



## Prospects for the management of type 2 diabetes using food protein-derived peptides with dipeptidyl peptidase IV (DPP-IV) inhibitory activity

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1 **Prospects for the management of type 2 diabetes using food protein-derived**  
2 **peptides with dipeptidyl peptidase IV (DPP-IV) inhibitory activity**

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16 **Abstract**

17 Since drug based inhibition of dipeptidyl peptidase IV (DPP-IV) is employed in type 2 (T2D)  
18 diabetes therapy, food protein hydrolysates which inhibit DPP-IV may also have potential in the  
19 management of T2D. Specific peptide motifs, consisting of an N-terminal Trp and/or a Pro at  
20 position 2, have been associated with relatively potent inhibition of DPP-IV. Different modes of  
21 inhibition which may, or may not, involve the active site of DPP-IV have been identified. Animal  
22 studies have shown that food protein hydrolysates having *in vitro* DPP-IV inhibitory activity  
23 generally yield antidiabetic effects *in vivo*. However, clear evidence of such effects in humans is  
24 still required in order to establish the potential role of food protein hydrolysates in the  
25 management of T2D.

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## 28 **Introduction**

29 Type 2 diabetes (T2D) is a major component of the metabolic syndrome. It has been shown to  
30 affect a growing number of people worldwide. While the etiology of T2D is not fully understood  
31 a link with obesity or high abdominal body fat content has been proposed. The role of food  
32 proteins in the regulation of serum glucose in humans has been demonstrated in several human  
33 intervention studies [for reviews, see: 1, 2, 3]. Human intervention studies with food proteins and  
34 food protein hydrolysates have involved a wide range of dietary proteins originating from animal  
35 and marine as well as plant sources [4-6]. However, the mechanism(s) of action explaining the  
36 antidiabetic effects observed are currently not fully understood. It is thought that dietary amino  
37 acids and short peptides may impact in a number of ways including: (a) the direct stimulation of  
38 pancreatic cells leading to increased insulin secretion, (b) inhibition of metabolic enzymes  
39 involved in the regulation of serum glucose, such as dipeptidyl peptidase IV (DPP-IV) and  $\alpha$ -  
40 glucosidase, and (c) secretion of incretins (i.e., glucose dependent insulinotropic polypeptide  
41 (GIP) and glucagon-like peptide-1 (GLP-1)).

42 DPP-IV is an ubiquitous enzyme which has been shown to cleave and inactivate GLP-1 and GIP  
43 in the post-prandial phase, leading to a loss in their insulinotropic activity [7]. DPP-IV inhibition  
44 is currently a key target in the treatment of T2D. In this context, different DPP-IV inhibitory  
45 drugs, belonging to a class known as gliptins, have been developed and marketed [8]. Gliptins  
46 generally have a high potency, with a half maximal inhibitory concentration ( $IC_{50}$ ) in the nM  
47 range. Interestingly, over the past 30 years, different naturally-derived peptides have been shown  
48 to inhibit DPP-IV. DPP-IV inhibitory peptide sequences have notably been identified within food  
49 proteins. The DPP-IV inhibitory properties of food protein hydrolysates and associated peptides  
50 have recently been reviewed [1, 3, 9, 10]. To date, the most potent DPP-IV inhibitory peptide is  
51 Ile-Pro-Ile (diprotin A), which was originally identified in *Bacillus cereus* culture filtrates [11].  
52 Ile-Pro-Ile is also present in several dietary proteins such as bovine  $\kappa$ -casein, chicken egg

53 ovotransferrin and the phycoerythrin  $\beta$  subunit from the macroalga *Palmaria palmata* [12].  
54 The aim of this review was to assess the current literature in respect to food protein  
55 hydrolysates/peptides and their DPP-IV inhibitory properties. The link between DPP-IV  
56 inhibition and antidiabetic effects was also assessed with the view of determining the potential of  
57 food protein hydrolysates for the management of T2D.

