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1	The associations between proteomic biomarkers and beef tenderness depend on the end-
2	point cooking temperature, the country origin of the panelists and breed
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4	Mohammed Gagaoua*, Claudia Terlouw, Brigitte Picard**
5	Université Clermont Auvergne, INRA, VetAgro Sup, UMR Herbivores, F-63122 Saint-
6	Genès-Champanelle, France
7	
8 9	Correspondence
10	* Dr. Mohammed Gagaoua: gmber2001@vahoo fr
10	
11	ORCID: 0000-0001-6913-3379
12	** Dr. Brigitte Picard: brigitte.picard@inra.fr
13	ORCID: 0000-0002-8075-671
14	
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18	Abstract:
19	Steaks of 74 animals from 3 young bull breeds (Aberdeen Angus, Limousin and Blond
20	d'Aquitaine) were cooked at two end-point cooking temperatures (55 and 74°C) and
21	evaluated for tenderness by trained panelists from France (FR) and the United Kingdom
22	(UK). Using principal component regressions, the tenderness scores of each breed, country
23	origin of the panelists and cooking temperature were linked with the abundances of 21 protein
24	biomarkers belonging to five biological pathways. Twelve regression equations were built and

explained 68 to 95% of tenderness variability. A high dissimilarity in the retained biomarkers

was observed among the equations and differences exist among breeds, cooking temperaturesand country origin of the panelists. Among the 21 biomarkers, 6 proteins including structural

(MyHC-I, MyHC-IIa, MyHC-IIx), oxidative stress (DJ-1, PRDX6) and proteolysis (CAPN1)
 were retained robustly in positive or negative directions in the tenderization process of
 *Longissimus thoracis*, regardless the breed, end-point cooking temperature or panelist.

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Key words: Beef tenderness; Biomarkers; Dot-Blot; Cooking temperature; Chemometrics;
Prediction.

#### 34 **1. Introduction**

Beef tenderness is among the palatability traits that has been extensively studied due to its importance for both consumer satisfaction and (re)purchasing decisions (Ouali *et al.* 2013). Various studies indicate that consumers are willing to pay a premium for beef meat guaranteed to be tender (Miller *et al.* 2001). However, beef tenderness is variable due to several intrinsic and extrinsic factors, which are measurable from the farm-to-fork continuum levels (Ferguson *et al.* 2001; Gagaoua *et al.* 2018b), with many of these factors interacting with others.

42 To understand better the causes of variability in tenderness and the biochemical mechanisms underlying tenderization, functional and comparative proteomics were applied 43 (Gagaoua et al. 2015a; Picard & Gagaoua 2017). Protein biomarkers potentially related to 44 45 tenderness were identified using two-dimensional gel electrophoresis and mass spectrometry. These biomarkers belong to several biological pathways including heat shock, metabolism 46 (glycolytic and oxidative), structure and contraction, oxidative stress, apoptosis, transport, 47 signaling and proteolysis (Picard & Gagaoua 2017). Experiments using high-throughput 48 technologies including Dot-Blot and Reverse Phase Protein Array found that their 49 relationships with tenderness depend on breed (Chaze et al. 2013; Picard et al. 2014), 50 gender/animal type (Guillemin et al. 2011b), rearing factors (Gagaoua et al. 2017b), muscle 51 type (Guillemin et al. 2011b; Picard et al. 2014), texture trait (Gagaoua et al. 2018a) and 52 evaluation method of tenderness (Gagaoua et al. 2018b). 53

Cooking temperature is a crucial important factor influencing meat texture (Tornberg 54 2005) that further differ among countries as it may be to an internal temperature of 55°C (rare 55 cooking) in France or at 74°C (medium to well done) in the United Kingdom (UK) (Gagaoua 56 et al. 2016a). Particularly, denaturation and coagulation of muscle proteins by heating have a 57 major influence on the final texture (Obuz et al. 2003). Moreover, meat preferences of 58 members of a taste panel depend upon their previous cultural experiences and eating habits. 59 Therefore, in this study we evaluated the effect of end-point cooking temperature and country 60 origin of the panelists on the associations of tenderness with the abundances of a list of 61 protein biomarkers from young bulls of different breeds. Specifically, using chemometrics, it 62 determined the relationships between the relative abundance of 21 protein biomarkers and 63 tenderness of the same meat samples cooked to end-point temperatures of 55 or 74°C and 64 assessed by sensory panels in France and the UK. These data will increase our understanding 65

about the implication of various biomarkers in tenderness in order to propose in the future,generic biomarker-based tools for early sorting of carcasses to meet consumer expectations.

#### 68 2. Materials and Methods

#### 69 2.1. Animals handling and slaughtering

This study is part of the European FP6 ProSafeBeef project (FOODCT-2006-36241) under 70 71 the INRA reference AQ284 (Gagaoua et al. 2015a). Seventy-four young bulls of three pure breeds (24 Aberdeen Angus (AA), 25 Limousin (LIM), and 25 Blond d'Aquitaine (BA)) were 72 73 used. The animals were fattened in the same experimental station (INRA-UE 1414 Herbipôle) during a 105 - 107 days finishing period until slaughter at around  $16.0 \pm 0.99$  months 74 (average of  $17.2 \pm 0.92$  months for AA,  $16.4 \pm 1.10$  months for BA,  $16.9 \pm 0.79$  months for 75 LIM). The fattening diet given ad libitum was based on straw (25%) and concentrate (75%) 76 (Gagaoua et al. 2016b). The animals were housed in groups of 4 animals of the same breed in 77 78  $6 \times 6$  m pens with straw bedding.

