

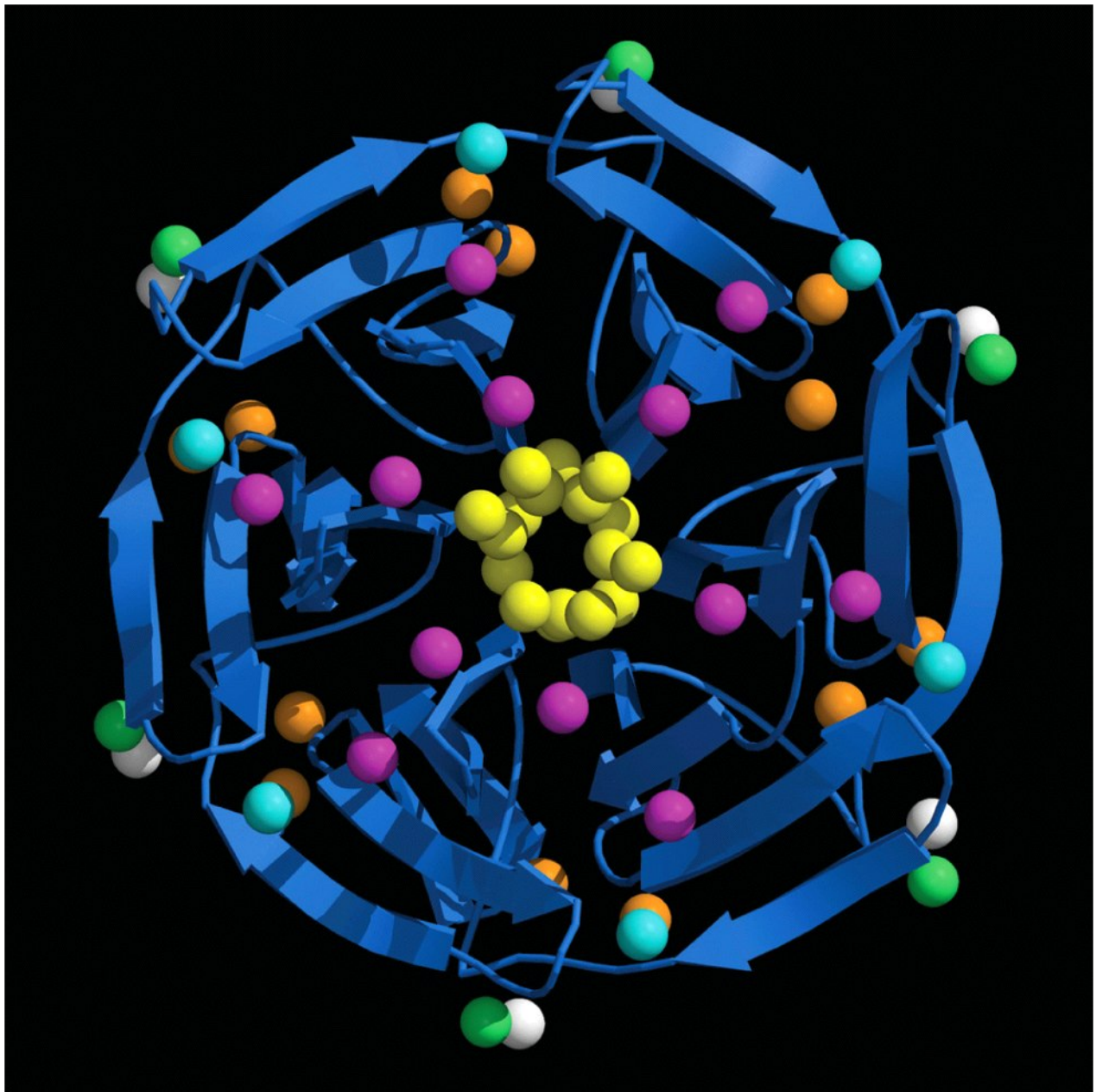
Lodish • Berk • Kaiser • Krieger • Scott • Bretscher • Ploegh • Matsudaira

- **MOLECULAR CELL
BIOLOGY**

- **SIXTH EDITION**

- **CHAPTER 3**

- **Protein Structure and Function**



Human
signaling
protein keap1

Ribbon diagram

Conformations

Structural proteins

Scaffold protein

Transport protein

Regulatory protein

enzymes

Functional classes:

Structural proteins

Transport proteins

Regulatory proteins

Motor proteins

Different conformation = different function

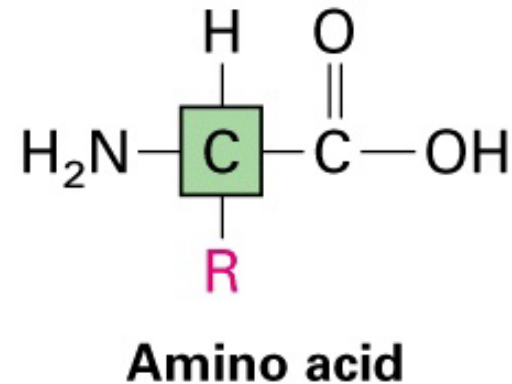
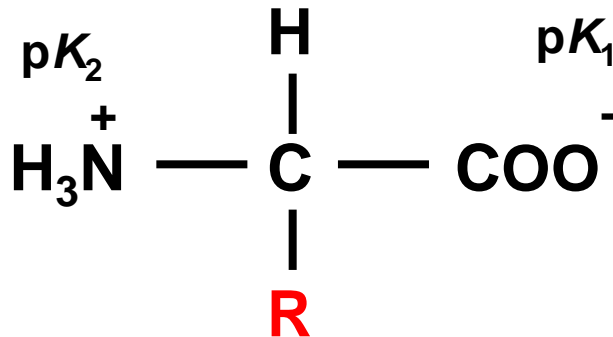
Hierarchical structure of proteins

Proteins are single, unbranched chains of amino acid monomers

There are 20 different amino acids; All amino acids have the same general structure but the side chain (R group) of each is different

A protein's amino acid sequence determines its three-dimensional structure (conformation)

In turn, a protein's structure determines the function of that protein



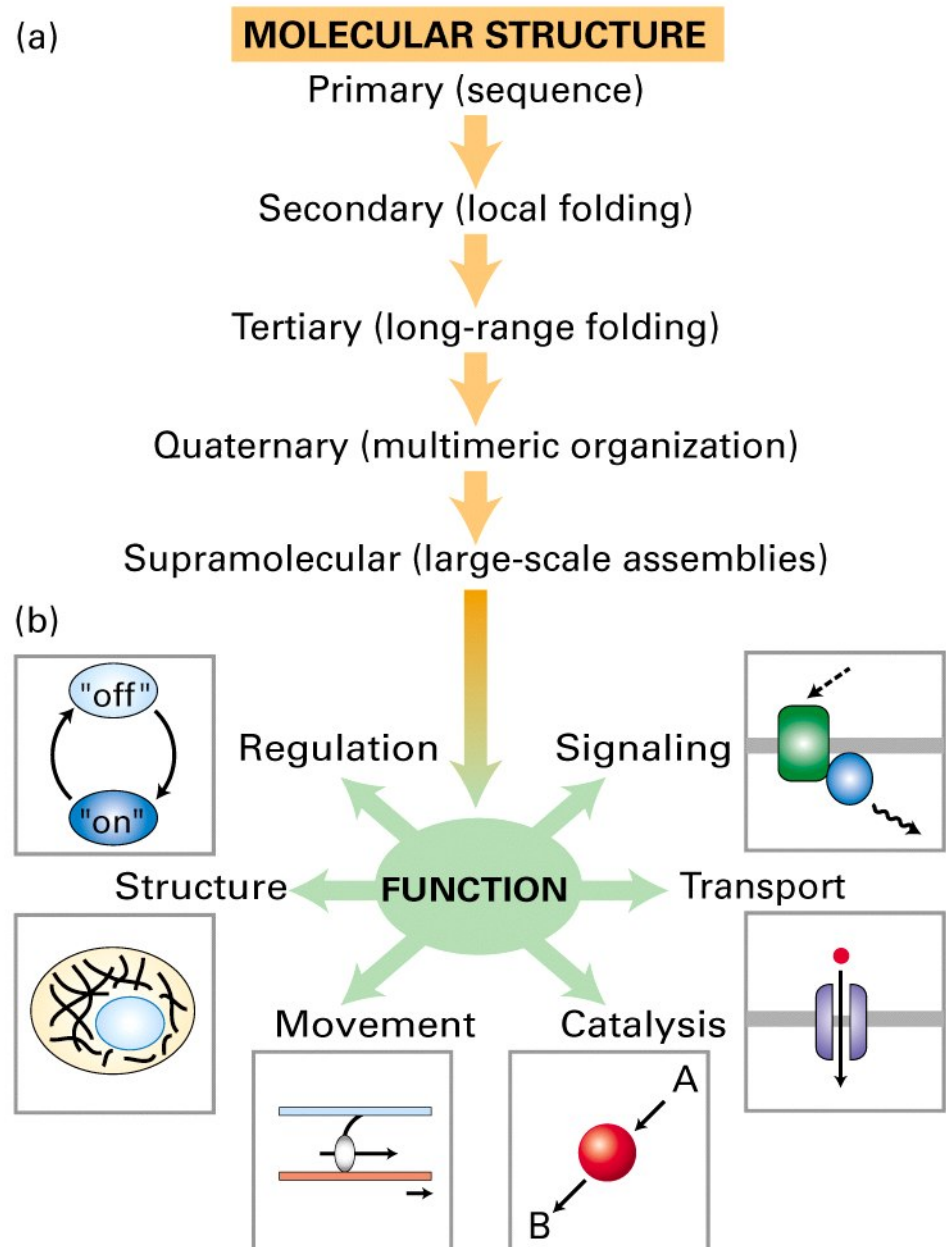
Four levels of structure determine the shape of proteins

Primary: the linear sequence of amino acids

Secondary: the localized organization of parts of a polypeptide chain (e.g., the α helix or β sheet)

Tertiary: the overall, three-dimensional arrangement of the polypeptide chain

Quaternary: the association of two or more polypeptides into a multi-subunit complex



Four levels of protein hierarchy

(a) Primary structure

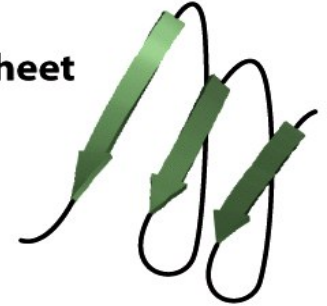
- Ala - Glu - Val - Thr - Asp - Pro - Gly -

(b) Secondary structure

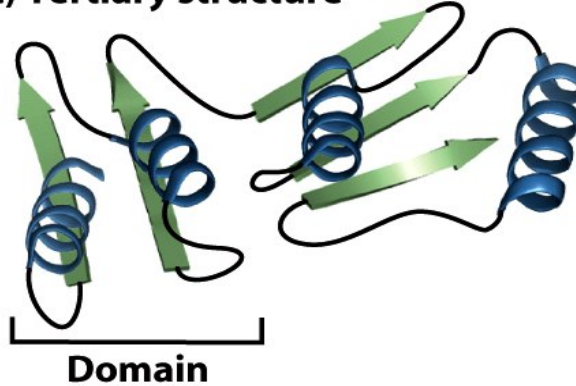
α helix



β sheet



(c) Tertiary structure



(d) Quaternary structure

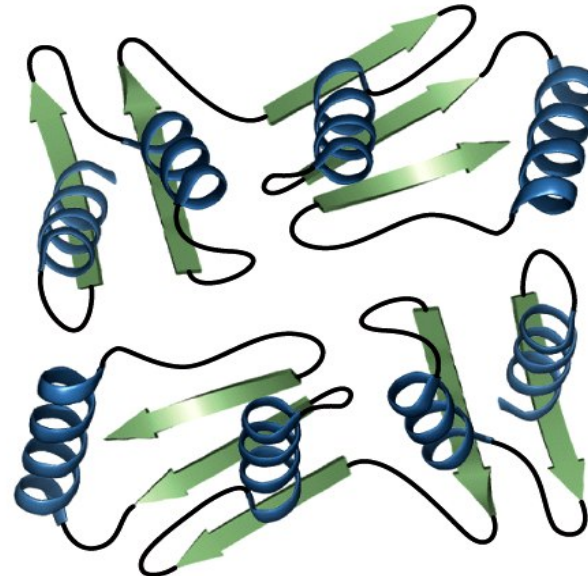
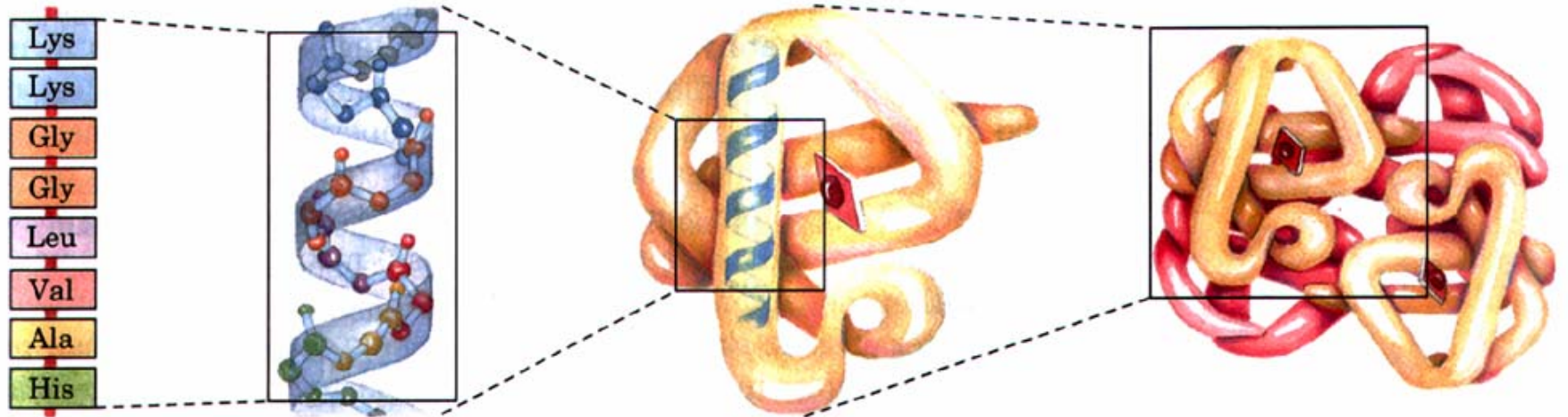


Figure 3-2
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Amino acid → 2 amino acids → peptide → polypeptide



1° 2° 3° 4°
一級primary 二級secondary 三級tertiary 四級quaternary

The primary structure of a protein is its linear arrangement of amino acid

Peptide bond - linkage between amino acids is a **secondary** amide bond

Formed by condensation of the α -carboxyl of one amino acid with the α -amino of another amino acid (loss of H_2O molecule)

Primary structure - linear sequence of amino acids in a polypeptide or protein

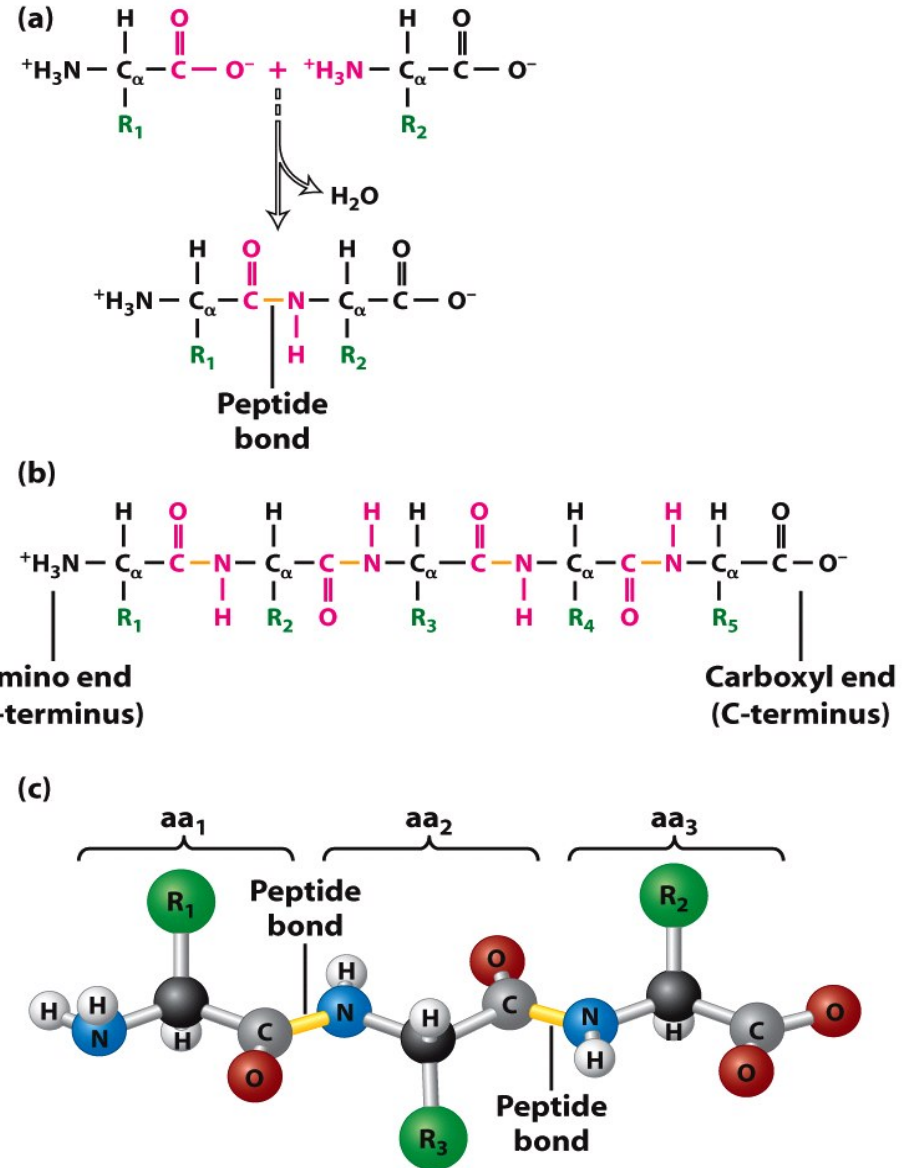


Figure 3-3
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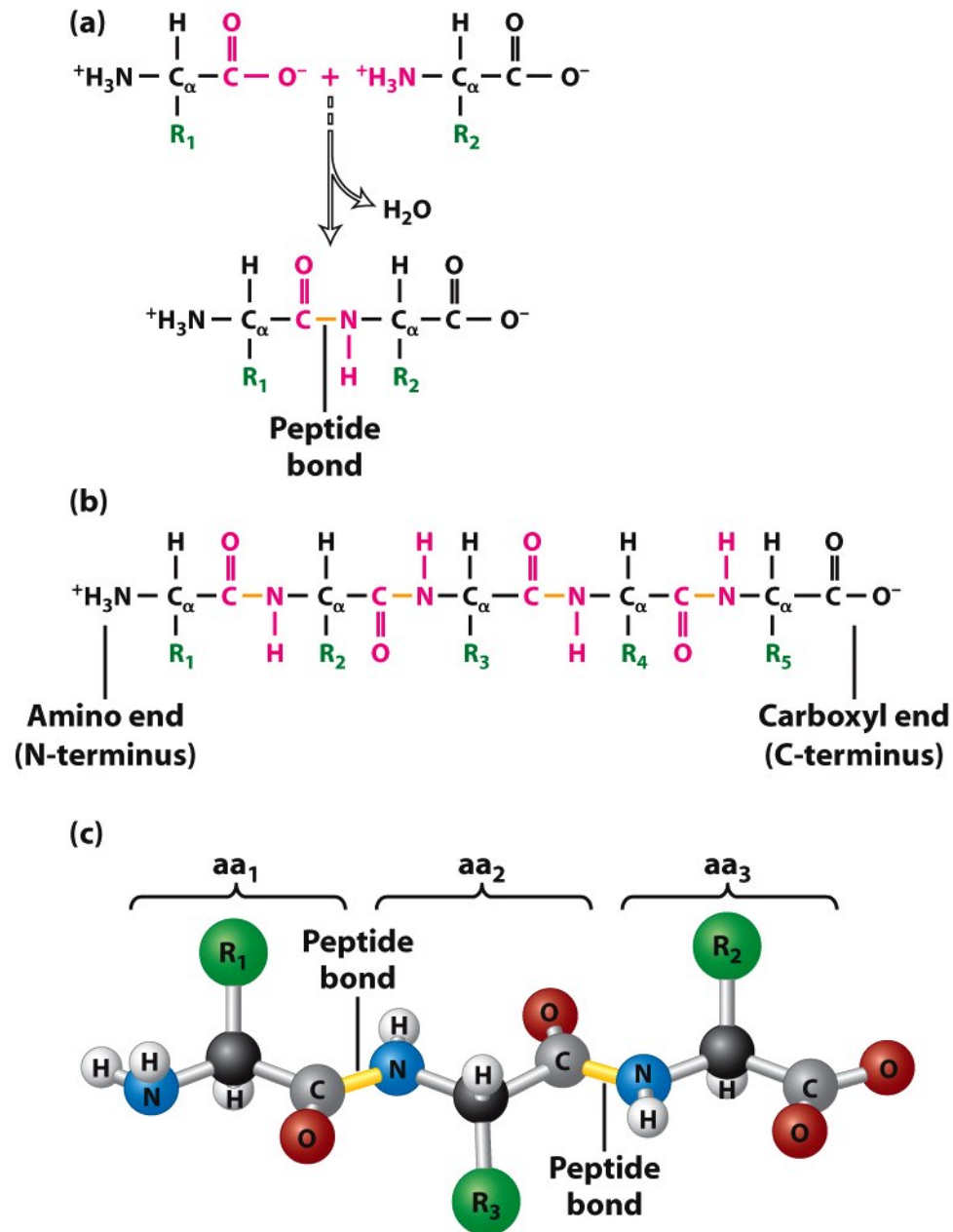
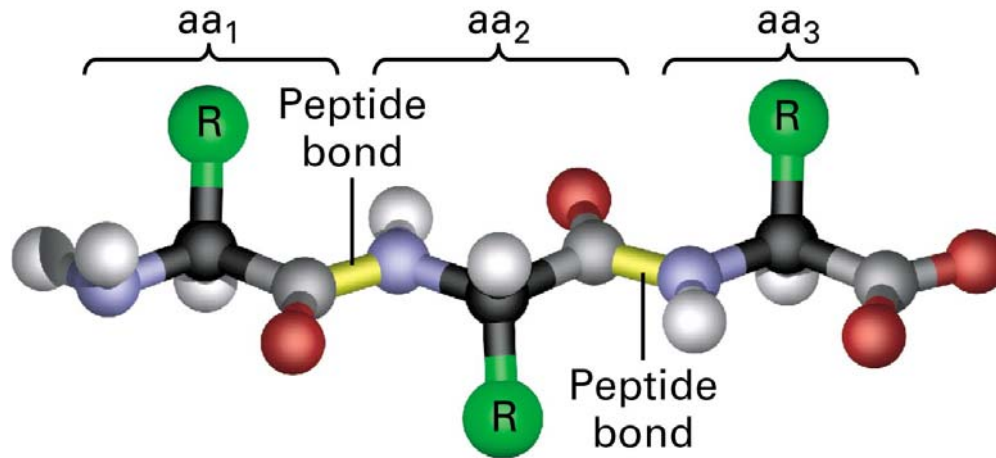


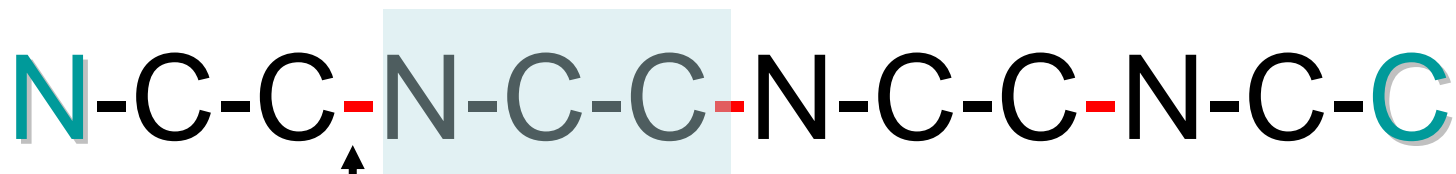
Figure 3-3
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The backbone of protein (polypeptide)



N-terminal

C-terminal

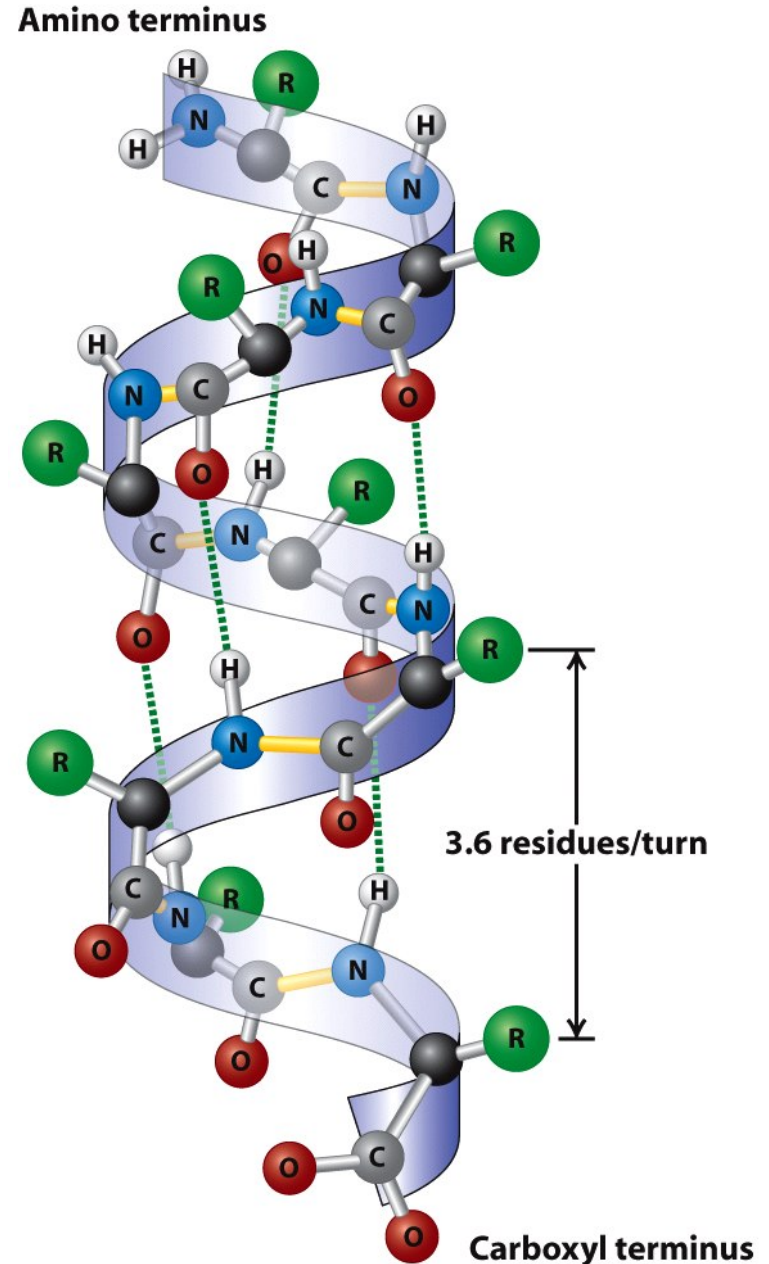
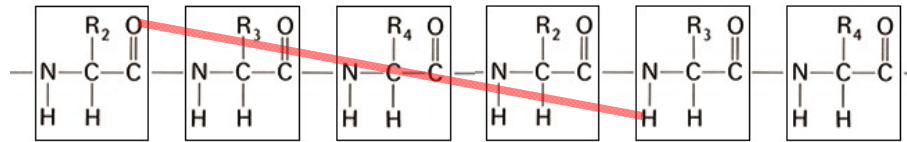


Unit (單位)

Peptide bond (胜鍵)

Secondary structure: the α helix

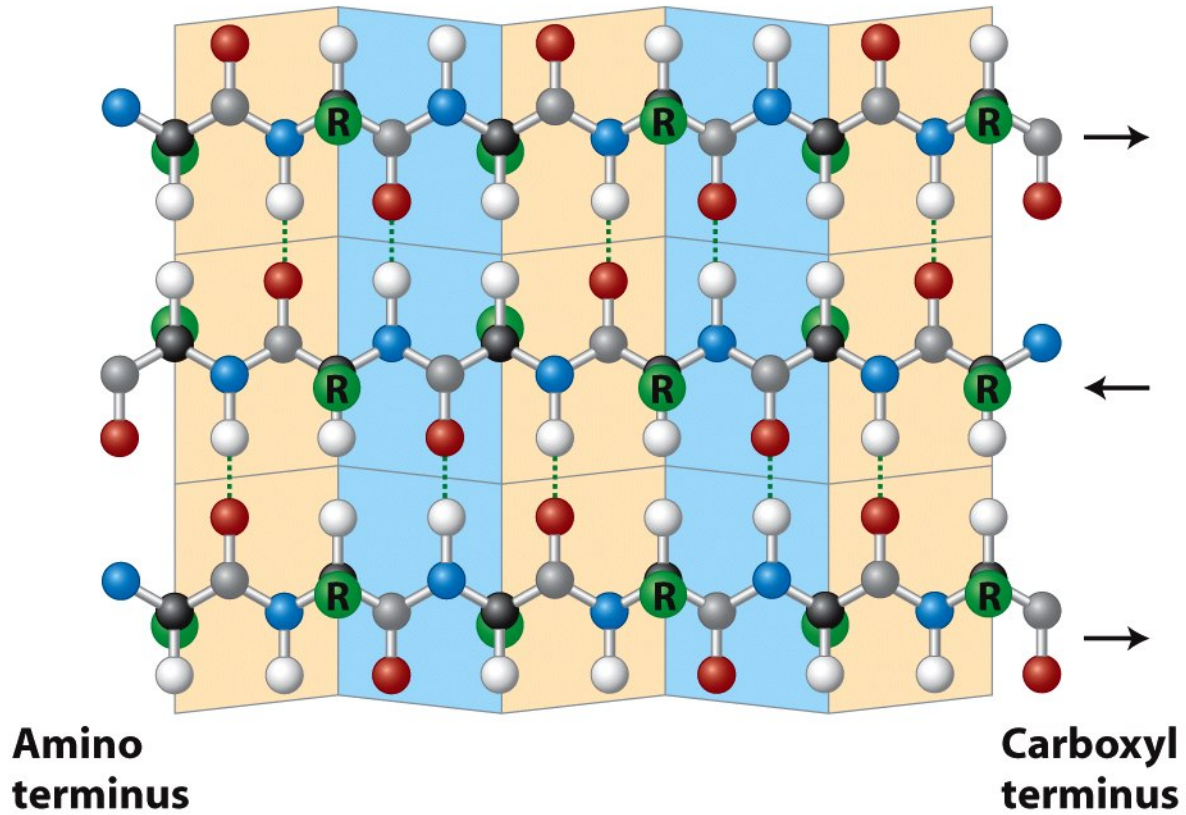
Secondary structure are the core elements of protein architecture



每 3.6 胺基酸繞一圈，每圈 5.4 Å 高

Carbonyl (C=O) 與下游 H-N- 生成 氫鍵

(a) Top view



(b) Side view

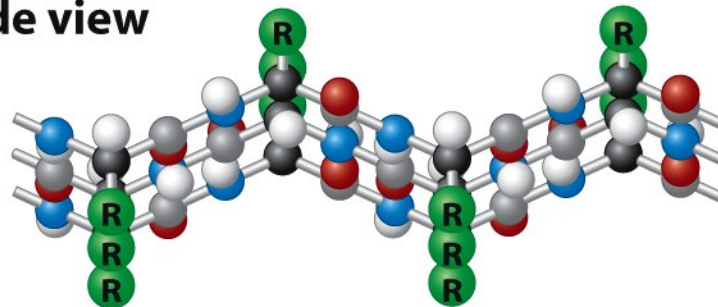
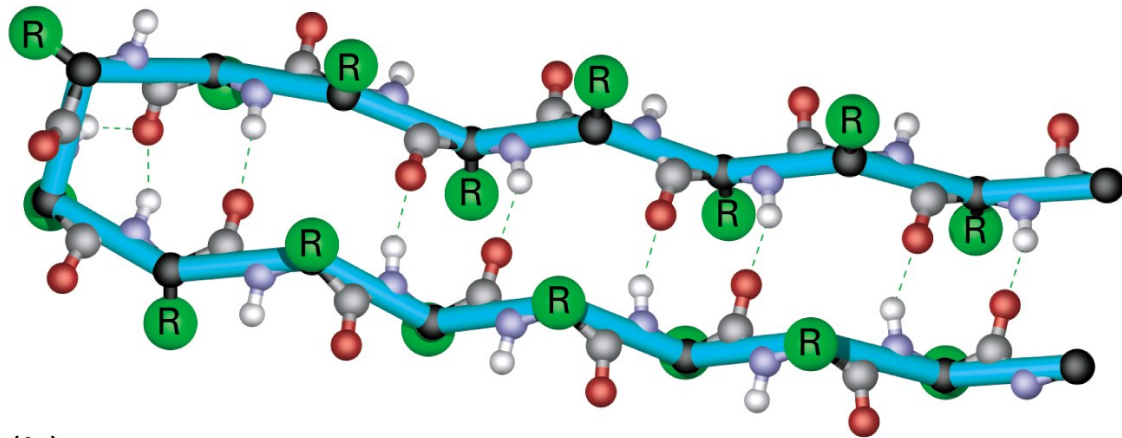


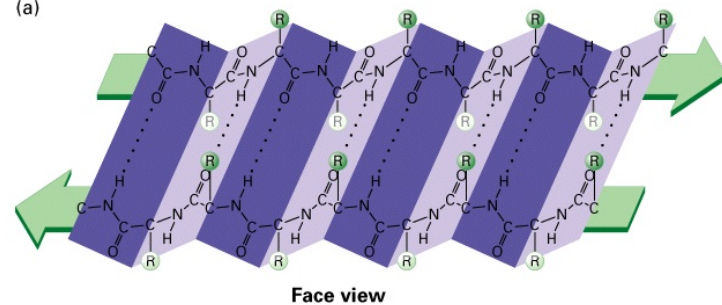
Figure 3-5
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Secondary structure: the beta sheet

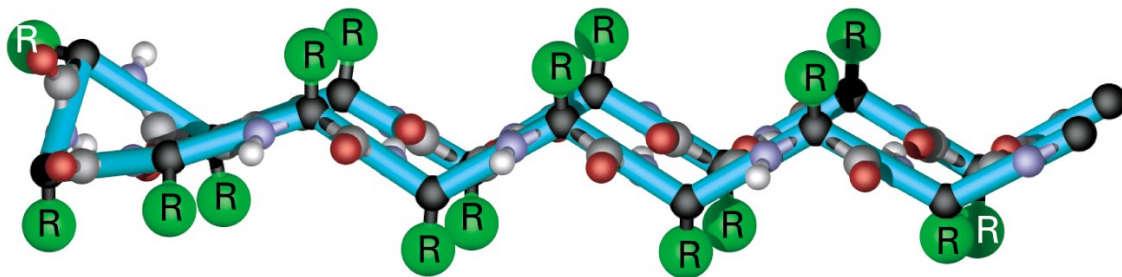
(a)



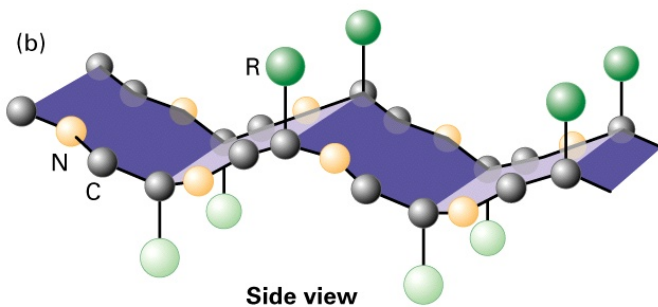
(a)



(b)



(b)



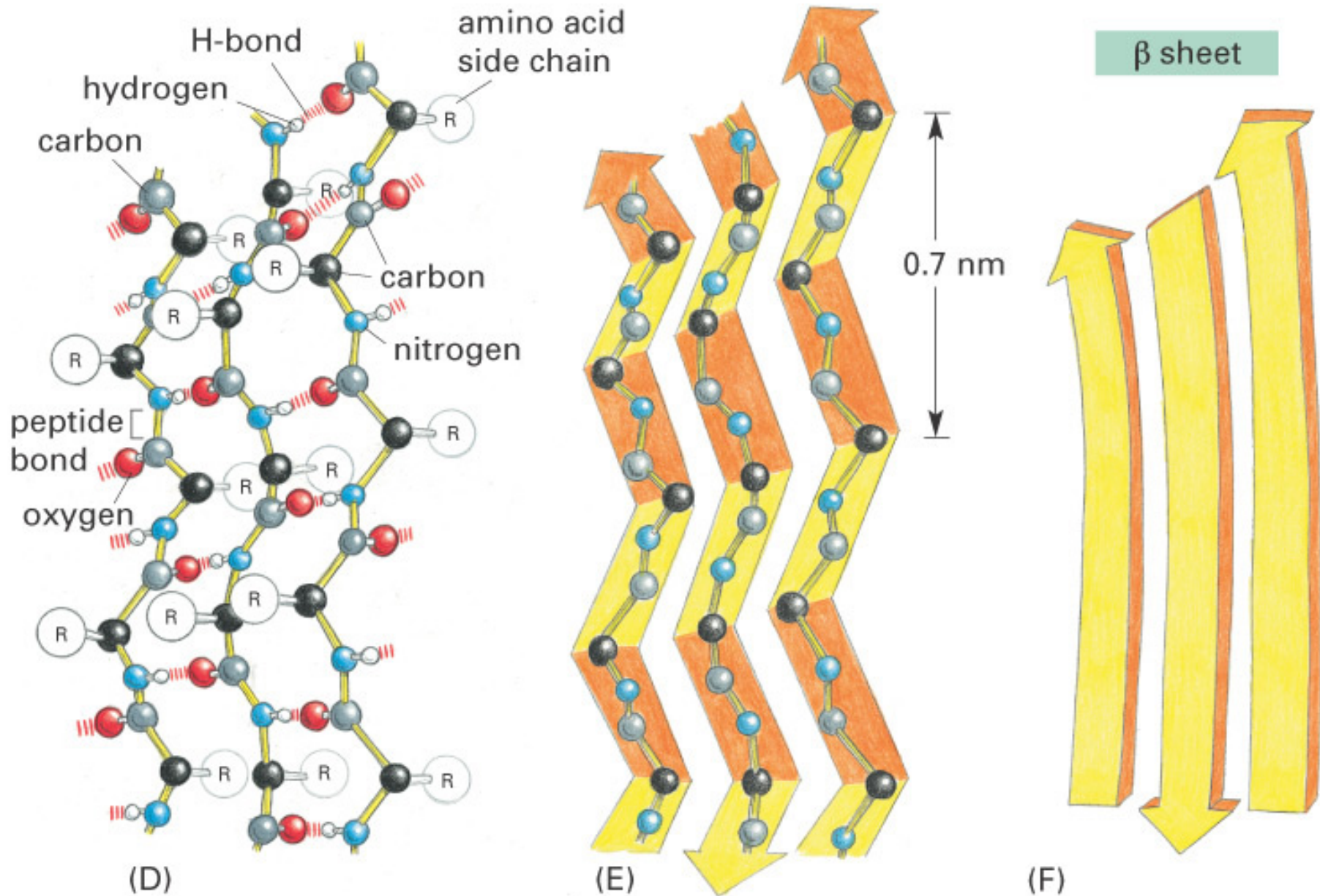
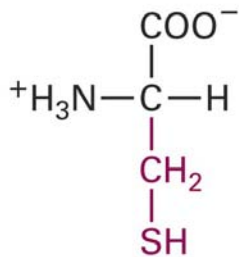


Figure 4-10 part 2 of 2 Essential Cell Biology, 2/e. (© 2004 Garland Science)

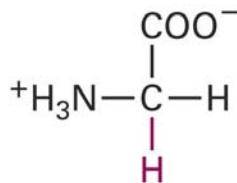
Structure of a β turn

1. A short U-shaped beta turn
2. Four residue
3. H-bond stable
4. Proline and glycine present

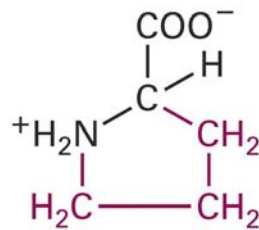
SPECIAL AMINO ACIDS



Cysteine
(Cys or C)



Glycine
(Gly or G)



Proline
(Pro or P)

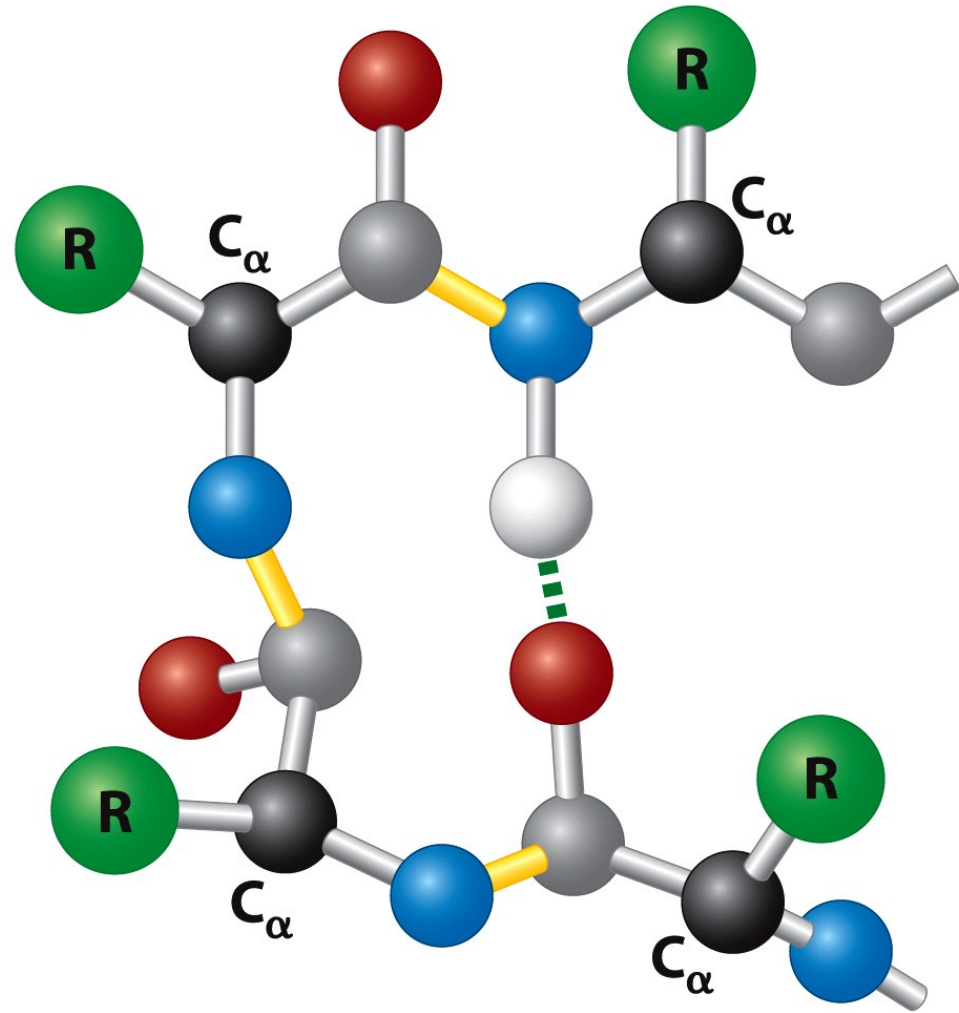


Figure 3-6
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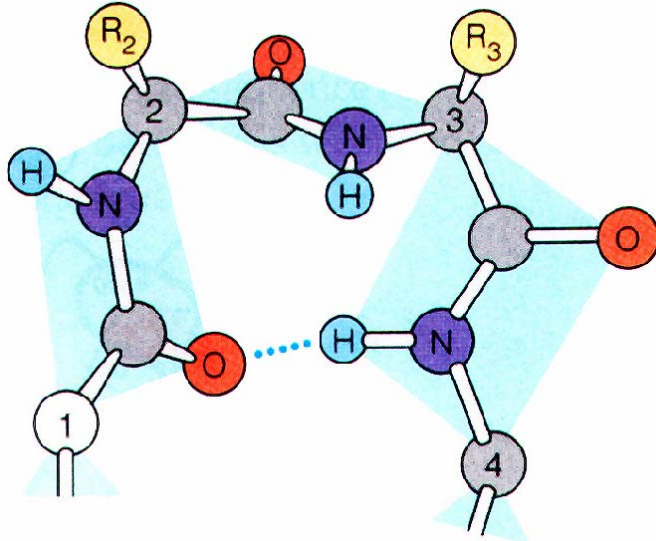
Reverse Turns: β turn, γ turn

