

BioTechniques



ISSN: (Print) (Online) Journal homepage: www.tandfonline.com/journals/ibtn20

Multiparameter Screen Optimizes Immunoprecipitation

Shaoshuai Xie, Leila Saba, Hua Jiang, Omar R Bringas, Mehrnoosh Oghbaie, Luciano Di Stefano, Vadim Sherman & John LaCava

To cite this article: Shaoshuai Xie, Leila Saba, Hua Jiang, Omar R Bringas, Mehrnoosh Oghbaie, Luciano Di Stefano, Vadim Sherman & John LaCava (2024) Multiparameter Screen Optimizes Immunoprecipitation, BioTechniques, 76:4, 145-152, DOI: <u>10.2144/btn-2023-0051</u>

To link to this article: https://doi.org/10.2144/btn-2023-0051



© 2024 The Authors



View supplementary material

ď	1	ſ	1	ĥ
				L
				L
				L

Published online: 29 Feb 2024.



Submit your article to this journal 🖙





View related articles 🗹



View Crossmark data 🗹

BioTechniques

Reports

Multiparameter screen optimizes immunoprecipitation

Shaoshuai Xie^{‡,1}, Leila Saba^{‡,1}, Hua Jiang^{‡,2}, Omar R Bringas¹, Mehrnoosh Oghbaie^{1,2}, Luciano Di Stefano¹, Vadim Sherman³ & John LaCava*^{1,2}

¹European Research Institute for the Biology of Ageing, University Medical Centre Groningen, Groningen, 9713AV, The Netherlands; ²Laboratory of Cellular & Structural Biology, The Rockefeller University, New York, NY 10065, USA; ³High Energy Physics Instrument Shop, The Rockefeller University, New York, NY 10065, USA; *Author for correspondence: jlacava@rockefeller.edu; [‡]Authors contributed equally

BioTechniques 76: 145-152 (April 2024) 10.2144/btn-2023-0051

First draft submitted: 26 June 2023; Accepted for publication: 20 December 2023; Published online: 1 March 2024

ABSTRACT

Immunoprecipitation (IP) coupled with mass spectrometry effectively maps protein-protein interactions when genome-wide, affinity-tagged cell collections are used. Such studies have recorded significant portions of the compositions of physiological protein complexes, providing draft 'interactomes'; yet many constituents of protein complexes still remain uncharted. This gap exists partly because high-throughput approaches cannot optimize each IP. A key challenge for IP optimization is stabilizing *in vivo* interactions during the transfer from cells to test tubes; failure to do so leads to the loss of genuine interactions during the IP and subsequent failure to detect. Our high-content screening method explores the relationship between *in vitro* chemical conditions and IP outcomes, enabling rapid empirical optimization of conditions for capturing target macromolecular assemblies.

METHOD SUMMARY

There is presently no way to know, a *priori*, the optimal experimental conditions to use to immunoprecipitate a target protein complex: different interactors and subpopulations respond diversely to experimental conditions, and these behaviors must be discovered empirically. We present a high-content screen to rapidly optimize immunoprecipitations.

KEYWORDS:

affinity proteomics • complexomics • interactomics • macromolecular assemblies

The study of macromolecular interactions within cells is one of the current major challenges in systems biology, which has spawned the research field of interactomics [1]. Generally, proteins associate together in multicomponent assemblies that are the effectors of cell biology. Gaining understanding of the compositions of macromolecular assemblies and their inter-relationships facilitates deeper interrogation (and also exploitation) of those assemblies and the biological processes they enable. (Co-)immunoprecipitation (IP; also affinity isolation, purification, capture etc.), coupled with protein mass spectrometry (MS), is one of the most popular and successful techniques for analyzing compositions of multicomponent assemblies formed by proteins. A key benefit of IP is that it allows the capture of target macromolecules and their assemblies directly from endogenous biological sources. Used as an analytical technique, one can 'go fishing' for uncharacterized interactions by IP, for example, if one has a target in mind and a suitable antibody. Used as a preparative technique, IP may circumvent the need for recombinant expression and exogenous reconstitution of the target multicomponent assembly, while also ensuring native protein processing, assembly and post-translational modifications. To obtain physiologically relevant information using IP, the captured macromolecules must be maintained in a native-like state once transferred from the living cell into the test tube. For this, because of the physicochemical diversity of multicomponent assemblies, IP must be optimized on a case-by-case basis, requiring the exploration of many possible experimental conditions. For the same reason, there is rarely one 'right way' or 'perfect solution' in which to conduct an IP. Rather, different capture conditions will reveal (to a greater or lesser degree) different bona fide associations and provide accordingly different perspectives on the constituents of multicomponent complexes that may form with the target protein in vivo. Taking such information all together, a more comprehensive and holistic view of protein interaction networks can be obtained.

