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Gel-free shotgun proteomic analysis of human milk

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a r t i c l e i n f o

Article history: Received 1 December 2011 Received in revised form 2 January 2012 Accepted 3 January 2012 Available online 11 January 2012

Keywords: Human milk Milk fat globule membrane proteins Shotgun proteomics Fourier Transform-Ion Cyclotron Resonance mass spectrometry Host defense proteins Lipid droplet proteins

A B S T R A C T

The composition of milk has adapted during the evolution of the species to fulfill the specific nutritional needs of the offspring. Currently, it is widely recognized that milk benefits go beyond mere nutrition and serve as a source of a number of functional components to the newborn, particularly host defense effectors. However, the human milk proteome description is still incomplete, primarily because the detection of low-abundance proteins remains challenging. To overcome the limitations of the classical electrophoresis-based approach, previously separated milk fat globule membrane (MFGM) and whey protein fractions were analyzed by nanoflow-high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC)/Fourier Transform-Ion Cyclotron Resonance (FT-ICR) mass spectrometry (MS). This shotgun strategy showed an as yet unmatched potential to profile low-abundance proteins in human milk. Proteins associated with 301 different gene products were identified, some of which could be clustered into subsets of protein isoforms, thus providing one of the largest protein inventories of human milk. The identified proteins, which were derived from multiple metabolic pathways, are involved in different physiological functions, such as membrane trafficking, cell signaling, fat metabolism and transport, metabolite delivery, protein synthesis/proteolysis or folding, and immunity-related actions. Nevertheless, it appears clear from this study that the overall picture of the human milk proteome is still incomplete, although several protein signatures of milk evolution are emerging.

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1. Introduction

Milk is a complex biological fluid because it contains a wide range of macro- and micro-nutrients. It has been estimated that the entire mammary gland machinery includes several thousand genes whose evolution can be traced back to more than 300 million years [\[1\].](#page-14-0) The astounding preservation of the protein complexity along mammalian phylogenesis signifies the essential role of breast milk for term, pre-term and small-for-date human infants, which goes beyond mere nutritional aspects. Therefore, a basic understanding of the functions accomplished by breast milk, either contingently or in terms of "imprinting", has become a central theme in nutrition research. Many investigations have attempted to comprehensively characterize the proteins in human colostrum and mature milk.

Human milk proteins can be grouped into three major classes: caseins; milk fat globule membrane (MFGM) proteins and predominant whey proteins. Whey contains several low-abundance blood serum-derived proteins in addition to those secreted by neutrophils, by lymphocytes that have infiltrated the mammary gland and by somatic cells. Similar to other biological fluids, the wide range of protein concentrations in the human milk proteome, thought to span eight to ten orders of magnitude, presents a major challenge to systematic cartography. In fact, six or seven polypeptide chains constitute more than 90% of the human milk protein content, and the remaining content is distributed throughout hundreds of cellular proteins [\[2\].](#page-14-0)

An early proteomic study based on two-dimensional electrophoresis (2DE) and microsequencing identified 22 proteins in human colostrum [\[3\]](#page-14-0) although as many as 400 spots were observed. Later, through the "classical" 2DE-mass spectrometry (MS) proteomic approach, 107 protein spots, corresponding to 39 gene products, were identified in the human MFGM fraction [\[4,5\].](#page-14-0) Indeed, the index of proteins in human milk was increased to 73, including polypeptides identified in the whey fraction [\[6,7\].](#page-14-0) Many strategies have been developed for the selective removal of albumin and other highly abundant proteins from human and bovine milk (or colostrum). Nevertheless, only 15 proteins were identified in bovine mature milk and colostrum by 2DE and microsequencing after immunodepletion [\[8\].](#page-14-0) Immunoadsorption of the major proteins followed by mono-dimensional (1D) electrophoresis and

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^{0021-9673/\$} – see front matter © 2012 Elsevier B.V. All rights reserved. doi:[10.1016/j.chroma.2012.01.014](dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.chroma.2012.01.014)

