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Recent findings on the cellular and molecular mechanisms of action of novel food-derived antihypertensive peptides

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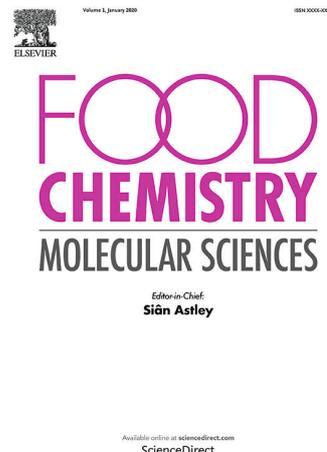
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1 **Recent findings on the cellular and molecular mechanisms of action of novel food-derived**  
2 **antihypertensive peptides**

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11 **ABSTRACT**

12 Hypertension impacts negatively on the quality of life of sufferers, and complications associated  
13 with uncontrolled hypertension are life-threatening. Hence, many research efforts are exploring  
14 the antihypertensive properties of bioactive peptides derived from food proteins using *in vitro*  
15 ACE-inhibitory assay, experimentally-induced and spontaneous hypertensive rats, normotensive  
16 and hypertensive human models. In this study, the cellular and molecular mechanisms of blood  
17 pressure-lowering properties of novel peptides reported in recent studies (2015-July 30, 2021)  
18 were discussed. In addition to common mechanisms such as the inhibition of angiotensin I-  
19 converting enzyme (ACE) and renin activities, recently recognized mechanisms through which  
20 bioactive peptides exert their antihypertensive properties including the induction of vasodilation  
21 via upregulation of cyclo-oxygenase (COX) and prostaglandin receptor and endothelial nitric  
22 oxide synthase expression and L-type Ca<sup>2+</sup> channel blockade were presented. Similarly,  
23 emerging mechanisms of blood pressure-lowering by bioactive peptides such as modulation of  
24 inflammation (TNF- $\alpha$ , and other cytokines signaling), oxidative stress (Keap-1/Nrf2/ARE/HO-1  
25 and related signaling pathways), PPAR- $\gamma$ /caspase3/MAPK signaling pathways and inhibition of  
26 lipid accumulation were discussed. The review also highlighted factors that influence the  
27 antihypertensive properties of peptides such as method of hydrolysis (type and number of  
28 enzymes, and chemical used for hydrolysis, and microbial fermentation), and amino acid  
29 sequence and chain length of peptides.

30 **Key words:** Bioactive peptides; antihypertensive peptides; hypertension; ACE-inhibitory  
31 peptides; nutraceuticals; functional foods

## 32 **Introduction**

33 Hypertension is a medical condition in which an adult has systolic and diastolic blood pressure  
34 levels of 140/90 mmHg and above. The number of people living with hypertension (sustained  
35 high blood pressure) globally is worrisomely high (WHO, 2021). Despite many efforts in place  
36 to reduce this number, the statistics have remained almost the same between 2010 till date due to  
37 elevation in alcohol, tobacco and substance use and obesity, which are major risk factors to  
38 hypertension (Louca et al., 2020). Hypertension and its co-morbidities are among the leading  
39 cause of death accrued to noncommunicable diseases, and although effective, currently-available  
40 antihypertensives do not lower blood pressure in some hypertensive patients. In addition, the  
41 high cost and side effects such as high serum potassium level and hypotension associated with  
42 these drugs also contribute to poor adherence to treatment and increased risk to other chronic  
43 diseases associated with unmanaged hypertension such as organ failure and stroke (Leoncini et  
44 al., 2020). Hence, the continuous search for more agents that are safe and can effectively  
45 normalize blood pressure, which may be the hope of those who do not respond to the currently-  
46 available antihypertensives.

47 In traditional medicine, natural products derived from plants (Verma et al., 2021), and food  
48 proteins (Wang et al., 2021) are used in managing cases of hypertension. Plant extracts  
49 (especially those rich in polyphenolic compounds) and compounds isolated from them are  
50 generating major interest in reducing blood pressure in normotensive, experimentally-induced  
51 and spontaneous hypertensive rodents (Kim et al., 2020). Reports of clinical trials on the  
52 beneficial effects of dietary proteins on hypertension are accumulating. In POUNT Lost Trials,  
53 ingestion of dietary proteins was demonstrated to modify genetic susceptibility to hypertension  
54 by significantly reducing the risk of developing hypertension in cohorts receiving high protein  
55 diets compared to placebo (Sun et al., 2019). Similarly, a 5-year follow-up of over 13,000  
56 middle-aged Korean men showed that participants who were placed on animal-based protein-  
57 rich diets were more susceptible to hypertension and other metabolic risks compared to  
58 participants receiving plant-based protein-rich diets (Chung et al., 2020). A similar result was

59 obtained in participants drawn from Iranian population that consumption of protein-based diets  
60 reduces the risk of hypertension (Mehrabani et al., 2017). Upon intestinal hydrolysis, peptides  
61 generated from these dietary proteins interact with receptors such as muscarinic and angiotensin  
62 II (Ang II) receptors to induce vasorelaxation; the peptides also modulate the renin-angiotensin  
63 signaling system (RAS), especially by inhibiting the activities of renin and ACE to lower blood  
64 pressure. In addition, some of these intervention agents modify risk factors and co-morbidities of  
65 hypertension such as oxidative stress, obesity and diabetes (Metchi Donfack et al., 2021).  
66 Furthermore, many dietary proteins reduce blood pressure by increasing nitric oxide availability  
67 and inhibiting the formation of advanced glycation end-products and insulin resistance (Ghatage  
68 et al., 2021). Among the natural products being screened as potential sources of antihypertensive  
69 agents, food proteins, their hydrolysates and peptides isolated from them with antihypertensive  
70 properties are dominating (Kaur et al., 2021; Oh et al., 2020). Generally, the exposure of unique  
71 side chains of amino acids in peptides encrypted in proteins during hydrolysis have been shown  
72 to increase their biological functionality. The hydrolysis of proteins derived from buffalo and  
73 cow milk with papain, pepsin and trypsin were shown to markedly enhance the ACE-inhibitory  
74 properties relative to intact proteins (Praveesh et al., 2011). In addition to enzymolysis, it is  
75 worthy of note that the release of peptides from proteins are also achieved using chemical  
76 hydrolysis and microbial fermentation (Aluko, 2015), discussed briefly later.

77 Previous review articles discussed antihypertensive protein hydrolysates and their peptides  
78 reported up to 2015 (Hernández-Ledesma et al., 2011; Martínez-Maqueda et al., 2012; Aluko,  
79 2015). While the first two studies focused more on sources of the peptides, Aluko et al. further  
80 discussed methods of preparation of antihypertensive peptides (AHPs) isolated by 2015 and their  
81 mode of action, specifically the inhibition ACE and renin activities and blocking of interaction  
82 between the vasoconstrictor, Ang II and its receptors. Recently, the inhibitory properties of  
83 peptides isolated from proteins originating from Amaranth, fish and microalgae against ACE and  
84 renin activities were recently reviewed (Jiang et al., 2021; Nardo et al., 2020; Yathisha et al.,  
85 2018). It is worthy to mention that the methods of production, isolation, purification and  
86 quantification, and bioavailability of the antihypertensive peptides were discussed in previous  
87 reviews (Aluko, 2015; Jogi et al., 2021; Xue et al., 2021). Hence, only some unique steps in  
88 peptide isolation with special reference to recently adopted techniques to improve upon some of

