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# Optimizing total reflection X-ray fluorescence for direct trace element quantification in proteins I: Influence of sample homogeneity and reflector type<sup>☆</sup>

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## ABSTRACT

Total reflection X-ray fluorescence (TXRF) is a very promising method for the direct, quick and reliable multi-elemental quantification of trace elements in protein samples. With the introduction of an internal standard consisting of two reference elements, scandium and gallium, a wide range of proteins can be analyzed, regardless of their salt content, buffer composition, additives and amino acid composition. This strategy also enables quantification of matrix effects. Two potential issues associated with drying have been considered in this study: (1) Formation of heterogeneous residues of varying thickness and/or density; and (2) separation of the internal standard and protein during drying (which has to be prevented to allow accurate quantification). These issues were investigated by microbeam X-ray fluorescence (μXRF) with special emphasis on (I) the influence of sample support and (II) the protein/buffer system used. In the first part, a model protein was studied on well established sample supports used in TXRF, PIXE and XRF (Mylar, siliconized quartz, Plexiglas and silicon). In the second part we imaged proteins of different molecular weight, oligomerization state, bound metals and solubility.

A partial separation of protein and internal standard was only observed with untreated silicon, suggesting it may not be an adequate support material. Siliconized quartz proved to be the least prone to heterogeneous drying of the sample and yielded the most reliable results.

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## 1. Introduction

Trace elements are essential for organisms from all kingdoms of life. Pathogenic bacteria compete with their hosts for the limited amounts of essential elements, such as iron [1–3] and control of trace element availability may open new ways to fight bacterial diseases. This however requires an in-depth understanding of the steps involved in trace element homeostasis. Regardless of the great potential of such an approach today only in a limited number of studies accurate quantifications of the trace element content are available. Irrespective of the level, cellular or molecular, this limits future research, because in total, 20 to 30% of all proteins contain metals, either to stabilize protein structures, regulate gene expression, transport electrons or oxygen, induce protein activity or catalyze enzymatic reactions [4].

These days most proteins for research, irrespective of their origin, are expressed in genetically modified bacteria such as *Escherichia coli*.

Consequently metal sites are sometimes not correctly assembled, because essential maturation proteins are lacking in *E. coli* [5]. Moreover, the metal contents after isolation can vary from batch to batch in amount and profile. At the same time, for research on isolated proteins the knowledge of type and number of bound metals provides valuable insights: for uncharacterized proteins certain metals can be associated with potential protein functions, which provide a starting point for further studies. For well-known proteins the exact metal profile is essential to interpret biochemical, molecular biology as well as structural data.

To become a routine tool for the determination of protein-bound trace elements an analytical method has to fulfill several requirements:

- (1) Sufficient sensitivity to detect metals for a wide range of protein concentrations and protein buffers
- (2) Capability of detecting all relevant elements in a single measurement
- (3) Requiring as few resources (e.g., time, manpower, money) as possible
- (4) Possibility for high sample throughput
- (5) Quick measurement and evaluation

A method often used to analyze the elemental composition of protein samples is microbeam Proton Induced X-ray Emission (μPIXE) [4,6–8]. The advantages of μPIXE are its multi-element detection

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capability and the utilization of the protein-intrinsic sulphur standard. Unfortunately, this elegant approach imposes several restrictions on the sample (e.g. protein must contain reasonable number of sulphur atoms, buffer components may not contain any sulphur, chlorine should be replaced by bromine, samples should be thin since the sulphur signal is easily affected by matrix effects). While it is possible to prepare special  $\mu$ PIXE-samples fulfilling these requirements the common denominator for different biochemical, structural and spectroscopic experiments is lost. On the other hand  $\mu$ PIXE is a spatial resolved technique and therefore able to overcome dust contaminations. But due to the scanning process the measurement takes considerable time and its evaluation typically requires expert knowledge.

An alternative to  $\mu$ PIXE is Total Reflection X-ray fluorescence (TXRF) (see [9] and references herein) which already has shown its potential for protein samples [10,11]. This technique allows multi-element detection with a better sensitivity than  $\mu$ PIXE: indeed, its lowest limits of detection (LLDs) are in the order of pg/ $\mu$ l for elements with  $Z > 18$  (e.g. see Table 5-2 in [9]). Since TXRF is an integrating method, measurements require only a few seconds and easy online data evaluation gives immediate access to most biological relevant trace element concentrations, which allows for high-throughput operation.

In TXRF contaminations (e.g. by dust particles) cannot be directly detected as in  $\mu$ PIXE. Nevertheless their occurrence can be identified by a statistical analysis of the spread of concentrations determined for aliquots of the same sample: Any measurement yielding significantly higher concentrations in a few elements than the others is most probably contaminated, and should be discarded from further evaluation. The utilization of an internal standard, added prior to the TXRF analysis requires the determination of the protein concentration prior to the measurement. The internal standard allows measuring an extremely wide range of protein samples virtually regardless of their buffer, salt concentration or amino acid composition, and hence reduces significantly the time between the protein purification and trace element quantification.

Moreover, access to an X-ray tube-based TXRF-instrument is typically easier than to  $\mu$ PIXE, which requires a proton accelerator. Furthermore, the structural biology community already enjoys broad access to synchrotron radiation facilities, opening the possibility of synchrotron-based TXRF (SR-TXRF) with its advantages of increased flux and high polarization.