MS identified 151 gene products in human whey colostrum, 83 of which were reported for the first time [\[9\].](#page-14-0) Using SDS-PAGE coupled with MS, 120 non-redundant gene products were identified in bovine MFGM protein fractions [\[10\],](#page-14-0) while 95 and 72 distinct gene products were identified in bovine [\[11\]](#page-14-0) and water buffalo milk [\[12\],](#page-14-0) respectively, by liquid chromatography (LC)–MS and 2DE-MS. The non-linear compression of the dynamic range via combinatorial peptide ligand libraries (ProteoMiner), though recently debated [\[13,14\],](#page-14-0) has been definitively demonstrated to be effective in improving the coverage of complex proteomes in shotgun experiments [\[15\].](#page-14-0) Thus, equalization through peptide libraries was successful in cataloguing 149 unique proteins in bovine milk [\[16\]](#page-14-0) and 115 in human whey [\[17\].](#page-14-0)

Merging together the results of past studies, a total of 285 nonredundant database entries were catalogued in the inventory of the human milk proteome, including a "core" of 106 proteins that are shared with the bovine milk proteome [\[18\].](#page-14-0)

The quasi-totality of studies aimed at characterizing proteomes at different depths (deep vs. shallow) relies upon an electrophoretic separation step prior to MS analysis. Conventional 2DE for descriptive proteomics suffers from a number of limitations that are particularly critical for characterizing complex mixtures. For example, very low-abundance proteins, as well as those with extreme isoelectric points or molecular weight values, can escape detection on the gels. In spite of the recent advances in 2DE, the detection and identification of very hydrophobic membrane proteins, such as MFGM proteins, is affected by their solubility [\[19\].](#page-14-0) The protein chip array of the SELDI-TOF (surface enhanced laser desorption ionization-time of flight) MS approach was also unsatisfactory to resolve the complexity of the human milk proteome, with particular concern for the MFGM protein fraction [\[2\].](#page-14-0) The well-known drawbacks of the 2DE-MS approach have prompted the development of gel-free strategies for high-throughput proteomics, especially when membrane proteins are to be analyzed [\[20,21\].](#page-14-0) In particular the use of high resolution capillary chromatographic columns coupled to ultra high mass accuracy (less than 1 ppm error tolerance) LTQ-Fourier Transform-Ion Cyclotron Resonance (FT-ICR) MS was shown to be capable of identifying thousands of peptide components in a single 1D high-resolution chromatographic separation [\[22\].](#page-14-0) With this technique, as a general procedure, an entire protein extract is digested with trypsin before nanoflow LC-electrospray (ESI) and MS analysis. In the present work, a gel-free shotgun approach has been exploited to penetrate deeper into the human milk proteome. Very recently, with a UPLC-Orbitrap-based shotgun MS approach, targeted to identify host-defense proteins, 268 and 269 gene products were identified in human and bovine milk, respectively. These results confirm that gel-free techniques are more appropriate for analyzing complex proteomes than the classic electrophoresis-based proteomic approaches [\[23\].](#page-14-0) Whey and MFGM proteins were separately trypsinized and analyzed by nanoflow reversed-phase HPLC coupled on-line with high-resolution FT-ICR MS. Validation of data sets was performed with automated bioinformatic tools.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Sample preparation

Human milk samples were collected from five healthy Italian women by manual expression in a sterile tube, 10–15 days after full-term labor, and pooled (5 mL each). To prevent undesired proteolysis, PMSF was added to a final concentration of 1 mM. Milk freeze–thaw cycles were avoided to prevent breakdown ofthe fat globule membrane; samples were transferred to the

