cell internalization of 3-(4,5-dimethylthiazol-2yl)-2,5-diphenyl tetrazoline bromide or MTT (M5655, Sigma-Aldrich St. Louis, MO, USA), which results in the dissolution of the crystals.

2. 3 Evaluation of reactive oxygen species by DCF

The formation of DCFH from the action of intracellular esterases was assessed after the entry of A 2',7'-Dichlorofluorescein or DCF-DA (D6883, Sigma Aldrich, St. Louis, USA), by passive diffusion (WAN et al., 2015). The cells were seeded in black 96-well plates (density 2×10^4 cells/well) and treated for 3 hours. In the final 30 minutes of treatment, DCF-DA was incubated at a concentration of 20 μM per well. At the end of 3 hours, the wells were washed with PBS and incubated with 1 mM hydrogen peroxide, which aims to stimulate the oxidation of DCFH to dichlorofluorescein (DCF). Once this was done, the fluorescence was read in kinetic time with readings every 5 minutes for a total time of 1 hour at 37°C (Varioskan Lux, Thermo Fisher, Singapore) at a wavelength of 485 nm excitation and 520 nm emission. The result was expressed as an arbitrary unit of fluorescence per microgram of protein (UF/mg of protein).

2. 4 Nitric oxide production: NO

The production of nitric oxide was evaluated by Griess assay (SOLIMAN; MAZZIO, 1998). After treatment of the cells, the supernatant was collected and incubated for 10 minutes with the same volume of Griess reagent in a transparent 96-well plate under the cover of light at 25°C. Then, the absorbance was read at a wavelength of 550 nm in a microplate reader (Varioskan Lux, Thermo Fisher, Singapore). For the standard curve, sodium nitrite (1 mM NaNO₂) (N1015.01.AG, Synth, São Paulo, Brazil) is used at the following points: 40; 20; 10; 5; 2.5 and 1.25 µM/mL. Data were expressed as nM nitrite/mg protein/h.

2. 5 Determination of glutathione content: GSH

Reduced glutathione content was determined as previously described (BROWNE; ARMSTRONG, 1998) with fluorogenic assay. Briefly, samples were homogenized in sodium phosphate buffer (0.1 M, pH 8.0) containing 5 mM EDTA. Proteins were precipitated with 1.7% acid meta-phosphoric and centrifuged at 1000xg for 10 min at 4°C. The supernatant is incubated with o-phthaldialdehyde (1 mg/mL methanol) at room temperature for 15 min. Fluorescence is measured using excitation and emission wavelengths of 350 and 420 nm, respectively. A calibration curve is employed using standard GSH solutions (G-6529, Sigma Aldrich, St. Louis, USA) (0-500 µM). Readings were discounted from the blank and the result expressed as µmolGSH/mg protein.

2. 5. 1 Soluble protein content: Lowry

The quantification of soluble proteins used in cell culture was quantified according to the Lowry method (PETERSON, 1979). Bovine albumin (1 mg/mL) (A4503, Sigma Aldrich, St. Louis, USA) were used as standard at concentrations of 0; 2; 5; 10; 15; 20; 25; 30; 35 and 40 mL/mL. The amount of protein was expressed in µg/µL.

2.6 SOD activity

The SOD activity of the previously treated Caco-2 cells was evaluated using the Cayman Chemical kit (*706002) and the instructions according to the manufacturer were followed. The intracellular content of SOD was obtained by lysis each well (24 well plates) in 300 µl of kit indicated solution.

2. 7 CAT activity

Measure the CAT activities in each sample with Cayman Chemical kit (*707002). The assay principle is based on the reaction of catalase to decompose hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2). The excess H_2O_2 can form complexation with ammonium molybdate to produce light yellow solution. The solution's adsorption at 450 nm can be used to calculate the concentration of H_2O_2 and therefore to indirectly indicate the CAT activities.

2. 8 Antimicrobial activity

The antimicrobial activity of the sunflower fraction SPHf was analyzed against the following bacteria *Salmonella Enteretidis* ATCC 13076; *Escherichia coli* ATCC 25922; *Bacillus Cereus* ATCC 14575 and *Staphylococcus aureus* ATCC 1901. The bacteria were incubated at 37°C for 24h in brain heart infusion (BHI) culture medium. For the analyses, the cell suspensions were centrifuged, and the pellet was washed three times with saline solution (0.85%). Subsequently, the suspensions were diluted to 10^5 CFU/mL using BHI medium. The value for the lowest inhibitory concentration (MIC) was calculated in triplicate using 96-well cell culture microplates, where each well contained 100 μ L of culture medium previously inoculated with each bacterium. Based on the quantity of samples available, dilutions of 30 mg/mL (initial test) and 140 mg/mL (control sample only) were prepared. Serial dilutions were then prepared and 100 μ L of each were transferred to each well. The plates were incubated at 37°C for 24h. The MIC was defined as the lowest concentration of each sample capable of inhibiting microbial growth and was expressed as mg/mL.

2. 9 LC/MS/MS analysis (Nano-coupled liquid chromatography QExactive mass)

In this study, the SPHf sample was analyzed. SPHf was resuspended in water with 0.1% formic acid and its protein content quantified using the Qubit Protein Assay method. Chromatography was then carried out on a PicoChip source (model 1PCH-550; ReproSil Pur C18 silica matrix of 75 μ m and 3 μ m; New Objective, USA) at a continuous flow rate of 0.300 μ l/min. 1 g of sample was injected into an Acclaim PepMap 100 trap (75 μ m ID, C18 3 μ m; Thermo Fisher Scientific). Sample separation took place in a gradient of 2-40% mobile phase B for 120 minutes, followed by 10 minutes in 80% mobile phase B and re-equilibration of the column for 10 minutes in 2% mobile phase B. The mobile phases of the chromatography

included: mobile phase A water/0.1% formic acid and phase B acetonitrile/0.1% formic acid. The mass spectra were acquired on a QExactive mass spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific) using the DDA method (data-dependent acquisition, Full MS/MS) with selection of the 10 best counts. The search for the precursor ion was carried out at 300-1,750 m/z with a resolution of 70,000. An isolation window of 2 m/z was selected, with collision energy NCE 15 and 30, followed by MS/MS acquisition at 17,500 resolutions. The automatic gain control (AGC) target was 1 and 4 and the maximum injection time was 100 ms. Loads 1 and greater than 5 were excluded. A dynamic exclusion time of 30 s was used. The samples were analyzed in duplicate. The spectra were analyzed with PatternLab for Proteomics (CARVALHO *et al.*, 2015) using the *Helianthus annuus* database from the UNIPROT database (<https://www.uniprot.org>). The search for peptide sequences was carried out using the NOVOR software (MA, 2015) (available at <https://novor.cloud/>), using predefined definitions and the *Helianthus annuus* data base as a reference. The percentage of amino acids in the N- and C-terminal regions, molecular size, isoelectric pH, number, and sequence of AA were analyzed using the Peptide property calculator software (<https://pepcalc.com/>). The percentage of hydrophobicity, acidic, basic, and neutral AA were analyzed using the Peptide 2.0 software (https://www.peptide2.com/N_peptide_hydrophobicity_hydrophilicity.php).

2.10 Statistical analyses

Statistical analysis was performed using SPSS 16.0 software (SPSS Inc., Chicago IL). An ANOVA was performed followed by Duncan's post-test to assess differences between groups. The mean \pm standard error was used to represent the data from each in vitro experiment, which was repeated at least five times. Statistical significance was determined with $p < 0.05$.

3 Results and discussion

3. 1 Protein hydrolysis

In preliminary studies by our research group (manuscript submitted under evaluation), a protein isolate was obtained with 92% protein and with a 95% reduction in its phenolic content (488 to 26 mg of gallic acid/100g). In addition, was obtained a hydrolyzed fraction with alcalase, ultrafiltrate with <5 kDa membrane,

forming the sunflower protein hydrolysate fraction (SPHf). A degree of hydrolysis (DH) of $30.3 \pm 2.6\%$ was recorded.

3. 2 Treatment with protein hydrolysates on Caco-2 cells

The antioxidant capacity of sunflower peptides with low phenolic content, was evaluated in Caco-2 cell cultures under oxidative stimulation with hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2).

