

SPR Screening of Metal chelating Peptides in a Hydrolysate for their Antioxidant Properties

Laetitia Canabady-Rochelle, Katalin Selmeczi, Sabrina Collin, Andreea Pasc,

Laurence Muhr, Sandrine Boschi-Muller

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1	SPR Screening of Metal chelating Peptides in a
2	Hydrolysate for their Antioxidant Properties
3	Abbreviated running tittle: Screening of antioxidant metal chelating peptides using SPR
4	
5	Laetitia L.S. CANABADY-ROCHELLE ^{1a*} , Katalin SELMECZI ² , Sabrina COLLIN ³ , Andreea PASC ² , Laurence
6	MUHR ^{1b} , and Sandrine BOSCHI-MULLER ³
7	
8	¹ Université de Lorraine, Laboratoire Réactions et Génie des Procédés (LRGP, UMR CNRS-UL 7274),
9	^a Equipe Bioprocédés-Biomolécules, ENSAIA, 2, avenue de la forêt de Haye, 54500 Vandoeuvre-lès-
10	Nancy, France, ^b Equipe Sols et Eaux, ENSIC, 1 rue Grandville, 54000 Nancy, France
11	² Université de Lorraine, Laboratoire Structure et Réactivité des Systèmes Moléculaires Complexes
12	(SRSMC, UMR CNRS-UL 7565), Faculté des Sciences et Techniques, B.P. 70239, 54506 Vandoeuvre-lès-
13	Nancy Cedex, France
14	³ Université de Lorraine, Laboratoire Ingénierie Moléculaire et Physiopathologie Articulaire (IMoPA, UMR
15	CNRS-UL 7365), Equipe Enzymologie Moléculaire et Structurale, Campus Biologie-Santé, Faculté de
16	Médecine, 9, avenue de la forêt de Haye, CS 50184, 54505 Vandoeuvre-lès-Nancy, France
17	*Corresponding author:
18	Laetitia CANABADY-ROCHELLE
19	Laetitia.canabady-rochelle@univ-lorraine.fr
20	Université de Lorraine, Laboratoire Réactions et Génie des Procédés (LRGP, UMR CNRS-UL 7274),
21	Equipe Bioprocédés-Biomolécules, ENSAIA, 2, avenue de la forêt de Haye, 54500 Vandoeuvre-lès-
22	Nancy, France
23	Phone number: 00 +33 (0)3. 72. 74. 38. 86.
24	Fax number: 00 +33 (0)3. 83. 59. 58. 24.

SPR Screening of Metal chelating Peptides in a
Hydrolysate for their Antioxidant Properties
Highlights.
Metal chelating peptides were screened in protein hydrolysates using SPR.
An apparent affinity constant and a maximal resonance can be determined with SPR.

- K_A should represent the proportion of metal binding peptides in the hydrolysate.
- A correlation was established between SPR-determined K_A and metal chelation tests.
- 32

33 ABSTRACT

There is a growing need in the industrial sector (health, nutrition and cosmetic) to discover new 34 35 biomolecules with various physico-chemical and bioactive properties. Various beneficial effects of peptides - notably those produced from protein hydrolysis - are reported in the literature. The 36 37 antioxidant activity involves various mechanisms, among them metal chelation, studied by UVvisible spectrophotometry. In this paper, we set up an original method of screening metal 38 chelating peptides in a hydrolysate using Surface Plasmon Resonance (SPR) for their antioxidant 39 40 properties. To date, the empirical approach used several cycles of hydrolysate fractionation and bioactivity evaluation until the isolation of the pure bioactive molecule and its identification. 41 42 Besides, the detection of metal-chelating peptide is not sensitive enough by spectrophotometry. For the first time, metal chelating peptides were screened in hydrolysates using SPR and a 43 44 correlation was established between affinity constant determined in SPR and metal chelation 45 capacity determined from UV-visible spectrophotometry.

46

47 1. INTRODUCTION

48 Food protein-derived bioactive peptides (BPs) have been reported to trigger certain physiological49 responses in the body, thereby influencing health positively. Those peptides have attracted high

research and consumer interest due to their huge potential in functional foods and other dietary intake to promote health. However, successful product development is limited by the fact that current manufacturing processes are either difficult to scale up, expensive, or may affect the structure-activity relations and thus the properties of those peptides.

The industrial sector (especially in health, nutrition and cosmetics) needs to discover new 54 55 biomolecules presenting various physico-chemical or bioactive properties. Various beneficial effects of peptides are reported in the literature such as anti-hypertensive (Pihlanto-Leppälä, 56 2001; Marzak et al, 2003), anti-thrombosis (Ariyoshi, 1993), anti-carcinogeneous (Messina & 57 Messina, 1991), opioid (Zioudrou, Streaty & Klee, 1979), anti-microbial (Broeckaert, Cammue, 58 De Bolle, Thevissen, De Samblanx, & Osborn, 1997), or growth factor for cell culture (Franek, 59 Hohenwarter & Katinger, 2000; Deparis et al, 2003; Farges-Haddani et al, 2006; Chabanon et al, 60 61 2008).

62 Peptides can be produced from enzymatic hydrolysis of proteins extracted from vegetable or 63 animal co-products. Antioxidant peptides were already isolated from protein hydrolysate of 64 various origins, notably from vegetable resources such as rapeseed proteins (Pan, Jiang & Pan, 65 2011; Zhang, Wang, Xu & Gao, 2009), chickpea (Zhang, Li, Miao & Jiang, 2011), sweet potatoes 66 (Zhang, Mu & Sun, 2012), or lucerne (Xie, Huang, Xu, & Jin, 2008).

