The growth-inhibitory effects of tomatoes digested in vitro in colon adenocarcinoma cells occur through down regulation of cyclin D1, Bcl-2 and Bcl-xL

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In the present study, we utilised an in vitro digestion procedure to deliver molecules contained in tomatoes to cultured cells and to analyse potential mechanisms underlying the antitumoural effects of tomatoes reported in the literature. Ripe tomatoes underwent in vitro simulated digestion and the aqueous fraction obtained was delivered to HT-29 and HCT-116 colon adenocarcinoma cells. The amount of lycopene released during digestion and transferred to the aqueous fraction during digestion was 10-fold lower than that present in tomato homogenate before digestion. The carotenoid was accumulated by colon adenocarcinoma cells in a dose-dependent manner after the addition of tomato digestate (20–100 ml/l) for 24 h. Tomato digestate inhibited the growth of HT-29 and HCT-116 cells in a dose-dependent manner. Growth inhibition resulted from an arrest of cell cycle progression at the G0/G1 phase and by apoptosis induction. A down regulation of cyclin D1, Bcl-2 and Bcl-xL expression was also observed, without apparent changes in p53, p21, p27 and Bax. In conclusion, the present data demonstrate that the in vitro digestion procedure represents a useful approach to supply tomato to colon cultured cells. Moreover, we have shown that tomato digestate is able to inhibit the growth of colon cancer cells by modulating the expression of regulators of the cell cycle and apoptosis.

Tomatoes: In vitro digestion: Cell cycle: Apoptosis: Colon cancer cells

Epidemiological and clinical studies have suggested health benefits of tomatoes and tomato-based food products1,2. Dietary intake of tomato and tomato products has been shown to be associated with a decreased risk of CVD3–4 and of certain cancers5, including those of the digestive tract6, prostate7,8 and pancreas9.

Tomato and tomato-based food products contain a large variety of micronutrients (pro-vitamin A, vitamin C, folate and K) and microconstituents, including polyphenols and non-pro-vitamin A carotenoids10–12. Lycopene is the most representative carotenoid in ripe tomatoes13 and it is responsible for the deep-red colour of tomatoes and tomato-based foods14. It represents approximately 80 to 90% of the pigments present. Most of this carotenoid is consumed from tomatoes and tomato products, such as juice, pasta and sauce14. Other carotenoids are also present in tomatoes, such as phytoene, phytofluene and, in minor amounts, α-carotene, β-carotene, lutein and cryptoxanthin13.

In recent years there have been suggestions that lycopene may be responsible for the health benefits of tomato-based food products. In particular, an important study was conducted7 in which a significant number of men, supplemented with fresh tomatoes, tomato sauce and pizza, were followed from 1986 to 1992. This study clearly showed that the intake of lycopene but not that of other carotenoids, including α-carotene, β-carotene, lutein, and β-cryptoxanthin, in tomatoes was associated with a lower risk for prostate cancers. Moreover, serum and tissue lycopene levels have been inversely related to the risk of prostate cancers15.

Although several in vitro studies have been performed to elucidate possible mechanisms underlying the beneficial effects of lycopene on health16, experimental studies on carotenoid functions in cell-culture models are limited by the absence of an adequate method of solubilising lycopene, which could lead to misinterpretation of the physiological significance of the observed phenomena. In fact, the high hydrophobicity of this carotenoid13 makes it very insoluble in aqueous systems and therefore poorly available for cell cultures. In most in vitro studies, lycopene was provided to cultured cells as a tetrahydrofuran solution. Although it has been reported that tetrahydrofuran can easily solubilise lycopene17, it does not contribute to its stability in solution18. Moreover, it can determine non-specific uptake of the carotenoid and it can cause problems of toxicity.

Therefore, the main aims of the present study were: (1) to define and utilise a physiological approach consisting of an in vitro tomato digestion, to deliver lycopene-containing tomatoes to colon cultured cells; (2) to analyse antitumoural effects...
of the aqueous fraction of tomato digestate. HT-29 and HCT-116 cells were used as the model system, since they are colon cancer cells, still exhibiting many morphological and biochemical similarities with intestinal cells. Colon carcinoma cell lines have been reported to accumulate carotenoids 19.

