

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

Mt Nogueira Silva Lima, M Howsam, Carine Delayre-Orthez, Philippe Jacolot, S Jaisson, J Criquet, M Billamboz, A Ghinet, C Fradin, E Boulanger, et al.

▶ To cite this version:

Mt Nogueira Silva Lima, M Howsam, Carine Delayre-Orthez, Philippe Jacolot, S Jaisson, et al.. 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. Food Chemistry, 2023, 428, pp.136815. 10.1016/j.foodchem.2023.136815 . hal-04186828

HAL Id: hal-04186828 https://normandie-univ.hal.science/hal-04186828v1

Submitted on 30 Oct 2024

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers. L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés. 1 Glycated bovine serum albumin for use in feeding trials with animal models – in vitro 2 methodology and characterization of a glycated substrate for modifying feed pellets

MT Nogueira Silva Lima¹, M Howsam¹, C Delayre-Orthez², P Jacolot², S Jaisson³, J Criquet⁴, M
Billamboz^{1,5}, A Ghinet^{1,5}, C Fradin¹, E Boulanger¹, F Bray⁶, S Flament⁶, C Rolando⁶, P Gillery³, C
Niquet-Léridon², FJ Tessier¹

8 U1167-RID-AGE-Facteurs de Risque et Déterminants Moléculaires des Affiliations: 9 Maladies Liées au Vieillissement. Institut Pasteur de Lille. University Lille, Inserm, CHU Lille, F-59000 Lille, France; ²Institut Polytechnique UniLaSalle, Université 10 d'Artois, ULR 7519, Equipe PETALES, 60000 Beauvais, France; ³University of Reims 11 Champagne-Ardenne, Laboratory of Biochemistry and Molecular Biology, CNRS/URCA UMR 12 7369 MEDyC, Faculté de Médecine, 51095 Reims, France; University Hospital of Reims, 13 Laboratory of Biochemistry-Pharmacology-Toxicology, 51092 Reims, France ⁴ Univ. Lille, 14 Laboratory of Advanced Spectroscopy for Interactions, Reactivity and Environment, CNRS, 15 UMR 8516 - LASIRE, Lille F-59000, France; ⁵Junia, Health and Environment, Laboratory of 16 Sustainable Chemistry and Health, 59000 Lille, France; 6 Miniaturization for Synthesis, Analysis 17 18 & Proteomics, UAR 3290, CNRS, University of Lille, 59655 Villeneuve d'Ascq Cedex, France.

1920 Abstract

This study investigated different methods to produce N^ε-carboxymethyl-lysine (CML)-21 enriched bovine serum albumin (BSA) as alternatives to the classical approach using 22 glyoxylic acid (GA) and sodium cyanoborohydride (NaBH₃CN) which results in toxic 23 hydrogen cyanide (HCN). The reaction of GA (6 mmol/L) and NaBH₃CN (21 mmol/L) to 24 produce CML remained the most effective with CML yields of 24-35%, followed by 13-25 24% using 300 mmol/L glyoxal (GO). GA promoted specific modification of lysine to 26 CML, and fewer structural modifications of the BSA molecule compared with GO, as 27 evidenced by fluorescence and proteomic analyses. GO promoted greater arginine 28 modification compared with GA (76 vs 23%). Despite structural changes to BSA with 29 GO, murine fecal clearance of CML was similar to literature values. Hence, BSA 30 31 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 32 remains to be described. 33

34 **Keywords:** carboxymethyllysine; glycation; BSA; glyoxal

35

36 **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 42 food is a matter of concern. In industrial or household cooking processes, the 43 development of appealing aromas, flavors, and colors goes hand-in-hand with the 44 formation of dietary AGEs (dAGEs) (Lund & Ray, 2017). It is well-documented that 45 thermally-processed foods are a key dietary source of these neo-formed compounds. 46 47 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) 48 (Nogueira Silva Lima et al., 2021). 49

In rodents, studies of increased exposure to glycated proteins in food have employed 50 protocols including heating of food (*e.g.* autoclaving, baking) (van Dongen et al., 2021), 51 supplementing food with free AGEs (Helou et al., 2022), or administering a diet enriched 52 in protein-bound AGEs (*e.g.* casein, bovine serum albumin) (Grossin et al., 2015). Given 53 the heterogeneous nature of dAGEs resulting from these different methods, it is difficult 54 to decipher the effect of a single compound and the precise implications of dAGEs for 55 health remain elusive. This is partly because the different protocols are intended to 56 address different research questions. In animal experiments, heating food has the 57 advantage of representing a process similar to industrial processing or household 58 cooking and enables the study of a representative cocktail of dAGEs. However, the 59 disadvantage is that certain micronutrients are degraded, potentially biasing the effects 60 61 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 62 approach does not represent the main route of exposure to dAGEs as they exist 63 primarily in the protein-bound form in food. Lastly, administering diets supplemented with 64 synthetic, well-characterized, protein-bound dAGEs enables the study of a predominant 65 dAGE and reduces nutritional confounders associated with the heating of foods. 66 However, the synthesis of protein-bound dAGEs often lacks an extensive assessment of 67 the precise modifications of glycated proteins. 68