It also related with H-bond

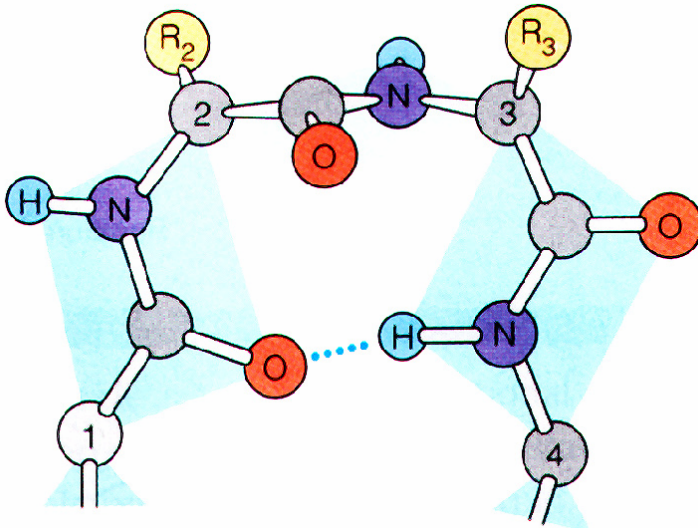
β turn

三個胺基酸夾一氫鍵

R 在同一側

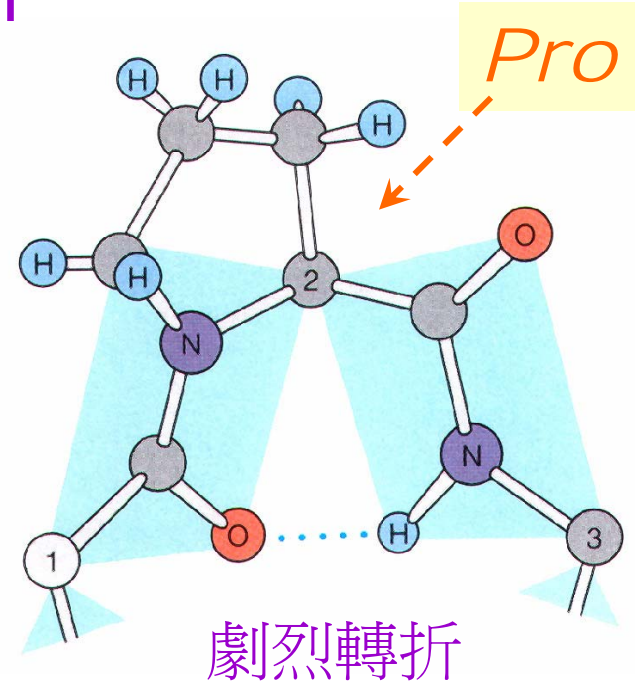


R 在相對側

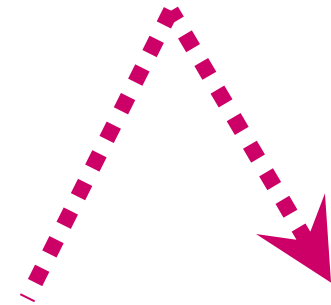


γ turn

兩個胺基酸夾一氫鍵



劇烈轉折



Oil drop model of protein folding

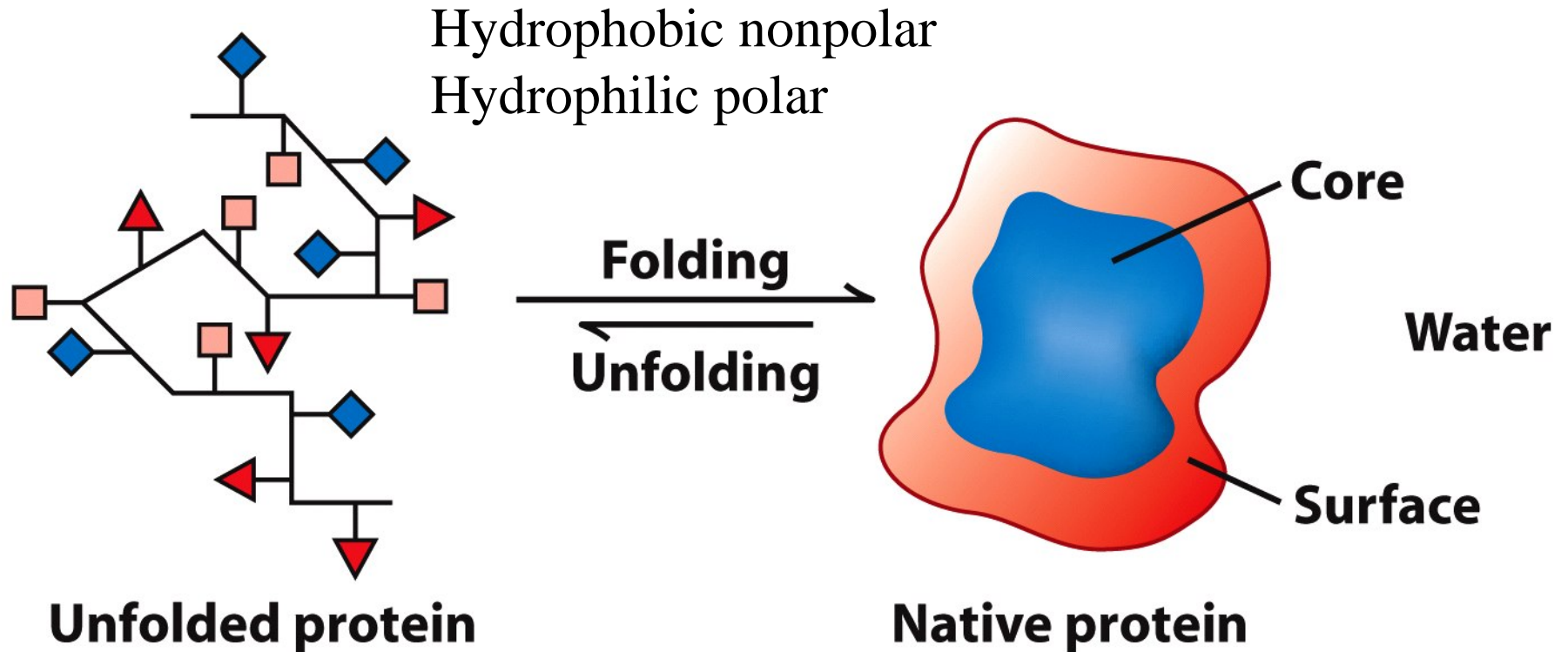


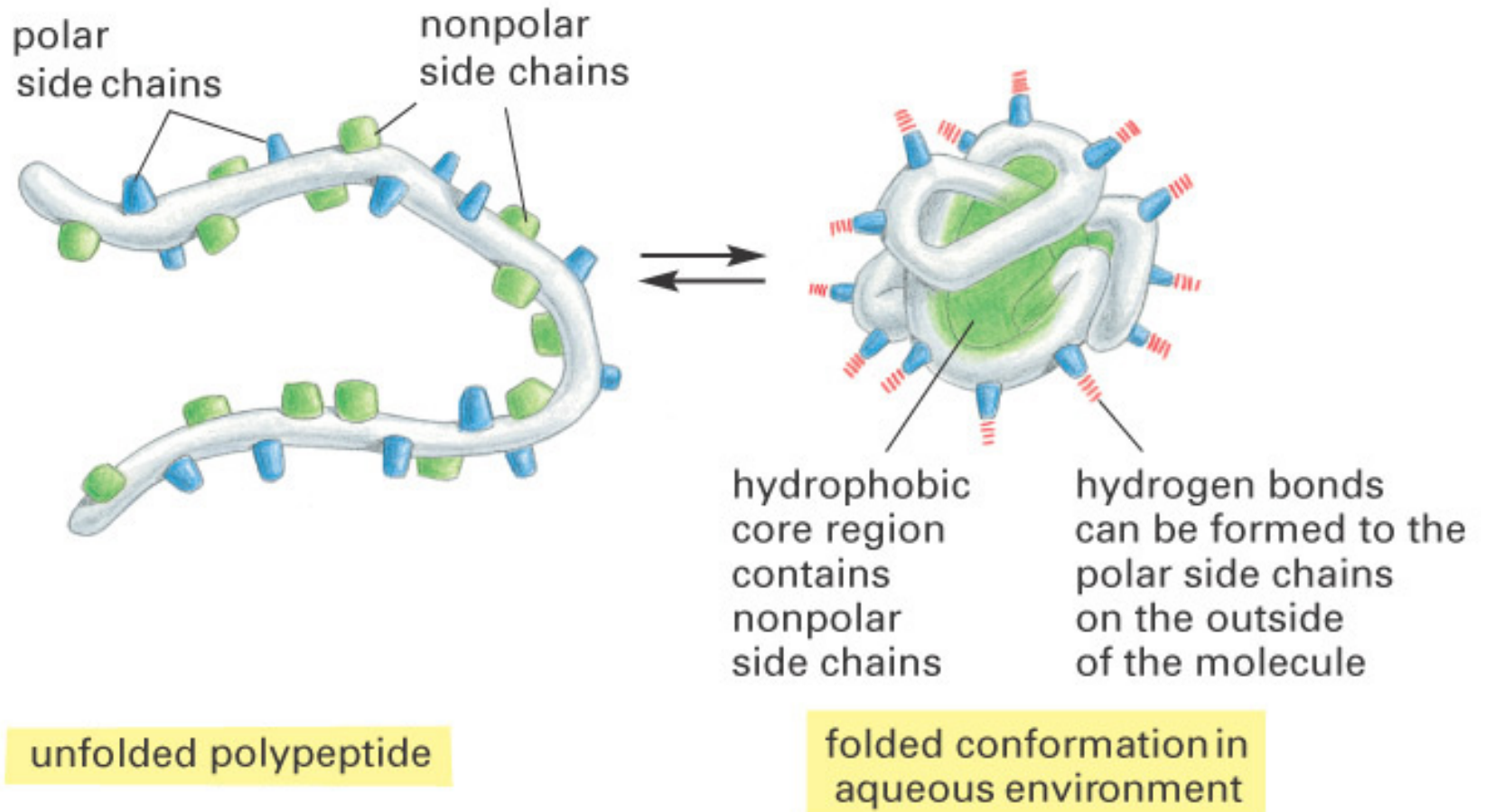
Figure 3-7
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Hydrophobic interact with hydrophobic
Hydrophilic interact with hydrophilic

Uncharged hydrophilic polar side chains are found on both the surface and inner core of protein

Integral membrane protein

Globular protein



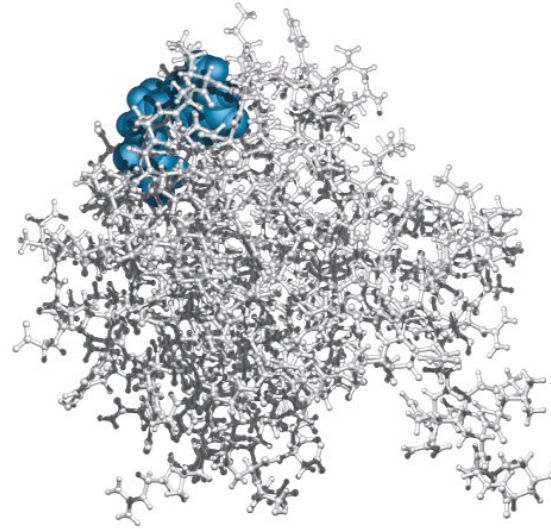
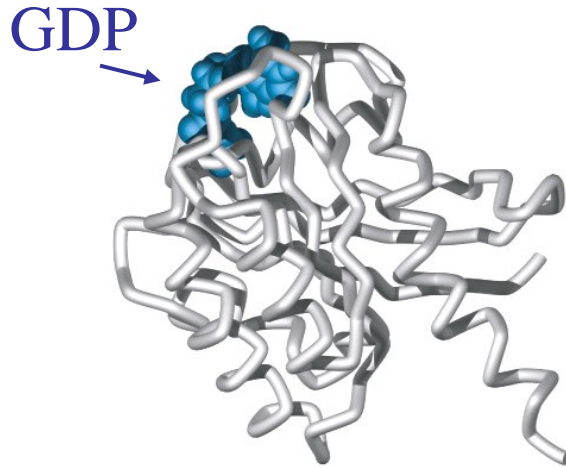
Overall folding of a polypeptide chain yields its tertiary structure

Different way of depicting the conformation of proteins convey different types of information

(a) C_{α} backbone trace

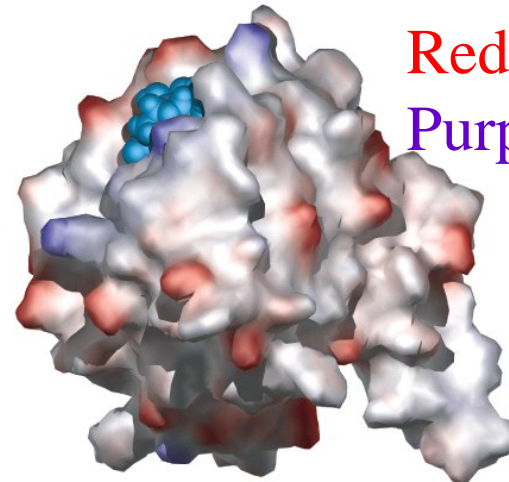
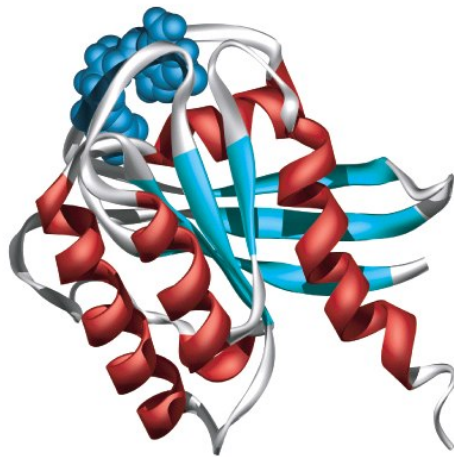
(b) Ball and stick

球與棒



(c) Ribbons 帶狀

(d) Solvent-accessible surface 溶劑親水表面



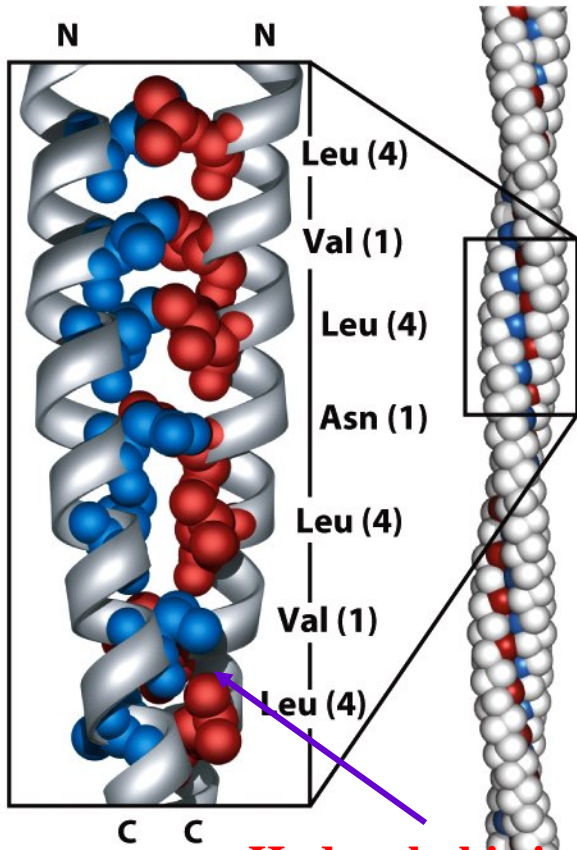
Red: negative charge
Purple: positive charge

Different graphical representations of the same protein

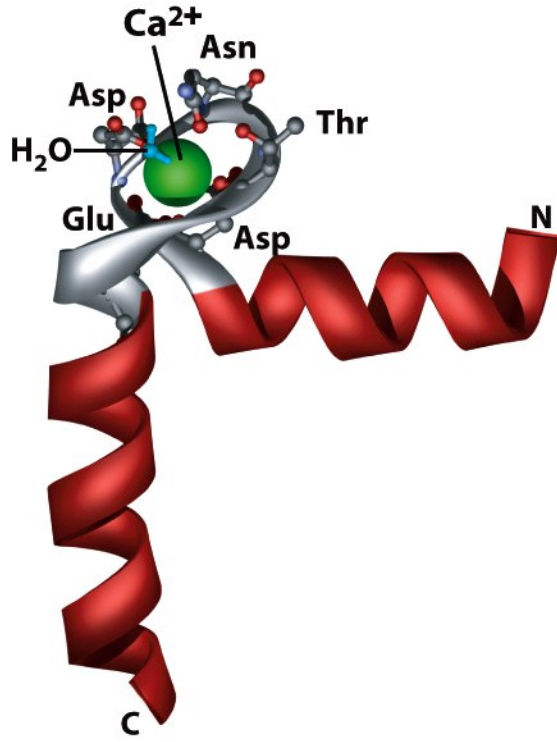
Motifs are regular combination of secondary structures

Motif: particular combinations of secondary structures, it build up the tertiary structure of a protein; super-secondary structure and 2-5 secondary structure

(a) Coiled-coil motif



(b) EFhand/helix-loop-helix motif



(c) Zinc-finger motif

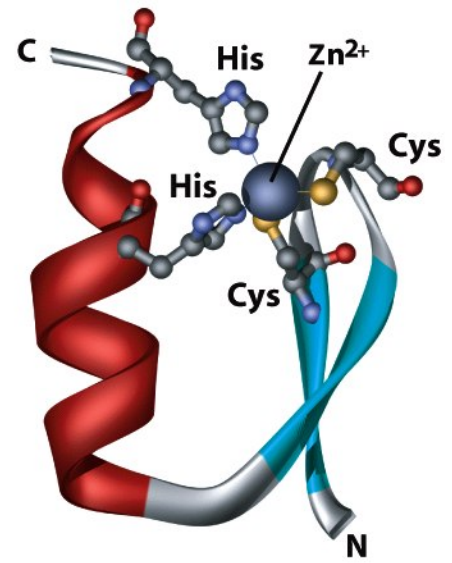
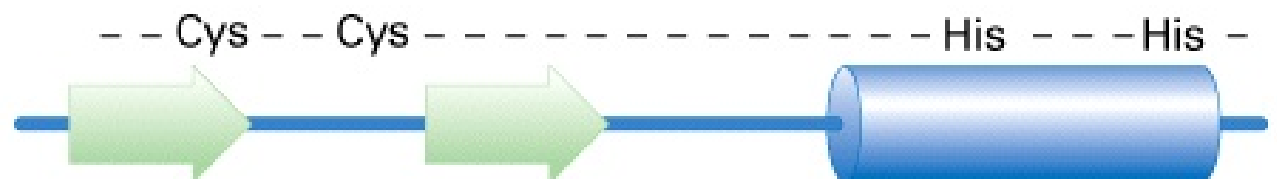
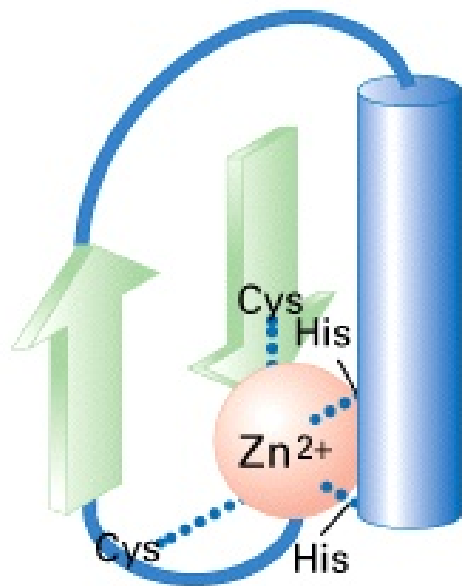
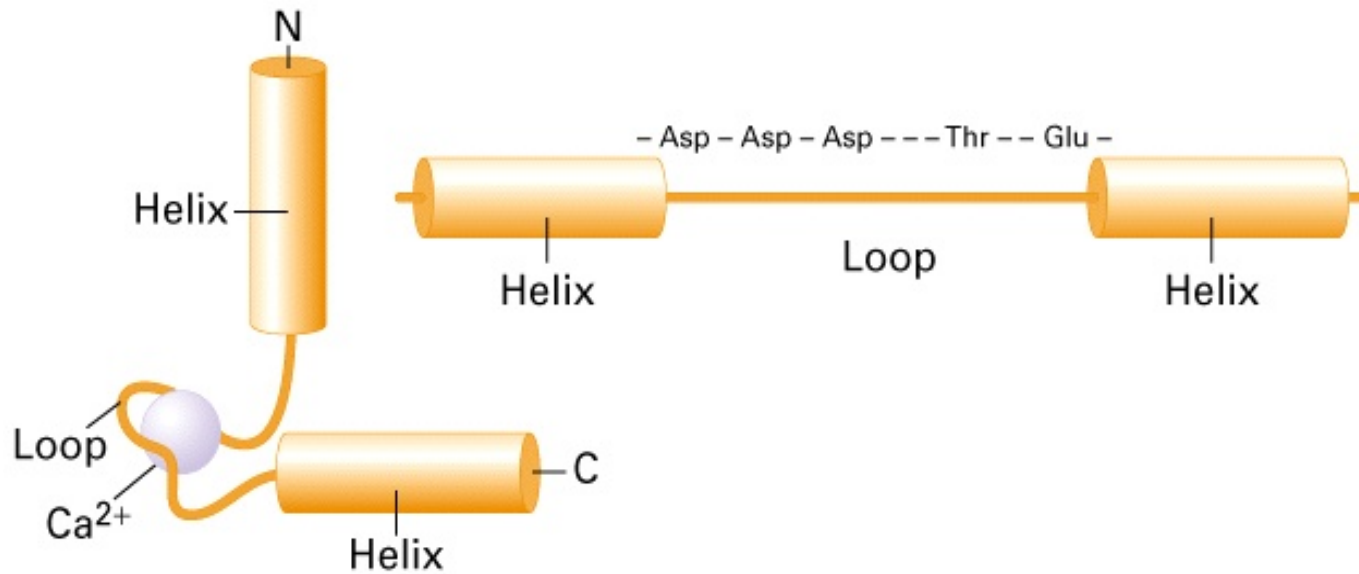


Figure 3-9
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(b) Helix-loop-helix motif

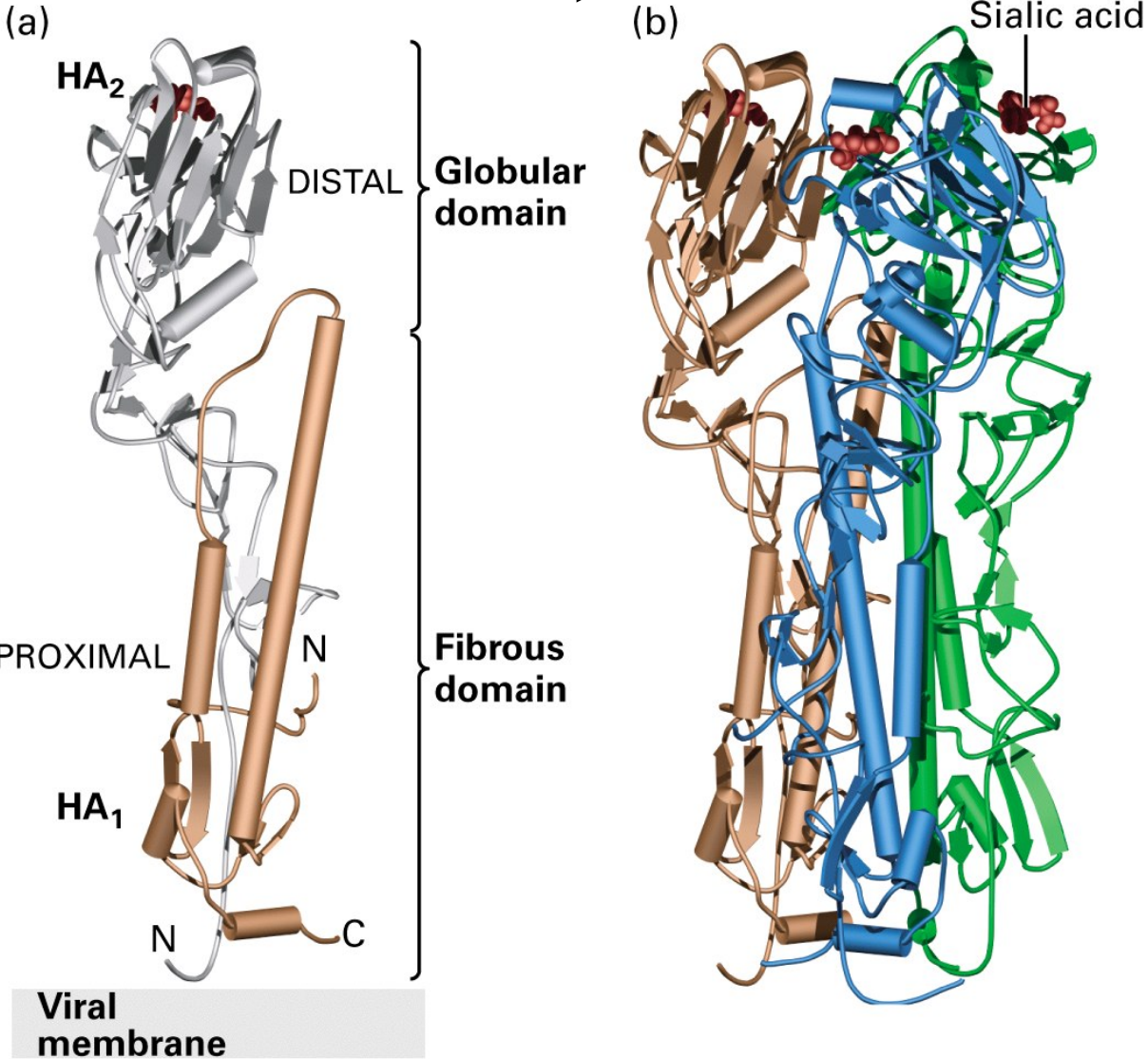


(c) Zinc-finger motif

Structural and functional domains are modules of tertiary structure

Domain

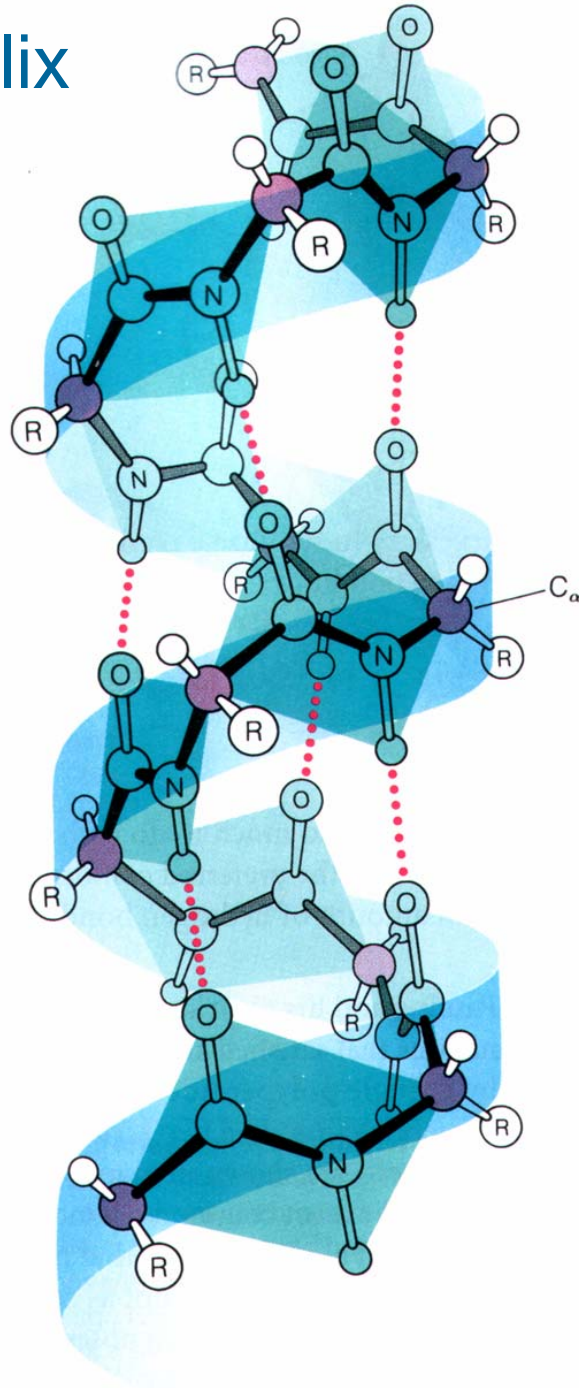
3 subunit
→



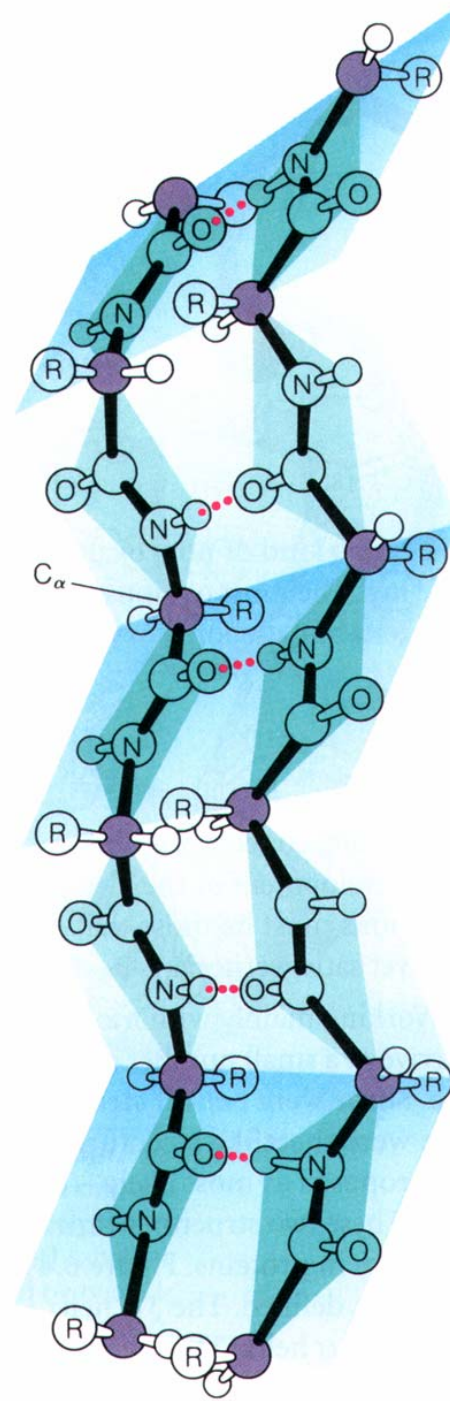
(a) Tertiary structure
(b) Quaternary structure

Hemagglutinin(流行性感冒表面蛋白質-血細胞凝集素)

α helix



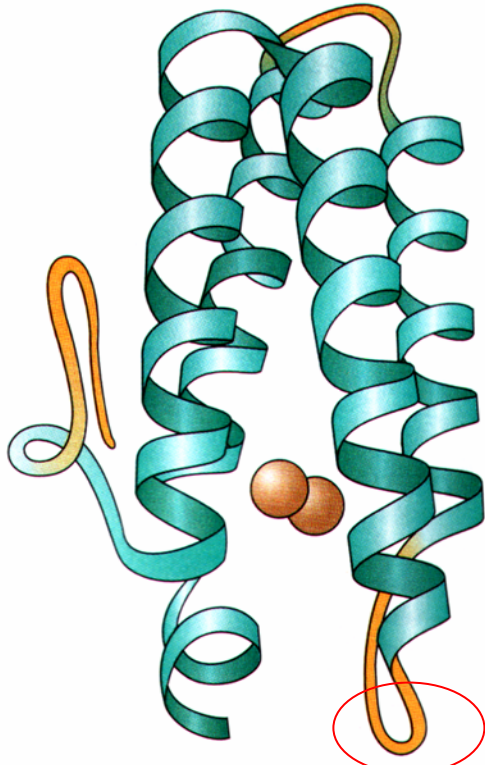
β sheet



兩者都由
H-bond組成

Secondary structure produced Tertiary structure

α domain



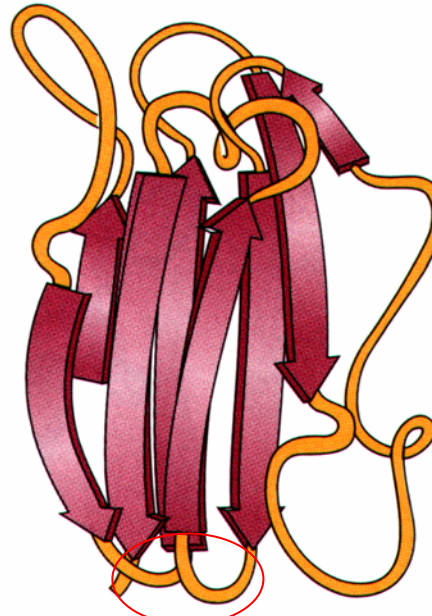
Myohemerythrin

all α helices



turn

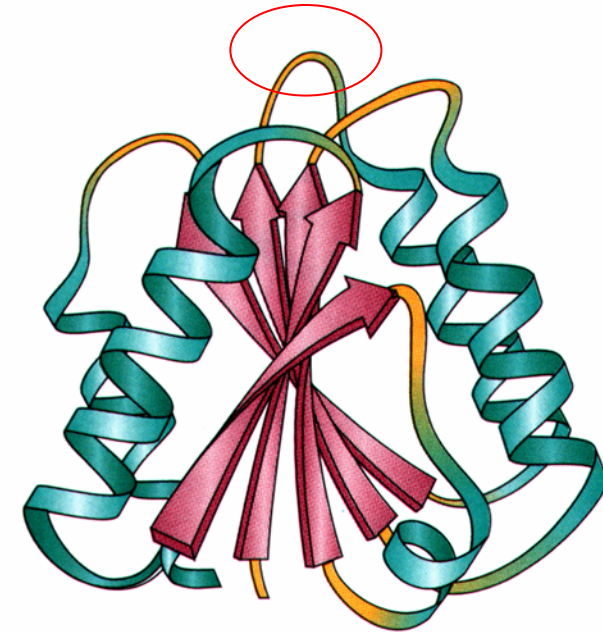
β domain



Plastocyanin

all β sheets

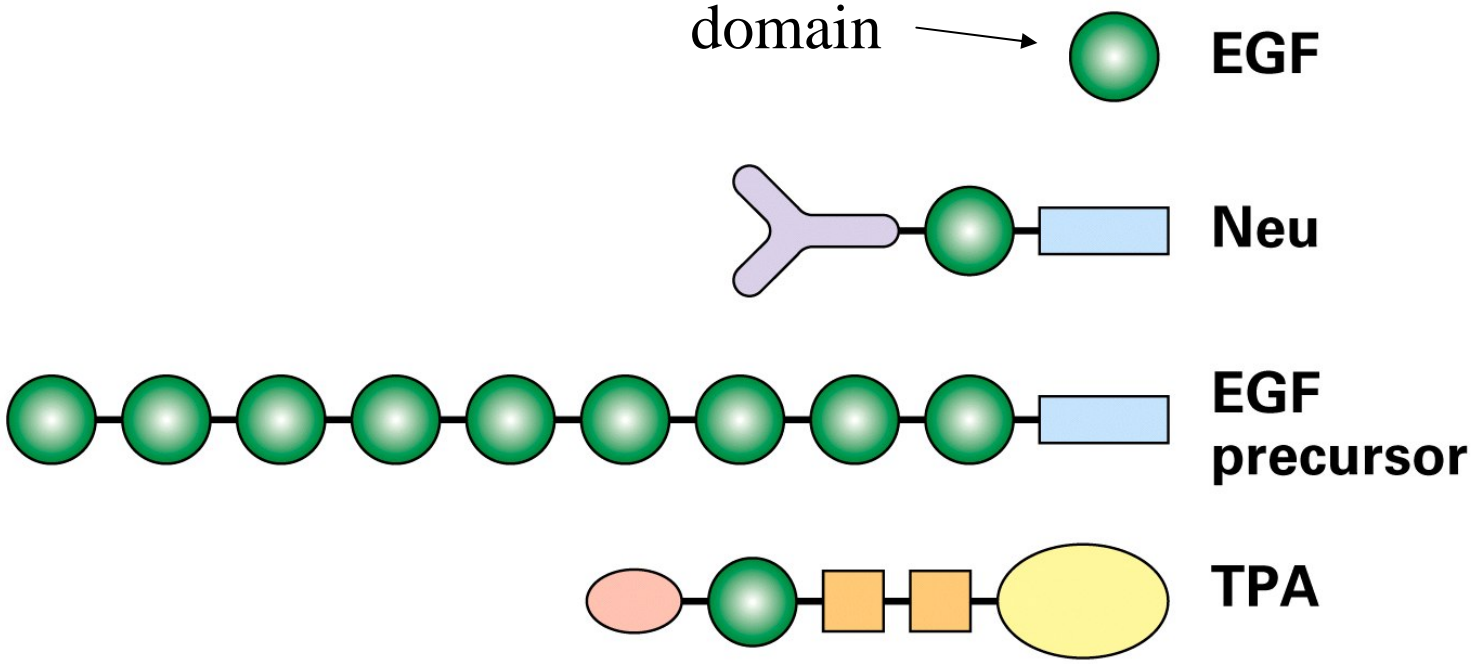
α/β domain



Flavodoxin

helices + sheets

Structural and functional domains are modules of tertiary structure



Tissue plasminogen activator

Various proteins illustrating their modular nature

Epidermal growth factor (EGF) is generated by proteolytic cleavage of a precursor protein.

These proteins also contain other widely distributed domains indicated by shape and color

Quaternary structure

Two or more polypeptides or subunit → multimeric protein

Quaternary structure: a fourth level of structural organization; it describes the number and relative positions of subunits in multimeric protein.

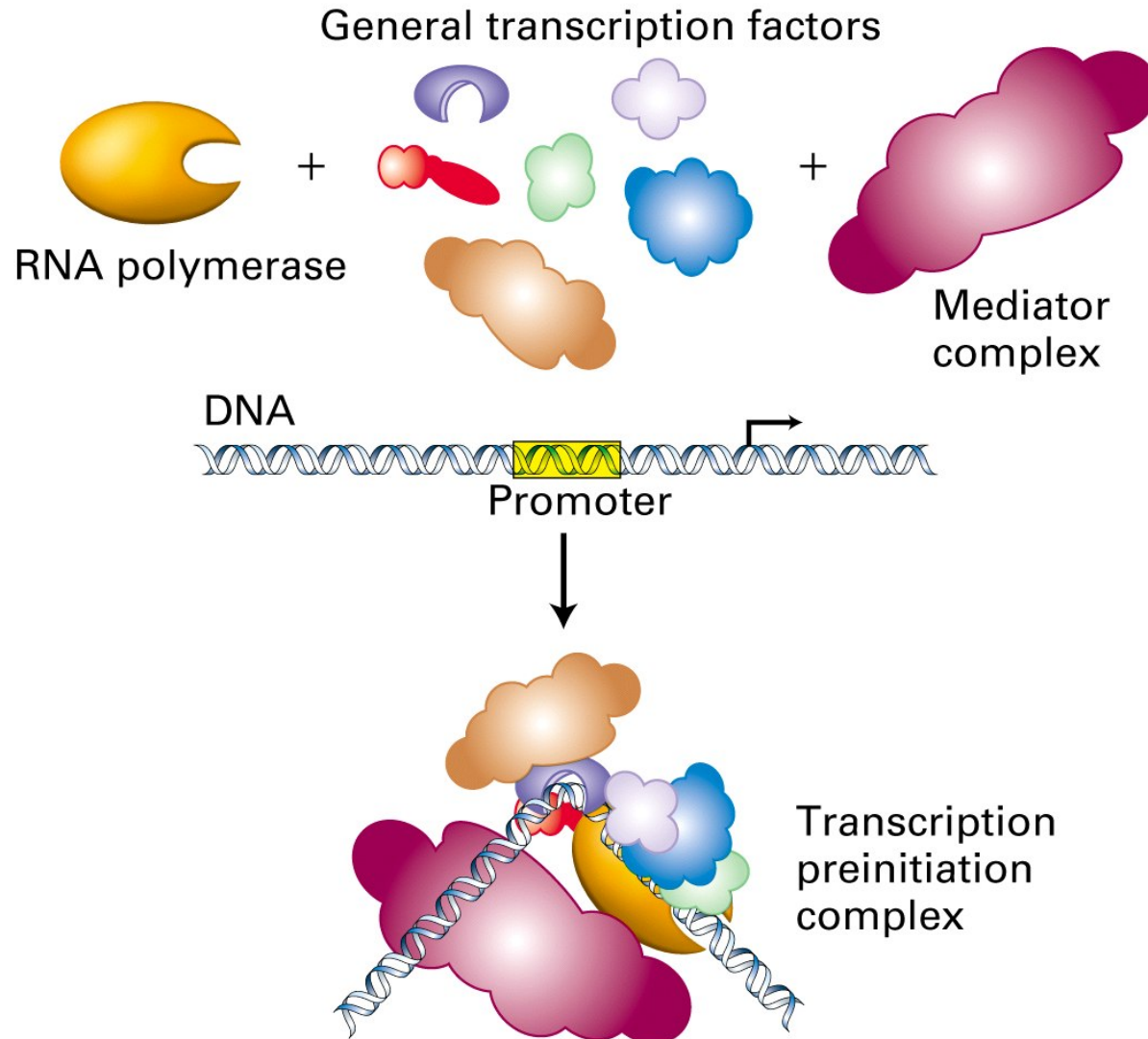
The highest level of protein structure is the association of protein into macromolecular assemblies.

