

1 Authors:

2

3 Robert W. Burroughs

4 ORCID: 0000-0003-4384-3430

5 Department of Ecology and Evolution

6 Stony Brook University, Stony Brook, NY.

7 [Robert.Burroughs@stonybrook.edu](mailto:Robert.Burroughs@stonybrook.edu)

8

9 Christopher J. Percival

10 ORCID: 0000-0002-8883-9737

11 Department of Anthropology

12 Stony Brook University, Stony Brook, NY.

13 [Christopher.Percival@stonybrook.edu](mailto:Christopher.Percival@stonybrook.edu)

14

15 Natasha S. Vitek

16 ORCID: 0000-0003-0587-8907

17 Department of Ecology and Evolution

18 Stony Brook University, Stony Brook, NY.

19 [Natasha.Vitek@stonybrook.edu](mailto:Natasha.Vitek@stonybrook.edu)

20 Data availability statement: All mapped and analyzed proteomics data are included as  
21 Supplemental Information in this manuscript. All data will be publicly available upon  
22 publication via Dryad Digital Repository DOI: 10.5061/dryad.kh18932j0.

23 Funding statement: Author RWB was funded via an Institutional Research and  
24 Academic Career Development Award (IRACDA) made to Stony Brook University from  
25 the National Institute of General Medical Sciences of the National Institutes of Health  
26 [K12GM102778], and startup funding to NSV from Stony Brook University.

27 Experiments were paid for via startup funding to NSV from Stony Brook University

28 Conflict of interest disclosure: Authors have no conflicts of interest.

29 Ethics approval statement: Live animal experiments were conducted in accordance with  
30 guidelines and regulations from Stony Brook University Institutional Animal Care and  
31 Use Committee (IACUC). Research was conducted in accordance with plan and  
32 procedures in approved protocol SBU IACUC 2023-0014.

33 Patient consent statement: Not Applicable.

34 Permission to reproduce material from other sources: Not Applicable.

35 Clinical trial registration: Not Applicable.

36                   Reduced Dietary Protein Induces Changes in the Dental Proteome

37                   Robert W. Burroughs<sup>1,2</sup>, Christopher J. Percival<sup>3</sup>, Natasha S. Vitek<sup>1</sup>

38                   <sup>1</sup> Department of Ecology and Evolution, Stony Brook University, Stony Brook, NY, USA.

39                   <sup>2</sup>Center for Inclusive Education, Stony Brook University, Stony Brook, NY, USA.

40                   <sup>3</sup>Department of Anthropology, Stony Brook University, Stony Brook, NY, USA.

41

42                   **[Graphical Abstract is in the Figures File]**

43

44                   **Abstract**

45                   Experimental studies have demonstrated that nutritional changes during development

46                   can result in phenotypic changes to mammalian cheek teeth. This developmental

47                   plasticity of tooth morphology is an example of phenotypic plasticity. Because tooth

48                   development occurs through complex interactions between manifold processes, there

49                   are many potential mechanisms which can contribute to a tooth's norm of reaction.

50                   Determining the identity of those mechanisms and the relative importance of each of

51                   them is one of the main challenges to understanding phenotypic plasticity. Quantitative

52                   proteomics combined with experimental studies allow for the identification of potential

53                   molecular contributors to a plastic response through quantification of expressed gene

54                   products. Here, we present the results of a quantitative proteomics analysis of mature

55                   upper first molars (M1s) in *Mus musculus* from a controlled feeding experiment.

56                   Pregnant and nursing mothers were fed either a low-dietary protein (10%) treatment diet

57                   or control (20%) diet. Expression of tooth-related proteins, immune system proteins,

58                   and actin-based myosin proteins were significantly altered in our low-dietary protein

59 sample. The recovery of expression change in tooth development proteins was  
60 anticipated and consistent with previous proteomic studies. We also identified  
61 differential immune protein response along with systematic reduction in actin-based  
62 myosin protein expression, which are novel discoveries for tooth proteomics studies. We  
63 propose that studies which aim to elucidate specific mechanisms of molar phenotypic  
64 plasticity should prioritize investigations into the relationships between IGF regulation  
65 and tooth development and actin-based myosin expression and tooth development.

66

### 67 **Research Highlights**

68 A low-protein diet during development results in significantly altered protein expression  
69 for major dental building proteins, immune system proteins, and actin-based myosin  
70 proteins within *Mus musculus*.

71

### 72 **Introduction**

73 Phenotypic plasticity, the differential expression of a phenotype, is often invoked as a  
74 way that organisms respond to changing environments. Within lab and common garden  
75 experiments, nutritional changes such as changes in the quantity of dietary protein  
76 induce plastic changes to mammalian cheek tooth phenotypes (Paynter & Grainer,  
77 1956; Shaw & Griffiths, 1963; (Patton & Brylski, 1987). Typically, these are changes in  
78 tooth size, size and shape of tooth cusps, and timing of eruption (Holloway et al., 1961;  
79 Paynter & Grainer, 1956; Searle, 1954; Shaw & Griffiths, 1963(Patton & Brylski, 1987).  
80 This demonstrates that there is plasticity in dental development which can provide a  
81 short-term, non-evolutionary response to changing environments (Levis & Pfennig,

82 2021). However, measures of plastic phenotypic response to environmental change  
83 often do not identify the molecular and genetic pathways which underlie those changes.  
84 The use of quantitative proteomics to quantify differences in protein expression could  
85 allow for the identification and study of pathways that are altered by an environmental  
86 change (e.g., are plastic). Here, we present a quantitative proteomics study  
87 characterizing protein expression variation in a sample of upper first molars (M1s) from  
88 lab mice fed a low-protein diet as part of a controlled feeding experiment. This  
89 experiment was explicitly designed to identify proteins and associated pathways which  
90 could underlie phenotypic plasticity. This allows us to characterize those pathways most  
91 impacted by exposure to low dietary protein during embryonic and early postnatal tooth  
92 development.

