

# **Chapter 24**

## **Proteins**

## ◆ Introduction

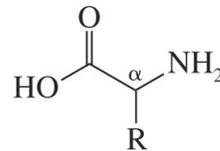
→ The three major groups of biological polymers are polysaccharides, proteins and nucleic acids

→ Proteins have many diverse functions; they are major components of the following biomolecules

- ☞ Enzymes and hormones which catalyze and regulate biological reactions
- ☞ Muscles and tendons which provide the body with means for movement
- ☞ Hemoglobin which carries oxygen to all parts of the body
- ☞ Antibodies they are integral parts of the immune system

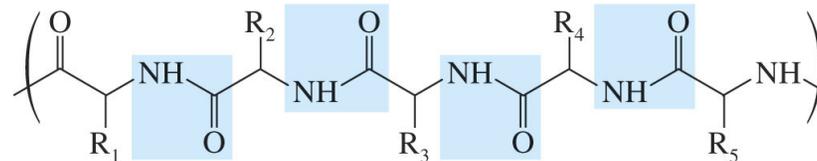
→ All proteins are polyamides

- ☞ Their monomeric units are one of about 20  $\alpha$ - amino acids



An  $\alpha$ -amino acid

*R is a side chain at the  $\alpha$  carbon that determines the identity of the amino acid (Table 24.1).*



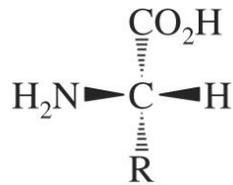
A portion of a protein molecule

*Amide (peptide) linkages are shaded.  
 $R_1$ - $R_5$  may be any of the possible side chains.*

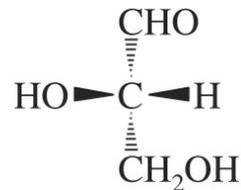
→ **Proteins have several levels of structure**

- ☞ **Primary structure** refers to the exact sequence of amino acids along a protein chain
- ☞ **Secondary and tertiary structures** refer to the further bending and folding of the primary structure
- ☞ **Quaternary structure** refers to the aggregation of more than one polypeptide chain

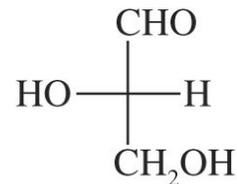
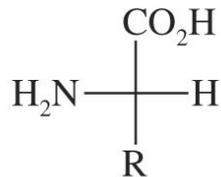
→ **All amino acids except glycine are chiral and have the L configuration (as related to glyceraldehyde) at the  $\alpha$  carbon**



**An L- $\alpha$ -amino acid**  
[usually an (S)- $\alpha$ -amino acid]

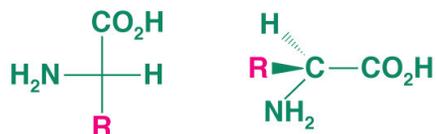


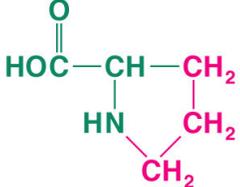
**L-Glyceraldehyde**  
[(S)-glyceraldehyde]

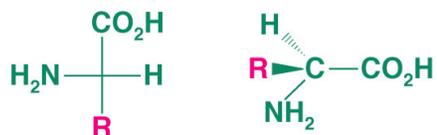


**Fischer projections for an L- $\alpha$ -amino acid  
and L-glyceraldehyde**

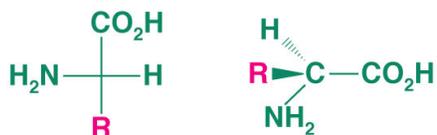




Structure of R	Name	Abbreviations <sup>a</sup>	pK <sub>a1</sub> α-CO <sub>2</sub> H	pK <sub>a2</sub> α-NH <sub>3</sub> <sup>+</sup>	pK <sub>a3</sub> R group	pI
<b>Neutral Amino Acids</b>						
—H	Glycine	G or Gly	2.3	9.6		6.0
—CH <sub>3</sub>	Alanine	A or Ala	2.3	9.7		6.0
—CH(CH <sub>3</sub> ) <sub>2</sub>	Valine <sup>b</sup>	V or Val	2.3	9.6		6.0
—CH <sub>2</sub> CH(CH <sub>3</sub> ) <sub>2</sub>	Leucine <sup>b</sup>	L or Leu	2.4	9.6		6.0
—CHCH <sub>2</sub> CH <sub>3</sub>   CH <sub>3</sub>	Isoleucine <sup>b</sup>	I or Ile	2.4	9.7		6.1
—CH <sub>2</sub> — 	Phenylalanine <sup>b</sup>	F or Phe	1.8	9.1		5.5
—CH <sub>2</sub> CONH <sub>2</sub>	Asparagine	N or Asn	2.0	8.8		5.4
—CH <sub>2</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> CONH <sub>2</sub>	Glutamine	Q or Gln	2.2	9.1		5.7
—CH <sub>2</sub> 	Tryptophan <sup>b</sup>	W or Trp	2.4	9.4		5.9
	Proline	P or Pro	2.0	10.6		6.3
<b>(complete structure)</b>						



Structure of R	Name	Abbreviations <sup>a</sup>	pK <sub>a1</sub> α-CO <sub>2</sub> H	pK <sub>a2</sub> α-NH <sub>3</sub> <sup>+</sup>	pK <sub>a3</sub> R group	pI
<b>Neutral Amino Acids</b>						
—CH <sub>2</sub> OH	Serine	S or Ser	2.2	9.2		5.7
—CHOH   CH <sub>3</sub>	Threonine <sup>b</sup>	T or Thr	2.6	10.4		6.5
—CH <sub>2</sub> ——OH	Tyrosine	Y or Tyr	2.2	9.1	10.1	5.7
	Hydroxyproline	Hyp	1.9	9.7		6.3
(complete structure)						
—CH <sub>2</sub> SH	Cysteine	C or Cys	1.7	10.8	8.3	5.0
—CH <sub>2</sub> —S   —CH <sub>2</sub> —S	Cystine	Cys-Cys	1.6 2.3	7.9 9.9		5.1
—CH <sub>2</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> SCH <sub>3</sub>	Methionine <sup>b</sup>	M or Met	2.3	9.2		5.8



Structure of R	Name	Abbreviations <sup>a</sup>	pK <sub>a1</sub> α-CO <sub>2</sub> H	pK <sub>a2</sub> α-NH <sub>3</sub> <sup>+</sup>	pK <sub>a3</sub> R group	pI
<b>R Contains an Acidic (Carboxyl) Group</b>						
—CH <sub>2</sub> CO <sub>2</sub> H	Aspartic acid	D or Asp	2.1	9.8	3.9	3.0
—CH <sub>2</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> CO <sub>2</sub> H	Glutamic acid	E or Glu	2.2	9.7	4.3	3.2
<b>R Contains a Basic Group</b>						
—CH <sub>2</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> NH <sub>2</sub>	Lysine <sup>b</sup>	K or Lys	2.2	9.0	10.5 <sup>c</sup>	9.8
—CH <sub>2</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> NH—C(=NH)—NH <sub>2</sub>	Arginine	R or Arg	2.2	9.0	12.5 <sup>c</sup>	10.8
—CH <sub>2</sub> — 	Histidine	H or His	1.8	9.2	6.0 <sup>c</sup>	7.6

<sup>a</sup>Single-letter abbreviations are now the most commonly used form in current biochemical literature.

<sup>b</sup>An essential amino acid.

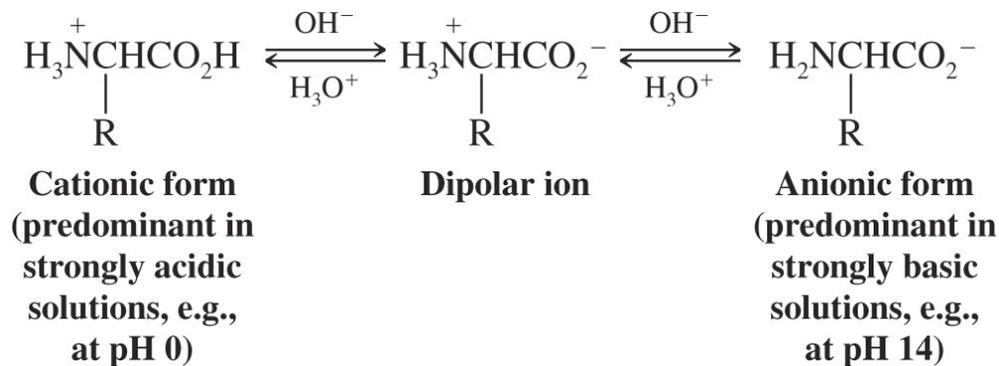
<sup>c</sup>pK<sub>a</sub> is of protonated amine of R group.

## ● Amino Acids as Dipolar Ions

→ In the dry solid state amino acids exist as dipolar ions (zwitterions)

→ In aqueous solution an equilibrium exists between the dipolar ion, the cationic and the anionic forms of the amino acid

☞ The predominant form depends on the pH of the solution



→ At low pH the amino acid exists primarily in the cationic form

→ At high pH the amino acid exists primarily in the anionic form

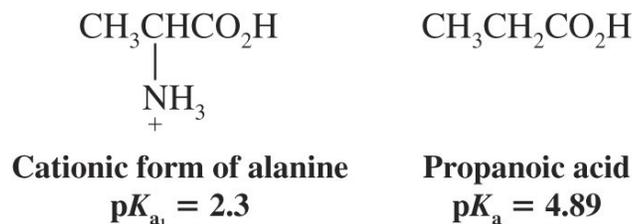
→ At some intermediate pH called the *pI* (*isoelectric point*), the concentration of the dipolar ion is at a maximum and the concentrations of anionic and cationic forms are equal

→ Each individual amino acid has a characteristic *pI* (see Table 24.1)

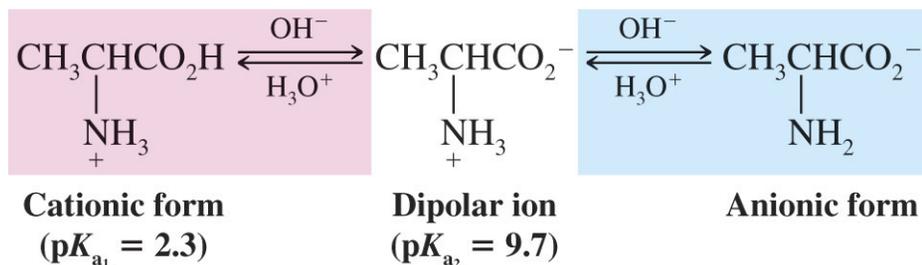
☞ Entire proteins also have a characteristic *pI*

→ The amino acid alanine has a neutral side chain and can be used to illustrate the fundamental behavior of an amino acid at various pHs

- At low pH alanine exist as the cation
- $pK_{a1}$  of alanine (for ionization of the carboxylic acid proton) is 2.3, considerably lower than the  $pK_a$  of a normal carboxylic acid



- $pK_{a2}$  of alanine (for ionization of a proton from the protonated amino group) is 9.7