Folding, modification, and degradation of proteins

- A newly synthesized polypeptide chain must undergo folding and often chemical modification to generate the final protein
- All molecules of any protein species adopt a single conformation (the native state), which is the most stably folded form of the molecule

Proteins associate into multimeric structures and macromolecular assemblies

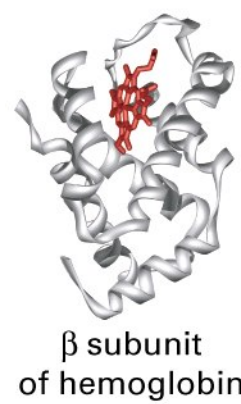
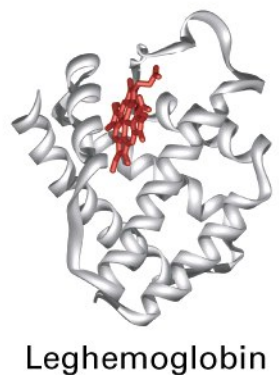
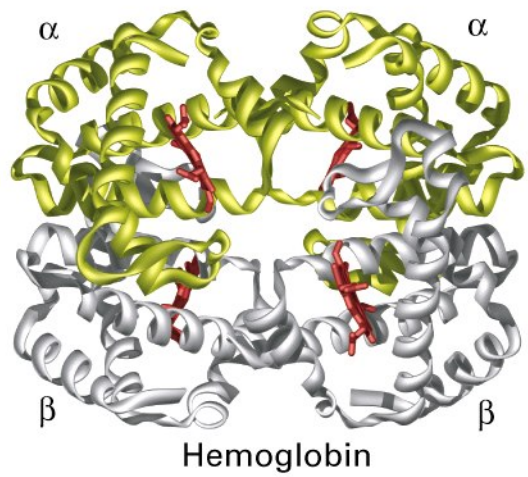
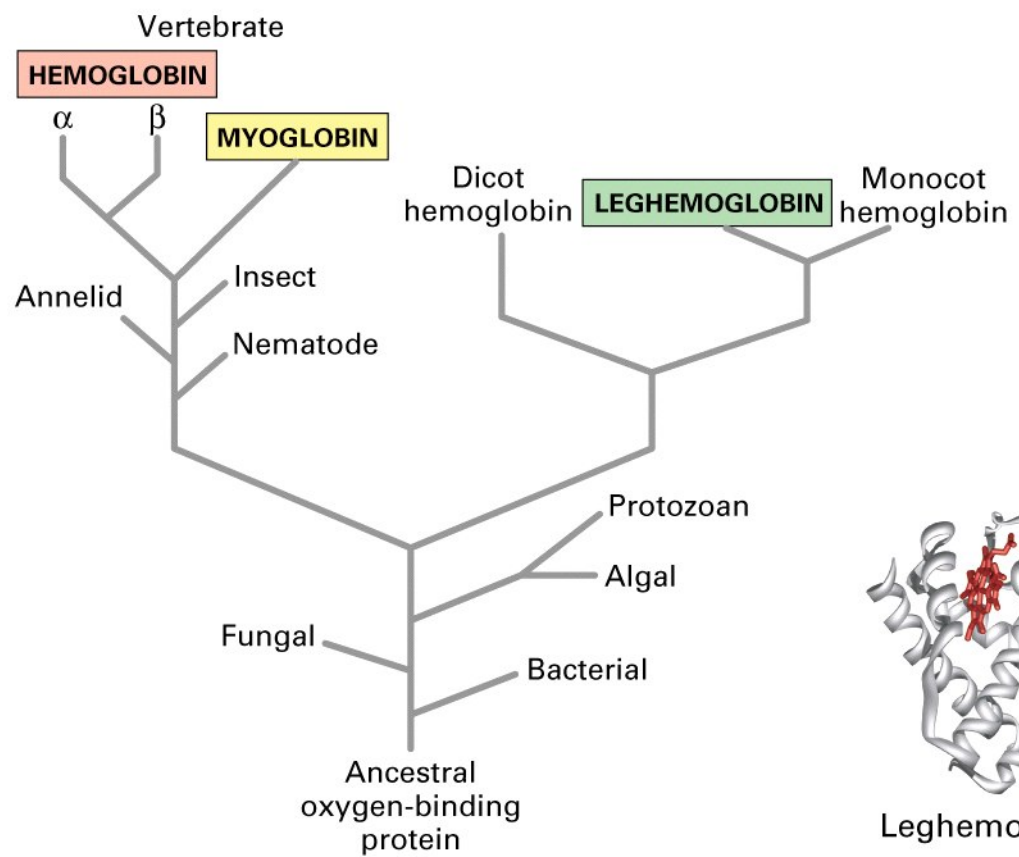
The mRNA transcription-initiation machinery



Members of protein families have a common evolutionary ancestor

Sequence homology suggests functional and evolutionary relationships between proteins

Homology: have a common ancestry are referred to as homologs. It is similarity in their sequence or structure.



Similarity homology homologs

Different amino acid sequence ----> different conformation -> different function

High sequence similarity about >50 % : related structure or function

Family and superfamily

Family protein about >30% amino acid sequence similarity

Folding, modification, and degradation of proteins

The information for protein folding is encoded in the sequence
Conformational folding can denature to polypeptides

Planar peptide bonds limit the
shapes into which protein can fold

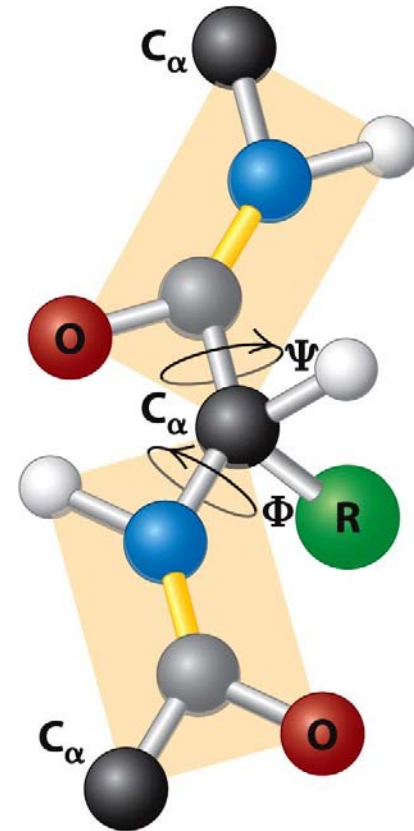


Figure 3-14
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Information directing a protein's folding is encoded in its amino acids sequence

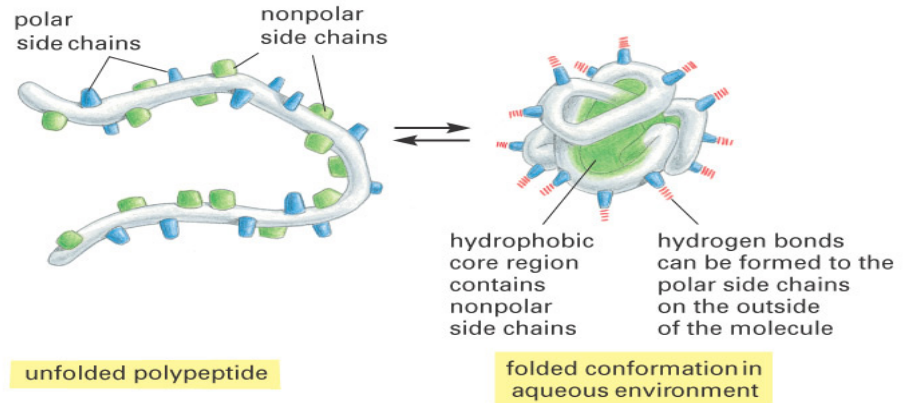
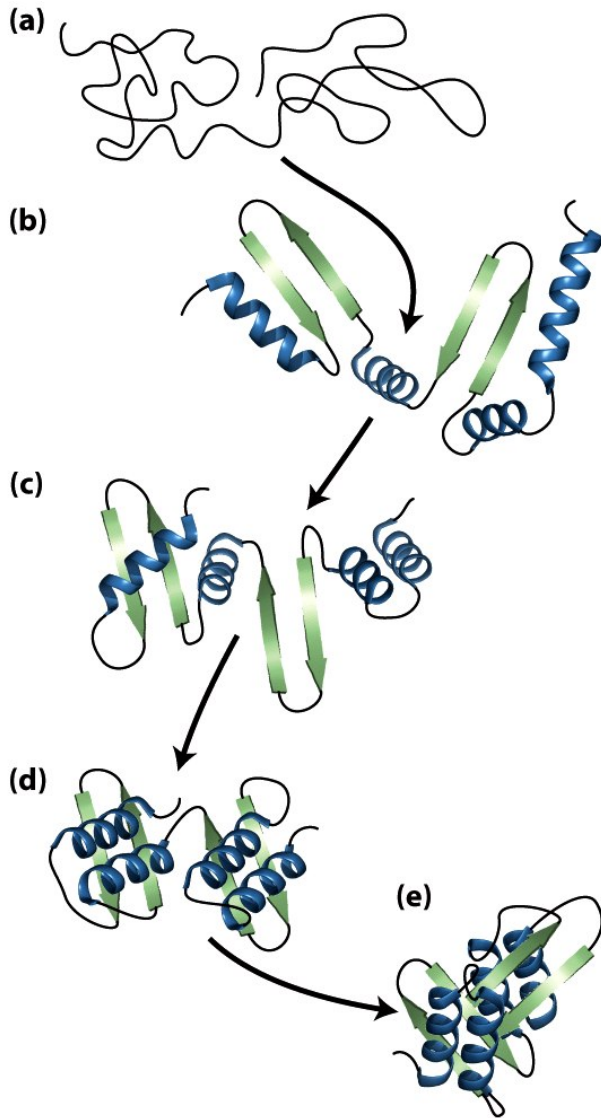


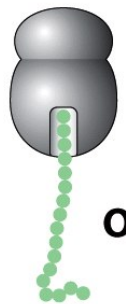
Figure 4-5 Essential Cell Biology, 2/e. (© 2004 Garland Science)

Denature or denaturation : disrupt noncovalent interaction

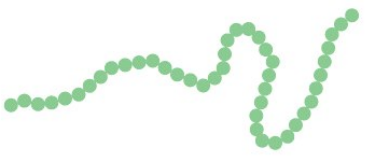
Only covalent bond: disulfide bond need beta-mercaptoethanol

Folding of protein in vivo is promoted by chaperones

Ribosome



Unfolded protein



Or

+



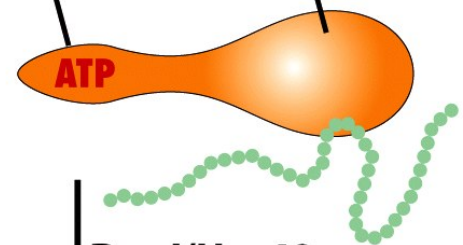
HSP: heat shock protein

Nucleotide-binding domain

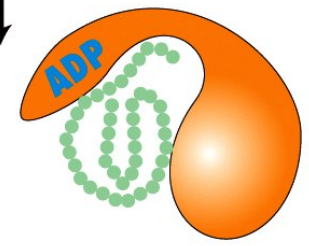
Substrate-binding domain

SBD

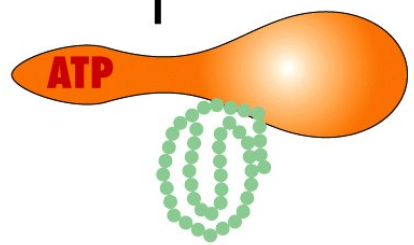
1
Rapid
⇌



DnaJ/Hsp40
→ P_i **2**



3
GrpE/BAG1
ATP → ADP



4



Figure 3-16
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Chaperone-mediate protein folding

Molecular chaperone

Members of Hsp70 family (homologs)

- DnaK (bacteria)
- Hsp70 (cytosol, mitochondrial of eukaryotic cells)
- BiP (endoplasmic reticulum)

Co-chaperone : Hsp 40/DnaJ

Protein folding from primary to final

Primary structure dictates final structure but most proteins cannot assume final conformation without help.

Chaperones provide this help.

Chaperones are necessary

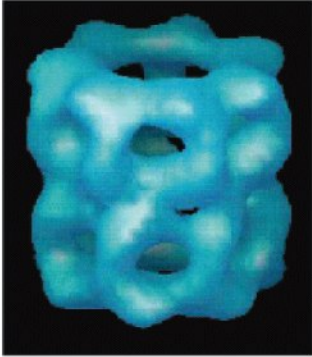
Few proteins can achieve their active conformation unaided. (it must need help)

During stress proteins unfold and need to reassemble. Note that chaperones are also called **heat shock proteins (Hsp)**.

Protein complexes may require help from a chaperone to form; other complexes may require help to be broken down.

Chaperonin mediated protein folding

(a)



(b)

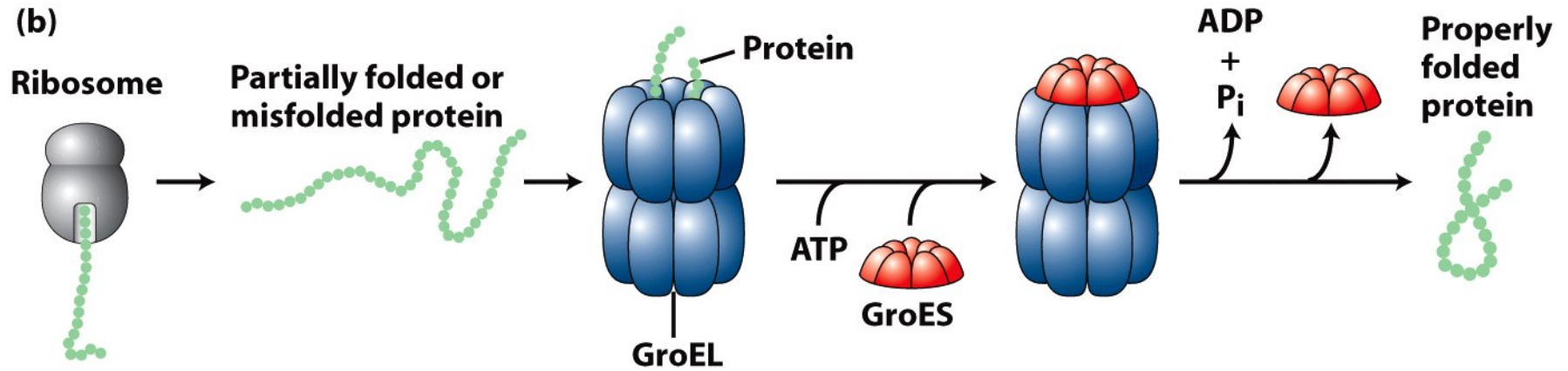


Figure 3-17
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GroEL/Hsp60 system (**Chaperonin**)

Constitutively expressed and increased in response to stress

One of the key chaperone systems for most cytosolic proteins

*Note that it is also important in protein **translocation** and **degradation***

GroEL is chaperone (Hsp60)

GroES is regulatory protein

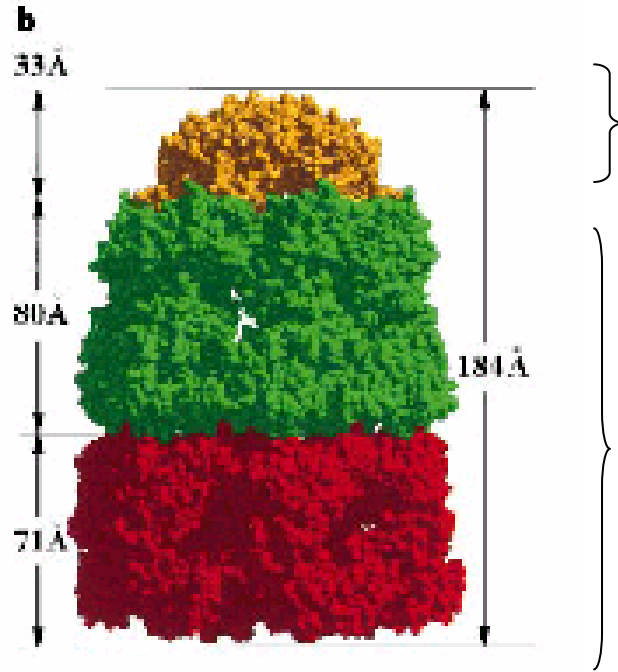
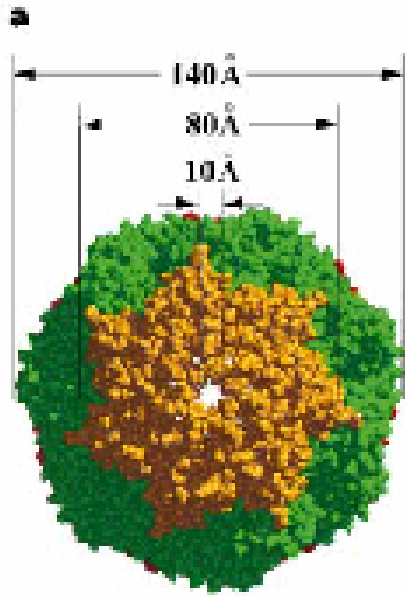
Structure

- GroEL 14 x 57 kDa (2 rings of 7)
- GroES 7 x 10 kDa

inner surface is hydrophobic **interact with hydrophobic region of polypeptides**

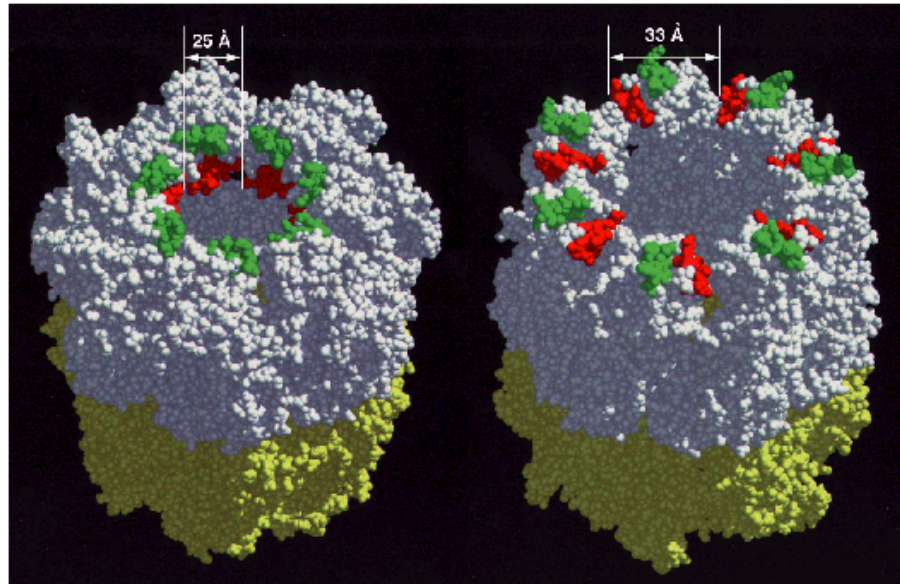
note that native (folded) proteins do not bind

GroES binds to GroEL



GroES: ;dome-shaped;
heptameric ring of 10 kDa
subunits (7)

GroEL: cylindrical (圓柱形)
structure ;
two heptameric rings of ~57
kDa subunits (7)



Two families of molecular chaperone for protein folding:

DnaK/DnaJ/GrpE (or hsp70) family: bind to growing polypeptide chains while they are being synthesized by ribosomes and prevent premature folding (**co-translational**)

Chaperonin family (GroE chaperonin): assist correct folding at a later stage (**post-translational**)

- **Molecular chaperons**

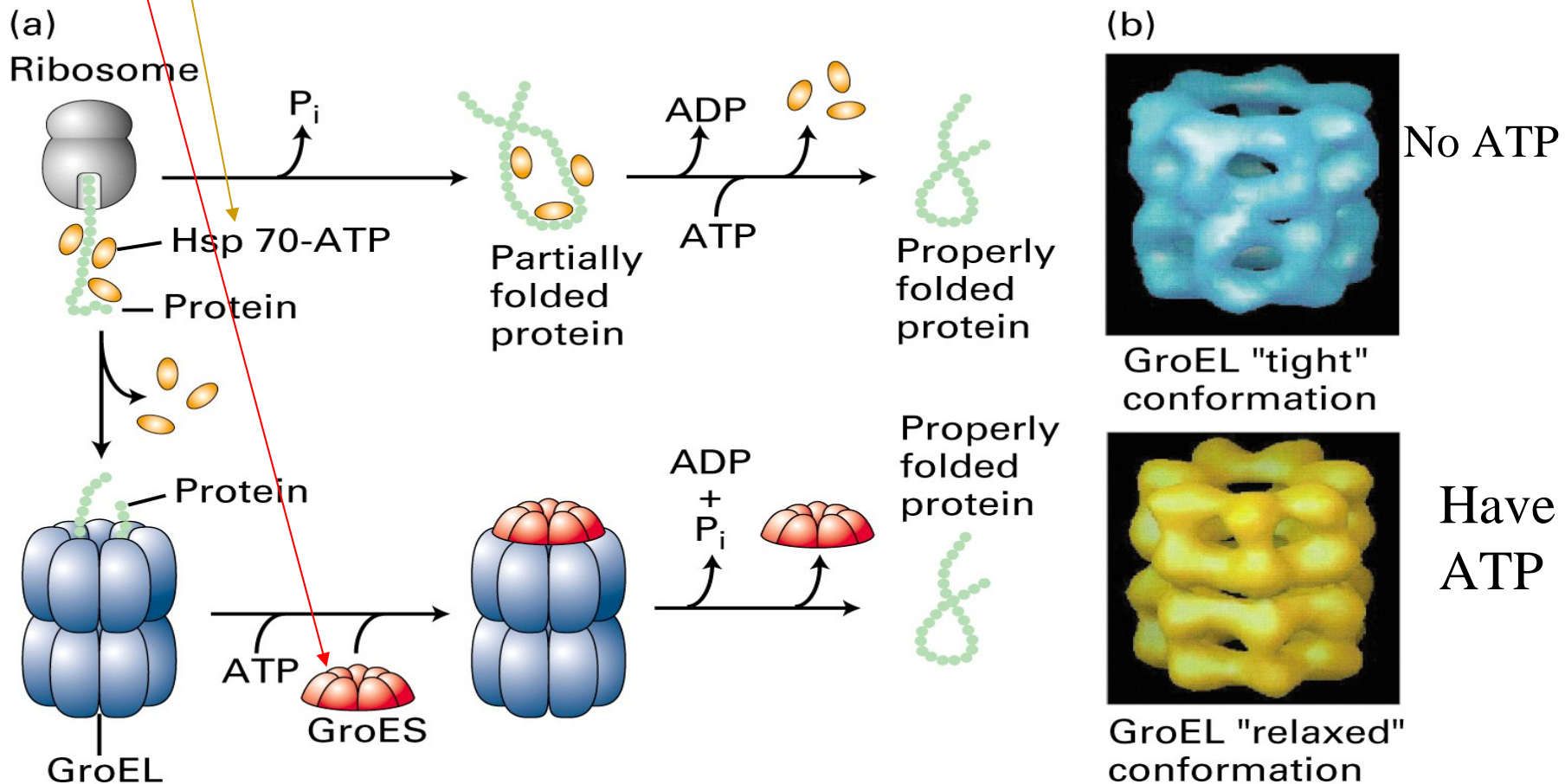
- Binds to unfolded and partially folded proteins to prevent in proper association of exposed hydrophobic patches (bind to hydrophobic part)
- Assist folding of larger multidomain proteins
- Heat shock proteins (rate of their syntheses increases with at elevated temperature)
- Hsp70 – monomeric 70 kDa proteins
 - Binds to newly synthesised protein peptide emerging from the ribosome
- Hsp90 proteins – involved in the folding of proteins participating in signal transduction (steroid hormon receptors etc).

Chaperonins – large multisubunit proteins

Folding of protein in vivo is promoted by chaperones

Molecular chaperones: bind and stabilize unfolded or partly folded proteins, preventing these proteins from aggregating and being degraded

Chaperonin: directly facilitate the folding of proteins



Alternatively folded proteins are implicated in slowly developing diseases

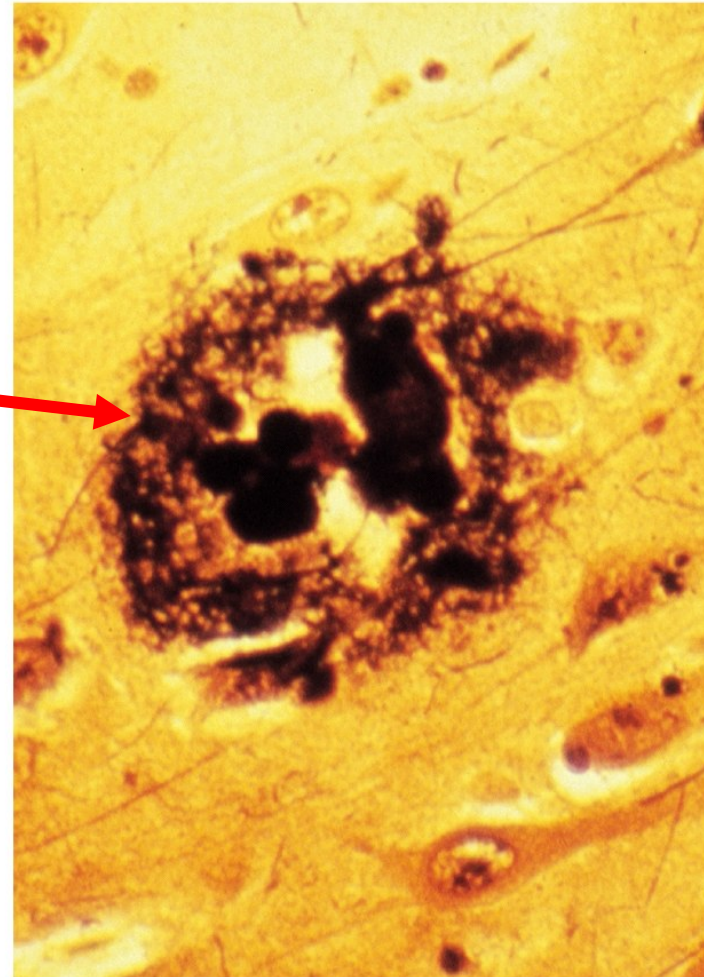
Misfolding protein

Alzheimer's disease

Insoluble plaques composed of amyloid protein from unknown mechanism of proteolysis of the amyloid precursor protein.

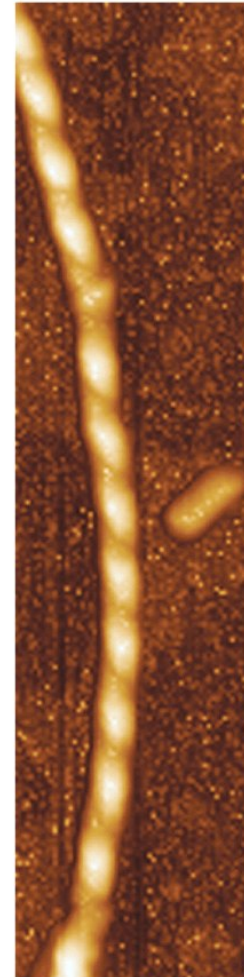
α -helix \rightarrow beta sheet

(a)

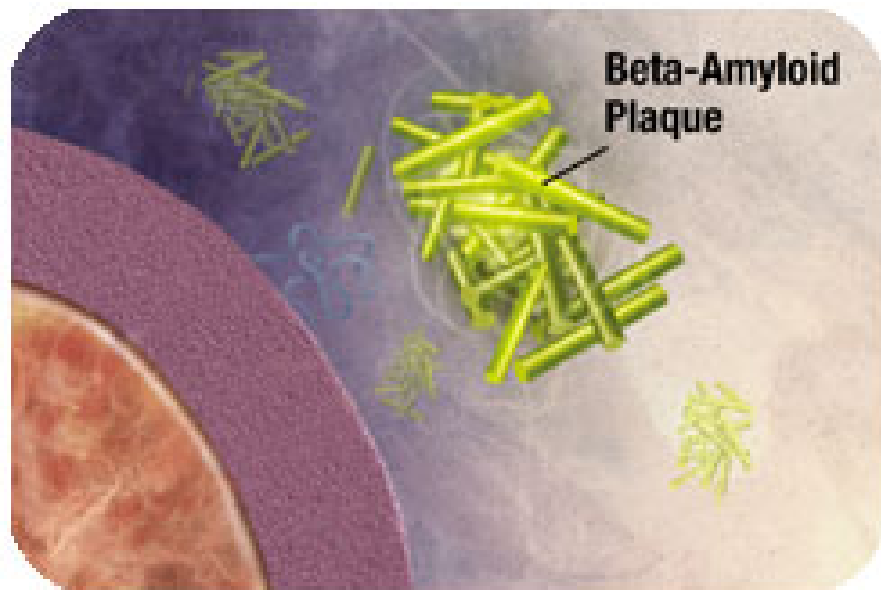
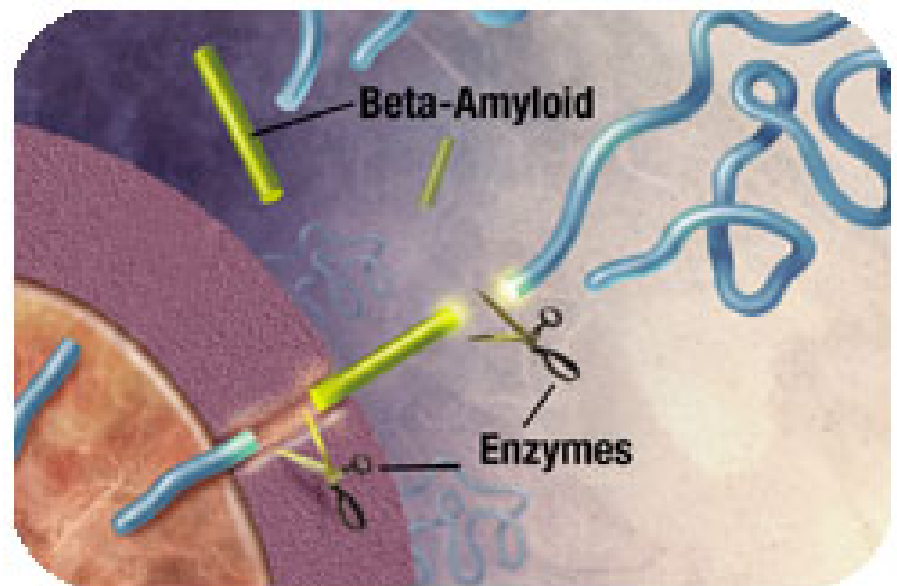
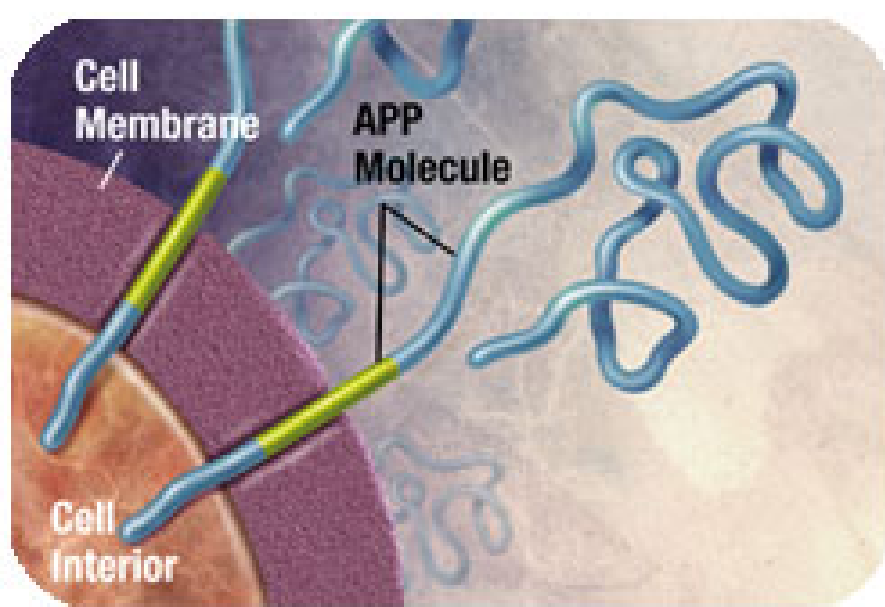


20 μ m

(b)



100 nm

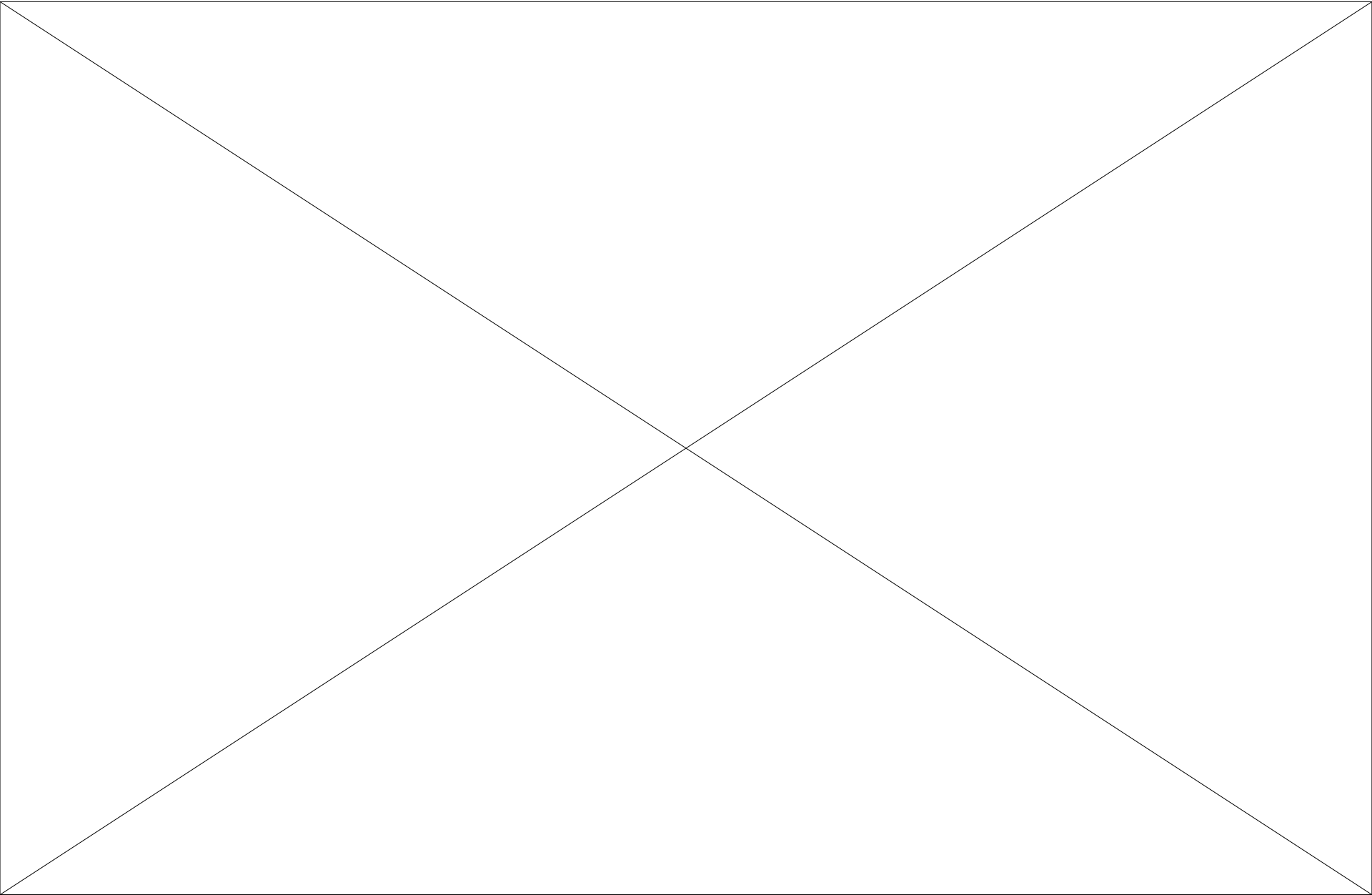


Beta-amyloid Plaques

Amyloid precursor protein (APP) is the precursor to amyloid plaque.

1. APP sticks through the neuron membrane.
2. Enzymes cut the APP into fragments of protein, including beta-amyloid.
3. Beta-amyloid fragments come together in clumps to form plaques.

Protein folding



Specific and affinity of protein-ligand binding depend on molecular complementarity

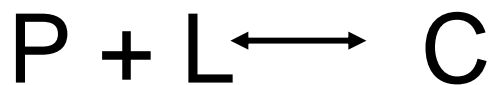
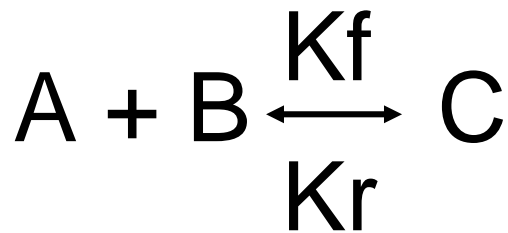
Ligand: the molecule to which a protein binds is often called it

Specificity: the ability of molecular and molecular interaction

Affinity: tightness or strength of binding

Kd: affinity usually use dissociation constant = $1/K_{eq}$

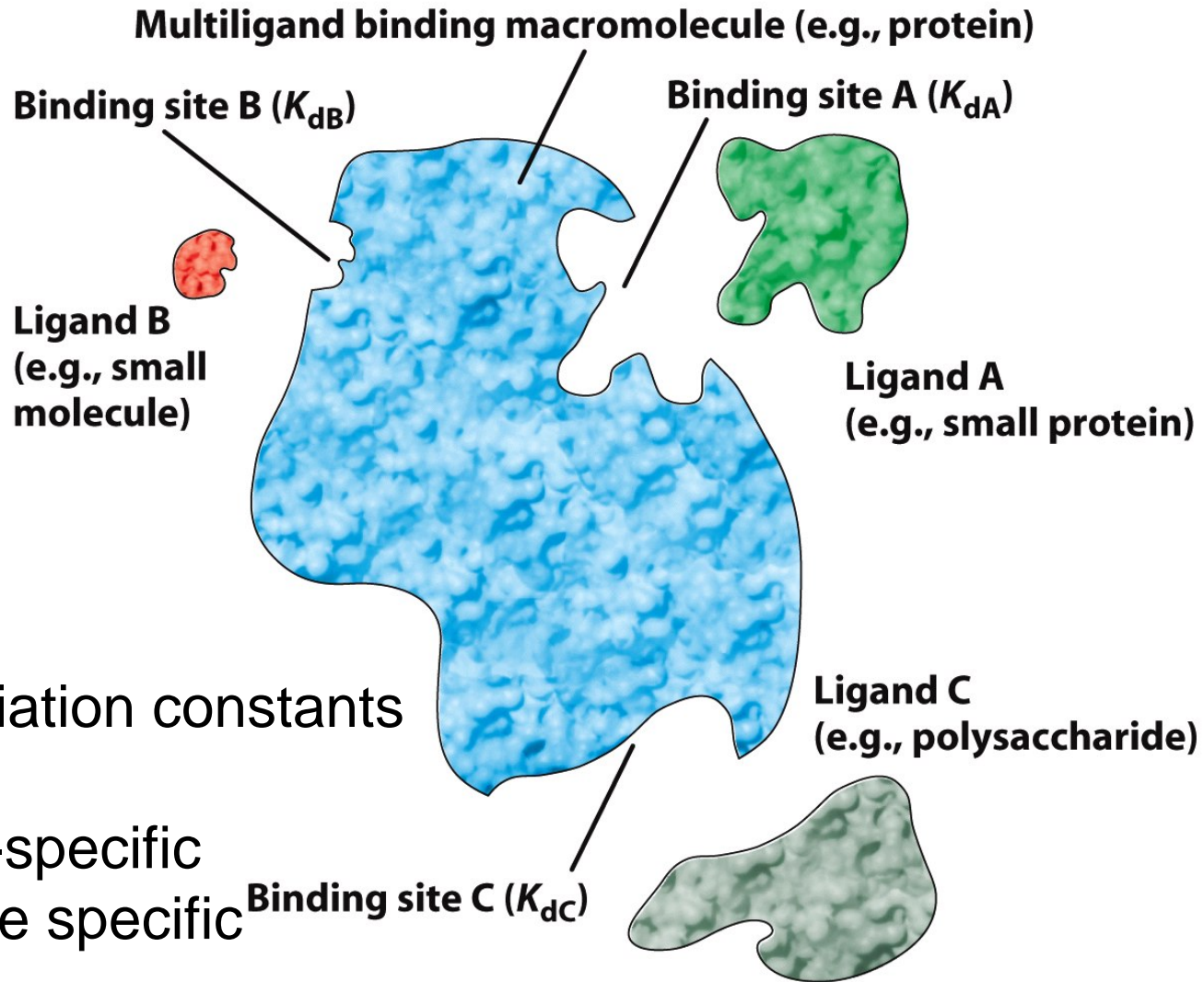
Ligand binding site: both specificity and affinity of a protein for a ligand depend on the structure



$$K_{eq} = \frac{K_f}{K_r}$$

$$K_d = \frac{[P][L]}{[C]}$$

Dissociation constants of binding reactions reflect the affinity of interacting molecules



K_d : dissociation constants

K_d ↑ non-specific
↓ more specific



K_d: dissociation constant of receptor-ligand complex; ↓ complex more good
RL → response

$$K_D = \frac{[R][L]}{[RL]} = \frac{K_{off}}{K_{on}}$$

R_T: total receptor number

Given $[R_T] = [R] + [RL]$

$[RL]/R_T =$ the fraction of receptors that have bond ligand

Dissociation Constant (K_d): is the free ligand conc at which 50% of receptor is occupied.

K_d represents affinity of ligand binding to receptor (1 affinity).

Each ligand has its own specific affinity to the receptor. This can be used to define a new drug or confirm a receptor.