Protein-bound N^ε-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). Proteinbound 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-77 78 exclusive synthesis method has been described the most selective approach, to our knowledge, uses glyoxylic acid and sodium cyanoborohydride (NaBH₃CN) for the 79 generation of dCML in proteins including casein, ovalbumin, or albumin (Faist et al., 80 2001). Classic reductive amination of glyoxylic acid in the presence of NaBH₃CN has 81 been reported to convert 16%-44% of the lysine moieties into CML (Andersen et al., 82 2012; Ikeda et al., 1996). Despite the high CML yields of this approach, the toxic 83 hydrogen cyanide (HCN) gas produced is potentially harmful to laboratory personnel and 84 an inherent contaminant of animal food preparations. Chemically safer alternative 85 methods have been proposed using sodium borohydride (NaBH₄), sodium 86 triacetoxyborohydride (NaBH(OAc)₃) reducing agents, and ribose- or glyoxal-driven 87 reactions (Andersen et al., 2012; Faist et al., 2001; Glomb & Pfahler, 2001). These 88 methods do not result in the production of HCN, but they may be expensive or require 89 inflammable or toxic solvents (*e.g.* dichloroethane). 90

91 Here we present a broad, comparative characterization of classical and alternative methods of converting lysine into CML, investigating other glycation hotspots such as 92 93 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 94 also an effective way of producing CML without the nutritional loss associated with heat 95 treatment. Our goal here was to compare the efficiency of different reducing agents and 96 carbonyl compounds for dCML fortification of bovine serum albumin (BSA) using an 97 extensive suite of quantitative and qualitative analytical methods. We employed isotope-98 99 dilution, high-performance liquid chromatography coupled with tandem mass spectrometric detection (HPLC-MS/MS), western-blot, fluorescence, and proteomic 100 analyses, using matrix-assisted laser desorption ionization with tandem time-of-flight MS 101

102 (MALDI-TOF/TOF) and nanoLC with tandem, high-resolution MS (LC-HRMS/MS), to 103 provide an extensive characterization of the possible modifications of BSA promoted by 104 different carbonyl compounds. We further studied the efficiency of the incorporation of 105 protein-bound dCML into mouse feed pellets, their stability over different storage 106 periods, and finally the clearance of dCML in mouse feces.

107 2. Material and methods

108 2.1. Chemicals and reagents

Bovine serum albumin (BSA) Fraction V was from Euromedex (Souffelweyersheim, 109 France) and ribose from TCI Chemicals (Zwijndrecht, Belgium). Ammonium formate 110 (>99%) and ultra-pure HPLC water were from VWR (Fontenay-sous-Bois, France), 111 sodium triacetoxyborohydride (NaBH(OAc)₃) from ACROS Organics (Geel, Belgium), 112 Nonafluoropentanoic acid (NFPA) 97%, formic acid (>95%), acetonitrile (ACN), 113 NaBH₃CN, glyoxylic acid and glyoxal (40% w/v), hydrochloric acid (HCl) 37%, sodium 114 borohydride (NaBH₄), boric acid (H₃BO₃), sodium hydroxide (NaOH), lysine (Lys) and 115 arginine (Arg), as well as all chemicals for proteomics assays were obtained from 116 117 Sigma-Aldrich (Saint-Quentin-Fallavier, France). Furosine (Fur), Fur-d4, CML, and CML-d₂ were from Polypeptide Group Laboratories (Strasbourg, France). Labeled 118 lysine (Lys-¹⁵N₂) was from CortecNet (Voisins-le-Bretonneux, France) and Arg-¹³C from 119 120 Carl Roth (Karlsruhe, Germany).

121

122 2.2. N^ε-carboxymethyl-lysine synthesis in different BSA model systems

We compared three approaches for preparing CML-fortified BSA, all representative of 123 common practice in the literature, and present the molar ratios in Table 1 (Andersen et 124 125 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 126 acid were allowed to react for 2h at 37°C to form imine precursors before addition of the 127 reducing agents. A second approach employed glyoxal at 40% w/v and ribose (R-A to R-128 GO-B), while a third employed glyoxal only (GO-A to GO-E). Reactions GA-A to -F and 129 R-A to R-GO-B, were prepared in a phosphate buffer (0.2 M, pH 8.0) and incubated for 130 16h at 37°C; reactions GO-A to -E were incubated for 4 days at 37°C under sterile 131

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 westernblot, LC-MS/MS, fluorescence spectroscopy and proteomic analyses to assess inter-day
variability of these reactions (Table 1).

139

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 (NaBH ₃ CN)	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 (NaBH ₃ CN)	5	6					21
GA-E.3*								
GO-E.1**								
GO-E.2**	1 (Lys) :1.8 (GO)	175		300				
GO-E.3**								

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

143

144 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

154

155 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 mg/mL, at pH 8.0.

160 2.5. Mass spectrometry characterization of native and glycated BSA

161 **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 ($100 \times 2.1 \text{ mm}, 5 \mu \text{m}$; same-phase guard column $10 \times 2.1 \text{ mm}, 5 \mu \text{m}$; 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 μ L 1M NaBH₄ in sodium borate buffer (pH 9.2). Five hundred microliters of 12M HCl were added, and samples hydrolyzed at 110°C for 21 h. Aliquots of 100 μ L hydrolysate were concentrated in a Speed-Vac (ThermoFisher) and re-solubilized in 1 mL aqueous 12.5 mmol/L NFPA. Samples were filtered (0.45 μ m) before preparing x10 dilutions with 12.5 mmol/L aqueous NFPA solutions of Lys-¹⁵N₂ and Arg-¹³C (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).

