

B05 - PEPTIDE MAPPING (Revision 1)

INTRODUCTION

Proteins can exist as large complex structures, with some molecules in the population displaying heterogeneity in their primary sequence due to improper assembly, degradation or post-translational modification. The high molecular mass of proteins combined with their complexity makes it particularly challenging to chemically identify an intact protein product using a single analytical method. It is possible to cleave the test protein into smaller fragments which can be identified with sufficient mass resolution to determine the primary sequence of the protein. This process is the basis of the protein identification technique commonly known as peptide mapping. The peptide mapping technique involves a digestion step in which the protein is selectively cleaved at amide bonds between specific amino acid residues to yield a predictable set of peptides. Analytical chromatographic separation, detection, and identification of the peptide mixture reveal information on the amino acid sequence of the protein which can be used to identify the protein. Peptide mapping is a comparative procedure; the results from the test protein are contrasted with the results of the reference standard or material similarly treated to determine the identity of the test protein. This comparative identification confirms that the primary structure of the test protein matches that of the reference protein.

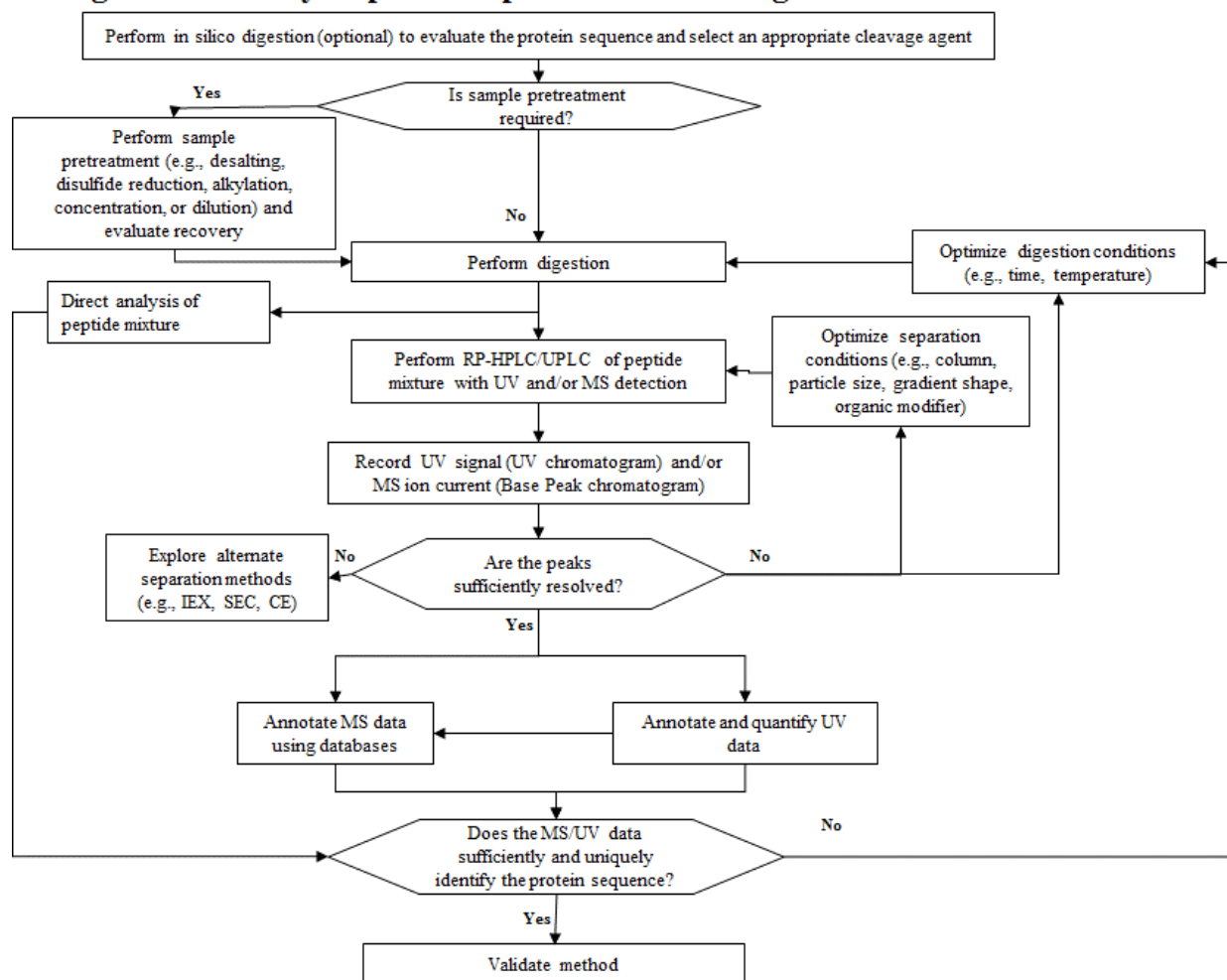
Peptide mapping's ability to detect gross alterations in the primary sequence has resulted in many applications for the determination of protein quality which are outside the scope of this chapter. The purity of the test protein with regard to amino acid misincorporation or other misassembly such as disulfide bond scrambling, post-translational modifications, and degradation can be determined using a quantitative peptide map. Peptide mapping comparison during scale up or manufacturing changes can support studies of process consistency. Additionally, peptide mapping can be used to determine the degree and specific amino acid location of modifications such as glycosylation and conjugation (e.g., degree of pegylation).

