

UNIVERSITY OF SÃO PAULO
Faculty Of Pharmaceutical Sciences
Post Graduation Program in Food Sciences
Area of Experimental Nutrition

**Influence of different genotypes in the pattern of selenoprotein
expression in response to Brazil nut supplementation**

Janaina Lombello Santos Donadio

São Paulo

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expression in response to Brazil nut supplementation

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Thesis presented for the degree of
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

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São Paulo

2016

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Brazil nut supplementation**

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DEDICATION

*To my lovely nieces, Helena and Letícia, who fill my heart with the most pure
and sincere love I can ever had imagined to fell...*

*To my mother and my father, Silvia and Pedro, who have always supported me
in every possible way. Thank you. I love you.*

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“And do not choose to be conformed to this age, but instead choose to be reformed in the newness of your mind, so that you may demonstrate what is the will of God: what is good, and what is well-pleasing, and what is perfect.”

Romans 12:2

“Be the change you want to see in the world.”

Mahatma Gandhi

“Faith is the confirmation of things we don't see and the conviction of their reality, perceiving as real fact what is not revealed to the senses”

Unknown...

RESUMO

DONADIO, Janaina L. S. **Influência de diferentes genótipos no perfil de expressão de selenoproteínas em resposta à suplementação com castanha-do-brasil.** São Paulo, 2016.

Tese de Doutorado – Faculdade de Ciências Farmacêuticas, Universidade de São Paulo.

O micronutriente selênio é essencial para a fisiologia humana, inserido nas selenoproteínas na forma do aminoácido selenocisteína. As selenoproteínas são importantes para a função antioxidante, controle do metabolismo dos hormônios tireoidianos, melhora do sistema imune, função cerebral, fertilidade e reprodução. O estado nutricional de selênio deficiente ou marginal está associado com aumento do risco de doenças crônicas, como câncer, diabetes e doença cardiovascular. Sendo assim, diversos estudos procuraram investigar se a suplementação com selênio poderia reduzir o risco dessas doenças. Entretanto, as variações genéticas podem afetar a resposta dos indivíduos a uma intervenção dietética. Portanto, esse estudo foi conduzido para investigar a influência de variações genéticas em genes de selenoproteínas na resposta à suplementação com castanha-do-brasil, melhor fonte de selênio da natureza. Participaram do estudo 130 adultos de ambos os gêneros, com idade de 20 a 60 anos, selecionados na Universidade de São Paulo. Os indivíduos receberam castanhas suficientes para 8 semanas, ingerindo uma unidade por dia e, após o período de suplementação realizaram um período de *washout* também por 8 semanas. Todos realizaram cinco coletas de material biológico a cada quatro semanas. Foram realizadas medidas antropométricas, perfil lipídico, malondialdeído (MDA), concentração de selênio e selenoproteína P no plasma, eritrócitos, atividade da GPx eritrocitária e plasmática, expressão gênica da *GPX1*, *SEPP1*, *SELS* e *SEP15*. Além disso, os participantes foram genotipados para os SNPs rs1050450, rs3811699, rs1800699, rs713041, rs3877899, rs7579, rs34713741 e rs5845. Cada unidade de castanha forneceu em média 350µg de selênio. Todos os 130

voluntários concluíram o estudo. As concentrações de glicose e colesterol total diminuíram após 8 semanas de suplementação. Além disso, as concentrações de HDL-c foram influenciadas pelo SNP rs713041 no gene da GPX4, sendo os valores mais altos encontrados para os indivíduos com o alelo variante T (CT+TT). As frequências dos genótipos variantes foram 5,4% para rs1050450, rs3811699 e rs1088668, 10% para rs3877899, 19,2% para rs713041 e rs7579, 11,5% para rs5845 e 8,5% para rs34713741. Os níveis dos cinco biomarcadores aumentaram significativamente após a suplementação. Além disso, a atividade da GPx eritrocitária foi influenciada pelos rs1050450, rs713041 e rs5845, o selênio eritrocitário foi influenciado pelo rs5845 e o selênio plasmático pelo rs3877899. A expressão dos genes GPX1 e SEPP foram maiores após a suplementação. Tendo em vista esses resultados, conclui-se que a suplementação com uma unidade de castanha-do-brasil durante 8 semanas foi suficiente para reduzir as concentrações de colesterol e de glicose, e elevar as concentrações dos principais biomarcadores do estado nutricional de selênio. Além disso, observou-se que o polimorfismo rs713041 parece influenciar as concentrações de HDL-c e atividade da GPx1, o polimorfismo rs1050450 parece influenciar a atividade da GPx1, o polimorfismo rs5845 parece influenciar a atividade da GPx1 e o selênio eritrocitário e o polimorfismo rs3877899 parece influenciar a o selênio plasmático. Portanto, sugere-se considerar o perfil genético dos indivíduos em futuros estudos avaliando a resposta à suplementação com castanha-do-brasil no estado nutricional de selênio da população.

Palavras-chave: castanha-do-brasil. Selênio. Polimorfismos. Nutrigenética.

ABSTRACT

DONADIO, J.L.S. **Influence of different genotypes on the pattern of selenoprotein expression in response to supplementation with Brazil nuts.** São Paulo, 2016. PhD Thesis – Faculty of Pharmaceutical Sciences, University of São Paulo.

The micronutrient selenium is essential to human physiology. As the amino acid selenocysteine, it is inserted into selenoproteins with a wide range of functions including antioxidant capacity, thyroid hormone metabolism, improvement of immune system, brain function, fertility and reproduction. Low selenium status has been associated with increased risk for chronic diseases, such as cancer, type-2 diabetes and cardiovascular disease. In this context, several studies have been conducted in order to investigate if selenium supplementation could reduce the risk of such diseases. However, genetic variations may interfere in the response of individuals to a dietary intervention and must be considered as an important source of inter-individual variation. Therefore, this study was conducted to investigate the influence of genetic variations in selenoproteins genes on the response to an intervention with Brazil nuts, the richest source of selenium known in nature. The study included 130 healthy volunteers with both genders, aged 20 to 60 years old selected in University of São Paulo. They received nuts for 8 weeks, eating one nut a day, and did a washout period for more 8 weeks. All volunteers had a blood sampling collection every 4 weeks during 4 months, in a total of 5. The following analysis were done: anthropometric measurements, lipid profile, plasma malondialdehyde, plasma and erythrocyte Se, selenoprotein P, plasma and erythrocyte GPx activity, gene expression of *GPX1*, *SEPP1*, *SELS* and *SEPI5*. The volunteers were also genotyped for SNPs rs1050450, rs3811699, rs1800699, rs713041, rs3877899, rs7579, rs34713741 and rs5845. Each unit of Brazil nut provided an average of 300 µg of selenium. All 130 volunteers completed the protocol. The

concentrations of total cholesterol and glucose decreased after 8 weeks of supplementation. Moreover, HDL concentrations were higher for carriers of the variant T allele for *GPX4_rs713041*. The frequencies of the variant genotypes were 5,4% for rs1050450, rs3811699 e rs1088668, 10% for rs3877899, 19,2% for rs713041 e rs7579, 11,5% for rs5845 and 8,5% for rs34713741. The levels of the five biomarkers increased significantly after supplementation. In addition, erythrocyte GPx activity was influenced by rs1050450, rs713041 and rs5845; erythrocyte selenium was influenced by rs5845 and plasma selenium by rs3877899. Gene expression of *GPX1*, *SEPP1* and *SEP15* were higher after supplementation. The SNP rs1050450 influenced GPX1 mRNA expression and rs7579 influenced SEPP1 mRNA expression. Therefore, it can be concluded that the supplementation with one of Brazil nut for 8 weeks was efficient to reduce total cholesterol and glucose levels and to increase the concentrations of the main biomarkers of selenium status in healthy adults. Furthermore, our results suggest that *GPX4_rs713041* might interfere on HDL concentrations and GPx1 activity, *GPX1_rs1050450* might interfere on GPx1 activity, *SEP15_rs5845* might interfere on GPx1 activity and erythrocyte selenium and *SEPP1_3877899* might interfere on plasma Se levels. Therefore, the effect of genetic variations should be considered in future nutritional interventions evaluating the response to Brazil nut supplementation.

Key words: Brazil nuts. Selenium. Polymorphisms. Nutrigenetics.

ABBREVIATIONS

| | |
|----------------------------------|---|
| BMI | Body mass index |
| CH ₃ SeH | Methyl-selenol |
| CVD | Cardiovascular Disease |
| DIO | Iodothyronine Deiodinase |
| DIO | Deiodinase |
| DMBA | 7,12-dimethylbenzoanthracene |
| DNMT | DNA methyl transferase |
| DNPH | dinitrophenylhydrazine |
| EAR | Estimated Average Requirement |
| EFSA | European Food Safety Authority |
| ELISA | enzyme-linked immunosorbent assays |
| GP _x | Glutathione peroxidase |
| GPX1 | Glutathione Peroxidase 1 |
| GPX2 | Glutathione Peroxidase 2 |
| GPX3 | Glutathione Peroxidase 3 |
| GPX4 | Glutathione Peroxidase 4 |
| GSEA | Gene Set Enrichment Analysis |
| H ₂ O ₂ | hydrogen peroxides |
| H ₂ Se | Selenide |
| HDL-c | High density lipoprotein |
| HGFAAS | hydride generation flame atomic absorption spectrometry |
| HPFS | Health Professionals Follow-up Study |
| HPLC | High Performance Liquid Chromatography |
| HSePO ₃ ²⁻ | selenophosphate |
| IPP | isopentenyl pyrophosphate |
| LDL-c | Low density lipoprotein |
| MDA | Malondialdehyde |
| MSigDB | Molecular Signature Database |
| MUFA | monounsaturated fatty acids |
| NHANES | National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey |
| NHS | Nurse's Health Study |
| PUFA | polyunsaturated fatty acids |
| qPCR | real-time quantitative polymerase chain reaction |
| RIN | RNA integrity number |

| | |
|-----------------------|-------------------------------------|
| RNA ^t -Sec | Selenocysteine RNA transporter |
| RT-PCR | real-time polymerase chain reaction |
| Se | Selenium |
| Sec | Selenocysteine |
| SELH | Selenoprotein H |
| SELW | Selenoprotein W |
| SeMet | Selenomethione |
| SEP15 | Selenoprotein 15 |
| SePP | Selenoprotein P |
| SEPP1 | Selenoprotein P |
| SEPS | Selenoprotein S |
| SNPs | single nucleotide polymorphisms |
| SPS2 | selenophosphate synthetase 2 |
| TAG | triacylglycerol |
| TC | Total cholesterol |
| TR | Thioredoxin Reductase |
| TR | Tioredoxin Reductase |
| VLDL-c | Very low density lipoprotein |

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CHAPTER 1. Literature review

Importance of Selenium to Human Biology

Selenium (Se) is a trace element with an essential role in human biology. Unlike other minerals that interact with proteins as cofactors, Se is inserted into the mammalian selenoproteins as the amino acid selenocysteine (Sec). Generally, Sec is located in the active site of the enzymes by a mechanism involving the recoding of the stop codon UGA during the translation process (KRYUKOV et al., 2003; PAPP et al., 2007; RAYMAN, 2008). The functions attributed to Se are directly related to the functions of selenoproteins and subproducts of its metabolism. One of the most known functions of selenoproteins is the redox activity, reducing hydrogen peroxides (H₂O₂) and phospholipids peroxides, which can reduce the overall oxidative damage to cell membranes, biomolecules and DNA, therefore, decreasing the risk of cancer and atherosclerosis (RAYMAN, 2000).

Se was reported to be essential to humans after the discovery that increasing Se intake could prevent Keshan Disease, a cardiomyopathy, and Kashin-Beck Disease, an osteoarthritis, observed only in selenium-deficient zones of China, Mongolia, Tibet and North Korea (GE; YANG, 1993; HUANG et al., 2013). Low Se status has been associated with the incidence of the juvenile cardiomyopathy Keshan Disease, characterized by myocardial necrosis and calcification. The infection by coxsackie virus was also implicated in the development of this myocarditis (BENSTOEM et al., 2015; CHEN, 2012). The osteoarthropathy Kashin-Beck Disease is characterized by deformities of bones, joints and cartilages mostly of ankles, knees, elbows and wrists. It is also a juvenile disease, occurring in children of 5 to 15 years old. The risk factors are Se and iodine deficiency and infection by mycotoxins (HUANG et al., 2013).

Besides the antioxidant function, the mineral is related to immune function (BELLINGER et al., 2009; MATTMILLER; CARLSON; SORDILLO, 2013), protection against toxic heavy metals, (RAYMAN, 2012), thyroid function (BECKETT; ARTHUR, 2005), neurological function (SANTOS et al., 2014; STEINBRENNER; SIES, 2013), male fertility and reproduction (FORESTA et al., 2002), reduction of the risk of cardiovascular disease (TANGUY et al., 2012), cancer (BERA et al., 2013; ZENG; COMBS, 2008) and diabetes mellitus type 2 (RAYMAN; STRANGES, 2013; STEINBRENNER, 2013). In addition, low molecular weight methylated metabolites of Se, such as acid methyl-seleninic and methyl-selenocystein, could have anticarcinogenic function, as demonstrated in *in vivo* and *in vitro* studies (FINLEY, 2006; RAYMAN, 2012). Moreover, there are evidences that selenomethionine (SeMet) supplementation could improve genomic stability, maintaining DNA integrity by reducing the formation of DNA adducts induced by the carcinogen 7,12-dimethylbenz(a)anthracene (DMBA) (EL-BAYOUMY, 2001; FERGUSON et al., 2012; XIANG et al., 2008).

Dietary sources, bioavailability and requirements

The concentration of Se in foods are related to the concentrations in the soils, which depends basically on the geological formation. In the soils there are inorganic forms, such as selenates and selenites, with different bioavailability to plants. Great inhibitors are high content of organic matter, and Fe hydroxydes, that can bind Se. Selenite is also less bioavailable to plants than selenate (RAYMAN, 2008; WINKEL et al., 2015). Plants can be stratified by their ability to accumulate Se in three categories: non-accumulators, secondary accumulators and accumulators. Some examples of secondary accumulators are the *Brassica* species (broccoli and cabbage) and *Allium* species (onions, garlic and leek). The only accumulator plant used as a source of Se to humans is the Brazil nut tree (*Bertholletia*

excelsa, *Lecitidae* family) (RAYMAN, 2008). Accumulator plants store Se as methyl-selenocysteine mainly in young leaves, pollen, ovules and seeds. Possible physiological advantages of Se in plants are upregulation of antioxidant responses, protection from pathogens and herbivores, decreased competition from other species of plants and enhanced growth (WINKEL et al., 2015).

Once absorbed by plants, Se can be found in several chemical forms, such as selenates, SeMet, Sec, Se-methyl-selenocysteine and γ -glutamyl-Se-methyl-selenocysteine. There is a combination chemical forms of Se in different foods. For instance, while in Brazil nuts, the richest Se food source, Se is presented mostly as SeMet, in garlic, onion and brocoli the main forms are Se-methyl-selenocysteine and γ -glutamyl-Se-methyl-selenocysteine (RAYMAN; INFANTE; SARGENT, 2008). In animals, the most predominant forms are SeMet and Sec. Seafood and fish have SeMet and selenates, but apparently SeMet from fish is less bioavailable than SeMet from vegetable sources (RAYMAN; INFANTE; SARGENT, 2008).

Among the Se food sources, such as fish, seafood, meat, grains, eggs and cereals Brazil nuts (*Bertholettia excelsa*, *Lecitidae* family) have the highest concentration of Se known in nature presented mainly as SeMet, which contributes to 74% of total Se and has greater bioavailability to humans compared to Sec (DA SILVA; MATAVELI; ZEZZI ARRUDA, 2013). Se concentration in Brazil nuts varies from 8 to 83 μ g/g, however the values can vary even more (THOMSON et al., 2008). Few intervention studies have used Brazil nuts as a Se food source in human trials in order to observe its bioavailability by increasing functional biomarkers such as GPx activity and plasma Se. Organic forms (SeMet and Sec) have greater bioavailability to humans than inorganic forms (selenites and selenates) because they are more efficient in increasing blood Se levels (RAYMAN; INFANTE; SARGENT, 2008). Thomson (2008) found that after 12 weeks of supplementation with

SeMet or 2 units of Brazil nuts, both SeMet and Brazil nuts were efficient in raising plasma Se. Furthermore, Brazil nut was more efficient than SeMet in raising glutathione peroxidase (GPx) activity, which could indicate a better Se bioavailability to selenoprotein synthesis (THOMSON et al., 2008). Two other studies have also found higher levels of plasma Se and GPx activity after Brazil nut supplementation than baseline (CARDOSO et al., 2015b; COMINETTI et al., 2012). The higher bioavailability of SeMet is probably due to its incorporation in replacement of methionine in muscles, erythrocytes and plasma albumin, where it serves as a Se store. It was observed that SeMet is retained 2.5 times more than inorganic forms and the selenoenzymes activities are maintained for longer periods after Se depletion when using SeMet as a supplement (RAYMAN; INFANTE; SARGENT, 2008).

Current dietary Se requirements in most countries are based on the intake necessary to maximize plasma selenoproteins, such as glutathione peroxidase 3 (GPx3) and selenoprotein P (SePP). The most recent recommendations proposed by the Institute of Medicine of the USA and Canada in 2000 were based on the intake needed to maximize GPx3. The experts used the average of two different studies to choose the EAR of 45 µg/d (Estimated Average Requirement). The conversion of this value to the RDA (Recommended Dietary Allowance) was further calculated to be 55 µg/d (NÈVE, 2000). In Brazil, the reference used is the same proposed by USA and Canada, namely 55 µg/d for adults. However, different organizations around the world have tried to establish their recommendations, as summarized recently (HURST et al., 2013). Furthermore, new studies have demonstrated that SePP may be a better biomarker for Se intake, as it responds to different forms of Se and could be used in populations with low to adequate Se status (HURST et al., 2013; KIPP et al., 2015). Recently, the European Food Safety Authority (EFSA) have revised the dietary reference values for Se. It was concluded that the habitual intake of 50 – 60 µg/d was not sufficient to

reach the plateau for SePP in a Finish study. Therefore, they concluded that the reference intake for Se should be set at 70 µg/d (EFSA, 2014).

Metabolism

The metabolism of organic and inorganic forms of Se is different Figure 1. Food sources such as meat, fish and Brazil nuts, have most Se compounds in the form of SeMet, which could be incorporated into proteins *en lieu* of methionine, and few compounds in the form of SeCys. Both are metabolized to selenide (H_2Se). SeMet can form methyl-selenol (CH_3SeH) by the action of γ -lyase. Food sources such as garlic and onions have most Se in the methylated form of γ -glutamyl- CH_3SeCys , which will be converted to CH_3SeH by the enzyme β -lyase. Inorganic supplements and some vegetal sources have selenate and selenite, which will be reduced to H_2Se . It's important to highlight that H_2Se can enter the pathway of selenoprotein synthesis by being transformed into selenophosphate ($HSePO_3^{2-}$) by the enzyme selenophosphate synthetase 2 (SPS2), reacting with residues of RNAt-seryl, forming RNAt-Sec, the specific Sec RNA transporter, which will incorporate Sec into the selenoproteins by recoding the stop codon UGA (HATFIELD; GLADYSHEV, 2002). The selenoproteins formed will exert its various functions in human physiology, and depending on the genetic variation in their genes, can have impaired biological function or contribute to increase or reduce the risk of diseases (RAYMAN; INFANTE; SARGENT, 2008).

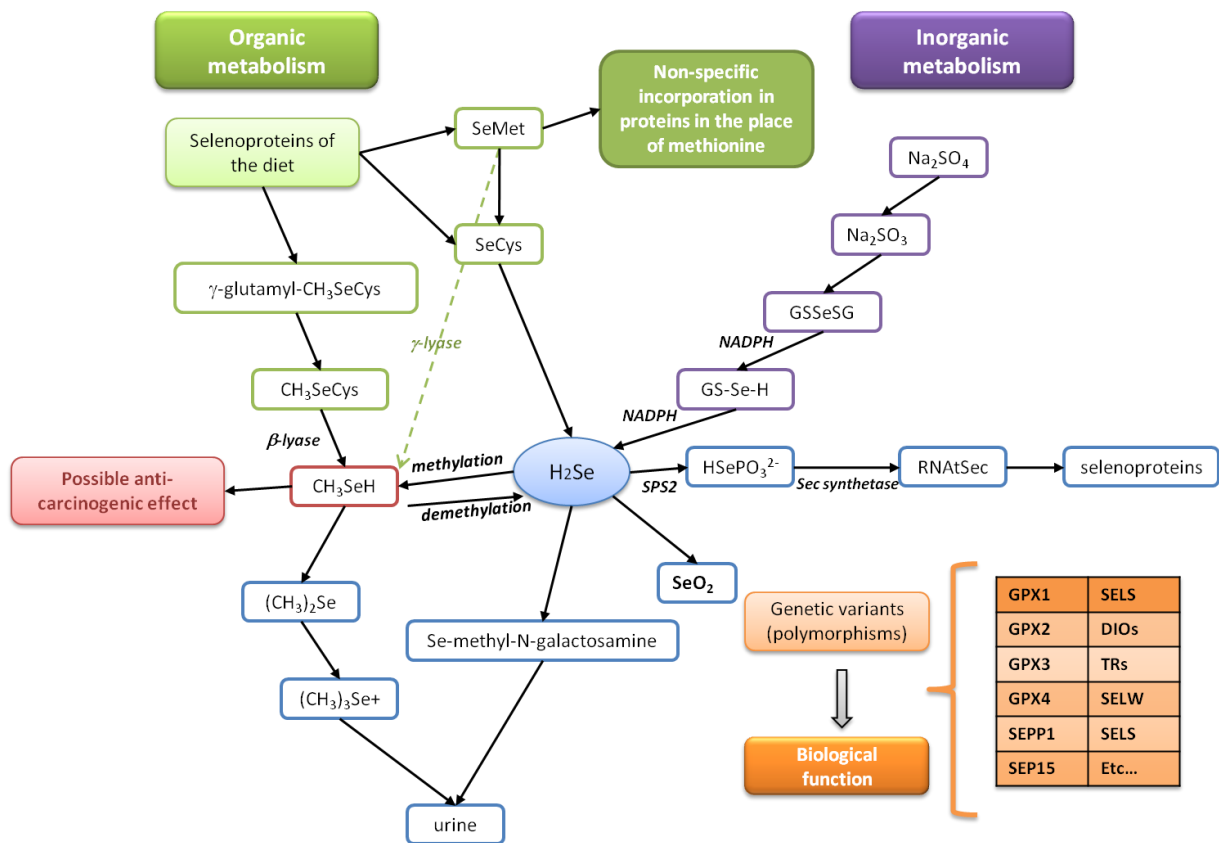


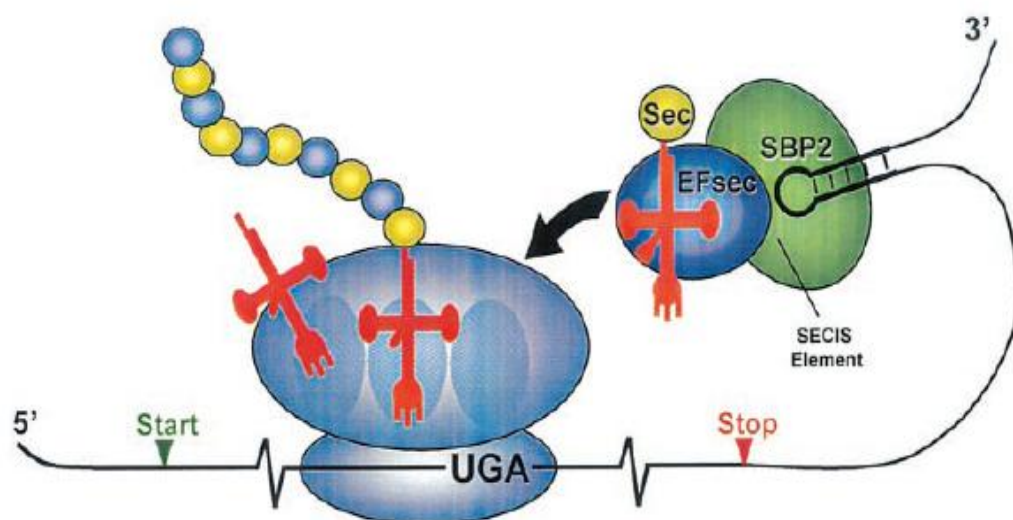
Figure 1. Metabolism of organic and inorganic forms of Se.

Incorporation of Sec into proteins

Se can be incorporated into proteins by two different forms. In the first one is a nonspecific incorporation, when Se substitutes sulfur in the synthesis of the amino acids cysteine and methionine (HATFIELD; GLADYSHEV, 2002). In the second one, the amino acid Sec is incorporated into proteins during translation, which requires the recoding of the stop codon UGA (LOW; BERRY, 1996; LOW et al., 2000). The discovery of this recoding mechanism has transformed the understanding of the genetic code, which needed to be expanded to include the 21st amino acid Sec.

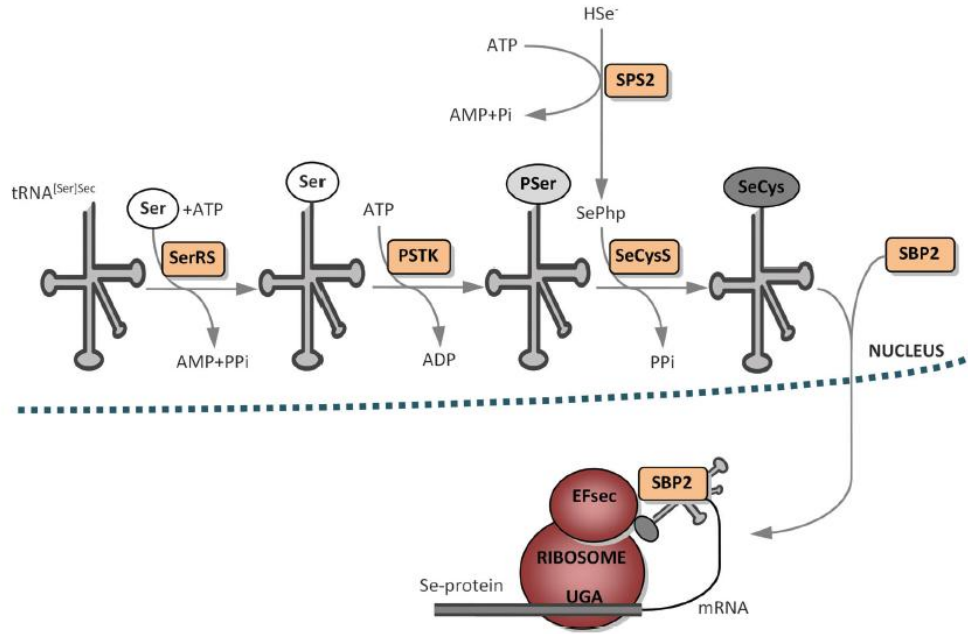
This recoding requires the presence of a specific sequence in the mRNA, a stem loop structure called SECIS (Sec Insertion Sequence) in the 3'UTR of the mRNA Figure 2. The key component of this insertion is the tRNA^{[Ser]Sec}, the tRNA specific for Sec. Its synthesis is

related to the amount of Sec available, which is dependent on the Se status. Essentially, the synthesis involves three steps (Figure 3). First, the $tRNA^{[Ser]Sec}$ is charged with serine. Then, it is phosphorylated by a kinase (O-phosphoserine- $tRNA^{[Ser]Sec}$ kinase). Finally, the phosphoserine is converted to selenocysteine by a synthetase (selenocysteine synthetase), which uses monoselenophosphate as a substrate (BURK; HILL, 2015). It was discovered that there are two isoforms of $tRNA^{[Ser]Sec}$, the only difference being a methylation in the structure when Se is available. After its synthesis, the $tRNA^{[Ser]Sec}$ undergoes four base modifications, which transform this tRNA into its active form (BURK; HILL, 2015). There are two classes of SECIS elements in eukaryotes, named Type I and II (KROL, 2002). Other proteins are needed to bring about the recoding mechanism, such as SECIS Binding Protein two (SBP2) and a specific elongation factor (EFsec). SBP2 is responsible for creating a tight complex with SECIS and for recruiting EFsec, which is different from EF1 used for the other 20 amino acids (HATFIELD; GLADYSHEV, 2002). The strength of the binding of SBP2 to the different SECIS elements is an important determinant to the hierarchy of selenoprotein expression (LOW et al., 2000).



