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▶ To cite this version:

Mohammed Gagaoua, Robyn Warner, Peter Purslow, Ranjith Ramanathan, Anne Maria Mullen, et al.. Dark-cutting beef: A brief review and an integromics meta-analysis at the proteome level to decipher the underlying pathways. Meat Science, 2021, 181, pp.108611. 10.1016/j.meatsci.2021.108611. hal-03315957

HAL Id: hal-03315957 https://hal.inrae.fr/hal-03315957v1

Submitted on 20 Sep 2023 $\,$

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Dark-cutting beef: a brief review and an integromics meta-analysis at the proteome level to decipher the underlying pathways

Mohammed Gagaoua¹*, Robyn D. Warner², Peter Purslow³, Ranjith Ramanathan⁴, Anne Maria Mullen¹, Maria López-Pedrouso⁵, Daniel Franco⁶, José M. Lorenzo^{6,7}, Igor Tomasevic⁸, Brigitte Picard⁹, Declan Troy¹ and E.M. Claudia Terlouw⁹

¹ Food Quality and Sensory Science Department, Teagasc Food Nesearch Centre, Ashtown, Dublin 15, Ireland

² School of Agriculture and Food, Faculty of Veterinary a. ¹ A gricultural Sciences, University of Melbourne, Parkville, VIC 3010, Australia

³ Centro de Investigacion Veterinaria de Tandil (CIVLTAN), Universidad Nacional del Centro de la Provincia de Buenos Aires, Tandil B7001BPO, Argentina

⁴ Department of Animal and Food Sciences, O'datoona State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma 74078, USA

⁵ Department of Zoology, Genetics and Tysical Anthropology, University of Santiago de Compostela, 15872 Santiago de Compostela, Spain

⁶ Centro Tecnológico de la Carne de Garizia, rúa Galicia nº 4, Parque Tecnológico de Galicia, San Cibrao das Viñas 32900, Ourcuse. Spain

⁷ Área de Tecnología de los Alimentos, Facultad de Ciencias de Ourense, Universidad de Vigo,
 32004 Ourense, Spain

⁸ University of Belgrade, Facury of Agriculture, Nemanjina 6, 11080, Belgrade, Serbia

⁹ Université Clermont Aussigne, INRAE, VetAgro Sup, UMR Herbivores, F-63122 Saint-Genès-Champanelle, France

* Correspondence:

Dr. Mohammed Gagaoua Food Quality and Sensory Science Department Teagasc Food Research Centre, Ashtown, Dublin 15, Ireland gmber2001@yahoo.fr ; mohammed.gagaoua@teagasc.ie ORCID: 0000-0001-6913-337

Abstract

Comprehensive characterization of the *post-mortem* muscle proteome defines a fundamental goal in meat proteomics. During the last decade, proteomic tools have been applied in the field of foodomics to help decipher factors underpinning meat quality variations and to enlighten us, through data-driven methods, on the underlying mechanisms leading to meat quality defects such as dark-cutting meat. In cattle, several proteomics studies have focused on the extent to which changes in the *post-mortem* muscle proteome relate to dark-cutting beef development. The present data-mining study firstly reviews proteomics studies which investigated dark-cutting beef, and secondly, gathers the protein biomarkers that differ between dark-cutting *versus* beef with normal-pH in a unique repertoire. A list of 120 proteins from eight eligible studies was curated and mined through bioinformatics for the Ontology annotations, molecular pathways enrichments, secretome analysis and biological pathways underpinning dark-cutting beef at the proteome level have been destributed and deeply discussed.

Keywords: OMICs; proteome; pH; DFD, moat cor; cattle; muscle structure, TCA cycle; metabolism; mitochondria

Succession

1. Introduction

Recent developments in high-throughput omics techniques provide us with tools for efficient proteome profiling of muscle foods, increasing our understanding of muscle biology and biochemistry (Canto et al., 2015; Gagaoua, Monteils, Couvreur, & Picard, 2019; Gagaoua, Monteils, & Picard, 2018; Gagaoua, Troy, & Mullen, 2021; Munekata, Pateiro, López-Pedrouso, Gagaoua, & Lorenzo, 2021; Purslow, Gagaoua, & Warner, 2021) and allowing the discovery of meat quality biomarkers (Gagaoua, Bonnet, & Picard, 2020; Gagaoua, Terlouw, & Picard, 2017; López-Pedrouso, Lorenzo, Gagaoua, & Franco, 2020; Ouali et al., 2013; Picard & Gagaoua, 2020a; Picard, Gagaoua, & Hollung, 2017). A range of proteomics methods has been applied during the last decade to investigate important meat quality characteristics that influence eating experience and purchasing decisions. They were used (i) to study the dynamic changes in *post-mortem* muscle proteome and the modifications occurring in fresh and cooked meat products (Gagaoua, Troy, et al., 2021; Nontowska & Pospiech, 2013; Tian et al., 2016); (ii) for the discovery and identification of protein biomarkers aiming to better understand variations in different meat quality to its Gagaoua, Terlouw, Boudjellal, & Picard, 2015; Ouali et al., 2013; Picard & Gagaou ., 2020; Te Pas, Hoekman, & Smits, 2011) and, (iii) to understand the causes of quality defects n certain fresh and processed meat products and the associated underlying biological mechanisms (López-Pedrouso et al., 2020; Schilling et al., 2017). The proteomics techniques used have typically involved gel-based and gel-free approaches coupled with mass crectrometry (MS), array-based methods and sophisticated statistical approaches (Gagacia, Couvreur, Le Bec, Aminot, & Picard, 2017; Gagaoua, Monteils, et al., 2018; Picero et al., 2017; Zhu, Gagaoua, Mullen, Kelly, et al., 2021; Zhu, Gagaoua, Mullen, Vian, et al., 2021).

In cattle, the recent advances in meat proteomics (Gagaoua, Terlouw, Richardson, Hocquette, & Picard, 2019; Hollung et al., 2014; Zhu, Gagaoua, Mullen, Viala, et al., 2021) have also allowed the discovery of certain proteins and associated molecular pathways behind the important eating quality traits of beef such as tenderness (Gagaoua, Terlouw, et al., 2021) and color (Gagaoua, Hughes, et al., 2020). The valuable knowledge gained from previous studies was due in a large way to the data-mining and integrative studies of public proteomics datasets which enabled repertoires of proteins to be proposed; certain protein candidates were curated as robust and of pivotal interest for further evaluation following the pipeline of meat quality biomarkers discovery (Gagaoua, Bonnet, et al., 2020; Picard & Gagaoua, 2020a). For example, the integromics meta-analysis conducted by Gagaoua, Hughes, et al. (2020) on beef

with normal color, without considering dark, firm, and dry (DFD) beef, otherwise termed darkcutting beef, led to the identification of seventy-nine proteins belonging to six biological pathways: energy metabolism, responses to stress, oxidative stress, muscle structure, signaling, proteolysis and apoptosis. Based on this first integromics meta-analysis that targeted normal beef color proteomics, a list of twenty-seven putative biomarkers consistently identified among independent proteomic datasets for beef color parameters was proposed. The first objective of the present study aimed to follow the same approach by reviewing proteomics studies of darkcutting beef condition to create the first repertoire of protein biomarkers of this beef quality defect. The dark-cutting condition usually arises after cattle experience physical and psychological stress prior to slaughter such that muscle glycoge. is depleted, hence impacting the rate of pH decline resulting in abnormally dark musc es (Ponnampalam et al., 2017; Tarrant, 1989; Terlouw et al., 2021). As a result, dark-cut ing carcasses are discounted during meat grading and downgraded in value, leading to economic losses for the beef sector. The second objective of using publicly available data aimed performing an integrative metaanalysis on the first list of proteins and investigating the extent to which the available proteomics datasets will allow the identification or potential biomarkers of dark-cutting beef. Initially we have reviewed the main causes of dark-cutting beef, the effect of high pH on the color of meat, and the new insights of muscle biology on dark-cutting beef. Subsequently, we present the first repertoire list of put at protein biomarkers in cattle and their analysis using several bioinformatics tools. The analysis of this repertoire allows us to gain more insights, at the proteome level, into the key biological pathways and mechanisms underlying dark-cutting beef. Finally, we discuss the directions that future proteomics (and omics) studies could take to broaden our understandin 3 ab out this beef quality defect.

2. Brief overview of dard-cutting beef and main causes

Dark-cutting meat is generally defined as meat with high ultimate pH (pHu). In many countries, carcasses with a pHu threshold ≥ 6.0 in the loin are defined as dark-cutting, including in industry and for laboratory and proteomics experiments (**Table 1**). There are exceptions; for example, the Australian beef industry specifies pHu > 5.7 cut-off for dark-cutting and failing to grade, due not only to the toughness of intermediate pH (5.8 < pHu < 6.2) meat measured using instruments and sensory panels (Grayson et al., 2016) but also because experienced meat buyers discriminate against meat with a pHu \geq 5.8 (Truscott, 1988). For Chinese consumers, the threshold can be higher (> 6.2) (Y. Zhang et al., 2021). Altough many references indicate that the main factor influencing the dark-cutting condition is muscle

glycogen content at slaughter. Although many references refer to the main factor influencing the pHu being muscle glycogen content at slaughter, the inherent determinant is the concentration of hydrogen ions, which are predominantly generated through glycolysis and the formation of lactate from glycogen, but also from ATP hydrolysis, which is reviewed in several studies (Apaoblaza et al., 2020; Scheffler & Gerrard, 2007). There are several other aspects of dark-cutting meat that warrant attention including (i) time of grading, (ii) rate of pH and temperature decline and (iii) muscle type, which influences amongst others glycogen content.

2.1. Time of grading

Color and pH at the time of grading of beef carcasses, and hence occurrence of dark-cutting meat, are pivotal for meat to pass or fail grading scheme such as Meat Standards Australia, where grading can occur as early as 8 - 12 h *post-mortem*. Failure to grade due to high pHu can have serious economic consequences as the carcass ca. drop in value. In a survey of 1,512 beef carcasses, when grading of beef carcasses occurred at ~14 h post-mortem, the incidence of unacceptable meat color scores was 8% and when the time of grading was delayed to ~31 h, the incidence dropped to 3% (Hughes, I earley, & Warner, 2014). In another study (Steel et al., 2021), 1,200 beef carcasses were graded at 13 h post-mortem, then re-graded at ~22 h, when the average loin pH dropped f.o. 5.6 to 5.5 and the carcasses non-compliant for meat color dropped from 8.5% to 5.8% n is compting to attribute the influence of time of grading on meat color to non-attainment of a final pH, but there appears to be some color development and lightening of the muscle curfa e that occurs around rigor, which is independent of pH, reviewed in several papers Hughes, Clarke, Purslow, & Warner, 2020; Purslow, Warner, Clarke, & Hughes, 2020) and briefly summarized in the section 3 of this paper. Although the logical recommendation may be to grade carcasses at a later time, this is not always practical or feasible. Hence, time of grading for meat color, and pH, must be included in any consideration of determinants of dark-cutting.

2.2. Rate of pH and temperature decline

Very fast chilling, to below 0° C within 5 hours of exsanguination can increase the pHu of the loin by 0.1 - 0.2 units in beef (Aalhus, Robertson, Dugan, & Best, 2002; Sikes, Jacob, D'Arcy, & Warner, 2017). The cessation of glycolysis at higher pH with very cold temperatures is likely related to rapid glycolysis (Jacob et al., 2012) and early formation of inosine monophosphate (IMP) (Warner et al., 2015), which cannot re-enter the glycolysis

cycle. Also, beef carcasses that go through rigor at 15 - 25 °C have a much higher incidence of dark color scores at grading relative to carcasses going through rigor at 35 - 40 °C (Hughes, Kearney, et al., 2014; Warner, Dunshea, Gutzke, Lau, & Kearney, 2014). This phenomenon is not driven by muscle glycogen content, but due to premature cessation of glycolysis for other *post-mortem* reasons (section 4).