93

#### 94 **Proteomics**

95 Proteomics is broadly the field focused on identifying, annotating, and quantifying  
96 variation of proteins. Quantification of variation includes both protein sequence variation  
97 and protein expression variation. Informatics approaches are applied to protein spectral  
98 data collected via tandem liquid-chromatography mass-spectrometry (LC-MS/MS)  
99 (Heck & Neely, 2020). Protein expression profiles are typically tissue- and  
100 developmental stage-dependent and must be interpreted within the specific  
101 spatiotemporal contexts in which samples were collected (Rebeaud, Mallik, Goloubinoff,  
102 & Tawfik, 2021 & Tawfik, 2021).

103

104 An assemblage of proteins that is expressed within a specific tissue or structure is often  
105 referred to as a 'proteome' (Sharma et al., 2020). For example, within the dental  
106 proteome enamel and dentin forming proteins are found in high abundance (Sharma et  
107 al., 2020). However, outside of dental tissues, these proteins are detected in low  
108 abundance and only at certain developmental stages (Ritchie, 2018, Bansal, Shetty,  
109 Bindal, & Pathak, 2012 & Pathak, 2012).

110  
111 If basic processes of tooth mineralization are impacted by dietary deficiency, we expect  
112 a change in associated protein expression and a change in phenotype such as occlusal  
113 pattern, size, and/or shape (Harjunmaa et al., 2014). It is possible that some aspects of  
114 tooth mineralization are more easily perturbed by environmental change than others  
115 and their associated pathways may more frequently underlie plastic changes.  
116 Measuring the tooth proteome may allow us to identify potential candidates underlying  
117 plastic changes in tooth phenotype.

118  
119 Beyond stereotypical tooth-associated proteins, previous characterizations of the dental  
120 proteome have suggested that teeth serve as reservoirs of more general patterns of  
121 organismal protein expression during amelogenesis (tooth mineralization) (Green et al.  
122 2019; Froment et al., 2021; Giovani et al., 2021; Sharma et al., 2020). For example,  
123 Green et al. (2019) recovered immune system related proteins from enamel near the  
124 enamel-dentin junction of mineralizing pig molars. These immune proteins currently  
125 have no known function in amelogenesis. Their inclusion within enamel was inferred to  
126 be because enamel cell proliferation and mineralization at the enamel-dentin junction

127 occurs in contact with salivary glands, putatively the source of the immune proteins  
128 (Green et al. 2019) (Jagr et al.). If mineralized teeth serve as an archive of broader  
129 organismal protein expression at the time of mineralization, it is possible that tooth  
130 proteomic data could provide evidence of more generalized responses to environmental  
131 perturbations.

132

### 133 **This Study**

134 To determine what pathways are altered by an impoverished diet, we conducted a  
135 controlled feeding experiment and investigated protein expression in the cheek teeth.  
136 Pregnant and nursing mouse dams were fed a low protein or control protein diet and  
137 effects were measured in their offspring. Previous feeding studies on dietary protein  
138 quantity in mice suggested that a threshold of 10-12% (by weight) dietary protein  
139 reduction from a control of 20-24% would likely induce phenotypically plastic changes  
140 (e.g., smaller tooth size and delayed dental development) (Holloway et al., 1961;  
141 Paynter & Grainer, 1956; Paynter & Grainer, 1961; Shaw & Griffiths, 1963).

142

143 With this context we anticipated that reduction in dietary protein could disrupt normal  
144 protein expression patterns during embryonic and early postnatal development. We  
145 anticipated that there would be reduced expression for enamel- and dentin-forming  
146 proteins. Previous studies suggested that halving dietary protein would likely increase  
147 risk of infection and increase metabolic stress in low protein mice (Giovani et al., 2021;  
148 Steward et al., 2023). Thus, we anticipated that there might be additional proteomic  
149 signals related to stress or immune system function if those protein signatures are

150 preserved within dentition. Recovery of significant differential expression of proteins  
151 because of a dietary change allows us to identify and rank the molecular pathways most  
152 likely to be perturbed by environmental influences like dietary protein reduction.

153

## 154 **Methods**

### 155 **Feeding Experiment**

156 A breeding colony of inbred strain C57BL/6J (RRID: IMSR JAX:000664) mice was  
157 established at the Division of Laboratory Animal Research at Stony Brook University, in  
158 accordance with authorized IACUC protocol (SBU IACUC 2023-0014). Male and female  
159 mice were acquired at 8 weeks of age and housed in residence to acclimate until  
160 breeding began at 12 weeks of age. Males were placed with females for up to 72 hours  
161 (3 day-night cycles) and females were checked daily for presence of a copulatory plug.  
162 Once a plug was present or 72 hours had passed, the male and female were separated.  
163 Females, regardless of plug presence, were then randomly assigned to control or  
164 treatment diets to ensure that any developing embryos were on as consistent a diet as  
165 possible. Mice assigned to the control group were fed a 20% raw protein diet (PicoLab  
166 Rodent Diet 20, 5053). Mice assigned to treatment were fed a 10% raw protein diet  
167 (Mod LabDiet 5053 with ~10% Protein Red, 5BQM). Prior to this assignment, all  
168 specimens consumed the control diet.

169

170 If females were not pregnant, as evidenced by swollen abdomen after ~7 days post-  
171 mating attempt, low-protein females were cycled back to the control protein (20%) diet.  
172 They were re-acclimated to that diet for 14 days before additional mating was

173 attempted. To ensure that additional stress was not induced via single housing, pairs of  
174 females were housed together during acclimation and pregnancy. Mating timings were  
175 staggered to ensure that two females would not give birth at the same time. This  
176 allowed for the separation of females and their litters once they had given birth.