We still lack a comprehensive 'first draft' map of a human interactome, including contextual, cell type-specific and disease-specific interactions, despite the completion of numerous large-scale, high-throughput efforts [2–6]. Such studies have advanced the field of interactomics immeasurably but, on account of their focus on the breadth of target proteins explored rather than on IP optimization, have also left innumerable gaps to be filled by boutique studies. Increasing focus on improving endogenous macromolecule capture technique and sample preparation will further accelerate our progress toward complete knowledge [1,7,8]. Moreover, while many techniques can detect (directly or indirectly) protein interactions [9–11], few can maintain intact interactions while transferring them from the cell to the *in vitro* environment – and so retrieve parts of the cell in a form useful for further downstream research, expediting and improving, for example, biochemical, enzymological and structural studies.

Reports



Figure 1. Summary of the screening approach. Cryomilled cell powders are distributed using a dispensing manifold and lysed with different extraction solutions (step 1); then samples are sonicated to disperse and homogenize the extracts, followed by centrifugal clarification (step 2); the clarified extracts are subjected to IP (step 3); finally, protein eluates are analyzed using MS (steps 4 and 5). Reproduced from [27].

Features necessary for the next decade of interactome studies include both those that accelerate the detection and discrimination of physiological protein interactions (with other proteins as well as with all other macromolecule classes) and those that yield the intact endogenous macromolecules for detailed functional and structural analyses *in vitro*. The latter case is exemplified by the growing demand for samples suitable for the rapidly evolving native MS [12], crosslinking MS [13] and cryoelectron microscopy [8,14] methods that are revolutionizing structural biology. IP has the potential to satisfy both of these criteria if properly executed. Because maintaining physiological interactions *in vitro* while also limiting artifacts is extremely difficult [15–25], the following considerations are crucially important in a well-optimized IP:

- The interactions to be studied must be maintained throughout the capture (preventing false negatives);
- The target protein and its interactors should not form spurious interactions (preventing false positives);
- The antibody used must, first, be able to bind its target in the context of associations the target forms with other proteins in the cell (preventing false negatives) and second, exhibit low off-target binding (preventing false positives).

We developed an approach for parallelized IP–MS, depicted in Figure 1, that constitutes a high-content screen of the behaviors of macromolecular interactions *in vitro* [26–28]. Results from the screen first demonstrate the scenario described above – apparent interactors are susceptible to change, given the experimental conditions – and accordingly, second reveal interactors that go missed in unoptimized studies. This approach shares logic with crystallographic screening [29], where empirical sampling of many different crystallization solutions is necessary to identify suitably optimized conditions that support protein crystal formation and growth; likewise, solution conditions needed to stabilize multipartner macromolecules *in vitro* are often not known in advance. Indeed, the macromolecular compositions associated with the target protein are usually not known in full, in advance, given our sparse knowledge of interac-

tomes [30,31]; so predicting the necessary IP conditions is further complicated by this. We have found that multiparameter screening frequently returns new *bona fide* hits, offering new biological insights and research opportunities, even when applied to long-studied targets (elaborated further in the 'Results & discussion' section). Here we describe procedures relevant for the screening method and discuss numerous practical and theoretical concerns; we have previously reviewed IP-based affinity proteomics in general [32–34].

Materials & methods

We have previously described 96-well and 24-well versions of our screening procedure [26,27]. Our 96-well approach proved most handy for working with yeast, where cell quantity was not a limiting factor. For studies with human cell lines, where material was typically much less abundant, we favor the 24-well procedure, presented here. Although this is less comprehensive in terms of parameter space explored, it allows judicious consumption of the available cell material. Here, we also describe adaptations for a 32-well version of the protocol for added bandwidth. All materials related to this study can be found in Supplementary File 1; the detailed procedures are in Supplementary File 2.

The described procedures use cryogenically milled cell powder and antibody-conjugated magnetic beads [32,33]. This protocol also uses multiprobe, microtip sonication: human cell extracts in certain solutions may produce viscosity and/or may initially yield nonhomogenous extracts containing aggregates. These attributes may be detrimental to the IP procedure, but brief microtip probe sonication can cut viscosity and disperses aggregates. The goal is to apply the minimum energy that produces relatively homogenous extracts in the shortest time. High-speed centrifugation is used to clarify cell extracts (e.g., 10 min at \sim 20,000 relative centrifugal force): benchtop microcentrifuges are available that accept up to 48 samples at once, and using an adjustable-spacer, multichannel pipette simplifies the transfer of solutions from the microplate to 1.5-ml microcentrifuge tubes and back after centrifugation.

Culturing, harvesting & cryomilling

Procedures for cell culture, harvesting and cryomilling have been described previously [33]. Cell culture methods (and other handling considerations) will vary according to the cell type being cultivated, and appropriate considerations should be made. Some cell types may be more or less fragile; therefore mechanical scraping versus proteolytic release from culturing dishes should be evaluated when necessary, as well as, for example, evaluating the maximum relative centrifugal force that can be applied during cell pelleting to remove media and washes. Prematurely breaking the cells during scraping or centrifugation will spill their contents into the medium or washing solution that will be discarded. The intactness of cells can be checked at different steps for further optimization using vital staining techniques [34]. The amount of residual solution that is frozen along with the cells prior to milling should be minimized but will be influenced by the handling procedures for each cell type. Once milled, the formerly internal cellular milieus are now exposed, in the form of frozen powder, for direct access by the extractant solutions, enabling multiparameter screening.