laboratory in a refrigerated box and utilized for protein extraction within 2 h. Milk was gently shaken, and aliquots of 15 mL were centrifuged at 3500 rpm for 20 min at 4 ◦C to separate the fat, which was manually removed. MFGM proteins were extracted as described by Fortunato et al. [\[4\].](#page-14-0) The scarce pellet that resulted from the milk centrifugation, containing somatic cells and large casein micelles, was discarded. The skim milk fraction that here is called "milk whey" still contained a significant amount of casein. No attempt was carried out to completely remove casein by isoelectric precipitation in order to avoid the depletion of possible hydrophobically interacting minor proteins. Milk whey was filtered through Millex sterile 0.22 µm membranes (Millipore, Bedford, MA, USA) and precipitated by adding 4 volumes of −20 ◦C cold acetone/10% (w/v) trichloroacetic acid (TCA) containing 2% 2-mercaptoethanol. The protein pellet was washed three times with −20 °C cold acetone, separated by centrifugation $(4\degree C, 20\text{ min}, 12,000\text{ rpm})$ and lyophilized.

2.2. Reduction and alkylation of MFGM and milk whey proteins

Disulphide bridges were reduced by incubating approximately 300 μ g of both human MFGM and milk whey proteins in 1 mL of a denaturing/reducing buffer (6 M guanidine HCl, 100 mM Tris–HCl, 1 mM EDTA, 10 mM DTT, pH 8.0) for 1 h at 56 ◦C. Cysteine residues were alkylated by incubation for 30 min with iodoacetamide at a final concentration of 55 mM at room temperature in the dark. To quench the alkylation reaction, proteins were immediately desalted by PD-10 columns using 50 mM ammonium bicarbonate $(AMBIC)$, $pH 8.5$, as the eluent. Proteins were quantified by the Bradford assay using BSA as the standard and incubated overnight at 37 ◦C with modified proteomic grade trypsin (Promega, Madison, WI, USA) using a 50:1 (w/w) protein-to-trypsin ratio. The reaction was stopped by freeze-drying. To prevent the missed detection of peptides due to phosphorylation, digests were re-dissolved in 0.5 mL of AMBIC at pH 8.5 and dephosphorylated overnight at 37 ◦C with 5 enzymatic units of alkaline phosphatase (Roche, Basel, Switzerland). Finally, to remove AMBIC, peptide solutions were repeatedly lyophilized after the addition of a few drops of aqueous 0.1% TFA. Alkaline phosphatase was discarded from the list of identified proteins in human milk.

To enlarge the proteome coverage, aliquots of the peptides derived from MFGM and milk whey proteins were subjected to Ndeglycosylation (18 h, 37 °C, 2 mU/100 μ g, in AMBIC) by PNGase F (Roche) and analyzed separately.

2.3. LC–MS/MS analysis

Tryptic digests were separated using an UltiMate 3000 nano-LC system (Dionex, Sunnydale, CA, USA). Peptides derived from 3μ g of the protein fractions were loaded by the autosampler on a Pep-Map300 C18 trapping cartridge (5 µm, 200 Å, Dionex). The nanocolumn used for nano-LC-ESI/MS/MS runs was prepared by packing a slurry of a 90Å Jupiter C12 bound phase (Phenomenex, Torrance, CA, USA) into a $150\,\mathrm{mm}$ \times $75\,\mathrm{\mu m}$ i.d. pulled-tip fused silica (Polymicro Technologies, Phoenix, AZ) using pressurized air. The column was washed with 80% acetonitrile mobile phase containing 0.1% formic acid and subsequently equilibrated with 3% acetonitrile with 0.1% formic acid at a 250 nL/min flow rate.

Solvent A was 3% acetonitrile in HPLC-grade water containing 0.1% formic acid, while solvent B was HPLC-grade acetonitrile containing 0.1% formic acid. The separation was carried out at a flow rate of 250 nL/min with a linear gradient from 3% to 55% of solution B over 150 min following 10 min of isocratic elution at 3% of solution B.

Fig. 1. Schematic overview of the shotgun proteomic strategy adopted for the analysis of human milk.

