Optimized Baxter model of protein solutions: Electrostatics versus adhesion

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A theory is set up of spherical proteins interacting by screened electrostatics and constant adhesion, in which the effective adhesion parameter is optimized by a variational principle for the free energy. An analytical approach to the second virial coefficient is first outlined by balancing the repulsive electrostatics against part of the bare adhesion. A theory similar in spirit is developed at nonzero concentrations by assuming an appropriate Baxter model as the reference state. The first-order term in a functional expansion of the free energy is set equal to zero which determines the effective adhesion as a function of salt and protein concentrations. The resulting theory is shown to have fairly good predictive power for the ionic-strength dependence of both the second virial coefficient and the osmotic pressure or compressibility of lysozyme up to about 0.2 volume fraction. © 2004 American Institute of Physics. [DOI: 10.1063/1.1786915]

I. INTRODUCTION

It has been intimated that the solution properties of globular proteins may bear relation with their crystallization properties.^{1,2} Since the characterization of proteins commands ever more attention, such a contention is of considerable interest, so much work has been carried out on this topic recently.^{3–8}

The difficulty of setting up a predictive theory of protein suspensions based on what is known about the interaction between two proteins has been acknowledged for some time.⁹ Best fitting of the osmotic pressure of, for instance, bovine serum albumin up to 100 g/1, leads to effective excluded volumes whose behavior as a function of salt is enigmatic.¹⁰

In recent years, there has been a tendency to forget about all details of the protein interaction altogether-both attractive and repulsive-and to introduce a single adhesion parameter.^{10–14} Despite the electrostatic repulsion which is substantial, the data are often merely rationalized in terms of the bare protein diameter within the context of an adhesive sphere model and such an approach seems to have merit.¹⁰⁻¹⁴ This empiricism has prompted us to develop a theory of screened charged protein spheres that have a constant stickiness, but where the electrostatic interaction is compensated, in part, by the adhesive forces. Thus, we argue that, effectively, the spheres are assigned a hard diameter identical to the actual diameter provided the remnant adhesive interaction now depends on the electrolyte and protein concentrations in a manner to be determined variationally. Our primary aim is to formulate a liquid state theory of protein solutions with the Baxter model as reference state. First, however, we

analyze the second virial coefficient as such, for this will point toward a way of dealing with the osmotic pressure at nonzero concentrations. We focus on experiments with lysozyme, a protein which is reasonably spherical and has been well studied for a long time.¹⁵ In particular, we show that there are enough measurements of the second virial of lysozyme to determine an adhesion parameter with some confidence.

II. SECOND VIRIAL COEFFICIENT

A. Theory

1. Second virial coefficient

The second virial coefficient B_2 describes the first-order correction to Van't Hoff's law

$$\frac{11}{\rho k_B T} = 1 + B_2 \rho + O(\rho^2).$$
(1)

Here, Π is the osmotic pressure of the solution, ρ is the particle number density, k_B is Boltzmann's constant, and T is the temperature. From statistical mechanics we know that, given the potential of mean force $U(\mathbf{r})$ between two spherical particles whose centers of mass are separated by the vector \mathbf{r} , one can calculate B_2 from

$$B_2 = -\frac{1}{2} \int_V d\mathbf{r} f(\mathbf{r}), \qquad (2)$$

where $f(\mathbf{r}) = e^{-U(\mathbf{r})/k_BT} - 1$ is the Mayer function. In principle, the interaction $U(\mathbf{r})$ may be determined from experimental data on the second virial coefficient by suitable Laplace inversion. This has been done for atoms and spherically symmetric molecules,^{16,17} for which the second virial coefficient has been measured over a broad enough range of temperatures. One might think of formulating a procedure

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similar in spirit and applicable to protein solutions, but with the ionic strength as independent variable instead of the temperature. However, to be able to determine the interaction by inversion, the experimental data have to be known fairly accurately, which is not the case at hand, as will become clear further on. We are therefore forced to adduce presumptions about the interaction.

We assume the protein to be spherical with radius a, its charge being distributed uniformly on its surface. For convenience, all distances will be scaled by the radius a of the sphere and all energies will be in units of k_BT . Because monovalent ions (counterions and salt ions) are also present in solution, there will be a screened Coulomb repulsion between the proteins, here given by a far-field Debye-Hückel potential. We compute the effective charge qZ_{eff} in the Poisson-Boltzmann approximation where q is the elementary charge. For now, we let the attraction between two proteins be of short range, and we model it by a potential well of depth U_A and width $\delta \ll 1$. The total interaction U(x) between two proteins is of the form

$$U(r) = \begin{cases} \infty, & 0 \le x < 2\\ U_{DH}(x) - U_A, & 2 \le x < 2 + \delta\\ U_{DH}(x), & x \ge 2 + \delta, \end{cases}$$
(3)
$$x \equiv \frac{r}{a},$$

with Debye-Hückel potential¹⁸

$$U_{DH}(x) = 2\xi \frac{e^{-\mu(x-2)}}{x}.$$
 (4)

Here, $\xi \equiv (Q/2a)(Z_{\text{eff}}/1+\mu)^2$, κ^{-1} is the Debye length defined by $\kappa^2 = 8\pi QI$, *I* is the ionic strength, $Q = q^2/\epsilon k_B T$ is the Bjerrum length, which equals 0.71 nm in water at 298 K, ϵ is the permittivity of water, and $\mu \equiv \kappa a = 3.28a\sqrt{I}$, if *a* is given in nanometers and *I* in mol/1. We suppose 1-1 electrolyte has been added in excess, so *I* is the concentration of added salt.

In order to evaluate B_2 analytically, we have found it expedient to split up B_2 into several terms:

$$B_2 = B_2^{HS} (1 + \frac{3}{8}J), \tag{5}$$

where $B_2^{HS} = 16\pi a^3/3$ is the second virial coefficient if the proteins were merely hard spheres and we introduce the following integrals to facilitate analytical computation:

$$J \equiv \int_{2}^{\infty} dx \, x^{2} (1 - e^{-U(x)}) \equiv J_{1} - (e^{U_{A}} - 1)J_{2}, \qquad (6)$$

$$J_1 = \int_2^\infty dx \, x^2 (1 - e^{-U_{DH}(x)}), \tag{7}$$

$$J_2 \equiv \int_2^{2+\delta} dx \, x^2 e^{-U_{DH}(x)}.$$
 (8)

Here, J_1 is the value of J in the absence of attraction and may be simplified by Taylor expanding the Boltzmann factor in the integrand for small values of U_{DH} to second order. However, to increase the accuracy of the expansion, we adjust the coefficient of the second order term so that the approximation to the integrand coincides with its actual value at x=2, i.e., we approximate $x(1-e^{-U_{DH}(x)}) \approx 2\xi e^{-\mu(x-2)}$ $-2\alpha\xi^2 e^{-2\mu(x-2)}$, with $\alpha = [e^{-\xi} - (1-\xi)]/\xi^2$, resulting in

$$J_1 \simeq \frac{4\left(\mu + \frac{1}{2}\right)\xi}{\mu^2} \left(1 - \frac{\alpha}{2}\xi\right),\tag{9}$$

where we have neglected the small term $\alpha \xi^{2/2} \mu^{2}$. For instance, in the case of lysozyme, the deviation of the approximation Eq. (9) from the exact result is smaller than about 3% for $I \ge 0.05M$ and smaller than about 1% for $I \ge 0.2M$. Since $\delta \ll 1$, J_2 may be simplified by using the trapezoid approximation $\int_{2}^{2+\delta} dxg(x) \approx 1/2 \delta[g(2) + g(2 + \delta)]$, which leads to

$$J_2 \approx 2\,\delta \left[e^{-\xi} + \left(1 + \frac{\delta}{2} \right)^2 e^{[\xi/(1+\delta/2)]e^{-\mu\delta}} \right].$$
(10)

It is important to note that $\mu\delta$ may be greater than unity even if $\delta \ll 1$. Again, for lysozyme, this approximation deviates less than about 3% from the exact value for $I \ge 0.2M$ and $\delta \le 0.5$ and less than about 1% for $I \ge 0.2M$ and $\delta \le 0.15$.