IP-based interactome screen

The detailed procedures are described in Supplementary File 2, which includes mentions of alternative strategies we have tested at different steps to help facilitate use by most laboratories; where indicated, additional information may be found in the 'Notes' section (Supplementary File 3) and in the Supplementary Video.

Liquid chromatography-tandem mass spectrometry

Proteomic analyses by LC–MS/MS can be successfully carried out using a range of procedures. The LC system and MS instrument settings will vary widely depending on the setup and operator. Here we summarize our own settings for context and reference. For analyzing bands or regions excised from SDS-PAGE gels, see Shevchenko *et al.* [35]. For shotgun proteomic analysis of whole IPs directly from the screen, we favor S-traps [36] (see Notes 17 and 18 in Supplementary File 3) for typical sample preparation using the manufacturer's 'micro high recovery' procedure (in version 2 at the time of writing, at https://protifi.com/pages/protocols) [37]. The dried-down samples should be resuspended in 25 μ I at a final concentration of 5% (w/v) SDS, 8 M urea, 100 mM glycine, pH 7.55; for the dried-down sample described in Step 21 of Supplementary File 2 (40 μ I initial volume), that entails adding 25 μ I of 1.8% (w/v) SDS, 8M urea and 100 mM glycine, pH 7.55.

The peptides eluted from S-traps are completely dried using a centrifugal vacuum concentrator and are then resuspended in 25 μ l of a water:methanol:formic acid solution (94.9:5.0:0.1 parts by volume). From this suspension, 5 μ l are loaded onto a 75 μ m × 50 cm AcclaimTM PepMapTM RSLC nano Viper column filled with 2 μ m C18 particles (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Bremen, Germany) via a Dionex UltiMateTM 3000 HPLC system interfaced with a Orbitrap ExplorisTM 480 mass spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Column temperature is set to 40°C. Using a flow rate of 300 nl/min, peptides are eluted in a gradient of increasing acetonitrile, where solvent A is 0.1% (v/v) formic acid in water and solvent B is 0.1% (v/v) formic acid in acetonitrile. Peptides are ionized by electrospray at 1.8–2.1 kV as they elute. The elution gradient length is 60 min, as follows: 3% B over 3 min; 3 to 50% B over 45 min; 2 min to 80% B; then wash at 80% B over 5 min, 80 to 3% B over 2 min and then the column is equilibrated with 3% B for 3 min. Full scans are acquired in profile mode at 120,000 resolution. The top 25 most intense ions with charge state +2–6 in each full scan are fragmented by higher energy collisional dissociation. Previously sequenced precursors are excluded for 20 s, within a mass tolerance of 10 p.p.m. Fragmentation spectra are acquired in centroid mode at 15,000 resolution. The normalized automated gain control target is set to 300% with a maximum injection

Reports

time of 50 ms. The normalized collision energy is set to 30%, using an isolation window of 1.4 m/z units. All replicates of the same kind are run one after the other, separated from the preceding and following IP conditions, or from the HeLa digest runs, by a blank run to clean the column of any carryover that might interfere in the analysis. The blank run is a 40-min LC method using a see-saw gradient consisting of three cycles of solvent B percentage going from 3 to 98% and then back to 3% (see Note 19 in Supplementary File 3).

Data processing

A full analysis pipeline has been described by Dou et *al.* [27]. Briefly, we typically process RAW data in MaxQuant with default settings (using version 2.1.4.0 as of the time of writing) and the following adjustments [38]. Variable modification: oxidation (M), acetyl (protein N-term) and phospho (STY); fixed modification: MMTS (C) (see Note 20 in Supplementary File 3); modifications included in protein quantification: oxidation (M); acetyl (protein N-term); match between runs (within groups of cognate experiments and controls): true. Second peptides: true. Separate label-free quantification (LFQ) in parameter groups: true. Require MS/MS for LFQ comparisons: true. Because we are typically analyzing the compositions of human protein complexes, we use a protein database composed of the Uniprot human proteome (reviewed entries; canonical and isoform), supplemented with additional sequences if necessary for the analysis. Proteins marked as 'contaminants' or 'reverse' by MaxQuant were removed, and protein LFQ intensities were log₂-transformed. Any missing values of LFQ intensities were imputed to 0. Hierarchical clustering is performed on the log₂-transformed LFQ intensities across 24 conditions. From this and from the cognate gel images (step 20 in Supplementary File 2), diverse conditions can be selected to use in a second round of screening with replicates. The goal is to maximize the proteomic diversity, while maintaining quality control and getting replicates to empower statistical inference. Six to eight conditions can be used in a second round of screening, in four replicates each, to produce quantitative comparisons of the compositions in each IP. A bioinformatic pipeline for this and for analyzing and visualizing the enrichment of known protein complexes can be accessed here: https://bitbucket.org/lacavalab/lfqscreening/src/master.