Derive the following equation:

$$\frac{[RL]}{R_T} = \frac{1}{1 + K_D/[L]}$$

Specific and affinity of protein-ligand binding depend on molecular complementarity

Molecular complementarity: High affinity and specific interaction to take place, the shape and chemical surface of binding site must be complementary to ligand molecule

Antibody

Antigen

CDR: complementarity-determining regions

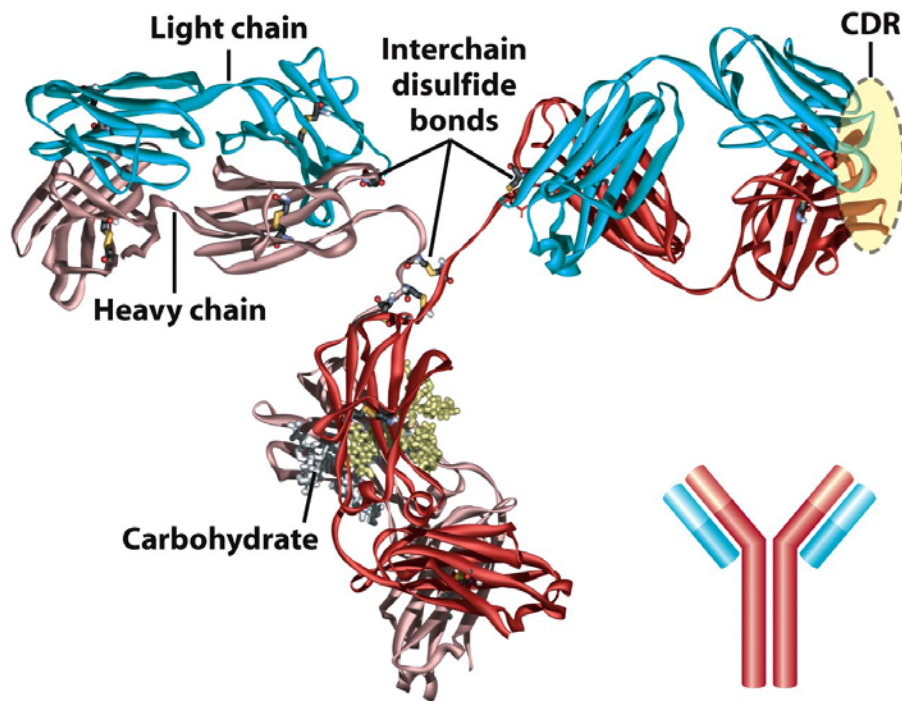


Figure 3-19a
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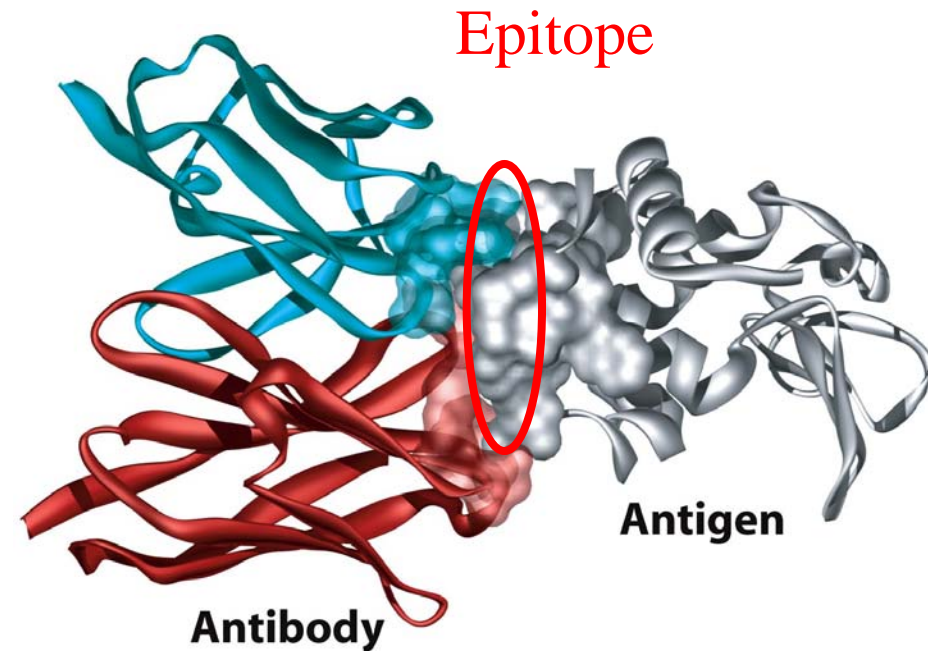
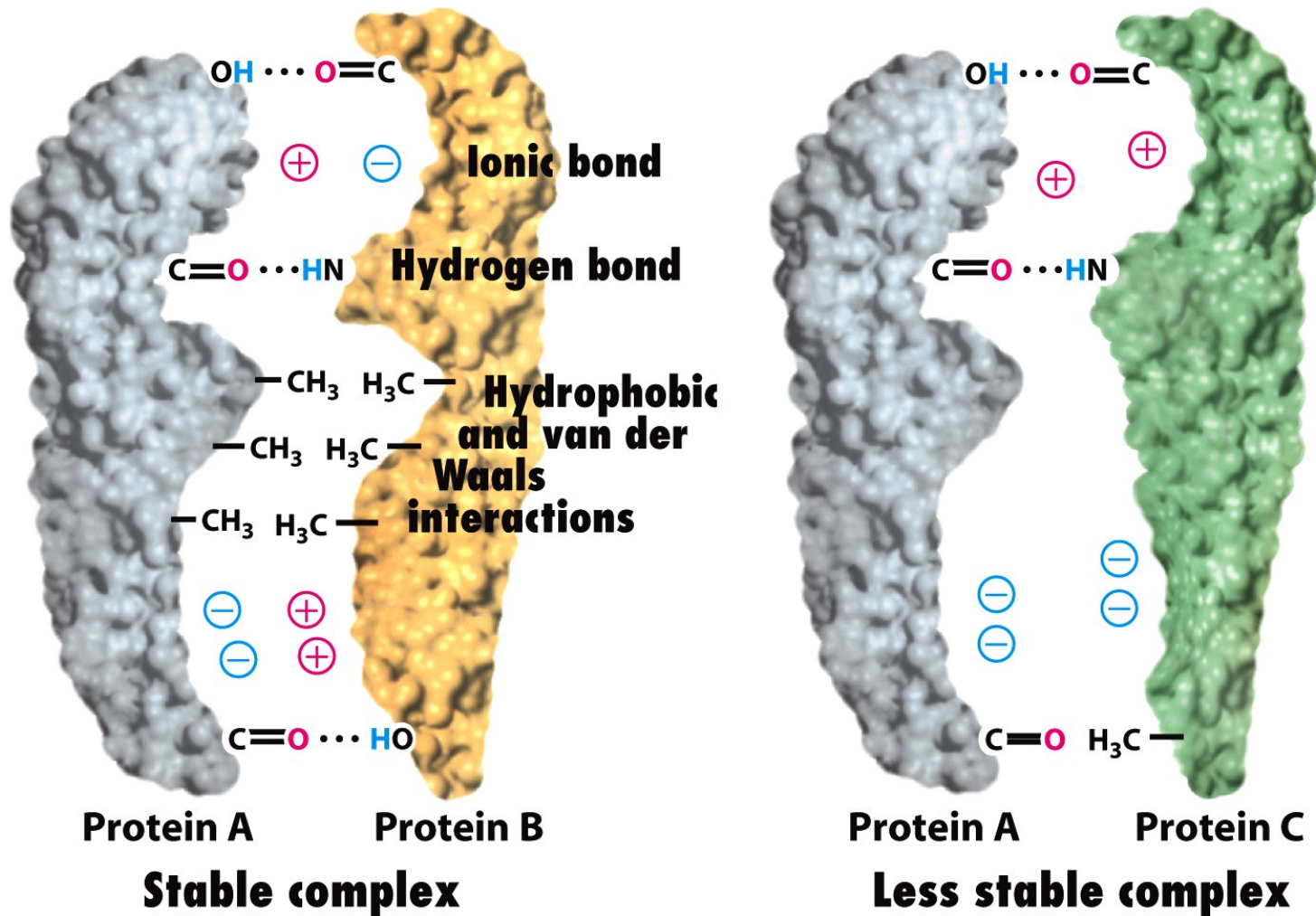
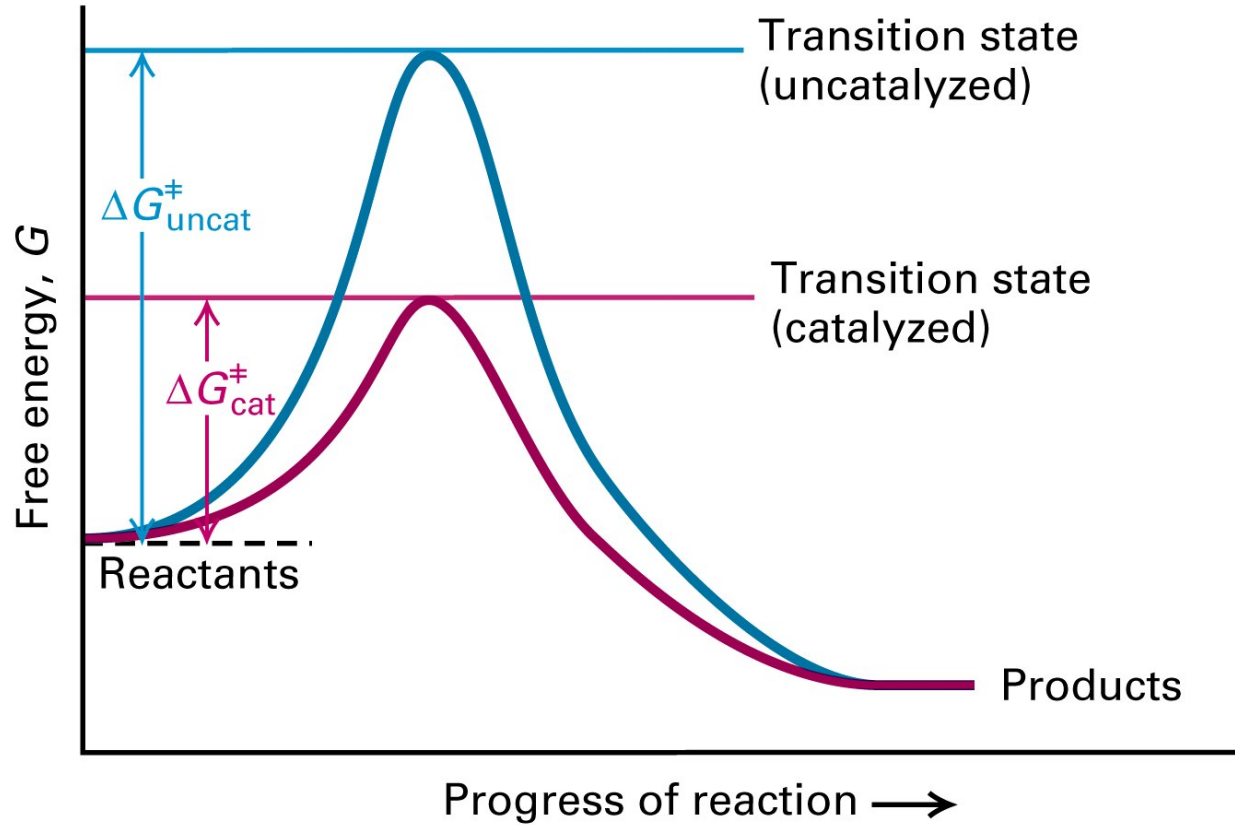


Figure 3-19b
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affinity and specificity



Enzyme are highly efficient and specific catalysts



A reaction will take place **spontaneously** only if the total G of the products is less than that of reactants.

All chemical reactions → high energy transition state → rate of reaction is inversely to G → So need enzyme for catalysts

Active site of the enzyme trypsin

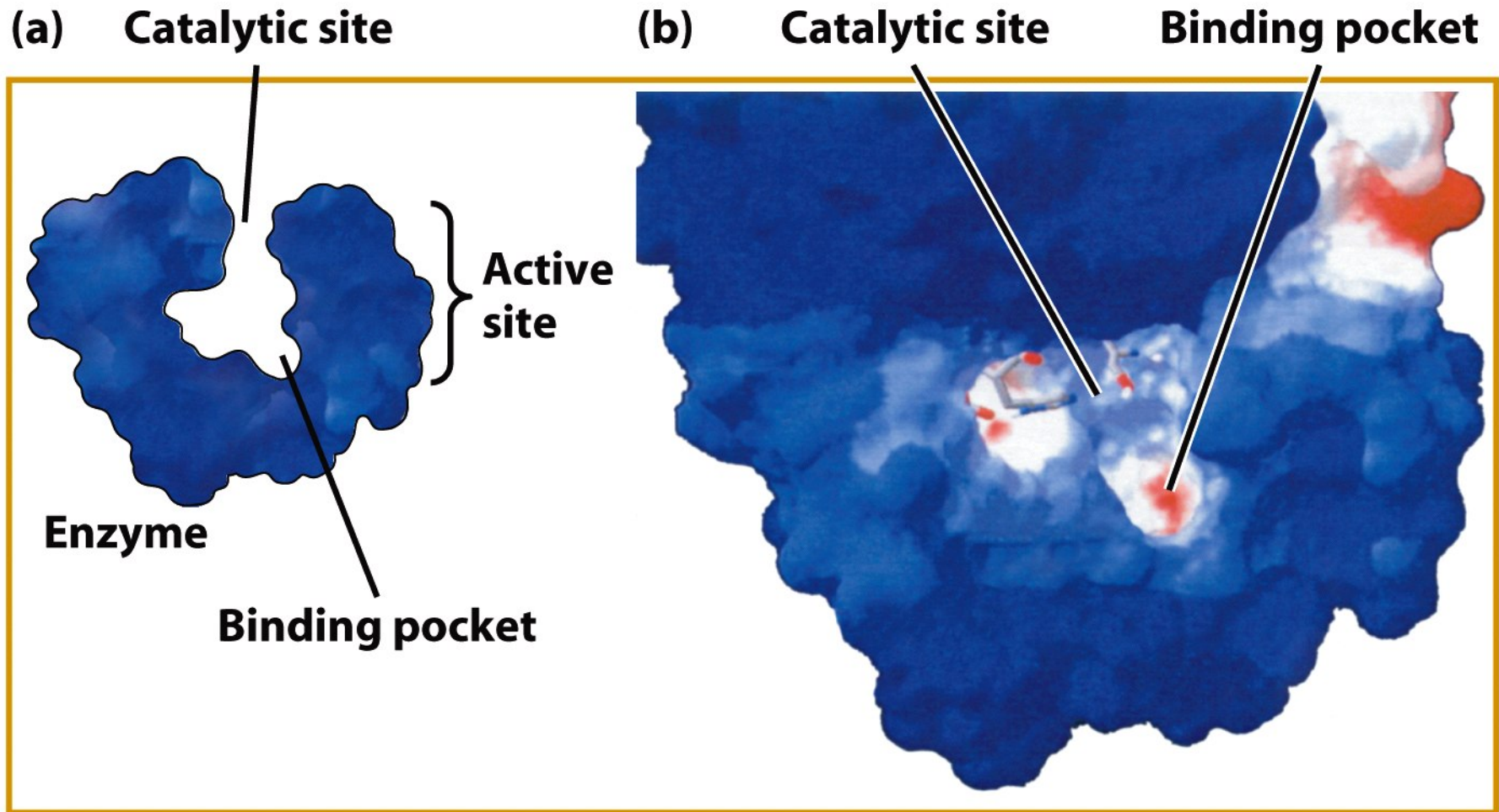


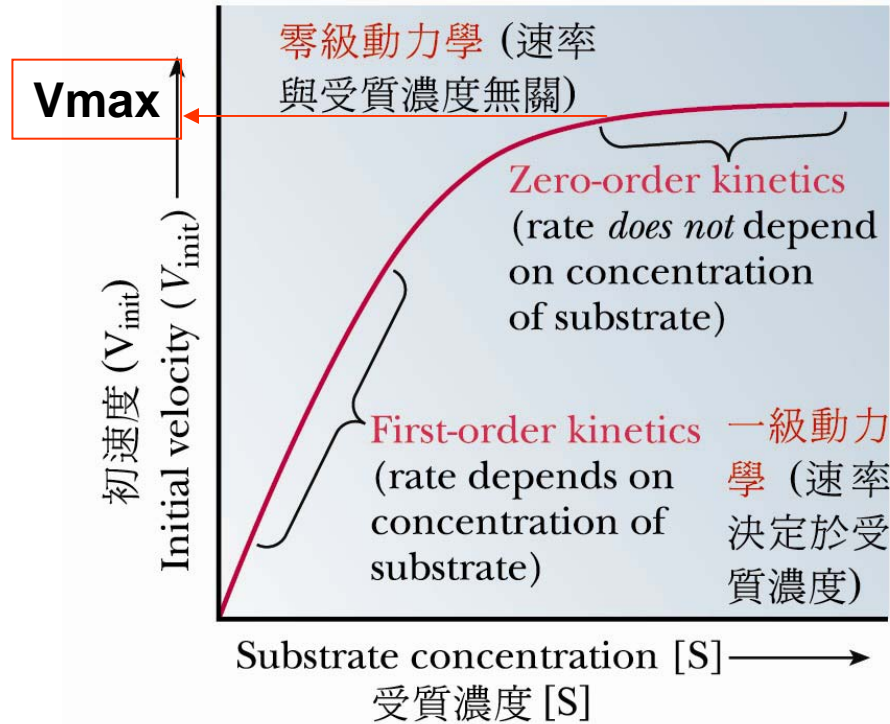
Figure 3-21
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Highly efficient and specific catalysts

An enzyme active site binds substrates and carries out catalysis

Active site: specific and chemical reaction site

Michaelis-Menten equation:



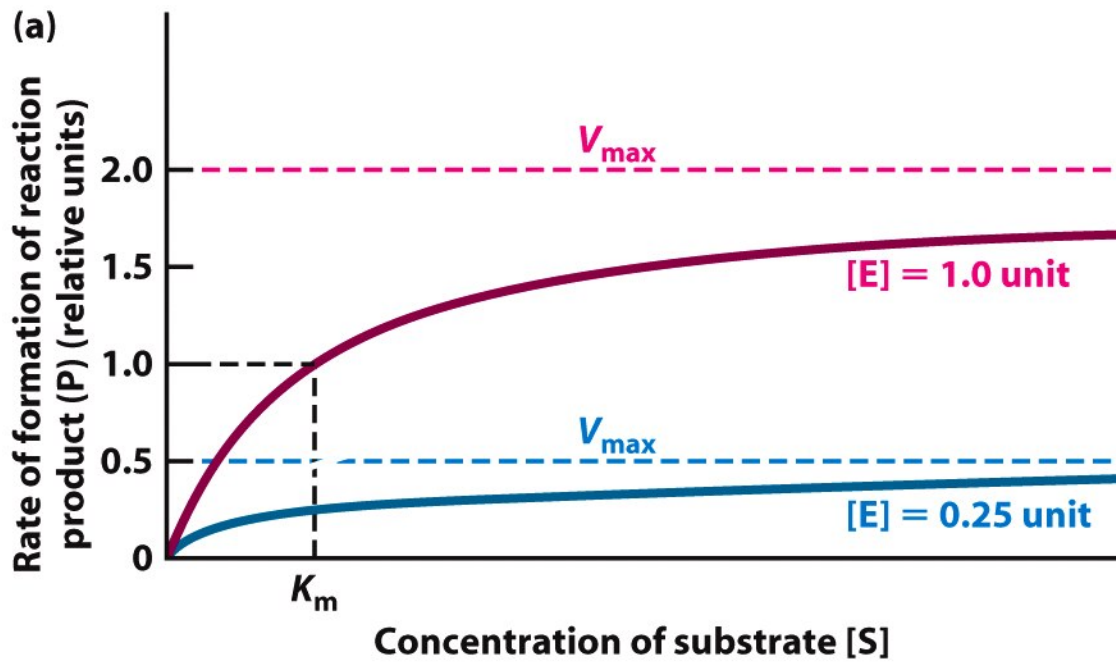
在足夠的基質濃度下，一定量的酵素所能催化的最高反應速率，即為其 V_{max} 。
要讓一個酵素達致其 V_{max} ，就要把基質量調至最高濃度。

$$V = \frac{V_{\max} [S]}{K_M + [S]}$$

若酵素的 K_m 越低，則表示它要接近 V_{\max} 所需的基質濃度越低。

若某一酵素有數種基質，各有不同的 K_m ，則 **K_m 越低的基質，表示它與酵素的親和力越大，催化反應愈容易進行。**

K_m 與 $[S]$ 一樣是濃度單位 (mM 或 mM)。



Enzyme can enhance reaction

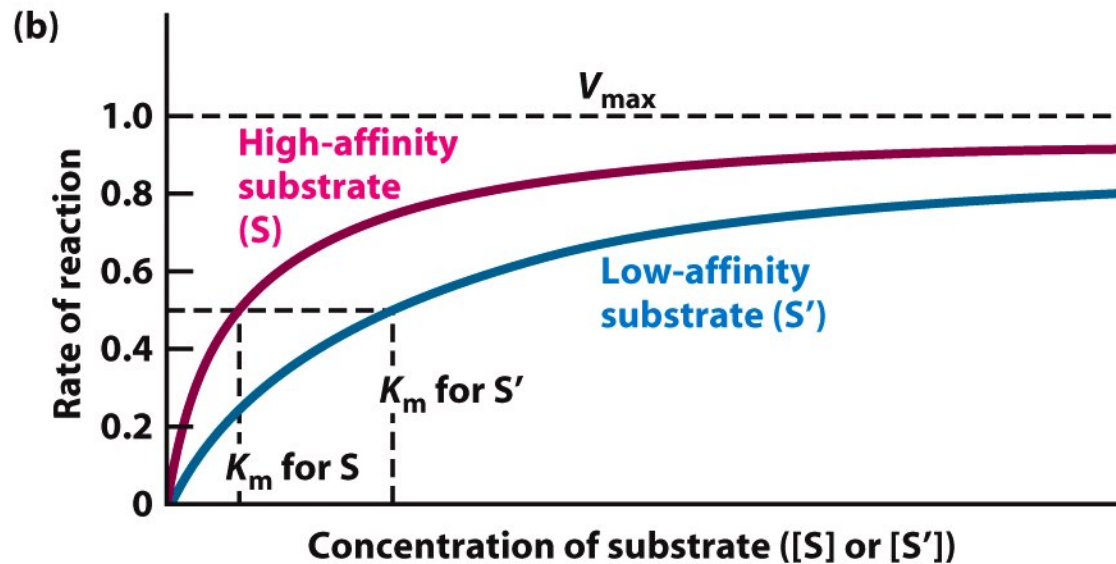


Figure 3-22
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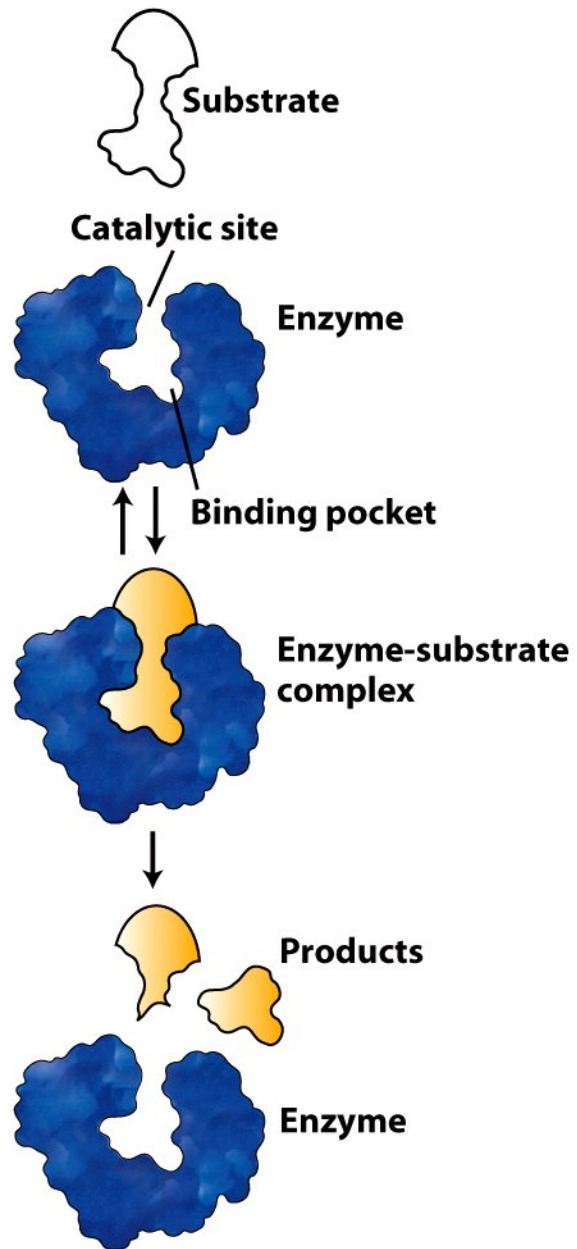
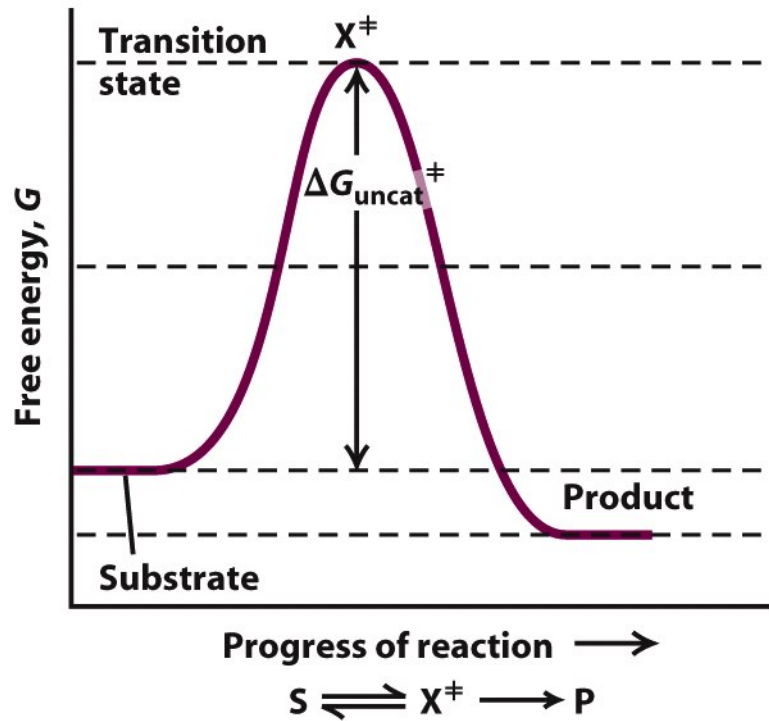


Figure 3-23
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No enzyme

(a)



E: enzyme

(b)

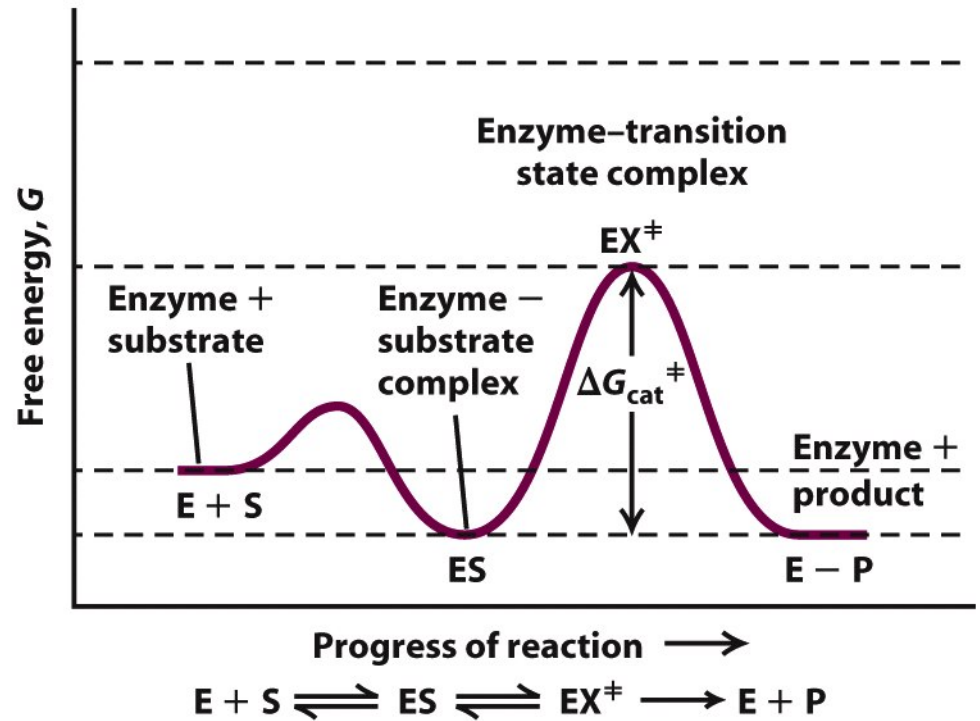


Figure 3-24
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Substrate binding in the active site of protease

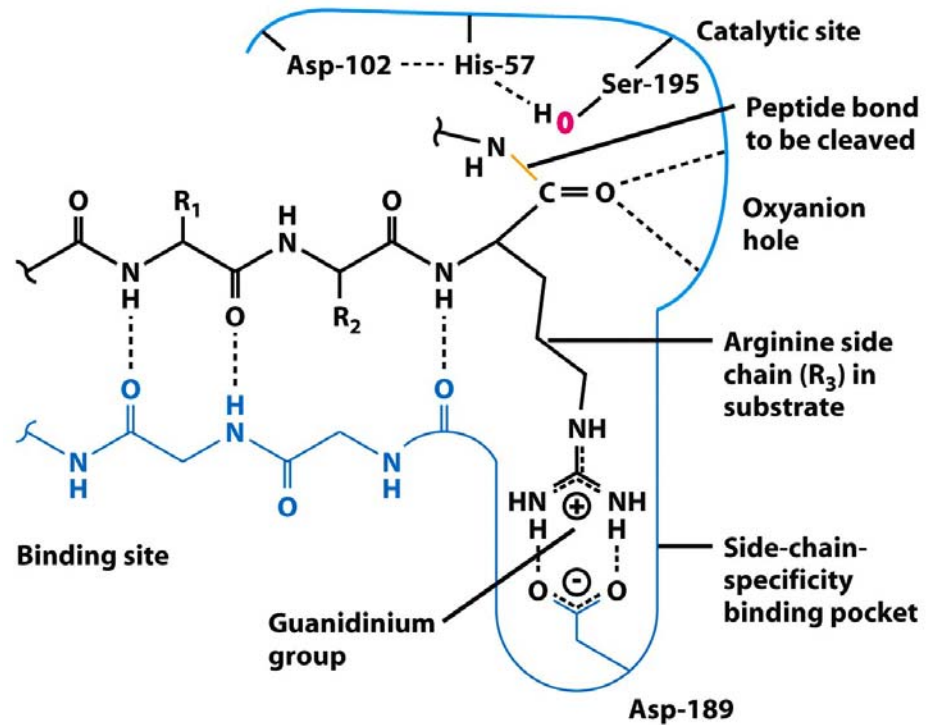


Figure 3-25a
Molecular Cell Biology, Sixth Edition

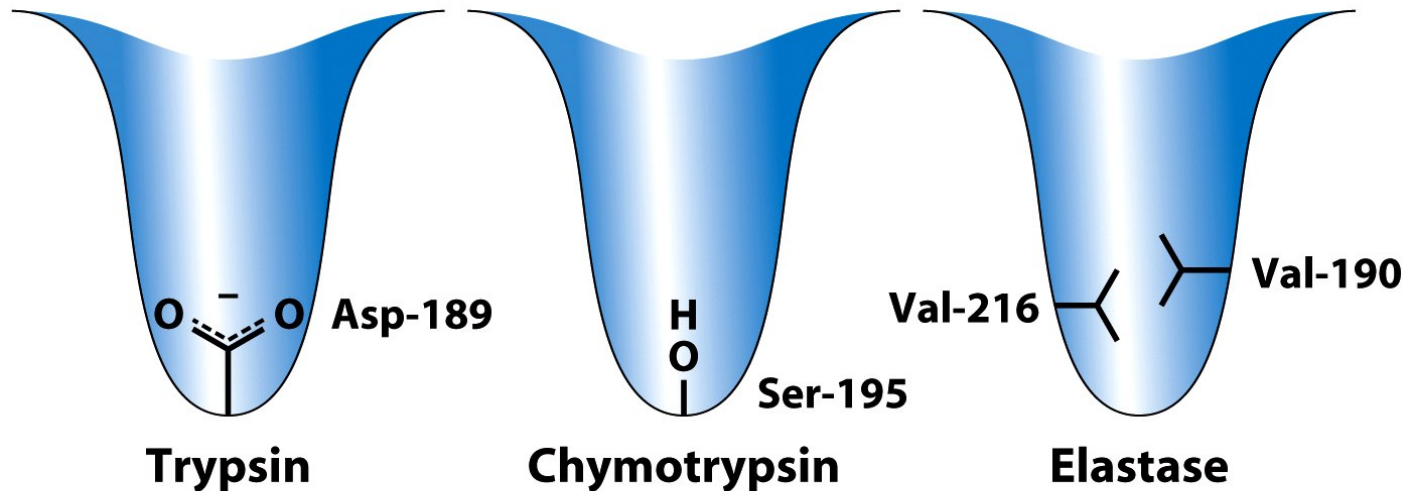
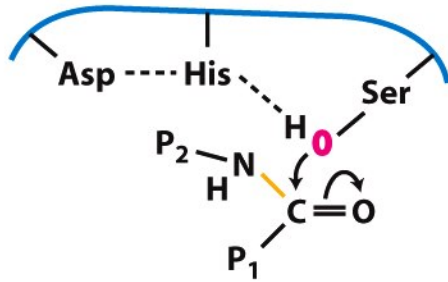
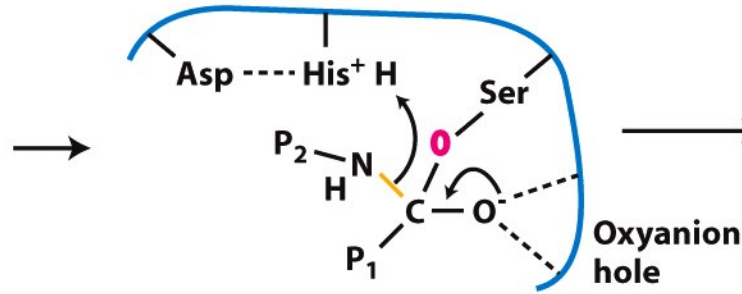


Figure 3-25b
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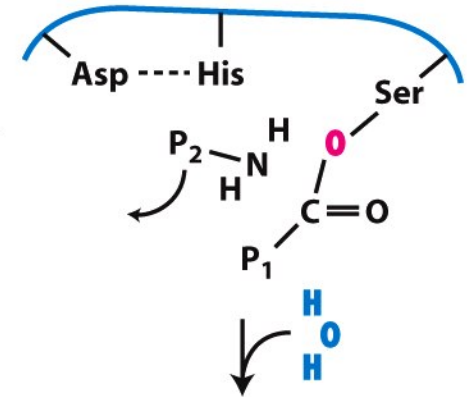
(a) ES complex



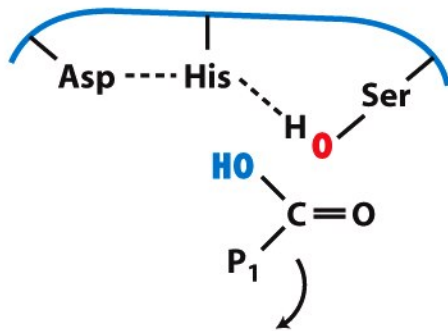
(b) Tetrahedral intermediate (transition state)



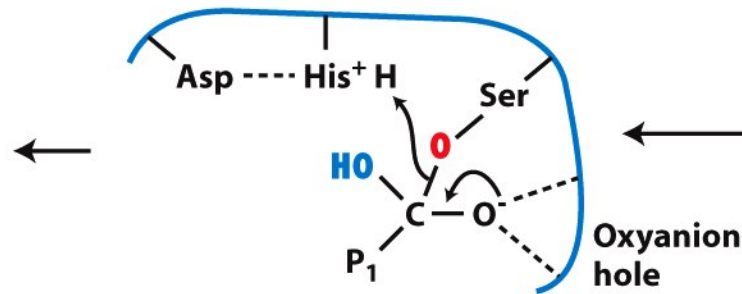
(c) Acyl enzyme (ES' complex)



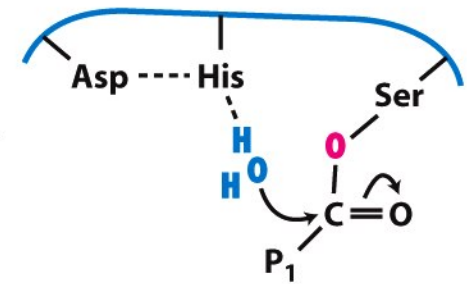
(f) EP complex



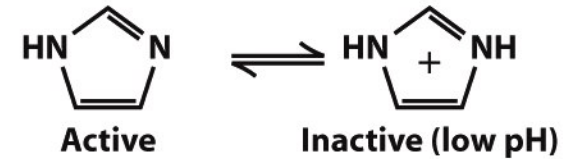
(e) Tetrahedral intermediate (transition state)



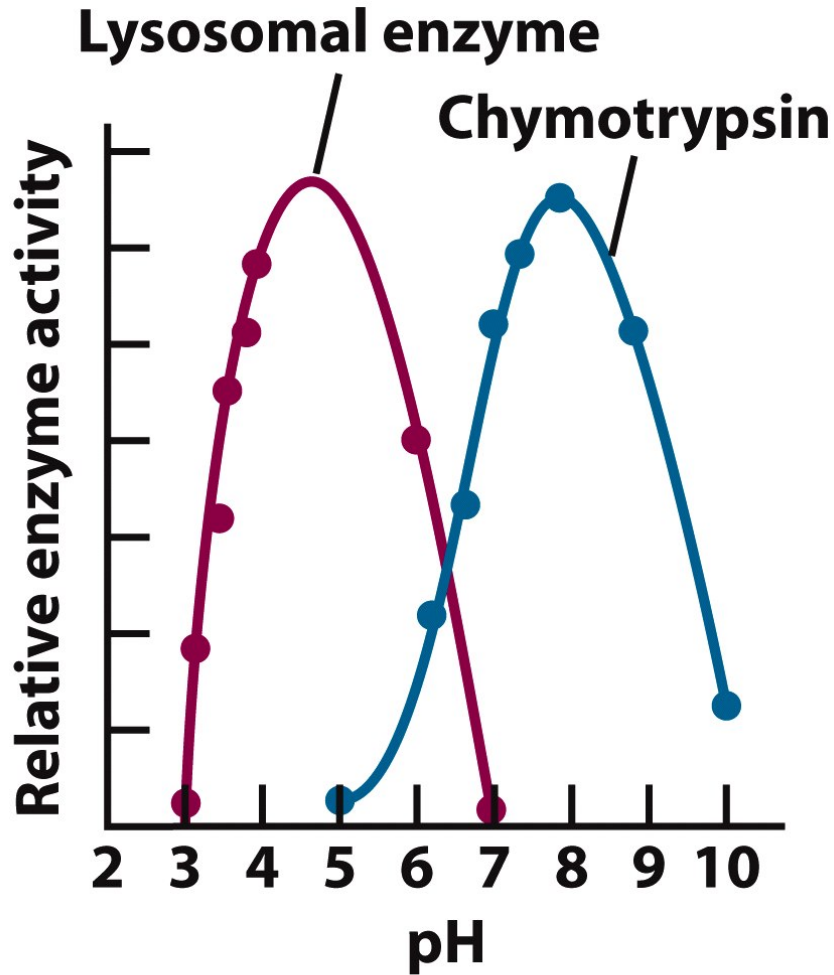
(d) Acyl enzyme (ES' complex)



His-57 side chain

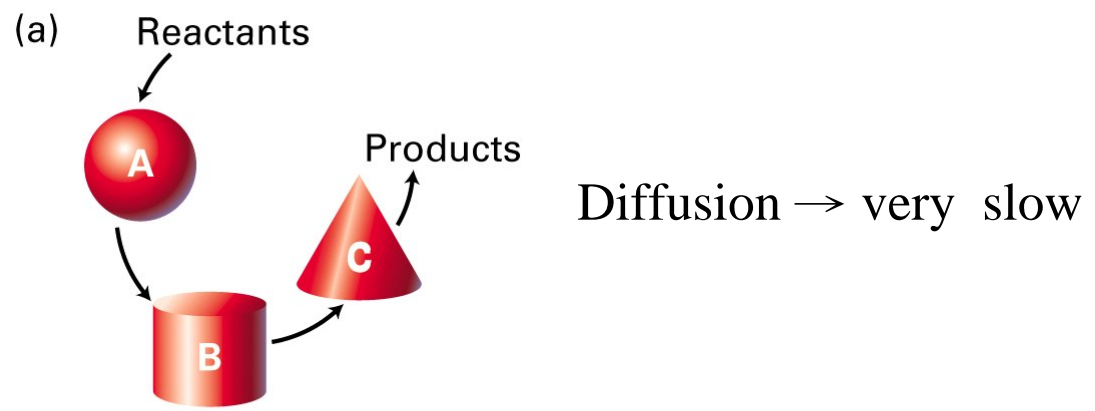


pH dependence of enzyme activity

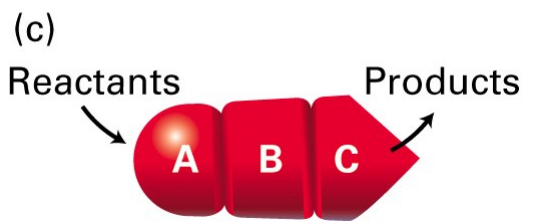
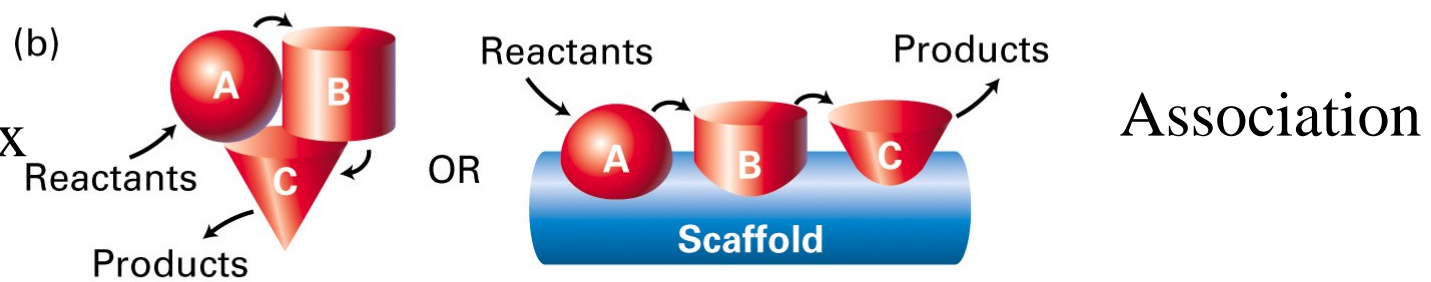


Enzyme inhibitor

Enzymes in a common pathway are often physically associated with one another



Complex subunit



Integration of different catalytic activities in a single protein

Evolution of multifunctional enzyme

Enzyme called molecular motors convert energy into motion

Molecular motors (motor protein): generate the forces necessary for many cellular movements, cells depend on specialized enzymes.

