A high-protein soybean cultivar contains lower isoflavones and saponins but higher minerals and bioactive peptides than a low-protein cultivar

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A R T I C L E   I N F O

Article history:
Received 11 June 2009
Received in revised form 4 September 2009
Accepted 16 September 2009

Keywords:
Soybean
Bioactive compounds
Lunasin
BBI
Lectins
Saponins
Isoflavones
Chemical score

A B S T R A C T

Soybean is a major source of protein and other nutrients and non-nutrient bioactives for human health. The objective was to compare the bioactive compounds of a low-protein (BRS 133) soybean in comparison to a high-protein (BRS 258) soybean cultivar. The high-protein soybean contained 17% lower carbohydrates and a lower chemical score (63) in relation to the low-protein soybean, which had a higher chemical score (76), associated with the higher methionine content (1.2%). Cultivar BRS 258 had more calcium (15.5%), phosphorus (30.1%), iron (18.7%), copper (9.0%) and zinc (11.5%), and a higher concentrations of lunasin, BBI and lectin (20.3%, 19.0% and 27.1%, respectively) than the low-protein cultivar. BRS 133 had 75.4% higher concentration of total isoflavones (5.1% of total aglycones) and 31.0% total saponins, as compared to BRS 258. It was concluded that the low-protein soybean cultivar contained higher isoflavones and saponins, but lower levels of minerals and bioactive peptides, such as lunasin.

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1. Introduction

Soybean (Glycine max L. Merrill) is a legume that is consumed worldwide. Recently, soybean foods have generated interest because of their reported beneficial effects on nutrition and health. Studies have shown that Asian populations habitually consuming soybean products have a lower risk of osteoporosis and some chronic diseases, most notably heart disease and cancer (McCue & Shetty, 2004).

Bioactive compounds present in legumes vary greatly with the plant species, cultivar, weather and geographical sowing location. Soybean is a complex food matrix containing low or no starch, about 20% oil and 40% high-quality protein (Liu, 1997), in addition to several important bioactive compounds, including lunasin, trypsin inhibitors, isoflavones, and saponins. Lunasin is a unique 43 amino acid novel cancer preventive peptide originally isolated from soy (de Lumen, 2005; Gonzalez de Mejia, Vasconez, deLumen, & Nelson, 2004). Bowman–Birk inhibitor (BBI) is a 71 amino acid peptide with seven disulphide bonds, which stabilize an active configuration, and has a double head with the chymotrypsin inhibitor domain and the trypsin reactive site (Birk, 1985). Soybean lectin has both anti-nutritional and anti-carcinogenic properties (Gonzalez de Mejia & Prisecaru, 2005; Vasconez-Costa, 2004). Lectins accumulate in protein storage vacuoles of the cotyledons and are degraded during seed germination and maturation (Pusztai, 1991). Lipids are an important source of the compounds responsible for flavour in soybean products. Soybean seeds are a major source of isoflavones including genistein, daidzein and glycitein and their corresponding glycosides genistin, daidzin and glycitin, as well as their malonyl and acetyl conjugates (Anderson & Wolf, 1995). The isoflavone glycosides are present primarily as β-o-glucosides and a portion of the glucosides are substituted on the C-6 hydroxyl of the glucose by a malonyl group, especially in the seed hypocotyls (Anderson & Wolf, 1995). Research concerning soybean isoflavones has revealed their protective effect in health associated...
with menopause, cancer and cardiovascular disease. Some other health benefits are under investigation (McCue & Shetty, 2004). During processing, some loss and/or shifting of the distribution profile of isoflavones may occur (Mandarino, Carrão-Panizzi, & Oliveira, 1992). The main isoflavones found in unprocessed soy flour, malonylgenistin, genistin, malonyldaidzin and daidzin, are converted into their aglycones and acetylglycoside forms. Saponins are plant terpenoids which are conjugated to two or more sugar molecules in soy. On the basis of their aglycone structures, the saponins present in the mature bean have been divided into group B and group A soy saponins (Berhow, Kong, Vermillion, & Duval, 2006). Group B soy saponins appear to exist in the intact seed tissue as conjugates of 2,3-dihydro-2,5-dihydroxy-6-methyl-4H-pyran-4-one (DDMP), at the 2-hydroxyl position (Kuduo et al., 1993). The DDMP conjugates are relatively labile and are easily degraded, most likely resulting in the formation of the non-DDMP group B soy saponins. The other forms of the group B soy saponins arise from alternate sugars attached to the 3-hydroxyl position of the aglycone. The group A soy saponins are didemissodic with alternate sugar conjugation in both sets of oligosaccharides attached to the aglycone at the 3- and 21-hydroxyl positions (Shiraiwa, Kudo, Shimoyama, Harada, & Okubo, 1991).

