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1 **Mass spectrometry based proteomics as foodomics tool in research and**
2 **assurance of food quality and safety**

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17
18 **ABSTRACT**

19 *Background:* As a comprehensive discipline that studies food and nutrition, foodomics requires
20 reliable qualitative and quantitative information about the food proteome component in order to
21 extract new, integrative information from the complex multivariable space of omics. This
22 information is necessary to achieve a higher level of understanding of processes in food science
23 and technology, consequently new functions of food and improved markers of food quality and
24 safety and transform the concept of food safety.

25 *Scope and Approach:* We are presenting mass spectrometry (MS) based proteomic approaches
26 that are being utilized in different proteomic studies, not necessarily only in the field of
27 foodomics. Current analytical capabilities of MS-based proteomics together with sample
28 preparation procedures and quantification strategies, and recent technical developments were
29 presented.

30 *Key Findings and Conclusions:* MS-based proteomics enables the analysis of different aspects of
31 proteins and provides a variety of approaches for reliable quantification of individual proteins
32 and/or food proteome. This is a complex field and its successful implementation requires a

33 dedicated analyst, thorough design of sample preparation procedure, proper selection of an MS
34 technique and approach, adequate type of mass spectrometer, and both thorough data analysis
35 and validation. Improvements in the technology of mass spectrometry are continuously
36 expanding capabilities of MS-based proteomics.

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38 *Keywords: foodomics, proteomics, mass spectrometry, food quality, food safety*

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40 List of abbreviations: AQUA, absolute quantification; CID, collision-induced dissociation; CV,
41 coefficient of variation; DDA, data dependent acquisition; DIA, data independent acquisition;
42 ESI, electrospray ionization; HCD, high energy collision dissociation; HRMS, high-resolution
43 mass spectrometry; ECD, electron capture dissociation; ETD, electron transfer dissociation;
44 iTRAQ, isobaric tag for relative and absolute quantification; LC, liquid chromatography; LFQ,
45 label free quantification; LIT (LTQ), linear ion trap; MALDI, matrix assisted laser desorption
46 ionization; MRM, multiple reaction monitoring; NMR, nuclear magnetic resonance
47 spectroscopy; OT, orbitrap; PPI, protein – protein interactions; PRM, parallel reaction
48 monitoring; PTM, posttranslational modification; QqQ, triple-quadrupole; SILAC, stable isotope
49 labelling with amino acids in cell culture; SRM, selected reaction monitoring; TMT, tandem
50 mass tag; TOF, time of flight;

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56 Highlights:

57 Mass spectrometry based proteomics, as one of the main technologies in foodomics, is presented.

58 MS-based proteomic approaches in food research, quality and safety control are introduced.

59 Improvements in sample preparation for mass spectrometry analyses are described.

60 Critical points for application of MS-based proteomics in food analysis are analysed.

61 Future directions of MS-based proteomics are discussed.

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80 **1. Introduction**

81 Contemporary food research provides evidence that food serves not just to fulfil basic dietary
82 needs, but to actively influence a healthy life, playing a pivotal role in both the improvement of
83 its quality, and as natural prevention against a wide range of diseases (D'Alessandro, 2012).
84 Researchers are increasingly aware of the differences among individuals at the genome,
85 proteome and microbiome levels, and the existence of an individual's optimal metabolic space is
86 also becoming evident, which in combination with environmental factors result in an individual's
87 phenotype. Advances in understanding of the molecular basis of disease susceptibility and food
88 quality together with interaction of food with the individual's metabolic space, introduced the
89 concept of personalized nutrition as a part of personalized medicine (Noecker, 2016;
90 Vimalleswaran, 2015).

91 Analytical approaches based on MS are one of the fastest growing methodologies in food
92 analysis. The application of proteomics in food research, quality control (sensory characteristics,
93 nutritional value, product traceability), authenticity assessment (adulterations, geographic origin,
94 presence of GMO) and safety control (toxins formed from proteins during food processing,
95 bacterial and fungal toxins, allergens, antinutrients, foodborne pathogens, prions, biopesticides,
96 GMO food) of food of animal and plant origin has been extensively reviewed (Agrawal, 2013;
97 Andjelković, 2017; Chassy, 2010; Colgrave, 2017; Cunsolo, 2014; D'Alessandro, 2012; Fasoli,
98 2015; Martinović, 2016; Piras, 2016; Sauer, 2015; Tedesco, 2014).

99 Over twenty year old field of MS-based proteomics became one of the main pillars of the group
100 of technologies with the common name "omics". Proteomics methods complement their genomic
101 and transcriptomic counterparts, but also provide additional biological information that is not
102 accessible by genomics and transcriptomics (Mann, 2013; Zubarev, 2013). Moreover, proteomics

103 also provide information that is necessary for the understanding metabolome. Proteomics is of
104 special importance for foodomics since from the moment when the genome has lost its active
105 influence, and when food proteins are subjected to different factors that are possibly not
106 genetically regulated, as well as to the food processing conditions. All above listed factors can
107 significantly alternate protein properties and interactions with components in the food matrix.
108 Research of the food proteome and its alterations influenced by plant and animal strains
109 (genetics), different conditions of plant and animal growth, pests, food processing and storage
110 conditions, enable establishment of correlations between the food proteome and quality
111 parameters (nutritional value, sensory characteristics, suitability for processing, safety,
112 sustainable growth, etc.). These correlations will enable tailoring of sensory, nutritional and
113 technological properties of food, personalized diet, and identification of quality and safety
114 control parameters (individual protein or protein networks as quality markers).

115 Future research will explore interactions between many different layers (genome, transcriptome,
116 proteome, peptidome, metabolome, microbiome) of both, food and consumer. Out of this
117 complex picture a way to extract meaningful information from a multilayer interaction network
118 should be paved. It is very important to minimize the increasing risk to become flooded with
119 wrong or biased information. A way of systematic organization of data blocs coming from
120 different sources was presented in order to assess the analytical performance, to improve the
121 interpretability, prevent systematic errors, and finally, unreliable results (Chassy, 2010; Skov,
122 2014).

123 The MS-based proteomics generate a vast amount of data. In order to support research efforts to
124 understand the complexity of food MS-based proteomic data should be collected and submitted
125 to data repositories according to guidelines. This strategy will enable the use of data in a more

126 efficient manner, in order to provide the quality of interpretation and the comparability of
127 analysis. A draft of guidelines was already published for the largest proteomic attempt – The
128 Human Proteome Project (HPP) (Deutsch, 2016). In a broader sense, research of food quality
129 and safety at the level of proteins is the investigation of the interactions between two proteomes:
130 the food proteome and the proteome of a particular consumer. Thus, HPP is the systematic and
131 comprehensive project that provides basis for future complementary proteomic projects or
132 expanding of the HPP to include the topic of food. When combined with the current complexity
133 of MS-based proteomic approaches and in order to be systematically addressed, the impact of the
134 microbiome on the complex food proteome and vice versa, as well as the interactions between
135 the proteomes of the food-microbiome-consumer requires the use of enormous resources in order
136 to be systematically addressed. Hence, the construction of a human proteome and food proteome
137 resource must be a long-term process. The creation of large-scale proteomic methods already
138 paved the way to new types of questions concerning both protein expression and modification
139 profiling. These methods are now poised to address how protein expressions or modifications
140 will change as a function of disease and further in regard to foodomics as a function of factors
141 that influence food quality and safety. Sequencing the genome was perhaps the easiest part, and
142 making sense of the constantly moving and changing picture of the proteome (and later,
143 metabolome) will require a lot of time, effort and creativity (Nilsson, 2010a).

144 In this review available MS-based proteomic technologies, approaches and critical points
145 important for MS-based proteomic experimental design are summarized.

146 **2. MS-based proteomics**

147 Various analytical methods can be used for the investigation of biological systems at the protein
148 level. High degree of proteome complexity and low abundance of many important proteins in the

149 investigated sample require the use of highly specific and sensitive analytical techniques.
150 Availability of genome sequence databases, technical and conceptual advances, as well as
151 advances in bioinformatics, made MS a method of choice for proteome studying (Aebersold,
152 2016). The definition of the proteome changed in line with technical and methodological
153 developments (Ahrens, 2010; Mann, 2013). The complete proteome comprises all expressed
154 proteins in a sample (cells, tissue, or a whole organism), their proteoforms, modification states
155 and organization in macromolecular assemblies, in a given time and space. At the moment it is
156 still not possible to achieve such a vast and in-depth view into the proteome, and it is
157 questionable whether we can achieve it at all, at least with the currently available technologies
158 (Ahrens, 2010). Further technical advances and developments of new bioinformatic tools will
159 certainly open new opportunities to work toward this goal in the near future (Aebersold, 2016).
160 Nevertheless, depending on the question posed, it may not be always necessary to have such a
161 vast and deep view for a given experiment (Michalski, 2011).
162 Mass spectrometry based proteomic techniques are applied to obtain data important for
163 understanding both the structure and function of proteins (Fig.1). Examples of application of
164 MS-based proteomics in research and assurance of food quality and safety are provided in Table
165 1.

166 **2.1. MS-based proteomics in analysis of PTMs**

167 More than 300 already known post-translational modifications (www.abrf.org/delta-mass) are
168 one of the sources of proteome complexity (Walsh, 2005). Glycosylation is a highly abundant
169 PTM and about 50% of all proteins are glycosylated. Large numbers of glycan structures (www.glycobase.nibr.ie)
170 are formed by a combination of relatively small numbers of monosaccharide
171 units. Different physicochemical properties of proteins and glycan components of glycoproteins

172 requires different technical and methodological approaches for their analysis by MS (Scott,
173 2011). Glycoproteomics is a sub-group of MS-based proteomic approaches specialized for the
174 analysis of glycoproteins, Fig.1. At the current level of technology, the high complexity of the
175 glycoproteome is hard to elucidate solely by use of glycoproteomic approaches. Consequently, a
176 special group of approaches called glycomics was established, Fig.1-2. Glycomics technologies
177 attempt to define the structure and quantify the complete set of glycans of one cell, tissue or
178 organism (Mechref, 2013). The use of glycomics technologies gives an insight into the enormous
179 capacity of glycans, and the information coding leads us towards understanding of the sugar code
180 in living systems (Gabiuis, 2015). The growing importance of glycomics in foodomics research
181 also supports the fact that the most important allergens in food belong to the group of
182 glycoproteins (Andjelković, 2017; Leonard, 2005; Li, 2016).

183 The next widely investigated PTM is phosphorylation of hydroxyl amino acids of proteins.
184 Phosphorylated proteins are directed links in signalling networks between upstream kinases and
185 downstream transcription factors altering DNA expression profiles and many other biochemical
186 regulatory mechanisms. Phosphorylation is a dynamic PTM arising in a very short time period,
187 within minutes, as a result of activity of kinases. Moreover, it may also disappear within minutes
188 due to activity of the phosphatases. Physiological importance of this PTM, its vulnerability and
189 available technical level of methods for analysis of protein phosphorylation, especially MS
190 inspired a special proteomic discipline – phosphoproteomics. It strategically uses and further
191 develops selective approaches and bioinformatic tools for the investigation of phosphorylated
192 proteins, their position in interaction networks and the flow of biological signals throughout
193 these networks (Riley, 2016). The response of cells to different stimuli is one of key information
194 about signalling and it can be quantified using phosphoproteomics.

195 MS-based proteomic approaches allow for the identification and quantitation of thousands of
196 PTM sites in a single experiment (Doll, 2015). Currently, sensitive and dedicated MS-based
197 proteomic strategies are available only for a few different types of PTM (Doll, 2015; Venne,
198 2014). A comprehensive and simultaneous view of PTMs and PTM sites is important to get
199 insight into the mechanisms of regulation of protein function by multi-PTM interplay (Pejaver,
200 2014; Venne, 2014). Protein conformation can be modulated by PTMs, hence protein turnover,
201 localization, PPI and enzyme activity can be affected.