2. Effective attractive well

We next present a discussion of B_2 in terms of equivalent interactions and their Mayer functions even though the analysis of the preceding section is self-contained. Sections II A 2 and II A 3 may be viewed as preludes to the formulation of the liquid-state theory developed in Sec. III. At large separations $(x > 2 + \delta)$, the interaction between the particles is purely repulsive, leading to a positive contribution to the second virial coefficient. If, at a certain ionic strength, the second virial coefficient is smaller than the hard-core value $(B_2 < B_2^{HS})$, this positive contribution is necessarily canceled by only part of the negative contribution of the attractive interaction at small separations, the part, say, between x=2 $+\epsilon_0$ and $x=2+\delta$ (see Fig. 1). The remaining potential, which we will call an effective attractive well, then consists of a hard-core repulsion plus a short-range attraction of range ϵ_0 . The value of ϵ_0 is determined by noting that the free energy of the suspension must remain invariant, which, in the asymptotic limit of low densities, leads to the identity

$$B_{2,\epsilon_0} = B_2, \tag{11}$$

where B_2 is the second virial coefficient of the preceding section and B_{2,ϵ_0} is the second virial coefficient pertaining to the effective attractive well. Using Eq. (2), we rewrite Eq. (11) as

$$\int_{V} d^{3}\mathbf{r} \Delta f = 0, \tag{12}$$

in terms of the difference in the respective Mayer functions,

$$\Delta f \equiv f - f_{\epsilon_0},\tag{13}$$

where *f* is the Mayer function of the original interaction and f_{ϵ_0} is the Mayer function of the effective attractive well. In dimensionless units, Eq. (12) is equivalent to the condition

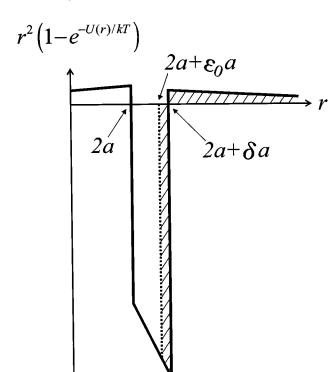


FIG. 1. The integrand of Eq. (2) vs the distance *r*. As shown by the shaded regions, the repulsive tail is compensated by part of the attractive interaction provided $B_2 < B_2^{HS}$.

$$\int_{2+\delta}^{\infty} dx \, x^2 (1 - e^{-U_{DH}(x)}) = \int_{2+\epsilon_0}^{2+\delta} dx \, x^2 (e^{U_A} e^{-U_{DH}(x)} - 1),$$
(14)

where, using the same approximation that led to Eq. (9), we write

$$\int_{2+\delta}^{\infty} dx \, x^2 (1 - e^{-U_{DH}(x)})$$
$$\approx \frac{2\xi e^{-\mu\delta}}{\mu} \left(1 - \frac{\alpha}{2}\xi e^{-\mu\delta}\right) \left(2 + \delta + \frac{1}{\mu}\right) \tag{15}$$

and, using $\int_{2+\epsilon_0}^{2+\delta} dx \, x^2 \Delta f(x) \simeq 2(\delta - \epsilon_0) [\Delta f(2+\delta) + \Delta f(2+\epsilon_0)]$, we have

$$\int_{2+\epsilon_{0}}^{2+\delta} dx \, x^{2} (e^{U_{A}} e^{-U_{DH}(x)} - 1)$$

$$\approx 2(\delta - \epsilon_{0}) [-2 + e^{U_{A}} (e^{-[\xi/(1+\delta/2)]} e^{-\mu\delta} + e^{-[\xi/(1+\epsilon_{0}/2)]} e^{-\mu\epsilon_{0}})].$$
(16)

To leading order, we then find an explicit relation for ϵ_0

$$\delta - \epsilon_0 \simeq \frac{\xi e^{-\mu\delta}}{\mu e^{U_A}} e^{\xi^{e^-\mu\delta}},\tag{17}$$

which works well at high ionic strengths (i.e., at low values of ξ), e.g., whenever $I \ge 1M$ in the case of lysozyme at *p*H 4.5. A more accurate value of $\delta - \epsilon_0$ is obtained by equating Eqs. (15) and (16), and then iteratively updating the factor $(\delta - \epsilon_0)$, starting with the initial value $\epsilon_0 = \delta$.

Sometimes, it may be convenient to introduce an equivalent square well. The second virial coefficient pertaining to the original potential U(x) [Eq. (3)] is now rewritten as

$$B_2 = B_{2,\epsilon_0} = B_2^{HS} \left(1 + \frac{3}{8} \int_2^{2+\epsilon_0} dx \, x^2 (1 - e^{U_A} e^{-U_{DH}(x)}) \right).$$
(18)

The depth $U_A - U_{DH}(x)$ does not vary strongly though, since $\epsilon_0 \ll 1$. To simplify things computationally, we approximate the interaction by a square well potential,

$$U_{SW}(x) = \begin{cases} \infty, & 0 \le x < 2 \\ -U_S, & 2 \le x < 2 + \epsilon_0 \\ 0, & x \ge 2 + \epsilon_0. \end{cases}$$
(19)

We choose U_S in such a way that $B_2 = B_2^{SW}$ or, equivalently,

$$\int_{2}^{2+\epsilon_{0}} dx \, x^{2} (e^{U_{S}} - e^{U_{A}} e^{-U_{DH}(x)}) = 0.$$
⁽²⁰⁾

To leading order in ϵ_0 , we have

$$\int_{2}^{2+\epsilon_{0}} dx \, x^{2} e^{U_{S}} \simeq 4\epsilon_{0} e^{U_{S}}, \tag{21}$$

and, using the approximation $\int_{2}^{2+\epsilon_{0}} dx x^{2} g(x) \simeq 2\epsilon_{0} [g(2+\epsilon_{0})+g(2)]$, we write

$$\int_{2}^{2+\epsilon_{0}} dx \, x^{2} e^{U_{A}} e^{-U_{DH}(x)}$$

$$\approx 2\epsilon_{0} e^{U_{A}} [e^{-\xi} + e^{-[\xi/(1+\epsilon_{0}/2)]e^{-\mu\epsilon_{0}}}].$$
(22)

The depth U_S of the potential is then given by

$$e^{U_{S}} \simeq \frac{1}{2} e^{U_{A}} (e^{-\xi} + e^{-[\xi/(1+\epsilon_{0}/2)]e^{-\mu\epsilon_{0}}})$$
(23)

in terms of the original variables. Finally, we point out that the two attractive wells that we have introduced are physically meaningful only if $B_2 < B_2^{HS}$.

3. Attractive well in the Baxter limit

We have shown that one may simplify the statistical thermodynamics of the protein suspension at low densities considerably, by replacing the original interaction, consisting of an electrostatic repulsion and a short-range attraction, by a single attractive well of short range. The electrostatic interaction may be substantial but it is compensated by part of the original attractive well which is quite strong ($U_A > 1$). Another useful interaction expressing attractive forces of short range consists of a hard-sphere repulsion and an attraction of infinite strength and infinitesimal range, namely, the adhesive hard sphere (AHS) potential of Baxter:¹⁹

$$U_{AHS}(x) = \begin{cases} \infty, & 0 \le x < 2\\ \ln \frac{12\tau\omega}{2+\omega}, & 2 \le x \le 2+\omega\\ 0, & x > 2+\omega, \end{cases}$$
(24)

where τ is a constant and the limit $\omega \downarrow 0$ has to be taken after formal integrations. The second virial coefficient remains finite,

$$B_2^{AHS} = B_2^{HS} \left(1 - \frac{1}{4\tau} \right).$$
 (25)

Because much is known about the statistical mechanics of the Baxter model, one often defines τ in terms of some B_2 and naively assumes there is a one-to-one correspondence between the original and Baxter models. For instance, in our case, $B_2^{AHS} = B_2 = B_{2,\epsilon_0} = B_2^{SW}$. Since we have

$$B_{2}^{SW} = B_{2}^{HS} \left\{ 1 - (e^{U_{S}} - 1) \left[\left(1 + \frac{\epsilon_{0}}{2} \right)^{3} - 1 \right] \right\}$$
$$\approx B_{2}^{HS} [1 - \frac{3}{2} (e^{U_{S}} - 1) \epsilon_{0}], \qquad (26)$$

we thus identify

$$\frac{1}{\tau} \simeq 6\epsilon_0 (e^{U_S} - 1), \tag{27}$$

where U_S is given by Eq. (23). However, it is important to realize that this procedure is legitimate at small densities only. At finite concentrations, the optimal representation of the real suspension of proteins by a Baxter model has to be derived and we will show in Sec. III that the simple-minded identification of τ via $B_2^{AHS}(\tau) \equiv B_2$ no longer applies.