2.3. Muscle glycogen, phenotype and pre-slaughter management

Muscle glycogen content is influenced by inherent muscle characteristics, as muscles containing predominantly red fiber types have a lower muscle glycogen amount (Picard & Gagaoua, 2020b) and hence often have limited post-mortem ¹/₅ vcolysis, a higher pHu and higher occurrence of dark-cutting. This is exemplified by conparison between Masseter muscle which contains 100% type I red fibers and $pH_1 = 6.3$, hence limited glycolysis, compared to the Cutaneous trunci of the same arimals which has 95% type II white/intermediate fibers and a pHu = 5.5, hence extensive glycolysis (Vaskoska et al., 2021). Hence a beef carcass may be classified as non-dup-cutting, but some predominantly red fiber type muscles such as Infraspinatus and Suprespinatus might have pHu >5.7 - 6.0 (Kenny & Tarrant, 1984). Conversely, when a be f carcass is classified as dark-cutting using a pHu measurement on the loin, this does not mean all the muscles in the carcass will be dark-cutting (Holman, Kerr, Morris, & Hopkins, 202), due not only to fiber type differences and metabolic properties (Picard et al., 2014) but also to different sensitivity of muscles to stress (Terlouw et al., 2021), to the rate of cooling posi-mortem of the carcasses (Hopkins, Ponnampalam, van de Ven, & Warner, 2014), to advent line and also whether contractile action has occurred (e.g. due to mounting behavior) (Tarrant, 1989). Hence, carcasses classified as dark-cutting because the Longissimus muscle has Hu > 6.0, can have low pHu and non-dark-cutting in leg muscles such as Semimembranosus, Gluteus medius and Biceps femoris, as well as the Psoas major (Kenny & Tarrant, 1984).

The animal and pre-slaughter factors determining dark-cutting, and high pHu, can be grouped into nutrition, season and stress (Ponnampalam et al., 2017; Terlouw et al., 2021). Grass-fed cattle on a low plane of nutrition due to low pasture quality have lower levels of muscle glycogen, which for instance in Australia is most evident in autumn and winter (Knee, Cummins, Walker, & Warner, 2004). In the USA and Canada, the incidence of dark-cutting in beef carcasses peaks at 0.72% (Boykin et al., 2017) and 2-2.5% (Bruce, Holdstock, Uttaro, Larsen, & Aalhus, 2021), respectively, in August-October, which is most likely an effect of

changes in temperature (Boykin et al., 2017). In France, an incidence of 3.36% or less was reported (Gagaoua, Picard, Soulat, & Monteils, 2018; Mounier, Dubroeucq, Andanson, & Veissier, 2006), but this is variable among breeds and was recently found to be lower (0.11%) in Charolais cattle (Gagaoua, Picard, & Monteils, 2018). Grain-fed cattle have a much lower incidence of dark-cutting than grass-fed cattle in Australia and other countries (Hughes, Kearney, et al., 2014). Heat stress, which at severe levels can induce substantial changes to feed intake and gut permeability, can also increase the incidence of dark-cutting in beef carcasses and is discussed in detail in Gonzalez-Rivas et al. (2020).

The stress factors that are involved in dark-cutting are many and include saleyards, handling, stress susceptibility/temperament, mixing of cattle, time in lairage (Ponnampalam et al., 2017; Steel et al., 2021) to name a few, but for each factor, some experiments have shown 'no' or 'variable' effects, which is particularly the case to time in lairage. An overview and discussion of these factors is provided in Ponnar pair m et al. (2017) and these authors conclude that 'no single production factor causes da k-cutting, but that a range of factors or a combination of factors and interactions lead to its occurrence'. The fact that the heritability of pHu is so low (Ponnampalam et al., 2017) supports the multi-factor determination of darkcutting and indicates its complexity, as evidenced at the proteome level by the integromics analysis presented here (see sections 5 and 6). It is clear from the data collected world-wide, over many years that on-farm nutritic a during the 1 - 4 weeks pre-slaughter plays a pivotal role. Seasonality/time of year, which is shown in high incidences of dark-cutting at times in cold temperatures (likely due to todder quality in pastures), fluctuating temperatures and heat events also predominate in cutveys/audits of the incidence of dark-cutting (Ponnampalam et al., 2017). Finally, data have consistently shown that carcasses of lower fat depth, lower carcass weight (Steel et al., 2021) and smaller eye muscle area (McGilchrist, Alston, Gardner, Thomson, & Pethick, 2012) are associated with a higher incidence of dark-cutting, most likely because each of these are considered indicators of low growth rates and/or inadequate on-farm nutrition. Importantly, muscle glycogen is rapidly depleted during stress events (Terlouw et al., 2021), but is slow to be replenished in the muscle (Tarrant, 1989) hence feeding regimes to restore muscle glycogen must be at least 1 - 3 weeks duration (Knee, Cummins, Walker, Kearney, & Warner, 2007).

3. Effects of high pH on the color of meat

As mentioned above, insufficient glycogen reserves leading to cessation of metabolism *post-mortem* at pH's above 6.0 is one of the principal causes of the dark-cutting condition. In relation to meat color, there are two sets of mechanisms that determine the abnormal color of meat in the dark-cutting condition: (i) Effects of high *post-mortem* pH on the redox state of myoglobin and the stability of that state. (ii) Effects of high *post-mortem* pH on the spacing of the myofilament lattice and on the denaturation of sarcoplasmic proteins, which in turn affect light scatter in the dark-cutting meat.

3.1. Effects of high post-mortem pH on the redox state of myoglobin and its stability

A role in the redox state of myoglobin in the color of dark-outting meat can be related to two notable effects. First, the dark color due to the deoxyger ated state of myoglobin in darkcutting meat will not change to the bright red oxymyoglobin state when a cut surface is exposed to air (*i.e.* dark-cutting meat will not bloom: Egbert and Cornforth (1986)). Further, Cornforth and Egbert (1985) demonstrated that the cork color of dark-cutting beef could be transformed into a redder color by inhibiting mitochondrial respiration with rotenone (an organic compound that interrupts complex I of the electron transport chain). Second, darkcutting beef cooked to the same internal emperature as normal-pH beef has a redder color and appears undercooked (Gašperlin, Žlen ⁴er, & Abram, 2000).

The tricarboxylic acid (TCA) cycle and the electron transport chain (ETC) processes occurring within mitochondria require NAD and NADH (nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide reduced form), respectively. Man.tenance of a favorable NAD/NADH ratio is necessary for efficient mitochondrial metabolism (Stein & Imai, 2012). The NADH level in *post-mortem* muscle plays an important cole in metmyoglobin reduction. Metmyoglobin reductase activity (MRA) is the result of several pathways, all of which requiring NADH as coenzyme acting as an electron donor, and NADH therefore has a important role in the reduction of metmyoglobin in *post-mortem* meat (Mitacek et al., 2019; X.-Q. Zhang, Jiang, Guo, Bai, & Zhao, 2020). Reddy and Carpenter (1991) showed that MRA activity was greater at pH 5.8 than at pH 6.4, and varied between muscles. Using a model system, Tang et al. (2005) directly demonstrated that mitochondrial respiration led to a shift from oxygenated to deoxygenated forms of myoglobin. Limited glycolysis in dark-cutting meat, resulting in a high pH, encourages a high mitochondrial respiration (further evidence is shown thanks to our integromics study at the proteome level in section 6), affecting both the prevalence of the purplish deoxymyoglobin and, oxymyoglobin formation during blooming, with a knock-on effect on the changes in the

states of myoglobin during cooking. The comprehensive and integrative overview of the underlying mechanisms at the *post-mortem* muscle proteome level presented below supports this view (see section 6).

3.2. Effects of high post-mortem pH on the spacing of the myofilament lattice and on the denaturation of sarcoplasmic proteins

When specifically discussing dark-cutting meat, several reviews of meat color concentrate mainly on the role of water retention in the muscle at high pF and its effects on light scatter (Mancini & Hunt, 2005; Ponnampalam et al., 2017; Ramanathan, Hunt, et al., 2020; Suman & Joseph, 2013). Achromatic sources of variations in the ¹/₂ hands or darkness of meat are principally due to variations in the microstructure (see section 6.3 for more evidence at the proteome level), causing differences in the amount of Fight scattering (Hughes, Clarke, Li, Purslow, & Warner, 2019). Recently, Purslow et al. (2020) indicated that the main structural changes are variations in the spacing between thick and thin filaments in the sarcomere (myofilament lattice spacing), with resultant effects on myofibril diameter and myofibril-myofibril spacing within the muscle fiber. Cher sources of variations include sarcomere length (Torres-Burgos et al., 2019), which may have changes in myofibril and muscle fiber diameter, and variations in the state and distribut or of sarcoplasmic proteins.

For example, the role of sa opplasmic protein denaturation and precipitation in PSE pork has been highlighted by Liu, Arn r, Puolanne, and Ertbjerg (2016), who infer that sarcoplasmic protein denaturation with in r yofibrils (together with some denaturation of myosin heads) at low pH is associated with a decreased myofilament lattice spacing, whereas coagulated sarcoplasmic proteins in the extracellular space between muscle fibers are thought to trap water exuded from the myofibrils. In studies on beef muscles, Hughes, Clarke, Purslow, and Warner (2017) showed that manipulation of the spacing between thick and thin filaments in the myofilament lattice due to cycling between high and low pH values resulted in more light scattering from single muscle fibers at low pH than at high pH. When starting with a pH of 6.1 (equivalent to dark-cutting beef) and taking the fibers to a pH of 5.4 and then back up to pH 6.1, not all of the changes in light scattering were reversible. In further work, Hughes et al. (2019) investigated the possibility that this irreversible increase in light scatter on lowering the pH was due to the denaturation of some sarcoplasmic proteins that were normally partially denatured at normal and low *post-mortem* pH's. The authors further demonstrated that *post-*

mortem muscle with high pHu and dark-cutting appearance had a wider myofilament lattice spacing, more sarcoplasmic proteins adhering to the thin filaments, more degradation of some cytoskeletal proteins, including titin, and disorganization of the Z-disc. The latter two effects could be due to increased proteolysis at high pHu, but it may contribute to lower light scatter if proteolytic disruption of the regular sarcomeric structure results in a reduction of sharp refractive index changes between A- and I-bands.

4. Muscle biology of dark-cutting beef

In addition to the mechanisms highlighted above, the occurrence of dark-cutting beef is also related to stress before slaughter, reducing muscle glycogen content and thus, limiting muscle pH decline (Kiyimba et al., 2021; Mahmood, Turchinsky, Para lis, Dixon, & Bruce, 2018; Poleti et al., 2018; Ponnampalam et al., 2017). As indicated above, greater *post-mortem* muscle pH is a conducive factor for enhanced mitochondrial oxygen consumption, limiting oxygen availability for myoglobin, and allows muscle fibers to hold more water (Ramanathan, Mancini, Suman, & Cantino, 2012; Tang et al., 2005). The latter decreases oxygen diffusion beneath the surface. Their combined effects explain the darker color and greater deoxymyoglobin levels in dark-cutting the next (English et al., 2016; Hughes, Oiseth, Purslow, & Warner, 2014).

Several studies have shown differential profiles of genes expression, metabolites, and proteins in dark-cutting beef (s.e. section 6 for further details about the first proteome repertoire) compared with normal pH beef. For example, a genomic experiment showed that high-pH beef has a greater aboundance of genes involved in stress-related signaling pathways such as protein-lysine methyltransferase (*METTL21C*), amide oxidase [Flavin-containing] A (*MAOA*), and growth arrest and DNA damage-inducible beta (*GADD45B*) (Jerez-Timaure et al., 2019). Over-abundance of these genes is an indicator of high pre-slaughter stress, often a contributing cause of dark-cutting beef.

Metabolomics and proteomic characterization of dark-cutting beef profiles suggested downregulation of several metabolites such as; glucose-1-phosphate, glucose-6-phosphate, glycerol-3-galactoside, gluconic acid, and fructose-6-phosphate (Cônsolo et al., 2021; Ramanathan, Kiyimba, Gonzalez, Mafi, & DeSilva, 2020), and enzymes involved in glycogen metabolism, including glycogen phosphorylase, bis-phosphoglycerate mutase, phosphorylase kinase b, UTP--glucose-1-phosphate phosphate uridyltransferase, and adenosine monophosphate

deaminase (Kiyimba et al., 2021; Poleti et al., 2018). Reduced glycolysis could be due to downregulation of glycolytic enzymes coupled with pre-slaughter stress and low glycogen.

