

**A review of the use of proteomic techniques to explore the holistic effects of  
nutrients *in vivo***

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## **Abstract**

The availability of “omics” technologies is transforming scientific approaches to physiological problems from a reductionist viewpoint to that of a holistic viewpoint. This is of profound importance in nutrition since the integration of multiple systems at the level of gene expression on the synthetic side through to metabolic enzyme activity on the degradative side, combine to govern nutrient availability to tissues. Protein activity is central to the process of nutrition from the initial absorption of nutrients via uptake carriers in the gut, through to distribution and transport in the blood, metabolism by degradative enzymes in tissues and excretion through renal tubule exchange proteins. Therefore, the global profiling of the proteome, defined as the entire protein complement of the genome expressed in a particular cell or organ, or in plasma or serum at a particular time, offers the potential for identification of important biomarkers of nutritional state that respond to alterations in diet. This review considers the published evidence of nutritional modulation of the proteome *in vivo* which has expanded exponentially over the last three years. It highlights some of the challenges faced by researchers using proteomic approaches to understand the interactions of diet with genomic and metabolic-phenotypic variables in normal populations.

## 1. Introduction

Technologies have advanced significantly in the past five years to enable us to ask holistic questions such as “what proteins/pathways does glucose modulate (e.g. through post-translational modification, altered compartmentalization or expression/degradation) in islet cells?” rather than the traditional reductionist approach to address an hypothesis in a selected target tissue. Embracing this paradigm shift, the open-ended approach to investigating mechanisms of physiological effects, can lead to identification of novel regulatory pathways possibly leading to new roadmaps for research. The value of findings derived from “fishing” approaches is subsequently validated using conventional biochemical, cellular and molecular biological approaches both in vitro and in vivo. Thus, scientific rigour is maintained and novel mechanistic influences on physiology can be identified.

The systems biology approach offers significant strengths to the field of nutrition, where the influence of both genotype/phenotype and external influences have marked effects on absorption, distribution, metabolism and excretion and therefore the nourishment of an individual organism. Whilst systems biology integrates the temporal study of the transcriptome (all mRNA molecules (or transcripts) in one cell or tissue), the proteome (total protein complement of a genome present in cells and/or tissue at a given time) and the metabolome (entire complement of all the small molecular weight metabolites inside a cell suspension or organism), there can be little correlation between these approaches – not all changes in mRNA expression are translated directly to changes in protein levels. The correlation coefficient in a controlled experimental unicellular environment rarely

exceeds 0.5 and many changes in protein levels can be attributed to changes in mRNA stability; mRNA is around for a longer or shorter period of time prior to degradation and therefore is more or less likely to be translated to protein. Similarly, an expressed protein is not necessarily an activated protein and therefore may not contribute to the metabolome. Such verification is an important qualifier for emergent findings from systems biology studies.

Whilst recognising the need for experimental confirmation of any change in protein level on functional effect, the application of proteomics can be easily rationalized in nutrition research; proteins are ultimately responsible for absorption and distribution of nutrients (glucose and amino acid transporters, apolipoproteins), metabolism (proteases, lipases, glycolytic enzymes) and excretion (renal transporters). At the time of preparing this article, over the past five years, a PubMed search using the MeSH terms nutrition AND proteomics revealed thirty one published review articles. Of note, these articles focused on the potential for a revolution in our understanding of nutrition through application of proteomic techniques, and, as is often the case for emergent technologies, exceeds the total number of studies currently published which have used proteomics to analyse nutritional effects *in vivo*. In order to consider the likely future value of proteomics in nutrition research, this review has three objectives; (1) to summarise current methodological approaches; (2) to highlight the application of proteomics to the study of nutrition *in vivo* and (3) to consider any possible limitations which may currently hold back widespread application of proteomics and the future of proteomics in nutrition research.

## **2. Current methodological approaches**

The publication of the human genome led to the realization that many of the mechanisms underlying disease and influencing physiology, are expressed at the supra-genomic level, and this had a catalytic effect on development of proteomic methods. Since the 1970s, the traditional workhorse of high resolution protein separation has been 2 dimensional electrophoresis (2DE) (Anderson & Anderson 1996). However, it wasn't until the late 1990s that this tool was widely applied. This revolution was caused by advances in mass spectrometry, particularly in easy to use mass spectrometric techniques that became readily accessible to life scientists. More recently, other technologies have been developed which offer increased speed through a more simplistic approach. What follows is a brief overview of proteomic technologies. For more detailed consideration of the methods and their applications, the reader is referred to Aldred *et al.*(2004).