Results & discussion

Oftentimes, differences in interactors obtained under different IP conditions are immediately apparent by visual inspection upon screening; see, for example, the work by Winczura et al. (in particular their Figure 1A) [28] and multiple examples from Hakhverdyan et al. [26]. In other cases, statistical inferences will be needed to reveal differences that are not obvious by visual inspection, to tease out fine-grained detail. Figure 2 shows an example of the prescreening of the nuclear cap-binding complex using 24 different extraction solutions (reproduced from the paper by Dou et al. [27]). Details of the 24 extraction solutions can be found in Supplementary file 4. To select a range of conditions that cover the breadth and depth of candidate interactors of the target protein, the SDS-PAGE profiles (i.e., from step 20 in Supplementary File 2) and hierarchically clustered MS data (described in 'Data processing', above) were considered together [26,27]. Gel lanes 22-24 exhibit telltale signs of high nonspecific background; in contrast, conditions 1, 2, 5 and 13 exhibited relatively few bands. The gel bands provide a simple characteristic profile of interactors to distinguish the effects of each IP condition. Meanwhile, MS provides more in-depth information, with the interactors identified and semi-quantified across the screening conditions. These MS data can therefore also be used to cluster interactors according to, for example, gene ontology or pathway enrichment, enabling selection of conditions by enrichment of a target biological compartment or function. The visual inspection of the gel and the clustered MS data led us to select six conditions (7, 10, 12, 14, 18 and 20) for additional screening with replicates. These six conditions were then employed in IPs using both the tagged target protein cell line and its cognate control cell line (in this case, affinity tag-only cells), each with four replicates, to identify bona fide interactors by label-free quantitative MS and statistical inference [27]. Published results from our screens and conditions used to obtain them can be retrieved at http://copurification.org/ [26,39].

Beyond the solution conditions

Several other factors can influence IP-based results, such as incubation time, antibody characteristics and bead type. When starting an IP using magnetic beads, it is essential to devote attention to the particle characteristics, including their size and surface chemistry, among other physicochemical properties. We have shown that, for example, when working with Dynabeads® in an otherwise well-optimized IP procedure, most of the nonspecific protein interactions are likely to originate from the target protein itself and, after that, from antibody paratopes present in excess of their cognate epitopes [33]; this is not true for all stationary phases [40], and further engineering of bead surfaces as well as extraction solutions could enhance control of IP-induced false positives [41,42]. Sources of false positives will vary with experimental conditions, so methods that readout on post-lysis binding events are of high value: the Isotopic Differentiation of Interactions as Random or Targeted (I-DIRT) method is among the best and most practical tools to control for false positives in IP-MS experiments [16,43,44]. We intend to integrate this method into the multiwell IP screening procedure in the next version. Recently, we have started to also explore the use of magnetic separation systems that enable working under controlled conditions of constant magnetic force, as this is expected to improve reproducibility and facile scaling-up to large volumes without unexpected changes in capture efficiency [45-47]. While magnetic separations are subject to lower shearing than, for example, column-based separations, many variables are at play and may contribute to different enrichment outcomes with changes in bead size, magnetism, surface coating and the solution physical chemistry [48-50]. The behaviors of magnetic beads in different solutions and at different volumes in different vessels can be monitored using a Sepmag[®] device (Sepmag Technologies, Barcelona, Spain), allowing experiments at different scales to be harmonized.



Figure 2. Example immunoprecipitation-mass spectrometry prescreen. SDS-PAGE/Sypro Ruby stain of NCBP1-LAP co-immunoprecipitations with 24 different extraction solutions (left) and hierarchical clustering of the cognate MS data using log₂ LFQ intensity (right). Not detected proteins are indicated in gray. Six conditions were selected for subsequent quantitative screening: red numbers above lanes and table below the gel. LFQ: Label-free quantification; ND: Not detected. Reproduced from [27].

