

Antibacterial peptides derived from caprine whey proteins, by digestion with human gastrointestinal juice

Hilde Almaas¹, Ellen Eriksen¹, Camilla Sekse¹, Irene Comi¹, Ragnar Flengsrud¹, Halvor Holm², Einar Jensen³, Morten Jacobsen⁴, Thor Langsrud¹ and Gerd E. Vegarud^{1*}

¹Department of Chemistry, Biotechnology and Food Science, Norwegian University of Life Sciences, PO Box 5003, 1432 Ås, Norway

²Department of Nutrition, University of Oslo, PO Box 1046 Blindern, 0316 Oslo, Norway

³Department of Pharmacy, University of Tromsø, 9037 Tromsø, Norway

⁴Trust Hospital of Østfold, 1601 Fredrikstad, Norway

(Received 6 October 2010 – Revised 5 December 2010 – Accepted 7 February 2011 – First published online 4 May 2011)

Abstract

Peptides in caprine whey were identified after *in vitro* digestion with human gastrointestinal enzymes in order to determine their antibacterial effect. The digestion was performed in two continuing steps using human gastric juice (pH 2.5) and human duodenal juice (pH 8) at 37°C. After digestion the hydrolysate was fractionated and 106 peptides were identified. From these results, twenty-two peptides, located in the protein molecules, were synthesised and antibacterial activity examined. Strong activity of the hydrolysates was detected against *Escherichia coli* K12, *Bacillus cereus* RT INF01 and *Listeria monocytogenes*, less activity against *Staphylococcus aureus* ATCC 25 923 and no effect on *Lactobacillus rhamnosus* GG. The pure peptides showed less antibacterial effect than the hydrolysates. When comparing the peptide sequences from human gastrointestinal enzymes with previously identified peptides from non-human enzymes, only two peptides, β -lactoglobulin f(92–100) and β -casein f(191–205) matched. No peptides corresponded to the antibacterial caprine lactoferricin f(14–42) or lactoferrampin C f(268–284). Human gastrointestinal enzymes seem to be more complex and have different cleavage points in their protein chains compared with purified non-human enzymes. Multiple sequence alignment of nineteen peptides showed proline-rich sequences, neighbouring leucines, resulting in a consensus sequence LTPVPELK. In such a way proline and leucine may restrict further proteolytic processing. The present study showed that human gastrointestinal enzymes generated different peptides from caprine whey compared with non-human enzymes and a stronger antibacterial effect of the hydrolysates than the pure peptides was shown. Antimicrobial activity against pathogens but not against probiotics indicate a possible host-protective activity of whey.

Key words: Antibacterial peptides; Caprine milk proteins; Human gastrointestinal enzymes

During recent years milk proteins have been recognised as a valuable source of bioactive peptides, demonstrating various health benefits in humans. The content of these proteins may vary between different species^(1,2). Many of the derived peptides display antibacterial activity against a broad spectrum of bacterial strains, both Gram-positive and Gram-negative^(3–5). These milk peptides are mainly characterised by low molecular weight (MW), an increased number of ionic groups and an exposure of hydrophobic groups⁽⁶⁾. All the naturally occurring whey proteins, such as β -lactoglobulin (β -LG), α -lactalbumin (α -LA), immunoglobulins, lactoperoxidase, lysozyme (LZ) and lactoferrin (LF), including the glycomacropeptides in cheese whey, have been reported to be the source of bioactive peptides when digested enzymically^(7–9).

It is well known that LF, LZ, lactoperoxidase and immunoglobulins possess properties that inhibit bacterial growth, as part of the natural host defence system in humans protecting against a great number of pathogenic micro-organisms^(10–12). Fragments of β -LG prepared with commercial enzymes such as alcalase, pepsin or trypsin, produce peptides that inhibit several types of bacteria, both Gram-positive and Gram-negative^(7,13). Other studies have shown that digestion of α -LA with pepsin, trypsin or chymosin release antimicrobial peptides⁽¹⁴⁾. In addition, glycomacropeptide has received much attention due to its ability to attach to enterotoxins from various bacteria; for example kappacin, a monophosphorylated sequence, has been reported to possess antibacterial activity against *Streptococcus mutans* and *Escherichia coli*⁽⁸⁾.

Abbreviations: ATCC, American Type Culture Collection; FA, formic acid; α -LA, α -lactalbumin; LF, lactoferrin; β -LG, β -lactoglobulin; LGG, *Lactobacillus rhamnosus* GG; LZ, lysozyme; MW, molecular weight; OD, optical density; WPCG, caprine whey protein concentrate.

* **Corresponding author:** Gerd E. Vegarud, fax +47 64965900, email gerd.vegarud@umb.no

The most studied antibacterial components in milk and whey are probably LF and LZ. Both generate peptides during enzymic hydrolysis and the peptides possess strong inhibitory effects against various bacteria. Mine *et al.*⁽¹⁵⁾ identified two antibacterial peptides produced from LZ, by pepsin and subsequent tryptic digestion, which demonstrated strong inhibitory effects against *Staphylococcus aureus* and *E. coli*. During the last decade, research on peptides derived from LF has received increased attention since the derivatives strongly inhibit both Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria^(16–18). Several of these antimicrobial peptides have been sequenced and synthesised, including bovine lactoferricin f(17–41) and lactoferrampin f(268–284)^(19,20). These peptides showed a broad antibacterial effect against strains of *E. coli*, *Bacillus subtilis*, *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Salmonella enterica* and *Listeria monocytogenes*⁽²¹⁾. On the other hand, it has also been reported that LF can increase the growth of bacteria such as probiotic strains of *Lactobacillus*⁽²²⁾.