Based on the available scientific evidence, the Food and Drug Administration (FDA) has allowed a health claim (FDA, 2002). The beneficial effect is attributed to the protein fraction and a minimum daily intake of 25 g of soy protein should be necessary for the health effect to be significant (Messina & Erdman, 2005).

The objective of this study was to compare the relative content of a low-protein and a high-protein soybean from Brazilian cultivars on their nutrients, bioactive compounds (isoflavones and saponins).

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Materials

The breeding programs of Embrapa Soybean, Brazil has developed the conventional low-protein cultivar (BRS 133) and the high-protein (BRS 258) cultivars aimed to meet consumer needs (EMBRAPA, 2008). BRS 133 was produced in the region of Ponta Grossa, while cultivar BRS 258 was produced in the region of Gualapuva. Both regions are in Paraná State, Brazil, and were provided by Embrapa Transferência de Tecnologia, Brazil.

Immunofinity purified lunasin (98%) from soy and mouse monoclonal antibody against the lunasin epitope–EKHME-KIQGRGDDDDD were provided by Dr. Ben O. de Lumen, of the University of California at Berkeley, USA. Purified groups A and B soy saponins were prepared in the Peoria laboratory (USDA) (Berhow et al., 2006).

The primary polyclonal antibody specific for lectin from soybean was provided by Dr. Theodore Hymowitz from the Department of Crop Sciences, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, IL, USA. The lectin anti-serum was obtained at his laboratory by immunizing young male New Zealand white rabbits with 5 mL subcutaneous injections of an emulsion containing 5 mg of pure lectin, 1 mL of distilled water and 1 mL of Freund’s complete adjuvant. Six weeks after the first immunization, rabbits showing response to the antibodies (measured 20 days after the first injection) were injected again with a similar dose of lectin and bled two weeks later.

The beans were sanitized for 10 min with a sodium hypochlorite solution (100 mg/L) and immediately washed three times with distilled water. The sanitized grains were frozen at −30 °C for 4 h, freeze-dried and milled to produce soybean flour. Whole soy flour were obtained in a refrigerated hammer mill, model 680 from Marconi (Piracicaba, Brazil), and the powders stored at 7 °C, conditioned in air-tight glass.

2.2. Determination of the weight of 1000 soybean seeds

The weight of 1000 seeds was determined by weighing eight replicates of 100 seeds each (BRASIL, 1992).

2.3. Proximate composition

Moisture, total proteins and ash of the whole flour (WSF) were determined by the AACC (1995) procedures 44–15, 46–13 and 08–12, respectively. The conversion factor 5.71 for protein was used. Lipids, total sugars and starch were determined according to the methods of the Adolfo Lutz Institute (Instituto Adolfo Lutz, 1985). Total carbohydrates, including total fibre, were determined by difference. Dietary, soluble and insoluble fibres were determined following the AOAC (1997) procedure 991.43. Metabolizable energy of the flours was estimated by multiplying the protein and carbohydrate contents by 4 kcal per gram and fat by the factor of 9 kcal per gram.

