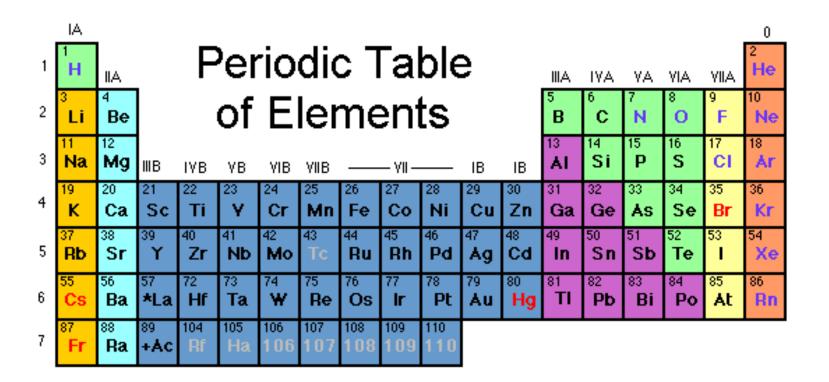
Review of General Chemistry



*Lanthanide Series

+ Actinide Series

				62 Sm	63 Eu	64 Gd	65 Tb	66 Dy	67 Ho	68 Er	69 Tm	70 Yb	71 Lu
90	91	92	93	94	95	96	97	98	99	100	101	102	103
Th	Pa	U	Np	Pu	Am	Cm	Bk	Cf	Es	Fm	Md	No	Lr

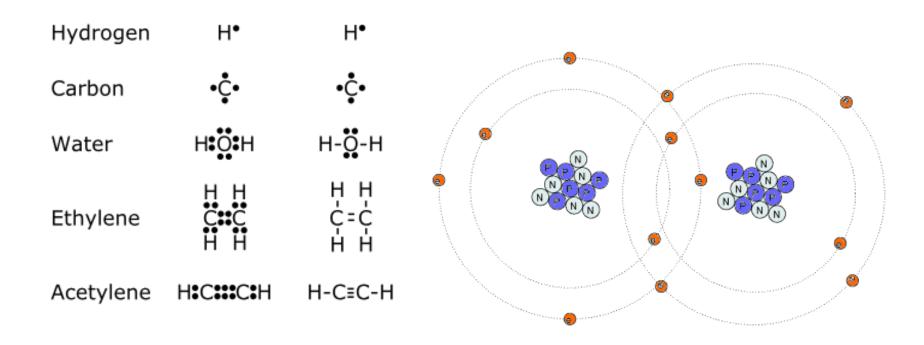
H - gas
Li - solid
Br - liquid
To - synthetic

Non-Metals
Transition Metals
Rare Earth Metals
Halogens

Alkali Metals
Alkali Earth Metals
Other Metals
Inert Elements

Legend - click to find out more...

Chemical bond

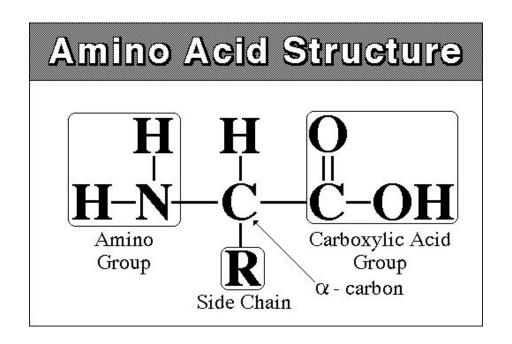


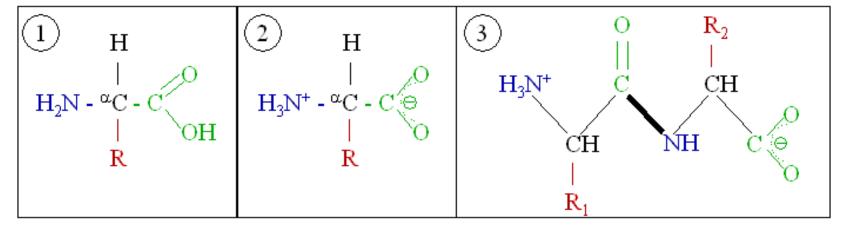
Functional Groups

TABLE 18.1 Functional Groups of Importance in Biochemical Molecules

Functional Group	Structure	Type of Biomolecule
Amino group	-NH ₃ +, -NH ₂	Amino acids and proteins (Sections 18.3, 18.7)
Hydroxyl group	-ОН	Monosaccharides (carbohydrates) and glycerol: a component of triacylglycerols (lipids) (Sections 22.4, 24.2)
Carbonyl group	-c-	Monosaccharides (carbohydrates); in acetyl group (CH ₃ CO) used to transfer carbon atoms during catabolism (Sections 22.4, 21.4, 21.8)
Carboxyl group	о о 	Amino acids, proteins, and fatty acids (lipids) (Sections 18.3, 18.7, 24.2)
Amide group	-c-n-	Links amino acids in proteins; formed by reaction of amino group and carboxyl group (Section 18.7)
Carboxylic acid ester	0 -C-O-R	Triacylglycerols (and other lipids); formed by reaction of carboxyl group and hydroxyl group (Section 24.2)
Phosphates, mono-, di-, tri-		ATP and many metabolism intermediates (Sections 17.8, 21.5, and throughout metabolism sections)
	-ç-o-p-o-p-o-	
Hemiacetal group	−C−OH J OR	Cyclic forms of monosaccharides; formed by a reaction of carbonyl group with hydroxyl group (Sections 16.7, 22.4)
Acetal group	-C-OR OR	Connects monosaccharides in disaccharides and larger carbohydrates; formed by reaction of carbonyl group with hydroxyl group (Sections 16.7, 22.7, 22.9)

Amino Acid





Ç00⁻ H ₃ N-C-H CH ₃	COOTH3N-C-H	Ç00⁻ H ₃ N-Ç-H CH ₂	ÇOO⁻ H ₃ H-C-H H ₃ C-CH	COOT HH-C-H 2HC CH2
Alanine A	H ₃ C CH ₃ Valine V	H ₃ C CH ₃ Leucine L	CH ₂ CH ₃ Isoleucine	CH ₂ Proline P
COO⁻ H ₃ N-C-H CH ₂	С00 ⁻ Н ₃ н-с-н СН ₂	Ç00⁻ H ₃ N-Ç-H CH ₂	соо⁻ н ₃ н-с-н н	COO⁻ H ₃ N-C-H CH ₂ OH
CH ₃ Methionine	Phenylalan	↓↓ <mark>,</mark> ČH H nine Tryptophar W	Glycine G COO ⁻	Serine S COO
ÇOO⁻ H3N-Ç-H HC-OH	Ç00⁻ H ₃ N-Ç-H CH ₂	COO- H3N-C-H	H ₃ N [±] C [±] H CH ₂ CH ₂	H ₃ N⁺Ċ-H CH ₂
ĊН ₃ Threonine T	SH ² Cysteine C	ONH ₂ Asparagine N	ONH ₂ Glutamine Q	OH Tyrosine Y
Ç00⁻ H ₃ H-C-H CH ₂	СОО ⁻ Н ₃ N-С-Н СН ₂	ÇOO⁻ H ₃ N-Ç-H ÇH ₂	Ç00⁻ H ₃ N-Ç-H ÇH ₂	Ç00⁻ H ₃ H-Ç-H CH ₂
o ^C o- Aspartic	CH ₂	CH ₂ CH ₂ CH ₂	СН ₂ СН ₂ NH	HC=C HN NH
Acid D	Acid E	Lysine K	2 ^{HÎN NH₂ Arginine R}	Histidine H

Small

Nucleophilic

Glycine (Gly, G) MW: 57.05

Alanine (Ala, A) MW: 71.09

Serine (Ser, S) MW: 87.08, pK $_a$ ~ 16

Threonine (Thr, T) MW: 101.11, pK_a ~ 16

Cysteine (Cys, C) MW: 103.15, pK a = 8.35

Hydrophobic

Valine (Val, V) MW: 99.14

Leucine (Leu, L) MW: 113.16

Isoleucine (IIe, I) MW: 113.16

Methionine (Met, M) MW: 131.19

Proline (Pro, P) MW: 97.12

Aromatic

Phenylalanine (Phe, F) MW: 147.18

Tyrosine (Tyr, Y) MW: 163.18

Tryptophan (Trp, W) MW: 186.21

Acidic

Aspartic Acid (Asp, D) MW: 115.09, pK _a = 3.9

Glutamic Acid (Glu, E) MW: 129.12, pK a = 4.07

Amide

Asparagine (Asn, N) MW: 114.11

Glutamine (Gln, Q) MW: 128.14

Histidine (His, H) MW: 137.14, pK _a = 6.04

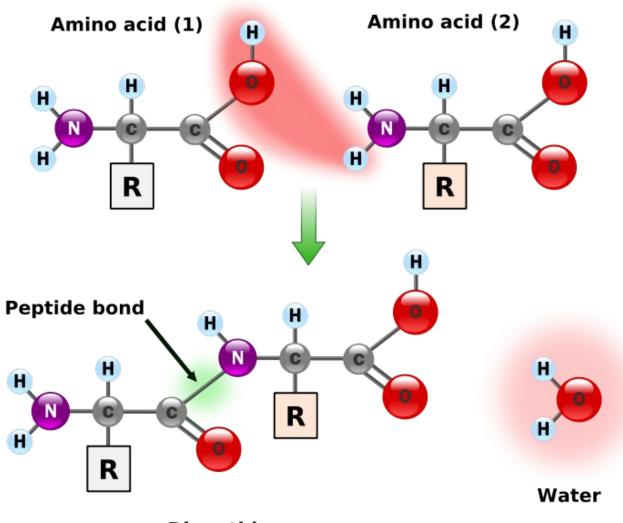
Lysine (Lys, K) MW: 128.17, pK _a = 10.79

Arginine (Arg, R) MW: 156.19, pK _a = 12.48

Protein Structure and Function

- Proteins are polymers of amino acids.
- Each amino acids in a protein contains a amino group, -NH₂, a carboxyl group, -COOH, and an R group, all bonded to the central carbon atom. The R group may be a hydrocarbon or they may contain functional group.
- All amino acids present in a proteins are α -amino acids in which the amino group is bonded to the carbon next to the carboxyl group.
- Two or more amino acids can join together by forming amide bond, which is known as a peptide bond when they occur in proteins.