Animals were slaughtered when they achieved fat class 3 on the EUROP grid of carcass 79 classification, and similar live weights of 665 kg to avoid weight and age effects on muscle 80 characteristics and meat quality (Gagaoua et al. 2015a). Before slaughter, all animals were 81 fasted for 24 h and had free access to water. After unloading, they were slaughtered in the 82 experimental slaughterhouse of INRA Auvergne-Rhône-Alpes Research center in compliance 83 with the current French welfare recommendations for the use of experimental animals. The 84 animals were stunned using a penetrative captive bolt, prior animal bleeding. The carcasses 85 were not electrically stimulated as usual in the experimental slaughterhouse of INRA 86 Auvergne-Rhône-Alpes Research center and they were stored between 2 and 4°C up to 24 h 87 post-mortem according to standard commercial practices. 88

#### 89 2.2. Muscle sampling

90 Muscle samples from Longissimus thoracis (LT, mixed fast oxido-glycolytic) were excised 45 min *post-mortem* from the right side of carcasses (6<sup>th</sup> rib) of each animal. Approximately 91 92 5g of the samples was frozen in liquid nitrogen and kept at -80°C until fiber characterization by myosin heavy chains isoforms (MyHC) quantification and protein extractions for the 93 94 measure of tenderness biomarkers by Dot-Blot. At 24 h post-mortem another part was cut into 95 5 cm thick steaks and placed in sealed plastic bags in a Multivac A300/42 vacuum packager 96 (Multivac UK, Swindon, UK) to -980 mbar and kept between 2 and 4°C for 14 days for ageing. Each steak was then frozen and stored at  $-20^{\circ}$ C until tenderness assessments. 97

#### 98 2.3. Protein content determination

Proteins were extracted according to the protocol set up previously in our laboratory
(Bouley *et al.* 2004). The protein concentration was determined according to the dye binding
method of Bradford using the Bio-Rad Protein assay (Bio-Rad Laboratories Inc.). Bovine
serum albumin (BSA) at a concentration of 1 mg/mL was used as standard.

#### 103 2.4. Dot-Blot analysis

104 Using Dot-Blot, we quantified (Gagaoua et al. 2015a) a list of 18 protein biomarkers of meat tenderness belonging to 5 biological pathways (Table 1): 1)-Heat shock proteins: aB-105 106 crystallin, HSP20, HSP27, HSP40, HSP70-8, HSP70-1A/B, and HSP70-Grp75; 2)-Metabolism: ENO3, LDH-B and MDH1; 3)-Structure and contraction: α-actin, MyLC-1F, 107 108 CapZ-β and MyBP-H; 4)-Oxidative stress: SOD1, PRDX6 and DJ-1; and 5)-Proteolysis: μcalpain (CAPN1). The protocol describing the conditions of quantification, use and specificity 109 110 of primary antibodies against the 18 proteins in bovine muscle was previously reported (Gagaoua et al. 2015a). 111

#### 112 2.5. Electrophoresis separation of Myosin Heavy Chain isoforms

The abundance of the 3 other protein biomarkers corresponding to myosin heavy chain 113 (MyHC) isoforms (structural proteins) was determined using an appropriate high-resolution 114 mini-gel electrophoresis technique (Picard et al. 2011). Controls of bovine muscle containing 115 three (MyHC-I, IIa and IIx) or four (MyHC-I, IIa, IIx and IIb) muscle fibers were added at the 116 extremities of each gel. The quantification of the bands revealed the existence of MyHC-IIb 117 isoform in only some animals (8 animals of 74). Consequently, MyHC-IIb percentages were 118 totaled with those of MyHC-IIx creating a new variable "MyHC-IIx+b", i.e., fast glycolytic 119 fibers (Gagaoua et al. 2015a). Thus, the proportions of three MyHC isoforms (I, IIa and 120 121 IIx+b) were considered in this report.

#### 122 2.6. Tenderness evaluation by sensory panels

Tenderness evaluation was conducted in two dedicated laboratories in the UK (University of Bristol) and France (INRA, Le Magneraud). In both laboratories, the expert panelists were trained in accordance with the ISO standards ISO/TC 34 (Gagaoua *et al.* 2016a). Meat samples from France were transported to the UK while maintained at -20°C and were clearly and appropriately labelled. Within each sensory protocol, scores of steaks cooked at end-point temperatures of 55 and 74°C were averaged across panelists for each steak, and the means were used in the statistical analyses. The statistical analyses among panelists and sessions
revealed coefficient of variations < 5%.</li>

For the French sensory protocol, the steaks were thawed without stacking or overlapping, 131 at 2 to 5°C in vacuum packs for at least 24h or 48 h before cooking. One hour before sensory 132 133 assessment, the meat samples were cut into four approximately 1.50 cm thick steaks, 2 steaks were assigned for cooking to 55°C and 2 steaks for cooking to 74°C. After exposure to air for 134 1 h at 18°C, the steaks were grilled on a double grooved plate griddle (SOFRACA, Morangis, 135 136 France) heated to 310°C for 30 min before cooking. Steaks were heated for 2 min between 137 two aluminum foil sheets, until the end-points temperature of 55°C or 74°C in the geometric center of the steak was reached (measured using a temperature probe (Type K, HANNA HI 138 139 98704, Newark, USA)). After grilling, each grilled sample was cut into 20 mm cubes that were immediately served to 12 panelists. Thus, sensory panels rated global tenderness of the 140 141 grilled meat on a 10 cm unstructured line scale (from 0 to 10), where 0 refers to extremely tough and 10 to extremely tender meat (Gagaoua et al. 2016a). The sessions were carried out 142 in a sensory analysis room equipped with individual booths under artificial red light to reduce 143 the influence of the appearance of the samples. Each tasting booth was equipped with 144 computer terminals linked to a fileserver running a sensory software (Fizz v 2.20h, 145 Biosystemes, Couternon, France) that facilitated the direct entry of assessor ratings. 146

147 For the UK panel, the samples were defrosted overnight at 4°C and then cut into 2.0 cm thick steaks. The steaks were then grilled under the overhead heat from grill elements of a 148 Tricity double oven domestic cooker producing approximately 120°C at the meat surface; 149 150 turning every two minutes until reaching the internal temperatures of 55 or 74°C in the geometric center of the steak (measured by a thermocouple probe). After grilling, all fat and 151 152 connective tissue was trimmed and each steak was cut into  $3 \times 2 \times 2$  cm blocks. The blocks were wrapped in pre-labelled foil, placed in a heated incubator for no more than 15 min before 153 154 testing by 10 panelists. The sensory evaluation was conducted in individual booths illuminated with red light and equipped with the same sensory software than the French panel. 155 156 The assessors used 8-point category scales to evaluate tenderness from 0 - extremely tough to8 – extremely tender. 157

#### 158 2.7. Statistical analyses

Statistical analyses were performed using SAS statistical software (SAS 9.1, SAS Institute
INC, Cary, NC, USA) and XLSTAT 2017.19.4 (AddinSoft, Paris, France). Raw data means

161 were scrutinized for data entry errors and outliers and the normal distribution and 162 homogeneity was tested by Shapiro-Wilk test (P>0.05). Variance analyses were carried out 163 using PROC GLM of SAS for cooking temperature (55 *vs.* 74°C) and breed type effects for 164 each country panel separately. Least square means separation was carried out using Tukey test 165 and differences were considered significant at P<0.05.