30 The focus of this chapter will be on the use of peptide mapping for the chemical
31 identification of a protein product where specificity is the primary attribute of the
32 analytical method.

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34 DEVELOPMENT OF A PEPTIDE MAPPING IDENTITY TEST PROCEDURE – POINTS 35 TO CONSIDER

36 Prior to development of an identity test method procedure it is important to understand
37 the application and level of specificity required to differentiate the identity of the test
38 protein from other products processed in the same facility. In some instances
39 orthogonal methods may be required to differentiate samples of structurally related
40 proteins. Each protein presents unique characteristics that must be well understood so
41 that the scientific approach used during development of the peptide map procedure will
42 result in an analytical method that can be validated with sufficient specificity. The amino
43 acid sequence of the test protein should be evaluated in order to select pretreatment
44 and cleavage conditions resulting in optimal peptide length for analysis. Depending on
45 application, complete or nearly complete sequence coverage is important, because
46 there may be no prior knowledge of the alterations to the protein during development.
47 The following points should be considered during development of a peptide mapping
48 analytical technique. These elements are also presented graphically in *Figure 1*.

Figure 1. Identify Peptide Map Method and Target Performance Parameters

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PRETREATMENT

52 Isolation and purification may be necessary for analysis of bulk drugs, dosage forms, or
 53 reference standards or materials containing interfering excipients or carrier proteins.
 54 Residual interfering substances may impact enzymatic cleavage efficiency and
 55 appearance of the peptide map. The impact of residual substances or the sample
 56 purification process on the final test peptide map should be assessed during the
 57 development process.

58

59 The tertiary structure of proteins may hinder full access of the cleavage enzyme to all
 60 cleavage sites resulting in unacceptable sequence coverage. The treatment of proteins

61 with chaotropic agents (e.g., guanidinium chloride, urea) and surfactants (e.g., sodium
 62 dodecyl sulfate) can be used to unfold the protein prior to digestion. Denaturing agents
 63 can affect enzyme activity and additional purification (e.g. diafiltration) or dilution steps
 64 may be needed prior to digestion. It may be necessary to reduce and alkylate the
 65 disulfide bonds prior to digestion in order to allow the enzyme to have full access to
 66 cleavage sites; however, the cysteine-to-cysteine linkage information is then lost.
 67 Common reagents for disulfide reduction include dithiothreitol and trialkylphosphine
 68 compounds such as tris(2-carboxyethyl)phosphine. Reagents for alkylating reduced
 69 cysteines include iodoacetamide, iodoacetic acid, and 4-vinylpyridine. The use of
 70 alkylating agents may create adducts which will impact the chromatographic separation
 71 and alter molecular weight of affected peptide.

72 Since peptide mapping is a comparative procedure; any purification or pretreatment
 73 steps performed on the test protein must also be performed on the product reference
 74 standard or material. The impact of residual substances, purification procedures, or
 75 pretreatment of the protein on method specificity and precision should be investigated
 76 during development and considered for inclusion in robustness studies conducted for
 77 method validation.

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79

DIGESTION

80 The choice of a cleavage technique is protein-dependent. Some of the more common
 81 cleavage agents, both enzymatic and chemical, and their specificity are shown in Table
 82 1. There may be specific reasons for using other cleavage agents or combinations of
 83 methods.