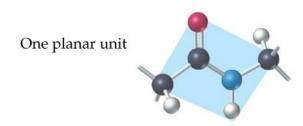
Peptide bond



Dipeptide

Primary Protein Structure

• Primary structure of a proteins is the sequence of amino acids connected by peptide bonds. Along the backbone of the proteins is a chain of alternating peptide bonds and α-carbons and the amino acid side chains are connected to these Planar units along a protein chain



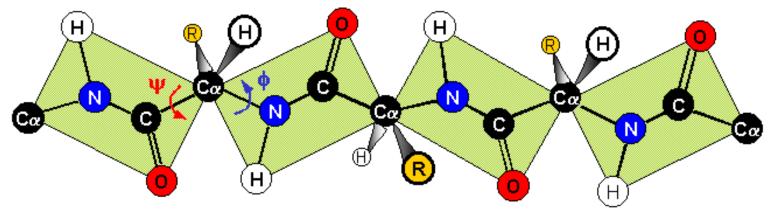
 By convention, peptides and proteins are always written with the amino terminal amino acid (Nterminal) on the left and carboxylterminal amino acid (C-terminal) on the right.

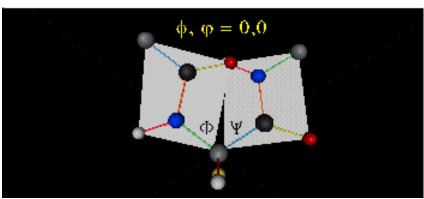
 $N \longrightarrow C$

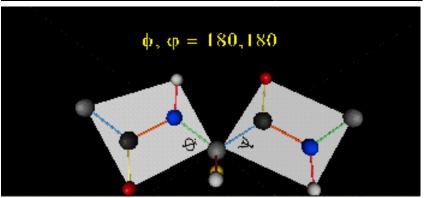
Secondary Protein Structure

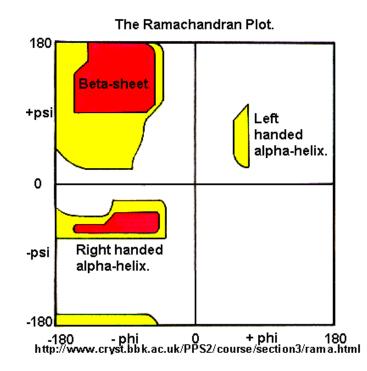
- Secondary structure of a protein is the arrangement of polypeptide backbone of the protein in space. The secondary structure includes two kinds of repeating pattern known as the α -helix and β -sheet.
- Hydrogen bonding between backbone atoms are responsible for both of these secondary structures.

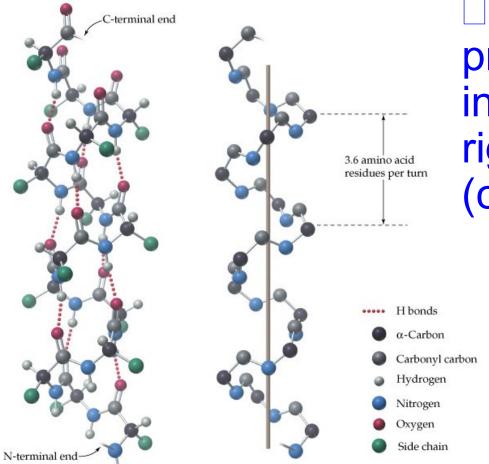
FULLY EXTENDED POLYPEPTIDE CHAIN





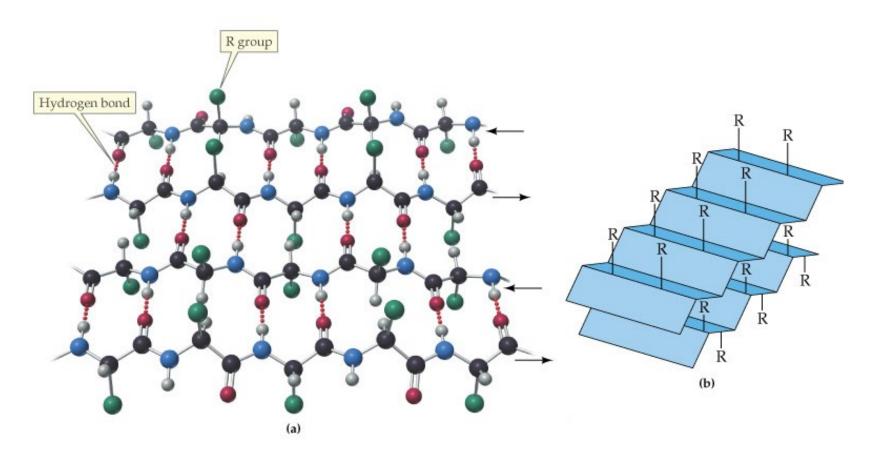






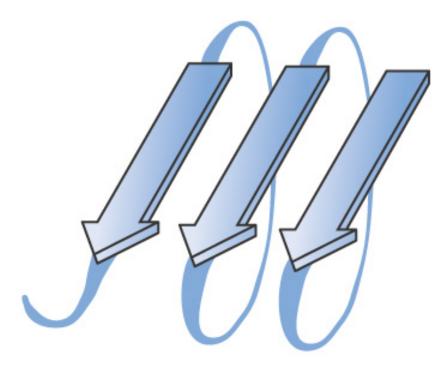
□α-Helix: A single protein chain coiled in a spiral with a right-handed (clockwise) twist.

 \Box β -Sheet: The polypeptide chain is held in place by hydrogen bonds between pairs of peptide units along neighboring backbone segments.









β sheet

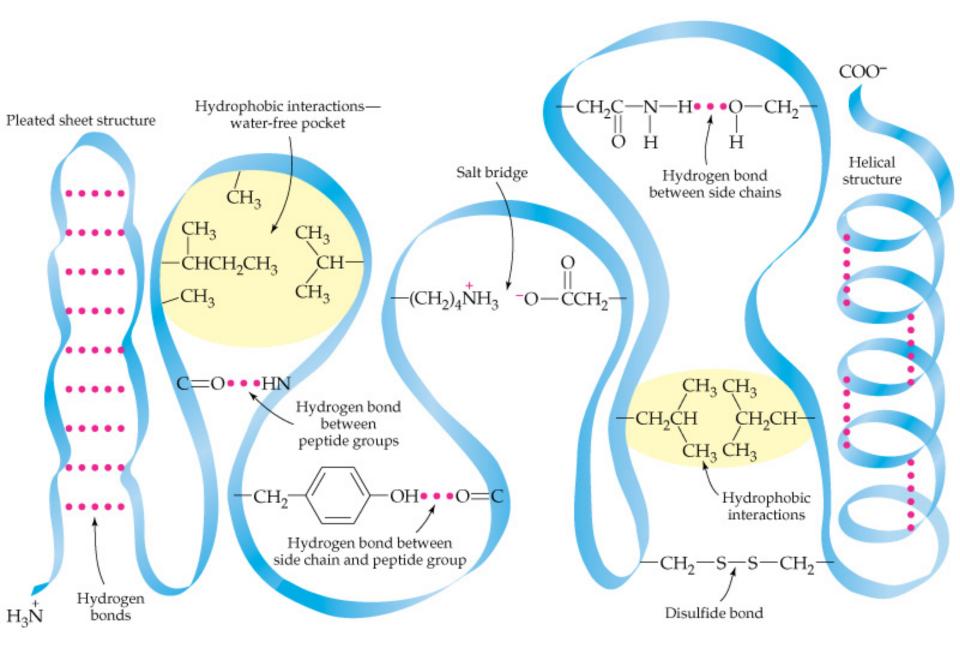
Tertiary Protein Structure

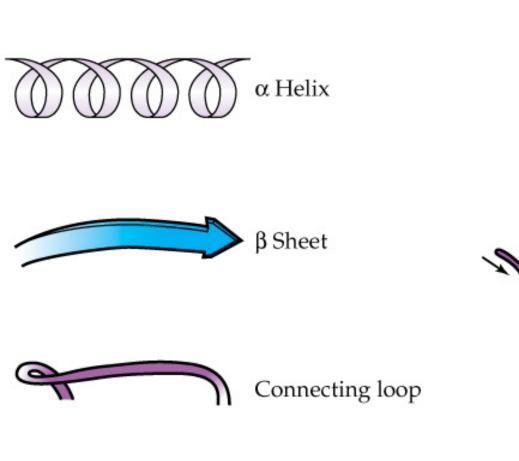
- Tertiary Structure of a proteins The overall three dimensional shape that results from the folding of a protein chain. Tertiary structure depends mainly on attractions of amino acid side chains that are far apart along the same backbone. Non-covalent interactions and disulfide covalent bonds govern tertiary structure.
- •A protein with the shape in which it exist naturally in living organisms is known as a native protein.

