

## Effect of dietary protein on heme iron uptake by Caco-2 cells

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### Abstract

**Objective** To study heme iron bioavailability and the role of dietary protein (animal and vegetable) on iron uptake using an in vitro model (Caco-2 cell line).

**Methods** Caco-2 cells were seeded in bicameral chambers with different animal (beef, chicken or fish) or vegetable (peas, lentils, and soybeans) proteins or with pure animal (collagen and casein) or vegetable (gliadin, zein, and glutenin) protein extracts. The effect of each protein over heme iron absorption was assessed.

**Results** Intact heme uptake was higher than either heme plus albumin or digested heme plus albumin, but lower than digested heme. White meal exerted the highest inhibitory effect on heme uptake. Heme iron uptake decreased in the presence of all legume extracts, but was not significantly different among them (one-way ANOVA, NS). Pure animal (collagen and casein) and vegetable (zein and glutenin) proteins increased heme iron uptake, except for gliadin.

**Conclusion** Animal and vegetable protein in general decreased heme iron uptake. However, purified animal and vegetable protein induce an increase in heme iron uptake.

**Keywords** Heme absorption · Bioavailability · Uptake · Transport · Caco-2 cells

### Introduction

Iron is essential for the survival of all living organisms. However, iron must be bound to proteins to prevent tissue damage from free radical formation [1]. Total body iron concentration is maintained in part by a controlled metabolic balance of its absorption within the enterocytes [2, 3]. Using intrinsically labeled hemoglobin with  $^{59}\text{Fe}$  obtained from rabbits, it has been demonstrated that iron from this source is incorporated into erythrocytes 14 days after ingestion and therefore is absorbed [4] and that absorption occurs mainly in the proximal section of the duodenum [5]. Iron can be lost into the lumen of the gut when the mucosal cells are sloughed from the villus in a selective manner so that needed iron is conserved and the excess is eliminated [6]. During iron deficiency, the excretory mechanism becomes less active so that the rate for iron accumulation is further increased [7].

Dietary iron is present in food both as inorganic (ferrous and ferric compounds) and as organic forms, mainly in red meat as heme iron [8]. Heme iron is freed from hemoglobin and myoglobin by pancreatic enzymes [9, 10]. Heme is absorbed directly as the intact iron porphyrin complex [2]. The transport process is mediated by a specific protein, HCP1 (Heme Carrier Protein 1), which is located on the apical face of the membrane of the enterocyte [11, 12]. Although heme iron represents a small proportion of total dietary iron, its absorption is much higher (20–30%) and is less affected by other components of the diet. Furthermore, heme iron uptake is not competitive with that of non-heme iron [13]. As for inorganic iron, heme uptake is also favored by the presence of meat in the diet, possibly due to the contribution of certain amino acids and peptides released by digestion, which maintain heme iron soluble, and therefore available for absorption [14]. A certain

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proportion of the heme iron in meat is denatured during cooking [15]. Contrary to what has been observed for inorganic iron, ascorbic acid has little effect on the absorption of heme iron, probably due to the reduced availability of coordination links [3]. Calcium reduces the absorption of heme iron, interfering in the transfer of the metal from the mucosal cell, but not in its entry [16].

Hemin, iron (III) protoporphyrin chloride (IX), is produced when heme is released from the globular chain of hemoproteins, such as hemoglobin and myoglobin, and the fifth coordination position of its iron atom is occupied by a chloride or a hydroxyl anion [17]. Contrary to heme, in which iron is in its reduced state ( $\text{Fe}^{+2}$ ), in hemin iron is in its oxidized state ( $\text{Fe}^{+3}$ ) [18]. Nevertheless, the main difference between the two molecules is that heme is bound to proteins. Hemin is extracted from blood, being less than 2% of red blood cells. It has been observed that products of globin degradation are important to maintain heme in a depolymerized form so that heme may be available for absorption [19]. Furthermore, these products facilitate non-heme iron absorption [19]. However, it is not known whether other proteins of the diet produce these same effects. Hemoglobin has been used in iron-fortified food programs, but it has negative effects on the organoleptic characteristics of the product. The mixture of heme with other proteins of animals or vegetables origin might be used to produce products that have a higher acceptability.