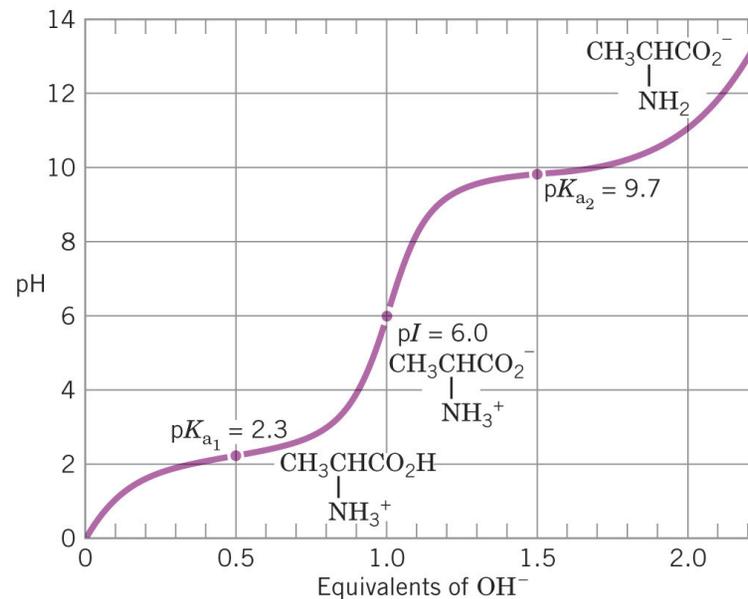


- The isoelectric point,  $pI$ , for alanine is the average of the two  $pK_a$  values *i.e.*  $(pK_{a1} + pK_{a2})/2$

- When base is slowly added to fully protonated alanine, a pH is reached where half of the carboxylic acid groups are deprotonated
- This pH of 2.3 is the value of  $pK_{a1}$
- The Henderson-Hasselbach equation predicts this result

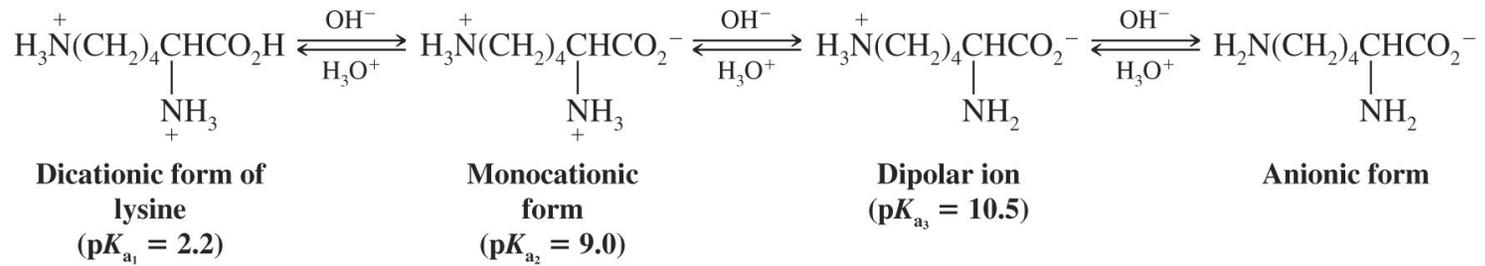
$$pK_a = \text{pH} + \log \frac{[\text{HA}]}{[\text{A}^-]} \quad [\text{HA}] = [\text{A}^-] \quad \text{and} \quad \log \frac{[\text{HA}]}{[\text{A}^-]} = 0$$

- As more base is added, the pI is reached and the molecule is electrically neutral; this point is reached when exactly one equivalent of base is added
- As more base is added and pH 9.7 is reached, half of the the aminium groups will be deprotonated
- Addition of more base will eventually produce only the anionic amino acid



→ Lysine, which contains a basic side-chain, has a more complex equilibrium

- ☞ The *pI* for lysine will be high because of the presence of two basic groups
- ☞ The *pI* for lysine is the average of the monocation ( $pK_{a2}$ ) and the dipolar ion ( $pK_{a3}$ )

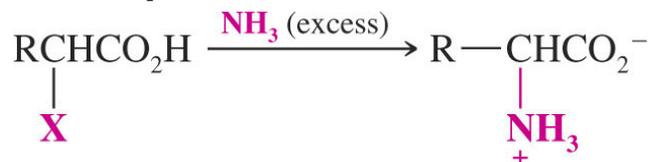


## ◆ Synthesis of $\alpha$ -Amino Acids

→ The first three methods result in racemic mixtures of amino acids

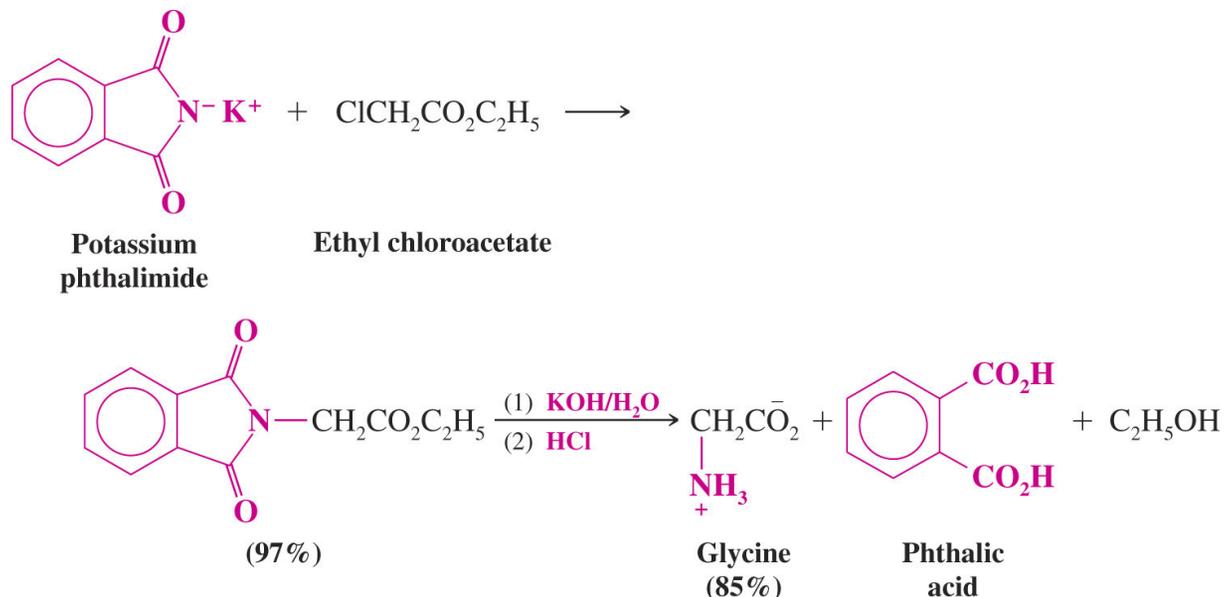
### ● Direct Ammonolysis of an $\alpha$ -Halo Acid

→ Yields tend to be poor in this reaction



### ● From Potassium Phthalimide

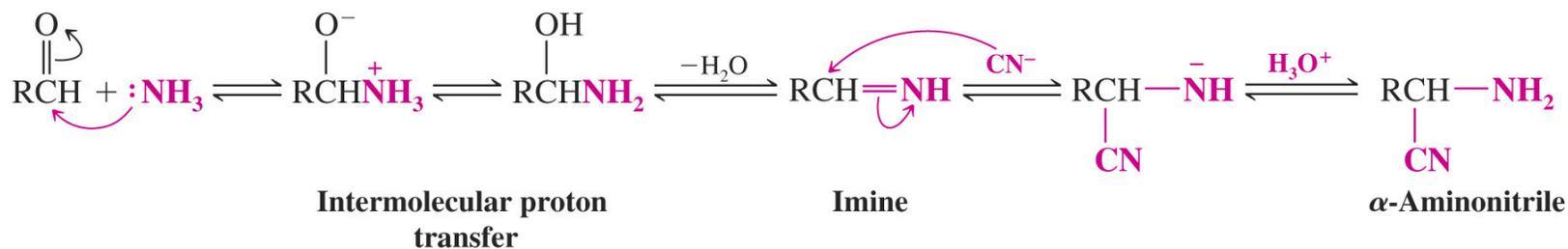
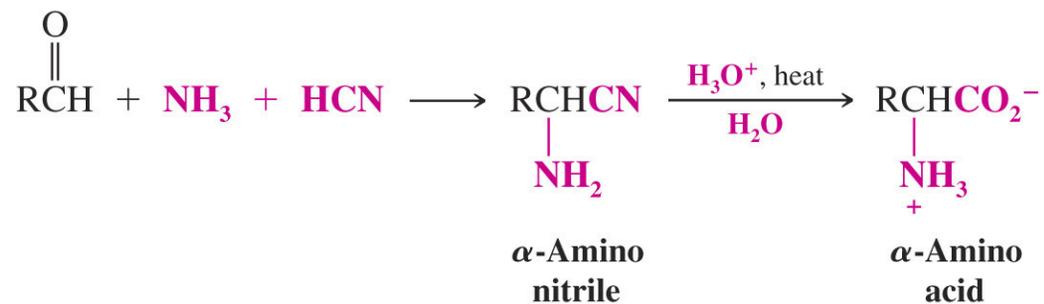
→ This is a variation of the Gabriel synthesis and yields are usually high



## ● The Strecker Synthesis

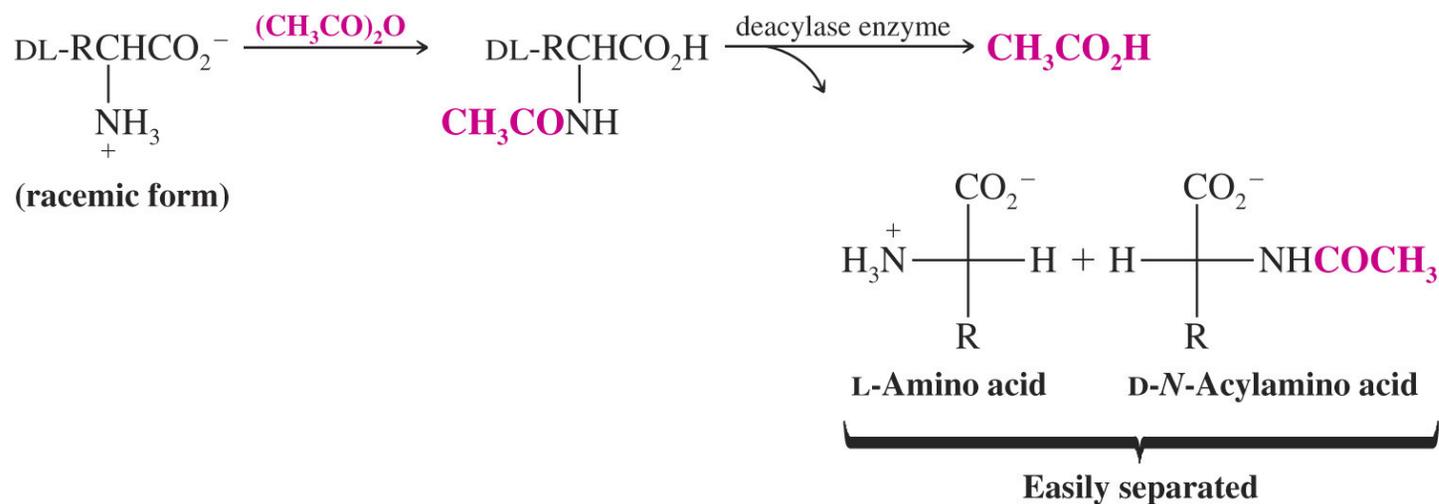
→ Treatment of an aldehyde with ammonia and hydrogen cyanide yields an  $\alpha$ -aminonitrile which is hydrolyzed to the  $\alpha$ -amino acid

