# METHODS OF PROTEIN SEPARATION

Volume 2

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## **PREFACE**

This open-end treatise on methods concerning protein separation had its beginning in an American Chemical Society symposium entitled "Contemporary Protein Separation Methods" which was held in Atlantic City, New Jersey in September 1974. The purpose of the symposium—and subsequently of the present work—was to review the available modern techniques and underlying principles for achieving one of the very important tasks of experimental biology, namely the separation and characterization of proteins present in complex biological mixtures. Physicochemical characterization was covered only as related to the parent method of fractionation and therefore involved mostly mass transport processes. Additionally, the presentation of methods for gaining insight into complex interacting protein profiles was considered of paramount importance in the interpretation of separation patterns. Finally, specific categories of proteins (e.g., chemically modified, deriving from a specific tissue, conjugated to different moieties, etc.) require meticulous trial and selection and/or modification of existing methodology to carry out the desired separation. In such cases, the gained experience provides valuable guidelines for further experimentation.

Although powerful techniques exist today for the separation and related physicochemical characterization of proteins, many biological fractionation problems require further innovations. It is hoped that the description in the present treatise of some of the available separation tools and their limitations will provide the necessary integrated background for new developments in this area.

Nicholas Catsimpoolas

Cambridge, Massachusetts

# **CONTENTS**

Cont	ents of Volume 1	•	•	•	•	•	•	xvii
Chap	ter 1							
Scan	ning Gel Chromatography							
Gary	K. Ackers							
I.	Introduction							1
II.	Instrumentation							2
	A. Scanning Gel Chromatographs:	Gen	eral	Desc	riptic	n	•	2
	B. Optical and Photometric Require	mei	nts					4
Ш.	Experimental Parameters				• •	•	•	6
	A. Partition Cross Sections and Part	titio	n Co	effici	ents	•		6
	B. Small-Zone Transport			•			•	9
	C. Large-Zone Transport					•		10
	D. Axial Dispersion				•		•	13
	E. Equilibrium Saturation Method		•					16
IV.	Applications to Interacting Solutes		•					17
	A. Protein Subunit Interactions .		•					17
	B. Macromolecule Ligand Binding				•			20
	C. Active Enzyme Transport .							21
V.	Concluding Remarks		•		•			24
VI.	References							25

K CONTENTS

## Chapter 2

<b>Analytical and Preparative Polyac</b>	crylamide Gel Electrophoresis: An
<b>Objectively Defined Fractionation</b>	Route, Apparatus, and Procedures

4	Chumuchach	$\boldsymbol{\tau}$	1/	Lauin	D	7	Cuandaan	and D	Dodhard	

I.	Concept	of an "O	bjectively	Def	ined l	Fracti	onat	ion F	loute		2
		antitative'									2
	B. Cho	ice of Poly	acrylamid	le G	el Ele	ctгор	hore	sis .			2
		arative-Sc									2
II.	Optimiz	ation of th	e pH of F	AG	E		•				3
		rge Fractio									3
		king in M									3
		vs. MZE								•	:
	D. MZ	E Output								•	2
	E. Proc	edure of	Selection	of	Oper	ative	pН	and	Sele	ctive	
	Stac	king Limit	s .								4
	1. <b>P</b> c	larity and	Temperat	ure							4
	2. Po	re Size									•
		ne MZE Sy									
	4. Io	nic Streng	th .								
	5. Sy	stems Out	put .						•	•	
	6. <b>S</b> t	ability Tes	t							•	
		kperimenta									
	8. Se	lective Sta	cking .				•				
III.	Determi	nation of	Reproduc	ible	$R_f$ - $\%$	T Se	ts: <i>R</i>	f as a	Phy	sical	
	Constan	it								•	
	A. Con	trol of Pol	ymerizatio	on			•			•	
		hoice, Puri			Stoic	hiome	etric	Use	of M	ono-	
		ers of Poly									
	a.	Reagent l	Purity	٠	•					•	
		Control o								•	
	2. F1	ee Radica	l and Red	ox (	Condi	tions				•	
		Initiators								•	
		Inhibitors								•	
		Redox								•	
		olymerizati									
	4. To	emperature					•			•	
	5. Po	olymer Ge	ometry an	d Te	empo	ral St	abili	t <b>y</b>		•	
	6. R	ate of Poly	merizatio	n			•			•	
	7. Pi	ocedure o	f Polymer	izati	on of	Cylii	ndric	al Ge	els .	•	

