

Introduction to Protein Structure

Second Edition

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5th Edition

Chris R Calladine Horace R Drew **Ben F Luisi Andrew A Travers** Table 2.1 The 20 commonly occurring amino acids. They may be subdivided into five groups on the basis of side-chain structure. Their three- and one-letter abbreviations are also listed (one-letter abbreviations are generally used only when compiling extended sequence data, mainly to minimize writing space and effort). In addition to their individual molecular masses, the per cent occurrence of each amino acid in an 'average' protein is also presented. This data was generated from sequence analysis of over 1000 different proteins.

FIGURE 3-5 The 20 common amino acids of proteins. The structural formulas show the state of ionization that would predominate at pH 7.0. The unshaded portions are those common to all the amino acids; the portions shaded in red are the R groups. Although the R group of histidine is shown uncharged, its pK_a (see Table 3–1) is such that a small but significant fraction of these groups are positively charged at pH 7.0.

Figure 2.2 The formation of cystine via disulfide bond formation between two cysteines.

Figure 2.3 Structure of some modified amino acids.

In addition to the 20 common amino acids, some modified amino acids are also found in several proteins. In most instances these modified amino acids are formed by PTM reactions, as discussed later in this chapter. However, two amino acids (selenocysteine and pyrrolysine; Figure 2.3) exist as a preformed amino acid in their own right and are hence sometimes called the 21st and 22nd proteinogenic amino acids.

Selenium in the form of selenocysteine (Sec or U) is an essential component of a small number of enzymes in some species (including glutathione peroxidase, thioredoxin reductases and some hydrogenases). The nucleotide sequence of the genes coding for such enzymes contains a UGA codon, which codes for selenocysteine. In nonselenocysteine proteins, UGA normally functions as a termination codon. The reading of UGA as selenocysteine rather than the more usual stop codon is apparently dependent on the presence of a so-called cis-acting selenocysteine insertion sequence element.

Pyrrolysine (Pyl or O) displays a side chain similar to lysine, with the presence of an added pyrroline ring at the end of the lysine side chain. Similarly to Sec, Pyl is encoded by a codon which normally functions as a stop signal (UAG), with Pyl insertion likely requiring a pyrrolysine insertion sequence element. Its presence appears to be restricted to a small number of methanogenic, mainly archael, microorganisms, where it appears to reside within the active site of several methyltransferase enzymes, playing a direct catalytic role therein.

 Standard amino acids (20) Prolin (P) → imino acid Ile and Thr → Two chiral center Gly → without chiral center

Uncommon amino acids created by modification of common residues already incorporated into a polypeptide.

FIGURE 3-10 Titration of an amino acid. Shown here is the titration curve of 0.1 m glycine at 25 °C. The ionic species predominating at key points in the titration are shown above the graph. The shaded boxes, centered at about $pK_1 = 2.34$ and $pK_2 = 9.60$, indicate the regions of greatest buffering power.

TABLE 3-1 Properties and Conventions Associated with the Common Amino Acids Found in Proteins

*A scale combining hydrophobicity and hydrophilicity of R groups; it can be used to measure the tendency of an amino acid to seek an aqueous environment (- values) or a hydrophobic environment (+ values). See Chapter 11. From Kyte, J. & Doolittle, R.F. (1982) A simple method for displaying the hydropathic character of a protein. J. Mol. Biol. 157, 105-132.

*Average occurrence in more than 1,150 proteins. From Doolittle, R.F. (1989) Redundancies in protein sequences. In Prediction of Protein Structure and the Principles of Protein Conformation (Fasman, G.D., ed.), pp. 599-623, Plenum Press, New York.

Figure 2.4 (a) Peptide bond formation. (b) Polypeptides consist of a linear chain of amino acids successively linked via peptide bonds. (c) The peptide bond displays partial double-bonded character.

Figure 2.5 Fragment of polypeptide chain backbone illustrating rigid peptide bonds and the intervening $N-C\alpha$ and Ca —C backbone linkages, which are free to rotate.