Antioxidant capacity is a generic term, which recovers various chemical mechanisms. On total, about twenty antioxidant tests are reported in the literature (Huang, Ou & Prior., 2005) and various complementary tests must be carried out to obtain a representative result of the whole antioxidant capacity of a given molecule.

Nevertheless, three main activities describe antioxidant power. The first one is the scavenging of various free radicals and involves either an electron transfer (ET) mechanism or a hydrogen atom transfer (HAT) mechanism. Radical scavenging activity is mainly followed by ABTS or DPPH tests, with ABTS^{°+} or DPPH^{°+} radicals, respectively. The second mechanism relies on the inhibition of lipid peroxidation (Farvin, Baron, Nielsen & Jacobsen, 2010), which can be followed

by oxygen consumption or MalonDiAldehyde test. Finally, metal chelation such as iron or copper 76 ions complexation (Decker & Welch, 1990; Xie et al, 2008) is often studied as an indirect 77 antioxidant mechanism since upon metal complexation, radical reactions in chain are inhibited 78 79 and oxidation phenomena are delayed. Indeed, in living systems, the presence of transient metal ion, such as Fe²⁺ and Cu²⁺ involve the formation of Reactive Oxygen Species (ROS) as for 80 81 instance, hydroxyl radicals (OH^{\circ}) formed by the Fenton reaction. In addition, ferrous ions (Fe²⁺) can catalyse the formation of hydroxyl radicals via the Haber-Weiss reaction, which occurs in the 82 presence of superoxide anions. These free radicals, produced locally, can react with adjacent 83 biomolecules and are responsible of serious damages in the biological tissue. Due to some 84 environmental conditions (i.e. pollution, UV, non-equilibrated food), defence mechanisms 85 86 involving antioxidants are sometimes overcome; an oxidant stress is generated, which can lead to 87 the development of several pathologies in humans such as diabetes, rheumatoid arthritis, and 88 cancer (Abuja & Albertini, 2001; Collins, 2005; Halliwell, 2000; Halliwell & Whiteman, 2004; Hoelzl, Bichler, Ferk, Simic, Nersesyan, & Elbling, 2005). 89

Yet, the low concentration of target bioactive peptides in an hydrolysate (a complex mixture of 90 peptides sequences) and the difficulty to associate their bioactivity to one or several specific 91 92 physicochemical properties constitute one of the main factors limiting their separation and their use. To valorise these bioactive peptides, one of the principal stakes is then the separation of 93 peptides in a complex mixture, according to the desired bioactivity. The empirical approach 94 consists in separating each hydrolysate in various fractions and in evaluating their bioactivity. 95 These sequential steps are reiterated until reaching pure bioactive molecules identified by mass 96 97 spectrometry. To date, the separation methods settled up (*i.e.* chromatography, ultrafiltration) are 98 time-consuming. Besides, depending on the size of the peptide of interest, and its low concentration in the hydrolysate - whether present -, a detection using UV-visible 99 spectrophotometry is often not sensitive enough. 100

Surface Plasmon Resonance (SPR) enables the monitoring of molecular interactions in real time. 101 Its main advantage is the label free detection based on the phenomenon of surface plasmon 102 resonance. While the interacting molecule (ligand) is immobilized on the surface of a sensor chip, 103 104 the analyte is injected in solution and flow over the surface. The binding of the analyte to the 105 immobilized ligand involves alteration of the refractive index at the sensor surface, which is 106 proportional to the change in mass concentration. From sensorgram (SPR response in resonance unit plotted against time) studied at various analyte concentrations, the affinity constant of the 107 analyte for the ligand can be determined. 108

Several studies reported the use of SPR for the affinity comparison of different tagged proteins to
metal ions (Nieba et al, 1997; Bernaudat & Bülow, 2005; Kurzatkowska et al, 2014). Yet, Knecht
et al, (2009) were the only ones to study the affinity of His-tag peptides to Ni²⁺ ions.

Hence, a direct screening of metal chelating peptides using SPR would enable to detect more rapidly their presence in a hydrolysate before launching a separation phase, that should be engaged solely in the case of positive bioactivity screening. To the author's knowledge, SPR has never been used as a screening method of metal chelating peptides related to their antioxidant capacities.

117 The aim of this study is to propose a new proof-of-methodology on a screening procedure of metal chelating peptides in hydrolysates for their antioxidant properties. Such approach uses SPR 118 with a M²⁺-NTA sensor chip. The main advantage of such technique is based on the higher 119 sensitivity and label free detection of SPR detector as compared to classical UV-Vis spectrometry. 120 Thanks to this methodology, the most interesting sources of hydrolysates in terms of metal 121 chelating peptides could be screened rapidly. Moreover, another aim of this study is to correlate 122 affinity constant determined by SPR methodology and antioxidant chemical tests based on metal 123 124 chelation using UV-visible spectrophotometry.

125 To overcome potential interferences of non-peptide contaminants with SPR, the SPR126 methodology was first set up on one hydrolysate, taken as a model, with or without purification.

127 Once the methodology validated, screening was carried out on raw samples for further industrial
128 applications. Then, correlation was established between affinity constants and metal chelation
129 capacities determined on raw hydrolysates.

130

131 2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

132 2.1. Hydrolysates

133 2.1.1. Industrial specification

Peptide hydrolysates were provided from Kerry group (Ingredients and Flavours Department, USA). They were obtained from various vegetable sources such as soy (*i.e.* H1510, H1512, and UP Soy), wheat (H4601N) and rice proteins (H5603). The total and free amino acids composition is given in the industrial specification (**Supplementary data, Table SD 1**). Besides, for each hydrolysate, the global amino acid composition was presented by class of amino acids, with its main characteristics in terms of total nitrogen (TN, %), protein and degree of hydrolysis (**Supplementary data, Table SD 2**).