Materials and methods

Preparation of tomato samples and in vitro simulated digestion

All manipulations with tomato samples were performed under subdued lighting and in amber glass bottles to minimise the destruction of carotenoids. Samples of 60 mg lyophilised ripe tomatoes (Lycopersicon esculentum Mill. cv Red Setter), corresponding to 1 g fresh tomato, were mixed with 1.8 ml saline (140 mM-NaCl, 5 mM-KCl, 150 µM-butylated hydroxytoluene in tetrahydrofuran) and hand-homogenised in a Teflon-glass Potter homogeniser (Thomas, Philadelphia, USA). In vitro simulated digestion was performed according to Garrett et al. 20 with modifications. Briefly, after homogenisation, samples were acidified to pH 2.0 with 1 M HCl before the addition of 50 µl pepsin, from porcine stomach mucosa (0.2 g pepsin in 5 ml of 0.1 M-HCl), and samples were incubated in a shaking water-bath for 60 min at 37°C. After gastric digestion, the pH was raised to 6.9 with 1 M NaHCO3. Intestinal digestion was simulated by the addition of 200 µl pancreatin–bile solution from porcine pancreas (0.45 g porcine bile extract and 0.075 g pancreatin in 37.5 ml of 0.1 M-NaHCO3) and incubated in a shaking water-bath at 37°C for 120 min. The pH of the samples was then adjusted to 7.5.

The heat-treated tomatoes were obtained by 15 min incubation in a boiling water-bath after gastric digestion. Samples were centrifuged at 12 000 rpm for 30 min at 4°C in a Sorvall SS-34 angle rotor (Du Point Instruments, Toronto, Canada), and supernatant fractions collected and stored at −80°C.

The amount of lycopene in the different tomato preparations was expressed in µg/g fresh weight (60 mg lyophilised tomato correspond to 1 g fresh tomato).

Cell culture

HT-29 human colon adenocarcinoma cells (American Type Culture Collection, Rockville, MD, USA) were grown in modified Eagle’s medium. HCT-116 colon carcinoma cells were cultured in McCoy’s 5a. Cells were maintained in log phase by seeding them twice per week at the density of 8 × 105 cells/ml at 37°C under 5% CO2–air atmosphere. The medium was supplemented with 10% (v/v) fetal calf serum (Flow Laboratories, Irvine, Ayrshire, UK) and 2 mM-glutamine. The medium was not further replaced throughout the experiments. Experiments were routinely carried out on triplicate cultures. After the incubation, cells were harvested and quadruplicate haemocytometer counts were performed. The trypan blue dye exclusion method was used to evaluate the percentage of viable cells.

Cell growth-inhibition assay

Curves of cell growth inhibition were determined for both HT-29 and HCT-116 cells. Serial dilution of tomato digestate with culture medium was used (1:10, 1:20; 1:50). Cells were seeded in twenty-four-well plates with 3 × 104 cells/well and divided into control and treatment groups. Cells were maintained for 24 h before any treatment to facilitate their adhesion on the well. The control group consisted of cells treated with the same amount of digestion mixture, as indicated earlier, diluted with culture medium (1:10, 1:20; 1:50) and of cells without any treatment. Since no differences in terms of viability, cell cycle, caspase activity and cell-cycle-related proteins were found between the two groups, untreated cells are referred to as control cells. For each treatment, cells from four wells were used. At the time indicated (24 h), cells were removed from the wells, stained with trypan blue and counted under a microscope for viable and dead cells.

Cell cycle analysis

Cell cycle distribution was analysed by flow cytometry, as previously described21. Samples of 106 cells were harvested by centrifugation, washed in PBS and fixed with ice-cold 70% ethanol. The cells were incubated at 4°C for 30 min and then centrifuged at 2500 g for 10 min. The pellet was resuspended in 0.5 ml PBS and 0.5 ml DNA-Prep stain (Coulter Reagents, Miami, FL, USA), containing RNase (1 g/l) and propidium iodide (50 g/l). All samples were incubated for 30 min in the dark at 4°C. The DNA content of cells stained with propidium iodide was measured with a FACScan instrument (EPICS XL-MCL Flow Cytometer; Coulter Electronics, FL, USA), by using Multicycle AV software.

Caspase-3 activity assay

The activity of caspase-3 was determined as indicated22. Briefly, after a 24 h treatment, cells (2 × 106) were lysed in 50 mM-tri(hydroxymethyl)-aminomethane–HCl buffer (pH 7.5) containing 0.5 mM-EDTA, 0.5% IGEPA®–CA-630 (Sigma Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA) and 150 mM-NaCl, and cell lysate was incubated with 50 µM–fluorogenic substrate, coumarin (Alexis Biochemicals, San Diego, CA, USA), in a reaction buffer (10 mM-HEPES (pH 7.5) containing 50 mM-NaCl and 2.5 mM-dithiothreitol) for 120 min at 37°C. The release of coumarin was measured with excitation at 380 nm and emission at 460 nm using a fluorescence spectrophotometer.