To assess the best treatment concentration for the sunflower peptide and avoid cytotoxicity, SPHf was tested at 0.15, 0.3 and 0.6 mg/mL with and without peroxide stimulation. Figure 1A shows the cell viability test with MTT, showing a trend towards reduced cell viability at the highest concentrations (0.3 and 0.6 mg/mL) in the treatments with the oxidative stimulus. Therefore, the dose of 0.15 mg/mL was used for the next analyses. Figure 1B shows that stimulation with H_2O_2 (1 mM) induced an increase in the production of reactive oxygen species (ROS). However, this induction was avoided in the treatment with SPHf and H_2O_2 (1 mM). This result indicated that SPHf had an antioxidant action on oxidized Caco-2 cells. It is believed that SPHf may have acted in parallel in the donation of electrons to free radicals and protection of antioxidant endogenous molecules to the cell (Figure 2A and C). (CORROCHANO *et al.*, 2019; TONOLO *et al.*, 2024).

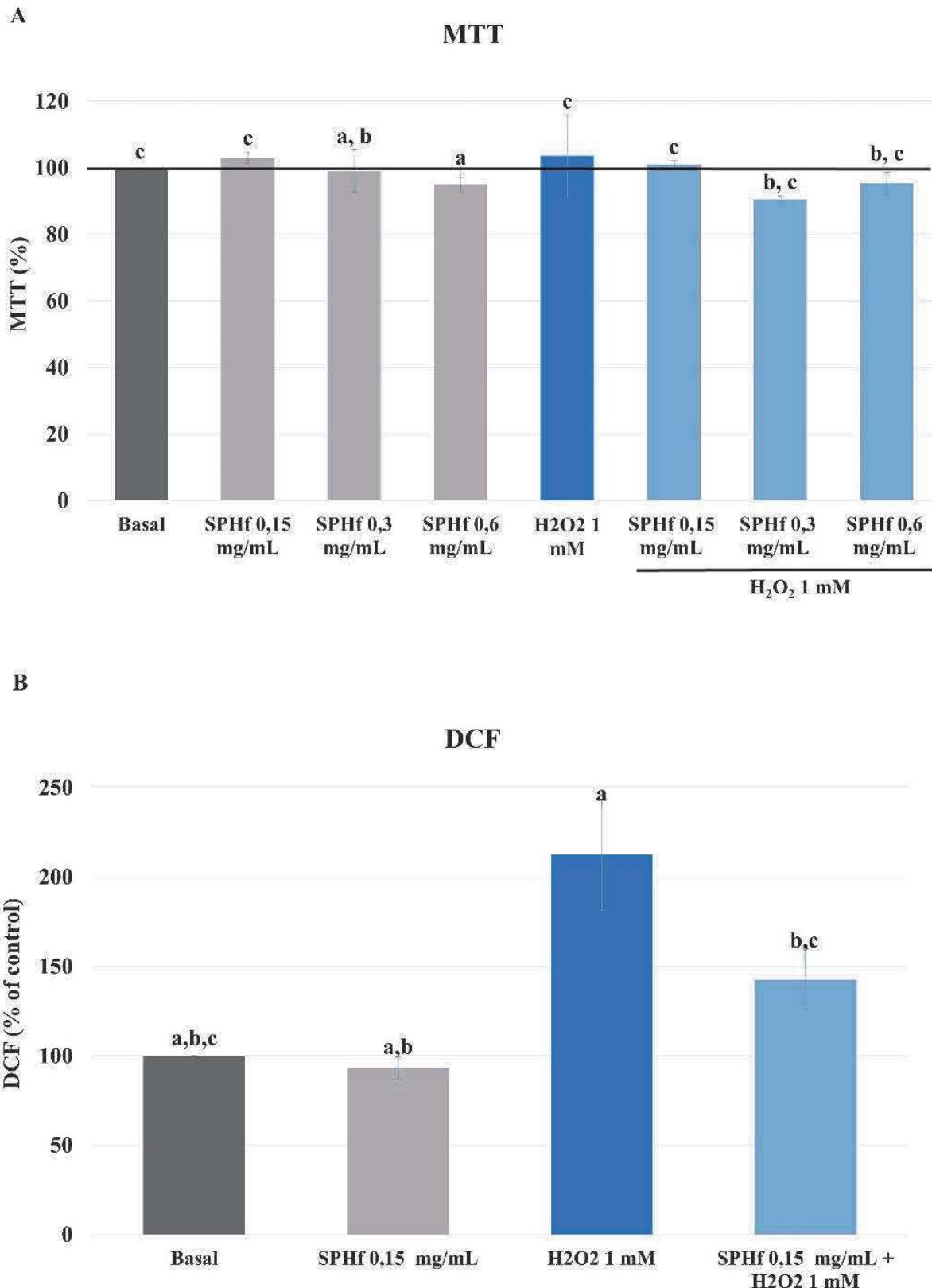


Figure 1. SPHf prevents ROS production in Caco-2 cells stimulated with peroxide. A: The viability of the cells was tested with different concentration of SPHF with and without H₂O₂ for 3 h. B: The lowest concentration of SPHf attenuate the production of ROS stimulated by peroxide in Caco-2 cells.

3. 2 Activity of antioxidant endogenous enzymes

Superoxide dismutase (SOD), catalase (CAT) and glutathione peroxidase (GPx) are endogenous enzymes that represent the first line of cellular antioxidant defense, especially in relation to the superoxide anion radical (O_2^-). SPHf was able to modulate these compounds as observed in Figure 2. Sunflower hydrolysate was able to reverse the increase in GSH content and CAT activity induced by the H_2O_2 stimulus (Fig 2A and C). Although not significant, the same profile was observed with SOD activity. An increase in the content and activity of antioxidant compounds induced by H_2O_2 can be interpreted as an attempt by the cell to combat the oxidative stress generated by the oxidant. However, in the presence of sunflower hydrolysates, this increase was prevented by the effect of the peptides themselves and their ability to donate electrons to free radicals. No change was observed in the secretion of nitric oxide by Caco-2 cells (Fig 2D).