(HATFIELD; GLADYSHEV, 2002)

Figure 2. Details of Sec insertion into proteins.



(ROMAN; JITARU; BARBANTE, 2014)

Figure 3. Synthesis of tRNA^{[Ser]Sec}.

Selenoproteins and their functions

The Glutathione Peroxidases (GPx) are enzymes that can reduce hydrogen peroxides, lipids peroxides using glutathione as a reductant. In mammals there are five GPx (GPx 1, GPx 2, GPx 3, GPx 4, GPx 6) which have selenocysteine in their structure (LABUNSKYY; HATFIELD; GLADYSHEV, 2014; PAPP et al., 2007), but at least eight GPx have been described (BRIGELIUS-FLOHÉ; MAIORINO, 2013). The five enzymes have similar, but not identical, antioxidant properties, but different subcellular location (Chart 1). GPx1 was first discovered as an erythrocyte enzyme (LEI; CHENG; MCCLUNG, 2007) and is one of the most studied glutathione peroxidases enzymes, mainly due to its capacity of regulating H₂O₂ concentrations in the human body; H₂O₂ is a signalling molecule triggering processes

such as stress response, apoptosis, cell proliferation and mitochondrial functions (LABUNSKYY; HATFIELD; GLADYSHEV, 2014).

GPx2 is located in the gastrointestinal system, expressed mainly in the epithelium of the oesophagus. It was first characterized as a specific gastrointestinal protein acting as a barrier against hydroperoxides generated from food. Within the gastrointestinal system, GPx2 is highly expressed in colonic crypt bases, where occurs the growth and differentiation of intestinal stem cells. This process is regulated by the Wnt pathway, which also targets GPx2. GPx2 is also regulated by the transcription factor Nrf2, a upregulator of the cellular defense system (BRIGELIUS-FLOHÉ; MAIORINO, 2013). It is positioned high in the hierarchy of selenoprotein expression, based on studies in mice (BANNING et al., 2008) due to its high mRNA stability under Se deficient conditions (BANNING et al., 2005).

GPx3 is a glycoprotein synthesized in the kidneys with extracellular antioxidant function (PAPP et al., 2007). Initially, the studies were focused on the erythrocyte GPx (GPx1), however, with the discover that GPx3 could use other substrates in the place of glutathione, such as thioredoxin and glutaredoxin, more studies were conducted with this enzyme (BRIGELIUS-FLOHÉ, 1999). GPx3 can also reduce hydrogen peroxide, fatty acid and phospholipid hydroperoxide (PAPP et al., 2007). It accounts for 20% of total plasma Se, based on HPLC-ICP-MS experiments (JACOBSON et al., 2006). . In obese individuals, not only GPx3 concentration but also its enzyme activity were reduced. Another important discovery was the association of lower GPx3 activity with increased risk of stroke (KENET et al., 1999). A role for the enzyme in the inflammatory process has been proposed due to its high activity in children with inflammatory bowel disease (HOFFENBERG et al., 1997). Moreover, GPx3 gene expression is reduced in some types of cancer (BRIGELIUS-FLOHÉ; MAIORINO, 2013; WANG et al., 2010), such as prostate, thyroid and gastric, while the increased gene expression inhibit tumor growth and metastasis (WANG et al., 2010).

However, less is known about the mechanisms underlying its transcriptional regulation (BRIGELIUS-FLOHÉ; MAIORINO, 2013).

GPx4 has three isoforms, one in the nucleus, one in the mitochondria and one in the cytosol. This enzyme is different from the others glutathione peroxidases for several reasons. Its smaller size facilitates the interaction with lipids in the cell membrane and it can use not only glutathione as a substrate, but also hydroperoxides of phospholipids. The deletion of the entire gene is lethal, however mice with the deletion of the mitochondrial isoform were viable. The spermatozoa showed structure abnormalities causing males to be completely infertile (BRIGELIUS-FLOHÉ; MAIORINO, 2013). GPx4 is related to male fertility due to the high expression of the mitochondrial form in testis, where is crucial for the formation of sperm capsules (BRIGELIUS-FLOHÉ, 1999; DIAMOND, 2015). The cytosolic GPx4 is not only essential for embryogenesis, as knockout models of this isoform are embryonically lethal, but also for adults. It was observed a downregulation of GPX4 in the brain of mouse models of Alzheimer's disease. As GPx4 is an important regulator of lipid peroxidation, this decrease could indicate a protective role in the neurons (BRIGELIUS-FLOHÉ; MAIORINO, 2013). GPx4 is also involved in the regulation of leukotrienes biosynthesis: the synthesis of leukotrienes requires the activation of the enzyme 5-lipoxygenase, which is activated by hydroperoxides of lipids in the cell membrane. Therefore, GPx4 is critical to the amount of hydroperoxides available to activate the enzyme 5-lipoxygenase (VILLETTE et al., 2002).

Chart 1 - Chromosome location and function of selenoproteins.

| Selenoprotein | Gene location | Function | Tissue | Subcellular location |
|---------------|---------------|--|-------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| GPX 1 | 3p21.3 | Antioxidant | All tissues | Cytoplasm |
| GPX 2 | 14q23.3 | Antioxidant | Gastrointestinal | Cytoplasm |
| GPX 3 | 5q33.1 | Antioxidant | Plasma | |
| GPX 4 | 19p13.3 | Antioxidant | All tissues (testis) | Mitochondria, Cell Membrane, nucleus |
| TR1 | 12q23.3 | Antioxidant | All tissues | Cytoplasm, Mitochondria |
| TR 2 | 22q11.21 | Antioxidant | Liver, kidney, heart | Mitochondria |
| TR 3 | 3q21.2 | Antioxidant | Testis | Cytoplasm |
| DIO 1 | 1p32.3 | Thyroid hormones metabolism | Thyroid | Plasma membrane |
| DIO 2 | 14q31.1 | Thyroid hormones metabolism | Thyroid | ER membrane |
| DIO 3 | 14q32 | Thyroid hormones metabolism | Brain, muscle, placenta | Plasma membrane |
| SPS2 | 16p11.2 | Synthesis of selenoproteins | All tissues | Cytoplasm |
| SEP15 | 1p22.3 | Quality control of protein folding in ER | All tissues | ER |
| SEPP1 | 5p12 | Se transport | Liver, Plasma | Extracellular |
| SelS | 15q26.3 | ER-associated degradation, protein folding | Unknown | ER |
| SelK | 3p21.31 | ER-associated degradation, protein folding | Unknown | Plasma membrane |
| SelH | 11q22.1 | Antioxidant | Unknown | Cytoplasm |
| SelM | 22q12.2 | | | |
| SelN | 1p36.11 | Muscle development, Ca homeostasis | Wide | ER membrane |
| SelW | 19q13.32 | Antioxidant | Muscle | Cytoplasm |
| SelI | 2p22.3 | | | |
| SelO | 22q13.33 | | | |
| SelR | 16p13.3 | | | |
| SelV | 19q13.13 | | | |

Adapted from Labunskyy, 2014; Kryukov, 2003; Bellinger, 2009. Selenoproteins with unknown functions: SelI, SelO, SelR, SelV

Selenoprotein P (SePP) is the most abundant selenoprotein in plasma, constituting almost 50% of plasma Se (ASHTON et al., 2009). Differently from other selenoproteins, SePP has 10 residues of selenocysteine, being expressed mostly in the liver, but it is also found in the other tissues such as brain, gut, heart and kidneys (BURK; HILL, 2005). In Se-deficient conditions, it is preferentially directed to the brain and testis, which implies in the presence of SePP receptors APOER2 in these two tissues (BURK; HILL, 2005). SePP functions and its role in the maintenance of Se homeostasis were discovered after studies conducted in knockout mice for this gene (*Sepp*^{-/-}). Such deletion caused a sharp decrease in

Se concentration in the brain and testis, no changes in the liver and moderate decrease in kidneys and other tissues. It was observed irreversible neurological damages when the animals received a poor Se diet, proving the essentiality of SePP in supply Se to the brain. Moreover, while males *Sepp*^{-/-} were completely sterile, even when fed with a rich Se diet, females *Sepp*^{-/-} were fertile again (BURK; HILL, 2005).

The Thioredoxin Reductase (TR) enzymes are part of the thioredoxin system, the major cellular oxidoreductase system in mammals. This system, which has three components, thioredoxin, thioredoxin reductase and NADPH, is important to maintain cellular redox homeostasis in different biological processes, such as cell growth, apoptosis, regulation of transcription factors, DNA synthesis and repair. Moreover, the tumor suppressor gene p53 is activated by TR1 (LABUNSKYY; HATFIELD; GLADYSHEV, 2014; LU; BERNDT; HOLMGREN, 2009; PAPP et al., 2007). The Iodothyronine deiodinases (DIOs) are enzymes responsible for the activation and inactivation of thyroid hormones that are essential to various biologic processes in human physiology, such as thermogenesis and growth (LABUNSKYY; HATFIELD; GLADYSHEV, 2014; PAPP et al., 2007). Under severe Se deficiency, the DIOs can maintain their expression in thyroid gland, fact that ranks these enzymes high in the hierarchy of selenoprotein expression (BECKETT; ARTHUR, 2005).

Selenoprotein 15 (Sep15) is a thioredoxin-like enzyme located in the endoplasmatic reticulum (ER) of the cells. It is expressed in several tissues, mostly in the brain, liver, testis, lung, kidney and thyroid, being regulated by dietary Se (LABUNSKYY; HATFIELD; GLADYSHEV, 2014). It has been proposed that Sep15 is involved in the quality control of post-translational protein folding in the ER (PAPP et al., 2007). Knockout mice, lacking 2 exons of the the gene, have been developed and they were characterized by oxidative stress in the liver and cataract development (LABUNSKYY; HATFIELD; GLADYSHEV, 2014).

Selenoprotein S (SELS) is located in the endoplasmic reticulum membrane and it is associated with the transport of proteins from the ER to the cytosol for further degradation by the ubiquitin/proteasome system (LABUNSKYY; HATFIELD; GLADYSHEV, 2014). It has been proposed that this selenoprotein has an important role in inflammation by protecting the ER stability. When the ER is not able to function properly due to misfolded proteins, the expression of pro-inflammatory cytokines is activated through stimulation of the transcription factor NF- κ B (RAYMAN, 2009). A genetic variation located in the promoter region of SELS gene was associated with three pro-inflammatory cytokines: interleukin-1 beta (IL-1 β), interleukin-6 (IL-6) and tumor necrosis factor alpha (TNF- α) (CURRAN et al., 2005)

Regulation of selenoproteins expression

It has been established that dietary Se modulates the expression of some selenoproteins in both protein and mRNA levels (HESKETH, 2008). There are two principles of regulation of selenoprotein expression: the tissue level and the selenoprotein level (SCHOMBURG; SCHWEIZER, 2009). The first principle describes the tissue hierarchy. It states that not all tissues respond equally when the Se supply is scarce. In a severe deficiency condition, the Se concentration in the brain and endocrine tissues is maintained, whereas the quantity in the kidneys and plasma is reduced dramatically. In deficient rats, there is a sharply decrease in GPx1 activity and mRNA in liver. Furthermore, only males became infertile under Se deficiency (HESKETH, 2008; SCHOMBURG; SCHWEIZER, 2009).

The second principle describes the selenoprotein hierarchy. Some proteins have the preference in transcription during Se depletion. It was demonstrated that selenoprotein transcripts compete for the supply of Sec during translation. The expression of DIO1 was maintained *in vivo* in comparison to GPx1; GPx4 and GPx2 transcripts were preferentially synthesized during Se deficiency whereas GPx1 transcripts were degraded (SCHOMBURG;

SCHWEIZER, 2009). Selenoprotein W and H also had a decrease in mRNA expression under Se deficiency (BURK; HILL, 2015). The selenoprotein mRNAs that are sensitive to dietary Se are ranked low in the hierarchy of selenoprotein expression; the ones whose mRNA expression is stable under deficiency are ranked high in the hierarchy. One important aspect of this second principle is how Se supply regulates selenoprotein expression. It has been demonstrated that the regulation is mainly post-transcriptional (BERMANO et al., 1995). Under Se deficiency, the synthesis of tRNA^{[Ser]Sec} is reduced. During translation, if there is no tRNA^{[Ser]Sec} available, the machinery reads the UGA as a stop codon in the ORF. The remaining mRNA with premature termination codon (PTC) is then eliminated by NMD (Nonsense-Mediated Decay) (DUBEY; COPELAND, 2015). However, the elimination by NMD was demonstrated only for GPX1 mRNA; not all selenoprotein transcripts are degraded by this mechanism (BURK; HILL, 2015).

The regulation of selenoprotein transcripts is very complex and not well understood. In mouse models, Se-deficiency alters only a subset of selenoprotein transcripts in the liver and kidney (SUNDE et al., 2009). Limited Se intake reduced *GPX1* mRNA expression in the liver and kidney (SUNDE et al., 2009). It is established that the regulation of *GPX1* expression is not transcriptional, but due to a mechanism called Nonsense Mediate Decay (NMD), which degrades mRNAs with a UGA stop codon positioned at 55 nucleotides upstream of the exon-intron region of splicing (SUNDE; RAINES, 2011). Therefore, it seems reasonable to conclude that, *GPX1* mRNA expression could be a potential molecular biomarker to alterations of Se status due to the sensibility of its mRNA to degradation by NMD.

Se and diseases

Cancer

There are a large amount of epidemiological evidences linking Se intake and reduced risk of cancer mortality (MÉPLAN; HESKETH, 2012, 2014; PETERS; TAKATA, 2008; WHANGER, 2004). One of the strongest pieces of evidence was shown in 1996, when the supplementation of healthy Americans with 200 µg/d of selenized yeast reduced the incidence of colon, lung and prostate cancers by 58, 46 and 64%, mainly in individuals with plasma Se < 106 µg/L (CLARK, 1996). However, the same results were not achieved in another study, the SELECT trial (Selenium and Vitamin E Cancer Prevention Trial), in which the supplementation of selenomethione and vitamin E were studied combined or alone to prevent prostate cancer. The trial was discontinued after 7 years of supplementation with no positive results of the study agents (LIPPMAN et al., 2009). These opposite results from both studies shed the light into possible explanations with regard to the form of Se used, the baseline Se status of participants (136µg/L) and the genetic profile not being considered in either trial (HATFIELD; GLADYSHEV, 2009; RAYMAN, 2012).

Possible mechanisms by which Se interferes with cancer progression are through antioxidant proprieties of selenoproteins, such as GPx, TR, SePP, Sep15; the monomethylated intermediates of its metabolism, such as methylselenol, that can stimulate tumor cells apoptosis; regulation of programmed cell death; maintaince of DNA integrity, the modulation of immune system and inflammation (BARRERA et al., 2012; HATFIELD et al., 2009; WHANGER, 2004). Usually, the chemopreventive dose of Se is supranutritional and enough to maximize selenoproteins activity. Thus, it was proposed that its chemical proprieties and metabolites have a more important role in cancer prevention, especially in the early stages (BARRERA et al., 2012; WHANGER, 2004).

Low Se status measured by serum, plasma and toenail Se concentrations has been associated with cancer risk. For prostate cancer, a recent meta-analysis demonstrated a reduced risk over the narrow range of plasma Se between 120 to 170 $\mu\text{g/L}$ (HURST et al., 2012). Plasma Se concentration above 80 $\mu\text{g/L}$ were associated with a reduced risk for lung and laryngeal cancers (JAWORSKA et al., 2013). Lower concentrations of serum Se and SePP were observed in patients with prostate cancer in Germany, however the authors questioned if this was a predisposition or a consequence of the disease (MEYER et al., 2009).

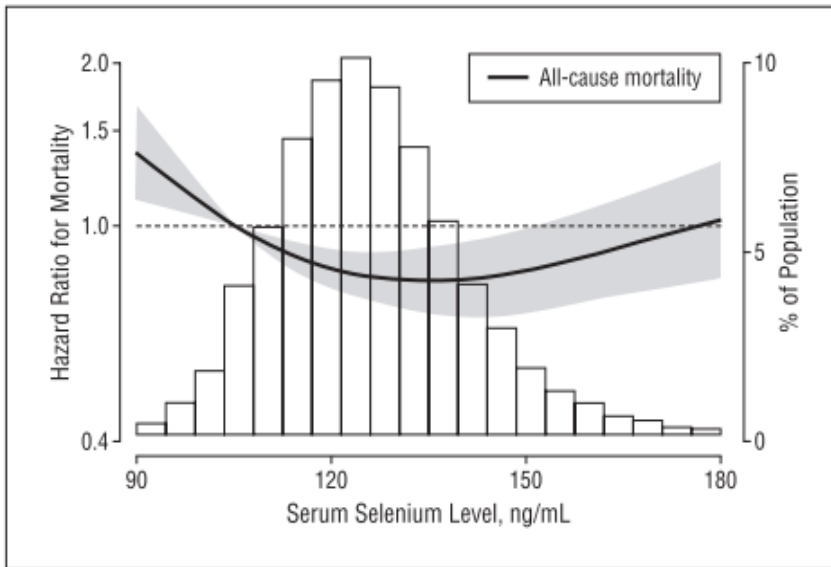
The molecular pathways that are influenced by Se associated with cancer are: the induction of the tumor suppressor gene p53, alteration in the pattern of DNA methylation, improvement of immune function, inactivation of the signalling receptor PKC (protein kinase C) inhibiting tumor cell growth, induction of caspases enzymes that stimulates apoptosis of cancer cells (PETERS, 2008; RAYMAN, 2005). Other possible mechanism by which Se influences cancer progression involves the pattern of global methylation of the DNA, an epigenetic mechanism that changes the pattern of gene expression without altering the nucleotide sequence of the DNA. DNA methylation is controlled by the enzyme DNA methyl transferase (DNMT) which was found to be downregulated by dietary Se (BARRERA et al., 2012; XIANG et al., 2008). In cancer cells there is a different pattern of DNA methylation, with hypermethylation in the promoter region causing gene silencing and hypomethylation of genomic DNA causing chromosomal instability (BARRERA et al., 2012).

Cardiovascular Disease

Studies investigating the relation between Se and reduced risk of cardiovascular disease (CVD) have inconsistent findings (RAYMAN, 2000, 2012; TANGUY et al., 2012). In the analysis of data from the Third Nutrition and Health Examination survey (NHANES III) conducted in the USA, Se supplementation did not have an effect on cardiovascular

disease endpoints. Currently, randomized human trials do not support the hypothesis that Se supplementation may prevent CVD, unless the population is already at risk for the disease or with low Se status (STRANGES et al., 2010). In this context, it was proposed a “U” dose-shape curve for serum Se levels and mortality from CVD (Figure 4) (BLEYS; NAVAS-ACIEN; GUALLAR, 2008). In individuals with low (below 90 µg/L) and very high Se status (above 150µg/L), there is a high risk of mortality from CVD, demonstrating that there is a narrow window for the beneficial effects of Se supplementation in reducing the risk for CDV.

In the context of cardiometabolic health, the selenoproteins that have special attention are the GPx family because of its capacity to protect membrane lipids from oxidation (RAYMAN, 2012). Since LDL oxidation is the main cause of the development of the atherosclerotic plate, plasma selenoproteins such as GPx and SePP may prevent its formation (BENSTOEM et al., 2015). However, other selenoproteins K and R have been studied recently due to their involvement in the antioxidant defence in cardiomyocytes (TANGUY et al., 2012). There is some evidence that Se supplementation in patients with cardiomyopathy is effective in restore cardiac function (JOSEPH; LOSCALZO, 2013). Within the optimal Se levels, the cardioprotective effect of Se may be explained by some mechanisms. Apart from the already mentioned plasma antioxidant capacity, Se may also interfere in the progression of the disease by modulating the inflammatory system (BENSTOEM et al., 2015). Other possibility is by generating an anti-apoptotic signal which reduces ischemia and reperfusion (TANGUY et al., 2012).



(BLEYS; NAVAS-ACIEN; GUALLAR, 2008)

Figure 4. The proposed U-shape dose response of serum Se levels and all cause mortality

Diabetes Mellitus type II

The association between selenium status and insulin resistance is not completely understood. Epidemiological studies have shown a association of high Se status and lower risk of type 2 diabetes. Experiments *in vitro* and *in vivo* demonstrated that treatment with supraphysiological doses of purified SePP from human plasma (10 μ g/mL) impaired insulin signaling and dysregulates glucose metabolism (MISU et al., 2010). Evidence from clinical studies demonstrate that both low and high Se status increase risk for type-2 diabetes (RAYMAN; STRANGES, 2013).

On the one hand, high Se status could interfere in insulin metabolism by increasing GPx1 activity which reduces the concentration of hydrogen peroxide, a second messenger in insulin signalling. On the other hand, low Se status could increase the oxidative stress in pancreatic β cells (RAYMAN; STRANGES, 2013). In the NPC trial, a post-hoc analysis revealed that the supplementation of 200 μ g of Se increased the risk of type-2 diabetes in

participants in the highest tertile of plasma Se on baseline (RAYMAN et al., 2012). The post-hoc analysis of NHANES trial corroborated these findings (STRANGES et al., 2010). The pilot UK PRECISE (Prevention of Cancer by Intervention with Selenium) study carried out with 500 elderly adults showed no effect of Se supplementation as selenium-enriched yeast on plasma adiponectin, a marker of lower risk of type-2 diabetes (RAYMAN et al., 2012).

The findings of these trials have to be considered carefully because some of them were conducted in very specific groups of the population. The NPC trial, for instance, were carried out only in men with history of skin melanoma, and the pilot UK-PRECISE study used only elderly adults. Besides, none of these trials considered either the genetic profile or the baseline Se status of the participants. Therefore, better designed trials are urgently needed to help the scientific community understand the effect of different doses of Se in reducing the risk of type-2 diabetes (RAYMAN; STRANGES, 2013).

Biomarkers of Se status

Se nutritional status is determined by the quantification of different biomarkers. The most currently used are plasma Se, erythrocyte Se, whole blood Se, urinary Se, plasma GPx activity, erythrocyte GPx activity, whole blood GPx activity, plasma SePP and (COMBS et al., 2011). The most sensitive biomarker to changes in Se intake is plasma Se. In individuals with marginal to adequate Se levels, plasma Se is considered an excellent biomarker; for those with low Se levels, erythrocyte GPx activity is a good choice. Its activity reaches a plateau when plasma Se is 100µg/L (ASHTON et al., 2009) and when erythrocyte Se reaches 140 µg/L (NÈVE, 2000). Another good biomarker that can be used in individuals with low Se levels is plasma SePP. In Brazilian studies the most used biomarkers are plasma Se, erythrocyte Se, erythrocyte GPx activity and whole blood GPx activity. Nonetheless, it is

imperative to also quantify SePP concentrations in plasma and GPx1, GPx3 and GPx4 activities separately. Recent studies have shown that the measurement of different selenoproteins is crucial to the assessment of Se nutritional status (COMBS et al., 2011).

The great advantage in using different biomarkers to assess Se status is the possibility of assessing Se intake (COMBS, 2015). This approach is adequate in case of populations with marginal Se status, in which the increase in Se blood levels is proportional to the amount of Se supplemented (COMBS, 2015; XIA et al., 2005). In populations with adequate Se status, the increase in Se biomarkers is dependent of the form of Se in the diet. It is known that sodium selenite has lower bioavailability compared to SeMet (FAIRWEATHER-TAIT; COLLINGS; HURST, 2010), and increases plasma Se in 20% in those individuals with basal concentration of 70 μ g/L (BURK et al., 2006; DUFFIELD et al., 1999). On the other hand, SeMet is capable of raising plasma Se and SePP concentrations even in those individuals with adequate Se status (BURK et al., 2006; COMBS, 2015; COMBS et al., 2012; HURST et al., 2010). In those individuals with adequate Se status consuming Se as SeMet, the Se intake can be estimated by plasma Se (COMBS, 2015; COMBS et al., 2012).

SePP concentration is sensitive to dietary Se, therefore is an excellent biomarker of Se intake, mainly in individuals with low to marginal Se status (HURST et al., 2010). Previous work has shown that supplementation with 200 μ g/d of SeMet for four weeks is enough to change plasma SePP concentration (ASHTON et al., 2009). Plasma SePP concentration has been used in many international studies as a biomarker of Se status. There are still no reference values for this biomarker, however, and its measurement could help to establish a possible reference for plasma Se (DUFFIELD et al., 1999). Even without a reference value for SePP concentrations, some studies have tried to identify the plasma Se concentration needed to reach a plateau of SePP concentration in plasma. In a Chinese study, it was noted that an intake of 37 μ g/d of SeMet and 66 μ g/d of selenite was enough to maximize plasma GPx,

however it was not enough to maximize SePP. Therefore, to optimize SePP concentrations it is necessary to have a higher Se intake or a longer period of intervention (XIA et al., 2005). In a study of healthy adults in UK Se supplementation with 50µg/d of SeMet was sufficient SePP concentration in plasma to reach a plateau (HURST et al., 2010).

The problem of evaluating Se intake using the traditional methods, such as 24h Food Recall, 3-day nonconsecutive dietary food record and Food Frequency Questionnaires, is the real Se concentration of foods in Brazilians Food Databases. It is established that a huge variation of Se concentrations in foods exists as a result of the variation of Se content in the soil of different countries (COMBS, 2001; OLDFIELD, 2002). This variation is reflected in different plasma Se concentration worldwide. Another important point is the lack of information regarding Se concentration in Brazilian foods and the insertion of this data into computer software used to calculate dietary intake. Few works have evaluated Se concentration in food consumed in Brazil (FERREIRA et al., 2002; LEMIRE et al., 2010). Therefore, because of the problems in evaluate Se intake, it is preferable to quantify different biomarkers in plasma in order to obtain a real Se status of individuals, and still be able to infer Se intake with more precision.

Genomic Studies

After the sequencing of the human genome, the nutritional field was revolutionized. New genomic approaches were established to answer traditional questions, such as how a nutrient modulates the risk of chronic diseases by interacting with the environment and the genome. In this context, the nutritional genomics field emerged, with the goals of understand how a specific nutrient alters the pattern of gene expression and how the genetic background interferes in the response to nutrients modulating the risk of diseases (KAUWELL, 2005; MÉPLAN; DONADIO; HESKETH, 2015).

As a consequence of the great effort made by the Human Genome Project, genetic variations or polymorphisms were discovered and received special attention. There are different types of polymorphisms in the human genome. By definition, a polymorphic locus in a chromosome is that in which the most common variant occurs in less than 99% of the population, or in terms of the variant allele, the rarer allele must occur in more than 1% of the population (KAUWELL, 2005; SCHORK; FALLIN; LANCHBURY, 2000). Polymorphisms are originated from mutations that were fixed in the population. Therefore, different types of polymorphisms originated different types of mutations. The substitution of a single nucleotide in the DNA sequence is the simplest and most common type of polymorphism, termed single nucleotide polymorphism or SNP. Other polymorphisms are consequence of insertions or deletions (INDELS) of parts of the DNA. These INDELS could be of hundred of base pairs, called variable number of tandem repeats (VNTRs or minisatellites), or just two, three or four bases, named simple tandem repeats (STRs or microsatellites) (SCHORK; FALLIN; LANCHBURY, 2000). STRs are often used as markers of ancestry in population genetics (SANTOS et al., 2009).