Shape-Determining Interactions in Proteins

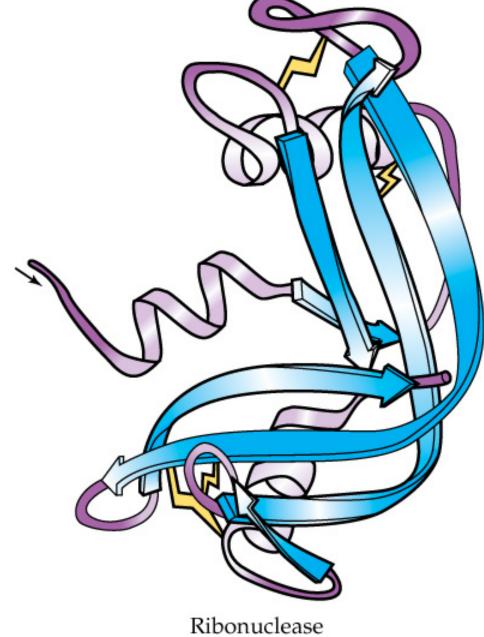
•The essential structure-function relationship for each protein depends on the polypeptide chain being held in its necessary shape by the interactions of atoms in the side chains.

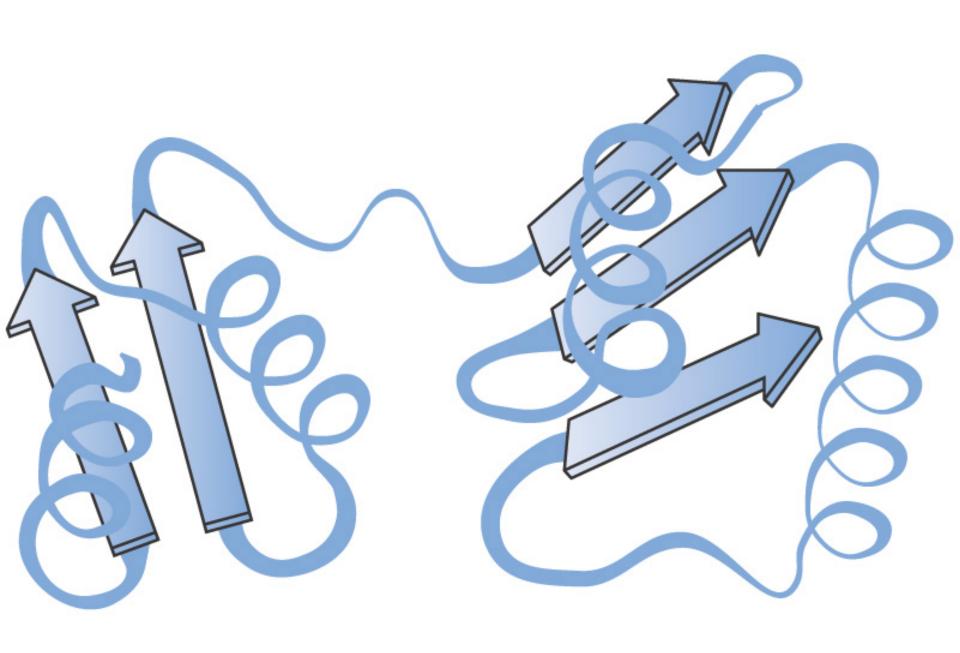
- Protein shape determining interactions are summarized below:
- Hydrogen bond between neighboring backbone segments.
- Hydrogen bonds of side chains with each other or with backbone atoms.
- lonic attractions between side chain groups or salt bridge.
- Hydrophobic interactions between side chain groups.
- Covalent sulfur-sulfur bonds.

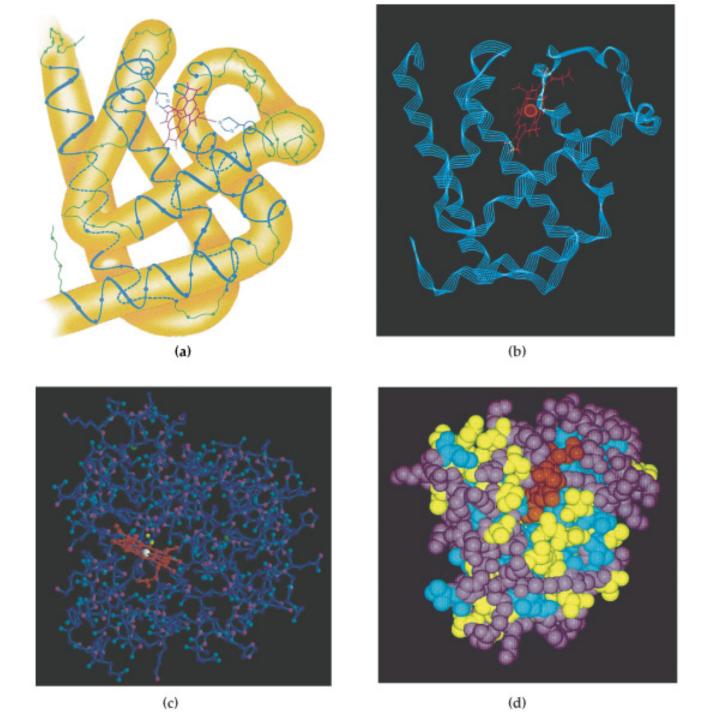




-S-S-links



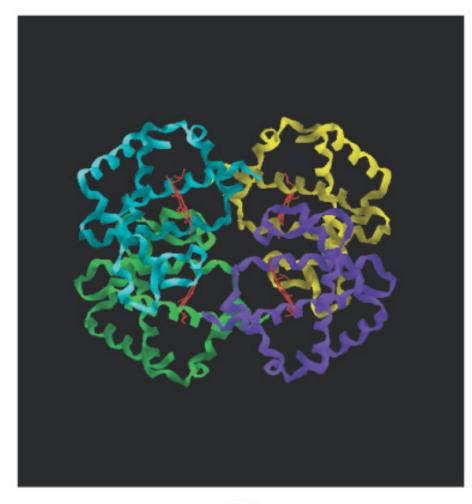




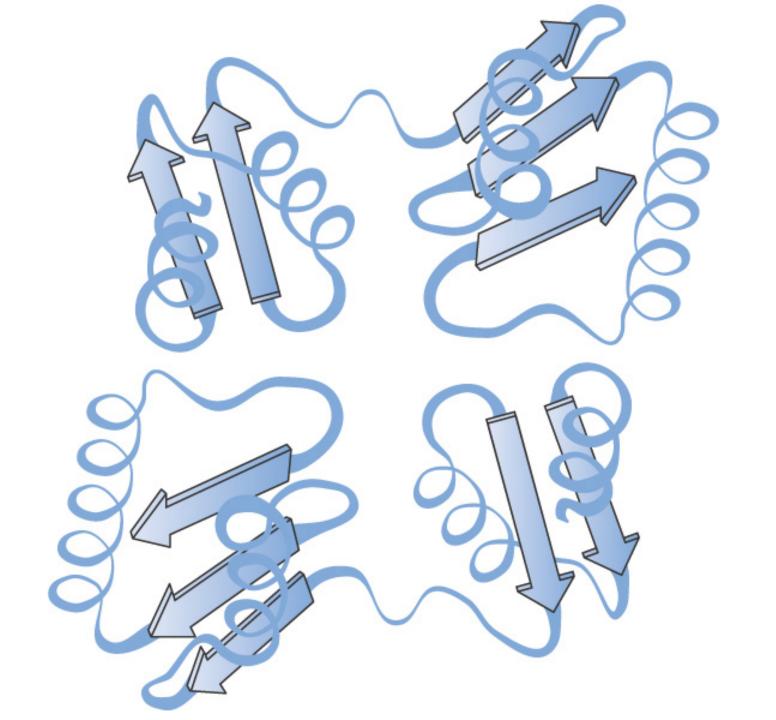
Quaternary Protein Structure

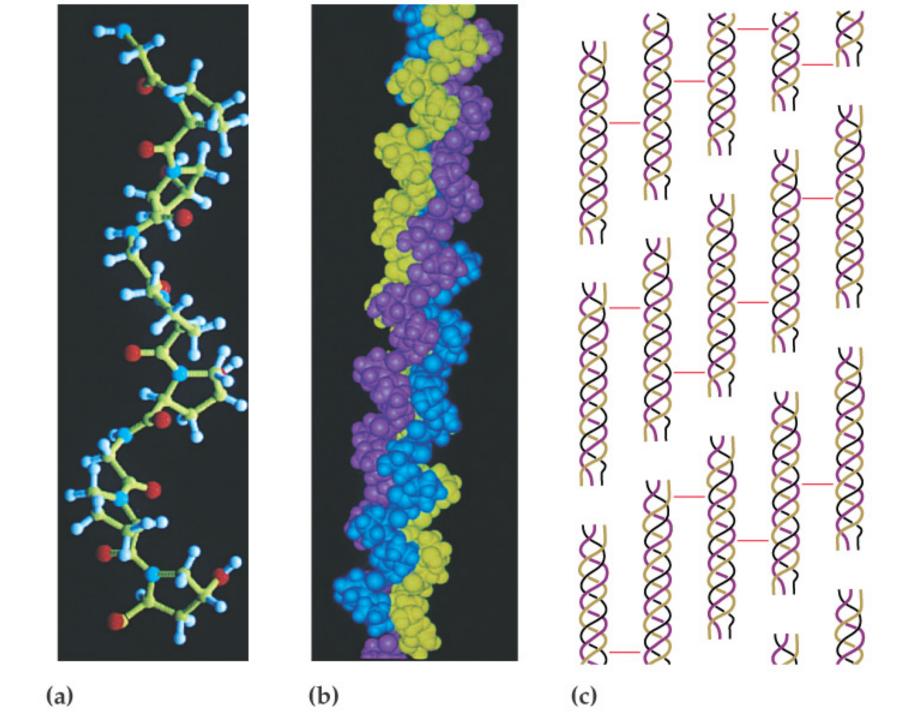
• Quaternary protein structure: The way in which two or more polypeptide sub-units associate to form a single three-dimensional protein unit. Non-covalent forces are responsible for quaternary structure essential to the function of proteins.

