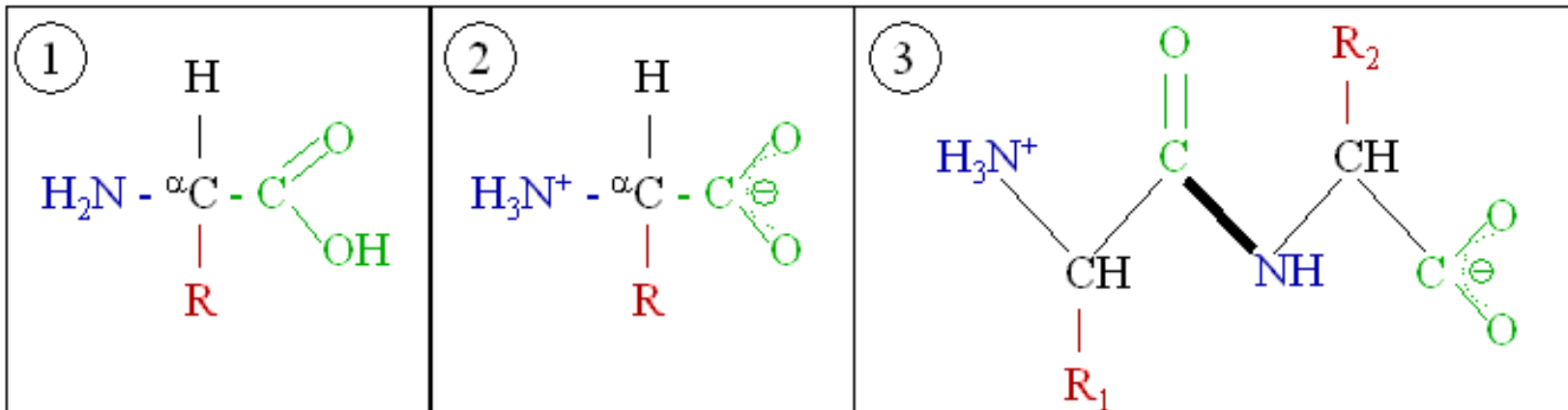
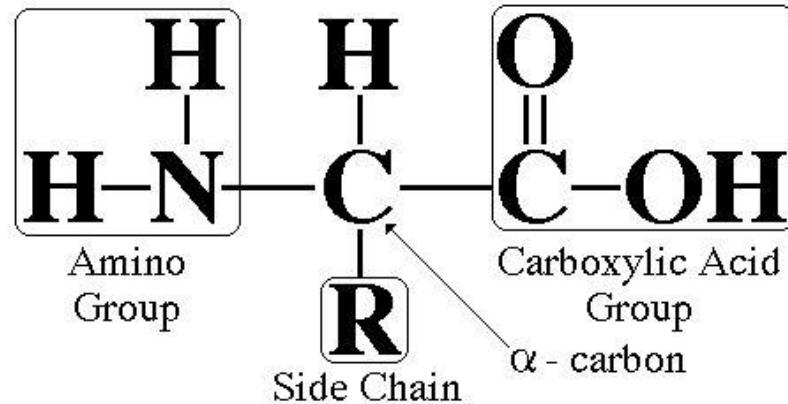
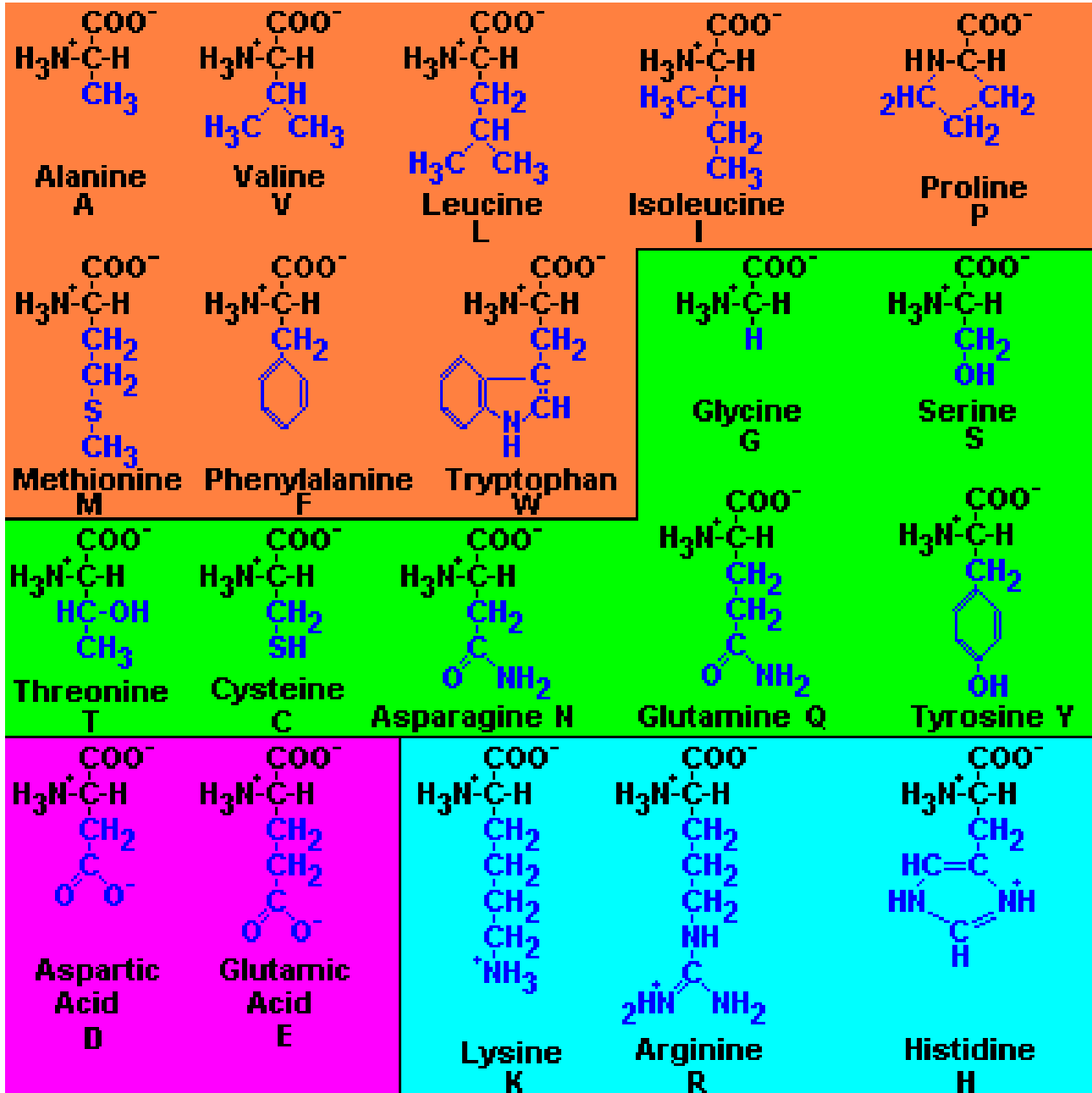


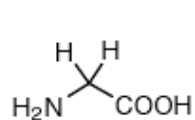
Amino Acid

Amino Acid Structure

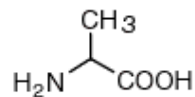




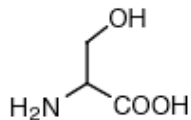
Small



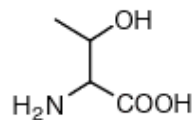
Glycine (Gly, G)
MW: 57.05



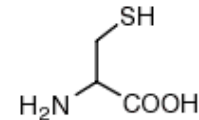
Alanine (Ala, A)
MW: 71.09



Serine (Ser, S)
MW: 87.08, $pK_a \sim 16$

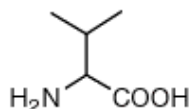


Threonine (Thr, T)
MW: 101.11, $pK_a \sim 16$

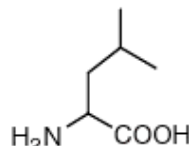


Cysteine (Cys, C)
MW: 103.15, $pK_a = 8.35$

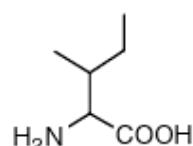
Hydrophobic



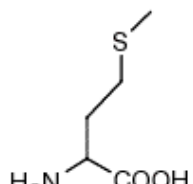
Valine (Val, V)
MW: 99.14



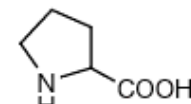
Leucine (Leu, L)
MW: 113.16



Isoleucine (Ile, I)
MW: 113.16

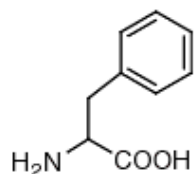


Methionine (Met, M)
MW: 131.19

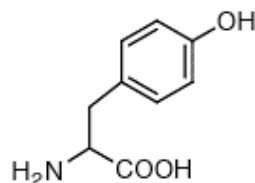


Proline (Pro, P)
MW: 97.12

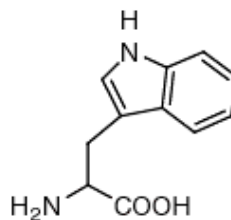
Aromatic



Phenylalanine (Phe, F)
MW: 147.18

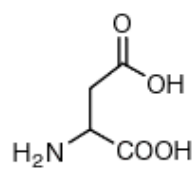


Tyrosine (Tyr, Y)
MW: 163.18

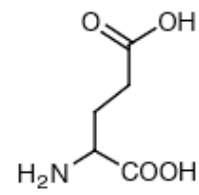


Tryptophan (Trp, W)
MW: 186.21

Acidic

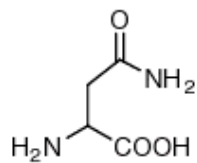


Aspartic Acid (Asp, D)
MW: 115.09, $pK_a = 3.9$

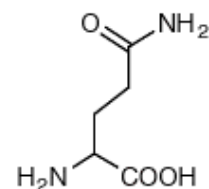


Glutamic Acid (Glu, E)
MW: 129.12, $pK_a = 4.07$

Amide

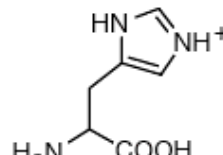


Asparagine (Asn, N)
MW: 114.11

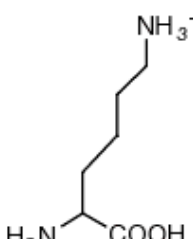


Glutamine (Gln, Q)
MW: 128.14

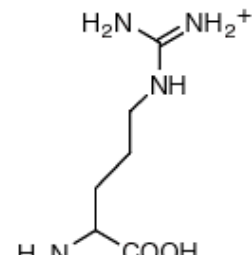
Basic



Histidine (His, H)
MW: 137.14, $pK_a = 6.04$



Lysine (Lys, K)
MW: 128.17, $pK_a = 10.79$

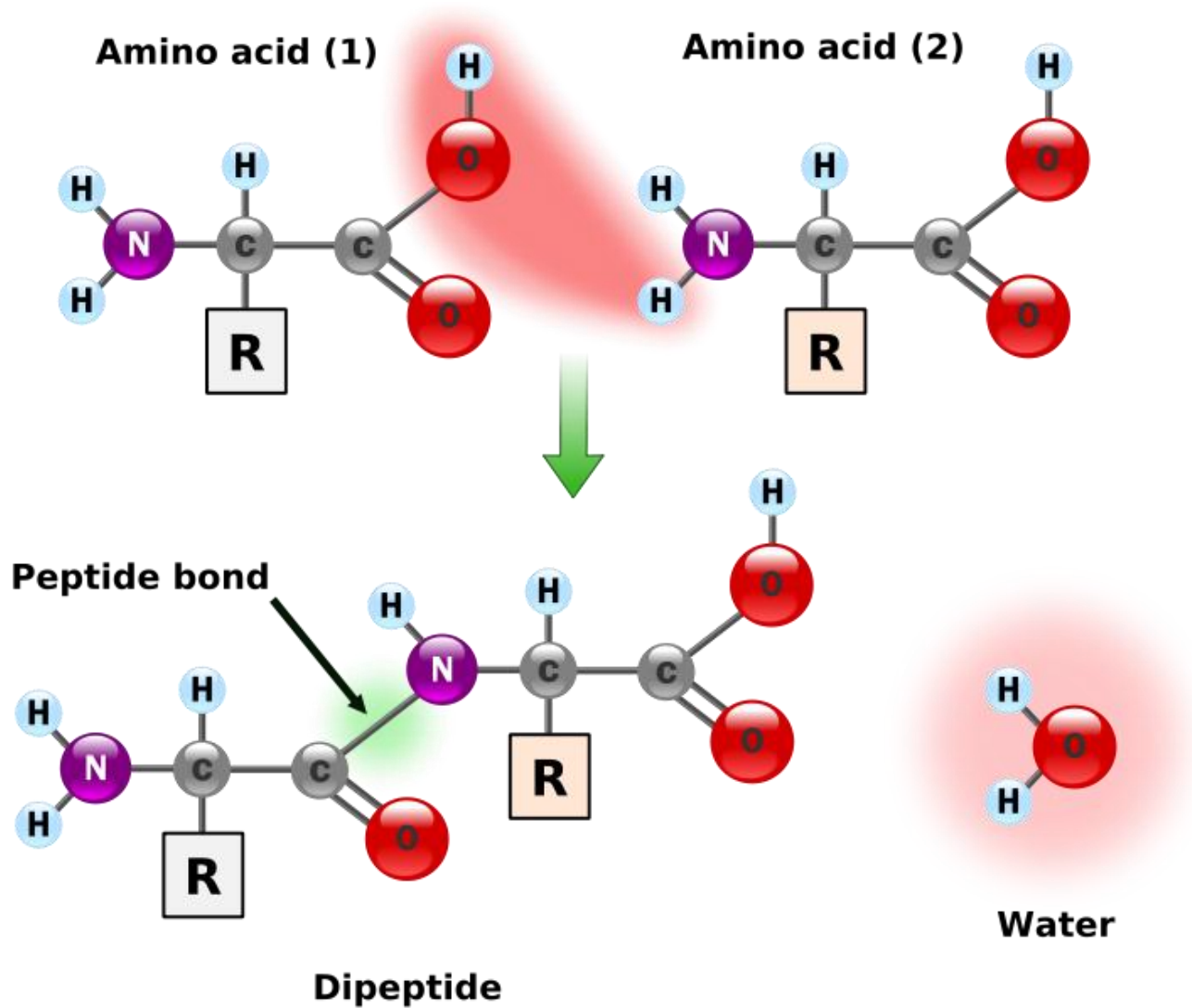


Arginine (Arg, R)
MW: 156.19, $pK_a = 12.48$

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.

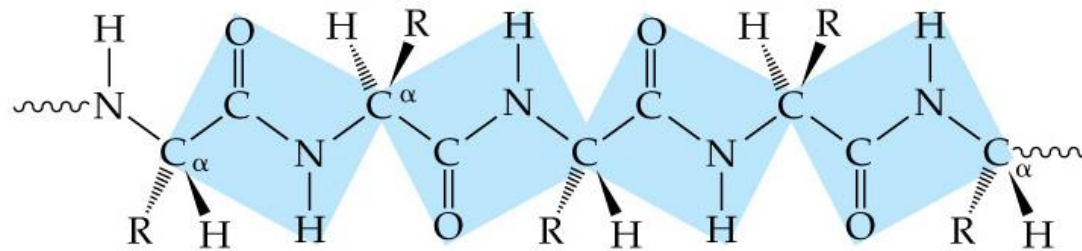
Peptide bond



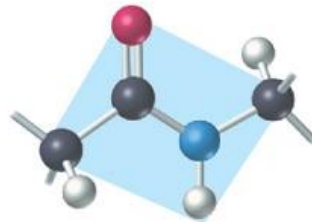
Primary Protein Structure

- 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



One planar unit



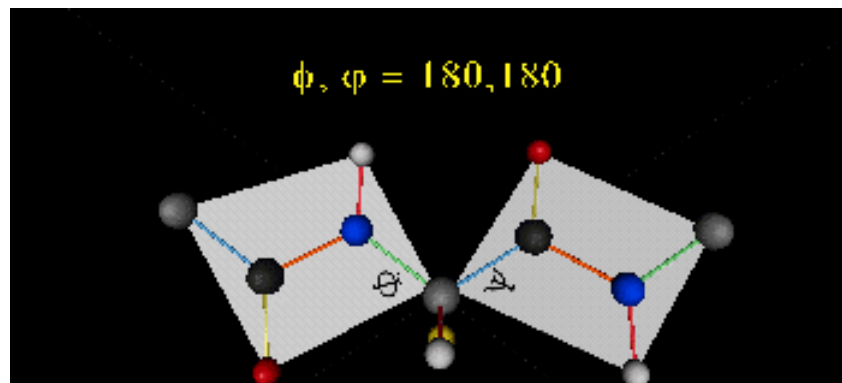
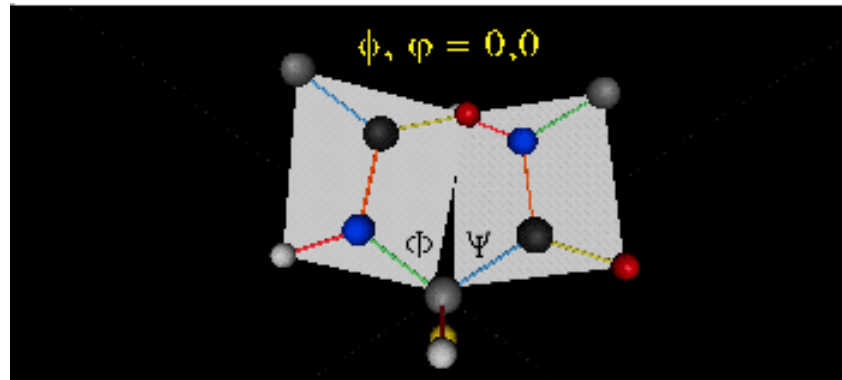
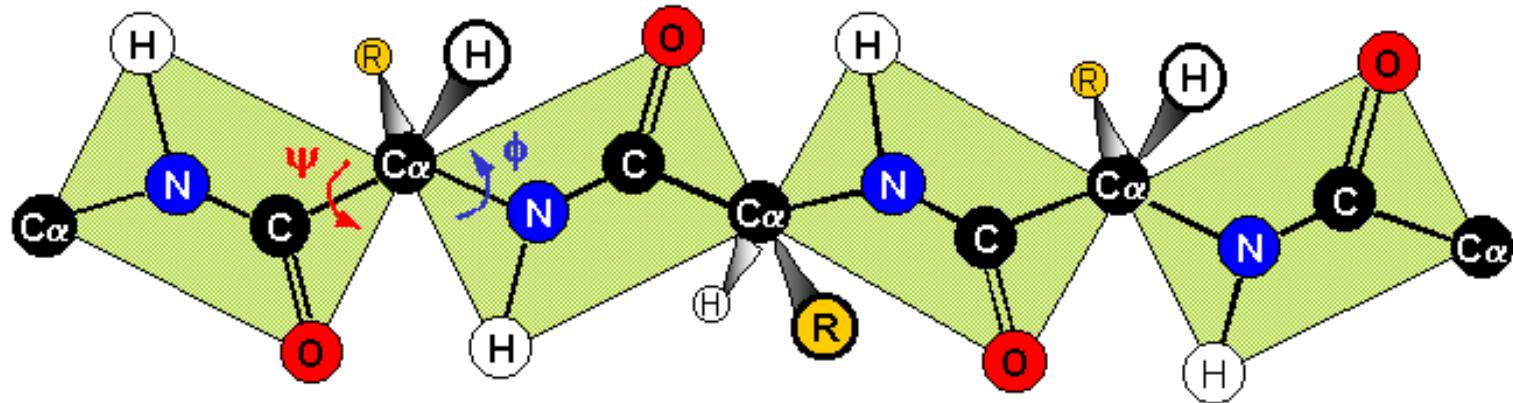
- By convention, peptides and proteins are always written with the amino terminal amino acid (N-terminal) on the left and carboxyl-terminal amino acid (C-terminal) on the right.



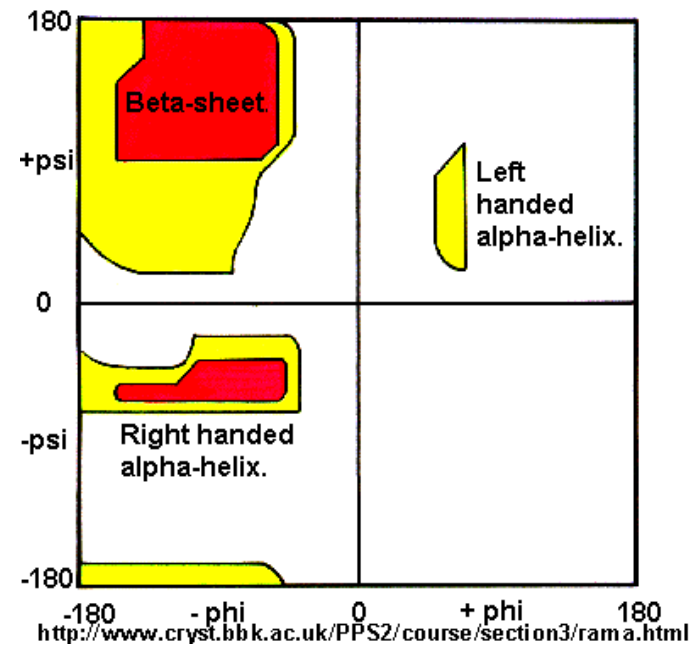
Secondary Protein Structure

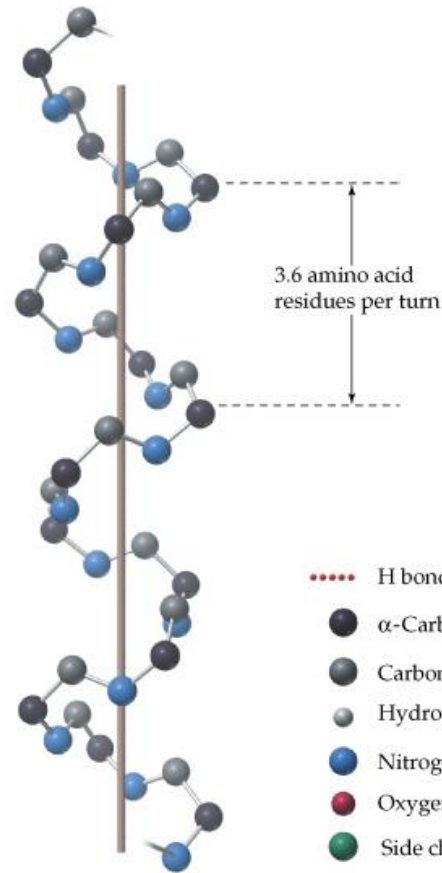
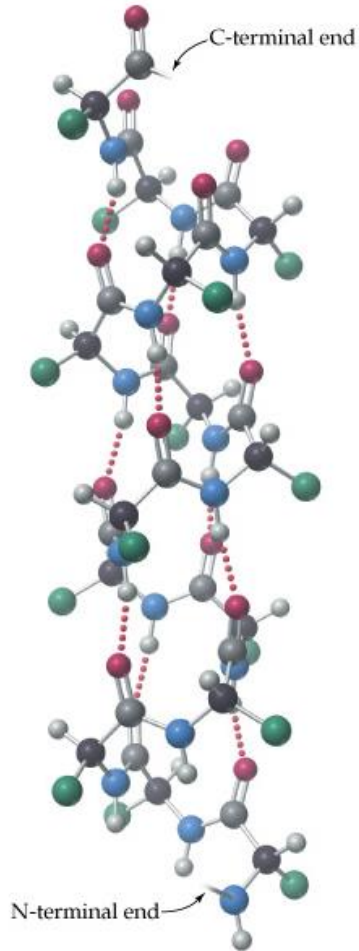
- Secondary structure of a protein is the arrangement of polypeptide backbone of the protein in space. The secondary structure includes two kinds of repeating pattern known as the *α -helix and β -sheet*.
- Hydrogen bonding between backbone atoms are responsible for both of these secondary structures.

FULLY EXTENDED POLYPEPTIDE CHAIN



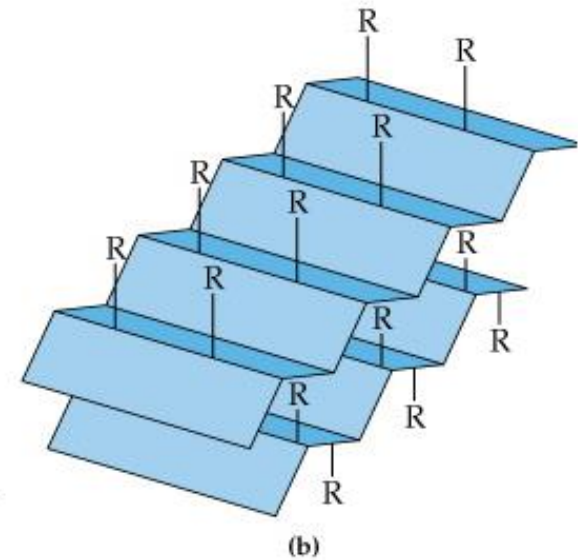
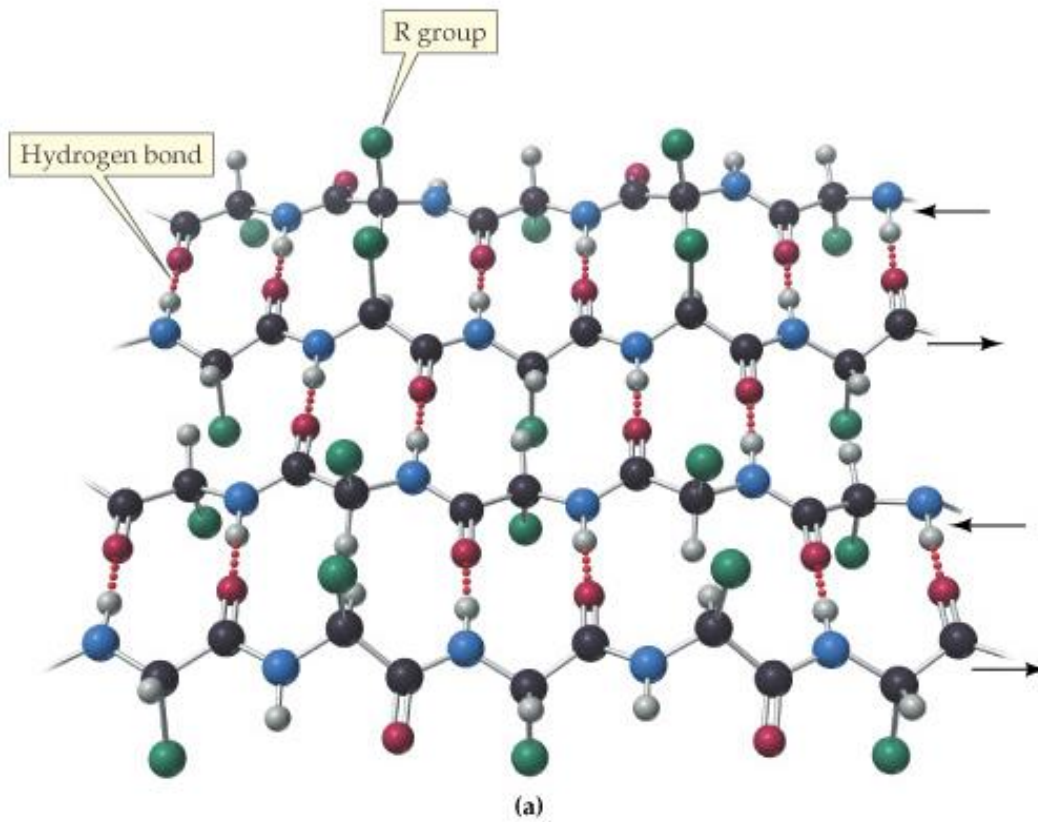
The Ramachandran Plot.





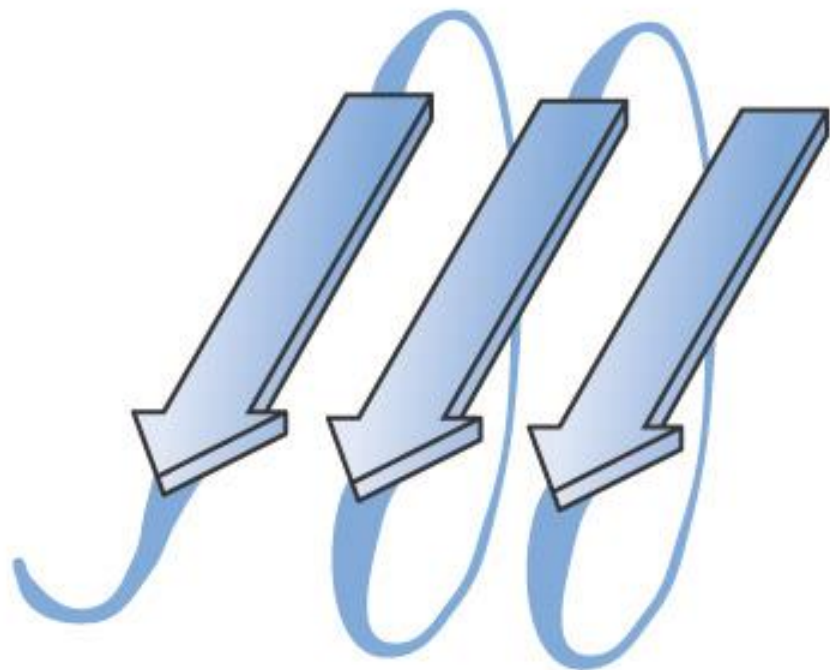
□ ***α -Helix:*** A single protein chain coiled in a spiral with a right-handed (clockwise) twist.