B. Application to lysozyme

1. Experimental data

Lysozyme is, by far, the best studied protein with regard to solution properties. This is one of the reasons for using this protein to test theory, another being its moderate aspect ratio of about 1.5 so that it may be fairly well approximated

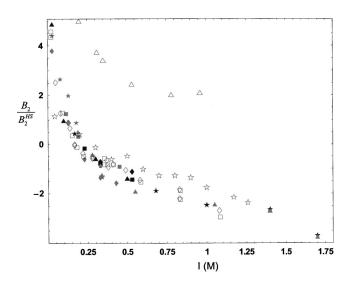


FIG. 2. Experimental data of the second virial coefficient B_2 of lysozyme as a function of the ionic strength *I* at a *p*H of about 4.5. The second virial coefficient is scaled by the hard sphere value B_2^{HS} . Black squares: Bonneté *et al.* (Ref. 27), *p*H 4.5, 20 °C. Gray triangles: Curtis *et al.* (Ref. 23), *p*H 4.5, 20 °C. Gray squares: Muschol *et al.* (Ref. 24), *p*H 4.7, 20 °C. Black stars: Curtis *et al.* (Ref. 22), *p*H 4.5, 25 °C. Black diamonds: Bonneté *et al.* (Ref. 27), *p*H 4.5, 25 °C. Black triangles: Velev *et al.* (Ref. 21), *p*H 4.5, 25 °C. White squares: Rosenbaum *et al.* (Ref. 20), *p*H 4.6, 25 °C. White diamonds: Rosenbaum *et al.* (Ref. 14), *p*H 4.6, 25 °C. Gray stars: Bloustine *et al.* (Ref. 26), *p*H 4.6, 25 °C. White stars: Piazza and Pierno (Ref. 25), *p*H 4.7, 25 °C. White triangles: Behlke and Ristau (Ref. 28), *p*H 4.5. Gray diamonds: Bloustine *et al.* (Ref. 26), *p*H 4.7. In all cases, the electrolyte is NaCl, often with a small amount of Na acetate added.

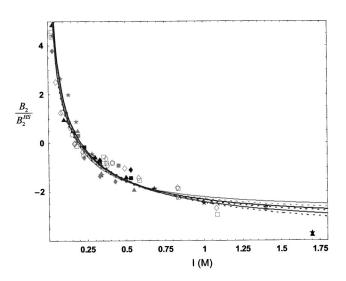


FIG. 3. A fit of Eq. (5) to the experimental data of Fig. 2 (except for those of Refs. 25 and 28). On the right-hand side of the figure, the upper solid line corresponds to I_{θ} =0.19, δ =0.564, and U_A =1.48; the upper dotted line to I_{θ} =0.20, δ =0.468, and U_A =1.70, and the middle solid line to I_{θ} =0.21, δ =0.379, and U_A =1.95, all at an effective charge Z_{eff} . The middle dotted line corresponds to I_{θ} =0.19, δ =0.25, and U_A =2.4; the lower solid one to I_{θ} =0.21, δ =0.079, and U_A =3.70, all at a lowered effective charge \overline{Z} .

by a sphere. Bovine Serum Albumin (BSA) has also been well studied, but is considerably more anisometric with an aspect ratio of about 3.5. Numerous measurements of the second virial coefficient of lysozyme have been published. In fact, there are quite a few sets of experiments pertinent to our analysis.^{14,20–28}

It turns out that there is appreciable scatter in the data if we plot all measurements of B_2 at a pH of about 4.5 as a function of ionic strength I [NaCl+small amount of Na acetate; we have set the ionic strength arising from the latter equal to $0.6 \times \text{concentration}$ (Ref. 21)] (see Fig. 2). Several sets of data^{25,28} appear to be way off the general curve within any reasonable margin of error. An important criterion is how well the θ point (i.e., when $B_2=0$) is established since then attractive forces-which we would like to understand-are well balanced against electrostatics-which we purportedly understand well. Experimentally speaking, it ought to be possible to monitor B_2 accurately about the θ point; large negative B_2 values at $I \gg I_{\theta}$ are more difficult to determine because the proteins may start to aggregate or nucleate, in principle. Various polynomial fits for all data close to the θ point yield $I_{\theta} = (0.20 \pm 0.01)M$. Hence, we have regarded data sets^{25,28} markedly disagreeing with this ionic strength as anomalous so we have not taken them into consideration. Figure 3 displays all data we have taken into account. Clearly, the composite curve yields a fairly reliable basis to test possible theories of the attractive force. On the other hand, it is unclear at present how the scatter in data in Fig. 3 translates into bounds for attractive interactions inferred by inverting Eq. (2).

2. Theory

a. *Electrostatics*. Next, it is important to ascertain the actual and effective charges of lysozyme under conditions

TABLE I. Values of the actual charge Z of hen-egg-white lysozyme (from Ref. 29), the renormalized or effective charge Z_{eff} [from Eq. (A7)], the lowered effective charge $\overline{Z} = Z_{\text{eff}} - 1$, and dimensionless interaction parameters ξ and μ , and ϵ_0 , U_S , and τ as a function of the ionic strength *I*. The *p*H equals 4.5 and ξ has been calculated using the lowered effective charge \overline{Z} . Values of U_S and τ have been computed using Eqs. (23) and (27), respectively, and ϵ_0 has been calculated using the procedure described immediately after Eq. (17).

I(M)	0.05	0.1	0.15	0.2	0.25	0.3	0.45	1	1.5	2
Ζ	9.5	9.8	10.0	10.1	10.2	10.2	10.3	10.4	10.4	10.4
$Z_{\rm eff}$	8.8	9.2	9.4	9.6	9.7	9.8	10.0	10.2	10.3	10.3
Ī	7.8	8.2	8.4	8.6	8.7	8.8	9.0	9.2	9.3	9.3
ξ	2.52	1.84	1.48	1.27	1.10	0.984	0.752	0.409	0.295	0.229
μ	1.25	1.76	2.16	2.50	2.79	3.06	3.74	5.58	6.83	7.89
ϵ_0			0.0208	0.0466	0.0585	0.0644	0.0720	0.0773	0.0782	0.0785
U_{S}			2.26	2.52	2.70	2.82	3.05	3.37	3.47	3.53
au			0.933	0.314	0.205	0.164	0.115	0.0767	0.0684	0.0642

relevant to the present work. Kuehner et al.29 performed hydrogen-ion titrations on hen-egg-white lysozyme in KCl solutions. By interpolation, we obtain the actual charge Z of the protein as a function of the 1-1 electrolyte concentration I (see Tables I and II). Experiments on B_2 are usually carried out with NaCl (and some Na acetate) as the supporting monovalent electrolyte but here we assume KCl and NaCl behave identically in an electrostatic sense. We solve the Poisson-Boltzmann equation to get the effective charge Z_{eff} in the Debye-Hückel tail (for more detail, see Appendix A). The dimensionless radius is set equal to $\mu = 3.28a\sqrt{I}$ $=5.58\sqrt{I}$ and Eq. (A7) is used to compute the renormalized or effective charge. (Setting a = 1.7 nm for lysozyme as in Refs. 20 and 23; the Bjerrum length Q = 0.71 nm for H₂O at room temperature). The other dimensionless parameter is given by $\xi = 0.209(\overline{Z}/(1+\mu))^2$, where $\overline{Z} = Z_{\text{eff}} - 1$ (see below).

b. Attractive well. We have assumed U_A and δ to be independent of the ionic strength *I*. It is possible to show that this does not contradict the data displayed in Figs. 2 and 4. In Appendix B, we prove that if the interaction between the proteins is given by Eq. (3) but now $U_A = U_A(x)$ is a general attraction, then $dB_2/d\mu < 0$ and $d^2B_2/d\mu^2 > 0$, the last inequality being valid if $\xi < 1$. We recall that μ is proportional to \sqrt{I} so that Figs. 3 and 4 indeed bear out these inequalities after due rearrangement.

Next, we determine the optimal values of U_A and δ yielding exact, numerical $B_2(I)$ curves given by Eq. (5) which are the best fits to the data of Fig. 3. We require that $I_{\theta} = 0.20 \pm 0.01$ is predicted absolutely which fixes U_A , say, and δ is then determined by a nonlinear minimization proce-

dure. We thus obtain $U_A = 1.70 \pm 0.25$ and $\delta = 0.468 \pm 0.097$ but we note that the quantity $\delta \exp U_A = 2.56 \pm 0.10$ is much more narrowly bounded. Now, it can be argued that the Debye-Hückel potential with effective charge Zeff overestimates the real potential in magnitude so we have repeated this numerical procedure with a slightly lower effective charge, viz., $\overline{Z} = Z_{\text{eff}} - 1$ (see Tables I and II). This yields the revised estimates $U_A = 2.87 \pm 0.65$, $\delta = 0.167 \mp 0.086$, and $\delta \exp U_A = 2.95 \pm 0.21$. The numerically computed curves are displayed in Fig. 3. We therefore conclude that the variables U_A and δ as such are difficult to ascertain unambiguously, though the variable $\delta \exp U_A$ is quite robust. This is also borne out if we use our approximations, Eqs. (9) and (10), instead of the exact numerical computations. There are again wide variations in U_A and δ but the quantity $\delta \exp U_A$ is strictly bounded: $\delta \exp U_A = 2.70 \pm 0.11$ (effective charge and $\delta \exp U_A = 3.02 \pm 0.21$ (effective charge = Z_{eff} $=Z_{eff}$) -1).