For chemometrics analyses, z-scores were computed to remove breed type and country effects. Z-scores represent the deviation of each observation relative to the mean of the corresponding steak in each condition and were calculated using PROC STANDARD of SAS, which standardizes data to a mean of 0 and standard deviation of 1 (Gagaoua *et al.* 2015a). Similarly, the protein abundances of the biomarkers were standardized for breed effect.

Principal component regression (PCR) analyses on standardized data were conducted per 171 172 treatment, that is, end-point cooking temperature, breed and sensory panel, with the 21 biomarkers to generate explanatory models of tenderness using the optimal number of 173 components in each case. This tool allows managing multicollinearity correctly and considers 174 all the biomarkers to explain tenderness variability by highlighting also the direction of the 175 retained biomarkers, i.e., positive, negative or none. The principle of PCR is to calculate the 176 principal components (PCs) and then use some of these components in a linear regression 177 model fitted using the typical least squares procedure (Rougoor et al. 2000). PCR can be 178 179 divided into three steps: the first step is to run a PCA on the table of the explanatory variables, *i.e.* the biomarkers of tenderness. The second step is to run an ordinary least squares 180 regression on the selected components. Finally, the parameters of the equation corresponding 181 182 to the variable to be explained, *i.e.* tenderness, is computed (Gagaoua et al. 2018a). To select PCs for regression, the forward selection approach was used. At each stage of selection 183 184 process, a test was run after a new PC was added to check if some PCs could be deleted without considerably increasing the root mean square error (RMSE). This selection process 185 186 ended when a minimum RMSE was obtained. Besides the percentage of variance explained, 187 the eigenvalues of the PCs can be of use to decide how many PCs to include in the PCR. The best model was regarded as the final forecast to explain tenderness variability by the list of the 188 biomarkers. The maximal number of explanatory variables in the models was unconstrained 189 190 (unlimited), because the objective was to compare the biomarkers and pathways retained, 191 between the models.

192 The degree of similarity between the protein biomarkers to explain tenderness in the 193 twelve models was estimated as the percentage of biomarkers shared based on the F 194 coefficient (López-Pedrouso *et al.* 2014):  $F = 2n_{xy}/(n_x + n_y)$ . Where  $n_{xy}$  is the number of 195 tenderness biomarkers shared by groups x and y; and  $n_x$  and  $n_y$  are the total numbers of 196 biomarkers retained in groups x and y, respectively. Then, the pairwise biomarker distance 197 (*D*) expressed as a percentage based on the abundances of the biomarkers under the different 198 factors (treatments) *i.e.*, breed, cooking temperature and country origin of the panelists was 199 estimated as D = 1 - F.

#### 200 **3. Results and Discussion**

# 3.1. Cooking temperature and breed effects on tenderness of muscle cuts assessed by panelists from France (FR) and the United Kingdom (UK)

203 Tenderness scores were irrespective of the panelists significantly different (P < 0.05) among the three breeds at 74°C only (Table 2). At 55°C, the steaks of Aberdeen Angus were scored 204 higher but without any significant difference with the two other breeds. For all the samples 205 206 taken together and regardless the panelists, tenderness scores were greater (+12 (FR) and 207 +23% (UK), P<0.001) at 55°C than 74°C. However, no interaction of breed × cooking temperature was observed (P>0.05). The increase in internal endpoint temperature may be 208 209 related to higher water loss during cooking, with a direct influence on the tenderness scores. This is in agreement with previous studies reporting greater tenderness when meat was 210 211 cooked at <60°C (Gomes et al. 2014). More precisely, meat tenderness decreases in two distinct phases, the first from 40 to 50°C and the second from 60 to 80°C with a significant 212 213 increase between 50 and 60°C (Christensen et al. 2000). The more tender meat of Aberdeen 214 Angus at 74°C only would be explained by the highest intramuscular fat (IMF) content 215 (3.49% vs. 1.52% and 1.18% for Limousin and Blond d'Aquitaine, respectively (Gagaoua et al. 2016b)). Particularly, IMF levels of 3-4% or more enhances beef tenderness at higher 216 cooking temperatures due to fat breakdown giving meat a succulent mouthfeel (Savell & 217 Cross 1988), which was the case for the Aberdeen Angus bulls in this study (Gagaoua et al. 218 219 2016b).

#### 220 3.2. Protein biomarkers to explain beef tenderness using principal component regression

Principal component regression (PCR) models were used to describe the relationships between the 21 biomarkers and tenderness scores (**Fig. 1** and **Table 3**) according to breed (Aberdeen Angus, Blond d'Aquitaine, Limousin), end-point cooking temperature (55 and 74°C) and country origin of the panelists (France and the UK). These models are based on zscores to avoid all the differences rising from breeds, sensory protocols between the twocountries as well as the two end-point cooking temperatures.