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





α helix



β sheet

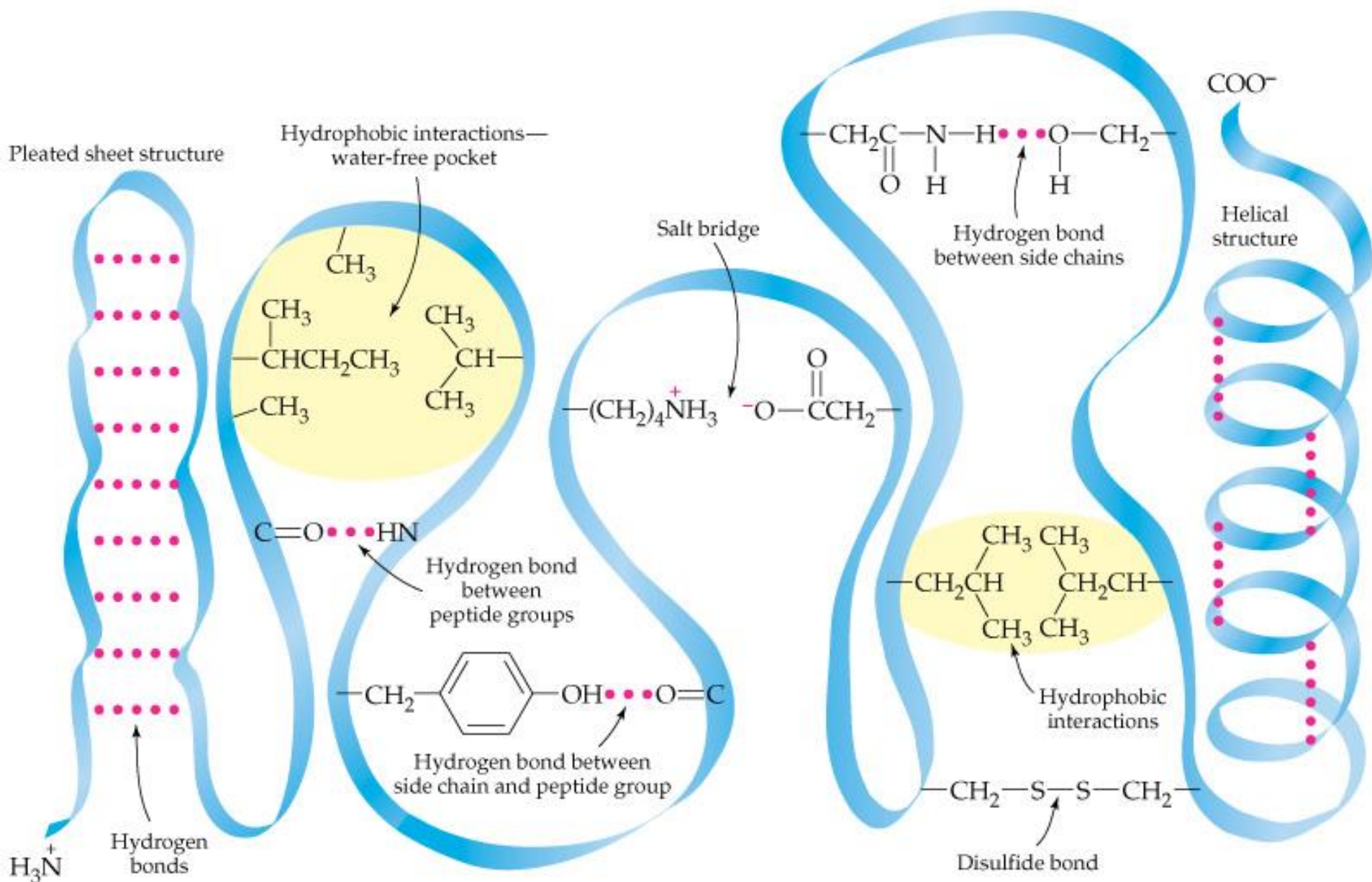
Tertiary Protein Structure

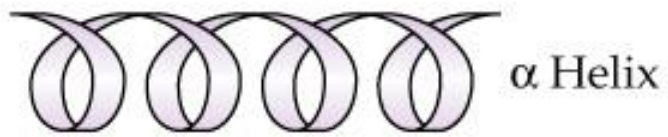
- ***Tertiary Structure of a proteins*** The overall three dimensional shape that results from the folding of a protein chain. Tertiary structure depends mainly on attractions of amino acid side chains that are far apart along the same backbone. **Non-covalent interactions and disulfide covalent bonds** 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.
- **Ionic attractions** between side chain groups or salt bridge.
- **Hydrophobic** interactions between side chain groups.
- Covalent **sulfur-sulfur** bonds.





α Helix



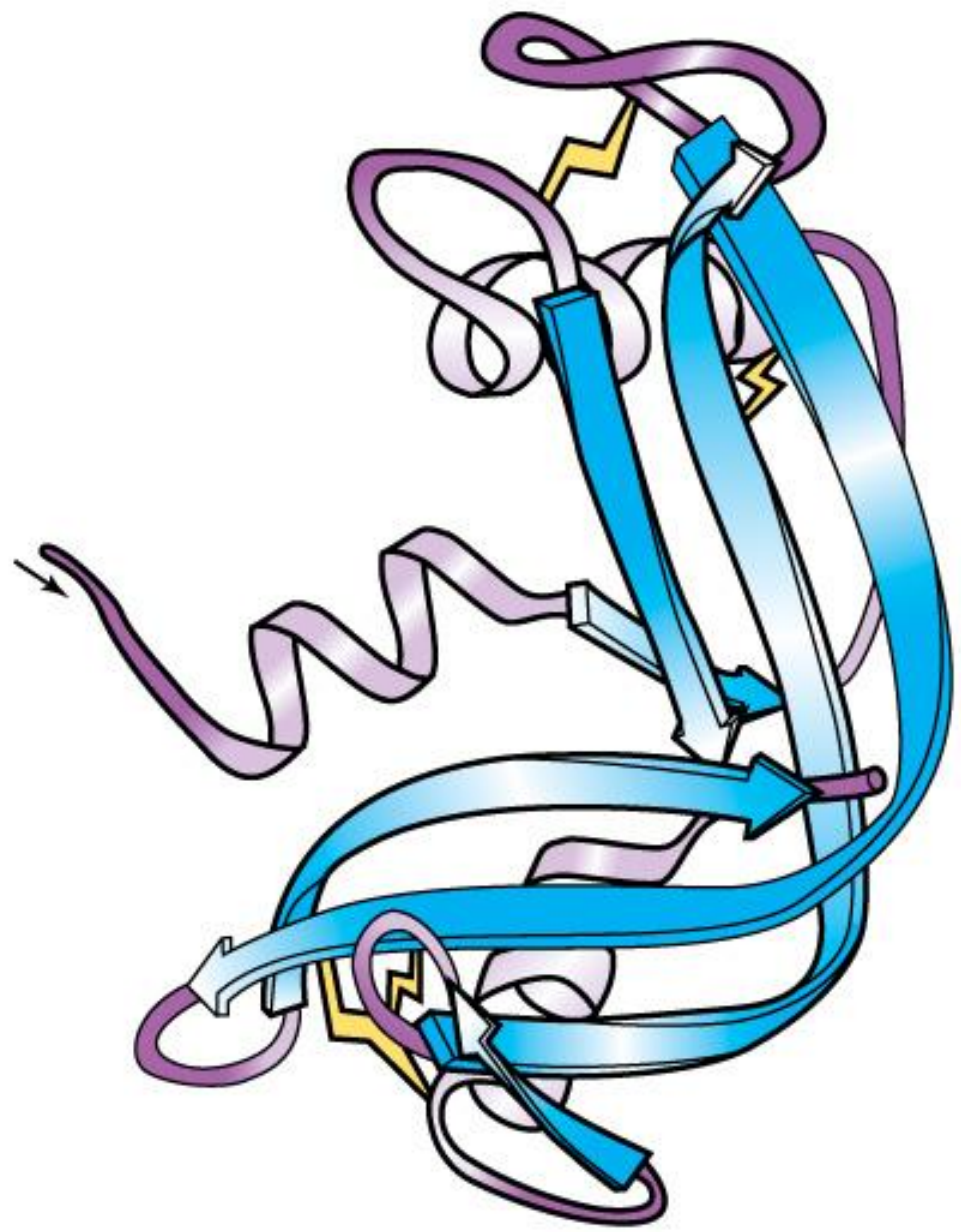
β Sheet



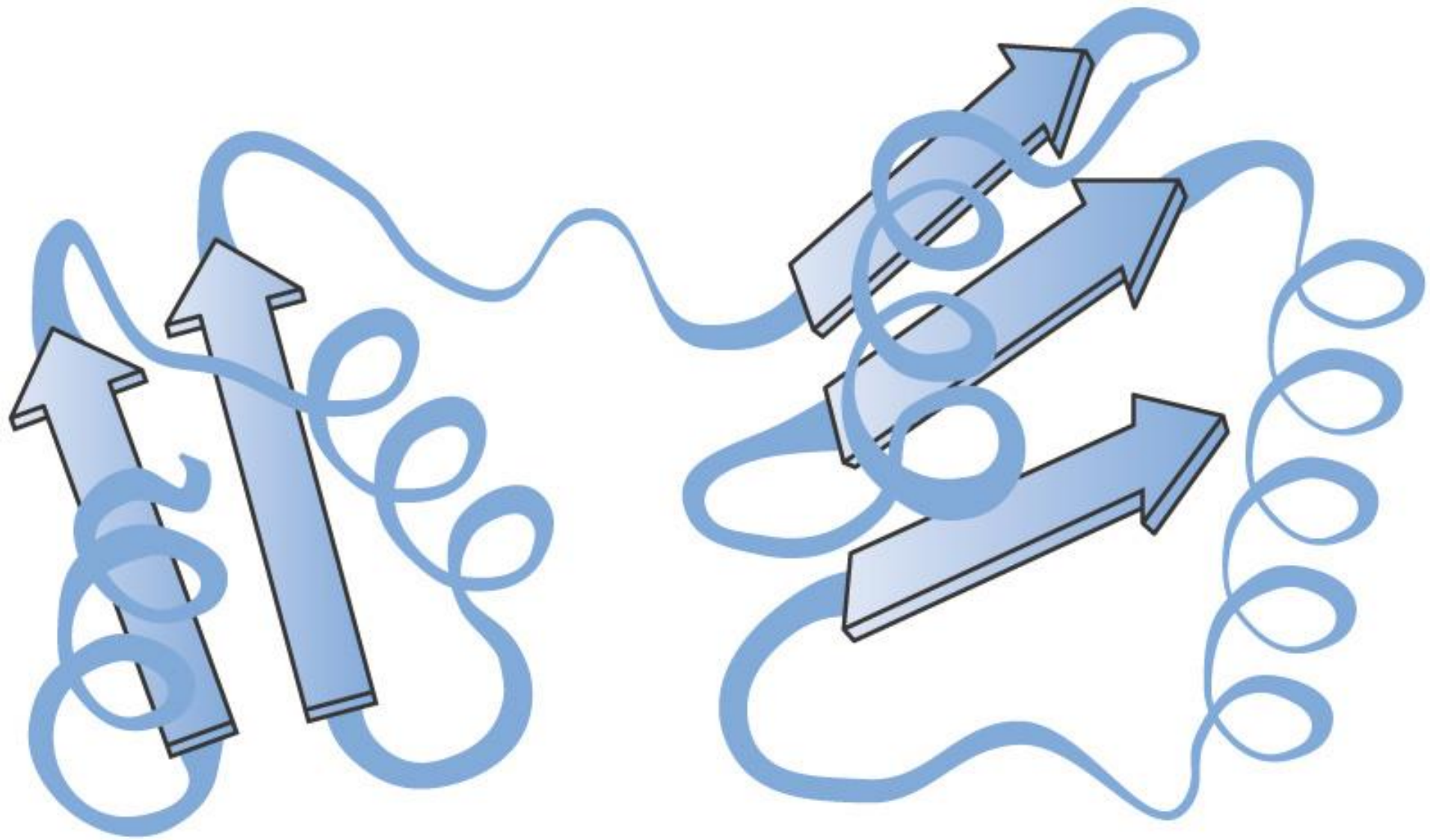
Connecting loop



—S—S— links

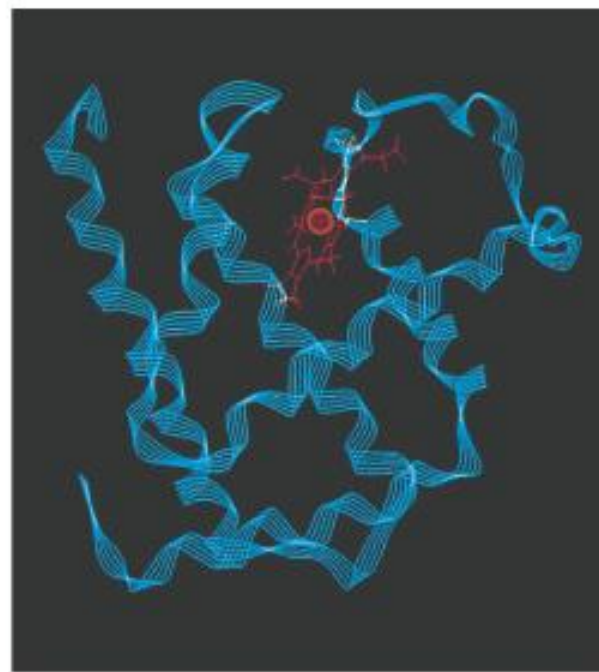


Ribonuclease

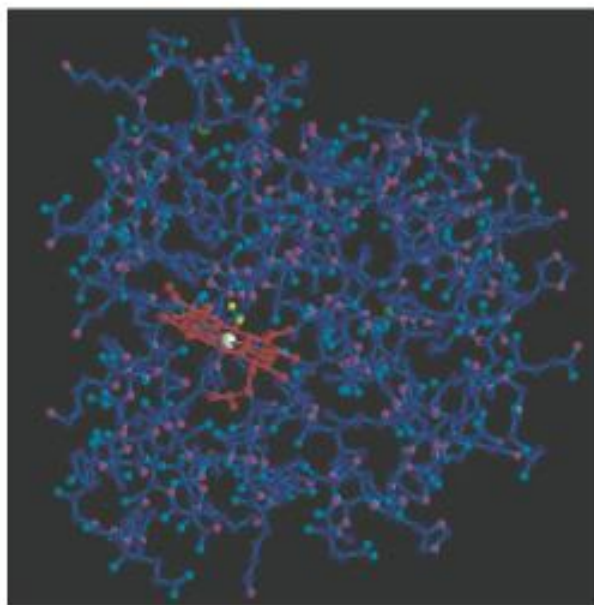




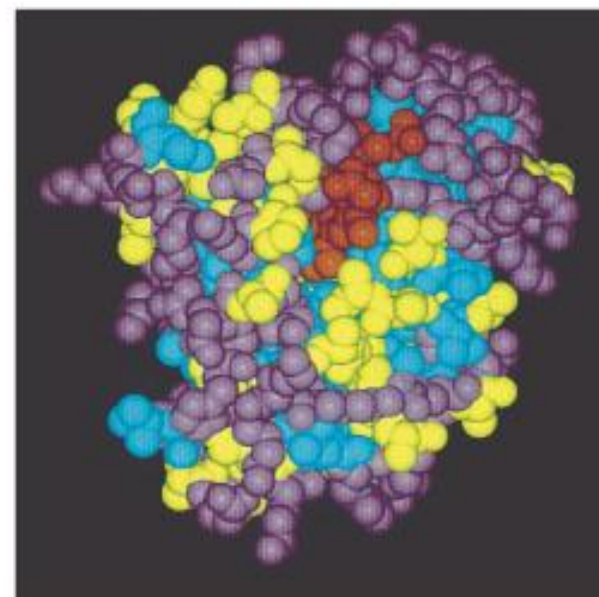
(a)



(b)



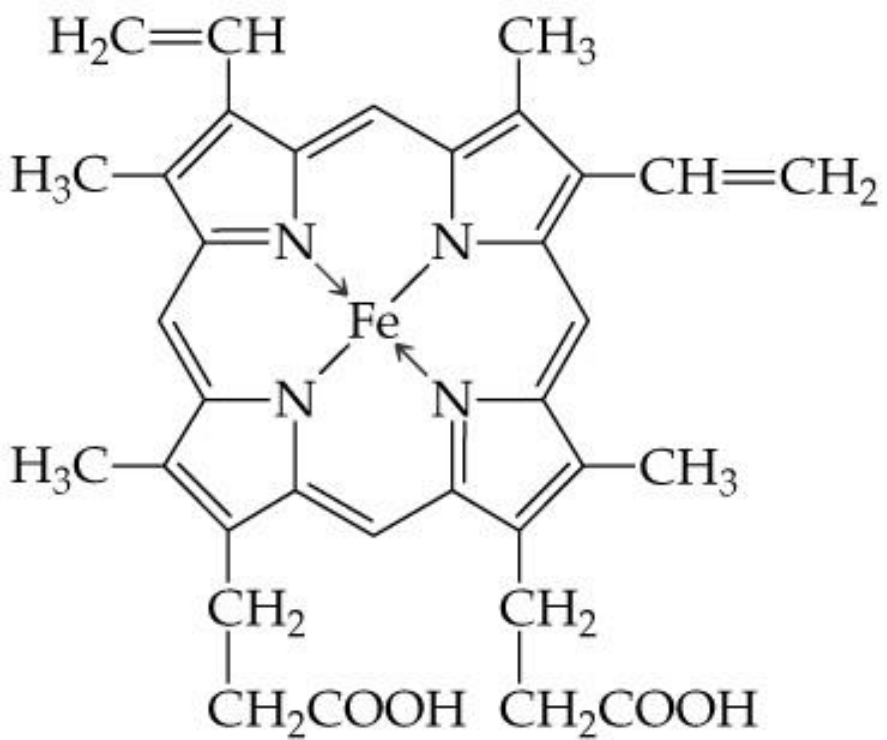
(c)



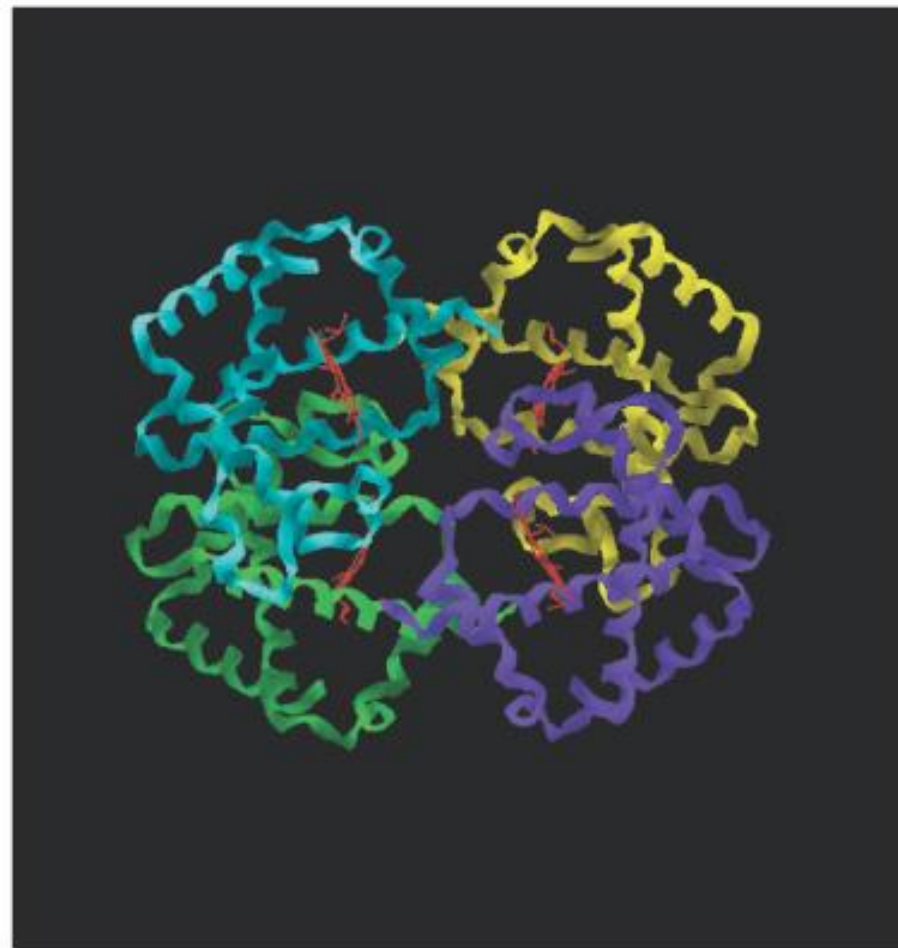
(d)

Quaternary Protein Structure

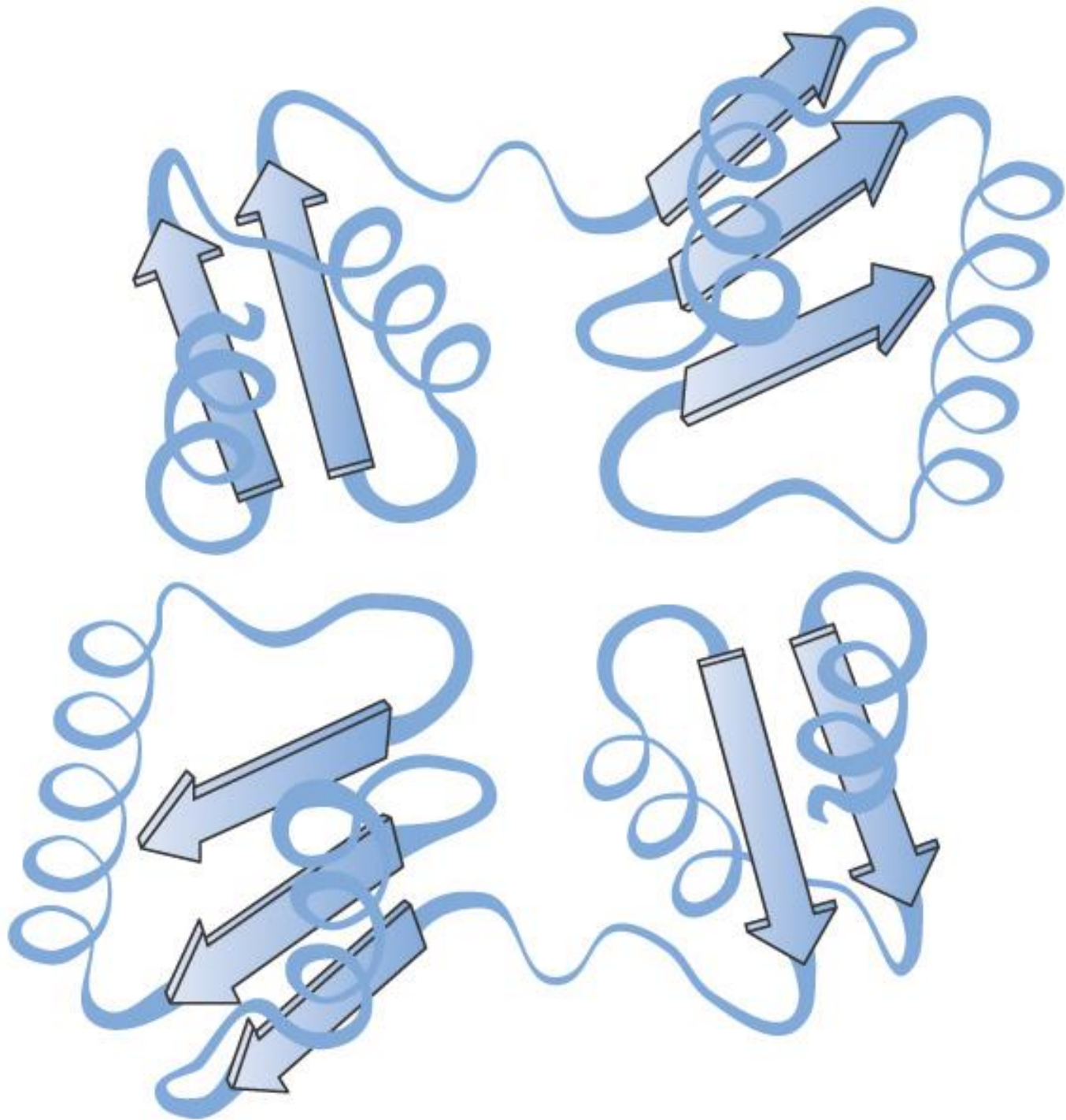
• ***Quaternary protein structure***: The way in which two or more polypeptide sub-units associate to form a single three-dimensional protein unit. Non-covalent forces are responsible for quaternary structure essential to the function of proteins.

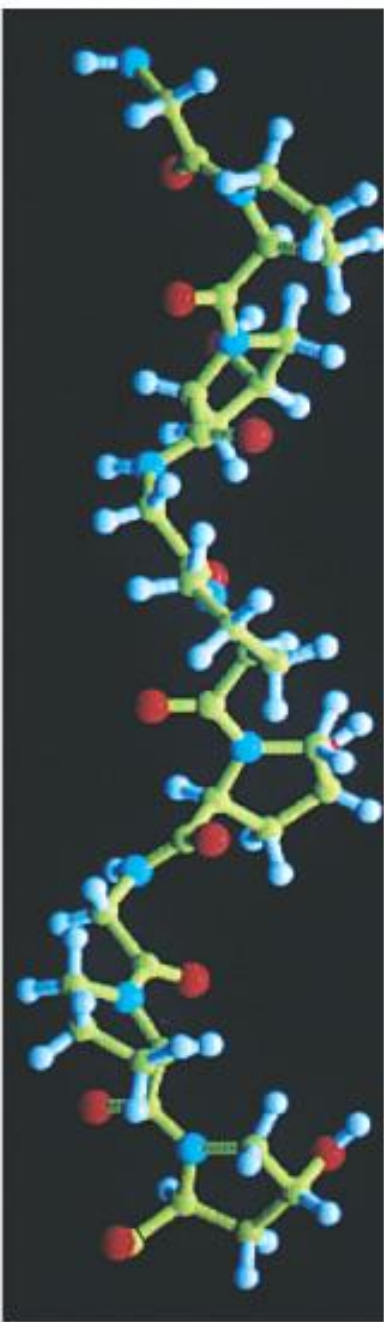


(a)

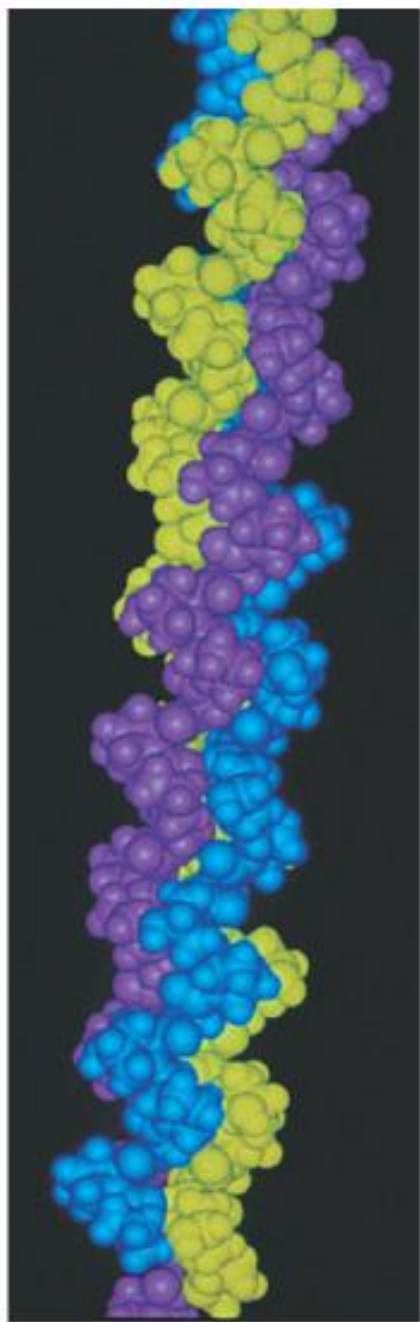


(b)

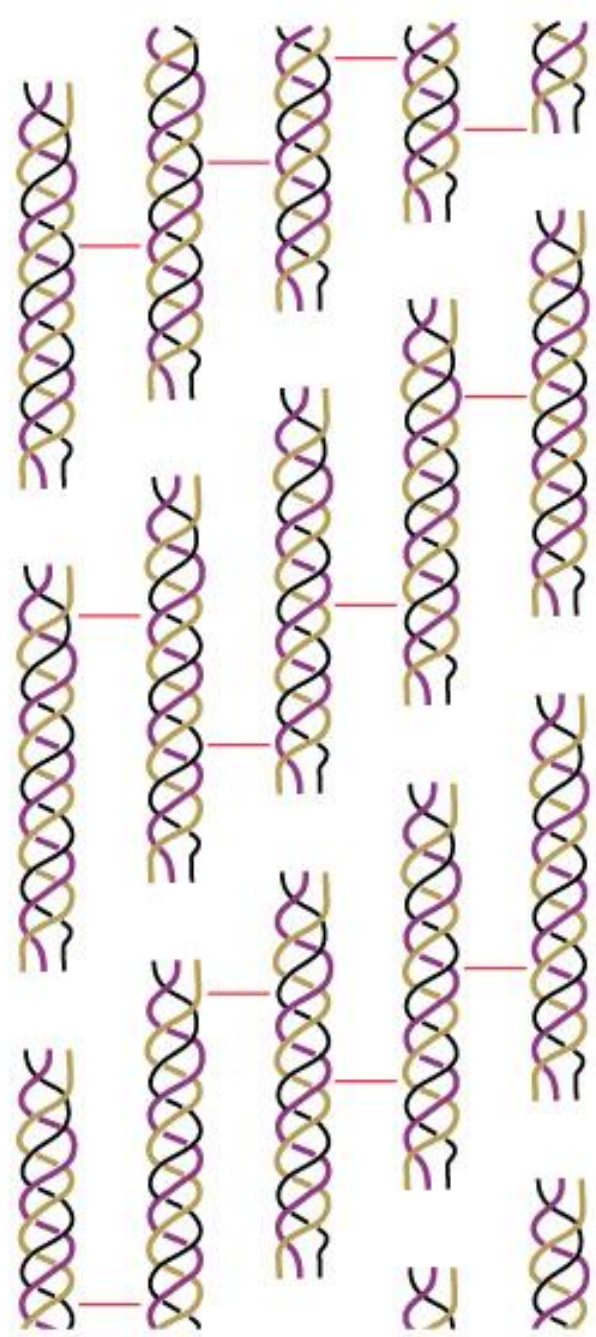




(a)