184 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 μ g/ μ L 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 205 maintained at 40°C. The analysis duration was 185mins. The LC runs were acquired in 206 positive ion mode with MS scans from m/z 350-1,500 in the Orbitrap at a resolution of 207 70,000 at m/z 400. The automatic gain was set at 1e10⁶. Sequential MS/MS scans were 208 acquired at 35,000 resolution at m/z 400 in the high-energy collision/dissociation cell for 209 the 15 most-intense ions detected by full-MS survey scans. Automatic gain control was 210 set at 5e10⁵, and the collision energy was 28 eV. Dynamic exclusion was set at 90s and 211 ions with 1 and more than 8 charges were excluded. 212

Proteomics data were processed with PEAKS X+ (Bioinformatics software, Waterloo, 213 214 Canada) against a homemade database containing BSA sequences (Swissprot accession number, P02769). Precursor ion mass tolerance was 10 ppm and fragment 215 216 ion mass tolerance 0.05 Da. Three missed cleavages were allowed. Cysteine carbamidomethylation (C) (+57.02 Da) was set as a fixed modification. Deamidation 217 (NQ) (+0.98 Da), Oxidation or Hydroxylation (MRYPNKD) (+15.99 Da), Carboxymethyl 218 219 (KR) (+58.005 Da), Glyoxal-derived hydroimidazolones (R) (+39.994 Da), N^ε-acetyllysine (K) (+42.010 Da), N^ε-formyl-lysine (K) (+27.994 Da) were selected as variable 220 modifications. Six variable PTMs (post-translational modifications) were allowed per 221 peptide. PEAKS PTM and SPIDER algorithms were run with similar parameters to 222 search for 313 PTMs, and peptide mutations and homology. The false detection rate 223 224 (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 235 correspond to the proportion, relative to the control BSA, of a given modification on a 236 specific peptide modified by the GA or GO reactions. These percentages were 237 calculated for each of the triplicate proteomics analyses, enabling an average value to 238 be calculated for a given modification of a given peptide (Pien et al., 2022). The MS 239 proteomics data have been deposited on the ProteomeXchange Consortium 240 (http://proteomecentral. proteomexchange.org) via the PRIDE partner repository 241 (Vizcaíno, et al., 2012) with the data set identifier PXD041212. 242

243 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 244 enriched with native or glycated BSA (GO) by extrusion. A total of 7.5 g/kg_{pellets} of 245 glycated BSA was incorporated into pellets to give a dCML diet with 200 μ g_{CML}/g_{pellets}. 246 Similarly, 7.5 g/kg_{pellets} of non-glycated, native BSA was incorporated into pellets as a 247 control diet (STD). A 50 kg batch of the STD diet and a 40 kg batch of the dCML diet 248 249 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 250 up to 80 days. Individual bags were opened for use approximately every 20 days and 251 the assays described below were performed. 252

253

254 **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
content.

260 **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 μ m; same-phase guard column 5 x 2.1 mm, 2.7 μ m; column at 40°C; Restek, Lisses, France). The binary mobile phase, pumped at 500 μ L/min over 13 mins, consisted of 10% 200 mmol/L ammonium formate in ACN (solvent A) and aqueous 0.5% formic acid
(solvent B), with the following gradient: %B: 0–3.5 min, 12%; 3.5–8 min, 12–70%; 8–13
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 re-solubilization and dilutions were in aqueous 0.01 M HCl (x20 for Lys, x2 for CML, x10 for Fur).

274 2.7. Total CML quantification in mouse feces

Mouse feces from animals fed with either the STD or dCML diets were collected from 275 276 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 277 presented here represent the averaged CML concentrations in feces over this period. 278 279 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 280 281 sacrificed at this stage since they were part of another study (Project approval number: 23208-2019120215543800 v4; they were later euthanized by intraperitoneal injection of 282 ketamine (150 mg/kg) and xylazine (10 mg/kg) followed by cervical dislocation for 283 284 collection of biological fluids and organs).

285 2.8. Statistical analyses

Data are represented as means \pm 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, CA, USA) at $\alpha = 0.05$.

291

292 3. Results and discussion

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 295 fortification of BSA which avoided heating or the use of NaBH₃CN. In a first set of 296 experiments, five reactions (GA-A to -F) with equimolar quantities of lysine were 297 incubated with different molar ratios of GA and NaBH₄, NaBH(OAc)₃, or NaBH₃CN 298 (Table 1). The formation of CML ranged between 13.0 ±1.3 and 235.0 ±23.5 µmol/g 299 BSA, corresponding to a minimum of 1% of lysine transformed into CML using 300 NaBH(OAc)₃ (GA-B and -C), and a maximum of 24% of CML using NaBH₃CN (GA-E) 301 (Table 2). No linear increase in CML yield was observed with increasing molar ratios of 302 glyoxylic acid and NaBH₃CN to lysine (GA-F), but increasing GA and NaBH₃CN resulted 303 in a higher loss of lysine, indicating that modifications other than CML took place under 304 these more reactive conditions. The CML yields (%) are presented in Table 2 with 305 corresponding percentage losses of lysine. 306

307

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

Sample		Lysine loss		
	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	

 $NaBH_3CN$, or from BSA glycated with ribose (R) +/- glyoxal (GO; see also Table 1).