One important concept in population genetics is the linkage disequilibrium and haplotype blocks. By definition, a haplotype is a group of alleles in a specific locus in the chromosome; and the linkage disequilibrium is the association among these alleles. Alleles in one specific region that are physically close to each other tend to be inherited together. Therefore, if one of these alleles is a marker for a disease and if they are in linkage disequilibrium, the identification of only one allele in the haplotype is sufficient to predict the presence of the other ones (BROOKES, 1999; SCHORK; FALLIN; LANCHBURY, 2000).

In the nutritional field, the most important genetic variations are the SNPs. It is noteworthy that most SNPs do not have an effect on phenotype for several reasons: they could be in an intronic region not close to the splicing junction, they could be in exons and do

not change the amino acid because the genetic code is degenerated or even if they change the amino acid, this modification is not essential for the structure, stability and function of the protein. Thus, the great current challenge is to discover SNPs that alone or interacting with other SNPs or nutritional components have functional consequences (HESKETH, 2008). There is a huge amount of data associating the frequency of genotypes for different SNPs and the risk of chronic diseases. With regard to selenium biology, there is a consensus for the functionality of SNPs in at least ten selenoprotein genes. Detailed information about each of them can be seen in **Chart 2**.

Chart 2. Functional SNPs in selenoprotein genes.

| Gene symbol | Chromosomal location | SNPs | Location/ modification | base change | Functional consequences | Associated diseases or | References |
|---------------|----------------------|---|--|---|---|---|--|
| <i>SEPI5</i> | 1p22.3 | rs5845 rs5859 rs540049 | 3'UTR 3'UTR 3'UTR | G>A G>A or C>T C>T | Sec insertion Sec insertion enzyme activity(GPX3) | colorectal , prostate cancer colorectal, prostate, lung cancer prostate cancer | (JABLONSKA et al., 2008; KARUNASINGHE et al., 2012a; MÉPLAN et al., 2010; STEINBRECHER et al., 2010; SUTHERLAND et al., 2010) |
| <i>GPXI</i> | 3p21.3 | rs1050450 rs8179169 rs1800668 rs3811699 | Pro198Leu Arg5Pro promoter promoter | C>T G>C C>T G>A | enzyme activity enzyme activity? gene expression gene expression | breast, lung, prostate and bladder cancer no diseases breast cancer diabetes | (MÉPLAN et al., 2013; PELLATT et al., 2013; PETERS; TAKATA, 2008; RAVN-HAREN et al., 2006; STEINBRECHER et al., 2010; ZHAO et al., 2005) |
| <i>GPX2</i> | 14q23.3 | rs4902347 | tagSNP | C>T | ? | rectal cancer | (HAUG et al., 2012) |
| <i>GPX3</i> | 5q33.1 | rs8177447 rs3828599 rs736775 | tagSNP tagSNP tagSNP | C>T C>T C>T | ? ? ? | rectal cancer rectal cancer rectal cancer | (HAUG et al., 2012; PETERS et al., 2008) |
| <i>GPX4</i> | 19p13.3 | rs713041 | 3'UTR | C>T | Sec insertion | colorectal, breast and lung cancer | (JAWORSKA et al., 2013; MÉPLAN et al., 2008, 2013; STEINBRECHER et al., 2010; VILLETTE et al., 2002) |
| <i>SELK</i> | 3p21.31 | rs9880056 | taggingSNP/ promoter | T>C | ? | prostate cancer | (MÉPLAN et al., 2012) |
| <i>SEPP1</i> | 5p12 | rs3877899 rs7579 rs12055266 rs3797310 rs2972994 rs230813 rs230819 | Ala234Thr 3'UTR tagSNP tagSNP tagSNP tagSNP (3'UTR) intron | G>A G>A A>G G>A C>T C>G C>A | enzyme activity Sec insertion ? ? ? ? ? | breast cancer colorectal and prostate colorectal cancer colorectal cancer colorectal cancer MDA levels MDA levels | (MÉPLAN et al., 2007, 2013; PETERS et al., 2008; STEINBRECHER et al., 2010; TAKATA et al., 2012) |
| <i>SELS</i> | 15q26.3 | rs34713741 rs28665122 | promoter promoter | C>T C>T | gene expression? gene expression | colorectal cancer gastric cancer | (CURRAN et al., 2005; MÉPLAN et al., 2010; PELLATT et al., 2013; SHIBATA et al., 2009; SUTHERLAND et al., 2010) |
| <i>TXNRD1</i> | 12q23.3 | rs7310505 | intron | C>A | ? | prostate cancer | (MÉPLAN et al., 2012) |
| <i>TXNRD2</i> | 22q11.21 | rs9605030 rs9605031 | intron intron | C>T C>T | ? ? | prostate cancer colorectal cancer | (MÉPLAN et al., 2010, 2012) |

One of the most studied SNPs in selenoprotein genes is the *GPXI*_rs1050450. It is C>T substitution located in the coding region of the gene which changes the amino acid proline to leucine in the position 198 of the protein. The rare allele T was found to be more frequent in breast cancer cells, with loss of heterozygosity in *GPXI* locus 3p21 observed in 36% of breast tumors (HU; DIAMOND, 2003) and was associated with decreased GPx1 activity and higher risk of breast cancer in a Danish study (RAVN-HAREN et al., 2006). This association was confirmed latter in a more recent study demonstrating that the allele T increased the risk for non-ductal tumors (MÉPLAN et al., 2013). The rare allele T was also associated with higher risk for prostate cancer in only one study (KARUNASINGHE et al., 2012a) and with modulation of the disease risk by interaction with Se status, decreasing the risk with increasing serum Se levels (STEINBRECHER et al., 2010). The risk for colorectal cancer was increased by an interaction of *GPXI*_rs1050450 and *SELS*_rs34713741 (MÉPLAN et al., 2010). Other studies demonstrated that the T allele increased risk for lung cancer (RATNASINGHE et al., 2000), bladder cancer (ZHAO et al., 2005), metabolic syndrome (KUZUYA et al., 2008) and cardiovascular disease (HAMANISHI et al., 2004). In healthy subjects, it was demonstrated that individuals with the TT genotype had lower plasma Se at baseline compared to CC (COMBS et al., 2012).

Two SNPs were discovered in *SEPP1* gene with functional consequences: one is a G>A substitution located in the 3'UTR (rs7579) and the other one is also a G>A substitution located in the coding region, predicted to change the amino acid alanine to threonine (rs3877899) (MÉPLAN et al., 2007). After intervention in healthy adults in the UK with 100µg/d of sodium selenite for 6 weeks, it was observed that both SNPs affected the Se availability to selenoprotein synthesis, as SePP is the most important Se transporter

in plasma (MÉPLAN et al., 2007). In Danish adults, the rare allele (A) for rs3877899 decreased the risk for breast cancer, however, the interaction with *GPXI*_rs1050450 increased the risk (RASMUSSEN et al., 2009). In adults from Czech Republic, the interaction of *SEPP1*_rs3877899 and *GPX4*_rs713041 decreased the risk of colorectal cancer (MÉPLAN et al., 2010). In American adults, plasma SePP concentrations were lower in GA individuals compared to GG for *SEPP1*_rs3877899 (COMBS et al., 2011).

Considering the SNP located in the 3'UTR (rs7579), it was noticed that the AA genotype increased the risk of colorectal cancer in adults from Czech Republic, but the interaction with *SEPI5*_rs5859 decreased the risk (MÉPLAN et al., 2010). In a German study, men with AA genotype had an increased risk of developing prostate cancer. Moreover, higher plasma SePP concentrations were found in individuals carriers of the A allele (GA+AA) (STEINBRECHER et al., 2010).

There is a C>T substitution (rs713041) in the *GPX4* gene in the region corresponding to the 3'UTR, the region of the mRNA important for Sec insertion. Experimental evidence, both *in vitro* and *in vivo*, have demonstrated that this SNP has functional consequences. Levels of lymphocyte lipoxygenase products were higher in individuals with the CC genotype and the C allele were associated with higher risk for colorectal cancer (VILLETTE et al., 2002). It was demonstrated *in vitro* that *GPX4* transcripts containing the C allele showed a better ability to bind proteins, competing strongly with the transcripts containing the T allele and with the *GPXI* transcripts (MÉPLAN et al., 2008). In human endothelial cells, the T allele was associated with higher levels of lipid hydroperoxides and was also more sensitive to oxidative challenge (CROSLEY et al., 2013). The rare T allele was associated with higher risk for breast cancer in a study conducted in the UK (UDLER et al., 2007) and with colorectal cancer in adults

from Czech Republic, in interaction with SOD2_rs4880 and TR2_rs9605031 (MÉPLAN et al., 2010). In healthy men from New Zealand, the TT genotype was associated with reduction of DNA damage with increasing serum Se (KARUNASINGHE et al., 2012b). Moreover, this SNP affected the response after supplementation with 100µg of sodium selenite in healthy adults from UK. The GPx4 activity measured in the lymphocytes were dramatically decreased in TT subjects during the washout period (MÉPLAN et al., 2008).

OBJECTIVES

In the context of selenium biology and its effects in human health, it is important to understand how individuals may respond to the intake of a high Se content food, such as Brazil nuts. It is also fundamental to investigate the consequences of this intake on both biochemical and molecular levels in order to choose the best biomarker for a specific group of the population. Based on the literature presented, no studies have investigated the effect of Brazil nut supplementation in healthy individuals at the molecular level considering the genetic profile of the participants. Therefore, this work was conducted to investigate the influence of genetic variants in selenoprotein genes on the response to supplementation with Brazil nuts at the biochemical and molecular levels.

Specific objectives

- Determine the influence of genetic variants on blood lipid profile and oxidative stress after Brazil nut supplementation
- Quantify two new biomarkers of Se status in plasma: SePP concentrations and GPx3 activity
- Determine the influence of SNPs in selenoproteins genes on five biomarkers of Se status after Brazil nut supplementation
- Determine the influence of genetic variants on the pattern of selenoprotein expression
- Determine the influence of the SNP rs713041 in *GPX4* gene on the global gene expression after Brazil nut supplementation

METHODS

Study population and supplementation protocol

One hundred and thirty unrelated healthy adults (males and females) aged 20 to 60 years old were selected in Sao Paulo University, Brazil. Volunteers taking multivitamins and mineral supplements, anti-inflammatory drugs, those with excessive alcohol consumption, those athletes, those with chronic diseases such as cancer, diabetes and cardiovascular disease were excluded from the study. The participants were invited by electronic correspondence and personal communication when the protocol was explained. They were asked to give a 20mL blood sample initially (baseline) and take a daily supplement of Brazil nuts for 4 weeks, eating one nut a day. After four weeks, they returned to another 20mL blood sampling and received nuts for more four weeks. After eight weeks of supplementation with Brazil nuts, another 20mL blood sample was taken, and then two more blood samples were taken at four week intervals during eight weeks of washout period (Figure 5). The compliance with Brazil nut supplementation was estimated by checking a control calendar given in the first blood sampling. The adhesion to the supplementation was checked by high reported compliance. For all participants, weight and height were measured and the body mass index (BMI) was calculated. Written informed consent were signed by all volunteers before blood sampling. The protocol was approved by Faculty of Pharmaceutical Sciences Ethical Committee (CAE: 00961112.3.0000.0067) and was conducted according to the Declaration of Helsinki.

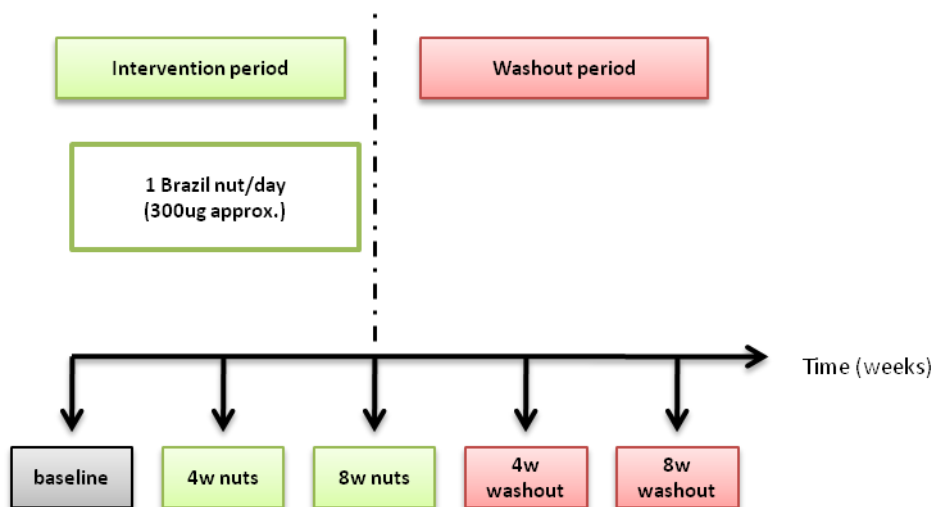


Figure 5. Brazil nut supplementation protocol.

Centesimal Composition and Se content of Brazil nuts

The centesimal composition of a random sample of Brazil nuts representative of the eight batches used in the study was analyzed according to the methods proposed by the A.O.A.C. (AOAC, 1990). Se content of Brazil nuts was done using hydride generation flame atomic absorption spectrometry (HGFAAS). Brazil nuts were prepared for analysis by digestion with 68% nitric acid (Merck, Darmstadt, Germany) and heating at 150°C. After volatilization of the organic material, solutions were reduced from SeVI to SeIV by the addition of 1.2N hydrochloric acid and heating at 100°C for 2 h. The samples were diluted to 50mL volume in ultrapure water. A calibration curve was prepared with Titrisol 1000 mg/mL (Merck) diluted in 1% nitric acid at the following concentrations: 0, 0.1, 0.3, 0.5, 1.0, 3.0, 5.0, 15.0, and 30.0 mg/L. Wheat Flour Standard Reference Material 1567a from the National Institute of Standards & Technology (Gaithersburg, MD, USA) with a certified Se concentration was used as an external control.

Blood sampling

Fasting blood samples (15 mL) were drawn by venipuncture into three 5 mL EDTA tubes. An aliquot of 1.5 mL of EDTA whole blood was used for DNA extraction and subsequent genotyping. Another 5mL of blood were collected in a tube without anticoagulant to obtain serum. Plasma was separated by centrifugation at 3,000 *rpm* for 15 min at 4 °C. The erythrocyte pellet was washed three times with 5 mL sterile 9 g/L NaCl solution, slowly mixed by inversion, and centrifuged at 10,000 *rpm* for 10 min (Eppendorf, C5408) at 4 °C, and the supernatant fluid was discarded. Aliquots of whole blood, plasma and erythrocytes were frozen at -80 °C in sterile, demineralized tubes until the analyses were performed.

Anthropometry

Body weight (kg) was measured using a digital scale and height (m) was self-reported by the volunteers. Body Mass index (BMI), in kilograms per square meter, was calculated and compared to the guidelines proposed by World Health Organization.

Serum lipid profile

Fasting glucose and lipid profile - total cholesterol (TC), HDL-c, LDL-c and triacylglycerol (TAG) - were measured in serum using commercial kits (Labtest, Minas Gerais, Brazil) adapted to a biochemical analyzer (LabMax 240, Labtest, Minas Gerais, Brazil).

Evaluation of plasma levels of malondyaldehyde (MDA)

To assess the oxidative stress, plasma malondyaldehyde (MDA) concentrations were determined before and after Brazil nut supplementation by High Performance Liquid Chromatography (HPLC) (Shimadzu, Kyoto, Japan), quantifying the reaction of MDA and dinitrophenylhydrazine (DNPH) using an absorbance of 306nm.

Plasma was previously centrifuged at 5000 *rpm* for 10min. In a microtube, it was added 100µL of plasma, 10 µL of NaOH 4M and 10 µL of butylated hydroxytoluene (BHT) 10%, left 30min at 60°C and 5 min on ice. It was added 150µL of sulphuric acid (H₂SO₄, 1%) on each tube, mixed and centrifuged for 10min at 14000 *rpm*. 200 µL of the supernatant was added into another identified microtube. 25 µL of DNPH 0,001g/mL diluted on HCl 2M was added, mixed and left 30min at 40°C. The tubes were dry on speedvac (miVac Duo Concentrator, GeneVac, England) for 1h. The solution was resuspended on 70 µL of a solution with 985 µL of acetocholonitrile and 15 µL of ammonium hydroxyde and centrifuged for 10min at 14000 *rpm*. 60 µL were transferred into a vial and 50 µL were injected into the chromatographer. A standard curve with the points 0.25, 0.5, 1.0, 2.0, 4.0, 6.0 and 12.0 was prepared and run with the samples on each day of analysis. The column used in the equipment was a Luna C18 column (250 mm x 4,6 mm, Phenomenex, Torrance, CA) with a pre-column C18 (4,0 x 3,0 mm, Phenomenex, Torrance, CA). The temperature of the sampler was kept at 4 °C and the column at 30 °C. The mobile fase used was composed by a acetonitrile solution with a solution of acetic acid 0.2% v/v with a flux of 1ml/min. The detection used an absorbance of 306nm.

Plasma Se concentrations

Plasma Se were determined by inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-MS, Perkin Elmer DRC II) according to the method described previously (BATISTA et al., 2009), at the Laboratório de Toxicologia e Essencialidade de Metais, Universidade de São Paulo, Ribeirão Preto, SP, Brazil. Samples were diluted 1:50 into a 15mL polypropylene tube with a solution containing 0.01% (v/v) Triton X-100, 0.5% (v/v) nitric acid and 10 µg/L of each one of the internal standards.

Erythrocyte GPx activity

Erythrocyte GPx activity was done for all time points using commercial kit (Randox, Labtest, Minas Gerais, Brazil) according to manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, 50 µL of erythrocytes were mixed with 1mL of the diluting solution, followed by 5 min of incubation and by the addition of 1mL of 2x colour reagent. The enzyme activity was evaluated spectrophotometrically at 37°C at 340 nm using an automated biochemical analyzer Labmax 240 (Labtest, Minas Gerais, Brazil). Hemoglobin (Hb) concentration was also determined in order to express eGPx activity in U/g Hb.

Plasma GPx3 activity

GPx3 activity was done in plasma, as proposed by Paglia e Valentine (PAGLIA; VALENTINE, 1967), modifying to the specific enzyme. This method is based on the reduction of hydrogen peroxide catalyzed by GPx, using glutathione as a reductor agent. The glutathione concentration is maintained by the addition of glutathione reductase and NADPH (PAGLIA; VALENTINE, 1967). First, a reaction mix for 50R was done using

5mg of NADPH₂, 46mg of glutathione reduced, 3mL of destiladed water, 24mL of phosphate buffer, 1mL of Na Azide and 20U of glutathione reductase. In a cuvette, it was added 915µL of the mix, 35µL of hydrogen peroxide and 50 µL of plasma. The absorbance was read at 340nm in a 8cell spectrophotometer (Ultrospec 4000, UV/visible spectrophotometer Pharmacia Biotech Inc, NJ, USA).

Plasma SePP concentrations

SePP concentration was determined in plasma by enzyme-linked immunosorbent assays (ELISA) in a 96-well microplate reader (FLUOstar Omega microplate reader, BMG Labtech, Ortenberg, Germany). The customized antibody anti-SePP was incubated in a 96-well plate for 2h, 37°C. The solution with the antibody was rinsed and blocked overnight with 0.05% caesin solution at room temperature. Plasma samples were diluted and combined with selenoprotein P monoclonal antibody (Selenoprotein P antibody, clone 37A1, LifeSpan Biosciences) overnight, 4°C on another 96-well plate. Standard curves were constructed using human purified SePP using the points 16, 8, 4, 2, 1 and 0. The first plate was washed three times with 300µL of PBS-tween. 100µL of diluted samples from the second plate were transferred to the washed plate and incubated at 37°C for 2h. After 2h the plate was washed with PBS-tween. A secondary antibody (antimouse IgG, HRP-linked, horseradish peroxidase- linked, Cell Signalling Technology) was added to the plate which was incubated at 37°C for 1h. The plate was washed again three times with 300µL of PBS-tween. 100 µL of TMB was added to the plate and left at room temperature for 5 min until the colour was developed. The reaction was stopped by the addition of 100 µL of H₂SO₄ and the absorbance was read at 450nm.

Genotyping

Total DNA was extracted from 200 μ L of whole blood using Purelink Genomic DNA Minikit (Invitrogen, Life Technologies, California, USA), the final concentration measured in a NanoDrop ND 1000 spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific, Wilmington, DE, USA) and adjusted for further analysis. The SNPs selected were chosen based on the literature evidence for functional consequences and relation to risk of chronic diseases. Using these criteria, the SNPs selected are shown in Table 1. The SNPs were determined by real-time polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) using Taqman SNP Genotyping Assays (Life Technologies, California, USA). Each RT-PCR reaction contained 20ng of adjusted genomic DNA, 0,5 μ L of 20X SNP Genotyping Assay (Life Technologies), 5,0 μ L of TaqMan Genotyping Master Mix (Life Technologies) in a 10 μ L final reaction volume. Samples were assayed along with no-template and internal controls for each genotype and run in the StepOne Plus Real Time PCR system under the following conditions: enzyme activation at 95 °C for 10min, followed by 40 cycles at 92 °C for 15s and 60 °C for 1 min for annealing and extension. The allelic discrimination was obtained by performing an endpoint read. Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium was tested by the chi-squared test. The haplotype distribution and linkage disequilibrium were done in the software Haploview 4.2. SNPs were considered in linkage disequilibrium when $D' > 0,5$.

Chart 3. Information about the SNPs used in the study

| Genes | Chromossome | rs (dbSNP) | SNP region | Base change | Codon change | aminoacid change |
|--------------|-------------|------------|---------------|-------------|--------------|------------------|
| GPX1 | 3 | rs1050450 | Coding region | C679T | CCC / CTC | Pro198Leu |
| | | rs1800668 | promoter | C>T | * | * |
| | | rs8179169 | Codin region | G94C | CGG / CCG | Arg5Pro |
| | | rs3811699 | promoter | G-602A | * | * |
| GPX4 | 19 | rs713041 | 3'UTR | C718T | * | * |
| SEPP1 | 5 | rs3877899 | Coding region | G215A | GCT - ACT | Ala234Thr |
| | | rs7579 | 3'UTR | G25191A | * | * |
| SELS | 15 | rs34713741 | promoter | C>T | * | * |
| SEP15 | 1 | rs5845 | 3'UTR | G>A | * | * |

*: no change.

Gene expression

The gene expression of *GPX1*, *SEPP1*, *SELS* and *SEP15* was analysed before and after Brazil nut supplementation on previously genotyped participants. RNA was extracted from whole blood using Ribopure Blood Kit (Ambion, Life Technologies) and treated with DNase I to prevent DNA contamination. The final concentration was measured in a NanoDrop ND 1000 spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific). RNA was considered of good quality when the absorbance ratios between 260 and 280 nm wavelengths were between 1,9 and 2,1. RNA was adjusted to 20ng/μL in a final volume of 20μL. High Capacity Reverse Transcriptase kit (Life Technolgies) was used to synthetise the cDNA using 10μL of adjusted RNA. cDNA was further diluted 1:5 in DNA/RNA free water to perform the real time PCR reactions.

Analysis of selenoproteins gene expression was performed by real-time quantitative PCR (qPCR) in the QuantStudio 12K Real Time PCR System (Life Technologies) using specific probes for each gene (Taqman Gene expression Assays, Life Technologies). The qPCR reactions were performed in a 384-well plate in triplicate for the target gene and

duplicate for the reference gene GAPDH. Each qPCR reaction contained 2 μ L of diluted cDNA, 0,5 μ L of 20X Taqman Gene Expression Assays (Life Technologies), 5,0 μ L of TaqMan Gene Expression Master Mix (Life Technologies), 2,5 μ L of RNase free water in a 10 μ L final reaction volume. GAPDH was used as a reference gene as its expression was stable among samples. A non template reaction without cDNA was included in each plate as a negative control. The cycling conditions were 2 min at 50 °C for denaturation, followed by 45 cycles 95 °C for 15s and 1 min at 60 °C for hybridisation and extension.

Differential gene expression of the selenoprotein genes was evaluated considering the previously genotyped SNPs in each gene. We used the dominant genetic model to choose the samples of the two genotypic groups for each SNP: homozygous dominant x heterozygous + homozygous variant. Each group had 18 samples. The method used to quantify the relative gene expression was based on the $2^{-\Delta\Delta Cq}$ method (LIVAK; SCHMITTGEN, 2001). The ΔCq was calculated normalizing the values by the internal control gene GAPDH (ΔCq target gene - ΔCq reference gene). The $\Delta\Delta Cq$ was obtained by subtracting the ΔCq of the samples by the average of ΔCq of each genotype group before supplementation.

Microarray analysis

To investigate the significance of C>T SNP located on the 3'UTR of *GPX4* the pattern of gene expression was analysed using microarray analysis using RNA from six volunteers who were CC and six volunteers who were TT and using samples before and after supplementation (**Figure 1**). Total RNA was extracted from whole blood using Purelink Blood MiniKit (Ambion). The integrity of these samples and more 12 spare

samples was checked using Tape Station 2000 (Agilent, Santa Clara, USA) with the Agilent RNA Nano kit. Samples with a RNA integrity number (RIN) of above seven were used for whole genome microarray using the Illumina HumanHT-12 v4 BeadChip. These RNA quality control measurements were also carried out by Service XS using Agilent Bioanalyzer, as can be seen in **Figure 2**. RNA labeling, amplification, and hybridization were performed by Service XS. Raw microarray scan files were exported using the Illumina Beadstudio program and loaded into R for downstream analysis using the BioConductor and specific packages for each step of the bioinformatics analysis (RITCHIE et al., 2011). The data were transformed and normalized using VST (variance stabilizing transform) and RSN (robust spline normalization) from the Lumi BioConductor package. Probes with signals that fulfilled the criteria of Illumina probe detection P value of 0.05 were considered different. The bioinformatic analysis was performed by the Newcastle Bioinformatics Support Unit at the Faculty of Medical Sciences in Newcastle University, UK.

