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Glycated bovine serum albumin for use in feeding trials with animal models – in vitro methodology and characterization of a glycated substrate for modifying feed pellets

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Abstract

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This study investigated different methods to produce N^ε-carboxymethyl-lysine (CML)-enriched bovine serum albumin (BSA) as alternatives to the classical approach using glyoxylic acid (GA) and sodium cyanoborohydride (NaBH₃CN) which results in toxic hydrogen cyanide (HCN). The reaction of GA (6 mmol/L) and NaBH₃CN (21 mmol/L) to produce CML remained the most effective with CML yields of 24-35%, followed by 13-24% using 300 mmol/L glyoxal (GO). GA promoted specific modification of lysine to CML, and fewer structural modifications of the BSA molecule compared with GO, as evidenced by fluorescence and proteomic analyses. GO promoted greater arginine modification compared with GA (76 vs 23%). Despite structural changes to BSA with GO, murine fecal clearance of CML was similar to literature values. Hence, BSA glycation with 300 mmol/L glyoxal is a suitable alternative to GA and NaBH₃CN for generating CML-enriched protein free of HCN, but a CML-only fortification model remains to be described.

Keywords: carboxymethyllysine; glycation; BSA; glyoxal

1. Introduction

Advanced Glycation End-Products (AGEs) are a heterogeneous group of compounds resulting from the non-enzymatic condensation between reducing sugars and amino groups, primarily lysine and arginine moieties (Perrone et al., 2020). The *in vivo* glycation of proteins is part of normal metabolism, but pathological implications, as well as molecular aging, have also been associated with it (Briceno Noriega et al., 2022). In

addition to the putative health effects of endogenously formed AGEs, their presence in food is a matter of concern. In industrial or household cooking processes, the development of appealing aromas, flavors, and colors goes hand-in-hand with the formation of dietary AGEs (dAGEs) (Lund & Ray, 2017). It is well-documented that thermally-processed foods are a key dietary source of these neo-formed compounds. Endogenous AGEs and dAGEs are thought to exert their pro-inflammatory effect at least in part through binding with the Receptor for Advanced Glycation End-products (RAGE) (Nogueira Silva Lima et al., 2021).

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In rodents, studies of increased exposure to glycated proteins in food have employed protocols including heating of food (e.g. autoclaving, baking) (van Dongen et al., 2021), supplementing food with free AGEs (Helou et al., 2022), or administering a diet enriched in protein-bound AGEs (e.g. casein, bovine serum albumin) (Grossin et al., 2015). Given the heterogeneous nature of dAGEs resulting from these different methods, it is difficult to decipher the effect of a single compound and the precise implications of dAGEs for health remain elusive. This is partly because the different protocols are intended to address different research questions. In animal experiments, heating food has the advantage of representing a process similar to industrial processing or household cooking and enables the study of a representative cocktail of dAGEs. However, the disadvantage is that certain micronutrients are degraded, potentially biasing the effects of dAGEs (Luevano-Contreras & Chapman-Novakofski, 2010). Conversely, the addition of free AGEs to food has enabled the study of specific glycation products, but this approach does not represent the main route of exposure to dAGEs as they exist primarily in the protein-bound form in food. Lastly, administering diets supplemented with synthetic, well-characterized, protein-bound dAGEs enables the study of a predominant dAGE and reduces nutritional confounders associated with the heating of foods. However, the synthesis of protein-bound dAGEs often lacks an extensive assessment of the precise modifications of glycated proteins.

Protein-bound Nε-carboxymethyl-lysine (CML) is the most studied dAGE due to its chemical stability and abundance in food (Scheijen et al., 2016). Dietary CML (dCML) has been shown to accumulate in organs such as the gut and kidneys (Tessier et al.,

2016). Peptides including lysine moieties modified into CML exhibited 7-times greater affinity for RAGE compared with non-glycated fragments (Xue et al., 2011). Protein-bound dCML is formed preferentially compared with free CML in thermally processed foods (van Dongen et al., 2021), making the specific effects of protein-bound dCML on health a *bona fide* research objective.

Many strategies have been used to synthesize protein-bound CML. While no CML-exclusive synthesis method has been described the most selective approach, to our knowledge, uses glyoxylic acid and sodium cyanoborohydride (NaBH₃CN) for the generation of dCML in proteins including casein, ovalbumin, or albumin (Faist et al., 2001). Classic reductive amination of glyoxylic acid in the presence of NaBH₃CN has been reported to convert 16%-44% of the lysine moieties into CML (Andersen et al., 2012; Ikeda et al., 1996). Despite the high CML yields of this approach, the toxic hydrogen cyanide (HCN) gas produced is potentially harmful to laboratory personnel and an inherent contaminant of animal food preparations. Chemically safer alternative methods have been proposed using sodium borohydride (NaBH₄), sodium triacetoxyborohydride (NaBH(OAc)₃) reducing agents, and ribose- or glyoxal-driven reactions (Andersen et al., 2012; Faist et al., 2001; Glomb & Pfahler, 2001). These methods do not result in the production of HCN, but they may be expensive or require inflammable or toxic solvents (*e.g.* dichloroethane).

Here we present a broad, comparative characterization of classical and alternative methods of converting lysine into CML, investigating other glycation hotspots such as arginine residues as well as more complex forms of glycation products as crosslinks. This work presents, for the first time, not only an alternative to the use of NaBH₃CN, but also an effective way of producing CML without the nutritional loss associated with heat treatment. Our goal here was to compare the efficiency of different reducing agents and carbonyl compounds for dCML fortification of bovine serum albumin (BSA) using an extensive suite of quantitative and qualitative analytical methods. We employed isotopedilution, high-performance liquid chromatography coupled with tandem mass spectrometric detection (HPLC-MS/MS), western-blot, fluorescence, and proteomic analyses, using matrix-assisted laser desorption ionization with tandem time-of-flight MS

(MALDI-TOF/TOF) and nanoLC with tandem, high-resolution MS (LC-HRMS/MS), to provide an extensive characterization of the possible modifications of BSA promoted by different carbonyl compounds. We further studied the efficiency of the incorporation of protein-bound dCML into mouse feed pellets, their stability over different storage periods, and finally the clearance of dCML in mouse feces.