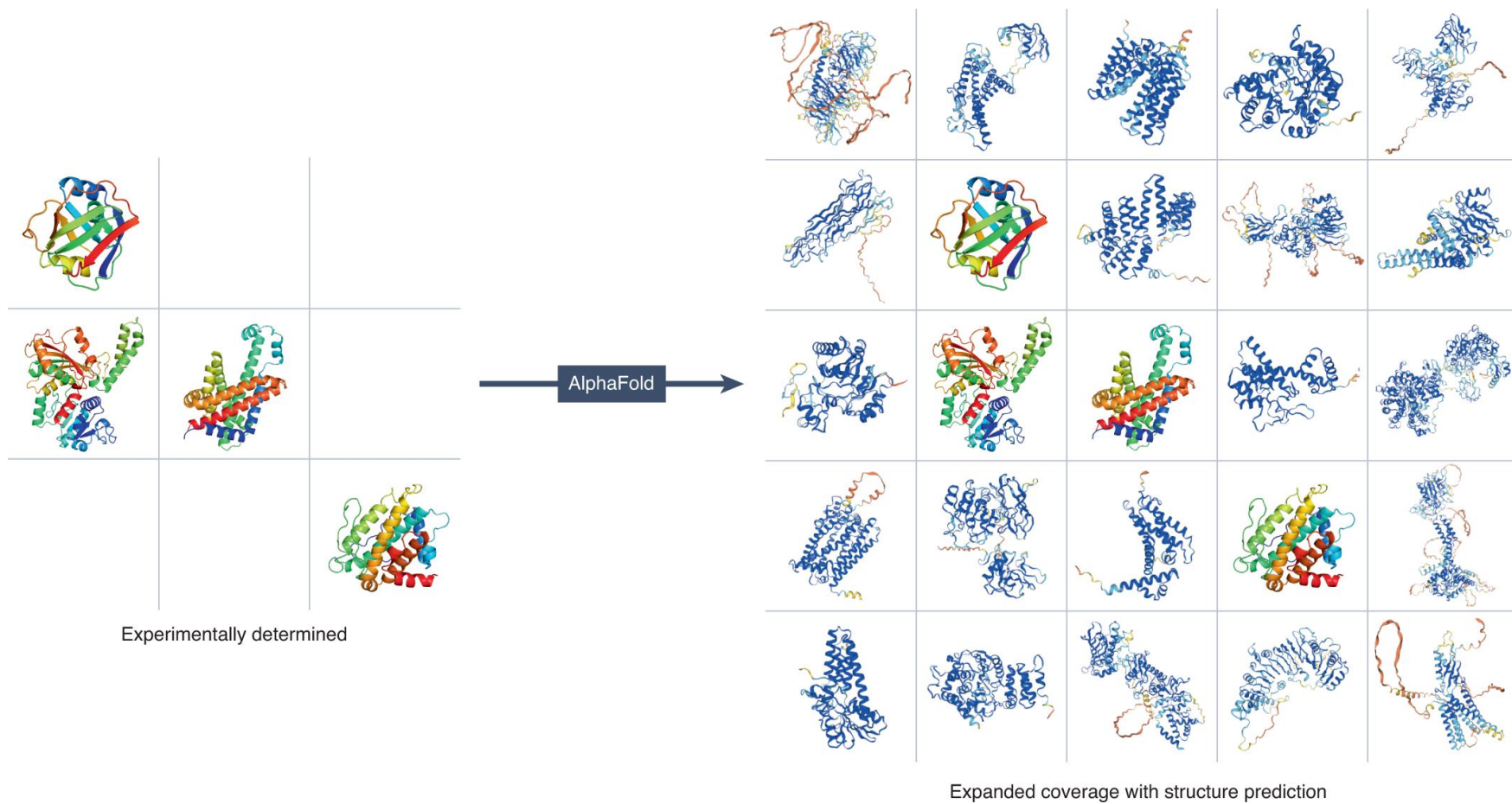


(b)

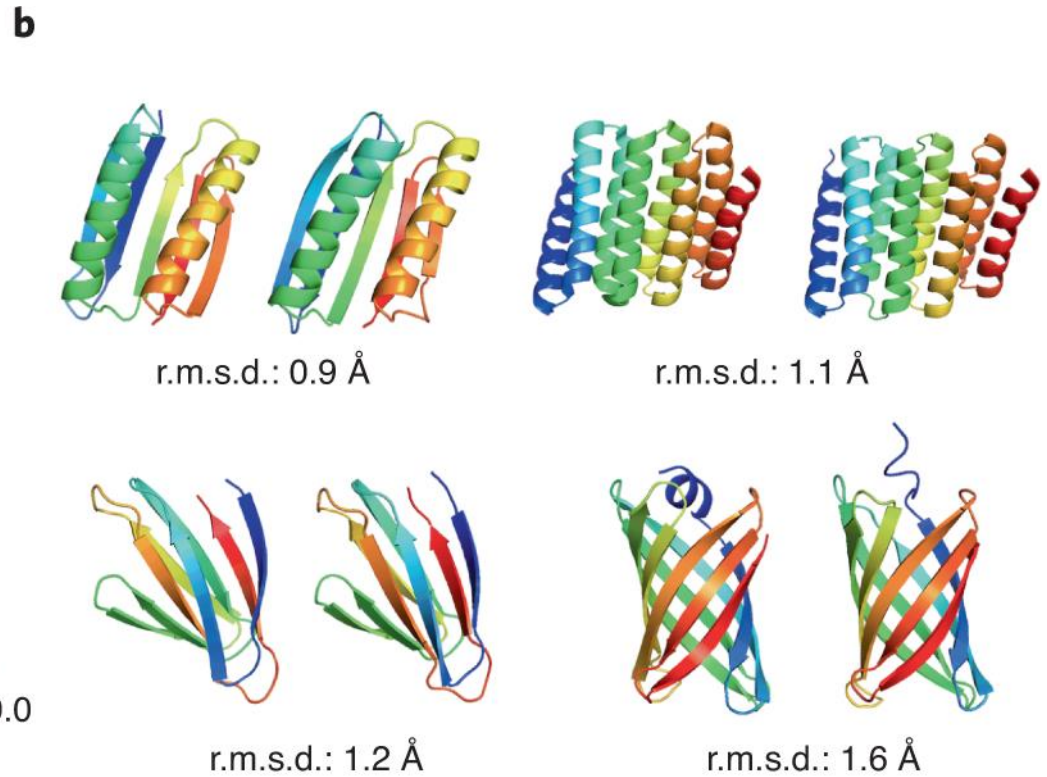
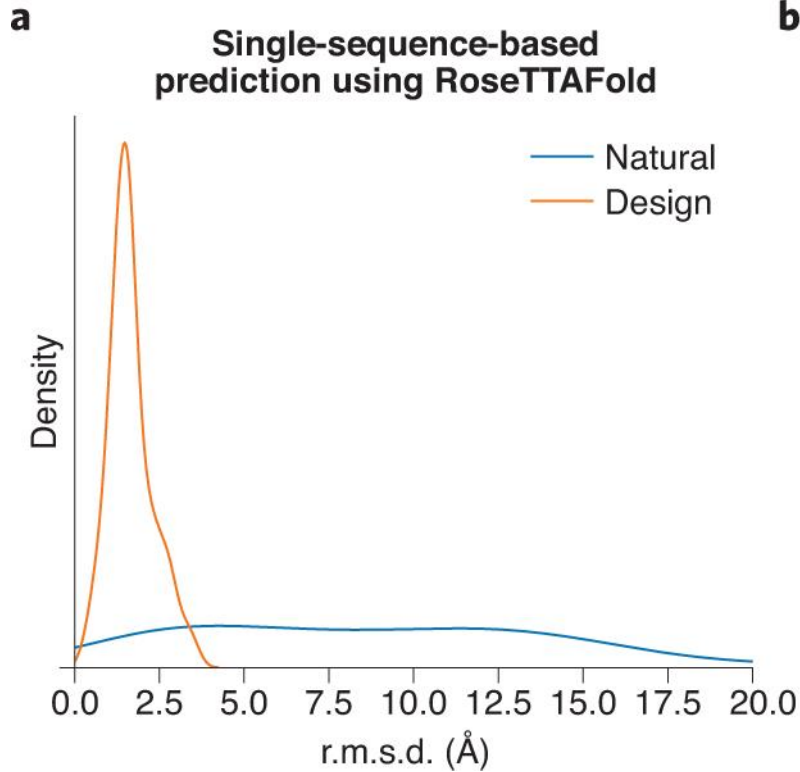


(c)

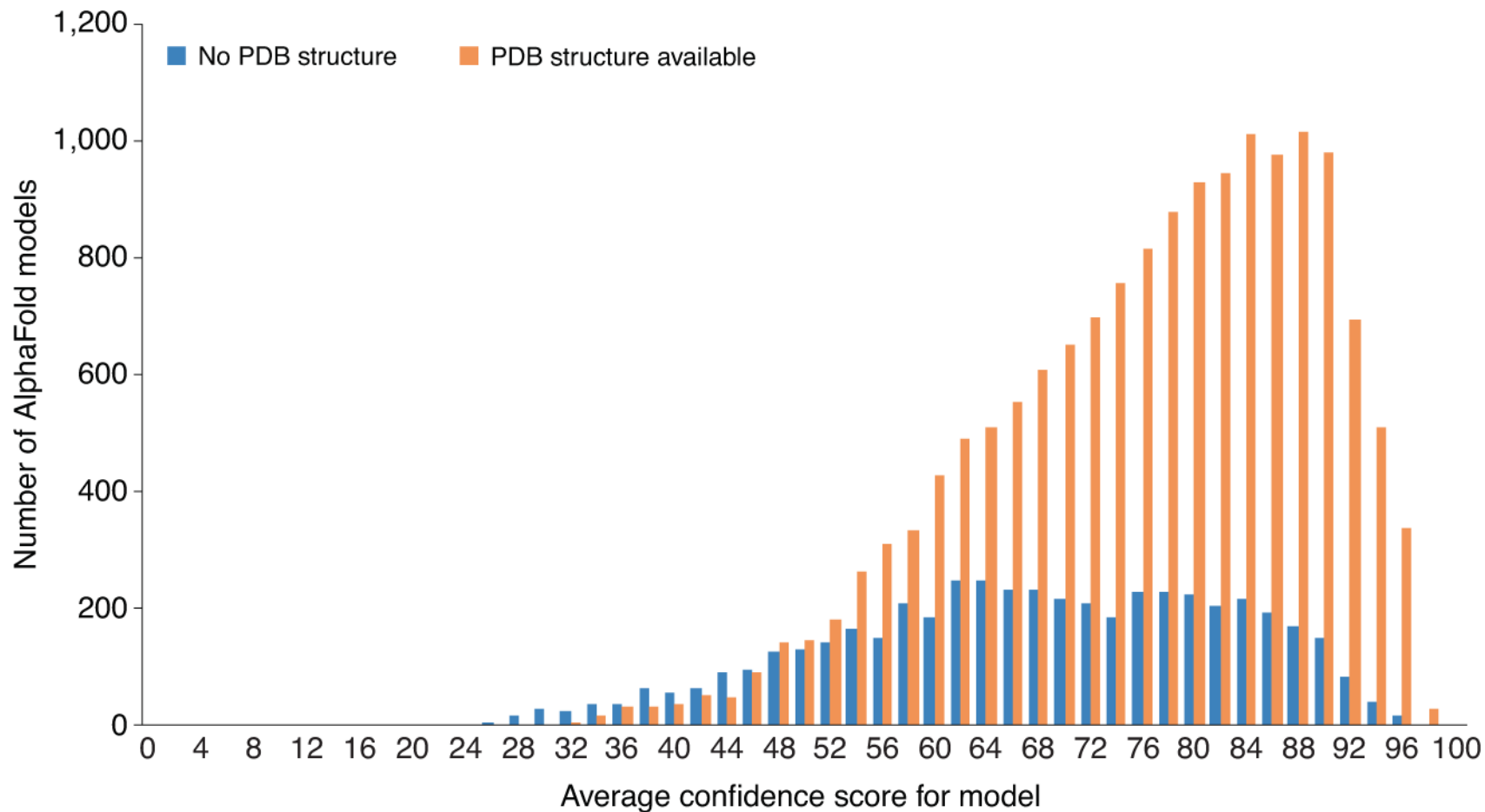
Protein structure predictions to atomic accuracy with AlphaFold



RoseTTAFold accurately predicts structures of de-novo-designed proteins from their amino acid sequences.

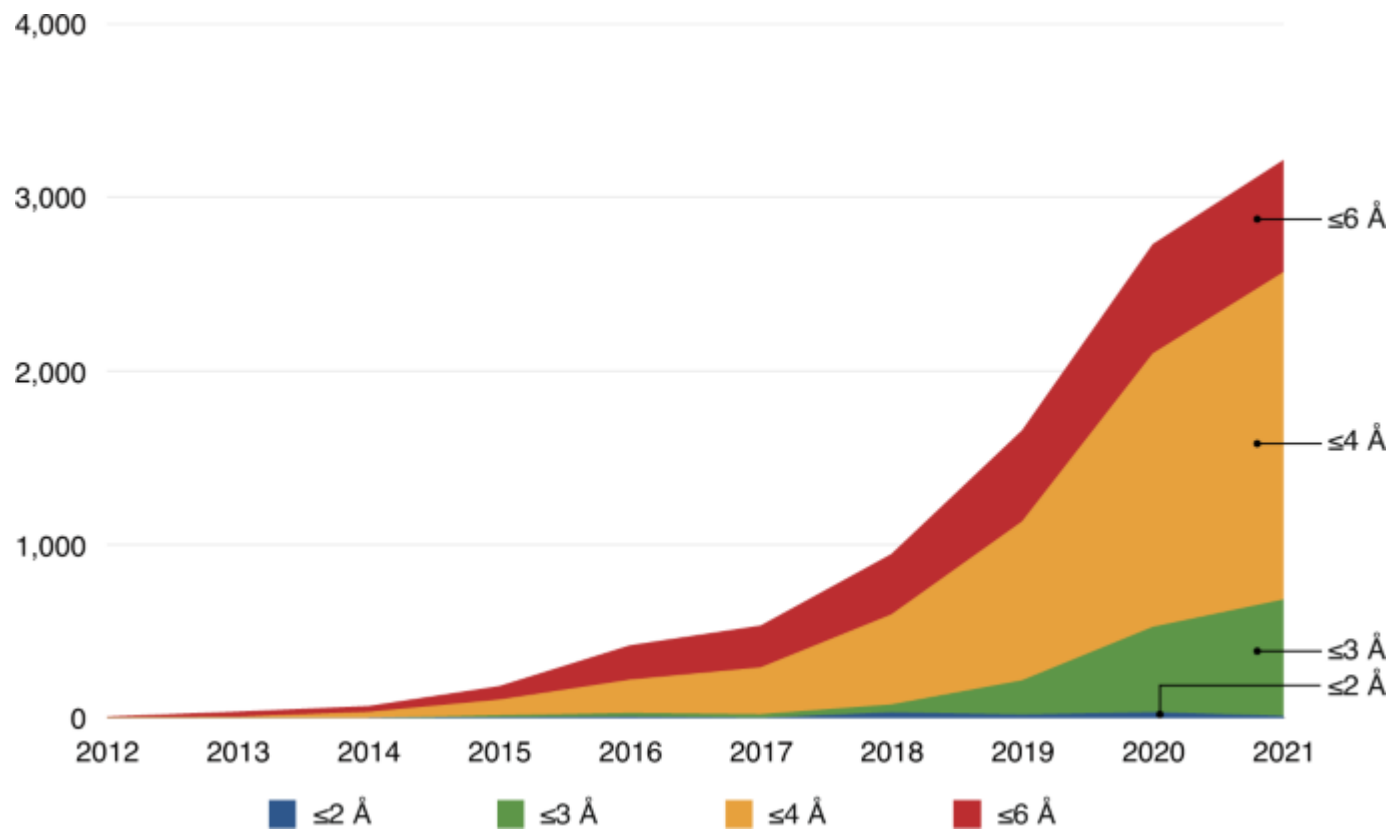


Distribution of average confidence scores for AlphaFold2 models of human proteins with and without homologs available in the PDB.



>200 M protein structure prediction

The number of entries at resolutions better than 6 Å released by the Electron Microscopy Data Bank per year from 2012 to 2021

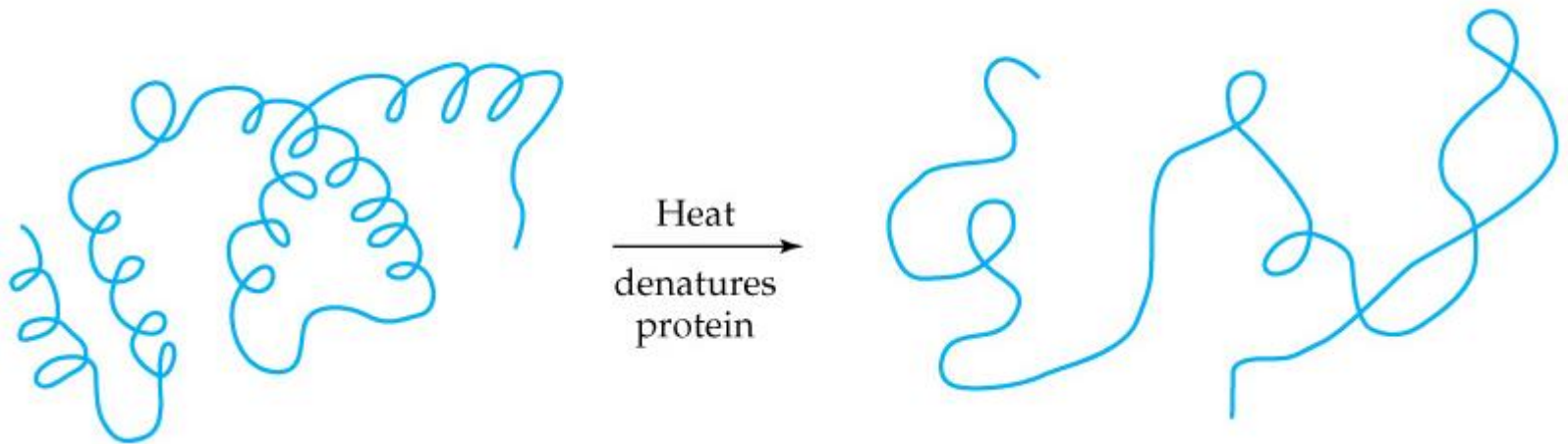


Chemical Properties of Proteins

- *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

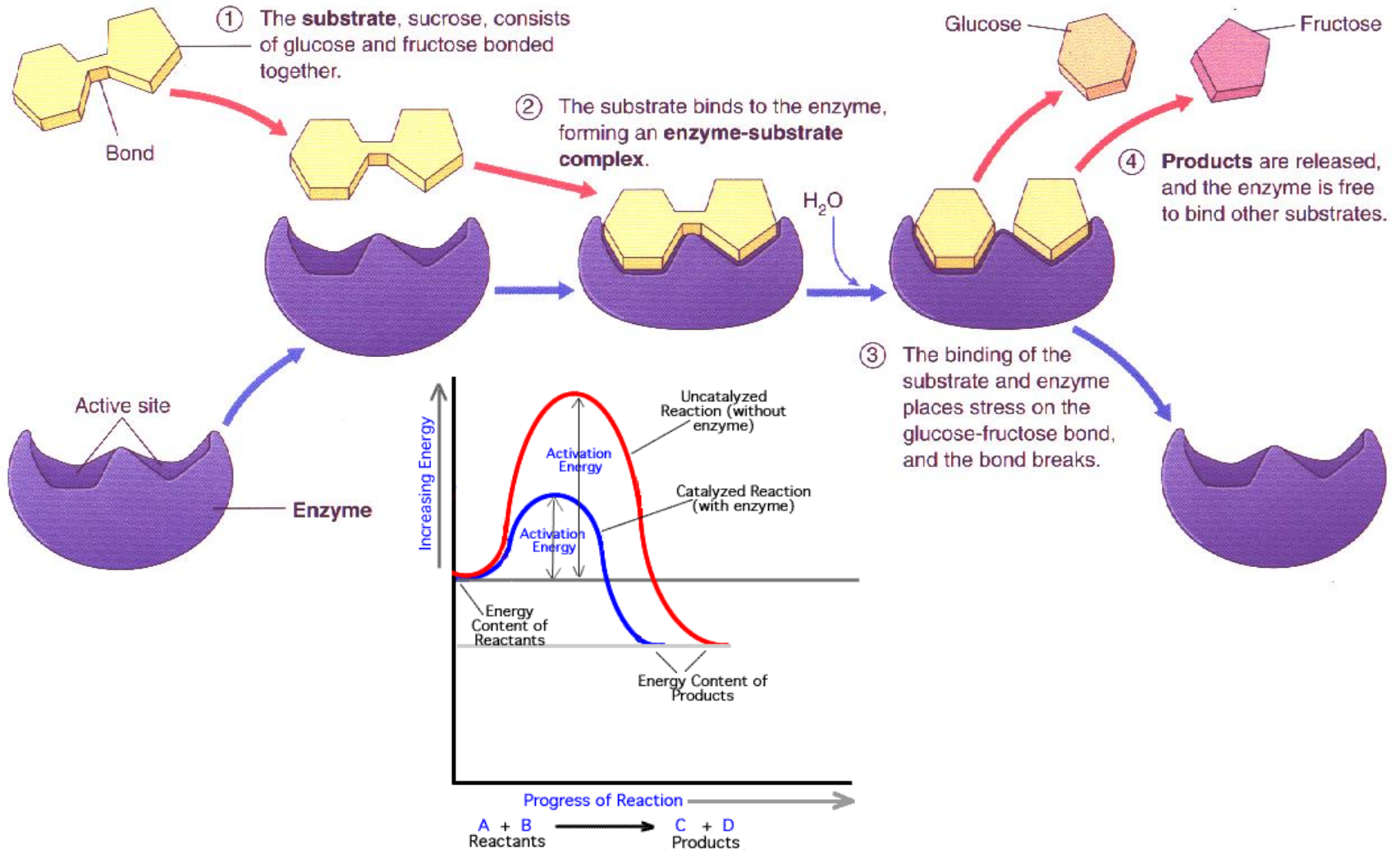


Catalysis by Enzymes

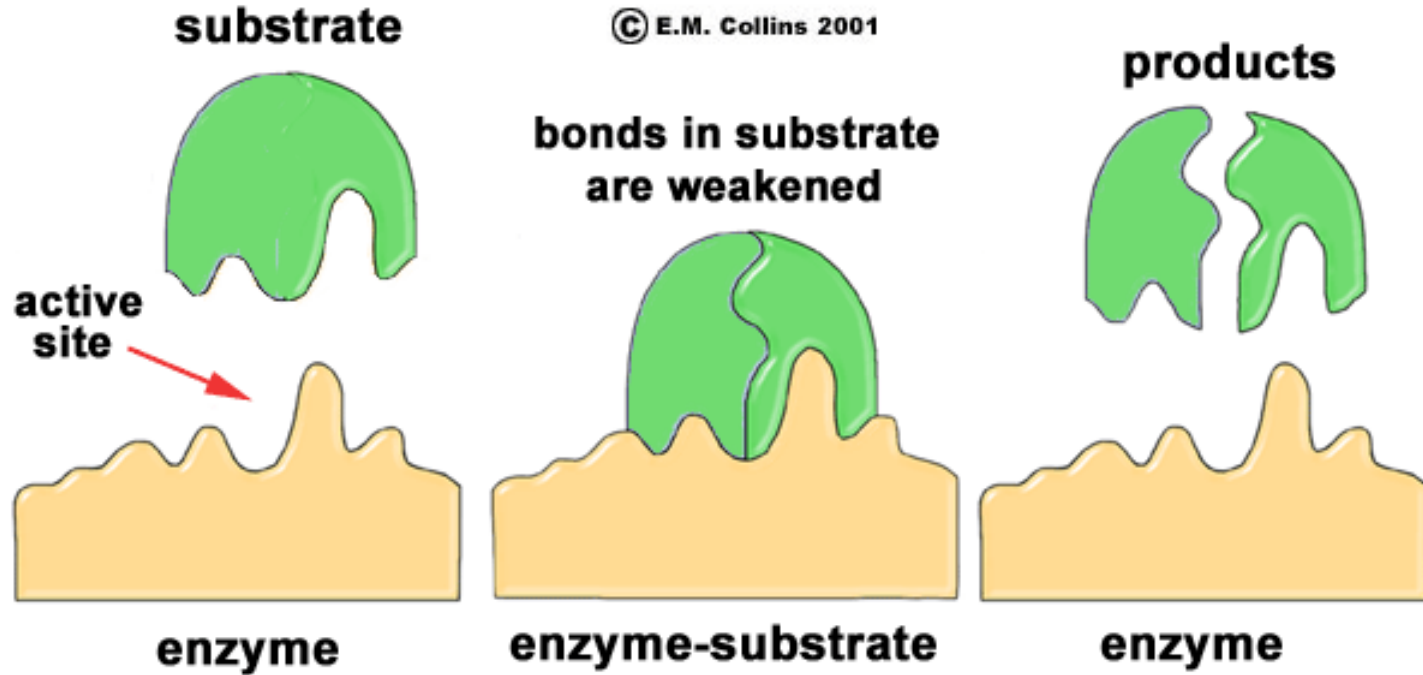
- ***Enzyme*** A protein that acts as a catalyst for a biochemical reaction.



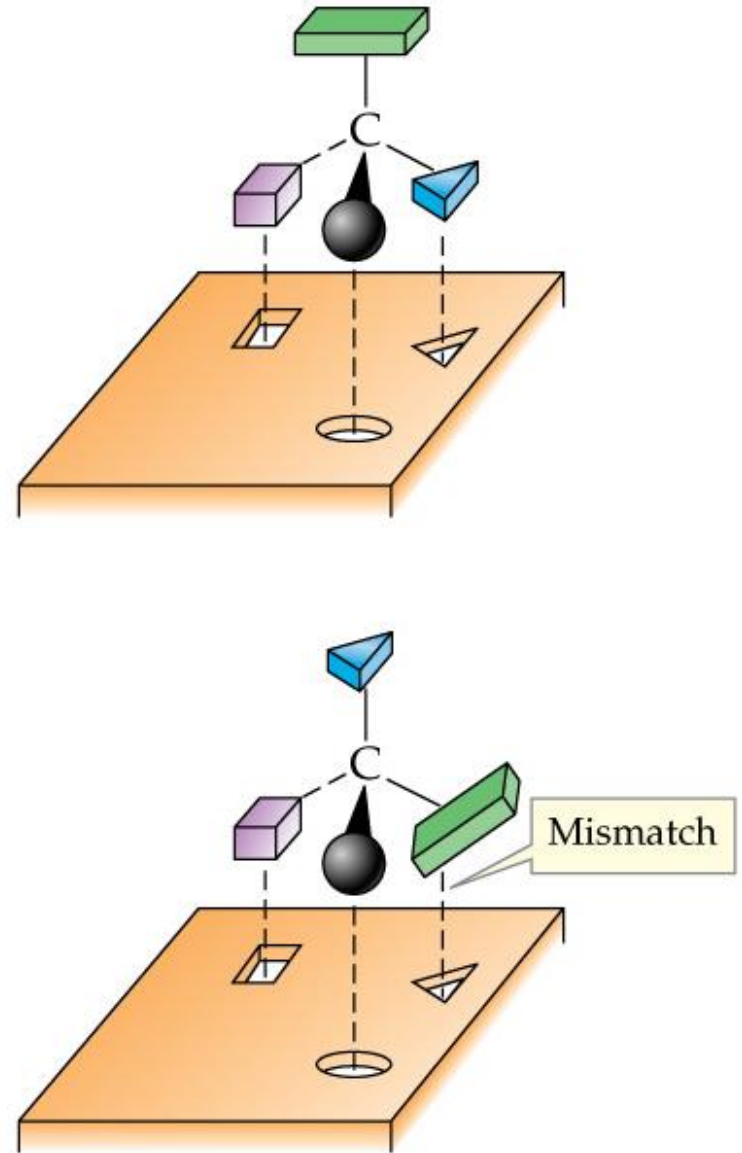
Enzymatic Reaction



Specificity



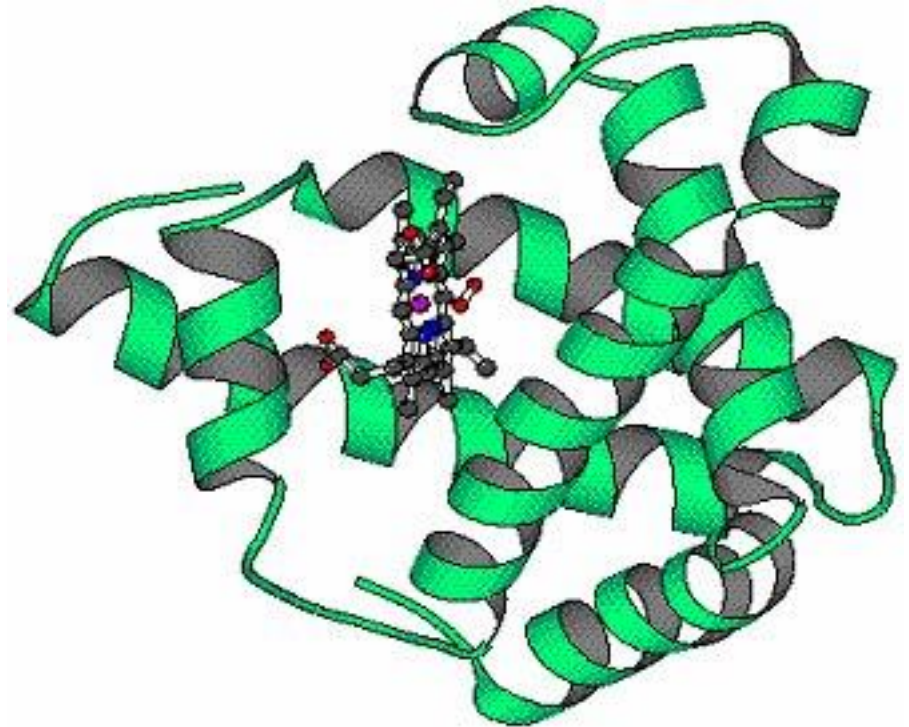
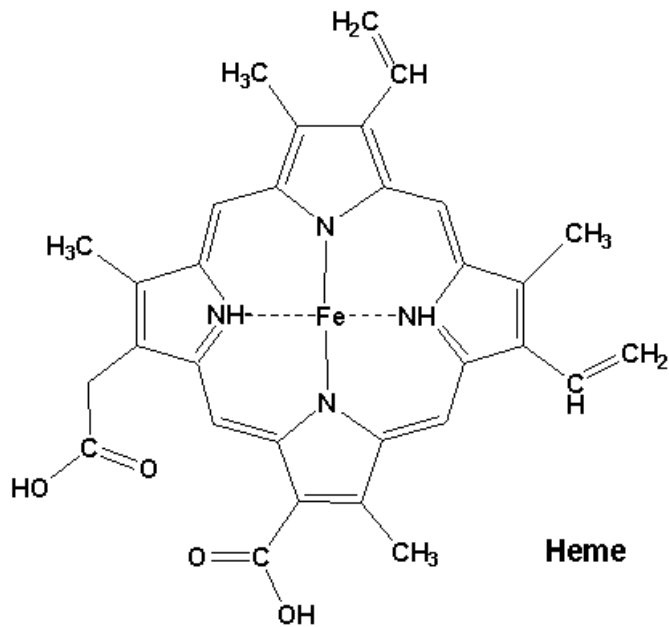
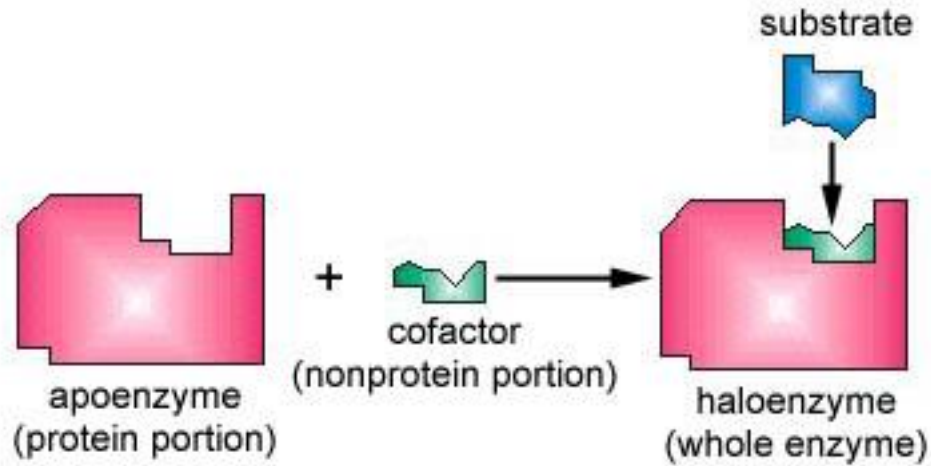
The specificity of an enzyme for one of two enantiomers is a matter of fit. One enantiomer fits better into the active site of the enzyme than the other enantiomer. Enzyme catalyzes reaction of the enantiomer that fits better into the active site of the enzyme.