We now argue why $\delta \exp U_A$ is indeed a relevant quantity, to a good approximation. At the θ point we have $B_2 = 0$ so that $J_{\theta} = -8/3$ from Eq. (5). From Tables I and II, we see that generally $\mu \ge 1$ and $\alpha \xi \ll 1$; hence, we have $J_1 \simeq 4\xi/\mu$ and $J_2 \simeq 4\delta \exp -\xi$ for often $\mu \delta > 1$. This would lead to $\delta \exp U_A \simeq 4.4$. On the other hand, at very high *I*, J_1 and ξ tend to zero and, because $U_A \ge 1$, the scaled virial coefficient B_2/B_2^{HS} reduces to $-3/8J_2 \exp U_A \simeq -3/2\delta \exp U_A$ leading to $\delta \exp U_A \simeq 3$ estimated from Fig. 3. Hence, the two estimates at the respective extremes are fairly consistent. To summarize, we may propose a crude approximation to the second virial coefficient which is a universal function of $\delta \exp U_A$,

TABLE II. Same as Table I, but now with a pH equal to 7.5.

				-	-					
I(M)	0.05	0.1	0.15	0.2	0.25	0.3	0.45	1	1.5	2
Ζ	6.9	7.0	7.1	7.2	7.2	7.3	7.3	7.1	6.9	6.8
$Z_{\rm eff}$	6.6	6.8	6.9	7.0	7.0	7.1	7.2	7.0	6.9	6.8
\overline{Z}	5.6	5.8	5.9	6.0	6.0	6.1	6.2	6.0	5.9	5.8
ξ	1.3	0.920	0.728	0.616	0.524	0.473	0.357	0.174	0.119	0.0889
μ	1.25	1.76	2.16	2.50	2.79	3.06	3.74	5.58	6.83	7.89
ϵ_0		0.0493	0.0640	0.0695	0.0725	0.0741	0.0764	0.0784	0.0787	0.0788
U_{S}		2.83	3.03	3.14	3.23	3.28	3.39	3.56	3.61	3.63
au		0.212	0.132	0.108	0.0943	0.0877	0.0758	0.0623	0.0590	0.0574

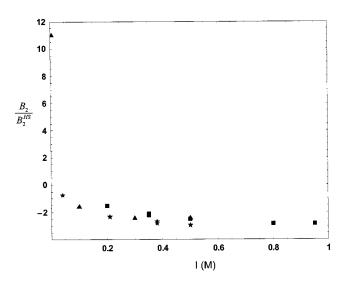
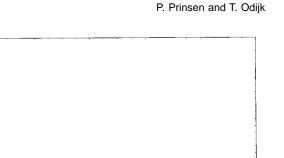


FIG. 4. Experimental data of the second virial coefficient B_2 of lysozyme as a function of the ionic strength *I* at a *p*H of about 7.5. The second virial coefficient is scaled by the hard sphere value B_2^{HS} . Black stars: Rosenbaum and Zukoski (Ref. 20), *p*H 7.4, 25 °C. Black triangles: Velev *et al.* (Ref. 21), *p*H 7.5, 25 °C. Black squares: Rosenbaum *et al.* (Ref. 14), *p*H 7.8, 25 °C.

$$\frac{B_2}{B_2^{HS}} \simeq 1 + \frac{3\xi}{2\mu} - \frac{3}{2}e^{-\xi}\delta e^{U_A}.$$
(28)

The third term on the right is exact in the limit $\delta \rightarrow 0$, whereas the absolute error in the second term is smaller than 0.25 when $I \ge 0.1M$. Using Eq. (28) to fit the data leads to $\delta \exp U_A = 4.2$ when we use the effective charge Z_{eff} , whereas $\delta \exp U_A = 3.7$ when we use the lower effective charge \overline{Z} (see Fig. 5).

In Fig. 3 we see that the curves at low values of δ fit the data at high ionic strengths better. In the remainder of this paper, we therefore employ the values $\delta = 0.079$ and $U_A = 3.70$, corresponding to the lowered effective charge \overline{Z} and $I_{\theta} = 0.21M$. In Fig. 6 we show a comparison between experimental data at a *p*H of about 7.5 and the theoretical curve computed numerically with the same parameters.



12

10

2

0

= 0.079 and $U_A = 3.70$).

 $\frac{B_2}{B_2^{HS}}$

0.2 0.4 0.6 0.8 1
 I (M)
 FIG. 6. Comparison between the experimental data at *p*H 7.5 and full theory, Eq. (5). Parameters as in the lower dotted curve in Fig. 3 (δ)

c. AHS potential. Values of ϵ_0 , U_S , and τ at several ionic strengths are given in Tables I and II. Figure 7 displays the ionic-strength dependence of the adhesion parameter τ . Near the θ point, τ decreases quickly with increasing I. At high ionic strength, τ approaches the limiting value of $[6\delta(e^{U_A}-1)]^{-1}$, which, upon the use of our choice δ = 0.079 and U_A =3.7, is equal to 0.0535. We note that at *p*H 4.5 and at ionic strengths I=0.05*M* and I=0.1*M*, the computed values of ϵ_0 , U_S , and τ become nonsensical. In that case, the attractive potential is simply not strong enough to compensate the electrostatic repulsion completely so our analytical approach breaks down. This can also be seen in Fig. 2, where we have $B_2 > B_2^{HS}$ for these two values of the ionic strength. The same effect occurs at *p*H 7.5 when I=0.05*M*.

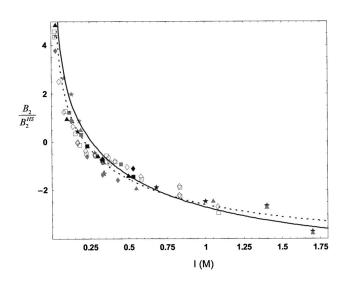


FIG. 5. Fits of Eq. (28) to experimental data of Fig. 3. Full line (Z_{eff} and $\delta \exp U_A$ =4.2); dotted line (\overline{Z} and $\delta \exp U_A$ =3.7).

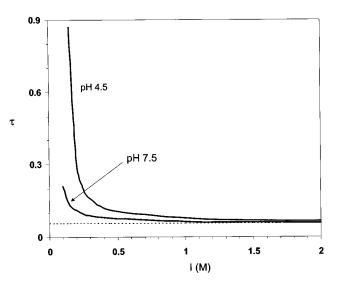


FIG. 7. Ionic-strength dependence of AHS parameter τ at *p*H 4.5 and *p*H 7.5. The dotted line denotes the limiting value of τ as $I \rightarrow \infty$.

III. LIQUID STATE THEORY AT HIGHER DENSITIES

A. Theory

1. Density dependent attractive well in the Baxter limit

In Sec. II, we introduced the AHS potential as a convenient first approximation to the interaction between proteins. We determined the adhesion parameter τ by matching values of the second virial coefficient which is methodologically correct only in the asymptotic limit of very low densities. In this section we propose a procedure of choosing τ , which is valid at higher concentrations but τ now depends on the protein density. We extend a method originally proposed by Weeks, Chandler, and Anderson³⁰ for repulsive interactions. They variationally determined an effective hard sphere diameter for a soft, repulsive potential of short range, but we argue that their scheme is more generally applicable as long as the full interaction—attractive and repulsive—remains of short range, which is the case here.

We start by introducing a functional expansion of the excess Helmholtz free energy ΔA in terms of the Mayer function of the interaction U,

$$\rho^{-1}\mathcal{A}(\rho,T;\varphi_s) = \rho^{-1}\mathcal{A}(\rho,T;\varphi_{AHS}) + \frac{\eta}{2}\frac{3}{4\pi}\int d\mathbf{x}B_{AHS}(x) + \frac{\eta^2}{2}\left(\frac{3}{4\pi}\right)^2\frac{a^3}{V}\int d\mathbf{x}_1d\mathbf{x}_2d\mathbf{x}_3 \times B_{AHS}(x_{12})B_{AHS}(x_{13})J_{AHS}^{(3)}(\mathbf{x}_1,\mathbf{x}_2,\mathbf{x}_3) + \cdots$$
(29)

Here *V* is the volume of the system, $\mathcal{A} = -\Delta A/V$, $\varphi_s(x) = e^{-U(x)}$, $\varphi_{AHS}(x) = e^{-U_{AHS}(x)}$, $\eta = 4\pi a^3 \rho/3$ is the volume fraction of particles, $J_{AHS}^{(3)}(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \mathbf{x}_3)$ is a complicated function depending on two- and three-particle correlation functions (see Ref. 30), $\mathbf{x}_{12} = \mathbf{x}_1 - \mathbf{x}_2$, etc. We define the quantity

$$B_{AHS}(x) \equiv y_{AHS}(x) [\varphi_s(x) - \varphi_{AHS}(x)], \qquad (30)$$

in terms of the so-called cavity function $y_{AHS}(x)$ $\equiv g_{AHS}(x)/\varphi_{AHS}(x) = (2/\rho^2)(\delta A/\delta \varphi(x))$ and radial distribution function $g_{AHS}(x)$ pertaining to an appropriate AHS potential which is the reference state. Both these functions depend on ρ , *T*, and the effective adhesive parameter τ , the latter to be determined variationally. From now on, we omit the subscript AHS in $B_{AHS}(x)$, $g_{AHS}(x)$, etc., for the sake of brevity.