All the technologies used in proteomics are held to ransom by pre-analytical variation incurred in sample collection, handling and storage, particularly of clinical samples where there may be a considerable amount of time between collection and analysis. Nevertheless, a recent study demonstrates that length of time to freezing (up to 24h) did not significantly affect SELDI-TOF MS variability in blood or urine (Traum *et al.* 2006).

### **2.1 Sample preparation**

For all proteomic techniques good sample preparation is the key to success. The composition of any particular sample will differ according to source, however, most samples will encounter problems associated with the simultaneous presence of highly abundant proteins and low copy number proteins causing a sensitivity problem over the

wide dynamic range in protein quantitation. If plasma is used as an example, the dynamic range in protein concentration is around six orders of magnitude. The most abundant protein, albumin, and the following nine most abundant proteins make up nearly 70% of the plasma protein composition. Thus, any scarce proteins are masked, hard to find and difficult to observe changes in expression or modification. A compounding feature of the plasma matrix is that the low abundance proteins are also possibly the most interesting; tissue exudates, cytokines and growth factors may all lie hidden. Therefore, the first step in sample preparation can be their simplification by lowering the complexity of the sample; this can be achieved wither by removing interfering substances or enriching in certain species of interest (Righetti *et al.* 2005). For example, high abundance proteins like albumin and globulins can be removed by immunoprecipitation techniques, although it should be noted that whilst removing high abundance proteins, other associated proteins may also be extracted, highlighting the need for verification of findings using non-manipulated samples. Alternatively, specific pools of proteins can be analyzed. These include; proteins with a particular post translational modification such as phosphorylation which can be immunoprecipitated (Kabuyama *et al.* 2004); proteins in particular sub-cellular locations such as the mitochondrion which can be enriched using ultracentrifugation techniques (Warnock *et al.* 2004); or newly transcribed proteins which can be metabolically labeled.

## **2.2 Gel based technologies**

The most widely used of the gel based proteomic technologies is 2-dimensional gel electrophoresis (2DE) utilizing iso-electric focusing and SDS-PAGE, where proteins are

separated by charge in the first dimension and mass in the second. The technological advancement in iso-electric focusing has enabled single pI unit range immobilized pH gradient (IPG) strips, zoom strips, which allow for very high resolution separations. Following 2DE, each gel comprises a series of spots where each spot corresponds to one or more protein species. Alternatively, a subset of proteins can be isolated by using Western blotting for post-translational modifications to further limit the number of proteins taken through to analysis. Quantitative protein expression profiling is achieved by visualizing gels post-staining with one of a variety of chromophores such as Coomassie Blue or silver (both of which have a limited dynamic range), and more recently fluorescent dyes such as the Sypro family have improved the sensitivity and dynamic ranges.

The fluorescent cyanine dyes (Cy2, Cy3 and Cy5) which carry n-hydroxysuccinimidyl ester functionality and bind the  $\epsilon$ -amino group on lysine residues, have also been introduced to 2DE. This allows the labeling of three spectrally resolvable fluorophores and enables the simultaneous visualization of test, control and standard gels (Kolkman et al, 2005). The difference in gel electrophoresis (DIGE) approach has been validated for use in quantitative proteomics although cost precludes its routine application.

Once visualized, the gels images are captured and in silico representations are analyzed by a variety of algorithms and software options. Proteins of interest, once identified, are then excised from the gel or membrane and subjected to limited trypsinisation. The resulting peptides are extracted and identified using either Matrix Assisted Laser Desorption Ionization Time Of Flight Mass Spectrometry (MALDI-TOF MS) or tandem MS techniques (see Section 2.5). Another emerging technology is the application of

column separation by capillary electrophoresis (Fliser *et al.* 2005), which has the advantage of being able to cope with crude samples with high salt concentration such as urine. Peak picking algorithms are used to differentiate the peptide between control and test prior to sample identification by MS.