89 the challenges associated with peptide isolation, identification and quantification were  
90 highlighted in this review. The review further discussed: (I) the ACE-inhibitory and blood  
91 pressure-lowering novel peptides isolated from protein hydrolysates of plant and animal origin  
92 investigated using *in vivo*, *in silico*, cell culture, animal and human clinical studies and reported  
93 in recent peer-reviewed articles (2015-July 30, 2021), (II) the cellular and molecular mechanisms  
94 of blood pressure-lowering potentials of these food protein hydrolysates and peptides due to the  
95 induction of vasodilation via upregulation of cyclo-oxygenase (COX) and prostaglandin receptor  
96 and endothelial nitric oxide synthase expression and L-type  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channel blockade, (III) how the  
97 method of preparation (type of microbes used for fermentation and type/number of enzymes used  
98 for enzymolysis), amino acid chain length and amino acid sequence influence antihypertensive  
99 properties of peptides and (IV) limitations of current research and future research directions. In  
100 addition to already demonstrated mechanisms by which food protein hydrolysates and peptides  
101 lower blood pressure, we also discussed other potential signaling pathways via which blood  
102 pressure can be regulated such as modulation of inflammation (TNF- $\alpha$ , and other cytokines  
103 signaling), oxidative stress (Keap-1/Nrf2/ARE/HO-1 and related signaling pathways), PPAR-  
104  $\gamma$ /caspase3/MAPK signaling pathways and inhibition of lipid accumulation. This will encourage  
105 researchers to explore these signaling pathways as possible mechanisms of action of AHPs in  
106 future studies. Finally, this review aims to project the uniqueness of these novel AHPs mostly  
107 sourced from wastes and underutilized natural products such as bones and muscles of marine  
108 organisms, plant and animal wastes, and fermentation products of unique microorganisms as  
109 excellent candidates for functional food development.

#### 110 **Preparation of antihypertensive peptides from food proteins**

111 Dietary proteins are first isolated from its source such as milk, egg, meat, snail, chicken, fish,  
112 soybean, rice, lupin, mung bean, and Amaranth. Proteins have been hydrolyzed into peptide units  
113 using a variety of ways by basically transferring the proteins into the active site of the proteases  
114 to hydrolyze their peptide bonds. Maximum hydrolytic efficiency is achieved by adjusting  
115 medium (water or buffer) to optimum temperature and optimum pH of the enzyme (Adjonu et  
116 al., 2013). Previously, the use of a single enzyme for protein hydrolysis is common but recently,  
117 a combination of two or more enzymes during protein hydrolysis is adopted to increase the yield  
118 of shorter chain peptides which are shown exert better bioavailability and bioactivity. Whereas in

119 multiple enzyme digestion method, two or more enzymes are used simultaneously (if they  
120 possess same optimal pH and temperature) or consecutively (Aluko, 2015). In many cases, the  
121 biological activity (such as antihypertensive activity) of the protein hydrolysates are assayed.  
122 This is followed by separation of the protein hydrolysates into fractions based on their molecular  
123 weight and the fractions with marked biological activities are selected for separation into their  
124 peptides. The peptides in the protein hydrolysate vary in chain length, hydrophobicity, net  
125 charge, and activity; these physicochemical properties inform the techniques needed to separate  
126 the peptides such as peptide purification, and amino acid sequence identification (Girgih et al.,  
127 2015). The most common technique, membrane ultracentrifugation, sort the peptides in protein  
128 hydrolysates based on their size/molecular weight/peptide chain length which could be from least  
129 to large and vice versa. Other improved techniques such as reverse-phase high-performance  
130 liquid chromatography (RP-HPLC) and Fast protein liquid chromatography are currently adopted  
131 to improve peptide yield and purity (Girgih et al., 2013; He et al., 2013; Franca-Oliveira et al.,  
132 2021). Recently, more advanced techniques such as matrix-assisted laser desorption ionization  
133 time-of-flight mass spectrophotometer are used for peptide purification while the amino acid  
134 sequence of the peptides are recognized using automated techniques such as peptide sequencer  
135 (He et al., 2021; Song et al., 2021). This is followed by the confirmation of the antihypertensive  
136 activity of the characterized peptide(s) using any of the in vitro assays, animal model and human  
137 subjects.

138

### 139 **Figure 1: key steps in the preparation of antihypertensive peptides**

#### 140 **Molecular mechanisms of action of food protein-derived antihypertensive peptides**

141 Hypertension is a debilitating condition caused by irregularities with several pathophysiological  
142 factors and enzyme systems that play vital roles in maintaining homeostasis between the  
143 constriction and dilation of vascular systems. Some of these factors, in addition to RAS, are  
144 activities of the various isoform the endothelial nitric oxide synthase (eNOS), serum level of pro-  
145 inflammatory cytokines [such as interleukin (IL)-1 $\beta$ , IL-6, IL-8, IL-17, and IL-23, transforming  
146 growth factor beta (TGF $\beta$ ), and tumor necrotic factor alpha (TNF $\alpha$ )], regulation of nuclear factor  
147 erythroid 2-like 2 (Nrf2) (Daiber et al., 2020), and possibly, regulation of COX-mediated

148 production of prostanoids and prostacyclins. Many studies have discovered some constitutive  
149 bioactive peptides that effectively help in reducing hypertension, by stimulating a balance  
150 between the constriction and dilation events of large blood vessels, especially during vascular  
151 injuries and blood clotting. This section provides a brief overview of the different pathways  
152 involved in blood pressure regulation and recently isolated antihypertensive peptides modulating  
153 these pathways.

154 ***Previously recognized mechanism of blood pressure lowering by bioactive peptides***

155 Unregulated RAS activity results in elevated blood pressure, modulators of RAS activities such  
156 as ACE and renin inhibitors and Ang II receptor blockers are employed to lower blood pressure.  
157 These medications are one of the most effective strategies to manage high blood pressure, heart  
158 failure, renal failure, and the negative consequences of diabetes (Hanafi et al., 2018). Synthetic  
159 medicines such as captopril, enalapril, and lisinopril are being used to treat hypertension. These  
160 drugs inhibit the ability of ACE to convert Ang I to Ang II, the potent vasoconstrictor; therefore,  
161 inhibition of ACE would result in a decrease in blood pressure. However, undesirable side-  
162 effects such as angioedema, persistent dry coughs, and fetopathy are common with the use of  
163 these synthetic drugs (Hanafi et al., 2018). Unlike synthetic counterparts, natural ACE inhibitors  
164 are thought to be a safer option. A number of peptides having *in vitro* ACE inhibitory action  
165 have been demonstrated to impact blood pressure in spontaneously hypertensive rats (SHR) and  
166 humans in a beneficial way without adverse effects (Hanafi et al., 2018).

167 From plant-based proteins hydrolysates, a number of novel AHPs with ACE-inhibitory and  
168 blood pressure lowering properties have been isolated. For instance, EAQRLLF, PSLRSYLAE,  
169 PDRSIHGRQLAE, FITAFR and RGQVLS isolated from alcalase-hydrolyzed green soybean  
170 seed protein inhibited ACE activity by 94.19%, 99.31%, 92.92%, 101.51% and 90.40%,  
171 respectively (Hanafi et al., 2018). Other plant proteins derived novel peptide with ACE-  
172 inhibitory activity include LTFPGSAED from lupin seed in intestinal Caco-2 cells ( $IC_{50} = 13.7$   
173  $\mu M$ ) and in renal HK-2 cells ( $IC_{50} = 79.6 \mu M$ ) (Lammi et al., 2020), QTDEYGNPPR,  
174 AGFAGDDAPR, IDESLR, IQDKEGIPPDQQR from black tea ( $IC_{50}$  values of 210.03, 178.91,  
175 196.31 and 121.11  $\mu mol/L$  respectively) (Lu et al., 2021), APKIEEV from defatted areca nut  
176 kernel globulin ( $IC_{50} = 550.41 mol/L$ ) (Liu et al., 2021), ALAPE from *Pinctada imbricata fucata*

177 (IC<sub>50</sub> = 167.5 μM) (Liu et al., 2019) and IW form *Oncorhynchus gorbuscha* (IC<sub>50</sub> = 1.2 μM)  
 178 (Abachi et al., 2019).