2. Material and methods

2.1. Chemicals and reagents

Bovine serum albumin (BSA) Fraction V was from Euromedex (Souffelweyersheim, France) and ribose from TCI Chemicals (Zwijndrecht, Belgium). Ammonium formate (>99%) and ultra-pure HPLC water were from VWR (Fontenay-sous-Bois, France), sodium triacetoxyborohydride (NaBH(OAc)₃) from ACROS Organics (Geel, Belgium), Nonafluoropentanoic acid (NFPA) 97%, formic acid (>95%), acetonitrile (ACN), NaBH₃CN, glyoxylic acid and glyoxal (40% w/v), hydrochloric acid (HCl) 37%, sodium borohydride (NaBH₄), boric acid (H₃BO₃), sodium hydroxide (NaOH), lysine (Lys) and arginine (Arg), as well as all chemicals for proteomics assays were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich (Saint-Quentin-Fallavier, France). Furosine (Fur), Fur-d₄, CML, and CML-d₂ were from Polypeptide Group Laboratories (Strasbourg, France). Labeled lysine (Lys-15N₂) was from CortecNet (Voisins-le-Bretonneux, France) and Arg-13C from Carl Roth (Karlsruhe, Germany).

2.2. N^e-carboxymethyl-lysine synthesis in different BSA model systems

We compared three approaches for preparing CML-fortified BSA, all representative of common practice in the literature, and present the molar ratios in Table 1 (Andersen et al., 2012). The first examined the efficiency of the reducing agents NaBH₄, NaBH(OAc)₃, and NaBH₃CN in combination with glyoxylic acid (GA-A to GA-F): BSA and glyoxylic acid were allowed to react for 2h at 37°C to form imine precursors before addition of the reducing agents. A second approach employed glyoxal at 40% w/v and ribose (R-A to R-GO-B), while a third employed glyoxal only (GO-A to GO-E). Reactions GA-A to -F and R-A to R-GO-B, were prepared in a phosphate buffer (0.2 M, pH 8.0) and incubated for 16h at 37°C; reactions GO-A to -E were incubated for 4 days at 37°C under sterile

conditions. All samples were then dialyzed for 24h (4°C) using a Spectra/Por 4 MWCO 14-14 kDa membrane (Spectrum Chemicals) with two water bath changes (1:23 v:v), before western-blot and LC-MS/MS analysis. Having thus identified the two best approaches for forming protein-bound CML in BSA, three replicates of GA-E (GA-E.1, 2 and 3) and GO-E (GO-E.1, 2 and 3) were prepared and characterized using western-blot, LC-MS/MS, fluorescence spectroscopy and proteomic analyses to assess inter-day variability of these reactions (Table 1).

Table 1. Model systems for the production of protein-bound CML by modification of BSA (Lys - lysine; GA - glyoxylic acid; GO - glyoxal).

Sample	Molar ratio	Final concentration (mmol/L)						
		Lys	GA	GO	Ribose	NaBH ₄	NaBH(OAc) ₃	NaBH₃CN
Native BSA (Control)	-	175						
GA-A	1 (Lys) : 1.2 (GA) : 4.9 (NaBH ₄)	5	6			22		
GA-B	1 (Lys): 2.4 (GA): 3.0 (NaBH(OAc) ₃)	3	7				9	
GA-C	1 (Lys): 2.4 (GA): 9.8 (NaBH(OAc) ₃)	3	7				30	
GA-D	1 (Lys) : 0.5 (GA) : 4.9 (NaBH₃CN)	5	3					21
GA-E	1 (Lys): 1.2 (GA): 4.9 (NaBH ₃ CN)	5	6					21
GA-F	1 (Lys) : 2.4 (GA) : 9.8 (NaBH ₃ CN)	5	12					42
R-A	1 (Lys) : 1.5 (R)	175			300			
R-B	1 (Lys) : 3.0 (R)	175			600			
R-GO-A	1 (Lys) : 0.1 (GO) : 1.5 (R)	175		20	300			
R-GO-B	1 (Lys) : 0.2 (GO) : 3.0 (R)	175		40	600			
GO-A	1 (Lys) : 0.1 (GO)	175		20				
GO-B	1 (Lys): 0.2 (GO)	175		40				
GO-C	1 (Lys): 0.6 (GO)	175		100				
GO-D	1 (Lys) :1.2 (GO)	175		200				
GO-E	1 (Lys) :1.8 (GO)	175		300				
GA-E.1*								
GA-E.2*	1 (Lys) : 1.2 (GA) : 4.9 (NaBH₃CN)	5	6					21
GA-E.3*								
GO-E.1**								
GO-E.2**	1 (Lys) :1.8 (GO)	175		300				
GO-E.3**								

Inter-day replicates of (*) GA-E reactions, and (**) GO-E reactions.

2.3. Western blot analysis of native and glycated BSA

Protein concentration was determined by the Pierce™ BCA Protein Assay Kit 145 (ThermoFisher, Courtaboeuf, France). A total of 200 ng of protein was separated in 8% 146 Bis-Tris (ThermoFisher) gels. Nonspecific binding sites were blocked for 1h at 20°C with 147 3% milk in tris-buffered saline added to 0.05% Tween 20 (TBS-T); PVDF membranes 148 (BioRad, France) were incubated overnight at 4°C with rabbit polyclonal anti-CML 149 primary antibody (Abcam 27684, 1/5000, Cambridge, England), followed by TBS-T 150 washing and incubation for 2h with anti-rabbit, alkaline phosphatase-conjugated 151 secondary antibody (Abcam 97048, 1/5000). Membrane revelation was performed with 152 1-Step™ NBT/BCIP (ThermoFisher). 153

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2.4. Fluorescence spectroscopy of native and glycated BSA solutions

- Fluorescence spectra and intensity were measured in the native BSA and the triplicate
- reactions of GA-E (GA-E.1 to 3) and GO-E (GO-E.1 to 3) (Table 1) using a Cary Eclipse
- Fluorescence Spectrometer (Agilent, Les Ulis, France) in solutions at concentrations of 1
- 159 mg/mL, at pH 8.0.