227 The 12 equations explained 68 to 95% of the variability in tenderness (Table 3). The number of the entered proteins in the PCR models as well as their biological families varied 228 229 according to breed, end-point cooking temperature and panelists (Table 3 and Fig. 2A-C). For Aberdeen Angus, 7 to 9 proteins were retained and explained 84%, 95% (at 55°C and 230 74°C) and 73%, 88% of tenderness for the French and the UK panelists, respectively. For 231 Limousin, 9 to 11 proteins were retained and explained 84%, 86% (at 55°C and 74°C) and 232 233 88%, 86% of tenderness for the French and the UK panelists, respectively. For Blond d'Aquitaine, 10 to 14 proteins were retained and explained 90%, 87% (at 55°C and 74°C) and 234 235 68%, 93% of tenderness for the French and the UK panelists, respectively. The Venn diagrams by breed (Fig. 2A-C) present the biomarkers according to their biological family for 236 237 the two end-point cooking temperatures (55 and 74°C) and country origin of the panelists, France (FR) and the United Kingdom (UK). 238

Considering all models, 11 biomarkers were retained at least 6 times in the equations (**Table 3** and **Fig. 1**) including 5 heat shock proteins (CRYAB, HSP20, HSP27, HSP40, HSP70-8) and 3 structural proteins (CapZ- $\beta$ , MyHC-I, MyHC-IIx); the 3 remaining proteins being involved in energy metabolism (LDH-B), oxidative resistance (SOD1) and proteolysis (CAPN1). Six proteins were retained robustly in the equations irrespective of the treatment, with the same direction: MyHC-I, MyHC-IIa, PRDX6 (negative), MyHC-IIx, DJ-1 and CAPN1 (positive).

246 The comparison of the regression equations in terms of the involved proteins revealed a strong dissimilarity based on the pairwise biomarker distance (Fig. 2D). The highest (>75%) 247 and lowest (55-75%) dissimilarity scores were found for Aberdeen Angus and Blond 248 d'Aquitaine, respectively. The dissimilarity was particularly strong for Aberdeen Angus, 249 250 where most of the proteins were specific to the end-point cooking temperature or country origin of the panelists. In contrast, for Blond d'Aquitaine 7 proteins were common 251 irrespective of the treatment factors (Table 3). Similar to the present study, earlier studies 252 found different protein expression or levels according to breed or gender type (Guillemin et 253 al. 2011b; Chaze et al. 2013). 254

The main biological pathways affected by the number of proteins that entered in each model (**Fig. 3A-C**) agree with the observation that meat proteins are denatured by changing

the cooking temperature or processing/environmental conditions (Kemp et al. 2009). 257 Specifically, the heat capacities of sarcoplasmic, myofibrillar, and stromal proteins differ and 258 the cooking temperature determines the overall spectrum of thermal denaturation of different 259 meat proteins inducing strong differences on final meat texture (Tornberg 2005; Kemp et al. 260 2009). This explains the major role of myofibrillar or sarcoplasmic proteins and intramuscular 261 connective tissue in cooked meat texture (Brunton et al. 2006). Results of our study agree 262 with this knowledge. In the following subsections, we discuss the relationships between 263 tenderness and the proteins of the different biological families in their order of entrance in the 264 265 regression equations, taking into account the treatment factors.

#### 266 *3.2.1. Heat shock proteins*

The 7 HSPs including small (CRYAB, HSP20 and HSP27), large (HSP70-1A/B, Hsp70-8 267 268 and HSP70-GRP75) and HSP40 co-chaperone were all involved in the tenderness regression equations but in a specific manner depending on breed, end-point cooking temperature or 269 country origin of the panelists (Fig. 1). sHSPs are intracellular stabilizers that are dynamically 270 expressed in muscle after slaughter to respond in specific regions of muscle cells to prevent 271 the irreversible denaturation and aggregation during heat stimulation of muscle proteins and 272 thus maintain cellular homeostasis (for review: (Lomiwes et al. 2014)). They regulate actin 273 polymerization, actin-myosin interactions or actin-binding protein including some roles in the 274 275 management of the proper assembly of intermediate filaments.

276 sHSPs were retained at least 6 times in the regression equations (Fig. 1 and Table 3). These consistent associations are of particular interest. Thus, CRYAB and HSP20 were 277 strongly negatively and HSP40 (DNAJA1) positively correlated with tenderness in the 4 278 equations for Blond d'Aquitaine bulls (Table 3). HSP20 and CRYAB are important 279 280 modulators of intermediate filament assemblies and are able to bind most unfolded proteins in a non-specific manner as well as important anti-apoptotic properties role in *post-mortem* 281 muscle (Ouali et al. 2013; Dubińska-Magiera et al. 2014). HSP40 is a protein that is located 282 in the cytosol and cochaperones the intermediate filament with HSP70 to retard apoptosis. 283 This protein was also positively correlated with tenderness for the Limousin (UK55 and 284 UK74°C) but negatively for Aberdeen Angus breed (FR55 and UK74). In cattle, only one 285 286 work has shown a negative relationship between DNAJA1 expression (HSP40) in LT muscle of young Charolais bulls and tenderness score assessed by a sensory panel (Bernard et al. 287 2007). 288

The stronger involvement of sHSPs in tenderness of Blond d'Aquitaine compared to the 289 other breeds may be explained by some of their other characteristics. Particularly, compared 290 to Limousin and Aberdeen Angus, Blond d'Aquitaine has greater muscularity with low 291 292 connective tissue and intramuscular fat contents. In addition, isolated skeletal muscle myosin retains much of its native structure as well as its enzymatic activity when incubated at high 293 temperature in the presence of sHSPs (Melkani et al. 2006). Hence, sHSPs may have 294 contributed to the development of meat texture, irrespective of cooking temperature and 295 consequently have influenced tenderness. In support of this, tenderness of the Blond 296 297 d'Aquitaine breed was quite strongly positively related to certain structural proteins, such as 298 CapZ- $\beta$  and MyHC-IIx, whatever the end-point cooking temperature or panelist origin (Fig. 299 1).