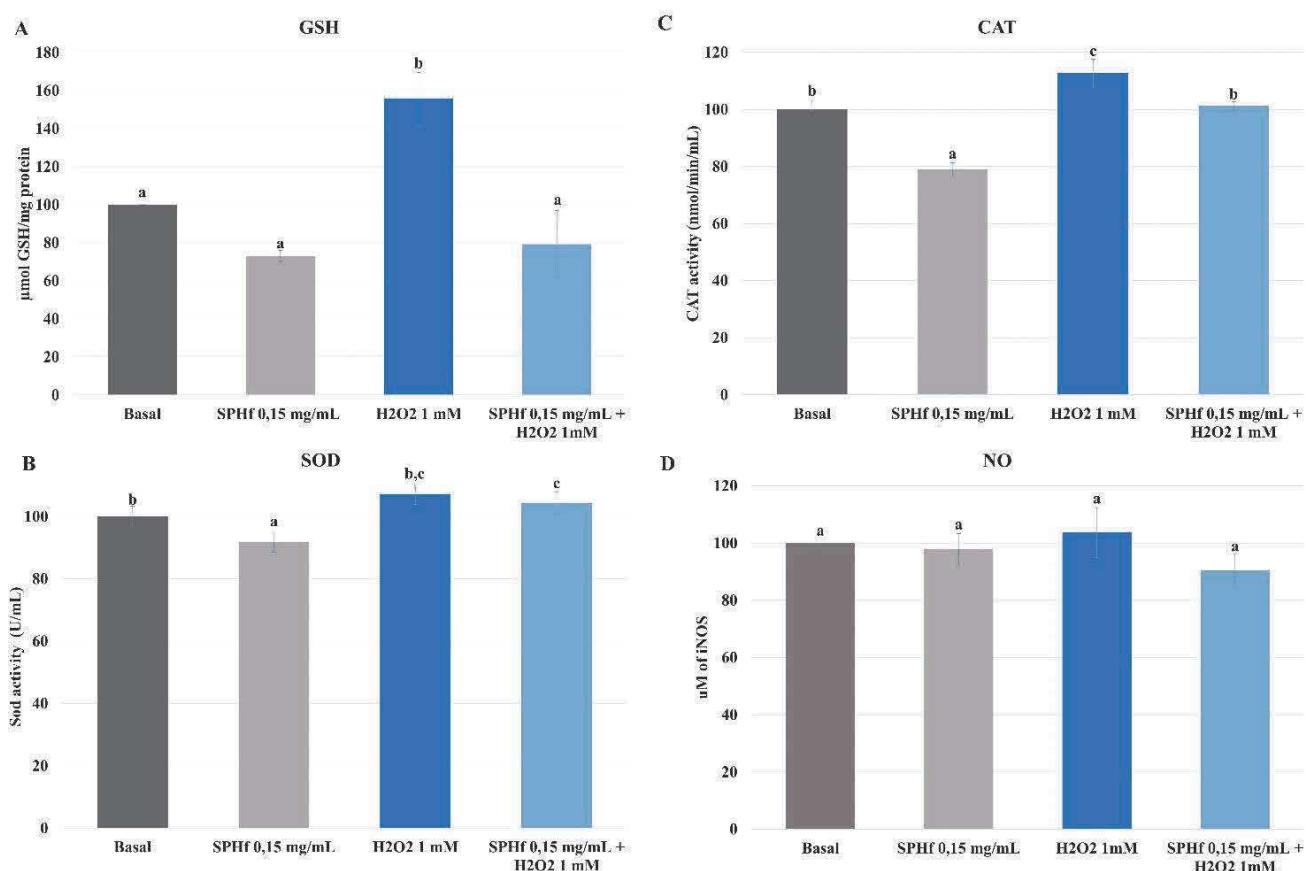


Figure. 2. SPHf modulate GSH and CAT increase after peroxide stimulus. A: GSH content; B: SOD activity, C: CAT activity; D: NO secretion after treatment in 3h with SPHf and hydrogen peroxide

In the literature, there are several studies that evaluated antioxidant activity of sunflower protein hydrolysates using chemical models (ABTS, DPPH and ORAC). In the study by Tonolo *et al.* (2024), sunflower protein hydrolysates obtained by (simulated) gastrointestinal hydrolysis were able to reduce the levels of NF-κB (pro-inflammatory gene) in the cytosol of Caco-2 cells. In addition, inhibition of NRF2 (signaling molecule for the antioxidant response) was also not observed. Finally, antioxidant activity by molecules endogenous to the cell (GSH, SOD and CAT) was not verified. However, none of them showed bioactivity in Caco-2 cells. Furthermore, few of these analyses reduced the phenolic content in protein hydrolysates which may contribute for antioxidant action (DABBOUR *et al.*, 2019; HABINSHUTI *et al.*, 2019; PRADO *et al.*, 2020; BISINOTTO *et al.*, 2023). Therefore, our study is the first to evaluate the antioxidant bioactivity in Caco-2 cells, with reduced phenolic content, demonstrating that peptide can act as antioxidant agent by itself, with no phenolic interference. Moreover, we pointed out some mechanism of action of peptides showing modulated action in important antioxidant enzymes of Caco-2 metabolism.

3. 3 Peptide identification with mass spectrometry

A total of 189 peptide sequences from the SPHf fraction were identified (Table 1). It was observed that the sequences identified had an average number of peptides per fragment of 10 AA, as well as a molecular weight ranging from 500 - 2000 Da. Lower peptide weight has been associated with better bioactivity than higher. In a study with residual material of olive oil, showed that alcalase hydrolyzed peptides with low molecular weight peptides presented better antioxidant action than long chain peptides (ESTEVE *et al.*, 2015).

The antioxidant potential of the peptide may be associated not only with its low molecular weight, but also with its amino acid composition and sequence. Half of the identified peptides presented hydrophobicity greater than 50%. A possible explanation is the increase exposure of internal hydrophobic amino acids during hydrolysis. High proportion of hydrophobic amino acids has been reported in peptides with high antioxidant activity. The hydrophobicity of amino acids may favor antioxidant protection mainly related to the chemical structure: presence of aromatic rings which serve as scavengers of hydroxyl radicals (ZOU *et al.*, 2016) or as hydrogen atom and electron donors (TAHA *et al.*, 2023; PRADO *et al.*, 2020).

Furthermore, hydrophobic peptides tend to have better penetration of cell plasma membranes.

The properties of amino acids present in the N- and C-terminal regions of the peptides may also be related with antioxidant predictability. A quantitative structure-activity relationship (QSAR) bioinformatic modeling showed that the electronic donating ability of amino acids in the C and N-terminal regions significant influence the antioxidant activity, such as acidic (Glu and Asp) and hydrophobic (Ala, Val, Met, Phe, Leu, Ile, Pro, Trp) amino acids (LI; LI, 2013; ZOU *et al.*, 2016).

Figure 3 show the percentage of amino acid composition in terminal regions. AAs with an incidence above 15 per region were considered to have a high prevalence. In C-terminal regions, there was a prevalence of: Glu (acidic), Ala and Leu (hydrophobic), Gln (neutral) and phe (aromatic). As for the N-terminal region, a high incidence of: Gly, Leu and Val (hydrophobic); Asn and Ser (polar) and Arg (basic) was observed. The presence of aromatic and hydrophobic amino acids in C-terminal regions were associated with metal chelating capacity (CANABADY-ROCHELLE *et al.*, 2015). Val or Leu at the N-terminus favor the interaction of peptides with the cell plasma membrane and protection against the effect of oxidative stress on mammalian epithelial cells, respectively (LI *et al.*, 2011). The presence of the amino acids Asp, Glu, Gly, Lys, and Val in the terminal regions of the amino acid may also be associated with a reduction in the formation of free radicals from the oxidation of fatty acids present in the plasma membrane (TONOLO *et al.*, 2024). In addition, due to the aromatic rings present in their structures, these AA serve as proton donors to free radicals from oxidative reactions arising from enzymatic reactions. Another important factor is that these AA promote an interaction with the cell plasma membrane, favoring their antioxidant protective effect on the cell (ZOU *et al.*, 2016). Furthermore, the amino acid Leu can be transaminated to glutamate and can serve as a substrate for GSH synthesis. Therefore, the incidence of Pro, Val and Leu in the terminal regions of the peptide may favor a reduction in the accumulation of ROS in intestinal cells by preserving the content of GSH (tripeptide composed of glutamate) and the activity of SOD and CAT (ZHAO *et al.*, 2023; TONOLO *et al.*, 2024). Not only hydrophobic AA, but the incidence of acidic amino acids in the terminal region of the peptide can favor antioxidant activity. Our sequences showed a high incidence of the Glu AA ($\pm 12\%$).

Its presence in the C-terminal region of the peptide favors greater donation of electrons to free radicals, as it has an excess of electrons (ZOU *et al.*, 2016).

Table 1. Sunflower peptide sequences identified.

Peptide sequence Identified	Nº AA	Molecular weight (Da)	Iso-electric point (pH)	Hydrophobicity (%)	Acid (%)	Basic (%)	Neutral (%)
SRGDIFPVHQ	10	1115.24	6,38	50	10	10	30
AEKGHLQPN	9	993.08	7,86	34	11	22	33
DNVYAGF	7	784.81	0,76	43	14	0	43
ENIDNPSHA ¹	9	995.99	3,92	34	22	11	33
ENIDNPSHADFNPQ ¹	15	1696.73	3,54	40	20	7	33
LTRDNVYAGF	10	1155.26	6,59	40	10	10	40
NRAPLKSPL	9	995.18	11,39	56	0	22	22
RDNVYAGF	8	941	6,34	38	12,5	12,5	37
TNRAPLKSPL	10	1096.28	11,39	50	0	20	30
TRDNVYAGF	9	1042.1	6,32	34	11	11	44
VVLAYEPVVAIGTGK	15	1602.87	6,77	60	6	6	28
AIIVDDVNNPANQL	14	1495.63	0,54	57	14	0	29
APRLGSPE	8	825.91	6,93	50	12,5	12,5	25
DDVNNPANQL ²	10	1099.11	0,54	40	20	0	40
DVNNPANQL ²	9	984.02	0,69	44	12	0	44
DNQREADVF	9	1093.1	3,54	33	33	12	22
EHKLPILSMLD	12	1408.71	5,17	58	17	17	8
EQVSRGDIFPVHQFF	15	1765.96	3,93	53	13	7	27
LLPSYTNTPLF	12	1378.61	3,64	58	0	0	42
IERGRGIQ	8	928.05	10,69	25	12,5	25	37,5
KGYLQPN	7	818.92	9,55	29	0	14	57
FVTPEDEGQEQM ³	11	1280.36	0,66	36	28	0	36
FVTPEEEQQQM ³	11	1365.47	0,76	36	28	0	36