⚡ The reaction proceeds via an intermediate imine



## ● Resolution of DL-Amino Acids

- A racemic amino acid mixture can be resolved by
- (1) conversion to a racemic mixture of *N*-acylamino acids, followed by
  - (2) hydrolysis with a deacylase enzyme that selectively deacylates the L-acylamino acid

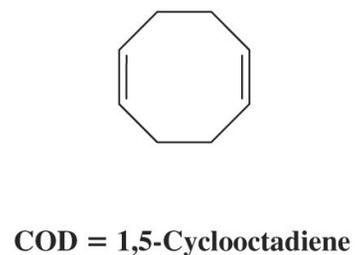
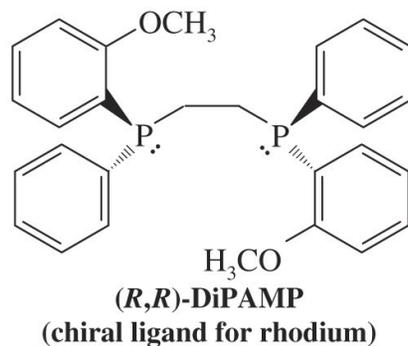
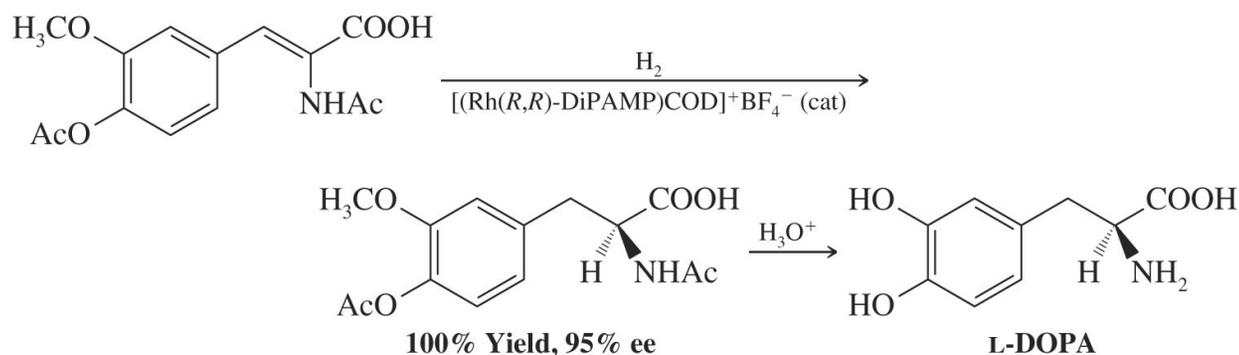


## ● Asymmetric Synthesis of Amino Acids

- Enantioselective syntheses that produce only the desired naturally occurring amino acid enantiomers are ideal
- One important method involves asymmetric hydrogenation of an enamide using a chiral transition metal catalyst

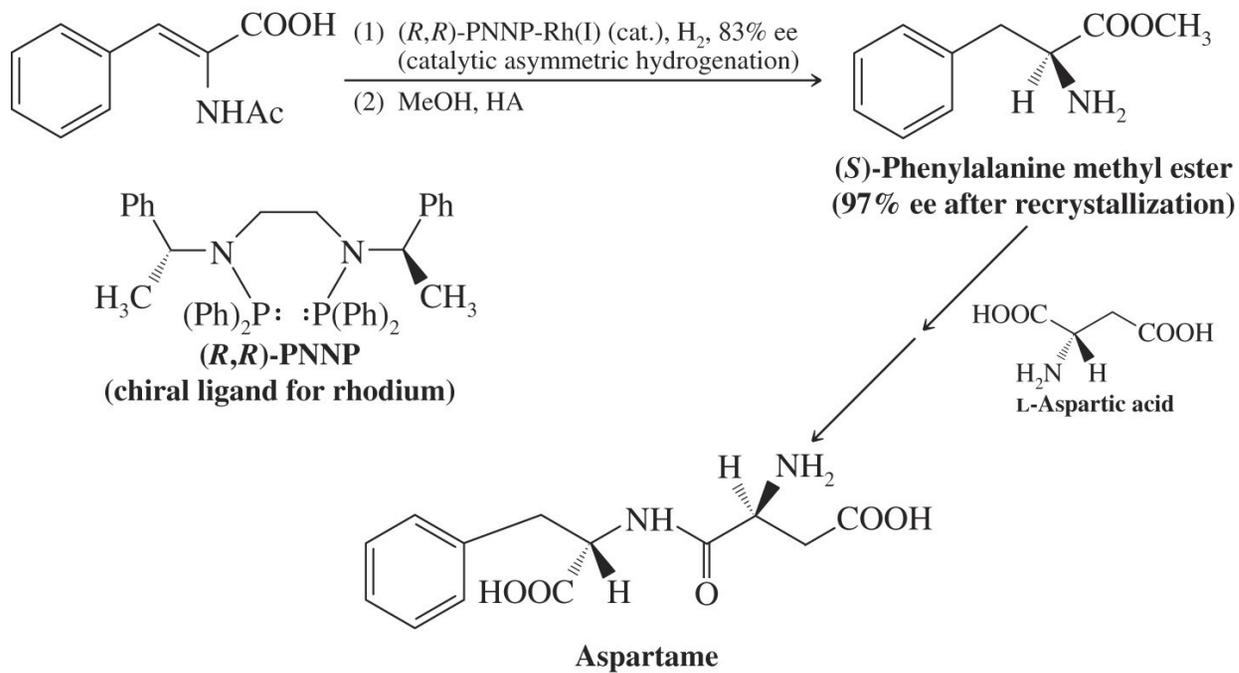
☞ This method was used to synthesize L-dopa, a chiral amino acid used in the treatment of Parkinson's disease

### *Asymmetric Synthesis of L-DOPA*



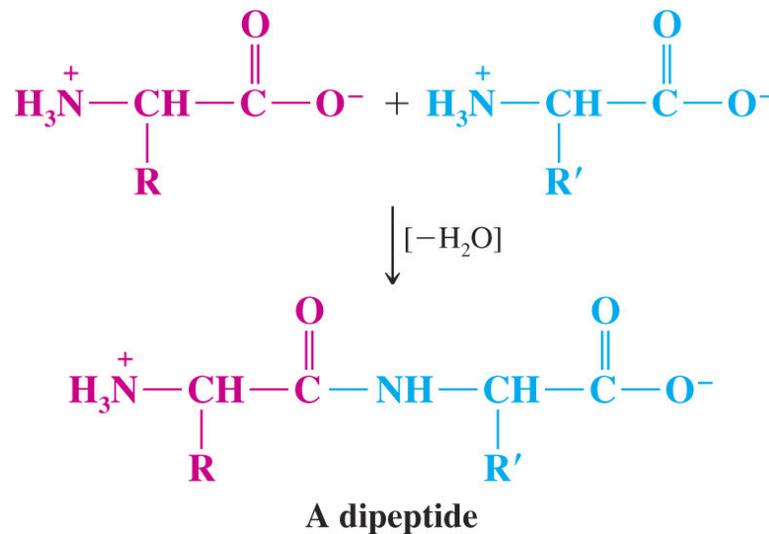
☞ **A similar method is used to synthesize (S)-phenylalanine, needed for preparation of Aspartame**

*Asymmetric Synthesis of Aspartame*



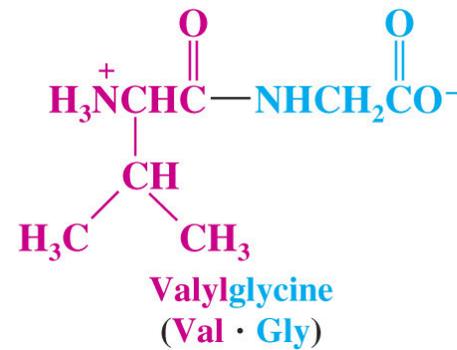
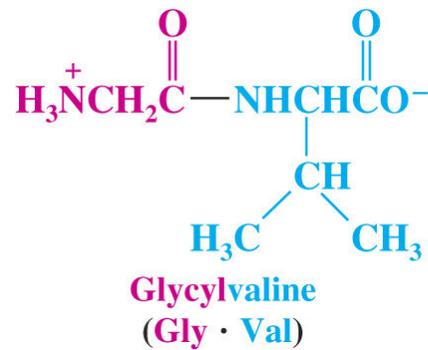
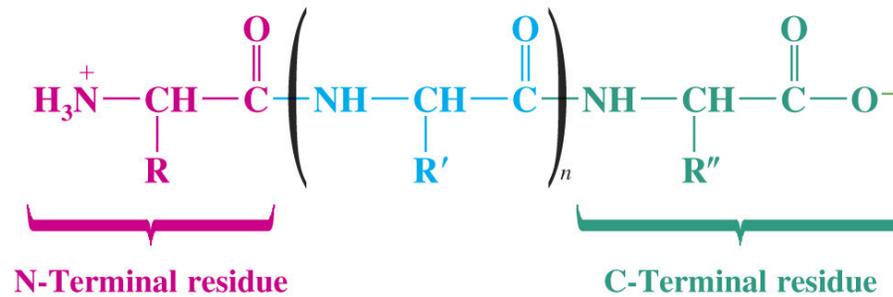
## ◆ Polypeptides and Proteins

- Enzymes polymerize amino acids by forming amide linkages
- The polymer is called a *peptide* and the amide linkages are called *peptide bonds* or *peptide linkages*
- Each amino acid in the peptide is called an amino acid residue
- Proteins can contain one or more polypeptide chains and other associated molecules or metal ions



→ Polypeptides are customarily written with the *N*-terminal residue to the left

- ☞ Three letter or one letter abbreviations are usually used as a short hand to indicate the sequence of a polypeptide