311

312 Different boron hydrides have been extensively used as reducing agents in the synthesis

of protein-bound CML. Overall, we observed that $NaBH_4$ (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

336

337 3.2. Quantification of CML, lysine, and arginine in a new BSA model system 338 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 346 characteristics of BSA. This phenomenon has been demonstrated recently in a BSA-347 glucose model where glycation-induced conformational changes were reported, such as 348 the loss of the secondary α-helix structures of BSA (Peng et al., 2023). In addition, 349 glyoxal is a well-known protein crosslinking agent, resulting in the formation of GOLD, 350 GOLA, and GODIC (Glomb & Pfahler, 2001; Lopez-Clavijo et al., 2014), which may 351 explain the occurrence of a higher proportion of high molecular weight (>130 kDa) 352 protein with increasing glyoxal concentrations (Figure 1b). We discuss this in more detail 353 later in this text. 354

Although serum albumins (bovine or human) have a higher proportion of lysine than 355 arginine, glyoxal would preferentially promote limited protein modifications of arginine 356 rather than lysine residues (Henning & Glomb, 2016). While other amino acids such as 357 tryptophan, histidine and cysteine are also susceptible to modification with glyoxylic acid 358 and glyoxal (Herraiz et al., 2022), and modifications of cysteine were observed in our 359 360 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 361 by Henning et al. (2022), less than 4% of the lysine in a BSA-GO (18 mmol/L) model 362 system was converted to CML, while almost 10% of the total arginine residues were 363 converted into N^{ω}-carboxymethyl-arginine (CMA) (Henning et al., 2022). From our 364 experience, a gradual loss of Coomassie blue staining was noticed with the increase in 365 glyoxal concentration (Figures 1b and 1d). This protein staining occurs through the 366 interaction of the dye with basic (lysine, arginine, and histidine) and hydrophobic 367 moieties (phenylalanine and tryptophan), and arginine has been indicated as a primary 368 interaction site with Coomassie anionic species (Georgiou et al., 2008). Hence, the high 369 370 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 371 the overall electrostatic affinity is reduced when glycation takes place. The conversion of 372 lysine, a basic amino acid, into CML which includes an acidic carboxylate, may also 373 have reduced the extent of Coomassie blue staining in both GA-E and GO-E samples. 374

375

376 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 proteinbound 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 384 their fluorescence using 340 nm and 425 nm as excitation and emission wavelengths, 385 respectively (Figure 2). Greatest fluorescence intensity was observed in the GO-E 386 samples, indicating extensive formation of fluorescent glycation adducts or crosslinks 387 under these conditions. A 15-fold difference in fluorescence intensity was observed 388 between the GA-modified BSA and the GO-modified BSA (p<0.0001; Figure 2b). None 389 of the fluorescent AGEs listed above are known to be formed from glyoxylic acid or 390 391 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 392 or crosslinks formed in our BSA-GA or BSA-GO systems therefore remain to be 393 394 elucidated.

395

396 3.4. Proteomic characterization of native and glycated BSA

In an attempt to identify the modifications promoted by the glycation of BSA, we 397 further compared the triplicate GA-E (GA-E.1 to 3) and GO-E reactions (GO-E.1 to 3 -398 399 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 400 by this enzyme (Lapolla et al., 2004), we performed a chymotrypsin digestion which is 401 not hampered by this change as it cleaves the protein after large, hydrophobic amino 402 403 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 404 BSA-GO incubations was similar at 21 ±3% (Figure 1c). Both the CML yields and shifts 405 in electrophoretic migration of the protein were relatively reproducible among the 406 triplicates (Figures 1c and 1d). 407

The native BSA protein contains 59 lysine residues, of which 52 exhibited 408 modifications in both native and glycated BSA (Supplemental material). Differences in 409 the incidence of lysine modifications between native BSA and the GA- or GO-glycated 410 BSA were statistically significant for only 34 of these residues (p < 0.05, Figure 3a). 411 Among these, GA promoted a higher incidence of CML in residues commonly glycated 412 by both reagents. This was observed for 17 lysine residues where the intensity of 413 414 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, 415 416 K211, K235, K495). These observations suggest a greater chemical efficacy of the 417 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 418 observed in our BSA-GA system. Some of the modified residues in Figure 3a accord 419 with previous studies on the glycation of BSA by fructose. Hinton & Ames (2006) 420 identified nine lysine residues particularly susceptible to glycation with fructose (K28, 421 422 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 423 these specific sites on the BSA protein. 424

A significant incidence of arginine modifications was only observed with glyoxal. A 425 small proportion of arginine residues R371 and R507 were converted into CMA (Figure 426 3b), but the main glycation adduct of this amino acid was G-H1, which exceeded 80% of 427 the R232 and R507 residues in the GO-E samples (Figure 3c). The incidence of 428 glycation modifications of residues R232, R371, and R507 did not completely explain the 429 430 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 431 these residues, but that their detection was limited by the sensitivity of our proteomics 432 method. 433

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 438 of 1033 Da (GA) and 608 Da (GO). Hence, the CML-related increment in mass (Da) 439 accounted for 80% of the total mass gain in the GA-E samples, but only 30% of the 440 mass gain in the GO-E samples. As expected, then, the increases in molecular weight 441 observed by MALDI-TOF were not explained by the formation of CML alone, but were 442 likely also due to the formation of other glycation adducts and crosslinks. These results 443 are also in line with evidence of a greater diversity of glycation products in GO-E 444 samples seen in the western blot (Figure 1b and 1d) and fluorescence assays (Figure 445 446 2).

We detected signals for high molecular weight molecules by both western blot 447 (Figure 1b and 1d) and MALDI-TOF (data not shown) which we hypothesize result from 448 the formation of BSA dimers and trimers associated with glycation crosslinking. The GO-449 E samples exhibited a significant incidence of the lysine-lysine crosslink GOLD 450 (LSHK¹³⁰DDSPDLPK¹³⁸LK¹⁴⁰PDPNTLCDEF) between two identical peptides from two 451 452 different BSA molecules which was not detected in either the native BSA nor the GA-E 453 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 454 (Figures 1b and 1d). Both GA- and GO-BSA exhibited signals for the lysine-lysine, 455 glyoxal-derived cross-link GOLA (QEAK³⁴⁶DAFLGSF and AEDK³³⁶DVCK³⁴⁰NY, 456 SALTPDETYVPK⁵²³AF and DEK⁵²⁸LF), but this was significant only in the GA-E 457 samples. The low incidence of these crosslinks accords with the literature, where the 458 formation of GOLD, GOLA (two lysine-lysine crosslinks), or GODIC (a lysine-arginine 459 460 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 461 here could be improved by a pre-concentration of BSA dimers and trimers prior to 462 proteomic analysis. 463