### **2.3 Chromatography based technologies**

Chromatographic methods based on different matrices have been used to separate proteins for over 50 years. For many proteomic applications proteins in a sample are first digested to peptides and then these are separated chromatographically prior to mass spectral protein identification. The simplest methods merely slow down the rate at which the peptides enter the analyzer so that the maximum amount of time can be taken to identify as many of the peptides as possible, so called shotgun proteomics. Multi dimensional chromatography techniques, such as MudPIT which uses columns consisting of strong cation exchange material back-to-back with reversed phase material separate peptides prior to elution and ionization within the mass spectrometer, in much the same manner (Wolters *et al.* 2001). However, many techniques are used to extract or highlight peptides of choice. For example, Immobilized Metal ion Affinity Chromatography (IMAC) utilizes chromatographic media with bound nickel ions to extract phosphopeptides from complex mixtures, thus enabling the identification of peptides from proteins involved in signaling cascades (Riggs *et al.* 2001). Isotope-Coded Affinity Tags (ICAT) methodologies use stable isotope tags to differentially label two samples which can then be mixed. The mixture is then chromatographically separated and quantitatively identified by mass spectrometry (Gygi *et al.* 1999). The most commonly



used tags bind to cysteine residues in the proteins, thus fewer peptides are labeled. Stable isotope labeling with amino acids in cell culture (SILAC) (Ong et al. 2002), a complementary technique to ICAT, labels the proteins with light or heavy carbon ( $^{12}\text{C}$  or  $^{13}\text{C}$ ) or nitrogen ( $^{14}\text{N}$  or  $^{15}\text{N}$ ) usually incorporated into the samples during growth in medium containing labeled lysine. The resulting processed samples are then analyzed by mass spectrometry and give quantitative answers as with ICAT. However, this does require the synthesis of new proteins and thus is only of use in cell culture work or in fast growing organisms as its name suggests.

## **2.4 Protein arrays**

The success of gene arrays for transcriptomics has led to the idea of protein arrays. However, with nothing analogous to PCR for the amplification of signal and the lack of a single complimentary hybridization substrate, the development of the technology has proven to be more difficult. Different interacting molecules such as antibodies, DNA and drug molecules have been used as bait to identify components of protein samples. Once the proteins have bound to the bait they must then be identified and quantitated, requiring the application of mass spectrometry (Pavlickova et al. 2004). In fact, this baiting approach is a natural development from the basis of **Surface Enhanced Laser Desorption Ionisation (SELDI) time of flight MS (TOF MS)** (Issaq et al. 2002). The SELDI approach was pioneered by Ciphergen to enable the analysis of complex proteomes such as plasma and enables the selective capture of proteins by varying the nature of the capture matrix

## **2.5 Protein identification**

All of the above techniques are reliant on the successful identification of the protein or peptide. The favoured technique for this is mass spectrometry (Yates 2004); (Barrett et al. 2005). The two most commonly used technologies are matrix assisted laser desorption ionization time of flight mass spectrometry (MALDI-TOF MS) and electrospray ionization mass spectrometry (ESI MS). The first uses solid state peptides and the latter liquid state peptides. MALDI-TOF MS has become the choice for many life scientists because of the ease of use and of analysis. Essentially, it produces mass-mapping of an unknown single protein derived from a spot on 2DE gel is accomplished by breaking the protein into specific peptide fragments using trypsin which cleaves after lysine/arginine residues. Mass spectrometric analysis of the enzymatic digest generates a 'mass-map' which is unique to the digested protein and allows unambiguous identification of mass fingerprints through public databases using the Mascot search engine. The probability of protein identifications being correct is calculated according to the MOWSE score (**m**olecular **w**eight **s**earch based on peptide scoring frequency) defined by Pappin *et al.*(1993).

ESI MS lends itself more easily to tandem techniques where peptides can be sequenced directly and thus provides greater security to protein identification, over mass fingerprinting. Once a protein is identified, it is essential to ensure that the proteins or peptides identified are contextually accurate. This can often be achieved by a complementary technique such as Western blotting or fluorescence microscopy, where the lack of need for sample manipulation should at strength to the observation.

### **3. Application of proteomics to nutrition**

Whilst the number of articles describing proteomic applications to nutrition has increased exponentially since 2002, the majority of these approaches describe single cell models in tissue culture. This can provide some important evidence for mechanisms of nutrient effect but can provide limited information on systems interactions. For that reason, the following section is limited to a review of those studies undertaken in vivo, both in human and in animal models. Application of the in vivo limit to PubMed searches led to the recovery of four major experimental themes; those investigating the pathophysiology of dietary deficiency states; those investigating the mechanisms by which nutrients may modify disease states; those evaluating the effects of supplementation with micro- and macro-nutrients and excess of particular nutrients on otherwise normal subjects/animals. In many respects it is too early to consider concordance between nutrition-proteomic studies as no two studies are the same, however, these articles are considered in a systematic way below and attention is paid to whether the articles have verified their findings using alternative experimental approaches.