202 As presented in Table 2, the complexity of the food proteome is additionally increased by the
203 number of non-enzymatic and enzymatic PTMs. Also, PTMs can arise as a result of reactions
204 with food matrix components, additives, microbial enzymes and toxins, or other components
205 emerged during food processing and storage/transport. These modifications are usually not
206 stoichiometric, and are often in low abundance. However, they can have a significant
207 physiological role, whether it is in triggering of food allergies, or other harmful processes such as
208 food poisoning or carcinogenesis. Moreover, they are important for technological properties, as
209 well as for nutritional and sensory food properties. Investigation of enzymatic and non-
210 enzymatic PTMs that have occurred after food processing or storage, showed that PTMs can be
211 used as parameters for food quality control (Agrawal, 2013; Arena, 2017; Paredi, 2012).
212 Consequently, there is a need for the design of enrichment and data analysis strategies for the
213 detection and assessment of these modifications. This fact is very important for experimental
214 design when MS-based proteomics or other high-throughput approaches are used. If not perfectly
215 designed, such kind of investigation can be a source of significant analytical problems and
216 systematic errors. A particular problem in discovery proteomics is data analysis. A large number
217 of possible PTMs of food proteins cannot be easily included in search engines since that requires

218 strong computers and significantly increases analysis time. Simplified strategies cover a few
219 predicted PTMs included as variable modifications, and error-tolerant searches are allowed
220 during a sequence database search. However, once identified and validated as a marker of food
221 quality and safety, a particular PTM can be routinely quantified using a targeted proteomic
222 approach (*vide infra*).

223 **2.2. Conformational proteomics**

224 Conformational changes are essential for biological functions of proteins, the investigation of
225 structural dynamics is necessary to understand their physiological role. A group of proteins
226 known as “intrinsically disordered” are so dynamic that under physiological conditions they are
227 characterized by a complete or an almost complete lack of an ordered structure (Dunker, 2013).
228 Information obtained by MS can significantly complement *in vitro* 3D structure elucidation with
229 X-ray crystallography, electron microscopy, NMR and other spectroscopic methods (Leney,
230 2017; Vandermarliere, 2013). MS-based methods need only a small amount of sample enabling
231 the investigation of naturally occurring structures and PTMs which are complicated for
232 purification and/or expression. Moreover, MS enables the probing of structural transitions of
233 proteins in a complex biological environment on a large scale (Feng, 2014). Mass spectrometry
234 combined with methods such as hydrogen-deuterium exchange (Rand, 2014), limited proteolysis
235 (Feng, 2014), cross-linking (Leitner, 2016; Sinz, 2014) and MS footprinting (chemical surface
236 labelling) can also provide information about surface accessibility of amino acids
237 (Vandermarliere, 2016). This information can be used to characterize protein conformation, as
238 well as the 3D structure of macromolecular protein assemblies and PPI. Consequently, the MS
239 can give an additional contribution to the investigation of macromolecular protein complexes

240 including their composition, stoichiometry, copy number, topology and dynamics (Wohlgemuth,
241 2015).

242 **2.3. Analysis of protein-protein interactions**

243 Protein functions can be modulated in different ways, including their expression level, PTMs,
244 metabolites, and PPI. MS-based proteomics offers many different approaches for PPI
245 identification (Smits, 2016). Comprehensive and reproducible information about PPI is necessary
246 to build networks of interacting molecules (genes – their products – proteins – cofactors –
247 messenger molecules – metabolites) as a basis for quantitative/dynamic analyses (Bensimon,
248 2012). Dynamics of these networks that are modulated at different time scale by internal (*e.g.*
249 genomic alterations) and external factors (*e.g.* environmental, food) is believed to determine the
250 phenotype (Aebersold, 2016). Building of interaction networks, their analysis and comparison,
251 fusion, harvesting of information from networks and other sources in order to understand how
252 network capture and process information induce a specific response or phenotype, are complex
253 tasks for bioinformatics scientists (Gligorijević, 2016). Concerning food safety and quality,
254 network includes, as external factors, food processing and storage conditions, as well as the
255 effect of food on its consumer.

256 **2.4. Chemical proteomics**

257 Protein quantities do not necessarily represent their activities. A toxic protein whose toxicity is
258 based on its enzyme's activity, or an enzyme whose activity is of a particular interest for food
259 processing or food value can be present in a denatured or inactivated form. Hence, measuring of
260 total amount will not provide information about quantity of active form. Quantitative information
261 about enzyme active form can be obtained by MS-based proteomics by means of activity-based

262 protein profiling (ABPP). Chemical probes are specially designed to contain a reactive group that
263 targets a specific enzyme class by forming an irreversible covalent bond and a reporter group
264 that enables their enrichment and/or detection (Wright, 2016). ABPP are developed for different
265 enzyme classes (Cravatt, 2008), such as proteases (Fonović, 2008), kinases and phosphatases
266 (Ruprecht, 2015), glycosydases, cytochrome P450. Proteins in low abundance that exhibit
267 enzyme activity, can especially be assessed by ABPP (Cravatt, 2008).

268 Chemical probes can be designed based on small molecules derived from natural products or
269 food and used for identification of their interaction partners in proteome (Wright, 2016).
270 Proteomic approaches for the same purpose, but without chemical labelling of small molecule,
271 are also described (Guo, 2017).

272 **3. Sample preparation**

273 Proper sampling, sample preparation and sample handling are seen as among the main problem
274 areas of proteomics (Nilsson, 2010b). The division of labour between those who control
275 sampling and sample preparation and those who work with the MS can result in serious data
276 quality issues, due to the lack of accountability and management of the data generated (Nilsson,
277 2010b) and lack of standardization (Poste, 2011). Protocol should be thoroughly discussed
278 between MS-based proteomics specialists and team members (biologists, chemists, food
279 technologists, nutritionist, clinicians, etc.). Correct sampling requires knowledge of complex
280 structure of the food matrix and the corresponding analytical protocol (Jongenburger, 2015).
281 Sampling methods are not equally useful, and there is no universal method, thus making the
282 choice during experimental design is a critical point (Skold, 2013). After sampling, a proteome
283 can be rapidly modified by released (or activated) proteases, other protein- modifying enzymes
284 (*e.g.* phosphatases) and metabolites (*e.g.* polyphenols, glutathione, organic acids) which are

285 naturally present in analysed food material. Sample preparation itself can be a significant bias of
286 a foodomic method since the accuracy of the experimental data, and both their reproducibility
287 and confidence essentially depend on the accuracy and quality of the clean-up technique.
288 Consequently, sampling, sample handling and sample preparation has to be known and
289 considered during interpretation of MS data (Skold, 2013). MS-based proteomic specialist is the
290 one who must ensure high fidelity of the platform through routinely performing checks and
291 balances (Bittremieux, 2017; Nilsson, 2010b). For this purpose, different standards should be in
292 regular use to control purification efficiency (Gallien, 2014), protease digestion (Lebert, 2015),
293 peptide retention time during LC (Beri, 2015; Escher, 2012), as well as the ionization efficacy.
294 Automated pipelines for quality control of LC-MS/MS are in development (Bereman, 2015a).
295 An overview of techniques in food analysis and sample preparation was recently published
296 (Galloa, 2016).

297 MS-based proteomic techniques can detect about 2000 proteins in 0.1 ug of protein digest.
298 However, detection of more than 9000 proteins requires more than 1 mg ($>5 \times 10^6$ average human
299 cells) of starting material (Mallick, 2010; Zubarev, 2013). Protein extraction is a first step in
300 sample preparation, and it is a great source of variation, its design strongly influencing proteomic
301 results (Dhabaria, 2015). An number of different procedures usually involve physical
302 homogenisation (mechanical force, ultrasound (Kadama, 2015), increased pressure,
303 heating/cooling, etc.), the use of buffers, detergents, chaotropic agents for protein extraction and
304 solubilisation, application of reducing agents, as well as different substances for enzyme
305 inhibition (Bodzon-Kulakowska, 2007). Some of these, alone or in combination with others, can
306 introduce chemical or physical changes of amino acids such as carbamylation or the Maillard
307 reaction (Kollipara, 2013). Sample preparation in foodomics is the topic of a comprehensive

308 overview about sample preparation in foodomics that also includes complex approach by use of
309 different proteolytic enzymes and other methods for protein cleavage before further analysis by
310 LC-MS/MS (Andjelković, 2017).

311 **4. Acquisition of mass spectra in bottom-up proteomics**

312 The term MS-based proteomics is used most often in the context of bottom-up approach (Fig.2).
313 In bottom-up approach proteins are extracted and digested by a sequence-specific protease.
314 Resulting highly complex mixture of peptides is supplied to mass spectrometer in the form,
315 amount and time frame that will enable successful examination using a particular MS technique.
316 Currently, mass spectra can be acquired in three different ways: data dependent, targeted and
317 data independent acquisition (Fig.3).

318 **4.1. Data dependent acquisition**

319 The most common MS-based proteomic approach in food investigation is the shotgun bottom-up
320 approach, also known as “discovery based” (Zhang, 2013), Fig.2. In this approach, an adequately
321 extracted and prepared sample containing a protein mixture is digested to peptides with trypsin
322 or with other site-specific proteases (Switzar, 2013). The obtained peptide mixture is
323 subsequently separated into fractions by LC or other separation techniques, such as capillary
324 electrophoresis. These fractions are either on-line electrosprayed (LC-ESI-MS/MS), or off-line
325 spotted and after addition of proper matrix ionised by MALDI (LC-MALDI-MS/MS), and
326 introduced into the corresponding mass spectrometer. In a further step, the generated ions are
327 scanned (MS scan) and in so-called data dependent acquisition (DDA) mode, usually 3-20 most
328 abundant (“top”) ions are selected by predetermined rules (dynamic exclusion, detection
329 window, charge state selection, base line subtraction etc.) in a time dependent manner (Fig.3).
330 Selected ions are then fragmented (CID, HCD, ETD, EThcD) (Frese, 2011). The EThcD

331 fragmentation technique is implemented into the latest hybrid mass spectrometers and
332 substantially improves the level of peptide backbone fragmentation (Frese, 2012). The generated
333 fragments are subsequently analysed by an MS/MS scan. In the final step, the data from MS and
334 MS/MS scans are matched with sequence databases, by means of different algorithms, in order to
335 identify peptides and, subsequently, proteins (Audain, 2017; Ting, 2015). Interpretation of
336 shotgun proteomic data is a complex task that can lead to ambiguities in determining the
337 identities of sample proteins (Nesvizhskii, 2005). Information obtained at the level of peptides
338 has to be analysed in detail in order to make correct conclusions about protein/s (isoforms,
339 proteoforms, sequence redundancy) that contain particular peptide (Nesvizhskii, 2005).

340 **4.1.1. Capacity of shotgun bottom-up approach**

341 MS-based proteomics shows a brilliant development over last 10 years. Seven years ago a
342 standard shotgun LC-MS/MS analysis of a single cell line lysate, over 3-h, elute more than
343 100,000 isotope features, likely representing peptides, and they could be detected with a HRMS
344 scan. However, just 16% of these were targeted by an MS/MS scan and only 9% of them were
345 identified by “top 10” DDA (Michalski, 2011). With a standardized analysis platform, the
346 achieved degree of repeatability and reproducibility was about 70-80% (Tabb, 2010). A higher
347 degree of reproducibility (>90%) with this technology could be achieved by repeating the
348 analysis 7-10x until virtually every peptide has been observed, however, only when results of all
349 subsequent runs have a very high overlap with already collected data (Mitchell, 2010).
350 Application of a longer LC gradient or intensive sample fractionation with subsequent analysis
351 of each fraction could also improve the reproducibility of DDA. However, this strategy requires
352 more time and increases costs (Domon, 2010). Major limiting properties of mass spectrometers

353 for the detection of a larger number of peptides in a short time are: sequencing speed (duty
354 cycle), sensitivity, and precursor ion isolation (Michalski, 2011).

355 Five years ago, an advanced commercial instrument under carefully optimized conditions could
356 identify more than 37,000 peptides (belonging to ~5,000 proteins) in a 4-h single dimension LC-
357 MS/MS run (Pirmoradian, 2013). This is about a half of the expressed proteome of an average
358 human cell line. Multidimensional protein identification technology (MudPIT; combination of
359 several separation techniques) (Fournier, 2007) could provide >10,000 proteins, but operational
360 costs, sample preparation and consumption, and working time of LC-MS/MS of more than 24-h
361 were still high (Pirmoradian, 2013). Latest Orbitrap Fusion MS system could analyse ~90% of
362 yeast proteome (~4500 proteins) in 1.5-h of nanoLC work (Hebert, 2014).

