

Recent advances in microalgae peptides: analysis and health benefits

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ABSTRACT

There is now a great interest for food protein hydrolysates and food-derived peptides, since they may provide numerous health benefits. Among other foodstuffs, microalgae appear as sustainable sources of proteins and bioactive peptides to be exploited in foods and functional formulations. This review considers either protein hydrolysates or individual peptides that may be relevant in cardiovascular disease prevention, because they mimic the function of mediators involved in pathologic processes that represent relevant risk factors for its development, such as hypercholesterolemia, hypertension, diabetes, inflammation, and oxidative status. Some of these peptides are also multifunctional, i.e. offer more than one benefit. Moreover, the most efficient techniques for protein extraction and hydrolyzation are commented as well as the best methodologies for high throughput detection and quantification are discussed. Finally, current challenges and critical issues are presented.

Keywords: microalgae, bioactive peptides, LC-MS, cardiovascular prevention

INTRODUCTION

In recent years, food peptides are gaining much interest for their potential health benefits. In fact, short and medium size peptides released from food protein hydrolysis may be absorbed and modulate specific metabolic pathways by binding or inhibiting targeted receptors, with a final positive impact on metabolic diseases.^t This is very relevant since the possibility of preventing or influencing the development of pathological conditions by dietary management rather than by drug use is in line with the current propensity of many persons for a healthier lifestyle.³ In addition, the toxic or adverse effects of bioactive peptides are generally very low or not-existing.⁴ Therefore, the discovery of bioactive peptides and the exploration of their mechanism of action open the possibilities of developing innovative functional foods and nutraceuticals.

33 Until now, the most common sources of bioactive peptides include eggs, meat, fish, soybean, wheat,
34 milk, and its derivatives.⁵ However, more and more new food matrices are under investigation. In
35 particular, microalgae have drawn the attention of different groups due to their easy growing and high
36 protein contents.⁶ These are a group of simple organisms usually with dimensions between 3 and 20
37 μm that are prevalently autotrophic, i.e. capable of converting CO_2 and minerals to biomass by
38 photosynthesis.⁷

39 The human consumption of microalgae dates back to very ancient times. Some edible microalgae
40 species, such as *Nostoc commune*, *Arthrospira platensis* (spirulina), and *Aphanizomenon flos-aquae*
41 have been used as food for thousands years.^{8, 9} Whereas in the 1960s and 1970s, the interest in
42 microalgae had mainly the scope of providing protein supplements to meet the increasing demand of
43 protein linked to the exponential growth of the world population,¹⁰ nowadays numerous studies have
44 proven that these organisms are promising unconventional foods, since they exert a good nutritive
45 value, being rich in nutrients, such as proteins, polyunsaturated fatty acids, polysaccharides, vitamins,
46 pigments, and microelements ¹¹. Due to commercial factors, market demand, specific preparations,
47 and European food safety regulations, the most dominant species on the European market are
48 currently spirulina and *Chlorella vulgaris*, whereas extracts of *Dunaliella salina*, *Haematococcus*
49 *pluvialis*, or *Cryptocodinium cohnii* are commercialized for their high content of β -carotene,
50 astaxanthin, or docosahexaenoic acid, respectively.¹²

51 This review is focused on microalgae peptides that mimic the function of mediators involved in
52 pathologic processes responsible of vascular damage, highlighting the role played in the prevention
53 of cardiovascular disease. Hypertension, dyslipidemia, and diabetes are the main risk factors of
54 coronary artery disease together with endothelial dysfunction, atherosclerosis, and obesity, which are
55 also strictly connected to oxidative stress and inflammatory processes. This review takes into
56 consideration the preventive action of microalgae peptides against cardiovascular disease (CVD) as
57 well as the current trends in microalgae peptide identification, highlighting some key issues, such as
58 the heterogeneity of microalgae hydrolysates and the stochastic nature of current methods of analysis
59 by mass spectrometry, as well as the novel trend in technologies for bioactive peptide discovery and
60 quantification.

61

62 **MICROALGAE AS A PROMISING SOURCE OF PROTEINS AND PEPTIDES**

63

64 **Protein content.** In order to give an overview of protein levels in microalgae, **Table 1** collects the
65 data of the three major nutrients in some microalgae species comparing them to some common foods.
66 Although the microalgae protein content varies in the different species, it appears to be comparable

67 or even sometimes superior than that of conventional foods. For example, spirulina, a blue-green
68 microalga, has a very high content of protein (46-71% on dry weight).¹⁰ The industrial culture of this
69 species was started in the 1960s and 1970s and its large-scale production and commercialization have
70 been already accomplished. As reported by FAO the global production of spirulina in 2014 has
71 achieved 86,000 tonnes.¹⁰

72 Interestingly, microalgae show a competitive amino acid pattern as shown in **Table 2**.^{13, 14} In terms
73 of the presence of indispensable amino acids (IAA), the content in microalgae generally matches well
74 that in conventional foods. Based on the IAA content and the digestibility of each amino acid,
75 digestible IAA score (DIAAS), the newest protein quality measure recommended by FAO¹⁵ in 2011
76 has been calculated as shown in **Table 2**. This parameter depends on the lowest value of the digestible
77 IAA reference ratio. For example, the DIAAS of *Chlorella sp.* is related to histidine, which has the
78 lowest digestible reference ratio among all the IAA. Compared with high quality daily foods (i.e. egg,
79 soybean), *Chlorella sp.* presents a higher DIAAS, while the other four microalgae species are inferior
80 to different extents. One reason for this is the low content of one single amino acid, which limits the
81 overall protein quality. This is the case, for example, of tryptophan in spirulina and *Scenedesmus*
82 *obliquus*. Another reason lies in the rigid cell wall of most microalgae species, which is a key
83 constraint factor to the bioavailability of nutrients. Encouragingly, with the help of suitable techniques
84 in the downstream processing of microalgae, such as ball-milling and homogenization, the cell wall
85 can be effectively disrupted, thus increasing the digestibility of microalgae nutrients as well as
86 improving the protein quality.¹⁶

87 As microalgae display huge potential in nutritional and pharmacological applications, it is necessary
88 to prove their safety by severe toxicity assessment. A report by the European Commission listed 23
89 microalgae genus or species used for food or feed consumption.¹⁷ Among them spirulina, *Chlorella*
90 *sp.*, *Porphyridium cruentum*, *C. cohnii* have got the GRAS (generally recognized as safe) status by
91 the US FDA (Food and Drug Administration). Others, such as *Chlamydomonas reinhardtii*, *H.*
92 *pluvialis*, *Dunaliella sp.*, *Navicula sp.*, *Nitzschia dissipata*, *Phaeodactylum tricornerutum* have been
93 declared to have no toxic effects.⁸ The fact that, under strict supervision, no toxicity or any other
94 adverse effects have been found in any of the microalgal food products or animal feed, supports the
95 exploration of microalgae in nutritional development.¹⁶

96 In addition, microalgae proteins possess unique advantage in health benefits and bioactivity.
97 Phycobiliproteins are a group of brilliantly colored and highly fluorescent protein-pigment
98 components of the photosynthetic light-harvesting antenna complexes, generally existing in
99 cyanobacteria, red algae and some cryptomonads.¹⁶ Commercially used as natural colorants in food
100 and cosmetic industries as well as fluorescent markers in biomedical research and clinical diagnostics,

101 phycobiliproteins have drawn much attention for their therapeutic value, since various biological
102 properties have been reported in literature. Phycocyanin, the most important member of the
103 phycobiliproteins family, has been mostly studied. The phycocyanin-oral treatment of numerous
104 animal models has revealed a broad spectrum of bioactivities, including the anti-inflammatory, anti-
105 cancer, antimicrobial, and antioxidant activities, with a protective function of multiple organs and
106 tissues, such as heart, lung, liver, kidney, pancreas, eyes, and brain.^{18, 19} Currently, the active species
107 are supposed to be some peptides released from phycocyanin hydrolysis and not the protein itself. In
108 particular, 5 peptides, identified in a hydrolysate obtained by treating phycocyanin with pepsin in a
109 simulated gastric fluid, have been proven to have significant antioxidant and metal-chelating activities
110 and have shown cytotoxic effects on human cervical adenocarcinoma and epithelial colonic cancer
111 cell lines.²⁰ It is important however to underline that, although available literature is very promising,
112 many studies are still necessary for a complete exploration of the bioactivities of peptides from
113 phycocyanin or phycobiliproteins and other microalgae proteins.