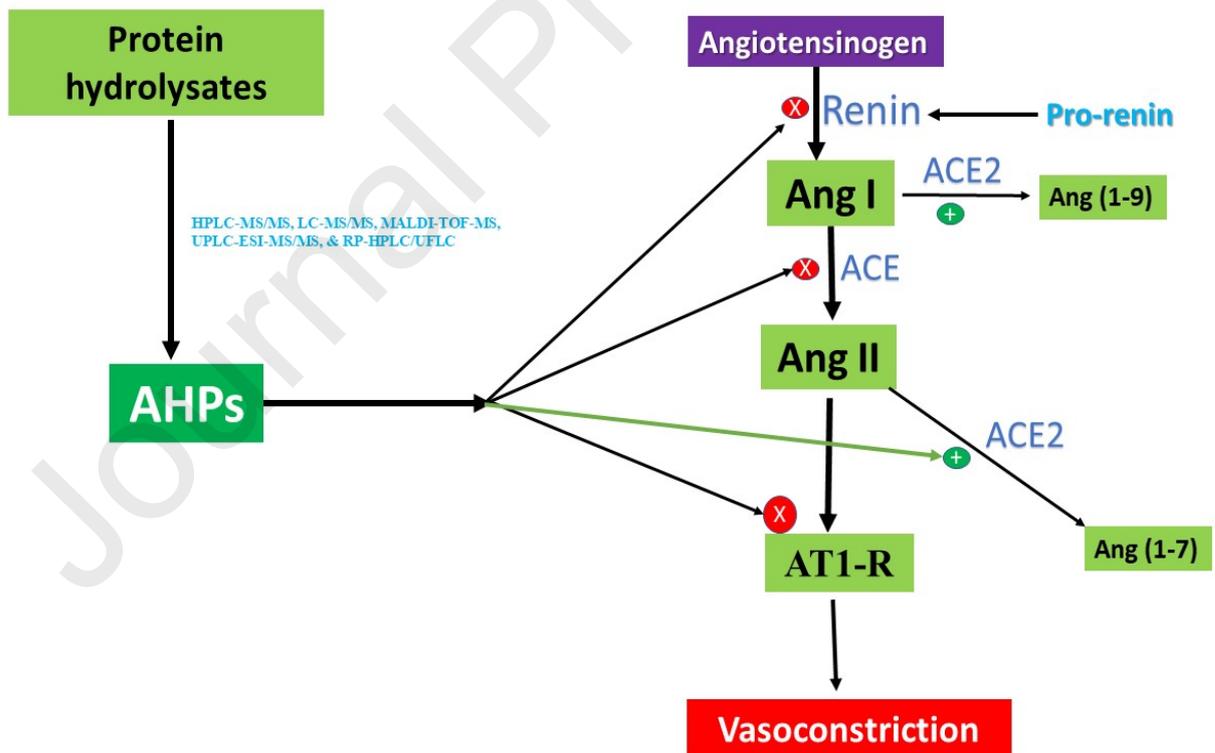
179 Similarly, animal protein-derived peptides have been shown to have antihypertensive effects via  
 180 inhibition of ACE and renin activities. A few examples of these include AEWLHDWKL and  
 181 MVPYPQR from camel milk (IC<sub>50</sub> = 30 μM) (Soleymanzadeh et al., 2019), and IPP, LIVTQ,  
 182 IIAE and LVYPPF from whey/milk protein (IC<sub>50</sub> = values of 1.23, 113, 128 and 97 μg/mL  
 183 respectively) (Chamata et al., 2020). Generally, these peptides inhibit ACE activity through the  
 184 formation of H-bonding with the enzyme's active site catalytic residues (Ala 354, Gln 281, His  
 185 513, Tyr 520, Lys 511, and Glu 162) (Yu et al., 2020). After demonstrating good ACE-inhibitory  
 186 activities *in vitro*, Yu et al. (2021) fed two pentapeptides, QIGLF and RVPSL to SHR for four  
 187 weeks and recorded strong suppression of SBP. Molecular analysis demonstrated that the  
 188 peptides elicited their antihypertensive effects by competitively inhibiting ACE activity. Other  
 189 novel peptides with ACE-inhibitory effects recently isolated are presented in Table 1 while the  
 190 mechanism of action of the peptides targeting RAS is shown in Figure 2.

191 Table 1: Novel ACE-inhibitory peptides isolated recently from food proteins

Novel peptide	Protein source	Activity (IC <sub>50</sub> value)	References
LY, LVS, YQ, APSY, and RGGY	Wheat gluten	0.31, 0.60, 2.00, 1.47 and 1.48 mmol/L, respectively	(Liu et al., 2021)
IIAATPVPAAH	<i>Bellamya bengalensis</i> (gastropod snail) muscle meat	8.52 μg/mL	(Dey et al., 2021)
SFNLPILR and AFEDGFVWSKF	Amaranth grains	2.50 and 1.47 mM, respectively	(Nardo et al., 2020)
IVDR, WYK and VASVI	<i>Paralichthys olivaceus</i> (Surimi) myofibrillar	46.90, 32.97 and 32.66 μM, respectively	(Oh et al., 2020)
EKVNELSK, MKP and LLYQEPVLPVVR	Casein hydrolysate	6.0, 0.43 and 5.0 μM, respectively	(Liu et al., 2019; Yuda et al., 2020)
IPP, IIAE, LVYPPF and LIVTQ	Whey/milk protein	1.23, 128, 97 and 113 μg/mL, respectively	(Chamata et al., 2020)
AVKILP, LSGPVKF, AVFQHNCQE, VGKPGARAPMY and QVGPLIGRYCG	Chicken foot	7.1, 80.9, 44.8, 29.7 and 11 μM, respectively	(Bravo et al., 2019)

AVQ and YPQ	Distilled spent grain	181 and 220 $\mu\text{M}$ , respectively	(Wei et al., 2019)
TNLDWY, RADFY and RVFDGAV	<i>Ginkgo biloba</i> (Ginkgo) seeds	1.93, 1.35 and 1.01 mM, respectively	(Ma et al., 2019)
LSGYGP	<i>Oreochromis niloticus</i> Linnaeus (tilapia) skin gelatin	2.577 $\mu\text{mol/L}$	(Chen et al., 2020)
SSYYPFK	<i>Avena nuda</i> (Naked oat) globulin	91.82 $\mu\text{M}$	(Zheng et al., 2020)
WF and FASA	<i>Euphausia superba</i> (Antarctic krill)	0.32 and 0.15 mg/ml, respectively	(Zhao et al., 2019)
EAQRLLF, PSLRSYLAE, PDRSIHGRQLAE, FITAFR and RGQVLS,	<i>Glycine max</i> (L) Merr (Green soybean)	878, 532, 1552, 1342 and 993 $\mu\text{M}$ respectively	(Hanafi et al., 2018)
VRP, LKY, VRY, KYKA, and LKYKA,	<i>Gallus gallus domesticus</i> (hen)	0.64, 0.81, 5.77, 2.87, and 0.034 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ , respectively	(Fan & Wu, 2020)

192



193

194 Figure 2: Mechanism of action of antihypertensive peptides (AHPs) via modulation of renin-  
195 angiotensin system (RAS)