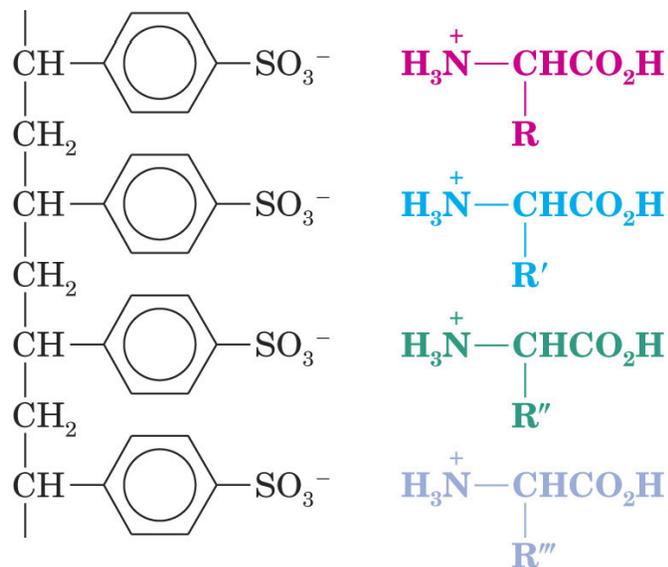


## ● Hydrolysis

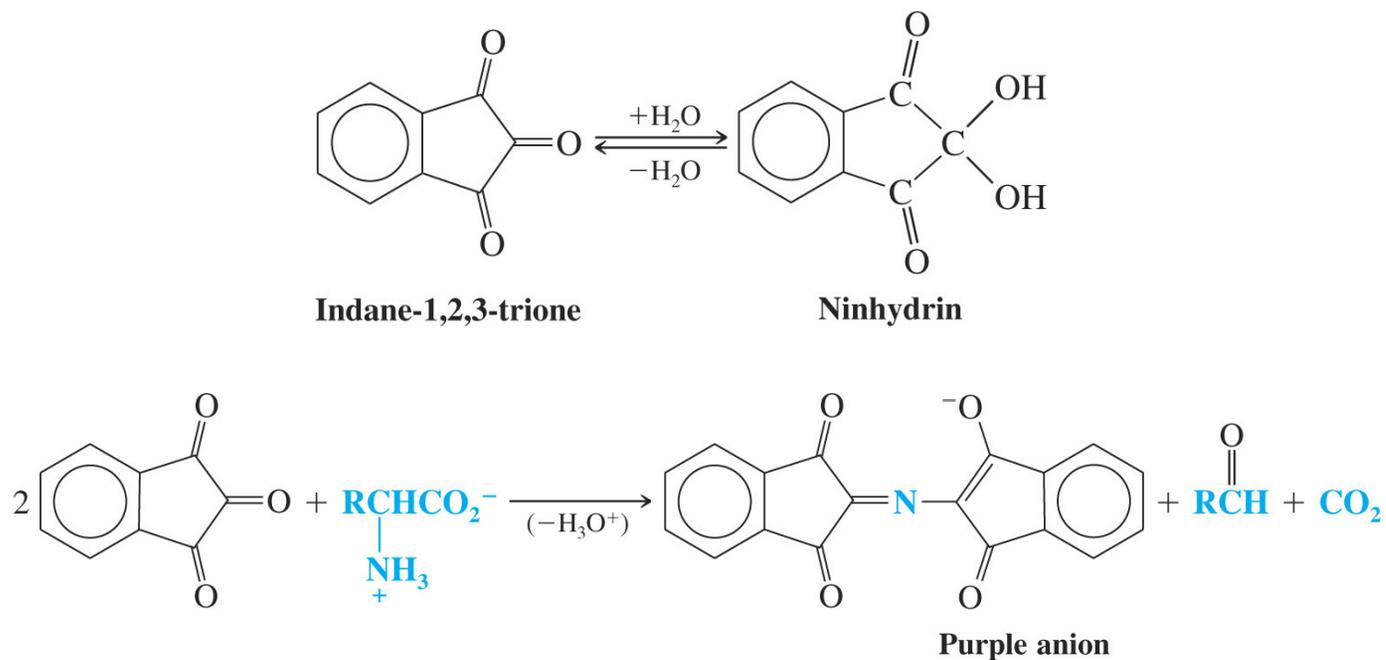
→ A polypeptide can be hydrolyzed by refluxing with 6M hydrochloric acid for 24h

→ The individual amino acids can be separated from each other using a cation-exchange resin

- ☞ An acidic solution of the amino acids is passed through the cation-exchange column; the strength of adsorption varies with the basicity of each amino acid (the most basic are held most strongly)
- ☞ Washing the column with a sequence of buffered solutions causes the amino acids to move through it at different rates



→ In the original method, the column eluant is treated with ninhydrin, a dye used for detecting and quantifying each amino acid as it comes off the column



→ In modern practice, analysis of amino acid mixtures is routinely accomplished using high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC)

## ◆ Primary Structure of Polypeptides and Proteins

→ The sequence of amino acids in a polypeptide is called its primary structure

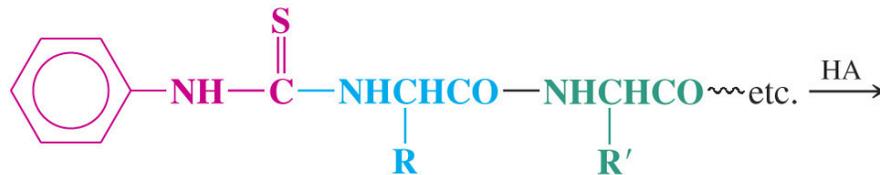
☞ Several methods exist to elucidate the primary structure of peptides

### ● Edman Degradation

→ Edman degradation involve sequential cleavage and identification of *N*-terminal amino acids

→ Edman degradation works well for polypeptide sequence analyses up to approximately 60 amino acid residues

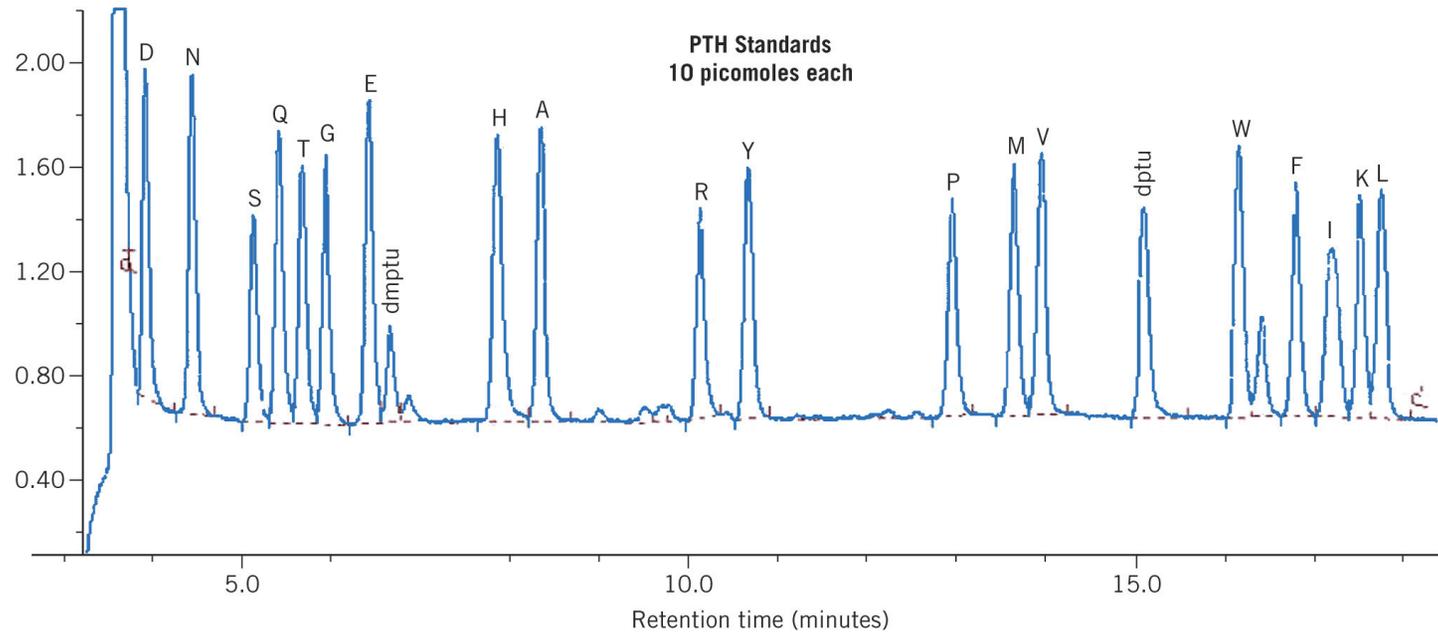
- ☞ The *N*-terminal residue of the polypeptide reacts with phenyl isothiocyanate
- ☞ The resulting phenylthiocarbamyl derivative is cleaved from the peptide chain
- ☞ The unstable product rearranges to a stable phenylthiohydantoin (PTH) which is purified by HPLC and identified by comparison with PTH standards



Labeled polypeptide

→ **Automated amino acid sequencing machines use the Edman degradation and high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC)**

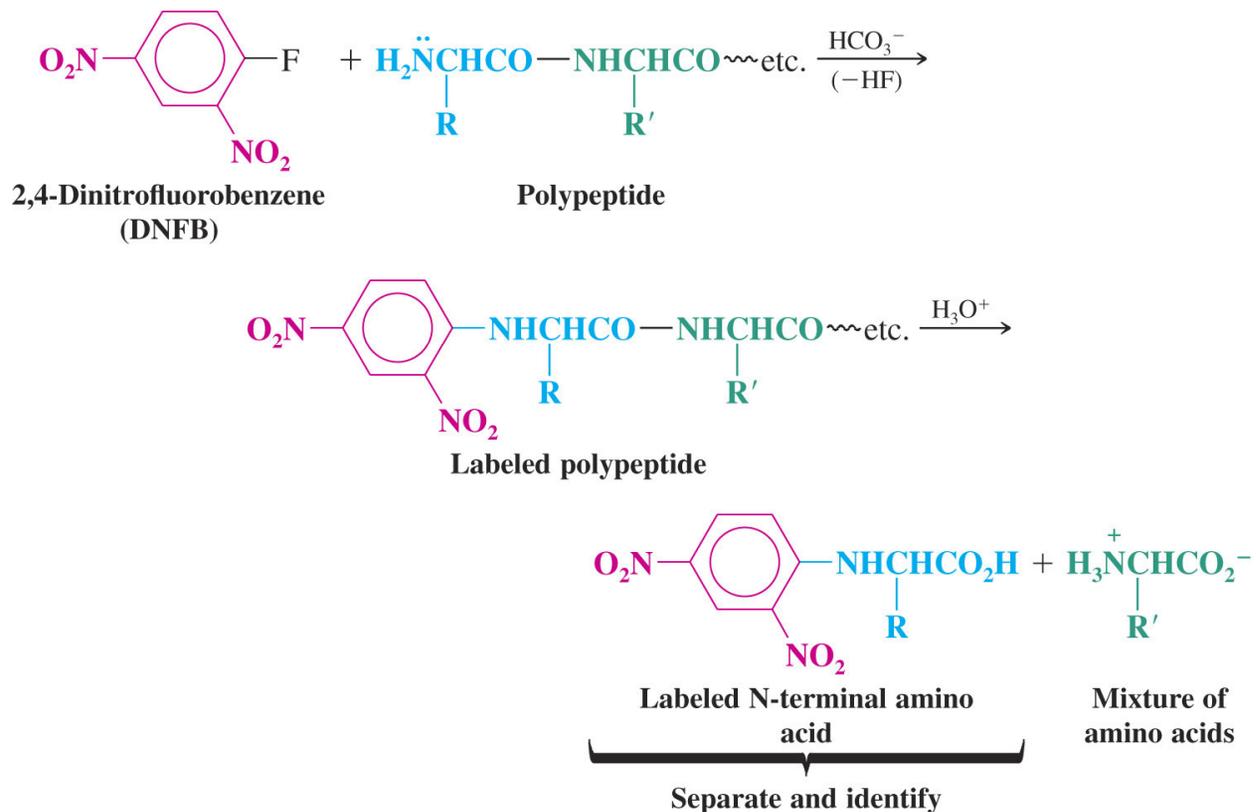
- ☞ **One Edman degradation cycle beginning with a picomolar amount of polypeptide can be completed in approximately 30 minutes**
- ☞ **Each cycle results in identification of the next amino acid residue in the peptide**