$$H_2C=CH$$
 CH_3
 H_3C
 $-CH=CH_2$
 CH_2
 CH_2
 CH_2COOH
 CH_2COOH
 CH_2COOH



(b)





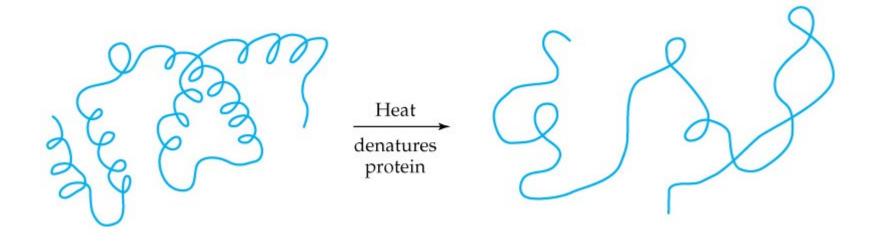
Chemical Properties of Proteins

 Protein hydrolysis: In protein hydrolysis, peptide bonds are hydrolyzed to yield amino acids. This is reverse of protein formation.



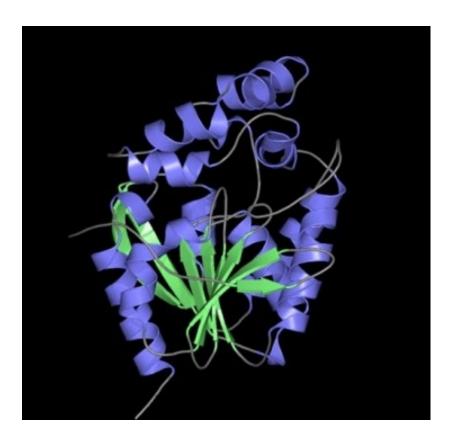


 Protein denaturation: The loss of secondary, tertiary, or quaternary protein structure due to disruption of non-covalent interactions and or disulfide bonds that leaves peptide bonds and primary

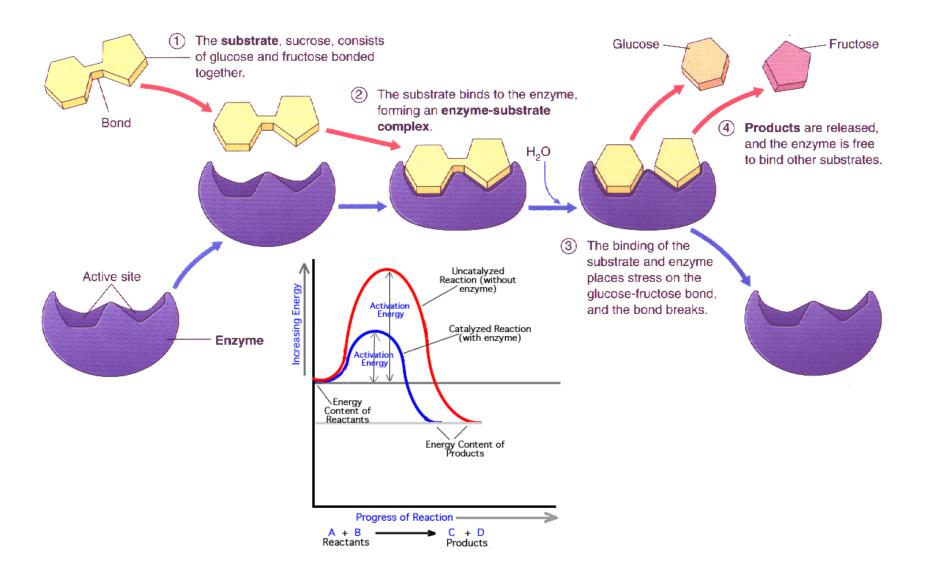


Catalysis by Enzymes

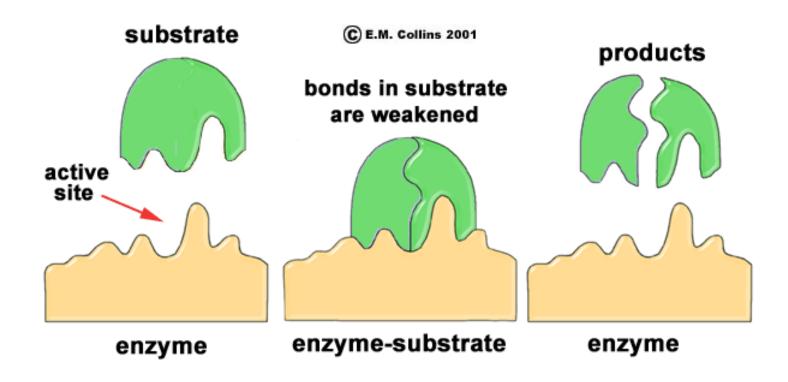
 Enzyme A protein that acts as a catalyst for a biochemical reaction.



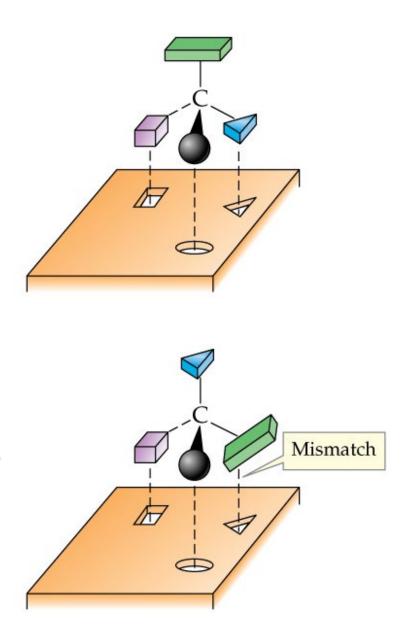
Enzymatic Reaction



Specificity



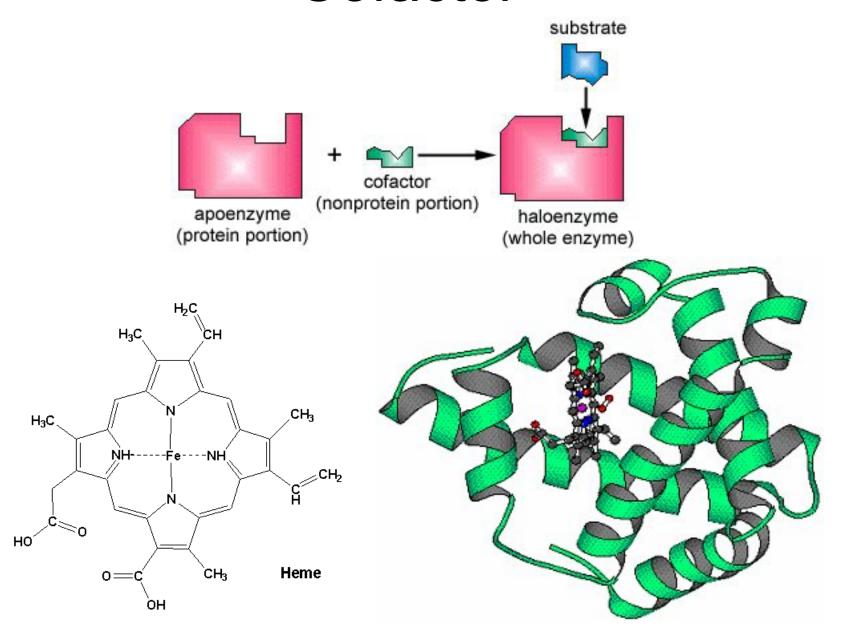
The specificity of an enzyme for one of two enantiomers is a matter of fit. One enantiomer fits better into the active site of the enzyme than the other enantiomer. Enzyme catalyzes reaction of the enantiomer that fits better into the active site of the enzyme.



Enzyme Cofactors

- Many enzymes are conjugated proteins that require nonprotein portions known as cofactors.
- Some cofactors are metal ions, others are nonprotein organic molecules called coenzymes.
- An enzyme may require a metal-ion, a coenzyme, or both to function.