363 Mass spectrometers handle a proteome dynamic range of 4-5 orders of magnitude (Domon,
364 2010). However, the proteome dynamic range stretches over at least 6 orders of magnitude,
365 approaching 11 orders of magnitude in the best investigated case of blood plasma (Anderson,
366 2002). A wide dynamic range is one of the most challenging problems in MS-based proteomics
367 and it is still not satisfactory solved. The complexity of analysed peptide mixtures is increased by
368 the proteolytic background coming from ions of peptides that are results of an unspecific tryptic
369 (proteolytic) cleavage. Relative abundance of nonspecific peptide ions is about one order of
370 magnitude lower than the expected abundance of specific ones (Picotti, 2007). Proteolytic
371 digestion increases the dynamic range of signal intensities of peptides for at least one order of
372 magnitude (Zubarev, 2013). This is the intrinsic limitation of the shotgun technique that covers
373 low abundant peptides and impairs their identification (Picotti, 2007). A portion of generated
374 peptides can also be modified during sample preparation (Table 2). These modifications also
375 occur in an undefined fraction of peptides. That means that the modifications are not

376 stoichiometric. Moreover, there are chemical modifications like racemization or isomerization
377 (Table 2) of amino acid side chains that do not change the molecular mass but may influence
378 chromatographic behaviour. All listed modifications are lowering the amount of a particular
379 peptide (or a proteoform) and they also increase the complexity of an analysed mixture. Thus,
380 identification of both low abundant proteins and highly hydrophobic proteins is a complex task
381 that requires a specially designed sample preparation procedure, the choice of an optimal
382 proteomic approach, an optimal LC-MS/MS system and corresponding data analysis (Josić,
383 2007, 2014; Vučković, 2013; Zubarev, 2013).

384 **4.1.2. Future task**

385 The exclusive use of trypsin in proteomics could be a reason why our view of the proteome still
386 remains incomplete. For the sake of broadening this view, a parallel analysis with alternative
387 proteases or other cleavage strategies shall be considered in the future. This will enable to access
388 more information rich sequences important for the identification of protein isoforms and
389 proteoforms (Giansanti, 2016; Trevisiol, 2016). Up to date, LysargiNase has been evaluated for
390 its application in shotgun bottom-up proteomics (Tsiatsiani, 2017). It cleaves proteins at the N-
391 terminal side of Arg and Lys. Comparing to the products of tryptic digestion, these peptides
392 contain two protons, following ESI, positioned at the N-terminus. The consequence is a
393 completely different fragmentation pattern that provides additional structural information
394 (Tsiatsiani, 2017). Protection of Lys, by a chemical modification before trypsin digestion
395 restricts cleavage to Arg (except when it is followed by Pro) and it could also be an alternative to
396 the conventional trypsin digestion (Golghalyani, 2017). An even better might be achieved by use
397 of protease GingisREXTM that cleaves only the C-terminal side of Arg, regardless of Pro.

398 Stochastic nature of the precursor ion selection in DDA is biased toward the more abundant
399 component in the sample. The consequence is that the changes caused by single nucleotide
400 polymorphisms, mutations, splicing variants, some PTM's and other protein modifications are
401 mostly inaccessible. Additionally, the low sequencing speeds of mass spectrometers that are
402 applied for analyses cause additional problems with reproducibility of DDA (Domon, 2010;
403 Picotti, 2013). Application of dynamic exclusion in DDA maximizes the number of unique ions
404 to be isolated for fragmentation and MS/MS scan. In the same time, application of dynamic
405 exclusion strongly reduces the probability of isolation of a precursor ion at the apex of its
406 chromatographic elution peak. The repercussion is a negative effect on the quality of the
407 acquired spectra and consequently, on both qualitative and quantitative analysis. Efforts to
408 overcome these problems have led to the development of targeted and directed approaches
409 (Domon, 2010).

410 **4.2. Targeted acquisition**

411 Targeted proteomic approaches (“hypothesis driven proteomic approaches”) were developed for
412 accurate and reproducible quantification of any protein or a set of proteins in any biological
413 sample (Picotti, 2013). First targeted approach was based on a MS acquisition technique called
414 selected reaction monitoring (SRM) developed on QqQ mass spectrometers. The first step in a
415 targeted approach is the selection of proteins that are objectives of a particular research
416 (formulation of a hypothesis) and that will be targeted with the MS analysis. For each selected
417 protein, at least one peptide with 2-4 characteristic transitions (pair of m/z values associated with
418 the precursor and one of its fragment ions) is carefully selected for monitoring (Brusniak, 2011;
419 Carr, 2014; Colangelo, 2013). When more than one transition is monitored, SRM is known as
420 multiple reaction monitoring (MRM). If food proteins are analysed, selection of peptides for

421 SRM additionally has to take in consideration modification of proteins presented in Table 2. The
422 total number of targeted peptides that can be reliably quantified is limited by the time available
423 for the transition scan at a particular mass spectrometer, the amount of a particular peptide ion
424 and by the chromatographic elution profile of a peptide. Thus, the total number of proteins that
425 can be reliably quantified in one LC-MS/MS run on QqQ is around 100 (Picotti, 2013).
426 Sensitivity of SRM allows the identification of down to 100 or ~7500 copies per cell in non-
427 fractionated yeast or human proteomes respectively, in a 1-h LC run (Picotti, 2013; Ebhardt, 2012;
428 Picotti, 2009). The limit of detection of SRM can be further improved by sample fractionation or
429 enrichment. This enables the detection of low abundant proteins, isoforms and proteoforms (Liu,
430 2013). Better management of time available for mass spectra acquisition during an LC run can be
431 achieved using scheduled SRM. In this technique the detection window for a particular peptide
432 opens only around its elution time and as a consequence the number of quantified proteins can be
433 increased (Escher, 2012).

434 A **directed MS approach** consists of two distinct experiments. In the first run the sample is
435 analysed in MS mode and peptides are identified by bioinformatics tools. An integrative
436 approach providing any additional information from genome-wide mRNA analysis or
437 metabolome data would be extremely beneficial (Vehmas, 2014). In the second run, only
438 peptides of interest are included in the list of ions which will be selected for fragmentation and
439 MS/MS scan. Consequently, directed MS approach focuses ion selection on non-redundant and
440 information-rich precursor ions. Essentially, with better management of available mass
441 spectrometer time, the duty cycle was directed to the peptides of interest (Schmidt, 2008), and
442 not exclusively to the most intensive ions. Thus, partially removing bias toward more abundant
443 components increases the depth of analysis and the reliability of quantification (Domon, 2010;

444 Schmidt, 2008). Benefits of directed MS in proteomics can only be realized if the sample
445 complexity is high in relation to the duty cycles available, and if the samples are available in
446 amounts that allow multiple LC–MS/MS runs (Schmidt, 2008). This is the case in food research
447 where samples are of high complexity and their amounts are usually not restricted.

448 **4.3. Data independent acquisition**

449 Numerous technical advances, like the development of HRMS, improvements in ion collection,
450 transmission optics and selection, and increase of scan speed, enabled the development of data
451 independent acquisition (DIA) technique. DIA uses a defined window size to systematically, in
452 repeated cycles during a chromatographic run, sample precursor ions from an analysed mass
453 range. All sampled precursor ions are simultaneously fragmented and MS/MS spectra are
454 collected (Bilbao, 2015; Chapman, 2014). The window size in different DIA approaches ranges
455 from a wide window comprising the whole mass range to a very narrow one, down to 0.4 Th. In
456 this way DIA approaches generate very complex MS/MS spectra, especially when wide
457 precursor isolation windows were used. DIA does not provide direct link between the precursor
458 ion and its fragment ions. Hence, the analysis of data acquired with DIA require complex
459 processing strategies as well as software solutions and large informatics resources (Bilbao, 2015;
460 Egertson, 2015; Escher, 2012). Once acquired data with DIA can be later refined and re-mined.
461 Many different DIA approaches are developed and implemented on different mass
462 spectrometers, Table 3. Each of listed approaches has unique characteristics and choosing one
463 over the other involves trade-offs in sensitivity, selectivity and number of samples analysed in
464 certain time frame. Compared to DDA strategies in shotgun proteomics, DIA increased the
465 visibility of low abundant and isobaric peptides, and as a consequence increased the
466 identification of proteins containing these peptides. The dynamic range of DIA spans over 4-6

467 orders of magnitude (Aebersold, 2016; Gillet, 2012), up to 8 with CSI-PaCIc DIA (Table 3).
468 Selective enrichment and purifications of peptides containing PTMs is a usual strategy for their
469 analysis, (Fig. 2). However, this is not possible for all PTMs and DIA methods could be applied
470 as an alternative.

471 **5. Alternatives to MS-based bottom-up proteomic approach**

472 Alternative and complementary approaches to MS-based bottom-up proteomic approaches are
473 top-down and middle down MS-based approaches.

474 In top-down proteomics (Fig.2), intact proteins or large protein fragments (>15 kDa) are
475 analysed by MS scan to obtain the molecular weight of a particular protein and its proteoforms.
476 The MS scan is performed on an ultra-HRMS, in first line FT-ICR and Orbitrap. However, TOF
477 mass analysers can also be used for certain top-down analyses. Upon MS scan the protein ions
478 are fragmented and fragments are analysed in a consequent MS/MS scan. Fragmentation
479 techniques such as ETD/ECD are of special importance, since they are able to preserve the
480 information about PTM's. Combination of ECD with CID (EtcID) or HCD (EthcD) can provide
481 high protein sequence coverage that increases the confidence in proteoform identification
482 (Brunner, 2015; Frese, 2012). Infrared multiphoton dissociation or ultraviolet photodissociation
483 exhibited an additional potential to improve *de novo* protein sequencing (Shaw, 2016). Due to
484 the current inefficiency of MS/MS techniques, limit of protein size that can be efficiently
485 sequenced in a time-constraint experiment is around 50 kDa (Laskay, 2013). The MS scan of
486 intact protein contains a large number of highly charged ions which originate from the same
487 molecular species. In the presence of proteoforms and other proteins, isolation of single ion
488 species is a hardly feasible task and the resulting MS/MS spectra are highly convoluted (Laskay,
489 2013). Hence, the top-down approach requires intensive fractionation to obtain less complex

490 protein mixtures (Tran, 2011; Zhang, 2014). The characterization of proteoforms in identified
491 proteoform–spectrum matches still relies mainly on manual annotation (Kou, 2016), but recent
492 technological advances of mass analysers towards ultra-high resolution, as well as new
493 algorithms for data processing, are now making top-down the method of choice when studying
494 complex proteoforms (Kou, 2016; Vyatkina, 2015).

495 Middle down proteomics analyse large peptides with a size of about 7-15 kDa, compared to less
496 than 3 kDa in bottom-up approach, and 3-7 kDa in extended bottom-up proteomics. This strategy
497 combines the advantages of bottom-up and top-down approaches and minimizes their
498 shortcomings (Laskay, 2013). The advantage of longer peptides is their larger chance to contain
499 higher charge, resulting in a more efficient ECD/ETD. The result of increased fragmentation
500 efficiency is the higher sequence coverage. Additionally, larger peptides have a higher chance to
501 contain individual mutations and PTM's hence it is beneficial for the identification of isoforms
502 and proteoforms. Moreover, the complexity of a peptide mixture is reduced when longer peptides
503 are generated, rendering more time for mass analysers during an LC run, and resulting in a
504 higher resolution for larger number of peptides. Consequently, the analysis of large proteins that
505 still cannot be analysed by top-down approach, as well as the analysis of proteoforms that are
506 difficult to separate, can benefit from the middle down approach (Zhang, 2014). Peptides of
507 average mass >3.4 and >6.3 kDa can be generated by the Sap9 (Srzentić, 2014) and OmpT (Wu,
508 2012) proteases respectively.

509 **6. Quantitative high-throughput proteomics**

510 Mass spectrometry can provide relative quantitative information (a quantitative comparison of
511 proteins between different samples expressed in a fold of change of a particular protein between

512 analysed samples) or an absolute (exact concentration or number of individual protein/s in a
513 given sample). Different technologies and approaches were developed for this purpose, Table 4.
514 The importance of MS-based quantitative proteomics is emphasized with recent studies
515 demonstrating that the identity of cells and tissues seems to be determined primarily by the
516 abundance at which they express their constituent proteins, and perhaps by the manner how the
517 proteins are organized in the proteome, rather than by the presence or absence of certain proteins
518 (Aebersold, 2016).