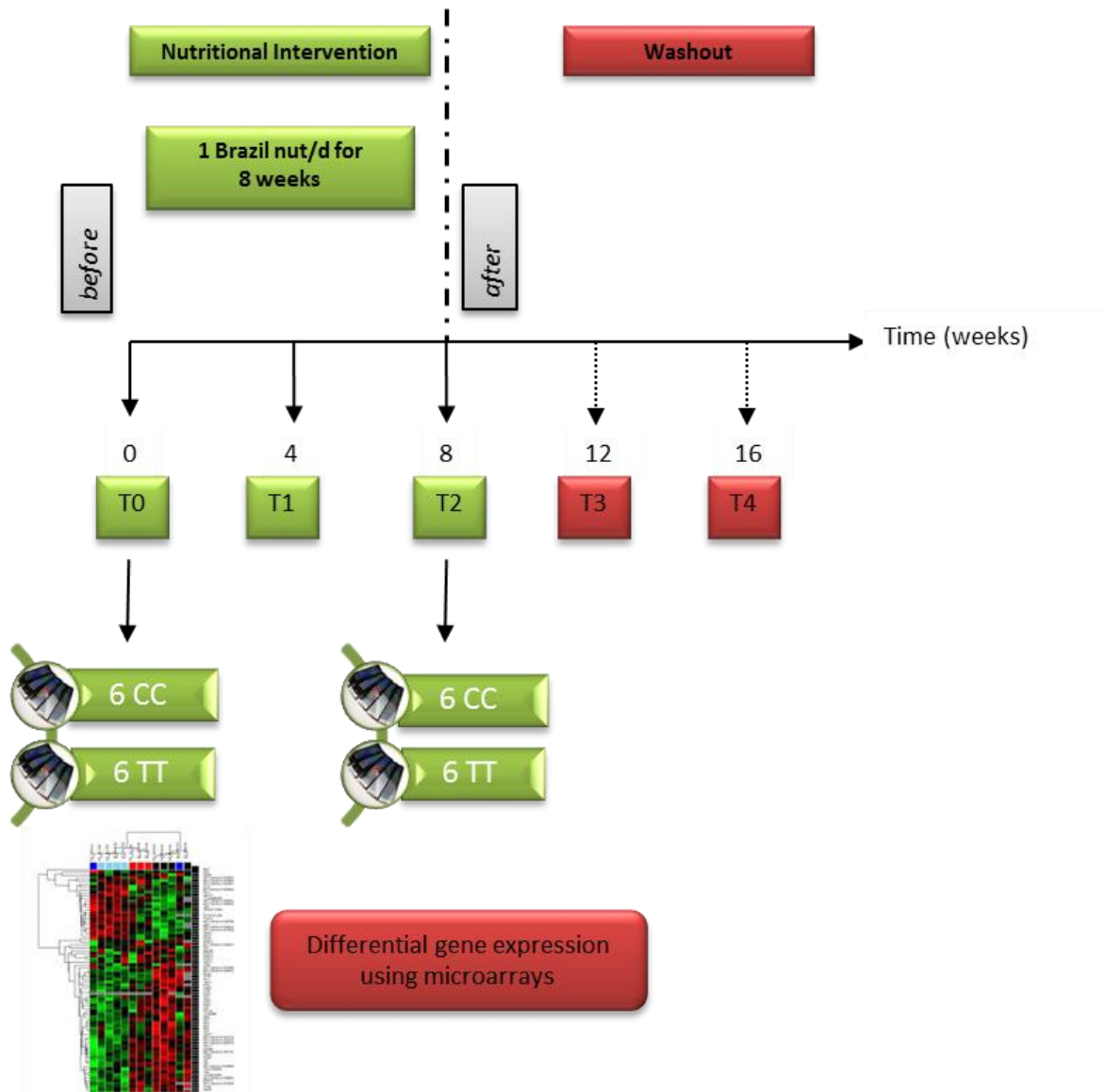


Figure 6. Nutritional intervention protocol indicating time of biological sample collection (T0 – T4).

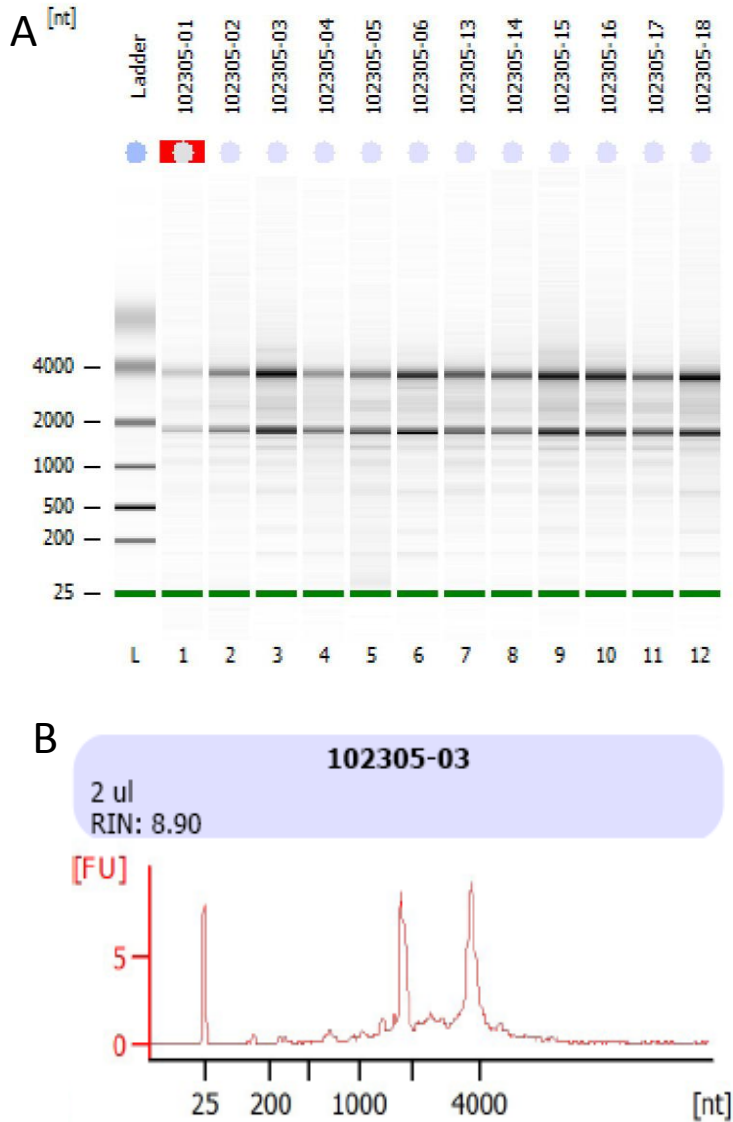


Figure 7. RNA integrity used for microarray analysis.

A. Gel-like electropherogram image generated from Bioanalyser for 12 samples showing two clear bands. B. Bioanalyser electropherogram output of one sample showing 2 clear peaks indicative of good quality RNA. The RIN number stands to RNA Integrity Number and have to be greater than 7.0 to be of sufficient quality.

Real time confirmation

Real time PCR on specific transcripts in order to conform the microarray data was carried out using a Roche LightCycler 480 and SYBER green I Master Mix (Roche) with 10 μ L reaction in a white 96-well plate with 0.5mM of primers in the Institute for Cell and Molecular Biosciences in Newcastle University, UK. Primers specific for each gene were designed using NCBI Primer Blast and the amplicon was further submitted to fold in an online software available on mfold.rna.albany.edu, using the DNA Folding Form and the following conditions: 60°C, Na⁺ 0,1 and Mg²⁺ 0,005. The folding structures are available as requested. To select the genes for confirmation, the criterion was the highest or lowest fold change and the genes that were overlapping in different metabolic pathways in Ingenuity Pathways Analysis. The genes selected were: ALAS2, NFkBIA and HaD3.

Chart 4. List of primers used for real time confirmation

| primer | sequence | Tm | %GC | Yield (nmol) |
|-----------------|-----------------------|------|------|--------------|
| NFKBIA_F | TGCTCAAGGAGCCCTGTAATG | 59,4 | 55 | 18,6 |
| NFKBIA_R | GACATCAGCCCACACTTCA | 59,4 | 55 | 20,9 |
| DEFA_F | AGCATCCAGGCTCAAGGAAA | 57,3 | 50 | 7,2 |
| DEFA_R | ATGCAGGTTCCATAGCGACG | 59,4 | 55 | 15,3 |
| ALAS2_F | TGCCAGGTCCTAACCCAAGT | 59,4 | 55 | 20,2 |
| ALAS2_R | AACCTAAAGTCCTGTTGCCCT | 57,9 | 47,6 | 24,1 |

Gene Set Enrichment Analysis (GSEA)

The transcriptome data were analysed by gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA), which ranks the genes in a list by their differential expression and tests for coordinated differences in a set of genes in response to a specific situation, rather than individual genes with increased or decreased expression in two conditions. One of the great advantages of this integrated approach is the facility of interpreting a large amount of data by identifying biological pathways and processes. The other one is that GSEA considers the entire list of genes of the experiment, rather than the ones that passed a fold-change cut-toff (SUBRAMANIAN et al., 2005). The GSEA application from the Broad Institute was used in the analysis, available online at <http://software.broadinstitute.org/gsea/index.jsp>. Three files were created (dataset file.gct, phenotype file.cls and gene sets file.gmt) and loaded into the software. The dataset file contained the normalised microarray data, in our case with 19835 probes and 23 arrays. The phenotype file contained the information about the experimental conditions, which have to be numbered. In our experiment we used the genotypes for GPX4_rs713041 and the supplementation. Therefore, we ended up with four conditions: 0 = CC_before, 1 = CC_after, 2 = TT_before and 3 = TT_after. The gene sets file was downloaded from the Molecular Signature Database v5.1 (MSigDB), a online collection of gene sets from different databases available for free to use with the GSEA application. The MSigDB has 8 different collections. We used only 2 that were applicable to our conditions: C2, curated gene sets from online pathways databases and C5, Gene Ontology gene sets.

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CHAPTER 2. Influence of *GPX4* rs713041 on blood lipid profile and oxidative stress in response to Brazil nut supplementation

Introduction

The consumption of tree nuts (peanuts, almonds, hazelnuts, walnuts, Brazil nuts, pistachios, cashew, macadamia) has been associated with decreased risk of cardiovascular disease in human trials (JIANG et al., 2006; MUKUDDM-PETERSEN; OOSTHUIZEN; JERLING, 2005; O'NEIL; FULGONI; NICKLAS, 2015; SABATÉ; ANG, 2009). The benefits of nut consumption are probably associated with their nutritional composition. Nuts are rich in monounsaturated (MUFA) and polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFA), magnesium, copper, selenium, vitamin E, folic acid and other bioactive compounds such as phytosterols and phenolic acids (O'NEIL; FULGONI; NICKLAS, 2015; SEGURA et al., 2006; WELNA; KLIMPEL; ZYRNICKI, 2008). The analysis of two trials, the Nurse's Health Study (NHS) conducted with female nurses and The Health Professionals Follow-up Study (HPFS) conducted with males, both in the USA, revealed that the intake of tree nuts was associated with lower risk for cardiovascular disease (BAO et al., 2013). Comparable results were found in the analysis of the National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES) from 2005 to 2010 (O'NEIL et al., 2015).

There are some mechanisms that could explain this positive effect of nuts on cardiovascular health. The most accepted is the lipid-lowering effect (MUKUDDM-PETERSEN; OOSTHUIZEN; JERLING, 2005). Nuts have a high content of PUFA that could explain the reduction of total cholesterol and LDL-c, observed for almonds, peanuts, walnuts and pecan nuts (MUKUDDM-PETERSEN; OOSTHUIZEN; JERLING, 2005). It

is established that PUFA stimulate the release of cholesterol particles from its hepatic receptor, reducing LDL production (ROS; MATAIX, 2006).

The lipid-lowering effect of Brazil nuts has been investigated in several studies. The supplementation of one unit of Brazil nuts for 18 weeks in obese females reduced cardiovascular risk by increasing HDL-c concentrations (COMINETTI et al., 2012). The increase in HDL-c was observed in healthy adults (COLPO et al., 2013) and a decrease in total cholesterol and LDL-c was observed in obese female adolescents (MARANHÃO et al., 2011). Brazil nut supplementation did not affect HDL-c and LDL-c concentrations in another study with healthy adults, however it did affect the transfer of cholesterol esters by HDL, which can be important to reverse cholesterol transport (STRUNZ et al., 2008).

Brazil nuts are not only a source of PUFA and bioactive compounds, but also the richest source of selenium known in nature (THOMSON et al., 2008). As the amino acid selenocysteine (Sec), selenium is inserted into selenoproteins which have important functions in the antioxidant system, lipid peroxidation, immune function, cardiovascular disease risk, among others (RAYMAN, 2012). The insertion of Sec into selenoproteins occurs during translation and it requires the presence of a specific structure in the 3'untranslated region (3'UTR) of the mRNA, a specific RNA for Sec (tRNA^{[Ser]Sec}), and other structures (HATFIELD; GLADYSHEV, 2002). Under selenium deficiency, some selenoproteins have preference for synthesis, a phenomenon called selenoprotein hierarchy (SCHOMBURG; SCHWEIZER, 2009). Differences in the interaction between the 3'UTR mRNA and the structure required for Sec incorporation may explain this hierarchy (HESKETH, 2008; SMALL-HOWARD et al., 2006).

Glutathione Peroxidase 4 (GPx4) is a selenoprotein that can reduce hydroperoxide of phospholipids in cell membranes and it is ranked high in the selenoprotein hierarchy

(SCHOMBURG; SCHWEIZER, 2009). Previous studies have demonstrated that a genetic variation in the *GPX4* gene, a C>T variation located in the 3'UTR region important to Sec insertion (rs713041), has functional consequences (BERMANO et al., 2007; CROSLEY et al., 2013; MÉPLAN et al., 2008; VILLETTE et al., 2002). In addition, it was demonstrated that fatty acids could modulate *GPX4* gene expression (CROSLEY et al., 2013; SNEDDON et al., 2003). Until now no study has investigated the influence of this genetic variation in *GPX4* gene on blood lipids after a supplementation with nuts. Therefore, the aim of the present work was to verify the influence of *GPX4_rs713041* on blood lipids concentrations after supplementation with Brazil nuts in healthy adults.

Methods

Study population and supplementation protocol

One hundred and thirty unrelated healthy adults (males and females) aged 20 to 60 years old were selected in Sao Paulo University, Brazil. Volunteers taking multivitamins and mineral supplements, anti-inflammatory drugs, those with excessive alcohol consumption, those athletes, those with chronic diseases such as cancer, diabetes and cardiovascular disease were excluded from the study. The participants were invited by electronic correspondence and personal communication when the protocol was explained. They were asked to give a 20mL blood sample initially (baseline) and take a daily supplement of Brazil nuts for 4 weeks, eating one nut a day. After four weeks, they returned to another 20mL blood sampling and received nuts for more four weeks. After eight weeks of supplementation with Brazil nuts, another 20mL blood sample was taken,

and then two more blood samples were taken at four week intervals during eight weeks of washout period. The compliance with Brazil nut supplementation was estimated by checking a control calendar given in the first blood sampling. The adherence to the supplementation was checked by high reported compliance. For all participants, weight and height were measured and the body mass index (BMI) was calculated. Written informed consent were signed by all volunteers before blood sampling. The protocol was approved by Faculty of Pharmaceutical Sciences Ethical Committee (CAE: 00961112.3.0000.0067) and was conducted according to the Declaration of Helsinki.

Centesimal Composition and Se content of Brazil nuts

The centesimal composition of a random sample of Brazil nuts representative of the eight batches used in the study was analyzed according to the methods proposed by the A.O.A.C. (AOAC, 1990). Se content of Brazil nuts was done using hydride generation flame atomic absorption spectrometry (HGFAAS). Brazil nuts were prepared for analysis by digestion with 68% nitric acid (Merck, Darmstadt, Germany) and heating at 150°C. After volatilization of the organic material, solutions were reduced from SeVI to SeIV by the addition of 1.2N hydrochloric acid and heating at 100°C for 2 h. The samples were diluted to 50mL volume in ultrapure water. A calibration curve was prepared with Titrisol 1000 mg/mL (Merck) diluted in 1% nitric acid at the following concentrations: 0, 0.1, 0.3, 0.5, 1.0, 3.0, 5.0, 15.0, and 30.0 mg/L. Wheat Flour Standard Reference Material 1567a from the National Institute of Standards & Technology (Gaithersburg, MD, USA) with a certified Se concentration was used as an external control.

Blood sampling

Fasting blood samples (15 mL) were drawn by venipuncture into three 5 mL EDTA tubes. An aliquot of 1.5 mL of EDTA whole blood was used for DNA extraction and subsequent genotyping. Another 5mL of blood were collected in a tube without anticoagulant to obtain serum. Plasma was separated by centrifugation at 3,000 *rpm* for 15 min at 4 °C. The erythrocyte pellet was washed three times with 5 mL sterile 9 g/L NaCl solution, slowly mixed by inversion, and centrifuged at 10,000 *rpm* for 10 min (Eppendorf, C5408) at 4 °C, and the supernatant fluid was discarded. Aliquots of whole blood, serum, plasma and erythrocytes were frozen at -80 °C in sterile, demineralized tubes until the analyses were performed.

Biochemical parameters

Fasting glucose and lipid profile - total cholesterol (TC), HDL-c, LDL-c and triacylglycerol (TAG) - were measured in serum using commercial kits (Labtest, Minas Gerais, Brazil) adapted to a biochemical analyzer (LabMax 240, Labtest, Minas Gerais, Brazil). Malondyaldehyde (MDA) was measured by high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) on a Shimadzu (Kyoto, Japan) instrument with a Phenomenex (Torrance, CA, USA) reverse phase C18 column. The instrument was calibrated with a MDA standard stock solution in the following concentrations: 0.0, 0.25, 0.5, 1.0, 2.0, 4.0, 6.0 and 12.0 µM.

Genotyping

Total DNA was extracted from 200µL of whole blood using Purelink Genomic DNA Minikit (Invitrogen, Life Technologies, California, USA), the final concentration measured in a NanoDrop ND 1000 spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific, Wilmington,

DE, USA) and adjusted for further analysis. *GPX4* polymorphism (rs713041, Assay ID C__2561693_20) was determined by real-time polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) using Taqman SNP Genotyping Assays (Life Technologies, California, USA). Each RT-PCR reaction contained 20ng of adjusted genomic DNA, 0,5µL of 20X SNP Genotyping Assay (Life Technologies), 5,0µL of TaqMan Genotyping Master Mix (Life Technologies) in a 10µL final reaction volume. Samples were assayed along with no-template and internal controls for each genotype and run in the StepOne Plus Real Time PCR system under the following conditions: enzyme activation at 95 °C for 10min, followed by 40 cycles at 92 °C for 15s and 60 °C for 1 min for annealing and extension. The allelic discrimination was obtained by performing an endpoint read.

Statistical Analysis

Continuous variables were tested for Normality using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test and presented as mean \pm standard deviation (sd). Mean values were compared in the different time points using ANOVA repeated measures or Friedman's test. A genetic dominant model was used in order to observe differences in the presence of the variant allele T for *GPX4_rs713041*. In this model, individuals with the variant allele T (CT+TT) were combined together in one category, leaving the dominant genotype (CC) in another category. Mean values were compared in the different time points for each category using ANOVA repeated measures or Friedman's test. For MDA, paired t-test was used. The percentage variation for each biochemical parameter was calculated, subtracting the values of each time point (delta).

Results

A total of 130 healthy volunteers completed the entire study protocol. Mean age was 29.8 ± 9.2 with mean body weight of $63,9 \pm 12,1$ and BMI of 23.3 ± 3.3 . Females constituted 75% of the group and 72% self-reported as being Caucasian. Family history of chronic diseases, such as cancer, diabetes mellitus and cardiovascular disease, were reported by 87% of the volunteers.

The Se content of Brazil nuts and centesimal composition are shown in Table 1. Four different batches were used during the supplementation. The mean \pm standard deviation for Se content of these four batches was 100.4 ± 5.3 $\mu\text{g/g}$. Considering the average weight of the nuts from 3g to 4g , each nut provided approximately from 300 to 400 μg of Se.

Table 1. Centesimal composition and selenium content in Brazil nuts used during the protocol

| Nutrient | Mean \pm sd |
|------------------------------|-----------------|
| Energy (kcal) | $732,9 \pm 2,8$ |
| Carbohydrates (g) | $15,0 \pm 0,6$ |
| Proteins (g) | $13,1 \pm 0,2$ |
| Lipids (g) | $69,0 \pm 0,6$ |
| Ash (%) | $3,1 \pm 0,9$ |
| Humidity (%) | $4,7 \pm 0,7$ |
| Selenium ($\mu\text{g/g}$) | $100,4 \pm 5,3$ |

Lipid profile and MDA levels are reported in Table 2. Fasting Glucose concentrations decreased after 4 weeks and 8 weeks of daily consumption of Brazil nuts. During the washout period, the concentrations were still lower than baseline. Total

cholesterol concentrations were also decreased after 8 weeks of supplementation and after 8 weeks of washout period the concentrations increased again. No significant differences were observed for triglycerides, HDL-c, LDL-c and MDA concentrations.

Table 2 Biochemical parameters during supplementation with Brazil nuts

| Variables | Time points | | | | |
|---------------|---------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|---------------------------|
| | baseline | 4w nuts | 8w nuts | 4w washout | 8w washout |
| GLU (mg/dL) | 84,4 ± 11,0 | 81,7 ± 10,3 ^b | 77,5 ± 10,4 ^b | 80,4 ± 11,0 ^b | 80,0 ± 11,9 ^b |
| TC (mg/dL) | 195,4 ± 39,3 ^a | 190,5 ± 41,4 | 186,0 ± 37,4 | 190,1 ± 44,5 | 195,4 ± 42,8 ^a |
| TAG (mg/dL) | 98,0 ± 50,4 | 100,1 ± 54,6 | 99,3 ± 51,9 | 94,6 ± 49,2 | 101,0 ± 51,6 |
| HDL-c (mg/dL) | 57,6 ± 15,6 | 57,5 ± 15,1 | 57,5 ± 16,7 | 59,2 ± 16,7 | 58,9 ± 17,2 |
| LDL-c (mg/dL) | 108,1 ± 27,9 | 110,9 ± 35,1 | 111,5 ± 33,0 | 110,6 ± 34,2 | 109,2 ± 29,6 |
| MDA (µmol/L) | 0,49 ± 0,33 | nd | 0,56 ± 0,33 | nd | nd |

Values are mean ± SD. ANOVA repeated measures with pos hoc Tukey for TC, HDL and LDL. Friedman test with pos hoc Dunn for TAG and GLU. Wilcoxon Test for MDA.

^a: different from 8w nuts (ANOVA, repeated measures p<0,05)

^b: different from baseline (Friedman test p<0,05)

nd: not determined

The frequency of the genotypes and alleles for *GPX4* SNP was CC 38,4% (n=50), CT 42,3% (n=55) and TT 19,2% (n=25). The respective allele frequencies were 0,60 for the common allele C and 0,40 for the rare allele T.

Biochemical parameters stratified by genotypes using the genetic dominant model for *GPX4_rs713041* are shown in Table 3. Differences were only observed in glucose and HDL concentrations. In individuals with the dominant genotype CC, glucose concentrations decreased after 8 weeks of supplementation with Brazil nuts. In carriers of the variant allele T (CT+TT), the reduction on glucose levels was observed after 4 weeks of nuts and it remained lower than baseline during the washout period. No differences were observed for HDL-c, LDL-c, triglycerides and MDA stratified by genotype during supplementation. Comparing the different genotype groups, HDL-c concentrations in

carriers of the variant allele (CT+TT) were higher than individuals with the wild-type genotype in baseline and after 4 weeks of nuts.

Table 3 Biochemical parameters during supplementation with Brazil nuts stratified by genotypes for GPX4_rs713041.

| | Genotypes | N | baseline | 4w nuts | 8w nuts | 4w washout | 8w washout |
|-------------------|-----------|----|--------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| Fasting Glucose | | | | | | | |
| (mg/dL) | CC | 50 | 82,3 ± 11,8 | 81,9 ± 10,7 | 77,5 ± 11,6 ^b | 81,3 ± 10,5 | 79,8 ± 11,7 |
| | CT + TT | 80 | 85,6 ± 10,1 | 81,6 ± 10,1 ^b | 77,6 ± 9,7 ^b | 79,9 ± 11,4 ^b | 80,2 ± 12,1 ^b |
| | Δ% CC | | | 0,5 | -5,4 | 4,9 | -1,8 |
| | Δ% CT+TT | | | -4,7 | -4,9 | 3,0 | 0,4 |
| Total Cholesterol | | | | | | | |
| (mg/dL) | CC | 50 | 191,4 ± 32,7 | 189,7 ± 36,8 | 185,1 ± 36,8 | 190,6 ± 42,5 | 198,2 ± 33,9 |
| | CT + TT | 80 | 198,0 ± 42,9 | 191,1 ± 44,2 | 186,7 ± 38,1 | 192,2 ± 43,4 | 193,7 ± 47,6 |
| | Δ% CC | | | -0,9 | -2,4 | 3,0 | 4,0 |
| | Δ% CT+TT | | | -3,5 | -2,3 | 2,9 | 0,8 |
| HDL-c | | | | | | | |
| (mg/dL) | CC | 50 | 53,9 ± 14,7 | 53,6 ± 13,3 | 55,1 ± 14,2 | 57,0 ± 14,6 | 57,4 ± 18,4 |
| | CT + TT | 80 | 59,9 ± 15,7* | 58,9 ± 15,7* | 58,9 ± 18,1 | 60,6 ± 17,8 | 59,9 ± 16,5 |
| | Δ% CC | | | -0,6 | 2,8 | 3,4 | 0,7 |
| | Δ% CT+TT | | | 0 | -1,7 | 2,9 | -1,2 |
| LDL-c | | | | | | | |
| (mg/dL) | CC | 50 | 109,1 ± 27,8 | 114,7 ± 37,0 | 112,3 ± 31,0 | 114,9 ± 37,0 | 110,1 ± 25,9 |
| | CT + TT | 80 | 107,6 ± 28,2 | 108,6 ± 33,9 | 111,2 ± 34,4 | 106,5 ± 32,1 | 108,8 ± 31,9 |
| | Δ% CC | | | 5,1 | -2,1 | 2,3 | -4,2 |
| | Δ% CT+TT | | | 0,9 | 2,4 | -4,2 | 2,2 |
| Triglycerides | | | | | | | |
| (mg/dL) | CC | 50 | 102,0 ± 59,6 | 106,9 ± 61,8 | 103,7 ± 56,4 | 97,3 ± 53,0 | 102,4 ± 51,4 |
| | CT + TT | 80 | 95,6 ± 44,1 | 95,8 ± 49,5 | 96,5 ± 49,0 | 91,6 ± 45,1 | 100,2 ± 52,1 |
| | Δ% CC | | | 4,8 | -3,0 | -6,2 | 5,2 |
| | Δ% CT+TT | | | 0,2 | 0,7 | -5,1 | 9,4 |
| MDA | | | | | | | |
| (mmol/L) | CC | 50 | 0,49 ± 0,34 | nd | 0,54 ± 0,30 | nd | nd |
| | CT + TT | 80 | 0,49 ± 0,32 | nd | 0,57 ± 0,35 | nd | nd |
| | Δ% CC | | | | 10,2 | | |
| | Δ% CT+TT | | | | 16,3 | | |

Values are mean ± SD. Nd: not determined. Differences in time points accessed by ANOVA repeated measures with pos hoc Tukey for GPx1 and GPx3 activities or Friedman test with pos hoc Dunn for SePP and Plasma Se. Differences between genotype groups measured by t-Test for GPx1 and GPx3 activities or Mann-Whitney Test for SePP and Plasma Se.

^b: different from baseline ($P < 0.05$); *: different from wild-type ($P < 0.05$); nd: not determined. Δ%: variation between each time point

Discussion

Previous studies have demonstrated that the intake of Brazil nuts improves blood lipid profile in adults (CARVALHO et al., 2015; COLPO et al., 2013; COMINETTI et al., 2012; MARANHÃO et al., 2011). The present results support and extend these observations by showing that supplementation with one unit of Brazil nut for eight weeks decreases total cholesterol and glucose in healthy adults. In addition, a genetic variation in *GPX4* gene (rs713041) significantly affected HDL-c concentrations both at baseline and after four weeks of supplementation with Brazil nuts. This work is the first to observe the association between circulating HDL-c concentrations and the *GPX4_rs713041* polymorphism after Brazil nuts intake.

Recent reports have demonstrated that the intake of Brazil nuts could increase HDL-c in obese females (COMINETTI et al., 2012) and healthy adults (COLPO et al., 2013), decrease total cholesterol and LDL-c in obese females adolescents (MARANHÃO et al., 2011) and decrease total cholesterol in dislipidemic adults (CARVALHO et al., 2015). In the present work, we found that the daily intake of one unit of Brazil nut for eight weeks decreased total cholesterol. However, another work conducted with healthy adults did not find an improvement in lipid profile after the consumption of ten units of Brazil nuts for two weeks (STRUNZ et al., 2008). Conflicting findings may be explained by differences in study population, duration of the intervention and amount of nuts ingested. Although the decrease in total cholesterol can be considered of limited clinical application because these volunteers were not dislipidemic, this reduction after 8 weeks of ingestion and the following increase after washout suggest that Brazil nuts may interfere in cholesterol metabolism.