CONTENTS xi

8. Procedure of Pol	ymerizatio	on of (	One-	Din	nensic	nal V	ertic	al
Gel Slab.						•		
Gel Slab.  B. Control of Electrop	horesis				•		•	
1. Solvent								
a. Buffer .								
b. Ionic Solutes								
b. Ionic Solutes c. Nonionic Sol	utes .		•					
d. Preelectropho	resis .							
<ul><li>2. Joule Heating</li><li>3. Procedure of Ele</li></ul>								
3. Procedure of Ele	ectrophore	esis			•			
a. Load b. Procedure for								
b. Procedure for	Cylindri	cal G	els					
c. Procedure of	Electropl	horesi	is or	ı the	Part	ition	ed G	el
Slab						•		
<ul><li>PAGE Strategy</li><li>A. Computer Program</li></ul>								
A. Computer Program	s (PAGE	-PAC	K)					
B. Ferguson Plot .								
C. Physical Characteri	zation							
1. Molecular Weigl	ht, Valenc	ce						
2. $K_R - Y_0$ Ellipses								
3. SDS-PAGE .								
3. SDS-PAGE . D. $T_{\text{opt}}$ : Optimization	of Gel Co	ncen	trati	on				
E. Charge Fractionation	on .				•			
F. Macromolecular M	apping							
G. Preparative-Scale P	AGE .		_					
Apparatus, Computer	Programs.	and	Рго	cedu	res			
A. MZE Output								
B. Analytical PAGE A	Accessorv							
1. Analytical PAG								
a. Tube and Ver	rtical Slab	App	arat	us				
Temperature	Control							
Temperature Versatile Loa	d Capacit	v						
An Interchar							for	a
	al Gel Sla							
Hydrostatic F	Equilibrati	ion		·			_	
Safety Interlo	ck. Level	. and	Dra	ıin				
b. Vertical Two	-Dimension	onal S	lab	Apr	paratu	s		
c. Horizontal SI	ab Appar	atus				-		
	·							
<ol> <li>3. Illuminator .</li> <li>4. Overlayering and</li> </ol>	d Sample	Annl	icati	on.	•	•		•
5. Constant-Tempe								•

xii CONTENTS

	6.	Gel-Removing Tools	,						
	7.	Reagent Kits							
		a. MZE Constituent Kit .							
		Reagent Kits							
		c. PAGE Solvents and Solu	biliz	zers					Ĭ
		<ul><li>d. Tracking Dyes and Stains</li><li>e. Molecular Size Standards</li></ul>	S						
		e. Molecular Size Standards	for	PA	GE				
		f. Prefabricated, Storable G	el K	Cit			-		
		g. Isoelectric Focusing in I						IFPA	Ġ
		Kit							
		h. Spacer Kit for Isotachopl	hore	sis					
	8.	Pore Gradient Gel Electroph	hore	sis				_	
		a. Apparatus							
		Pore Gradient Gel Electropha. Apparatus b. Procedure							
	9.	Apparatus for Determina	atio	n .	of	Polv	meri	zatio	n
		Efficiency							_
	10.	Efficiency			_				
C.	SI	ice-Stain Accessory		-				•	•
Ψ.	1	ice-Stain Accessory  Vials and Test Tubes	•	•		•	•	•	•
	2.	Destainer	•						•
	3	Transverse Gel Slicer	•	•	•				•
	4	Longitudinal Gel Slicer	•	•	•	•			•
D	R.	Longitudinal Gel Slicer -Measurement Accessory	•	•	•	•	•	•	•
٠.	1.	-Measurement Accessory  Procedure of Staining and R  Procedure of Electronic R. N	≥. M	[easi	· Irema	ent	•	•	•
	2	Procedure of Electronic $R_f$ N	Mea Mea	cure	ment	J11 t	•	•	•
									•
	4	Densitometry Autoradiography	•	•	•	•	•	•	•
F	C	omputer Programs for Analy	eie i	· of D	AGE	Dot	. (D	AGE	•
L.		ACK)	313	01 1	AUL	Dai	a (F	AUL	·-
F		and Dispersion Measurement	•	•	•	•	•	•	•
G	Pr	eparative PAGE		•	•				•
Ο.	1	Extraction of Protein from (	Gal :	Slice		•	•	•	•
	2	Extraction of Protein from C Milligram-Preparative Elutica. Apparatus	on D	MC	is E	•	•	•	•
	2.	a Annaratus	<i>)</i> 11 1	AU	L	•	•	•	•
		Load Canacity		•	•	•	•	•	•
		Load Capacity	•	•	•	•	•		•
		Geometric Restrictions .  Design of the Elution Characteristic Control .	aml		•	•	•	•	•
		Temperature Control	ailit	)ÇI	•	•	•	•	•
		Electrical Field Symmetry	•	•	•	•	•	•	•
									•
		Wall Adherence Hydrostatic Equilibration		•	•	•	•	•	•
		h Procedural Parameters of		•	•		٠ _		