2.4. Physical and physicochemical characteristics

Colour was determined by means of a Color Quest II Hunterlab instrument (Reston, VA), determining the components L* (lightness), a* (green –/red +) and b* (blue –/yellow +), according to the CIE-L*a*b* system. The chroma (C*) and hue angle (h°) values were calculated as described by Minolta. The color value was calculated as shown in Eq. (1), and the saturation angle as shown in Eq. (2).

\[
\text{Chroma (C*)} = [(a^*)^2 + (b^*)^2]^{1/2}
\]

\[
\text{h°} = \tan^{-1}(b^*/a^*)
\]

Particle size was determined in a Granutest, Model 295, instrument, according to procedure 965.22 of the AOAC (1997).

For pH, procedure 943.02 of the AOAC (1997) was followed and the water activity was determined in triplicate using an Aquatrol, series 3, Model TE equipment.

2.5. Fatty acid composition

The procedure of Hartman and Lago (1973) was followed for the esterification step and gas chromatography (Agilent 6850 series GC System, Santa Clara, CA, USA) for the analysis of the fatty acid methyl esters, using a capillary column (Agilent DB-23; 50% cyanopropyl-methylpoly-siloxane: 60 m x 0.25 mm). Instrument operating conditions were: detector temperature (280 °C), injector temperature (250 °C), oven temperature (110 °C) for the first 5 min, followed by increases of 5 °C/min to reach 215 °C and holding the temperature at 215 °C for 24 min. Helium was used as carrier gas, and the injection volume was 1.0 µL split 1:50.

The iodine index was determined according to procedure Cd 1d-92 of the AOCS (2002), and the saponification index according to procedure Cd 1c-85, of the AOCS (2002) and calculated on the basis of the fatty acid composition.

2.6. Minerals

Duplicate samples were calcinated at 500 °C to determine the dry ash content. Calcium and microelements were determined by atomic absorption spectrometry, according to procedure 968.08 of the AOAC (AOAC, 1997) in Metrolab equipment, Model 250. Phosphorus was determined by spectrophotometry in UV Hitachi U-2000 equipment.
2.7. Total and free amino acid composition

After a 24 h hydrolysis in 6 M HCl at 100 ºC, the amino acids were reacted with phenylisothiocyanate (White, Hart, & Fry, 1986) and the derivatives separated using a Luna C-18, 100 Å column, at 50 ºC. Quantification was carried out by comparison with a standard mixture (Thermo Scientific, Rockford IL, USA) and DL-2-aminobutyric acid was used as an internal standard with a standard mixture (Thermo Scientific, Rockford IL, USA) for 1 h, followed by centrifugation at 8500g for 15 min. The supernatant was filtered through a 0.22 mm membrane and a 40 µL aliquot derivatized as described above, for the injection of 20 µL into the HPLC.

2.8. Protein extraction

The protein extraction procedure consisted in placing 50 mg of soybean flour and 1 mL of the extracting buffer (0.05 M Tris–HCl pH 8.2) in an Eppendorf tube. After mixing, the samples were placed in an ultrasonic bath (Branson Ultrasonic Corporation, Danbury, CT) for 70 min, mixing them at every 10 min to avoid settlement. The water temperature was adjusted to 40 ºC using a recirculation bath (Endocal model RTE-9, Neslab Instruments, Portsmouth, NH). Following extraction, the samples were centrifuged at 20,000 g for 30 min at 8 ºC in an Eppendorf centrifuge (Brinkmann Instruments, model 5417R, Westbury, NY), and the obtained supernatant was transferred to a new Eppendorf tube. All samples were kept at –80 ºC until analysis.