Western blot analysis of cyclin D1, p53, p21WAF-1/CIP-1, p27, Bax, Bcl-2 and Bcl-xL expression

Cells (10 × 106) were harvested, washed once with ice-cold PBS and gently lysed for 30 min in ice-cold lysis buffer (1 mM-MgCl2, 350 mM-NaCl, 20 mM-HEPES, 0.5 mM-EDTA, 0.1 mM-ethylene glycol-bis[b-aminoethylether]-N,N,N’,N’-tetra-acetic acid, 1 mM-dithiothreitol, 1 mM-Na2PO4, 1 mM-phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride, 1 mM-aprotinin, 1.5 mM-leupeptin, 1 mM-Na3VO4, 20% glycerol and 1% Nonidet P40). Cell lysates were centrifuged for 10 min at 4°C (10 000 g) to obtain the supernatant fractions, which were used for Western blot analysis. The anti-cyclin D1 (clone 72-13G, catalogue no. SC-450), anti-p21WAF-1/CIP-1 (clone P-5, catalogue no. 6246), anti-p27 (clone N-20, catalogue no. SC-527), anti-Bax (clone P-19, catalogue no. SC-526) and anti-Bcl-xL S1 (clone L-19, catalogue no. SC-1041) monoclonal antibodies were purchased from Santa Cruz Biotechnology (Santa Cruz,
CA, USA). The anti-p53 (clone DO-1, catalogue no. SC-126) and the anti-Bcl-2 (clone Bcl-2/100/D5) monoclonal antibodies were purchased from YLEM (Rome, Italy). The blots were washed with PBS and exposed to horseradish peroxidase-labelled secondary antibodies (Amersham Pharmacia Biotech, Arlington Heights, IL, USA) for 45 min at room temperature. The immunocomplexes were visualised by the enhanced chemiluminescence detection system (ECL\textsuperscript{TM} Western blotting Analysis System; Amersham, Chalfont, Bucks, UK) and quantified by densitometric scanning.

**Extraction and analysis of lycopene**

Lycopene was extracted from fresh (2 g) and lyophilised (120 mg reconstituted in 2 ml saline solution) tomato digestates and from cells (10 × 10^6) as described\textsuperscript{23,24}. Cell pellets were resuspended in 6 m-guanidine hydrochloride in 20 mM-potassium phosphate (pH 2.3) and then extracted twice with hexane (0.5 mg butylated hydroxytoluene/l). Hexane layers were combined and evaporated to dryness under a stream of N\textsubscript{2}. The residue was redissolved in hydroxytoluene/l. Hexane layers were combined and evaporated in 6 M-guanidine hydrochloride in 20 mM-potassium phosphate.

The carotenoid was analysed by HPLC, as described\textsuperscript{25}. Chromatographic analyses were performed by the HPLC system provided with a Waters 600 pump, a C18 Inertsil ODS-80 Å reversed-phase column (5 µm, 250 × 4.6 mm; GL Sciences Inc., Torrance, CA, USA) and a photodiode array detector (Waters 996). The mobile phase was constituted by a mixture of CH\textsubscript{3}CN–tetrahydrofuran (90:10, v/v, 0.5 mg butylated hydroxytoluene/l) and 20 µl was injected into an HPLC system.

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Lycopene content remained essentially constant, the amount of this carotenoid in fresh tomatoes being quite similar to that found in dehydrated ones. The amount of lycopene transferred to the aqueous fraction during the digestion procedure was 8.2 (SEM 0.6) µg/g fresh weight, which corresponds to roughly one-tenth of the amount of lycopene contained in the fresh tomatoes. Lycopene was not detected in the aqueous fraction when no digestive enzymes and bile extract were added to the homogenate (data not shown). Boiling the lyophilised tomatoes for 15 min before digestion increased the miscellisation of lycopene, the carotenoid content in such preparations being 10.3 (SEM 0.9) µg/g fresh weight.

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**Results**

Total lycopene content in fresh tomatoes, in lyophilised tomatoes and in digestate is shown in Table 1. During the dehydration process, lycopene content remained essentially constant, the amount of this carotenoid in fresh tomatoes being quite similar to that found in dehydrated ones. The amount of lycopene transferred to the aqueous fraction during the digestion procedure was 8.2 (SEM 0.6) µg/g fresh weight, which corresponds to roughly one-tenth of the amount of lycopene contained in the fresh tomatoes. Lycopene was not detected in the aqueous fraction when no digestive enzymes and bile extract were added to the homogenate (data not shown). Boiling the lyophilised tomatoes for 15 min before digestion increased the miscellisation of lycopene, the carotenoid content in such preparations being 10.3 (SEM 0.9) µg/g fresh weight.