Biological validation

As outlined above, there are various ways to limit false positive results in IP-MS-based interactome studies, but some approaches offer better true positive signal discrimination than others; generally speaking, results from interaction screens that pass statistical tests for enrichment with the target protein should be treated as hypotheses that such an interaction exists in vivo (and may have functional consequences). The better the method, the more reliable the hypotheses; even with highly reliable methods, follow-up validation of the biological roles of the detected interactions is key to provide meaning and context for them. Fluorescence colocalization is an example approach that can show proximity between two proteins, corroborating an in vivo interaction inferred from IP-MS analyses [51]. That is, the co-IP demonstrates a physical interaction (direct or indirect) and the cofluorescence demonstrates that, in the cell, these objects can be found in sufficient proximity that their signals are visualized together (supporting the conclusion of physical interaction). Other modes of validating physical interactions in vivo may require even closer proximity, which is more consistent with a direct interaction: for example, protein complementation assays (e.g., bimolecular fluorescence complementation) and Förster resonance energy transfer, among others [52-54]. Although many approaches can demonstrate when proteins that co-immunoprecipitate are proximal or interact within cells, they do not typically reveal anything about the functional significance of the interactions. To provide a concrete example: a complementary study by Dou et al. biologically validated findings from the interactome screen described here [27,55]. This was done, for example, first using fluorescence colocalization methods to corroborate in vivo proximity between putative interactors; and second by assaying the degree of similarity between cellular phenotypes resulting from perturbations to putative interactors of known and asyet-unknown function. Proteins that function together tend to do so through physical proximity [56-58]. Perturbations that affect one member of a protein complex, and produce an assayable phenotype, may be (partially or completely) replicated by perturbing a different member of the same complex: constituent proteins tend to work together to give rise to the function of the complex.



Conclusion

Protein-protein interaction networks are complex and dynamic and lead to a spectrum of stable and transient macromolecular assemblies in the cell. In IP, the extraction solution plays crucial but poorly defined roles in dictating the stability of macromolecular assemblies and affects the quality of co-immunoprecipitates obtained: once extracted from cells, it is complicated and challenging to maintain multiprotein assemblies, *in vitro*, in states that authentically reveal their *in vivo* compositions and forms. This is compounded by the fact that the full gamut of interactors of a target protein is rarely (if ever) known in advance and cannot therefore be anticipated and tuned for, *a priori*. As a result, IP is an idiosyncratic experimental endeavor: there is no single or small set of extraction solutions and conditions that could work well for every target protein complex (or even all the complexes formed by a single target protein); when using IP to study the macromolecular assemblies formed by a protein, the extraction solution(s) should be extensively optimized by the investigator, and we have previously discussed many of the necessary considerations in fine detail [26,27,32,59,60]. Here we have described recent tweaks and updates to our interactome analysis optimization screen for IP [26,27]: we have increased the bandwidth available for routine mammalian IP from several to 24 or 32 conditions per run, through the design of a modified cell powder distribution manifold and an 8-/16-microtip ultrasonication probe.

Future perspective

With the advent of off-the-shelf *in situ* proximity labeling [61], we anticipate combining this form of interactome analysis of target proteins with IP–MS-based screening, in conjunction with I-DIRT for true positive signal discrimination. By identifying *in vitro* procedures that maximally preserve proximal *in vivo* interactions and induce minimal post-lysis rearrangements, we could potentially speculate the physic-ochemical mechanisms by which different procedures mimic, emulate or reproduce key features of presently uncharted subcellular milieus. In the near term, we imagine that combining wet lab empiricism with computational chemistry [62,63] and 'AlphaFolding' [64,65] may lead to more comprehensive theory, and/or machine learning models, that will enable predictions of superior formulations of *in vitro* conditions to maximally extract, preserve, yield and manipulate target protein complexes.

Executive summary

Background

- Complete and accurate profiling of macromolecular interactions within cells is challenging.
- We report modifications to a high-content screen that optimizes immunoprecipitations (IPs) for comprehensively capturing and characterizing the constituents of target macromolecular assemblies.

Experimental

- Cultured cells are cryomilled; the cell powder is carried forward to the protein interactions screen.
- Semi-quantitative prescreening (by IP-LC-MS/MS) reveals the proteomic diversity obtained within the initial experimental conditions
 explored; selected conditions that recapitulate most of the proteomic diversity of the prescreen, while removing likely noise, can then be
 chosen.
- Typically, six to eight selected conditions are used in a subsequent quantitative screen (including a condition-matched control screen to reduce false positive identifications) with four replicates per condition (by IP–LC–MS/MS); these data are used for label-free quantitative MS and statistical inference of *bona fide* interactors.

Results & discussion

- The candidate interactors vary under different IP conditions (i.e., the experimental conditions affect the relative retrieval of signal and noise).
- Several other factors, including incubation time, antibody characteristics and bead type, can also influence IP results.
- Affinity tag-only cells were used as controls here, but other approaches can also be employed to eliminate false-positive signals (e.g., Isotopic Differentiation of Interactions as Random or Targeted).

Conclusion

• We modified a screen to increase the bandwidth available for IP-based interactome analyses in cell lines from 24 to 32 IPs at once. This required the production of a new cell powder-dispensing manifold and a customized 16-tip microprobe sonication device.

Supplementary data

To view the supplementary data that accompany this paper please visit the journal website at: www.future-science.com/doi/suppl/10.2144/btn-2023-0051. To view the supplementary video, please visit https://data.mendeley.com/datasets/62pzmpk68b/1.