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.

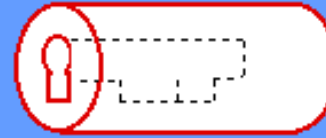
How Enzyme Work

- 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.

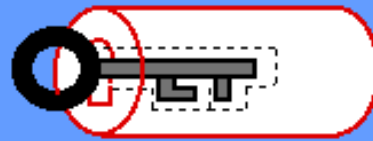
Lock and Key Analogy



key = substrate



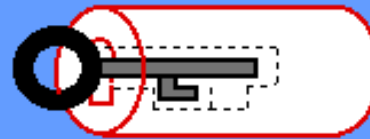
lock = enzyme



correct fit,
will react

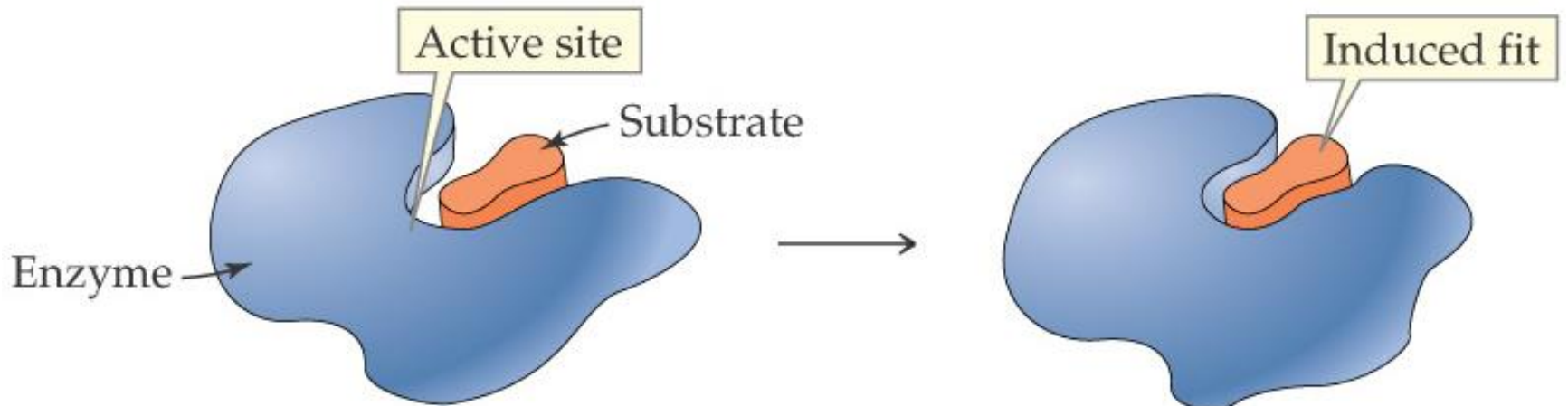


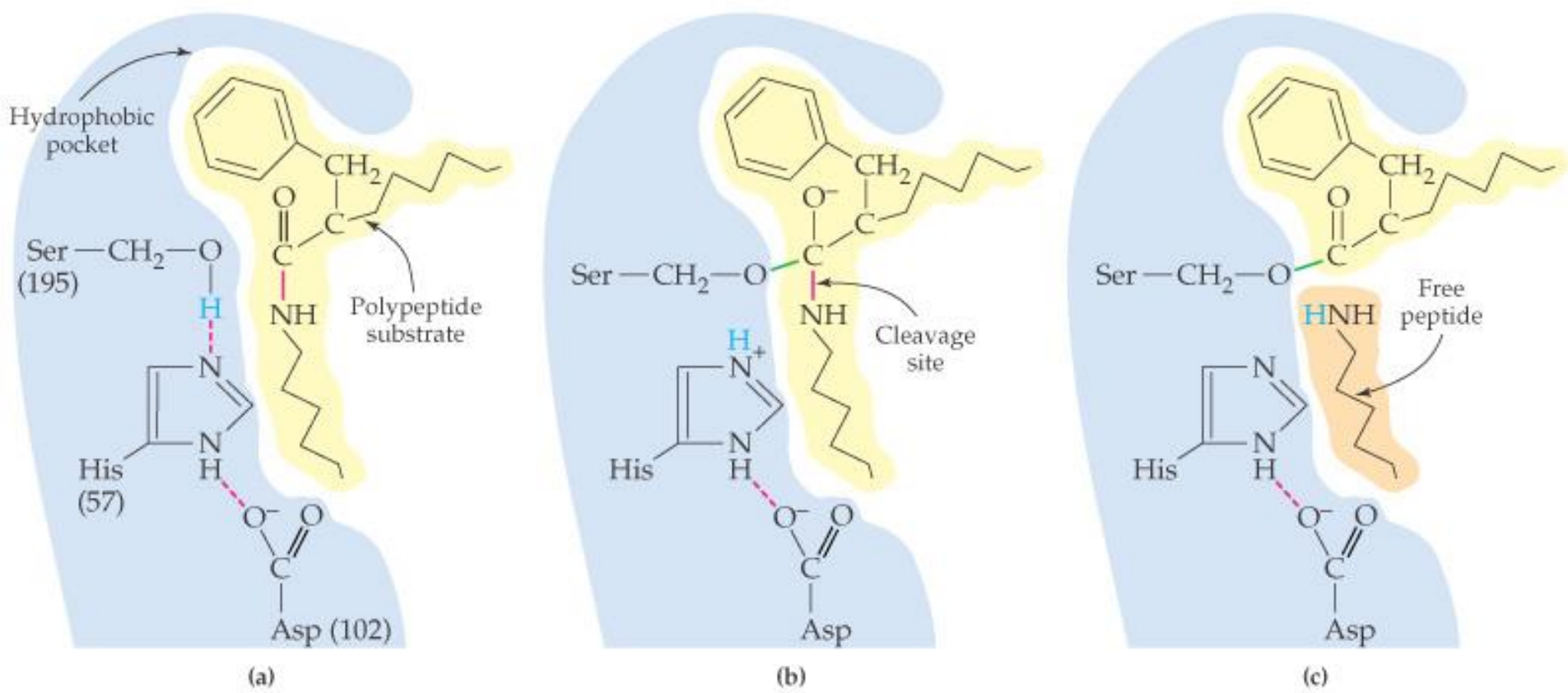
incorrect substrate



no reaction

C. Ophardt, c. 2003





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.

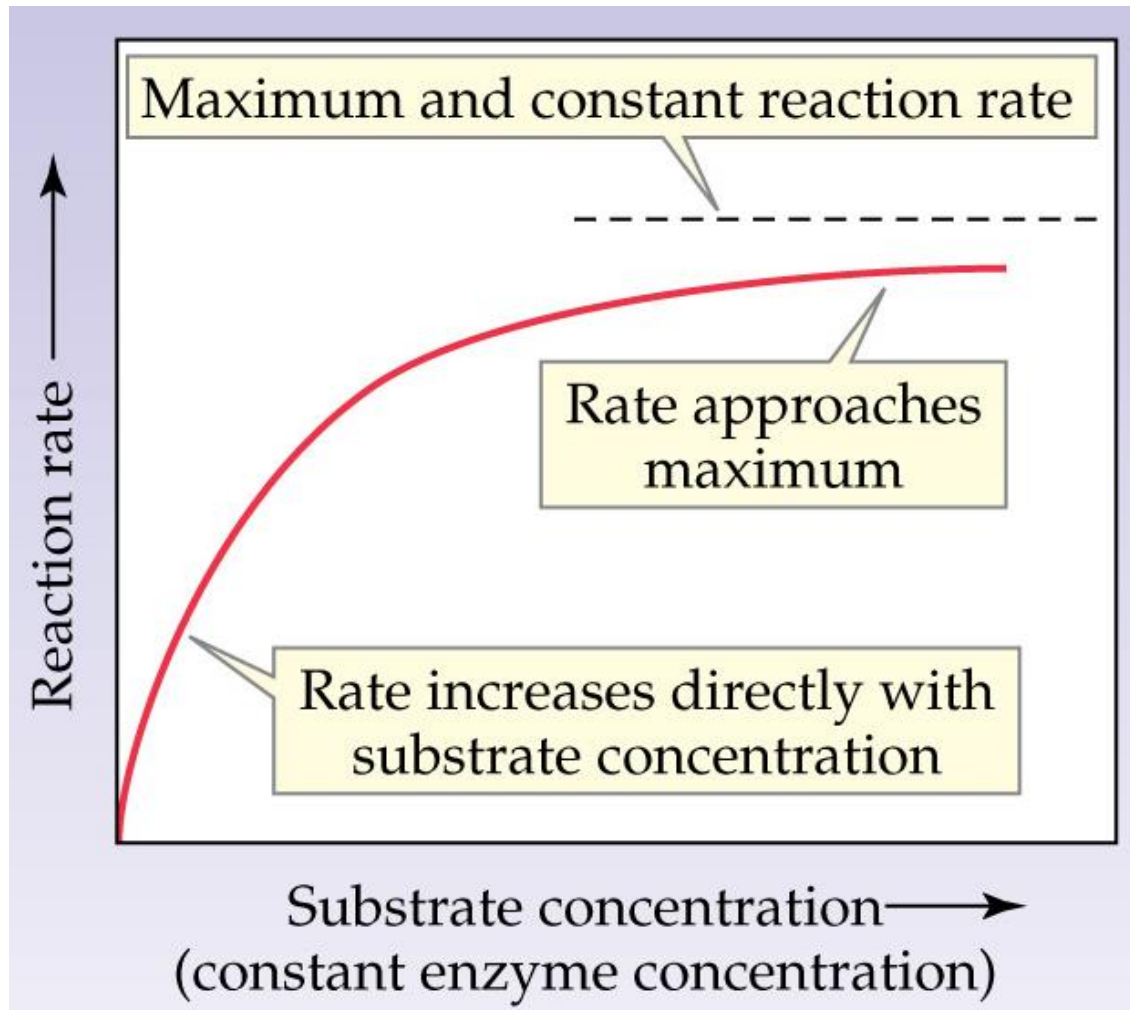
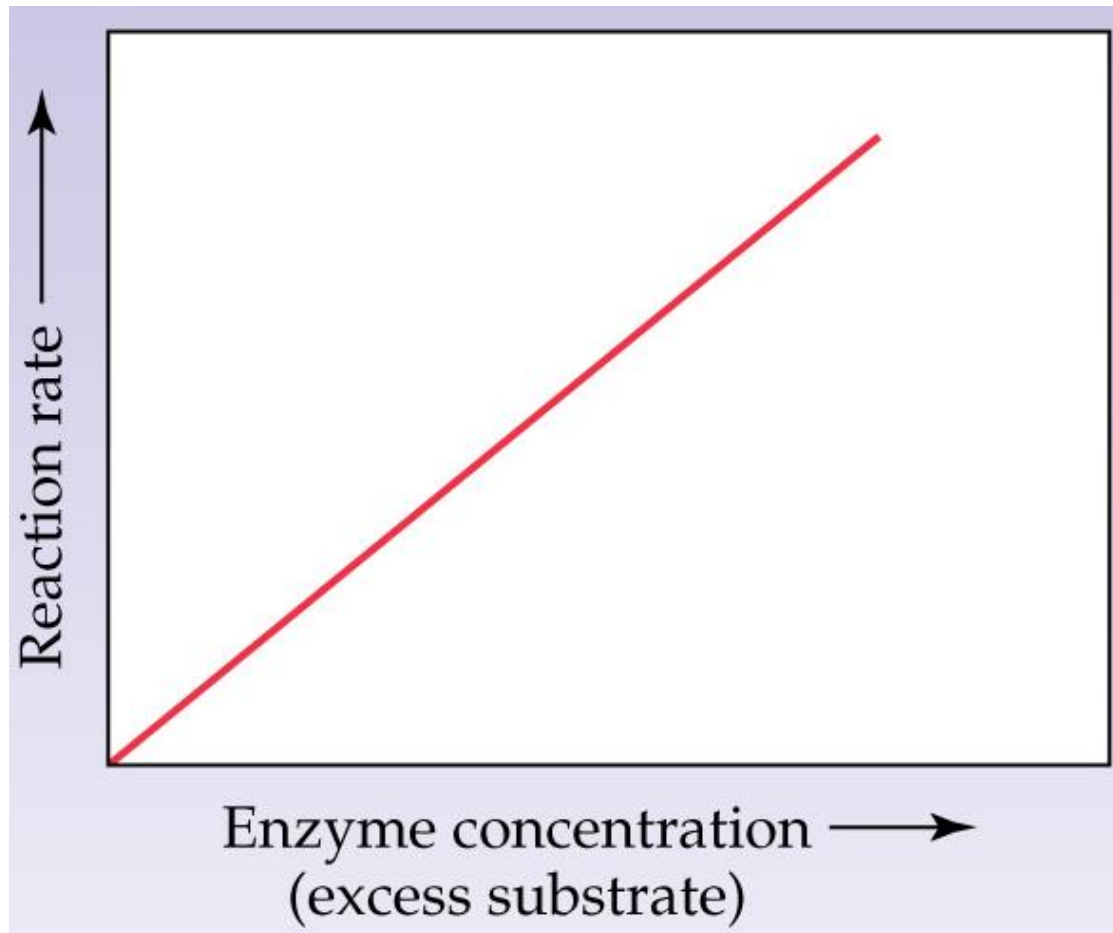


Fig 19.5 Change of reaction rate with substrate concentration when enzyme concentration is constant.

- *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.

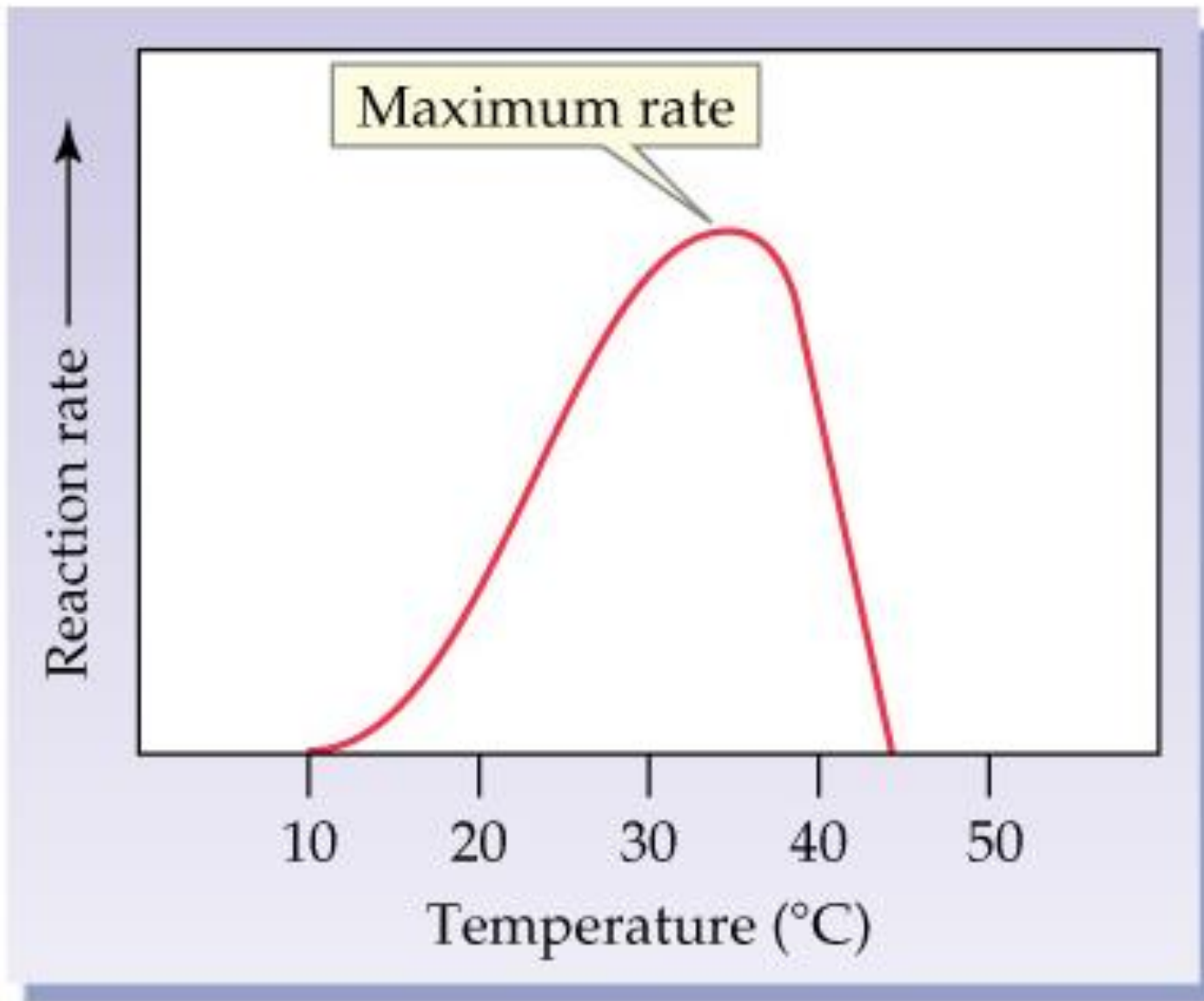
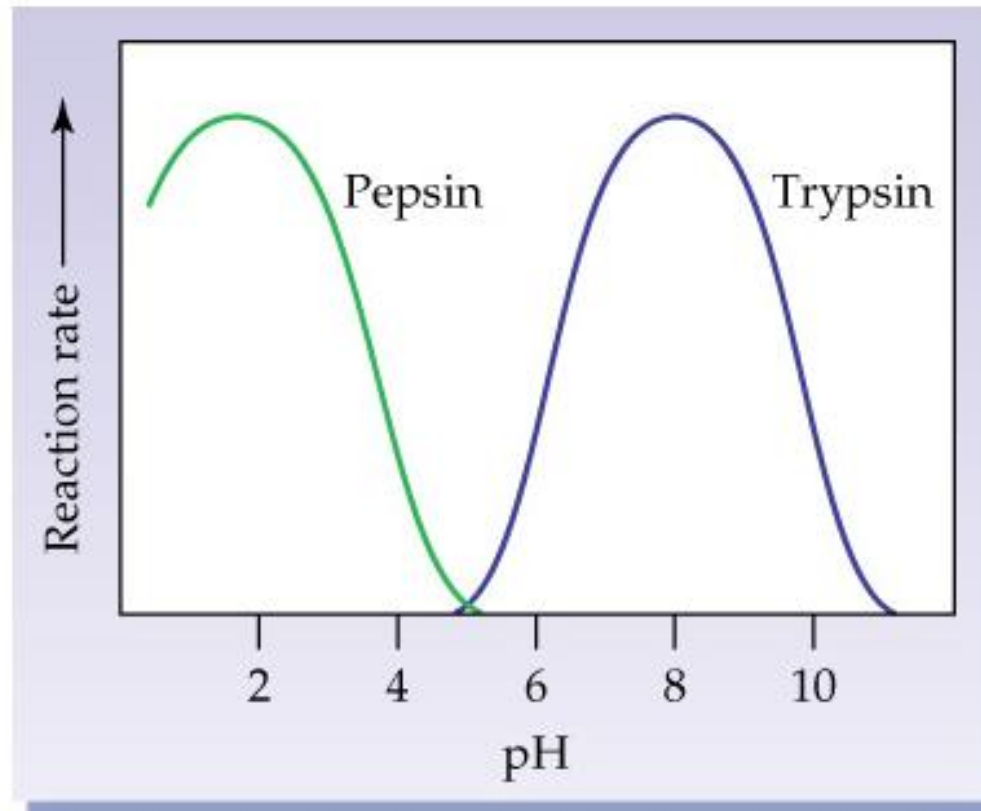


Fig 19.7 (a) Effect of temperature on reaction rate

- 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.



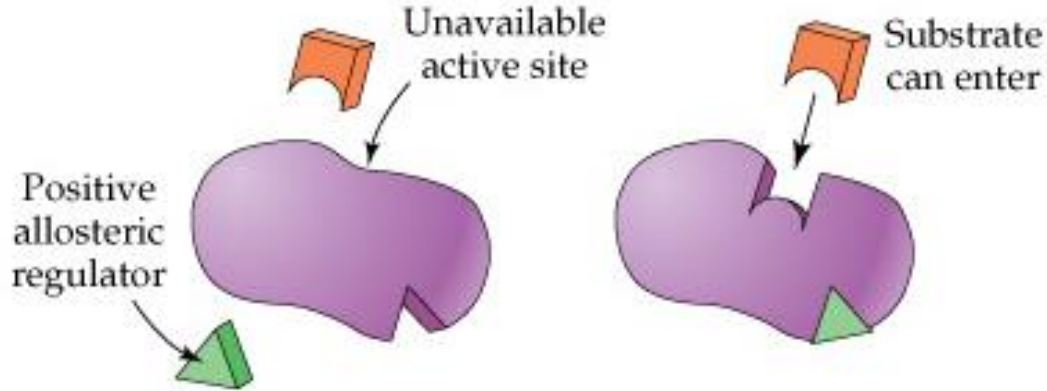
19.7 Enzyme Regulation: Feedback and Allosteric Control

- 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

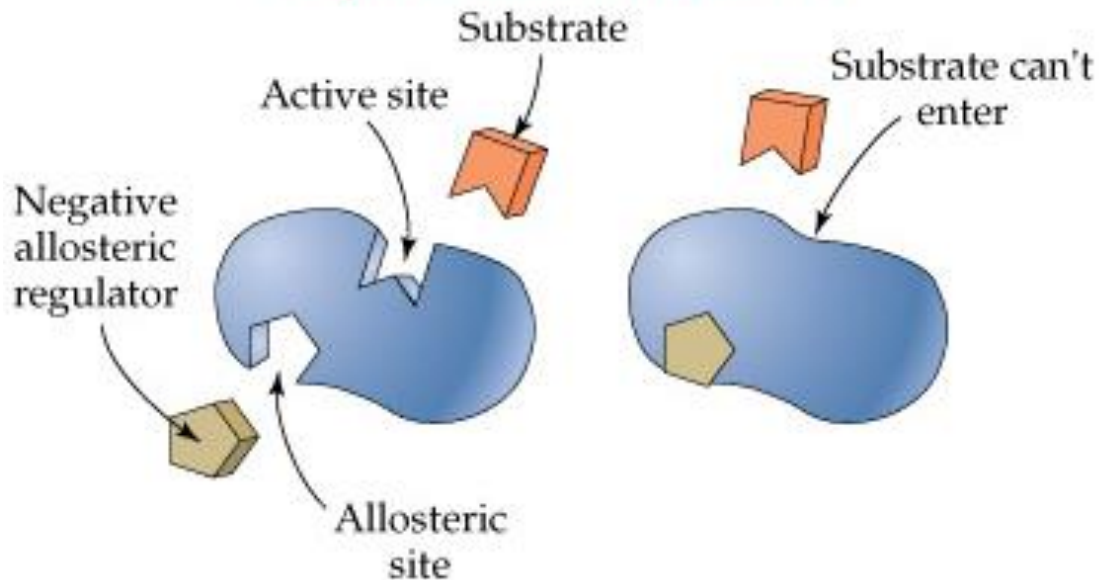
- **Feedback control:** Regulation of an enzyme's activity by the product of a reaction later in a pathway.
- **Allosteric control:** Activity of an enzyme is controlled by the binding of an activator or inhibitor at a location other than the active site. Allosteric controls are further classified as 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



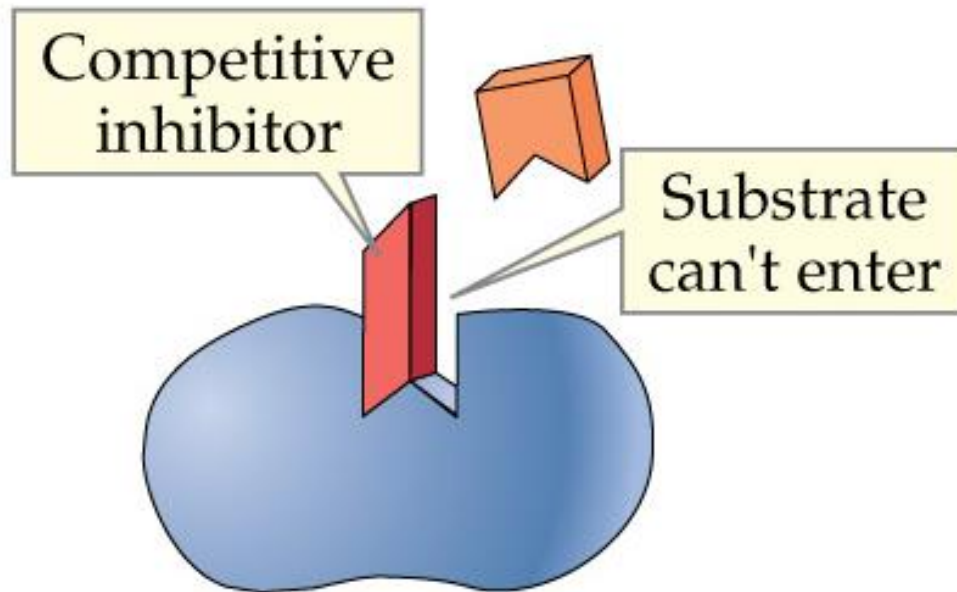
A negative regulator changes the activity site so that the enzyme becomes less effective catalyst and rate slows down.

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.

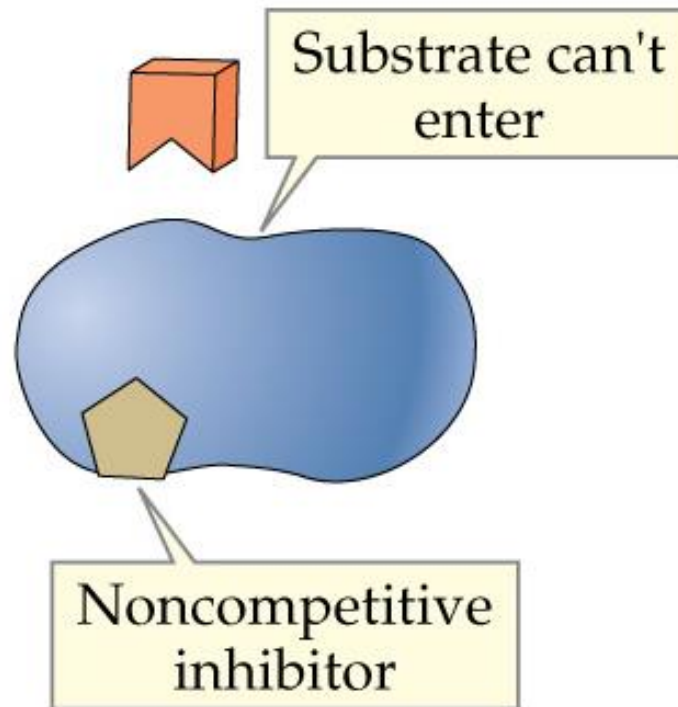
- Inhibitions are further classified as:
- *Competitive inhibition* if the inhibitor binds to the active site.

