

REVIEW ARTICLE

Application of native agarose gel electrophoresis of serum proteins in veterinary diagnostics

Bartosz Jania^{1,2}, Katarzyna Andraszek¹

¹Department of Animal Genetics and Horse Breeding, Institute of Bioengineering and Animal Breeding, Siedlee University of Natural Sciences and Humanities, 08-110 Siedlee, Poland

²Veterinary Diagnostic Laboratory LAB-WET, 02-661 Warszawa, Poland bartosz.jania@uph.edu.pl

Received: May 30, 2016 Accepted: November 23, 2016

Abstract

Electrophoretic techniques, used to separate mixtures of electrically charged particles, are widely used in science. One of these techniques, native protein electrophoresis in an agarose gel, is applied in human and veterinary medicine. Changes in the proportions of individual protein fractions correspond to significant changes in the physiology of the body. Although the pattern obtained by electrophoretic separation rarely indicates a specific disease, it provides valuable information for the differential diagnosis. Decades of research on the types of patterns obtained in the case of particular diseases have led to the accumulation of substantial knowledge. The paper presents the available information on this topic. Serum protein electrophoresis is recommended in cases of increased levels of total protein in order to reveal the nature of the process. The basic information which can be obtained from electrophoretic separation includes the immune status of the organism. Both increased antigenic stimulation and immunodeficiency are clearly visible in electropherograms. Moreover, the level of heterogeneity of the corresponding protein fractions can help to distinguish between infectious diseases and cancer – multiple myeloma – the latter producing a homogeneous immunoglobulin fraction. Analysis of other protein fractions helps to detect or confirm an ongoing inflammatory process and provides information regarding liver function. Even when the concentration of total protein is within the reference range, this analysis can be recommended as a basic laboratory test.

Keywords: native electrophoresis, agarose gel, serum proteins, diagnostic utility.

Introduction

Electrophoresis is an analytical technique based on the motion of electrically charged particles in a solution under the influence of an electric field. In clinical chemistry, electrophoretic techniques are most often used to separate serum proteins. A serum sample is placed on a medium which allows molecules to move and conduct electricity. Proteins and other electrically charged particles move in the medium. The speed of their movement depends on the characteristics of the protein undergoing separation, *i.e.* its electrical charge, size, and shape, as well as on the strength of the electric field, type of medium, and temperature. As a result, different proteins migrate at different speeds (45).

Serum is the body fluid most frequently used for electrophoretic analysis, but body cavity fluids, urine, and cerebrospinal fluid are also used in diagnostics (14, 17, 49). In the case of the last two, however, the sample

must first be concentrated, as the amount of protein they contain is often insufficient to ensure that fractions will be detected with the necessary sensitivity after separation. This means that after electrophoresis the protein concentration in individual fractions will be too low to determine.

Protein electrophoresis techniques have been known since the 1930s (18). In human diagnostics, characteristic electrophoresis patterns have been described for numerous cases, including acute and chronic inflammation and malignant tumours (16). Protein electrophoresis has been widely used as a diagnostic test in human and veterinary medicine for over 40 years (7). The last 20 years have seen an increase in the application of serum protein electrophoresis as a diagnostic test in veterinary patients (6).

Electrophoretic techniques can be used to separate various kinds of macromolecules, including nucleic

acids (DNA or RNA), proteins, lipids, enzymes, and carbohydrates (6, 18). Depending on the medium in which the mixture is placed for separation, several types of electrophoresis are distinguished: agarose, polyacrylamide, or cellulose acetate gels and capillary electrophoresis. Agarose gel is the most frequently used medium. The latest method, however, ensuring the best separation of individual groups of proteins, is capillary electrophoresis (6, 31, 45).

Native protein electrophoresis is performed under non-denaturing conditions. It enables analysis of protein complexes which would decompose under denaturing conditions. The buffer for electrophoresis and buffer dissolving proteins contain no denaturing substances. The serum sample is untreated, apart from dilution in some cases. This type of method is in opposition to electrophoresis in denaturing conditions. In this case, the serum is treated with a denaturing agent, such as sodium dodecyl sulphate (SDS), urea, or guanidine hydrochloride, resulting in the denaturation of proteins, which leads to the destruction of their secondary and tertiary structure. Electrophoretic mobility of proteins in such a mixture depends exclusively on their molecular weight and is in inverse proportion to it.