5. Data-mining applied to different published dark-cutting beef proteomics datasets

5.1. Data collection and preparation of the dark-cutting beef proteome repertoire

Meta-analysis and data-mining are very useful tools to gather and compare meat eating quality omics studies performed by various platforms (Boudon, Henry-Berger, & Cassar-Malek, 2020; Gagaoua, Hughes, et al., 2020; Gagaoua, Terlouw, et al., 2021) or even from a single laboratory using the same proteomic platform (Picard & Gagaoua, 2020a) in the frame of integrated animal systems biology. To gain comprehensive knowledge on the currently identified candidate protein biomarkers, the underlying pathway, and the mechanisms of darkcutting beef at the proteome level, research papers on dirk-cutting beef proteomics (proteome datasets of normal-pH versus high-pH) were therefore dentified. Selection was based on a computerized search strategy using Web of Science (Cla. vate Analytics), Scopus and Google Scholar knowledge databases. The keywords us vir viere "proteom*", "protein", "biomarker", "pH", "ultimate pH"; "high pH", "DFD", 'dan'r-cutting" and "color", in combination with "meat", or "beef" or "muscle". Only research papers published in English and in peer-reviewed journals were considered, to ensure the hethodological quality of the studies. Papers published up to 15 January 2021 were iden if ed, screened independently and organized into a spreadsheet reference manager. The papers for inclusion in this meta-analysis were examined following an established process (Gagaoua, Hughes, et al., 2020) to determine whether they are eligible to be included in the Latabase, based on the following criteria: (i) publications that considered solely boyn. 2 Lorgissimus thoracis (LT) muscle; (ii) studies that used "proteomics" based-methods; and (iii) apers that compared differentially abundant proteins between highpHu muscle samples to those of normal-pHu beef. This inclusion/exclusion criteria step allowed the removal of publications that applied other "omics" methods such as phosphoproteomics, metabolomics or genomics. A total of 8 research papers (Franco et al., 2015; Fuente-Garcia et al., 2019; Fuente-Garcia, Sentandreu, Aldai, Oliván, & Sentandreu, 2020; Hughes et al., 2019; Kiyimba et al., 2021; Mahmood et al., 2018; Poleti et al., 2018; S. Wu et al., 2020) met the inclusion criteria as eligible proteomic studies on dark-cutting beef (Table 1). In addition to the details given in the main text of the papers, supplementary files, if available, were further screened and any relevant data were used in this integromics review.

Data on the selected dark-cutting beef proteomic studies are listed in Table 1. Briefly summarized are the experimental designs concerning the animal types, the conditions and pHu thresholds used to categorize the normal from dark-cutting meat samples, the number of samples used together with the proteomics platforms and type of protein extracts used. Of these studies listed in Table 1, 7 studies used a threshold of pHu > 6.0 with mean pHu values of dark-cutting samples varying from 6.15 to 6.86, and one study used pHu > 5.9 but with a higher mean pHu value of the dark-cutting group (6.61 \pm 0.09). The sampling of *Longissimus thoracis* muscle was performed at 24 h *post-mortem* (for 5 studies) or at \ge 48 h (for 3 studies) (Table 1). The muscle proteome was characterized on total protein extracts (4 studies), sarcoplasmic proteins (2 studies), myofibrillar proteins (1 study) or mitochondrial muscle protein extracts (1 study). Among the 8 studies, three of them used label-free quantitative proteomics, two used liquid isoelectric focusing (OFFGEL me hod at pH ranges of 3–10 or 4– 7 coupled to mass spectrometry, two used two-dimensional electrophoresis (2-DE at pH ranges of 3-10 or 4-7) and one focused on protein bands using 1D SDS-PAGE (Table 1). Variations in using proteomics approaches and reportin, nalytical details among studies were in accordance with recent observations (Gagaou: Tertouw, et al., 2021). However, in this case, this variation did not affect the final out on s of this review from a qualitative point of view, which consists of data integration from multi-platform proteomics datasets with a focus on the pathways and identity of the unique one names (proteins) that differ between normal and dark-cutting beef. Therefore, such variations are not a major hindrance, as the list and direction of the differential proteins be ween dark-cutting and normal-pH is the main information needed.

A total of 130 proteins (total number of animals = 122 from which 48 were dark-cutting, minimum of dark-cutting carcasses per group = 4, and maximum = 8) were gathered from the 8 studies and analyzed in this integromics meta-analysis as being differential in dark-cutting *versus* normal-pH beef (**Table 2**). Key information regarding the protein biomarkers candidates were annotated in the database using their unique gene names including the consideration of proteoforms, the bovine UniprotID accession numbers, the full Uniprot names of the proteins and the direction of change (Up (\uparrow) in dark-cutting and Down (\downarrow) in dark-cutting) reported in each study. Accordingly, 69 proteins were found to be up-regulated, 53 were down-regulated and 8 proteins were common in at least two studies and went in both directions (**Table 2**). In the case of a protein being up- and down-regulated in two or more independent studies, it was considered in both lists for the bioinformatics analyses.

5.2. Bioinformatics analyses applied to the dark-cutting beef proteome repertoire

The dark-cutting beef proteome repertoire was mined using different bioinformatics and software tools following recently described methods (Gagaoua, Hughes, et al., 2020; Gagaoua, Terlouw, et al., 2021; Gagaoua, Troy, et al., 2021).

(i) All the bovine UniProtIDs were converted into human identifiers based on the orthologous and homologous links, to avoid any limitation of the Gene Ontology (GO) annotations on bovine proteins, so taking advantage of the current and most complete annotation available for human gene names. Thus, both bovine and human UniprotIDs were indexed in the database and used.

(ii) Pathway and clustering enrichments, network 1234,535, comparative heat maps (hierarchical clustering of pathways) and circos plots were performed using Metascape[®] (https://metascape.org/, date last accessed February 2021). We used the Benjamini–Hochberg *P*-value correction algorithm and hypergeometric test to d'splay the first statistically significant enriched ontology terms. This provided a comprobensive gene list annotation curated via Gene Ontology (GO) Biological Processes, Kyone Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG) pathways and Reactome gene sets (Y. Zhou et al., 2019). The hierarchical clustering was performed with the enriched terms involving the association of gene names (proteins) with similar expression patterns by calcalating and classifying data based on similarities. This clustering allowed the prediction of unknown gene functions and whether they are involved in similar metabolic processes of central pathways. Thus, pairs of terms with a kappa score > 0.3 were considered as a cluster, and a cluster was represented by the most significant term. Subsequently, network la, of the enriched terms on each dataset were visualized in Cytoscape software (V3 \geq 2).

(iii) The STRING database (Search Tool for Retrieval of Interacting Genes, ver. 11.0 at https://string-db.org/) was used to construct Protein–Protein Interactions (PPI) among specific protein datasets using construction default settings with minimum interaction score confidence of 0.700 (high confidence).

(iv) The molecular complex detection (MCODE) algorithm available at Metascape[®] was used to detect densely connected regions in the protein interaction network (neighborhoods). The cut-off criteria were the default values: degree cut-off = 2, node score cut-off = 0.2, Max

depth = 100, and *K*-score = 2. Pathway and process enrichment analyses were subsequently performed independently to each MCODE component.

(v) The computational prediction of the putatively secreted proteins by bovine muscle ("secretome" investigation) through classical (involving a signal peptide) or non-classical pathways was performed using ProteINSIDE web tool (https://www.proteinside.org/).

6. Main findings of the dark-cutting beef proteome integromics meta-analysis and discussion

Proteomics has provided substantial data in terms of new proteins related to or explaining the development of dark-cutting beef and allowed in this integromics meta-analysis the description of the main biological pathways that are involved in the phenomenon. This work synthesizes the current knowledge and existing literature on dark-cutting beef at the *postmortem* muscle proteome level and generated the first repertoire of protein candidates' biomarkers of this quality defect (**Table 2** and **Fig. 1**) (such repertoires (databases) serve as efficient references and may be enriched wit'r rewly identified proteins in future work. Importantly, integromics meta-analyses give it signts into the biological pathways involved in meat quality traits (Boudon et al., 2020; Sa',aoua, Hughes, et al., 2020; Gagaoua, Terlouw, et al., 2021; Purslow et al., 2021; Welzen'bach et al., 2016).

6.1. Strong disparity among dark-cutivity veef proteomics datasets

The first notable finding revealed by this integromics meta-analysis is the strong disparity among the 8 studies in terms of common proteins (**Fig. 1A,B** and **Table 2**). From the list of 130 proteins, the circos p ots representing the between-group differences showed that very few proteins were simultaneously categorized in more than 1 study (**Fig. 1A**). Thus, a cut-off ≥ 2 revealed that only 10 proteins (highlighted by a network) have been identified in more than one investigation (**Fig. 1C**), these being ACTA1, DES, ACTN2, MYLPF, MYH1, CRYAB, HSPB1, MDH1, UGP2 and YWHAG. The overlap represents around 7.69 % of the proteins gathered in the database which is significantly lower than the high scores previously reported for beef tenderness (51.61% from 124 proteins of LT muscle) (Gagaoua, Terlouw, et al., 2021) or normal beef color (46.83% from 79 proteins of 5 muscles or 50.84 % from 59 proteins of LT muscle) (Gagaoua, Hughes, et al., 2020). This discrepancy may also explain the identification of high number of proteins (n = 130) from 8 experiments compared to other meta-analyses. The disparity in dark-cutting beef proteomics studies may be partly explained by three reasons, despite the existence of unknowns around the multi-factor determinants.

Firstly, the proteomics approaches used were not always conducted equivalently leading to strong differences in the number of differential proteins (from 5 to 57). Further, due to the nature of the protein identification algorithms, false-positives may be present in datasets because not all datasets were equally filtered. Indeed, the recent rapid pace of technical development in the field of proteomics has resulted in relatively poor equivalency of data across the current body of literature. In particular, it can be confusing to compare 2-DE gel data that resolves proteins to their constituent species or proteoforms with label-free LC-MS profiling methods (data-independent acquisition and software quantitative informatics tools) that reports the overall abundance of all species of each protein. We expect that a wide spread application of (shotgun) label-free LC-MS (Kiyimba et al., 2021; Zhu, Gagaoua, Mullen, Viala, et al., 2021), as a robust platform, will produce in the fut re parallel data with greater equivalency of proteome coverage across studies from diff. rent laboratories.

Secondly, the dynamic changes of *post-mortem* rubble proteome (Gagaoua, Troy, et al., 2021; Jia et al., 2007) and post-translational modifications (PTM) such as phosphorylation (Mato et al., 2019) or acetylation (Jiang, Liu, Shir, Zhou, & Shen, 2019) may also be a source of variation.

Thirdly, pre-slaughter stress status and stress reactivity further related to the PTM of the *post-mortem* muscle proteome (Zhou, Shon, Liu, Wang, & Shen, 2019) could be a great source of variation that is unfortunately not often considered in such studies (Terlouw et al., 2021). Reporting stress levels and slavginger context in dark-cutting beef studies is another important recommendation for future work to facilitate comparison of experiments.

From the 10 common row ins, 5 belong to the myofibrillar and structure pathway, followed by 3 heat shock proteins (HSPs) involved in protein folding and apoptosis and two energy metabolism proteins. The interaction of the two small HSP proteins (CRYAB: α B-crystallin and HSPB1: Hsp27) with structural proteins (**Fig. 1C**) is of importance and supports previous knowledge on the protective role of HSPs proteins on structural proteins (Gagaoua, Terlouw, Boudjellal, et al., 2015; Gagaoua, Terlouw, Micol, et al., 2015; Lomiwes, Hurst, et al., 2014). The pathway enrichment analysis on these 10 common proteins confirmed the importance of muscle contraction (GO: 0006936) as the top ontology term in dark-cutting beef development, followed by others related to the regulation of apoptosis, carbohydrate biosynthetic and protein folding processes (**Fig. 1D**). On the other hand, 8 of the common proteins had different directions, being up-regulated in one study and down-regulated in another and vice versa (**Table 2**). These incongruities were already reported in previous studies (Gagaoua, Hughes, et

al., 2020; Gagaoua, Terlouw, et al., 2021; Ouali et al., 2013; Picard & Gagaoua, 2020a), possibly due to either different isoforms of the proteins (proteoforms) or different experimental procedures and conditions, related to pre-slaughter stress levels, sampling time, breed, gender, age, rearing practices, muscle fibers (myofibre phenotype and basal metabolic rate), amongst others.

Two structural proteins, ACTA1 (actin, from thin filament and Z-disc) and DES (desmin, an intermediate filament from the periphery of the myofibrillar Z-disk) were consistent in the direction of their change, being up-regulated and down-regulated in dark-cutting beef, respectively. The identification of actin (mostly as proteolytic fragments) may be related to its key regulator role of apoptosis (Ouali et al., 2013). Apoptosis was revealed in this study to be up-regulated in dark-cutting beef (see section 6.4). The identification of desmin (decrease of its abundance by aging) can be explained by its proteolytic degradation mostly by μ -calpain (Huff-Lonergan, Zhang, & Lonergan, 2010), and hence would impact on light scattering. It is important to note that desmin was documented to be degraded more rapidly in myofibrils from tender samples and higher water content (Huff-Lonergan et al., 2010), a typical characteristic of dark-cutting meat. For further details c., the pathways involving apoptosis and structural proteins on dark-cutting beef refer to section 6.3.