Competitive inhibition

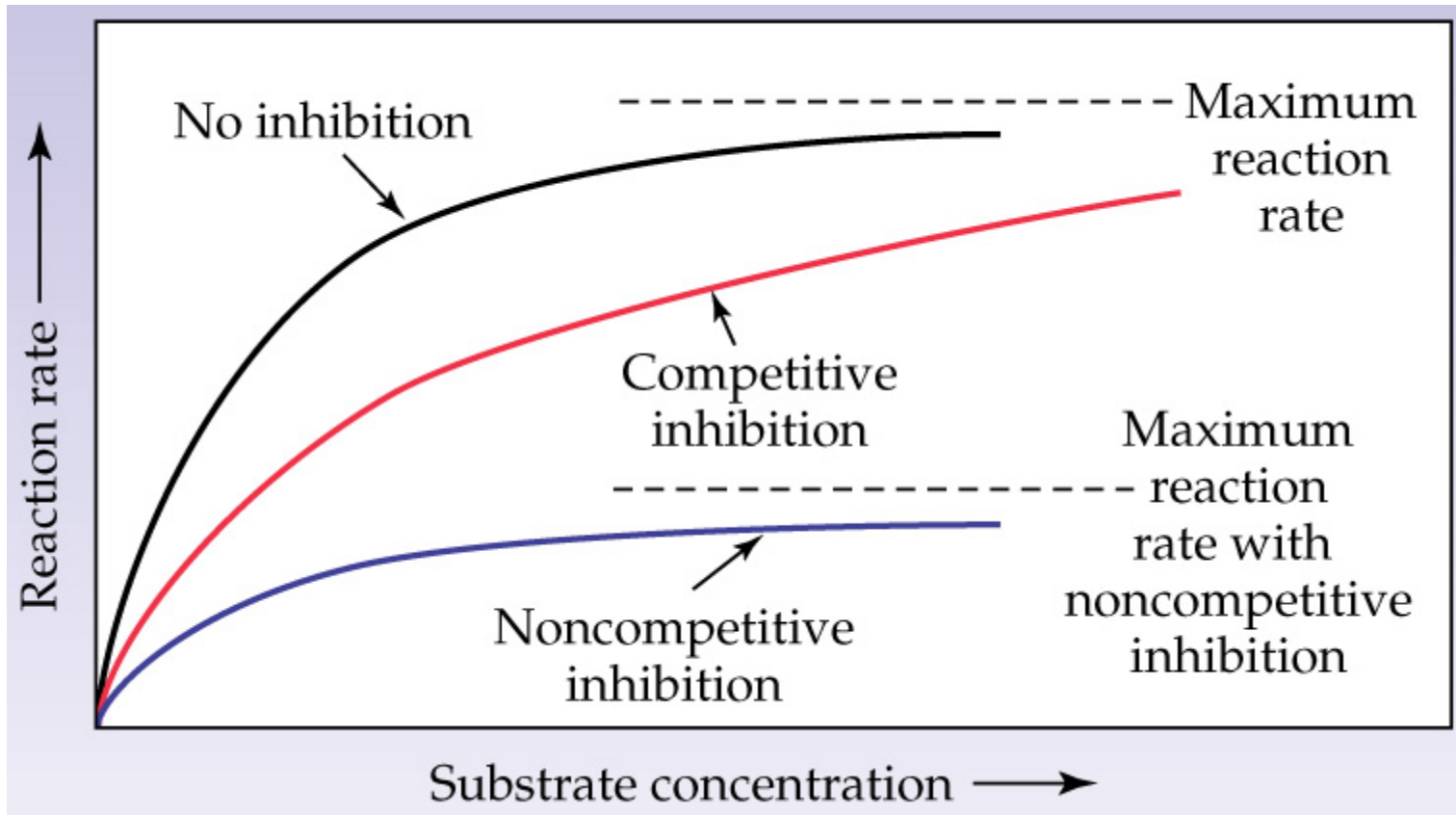


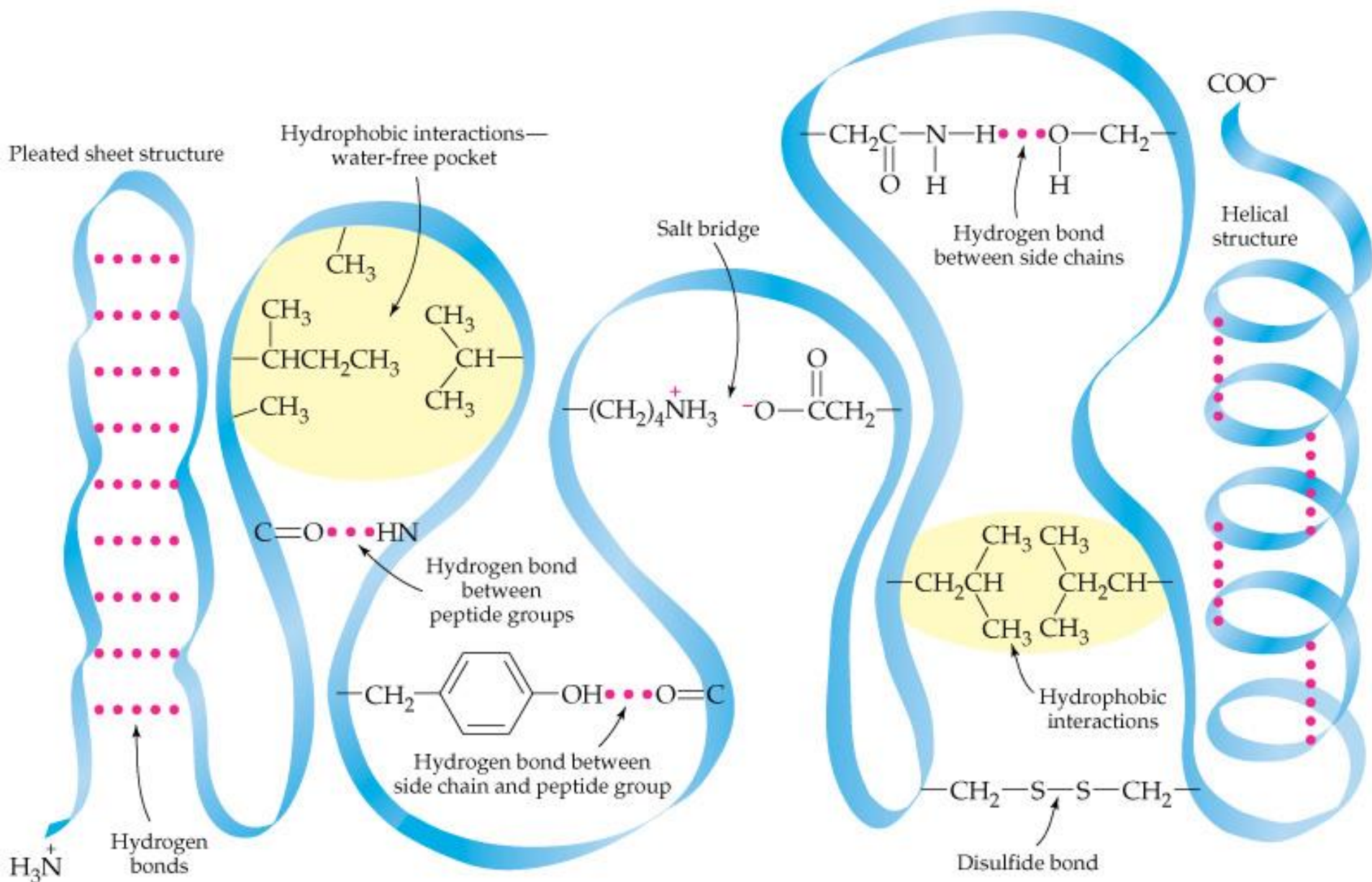
- *Noncompetitive inhibition*, if the inhibitor binds elsewhere and not to the active site.

Noncompetitive inhibition



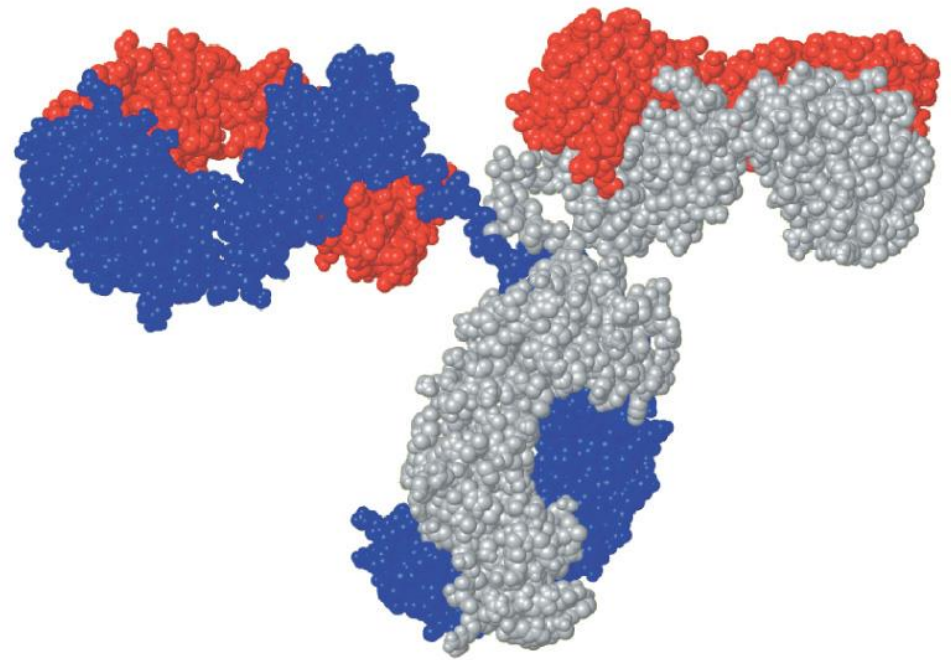
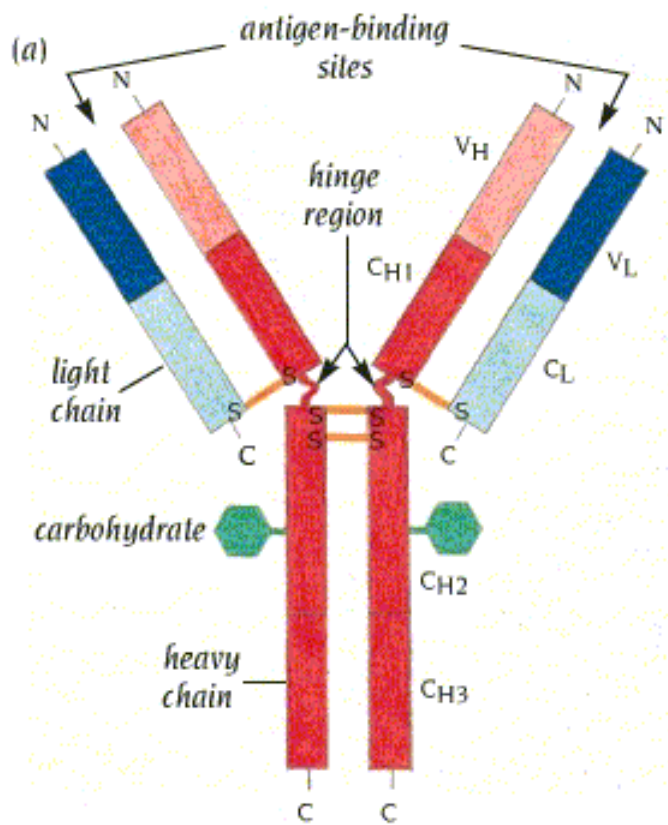
- The rates of enzyme catalyzed reactions with or without a competitive inhibitor are shown in the Fig 19.9 below.



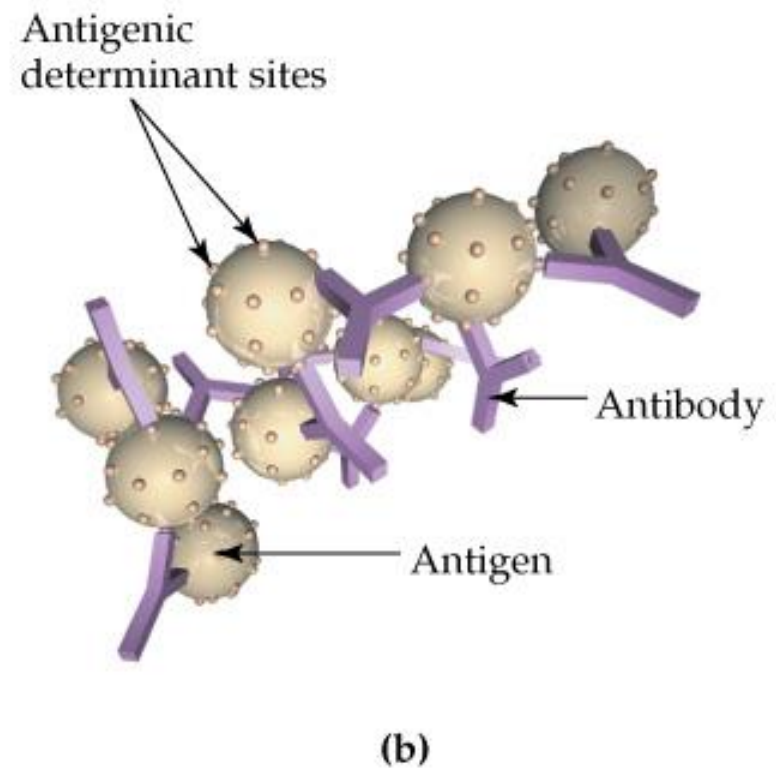
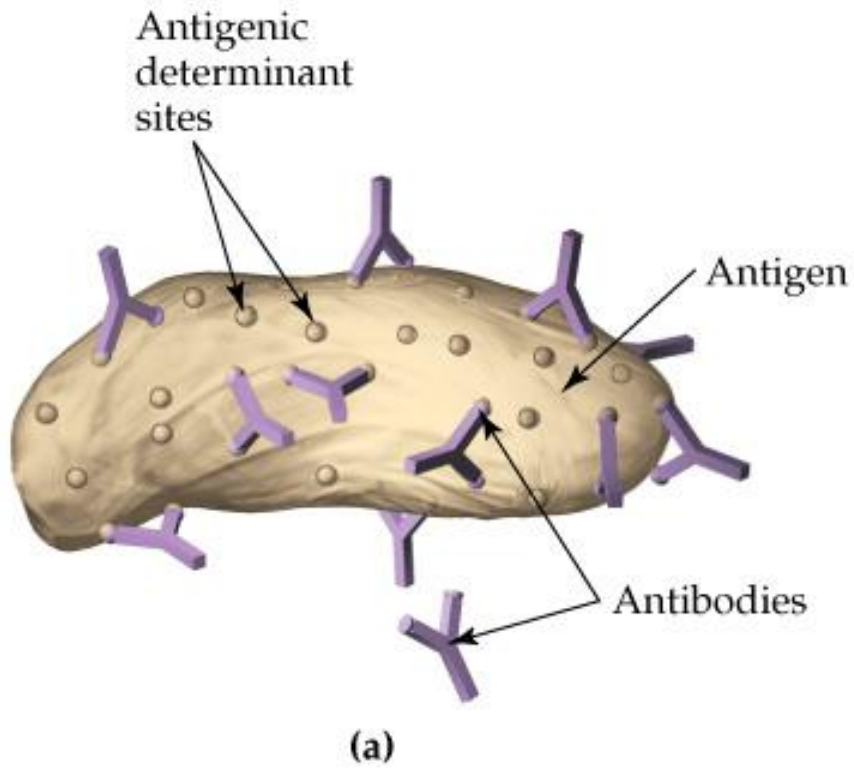


Shape-Determining Interactions in Proteins

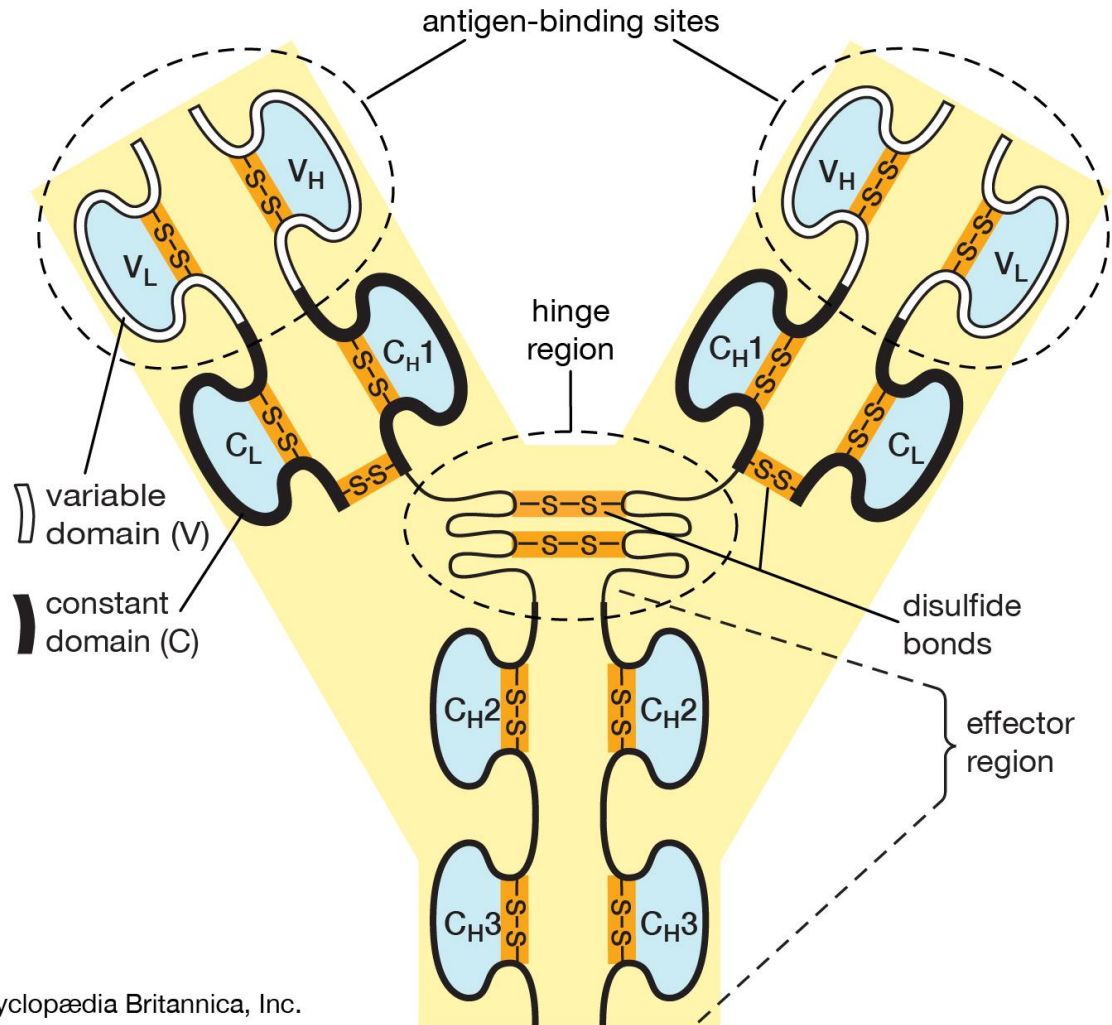
- The essential structure-function relationship for each protein depends on the polypeptide chain being held in its necessary shape by the interactions of atoms in the side chains.



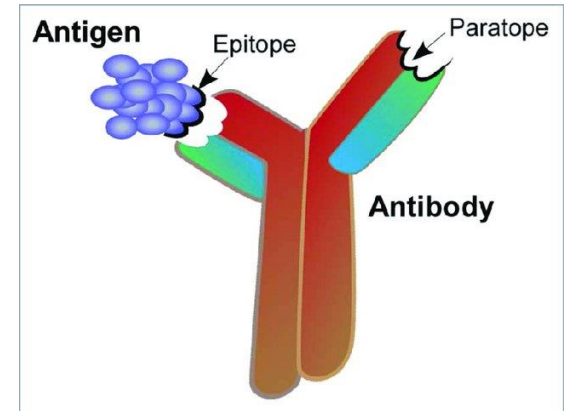
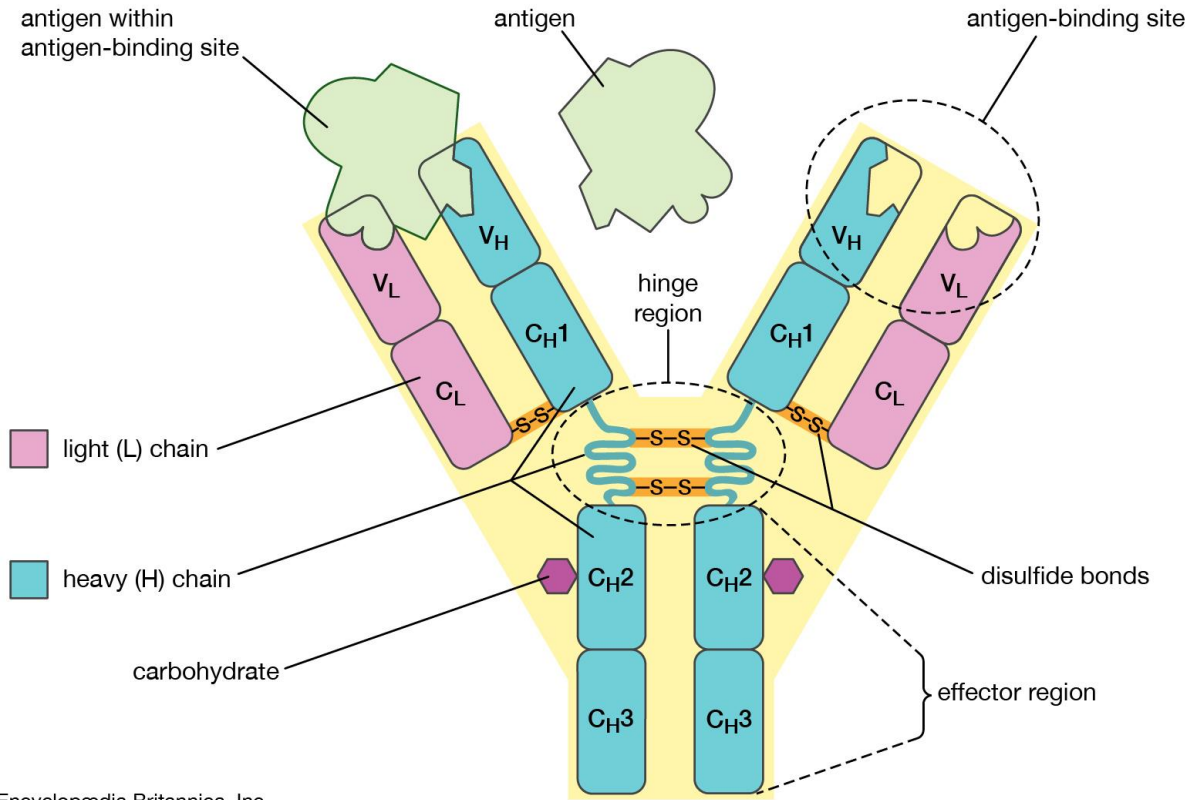
(b)

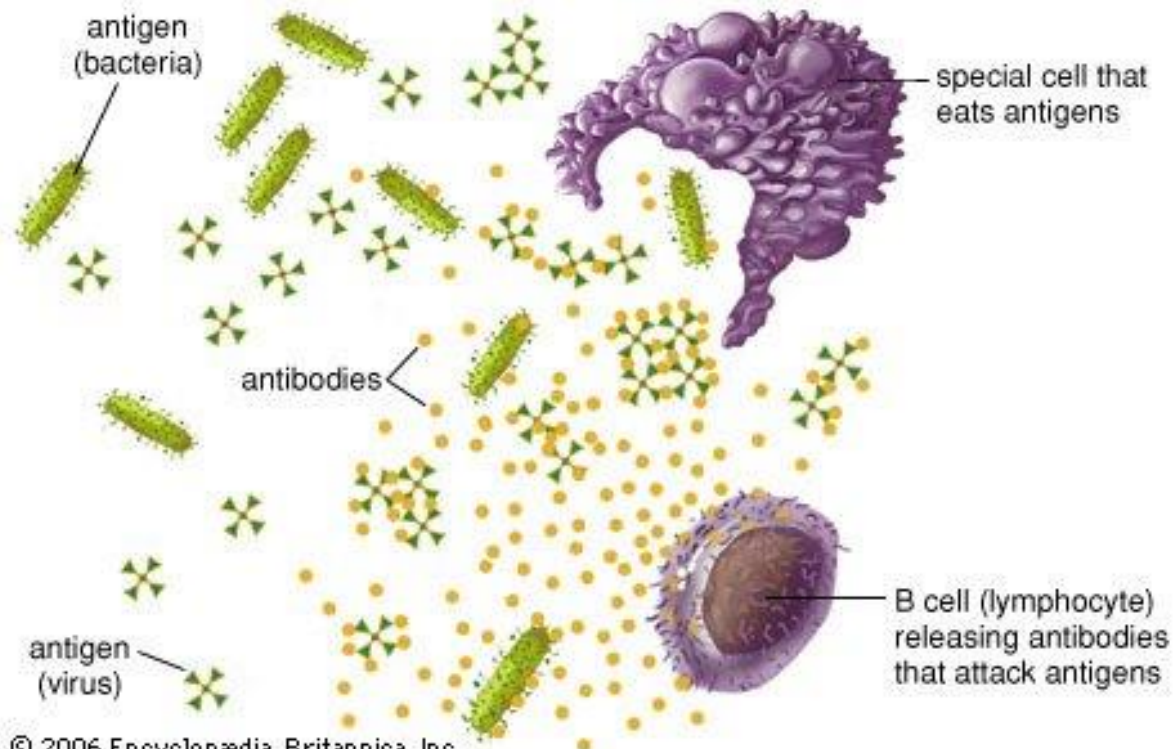


Antibody



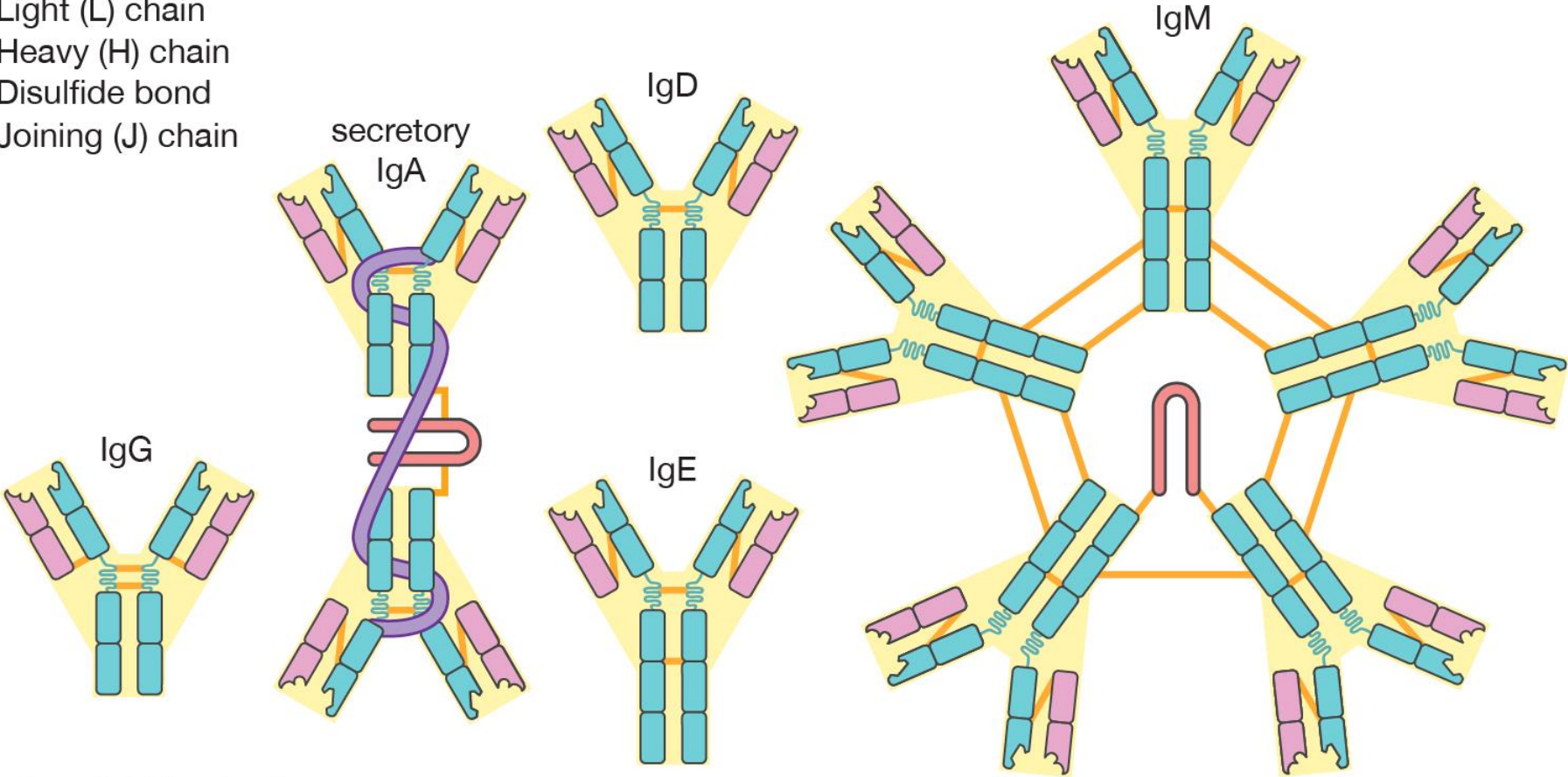
Antibody Binding Sites



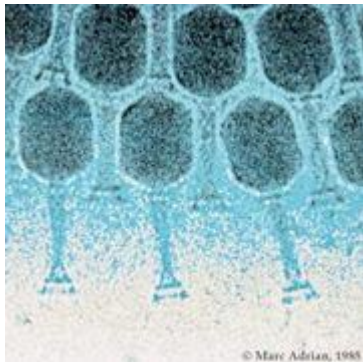
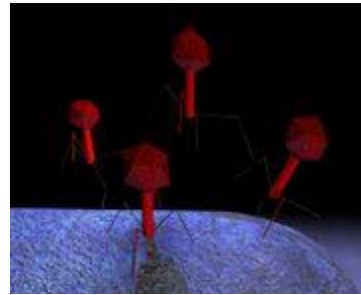
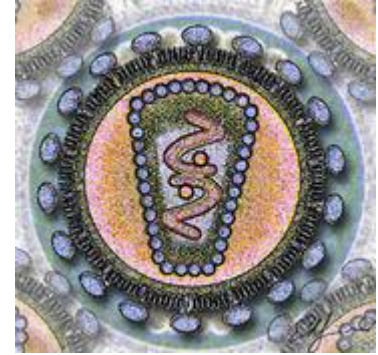
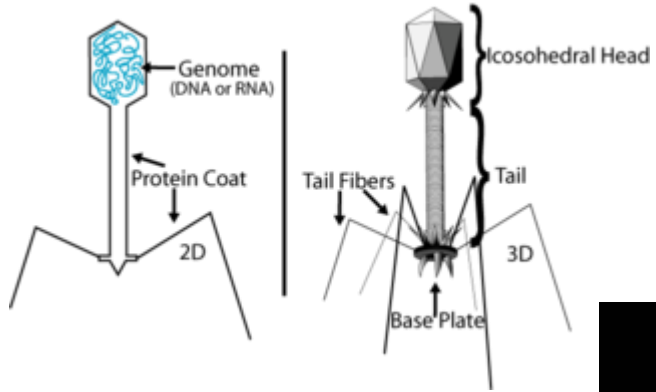