Following separation of the sample, protein fractions are identified and their quantities are determined. For this purpose, the sample is stained to reveal characteristic bands whose width and intensity of colour provide information about the amount of protein in a given fraction (49). This is considerably facilitated by computer analysis of the image (16). The result obtained is the percentage share of each fraction in the sample and the output is a characteristic graph enabling visual analysis of the result. Over 200 proteins have been identified in different fractions following electrophoretic separation (7).

Laboratory evaluation of plasma and serum proteins is one of the basic tests used in animal haematology and biochemistry. Changes in the protein profile commonly occur as secondary symptoms in numerous diseases, and may be the primary symptom of certain conditions. Determination of the concentration of serum proteins often provides vital information which can be used to reduce the list of diseases considered, and in some cases may reveal a specific disease (14, 45).

Many factors may influence the concentration of proteins in serum. For this reason, serum protein electrophoresis is particularly advisable in patients with non-specific clinical symptoms, such as depression, fever, weight loss, diarrhoea, abdominal pain, or polyuria. The albumin to globulin (A/G) ratio is particularly important in clinical pathology, as it enables systematic classification of the electrophoretic profile and identification of dysproteinaemia.

Although a final diagnosis of a disease is rarely based exclusively on electrophoresis of proteins, it is an excellent method for detecting acute and chronic inflammation and a stimulated humoral immune response. In veterinary medicine it plays an important auxiliary role in the diagnosis of diseases such as feline infectious peritonitis (FIP), ehrlichiosis, multiple myeloma (7), and other disorders in the protein profile (34).

The authors of the study have observed a growing interest in determining the concentration of individual protein fractions in the blood serum of animals. Therefore there is also an increasing need for studies enabling interpretation of the results obtained. Although the result of electrophoresis rarely indicates a specific disease entity, it is a highly useful tool in differential diagnosis. The aim of the article was to associate abnormal electropherograms with the diseases accompanying them.

Analysis of electropherogram patterns – typical electropherogram

A typical electropherogram is presented in Fig.1.

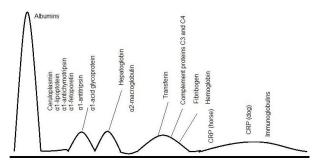


Fig. 1. A typical electropherogram showing proteins present in their respective fractions

During separation the original protein mixture is usually divided into five basic fractions: albumins, α_1 -globulins, α_2 -globulins, β -globulins, and γ -globulins (7). In some cases the β -fraction is divided into β_1 and β_2 , and sometimes the γ -fraction is divided into γ_1 and γ_2 (6, 31). Each of the globulin fractions consists of acute-phase proteins or antibodies, and sometimes both (7).

The α -globulin fraction contains such proteins as α_1 -fetoprotein, α_1 -acid glycoprotein, α_1 -antitrypsin (protease inhibitor), α_1 -antichymotrypsin (protease inhibitor), α_1 -lipoprotein (HDL, which transports lipids), ceruloplasmin (transports copper), haptoglobin (binds haemoglobin), α_2 -macroglobulin (protease inhibitor), and serum amyloid A (6, 42, 45).

The β -globulin fraction contains β_2 -lipoprotein (LDL, which transports fats), transferrin (transports iron), ferritin (stores iron), components of the complement system (C3 and C4), and fibrinogen (in plasma, but not in serum) (6, 18, 40, 42, 45). Class IgM and IgA immunoglobulins may migrate in the β -region as well. Free haemoglobin also migrates in the

β-fraction if it is present in the sample (*e.g.* in the case of intravascular haemolysis or *in vitro*, when haemoglobin is released into the serum before being separated from blood cells) (31).

The γ -fraction consists of various classes of immunoglobulins. Antibodies are produced by plasmatic cells in response to antigen stimulation. In dogs, C-reactive protein (CRP) migrates in this fraction as well. In horses it is found in the region between β - and γ -globulins (23, 43, 45, 51).

Both increased and decreased total protein frequently concentrations are observed during laboratory tests. They may be due to changes in the concentration of albumins, globulins, or both fractions, and their interpretation requires knowledge of which fractions of the serum – a mixture of proteins – have an concentration. An alteration concentration of albumins or globulins does not always differences in detectable total cause concentration. Therefore, concentrations of total protein and that of albumins and globulins should be evaluated. Causes of changes in the concentration of total protein, albumins, and globulins are presented below.