- **Sanger *N*-Terminal Analysis**

→ The *N*-terminal end of the polypeptide is labeled with 2,4-dinitrofluorobenzene and the polypeptide is hydrolyzed

☞ The labeled *N*-terminal amino acid is separated from the mixture and identified



→ The Sanger method is not as widely used as the Edman method

- **C-Terminal Analysis**

- **Enzymes called carboxypeptidases hydrolyze C-terminal amino acids selectively**

- ⌘ **The enzyme continues to release each newly exposed C-terminal amino acid as the peptide is hydrolyzed; it is necessary to monitor the release of C-terminal amino acids as a function of time to identify them**

## ● Complete Sequence Analysis

→ The Sanger and Edman methods of analysis apply to short polypeptide sequences (up to about 60 amino acid residues by Edman degradation)

→ For large proteins and polypeptides, the sample is subjected to partial hydrolysis with dilute acid to give a random assortment of shorter polypeptides which are then analyzed

☞ The smaller polypeptides are sequenced, and regions of overlap among them allow the entire polypeptide to be sequenced

→ Example: A pentapeptide is known to contain the following amino acids:

Val<sub>2</sub>, Leu, His, Phe

☞ Using DNFB and carboxypeptidase, the N-terminal and C-terminal amino acids are identified

Val (Val, His, Phe) Leu

☞ The pentapeptide is subjected to partial hydrolysis and the following dipeptides are obtained

Val · His + His · Val + Val · Phe + Phe · Leu

☞ The amino acid sequence of the pentapeptide must be:

Val · His · Val · Phe · Leu

**→ Larger polypeptides can also be cleaved into smaller sequences using *site-specific* reagents and enzymes**

- ✎ The use of these agents gives more predictable fragments which can again be overlapped to obtain the sequence of the entire polypeptide
- ✎ Cyanogen bromide (CNBr) cleaves peptide bonds only on the C-terminal side of methionine residues

**→ Mass spectrometry can be used to determine polypeptide and protein sequences**

- ✎ “Ladder sequencing” involves analyzing a polypeptide digest by mass spectrometry, wherein each polypeptide in the digest differs by one amino acid in length; the difference in mass between each adjacent peak indicates the amino acid that occupies that position in the sequence
- ✎ Mass spectra of polypeptide fragments from a protein can be compared with databases of known polypeptide sequences, thus leading to an identification of the protein or a part of its sequence by matching

# ◆ Examples of Polypeptide and Protein Primary Structure

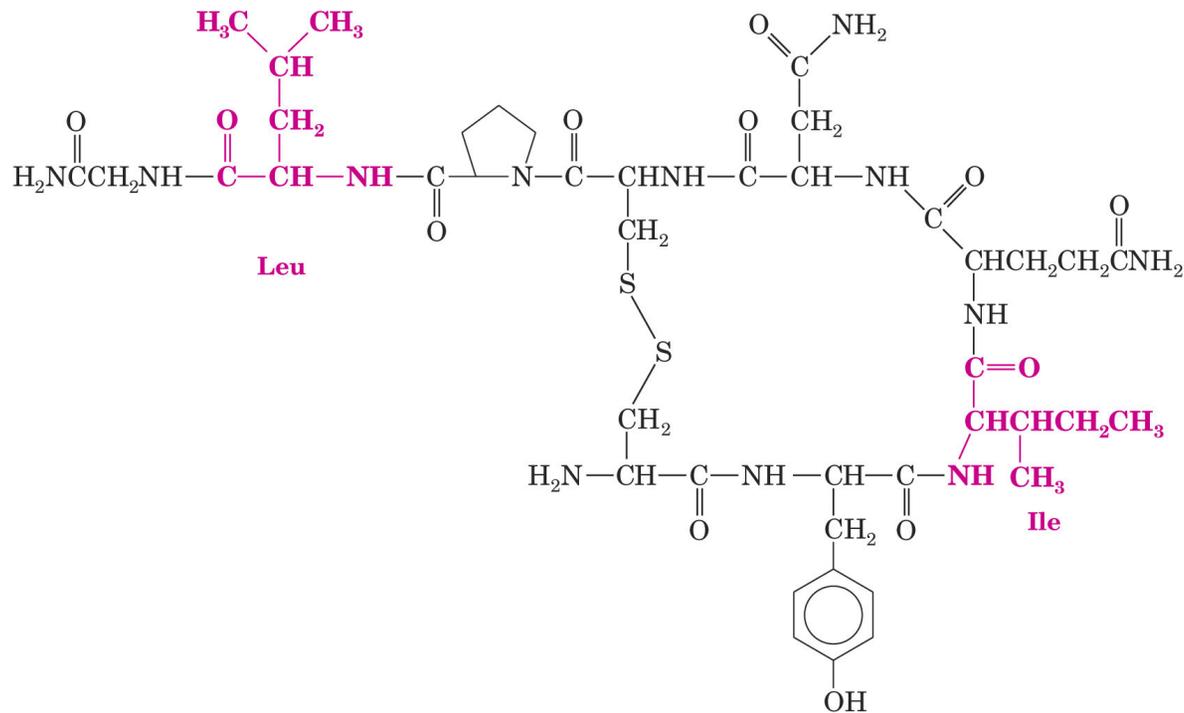
## ● Oxytocin and Vasopressin

→ Oxytocin stimulates uterine contractions during childbirth

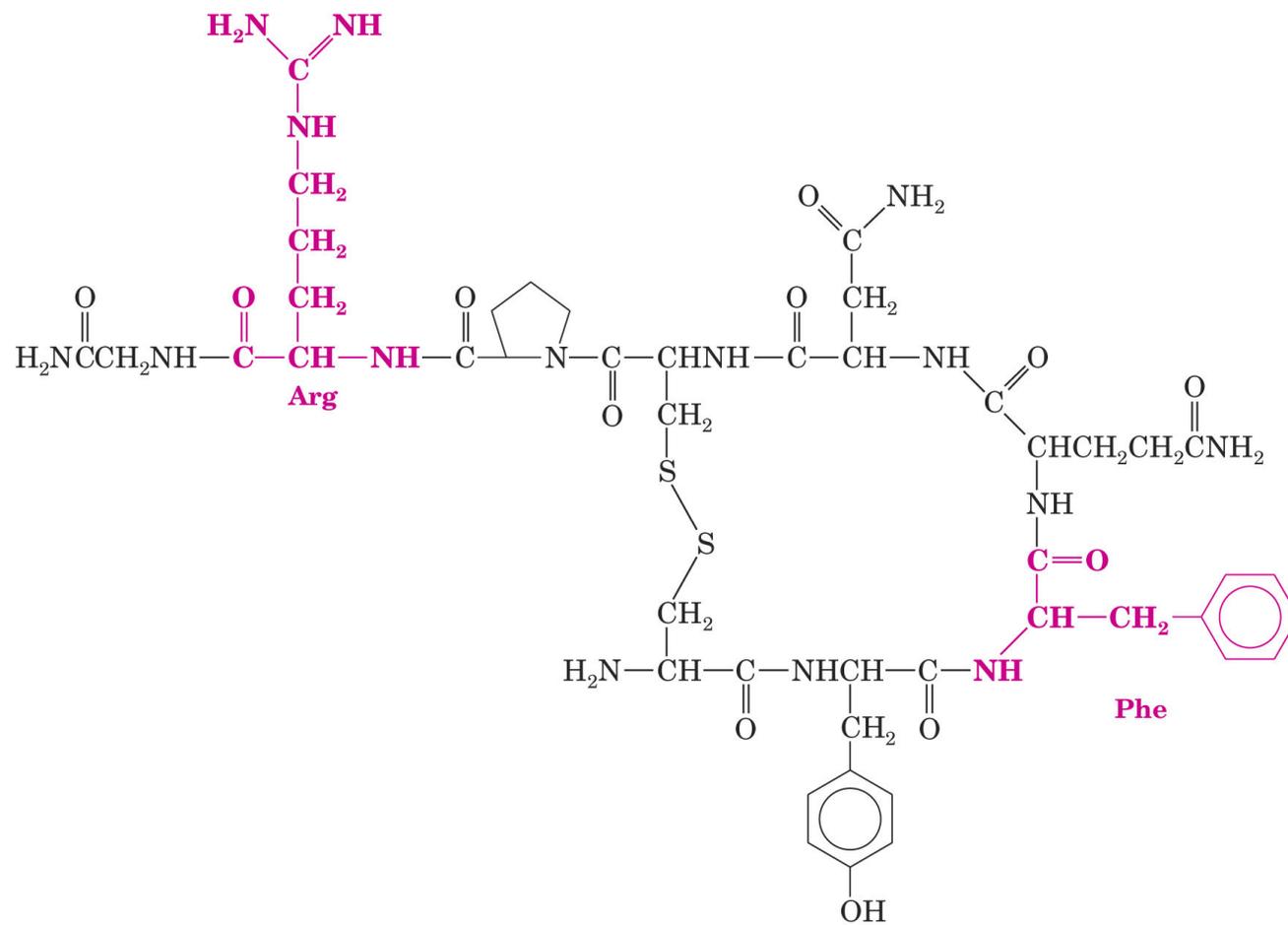
→ Vasopressin causes contraction of peripheral blood vessels and a resultant increase in blood pressure