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As shown in Fig. 1, cells incorporated and/or associated lycopene in a linear manner. A time-dependent increase in lycopene content was observed in HT-29 cells treated with 100 ml digestate/l for 24 h. The cellular carotenoid amount increased in a dose-dependent manner, being 0.10 (SEM 0.01), 0.30 (SEM 0.03) and 0.60 (SEM 0.06) ng/10^6 cells after the addition of 20, 50 and 100 ml digestate/l, respectively, for 24 h. The digestion mixture itself, for example, proteolytic and lypolitic enzymes without tomato, diluted with culture medium and administered to the cells at the same concentration (20–100 ml/l) was not cytotoxic, as measured by the trypan blue exclusion method and caspase-3 activation.

Tomato digestate inhibited the growth of HT-29 cells in a dose-dependent manner, as measured by direct cell counting (Fig. 2). This inhibition is shown at 24 h of incubation, but it was also found at 12 h (data not shown). Interestingly, the growth-inhibitory effects of tomato digestate were enhanced by boiling the tomatoes for 15 min before digestion. After the addition of tomato digestate at the concentration of 100 ml/l culture medium for 24 h, cell growth was inhibited by 36 (SEM 1.8%) and 51 (SEM 2.8%) using raw and heated tomato digestate, respectively.

To elucidate the mechanisms involved in the growth-inhibitory effects of tomatoes, we first examined whether the reduction in cell number by tomato digestate was associated with changes in cell cycle progression. As shown in Table 2, treatment with tomato digestate for 24 h resulted in a significant dose-dependent inhibition of cell cycle progression, manifested by the accumulation of cells in the G0/G1 phase and by a concomitant decrease in the percentage of cells in the S phase and in the G2/M phase. Interestingly, the analysis of DNA histograms revealed the appearance of a pre-G1 peak (subdiploid DNA content), which is characteristic of apoptotic growth-inhibitory effects of tomato digestate.
Effects of varying tomato digestate concentrations on the growth of HT-29 cells treated for 24 h. (1), Control; (2), tomato digestate (20 ml/l); (3), tomato digestate (50 ml/l); (4), tomato digestate (100 ml/l). Data are mean values of three different experiments, with standard errors represented by vertical bars. a,b,c Mean values with unlike letters were significantly different (P<0.05) (Fisher’s test).

Apoptosis induction by tomato digestate was further studied by analysing the activation of caspase-3, one of the most important cell death executioners for apoptosis (Fig. 3). According to the results obtained by the analysis of the cell cycle, we found that a 24 h treatment with tomato digestate resulted in a strong increase in 7-amido-4-methylcoumarin fluorescence, indicative of the activation of caspase-3 in HT-29 cells.

We also investigated possible mechanisms by which tomato digestate would interfere with cell cycle progression and apoptosis. Therefore, we evaluated the cellular content of cyclin D1, which is a regulatory protein during the G0/G1 phase of the cell cycle (Fig. 4 (A)). HT-29 treated with tomato digestate for 24 h showed a strong decrease in cyclin D1 expression compared with control cells. The effect was dose-dependent. This finding was consistent with the blockade of cell cycle progression in the G0/G1 phase. In contrast, the expression of p53 (Fig. 4 (B)), p21 and p27 (Fig. 4 (C)), three other proteins regulating the cell cycle, was not modified by a 24 h tomato digestate treatment.

To explore the effects of tomato digestate on apoptosis-regulating proteins, we examined the expression of Bcl-2 and Bcl-xL, which suppress programmed cell death, and that of Bax, which promotes it, in HT-29 cells treated for 24 h (Fig. 5). Treatment with tomato digestate significantly reduced the expression of both Bcl-2 and Bcl-xL in a dose-dependent manner. In contrast, no significant changes in the expression of Bax were found in HT-29 cells following a 24 h treatment.

Similar effects of tomato digestate on cell growth (Fig. 6 (A)), apoptosis (Fig. 6 (B)) and protein expression (Fig. 6 (C)), including cyclin D1 and Bcl-2, were observed in HCT-116 cells, another human adenocarcinoma cell line (Fig. 6).