519 Quantitative changes of the food proteome may be influenced by different factors such as plant
520 or animal strain, genetic engineering, growing conditions, quality of animal food, particular food
521 processing, storage conditions, etc. Consequently, individually or collectively these factors can
522 influence food quality and/or safety (Agrawal, 2013; D'Alessandro, 2012; Piras, 2016; Tedesco,
523 2014).

524 Biological variations of interest in proteomics are often very small. Consequently, the
525 requirements for the precision of quantitative proteomic experiments are very high (Lyutvinskiy,
526 2013). Accurate mass measurement is of a major concern in the development of MS-based
527 proteomics (Aebersold, 2016; Tabb, 2010). MS-based proteomics is an example of a multivariate
528 process with the potential for highly correlated variables as performance declines (Bereman,
529 2015). Major sources of variability are extraction, instrumental variance, instrumental stability
530 and protease digestion (Piehowski, 2013). Every source of variation can be detrimental to the
531 extract of meaningful biological information. Different tools are available to monitor the system
532 suitability and to improve proteomic workflows (Bereman, 2015; Walzer, 2014). The importance
533 of this topic is promoted by HUPO within the proteomic standard initiative specialized quality
534 control working group that has been founded in order to define a community data format and

535 associated controlled vocabulary terms, facilitate data exchange and archiving of MS derived
536 quality control metrics (<http://www.psidev.info/groups/quality-control>). Quality control methods
537 and standard operating procedures are necessary parts of proteomics, unfortunately still
538 frequently neglected. The evaluation of performance can be achieved by sharing and exchanging
539 results between reference laboratories, by use of common samples, different methodologies and
540 experimental designs (Bereman, 2014; Tabb, 2016). If laboratories deploy different
541 methodologies to analyse the differences between the same two complex samples, then they will
542 assuredly see differences in the gene or protein lists produced by the two technologies (Tabb,
543 2016).

544 Quantitative comparison of proteins from different samples (relative quantification) is mostly
545 performed by two basic technologies (Ong, 2005), Table 4.

546 1. Directly comparing ion abundance between samples while applying different strategies
547 to minimize different mass spectrometer response and differences in sample preparation; this
548 group of approaches are known as label-free quantification (LFQ) (Cox, 2014; Neilson, 2011);

549 2. Upon labelling (metabolic, chemical or enzymatic) of proteins (or peptides) in each of
550 the few analysed samples using unique stable isotopes, samples are mixed and analysed together
551 in the same run; this technology is known as stable isotope dilution (Ciccimaro, 2010). Most
552 known approaches based on the labelling technology are listed in Table 4.

553 **6.1. Label-free strategies**

554 In label free proteomics, quantification can be performed using different approaches at the MS
555 scan level (area under the curve or signal intensity measurement) or at the MS/MS scan level
556 (spectral counting) (Ahrné, 2013; Arike, 2014; Neilson, 2011). Comparative studies of LFQ

557 approaches demonstrated certain advantages the two former approaches (Ahrné, 2013; Arike,
558 2012; Dowle, 2016).

559 In a label-free quantitative proteomic experiment each sample is prepared and analysed
560 independently. Discrepancy in sample preparation procedure (sampling, sample handling,
561 extraction efficiency, protease digestion efficacy, clean-up efficacy, etc.) is a source of
562 variations. These variations can be reduced by procedure design, training of personnel and
563 application of robotics. Variability of instrument response (*e.g.* variation in the current of ESI
564 during an LC-MS/MS run, ion suppression during ionization, reproducibility of retention times,
565 fluctuation in instrumental sensitivity) can be reduced by use of internal standards (Lyutvinskiy,
566 2013; Piehowski, 2013). In order to standardize sample preparation, the extent of digestion and
567 performance of an LC-MS/MS system, a universal protein standard called DIGESTIF was
568 developed (Lebert, 2015). However, the use of internal standards introduces another level of
569 complexity and increases the costs of the analysis (Lyutvinskiy, 2013). Instrumental response
570 can be corrected by *in silico* post-processing. This significantly improves the accuracy and
571 precision of LFQ (Cox, 2014; Lyutvinskiy, 2013; Tu, 2017). An MS-based proteomic
572 experiment will highly benefit from every step undertaken towards the reduction or correction of
573 the coefficient of variation (CV). Reduction of CV improves efficacy (probability to detect
574 quantitative difference between proteomes) by reducing time and costs of experiments
575 (Lyutvinskiy, 2013). Detailed optimization of parameters for LFQ could provide relative
576 quantification of up to 2900 proteins in 4-h for samples analysed in triplicate (Pirmoradian,
577 2013).

578 **6.2. Label-based strategies**

579 Concerning both precision and accuracy, SILAC is the “golden standard” for relative
580 quantification in discovery proteomics (Lyutvinskiy, 2013; Zhang, 2013). This approach,
581 described in 2002 for *in vitro* non- isobaric metabolic labelling, was subsequently adjusted for
582 many different applications, including *in vivo* labelling of animals and plants, as well as tissue
583 analysis (Ong, 2007; Table 4). In SILAC method, labelled samples are concomitantly analysed
584 by LC-MS/MS and relative quantitative comparison is obtained from the MS scan. High
585 accuracy of this method is a consequence of several facts: mixing of differently labelled samples
586 early in the experimental process, which enables simultaneous sample preparation and LC-
587 MS/MS analysis; the fact that every protein is quantified several times through multiple MS
588 scans and usually (85%) through multiple peptides; and 100% efficiency of metabolic labelling.
589 High costs of an *in vivo* labelling were reduced with the development of spike-in SILAC, while
590 high complexity of tissue proteomes was addressed with the use of “super SILAC”, for
591 references see Table 4.

592 When TMT/iTRAQ are used, relative quantitative information is obtained when peptides that are
593 chemically labelled with an isobaric tag upon fragmentation release low m/z reporter ions. These
594 reporter ions are compared in the subsequent MS/MS scan. Peptides labelled with an isobaric tag
595 have the same mass in an MS scan, thus they do not increase the complexity of the MS scan
596 spectrum as it is the case with peptide labelling with non-isobaric tags and SILAC. Comparing to
597 MS-based quantification, a higher dynamic range can be assessed with MS/MS based
598 quantification (Rauniyar, 2014). Currently, the advantage of TMT/iTRAQ over SILAC is
599 multiplexing that allows a simultaneous quantitative analysis of 10 samples (Weekes, 2014).
600 Application of triple-stage MS (MS3) was proposed to eliminate interference in iTRAQ, which
601 comes from near-isobaric ions that are co-isolated and co-fragmented with the selected peptide

602 (Ting, 2011). However, application of MS3 takes a penalty in sensitivity. When the MultiNoch
603 MS3 method developed on the Orbitrap Velos mass spectrometer was applied, the sensitivity of
604 MS3 could be increased 10x without a significant loss of selectivity (McAlister, 2014). Another
605 method that eliminates accuracy and precision problems of TMT/iTRAQ exploits high accuracy
606 and resolution of modern mass spectrometers using complement TMT fragment ion clusters as
607 an alternative to reporter TMT fragment ions (Wühr, 2012).

608 Chemical dimethyl labelling introduces non-isobaric tag to peptides that allow quantification at
609 the level of an MS scan. The main advantages of dimethyl labelling are inexpensive reagents, as
610 well as the labelling procedure that can be easily automated, performed on-line, and applied in a
611 high-throughput manner (Altelaar, 2013). Labelling with different isobaric tandem mass tags or
612 with non-isobaric mass tags is performed at the level of peptides, after protease digestion of a
613 sample. This includes more independent sample preparation steps (that can be significant sources
614 of variability) before mixing differently labelled samples for further simultaneous sample
615 preparation and LC-MS/MS analysis.

616 Additionally, special isobaric tags are developed for cysteine and PTMs, such as carbonyl and
617 glycan modifications (Rauniyar, 2014).

618 Neutron encoding (NeuCode) is a new quantification approach which benefits from ultra-high
619 resolution of FT-ICR and Orbitrap mass analysers that is capable of distinguishing a mDa mass
620 difference in a neutron mass signature of different isotopes (Hebert, 2013). Neutron mass
621 signatures can be encoded in metabolically, chemically or enzymatically introduced tags. Using
622 neutron encoding, the multiplexing capacity of SILAC was increased, currently up to 9-plex in
623 NeuCode SILAC. It combines the accuracy of SILAC with multiplexing capacity of isobaric
624 tagging and does not suffer from the problem of precursor interference which reduces the

625 accuracy of isobaric tagging (Rose, 2013). The number of mechanisms for increasing
626 multiplexing capacity (number of samples which can be simultaneously analysed) of isobaric
627 reagents was described (Braun, 2015; Frost, 2015). Results of the latest study evaluating the
628 reproducibility of LFQ and iTRAQ showed an encouraging degree of conformity that suggests a
629 degree of the maturity of proteomic methods (Tabb, 2016).

630 **6.3. Absolute quantification with isotope labelled standards**

631 Absolute quantitative information about individual proteins is a prerequisite for modelling
632 studies of biochemical systems (Malmström, 2009), for understanding the complex interplay of
633 the system (food or consumer) components or interplay between components of two systems
634 (food and consumer), as well as for the quality and safety control of food. As in the case of
635 relative quantification, absolute quantification strategies are based on the technology of stable
636 isotope dilution (Brun, 2009; Villanueva, 2014). Essentially, signal intensity of a mass
637 spectrometer is standardized with a known concentration of an isotope labelled reference. This
638 reference can be produced by labelling a standard sample containing a known amount of peptides
639 of interest tagged with isobaric (or non-isobaric) tags. Also, the reference can be an isotope
640 labelled peptide of identical structure as the peptide of interest. The reference isotope labelled
641 peptide can be supplied to the sample using different strategies: AQUA, QconCAT or PSAQ
642 (reference in Table 4).

643 A synthetic isotope labelled peptide can be added into the sample before protease digestion or
644 immediately before LC-MS/MS analysis. This strategy is known as AQUA (absolute
645 quantification). If a subsequent immunoaffinity step is performed, in order to enrich the low
646 abundance peptide of interest, the strategy is known as SISCAPA (Stable Isotope Standards and

647 Capture by Anti-Peptide Anti-bodies) (Anderson, 2004). The selection of peptides that will be
648 used as internal standards is important for the success of quantification, and different methods
649 are developed for this purpose (Brusniak, 2011; Evers, 2011). Peptide standards for AQUA may
650 also contain PTMs if these are of interest for quantification. Quantification accuracy of AQUA
651 strategy may be compromised by incomplete protease digestion of proteins or if pre-fractionation
652 steps are used in sample preparation. Thus, efficiency of digestion has to be monitored, as well
653 as the yield (recovery) after each fractionation step (Gallien, 2014).

654 Quantification concatamer (QconCAT) strategy uses polypeptide constructs (concatmers)
655 composed of many different isotope labelled peptides. These constructs are biologically
656 synthesized. Concatmers are added to the sample before protease digestion and protease releases
657 isotope labelled peptides. In the same time, these peptides serve as a control for digestion and
658 also as internal standards for quantification. QconCAT enables simultaneous quantification of
659 several proteins and is less cost-intensive than AQUA. However, this method also suffers from
660 the same problem caused by an insufficient protease digestion efficiency and possible low yield
661 during pre-fractionation.

662 In order to provide a reliable absolute quantification, a good internal standard should behave as
663 closely as possible as the analysed protein, following it throughout all sample preparation steps.
664 As a part of the strategy for overcoming problems with accuracy caused by protease digestion
665 efficiency and sample pre-fractionation, protein standard absolute quantification (PSAQ) strategy
666 uses isotope labelled intact proteins. Providing multiple peptide standards for target protein,
667 PSAQ provides also higher efficacy. Production costs of protein standards are limiting factors for
668 a wide application of this strategy. However, cell free systems for protein synthesis now offer a
669 way to reduce them (Madono, 2011). High-throughput system for synthesis of protein standards

670 for quantification of highly hydrophobic transmembrane proteins was also developed (Takemori,
671 2015). Nevertheless, problems with synthesis of protein standards containing particular PTMs
672 are still present.