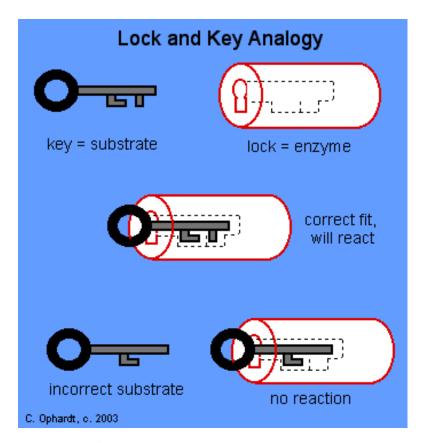
Cofactor

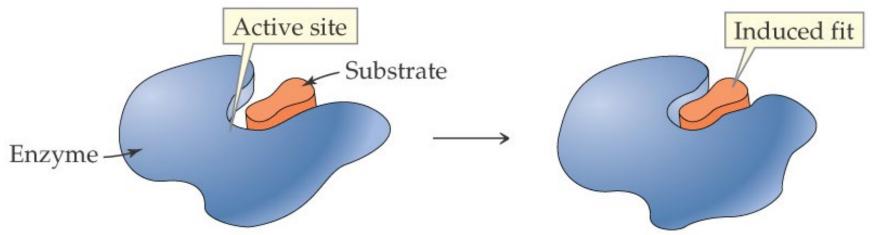


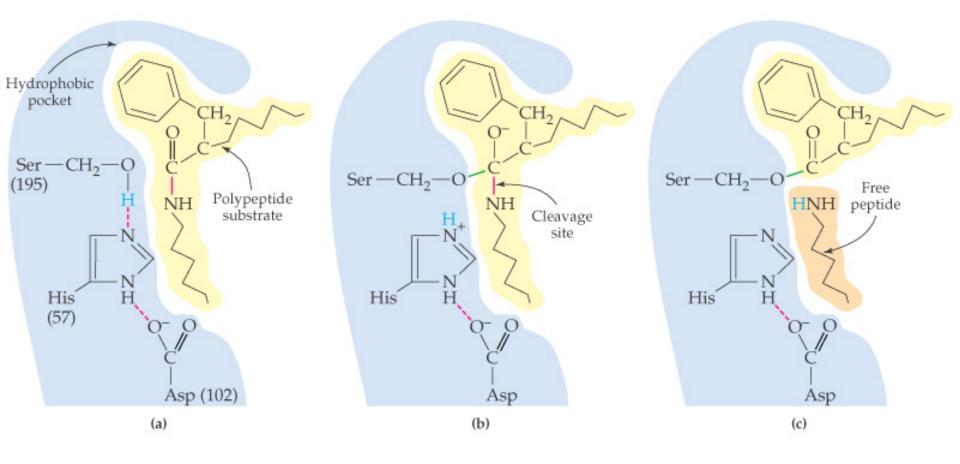
- Cofactors provide additional chemically active functional groups which are not present in the side chains of amino acids that made up the enzyme.
- Metal ions may anchor a substrate in the active site or may participate in the catalyzed reaction.

How Enzyme Work

- Two modes are invoked to represent the interaction between substrate and enzymes. These are:
- Lock-and-key model: The substrate is described as fitting into the active site as a key fit into a lock.
- Induced-fit-model: The enzyme has a flexible active site that changes shape to accommodate the substrate and facilitate the reaction.







19.5 Effect of Concentration on Enzyme Activity

- •Variation in concentration of enzyme or substrate alters the rate of enzyme catalyzed reactions.
- Substrate concentration: At low substrate concentration, the reaction rate is directly proportional to the substrate concentration. With increasing substrate concentration, the rate drops off as more of the active sites are occupied.

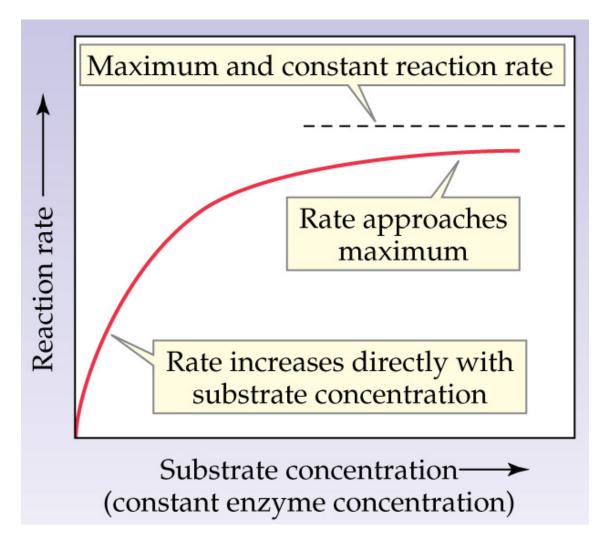
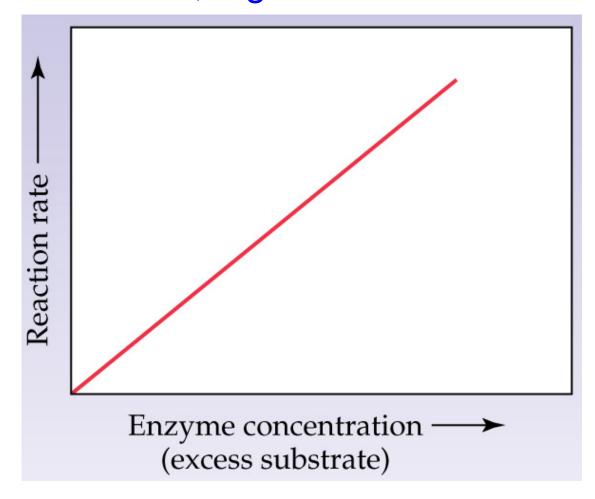


Fig 19.5 Change of reaction rate with substrate concentration when enzyme concentration is constant.

• Enzyme concentration: The reaction rate varies directly with the enzyme concentration as long as the substrate concentration does not become a limitation, Fig 19.6 below.



19.6 Effect of Temperature and pH on Enzyme Activity

- •Enzymes maximum catalytic activity is highly dependent on temperature and pH.
- Increase in temperature increases the rate of enzyme catalyzed reactions. The rates reach a maximum and then begins to decrease. The decrease in rate at higher temperature is due to denaturation of enzymes.

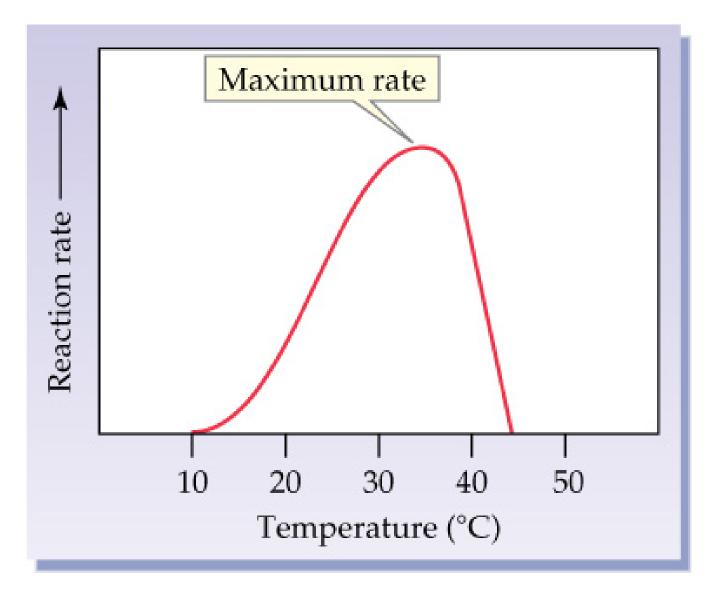
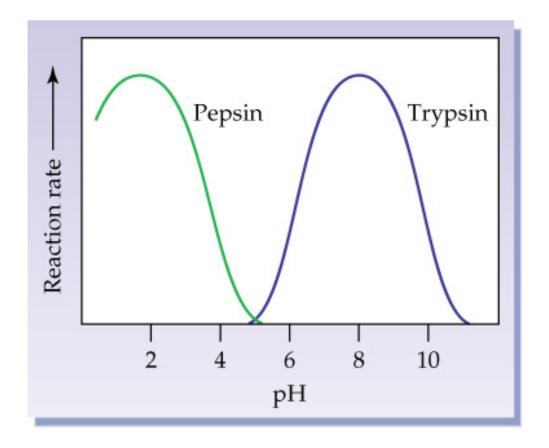


Fig 19.7 (a) Effect of temperature on reaction rate

• Effect of pH on Enzyme activity: The catalytic activity of enzymes depends on pH and usually has a well defined optimum point for maximum catalytic activity Fig 19.7 (b) below.



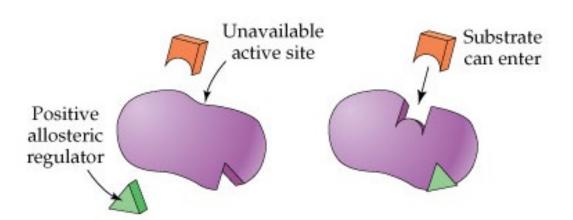
19.7 Enzyme Regulation: Feedback and Allosteric Control

- •Concentration of thousands of different chemicals vary continuously in living organisms which requires regulation of enzyme activity.
- •Any process that starts or increase the activity of an enzyme is *activation*.
- •Any process that stops or slows the activity of an enzyme is *inhibition*.

Two of the mechanism

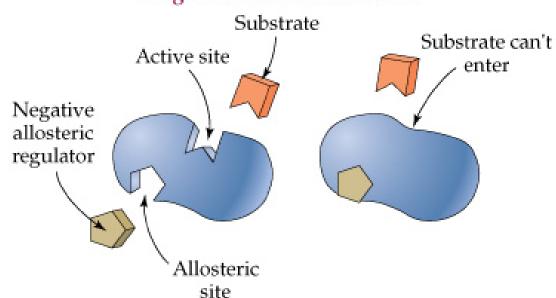
- Feedback control: Regulation of an enzyme's activity by the product of a reaction later in a pathway.
- Allosteric control: Activity of an enzyme is controlled by the binding of an activator or inhibitor at a location other than the active site. Allosteric controls are further classified as positive or negative.
 - A positive regulator changes the activity site so that the enzyme becomes a better catalyst and rate accelerates.
 - A negative regulator changes the activity site so that the enzyme becomes less effective catalyst and rate slows down.

Positive allosteric control



A positive regulator changes the activity site so that the enzyme becomes a better catalyst and rate accelerates.