We next choose τ by requiring that the first-order correction to the excess free energy vanishes,

$$\int d\mathbf{x} B(x) = 0. \tag{31}$$

This is the analog of Eq. (12). Hence, in the spirit of the preceding section, we split up this integral into two parts. The first indicates that the tail of the electrostatic interaction is compensated by part of the original square well attraction,

$$\int_{2+\epsilon}^{\infty} dx \, x^2 B(x) = 0 \tag{32}$$

 $(0 < \epsilon \le \delta)$, and yields ϵ . The second determines the density dependent strength τ of the AHS interaction,

$$\int_{2}^{2+\epsilon} dx \, x^2 B(x) = 0. \tag{33}$$

This expresses the fact that the reference potential has to compensate for the remaining part of the original interaction. We note that this scheme is only consistent if the attraction is sufficiently strong (τ may never be negative).

2. Approximate radial distribution function for the Baxter potential

In order to be able to determine τ from Eqs. (32) and (33), we need to know g(x), the radial distribution function of the reference interaction, the AHS potential. In the Percus-Yevick approximation developed by Baxter, g(x) has a singular contribution $g_{\omega}(x)$ which, after the limit $\omega \rightarrow 0$, acts like a δ function and results from the stickiness of the interaction at the surfaces of two touching spheres. We thus assume the functional expansion given by Eq. (29) exists after the limit $\omega \rightarrow 0$. This is obviously very difficult to prove in general although we investigate the bilinear term in Appendix C. We split g(x) into $g_{\omega}(x)$ and a regular term $\tilde{g}(x)$:¹⁹

$$g(x) = \overline{g}(x) + g_{\omega}(x) \tag{34}$$

with

$$g_{\omega}(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & x < 2 \\ \frac{\lambda(2+\omega)}{12\omega} + O(1), & 2 \le x \le 2+\omega \\ 0, & x > 2+\omega, \end{cases}$$
(35)

analogous to Eq. (24), where the amplitude λ is the smaller of the two solutions of

$$\tau = \frac{1+\eta/2}{(1-\eta)^2} \frac{1}{\lambda} - \frac{\eta}{1-\eta} + \frac{\eta}{12}\lambda.$$
(36)

For x < 2, $\tilde{g}(x)$ equals zero owing to the hard-core repulsion, whereas $\tilde{g}(x)$ tends to unity for large *x*. For proteins, it turns out that $\varphi_s(x) - \varphi_{AHS}(x)$ is often appreciably nonzero only near the surface of the sphere so we approximate $\tilde{g}(x)$ in the interval $2 \le x \le 4$ by the first two terms of its Taylor expansion,

$$\tilde{g}(x) \simeq \begin{cases} 0, & x < 2\\ G[1 + H(x - 2)], & 2 \le x \le 4\\ 1, & x > 4. \end{cases}$$
(37)

The constants *G* and *H* may be computed with the help of the auxiliary function F(t) introduced by Bravo Yuste and Santos³¹ [see their Eqs. (3.19) and (3.21); note that the first derivative we need in the Taylor expansion of $\tilde{g}(x)$ is taken after the limit $\omega \rightarrow 0$]. The Laplace transforms of the radial distribution and other functions which were computed by Baxter¹⁹ [see his Eq. (30)] are related to F(t) by their Eq. (3.12). Expansions at high *t* then lead to

$$G = \lambda \tau \tag{38}$$

and

$$H = \frac{\eta}{2\tau(1-\eta)} \left(\frac{\eta(1-\eta)}{12} \lambda^2 - \frac{1+11\eta}{12} \lambda + \frac{1+5\eta}{1-\eta} - \frac{9(1+\eta)}{2(1-\eta)^2} \frac{1}{\lambda} \right).$$
(39)

Numerical work³² bears out that Eqs. (37)–(39) are quite reasonable for $x-2 \ll 1$. In the case of proteins, the range of both attractive and electrostatic forces is much smaller than the diameter.

3. Determination of the effective adhesion

We next determine τ from Eq. (33), first using Eq. (32) to obtain ϵ . From Eqs. (24), (30), and (34), the function B(x) can be shown to have the following form (repressing terms that ultimately disappear in the limit $\omega \rightarrow 0$):

$$B(x) = \widetilde{B}(x) - g_{\omega}(x), \qquad (40)$$

where the regular term is given by

$$\tilde{B}(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & 0 \le x \le 2\\ (e^{-U(x)} - 1)\tilde{g}(x), & x > 2. \end{cases}$$
(41)

Equation (32) may be conveniently expressed as

$$\int_{2+\epsilon}^{\infty} dx \, x^2 B(x) = \int_{2+\epsilon}^{2+\delta} dx \, x^2 \widetilde{B}(x) + \int_{2+\delta}^{\infty} dx \, x^2 \widetilde{B}(x) = 0.$$
(42)

Using $\int_{2+\epsilon}^{2+\delta} dx f(x) \approx 1/2(\delta-\epsilon) [f(2+\delta)+f(2+\epsilon)]$ and neglecting terms of order δ^2 and ϵ^2 , we write the first integral as

$$\int_{2+\epsilon}^{2+\delta} dx \, x^2 B(x) \simeq G(\delta - \epsilon) K_1(\delta, \epsilon), \tag{43}$$

with

$$K_{1}(\delta, \epsilon) \equiv 2(e^{U_{A}}e^{-[\xi/(1+\delta/2)]e^{-\mu\delta}} - 1)[1 + (1+H)\delta] + 2(e^{U_{A}}e^{-[\xi/(1+\epsilon/2)]e^{-\mu\epsilon}} - 1)[1 + (1+H)\epsilon].$$
(44)

Again, we stress that, although $\delta \leq 1$ and $\epsilon \leq 1$, $\mu \delta$ and $\mu \epsilon$ may be of order unity. Furthermore, we note that if we take the limit $\eta \downarrow 0$, then $\lambda \rightarrow \tau^{-1}$ and $G \rightarrow 1$, so we recover Eq. (16) if we neglect terms of order δ and ϵ . We tackle the second integral by adopting the following approximation:

$$1 - \exp[-U(x)] = 1 - \exp(2\xi x^{-1}e^{-\mu(x-2)})$$

$$\approx 2\xi x^{-1}e^{-\mu(x-2)} - 2\xi^{2}x^{-2}e^{-2\mu(x-2)}$$

$$+ 2\xi^{3}x^{-2}e^{-3\mu(x-2)}/3$$

(note that in this Taylor expansion of the exponential we have replaced one factor x^{-1} by 2^{-1} in the last term). We then write

$$-\int_{2+\delta}^{\infty} dx \, x^2 B(x) \simeq G[(1+\delta H)P_1 + HP_2] \tag{45}$$

$$P_{1} = \int_{2+\delta}^{\infty} dx x^{2} (1 - e^{-U(x)})$$

$$\approx \frac{8}{\mu^{2}} (1 + \mu \delta) M + \frac{16}{\mu} M \left(1 - M + \frac{8}{9} M^{2} \right)$$
(46)

and

$$P_{2} = \int_{2+\delta}^{\infty} dx x^{2} (x-2-\delta) (1-e^{-U(x)})$$
$$\approx \frac{8}{\mu^{3}} (2+\mu\delta) M + \frac{16}{\mu^{2}} \left(M - \frac{1}{2}M^{2} + \frac{8}{27}M^{3} \right).$$
(47)

Here, $M \equiv \xi e^{-\mu \delta}/4$. Using the approximations $1-M + 8M/9 \simeq (1+M)^{-1}$ and $M - M^2/2 + 8M^3/27 \simeq \ln(1+M)$, we arrive at

$$P_1 \simeq \frac{8}{\mu^2} (1 + \mu \,\delta) M + \frac{16}{\mu} \frac{M}{1 + M} \tag{48}$$

and

$$P_2 \simeq \frac{8}{\mu^3} (2 + \mu \,\delta) M + \frac{16}{\mu^2} \ln(1 + M). \tag{49}$$

Hence, the variable ϵ , which depends on the density by virtue of the density dependence of *H*, is determined iteratively from

$$\delta - \epsilon_{new} = \frac{(1 + \delta H)P_1 + HP_2}{K_1(\delta, \epsilon_{old})}.$$
(50)

One starts with $\epsilon_{old} = \delta$ and iterates until a stationary ϵ_{new} is reached.