Different Types of Antibodies

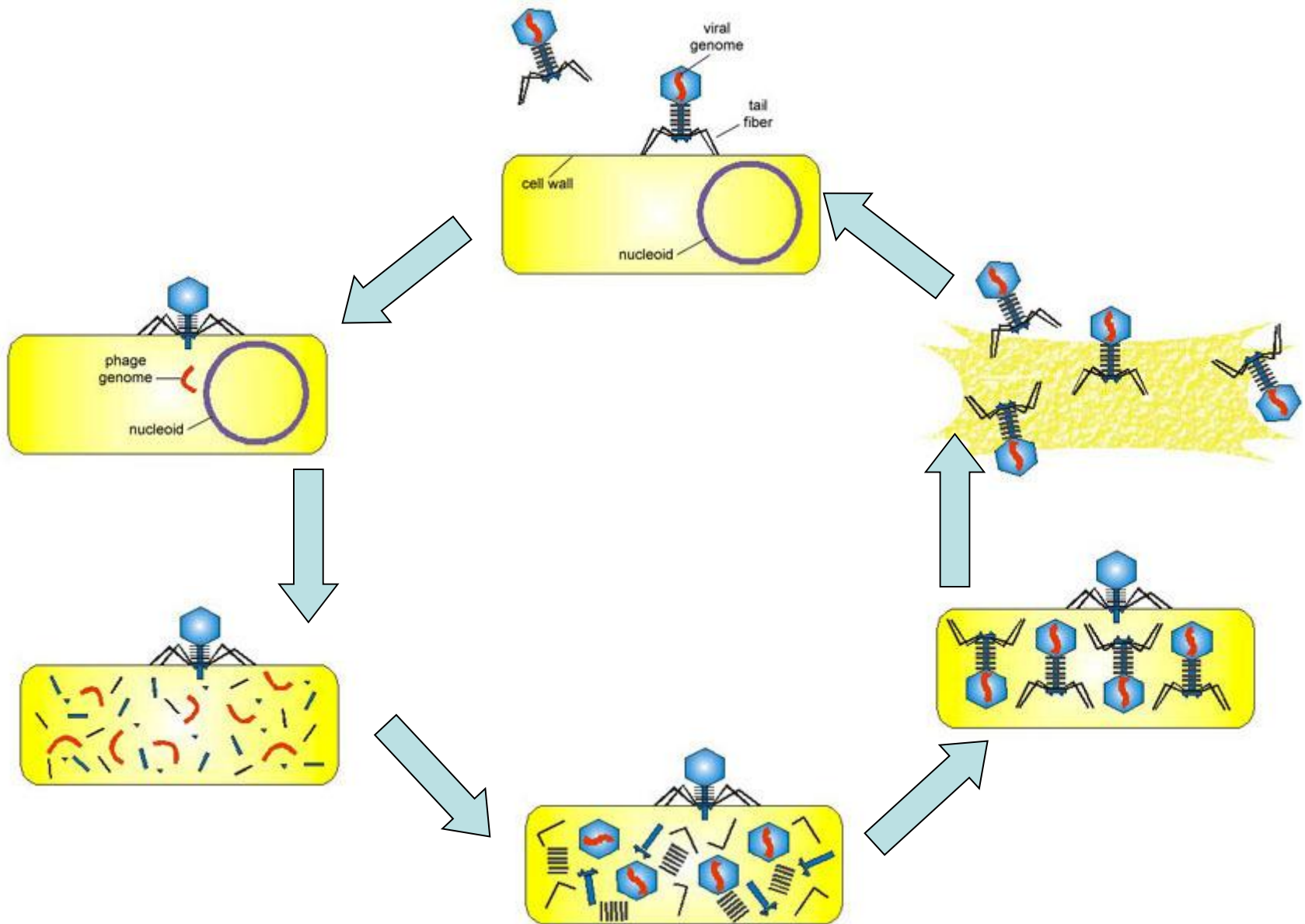
- Light (L) chain
- Heavy (H) chain
- Disulfide bond
- Joining (J) chain



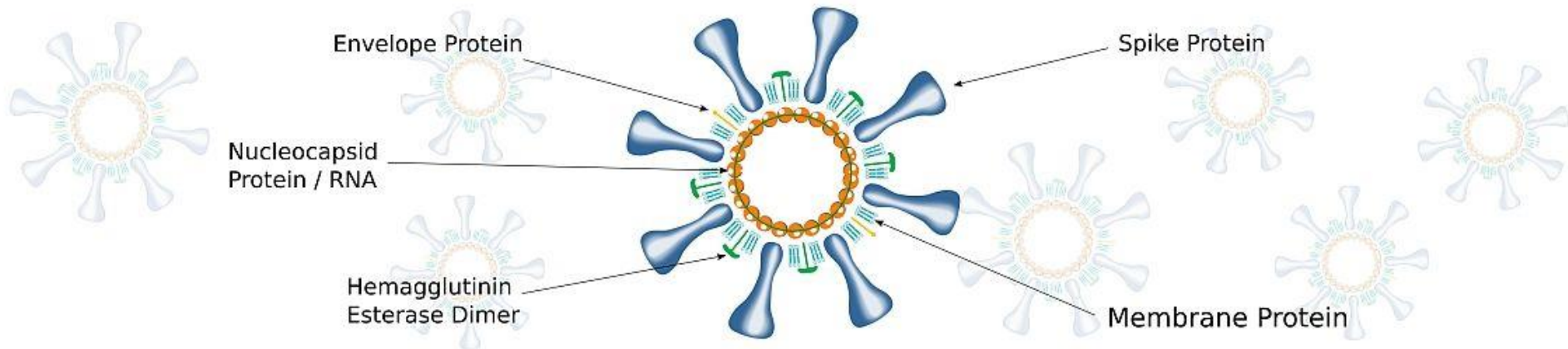
Virus

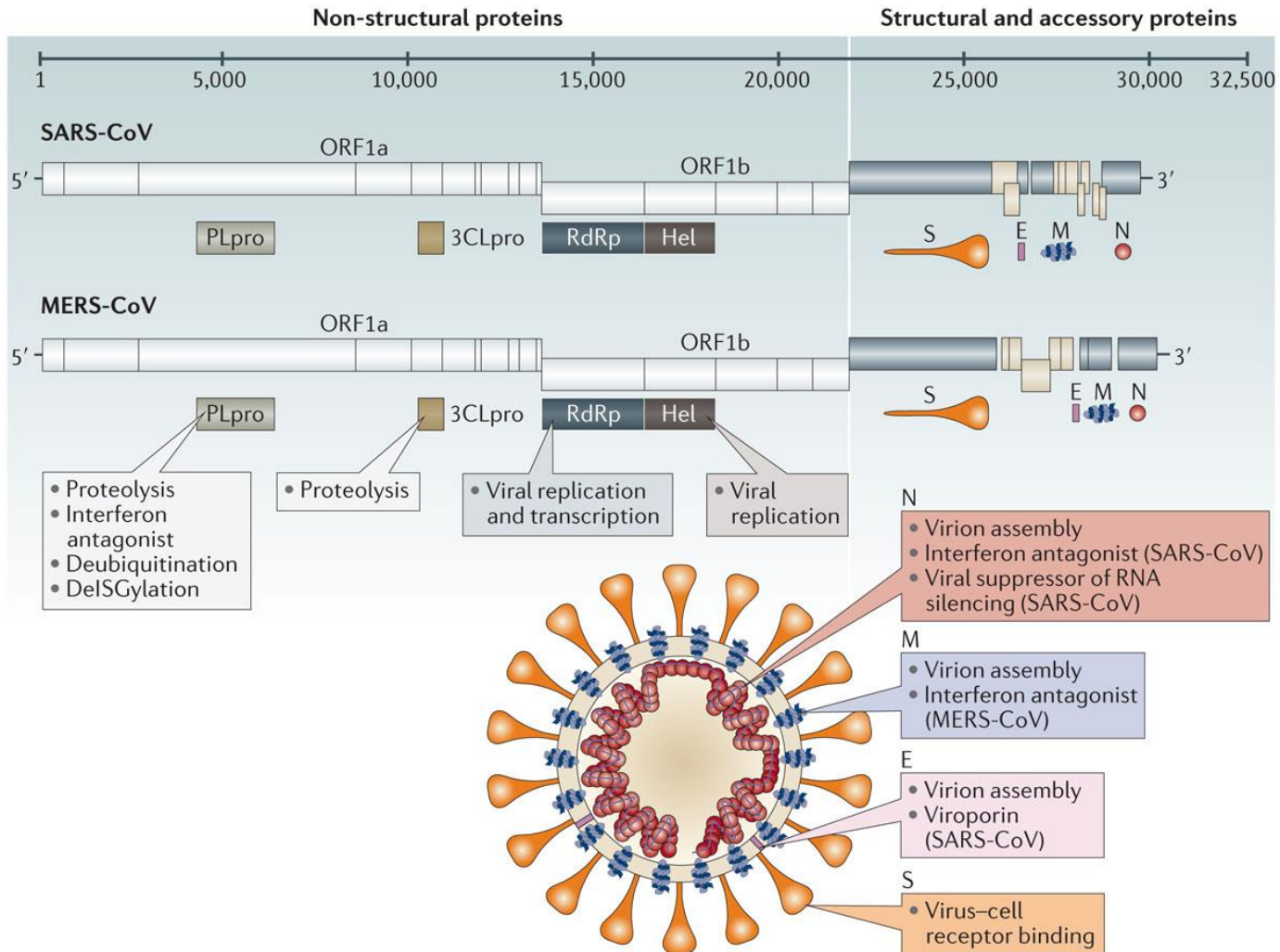


Virus Reproduction



SARS-CoV-2

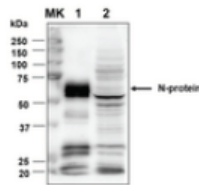




COVID-19 Antibodies

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

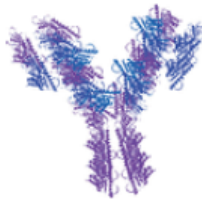
Rabbit Anti-SARS-CoV-2 Coronavirus Nucleocapsid Protein

CODE: 128-10165-1

\$1,450.00

SELECT SIZE

[ADD TO COMPARISON LIST](#)



Mouse Anti-SARS-CoV-2 Nucleocapsid Protein

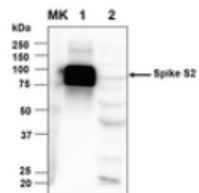
Mouse Anti-SARS-CoV-2 Coronavirus Nucleocapsid protein

CODE: 128-10166-1

\$1,450.00

SELECT SIZE

[ADD TO COMPARISON LIST](#)



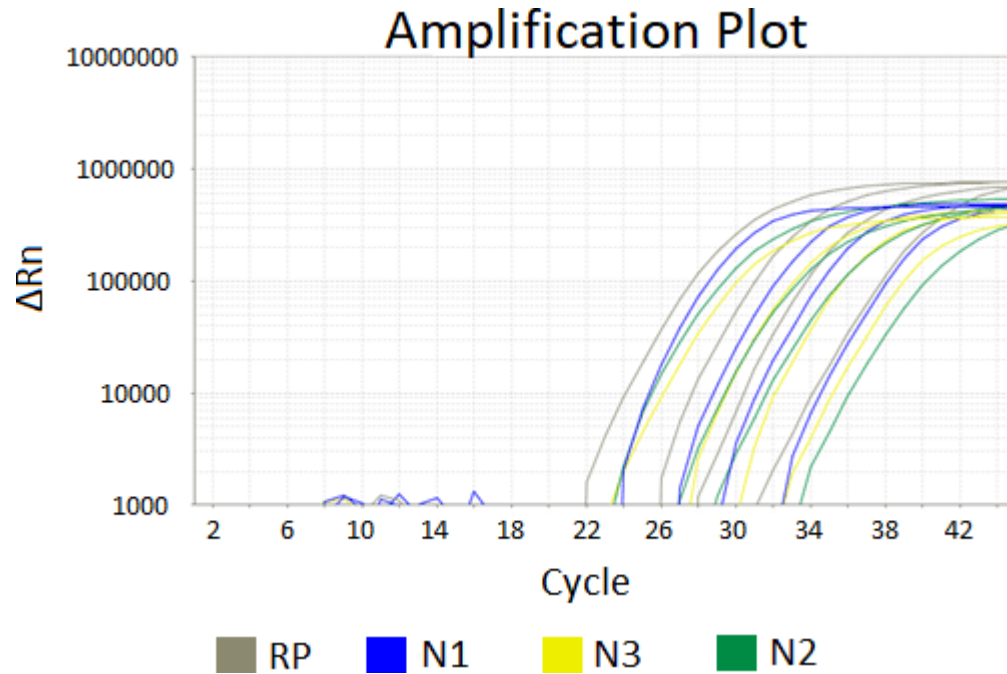
Rabbit Anti-SARS-CoV-2 Spike Protein

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

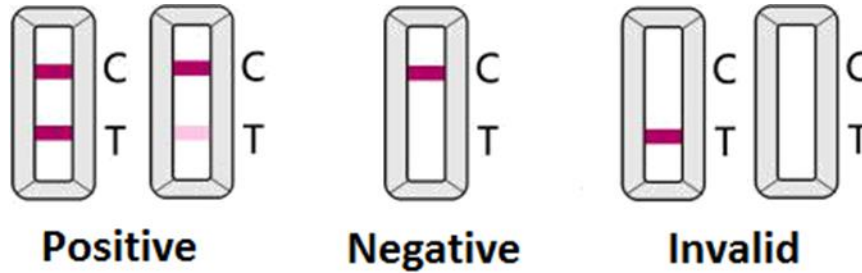
CODE: 128-10168-1

\$1,450.00

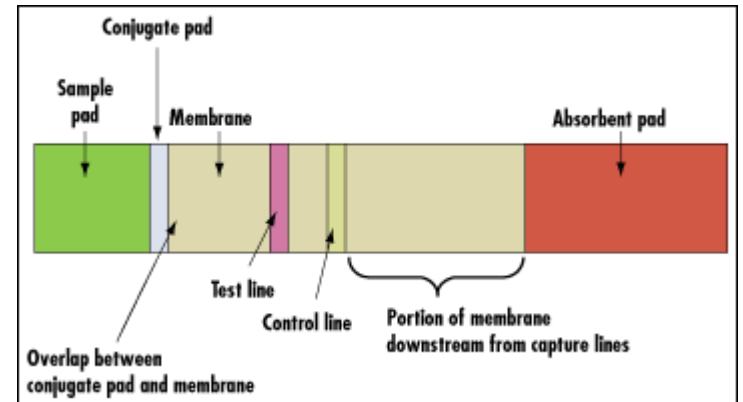
Real-time RT PCR



Fast Screening Kit

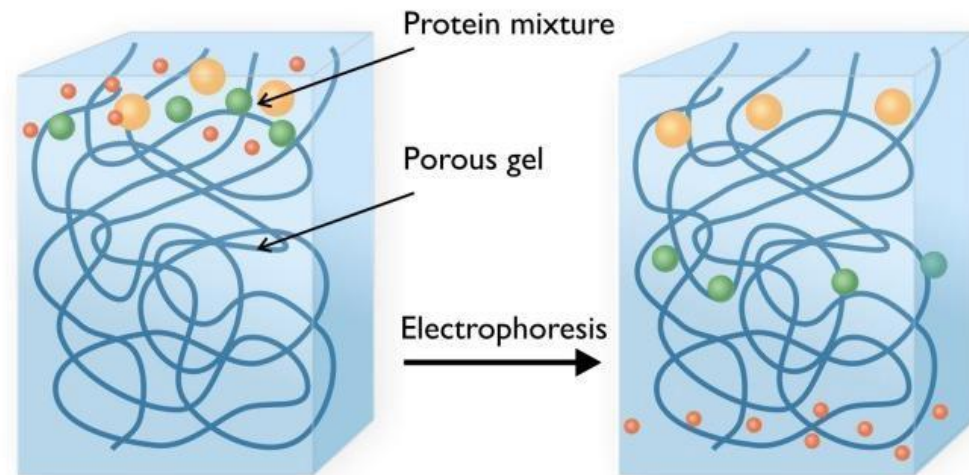
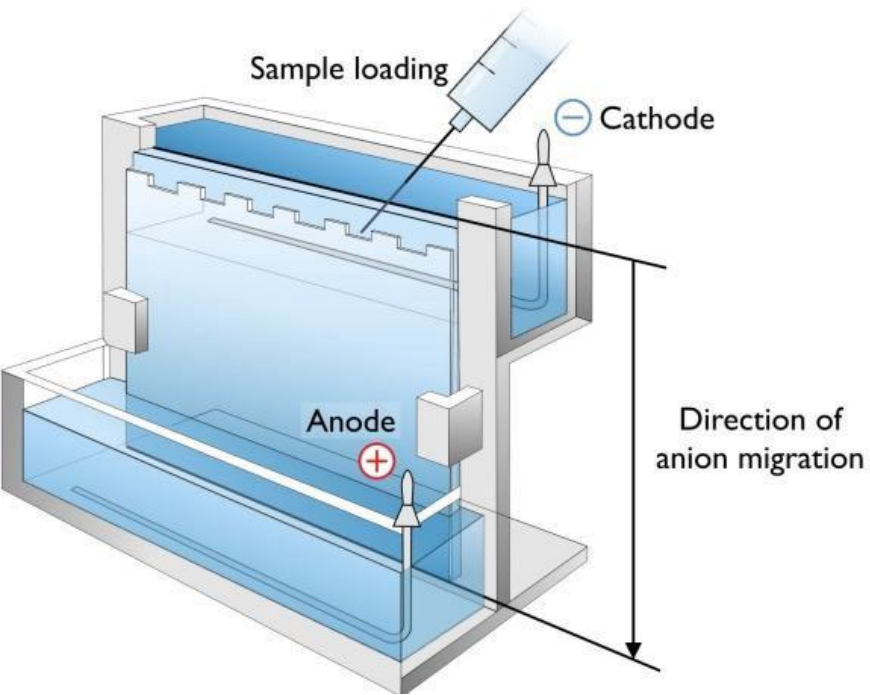


hCG immunoassay

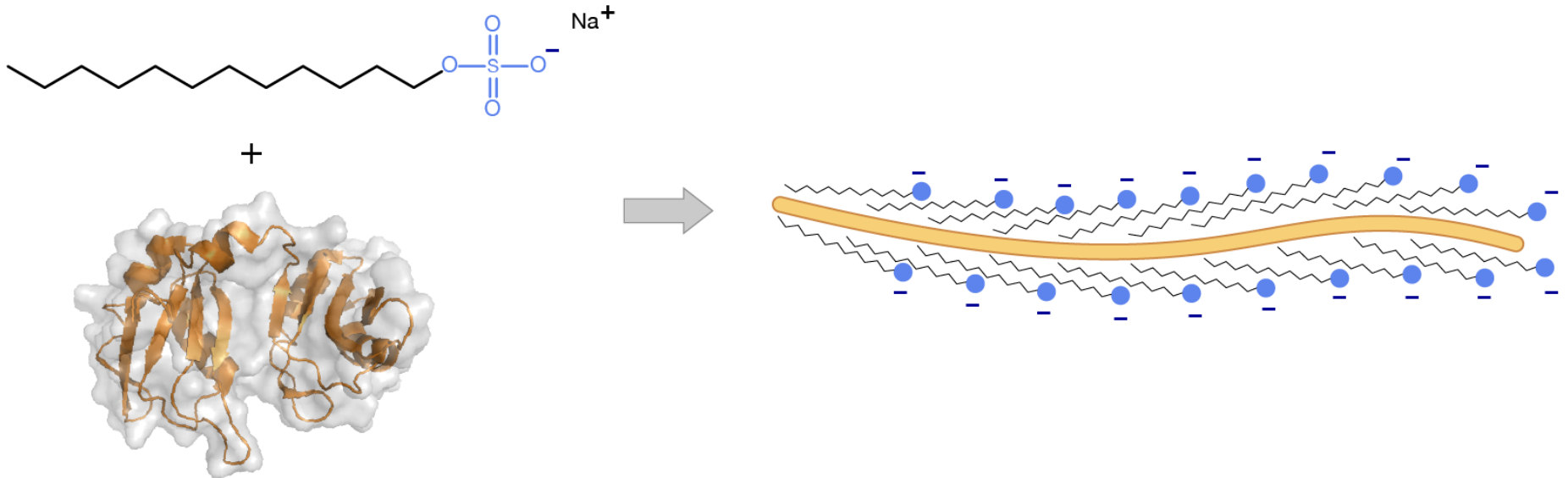


human chorionic gonadotropin (hCG)

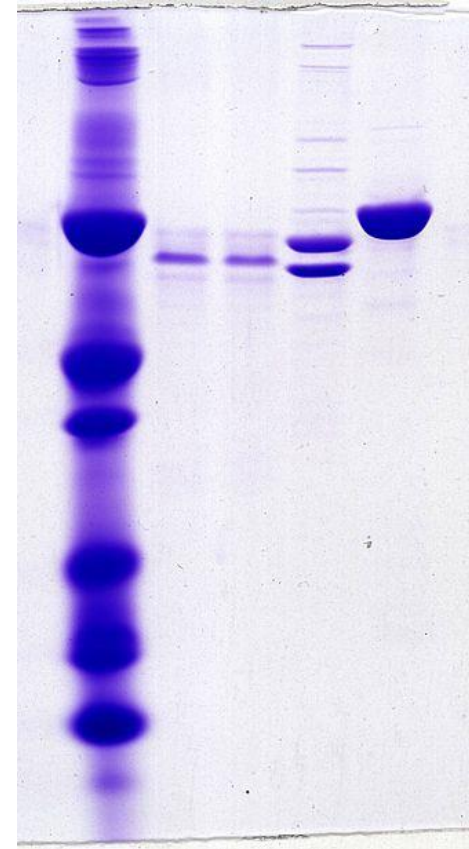
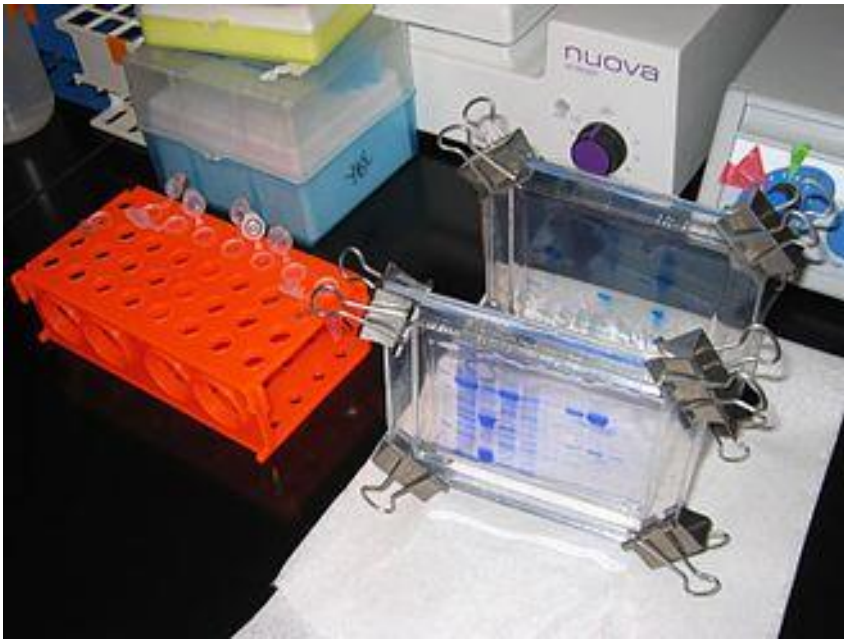
Sodium dodecyl sulfate polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE)