The nanoLC capillary column was directly interfaced with the electrospray source of an LTQ-FT mass spectrometer (Thermo-Electron, San Jose, CA, USA) operating in the positive-ion mode. The instruments recorded full FT mass spectra (m/z 250–2500). The precursor ions were isolated using the data-dependent acquisition mode. The 5 most intense ions in the survey scan were selected for MS/MS and fragmented in the instrument ion trap at a normalized collision energy of 35%.Adynamic exclusion window of 30 s was set up to prevent dominant precursor ions from being selected more than once for CID, thus enabling the fragmentation of less abundant precursors. The Q activation values for all $MSⁿ$ were set to 0.250, while the activation times were set to 75 ms. Under such conditions a MS mass accuracy of <5 ppm was typically achieved. Each sample was run in triplicate.

2.4. Database searching and protein identification

Raw files generated by the XCalibur software v2.0.7 (Thermo Scientific) were used to generate peak lists in mascot generic files (.mgf) for the Uniprot database searching with a licensed copy of MASCOT (Matrix Science, Boston, MA, USA). Search results were filtered with a ProteinParser according to the following parameters: one tryptic missed cleavage allowed, ± 15 ppm tolerance for precursor ions, +2 and +3 charges, carbamidomethylation of cysteines as a fixed modification, oxidation of methionine and, in the analysis of deglycosylated peptides, also deamidation of Asn as variable modifications, ion score \geq 30 and a minimum peptide mass of 600.00 Da. The .mgf files were searched against a randomized version of the UniProt database that was previously generated using the decoy

database generator utility available from Matrix Science and filtered using the same parameters as described earlier for the regular searches. In these conditions, the false discovery rate was estimated below 0.1%. Only peptide matches occurring in all the three analyses of each sample were accepted.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Protein identification

Typically, the protein content of mature human milk ranges between 10 and 20 mg/mL and reaches a minimum value after 1 week of lactation. Although the concentration of each protein varies as a function of several factors during lactation [\[24\],](#page-14-0) a recent proteomic study has demonstrated a strict qualitative consistency between the proteomes of bovine colostrum and mature milk [\[25\].](#page-14-0) Thus, the descriptive proteome of human milk should also not significantly change during lactation.

Similar to previous studies, sample pre-fractionation appeared to be a key issue in the deep investigation of the milk proteome. Therefore, the MFGM fraction, which is primarily composed of hydrophobic membrane or membrane-associated proteins, was analyzed separately from the whey proteins. Because the extractability and solubility of the MFGM proteins is critical [\[26\],](#page-14-0) a denaturing/reducing buffer was used to dissolve extracted MFGM proteins. In our experimental plan, the possible loss of low-abundance proteins was minimized by avoiding protein enrichment or depletion processes, as schematized in [Fig.](#page-2-0) 1. The identification of MFGM and whey proteins, also including caseins, has been accomplished by coupling high resolution nano-flow reversed phase chromatography separation to high resolution LTQ-FT-ICR MS and MS/MS analysis of tryptic peptides. Although the analytical complexity of the fractions is greatly increased by proteolysis, the multiplication of protein-derived moieties enhances the probability of detecting and confidently identifying at least one peptide of the mother protein. In general, MS exhibits higher sensitivity in the detection of peptides compared to proteins. Thus, peptide-centric methodologies, also referred to as "shotgun" or "bottom-up" proteomics, combined with the bioinformatic tools, have been demonstrated to enhance proteome coverage and achieve larger access compared to techniques for targeting fulllength proteins [\[27\].](#page-14-0)

Due to the high levels of plasminogen activators, plasmin can hydrolyze up to 50–60% of the human milk proteins, especially the casein component [\[28\].](#page-14-0) Proteolysis represents a serious drawback of the electrophoresis-based analysis of human milk proteins. Conversely, the gel-free "shotgun" approach is only marginally affected by protein hydrolysis, although the information about the integrity of the native proteins and the possibility of distinguishing isoforms are partially lost [\[29\].](#page-14-0)

We unambiguously identified 301 proteins, including 165 exclusively from the MFGM fraction. Indeed, numerous related proteins that contain similar peptides, such as the Ig κ or Ig λ isoforms, could not be differentiated based on MS/MS analysis alone and should be grouped together to satisfy the principles of parsimony. A complete list of all of the identified proteins in human whey and MFGM fractions is shown in [Table](#page-4-0) 1. Several proteins have not been described before in human colostrum or milk, although the exact number of these proteins is undefined because of the multiplicity of previously published proteome data, which also include many single protein-focused studies. The annotation of human milk proteins has been upgraded even very recently [\[30\].](#page-14-0) It should also be noted that many novel proteins have homologous cognates already described in the milk of other species including the cow, buffalo, and tammar wallaby.