FVTPEEEQQQM ³	12	1502.61	3,84	33	25	9	33
GDIFPV ^{PQ} ⁴	8	871.98	0,76	62,5	12,5	0	25
GDIFPV ^{PQFF} ⁴	10	1166.32	0,76	70	10	0	20
GDIFPV ^{PQFFA} ⁴	11	1237.4	0,69	73	9	0	18
GDIFPV ^{PQFFAA} ⁴	12	1308.48	0,69	75	8	0	17
GERGMDSADSH	12	1248.24	4,16	17	25	16	42
FLPSFQPFPRL ^L	12	1461.75	10,59	75	0	8	17
SREDAQKV	8	931.99	6,66	25	25	25	25
FREGDIIAIPA	11	1201.37	3,9364	64	18	9	9
HEQQPR	6	793.83	7,57	17	17	33	33
HKLPILSLMDL	11	1279.59	7,56	64	9	18	9
IFPVPQ	6	699.84	3,71	83	0	0	17
IIVDDVNNPA ⁵	10	1069.17	0,54	60	20	0	20
IIVDDVNNPAN ⁵	11	1183.27	0,62	54	18	0	28
IIVDDVNNPANQ ^L ⁵	13	1424.56	0,54	54	15	0	31
KLPILSLMDL	10	1142.45	6,43	70	10	10	10
MEFVTPEEEQQQM ⁶	13	1625.78	0,69	38	31	0	31
MEFVTPEEEQQQM ⁶	14	1762.92	3,67	36	29	7	28
NEQVSRGDIFPV ^{PQ} ⁷	14	1585.72	3,93	43	14	7	36
NEQVSRGDIFPV ^{PQFF} ⁷	16	1880.06	3,93	50	12,5	6,25	31,25
QVSRGDIFPV ^{PQ} ⁸	12	1342.5	6,35	50	8	8	34
QVSRGDIFPV ^{PQFF} ⁸	14	1636.85	6,35	58	7	7	28
RFREGDIIAIPA	12	1357.56	6,64	58	17	17	8
RGDIFPV ^{PQFF} ⁹	11	1322.51	6,35	64	9	9	18
RGDIFPV ^{PQFFAA} ⁹	13	1464.66	6,35	69	8	8	15
RGDIFPV ^{PQFFAA} ⁹	14	1565.77	6,35	64	7	7	22

RGDIFPVHQFFAT ⁹	13	1494.69	6,35	61	7	7	25
PSHADFVNPK	10	1111.16	4,87	50	10	10	30
QIIRPPQQAR	9	1078.27	12,1	56	0	22	22
FREGDMIIIPA	11	1261.49	3,93	64	18	9	9
RLPFDEDRHQ	10	1312.39	5,23	30	30	30	10
HVSVPGDL	9	909.98	4,87	44	12	12	32
GRPQQQF	7	859.93	10,84	28	0	14	58
IERGRGIQ	8	928.05	10,69	25	12,5	25	37,5
AIQSPHWTIN	10	1166.29	7,88	50	0	10	40
DVSRPDFFNPE	11	1322.38	3,54	45	27	10	18
SADRGEILRN	10	1114.17	6,67	30	20	20	30
ALEPIEVIQA	10	1082.25	0,76	70	20	0	10
FAPSFSRGQ	9	996.08	10,59	44	0	12	44
GGRAPGRGW	9	913	12,1	34	0	22	44
LLPSYVNTPLAF	13	1447.72	3,64	70	0	0	30
ALEPNERVEAE	11	1256.32	3,67	46	36	9	9
NALEPIERVQ	10	1168.3	4,15	60	10	10	20
QEGLWDNLRL	9	1130.21	3,93	33	22	11	34
RQGDVV	6	672.73	6,35	33	17	17	33
TEQFEGR	7	865.89	4,15	14	28	14	44
WKAALDEALANAP	13	1369.52	3,93	69	15	8	8
SYPTLPGWIPSPF	13	1461.66	3,42	62	0	0	38
WLPSFQSPFPI	9	1103.31	3,54	89	0	0	11
RQGDIIAIPA	10	1053.21	6,35	60	10	10	20
SLFLPSFQSYPQLL	14	1667.94	9,57	57	0	7	36
TSQPNQRLE	9	1072.13	6,55	22	11	11	56

VDDVNNPANQL ¹⁰	11	1198.24	0,54	46	18	0	36
VIVDDVNNPA ¹⁰	10	1055.14	0,54	60	20	0	20
VIVDDVNNPANQL ¹⁰	13	1410.53	0,54	54	16	0	30
VSRGDIFPVPKQ ¹¹	11	1214.37	6,61	54	9	9	28
VSRGDIFPVPKQ ¹¹	12	1361.54	6,61	58	8	8	26
VSRGDIFPVPKQFF ¹¹	13	1508.72	6,61	61	7	7	25
VSRGDIFPVPKQFF ¹¹	14	1579.79	6,61	64	7	7	22
VSRGDIFPVPKQFF ¹¹	15	1579.79	6,61	64	7	7	22
VSRGDIFPVPKFFAA ¹¹	15	1650.87	6,61	66	7	7	20
VTPEEEQQQM ^H	11	1355.43	3,84	27	27	10	36
VVAIIVDDVNNPANQL	16	1693.9	0,54	62,5	12,5	0	25
YTSQPNQRLE	10	1235.3	6,58	20	10	10	60
AERGELRPN	9	1041.12	7,08	34	22	22	22
GERLPFDED ¹²	9	1077.1	3,43	34	44	11	11
GERLPFDEDHQ ¹²	12	1498.56	4,42	25	33	25	17
HADFVN ^{PQ}	8	926.97	4,87	50	12,5	12,5	25
IDNPSHA ¹³	7	752.77	4,87	44	14	14	28
IDNP ^S HAD ^F VNPQ ¹³	8	867.86	3,71	37,5	25	12,5	25
IDNP ^S HAD ^F VNPQ ¹³	13	1453.51	3,71	46	15	8	31
IIRPPQ	6	722.88	10,85	66	0	17	17
IIRPPQAR	8	950.14	12,1	62,5	0	25	12,5
NIDNPSHAD ^F VNPQ	14	1567.61	3,71	43	14	7	36
NNENQLDEY	9	1138.1	0,62	11	0	33	56
DIPWPF	6	773.87	0,76	83	17	0	0
DMPFDIPWPFRPS	13	1604.83	3,71	69	15	8	8
EIPFDMPFDIPWPFRPS ¹⁴	17	2091.39	3,54	70	18	6	6

FDIPWPFRPS ¹⁴	10	1261.43	6,4	70	10	10	10
FDMPFDIPWPFRPS ¹⁴	14	1752	3,71	72	14	7	7
MPFDIPWPFRPS ¹⁴	12	1489.74	6,39	76	8	8	8
PFDIPWP ¹⁴	8	1018.16	0,76	87,5	12,5	0	0
PFDIPWPFRPS	11	1358.54	7,08	73	9	9	9
FEIPFDMPF	9	1142.32	0,7	78	22	0	0
GGRGGGEGNQDRHQ	15	1580.58	10,59	0	13	27	60
GNSVFDNELRE ¹⁵	11	1279.31	3,69	27	27	10	36
GNSVFDNELREG ¹⁵	12	1336.36	3,69	25	25	8	42
GVDFIRH	7	842.94	7,81	44	14	28	14
HNDGNTEL ¹⁶	8	898.87	3,92	12,5	25	12,5	50
HNDGNTELVV ¹⁶	11	1196.27	3,92	36	18	10	36
SFKFPILEH ¹⁷	8	980.16	6,59	62,5	12,5	12,5	12,5
SFKFPILEHL ¹⁷	10	1230.45	7,54	60	10	20	10
SVFDNELRE ¹⁸	9	1108.16	3,69	33	33	12	22
SVFDNELREG ¹⁸	10	1165.21	3,69	30	30	10	30
IQSPhWTIN	9	1095.21	7,82	44	0	12	44
IVRPPQDR	8	980.12	10,69	50	12,5	25	12,5
KEGDVVAIPT	10	1028.16	3,93	50	20	10	20
KTNDNAMIA	9	977.1	6,43	44	11	11	34
NFAVIK	8	690.83	9,7	66	0	17	17
INDVSRPDFFNPE	13	1549.64	3,54	43	23,5	10	23,5
RALPVDSL	8	882.06	6,35	75	12,5	12,5	0
RAGEQGSRWVSF	12	1379.48	10,39	33	8	17	42
NIDNPSHA	8	866.88	4,87	38	12,5	12,5	37
RLPFDEDRHQKV ²⁴	13	1668.81	5,34	31	31	31	7