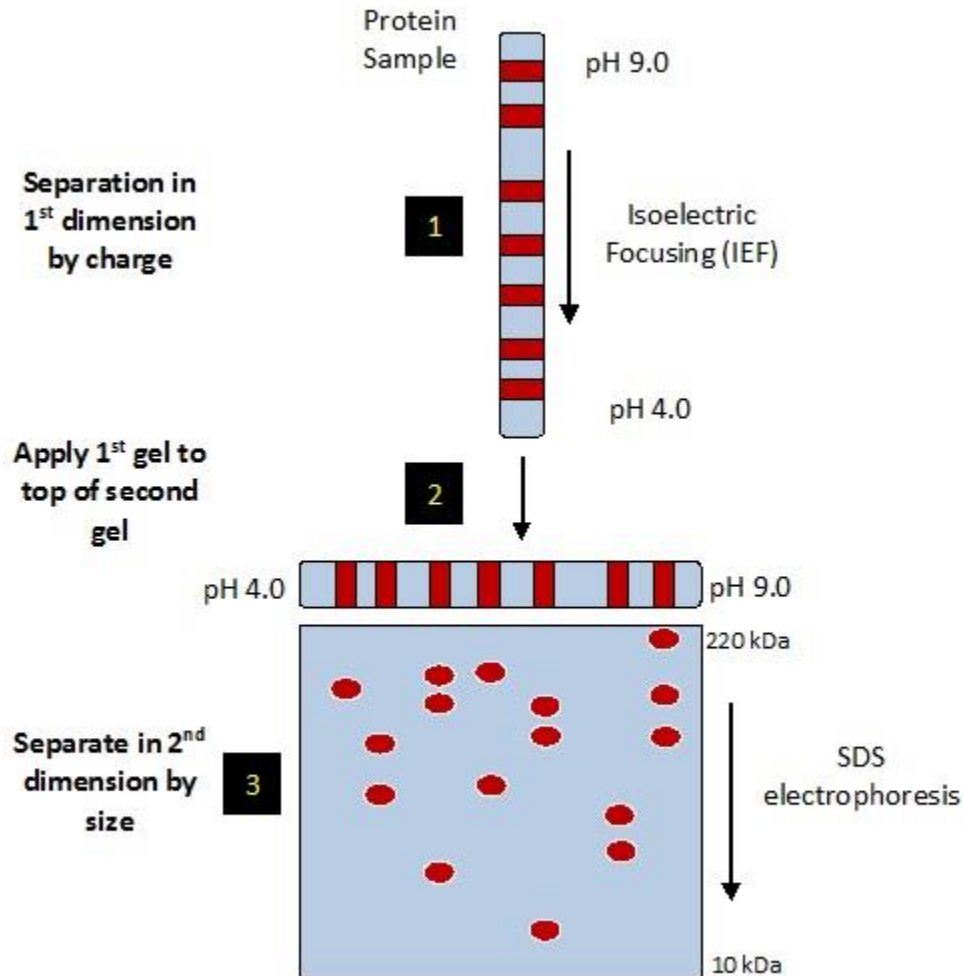
Protein Denature



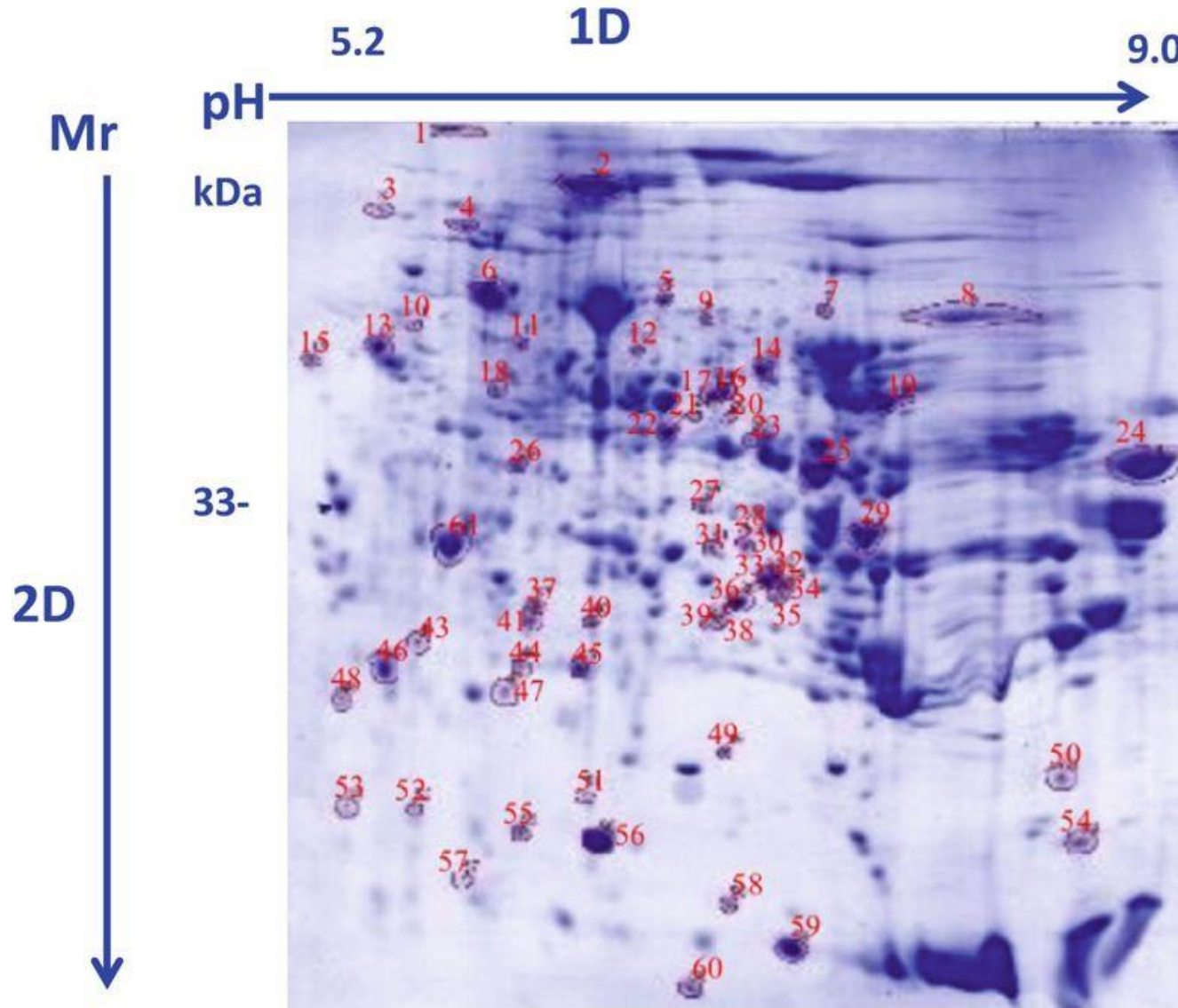
SDS-PAGE



2D PAGE

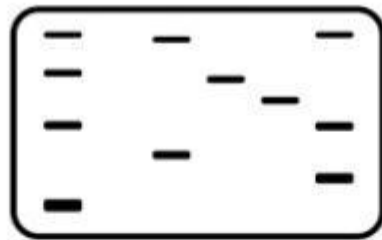


2D PAGE

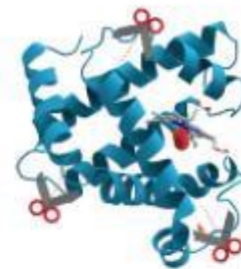




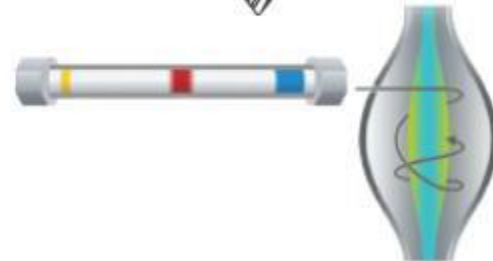
Protein Sample



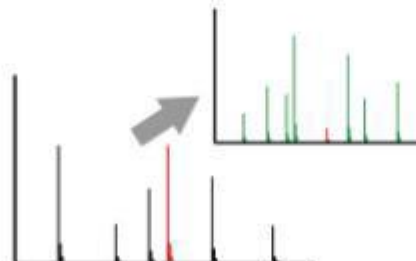
Protein Separation



Protein Digestion



LC separation
MS/MS analysis

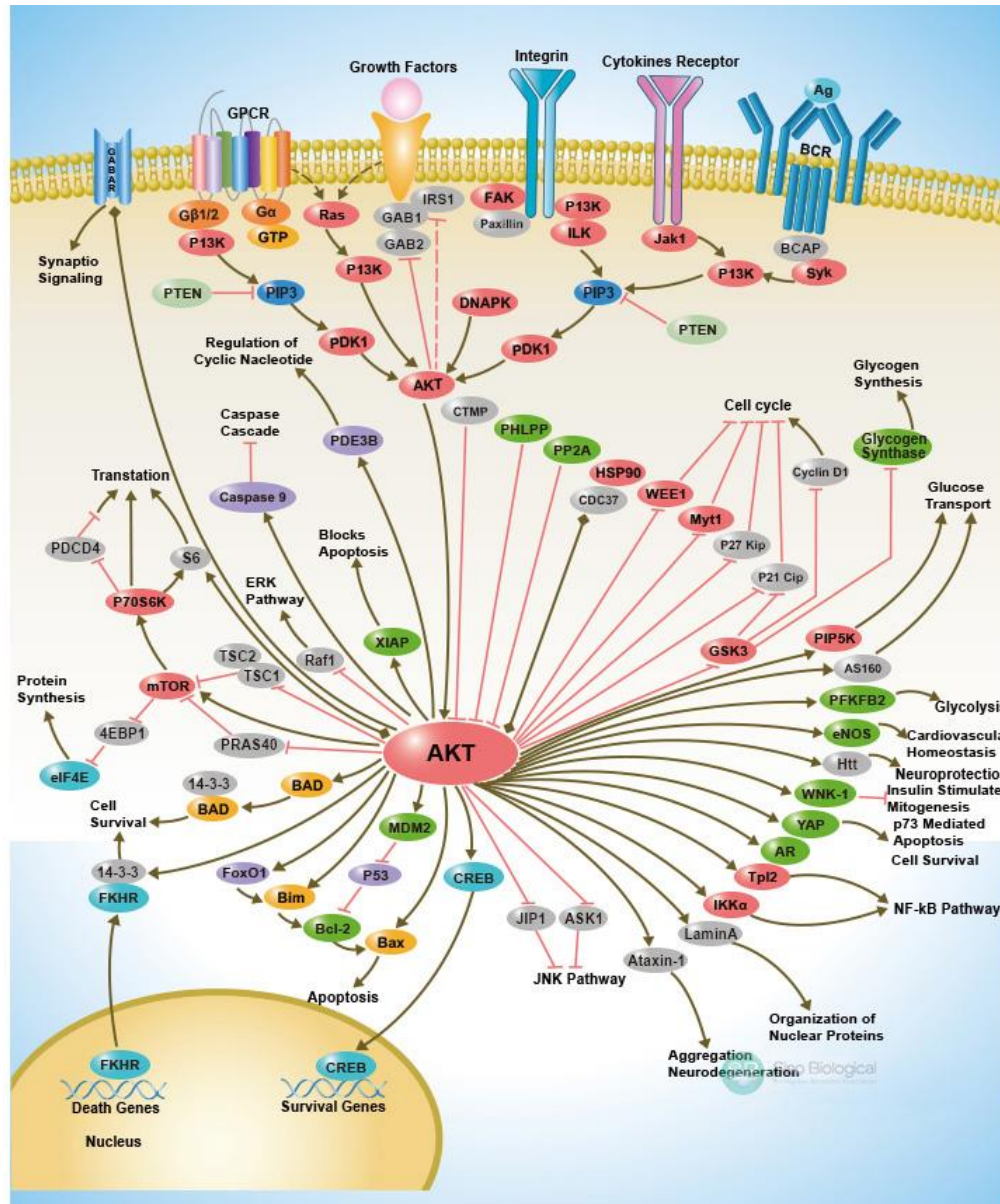


LC-MS/MS
Data set



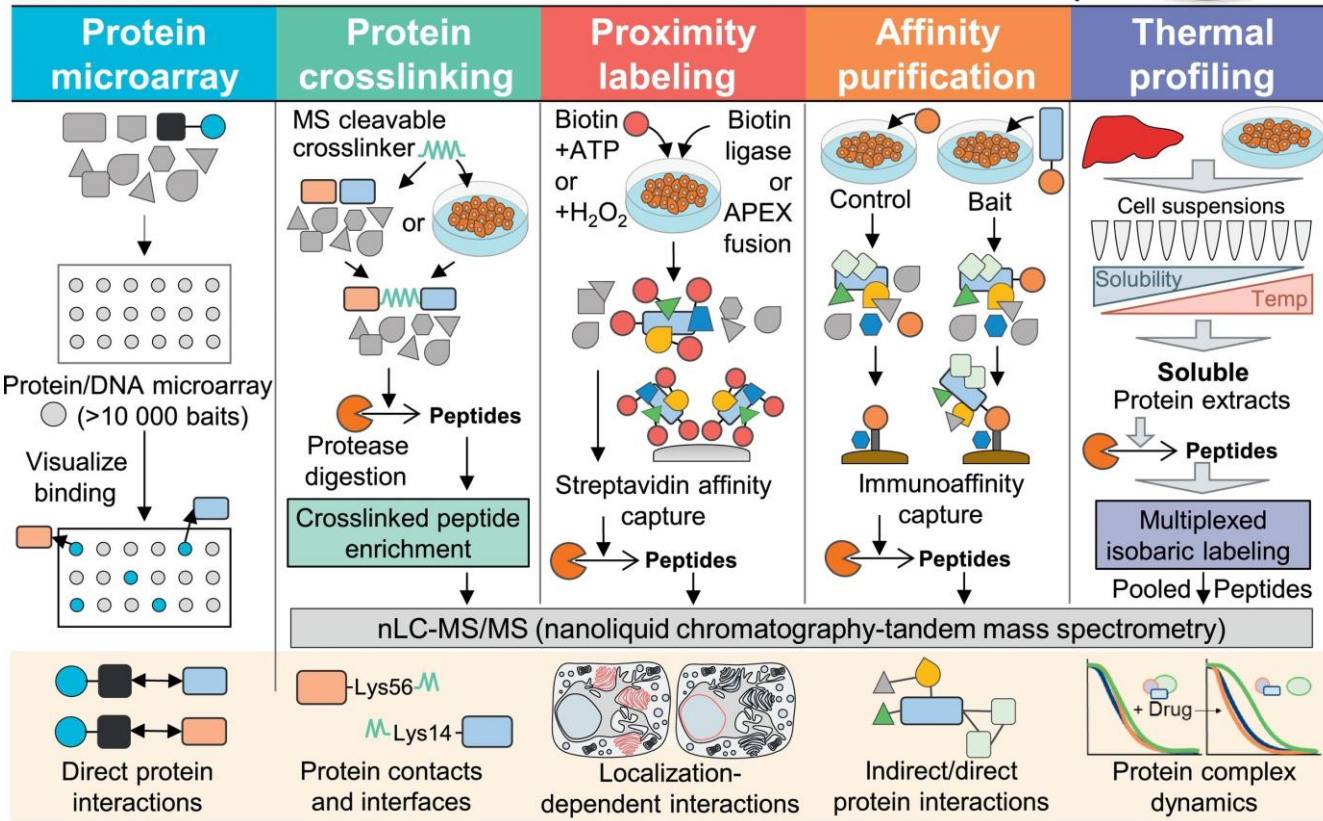
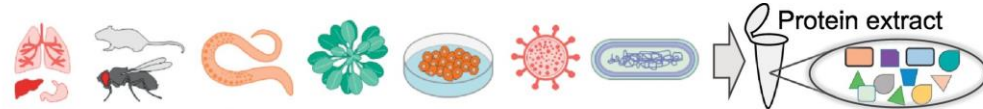
Database Searching
and analysis

Signal Transduction



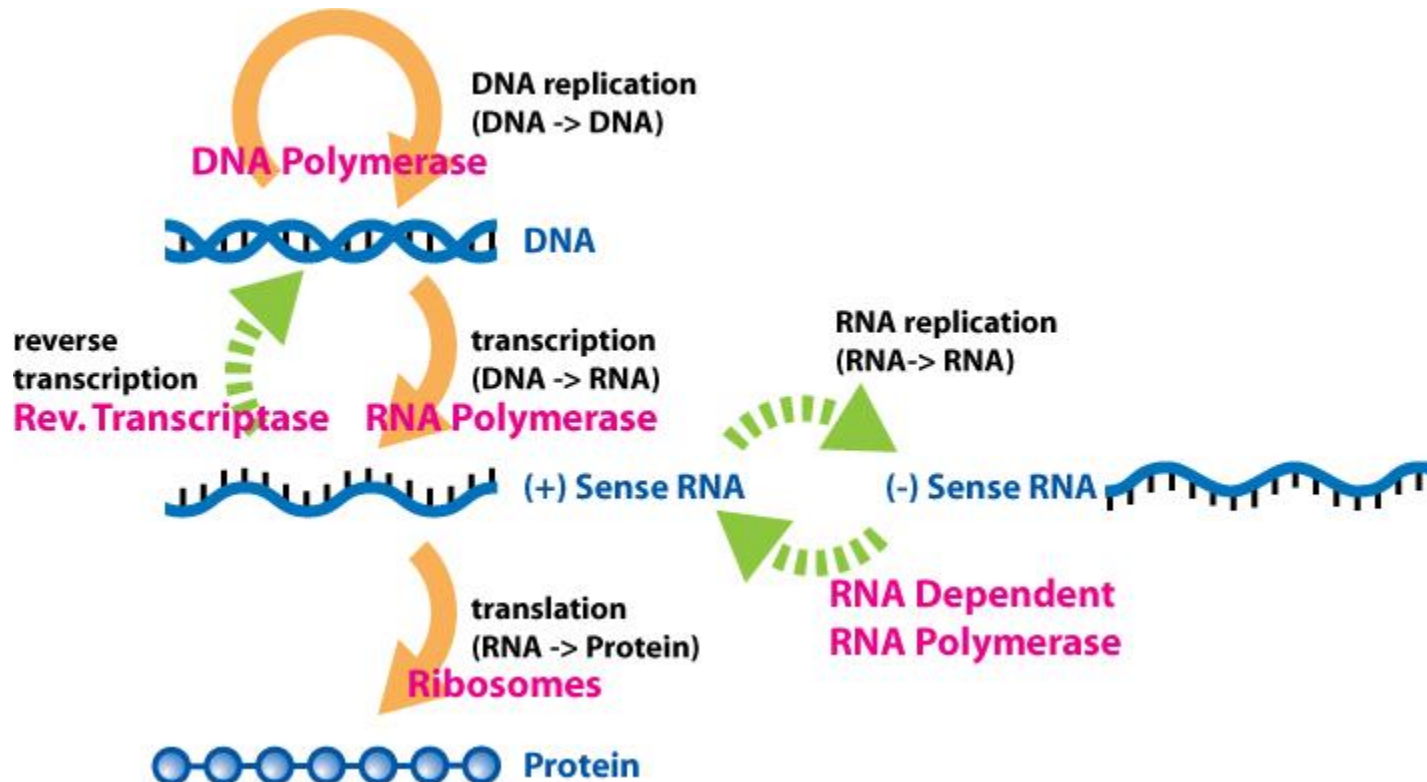
Proteomic

Animals, plants,
viruses, bacteria
cell culture



Trends in Biochemical Sciences

Central Dogma

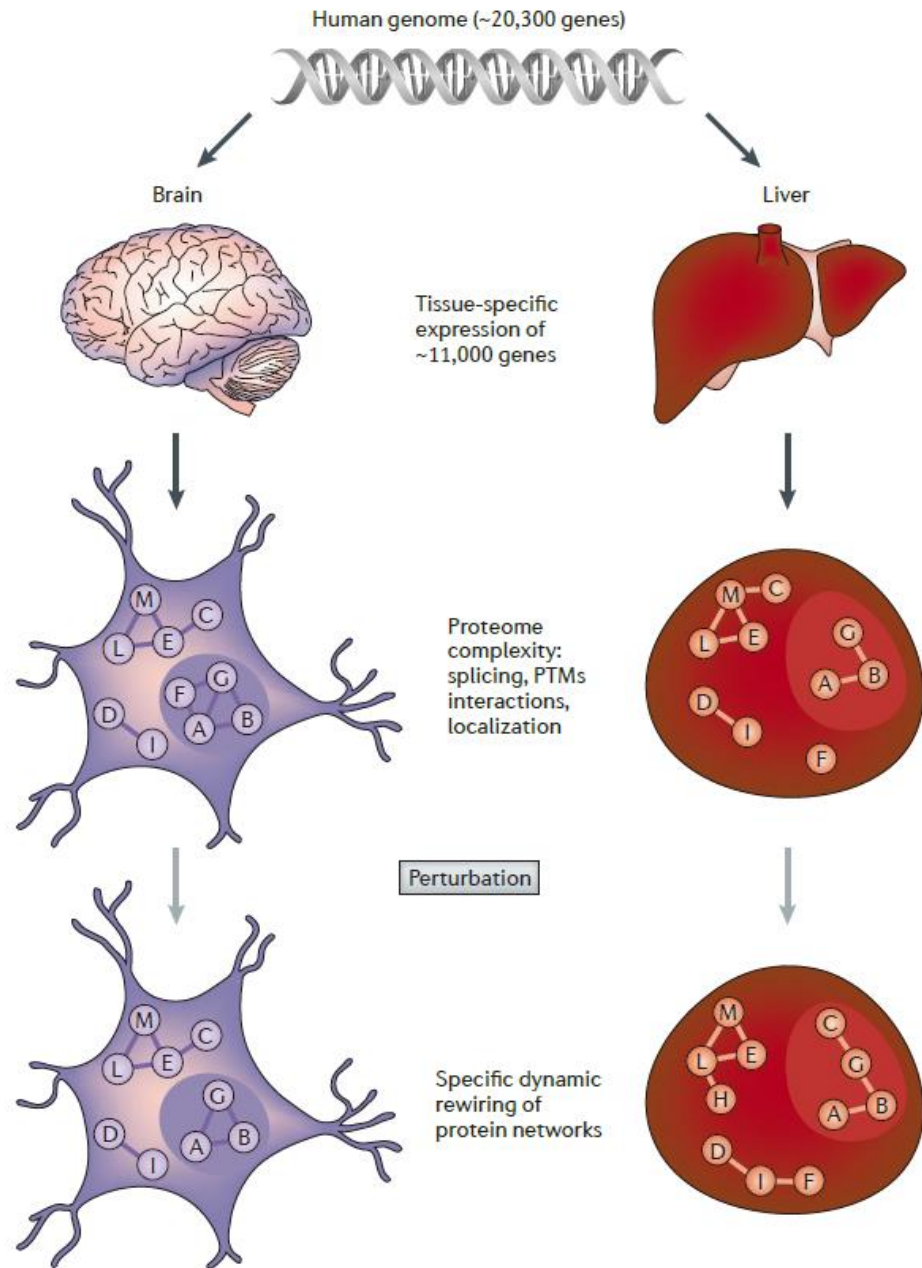


From DNA to Protein

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=gG7uCskUOrA>

Next-generation proteomics: towards an integrative view of proteome dynamics

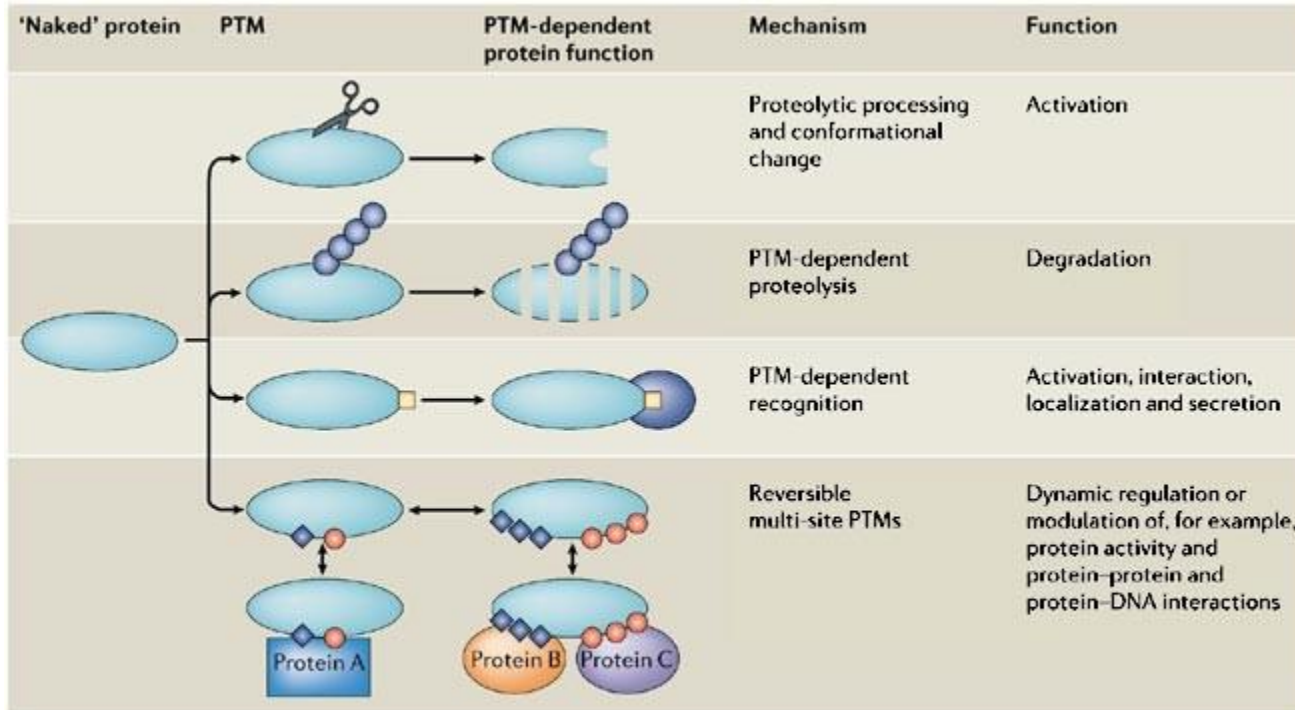
A. F. Maarten Altelaar^{1,2*}, Javier Munoz^{1,2,3*} and Albert J. R. Heck^{1,2}



Key Points

- Our understanding of cellular function depends on exquisite knowledge of all of the molecular components acting in a system. **Mass spectrometry (MS)**-based proteomics has matured immensely in the last decade, allowing quantitative system-wide analysis of the proteome, including **post-translational modifications (PTMs)**, **protein–protein interactions** and **cellular localization**.
- Quantification of the entire set of proteins expressed in a complex biological system (for example, mammalian cells) is now possible with a high sensitivity and in a reasonable amount of time.
- With the availability of genomic information, the massive capacity for peptide identification by MS is being used to annotate gene sequences and to find new protein-coding genes and splicing variants.
- In combination with new approaches to isolate specific PTMs, MS-based studies are revealing a much higher order of proteome complexity in which most proteins are modified by several PTMs that crosstalk in intricate mechanisms to regulate protein function.
- **Protein affinity strategies allow purification** of candidate proteins and their interacting partners, which are subsequently identified by MS. These studies describe, with a high degree of detail, dynamic and context-specific protein–protein interaction networks and protein complexes.
- The improvements in sensitivity, robustness and high-throughput of MS-based proteomics now permits applications in the clinical field, including the possibility of discovering disease-related biomarkers and screening molecular targets of candidate drugs.

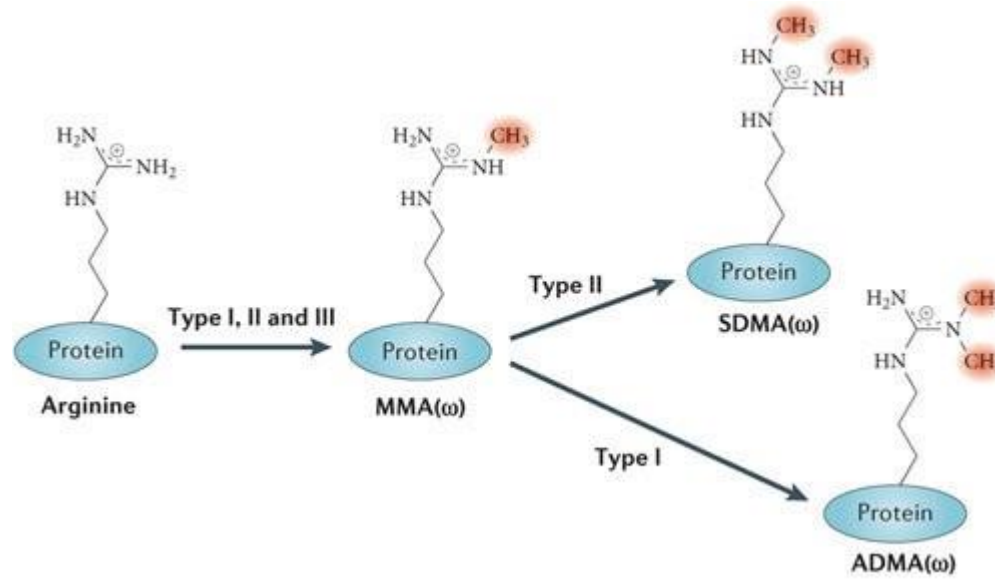
Mechanism of action of post-translational modifications



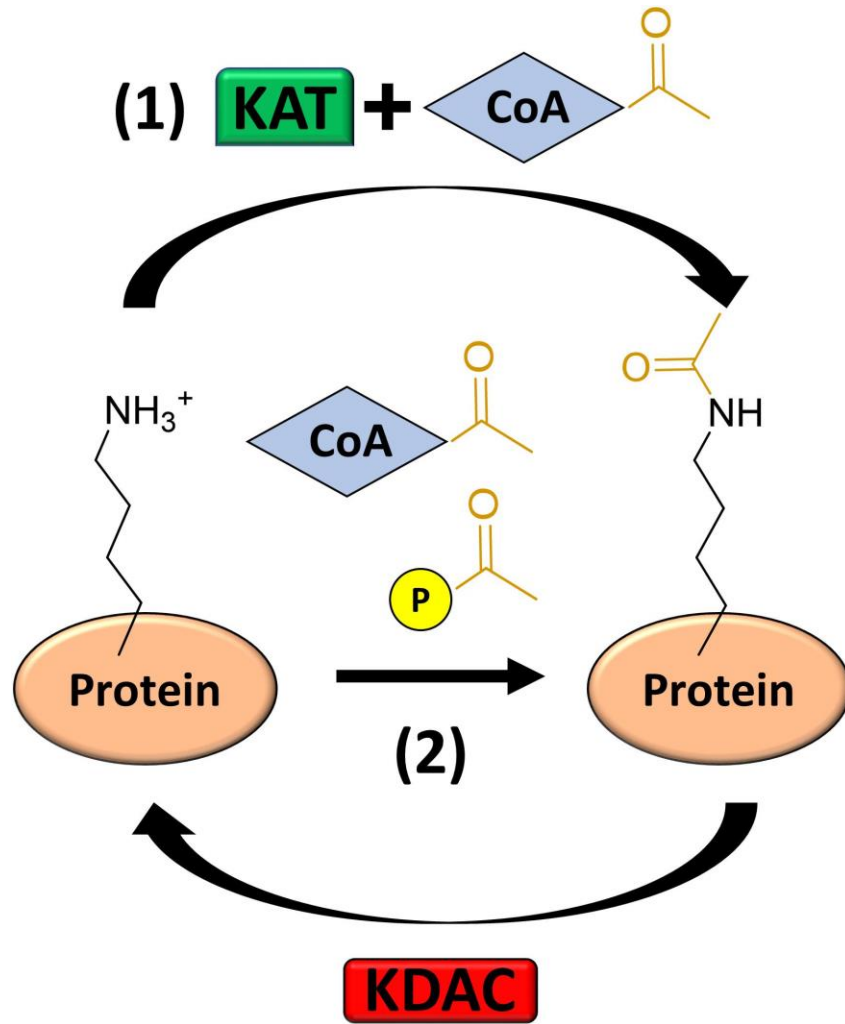
Copyright © 2006 Nature Publishing Group
 Nature Reviews | Molecular Cell Biology

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=AeVDoDp3III>

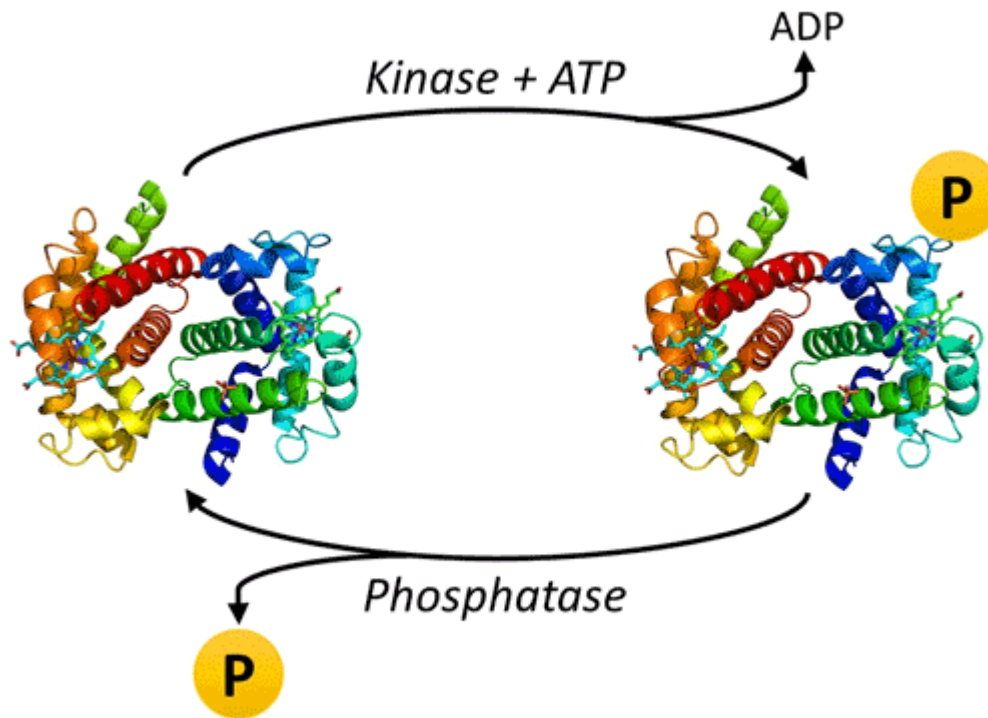
Methylation



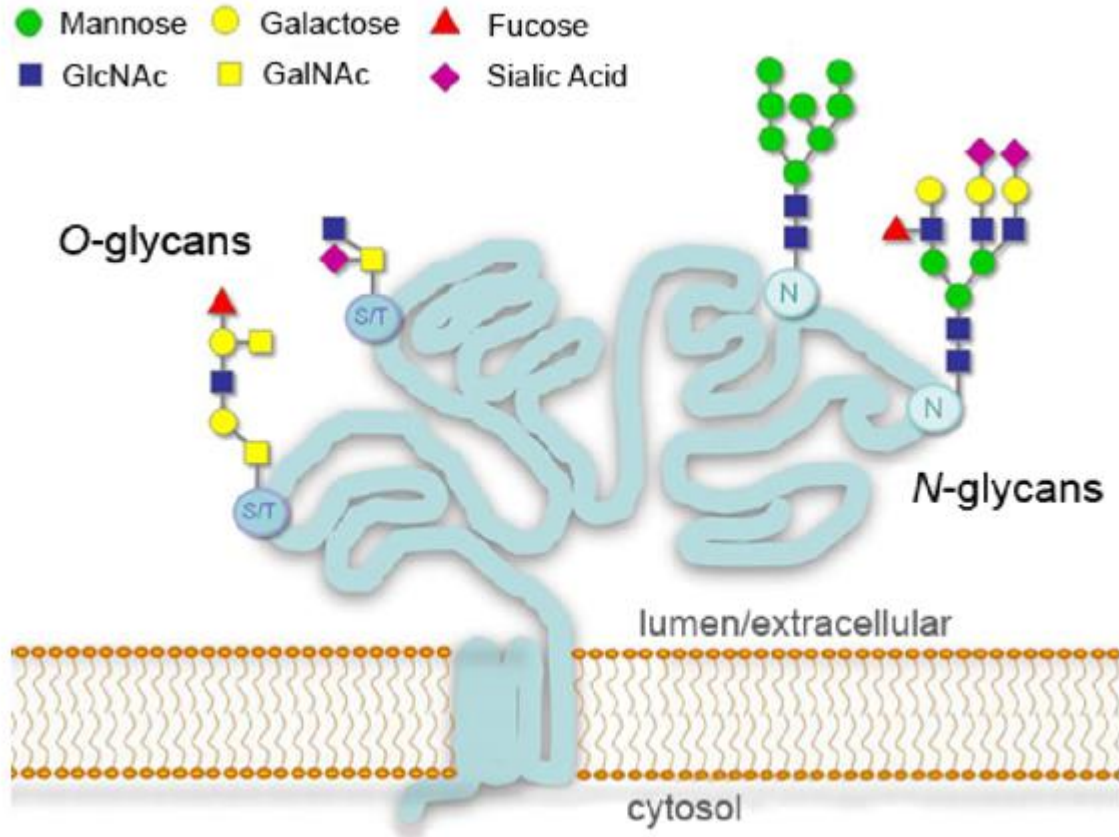
Acetylation



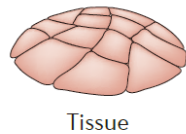
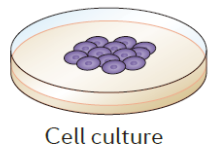
Protein phosphorylation



glycosylation



Sample



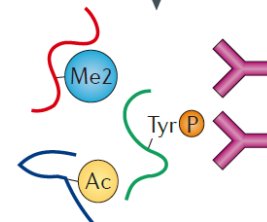
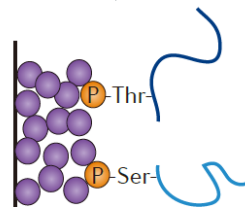
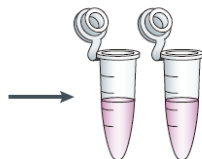
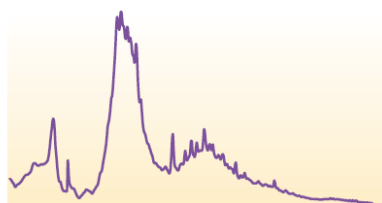
Lysis