## 58 **Potential food protein sources of DPP-IV inhibitory peptides**

59 Different dietary proteins have been identified as a source of DPP-IV inhibitory peptides using *in*  
60 *silico* approaches. *In silico* approaches have focused on researching previously identified DPP-IV  
61 inhibitory peptide sequences within various food proteins. The outcomes of these studies indicate  
62 that milk proteins are particularly rich in DPP-IV inhibitory peptide motifs [12, 13]. The  
63 limitations of *in silico* approaches reside in the necessity to subsequently develop a strategy (i.e.,  
64 enzymatic hydrolysis or fermentation) to release the target peptides from the protein.

65 To date, most of the *in vitro* studies appear to have used enzymatic hydrolysis of food proteins to  
66 release DPP-IV inhibitory peptides [14-18]. There are a limited number of studies which  
67 demonstrate that microbial fermentation could also be utilized for the generation of DPP-IV  
68 inhibitory peptides. Water soluble extracts from cheese, for example, have been identified for  
69 their DPP-IV inhibitory properties [19]. Food protein hydrolysis is typically conducted in  
70 aqueous media using commercially available food-grade enzyme preparations which are added at  
71 a known enzyme to substrate ratio. Several studies have described the utilization of  
72 gastrointestinal (e.g., pepsin, trypsin, Pancreatin, Corolase PP), plant (e.g., bromelain and papain)  
73 or microbial (e.g., Alcalase, Flavourzyme and Protamex) [14, 15, 18, 20-24] enzyme preparations  
74 to generate food protein hydrolysates with DPP-IV inhibitory properties. The hydrolysis  
75 conditions (i.e., pH and temperature) are generally chosen to correspond to the optimum  
76 conditions for the enzyme activity employed with hydrolysis durations of up to several hours to  
77 ensure the release of bioactive peptides. Further fractionation of food protein hydrolysates, using

78 techniques such as ultrafiltration, solid phase extraction and chromatographic (reverse-phase,  
79 cation-exchange, size-exclusion and thin layer) separations, have been used to obtain fractions  
80 enriched in more potent DPP-IV inhibitory peptides [16, 18, 25-29].

81 Generally, the percentage of DPP-IV inhibition is assessed following incubation of DPP-IV with  
82 the peptides/hydrolysates in the presence of a chromogenic substrate (e.g., Gly-Pro-p-nitroanilide  
83 (pNA), Gly-Pro-aminomethylcoumarin (AMC) or Gly-Pro-aminoluciferin). Various *in vitro*  
84 protocols, which may vary in terms of the origin of DPP-IV (human recombinant vs. animal  
85 extract), nature of the DPP-IV substrate, enzyme to substrate ratio, duration of incubation and pH,  
86 have been described in the scientific literature to assess the DPP-IV inhibitory potential of food  
87 protein-derived peptides [12]. These differences in experimental conditions may explain, in  
88 certain instances, the variations observed for the potency of selected peptide sequences [30].  
89 While most of the *in vitro* evaluation of DPP-IV inhibitory properties of food protein  
90 hydrolysates has been conducted with milk proteins [14, 15, 19, 31-34], alternative protein  
91 substrates from meat/animal skin [35-38], marine [18, 24, 39-41] and plant [17, 20-23, 42-45]  
92 origin have also been described in the literature. To date, the most potent *in vitro* DPP-IV  
93 inhibitory food protein hydrolysates have been reported for a peptic digest of bovine  $\alpha$ -  
94 lactalbumin with an  $IC_{50}$  of  $0.036 \text{ mg mL}^{-1}$  [31] and a simulated gastro-intestinal digest  
95 (pepsin/Pancreatin) of Navy beans having an  $IC_{50}$  of  $0.093 \text{ mg mL}^{-1}$  [43]. Differences in DPP-IV  
96 inhibition potency between food protein hydrolysates may generally be explained by their unique  
97 peptide composition but may also to some extent be dependent on the assay employed [46].

## 98 **Structure-function of DPP-IV inhibitors**

99 Research on DPP-IV inhibitory peptides from food protein sources is relatively novel (< 10  
100 years). Therefore, the number of peptide sequences which have been identified to date is limited  
101 (< 100 peptide sequences) [12, 33].