The typical protein sample is present in an aqueous solution, which simplifies preparation of samples (as opposed to powdered samples or protein crystals): The sample can be deposited onto a standard TXRF reflector, dried and analyzed. The procedure is simple and the analysis is precise in the presence of an internal standard. This makes TXRF a method of choice, however the homogeneity of dried samples might be critical for an accurate analysis [12,13]. Frequently the presence of

salts in mM or M concentration is required to keep a protein in solution. These salts form a major component of the dried residue that will be analysed by TXRF. While drying, components of the sample, either from the buffer, the internal standard or the protein itself, could spatially separate (e.g., due to the formation of salt crystals, "coffee rings" [14] or other aggregation processes). This would affect the thickness of the dried residue, resulting in areas with varying coverage (see Fig. 1) and/or components.

Decomposition of the sample followed by homogenization in liquid could help to circumvent some of these problems, but is not in line with the high-throughput we aim at. Thus an optimized direct method is favoured: (a) sample inhomogeneities are reduced by careful selection of reflector material and surface coating, (b) quantification procedure is developed to determine and quantify matrix effects, and (c) risk of a separation of protein and its metals vs. the internal standard is assessed by micro beam X-ray fluorescence ( $\mu$ XRF) experiments.

The later experiments shed light on the influence of (I) different sample supports and (II) of the protein and the buffer itself on sample homogeneity. For (I) we have chosen Mylar<sup>®</sup> foil (DuPont, Wilmington (Delaware), USA), siliconized quartz, silicon and Plexiglas as sample supports, since they are being used in a variety of methods, including XRF,  $\mu$ XRF, TXRF and  $\mu$ PIXE. Mylar foils are extensively used as sample supports in  $\mu$ PIXE and XRF since they cause almost no background signal. Quartz reflectors are the standard sample support for TXRF due to their very low surface roughness; but they are quite expensive and we consider their time-consuming re-use as a disadvantage under the aspect of achieving true high-throughput operation. Reflectors made from Plexiglas are cheap enough to be used as single-shot sample supports enabling high-throughput operation. Unfortunately, their surface is rough compared to quartz. This triggered the analysis of silicon wafers: They come with nearly perfect surface quality, and several reflectors can be cut from a single wafer resulting in a potential cost/reflector close to that of Plexiglas. The model protein is a member of the metallo- $\beta$ -lactamase super family (hELAC1) from our recent research project [15] which turned out to produce optically inhomogeneous droplets.

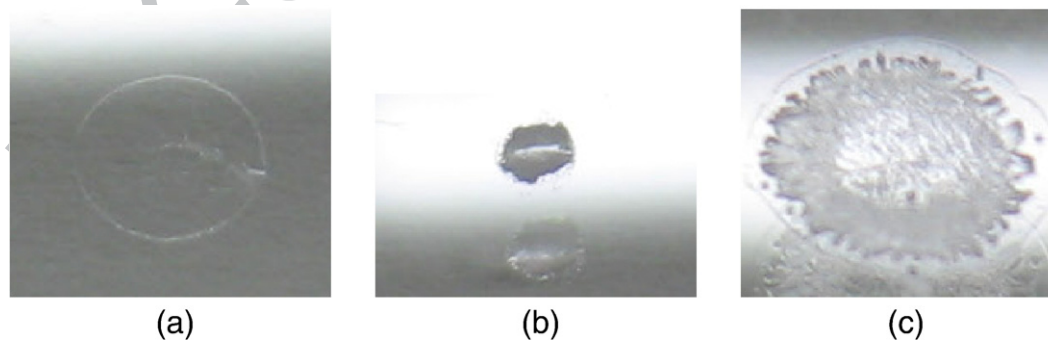
To elucidate the influence of the individual protein properties (II) we studied in addition four commercially available metalloproteins of different molecular weight, oligomerization state, bound metals and solubility both on Mylar and siliconized quartz.

## 2. Experimental

### 2.1. Sample preparation

#### 2.1.1. Standard

The X-ray absorption properties of a protein solution depend on a variety of parameters (e.g. protein concentration, concentrations of



**Fig. 1.** Optical microscopy of dried residues of 10  $\mu$ l droplets for standard (a), standard+buffer (containing 1% glycerol)(b) and standard+buffer+protein(c) on Plexiglas. While the pure standard dries forming a pronounced "coffee ring", standard+buffer does not completely dry. We attribute this to the hygroscopic effect caused by the glycerol content, which is supported by the fact that any other combination of buffer components lacking glycerol forms thin residue again. Addition of hELAC1 to the buffer containing 1% glycerol also negates the negative effects of glycerol, as hELAC1 is strongly surface active.

161 buffers / salts / additives) both directly (e.g. affecting the total  
162 absorption cross section of the dried solution) and indirectly (e.g. via  
163 changed dewetting properties, see Fig. 1). Hence, under high-  
164 throughput conditions any protein sample and/or its buffer might  
165 exhibit matrix effects. For its quantification we used two internal  
166 standards: scandium and gallium, whose  $K_{\alpha}$  fluorescence energies,  
167 4.09 keV and 9.25 keV, differ considerably. Their strong difference in  
168 absorption makes it possible to quantify matrix effects. For example,  
169 the transmission of Sc- $K_{\alpha}$  through 100  $\mu\text{m}$  water (most protein  
170 samples predominantly consist of light elements with  $Z < 18$ ) is only  
171  $\sim 46\%$ , compared to 93.5% of Ga- $K_{\alpha}$  radiation.

172 In this work we refer as “standard”, a solution containing 10 mg/L of  
173 scandium and 1 mg/L of gallium prepared by diluting standard  
174 solutions of gallium nitrate and scandium nitrate in 2–3%  $\text{HNO}_3$   
175 (Merck, Darmstadt standard for ICP-MS) into milliQ water. Adding this  
176 standard to the samples to be measured allows us to quantify the  
177 amount of matrix effects present in each sample individually, under  
178 the assumption that absorption of the Ga fluorescence may be  
179 neglected.