2.9. Determination of soluble protein concentration by DC assay

The protein concentration was determined using the Bio-Rad DC Microplate Assay Protocol (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Hercules, CA). Briefly, 5 µL of samples (1:20 dilution) were placed in a 96-well plate and treated with 25 µL of reagent A (alkaline copper tartrate solution) and 200 µL of reagent B (dilute Folin reagent) (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Hercules, CA). The plate was gently agitated and incubated for 15 min at room temperature. After incubation, the absorbance was measured at 630 nm. The protein concentration was calculated using pure bovine serum albumin standard curve (y = 0.0002x – 0.0021, R² = 0.997).

2.10. Enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) for lunasin and BBI

Lunasin concentration in soy flour was determined by ELISA (Gonzalez de Mejia et al., 2004) with the following modifications: 100 µL of protein extracts (1:5000 dilution) were placed in a 96-well plate and stored overnight (14 h). Lunasin mouse monoclonal antibody (1:4000 dilution) was used as first antibody and anti-mouse IgG alkaline phosphatase conjugate (1:7000) from Sigma–Aldrich Corp., St. Louis, MO as the secondary antibody. The reaction was stopped adding 25 µL of NaOH (3 M) at 30 min and the absorbance read at 405 nm after 35 min. Standard curves were determined using purified lunasin (y = 0.0054x + 0.001, R² = 0.993) and purified BBI (y = 0.0108x + 0.0465, R² = 0.998).

2.11. Western blot procedures

Identity of lunasin was established by Western blot analysis in protein extracts of soybean flour. Samples were centrifuged (20,000 g) at 8 ºC to eliminate any precipitate. Unstained gels were soaked in 20 mL of blocking buffer (20% methanol, 80% Tris-glycine SDS) for 15 min. A Western blot sandwich was assembled by the following order: a sponge, filter, gel, polyvinylidene difluoride (PVDF) membrane Immobilon® (Millipore Corporation, Billerica, MA, USA), and another filter and sponge, being careful to avoid formation of bubbles, and then developed for 1 h at 110 V at 4 ºC. After the complete transfer membrane was then saturated by incubation in 5% nonfat dry milk (NFDM) in 0.1% TBST (0.1% Tween 20 in Tris-Buffered saline) buffer for 1 h at 4 ºC, and washed three times for 5 min with fresh changes of 0.01% TBST. The washed gel was incubated with lunasin mouse monoclonal antibody (1/1000 dilution) prepared in 1% NFDM and TBST buffer for 16 h at 4 ºC. After washing the incubated membrane, the membrane Immobilon TM-FL (Millipore Corporation, Billerica, MA, USA) was incubated with anti-mouse IgG alkaline phosphatase conjugate (1/10,000 dilution) prepared in 1% NFDM in TBST buffer for 3 h at room temperature. The membrane was prepared for detection using chemiluminescent reagent, 500 µL of solution A and 500 µL of solution B (Lumigen TM, GE Healthcare, Buckinghamshire, UK).

2.12. Enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) for lectin

Lectin concentration in soy flour was determined by ELISA (Vasconez-Costa, 2004) with the following modifications. One hundred microliters of protein extracts (1:10,000 dilution) were placed in a 96-well plate. Lectin mouse polyclonal antibody (1:500 dilution) was used as the first antibody, and anti-rabbit IgG alkaline phosphatase conjugate (1/10,000 dilution) prepared in 1% NFDM in TBST buffer for 3 h at room temperature. The membrane was prepared for detection using chemiluminescent reagent, 500 µL of solution A and 500 µL of solution B (Lumigen TM, GE Healthcare, Buckinghamshire, UK).