141 2.1.2. OPA quantification

As complex mixture of peptides, hydrolysates cannot be determined in molar concentration. To compare them, peptide concentration was quantified using *ortho*-phthaldialdehyde test (OPA) and expressed in mM glycine equivalent. This spectrophotometric dosage involves a reaction between the N-terminal extremity of each peptide present in the mixture and OPA reagent (OPA; ThermoFisher Scientific, Loughborough, UK) in the presence of *N*,*N*-dimethyl-2-mercaptoethylammonium (ThermoFisher Scientific). The chemical group obtained absorbs at a wavelength of 340 nm.

The OPA quantification was performed according to Frister, Meisel, & Schlimme (1988). The 149 150 OPA solution was prepared by dissolving 40 mg of OPA in 1 mL of pure methanol and 100 mg 151 of N,N-dimethyl-2-mercaptoethyl ammonium in a few milliliters of Borax buffer (sodium 152 tetraborate 100 mM, 1% w/v sodium dodecyl sulfate, pH 9.3, Sigma-Aldrich). These two solutions were mixed in a 50 mL-volumetric flask, qsf Borax buffer. The molar concentration of 153 1 mg.mL⁻¹ peptide hydrolysate solutions (20 µL) qsf Borax buffer was measured in 96-well plate 154 by spectrophotometry at 340 nm after 3 min incubation with stirring at room temperature 155 (ThermoFisher Scientific) with the OPA solution (200 µL). For each hydrolysate, molar 156 concentration (expressed in equivalent α -NH₂) was determined using a calibration curve 157 performed with glycine. 158

159

160 2.1.3. Determination of total phenolics

The total content of phenolic compounds was quantified by the method of Folin-Ciocalteu 161 according to the colorimetric method described by Singleton & Rossi (1965) and adapted to a 96-162 well microplate by Mussato, Ballesteros, Martins & Teixeira (2011). Briefly, 5 µL of an 163 164 hydrolysate solution (25 g.L⁻¹) were mixed with 60 µL of sodium carbonate solution at 7.5% 165 (w/v) and 15 µL of Folin-Ciocalteu reagent (1N; Sigma Aldrich). Then, 200 µL of ultrapure 166 water (18 m Ω .cm⁻¹) were added and the solutions were mixed. Samples were incubated at 60°C for 5 min and cooled down at room temperature. Absorbance was measured at 700 nm using a 167 microplate reader. Calibration of this test was carried out with gallic acid standard solutions (0, 168 169 200, 400, 600, 1000 et 1500 mg.L⁻¹) and the blank was performed with ultrapure water. The total 170 content of phenolic compounds was expressed in mass percentage of hydrolysate powder (w/w).

171

173 2.1.4. Purification of hydrolysates

Samples were purified using Solid Phase Extraction column (CC6 polyamide column, 174 Chromabonb PA 6 mL/1000g, Macherey-Nagel, Duren, Germany) to remove polyphenols. 175 Purification step was adapted from Collins, Ng, Fong, Wan, & Yeung, (1998). Briefly, the column 176 177 was conditioned with 2×5 mL of ultrapure water, removed upon centrifugation (1000 g, 1 min). Then, 5 mL of hydrolysate solution (25 g.L-1) was deposited onto the column and percolated at 178 179 atmospheric pressure. The peptide fraction was eluted with 5 mL water and the column was then successively eluted with 5 mL MeOH 50%, 5 mL of pure MeOH and several washes of 0.1 M 180 181 NaOH. The peptide fraction was then lyophilized and frozen until analysis.

182

183 2.2. Metal chelation tests

The antioxidant capacity determined by Cu²⁺ chelation was measured by spectrophotometry 184 using murexide as colored indicator. A mini-review on metal chelation tests used in the literature 185 186 and their experimental conditions is presented in supplementary data (Table SD3). This test was adapted from literature (Wu, Shiau, Chen, & Chiou, 2003; Wong, Leong & Koh, 2006 and Li, 187 Wang, Chen & Chen, 2011). Absorbance was measured at two wavelengths, 485 nm and 520 nm, 188 for the copper-murexide complex and the murexide alone, respectively. The ratio of absorbance 189 (A_{485}/A_{520}) was considered proportional to the free copper ion (Cu^{2+}) concentration (Barges, 190 191 Cravotto, Gianolio & Fedeli, 2006).

192 This test was adapted for the microplate study to reduce the time of experiments and the volume 193 of studied solution. EDTA (EDTA disodium salt dihydrate, Fluka Chemie, Buchs, Switzerland) 194 and carnosine (99%, Sigma Aldrich), both studied as positive controls, were prepared in 195 hexamine buffer (10 mM Hexamine, 10 mM KCl, pH 5) first in a range of concentration 0-40 196 mM to determine saturation, then in the range 0-4 mM for linearization. Peptide hydrolysates 197 were prepared similarly in a concentration range varying between 0-40 g.L⁻¹, concentration then expressed in mM equivalent glycine. Experiment was repeated 5 times. Each sample (EDTA, carnosine and hydrolysate solutions) was directly diluted in microplate with hexamine buffer for a total volume of 143 μ L. Then, 143 μ L of a 3 mM CuSO₄ solution prepared in hexamine buffer and 14 μ L of 1 mM murexide solution were added in each well (total volume: 300 μ L). The 96well plate was incubated for 3 min at ambient temperature and absorbance measured at 485 nm and 520 nm. For each sample, the Cu²⁺ chelation capacity was determined according to equation (3):