### 2.1.2 Purified protein hELAC1

181 Part I focuses on hELAC1, a Zn-dependent enzyme from the beta-  
182 lactamase superfamily; the cloning of the gene and purification of the  
183 protein has already been described in one of our previous work [15]. In  
184 brief, hELAC1 was cloned into an expression vector containing an N-  
185 terminal His<sub>6</sub> tag used for purification and the protein produced by  
186 *E. coli* containing this expression vector. The purification of hELAC1  
187 from the bacteria was done in two steps: an affinity chromatography  
188 using a nickel-nitrilotriacetate (Ni-NTA) agarose binding the His<sub>6</sub> tag  
189 of the protein and a gel filtration. At the final step, hELAC1 is pure and  
190 solubilized in the buffer used for gel filtration, which contains 20 mM  
191 Tris/HCl pH 7.4, 100 mM NaCl, 1% glycerol and 0.5 mM Tris(2-  
192 carboxyethyl)phosphine (TCEP). The concentration of purified hELAC1  
193 is determined by measuring the absorption at 280 nm prior to  
194 addition of the standard solution. In this study, the concentration of  
195 hELAC1 is 15  $\mu\text{M}$ . From now on, we will call “hELAC1” purified hELAC1  
196 sample supplemented with 50% (v/v) of standard and “buffer” gel  
197 filtration buffer samples supplemented with 50% (v/v) of standard.

### 2.1.3 Commercially available proteins

198 The commercially available proteins used in part II were insulin  
199 [16,17], concanavalin A [18], thermolysin [18] and glucose isomerase  
200 [19] (see Table 1).

201 Insulin was dissolved in a buffer containing 2 mM  $\text{Na}_2\text{PO}_4$  and  
202 1 mM  $\text{Na}_3\text{EDTA}$ . According to the suppliers information the protein  
203 powder contains  $\sim 0.5\%$  Zn which corresponds to 1 Zn per protein.  
204 Concanavalin A (Lectin) was dissolved in milliQ water. Thermolysin,  
205 poorly soluble in water, was dissolved in 45% (v/v) dimethyl sulfoxide  
206 (DMSO). Glucose isomerase was prepared from a crystal suspension of  
207 glucose isomerase by dialysis against milliQ water. The resulting  
208 sample was deprived of micro crystals. The natural metal cofactors of  
209 glucose isomerase are Mn(II) and Mg(II) but could be substituted by  
210 other divalent transition-metal ions [20].  
211

### 2.1.4 Reflectors and sample deposition

212 The use of nL or even pL droplets has been proposed in order to  
213 circumvent problems with spot inhomogeneities [13,21]: While  $\mu\text{L}$   
214 droplets may dry inhomogeneously, smaller droplets tend to be more  
215 homogenous. In addition, nL droplets quickly dry in air, while  
216 unassisted drying of  $\mu\text{L}$  droplets takes several hours. Increasing the  
217 evaporation rate (e.g. by heating or vacuum drying) often causes  
218 additional inhomogeneities [13]. This favours nL droplets from the  
219 analytical point of view. Quartz reflectors commonly used as sample  
220 carriers for TXRF were covered with a silicone layer by pipetting 10  $\mu\text{L}$   
221 of a 10% silicone solution in isopropanol (Serva) onto the reflector and  
222 heating at 120 °C for one hour in order to create a hydrophobic surface  
223 coating. Mylar foils of 0.6  $\mu\text{m}$  thickness were glued onto aluminium  
224 frames. The silicon supports were cut in pieces of 24.7  $\times$  15.0 mm from  
225 a silicon wafer (diameter 200 mm) with the aid of a diamond saw.  
226 Droplets were deposited by the Hydra II Plus One crystallization  
227 robot which is part of the high-throughput crystallization facility at  
228 EMBL Hamburg (Germany) [18]. The crystallization robot's micro-  
229 pipette dispensed single droplets in the middle of each reflector.  
230 Droplet volumes can be varied from several  $\mu\text{L}$  down to 100 nL. In all  
231  $\mu\text{XRF}$  experiments 100 nL droplets were examined. In order to ensure  
232 a sufficiently high signal to background ratio for TXRF measurements  
233 it was necessary to use 500 nL droplets here. Samples dried within  
234 several minutes in covered surroundings to prevent contamination.  
235 Thus, drying of the samples is no longer the limiting time factor as  
236 opposed to manually preparing samples.  
237

### 2.2 Setup

238 Both the TXRF as well as the  $\mu\text{XRF}$ -measurements were carried out  
239 using 18.3 keV X-rays monochromatized by the Ni/C-multilayer  
240 system. The TXRF measurements were performed at HASYLAB  
241 beamline L (Hamburg, Germany) in a vacuum chamber as described  
242 in [22,23]. A peltier-cooled silicon drift detector (VORTEX, SII  
243 NanoTechnology, Northridge, USA) with 50 mm<sup>2</sup> active area collected  
244 emitted fluorescence under an angle of 90° to the incident X-ray beam  
245 in plane with the synchrotron. This reduces the scattering background  
246 due to the polarization of the incident beam.  
247

248 For  $\mu\text{XRF}$  a polycapillary lens focused the beam down to  $\sim 15 \mu\text{m}$   
249 FWHM [24]. Samples were mounted on a standard x-y-z-translation  
250 stage under 45° to both, the incident beam and the fluorescence  
251 detector. An optical microscope was included for adjustment and  
252 documentation.  
253