FIGURE 3-13 Formation of a peptide bond by condensation. The α amino group of one amino acid (with R^2 group) acts as a nucleophile to displace the hydroxyl group of another amino acid (with R^1 group), forming a peptide bond (shaded in yellow). Amino groups are good nucleophiles, but the hydroxyl group is a poor leaving group and is not readily displaced. At physiological pH, the reaction shown does not occur to any appreciable extent.

FIGURE 3-14 The pentapeptide serylglycyltyrosylalanylleucine, or Ser-Gly-Tyr-Ala-Leu. Peptides are named beginning with the aminoterminal residue, which by convention is placed at the left. The peptide bonds are shaded in yellow; the R groups are in red.

Biologically Active Peptides and Polypeptides Occur in a Vast Range of Sizes

THE THREE-DIMENSIONAL
STRUCTURE OF PROTEINS

The Function of a Protein Depends on **Its Amino Acid Sequence**

A Protein's Conformation Is Stabilized Largely by Weak Interactions

Amino acid sequence (protein)

 $Gln-Tyr-Pro-Thr-Ile-Trp$ DNA sequence (gene) CAGTATCCTACGATTTGG

FIGURE 3-28 Correspondence of DNA and amino acid sequences. Each amino acid is encoded by a specific sequence of three nucleotides in DNA. The genetic code is described in detail in Chapter 27.

FIGURE 3-16 Levels of structure in proteins. The primary structure consists of a sequence of amino acids linked together by peptide bonds and includes any disulfide bonds. The resulting polypeptide can be coiled into units of secondary structure, such as an α helix. The helix is a part of the tertiary structure of the folded polypeptide, which is itself one of the subunits that make up the quaternary structure of the multisubunit protein, in this case hemoglobin.

The Peptide Bond Is Rigid

FIGURE 4-3 Ramachandran plot for L-Ala residues. The conformations of peptides are defined by the values of ϕ and ψ . Conformations deemed possible are those that involve little or no steric interference, based on calculations using known van der Waals radii and bond angles. The areas shaded dark blue reflect conformations that involve no steric overlap and thus are fully allowed; medium blue indicates conformations allowed at the extreme limits for unfavorable atomic contacts; the lightest blue area reflects conformations that are permissible if a little flexibility is allowed in the bond angles. The asymmetry of the plot results from the L stereochemistry of the amino acid residues. The plots for other L-amino acid residues with unbranched side chains are nearly identical. The allowed ranges for branched amino acid residues such as Val, Ile, and Thr are somewhat smaller than for Ala. The Gly residue, which is less sterically hindered, exhibits a much broader range of allowed conformations. The range for Pro residues is greatly restricted because ϕ is limited by the cyclic side chain to the range of -35° to -85° .

The α Helix Is a Common Protein **Secondary Structure**

FIGURE 4-4 Four models of the α helix, showing different aspects of its structure. (a) Formation of a right-handed α helix. The planes of the rigid peptide bonds are parallel to the long axis of the helix, depicted here as a vertical rod. (b) Ball-and-stick model of a righthanded α helix, showing the intrachain hydrogen bonds. The repeat unit is a single turn of the helix, 3.6 residues. (c) The α helix as viewed from one end, looking down the longitudinal axis (derived from PDB

ID 4TNC). Note the positions of the R groups, represented by purple spheres. This ball-and-stick model, used to emphasize the helical arrangement, gives the false impression that the helix is hollow, because the balls do not represent the van der Waals radii of the individual atoms. As the space-filling model (d) shows, the atoms in the center of the α helix are in very close contact.

The β Conformation Organizes Polypeptide Chains **into Sheets**

FIGURE 4-7 The β conformation of polypeptide chains. These top and side views reveal the R groups extending out from the β sheet and emphasize the pleated shape described by the planes of the peptide bonds. (An alternative name for this structure is β -pleated sheet.) Hydrogen-bond cross-links between adjacent chains are also shown. (a) Antiparallel β sheet, in which the amino-terminal to carboxylterminal orientation of adjacent chains (arrows) is inverse. (b) Parallel β sheet.