205
$$\operatorname{Cu}^{2+} \operatorname{complexation} \left(\frac{0}{0} \right) = \frac{\left[(A_{485}/A_{520}) - (A_{485}/A_{520}) s \right]}{(A_{485}/A_{520})_0} \times 100$$
 (3)

206

207 With (A₄₈₅/A₅₂₀)₀ = ratio of absorbances measured in the absence of sample (negative control:
208 hexamine buffer),

209 And (A₄₈₅/A₅₂₀)_s= ratio of absorbances measured in the presence of sample (EDTA, carnosine or
210 hydrolysate).

For each sample, a linearization was performed in the linear part of the curve in order to
determine, after calculation, the indices characterizing its capacity for Cu²⁺ chelation: the EECC
(EDTA Equivalent copper Chelation Capacity) or the CECC (Carnosine Equivalent copper
Chelation Capacity). Such indices are calculated according to equations (4) and (5):

$$EECC = \frac{a_s}{a_{EDTA}} \quad (4)$$

216
$$CECC = \frac{a_s}{a_{Car}}$$
(5)

With a_s= the slope of the linearization line, for hydrolysate (% of copper chelated as a function of
peptide concentration).

a_{EDTA}= the slope of the linearization line for EDTA (% of copper chelated as a function of
EDTA concentration).

221 a_{car} = the slope of the linearization line for carnosine (% of copper chelated as a function of 222 carnosine concentration).

223

224 2.3. Affinity constant determination

Binding of peptides present in hydrolysate to Ni²⁺-NTA was analysed by Surface Plasmon
Resonance (SPR). The SPR measurement was performed on a Biacore X100 instrument (Biacore
AB, Uppsala, Sweden) equipped with NTA (nitrilotriacetic acid) sensor chips at 25°C. The
method was adapted according to Knecht et al (2009) with slight modification on tri-histidine
peptide (HHH) before the study of peptide hydrolysate.

The eluent buffer (PBS 1X, pH 7.4) and the dispenser buffer (PBS 1X, pH 7.4, 0.005% Tween
20) were filtered (0.22 μm, support membrane, low protein binding, non pyrogenic, PALL) and
degassed by the Biacore instrument. The PBS 1X running buffer was prepared from a 10X
concentrate made of 67 mM Na₂HPO₄.2H₂O, 12.5 mM KH₂PO₄, 150 mM NaCl with a pH value
of 6.65. When the 10X stock solution was diluted to 1X, the final pH of PBS 1X was of 7.4.

Peptide hydrolysates were dissolved at various concentrations in freshly prepared PBS 1X buffer before each experiment. Loading of Ni²⁺ onto the NTA chip was performed with a NiCl₂ solution (500 μ M, Biacore kit, Uppsala, Sweden) and the chip surface was regenerated with imidazole (500 mM) dissolved in ultrapure water (18.2 m Ω .cm⁻¹), followed by a regeneration solution (10 mL buffer added with 87 μ L EDTA at 50 μ M).

All binding experiments were performed at a flow rate of 20 μL.min⁻¹, starting with a 1-min
injection of aqueous NiCl₂ solution to load the NTA chip, with a 1-min stabilisation period. A
NTA flow cell without Ni²⁺ was used as a reference cell. Then each studied peptide hydrolysate
was injected on both flow path for 270 s followed by 270 s of undisturbed dissociation time. The
regeneration procedure consisted of 1-min injections of imidazole (500 mM) at 20 μL.min⁻¹

followed by an extra-wash with buffer-EDTA (50 μ M). Upon the second regeneration procedure, the surface was washed with SDS 0.5% v/v for 1 min at a flow rate of 40 μ L.min⁻¹ followed by an extra-wash after injection with running buffer. Each regeneration and washing cycle was repeated twice. One buffer blank before and between each sample series were used for double referencing during data processing (Myszka, 1999; mentioned in: Knecht et al, 2009).

The sensorgrams obtained from the SPR experiments were processed with BIAevaluate software. The isotherms obtained were expressed in Resonance Unit (RU, corrected by the offset value) as a function of the concentration of peptide hydrolysate (expression in mM equivalent glycine according to the OPA quantification). The dissociation constants (K_D , M equivalent glycine) were determined at equilibrium by fitting the experimental data with the 1:1 binding model. The affinity constant (K_A , M⁻¹ equivalent glycine) was calculated as the inverse of the dissociation constant.

257

258 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

259 3.1. Hydrolysate characterization

260 3.1.1. Raw hydrolysates

Hydrolysates are composed of a mixture of peptides, whose sequences are unknown. For their
comparison, peptide concentration of hydrolysates solutions (1 mg.mL⁻¹) were quantified using
OPA test in order to express their molar concentration in mM equivalent glycine. For raw
hydrolysates, peptide concentration varied between 1.23 and 1.82 mM equivalent glycine (**Table**1).

According to their specification, industrial hydrolysates have been submitted to ultrafiltration, the method commonly used to remove polyphenols (Bornman, Gokemen and Nyhuis, 2001; Gokmen, Acar & Karahman, 2003). Thus, raw hydrolysates were supposed to be free of polyphenols. Surprisingly, total polyphenols were quantified between 3.6% (w/w) for H1510 and H1512 hydrolysates up to 5.9% (w/w) for H5603 (**Table 1**). The fact that similar value was observed for a trypsin casein hydrolysate used as a negative control $(5.3\pm0.2 \% \text{ w/w})$ suggests the existence of interferences in quantification method due for example to tyrosine residues in relation with their phenol group, but the presence of residual polyphenols in hydrolysates can not be rule out.