Negative allosteric control



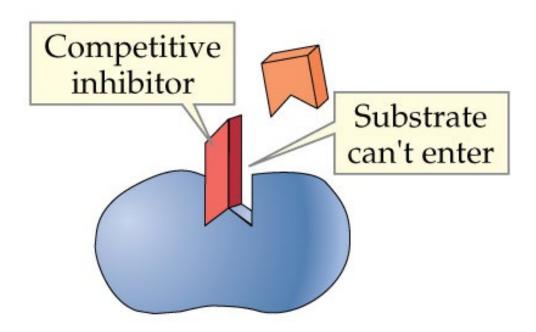
A negative regulator changes the activity site so that the enzyme becomes less effective catalyst and rate slows down.

19.8 Enzyme Regulation: Inhibition

- The inhibition of an enzyme can be reversible or irreversible.
- In reversible inhibition, the inhibitor can leave, restoring the enzyme to its uninhibited level of activity.
- In *irreversible inhibition*, the inhibitor remains permanently bound to the enzyme and the enzyme is permanently inhibited.

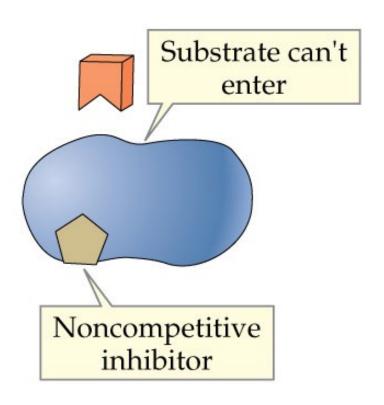
- Inhibitions are further classified as:
- Competitive inhibition if the inhibitor binds to the active site.

Competitive inhibition

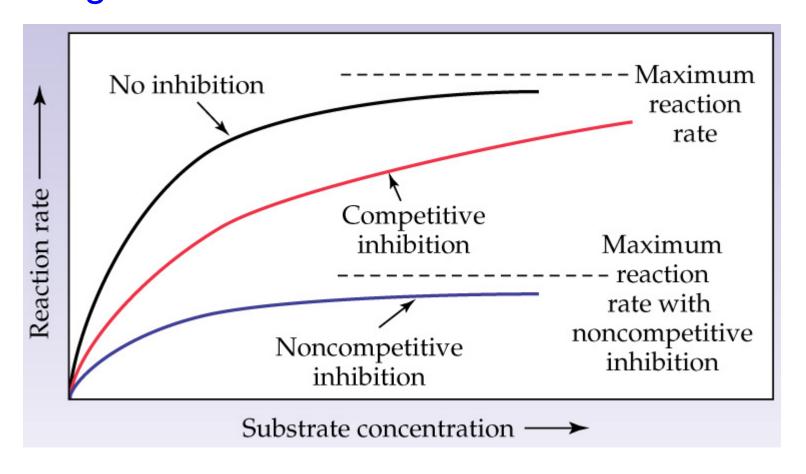


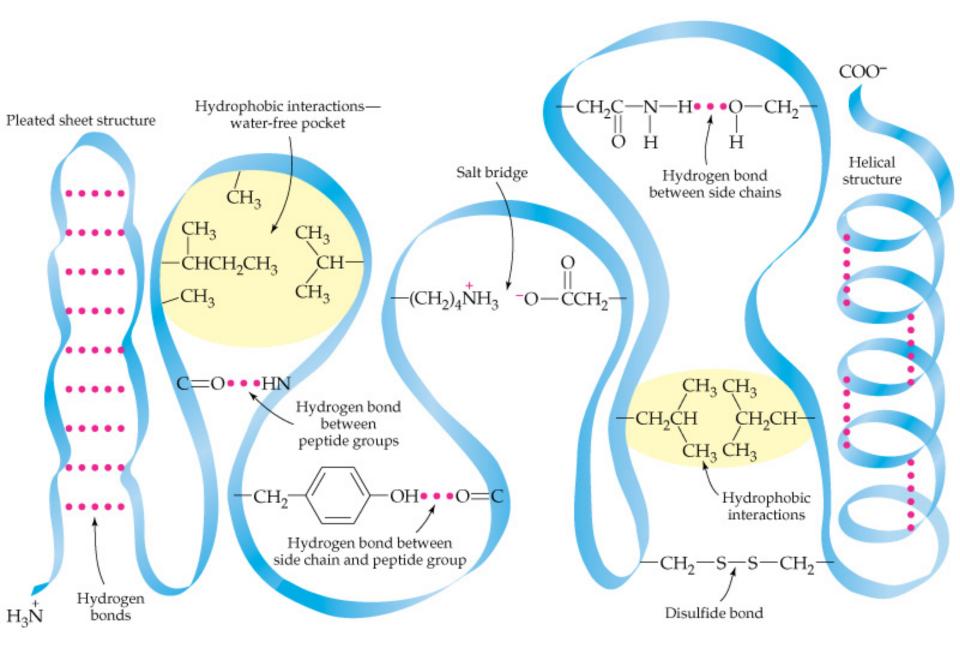
 Noncompetitive inhibition, if the inhibitor binds elsewhere and not to the active site.

Noncompetitive inhibition



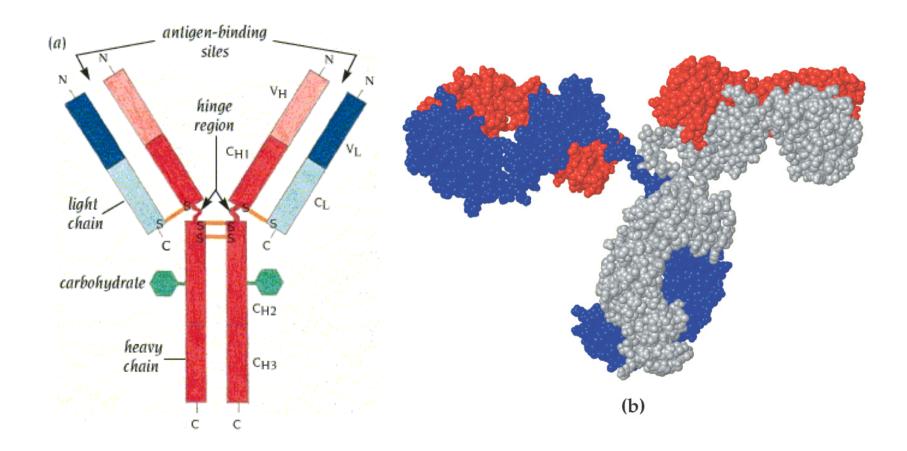
•The rates of enzyme catalyzed reactions with or without a competitive inhibitor are shown in the Fig 19.9 below.

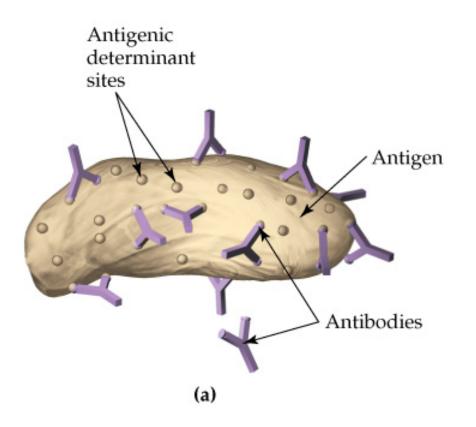


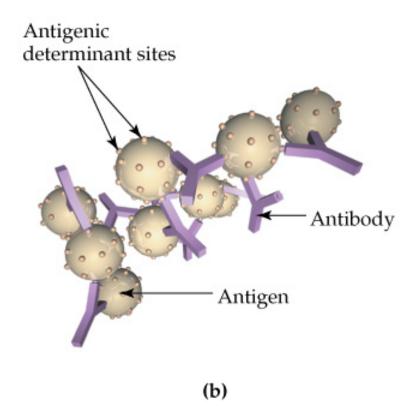


Shape-Determining Interactions in Proteins

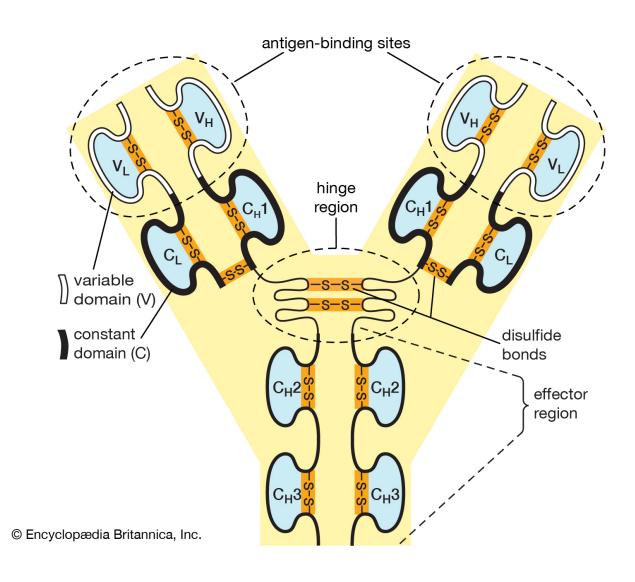
•The essential structure-function relationship for each protein depends on the polypeptide chain being held in its necessary shape by the interactions of atoms in the side chains.