Possible mechanisms that might explain this improvement in blood lipid profile are the nutritional composition of Brazil nuts (RYAN et al., 2006) and the connection between selenium metabolism and mevalonate pathway (MOOSMANN; BEHL, 2004). Although Brazil nuts have higher saturated fatty acids (SFA) concentrations compared to other nuts, the MUFA and PUFA contents are sufficient to exert its cholesterol lowering effect (MUKUDDER-PETERSEN; OOSTHUIZEN; JERLING, 2005). Furthermore, Brazil nuts are also source of dietary phytosterols that can interfere in the cholesterol absorption, even though the concentration in one unit, around 5mg/g, may not be sufficient to exerts this effect (SEGURA et al., 2006).

Another explanation for the decrease observed in total cholesterol concentration is the relation between cholesterol and selenoprotein biosynthesis. The two metabolisms are connected through the mevalonate pathway (MOOSMANN; BEHL, 2004). In order to be functional, selenoproteins need to have the amino acid Sec inserted on their structure during translation. This requires the synthesis and activation of the tRNA^{[Ser]Sec}. The activation of tRNA^{[Ser]Sec} depend on four bases modifications. One of these modifications is the isopentenylation of adenosine 37, which requires isopentenyl pyrophosphate (IPP), a direct metabolite of mevalonate during cholesterol biosynthesis (MOOSMANN; BEHL, 2004). As a result, during the supplementation with a high Se content nut, the synthesis of selenoproteins might be stimulated, which could be directing the IPP for the isopentenylation of adenosine 37 of the tRNA^{[Ser]Sec}, to the detriment of cholesterol synthesis. Selenoproteins that are ranked high in the hierarchy of selenoprotein expression, such as GPx4, could be preferentially synthesized under such conditions (SCHOMBURG; SCHWEIZER, 2009).

Experimental evidence has demonstrated that the *GPX4*_rs713041 has functional consequences (BERMANO et al., 2007; CROSLEY et al., 2013; MÉPLAN et al., 2008). Our results confirm these earlier observations indicating that individuals with the variant allele T have higher concentrations of HDL-c at baseline and after four weeks of supplementation with Brazil nuts than individuals with the C allele. This difference disappeared after eight weeks of supplementation and during the washout period. The small sample size of the groups could have masked real differences between genotypes. It is known that fatty acids can modulate *GPX4* expression (SNEDDON et al., 2003) and the T-variant is more susceptible to oxidative stress (CROSLEY et al., 2013). However, the mechanism by which this genetic variation could influence HDL-c concentrations is not known.

Apart from the improvement on blood lipid profile, we observed a decrease on fasting glucose concentrations after supplementation with Brazil nuts. This glucose lowering effect in healthy adults after a daily supplementation with one unit of Brazil nut for eight weeks was not observed before. Moreover, the glucose concentrations remained lower than baseline during the washout period. A recent meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials investigating the influence of nuts consumption on glycemic control in diabetes demonstrated that diets with tree nuts significantly reduced fasting glucose in individuals with type-2 diabetes (VIGUILIOUK et al., 2014).

One of the limitations of this study is the small sample size, fact that can interfere with the results stratified by genotypes. However, this pilot study can be used to drive future nutritional interventions or mechanistic studies in cell cultures in order to understand the relation between this genetic variation and the lipid metabolism. It can also be used to reanalyze human clinical trials considering the genetic background.

In conclusion, this study indicates that the supplementation with one unit of Brazil nuts for eight weeks can improve lipid profile in healthy adults and this response could be influenced by the *GPX4_rs713041*. In addition, we also demonstrated that the supplementation reduces fasting glucose. These results could be important to direct future nutritional interventions considering the genetic background of the participants with the ultimate goal of preventing chronic diseases, such as cardiovascular disease and type-2 diabetes.

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CHAPTER 3. Influence of genetic profile on biomarkers of Se status after Brazil nut supplementation in healthy Brazilians

Introduction

The micronutrient selenium (Se) has crucial roles in human biology as a constituent of various selenoproteins, whose functions are related to antioxidant and redox reaction, immune function, thyroid hormone metabolism, reproduction and fertility (RAYMAN, 2012). Se is inserted into the structure of proteins as the amino acid selenocysteine (Sec) during translation. This requires the recoding of the stop codon UGA, a specific tRNA for Sec and a stem-loop structure located in the 3'-untranslated region (3'UTR) called SECIS, Sec Insertion Sequence, and other molecular components (LABUNSKYY; HATFIELD; GLADYSHEV, 2014). Se status can modulate the function of this molecular insertion complex, regulating selenoprotein expression (LOW et al., 2000).

Low Se status has been associated with increased risk for several diseases, such as cancer, cardiovascular disease, viral infections, male infertility and inflammatory disorders (RAYMAN, 2012). One factor that could modulate this risk is the genetic component which could interfere in the response to Se supplementation (MÉPLAN et al., 2007). Several studies have demonstrated that polymorphisms in selenoprotein genes have functional consequences (HESKETH, 2008).

Glutathione peroxidase 1 (GPx1) is a antioxidant enzyme that reduces hydrogen peroxides and is expressed ubiquitously in all tissues (LEI; CHENG; MCCLUNG, 2007). Its enzyme activity is sensitive to alterations in Se status mainly in individuals with low to moderate intake (ASHTON et al., 2009). There is a single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP)

in the coding region of this gene, changing the amino acid Proline to Leucine in the position 198 of the protein (*GPX1_rs1050450*)(MOSCOW et al., 1994). This variation has been associated with increased risk for lung, breast, prostate and bladder cancers (KARUNASINGHE et al., 2012a; RATNASINGHE et al., 2000; RAVN-HAREN et al., 2006; ZHAO et al., 2005) and has been found to modulate the response to Se supplementation (COMBS et al., 2012). Glutathione peroxidase 4 (GPx4) is the only GPx that can reduce phospholipid hydroperoxides in the cell membrane (BELLINGER et al., 2009). There is a C>T substitution located in the 3'UTR (*GPX4_rs713041*), important for Sec insertion, and the C allele was reported to be more frequent in patients with colorectal cancer and more efficient at incorporating Se (BERMANO et al., 2007). This SNP has also been associated with increased mortality of breast cancer and it has been reported to affect GPx1 activity (MÉPLAN et al., 2013). Furthermore, this SNP had an effect on the response to selenium supplementation in healthy adults (MÉPLAN et al., 2008).

Selenoprotein P (SePP) is the most important Se transporter in the human body and is the only selenoprotein with ten Sec residues per molecule. It has two domains: the N-terminal with one Sec seems to have enzyme antioxidant properties and the C-terminal with the other nine Sec residues containing the Se in transport (BURK; HILL, 2009). SePP can also have an antioxidant role in plasma, protecting LDL from oxidation (TRAULSEN et al., 2004) and is important for brain function and fertility (BURK; HILL, 2009). Two SNPs were discovered in *SEPPI* gene. One in the coding region, changing the amino acid Alanine to Threonine in position 234 (*SEPPI_rs3877899*), the other is located in the 3'UTR (*SEPPI_rs7579*), both a G>A substitution. It was demonstrated that both genetic variations modulate the response to Se supplementation in healthy adults (MÉPLAN et al., 2007). Selenoprotein S (SeIS) is a endoplasmatic reticulum (ER) selenoprotein involved in

protecting ER from stress caused by misfolded proteins (BOS et al., 2009) and it is associated with the control of inflammatory response (CURRAN et al., 2005). The C>T substitution located in the promoter region of the gene (*SELS_rs34713741*) was associated with increased risk for rectal cancer (SUTHERLAND et al., 2010). Selenoprotein 15 (Sep15) is an another selenoprotein involved in maintaining ER integrity (FERGUSON et al., 2006). Genetic variation in the 3'UTR of this gene, a G>A substitution in position 1125 (*SEP15_rs5845*) was associated with increased risk for rectal cancer (SUTHERLAND et al., 2010) and lung cancer (JABLONSKA et al., 2008).

Most of the studies investigating the effect of Se supplementation on biomarkers of Se status are conducted using inorganic supplement such as sodium selenite (MÉPLAN et al., 2007, 2008) or the organic form selenomethionine (COMBS et al., 2012). Few studies were conducted using a natural Se source like Brazil nuts (*Bertholetia excelsa*, family Lecythidaceae). The supplementation with Brazil nuts has been found to be effective in increasing concentrations of Se biomarkers in several studies. However, only three biomarkers were commonly used (GPx1 activity, Plasma Se and Erythrocyte Se) and only one genetic variation in *GPXI* gene, rs1050450, is mostly considered (COMINETTI et al., 2011, 2012; THOMSON et al., 2008).

The aim of this work was to investigate if the efficacy of Brazil nuts in increasing Se status, as assessed by the quantification of five biomarkers of Se status (GPx1 activity, Erythrocyte Se concentrations, GPx3 activity, Plasma Se and SePP concentrations), was modulated by the six previously mentioned functional genetic polymorphisms in selenoprotein genes in healthy Brazilians.

Methods

Study population and supplementation protocol

One hundred and thirty unrelated healthy adults (males and females) aged 20 to 60 years old were selected in Sao Paulo University, Brazil. Volunteers taking multivitamins and mineral supplements, anti-inflammatory drugs, those with excessive alcohol consumption, those athletes, those with chronic diseases such as cancer, diabetes and cardiovascular disease were excluded from the study. The participants were invited by electronic correspondence and personal communication when the protocol was explained. They were asked to give a 20mL blood sample initially (baseline) and take a daily supplement of Brazil nuts for 4 weeks, eating one nut a day. After four weeks, they returned to another 20mL blood sampling and received nuts for more four weeks. After eight weeks of supplementation with Brazil nuts, another 20mL blood sample was taken, and then two more blood samples were taken at four week intervals during eight weeks of washout period. The compliance with Brazil nut supplementation was estimated by checking a control calendar given in the first blood sampling. The adhesion to the supplementation was checked by high reported compliance. For all participants, weight and height were measured and the body mass index (BMI) was calculated. Written informed consent were signed by all volunteers before blood sampling. The protocol was approved by Faculty of Pharmaceutical Sciences Ethical Committee (CAE: 00961112.3.0000.0067) and was conducted according to the Declaration of Helsinki.

Centesimal Composition and Se content of Brazil nuts

The centesimal composition of a random sample of Brazil nuts representative of the eight batches used in the study was analyzed according to the methods proposed by the A.O.A.C. (AOAC, 1990). Se content of Brazil nuts was done using hydride generation flame atomic absorption spectrometry (HGFAAS). Brazil nuts were prepared for analysis by digestion with 68% nitric acid (Merck, Darmstadt, Germany) and heating at 150°C. After volatilization of the organic material, solutions were reduced from SeVI to SeIV by the addition of 1.2N hydrochloric acid and heating at 100°C for 2 h. The samples were diluted to 50mL volume in ultrapure water. A calibration curve was prepared with Titrisol 1000 mg/mL (Merck) diluted in 1% nitric acid at the following concentrations: 0, 0.1, 0.3, 0.5, 1.0, 3.0, 5.0, 15.0, and 30.0 mg/L. Wheat Flour Standard Reference Material 1567a from the National Institute of Standards & Technology (Gaithersburg, MD, USA) with a certified Se concentration was used as an external control.

Blood sampling collection

Fasting blood samples (15 mL) were drawn by venipuncture into three 5 mL EDTA tubes. An aliquot of 1.5 mL of EDTA whole blood was used for DNA extraction and subsequent genotyping. Another 5mL of blood were collected in a tube without anticoagulant to obtain serum. Plasma was separated by centrifugation at 3,000 *rpm* for 15 min at 4 °C. The erythrocyte pellet was washed three times with 5 mL sterile 9 g/L NaCl solution, slowly mixed by inversion, and centrifuged at 10,000 *rpm* for 10 min (Eppendorf, C5408) at 4 °C, and the supernatant fluid was discarded. Aliquots of whole blood, plasma and erythrocytes were frozen at -80 °C in sterile, demineralized tubes until the analyses were performed.

Biomarkers of Se status

Plasma Se were determined by inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-MS, Perkin Elmer DRC II) according to the method proposed by Batista et al. (2009) (BATISTA et al., 2009), at the Laboratório de Toxicologia e Essencialidade de Metais, Universidade de São Paulo, Ribeirão Preto, SP, Brazil. Samples were diluted 1:50 into a 15mL polypropylene tube with a solution containing 0.01% (v/v) Triton X-100, 0.5% (v/v) nitric acid and 10µg/L of each one of the internal standards.

Erythrocyte GPx activity was determined using commercial kit (Randox, Labtest, Minas Gerais, Brazil) according to manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, 50µL of erythrocytes were mixed with 1mL of the diluting solution, followed by 5 min of incubation and by the addition of 1mL of 2x colour reagent. The enzyme activity was evaluated spectrophotometrically at 37°C at 340 nm using an automated biochemical analyzer Labmax 240 (Labtest, Minas Gerais, Brazil). Hemoglobin (Hb) concentration was also determined in order to express eGPx activity in U/g Hb.

GPx3 activity was done in plasma, as proposed by Paglia e Valentine (PAGLIA; VALENTINE, 1967), modifying to the specific enzyme. This method is based on the reduction of hydrogen peroxide catalyzed by GPx, using glutathione as a reductor agent. The glutathione concentration is maintained by the addition of glutathione reductase and NADPH (PAGLIA; VALENTINE, 1967). First, a reaction mix for 50 reactions was done using 5mg of NADPH₂, 46mg of glutathione reduced, 3mL of destiladed water, 24mL of phosphate buffer, 1mL of Na Azide and 20U of glutathione reductase. In a cuvette, it was added 915µL of the mix, 35µL of hydrogen peroxide and 50 µL of plasma. The absorbance

was read at 340nm in a spectrophotometer (Ultrospec 4000, UV/visible spectrophotometer Pharmacia Biotech Inc, NJ, USA).

SePP concentration was determined in plasma by enzyme-linked immunosorbent assays (ELISA) in 96-well microplate reader (FLUOstar Omega microplate reader, BMG Labtech, Ortenberg, Germany). The customized antibody anti-SePP was incubated in a 96-well plate for 2h, 37°C. The solution with the antibody was rinsed and blocked overnight with 0.05% caesin solution at room temperature. Plasma samples were diluted and combined with selenoprotein P monoclonal antibody (Selenoprotein P antibody, clone 37A1, LifeSpan Biosciences) overnight, 4°C. Standard curves were constructed using human purified SePP. The first plate was washed three times with 300µL of PBS-tween. 100µL of diluted samples were transferred to the washed plate and incubated at 37°C for 2h. After 2h the plate was washed with PBS-tween. A secondary antibody (antimouse IgG, HRP-linked, horseradish peroxidase- linked, Cell Signalling Technology) was added to the plate which was incubated at 37°C for 1h. The plate was washed again with PBS. 100µL of TMB was added to the plate and left at room temperature for 5 min until the colour was developed. The reaction was stopped by the addition of 100 µL of H₂SO₄ and the absorbance was read at 450nm.

Genotyping

Total DNA was extracted from 200µL of whole blood using Purelink Genomic DNA Minikit (Invitrogen, Life Technologies, California, USA), the final concentration measured in a NanoDrop ND 1000 spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific, Wilmington, DE, USA) and adjusted for further analysis. The SNPs selected were chosen based on the

literature evidence for functional consequences and relation to risk of chronic diseases. Using these criteria, the SNPs selected are shown in Chart 5. The SNPs were determined by real-time polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) using Taqman SNP Genotyping Assays (Life Technologies, California, USA). Each RT-PCR reaction contained 20ng of adjusted genomic DNA, 0,5µL of 20X SNP Genotyping Assay (Life Technologies), 5,0µL of TaqMan Genotyping Master Mix (Life Technologies) in a 10µL final reaction volume. Samples were assayed along with no-template and internal controls for each genotype and run in the StepOne Plus Real Time PCR system under the following conditions: enzyme activation at 95 °C for 10min, followed by 40 cycles at 92 °C for 15s and 60 °C for 1 min for annealing and extension. The allelic discrimination was obtained by performing an endpoint read. Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium was tested by the chi-squared test. The haplotype distribution and linkage disequilibrium were done in the software Haploview 4.2. SNPs were considered in linkage disequilibrium when $D' > 0,5$.

Chart 5. Information about the SNPs used in the study

| Genes | Chromossome location | rs (dbSNP) | SNP region | Base change | Codon change | aminoacid change |
|--------------|----------------------|------------|---------------|-------------|--------------|------------------|
| <i>GPX1</i> | 3p21.3 | rs1050450 | Coding region | C679T | CCC / CTC | Pro198Leu |
| | | rs1800668 | promoter | C>T | * | * |
| | | rs3811699 | promoter | G-602A | * | * |
| <i>GPX4</i> | 19p13.3 | rs713041 | 3'UTR | C718T | * | * |
| <i>SEPP1</i> | 5p12 | rs3877899 | Coding region | G24731A | GCT - ACT | Ala234Thr |
| | | rs7579 | 3'UTR | G25191A | * | * |
| <i>SELS</i> | 15q26.3 | rs34713741 | promoter | C>T | * | * |
| <i>SEPI5</i> | 1p31 | rs5845 | 3'UTR | G1125A | * | * |

*: no change. 3'UTR: 3'untranslated region.

Results

The characteristics of the volunteers are summarized in Table 4. A total of 130 volunteers completed the study protocol. Females constituted 75% of the group, 80% were non smokers and 73% self reported being Caucasian. Baseline plasma Se was 96.7 ± 29.6 $\mu\text{g/L}$ and after 8 weeks of supplementation with Brazil nuts the concentration was 292.8 ± 95.4 $\mu\text{g/L}$.

Table 4. Characteristics of the study volunteers

| Parameters | Total (n= 130) |
|---|----------------|
| Age (y) <i>m±sd</i> | 29,8 ± 9,2 |
| Gender <i>n(%)</i> | |
| male | 32 (24,6) |
| female | 98 (75,4) |
| BMI (kg/m ²) | 23,3 ± 3,3 |
| Smoking status <i>n(%)</i> | |
| never | 104 (80,0) |
| ex-smoker | 20 (5,4) |
| current | 6 (4,6) |
| Physical activity <i>n(%)</i> | |
| yes | 94 (72,3) |
| no | 36 (27,7) |
| Chronic diseases historical <i>n(%)</i> | |
| yes | 113 (86,9) |
| no | 17 (13,1) |
| Ethnicity <i>n(%)</i> | |
| caucasian | 94 (72,3) |
| black | 26 (20,0) |
| asian/indigen | 10 (7,7) |
| Plasma Se ($\mu\text{g/L}$) | |
| before supplementation | 96,7 ± 29,6 |
| after supplementation | 292,8 ± 95,4 |

Numerical variables are presented as mean ± standard deviation (sd). Categorical variables are presented as n (%).

The Se content of Brazil nuts and centesimal composition are shown in Table 5. Four different batches, with the most similar Se content, were used during the supplementation. The mean \pm standard deviation for Se content of these four batches was $100,4 \pm 5,3 \mu\text{g/g}$. Considering the average weight of the nuts from 3g to 4g, each nut provided approximately from 300 to 400 μg of Se.

Table 5. Centesimal composition and selenium content in Brazil nuts used during the protocol

| Nutrient | Mean \pm sd |
|------------------------------|-----------------|
| Energy (kcal) | $732,9 \pm 2,8$ |
| Carbohydrates (g) | $15,0 \pm 0,6$ |
| Proteins (g) | $13,1 \pm 0,2$ |
| Lipids (g) | $69,0 \pm 0,6$ |
| Ash (%) | $3,1 \pm 0,9$ |
| Humidity (%) | $4,7 \pm 0,7$ |
| Selenium ($\mu\text{g/g}$) | $100,4 \pm 5,3$ |

The biomarkers of Se status measured during the supplementation with Brazil nuts are shown in Table 9 and Figure 8 . Two biomarkers were measured in the erythrocytes (GPx1 activity and Erythrocyte Se) and three were measured in plasma (GPx3 activity, SePP concentration and Plasma Se concentration). The biomarkers were measured before, during the supplementation and during the washout period, except for SePP concentrations which were evaluated only before, after the supplementation and at the end of the washout period. GPx1 activity decreased significantly after 4 weeks of supplementation, increased again until the first 4 weeks of Brazil nuts withdrawal and decreased after 8 weeks of washout (Figure 8A). Erythrocyte Se concentrations during the supplementation and after

Brazil nuts withdrawal were higher than baseline. The supplementation increased erythrocyte Se concentrations gradually until the first four weeks of washout. The values decreased again in the end of the washout period (Figure 8B) .

The supplementation with Brazil nuts directly affected plasma biomarkers GPx3 activity, plasma Se and plasma SePP concentrations. There was a significant increase in GPx3 activity after 4 weeks of supplementation. Moreover, the activity during the washout period was significantly lower than the activity during the supplementation (Figure 8C). Similarly, plasma Se concentrations increased significantly after 4 and 8 weeks of supplementation. During the washout period, there was a sharp decrease in plasma Se concentrations compared to baseline and 8 weeks of nuts (Figure 8D). The concentrations of plasma SePP were also increased after the supplementation and reduced after nuts withdrawal; however, the concentrations at the end of the washout period remained significantly higher than at baseline (Figure 8E).

Table 6. Concentrations of biomarkers of Se status during supplementation with Brazil nuts.

| Biomarkers | Time Points | | | | |
|-------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| | baseline | 4w nuts | 8w nuts | 4w washout | 8w washout |
| GPx 1 activity (U/g Hb) | 64,5 ± 18,3 ^c | 56,5 ± 15,2 | 64,8 ± 19,9 ^c | 71,2 ± 19,1 ^{ac} | 67,2 ± 24,1 ^c |
| Erythrocyte Se (µg/L) | 184,3 ± 87,4 | 376,4±120,0 ^{ab} | 467,0± 176,0 ^b | 519,3 ± 188,0 ^{bc} | 367,8 ± 170,2 ^{ab} |
| GPx 3 activity (U/L) | 538,5± 105,7 ^c | 585,7 ± 116,3 | 558,7 ± 129,8 | 520,3 ± 110,9 ^{ac} | 498,6 ± 123,2 ^{ac} |
| Plasma Se (µg/L) | 96,7 ± 29,6 | 218,6 ± 67,3 ^b | 292,8 ± 95,4 ^{bc} | 202,2 ± 54,5 ^{ab} | 162,2 ± 38,0 ^{abc} |
| SePP (mg/L) | 3,52 ± 0,94 ^a | nd | 4,00 ± 0,99 | nd | 3,66 ± 0,92 ^{ab} |

Values are mean ± sd. ANOVA repeated measures with pos hoc Tukey for GPx 1 and GPx 3 activities. Friedman test with pos hoc Dunn for Erythrocyte Se, Plasma Se and SePP.

^a: different from 8w nuts ($P < 0.05$)

^b: different from baseline ($P < 0.05$)

^c: different from 4w nuts ($P < 0.05$)

nd: not determined

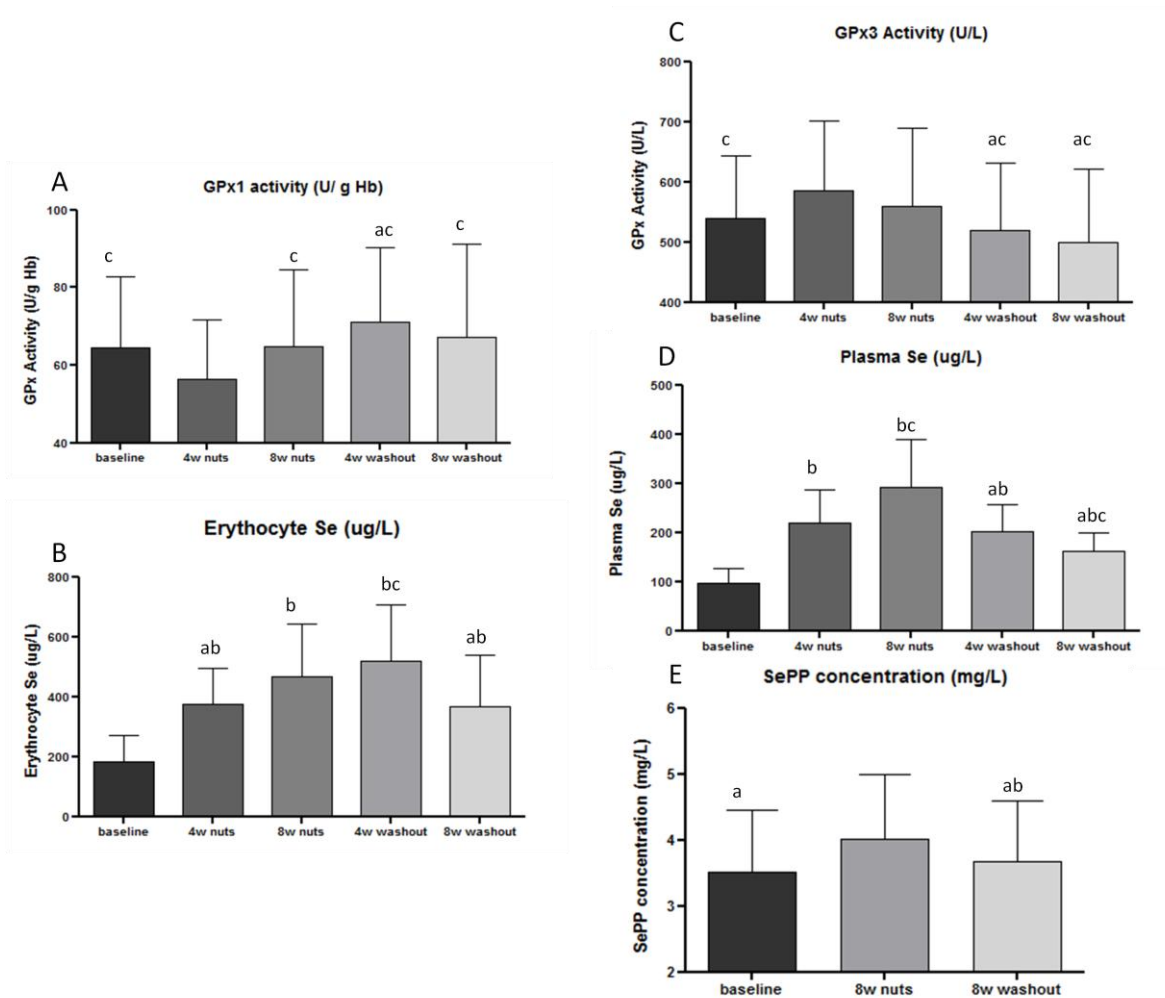


Figure 8. Effect of Brazil nut supplementation on biomarkers of Se status.

A) GPx1 activity, B) erythrocyte Se, C) GPx3 activity, D) Plasma Se and E) SePP concentrations.

Values are mean \pm SD. ANOVA repeated measures with post hoc Tukey for GPx1 and GPx3 activities. Friedman test with pos hoc Dunn for Erythrocyte Se, Plasma Se and SePP.