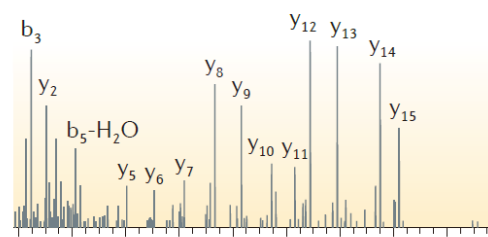
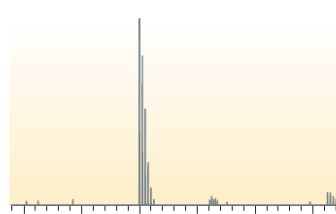
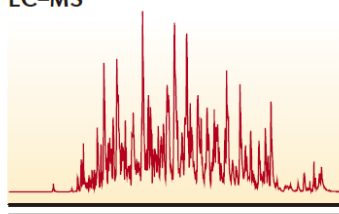
Digestion



Fractionation or enrichment

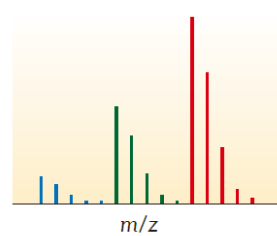
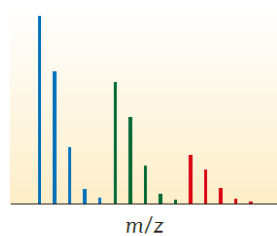
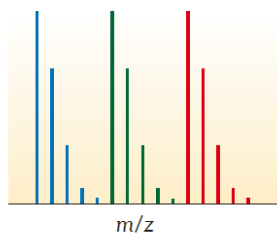


LC-MS

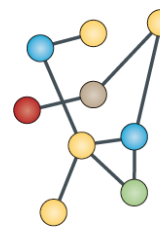


Data analysis

(Such as protein abundances under different experimental conditions)

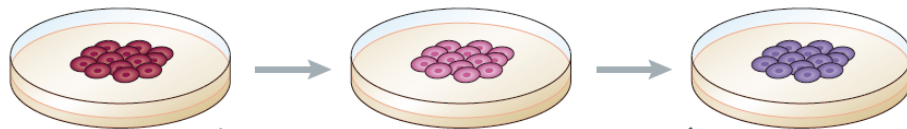


MS-based quantification

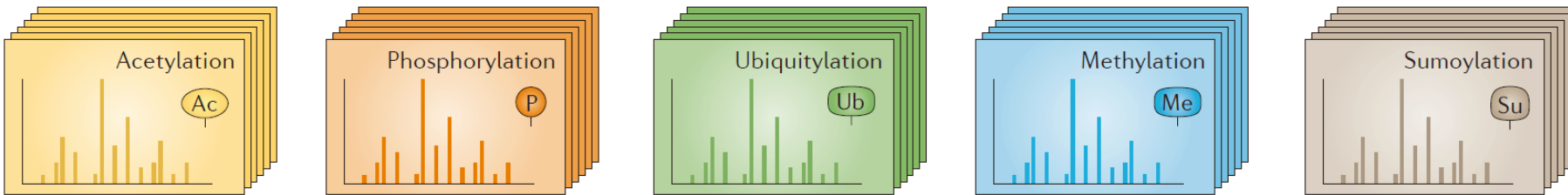


Build network

Dynamic perturbation of biological system

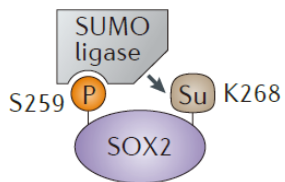


Quantitative MS



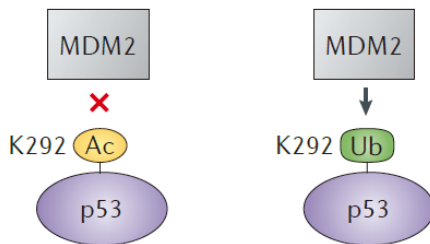
PTM crosstalk mechanisms

Sequential



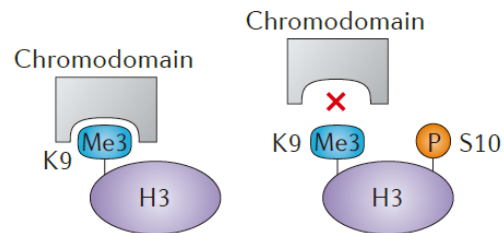
Phosphorylation-dependent SUMO modification

Mutually exclusive

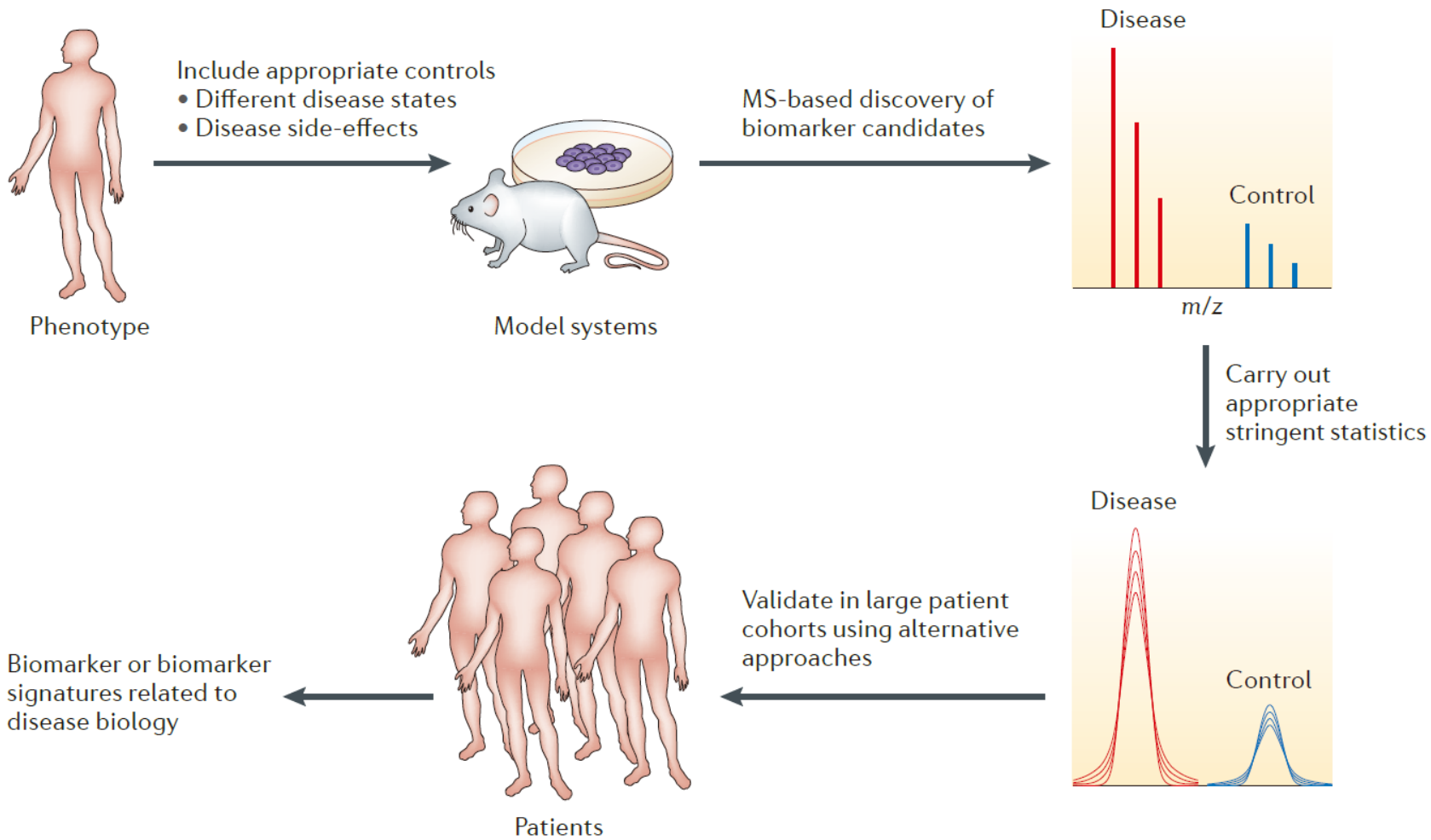


Acetylation prevents degradation of p53 by MDM2

Antagonistic



Phosphorylation disrupts H3 interaction with chromodomain



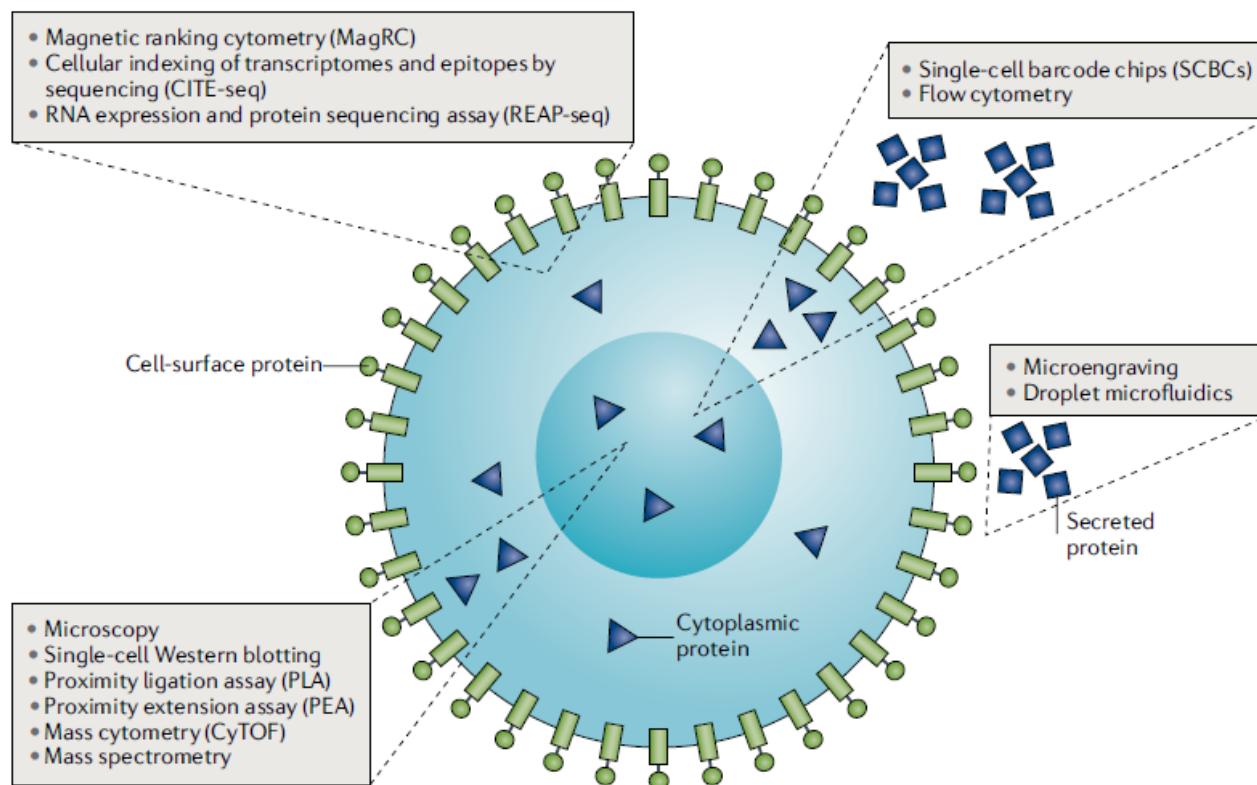
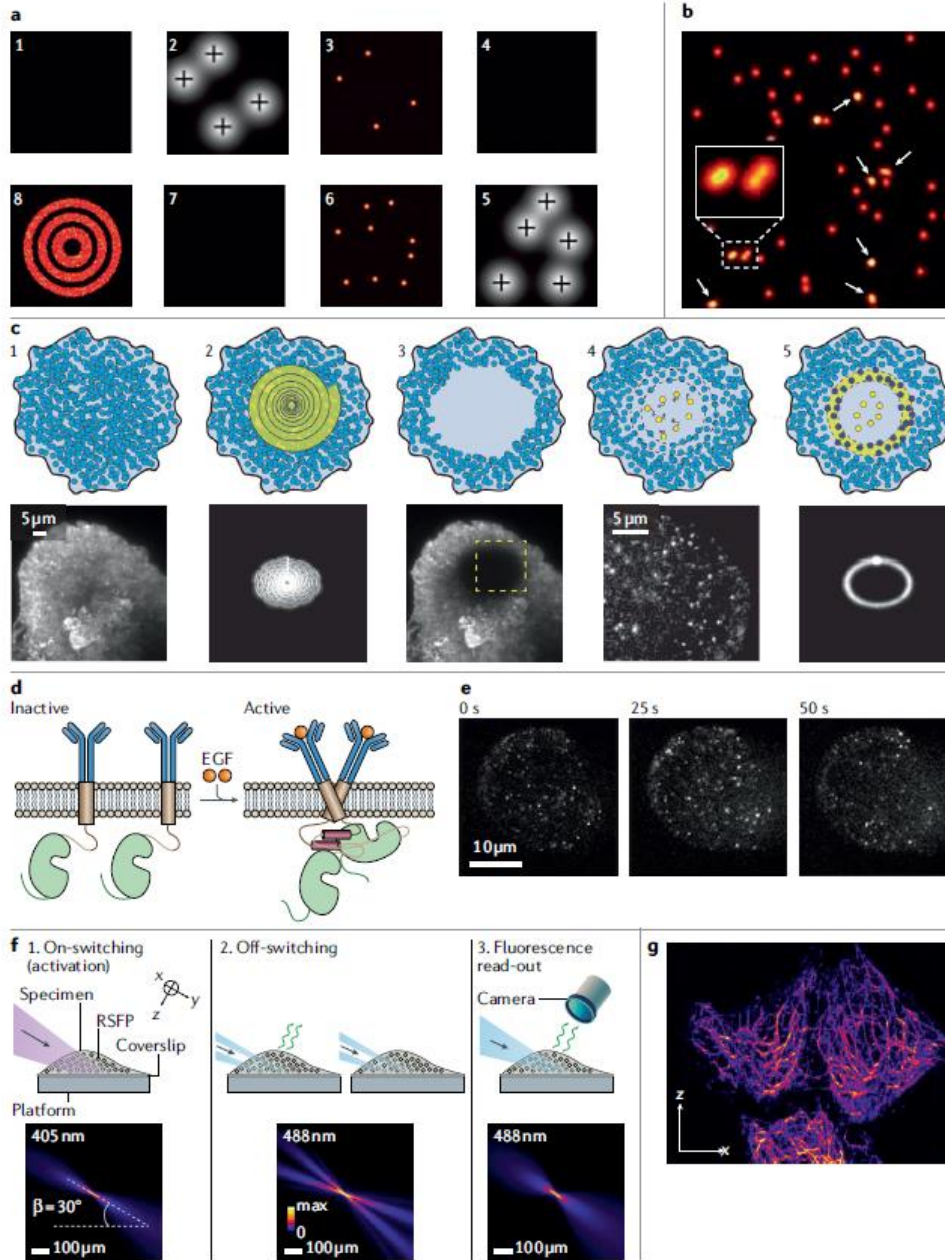
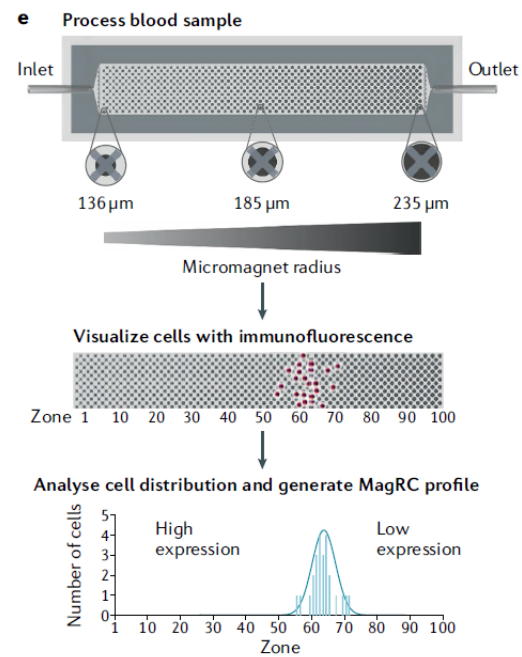
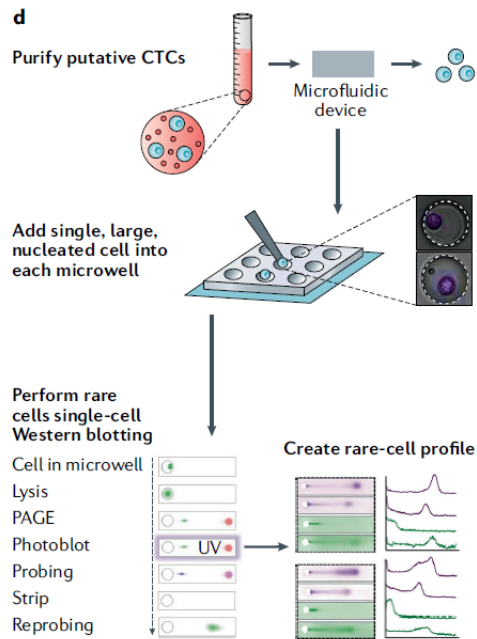
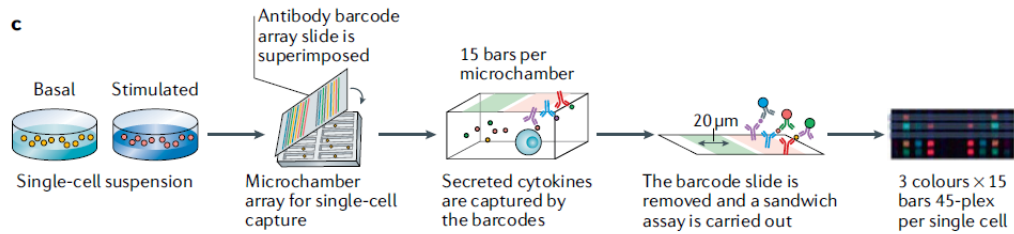
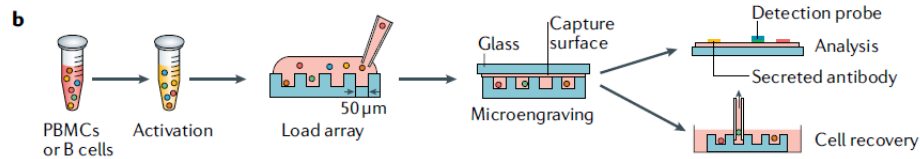
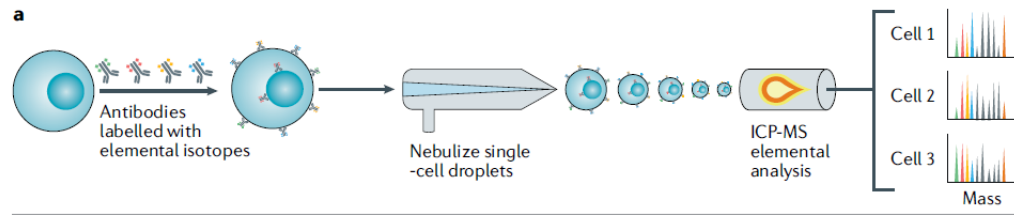
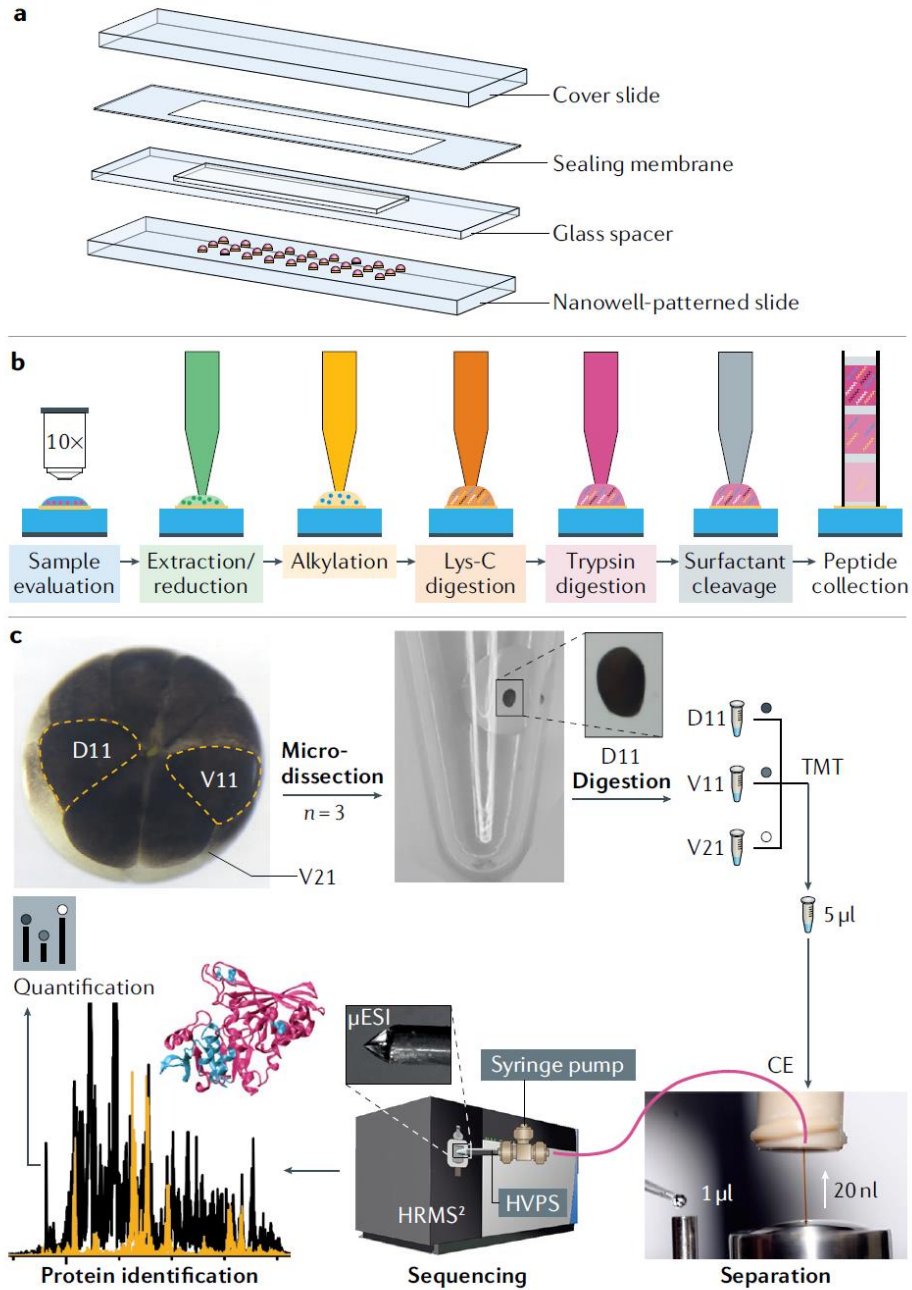
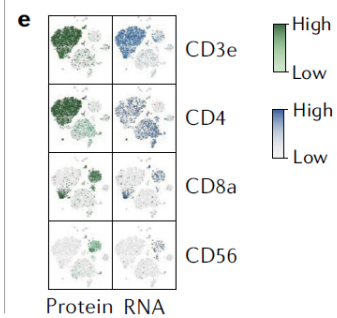
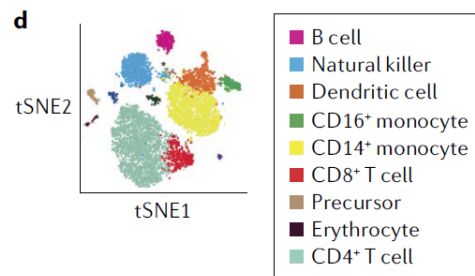
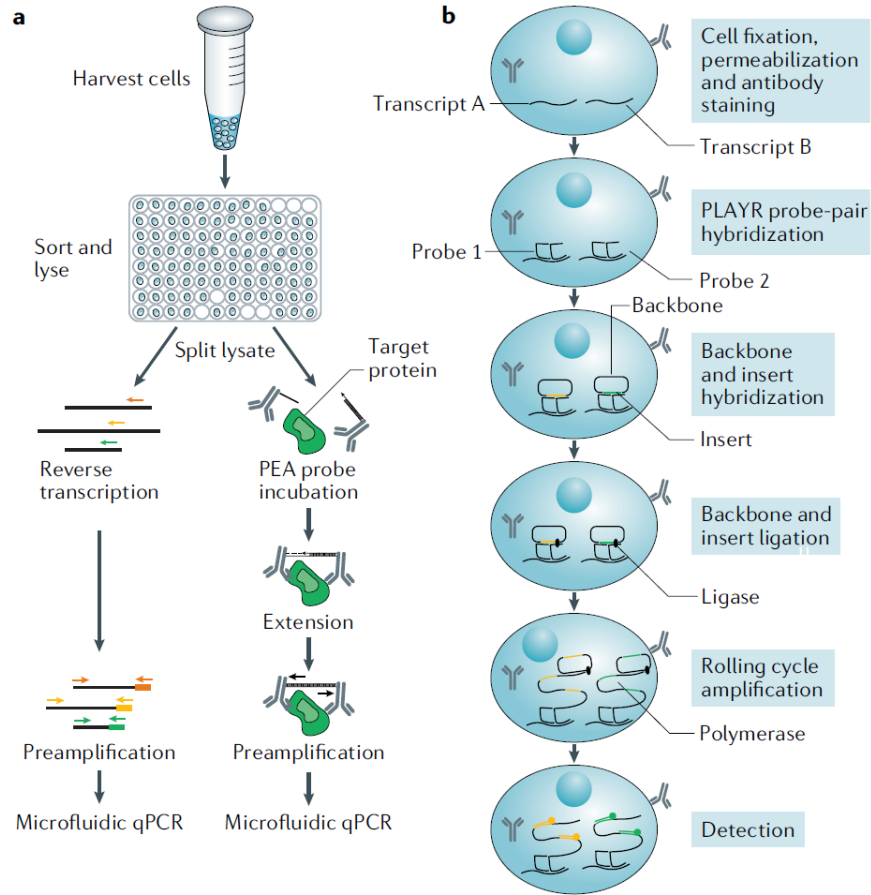


Fig. 1 | Classification of single-cell protein analysis methods based on the location of target protein. Cell-surface-protein analysis methods include magnetic ranking cytometry (MagRC), cellular indexing of transcriptomes and epitopes by sequencing (CITE-seq), and RNA expression and protein sequencing assay (REAP-seq). Methods that can be used for the analysis of cell-surface and cytoplasmic proteins include microscopy, single-cell Western blotting, proximity ligation assay (PLA), proximity extension assay (PEA), mass cytometry (cytometry by time of flight; CyTOF) and mass spectrometry. Methods utilized for secreted-protein analysis include droplet microfluidics and microengraving techniques. Methods used for comprehensive analysis of the three proteins include flow cytometry and single-cell barcode chips (SCBCs).









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^{14,5,9}, Reta Birhanu Kitata¹, Eric Sheng-Wen Chen¹, Bayarmaa Enkhbayar^{4,6}, Takashi Angata⁶, Kuo-I Lin⁶, Yu-Ju Chen^{1,3,4,8} & Hsiung-Lin Tu^{1,2,4,8}