### 2.3 Measurements

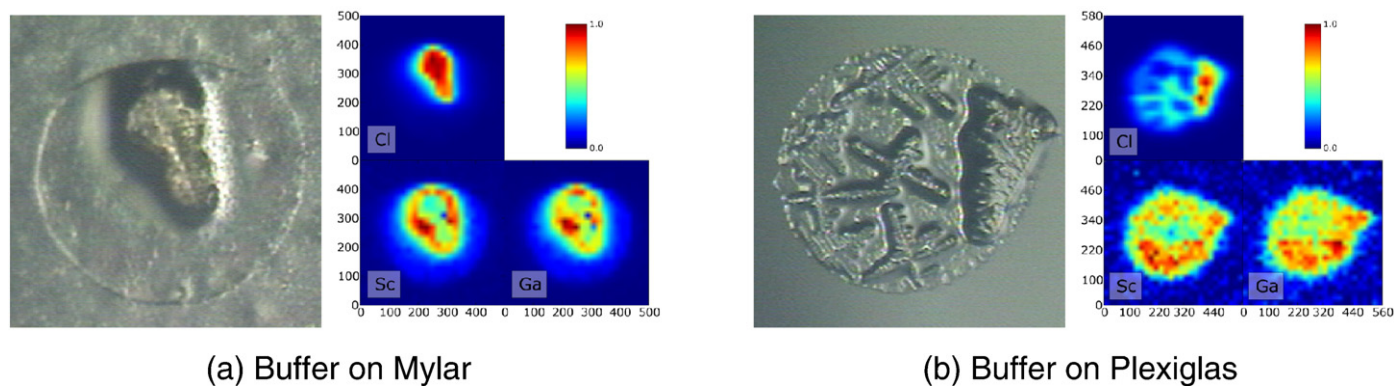
254 For TXRF the sample spots on the reflectors were vertically aligned  
255 followed by an angle scan to tune into total reflection. TXRF-spectra  
256 were taken for 100 s per sample, typically at angles around 30% of the  
257 critical angle.  
258

259 For  $\mu\text{XRF}$  the elemental maps were measured on a single droplet  
260 considered representative judging from the optical microscope read-  
261 ings. Measuring times per pixel varied from 10 s (for hELAC1 on 3- $\mu\text{m}$

t1.1 **Table 1**  
t1.2 Properties of commercial available proteins studied in this work

t1.3		Molecular mass	Bound metals	Oligomeric state	Buffer	Concentration	Obtained from
t1.4	Insulin [16,17]	5.7 kDa	1 Zn per monomer	monomer	2 mM $\text{Na}_2\text{PO}_4$ 1 mM $\text{Na}_3\text{EDTA}$	20 mg/mL	Bovine pancreas (Fluka Cat. No. 57590 Lot. No. S30941 355)
t1.5		51 amino acids					
t1.6	Concanava-lin A (Lectin) [18]	25.6 kDa	Mn	Homo-tetrameric	milliQ water	25 mg/mL	<i>Canvalia ensiformis</i> (Fluka Cat. No. 61760 Lot No. 1142237 10607351)
t1.7		237 amino acids					
t1.8	Thermolysin [18]	37.5 kDa	1 Zn + 4 Ca per monomer	Homo-dimeric	45% (v/v) dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO)	20 mg/mL	<i>Bacillus thermoproteo-lyticus</i> (Calbiochem Cat No. 58656, Lot. No. B66938)
t1.9		316 amino acids					
t1.10	Glucose isomerase [19]	43.1 kDa	Natural: Mn(II)+Mg(II), substitutions possible [20]	Homo-tetrameric	milliQ water	20 mg/mL	<i>Streptomyces rubiginosus</i> (Hampton Research Cat. No. HR 7-102 Lot No. 020606)
t1.11		387 amino acids					





(a) Buffer on Mylar

(b) Buffer on Plexiglas

**Fig. 2.** Buffer on Mylar(a) and Plexiglas(b): Comparison of the microscopy images (large image) and elemental maps indicate that crystals containing Cl grow during the drying process.

261 thick quartz TXRF-reflectors to compensate for the high Compton-  
 262 scattering background) to less than 1 s (in the case of insulin on  
 263 Mylar).

#### 264 2.4. Evaluation

265 TXRF-spectra were fitted with PyMca [25], yielding fluorescence  
 266 intensities. Taking into account detector efficiencies absolute concentra-  
 267 tions were then obtained based on the known Ga standard concentra-  
 268 tion. In the absence of matrix effects the Sc to Ga ratio as computed by  
 269 PyMca should match the ratio used during sample preparation (mass  
 270 ratio Sc:Ga 10 mg/L:1 mg/L, molar ratio 222.4  $\mu\text{M}$ :14.3  $\mu\text{M}$ ). Any  
 271 deviation from these values serves as an estimate for matrix effects.

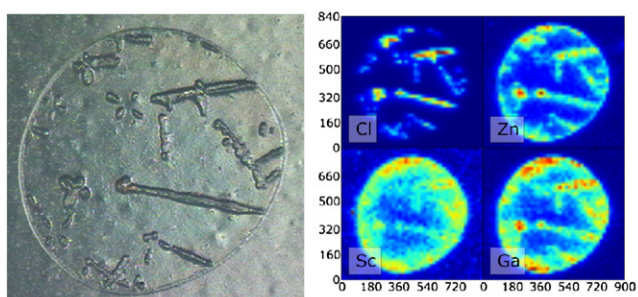
272 XRF data were batch-fitted with AXIL [26], yielding raw fluorescence  
 273 intensities which were used to generate elemental maps. Images were  
 274 created by mapping the fluorescence intensities to a colour scale. To

quantify the homogeneity of the elemental distributions we calculated  
 the Pearson correlation coefficients [27]  $C_p$  of two elemental maps