84

Table 1. Examples of Cleavage Agents

Type	Agent	Specificity
Enzymatic	Trypsin, EC 3.4.21.4	C-terminal side of Arg and Lys
	Chymotrypsin, EC 3.4.21.1	C-terminal side of hydrophobic residues (e.g., Leu, Met, Ala, aromatics)

Type	Agent	Specificity
	Pepsin A (Pepsin), EC 3.4.23.1	Low-specificity digest
	Lysyl endopeptidase (Lys-C endopeptidase), EC 3.4.21.50	C-terminal side of Lys
	Glutamyl endopeptidase (Glu-C endoproteinase; V8 protease); (from <i>S. aureus</i> strain V8), EC 3.4.21.19	C-terminal side of Glu and Asp
	Peptidyl-Asp metalloendopeptidase (Asp-N endoproteinase), EC 3.4.24.33	N-terminal side of Asp
	Clostripain (Arg-C endopeptidase), EC 3.4.22.8	C-terminal side of Arg
Chemical	Cyanogen bromide	C-terminal side of Met
	2-Nitro-5-thiocyanobenzoic acid	N-terminal side of Cys
	O-Iodosobenzoic acid	C-terminal side of Trp and Tyr
	Dilute acid	Asp and Pro
	3-Bromo-3-methyl-2-(2-nitrophenylthio-3 <i>H</i> -indole (BNPS-skatole)	Trp

85

86 Factors that impact the effectiveness and reproducibility of protein digestion include pH,
87 digestion buffer, temperature, time, and ratio of digest enzyme/reagent to protein.

88 The optimal digestion mixture pH is generally determined by the enzyme or reagent, not
89 the protein being analyzed. For example, a highly acidic environment (e.g., pH 2, formic
90 acid) is necessary when using cyanogen bromide as a cleavage agent; however, a
91 slightly alkaline environment (pH 8) is optimal when using trypsin as a cleavage agent.

92 The optimal temperature is dependent on the cleavage reagent; for example, most
93 enzymes have optimum activity in a range of 25^o–37^o. The temperature can define the
94 specificity of the enzyme to some extent. In these cases the adjustment of the
95 temperature can be used to optimize the digestion conditions for certain proteins. Ideally,
96 the digestion temperature will minimize sample-related chemical side reactions, such as
97 deamidation, and protein aggregation while maximizing the susceptibility of the test
98 protein to digestion while maintaining the activity of the cleavage agent.

99 It is necessary to ensure the digestion time is sufficient for intended use to avoid
100 variable digests. A simple time-course study should be performed to ensure sufficient
101 digestion with minimal peptide fragments resulting from partial digestion. Time of
102 digestion varies from minutes to days and aliquots of a single reaction may be
103 appropriately stabilized for analysis to determine the time required for complete
104 digestion of the protein.

105 Sufficient cleavage agent should be used to attain the desired level of digestion within a
106 practical time period (i.e., 2–20 h), while the amount of cleavage agent is minimized to
107 avoid its contribution to the peptide map. For an enzymatic digest, the protein-to-
108 protease mass ratio between 20:1 and 200:1 is generally used. In cases where the
109 cleavage agent is unstable, the cleavage efficiency may be improved by making
110 multiple additions of cleavage agent. Enzymes may be bound to a solid support to allow
111 the use of higher relative amounts of protease while avoiding enzyme autolysis
112 contamination and contribution of enzyme fragments to the peptide map. Chemical
113 cleavage reagents are usually used in significant molar excess, and may need to be
114 removed at the end of the digestion.

115 The optimal concentration of the test protein in the digestion should be empirically
116 determined. The concentration should be low enough to minimize the potential
117 aggregation of intact and partially digested proteins but must be sufficient to result in
118 detection of all peptides following chromatographic separation with the selected
119 detection method. Sample dilution or sample concentration by techniques such as
120 centrifugal filtration may be required. Any dilution or concentration steps performed on
121 the test protein must also be performed on the product reference standard or material.
122 Protein recovery should be evaluated for any concentration step and the impact of
123 dilution or concentration on method specificity and precision should be investigated
124 during development and considered for inclusion in robustness studies conducted for
125 method validation.