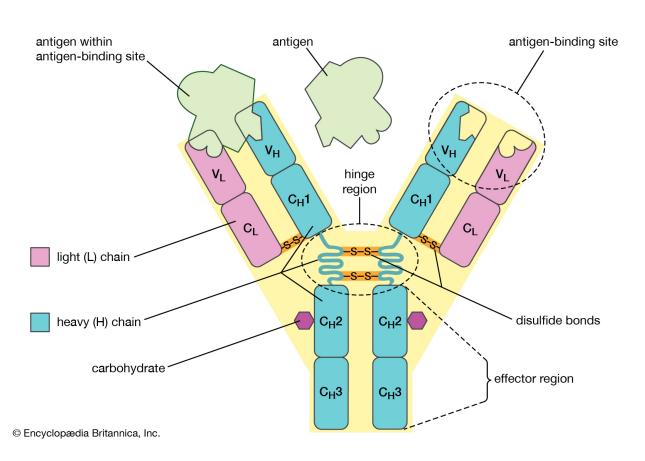


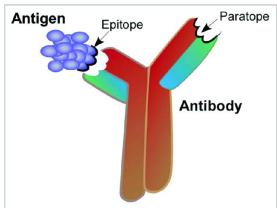


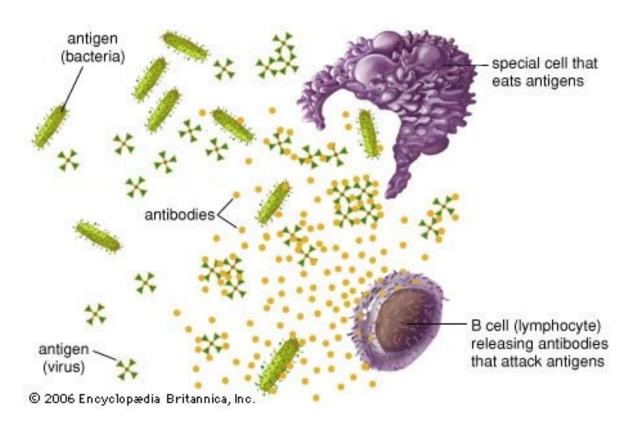
Antibody



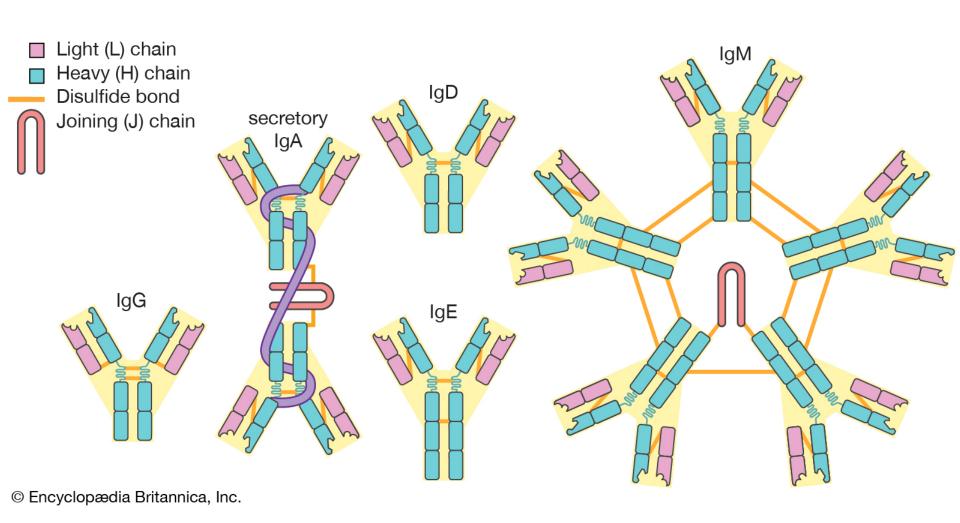
Antibody Binding Sites



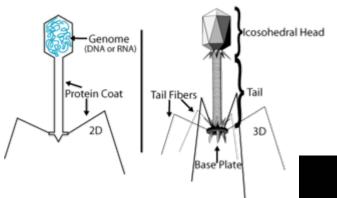


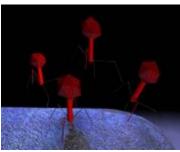


Different Types of Antibodies



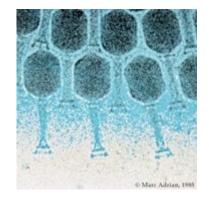
Virus



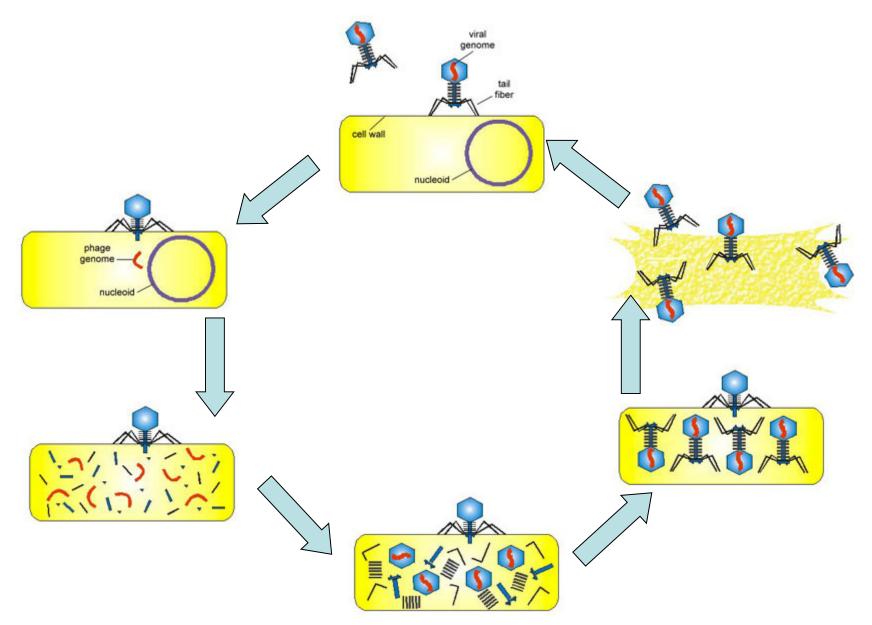




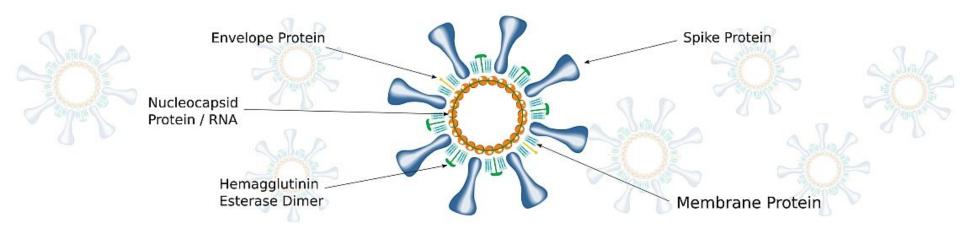


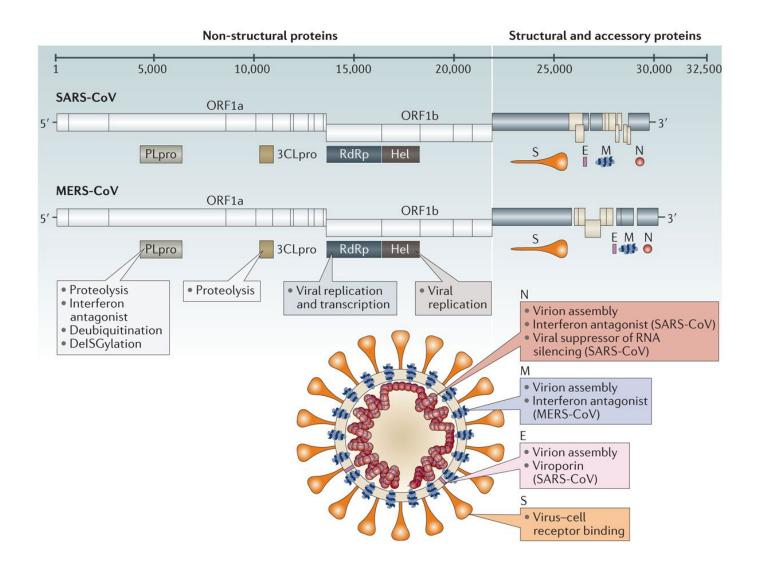


Virus Reproduction



SARS-CoV-2

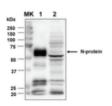




COVID-19 Antibodies

Monoclonal & Polyclonal Antibodies to SARS-CoV-2

The antibodies available below have been validated to bind to proteins from SARS-CoV-2 (COVID-19), but were developed originally to target proteins from SARS-CoV-1, the virus responsible for the 2003 outbreak. We are currently developing monoclonal mouse and polyclonal rabbit antibodies specific to SARS-CoV-2 spike and nucleocapsid proteins. The polyclonal antibodies will be available in May. The monoclonal antibodies will be available sometime between July - August.