275 3.1.2. Purified hydrolysates

276 The purification method adapted from Collins et al (1998) was carried out on polyamide resins to 277 eliminate non-peptides contaminants such as polyphenols. After a purification step, peptide concentration of hydrolysate samples was not significantly modified on the whole as proved by 278 OPA quantifications (Table 1). In the meantime, there was practically no loss of total 279 polyphenols. Nevertheless, as observed in Collins et al (1998), a significant amount of binding 280 was seen as a brown coloration of resin, which eluted with sodium hydroxide (result not shown). 281 Besides, the comparison of the OPA quantification test carried out on raw hydrolysate powder 282 283 (1g.L-1) and on a powder of hydrolysate purified onto CC6 polyamide column, lyophilised and 284 then reconstituted (1g.L⁻¹) showed a slight increase in peptide concentration (see Supplementary data. Figure SD1.). 285

286

287 3.2. Determination of metal chelating capacity/affinity by SPR

288 3.2.1. Set up of SPR method on purified H5603 hydrolysate

Validation of the SPR method has been realised on the H5603 hydrolysate as a model, and in
order to overcome potential interferences, in a first approach, hydrolysate purified on CC6
polyamide column was used. The initial methodology set up on HHH peptide by Knecht *et al.*

(2009) was adapted for the study of hydrolysate. Binding to Ni²⁺-NTA was analyzed both 292 qualitatively and quantitatively with surface plasmon resonance (SPR) using commercially 293 available NTA sensor chips from Biacore. Purified H5603 hydrolysate was injected at a 294 concentration varying from 0 to 40 g.L⁻¹ for 4.5 min at a flow rate of 20 µL.min⁻¹ to detect the 295 296 association phase, followed by a dissociation time of 4.5 min at a flow rate of 20 µL.min⁻¹. This led to a clear detection of binding signals for all tested concentrations of hydrolysate with very 297 fast association, reaching equilibrium immediately after injection, and dissociation rates, and with 298 299 an excellent reproducibility of the triplicate injections (not shown) (Figure 1). Association and 300 dissociation phases were shown to occur in a dose-dependent manner, suggesting the existence 301 of an apparent affinity of the hydrolysate (peptides) for Ni²⁺. The hyperbolic profile of the level of binding at equilibrium as a function of the sample concentration showed a saturating 302 behaviour, suggesting the formation of peptide-Ni²⁺ complexes. 303

304 The experimental isotherm, *i.e.* the level of binding expressed in Resonance Unit (RU) in function 305 of hydrolysate concentration expressed in mM equivalent glycine according to the NH₂ terminal 306 concentration quantified using OPA test, was fit to the 1:1 binding model using BIAevalution (version 2) software (Figure 1). It enabled to determine the value of the apparent dissociation 307 constant (K_D), the maximal signal (R_{max}) at saturation of the Ni²⁺-NTA chip and the offset. The 308 offset value (expressed in RU), which represents the difference in response between the reference 309 (no Ni²⁺) and the sample canal (with Ni²⁺) of the chip, was used to calculate the true maximal 310 311 response (R_{maxc}). From the value of the K_D , the value of the apparent affinity constant (K_A) was calculated (**Table 2**). The lowest the $K_{\rm D}$ value, the highest the affinity of metal chelating peptides 312 for Ni²⁺ ions. Due to heterogeneity of the hydrolysate, in terms of peptide sequences and 313 concentration of metal chelating peptides, it may be assumed that the value of the K_A should 314 315 represent the proportion of metal binding peptides within the hydrolysate, whereas the value of the R_{maxe} would be more representative of the size of the formed complexes. Thus, the results 316

317 show that metal binding capacity of a hydrolysate can be quantified on purified peptide318 hydrolysate using Surface Plasmon Resonance.

In an industrial perspective, for screening various hydrolysates for their metal chelating peptides, metal-chelating properties should directly be explored on raw hydrolysates. Indeed, SPR experiments were performed similarly than previously on raw H5603 hydrolysate. The fact that similar values of K_A and R_{maxe} were obtained for the purified and non-purified H5603 hydrolysate (Figure 2, Table 2) shows that metal binding capacity can be determined directly on raw hydrolysate using Surface Plasmon Resonance.

325

326 3.2.2. Affinity constant determination on raw hydrolysates

In order to set up a direct screening method of metal chelating peptide in complex mixture, raw
hydrolysates constitute the most appropriate materials. Hence, SPR experiments were performed
similarly than previously on H1510, H1512, H4601N and UP Soy raw hydrolysates.

330 For all hydrolysates, association and dissociation phases were shown to occur in a concentration 331 dependent manner (Results not shown). Plots of response at equilibrium in function of hydrolysate concentration present a hyperbolic profile, whatever the hydrolysate (Figure 2). 332 333 From the fitting of these experimental binding isotherms, values of the different parameters were obtained (Table 2). Considering the K_A values, the apparent affinity of raw peptide hydrolysate 334 for Ni²⁺ ions varied according to the samples studied and evolved in the following rank: H1512 < 335 H5603 < H4601N < UP Soy < H1510. The highest affinities were measured for the H1510 336 hydrolysate and then for UP Soy in comparison to the other three hydrolysates. 337

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- 341

342 **3.3. Metal chelation**

Metal chelation tests are usually performed on hydrolysate using spectrophotometric tests. A mini-review on metal chelation tests used in the literature and their experimental conditions is presented in supplementary data (**Table SD3**). Nevertheless, according to the size of the peptides of interest, and their low concentration in the hydrolysate - whether present -, a detection using UV-visible spectrophotometry may be sometimes not sensitive enough for such application.