### **3.1 Use of proteomics to investigate mechanisms underlying pathophysiology of nutritional deficiency states**

For ethical reasons, the study of experimentally induced nutritional deficiency states is undertaken in animal models, however, in addition to understanding the multiplicity of pathophysiological states, one of the possible outcomes of such studies is the identification of possible early biomarkers of functional deficiency which may be applied to vulnerable populations (Go *et al.* 2005).

The consequences of prolonged  $K^+$  deficiency on the mouse renal proteome have been investigated by Thongboonkerd *et al.*(2006) as hypokalemia is known to be associated with a number of complications including metabolic alkalosis, polyuria and renal tubule injury. These workers applied 2DE differential analysis of the kidney proteomes from normal or dietary depleted mice (8 weeks) and reported 33 differentially expressed proteins in the kidney proteome of K-deficient mice. Using MS based approach 30 of these proteins were identified and fell into three major protein function classes; metabolic enzymes, signalling proteins and cytoskeletal proteins. Some of the metabolic enzymes identified are involved in metabolic alkalosis and thus warrant further study as putative effectors of  $K^+$  deficiency.

A consideration of the sub-clinical effects of copper and iron deficiency has been recently reported by Tosco *et al.*(2005). These metals are important cofactors for a number of enzymes involved in normal physiological processes and their deficiency has widespread consequences in brain development and vascular function (Schuschke DA, 1997; Prohaska, 2000). Differential analysis of the rat intestinal proteome showed significant changes in the expression of proteins associated with glucose and fatty acid metabolism, molecular chaperones, cytoskeleton and vitamin transporters. Again, this work highlights novel pathways for considering the consequence of unbalanced micronutrient intake, with alterations to the cytoskeletal proteome being modified in both studies.

Chanson *et al.* (2005) investigated the effects of folate deficiency on the rat liver proteome as low liver folate has been shown to increase abnormal one-carbon metabolism and the risk of degenerative disease. Young rats were fed an amino acid-defined, folate deficient diet for four weeks and compared to animals receiving a normal

diet. Again, a 2DE approach was adopted and differentially expressed proteins were determined by MALDI-MS. These workers identified 5 up-regulated proteins and four down-regulated proteins in folate deficient rats; the up-regulated proteins included glutathione peroxidase and peroxiredoxins which are indicative of an increased level of hepatic oxidative stress (Cessarato *et al.* 2005). Importantly, these researchers confirmed the observation that glutathione peroxidase levels are upregulated in the liver of folate deficient animals using a Western blotting approach.

### **3.2 Using proteomics to investigate mechanisms of disease process using nutrients and micronutrients**

Certain micronutrients, including selenium and tocopherol, have been suggested to have a chemopreventive effect in prostate cancer (Rayman, 2005). To investigate the potential for defining a disease phenotype which may be modified by micronutrient supplementation, Kim *et al.* (2005) have studied the plasma proteome of controls and prostate cancer patients after dietary supplementation with vitamin E, selenium, both or placebo for 3-6 weeks. Pre-fractionation of plasma to examine the lower MW (2-13.5kDa) proteins by using SELDI-MS was adopted as the method of choice and using principal component analysis, these workers were able to differentiate a prostate cancer plasma proteome from the matched control. Moreover, they showed that the combination of selenium and vitamin E induced significant changes in the cancer patients' proteomes towards a profile indicative of prostate-cancer free status. Identification of a disease

versus normal protein profile provides an approach which can be used to monitor therapeutic responsiveness without any need for identification of the proteins involved.

A similar approach, using proteomics to identify specific multi-protein profiles associated with pathology which may not be evident from conventional methods, has been undertaken by Weissinger *et al.* (2006). These workers adopted a shotgun proteomics approach to investigate effects of oral vitamin C supplementation in hemodialysis patients. They were able to define a plasma polypeptide fingerprint comprising 30 different species that characterized patients with renal dysfunction undergoing hemodialysis and furthermore, were able to show that several of the polypeptides were normalised following supplementation with vitamin C (250mg/d) for three weeks. Whilst definition of these polypeptides is of interest to provide insight into the functions of vitamin C in haemodialysis patients, it is not necessary to know their identity, only their m/z signal, to follow response to diet/treatment.