CONTENTS	xiii

	Choice of Elution Buffer							112
	Choice of Elution Buffer	Flow I	Rate					113
	Choice of Gel and Gel Ve	olume						114
	Choice of Current Densit	у.						114
	Concentration Method .							114
	Eluate Analysis							115
	Eluate Analysis by Analy	tical P.	AGE					115
	Procedure of Eluate An						t"	
	Immunoelectrophor	esis						116
	Impurities							116
	3. Microgram-Preparative Elut							117
	4. Isotachophoresis in Polyacry							117
	5. Continuous-Flow Apparatus							118
VI.	Summary and Epilogue							118
VII.	Appendices						Ī	119
	A. The Meaning of Homogeneity	_			į	·	·	119
	B. Forms of Charge Fractionation	n.	·				•	120
	C. Representative MZE Buffer Sy			•	·	•	•	121
	D. Purification of the Reactan			Pol	· vmei	izati	On.	
	Reaction						Ų.	138
	E. Activity Assay on Analytical C	i iels	·	•	•	•	•	138
	F. Glossary of Terms	J 010	Ċ	•	•	•	•	139
VIII	References	•	:	•	•			141
V 111.	Telefolious	•	•	•	•	•	•	171
Chap	ter 3							
_	ation of Molecular Weight by Gel 1	Filtrati		a C.	.1			
	ophoresis. I. Mathematical Princip		оп ян	u G	<b>51</b>			
Liecu	ophoresis. 1. Wathematical I linei	hies						
David	l Rodbard							
т	Introduction							145
		•	•	•	•	•	•	145
11,	A 77 10 B	•	-	-	_	•	•	146
	D D' ( 'I ( ' CD C'		•		•			
III	Estimation of Molecular Weight 1							148
III.	A. Gel Filtration	baseu (	on the	_		MO	uei	160
	<ul><li>A. Gel Filtration</li><li>B. Polyacrylamide Gel Electrophe</li></ul>		•	•		•	•	160
	C SDS DACE	oresis	•	•	•		•	163
	C. SDS-PAGE				•	•	•	166
	D. Other Methods Based on the C	gston	MOd	ei		٠	•	170
7 . 7	E. Relationship to Other Physico	cnemic	cai Mo	etho	as	•	•	172
	Concluding Remarks	•				•	•	174
٧.	Appendix	•	•	•	•	•	•	176
٧ı	References		•		•			178

xiv CONTENTS

## Chapter 4

Estimation of Molec	ular Weight by	Gel Filtration	and Gel
Electrophoresis. II.	Statistical and	Computational	Considerations

	- 11	
David	Radh	ard

	Introduction
II.	Statistical Models
	A. Model I: Relationship between $R_f$ and Molecular Weight
	B. Model II: $Log(R_f)$ vs. MW
	C. Model III: Sigmoidal Relationship between $R_f$ (or $K_{av}$ )
	and log (MW)
	D. Comparison of Models I-III
	E. Model IV: The Ogston Model
III.	Discussion
IV.	Appendixes
	A. Detection of Outliers
	B. Testing Goodness of Fit
	C. Relationship between Number of Standard Proteins and
	Size of Confidence Limits
	D. Confidence Limits for a Line
	E. A BASIC Program for Weighted Nonlinear Least-Squares
	Curve Fitting
	F. Weighting for the Logit, Probit, or erfc <sup>-1</sup> Functions .
	G. Glossary of Terms
V.	References
Chapi	er 5
7.nne	Electrophoresis, Isoelectric Focusing, and Displacement
	ophoresis (Isotachophoresis) in Carrier-Free Solution
	- , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,
Stella	n Hjertén
I.	Introduction: A Comparison between Electrophoresis in Free
	Solution and in the Presence of Supporting Media
Π.	Zone Stabilization by Rotation of the Electrophoresis Tube .
	A Short Description of the Electrophoresis Equipment
	The Application Range for the Equipment for Carrier-Free
	Electrophoresis
V.	Applications
••	Applications
4	
	B. Isoelectric Focusing.