177  
178 Pregnant and nursing females in the treatment group were fed only the low-protein diet  
179 for the remainder of their lifespan. Offspring were weaned at approximately ~21 days  
180 postnatal (P21). Siblings were housed with their respective sex and fed their respective  
181 diets until P28 to ensure full eruption of the third molars. At P28 dams and offspring  
182 were euthanized. Dams were not reused to avoid introducing bias related to  
183 improvement of maternal care from first to second litter (Weber & Olsson, 2008). A total  
184 of 74 offspring (treatment n=34, control n=30) from this feeding experiment were  
185 collected, eight of which (n=4 males from each group) were analyzed for protein  
186 expression in this study. Aside from the 74 collected offspring, there was postnatal  
187 attrition of one full litter of treatment pups (n=8), where the mother declined to nurse the  
188 pups. The smallest pup from each of five litters (treatment n=3; control n=2) also did not  
189 survive to weaning.

190

## 191 **Sampling**

192 The upper first molar (M1) was selected for protein extraction because of its ease of  
193 extraction and because it and its lower jaw counterpart are the first molars to develop  
194 and erupt. Left M1s were extracted from male offspring (treatment n=4; control n=4)  
195 immediately after euthanasia by dissecting away the maxillary gingiva and exposed



196 maxillary bone to reveal tooth roots. A blunt probe was used to lever the tooth out.  
197 Excess tissue, including any root bundle, was removed with forceps. Extracted teeth  
198 were then washed with 70% ETOH, wiped dry with a clean Kimwipe and stored in new  
199 cryotubes. Teeth were placed into a -80°C freezer and maintained at -80°C until  
200 preparation for protein quantification.

201

## 202 **Protein analysis by LC-MS/MS**

203 For protein analysis we first determined if our extraction and proposed sampling worked  
204 by initially sampling only two treatment and two control specimens. Once it was  
205 determined that our proposed protocols worked, we sampled the remaining two  
206 treatment and two control samples. Proteins were isolated in 5% SDS, 100mM TEAB,  
207 10mM DTT using a Precellys bead homogenizer for two cycles and spun at 16,000 x G  
208 for 5 minutes. Supernatants were reduced at 55°C for 30 minutes, and cysteines were  
209 alkylated with 25mM iodoacetamide for 30 minutes at room temperature in the dark.  
210 Proteins were subjected to digestion with trypsin, samples were acidified with  
211 phosphoric acid, proteins were then precipitated with 90% methanol, 50mM TEAB, and  
212 bound to S-Trap solid phase cartridges (Zougman, Wilson, & Banks, 2020). Protein  
213 precipitates were washed with 90% methanol, 50mM TEAB and digested with trypsin at  
214 47°C for two hours. Precipitates were then sequentially eluted with 50mM TEAB, 0.2%  
215 formic acid, and 50% acetonitrile, the 0.2% formic acid elution step was by  
216 centrifugation at 4000 x G for 1 minute each.

217

218 Peptides were analyzed by C18 reverse phase LC-MS/MS. HPLC C18 columns were  
219 prepared using a P-2000 CO<sub>2</sub> laser puller (Sutter Instruments) and silica tubing (100µm  
220 ID x 15 cm) and were self-packed with 3µ Repronil resin. Peptides were separated  
221 using a flow rate of 300 nl/minute, and a gradient elution step changing from 0.1%  
222 formic acid to 40% acetonitrile (ACN) over 90 minutes, followed by a 90% ACN wash  
223 and re-equilibration steps. Parent peptide mass and collision-induced fragment mass  
224 information were collected using an orbital trap (Q-Exactive HF; Thermo) instrument  
225 followed by protein database searching using Proteome Discoverer 2.4 (Thermo).  
226 Electrospray ionization was achieved using spray voltage of ~2.3 kV. Information-  
227 dependent MS and MS/MS acquisitions were made using a 50ms survey scan (m/z 375  
228 – 1400) at 60,000 resolution, followed by ‘top 20’ consecutive second product ion scans  
229 at 15,000 resolution. Peptide and spectra false discovery rates were set to 0.05.  
230 Peptide-specific label free quantitation (mapping) was performed using Proteome  
231 Discoverer 2.4, linking label free peptides to annotated mouse proteomes for  
232 standardized protein identification.

233

### 234 **Filtering**

235 To assess if dietary changes resulted in significantly altered protein expression, we first  
236 filtered our mapped proteomic data. Filtering was done in ProteoRE (Mehta et al.,  
237 2023). Because spectral ionization can vary between LC-MS/MS analyses we initially  
238 treated our dataset as two distinct datasets, representing the initial sampling (Group 1)  
239 and additional sampling (Group 2). There was no expectation that Groups 1 and 2 were  
240 substantially different from one another based on the experimental procedure: groups

241 differed only by the date of LC-MS/MS analysis. We chose a conservative approach of  
242 filtering each dataset individually and concatenating the resulting filtered datasets,  
243 ensuring that only proteins represented in both datasets were used for downstream  
244 analyses and interpretations. Each sample group was initially filtered by excluding all  
245 mapped proteins that had any one of the following criteria: A minimum false discovery  
246 rate (q-value) greater than 0.05, representation by fewer than two peptides, or three or  
247 fewer peptide spectral matches (PSMs). These criteria were selected based on  
248 proteomics field standard practices (Al-Amrani, Al-Jabri, Al-Zaabi, Alshekaili, & Al-  
249 Khabori, 2021).

250

### 251 **Mapped Proteomics Analysis**

252 To concatenate our results, a Venn analysis was performed to find the set of proteins  
253 identified as unambiguously present in both groups, resulting in a combined group (CG)  
254 dataset. This dataset reflected the shared mapped proteins between all eight (four  
255 control, four treatment) specimens in our sample. Groups 1 and 2 were further filtered to  
256 identify proteins with significant changes in protein expression between treatment and  
257 control specimens. First, proteins where at least one treatment specimen in each group  
258 had an abundance ratio adjusted p-value  $\leq 0.05$  were retained (n=135). Then, proteins  
259 which had missing data for two or more specimen comparisons were discarded (n=15).  
260 Those two datasets were subsequently concatenated via a Venn analysis to form a  
261 combined group significant (CGSig) dataset. Every protein in CGSig is significantly  
262 differentially expressed in at least one treatment/control comparison in Group 1 and at  
263 least one treatment/control comparison in Group 2.

