

1 **Quantitative proteomic analysis of beef**
2 **tenderness of Piemontese young bulls by**
3 **SWATH-MS**

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16 **Abstract**

17 Meat consumer satisfaction is largely defined by meat tenderness. However, it is
18 a complex trait which mainly depends on structural and metabolic proteins.
19 Quantitative proteomic approach is a suitable way to tackle the tenderness. Ten
20 aged-beef samples from Piemontese breed classified as tender and tough meat
21 were evaluated using SWATH-MS and bioinformatic tools for revealing the main
22 biochemical events. Between the two textural groups, proteomic changes were
23 mainly caused by 43 differentially abundant proteins (DPAs) arranged in
24 reference patterns as displayed the heat map analysis. Most of these DPAs were
25 associated with energy metabolism. From the functional proteomic analysis, two
26 clusters of proteins, including ACO2, MDH1, MDH2 and CS in one cluster and
27 FBP2, PFKL, LDHA, TPI1 and GAPDH/S in the other cluster, suggest
28 gluconeogenesis, glycolysis and citrate cycle as key pathways for beef
29 tenderness. These findings contribute to a deeper insight into molecular
30 pathways related to beef tenderness.

31 **Keywords:** cattle, tenderization, mass spectrometry, glycolysis and citrate cycle,
32 gene ontology

33

34 **1. Introduction**

35 Tenderness, juiciness and flavour are the most distinctive characteristics of beef-
36 eating experience. If any of these three traits is not fulfilled, it would be detrimental
37 to overall palatability, decreasing the level of meat quality (Henchion et al., 2017;
38 O'Quinn et al., 2018). The lack of tenderness could result in considerable
39 economic losses, reducing consumer confidence. Regarding beef tenderness, in
40 recent years substantial efforts have been undertaken in the field. Special
41 emphasis is being constantly upgraded in the improvements of production, pre-
42 slaughter and processing factors (Bhat et al., 2018; Mwangi et al., 2019; Picard
43 & Gagaoua, 2017). Additionally, it has been highlighted that tenderness
44 instrumental differences not always lead to differences in the product sensory
45 profile, because of the complexity of this in meat heterogeneous product.
46 Therefore, a noticeable improvement of beef tenderness is needed to positively
47 influence the consumer's perception (López-Pedrouso et al., 2020). It is
48 necessary to have more control on the ultimate pH, the cathepsin and
49 calpain/calpastatin activity, proteasome, collagen content and heat shock
50 proteins among other factors, as well as a deeper knowledge of the molecular
51 mechanisms behind the meat tenderness to understand completely the whole
52 process (Zapata et al., 2009). In the process of muscle-to-meat conversion,
53 preliminary biochemical modifications are involved starting from the vital
54 functions stops (Lana & Zolla, 2016). During beef ageing, structural changes of
55 the myofibril units associated with myofibrillar proteolysis, intermediate filaments
56 releasing, actin and myosin breaking as well as cytoskeletal proteins and the
57 calpain system are related to tenderness (Anderson et al., 2012). Consequently,

58 myofibrillar and sarcoplasmic proteins play a key role in this cascade of events
59 contributing to final tenderness and proteomic analysis is particularly relevant.

60 The past decade has seen the rapid development in proteomic technologies
61 enabling the identification and quantification of overall proteins in a cell, tissue or
62 organism more accurately and precisely. Indeed, recent developments of the
63 meat tenderness study from a proteomic point of view have been published
64 (Carlson et al., 2017; López-Pedrouso et al., 2019; Picard & Gagaoua, 2017).

65 Progress in the quantitative proteomic field, as well as in other OMICs
66 technologies (genomics, transcriptomics) and bioinformatics (Picard & Gagaoua,
67 2020), also offers powerful data of the molecular mechanisms behind beef
68 tenderness. Particularly, label-free proteomics has been used as a tool for the
69 identification of protein biomarkers in beef tenderness (Boudon et al., 2020). Most
70 recently, SWATH-MS (sequential window acquisition of all theoretical mass
71 spectra) arises as a result of an improvement in mass spectrometry-based
72 proteomics techniques using data-independent acquisition (DIA) method. First of
73 all, protein samples are digested by trypsin and the resulting peptides are
74 separated and identified using liquid chromatography followed by tandem mass
75 spectrometer using a DDA (Data-dependent acquisition) method to generate a
76 reference spectral library. The strategy "peptide query parameters", based on
77 peptide-centric scoring using the querying data of chromatographic and mass
78 spectrometric parameters for the resulting proteins and peptides, has been
79 developed. Afterwards, the quantification of proteins by DIA-based SWATH-MS
80 has proven to achieve excellent reproducibility (Anjo et al., 2017; Ludwig et al.,
81 2018). In bovine muscle proteome, a comparison between selected reaction
82 monitoring (SRM) and SWATH methods was done and it has been demonstrated

83 that SWATH-MS is more efficient and suitable for a larger panel of proteins with
84 a robust quantification (Wu et al., 2019).

85 Piemontese is a breed characterized by muscular hypertrophy as a result of the
86 guanine-to-adenine transition at position 938 in exon 3 of myostatin gene. This
87 breed is homozygous for this missense mutation that results in an inactive
88 myostatin form (Boukha et al., 2011). Carcass and meat quality traits have been
89 studied previously (Pegolo et al., 2020; Savoia et al., 2019). The main impact of
90 this genotype is appreciated in muscle mass development, as double muscling
91 improving the meat yield (O'Rourke et al., 2013). Moreover, this mutation leads
92 to lower fat content and marbling, but a higher number of muscle fibres (type II).
93 This genotype prevents the proteolytic process, but tenderness is increased by
94 the higher number of muscle fibres and decreased collagen content (Chen & Lee,
95 2016). For these reasons, the Piemontese breed was used in this study on
96 tenderness molecular mechanisms.

97 The aim of this study was to investigate the molecular mechanisms which
98 regulate the meat tenderness in *Longissimus thoracis* of Piemontese cattle as
99 well as to search the protein biomarkers linked to tenderness for potential
100 biotechnological application in the meat industry.