Although most of the research has been performed with bovine milk, similar results have also been observed for human, ovine, murine, equine, donkey and caprine milk. One of these peptides, lactoferricin C, has been identified as caprine lactoferrin f(14–42)⁽²³⁾. This peptide showed strong antimicrobial activity against various types of bacteria^(24,25). In most previous studies commercial proteolytic enzymes from animal or plant origin were used^(3,18,26). The questions therefore arise whether these peptides are released during human gastrointestinal digestion and in what quantity are they generated. Finally, the physiological relevance in humans remains to be proved.

Only a few human studies have been performed that could confirm the many *in vitro* studies using proteolytic enzymes. Human ingestion of an LF solution (1.5%) showed that only 20% of holo- and 38% apo-LF was digested in the stomach⁽²⁷⁾. Another digestion study with milk and yoghurt as test meals showed that very few fragments derived from whey proteins were released during digestion⁽²⁸⁾. We have previously shown that digestion of whey proteins is very dependent on the gastric pH. At pH 2, a significantly higher degradation of whey proteins was observed by human gastrointestinal enzymes as compared with at pH 4⁽²⁹⁾. Since pH in the human stomach seems to vary with age and buffering capacity of the diet, the peptides generated may also vary between individuals, leading to highly variable physiological effects. It has been shown previously that β -LG, α -LA and LZ in bovine and caprine milk are very resistant to digestion with human gastrointestinal enzymes⁽³⁰⁾ and peptides generated from these proteins will probably be present in a rather low concentrations. Digestion of milk proteins from other species may be different, as β -LG from equine milk⁽³⁰⁾ was rapidly degraded by human gastrointestinal juices.

Human gastrointestinal enzymes are a complex mixture of proteases, amylases and lipases that exist in different isoforms in combination with inhibitors, bile salts, bilirubin and other minor components that may all influence protein degradation^(31,32). In a study performed with β -LG the degradation profile was very different after the addition of bile salts⁽³³⁾. Consequently, purified commercial enzymes from

animal or plant origin and human digestion juices seem to generate different peptides from caprine whey^(29,34). Peptides available to the intestinal brush-border surface after digestion may be structurally different and display different physiological effects.

The objective of the present study was, first, to examine whether antibacterial peptides were produced from caprine whey after human gastrointestinal digestion and, second, to compare the peptides obtained with previously identified peptides using purified non-human enzymes.

Materials and methods

Whey protein concentrate from caprine milk

Caprine milk was collected from the university farm, and caprine whey protein concentrate (WPCG) with about 81% (w/v) protein was produced by rennet precipitation and ultra-filtration at the university pilot plant⁽³⁴⁾. WPCG is denoted as sample A in the antibacterial screening results.

Aspiration and human gastrointestinal enzymes

Human proteolytic enzymes were obtained according to Almaas *et al.*⁽³⁴⁾ and Holm *et al.*⁽³⁵⁾. The present study was carried out to follow up and extend our previous studies on *in vitro* digestion of caprine milk and whey. The gastric and duodenal juices were obtained from the same individual as previously described (healthy male, no medical treatment) consisting of pepsin and total proteolytic activities that are close to the mean value observed in eighteen individuals (men and women; EK Ulleberg, I Comi, H Holm, EB Heggset, M Jacobsen and GE Vegarud, unpublished results)⁽²⁹⁾. In brief, aspiration was performed by a three-lumen tube that enabled simultaneous instillation of saline in the duodenum and aspiration of gastric and duodenal juice. Saline (100 ml/h) was instilled close to the papilla of Vater and duodenal juice aspirated some 18 cm distally. The juice was immediately cooled down and frozen at -20°C . Aspirates were collected several times during a period of 6 months. Before further use the aspirated samples of gastric and duodenal juice were pooled into two separate batches to avoid variations in enzyme activity. The aspirate containing the gastric juice was characterised by pH and pepsin activity (U/ml) and the duodenal juice by pH and total proteolytic activity (U/ml). Pepsin activity in the human gastric juice was assayed with Hb as the substrate⁽³⁶⁾. Total proteolytic activity in the human duodenal juice was assayed with casein as the substrate⁽³⁷⁾. A unit of enzyme activity (1U) is defined as the amount of enzyme that produces an absorbance reading of optical density (OD) 1.0 at 280 nm in 20 min at 37°C . More than three parallels of the enzyme assays were used.

In vitro model digestion

A modified *in vitro* digestibility assay (AOAC official method 982.30)⁽³⁸⁾ was performed in two steps, using human gastric juice and human duodenal juice according to Almaas *et al.*⁽³⁴⁾.

A protein sample of 10 ml 5% (w/v) WPCG (81% protein) was acidified to pH 2.5 with 2 M-HCl, and incubated with 50 μ l (0.4 U) human gastric juice for 30 min at 37°C. pH was adjusted to pH 7–8 with 1 M-NaOH, and 400 μ l (13 U) human duodenal juice was added during continuous stirring for 30 min at 37°C. Samples were redrawn during the digestion, put on ice, frozen and then freeze-dried. The hydrolysate generated from the first step of digestion with human gastric juice was denoted sample B, while the hydrolysate obtained from the second step of degradation with both human gastric and duodenal juices was denoted sample C. The digestion was performed more than three times.

Separation of protein fractions by size membrane filtration

Fraction B from human gastric juice and fraction C from human duodenal juice digestion were separated in various subfractions using membranes with cut-offs at 5 and 8 kDa.