264

265 Abundance ratio is the ratio of estimated protein abundance for one sample over  
266 another sample, in our case a treatment specimen over a control specimen. Because  
267 protein abundances can vary significantly in terms of magnitude between samples, the  
268 estimated protein abundances are commonly transformed on a Log2 scale to make  
269 cross-specimen comparisons possible (Liu & Zhang, 2021). A result of this  
270 transformation is that some calculated abundance ratios will effectively become  $-\infty$  or  $\infty$   
271 but are represented in the dataset as values of -3.32 or 3.32. We calculated the  
272 average Log2 fold change reported in Table 1 by taking the mean of the estimated  
273 abundance ratios from samples which had significant p-values, excluding significant  
274 samples which were equal to -3.32 or 3.32.

275

276 To identify protein functions, associated interactions, and general biological profiles  
277 represented by CGSig we performed Gene Ontology (GO) enrichment analysis via the  
278 ClusterProfiler tool of ProteoRE and Pathway Enrichment Analysis via REACTOME (Wu  
279 et al., 2021) (Croft et al., 2011). For GO enrichment analyses, we queried at two  
280 ontology levels, using cutoffs for p-value of 0.05 and q-value of 0.05. Outputs for GO  
281 analyses were used to assign broad categorical function to proteins (Table 1) based on  
282 Metabolic Functions, Cellular Component, and Biological Processes categories (Figure  
283 1).

284

285 For pathway enrichment analysis via REACTOME we queried the *Mus musculus*  
286 REACTOME for the proteins found in the CGSig dataset. To calculate enrichment, the

287 number of entities (in our case proteins) identified as belonging within a specific  
288 pathway are identified. Then the total number of entities (proteins) which could be  
289 contained in that pathway is calculated and divided by the total number of entities  
290 (proteins) from the organism (in our case *Mus*). The resulting 'Entity Ratio' is used to  
291 correct for pathway size to determine which pathways are overrepresented compared to  
292 a random distribution. From this result, a p-value is calculated on a 95% confidence  
293 interval and pathways with Entities p-value  $\leq 0.05$  are significantly enriched. Enriched  
294 pathways were then ranked based on the Entity Ratio, which represents the percentage  
295 of the total number of *Mus* proteins represented within that pathway (i.e., a pathway with  
296 an Entity Ratio of 0.04 contains 4% of the total number of proteins known from *Mus*).  
297 Pathways with higher entity ratios are ranked higher.

298

### 299 **Preliminary Test of Developmental Archive**

300 Prior research and the design of our study allowed us to conduct a preliminary  
301 investigation of whether enamel and dentin proteomes represent an archive of protein  
302 expression during mineralization, rather than proteins expressed earlier in tooth  
303 development or at the time of specimen collection. We queried the Mouse Gene  
304 eXpression Database (GXD) to determine if a subset of proteins was expressed at  
305 developmental stages prior to the onset of mineralization, during mineralization, or after  
306 mineralization was complete. First, we investigated 20 proteins known to be expressed  
307 during tooth mineralization (Pandya et al. 2017). Second, we investigated proteins  
308 related to immune and actin-based myosins from our CGSig dataset. A protein's  
309 associated gene is expressed during mineralization, but not earlier or later in time would

310 support the argument that tooth proteomes represent a specific window of development  
311 during amelogenesis.

312

## 313 **Results**

314 Within G1, a total of 2189 unique proteins were mapped (SI 1). 1622 unique proteins  
315 were mapped for G2 (SI 1). The combined group (CG) of proteins shared between G1  
316 and G2 was 1469 unique proteins (SI 1). Of the combined group, there were a total of  
317 120 proteins with significant differential expression (fold change) (CGSig; Table 1).

318

319 Gene ontology profiling revealed that significantly differential proteins are primarily  
320 associated with the Binding (in Molecular Function), the Cell generally (as opposed to a  
321 specific cellular component), and the Biological Process of Metabolism (Figure 1; SI 2).

322 Pathway enrichment analysis via REACTOME identified 387 biological pathways  
323 associated with significantly differentially expressed proteins (SI 1). Of those 387, 35  
324 were significantly enriched ( $p \leq 0.05$ ) (Table 2). Approximately 47% of matched proteins  
325 are represented in the top 6 enriched pathways (Entity Ratio  $\geq 0.01$ ) (Table 2; SI 1).

326

## 327 **Odontogenesis and Osteogenesis Proteins**

328 Seven proteins associated with odontogenesis, and osteogenesis had significant  
329 differential expression (Log2 fold change) between treatment and control groups (Table  
330 1). In low-protein treatments, the major enamel-forming protein, Amelogenin X (AMELX)  
331 had an average -1.52-fold change in expression. One of the two major dentin-forming  
332 proteins, Dentin sialophosphoprotein (DSPP) had a 1.77-fold increase in expression.

333 The other dentin forming protein, Dentin matrix acidic phosphoprotein 1 (DMP1) did not  
334 have a clear direction of differential expression; three treatment comparisons showed  
335 an increase in protein expression, while two had a decrease in expression. For  
336 osteogenesis, Integrin alpha-V (ITGAV) had -2.66-fold change and Tartrate-resistant  
337 acid phosphatase type 5 (ACP5) had -1.71-fold change. The remaining two osteogenic  
338 proteins Collagen alpha-1(II) chain (COL2A1) and Galectin-7 (LGALS7) had variation  
339 which made interpretation unclear. For COL2A1, one specimen had increased and two  
340 had decreased expression. For LGALS7, three were increased and two decreased.