The use of cell cultures to study the bioavailability of iron in humans has increased lately [20]. Caco-2 cells are derived from colon cancer cells [21] and are used as a model of the intestinal epithelium [22]. These cells spontaneously differentiate into polarized monolayers with a well-developed apical membrane with microvilli and associated enzymes [23]. The Caco-2 model has been used in a wide range of cellular studies, particularly in the exploration of mechanisms [24, 25] and the regulation of iron absorption [26, 27] and in the assessment of iron bioavailability [28–31]. Uptake of heme iron by Caco-2 cells is a saturable and temperature-dependent process [32], making its use a promising way of measuring the physiological uptake of iron in mucosal cells.

A mix of heme with other proteins, such as those from animals or vegetables, could be used to fortify products which have a higher acceptability than those fortified with hemoglobin alone. Furthermore, given that it is unknown whether other proteins have the same effect as that of globin degradation products on heme and non-heme iron absorption or uptake, the aim of this study was to evaluate the role of dietary protein, both animal and vegetable, over intestinal heme iron uptake, using the Caco-2 cell model.

## Materials and methods

### Cell culture

Caco-2 cells were obtained from the passage 18 of ATCC collection (American Type Culture Collection, Rockville, Maryland, USA). All experiments were carried out during passages 25–30. The cells were grown in Iscove's Medium (modified Dulbecco medium without iron, Gibco, BRL) with 10% fetal bovine serum (Sigma, St. Louis, MO) and a 1% antibiotic–antimycotic solution (Gibco, BRL). Cells were maintained at 37 °C and 5%  $\text{CO}_2$ . When cells reached 80–100% confluence, they were trypsinized and seeded in bottles of 25  $\text{cm}^2$  (Corning Costar Corporation, Cambridge, MA) at a density of 25,000 cells/ml for continued growth. For heme iron uptake experiments, cells were seeded on collagen-treated membranes (polytetrafluoroethylene) in bicameral inserts (transwell, 6 wells, 24 mm in diameter, 0.4- $\mu\text{m}$  pore size, Corning Inc, New York, USA) at a density of 20,000 cells/ $\text{cm}^2$ . A confluence of 90–100% with tight intercellular junction was assessed 12–14 days after seeding using the method of phenol red [29], and the layers of confluent cells were used for hemin uptake experiments. Also, TEER (transepithelial electric resistance) was measured to check monolayer formation. A bicameral chamber with a TEER over 250  $\Omega \cdot \text{cm}^2$  was used.

### Isolation of proteins

Prior to in vitro procedures, the protein content of all animal and vegetable proteins and prepared digest was determined by the Kjeldahl method [33]. Total iron content of the different proteins was determined after acid digestion [34] and determined with an atomic absorption spectrophotometer with graphite furnace (Simaa 6100, Perkin Elmer, MA, USA). Because meat contains both non-heme iron and heme iron, heme iron concentration was determined by the difference between total iron and non-heme iron which was measured by Rebouche method [35]. Briefly, each food was digested with trichloroacetic acid and hydrochloric acid. The total iron content corresponding to heme iron in each meal was standardized to 1.1 mg by the addition of hemin (Sigma, St. Louis, MO, USA) dissolved in 0.1 M NaOH (Merck, Darmstadt, Germany). This value corresponds to one serving of a 100 g of steak or each food. No heme Fe was added to the food when the concentration of intrinsic iron was 1.1 mg ( $\approx 20 \mu\text{M}$ ).

Collagen, albumin, casein, gliadin, and zein were purchased at their highest commercially available purity (Sigma), whereas glutelin was isolated from rice flour [36]. Lentil and pea creams were prepared according to the method by Bamdad [37] and to the method by Tomoskozi

[38], respectively. The soy isolate was obtained from ALPHA 8® (The Solae Company, St. Louis, MO).