☞ The two polypeptides are nonapeptides and differ in only 2 amino acid residues

Oxytocin



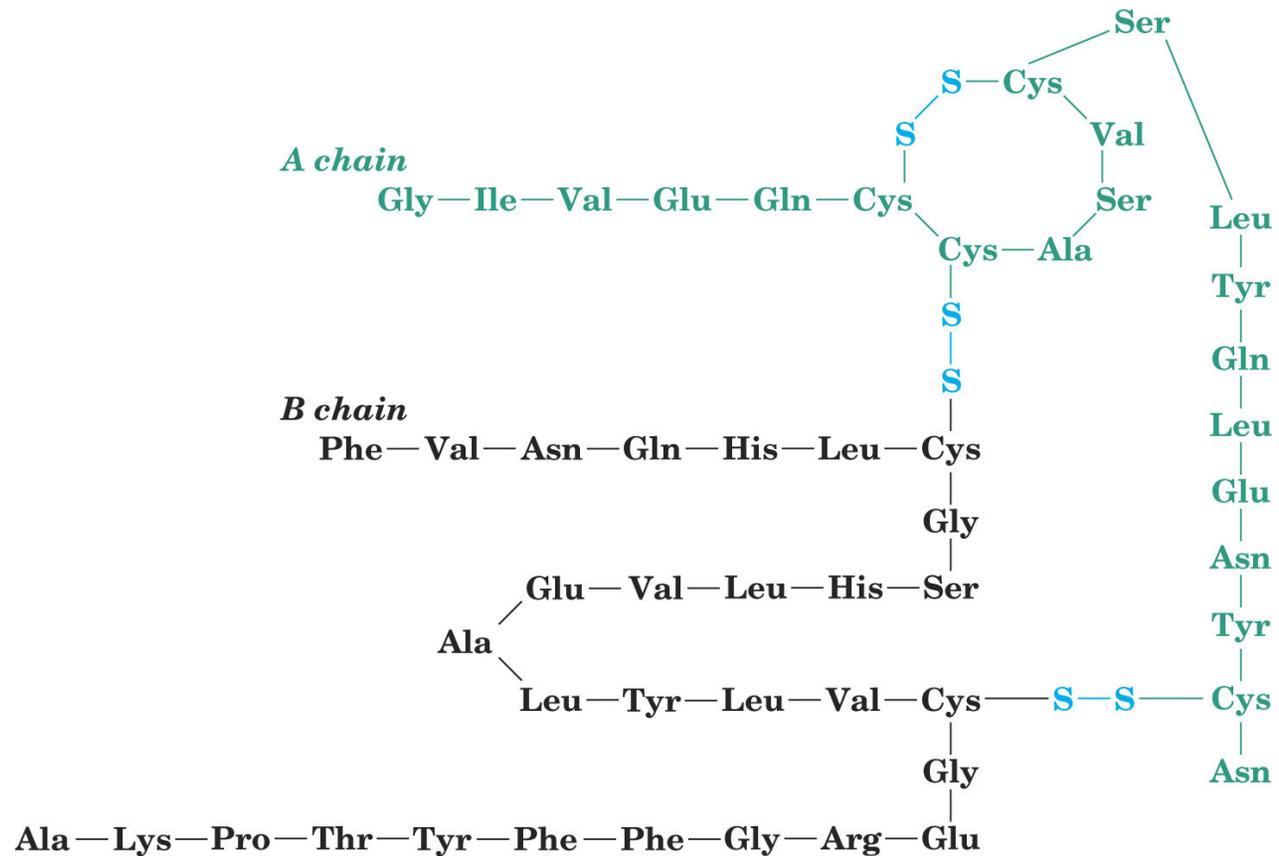
Vasopressin



## ● Insulin

→ Insulin is a hormone which regulates glucose metabolism

- ☞ Insulin deficiency in humans is the major cause of diabetes mellitus
- ☞ The structure of bovine insulin (shown below) was determined in 1953 by Sanger
- ☞ Human insulin differs from bovine insulin at only three amino acids in its sequence



## ◆ Polypeptide and Protein Synthesis

→ Laboratory synthesis of polypeptides requires orchestration of blocking and activating groups to achieve selective amide bond formation

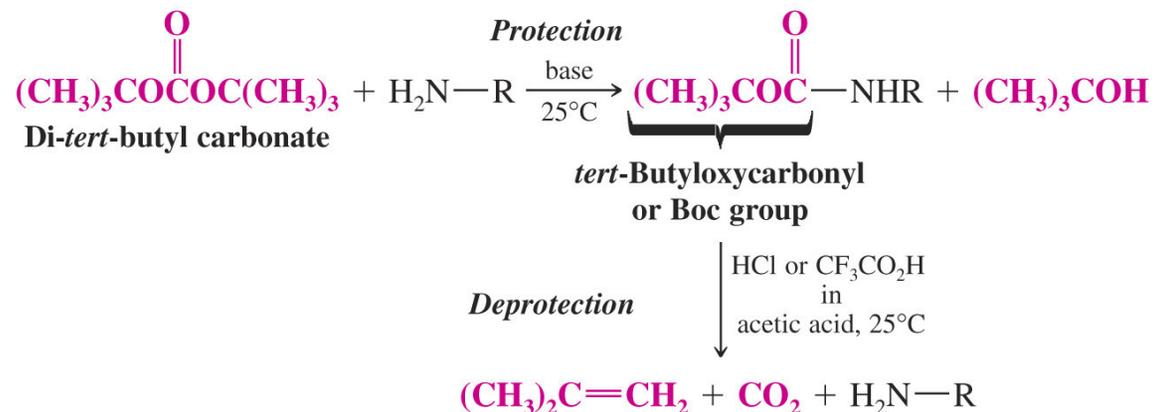
- ☞ Amino groups must be blocked until their reactivity as a nucleophile is desired
- ☞ Carboxylic acid groups must be activated for acyl substitution at the appropriate time

→ Amino groups are usually blocked using one of the following:

- ☞ A benzyloxycarbonyl group (a “Z” group)
- ☞ A di-*tert*-butyloxycarbonyl group (a “Boc” group)
- ☞ An 9-fluorenylmethoxycarbonyl group (an “Fmoc” group)

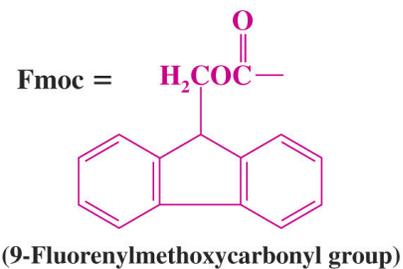
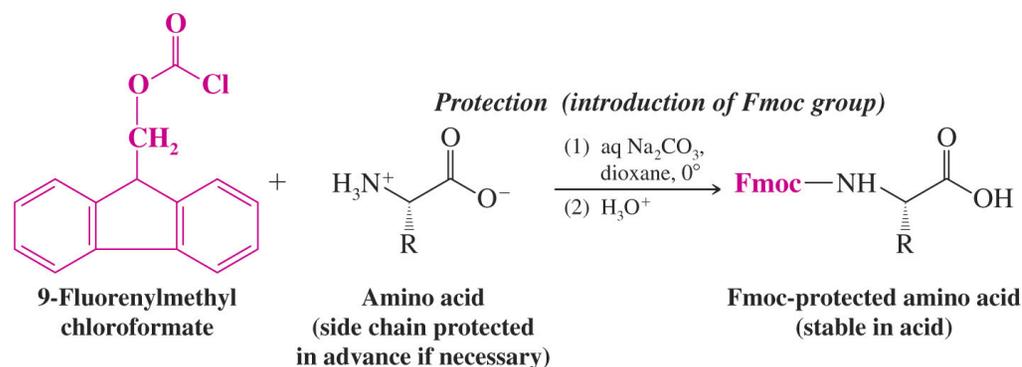
→ Methods for installing and removing Z, Boc, and Fmoc groups are shown below:

*tert*-Butyloxycarbonyl Group

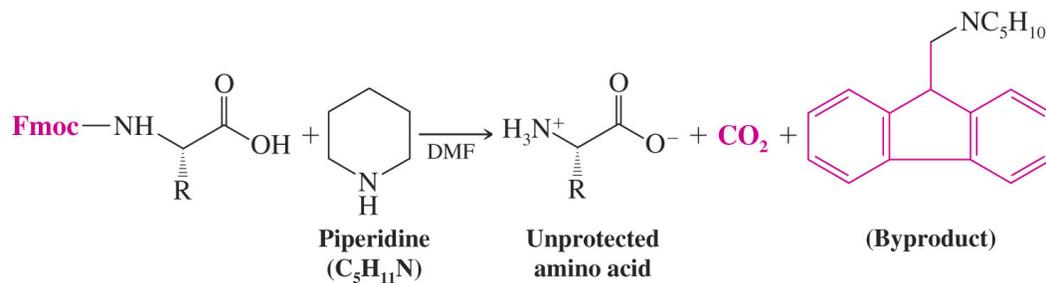


→ Methods for installing and removing Z, Boc, and Fmoc groups are shown below:

*9-Fluorenylmethoxycarbonyl Group*

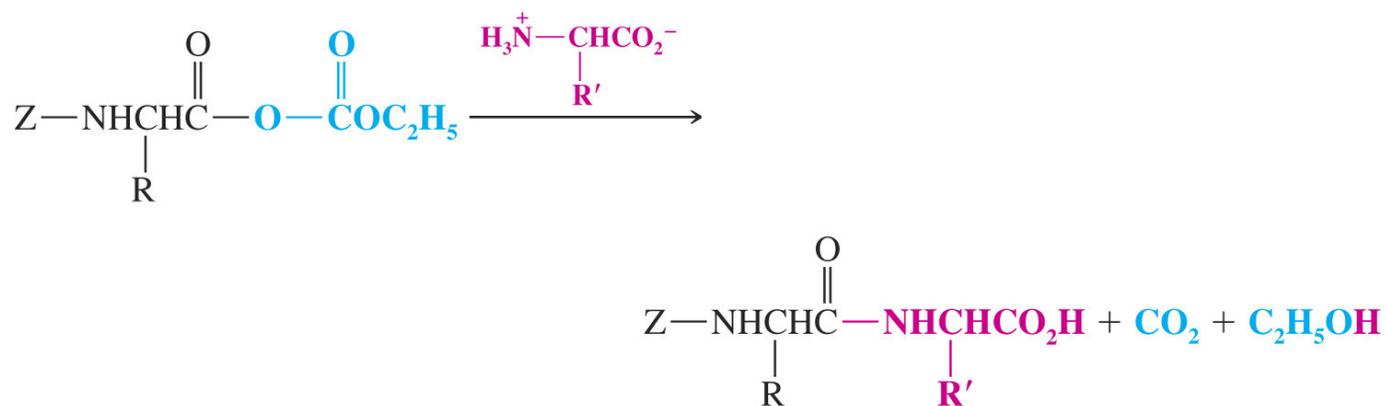
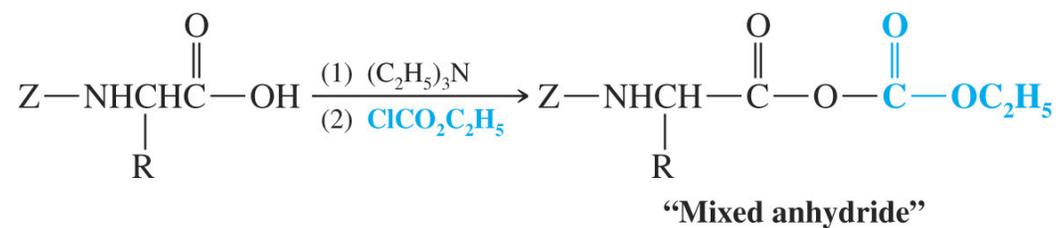