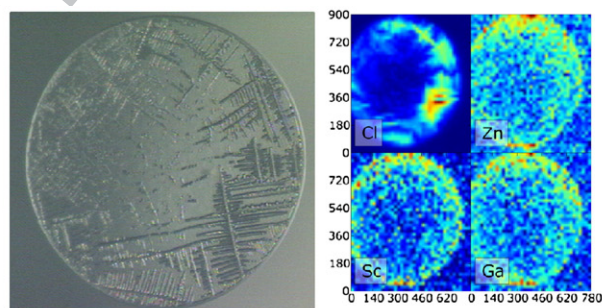
$$C_p(X, Y) = \frac{\text{cov}(\text{map}_X, \text{map}_Y)}{\sigma_X \sigma_Y}$$

with map being the individual elemental maps and  $\sigma$  their  
 standard deviation. All correlation coefficients in this work have  
 been calculated with respect to gallium ( $Y=\text{Ga}$ ) if not otherwise  
 indicated.

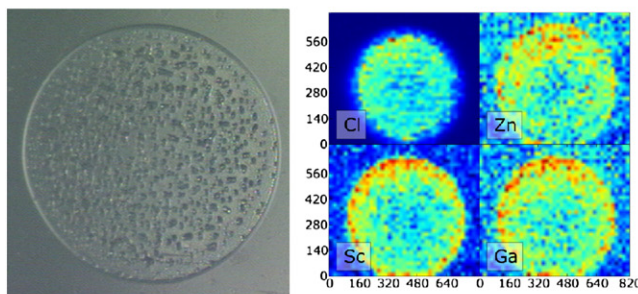
This was applied to circular regions containing only the dried  
 residues. To compare all elemental maps easily, they were scaled to the  
 interval of [0.0,1.0] (only exception Fig. 4d: a very high density of Mn, Sc  
 and Ga in two small salt crystals would otherwise mask the “coffee  
 ring” formation). The figures showing the  $\mu\text{XRF}$  results (Figs. 2–4) show  
 elemental maps of Sc and Ga as well as the most important elements