#### Isotopic labeling of hemin

The iron isotope  $^{55}\text{Fe}$  was used as a tracer (6.1 GBq/mg; NEN, Life Science Products, Boston, MA, USA). Labeled hemoglobin was prepared from red cells obtained from two 3-month-old New Zealand rabbits that had received an intravenous injection of 74 MBq of  $^{55}\text{Fe}$  (Perkin Elmer, MA, USA) as ferric citrate diluted in saline solution. After a period of 15 days, the animals were anesthetized with intravenously administered sodium thiopental at a dose of 25 mg/kg of weight and subsequently killed by exsanguination. The protocol was approved by the Bioethics Committee of the Institute of Nutrition and Food Technology. Finally, the blood was washed with saline to obtain a concentrate of red blood cells.

Hemin was extracted using a solvent extraction mixture of  $\text{SrCl}_2$  2% glacial acetic acid: acetone (1:3 proportion). Briefly, samples were warmed up to the boiling point. The result of this extraction was filtered to remove the precipitate composed of proteins and other cellular debris. The solid remain were washed 2 times with the same extraction solvent, to recover any hemin that might still be present in the protein. The solvent was first heated at 100 °C, cooled and then hemin was precipitated. The salt was recovered by centrifugation at 2,500 rpm for 20 min, dried, and subsequently washed with acetic acid/water (1:1), absolute ethanol and diethylether. A dilution of 0.1 g/L of hemin was prepared to determine iron concentration by atomic absorption spectrophotometry (Perkin Elmer 2280, MAS, USA) and  $^{55}\text{Fe}$  specific activity with a liquid scintillation counter (Canberra Packard TRI-CARB Company 1600 TR). Furthermore, absorption spectra were compared with respect to a commercial hemin (Sigma, St. Louis, MO, USA). Maximum absorption was observed at the same wavelengths (360/380 and 400 nm) that agree with results obtained by Lombardo et al. [39]. Hemin used in uptake studies had a final activity of 0.21  $\mu\text{Ci}$  of  $^{55}\text{Fe}$ /mg and a final iron concentration of 120  $\mu\text{g}$ /mg.

#### In vitro digestion

Pepsin and pancreatin enzymes and bile salts extract (Sigma, St Louis, MO, USA) were used for in vitro digestion. Each sample was digested in triplicate. Bovine, poultry, and fish samples (150 g) were liquefied with 200 mL of deionized water using a Minipimer/Mixer (MR 4050-HC-V Braun, Darmstadt, Germany). Hemin chloride in 0.1 M NaOH was added to give a total iron of 1.1 mg, and the in vitro digestion was performed. The pH of the mixture was taken to 2 with 5 M HCl, 10 mL of a pepsin

solution [0.08 g (2,500 U/mg proteins) per ml of 0.1 M HCl] was added and subsequently incubated for 1 h at 37 °C in a bath with agitation at a speed of 90 rpm to simulate gastric digestion. After incubation, to emulate duodenal digestion pH was raised to 6 by slowly adding 0.1 M  $\text{NaHCO}_3$ , then 50 mL of a pancreatin-bile salt solution was added [0.12 g of extracts of bile salts and 0.02 g of pancreatin (4 times the activity USP) in 5 mL of 0.1 M  $\text{NaHCO}_3$ ] and incubated for 30 min at 37 °C. After incubation, the mixture was chilled to stop pancreatic activity. The digests were subjected to centrifugation at 5,000g for 30 min.

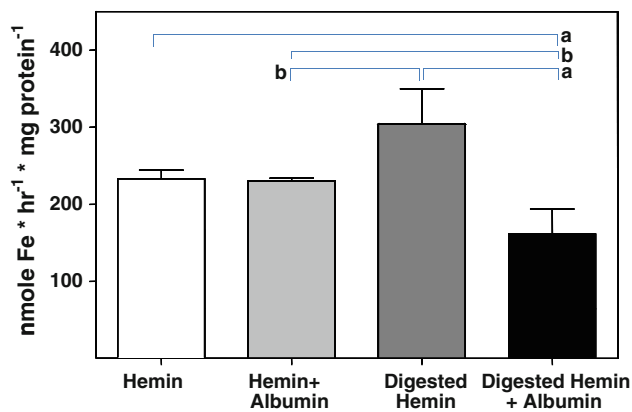
All proteins were diluted with deionized water (1 g of protein in 10 mL) and subjected to in vitro digestion with pepsin and pancreatin. The digest was diluted to 10% (g protein/g water) before digestion. All supernatants were subjected to protein determination by Lowry method [40]. To study the effect of the protein digests on hemin uptake, we followed the same protocol, and the solutions obtained were added to Caco-2 cells cultures with or without albumin to observe whether they behaved like undigested hemin.