The next step is to calculate τ from Eq. (33), which, with the help of Eq. (40), is equivalent to the expression

$$\int_{2}^{2+\epsilon} dx \, x^2 \widetilde{B}(x) = \frac{2\lambda}{3}.$$
(51)

We have taken the limit $\omega \rightarrow 0$. Again using the approximation $\int_{2}^{2+\epsilon} dx f(x) \approx 1/2\epsilon [f(2+\epsilon)+f(2)]$, we write

$$\int_{2}^{2+\epsilon} dx \, x^{2} \widetilde{B}(x) \simeq 2G \, \epsilon \left[\left(e^{U_{A}} e^{-\left[\xi/(1+\epsilon/2) \right] e^{-\mu\epsilon}} - 1 \right) \right] \times \left(1 + (1+H)\epsilon \right) + \left(e^{U_{A}} e^{-\xi} - 1 \right) \right].$$
(52)

Together with the expressions (51) and $G = \lambda \tau$ [Eq. (38)], this leads to

$$\frac{1}{\tau} \simeq 3 \epsilon [(e^{U_A} e^{-[\xi/(1+\epsilon/2)]e^{-\mu\epsilon}} - 1)[1+(1+H)\epsilon] + (e^{U_A} e^{-\xi} - 1)].$$
(53)

Accordingly, τ may be determined iteratively if we recall that both *H* and ϵ also depend on τ . A way of quickly determining τ and ϵ is choosing a starting value for both ($\epsilon = \delta$ and τ = 0.2 say), and then alternately using Eqs. (50) and (53) until the iterates become stationary.

with

TABLE III. The scaled range ϵ of the effective attractive well and the strength of the effective adhesive interaction τ at *p*H 4.5 as a function of the ionic strength *I* and volume fraction η . The values of ϵ and τ have been evaluated from Eqs. (50) and (53).

η		0.15M	0.2 <i>M</i>	0.25M	0.3 <i>M</i>	0.45M	1 <i>M</i>	1.5M	2 <i>M</i>
0	au	0.829	0.295	0.194	0.156	0.110	0.0735	0.0656	0.0616
	з	0.0230	0.0483	0.0596	0.0653	0.0725	0.0775	0.0782	0.0786
0.05	au	0.712	0.289	0.193	0.155	0.110			
	ε	0.0266	0.0492	0.0600	0.0655	0.0725			
0.1	au	0.620	0.283	0.192	0.155	0.110			
	з	0.0303	0.0502	0.0603	0.0656	0.0725			
0.15	au	0.544	0.276	0.191	0.155	0.110			
	ε	0.0342	0.0514	0.0607	0.0657	0.0724			
0.2	au	0.482	0.268	0.190	0.155	0.110			
	ε	0.0383	0.0528	0.0611	0.0658	0.0723			
0.3	au	0.380	0.251	0.186	0.154	0.110			
	ε	0.0477	0.0563	0.0624	0.0663	0.0722			
0.4	au	0.300	0.228	0.179	0.152	0.110			
	ε	0.0600	0.0619	0.0651	0.0677	0.0724			

B. Application to lysozyme

We have already determined the interaction in Sec. II B 2b (δ =0.079 and U_A =3.70). We next compute τ iteratively from Eqs. (39), (44), (48)–(50), and (53). They depend on both the density of protein and the ionic strength (see Table III).

Thermodynamic properties such as the osmotic compressibility κ_T are then also simply obtained from τ . For instance, in the Percus-Yevick approximation, κ_T is given by¹⁹

$$(\rho k_B T \kappa_T)^{-1} \equiv \frac{1}{k_B T} \frac{\partial \Pi}{\partial \rho} = \frac{\left[1 + 2\eta - \lambda \eta (1 - \eta)\right]^2}{\left(1 - \eta\right)^4}, \quad (54)$$

where λ is the smaller of the two solutions of Eq. (36). Figure 8 compares the predicted density dependence of the

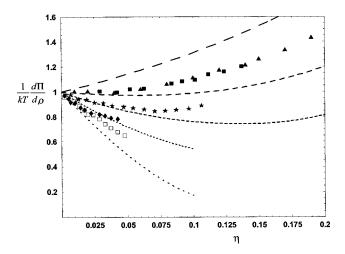


FIG. 8. Inverse osmotic compressibility as a function of the volume fraction η at various ionic strengths. Experimental data: black squares, I=0.18M; black triangles, I=0.23M; black stars, I=0.28M; black diamonds, I=0.33M; open squares, I=0.48M. All data from Rosenbaum *et al.* (Ref. 14), except for those at I=0.23M (black triangles) [Piazza *et al.* (Ref. 13)]. Curves computed from Eq. (54) with $\delta=0.079$, $U_A=3.70$, and the lowered effective charge \overline{Z} ; τ has been determined from Eq. (53). From top to bottom: I=0.18M, I=0.23M, I=0.23M, I=0.33M, and I=0.48M.

(scaled) inverse osmotic compressibility at various ionic strengths with experimental data from Refs. 13 and 14.

IV. DISCUSSION

One difficulty in comparing our computations with experiment has been the substantial margin of error in the osmotic measurements. By contrast, in the case of other biomacro-molecules such as rodlike DNA, it has been possible to obtain the second virial B_2 at better than 10% accuracy.^{33–35} One possibility for the occurrence of discrepancies in B_2 is the variety of lysozyme types. Poznanski *et al.*³⁶ have established that popular commercial lysozyme preparations such as Seikagaku and Sigma exhibit significant differences under dynamic light scattering. Nevertheless, the variation in B_2 at, say, about 0.5*M* NaCl (see Fig. 3) is so large that it needs to be explained. At nonzero concentrations, the difference between the osmotic data of Refs. 13 and 14 is also substantial.

The relatively large variation in the experimental measurements of B_2 makes it difficult to falsify stringently other models of attractive forces like that of van der Waals type, for instance. It proves feasible to get satisfactory agreement with the experimental data displayed in Fig. 3 if we let the dispersion interaction be given by the nonretarded Hamaker potential¹⁸ for spheres of dimensions appropriate for lysozyme, with an adjustable Hamaker constant of order k_BT though with a very short cutoff at around 0.1–0.2 nm. However, the necessity of such a cutoff, which is already beyond the limit of validity of continuum approximations, may be viewed as positing the equivalent of a short-range interaction like that of Eq. (3), in large part. It is well to note that the long-range dispersion interaction beyond some distance much smaller than the radius *a* plays only a minor role.

Stell³⁷ has criticized the Baxter limit because divergences in the free energy appear at the level of the 12th virial. Therefore, the most straightforward way to interpret our liquid state theory is to stress that our zero-order theory describes the reference state only up to and including the 11th virial within the Percus-Yevick approximation. The

analysis of phase transitions must be viewed with caution (for a comparison of recent simulations—taking the limit of zero polydispersity after the limit of vanishing well depth with Percus-Yevick theory, see Ref. 38). A second problem is here that, at large ionic strengths, a considerable electrostatic repulsion is balanced against a significant attraction (see Fig. 1) and it is difficult to see how good such a compensatory scheme should work at high concentrations near dense packing.

In summary, we have presented a fairly good theory of the ionic-strength dependence of the osmotic properties of lysozyme in terms of a sticky interaction which is independent of charge or salt concentration. This conclusion, by itself, is not new for it has been reached earlier by formulating numerical work incorporating short-range forces and screened electrostatics and comparing it with x-ray scattering^{39,40} and liquid-liquid phase separation.^{41–43} The merit of the current analysis is its transparency because it is analytical and it is based on a nonperturbative variational principle for general short-range potentials, so it may be readily generalized.

APPENDIX A: EFFECTIVE CHARGE

For the repulsive tail of the two-particle interaction, we use the Debye-Hückel potential, which is the far-field solution of the Poisson-Boltzmann equation. In our case, the (dimensionless) potential at the surface is often merely of order unity, so the Debye-Hückel potential slightly overestimates the solution to the Poisson-Boltzmann equation. To remedy this, we use a renormalized charge within the Debye-Hückel potential, chosen in such a way that, at large distances, the Debye-Hückel potential coincides with the tail of the solution of the Poisson-Boltzmann equation determined by the real charge.⁴⁴ This will result in an underestimation of the potential at small separations, but the form of the Debye-Hückel potential we use here [Eq. (4)] is in fact only accurate at large separations and overestimates the interaction at small separations appreciably, i.e., when overlap of the two double layers occurs (by about 20%, see Ref. 18). The two effects thus partly cancel, although the latter effect is larger than the former.