YWHAG (14-3-3 protein gamma) was the only protein identified in 3 studies; it was downregulated in 2 of them (Kiyimba et al 2021; Mahmood et al., 2018) and up-regulated in the third (Hughes et al., 2019). The '4-3-3 family members are involved in a wide variety of processes such as protein trafticking, apoptosis and intracellular signaling (Aghazadeh & Papadopoulos, 2016). In statisticking, apoptosis and intracellular signaling (Aghazadeh & Papadopoulos, 2016). In statisticking, apoptosis and intracellular signaling (Aghazadeh & Papadopoulos, 2016). In statistic groups and was confirmed to be associated to energy metabolism (Carvalho et al., 2019). The previous phosphoproteomics study reported that 14-3-3 proteins are able to regulate glucose homeostasis in response to insulin or to energetic stress (Ogihara et al., 1997), which may explain its identification as a biomarker of dark-cutting beef. Its epsilon isoform (YWHAE) was earlier identified as a robust biomarker of beef tenderness (Gagaoua, Terlouw, et al., 2021). Rodrigues et al. (2017) suggested that the phosphorylation of 14-3-3 family members may also play a role in the muscle structure integrity and apoptosis (Haydon et al., 2002).

Besides the few number of proteins and molecular pathways that are shared among studies (**Fig. 1E**), some common features emerge and the unbiased nature by which these were collected provides some validation of their biological importance. For example, the

identification of "muscle system process" ontology term (GO: 0003012) as a major pathway in dark-cutting beef (significantly enriched in 6 studies, **Fig. 1E**) is of high importance and supports the recent hypothesis stating that meat color can be determined by the physical structure and achromatic light scattering properties of the muscle (Hughes et al., 2020; Purslow et al., 2020). Furthermore, the consistently appearing proteins during enrichment may provide key mechanistic insights or be surrogates for mechanisms that are more difficult to detect using conventional hypothetico-deductive methods (Purslow et al., 2021).

6.2. Mitochondria and associated pathways are the first drivers of dark-cutting beef

The pathway process enrichment on the 130 proteins permit. d the construction of the first interconnected and robust biological network of dark-cuttir g b, ef (Fig. 2 and Fig. 3) and identified the main significantly enriched pathways related to its development (Table 3). In relation to the current study, all of the GO terms mentioned in Fig. 2 that relate to oxidationreduction processes, mitochondrial and cellular respiration, tri-carboxylic acid cycle (TCA) cycle and electron transport chain, aerobic respiration, energy metabolism and mitochondrial organization have obvious links with the mechanisms known to impact pH decline, color stability and *post-mortem* metabolism. T¹ ese findings indicate that aerobic metabolism plays a pivotal role in the development of dark-cutting beef. Thus, the up-regulation expression of a great number of aerobic energy metabolish, proteins and associated pathways could be ascribed to the elevated ATP production in polt mortem muscle (Jia et al., 2006), whereas the downregulated expression of glycoly ic-responsive proteins decreased anaerobic metabolism, lactic acid production, hence impacting the rate of pH decline, ultimate pH and blooming. Darkcutting meat is known to present low carbohydrate storage levels, but appears also to be associated with greater mitochondrial oxygen consumption, and an increased use of energy and mitochondrial respiration rate. For example, we can observe from the studies retained in this integromics meta-analysis a greater abundance of certain proteins involved in the electron transport, including NADH dehydrogenase [ubiquinone] 1 alpha subcomplex subunit 2 (NDUFA2), succinate dehydrogenase [ubiquinone] flavoprotein subunit, mitochondrial A and B (SDHA and SDHB), cytochrome c oxidase subunit 6A2, mitochondrial (COX6A2), and ATP synthase subunit e, mitochondrial (ATP5ME) (Kiyimba et al., 2021), and proteins involved in the TCA cycle such as; pyruvate dehydrogenase kinase 4, and malate dehydrogenase (S. Wu et al., 2020).

Earlier studies reported that greater pHu (> 6.0) in dark-cutting beef can sustain mitochondrial function post-mortem (Ashmore, Doerr, Foster, & Carroll, 1971). The postmortem muscle cells turn to other energy sources to sustain its energy needs by using lipids and amino acids (Ouali et al., 2013) through, for example, oxidative phosphorylation, hence impacting mitochondrial oxygen consumption and respiration (S. Wu et al., 2020). A recent metabolic pathway analysis revealed that the majority of metabolites discriminating darkcutting from normal-pH beef were associated with cell energy production pathways, likely the pentose phosphate pathway, amino sugar and nucleotide sugar metabolism, starch and sucrose metabolism, galactose metabolism and glycolysis/gluconeogenesis (Cônsolo et al., 2021). Using a metabolomics approach, Cônsolo et al. (2021) further evidenced an important production of ATP in dark-cutting beef compared to normal pHi beef. This is in line with a previous meta-analysis (Gagaoua, Hughes, et al., 202() that identified "ATP metabolic process" as a prominent pathway driving beef color. Mito, hondrial respiration is supported by increased availability of TCA metabolites and incressed mitochondrial protein content. According to recent studies, greater mitochondric pontent in dark-cutting beef than normal-pH beef was reported (McKeith et al., 2016; Ran ananan, Kiyimba, et al., 2020). Metabolomics studies further showed an increased abundance of TCA metabolites, such as fumaric, malic, and citric acid, in dark-cutting beef (Cônsolo et al., 2021; Ramanathan, Kiyimba, et al., 2020). Many of these metabolites are important in mitochondrial respiration and oxygen consumption, mainly through the synthesis of NADH and flavin adenine dinucleotide (FADH). The greater abundance of TCA metabolites coupled with greater mitochondrial content therefore suggests that dark-cutting beef has greater mitochondrial oxygen consumption. Increased mitochondrial respiration *post-mortem* (an Gerease oxygen availability for muscle blooming producing darkcolored muscles (English, t al., 2016; Ramanathan & Mancini, 2018; Tang et al., 2005). Taken all together, the findings of this integromics highlighted that a better understanding of darkcutting beef biochemistry requires further investigations into mitochondrial roles and pathways.

6.3. A key role of muscle structure in the development of dark-cutting beef

Interestingly, "muscle system process" and "striated muscle tissue development" were identified in the top 5 enriched ontology terms (**Fig. 2**), hence validating muscle structure as a major pathway underpinning the development of dark-cutting meat. This can be partly related to the extent of *post-mortem* degradation, in a pH-dependent manner, of structural proteins (Gagaoua, Troy, et al., 2021; G. Wu, Farouk, Clerens, & Rosenvold, 2014). For example,

degradation of higher molecular weight proteins in elevated pHu meat was reported (Lomiwes, Farouk, Wu, & Young, 2014). The enriched terms "striated muscle contraction" and "filament sliding process" revealed in this study as main components of the network (Fig. 3), were also found by Gagaoua, Troy, et al. (2021) as major pathways related to the release, in a pHdependent manner, of major post-mortem proteolytic fragments. Earlier studies evidenced the role that *post-mortem* muscle microstructure plays on the surface meat color (Hughes et al., 2020; Swatland, 2012) including the identification of several structural proteins (Gagaoua, Hughes, et al., 2020; Ramanathan, Hunt, et al., 2020; Ramanathan, Suman, & Faustman, 2020). However, the mechanisms by which structural proteins and pH decline impact color are not fully elucidated and further investigations are needed. For instance, we suppose that the extent of muscle protein denaturation might play a role in ox vgei penetration and myoglobin status (Sammel, Hunt, Kropf, Hachmeister, & Johnson, 2022). In fact, the diffusion of oxygen into the meat surface including its consumption by muscle is one of the pivotal factors impacting color (Hughes et al., 2020), which are nextly influenced as detailed above, by mitochondrial functionality (Ramanathan, Mancin, Naveena, & Konda, 2010). A high pHu value reduces muscle lightness and increase: oxygen consumption (Kiyimba et al., 2021), which can be partly related to differei. es in muscle fibers types mainly to an increased percentage of type I fibers (Gagaoua, Hughes, et al., 2020; Picard & Gagaoua, 2020b). It is worthy to note that mitochondria are not evenly distributed in muscle fibers: slow-contracting muscle fibers (type I, oxidative) possess a greater mitochondria concentration than do fastcontracting fibers (Picard & Garaoua, 2020b), which can further add a level of complexity to the role of myosin fibers and muscle structure to the mechanisms underpinning dark-cutting development.

On another hand, the oxygen penetration depth and formation of oxymyoglobin (red myoglobin form) is dependent upon the partial pressure of oxygen (pO_2) and its ability to diffuse into the muscle structure. The speed of oxygen penetration into the muscle (known as the oxygen consumption rate, OCR) has an inverse relationship to oxygen penetration depth. Accordingly, Hughes et al. (2020) suggested that changes in the structure and spacing of the muscle could alter the oxygen penetration depth and hence the OCR. The comprehensive review of Hughes and co-workers exemplified this specific point. Briefly, in high pH dark muscle, the lack of spaces between cells and muscle bundles prevented oxygen diffusion into the tissue and there is a greater demand for oxygen by myoglobin in the interior, hence at the surface there is less oxymyoglobin and more purple deoxymyoglobin (Hughes et al., 2020;

Krzywicki, 1979). In contrast to this, lower pH muscles with more spaces between cells and muscle bundles in the structure have a greater ability to undergo oxygenation and oxidation, resulting in greater redness and browning closer to the surface of the muscle. Dark meat samples are also known to have structural differences at various positions of the sarcomere compared to either pale or medium light meat (Hughes et al., 2019; Hughes, Clarke, Purslow, & Warner, 2018). Ultrastructural changes would then impact the light scattering arising from the structural elements (Hughes, Oiseth, et al., 2014; Swatland, 2008). The increase in pHu may also be accompanied by higher water-holding capacity, hence inducing swelling of muscle fibers and shrinkage of the space between the fibrils. This decreases light scattering and increase light absorption by myoglobin and as a consequence, the muscle surface color appears darker (Hughes et al., 2017; Hughes et al., 2020; Purslow et al., 2020). Accordingly, Hughes and co-workers suggested the involvement of three main changes in microstructural components of post-mortem muscle: (i) transverse shrininge of the structural lattice of the myofilaments, myofibrils, and muscle fibers, which would create light scattering between adjacent transverse elements; (ii) longitudinal sharage of the sarcomere, whereby changes in the protein density in the A/I-bands would in pact light scattering; and (iii) different protein composition of the surrounding medium that alter the refractive index or optical protein density of the fluid (Hughes et al., 2020).

6.4. Similarities and divergences in the up- and down-regulated proteome of dark-cutting beef

The comparison of the Top2) significantly enriched GO terms between the up- and downregulated proteome dataset: ($F_{1,i}$. 4 and Table S2) revealed seven common ontology terms, these being tight junction (ko 14530), response to inorganic substance (GO: 0010035), cellular amino acid metabolic process (GO: 0006520), muscle system process (GO: 0003012), striated muscle tissue development (GO: 0014706), oxidation-reduction process (GO: 0055114) and purine ribonucleotide metabolic process (GO: 0009150). Among these pathways, the oxidation-reduction process seemed to be more abundant in the up-regulated dataset (Fig. 4) in agreement with the above statements and available literature (Kiyimba et al., 2021; Ramanathan, Hunt, et al., 2020). Three terms related to glycogen biosynthetic process (GO: 0005978), IMP biosynthetic process (GO: 0006188) and response to activity and external stimuli (GO: 0014823) were significantly and exclusively specific to the down-regulated proteome dataset. This means that the proteins involved in glycogen homeostasis are likely to be down-regulated in dark-cutting meat, therefore suggesting (i) a down-regulation of the enzymes/proteins responsible of glycogen breakdown and (ii) a decrease in glycogen

mobilization/use. Muscle glycogen content is not the sole determinant of dark-cutting beef (Apaoblaza et al., 2015), as meat with higher pHu can have residual muscle glycogen and this has variously been related to mitochondrial function (Hudson, 2012) but essentially glycolysis ceases for reasons other than a lack of glycogen as a substrate. Particularly, the down-regulation of IMP biosynthetic process in dark-cutting beef may be a consequence of down-regulation of glycolytic enzymes (**Fig. 5**), associated with decreased glycolysis and lactic acid production (Eric M. England, Matarneh, Scheffler, Wachet, & Gerrard, 2015). *Post-mortem* muscle pH decline rate influences phosphorylation of proteins involved in glycolysis, which in turn impacts *post-mortem* metabolism (Huang et al., 2011). Thus, a decreased ac indance of IMP biosynthetic and glycogenolytic enzymes reduces *post-mortem* hydrogen is n production leading to elevated pHu.