341

#### 342 **Inflammation and Immune Response**

343 Nine proteins associated with inflammation and immune system response had  
344 significant differential expression (Log2 fold change) between treatment and control  
345 groups (Table 1). Two of the nine proteins, S100-A8 (S100A8) and Coagulation factor X  
346 (F10), had a 1.27 and 0.23 decrease in expression in treatment groups, respectively.  
347 Five of the nine proteins had increases in expression: 0.92 for Platelet factor 4 (PF4),  
348 1.10 for Galectin-3 (LGALS3), 1.50 for BPI fold-containing family A member 2 (BPIFA2),  
349 2.30 for Protein AMBP (AMBP), and 2.40 for Arginase-1 (ARG1). Two of the immune  
350 proteins, Apoptosis-associated speck-like protein containing a CARD (PYCARD) and  
351 Calmodulin-4 (CALM4), lacked consistent signal between pairwise specimen  
352 comparisons. For PYCARD, one specimen showed increased expression and one  
353 showed decreased expression. For CALM4, two specimens were increased in  
354 expression and one decreased in expression.

355

## 356 **Muscle Contraction**

357 We recovered 13 proteins associated with muscle contraction, all of which had  
358 decreased expression for treatment specimens (Table 1). Seven of the 13 proteins are  
359 actin-based myosins (Myosins 1, 4, 7B, 8, Myosin Light chain 1, Tropomyosin 2, and  
360 Myosin regulatory light chain 2), with the remaining six being actin-specific proteins  
361 (Troponin T, Actins Alpha 1 and Alpha 2, Tintin, and Four and a half LIM domains protein  
362 1).

363

## 364 **Preliminary Test of Developmental Archive**

365 Genes associated with two of 20 tooth proteins previously found during mineralization  
366 (Pandya et al., 2017) are also found in tooth tissues prior to the onset of amelogenesis  
367 based on a query of GXD. Those genes are *Alpl* and *Itgb1*. Both are found only in the  
368 tooth developmental stage immediately prior to amelogenesis (TS21 associated with  
369 embryonic days 12.5-14). The genes associated with the remaining 18 proteins are  
370 found only in developmental stages associated with molar amelogenesis (TS22+,  
371 embryonic day 15 through postnatal day 8). Querying genes associated with our  
372 sample's differentially expressed immune and actin-based myosin proteins within GXD  
373 revealed that immune genes are universally expressed within tooth tissues during all  
374 reported stages until adulthood. Actin-based myosins were present from the onset of  
375 mineralization forward. Two of the actin-based myosins (*Actn2* & *Fhl1*) were reported as  
376 definitively absent from tooth tissues at E14.5 (i.e., just prior to mineralization) (Visel et  
377 al. 2004). Additionally, one gene (*Myh1*) was present in mineralization stages but was



378 definitively absent from postnatal week 6-8 aged mouse specimens (Freeman et al.  
379 1998).

380

## 381 **Discussion**

### 382 **Developmental Archive**

383 Results from GXD queries support the argument that our tooth proteome dataset  
384 primarily represents protein/gene expression during mineralization and not prior to  
385 mineralization. For example, genes for actin-based myosins of interest within our  
386 dataset are not expressed in mouse teeth prior to the onset of amelogenesis. While it is  
387 not possible to say whether the measured immune-system proteins in our sample were  
388 expressed during mineralization or at the time of euthanasia, previous studies (e.g.,  
389 Green et al. (2019) and Jagr et al. (2019)) have identified immune and inflammation  
390 related proteins incorporated within mature enamel. In our case, we recover several of  
391 the immune related proteins reported by those studies, including S100A8 and CALM4  
392 supporting the idea that molar enamel represents an archive of gene and protein  
393 expression during amelogenesis. Further evidence for this conclusion is supported by  
394 the fact that the gene for differentially expressed MYH1 in our dataset is not expressed  
395 after mineralization, indicating our MYH1 signal likely represents protein expression  
396 during mineralization rather than at a later time point (Freeman et al. 1998). Further, we  
397 would not expect expression of amelogenesis specific genes or proteins after the end of  
398 mineralization, because of the cessation of proliferation of ameloblasts and lack of  
399 vascularization within the fully mineralized tooth (Nanci 2007; Alghadeer et al. 2023).

400 While this hypothesis requires further validation, our results support the concept that the  
401 recovered proteome represents a limited window of development.

402

### 403 **Odontogenic Proteins**

404 We predicted that proteins associated with enamel and dentin formation would be  
405 altered by our feeding experiment, and specifically that they would be decreased in  
406 expression. The major enamel forming protein, AMELX, was significantly reduced in  
407 expression for treatment specimens (Table 1). We anticipated that our dietary protein  
408 reduction would impact body and possibly tooth size, and thus predicted that AMELX  
409 expression would likely be decreased, because AMELX is a necessary component for  
410 the formation of enamel. While changes in AMELX met our expectations, changes in  
411 dentin forming proteins did not.

412

413 In the case of DMP1, there is not a clear signal to interpret whether expression was  
414 increased or decreased in our sample. This highlights the challenges of drawing  
415 interpretations from proteomic data where individual variation can influence the overall  
416 interpretation. This challenge is recognized by the field of quantitative proteomics, but  
417 still represents an area where increased research efforts will be needed (Al-Amrani et  
418 al., 2021; Chantada-Vazquez et al., 2022; Liu & Zhang, 2021; Steward et al., 2023). A  
419 clearer interpretation of DMP1 expression, would be helpful for constructing future  
420 hypotheses. For instance, decreased expression of DMP1 should lead to decreased  
421 expression of DSPP and dentin hypomineralization, suggesting that DMP1 and DSPP  
422 expression contribute significantly to dentinogenesis imperfecta (Orsini et al., 2014) (Shi

423 et al., 2020). Being able to robustly identify such patterns or, at minimum, make  
424 supported interpretations based on the variable evidence, will enhance the utility of  
425 future quantitative proteomic studies.

426  
427 Our finding of increased DSPP expression seemed initially counterintuitive. However,  
428 this result is supported by a recent study of protein expression in a hypomineralized  
429 enamel defect found in humans (Mukhtar et al., 2022). In this study of hypomineralized  
430 molars, the enamel defect impacts the first permanent molars of children and results in  
431 a significant reduction in mineral density from normal teeth (Mukhtar et al., 2022). This  
432 reduced density was associated with downregulation of AMELX, upregulation of DSPP,  
433 but no reported differences in DMP1 expression (Mukhtar et al., 2022).