2.5. Mass spectrometry characterization of native and glycated BSA

2.5.1. LC-MS/MS quantification of lysine, arginine, and CML after acid hydrolysis

- Analyses of native and glycated BSA (all reactions) were performed in triplicate using
- positive electrospray ionization (ESI+) on a Quattro Premier XE triple-quadrupole mass
- spectrometer (Waters, Saint-Quentin-en-Yvelines, France) using a Hypercarb column
- 165 (100 \times 2.1 mm, 5 μ m; same-phase guard column 10 \times 2.1 mm, 5 μ m; column at 10°C;
- ThermoFisher). The binary mobile phase was aqueous 12.5 mmol/L NFPA (solvent A)
- and ACN (solvent B) with the gradient pumped at 200 µL/min over 23 mins as follows:
- %B: 0–10 mins, 0–22.5%; 10–15 mins, 60%; 15–23 mins, 0%.
- Five hundred microliter aliquots of each BSA preparation were lyophilized, and samples
- reduced for 2h at room temperature with 500 μL 1M NaBH₄ in sodium borate buffer (pH
- 171 9.2). Five hundred microliters of 12M HCl were added, and samples hydrolyzed at
- 172 110°C for 21 h. Aliquots of 100 µL hydrolysate were concentrated in a Speed-Vac
- 173 (ThermoFisher) and re-solubilized in 1 mL aqueous 12.5 mmol/L NFPA. Samples were
- 174 filtered (0.45 µm) before preparing x10 dilutions with 12.5 mmol/L aqueous NFPA

- solutions of Lys- 15 N₂ and Arg- 13 C (10 μ g/mL) for analysis of Lys and Arg, x200 dilutions with CML-d₂ (0.2 μ g/mL) in NFPA for the analysis of CML.
- The current study is part of a larger, ongoing collaborative project. An in-house reference material (lyophilized infant milk formula) was included in each analytical batch in both LC-MS/MS laboratories (*viz.* the UMR 1167 and ULR 7519 partners (Section
- 2.6.2.): briefly, one *ca.*50 mg sample of lyophilized milk powder was reduced with NaBH₄
- prior to hydrolysis in 6M HCl (110°C for 21h). This reference material is analyzed
- frequently, and results for all compounds were consistently within one standard deviation
- of the mean values obtained at both sites (Data not shown).

2.5.2. Proteomic analyses

- Proteomic analyses were performed on the native BSA and the triplicate reactions of GA-E (GA-E.1 to 3) and GO-E (GO-E.1 to 3) (Table 1). Matrix-assisted laser desorption/ionization with tandem time-of-flight spectrometric detection (Sciex 4800+ MALDI-TOF/TOF, Sciex, Framingham, MA, USA) (Pien et al., 2022) was used to determine the molecular weight of the native and glycated BSA (GA-E and GO-E).
- The native BSA and triplicate GA-E and GO-E glycated BSA samples were then 190 subjected to protein digestion (100 µg) performed with an eFASP method (enhanced 191 Filter Aided Sample Preparation) (Erde et al., 2014; Helle et al., 2018) using 192 chymotrypsin at a protein:enzyme ratio of 1:50 (w/w). After digestion, the peptide 193 concentration was determined with Denovix 11 + (DS-11+, Denovix, Wilmington, USA), 194 and the concentration was adjusted to 1 µg/µL by dilution with ultrapure water containing 195 0.1% formic acid (Sigma-Aldrich). NanoLC-MS/MS was performed on an Orbitrap Q 196 Exactive plus mass spectrometer via a U3000 RSLC Microfluidic HPLC System 197 198 (ThermoFisher Scientific, Massachusetts, USA) (Helle et al 2018). One microliter of the peptide mixture at a concentration of 1 μg/μL was injected with solvent A (5% 199 acetonitrile and 0.1% formic acid v/v) for 3 min at a flow rate of 10 µl/min on an Acclaim 200 PepMap100 C18 pre-column (5 µm, 300 µm i.d. × 5 mm). The peptides were separated 201 on a C18 Acclaim PepMap100 C18 reversed phase column (3 µm, 75 mm i.d. × 500 202 mm), using a linear gradient (5-40%) of solution B (75% acetonitrile and 0.1% formic 203 acid) at a rate of 250 nL.min-1. The column was washed with 100% solution B for 5 204

minutes and then re-equilibrated with solvent A. The column and pre-column were maintained at 40°C. The analysis duration was 185mins. The LC runs were acquired in positive ion mode with MS scans from m/z 350-1,500 in the Orbitrap at a resolution of 70,000 at m/z 400. The automatic gain was set at 1e10⁶. Sequential MS/MS scans were acquired at 35,000 resolution at m/z 400 in the high-energy collision/dissociation cell for the 15 most-intense ions detected by full-MS survey scans. Automatic gain control was set at 5e10⁵, and the collision energy was 28 eV. Dynamic exclusion was set at 90s and ions with 1 and more than 8 charges were excluded.

Proteomics data were processed with PEAKS X+ (Bioinformatics software, Waterloo, Canada) against a homemade database containing BSA sequences (Swissprot accession number, P02769). Precursor ion mass tolerance was 10 ppm and fragment ion mass tolerance 0.05 Da. Three missed cleavages were allowed. Cysteine carbamidomethylation (C) (+57.02 Da) was set as a fixed modification. Deamidation (NQ) (+0.98 Da), Oxidation or Hydroxylation (MRYPNKD) (+15.99 Da), Carboxymethyl (KR) (+58.005 Da), Glyoxal-derived hydroimidazolones (R) (+39.994 Da), Nε-acetyllysine (K) (+42.010 Da), Nε-formyl-lysine (K) (+27.994 Da) were selected as variable modifications. Six variable PTMs (post-translational modifications) were allowed per peptide. PEAKS PTM and SPIDER algorithms were run with similar parameters to search for 313 PTMs, and peptide mutations and homology. The false detection rate (FDR) was set to 1%, and minimal ion intensity for modification was set to 2%.

Raw files from eFASP were analyzed using Mass Spec Studio v 2.1.2.3107 (Sarpe et al., 2016). Thus, GOLA (2S)-amino-6-(2-((5S)-amino-5-carboxypentylamino)acetamido)hexanoic acid hydrochloride salt (+39.994 Da), GODIC (2S)-2-amino-6-[[2-[[(4S)-4-amino-4-carboxybutyl]amino]-1,4-dihydroimidazol-5-

ylidene]amino]hexanoic acid (+21.984 Da) and GOLD (6-{1-[(5S)-5-ammonio-6-oxido-6-oxohexyl]imidazolium-3-yl}norleucinate) lysine – lysine crosslink (+34.992 Da) were selected as variable modifications, and carbamidomethyl cysteine and methionine oxidation were set as a dynamic modifications. Trypsin was selected as an enzyme with 3 missed cleavages. The error of MS and MS/MS precursors was set to 10 ppm, while the minimum charge of peptides was 3 and the maximum 8. Peptide cross-links with a

score higher than 18 were considered for further analysis. The percentages presented correspond to the proportion, relative to the control BSA, of a given modification on a specific peptide modified by the GA or GO reactions. These percentages were calculated for each of the triplicate proteomics analyses, enabling an average value to be calculated for a given modification of a given peptide (Pien et al., 2022). The MS proteomics data have been deposited on the ProteomeXchange Consortium (http://proteomecentral. proteomexchange.org) via the PRIDE partner repository (Vizcaíno, et al., 2012) with the data set identifier PXD041212.