114

115 **Biological activities of microalgae-derived peptides.** For this review, literature information was
116 collected by means of ScienceDirect database using the keywords “microalgae bioactive peptides”.
117 **Figure 1** indicates that a significant increase of the number of papers published annually has taken
118 place in the period from 1995 to May 2019, with an increasing frequency in the last decade. The
119 continuously rising research output suggests the enormous potential value of microalgae-derived
120 bioactive peptides. On the basis of our personal experience, this review is focused on the effects that
121 are useful in cardiovascular disease (CVD) prevention, i.e. the antioxidant, anti-inflammatory, anti-
122 dyslipidemic, antidiabetic, and antihypertensive activities.

123

124 **Antioxidant activity.** Oxidative stress derives from the imbalance of homeostasis between oxidant
125 and antioxidant species in cells, with an excessive production of reaction oxygen species (ROS) and
126 free radicals, such as peroxy radicals (ROO \cdot), hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂), nitric oxide radicals (NO \cdot),
127 hydroxyl radicals (HO \cdot) and superoxide radicals (O₂ \cdot^-). Robust scientific evidence has shown that
128 unlimited accumulation of ROS and free radicals leads to damage to all important cellular
129 macromolecules, such as proteins, DNA, and membrane lipids, which contributes to various
130 pathologies including cardiovascular diseases, diabetes mellitus, inflammation, liver injury, and so
131 on.²¹⁻²³

132 In order to reduce the oxidation, many researches are currently dedicated to discover new potent
133 antioxidant agents. Particularly, microalgae-derived peptides have received much attention as they
134 give a good antioxidant performance, since they are endowed of interesting free radicals scavenging

135 activities.²⁴⁻²⁸ This provides a reliable foundation for a further isolation of single bioactive peptide
136 and investigation of their mechanism of action.

137 **Table 3** lists the antioxidant peptides identified up-to-now in microalgae hydrolysates. The peptide
138 VECYGPNNRPQF from *C. vulgaris*, PGWNQWFL and VEVLPPEL from *N. incerta*, as well as
139 LNGDVW from *C. ellipsoidea* are known from some time and mentioned in several reviews as they
140 exert potent free radicals scavenging ability.³ However, numerous investigations on the microalgae
141 species are ongoing and new antioxidant peptides are continuously discovered. A tetrapeptide
142 MGRY, isolated from *Pavlova lutheri* by yeast fermentation, exhibits multiple ROS scavenging
143 action, decreases the expression of melanogenesis-related proteins, and suppresses the melanin
144 synthesis, when acting on the melanoma cells damaged by oxidative stress.²⁹ Using protease K to
145 digest the protein extracts from spirulina, a unique peptide (PNN) has been identified that shows
146 scavenging effects on free radicals (DPPH, superoxide anion, and hydroxyl radicals).³⁰ From another
147 species named *Tetradismus obliquus*, after alcalase digestion, twenty-five peptides have been
148 identified by mass spectrometry and predicted as potential bioactive agents by *in silico* investigations.
149 Two peptide sequences WPRGYFL and SDWDRF have been proven to give the best scavenging
150 effect on ABTS and DPPH, respectively.³¹ The structural features of the above-mentioned peptides
151 are in line with the characteristics observed for other peptides identified in several food sources. Low
152 molecular weight (<1000 Da) and abundance of hydrophobic amino acids (His, Trp, Phe, Pro, Gly,
153 Lys, Ile and Val) are the characteristics supposed to enhance the antioxidant capability of peptides
154 because they may lead to a favorable hydrophobic micro-environment. The imidazole, indole, or
155 pyrrolidine ring in His, Trp and Pro may serve as important proton and hydrogen donors to react with
156 ROS and free radicals. The amino acid sequence is crucially important, involving the interaction of
157 amino acids, the electrostatic and hydrogen-bonding properties, the location of amino acids and the
158 steric properties of the residues at the C- and N-termini. Other minor factors, which influence the
159 bioactivity, are the secondary structure, the stability, and their synergistic effects. In general, all the
160 above characteristics contribute to the overall antioxidant activity of peptides.

161

162 **Microalgae peptides with therapeutic effects on inflammation and related pathology.**

163 Inflammation occurs in various diseases, triggered by stimuli, such as pathogen-derived molecules,
164 products of damaged cells, toxins, or allergens, which result in the release of inflammatory mediators,
165 i.e. cytokines of the interleukin (IL) families, tumor necrosis factor alpha (TNF- α), prostaglandins
166 (PG), nitric oxide (NO), and leukotrienes (LTs).³² Up to now, the benefits of microalgae peptides in
167 counteracting the inflammatory response and related diseases are well documented (**Table 4**). An
168 undecapeptide with the sequence VECYGPNNRPQF, isolated from *C. vulgaris* protein waste, was

169 reported to effectively inhibit the production of lipopolysaccharide (LPS)-induced nitric oxide (NO)
170 *in vitro* with an IC₅₀ value of 42.4 μM, exhibiting potential anti-inflammatory activity, since NO acts
171 as the product of inflammatory macrophage.³³ Further study showed that this peptide could reduce
172 the expression of LPS-induced inducible nitric oxide synthase (iNOS) mRNA, iNOS and nuclear
173 factor kappa B (NF-κB) proteins and the production of two other inflammatory mediators: TNF-α
174 and prostaglandins E₂(PGE₂), again inhibited by these peptides. Two peptides, P1 (LDAVNR) and
175 P2 (MMLDF), have been purified from the peptic hydrolysates of spirulina proteins. *In vitro*
176 experiments have shown that both peptides fight against the histamine-induced inflammation in
177 endothelial cells by inhibiting the ROS production and interleukin (IL)-8 expression, two major
178 products of the inflammatory process.³⁴ Since endothelial inflammation is involved in the
179 atherosclerotic lesion formation, P1 and P2 have been also supposed to have anti-atherosclerotic
180 activity. Further studies have supported this hypothesis. In addition, to alleviate the endothelial
181 inflammation, they inhibit the production and expression of IL-6 and monocyte chemoattractant
182 protein-1 (MCP-1) as well as the production of adhesion molecules, including P-selectin and E-
183 selectin. All the above effects are beneficial to prevent atherosclerosis.³⁵

184 A recent study has revealed the therapeutic effects of microalgae peptides on bowel inflammation. A
185 *Schizochytrium sp.* meal hydrolysate, in which 172 peptide sequences have been detected, has been
186 reported to significantly reduce the mucosal barrier damage and to prevent colonic inflammation in
187 the colitis mice model by increasing the expression of cytokine IL-10 and to promote cell proliferation
188 for damage repairing.³⁶ Notably, there are enough research evidences based on animal experiments
189 that oral phycocyanin fights against the inflammatory process in different compartments, thus
190 relieving various diseases including hepatitis, arthritis, colitis and brain injury.^{19, 37-39} As phycocyanin
191 is hydrolyzed in the digestive tract, it seems reasonable to suppose that this comprehensive anti-
192 inflammatory effect is due to the peptides and amino acids contained in the digests. However, very
193 little is known about the bioactivity of peptides deriving from phycocyanin, an issue that is certainly
194 worth of more attention.

195

196 **Microalgae peptides ameliorating dyslipidemia.** Dyslipidemia takes place with an increasing
197 frequency correlated to the modern unhealthy lifestyle, in particular owing to a high-calorie diet and
198 lack of exercise. Numerous studies indicate that dyslipidemia is undoubtedly the major risk factor for
199 the development of atherosclerosis and cardiovascular disease, with its distinctive characteristics
200 including high levels of triglyceride (TG), total cholesterol (TC), low-density-lipoprotein cholesterol
201 (LDL-C), and reduction of high-density-lipoprotein cholesterol (HDL-C).⁴⁰ Over the years,
202 considerable research has been devoted to the discovering of compounds and drugs for lipid

203 metabolism regulation and microalgae peptides have been also taken into account as highlighted in
204 **Table 5**.