Decreased total protein concentration may result from a reduced quantity of albumins, globulins or both proteins. Concurrence of hypoalbuminaemia and hypoglobulinaemia may be the result of water intoxication (during fluid therapy or water intake by the animal) or the loss of protein fractions. The latter cause is much more common and occurs in several cases:

- 1. Loss of blood. All types of proteins are lost. The remaining blood, in order to maintain a suitable volume, is diluted with extracellular fluid, which enters the bloodstream. Hypoproteinaemia resulting from blood loss is caused by external or internal haemorrhaging, and may also be induced by parasites feeding on blood (external or internal) (45).
- 2. Enteropathy with protein loss. This may be the result of numerous generalised pathological changes, including intestinal inflammation, infectious diseases, neoplasia, prolonged starvation, cachexia, or bleeding into the gastrointestinal tract (29, 38).
- 3. Severe exudative skin disease or burns lead to protein loss due to increased vascular permeability. However, a concomitant immune response may increase globulin concentration (27).
- 4. Exudative disease resulting in the accumulation of body fluids with a high protein concentration, which leads to a decrease in the serum concentration of albumins and globulins (42).

Selective hypo-hyper albuminaemia or globulinaemia

Decreased albumin concentration unaccompanied by decreased globulin concentration may be due either to reduced production or increased loss of this protein fraction. If the globulin concentration increases at the same time, the total protein concentration may remain within the reference range. Reduced albumin concentration may occur in the following cases:

- 1. Liver damage. Albumins are produced in the liver. The reserve capacity of the liver is large enough that only damage at a level of 60%-80% induces a perceptible reduction in the production of this group of proteins.
- 2. Starvation or cachexia. Severe malnutrition or starvation decreases protein production due to reduced availability of essential amino acids. Under conditions of cachexia associated with cancer or chronic infections, a negative protein balance causes increased protein catabolism in the body (45).
- 3. Gastrointestinal parasites. These may cause hypoalbuminaemia in at least two ways. The organisms compete with the host for nutrients, and the amount of available amino acids is insufficient for albumin production. In addition, parasites may feed on the host's blood, leading to a reduction in the concentration of albumins and globulins (25). However, parasitic infections of the gastrointestinal tract are rarely serious enough to induce hypoalbuminaemia (45).
- 4. Malabsorption or digestive disorders. Animals with this condition often have a history of diarrhoea or loose stools.
- 5. Inflammation. Albumins are negative acutephase proteins. If there is a simultaneous increase in globulin concentration, the total protein concentration may remain within the reference range.
- 6. Kidney disease. Albumins, as smaller molecules with a more negative charge than globulins, more easily penetrate a damaged glomerular membrane (20).

Selective hypoglobulinaemia without hypoalbuminaemia is usually due to reduced β - or γ -globulins. This is most often the result of a reduced concentration of immunoglobulins. It may occur in the following cases:

- 1. Failure of passive absorption of immunoglobulins from the colostrum. Most mammals are born with a very low concentration of immunoglobulins and take them up from milk during the postnatal period. Failure of this transfer is well documented in domesticated animals (8, 47, 48).
- 2. Innate or acquired immune deficiency associated with B lymphocytes and plasma cells. This leads to decreased concentrations of γ -globulins and sometimes total globulins. It has been described in foals, calves, and puppies (8, 42).

An increased total protein concentration may result from an elevated concentration of albumins, globulins, or both. Changes in these fractions, however, cannot always be detected in the form of increased total protein concentration. In clinical practice, electrophoresis is performed on the proteins of sera in which the globulin concentration is high, but the cause is unknown — inflammation or chronic antigen stimulation (45).

Dehydration is the main cause of hyperalbuminaemia. Water loss from the blood plasma causes a corresponding increase in the concentration of albumins and globulins. The albumin to globulin ratio is not disturbed because both fractions undergo equal concentration. The haematocrit increases as well, provided anaemia is not present at the same time.

The significance of hyperglobulinaemia depends on the magnitude of increase and type of globulins, which can be determined by protein electrophoresis.

An increase in the concentration of α - or β -globulins may be due to acute or chronic inflammation. In the case of acute inflammation, an increase in α - and β -globulins is usually mild. Acutephase proteins are located in two protein fractions, with the exception of fibrinogen, which is lacking in serum following its removal in the clotting process. The group of acute-phase proteins is numerous and usually the concentration of many of them must be elevated in order to induce hyperglobulinaemia and an increase in the total protein concentration (42). Because albumins are negative acute-phase proteins, their production decreases during inflammation, even by up to 30% (36).