The test of metal chelation capacity (Cu²⁺) was validated on EDTA and carnosine using UV-348 visible spectrophotometry (Figure 3, panels A and B) and then, tested on raw hydrolysates 349 (Figure 3, panels C and D). The Cu²⁺ chelation capacity (%) was plotted as a function of molar 350 ratio (mM carnosine or EDTA /mM CuSO₄) (Figure 3, panels A and B). Saturation was 351 observed at 87% of Cu2+ chelated for EDTA and 82% for carnosine. Since EDTA is known as a 352 really good complexing agent, the totality of Cu²⁺ is considered fully chelated for a calculation 353 corresponding to 87% chelation capacity. For a 1:1 stoichiometry between EDTA and Cu²⁺, the 354 355 copper chelated was of 62%. For a 1:1 stoichiometry between carnosine and Cu²⁺, the copper chelated was about 30%. In comparison of the study of Wu and co-workers (2003), these authors 356 determined the chelating ability of a 4 mM-EDTA solution at 68% and the chelating effect of a 5 357 358 mM-carnosine solution at 32%.

The M²⁺ chelation capacities (%) were plotted as a function of the molar ratio of the hydrolysate 359 over the metal concentration (mM equivalent glycine / mM CuSO₄; Figure 3, panels C and D). 360 In Figure 3 (panels C), a Langmuir-shaped isotherm was observed for all the hydrolysates 361 studied with saturation at about 80% copper chelation, which fit to the totality of the copper 362 363 complexed as for positive controls (EDTA and carnosine). Nevertheless, as a complex mixture of peptides, all the peptides present in the hydrolysate are not able to complex the Cu²⁺ ions. In 364 365 such conditions and despite the Langmuir-shaped isotherm, we cannot be sure that the binding 366 of metal chelating peptides with metal ions can be approximated with a 1:1 model. Then, to

determine, the most interesting source of hydrolysate in terms of metal chelating peptides, an 367 indice expressed in equivalent chelation capacity (ECC) was calculated, considering either EDTA 368 (EECC) or carnosine (CECC) as reference (part 2.2.), using the slope of the linear part of the 369 curve (Table 2). Whatever the reference was, the rank remained the same: H1510 > UP Soy >370 H5603 > H1512 > H4601N. The variations between hydrolysates observed by UV 371 372 spectrophotometry is less pronounced than those observed by SPR, when we compare respectively the results of metal chelation indices and the affinity constants, which seems to 373 confirm once more the interest of SPR for the screening of metal chelating peptides in 374 hydrolysates. 375

According to the literature, amino acids preferentially involved in metal chelation are known. A 376 mini-review on amino acids and their functional groups involved in metal chelation is presented 377 in supplementary data (Table SD4). Several amino acids are concerned especially (1) aspartic and 378 glutamic acid, through their carboxylate function, (2) histidine via the imidazole ring, (3) arginine 379 and lysine through the amino group, (4) cysteine with its thiol group (5) serine and threonine with 380 hydroxyl. Nevertheless, over the five studied hydrolysates, relationship between the copper 381 chelation capacity (%) and the given industrial amino acid composition cannot be stated (See 382 SD1. Amino acid composition given in the industrial specification (SD2. Global amino acid 383 384 composition and main characteristics of the hydrolysate).

385

386 3.4. Correlations between affinity constants and metal chelation tests

From the former data, the relation between the affinity constants (K_A , M⁻¹) and the copper chelation indices was plotted (**Figure 4, panels A and B,** for EECC and CECC, respectively). A satisfactorily correlation was observed with a R² value of 0.88. Hence, in addition to the determination of K_A for peptide hydrolysate, SPR methodology can be used for the screening method of metal chelating peptides in a protein hydrolysate with more accuracy than the classical

spectrophotometric method used to date. Nevertheless, no correlation was established between 392 affinity constant and the amino acid content in each hydrolysate given in industrial specifications 393 (see supplementary data SD1 and SD2). This could be due to the fact that the amino acid 394 residue content is not the only factor involved upon the mechanism of complexation occurring 395 between peptide and metal ion. Indeed, the position of one amino acid residue to another one is 396 397 also important in the complexation mechanism. Hence as perspective of this work, SPR experiments will be coupled to Mass Spectrometry (SPR-MS), which could help us to establish 398 correlations between affinity and amino acid composition in regards of the peptides sequence. 399 Such study could be extended to model peptides of known sequence to better understand the 400 link between affinity constant and peptide concentration. 401

402

403 4. CONCLUSION

404 Surface Plasmon Resonance is a powerful tool to screen antioxidant metal chelating peptides in hydrolysate before launching time-consuming separation. Besides, SPR can directly be used on 405 406 industrial hydrolysates formerly treated by ultrafiltration without an additional step of purification. A good correlation was obtained between K_A and metal chelation capacity, when 407 both analyses were carried out on raw industrial hydrolysates. According to the results of this 408 study, SPR is an innovative method that can be used for screening various sources of 409 hydrolysates in terms of metal chelating peptides and could be considered for various industrial 410 applications such as nutraceutics or cosmetics. 411

412

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516 List of Tables and Figures

518 Table 1. Characterization of hydrolysates: peptide concentration expressed in equivalent glycine,

519 total polyphenol quantification (in mass percentage, w GAE/w hydrolysate powder; GAE: Gallic