464

465 **3.5.** Stability of rodent feed pellets enriched with native or GO-glycated BSA

466 The work described so far was intended to provide a more complete 467 understanding of precisely which glycation products would be added to rodent feed

pellets enriched with glycated BSA. The experimental design involved long-term 468 exposure to high dCML, and so CML and furosine (an acid-hydrolysis derivative of the 469 Amadori product fructose-lysine) were rigorously guantified by LC-MS/MS; we were also 470 curious as to the stability of our BSA-enriched pellets over time. Both STD and dCML 471 diets were respectively supplemented with equal amounts of non-glycated, native BSA 472 and glyoxal-glycated BSA (equivalent to GO-E samples). The inclusion of native or GO-473 474 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 475 476 batches are presented in Figure 4, which also illustrates their stability over time.

477 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 ±40.6 478 µg CML/g D_{ry}W_{eight} of food, approximately 10-fold more CML than the STD diet (26.3 479 $\pm 0.9 \,\mu g \, \text{CML/g} \, \text{D}_{rv} W_{\text{eight}}$ of food) (Figure 4d). The different diets were fed to mice during 480 80 days of experiments and the stability of lysine, total protein, furosine, and CML was 481 482 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 483 size taken from each bag, the overall stability of the lysine and total protein contents was 484 485 good (Figures 4a and 4b).

While there was no difference in initial furosine levels between the two diets, 486 concentrations rose significantly in both diets over the 80 days of storage (p<0.05; this 487 effect was also verified in other batches, data not shown). Furosine is a product formed 488 during acid hydrolysis of Amadori products, and is a widely used surrogate measure of 489 fructose-lysine (Erbersdobler & Somoza, 2007). We observed an increase in furosine 490 with storage time which we hypothesize results from the presence of reactive sugars in 491 492 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 493 of fructose-lysine during the storage of common foods is widely described. For example, 494 an increase in furosine of up to 37% has been reported in infant formulas stored at 25°C 495 (Bosch et al., 2008). To our knowledge, our results present for the first time the evolution 496 of an early glycation product in animal feed pellets stored at 20°C. 497

The stability of CML in rodent food over 80 days at 20°C is shown in Figure 4d. 498 The STD diet, supplemented with native BSA, showed small but nonetheless significant 499 reduction in dCML contents over time (p < 0.05). The dCML diet, supplemented with GO-500 glycated BSA, exhibited a decrease in CML over time from 40 days in stock (p < 0.05). 501 Very few studies have assessed the stability of CML in foods during cooking or storage. 502 This may be linked to the widely held belief that AGEs are, by definition, chemically 503 504 stable molecules with low reactivity that simply accumulate over time. However, we have already observed a degradation of CML during prolonged cooking of meats 505 (unpublished data), and Cheng et al. (2014) have also shown a decrease in CML over 506 507 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 508 time/temperature combination is thus totally different from the observation by Cheng et 509 al. (2014). And since we observe an increase in fructose-lysine during storage, it is 510 possible that at least part of the CML is lost to the formation of N-ε-carboxymethyl-N-ε-511 512 (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 513 secondary amino group of CML, and we have already observed the formation of N-ε-di-514 515 carboxymethyl-l-lysine in model systems (unpublished data), but CMFL is the first heterogeneous, multiple glycation to be described. Future analyses of rodent pellets will 516 include CMFL, but with regard to the current study we are not aware of any reports of 517 chemical instability of CML during storage and, while the decrease is small, its apparent 518 instability in fortified rodent chow requires further consideration. 519

520

521 **3.6.** dCML excretion in mouse feces

522 Mice fed with the STD diet had an average dCML intake approximately 10-fold 523 less than animals on the dCML diet. The daily exposure to dCML was estimated to be 524 2.1 mg CML/kg body weight in the STD group and 23 mg CML/kg in the dCML group. 525 We confirmed that CML fecal excretion was proportional to this disparity in CML 526 concentrations between the 2 diets. The average CML concentration in fresh feces of 527 the STD and dCML groups was $35.00 \pm 2.64 \ \mu g CML/g_{feces}$ in the STD group, and 299.67 528 $\pm 14.74 \ \mu g CML/g_{feces}$, respectively (*p*<0.05). When CML excretion was expressed as a

percentage of ingested CML, we found a small but significant difference between groups 529 corresponding to 26% (STD) and 33% (dCML), or roughly 1/3 of the ingested CML 530 (p=0.02). Overall, CML fecal excretion was found to be proportional to the daily dietary 531 intake. Others have reported similar results in mice, rats, and humans. A study which 532 quantified the fecal elimination of CML by adult rats reported an excretion of about 37% 533 among animals that consumed extruded proteins (Alamir et al., 2013). Our results are 534 also in line with a previous study in humans exposed to a low- or high-CML diet (22.5-535 31.7% CML excretion) (Delgado-Andrade et al., 2012). The excretion of CML is reported 536 to be associated with clearance into urine as well as feces, partial retention in organs 537 and tissues, as well as partial metabolism, essentially by colonic microbiota (Hellwig et 538 al., 2019; Tessier et al., 2016). However, a complete picture of all the mechanisms that 539 govern dCML accumulation, metabolism, and excretion remains to be elucidated. 540