101 **2. Materials and methods**

102 **2.1. Animal sampling selection**

103 The present study is part of the "Qualipiem" project, which was aimed at exploring
104 the possibility of improving the meat quality traits in Piemontese cattle using
105 innovative selection strategies. The research involved 1327 young bulls from 115
106 farms operating six different beef farming systems. The young bulls were all

107 enrolled in the Herd Book of the Italian Piemontese breed, were sired by artificial
108 insemination bulls, and were reared on commercial farms representative of the
109 farming systems in the Piemonte region (NW Italy). The characteristics of the
110 beef systems, feeding practices, and animal slaughter are described in detail by
111 Savoia et al. (2019)

112 Briefly, all animals were slaughtered at the same commercial EU-licensed
113 slaughterhouse from April 2015 to February 2017. The average age at slaughter
114 was about 17 months (508 ± 58 d), the average carcass weight was 414 ± 36 kg,
115 and 66.7% of the carcasses had a muscularity grading of E (excellent)
116 determined according to the SEUROP classification system (Commission of the
117 European Communities, 1982).

118 Twenty-four hours after slaughter, a meat sample (from the fifth and sixth thoracic
119 vertebrae) of *Longissimus thoracis* (LT) muscle was collected from the half right
120 carcass of each animal, vacuum-packed and aged at 4°C for 7 days. After ageing,
121 the samples were removed from their respective packaging, weighed to
122 determine purge loss and divided into two slices (2.0 cm thick); one slice was
123 used to measure pH and meat colour and to determine water content; the second
124 one was used for cooking loss and shear force determination. Additionally,
125 approximately 50 g of homogenised muscle were lyophilized, ground in a blender
126 and stored at -80°C until intramuscular fat, protein, collagen content, collagen
127 solubility and proteome analyses were performed.

128 For proteomic analysis, a subset of 10 freeze-dried meat samples, traceable to
129 five farms, were selected “a posteriori” on the basis of Warner-Bratzler shear
130 values, in order to form two groups of five samples each, classified as tender (<
131 30 N) and tough (> 60 N). To minimize the effect of extrinsic pre-slaughtering

132 factors on meat tenderness, the selection was done so to have couple of samples
133 (one sample with low and one with high Warner Bratzler value) derived from
134 animals reared in the same farm and slaughtered on the same day.

135 As tenderness can be also influenced by the genotype at the *myostatin* locus, the
136 samples were analysed to make sure that all derived from animals homozygous
137 for the *mh* allele.

138 **2.2. Analysis of meat quality traits**

139 The ultimate pH measurements were taken with a spear-type electrode
140 connected to a Crison portable pH-meter (Crison Instruments, S.A., Alella,
141 Spain).

142 Meat colour was measured with a Minolta CR-331C Chroma Meter set with D65
143 illuminant and the 2° standard observer. Measurements were taken after 1 h of
144 blooming on a freshly cut surface of a 2.0 cm thick steak. Results were expressed
145 as lightness (L^*), redness (a^*) and yellowness (b^*) values in the CIELAB colour
146 space model. The parameters Chroma (C^*), related to the intensity of colour, and
147 hue angle (h^*), related to the change of colour from red to yellow, were calculated
148 as follows: $C^* = (a^{*2} + b^{*2})^{0.5}$; $h^* = \tan^{-1} b^*/a^*$. In addition, the reflectance values
149 from 400 to 700 nm were acquired by a Minolta CM600d Spectrophotometer set
150 with specular component excluded, D65 illuminant and 10° standard observer.
151 Reflectance values at wavelengths not given by the instrument (474, 525 and 572
152 nm) were calculated using linear interpolation. The reflectance values were
153 converted to K/S ratios (absorption and scattering coefficients ratios) using the
154 following equation: $K/S = (1-R)^2 \div 2R$, where R represents the % reflectance
155 expressed as decimal. The ratios $K/S_{474} \div K/S_{525}$, $K/S_{572} \div K/S_{525}$ and $K/S_{610} \div K/S_{525}$

156 were used to estimate Deoxymyoglobin (DMb), Metmyoglobin (MMb) and
157 Oxymyoglobin (OMb) percentage, respectively.

158 The moisture content of meat samples was determined by oven drying until
159 constant weight at 125°C for 5h. The freeze-dried samples were used to analyse
160 the crude fat, crude protein, collagen content and collagen solubility. The crude
161 fat content was determined by petroleum ether extraction using a Soxhlet
162 apparatus (Büchi Extraction System B-811; Flawil, Switzerland). The nitrogen
163 content was determined by Kjeldahl method using a Büchi Distillation Unit K- 355
164 (Flawil, Switzerland), and a nitrogen-to-protein conversion factor of 6.25 was
165 used to calculate the protein content. The crude fat and protein contents were
166 then expressed as percentages of the raw meat.

167 Total collagen concentration and collagen solubility of meat samples were
168 determined by measuring the hydroxyproline content in both the soluble and
169 insoluble fractions. Prior to hydroxyproline determinations, the soluble and
170 insoluble fractions were separated by centrifugation after heating in a water bath
171 at 80°C for 2h. The spectrophotometric determination of hydroxyproline in both
172 fractions was based on the oxidation of hydroxyproline by chloramine-T, followed
173 by the addition of 4-dimethyl-aminobenzaldehyde, which generates a colored
174 complex quantifiable spectrophotometrically at 558 nm. Total hydroxyproline
175 content was calculated as the sum of soluble and insoluble fractions and soluble
176 collagen was expressed as percentage of total hydroxyproline. Results were
177 expressed as µg hydroxyproline/g fresh muscle. The conversion factor of 8 was
178 used to transform the amount of hydroxyproline into collagen.

179 The water holding capacity (WHC) was measured as purge (PL) and cooking loss
180 (CL) and expressed as a percentage. Purge losses were computed as the

181 difference between the weight of the packaged sample and the weight of the
182 sample dried using blotting paper plus the weight of the heat dried bag, and was
183 expressed as a percentage of the sample weight. For cooking losses
184 determination, the slices were weighed, sealed in a polyethylene bag and cooked
185 in a water bath, set at 75 °C until reaching an internal core temperature of 70°C
186 monitored with a thermocouple. After cooking, the slices were cooled under cold
187 water, while still in bags. Then the slices were removed from the bags, blotted
188 and reweight. Cooking losses were computed as the amount of weight lost after
189 cooking, expressed as a percentage of the weight of the uncooked slice.

190 After cooking loss determination, the slices were wrapped in a plastic film, stored
191 in a cooler at 4°C overnight and then used for Warner Bratzler shear force
192 (WBSF) analysis. At least six 1.27 cm diameter cores, approximately 2 cm long
193 of cooked meat from each slice, were removed parallel to the longitudinal
194 orientation of the muscle fibres and sheared perpendicular to the muscle fibres
195 orientation using an Instron Universal Testing Machine (Model 5543, Instron
196 Corp., USA) equipped with a Warner-Bratzler shear device (100-kg load cell and
197 crosshead speed of 200 mm/min). The maximum WBSF (N) recorded during
198 analysis indicated by the highest point in the curve shear force-time was
199 determined. Warner-Bratzler slope was calculated to express shear firmness (SF;
200 N/s) as the slope of the line drawn from the origin of the curve to the maximum
201 peak force with higher values corresponding to lower elasticity. Total energy (TE;
202 N x mm) corresponding to the total area under the WBSF curve, was used to
203 describe the total energy consumed to chew the meat until it could be swallowed.