Mechanochemical enzyme

Regulation protein function I: PROTEIN DEGRADATION

Synthesis
degradation

Regulation protein function II: Noncovalent and covalent modification

Ubiquitin marks cytosolic proteins for degradation in proteasomes

Degradation of protein

- Lysosome:** primarily toward *extracellular* protein and aged or defective organelles of the cells. *Membrane organelles.*
- Proteasomes:** Ubiquitin dependent; for intracellular unfolding, aged protein.
 - control native cytosolic protein
 - misfolded in the course of their synthesis in the ER

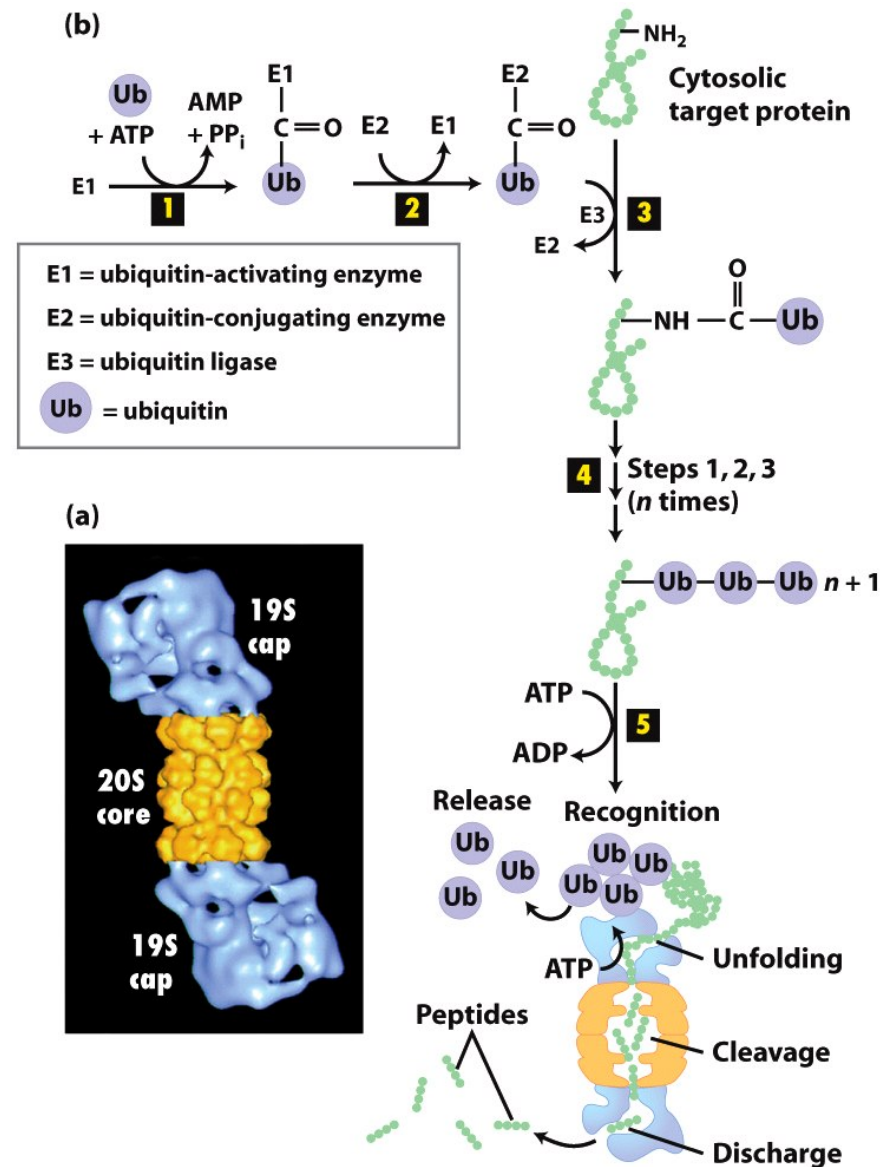
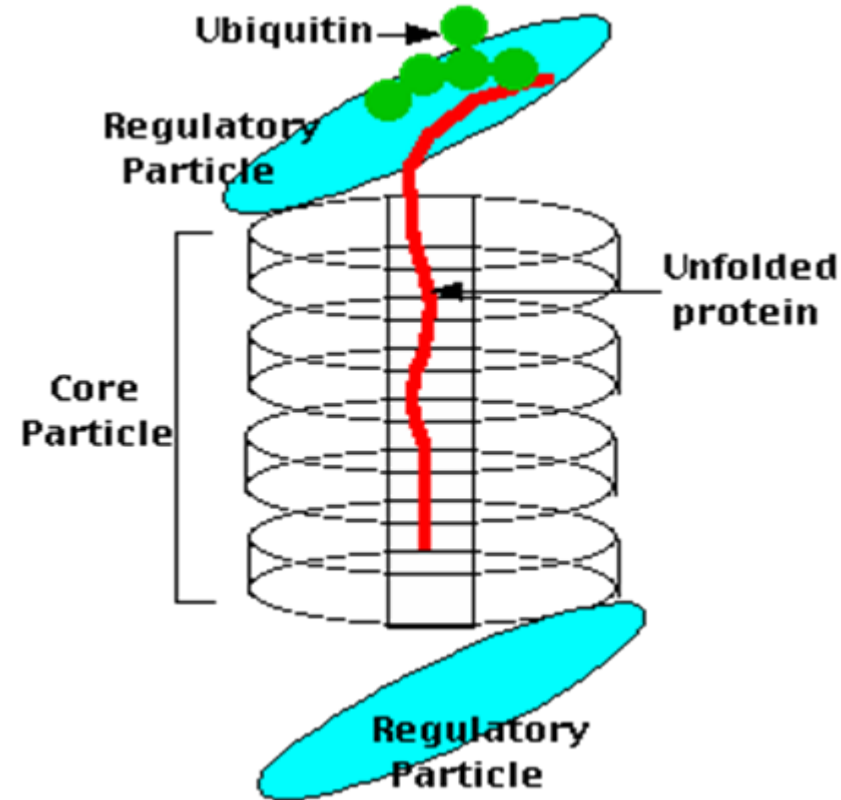
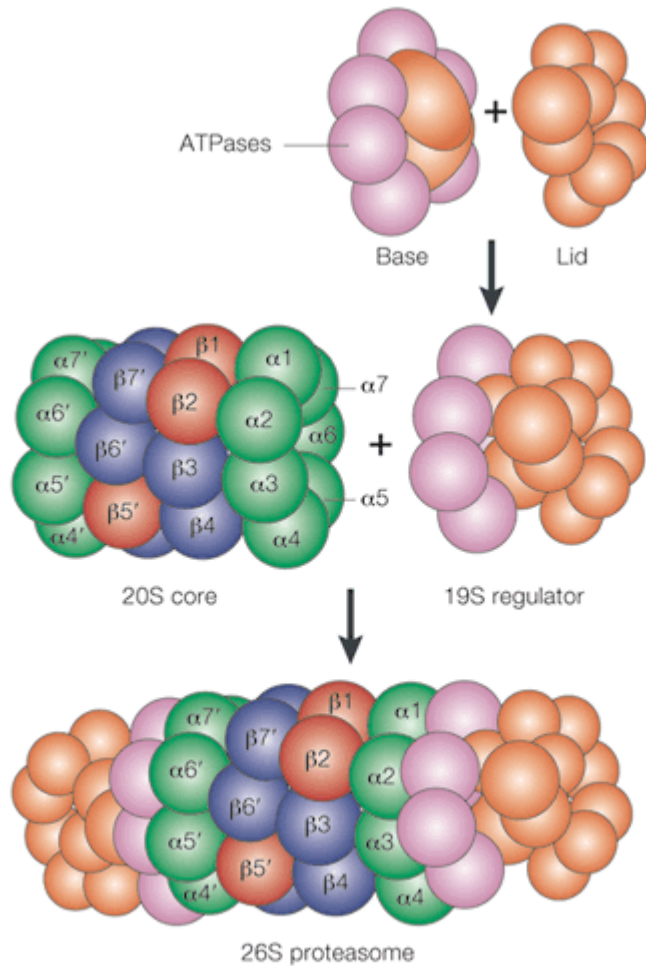


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THE PROTEASOME



UBIQUITIN

76 Amino Acid polypeptide

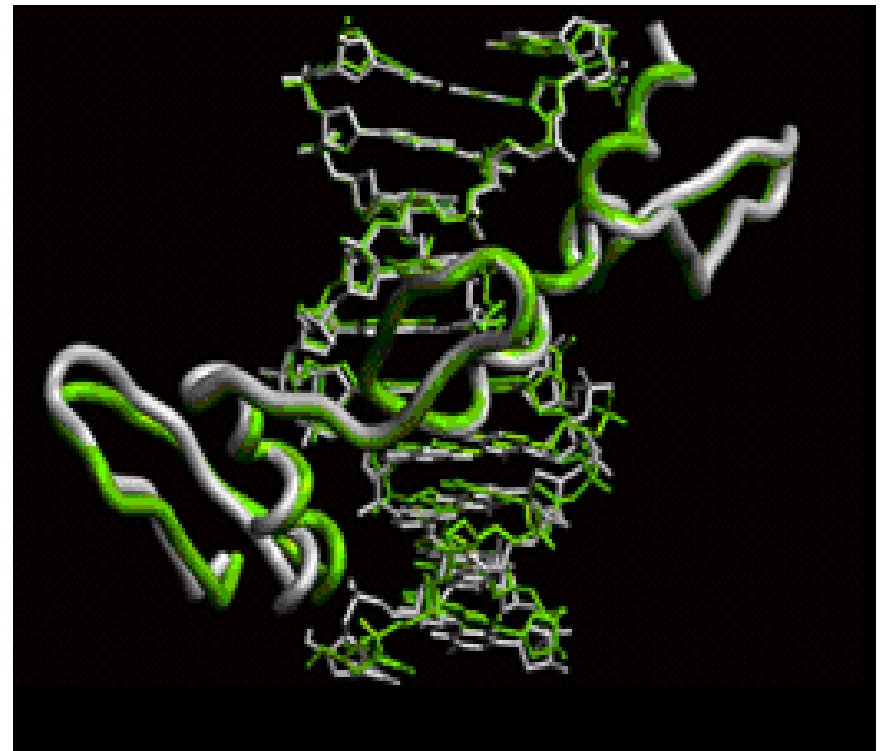
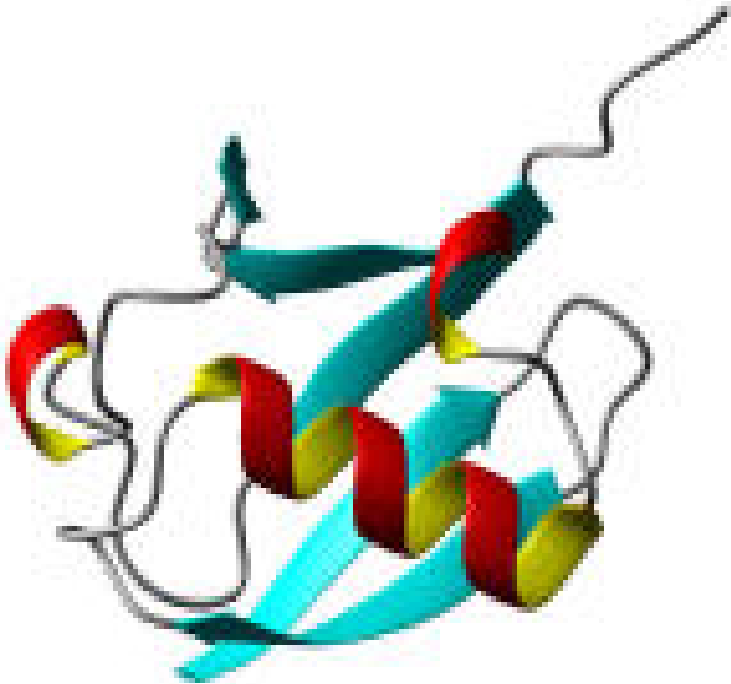
3 Amino acid differences between yeast and human homologues

C-Terminal Gly residue is activated via an ATP to form a thiol ester

Found only in **eukaryotic** organisms and is not found in either eubacteria or archaeobacteria.

Among eukaryotes, ubiquitin is **highly conserved**, meaning that the amino acid sequence does not differ much when very different organisms are compared.

Ub is a heat-stable protein that folds up into a compact globular structure.



Degradation of a Protein Via the Ubiquitin-Proteasome Involves Two Successive Steps

1. **Covalent attachment** of multiple ubiquitin molecules to a protein substrate.
2. Degradation of the tagged protein by the 26s proteasome.
(ubiquitin is recycled)

Ubiquitination: In general, multiple ubiquitin units are arranged in polyubiquitin chains linked via **Lys₄₈ of ubiquitin**, targeting the protein for degradation

Ubiquitin Conjugation: A 3 Step Mechanism

Ubiquitin (Ub) activating enzyme E ₁	High energy thiol ester is formed between C-terminal Gly of ubiquitin and a Cys in the E ₁ active site (ATP/AMP)
Ubiquitin conjugating enzymes E ₂	Ub is transferred to a Cys of E ₂ forming a new thiol ester
Ubiquitin ligase E ₃	Ub forms isopeptide bond between C-terminal Gly of Ub and ϵ -amino group of Lys on a target protein

Functional design of proteins

Protein function generally involves **conformational changes**

Proteins are designed to bind **a range of molecules** (ligands)

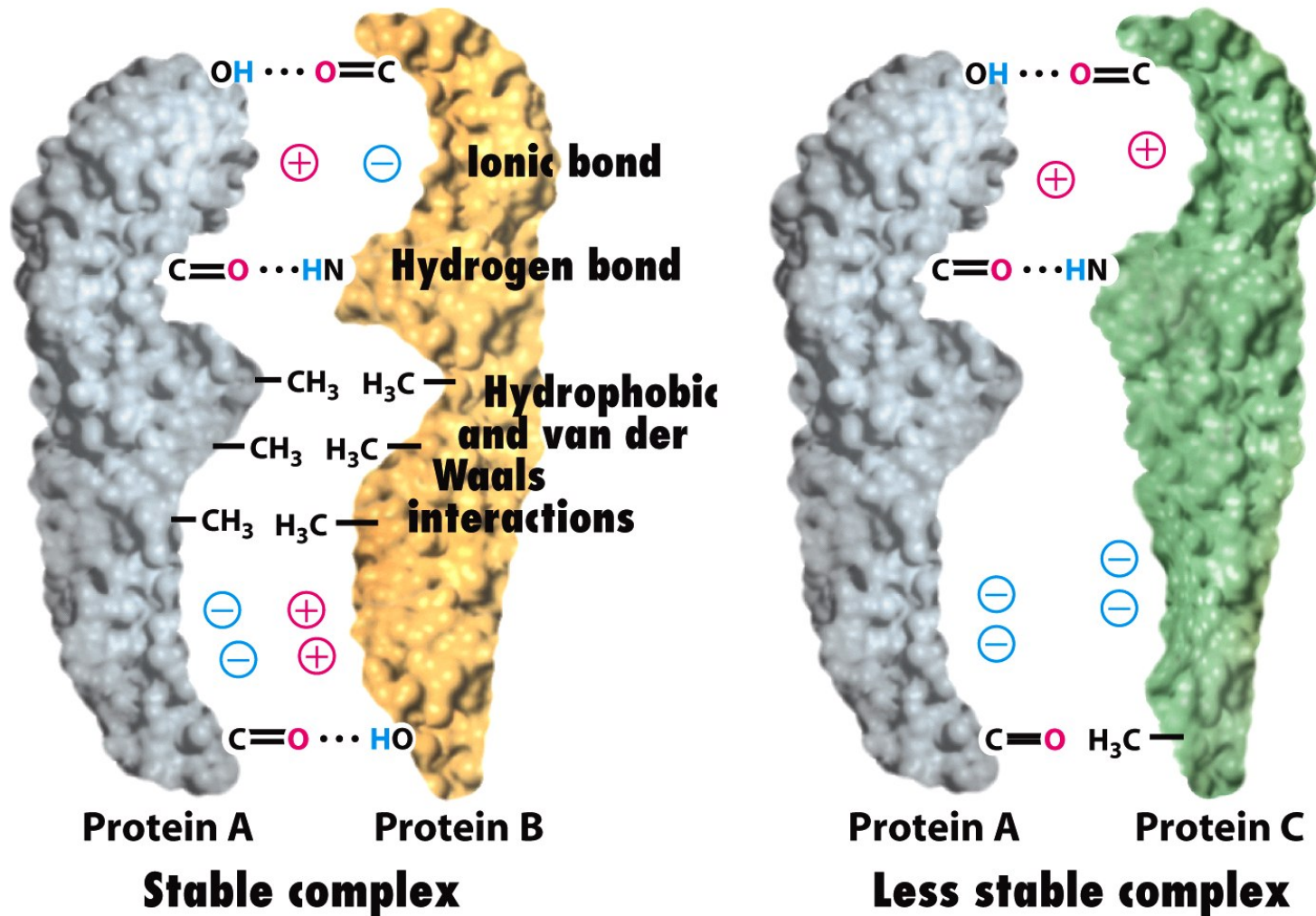
- Binding is characterized by two properties: **affinity** and **specificity**

Antibodies exhibit precise ligand-binding specificity

Enzymes are **highly efficient** and **specific catalysts**

- An enzyme's active site binds substrates and carries out catalysis

affinity and specificity



Regulation protein function II: Noncovalent and covalent modification

Mechanisms that regulate protein function

Allosteric transitions

- Release of catalytic subunits, active \rightleftharpoons inactive states, cooperative binding of ligands

Phosphorylation \rightleftharpoons dephosphorylation

Proteolytic activation

Compartmentalization

Noncovalent binding permit allosteric, or cooperative, regulation of protein

Allostery: other shape, change protein 3 or 4 structure

Allosteric protein

Allosteric effector

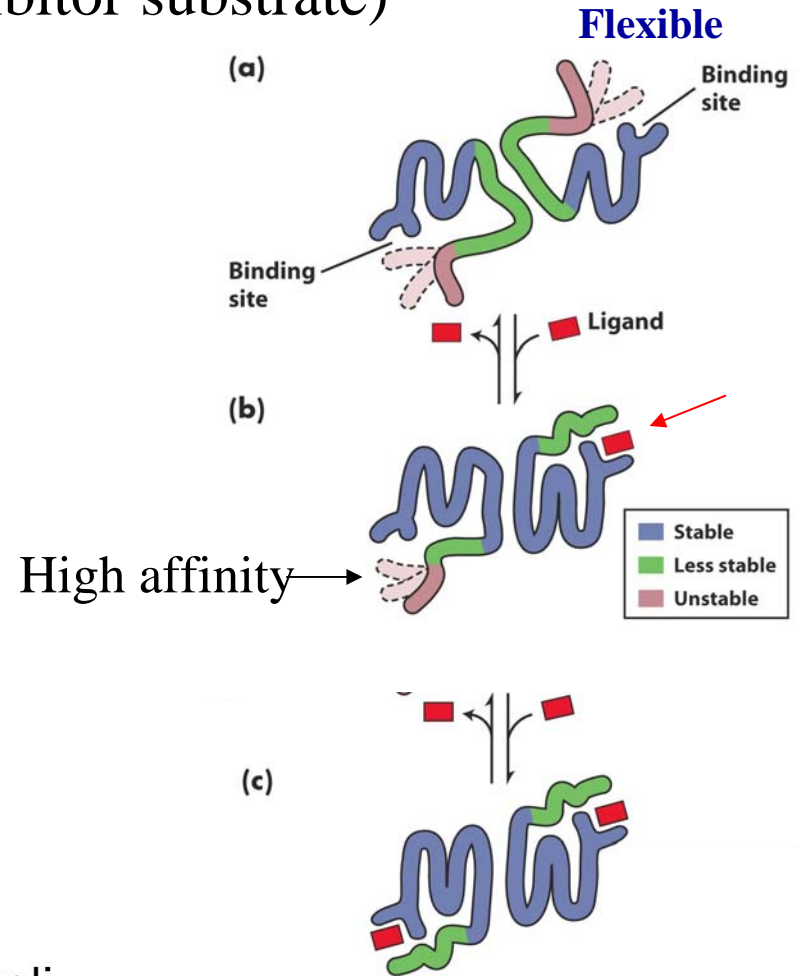
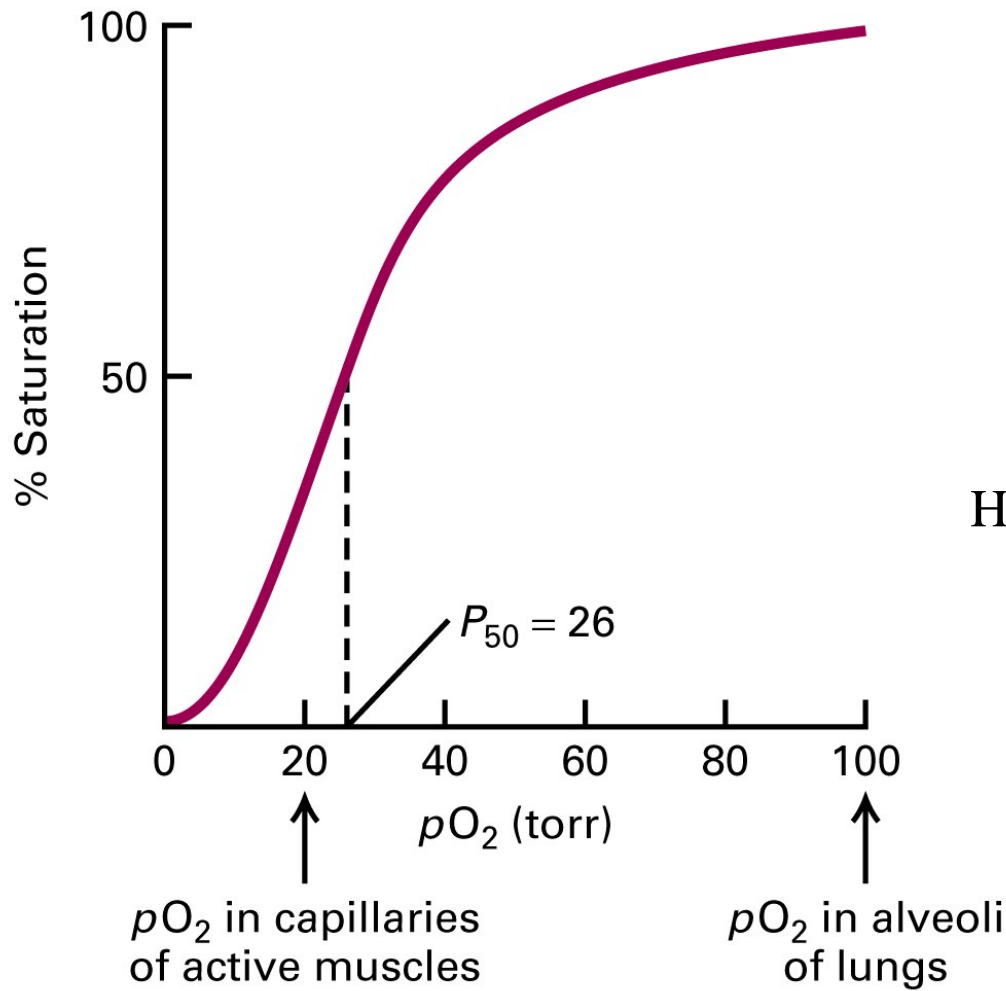
Allosteric binding site

Cooperativity

Factor bind to \rightarrow protein A site (noncovalent) \rightarrow change protein structure \rightarrow affect other binding site (activity site)
 \rightarrow allosteric effect ; when factor = protein, also called allosteric protein; its binding site also called allosteric binding site

異位性調節

Allostery: any change in a protein's 3 or 4 structure or both induced by the binding of a ligand (activator, inhibitor substrate)



結合一個後→讓另一個更容易結合 (**postive regulation**)

釋放一個後→讓另一個結合力下降→更容易釋放

Allosteric protein – a protein in which the binding of a ligand to one site affects the binding properties of another site on the same protein (also called **induced fit model**). The conformational changes induced by the modulator(s) interconvert more-active and less-active forms of the protein.

The modulators for allosteric proteins may be either **inhibitors** or **activators**

allos --- other

stereos --- solid or shape

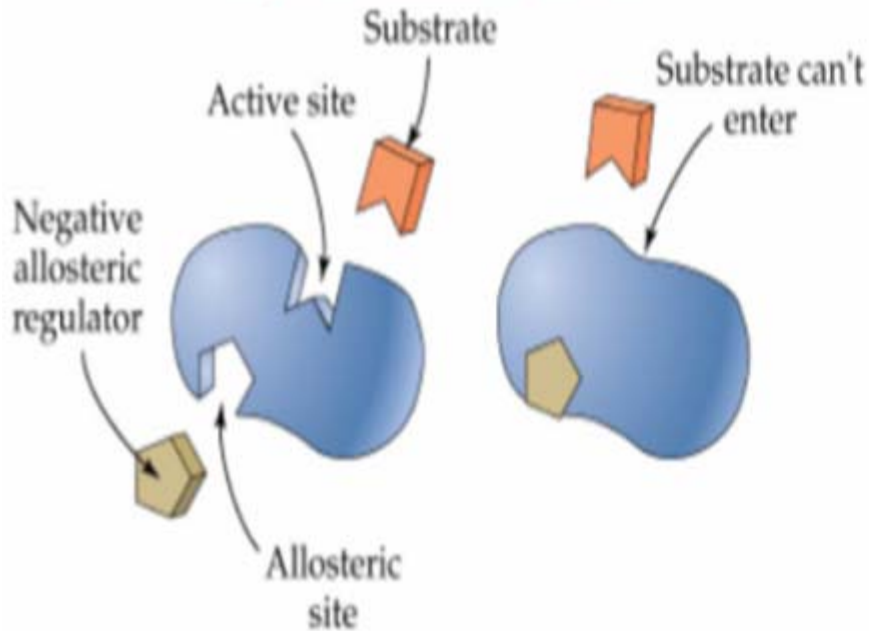
Homotropic interaction --- ligand = modulator

Heterotropic interaction --- ligand \neq modulator

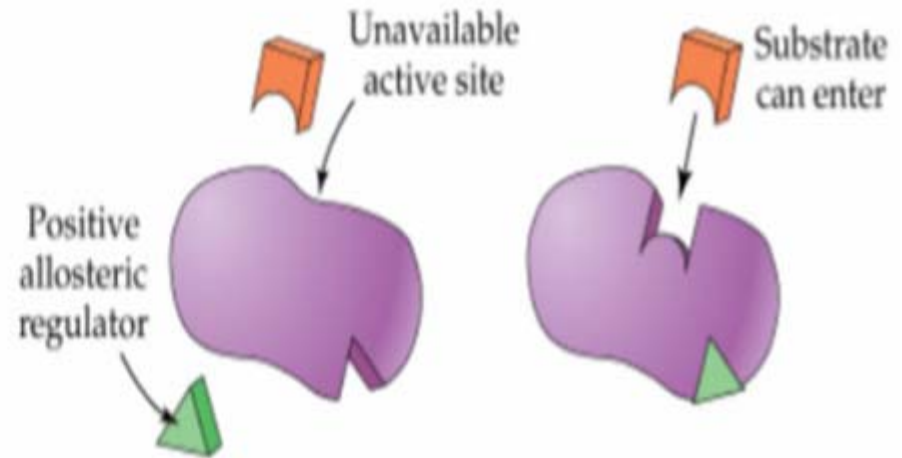
O₂ --- as both a normal ligand and an activating homotropic modulator for Hb

Allosteric control: either an activator or inhibitor acts on a portion of the enzyme other than the active site to regulate enzyme function.

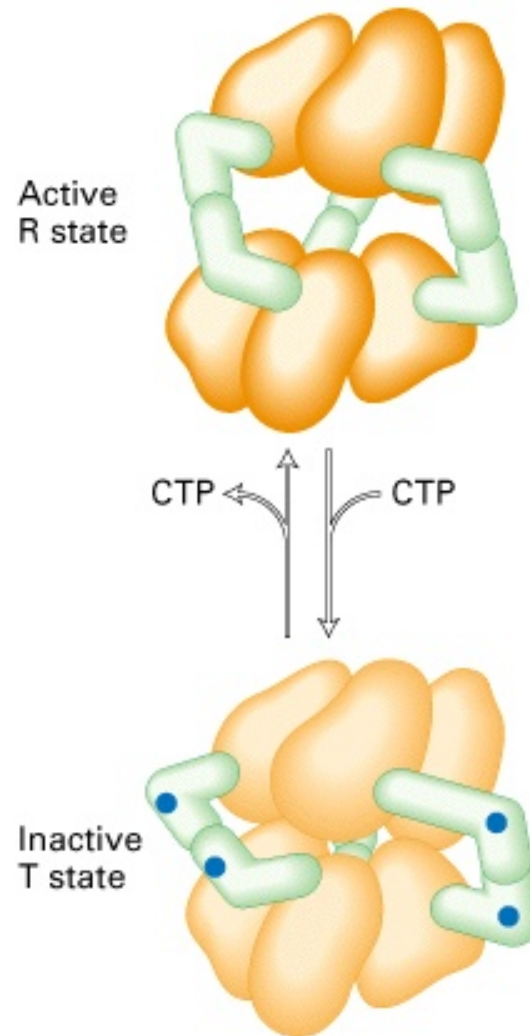
Negative allosteric control



Positive allosteric control



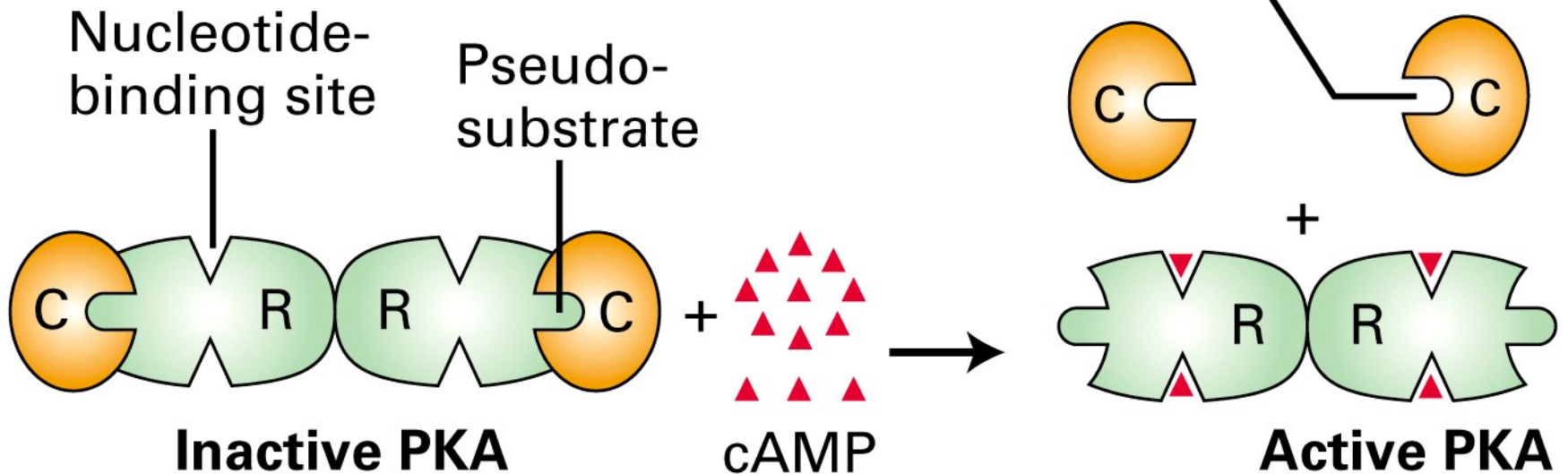
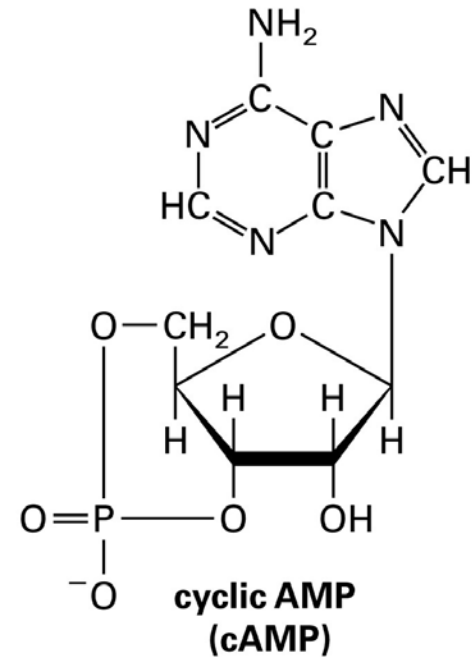
Allosteric transition between active and inactive states



Allosteric release of catalytic subunits

Ligand-induced activation of protein kinase

Ligand binding can induce allosteric release of catalytic subunits or transition to a state with different activity

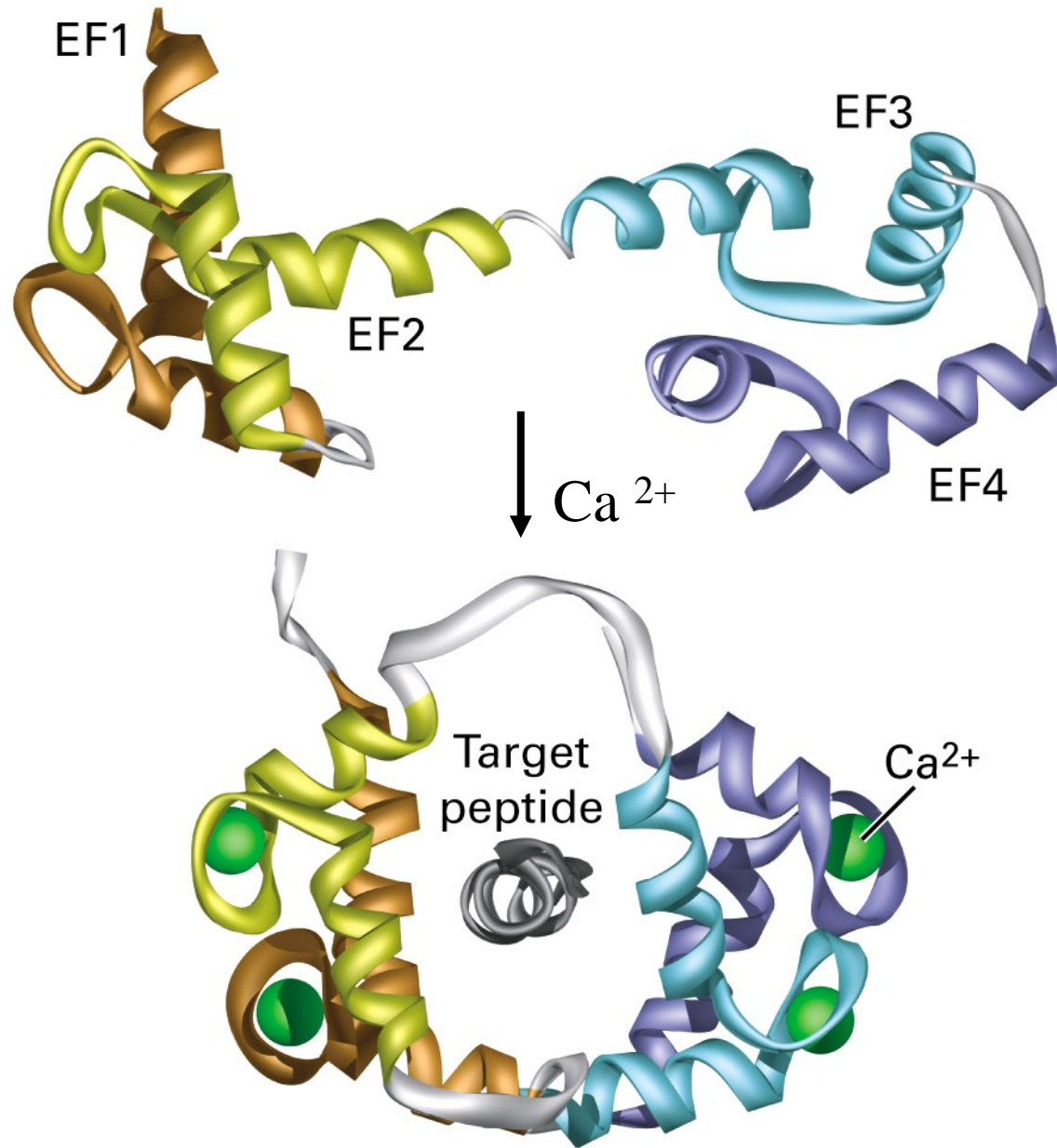


Switch mediated by Ca^{2+} /calmodulin

In normal condition:

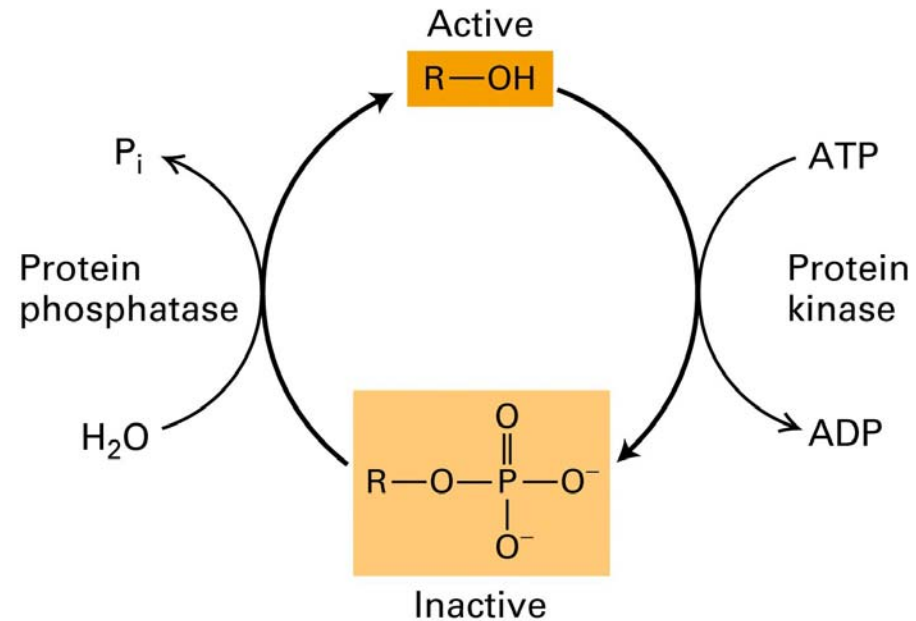
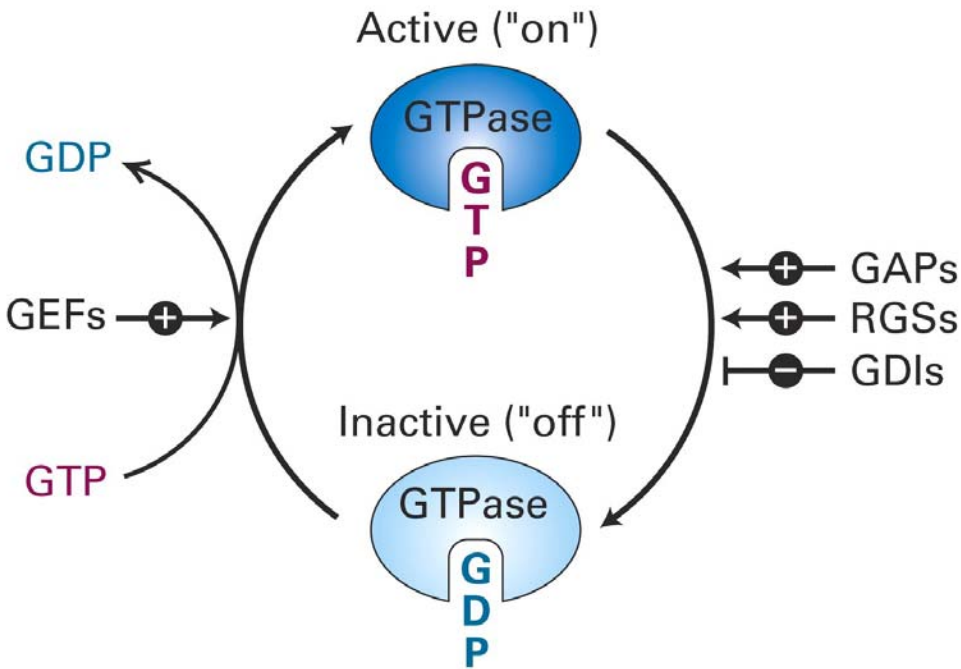
cytosolic calcium is low 10^{-7} M by ER or pump.

ER release calcium to 10-100 fold \rightarrow sense calmodulin \rightarrow conformational change \rightarrow regulated other protein or molecule



Cycling of GTPase switch proteins between the active and inactive forms

Regulation of protein activity by kinase/phosphatase switch



Many proteins undergo chemical modification of amino acids residues

20 amino acid → chemical modification → 100 up

Acetylation: about 80% chemical modification

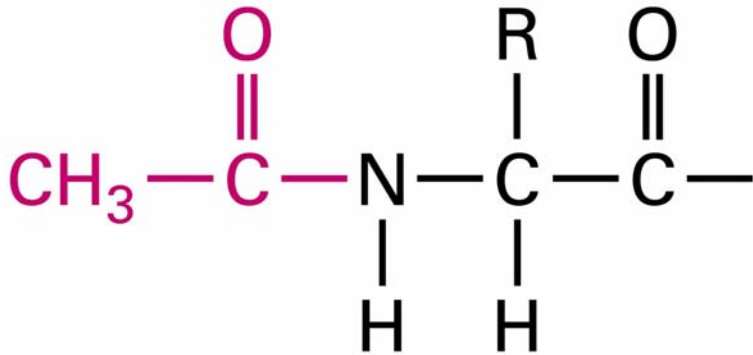
Phosphorylation: serine, threonine, tyrosine

Glycosylation

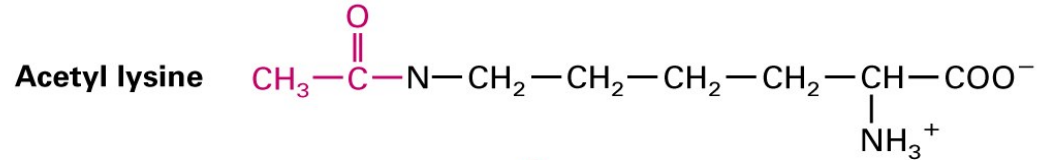
hydroxylation

Methylation

carboxylation



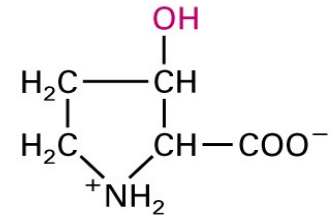
Acetylated N-terminus



4

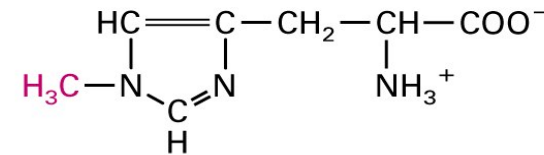
3-Hydroxyproline

Mainly in collagen



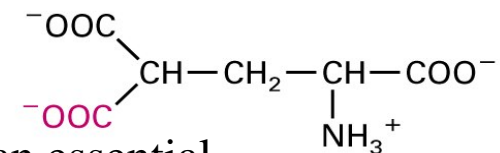
3-Methylhistidine

Mainly in actin



γ-Carboxyglutamate

Mainly in prothrombin, an essential blood clotting factor



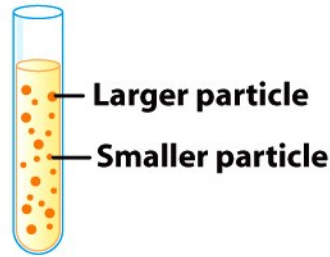
Purifying, detecting, and characterizing proteins

A protein must be purified to determine its structure and mechanism of action

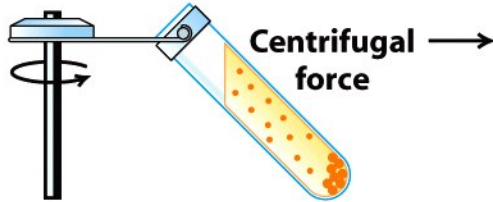
Molecules, including proteins, can be separated from other molecules based on differences in physical and chemical properties

(a) Differential centrifugation

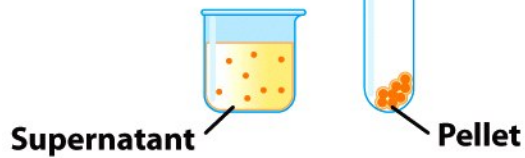
1 Sample is poured into tube



2 Centrifuge
Particles settle
according to
mass

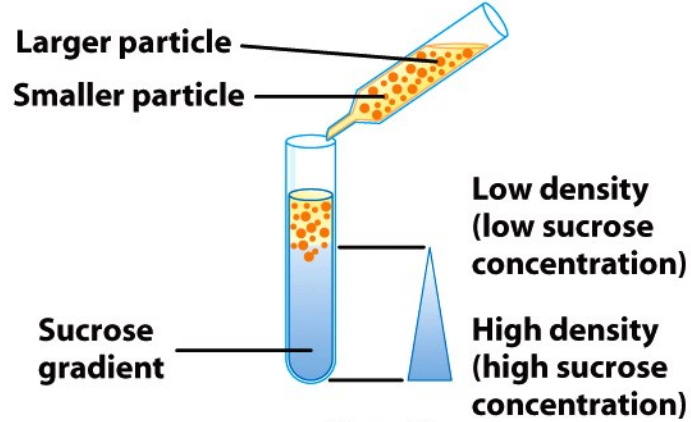


3 Stop centrifuge
Decant liquid
into container

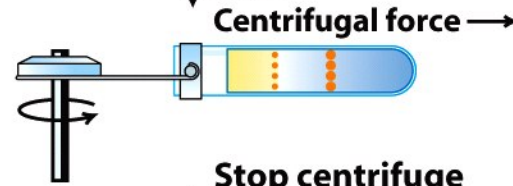


(b) Rate-zonal centrifugation

1 Sample is layered on top of density gradient



2 Centrifuge
Particles settle
according to
mass



3 Stop centrifuge
Collect fractions
and do assay

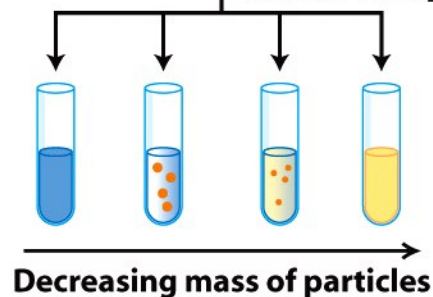


Figure 3-34
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SDS-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE)

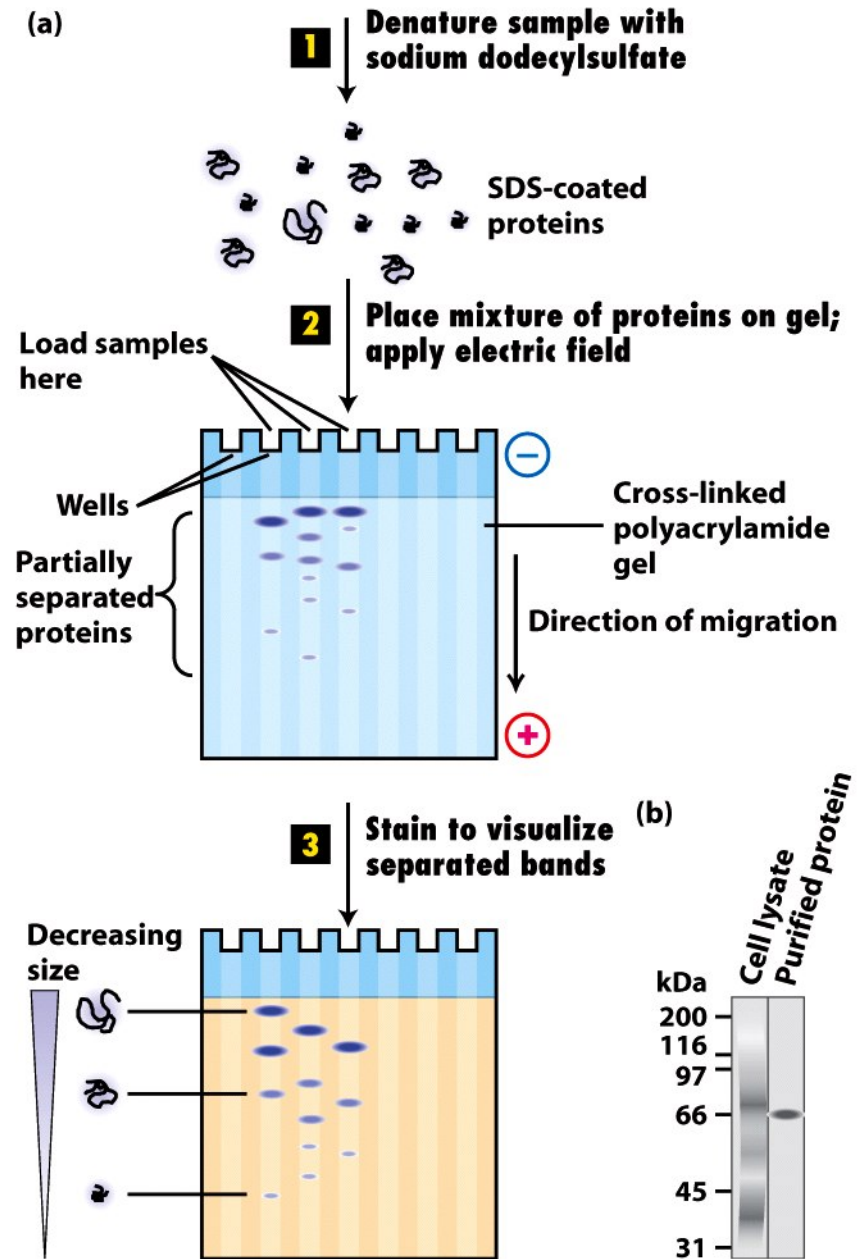
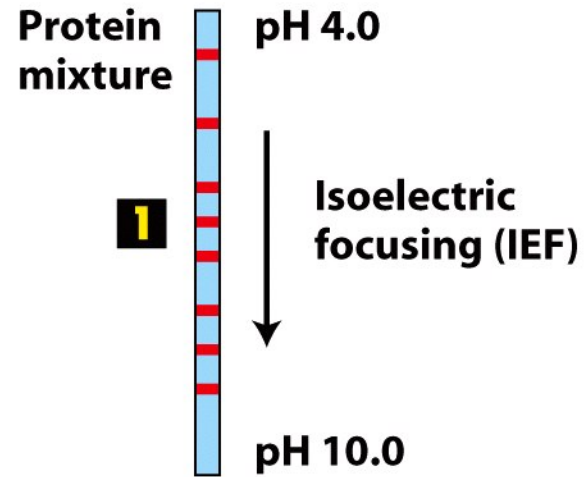