AGEDKGLWPF	11	1275.41	6,97	46	18	18	18
DFPDLRINVAF	12	1421.55	3,41	58	26	8	8
QVVRPPIRIQ	10	1205.45	12,1	60	0	20	20
RGFQDR ²⁵	6	777.83	10,39	17	17	33	33
RGFQDRHQKIR ²⁵	11	1440.61	11,84	18	9	46	27
RGLQVVRPPIRIQ	13	1531.85	12,4	54	0	23	23
VERGLQVVRPPIRIQ	15	1760.09	11,8	53	7	20	20
RIQPGLLPSYNTPIL	18	1951.31	9,55	56	0	6	38
ALEPNERVE	9	1056.13	3,85	44	33	11	12
RIQPGLL	7	739.86	10,55	43	0	15	42
RQGDVVAIPT	10	1055.19	6,35	50	10	10	30
NHENQLDEN ¹⁹	9	1112.07	3,69	11	33	12	44
NHENQLDENQRFF ¹⁹	14	1846.91	5,3	21	21	22	36
NIEALEPIEVI	11	1239.41	0,71	64	27	0	9
NLNSFKFPIL ²⁰	10	1192.41	9,7	60	0	10	30
NLNSFKPILE ²⁰	11	1321.52	6,44	54	9	9	28
NLNSFKPILE ²⁰	11	1321.53	6,44	54	9	9	28
NSFKFPIL ²⁰	8	965.14	9,7	62,5	0	12,5	25
NSFKPILE ²⁰	9	1094.26	6,44	55	12	11	22
QIVRPPQDR	9	1108.25	10,39	44	12	22	22
GQVVVIPQNFAVIK	14	1511.81	10,12	64	0	8	28
SMPVDVAN	9	931.07	0,78	67	11	0	22
VVLPQ	6	653.81	3,67	83	0	0	17
QSPDDTRGH	9	1011.99	5,04	12	22	22	44
REGDMIIIPA ²¹	10	1114.32	3,93	60	20	10	10
REGDMIIIPAGA ²¹	12	1242.45	3,93	58	17	8	17

RSGQETPEEGSGN	13	1347.3	3,85	8	23	8	61
SFKLPIHQ	8	945.16	9,86	62,5	0	12,5	25
NDGQEEIVAI	10	1087.14	0,61	40	30	0	30
KDDDLKAY	8	967.03	4,01	25	37,5	25	12,5
SEDKADFR	8	966.99	4,17	25	37,5	25	12,5
GDPAQGDPTQGK	12	1170.19	3,71	25	17	8	50
GLLLPYYPNTPELVY	15	1752.01	0,95	53	7	0	40
LLPYYPNTPTE	10	1206.34	1	50	10	0	40
TGRHGQSQRPGWE	13	1495.56	10,38	15	8	23	54
YTNTPILFF	9	1115.28	3,41	56	0	0	44
GQSQRPGWE	9	1044.08	6,86	22	11	11	56
NSHKLPVLE	9	1036.18	7,39	44	16	16	24
QRQPQSPR ²²	8	996.08	12,1	25	0	25	50
QRQPQSPRLS ²²	10	1196.32	12,1	30	0	20	50
QSQRPGWE	8	987.03	6,58	25	12,5	12,5	50
REEQEWE	7	1005	3,67	14	58	14	14
RSGQTQRPSWE	11	1331.39	10,39	20,5	9	20,5	50
SPGSGSISPIK	11	1029.15	9,86	38	0	8	54
SQRPGWESQRPGWETG	16	1857.94	6,75	25	12,5	12,5	50
TGRPGQSRPSWE	13	1485.56	10,38	23	8	15	54
TQRPSWE	7	902.95	6,55	29	14	14	43
NIDDPSENADLYNPQ	14	1575.59	0,53	36	21	0	43
NNGQDELVII	10	1114.21	0,66	40	20	0	40
TDRHQKIH	8	1034.13	9,81	12,5	12,5	50	25
GLLLPSYTNTPILF ²³	14	1548.82	3,64	57	0	0	43
GLLLPSYTNTPILFY ²³	15	1711.99	3,57	53	0	0	47

GWDNILRGF	9	1077.19	6,64	44	11	11	34
RGENDQRGHIIF	12	1441.55	7,52	25	17	25	33
QQETPEEGSGN	11	1104.04	0,76	9	27	0	64
NEGDVVAIPT	10	1014.09	0,69	50	20	0	30
RIQPGGLLPSYVNTPILAF ²⁴	20	2169.56	9,55	60	0	5	35
ADRGEELRPN	9	1027.09	7	34	22	22	22
FFDSDGDQQFQ	10	1218.23	0,61	30	20	0	50
KLPLLQ	6	710.9	9,91	66	0	17	17
VVRPPIRIQ	9	1077.32	12,1	67	0	22	11
YGPGGGGGGGRK	12	1019.07	10,41	67	0	22	11

Source: Lopes *et al.* (2024) Adapted. A = Ala; C = Cys; D = Asp; E = Glu; F = Phe; G = Gly; H = His; I = Ile; K = Lys; L = Leu; M = Met; N = Asn; P = Pro; Q = Gln; R = Arg; S = Ser; T = Tre; V = Val; W = Thr; Y = Tyr. Subscript numbers represent homologous peptides sequences.

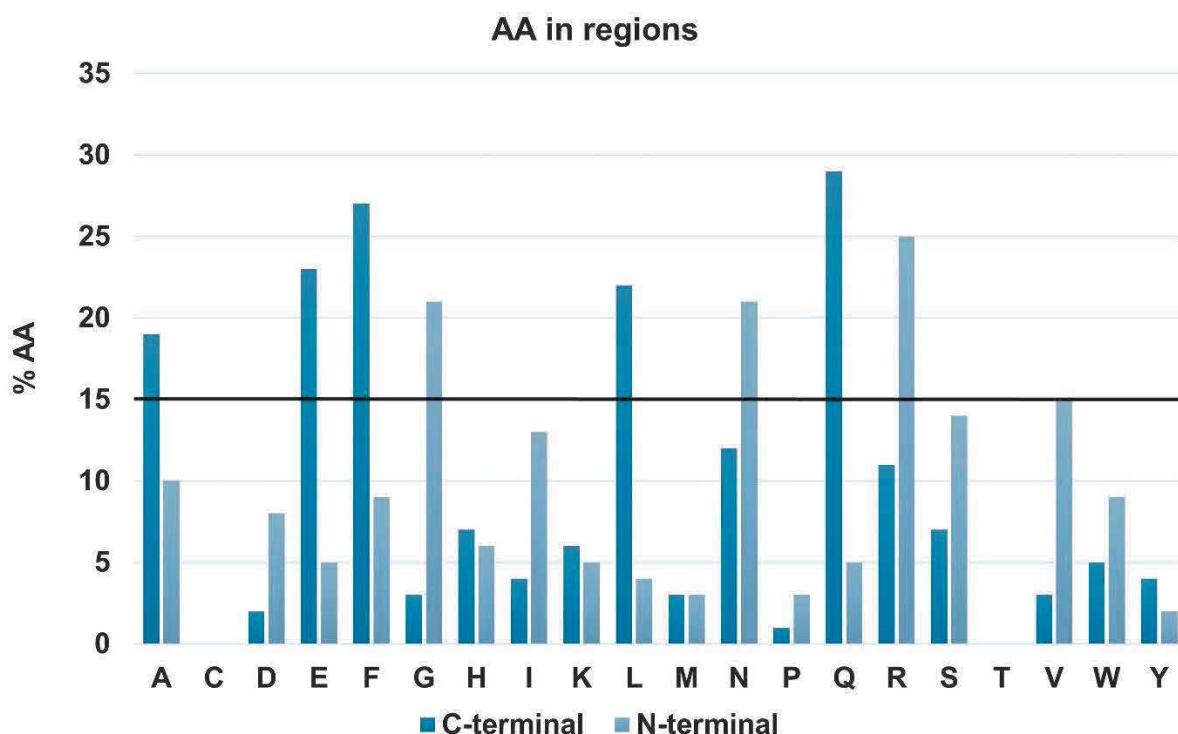


Figure 3. Composition AA% in terminal regions. Abbreviations includes: AA: amino acid; A = Ala; C = Cys; D = Asp; E = Glu; F = Phe; G = Gly; H = His; I = Ile; K = Lys; L = Leu; M = Met; N = Asn; P = Pro; Q = Gln; R = Arg; S = Ser; T = Thr; V = Val; W = Tpr; Y = Tyr.