Using a mouse model of mammary cancer (with dimethylbenz[a]anthracene as the tumor promoter), Rowell *et al.* (2005) adopted a conventional proteomic approach based on 2DE and MALDI-TOF analysis to define a novel mechanism of chemoprotection afforded by the soy isoflavone, genestein. Whilst six proteins appeared to be altered by pre-pubertal exposure to genistein but not daidzein (500µg/g), five were further investigated and up-regulation of only one, GTP-cyclohydrolase-1, was confirmed by Western blotting. To pursue the importance of this finding further, the authors considered the downstream signalling from GTP-CH1 and were able to confirm that tyrosine hydroxylase was upregulated whereas VEGF2R was downregulated in rats at 50 days, when administered with genistein in the pre-pubertal period. Thus, a proteomic approach

allowed the postulation of a novel mechanism for the chemoprotective effects of genistein through inhibition of angiogenesis.

A similar approach was adopted by Poon *et al.* (2005) to further investigate the observation that  $\alpha$ -lipoic acid can reverse memory impairment in the senescence accelerated prone mouse (strain 8; SAMP8). Using 2DE separation with LC-MS/MS to define proteins with altered expression profiles, these authors reported that lipoic acid supplementation was able to prevent the development of accelerated ageing phenotype. Specifically, they observed restoration of expression of neurofilament triplet L protein,  $\alpha$ -enolase and ubiquitous mitochondrial creatinine kinase to levels seen in normal mice and prevention of the oxidation of lactate dehydrogenase B, dehydropyrimidinase-like protein 2 and  $\alpha$ -enolase in mice receiving  $\alpha$ -lipoic acid, however, further functional studies or application of other techniques to confirm findings are not described in this article.

There are many studies suggesting that dietary fatty acids particularly fish oils may have a significant effect on atherosclerosis, but a recent meta-analysis has not supported this finding (Hooper *et al.* 2006). Given this disparity in the literature, further evaluation of the effects of such fatty acids on vascular function is warranted. In this regard, in the medium term, proteomics may offer some insight into the variable outcomes of intervention studies. In the short term, investigation of the effects of dietary fatty acids in animal models, specifically effects of fish oil, cis9, trans11- and trans10, cis12-conjugated linoleic acid or elaidic acid on the liver proteomes of mice with hypercholesterolaemia due to apoE deletion or expression of the apoE\* Leiden transgenic mice (de Roos *et al.* 2005a, 2005b) may also provide some clues. The first study (de

Roos, 2005a) used a conventional 2DE approach to examine differential protein expression and principal component analysis to determine which proteins were sensitive to the effects of fish oil. This investigation showed that fish oil had a major effect on cytosolic proteins but that the effects of elaidic acid were restricted to membrane proteins. In addition, the authors were able to correlate physiological effects on plasma insulin, glucose, cholesterol and fatty acid levels with proteomic changes; a change was observed in levels of the proteins, long-chain acyl-CoA thioester hydrolase and adipophilin, which contributed to the induction of a phenotype consistent with metabolic syndrome after dietary enrichment with conjugated linoleic acid. The more recent study focused on supplementing with dietary conjugated linoleic acids (CLA) in ApoE knockout mice (de Roos *et al.* 2005b); the principal defining protein expression change following cis9, trans11 CLA administration was the upregulation of hsp70 family members. The differential effect of trans10, cis12 CLA was confirmed by principal component analysis; the key enzymes upregulated were enzymes associated with gluconeogenic, beta oxidation and ketogenic pathways. In this model, increased levels of hepatic serotransferrin, an acute phase reactant, were associated with a phenotype of insulin resistance, thus making a tantalizing link between the metabolic syndrome and inflammation which merits further study.

### **3.3 Effects of dietary supplementation/enrichment on the proteomes of healthy organisms**

The studies described above give some indication that disease activity or outcome may be modulated by nutritional means, however, in the mammary cancer model, dietary



intervention was required prior to induction of the cancer. Similarly, vascular occlusion in subjects presenting with clinical manifestations of disease is likely to have developed over three decades or more and the potential for dietary supplements to *reverse* such changes seems remote. As epidemiological evidence is in support of a beneficial effect for many micronutrients on health outcomes this may be due to early intervention before disease can become established, thus the advancements offered by proteomic technologies may facilitate an understanding of preventative mechanisms in healthy subjects. The following five articles detail proteomic investigations of nutrient effect in normal subjects/animals.

Our recent paper (Aldred *et al.* 2006) describes the use of 2DE with MALDI-MS to investigate the plasma proteome response to increasing doses of alpha-tocopherol over four weeks. Subsequent analysis of the pooled 2DE proteomes led to the identification of increased expression of proapolipoprotein A1 following tocopherol supplementation, with time and dose-dependent effects. This was confirmed in each individual non-manipulated plasma sample to ascertain that the effect was not due to albumin depletion or due to pooling. Importantly, this work demonstrated a novel mechanism of benefit in healthy subjects, that tocopherol may increase hepatic synthesis of ApoA1 which is involved in reverse cholesterol transport and is inversely related to cardiovascular disease risk.