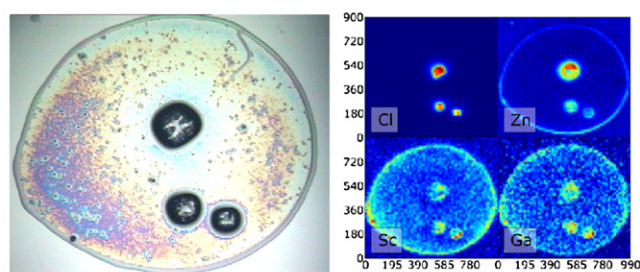
(a) hELAC1 on Mylar



(b) hELAC1 on Plexiglas



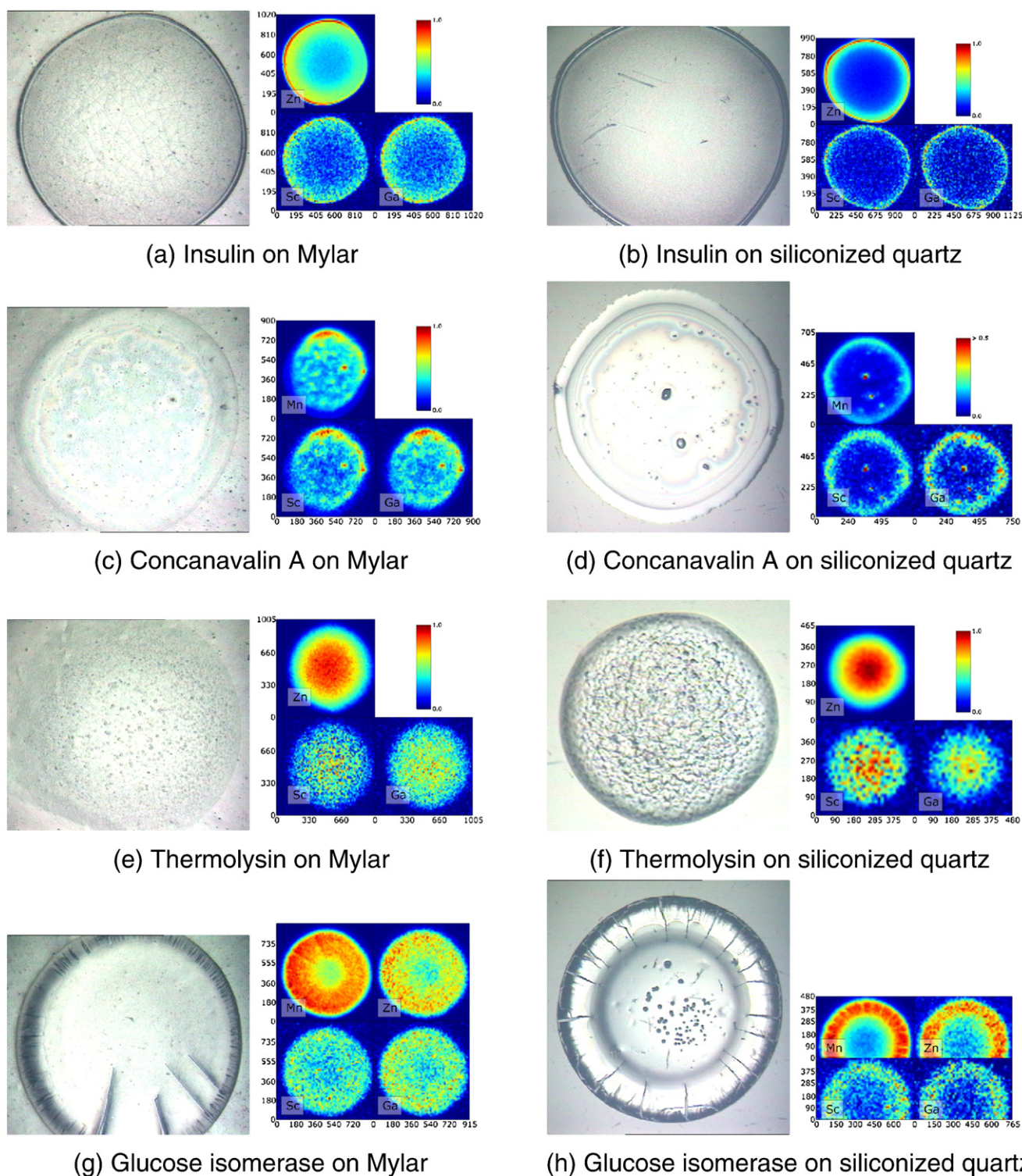
(c) hELAC1 on siliconized quartz



(d) hELAC1 on silicon

**Fig. 3.** Microscopy and elemental maps of hELAC1 on different reflectors: In the upper row of the elemental maps Cl from the buffer and Zn bound to the protein are shown, while the internal standards Sc and Ga are always shown in the lower row. A colour bar was added for convenience where sufficient space was available. Dimensions of elemental maps are given in  $\mu\text{m}$ .





**Fig. 4.** Microscopy and elemental maps of commercially available proteins on Mylar and siliconized quartz: From top to bottom: Insulin, concanavalin A, thermolysin and glucoses isomerase on Mylar (left) and siliconized quartz (right). Despite the observed rich variety of morphologies we observe no evidence for any separation of metals stemming from the proteins compared to Sc or Ga from the internal standard.

288 for the corresponding sample, e.g. Cl for a buffer, Zn for a Zn-binding  
289 protein like Insulin etc.

### 290 3. Results and discussion

291 In part I we examined the influence of several sample supports used  
292 in analytic methods on the drying properties of a metallo-enzyme  
293 (hELAC1) from our most recent study [15]. This is a challenging case

because it requires glycerol in the buffer to prevent the loss of catalytic  
294 activity upon freezing. But glycerol avoids complete drying, leading to  
295 pronounced matrix effects in TXRF. Four different supports were  
296 selected (Mylar, siliconized quartz, Plexiglas and silicon wafers) to  
297 provide a cross-section of currently-used materials. 298

In part II we have examined several proteins both on Mylar and  
299 siliconized quartz in order to elucidate the influence of the protein  
300 properties on the formation of dried residues. 301

### 3.1. Part I: Shape of dried hELAC1 depends on the reflector type

To address a potential spatial separation of metal stemming from the protein and the (metal) standards Ga and Sc we first had to characterize the metal content of hELAC1 by TXRF.

#### 3.1.1. TXRF

Our previous studies on proteins member of the metallo- $\beta$ -lactamase super-family (such as hELAC1) have shown their capability to bind different 3d-metals, in particular iron and zinc, but also manganese and some nickel [15,28,29]. The elements of interest found in as isolated hELAC1 as well as in the buffer and standard are given in Table 2. Although no metals have been added explicitly, the buffer contains 2.2  $\mu\text{M}$  of both Ni and Mn as well as 5.4  $\mu\text{M}$  of Fe according to our TXRF analysis. These concentrations were subtracted from the total metal content found in the hELAC1 protein sample to yield the net amount of protein bound metals, e.g. Fe 21.6  $\mu\text{M}$  and Zn 14.8  $\mu\text{M}$  (see as well the two lower rows in Table 2). Small matrix effects were observed ( $\leq 10\%$  for Sc  $K_{\alpha}$ ); these were neglected since the focus is on the identification of the predominantly bound metals and the potential underestimation of biological important elements such as Mn or Fe is even smaller.

The obtained metal concentrations correlated very well with the protein concentration of 15  $\mu\text{M}$  determined by optical absorption spectroscopy prior to drying of the sample on the TXRF sample holder. Taking into account that metallo- $\beta$ -lactamases have a dinuclear metal-binding site we can conclude that, in this sample, the active sites of hELAC1 are dominantly occupied by Fe and Zn.

#### 3.1.2. $\mu\text{XRF}$

The properties of dried residues depend on the nature of both sample and support. On Plexiglas the dried residues differ considerably for pure standard, buffer and hELAC1 protein samples (see Fig. 1). Similar differences are observed for siliconized quartz, silicone and Mylar which we attribute to the differences in hydrophobicity of their surfaces (data not shown). A potential separation of the individual components was studied by optical microscopy and  $\mu\text{XRF}$ . Upon drying on Mylar the standard forms quite small circles ( $\sim 50 \mu\text{m}$  diameter) without any inhomogeneity (XRF data not displayed). Their small size leads to high areal densities of Sc and Ga, causing the observed matrix effects (Table 2). In contrast, the buffer forms droplets of  $\sim 500 \mu\text{m}$  diameter (see Fig. 2(a)+(b)), containing large structures with elevated Cl-content, most probably dominantly sodium chloride crystals. Sc and Ga are incorporated into these structures, but their largest peak intensities are found around rather than inside them. Judging from the three-dimensional impression of Fig. 2(a) this is caused by increased sample thickness around the putative NaCl-crystals. The correlation between Sc and Ga as quantified by the Pearson correlation coefficient  $c_p$  (Table 3) shows no significant separation of the two standard components.