2.6. Stability of rodent feed pellets enriched with native or glycated BSA

Rodent feed pellets (A04) were prepared by SAFE Custom Diets (Augy, France) and enriched with native or glycated BSA (GO) by extrusion. A total of 7.5 g/kg_{pellets} of glycated BSA was incorporated into pellets to give a dCML diet with 200 μ g_{CML}/g_{pellets}. Similarly, 7.5 g/kg_{pellets} of non-glycated, native BSA was incorporated into pellets as a control diet (STD). A 50 kg batch of the STD diet and a 40 kg batch of the dCML diet were prepared. Each preparation was divided into vacuum-sealed plastic bags containing 10 kg each, submitted to gamma radiation (25 kGy), then stored at 20°C for up to 80 days. Individual bags were opened for use approximately every 20 days and the assays described below were performed.

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2.6.1. Quantitation of total protein content

- Total protein in feed pellets was determined in triplicate using the Dumas method in a
- LECO FP528 nitrogen analyzer (Garges les Gonesse, France). One hundred milligrams
- of powdered pellets were analyzed according to AOAC method 990.03 (AOAC, 1995).
- The classical nitrogen-to-protein conversion factor of 6.25 was used to calculate protein
- 259 content.

2.6.2. LC-MS/MS quantification of lysine, CML, and furosine after acid hydrolysis

- Duplicate analyses of feed pellets were performed in ESI+ mode on a TSQ Quantum
- Ultra MS/MS (ThermoFisher) using a Raptor PolarX column (100 x 2.1 mm, 2.7 μm;
- same-phase guard column 5 x 2.1 mm, 2.7 μm; column at 40°C; Restek, Lisses,
- France). The binary mobile phase, pumped at 500 μL/min over 13 mins, consisted of

- 10% 200 mmol/L ammonium formate in ACN (solvent A) and aqueous 0.5% formic acid
- 266 (solvent B), with the following gradient: %B: 0-3.5 min, 12%; 3.5-8 min, 12-70%; 8-13
- 267 min, 12%.
- Thirty-milligram sub-samples of crushed, homogenized pellets were accurately weighed,
- and samples were either reduced with NaBH₄ prior to hydrolysis (quantification of Lys
- and CML) or hydrolyzed in 6M HCl without prior reduction (110°C for 21h quantification
- of Fur). The analysis procedure was similar to that described in section 2.5.1., except
- 272 re-solubilization and dilutions were in aqueous 0.01 M HCl (x20 for Lys, x2 for CML, x10
- 273 for Fur).

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2.7. Total CML quantification in mouse feces

- 275 Mouse feces from animals fed with either the STD or dCML diets were collected from
- 276 two independent cages housing three animals each. A total of 3 g of feces were
- collected (weekly collections from the same cages over 3 weeks), and the results
- 278 presented here represent the averaged CML concentrations in feces over this period.
- 279 The LC-MS/MS analyses of mouse feces were performed in triplicate (500 mg
- subsamples) (section 2.5.1). The animals from which feces were collected were not
- sacrificed at this stage since they were part of another study (Project approval number:
- 282 23208-2019120215543800 v4; they were later euthanized by intraperitoneal injection of
- 283 ketamine (150 mg/kg) and xylazine (10 mg/kg) followed by cervical dislocation for
- 284 collection of biological fluids and organs).

2.8. Statistical analyses

- Data are represented as means ± standard deviation. One way ANOVA test followed by
- Tukey's posthoc test was performed for multiple comparisons (BSA-GA vs. Native BSA
- (control) vs. BSA-GO) of the significance of differences between the control group and
- the other samples. Analyses were performed using GraphPad Prism 9.0 (San Diego,
- 290 CA, USA) at $\alpha = 0.05$.

292 3. Results and discussion

293 3.1. Quantification of CML, lysine, and arginine in BSA model systems using

294 glyoxylic acid or ribose with or without glyoxal

We explored different approaches to establish an efficient method for CML fortification of BSA which avoided heating or the use of NaBH₃CN. In a first set of experiments, five reactions (GA-A to -F) with equimolar quantities of lysine were incubated with different molar ratios of GA and NaBH₄, NaBH(OAc)₃, or NaBH₃CN (Table 1). The formation of CML ranged between 13.0 ±1.3 and 235.0 ±23.5 µmol/g BSA, corresponding to a minimum of 1% of lysine transformed into CML using NaBH(OAc)₃ (GA-B and -C), and a maximum of 24% of CML using NaBH₃CN (GA-E) (Table 2). No linear increase in CML yield was observed with increasing molar ratios of glyoxylic acid and NaBH₃CN to lysine (GA-F), but increasing GA and NaBH₃CN resulted in a higher loss of lysine, indicating that modifications other than CML took place under these more reactive conditions. The CML yields (%) are presented in Table 2 with corresponding percentage losses of lysine.

Table 2. CML yield (% lysine converted) and lysine loss (%) in native BSA and in BSA glycated with glyoxylic acid (GA) using reductive amination with NaBH₄, NaBH(OAc)₃, or NaBH₃CN, or from BSA glycated with ribose (R) +/- glyoxal (GO; see also Table 1).

Sample		Lysine loss		
Sample	μmol/g BSA	% of lysine converted into CML	% of initial lysine	
Native BSA (Control)	0.5 ± 0.05	0.05 ± 0.005	0	
GA-A	29.0 ± 2.9	3.0 ± 0.3	3.0 ± 0.3	
GA-B	13.0 ± 1.3	1.0 ± 0.1	1.0 ± 0.1	
GA-C	13.0 ± 1.3	1.0 ± 0.1	1.0 ± 0.1	
GA-D	104.0 ± 10.4	11.0 ± 1.1	12.0 ± 1.2	
GA-E	235.0 ± 23.5	24.0 ± 2.4	24.0 ± 2.4	
GA-F	182.0 ± 18.2	20.0 ± 2.0	29.0 ± 2.9	
R-A	19.0 ± 2.3	2.1 ± 0.2	37.5 ± 2.0	
R-B	15.5 ± 1.0	1.7 ± 0.1	58.5 ± 5.0	
R-GO-A	20.2 ± 2.5	2.2 ± 0.2	41.2 ± 2.7	
R-GO-B	32.0 ± 3.2	3.5 ± 0.1	51.7 ± 5.0	