Because many milk proteins are phosphorylated and/or glycosylated, peptide mass dispersion was reduced by dephosphorylation before tryptic digestion. There were 26 and 21 gene products, including MUC5B and plasma membrane SYTL1, CD97 and BSCL2, which were identified exclusively after deglycosylation in the whey and MFGM protein fractions, respectively. However, some of the proteins identified after deglycosylation were not N-glycosylated, and the protein coverage was only occasionally increased by the identification of formerly N-glycosylated peptides. Some selected MASCOT-based identifications of formerly N-glycosylated peptides, deamidated by PNGase F, are reported in the [Supplementary](#page-14-0) [Data.](#page-14-0)

An estimate of protein abundance is provided by the relative score value, although this is only a rough indication because an accurate normalization of the matching to the expected tryptic peptides would be required for a reliable label-free protein quantification; this normalization would be somewhat biased by proteolysis. For example, LALBA and caseins, which are expected to be the highest represented proteins, did not achieve the highest score values, and this was likely due to their reduced size and the low number of expected tryptic peptides. LTF had the highest identification score, thus confirming its relatively high levels in human milk. Interestingly, tenascin-C, whose occurrence in milk and colostrum now well established [\[9,31,32\]](#page-14-0) has been long-neglected, scored among the highest represented proteins in human milk. The specific role of this protein remains to be investigated.

Several entries were single-peptide identifications. However, the high accuracy of the ESI-LTQ-FT-ICR peptide mass measurements [\[29\],](#page-14-0) the tests with a decoy database generator and the filtering operation that restricted acceptance only to those peptides occurring in three repeated analyses, minimized the false discovery rate at a threshold as low as 0.1%. Many of the entries identified through a single peptide are proteins that have already been described in human and/or bovine milk, which validates their inclusion in [Table](#page-4-0) 1. Exemplificative single-peptide protein identifications supported by MASCOT and manually validated are shown in [Supplementary](#page-14-0) [Data.](#page-14-0)

3.2. Origin of human milk proteins

In addition to mammary-cell specific proteins, milk contains variable levels of blood-derived proteins. The identified proteins, primarily derived from the extracellular region, cytoplasm, intracellular organelles and inner or outer cell membranes, reflect their extracellular or intracellular origin. In agreement with previous findings, cytoplasm proteins also contributed to the MFGM proteome; this contribution is likely due to a tight association with the membrane proteins or a contamination of the MFGM preparations with cytoplasm proteins in the milk fat [\[10,33\].](#page-14-0) However, some proteins putatively involved in intracellular transport of solutes or lipid droplet proteins can have multiple locations and interact with several organelles or membrane compartments.

MFGM proteins are the most conserved across species, suggesting that the cellular anatomy of the secreting structures is maintained throughout evolution. It has been hypothesized that the complex ontogeny of the mammary gland as secretory organ, which dates back as far as 200 million years, may have occurred by co-opting existing structures and developmental pathways [\[1\].](#page-14-0) However, proteins with nutritional and immunological functions might be divergent to some extent.