**Table 2**  
Metal contents in TXRF samples are shown in  $\mu\text{M}$

	Sc	Mn	Fe	Ni	Zn	Ga (ref)
Standard	202.3(2)	0.031(1)	0.023(1)	0.044(1)	0.080(1)	14.3
Buffer+standard	196(1)	2.19(5)	5.42(6)	0.40(2)	2.21(3)	14.3
Protein+buffer+standard	211(1)	6.5(1)	27.0(2)	1.65(4)	17.0(1)	14.3
Net protein content	–	4.3(1)	21.6(2)	1.25(4)	14.8(1)	–

The standard solution (first row) contains traces of metals  $< 0.1 \mu\text{M}$ . The metal concentrations found in the buffer sample (second row) can therefore be attributed to the gel filtration buffer, and have to be subtracted from the metal concentrations found in the protein sample (third row). The resulting net protein concentrations are displayed in the final row. Matrix effects are  $\leq 10\%$  for Sc (expected value of Sc is 222.4  $\mu\text{M}$ ) and therefore were neglected.

**Table 3**  
The correlation coefficients with respect to Ga for the pure standard and the buffer sample indicate no separation of Sc and Ga

	Standard on Mylar	Buffer on Mylar	Buffer on Plexiglas
Cl		0.74	0.84
Sc	1.00	0.98	0.94

Microscopy images and elemental maps of hELAC1 on Mylar, Plexiglas, siliconized quartz and silicon are displayed in Fig. 3(a)–(d), respectively. Typical droplet sizes range from  $\sim 700$ – $1000 \mu\text{m}$ . Their optical appearance is dominated by the rich variety of salt crystals formed on the different substrates.

On Mylar (Fig. 3(a)) chlorine is predominantly built into needle-like salt crystals. Protein bound Zn as well as the standards Sc and Ga are incorporated into these crystals and the formation of a “coffee ring” is observed [14]. In perfect agreement with the optical impression the correlation coefficients of Sc and Zn with respect to Ga are close to 1.00, proving almost complete linear correlation between the elemental maps. Obviously standard and protein do not separate. Cl is only correlated with Ga at  $c_p = 0.62$ , most probably caused by its absence in the “coffee ring”.

Results are similar for hELAC1 on Plexiglas (Fig. 3(b)): needle-like crystals containing Cl, coffee-ring formation for protein bound Zn and the standards. Due to the  $45^\circ$  excitation geometry in  $\mu\text{XRF}$  the incident beam penetrates deep into the sample supports, causing elastic and inelastic scattering. While this is negligible for 0.6  $\mu\text{m}$  thick Mylar for all other sample supports scattering caused an increased background. This reduces the signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) significantly, despite a fivefold increase of the data acquisition time per pixel. The decrease of the SNR causes a systematic reduction of all correlation coefficients, e.g.  $c_p$  (Sc,Ga) drops from 0.93 (Mylar) down to 0.50,  $c_p$  (Zn,Ga) decreases from 0.94 to 0.56. This drop does not depend on the choice of the standard used for the calculation. In fact,  $c_p$  (Zn,Sc) dropped also down to 0.50, indicating that this change is purely caused by the increased noise-level in the elemental maps. The similar shifts of  $c_p$  (Zn,Ga) vs.  $c_p$  (Sc,Ga) indicate that no separation of standard and metal from the protein occurs in the case of hELAC1 on Plexiglas (Table 4).

In the case of hELAC1 on siliconized quartz Cl is distributed in hundreds of small crystals ( $< 10 \mu\text{m}$ ) homogeneously throughout the dried residue, with the exception of a  $\sim 50 \mu\text{m}$  wide outer ring (Fig. 3(c)). Zn, Sc and Ga are predominantly present in this region, again forming a “coffee-ring”. No separation of standard and Zn stemming from the protein can be observed neither by visual inspection of the elemental maps nor by the correlation coefficients.

The last case, hELAC1 on silicon is slightly different: While one can observe similar features as before (salt crystal formation with inclusion of other elements and “coffee-ring” formation, see Fig. 3(d)), the elemental maps of Ga and Sc show an increased overall density inside the “coffee-ring”, which is not the case for Zn. This is in line with a significantly lower  $c_p$  (Zn,Ga) compared to  $c_p$  (Sc,Ga), and therefore resembles the only case in which we have found evidence for (partial) separation of metals from the protein vs. standard.

**Table 4**  
The correlation coefficients for hELAC1 on Mylar, Plexiglas and siliconized quartz of Sc and Zn with respect to Ga are comparable, thereby indicating no separation of elements

	Mylar	Plexiglas	Sil. quartz	Silicon
Cl	0.62	0.31	0.32	0.36
Zn	0.94	0.56	0.70	0.50
Sc	0.93	0.50	0.72	0.61

In the case of hELAC1 on silicon (last column) the correlation of Zn is decreased with respect to Sc, which could indicate a partial separation.



For most supports standard vs. metal stemming from the protein show a similar distribution. Only in one case (hELAC1 on silicon) a partial separation has happened. Interestingly, the dominating effects governing the distribution of metals / standards are their inclusion into salt crystals and the formation of a “coffee-ring”.

The nature of the substrate does significantly influence the morphology of the dried residue, esp. the size and distribution of salt crystals and the diameter of the residue ( $d_{\text{quartz}} < d_{\text{Mylar}} < d_{\text{plexi}} < d_{\text{silicon}}$ ). From the perspective of an analytical method the morphology on quartz is most favourable: (I) Due to the siliconization of the surface the residue has the smallest diameter, which is important in order to fully illuminate the whole droplet with small X-ray beams, e.g. at the synchrotron (SR-TXRF). (II) Moreover, only for this support the drying resulted in the homogenous distribution of small sized salt crystals over the entire area.