*Deprotection (removal of Fmoc group)*



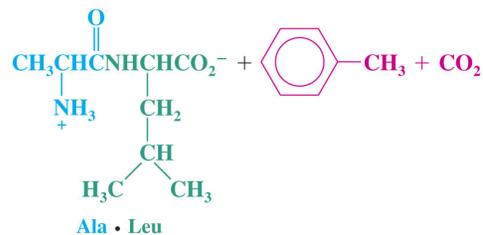
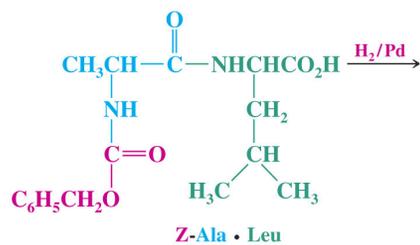
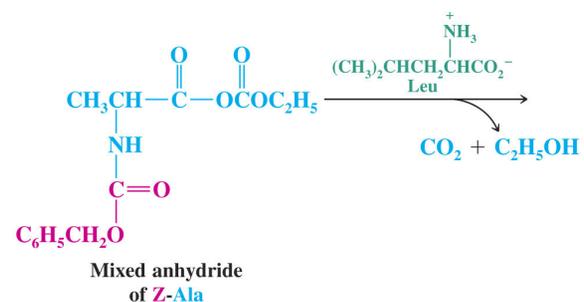
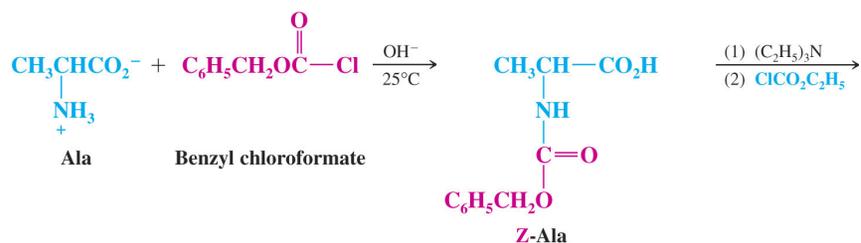
- Carboxylic acid groups are usually activated by conversion to a mixed anhydride:

☞ Ethyl chloroformate can be used



# ◆ An Example of Laboratory Peptide Synthesis:

## → Synthesis of Ala-Leu



## ◆ Automated Peptide Synthesis

- Solid Phase Peptide Synthesis (SPSS) was invented by R. B. Merrifield, for which he earned the Nobel Prize in 1984
- SPSS involves 'growing' a peptide on a solid polymer bead by sequential cycles of amide bond formation
- The peptide is cleaved from the bead when the synthesis is complete
- SPSS is used in commercial peptide synthesis machines
  - ↳ Peptides dozens of residues in length can be synthesized automatically
  - ↳ A landmark example is synthesis of ribonuclease, having 124 amino acid residues



# ◆ Secondary, Tertiary, and Quaternary Structures of Proteins

## ● Secondary Structure

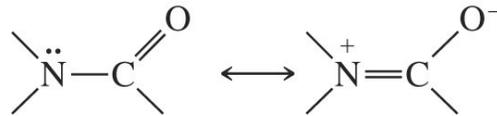
→ The secondary structure of a protein is defined by local conformations of its polypeptide backbone

↳ These local conformations are specified in terms of regular folding patterns such as helices, pleated sheets, and turns

→ The secondary structure of a protein is determined by the sequence of amino acids in its primary structure

→ Key to secondary structure is that peptide bonds assume a geometry in which all 6 atoms of the amide linkage are trans coplanar

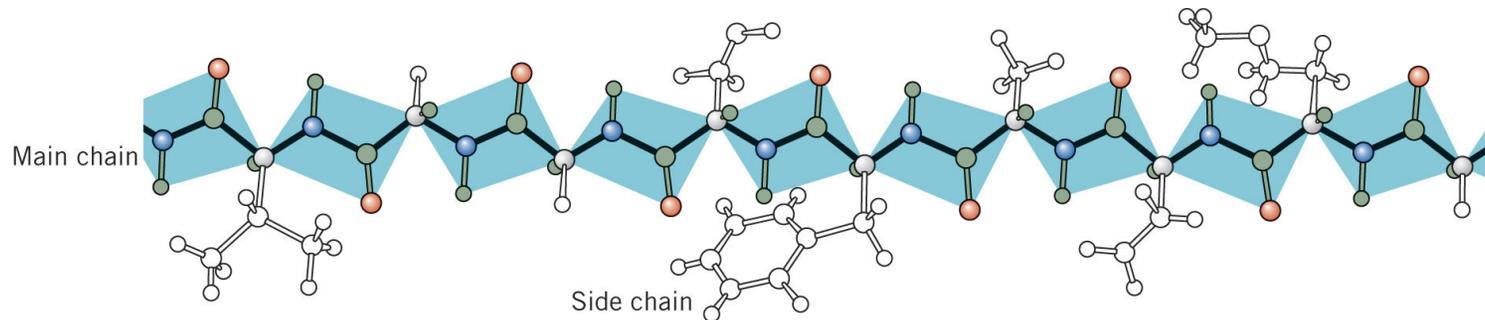
→ Coplanarity results from contribution of the second resonance form of amides, in which there is considerable N-C double bond character



→ The carbon with attached R groups between the amide nitrogen and the carbonyl group has relatively free rotation and this leads to different conformations of the overall chain

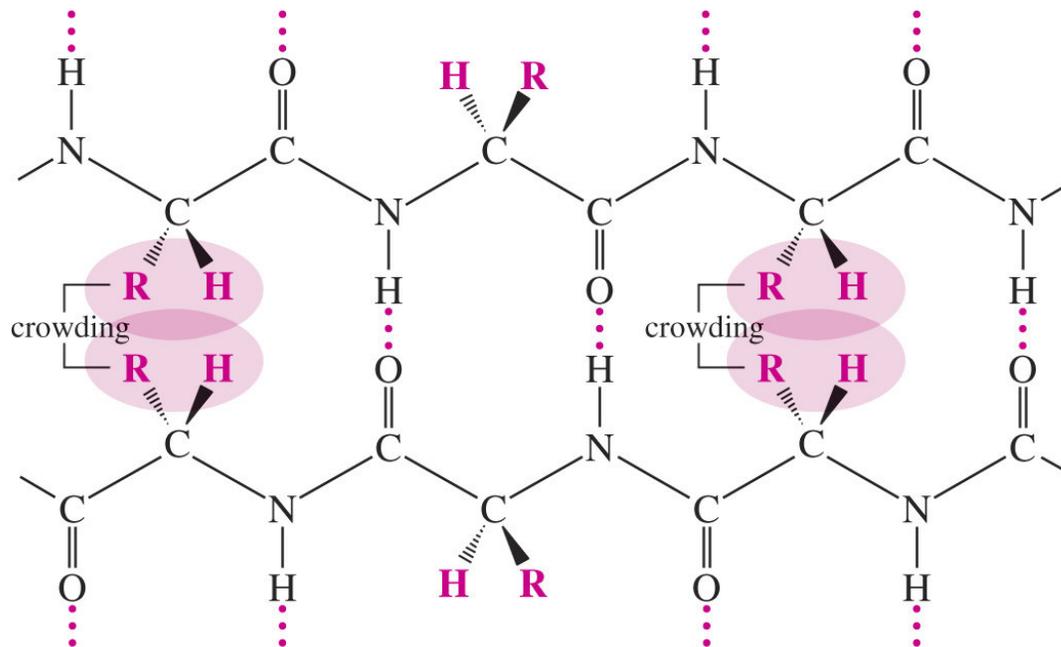
- Two common secondary structure are the *β-pleated sheet* and the *α-helix*

→ In the *β-pleated sheet*, a polypeptide chain is in an extended conformation with groups alternating from side to side



→ The extended polypeptide chains in  $\beta$ -pleated sheets form hydrogen bonds to adjacent polypeptide chains

- ☞ Slight bond rotations are necessary between amide groups to avoid unfavorable steric interactions between peptide side chains, leading to the pleated structure
- ☞ The  $\beta$ -pleated sheet is the predominant structure in silk fibroin



Hypothetical flat-sheet structure  
(not formed because of steric hindrance)

- **The  $\alpha$ -helix is the most important protein secondary structure**
- **$\alpha$ -Helices in a polypeptide are right-handed with 3.6 amino acid residues per turn (See figure 24.11 page 1198)**
  - ↳ The amide nitrogen has a hydrogen bond to an amino acid carbonyl oxygen that is three residues away
  - ↳ The R groups extend away from the axis of the helix
- **$\alpha$ -Helices comprise the predominant secondary structure of fibrous proteins such as myosin (in muscle) and  $\alpha$ -keratin (in hair and nails)**
- **There are other secondary structures that are more difficult to describe**
  - ↳ Examples are coil or loop conformations and reverse turns or  $\beta$  bends

- **Carbonic Anhydrase**

- **The structure of the enzyme carbonic anhydrase is shown in Figure 24.12,page 1198**

- ☞ **Alpha helices are in magenta and strands of  $\beta$ -pleated sheets are in yellow**
    - ☞ **The mechanism of carbonic anhydrase reaction was discussed in Chapter 3**

## ● Tertiary Structure

→ The tertiary structure of a protein is the three-dimensional shape which results from further folding of its polypeptide chains

↳ This folding is superimposed on the folding caused by its secondary structure

→ In globular proteins, the folding in tertiary structures exposes the maximum number of polar (hydrophilic) side chains to the aqueous environment, making most globular proteins water soluble

↳ The folding also serves to enclose a maximum number of nonpolar (hydrophobic) side chains within the protein interior

→ Tertiary structures are stabilized by forces including hydrogen bonding, disulfide bonds, van der Waals forces, and ionic attractions

## ● Myoglobin

→ The globular protein myoglobin transports oxygen within muscle tissues (See Figure 24.13, page 1200)

- ☞ Myoglobin has an associated non-polypeptide molecule called heme (shown in gray)
- ☞ The heme group is the site of oxygen binding

- **Quaternary Structure**

- **The overall structure of a protein having multiple subunits is called its quaternary structure**

- ☞ **Not all proteins have quaternary structure**

- **Hemoglobin**

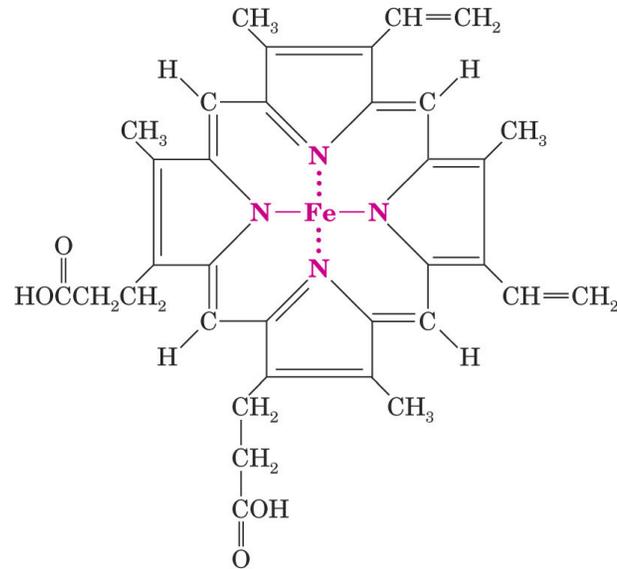
- **Hemoglobin is a globular protein that transports oxygen in the blood**

- **Hemoglobin contains four polypeptide subunits (2 designated  $\alpha$ , and 2 designated  $\beta$ ) (See Figure 24.21, page 1210)**

- ☞ **The  $\alpha$  subunits are shown in blue and green;  $\beta$  subunits are shown in yellow and cyan**