520 Acid Equivalent), and respective yields.

	Peptide o (mM equiva	concentration alent glycine)	Tota quantificatio	al polyphenol on in mass % (w/w)	Yields in fraction collected after purification		
Hydrolysate	Raw hydrolysate	Purified hydrolysate	Raw hydrolysate	Purified hydrolysate	Peptide - OPA quantification	Polyphenol (Folin-ciocalteu quantification)	
H1510	1.23	1.29	3.6 ±0.2	3.7 ±0.2	105	103	
H1512	1.82	1.92	3.6 ±0.2	3.6 ±0.4	99	99	
H4601N	1.38	1.74	4.6 ±0.3	4.1 ±0.2	107	87	
H5603	1.50	1.74	5.9 ±0.2	5.5 ±0.4	101	93	
UP Soy	1.46	1.52	4.9 ±0.3	4.2 ±0.0	101	86	
Hcasein			5.3 ±0.2	4.1 ±0.3	104	82	

- **526** Table 2. Dissociation (K_D , mM), Affinity constants (K_A , mM⁻¹), R_{maxc} determined by SPR and
- 527 metal chelation capacity determined by spectrophotometry. EDTA (EECC) and Carnosine
- 528 Equivalent Chelation Capacity (CECC) determined for Copper (II) on raw hydrolysate.

Nature of the hydrolysate	Sample	K₀ (mM eq. Glycine)	K _A (mM⁻¹ eq. glycine)	R _{maxc} (RU)	Slope of the tangent at the origin (Chelated Cu ²⁺ % / molar ratio)	EECC for copper (II)	CECC for copper (II)
Purified	H5603	0.90	1.11	319			
	H1510	0.10	9.92	60	91.9	2.23	3.21
	H1512	2.58	0.39	125	56.5	1.37	1.97
Raw	H4601N	0.78	1.29	64	51.5	1.25	1.80
	H5603	1.04	0.96	418	59.4	1.44	2.07
	UP Soy	0.14	6.95	129	69.8	1.70	2.44
EDTA					41.2	1	/
Carnosine					28.6	/	1

530

Figure 1. Sensorgram (down graph) and corresponding sorption isotherm (top graph) of purified



532 (A) and raw (B) H5603 hydrolysate.

Figure 2. Sorption isotherms enabling the determination of the dissociation constant for various
raw hydrolysates. Data corrected by the offset and hydrolysate concentration expressed in mM
equivalent glycine. Experimental points and their respective fits.



Concentration (mM eq. Glycine)



540 Figure 3. Results of metal chelation obtained by spectrophotometry. Panels A and B for EDTA541 and carnosine. Panels C and D for hydrolysates.



Figure 4. Correlation between affinity constant (K_A , M^{-1} equivalent glycine) and copper (II) chelating activity in raw hydrolysate. (A) Metal chelation expressed as EECC. (B). Metal chelation expressed as CECC.



552 Supplementary Data

Characteristics of samples		1510	1512	4610N	5603	UP Soy
	Alo	26.0	25.0	21.0	49.0	10.0
	Ala	20.0	25.0	21.0	40.0	19.0
	Arg	41.0	57.0	27.0	72.0	30.0
	Asn	72.0	66.0	24.0		0.0 51.0
	Asp	73.0	00.0	24.0	0.0	51.0
	Cys	4.0	3.0	11.0	8.0	0.0
	GIN	100.0	112.0	210.0		70.0
	Giu	122.0	112.0	319.0	27.0	79.0
	Giy	25.0	24.0	27.0	37.0	13.0
Total AA (mg/g)		14.0	13.0	15.0	20.0	9.0
Total AA (mg/g)	le	23.0	22.0	52.0	34.0 66.0	19.0
	Leu	40.0	38.0	57.0	00.0	30.0
	Lys	38.0	32.0	11.0	35.0	33.0
	Net	7.0	7.0	12.0	15.0	2.0
	Pne	26.0	24.0	46.0	43.0	20.0
	Pro	28.0	27.0	115.0	38.0	39.0
	Ser	31.0	29.0	38.0	44.0	21.0
	Trm	24.0	22.0	21.0	31.0	17.0
	The	24.0	20.0	20.0	42.0	17.0
	l yr	21.0	20.0	29.0	43.0	17.0
	vai	25.0	24.0	32.0	49.0	19.0
	Ala	2.6	3.8	1.9	0.6	5.6
	Arg	9.2	9.8	8.6	1.0	9.9
	Asn		2.4	1.8	0.9	4.0
	Asp	2.1	3.1	0.7	0.4	5.1
	Cys				2.9	0.1
	Gln	3.5	0.2	1.2	0.4	
	Glu		5.2	0.4	2.9	6.9
	Gly	2.5	3.6	1.0	0.1	1.1
	His	1.4	1.3	3.2	0.1	2.6
Free AA (mg/g)	lle	0.5	1.6	4.8	0.2	4.8
	Leu	6.3	11.0	10.7	1.9	13.9
	Lys	4.6	6.4	2.3	0.6	10.8
	Met	0.9	1.7	2.0	0.2	1.3
	Phe	2.7	4.4	4.9	1.4	7.7
	Pro		0.3	0.5	0.3	0.6
	Ser	4.0	4.9	3.9	1.1	5.4
	Thr	1.7	2.2	5.7	0.3	4.8
	Trp	1.5	2.5	3.0		4.5
	Tyr	1.1	1.6	1.3	0.1	1.7
	Val	1.0	2.0	5.0	0.1	5.0

Table SD1. Amino acid composition given in the industrial specification.

Table SD2. Global composition in amino acids (AA; mg/g) by class and main characteristics of

the studied hydrolysates. TN: Total Nitrogen (%). DH: ratio AN/TN x 100.