196 ***Recently recognized mechanisms of suppressing blood pressure by bioactive peptides***

197 **Up-regulation of angiotensin converting enzyme 2 (ACE2) gene expression and its enzyme**  
198 **activity:** An additional mechanism of blood pressure-lowering properties of natural peptides is  
199 by up-regulation of gene expression and enzyme activation of ACE2, the enzyme that hydrolyzes  
200 the major vasoconstrictor of RAS, Ang II into its less active metabolite, angiotensin-(1-7). For  
201 example, IRW, an egg white-isolated peptide was shown to reduce both SBP and DBP in SHR  
202 model by enhancing ACE2 mRNA expression (Liao et al., 2016). Similarly, AKSLSDRFSY  
203 from pea protein hydrolysates, a biostable peptide which is resistant to pepsin was shown to  
204 upregulate the gene expression of ACE2 in cultured vascular smooth muscle cells (Liao et al.,  
205 2019). Upon hydrolysis with pancreatin, the two metabolites LSDRFS and SDRFSY identified,  
206 where also shown to upregulate the expression of ACE2 in a manner similar to the parent  
207 peptide, AKSLSDRFSY, suggesting that these metabolites may be playing major roles in the  
208 enhancement of ACE2 gene expression.

209 **Modulation of PPAR- $\gamma$ /caspase3/MAPK/eNOS signaling pathways:** The eNOS is one of the  
210 isoforms of nitric oxide synthase (NOS) primarily located in the peri-nucleus, Golgi apparatus  
211 and caveolae of most endothelial cells (Li et al., 2015). The eNOS catalyzes the generation of  
212 NO from arginine, to help manage oxidative stress or damages caused by endogenously-and  
213 exogenously-generated reactive oxygen species (ROS). When released from the endothelial cells,  
214 NO causes an increase in the 3',5'-cyclic-guanosine monophosphate (cGMP), which activates  
215 cGMP-dependent kinase, to stimulate vasodilation (Li et al., 2015). Oxidative stress resulting  
216 from excessive ROS suppresses gene expression and enzyme activity of eNOS by uncoupling its  
217 bound cofactor vital for NO generation (Daiber et al., 2020). Hence, the Apo-eNOS, conversely  
218 produces superoxide anion rather than NO, which further worsen the oxidative damage on the  
219 cells, exacerbating endothelial dysfunction causing vascular constriction and cardiovascular  
220 diseases (Daiber et al., 2020). The activity of eNOS is also regulated by phosphorylation and  
221 dephosphorylation of specific amino acid residues in the enzyme. Phosphorylation of Ser-615,  
222 633 and 1177 significantly activates the eNOS whereas phosphorylation of Thr495 inhibits it.

223 Studies have shown that eNOS from patients with cardiovascular diseases have reduced level of  
224 the phosphorylated catalytic serine residues and a reduced titer of the kinases known for  
225 phosphorylating eNOS (AMP-activated protein kinase (AMPK), protein kinase B (Akt),  
226 extracellular signal-regulated protein kinases (ERK-1/2), and calcium-calmodulin kinase II  
227 (CaMK-II) (Zippel et al., 2018). On the other hand, the transcription factor, peroxisome  
228 proliferator activated receptor (PPAR)- $\gamma$  potentiates several physiological events including the  
229 suppression of oxidative stress, inflammation, and vasoconstriction, and expression of  $\alpha$ -smooth  
230 muscle actin, RhoA, cleaved caspase-3 whereas action of eNOS and vasodilation were elevated  
231 (Stump et al., 2015). Furthermore, the suppression of Ang II-generated hypertension by  
232 pharmacological activation of PPAR- $\gamma$  with its agonist, pioglitazone positions the PPAR- $\gamma$  as a  
233 good target for blood pressure monitoring (Yu et al., 2015).

234 Intragastric administration of alcalase/protease-hydrolyzed skate skin gelatin for 20 days by  
235 spontaneous hypertensive rats (SHRs) was shown to significantly reduce SBP (Ngo et al., 2015).  
236 The hydrolysate acted by activating PPAR- $\gamma$  signaling, leading to the suppression of expression  
237 of endothelin-1,  $\alpha$ -smooth muscle actin, RhoA, cleaved caspase 3, and MAPK whereas elevation  
238 in eNOS action in the lungs. Taken together, the mechanism of action of the hydrolysate is  
239 through PPAR- $\gamma$ /caspase3/MAPK/eNOS signaling pathways. In addition, the potent ACE-  
240 inhibitory properties of two peptides isolated from the hydrolysate, LGPLGHQ and  
241 MVGSAPGVL (with  $IC_{50}$  values of 4.22 and 3.09  $\mu$ M, respectively) suggest that inhibition of  
242 ACE may be an additional mechanism of the blood pressure-lowering effects of the skate skin  
243 gelatin hydrolysate. Hence, in addition to ACE inhibitory assay, researchers on AHPs should  
244 include the investigation of gene expression profiles of PPAR- $\gamma$ , MAPK and eNOS in cultured  
245 cells to provide more details on the mechanism of action other than ACE inhibition. Low  
246 molecular weight peptides bearing proline at the terminal residues and in general, proline-rich  
247 peptides have been shown to have antioxidant properties, and are resistant against intestinal  
248 hydrolytic enzymes during transepithelial transport (Querobino et al., 2019). Considering the link  
249 between oxidative stress and hypertension, many antioxidant agents have been shown to have  
250 antihypertensive properties (Ikarashi et al., 2018). An egg white-derived tripeptide (IRW) that  
251 hinders oxidative stress, inflammation and migration of vascular smooth muscle cells induced by  
252 angiotensin II, was also reported to exhibit antihypertensive effects in SHRs via modulation of

253 endothelial function, suppression of vascular inflammation and enhancement of NO production  
 254 (Majumder et al., 2015). Increased intracellular NO level in endothelium leads to vasodilation.  
 255 The ability of IRW to halt angiotensin II-induced vascular smooth muscle cells migration was  
 256 further shown to involve the suppression of matrix metalloproteinase-9 (MMP-9) gene expression  
 257 and Ang I receptor-dependent inactivation of p38-MAPK signaling. Other tripeptides such as  
 258 LKP, and IQW derived from egg white protein ovotransferrin were also shown to have blood  
 259 pressure-lowering in SHR and permeate intestinal epithelium via passive (TJ-mediated) and  
 260 active (PepT1-mediated) transport routes (Xu et al., 2017).