205 In a recent report, in a spirulina protein hydrolysate produced by protamex, 217 peptides have been
206 identified. Working on high-fat diet fed rats, this hydrolysate has significantly reduced the levels of
207 serum and liver lipids, including TG, TC, and LDL-C, as well as alanine transaminase (ALT) and
208 aspartate transaminase (AST), by decreasing the expressions of several genes related to fatty acid
209 transport and lipid metabolism. All these effects represent multiple potential benefits on lipid
210 metabolic disorder (LMD), i.e. they have anti-obesity, hypolipidemic, as well as hepatoprotective
211 properties ⁴¹.

212 Phycocyanin, being the most abundant protein in spirulina, has shown enormous potential to release
213 peptides against LMD in numerous studies. By treating rats with a spirulina concentrate (SPC) and
214 phycocyanin, respectively, with dosage of 3% protein level, it has been found that phycocyanin
215 contributes in a significant way to the observed hypocholesterolemic effects.⁴² In hamsters, it
216 decreases serum TC, TG, LDL-C, glutamate-oxaloacetate transaminase (GOT), and glutamate-
217 pyruvate transaminase (GPT), and also enhances the protein expression of several antioxidant
218 enzymes, exerting promising ability either against hyperlipidemia or oxidation.⁴³ It is useful to
219 observe that, although these studies suggest potential dyslipidemia-regulating effects of microalgae
220 peptides, only a few microalgae species have been investigated in this area and that no information is
221 available on the mechanism of action. Thus, more efforts would be necessary to exploit microalgae
222 peptides as effective dyslipidemia-regulating agents.

223

224 **Antidiabetic activity.** Diabetes is a chronic disease with the feature of high glucose level in the
225 circulatory system. Diabetes mellitus and its complications, such as cardiovascular disease,
226 nephropathy, retinopathy, amputation, and nerve damage, are one of the major causes of mortality,
227 accounting for 14.5% of global mortality among aged 20-79 years.⁴⁴

228 Several bioactive peptides have been discovered with potential antidiabetic effects and microalgae
229 peptides have provided some encouraging results (**Table 6**). After in vivo gastrointestinal digestion,
230 phycocyanin shows notable preventive effects on the development diabetes through multiple action
231 mechanisms. In particular, it promotes the normalization of glucose and lipid metabolism in the
232 alloxan-induced diabetic mice by activating the insulin signaling pathway and glucokinase (GK)
233 expression in pancreas and liver.^{45, 46} This kind of animal model is featured by the destruction of
234 pancreatic beta cell, which is the main cause of type 1 diabetes. Another research, instead, has
235 revealed that digested phycocyanin has therapeutic effects on mice with type 2 diabetes, manifesting
236 as insulin resistance and decreased insulin sensitivity. The administration of phycocyanin has

237 significantly ameliorated the glucolipid metabolism indexes, improving peripheral target tissues to
238 respond to insulin regulation.⁴⁷ In addition, the oral administration of phycocyanin has protected mice
239 with type 2 diabetes against diabetic nephropathy. Possibly, this has taken place via the antioxidant
240 effects of phycocyanin on urinary and renal oxidative stress markers favoring the normalization of
241 NAD(P)H expression after the treatment.⁴⁸

242 The reduction of the activity of peptidyl-peptidase IV (DPP-IV, EC 3.4.14.5), a new therapeutic target
243 towards type 2 diabetes, makes it possible to investigate the antidiabetic activity of the bioactive
244 compounds *in vitro*. DPP-IV can degrade incretins including glucagon-like peptide-1 (GLP-1) and
245 glucose inhibitory polypeptide (GIP), resulting in the loss of their ability to enhance insulin
246 secretion.⁴⁹ Hence, the inhibition of DPP-IV feasibly improves the insulin activity. It is reported that
247 protein hydrolysates from *Porphyridium purpureum* and *P. tricorutum* exhibit *in vitro* an anti-
248 diabetic activity by inhibiting the effect of DPP-IV, with IC₅₀ values of 2.28 and 2.68 mg/mL,
249 respectively.⁵⁰ Six tripeptides from *C. vulgaris* have been identified by *in silico* gastrointestinal
250 digestion as potential inhibitors of DPP-IV activities and then synthesized. Out of them two peptides,
251 i.e. VPW and IPR, showed the highest DPP-IV inhibitory activity either *in vitro* or in mice serum. In
252 addition, these two peptides have been confirmed to be resistant to gastrointestinal digestion and to
253 enter the circulation in order to exert their activity. Interestingly, these peptides have a Pro or Ala
254 residue as the penultimate N-terminal sequence and a hydrophobic amino acid as the N-terminal
255 amino acids. The structure-activity relationship of DPP-IV inhibitory peptides is based on numerous
256 studies: a hydrophobic or aromatic amino acid of N-terminus facilitates the binding of the peptides to
257 DPP-IV; whereas a Pro and Ala residue at the second N-terminal site contributes to the DPP-IV
258 inhibition. DPP-IV is in fact a post proline-cleaving enzyme that especially removes Xaa-Pro or Xaa-
259 Ala (Xaa being an amino acid residue) dipeptides from the N-terminus of polypeptides.⁵¹

260

261 **Antihypertensive activity.** Hypertension is another major risk factor in the development of CVD.
262 Many serious diseases, such as chronic kidney failure, stroke, coronary events, and heart failure, are
263 caused by persistent hypertension.⁵² Angiotensin I-converting enzyme (ACE, EC 3.4.15.1) is a main
264 therapeutic target for the development of antihypertensive drugs, since the inhibition of ACE leads to
265 the decrease of vasoconstrictor angiotensin II and the increase of vasodilator bradykinin, thus
266 resulting in an antihypertensive effect.⁵³ Interacting with the ACE structure, food-derived peptides
267 have been verified to exert huge potential of fighting against hypertension and more and more active
268 peptides are continuously discovered from various protein sources including microalgae. **Table 7** lists
269 microalgae ACE-inhibitory peptides. A recent review summarizes the major findings about
270 microalgae peptides with antihypertensive activity.⁵⁴ Fourteen sequences derived from *C. vulgaris*,

271 *C. ellipsoidea*, spirulina, and *Nannochloropsis aculata*, have been listed, among which the peptide
272 IAPG derived from spirulina gave the most potent ACE-inhibitory effect with an IC₅₀ value of 11.4
273 μM. Two more efficient ACE-inhibiting peptides, GPDRPKFLGPF and WYGPDRPKFL, have been
274 identified in an alcalase hydrolysate of *T. obliquus* proteins with IC₅₀ values of 5.73 and 0.82 μM,
275 respectively.³¹ In another study, the residues of *Chlorella sorokiniana* after hot water extraction have
276 been hydrolyzed by Protease-N followed by gastrointestinal enzymatic hydrolysis. After
277 fractionation, the most active fraction has been identified to include three ACE-inhibitory di-peptides
278 VW, IW, LW, with IC₅₀ values of 0.58, 0.50, 1.11 μM, respectively. Since dipeptides may derive
279 from numerous different proteins, these hypotensive dipeptides have been also identified from other
280 protein sources, such as ovalbumin and salmon.⁵⁵

281 Two tripeptides TTW and VHW from *C. vulgaris* have been reported to be non-competitive ACE
282 inhibitors *in vitro* with IC₅₀ value of 0.61 and 0.91 μM, respectively, and to achieve considerable
283 blood pressure decrease when administered to SHRs at a relatively low dosage.⁵⁶ These two peptides
284 have been sorted out from 4334 peptides produced by virtual gastrointestinal digestion of *C. vulgaris*
285 proteins. The screening criteria has been based on the in-silico prediction of ACE-inhibiting IC₅₀
286 values as well as on what is known of the structure / activity relationship in case of ACE inhibitors:
287 in fact, it is known that peptides with an aromatic or cyclic amino acid, i.e. Trp, Tyr, and Pro, as their
288 C-terminal amino acid are very likely to be highly active. In addition, two ACE-inhibitory peptides,
289 IQP and VEP, deriving from spirulina, have been identified with IC₅₀ values of 5.77 and 27.36 μM.⁵³

290

291 **Multifunctional peptides from microalgae.** Some microalgae peptides exhibit more than one
292 biological activity and thus may be classified as multifunctional peptides, a new definition indicating
293 those peptides that can favorably modulate more than one physiological process by affecting different
294 targets.⁵⁷ The multifunctionality of some peptides is closely related to the multiple factors of some
295 illnesses and the common factors at the basis of different diseases.