Different boron hydrides have been extensively used as reducing agents in the synthesis of protein-bound CML. Overall, we observed that NaBH₄ (GA-A) and NaBH(OAc)₃ (GA-B and -C) were relatively ineffective compared with NaBH₃CN (GA-D to -F). Others have

reported that NaBH₄ is a less selective reagent, requiring a pre-incubation phase for 315 imine formation (Ranu et al., 1998), while NaBH(OAc)₃ has a limited reduction activity 316 due to the stereo effect of the three acetoxy groups (Abdel-Magid et al., 1996). As 317 anticipated, NaBH3CN proved to be the most effective reducing agent due to the 318 preferential reduction of iminium ions formed under oxidative conditions at physiological 319 pH (Borch et al., 1971). The CML yields presented here were similar to other studies 320 using comparable synthetic routes. The study of Ikeda et al. (1996), working on CML-321 BSA fortification via reductive amination of a BSA-GA system, reported 16% of lysine 322 was converted to CML. In another protein model (casein), lysine modification to CML 323 324 was shown to be 38-55% using NaBH₃CN (Andersen et al., 2012; Faist et al., 2001). To examine whether other carbonyl compounds could improve CML yield, we tested the 325 synergy of ribose with glyoxal. Ribose has an unstable cyclic form, rendering it a more 326 reactive sugar compared with hexoses (Wei et al., 2012), which could favor the glycation 327 of proteins (Glomb & Monnier, 1995). Here, reactions including ribose (R-A and R-B, R-328 329 GO-A and R-GO-B; Table 1) exhibited no real increase in CML production over the BSA-GA system, reaching a maximum of 3.5% lysine transformation to CML. However, high 330 percentage losses of lysine were observed (38%-59%), suggesting the transformation of 331 lysine residues into glycation products other than CML (Table 2). In line with the CML 332 yields observed after 16h of reaction between BSA and ribose, the glycation of BSA by 333 ribose alone was shown to produce 0.1 and 10.3% of CML after 5h and 170h incubation 334 at 37°C, respectively (Glomb & Monnier, 1995). 335

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3.2. Quantification of CML, lysine, and arginine in a new BSA model system using only glyoxal

We then examined a glycation system using glyoxal as the only carbonyl compound (GO-A to -E, Table 1). Under these conditions, CML was formed proportionally with the glyoxal concentration: 0.5, 1, 4, 9 & 13% of lysine modification with 20, 40, 100, 200, and 300 mmol/L of glyoxal, respectively (Figures 1a and 1b). Exceeding 300 mmol/L of glyoxal did not generate more CML (data not shown). Nevertheless, the increase in glyoxal concentrations promoted a concomitant loss of lysine (3, 6, 10, 22, and 31%), accompanied by the emergence of high-molecular-weight BSA complexes visible on

western blot membranes (Figure 1b). The glycation process likely changed the intrinsic characteristics of BSA. This phenomenon has been demonstrated recently in a BSA-glucose model where glycation-induced conformational changes were reported, such as the loss of the secondary α-helix structures of BSA (Peng et al., 2023). In addition, glyoxal is a well-known protein crosslinking agent, resulting in the formation of GOLD, GOLA, and GODIC (Glomb & Pfahler, 2001; Lopez-Clavijo et al., 2014), which may explain the occurrence of a higher proportion of high molecular weight (>130 kDa) protein with increasing glyoxal concentrations (Figure 1b). We discuss this in more detail later in this text.

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Although serum albumins (bovine or human) have a higher proportion of lysine than arginine, glyoxal would preferentially promote limited protein modifications of arginine rather than lysine residues (Henning & Glomb, 2016). While other amino acids such as tryptophan, histidine and cysteine are also susceptible to modification with glyoxylic acid and glyoxal (Herraiz et al., 2022), and modifications of cysteine were observed in our proteomics analyses (data not shown), the focus of our study was the more significant modifications of lysine and arginine residues of our BSA protein. In a recent investigation by Henning et al. (2022), less than 4% of the lysine in a BSA-GO (18 mmol/L) model system was converted to CML, while almost 10% of the total arginine residues were converted into Nω-carboxymethyl-arginine (CMA) (Henning et al., 2022). From our experience, a gradual loss of Coomassie blue staining was noticed with the increase in glyoxal concentration (Figures 1b and 1d). This protein staining occurs through the interaction of the dye with basic (lysine, arginine, and histidine) and hydrophobic moieties (phenylalanine and tryptophan), and arginine has been indicated as a primary interaction site with Coomassie anionic species (Georgiou et al., 2008). Hence, the high arginine loss in GO-E samples (>70%, Figure 1e) may have resulted in reduced Coomassie blue staining (Figures 1b and 1d). In addition, it is important to highlight that the overall electrostatic affinity is reduced when glycation takes place. The conversion of lysine, a basic amino acid, into CML which includes an acidic carboxylate, may also have reduced the extent of Coomassie blue staining in both GA-E and GO-E samples.

3.3. Fluorescent characterization of native and glycated BSA

While CML is not fluorescent, other AGEs such as argpyrimidine, HA-triosidine, pentosidine, and vesperlysine are (Perrone et al., 2020). The excitation and emission wavelength ranges for fluorescent AGEs are around 320-380 nm and 380-440 nm, respectively. Measuring fluorescence at their classical wavelengths is an easy and inexpensive way to estimate the formation of AGEs other than CML during the protein-bound CML fortification, and additionally provides an indication of the specificity of the chemical reaction.

We determined the fluorescence spectra in GA-E and GO-E samples, then compared their fluorescence using 340 nm and 425 nm as excitation and emission wavelengths, respectively (Figure 2). Greatest fluorescence intensity was observed in the GO-E samples, indicating extensive formation of fluorescent glycation adducts or crosslinks under these conditions. A 15-fold difference in fluorescence intensity was observed between the GA-modified BSA and the GO-modified BSA (*p*<0.0001; Figure 2b). None of the fluorescent AGEs listed above are known to be formed from glyoxylic acid or glyoxal alone, however, and their formation pathways have been shown to involve reducing sugars with at least 3-carbons (Tessier et al., 2003). The fluorescent adducts or crosslinks formed in our BSA-GA or BSA-GO systems therefore remain to be elucidated.

3.4. Proteomic characterization of native and glycated BSA

In an attempt to identify the modifications promoted by the glycation of BSA, we further compared the triplicate GA-E (GA-E.1 to 3) and GO-E reactions (GO-E.1 to 3 – Table 1) using proteomic approaches. To overcome the decrease in digestion yield by trypsin following the creation of CML and CMA, which remove the basic sites recognized by this enzyme (Lapolla et al., 2004), we performed a chymotrypsin digestion which is not hampered by this change as it cleaves the protein after large, hydrophobic amino acids. The CML incidence (%) was calculated relative to non-glycated, native BSA. The average CML yield from the BSA-GA system was 29 ±6%, while the CML yield from the BSA-GO incubations was similar at 21 ±3% (Figure 1c). Both the CML yields and shifts in electrophoretic migration of the protein were relatively reproducible among the triplicates (Figures 1c and 1d).