204

205 **2.3. Proteomic analysis**

206 **2.3.1. Extraction and digestion of proteins**

207 Fifty mg of lyophilized meat were homogenised in RIPA buffer consisting of
208 200 mmol/L Tris/HCl (pH 7.4), 130 mmol/L NaCl, 10% (v/v) glycerol, 0.1% (v/v)
209 SDS, 1% (v/v) Triton X-100, 10 mmol/L MgCl₂ with anti-proteases and anti-
210 phosphatases (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA) using a TissueLyser II
211 (Qiagen, Tokyo, Japan). The resulting solution was centrifuged at 14,000g at 4 °C
212 for 20 min and the quantification of protein was assessed by RC-DC kit (Biorad
213 Lab., Hercules, CA, USA). To clean the sample, 100 µg were loaded on an SDS-
214 PAGE (10%) and concentrated the proteins in a single band. The gel band was
215 cut into pieces and washed by Milli-Q water followed by 50 mM ammonium
216 bicarbonate in 50% methanol. Then, the pieces were dehydrated by acetonitrile
217 in a vacuum centrifuge. The reduction of proteins was carried out with 10 mM
218 DTT in 50 mM ammonium bicarbonate at 60 °C for 30 min and the alkylation with
219 55 mM iodoacetamide in 50 mM ammonium bicarbonate at room temperature for
220 30 min in darkness. Finally, the proteins were digested with 20 ng/µL trypsin
221 (Promega, Madison, USA) in 20 mM ammonium bicarbonate incubating at 37 °C
222 for 16 h. This resulting solution was diluted in 0.1% formic acid for further analysis.

223 **2.3.2. Generation of the reference spectral library by DDA acquisition**

224 A sample representative of each group was obtained mixing 4 µg of protein from
225 each sample and they were analysed by shotgun data-dependent acquisition
226 (DDA) approach by micro-LC-MS/MS. The liquid chromatography was carried out
227 by micro-LC system Ekspert nLC425 (Eksigen, Dublin, CA, USA) using an YCM-
228 TriartC18 column (150 µm × 0.3 mm, 12 nm, s-3 µm) (YMC CO, Japan) running
229 at a flow rate of 5 µL/min. A 40 min gradient from 95% B (0.1% formic acid in
230 acetonitrile) and 5% A (0.1% formic acid in water) to 5% Buffer B. The mass

231 spectrometer was a hybrid quadrupole-TOF mass spectrometer, model Triple
232 TOF 6600 (SCIEX, Framingham, MA, USA) operating with data-dependent
233 acquisition system in positive ion mode. The mass range was from 100 to 1500
234 m/z with an accumulation time of 0.25 s for a total cycle time of 2.8 s. To create
235 the library, the MS raw files and databases searches were combined and
236 performed using ProteinPilot software v.5.0.1. (SCIEX, Framingham, MA, USA).
237 The searches were conducted through Uniprot Swiss-Prot database for *Bos*
238 *taurus* (*Bovine*)

239 **2.3.3. Quantification of proteins by DIA acquisition**

240 The SWATH-MS acquisition was performed in a DIA mode with two technical
241 replicates in each meat sample and five biological samples in each meat group.
242 A sample of proteins (4 µg) was subjected to each determination. The MS/MS
243 analysis was carried out in a cyclic manner using an acquisition time of 50 ms in
244 a total cycle time of 6.3 s. A cycle of SWATH consisted of 65 scans in a mass
245 range of 400 to 1250 m/z and a variable width of 1 m/z overlap. The spectral
246 alignment and targeted data extraction were performed by PeakView v.2.2.
247 (SCIEX, Framingham, MA, USA). All DIA files were loaded using the following
248 settings: ten peptides/protein and seven fragments/peptide, excluded shared and
249 modified peptides and FDR below 1%. The quantification of proteins was
250 measured by the peak area of the given peptides using *p*-value scoring of 0.05
251 and a fold change of 1.5 as the cut-off. Finally, the proteins with differentially
252 abundance were identified using Student's *t*-test.

253 **2.4. Statistical analysis**

254 Data from meat quality for the two textural groups were submitted to one-way
255 ANOVA analysis. Previously, normal distribution and variance homogeneity were
256 tested (Shapiro-Wilk). Statistical analysis was carried out using the SPSS
257 package (SPSS 23.0, Chicago, IL, USA). The least squares mean (LSM) were
258 separated using a Duncan *t*-test. All statistical tests of LSM were performed for a
259 significance level $P < 0.05$. The standard error of the mean (SEM) was obtained
260 as the standard deviation (SD) divided by the square root of the sample size.

261 For proteomic analysis to assess statistical differences among proteins, a
262 Student's *t*-test was done at a level of confidence of 95%. The correlations among
263 individual protein quantifications and textural meat parameters were determined
264 by Pearson's linear correlation coefficient at two levels ($P < 0.01$ and $P < 0.05$).

265 For bioinformatic and multivariate analysis, hierarchical clustering of the identified
266 proteins by SWATH-MS was generated by XLSTAT 2.01 (Addinsoft SARL, Paris,
267 France) based on the protein quantifications by mean of the heat map, using
268 Euclidean distances. The differentially abundant proteins were studied by heat
269 map analysis using the logarithms of protein quantification for each biological
270 replicate. To understand the cellular processes, Gene Ontology (GO) enrichment
271 and protein-protein interaction (PPI) were carried out using STRING 10.0.
272 (Search Tool for the Retrieval of Interacting Genes/proteins).

273 **3. Results and discussion**

274 **3.1. Characterization of tender and tough meats**

275 The determination of meat quality parameters allowed us to assess the suitable
276 biological material to unravel proteome changes related to tenderness during the
277 transformation of bovine muscle into the meat. Table 1 shows mean values of

278 chemical composition, colour measurements, water holding capacity and textural
279 parameters. The samples were chosen to ensure that statistically significant
280 differences by the one-way Anova ($P<0.05$) were only detected in textural
281 parameters. Indeed, it can be observed that the other parameters were not
282 statistically different. The Piemontese breed is highly specialized for beef
283 production due to double-muscle phenotype, which depends on a specific
284 mutation in *myostatin* gene (mh). The syndrome has been associated with
285 superior carcass characteristics and meat quality traits compared to normal
286 animals. Indeed, the dressing yield is about 5% higher than in non-double
287 muscled animals at similar age or weight and the carcasses have a larger
288 proportion of expensive cuts and a lower proportion of fat and bone than normal
289 animals (Biagini & Lazzaroni, 2005). In the present study, carcass weight ranged
290 from 408.4 to 418.8 kg ($P=0.678$) at the age of 503.6 to 511.8 days ($P=0.839$) in
291 the tender and tough groups, respectively.