^a: different from 8w nuts ($p < 0.05$)

^b: different from baseline ($p < 0.05$)

^c: different from 4w nuts ($p < 0.05$)

Genotype and allele frequencies of SNPs in selenoprotein genes are shown in Table

7. All SNPs were in Hardy-Weinberg Equilibrium. Haplotype analyses, using Haploview software, showed evidence of linkage disequilibrium for SNPs in *GPX1* gene: rs1050450 x

rs1800699 ($D' = 1,0$ e $r^2 = 0,98$) and rs1050450 x rs3811699 ($D' = 1,0$ e $r^2 = 1,0$). Only two haplotypes were observed (Table 8). Linkage disequilibrium were also evident for SNPs in *SEPP1* gene ($D' = 1,0$ e $r^2 = 0,15$) with three haplotypes observed (Table 8)

Table 7. Genotype and allele frequency of SNPs in selenoprotein genes

| SNPs | N | % | SNPs | N | % |
|-------------------------|----|-------|-------------------------|----|-------|
| <i>GPXI</i> _rs1050450 | | | <i>GPX4</i> _rs713041 | | |
| CC | 70 | 53,85 | CC | 50 | 38,46 |
| CT | 53 | 40,77 | CT | 55 | 42,31 |
| TT | 7 | 5,38 | TT | 25 | 19,23 |
| C | | 0,75 | C | | 0,60 |
| T | | 0,25 | T | | 0,40 |
| <i>GPXI</i> _rs3811699 | | | <i>SEPP1</i> _rs5845 | | |
| GG | 70 | 53,85 | GG | 55 | 42,31 |
| GA | 53 | 40,77 | GA | 60 | 46,15 |
| AA | 7 | 5,38 | AA | 15 | 11,54 |
| G | | 0,75 | G | | 0,65 |
| A | | 0,25 | A | | 0,35 |
| <i>GPXI</i> _rs1800668 | | | <i>SELS</i> _rs34713741 | | |
| CC | 70 | 53,85 | CC | 70 | 53,85 |
| CT | 53 | 40,77 | CT | 49 | 37,69 |
| TT | 7 | 5,38 | TT | 11 | 8,46 |
| C | | 0,75 | C | | 0,73 |
| T | | 0,25 | T | | 0,27 |
| <i>SEPP1</i> _rs3877899 | | | <i>SEPP1</i> _rs7579 | | |
| GG | 70 | 53,85 | GG | 50 | 38,46 |
| GA | 47 | 36,15 | GA | 55 | 42,31 |
| AA | 13 | 10,00 | AA | 25 | 19,23 |
| G | | 0,72 | G | | 0,60 |
| A | | 0,28 | A | | 0,40 |

GPX1: Glutathione Peroxidase 1; SEPP1: Selenoprotein P; GPX4: Glutathione Peroxidase 4; SEP15: Selenoprotein 15; SELS: Selenoprotein S. A: adenine; T: timine; C: citosine; G: guanine.

Table 8. Haplotypes observed in *GPXI* and *SEPP1* genes.

| Haplotypes | SNPs | | | Frequency |
|----------------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| <i>GPXI</i> | rs1050450 | rs1800668 | rs3811699 | |
| haplotype a (common) | C | C | G | 0.742 |
| haplotype b | T | T | A | 0.254 |
| <i>SEPP1</i> | rs7579 | rs3877899 | | |
| haplotype a (common) | G | G | | 0.442 |
| haplotype b | A | G | | 0.281 |
| haplotype c | G | A | | 0.277 |

The biomarkers of Se status stratified by genotypes for the six SNPs in selenoprotein genes are shown in Table 9. The genotype for three SNPs affected GPx1 activity. Volunteers who were carriers of the variant allele for *GPXI*_rs1050450 had lower GPx1 activity than volunteers with the common genotype after 8 weeks of washout (Figure 9A). GPx1 activity was also lower for individuals GA+AA for *SEPI5*_rs5845 compared to GG after 4 weeks of supplementation and in the end of the washout period (Figure 9C). On contrary, GPx1 activity was higher in carriers of the variant allele for *GPX4*_rs713041 after 8 weeks of washout (Figure 9B). In addition, Plasma Se was affected by genotype for *SEPP1*_3877899, with lower concentrations found in carriers of the variant allele A in the end of the washout period (Figure 9D). Finally, erythrocyte Se concentrations were higher in volunteers carriers of the variant allele A for *SEPI5*_rs5845 compared to GG after 4 weeks of supplementation (Figure 9E). No differences were observed for GPx3 activity and SePP concentrations.

Table 9. Biomarkers of Se status stratified by genotypes for SNPs in selenoprotein genes

| | Genotypes | N | baseline | 4w nuts | 8w nuts | 4w washout | 8w washout |
|-------------------------------|-----------|----|--------------------------|----------------------------|---------------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| GPx1 activity (U/g Hb) | | | | | | | |
| <i>GPX1</i> _rs1050450 | CC | 70 | 66,1 ± 17,5 ^c | 58,8 ± 14,8 | 68,7 ± 18,7 ^c | 72,0 ± 18,0 ^c | 68,6 ± 25,2 ^c |
| | CT+TT | 60 | 62,6 ± 19,2 ^c | 53,7 ± 15,4 | 60,1 ± 20,5 * | 70,2 ± 20,3 ^c | 65,4 ± 22,7 ^c |
| <i>GPX4</i> _rs713041 | CC | 50 | 61,1 ± 15,3 | 54,9 ± 13,5 | 63,5 ± 19,0 ^c | 70,1 ± 18,5 ^{bc} | 61,6 ± 22,5 |
| | CT + TT | 80 | 66,6 ± 19,8 ^c | 57,4 ± 16,2 | 65,5 ± 20,6 ^c | 71,9 ± 19,5 ^c | 70,7 ± 24,4 ^{c*} |
| <i>SEPP1</i> _rs3877899 | GG | 70 | 63,0 ± 20,7 ^c | 54,4 ± 12,7 | 64,4 ± 19,3 ^c | 71,7 ± 18,0 ^c | 68,2 ± 25,7 ^c |
| | GA+AA | 60 | 66,2 ± 14,9 ^c | 58,8 ± 17,5 | 65,1 ± 20,8 | 70,6 ± 20,3 ^c | 66,0 ± 22,1 ^c |
| <i>SEPP1</i> _rs7579 | GG | 70 | 66,7 ± 18,1 ^c | 56,5 ± 17,1 | 63,6 ± 18,8 ^c | 69,9 ± 19,9 ^c | 65,1 ± 23,8 ^c |
| | GA+AA | 60 | 61,8 ± 18,3 | 56,3 ± 12,7 | 66,1 ± 21,3 ^c | 72,6 ± 18,1 ^c | 69,6 ± 24,2 ^c |
| <i>SELS</i> _rs34713741 | CC | 55 | 64,1 ± 17,6 | 58,2 ± 16,6 | 63,1 ± 17,8 | 69,2 ± 19,4 ^c | 64,3 ± 24,3 |
| | CT+TT | 75 | 64,7 ± 18,9 ^c | 55,1 ± 14,0 | 65,9 ± 21,4 ^c | 72,6 ± 18,8 ^c | 69,2 ± 23,7 ^c |
| <i>SEPI5</i> _rs5845 | GG | 77 | 64,6 ± 18,7 | 58,7 ± 16,5 | 65,4 ± 21,3 | 72,7 ± 19,3 ^{abc} | 70,6 ± 24,7 ^c |
| | GA+AA | 53 | 64,3 ± 17,9 ^c | 53,2 ± 12,5 * | 63,8 ± 17,9 ^c | 68,9 ± 18,6 ^c | 62,1 ± 22,2 ^{c*} |
| Erythrocyte Se (µg/L) | | | | | | | |
| <i>GPX1</i> _rs1050450 | CC | 70 | 183,6 ± 78,9 | 373,9 ± 104,5 | 457,2 ± 167,1 | 516,5 ± 201,2 | 371,1 ± 183,4 |
| | CT+TT | 60 | 185,1 ± 97,2 | 379,3 ± 136,7 | 478,5 ± 186,6 | 522,6 ± 173,1 | 364,0 ± 154,9 |
| <i>GPX4</i> _rs713041 | CC | 50 | 170,6 ± 68,1 | 367,4 ± 102,8 | 474,2 ± 164,7 | 522,5 ± 193,1 | 379,3 ± 161,4 |
| | CT + TT | 80 | 192,8 ± 97,0 | 382,1 ± 129,9 | 462,6 ± 183,6 | 517,2 ± 186,0 | 360,6 ± 176,1 |
| <i>SEPP1</i> _rs3877899 | GG | 70 | 168,9 ± 60,2 | 357,3 ± 98,7 | 467,0 ± 152,9 | 518,2 ± 169,5 | 364,2 ± 146,0 |
| | GA+AA | 60 | 202,2 ± 109,0 | 398,7 ± 138,4 | 467,1 ± 200,9 | 520,0 ± 209,0 | 372,0 ± 196,0 |
| <i>SEPP1</i> _rs7579 | GG | 70 | 188,2 ± 79,3 | 375,5 ± 100,6 | 463,7 ± 166,0 | 499,6 ± 163,9 | 363,7 ± 166,6 |
| | GA+AA | 60 | 179,7 ± 96,6 | 377,5 ± 140,2 | 470,9 ± 188,3 | 542,2 ± 211,9 | 372,6 ± 175,7 |
| <i>SELS</i> _rs34713741 | CC | 55 | 193,2 ± 107,2 | 386,3 ± 152,2 | 464,6 ± 186,2 | 506,5 ± 211,8 | 375,2 ± 171,6 |
| | CT+TT | 75 | 177,7 ± 69,6 | 369,2 ± 89,8 | 468,8 ± 169,4 | 528,6 ± 169,4 | 362,4 ± 170,2 |
| <i>SEPI5</i> _rs5845 | GG | 77 | 181,5 ± 71,8 | 357,8 ± 98,6 | 454,8 ± 175,2 | 503,8 ± 178,8 | 356,5 ± 152,0 |
| | GA+AA | 53 | 188,3 ± 106,8 | 403,6 ± 142,3* | 484,8 ± 177,2 | 541,8 ± 200,4 | 384,2 ± 194,1 |
| Plasma Se, µg/L | | | | | | | |
| <i>GPX1</i> _rs1050450 | CC | 70 | 92,6 ± 26,2 | 215,6 ± 72,8 ^{ab} | 293,5 ± 96,0 ^b | 205,3 ± 58,5 ^{ab} | 165,8 ± 41,5 ^{ab} |
| | CT+TT | 60 | 99,8 ± 30,9 | 218,9 ± 65,0 ^{ab} | 282,3 ± 88,7 ^b | 198,7 ± 50,5 ^{ab} | 160,8 ± 35,8 ^{ab} |
| <i>GPX4</i> _rs713041 | CC | 50 | 96,9 ± 26,2 | 222,6 ± 71,8 ^{ab} | 293,0 ± 95,3 ^b | 202,5 ± 48,4 ^{ab} | 162,6 ± 36,8 ^{ab} |
| | CT + TT | 80 | 95,3 ± 30,1 | 213,7 ± 67,5 ^{ab} | 285,4 ± 91,2 ^b | 202,1 ± 58,8 ^{ab} | 164,1 ± 40,4 ^{ab} |
| <i>SEPP1</i> _rs3877899 | GG | 70 | 93,9 ± 25,1 | 223,8 ± 62,9 ^{ab} | 296,9 ± 93,1 ^b | 199,6 ± 56,1 ^{ab} | 170,4 ± 41,2 ^{ab} |
| | GA+AA | 60 | 98,3 ± 32,2 | 209,3 ± 75,4 ^{ab} | 278,3 ± 91,6 ^b | 205,4 ± 53,7 ^{ab} | 155,5 ± 34,7 ^{ab*} |
| <i>SEPP1</i> _rs7579 | GG | 70 | 94,5 ± 23,6 | 221,6 ± 70,1 ^{ab} | 284,6 ± 96,0 ^b | 206,5 ± 55,6 ^{ab} | 160,7 ± 40,7 ^{ab} |
| | GA+AA | 60 | 97,5 ± 33,6 | 211,9 ± 68,0 ^{ab} | 292,7 ± 88,9 ^b | 197,2 ± 54,0 ^{ab} | 166,7 ± 36,8 ^{ab} |
| <i>SELS</i> _rs34713741 | CC | 55 | 97,4 ± 31,7 | 210,8 ± 68,2 ^{ab} | 287,7 ± 88,3 ^b | 202,0 ± 56,3 ^{ab} | 162,1 ± 41,1 ^{ab} |
| | CT+TT | 75 | 94,8 ± 26,2 | 221,8 ± 69,8 ^{ab} | 288,8 ± 96,1 ^b | 202,4 ± 54,2 ^{ab} | 164,6 ± 37,5 ^{ab} |
| <i>SEPI5</i> _rs5845 | GG | 77 | 94,1 ± 25,5 | 214,9 ± 71,8 ^{ab} | 281,8 ± 93,9 ^b | 200,8 ± 56,0 ^{ab} | 161,6 ± 36,1 ^{ab} |
| | GA+AA | 53 | 98,5 ± 32,5 | 220,4 ± 65,3 ^{ab} | 297,8 ± 90,4 ^b | 204,4 ± 53,7 ^{ab} | 166,3 ± 42,8 ^{ab} |

Values are mean ± SD. ANOVA repeated measures with pos hoc Tukey for GPx 1 and GPx 3 activities. Friedman test with pos hoc Dunn for Erythrocyte Se, Plasma Se and SePP. ^a: different from 8w nuts (p<0.05), ^b: different from baseline (p<0.05), ^c: different from 4w nuts (p<0.05), *: different from wildtype (p<0.05).

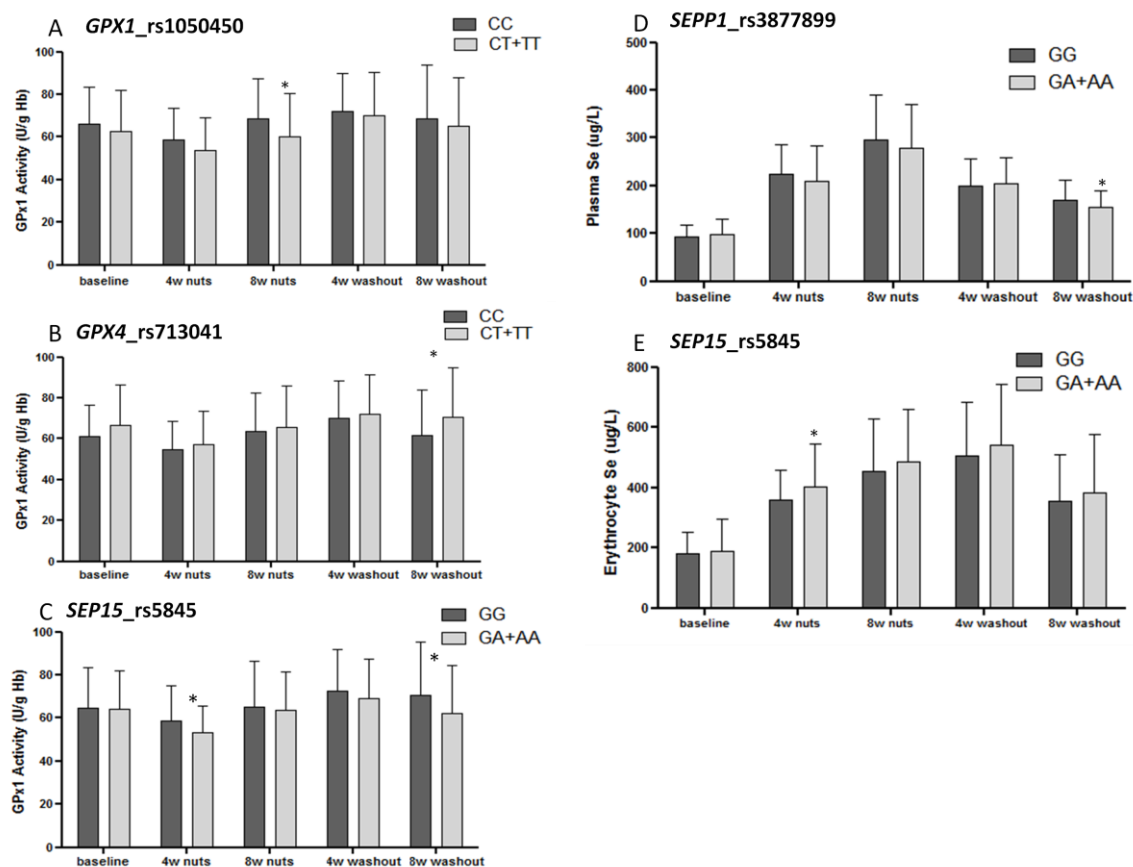


Figure 9. Biomarkers of Se status stratified by SNPs in selenoprotein genes.

GPx1 activity was stratified by *GPXI_rs1050450* (A), *GPX4_rs713041* (B) and *SEP15_rs5845* (C). Plasma Se was stratified by *SEPP1_rs3877899* (D) and Erythrocyte Se by *SEP15_rs5845* (E). Values are mean \pm SD. Differences between genotypes tested by Mann-Whitney test. *: different from wildtype ($P < 0.05$)

Discussion

The influence of genetic variants on the response to Se supplementation have been proposed before (COMBS et al., 2012; MÉPLAN et al., 2007, 2008). Our results not only confirm these earlier observations by demonstrating that erythrocyte GPx1 activity is influenced by *GPXI_rs1050450* and *GPX4_rs713041* and that plasma Se is influenced by *SEPP1_rs3877899*, but also extend them by demonstrating that the *SEP15_rs5845*

influence erythrocyte GPx1 activity and Se concentrations. This work is the first to analyze the association between *SEPI5_rs5845* and these two biomarkers of Se status after supplementation with Brazil nuts.

In our work we quantified five biomarkers of Se status, two in erythrocytes and three in plasma. GPx1 activity and erythrocyte Se concentrations have been used in several studies as biomarkers of Se status that respond to Se supplementation *via* Brazil nuts (CARDOSO et al., 2015a; COMINETTI et al., 2012; THOMSON et al., 2008). Erythrocyte Se correlates strongly with plasma Se. Therefore, it can be used as a useful biomarker of Se status in human studies (ASHTON et al., 2009; STEFANOWICZ et al., 2013). We observed a delayed response of these two erythrocyte biomarkers to Brazil nut supplementation, with values increasing up to the first four weeks of the washout period. This apparently slow response could be explained by erythrocytes having a lifespan of 120 days so that it takes time for changes in selenoprotein synthesis to appear in the mature red cell population (ROBBERECHT; CAUWENBERGH; HERMANS, 2012; THOMSON et al., 2008). Plasma biomarkers used were Se, SePP concentrations and GPx3 activity. This is the first study to quantify plasma SePP concentrations in Brazilians. The baseline plasma Se concentration of 96,7 µg/L (1,22 µmol/L) would be expected to be sufficient to maximize plasma GPx activity, but not SePP concentration since earlier work has shown that the plasma Se concentration needed to maximize GPx3 activity is 90 µg/L (DUFFIELD et al., 1999) and to maximize plasma SePP it is 120 µg/L (HURST et al., 2010). As a result, the present population can be considered to have a moderate to adequate Se status which could respond with an increase in plasma biomarkers after Se supplementation. Indeed, plasma SePP concentrations and GPx3 activity increased

significantly after supplementation with Brazil nuts and decreased during the washout period. Accordingly, plasma Se concentrations had a direct response to the supplementation, probably due to Se incorporation into SePP and GPx3. These results are consistent with the Se in Brazil nuts, mostly as selenomethionine, being bioavailable for the synthesis of selenoproteins in humans (DA SILVA; MATAVELI; ZEZZI ARRUDA, 2013; THOMSON et al., 2008).

In our study, GPx1 activity was lower in carriers of the variant allele T for SNP rs1050450. Previous studies corroborate our results (BASTAKI et al., 2006; HAMANISHI et al., 2004; HANSEN et al., 2009; RAVN-HAREN et al., 2006). Bastaki et al. found an interaction between gender and the genotype for this variation: TT males had lower GPx1 activity than males with the other genotypes. Hamanishi et al. observed in *in vitro* studies that the presence of the variant allele T decreases 40% the GPx1 activity. Finally, in a Danish study, the presence of the allele T was associated with lower GPx1 activity. One possible explanation for this lower activity is that the change of the amino acid Proline to Leucine alters the secondary structure of the protein, which can have profound effects on its activity and stability (RATNASINGHE et al., 2000). *In vitro* studies demonstrated that Se supplementation reduced enzyme thermostability for the Leu-variant (ZHUO et al., 2009).

After the supplementation with Brazil nuts, GPx1 activity was significantly higher in individuals with at least one variant allele T for *GPX4*_rs713041. A similar effect of this genetic variation on GPx1 activity was reported in earlier studies both *in vivo* and *in vitro* (BERMANO et al., 2007; CROSLLEY et al., 2013; GONG et al., 2012; MÉPLAN et al., 2008). At first sight it surprising that GPx1 activity was affected by one SNP in another gene, however, the hierarchy of selenoprotein expression could explain this result. RNA-protein binding assays *in vitro* demonstrated that the C-variant for *GPX4* transcripts bind

protein more strongly than the T-variant and *GPX1* transcripts (MÉPLAN et al., 2008). In addition, GPx4 protein is ranked high in hierarchy of selenoprotein expression, which means that its transcript has a preference for protein synthesis during translation (SCHOMBURG; SCHWEIZER, 2009). Such evidence suggests that in individuals with the T allele, the synthesis of GPx1 protein is higher because during translation, the C transcript for *GPX4* can compete more strongly against the GPx1 transcript for Se incorporation into GPx4 protein (MEPLAN et al., 2008; CROSLLEY et al., 2013).

There are two genetic variations in *SEPP1* gene that influence Se metabolism. Both SNPs are G>A substitutions: one is located in the coding region (Ala234Thr, rs3877899) and the other is located in the 3'UTR (rs7579), close to SECIS element which is important to Sec insertion. It is proposed that the first one regulates the SePP stability or uptake by cells, and the second one affects SePP synthesis (MÉPLAN et al., 2007). In our study, plasma Se concentrations were significantly lower in GA+AA individuals after 8 weeks of washout. This result confirms earlier work which demonstrated the influence of rs3877899 on plasma Se concentrations: GA individuals had lower plasma Se levels compared to GG individuals post supplementation and 2 weeks after the washout period (MÉPLAN et al., 2007). SePP has two isoforms in plasma, the 50kDa and the 60kDa, that are influenced by the genotype for both SNPs in *SEPP1* gene. Individuals with the GA genotype for rs3877899 had lower proportion of the SePP 60kD, with the Sec-rich domain (MÉPLAN et al., 2009). This difference in the proportion of SePP isoforms may affect Se availability in plasma for selenoprotein synthesis in different tissues.

Two biomarkers of Se status were influenced by *SEP15* _rs5845: erythrocyte Se concentrations and GPx1 activity. We found that individuals with at least one variant allele A (GA+AA) had lower GPx1 activity after 4weeks of supplementation with Brazil nuts and

in the end of the washout period and higher erythrocyte Se concentrations. To our knowledge, this is the first time that rs5845 is associated with these erythrocyte biomarkers. The functionality of rs5845 was indicated previously (HU et al., 2001). This SNP is located in the 3'UTR which is important for Sec insertion. It was demonstrated that the SECIS (Sec Insertion Sequence) element containing the A variant was less responsive to Se and may influence the translation of Sep15 (HU et al., 2001). The association of this genetic variation with lung cancer was revealed in a Polish population. There was a higher risk for individuals with low Se status and lower risk for those with plasma Se above 80µg/L (JABLONSKA et al., 2008). However, the exact mechanism by which erythrocyte biomarkers of Se status may be influenced by rs5845 in *SEP15* gene requires further investigation.

This work has some limitations. The first one is the small sample size of the group, which could have masked significant difference between genotypes. Therefore, it may be considered a pilot study. The second one is the absence of quantification of protein expression, since the main effects of Se are during translation.

In summary, the results of this pilot study suggest that genetic variants in selenoprotein genes influence the response of plasma and erythrocyte biomarkers of Se status to a supplementation with Brazil nuts in healthy Brazilians. This could have an impact on future nutritional recommendations of selenium for specific groups of the population, with the ultimate goal of preventing and reducing the risk of chronic diseases.

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CHAPTER 4. Influence of genetic variations in selenoprotein genes on the pattern of gene expression after supplementation with Brazil nuts

INTRODUCTION

The adequate intake of vitamins and minerals is essential for maintenance of health and longevity in humans. The regular intake of fruits, vegetables and nuts decrease risk for chronic diseases, such as cancer, cardiovascular disease and type-2 diabetes (BLOMHOFF et al., 2006; DONALDSON, 2004; GROSSO et al., 2015; TAPSELL; PROBST, 2008). This beneficial effect is due to their high concentration of vitamins, micronutrients and bioactive compounds. One of the micronutrients that have an important role in human biology is the trace element selenium (Se). There are 25 genes encoding selenoproteins with a wide range of functions, including antioxidant defense, redox function, thyroid hormone metabolism, immune function, reproduction and fertility (KRYUKOV et al., 2003; RAYMAN, 2012). Se is unique among the micronutrients because of its mechanism of insertion into proteins. Unlike most minerals that interact as cofactors in the active site of enzymes, Se is inserted as the amino acid selenocysteine (Sec) during translation. This process requires the presence of a stem-loop structure in the mRNA of selenoproteins called SECIS (Sec Insertion Sequence), and other molecular components, such as the specific tRNA of Sec (tRNA^{[Ser]Sec}) to recode the stop codon UGA and insert Sec (LABUNSKYY; HATFIELD; GLADYSHEV, 2014).

Some examples of selenoproteins are the antioxidant enzyme family Glutathione Peroxidases (GPx 1 – 4), the deiodinases (DIO 1 – 3) related to thyroid hormone metabolism, Selenoprotein P (SePP) which has a role as the principal Se transporter and

also has antioxidant function, the Thioredoxin Reductase enzyme family (TR 1 – 3) important for redox regulation in cells, selenoprotein 15 (Sep15) which regulates misfolded proteins in the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) and selenoprotein S (SelS) is also essential for maintaining the integrity of the ER and may have an important role in inflammation (LABUNSKYY; HATFIELD; GLADYSHEV, 2014).

There is a principle that explains the regulation of selenoprotein expression by Se supply, namely the selenoprotein hierarchy. This controls which selenoproteins will be synthesized under a specific condition so that how the available Se is used for selenoprotein synthesis depends on Se status, the specific tissue and the specific selenoprotein. Under Se-deficient conditions, Se is directed to brain and endocrine tissues rather than to liver and kidneys (SCHOMBURG; SCHWEIZER, 2009). Even in the same tissue, not all selenoproteins have the same regulation. Some proteins have preference for synthesis when the Se supply is limiting. It was observed in mouse models that under conditions of Se deficiency the mRNAs of *GPX1*, *DIO1* and *SEPI5* were reduced in liver. On contrary, no decrease was observed for *GPX4* transcript. Upon repletion, *SEPP1* transcript was the most abundant in liver (SUNDE et al., 2009). This difference in regulation of selenoprotein expression demonstrates that some selenoproteins are more important than others, and during deficiency states, the selenoproteins ranked high in the hierarchy, such as *GPX4*, have preference for synthesis (SCHOMBURG; SCHWEIZER, 2009).

The concept of hierarchy in regulation of selenoprotein expression shed light into the possible use of molecular biomarkers of Se status in supplementation studies using humans and rodents. In mouse models, nine selenoproteins genes had reduced mRNA expression in liver under Se-deficiency, including *GPX1*, *SELH*, *SELW*, *TR1*, *TR2*, *DIO1*

and *SEP15*. This reduction ranked them low in the hierarchy and made them a possible target for use as molecular biomarkers in rodents (SUNDE et al., 2009). Nevertheless, human studies have failed to demonstrate an association of Se status and selenoproteins transcripts (RAVN-HAREN et al., 2008a, 2008b; SUNDE et al., 2008). Only two studies have observed a positive relationship between Se supplementation and increased selenoprotein expression (CARDOSO et al., 2015a; PAGMANTIDIS et al., 2008).

Genetic polymorphisms are an important source of inter-individual variation in response to nutritional supplementation (HESKETH; MÉPLAN, 2011). Several single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) in selenoproteins genes were proved to affect the response to Se supplementation by changing the concentration of biomarkers of Se status (COMBS et al., 2012; JABLONSKA et al., 2009; MÉPLAN et al., 2007, 2008). However, none of the studies investigating the effect of Se supplementation on the pattern of gene expression have considered the genetic profile of the participants. Therefore, the aim of our work was to investigate the influence of genetic variations in selenoprotein genes on the pattern of gene expression in response to Brazil nut supplementation in healthy Brazilians.