Ten GO terms were found to be specific to the up regulated proteome dataset that are mainly related to mitochondria, cellular respiration and accociated pathways, among which the TCA cycle and respiratory electron transport are significant terms. The results further evidenced that pathways such as oxidative prosphorylation and the TCA cycle (in line with the above), were up-regulated in dark-cutting usef, whereas those associated with glycolysis were down-regulated. The TCA cycle is an introduction equivalents (NADH) that promote mitochondrial electron transfer chains and influence beef color stability during storage or display period. This suggests that an enhanced generation of NADH, a precursor mentioned earlier to play a role in the reduction of metmyoglobin and oxygen consumption (Tang et al., 2005), would lead the greater MRA and dark color (myoglobin is predominantly deoxymyoglobin). In dart-cutting condition, more NADH was found to induce higher oxygen consumption (Kiyimba et al., 2021) and MRA (Tang et al., 2005), which are inherent biochemical properties that influence meat color.

It is interesting to observe that the regulation of the apoptotic signaling pathway was significantly up-regulated in dark-cutting meat (**Fig. 4**). Taken together, all these effects are in agreement with the suggested roles of mitochondria in meat color (Hudson, 2012; McKeith et al., 2016; Ramanathan & Mancini, 2018; Ramanathan, Suman, et al., 2020; Sierra & Olivan, 2013) and of apoptosis in meat tenderization through proteolytic enzymes (Ouali et al., 2013). The latter may in part explain, although other mechanisms including higher water-holding capacity, limited *post-mortem* cross-linking, etc. may also be contributing, the greater

tenderness of dark-cutting beef (Cônsolo et al., 2021; Franco et al., 2015; Grayson et al., 2016; Jeremiah, Tong, & Gibson, 1991). The over-abundance of "mitochondrion organization" term (GO: 0007005) supports the earlier mentioned relationship on one hand between dark-cutting and the cleavage of cytochrome b-c1 by caspases (Mato et al., 2019) and on another hand with biomarkers of autophagy (Beclin-1 and LC3-II/LC3-I) and apoptosis (caspase-3) (Díaz-Luis et al., 2021). The significant enrichment of the "regulation of ion transmembrane transporter activity" term (GO: 0032412) in the up-regulated proteome dataset adds further support for the existence of these mechanisms. This can to some extent be related to calcium release known for its pivotal role in the muscle to meat conversion and consequences on the quality of meat (Purslow et al., 2021). Therefore, *post-mortem* energy metabolis... and pH decline rate could be also affected by mitochondria through calcium regulation, related to their ability to store calcium in their matrix (Matarneh, Yen, Bodmer, El-Kadi, & G rrard, 2021; Ouali et al., 2013). Indeed, a disturbed regulation of calcium is known to e, hance the metabolic pathways and ultimately can lead to inferior meat quality (Küchennsister, Kuhn, & Ender, 2000). However, muscle activities are initiated by changes in intracellular calcium amount, and this concentration is dependent on proper sarcople smic reticulum function (Purslow et al., 2021). Specifically, if the calcium flux is elevated the integrity of mitochondria will be destroyed, leading to the release of cytochrome c and other pro-apoptotic factors, triggering apoptosis (Dang et al., 2020; Ouali et al., 201), Sierra & Olivan, 2013; Zhu et al., 2012) and the decreased free calcium may result in uark-cutting beef (Torres-Burgos et al., 2019). Further research is required to better understand the role of calcium and its pre-slaughter supplementation on meat quality and incidence of dark-cutting condition.

6.5. Comparison of dan¹-cutting and normal beef color proteomes to gain further mechanistic insights on the underpiniting pathways

To understand better the above findings, we performed another functional annotation comparison between the dark-cutting beef proteome repertoire to that of normal beef color (**Fig. 5** and **Fig. 6**) described in a previous meta-analysis (Gagaoua, Hughes, et al., 2020). Despite the low number of proteins in the normal beef color dataset (n = 59) compared to dark-cutting beef, the analyses revealed key findings (**Table 4**). First, the protein overlap of the two proteome repertoires showed 20 common proteins (**Fig. 5A**), mainly belonging to three biological pathways: energy metabolism proteins (n = 9) with 6 glycolytic enzymes, myofibrillar and structural proteins (n = 7) and three small HSPs (**Fig. 5B**). These findings together with the previous conclusions from the integromics meta-analysis on normal beef

color (Gagaoua, Hughes, et al., 2020) underline the importance of muscle contraction, NADH metabolic and carbohydrate catabolic processes, regulation of cell growth and protein folding on the color of meat (**Fig. 5C**). It further confirmed the importance of stress proteins in the determination of meat color (Gagaoua, Hughes, et al., 2020) including the dark-cutting condition. Second, the comparison of the enriched pathways between the two datasets (**Fig. 5D** and **Fig. 6A-C**), indicated (i) deficiency of lactate biosynthetic and metabolic processes in dark-cutting beef, and (ii) enrichment of fatty acid oxidation (β -oxidation) and glycogen catabolic process, explaining the limited capacity of dark-cutting beef to form *post-mortem* lactate, and associated, hydrogen ions. The greater β -oxidation in dark-cutting beef supports the above discussion in terms of ATP production, involvement of mitochondria and use of oxygen, in line with the study of Yu et al. (2018).

Interestingly, the heatmap revealed a deficiency of "response to oxidative stress" pathway in dark-cutting compared to normal meat color. The dynamic changes that occur in early *post-mortem* muscle, especially those related to mitchondria and ATP production through oxidative phosphorylation and β -oxidation who igst others are accompanied by the accumulation of several waste metabolike. Such as the reactive oxygen species (ROS) (Gagaoua, Terlouw, et al., 2021; Malheiros et al., 2019; Purslow et al., 2021). The excessive amounts of ROS lead to the oxidation or lipids and proteins including myoglobin (Domínguez et al., 2019), that can trigger apopt sis and other cell death pathways. If the endogenous scavenger proteins (*e.g.* peroxite doxins, (Gagaoua, Hughes, et al., 2020; Malheiros et al., 2019)) are inhibited or less efficient, the consequence can be deleterious and result in inferior meat quality. In this case the lingh levels of ROS, the lack of response to oxidative stress as well as a weak protein. folding response (less HSP proteins) may be other pivotal pathways driving dark-cutting beer⁶. Again, the heatmap of **Fig. 5D** confirms that "muscle system process" and 'myofibril assembly" are significantly enriched in dark-cutting beef, supporting the key role of this pathway in the development of this quality defect.

6.6. Deciphering the secretome to better understand dark-cutting beef development

Skeletal muscles have been suggested to be a source of secreted proteins, conceptualized as myokines that can influence metabolism and other biological processes (Henningsen, Rigbolt, Blagoev, Pedersen, & Kratchmarova, 2010). Based on this, we investigated in this integromics meta-analysis the secretome of dark-cutting proteome dataset to gain more insights on the cell– cell communication and extent of involvement of secreted proteins in the development of this

meat quality defect. The secretome is also considered as a strategy to validate certain biomarkers among those most often identified by discovery proteomics in different biological fields (Henningsen et al., 2010; Stastna & Van Eyk, 2012) including meat quality (Boudon et al., 2020; Gagaoua, Hughes, et al., 2020; Picard & Gagaoua, 2020a). Surprisingly, our analyses (Fig. 7) revealed a great percentage of putatively secreted proteins (51.5%, n = 67 proteins)through classical or non-classical secretory pathways (Fig. 7A). The 67 proteins belong to different cellular components (Fig. 7B), of which the Top5 terms were "extracellular exosome", "cytosol", "cytoplasm", "nucleus" and "extracellular region". The 7 proteins secreted through a signal peptide were mostly down-regulated and grouped in four enriched GO terms (Fig. 7C), and the first one being collagen-activated tyrosine kinase receptor signaling pathway (GO: 0038063). The analyses of the up and down-regulated proteome datasets, confirmed that the main pathways described at ove having a pivotal role in darkcutting beef are mainly driven by secreted proteins (Fig. 7, E). Further, from the ten common proteins listed in Table 2 and Fig. 1, nine were found to be secreted, including actin and desmin, showing consistent directions across struces (Fig. 7). It is beyond the scope of this meta-analysis to detail all the mechanisms around the dark-cutting secretome and its role in driving this quality defect. However, there first findings highlight the importance of in-depth consideration of the secretome to better understand dark-cutting development, the relationship with light scattering and its role in apopulsis and autophagy.

7. Conclusions and future directions

In this integromics study we summarize the results of available proteomics data on darkcutting beef using a data et o. 130 proteins. This created dark-cutting proteome repertoire may further serves as a one-sup reference for future studies. Despite a relatively strong disparity among the studies in the identified proteins, several proteins and pathways were common across studies. The literature described different mechanisms associated with the development of dark-cutting meat, and the pathways associated with the enriched terms in this integromics analysis were all in keeping with this existing knowledge. The large heterogeneity both in the proteins and the mechanisms described for the development of dark-cutting meat could suggest that different independent pathways may lead to the dark-cutting condition, but more detailed analysis shows that many of them are closely related. Furthermore, the comparison of this integromics study of dark-cutting beef with a previous meta-analysis of (normal) variations in beef meat color (Gagaoua, Hughes, et al., 2020) reveals two things. Firstly, despite a good consensus amongst various studies of the protein biomarkers for normal variations in beef

color, there is a striking disparity amongst dark-cutting beef studies. This indicates that there is no simple "main pathway" to dark-cutting, and that the conditions can be a result of different interactions between several mechanisms and pathways that are induced by a variety of causal factors. Secondly, the disparity between the integromics results for normal beef meat color and dark-cutting indicates that dark-cutting is not simply one extreme end of a "normal" spectrum of variations in beef color, but that different mechanisms seem to be involved.

The present study proposes, in a robust manner, an integrated view of certain of possible mechanisms associated with dark-cutting beef, based on a meta-analysis of a large dataset of identified proteins. Specifically, increased mitochondrial respiration, reduced glycolysis and increased use of alternative energy metabolic processes were found to be central events. These shifts lead to high oxidative pressure and partly failing anti-conductve defense as well as that of response to cellular stress through heat shock proteins (procein folding), enhancing activation of defense pathways including apoptosis and autopiag), and to modifications in structural proteins. The study shows for the first time that the rain mechanisms involved in dark-cutting beef driven at a certain extent by the secretome, which is a very interesting question for further research, specifically in relation to light sear energy phenomenon and apoptosis and autophagy cell death pathways.

In terms of future studies, the focus siven by this integromics analysis on the strong role of mitochondrial metabolism on the non-nearce of dark-cutting emphasizes the need for future research on mitochondrial functions and pathways in peri-mortal and *post-mortem* events. From this integromics, it spens that most proteomics studies to date have looked at dark-cutting defined by color soundards in comparison to pHu, as the causative mechanisms at play are likely to be different. In this way, one can expect distinguish the effects due to mitochondrial OCR from those due to pH/light scattering described in this study. Mitochondrial OCR and pH anaerobic metabolism are clearly linked to both the characteristic alteration in myoglobin biochemistry and the variations in myofilament lattice spacing seen in dark-cutting should take variations in mitochondrial function as a central focus. Furthermore, the multi-omics approaches by combining both genomics, proteomics and metabolomics will further validate certain mechanisms proposed in this study and allow to gain more insights on dark-cutting beef.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest.

Acknowledgements

Dr. Mohammed Gagaoua is a Marie Skłodowska–Curie Career-FIT Fellow under the number MF20180029, grant agreement No. 713654. Special thanks to Mr. Peter Mooney from Innovation@Dawn at Dawn Meats Group for his great support and collaboration. The support of Meat Technology Ireland a co-funded Industry/Enterprise Ireland project (TC 2016 002) is greatly acknowledged. We also wish to thank the four anony mous reviewers who provided detailed and constructive comments on the earlier version of this integromics DFD meat meta-analysis.

Appendix A. Supplementary data

Table S1 and Table S2.