296 The most typical example is the undecapeptide VECYGPNRPQF, derived from *C. vulgaris*, that
297 show multiple effects, including antihypertensive, antioxidant, anti-inflammatory, anti-
298 atherosclerotic as well as anticancer activities. It fights against inflammation and oxidant stress in
299 endothelial cells and inhibits the production of histamine, intracellular ROS and adhesion molecules,
300 thus showing potential benefits against atherosclerosis.^{33, 58} In addition, due to the prevention of
301 oxidation-induced cell damage and inflammation in macrophages, this peptide effectively suppresses
302 cell proliferation.³³ Similarly, two peptides, LDAVNR and MMLDF, released from spirulina, have
303 been recognized as multifunctional peptides with antioxidant, anti-inflammatory, anti-atherosclerotic
304 as well as anti-allergenic activity.³⁵ The spirulina heptapeptide TMEPGKP inhibits the activity of

305 ACE and is therefore hypotensive and in the meanwhile antioxidant thus improving the vascular
306 dysfunction, again hindering the development of hypertension.

307 Microalgae protein hydrolysates also provide different health benefits. In particular, digested
308 phycocyanin is very interesting, since it is antioxidant, anti-inflammatory, antihyperlipidemic, and
309 hypocholesterolemic *in vivo*. However, since a hydrolysate has a very complex composition, it is
310 impossible to attribute the observed effects to specific peptides, what greatly limits the research of
311 multifunctional peptides in microalgae. This is a pity, considering the advantages of multifunctional
312 peptides compared to monofunctional peptides.⁵⁷

313

314 **PEPTIDOMICS IN THE CHARACTERIZATION OF MICROALGAE**

315 It is nowadays widely consolidated that MS-proteomic and peptidomic technologies are the gold
316 standard for peptide analysis. Peptidomics has become an important tool for the characterization of
317 bioactive peptides from food sources. The peptidomic strategy normally includes the protein
318 extraction, the release of peptides by single or multiple enzymes, i.e. gastrointestinal, trypsin, pepsin
319 or microbial enzymes, the subsequent separation and identification of peptides, and the biological
320 activity measurement. This strategy allows the identification and quantification of bioactive peptides
321 even in a very complex mixture, such as protein hydrolysates, using complementary and mutually
322 compatible approaches ranging from protein extraction to peptide analysis. Some important aspects
323 to consider in a driven-bioactive peptide discovery from microalgae are reported below.

324

325 **Microalgae protein extraction: technological aspects.** The protein extraction from microalgae is
326 one of the main limiting steps for the production of bioactive peptides either in small or large scales.¹⁰
327 Marine algae cell walls, generally consisting of polysaccharides, such as cellulose and xylan, and
328 sometimes including sulfated polysaccharides, phenol compounds, glycoproteins and proteoglycans,
329 are recalcitrant tissues that offer robustness and resilience to disruption.^{3, 59} The algal cell walls with
330 a high cellulose content (*C. vulgaris*) exhibit lower digestibility than those with a thinner, easier to
331 digest cell wall (spirulina).⁸

332 Furthermore, the proteins entrapped inside the cell walls and cell organelles cannot exhibit their full
333 functional potential, if not adequately extracted. For this reason, it is crucially important to select for
334 the best the cell disruption method, depending on the cell wall structure, product location, size, and
335 solubility. Several extraction methods have been proposed in literature for the extraction of soluble
336 proteins from microalgae. These methods can be divided into physical and chemical. Physical ones
337 involve mechanical shear (bead milling, high-pressure homogenization, ultrasonication, explosive
338 decompression, microfluidization), electric fields, and thermal treatments (thermal shock,

339 microwaves).⁸ Chemical and biochemical methods include, solvents, ionic liquids, pH shifts, and
340 enzymatic hydrolysis.^{60, 61}

341 Very recent, a green and innovative technology based on the modulation of both pressure and
342 temperature coupled with ultrasound intensity, has been applied for improving the efficiency of the
343 well-established ultrasound methodology. The combination of these three methods, called the
344 manothermosonication (MTS), appears as a new very efficient extraction technique. Compared to
345 conventional ultrasonic extraction techniques, it has allowed a protein recovery rate of 50% in 6 min
346 with a continuous MTS process.⁶² These findings demonstrate how the effect of pressure and
347 temperature combined with ultrasound leads to a better cell disruption and increase mass transfer
348 phenomena (increase of effective diffusivity) compared to ultrasound alone.⁶²

349 Since the new trend is in favor of combined techniques, a new microwave-assisted multiphase
350 partitioning technique (MWTPP) has been recently developed for the extraction and purification of
351 proteins from *C. vulgaris*.⁶³ With microwave irradiation assistance, a yield enhancement by up to
352 2.54 times has been reported. However, although several technological advances have been applied
353 to microalgae protein extraction, some issues need further attention. The development of protein-
354 compatible process technologies for solvent extraction of high-value products from wet biomass and
355 the development of scalable and cost-effective purification methods for the production of bioactive
356 peptides are the two most important driving-factors for improving existing techniques. In this contest,
357 to support industrial eco-sustainability, the enzyme-assisted extraction (EAE) has recently received
358 more attention in the extraction of proteins from microalgae. The treatment with food-grade enzyme,
359 such as cellulase, α -amylase, and pepsin, generally performed under mild conditions, makes the EAE
360 an ecologically friendly, non-hazardous, and low energy alternative to mechanical and chemical
361 techniques.⁶⁴ In some instances, the enzymatic disruption may result in a more efficient protein
362 extraction compared to mechanical and chemical cell lysis.⁶⁵ For example, the *C. vulgaris* protoplasts
363 have been generated using a combination of 4% onozuca, 2% macerozyme, and 1% pectinase
364 enzymes⁶⁶ and gametolysin, an autolytic metalloprotease produced by *C. reinhardtii*, have been used
365 to achieve cell permeabilization and up to 50% protein release.⁶⁷

366

367 **Multidisciplinary approaches for bioactive peptide discovery.** Microalgae derived-peptides are
368 routinely produced by the use of various commercial proteases, i.e. papain, trypsin, pepsin and α -
369 chymotrypsin; the latter used for releasing antioxidant peptides from marine *Chlorella ellipsoidea*⁶⁸
370 or by single enzyme, i.e. pepsin, to liberate new antioxidative peptides, such as VECYGNRPQF,
371 from algae protein waste.⁶⁹ Food-grade enzyme such as Alcalase and Flavourzyme have been selected
372 to hydrolyze the red microalga *P. purpureum* and the diatom *P. tricornutum* endowed of anti-diabetic

373 and antioxidant properties.⁷⁰ In addition, microalgae derived peptides can be produced by in situ
374 microbial fermentation of the parental proteins. Bacterial proteinases such as subtilisin-A have been
375 also used for releasing peptides from *Arthrospira maxima* biomass cultivated on sugarcane vinasse
376 at laboratory and pilot scale.⁷¹