3.3. Biological function of human milk proteins

The main recognized natural function of the most abundant milk proteins is supplying necessary nutrients to newborns. Caseins

Table 1

Shotgun proteomic identification of proteins in human milk serum (hMS) and MFGM fractions. Score values are reported along with the number of identified peptides (*),

main cellular localization and supposed function. In the current experimental conditions, matches with score values > 30 were considered proof of identity or extensive homology (p < 0.01). A number of entries were single-peptide assignments. However, a great number of the entries were proteins already known to occur in milk, thus validating their identification. Symbols for cellular localization and function have been adapted from Ref. [\[18\]:](#page-14-0) A, angiogenesis and blood functionality; B, bone maturation; CY, cytoplasm; D, cell differentiation; ER, endoplasmic reticulum; ES, extracellular space; G, cell growth/tissue development; I, defense/immunity; L, lipid droplet transport/secretion; MI, mitochondrial; N, synthesis and delivery of nutrients/metabolites, energy pathways; NU, nucleus; P, protein metabolism (protease/peptidase or inhibitor); PM, plasma membrane; PMa, plasma membrane associated; R, cellular recognition; S, signal transduction; T, cellular trafficking; U, unknown; V, nervous system maturation; Z, inflammation.

are also involved in delivering microelements, such as metal ions, through casein phosphopeptides. Through gastrointestinal digestion, caseins, LTF and other proteins are known to release bioactive peptides, which may exert a number of physiological functions [\[28\].](#page-14-0)

Table 1 (Continued)

Among the dominant molecular entities of the human milk proteome, LTF, PIGR, IgA, IgG, K-casein, and BSSL are glycoproteins. LALBA, the most abundant protein in mature human milk, is minimally glycosylated (<1%). It is thought that glycoproteins are involved in conferring passive immunity to the newborn. On the other hand, many of the identified proteins have, as yet, undetermined function. Despite the strict evolutionary selection of the lactating machinery, it is possible that some identified proteins may not have a specific function, e.g., those coming from the blood. Nevertheless, for the purposes of discussion, proteins were categorized into functional groups based on their primary task(s) according to the UniProt database (Fig. 2).

Several hydrolytic proteins mediate the digestion of macronutrients (e.g., BSSL, LPL, AMY1A, AMY2B and proteases). GGT1 and GGT5 transfer the glutamyl moiety of glutathione to several

Fig. 2. Functional categorization of human milk proteins. The primary supposed function, according to the UniProt database, was assigned. Isoforms of immunoglobulins and keratins were excluded by computation. Symbols for primary protein function: D, G, cell differentiation, cell growth, tissue development; I, defense/immunity; L, lipid droplet transport/secretion; N, synthesis and delivery of nutrients/metabolites, energy pathways; O, others (angiogenesis, inflammation, nervous system maturation); P, protein metabolism (protease/peptidase or inhibitor); R, cellular recognition; S, signal transduction; T, cellular trafficking; U, unknown.

acceptors modulating redox homeostasis. Some protease inhibitors (AAT, AACT, SERPING1, TIMP1, CST3) balance the action of proteases, which may prevent extensive degradation before they reach the gastrointestinal tract.

A series of proteins (21.1%) are delegated to the synthesis/transport and delivery of non-lipid nutrients/metabolites. Among these were generic (ALB) or specific protein carriers, those able to bind metal ions (CAL3, SELENBP1), vitamins (CRABP1, CRABP2, FOLR1, TTR), fatty acids (ACSL1, ACSL3, ACSL4, FANS, FABP3, FABP7, APOH, APOD1, SLC16A1, ZDHHC20), heme (HPX), and steroids (LSS, NSDHL). Selected proteins, such as LTF and TF, have been thought to exert a bacteriostatic action sequestering nutrients that are vital for bacteria. The energy/metabolism-related enzymes, such as those of glycolysis, can be categorized in this group.

Through the binding/transport of nutrients, many proteins cooperate to promote cellular proliferation/differentiation and cell growth/differentiation (7.5%). Among these, protein components with hormone-like activity are specifically involved in this role (CA6, CDC42, IGF1, NDRG1, RALA, TMEM30A, THBS1). CHRDL2, SPP1, AHSG, BMP1 induce the growth/differentiation of bonerelated cells. Proteins with a specialized signaling function (8.7%) in extended metabolic pathways [\[18\]](#page-14-0) have been separately categorized.