Figure 3-35
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Two-dimensional electrophoresis

Separate in first dimension by charge



Apply first gel to top of second

2

pH 4.0 pH 10.0

Separate in second dimension by size

3

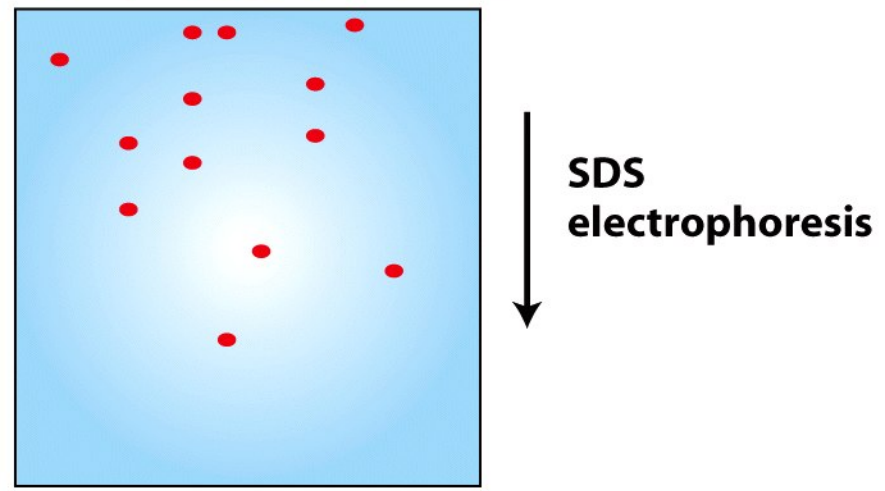


Figure 3-36a
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Isoelectric focusing (**1**) →

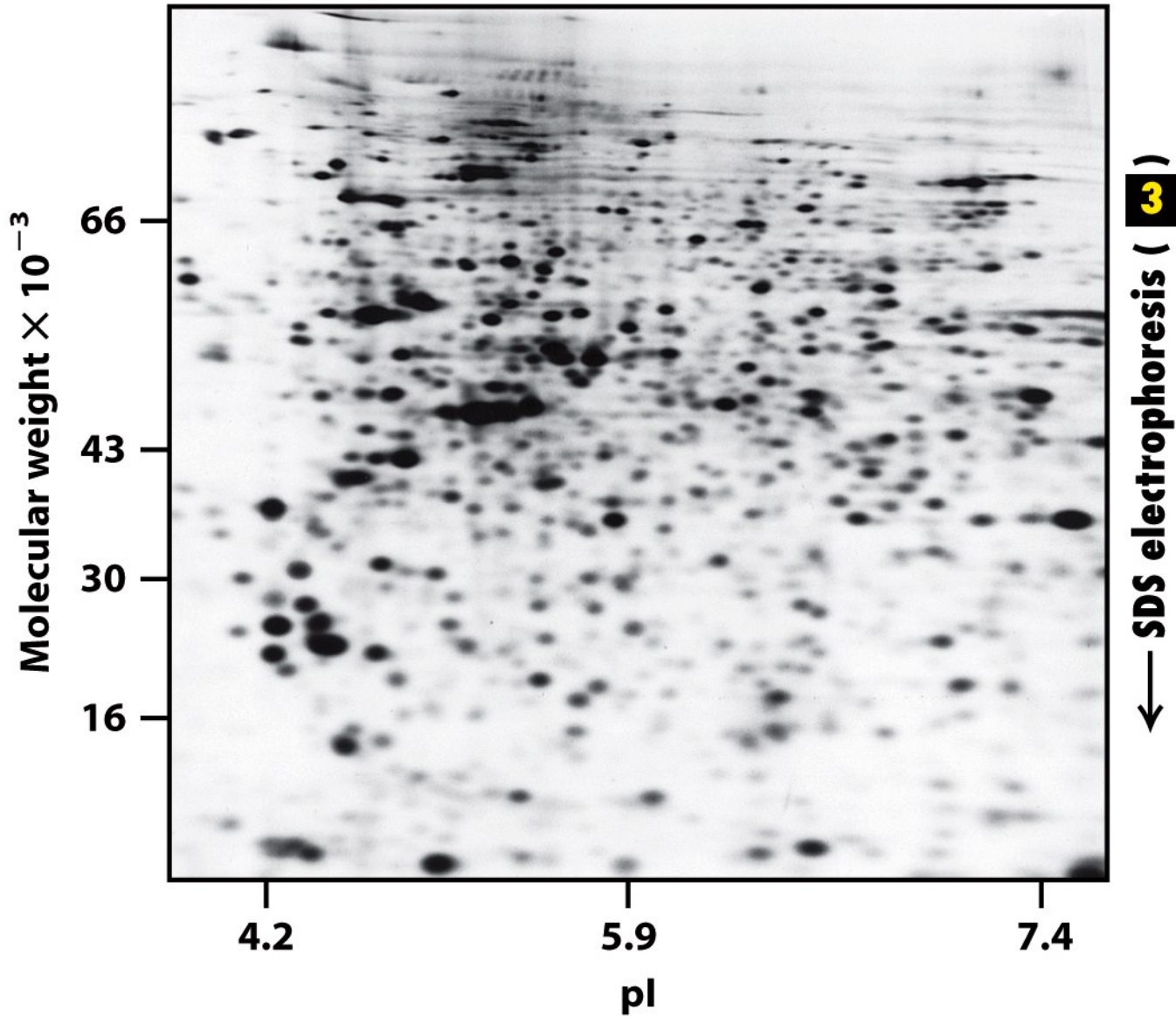


Figure 3-36b
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Gel filtration chromatography

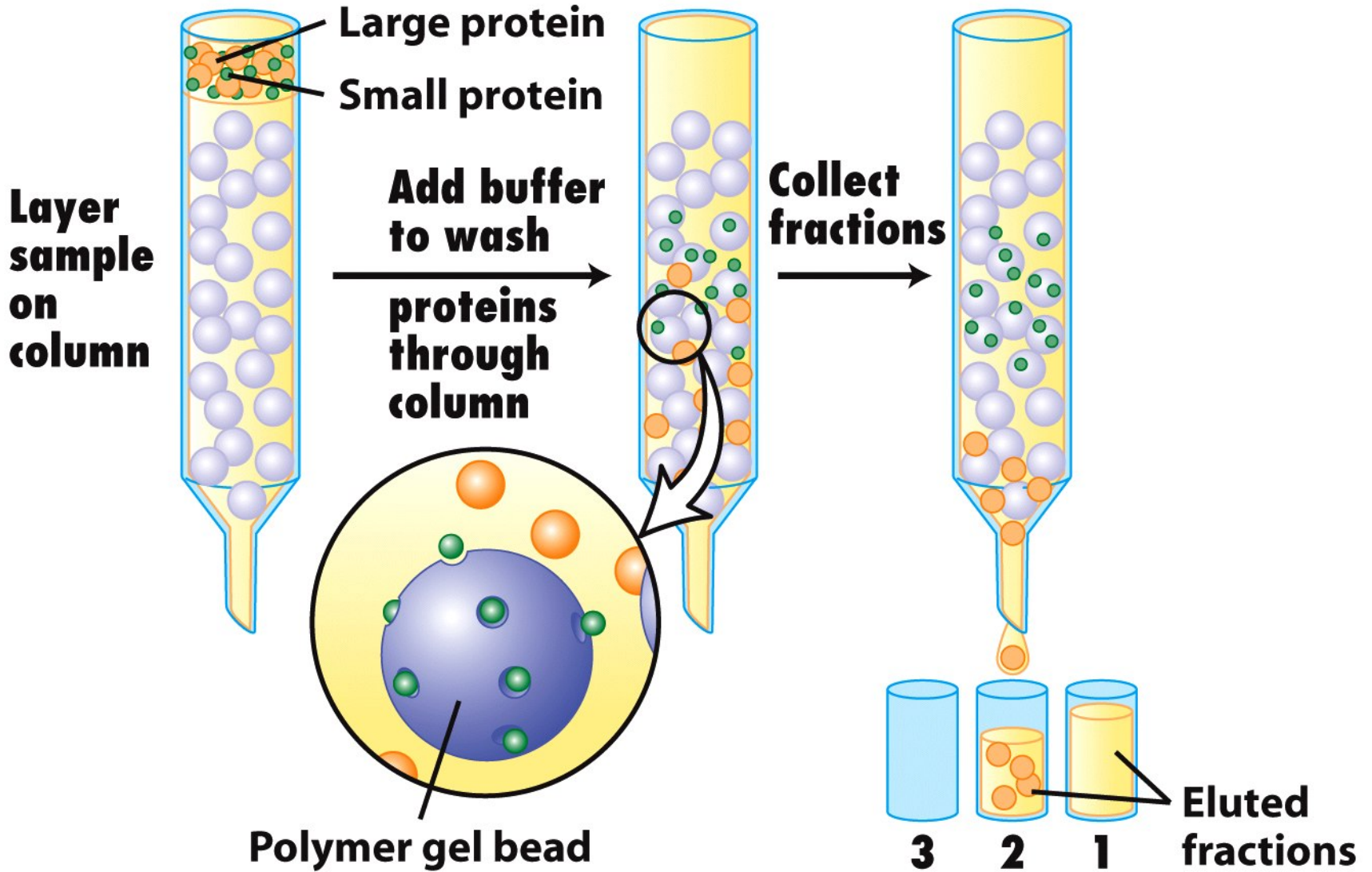


Figure 3-37a
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Ion-exchange chromatography

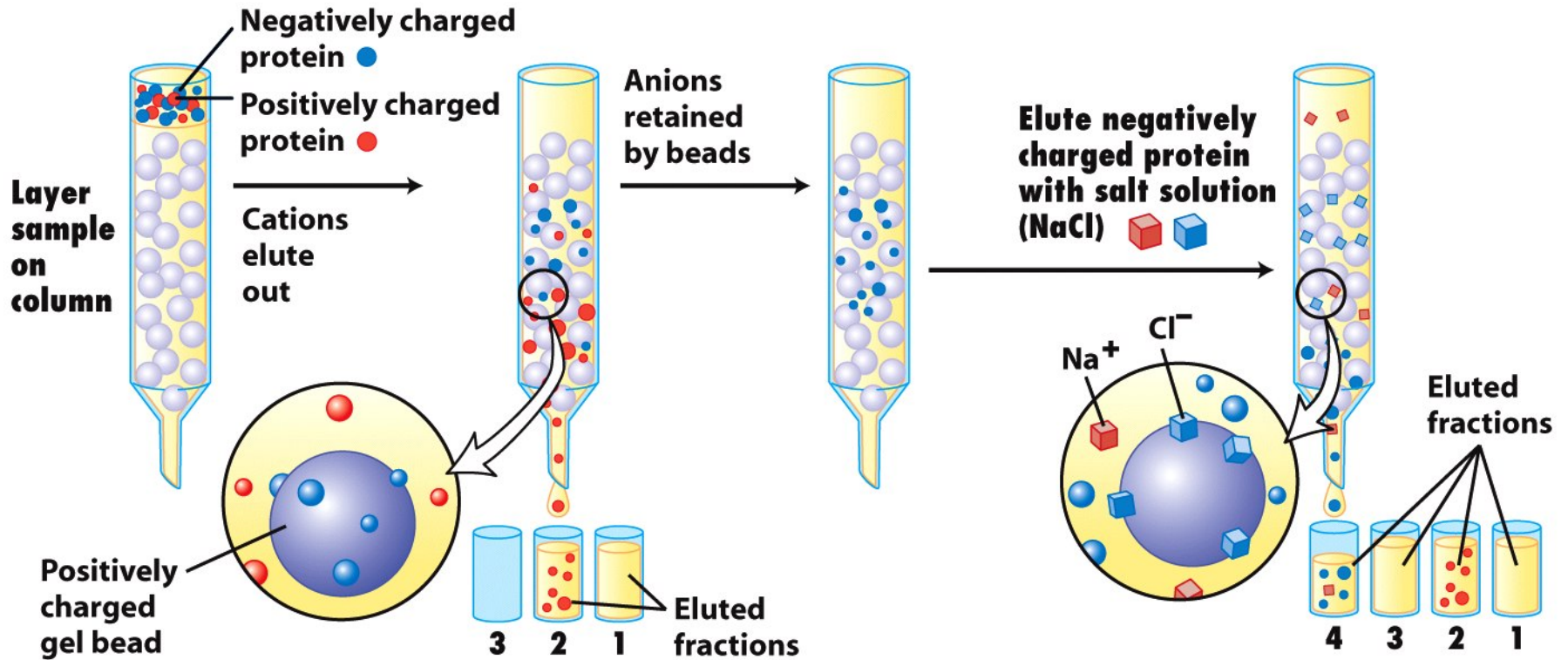


Figure 3-37b
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Antibody-affinity chromatography

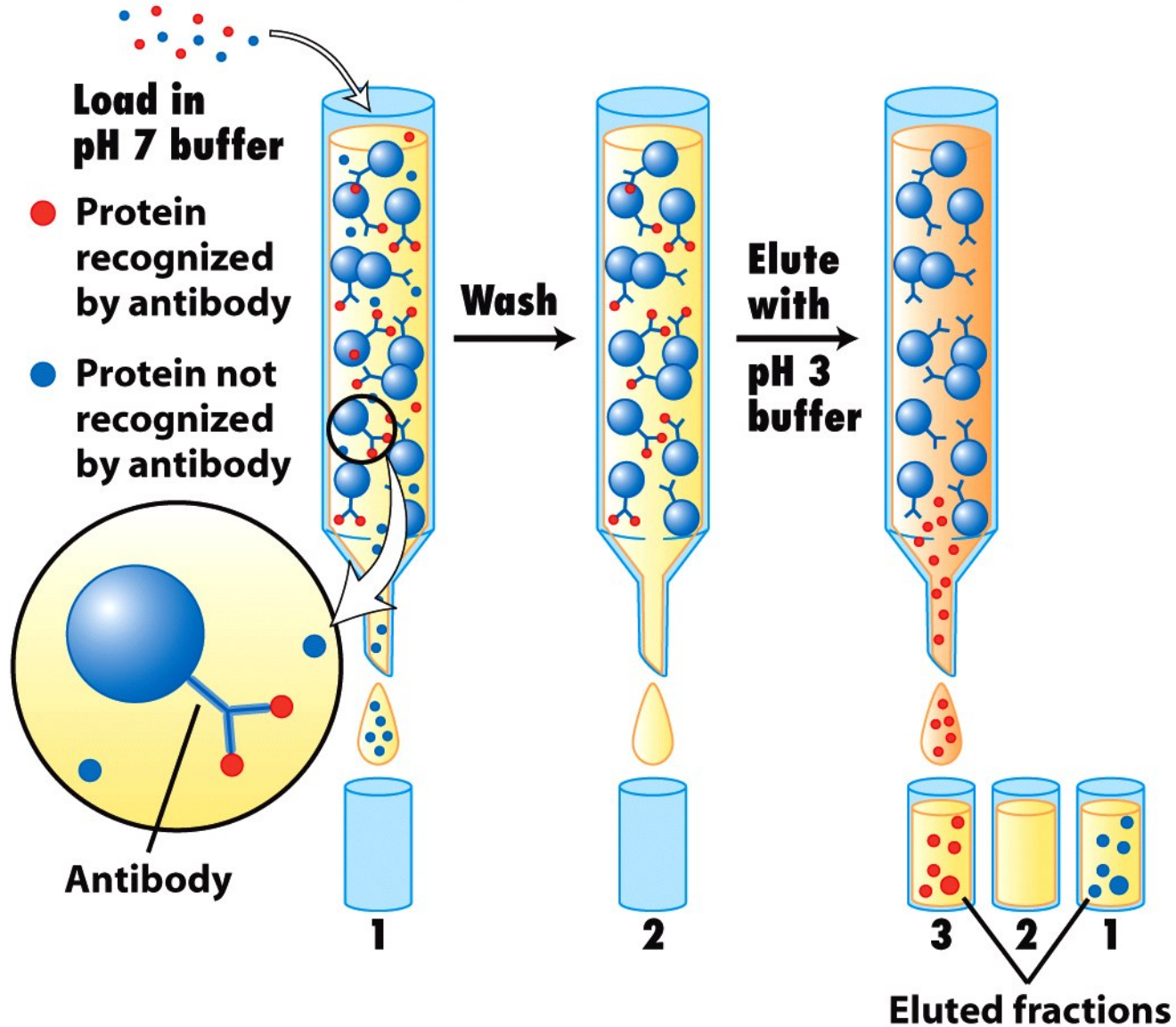


Figure 3-37c
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immunoblotting

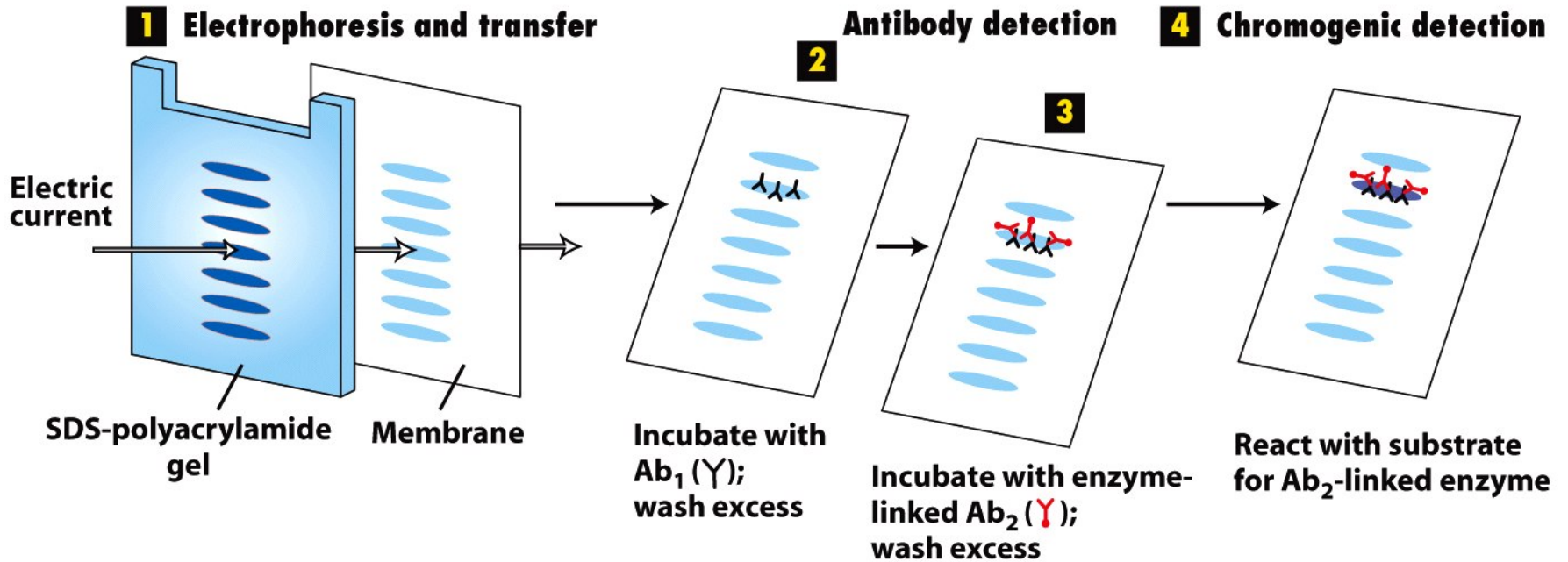


Figure 3-38
Molecular Cell Biology, Sixth Edition
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TABLE 3-1 Radioisotopes Commonly Used in Biological Research

ISOTOPE	HALF-LIFE
Phosphorus-32	14.3 days
Iodine-125	60.4 days
Sulfur-35	87.5 days
Tritium (hydrogen-3)	12.4 years
Carbon-14	5730.4 years

Pulse-chase exp

脈搏 補捉

To investigate the fate of a specific newly synthesized protein

Cell + isotope for 0.5h

↓ wash

Different time point

↓

Immunoprecipitation

↓

Specific protein

↓

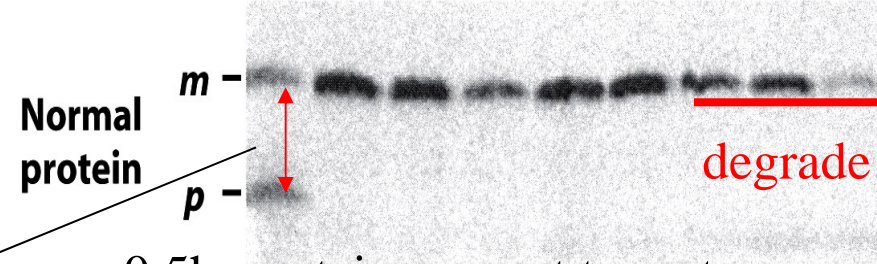
SDS-PAGE

↓

Low density lipoprotein receptor

(a)

Pulse (h)	0.5								
Chase (h)	0	.5	1	2	4	6	8	12	24



PTM
Glyco..

(b)

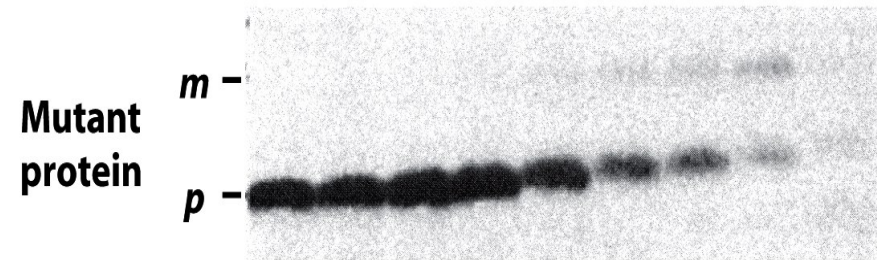


Figure 3-39
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Mass spectrometry can determine the mass and sequence of proteins

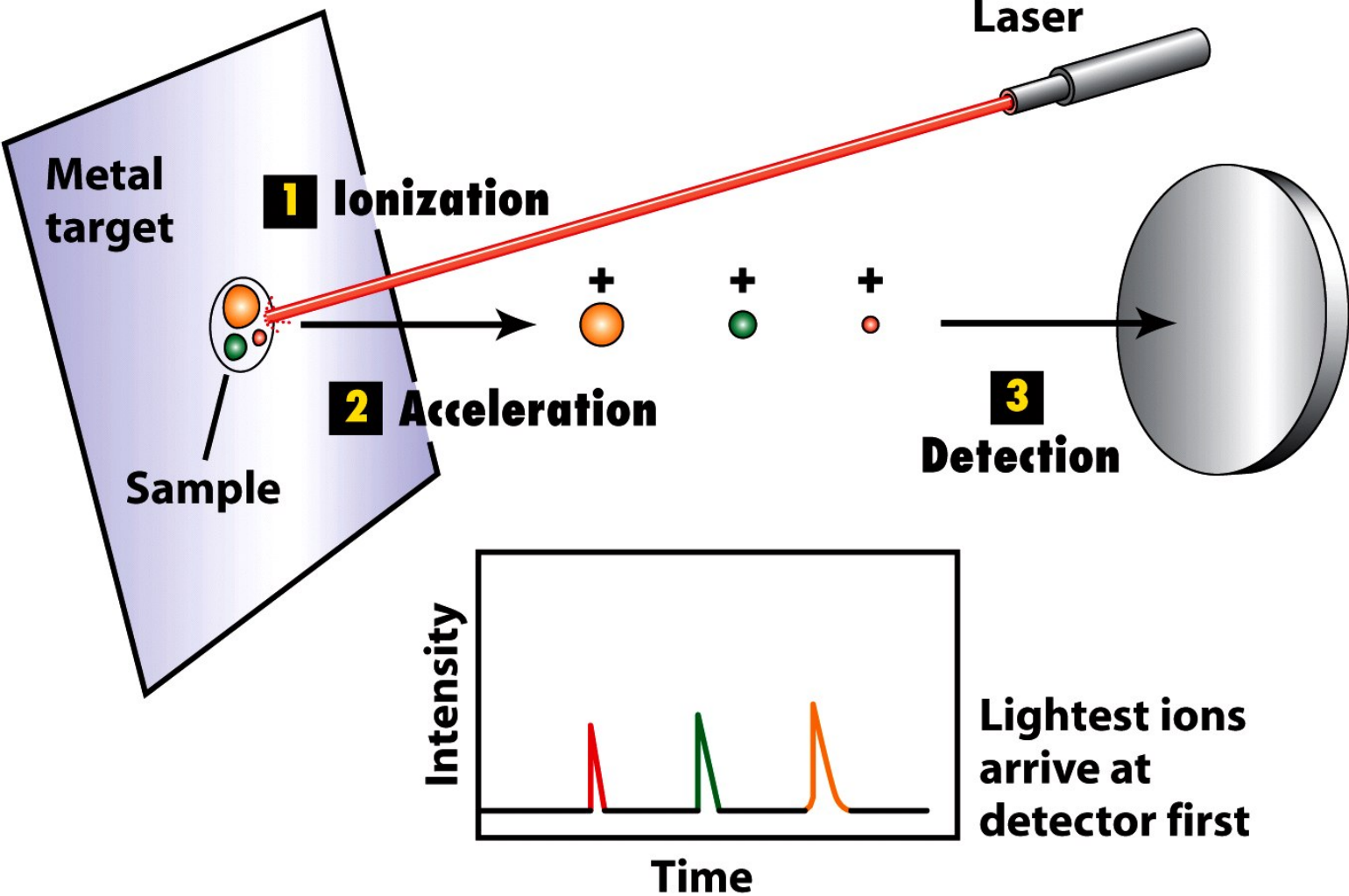


Figure 3-40
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MALDI-TOF

Mass spectrometry can determine the mass and sequence of proteins

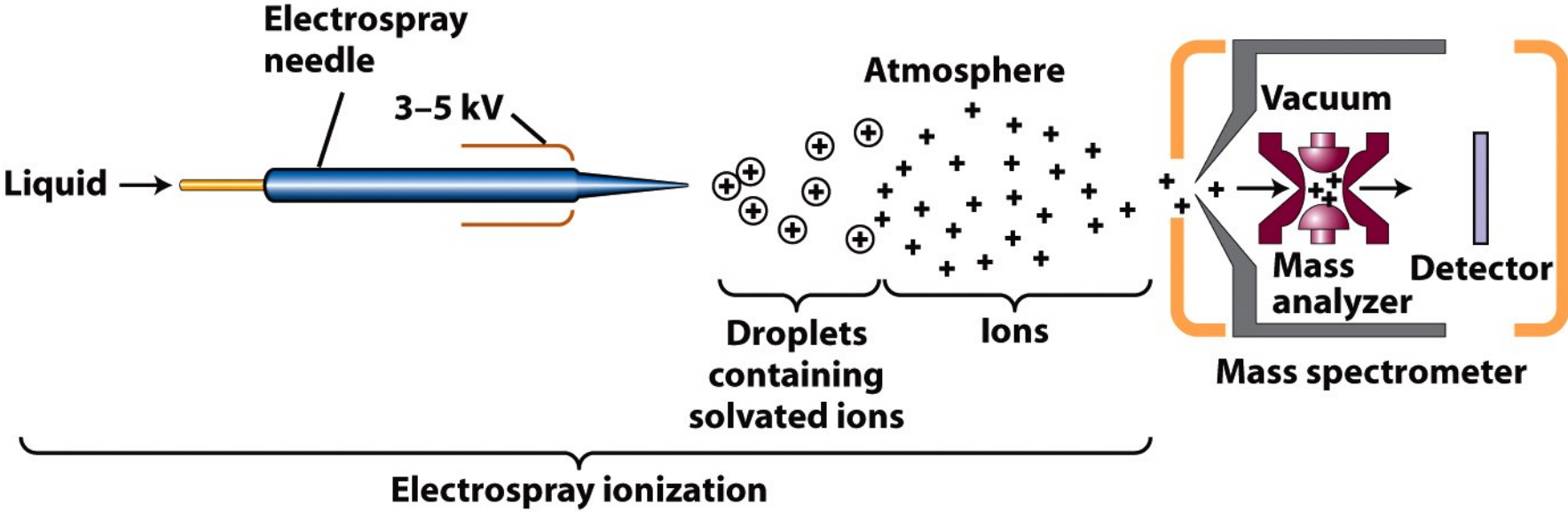
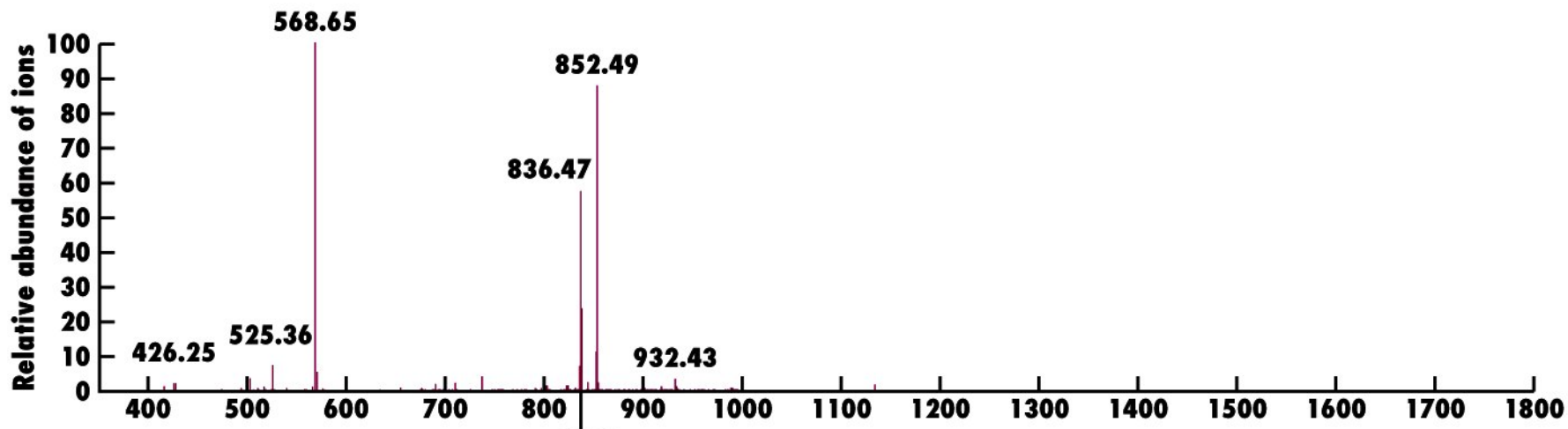


Figure 3-41a
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MS/MS of m/z 836.47

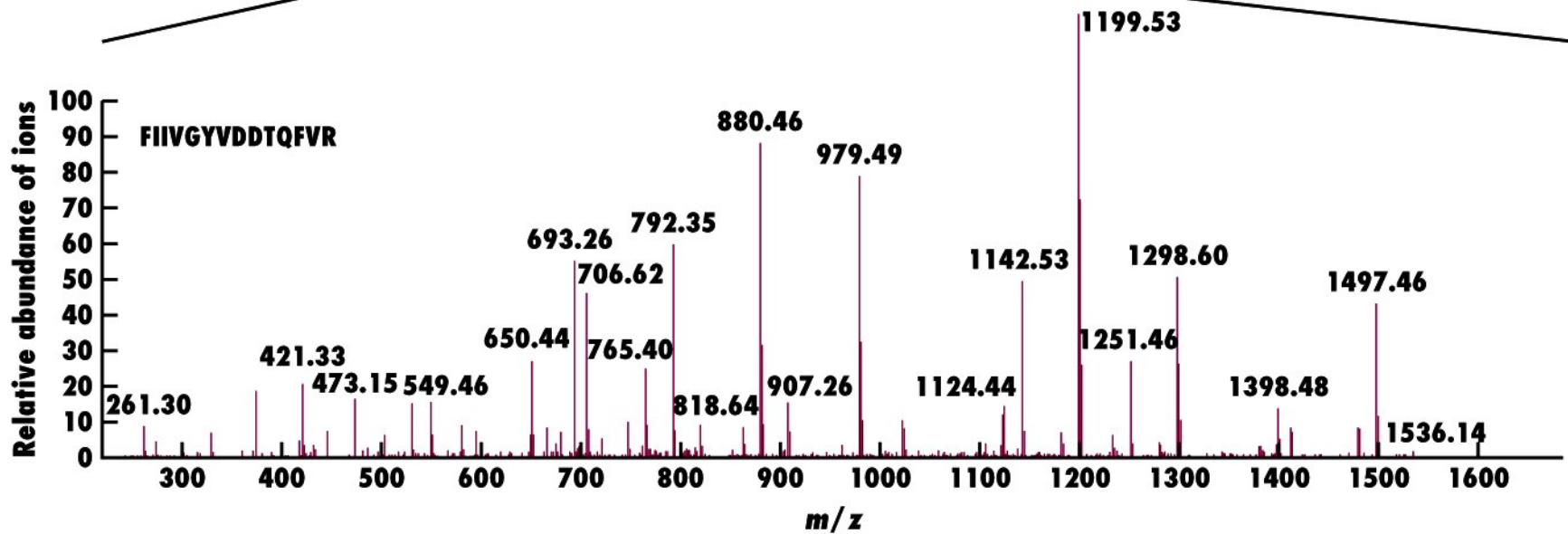


Figure 3-41b
Molecular Cell Biology, Sixth Edition
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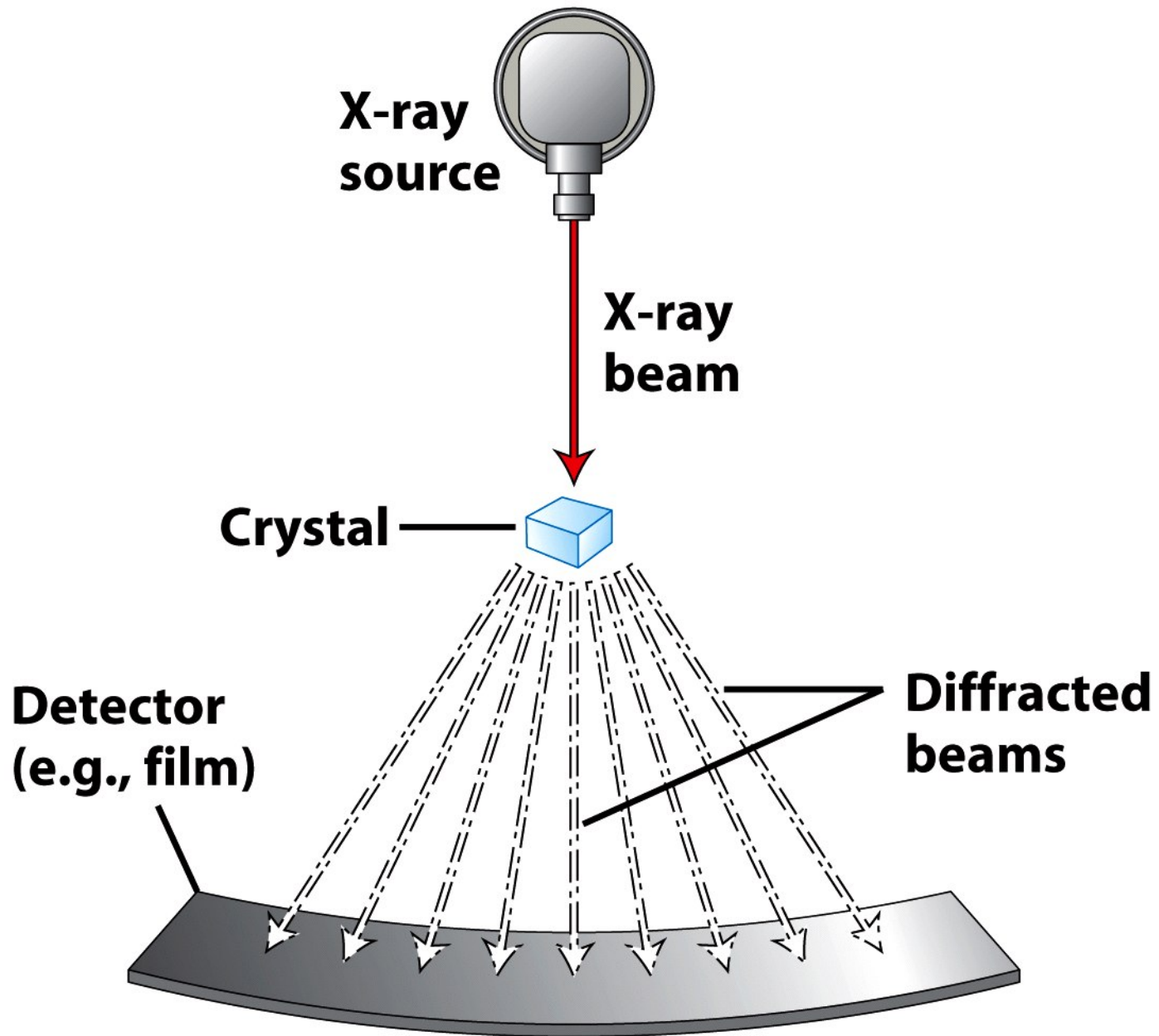
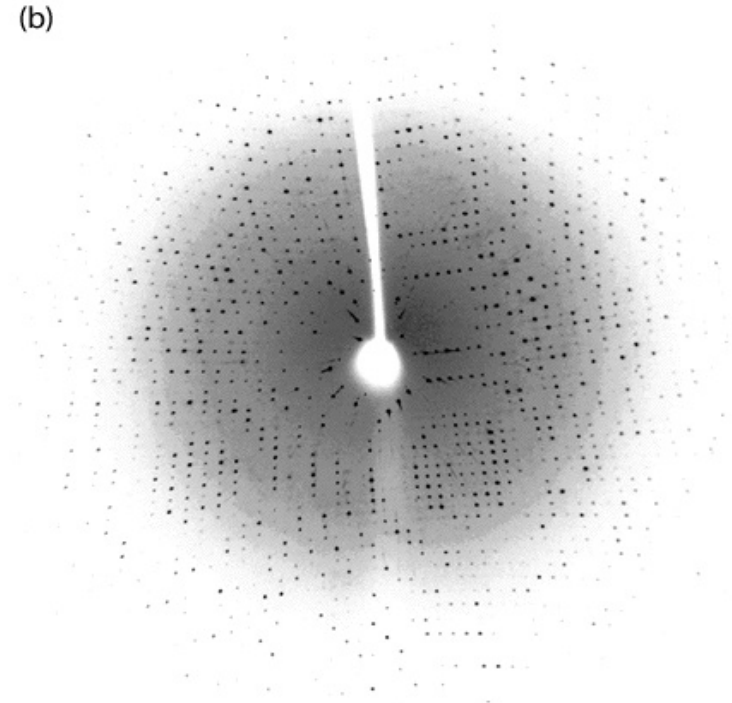
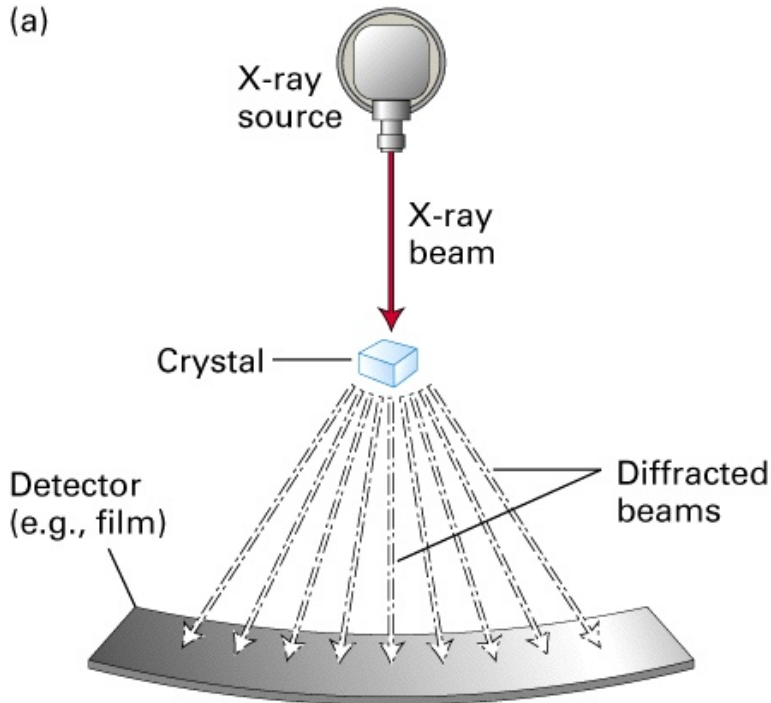


Figure 3-42a
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X-ray crystallography is used to determine protein structure



Other techniques such as cryoelectron microscopy and NMR spectroscopy may be used to solve the structures of certain types of proteins