#### Hemin-Fe uptake studies

The day of the experiment, Caco-2 cells monolayers in bicameral chamber were washed twice with PBS ( $\text{NaCl}$  137 mM;  $\text{KCl}$  2.7 mM;  $\text{Na}_2\text{HPO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$  4.3 mM;  $\text{KH}_2\text{PO}_4$  1.4 mM; pH 7.3), then uptake buffer (50 mM HEPES; 130 mM  $\text{NaCl}$ ; 1 mM  $\text{MgSO}_4$ ; 1 mM  $\text{CaCl}_2$ ; 10 mM  $\text{KCl}$ ; pH 7.0) was added to each well of in the apical (1.5 ml) and basolateral (2.5 ml) side. Subsequently, hemin- $^{55}\text{Fe}$  was added in the apical medium with a protein extract to get a  $^{55}\text{Fe}$  concentration of 100  $\mu\text{M}$  (0.28 kBq per insert) and 2 g protein/L. An aliquot (100  $\mu\text{L}$  in triplicate for each sample) was separated to assess basal radioactivity. The samples were incubated for 90 min at 37 °C and 5%  $\text{CO}_2$ . At the end of the incubation time, an apical and basolateral aliquot were recovered to measure their radioactivity (100  $\mu\text{L}$  in triplicate for each sample). The monolayers were washed twice with 5% albumin in PBS to remove non-specific bound hemin. To recover cell monolayers, the membranes were cut out with a scalpel and immersed in a 1.5-mL tube with 1 mL of scintillation liquid. The radioactivity from  $^{55}\text{Fe}$  in the membrane was measured in using a scintillation counter (Packard Canberra Company). In each plate, one insert was used as blank (protein-free hemin), to calibrate inter-plate differences.

#### Statistical analysis

In all experiments, the variables were tested in triplicate. Statistical analysis of each variable was performed using



**Fig. 1** Hemin and digested heme uptake: effect of albumin. Undigested hemin and digested heme uptake in Caco-2 cells with and without albumin in the medium. Values shown are mean  $\pm$  S.E.M ( $n = 5$ ). One-way ANOVA,  $a p < 0.01$ ,  $b p < 0.05$ . Heme uptake is expressed as nmole of heme  $\times$  mg protein $^{-1} \times$  h $^{-1}$

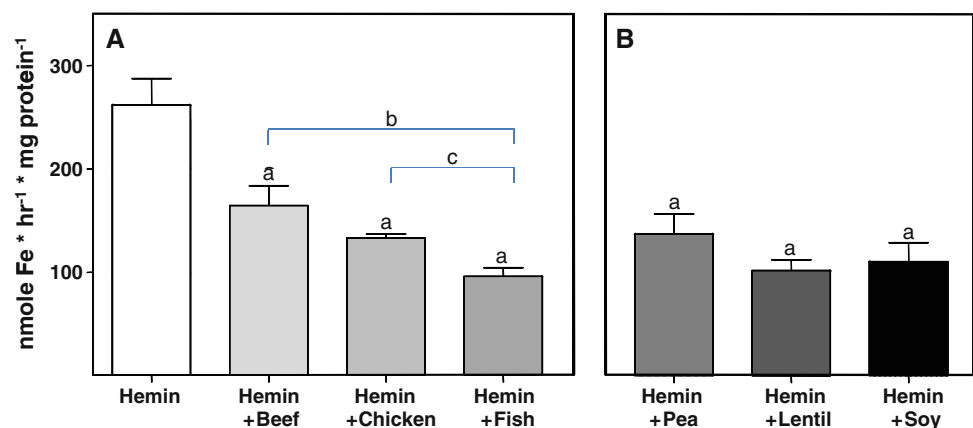
the program Graphpad Prism<sup>®</sup> v4.03 for Windows (Graphpad Software, CA, USA). One-way ANOVA was used to determine significant differences and Tukey multiple comparison to establish differences between the groups. Results are expressed as average  $\pm$  standard deviation. The statistical significance was defined as  $p < 0.05$ .