METHODS

Brazil nut supplementation and blood sampling

The present study involved 130 unrelated healthy volunteers who took part of the Supplementation with Brazil Nuts study (SUBRANUT) described previously. Volunteers taking multivitamins and mineral supplements, anti-inflammatory drugs, those with

excessive alcohol consumption, those athletes, those with chronic diseases such as cancer, diabetes and cardiovascular disease were excluded. At the beginning of the study, 20mL of blood sample were drawn (baseline) and the volunteers took a daily supplement of Brazil nuts for 8 weeks, eating one nut a day. At the end of eight weeks of supplementation with Brazil nuts, another 20mL blood sample was taken, and then two more blood samples were taken at four week intervals during eight weeks of washout period. The compliance with Brazil nut supplementation was estimated by checking a control calendar given in the first blood sampling. The adherence to the supplementation was checked by high reported compliance. Written inform consent were signed by all volunteers before blood sampling. The protocol was approved by Faculty of Pharmaceutical Sciences Ethical Committee (CAE: 00961112.3.0000.0067) and was conducted according to the Declaration of Helsinki.

RNA was isolated from whole blood of previously genotyped volunteers before and after Brazil nut supplementation. To analyze the expression of *GPXI*, *SEPP1*, *SELS* and *SEPI5* we used previously genotyped samples. We chose one SNP in each gene, except for *SEPP1* which we used two SNPs, and used a dominant genetic model. In this model, the homozygous dominant genotype was separated from the carriers of the variant allele, heterozygous and homozygous variant genotypes together. Specifically for microarray analysis, the C>T SNP located on the 3'UTR of *GPX4* gene was chosen. Six volunteers who were CC and six volunteers who were TT were selected and analyzed before and after supplementation (Figure 10).

Genotyping

Total DNA was extracted from 200 μ L of whole blood using Purelink Genomic DNA Minikit (Invitrogen, Life Technologies, California, USA), the final concentration measured in a NanoDrop ND 1000 spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific, Wilmington, DE, USA) and adjusted for further analysis. The SNPs selected were chosen based on the literature evidence for functional consequences and relation to risk of chronic diseases. Details of the SNPs selected are shown in Chart 6. Genotyping was done by real-time polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) using Taqman SNP Genotyping Assays (Life Technologies, California, USA). Each RT-PCR reaction contained 20ng of adjusted genomic DNA, 0,5 μ L of 20X SNP Genotyping Assay (Life Technologies), 5,0 μ L of TaqMan Genotyping Master Mix (Life Technologies) and 2,5 μ L of DNase free water in a 10 μ L final reaction volume. Samples were assayed along with no-template and internal controls for each genotype and run in a 96 well plate in the StepOne Plus Real Time PCR system under the following conditions: enzyme activation at 95 °C for 10min, followed by 40 cycles at 92 °C for 15s and 60 °C for 1 min for annealing and extension. The allelic discrimination was obtained by performing an endpoint read. Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium was tested by the chi-squared test.

Chart 6. Information about the SNPs analysed in the study

| Genes | Chromossome location | rs (dbSNP) | SNP region | Base change | Codon change | aminoacid change |
|--------------|----------------------|------------|---------------|-------------|--------------|------------------|
| <i>GPXI</i> | 3p21.3 | rs1050450 | Coding region | C679T | CCC / CTC | Pro198Leu |
| <i>GPX4</i> | 19p13.3 | rs713041 | 3'UTR | C718T | * | * |
| <i>SEPP1</i> | 5p12 | rs3877899 | Coding region | G24731A | GCT - ACT | Ala234Thr |
| | | rs7579 | 3'UTR | G25191A | * | * |
| <i>SELS</i> | 15q26.3 | rs34713741 | promoter | C>T | * | * |
| <i>SEPI5</i> | 1p31 | rs5845 | 3'UTR | G1125A | * | * |

*: no change. 3'UTR: 3'untranslated region.

Selenoprotein gene expression

The gene expression of *GPXI*, *SEPP1*, *SELS* and *SEPI5* was analysed before and after Brazil nut supplementation on previously genotyped participants. RNA was extracted from whole blood using Ribopure Blood Kit (Ambion, Life Technologies) and treated with DNase I to prevent DNA contamination. The final concentration was measured in a NanoDrop ND 1000 spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific). RNA was considered of good quality when the absorbance ratios between 260 and 280 nm wavelengths were between 1,9 and 2,1. RNA was adjusted to 20ng/μL in a final volume of 20μL. High Capacity Reverse Transcriptase kit (Life Technolgies) was used to synthetise the cDNA using 10μL of adjusted RNA. cDNA was further diluted 1:5 in DNA/RNA free water to perform the real time PCR reactions.

Analysis of selenoproteins gene expression was performed by real-time quantitative polymerase chain reaction (qPCR) in the QuantStudio 12K Real Time PCR System (Life Technologies) using specific probes for each gene (Taqman Gene expression Assays, Life Technologies). The qPCR reactions were performed in a 384-well plate in triplicate for the

target gene and duplicate for the reference gene GAPDH. Each qPCR reaction contained 2 μ L of diluted cDNA, 0,5 μ L of 20X Taqman Gene Expression Assays (Life Technologies), 5,0 μ L of TaqMan Gene Expression Master Mix (Life Technologies), 2,5 μ L of RNase free water in a 10 μ L final reaction volume. GAPDH was used as a reference gene as its expression was stable among samples. A non template reaction without cDNA was included in each plate as a negative control. The cycling conditions were 2 min at 50 °C for denaturation, followed by 45 cycles 95 °C for 15s and 1 min at 60 °C for hybridisation and extension.

Differential gene expression of the selenoprotein genes was evaluated considering the previously genotyped SNPs in each gene. We used the dominant genetic model to choose the samples of the two genotypic groups for each SNP: homozygous dominant x heterozygous + homozygous variant. Each group had 18 samples. The method used to quantify the relative gene expression was based on the $2^{-\Delta\Delta Cq}$ method (LIVAK; SCHMITTGEN, 2001). The ΔCq was calculated normalizing the values by the internal control gene GAPDH (ΔCq target gene - ΔCq reference gene). The $\Delta\Delta Cq$ was obtained by subtracting the ΔCq of the samples by the average of ΔCq of each genotype group before supplementation.

Microarray analysis

The microarray analysis was done in order to investigate the influence of the C>T SNP located on the 3'UTR of *GPX4* in the pattern of gene expression. mRNA was extracted from 6 CC and 6 TT volunteers before and after Brazil nut supplementation (Figure 10). Total RNA was extracted from whole blood using Purelink Blood MiniKit (Ambion). The integrity of these samples and more 12 spare samples was checked using

Tape Station 2000 (Agilent, Santa Clara, USA) with the Agilent RNA Nano kit. Samples with a RNA integrity number (RIN) of above seven were used for whole genome microarray using the Illumina HumanHT-12 v4 BeadChip. These RNA quality control measurements were also carried out by Service XS using Agilent Bioanalyzer, as can be seen in Figure 11. RNA labeling, amplification, and hybridization were performed by Service XS. Raw microarray scan files were exported using the Illumina Beadstudio program and loaded into R for downstream analysis using the BioConductor and specific packages for each step of the bioinformatics analysis (RITCHIE et al., 2011). The data were transformed and normalized using VST (variance stabilizing transform) and RSN (robust spline normalization) from the Lumi BioConductor package. Probes with signals that fulfilled the criteria of Illumina probe detection P value of 0.05 were considered different. The bioinformatic analysis was performed by the Newcastle Bioinformatics Support Unit at the Faculty of Medical Sciences in Newcastle University, UK.

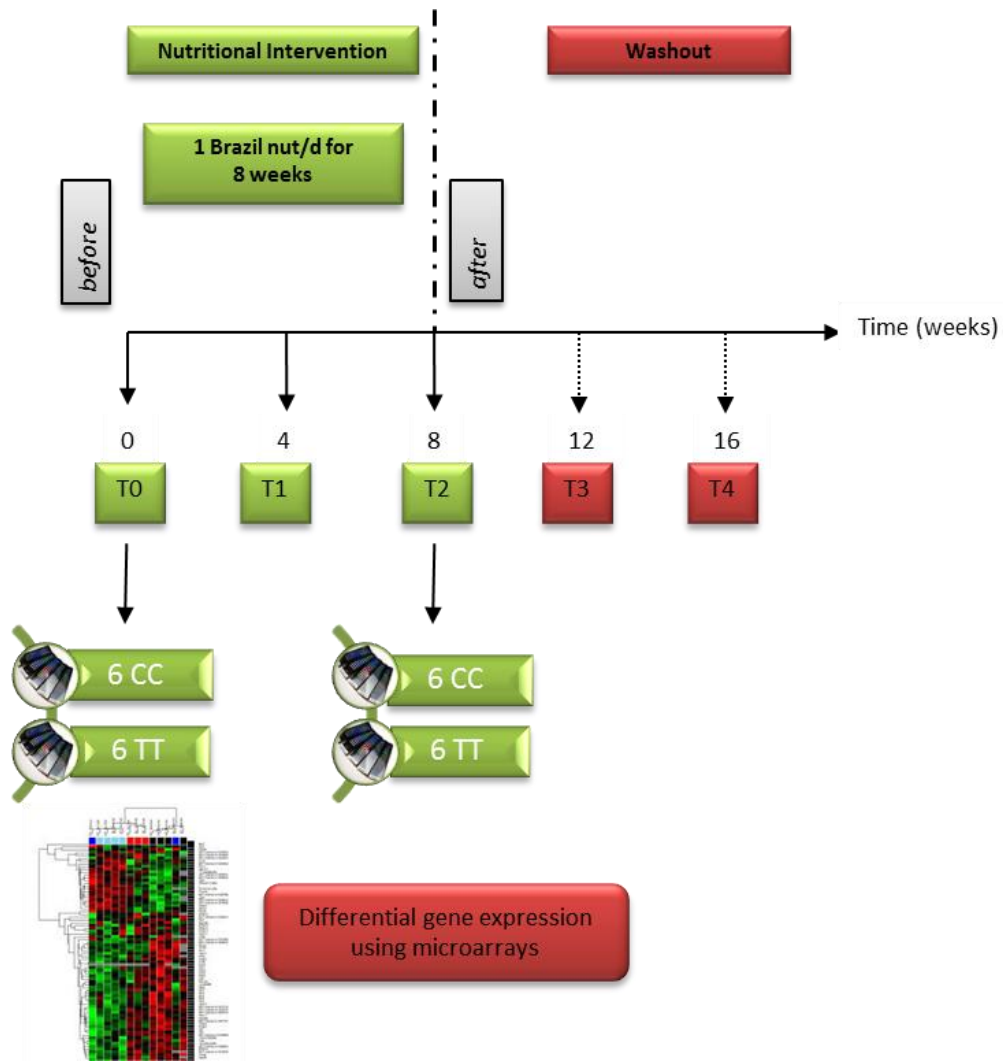


Figure 10. Nutritional intervention protocol indicating time of biological sample collection (T0 – T4).

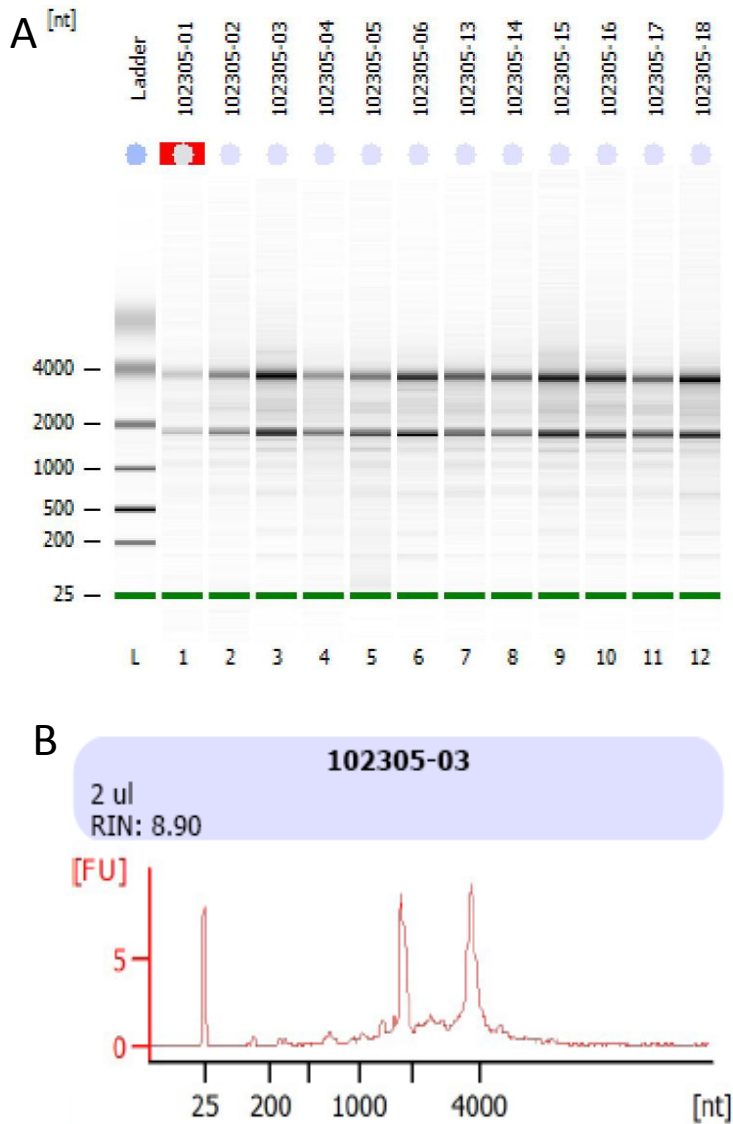


Figure 11. RNA integrity used for microarray analysis.

A. Gel-like electropherogram image generated from Bioanalyser for 12 samples showing two clear bands. B. Bioanalyser electropherogram output of one sample showing 2 clear peaks indicative of good quality RNA. The RIN number stands to RNA Integrity Number and have to be greater than 7.0 to be of sufficient quality.

Real time confirmation

Real time PCR on specific transcripts in order to confirm the microarray data was carried out using a Roche LightCycler 480 and SYBER green I Master Mix (Roche) with 10 μ L reaction in a white 96-well plate with 0.5mM of primers in the Institute for Cell and Molecular Biosciences in Newcastle University, UK. Primers specific for each gene were designed using NCBI Primer Blast and can be seen in Chart 7. The amplicon was further submitted to fold in an online software available on mfold.rna.albany.edu, using the DNA Folding Form and the following conditions: 60°C, Na⁺ 0,1 and Mg²⁺ 0,005. The folding structures are available as requested. To select the genes for confirmation, the criterion was the highest or lowest fold change and the genes that were overlapping in different metabolic pathways using Ingenuity Pathways Analysis, used to perform a canonical pathway analysis (Ingenuity Systems, Redwood City, California). The genes selected were: ALAS2, NFkBIA and HaD3.

Chart 7. List of primers used for real time confirmation

| primer | sequence | Tm | %GC | Yield (nmol) |
|----------|-----------------------|------|------|--------------|
| NFKBIA_F | TGCTCAAGGAGCCCTGTAATG | 59,4 | 55 | 18,6 |
| NFKBIA_R | GACATCAGCCCACACTTCA | 59,4 | 55 | 20,9 |
| DEFA_F | AGCATCCAGGCTCAAGGAAA | 57,3 | 50 | 7,2 |
| DEFA_R | ATGCAGGTTCCATAGCGACG | 59,4 | 55 | 15,3 |
| ALAS2_F | TGCCAGGTCCTAACCCAAGT | 59,4 | 55 | 20,2 |
| ALAS2_R | AACCTAAAGTCCTGTTGCCCT | 57,9 | 47,6 | 24,1 |

Gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA)

The transcriptome data were analysed by gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA), which ranks the genes in a list by their differential expression and tests for coordinated

differences in a set of genes in response to a specific situation, rather than individual genes with increased or decreased expression in two conditions. One of the great advantages of this integrated approach is the facility of interpreting a large amount of data by identifying biological pathways and processes. The other one is that GSEA considers the entire list of genes of the experiment, rather than the ones that passed a fold-change cut-toff (SUBRAMANIAN et al., 2005). The GSEA application from the Broad Institute was used in the analysis, available online at <http://software.broadinstitute.org/gsea/index.jsp>. Three files were created (dataset file.gct, phenotype file.cls and gene sets file.gmt) and loaded into the software. The dataset file contained the normalised microarray data, in our case with 19835 probes and 23 arrays. The phenotype file contained the information about the experimental conditions, which have to be numbered. In our experiment we used the genotypes for GPX4_rs713041 and the supplementation. Therefore, we ended up with four conditions: 0 = CC_before, 1 = CC_after, 2 = TT_before and 3 = TT_after. The gene sets file was downloaded from the Molecular Signature Database v5.1 (MSigDB), a online collection of gene sets from different databases available for free to use with the GSEA application. The MSigDB has 8 different collections. We used only 2 that were applicable to our conditions: C2, curated gene sets from online pathways databases and C5, Gene Ontology gene sets.

Statistical analysis

For all statistical analysis, individuals who were homozygous and heterozygous for the variant alleles were combined together in one group. Volunteers were selected based on their genotype for each of the five SNPs analysed and a total of 18 individuals were selected in each group. mRNA was extracted from whole blood of these 36 individuals

before and after nuts. Relative gene expression of each gene was normalized by GAPDH reference gene using the $2^{-\Delta\Delta Cq}$ method. The final fold-change was used for statistical comparisons and submitted to Normality tests using the Shapiro-Wilk test. The genotype effect before and after nuts was assessed by the Mann-Whitney test. The supplementation effect in each genotype was assessed by the Wilcoxon Test. Differences were considered significant if $P < 0.05$.

RESULTS

The Supplementation with Brazil Nut study (SUBRANUT) was carried out to investigate the influence of genetic variations on the response to Brazil nut intake in different biomarkers. The study was conducted with 130 healthy adults, of these, 66 were selected according to the genotype to analyse the expression of four selenoproteins genes and 12 were selected to the microarray analysis. The supplementation for 8 weeks was effective on increasing plasma Se concentrations from 96.7 ± 29.6 to 292.8 ± 95.4 $\mu\text{g/L}$ ($P < 0.05$). Moreover, Brazil nut supplementation led to greater plasma SePP concentrations.

Gene expression of four selenoprotein genes (*GPXI*, *SEPP1*, *SELS* and *SEP15*) was analysed in previously genotyped volunteers before and after Brazil nut supplementation. The results are shown in Figure 12. The *GPXI*_rs1050450 had an effect on *GPXI* mRNA expression. In CC individuals, there was an increase in *GPXI* expression after supplementation ($P = 0.026$, Wilcoxon test). In addition, after Brazil nut consumption, the *GPXI* expression was lower in T-carriers compared to CC group (Figure 12A). The genotype for *SEPP1*_rs7579 affected *SEPP* expression before and after nut supplementation. In carriers of the variant allele A, *SEPP1* mRNA expression was higher

than GG individuals either before or after supplementation (Figure 12C). After supplementation, *SEPP1*_rs3877899 apparently had an effect on *SEPP1* mRNA expression, being higher in A-carriers, however it did not reach statistical significance (Figure 12B). No significant differences were observed for *SELS* and *SEP15* genes (Figure 12D and E).

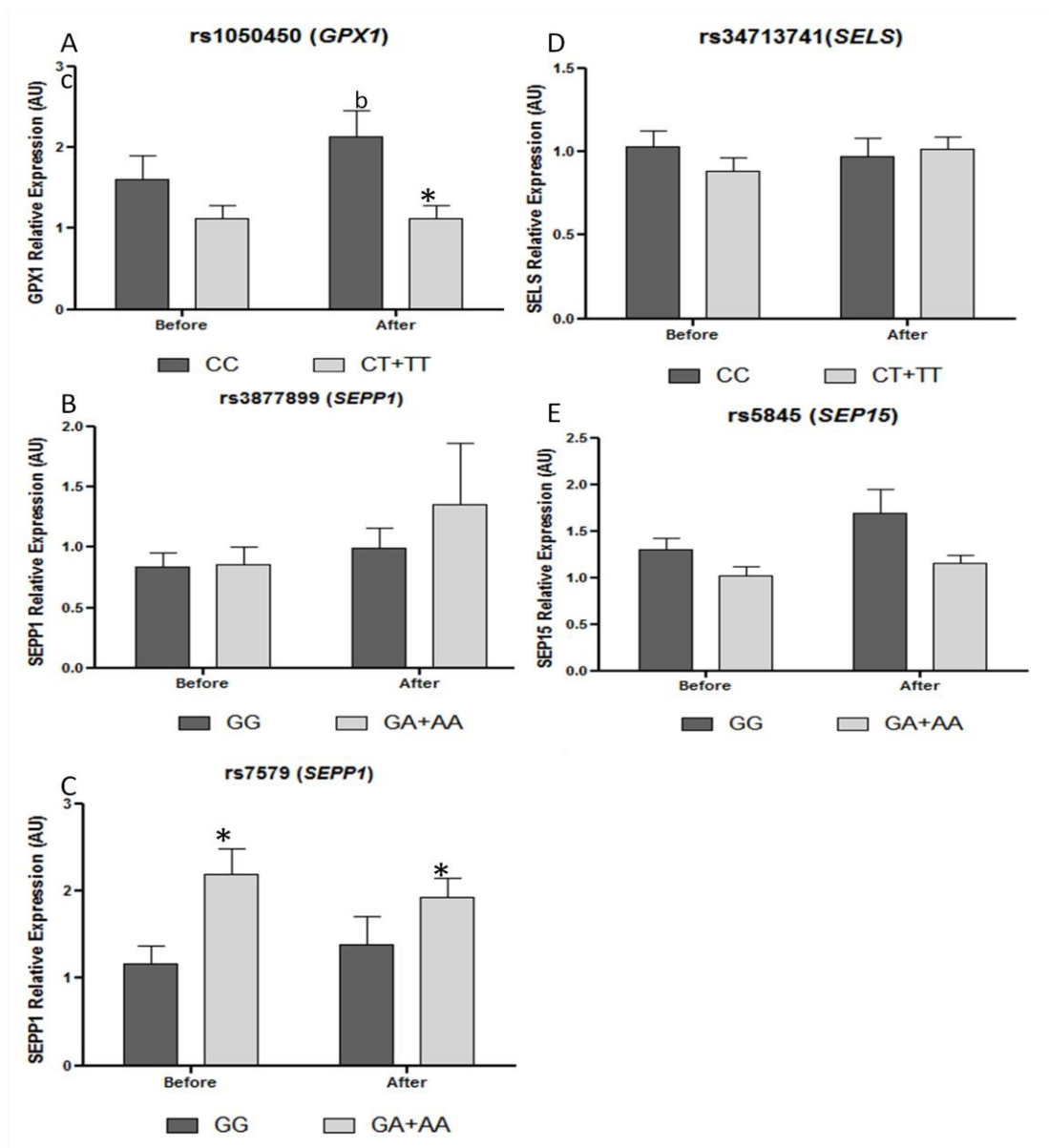


Figure 12. Pattern of selenoprotein gene expression in response to Brazil nut supplementation on previously genotyped volunteers.

A. GPX1_rs1050450, B. SEPP1_rs3877899, C. SEPP1_rs7579, D. SELS_rs34713741 and E. SEP15_rs5845. * $P < 0.05$, Mann-Whitney test.

The microarray experiment was carried out using RNA from 12 individuals (before and after Brazil nuts)previously genotyped for *GPX4*_ rs713041 using Illumina HumanHT-12 v4 BeadChip. Figure 13 shows the overall pattern of differential gene expression in four groups tested; 2 genotypes and 2 experimental conditions. No genes were detected as being significantly altered in expression before supplementation in either CC or TT genotype (Figure 13A). On contrary, after supplementation there was some evidence of genes altered in expression between CC and TT genotypes, using a fold change of 1.0 and *P* value of 0.05 (Figure 13B). One gene of this list was used for assessment of real time confirmation (HaD3, Human alpha Defensin 3). Figure 13C shows the pattern of differential expressed genes before and after supplementation for CC individuals. Two genes of this minor list were selected for real time confirmation (NFkBIA, nuclear factor of kappa light polypeptide inhibitor alpha, and ALAS2, aminolevulinate delta synthetase-2). Another type of visualization of differential expressed genes is the heatmap. Such visualization of the gene sets after the supplementation comparing the genotypes CC x TT showed a different pattern of response of individuals with different genotypes (Figure 14). In fact, the response was opposite. Genes that were down regulated in TT individuals after nuts (top left blue square) were up regulated in CC individuals (top right red square).

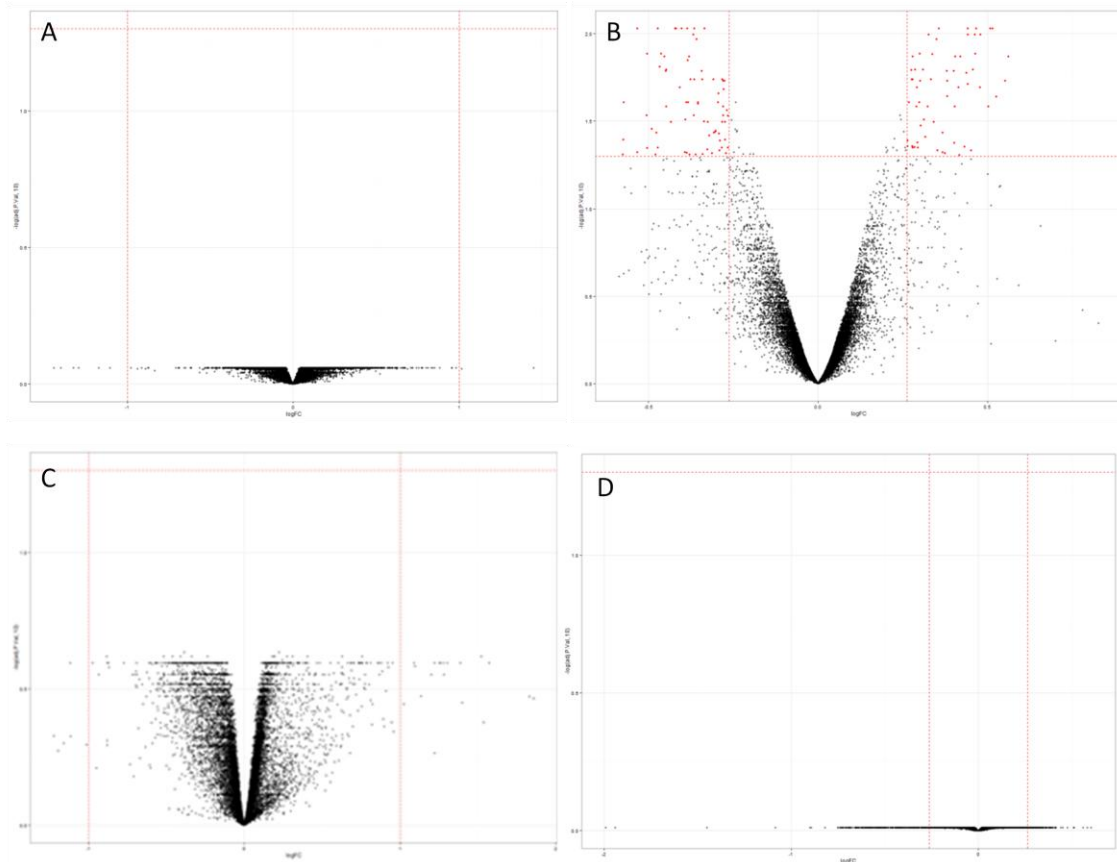


Figure 13. Volcano plots for the four conditions investigated.