673 When introduced, S/MRM acquisition technique offered the highest sensitivity, a wide dynamic
674 range, and the high selectivity, highest reproducibility and precision that are necessary for
675 absolute quantification. Quantitative information in SRM is given by the intensity of the
676 fragment ion of targeted transition. Nowadays, main problems with SRM are the number of
677 proteins that can be simultaneously monitored and selectivity due to the resolution of QqQ mass
678 spectrometers. The attempt to increase the number of proteins quantified by SRM requires the
679 sacrifice of some selectivity or sensitivity. The addition of a third stage of mass filtering to MRM
680 with multiple reaction monitoring cubed (MRM³) method on a hybrid QqQ/LIT mass
681 spectrometer (Fortin, 2009) increased the discrimination of interferences compared to regular
682 S/MRM and limit of quantification. Increased selectivity with MRM³ has as a consequence a
683 lower number of proteins that can be simultaneously analysed, since a part of the available
684 cycling time was sacrificed to a third stage of mass filtering (Gallien, 2013).

685 In order to increase the number of absolutely quantified proteins, relative and absolute
686 quantification strategies were combined. In one combination, a small group of specially selected
687 proteins was quantified using AQUA SRM. These anchor proteins are used as further calibration
688 points for translating relative abundance measurements into absolute abundance measurements,
689 for a large part of the proteome (Malmström, 2009).

690 Strategies for absolute quantification can be combined with SILAC for absolute quantification of
691 individual proteins in complex mixtures. As a result, “absolute SILAC” (Hanke, 2008) and
692 PrEST SILAC (Zeiler, 2012) were developed.

693 Absolute quantification may be performed by use of isobaric and non-isobaric mass tags, if
694 peptide standards are used as one, or more, channels in a multiplexed analysis.

695 High resolution of the hybrid quadrupole-Orbitrap mass spectrometer enabled development of an
696 approach called parallel reaction monitoring (PRM) (Gallien, 2013). PRM uses a 2-24 Th wide
697 isolation windows on a quadrupole for selecting ions for fragmentation and recording
698 fragmentation products in the Orbitrap mass analyser. High resolution of OT increases selectivity
699 by separating ions of interest from interferences leading to partially improved quantification
700 performance compared to SRM (Gallien, 2014a; Gallien, 2013). By use of internal standards and
701 the on-the-fly adjustment of acquisition parameters, it is possible to organize acquisition time in
702 PRM and quantify 600-1000 peptides in complex samples in ~1-h (Bourmaud, 2016; Gallien,
703 2015).

704 **6.4. Data independent acquisition in quantitative high-throughput proteomics**

705 The problem with precursor ion isolation window width that is required to ensure sufficient
706 sensitivity in mass spectrometers (Michalski, 2011) makes that MS/MS spectra, that are obtained
707 when samples of high complexity analysed, is actually a mixture (“chimera”) spectra due to the
708 co-isolation of all ions (originating from co-eluted peptides in the previous LC or capillary
709 electrophoretic separation) falling within the mass isolation windows width (Luethy, 2008). This
710 problem with selectivity may cause difficulties in the following peptide identification since it
711 may increase the complexity of MS/MS spectra (Houel, 2010). Additionally, if fragments of co-
712 isolated ions are similar to the fragments of the selected peptide they will also impair
713 quantification accuracy, and this problem is more pronounced if mass spectrometers with low
714 resolution are used. The level of interference this creates depends on abundances of analysed

715 peptides. Taking in to account these facts, DIA makes an attempt to take advantage of these
716 facts.

717 The DIA provide the possibility to overcome limitations of S/MRM and PRM in absolute
718 quantification. The use of this acquisition technique substantially increases the number of
719 proteins that can be simultaneously quantified; it simplifies the experimental design and provides
720 a flexible post acquisition data analysis. Extraction of quantitative information from data
721 acquired with DIA (DIA fragment ion maps) can be performed with a targeted or an untargeted
722 approach (Egertson, 2015; Li, 2015; Röst, 2014; Ting, 2015; Tsou, 2015).

723 In targeted extraction (peptide-centric matching approach), spectral libraries are used to
724 mine DIA fragment ion maps for constellations of signals that precisely correlate with the known
725 coordinates of a targeted peptide, thus uniquely identifying the peptide in the map. Coordinates
726 that spectral libraries contain are: retention time information and, reference MS/MS spectra with
727 relative intensities of ions (Egertson, 2015; Gillet, 2012; Rosenberger, 2014). Retention time
728 normalization has to be performed for each run according to reference peptides, in order to
729 enable a comparison of the analysed sample and peptide library (Escher, 2012; Parker, 2015;
730 Röst, 2014). This allows for acquired data to be analysed in the same way as by SRM by targeted
731 data extraction of transitions of interest (Egertson, 2015; Gillet, 2012; Parker, 2015). Available
732 software types for peptide-centric matching are Open SWATH, Skyline, Spectronaut, PeakView,
733 and SwathProphet. DIA permits quantification of (at least) as many compounds as those
734 typically identified by regular shotgun proteomics with the accuracy and reproducibility of SRM
735 across many samples (Gillet, 2012). Generation of spectral libraries is a current limitation of the
736 targeted data extraction approach. The problem with coverage and the quality of spectral libraries
737 is particularly pronounced with new food samples and complex food samples containing new

738 proteins, their isoforms and proteoforms, especially those proteoforms generated upon food
739 processing. Therefore, targeted data processing of complex food samples is currently restricted
740 and has to be combined with other approaches, such as iterative data mining based on theoretical
741 knowledge to account for previously undetected proteins (Bilbao, 2015; Gillet, 2012). However,
742 once developed, spectral libraries for a particular food sample will be permanently available.

743 In untargeted data extraction (spectrum-centric matching approach), real time correlation,
744 based on the retention time between the MS signal (precursors) and the MS/MS signal
745 (fragments), is performed (Ting, 2015; Tsou, 2015). In that way, the established relationship
746 between the precursor and corresponding fragments enables searching and matching with
747 sequence databases in the same way as DDA spectra. Different software is available for
748 spectrum-centric matching (PLGS, DIA-Umpire, MSPLIT-DIA, Group-DIA).

749 The SWATH MS is a combination of DIA and targeted data analysis, developed on a QqTOF
750 mass spectrometer, which vastly extends the number of proteins that can be quantified in
751 complex sample (Gillet, 2012). The size of the sampling window for precursor ions in SWATH
752 MS is $25(+1)$ Th. Recently, attempts were made to adjust the sampling window size to the
753 density of precursors across the mass range in order to increase selectivity, depth of coverage and
754 data quality. Using SWATH MS, 2500 proteins of yeast were quantified in a 3-h LC-MS/MS run
755 with reproducibility, precision and accuracy comparable to S/MRM (Selevsek, 2015). The same
756 analysis with S/MRM would take 48-h. The SWATH MS demonstrates high sensitivity (detected
757 >300 proteins more than Western blot) (Selevsek, 2015).

758 **6.5. Selection of quantification strategy, quality control and validation**

759 Many different MS-based quantification approaches were developed. There is no ‘one-size-fits-
760 all’ proteomic strategy that can be used to address all biological questions (Mallick, 2010).

761 Consequently, an adequate choice of quantitative approach is important for the success of an
762 MS-based proteomic analysis. In order to make the correct choice it is necessary to be well
763 versed in the technology and know the limitations and the advantages of MS-based approaches
764 (Domon, 2010; Mallick, 2010). Moreover, the selection should consider factors such as the type
765 of sample (source and complexity), the number of samples, necessary accuracy and
766 reproducibility, available personnel and equipment, and finally, both the available time and total
767 costs.

768 Quality control is an integral part of high-throughput MS-based proteomic experiments.
769 Inadequate validation or absence of any validation was blamed for wrong conclusions of many
770 high-throughput proteomic studies (Mitchell, 2010), and in combination with problems in
771 reproducibility, that were caused by reckless and incorrect application of this technology, it also
772 was a source of scepticism towards proteomics (Editorial, 2008; Nilsson, 2010b). The main
773 sources of these irregularities are sample preparation, sample handling, data analysis and data
774 evaluation (Nilsson, 2010b). When these tasks are divided between different professions, without
775 consultation and coordination with specialist for MS-based proteomics who best know the
776 limitations and pitfalls of the technology, and who should also take care about all quality control
777 steps and provide practical instructions about data interpretation, they can become a serious
778 source of problems (Bell, 2009; Nilsson, 2010b). Consequently, successful proteomic analysis
779 should be performed in a systematic, accurate and reproducible manner.

780 Antibody-based techniques are standards for the validation of MS-based proteomic experiments
781 (radioimmunoassay, immunoblot, ELISA, immunofluorescence etc.). Moreover, validation can
782 be performed with other methods such as cryo-electron tomography or morphological
783 measurements at the single-cell level (Malmström, 2009). However, high sensitivity and

784 selectivity of SRM make this technique known as “the mass spectrometrists’ ELISA”
785 (Aebersold, 2013; Picotti, 2013). The advantage that SRM offers over antibody-based techniques
786 is a fast and cost-effective assay development. The main problems with commercially available
787 antibodies are that they may not work effectively or that they are not available for a particular
788 protein of interest. The complex nature of protein and food matrix modifications may evoke
789 cross-reactivity or reduced affinity in antibody-based techniques. Both can lead to an over- or
790 under-estimation of a particular protein (Koeberl, 2014). Moreover, different protein isoforms, as
791 well as proteoforms cannot be easily distinguished by use of antibodies (Picotti, 2013). MS-
792 based quantification provides a possibility to establish metrological traceability which enables a
793 meaningful comparison of results among laboratories across the globe (Cryar, 2013; Smit, 2014).
794 All of the mentioned advantages of SRM lead to a proposal for the validation of antibody based
795 techniques with SRM (Aebersold, 2013; Nilsson, 2010a) and the SRM approach is now also in
796 use for the validation of orthogonal proteomic approaches (Selevsek, 2015).

797 **7. Recent technical developments important for MS-based proteomics**

798 The quality and reliability of qualitative and quantitative information obtained from a sample in
799 MS-based proteomics, are particularly influenced by the skill of the analyst, the sample
800 preparation procedure, selected MS technique and approach, the type of mass spectrometer used,
801 and data analysis (Mitchell, 2010). MS-based proteomics are still driven by advances in both
802 chromatographic and MS technology (Helm, 2014). Eight years ago, two main properties of
803 mass spectrometers, sequencing speed (cycling time – number of spectra per second (Hz)) and
804 ion current (efficiency of ionisation and ion transmission to detector) were seen as main limiting
805 parameters for the development of shotgun bottom-up proteomics (Michalski, 2011; Mitchell,

806 2010). Since then, different technical improvements tackling these two parameters were
807 commercialized within new LC-MS/MS systems.

808 The mostly employed LC-MS/MS system in shotgun proteomics is nanoESI-LTQ-Orbitrap.
809 During the last five years, the commercial hybrid OT MS has doubled its speed and increased its
810 resolution. Currently, tribrid OT mass spectrometers achieve 20 Hz with ultra-high resolution of
811 500,000 (at 200 m/z) and accuracy better than 1ppm. However, the amount of ions that can be
812 trapped in OT is still a limiting factor for achieving higher dynamic range (Aebersold, 2016).
813 While commercial QqTOF systems can achieve scanning speed of 100 Hz, their resolution is for
814 an order of value lower, with accuracy up to 1ppm. Mass spectra obtained on QqTOF under such
815 high speed usually do not contain a sufficient number of fragment ions to enable productive
816 peptide identification (Helm, 2014; Meier, 2016). However, in recent years, the number of
817 improvements in technology (improved collision cell, orthogonal accelerator scheme, reflectron,
818 and detector) made QqTOF resolution and accuracy compatible with shotgun bottom-up
819 proteomics (Beck, 2015). Both high resolution and high speed are advantageous properties, but
820 at the current technical level, their combination in a single mass spectrometer is still reversely
821 proportional. High resolution and high accuracy are advantageous properties crucial for shotgun,
822 while sequencing speed and the amount of usable ions are very important for targeted
823 proteomics.

824 Development of ion mobility spectrometry (IMS) introduced an additional dimension of
825 separation to the standard m/z scans. IMS separates ion based on their size and shape (size of
826 collisional cross section). Ion separation by IMS is fast (~100Hz) (Helm, 2014). Incorporation of
827 IMS in a QqTOF, after the collision cell, provided MS systems which have an improved duty
828 cycle, therefore, improved sensitivity, up to 10-fold. Consequently, faster data acquisition

829 improved peptide identification and quantification (Distler, 2016; Helm, 2014). Recently, a
830 trapped ion mobility spectrometry (TIMS) device was incorporated in a QqTOF before the first
831 quadruple (Meier, 2016). Synchronization of the quadruple with TIMS enables the accumulation
832 and “elution” of accumulated ions, while quantification capacity is preserved. This can result in a
833 better signal-to-noise ratio and provides additional separation of precursor ions, which minimizes
834 the problem with precursor ion isolation (*vide supra*). The application of method called Parallel
835 accumulation - serial fragmentation on TIMS-QqTOF MS system increased MS/MS scan speed
836 12-20x without losing sensitivity, providing a 10-fold gain in shotgun proteomics (Meier, 2016).