The Poisson-Boltzmann equation for the dimensionless potential $\psi(r) = q \phi(r)/k_B T$ of a single sphere of radius *a* and total charge qZ, assumed positive for convenience, immersed in a solvent with Bjerrum length *Q*, at a concentration of ions leading to a Debye length κ , is written as

$$\frac{1}{r^2} \frac{d}{dr} r^2 \frac{d}{dr} \psi(r) = \kappa^2 \sinh \psi(r), \qquad (A1)$$

with boundary conditions

$$\left. \frac{d}{dr} \psi(r) \right|_{r=a} = \frac{ZQ}{a^2}; \quad \lim_{r \to \infty} \psi(r) = 0.$$
(A2)

Linearizing Eq. (A1) ($\psi \ll 1$), we find the Debye-Hückel solution

$$\psi_0 = \frac{ZQ}{1+\mu} \, \frac{e^{-\kappa(r-a)}}{r}.$$
 (A3)

We next derive the first-order correction to this solution. Putting $\psi(r) = \psi_0(r) + \psi_1(r)$, with $|\psi_1(r)| \le |\psi_0(r)|$, results in the following linear differential equation for ψ_1 :

$$\frac{1}{r^2} \frac{d}{dr} r^2 \frac{d}{dr} \psi_1(r) = \frac{1}{6} \kappa^2 \psi_0^3(r).$$
(A4)

Keeping in mind that $\psi_1(r) = o(\psi_0(r))$, as $r \to \infty$, we integrate the differential equation once to obtain

$$\frac{d}{dr}\psi_1(r) = -\frac{\kappa^2}{6} \left(\frac{ZQe^{\mu}}{1+\mu}\right)^3 \frac{E_1(3\kappa r)}{r^2}$$
(A5)

and a second time to derive

$$\psi_1(r) = -\frac{\kappa^3}{6} \left(\frac{ZQe^{\mu}}{1+\mu} \right)^3 \left[\frac{e^{-3\kappa r}}{\kappa r} - \left(3 + \frac{1}{\kappa r} \right) E_1(3\kappa r) \right],$$
(A6)

where $E_1(x)$ is the exponential integral defined by $E_1(x) = \int_x^\infty dt t^{-1} e^{-t}$. Using the first of the two boundary conditions, we then determine the renormalized charge Z_{eff} ,

$$Z_{\text{eff}} = \frac{a^2}{Q} \frac{d}{dr} \psi(r) \bigg|_{r=a}$$
$$= \frac{a^2}{Q} \frac{d}{dr} \psi_0(r) \bigg|_{r=a} + \frac{a^2}{Q} \frac{d}{dr} \psi_1(r) \bigg|_{r=a}$$
$$= Z - \frac{\mu}{18} \bigg(\frac{Q}{a}\bigg)^2 \bigg(\frac{Z}{1+\mu}\bigg)^3 F(\mu), \qquad (A7)$$

where

$$F(\mu) \equiv 3\mu e^{3\mu} E_1(3\mu) \sim 1 - \frac{1}{3\mu} + \frac{2}{9\mu^2} - \cdots .$$
 (A8)

Recapitulating, we have calculated, to leading order, the charge Z_{eff} which has to be inserted into the Debye-Hückel potential [Eq. (4)] so that this has the correct asymptotic behavior at large *r*, coinciding with the tail of the Poisson-Boltzmann solution.

APPENDIX B: DEPENDENCE OF B_2 ON IONIC STRENGTH

Here, we prove some simple inequalities describing the behavior of the second virial coefficient as a function of the ionic strength for an interaction consisting of a Debye-Hückel repulsion $U_{DH}(x)$ and a general attractive potential $U_A(x)$, the latter not depending on the ionic strength. If we let $U(x) = U_{DH}(x) + U_A(x)$, then B_2 is given by Eq. (5) with

$$J = \int_{2}^{\infty} dx \, x^{2} (1 - e^{-U(x)}). \tag{B1}$$

Then, we have

$$\frac{dJ}{d\mu} = \int_{2}^{\infty} dx \, x^{2} \frac{dU_{DH}(x)}{d\mu} e^{-U(x)}$$
$$= \int_{2}^{\infty} dx \, x^{2} \left(\frac{d\ln \xi}{d\mu} - (x-2) \right) U_{DH}(x) e^{-U(x)}.$$
(B2)

In Fig. 9 we see that in the regime of interest $d \ln \xi/d\mu < 0$, so we conclude that

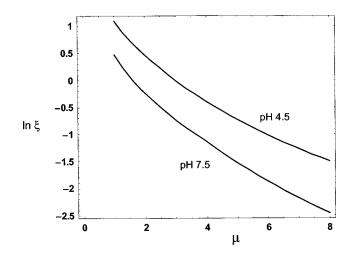


FIG. 9. Dependence of $\ln \xi$ on μ at pH 4.5 and pH 7.5. In both cases $d \ln \xi/d\mu < 0$ and $d^2 \ln \xi/d\mu^2 \ge 0$ if $1 \le \mu \le 8$.

$$\frac{dB_2}{d\mu} = \frac{3}{8} B_2^{HS} \frac{dJ}{d\mu} < 0.$$
(B3)

In the same way it is clear from the second derivative

$$\frac{d^2 J}{d\mu^2} = \int_2^\infty dx \, x^2 \left[\frac{d^2 \ln \xi}{d\mu^2} + \left(\frac{d \ln \xi}{d\mu} - (x-2) \right)^2 \right] \times \left[1 - U_{DH}(x) \right] U_{DH}(x) e^{-U(x)}$$
(B4)

and the fact that $d^2 \ln \xi / d\mu^2 \ge 0$ in the regime of interest that

$$\frac{d^2B_2}{d\mu^2} = \frac{3}{8} B_2^{HS} \frac{d^2J}{d\mu^2} > 0,$$
(B5)

if $U_{DH}(2) \le 1$, i.e., if $\xi \le 1$ (a sufficient condition).

APPENDIX C: CORRECTIONS TO THE FREE ENERGY

In Sec. III, we viewed a suspension of proteins as a system of spheres with an AHS interaction and we chose the parameter r of the AHS potential such that the first-order correction in the functional expansion of the free energy [Eq. (29)] vanishes [see Eq. (31)]. In an attempt to justify this approximation and explore its regime of applicability, we estimate the size of the second-order correction to the free energy [from Eq. (29)] which is either positive or negative definite,

$$\Delta \equiv \frac{\eta^2}{2} \left(\frac{3}{4\pi}\right)^2 a^3 V^{-1} \int d\mathbf{x}_1 d\mathbf{x}_2 d\mathbf{x}_3 B(x_{12}) B(x_{13}) h(x_{23})$$
$$= \frac{9}{4} \eta^2 Y. \tag{C1}$$

It is convenient to rewrite the integral in such a way that the angular integration can be performed explicitly (see below):

$$Y \equiv \int_0^\infty dt \ t^2 B(t) \int_0^\infty ds \ s^2 B(s)$$
$$\times \int_0^\pi d\vartheta \sin \vartheta h(\sqrt{s^2 + t^2 - 2st} \cos \vartheta)$$
$$= 2 \int_0^\infty dt \ t B(t) \int_t^\infty ds \ s B(s) \int_{s-t}^{s+t} du \ u h(u).$$
(C2)

Here we have used the Kirkwood superposition approximation $J_{BM}^{(3)}(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \mathbf{x}_3) = h(x_{23})$,³⁰ where h(x) = g(x) - 1 is the pair correlation function. We have employed the substitution $u^2 = s^2 + t^2 - 2st \cos \vartheta$, with ϑ the angle between \mathbf{x}_{12} and \mathbf{x}_{13} . Using the expression for g(x) [Eq. (34)] and defining $\tilde{h}(x) = \tilde{g}(x) - 1$, we split *Y* into three parts,

$$Y = Y_0 + Y_1 + Y_2, (C3)$$

where we have introduced the limit $\omega \rightarrow 0$ and where

$$Y_{0} \equiv \frac{2\lambda}{3} \int_{2}^{\infty} dt \, tB(t) \int_{t}^{t+2} ds \, sB(s)$$
$$\approx \frac{2\lambda}{3} \int_{2}^{\infty} dt \, tB(t) \int_{t}^{\infty} ds \, sB(s)$$
$$= \frac{\lambda}{3} \left[\int_{2}^{\infty} dt \, tB(t) \right]^{2}, \tag{C4}$$

$$Y_1 \equiv 2 \int_2^\infty dt \, tB(t) \int_t^{t+2} ds \, sB(s) \int_{s-t}^{s+t} duth u \tilde{h}(u), \quad (C5)$$

and

$$Y_{2} \equiv 2 \int_{2}^{\infty} dt \, tB(t) \int_{t+2}^{t+4} ds \, sB(s) \int_{s-t}^{s+t} du \, u\tilde{h}(u) \ll Y_{1}.$$
(C6)

To simplify Eq. (C5), we substitute Eq. (37) and note that $s+t \ge 4$ and $0 \le s-t \le 2$. We then derive

$$\int_{s-t}^{s+t} du \ u \tilde{h}(u) = \frac{2}{3} (9G + 10GH - 12) + \frac{1}{2} (s-t)^2.$$
(C7)

Next, using Eq. (31), we integrate the nonconstant term leading to a product of two integrals,

$$\int_{2}^{\infty} dt \, tB(t) \int_{t}^{t+2} ds \, sB(s)(s-t)^{2}$$
$$\approx \int_{2}^{\infty} dt \, tB(t) \int_{t}^{\infty} ds \, sB(s)(s-t)^{2}$$
$$= \left[\int_{2}^{\infty} dt \, tB(t)\right] \left[\int_{2}^{\infty} ds \, s^{3}B(s)\right].$$
(C8)