Fractions B and C were both prepared as 5% solutions (50 g/l). The samples were filtered tangentially through a membrane with a cut-off of 8 kDa (Pellicon 2; Millipore, Billerica, MA, USA). Fraction C < 8 kDa was further separated by size filtration on a membrane with a cut-off of 5 kDa (Mini Ultra Omega SC membrane; Pall Corp., Port Washington, NY, USA). The filtrations were performed with a Masterflex pump (Millipore) and tubings (Masterflex AG, Gelsenkirchen, Germany), with pressure at 0.5 bar (7.5 psi (pounds per square inch)). The subfractions were kept on ice, and three to four washings through the membranes were carried out. The subfractions were freeze-dried after filtration. An overview of the different protein fractions is given in Table 1.

Desalting and concentration of the fractions

Freeze-dried hydrolysates and subfractions were dissolved in 0.1% (v/v) formic acid (FA). The samples were desalted and concentrated using self-made columns consisting of C18 column material (3 M Empore C18 extraction discs; 3M Bioanalytical Technologies, St Paul, MN, USA) inserted into Eppendorf GELoader micropipette tips (Hamburg, Germany). The peptides were eluted using 2 μ l 70% acetonitrile–0.1% FA (v/v).

Identification of peptides by nano-LC–MS

Eluted peptides were diluted in 10 μ l 1% (v/v) FA before they were loaded onto a nanoAcquity™ Ultra Performance LC (Waters Corp., Milford, MA, USA), containing a 3 μ m Symmetry® C18 Trap column (180 μ m \times 22 mm) (Waters Corp.) in front of a 3 μ m Atlantis™ C18 analytical column (100 μ m \times 100 mm) (Waters Corp.). Peptides were separated with a gradient of 5–90% (v/v) acetonitrile–0.1% (v/v) FA, with a flow of 0.4 μ l/min eluted to a Q-TOF Ultima Global mass spectrometer (Micromass, Waters Corp.) and subjected to data-dependent tandem MS analysis. Peak lists were generated by ProteinLynx Global server software (version 2.1; Waters Corp.), and the resulting pkl files were searched against the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) non-redundant protein sequence databases using the MASCOT search engine (<http://www.matrixscience.com>). Peptide mass tolerance used in the search was 100 parts per million; fragment mass tolerance was 0.1 Da. Data were acquired over a mass/charge range of 300–1500 Da, detecting peptides with two or three charges. Then twenty-two peptides were selected and synthesised by GenScript (GenScript USA Inc., Piscataway, NJ, USA) with 85% purity (see Table 2) based on peptide sequences from β -LG, β -casein and κ -casein glycomacropptide (Figs 1–3) identified by the LC–MS.

Analysis of identified peptides

Of the identified peptides, nineteen were chosen to include all residues detected with minimal overlap. These peptides were analysed using Clustal 2.0.12 multiple sequence alignment (<http://www.ebi.ac.uk/Tools/msa/clustalw2/>). The alignment was analysed using the multiple sequence editor⁽³⁹⁾ (<http://www.jalview.org/>). Default settings were used for both programs.

Bacterial strains and culture conditions

E. coli K12, *Staphylococcus aureus* American Type Culture Collection (ATCC) 25 923 and *Bacillus cereus* RT INF01 were all obtained from the department stock collection at the Norwegian University of Life Sciences (UMB; Ås, Norway). *Listeria monocytogenes*, a culture of four undefined strains and *Lactobacillus rhamnosus* GG (LGG®; ATCC 53 103) were donated by Tine BA (Oslo, Norway). The cheese starter

Table 1. Protein fractions of caprine whey protein concentrate (WPCG), prepared by digestion with human gastric juice (HGJ) for 30 min and human duodenal juice (HDJ) for 30 min at 37°C, and further separated into subfractions by size membrane filtration

Fractions	Added gastrointestinal enzymes
A	Unhydrolysed WPCG
B	WPCG digested with HGJ
B > 8 kDa	WPCG digested with HGJ
B < 8 kDa	WPCG digested with HGJ
C	WPCG digested with HGJ and HDJ
Subfraction C, MW > 8 kDa	WPCG digested with HGJ and HDJ
Subfraction C, MW 5 kDa < C < 8 kDa	WPCG digested with HGJ and HDJ
Subfraction C, MW < 5 kDa	WPCG digested with HGJ and HDJ

MW, molecular weight.

Table 2. Percentage inhibition of the synthesised single peptide sequences (0.1 mg/ml), and their protein precursors, κ -casein (κ -CN), β -casein (β -CN), β -lactoglobulin (β -LG), bovine glycomacropeptide (GMP) and bovine lactoferrin (LF) on *Escherichia coli* K12, *Bacillus cereus* RT INF01 and *Listeria monocytogenes* after 10 h growth*

Protein precursor	Synthetic peptide sequence	Inhibition (%)		
		<i>E. coli</i> K12	<i>B. cereus</i> RT INF01	<i>L. monocytogenes</i>
κ -CN	106–124	8	4	6
	109–121	10	5	7
	126–133	11	5	6
	130–139	12	6	7
	141–153	7	2	No
β -CN	1–9	9	2	No
	41–51	10	2	No
	61–72	13	3	No
	81–91	6	No	No
	99–105	8	No	No
	144–151	13	No	No
	191–205	14	No	No
β -LG	1–8	6	No	No
	9–18	8	No	No
	21–32	6	No	No
	33–39	12	No	No
	43–55	5	No	No
	71–82	7	No	No
	92–100	9	No	No
	125–134	11	No	No
	139–147	0.7	No	No
	149–159	4	No	No
	Bovine GMP	No	No	No
	Bovine LF	8	No	No

* All samples were run in triplicate.

culture CHR CH-N01 was obtained from Christian Hansen Laboratory AS (Hørsholm, Denmark). This culture is a mixture of *Lactococcus lactis* subsp. *lactis* (1–5%), *Lactococcus lactis* subsp. *cremoris* (70–80%), *Lactococcus lactis* subsp. *diacetylactis* (10–20%) and *Leuconostoc mesenteroides* subsp. *cremoris* (5–18%).