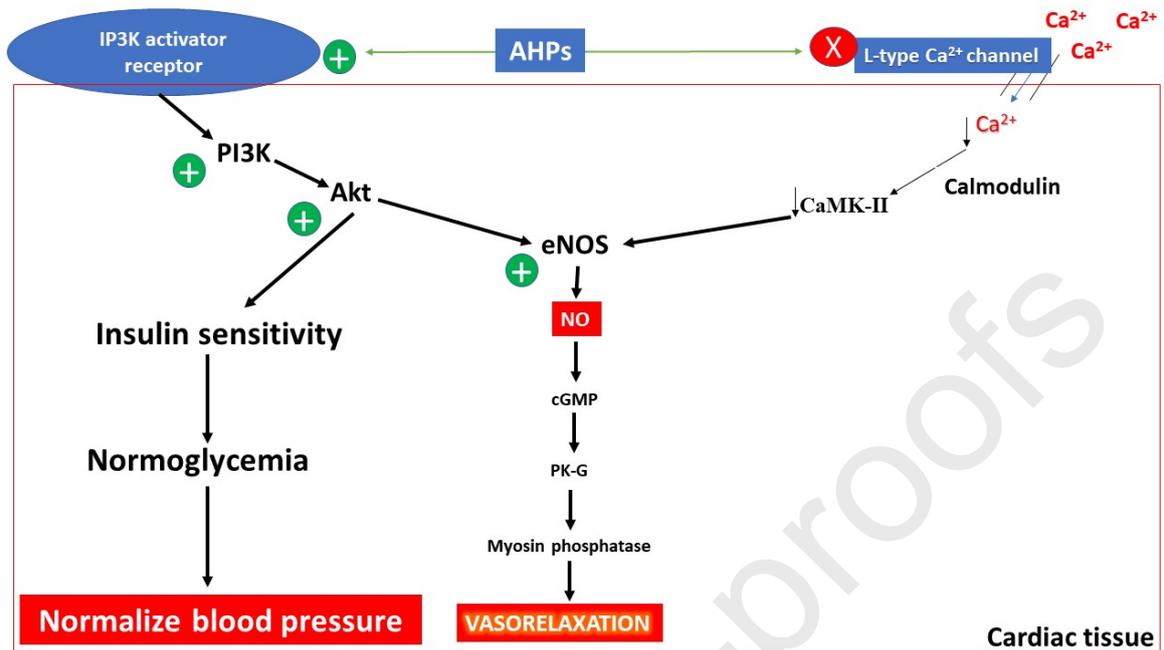
261 Recent studies have revealed several bioactive peptides which manage hypertension and  
 262 cardiovascular disease through the interaction and regulation of eNOS and its associative  
 263 kinases, probably showing better biosafety and bioavailability profile than standard small  
 264 molecule drugs (Cicero et al., 2017). A recent study conducted by Oh and colleagues  
 265 investigated for bioactive peptides with antihypertensive and anti-inflammatory activities for  
 266 from Olive flounder (*Paralichthys olivaceus*) (Oh et al., 2020). Three bioactive peptides,  
 267 VASVI, IVDR, WYK were found to significantly increase the level of nitric oxide in the  
 268 HUVECs cell line. More so, there was a significant improvement in the expression of eNOS and  
 269 protein kinase B (Akt) (Oh et al., 2020). Similarly, another study on Antarctic krill (*Euphausia*  
 270 *superba*) reported bioactive peptides (WF, YRK, and FQLFAS) with activities to improve the  
 271 hypotensive marker— approximately 33% increase in NO and about 50 percent decrease in  
 272 endothelin-1 (ET-1). Endothelin-1 on its own is a bioactive peptide first isolated from  
 273 endothelial cells, with activities as vasoconstrictor, pro-inflammatory and proliferative agents.  
 274 ET-1 is upregulated with a worsening oxidative state or increase in ROS and can serve as a  
 275 marker for many cardiovascular conditions. Hence, decrease in ET-1 expression implied an  
 276 improved cardiovascular state. Although many recent studies have investigated antihypertensive  
 277 properties of protein-based peptides using the ACE/RAS system, the few recent studies on NO  
 278 titre/eNOS expression for bioactive peptides are summarized in Table 2.

279 Table 2: Mechanisms of antihypertensive peptides other than ACE inhibition

Protein sources	Bioactive peptide	Cell line/Animal Model	Activities	References
Rapeseed and Captopril	CL and VAP	Rat	↑ 12.7% (NO) ↑ 74.1% (eNOS)	(Wang et al., 2021)

Antarctic krill ( <i>Euphausia superba</i> )	WF, YRK, and FQLFAS	Human umbilical vein endothelial cells	↑ ≈33.3 % (NO) ↓ ≈50.0 % (ET-1)	(Zhao et al., 2019)
Rice Bran Protein hydrolysate	-	2K-1C hypertensive rats	↑ ≈37.5 % (NO) ↑ eNOS expression	(Boonla et al., 2015)
Olive flounder ( <i>Paralichthys olivaceus</i> )	VASVI, IVDR and WYK	Human umbilical vein endothelial cells	↑ ≈10-20 % (NO) ↑ ≈ 500 - 900% eNOS expression ↑ ≈100 – 300% Akt expression	(Oh et al., 2020)
<i>Mucuna pruriens</i> seeds	Peptide fraction	Human blood	11.11 % ↓ platelet aggregation	(Herrera-Chalé et al., 2016)
<i>Mucuna pruriens</i> seeds	Peptide fraction	<i>In vitro</i> analysis	0.47 % ↓ cholesterol micellar solubility	(Herrera-Chalé et al., 2016)

280 **Attenuation of insulin resistance via IP3K/Akt signaling pathway as a mechanism of**  
281 **antihypertensive property:** The suppression of blood pressure by the peptides could have  
282 resulted from improvement in insulin sensitivity. Insulin resistance and by extension, type-2  
283 diabetes have been shown to positively correlate with hypertension and other cardiovascular  
284 diseases (Rojas-Humpire et al., 2021). Interestingly, egg white protein hydrolysates have been  
285 demonstrated to reduce blood pressure in SHR models (Jahandideh et al., 2017) and enhance  
286 insulin recognition by its receptor in diet-induced insulin resistance in animal model by  
287 activating Akt signaling pathway (Jahandideh et al., 2019). This suggests that peptides in the  
288 hydrolysates could have upregulated gene expression and enzyme activity of phosphoinositide-  
289 dependent protein kinase 1 (IP3K), the enzyme that activates Akt by phosphorylation to enhance  
290 insulin sensitivity and the downstream modulation of metabolism that maintains energy and  
291 blood pressure homeostasis (Xing et al., 2019). In addition, the peptides in the hydrolysates  
292 could have acted by inducing vasodilation as mediated by activation of Akt to phosphorylate  
293 eNOS which produced NO, a potent vasodilator as illustrated in Figure 2.



294

295 Figure 2: Mechanism of antihypertensive properties of peptides by attenuating insulin resistance  
 296 via IP3K/Akt signaling pathway. AHPs is proposed to increase the gene expression and enzyme  
 297 activity of phosphatidylinositol-3-phosphate kinase (IP3K) through its activator- a membrane  
 298 bound G-protein coupled subclass receptor. IP3K activates protein kinase B (Akt) by  
 299 phosphorylation of Ser<sup>473</sup> in its catalytic site while Akt activates endothelial nitric oxide synthase  
 300 (eNOS) by phosphorylation of its catalytic residue (Ser<sup>1177</sup> or Ser<sup>1179</sup> depending on the specie).  
 301 Similarly, the AHPs blocks L-type Ca<sup>2+</sup> channel which increases intracellular concentration of  
 302 Ca<sup>2+</sup> that associates with calmodulin (Cd) to form Ca<sup>2+</sup>-Cd complex which initiates contraction  
 303 by depleting NO availability via inhibition of eNOS. Active eNOS synthesizes nitric oxide (NO)  
 304 from L-arginine, and NO activates soluble guanylyl cyclase to convert guanosine triphosphate  
 305 (GTP) to 5'-cyclic guanosine monophosphate (cGMP). On binding to its site on protein kinase-G  
 306 (PK-G), cGMP activates PK-G to phosphorylate and activate myosin phosphatase (myosin-P).  
 307 Activate myosin-P dephosphorylates myosin and induce the relaxation of vascular endothelial  
 308 smooth muscle, hence, reduction in blood pressure.

### 309 *Emerging mechanisms of blood pressure-lowering by bioactive peptides*

310 Considering the hypertension is a multifactorial disease, and that some peptides with *in vitro*  
 311 ACE inhibitory effects are unable to lower blood pressure *in vivo*, while some peptides with low  
 312 ACE inhibitory effects significantly lowered blood pressure, we propose here some possible  
 313 molecular mechanisms through which peptides can mediate their antihypertensive properties.