Rabbit Anti-SARS-CoV-2 Nucleocapsid Protein

Rabbit Anti-SARS-CoV-2 Coronavirus Nucleocapsid Protein

CODE: 128-10165-1

\$1,450.00

SELECT SIZE

ADD TO COMPARISON LIST



Mouse Anti-SARS-CoV-2 Nucleocapsid Protein

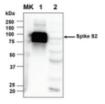
Mouse Anti-SARS-CoV-2 Coronavirus Nucleocapsid protein

CODE: 128-10166-1

\$1,450.00

SELECT SIZE

ADD TO COMPARISON LIST



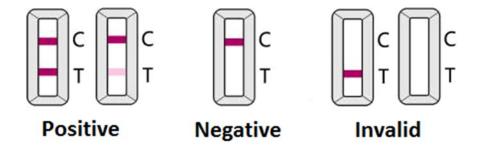
Rabbit Anti-SARS-CoV-2 Spike Protein

Rabbit Anti-SARS-Associated Coronavirus (COVID-19) Spike Protein

CODE: 128-10168-1

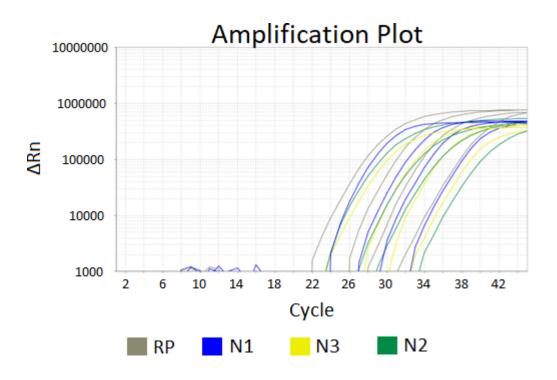
\$1,450.00

Fast Screening Kit

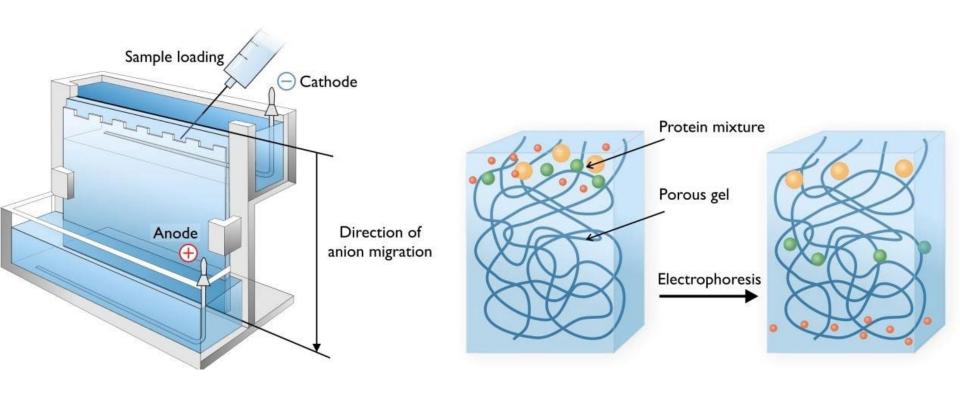




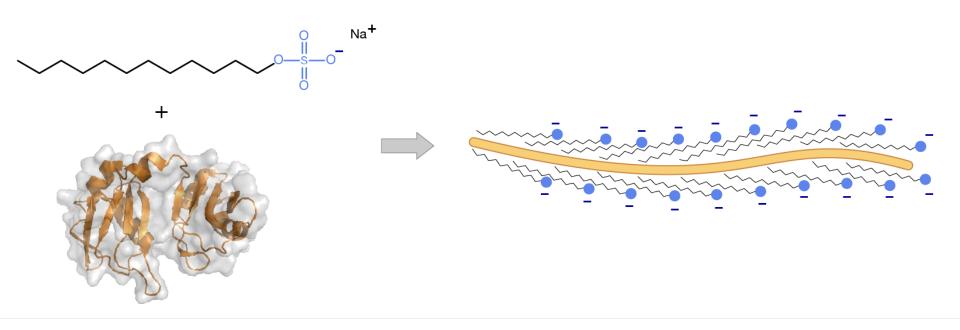
Real-time RT PCR



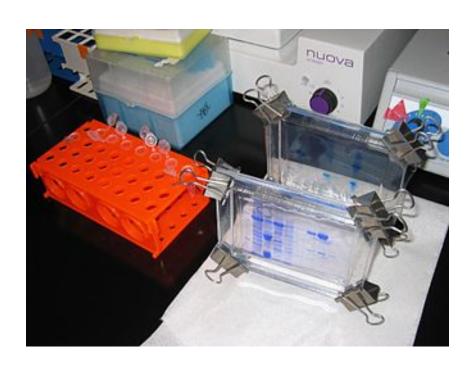
Sodium dodecyl sulfate polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE)

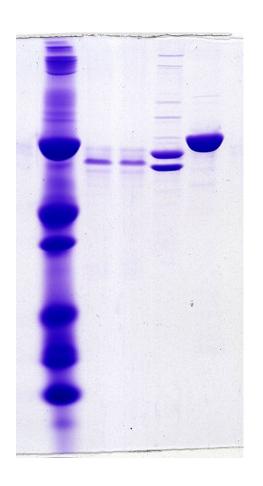


Protein Denature

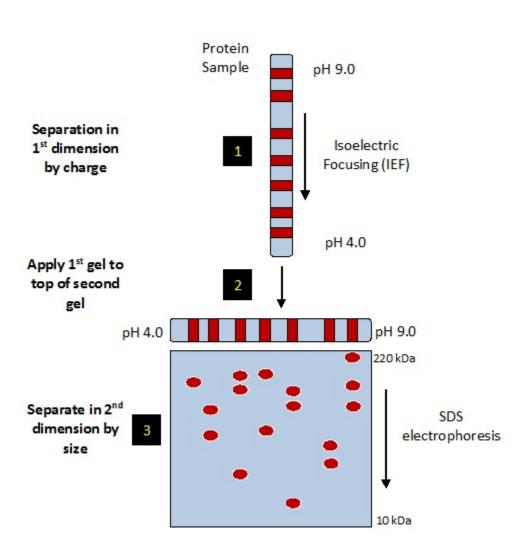


SDS-PAGE

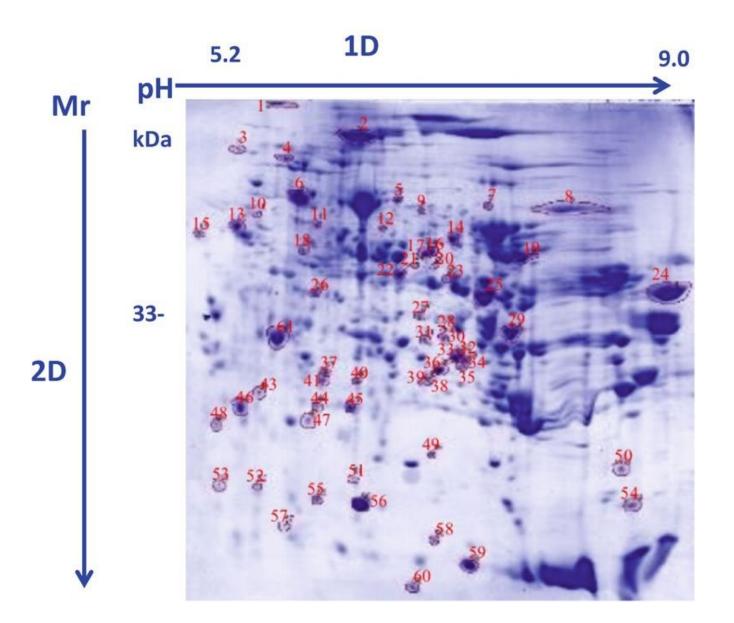


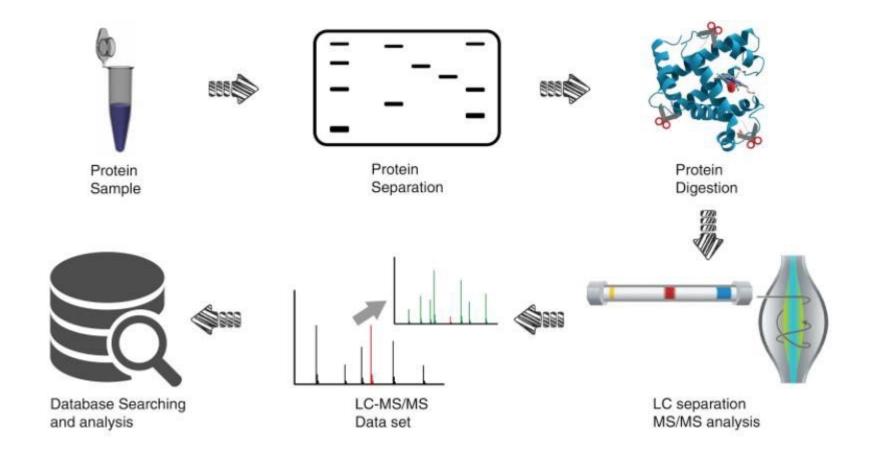


2D PAGE



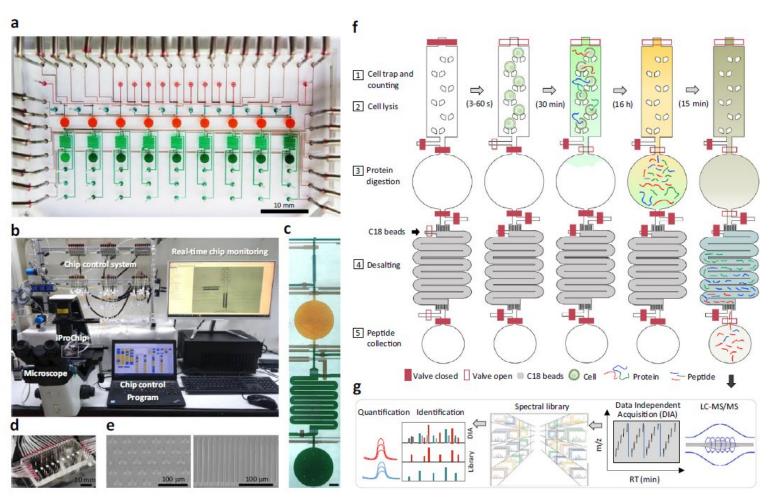
2D PAGE





Streamlined single-cell proteomics by an integrated microfluidic chip and data-independent acquisition mass spectrometry

Sofani Tafesse Gebreyesus ^{1,2,3,9}, Asad Ali Siyal ^{1,4,5,9}, Reta Birhanu Kitata ¹, Eric Sheng-Wen Chen , Bayarmaa Enkhbayar ^{4,6}, Takashi Angata ⁶, Kuo-I Lin ⁷, Yu-Ju Chen ^{1,3,4,8™} & Hsiung-Lin Tu ^{1,2,4,8™}



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