126 The digestion step can introduce ambiguities in the peptide map as a result of side
127 reactions, such as nonspecific cleavage, deamidation, disulfide isomerization, oxidation
128 of methionine residues, carbamylation of lysine residues, or formation of pyroglutamic

129 groups created from the deamidation of glutamine at the *N*-terminus of a peptide.
130 Autolysis may introduce extraneous peaks produced by the proteolytic enzyme
131 digesting itself. The intensities of autolysis peptide peaks are dependent on the enzyme
132 to substrate ratio and the modifications and quality of the enzyme used. To avoid
133 autolysis reagent solutions of proteolytic enzymes should be prepared at a pH which
134 inhibits enzyme activity or the reagent solutions should be prepared immediately before
135 use. Modified enzymes, where changes are made to the protease to prevent autolysis,
136 may be used. Commercial preparations of trypsin (often called “proteomics grade”) are
137 available in which the lysine residues of the enzyme have been methylated or
138 acetylated to reduce the number of autolytic cleavage sites. To identify digestion
139 artifacts, a blank determination is performed using a digestion control with all the
140 reagents except the test protein.

141

142

SEPARATION

143 Chromatographic separation of the peptide mixture resulting from the digestion step is
144 meant to resolve its complexity so that a valid interpretation of the data is meaningful
145 and reproducible. The complexity of the peptide map will ultimately dictate the optimal
146 set of chromatography conditions, column, and mobile phases. Method optimization
147 experiments will be required to obtain the highest quality reproducible chromatogram.
148 The molecular weight of the test protein will also influence the complexity of the map
149 and the optimal separation.

150 Many techniques (e.g., ion-exchange high performance liquid chromatography [HPLC;
151 ultra-high pressure liquid chromatography may also be suitable and as a subset of
152 HPLC should be considered interchangeable with HPLC throughout this chapter],
153 hydrophobic interaction HPLC, and capillary electrophoresis) have been used to
154 separate peptides for peptide map analysis. However, reversed phase HPLC (RP-
155 HPLC) is the most common method for the peptide mapping separation step and will be
156 the focus of this chapter.

157 The selection of a chromatographic column is empirically determined for each protein.

158 Columns with different pore sizes (80–1000 Å) or nonporous based on silica, polymeric,

159 or hybrid supports have been shown to give adequate separation. Columns with particle
160 sizes $<2\ \mu\text{m}$ are available and are typically more efficient than those with 3–5 μm
161 particle sizes. Generally, octyl or octadecylsilyl bonded phases are ideal for peptides.
162 Octadecylsilane (C18) with 300 Å or smaller pores is the most commonly employed
163 bonded phase for the peptide mapping separation step.

164 The most common mobile phase for the RP-HPLC separation of peptides is water with
165 acetonitrile as the organic modifier; however other organic modifiers such as methanol,
166 isopropyl alcohol, or *n*-propyl alcohol can be employed. Solvents such as the propyl
167 alcohols in the mobile phase may be useful for separating samples that contain many
168 highly hydrophobic peptides; however, it should be noted that hydrophilic or small
169 peptides may possibly elute in a column void volume. Mobile phase additives such as
170 acids, bases, buffer salts, and ion-pairing reagents are generally needed to produce
171 high quality chromatographic separations of peptides. The most common mobile phase
172 additive has been trifluoroacetic acid (TFA) with typical concentrations of 0.05%–0.2%
173 being employed. The use of phosphate as an additive is less common but can be useful.
174 Volatile acids and salts can be used in the mobile phase to improve compatibility with
175 mass spectrometer detection. While TFA has a significant positive impact on the quality
176 of peptide separation, sensitivity with mass spectrometer detection can suffer with TFA
177 due to ion suppression. Formic acid, acetic acid, or combinations of these with TFA
178 increase mass spectrometer sensitivity by reducing ion suppression. Temperature
179 control of the chromatographic column is necessary to achieve good reproducibility. The
180 column temperature may be used to optimize peptide separation or improve the
181 retention or elution of certain peptides since the resolution typically increases with
182 temperature for a reversed-phase column.

183

184

DETECTION

185 While RP-HPLC is the most common separation method employed with peptide
186 mapping for identity testing, the most common detection method is ultraviolet (UV) light
187 absorption at 214 nm. The peptides resulting from protein digestion may not contain
188 amino acids with aromatic side chains that absorb light at higher wavelengths (e.g., 280

189 nm) so detection at 214 nm (i.e., wavelength where peptide bonds absorb light) is
190 essential to ensure sequence coverage of the protein while minimizing background due
191 to the mobile phase. Other detection methods may also be suitable.