2.13. Isoflavone determination by HPLC

Quantitative analysis of isoflavones was carried out according to Berhow (2002). Approximately 250 mg defatted soybean flour were extracted in test tubes with 3.0 mL of dimethyl sulfoxide/methanol (1:4, v/v) placed in sealed containers and heated at 50 ºC for 18 h. The extracts were centrifuged and the supernatants were filtered using 0.45 µm filters. For isoflavone quantification 20 µL aliquots of the extracts were injected into a Shimadzu (Columbia, MD, USA) HPLC system (LC-10AT VP) equipped with a SPD-M10A VP photodiode array detector (CTO-10AS VP, providers, Columbia, MD, USA) an oven column to maintain temperature at 40 ºC, all operating under the Class VP software. Isoflavone separation was carried out in a C18 reverse-phase column YMC – Pack ODS-AM 303, 250 mm × 4.6 mm and 5 µm particle size (YMC Inc., Wilmington, NC, USA). The initial gradient conditions consisted of 100% H₂O containing 0.025% trifluoroacetic acid (TFA), and 0% acetonitrile, to 45% H₂O and 55% acetonitrile, over 25 min with a flow rate of 1 mL/min. Isoflavones were detected at 260 nm and quantified by comparison with standard curves of genistin, daidzin and glycine. The concentrations of the malonyl-glucosides and aglycones were calculated from standard curves of their corresponding β-glucosides, using the similarity of the molar extinction coefficients of malonyl-isoflavones and β-glucosides.
Isoflavone concentrations were expressed in mg/100 g of defatted samples.

2.14. Saponin determination by HPLC

Saponins from the soybean flour were extracted with dimethyl sulphoxide/methanol (1:1, v/v) solution at room temperature for 4 h, followed by a 15 min sonication at 50 °C and another 2 h extraction at room temperature. The extracts were then filtered through a 0.45 μm nylon filter. HPLC analysis was carried out on a Hewlett–Packard Series 1100 HPLC system (G1311A pump, G1322A degasser, G1313A auto injector, G1314A variable wavelength detector, and G1316A column oven) equipped with an Inertsil ODS-3 reverse-phase C-18 column (250 mm × 4.6 mm ID) and particle size of 5 μm, with a metaguard column (Varian, Torrance, CA, USA) and a G1316A column oven. The system was controlled by HPChem Station version A.06.01. For saponin analysis, a linear water–acetonitrile gradient from 30% to 50% in 45 min was used, with 0.025% TFA added to both solvents. The flow rate was 1 mL/min and the effluent was monitored at 210 nm. Saponin concentrations were calculated by using standard curves prepared from a standardised mix of B group saponins prepared in the Peoria laboratory. The nanomolar extinction coefficient for soy saponin I, was used to quantify the remaining B group saponins, the A group saponins, and the DMPP (1,1-dimethyl-4-phenylpiperazinium) was used to quantitate the remaining B group saponins. Identification of saponin peaks was confirmed by comparison of standards and/or LC–MS analysis (Berhow et al., 2006).

2.15. Statistical analysis

The data were submitted to analysis of variance by the SAS program, and the means of three replicates (unless otherwise stated) compared by the Tukey test, adopting the standard criterion of significance p ≤ 0.05.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Proximate composition

Cultivars BRS 133 and BRS 258 differed significantly in terms of size and weight. The weights of 1000 seeds were 129 and 227 g, respectively.

Proximate composition and the physicochemical characteristics of both cultivars are shown in Table 1. As expected, the remarkable difference in protein concentration was reflected in their carbohydrate concentration in agreement with previous publications (Mandarino et al., 1992; Viera, Cabral, & Oliveira de Paula, 1999). As pointed out by Morais and Silva (2000), although all oligosaccharides and disaccharides from soybean are fermentable, the 1–2% of raffinose and 3.5–4.5% of stachyose have an important bifidogenic role in the human intestine. In spite of the exact significance of soybean fibre in reducing the risk of colon cancer, and cardiovascular diseases not being completely elucidated, the potential health benefits of this fraction should not be neglected. Soybean hulls contain about 87% total fibre, made up mainly of cellulose, hemicellulose, lignin and uronic acids. The values found in this study were similar to those reported by Toledo, Brazaga, Arthur, and Piedade (2007) for various soybean cultivars.