**Table 2.** Effect of lyophilised tomato digestate on cell cycle distribution in HT-29 colon adenocarcinoma cells

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cells</th>
<th>G0/G1</th>
<th>S</th>
<th>G2/M</th>
<th>Sub-G1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean  sem</td>
<td>Mean  sem</td>
<td>Mean  sem</td>
<td>Mean  sem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vehicle control-treated</td>
<td>45.0 a</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>41.0 c</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tomato digestate-treated (20 ml/l)</td>
<td>44.8 a</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>42.5 c</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tomato digestate-treated (50 ml/l)</td>
<td>51.3 b</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>34.8 b</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tomato digestate-treated (100 ml/l)</td>
<td>59.5 c</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>26.3 a</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a,b,c Mean values within a column with unlike superscript letters were significantly different (P<0.05) (Fisher’s test).
The combination of bile salts and pancreatic enzymes is essential for the efficient micellarisation of lycopene from tomatoes\textsuperscript{20}. The present data are in agreement with epidemiological evidence of a possible protective effect of lycopene against cancer\textsuperscript{7}, and with several clinical, animal, and tissue and cell-culture studies that have demonstrated through other approaches its anticarcinogenic potential\textsuperscript{17,32}. The different isomeric structures of lycopene and in general of carotenoids have been suggested to be important factors that influence their bioavailability and absorption\textsuperscript{33}. Since also the composition and the structure of the food matrix have a strong impact on bioavailability of these molecules, in the present study we have chosen to utilise in vitro simulated digestion in order to release from tomatoes the carotenoid pool, focusing in particular on lycopene.

In the present paper, we reported that HT-29 cells were capable of accumulating lycopene from mixed micelles in a dose-dependent manner. Such an observation is not surprising in view of previous reports showing that another human colonic carcinoma cell line, Caco-2, accumulates carotenoids present in the aqueous or micellar fraction after in vitro digestion of the meal\textsuperscript{20}. The present data demonstrate that ripe tomato digestates, very rich in lycopene, may act as potent growth-inhibitory agents in vitro\textsuperscript{5,34}. Growth-inhibitory effects of purified lycopene have been reported in different tumour cell lines\textsuperscript{35}, including prostate\textsuperscript{36}, mammary\textsuperscript{37,38} and endometrial\textsuperscript{39} cancer cells and promyelocytic leukaemia cells\textsuperscript{40}. However, it is important to underline that tomato digestates obtained by our experimental approach contain a complex mix of compounds besides lycopene, including other carotenoids such as phytoene and phytofluene, carotenoid metabolites and oxidative products, which better mimics the in vivo situation and that can be responsible for the growth-inhibitory effects observed.

The inhibition of HT-29 cell growth by tomato digestate was associated with a slowing of cell cycle progression at the G0/G1 phase. Such an effect seems to involve a down regulation of cyclin D1, which has been implicated in the control of this phase of the cell cycle. It is well known that cyclin D1 is an oncogene and it is over-expressed in several cancer cell lines\textsuperscript{41}. It is interesting to note that lycopene alone has been reported to inhibit tumour cell growth by an arrest in cell cycle progression and a concomitant decrease in cyclin D1 expression. In fact, G0/G1 arrest was observed in lycopene-treated HL-60 cells\textsuperscript{40} and in RAT-1 immortalised fibroblasts\textsuperscript{23}. In MCF-7\textsuperscript{37} and T47D breast cancer cells, as well as in ECC-1 endometrial cancer cells\textsuperscript{38}, lycopene delayed G1-S transition by down regulating cyclin D1 and D3 protein expression, suggesting that the regulation of cell cycle
progression by lycopene involves a modulation of cyclins, cyclin-dependent kinases and cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitors. The present data on the modulation of cyclin D1 by tomato digestate confirm such findings and strongly support the hypothesis that lycopene could be directly implicated in the anticarcinogenic effects of tomatoes and tomato products.

Tomato digestate was able to induce apoptosis in colon cancer cells. There are few reports on apoptosis induction by lycopene and tomato products in cancer cells. Some authors did not find apoptosis induction by lycopene and its related molecules – to cultured cells and to study molecular mechanisms underlying the anticarcinogenic properties of this vegetable. In particular, we demonstrated that tomato digestate is able to inhibit the growth of colon cancer cells by modulating the expression of regulators of the cell cycle and apoptosis.

![Fig. 6. Effects of tomato digestate on the growth (A), caspase-3 activation (B) and cyclin D1 and Bcl-2 expression (C) in HCT-116 cells treated with tomato digestate (100 ml/l; B) for 24 h. (C)](https://www.cambridge.org/core/asset/1234567890abcdefg.png)

In conclusion, the present data suggest that this in vitro tomato digestion procedure represents a useful and physiological approach to deliver tomato – and therefore lycopene and its related molecules – to cultured cells and to study molecular mechanisms underlying the anticarcinogenic properties of this vegetable. In particular, we demonstrated that tomato digestate is able to inhibit the growth of colon cancer cells by modulating the expression of regulators of the cell cycle and apoptosis.

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