434  
435 The causal mechanism for the pattern of increased DSPP expression is unknown. The  
436 general role of DSPP is to control the conversion of dental pulp cells into odontoblasts  
437 via binding with Integrin beta 6 (ITGB6) (Ritchie, 2018; Wan et al., 2016). Previous work  
438 indicated that mice with either a DSPP heterozygous (DSPP<sup>+/-</sup>) or DSPP knockout  
439 (DSPP<sup>-/-</sup>) genotypes experience dentin dysplasia and dentinogenesis imperfecta due to  
440 haploinsufficiency of DSPP (Shi et al., 2020). Haploinsufficiency suggests that dentin is  
441 impacted when DSPP expression is decreased but does not indicate what phenotype  
442 results from elevated DSPP expression. Amelogenesis imperfecta enamel is typically  
443 thin and chalky while dentin appears to be normally mineralized, suggesting that DSPP  
444 overexpression does not result in dentin hypermineralization, but this has not been  
445 experimentally validated and dentin structure was not reported by Mukhtar et al. (2022).

446

447 Our proteomic results appear consistent with protein expression patterns associated  
448 with amelogenesis imperfecta and not dentinogenesis imperfecta, based on the shared  
449 expression changes for AMELX and DSPP (Mukhtar et al., 2022; Shi et al., 2022; Orsini  
450 et al., 2014). It is unlikely that both amelogenesis and dentinogenesis imperfecta are  
451 simultaneously present within a single specimen's dentition. Only a single study has  
452 reported compounded presence of amelogenesis and dentinogenesis imperfecta, which  
453 occurred in an MSX2 knockout transgenic line (Aioub et al., 2007). It remains to be  
454 tested if the mouse molars from our study have mineralized structures consistent with  
455 amelogenesis imperfecta. If so, this would suggest that development of thinner and less  
456 mineralized dental enamel is a phenotypically plastic response to reduced dietary protein  
457 during early development.

458

### 459 **Immune and Inflammation Proteins**

460 Previous work on mapping protein expression across micro-sampled enamel sections  
461 of pig molars had suggested that there was possibility of recovering immune and  
462 inflammation related proteins from mineralized dentition (Green et al., 2019). In their  
463 case, Green et al. (2019) were constructing a detailed map of proteomic expression  
464 associated with amelogenesis. Their reported immune system proteins were localized  
465 from enamel which came from along the enamel-dentin junction (Green et al., 2019).  
466 Their study was not designed nor attempted to induce differential protein expression  
467 based on experimental procedures. In our case, we were unsure if we would recover  
468 immune and inflammation proteins because we created a tissue-averaged signal by

469 crushing and processing the entire M1. By finding these proteins in our sample and  
470 recovering differential expression of them, we present a novel result of immune  
471 response to an environmental change. Of the nine immune or inflammation response  
472 proteins with significant fold change, five were increased in expression for treatments  
473 relative to controls, two were reduced in expression, and two had mixed interpretations  
474 (Table 1).

475  
476 Seven of the nine proteins are primarily associated with neutrophil degranulation,  
477 including transport and proliferation of neutrophils. Of these seven, five were increased  
478 in expression. However, Calmodulin 4 (CALM4) had a mixed interpretation and  
479 coagulation factor X (F10) was reduced in expression. Neutrophils function as critical,  
480 but specialized, immune system response molecules. Neutrophils contain granules of  
481 multiple types (azurophilic, specific, ficolin-rich, tertiary, and secretory), which target  
482 specific threats and/or regulate immune system response to specific infectious threats  
483 (Eichelberger & Goldman, 2020; Othman, Sekheri, & Filep, 2022 2022; Yin & Heit,  
484 2018).

485  
486 The precise nature of what was being targeted by immune system activation is  
487 unknown. However, the result of F10 being reduced in expression may provide some  
488 insight into the potential infectious threat. Deficiency of F10 has been implicated as part  
489 of an immune response to the common, antibiotic-resistant, bacterium *Acinetobacter*  
490 *baumannii* (Choby et al., 2019). In those cases, F10 deficiency is indicative of an  
491 increased abundance of neutrophils and macrophages (Choby et al., 2019). Thus,

492 though F10 is decreased in expression, relative to the increase in five other neutrophil  
493 degranulation proteins, the combination of patterns supports a conclusion that our  
494 treatment group had higher immune system response than our control group. Future  
495 research efforts to systematically compare immune-related proteomic signatures from  
496 mineralized structures to standardized health monitoring tools should prove fruitful.

497  
498 We also recovered changes in PYCARD and S100A8 within this sample, which are  
499 indicative of an inflammation response (Table 1). Studies have indicated that PYCARD  
500 directly mitigates inflammation when upregulated and contributes to inflammation when  
501 downregulated (Sartoretto et al., 2019; Wittmann, Behrendt, Mishra, Bossaller, & Meyer-  
502 Bahlburg, 2021 Bossaller, & Meyer-Bahlburg, 2021). In our sample, one treatment  
503 specimen showed a moderate increase in PYCARD expression over controls, and one  
504 showed a moderate decrease (Table 1). Importantly, deviation in either direction  
505 suggests that there is either an increased response to inflammation (increased  
506 expression) or increased inflammation present (decreased expression) (Sartoretto et al.,  
507 2019; Wittmann et al., 2021). Reduced expression is recovered for S100A8, which is  
508 consistent with an ongoing physiological response to inflammation (Wang et al., 2018).  
509 Thus, we recover a signal consistent with increased inflammation response, which  
510 indicates that there was increased inflammation in treatment specimens versus controls.