Author contributions

Conceptualization: J LaCava. Methodology: S Xie, L Saba, H Jiang, M Oghbaie, J LaCava. Software: M Oghbaie, O Bringas. Investigation: S Xie, L Saba, H Jiang, L DiStefano. Resources: V Sherman. Writing (original draft): S Xie, L Saba, H Jiang, J LaCava. Writing (review and editing): S Xie, J LaCava. Supervision: J LaCava. Project administration: J LaCava. Funding acquisition: J LaCava.

Acknowledgments

The authors thank Qsonica (Newton, CT, USA) for their contribution to the development of sonication tools, with special acknowledgment to A Coppola for helpful discussions and for coordinating our sonication R&D efforts; L Martínez and I Piana of Sepmag (Barcelona, Spain) for helpful discussions regarding magnetic separations and for use of the Sepmag LAB system; and the National Center for Dynamic Interactome Research (www.ncdir.org) for financial and infrastructural support and productive scientific exchanges.

Financial disclosure

This work was supported in-part by National Institutes of Health grants R01GM126170, R01AG078925 and P41GM109824. The authors have no other relevant affiliations or financial involvement with any organization or entity with a financial interest in or financial conflict with the subject matter or materials discussed in the manuscript apart from those disclosed.

Competing interests disclosure

The authors have no competing interests or relevant affiliations with any organization or entity with the subject matter or materials discussed in the manuscript. This includes employment, consultancies, honoraria, stock ownership or options, expert testimony, grants or patents received or pending, or royalties.

Writing disclosure

No writing assistance was utilized in the production of this manuscript.

Open access

This work is licensed under the Attribution-NonCommercial-NoDerivatives 4.0 Unported License. To view a copy of this license, visit http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/

References

Papers of special note have been highlighted as: • of interest; •• of considerable interest