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CRediT author statement

Mohammed Gagaoua: Conceptualization, Methodology, Software, Formal analysis, Resources, Data curation, Visualization, Investigation, Writing- Original draft preparation and Project administration. Robyn D. Warner, Peter Purslow, Ranjith Ramanathan, Anne Maria Mullen, Maria López-Pedrouso, Daniel Franco, José M. Lorenzo, Igor Tomasevic, Brigitte Picard, Declan Troy and E.M. Claudia Terlouw: Writing- Reviewing and Editing. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest.

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Figure captions

Fig. 1. Functional annotations, Gene Ontology (GO) pathway enrichment, clustering and overlap among the eight eligible dark-cutting beef proteomics studies. A) Circos plot showing how proteins from the input protein lists (n = 130) overlap across the eight studies (Table 2) and degree of disparity among dark-cutting beef proteomics studies. Each outside arc represents one study with a different color. On the inside, the dark orange color represents the proteins that appear in multiple lists and the light orange color represents proteins that are unique to that protein list; and purple lines link the same protein (gene name) that are shared by the input. The length of the outside arcs is related to the number of proteins in each list. **B**) Extended Circos plot indicating the amount of functional overlap among the input protein lists. The new blue lines link the different proteins (gene names, where they fall into the same ontology term (the term has to be statistically significantly enriched and with size no larger than 100). C) String network built using the 10 compon proteins across the eight studies (ACTA1, ACTN2, CRYAB, HSPB1, DES, MYLPF, NYH1, MDH1, UGP2 and YWHAG) and identified in more than one study (see details in Table 2). D) Significant enriched TOP 5 GO terms found for the 10 proteins shared among the eight studies (one row per term cluster). The bar graphs highlight the top enriched . ms and colored according to *P*-values: terms with a *P*-value < 0.01, a minimum count of 3, and an enrichment factor >1.5. E) Hierarchical Heatmap clustering indicating the first 1 JP 20 enriched GO terms (further details in **Table 3**) and confirming the disparity among sudies. The enrichment of GO and KEGG pathways were analyzed by Metascape® (https://metascape.org/) and compared among the eight studies. In the heatmap, colors from grey to brown indicate P-values from high to low; and grey cells indicate the lack of significant enrichment. P-value was derived by a hypergeometric test. The two analyses based on the proti ins or the biological pathways illustrate the little consistency among studies in terms of the gathered proteins and pathways involved in the production of darkcutting beef compared to what is known for normal beef color (Gagaoua et al. 2020b) or tenderness (Gagaoua et al. 2021a).

Fig. 2. Enriched ontology network based on the 130 dark-cutting beef protein biomarkers repertoire and TOP 20 Gene Ontology terms. Each enriched cluster term is presented with the corresponding color, where nodes that share the same cluster ID are typically close to each other. The sizes of the nodes reflect the enrichment significance of the terms. The bar graphs on the right highlight the TOP 20 enriched terms and colored according to *P*-values: terms with a *P*-value < 0.01, a minimum count of 3, and an enrichment factor >1.5 (see details in **Table 3**

and **Cytoscape file at GONetwork Fig. 2.cys:** doi:10.17632/j34smf76f3.1). The TOP 5 enriched terms: "Oxidation-reduction process", "Muscle system process", "Striated muscle tissue development", "Purine ribonucleotide metabolic process" and "Small molecule catabolic process" are further highlighted in the network layout.

Fig. 3. Molecular complex detection (MCODE) enrichment analysis by Metascape® (https://metascape.org/). The MCODE algorithm was applied to clustered enrichment ontology terms to identify neighborhoods where proteins are densely connected. **A**) Key most modular MCODEs identified from the network of **Fig. 2** using the 130 proteins (see details in **Cytoscape file at MCODE_PPI Fig. 3.cys:** doi:10.17632/j34smf76f3.1). Each node represents a protein, and the edge between nodes represents. The interaction between two connected proteins. **B**) Description of the significant seven undules from the PPI network forming the MCODEs clusters.

Fig. 4. Functional annotations comparing the up- and dov/n-regulated proteins related to dark-A) Enriched _____ntology cutting beef development. network using Metascape[®] (https://metascape.org/) based on the compar son of the Up (n = 77) and Down (n = 61)regulated dark-cutting beef protein biom vike is. The eight common proteins that were in both directions were included in both lists. Each enriched cluster term is presented with the corresponding color, where nodes that there the same cluster ID are typically close to each other. The sizes of the nodes reflect the enrichment significance of the terms. B) Hierarchical Heatmap clustering comparing vimilarities and differences between highly significant process and pathways among the TOP 22 Gene Ontology terms and colored (ranked) according to Pvalues: terms with a *P*-v; lue < 0.01, a minimum count of 3, and an enrichment factor >1.5. In the heatmap, colors from grey to brown indicate p-values from high to low; and grey cells indicate the lack of significant enrichment. P-value was derived by a hypergeometric test. The terms in blue color are significantly enriched and specific to down-regulated proteins, those in red are for up-regulated proteins and those in black are significant and common to both protein lists. The darker is the cell, the more significant is the enriched term for that group. For example, the term "GO:0055114: Oxidation-reduction process" is more significant and abundant for the list of up-regulated proteins compared to the list of down-regulated proteins.

Fig. 5. Comparison of the protein datasets and enriched pathways of dark-cutting (DC) beef (n = 130 proteins) with normal beef color (n = 59 proteins from the database of Gagaoua *et al.* 2020b, **Table S1** and **Table S2**). A) Circos plot showing the degree of overlap between the

protein lists of dark-cutting and normal beef color. The gene names of the proteins are shown in red (up-regulated), blue (down-regulated) or orange (in both directions). The proteins in bold font and underlined are those identified in more than one study (common proteins shown in **Fig. 1A,C**). **B**) String network built using the 20 common proteins between dark-cutting and normal beef highlighting two main sub-networks: "muscle structure" and "energy metabolism" proteins. **C**) Enriched GO terms of the 20 common proteins showing the TOP 6 significant and enriched term clusters (one row per cluster). The enriched terms are colored according to *P*values: terms with a *P*-value < 0.01, a minimum count of 3, and an enrichment factor >1.5. **D**) Hierarchical Heatmap clustering comparing similarities and differences between highly significant process and pathways between dark-cutting and ... rmal beef for the TOP 20 enriched GO terms (see details in **Table 4** and **Fig. 6**). Color fro n grey to brown indicate *P*values from high to low; and grey cells indicate the lack of sign ficant enrichment. *P*-value was derived by a hypergeometric test.

Fig. 6. Enriched ontology networks based on the tyle protein lists of dark-cutting beef (n = 130) and normal beef color (n = 59) in support γ . Fig. 5D using the TOP 20 Gene Ontology terms. A) Enriched ontology clusters color d by cluster ID. Each enriched cluster term is presented with the corresponding color, where nodes that share the same cluster ID are typically close to each other. B) Enriched ontology clusters colored by p-value. The sizes of the nodes reflect the enrichment significance of the terms. C) Enriched ontology clusters pied by gene counts between dark-cutting and normal beef color.

Fig. 7. Functional annotations of dark-cutting beef secretome and associated enriched pathways. **A)** Distribution of the predicted secreted proteins from the repertoire of 130 proteins using ProteINSIDE tool (t tps://www.proteinside.org/) through classical pathways (yellow, n = 7) or non-classical pathways (green, n = 60). **B**) Enriched GO Cellular Component terms performed on the full list of the potentially secreted proteins (n = 67) either by classical or non-classical pathways. The number of proteins from each component are further given. **C**) Significant and enriched TOP 4 GO terms of the 7 proteins secreted through a signal peptide and colored (ranked) according to *P*-values: terms with a *P*-value < 0.01, a minimum count of 3, and an enrichment factor >1.5 using Metascape® (https://metascape.org/). **D**) Significant and enriched GO terms of the Up regulated proteins potentially secreted by *Longissimus thoracis* muscle through pathways that do not involve a signal peptide. The bar graphs highlight the whole TOP 17 enriched GO terms for the 35 potentially secreted proteins and colored (ranked) according to *P*-values. **E**) Significant and enriched GO terms of the Down

regulated proteins potentially secreted by *Longissimus thoracis* muscle through pathways that do not involve a signal peptide. The bar graphs highlight the whole TOP 7 enriched GO terms for the 30 potentially secreted proteins and colored (ranked) according to *P*-values. The gene names are shown in red (up-regulated), blue (down-regulated) or orange (common proteins in both directions). The proteins in bold font and underlined are those identified in more than one study (common proteins ACTA1, ACTN2, CRYAB, HSPB1, DES, MYLPF, MYH1, MDH1, UGP2 and YWHAG shown in **Fig. 1A,C**).







| MCODE | GO | Description | Log10(P) |
|---------|-------------|--|----------|
| | GO:0006936 | musclecontraction | -32.6 |
| MCODE_1 | GO:0033275 | actin-r ,y sin filament sliding | -31.3 |
| | GO:0030049 | muscia (la nent sliding | -31.3 |
| | ko00010 | Gl co, sis / Gluconeogenesis | -10.1 |
| MCODE_2 | GO:0009168 | pun. e ribonucleoside monophosphate biosynthetic process | -9.9 |
| | GO:0009127 | purine nucleoside monophosphate biosynthetic process | -9.9 |
| | R-HSA-71387 | n`etabolism of carbohydrates | -7.3 |
| MCODE_3 | GO:0006165 | .ucleoside diphosphate phosphorylation | -6.8 |
| | GO:00469 39 | nucleotide phosphorylation | -6.8 |
| | GO:0006-157 | protein folding | -4.3 |
| MCODE_4 | GO:005511 | oxidation-reduction process | -3.3 |
| | GO:0006091 | generation of precursor metabolites and energy | -3.3 |
| | GO:0033539 | fatty acid beta-oxidation using acyl-CoA dehydrogenase | -9.1 |
| MCODE_5 | GO:0006635 | fatty acid beta-oxidation | -6.4 |
| | GO:0019395 | fatty acid oxidation | -6.0 |
| | R-HSA-71387 | Metabolism of carbohydrates | -5.9 |
| MCODE_6 | GO:0055114 | oxidation-reduction process | -5.2 |
| | GO:0006091 | generation of precursor metabolites and energy | -5.2 |
| | CORUM:6640 | Phosphorylase kinase complex | -12.0 |
| MCODE_7 | R-HSA-70221 | Glycogen breakdown (glycogenolysis) | -9.7 |
| | GO:0005980 | glycogen catabolic process | -9.3 |



Fig. 4.

Southand





Fig. 6. Fig. 7. Table 1. Description of the eight publicly proteomic studies used to build the darkcutting (DFD) beef proteome. All the studies used in this integromics meta-analysis were on Longissimus thoracis muscle only.