292 Regarding the chemical composition, there were no significant differences
293 between groups for any trait. High values of protein were found with an average
294 percentage greater than 22.60% in both groups, meanwhile, intramuscular fat
295 percentages varied between 0.92% and 1.15%, indicating the characteristic
296 leaner muscle for this breed. The Piemontese meat has a high value due to its
297 low intramuscular fat content and high tenderness. In relation to meat
298 composition, the hypertrophied Piemontese breed compared to other breeds
299 (e.g. Limousin and Friesian breeds) has higher water and protein content and,
300 because of the lower collagen content, protein quality in terms of essential amino
301 acids content is improved. The meat is also characterized by low intramuscular
302 fat content (1% or lower) and relatively high PUFA content because of the greater

303 proportion of membrane phospholipids versus triacylglycerol. The high ratio of
304 phospholipids to triacylglycerols contributes to the high PUFA/SFA ratio
305 (Brugiapaglia et al., 2014).

306 Meat colour largely depends on the amount of myoglobin and its oxidation state.
307 In the absence of oxygen, the myoglobin produces a purple-red colour. However,
308 the myoglobin reacts with oxygen resulting in oxymyoglobin. The colour produced
309 by oxymyoglobin is bright red very appreciated by consumers. In the case of long
310 storage time, the colour turns into brown colour due to the transformation of
311 oxymyoglobin into metmyoglobin. Over time, the meat becomes tenderer, but the
312 colour could darken too much for consumers. In the case of Piemontese, this
313 breed has a lower myoglobin concentration and lighter muscle colour than normal
314 animals and shows a lower water holding capacity estimated as drip/purge and
315 cooking losses probably due to the faster *post mortem* pH fall (Barge et al. 1996).
316 Additionally, previous studies have demonstrated that the ageing of Piemontese
317 meat should last over 7 days in order to improve quality parameters (Brugiapaglia
318 & Destefanis, 2011). As shown in Table 1, the Piemontese meat displayed high
319 values of lightness (38.06-39.96%) and redness (28.00-29.14%) resulting from
320 the fact that meat ageing was carried out in vacuum conditions

321 Regarding meat tenderness, literature concerning double-muscling cattle are
322 coherent on most but not all points. In fact, meat tenderness and tenderization
323 are complex phenomena determined by a number of factors. In general, muscles
324 of hypertrophied cattle have lower collagen (connective tissue) content which is
325 made up of a lower proportion of stable non-reducible cross-links, making the
326 meat more tender. Other factors, such as the smaller muscle fibres in double-
327 muscling animals, contribute to the increased tenderness in meat (Arthur, 1995).

328 In the present study, differences between both groups in collagen soluble fraction
329 ($P=0.002$), shear force and firmness were highly significant ($P<0.001$).

330 **3.2. Differential proteomic analysis of beef tenderness using SWATH-MS**

331 To reveal the proteomic differences between tough and tender meat, SWATH-
332 MS technology was used. In LT of Piemontese young bulls, an average of 261
333 proteins were detected and quantified using two technical replicates in each meat
334 sample. To analyse major changes, the fold change higher than 1.5 and lower
335 than 0.67 between textural groups was considered. As shown in Table 2, forty-
336 three proteins were differentially abundant proteins (DAP) between the two
337 textural groups (tough and tender meat). A set of 14 DAPs were more abundant
338 in tough meat, whereas the remaining 29 DAPs were more abundant in tender
339 meat, inferring strong proteomic changes linked to texture modifications. These
340 proteins are proposed as biomarkers and only a further validation should be
341 required. As extensively reviewed by (Gagaoua, Terlouw, et al., 2020b; Huang et
342 al., 2020), some potential biomarkers of beef tenderness could be associated
343 with muscle contraction, metabolism, heat stress, oxidation, proteolysis and
344 apoptosis as shown in the present study.

345 A heat map analysis was carried out with these 43 DAPs using the protein
346 quantification of each biological sample. Five biological samples for each textural
347 group (tender and tough) were considered as displayed in Figure 1. It can be
348 observed that the samples were separated into two clusters, the first cluster only
349 contains tough meat, meanwhile, the second cluster includes tender meat. This
350 suggests the existence of a proteomic pattern for tenderness meat in the case of
351 LT in Piemontese breed. Additionally, this fact corroborates the idea that the

352 proteomic shifts were not random, indeed the reference pattern of proteins was
353 strongly linked to tenderness.

354 Furthermore, these 43 DAPs were correlated with the textural parameters (shear
355 force, firmness and energy) using Pearson's correlation analysis (Table 3). As
356 expected, most of these proteins showed a clear association with Warner-
357 Bratzler parameters, especially with WBSF (number of significant correlations
358 with proteins and regression coefficient values), which is the most used trait for
359 assessing the meat tenderness. The highly correlated proteins were heat shock
360 cognate 71 kDa protein (HSPA8), glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase
361 (GAPDH), s-formylglutathione hydrolase (ESD), fructose-1,6-bisphosphatase
362 isozyme 2 (FBP2), rab GDP dissociation inhibitor (GDI2), malate dehydrogenase
363 (MDH1), triosephosphate isomerase (TPI1), glycerol-3-phosphate
364 dehydrogenase (GPD1), protein-L-isoaspartate O-methyltransferase (PCMT1),
365 striated muscle enriched protein kinase (SPEG), citrate synthase (CS), dipeptidyl
366 peptidase 3 (DPP3) and peroxiredoxin 1 (PRDX1). Thus, these proteins may be
367 proposed as protein biomarkers in LT of Piemontese cattle in relation to meat
368 tenderness.