541 **4.** Conclusions

542 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 543 reaction of glyoxylic acid and NaBH₃CN to produce CML remains the most effective 544 545 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 546 used here may seem extreme, but it was necessary to minimize the volume of reactions 547 to be dialyzed for the large-scale production of protein-bound CML. Although no food 548 models perfectly mimic the glycation of BSA, and none of the reactions herein can be 549 described as representative of glycation as it may occur during industrial or domestic 550 food preparation, we aimed to add glycated BSA to animal feed pellets in a way that 551 552 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 553 similar to literature values for CML excretion in both animals and humans. This suggests 554 that, despite the highly artificial conditions associated with our manufacture of a 555 synthetic dCML diet, CML absorption/excretion dynamics in our murine model remained 556 similar to those reported elsewhere. 557

Although using glyoxylic acid with NaBH₃CN induced more specific glycation of the 558 BSA's lysine residues, the results of our comparative study underline that even this 559 method does not generate CML alone. Acid hydrolysis followed by isotope-dilution LC-560 MS/MS allowed us to precisely determine the concentrations of CML, lysine and 561 arginine. A limitation of this approach is of course that it was not possible to quantify 562 other AGEs more or less sensitive to acid hydrolysis such as CMA and G-H1, but our 563 proteomic analyses, using a milder enzymatic hydrolysis, enabled us to reveal the 564 presence of these AGEs. Lysine-lysine dimers GOLD and GOLA occurred at only a low 565 frequency, indicating a low probability of formation of these AGEs even under the very 566 intensive conditions of in vitro glycation, but which was also close to the limits of 567 sensitivity for our analytical technique. It may be that further characterization of these 568 samples, notably the number and type of crosslinks, will raise further research 569 questions, but this study nevertheless adds significant knowledge to facilitate the 570 production of glycated proteins for the study of dietary AGEs. 571

572 **Declaration of interests:** Authors declare no conflict of interest.

573 **Ethical approval:** All experiments carried out in animals were in accordance with the 574 French ethical laws. Project approval number: 23208-2019120215543800 v4.

575 **Acknowledgments:** This study was funded by the French Agence Nationale de la 576 Recherche (ANR-19-CE34-0013 ExoAGEing). The authors thank S. Balasanyants for 577 preliminary bibliographical research.

578

579 **5. References**

- Abdel-Magid, A. F., Carson, K. G., Harris, B. D., Maryanoff, C. A., & Shah, R. D. (1996). 580 Reductive Aldehydes and with 581 Amination of Ketones Sodium Triacetoxyborohydride. Studies on Direct and Indirect Reductive Amination 582 Procedures1. The Journal of Organic Chemistry, 61(11), 3849-3862. 583 https://doi.org/10.1021/jo960057x 584
- Alamir, I., Niquet-Leridon, C., Jacolot, P., Rodriguez, C., Orosco, M., Anton, P. M., &
 Tessier, F. J. (2013). Digestibility of extruded proteins and metabolic transit of Nε carboxymethyllysine in rats. *Amino Acids*, 44(6), 1441–1449.
 https://doi.org/10.1007/s00726-012-1427-3
- Andersen, J. M., Hjelmgaard, T., Dragsted, L. O., & Nielsen, J. (2012). Convenient
 Synthesis of Νε-(Carboxymethyl)lysine, a Key Advanced Glycation Endproduct
 Biomarker. Synlett, 2012(04), 531–534. https://doi.org/10.1055/s-0031-1290348

- Borch, R. F., Bernstein, M. D., & Durst, H. D. (1971). Cyanohydridoborate anion as a
 selective reducing agent. *Journal of the American Chemical Society*, *93*(12),
 2897–2904. https://doi.org/10.1021/ja00741a013
- Bosch, L., Alegrı´a, A., Farré, R., & Clemente, G. (2008). Effect of storage conditions on
 furosine formation in milk–cereal based baby foods. *Food Chemistry*, *107*(4),
 1681–1686. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2007.09.051
- Briceno Noriega, D., Zenker, H. E., Croes, C.-A., Ewaz, A., Ruinemans-Koerts, J.,
 Savelkoul, H. F. J., van Neerven, R. J. J., & Teodorowicz, M. (2022). Receptor
 Mediated Effects of Advanced Glycation End Products (AGEs) on Innate and
 Adaptative Immunity: Relevance for Food Allergy. *Nutrients*, *14*(2), Article 2.
 https://doi.org/10.3390/nu14020371
- Cheng, L., Jin, C., & Zhang, Y. (2014). Investigation of variations in the acrylamide and
 N(ε) -(carboxymethyl) lysine contents in cookies during baking. *Journal of Food Science*, *79*(5), T1030-1038. https://doi.org/10.1111/1750-3841.12450
- Delgado-Andrade, C., Tessier, F. J., Niquet-Leridon, C., Seiquer, I., & Pilar Navarro, M.
 (2012). Study of the urinary and faecal excretion of Nε-carboxymethyllysine in
 young human volunteers. *Amino Acids*, 43(2), 595–602.
 https://doi.org/10.1007/s00726-011-1107-8
- Erbersdobler, H. F., & Somoza, V. (2007). Forty years of furosine—Forty years of using
 Maillard reaction products as indicators of the nutritional quality of foods.
 Molecular Nutrition & Food Research, 51(4), 423–430.
 https://doi.org/10.1002/mnfr.200600154
- Erde, J., Loo, R. R. O., & Loo, J. A. (2014). Enhanced FASP (eFASP) to Increase
 Proteome Coverage and Sample Recovery for Quantitative Proteomic
 Experiments. *Journal of Proteome Research*, *13*(4), 1885–1895.
 https://doi.org/10.1021/pr4010019
- Faist, V., Müller, C., Drusch, S., & Erbersdobler, H. F. (2001). Selective fortification of
 lysinoalanine, fructoselysine and Nε-carboxymethyllysine in casein model
 systems. Nahrung/Food, 45(3), 218–221. https://doi.org/10.1002/15213803(20010601)45:3<218::AID-FOOD218>3.0.CO;2-Q
- Georgiou, C. D., Grintzalis, K., Zervoudakis, G., & Papapostolou, I. (2008). Mechanism
 of Coomassie brilliant blue G-250 binding to proteins: A hydrophobic assay for
 nanogram quantities of proteins. *Analytical and Bioanalytical Chemistry*, *391*(1),
 391–403. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00216-008-1996-x
- Glomb, M. A., & Monnier, V. M. (1995). Mechanism of Protein Modification by Glyoxal
 and Glycolaldehyde, Reactive Intermediates of the Maillard Reaction (*). Journal
 of Biological Chemistry, 270(17), 10017–10026.
 https://doi.org/10.1074/jbc.270.17.10017
- Glomb, M. A., & Pfahler, C. (2001). Amides Are Novel Protein Modifications Formed by
 Physiological Sugars. *Journal of Biological Chemistry*, *276*(45), 41638–41647.
 https://doi.org/10.1074/jbc.M103557200
- Grossin, N., Auger, F., Niquet-Leridon, C., Durieux, N., Montaigne, D., Schmidt, A. M.,
 Susen, S., Jacolot, P., Beuscart, J.-B., Tessier, F. J., & Boulanger, E. (2015).
 Dietary CML-enriched protein induces functional arterial aging in a RAGEdependent manner in mice. *Molecular Nutrition & Food Research*, *59*(5), 927–
 938. https://doi.org/10.1002/mnfr.201400643