The native BSA protein contains 59 lysine residues, of which 52 exhibited modifications in both native and glycated BSA (Supplemental material). Differences in the incidence of lysine modifications between native BSA and the GA- or GO-glycated BSA were statistically significant for only 34 of these residues (p<0.05, Figure 3a). Among these, GA promoted a higher incidence of CML in residues commonly glycated by both reagents. This was observed for 17 lysine residues where the intensity of modifications promoted by GA was significantly higher compared with GO (p<0.05). Six further residues were exclusively modified in the GA-E samples (K155, K183, K204, K211, K235, K495). These observations suggest a greater chemical efficacy of the glycation of lysine residues to CML by GA compared with GO, while the glycation of lysine residues only accessible to GA might explain the slightly higher CML yield we observed in our BSA-GA system. Some of the modified residues in Figure 3a accord with previous studies on the glycation of BSA by fructose. Hinton & Ames (2006) identified nine lysine residues particularly susceptible to glycation with fructose (K28, K36, K151, K180, K399, K437, K495, K523, K548), eight of which feature among the residues in Figure 3a, suggesting that glycation of lysine to CML occurs preferentially at these specific sites on the BSA protein.

A significant incidence of arginine modifications was only observed with glyoxal. A small proportion of arginine residues R371 and R507 were converted into CMA (Figure 3b), but the main glycation adduct of this amino acid was G-H1, which exceeded 80% of the R232 and R507 residues in the GO-E samples (Figure 3c). The incidence of glycation modifications of residues R232, R371, and R507 did not completely explain the average 76% arginine loss we observed in our BSA-GO system, involving a total of 23 arginine residues (Figure 1e). This implies that low-incidence modifications may affect these residues, but that their detection was limited by the sensitivity of our proteomics method.

MALDI-TOF analysis comparing native BSA, GA- and GO-modified BSA revealed a molecular weight change from 66,762 Da (native BSA) to 68,043 Da (GA-E samples) and 68,830 Da (GO-E samples), a difference of 1281 Da and 2068 Da, respectively. The percentage incidence of CML on the lysine residues in Figure 3a enabled an estimate of

CML-related increases in the molecular weight of glycated BSA, and showed increases of 1033 Da (GA) and 608 Da (GO). Hence, the CML-related increment in mass (Da) accounted for 80% of the total mass gain in the GA-E samples, but only 30% of the mass gain in the GO-E samples. As expected, then, the increases in molecular weight observed by MALDI-TOF were not explained by the formation of CML alone, but were likely also due to the formation of other glycation adducts and crosslinks. These results are also in line with evidence of a greater diversity of glycation products in GO-E samples seen in the western blot (Figure 1b and 1d) and fluorescence assays (Figure 2).

We detected signals for high molecular weight molecules by both western blot (Figure 1b and 1d) and MALDI-TOF (data not shown) which we hypothesize result from the formation of BSA dimers and trimers associated with glycation crosslinking. The GO-E samples exhibited a significant incidence of the lysine-lysine crosslink GOLD (LSHK130DDSPDLPK138LK140PDPNTLCDEF) between two identical peptides from two different BSA molecules which was not detected in either the native BSA nor the GA-E samples (Figure 3d). This may explain the higher proportion of high molecular weight (>130 kDa) bands clearly observed in western-blot membranes of these samples (Figures 1b and 1d). Both GA- and GO-BSA exhibited signals for the lysine-lysine, glyoxal-derived cross-link GOLA (QEAK346DAFLGSF and AEDK336DVCK340NY, SALTPDETYVPK⁵²³AF and DEK⁵²⁸LF), but this was significant only in the GA-E samples. The low incidence of these crosslinks accords with the literature, where the formation of GOLD, GOLA (two lysine-lysine crosslinks), or GODIC (a lysine-arginine crosslink) are described as being of minor quantitative importance (Henning et al., 2022). The low signal intensity from the depleted fractions in such crosslinks observed here could be improved by a pre-concentration of BSA dimers and trimers prior to proteomic analysis.

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3.5. Stability of rodent feed pellets enriched with native or GO-glycated BSA

The work described so far was intended to provide a more complete understanding of precisely which glycation products would be added to rodent feed pellets enriched with glycated BSA. The experimental design involved long-term exposure to high dCML, and so CML and furosine (an acid-hydrolysis derivative of the Amadori product fructose-lysine) were rigorously quantified by LC-MS/MS; we were also curious as to the stability of our BSA-enriched pellets over time. Both STD and dCML diets were respectively supplemented with equal amounts of non-glycated, native BSA and glyoxal-glycated BSA (equivalent to GO-E samples). The inclusion of native or GO-modified protein was performed in batches by SAFE Diets and both were stored at 20°C in 10 kg bags. The concentrations of lysine, total protein, furosine and CML of the initial batches are presented in Figure 4, which also illustrates their stability over time.

The STD and dCML diets did not differ in initial concentrations of lysine, total protein or furosine levels (p>0.05) (Figure 4a - c). The dCML diet contained 270.5 ± 40.6 µg CML/g D_{ry}W_{eight} of food, approximately 10-fold more CML than the STD diet (26.3 ± 0.9 µg CML/g D_{ry}W_{eight} of food) (Figure 4d). The different diets were fed to mice during 80 days of experiments and the stability of lysine, total protein, furosine, and CML was assessed by analyzing a sample at the opening of each 10 kg bag. While small fluctuations in these concentrations were expected due to the relatively small sample size taken from each bag, the overall stability of the lysine and total protein contents was good (Figures 4a and 4b).

While there was no difference in initial furosine levels between the two diets, concentrations rose significantly in both diets over the 80 days of storage (*p*<0.05; this effect was also verified in other batches, data not shown). Furosine is a product formed during acid hydrolysis of Amadori products, and is a widely used surrogate measure of fructose-lysine (Erbersdobler & Somoza, 2007). We observed an increase in furosine with storage time which we hypothesize results from the presence of reactive sugars in the raw material used for rodent food preparation. This increase was not affected by the type of BSA used to fortify the feed pellets (either native or glycated), and the formation of fructose-lysine during the storage of common foods is widely described. For example, an increase in furosine of up to 37% has been reported in infant formulas stored at 25°C (Bosch et al., 2008). To our knowledge, our results present for the first time the evolution of an early glycation product in animal feed pellets stored at 20°C.