102 Elucidation of the physicochemical characteristics of peptides which are linked to DPP-IV

103 inhibition has been attempted. To date, there does not seem to be a consensus for the  
104 physicochemical characteristics of peptides which display relatively potent DPP-IV inhibition  
105 [47]. However, using a peptide alignment strategy, it has been shown that peptides containing a  
106 Trp at the N-terminus and a Pro at position 2 were generally relatively potent DPP-IV inhibitors,  
107 having IC<sub>50</sub> values < 200 μM [12].

108 Several novel peptide sequences have been identified within food protein hydrolysates using  
109 liquid chromatography mass-spectrometric (LC-MS) analyses generally coupled with bioactivity-  
110 driven fractionation approaches [16, 17, 19, 25, 29, 48]. *In silico* approaches have also allowed  
111 the identification of numerous peptide sequences [14, 34, 49, 50]. In addition, systematic  
112 approaches based on peptide library [51-53] and peptide array [48] technologies have enhanced  
113 DPP-IV inhibitory peptide sequence discovery as they allow rapid screening of hundreds of  
114 peptides.

### 115 **Mode of action of dietary DPP-IV inhibitory peptides**

116 Different modes of action of DPP-IV inhibitory peptides have been reported. These include  
117 competitive, non-competitive, uncompetitive and mixed-type inhibition [14, 17, 27, 50].  
118 Knowledge of the mode of action of DPP-IV inhibitory peptides is important in order to  
119 understand their site of interaction with DPP-IV. This information is relevant when studying the  
120 molecular docking of peptides to the active site of DPP-IV [47].

121 In addition to the different modes of inhibition, it has been shown that specific peptides could act  
122 as DPP-IV substrates. Well-known examples of substrate inhibitors of DPP-IV are Ile-Pro-Ile and  
123 Val-Pro-Ala [54]. Food protein-derived peptides which are susceptible to DPP-IV cleavage have  
124 been classified as substrate or prodrug type inhibitors. Both substrate and prodrug peptide  
125 inhibitors comprise the typical motifs of DPP-IV substrates, i.e., Xaa-Pro- or Xaa-Ala- (where  
126 Xaa is an amino acid), at their N terminus. The cleavage of substrate inhibitors generally induces  
127 a loss/reduction in their bioactive properties. In contrast, in the case of prodrug inhibitors, DPP-

128 IV releases a more potent peptide. Interestingly, DPP-IV substrates have been predicted *in silico*  
129 to be released by the action of gastrointestinal enzymes on milk proteins [55]. In particular, a  
130 prodrug inhibitor, Leu-Pro-Leu-Pro-Leu ( $\beta$ -casein (f 135-139),  $IC_{50} = 325 \mu M$ ), was shown to be  
131 cleaved by DPP-IV *in vitro*, releasing a more potent compound Leu-Pro-Leu ( $IC_{50} = 241 \mu M$ ).  
132 Therefore, the susceptibility of selected peptides to DPP-IV cleavage may have consequences *in*  
133 *vivo*, resulting in either a loss or an increase in their bioactive properties.  
134 *In vitro* studies have evaluated the effect of combining the DPP-IV inhibitory drug Sitagliptin  
135 with DPP-IV inhibitory peptides and a whey protein hydrolysate [26]. Using binary mixtures of  
136 Sitagliptin and dipeptide, together with an isobole approach, an additive effect on DPP-IV  
137 inhibition was shown in most instances [56]. Furthermore, synergistic effects were observed with  
138 Ile-Pro-Ile-Gln-Tyr ( $\kappa$ -casein (f 26-30)). While these effects have been observed *in vitro*, they  
139 need to be evaluated *in vivo* in order to determine if it is possible to combine drugs and food  
140 protein hydrolysates to, for example, restrict the possible side-effects associated with antidiabetic  
141 medicines [for review, see: 1].