Increased concentration of γ-globulins

The γ -globulin fraction consists of different classes of immunoglobulins. Gammopathy may be mono- or polyclonal, which can be differentiated by observing the electropherogram. Polyclonal gammopathies are characterised by a wide peak, wider than the albumin peak. They contain a heterogeneous immunoglobulin population produced by B lymphocytes, plasma cells, or both. Each of these populations produces its own immunoglobulin specific for the antigen epitope (Fig. 2, Table 1).

Monoclonal gammopathies are characterised by a narrow peak and contain a homogeneous type of antibodies, produced by a single line of B lymphocytes or plasma cells (Fig. 3, Table 2).

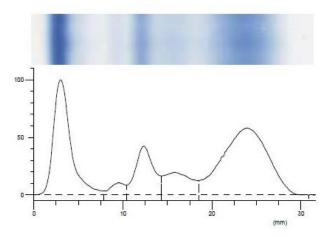


Fig. 2. Electropherogram of cat serum with pronounced polyclonal gammopathy

Table 1. Analysis of electropherogram of cat serum with pronounced polyclonal gammopathy

Fraction	Percentage (%)	Concentration (g/l)
Albumins	29.66	21.95 L
α1	2.6	1.92 L
α2	13.13	9.72 H
β	9.1	6.73
γ	45.52	33.68 H
Total		74.0
A/G ratio	0.42	

 $H-High-above\ reference\ range$

L – Low – below reference range

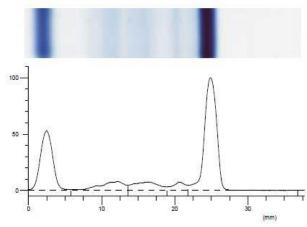


Fig. 3. Electropherogram of cat serum with pronounced monoclonal gammopathy

Table 2. Analysis of electropherogram of cat serum with pronounced monoclonal gammopathy

Fraction	Percentage (%)	Concentration (g/l)
Albumins	27.61	36.99 H
α	8.49	11.37
β1	8.22	11.01 H
β2	4.09	5.48 H
γ	51.6	69.14 H
Total		134.0
A/G ratio	0.38	

H – High – above reference range

Monoclonal peaks may also occur in other fractions. Fig. 4 and Table 3 show an example of the occurrence of such a peak in the β -region.

Another interesting case is the overlap of monoclonal and polyclonal gammopathy, illustrated in Fig. 5 and Table 4. Occasionally, monoclonal gammopathy may be completely obscured by polyclonal gammopathy, making the former very difficult to detect without more advanced electrophoretic techniques.

Sometimes two sharp peaks can be observed. This is known as biclonal gammopathy. The gammopathy occurs when a single line of tumour cells produces molecules which migrate separately. It may be caused by the formation of immunoglobulin dimers, incomplete molecules (light chains), or antibody class switching (39, 50). Sometimes two lines of B lymphocytes or plasma cells multiply, resulting in the production of two homogenous types of antibodies (37). Monoclonal gammopathy may be concealed by

concurrent polyclonal gammopathy. In these cases visual evaluation of the electropherogram may suggest the existence of such a peak. To confirm this, more sensitive and specific methods may be necessary (e.g. immunoelectrophoresis or immunofixation) (2, 26).

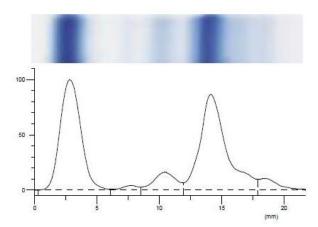


Fig. 4. Electrophoresis of dog serum with a monoclonal peak in the β -region

Table 3. Analysis of electropherogram of dog serum with a monoclonal peak in the β -region

	, .	
Fraction	Percentage (%)	Concentration (g/l)
Albumins	41.48	33.6
α1	1.35	1.1 L
α2	7.21	5.84
β	45.72	37.03 H
γ	4.24	3.43 L
Total		81.0
A/G ratio	0.71	

H – High – above reference range

L – Low – below reference range

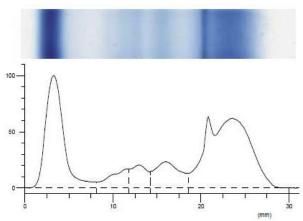


Fig. 5. Example of an electropherogram of cat serum with overlapping monoclonal and polyclonal peaks

Table 4. Analysis of electropherogram of cat serum with overlapping monoclonal and polyclonal peaks