377 Nevertheless, microalgae protein hydrolysates are very complex and generally contain hundreds of
378 peptides of different length and relative abundance, making a comprehensive detection a challenge.
379 To overcome this problem, until now the commonly used approach is based on various purification
380 steps (ultrafiltration, preparative HPLC on different phases, etc.) for obtaining more and more
381 purified fractions, whose retained activity must be confirmed after each single stage (**Figure 2,**
382 **Scheme A**). However, the purification of the peptide fractions from the hydrolysates is an expensive
383 and complex process. The isolation of a single peptide becomes an excessively difficult task,
384 especially when a relatively large amount is required. Nevertheless, the use of these methodologies
385 is widespread in the microalgae bioactive peptide discovery. The heptameric peptide, TMEPGKP
386 endowed with an ACE inhibitory activity, has been obtained from a spirulina gastrointestinal
387 hydrolysate after multiple purification steps, i.e. HiPrep DEAE FF ion-exchange column using fast
388 liquid chromatography, followed by further purification on a PrimeSphere ODS C18 column
389 permeation reversed-phase high-performance liquid chromatography (RP-HPLC).⁷²

390 Likewise, IVVE (an ACE activity inhibitor with an IC₅₀ of 315.3 μM), AFL (IC₅₀ 63.8 μM), FAL
391 (IC₅₀ 26.3 μM), AEL (IC₅₀ 57.1 μM), and VVPPA (IC₅₀ 79.5 μM) from *C. vulgaris*; IAE (IC₅₀ 34.7
392 μM), FAL, AEL, IAPG (IC₅₀ 11.4 μM), and VAF (IC₅₀ 35.8 μM) from spirulina have been obtained
393 by ion exchange chromatography and gel filtration. Gel filtration chromatography and two step RP-
394 HPLC has been employed to purify peptide IQP from an alcalase digest of spirulina. Ultrafiltration
395 using a membrane with 10 kDa molecular weight cut off (MWCO) has been instead used for the
396 purification of three peptide fractions from microalgae biomass with antioxidant, antimicrobial, anti-
397 inflammatory, and/or anti-collagenase activities. A novel antioxidant peptide PNN has been obtained
398 by ultrafiltration, gel filtration chromatography, and reverse-phase high-performance liquid
399 chromatography.⁷¹ However, the fractionation often does not lead to the desired results: the
400 fractionated peptides may lose or reduce their activities, due to the lack of synergism.

401 The important issue of bioavailability, has suggested a new approach to bioactive peptide discovery
402 based on Caco-2 monolayers that are used as a “natural sieve of bioavailable species”.⁵⁷ In fact, the
403 absorption as intact species across the intestinal epithelium is a main prerequisite in order to exert
404 their bioactivity *in vivo*. The Caco-2 monolayer represents a well-established model of the intestinal
405 epithelium to study trans-epithelial transport of nutrients, drugs, phytochemicals, and peptides,
406 because of their ability of expressing morphologic characteristics of normal enterocytes, such as

407 exhibiting spontaneous enterocyte-like differentiation with morphological polarity and expressing
408 brush-border peptidases when grown on trans-well polycarbonate membranes.⁷³ After absorption
409 experiments, further investigations are focused only on absorbable peptides that are generally only a
410 limited fraction of the parent hydrolysate. This model not only simplifies the high complexity of the
411 hydrolytic mixtures, but also allows to obtain valid functional information about their ability to cross
412 the epithelial barrier (**Figure 2, scheme B**).

413 This model has been applied for evaluating the absorption of several food-derived peptides, such as
414 those deriving from lupin,⁷⁴ soy,⁷⁵ and dry-cured ham.⁷⁶ Up to now, instead, only one study reports
415 the mechanisms of the trans-epithelial transport of two ACE-inhibitory peptides from spirulina, i.e.
416 IQP and VEP.⁷⁷ Both peptides have been found to be transported intact, an evidence that underlines
417 their resistance to hydrolysis by peptidases and makes them potentially effective as antihypertensive
418 agents *in vivo*. This behavior is in agreement with experimental evidences according to which
419 peptides containing proline residues are generally resistant to the degradation by peptidases.⁷⁸ For
420 example, QIGLF, TNGIIR, RVPSL, RADHP, YAEER, LKP, IQW, and YPI, some antihypertensive
421 egg-derived peptides, are resistant to gastrointestinal digestion, whereas FRADHPFL and
422 YAEERYPIL are completely hydrolyzed.^{50, 79}

423

424 **New frontiers in the discovery and quantification of bioactive peptides by mass spectrometry.**

425 The difficulty of isolating specific peptides from the hydrolysates arises from the fact that hundreds
426 of peptides may be present in a given hydrolysate. Because some peptides may have very similar
427 physicochemical properties (mass, hydrophobicity, charge, solubility, etc.), their separation and
428 purification may result very difficult.⁸⁰ Recently, with the increased accuracy (high resolution) of MS
429 analyzers and the development of various bioinformatic tools, the identification of peptides has
430 become less challenging and numerous peptide sequences can be detected simultaneously.^{81,82-84} The
431 tendency to avoid long and expensive fractionations prior to MS characterization has led to the use
432 of unfractionated hydrolysates, which are routinely characterized by LC-MS/MS, allowing the
433 assessment of gross peptide composition. In details, the most common approach used for peptide
434 sequence identification is called shotgun proteomics based on data-dependent acquisition (DDA).
435 Basically, the peptide identification is achieved by comparing MS/MS spectra derived from peptide
436 fragmentation with theoretical tandem mass spectra generated from *in silico* digestion of a protein
437 database. This type of data acquisition has been adopted for almost all peptide sequences reported in
438 this review.

439 Although the DDA approach allows exploratory analysis, it suffers of one limitation: its sensitivity is
440 strongly sample-dependent. Moreover, the biased intrinsic nature of the DDA approach may cause

441 inconsistent run-to-run reproducibility in peptide identification especially when complex samples,
442 such as food hydrolysates, are analyzed. The selection of the ions to fragment is “dependent” upon
443 some criteria previously set-up in the analytical method and is usually sorted based on the abundance.
444 Nevertheless, the peptide abundance in hydrolysates covers very huge orders of magnitude, which
445 makes it difficult a proper investigation only with the shotgun approach. Most intense peptides
446 deriving from very abundant proteins are usually very well characterized, whereas missing values are
447 often observed for peptides deriving from less abundant proteins.

448 To overcome these limitations, a relatively new approach called data-independent acquisition (DIA)
449 has been developed.⁸⁵ DIA fragments every single peptide in a sample.⁸⁶ The fragmentation is
450 “independent” of any ion characteristics (such as the abundance). Because the entire precursor mass
451 range is fragmented, no gaps in the data take place, and run-to-run reproducibility is extremely high.
452 Therefore, the unbiased nature of data independent acquisition makes it the best technique for
453 discovery proteomics. This new methodology has been recently applied as an alternative way for
454 shotgun proteomics to identify proteins of *C. vulgaris* in order to select the best extraction protocols.⁸⁷
455 The ability to comprehensively identify peptides in very complex matrices over a large dynamic range
456 and in an extremely reproducible mode opens up a world of application possibilities to bioactive
457 peptide analysis by DIA.

458 Since beside structure elucidation, the interest is to get information about the abundance of such
459 bioactive peptides, MS-quantitative approaches including absolute or relative quantification of
460 peptides by using labeling or label-free methodologies are currently adopted. Even if labeled methods
461 provide the most accurate quantitative values, they require complex experimental set-up and
462 expensive isotope labels. On the contrary, label-free methodologies allow an easy, reliable, versatile,
463 and cost-effective quantification. Peak intensity measurements or spectral counting are the most
464 employed techniques for label free quantification allowing a precise and accurate evaluation of
465 changes in abundance between samples.^{88, 89}

466 Beside to relative quantification, the absolute one based on Multiple Reaction Monitoring (MRM) is
467 actually the most frequent strategy used to quantify the total levels of a given peptide in a sample,
468 within a wide linear range, either by using label or label-free approaches. In MRM experiments
469 multiple predefined pairs of precursor and product ions, known as MRM transitions, are used in
470 combination with defined retention times to detect and quantify peptides.