Hence, Y_1 is written in terms of one-dimensional integrals,

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$$Y_{1} \approx \frac{2}{3} (9G + 10GH - 12) \left[\int_{2}^{\infty} dt \, tB(t) \right]^{2} + \left[\int_{2}^{\infty} dt \, tB(t) \right] \left[\int_{2}^{\infty} ds \, s^{3}B(s) \right],$$
(C9)

and this is also the case for Y

$$Y \approx \frac{2}{3} \left(9G + 10GH - 12 + \frac{\lambda}{2} \right) \left[\int_{2}^{\infty} dt \, tB(t) \right]^{2} + \left[\int_{2}^{\infty} dt \, tB(t) \right] \left[\int_{2}^{\infty} ds \, s^{3}B(s) \right].$$
(C10)

Our goal is to obtain explicit approximations for these integrals by expediently using Eqs. (32) and (33). First, we consider integrals on the interval $[2,2+\epsilon]$ which are dominated by the singular part of B(x). We substitute Eq. (40) into Eq. (33) and let $\omega \rightarrow 0$

$$\int_{2}^{2+\epsilon} dt \, t^2 \widetilde{B}(t) = \frac{2\lambda}{3}.$$
 (C11)

We use this relation to rewrite part of one of the integrals in Eq. (C10) in two ways, noting that $\epsilon \ll 1$:

$$\int_{2}^{2+\epsilon} dt \, tB(t) = -\frac{\lambda}{3} + \int_{2}^{2+\epsilon} dt \, t\widetilde{B}(t)$$
$$= -\frac{1}{2} \int_{2}^{2+\epsilon} dt (t-2) t\widetilde{B}(t)$$
$$\approx -\frac{\epsilon}{4} \int_{2}^{2+\epsilon} dt \, t\widetilde{B}(t). \tag{C12}$$

We thus conclude that

$$\int_{2}^{2+\epsilon} dt \, t \widetilde{B}(t) \simeq \left(1 - \frac{\epsilon}{4}\right) \frac{\lambda}{3} \tag{C13}$$

so the first equality in Eq. (C12) allows us to attain the explicit expression

$$\int_{2}^{2+\epsilon} dt \, tB(t) \simeq -\frac{\lambda \epsilon}{12}.$$
(C14)

Similarly, we use Eqs. (40) and (C11) to evaluate part of the other integral in Eq. (C10):

$$\int_{2}^{2+\epsilon} dt \, t^{3}B(t) = -\frac{4\lambda}{3} + \int_{2}^{2+\epsilon} dt \, t^{3}\widetilde{B}(t)$$
$$= \int_{2}^{2+\epsilon} dt (t-2)t^{2}\widetilde{B}(t) \simeq \frac{\lambda\epsilon}{3}.$$
(C15)

We note that both integrals in Eqs. (C14) and (C15) are $O(\epsilon)$ because the integral in Eq. (C11) is independent of ϵ owing to the singular part of B(x). If B(x) had been completely regular, the integrals in Eqs. (C14) and (C15) would have been $O(\epsilon^2)$.

We next consider the remaining two integrals on the interval $[2 + \epsilon, \infty)$. We start by splitting Eq. (32) into two parts since $2 + \delta$ demarcates two different regimes,

$$\int_{2+\epsilon}^{2+\delta} dt \, t^2 B(t) + \int_{2+\delta}^{\infty} dt \, t^2 B(t) = 0.$$
 (C16)

Using this equation and the approximation $B(t) \simeq -2\xi e^{-\mu(t-2)}/t$, we may simplify the two integrals, ultimately omitting $O(\delta)$ terms,

$$\begin{split} \int_{2+\epsilon}^{\infty} dt \, tB(t) &= \int_{2+\epsilon}^{2+\delta} dt \, tB(t) + \int_{2+\delta}^{\infty} dt \, tB(t) \\ &\simeq \frac{1}{2} \left(1 - \frac{\delta}{2} \right) \int_{2+\epsilon}^{2+\delta} dt \, t^2 B(t) + \int_{2+\delta}^{\infty} dt \, tB(t) \\ &= \frac{\delta}{4} \int_{2+\delta}^{\infty} dt \, t^2 B(t) - \frac{1}{2} \int_{2+\delta}^{\infty} dt \, t(t-2) B(t) \\ &\simeq \frac{\xi}{\mu^2} e^{-\mu\delta}, \end{split}$$
(C17)

$$\overset{\infty}{=} dt \, t^3 B(t) = \int_{2+\epsilon}^{2+\delta} dt \, t^3 B(t) + \int_{2+\delta}^{\infty} dt \, t^3 B(t)$$

$$\approx (2+\delta) \int_{2+\epsilon}^{2+\delta} dt \, t^2 B(t) + \int_{2+\delta}^{\infty} dt \, t^3 B(t)$$

$$= -\delta \int_{2+\delta}^{\infty} dt \, t^2 B(t) + \int_{2+\delta}^{\infty} dt \, t^2 (t-2) B(t)$$

$$\approx -4 \frac{\xi}{\mu^2} e^{-\mu\delta}.$$
(C18)

We remark that both expressions in Eqs. (C17) and (C18) are $O(\mu^{-2})$ because B(t) is regular for $t \ge 2 + \epsilon$. We then combine Eqs. (C14) and (C17), and Eqs. (C15) and (C18),

$$\int_{2}^{\infty} dt \, tB(t) \simeq -\frac{\lambda \epsilon}{12} + \frac{\xi}{\mu^2} e^{-\mu \delta} \simeq -\frac{1}{4} \int_{2}^{\infty} ds \, s^3 B(s).$$
(C19)

Finally, using Eqs. (C1), (C10), and (C19), we arrive at an approximation for the correction to the free energy,

$$\Delta = \frac{9}{4} \eta^2 Y \simeq \frac{9}{2} \eta^2 \left(G + H - 6 + \frac{\lambda}{6} \right) \left[\frac{\xi}{\mu^2} e^{\mu\delta} - \frac{\lambda \epsilon}{12} \right]^2.$$
(C20)

Despite the variety of approximations used, this expression still retains its "definite" character (it turns out to be negative in the numerical calculations below). However, the numerical coefficients within the last quadratic factor are not exact. Furthermore, the status of the present theory differs from that of the Weeks-Chandler-Anderson theory.³⁰ In the latter, Δ is of fourth order in the perturbation whereas it is basically quadratic here for the reason stated below Eq. (C15).

To estimate the importance of this correction, we first calculate the osmotic pressure resulting from the neglect of second- and higher-order terms in the functional expansion (29). This amounts to determining τ from Eqs. (36), (50), and (53) and then computing the osmotic pressure from Ref. 19,

TABLE IV. The osmotic pressure from Eq. (C21) and its correction from Eq. (C23) as a function of the ionic strength *I* and the packing fraction η .

η		0.15M	0.2 <i>M</i>	0.25M	0.3 <i>M</i>	0.45 <i>M</i>
0.05	П	1.143	1.033	0.949	0.889	0.763
	$\overline{\rho k_B T}$					
	-2Δ	0.004	0.001	0.0004	0.0001	$0.000\ 008$
0.1	П	1.290	1.074	0.915	0.805	0.575
	$\overline{\rho k_B T}$					
	-2Δ	0.019	0.006	0.002	0.0005	0.000 02
0.15	П	1.437	1.123	0.898	0.749	0.448
	$\overline{\rho k_B T}$					
	-2Δ	0.044	0.014	0.004	0.001	0.000 02
0.2	П	1.583	1.183	0.904	0.721	0.375
	$\overline{\rho k_B T}$					
	-2Δ	0.085	0.026	0.008	0.003	0.000 007
0.3	П	1.866	1.361	0.988	0.753	0.340
	$\overline{\rho k_B T}$					
	-2Δ	0.228	0.068	0.022	0.008	0.000 02
0.4	П	2.17	1.659	1.231	0.960	0.470
	$\overline{\rho k_B T}$					
	-2Δ	0.488	0.143	0.046	0.016	0.000 1

$$\frac{\Pi}{\rho k_B T} = \frac{1 + \eta + \eta^2 - \lambda \eta (1 - \eta) \left(1 + \frac{1}{2} \eta\right) + \lambda^3 \eta^2 (1 - \eta)^{3/36}}{(1 - \eta)^3}.$$
(C21)

Then, we evaluate the correction to the osmotic pressure due to the second-order term in Eq. (29). The osmotic pressure is related to the free energy by

$$\frac{\Pi}{\rho k_B T} = -\eta \frac{\partial (\rho^{-1} \mathcal{A})}{\partial \eta}.$$
 (C22)

Because Y depends only weakly on η , we approximate the correction to the osmotic pressure by

$$-\eta \frac{\partial \Delta}{\partial \eta} \simeq -2\Delta. \tag{C23}$$

We have compiled the pressure and its correction in Table IV for the same sets of parameters as in Table I (omitting the trivial case where $\eta = 0$).

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