E. coli K12 and *Listeria monocytogenes* were cultured in brain heart infusion (BHI) broth (Oxoid; 37 g/l) at pH 7.4 and 37°C. *Staphylococcus aureus* ATCC25923 and the mixed strain starter culture CH-N01 were grown at 37°C in M17-broth (42.5 g/l, pH 7.2; Merck).

Bacillus cereus RT INF01 and LGG® (ATCC 53 103) were cultured in de Man–Rogosa–Sharpe (MRS) broth (52.2 g/l, pH 5.7; Merck) at 37°C. Active growing cultures (1%) were used for inoculation in the growth experiments.

Assay of antibacterial activity

Freeze-dried samples of WPCG and hydrolysates (fractions A, B and C) were solubilised in water and added to growing bacteria cultures. The final protein and hydrolysate concentrations varied from 0.3 to 1.2%⁽³⁴⁾. These concentrations were selected since 0.6% is the concentration of whey proteins in milk⁽⁴⁰⁾. The synthesised peptide (Genscript) concentration used was 0.1 mg/ml. Bacterial growth was measured by OD at 660 or 600 nm. The experiments were repeated three times for each sample.

The number of viable cells (colony-forming units) was counted on agar plates for strains of *E. coli*, *B. cereus* and

Listeria monocytogenes. *E. coli* and *Listeria monocytogenes* were grown on BHI–agar plates (Merck; 37 g/l) at pH 7.4 and 37°C, and *B. cereus* on MRS–agar plates (Merck; 22.5 g/l) at pH 7.0 at 37°C. All plates, three parallels of each dilution – 10^{-7} , 10^{-8} and 10^{-9} – were incubated for 48 h and then counted. Each experiment was repeated three times.

Calculations and statistics

Growth inhibition was expressed as optical density (OD_{600 nm}) after 10 h in comparison with the control:

$$\text{Inhibition/activation} = \left(\frac{(\text{OD}_{\text{control},10\text{h}} - \text{OD}_{\text{whey},10\text{h}})}{\text{OD}_{\text{control},10\text{h}}} \right) \times 100\%$$

where OD_{control,10h} is the OD for the control bacterial curve after 10 h, and OD_{whey,10h} is the OD for the bacterial curve with the addition of the digested whey or peptide in the growth media after 10 h.

A *t* test (two-sample, assuming unequal variances) was run to compare the different growth-curves based on data obtained after 10 h. Each experiment was repeated three times with at least three parallels, and the differences were considered significant when $P < 0.05$. All the OD_{600 nm} measurements (recorded every 30 min) were calculated for standard deviation. The graphs are presented as mean values and standard deviations after 10 h. The rest of the standard deviation bars have been omitted for clarity in the figures.

MAIPPKDQDKTEIPAIN|ASA EPTVHSTPTTEAIVNTVDNPEASSESIASASETNTA QVTSTEV
 MAIPPKDQDKTEIPAIN|ASA EPTVHSTPTTEAIVNTVDNPEASSESIASASETNTA QVTSTEV
 MAIPPKDQDKTEIPAIN|T|ASA EPTVHSTPTTEAIVNTVDNPEASSESIASASETNTA QVTSTEV
 MA|PPKKDQDKTEVPA|NTIASA EPTVHSTPTTEAIVNTVDNPEASSESIASASETNTA QVTSTEV
 MA|PPKKDQDKTEEPA|NTIASA EPTVHSTPTTEAIVNTVDNPEASSESIASASETNTA QVTSTEV
 MA|PPKKDQDKTEMPAIN|T|ASA EPTVHSTPTTEAIVNTVDNPEASSESIASASETNTA QVTSTEV
 MA|PPKKDQDKTEIPAIN|T|ASA EPTVHSTPTTEAIVNTVDNPEASSESIASASETNTA QVTSTEV
 MA|PPKKDQDKTEEPA|NTIASA EPTVHSTPTTEAIVNTVDNPEASSESIASASETNTA QVTSTEV
 MAIPPKD|DQDKTEIPAIN|T|ASA EPTVHSTPTTEAIVNTVDNPEASSESIASASETNTA QVTSTEV
 MAIPPKD|DQDKTEIPAIN|T|ASA EPTVHSTPTTEAIVNTVDNPEASSESIASASETNTA QVTSTEV
 MAIPPKD|DQDKTEIPAIN|T|ASA EPTVHSTPTTEAIVNTVDNPEASSESIASASETNTA QVTSTEV
 MAIPPKD|DQDKTEIPAIN|T|ASA EPTVHSTPTTEAIVNTVDNPEASSESIASASETNTA QVTSTEV
 MAIPPKD|DQDKTEIPAIN|T|ASA EPTVHSTPTTEAIVNTVDNPEASSESIASASETNTA QVTSTEV
 MAIPPKD|DQDKTEIPAIN|T|ASA EPTVHSTPTTEAIVNTVDNPEASSESIASASETNTA QVTSTEV
 MAIPPKDQDKTEIPAIN|T|ASA EPTVH|STPTTEAIVNTVDNPEASSESIASASETNTA QVTSTEV
 MAIPPKDQDKTEIPAIN|T|ASA EPTVH|STPTTEAIVNTVDNPEASSESIASASETNTA QVTSTEV
 MAIPPKDQDKTEIPAIN|T|ASA EPTVHSTPTTEA|IVNTVDNPEASSESIASASETNTA QVTSTEV
 MAIPPKDQDKTEIPAIN|T|ASA EPTVH|STPTTEAIVNTVDNPEASSESIASASETNTA QVTSTEV
 MAIPPKDQDKTEIPAIN|T|ASA EPTVHSTPTTEA|IVNTVDNPEASSESIASASETNTA QVTSTEV
 MAIPPKDQDKTEIPAIN|T|ASA EPTVHSTPTTEA|IVNTVDNPEASSESIASASETNTA QVTSTEV
 MAIPPKDQDKTEIPAIN|T|ASA EPTVHSTPTTEA|IVNTVDNPEASSESIASASETNTA QVTSTEV
 MAIPPKDQDKTEIPAIN|T|ASA EPTVHSTPTTEA|IVNTVDNPEASSESIASASETNTA QVTSTEV
 MAIPPKDQDKTEIPAIN|T|ASA EPTVHSTPTTEA|IVNTVDNPEASSESIASASETNTA QVTSTEV
 MAIPPKDQDKTEIPAIN|T|ASA EPTVHSTPTTEA|IVNTVDNPEASSESIASASETNTA QVTSTEV
 MAIPPKDQDKTEIPAIN|T|ASA EPTVHSTPTTEA|IVNTVDNPEASSESIASASETNTA QVTSTEV
 MAIPPKDQDKTEIPAIN|T|ASA EPTVHSTPTTEA|IVNTVDNPEASSESIASASETNTA QVTSTEV