The implication of HSPs in meat quality was earlier proposed; these proteins would slow 300 301 post-mortem muscle apoptosis onset (Ouali et al. 2013; Picard & Gagaoua 2017). HSPs are abundant and dynamically expressed in post-mortem muscle (Chaze et al. 2013; Carvalho et 302 al. 2014; Gagaoua et al. 2015a; Picard & Gagaoua 2017) including during the heating process 303 of meat (Pulford et al. 2008). In line to our findings, other studies found that variations in the 304 expression and level of various HSPs correlated with tenderness in different experiments on 305 cattle and other species, including different breeds, animal types, and muscles (for review: 306 (Picard & Gagaoua 2017)). However, there are some contradictions between studies (Gagaoua 307 et al. 2018b) that may be explained by individual reactivity of animals to stress and other 308 factors related to the contractile and metabolic properties of the muscle including oxidative 309 310 stress regulation that are not yet fully elucidated (Picard et al. 2014). Although the exact 311 underlying mechanisms in *post-mortem* muscle and in cooked meat are not yet understood, 312 they may be related to the maintenance of the correct conformation of proteins and preservation of their biological functions, protein assembly, folding and unfolding, and 313 314 refolding of damaged protein entities including those of contractile and myofibrillar proteins (for review: (Picard & Gagaoua 2017)). 315

316 *3.2.2. Structural proteins* 

Many studies indicate that meat tenderization is strongly related to the disruption of muscle structure by the breakdown of myofibrillar proteins (Bjarnadottir *et al.* 2010; Ouali *et al.* 2013; Carvalho *et al.* 2014; Marino *et al.* 2015) and our results are coherent with this. Particularly for the Limousin and Blond d'Aquitaine breeds, the 7 structural proteins were associated with tenderness (**Fig. 1** and **Fig. 2**). Myosin is the most abundant protein in muscle

tissue and belongs to a family of ATP-dependent motor proteins (Picard et al. 2002). For both 322 breeds, irrespective of end-point cooking temperature and origin of panelists, tenderness was 323 negatively and positively associated with MyHC-I, MyHC-IIa and MyHC-IIx, respectively. 324 CapZ-B, MyHC-I and MyHC-IIx were retained at least 6 times in the models. For Blond 325 d'Aquitaine, CapZ-ß and MyHC-IIx were correlated positively and for Limousin, MyHC-IIa 326 negatively with tenderness. MLC-1F was retained in several models, and had a relatively 327 strong negative impact on tenderness for FR74. Regardless of the panelists, MyBP-H, a 328 protein of approximately 55 kDa that was reported in several studies to be correlated with 329 beef tenderness (Picard & Gagaoua 2017), was in this study positively and negatively 330 associated with tenderness at 55°C for Aberdeen Angus and Limousin, respectively, while it 331 was positively associated with tenderness of Blond d'Aquitaine for UK74. As mentioned 332 previously, the denaturation caused by heat varies according to the protein. For example, fast-333 334 twitch fibers have lower thermal stability and are more susceptible to denaturation, than their oxidative counterparts (Egelandsdal et al. 1994). Accordingly, we think that the interesting 335 336 finding in the inversion of direction with MyBP-H among breeds at the same temperature of 55°C would be related to the slightly different proportions of MyHC isoforms in the LT 337 338 muscle of Aberdeen Angus and Limousin (Gagaoua et al. 2017c). Indeed, in this last cited paper we identified that LT muscle of Aberdeen Angus bulls as relatively oxidative and that 339 of Limousin as more glycolytic oriented. The corresponding distribution of MyHC fibers 340 between these two breeds are as follow: MyHC-I  $(AA = 27.36 \pm 7.69\%)$ 341 vs. 342 LIM =  $23.65 \pm 2.67\%$ ); MyHC-IIa (AA =  $54.47 \pm 6.78\%$  vs. LIM =  $30.75 \pm 5.51\%$ ) and MyHC-IIx+b (AA =  $18.17 \pm 10.53\%$  vs. LIM =  $45.62 \pm 6.66\%$ ). In addition, other effects of 343 cooking involve protein aggregation due to protein modifications and intermolecular 344 interactions of hydrophobic surfaces which also vary according to temperature. Hence, the 345 different relationships between structural proteins and tenderness according to breed and 346 347 cooking temperature may be partly explained by different protein profiles between breeds and the way heat acts on them. 348

Differences in the relationships between tenderness and structural proteins may also be related to the differences in the metabolic and contractile properties of the muscle fibres (Picard *et al.* 2014). Compared to oxidative fibers, the glycolytic entities are more susceptible to proteolysis, a process which is central to tenderization (Ouali 1990). Moreover, MyHC-IIx fibers have further greater glycogen contents (Lefaucheur 2010) which together with their specific enzymatic characteristics influence rate and extent of *post-mortem* pH decline, and consequently, sensory eating qualities of beef (Gagaoua *et al.* 2017a). MyHC-IIx was earlier
identified as a robust biomarker of tenderness irrespective of the evaluation method, sensory
panel or instrumental (Gagaoua *et al.* 2018b). Overall, results indicate that MyHC isoforms
are potential biomarkers of tenderness independently of breed, cooking temperature and
panel.

The association between Myosin light chains (MLC) and tenderness are coherent with earlier reports indicating that their release due to *post-mortem* hydrolysis was associated with beef tenderness (Picard *et al.* 2002; Anderson *et al.* 2012). MLC have substantial hydrophobic areas to which certain HSPs attach, which may slow proteolysis.

The relationship between CapZ- $\beta$ , MyBP-H and  $\alpha$ -actin with tenderness differed according 364 to the treatment factors. These structural proteins are degraded during *post-mortem* ageing by 365 366 the endogenous muscle proteolytic systems. α-Actin (Zapata et al. 2009; Polati et al. 2012; 367 Gagaoua et al. 2017b; Picard & Gagaoua 2017), MyBP-H (Morzel et al. 2008; Guillemin et al. 2011a; Gagaoua et al. 2018a) and CapZ-β (Chaze et al. 2013; Gagaoua et al. 2018b) were 368 earlier identified as biomarkers of beef tenderness.  $\alpha$ -Actin is believed to play a pivotal role in 369 the onset of apoptosis during muscle to meat conversion (Ouali et al. 2013). CapZ-β also 370 known as F-actin-capping protein subunit  $\beta$  is located in the Z band of the muscle sarcomere 371 and the most abundant barbed-end-capping protein anchoring the barbed ends of sarcomeric 372 actin to the Z-disc, inhibiting polymerization (Maiti & Bamburg 2013). A proteomic study 373 found that CapZ- $\beta$  was retained in the insoluble fraction of the protein extraction and the 374 levels declined during the 48 hr following slaughter (Bjarnadottir et al. 2010), indicative of 375 376 progressive CapZ-β fragmentation or detachment from the Z band. MyBP-H is located in the A-band of the myofibrils and has significant effects on length, thickness, and lateral alignment 377 378 of myosin filaments (Gilbert et al. 1999), possibly modifying its accessibility to proteolytic processes and effect of heat. Higher levels of α-actin, MyBP-H and CapZ-β in the early *post*-379 380 mortem period suggest a relatively fast fragmentation of these proteins allowing their easier 381 extraction. However, further studies are needed to better understand these different links with 382 meat tenderness under various heat treatments.