The stability of CML in rodent food over 80 days at 20°C is shown in Figure 4d. The STD diet, supplemented with native BSA, showed small but nonetheless significant reduction in dCML contents over time (p<0.05). The dCML diet, supplemented with GOglycated BSA, exhibited a decrease in CML over time from 40 days in stock (p<0.05). Very few studies have assessed the stability of CML in foods during cooking or storage. This may be linked to the widely held belief that AGEs are, by definition, chemically stable molecules with low reactivity that simply accumulate over time. However, we have already observed a degradation of CML during prolonged cooking of meats (unpublished data), and Cheng et al. (2014) have also shown a decrease in CML over time in cookies heated from 180 to 230°C. But the decrease in dCML content we observed was after long-term storage of the feed pellets at room temperature, and the time/temperature combination is thus totally different from the observation by Cheng et al. (2014). And since we observe an increase in fructose-lysine during storage, it is possible that at least part of the CML is lost to the formation of N-ε-carboxymethyl-N-ε-(1-deoxyfructosyl)-I-lysine (CMFL), which has been recently described in model systems (Hellwig et al., 2022). This newly reported glycation product confirms the reactivity of the secondary amino group of CML, and we have already observed the formation of N-ε-dicarboxymethyl-l-lysine in model systems (unpublished data), but CMFL is the first heterogeneous, multiple glycation to be described. Future analyses of rodent pellets will include CMFL, but with regard to the current study we are not aware of any reports of chemical instability of CML during storage and, while the decrease is small, its apparent instability in fortified rodent chow requires further consideration.

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3.6. dCML excretion in mouse feces

Mice fed with the STD diet had an average dCML intake approximately 10-fold less than animals on the dCML diet. The daily exposure to dCML was estimated to be 2.1 mg CML/kg body weight in the STD group and 23 mg CML/kg in the dCML group. We confirmed that CML fecal excretion was proportional to this disparity in CML concentrations between the 2 diets. The average CML concentration in fresh feces of the STD and dCML groups was 35.00 \pm 2.64 μ g CML/g_{feces} in the STD group, and 299.67 \pm 14.74 μ g CML/g_{feces}, respectively (p<0.05). When CML excretion was expressed as a

percentage of ingested CML, we found a small but significant difference between groups corresponding to 26% (STD) and 33% (dCML), or roughly 1/3 of the ingested CML (p=0.02). Overall, CML fecal excretion was found to be proportional to the daily dietary intake. Others have reported similar results in mice, rats, and humans. A study which quantified the fecal elimination of CML by adult rats reported an excretion of about 37% among animals that consumed extruded proteins (Alamir et al., 2013). Our results are also in line with a previous study in humans exposed to a low- or high-CML diet (22.5-31.7% CML excretion) (Delgado-Andrade et al., 2012). The excretion of CML is reported to be associated with clearance into urine as well as feces, partial retention in organs and tissues, as well as partial metabolism, essentially by colonic microbiota (Hellwig et al., 2019; Tessier et al., 2016). However, a complete picture of all the mechanisms that govern dCML accumulation, metabolism, and excretion remains to be elucidated.

4. Conclusions

In summary, we have shown that an efficient and reproducible synthesis of proteinbound CML can be achieved with the use of glyoxal in a BSA model system. The reaction of glyoxylic acid and NaBH₃CN to produce CML remains the most effective method with respect to the CML yields, resulting in fewer structural modifications of the BSA molecule compared with glyoxal. We recognize that the glyoxal concentrations used here may seem extreme, but it was necessary to minimize the volume of reactions to be dialyzed for the large-scale production of protein-bound CML. Although no food models perfectly mimic the glycation of BSA, and none of the reactions herein can be described as representative of glycation as it may occur during industrial or domestic food preparation, we aimed to add glycated BSA to animal feed pellets in a way that minimized alterations to the food matrix. The fecal excretion of CML in animals on the dCML diet, produced from extruded pellets fortified with glyoxal-modified BSA, was very similar to literature values for CML excretion in both animals and humans. This suggests that, despite the highly artificial conditions associated with our manufacture of a synthetic dCML diet, CML absorption/excretion dynamics in our murine model remained similar to those reported elsewhere.

Although using glyoxylic acid with NaBH₃CN induced more specific glycation of the BSA's lysine residues, the results of our comparative study underline that even this method does not generate CML alone. Acid hydrolysis followed by isotope-dilution LC-MS/MS allowed us to precisely determine the concentrations of CML, lysine and arginine. A limitation of this approach is of course that it was not possible to quantify other AGEs more or less sensitive to acid hydrolysis such as CMA and G-H1, but our proteomic analyses, using a milder enzymatic hydrolysis, enabled us to reveal the presence of these AGEs. Lysine-lysine dimers GOLD and GOLA occurred at only a low frequency, indicating a low probability of formation of these AGEs even under the very intensive conditions of *in vitro* glycation, but which was also close to the limits of sensitivity for our analytical technique. It may be that further characterization of these samples, notably the number and type of crosslinks, will raise further research questions, but this study nevertheless adds significant knowledge to facilitate the production of glycated proteins for the study of dietary AGEs.

- **Declaration of interests:** Authors declare no conflict of interest.
- **Ethical approval:** All experiments carried out in animals were in accordance with the French ethical laws. Project approval number: 23208-2019120215543800 v4.
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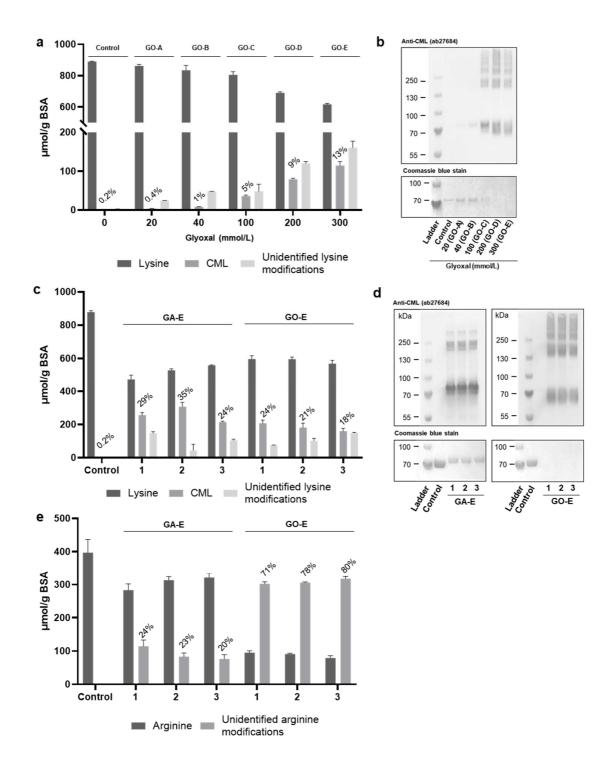