		1510	1512	4610N	5603	UP Soy
Global amino-acid (AA) compos	sition (mg/g)					
Positively charged AA (RHK)	Total	93	82	53	127	72
	Free	15	18	14	2	23
Negatively charged AA (DE)	Total	195	178	343	0	130
	Free	2	8	1	3	12
Polar uncharged AA (STNQ)	Total	55	51	59	75	38
	Free	9	10	13	3	14
Sulfured AA (CM)	Total	11	10	23	23	2
	Free	1	2	2	3	1
Hydrophobic AA (AVILMFYW)	Total	168	160	229	298	126
	Free	17	29	34	5	45
Aromatic AA (FYW)	Total	47	44	75	86	37
	Free	5	9	9	2	14
Other parameters						
Total Nitrogen (TN, %)		9.2	8.8	14.2	12.8	8.0
DH (ratio AN/TN x100)		16-29	27.5	15.4	14-22	25-35
DH (ratio AN/TN x100), mean valu	ue	22.5	27.5	15.4	18.0	30.0

559

Table SD3. Mini-review on copper chelation tests carried out on peptides and on hydrolysate in 560

the literature and their experimental conditions. 561

	Wu et al, 2003	Saiga et al, 2003	Carasco- Castilla et al, 2012	Carasco- Castilla et al, 2012b	Guo et al, 2015	Torres- Fuentes et al, 2011	Zhang et al, 2011
Sample nature	Peptides	Hydrolysate	Hydrolysate	Hydrolysate and peptide fraction	Peptide hydrolysate	Chickpea protein hydrolysate	Hydrolysate
Range of concentration, volume sample	0.5-40 mM, 2 mL		100 µg	100 μg for hydrolysate or 50 μg for peptide	Sample, 100 μg/mL, 200 μL	n.d.	1 mL
Method adapted from	Shimada et al, 1992		Saiga et al, 2003	Saiga et al, 2003	Saiga et al, 2003	Saiga et al, 2003	Kong and Xiong, 2006
Positive control	n.d.	EDTA at 0.045%	n.d.	n.d.	CPPs***	n.d.	n.d.
Negative control (blank)	Deionized water, treated with reverse osmosis		n.d.	n.d.	Deionized ater	n.d.	n.d.
Buffer	Hexamine buffer (10 mM), KCI (10 mM)		Na acetate buffer, 50 mM, 290 μL	Na acetate buffer, 50 mM, 290 μL	Na acetate buffer, 50 mM,	Na acetate buffer, 50 mM,	Pyridine, 10%, 1 mL
pH ajusted	No		pH 6.0		pH 5.0	pH 6.0	
Copper source and concentration	CuSO₄, 3 mM, 2 mL	CuSO₄, 2 mM, 1 mL; mixed with pyridine (pH 7.0)	CuSO₄.5H₂0, 1μg	CuSO₄.5H₂0, 10μg	CuSO₄, 1 mg/mL, 20 μL	CuSO₄, 0.1 μg/μL, 100 μL	CuSO₄, 2 mM, 1 mL
Metal chelating indicator, concentration, volume	TMM*, 1 mM, 0.2 mL	PV**, 20 μL	PV**, 4 mM, 6 μL	PV**, 4 mM, 6 μL	PV**, 2 mM, 10 μL	PV**, 4 mM, 25 μL	PV** 0.1%, 20 μL
Incubation: time, temperature	3 min, RT				5 min, 37°C		
Wavelength (s)	485 nm	632 nm	632 nm	632 nm	632 nm	632 nm	632 nm
Cu ²⁺ chelating ability (%)	((A₀- A₅)/A₀)x100		((A₀- A₅)/A₀)x100	((A₀- A₅)/A₀)x100		-1) (A₅/A₀))x100	(1- (A _s /A ₀))x100
Standard curve	n.d.		n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.
Scale	Cuvette		Microplate reader	Microplate reader	Microplate reader	n.d.	Cuvette
* TetraMethylMurexide **Pyrocatechol Violet							

CPPs:

CaseinoPhosphoPeptides

n.d.: not determined 562

564 Table SD4. Amino acids and their functional group involved in metal chelation.

565

Aminoacid	Group involved	Atom involved	рKа	pK₅	рК _к	Reference	
Aspartic acid	Carboxylato		2.09	9.82	3.86	Zacchariou and Hearn, 1996	
Glutamic acid	Carboxylate	Oxygen nen group	2.19	9.67	4.25	Lv et al, 2009	
						Bamdad and Chen, 2013	
						Zhang et al, 2009	
						Gerbino et al, 2011	
Histidine	Imidazole	Nitrogen rich group	1.82	0.17	6.00	Zacchariou and Hearn, 1996	
listane	IIIIdazoie	Nillogen nen group	1.02	9.17 0.00	Zoroddhu et al, 2009		
						Lv et al, 2009	
						Wu et al, 2003	
Arginine		Nitrogon	2.17	9.04	12.48	Farvin et al, 2010	
Lysine	Amino group	Nillogen	2.18	8.95	10.53	Zhang et al, 2009	
Cystein	Thiol	Sulfur	1.71	8.33	10.78	Lv et al, 2009	
Serine	Hydroxyl	Oxygon	2.21	9.15		Lv et al, 2009	
Threonine	Пушохуг	Oxygen	2.63	10.43		Bamdad and Chen, 2013	
						Storckdieck et al, 2007	
						Swain et al, 2002	
						Taylor and Layrisse, 1986	
Glycine	nd	nd	2.34	9.60		Wu at al. 2003	
Alanine		n.u.	2.35	9.69		Wu et al, 2003	

Figure SD1. OPA quantification test carried out on raw hydrolysate powder (1 g/L) and on
powder of hydrolysate purified onto CC6 polyamide column, lyophilised and reconstituted
(1g/L).