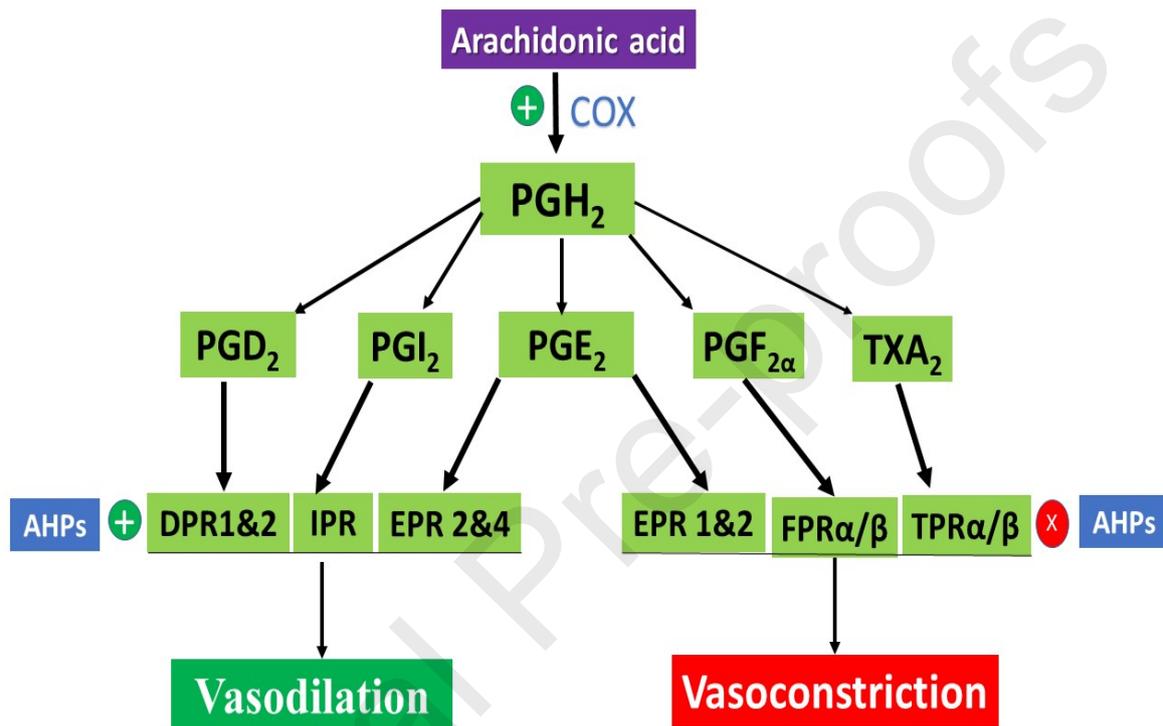
314 **Antioxidant-mediated antihypertensive properties:** Apart from the eNOS regulation, the  
315 oxidant/antioxidant balance in the body system are also regulated by a transcription factor called  
316 the Nrf2 in association to its promoter bearing the antioxidant response element (ARE) (Pajares  
317 et al., 2016). Under normal physiological conditions, Nrf2 which is constitutively expressed in  
318 the cytoplasm is sequestered and repressed by the Kelch-like ECH-associated protein 1 (Keap-1).  
319 However, when the system is oxidatively-stressed, the Nrf2 from the cytoplasm is translocated to  
320 the nucleus, where it binds to the ARE of the gene coding for antioxidant proteins, activating a  
321 cascade of reaction which help to curb the oxidative pressure on the cells (Saha et al., 2020).  
322 Studies have shown with consensus evidence that decrease in Nrf2 activities invariably  
323 contributes to oxidative stress and cardiovascular diseases such as hypertension (Serafini et al.,  
324 2020; Zhan et al., 2021). Considering that some antioxidant peptides also exhibit  
325 antihypertensive properties, and that oxidative stress is implicated in hypertension (Griendling et  
326 al., 2021), the investigation of Keap-1/Nrf2 signaling pathway (the activation or upregulation the  
327 expression and translocation of nuclear Nrf2) and gene expression of antioxidant enzyme  
328 activities in peptide-treated SHR is recommended for future studies.

329 **Anti-inflammatory-mediated antihypertensive properties:** Inflammation is one common  
330 pathology for hypertension and cardiac problems and often result in damage of tissues within the  
331 body (Angeli et al., 2021). Inflammatory processes occur due to complex immune reactions  
332 involving the different cytokines (IL-1 $\beta$ , IL-6, IL-8, IL-17, IL-23, TGF $\beta$ , and TNF $\alpha$ ) and other  
333 mediators. Several immune cells such as T lymphocytes, dendritic cells and macrophages  
334 express constitutive angiotensin 1 receptor (AT1R) (Zhang et al., 2014). During vascular  
335 disturbance, angiotensin II binds to AT1R and activates the immune cell differentiation and pro-  
336 inflammatory cytokine production – especially IL-6, IFN- $\gamma$ , and TNF $\alpha$  (Tanase et al., 2019). The  
337 pro-inflammatory cytokines IL-6, stimulates the activities of NAD(P)H oxidase, which  
338 consequently releases more ROS in the system causing the inhibition of reduced eNOS,  
339 endothelial damage, pro-thrombotic recruitment, hypertension and other cardiovascular diseases.  
340 Similarly, tumor necrosis factor (TNF)- $\alpha$  stimulates the production of ACE, which invariably  
341 also mediates inflammatory and cardiovascular disorder (Mahmudpour et al., 2020). When  
342 activated, Nrf2 binds to its nuclear receptor, ARE to upregulate the mRNA expression of its  
343 target genes, including heme oxygenase-1 (HO-1). This Nrf2-associated upregulation of HO-1

344 gene expression inhibits TNF- $\alpha$ -induced release of NF- $\kappa$ B and MCP-1, and other pro-  
345 inflammatory mediators (Da Costa et al., 2019) while increasing the secretion of anti-  
346 inflammatory cytokines (Ahmed et al., 2017). Based on this, we propose that future research  
347 should assess the effects of peptide treatment on Keap-1/Nrf2/ARE/HO-1/NF- $\kappa$ B signaling  
348 pathways by assessing the gene expression profiles of Keap-1, Nrf2, HO-1 and NF- $\kappa$ B, and pro-  
349 inflammatory cytokine levels in experimental models of hypertension.