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845 **8. References**

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1460 **Figure captions**

1461 Fig. 1. Contribution of proteomics to foodomics.

1462 Fig. 2. Current MS-based proteomic workflow, from the first step – material sampling to the last
1463 step – data analysis. Different sample preparation techniques can be combined with different
1464 MS-based proteomic approaches, as it is depicted by arrows, in order to design a method for a
1465 particular analytical problem.

1466 Fig. 3. Techniques for acquisition of mass spectra in high-throughput bottom-up proteomics.

Table 1

A) Examples of application of MS-based proteomics in food research and assurance of food quality and safety

MS-based proteomic app.	Application in foodomics	Reference
High-throughput proteomics	Identification of orange proteome	Lerma-García, M. J., D'Amato, A., Simó-Alfonso, E. F., Righetti, P. G., & Fasoli, E. (2016). Orange proteomic fingerprinting: From fruit to commercial juices. <i>Food Chemistry</i> , 196, 739-749.
	Bottom-up Identification and comparison of proteomes of milk whey from different animals	Yang, Y., Bu, D., Zhao, X., Sun, P., Wang, J., & Zhou, L. (2013). Proteomic Analysis of Cow, Yak, Buffalo, Goat and Camel Milk Whey Proteins: Quantitative Differential Expression Patterns. <i>Journal of Proteome Research</i> , 12, 1660–1667.
	Top-down Characterization of allergenic 2S albumin and its proteoforms in Hazelnut cultivars	Korte, R., Happe, J., Brümmer, I., & Brockmeyer, J. (2017). Structural Characterization of the Allergenic 2S Albumin Cor a 14: Comparing Proteoform Patterns across Hazelnut Cultivars. <i>Journal of Proteome Research</i> , 16, 988-998.
	Middle-down	
Identification of primary structure of protein and proteoforms	Characterization of Mustard 2S albumin allergens	Hummel, M., Wigger, T., & Brockmeyer, J. (2015). Characterization of Mustard 2S Albumin Allergens by Bottom-up, Middle-down, and Top-down Proteomics: A Consensus Set of Isoforms of Sin a 1. <i>Journal of Proteome Research</i> , 14, 1547–1556.
	Identification of structural changes of milk Gal d 1 allergen upon lipid peroxidation	Nikolić, J., Nešić, A., Čavić, M., Đorđević, N., Anđelković, U., Atanasković-Marković, M., Drakulić, B., & Gavrović-Jankulović, M. (2017). Effect of malondialdehyde on the ovalbumin structure and its interactions with T84 epithelial cells. <i>Biochimica et Biophysica Acta (BBA) - General Subjects</i> , 1861, 126-134.
PTM	Glyco-proteomics Characterization of glycoproteome of wheat flour albumins and its potential effect on wheat beer quality	Dedvisitsakul, P., Jacobsen, S., Svensson, B., Bunkenborg, J., Finnie, C., & Hägglund, P. (2014). Glycopeptide Enrichment Using a Combination of ZIC-HILIC and Cotton Wool for Exploring the Glycoproteome of Wheat Flour Albumins. <i>Journal of Proteome Research</i> , 13, 2696-2703.
	Phospho-proteomics Influence of phosphoproteome changes on meat quality	Huang, H., Larsen, M. R., Palmisano, G., Dai, J., & Lametsch, R. (2014). Quantitative phosphoproteomic analysis of porcine muscle within 24 h postmortem. <i>Journal of Proteomics</i> , 106, 125-139.
Conformational proteomics	Investigation of correlation between	Nyemb, K., Jardin, J., Causeur, D., Guérin-Dubiard, C., Dupont, D., Rutherford, S. M., & Nau, F. (2014). Investigating the impact of

		aggregate morphology and digestibility of ovalbumin	ovalbumin aggregate morphology on in vitro ovalbumin digestion using label-free quantitative peptidomics and multivariate data analysis. <i>Food Research International</i> , 63, 192-202.
Protein – protein interactions		Identification of 14-3-3 proteins interaction partners in rice proteome	Zhang, Z., Zhang, Y., Zhao, H., Huang, F., Zhang, Z., Lin, W. (2017). The important functionality of 14-3-3 isoforms in rice roots revealed by affinity chromatography. <i>Journal of Proteomics</i> , 158, 20-30.
Chemical proteomics		Identification of curcumin interaction partners in human proteome	Abegg, D., Frei, R., Cerato, L., Prasad Hari, D., Wang, C., Waser, J., & Adibekian, A. (2015). Proteome-Wide Profiling of Targets of Cysteine reactive Small Molecules by Using Ethynyl Benziiodoxolone Reagents. <i>Angewandte Chemie Int. Ed.</i> 54, 10852–10857.
B) Examples of different acquisition modes			
Data dependent acquisition	“Top 8”	Identification of allergens and glycation products in thermally processed peanut	Hebling, C. M., McFarland, M. A., Callahan, J. H., & Ross, M. M. (2013). Global Proteomic Screening of Protein Allergens and Advanced Glycation Endproducts in Thermally Processed Peanuts. <i>Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry</i> , 61, 5638-5648.
	“Top 20”	Identification of beer proteome	Grochalová, M., Konečná, H., Stejskal, K., Potěšil, D., Fridrichová, D., Srbová, E., Ornerová, K., & Zdráhal, Z. (2017). Deep coverage of the beer proteome. <i>Journal of Proteomics</i> , 162, 119-124.
Targeted acquisition	SRM / MRM	Detection of wheat contamination in foods	Colgrave, M. L., Goswami, H., Byrne, K., Blundell, M., Howitt, C. A., & Tanner, G. J. (2015). Proteomic Profiling of 16 Cereal Grains and the Application of Targeted Proteomics To Detect Wheat Contamination. <i>Journal of Proteome Research</i> , 14, 2659–2668.
		Identification of banned processed animal proteins in meat and bone meal	Marbaix, H., Budinger, D., Dieu, M., Fumière, O., Gillard, N., Delahaut, P., Mauro, S., & Raes, M. (2016). Identification of Proteins and Peptide Biomarkers for Detecting Banned Processed Animal Proteins (PAPs) in Meat and Bone Meal by Mass Spectrometry. <i>Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry</i> , 64, 2405-2414.
	PRM	Rapid detection of parasite (Anisakids) in fishery products	Carrera, M., Gallardo, J. M., Pascual, S., González, Á. F., & Medina, I. (2016). Protein biomarker discovery and fast monitoring for the identification and detection of Anisakids by parallel reaction monitoring (PRM) mass spectrometry. <i>Journal of Proteomics</i> , 142, 130-137.
Data independent acquisition	SWATH	Quantification of barley gluten in selectively bred barley lines	Colgrave, M. L., Byrne, K., Blundell, M., Heidelberger, S., Lane, C. S., Tanner, G. J., & Howitt, C. A. (2016). Comparing Multiple Reaction Monitoring and Sequential Window Acquisition of All Theoretical Mass Spectra for the Relative Quantification of Barley Gluten in Selectively Bred Barley Lines. <i>Analytical Chemistry</i> , 88, 9127–9135.
	WiSIM	Identification of tomato	Martin, L. B., Sherwood, R. W., Nicklay, J. J., Yang, Y., Muratore-Schroeder, T. L., Anderson, E. T., Thannhauser, T. W., Rose, J. K., &

		fruit proteins regulated by transcription factor CD2	Zhang, S. (2016). Application of wide selected-ion monitoring data-independent acquisition to identify tomato fruit proteins regulated by the CUTIN DEFICIENT2 transcription factor. <i>Proteomics</i> , 16, 2081-2094.
C) Examples of different quantification approaches and strategies			
LFQ	MS signal intensity measurement	Characterization of muscle tissue from farmed and wild fish	Chiozzi, R. Z., Capriotti, A. L., Cavaliere, C., La Barbera, G., Montone, C. M., Piovesana, S., & Laganà, A. (2018). Label-Free Shotgun Proteomics Approach to Characterize Muscle Tissue from Farmed and Wild European Sea Bass (<i>Dicentrarchus labrax</i>). <i>Food Analytical Methods</i> , 11, 292-301.
		Quantification of proteins that influence meet quality	Gallego, M., Mora, L., Aristoy, M. C., & Toldrà, F. (2016). The use of label-free mass spectrometry for relative quantification of sarcoplasmic proteins during the processing of dry-cured ham. <i>Food Chemistry</i> , 196, 437-444.
	MS/MS spectral counting	Authentication of processed meet products	Montowska, M., & Fornal, E. (2017). Label-free quantification of meat proteins for evaluation of species composition of processed meat products. <i>Food Chemistry</i> , 237, 1092-1100.
Metabolic labeling based relative quant.	SILAC	Studying of mechanisms of resveratrol action in cell	Alayev, A., Doubleday, P. F., Berger, S. M., Ballif, B. A., & Holz, M. K. (2014). Phosphoproteomics Reveals Resveratrol-Dependent Inhibition of Akt/mTORC1/S6K1 Signaling. <i>Journal of Proteome Research</i> , 13, 5734-5742.
	In vivo SILAC (SILAM)	Studying interaction between host and microbiome important for pre- or probiotic treatment	Oberbach, A., Haange, S. B., Schlichting, N., Heinrich, M., Lehmann, S., Till, H., Hugenholtz, F., Kullnick, Y., Smidt, H., Frank, K., Seifert, J., Jehmlich, N., & von Bergen, M. (2017). Metabolic in Vivo Labeling Highlights Differences of Metabolically Active Microbes from the Mucosal Gastrointestinal Microbiome between High-Fat and Normal Chow Diet. <i>Journal of Proteome Research</i> , 16, 1593-1604.
Chemical labeling based relative quant.	TMT / iTRAQ	Quantification of changes in proteome during fruiting process in <i>F. velutipes</i>	Liu, J. Y., Chang, M. C., Meng, J. L., Feng, C. P., Zhao, H., & Zhang, M. L. (2017). Comparative Proteome Reveals Metabolic Changes during the Fruiting Process in <i>Flammulina velutipes</i> . <i>Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry</i> , 65, 5091-5100.
	Dimethyl labeling	Characterization of muscle tissue from farmed and wild fish	Piovesana, S., Capriotti, A. L., Caruso, G., Cavaliere, C., La Barbera, G., Chiozzi, R. Z. & Laganà, A. (2016). Labeling and label free shotgun proteomics approaches to characterize muscle tissue from farmed and wild gilthead sea bream (<i>Sparus aurata</i>). <i>Journal of Chromatography A</i> , 1428, 193-201.
Enzym. labeling based	Proteolytic labeling with ¹⁸ O	Quantification of bovine and porcine gelatin	Sha, X. M., Tu, Z. C., Wang, H., Huang, T., Duan, D. L., He, N., Li, D. J., & Xiao, H. (2014). Gelatin Quantification by Oxygen-18 Labeling and Liquid Chromatography–High-Resolution Mass Spectrometry.

relative quant.		<i>Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry</i> , 62, 11840–11853.
Absolute quant.	AQUA	<p>Quantification of Pru av 2 allergen in sweet cherry and other food Ippoushi, K., Sasanuma, M., Oike, H., Kobori, M., & Maeda Yamamoto, M. (2016). Absolute quantification of Pru av 2 in sweet cherry fruit by liquid chromatography/tandem mass spectrometry with the use of a stable isotope-labelled peptide. <i>Food Chemistry</i>, 204, 129-134.</p> <p>Microfluidic – MS system for quantification of peanut allergens in complex food matrices Sayers, R. L., Gethings, L. A., Lee, V., Balasundaram, A., Johnson, P. E., Marsh, J. A., Wallace, A., Brown, H., Rogers, A., Langridge, J. I., & Mills, E. N. C. (2018). Microfluidic separation coupled to mass spectrometry for quantification of peanut allergens in a complex food matrix. <i>Journal of Proteome Research</i>, 17, 647-655.</p>
	QconCAT	<p>Quantification of proteins in spore coat of food contaminant <i>B.cereus</i> Stelder, S. K., Benito de Moya, C., Hoefsloot, H. C. J., de Koning, L. J., Brul, S., & de Koster, C. G. (2018). Stoichiometry, Absolute Abundance, and Localization of Proteins in the Bacillus cereus Spore Coat Insoluble Fraction Determined Using a QconCAT Approach. <i>Journal of Proteome Research</i>, 17, 903-917.</p>
	PSAQ	<p>Quantification of milk allergens in baked food samples Newsome, G. A., & Scholl, P. F. (2013). Quantification of Allergenic Bovine Milk αS1-Casein in Baked Goods Using an Intact 15N-Labeled Protein Internal Standard. <i>Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry</i>, 61, 5659-5668.</p>

Table 2.