369 Regarding biological function, most proteins have a catalytic activity except for
370 GDI2. It should be noted that myofibrillar proteins were not affected by variation
371 in tenderness shown in the two groups in contrast to other studies (Anderson et
372 al., 2012; Marino et al., 2013; Moczowska et al., 2017). During *post-mortem*
373 tenderization, the major cytoskeletal structures are degraded, affecting not only
374 tenderness but colour and pH decline. Indeed, meat colour variation is largely
375 due to shrinkage of myofilaments, myofibrils and muscles fibres affecting
376 achromatic light scattering properties (Hughes et al., 2020). On the other hand, it

377 has been demonstrated that higher pH provokes an electrostatic repulsion
378 between myofibrillar proteins contributing to a less lateral shrinkage of muscle
379 fibres (Pearce et al., 2011). These two facts demonstrated the connection
380 between the degradation of muscle fibres and tenderness or colour. However,
381 the meat samples chosen for this study did not show differences in pH and meat
382 colour (Table 1). Consequently, it would be appropriate to propose that no
383 differences in structural degradation were found between the two groups.
384 Nevertheless, most DPAs were associated with catalytic activities. Enzymatic
385 reactions involved in the glycolysis and tricarboxylic acid cycle pathway are
386 generally associated with energy metabolism in early *post-mortem* because of an
387 anoxia situation (Jia et al., 2007). In the conditions of the present study, our
388 findings suggest that beef tenderness of Piemontese breed could be produced
389 by differences in energy metabolism during early *post-mortem*.

390 **3.3. Functional proteomic analysis of beef tenderness**

391 Functional proteomic and biochemical analysis let us reveal the crucial biological
392 pathways behind tenderness in beef. As mentioned above, bovine meat between
393 two textural groups showed meaningful differences on the proteome and 43
394 DAPs were proposed as biomarkers in the LT muscle of Piemontese. These
395 proteins were also used in gene enrichment analysis (FunRich) within the
396 category of the biological process shown in Figure 2A. The individual GO terms
397 were ordered according to its p-value (red). Additionally, the percentage of genes
398 included in each biological process (blue) and the reference value (green) are
399 depicted. The most relevant GO terms were “glycolytic process” ($P<0.001$),
400 “gluconeogenesis” ($P<0.001$) and “carbohydrate metabolic process” ($P<0.001$).
401 It should be noted that carbohydrate metabolism includes both glycolysis and

402 gluconeogenesis as metabolic processes of glucose degradation or synthesis,
403 respectively. In this sense, the glycolysis process and gluconeogenesis seem to
404 be the most relevant pathways involved in the meat tenderization process. In
405 accordance with other authors, enzymes associated with glycolysis and Krebs
406 cycles were previously proposed as biomarkers of tenderness as well as proteins
407 against oxidative stress (Ouali et al., 2013). Changes in proteins of different
408 metabolic pathways were observed affecting meat tenderness. Our results match
409 those observed in recent studies (Antonelo et al., 2020; Gagaoua, Terlouw, et al.,
410 2020b; Malheiros et al., 2019).

411 STRING analysis was carried out to study a proteome-scale interaction network
412 using published literature, experimental interactions of proteins and genomic data
413 (Figure 2B). The resulting network is composed of 38 nodes (proteins) and 45
414 edges (interactions) (threshold: 0.7; high confidence). There were 14 proteins
415 without interactions with other proteins, but the large majority of proteins
416 displayed interactions. The p-value of PPI enrichment was lower than $1 * 10^{-16}$
417 and the local clustering coefficient was 0.511 indicating that 24 proteins were
418 strongly connected as a group. Regarding biological processes, two clusters
419 were displayed with proteins more strongly linked. One cluster comprised of
420 aconitate hydratase (ACO2), malate dehydrogenase (MDH1, MDH2) and citrate
421 synthase (CS). The other cluster includes fructose-1,6-bisphosphatase isozyme
422 2 (FBP2), ATP-dependent 6-phosphofructokinase (PFKL), L-lactate
423 dehydrogenase (LDHA), glucose-6-phosphate isomerase (GPI), triosephosphate
424 isomerase (TPI1) and glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH/S).
425 Indeed, these two clusters are connected to gluconeogenesis, glycolysis and
426 citrate cycle as displayed in Figure 3. These results are consistent with those of

427 Gagaoua, Bonnet, & Picard (2020) who found that the energy metabolic enzymes
428 MDH1, ENO3, ALDH1A1 and PGK1 were strongly correlated with WBSF values
429 in bovine muscle. Therefore, our findings provide further support for the
430 hypothesis that energy metabolism plays a key role in beef tenderness and
431 related enzymes might be suitable biomarkers.

432 Immediately after slaughter, the oxygen supply is cut off and ATP is consumed.
433 To compensate for the low amount of ATP, muscle glycogen is degraded and
434 metabolized in anaerobic glycolysis preventing the formation of actomyosin
435 cross-bridge. This also leads to the increase in the amount of lactate, H⁺ and
436 heat. Hence, the resulting metabolic acidosis can inhibit glycolytic enzymes,
437 which affecting Ca⁺² transport and binding capacity by actin-myosin interaction.
438 The lack of ATP and Ca⁺² in the sarcoplasm induces the formation of actomyosin
439 cross-bridges causing *rigor mortis* (Huang, Larsen, Palmisano, Dai, & Lametsch,
440 2014). The sequence of these events explains the relationship between
441 carbohydrates metabolism and beef tenderness. Additionally, the mitochondrial
442 activity, particularly, the citrate cycle was altered to obtain ATP. In accordance
443 with both metabolic pathways, other authors found increased amounts of
444 enzymes associated with glycolytic and citrate cycle in early *post-mortem* as
445 reviewed (Gagaoua, Terlouw, et al., 2020a). Even transcriptomic studies
446 revealed data that supported the direct relationship between
447 glycolysis/gluconeogenesis and the effect on the conversion of muscle to meat,
448 suggesting that metabolic profile largely determines beef tenderness in early
449 *post-mortem* (Bongiorni et al., 2016). Taking into account that these metabolic
450 activities depend on fiber composition, more glycolytic fibers would provide more
451 tender beef (Dang et al., 2020).

452 **4. Conclusions**

453 This study demonstrated that quantitative proteomics is an appealing approach
454 to assess the protein changes during the process of tenderization. A total of 43
455 proteins were strongly associated with tenderness, therefore they could be
456 proposed as protein biomarkers. Specifically, significant differential proteome
457 changes of the two textural groups were associated with energy metabolism
458 during early *post-mortem*. From the functional analysis, two clusters of proteins
459 were identified as particularly relevant. The first cluster included the proteins
460 ACO2, MDH1, MDH2 and CS and the second one comprised of FBP2, PFKL,
461 LDHA, TPI1 and GAPDH/S, indicating that gluconeogenesis and specifically
462 glycolysis and citrate cycle are key elements of beef tenderness. This research
463 allowed us to deepen the knowledge on beef tenderness and its relationships
464 with *post-mortem* biochemical events during the conversion of muscle into meat.
465 Further studies are needed to validate these protein biomarkers and their role in
466 beef tenderness. The findings of this study could have important implications in
467 the meat industry for future applications.