The effects supplementation of the diet with cruciform vegetables on the serum proteome of healthy subject was reported recently by Mitchell *et al.* (2005). These workers applied MALDI-TOF MS to serum samples depleted of major proteins such as albumin, and applied logistic regression models and peak picking algorithms to distinguish participants

who had followed a 7 day diet with cruciform vegetables from those following a 7 day diet without the vegetables. The technique proved powerful enough to classify the participants' diets to 76% accuracy using two m/z peaks; one of these peaks was subsequently identified as the B-chain of alpha 2-HS glycoprotein, a serum protein previously found to be involved in insulin resistance (Dahlman *et al.* 2004).

There is increasing evidence for the benefits of anthocyanadins against cognitive decline, although the mechanisms underlying these effects are unknown (Galli *et al.* 2002). To investigate this further, Kim *et al.* (2006) have undertaken a proteomic investigation into the potential physiological benefits of six weeks of grape-derived dietary supplements (GSE) on the whole rat brain. Using a 2DE approach and peptide mass fingerprinting by MALDI-MS, thirteen proteins were determined to be different in the brains of animals exposed to GSE compared to control brains. These included proteins associated with energy generation, such as creatine kinase, heat shock proteins and cytoskeletal proteins including neurofilament protein light chain; the latter was described by Poon *et al.* (2005) as being restored in the brains of accelerated ageing mice following administration of lipoic acid, again supporting the hypothesis that neurofilament protein may have an important role in preventing cognitive decline.

The final studies which meet the criteria for inclusion as proteomic studies detailing the effects of nutrients on normal organisms, describe different objectives; to evaluate whether diet improves meat quality through reducing oxidative degradation of muscle proteins or improves growth rate. The first of these by Stagsted *et al.* (2004) used a proteomic approach to separate chicken muscle proteins together with an immunoblotting approach to detect oxidation as protein carbonyls or nitrotyrosine. In common with the

earlier report of Poon *et al.* (2005), alpha-enolase was found to be highly susceptible to oxidation and in this study, the levels of oxidation of enolase in chicken muscle were reduced in chickens fed a diet supplemented with antioxidant-rich fruit and vegetables compared with those animals receiving a low-antioxidant diet.

The second related study, undertaken by Martin *et al.* (2003) in rainbow trout, aimed to determine whether substitution of fish meal for soy meal had an effect on growth and if so, to discover the mechanism using a proteomic approach. Using a 2DE approach with MALDI-TOF MS for peptide mass mapping, thirty three peptides were differentially expressed between control and soy fed animals but no difference in growth rate was reported between the diets. The change in expression of transcripts for two proteins, apolipoprotein A1 and aldolase B confirmed the proteomic findings and suggested that fish fed the soy diet were exhibiting increased metabolism of proteins and cholesterol. In support of our work in healthy humans (Aldred *et al.* 2006) apolipoprotein A1 expression has again been shown to be sensitive to dietary nutrients.

These latter two studies demonstrate the potential for commercial gain through application of proteomics to study mechanism of improved productivity.

### **3.4 Effects of dietary excess on the proteomes of otherwise healthy organisms**

Whilst there are also reports in the literature which have adopted a proteomic approach to describe the effects of nutrient excess on physiology, they are beyond the scope of this review. The findings from these works are summarized in Table 1 and the reader is referred to the original publications for further information.

**Table 1 – Key features of extracted data from proteomic studies of “over-nutrition”**

Nutrient	Species	Tissue examined	Key observation	Reference
Cholesterol	Mouse	Liver	Show testosterone deficiency (phenotype); expression of androgen regulated proteins carbonic anhydrase III and glutathione s-transferase P2 also reduced.	Feng <i>et al</i> (2005)
Cholesterol	Mouse	Blood vessels	Cys peroxiredoxin was oxidized and correlated with extent of lesion formation	Mayr <i>et al</i> (2005)
Fat	Mouse	Gastrocnemius muscle, white and brown adipose tissue and liver	Brown adipose tissue increased expression of tricarboxylic acid cycle enzymes and respiratory chain proteins suggesting increased energy expenditure to defend against weight gain	Schmid <i>et al</i> (2005)
copper	Sheep	liver	Increase in cytosolic isocitrate dehydrogenase, mitochondrial thioredoxin-dependent peroxidase reductase and cathepsin D in liver which associated with acute mitochondrial damage.	Haywood <i>et al</i> (2005)

Many of the articles reviewed above, have focused on the potential for nutrients to increase protein expression. However, the steady state level of a particular protein species is the summation of both synthetic and degradative changes. There is little data available yet on how nutrients may regulate turnover, however, a proteomic approach has led to the postulate that post-translational modification of proteins by o-GlcNAc may occur when cellular glucose concentrations rise and this may inhibit proteasomal degradation of transcription factors and therefore allow cells to regulate transcriptional activity according to nutritional status (Zachara and Hart, 2004); when they have an energy

source, they can transcribe proteins and in the absence of glucose, proteasomal degradation of transcription factors is enabled.