471 Label-free targeted MRM has been widely adopted to quantify food derived peptides, i.e. for
472 quantifying the soy peptides IAVPGEVA, LPYP, and IVAPTGVA absorbed through Caco-2
473 monolayers and to study their metabolic degradation by endopeptidases.⁷⁵ The absolute quantification
474 using MRM has been also applied to bioactive ACE-inhibitory tripeptides extracted from rye malt

475 sourdoughs, showing the highest concentrations in gluten sourdoughs fermented with *Lactobacillus*
476 *reuteri*,⁹⁰ as well as during the bread-making process.⁹¹ This methodology has also been used to
477 determine the intact absorption of the ACE-inhibitory dipeptide VY into the blood of spontaneously
478 hypertensive rat (SHR) after administration and to detect the maximal absorption amount.⁹² Despite
479 its widespread use, to the best of our knowledge, no microalgal peptides have been quantified by a
480 targeted approach so far. However, even if MRM is considered as the golden standard for peptide
481 quantification largely because of its excellent reproducibility and quantitative accuracy of proteins
482 and peptides spanning over 5 orders of magnitude,⁹³ it remains limited in the total number of targeting
483 peptides. In addition, the development of MRM assay requires the prior knowledge of peptide
484 sequence to be quantified, a condition that rarely occurs in the field of food peptidomics.

485 To overcome these limitations, the new MS data-independent acquisition, coupled with peptide
486 spectral library match is able to provide label-free quantification in a MRM-like manner, showing
487 higher quantification accuracy and precision.⁹⁴ In details, by reference to prerecorded spectral
488 libraries, targeted data extraction can be undertaken at both the MS (precursor ion) and MS/MS
489 (product ion) levels providing quantitative abilities similar to MRM analysis.⁸⁵ Similar approach has
490 been applied for quantifying proteins from green algae *C. vulgaris* extracted using different methods,
491 i.e. direct lysis buffer method, TCA-acetone method, phenol method, and phenol/TCA-acetone
492 method. This strategy has been also efficiently applied for the relative quantification of barley gluten
493 in selectively bred barley lines.⁹⁵ These findings highlight the clear benefit of data-independent
494 analysis in the ability to use non-tryptic peptide fragments identified in the discovery experiments to
495 examine the relative levels of C-hordeins, a family of trypsin-resistant gluten proteins, without the
496 need for an alternative proteolytic strategy.⁹⁵ Since many hydrolysates are produced by the use of
497 different food grade enzymes, such as alcalase, protamex, flavorzyme, characterized by low cutting
498 specificity, data-independent acquisition would be considerably beneficial in the analysis of
499 biopeptides from microalgae. Definitely, bridging the gap between discovery and targeted
500 proteomics, this new method is very promising in food technology and nutrition, because of its ability
501 to allow the identification and quantification of low abundance peptides.

502

503 **FINAL REMARKS**

504 In conclusion, there is evidence that peptides from microalgae may potentially provide diverse health
505 benefits, particularly in the area of cardiovascular disease prevention. However, there are some
506 weaknesses to overcome for their practical application. In fact, most information comes from in vitro
507 tests, whereas in vivo and clinical studies are very scarce. In addition, more research is needed to
508 assess their bioavailability in vivo, their stability and the metabolic fate they undergo in human body

509 during digestion, transport, and absorption, as well as the final available concentrations. From the
510 point of view of the analytical methods to assess their concentrations in the starting materials and in
511 vivo, there are also some critical issues that should be addressed in a proper way. Most methods are
512 in fact only qualitative, being focused on the identification of peptide sequences, whereas the problem
513 of the quantification in different matrices is still an open question. Recent improvements in mass
514 spectrometers and novel MS techniques are actually permitting a significant advance in this direction.
515 The use of new performant analytical strategies, such as the new data-independent MS aimed at the
516 simultaneous discovery and quantification of microalgae peptides, represent a powerful tool for
517 subsequent structure-activity studies. In this contest, the newest tendency of analysis will support the
518 further investigation of the peptide structural scaffolds, their functions and mechanisms of action in
519 cardiovascular disease prevention supporting the discovery and development of novel bioactive
520 peptides from microalgae.

521

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526

527 **Ethics statement**

528 This review compares literature data: no experiments have been performed for its preparation.

529

530 **Conflict of interest**

531 We declare no conflict of interest.

532

533 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENT**

534 This work was supported in part by financial support of a fellowship from the China Scholarship
535 Council (to allow Y.L. to conduct the research at the University of Milan), in part by Cariplo
536 Foundation, project “SUPER-HEMP: Sustainable Process for Enhanced Recovery of Hempseed Oil”,
537 contract n. 2017-1005, in part by project “COMPETiTiVE: Claims of Olive oil to iMProVE The
538 market ValuE of the product” financed by AGER.

539

540 **ABBREVIATIONS:**

541 ABTS, 2, 2'-azino-bis-(3-ethylbenzthiazoline-6-sulfonic acid); ACE, angiotensin I-converting
542 enzyme; ALT, alanine transaminase; AST, aspartate transaminase; CVD, cardiovascular diseases;

543 DDA, data-dependent acquisition; DIA, data-independent acquisition; DPPH, 2,2-diphenyl-1-
544 picrylhydrazyl; DPP-IV, peptidyl-peptidase IV; EAE, enzyme-assisted extraction; GIP, glucose
545 inhibitory polypeptide; GLP-1, glucagon-like peptide-1; GK, glucokinase; GOT, glutamate-
546 oxaloacetate transaminase; GPT, glutamate-pyruvate transaminase; GRAS, generally recognized as
547 safe; HDL-C, high-density-lipoprotein cholesterol; IL, interleukin; iNOS, inducible nitric oxide
548 synthase; LC-MS/MS, liquid chromatography coupled with tandem mass spectrometry; LDL-C, low-
549 density-lipoprotein cholesterol; LMD, lipid metabolic disorder; LTs, leukotrienes; LPS,
550 lipopolysaccharide; MCP-1, monocyte chemoattractant protein-1; MRM, multiple reaction
551 monitoring, MWCO, molecular weight cut off; MWTPP, microwave-assisted multiphase partitioning
552 technique; MTS, manothermosonication; NAD(P)H, nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (phosphate)
553 hydrogen; NF- κ B nuclear factor kappa B; NO, nitric oxide; PG, prostaglandins; PGE2, prostaglandins
554 E2; ROS, reaction oxygen species; RP-HPLC, reversed-phase high-performance liquid
555 chromatography; SPC, spirulina concentrate; TC, total cholesterol; TG, triglyceride; TNF- α , tumor
556 necrosis factor alpha.

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834 **Captions of Figures**

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836 **Figure 1.** Number of papers about microalgae published from 1995 to May 2019.

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838 **Figure 2.** Multidisciplinary strategy proposed for bioactive peptide discovery *vs* the classical
839 approach. The blue (scheme A) represents the classical approach to peptide identification, whereas
840 in orange (Scheme B) are reported the new proposed steps of analysis.