192 The limitation of UV detection is that it provides no peptide structural information. Mass
193 spectrometry is a useful detection method which provides mass information to aid in
194 identification of peptides, as well as selectivity in cases when peptides co-elute. In
195 most applications, the RP-HPLC effluent can be directly introduced into the mass
196 spectrometer, provided that the mobile phase is compatible. Specific mobile phase
197 considerations are dependent on the ionization method selected. Electrospray
198 ionization (ESI) is the most common method for the introduction of proteins and
199 peptides into the mass analyzer, and volatile, water-solvent mixtures provide the
200 greatest ionization efficiency. Because ionization by ESI in the presence of solvent is
201 limited to molecules more basic than the solvent, formic acid or acetic acid are
202 commonly added to the mobile phase. Buffers and salts should be minimized since
203 they can reduce signal, and nonvolatile salts can deposit in the source. As mentioned
204 previously, TFA should be avoided because it can result in ion suppression, a type of
205 matrix interference, which may reduce the signal of some peptides, particularly when
206 ESI is used. Ion suppression may also reduce the ionization efficiency of glycosylated
207 peptides, resulting in reduced sensitivity. It is thus important to test optimal combination
208 to achieve optimal results for both UV and MS detection.

209 DATA ANALYSIS

210 Peptide mapping is a comparative procedure. To determine if the test protein is the
211 desired protein of interest, the test protein's peptide map must be compared to the
212 peptide map of the reference standard or material generated using identical pre-
213 treatment, separation and detection procedures. Visual comparison of the retention
214 times, the peak responses (the peak area or the peak height), the number of peaks, and
215 the overall elution pattern is the first step of the procedure. It is a best practice to
216 conduct a further non-subjective analysis of the peak response ratios of the critical
217 peaks and the peak retention times. If all critical peaks in the test protein digest and in
218 the reference standard or material digest have the same retention times and peak

219 response ratios, then the identity of the test protein is confirmed. For example, peptide
220 mapping tests for monoclonal antibody samples often include a common Fc peptide that
221 is used as a reference peak. This reference peptide can be spiked into the sample
222 digest and then peak response ratios and retention times can be examined in
223 comparison with the reference peak's predefined acceptance criteria. The method of
224 comparison selected should depend on the complexity of the resulting peptide map and
225 the specificity required for the particular identity test application (e.g. differentiation
226 between different protein products manufactured at the same facility or differentiation of
227 variants of the same protein product).

228 When high specificity is required, a mass spectrometer can be used for routine analyses
229 to provide insight into peptide modifications, truncations, missed cleavages, impurities,
230 and unresolved co-eluting peak(s) under a single peak.

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232

233

POINTS TO CONSIDER PRIOR TO VALIDATION

234 During the development of the peptide mapping procedure, knowledge and experience
235 are gained that lead to selection of system suitability criteria and analytical method
236 validation acceptance criteria. A final review of the procedure prior to validation can
237 ensure that the procedure is ready for validation, reducing risk of failure to meet criteria.
238 As a general procedure, peptide mapping may encompass a significant range of
239 experimental designs, applications, and requirements for performance. As a
240 consequence, in a general text, it is not possible to set out specific system suitability or
241 validation criteria. The following elements are suggested for evaluation prior to starting
242 the validation.

243 It should be noted that the scope of this document does not include routine application
244 of mass spectroscopic (MS)–based peptide mapping applications; however, the
245 application of mass spectrometry for structural identification of peptides during the
246 development of peptide mapping methods is a best practice. Mass spectrometric
247 detection can be utilized to evaluate the following performance parameters.

248

249

Coverage

250 Coverage refers to the percentage of the target protein sequence which is recovered in
251 the peptide map and identified as discretely resolved peaks. Although no specific figure
252 can be identified for all applications, coverage approaching 95% has been found to be
253 an acceptable performance target for a peptide mapping procedure.

254

255

Specific Bond Cleavages

256 The specific bonds cleaved by the chosen enzyme or chemical digestion procedure
257 should be identified and listed.

258

259

Major Peaks

260 The major peptides recovered from the specific bond cleavages should be identified and
261 listed.

262

263

Partial Cleavages

264 Peptide bonds susceptible to partial or incomplete cleavage and their associated
265 chromatographic peaks or signals should be identified.