Fraction	Percentage (%)	Concentration (g/l)
Albumins	30.87	35.19
α1	5.35	6.1 H
α2	5.61	6.4 H
β	10.11	11.52 H
γ	48.06	54.79 H
Total		114.0
A/G ratio	0.45	

H - High - above reference range

The conditions usually responsible for polyclonal gammopathy include the following:

- 1. Chronic inflammation or antigen stimulation. During chronic inflammation, production immunoglobulins, proteins of the complement system, acute-phase proteins may increase. Immunoglobulins usually migrate in the γ -globulin region, and some (together with proteins of the complement system) migrate in the β-globulin region. The increase in production of these proteins varies in magnitude but in certain cases it can be considerable (17). Gammopathies underlying chronic inflammation are usually polyclonal (as in the case of canine ehrlichiosis and feline infectious peritonitis). However, there have been some reports of monoclonal gammopathies in dogs with chronic ehrlichiosis, chronic pyoderma, or plasmacytic enteritis (3, 4, 15, 21, 30).
- 2. Liver disease. Chronic liver disease may lead to increased globulin production, which has been well described in horses but occurs in other species as well (5). These globulins are often antibodies which migrate in the β and γ -regions, sometimes blurring the boundaries between them; this is known as β - γ bridging. At the same time, albumin production often decreases as a result of reduced synthesis in the liver.
- 3. Lymphoma and lymphocytic leukaemia. An increase occurs in the production of heterogeneous immunoglobulins by numerous lines of proliferating cancerous lymphoid cells. Although monoclonal gammopathies are common in these diseases, secondary infections may stimulate the production of heterogeneous immunoglobulins (24).

Monoclonal gammopathies occur in the following cases:

- 1. Multiple myeloma. This is usually the result of proliferation of a single line of plasma cells producing a homogeneous protein called paraprotein or M protein. These proteins are generally situated in the γ or β -globulin region and rarely in the α -region (19, 35).
- 2. Extramedullary plasmacytoma proliferation of plasma cells outside of the bone marrow. These are usually single, benign skin lesions, occurring more often in dogs than in cats. Plasmacytomas in the gastrointestinal tract have a greater potential to become malignant. This type of lesion in cats has been known to lead to multiple myeloma (32).
- 3. Lymphoma and lymphocytic leukaemia. In this case, monoclonal gammopathy occurs with a frequency from 5% to even 50% (in the case of chronic lymphocytic leukaemia) (28, 41, 44).

Less often, the following diseases may be associated with monoclonal gammopathy:

a. Canine ehrlichiosis. Although polyclonal gammopathy is more common in such cases, monoclonal peaks have been observed as well. Sometimes, as the disease persists, the electropherogram image migrates towards the latter.

Monoclonal peaks disappear after ehrlichiosis treatment is introduced (3).

- b. Chronic pyoderma. A case has been described of monoclonal gammopathy that resolved following treatment (4).
- c. Plasmacytic enteritis. A case has been described in a dog with monoclonal gammopathy which subsided following treatment and the resolution of inflammation (10).
- d. Visceral leishmaniasis. Most dogs with this disease exhibit polyclonal gammopathy. In a few cases one clone of plasma cells proliferated, showing monoclonal gammopathy of IgG antibodies (1, 13).

Finally, monoclonal gammopathy may have an undetermined cause. These animals exhibit no clinical symptoms and may produce a monoclonal protein for a prolonged period (9, 33).

Apparently pathological cases

In some cases, results which appear to be pathological in fact represent a physiological state. This occurs in the following cases:

- 1. Proteins not present in pure serum samples. If plasma is used for analysis, we may obtain a peak in the β_2 -region originating in fibrinogen (which in the form of fibrin is removed from the blood during the clotting process) (11, 40).
- 2. A high concentration of haemoglobin (released from blood cells during *in vitro* or intravascular haemolysis) or triglycerides may cause an increase in the percentage share of the peak in the β_2 and α_2 -regions respectively (31).
- 3. In young mammals, before they have received colostrum, the amount of protein in the γ -region is below the reference ranges. Thus in very young animals this may be within the normal physiological range, but in adult individuals it may suggest immune deficiencies (22).
- 4. Variation between breeds within a species. In comparison with other breeds of dog, greyhounds exhibit a lower total protein concentration in the serum, due to the lower concentrations of α and β -globulins (12).
- 5. The final, but very important factors that must be taken into account are the duration and conditions of storage of the serum before analysis. If the analysis cannot be performed immediately, it is sufficient to refrigerate the serum at 4°C for three to five days. If a longer delay is anticipated the serum should be frozen. Repeated freezing should be avoided (46, author's experience unpublished data). Fig. 6 and Table 5 show an electropherogram of serum stored for several days in a refrigerator and at room temperature and then frozen. Note the merging of the bands in the α and β -regions.