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Table 1. General composition of different conventional food sources and microalgae (% of dry biomass)

Species	Protein	Carbohydrate	Lipid
Meat	43	1	34
Milk	26	38	28
Soybean	37	30	20
Wheat	13	71	1.5
<i>Arthrospira maxima</i>	60-71	13-16	6-7
<i>Chlorella vulgaris</i>	51-58	12-17	14-22
<i>Dunaliella sp.</i>	20-57	12.2-32	6-15
<i>Haematococcus pluvialis</i>	17-27	37-40	25
<i>Nannochloropsis sp.</i>	35	7.8	18
<i>Nitzchia sp.</i>	26	9.8	13
<i>Phaeodactylum tricornutum</i>	30	8.4	14
<i>Scenedesmus obliquus</i>	50-56	10-17	12-14
<i>Arthrospira platensis</i>	46-63	8-14	4-9

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Table 2. IAA profile and DIAAS of several microalgae species and conventional food source

Source	IAA content (mg/g protein)									DIAAS (%) ^a
	<i>His</i>	<i>Ile</i>	<i>Leu</i>	<i>Lys</i>	<i>SAA</i>	<i>AAA</i>	<i>Thr</i>	<i>Trp</i>	<i>Val</i>	
IAA reference pattern ^b	16	30	61	48	23	41	25	6.6	40	-
Egg (row)	24	66	88	53	55	100	50	17	72	74 (Leu)
Egg (cooked)	24	66	88	53	55	100	50	17	72	100 (Lys)
Soybean (cooked)	26	53	77	64	32	87	40	14	53	97 (SAA)
<i>Chlorella sp.</i>	20	38	88	84	36	84	48	21	55	111 (His)
<i>Nannochloropsis sp.</i>	21	48	78	61	20	104	55	16	65	23 (His)
<i>Phaeodactylum tricornutum</i>	17	49	56	56	23	107	54	16	59	75 (Leu)
<i>Scenedesmus obliquus</i>	21	36	73	56	21	80	51	3	60	40 (Trp)
<i>Arthrospira platensis</i>	22	67	98	48	34	106	62	3	71	34 (Trp)

a The calculation method of DIAAS is shown in Supplementary Information.

b Here the IAA reference pattern is especially for the population group of older children, adolescent and adult, as recommended by FAO criterion ¹⁵

His histidine. *Ile* isoleucine. *Leu* leucine. *Lys* lysine. *SAA*=sulphur amino acids (methionine+ cystine). *AAA* = aromatic amino acids (phenylalanine+ Tyrosine).

Thr threonine. *Trp* tryptophan. *Val* valine.

Table 3. Antioxidant peptide sequences derived from microalgae

Peptides sequence	Protein Source	Hydrolytic enzyme	In vitro/in vivo	Methodology and Potency	References
VECYGPNRPQF	<i>Chlorella vulgaris</i>	Pepsin	In vitro	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ABTS (9.8 μM) • DPPH (58.0 μM) • Hydroxyl radical (8.3 μM) • Superoxide radicals (7.5 μM) 	69
PGWNQWFL	<i>Navicula incerta</i>	papain	in situ (HepG2/CYP2E1 cell)	Protecting hepatocyte from ethanol-induced oxidative stress	96
VEVLPPAEL	<i>Chlorella ellipsoidea</i>			Peroxyl radicals (0.02 mM)	68
LNGDVW				DPPH (0.92 mM)	
MGRY	<i>Pavlova lutheri</i>	Fermentation by yeast <i>Hansenula polymorpha</i>	In vitro and in situ (B16F10 melanoma cells)	Hydroxyl radicals (1.42 mM)	29
				<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • DPPH (IC_{50} 0.285 mM) • Hydroxyl radicals (IC_{50} 0.068 mM) • Hydrogen peroxide (IC_{50} 0.988 mM) • Melanin synthesis suppression 	
PNN	<i>Arthrospira platensis</i>	Protease K	In vitro	Scavenging ability of	30
				<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • DPPH (81.44%) • Superoxide anion (47.84%) • Hydroxyl radicals (54.01%) • Superoxide Dismutase (SOD) (12.55%) 	
WPRGYFL	<i>Tetradesmus obliquus</i>	Alcalase	In vitro	at 100 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ ABTS (EC_{50} 4.70 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$)	31
SDWDRF	<i>Tetradesmus obliquus</i>	Alcalase	In vitro	DPPH (EC_{50} 13.97 $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$)	31

Table 4. Anti-inflammatory peptides derived from microalgae

Peptides sequence	Protein Source	Hydrolytic enzyme	In vitro/in vivo	Mechanism of action	References
VECYGPNRPQF	<i>Chlorella sp.</i>	Pepsin, flavourzyme, alcalase and papain	In vitro and in vivo (rats)	Inhibition of inflammatory mediators (NO, iNOS, NF- κ B, TNF- α , PGE2, MDA)	58, 97
LDAVNR MMLDF	<i>Spirulina maxima</i>	Trypsin, α -chymotrypsin, pepsin	In vitro (mast cells and endothelial cells)	Inhibition of the inflammation in endothelial and potential anti-atherosclerosis activity (suppression of ROS, IL-8, IL-6, MCP-1 and adhesion molecules)	34, 35
Hydrolysates including 172 peptide sequences	<i>Schizochytrium sp.</i>	Pepsin, trypsin	In vivo (mice)	Resistance of colitis (inhibition of IL-10, cell proliferation)	36
C-PC digests	<i>Arthrospira platensis</i>	Gastrointestinal digestion	In vivo (rats, mice)	Resistance of inflammation in different issues (hepatitis, arthritis, colitis, brain injury)	19, 38, 39, 98

Table 5. Microalgae peptides ameliorating dyslipidemia

Peptides sequence	Protein Source	Hydrolytic enzyme	In vitro/in vivo	Mechanism of action	References
Protein hydrolysates including 217 identified peptides	<i>Arthrospira platensis</i>	Protamex	In vivo (rats)	TG, TC, LDL-c, ALT, AST, HDL-c, regulating the expression of genes related to lipid metabolism (SREBP-1, ACC, PPAR γ , AMPK, PPAR α)	41
Digested phycocyanin	<i>Arthrospira platensis</i>	Gastrointestinal digestion	In vivo	Hypocholesterolemia	42
Digested phycocyanin	<i>Arthrospira platensis</i>	Gastrointestinal digestion	In vivo (hamsters)	Hypolipidemia and anti-oxidation (serum cholesterol, TG, LDL, GOT, GPT)	43

Table 6. Anti-diabetic peptides derived from microalgae

Peptides	Protein Source	Hydrolytic enzyme	In vitro/in vivo	Mechanism of action and Potency	References
Digested phycocyanin	<i>Arthrospira platensis</i>	Gastrointestinal digestion	In vivo (mice with type 1 diabetes)	Activation of insulin signaling pathway and GK expression	45, 46
Digested phycocyanin	<i>Arthrospira platensis</i>	Gastrointestinal digestion	In vivo (mice with type 2 diabetes)	Improving the sensitivity of tissues to the insulin regulation	47
Digested phycocyanin	<i>Arthrospira platensis</i>	Gastrointestinal digestion	In vivo (mice with type 2 diabetes)	Alleviation of the diabetic nephropathy; decrease of the oxidant stress in urine and kidney	48
Protein hydrolysates	<i>Porphyridium purpureum</i>	Alcalase, Flavourzyme	In vitro	DPP-IV inhibition (IC ₅₀ 2.28 mg/mL)	70
Protein hydrolysates	<i>Phaeodactylum tricornutum</i>	Alcalase, Flavourzyme	In vitro	DPP-IV inhibition (IC ₅₀ 2.68 mg/mL)	70
VPW IPR	<i>Chlorella vulgaris</i>	Virtual digestion (pepsin, trypsin, chymotrypsin)	In vitro and in mouse serum	DPP-IV inhibition (IC ₅₀ of VPW 348.6 µM, IC ₅₀ of IPR 376.6 µM)	51

Table 7. ACE-inhibitor peptides derived from microalgae protein hydrolysis

Protein Source	Hydrolytic enzyme	Peptide sequence	IC₅₀ (μM)	Reference
<i>Tetradesmus obliquus</i>	Alcalase	GPDRPKFLGPF	5.73	31
<i>Chlorella sorokiniana</i>	Protease N, pepsin, pancreatin	WYGPDRPKFL	0.82	55
		WV	307.61	
		VW	0.58	
		IW	0.50	
<i>Chlorella vulgaris</i>	In silico digestion (pepsin, trypsin, chymotrypsin)	LW	1.11	56
		TTW	0.61	
		VHW	0.91	
<i>Arthrospira platensis</i>	Alcalase	IQP	5.77	53, 99
<i>Spirulina sp.</i>	Pepsin, Trypsin, α-chymotrypsin	VEP	27.36	72
		TMEPGKP	132	