Figure 3-49

Advance technique in mass spectrometry are critical to proteomic analysis

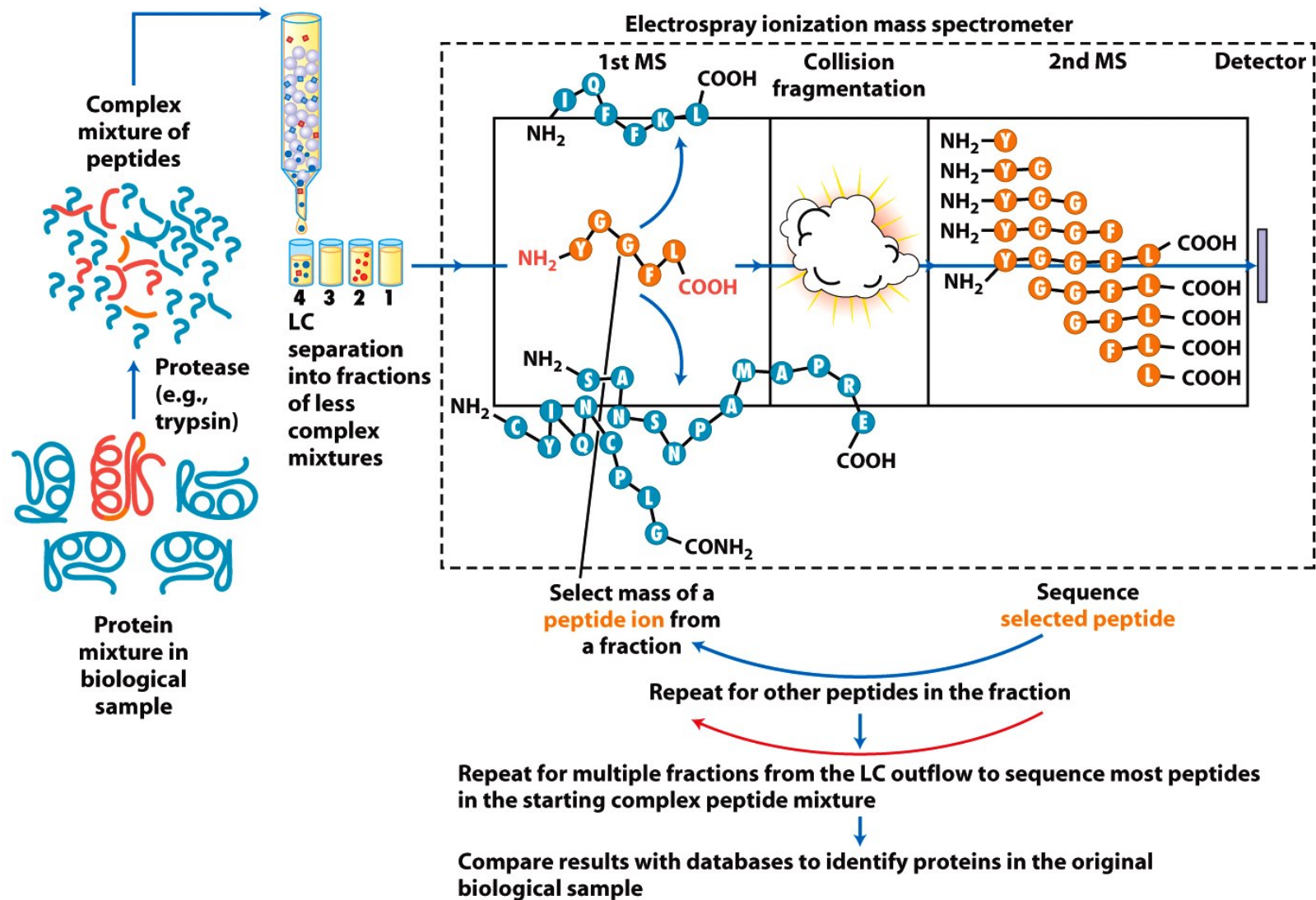


Figure 3-43
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Density-gradient centrifugation and LC-MS/MS can be used to identify many of the protein in organelle

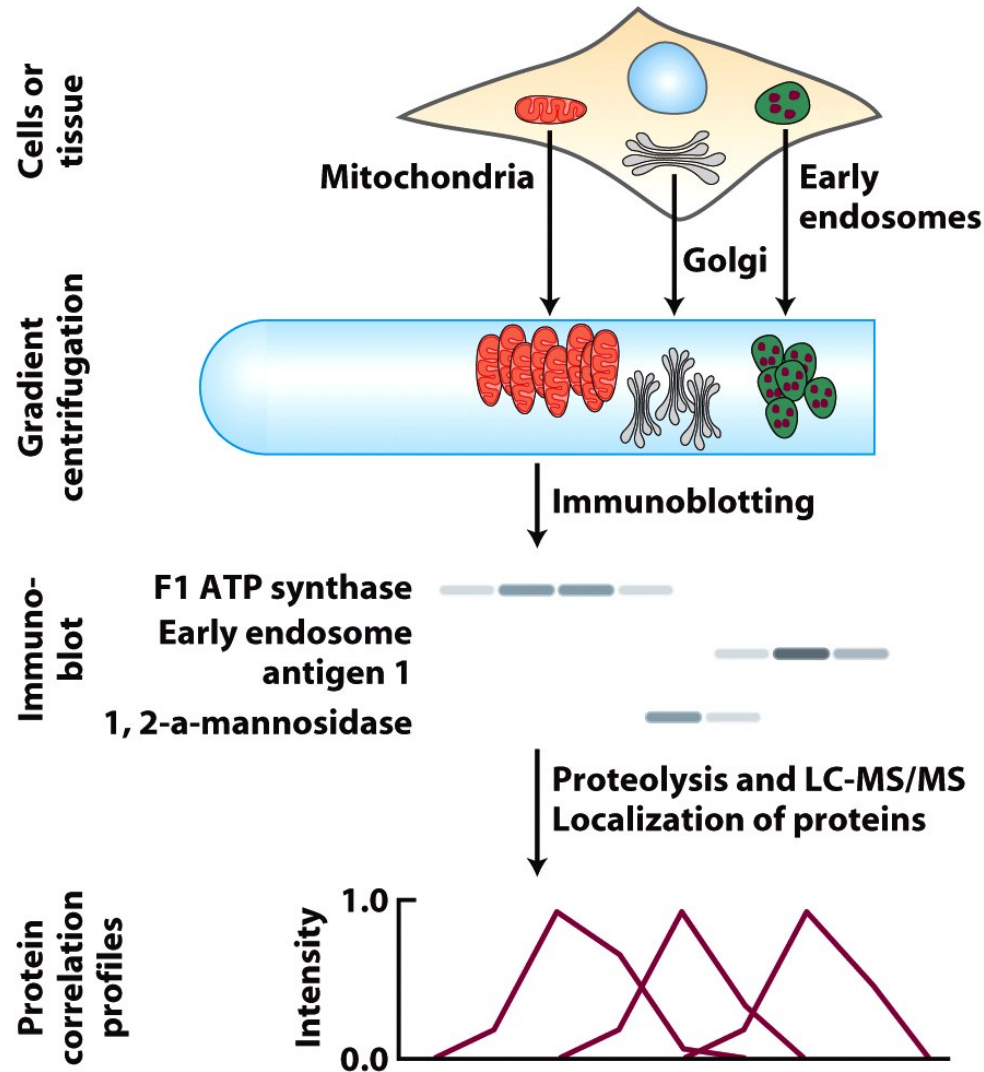


Figure 3-44a
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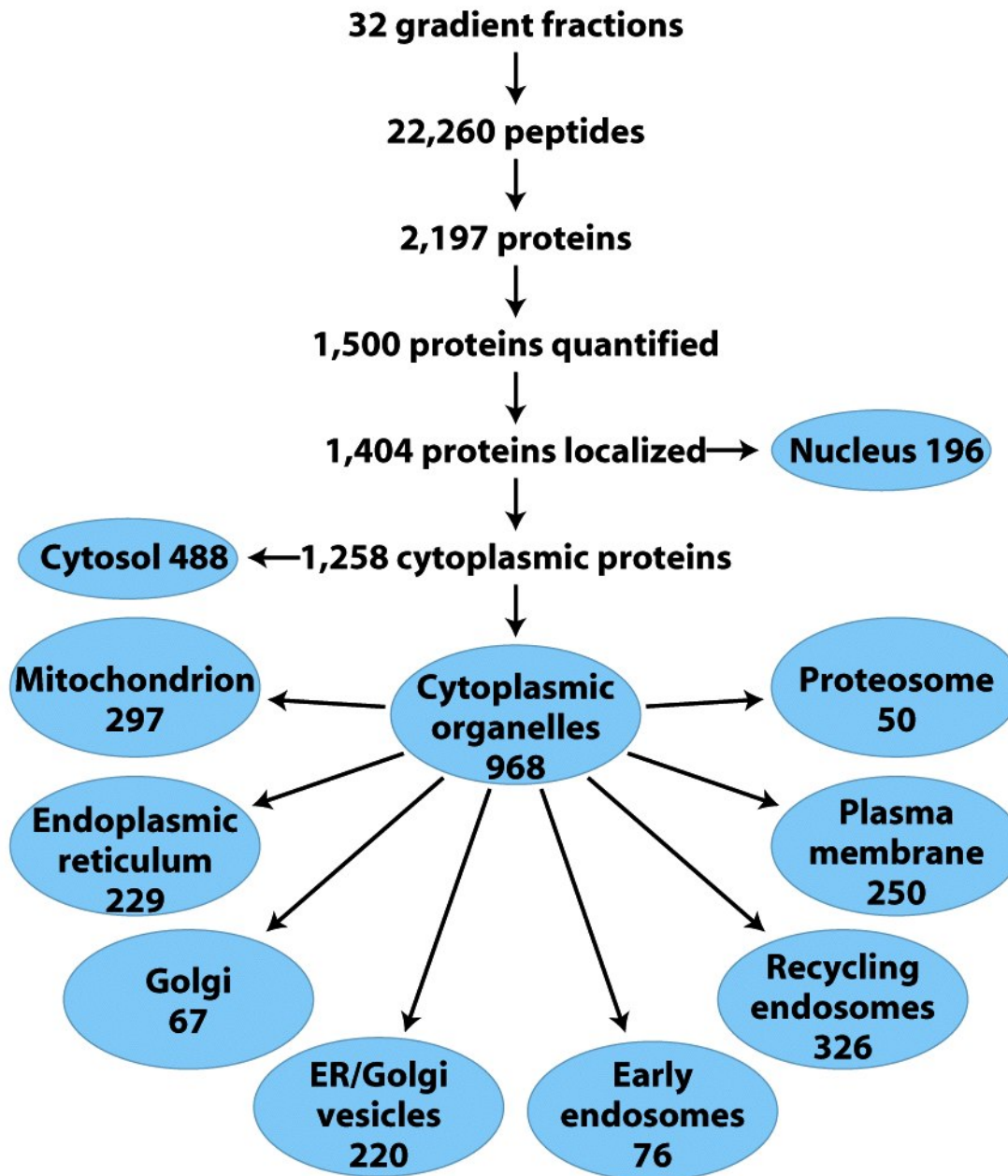
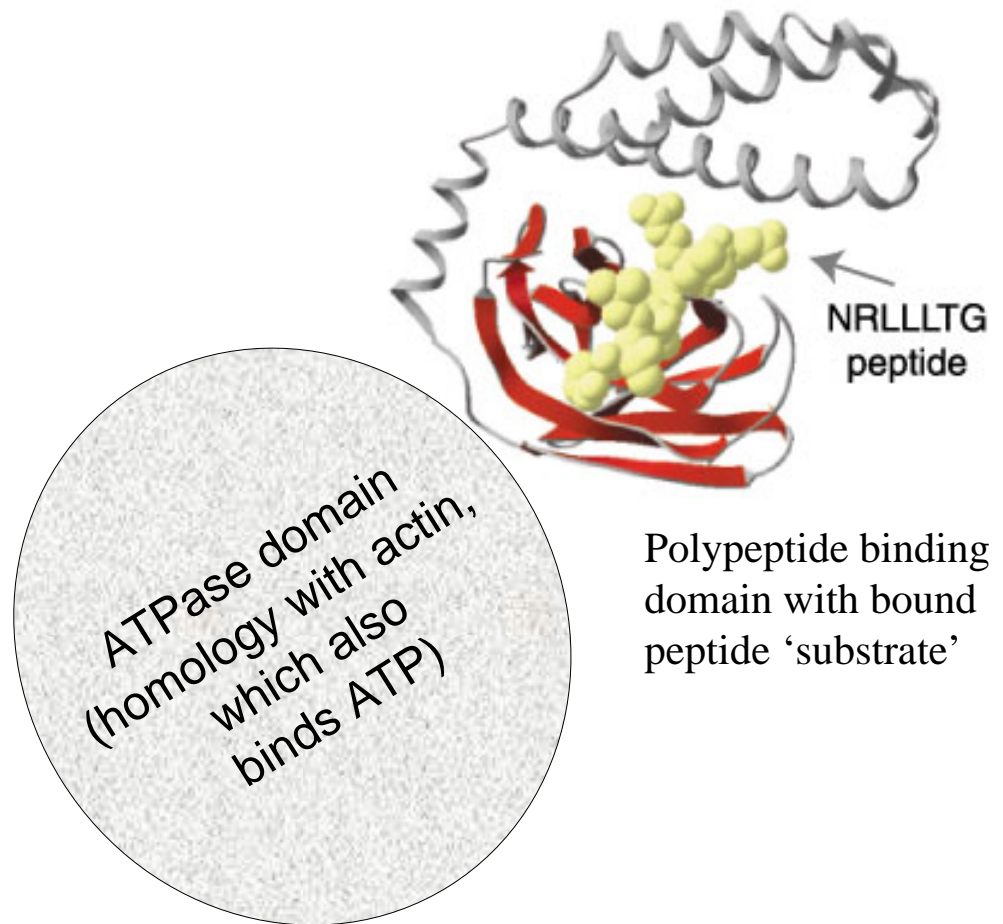


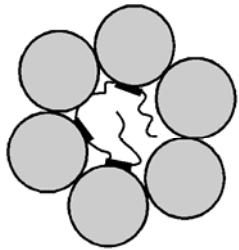
Figure 3-44b
Molecular Cell Biology, Sixth Edition
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Structure of Hsp70 chaperone

- ❖ Structure of entire molecule (~70 kDa) has not been solved
- ❖ flexible linkage between **ATPase** and **peptide-binding domains**, and different conformations of molecule possible
- ❖ polypeptide-binding domain consists of beta-sheet scaffold; loops possess hydrophobic residues that contact peptide
- ❖ domain also has an alpha-helical 'lid' that is regulated by the ATPase activity

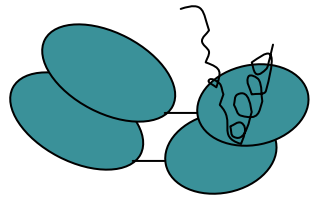


Major chaperones and their interactions with substrates



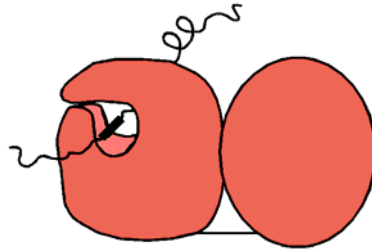
Hsp100 (ClpB)

disaggregation



Hsp90 (HtpG)

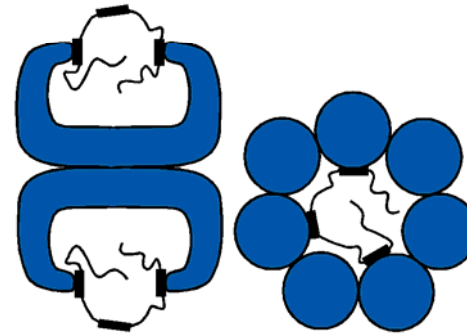
stabilization
of folding
intermediates



Hsp70 (DnaK)

stabilization
of folding
intermediates

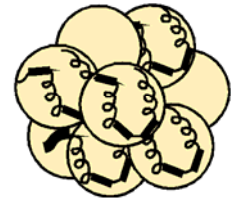
↓
refolding



Hsp60 (GroEL)

stabilization
of folding
intermediates

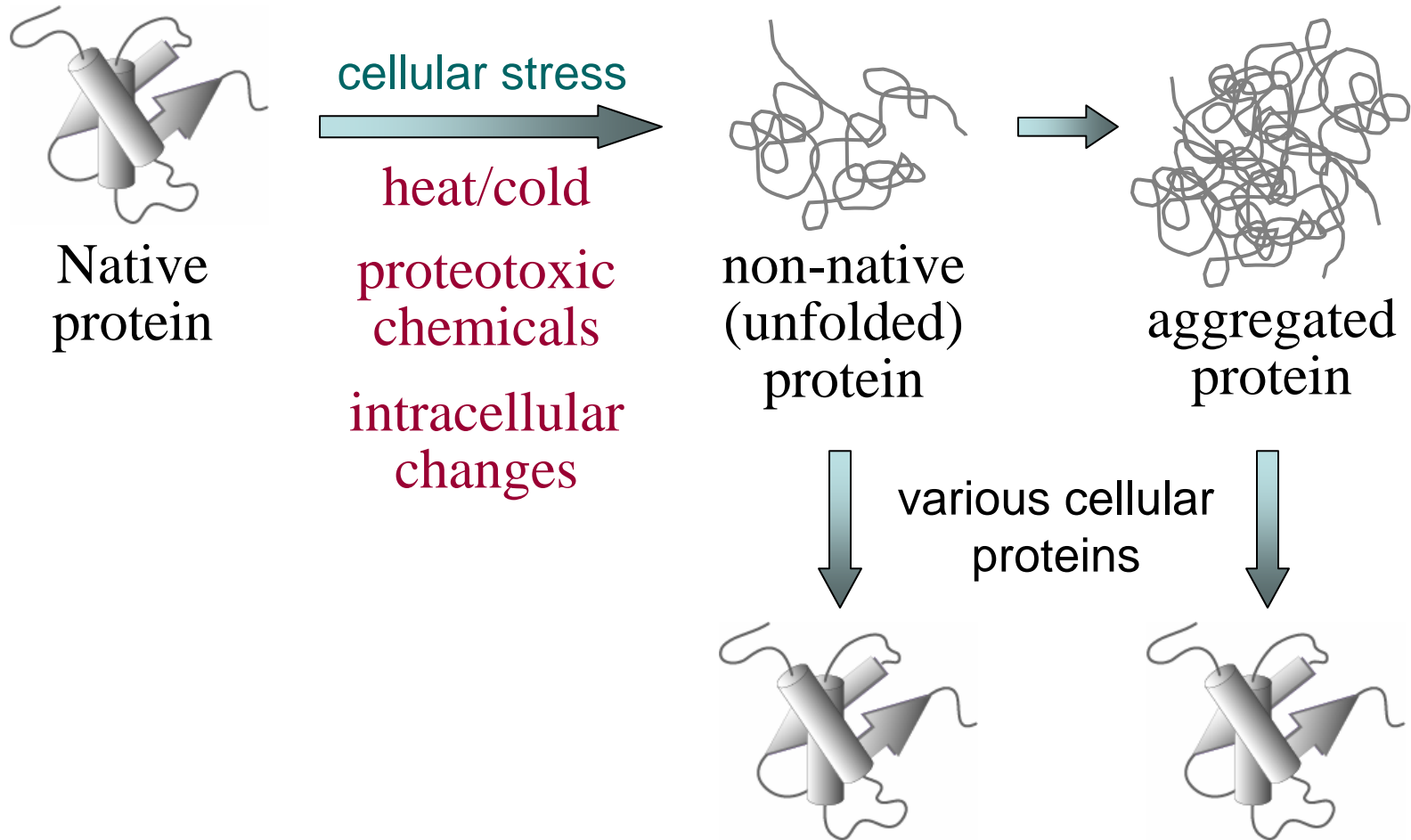
↓
unfolding ?
↓
refolding



sHSP (IbpA/B)

stabilization
of folding
intermediates

Cellular processes involving non-native proteins: **refolding**



Summary of chaperon

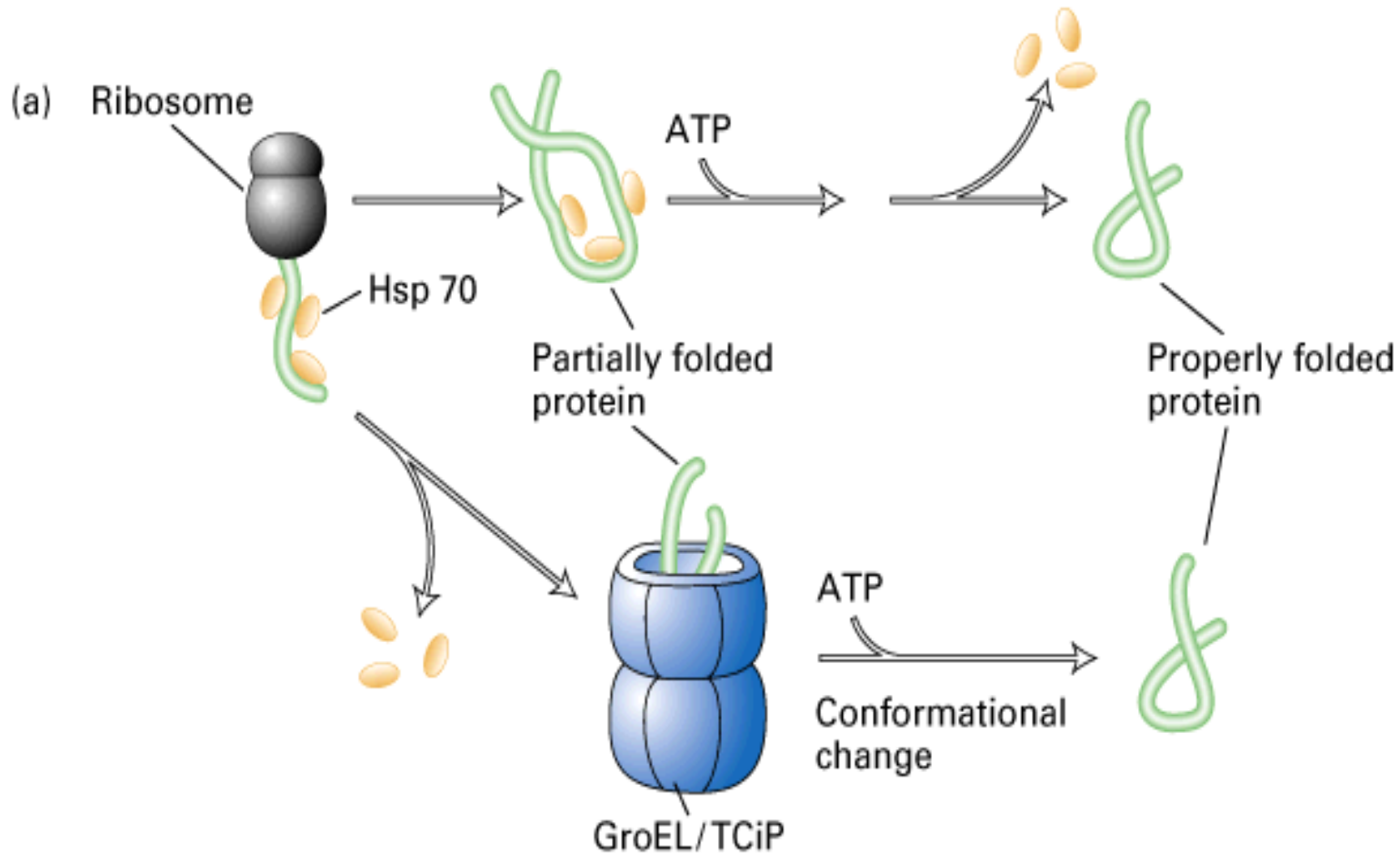


Figure 3-15a: Chaperone-mediated protein folding. Many proteins (step 1) fold into their proper three-dimensional structure with the assistance of Hsp70, a molecular chaperone that transiently binds to a nascent polypeptide as it emerges from a ribosome. Proper folding of some proteins (step 2) also depends on the chaperonin TCiP, a large barrel-shaped complex of Hsp60 units.

Different protein → different function

TABLE 3-1 Selected Molecular Machines

Machine*	Main Components	Cellular Location	Function
Replisome (4)	Helicase, primase, DNA polymerase	Nucleus	DNA replication
Transcription initiation complex (11)	Promoter-binding protein, helicase, general transcription factors (TFs), RNA polymerase, large multisubunit mediator complex	Nucleus	RNA synthesis
Spliceosome (12)	Pre-mRNA, small nuclear RNAs (snRNAs), protein factors	Nucleus	mRNA splicing
Nuclear pore complex (12)	Nucleoporins (50–100)	Nuclear membrane	Nuclear import and export
Ribosome (4)	Ribosomal proteins (>50) and four rRNA molecules (eukaryotes) organized into large and small subunits; associated mRNA and protein factors (IFs, EFs)	Cytoplasm/ER membrane	Protein synthesis
Chaperonin (3)	GroEL, GroES (bacteria)	Cytoplasm, mitochondria, endoplasmic reticulum	Protein folding
Proteasome (3)	Core proteins, regulatory (cap) proteins	Cytoplasm	Protein degradation
Photosystem (8)	Light-harvesting complex (multiple proteins and pigments), reaction center (multisubunit protein with associated pigments and electron carriers)	Thylakoid membrane in plant chloroplasts, plasma membrane of photosynthetic bacteria	Photosynthesis (initial stage)
MAP kinase cascades (14)	Scaffold protein, multiple different protein kinases	Cytoplasm	Signal transduction
Sarcomere (19)	Thick (myosin) filaments, thin (actin) filaments, Z lines, titin/nebulin	Cytoplasm of muscle cells	Contraction

*Numbers in parentheses indicate chapters in which various machines are discussed.

AMINO ACID		SIDE CHAIN		AMINO ACID		SIDE CHAIN	
Aspartic acid	Asp	D	negative	Alanine	Ala	A	nonpolar
Glutamic acid	Glu	E	negative	Glycine	Gly	G	nonpolar
Arginine	Arg	R	positive	Valine	Val	V	nonpolar
Lysine	Lys	K	positive	Leucine	Leu	L	nonpolar
Histidine	His	H	positive	Isoleucine	Ile	I	nonpolar
Asparagine	Asn	N	uncharged polar	Proline	Pro	P	nonpolar
Glutamine	Gln	Q	uncharged polar	Phenylalanine	Phe	F	nonpolar
Serine	Ser	S	uncharged polar	Methionine	Met	M	nonpolar
Threonine	Thr	T	uncharged polar	Tryptophan	Trp	W	nonpolar
Tyrosine	Tyr	Y	uncharged polar	Cysteine	Cys	C	nonpolar

┌────────── POLAR AMINO ACIDS ─────────┐

┌────────── NONPOLAR AMINO ACIDS ───┐

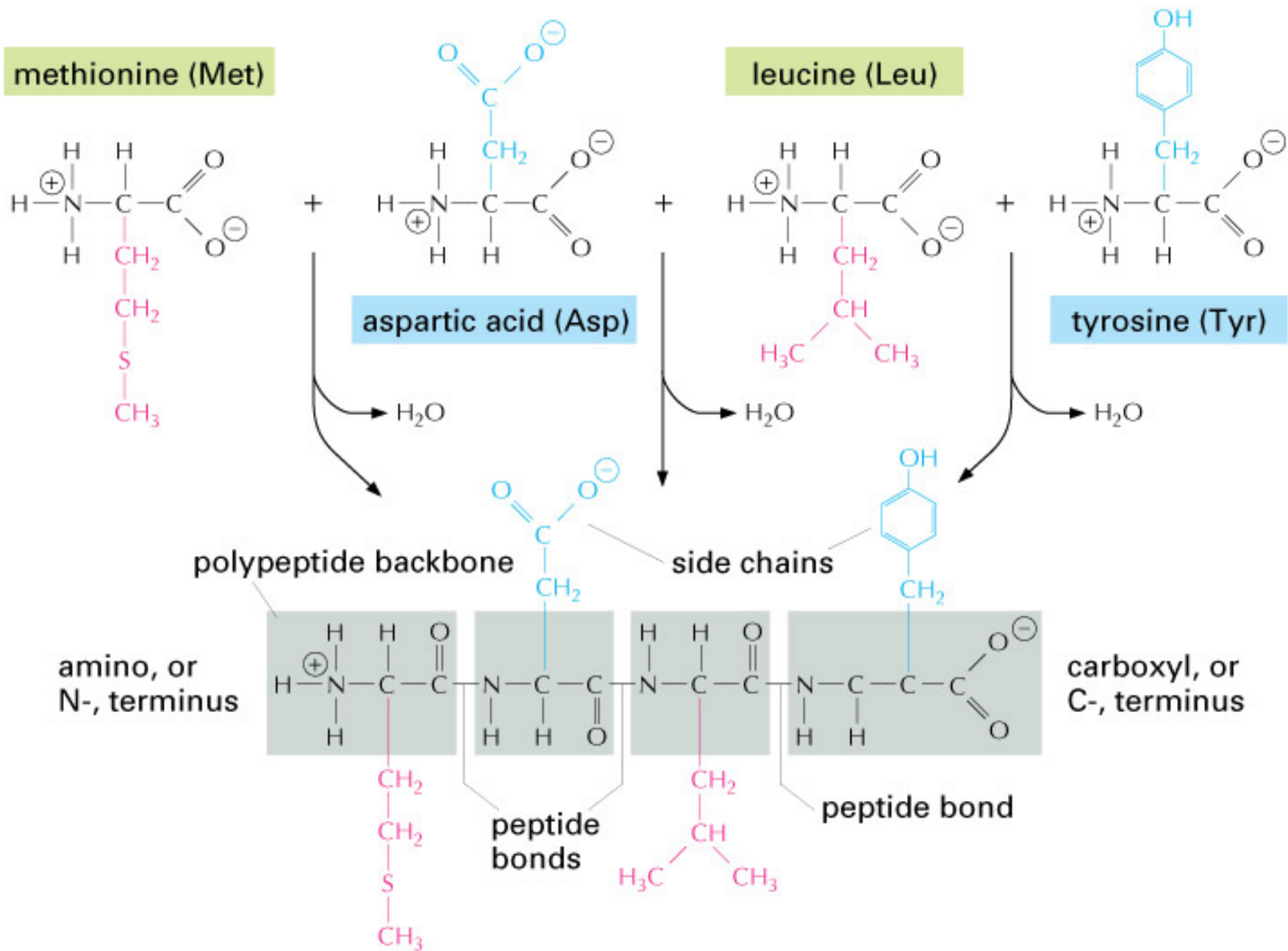


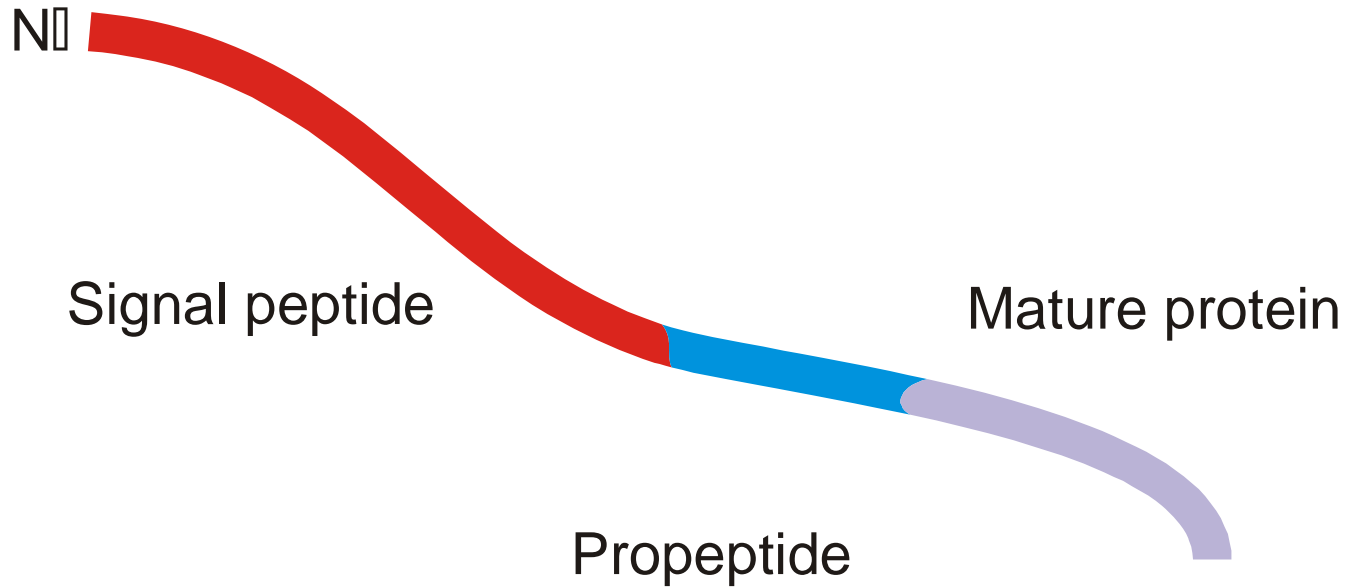
Figure 4-2 Essential Cell Biology, 2/e. (© 2004 Garland Science)

Peptide segments of some protein are removed after synthesis

Protein targeting/localization signals

- **Signal peptide**
 - **Mitochondrial targeting peptide**
 - **Chloroplast targeting peptide**
 - **Peroxisomal targeting signal (PTS2)**
 - **Signal anchor**
 - **Nuclear localization signal**
 - **ER/Golgi retention signal**
 - **Peroxisomal targeting signal (PTS1)**
 - **Transmembrane helices**
-
- Cleared**
- Uncleared**

Signal peptide or propeptide



Characteristics of signal peptides

	Length	n-region	h-region	c-region	-3, -1
Euk	22	only slightly Arg-rich	short, very hydrophobic	short, no pattern	small and neutral residues
Gram-	25	Lys+Arg-rich	slightly longer, less hydrophobic	short, Ser+Ala- rich	almost exclusively Ala
Gram+	32	Lys+Arg-rich	very long, less hydrophobic	longer, Thr+Pro- rich	almost exclusively Ala

Ubiquitin–Mediated Proteolysis in Cellular Processes

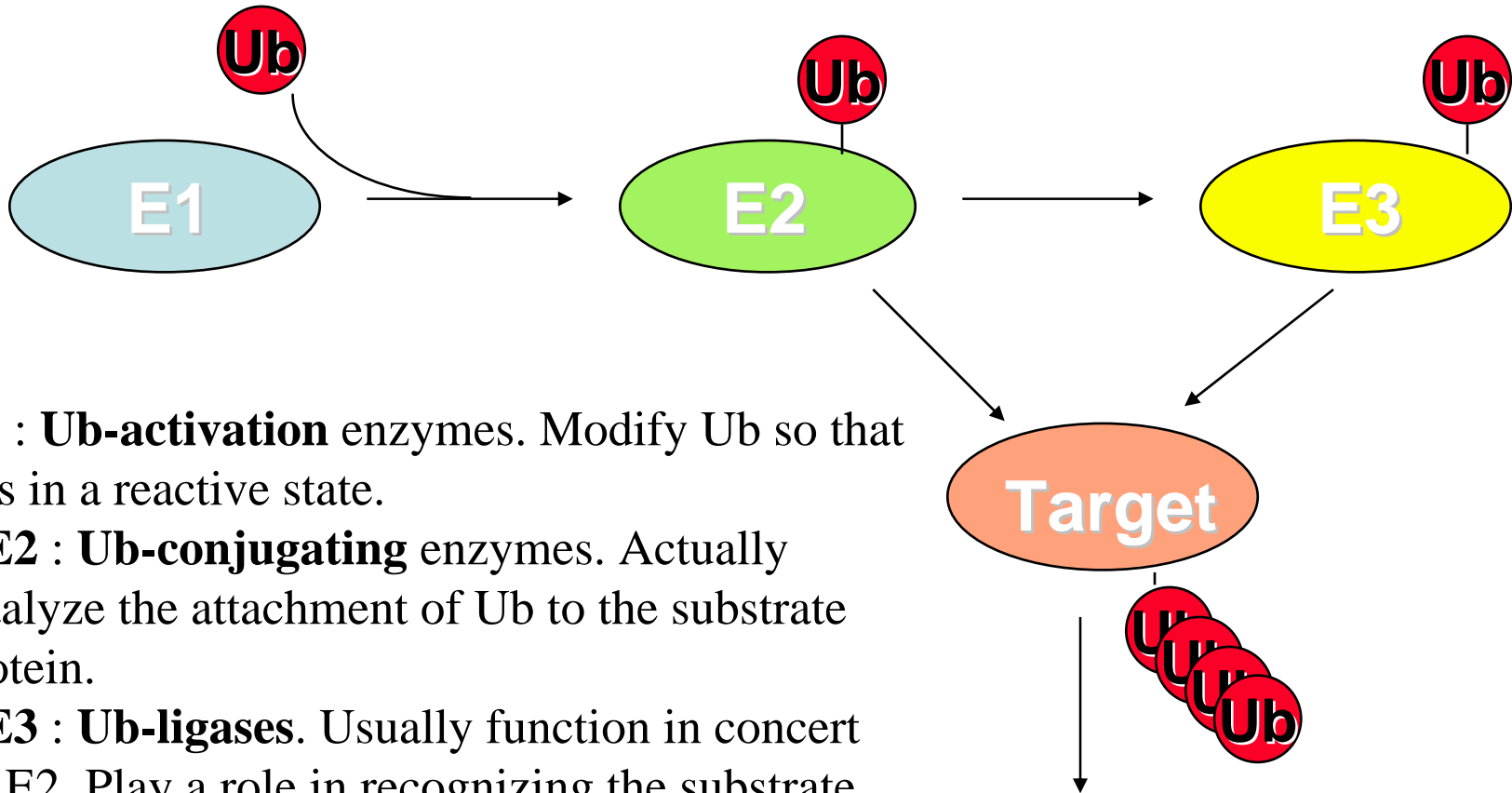
Regulation of:

- Cell cycle
- Differentiation & development
- Extracellular effectors
- Cell surface receptors & ion channels
- DNA repair
- Immune and inflammatory responses
- Biogenesis organelles

Proteins Targeted by Ubiquitin

- Cell cycle regulators
- Tumor suppressors & growth modulators
- Transcriptional activators & inhibitors
- Cell surface receptors
- Mutant and damaged proteins

The Ubiquitin Modification Pathway



E1 : Ub-activation enzymes. Modify Ub so that it is in a reactive state.

E2 : Ub-conjugating enzymes. Actually catalyze the attachment of Ub to the substrate protein.

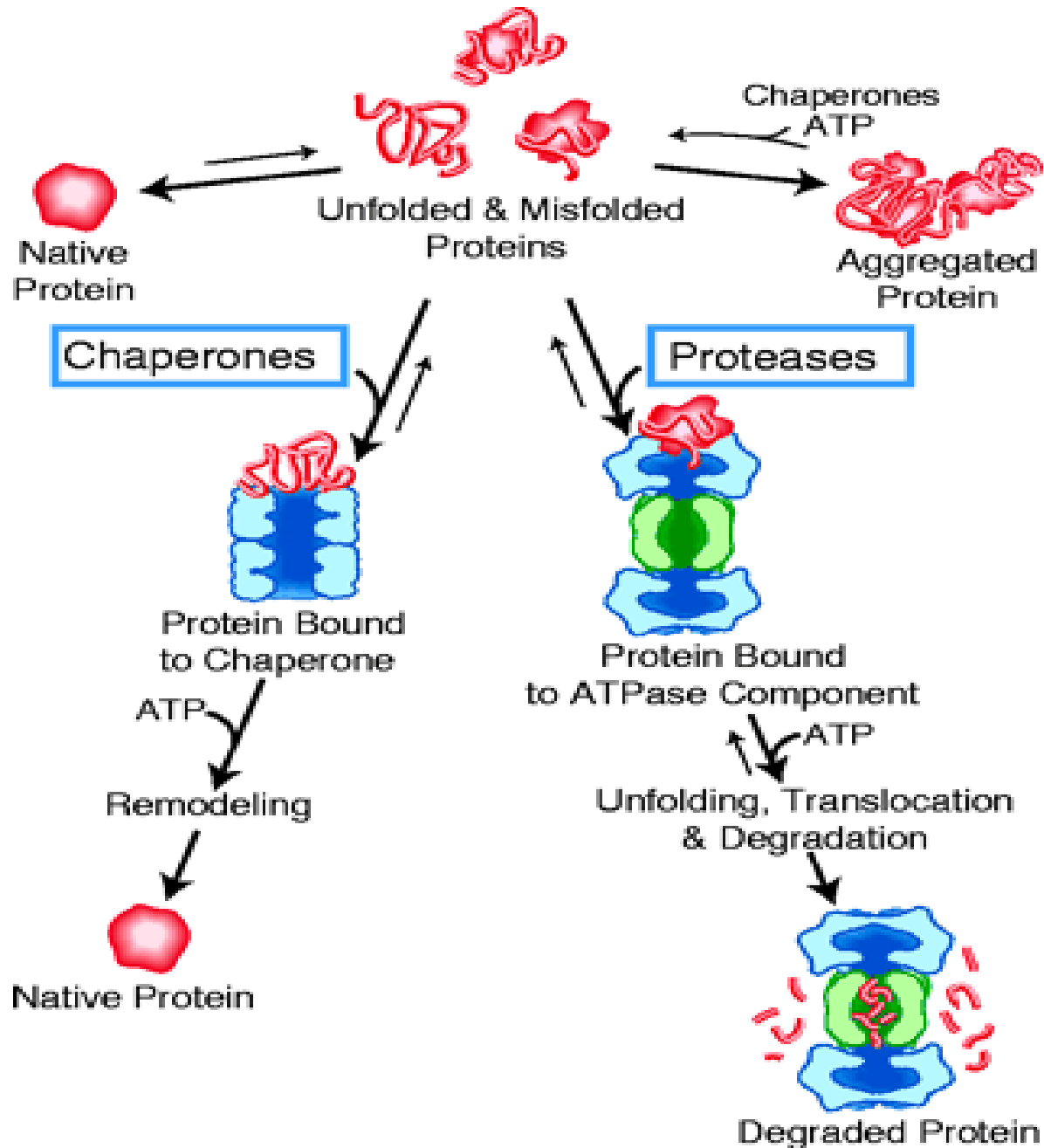
E3 : Ub-ligases. Usually function in concert w/ E2. Play a role in recognizing the substrate protein.