A. testing the genotypes before supplementation (before: CC x TT), B. testing genotypes after supplementation (after: CC x TT), C. testing the supplementation in CC genotype (CC: before x after), D. testing the supplementation in TT genotype (TT: before x after).

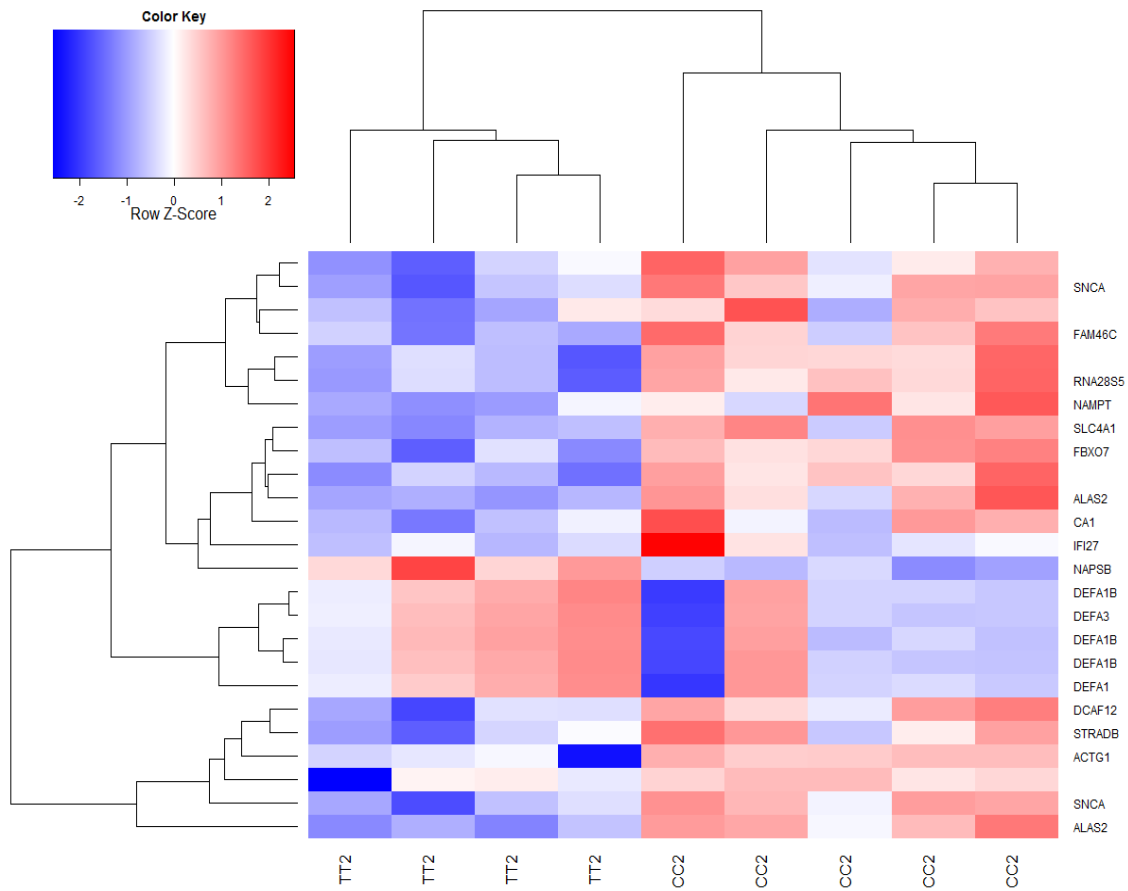


Figure 14. Heatmap showing patterns of differential expression in TT and CC genotype after Brazil nuts supplementation.

Red indicates genes with higher expression levels and blue genes with lower expression levels.

Real time confirmation of the microarray data was performed using three genes. Two were up regulated in the microarray after supplementation in CC individuals (NFkBIA and ALAS2) and one was down regulated (HaD3). The confirmation of the expression of these three genes by real time PCR corroborates the transcriptomic analysis, although only one gene reached statistical significance (Figure 15).

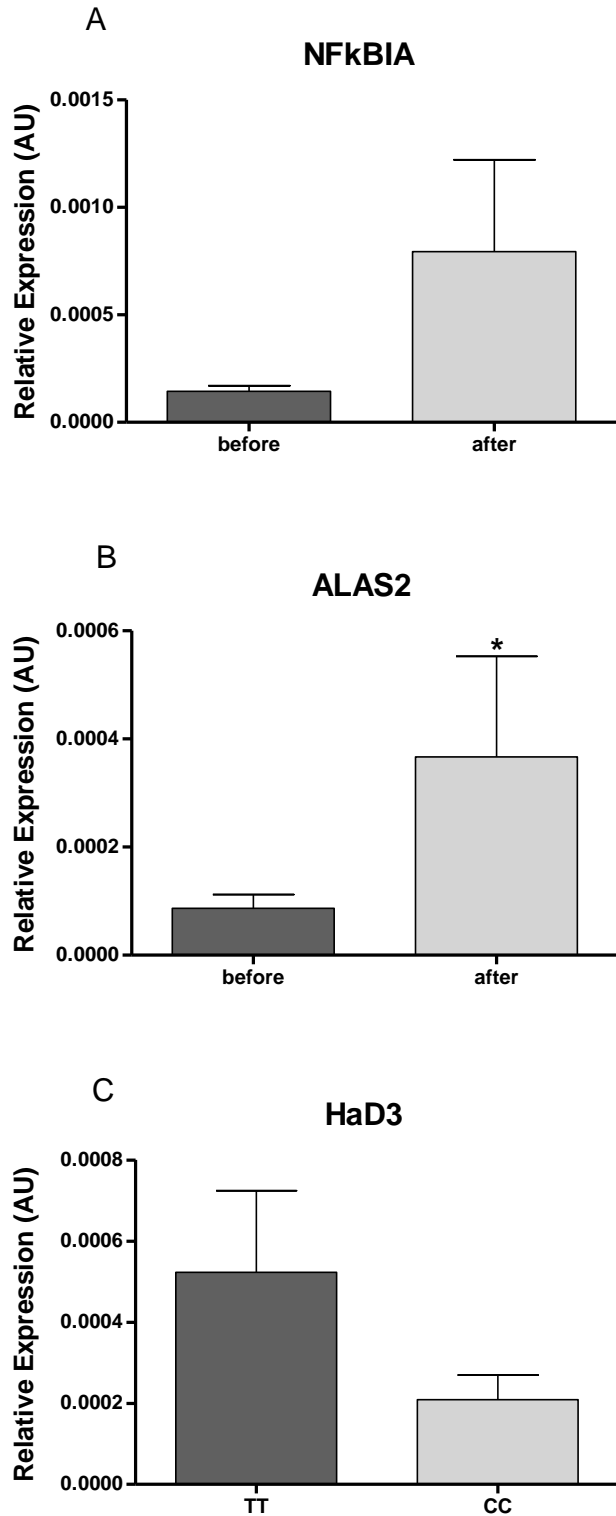


Figure 15. Relative gene expression for confirmation of transcriptomic data by real time PCR.

A. NF-kBIA, B. ALAS2, C. HaD3. *: different from before nuts ($P < 0,05$, Wilcoxon test)

Gene set enrichment analysis was carried out using 19835 probes and 23 arrays. We used both genotypes and the supplementation as conditions for the comparisons. The collection of gene sets available in MSigDB as C2 and C5 were tested. No gene sets from C2 pathways were enriched either in CC individuals before and after nuts or in both genotypes CC and TT after nuts. However, 13 gene sets related to ribosomes, ER and Golgi compartments and mitochondria were found to be enriched in TT individuals after nuts when the Cellular Component list from Gene Ontology gene sets (C5:CC) were used (Table 10).

Table 10. Enriched gene sets from Gene Ontology (C5) in TT individuals for GPX4_rs713041 after supplementation with Brazil nuts compared with CC individuals. Gene sets were considered to be enriched at an FDR cut off of 25%.

| Name | Size | ES | NES | NOM <i>p</i> -value | FDR <i>q</i> -value |
|---|------|-------|-------|---------------------|---------------------|
| Cellular component | | | | | |
| Organellar ribosome | 22 | -0.69 | -1.56 | 0.035 | 1.000 |
| Mitochondrial ribosome | 22 | -0.69 | -1.56 | 0.035 | 0.571 |
| Early endosome | 15 | -0.74 | -1.53 | 0.012 | 0.582 |
| ER Golgi Intermediate compartment | 20 | -0.52 | -1.52 | 0.004 | 0.496 |
| Microtubule cytoskeleton | 101 | -0.41 | -1.51 | 0.025 | 0.397 |
| Ribosomal subunit | 20 | -0.66 | -1.51 | 0.076 | 0.332 |
| Intrinsic to endoplasmic reticulum membrane | 23 | -0.58 | -1.50 | 0.035 | 0.320 |
| Integral to endoplasmic reticulum membrane | 23 | -0.58 | -1.50 | 0.035 | 0.280 |
| Mitochondrial matrix | 44 | -0.55 | -1.49 | 0.066 | 0.289 |
| Mitochondrial lumen | 44 | -0.55 | -1.49 | 0.066 | 0.260 |
| Replication fork | 16 | -0.61 | -1.48 | 0.014 | 0.242 |
| Nuclear chromosome part | 25 | -0.55 | -1.48 | 0.036 | 0.223 |
| Golgi apparatus | 166 | -0.37 | -1.45 | 0.008 | 0.280 |

ES = Enrichment score, NES = normalised enrichment score, FDR = false discovery rate.

DISCUSSION

Previous works have tried to associate Se supplementation with molecular biomarkers of Se status in human studies, mainly transcripts of selenoproteins in white blood cells (PAGMANTIDIS et al., 2008; RAVN-HAREN et al., 2008a, 2008b; SUNDE et al., 2008). These studies were not able to find an association between plasma Se biomarkers and selenoprotein expression after Se supplementation, except for one study conducted with healthy adults in the UK, which could observe the up-regulation of some selenoprotein genes after Se supplementation (PAGMANTIDIS et al., 2008). The present work extends these earlier observations by investigating whether the response in pattern of blood cell gene expression to a natural source of Se *via* Brazil nuts is different depending upon the genetic background of individuals. To do this we used a transcriptomics approach and the present work is the first to use such an approach to investigate the response to Brazil nut supplementation based on genetic profile. This work demonstrated that three genetic variants in selenoprotein genes (*GPX1*_rs1050450, *SEPP1*_rs7579 and *GPX4*_rs713041) affect the response to supplementation with Brazil nuts at the transcriptional level. In addition, the effect of *GPX4*_rs713041 on the response in global gene expression profile after Brazil nut supplementation has not been observed before.

It was observed in the present work that the supplementation with one unit of Brazil nut for 8 weeks was sufficient to significantly increase *GPX1* mRNA expression in whole blood. This result was different from other three human studies which have tried to investigate if Se supplementation would have an effect on selenoprotein transcripts. A small study conducted in Denmark found no association of Se supplementation as Se-

enriched milk, yeast and selenate for 1 week and *GPXI* mRNA expression (RAVN-HAREN et al., 2008a). Accordingly, the 5-years PRECISE Danish study and a longitudinal study conducted in the UK also found no association (RAVN-HAREN et al., 2008b; SUNDE et al., 2008). Nevertheless, two studies are in agreement with our results. One study conducted with healthy adults in the UK observed that the supplementation with 100µg/d with sodium selenite for 6 weeks increased the expression of selenoprotein K (*SELK*) and selenoprotein 15 (*SEPI5*), showing that these selenoproteins are sensible to alterations of Se status (PAGMANTIDIS et al., 2008). The other study conducted with Alzheimer's patients also found an increase in *GPXI* mRNA expression after supplementation with 1 unit of Brazil nut for 6 months (CARDOSO et al., 2015a). A possible explanation for this variation in response to Se supplementation is the presence of genetic variants, which most of the aforementioned works have not considered. Other factors that could contribute to this variation are the chemical form of Se used in the supplements, the duration of the intervention and the baseline plasma Se levels of the participants.

Interestingly, the increase in *GPXI* mRNA expression observed in our study was different based on the presence of genetic polymorphisms. The increase on *GPXI* transcript was significant only for individuals with the common genotype CC. No difference was observed in T-carriers. This genetic variation was associated with increased *GPXI* mRNA expression in other Brazilian work conducted with Alzheimer's patients, but the authors found the increase in T-carriers instead of CC (CARDOSO et al., 2015a). Although some studies have investigated the association of this variation with differences on GPx1 activity (HAMANISHI et al., 2004; HANSEN et al., 2009; JABLONSKA et al., 2009), few studies

have associated this variation with *GPXI* gene expression. The only study available in humans was conducted with a different population from ours and maybe this could be influencing the opposite results. In our group of healthy individuals, there was strong linkage disequilibrium among rs1050450, rs3811699 and rs1800668 (see chapter 3). This indicates that these SNPs were linked, meaning that the presence of the variant allele for one SNP implicates in the presence of the variant allele of the other two polymorphisms. This linkage was also observed in a Japanese study conducted with type-2 diabetic patients, in which the combination of rs3811699 and rs1800668 were associated with a reduction of 25% in *GPXI* transcription (HAMANISHI et al., 2004). The T-carriers of rs1050450 were not responsive to the supplementation at the molecular level in our study. One possible explanation is that the presence of these three genetic variations is affecting the transcriptional process.

The presence of genetic variants also influenced *SEPPI* expression. Although the supplementation did not affect significantly *SEPPI* mRNA levels, the presence of rs7579 in the *SEPPI* gene affected transcript levels at baseline and after supplementation: A-carriers had higher *SEPPI* mRNA levels than GG (Figure 3C). Previous work with humans have not found an association between Se supplementation and *SEPPI* mRNA expression in white blood cells (RAVN-HAREN et al., 2008a; SUNDE et al., 2008). In rodents, *SEPPI* mRNA in liver was not affected by Se-deficient diet, however, upon repletion *SEPPI* transcript was the most abundant in liver (SUNDE et al., 2009). The lack of sensitivity of *SEPPI* to Se deficiency may be explained in part by the position of this protein into the hierarchy of selenoprotein expression, apparently in the middle. Therefore, under deficiency, the selenoproteins which are ranked low in hierarchy have their mRNA decreased, such as *GPXI*,

Our work also had the goal of determining if genetic variants would influence the pattern of gene expression in response to a natural source of Se, such as Brazil nuts. We have chosen the *GPX4_rs713041* to test this hypothesis, as there is evidence that this SNP is functional (BERMANO et al., 2007; CROSLLEY et al., 2013; MÉPLAN et al., 2008). The pattern of gene expression was obtained by using microarrays in samples previously genotyped for this SNP before and after supplementation with Brazil nuts. We observed that although not statistically significant, the heatmap and volcano plots suggest opposite response to Brazil nut supplementation based on genotype. To our knowledge, the association of *GPX4_rs713041* genotype with the profile of global gene expression has not been observed previously. Moreover, gene set enrichment analysis showed that the biological processes and cellular compartments altered by the supplementation were related to protein synthesis, mitochondria and endoplasmatic reticulum. This supports the findings of previous humans studies which used microarrays to investigate the effect of Se supplementation (HAWKES; RICHTER; ALKAN, 2013; PAGMANTIDIS et al., 2008). These studies observed that processes related to protein biosynthesis were up-regulated after Se supplementation. This could be explained by the molecular biosynthesis of selenoproteins, which needs the synthesis of a specific tRNA^{[Ser]Sec} for the aminoacid selenocysteine, inserted in the proteins during translation.

In conclusion, the present study has shown that supplementation with Brazil nuts alters the gene expression of some selenoproteins depending upon the presence of genetic polymorphisms. In addition, it has demonstrated that the use of microarrays to investigate the pattern of global gene expression in response to a nutritional intervention with nuts is feasible, and the genetic profile is an important source of inter-individual variation. This could be relevant to direct future nutritional interventions to the use of molecular and

biochemical biomarkers considering the interaction with the genetic variations. These three factors could help to elucidate the complex interaction of nutritional status and risk for chronic diseases.

Table S1. List of genes significantly different before and after supplementation in CC volunteers.

| symbol | description | logFC | adj.P.Val |
|---------------------|--|--------------|------------------|
| IL10 | interleukin 10 | -0,57556 | 0,0491 |
| MCM8 | minichromosome maintenance complex component 8 | -0,57277 | 0,0247 |
| PNPT1 | polyribonucleotide nucleotidyltransferase 1 | -0,53279 | 0,0476 |
| AOC4P | amine oxidase, copper containing 4, pseudogene | -0,53273 | 0,0093 |
| BLZF1 | basic leucine zipper nuclear factor 1 | -0,50503 | 0,0293 |
| NLRP8 | NLR family, pyrin domain containing 8 | -0,50329 | 0,0451 |
| DMC1 | DNA meiotic recombinase 1 | -0,49029 | 0,0350 |
| ALPP | alkaline phosphatase, placental | -0,47602 | 0,0369 |
| OCIAD1 | OCIA domain containing 1 | -0,47264 | 0,0093 |
| FLJ44124 | uncharacterized LOC641737 | -0,4528 | 0,0135 |
| LRRC37BP1 | leucine rich repeat containing 37B pseudogene 1 | -0,44844 | 0,0164 |
| ZNF682 | zinc finger protein 682 | -0,44794 | 0,0262 |
| SPTLC1 | serine palmitoyltransferase, long chain base subunit 1 | -0,44791 | 0,0160 |
| MCMDC2 | minichromosome maintenance domain containing 2 | -0,44679 | 0,0262 |
| DTWD2 | DTW domain containing 2 | -0,4332 | 0,0320 |
| FKBP14 | FK506 binding protein 14, 22 kDa | -0,42125 | 0,0093 |
| KIAA1751 | KIAA1751 | -0,41819 | 0,0093 |
| CATSPER2 | cation channel, sperm associated 2 | -0,40203 | 0,0093 |
| DUXAP3 | double homeobox A pseudogene 3 | -0,39173 | 0,0476 |
| LOC642947 | uncharacterized LOC642947 | -0,39115 | 0,0309 |
| C2orf69 | chromosome 2 open reading frame 69 | -0,38795 | 0,0247 |
| ZNF430 | zinc finger protein 430 | -0,38697 | 0,0480 |
| CRCP | CGRP receptor component | -0,38437 | 0,0142 |
| FAM175A | family with sequence similarity 175, member A | -0,37988 | 0,0135 |
| PDCD4 | programmed cell death 4 (neoplastic transformation inhibitor) | -0,37879 | 0,0491 |
| KCNH6 | potassium voltage-gated channel, subfamily H (eag-related), member 6 | -0,37532 | 0,0182 |
| ITPK1-AS1 | ITPK1 antisense RNA 1 | -0,36787 | 0,0101 |
| C8orf37 | chromosome 8 open reading frame 37 | -0,36656 | 0,0293 |
| YRDC | yrnC N(6)-threonylcarbamoyltransferase domain containing | -0,3648 | 0,0182 |
| DENR | density-regulated protein | -0,36069 | 0,0491 |
| ZNF14 | zinc finger protein 14 | -0,35848 | 0,0107 |
| CDKN2AIPNL | CDKN2A interacting protein N-terminal like | -0,35447 | 0,0247 |
| LOC100128288 | uncharacterized LOC100128288 | -0,34254 | 0,0164 |
| DDX51 | DEAD (Asp-Glu-Ala-Asp) box polypeptide 51 | -0,34074 | 0,0489 |
| SULT1A1 | sulfotransferase family, cytosolic, 1A, phenol-preferring, member 1 | -0,32622 | 0,0458 |
| LOC399900 | uncharacterized LOC399900 | -0,30826 | 0,0182 |
| C21orf58 | chromosome 21 open reading frame 58 | -0,30643 | 0,0369 |
| XRCC2 | X-ray repair complementing defective repair in Chinese hamster | -0,30183 | 0,0359 |

| cells 2 | | | |
|------------------|---|----------|--------|
| TMEM17 | transmembrane protein 17 | -0,29464 | 0,0247 |
| HNRNPA2B1 | heterogeneous nuclear ribonucleoprotein A2/B1 | -0,29352 | 0,0220 |
| BIRC3 | baculoviral IAP repeat containing 3 | -0,29167 | 0,0372 |
| RPS26P15 | ribosomal protein S26 pseudogene 15 | -0,291 | 0,0464 |
| ZRANB2 | zinc finger, RAN-binding domain containing 2 | -0,28891 | 0,0409 |
| BRD2 | bromodomain containing 2 | -0,28358 | 0,0449 |
| EXO5 | exonuclease 5 | -0,28214 | 0,0182 |
| EID2B | EP300 interacting inhibitor of differentiation 2B | -0,28175 | 0,0319 |
| SF3B1 | splicing factor 3b, subunit 1, 155kDa | -0,27945 | 0,0262 |
| ZNF549 | zinc finger protein 549 | -0,27897 | 0,0186 |
| FLI1 | Fli-1 proto-oncogene, ETS transcription factor | -0,2741 | 0,0319 |
| EIF4G2 | eukaryotic translation initiation factor 4 gamma, 2 | -0,27113 | 0,0483 |
| CCBE1 | collagen and calcium binding EGF domains 1 | -0,26877 | 0,0274 |
| NBPF11 | neuroblastoma breakpoint family, member 11 | -0,26615 | 0,0295 |
| ANXA1 | annexin A1 | -0,26584 | 0,0448 |
| TP53BP2 | tumor protein p53 binding protein, 2 | 0,263575 | 0,0409 |
| ROPN1B | rhophilin associated tail protein 1B | 0,274406 | 0,0161 |
| FTL | ferritin, light polypeptide | 0,276674 | 0,0182 |
| COX6B1 | cytochrome c oxidase subunit VIb polypeptide 1 (ubiquitous) | 0,277768 | 0,0441 |
| HBB | hemoglobin, beta | 0,279192 | 0,0448 |
| FTL | ferritin, light polypeptide | 0,279251 | 0,0182 |
| AP2S1 | adaptor-related protein complex 2, sigma 1 subunit | 0,279503 | 0,0135 |
| HBG2 | hemoglobin, gamma G | 0,285092 | 0,0446 |
| RPS27 | ribosomal protein S27 | 0,285828 | 0,0160 |
| HBA1 | hemoglobin, alpha 1 | 0,291537 | 0,0203 |
| DPYSL5 | dihydropyrimidinase-like 5 | 0,292535 | 0,0419 |
| BABAM1 | BRISC and BRCA1 A complex member 1 | 0,294191 | 0,0449 |
| RPLP2 | ribosomal protein, large, P2 | 0,298868 | 0,0247 |
| UBB | ubiquitin B | 0,299241 | 0,0130 |
| HBA2 | hemoglobin, alpha 2 | 0,301329 | 0,0186 |
| HBA2 | hemoglobin, alpha 2 | 0,303268 | 0,0335 |
| GYPC | glycophorin C (Gerbich blood group) | 0,309872 | 0,0160 |
| DENND6B | DENN/MADD domain containing 6B | 0,311742 | 0,0309 |
| PSMF1 | proteasome (prosome, macropain) inhibitor subunit 1 (PI31) | 0,316729 | 0,0388 |
| SPRYD3 | SPRY domain containing 3 | 0,333429 | 0,0182 |
| RBM38 | RNA binding motif protein 38 | 0,337281 | 0,0131 |
| SEMA6B | sema domain, transmembrane domain (TM), and cytoplasmic domain, (semaphorin) 6B | 0,340984 | 0,0320 |
| NFKBIA | nuclear factor of kappa light polypeptide gene enhancer in B-cells inhibitor, alpha | 0,349092 | 0,0107 |
| MPP1 | membrane protein, palmitoylated 1, 55kDa | 0,35203 | 0,0466 |
| GUK1 | guanylate kinase 1 | 0,356251 | 0,0093 |
| ALAS2 | aminolevulinate, delta-, synthase 2 | 0,366856 | 0,0369 |

| | | | |
|-----------------|---|----------|--------|
| SLC6A10P | solute carrier family 6 (neurotransmitter transporter), member 10, pseudogene | 0,367952 | 0,0476 |
| GPX1 | glutathione peroxidase 1 | 0,373893 | 0,0483 |
| CLUAP1 | clusterin associated protein 1 | 0,380028 | 0,0164 |
| MYL4 | myosin, light chain 4, alkali; atrial, embryonic | 0,380605 | 0,0186 |
| MUC6 | mucin 6, oligomeric mucus/gel-forming | 0,381097 | 0,0228 |
| AHSP | alpha hemoglobin stabilizing protein | 0,400277 | 0,0164 |
| FIS1 | fission 1 (mitochondrial outer membrane) homolog (<i>S. cerevisiae</i>) | 0,401752 | 0,0422 |
| GSPT1 | G1 to S phase transition 1 | 0,403064 | 0,0262 |
| DMTN | dematin actin binding protein | 0,404564 | 0,0135 |
| GUCD1 | guanylyl cyclase domain containing 1 | 0,413719 | 0,0203 |
| GMPR | guanosine monophosphate reductase | 0,416145 | 0,0495 |
| HBM | hemoglobin, mu | 0,420055 | 0,0135 |
| FOXO4 | forkhead box O4 | 0,431478 | 0,0444 |
| SLC25A39 | solute carrier family 25, member 39 | 0,437888 | 0,0168 |
| HBD | hemoglobin, delta | 0,440986 | 0,0194 |
| TESC | tescalcin | 0,441821 | 0,0101 |
| SERF2 | small EDRK-rich factor 2 | 0,442123 | 0,0093 |
| GLRX5 | glutaredoxin 5 | 0,451635 | 0,0466 |
| LYL1 | lymphoblastic leukemia associated hematopoiesis regulator 1 | 0,45735 | 0,0160 |
| GYPC | glycophorin C (Gerbich blood group) | 0,461942 | 0,0101 |
| VWCE | von Willebrand factor C and EGF domains | 0,463549 | 0,0130 |
| HBQ1 | hemoglobin, theta 1 | 0,466787 | 0,0093 |
| TSPAN5 | tetraspanin 5 | 0,477096 | 0,0203 |
| BSG | basigin (Ok blood group) | 0,478764 | 0,0101 |
| HAGH | hydroxyacylglutathione hydrolase | 0,502051 | 0,0262 |
| ALAS2 | aminolevulinate, delta-, synthase 2 | 0,508163 | 0,0093 |
| RBM38 | RNA binding motif protein 38 | 0,514278 | 0,0093 |
| CARM1 | coactivator-associated arginine methyltransferase 1 | 0,525426 | 0,0229 |
| UBXN6 | UBX domain protein 6 | 0,552289 | 0,0186 |
| ASCC2 | activating signal cointegrator 1 complex subunit 2 | 0,561756 | 0,0135 |

Table S2. List of genes significantly different after supplementation between CC and TT volunteers.

| symbol | description | logFC | adj.P.Val |
|----------------|--|--------------|------------------|
| ASAP1 | ArfGAP with SH3 domain, ankyrin repeat and PH domain 1 | 0,5082 | 0,0456 |
| BOLA2 | bolA family member 2 | 0,2795 | 0,0277 |
| COL18A1 | collagen, type XVIII, alpha 1 | -0,3679 | 0,0357 |
| CDK13 | cyclin-dependent kinase 13 | 0,4788 | 0,0488 |
| FAM78A | family with sequence similarity 78, member A | -0,4020 | 0,0277 |
| IARS | isoleucyl-tRNA synthetase | -0,2821 | 0,0467 |
| MMGT1 | membrane magnesium transporter 1 | 0,3563 | 0,0269 |
| MRPL46 | mitochondrial ribosomal protein L46 | 0,4668 | 0,0456 |
| MOB1A | MOB kinase activator 1A | 0,4619 | 0,0467 |
| MOB1B | MOB kinase activator 1B | 0,3099 | 0,0456 |
| RALY | RALY heterogeneous nuclear ribonucleoprotein | -0,2750 | 0,0456 |
| TOM1L2 | target of myb1-like 2 (chicken) | -0,4182 | 0,0357 |

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