- Helle, S., Bray, F., Verbeke, J., Devassine, S., Courseaux, A., Facon, M., Tokarski, C., 638 Rolando, C., & Szydlowski, N. (2018). Proteome Analysis of Potato Starch 639 Reveals the Presence of New Starch Metabolic Proteins as Well as Multiple 640 Inhibitors. Protease Frontiers in Plant Science. 9 641 https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/fpls.2018.00746 642
- Hellwig, M., Auerbach, C., Müller, N., Samuel, P., Kammann, S., Beer, F., Gunzer, F., &
 Henle, T. (2019). Metabolization of the Advanced Glycation End Product N-εCarboxymethyllysine (CML) by Different Probiotic E. coli Strains. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*, *67*(7), 1963–1972.
 https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.jafc.8b06748
- Hellwig, M., Nitschke, J., & Henle, T. (2022). Glycation of N-ε-carboxymethyllysine. *European Food Research and Technology*, 248(3), 825–837.
 https://doi.org/10.1007/s00217-021-03931-7
- Helou, C., Nogueira Silva Lima, M. T., Niquet-Leridon, C., Jacolot, P., Boulanger, E., 651 652 Delguste, F., Guilbaud, A., Genin, M., Anton, P. M., Delayre-Orthez, C., Papazian, T., Howsam, M., & Tessier, F. J. (2022). Plasma Levels of Free NE-653 Carboxymethyllysine (CML) after Different Oral Doses of CML in Rats and after 654 the Intake of Different Breakfasts in Humans: Postprandial Plasma Level of 655 sRAGE in Humans. Nutrients, 14(9), Article 656 9. https://doi.org/10.3390/nu14091890 657
- Henning, C., & Glomb, M. A. (2016). Pathways of the Maillard reaction under
 physiological conditions. *Glycoconjugate Journal*, *33*(4), 499–512.
 https://doi.org/10.1007/s10719-016-9694-y
- Henning, C., Stübner, C., Arabi, S. H., Reichenwallner, J., Hinderberger, D., Fiedler, R.,
 Girndt, M., Di Sanzo, S., Ori, A., & Glomb, M. A. (2022). Glycation Alters the Fatty
 Acid Binding Capacity of Human Serum Albumin. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*, *70*(9), 3033–3046. https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.jafc.1c07218
- Herraiz, T., Peña, A., Mateo, H., Herraiz, M., & Salgado, A. (2022). Formation,
 Characterization, and Occurrence of β-Carboline Alkaloids Derived from α Dicarbonyl Compounds and I-Tryptophan. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*, *70*(29), 9143–9153.
- Hinton, D. J. S., & Ames, J. M. (2006). Site specificity of glycation and
 carboxymethylation of bovine serum albumin by fructose. *Amino Acids*, *30*(4),
 425–434. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00726-006-0269-2
- Ikeda, K., Higashi, T., Sano, H., Jinnouchi, Y., Yoshida, M., Araki, T., Ueda, S., &
 Horiuchi, S. (1996). N ^e -(Carboxymethyl)lysine Protein Adduct Is a Major
 Immunological Epitope in Proteins Modified with Advanced Glycation End
 Products of the Maillard Reaction. *Biochemistry*, *35*(24), 8075–8083.
 https://doi.org/10.1021/bi9530550
- Lapolla, A., Fedele, D., Reitano, R., Aricò, N. C., Seraglia, R., Traldi, P., Marotta, E., &
 Tonani, R. (2004). Enzymatic digestion and mass spectrometry in the study of
 advanced glycation end products/peptides. *Journal of the American Society for Mass Spectrometry*, *15*(4), 496–509. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jasms.2003.11.014
- Lopez-Clavijo, A. F., Duque-Daza, C. A., Soulby, A., Canelon, I. R., Barrow, M., &
 O'Connor, P. B. (2014). Unexpected Crosslinking and Diglycation as Advanced
 Glycation End-Products from Glyoxal. *Journal of the American Society for Mass Spectrometry*, *25*(12), 2125–2133. https://doi.org/10.1007/s13361-014-0996-7