Some examples of physical and chemical changes, introduced during food processing, food storage and sample preparation, of particular concern for MS based proteomic identification and quantification of food proteins or their proteoforms

-
- denaturation
 - aggregation
 - reduction of protein solubility in water due to structural changes of food matrix
 - physical separation and removal of proteins
 - unspecific and partial hydrolysis
 - partial deglycosylation
 - phosphorylation and dephosphorylation
 - degradation of other PTMs
 - activation or inactivation of enzymes
 - reduction of disulfide bonds, or their formation
 - formylation, methylation, acetylation (N-terminal amino acid, Lys)
 - chemical reactions between proteins and different constituents of food matrix
 - modification of proteins (on: Cys, His, Lys, Met, Phe, Trp, Tyr) with reactive molecular species (reactive oxygen species, reactive nitrogen species, reactive carbonyl species, reactive sulphur species)
 - carbonylation (Arg, Lys, Pro, Thr)
 - oxidation (most frequently of Met, Cys, Phe, His, Pro, Trp, Tyr)
 - hydroxylation (Val, Phe, Trp, Leu)
 - nitration (Trp, Phe, His, Tyr)
 - nitrozylation (Tyr,)
 - modification of proteins (on: Cys, His, Lys, Arg, Gln, Asn) by lipoxidation products
 - glycation of proteins (usually on Lys) with reducing sugars (Maillard reaction)
 - formation of acrylamide from Asn and its subsequent interaction with proteins
 - crosslinking (oligomerization and polymerization)
 - isomerization and racemization (Asp->isoAsp, L-Pro->D-Pro and other amino acids)
 - degradation of amino acids (most frequently deamidation of Asn->Asp and Gln-> Glu)
 - carbamylation by urea (N-terminal amino acid)
 - formation of dehydro and cross-linked amino acids such as dehydroalanine, methyldehydroalanine, beta-aminoalanine, lysinoalanine, ornithinoalanine, histidinoalanine, phenylethylaminoalanine, lanthionine, and methyl-lanthionine
-

Table 3.
Different data independent acquisition (DIA) setups

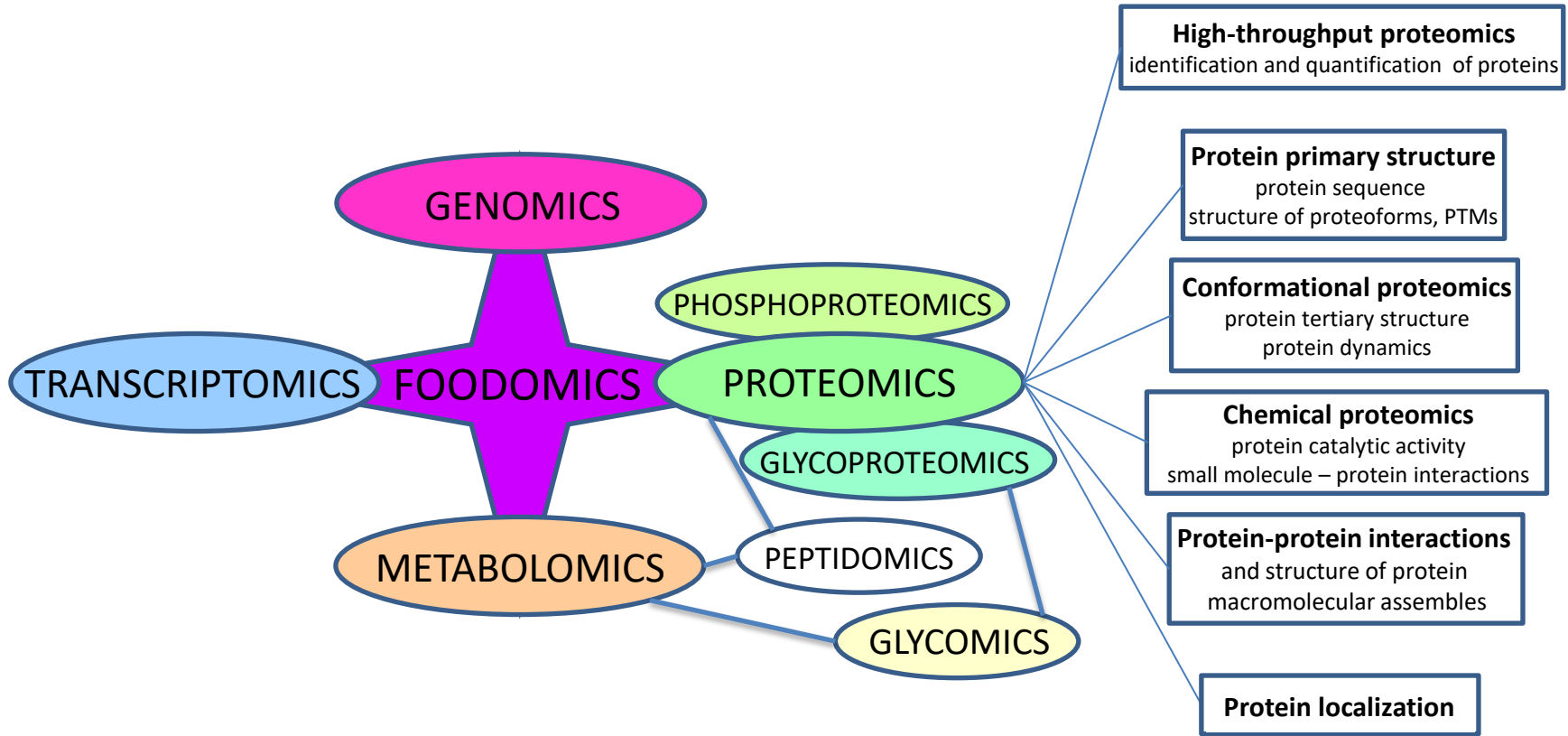
DIA setup	MS system	Reference
Multiplexed MS/MS	ESI-FT-ICR	Masselon, C., Anderson, G. A., Harkewicz, R., Bruce, J. E., Paša-Tolić, L., & Smith, R. D. (2000). Accurate Mass Multiplexed Tandem Mass Spectrometry for High-Throughput Polypeptide Identification from Mixtures. <i>Analytical Chemistry</i> , 72, 1918-1924.
Shotgun CID (Shotgun collision-induced dissociation)	μ LC- μ ESI-TOF μ LC- μ ESI-QIT μ LC- μ ESI-QqTOF	Purvine, S., Eppel, J. T., Yi, E. C., & Goodlett, D. R. (2003). Shotgun collision-induced dissociation of peptides using a time of flight mass analyzer. <i>Proteomics</i> , 3, 847-850.
Original DIA	μ LC- μ ESI-LTQ	Venable, J. D., Dong, M. Q., Wohlschlegel, J., Dillin, A., & Yates III, J. R. (2004). Automated approach for quantitative analysis of complex peptide mixtures from tandem mass spectra. <i>Nature Methods</i> , 1, 39-45.
MS^E	μ LC- μ ESI-High resolution QqTOF	Silva, J. C., Denny, R., Dorschel, C. A., Gorenstein, M., Kass, I. J., Li, G. Z., McKenna, T., Nold, M. J., Richardson, K., Young, P., & Geromanos, S. (2005). Quantitative proteomic analysis by accurate mass retention time pairs. <i>Analytical chemistry</i> , 77, 2187-2200.
p²CID (parallel collision-induced dissociation)	ESI-QqTOF	Ramos, A. A., Yang, H., Rosen, L. E., & Yao, X. D. (2006). Tandem parallel fragmentation of peptides for mass spectrometry. <i>Analytical Chemistry</i> , 78, 6391-6397.
AIF (All ion fragmentation)	nLC-nESI-Q-OT (Exactive)	Geiger, T., Cox, J., & Mann, M. (2010). Proteomics on an Orbitrap benchtop mass spectrometer using all-ion fragmentation. <i>Molecular & Cellular Proteomics</i> , 9, 2252-2261.
XDIA	ESI-LTQ-OT	Carvalho, P. C., Han, X., Xu, T., Cociorva, D., da Gloria Carvalho, M., Barbosa, V. C., & Yates, III, J. R. (2010). XDIA: improving on the label-free data-independent analysis. <i>Bioinformatics</i> , 26, 847-848.
PaCIFIC (Precursor acquisition independent from ion count)	nLC-nESI-LTQ nLC-nESI-LTQ-OT (XL)	Panchaud, A., Jung, S., Shaffer, S. A., Aitchison, J. D., & Goodlett, D. R. (2011). Faster, quantitative, and accurate precursor acquisition independent from ion count. <i>Analytical chemistry</i> , 83, 2250-2257.
MXS (multiplexing strategy DIA)	nLC-nESI-Q-OT (Exactive)	Egertson, J. E., Kuehn, A., Merrihew, G. E., Bateman, N. W., MacLean, B. X., Ting, Y. S., Canterbury, J. D., Marsh, D. M., Kellmann, M., Zabrouskov, V., Wu, C. C., & MacCoss, M. J. (2011). Multiplexed MS/MS for improved data-independent acquisition. <i>Nature Methods</i> , 10, 744-746.