3. 3 Potential antimicrobial action

In terms of antimicrobial activity, no concentration of SPHf was able to inhibit the growth of the microorganisms evaluated. We did not find a minimum concentration of sunflower peptide with antimicrobial activity against pathogenic microorganisms.

In opposite with our results, the literature presents studies attesting to the antimicrobial activity of sunflower protein hydrolysates (HABINSHUTI *et al.*, 2019; SALGADO *et al.*, 2013), but most of them did not remove phenolic content from the sample. Therefore, our negative results may be related to the lack of phenolic compounds in the sample. In fact, in studies evaluating the action of sunflower phenolic strata, the bactericidal/bacteriostatic effect was observed (ALEXANDRINO *et al.*, 2021; SUBASHINI *et al.*, 2012; MENZEL *et al.*, 2019). Nevertheless, the study by Taha *et al.* (2013) verified that sunflower protein hydrolysates with reduced phenolic content presented antimicrobial activity in *Bacillus cereus* over four other

pathological bacteria tested. This result may suggest that sunflower peptides, when isolated from phenolic compounds, may have a weaker effect than with both compounds together.

4 Conclusion

Regarding Caco-2 cell cultures under oxidative stimulation with hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2): the concentration of 0,15 mg/mL of SPHf was not considered toxic and prevent ROS production in Caco-2 cells. Sunflower hydrolysate was able to reverse the increase in GSH content and CAT activity induced by the stimulus of H_2O_2 . Although not significant, the same profile was observed with SOD activity. No change was observed in the secretion of nitric oxide. SPHf was unable to inhibit the microbial growth of pathogens. It is believed that this is related to the absence of phenolic compounds in the sample. A total of 189 peptide sequences from the SPHf fraction were identified. The identified sequences had an average number of 10 amino acid per peptide, as well as a low molecular weight ranging from 500 - 2000 Da. Half of peptide presented hydrophobic property. Furthermore, the analysis in the C and N-terminal regions showed higher incidence of hydrophobic and acid amino acids. These structure characteristics may influence the capacity of compounds to act as an electron donor to antioxidant bioactivity. This study provides new insight about sunflower peptides mechanism of action in enterocyte cells, and associate important structure relation properties. Further studies in this area may contribute to better understand the potential application of sunflower peptide in functional food.

Acknowledgment

This work was financially supported by FAPESP (grant 2019/01896-4 and 2018/12546-1). Daniel Saraiva acknowledges FAPESP for the fellowship (process 2022/01204-8).

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare there was no conflict of interest to declare.

5 References

- ADLER-NISSEN, J. **Enzymic hydrolysis of food proteins**, New York: Elsevier Applies Science Publishers, 1986.
- AGYEI, D, *et al*. Bioprocess challenges to the isolation and purification of bioactive peptides, **Food and Bioproducts Processing**, 98, 244–256, 2016, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fbp.2016.02.003>.
- AHMADINEJAD *et al*, Molecular Mechanisms behind Free Radical Scavengers Function against Oxidative Stress. **Antioxidants**, v, 6, n, 51, 2017, <https://doi.org/10.3390/antiox6030051>.
- ALEXANDER, B. D. *et al*. Reference method for broth dilution antifungal susceptibility testing of yeasts. **Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute**. M27–M33, 2017.
- ALEXANDRINO, T, D, *et al*, Evaluation of some in vitro bioactivities of sunflower phenolic compounds. **Current Research in Food Science**, 4, 662–669, 2021, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.crefs.2021.09.007>.
- BISINOTTO, M, S, *et al*, Sunflower and Palm Kernel Meal Present Bioaccessible Compounds after Digestion with Antioxidant Activity. **Foods**, 12(17), 3283, 2023, <https://doi.org/10.3390/foods12173283>.
- BROWNE, R. W.; ARMSTRONG, D, Reduced Glutathione and Glutathione Disulfide. **Methods in molecular biology (Clifton, N.J.)**, v, 108, p, 347–352, 1998.
- CASTRO, R. J. S.; SATO, H. H. Synergistic effects of agroindustrial wastes on simultaneous production of protease and α-amylase under solid state fermentation using a simplex centroid mixture design. **Ind. Crops Prod**, 49, 813–821. 2023. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.indcrop.2013.07.002>.
- CANABADY-ROCHELLE, L. L. S. *et al*. Determination of reducing power and metal chelating ability of antioxidant peptides: Revisited methods. **Food Chem**, 183, 129–135. 2015. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2015.02.147>.

CORROCHANO, A. R., *et al.* Comparison of antioxidant activities of bovine whey proteins before and after simulated gastrointestinal digestion. **Journal of Dairy Science**, 102(1), 54–67. 2019. <https://doi.org/10.3168/jds.2018-14581>.

DABBOUR, M. *et al.* activities of sunflower protein hydrolysates treated with dual-frequency ultrasonic: Optimization study. **Journal of Food Process Engineering**, 42(5), 2019. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jfpe.13084>.

DABBOUR, M. *et al.* Optimization of ultrasound assisted extraction of protein from sunflower meal and its physicochemical and functional properties. **Journal of Food Process Engineering**, 41(5), e12799, 2018. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jfpe.12799>.

ESTEVE, C. *et al.* Novel strategy for the revalorization of olive (*Olea europaea*) residues based on the extraction of bioactive peptides. **Food Chem.** 167, 272–280. 2015. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2014.06.090>

HABINSHUTI, I. *et al.* Antimicrobial, antioxidant and sensory properties of Maillard reaction products (MRPs) derived from sunflower, soybean and corn meal hydrolysates. **LWT**, 101, 694–702, 2019. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lwt.2018.11.083>.

LEITE, *et al.* Gap junction inhibitors modulate S100B secretion in astrocyte cultures and acute hippocampal slices. **J, Neurosci, Res**, 87, 2009. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jnr.22083>.

LI, Y. W.; LI, B. Characterization of structure-antioxidant activity relationship of peptides in free radical systems using QSAR models: Key sequence positions and their amino acid properties. **J. Theor. Biol.** 318, 29–43. 2013. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jtbi.2012.10.029>

MA. Novor: Real-time peptide de novo sequencing software. **Journal of the American Society for Mass Spectrometry**, 26(11), 1885–1894. 2015. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13361-015-1204-0>

MENZEL, C. *et al.* Antioxidant starch films containing sunflower hull extracts. **Carbohydrate Polymers**, 214, 142–151, 2019. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.carbpol.2019.03.022>.

PETERSON, G. L. Review of the folin phenol protein quantitation method of lowry, rosebrough, farr and randall. **Analytical Biochemistry**, v, 100, n, 2, p, 201–220, 1 dez, 1979. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0003-2697\(79\)90222-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/0003-2697(79)90222-7).

PRADO, D. M. F. et al. Extraction of Bioactive Proteins from Seeds (Corn, Sorghum, and Sunflower) and Sunflower Byproduct: Enzymatic Hydrolysis and Antioxidant Properties. **Current Nutrition & Food Science**, 17(3), 310–320, 2021. <https://doi.org/10.2174/1573401316999200731005803>.