CONTENTS	· <b>x</b>	Ī

C. Displacement Electrophoresis	228 231
Chapter 6	
Hydrophobic Interaction Chromatography of Proteins on Neutral Adsorbents	
Stellan Hjertén	
1. Introduction II. Terminology III. Concept of Hydrophobic Interaction IV. Method for Coupling of Alkyl or Aryl Groups to Agarose A. Displacement of Water from the Agarose Gel by Dioxane B. Coupling of Glycidyl Ethers to Agarose C. Displacement of Dioxane from the Agarose Gel by Water V. Adsorption and Desorption Parameters VI. Enzyme Reactors VII. Applications A. Hydrophobic Interaction Chromatography of Plasma Proteins B. Hydrophobic Interaction Chromatography of Membrane Proteins VIII. References	233 234 234 238 238 238 239 239 241 242 242
Chapter 7  Hydrophobic Adsorption Chromatography of Proteins  B. H. J. Hofstee  I. Introduction	245
II. General Background	247 247
Binding C. Nonspecific vs. Specific Binding D. Nonspecific Protein Binding in Biospecific Adsorption	251 254
(Affinity) Chromatography	255 259 259
B. Factors Affecting Hydrophobic Adsorption	262

xvi	CONTENT

											~
	C. Adsorbent			•	•	•	•	•	•	•	265
	D. Chromato				•		•	•		•	268
	E. Separation	of Prote	in Mix	tures	•	•		٠	٠		270
IV.	References			•	•	٠	•	•	•	•	275
Chapt	er 8										
-	rptive Chromat	oomonby:	Down	ful De			a D	anid			
	ne Purification	ograpny.	I OWEI	iui kit	Jecut	1163 1	OI N	apru			
Leslie	H. Kirkegaard	i									
I.	Introduction										279
	A. Importance	e of Mul	tistage	Equili	briur	n Pr	oced	ures			280
	B. Relationsh	ip of Sie	vorpti	ve Chr	oma	togra	phy	to C	lassi	cal	
	Procedure	s .									282
П.	Ion Filtration	Chroma	tograp	hy .							284
	A. Principles	of Separa	ation								284
	B. Technique	of Ion F	iltratio	n Chr	omat	ogra	phy				290
Ш.	Intervent Dilu	tion Chr	omato	graphy				•			292
	A. Concept o	f Interve	nt Dilu	ition C	hron	nato	grapl	ıy		•	293
	B. Technique										297
	C. Separation										299
IV.	Gradient Siev										302
	A. Concept o	-			-	roma	togra	aphy			303
	B. Technique			_			_	_			310
	C. Examples										312
V.	Use of Sievor									n.	316
	Summary										318
	References										318
			-		-	•	•	-	-	-	
Index											321

# SCANNING GEL CHROMATOGRAPY

1

GARY K. ACKERS

#### I. INTRODUCTION

Gel permeation chromatography is widely used both as a preparative separation technique and as an analytical tool for the estimation of molecular size and the study of interactions between macromolecules. In this latter category it is unsurpassed among physical techniques in sensitivity, precision, and flexibility. The migration rates and detailed shapes of zones containing interacting solutes permit the determination of reaction stoichiometry and equilibrium constants over a very broad range of conditions. In addition to these nonequilibrium transport methods, the technique of equilibrium gel permeation provides a powerful means to study thermodynamic properties of multicomponent interacting solute systems, such as macromolecule-ligand binding (see Ackers, 1975, for a general review). A new and particularly promising development is the technique of active enzyme chromatography (Jones, 1975; Jones et al., 1976), in which a small band of enzyme is passed down a column previously saturated with substrate and the product of the enzymatic reaction is monitored by successive optical scanning of the column during transport. By determining the "rate of motion" of the chromophoric product being formed, it is possible to infer the molecular size of the active species.

2 GARY K. ACKERS

The most commonly employed experimental arrangement for analytical applications of gel chromatography is the conventional elution experiment in which concentrations of solute are monitored (e.g., by spectrophotometry) in the effluent as a function of time. This has the virtue of requiring an absolute minimum in equipment. However, a great deal of information is lost by such procedures wherein the solute profile is sampled at only a single point in space (i.e., that corresponding to the end of the column). An alternative approach to the elution mode of data acquisition lies in direct optical scanning of the solute profiles at a sequence of stages during transport along the column (Brumbaugh and Ackers, 1968). In this way, a large amount of detailed information regarding shapes and positions can be determined rapidly during the course of an experiment. It is the purpose of this chapter to review the technique of scanning gel chromatography and to describe the applications of this technique to analysis of macromolecular solutes. The theoretical background of gel chromatography has been brought to a rather complete stage of development elsewhere (for a recent review, see Ackers, 1975) and will not be discussed further here.