### 3.2. Part II: Influence of protein type and its buffer on dried residues

To study the influence of protein properties on the formation of dried residues we analysed protein with low molecular weight (insulin) and high molecular weight (glucose isomerase), with different states of oligomerization (glucose isomerase is homotetrameric while thermolysin is homodimeric) and with different bound metal ions such as Zn (insulin) or Mn (glucose isomerase). We also investigated the influence of the protein solvent on the drying pattern (organic solvent for thermolysin vs inorganic solvent for the other proteins).

#### 3.2.1. $\mu$ XRF

Upon drying *Insulin* formed very large dried residues ( $\sim 1000 \mu\text{m}$ ) on Mylar and siliconized quartz (Fig. 4(a)+(b)). Elemental maps show dominant formation of “coffee-rings”. No elemental separation is found, neither in the elemental maps nor judging from the correlation coefficients (see Table 5).

Dried residues from *Concanavalin A* (Fig. 4(c)+(d)) are again dominated by “coffee-ring” formation: Cl can be detected primarily in an outer ring of  $\sim 50 \mu\text{m}$ , while Mn associated with the protein and the standards is present in a second, inner ring. Again no elemental separation is evident.

*Thermolysin* (Fig. 4(e)+(f)) shows a completely different drying behaviour, independent of the substrate: Maximum concentrations are found in the centre for all elements, Ca and Zn associated with the protein as well as the standards. Thermolysin is the only protein examined which required DMSO to stay in solution; we expect that this different buffer causes the unusual drying behaviour. Nevertheless no separation is detected in the elemental maps or the correlation coefficients.

*Glucose Isomerase* (Fig. 4(g)+(h)), the largest protein examined, forms very broad “coffee-rings” ( $\sim 200\text{--}300 \mu\text{m}$ ). Again all elements co-localize on Mylar as well as on siliconized quartz.

This allows summarizing: Despite the different drying properties of the proteins examined in part II there is no evidence for a separation of metals associated with the protein and the standards, for any protein / substrate / buffer combination on Mylar or siliconized quartz.

**Table 5**

The correlation coefficients of Zn and Mn associated with different proteins are comparable to the correlation coefficients obtained for Sc, thereby indicating the lack of separation

	Insulin		Concanavalin A		Thermolysin		Glucose Isomerase	
	Mylar	Quartz 04	Mylar	Quartz 02	Mylar	Quartz 01	Mylar	Quartz 03
Mn			0.95	0.74			0.87	0.70
Zn	0.87	0.73			0.86	0.91	0.85	0.69
Sc	0.77	0.60	0.92	0.72	0.64	0.79	0.74	0.52

## 4. Conclusions

The drying of protein samples on all supports can lead to the formation of salt crystals but typically not to a separation of an internal standard from the metals stemming from the protein. These effects vary depending on the reflector surface properties, as examined for sample supports typically used in analytical methods like TXRF and  $\mu$ PIXE (Mylar, Plexiglas, siliconized quartz and silicon) for the model protein hELAC1, which is known to form inhomogeneous dried residues. Under no conditions occurred a strong separation of protein and internal standards. Only in one case, hELAC1 on silicon, there is evidence for a small separation. This undesirable feature of silicon surfaces strongly suggests to do further work on siliconized silicon surfaces in order to reduce the affinity of the standard for the surface. Among the other supports all our results slightly favour siliconized quartz: It gives the smallest dried residue diameter, the most homogenous distribution of trace metals and salt crystals and showed no sign of any separation for any of the five proteins examined. Siliconized quartz is in conclusion the sample support of choice reducing sample inhomogeneities to a minimum. Plexiglas is a good alternative, especially for the application of TXRF in high-throughput, or if the detection of Si is important.

Moreover, on Mylar and siliconized quartz the influence of protein properties was studied for insulin, concanavalin A, thermolysin and glucose isomerase, which have different properties regarding e.g. solubility, molecular weight, bound metal and oligomerization state. While the morphology of dried residues varies significantly for the different proteins there was no evidence for a separation of internal standard vs. metal bound by the protein in any protein / reflector combination.

Due to the strong morphologic variations of dried protein samples matrix effects have to be considered. Foremost this requires a possibility to detect and quantify matrix effects; for this purpose we propose the application of two internal standards with at least moderately different Z and fluorescence energies with different absorption properties. The high-Z element is used for the quantification of other elements while the known concentration of the low-Z element allows calculating the occurrence of an average matrix. For proteins Sc and Ga are an ideal choice since they are rarely found in proteins and bracket the most important 3d-metals. The implementation of two internal standards enables us to reliably detect and quantify matrix effects; based on this we can correct for first order matrix effects.

In total we only observed one possible case of separation of standard vs. trace element which can be attributed to the choice of reflector (silicon). Thus the general risk of a separation of internal standard from metals associated with the protein is small and our strategy to optimize the quantification of protein samples works successfully:

- Sample inhomogeneities can be reduced by using siliconized quartz sample supports.
- Matrix effects can be detected and quantified by implementing two element standards from Sc and Ga. Further, a correction of matrix effects in TXRF based on the assumption a complete lack of separation seems feasible.
- The risk of a separation of elements of the internal standard vs. metals stemming from the sample is small; apart from matrix effects the remaining influence of the strong variance of dried protein morphologies caused by salt crystal and “coffee ring” formation on the quantification of trace elements is negligible.

Preparation of protein samples using Sc and Ga as internal standards is therefore straightforward, which allows benefiting from the analytical power of TXRF for metalloproteins. Elaborate sample decomposition is not necessary in general; instead a direct analysis of protein samples is feasible.

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