Interestingly, the most consistent group of proteins (23.4%) is part of the complex machinery that delivers lipids to the breastfed newborn. Recent proteomic analyses indicate that, although they have been considered passive storage depots, lipid droplets are, rather, discrete organelles present in most cell types, both prokaryotic and eukaryotic, where they are involved in multiple functions [\[34\].](#page-14-0) Lipid droplet proteins participate in lipid synthesis and, as trans-membrane proteins, mediate the distribution of neutral lipids and phospholipids to different membrane-bound organelles. The primary organelles of the secretory pathway are the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) and the Golgi complex. Membrane trafficking between these major elements of the secretory pathway is largely mediated by discontinuous carriers. Small guanosine triphosphatases (GTP-ases) modulate vesicle formation, motility, targeting, and docking. The Rab proteins are low molecular weight GTP-binding proteins that form the largest branch of the Ras superfamily of GTP-ases. The surprisingly large number of GTP-binding proteins, RAB isoforms, RAP1A and RAP1B, membrane proteins such as STX3, which has a SNARE-like domain, ANXA1, ANXA2, VAT1, SEC16A and SEC14L1 found in human milk is explained by their involvement in milk fat synthesis and secretion, which are among the main tasks of the mammary gland cells. RAB proteins, together with the so-called PAT proteins that include PLIN2 (adipophilin) and PLIN3, are thought to regulate the transient interaction of specific membrane systems, with the aim of delivering lipids between membrane compartments [\[35\].](#page-14-0) Homologues of RAB proteins and GTP-ases and their relevance in milk are progressively emerging in proteomic investigations of bovine MFGMs [\[10,24,26\].](#page-14-0) NPC2 participates in the regulation of lipid composition, while SNAP23 is an essential component of the high-affinity receptor for the general membrane fusion machinery and is an important regulator of vesicular transport, docking and fusion. It has been suggested that the protein system that regulates the lipid metabolism in milk might have an indirect major protective function [\[36\].](#page-14-0) Lipid droplets may also include other cytoskeleton proteins, such as actin isoforms, keratins and MARCKS, with structuring and propelling functions [\[37\].](#page-14-0) However, keratins identified in human milk likely arise from the flaking of mammary epidermal tissue. ARF protein isoforms are also involved in membrane targeting during recognition and fusion steps. EEA1 binds RAB5 and mediates the homotypic fusion of endosomes [\[38\].](#page-14-0) The majority of the lipid droplet-associated proteins are found in the MFGM fraction because of the fusion of lipid droplets with the cell outer membrane during excretion.

Proteins that regulate intra- and extra-cellular trafficking (6.4%) are specifically indicated in [Table](#page-4-0) 1. The major protein ATP2B2, required for the relevant secretion of calcium in the milk and already described in bovine mammary tissue and MFGMs [\[10,24\],](#page-14-0) as well as VCP, CACNA2D1 and ORAI1 should belong to this group. No phosphate transport was thought to occur across the apical membrane of the mammary secretory cell until a sodiumdependent phosphate transporter was identified in bovine MFGMs [\[10,24\].](#page-14-0) Therefore, the occurrence of SLC34A2 in human milk is not surprising.An expected sodium-dependent glucose transporter (SLC5A1), as well as amino acid (SLC1A6, SLCA14, SLC13A2, SLC1A5) and oligopeptide (SLC15A2) transporters, was found. Proteomic data indicate an apical localization of the transporters, associated with the plasma membrane. A further small set of cell membrane proteins (1.5%) seems to be specifically involved in mutual cell recognition.

A group of 56 (21.1%) identified proteins have specific immunocompetent functions and act as modulators that compensate for developmental delays in the immune system in early infancy. Secretory IGA (sIGA) is known to be a major component in conferring passive immunity to the breastfed infant. Several antibody chains have been identified (IGHM, IGHC1, IGKC, IGHA2, IGJ, and IGLC1) that are, along with numerous isoforms, likely related to individual variability. The majority of IGs are known to be excreted via a selective receptor-mediated intracellular route. These IGs may be blood-derived or produced by mammary plasma cells. The translocation of IgA across the mammary epithelial cells is assisted by PIGR, which is expressed on the mucosal epithelium as one of the main human milk proteins.