## 142 **Evidence of antidiabetic effects of food-protein derived DPP-IV inhibitory** 143 **peptides *in vivo***

144 The *in vivo* studies reporting the antidiabetic effects of DPP-IV inhibitory food protein  
145 hydrolysates, conducted to date, have been carried out in small animals. To our knowledge, six  
146 animal studies have been carried out to date with zein and meat protein hydrolysates [44], milk  
147 protein-derived peptides and hydrolysates [19, 32] along with gelatin hydrolysates from Atlantic  
148 salmon [39] halibut and tilapia [57] as well as porcine skin [36]. The outcomes of these studies  
149 are summarized in Table 1. All studies demonstrated a reduction in glycaemia. This was linked,  
150 only in certain instances, to an increase in post-prandial insulin level following ingestion of the  
151 hydrolysates [36, 39, 44, 57]. In addition, four animal studies have also demonstrated a reduction



152 in plasma DPP-IV activity, which was associated with an increase in the plasma level of active  
153 and/or total GLP-1 [36, 39, 44, 57].

154 To date, the study of DPP-IV inhibition by dietary peptides in humans is in its infancy. A number  
155 of studies have analyzed serum DPP-IV activity following nutritional interventions. However, to  
156 our knowledge, none of these studies have demonstrated a reduction in DPP-IV activity as a  
157 consequence of food-protein or hydrolysate consumption [58]. Interestingly, several fragments  
158 from bovine  $\beta$ -casein have been reported in the gastrointestinal tract of humans [59], some of  
159 which had previously been described for their *in vitro* DPP-IV inhibitory properties [60] (Table  
160 2). However, to date, clear evidence for the bioavailability of food protein-derived peptides is  
161 limited [2], making it challenging to study their effects on systemic targets. This reinforces the  
162 relevance of targeting DPP-IV inhibition directly in the gut as opposed to the serum or other  
163 organs. To our knowledge, no study to date has evaluated DPP-IV inhibition directly in the gut of  
164 animals or humans in the context of nutritional interventions.

## 165 **Conclusions and perspectives**

166 To date, dietary protein hydrolysates with DPP-IV inhibitory properties have mainly been studied  
167 *in vitro*. A limited number of studies have been performed *in vivo*, with the majority of the  
168 studies being conducted in small animals. The contribution of DPP-IV inhibition to serum  
169 glucose regulatory effects following dietary protein and hydrolysate ingestion by humans is still  
170 unknown. However, it is likely that DPP-IV inhibition may play a role in the antidiabetic effects  
171 of intact and hydrolysed food proteins in humans.

172 Analysis of the current literature has allowed identification of several opportunities to further  
173 study the DPP-IV inhibitory potential of food protein hydrolysates. There is a requirement for  
174 human intervention studies to better understand the role of DPP-IV inhibitory peptides in serum  
175 glucose regulation. The interactive effects between food protein-derived peptides *in vivo* and  
176 antidiabetic drugs is also worthy for future studies. Additional studies on the interaction of

177 peptides with secondary binding sites of DPP-IV are warranted as numerous non-competitive  
178 peptide sequences have been found to be relatively potent inhibitors of DPP-IV. Finally,  
179 utilization of *in silico* approaches may help in the identification of novel food protein sources of  
180 DPP-IV inhibitory peptides. This may allow valorization of underutilized proteins as well as the  
181 development of strategies for the release of potent DPP-IV inhibitory peptides.

182

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186 **Conflicts of interests**

187 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

188

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191 Papers of particular interest, published within the period of review, have been highlighted as:

192 \*of special interest

193 \*\*of outstanding interest

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235 analysis relates to the fact that the model takes into account both the potency and occurrence of  
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## **Table captions**

**Table 1.** Summary of the outcomes of animal studies conducted with food protein-derived hydrolysates displaying dipeptidyl peptidase IV (DPP-IV) inhibitory properties.

**Table 2.** Peptides originating from bovine  $\beta$ -casein identified in the jejunum of human subjects which display *in vitro* dipeptidyl peptidase IV (DPP-IV) inhibitory activity. Adapted from Boutrou *et al.* [59].