511  
512 Because of our controlled experimental design, we postulate that reduced dietary  
513 protein is the cause of increased inflammation. A recent study investigating the impact  
514 of low dietary protein during gestation indicates that intrauterine inflammation can occur

515 and result in increased inflammation present in the offspring of Syrian golden hamsters  
516 (Mohammed et al., 2023). While Mohammed et al. (2023) focused on measuring  
517 inflammation of the liver of the offspring, the connection between low dietary protein  
518 during embryonic and postnatal development and increased inflammation was strongly  
519 established. Our study and results further support this connection. Future studies should  
520 aim to systematically investigate proteomic signals of mineralized structures along with  
521 standardized inflammation panels. This would further establish the connection between  
522 dietary protein, inflammation, and the signals archived within mineralized structures.

523

#### 524 **Muscle Contraction Proteins**

525 All thirteen significantly modified Muscle Contraction pathway proteins were reduced in  
526 expression. They were predominantly actin-based myosins, which play a critical role in  
527 cellular movement and structure formation by acting as motor molecules (Guhathakurta  
528 et al., 2018). Actin-based myosins are broadly implicated in the proper development of  
529 many tissues, including dentition Du et al., 2024; Guhathakurta et al., 2018; Luis &  
530 Schnorrer, 2021). During dental development actin-based myosins contribute to the  
531 proper formation of enamel rods by transporting ameloblasts (Duverger & Morasso,  
532 2018). Lower expression of actin-based myosins, including some of those which are  
533 differentially expressed in our study (e.g., Myosin-1, Myosin-4, Myosin-8, and Tropinin 1)  
534 are associated with the syndromic form of amelogenesis imperfecta (Duverger &  
535 Morasso, 2018).

536

537 Lower expression of actin-based myosins have also been associated with smaller body  
538 size (Luis & Schnorrer, 2021). Smaller body size is an anticipated and often postulated  
539 phenotypically plastic response to reduced dietary protein (Holloway et al., 1961;  
540 Paynter & Grainer, 1956; Paynter & Grainer, 1961). To date, no proteomic study of  
541 dentition has recovered differential expression of actin-based myosins. however no  
542 dental proteomic study has attempted to experimentally induce differential expression of  
543 these proteins. Future investigations should center on understanding the distribution of  
544 actin-based myosins within the tooth and the correlation between protein expression  
545 and body size. One potential way is to directly investigate changes in actin-based  
546 myosin expression of other craniofacial tissues which are systematically reduced when  
547 body size is reduced. We propose this future direction because if such an approach is  
548 validated, it could serve as an independent proxy of growth. That such a proxy could be  
549 derived from proteins contained within a mineralized tooth could be a powerful tool for  
550 studies of phenotypic plasticity of deceased or extinct organisms.

551

### 552 **Potential Pathways for Phenotypic Plasticity**

553 We recovered 35 significantly enriched REACTOME pathways from our 120 significantly  
554 differentially expressed proteins. Among those pathways, two of the top six most  
555 enriched pathways, regulation of insulin-like growth factor and muscle contraction, have  
556 proteins that play many roles during morphogenesis.

557

558 Insulin-like growth factor plays a role in a number of different developmental processes,  
559 including odontogenesis, bone development, organ development, and brain



560 development (Oyanagi et al., 2019; Baroncelli et al., 2017; S. M. Brown, Peters, &  
561 Lawrence, 2017 2017; Chen, Martin-Gronert, Tarry-Adkins, & Ozanne, 2009; Dodington  
562 et al., 2021; Luo, Liu, Luo, Wang, & Tao, 2020 Wang, & Tao, 2020; Montivero et al.,  
563 2021; Vassilakos et al., 2019). Thus, regulation of IGF is a complex set of processes  
564 with many different factors involved in regulating expression in different tissues. This  
565 includes regulation by thyroid growth hormone (Yakar & Isaksson, 2016) and regulation  
566 via phosphorylation of binding proteins to aid in transport, activation, and inhibition  
567 (Chrudinova et al., 2024; Dong et al., 2022; Huttlin et al., 2010; Palma-Lara et al., 2023;  
568 Tagliabracci et al., 2015). Given the importance of IGF to multiple developmental  
569 processes, regulation of IGF is a probable candidate for a mechanism underlying  
570 phenotypic plasticity. Experimental manipulation of IGF1 and IGF2 during  
571 odontogenesis has revealed systematic changes to the size and number of cusps of  
572 developing molars (Oyanagi et al., 2019). The connection between IGF1 and IGF2 gene  
573 expression and proteins associated with IGF regulation, which includes Amelogenin X,  
574 is not currently well understood (Bansal et al., 2012; Oyanagi et al., 2019; Pandya &  
575 Diekwisch, 2021). However, regulation of insulin-like growth factor offers a promising  
576 pathway for future investigation, particularly in elucidating responses of IGF gene  
577 expression and associated regulatory factors to environmental perturbations, such as  
578 poor diet.

579

580 Similarly, our collection of proteins from the muscle contraction pathway are primarily  
581 actin-based myosins. The function of myosins as motor proteins is well documented, but  
582 the specific nature of how myosins interact during odontogenesis is poorly understood

583 (Du et al., 2024; Guhathakurta et al., 2018). Previous proteomic studies of teeth have  
584 not reported differential expression of actin-based myosins, making this result  
585 unexpected. Simultaneously, those studies were not attempting to experimental induce  
586 plastic responses like our study. The connection of actin-based myosins with body size  
587 and potentially with amelogenesis imperfecta suggests that future investigations may be  
588 fruitful. These future studies would hopefully confirm the results we recovered and  
589 validate a link between protein expression and body size variation.

590

## 591 **Conclusions**

592 Proteomic expression results supported our prediction that halving dietary protein during  
593 embryogenesis and early postnatal development would alter expression of proteins  
594 recovered from mouse molars. Specifically, we identified 120 differentially expressed  
595 proteins associated with a reduction of dietary protein during embryonic and early  
596 postnatal development. Changes in dietary protein have been proposed to result in  
597 phenotypically plastic changes to tooth and body size and shape. Our study provides  
598 quantification of the proteomic pathways which could underlie these plastic changes.  
599 We recovered significant changes in proteins associated with dental development,  
600 which are primarily within the pathway associated with regulation of Insulin-Like Growth  
601 Factor. The connection between IGF and dental proteins remains to be further  
602 investigated, but changes in expression in this pathway could directly influence tooth  
603 size and shape. We also identified systematically reduced expression for proteins in the  
604 Muscle contraction pathway, specifically actin-based myosins, a novel discovery for

605 tooth-derived proteomics data. Actin-based myosins are broadly implicated in vertebrate  
606 development and are correlated with body size and tooth development.