Fig. 3. Full-length amino acid sequence of κ -casein glycomacropeptide (106–169) and identified peptides (twenty-three framed) generated by the digestion with human gastrointestinal enzymes from human gastric juice (30 min) and human duodenal juice (30 min) at 37°C.

10h growth (Table 3). For both strains it seemed to be the subfraction of high MW (MW > 8kDa) that was most active (38 and 41% inhibition). The lower-MW subfractions (MW < 8kDa and MW < 5kDa) showed less antibacterial effect, except on the cheese starter culture CHR CH-01. Only four of the twenty-two synthesised peptides showed a slight antibacterial effect (5–7% inhibition) against *B. cereus* and *Listeria monocytogenes*. These four peptides were derived from κ -casein glycomacropeptide. All the other peptides derived from β -LG and β -casein had no inhibitory effect. The high-MW subfraction (MW > 8kDa) of the digested whey showed high antibacterial effect; therefore, two proteins reported as antibacterial, bovine κ -casein glycomacropeptide and bovine LF (BLF), were tested. No inhibition was shown by glycomacropeptide while bovine LF showed only moderate (8%) inhibition (Table 2).

Discussion

Antibacterial peptides from milk and whey proteins have been reported during the last 20 years with clear inhibitory effects on various strains of *E. coli*, *Listeria monocytogenes*, *B. cereus* and other micro-organisms^(3,8,18,25). However, all of these bioactive peptides have been obtained through hydrolysis with commercial enzymes of animal or plant origin. Purified non-human enzymes degrade milk proteins more efficiently to shorter peptides^(29,42,43). Addition of bile salt also seems to change the protein degradation of β -LG⁽³³⁾. The presence of other components apart from proteases

seems to be important in the overall protein degradation. Human gastric and duodenal juices contain a complex mixture of proteases, amylases, lipases, inhibitors, bile salts, bilirubin and other minor components that may have an important role in the total human gastrointestinal digestion.

Proteins digested with non-human and human enzymes seem to generate different peptides both with regard to sequence and length⁽²⁹⁾. When comparing the 106 identified peptides from human enzymes with previously identified peptides from purified commercial enzymes, only two or three peptides matched. One of these peptides derived from β -LG f(92–100) has been reported earlier in both bovine and caprine species⁽¹⁸⁾. Another peptide, called casecidin 15, having

APRKNVRWCAISLPEWSKCYQWQRRMRKLGA
 PSITCVRRTSALECIIRAIAGKNADAVTLDSGMVF EAGLDPYKLRPVAEII
 YGTEKSPQTHYAVAVVKKGSNFOLDQLQGGKSC HAGLRSGAGWNIPVGI
 LRPFLSWTESAEPLQGA VAFRFASASCVPCVDGKAYPNL CQLCKGVGENKC
 ACSSQEPYFGYSGAFKCLQDGDGAVFV KETTVFENLPEKADRQYELL C
 LNNTRAPVD ADFKECHLAQVPSHAVVARSVDGKENLIWELLRKAQEFKGN
 KSQRQLFGSPEGRDLLFKDSALGFVRIPSKVD SALLYLSRYLTALKNL
 RETAEVVKARCTRVVWCAVGPEEQSKCQOWSEQGQNVTCATASTDDCI
 ALVLKGEADALSLDGGYIYTAGKCGLVPVMA ENRKSSKYSSLDCVLRPTE
 GYLAVAVVKANEGLTWNLSLKGKKSCHTAVDR TAGWNPIMGLIANQGTGSC
 AFDEFFSQSCAPGADPKSSLALCAGDDQGLDKCVPNSKEKYYGTGAFR
 CLAEVDGDVAVFKNDTVWENTNGESSADWAKNLNREDFRLLCLDGTTPV
 TEAQSCYLAVAPNHAVVSRSDRAAHVEQVLLHQALFGKNGKNCPPDQFCL
 FKSETKNLLFNDNTECLA LKGRPTYEKYLGT EYVTAIANLKKCSTSPLL
 ECAFLTR

Fig. 4. Full length amino acid sequence of lactoferrin (1–791) and identified peptides (fifteen in black) generated by the digestion with human gastrointestinal enzymes from human gastric juice (30 min) and human duodenal juice (30 min) at 37°C.