#### **4. Current Limitations**

Whilst these studies are beginning to demonstrate the value of proteomics, any summation of data can only be considered valid if there is confidence in the analytical methodology per se. Several important caveats remain and require closer inspection;

How recoverable is the cellular or plasma proteome?

How accurate are the quantitative proteomic techniques?

What is the likelihood of statistical anomaly/false positives through multiple sampling error?

The current approaches to solving these methodological issues are described below and will allow the power of proteomics to be confidently accepted and potential benefits for nutrition research to be recognised.

##### **4.1 How recoverable is the cellular or plasma proteome?**

As alluded to earlier in the review, solubility problems can limit representation of highly hydrophobic membrane proteins which are difficult to recover using commonly available detergents. New detergents are being developed to extend the application of proteomics to low solubility proteins (Stanley *et al.* 2003; Rabilloud *et al.* 2003), in particular in the development of zwitterionic detergents such as C7BzO. However, there is no universal method for extracting different membrane proteins and individual optimization is necessary using a panel of detergents.

A different challenge faces those studying the plasma proteome, namely the wide dynamic range of protein components which is in the order of  $10^{12}$ . Lower abundance proteins are masked by high abundance proteins such as albumin and immunoglobulins, as previously described in section 2.1. Albumin can be “selectively” removed using chemical (cibacron blue) or antibody techniques, however, albumin is tightly associated with many small peptides in plasma and removal of albumin is also likely to deplete hormones including thyroid and steroid hormones. Initial fractionation using strong detergents prior to removal of high abundance proteins offers a more secure route for analyzing low abundance proteins without the problems of inadvertent peptide depletion, however, detergent denaturation also destroys the properties that allow certain components to be depleted. The recent HUPO Plasma Proteome Project report (Omenn *et al*, 2005) has highlighted the key issues to be addressed over the next few years to improve the value of data which can be derived from plasma samples.

The SELDI TOF – MS approach has been applied to several of the studies reviewed in this article, however, it preferentially detects low MW peptides as they have a higher efficiency of ionization. This technology also poses some challenges in protein identification which is based on peptide mass matching of complex mixtures and can not inherently accommodate post-translational modifications; the lack of identity of the putative biomarkers remains unaddressed. Overall, SELDI has been suggested to suffer with high noise levels, and from low sensitivity and specificity (Diamandis, 2004). Indeed, protein concentrations responsible for the ‘peaks’ in SELDI are normally in the  $\mu\text{g/ml}$  range, much higher than many known biomarkers for cancer. The plasma proteome HUPO report (Rai *et al*, 2005) has recommended stringent standardization and

pre-fractionation to increase the utility of the SELDI approach after intra-laboratory CVs revealed variations from 15 to 43% across five laboratories.

#### **4.2 How accurate are the quantitative proteomic techniques?**

Stable isotope labeling (ICAT) has been a core technology for use in quantitative proteomic mass spectrometry, however, there can be some issues with variability due to incomplete labeling and the need for such experiments to be conducted in the presence of isotopes. Recent attention has focused on peptide peak area quantification and this technology has been successfully applied to characterization of the proteomes of wild-type and p53 deficient HCT-116 human cells with acceptable reproducibility (Xie *et al*, 2006). Comparison of ion peak areas following analysis by ion trap or Fourier transform MS provided CVs in the order of 10%. However, such an analysis will normally follow on from the identification of spots by 2DE which differ at least two-fold and this stage alone can introduce errors in spot identification through differences in sample loading between gels, gel to gel warping and variation during fixation. Whilst complex algorithms exist in 2DE analytical software packages to maximize intelligent matching, this is usually overseen by an experienced operator and as such presents a huge bottleneck in comparative proteomics. For this reason, the development of DIGE has afforded significant benefits; whilst expensive to use routinely, it offers the potential to directly compare two samples within the same gel. As with all 2DE analysis, some spots may not be detected by DIGE if their isoelectric points or molecular weights lie outside the range of the IPG strips. Such a problem is not encountered in direct mass spectrometry techniques.