607

608 Our controlled feeding experiment induced increased immune system activation and  
609 inflammation response, as evidenced by increased expression of proteins in the  
610 Neutrophil degranulation pathway. While this result does not directly inform us about  
611 phenotypic plasticity, that we are able to derive such information from a fully mineralized  
612 tooth could prove useful for studying the biology of deceased or extinct organisms.

613

614 We propose that proteomic quantification of non-experimental organisms will prove  
615 fruitful and predict that dietary changes in wild settings will change enamel and dentin  
616 formation by altering aspects of the IGF regulatory pathway and potentially expression  
617 of actin-based myosins. Future research efforts then should focus on elucidating the  
618 connection between IGF gene expression and enamel and dentin protein expression;  
619 determining the role of actin-based myosins in tooth and skeletal development and body  
620 size; and comparing the immune and inflammation signals in proteomic data to  
621 classically used tools (e.g., blood panels and cortisol screening). With these efforts it  
622 will become clearer precisely which sections of these pathways underlie this kind of  
623 phenotypically plastic response and enhance the utility of quantitative proteomics for  
624 investigating organismal biology more broadly.

625

## 626 **Acknowledgments**

627

628 We thank the Stony Brook Division of Laboratory Animal Research (DLAR), particularly  
629 Laurie Levine, for animal husbandry and management. We thank Dr. John Haley of the  
630 Stony Brook University Proteomics Core Facility, for sample preparation and initial post-

631 processing. We thank the Stony Brook University Center for Inclusive Education staff:  
632 Lisa Ospitale, Karian Wright, Diana Champney, and Erica Valdez, for their support.  
633 Author RWB was funded via an Institutional Research and Academic Career  
634 Development Award (IRACDA) made to Stony Brook University from the National  
635 Institute of General Medical Sciences of the National Institutes of Health  
636 [K12GM102778], and startup funding to NSV from Stony Brook University. The content  
637 is solely the responsibility of the authors and does not necessarily represent official  
638 views of the National Institutes of Health.

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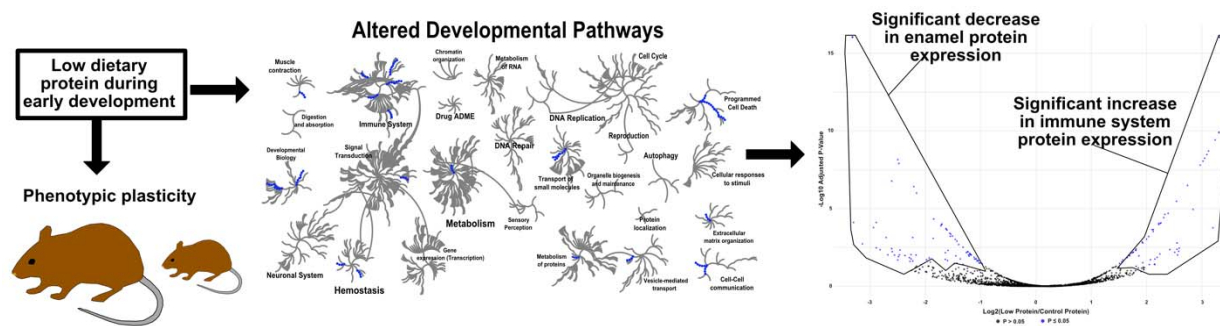


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## Graphical Abstract:



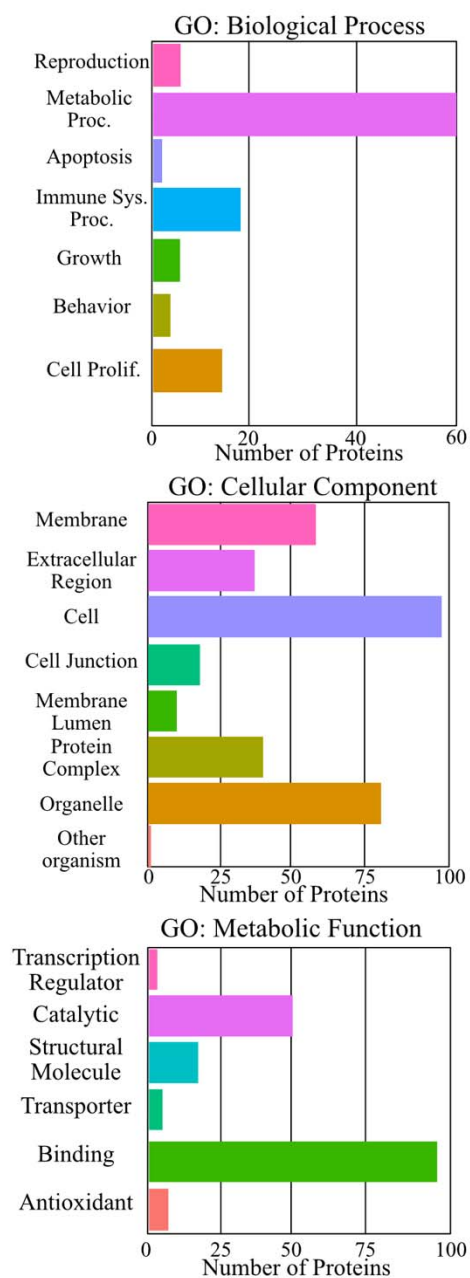


Figure 1: Most enriched pathways from Gene Ontology (GO) analysis of the 120 significant differentially expressed proteins between treatment and control specimens.