266

267

Minor/Non-specific Cleavages

268 The extent of cleavage at non-specific bonds should be identified and limited.

269

270

Protease-derived Peaks

271 If a protease is used for the test protein digestion then any peaks above background
272 derived from the protease should be identified and, where appropriate, limited.

273

274

Undigested "Core" Protein

275 Undigested or partially digested protein (often called “core”) should be identified and
276 limited.

277

278 Mean Peptide Length

279 Describes the peptide set produced by the combination of the chosen protease and/or
280 chemical cleavage reagent and the test protein. This is a trade-off between smaller
281 peptides, which show a higher level of structural selectivity with peptide mapping but
282 produce a more complex map with more peaks, and longer peptides which produce
283 simpler maps but with less resolving capacity for structural variants. No specific peptide
284 length is suitable for all applications, but a mean peptide length of 10-20 residues is
285 often considered appropriate.

286

287 Resolution Capacity

288 Resolution capacity refers to the capacity of the separation system to resolve the
289 peptide set generated by the protease or chemical cleavage reagent. For example, a
290 digest may produce 30 peptides but only 20 peaks due to co-elutions or nonrecoveries.
291 Problematic separations should be identified and resolved by appropriate
292 chromatographic procedures and, if necessary, controlled by the use of peptide
293 reference standard or material or system performance criteria.

294

295 System Suitability Criteria Selection

296 System suitability criteria should be developed to ensure that the elements of the
297 procedure for protein digestion, separation, and detection have successfully provided a
298 structural identification of the test protein at the level of unambiguity required for the
299 application. System suitability criteria evaluated during routine analysis for identity tests
300 will typically include an assessment of the reference protein digest chromatogram and
301 may include such performance characteristics as:

- 302 — Qualitative similarity to reference chromatogram
- 303 — Extent of digestion

- 304 — Partial cleavages
- 305 — Non-specific cleavages
- 306 — Peak heights/signal to noise ratio
- 307 — Peak shape
- 308 — Peak retention time
- 309 — Resolution of specific peaks

310 For test method procedures that require sample isolation, purification, or concentration
311 a sample recovery criteria should be determined and included as part of the system
312 suitability assessment. In cases where digestion artifacts may be present, assessment
313 of a blank digestion control may be needed to demonstrate a lack of interference.

314 VALIDATION

315 Before validating a peptide mapping procedure, the procedure should have been
316 developed to its final form and documented with system suitability criteria. Each time
317 the procedure is performed the results are evaluated against the system suitability
318 criteria to determine if the procedure has successfully provided reproducible results
319 consistent with previous testing instances. Pre-approved acceptance criteria often
320 evolve based on the system suitability criteria of the procedure. The elements of the
321 analytical validation protocol are as follows:

322 Specificity

323 Method performance requirements will vary depending on the application of the identity
324 test method and may require a risk assessment to understand what degree of specificity
325 is needed to differentiate the identity of the test protein from other products processed in
326 the same facility. Peptide mapping is a comparative technique confirming that the
327 primary structure of the test protein matches that of the reference protein. Specificity is
328 established by the comparison of the peptide maps of a suitable reference standard or
329 material and samples of structurally related proteins. The selection of comparator
330 samples should be selected based on a risk assessment of other products processed in
331 the same facility and should be documented in the validation protocol. In order to
332 minimize the inherent variability of the test, the procedure is executed on reference
333 standard or material and test protein during the same testing instance. A peptide

334 mapping test design that analyzes the test protein digest, reference standard or material
335 digest, and a 1:1 (v/v) comixture of the test protein and reference standard or material
336 after digestion is a useful specificity validation experiment. Occasionally a peak can
337 appear in a test protein's peptide map that elutes at a slightly different retention time
338 then the corresponding peak in the reference standard or material peptide map, leading
339 the analyst to judge the peaks as nonidentical. Testing a co-mixture sample during the
340 specificity validation experiment can demonstrate that two peaks are identical if they co-
341 elute in the co-mixture peptide map and confirm the identity. Chemically modified
342 forms of the reference standard or material can be produced by exposure to conditions
343 of pH, temperature, or chemical agents known to cause alteration of the primary
344 structure. These alterations typically include deamidation of asparagine and glutamine
345 residues, oxidation of methionine, histidine, or tryptophan residues, and acid catalyzed
346 cleavage of peptide bonds. Peptide maps of a chemically modified reference standard
347 or material and the reference standard or material can be compared based on
348 predetermined acceptance criteria to demonstrate if the specificity of the peptide
349 mapping procedure is affected by amino acid side chain modifications.