SALGADO, P. R. et al. Sunflower protein concentrates and isolates prepared from oil cakes have high water solubility and antioxidant capacity. **JAOCS, Journal of the American Oil Chemists' Society**, 88(3), 351–360, 2010. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11746-010-1673-z>.

SALGADO, P. R. et al. Sunflower protein films incorporated with clove essential oil have potential application for the preservation of fish patties. **Food Hydrocolloids**, 33(1), 74–84, 2013. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodhyd.2013.02.008>.

SOLIMAN, K. F.; MAZZIO, E. A. *In vitro* Attenuation of Nitric Oxide Production in C6 Astrocyte Cell Culture by Various Dietary Compounds. **Experimental Biology and Medicine**, v, 218, p, 390–397, 1998.

SUBASHINI, R.; RAKSHITHA, S. U. Chemical Science Review and Letters Phytochemical Screening, Antimicrobial Activity and In Vitro Antioxidant Investigation of Methanolic Extract of Seeds from *Helianthus annuus L.* **Che Sci Rev Lett**, (1), 30–34, 2012.

https://d1wqxts1xzle7.cloudfront.net/35823044/cs14204206-libre.pdf?1417684849=&response-content-disposition=inline%3B+filename%3DChemical_Science_Review_and_Letters_Physics.pdf&Expires=1704206752&Signature=f6bW6WxUwR0Zb5uVCXDHBkr7FZ7qdaxqyns-ejJKsBS0GxHXLwtDc04a2nM4uWi-eCmrGjRZJYYNEIEJJoM5PPOM7AfGz1btnF-Tenht~c51sbaKkLk4HzSEb6um2C4dkQJjHUwKNOA08LR6r9MB3hPjlz9epBQthQUAh4XOzQUw51i0CGUGF4MOWE7D8KzOUvzhIG0hkJMY950euFbxYDQ7GBsp-tU-

a59OtcBh6gBHLGolj4bW99nEGO4Q3YnTWt0ygUwvkWMPNAftWwUnAhbYhFnu
uDqBZbugriWoCMkL62PsOOU5wNhVskBRUNzjlvJNPx~ztuwYIBYleSTOLg__&K
ey-Pair-Id=APKAJLOHF5GGSLRBV4ZA.

TAHA, *et al.* Antioxidant and Antimicrobial Activities of Enzymatic Hydrolysis Products from Sunflower Protein Isolate. **World Applied Sciences Journal**, 21 (5): 651-658, 2013. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5829/idosi.wasj.2013.21.5.2879>

TONON, R. V. *et al.* Coupling of ultrafiltration and enzymatic hydrolysis aiming at valorizing shrimp wastewater. **Food chemistry**, v, 198, p, 20-27, 2016. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2015.11.094>.

WAN, *et al.* A Caco-2 cell-based quantitative antioxidant activity assay for antioxidants. **Food Chemistry**, 175, 601–608, 2015. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2014.11.128>.

ZOU, T.-B. *et al.* The Structure-Activity Relationship of the Antioxidant Peptides from Natural Proteins. **Molecules**, 21(1), 72. 2016. <https://doi.org/10.3390/molecules21010072>.

ZHAO, J. *et al.* Dietary leucine improves fish intestinal barrier function by increasing humoral immunity, antioxidant capacity, and tight junction. **International Journal of Molecular Sciences**, 24(5). 2023. <https://doi.org/10.3390/IJMS24054716/S1>.

CONCLUSÕES

A atividade antioxidante da fração SPHf foi mantida após digestão simulada. Dos 196 peptídeos identificados, 13 apresentaram propriedades antioxidantes previstas utilizando a ferramenta de análise de aprendizagem profunda. Além disso, vários peptídeos continham di- e tri-peptídeos com atividade antioxidante na sua estrutura, com referências cruzadas em bases de dados alimentares. A atividade antioxidante e antimicrobiana dos hidrolisados foi avaliada em linhagem de células Caco-2 estimuladas por peróxido: avaliação da viabilidade celular, produção de espécies reativas de oxigénio, produção de óxido nítrico, teor de glutatona e atividade das enzimas superóxido dismutase e catalase. O SPHf não interferiu na viabilidade celular e protegeu/preveniu as células estimuladas com H₂O₂. O hidrolisado de girassol foi capaz de reverter o aumento do teor de GSH e da atividade da CAT induzido pelo estímulo de H₂O₂. Embora não significativo, o mesmo perfil foi observado com a atividade da SOD. Em ralação as sequências totais da fração SPHf identificadas, houve um número médio de 10 aminoácidos por peptídeo, bem como um baixo peso molecular variando de 500 - 2000 Da. Metade dos peptídeos identificados apresentaram propriedades hidrofóbica. Além disso, a análise nas regiões C e N-terminal mostrou maior incidência de aminoácidos hidrofóbicos e ácidos. Essas características estruturais podem influenciar a capacidade dos compostos de atuarem como doadores de elétrons para a bioatividade antioxidante. Em resumo, o efeito como agente antioxidante dos peptídeos bioativos do girassol com baixo teor fenólico foi atestado, demonstrando que podem ser utilizados como ingredientes na produção de alimentos.

ANEXOS

Supplementary material

Table 1. Peptide sequence identified in sunflower protein hydrolysates with alcalase (SPHf) and digested.

Protein Origin	Peptide sequence identified		
11-S globulin (73%)	SRGDIFPVPQ	RQGDIIAIPA	NHENQLDEN ¹⁹
	AEKGHLQPN	SLFLPSFQSYPRL	NHENQLDENQR RFF ¹⁹
	DNVYAGF	TSQPNQRLE	NIEALEPIEVI
	ENIDNPSHA ¹	VDDVNNPANQL ¹⁰	NLNSFKFPIL ²⁰
	ENIDNPSHADF VNPQ ¹	VIVDDVNNPA ¹⁰	NLNSFKFPILE ²⁰
	LTRDNVYAGF	VIVDDVNNPANQL ¹⁰	NLNSFKFPILE ²⁰
	NRAPLKSPL	VSRGDIFPVPQ ¹¹	NSFKFPIL ²⁰
	RDNVYAGF	VSRGDIFPVPQF ¹¹	NSFKFPILE ²⁰
	TNRAPLKSPL	VSRGDIFPVPQFF ¹¹	QIVRPPQDR
	TRDNVYAGF	VSRGDIFPVPQFFA ¹ ₁	GQVVVIPQNFAV IK
	VVLAYEPVWAI GTGK	VSRGDIFPVPQFFA ¹ ₁	SMPVDVVAN
	AIVDDVNNPAN QL	VSRGDIFPVPQFFA A ¹¹	VVLPQ
	APRLGSPE	VTPEEEQQQM	QSPDDTRGH
	DDVNNPANQL ²	VVAIIVDDVNNPANQ L	REGDMIIIPA ²¹
	DVNNPANQL ²	YTSQPNQRLE	REGDMIIIPAGA ²¹
	DNQREADVF	AERGEELRP	RSGQETPEEGS GN
	EHKLPILSLMDL	GERLPFDED ¹²	SFKLPILQ
	EQVSRGDIFP V PQFF	GERLPFDEDRHQ ¹²	NDGQEEIVAI
	LLPSYTNTPLF	HADFVNPK	KDDDLKAY
	IERGRGIQ*	IDNPSHA ¹³	SEDKADFR
	KGYLQPN	IDNPSHAD ¹³	GDPAQGDPTQG K
	FVTPEGQE M ³	IDNPSHADFVNPK ¹³	GLLLPYYPNTPE LVY
	FVTPEEEQQQ M ³	IIRPPQ*	LLPYYPNTPE
	FVTPEEEQQQ	IIRPPQAR	TGRHGQSQRPG