350 **Induction of vasodilation via upregulation of COX and prostaglandin receptor:** The COX,  
351 an enzyme also known as prostaglandin endoperoxide synthase catalyzes the formation of  
352 prostaglandin H<sub>2</sub> (PGH<sub>2</sub>) from arachidonic acids. The PGH<sub>2</sub> when acted upon different isozymes  
353 of synthases and isomerases yields the different prostanoids (PGE<sub>2</sub>, PGI<sub>2</sub>, PGF<sub>2 $\alpha$</sub> , and  
354 thromboxane A<sub>2</sub> (TXA<sub>2</sub>)) (Jang et al., 2020). The COX has two membrane-bound iso-enzymes,  
355 the COX-1 and COX-2. The cyclooxygenase 1 (COX-1) are constitutively expressed in most  
356 human tissues, whereas, COX-2 is triggered by inflammation and damage of the endothelial and  
357 vascular tissues (Faki & Er, 2020). Studies have thoroughly described the roles of COX and the  
358 different prostanoids in maintaining balance in the vascular system (Mitchell et al., 2021). The  
359 TXA<sub>2</sub> and prostacyclin (PGI<sub>2</sub>), and to a lesser extent PGE<sub>2</sub> when either upregulated or  
360 downregulated effect vasodilation or vasoconstriction (Ozen & Norel, 2017). The platelet,  
361 normally recruited at site of injuries or inflammation expresses only COX-1, which catalyzes the  
362 formation of TXA<sub>2</sub>. The TXA<sub>2</sub> in turn facilitates the aggregation of platelet (prothrombotic  
363 activities) leading to further constriction of the blood vessel and then hypertension (Mitchell et  
364 al., 2021). On the other hand, PGI<sub>2</sub> produced by the activities of COX-2 facilitates vasodilation  
365 with anti-thrombotic activities. Moreover, the PGE<sub>2</sub> at different conditions can act as a  
366 vasodilator and as well fostering vasoconstriction (Manual-Kollareth et al., 2020). A study  
367 exposed human blood to peptide fraction of *Mucuna pruriens* seed protein hydrolysates and  
368 observed 1.59-11.11% decrease platelet aggregation compared to control (human blood that was  
369 not treated with the protein hydrolysate fraction) (Herrera-Chalé et al., 2016). Interestingly, the  
370 protein hydrolysate fraction exhibited antioxidant effect, and inhibited cholesterol micellar  
371 solubility (0.24%-0.47%) and ACE activity (IC<sub>50</sub> values range from 2.7 to 6.2  $\mu$ g/mL). Taken  
372 together, the *in vitro* ant-platelet aggregatory, hypocholesterolemic and ACE inhibitory  
373 properties suggest that the peptides in the protein hydrolysate fraction may have good

374 antihypertensive properties when ingested intragastrically by hypertensive animal model. Further  
 375 studies are warranted to isolate the specific peptide(s) and confirm their antihypertensive  
 376 properties using *in vivo* model by examining the involvement of COX signaling pathway as  
 377 proposed in Figure 3.



378

379 Figure 3: Proposed mechanism of antihypertensive properties of peptides via COX signaling  
 380 pathway

381 **Blockade of L-type Ca<sup>2+</sup> channel and inhibition of lipid accumulation:** The activation of L-  
 382 type Ca<sup>2+</sup> channels have been widely recognized to be involved in the pathogenesis of  
 383 cardiovascular diseases including hypertension (Figure 2), making the specific channel blockers  
 384 target drugs for managing hypertension and related cardiovascular diseases (Medvedev et al.,  
 385 2021). Based on this, the effect of peptide treatment on experimentally-induced contractility of  
 386 isolated aortic rings as well as that isolated from hypertensive animal models are recommended  
 387 in future research.

388 In the same vein, excessive lipid accumulation has been recognized as a risk factor that plays a  
389 major role in the pathogenesis of hypertension (Ayoade et al., 2020). Hypolipidemic drugs such  
390 as statins that inhibit 3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl CoA reductase (HMGCoAR) - the key enzyme  
391 of cholesterol biosynthesis are used to prevent and manage hypertension (Ying Wang et al.,  
392 2020). A good number of peptides isolated from dietary products have been shown to reduce  
393 lipid production and accumulation. Notably, the exposure of cultured human hepatic cells with  
394 soybean and lupin-originated peptides such as LILPKHSDAD, LTFPGSAED and  
395 YDFYPSSTKDQQS demonstrated marked hypocholesterolemic properties by increasing  
396 SREBPs-1 and LDLR protein levels which are known to suppress the biosynthesis and  
397 accumulation of lipids whereas activating lipid breakdown via the activation of PI3K/Akt/MAPK  
398 pathways (Lammi et al., 2019, 2020; Zanoni et al., 2017). Based on this, the effects of these  
399 peptides on hypertensive rats should be investigated in future studies to clarify if the inhibition of  
400 lipid accumulation will translate into antihypertensive properties.

401 **Factors that influence the antihypertensive properties and nutraceutical applications of**  
402 **food proteins and peptides for managing hypertension**

403 Biostability is an important aspect of assessing the fitness of a potential drug for use in clinical  
404 disease management. Considering that several studies assessed the inhibition of ACE and renin  
405 activities *in vitro* as indices of antihypertensive properties, it is important that these biological  
406 activities reported in *in vitro* environment are confirmed using *in vivo* models such as animal  
407 and/or human cases of hypertension. This is because some ACE-inhibitory peptides were shown  
408 not to reduce blood pressure when orally ingested, partly due to their susceptibility to hydrolytic  
409 activities of intestinal proteases, and serum peptidases prior to reaching their target (Messina et  
410 al., 2021). For example, among five ACE-inhibitory peptides isolated from chicken foot protein  
411 hydrolysates (AVKILP, LSGPVKF, AVFQHNCQE, VGKPGARAPMY and QVGPLIGRYCG),  
412 only AVFQHNCQE and QVGPLIGRYCG significantly lowered blood pressure after 6 hours of  
413 oral ingestion by SHR at 10 mg/kg body weight (Bravo et al., 2019).

414 In addition, amino acid composition, sequence and chain length are among other factors that  
415 influence the antihypertensive properties of peptides. Protein hydrolysates containing proline-  
416 rich peptides have been reported to not only inhibit ACE activity *in vitro* but also lower blood

417 pressure *in vivo* (Chamata et al., 2020). The impact of proline could be attributed to conferment  
418 of stability due to 'Keil rule' which states that the existence of proline and glutamic acid limits  
419 the hydrolytic effects of some proteases such as trypsin on peptides (Udenigwe et al., 2021). This  
420 may explain why short-chain peptides containing arginine, tryptophan, leucine, valine, histidine,  
421 and phenylalanine from *Chlorella sorokiniana* and marine cobia skin protein hydrolysates were  
422 reported to exhibit ACE-inhibitory and blood pressure lowering effects (Lin et al., 2019). To  
423 further support this observation, several proline-rich peptides have been shown to permeate  
424 through the intestinal membrane to elicit their biological response such as cholesterol-lowering  
425 and blood pressure-lowering properties (Jiang et al., 2020).

426 Aside the physicochemical characteristics of peptides such as net charge, amino acid sequence  
427 and the chain length, hydrophobicity and molecular weight (Karami & Akbari-adergani, 2019),  
428 the interaction between AHPs and other components of food matrix used in delivering the  
429 peptides, microbiota activities and mucin content of intestinal epithelium have been suggested to  
430 influence their biostability, bioavailability, bioaccessibility and biological activities (Ozorio et  
431 al., 2020). For example, interactions of certain peptides with micronutrient composition of food  
432 matrix such as mineral elements have been demonstrated to influence their bioavailability and  
433 permeability (Sun et al., 2020). Another factor that influences peptide biostability and  
434 bioactivities is the presence of other peptides, some of which may be additive or  
435 counterproductive. In a study, the transepithelial transport of lupin seed-originated peptide,  
436 LTFPGSAED and its metabolite, LTFPG was reported to be increased in the presence of  
437 YDFYPSSTKDQQS and LILPKHSDAD (Lammi et al., 2018). This observation was similar to  
438 the report that the rate of transport of LILPKHSDAD which was also enhanced in the presence  
439 of YDFYPSSTKDQQS and LTFPGSDAD (Lammi et al., 2021).

440 The antihypertensive properties of some peptides may have been, partly or totally a result of  
441 hydrolytic metabolites of the peptides, and not only the intact ingested parent peptides. This  
442 observation was demonstrated in a study where the ingestion of an ACE-inhibitory (IC<sub>50</sub> value of  
443 25.74  $\mu$ M) and antioxidant peptide isolated from tilapia skin gelatin, LSGYGP by SHR  
444 suppressed both SBP and DBP (Tianrui et al., 2019). Further analysis showed that LSGYGP is  
445 excellently permeable in Caco-2 cell monolayer with some metabolites such as SGYGP, LSGY,  
446 GYGP, LSGYP, LSSGYGP, and LSLSGYGP observed after intestinal transport (Tianrui et al.,

447 2019). One implication of this observation is that the metabolites could have, in part, contributed  
448 to the antihypertensive activities recorded after oral consumption of the peptide. For more details  
449 on biostability, bioavailability, bioaccessibility and biological activities of bioactive peptides,  
450 consult previous reviews (Boegh & Nielsen, 2015; Sun et al., 2020; Sun & Udenigwe, 2020;  
451 Udenigwe et al., 2021; Wang & Li, 2018).