**Table 1**

<b>Compound</b>	<b>Study design</b>	<b>Biological outcomes</b>	<b>Reference</b>
Zein (ZH) and meat protein hydrolysates (MPH)	Animals: 7 week old ♂ Sprague-Dawley rats (n=6/group) Dose: 2 g kg <sup>-1</sup> direct ileal administration Duration: acute	Antidiabetic effects observed with ZH only but not MPH. - Increased total & active GLP-1 secretion from L cells - Reduced plasma DPP-IV activity - Increased insulin secretion - Reduced glycaemia	[44]
β-Lactoglobulin hydrolysed with trypsin	Animals: C57BL/6 mice (n=10/group) Dose: 300 mg kg <sup>-1</sup> oral gavage Duration: acute	- Reduced glycaemia following an OGTT	[32]
LPQNIPPL <sup>a</sup> (β-casein (f 70-77))	Animals: 8 week old ♀ Sprague-Dawley (n=12/group) Dose: 300 mg kg <sup>-1</sup> oral gavage Duration: acute	- Reduced glycaemia following an OGTT - No effect on plasma insulin levels	[19]
Porcine skin gelatin hydrolysed with Flavourzyme <sup>TM</sup>	Animals: 8 weeks ♂ Sprague-Dawley streptozotocin (STZ)-induced diabetic rats (n=12/group) Dose: 300 mg day <sup>-1</sup> oral gavage Duration: 42 days	- Increased active plasma GLP-1 secretion - Reduced plasma DPP-IV activity - Increased plasma insulin levels - Increased plasma glucagon levels - Reduced glycaemia following an OGTT	[36]
Atlantic salmon skin gelatin hydrolysed with Flavourzyme <sup>TM</sup>	Animals: ♂ Sprague-Dawley STZ-induced diabetic rats (n=12/group) Dose: 300 mg day <sup>-1</sup> oral gavage Duration: 5 weeks	- Increased total & active plasma GLP-1 secretion - Reduced plasma DPP-IV activity - Increased plasma insulin levels - Increased insulin:glucagon ratio - Reduced glycaemia following an OGTT	[39]

Tilapia (TSGH) and halibut (HSGH) skin gelatin hydrolysed with Flavourzyme™

Animals: ♂ Sprague-Dawley STZ-induced diabetic rats (n=11/group)  
Dose: 750 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup> oral gavage  
Duration: 30 days

- Increased total plasma GLP-1 secretion with TSGH and HSGH
- Reduced plasma DPP-IV activity with TSGH and not HSGH
- Increased plasma insulin levels, being more marked with TSGH than with HSGH
- Reduced glycaemia following an OGTT, being more marked with TSGH than with HSGH

[57]

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<sup>a</sup>peptide sequence with the one letter amino acid code.

DPP-IV: dipeptidyl peptidase IV; GLP-1: glucagon like peptide 1; HSGH: halibut skin gelatin hydrolysate; MPH: meat protein hydrolysate; OGTT: oral glucose tolerance test; STZ: streptozotocin; TSGH: tilapia skin gelatin hydrolysate; ZH: zein hydrolysate; ♀: female; ♂: male.



**Table 2**

Peptide fragment	Compound <sup>a</sup>	DPP-IV IC <sub>50</sub> value (μM) <sup>b</sup>	Reference <sup>c</sup>
60-68	YFPFGPIP	670	[19]
62-68	FPGPIP	260	[19]
70-77	LPQNIPPL	46	[19]
71-77	PQNIPPL	1500	[19]
74-82	IPPLTQTPV	1300	[19]
135-139	LPLPL	325	[50]
-	Sitagliptin	39×10 <sup>-3</sup>	[56]

<sup>a</sup>The peptide sequences are abbreviated with the one letter amino acid code

<sup>b</sup>IC<sub>50</sub>: half maximal inhibitory concentration

<sup>c</sup>Bibliographic reference reporting the *in vitro* IC<sub>50</sub> value