Both the adaptive and the innate immune system operate to confer passive immunity to the newborn. Immune cells are effectors of the immunomodulatory activity of milk. Thus, there are complement-related proteins that are derived from neutrophils, macrophages and lymphocytes, as well as proteins involved in antigen processing and presentation of peptide/lipopolysaccharide by MHC complexes of Toll-like receptors (TLR2). CD14 seems to have a direct involvement in pathogen responses; it functions as a coreceptor for the detection/recognition of bacterial lipopolysaccharides, enhances host cell activation, and likely imprints the neonatal immune system. CD14 and Toll-like receptors are primarily

expressed by antigen-presenting cells. Thus, their occurrence, particularly at the level of the MFGMs, suggests that mammary cells may have a direct role in detecting infections. Indeed, the mammary epithelium itself plays an active role in host defense by synthesizing innate immune factors, such as LTF, and releasing peptides with antibacterial activity. Apolipoproteins also have been shown to be involved in anti-inflammatory functions and in the balance of the immune response [\[39\].](#page-14-0) Several modulators of cell differentiation may have a chemotactic role, contributing to induce the response of the innate immune system. For instance, in addition to the role played in vesicular trafficking, SDCBP in human milk is an IgAinducing factor for naive B cells [\[40\].](#page-14-0) However, a detailed discussion on the immunological mechanisms promoted by milk is beyond the purposes of this article. The list of the immune components of bovine and human milk and colostrum has been recently updated, and the presumed interactomic pathways have been reviewed elsewhere [\[17,23,41\].](#page-14-0)

4. Conclusion

The present investigation represents one of the most comprehensive inventories of the human milk proteome, thus contributing to its completion. The protein annotation in human milk has continuously progressed over the last decade, coinciding with impressive analytical advances.

Although upgraded MS instruments have declared limits of detection reaching the low femtomole or attomole range, the actual MS sensitivity is determined by the complexity of the sample and by the limited dynamic range of the instrument. Thus, only partially overlapping protein subsets have been defined for human milk, while a plethora of minor proteins are described exclusively in single reports. For instance, very low-abundance proteins, such as cytokines, are rarely harvested in discovery-driven proteomic analyses and have been detected only using targeted proteomic approaches [\[42\].](#page-14-0) Our analysis did not make exceptions, as many minimally abundant yet well-established polypeptides such as phosphatases (human isoform), lactoperoxidase, kallikrein, interleukins, protease inhibitors, hormones (prolactin) and growth factors commonly escape identification. This information implies that the more than 300 currently identified gene products could be only a surface view of the entire human milk proteome. The partial inconsistencies in the reported human milk proteome subsets should be primarily ascribed to the pitfalls of the analytical strategies and to a laboratory-dependent identification bias, rather than to a stochastic sampling of the proteome or to actual individual variability in milk samples [\[43\].](#page-14-0)

A recent estimate has established that a minor percentage of peptides (not larger than 16%) can be targeted for MS/MS in an ordinary shotgun analysis of complex proteomes [\[44\].](#page-14-0) Most likely the introduction of a previous off-line chromatographic dimension can be helpful in further enlarging the human milk proteome coverage.

For this purpose, it is important to keep in mind that whatever the method for descriptive analysis of complex proteomes, no current protocol yet provides a comprehensive snapshot of complex biological systems in a single run. For this reason, specifically designed strategies are required to target post-translationally modified proteins in human milk [\[31,45\].](#page-14-0)

Acknowledgements

MS experiments have been performed at the National Center for Glycomics and Glycoproteomics of Indiana University in Bloomington, USA. Permanence of G.P. in the laboratory directed by Prof. Milos V. Novotny was supported by the "short-term mobility program" of National Research Council of Italy (CNR). The authors gratefully acknowledge the American Journal Experts for manuscript revision.

Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at [doi:10.1016/j.chroma.2012.01.014](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.chroma.2012.01.014).

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