→ Each of the four protein subunits carries a heme group

- The four heme groups are shown in purple
- Each heme group can bind one oxygen molecule in a reversible complex



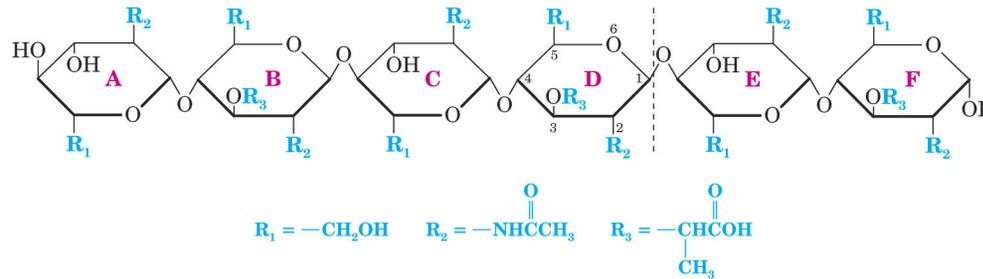
## ● Introduction to Enzymes

- Most enzymes are proteins
- Enzymes can catalyze reactions by a factor of  $10^6$ - $10^{12}$
- Enzymes have very high specificity for their respective substrates (reactants)
- Enzymatic reactions take place in the active site of each enzyme
  - ↳ The structure of the active site facilitates binding and catalysis
  
- Enzymes sometimes require a cofactor or coenzyme
  - ↳ A cofactor can be a metal ion (e.g.,  $Zn^{+2}$ ,  $Mg^{+2}$ ) bound at the active site
  - ↳ A coenzyme is a small organic molecule bound at the active site that becomes chemically changed during the enzymatic reaction (e.g.,  $NAD^+$ )

- **Lysozyme**

→ Lysozyme catalyzes hydrolysis of a glycosidic linkage in the polysaccharide cell wall of bacteria

☞ The mechanism of lysozyme involves acid-base reactions and S<sub>N</sub>1 reaction



→ The mechanism of lysozyme is shown in Figure 24.16, page 1204

## ● Serine Proteases

→ Proteases hydrolyze amide bonds in proteins

→ Chymotrypsin, trypsin, and elastin are serine proteases

→ Serine proteases have a serine hydroxyl group that is involved in the mechanism of amide bond hydrolysis

☞ A “catalytic triad” involving the side chains of specific aspartic acid, histidine, and serine residues catalyze the amide hydrolysis

☞ The serine hydroxyl attacks the amide carbonyl group, forming a tetrahedral intermediate

☞ The aspartic acid and histidine side chains form an acid-base relay system to assist with protonation and deprotonation steps

☞ The serine tetrahedral intermediate releases the amine, leaving an acylated serine

☞ A water molecule attacks the carbonyl group of the acylated serine

☞ A new tetrahedral intermediate forms

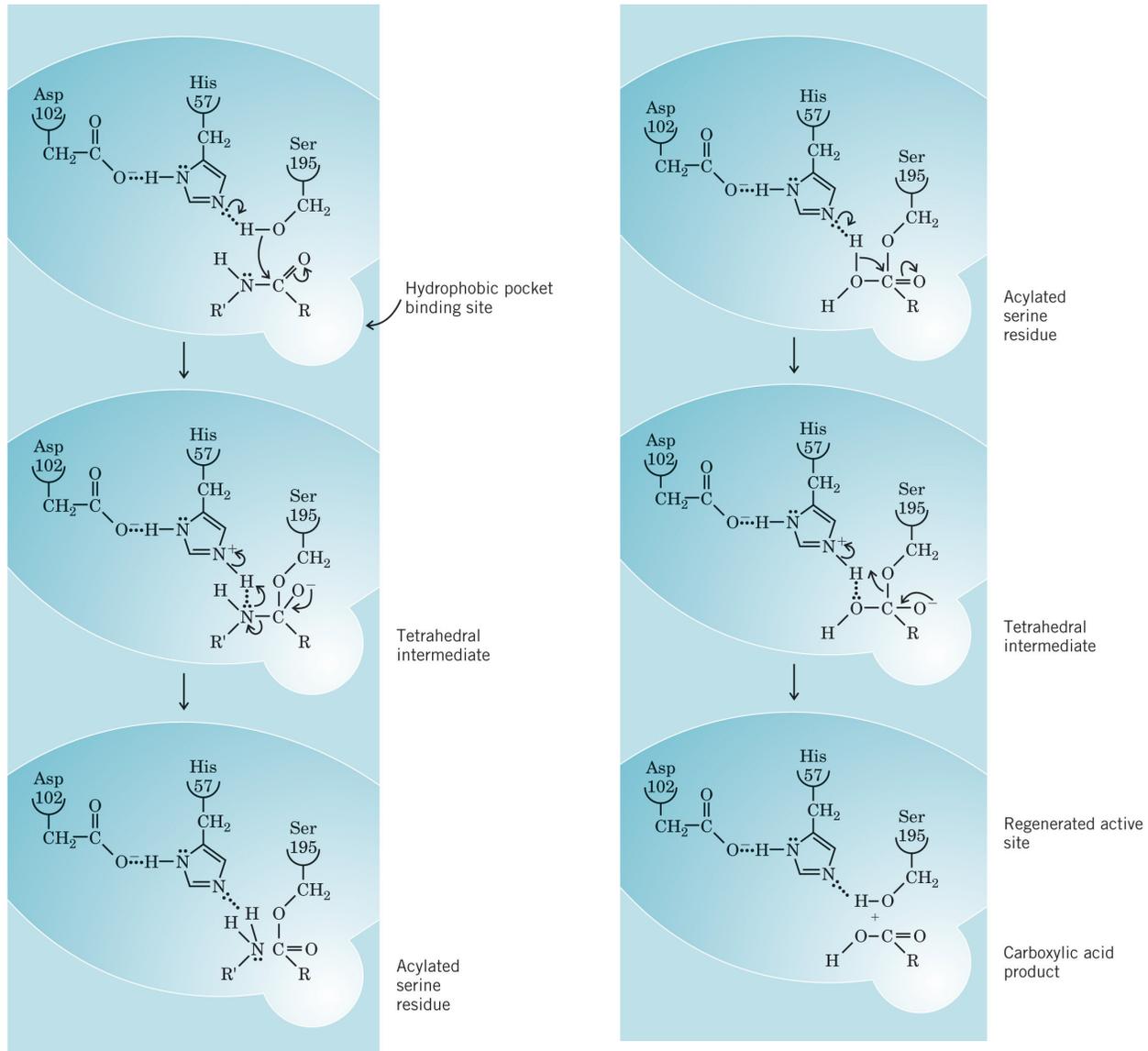
☞ When this tetrahedral intermediate collapses to the carboxylic acid, the serine hydroxyl is released for a new catalytic cycle

☞ See the following slide for the mechanism of trypsin

## ● The Active Site Catalytic Triad of Trypsin

☞ This is shown figure 24.17, page 1205

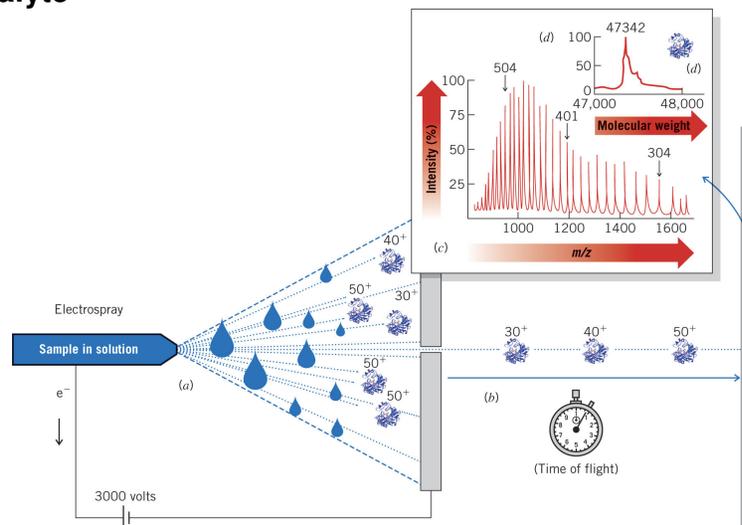
## ● The Catalytic Mechanism of Trypsin



- **Purification and Analysis of Polypeptides and Proteins**
  - Proteins are purified initially by precipitation, column chromatography, and electrophoresis
  - HPLC is the method of choice for final purification of a protein
- **Analysis of proteins**
  - Molecular weight can be estimated by gel electrophoresis and size exclusion chromatography
  - Mass spectrometry is used to determine protein molecular weights with high accuracy and precision
    - ☞ Electrospray ionization (ESI) mass spectrometry is one way to create protein ions for mass spectrometry
    - ☞ Matrix-assisted laser desorption ionization (MALDI) mass spectrometry is another technique for generating protein ions for mass spectrometry
    - ☞ The 2002 Nobel Prize in Chemistry was awarded in part for development of ESI (by Fenn, et al) and MALDI (by Tanaku) for mass spectrometry

## ● Electrospray Ionization (ESI) Mass Spectrometry (MS)

- ☞ Multiply charged ions of the analyte (e.g., a protein sample) are formed by protonation in an acidic solvent
- ☞ The protonated analyte may have one, several, or many positive charges
- ☞ The charged analyte is sprayed through a high-voltage nozzle into a vacuum chamber
- ☞ Molecules of the solvent evaporate, leaving 'naked' ions of the multiply charged analyte
- ☞ The ions are drawn into a mass analyzer and detected according to mass-to-charge ( $m/z$ ) ratio
- ☞ Quadrupole and time of flight (TOF) mass analyzers are common methods for detecting and separating ions
- ☞ The family of detected ions is displayed as a series according to  $m/z$  ratio
- ☞ Computer deconvolution of the  $m/z$  peak series leads to the molecular weight of the analyte



## ● Proteomics

→ Proteomics involves identification and quantification of all of the proteins expressed in a cell at a given time

- ☞ Proteins expression levels vary in cells over time
- ☞ Proteomics involves identification and quantification of all of the proteins expressed in a cell at a given time
- ☞ Proteomics data can shed light on the health or life-cycle stage of a cell

→ Tools for Proteomics

- ☞ Polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (2D-PAGE) is a low resolution technique for separating protein mixtures
- ☞ Two-dimensional (2D) microcapillary HPLC coupled with mass spectrometry is a high resolution technique for separating and identifying proteins in a cell extract

## ● **Multidimensional Protein Identification Technology**

→ **MudPIT (Multidimensional protein identification technology)**

**involves:**

- ☞ **Lysis of intact cells**
- ☞ **Digestion of the proteins to a mixture of smaller peptides**
- ☞ **Separation of the peptide mixture by 2D HPLC using a strong cation exchange column in tandem with a reversed-phase (hydrophobic) column)**
- ☞ **Direct introduction of the 2D HPLC eluent into a mass spectrometer**
- ☞ **Comparison of mass spectra with a database of mass spectral data for known proteins**
- ☞ **Data matching can lead to identification of >1000 proteins in one integrated analysis**