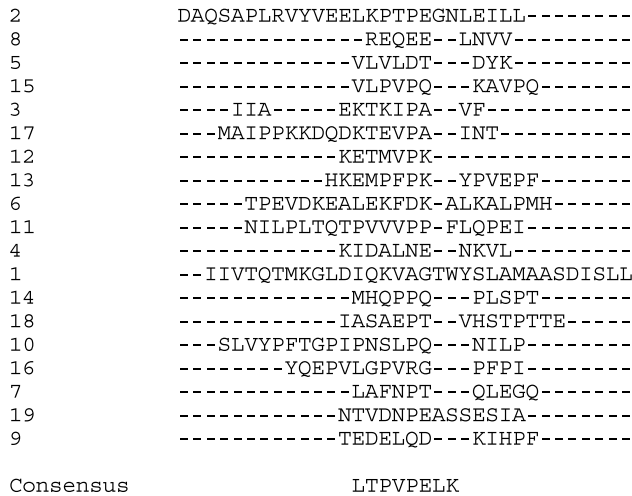


Fig. 5. Clustal multiple sequence alignment of nineteen peptides. Peptides no. 1–7 are derived from β -lactoglobulin, no. 8–16 from β -casein and no. 17–19 from κ -casein glycomacropeptide. The consensus sequence, LTPVPELK, is shown with leucine (L), proline (P) and valine (V).

the sequence f(191–205) derived from caprine β -casein has been previously reported in bovine colostrum⁽⁴⁴⁾. However, the reported casecidin 17 f(191–207) from κ -casein was not identified in the present study. These are surprising results, considering the many identical amino acid sequences in the caprine and bovine milk proteins.

A relatively high amount of proline seemed to be present in the nineteen peptide sequences shown by multiple sequence alignment analysis. A clustering sequence, LTPVPELK, containing two prolines with a valine and two hydrophobic leucines could constitute a possible common motif that plays a role in the proteolytic attack by human enzymes. This is in accordance with reports that proline restricts

proteolytic processing⁽⁴⁵⁾. Short proline-rich sequences together with hydrophobic residues such as leucine and phenylalanine have also been described as antimicrobial peptides⁽⁴⁶⁾.

Another observation in conflict with previously published reports was the absence of peptides identified from LF. No lactoferricin, LFcinC f(14–42), or lactoferrampin, LFampinC f(268–284), was identified in the present study even though these peptides have been reported with animal proteolytic enzymes and have also been identified in the gastrointestinal tract of mice^(47,48). However, the *in vivo* studies by Troost *et al.*⁽²⁷⁾ and Chabance *et al.*⁽²⁸⁾ showed that most of the LF was intact after gastric digestion (30 min) and only a few peptides were identified from whey proteins in milk after 30 min, 2 h and 4 h of ingestion.

Concerning the high potent antibacterial effect reported in the literature by purified peptides from milk proteins^(21,25,44), a relatively low effect of peptides derived from β -LG, β -casein and κ -casein glycomacropeptide on *E. coli* K12, *B. cereus* and *Listeria monocytogenes* was shown in the present study. The hydrolysate obtained after gastrointestinal digestion of whey had a much stronger antibacterial effect than the single peptides. This might be due to either a low concentration of peptides used or that the hydrolysate contained a complex mixture of high- and low-MW proteins and peptides that may act in a synergistic manner. Surprisingly, neither the peptides nor the digested whey had any antimicrobial effect on the probiotic strain LGG; it seemed rather to be activated by the hydrolysate. This may play a role in fermented milk products such as milk and yoghurts that are on the market today.

It should be realised that the amount of peptides released from whey protein with gastrointestinal enzymes is relatively low, since 65–70% of β -LG and 90–98% of α -LA are still intact after human gastric and duodenal juice digestion.

Table 3. Percentage growth inhibition of *Escherichia coli*, *Bacillus cereus* and *Listeria monocytogenes* after 10 h (optical density (OD) at 600 nm) comparing control culture without added protein with protein fractions and subfractions

Bacterial strain	Protein fractions added to the culture	Percentage inhibition after 10 h	Growth rate† (Δ OD _{600 nm} /h)
<i>E. coli</i> K12	Control	–	0.8
	A: unhydrolysed WPCG	5**	0.8
	B: hydrolysate step 1 with human gastric juice	13**	0.7
	C: hydrolysate step 2 with human duodenal juice	27**	0.12
	Subfraction C MW > 8 kDa	23**	0.13
	Subfraction C MW 5–8 kDa	1**	0.8
	Subfraction C MW < 5 kDa	0**	0.8
<i>B. cereus</i> RT INF01	Control	–	0.34
	A: unhydrolysed WPCG	0**	0.34
	B: hydrolysate step 1 with human gastric juice	2**	0.34
	C: hydrolysate step 2 with human duodenal juice	44**	0.19
	Subfraction C MW > 8 kDa	41**	0.20
	Subfraction C MW 5–8 kDa	2*	0.34
	Subfraction C MW < 5 kDa	2**	0.34
<i>L. monocytogenes</i>	Control	–	0.22
	A: unhydrolysed WPCG	0**	0.22
	B: hydrolysate step 1 with human gastric juice	2**	0.22
	C: hydrolysate step 2 with human duodenal juice	38**	0.17
	Subfraction C MW > 8 kDa	38**	0.17
	Subfraction C MW 5–8 kDa	2**	0.22
	Subfraction C MW < 5 kDa	2**	0.22

WPCG, caprine whey protein concentrate; MW, molecular weight.

* $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.005$.

† Growth rate was calculated in the logarithmic growth phase between 2 and 4 h after inoculum.