383 *3.2.3. Energy metabolism proteins* 

MDH1 plays a pivotal role in the malate-aspartate shuttle operating between cytosol from glycolysis towards lipid oxidation in mitochondria (Lo *et al.* 2005). ENO3 is a glycolytic enzyme involved in the conversion of 2-phosphoglycerate to phosphoenolpyruvate. LDH-B catalyzes the interconversion of pyruvate and lactate. These 3 metabolic enzymes were often
retained in the equations for the Limousin (8/12), but were also correlated with tenderness of
the Blond d'Aquitaine (5/12) and Aberdeen Angus breeds (3/12).

390 We reported earlier that LT muscles with more oxidative properties produce more tender 391 meat (Picard et al. 2014) which is coherent with the positive and negative associations of MDH1 and LDH-B with tenderness, respectively, for the Limousin breed, and the negative 392 association between tenderness and ENO3 in the Aberdeen Angus breed (Fig. 1). Inverse 393 relationships between tenderness and small HSPs in Aberdeen Angus (with slow oxidative 394 395 muscle properties) and Limousin/Blond d'Aquitaine (with fast glycolytic muscle properties) was previously described by our group. Level of expression and abundance of ENO3 in the 396 397 muscle was also linked (positively and negatively) with eating qualities of meat as a function of breeds, muscles or species (Picard & Gagaoua 2017). 398

399 Certain relationships between these metabolic enzymes and tenderness were however opposite to those described above. For example, in contrast to the Limousin, for the Blond 400 d'Aquitaine breed, LDH-B was positively correlated and for both the Blond d'Aquitaine and 401 Aberdeen Angus breeds, ENO3 and MDH1 were negatively correlated with tenderness 402 (except for MDH1 Aberdeen Angus; UK55). The contrasting results between breeds may be 403 related the individual variability of the breeds and animals (Gagaoua et al. 2016b) as the 404 relationships between these enzymes and tenderness probably involve complex interactions. 405 For example, ENO3 participates in multi-enzyme complexes present on the sarcomere (Keller 406 407 et al. 2000) and their role in the tenderization process may further depend on the presence of 408 other proteins such as HSPs (Wulff et al. 2012).

#### 409 *3.2.4. Oxidative resistance proteins*

The 3 oxidative stress proteins were retained in many of the tenderness equations (Table 3 410 and Fig. 1). DJ-1 was positively associated with tenderness for Aberdeen Angus (UK74), 411 Limousin (FR74 and UK74), and Blond d'Aquitaine (FR55 and UK55). PRDX6 was 412 negatively associated with tenderness for Aberdeen Angus (FR55, FR74 and UK74) and 413 414 Blond d'Aquitaine (FR55 and UK55). SOD1 was negatively associated with tenderness in the 4 equations of the Blond d'Aquitaine breed and positively for the Aberdeen Angus (FR55 and 415 FR74) and Limousin breeds (FR74 and UK74). Hence, within a breed, there was good 416 417 coherence within panel and/or temperature for these markers.

The oxidative properties of *post-mortem* muscle cells evolve continuously, as well as 418 during cooking, due to cellular damage and the generation of reactive oxygen species (ROS) 419 able to react with lipids and proteins (Brand 2010; Malheiros et al. 2019) thereby affecting 420 muscle structure and meat tenderness (Malheiros et al. 2019). The modifications of muscle 421 422 proteins due to oxidation is responsible for protein aggregation, changes in conformation and solubility, and susceptibility to proteolysis (For review: (Estévez 2011)). The 3 oxidative 423 stress proteins may act as protective scavenger agents and therefore play an important role in 424 the tenderization process (for review: (Picard & Gagaoua 2017)). For example, during 425 426 oxidative stress, the protein deglycase DJ-1 is re-localized in the mitochondria, where it has a pivotal role in scavenging mitochondrial H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> and limits mitochondrial fragmentation 427 428 (Thomas et al. 2011). DJ-1 abundance increases during ageing in beef Longissimus muscle 429 starting early post-mortem (Polati et al. 2012) until 21 days post-mortem (Laville et al. 2009). 430 The protective action of this protein against oxidative stress may also influence color of beef (Gagaoua et al. 2017c). 431

In contrast to DJ-1, PRDX6, the sixth member of peroxiredoxins superfamily was 432 negatively associated with tenderness. PRDX6 protects cells from oxidative damage 433 particularly by controlling hydrogen peroxide amount in cells (Rhee et al. 2005). The negative 434 associations are explained by the anti-apoptotic properties of this protein (for review: (Fisher 435 2017). PRDX6 was earlier described as a marker of beef tenderness (Jia et al. 2009; 436 437 Guillemin et al. 2011a; Gagaoua et al. 2017b; Gagaoua et al. 2018a; Gagaoua et al. 2018b) and is further related with other quality traits, such as pH decline and meat color (Gagaoua et 438 al. 2015b; Gagaoua et al. 2017c). Other members of peroxiredoxins are also related with 439 440 tenderness, including PRDX1 in Charolais breed (Polati et al. 2012), PRDX2 in Angus 441 crossbred (Malheiros et al. 2019) and PRDX3 in Norwegian Red cattle (Grabez et al. 2015).

SOD1, or superoxide dismutase (Cu-Zn) is an antioxidant metalloenzyme eliminating 442 443 excess ROS to limit damage caused by free radicals by the dismutation of  $O_2^-$  to  $O_2$  and  $H_2O_2$ . 444 In line with the negative association of SOD1 in all the tenderness equations of the Blond 445 d'Aquitaine breed, a recent study reported greater abundance of this protein in tougher meat (Grabez et al. 2015). In these observations, stronger oxidative stress may have caused ROS 446 447 accumulation and reduce cell protection leading to tough meat. However, for the Aberdeen Angus and Limousin breeds the opposite relationship was found and such positive 448 relationships were also reported earlier. SOD1 correlated positively with tenderness in 449 Semitendinosus muscle of Charolais young bulls (Guillemin et al. 2011a) and Rouge des Près 450

451 cows (Gagaoua *et al.* 2017b). According to (Rowe *et al.* 2004), antioxidant enzymes such as
452 superoxide dismutase may protect proteases from oxidative damage, thus leading to tender
453 meat. Hence, as already noted above, the direction of the correlations between certain proteins
454 and tenderness depends on the interactions with other proteins.