#### II. INSTRUMENTATION

### A. Scanning Gel Chromatographs: General Description

The instrumentation required for direct optical scanning of gel columns is basically very simple in design, although considerably higher performance is required than for scanning continuous slabs or cylinders of gel. The high photometric performance is required because of the great amount of light scattered by the gel particles. The diagram in Figure 1 shows the general features of such a system, which is representative of several scanning gel chromatographs developed in our laboratory. In these instruments the column is made to move while the optics remain stationary, although other arrangements are possible. Columns consist of precision-bore quartz and are fitted at top and bottom with porous polyethylene discs. The column and its adapter are mounted on a precision screw with a scanning range determined by limiting microswitches at each end. A beam of light from a stable deuterium or tungsten source is passed through the monochromator (and any additional filters used) and subsequently through a horizontal slit 1 mm high. Thus a 1-mm "slice" of the column is sampled by a beam which is 2 mm wide or less, depending on the (vertical) monochromator slit width. This beam of parallel monochromatic light, rectangular in cross section, is passed through the

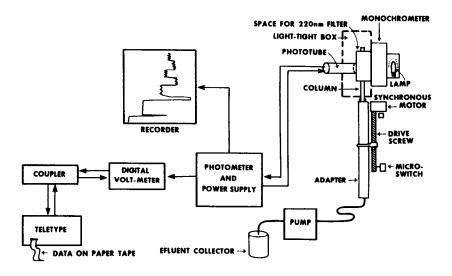


FIGURE 1. Schematic diagram of scanning gel chromatograph with digital data acquisition system.

column. Light exiting from the column (again through an identical 1-mm horizontal slit) is measured by an end-on photomultiplier positioned close to the column track. Columns of approximately 1 by 15 cm with gel bed volumes of 10 ml are most commonly used in applications to be described here. Samples are added manually to the column. Signals from the photomultiplier are fed into an amplifier with a digital voltmeter-coupler, and the output voltages, proportional to transmittance, are recorded on a teletype equipped with a paper tape punch (380 data points for a 10-cm scan) as well as on a strip chart recorder. The recorder is used primarily as a visual monitor on the quality of data being produced in successive scans. The punched paper tapes are analyzed on a minicomputer by an interactive program that permits great flexibility in editing, averaging, etc. The criterion used for reproducibility of baselines and repetitive scans of other kinds is that they must be within 0.0015 absorbance unit—a level of precision easily achieved with our instrument even at wavelengths of 220 nm. Scans are performed while the column is flowing. The flow is controlled by an external pump on the output side of the system and is always set at a value less than the column's natural flow rate. Typical flow rates range between 1 and 6 ml/hr and typical scanning times are on the order of 3 min.

4 GARY K. ACKERS

## B. Optical and Photometric Requirements

For accurate quantitative work, the requirement of high photometric accuracy and linearity must be met at high absorbances (e.g., up to 3.0 absorbance units) because of the need to work above the high light-scattering background of the gels. This background may be as high as 1-2 absorbance units, as shown in Figure 2 for a series of Sephadex gels at different wavelengths. For studies with proteins at very low concentration, it is necessary that the photometric requirements be met at wavelengths below 280 nm, in the region of the peptide bond absorption (which has a maximum near 190 nm). The instruments we have developed operate successfully on the side of this band, at wavelengths down to 210 nm, and routinely at 220 nm,

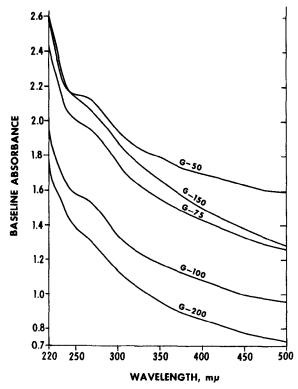


FIGURE 2. Apparent absorbances due to light scattering by Sephadex gels as a function of wavelength (pathlength 0.945 cm). These values define the baselines above which absorbances by chromophoric solutes must be measured. From Ackers (1970).