

Preface

This second edition continues the tradition of the first, to present experimental procedures that will be applicable to many proteins and that can be performed in an average laboratory, without the need for specialized equipment.

A first priority in characterizing any new protein is to identify it by its primary structure. Very often, a new protein is found to be homologous in sequence to a protein of known function and to share at least some of those functional properties. The latest techniques for identifying proteins are described in Chapter 1.

It is very often the case that a new protein is first identified genetically, so its gene and primary structure are known before the protein itself has been noticed. It is not unusual for the protein in its natural state to be present in only minute quantities, so that its purification is impractical. This is most often the case with proteins of the greatest functional specific activity and of the greatest pharmaceutical use. This low level of natural occurrence is no longer a major obstacle to characterizing and making practical use of the protein, for it is almost routine to produce a protein in large quantities by expressing its cloned gene. The most useful host for this procedure is *Escherichia coli*, and the procedures for expressing any cloned gene in this way are described in Chapter 2.

Genes expressed in *E. coli* or other hosts often produce their polypeptide chains in an unfolded, insoluble state. This is frequently the greatest obstacle to producing large quantities of a protein in a useful form. The expressed protein must be induced to adopt its native, functional state before it will be useful. The general procedures for doing so are described in Chapter 3.

A common theme of protein function is that it invariably involves the protein interacting physically with other molecules; a protein never acts in isolation, but always acts upon something. So a major concern is to characterize the interaction of the protein with these other molecules. Chapter 4 describes the methods for doing so, concentrating on membrane-bound proteins, especially receptors, which play such a central role. The thorny question of the significance and molecular basis of co-operativity in ligand binding, especially the more frequent negative co-operativity, is addressed, along with suggested procedures for clarifying the situation.

Electrophoresis is a major technique in studying protein structure (see *Protein structure: a practical approach* and *Gel electrophoresis of proteins: a practical approach*), and it is becoming a very useful technique for studying protein function also. Central to this is the ability to blot a protein band or spot from a polyacrylamide gel onto a membrane to which it sticks tightly. Somewhat miraculously, a significant fraction of these bound molecules can be induced to refold and to regain their ligand-binding properties. As described in Chapter 5, these functional properties can be characterized very easily.

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Biologically relevant ligand binding occurs almost invariably at specific sites on proteins, and it is important to identify and characterize all such binding sites. One of the most direct methods for doing so is by affinity labelling, described in Chapter 6. A reactive group is incorporated into a ligand and thereby reacts with the protein much more rapidly when bound than when free in solution, due to the very high 'effective concentrations' that can occur in ligand-protein complexes. With larger ligands, such as other protein molecules, the interacting macromolecules can be identified by cross-linking them covalently in the complex, using reagents with two reactive groups, one at each end of a suitable linker moiety. Techniques for doing so are described in Chapter 7. The procedures described in these two chapters are illustrated for specific classes of ligands, but they should be readily adapted to other complexes and ligands.

One of the most biologically important areas of protein function is in the control of gene expression, which invariably involves proteins binding to DNA and to RNA. Most of the regulatory proteins occur in very small quantities within the cell and have consequently been very difficult to study. Many of the techniques used have relied upon the properties of the nucleic acids, rather than the protein itself. These involve the identification of DNA-protein complexes by the change in electrophoretic mobility of a small fragment of DNA produced by its binding to a protein; such complexes are usually extremely tight and long-lived, so that they can survive an electrophoretic separation, as in 'bandshift gels'. The specific sites on the DNA occupied by the protein can be identified by the aptly-named 'footprinting' technique. Chapter 8 describes these techniques using purified sequence-specific DNA-binding proteins, while Chapter 9 describes how to use them to identify such proteins in crude extracts, and then how to purify them with the use of DNA affinity chromatography. (The general techniques of protein purification and affinity chromatography with other ligands are described in the volumes *Protein purification: a practical approach* and *Affinity chromatography: a practical approach*.)

The quickest way to identify the functional groups of a protein, even with the advent of protein engineering, remains the classical approach of chemical modification, described in Chapter 10. Once they have been identified, their functional roles can be delineated using the more specific approach of site-directed mutagenesis and protein engineering.

Comparable simple techniques for characterizing protein structure are to be found in the companion volume *Protein structure: a practical approach*. For a comprehensive description of the properties of proteins, see the second edition of my volume *Proteins: structures and molecular properties* (W. H. Freeman, New York, 1993).

Heidelberg, Germany
March 1997

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