3.2. Instrumental colour of the flours

The values found for the L* parameter of the whole flours were 84.58 for cultivar BRS 133 and 81.37 for cultivar BRS 258. Such high values indicated that both cultivars can produce light-coloured flours. The chrome parameter C*, in turn, indicated that cultivar BRS 258 had a higher degree of saturation (22.89), than BRS 133. Considering the h* parameter, the values found were 89.41 and 87.49 for BRS 133 and BRS 258, respectively. It could be stated therefore that the flours of both cultivars are of a rather intense and light yellow colour.

3.3. Particle size

The particle size analysis revealed that, despite the differing composition of both cultivars, grains in both cultivars have similar matrix structures. Approximately 90% of the mass of the meals produced was retained within screens 28, 35 and 60 mesh. The remaining 10% present particle size was lower than 80 mesh.

3.4. Fatty acid composition and minerals

Fatty acid composition is shown in Table 2. A high content, about 80%, of unsaturated fatty acids, with linoleic acid (cis 18:2) being the predominant fatty acid (~56%), followed by oleic acid (~17%) was observed. The most abundant saturated fatty acid in both cultivars was palmitic acid (~11%). Between 1% and 3% of the oil was unsaponifiable material, such as steroids (stigmasterol, kaempsterol and sitosterol), tocopherols and provitamin-A carotenoids (Pereira & Oliveira, 2004). The elevated iodine value, between 134 and 136 g/100 g, indicates the high degree of unsaturation. These results show that there was a statistical difference in fatty acid distribution, mainly linolenic and oleic acids, between low and high-protein cultivars.

Minerals composition of cultivars BRS 133 and BRS 258, is shown in Table 2. Cultivar BRS 258 had a higher concentration of both macro- and microminerals as compared to BRS 133. The values reported in our study are comparable to those observed by Mandarino et al. (1992) for soybean produced in different locations.
Calcium and phosphorus have high relevance in human nutrition. Calcium bioavailability from soy milk (22.2%) has been estimated to be 90% of that from cow’s milk. As far as phosphorus, main forms in soybean are phytic acid, inorganic phosphates, phospholipids and nucleic acids. Phytic acid may account for 50–70% and phospholipids for about 15% of the total amount (Mandarino et al., 1992).

3.5. Amino acid composition

The total amino acid composition of a food protein, particularly of the essential amino acids, has classically been considered a measure of its biological adequacy. The total amino acid composition of both cultivars is presented in Table 3. These values are compared to the official amino acid profile of an ideal protein as established by WHO-FAO-UNU (2007). There was no significant difference between the two cultivars; however, the chemical score for the two soybean cultivars was different (p < 0.05). This is explained by the higher methionine concentration of the low-protein cultivar.

Although the total free amino acids percentage (Table 3) was very similar, cultivar BRS 133 showed a significantly higher concentration of free amino acids than cultivar BRS 258 except for histidine, aspartic and glutamic acids, and hydroxyproline.

3.6. Bioactive compounds

The results for the functional compounds lunasin, BBI and lectin are reported in Table 4. The quantified lunasin was further identified and confirmed in a band (5.45 kDa) by Western blot analysis. Lunasin concentration was within the ranges for different soybean genotypes reported by Gonzalez de Mejia et al. (2004). Although there was no statistical difference in soluble protein concentration between the two cultivars, the concentrations of lunasin, BBI and lectin in cultivar BRS 258 were statistically higher (p < 0.05) than in the low-protein BRS 133 cultivar.

### Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fatty acid composition and minerals of soybean cultivars BRS 133 and BRS 258. A</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cultivar</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fatty acid (%)</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(C14:0) myristic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(C16:0) palmitic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(C16:1) palmitoleic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(C18:0) stearic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(C18:1 cis) oleic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(C18:2 cis) linoleic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(C18:3 cis) linolenic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(C20:0) araquidic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saturated FA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monounsaturated FA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Polyunsaturated FA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Calculated iodine index (g/100 g)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Calculated saponification index</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Minerals (mg/100 g, dry basis)</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Macroelements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Calcium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phosphorus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Microelements</td>
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<tr>
<td>Iron</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Copper</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zinc</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A Means (three replicates ± SE) with different superscript letters in the same row are significantly different (p < 0.05).

### Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total and free amino acid composition of the whole flours of the soybean cultivars BRS133 and BRS 258, compared with the WHO/FAO/UNU standard (2007). A</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Amino acid (g/100 g of protein, dry basis)</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Histidine (Hys)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Isoleucine (Ile)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leucine (Leu)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lysine (Lys)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Methionine (Met)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Cysteine (Cys)</td>
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<td>Phenylalanine (Phe)</td>
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<td>Tyrosine (Tyr)</td>
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<td>Threonine (Thr)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Tryptophan (Trp)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Valine (Val)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total amino acid essential</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arginine (Arg)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alanine (Ala)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aspartic acid (Asp)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proline (Pro)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Serine (Ser)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total amino acid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sulfur amino acids (Met + Cys)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aromatic (Phe + Tyr)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total free amino acid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sulfur amino acids (Met + Cys)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aromatic (Phe + Tyr)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chemical score</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A Means (two duplicates ± SE) with different superscript letters in the same row are significantly different (p < 0.05).
and acetylglycitin) were not found.

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protein soybean cultivar (BRS 258). This was probably due to an

composition in spite of the fact that the low-protein soybean culti-

tion of the grain. The higher protein concentration of cultivar BRS 258 seemed

bioactive compounds as a result of a different protein concentra-

tion. The higher protein concentration of cultivar BRS 258 seemed to have occurred mostly at the expense of the carbohydrate frac-

tion. The higher protein concentration of cultivar BRS 258 seemed

Table 4
Bioactive compounds of soybean cultivars BRS 133 and BRS 258. A

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Analyse</th>
<th>Cultivar</th>
<th>BRS 133</th>
<th>BRS 258</th>
<th>BRS 133</th>
<th>BRS 258</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Soluble protein (mg/g flour)</td>
<td></td>
<td>248.13 ± 2.21a</td>
<td>244.19 ± 2.02a</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bioactive compounds (mg/g soluble protein)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lunasin</td>
<td></td>
<td>12.29 ± 0.5b</td>
<td>14.78 ± 0.13a</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BBI</td>
<td></td>
<td>23.62 ± 0.36b</td>
<td>28.11 ± 0.74a</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lectin</td>
<td></td>
<td>16.96 ± 0.72b</td>
<td>23.28 ± 0.14a</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bioactive compounds (mg/g flour)</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Lunasin</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.05 ± 0.14b</td>
<td>3.61 ± 0.28a</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BBI</td>
<td></td>
<td>5.86 ± 0.33b</td>
<td>6.86 ± 0.42a</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lectin</td>
<td></td>
<td>4.21 ± 0.17b</td>
<td>5.68 ± 0.03a</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A Means (three replicates ± SE) with different superscript letters in the same row are significantly different (p < 0.05).

3.7. Isoflavone concentration

The outstanding difference between the two cultivars was that
cultivar BRS 133 contained a greater concentration of total isoflav-
one (390.00 mg/100 g of defatted flour), in comparison to

Table 5
Mean isoflavone concentrations of soybean cultivars BRS 133 and BRS 258. A