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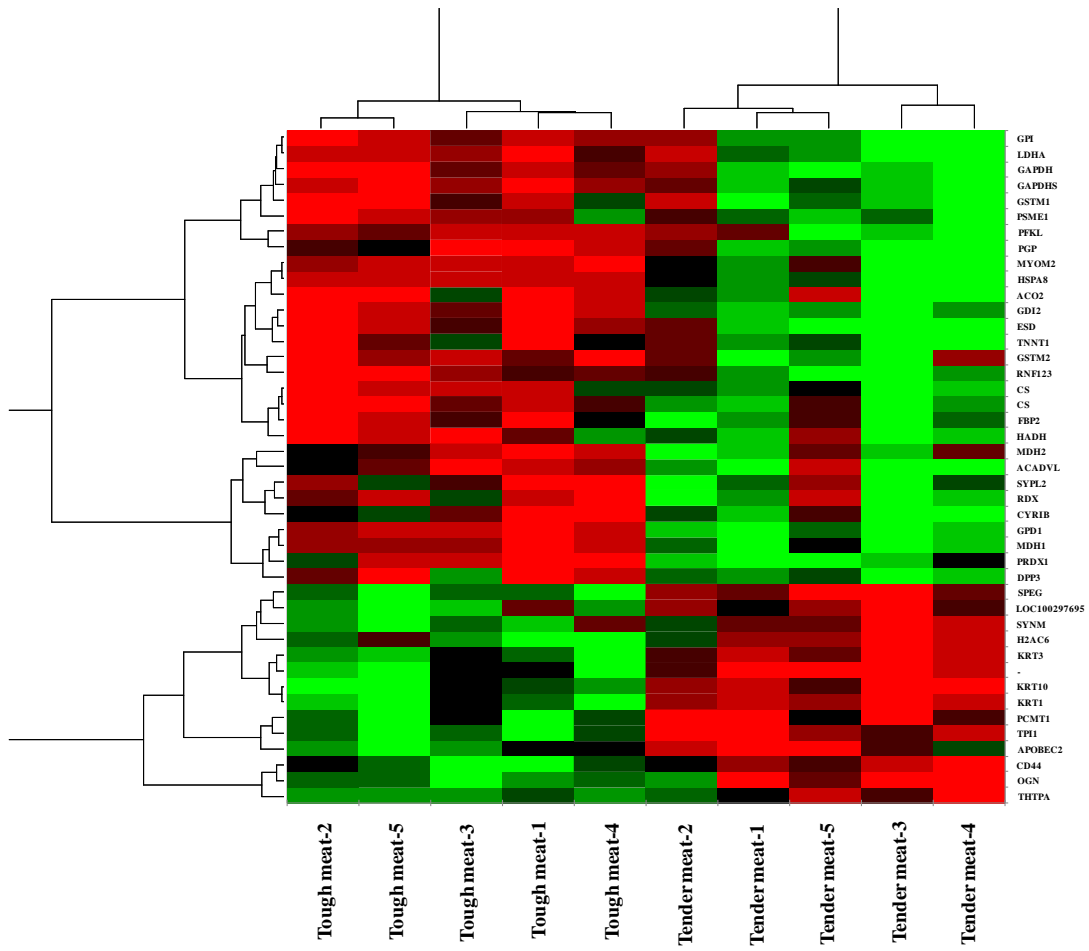
642 **CAPTIONS TO FIGURES**

643 **Figure 1.** Heat map of differentially abundant proteins in *longissimus thoracis* of
644 Piemontese young bulls. Protein intensities were log₁₀ transformed and displayed
645 in colors from green (high abundance) to red (low abundance). Both rows and
646 columns are clustered using correlation distance and average linkage.

647 **Figure 2.** A) Functional enrichment analysis of differentially abundant proteins
648 and correlated with and correlated with textural parameters in *ongissimus*
649 *thoracis* of Piemontese young bulls using FunRich. The biological processes
650 obtained were sorted by -log (p-value) and only top 6 are displayed; B) Protein-
651 protein interaction network of differentially abundant proteins and correlated with
652 and correlated with textural parameters in *ongissimus thoracis* of Piemontese
653 young bulls using Search Tool for the Retrieval of Interacting Genes/proteins
654 (STRING).

655 **Figure 3.** Summary of metabolic pathways for carbohydrates metabolism
656 identified by proteomic analysis. The high and low abundance proteins were
657 indicated by a green and red circle in tender and tough group, respectively. All
658 reaction steps were obtained and adapted from KEGG (Kyoto Encyclopaedia of
659 Genes and Genomes) pathways maps. <https://www.kegg.jp/kegg/pathway.html>

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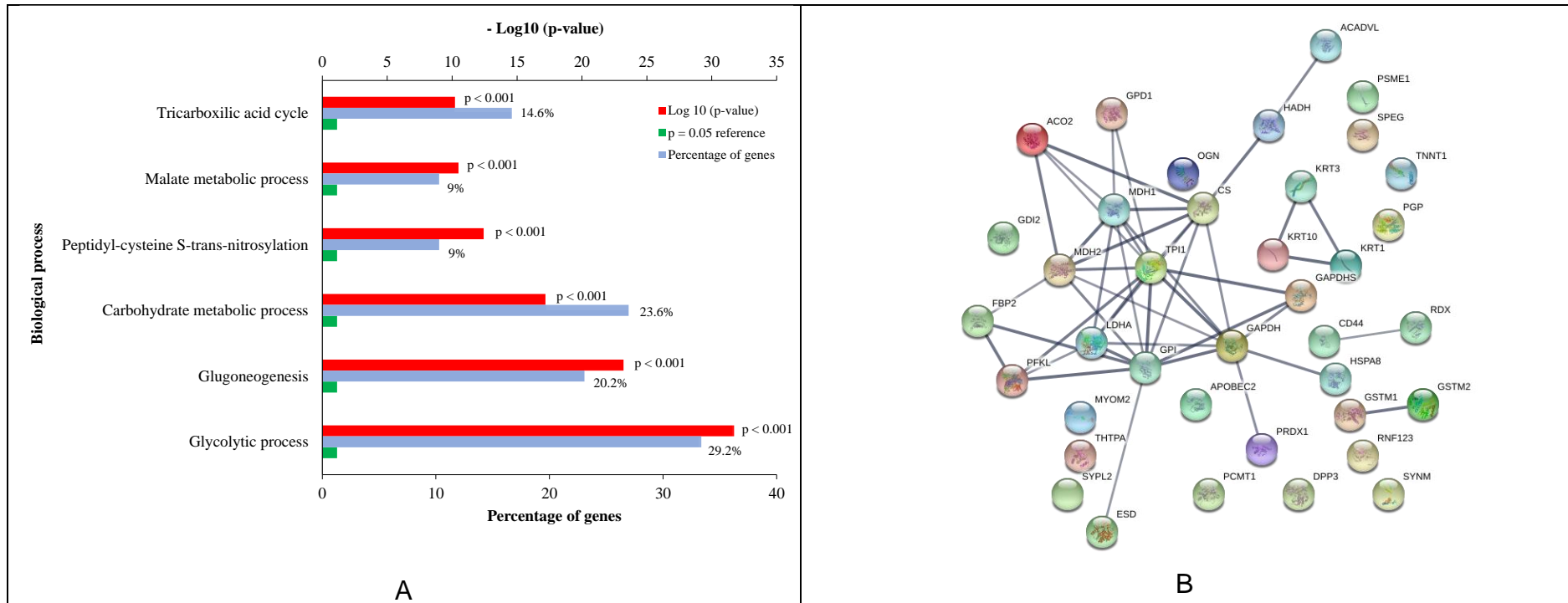
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662 **Figure 1.**