## Results

### Effect of hemin digestion and effect of albumin on heme uptake

Heme uptake was measured once and its value was used for all comparisons. Heme iron uptake was not significantly higher than heme plus albumin uptake; however, it was significantly higher than digested heme plus albumin uptake (one-way ANOVA,  $p < 0.003$ ) and was not significantly lower than digested heme uptake (Fig. 1).

**Fig. 2** Heme Fe uptake from animal and vegetable protein extract. Heme uptake was measured in the presence of animal protein extracts (beef, chicken and fish) or vegetable protein extracts (pea, lentil and soybeans). Values shown are mean  $\pm$  S.E.M ( $n = 5$ ). One-way ANOVA,  $a p < 0.001$ , respect to heme,  $b p < 0.001$  and  $c 0.01$ . Heme uptake is expressed as nmole of heme  $\times$  mg protein $^{-1} \times$  h $^{-1}$



### Effect of animal protein as beef, chicken or fish on heme uptake

Heme iron uptake decreased according to animal protein discoloration (one-way ANOVA,  $p < 0.001$  for all differences) (Fig. 2a).

### Effect of protein derived from legumes as pea, lentil, or soybean in the uptake of heme

Heme Fe uptake also decreased in the presence of all legumes proteins extracts (one-way ANOVA,  $p < 0.001$  for all differences). (Fig. 2b).

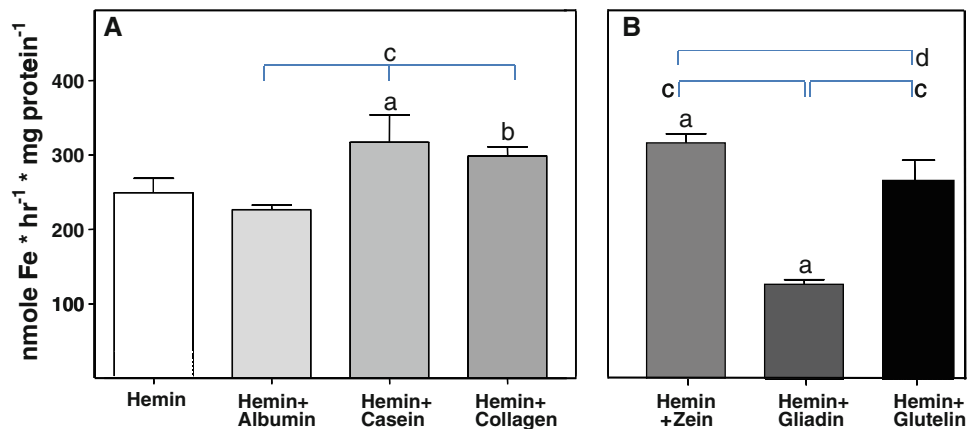
### Effect of purified animal or vegetable protein on heme uptake

The presence of pure animal protein as either casein or collagen produced a significant increase in heme Fe uptake (one-way ANOVA,  $p < 0.004$ ) (Fig. 3a). Purified zein produced an increase in heme uptake, and glutelin has no significant effect, while gliadin significantly decreased heme uptake (one-way ANOVA,  $p < 0.001$ ) (Fig. 3b).

## Discussion

Heme iron uptake depends on intraluminal factors that modulate the internalization of the molecule from the protoporphyrin ring. The effect of the different conditions and interactions is still in discussion. In the present study, the digestion of hemin with pepsin and pancreatin had no effect on the uptake of heme iron; however, albumin significantly decreased the uptake of digested heme and reduced somewhat, if not significantly, the uptake of undigested hemin. The mechanism by which albumin inhibits the uptake of heme iron is unknown.