β Turns Are Common in Proteins

at β turns.

Cytochrome c

Lysozyme

Ribonuclease

FIGURE 4-18 Three-dimensional structures of some small proteins. Shown here are cytochrome c (PDB ID 1CCR), lysozyme (PDB ID 3LYM), and ribonuclease (PDB ID 3RN3). Each protein is shown in surface contour and in a ribbon representation, in the same orientation. In the ribbon depictions, regions in the β conformation are

represented by flat arrows and the α helices are represented by spiral ribbons. Key functional groups (the heme in cytochrome c; amino acid side chains in the active site of lysozyme and ribonuclease) are shown in red. Disulfide bonds are shown (in the ribbon representations) in yellow.

Amino Acid Sequence Determination

Edman degradation

MS (Mass Spectrometry)

- MS-based approaches are faster and more convenient than Edman degradation.
- Unlike the Edman approach, MS-based approaches are amenable to high-throughput analyses and therefore generally more useful for proteomics.
- MS-based approaches are more sensitive: the Edman technique, though sensitive, usually requires 1-10 pmol $(1-10 \times 10^{-12} \text{ mol})$ of protein sample, whereas MS requires only a few femtomoles $(10^{-15}$ mol) of protein, making MS between 10 and 1000 times more sensitive (see Chapter 1).
- · MS-based approaches can provide sequence information from blocked/modified peptides.

PTH-amino acid

Pappin DJ, Hojrup P, Bleasby JA. Curr biol 3 (1993) $327 - 332$

The techniques and its background will be described in detail in the method chapters. Peptide mass fingerprinting The easiest and fastest way to identify proteins is shown in figure 2: peptide mass fingerprinting (PMF), which was introduced by four independent groups, including Pappin et al. (1993). The gel plug containing the protein of interest is cut out of the gel slab, the protein is digested inside the gel plug with a proteolytic enzyme, mostly trypsin. The cleavage products, the peptides, are eluted from the plug and submitted to mass spectrometry analysis. Mostly MALDI ToF instruments are employed, because they are easier to handle than electrospray systems. The mass spectrum with the accurately measured peptide masses is matched with theoretical peptide spectra in various databases using adequate bioinformatics tools. When no match is found in peptide and protein databases, genomic databases can be searched. The DNA sequence in the open reading frames can be theoretically translated into the amino acid sequence we have to remove this because it is not very practical to search DNA with MALDI data, it is not specific enough. You can do it easily with MS/MS though. Since the cleavage sites of trypsin are known, theoretical tryptic peptide masses can be generated and compared with the experimentally determined masses. If a sufficient number of experimental peptide masses match with the theoretical peptides within a protein, then protein identification with high confidence can be achieved.

This procedure works very well for protein identification. However, the method can be compromised for a number of reasons. In these circumstances, more specific information is needed for unambiguous protein identification, specifically peptide sequence information.

Peptide Mass Fingerprinting (PMF)

Protein identification with peptide mass finger-Fig. 2: printing. The peptide masses of the digested protein are matched with a list of theoretical masses of peptides,

which are mathematically derived from the open reading frames of the genome database of a certain organism.

NEXT MATRIX

Search this site

Welcome to the home of Mascot software, the benchmark for identification, characterisation and quantitation of proteins using mass spectrometry data. Here, you can learn more about the tools. developed by Matrix Science to get the best out of your data, whatever your chosen instrument.

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October 19, 2016

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Peptide Mass Fingerprint

The experimental data are a list of peptide mass values from the digestion of a protein by a specific enzyme such as trypsin.

Perform search | Example of results report | Tutorial

More info

- > Mascot overview
- > Search parameter reference
- > Data file format
- > Results report overview

MASCOT Peptide Mass Fingerprint

A MATRIX Mascot Search Results

Mascot Score Histogram

Protein score is -10*Log(P), where P is the probability that the observed match is a random event. Protein scores greater than 70 are significant ($p < 0.05$).