| ID | Author (reference) | Animal type Breed Gender Age Sample types | Number of samples | Proteomics platform | pHu threshold and mean values of groups | Sampling time | Protein extracts | Number of DEPs |
|----|--|--|--|---|---|------------------|---|---|
| 1 | Franco <i>et</i> <i>al.</i> 2015 | Male calves of Rubia Gallega breed, 10 months | 8 (4 per group) | 2-DE coupled to MS analysis (LC-MS/MS and MALDI- TOF) | DFD: $pHu \ge 6.0$ • Normal: 5.61 ± 0.01 • DFD: 6.37 ± 0.13 | 24h | Total protein extract | 9 Up $(\uparrow) = 5$ Down $(\downarrow) = 4$ |
| 2 | Fuente- Garcia <i>et</i> <i>al.</i> 2019 | Asturiana de los Valles (AV) and crossbreds cattle (AV x Friesian), 12 - 18 months (yearling bulls) | 20 (14 normal and 6 DFD) | Liquid isoelectric focusing (OFFGEL) pH range 3– 10, and mass spectrom etry | DFD pHu ≥ € 0 No. al: IA DFD: NA | 24h | Sarcoplasmic proteins | 5 Up $(\uparrow) = 4$ Down $(\downarrow) = 1$ |
| 3 | Fuente- Garcia <i>et</i> <i>al.</i> 2020 | Asturiana de los Valles x Friesian yearling bulls, 14 - 15 months | 12 (6 per group) | Liqu. 4 isoelectric focusing (CFFGEL) mH range 4– 7, and mass spectrometry | DFD: $pHu \ge 6.0$ • Normal: 5.53 ± 0.14 • DFD: 6.56 ± 0.25 | 24h | Myofibrillar proteins | 5 Up (\uparrow) = 2 Down (\downarrow) = 3 |
| 4 | Poleti <i>et al.</i> 2018 | Male Nolle e cattle, 24 - 1.2 months of age | 12 (6 per group) | Label-free quantitative proteomic using nanoESI- HDMSE technology | DFD: pHu ≥ 6.0 • Normal: 5.57 \pm 0.01 • DFD: 6.19 \pm 0.05 | 24h | Total protein extract | 10 Up (↑) = 2 Down (\downarrow) = 8 |
| 5 | Mahmood et al. 2018 | Canada AA (normal), typical dark cutting Canada B4 ($pH > 5.9$) and atypical dark cutting Canada B4 ($pH < 5.9$) samples from heifer and steer | 23 AA (n=8), AB4 (n=8) TB4 (n=7) | 2-DE coupled to LC-MS/MS analysis | DFD: pHu > 5.9 • Grade AA: 5.68 ± 0.08 • Grade AB4: 5.74 \pm 0.08 • Grade TB4: 6.61 ± 0.09 | 24 h | Sarcoplasmic and myofibrillar proteins | 15 Up (\uparrow) = 4 Down (\downarrow) = 11 |

| 6 | Hughes <i>et</i> <i>al.</i> 2019 | Carcasses were allocated to 3 meat color groups (light, medium or dark) as defined by AUSMEAT color scores | 19 Light, n = 7 Medium, n = 7 Dark, n = 5 | Mono- dimensional SDS-PAGE and LC- MS/MS analysis | DFD: pHu ≥ 6.0 • Light: 5.47 • Medium: 5.52 • Dark: 6.15 | 72 – 96h | Sarcoplasmic proteins | 12 Up (\uparrow) = 12 Down (\downarrow) = 0 |
|---|-------------------------------------|--|---|--|--|----------|-------------------------------------|--|
| 7 | Wu <i>et al.</i> 2020 | Beef carcasses were selected from a commercial abattoir Loins | 16 (8 per group) | Label-free quantitative proteomics using LC- MS/MS | DFD: pHu ≥ 6.1 • Normal: 5.49 • DFD: 6.86 | 48h | Muscle mitochondrial proteins | 28 Up (\uparrow) = 21 Down (\downarrow) = 7 |
| 8 | Kiyimba <i>et</i> al. 2021 | collected at the same time from commercial abattoir consisting of USDA Low Choice and dark-cutting beef | 12 (6 per group) | Label-free quantitative proteomics using LC- MS/MS | DFD: pHu `` 6.0 • ! orma l: 5 6 • DFD: 0.4 | 72h | Total protein extract | 57 Up (\uparrow) = 28 Down (\downarrow) = 29 |

Abbreviations: NA: Not available; 2-DL. wo-dimensional electrophoresis; LC-MS/MS: Liquid Chromatography with tandem mass spectrometry; **ALDI-TOF:** matrix-assisted laser desorption ionization time-of-flight mass spectrometry; **nanoES. HDMSE:** Bi-dimensional Nano Ultra-Performance Liquid Chromatography (nanoUPLC) tandem Nano Electrophy High Definition Mass Spectrometry.

| Table 2. | List | of the | 130 | proteins | of | dark-o | cutting | beef | gathered | from | the | eight | eligible | proteo | mics s | studies. |
|----------|------|--------|-----|----------|----|--------|---------|------|----------|------|-----|-------|----------|--------|--------|----------|
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |

| Uniprot | Full protoin nome | Cono nomo ^a | Studies ^{b, c} | | | | | | | |
|------------------|---|------------------------|-------------------------|----------|----------|--------------|----------|----------|------------|----------|
| ID | | Gene name | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
| P85100 | Myosin light chain 3 | MYL3 | → | | | | | | | |
| Q148H2 | Myosin light chain 6B | MYL6B | ↓ | | | | | | | |
| Q3SZE5 | Myosin regulatory light chain 2, ventricular/cardiac muscle isoform | MYL2 | Ļ | | | | | | | |
| G3MZK7 | I roponin C2, tast skeletal type | TNNC2 | ↓ | | | | | | | |
| Q2KIW7 | ATP synthase subunit beta, mitochondrial | ATD5E1B | ↑ | | | | | | | |
| Q5E956 | Triosephosphate isomerase | TPI1 | ↑ | | | | | | | |
| Q148F1 | Cofilin-2 | CFL2 | ↑ | | | | | | | |
| Q0P571 | Myosin regulatory light chain 2, fast skeletal muscle isoform | MYLPF | 1 | | | | Ţ | | | |
| P68138 | Actin, alpha skeletal muscle | ACTA1 | | 1 | | | Î | | | |
| Q08DP0 | Phosphoglucomutase-1 | PGM1 | | ↓ | | | | | | |
| P02510 | Alpha-crystallin B chain | CRYAB | | 1 | | | ↓ | | | |
| Q148F8 | Heat shock protein beta-6 | HSPB6 | | 1 | | | | | | |
| Q31149 | Heat shock protein beta-1 | HSPB1 | | <u> </u> | | | <u> </u> | | | |
| 062654 | Desmin Pyruvate kinaso | | | | ↓ ↓ | | Ļ | | | |
| A0.IN.15 | Myosin light chain 1/3 skeletal muscle isoform | Mo 1 | | | ↓ | | | | | |
| Q9BE40 | Myosin-1 | m. '41 | | | ↓ | | | | | |
| Q9BE41 | Myosin-2 | MYF 2 | | | ↑ | | | | | * |
| A4IFG0 | Glutathione S-transferase Mu 1 | CCTM1 | | | | Ļ | | | | |
| E1BE25 | Filamin-C | TLNC | | | | ↓ | | | | |
| Q3ZC55 | Alpha-actinin-2 | ACTN2 | | | | \downarrow | | | | ↑ |
| Q3ZBX9 | Histone H2A.J | H2AFJ | | | | ↓ | | | | |
| Q3T145 | Malate dehydrogenase, cytoplasmic | MDH1 | | | | ↓ | | | | |
| Q9BE39 | Myosin-7 | | | | | ↓ | | | | * |
| Q07130 00M713 | Voltage-dependent anion-selective channel protein 3 | VDAC3 | | | | ↓ | | | | |
| P23004 | Cytochrome b-c1 complex subunit 2 mitochondrial | UOCRC2 | | | | ↓ ↑ | | | | |
| P18203 | Peptidyl-prolyl cis-trans isomerase FKBP1A | FKBP1A | | | | ↑ | | | | |
| Q29RN2 | Glycogenin 1 | GYG1 | | | | _ | ↑ | | | |
| O62830 | Protein phosphatase 1B | PPM1B | | | | | Ť | | | |
| B0JYN2 | GTP-binding nuclear protein Ran | RAN | | | | | Î | | | |
| F1MME6 | Myomesin-1 | MYOM1 | | | | | ↓ | | | |
| P00570 | Adenylate kinase isoenzyme 1 | AK1 | | | | | Ļ | | | |
| Q5E947 | Peroxiredoxin-1 | PRDX1 | | | | | Ļ | | | |
| DOJTIMI | Spermine synthase | CKM 21VI2 | | | | | ↓ ↓ | | | |
| Q5KR49 | Tropomyosin alpha-1 chain | TPM1 | | | | | ↓ | | | |
| P68252 | 14-3-3 protein gamma | YWHAG | | | | | | ↑ | | . I. |
| P62261 | 14-3-3 protein epsilon | YWHAE | | | | | * | ↑ | | * |
| F1MR86 | Four and a half LIM domains prote 1 | FHL1 | | | | | | Ŷ | | |
| P10096 | Glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydro, nase | GAPDH | | | | | | 1 | | |
| A6QLL8 | Fructose-bisphosphate aldolase A | ALDOA | | | | | | 1 | | |
| Q3SZX4 | Carbonic anhydrase 3 | CA3 | | | | | | <u> </u> | | |
| Q8WZ42 | Litin Decenter of activisted prote Chinage 1 | | | | | | | <u> </u> | | |
| P03243 03T160 | ACCEPTOL OLI ACTIVALED PLOTE: C KINASE 1 | RACKI PPS3 | | | | | | ↑ | | |
| Q0VCX9 | Avotilin | MYOT | | | | | | 1 | | |
| Q32KV0 | Phosphoglycerate mutase 2 | PGAM2 | | | | | | 1 | | |
| G3N3C9 | LIM domain binding 3 | LDB3 | | | | | | ↑ | | |
| Q2KIV7 | Inorganic pyrophosphatase 2, mitochondrial | PPA2 | | | | | | | 1 | |
| Q0IIG5 | ATP-dependent 6-phosphofructokinase, muscle type | PFKM | | | | | | | 1 | |
| A6QR49 | Pyruvate dehydrogenase kinase 4 | PDK4 | | | | | | | 1 | |
| Q2HJ73 | 3-hydroxyisobutyryl-CoA hydrolase, mitochondrial | HIBCH | | | | | | | Î | |
| | Enoyl-CoA hydratase, mitochondrial | ECHS1 DECB1 | | | | | | | | |
| F 1100J0 | 2,4-alenoyi-coa reduciase, mitochondrial | COT2 | | | | | | | 1 | |
| P20004 | Aconitate hydratase, mitochondrial | ACO2 | | | | | | | ↑ | |
| Q3T0R4 | Dehvdrogenase/reductase SDR family member 7B | DHRS7B | | | | | | | 1 | |
| F1MEY2 | Enoyl-[acyl-carrier-protein] reductase, mitochondrial | MECR | | | | | | | Î | |
| Q32LG3 | Malate dehydrogenase, mitochondrial | MDH2 | | | | | | | 1 | |
| Q5EAD4 | Short/branched chain specific acyl-CoA dehydrogenase | ACADSB | | | | | | | 1 | |
| Q3SZI8 | Isovaleryl-CoA dehydrogenase, mitochondrial | IVD | | | | | | | 1 | |
| F1MWR3 | Electron transfer flavoprotein subunit alpha | EIFA | | | | | | | Î | |
| 039704 | Croc protein homolog 1 mitochondrial | | | | | | | | 1 | |
| Q2NI 21 | Dna,J homolog subfamily C member 11 | DNAJC11 | | | | | | | 1 | |
| P68002 | Voltage-dependent anion-selective channel protein 2 | VDAC2 | | | | | | | 1 | |
| Q8SQ21 | Histidine triad nucleotide-binding protein 2, mitochondrial | HINT2 | | | | | | | \uparrow | |

Table 2 (continued)