**Fig. 3** Heme uptake in the presence of purified animal or vegetable protein. Heme uptake was measured in the presence of purified animal protein (albumin, casein, and collagen) or purified vegetable protein (zein, gliadin and glutelin). Values shown are mean  $\pm$  S.E.M ( $n = 5$ ). One-way ANOVA, **a**  $p < 0.01$  and **b**  $p < 0.05$ , respect to heme; **c**  $p < 0.001$  and **d**  $p < 0.05$ . Heme uptake is expressed as nmole of heme  $\times$  mg protein $^{-1}$   $\times$  h $^{-1}$



It has been shown that iron absorption from vegetable and animal foodstuffs, where radioactive iron was incorporated biologically into a single food, ranged from 3 to 8% and 8 to 16%, respectively [41]. In a study where iron absorption was measured from vegetable and animal proteins, absorption values from wheat, corn, black beans, lettuce, and spinach were lower than values from soybeans, fish, veal, and hemoglobin [42]. In the present study, hemin uptake decreased in the presence of beef, chicken and fish, which indicates that meat inhibits luminal hemin iron uptake. Also, in the present study, the meat/protein ratio was directly proportional to the presence of myoglobin, and white meat inhibited hemin uptake more strongly than red meat. These results differ with those of Hallberg et al. [43], who conclude that meat enhances the absorption of heme iron. The authors hypothesized that meat has an influence on both non-heme and heme absorption via the stimulation of food digestion, leading to a more efficient release of either form, which therefore results in an increased availability for absorption. Thus, meat counteracts luminal factors that inhibit non-heme iron absorption and enhances heme iron absorption [43]. The likely mechanism for the aforementioned effect is the formation of a luminal carrier that transports the iron to the mucosal cell membrane [44].

With respect to legume proteins, the results of the present study are categorical; all of them exerted a significant negative effect on the absorption of hemin iron. This is contrary to the results by Lynch et al. [45], where partial substitution of beef with soy flour improved heme iron absorption significantly (27–59%). This study provides new evidences and confirms the inhibitory effect of soy on heme iron absorption and bioavailability. These results are relevant because of the increasing consumption of soy, specially in developed countries.

Purified animal proteins favored the uptake of hemin, suggesting that certain proteins and/or peptides are necessary to activate the uptake mechanisms in the enterocyte

[14]. Nevertheless, casein in milk has been shown to reduce heme iron bioavailability [16].

Gliadin, the vegetable protein from rice, inhibited the uptake of hemin, whereas zein favored its uptake. Therefore, it appears that the effect of purified vegetable proteins on the bioavailability of heme iron is dependent on the plant origin.

Heme iron solubility significantly increases with the presence of proteins and, in general, iron-rich foods contain high amounts of proteins, which suggests that an increase in hemoglobin hydrolysis might lead to an increase in iron uptake [46]. This might explain the different effects obtained from hemin in the present study. It would seem that the heme iron matrix is important to favor heme iron uptake. The differences in the uptake of heme and hemin could be explained by the presence of molecules that modulate their bioavailability. Although, hemin and heme use the same carrier for their uptake [47], during digestion, heme uptake is probably facilitated by proteins released from meat and hemoglobin. These proteins likely prevent heme polymerization [48, 49]. The digestion products are probably able to bind “free” inorganic iron from meat itself or from other meals [50]. Also, when myoglobin from meat is digested, low molecular weight non-heme iron compounds could be the major degradation products [51]. Given that hemin does not have accompanying proteins, it might differ from heme iron in its mode of uptake.

In conclusion, animal and vegetable protein in general decreased hemin iron uptake. However, purified animal protein and vegetable protein induce an increase in hemin iron uptake. As hemin is a chloride of heme, the formation of chelates and the affinity of binding to different proteins might influence its uptake by Caco-2 cells. Hemin interactions with different proteins under in vivo conditions could be much more complex and complicated.

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