In a recent study designed to examine the consistency between DIGE and ICAT, there was limited overlap between detected proteins suggesting that such techniques should be regarded as complementary rather than alternative methods of analysis (Wu *et al.* 2006).

### **4.3 Size of effect and sample size in proteomics**

From the earlier discussion, it is evident that the combination of experimental variation and intrinsic complexity of mixed protein samples contributes to the background “noise” in proteomics. This so called “high dimensionality” of the data, due to the equivalent or smaller number of samples being analysed compared with the number of data points or protein spots being detected, increases the risk of “overfitting” the data. To overcome this problem and minimize risk of identifying false positives, machine learning techniques have been developed to reduce the dimension of putative biomarker proteins and yield a manageable set of proteins for further validation. A recent report has described the application of support-vector machine learning techniques to simulated data sets to demonstrate the robustness against identification of outliers and subsequently to real SELDI data sets from a breast cancer proteomics study (Zhang *et al.*, 2006); biomarkers “identified” by the algorithm were subsequently validated in biological experiments, for example a peptide which was sequenced by direct on chip sequencing technique was followed up breast cancer patients and found to associate with disease status.

In addition to complexity in the technology which creates “high dimensional” data sets, the genetic variability in human studies adds further complications to the application of proteomics to nutritional intervention studies in humans. One of the key issues in considering nutrition in healthy subjects is that homeostatic mechanisms which serve to



maintain normal physiology are by definition, likely to reduce any effects of diet on the proteome. This is less of a problem in animal studies using in-bred species. However, in a cohort of human subjects recruited to a nutritional intervention study, inter-individual variability due to genotypic differences in any given proteome is likely to exceed the changes induced by environment or diet. In our recent study of the plasma proteome following alpha-tocopherol supplementation (Aldred *et al*, 2006), with ten or eleven subjects in each of three supplementation groups measured at baseline, after two weeks and after four weeks, the evidence suggested that inter-individual variation in protein expression exceeded that of the supplement. In order to circumvent these issues, samples from subjects in the same supplement group and at the same time point were pooled. Such pooling reduces individual noise between subjects but also may lead to the loss of individual responsiveness and possible dilution of effect, therefore the need to confirm 2DE findings using native, individual samples is very important.

Pooling has also been necessitated in the past when cohort sizes are large; for example, an experiment with 12 different paradigms and three replicate gels per experiment or population based studies with 50 individuals under two different regimes, also using replicate gels, the number of gels becomes costly, and the extent of analysis, unwieldy.

Current software uses algorithms to match gels, allowing for analysis of protein quantity. The proteins of interest can then be found by using Boolean or fold changes. Advances in bioinformatics and multiple component analysis to enable analysis of large numbers of gel data sets (>100) each with up to 1000 spots per gel, will provide a route to work through such inter-individual variability and large sample sizes to define consistent patterns of effect without the need for sample pooling.

## 5. Future approaches

The technology underlying proteomics continues to progress from the most basic level in improving dyes which can provide linearity with protein expression over a wide dynamic range, to improving software packages to deal with multiple gels and associated intelligent systems to analyse data with minimal bias. Many steps are being taken towards miniaturisation both of sample size use and of instruments, because of the limited and unique samples which are available from clinical settings, including the moves towards lab-on-a-chip scenarios (Diks and Peppelenbosch 2004; Marko-Varga *et al.* 2004). Advances in mass spectrometry are making it possible to do simultaneous tissue imaging and profiling, putting biochemical findings into the context of disease state. Electron tomography is beginning to produce 3 dimensional maps of cells and proteins (Baumeister 2005).

Further steps beyond proteomics such as temporal and spatial analyses will help build systems biology information (Papin and Subramaniam 2004). However 70-80% of the proteome still remains to be seen and so new separation techniques, such as (1) multistacking chromatography which consists of a set of immobilized chemistries, serially connected in a stack format to resolve proteins prior to MS and (2) solid phase ligand libraries where a library of combinatorial ligands is coupled to small beads prior to mixing with a complex proteome to significantly reduce the concentration differences in between proteins such as plasma, need to be adopted to increase visualisation of proteins (Righetti *et al.* 2005). The first steps towards sharing and standardization of proteomic and mass spectral data has begun through projects such as MIAPE by the Human

Proteomics organisation. This will facilitate data comparison between labs and will allow the importance of proteomics in nutrition to be fully realised.

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