Figure 1. CML formation after incubating BSA with glyoxylic acid (GA) or glyoxal (GO). (a) LC-MS/MS quantification of lysine, CML, and the estimation of lysine modifications other than CML in samples GO-A to -E. Percent notations indicate the proportions of lysine residues converted to CML in GA- and GO-BSA glycation systems relative to native BSA. (b) Protein-bound CML detection on a

western blot with increasing concentrations of glyoxal. Respective Coomassie blue staining of the acrylamide gel in GO-A to -E samples. (c) LC-MS/MS quantification of lysine, CML, and the estimation of lysine modifications other than CML within GA-E triplicates (GA-E.1, GA-E.2, GA-E.3) and GO-E triplicates (GO-E.1, GO-E.2, GO-E.3). Percent notations indicate the number of lysine residues converted to CML relative to native BSA. (d) Protein-bound CML detection on a western blot on GA-E and GO-E replicates, together with their respective Coomassie blue staining on acrylamide gel. (e) LC-MS/MS quantification of arginine and its modifications on GA-E and GO-E replicates. Percent notations indicate the number of arginine residues converted to unknown arginine modifications, again relative to native BSA.

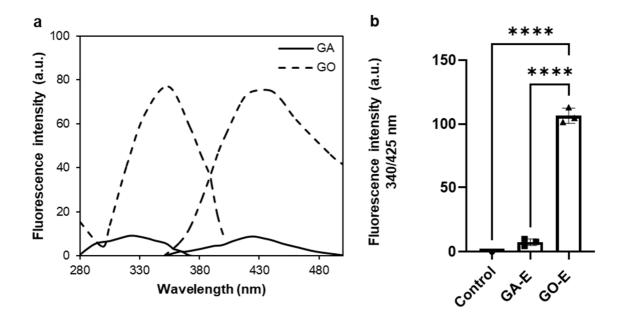


Figure 2. (a) Excitation and emission spectra of glyoxylic acid-modified BSA (GA-E samples) and glyoxal-modified BSA (GO-E samples) and (b) fluorescence intensity of native BSA (control), GA-E and GO-E samples at pH 8. Fluorescence excitation was set to 340 nm for the emission spectra, and emission to 425 nm for the excitation spectra. Control versus GA groups: p= 0.4305. Bars represent fluorescence intensity means \pm SD of the GA-E (GA-E.1 to 3) and GO-E triplicates (GO-E.1 to 3). ***** p<0.0001.

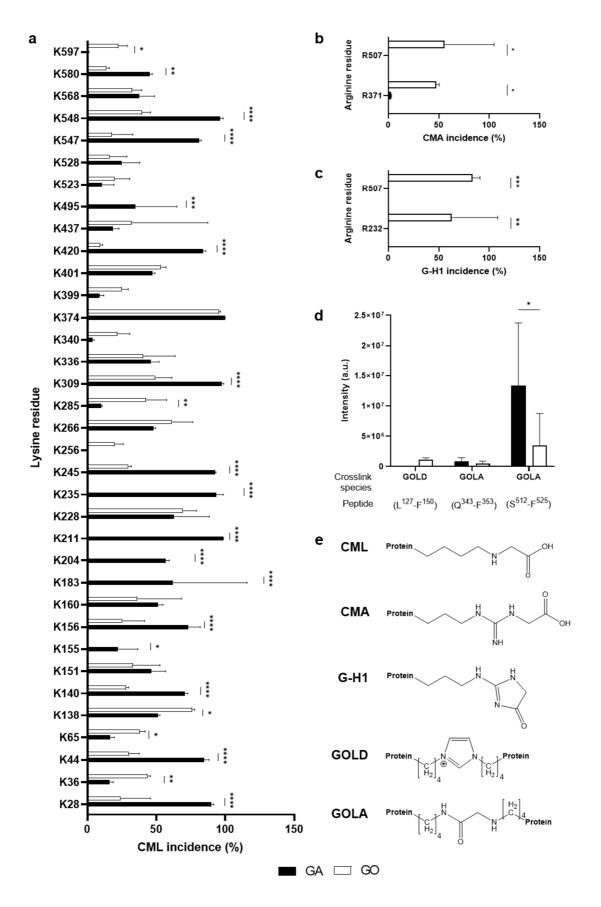


Figure 3. Proteomic analysis of glyoxylic acid (GA) and glyoxal (GO) modified BSA. Only the residues that were significantly modified relative to the original amino acid in non-glycated, native BSA have their p value indicated. (a) Average CML incidence (%) in GA- and GO-modified BSA molecules. Average CMA (b) and G-H1 (c) incidence (%) in GA- and GO-modified BSA. (d) Identification of potential crosslink sites on GA- and GO-modified BSA. Bars represent mean \pm SD values (n=3). (e) Chemical structures of the main glycation products identified by proteomic analyses. * $p \le 0.05$; ** $p \le 0.01$; *** $p \le 0.001$; **** $p \le 0.0001$ for comparisons between the control (non-glycated, native BSA), GA-BSA, and GO-BSA. Bars corresponding to non-glycated BSA are all equal to zero.

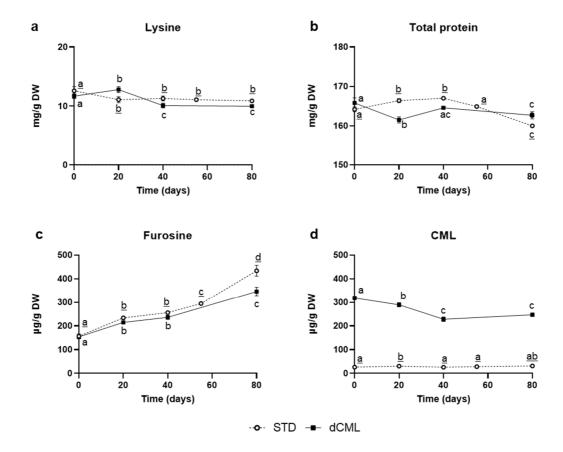


Figure 4. Temporal LC-MS/MS quantification of (a) lysine, (b) total protein, (c) furosine, and (d) CML in extruded mouse food pellets enriched with native BSA (STD) or GO-BSA to mimic a CML-rich diet (dCML), over 80 days of storage at 20 °C. Values are expressed as a function of the dry weight (DW) of rodent food. Different letters represent significant difference within diets. Underlined letters correspond to comparisons within STD diet, while non-underlined letters show comparisons within dCML at α =0.05.