Concise Protein Summary Report

APAF HUMAN Mass: 141749 Score: 673 Expect: 2.8e-62 Matches: 88 Apoptotic protease-activating factor 1 0S=Homo sapiens GN=APAF1 PE=1 SV=2 LPTD CHRSD Mass: 93592 Score: 54 Exnect: 2.2 Matches: 29

The last point in particular has always been a complicating factor when applying the Edman approach to eukaryotic-derived proteins. Up to 80% of such proteins display chemically altered N-terminal amino acid residues, which do not react with the Edman PITC reagent (Box 2.1). The most common N-terminal chemical alteration observed is acetylation (see section 2.9.4), but blocking may also be the result of glycosylation and formylation for example.

Today, however, the vast majority of protein sequences are obtained/predicted indirectly via nucleotide sequence data generated from genome sequencing projects (Chapter 1), which now means that amino acid sequence data for several tens of millions of different proteins are available and may be accessed and interrogated through databases such as the Uniprot database (www.uniprot.org; Box 2.2).

Despite the central importance of the genomic approach, direct sequencing methods remain important/essential for a number of applications. For example, direct sequencing (full-length or at least partial sequencing of the first 10-20 amino acids at the N-terminus of a protein) can be used to:

- design polymerase chain reaction (PCR) primers to assist in the ultimate cloning of the gene coding for the protein if the protein has been purified directly from, for example, a source for which no genome sequence data is available;
- serve as a quality control tool to directly verify \bullet the identity/sequence of protein products such as biopharmaceuticals.

The mission of UniProt is to provide the scientific community with a comprehensive, high-quality and freely accessible resource of protein sequence and functional information.

You Tube

Q Text search

Our basic text search allows you to search all the resources available

A BLAST

UniProt data

土 Download latest release Get the UniProt data

dul Statistics View Swiss-Prot and TrEMRL statistics

A Loosening Of **Habits**

We are not alone. From the day we are hans and assemblished and and af-

UniProt (Universal Protein Resource) is a comprehensive web-based resource (www.uniprot. org) housing information on proteins, particularly protein sequence and function. It is a collaboration between three bioinformatic-based institutes: the European Bioinformatics Institute, the Swiss Institute of Bioinformatics, and the Protein Information Resource institute.

Virtually all the protein sequences provided by UniProtKB are derived from the translation of coding sequences submitted to public nucleic acid databases (EMBL, GenBank and DDBJ

Bioinformatic analysis of sequence data

a major goal, and indeed achievement, of bioinformatics has been the development of computer programs/software tools which can interrogate and analyse raw protein sequence information in order to generate additional information.

Various and often multiple different bioinformatic programs/tools are available that interrogate protein sequence information/databases in order to:

- identify proteins containing similar amino acid sequences (i.e. run similarity searches) and assess how closely related two (or more) proteins are, or if there is a high probability that they undertake similar functions (see next section);
- calculate a theoretical molecular mass, isoelectric point (see Chapter 4) or other physicochemical property of a protein;
- predict elements of a protein's higher-order structure (secondary and tertiary structure, or for example protein domains, as discussed in section 2.2.2);
- predict if a protein is likely to undergo PTMs (see section 2.9), and at what point(s) along the protein backbone this is likely to occur;
- predict where in the cell the protein is likely to function (or if it is likely exported from the cell).

Sequence similarity and sequence alignment analysis

Table 2.2 Top matches obtained from a BLAST search using the human erythropoietin (EPO) amino acid sequence as a query sequence against the 42 million sequence entries present in the UniProtKB database (Box 2.2). A total of 121 hits were obtained, the top 26 of which are presented here. Unsurprisingly, the highest matches were to the human EPO sequence entries already present in the database. Many of the additional hits are EPO sequences from other species. An outline of how similarity is graded is presented in the main text.