- 1. Aitchison JD, Rout MP. The interactome challenge. J. Cell Biol. 211(4), 729-732 (2015).
- 2. Hubner NC, Bird AW, Cox J et al. Quantitative proteomics combined with BAC TransgeneOmics reveals in vivo protein interactions. J. Cell Biol. 189(4), 739–754 (2010).
- 3. Hein MY, Hubner NC, Poser I et al. A human interactome in three quantitative dimensions organized by stoichiometries and abundances. Cell 163(3), 712–723 (2015).
- 4. Huttlin EL, Ting L, Bruckner RJ et al. The BioPlex network: a systematic exploration of the human interactome. Cell 162(2), 425-440 (2015).
- 5. Huttlin EL, Bruckner RJ, Paulo JA et al. Architecture of the human interactome defines protein communities and disease networks. Nature 545(7655), 505–509 (2017).
- 6. Huttlin EL, Bruckner RJ, Navarrete-Perea J et al. Dual proteome-scale networks reveal cell-specific remodeling of the human interactome. Cell 184(11), 3022–3040.e28 (2021).
- 7. Bell AW, Nilsson T, Kearney RE, Bergeron JJM. The protein microscope: incorporating mass spectrometry into cell biology. Nat. Methods 4(10), 783–784 (2007).
- 8. Takizawa Y, Binshtein E, Erwin AL, Pyburn TM, Mittendorf KF, Ohi MD. While the revolution will not be crystallized, biochemistry reigns supreme. Protein Sci. 26(1), 69–81 (2017).
- 9. Vidal M, Legrain P. Yeast forward and reverse 'n'-hybrid systems. Nucleic Acids Res. 27(4), 919–929 (1999).
- 10. Cheng J, Xiu RJ. A new technique for measurement of microvascular vasomotion. Proc. Chin. Acad. Med. Sci. Peking Union Med. Coll. 1(4), 203–207 (1986).
- 11. Qin W, Cho KF, Cavanagh PE, Ting AY. Deciphering molecular interactions by proximity labeling. Nat. Methods 18(2), 133–143 (2021).
- 12. Heck AJR. Native mass spectrometry: a bridge between interactomics and structural biology. Nat. Methods 5(11), 927–933 (2008).
- 13. Piersimoni L, Kastritis PL, Arlt C, Sinz A. Cross-linking mass spectrometry for investigating protein conformations and protein–protein interactions a method for all seasons. Chem. Rev. 122(8), 7500–7531 (2022).
- 14. Callaway E. The revolution will not be crystallized: a new method sweeps through structural biology. Nature 525(7568), 172–174 (2015).
- 15. von Mering C, Krause R, Snel B et al. Comparative assessment of large-scale data sets of protein-protein interactions. Nature 417(6887), 399–403 (2002).
- 16. Tackett AJ, DeGrasse JA, Sekedat MD, Oeffinger M, Rout MP, Chait BT. I-DIRT, a general method for distinguishing between specific and nonspecific protein interactions. J. Proteome Res. 4(5), 1752–1756 (2005).
- A technique, based on isotopic labeling, that distinguishes false-positive interactors from genuine interactors in immunoprecipitation (IP) experiments. This method addresses one of the most challenging problems in defining real signals within protein complexes analyzed by IP–MS.
- 17. Goll J, Uetz P. The elusive yeast interactome. Genome Biol. 7(6), 223 (2006).
- 18. Devos D, Russell RB. A more complete, complexed and structured interactome. Curr. Opin. Struct. Biol. 17(3), 370–377 (2007).
- 19. Breitkreutz B-J, Stark C, Reguly T et al. The BioGRID interaction database: 2008 update. Nucleic Acids Res. 36(Database issue), D637–640 (2008).
- 20. Wang X, Huang L. Identifying dynamic interactors of protein complexes by quantitative mass spectrometry. Mol. Cell. Proteomics 7(1), 46–57 (2008).
- 21. Trinkle-Mulcahy L, Boulon S, Lam YW et al. Identifying specific protein interaction partners using quantitative mass spectrometry and bead proteomes. J. Cell Biol. 183(2), 223–239 (2008).
- 22. Boulon S, Ahmad Y, Trinkle-Mulcahy L et al. Establishment of a protein frequency library and its application in the reliable identification of specific protein interaction partners. Mol. Cell. Proteomics 9(5), 861–879 (2010).
- 23. Choi H, Larsen B, Lin Z-Y et al. SAINT: probabilistic scoring of affinity purification-mass spectrometry data. Nat. Methods 8(1), 70–73 (2011).
- 24. Armean IM, Lilley KS, Trotter MWB. Popular computational methods to assess multiprotein complexes derived from label-free affinity purification and mass spectrometry (AP–MS) experiments. Mol. Cell. Proteomics 12(1), 1–13 (2013).
- 25. Mellacheruvu D, Wright Z, Couzens AL et al. The CRAPome: a contaminant repository for affinity purification-mass spectrometry data. Nat. Methods 10(8), 730-736 (2013).
- 26. Hakhverdyan Z, Domanski M, Hough LE et al. Rapid, optimized interactomic screening. Nat. Methods 12(6), 553-560 (2015).
- •• Reports the original methods for rapid processing of cellular material, in conjunction with parallelized, multiparameter interactome screening.
- 27. Dou Y, Kalmykova S, Pashkova M et al. Affinity proteomic dissection of the human nuclear cap-binding complex interactome. Nucleic Acids Res. 48(18), 10456–10469 (2020).
- Reports multiparameter screening with more sophisticated interactome analyses than were introduced in the original paper published in 2015.
- 28. Winczura K, Schmid M, Iasillo C et al. Characterizing ZC3H18, a multi-domain protein at the interface of RNA production and destruction decisions. Cell Rep. 22(1), 44–58 (2018).
- 29. Jancarik J, Kim SH. Sparse matrix sampling: a screening method for crystallization of proteins. J. Appl. Crystallogr. 24(4), 409–411 (1991).
- 30. Tompa P, Rose GD. The Levinthal paradox of the interactome. Protein Sci. 20(12), 2074-2079 (2011).
- 31. Menche J, Sharma A, Kitsak M et al. Disease networks. Uncovering disease-disease relationships through the incomplete interactome. Science 347(6224), 1257601 (2015).
- 32. Cristea IM, Chait BT. Conjugation of magnetic beads for immunopurification of protein complexes. Cold Spring Harb. Protoc. 2011(5), pdb.prot5610 (2011).