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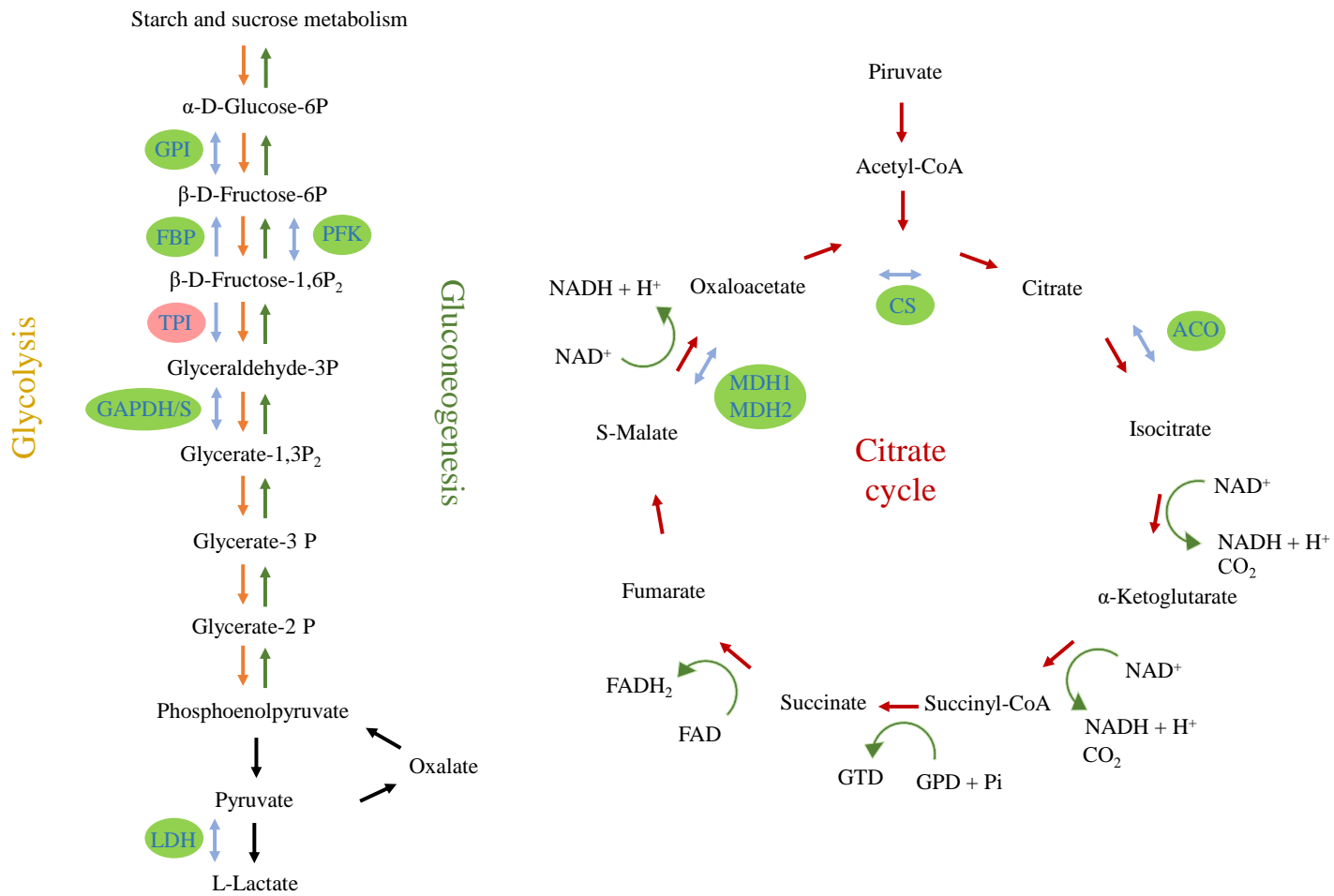
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667 **Figure 2.**

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669

670 **Figure 3.**

671

672 **Table 1.** Meat quality parameters of aged meat from Piemontese young bulls (*longissimus thoracis*) for two textural groups: tender and tough.

	Tender	Tough	SEM	p-value
Chemical composition				
pH	5.53±0.04	5.56±0.03	0.01	0.266
Water (%)	74.89±0.32	74.78±0.92	0.20	0.816
Protein (%)	22.60±0.39	22.78±0.73	0.17	0.643
Fat (%)	0.92±0.19	1.15±0.40	0.01	0.297
Ash (%)	1.09±0.01	1.09±0.02	0.006	0.894
Collagen (%)	2.84±0.58	3.15±0.73	0.20	0.481
Soluble fraction (%)	10.91±1.47	6.96±1.21	0.77	0.002
Colour measurements				
Lightness (L*)	38.06±3.80	39.96±1.84	0.94	0.344
Redness (a*)	28.00±1.29	29.14±2.28	0.58	0.362
Yellowness (b*)	9.15±1.38	10.34±1.86	0.52	0.283
Chroma (C*)	29.47±1.64	30.93±2.78	0.72	0.340
Hue (h*)	18.02±1.89	19.41±1.83	0.60	0.270
MMb (%)	14.75±4.68	14.61±2.92	1.16	0.957
DMb (%)	12.27±5.10	11.70±5.36	1.56	0.870
OMb (%)	72.98±9.14	76.67±7.52	2.19	0.900
Water holding capacity				
Drip loss (%)	5.40±1.92	6.75±4.13	0.98	0.525
Cooking loss (%)	15.59±1.71	16.95±1.32	0.51	0.196
Textural parameters				
Shear force (N)	27.92±0.92	70.20±5.49	7.14	<0.001
Firmness (N/s)	6.47±1.20	16.37±2.41	1.74	<0.001
Energy (N)	110.34±22.81	320.31±198.15	54.70	0.046

673 MMb=Metmyoglobin; DMb=Deoxymyoglobin; OMb=Oxymyoglobin; Means ± SEM (standard error of mean)

674

675

676 **Table 2.** Quantification of differential abundant proteins (mean± SD) and fold change (*FC*) by SWATH obtained for two textural groups (tender
677 and tough) in *longissimus thoracis* of Piemontese young bulls.