BLAST

(Basic Local Alignment Search Tool): UniProt or NCBI

Alignment Pairwaise alignment Multiple alignment

Homology Similarity Identity

Figure 2.6 A pairwise sequence alignment between the amino acid sequence of human erythropoietin (EPO, top line of each twin sequence) and canine EPO (bottom line of each twin sequence) (a). The sequence alignment was undertaken via the UniProt website. Asterisks are automatically placed underneath sequence positions housing identical amino acid residues while double or single dots (i.e. a colon or a period) appear underneath residue positions which display strongly or weakly similar properties, respectively. Thus, human and canine EPOs contain identical residues at 155 positions (i.e. they display approximately 75% identity) and similar residues at a further 24 positions. The software also facilitates the generation of additional information such as the positioning of amino acid residues with particular properties.

57 similar amino acides 37 full match $20 +$

100×)طول ناحیه انطباق /تعداد ریشه های یکسان) = identity %

100×)طول ناحیه انطباق /تعداد ریشه های مشابه + تعداد ریشه های یکسان(= Similarity %

Higher-level structure

Secondary structure: α-helix and β-strand **Tertiary structure Quaternary structure**

Fibrous proteins versus Globular proteins Why Secondary structures are formed? \Box α-helix and β-strand properties Loops such as β-turn Types of β-sheets: Parallel, Antiparallel and Mixed □Detection of secondary structures by???

Domain and Motif

- Several motifs usually combine to form compact globular structures, which are called **domains** (fundamental functional and structural units).
- **Tertiary structure**: the way motifs are arranged into domain structures and for the way a single polypeptide chain folds into one or several domains.
- Large polypeptide chains fold into several domains.

• There are many known examples where several biological functions that are carried out by separate polypeptide chains in one species are performed by domains of a single protein in another species.

• Sequences \rightarrow Structural Motifs \rightarrow Domain \rightarrow Tertiary structure The number of such combinations is limited.

Tertiary structure

Domain, Motif (structural motif, sequence motif, functional motif) and Fold

Figure 2.11 Some structural motifs commonly associated with (globular) polypeptides: (a) a four-helix bundle (b) a hairpin structure (c) a β sheet with a Greek key topology (d) a jelly roll motif (e) a β sandwich (f) a β barrel (g) an α/β barrel. Refer to text for further details. Reproduced from Current Protocols in Protein Science by kind permission of the publisher, John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.

A Protein's Conformation Can Be Described as Its Overall Three-Dimensional Structure

The overall three-dimensional architecture of a protein is generally referred to as its conformation. This term is not to be confused with configuration, which denotes the geometric possibilities for a particular set of atoms (Figure 5.6). In going from one configuration to another, covalent bonds must be broken and rearranged. In contrast, the *conformational possibilities* of a molecule are achieved without breaking any covalent bonds. In proteins, rotations about each of the single bonds along the peptide backbone have the potential to alter the course of the polypeptide chain in three-dimensional space. These rotational possibilities create many possible orientations for the protein chain, referred to as its conformational possibilities. Of the great number of theoretical conformations a given protein might adopt, only a very few are favored energetically under physiological conditions. At this time, the rules that direct the folding of protein chains into energetically favorable conformations are still not entirely clear; accordingly, they are the subject of intensive contemporary research.

Difference between Conformation and Configuration

FIGURE 5.6 Configuration and conformation are not synonymous. (a) Rearrangements between configurational alternatives of a molecule can be achieved only by breaking and remaking bonds, as in the transformation between the p- and L-configurations of glyceraldehyde. (b) The intrinsic free rotation around single covalent bonds creates a great variety of three-dimensional conformations, even for relatively simple molecules, such as 1,2-dichloroethane. (c) Imagine the conformational possibilities for a protein in which two of every three bonds along its backbone are freely rotating single bonds. (Illustration: Irving Geis. Rights owned by Howard Hughes Medical Institute. Not to be reproduced without permission.)

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