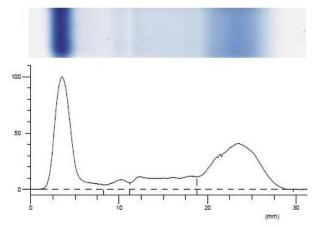


Fig. 6. An example of electrophoresis of improperly stored serum

Table 5. Analysis of electropherogram of improperly stored serum

Fraction	Percentage (%)	Concentration (g/l)
Albumins	39.46	33.93
α	3.51	3.02 L
β	14.18	12.2 H
γ	42.85	36.85 H
Total		86.0
A/G ratio	0.65	

H - High - above reference range

L – Low – below reference range

Conclusions

Native electrophoresis of serum proteins is a useful analysis for determining the nature of increased total protein concentration. It is performed when there is a suspicion of multiple myeloma. Interpretation of the result requires some experience. Apart from knowledge of which species we are investigating, it is important to take into account the means of storage, the quality of the serum (e.g. lipaemic or with visible haemolysis), and the age and breed of the animal. Most importantly, as with every laboratory analysis, interpretation takes place in the context of the clinical picture. Also of importance is the development of more advanced techniques (such as immunoelectrophoresis or immunofixation) enabling visualisation of a monoclonal peak covered by a polyclonal peak. Even after decades of use, native electrophoresis of serum proteins is still a highly valuable diagnostic tool.

Conflict of Interests Statement: The authors declare that there is no conflict of interests regarding the publication of this article.

References

 Antognoni M.T., Birettoni F., Miglio A., Lalli P., Porciello F., Mangili Pecci V.: Monoclonal gammopathy associated with multiple myeloma and visceral leishmaniasis in the dog: a comparison of two cases. Vet Res Commun 2010, 34, 97–101.