UniProt	Gene	Protein	Tough	Tender	<i>FC</i>	p-value
A0A3Q1LK65	THTPA	Thiamine-triphosphatase	14,713±400	9,279±1,887	1,59	0.023
A0A3Q1LMS5	HSPA8	Heat shock cognate 71 kDa protein	2,351,820±28,554	4,095,280±463,727	0,57	0.006
A0A3Q1LQ76	ACADVL	Very long-chain-specific acyl-CoA dehydrogenase	1,054±254	3,817±849	0,28	0.014
A0A3Q1LTB0	MDH2	Malate dehydrogenase	697,210±66,648	1,075,476±149,847	0,65	0.049
A0A3Q1LY19	LDHA	L-lactate dehydrogenase	7,249,000±618,311	14,295,620±2,532,085	0,51	0.027
A0A3Q1M430	TNNT1	Troponin T, slow skeletal muscle	256,492±42,701	471,824±70,816	0,54	0.032
A0A3Q1M6K7	PFKL	ATP-dependent 6-phosphofructokinase	586,566±16,698	900,780±121,087	0,65	0.033
A0A3Q1M8J9	GAPDH	Glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase	33,267,200±2,443,100	58,623,800±6,348,046	0,57	0.006
A0A3Q1MAU7	ESD	S-formylglutathione hydrolase	106,745±8,285	179,568±15,974	0,59	0.004
A0A3Q1MK34	FBP2	Fructose-1,6-bisphosphatase isozyme 2	744,886±69,514	1,166,928±94,395	0,64	0.007
A0A3Q1MP70	GPI	Glucose-6-phosphate isomerase	7,766,760±471,343	13,899,540±1,742,447	0,56	0.009
A0A3Q1N7H1	CYRIB	Protein FAM49B	7,830±2,311	22,203±4,177	0,35	0.017
A0A452DI24	GDI2	Rab GDP dissociation inhibitor	51,049±2,738	83,760±5,864	0,61	0.001
A0A452DIW4	MDH1	Malate dehydrogenase	2,555,140±259,281	4,766,100±464,963	0,54	0.003
A0A452DIX3	TPI1	Triosephosphate isomerase	99,101,200±8,864,196	59,412,800±4,310,739	1,67	0.004
A0A452DJ69	APOBEC2	C->U-editing enzyme APOBEC-2	1,383,250±229,200	766,522±121,159	1,80	0.045
A0A452DJJ3	GPD1	Glycerol-3-phosphate dehydrogenase	2,197,600±130,598	3,624,520±123,598	0,61	<0.001

A4IFG0	GSTM1	GSTM1 protein	269,456±38,103	459,626±59,230	0,59	0.027
A5PKM0	GSTM2	GSTM2 protein (Fragment)	24,768±1,200	42,594±7,088	0,58	0.038
A6QNZ7	KRT10	Keratin 10	349,726±39,132	203,382±17,331	1,72	0.009
E1BF23	MYOM2	Myomesin 2	759,554±17,052	1,238,776±145,850	0,61	0.012
E1BIS6	SYNM	Synemin	104,115±10,072	66,665±8,157	1,56	0.020
E1BL26	RNF123	Ring finger protein 123	71,082±12,558	191,703±36,365	0,37	0.014
F1MJJ8	RDX	Radixin	95,758±9,888	148,769±16,765	0,64	0.026
F2Z4J1	H2AC6	Histone H2A	27,888±3,952	12,563±2,477	2,22	0.011
G3MXL3	KRT3	Keratin 3	452,456±50,826	264,852±22,803	1,71	0.010
G3MZZ6	PCMT1	Protein-L-isoaspartate O-methyltransferase	732,408±70,772	460,204±48,354	1,59	0.013
G3N022	SPEG	Striated muscle enriched protein kinase	66,760±3,497	43,744±3,276	1,53	0.001
G3N0V2	KRT1	Keratin 1	738,836±73,777	412,236±23,890	1,79	0.003
M0QVY0	-	Uncharacterized protein	203,612±17,116	127,970±8,151	1,59	0.004
M5FJY9	PGP	Phosphoglycolate phosphatase	99,050±11,004	168,750±16,810	0,59	0.009
O77679	GAPDHS	Glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase (Fragment)	3,752,100±203,915	6,722,280±901,058	0,56	0.012
Q0QEK4	CS	Citrate synthase (Fragment)	199,920±30,144	476,716±74,611	0,42	0.009
Q0VBZ3	SYPL2	Synaptophysin-like 2	53,039±6,354	8,2642±10,758	0,64	0.046
Q0VD03	CD44	CD44 antigen	14,708±1,643	8,329±1,242	1,77	0.015
Q1P9Q3	ACO2	Aconitate hydratase, (Fragment)	16,140±2,844	37,859±8,529	0,43	0.042
Q2KJC5	HADH	Hydroxyacyl-Coenzyme A dehydrogenase	73,550±9,423	112,301±11,241	0,65	0.030

Q2KJE7	PSME1	Proteasome (Prosome, macropain) activator subunit 1	71,930±10,333	109,920±10,682	0,65	0.034
Q3T085	OGN	OGN protein	386,988±33,992	239,476±36,748	1,62	0.019
Q58CS3	DPP3	Dipeptidyl peptidase 3	29,896±5,326	48,232±3,079	0,62	0.018
Q8WMY1	CS	Citrate synthase (Fragment)	65,862±9,523	132,440±20,471	0,50	0.019
Q9BGI4	PRDX1	Peroxiredoxin 1	710,542±68,049	1,122,282±60,571	0,63	0.002
V6F869	LOC100297695	Apolipoprotein A-I-like	38,157±6,022	17,751±3,541	2,15	0.019

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