| 032PB0 | Single-stranded DNA-binding protein, mitochondrial | SSBP1 | | ↑ | |
|--------|--|---------------------|------|--------|--------------|
| | Eukorvetia translation initiation factor 2 aubunit 2 | EIE282 | | ↓ ↑ | |
| | | EIFZOO | | | |
| Q58CS4 | SerinetRINA ligase, mitochondriai | SARS2 | | ↓ | |
| Q2KHZ9 | Glutaryl-CoA dehydrogenase, mitochondrial | GCDH | | ↓ | |
| Q148K4 | Probable D-lactate dehydrogenase, mitochondrial | LDHD | | ↓ | |
| Q3SZJ1 | IsoleucinetRNA ligase, mitochondrial | IARS2 | | ↓ | |
| Q3MHZ0 | Flotillin-1 | FLOT1 | | ↓ | |
| F1N0W6 | Myozenin-3 | MYOZ3 | | Ţ | |
| Q32LP3 | Myomesin-2 | MYOM2 | | Ţ | |
| Q02370 | NADH dehydrogenase [ubiguinone] 1 alpha subcomplex subunit 2 | NDUFA2 | | · | ↑ |
| P31039 | Succinate dehydrogenase [ubiguinone] flavoprotein subunit | SHDA | | | 1 |
| O3T189 | Succinate dehydrogenase [ubiquinone] iron-sulfur subunit | SDHB | | | 1 |
| 000361 | ATP synthese subunit e mitochondrial | | | | 1 |
| Q00001 | Cutechrome C evidece subunit 6A2 | | | _ | 1 |
| | Enoul CoA budratage, mitaghandrial | | | _ | 1 |
| | At misel Linese COOR mitschandriel | | | _ | |
| Q29RIU | Atypical kinase COQ8A, mitochondrial | | | _ | T |
| F1MHR3 | Aldenyde denydrogenase family 1 member A3 | ALDH1A3 | | _ | Ť |
| Q24JZ7 | Succinyl-CoA:3-ketoacid coenzyme A transferase 1, mitochondrial | OXC11 | | | 1 |
| Q3ZCH9 | Haloacid dehalogenase-like hydrolase domain-containing protein 2 | . ^I CHD2 | | _ | Î |
| E1BL04 | Xin actin-binding repeat-containing protein 1 | Xit. 71 | | | 1 |
| A5D7D1 | Alpha-actinin-4 | ALTN4 | | | 1 |
| E1BCU2 | Myomesin-3 | MYC M3 | | | 1 |
| E1BP87 | Myosin-4 | Iv. rH4 | | | 1 |
| P01861 | Immunoglobulin heavy constant gamma 4 | GHG4 | | | ↑ |
| Q4U0T9 | Cysteine and glycine-rich protein 3 | CSRP3 | | | Î |
| E1BMC6 | Sarcolemmal membrane-associated protein | SLMAP | | | ↑ |
| Q58DA7 | Glutaredoxin-3 | GLRX3 | | | ↑ |
| P12799 | Fibringgen gamma chain | FGG | | | · ↑ |
| 037BG0 | Proteasome subunit alpha type-7 | PSMA7 | | | ↑ |
| Q32D00 | LIM and cysteine-rich domains protein 1 | | | _ | 1 |
| | Eukarvotic translation initiation factor 1h | | | | 1 |
| QJZLJ9 | Dunamin 4 like protein | | | _ | 1 |
| QZKIA5 | Dynamin-T-like protein | | | _ | |
| Q310Q4 | Nucleoside dipnosphate kinase B | NME2 | | _ | Ť |
| G3MY19 | PDZ and LIM domain protein 5 | PDLIM5 | | _ | Î |
| P79334 | Glycogen phosphorylase, muscle form | PYGM | | | ↓ |
| Q3ZBD7 | Glucose-6-phosphate isomerase | GPI | | | ↓ |
| F1MJ90 | Phosphorylase b kinase regulatory subunit be. | PHKB | | | ↓ |
| Q29RI2 | Phosphorylase b kinase gamma catalytic chain | PHKG1 | | | ↓ |
| G3X778 | Phosphorylase b kinase regulatory subunit r ph | PHKA1 | | | ↓ |
| F1MHT1 | Glycogen debranching enzyme | AGL | | | ↓ |
| Q3T014 | Bisphosphoglycerate mutase | BPGM | | | Ļ |
| D1MI54 | 5'-AMP-activated protein kinase catalvi, subunit alpha-2 | PRKAA2 | | | Ţ |
| F1MLX6 | AMP deaminase 1 | AMPD1 | | | Ţ |
| A3KN12 | Adenvlosuccinate lvase | ADSL | | | Ť. |
| Q0VCK0 | Bifunctional purine biosynthesis prote | ATIC | | | Ť |
| A5PK37 | Laforin | FPM2A | | _ | ¥ |
| 035716 | Isoamyl acetate-bydrolyzing acte ise 1 bomolog | | | _ | + |
| 014916 | Trans 1.2 dibudrohonze to 1.2 dia dabudrogonaso | | | _ | ↓ ↓ |
| | Delte eminelevulinie egid c hvereteee | | | _ | ↓ |
| | CTD hinding protoin CAD1h | | | | ↓ ↓ |
| Q31017 | GTP-binding protein SAR1b | SARIB | | _ | ↓ |
| Q9MZL7 | Voltage-dependent L-type carcium channel subunit beta-1 | | | | Ļ |
| Q4U5R3 | Proteasome activator complex subunit 1 | PSME1 | | | Ļ |
| Q2KJ46 | 26S proteasome non-ATPase regulatory subunit 3 | PSMD3 | | | Ļ |
| A4FV74 | COP9 signalosome complex subunit 8 | COPS8 | | | Ļ |
| Q7SIB2 | Collagen alpha-1(IV) chain | COL4A1 | | | ↓ |
| Q7SIB3 | Collagen alpha-2(IV) chain | COL4A2 | | | \downarrow |
| F6QE33 | COP9 signalosome complex subunit 7a | COPS7A | | | \downarrow |
| F1ME62 | Cardiomyopathy-associated protein 5 | CMYA5 | | | ↓ |
| E1BAJ4 | Starch-binding domain-containing protein 1 | STBD1 | | | ↓ |
| E1BL29 | Bleomycin hydrolase | BLMH | | | ↓ |
| Q58CP9 | Stromal interaction molecule 1 | STIM1 | | | Ļ |
| . – | | | | _ | _ |

^a The gene names of the proteins that appeared in more than one study are shown in bold font.

^b References of the 8 dark-cutting proteomics studies: study 1 (Franco *et al.* 2015); study 2 (Fuente-Garcia *et al.* 2019); study 3 (Fuente-Garcia *et al.* 2020); study 4 (Poleti *et al.* 2018); study 5 (Mahmood *et al.* 2018); study 6 (Hughes *et al.* 2019); study 7 (Wu *et al.* 2020) and study 8 (Kiyimba *et al.* 2021).

^c Protein variations: Up: Up-regulated (↑, red) in dark-cutting; Down: Down-regulated proteins (↓, blue).

| Table 3. TOP 20 clusters with their representative enriched terms (one per cluster) using the |
|---|
| list of 130 dark-cutting beef protein biomarkers across the eight proteomics studies (see Table |
| 2 for the full list of the proteins and Fig. 2 for the corresponding network layout). |

| Studies ^a | GO | Category | Description | $Count Log_{c} 10(P) Log_{d} 10(q)$ | | | | |
|----------------------|-------------------|--------------------------------|--|-------------------------------------|--------|--------|--|--|
| 12345678 | | | | 0 | - | | | |
| | GO:0055114 | GO Biological Processes | Oxidation-reduction process | 33 | -27.92 | -23.57 | | |
| | GO:0003012 | GO Biological Processes | Muscle system process | 28 | -23.26 | -19.39 | | |
| | GO:0009150 | GO Biological Processes | Purine ribonucleotide metabolic process | 26 | -18.34 | -14.83 | | |
| | GO:0044282 | GO Biological Processes | Small molecule cataboli - p. ocess | 23 | -16.91 | -13.92 | | |
| | GO:0045333 | GO Biological Processes | Cellular respiration | 7 | -9.09 | -6.82 | | |
| | GO:0006520 | GO Biological Processes | Cellular ami 10 ac ⁻ d metabolic process | 14 | -8.86 | -6.60 | | |
| | R-HSA- 1428517 | Reactome Gene Sets | The vitri acid (TCA) cycle and respiratery electron transport | 10 | -8.07 | -5.85 | | |
| | GO:0006094 | GO Biological Processes | JI_~oneogenesis | 3 | -7.40 | -4.88 | | |
| | GO:2001235 | GO Biological Procestas | Positive regulation of apoptotic signaling pathway | 4 | -6.18 | -3.86 | | |
| | GO:0009060 | GO Fiolo, ical Processes | Aerobic respiration | 5 | -6.10 | -3.96 | | |
| | GO:0006188 | G() Biological Processes | IMP biosynthetic process | 3 | -6.05 | -3.75 | | |
| | GO:0007005 | GO Biological Processes | Mitochondrion organization | 3 | -5.94 | -3.66 | | |
| | GO:0042180 | GO Biological Processes | Cellular ketone metabolic process | 9 | -5.60 | -3.49 | | |
| | GO:0005978 | GO Biological Processes | Glycogen biosynthetic process | 15 | -5.56 | -3.46 | | |
| | GO:1904951 | GO Biological Processes | Positive regulation of establishment of protein localization | 10 | -5.53 | -3.44 | | |

| Studies ^a <u>12345678</u> | GO | Category | Description | Count | Log10(P)] | $\log_{d} 0(\mathbf{q})$ |
|--|------------|-------------------------------|--|-------|------------|--------------------------|
| | GO:0006457 | GO Biological Processes | Protein folding | 3 | -5.25 | -3.06 |
| ••••• | GO:0010035 | GO Biological Processes | Response to inorganic substance | 12 | -5.13 | -3.05 |
| ••••• | GO:0014823 | GO Biological Processes | Response to activity | 4 | -4.96 | -2.81 |
| | ko04530 | KEGG Pathway | Tight junction | 7 | -4.88 | -2.81 |
| ••••• | GO:0032412 | GO Biological Processes | Regulation of ion transmembra. P transporter activity | 8 | -4.62 | -2.58 |

^a The colour code used to distinguish the protein lists among the ° durk-cutting beef proteomics studies: \blacksquare study 1 (Franco *et al.* 2015); \blacksquare study 2 (Fuente-Garch *et al.* 2019); \blacksquare study 3 (Fuente-Garch *et al.* 2020); \blacksquare study 4 (Poleti *et al.* 2018); \blacksquare study 5 (Aahmood *et al.* 2018); \blacksquare study 6 (Hughes *et al.* 2019); \blacksquare study 7 (Wu *et al.* 2020) and \blacksquare study 6 (Kiyimba *et al.* 2021), where the term is found statistically significant, *i.e.*, multiple colours indicate a pathway/process that is shared across multiple lists.

^b The number of protein names from the list of protein biomarkers with membership in the given ontology term.

^c The p-value in log base 10.

^d The multi-test adjusted p-value in log base 19. An adjusted (Benjamini–Hochberg corrected) p-value <0.05 was considered as the threshold for the stical significance.

Table 4. TOP 20 clusters with their representative enriched terms (one per Gene Ontology (GO) cluster) from the comparison of the list of 130 dark-cutting beef protein biomarkers to the list of 59 protein biomarkers of normal beef color from Gagaoua *et al.* 2020b. This table is related to **Fig. 5**.

| Category ^a | GO | Dest ription | Count ^b | Log10(P) | Log10(q) |
|--------------------------|------------|---|--------------------|----------|----------|
| | GO:0055114 | oxidation-reduction process | 47 | 28.14 | -41.62 |
| | GO:0003012 | muscle system process | 34 | 20.36 | -27.04 |
| •• | GO:0015980 | energy derivation by oxidation of organic compounds | 25 | 14.97 | -21.59 |
| | GO:0006979 | response to oxidative stress | 21 | 12.57 | -12.43 |
| | GO:0006520 | cellular amino acid metabolic process | 19 | 11.38 | -12.13 |
| | GO:0005980 | glycogen catabolic process | 7 | 5.47 | -11.10 |
| | GO:0030239 | myofibril assembly | 8 | 6.25 | -9.57 |
| | GO:0042180 | cellular ketone metabolic process | 14 | 8.38 | -9.40 |
| | GO:2001242 | regulation of intrinsic apoptotic signaling pathway | 11 | 6.59 | -8.48 |
| | GO:0022900 | electron transport chain | 11 | 6.59 | -7.99 |
| | GO:0019395 | fatty acid oxidation | 9 | 5.39 | -7.87 |

| Category | GO | Description | Count ^b | Log10(P) | $Log_{d}^{10}(q)$ |
|----------|------------|--|--------------------|----------|-------------------|
| | GO:0006081 | cellular aldehyde metabolic process | 6 | 10.17 | -7.86 |
| | GO:0044057 | regulation of system process | 18 | 10.78 | -7.71 |
| | GO:0006089 | lactate metabolic process | 5 | 2.99 | -7.70 |
| | GO:0006457 | protein folding | 8 | 13.56 | -7.49 |
| | GO:0045055 | regulated exocytosis | 20 | 11.98 | -7.35 |
| | GO:0006790 | sulfur compound metabolic process | 14 | 8.38 | -7.15 |
| | GO:0007005 | mitochondrion organization | 16 | 9.58 | -6.68 |
| | GO:0019249 | lactate biosynthetic process | 3 | 5.08 | -6.31 |
| | GO:0022898 | regulation of transmembrane transporter activity | 11 | 6.59 | -6.19 |

^a The color code used to distinguish the protein lists among \blacksquare Dark-cutting (DFD) beef (red) and \blacksquare normal beef color (bleu), where the term is found statistically significant, *i.e.*, multiple colors indicate a pathway/process that is shared across multiple lists.

^b The number of protein names from the list of protein biomarkers with membership in the given ontology term.

^c The p-value in log base 10.

^d The multi-test adjusted p-value in log base 10. An adjusted (Benjamini–Hochberg corrected) p-value <0.05 was considered as the threshold for statistical significance.

Highlights

- 130 protein biomarkers for DFD beef from 8 proteomics studies were gathered in a unique repertoire
- Few DFD proteins were indicated several times by different proteomics studies
- DFD proteomics studies are not always following similar conditions and protocols
- Oxidation-reduction, TCA cycle and muscle structure are pivotal pathways behind DFD beef
- A high number of the biomarkers are secreted proteins constituting the first DFD beef secretome
- Understanding the pathways underpinning DFD beef is important to reduce wastage

Solution