- Attaelmannan M., Levinson S.S.: Understanding and identifying monoclonal gammopathies. Clin Chem 2000, 46, 1230–1238.
- Breitschwerdt E.B., Woody B.J., Zerbe C.A., De Buysscher E.V., Barta O.: Monoclonal gammopathy associated with naturally occurring canine ehrlichiosis. J Vet Intern Med 1987, 1, 2–9.
- Burkhard M.J., Meyer D.J., Rosychuk R.A., O'Neil S.P., Schultheiss P.C.: Monoclonal gammopathy in a dog with chronic pyoderma. J Vet Intern Med 1995, 9, 357–360.
- Camus M.S., Krimer P.M., Leroy B.E., Almy F.S.: Evaluation of the positive predictive value of serum protein electrophoresis beta-gamma bridging for hepatic disease in three domestic animal species. Vet Pathol 2010, 47, 1064–1070.
- Cerón J.J., Caldin M., Martinez-Subiela S.: Electrophoresis and acute phase protein measurement. In: *Veterinary Hematology*, edited by D.J. Weiss, K.J. Wardrop, Blackwell Publishing Ltd, Ames, 2010, pp. 1157–1161.
- Cray C., Zaias J., Altman N.H.: Acute phase response in animals: a review. Comp Med 2009, 59, 517–523.
- Crisman M.V., Scarratt W.K.: Immunodeficiency disorders in horses. Vet Clin North Am Equine Pract 2008, 24, 299–310.
- Dewhirst M.W., Stamp G.L., Hurvitz A.I.: Idiopathic monoclonal (IgA) gammopathy in a dog. J Am Vet Med Assoc 1977, 170, 1313–1316.
- Diehl K.J., Lappin M.R., Jones R.L., Cayatte S.: Monoclonal gammopathy in a dog with plasmacytic gastroenterocolitis. J Am Vet Med Assoc 1992, 201, 1233–1236.
- Errico G., Giordano A., Paltrinieri S.: Diagnostic accuracy of electrophoretic analysis of native or defribrinated plasma using serum as a reference sample. Vet Clin Pathol 2012, 41, 529–540.
- Fayos M., Couto C.G., Iazbik M.C., Wellman M.L.: Serum protein electrophoresis in retired racing Greyhounds. Vet Clin Pathol 2005, 34, 397–400.
- Font A., Closa J.M., Mascort J.: Monoclonal gammopathy in a dog with visceral leishmaniasis. J Vet Intern Med 1994, 8, 233–235.
- Gama F.G., Santana A.E., Filho E.C., Nogueira C.A.: Agarose gel electrophoresis of cerebrospinal fluid proteins of dogs after sample concentration using a membrane microconcentrator technique. Vet Clin Pathol 2007, 36, 85–88.
- Geigy C., Riond B., Bley C.R., Grest P., Kircher P., Lutz H.: Multiple myeloma in a dog with multiple concurrent infectious diseases and persistent polyclonal gammopathy. Vet Clin Pathol 2013, 42, 47–54.
- 16. Gerou-Ferriani M., McBrearty A.R., Burchmore R.J., Jayawardena K.G., Eckersall P.D., Morris J.S.: Agarose gel serum protein electrophoresis in cats with and without lymphoma and preliminary results of tandem mass fingerprinting analysis. Vet Clin Pathol 2011, 40, 159–173.
- Giori L., Giordano A., Giudice C., Grieco V., Paltrinieri S.: Performances of different diagnostic tests for feline infectious peritonitis in challenging clinical cases. J Small Anim Pract 2011, 52, 152–157.
- Giot J.F.: Agarose gel electrophoresis Applications in clinical chemistry. JMB 2010, 29, 9–14.
- Giraudel J.M., Pagès J.P., Guelfi J.F.: Monoclonal gammopathies in the dog: a retrospective study of 18 cases (1986-1999) and literature review. J Am Anim Hosp Assoc 2002. 38, 135–147.
- Grauer G.F.: Canine glomerulonephritis: new thoughts on proteinuria and treatment. J Small Anim Pract 2005, 46, 469–478.
- Harrus S., Waner T., Avidar Y., Bogin E., Peh H., Bark H.: Serum protein alterations in canine ehrlichiosis. Vet Parasitol 1996, 66, 241–249.
- 22. Harvey J.W.: Veterinary Hematology: A Diagnostic Guide and Color Atlas. Elsevier, St. Louis, USA, 2012, pp. 184–185.
- Jasensky A.K., Bondzio A., Murugaiyan J., Siebert U., Roesler U., Kohn B., Einspanier R.: Characterization of the native C-reactive protein (cCRP) and the corresponding liver mRNA in dogs. Biochem Biophys Res Commun 2014, 452, 462–467.