MH ³		WE
GDI FP VPQ ⁴	NIDN PSHAD FVN P Q	YTNT PIL FF
GDI FP VPQ FF ⁴	NNEN QLDE Y	GQS Q RPG WE
GDI FP VPQ FF A ⁴	DIP WPF	NSH KLP VLE
GDI FP VPQ FF A ⁴	DMP FDIP WPFR PS	QRQP QSPR ²²
GER GM DSS AD SH	EIP FD MPF DIP WP F RPS ¹⁴	QRQP QSPRL S ²²
F LPS F QPFP RLL	F DIP WPFR PS ¹⁴	QS Q RPG WE
SRE DAQ KV	F DMP FDIP WPFR PS ₁₄	REE QEWE
F REG DIIA IPA	M PF DIP WPFR PS ¹⁴	R SG QT QRPS WE
H EQ QP R	P F DIP WP F ¹⁴	S PG SG SIS PIK
H KLP ILS LMD L	P F DIP WPFR PS	S Q RPG WES QRP GWET G
I FP VPQ	F EIP FD MPF	T GRPG Q SQRPS WE
IIV DDV NNPA ⁵	GGRR GGEG NQD RH Q	T QRPS WE
IIV DDV NNPA N ⁵	G NS VFD NEL RE ¹⁵	N IDDPS NAD LY N PQ
IIV DDV NNPA N ⁵ L ⁵	G NS VFD NEL REG ¹⁵	N NGQ DEL VII
K LP ILS LMD L	G VDF FIR H	T DRHQ KI H
ME FVT PEE EQ Q QM ⁶	H NDG NTEL ¹⁶	G LLL P SYT NT P IL F ²³
ME FVT PEE EQ Q QM H ⁶	H NDG NTEL VVV ¹⁶	G LLL P SYT NT P IL FY ²³
NE QV SRG DI FP VP Q ⁷	S FK FPI LE ¹⁷	G WD NI LR GF
NE QV SRG DI FP VP Q FF ⁷	S FK FPI LE HL ¹⁷	R GEND Q RG HII F
Q VS RG DI FP VP Q ⁸	S VF DNE L RE ¹⁸	
Q VS RG DI FP VP Q FF ⁸	S VF DNE L REG ¹⁸	
R FREG DIIA IPA	I QSP HWT IN	
R GDIF PVP QFF ⁹	I VRPP QDR	
R GDIF PVP QFF AA ⁹	K EG DVVA IPT	
R GDIF PVP QFF AAT ⁹	K TND NAM IA	
R GDIF PVP QFF AT ⁹	N FA VIK	

	PSHADFVNPK	INDVSRPDFFNPE	GQETPEEGSGN
Putative rmlC-like (3%)	QIIRPPQAR	RALPVVDL	
	FREGDMIIIPA	RAGEQGSRWVSF	
	RLPFDEDRHQ	NIDNPSHA	NEGDVVAIPT
Lipid Transfer Protein (LTP) (5%)	HSVSVPGDL	RLPFDEDRHQKVE ²⁴	RIQPAGGLLPSY VNTPILAF ²⁴
	GRPQQQF	AGEDKGRLWPF	
	IERGRGIQ	DFPDLRDINVAF	
	AIQSPHWTIN	QVVRPPIRIQ	ADRGEELRPN
	DVSRPDFFNPE	RGFQDR ²⁵	FFDSDGDQQFQ
	SADRGELRPN	RGFQDRHQKIR ²⁵	KLPLLQ
Putative glutelin type-B 1 (10%)	ALEPIEVIQA	RGLQVVRPPIRIQ	VVRPPIRIQ*
	FAPSFSRGQ	VERGLQVVRPPIRIQ	
	GGRAPGRGW	RIQPAGGLLPSYVN TPIL	
	LLPSYVNTPILA F	ALEPNERVE	
	ALEPNERVEAE	RIQPAGGL	
Plant seed peroxygenase (1%)	NALEPIERVQ	RQGDVVAIPT	
Putative rho GTPase activation protein (1%)		QEGWDNILR	
Putative triosephosphate isomerase (PTI) (1%)		RQGDVV	
Iron-chelate-transporting ATPase (2%)	TEQFEGR	IERGRGIQ	
Oxidoreductase (3%)	WKAALDEALAN AP	IERGRGIQ	
	SYPTLPGWIPS PF	YGPGGGGGGGRK	
Putative NB-ARC (1%)	WLPSFFPI		
11-S globulin (73%)	IERGRGIQ*	IIRPPQ*	
Putative glutelin type-B 1 (10%)		VVRPPIRIQ*	
Oxidoreductase (3%)		AIGSRSLEKATKFAAN	
Iron-chelate-transporting ATPase (2%)		WTAPKFFWFFFISF	

Subscript numbers represent homologous peptides sequences: * represent sequence found in both fraction (SPHf and digested). Gray lines represent sequenced peptides founded in digested samples.

Box 1. Peptide fragments and their identification of the 11S globulin protein sequence

Protein identification

>tr|A0A251TLE7|A0A251TLE7_HELAN 11-S seed storage protein, plant
OS=Helianthus annuus OX=4232 GN=HannXRQ_Chr10g0301931 PE=3
SV=1

Protein sequence and peptide fragments (yellow):

MASKATLLAFTLLFATCIARHQQRQQQNQCQLQ**NIEALEPIEVIQAEAG**
VTEIWDAYDQQFQCAGVDFIRHRIQPGLLLPSYVNTPILAFVERGRGIQ
GVILPGCPETYEYSQEQQFSGEGGRRGGEGNQDRHQKVENLKEGDV
VAIPTGTAHWLHNDGNTELVVVFVLDTQNHENQLDENQRRFFLAGNPQA
QAQSQQQQQRQPRQQSPQRQRQRQRQGQGQNAGNIFNGFTP
QSFNVDQETAQKLQGQNDQRGHIVNVGQDL**QIVRPPQDRRSRQQQE**
QRRSPRQQEQQQGRRGGWSNGVEETICSMFKVNIDNPSQADFVNP
QAGSIANLNSFKFPILEHL**RLSVERGELRPNAIQSPHWTINAHNLLYVTEG**
ALRVQIVDNQ**GNSVFDNELREGQVVVIPQNFAVIKRANEQGSRWVSFKT**
NDNAMIANLAGRVSAISSMPDVVANAYQLSREEAQQLKFSQRETVLFA
PSFSRGQQGIRASA

Protein identification

>tr|A0A251UYX1|A0A251UYX1_HELAN Putative 11-S seed storage protein, plant, RmlC-like jelly roll fold protein OS=Helianthus annuus OX=4232 GN=HannXRQ_Chr04g0112711 PE=3 SV=1

Protein sequence and peptide fragments (yellow):

MAATKLIIGFFLCLLGTTVLATTR**APRLGSPEFCNLQQLYTSQPNQRLEFE**
GGSIEHYWNFND**EQYQCLGTYPSRMTLQPNSLFLPSFQSYPRLLFIEQG**
EGIVGIQLPGCAETFD**TGVQQQHMQQQQQHQQQQQQQQQP**RRM
GERGMDSADSHQKVHRFREGDIIAIPAGAVYWTYNDRNQE**VVAIIVDDV**
NNPANQLDFQAKTSFLAGGISSEHIQGQQQFQGQQGRQQQIHGQQS
RQQGRQQGRRSPFGGQEEL**LTRDNVYAGFDTELLAEAFNCDPQIMRAL**
QESRNRGBVIVQVQQQ**MEFVTPEEEQQQMHQRRSRGGPSNGVEETICS**
AKLVFNL**DNQREADVFNRQAGKLNMVNEHKLPILSLMDLSAEKGHLQPN**
ALFSPHWTVNSHTVVVLNGDAQIQVVSNNGEAVLNE**EQVSRGDI**FVPVQ
FFAATARAGQNGFEWVAFKTNRAPLKSPLAGYTSVFRAMPLEVITNSYQ

VSPNQAQSLKLNRETESLLFSPQRQM TLQHNSL**FLPSFQPFPRL** FIEQG
EGLVG IQLPGCAETFD TG VQQIWHQ**HEQQP**RMDPSADSHQKVHRFRQ
GDIIAIPAGAVYWTYNDRNQQVVAVIVDDVNNPANQLDLQAKISFLAGGIS
RKHIQGLQNIQRQQGRKRSPFGGQEEVAKGNVYSGFDTELLAEAFNCEP
YIVRALQESSNRGVIV**VQVQQQ**MEFVTPDEGQE QMRQRRSRGGPSNGVE
ETICSAKLVHTVVYVLSGDAQVQVVSNNGEAVLNEQVS**RGDIFPV**PQFFA
TTARAGQNGLEWVAFKTNRAPLKSPLAGYTSVFRAMPLEVISYSYQVSP
SQAQSLKLNRETESILFSPQSQY

Two proteins were selected as representative images.