350

351 Precision

352 To facilitate the determination of the precision (repeatability and intermediate precision)
353 of the peptide mapping procedure, an empirical method of quantifying peak responses
354 (peak areas or peak heights) and peak retention factor should be part of the procedure.
355 One approach is to make peak response and peak retention time comparisons that are
356 expressed relative to a highly reproducible reference peak within the same
357 chromatogram. The precision results obtained during the analytical procedure validation
358 are reported and should meet the acceptance criteria of the validation. Failure of the
359 precision results to meet the acceptance criteria can lead the analyst to reassess the
360 digestion and/or separation steps in the procedure.

361 Robustness

362 Factors such as composition of the mobile phase, protease quality or chemical reagent
363 purity, column variation and age, digestion temperature, and digest stability are likely to

364 affect the overall performance of the test and its reproducibility. Tolerances for each of
365 the key parameters are evaluated and baseline limits established in case the test is
366 used for routine lot release purposes.

367

368 The impact of small variations in purification, pretreatment, dilution, or concentration
369 procedures of the protein sample on recovery should be identified during the
370 development process and controlled. Impact of residual substances remaining after
371 sample preparation on method specificity and precision should be considered. Critical
372 parameters identified during development should be included in robustness studies
373 conducted for method validation.

374 Many protein fragmentation strategies employ the use of proteolytic enzymes. As a
375 result, the digestion portion of the peptide mapping procedure is inherently more
376 sensitive to minor variation of test parameters. These parameters may include all or a
377 subset of the following: digestion pH, buffer, buffer concentration, ionic strength,
378 digestion temperature, digestion kinetics, test protein concentration, protease quantity,
379 protease quality, and the stability of the digest. Using a design of experiments approach,
380 the identified critical parameters are systematically studied to understand their impact
381 on method variability. Those digestion parameters where small variations have been
382 shown to impact the precision of the peptide mapping procedure should be carefully
383 controlled within the test procedure using operating ranges established and validated by
384 these studies.

385

386 To evaluate the protease quality or chemical reagent purity a sample of the reference
387 standard or material is prepared and digested with different lots of cleavage agent. The
388 chromatograms for each digest are compared in terms of peak areas, peak shape, and
389 number. The same procedure can be applied to other critical chemicals or pretreatment
390 procedures used during sample preparation, such as reducing and S-
391 carboxymethylation reagents.

392 The length of time a digest can be held before proceeding to the separation step of the
393 procedure, as well as the conditions under which the digest is stored before separation,

394 are assessed. Several aliquots from a single digest are stored under different storage
395 conditions and resolved by the chromatographic method. These maps are then
396 evaluated for significant differences.

397 During the separation step column-to-column variability, even within a single column lot,
398 can affect the performance of the peptide mapping procedure. To evaluate column lot
399 differences, reference standard or material of the protein of interest is digested and the
400 digest is subjected to separation using different column lots from a single manufacturer.
401 The resulting peptide maps are then evaluated in terms of the overall elution profile,
402 retention times, and resolution according to predetermined acceptance criteria.

403
404 To evaluate the lifetime of a column in terms of robustness, a single digest of the
405 reference standard or material can be analyzed using the peptide mapping procedure
406 with columns that vary by the injection number history (e.g., 10 injections per column to
407 250 injections per column). The resulting peptide maps can then be compared for
408 significant differences in peak broadening and overall resolution. As a column ages, an
409 increase in back pressure might be observed that can affect the peptide map. System
410 suitability or assay validity criteria can be designed to be diagnostic of column aging or
411 other events that may affect the peptide mapping results.

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413

414

SUMMARY

415 The peptide mapping procedure consists of multiple steps possibly including protein
416 isolation, denaturation, chemical modification (e.g., blocking sulfhydryl groups) if
417 necessary, protein digestion, peptide separation and detection, and data analysis. Each
418 step should be optimized during development to result in a well qualified analytical
419 procedure for the peptide mapping identity test. In combination with the use of a
420 suitable reference standard or material, system suitability criteria should be chosen that
421 evaluate if all the steps in the procedure worked together properly to produce a
422 successful peptide map of that reference standard or material that is consistent with the
423 validation of the analytical procedure. When properly developed, validated, and

424 performed the analytical peptide mapping procedure can be used to verify the identity of
425 the test protein which is a critical quality attribute of the product.