Peptides from β -LG only were identified and no peptides from α -LA^(29,30). These results seem to be in agreement with *in vivo* studies of Chabance *et al.*⁽²⁸⁾ showing that only a few peptides from whey proteins were detected in the duodenum after human ingestion of milk or yoghurt. Questions arise why proteins such as β -LG and α -LA are more or less resistant to degradation and whether they and other polypeptides are degraded further in the jejunum or by intracellular proteases.

In conclusion, the present study showed that human gastrointestinal enzymes generate few peptides from caprine whey after gastric digestion compared with duodenal digestion. Identification of the peptides in the hydrolysates was different from previously reported peptides using purified non-human enzymes. Strong antibacterial effects were observed on *E. coli*, *B. cereus* and *Listeria monocytogenes*. Pure peptides were less inhibitory compared with the fractionated whey hydrolysates. No effect was shown on the probiotic strain LGG. Host-protective activity of whey as a digestion product is an interesting dietary aspect that might be significant for public health.

Acknowledgements

The present study was approved by the Norwegian Ethical Board.

The present study was supported by the the Indo-Norwegian programme, the Norwegian University of Life Sciences (UMB) Food and Health Strategic programme and the Trust Hospital of Østfold.

The contributors to the present study were H. A. in her PhD work on digestion studies, PhD student E. E. on peptide identification, C. S. and technical assistant I. C. in all bacteriology assays, R. F. and E. J. in protein chemistry and proteomics, H. H. in human aspiration, M. J. in medical gastroenterology, T. L. in biochemistry and G. E. V. as project leader.

There are no conflicts of interest to declare.

References

- Miranda G, Mahé M-F, Leroux C, *et al.* (2004) Proteomic tools to characterize the protein fraction of *Equidae* milk. *Proteomics* **4**, 2496–2509.
- Uniacke-Lowe T, Huppertz T & Fox PF (2010) Equine milk proteins: chemistry, structure and nutritional significance. *Int Dairy J* **20**, 609–629.
- Tomita M, Takase M, Bellamy W, *et al.* (1994) A review: the active peptide of lactoferrin. *Acta Paediatr Jpn* **36**, 585–591.
- Pihlanto-Leppälä A, Marnila P, Hubert L, *et al.* (1999) The effect of α -lactalbumin and β -lactoglobulin hydrolysates on the metabolic activity of *Escherichia coli* JM103. *J Appl Microbiol* **87**, 540–545.
- Lopez-Exposito IL & Recio I (2008) Protective effect of milk peptides: antibacterial and antitumour properties. In *Advances in Experimental Medicine and Biology*, vol. 606, pp. 271–293 [Z Bosze, editor]. New York: Springer Science and Business Media.
- Panyam D & Kilara A (1996) Enhancing the functionality of food proteins by enzymic modification. *Trends Food Sci Technol* **7**, 120–125.
- Meisel H & Schlimme E (1996) Bioactive peptides derived from milk proteins: ingredients for functional foods. *Kieler Milchw Forsch* **48**, 343–357.
- Malkoski M, Dashper SG, O'Brien-Simpson NM, *et al.* (2001) Kappacin, a novel peptide from bovine milk. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* **45**, 2309–2315.
- Pihlanto A & Korhonen H (2003) *Advances in Food and Nutrition Research – Bioactive Peptides and Proteins*, 1st ed. vol. 47, Amsterdam: Elsevier Academic Press.
- van Hooijdonk ACM, Kussendrager KD & Steijns JM (2000) *In vivo* antimicrobial and antiviral activity of components in bovine milk and colostrum involved in non-specific defence. *Br J Nutr* **84**, 127–134.
- Korhonen H, Marnila P & Gill HS (2000) Milk immunoglobulins and complement factors. *Br J Nutr* **84**, 75–80.
- Korhonen H, Marnila P & Gill HS (2000) Bovine milk antibodies for health. *Br J Nutr* **84**, 135–146.
- El-Zahar K, Sitohy M, Choiset Y, *et al.* (2004) Antimicrobial activity of ovine whey protein and their peptic hydrolysates. *Milchwissenschaft* **59**, 653–656.
- Pellegrini A, Thomas U, Bramaz N, *et al.* (1999) Isolation and identification of three bactericidal domains in the bovine α -lactalbumin molecule. *Biochim Biophys Acta* **1426**, 439–448.
- Mine Y, Ma FP & Lauriau S (2004) Antimicrobial peptides released by enzymatic hydrolysis of hen egg white lysozyme. *J Agr Food Chem* **52**, 1088–1094.
- Wakabayashi H, Takase M & Tomita M (2003) Lactoferricin derived from milk protein lactoferrin. *Curr Pharm Design* **9**, 1277–1287.
- Wakabayashi H, Yamauchi K & Takase M (2006) Lactoferrin research, technology and applications. *Int Dairy J* **11**, 1241–1251.
- Haque E & Chand R (2008) Antihypertensive and antimicrobial bioactive peptides from milk proteins. *Eur Food Res Technol* **227**, 7–15.
- Yamauchi K, Tomita M, Giehl TJ, *et al.* (1993) Antibacterial activity of lactoferrin and a pepsin-derived lactoferrin peptide fragment. *Infect Immun* **61**, 719–728.
- van der Kraan MIA, Groenink J, Nazmi K, *et al.* (2004) Lactoferrampin: a novel antimicrobial peptide in the N1-domain of bovine lactoferrin. *Peptides* **25**, 177–183.
- Murdoch CA & Matthews KR (2002) Antibacterial activity of pepsin-digested lactoferrin on foodborne pathogens in buffered broth systems and ultra-high temperature milk with EDTA. *J Appl Microbiol* **93**, 850–856.
- Sherman MP, Bennett SH, Hwang FFY, *et al.* (2004) Neonatal small bowel epithelia: enhancing anti-bacterial defense with lactoferrin and *Lactobacillus* GG. *Biometals* **17**, 285–289.
- Recio I, Slangen CJ & Visser S (2000) Method for the production of antibacterial peptides from biological fluids at an ionic membrane – application to the isolation of nisin and caprine lactoferrin. *Le Lait* **80**, 187–195.
- Kimura M, Nam MS, Ohkouchi Y, *et al.* (2000) Antimicrobial peptide of Korean native goat lactoferrin and identification of the part essential for this activity. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* **268**, 333–336.
- Recio I & Visser S (2000) Antibacterial and binding characteristics of bovine, ovine and caprine lactoferrins: a comparative study. *Int Dairy J* **10**, 597–605.
- Tomita M, Bellamy W & Takase M (1991) Potent antibacterial peptides generated by pepsin digestion of bovine lactoferrin. *J Dairy Sci* **74**, 4137–4142.
- Troost FJ, Steijns J, Saris WHM, *et al.* (2001) Gastric digestion of bovine lactoferrin *in vivo* in adults. *J Nutr* **131**, 2101–2104.