- Luevano-Contreras, C., & Chapman-Novakofski, K. (2010). Dietary Advanced Glycation
 End Products and Aging. *Nutrients*, 2(12), Article 12.
 https://doi.org/10.3390/nu2121247
- Lund, M. N., & Ray, C. A. (2017). Control of Maillard Reactions in Foods: Strategies and
 Chemical Mechanisms. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*, 65(23),
 4537–4552. https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.jafc.7b00882
- Nogueira Silva Lima, M. T., Howsam, M., Anton, P. M., Delayre-Orthez, C., & Tessier, F.
 J. (2021). Effect of Advanced Glycation End-Products and Excessive Calorie
 Intake on Diet-Induced Chronic Low-Grade Inflammation Biomarkers in Murine
 Models. *Nutrients*, *13*(9), Article 9. https://doi.org/10.3390/nu13093091
- Peng, J., Wen, W., Liang, G., Huang, W., Qiu, Z., Wang, Q., & Xiao, G. (2023). Camellia
 oleifera shells polyphenols inhibit advanced glycation end-products (AGEs)
 formation and AGEs-induced inflammatory response in RAW264.7 macrophages.
 Industrial Crops and Products, 197, 116589.
 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.indcrop.2023.116589
- Perrone, A., Giovino, A., Benny, J., & Martinelli, F. (2020). Advanced Glycation End
 Products (AGEs): Biochemistry, Signaling, Analytical Methods, and Epigenetic
 Effects. Oxidative Medicine and Cellular Longevity, 2020, 1–18.
 https://doi.org/10.1155/2020/3818196
- Pien, N., Bray, F., Gheysens, T., Tytgat, L., Rolando, C., Mantovani, D., Dubruel, P., &
 Vlierberghe, S. V. (2022). Proteomics as a tool to gain next level insights into
 photo-crosslinkable biopolymer modifications. *Bioactive Materials*, *17*, 204–220.
 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bioactmat.2022.01.023
- Ranu, B. C., Majee, A., & Sarkar, A. (1998). One-Pot Reductive Amination of Conjugated Aldehydes and Ketones with Silica Gel and Zinc Borohydride. *The Journal of Organic Chemistry*, *63*(2), 370–373. https://doi.org/10.1021/jo971117h
- Sarpe, V., Rafiei, A., Hepburn, M., Ostan, N., Schryvers, A. B., & Schriemer, D. C.
 (2016). High Sensitivity Crosslink Detection Coupled With Integrative Structure
 Modeling in the Mass Spec Studio. *Molecular & Cellular Proteomics: MCP*, *15*(9),
 3071–3080. https://doi.org/10.1074/mcp.O116.058685
- Scheijen, J. L., Clevers, E., Engelen, L., Dagnelie, P. C., Brouns, F., Stehouwer, C. D., &
 Schalkwijk, C. G. (2016). Analysis of advanced glycation endproducts in selected
 food items by ultra-performance liquid chromatography tandem mass
 spectrometry: Presentation of a dietary AGE database. *Food Chemistry*, *190*,
 1145–1150.
- Tessier, F. J., Monnier, V. M., Sayre, L. M., & Kornfield, J. A. (2003). Triosidines: Novel
 Maillard reaction products and cross-links from the reaction of triose sugars with
 lysine and arginine residues. *Biochemical Journal*, *369*(3), 705–719.
 https://doi.org/10.1042/bj20020668
- Tessier, F. J., Niquet-Léridon, C., Jacolot, P., Jouquand, C., Genin, M., Schmidt, A.-M.,
 Grossin, N., & Boulanger, E. (2016). Quantitative assessment of organ
 distribution of dietary protein-bound 13 C-labeled Nε -carboxymethyllysine after a
 chronic oral exposure in mice. *Molecular Nutrition & Food Research*, *60*(11),
 2446–2456. https://doi.org/10.1002/mnfr.201600140
- van Dongen, K. C. W., Linkens, A. M. A., Wetzels, S. M. W., Wouters, K., Vanmierlo, T.,
 van de Waarenburg, M. P. H., Scheijen, J. L. J. M., de Vos, W. M., Belzer, C., &
 Schalkwijk, C. G. (2021). Dietary advanced glycation endproducts (AGEs)

- increase their concentration in plasma and tissues, result in inflammation and
 modulate gut microbial composition in mice; evidence for reversibility. *Food Research International*, *147*, *110547*.
- 735 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodres.2021.110547
- Wei, Y., Han, C. S., Zhou, J., Liu, Y., Chen, L., & He, R. Q. (2012). D-ribose in glycation
 and protein aggregation. *Biochimica Et Biophysica Acta*, *1820*(4), 488–494.
 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bbagen.2012.01.005
- Xue, J., Rai, V., Frolov, S., Singer, D., Chabierski, S., Xie, J., Reverdatto, S., Burz, D.
 S., Schmidt, A. M., Hoffman, R., & Shekhtman, A. (2011). Advanced glycation
 end product (AGE) recognition by the receptor for AGEs (RAGE). *Structure (London, England: 1993), 19*(5), 722–732.
 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.str.2011.02.013
- 744
- 745





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 ± SD of the GA-E (GA-E.1 to 3) and GO-E triplicates (GO-E.1 to 3). **** $p \le 0.0001$.



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*≤0.05; ***p*≤0.01; ****p*≤0.001; *****p*≤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.