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Isoflavones (mg/100 g defatted flour, dry basis)</th>
<th>Cultivar</th>
<th>BRS 133</th>
<th>BRS 258</th>
<th>BRS 133</th>
<th>BRS 258</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Aglycones</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daidzein</td>
<td></td>
<td>10.98 ± 0.10a</td>
<td>7.69 ± 0.04b</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genistein</td>
<td></td>
<td>14.40 ± 0.02b</td>
<td>15.41 ± 0.05a</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Glycitin</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.31 ± 0.05b</td>
<td>2.30 ± 0.06a</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>β-glucosides</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daidzin</td>
<td></td>
<td>42.46 ± 0.02a</td>
<td>14.71 ± 0.04b</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genistin</td>
<td></td>
<td>36.12 ± 0.10a</td>
<td>23.09 ± 0.06b</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Glycitrin</td>
<td></td>
<td>10.40 ± 0.04a</td>
<td>6.02 ± 0.02b</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malonylglycitins</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malonyldaidzin</td>
<td></td>
<td>131.62 ± 0.06a</td>
<td>57.56 ± 0.03b</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Malonylgenistin</td>
<td></td>
<td>100.75 ± 0.10a</td>
<td>72.96 ± 0.02b</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Malonylglycitin</td>
<td></td>
<td>41.96 ± 0.04a</td>
<td>22.64 ± 0.04a</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total aglycones</td>
<td></td>
<td>26.69 ± 0.07a</td>
<td>25.40 ± 0.05b</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total isoﬂavones</td>
<td></td>
<td>390.00 ± 0.10a</td>
<td>222.37 ± 0.09b</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A Means (two duplicates ± SE) with different superscript letters in the same row are significantly different (p < 0.05). Acetylglucosides (acetyldaidzin, acetylgenistin and acetylglycitin) were not found.

3.8. Saponin concentration

As with the isoflavones, cultivar BRS 133 contained a higher concentration of total saponins, 9.7 mg/g of defatted soy flour, as opposed to 7.4 found in the cultivar BRS 258 (Table 6).

In summary, the comprehensive chemical characterisation
gathered for these two Brazilian soybean cultivars permits to con-
clude that a distinctive pattern emerges for some nutrients and bioactive compounds as a result of a different protein concentra-
tion. The higher protein concentration of cultivar BRS 258 seemed to have occurred mostly at the expense of the carbohydrate frac-
tion of the grain.

Both cultivars exhibited expected total and free amino acid
composition in spite of the fact that the low-protein soybean culti-
var (BRS 133) had a higher amino acid score (76) than the high-
protein soybean cultivar (BRS 258). This was probably due to an

unknown identity of storage protein fraction low in methionine, which
may be responsible for the extra protein of the protein richer grain.
Since both cultivars were produced in Paraná State – Brazil and un-
der similar cultivation techniques, the concentration of minerals,
ranging from 9% to 30% higher in the cultivar BRS 258 in relation
to cultivar BRS 133, could be directly related to the protein deposi-
tion in the seed. A similar physiological mechanism could explain
the higher concentrations of the proteinaceous components lun-
asin, Bowman–Birk inhibitor and lectin in cultivar BRS 258.

On the other hand, the nearly 75.4% higher total isoﬂavone con-
centration of the low–protein cultivar BRS 133, with 5.1% more
aglycones, was rather unexpected. Analogously, the non-protei-
neous total soy saponins were about 31.0% higher in this cultivar as
compared to the protein–rich cultivar (BRS 258).

Thus, protein concentration affected the final distribution of
nutrients and bioactive components in soybean.

Acknowledgements

The authors wish to thank CAPES-PUCF for the scholarship
granted to Luz Maria Paucar-Menacho and Rodolfo Rohr Neto
(SO–Soy from Brasil Ltd.) and Kenji S. Narumiya (Sun Foods–Brazil)
for the financial support. The donation of the soybean cultivars
BRS 133 and 258 by Embrapa Soybean and Embrapa Technology
Transfer, Brazil, and the FAEPEX Grant, from the Foundation for
Teaching, Research and Extension (Unicamp) are also acknow-
ledged. The authors are also grateful to MSc. Rosa Helena Aguilar,
Mrs. Carla Greghi, Renato Grimandi and Éder Muller Risso for their
kind technical assistance, and to Patricia Luna Pizarro Ph.D., of the
Mrs. Carla Greghi, Renato Grimaldi and Éder Muller Risso for their
kind technical assistance, and to Patricia Luna Pizarro Ph.D., of the

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