- 33. LaCava J, Jiang H, Rout MP. Protein complex affinity capture from cryomilled mammalian cells. J. Vis. Exp. (118), 54518 (2016).
- Detailed procedures for cell culture, harvesting and cryomilling.
- 34. Capes-Davis A, Freshney RI. Freshney's Culture of Animal Cells: A Manual of Basic Technique and Specialized Applications. 8th ed. Wiley-Blackwell, NJ, USA (2021).
- 35. Shevchenko A, Tomas H, Havlis J, Olsen JV, Mann M. In-gel digestion for mass spectrometric characterization of proteins and proteomes. Nat. Protoc. 1(6), 2856–2860 (2006).
- 36. Zougman A, Selby PJ, Banks RE. Suspension trapping (STrap) sample preparation method for bottom-up proteomics analysis. Proteomics 14(9), 1006-0 (2014).
- 37. ProtiFi. Protocols ProtiFi. https://protifi.com/pages/protocols
- 38. Tyanova S, Temu T, Cox J. The MaxQuant computational platform for mass spectrometry-based shotgun proteomics. Nat. Protoc. 11(12), 2301-2319 (2016).
- 39. Keegan S, Hakhverdyan Z, LaCava J, Fenyö D. http://www.copurification.org (2015). www.copurificationorg
- 40. Domanski M, Molloy K, Jiang H et al. Improved methodology for the affinity isolation of human protein complexes expressed at near endogenous levels. BioTechniques doi:10.2144/000113864 1-6 (2012).
- 41. Kane RS, Deschatelets P, Whitesides GM. Kosmotropes form the basis of protein-resistant surfaces. Langmuir 19(6), 2388–2391 (2003).
- 42. Sawin KE, Bicho CC, Snaith HA. Inexpensive synthetic-based matrix for both conventional and rapid purification of protein A- and tandem affinity purification-tagged proteins. Anal. Biochem. 397(2), 241–243 (2010).
- 43. Taylor MS, LaCava J, Mita P et al. Affinity proteomics reveals human host factors implicated in discrete stages of LINE-1 retrotransposition. Cell 155(5), 1034–1048 (2013).
- Adaptation of isotopic differentiation of interactions as random or targeted for human cells.
- 44. Luo Y, Jacobs EY, Greco TM et al. HIV-host interactome revealed directly from infected cells. Nat. Microbiol. 1(7), 16068 (2016).
- 45. Benelmekki M, Gasso S, Martinez LM. Simultaneous optical and magnetophoretic monitoring of DNA hybridization using superparamagnetic and plasmonic colloids. Colloids Surf. B Biointerfaces 193, 111126 (2020).
- 46. SEPMAG LMM. How to generate a constant magnetic force (2022). www.sepmag.eu/blog/how-to-generate-a-constant-magnetic-force
- 47. CYTIVA BIOPROCESS R&D AB: US20220204555 (2020).
- 48. Safarik I, Safarikova M. Magnetic techniques for the isolation and purification of proteins and peptides. Biomagn. Res. Technol. 2(1), 7 (2004).
- Languin-Cattoën O, Melchionna S, Derreumaux P, Stirnemann G, Sterpone F. Three weaknesses for three perturbations: comparing protein unfolding under shear, force, and thermal stresses. J. Phys. Chem. B 122(50), 11922–11930 (2018).
- 50. Thomas CR, Geer D. Effects of shear on proteins in solution. Biotechnol. Lett. 33(3), 443-456 (2011).
- 51. Dunn KW, Kamocka MM, McDonald JH. A practical guide to evaluating colocalization in biological microscopy. Am. J. Physiol. Cell Physiol. 300(4), C723-742 (2011).
- 52. Blaszczak E, Lazarewicz N, Sudevan A, Wysocki R, Rabut G. Protein-fragment complementation assays for large-scale analysis of protein-protein interactions. Biochem. Soc. Trans. 49(3), 1337–1348 (2021).
- 53. Kodama Y, Hu C-D. Bimolecular fluorescence complementation (BiFC): a 5-year update and future perspectives. BioTechniques 53(5), 285-298 (2012).
- 54. Sun Y, Rombola C, Jyothikumar V, Periasamy A. Förster resonance energy transfer microscopy and spectroscopy for localizing protein–protein interactions in living cells. Cytometry A 83(9), 780–793 (2013).
- 55. Dou Y, Barbosa I, Jiang H et al. NCBP3 positively impacts mRNA biogenesis. Nucleic Acids Res. 48(18), 10413-10427 (2020).
- 56. Oliver S. Guilt-by-association goes global. Nature 403(6770), 601-603 (2000).
- 57. Rual J-F, Venkatesan K, Hao T et al. Towards a proteome-scale map of the human protein-protein interaction network. Nature 437(7062), 1173-1178 (2005).
- 58. Williamson MP, Sutcliffe MJ. Protein-protein interactions. Biochem. Soc. Trans. 38(4), 875-878 (2010).
- 59. LaCava J, Molloy KR, Taylor MS, Domanski M, Chait BT, Rout MP. Affinity proteomics to study endogenous protein complexes: pointers, pitfalls, preferences and perspectives. *BioTechniques* 58(3), 103–119 (2015).
- Outlines many of the needed considerations for successful IP-MS experiments.
- 60. LaCava J, Fernandez-Martinez J, Hakhverdyan Z, Rout MP. Protein complex purification by affinity capture. Cold Spring Harb. Protoc. 2016(7), DOI: 10.1101/pdb.top077545 (2016).
- 61. Santos-Barriopedro I, van Mierlo G, Vermeulen M. Off-the-shelf proximity biotinylation for interaction proteomics. Nat. Commun. 12(1), 5015 (2021).
- 62. Heyden M. Heterogeneity of water structure and dynamics at the protein-water interface. J. Chem. Phys. 150(9), 094701 (2019).
- 63. Pollard TP, Beck TL. Toward a quantitative theory of Hofmeister phenomena: from quantum effects to thermodynamics. Curr. Opin. Colloid Interface Sci. 23, 110–118 (2016).
- 64. Evans R, O'Neill M, Pritzel A et al. Protein complex prediction with AlphaFold-Multimer. BioRxiv (2021). https://doi.org/10.1101/2021.10.04.463034
- 65. Yu D, Chojnowski G, Rosenthal M, Kosinski J. AlphaPulldown a Python package for protein-protein interaction screens using AlphaFold-Multimer. Bioinformatics 39(1), btac749 (2023).