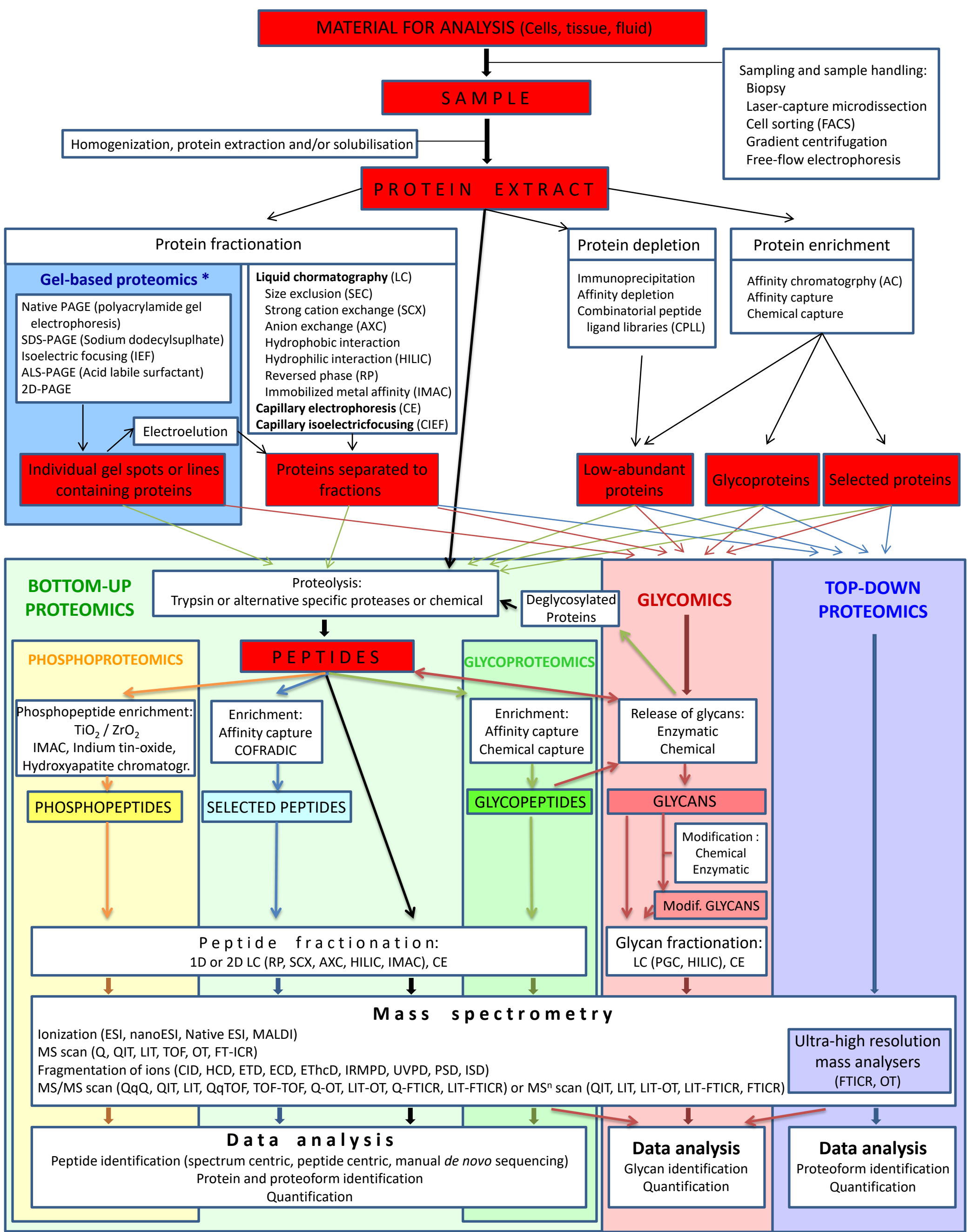
FT-ARM (Fourier transformation all ion monitoring)	nLC-nESI- LTQ-OT nLC-nESI- LTQ-FTICR	Weisbrod, C. R., Eng, J. K., Hoopmann, M. R., Baker, T., & Bruce, J. E. (2012). Accurate peptide fragment mass analysis: Multiplexed peptide identification and quantification. <i>Journal of Proteome Research</i> , 11, 1621-1632.
SWATH-MS (sequential windowed acquisition of all theoretical fragment ion mass spectra)	nLC-ESI- High resolution QqTOF	Gillet, L. C., Navarro, P., Tate, S., Rost, H., Selevsek, N., Reiter, L., Ron Bonner, R., & Aebersold, R. (2012). Targeted Data Extraction of the MS/MS Spectra Generated by Data-independent Acquisition: A New Concept for Consistent and Accurate Proteome Analysis. <i>Molecular & Cellular Proteomics</i> , doi: 10.1074/mcp.O111.016717.
HDMS^E (High definition MS ^E)	nLC-nESI- Q-TWIMS- TOF	Shliaha, P. V., Bond, N. J., Gatto, L., & Lilley, K. S. (2013). Effects of Traveling Wave Ion Mobility Separation on Data Independent Acquisition in Proteomics Studies. <i>Journal of Proteome Research</i> , 12, 2323-2339.
UDMS^E (Ultra-high definition MS ^E)	nLC-nESI- Q-TWIMS- TOF	Distler, U., Kuharev, J., Navarro, P., Levin, Y., Schild, H., & Tenzer, S. (2014). Drift time-specific collision energies enable deep-coverage data-independent acquisition proteomics. <i>Nature Methods</i> , 11, 167-170.
WiSIMDIA (wide selected- ion monitoring DIA)	nLC-nESI- Q-LIT-OT (Fusion, Fusion Lumos)	Kiyonami, R., Patel, B., Senko, M., Zabrouskov, V., Egertson, J., Ting, S., MacCoss, M., Rogers, J., & Hühmer, A. F. R. (2014). Large Scale Targeted Protein Quantification Using WiSIM-DIA on an Orbitrap Fusion Tribrid Mass Spectrometer. Thermo Scientific Application Note 600.
CSI PaCIFIC (captive spray ionization PaCIFIC)	nLC-nESI- CSI-LTQ- OT	Chapman, J. D., Edgar, J. S., Goodlett, D. R., & Ah Goo, Y. (2016). Use of captive spray ionization to increase throughput of the data-independent acquisition technique PaCIFIC. <i>Rapid Communications in Mass Spectrometry</i> , 30, 1101-1107.

Table 4. MS-based proteomic approaches and strategies for quantification of individual proteins and proteome.

LFQ (Label free quantification)		Area under the curve	Ahrné, E., Molzahn, L., Glatter, T., & Schmidt, A. (2013). Critical assessment of proteome-wide label-free absolute abundance estimation strategies. <i>Proteomics</i> , <i>13</i> , 2567-2578.
		MS scan level	Neilson, K. A., Ali, N. A., Muralidharan, S., Mirzaei, M., Mariani, M., Assadourian, G., Lee, A., van Sluyter, S. C., & Haynes, P. A. (2011). Less label, more free: approaches in label-free quantitative mass spectrometry. <i>Proteomics</i> , <i>11</i> , 535-553.
		Signal intensity measurement	Dowle, A., A., Wilson, J., & Thomas, J. R. (2016). Comparing the Diagnostic Classification Accuracy of iTRAQ, Peak-Area, Spectral-Counting, and emPAI Methods for Relative Quantification in Expression Proteomics. <i>Journal of Proteome Research</i> , <i>15</i> , 3550-3562.
Relative quantification		MS/MS scan level	Arike, L., & Peil, L. (2014). Spectral Counting Label-Free Proteomics. <i>Methods in Molecular Biology</i> , <i>1156</i> , 213-222.
		SILAC (Stable isotope labeling with amino acids in cell culture)	Ong, S. E., Blagoev, B., Kratchmarova, I., Kristensen, D. B., Steen, H., Pandey, A., & Mann, M. (2002). Stable isotope labeling by amino acids in cell culture, SILAC, as a simple and accurate approach to expression proteomics. <i>Molecular & Cellular Proteomics</i> , <i>1</i> , 376-386. Mann, M. (2014). Fifteen Years of Stable Isotope Labeling by Amino Acids in Cell Culture (SILAC). <i>Methods in Molecular Biology</i> , <i>1188</i> , 1-7.
		<i>In vivo</i> SILAC (SILAM)	Krüger, M., Moser, M., Ussar, S., Thievensen, I., Lubert, C. A., Forner, F., Schmidt, S., Zanivan, S., Fässler, R., & Mann, M. (2008). SILAC mouse for quantitative proteomics uncovers kindlin-3 as an essential factor for red blood cell function. <i>Cell</i> , <i>134</i> , 353-364. Zanivan, S., Meves, A., Behrendt, K., Schoof, E. M., Neilson, L. J., Cox, J., Tang, H. R., Kalna, G., van Ree, J. H., van Deursen, J. M., Trempus, C. S., Machesky, L. M., Linding, R., Wickström, S. A., Fässler, R., & Mann, M. (2013). In Vivo SILAC-Based Proteomics Reveals Phosphoproteome Changes during Mouse Skin Carcinogenesis. <i>Cell Reports</i> , <i>3</i> , 552-566.
Label-based quant.	Metabolic	Plant SILAC	Lewandowska, D., ten Have, S., Hodge, K., Tillemans, V., Lamond, A. I., & Brown, J. W. S. (2013). Plant SILAC: Stable-Isotope Labelling with Amino Acids of Arabidopsis Seedlings for Quantitative Proteomics. <i>PLOS One</i> , doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0072207 Matthes, A., Köhl, K., & Schulze, W. X. (2014). SILAC and Alternatives in Studying Cellular Proteomes of Plants. <i>Methods in Molecular Biology</i> , <i>1188</i> , 65-83.
		Super SILAC	Geiger, T., Cox, J., Ostasiewicz, P., Wisniewski, J. R., & Mann, M. (2010). Super-SILACmix for quantitative proteomics of human tumor tissue. <i>Nature Methods</i> , <i>7</i> , 383-385.

		Shenoy, A., & Geiger, T. (2015). Super-SILAC: current trends and future perspectives. <i>Expert Review of Proteomics</i> , 12, 13-19.
	Spike-in SILAC	Geiger, T., Wisniewski, J. R., Cox, J., Zanivan, S., Kruger, M., Ishihama, Y., & Mann, M. (2011). Use of stable isotope labeling by amino acids in cell culture as a spike-in standard in quantitative proteomics. <i>Nature Protocols</i> , 6, 147-157.
	Isobaric	TMT / iTRAQ Christoforou, A., & Lilley, K. S. (2011). Taming the isobaric tagging elephant in the room in quantitative proteomics. <i>Nature Methods</i> , 8, 911-913.
		Other Rauniyar, N., & Yates III, J. R. (2014). Isobaric Labeling-Based Relative Quantification in Shotgun Proteomics. <i>Journal of Proteome Research</i> , 13, 5293-5309.
	Chemical	Dimethyl labeling Boersema, P. J., Raijmakers, R., Lemeer, S., Mohammed, S., & Heck, A. J. R. (2009). Multiplex peptide stable isotope dimethyl labeling for quantitative proteomics. <i>Nature Protocols</i> , 4, 484-494. Lau, H. T., Suh, H. W., Golkowski, M., & Ong, S. E. (2014). Comparing SILAC- and Stable Isotope Dimethyl-Labeling Approaches for Quantitative Proteomics. <i>Journal of Proteome Research</i> , 13, 4164-4174.
		Non-isobaric mTRAQ DeSouza, L. V., Taylor, A. M., Li, W., Minkoff, M. S., Romaschin, A. D., Colgan, T. J., & Siu, K. W. (2008). Multiple Reaction Monitoring of mTRAQ-Labeled Peptides Enables Absolute Quantification of Endogenous Levels of a Potential Cancer Marker in Cancerous and Normal Endometrial Tissues. <i>Journal of Proteome Research</i> , 7, 3525-3534. Oppermann, F. S., Klammer, M., Bobe, C., Cox, J., Schaab, C., Tebbe, A., & Daub, H. (2013). Comparison of SILAC and mTRAQ Quantification for Phosphoproteomics on a Quadrupole Orbitrap Mass Spectrometer. <i>Journal of Proteome Research</i> , 12, 4089-4100.
	Enzymatic	Proteolytic labeling with ¹⁸ O Hajkova, D., Sekhar Rao, K. C., & Miyagi, M. (2011). Recent Technological Developments in Proteolytic ¹⁸ O Labeling. <i>Current Proteomics</i> , 8, 39-46.
Absolute quantification	Spike-in of isotope-labeled standards	AQUA (Absolute quantification) Gerber, S. A., Rush, J., Stemman, O., Kirschner, M. W., & Gygi, S. P. (2003). Absolute quantification of proteins and phosphoproteins from cell lysates by tandem MS. <i>Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences</i> , 100, 6940-6945.
		QconCAT (Quantification concatenamer) Beynon, R. J., Doherty, M. K., Pratt, J. M., & Gaskell, S. J. (2005). Multiplexed absolute quantification in proteomics using artificial QCAT proteins of concatenated signature peptides. <i>Nature Methods</i> , 2, 587-589.
		PSAQ (Protein standard for absolute quantification) Brun, V., Dupuis, A., Adrait, A., Marcellin, M., Thomas, D., Court, M., Vandenesch, F., & Garin, J. (2007). Isotope-labeled protein standards: toward absolute quantitative proteomics. <i>Molecular & Cellular Proteomics</i> , 6, 2139-2149.





PEPTIDES
(SAMPLE DIGESTED WITH PROTEASE)

ELECTROSPRAY IONIZATION

MASS ANALYSERS

QIT, LIT, QqTOF, Q-OT, LIT-OT, Q-LIT-OT, Q-FTICR, LIT-FTICR	QqQ
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DATA DEPENDENT ACQUISITION (DDA)

Top "n"
($n \leq 20$)

DATA INDEPENDENT ACQUISITION (DIA)

Different DIA setups are listed in Table 2

TARGETED DATA ACQUISITION

SRM / MRM, PRM

RAW DATA

RAW DATA

RAW DATA

UNTARGETED DATA EXTRACTION
SPECTRUM CENTRIC MATCHING APPROACH

TARGETED DATA EXTRACTION
PEPTIDE CENTRIC MATCHING APPROACH

IDENTIFIED and QUANTIFIED PEPTIDES

IDENTIFIED and QUANTIFIED PROTEINS

IDENTIFIED and QUANTIFIED PEPTIDES

IDENTIFIED and QUANTIFIED PROTEINS

Highlights:

Mass spectrometry based proteomics, as one of the four main sources of data in foodomics, are presented.

MS-based proteomic approaches applicable in food research, quality and safety control are described.

Improvements in sample preparation and in the technology of mass spectrometers are presented.

Critical points for application of MS-based proteomics in food analysis are described.

Continuously growing capabilities of MS-based proteomics and future directions are discussed.