#### 455 *3.2.5. Proteolytic enzymes*

Proteolytic enzymes play a central role in the fragmentation of structural proteins, and 456 457 consequently, in the tenderization process (Ouali & Talmant 1990; Ouali et al. 2013). This study investigated only one proteolytic enzyme, CAPN1 or µ-calpain, which was as expected 458 459 positively related to tenderness and entered 7 times in the regression equations, including the 4 equations of the Blond d'Aquitaine breed (Table 3 and Fig. 1). The latter is coherent with 460 the presence of structural proteins, CapZ-β and MyHC-IIx in the equations of this breed: 461 462 increased proteolytic activity increases the fragmentation, and therefore the extractability of 463 those structural proteins. Calpain-activity depends on many other biological pathways, related to Ca2+ homeostasis, structure, energy metabolism, heat stress, mitochondrial activity, and 464 apoptosis (Ouali et al. 2013; Gagaoua et al. 2015a; Picard & Gagaoua 2017; de Oliveira et al. 465 2019). For example, calpain-activity needs the presence of  $Ca^{2+}$ , and therefore depends on 466 Ca<sup>2+</sup>-regulating proteins, including the ryanodine receptor (Brulé et al. 2010). In addition, 467 calpain autolysis during the proteolytic process and levels decrease therefore concomitantly. 468 If there are great amounts of the oxidized form of HSP70-1A/B, one of the substrates for 469 470 calpain, less calpain will be available to degrade structural proteins (Gagaoua et al. 2015b). 471 This illustrates the strong interconnectedness of the processes that underlie *post-mortem* 472 proteolysis and consequently, final meat tenderness.

#### 473 **4. Conclusion**

This study shows that the relationships between a list of potential biomarkers and beef 474 tenderness depend on the end-point cooking temperature, country origin of the panelists and 475 breed, although there were also certain consistencies. Particularly, proteins of structure 476 477 (MyHC-I, MyHC-IIa, MyHC-IIx), oxidative stress (DJ-1, PRDX6) and proteolysis (CAPN1) 478 are robustly involved in the LT tenderization process. These 6 biomarkers were retained in the same directions irrespectively of end-point cooking temperature, country origin of the 479 480 panelists or breed, and can be considered as predictors of tenderness. Consistencies were found for Blond d'Aquitaine breed with various robust relationships whatever the treatment 481 482 factors. In this breed, rather CRYAB, HSP20, HSP40, CapZ-β, MyHC IIx, SOD1 and CAPN1

may be robust biomarkers of global tenderness evaluated by sensory analysis, as the relationships are the same whatever the cooking temperature and the country origin of the panelists. The findings of this study allowed understanding a part of the underlying mechanisms in tenderness determinism that are due to cooking temperature and breed and specific link of the proteins at those treatments. Further investigations are needed to compare the muscle proteome of fresh and cooked meat to understand the mechanisms underlying the effects of heating on final tenderness of cooked meat and the validation of the biomarkers.

#### 490 **Conflict of interest**

491 The authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

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686

#### 687 Figure captions

Fig. 1. Principal component regression (PCR) analyses on beef tenderness of the three young 688 bull breeds (Aberdeen Angus, Limousin and Blond d'Aquitaine) obtained at the two cooking 689 temperatures (55 and 74°C) assessed by the trained panelists from France (FR) and the United 690 691 Kingdom (UK). The size of colored circles indicate the retained biomarkers in the models and the level of their association with tenderness based on the normalized regression coefficients 692 693 in the equations ( $\beta$ ) as shown in the legend. Colors indicate direction of the association of the biomarkers, with green and red reflecting positive and negative relationships, respectively. 694 695 The non-significant proteins (not retained in the models) were left in blank. The total 696 frequency of entrance of the biomarkers in the regression equations are shown on the right of 697 the graph.

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**Fig. 2.** Venn diagrams (**A-C**) by breed highlighting the number of the retained biomarkers in the PCR models and those shared by biological family according to the two end-point cooking temperatures (55 and 74°C) and country origin of the panelists from France (FR) and the United Kingdom (UK). **D**) Pairwise biomarker distance (*D*) expressed as a percentage based on the abundances of the proteins quantified by Dot-Blot and SDS-PAGE for the different factors *i.e.*, breed, cooking temperature and country origin of the panelists.

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Fig. 3. Number of the retained proteins from each of the 5 biological families for A)
Aberdeen Angus, B) Limousin and C) Blond d'Aquitaine at the two end-point cooking
temperatures (55 and 74°C) as assessed by the trained panelists from France (FR) and the
United Kingdom (UK).

Protein biomarker ( <i>gana</i> )	UniProtKB ID	Antibody
(gene)		dilutions
Heat Shock Proteins		
αB-Crystallin (CRYAB)	P02511	1/500
Hsp20 (HSPB6)	O14558	1/200
Hsp27 (HSPB1)	P04792	1/3000
Hsp40 (DNAJA1)	P31689	1/250
Hsp70-1A/B (HSPA1B)	P08107	1/2000
Hsp70-8 (HSPA8)	P11142	1/250
Hsp70-Grp75 (HSPA9)	P38646	1/250
Metabolism		
Enolase 3 (ENO3)	P13929	1/45000
LDH-B (LDHB)	P07195	1/50000
MDH1 (MDH1)	P40925	1/1000
Structure		
CapZ- $\beta$ ( <i>CAPZB</i> )	P47756	1/250
$\alpha$ -actin (ACTA1)	P68133	1/1000
MyLC-1F (MYL1)	P05976	1/1000
MyBP-H (MYBPH)	Q13203	1/4000
Oxidative resistance		
DJ-1 (PARK7)	Q99497	1/250
Prdx6 (PRDX6)	P30041	1/500
SOD1 (SOD1)	P00441	1/1000
Proteolysis		
μ-calpain (CAPN1)	P07384	1/1000

Table 1. List of the 18 protein biomarkers quantified using the Dot-Blot technique.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> The suppliers and conditions for each primary antibody are given as described in (Gagaoua *et al.* 2017c).