452 The method of preparation of peptides, including the enzymatic system used in hydrolysis,  
453 nature of chemicals used, pH and temperature influence their stability, bioavailability and  
454 functionality. This was demonstrated in a study where ultrasound treatment of watermelon seed  
455 and mung bean proteins prior to enzyme hydrolysis enhanced the hydrophobicity and release of  
456 peptides with terminal aromatic amino acids all of which influenced their stability,  
457 bioavailability, and bioactivity (such as radical scavenging and antihypertensive properties  
458 (Qichen Jiang et al., 2021; Wen et al., 2020; Xie et al., 2020). On the other hand, the use of  
459 procedures such as microwaves and other thermal techniques for peptide preparation have been  
460 shown to affect the functionality of the peptides, by changing the native physicochemical  
461 properties of the peptide which affects their stability and bioactivities (Hunsakul et al., 2021).  
462 Considering the better functionality of low molecular weight peptides, a combination of two or  
463 more hydrolyzing enzymes is likely to generate shorter chain peptides compared to using one  
464 enzyme (Aluko, 2015). For instance, the ACE-inhibitory activities of peptides generated from  
465 hard-to-cook bean protein hydrolysate generated with a combination of alcalase and flavourzyme  
466 were shown to be higher compared to the use of the enzymes separately (Ruiz-Ruiz et al., 2013).  
467 In another study, skimmed buffalo milk protein was hydrolyzed using papain, pepsin or trypsin,  
468 and it was observed that hydrolysate-generated with papain exhibited highest ACE-inhibitory  
469 and radical scavenging activities (Abdel-Hamid et al., 2017). Similarly, a study hydrolyzed spent  
470 hen muscle protein using Protex 26L, pepsin, and thermoase and compared the transepithelial  
471 transport and multifunctionality of the hydrolysates and using *in vitro* and *in vivo* models (Fan et  
472 al., 2020). The hydrolysates generated showed ACE inhibitory, antioxidant, and anti-  
473 inflammatory activities; however, only thermoase-generated hydrolysate (TGH) upregulated  
474 ACE2 gene expression. Additionally, it is only TGH that resisted hydrolysis in simulation study  
475 using Caco-2 cells. Notably, the enhanced ACE2 gene expression, antioxidant and anti-  
476 inflammatory activities post-absorption across the caco-2 monolayer suggests the involvement of

477 metabolites of the parent peptides. Furthermore, the intragastric ingestion of all the hydrolysates  
478 at 1 g/kg demonstrated that only TGH reduced blood pressure in SHR, indicating that the  
479 mechanisms of blood pressure lowering involves the upregulation of ACE2 and inhibition of  
480 ACE. Therefore, food protein scientists and nutraceutical developers are advised to adopt protein  
481 hydrolysis procedures with minimal effect on the native conformation of the peptide in order to  
482 conserve their functionality.

### 483 **Limitations of current research and future research directions**

484 Several studies have been conducted with the aim of uncovering the antihypertensive properties  
485 of food protein-based peptides. However, the majority of the studies explored the inhibitory  
486 effects of the peptides against ACE and renin activities *in vitro*, while quite a few studies  
487 assessed the effects of protein hydrolysates and their peptides on Ang II receptors. In general, a  
488 greater number of research efforts in discovering clinically-effective food protein-derived  
489 peptides for hypertension focused on RAS. Additionally, among the *in vivo* using  
490 experimentally-induced hypertensive and SHR rats, suppression of SBP and/or DBP were  
491 recorded without uncovering the molecular mechanisms such as analysis of expression profile of  
492 genes that regulate molecular pathways implicated in hypertension.

493 Future research should not only confirm if all the ACE and renin-inhibitory peptides can lower  
494 blood pressure when ingested by normal and experimental models of hypertension, and if active,  
495 the molecular mechanism of blood pressure-lowering should be investigated. In addition, the use  
496 of multiple enzymes for protein hydrolysis during peptide preparation have been shown to  
497 generate low molecular weight peptides which are more biostable and easily permeate the  
498 intestinal membrane compared to high molecular weight peptides. Despite the strong scientific  
499 evidence on a number of food-based peptides with antihypertensive potentials, quite a few  
500 clinical trials on the application of food protein-derived peptides for managing hypertension have  
501 been recently reported. Worthy of mention among the bioactive proteins and their peptides under  
502 clinical trial are Amaranth hydrolysate-enriched beverages (Valdez-Meza et al., 2019) that was  
503 shown to suppress blood pressure after three hours of ingestion. The blood pressure lowering  
504 activity was maintained till nine hours post-ingestion, agreeing with the report that Amaranth-  
505 derived AHPs are biostable (Espinosa-Hernández et al., 2019). More clinical trials are

506 encouraged especially for peptides sourced from marine organisms, and seeds of soybean and  
507 lupin whose multifunctional properties in relation to hypertension have been well characterized.

508 Finally, the current knowledge on structural-activity relationship of peptides in relation to  
509 antihypertensive properties are not well-defined. Mechanistic studies are needed to clarify the  
510 structural requirements needed for a peptide to exert antihypertensive properties, especially after  
511 oral ingestion. This may involve the use of sequential hydrolysis to determine the specific amino  
512 acids and/or amino acid sequence requirements. Additionally, chemical modification of  
513 functional group(s) of amino acids in AHPs may underscore the specific functional group(s)  
514 involved in antihypertensive activities of the peptides.

## 515 **Conclusions**

516 Hypertension has continued to remain a great burden to global health, and a “silent killer”.  
517 Hence, serious research efforts are ongoing to improve the current available strategies for the  
518 prevention and management of the diseases. In this study, we have discussed molecular  
519 mechanisms of antihypertensive properties of protein hydrolysates and their peptides other than  
520 RAS, including induction of vasodilation via upregulation of expression of eNOS, COX and  
521 prostaglandin receptor genes. We also have proposed some emerging mechanisms through which  
522 these bioactive peptides may have exerted their antihypertensive properties such as modulation  
523 of inflammation signaling, Keap-1/Nrf-2 and related antioxidative signaling, and PPAR-  
524  $\gamma$ /caspase3/MAPK signaling pathways, blockade of L-type  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  channel and inhibition of lipid  
525 accumulation. We have also briefly discussed factors that influence the biostability,  
526 transepithelial transport, bioavailability and activities of AHPs. It is our hope that this review has  
527 thrown more light into the current understanding of how newly isolated novel peptides lower  
528 blood pressure and by extension, position these AHPs as promising candidates for functional  
529 food development for hypertension.

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531 T.P.C.E., E.C.A., R.N.A. & R.N.N contributed to resources, original draft preparation, and  
532 I.U.O. & R.N.A contributed to review and editing. All authors have read and agreed to the  
533 published version of the manuscript.

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991 **Highlights**

- 992 • Hypertension has remained a silent-killer
- 993 • Novel peptides recently isolated from food proteins
- 994 • Molecular mechanism of blood pressure-lowering: renin and ACE-inhibition, and beyond
- 995 • Proposed molecular mechanisms for future research
- 996 • Novel peptides are excellent candidates for nutraceutical development

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