28. Chabance B, Marteau P, Rambaud JC, *et al.* (1998) Casein peptide release and passage to the blood in humans during digestion with milk and yoghurt. *Biochimie* **80**, 155–165.
29. Eriksen E, Halvor H, Jensen E, *et al.* (2010) Different digestion of caprine whey proteins by human and porcine gastrointestinal enzymes. *Br J Nutr* **104**, 374–381.
30. Aabøe Inglingstad R, Devold T, Eriksen E, *et al.* (2010) Comparison of the digestion of caseins and whey proteins in equine, bovine, caprine and human milks by human gastrointestinal enzymes. *Dairy Sci Technol* **90**, 549–563.
31. Scheele G, Bartelt D & Bieger W (1981) Characterization of human exocrine pancreatic proteins by two-dimensional isoelectric focusing/sodium dodecyl sulphate gel electrophoresis. *Gastroenterology* **80**, 461–473.
32. Dunn BM (2002) Structure and mechanism of the pepsin-like family of aspartic peptidases. *Chem Rev* **102**, 4431–4458.
33. Gass J, Vora H, Hofmann AF, *et al.* (2007) Enhancement of dietary protein digestion by conjugated bile acid. *Gastroenterology* **133**, 16–23.
34. Almaas H, Holm H, Langsrud T, *et al.* (2006) *In vitro* studies of the digestion of caprine whey proteins by human gastric and duodenal juice and the effects on selected microorganisms. *Br J Nutr* **96**, 562–569.
35. Holm H, Hanssen LE, Krogdahl Å, *et al.* (1988) High and low inhibitor soyabean meals affect human duodenal proteinase activity differently: *in vivo* comparison with bovine serum albumin. *J Nutr* **118**, 515–520.
36. Sánchez-Chiang L, Cisternas E & Ponce O (1987) Partial purification of pepsins from adult and juvenile salmon fish *Oncorhynchus keta*. Effect of NaCl on proteolytic activities. *Comp Biochem Physiol* **87**, 793–797.
37. Krogdahl Å & Holm H (1979) Inhibition of human and rat pancreatic proteinases by crude and purified soybean proteinase inhibitors. *J Nutr* **109**, 551–558.
38. Rasco BA (1994) Protein quality tests. In *Introduction to the Chemical Analysis of Foods – Part 2, Chemical Composition and Characteristics of Foods*, pp. 239–242 [SS Nielsen, editor]. London, UK: Jones and Bartlett Publishers Inc.
39. Waterhouse AM, Procter JB, Martin DMA, *et al.* (2009) Jalview Version 2 – a multiple sequence alignment editor and analysis workbench. *Bioinformatics* **25**, 1189–1191.
40. PF Fox and PLH McSweeney (editors) (1998) *Dairy Chemistry and Biochemistry*, 1st ed. London: Blackie Academic and Professional (Thomson Science).
41. Pripp AH, Isaksson T, Stepaniak L, *et al.* (2005) Quantitative structure activity relationship modelling of peptides and proteins as a tool in food science. *Food Sci Technol* **16**, 484–494.
42. Almaas H, Cases AL, Devold TG, *et al.* (2006) *In vitro* digestion of bovine and caprine milk by human gastric and duodenal enzymes. *Int Dairy J* **16**, 961–968.
43. Almaas H, Berner V, Holm H, *et al.* (2008) Degradation of whey from caprine milk by human proteolytic enzymes, and resulting antibacterial effect against *Listeria monocytogenes*. *Small Rum Res* **79**, 11–15.
44. Birkemo GA, O'Sullivan O, Ross RP, *et al.* (2009) Antimicrobial activity of two peptides casecidin 15 and 17, found naturally in bovine colostrum. *J Appl Microbiol* **106**, 233–240.
45. Jörnwall H & Persson B (1983) Amino acid sequence restriction in relation to proteolysis. *Biosci Rep* **3**, 225–232.
46. Shinnar AE, Butler H & Park HJ (2003) Cathelicidin family of antimicrobial peptides: proteolytic processing and protease resistance. *Bioorg Chem* **31**, 425–436.
47. Bellamy W, Takase M, Wakabayashi H, *et al.* (1992) Antibacterial spectrum of lactoferricin B, a potent bactericidal peptide derived from the N-terminal region of bovine lactoferrin. *J Appl Bacteriol* **73**, 472–479.
48. Kuwata H, Yip TT, Yamauchi K, *et al.* (1998) The survival of ingested lactoferrin in the gastrointestinal tract of mice. *Biochem J* **334**, 321–323.