Abbreviations: LDH-B: Lactate dehydrogenase chain B; MDH1: Malate dehydrogenase 1; CapZ- $\beta$ : F-actin-capping protein subunit  $\beta$ ; MyLC-1F: Myosin Light chain 1F; MyBP-H: Myosin Binding protein H; DJ-1: Parkinson diseaseprotein 7; Prdx6: Cis-peroxiredoxin; SOD1: Superoxide dismutase Cu/Zn

Table 2. Effect of cooking temperature (55 vs. 74°C) and breed on beef tenderness of the steaks assessed by the two panelists from France (FR) and the United Kingdom (UK).

	Cooking temperature	Breed (B)				Cooking temperature (CT)		<i>P</i> -values <sup>1</sup>			
Country panel		Aberdeen Angus	Limousin	Blond d'Aquitaine	SEM	55°C	74°C	В	СТ	B*CT	
France (FR)	55°C	5.10	4.76	4.85	0.07	4 003	4 20b	ns	***		
(0 – 10 scale)	74°C	4.68 <sup>a</sup>	4.17 <sup>b</sup>	4.05 <sup>b</sup>	0.06	4.90*	4.29	4.29	**		ns
United Kingdom (UK)	55°C	4.10	3.92	3.78	0.07	2 0 2 8	2.028 2.04b	ns	***	ns	
(0-8  scale)	74°C	3.29 <sup>a</sup>	3.03 <sup>b</sup>	2.80 <sup>b</sup>	0.03	3.93*	3.04°	*	·· • •		

Within a row and breed or end-point cooking temperature, least squares means lacking a common superscript letter differ (P < 0.05). <sup>1</sup>Significance level: ns: not significant; \* P < 0.05; \*\* P < 0.01; \*\*\* P < 0.001

Draada	Temperature and	n proteins		Model characteristics			
Breeds	panel origin		Protein biomarkers "		<b>RMSE</b> <sup>b</sup>	<i>P</i> -value	
	FR55	9	HSP40, HSP70-8, CapZ-β, α-Actin, MyBP-H, <u>MyHC-IIx</u> , <u>PRDX6</u> , SOD1, <u>CAPN1</u>	0.84	0.59	0.0011	
Aberdeen	FR74	8	HSP20, HSP70-1A/B, HSP70-8, HSP70-GRP75, MDH1, MLC-1F, PRDX6, SOD1	0.95	0.31	0.0000	
Angus	UK55	7	CRYAB, HSP27, HSP70-GRP75, MDH1, MyBP-H, MyHC-I, CAPN1	0.73	0.68	0.0016	
	UK74	8	CRYAB, HSP27, HSP40, HSP70-1A/B, ENO3, MyHC-I, DJ-1, PRDX6	0.88	0.48	0.0012	
	FR55	9	HSP20, HSP70-8, ENO3, LDH-B, MDH1, MyBP-H, <u>MyHC-I, MyHC-IIa, MyHC-IIx</u>	0.84	0.52	0.0001	
	FR74	10	HSP20, HSP27, HSP70-1A/B, ENO3, LDH-B, α-Actin, MLC-1F, <u>MyHC-IIa</u> , <u>DJ-1</u> , SOD1	0.86	0.50	0.0002	
Limousin	UK55	11	<b>HSP40, HSP70-8,</b> HSP70-GRP75, <b>LDH-B,</b> MDH1, <b>CapZ-β</b> , α-Actin, MyBP-H, <u>MyHC-</u> <u><b>I</b></u> , <u>MyHC-IIa</u> , <u>CAPN1</u>	0.88	0.47	0.0002	
	UK74	10	HSP27, HSP40, HSP70-8, ENO3, CapZ-β, MLC-1F, <u>MyHC-IIa</u> , <u>MyHC-IIx</u> , <u>DJ-1</u> , SOD1	0.86	0.51	0.0002	
	FR55	13	<b>CRYAB, HSP20, HSP27, HSP40,</b> ENO3, <b>CapZ-β,</b> α-Actin, <u>MyHC-I, MyHC-IIx, DJ-1</u> , <u>PRDX6, SOD1, CAPN1</u>	0.90	0.48	0.0001	
Blond	FR74	13	CRYAB, HSP20, HSP40, HSP70-1A/B, HSP70-8, LDH-B, CapZ-β, MLC-1F, <u>MyHC-I</u> , <u>MyHC-IIa</u> , <u>MyHC-IIx</u> ,SOD1, <u>CAPN1</u>	0.87	0.55	0.0003	
d'Aquitaine	UK55	10	CRYAB, HSP20, HSP40, LDH-B, CapZ-β, <u>MyHC-IIx</u> , <u>DJ-1</u> , <u>PRDX6</u> , SOD1, <u>CAPN1</u>	0.68	0.76	0.0030	
	UK74	14	CRYAB, HSP20, HSP27, HSP40, HSP70-1A/B, HSP70-8, LDH-B, MDH1, CapZ-β, MLC-1F, MyBP-H, MyHC-IIx, SOD1, CAPN1	0.93	0.41	0.0004	

**Table 3.** Principal component regression models for beef tenderness of the three young bull breeds (Aberdeen Angus, Limousin and Blond d'Aquitaine) obtained at the two cooking temperatures (55 and 74°C) assessed by the two panelists from France (FR) and the United Kingdom (UK).

<sup>a</sup> The proteins in bold font are those that were retained more than 6 times (>50% of chance) in the models for the 3 breeds, the two cooking temperatures and the two panels (**Fig. 1**). The direction of the proteins (+ or -) are highlighted in **Fig. 1** and the underlined proteins are those that were already entered robustly in the models with the same direction (+ or -) irrespective of breed, cooking temperature and country origin of the panelists.

<sup>b</sup> RMSE: Root Mean Standard Error of the model.



Fig. 1.