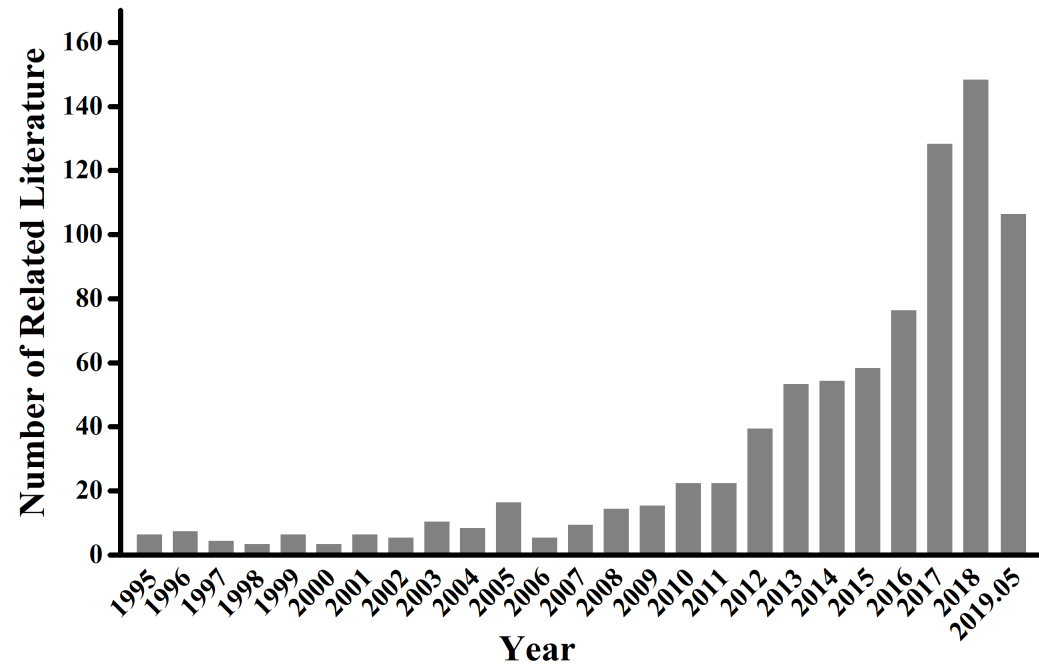


Figure 1.

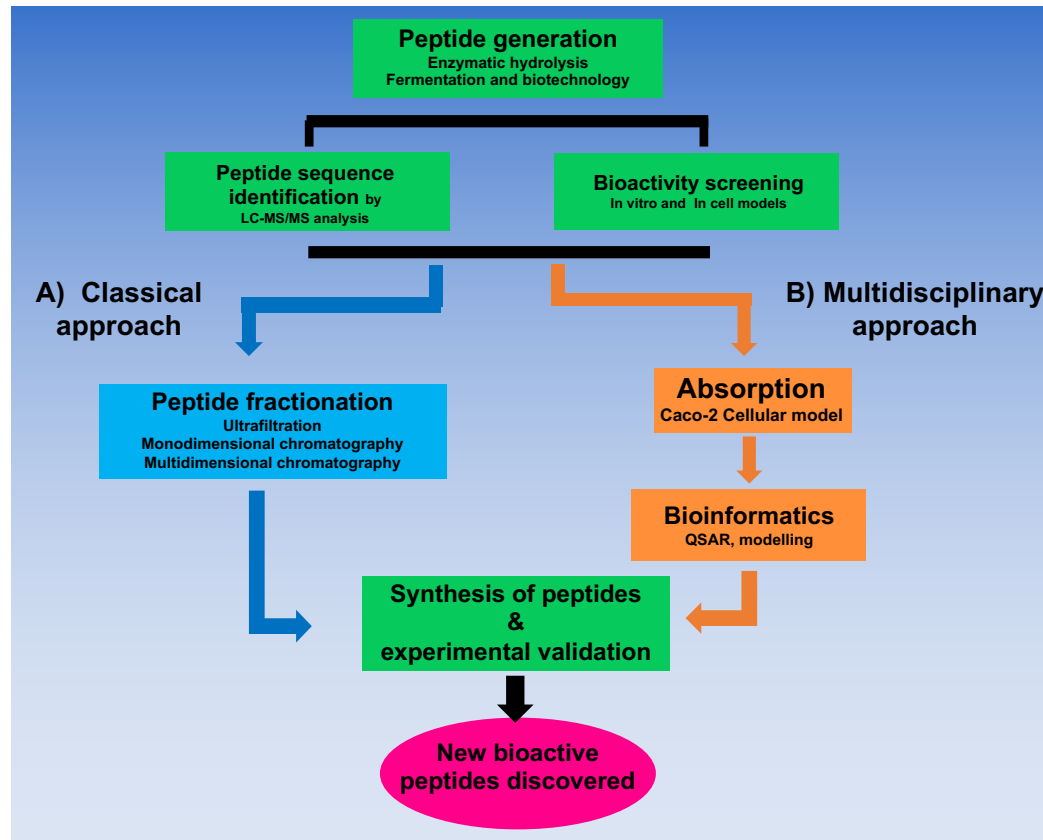
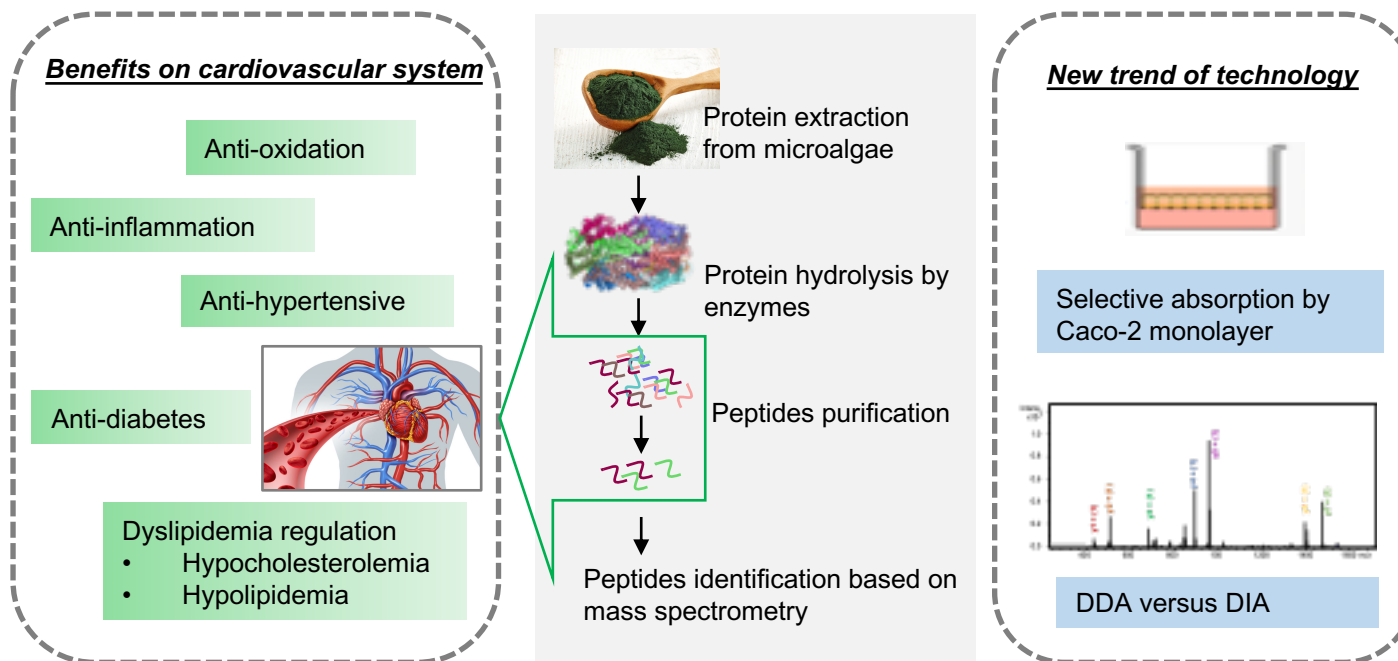


Figure 2.

Recent advances in microalgae peptides: analysis and health benefits



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