- Kaneko J.J.: Serum proteins and the dysproteinemias. In: Clinical Biochemistry of Domestic Animals, edited by J.J. Kaneko, J.W. Harvey, M.L. Bruss, Elsevier Academic Press, New York, 2008, pp. 177–155.
- Kaymaz A.A., Bakirel U., Gönül R., Tan H.: Serum protein electrophoresis in dogs with intestinal parasites. Turk J Vet Anim Sci 1999, 23, 457–459.
- Keren D.F.: Procedures for the evaluation of monoclonal immunoglobulins. Arch Pathol Lab Med 1999, 123, 126–132.
- Kern M.R., Stockham S.L., Coates J.R.: Analysis of serum protein concentrations after severe thermal injury in a dog. Vet Clin Pathol 1992, 21, 19–22.
- Leifer C.E., Matus R.E.: Chronic lymphocytic leukemia in the dog: 22 cases (1974–1984). J Am Vet Med Assoc 1986, 189, 214–217.
- Littman M.P., Dambach D.M., Vaden S.L., Giger U.: Familial protein-losing enteropathy and protein-losing nephropathy in Soft Coated Wheaten Terriers: 222 cases (1983-1997). J Vet Intern Med 2000, 14, 68–80.
- Lyon K.F.: Feline lymphoplasmacytic stomatitis associated with monoclonal gammopathy and Bence-Jones proteinuria. J Vet Dent 1994, 11, 25–27.
- Martínez-Subiela S., Tecles F., Montes A., Gutiérrez C., Cerón J.J.: Effects of haemolysis, lipaemia, bilirubinaemia and fibrinogen on protein electropherogram of canine samples analysed by capillary zone electrophoresis. Vet J 2002, 164, 261–268.
- 32. Mellor P.J., Haugland S., Smith K.C., Powell R.M., Archer J., Scase T.J., Villiers E.J., McNeil P.E., Nixon C., Knott C., Fournier D., Murphy S., Polton G.A., Belford C., Philbey A.W., Argyle D.J., Herrtage M.E., Day M.J.: Histopathologic, immunohistochemical, and cytologic analysis of feline myelomarelated disorders: further evidence for primary extramedullary development in the cat. Vet Pathol 2008, 45, 159–173.
- Mian M., Franz I., Wasle I., Herold M., Griesmacher A., Prokop W., Cortelazzo S., Gastl G., Willenbacher W., Gunsilius E., Fiegl M.: Idiopathic Bence-Jones proteinuria: a new characterization of an old entity. Ann Hematol 2013, 92, 1263–1270.
- O'Connell T.X., Horita T.J., Kasravi B.: Understanding and interpreting serum protein electrophoresis. Am Fam Physician 2005, 71, 105–112.
- Patel R.T., Caceres A., French A.F., McManus P.M.: Multiple myeloma in 16 cats: a retrospective study. Vet Clin Pathol 2005, 34, 341–352.
- Petersen H.H., Nielsen J.P., Heegaard P.M.: Application of acute phase protein measurements in veterinary clinical chemistry. Vet Res 2004, 35, 163–187.
- 37. Peterson E.N., Meininger A.C.: Immunoglobulin A and immunoglobulin G biclonal gammopathy in a dog with multiple myeloma. J Am Anim Hosp Assoc 1997, 33, 45–47.
- Peterson P.B., Willard M.D.: Protein-losing enteropathies. Vet Clin North Am Small Anim Pract 2003, 33, 1061–1082.
- Ramaiah S.K., Seguin M.A., Carwile H.F., Raskin R.E.: Biclonal gammopathy associated with immunoglobulin A in a dog with multiple myeloma. Vet Clin Pathol 2002, 31, 83–89.
- Rossi S., Bertazzolo W., Paltrinieri S., Giordano A.: Cellulose acetate electrophoresis of canine plasma after fibrinogen precipitation by ethanol. Vet Clin Pathol 2008, 37, 422–428.
- Seelig D.M., Perry J.A., Avery A.C., Avery P.R.: Monoclonal gammopathy without hyperglobulinemia in 2 dogs with IgA secretory neoplasms. Vet Clin Pathol 2010, 39, 447–453.
- Stockham S.L., Scott M.A.: Fundamentals of Veterinary Clinical Pathology, Wiley-Blackwell, Ames 2008, pp. 369–413.
- Takiguchi M., Fujinaga T., Naiki M., Mizuno S., Otomo K.: Isolation, characterization, and quantitative analysis of C-reactive protein from horses. Am J Vet Res 1990, 51, 1215–1220.
- Thrall M.A.: Lymphoproliferative disorders. Lymphocytic leukemia and plasma cell myeloma. Vet Clin North Am Small Anim Pract 1981, 11, 321–347.

- Thrall M.A., Weiser G., Allison R., Campbell T.W.: Veterinary hematology and clinical chemistry. Wiley-Blackwell, Ames 2012, pp. 461–470.
- 46. Tóthová C., Nagy O., Seidel H., Kovacs G.: The effect of storage on the protein electrophoretic pattern in bovine serum. Iranian J Vet Sci Technol 2010, 2, 77–84.
- 47. Weaver D.M., Tyler J.W., Scott M.A., Wallace L.M., Marion R.S., Holle J.M.: Passive transfer of colostral immunoglobulin G in neonatal llamas and alpacas. Am J Vet Res 2000, 61, 738–741.
- Weaver D.M., Tyler J.W., Van Metre D.C., Hostetler D.E., Barrington G.M.: Passive transfer of colostral immunoglobulins in calves. J Vet Intern Med 2000, 14, 569–577.
- 49. Yalcin A., Cetin M.S.: Electrophoretic separation of urine proteins of healthy dogs and dogs with nephropathy and detection of some urine proteins of dogs using immunoblotting. Rev Med Vet 2004, 155, 104–112.
- Yamada O., Tamura K., Yagihara H., Isotani M., Azakami M., Sawada S., Ono K., Washizu T., Bonkobara M.: Light-chain multiple myeloma in a cat. J Vet Diagn Invest 2007, 19, 443–437.
- Yamamoto S., Tagata K., Nagahata H., Ishikawa Y., Morimatsu M., Naiki M.: Isolation of canine C-reactive protein and characterization of its properties. Vet Immunol Immunopathol 1992, 30, 329–339.