26s proteasome degradation

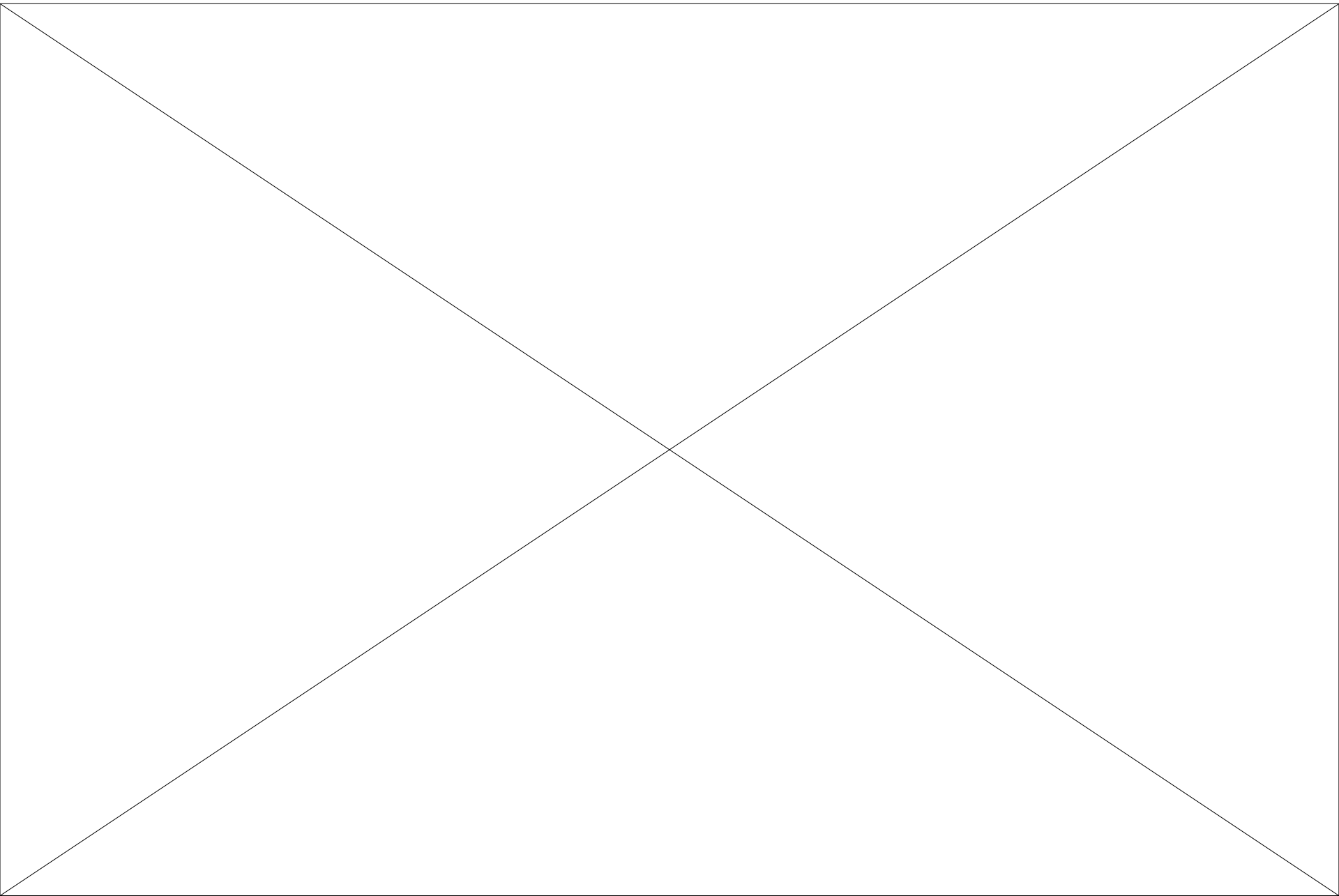
Ubiquitin Conjugation: A 3 Step Mechanism

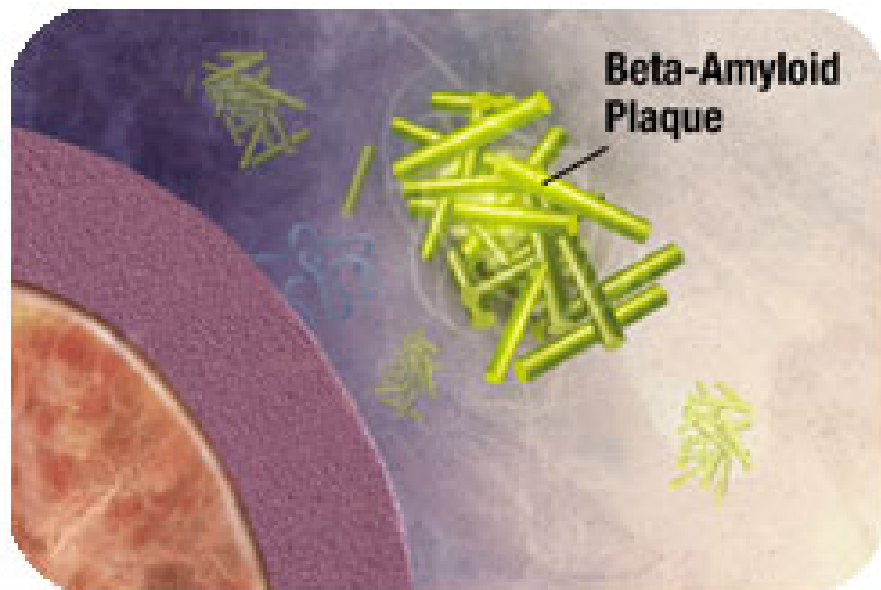
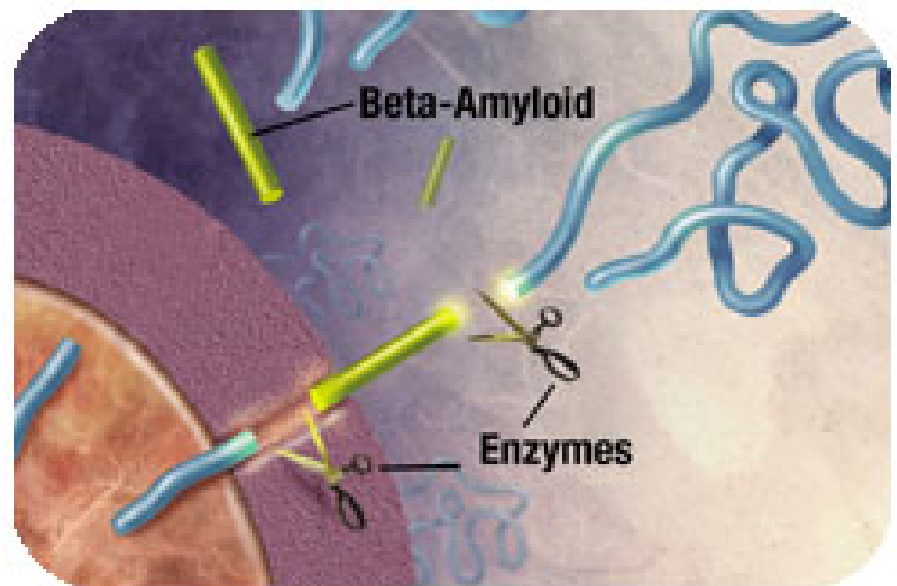
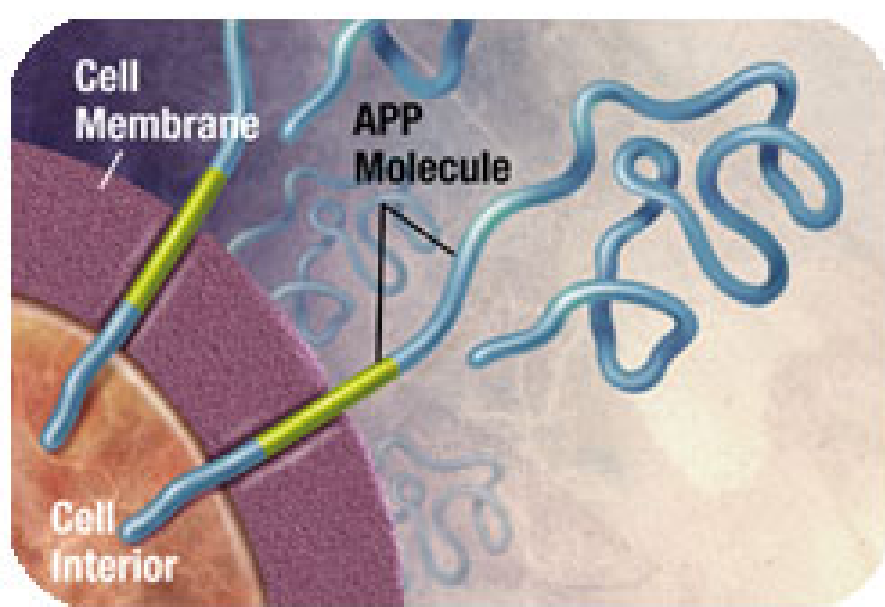
Ubiquitin (Ub) activating enzyme E ₁	High energy thiol ester is formed between C-terminal Gly of ubiquitin and a Cys in the E ₁ active site (ATP/AMP)
Ubiquitin conjugating enzymes E ₂	Ub is transferred to a Cys of E ₂ forming a new thiol ester
Ubiquitin ligase E ₃	Ub forms isopeptide bond between C-terminal Gly of Ub and ϵ -amino group of Lys on a target protein

The life of protein



Life cycle of a protein



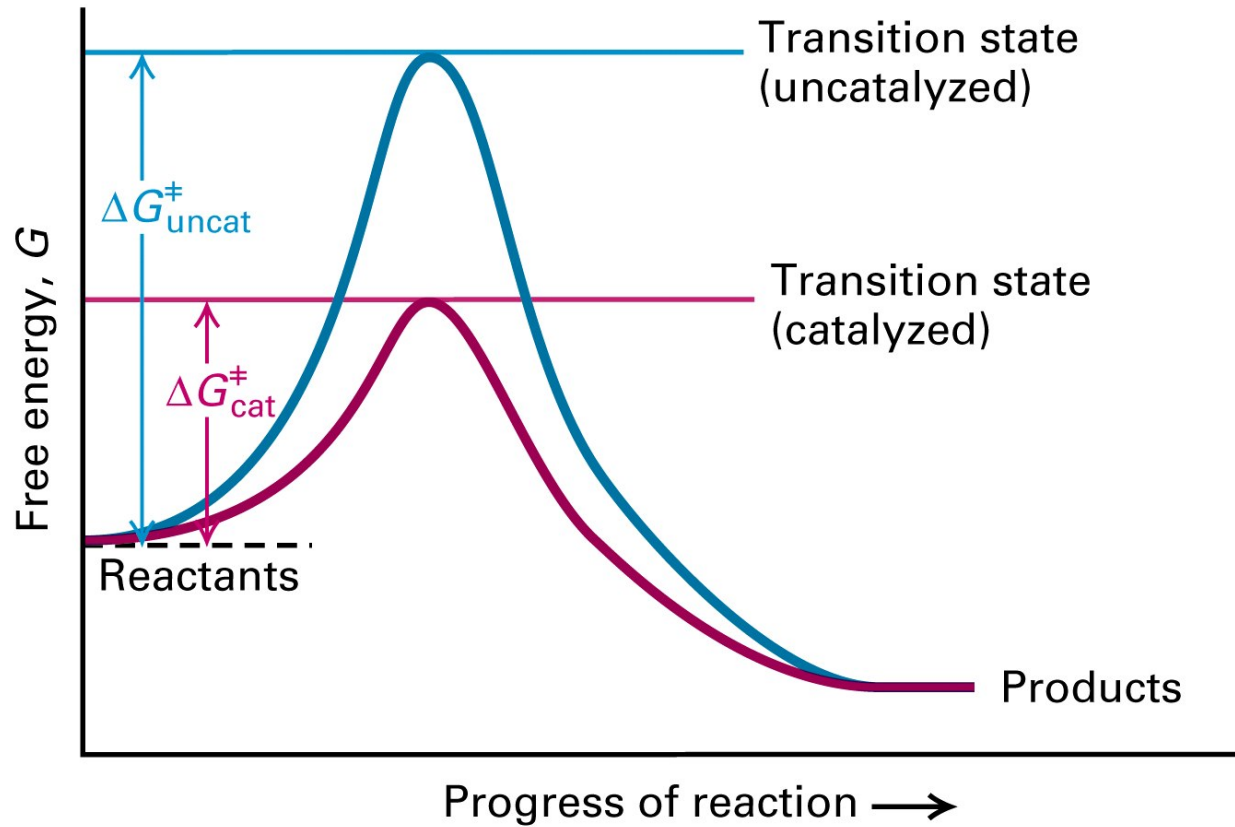


Beta-amyloid Plaques

Amyloid precursor protein (APP) is the precursor to amyloid plaque.

1. APP sticks through the neuron membrane.
2. Enzymes cut the APP into fragments of protein, including beta-amyloid.
3. Beta-amyloid fragments come together in clumps to form plaques.

Enzyme are highly efficient and specific catalysts



A reaction will take place spontaneously only if the total G of the products is less than that of reactants.

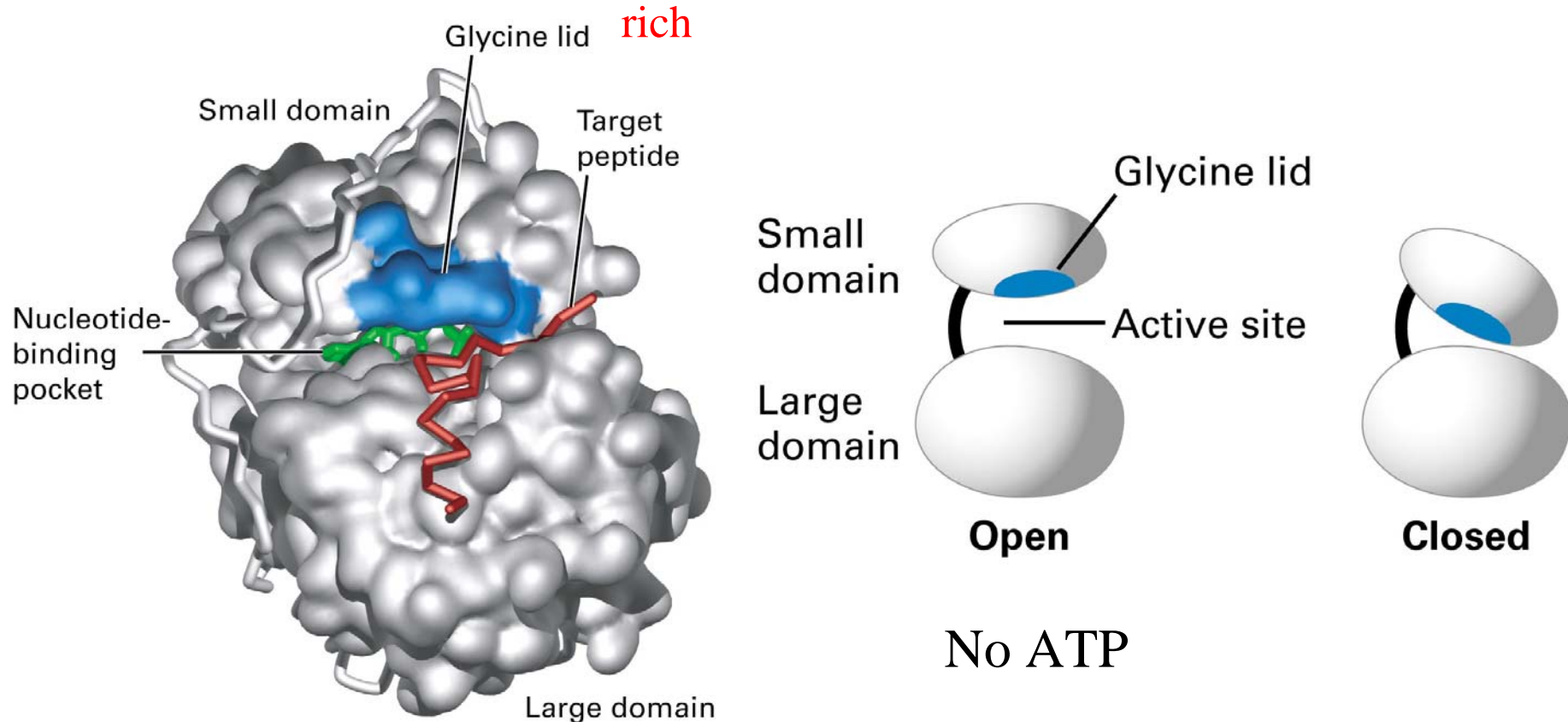
All chemical reactions \rightarrow high energy transition state \rightarrow rate of reaction is inversely to G \rightarrow So need enzyme for catalysts

Enzyme: formed from protein

Highly efficient and specific catalysts

An enzyme active site binds substrates and carries out catalysis

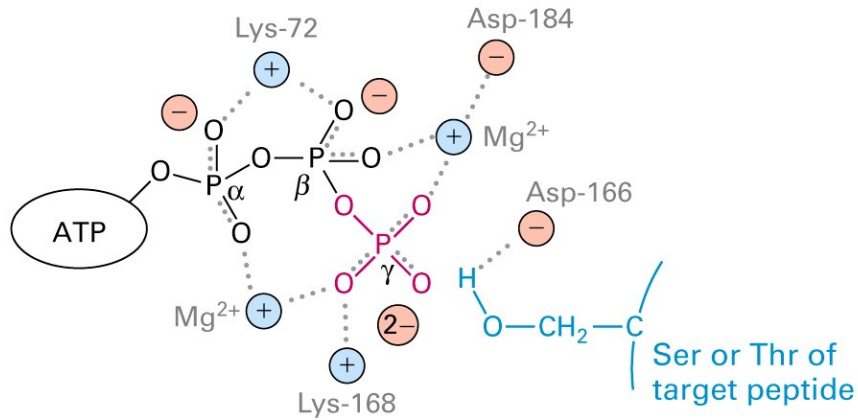
Active site: specific and chemical reaction site



Protein kinase A and conformational change induced by substrate binding

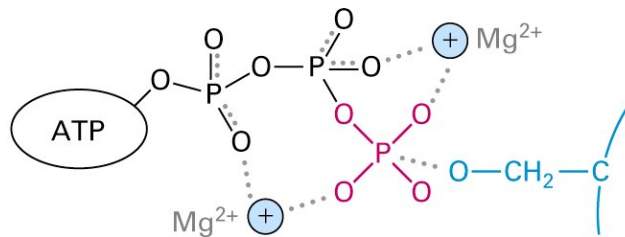
Mechanism of phosphorylation by protein kinase A

Initial state

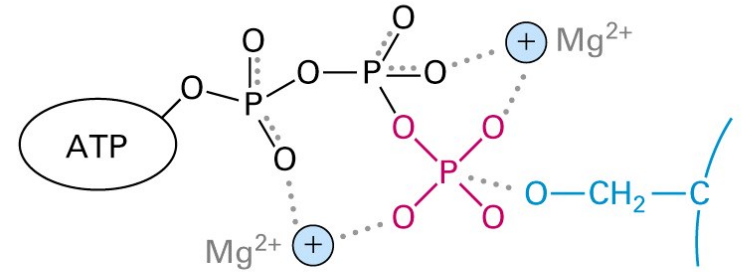


Formation of transition state

Intermediate state

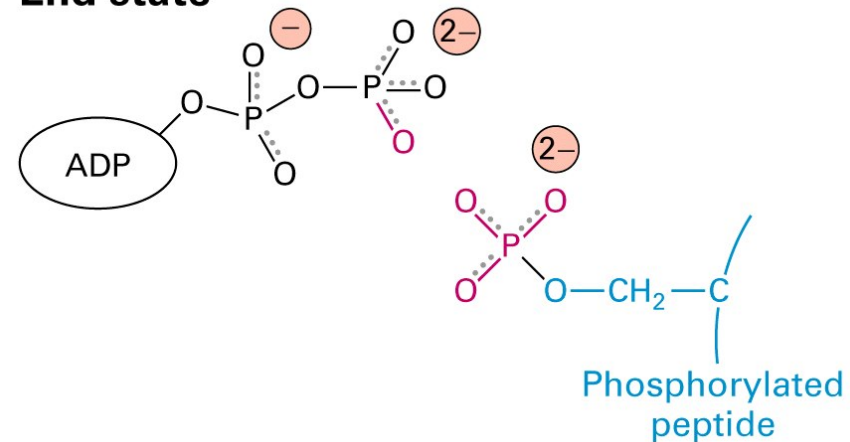


Intermediate state

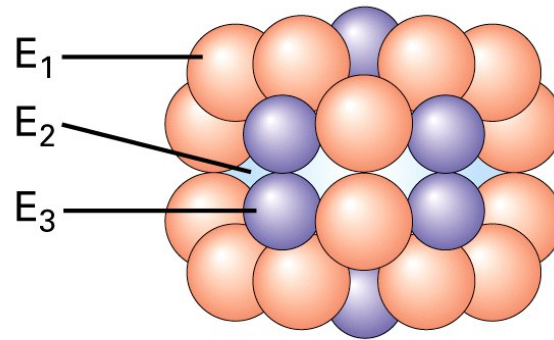


Phosphate transfer

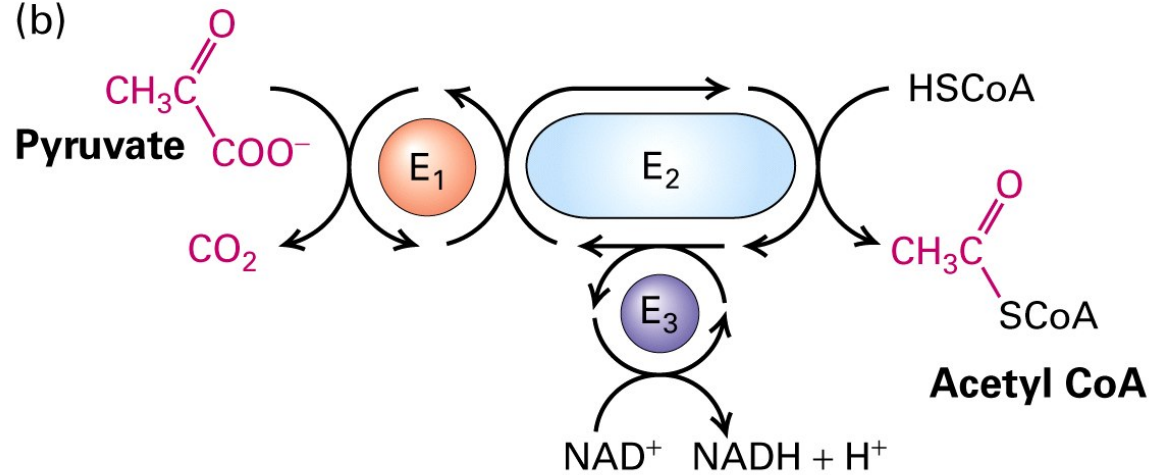
End state



(a)



(b)



Net reaction:



Structure and function of pyruvate dehydrogenase, a large multimeric enzyme complex that converts pyruvate into acetyl CoA

Molecular motors and mechanical work of cells

Needs energy into motion

Motor proteins (mechanochemical enzymes): generate the forces necessary for many cellular movements, cells depend on specialized enzymes commonly called motor proteins.

Motion types: 1. linear; 2. rotor

Three general properties of the activities of motor proteins:

1. Transduce a source of energy (ATP or ion gradient) for two types movement
2. Bind and translocate along a cytoskeletal filament, nucleic acids strand or protein complex
3. Move direction

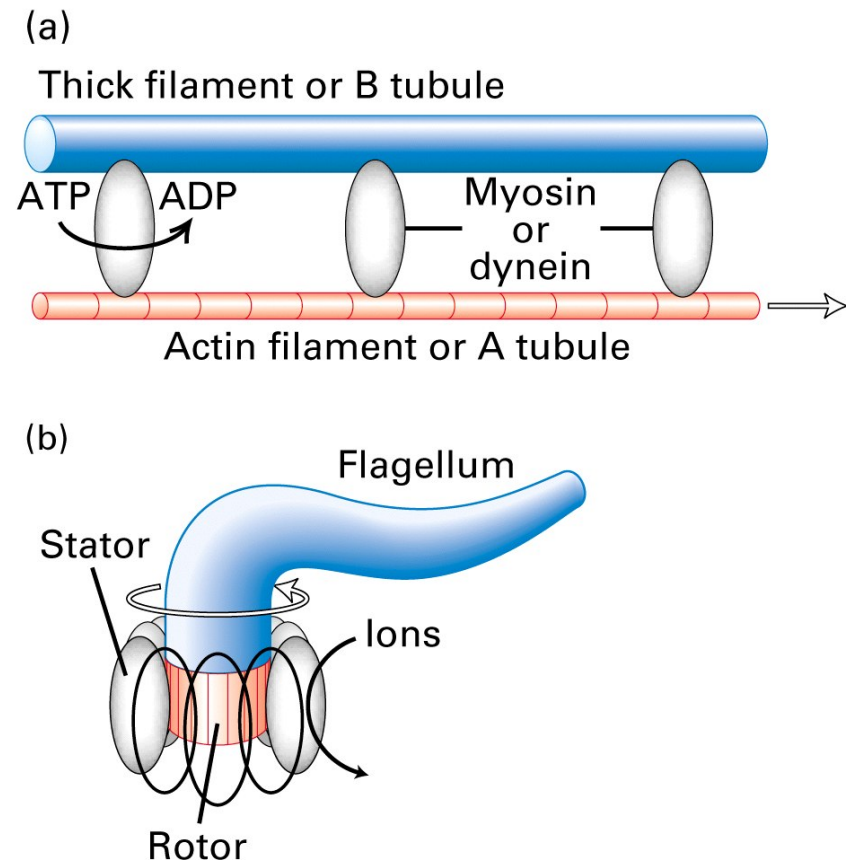


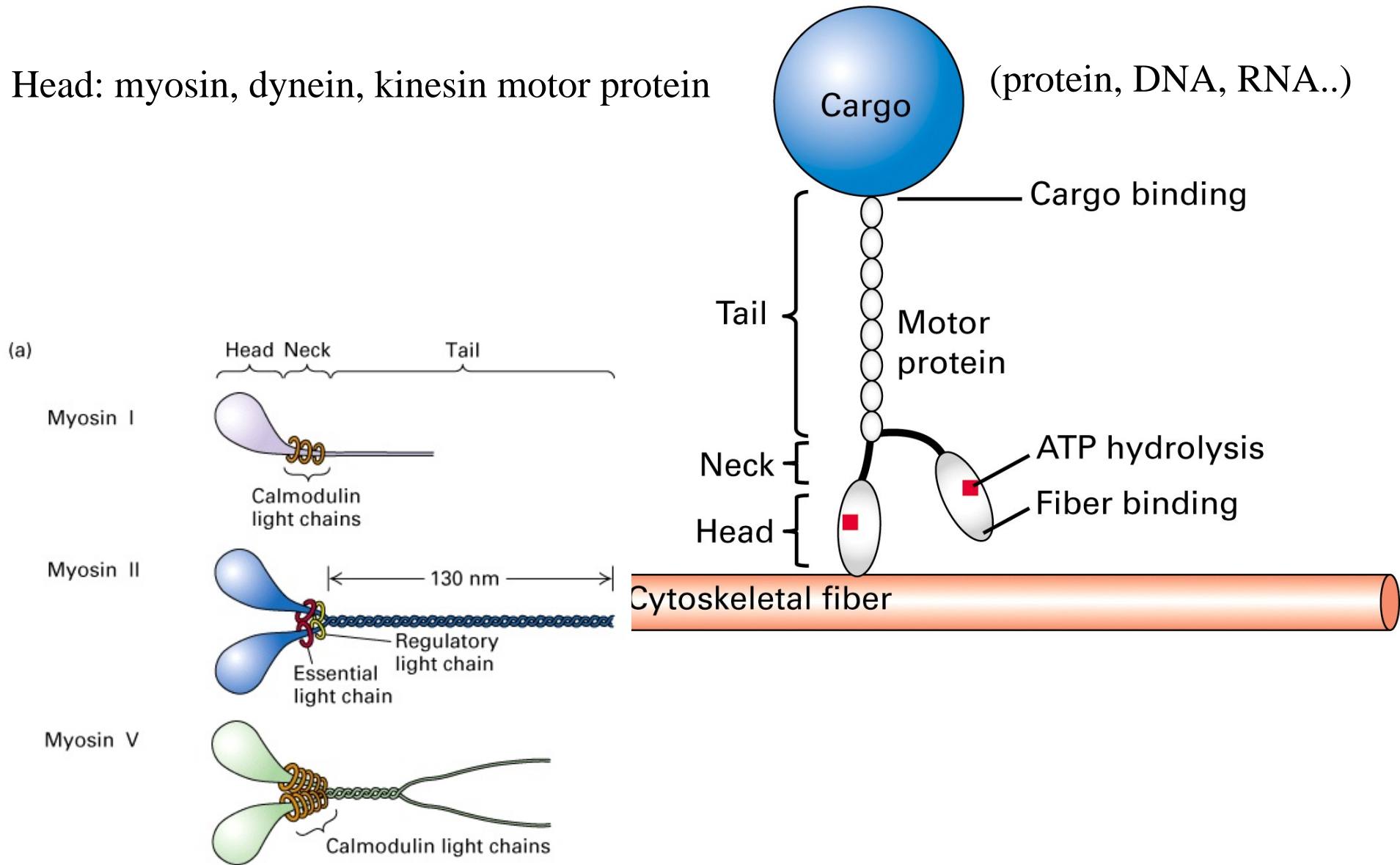
TABLE 3-2 Selected Molecular Motors

Motor*	Energy Source	Structure/Components	Cellular Location	Movement Generated
LINEAR MOTORS				
DNA polymerase (4)	ATP	Multisubunit polymerase δ within replisome	Nucleus	Translocation along DNA during replication
RNA polymerase (4)	ATP	Multisubunit polymerase within transcription elongation complex	Nucleus	Translocation along DNA during transcription
Ribosome (4)	GTP	Elongation factor 2 (EF2) bound to ribosome	Cytoplasm/ER membrane	Translocation along mRNA during translation
Myosins (3, 19)	ATP	Heavy and light chains; head domains with ATPase activity and microfilament-binding site	Cytoplasm	Transport of cargo vesicles; contraction
Kinesins (20)	ATP	Heavy and light chains; head domains with ATPase activity and microtubule-binding site	Cytoplasm	Transport of cargo vesicles and chromosomes during mitosis
Dyneins (20)	ATP	Multiple heavy, intermediate, and light chains; head domains with ATPase activity and microtubule-binding site	Cytoplasm	Transport of cargo vesicles; beating of cilia and eukaryotic flagella
ROTARY MOTORS				
Bacterial flagellar motor	H ⁺ /Na ⁺ gradient	Stator and rotor proteins, flagellum	Plasma membrane	Rotation of flagellum attached to rotor
ATP synthase, F ₀ F ₁ (8)	H ⁺ gradient	Multiple subunits forming F ₀ and F ₁ particles	Inner mitochondrial membrane, thylakoid membrane, bacterial plasma membrane	Rotation of γ subunit leading to ATP synthesis
Viral capsid motor	ATP	Connector, prohead RNA, ATPase	Capsid	Rotation of connector leading to DNA packaging

*Numbers in parentheses indicate chapters in which various motors are discussed.

Motor protein-dependent movement of cargo

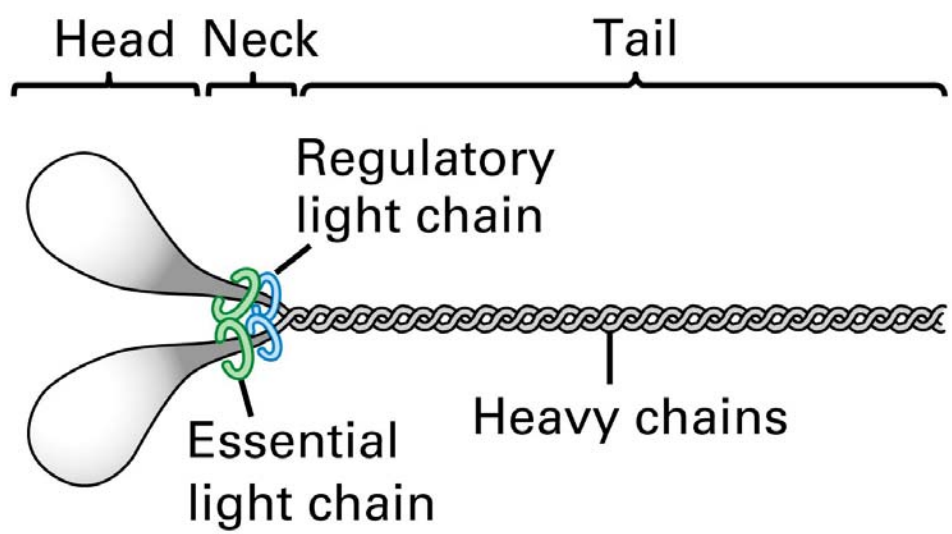
Head: myosin, dynein, kinesin motor protein



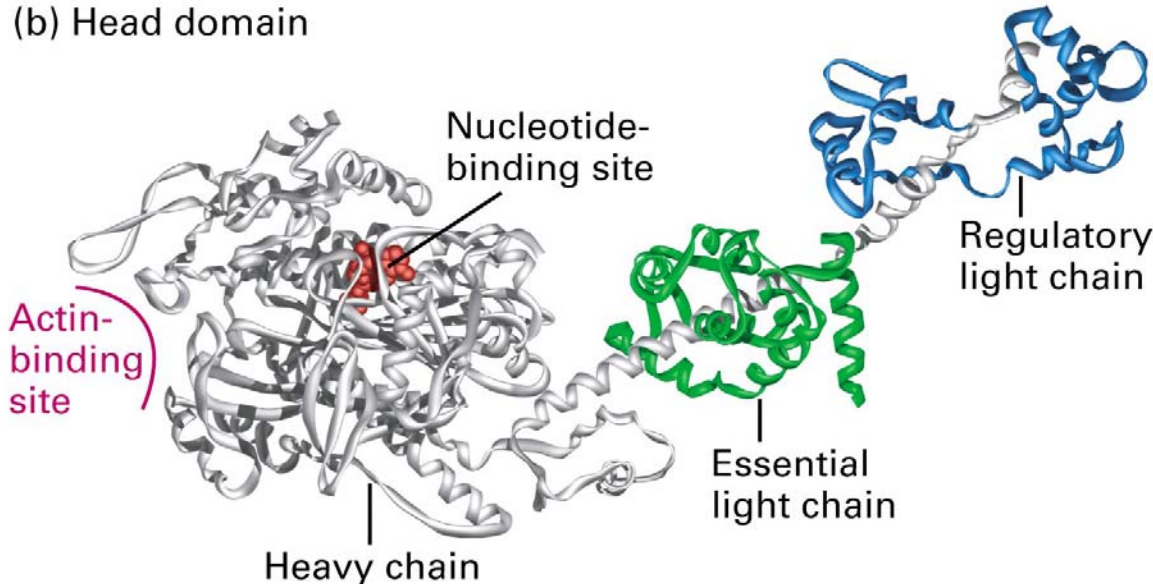
All myosins have head, neck, and tail domains with distinct functions

Conformational changes in the myosin head couple ATP hydrolysis to movement

(a) Myosin II



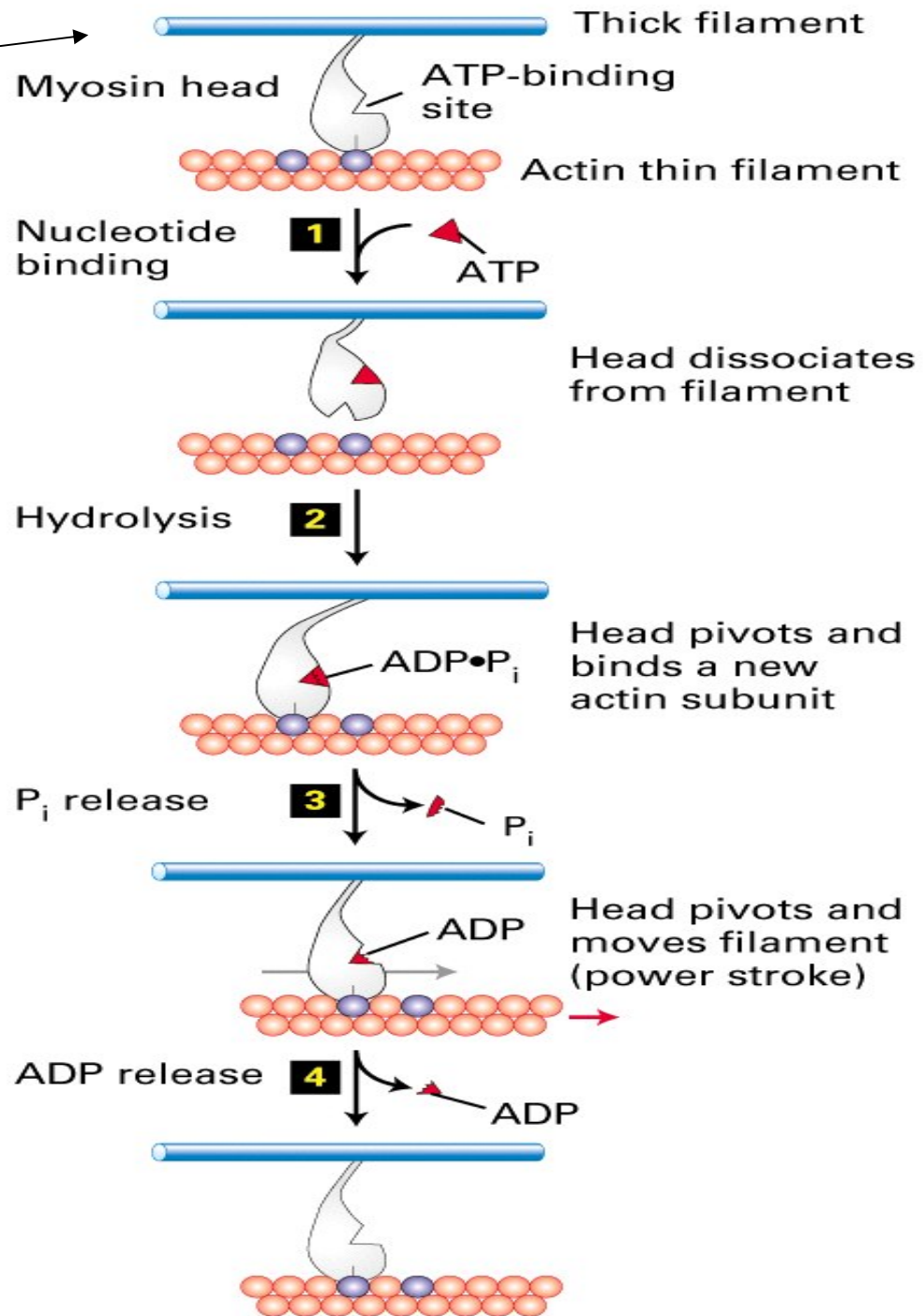
(b) Head domain



May be other cargo

1. Binding ATP → disrupting actin-binding site
2. Hydrolysis ATP → head, conformational change → move to new position → rebind
3. Pi release → head conformation second change → move the actin
4. Release ATP → new cycle

flash



Functional design of proteins

Protein function generally involves conformational changes

Proteins are designed to bind a range of molecules (ligands)

- Binding is characterized by two properties: affinity and specificity

Antibodies exhibit precise ligand-binding specificity

Enzymes are highly efficient and specific catalysts

- An enzyme's active site binds substrates and carries out catalysis

Mechanisms that regulate protein function

Allosteric transitions

- Release of catalytic subunits, active \rightleftharpoons inactive states, cooperative binding of ligands

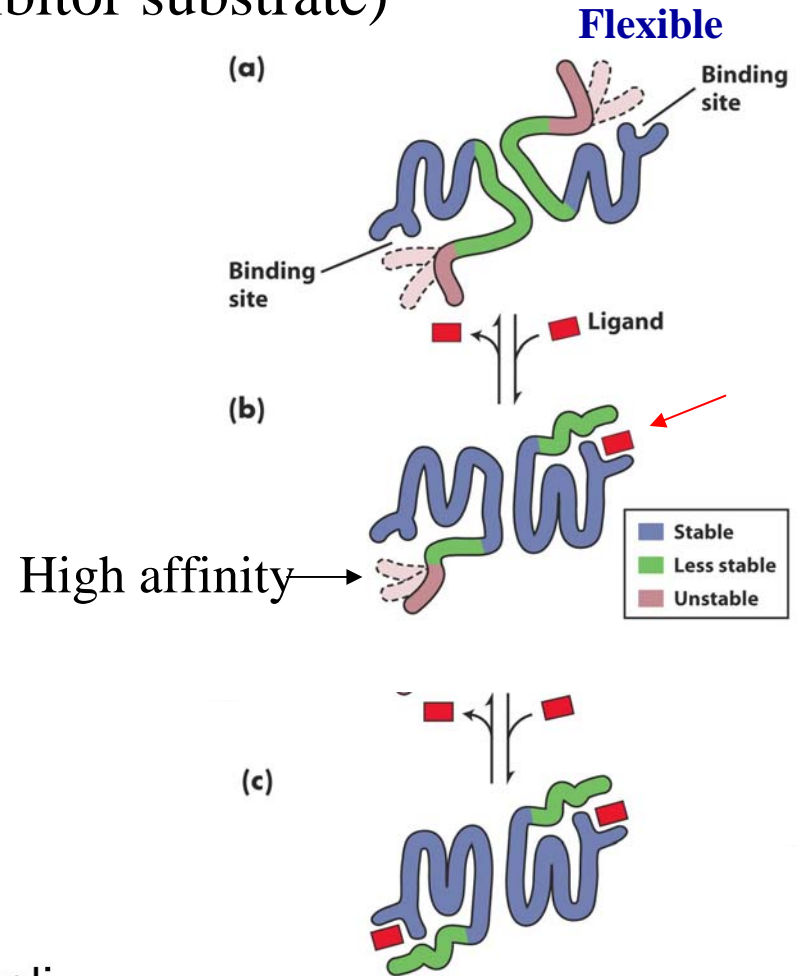
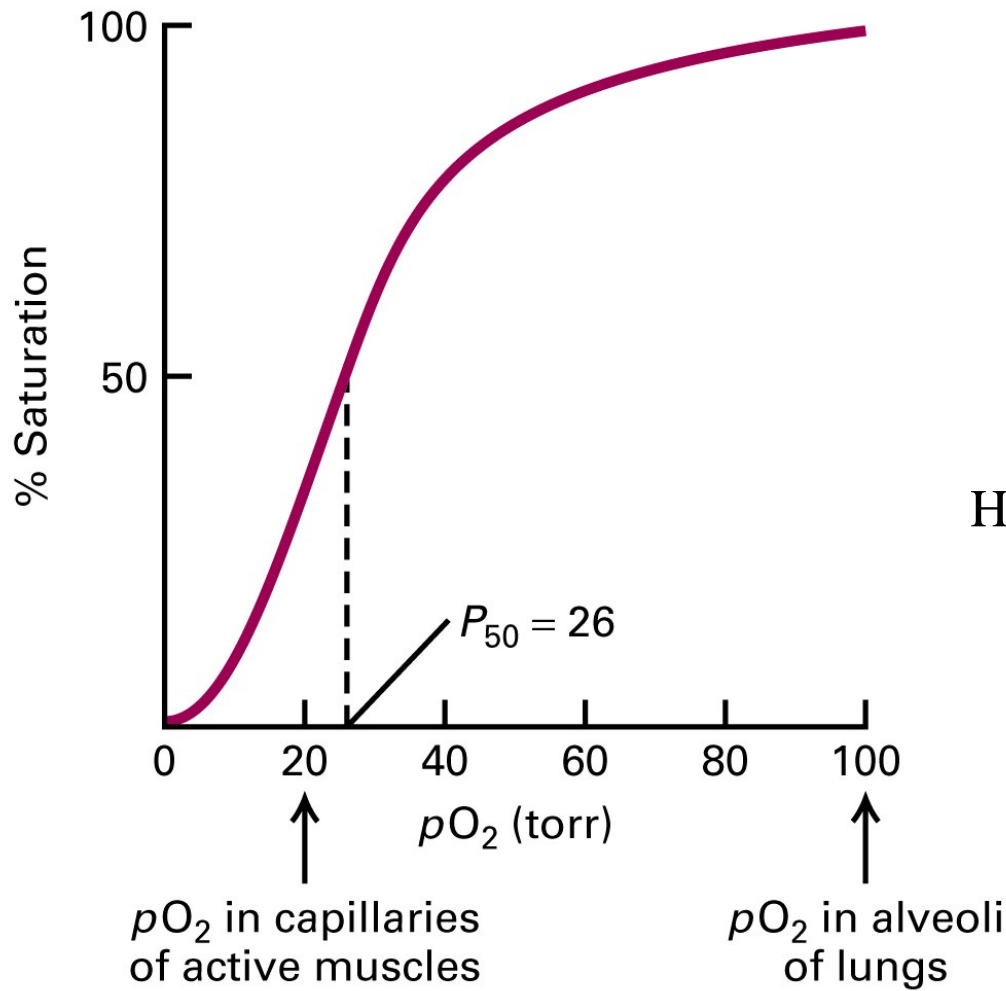
Phosphorylation \rightleftharpoons dephosphorylation

Proteolytic activation

Compartmentalization

異位性調節

Allostery: any change in a protein's 3 or 4 structure or both induced by the binding of a ligand (activator, inhibitor substrate)



結合一個後→讓另一個更容易結合 (**postive regulation**)

釋放一個後→讓另一個結合力下降→更容易釋放

Allosteric protein – a protein in which the binding of a ligand to one site affects the binding properties of another site on the same protein (also called induced fit model). The conformational changes induced by the modulator(s) interconvert more-active and less-active forms of the protein.

The modulators for allosteric proteins may be either inhibitors or activators

allos --- other

stereos --- solid or shape

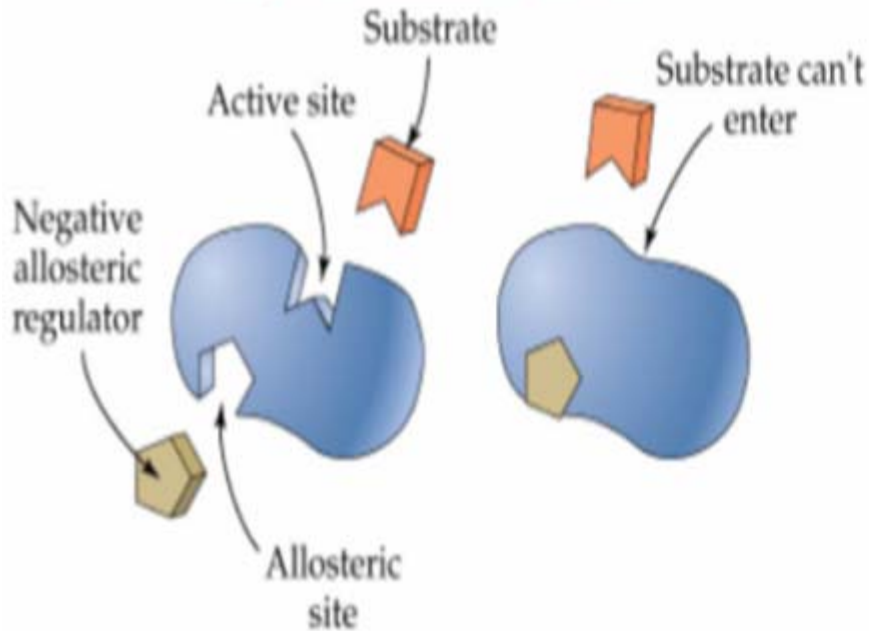
Homotropic interaction --- liagnd = modulator

Heterotropic interaction --- ligand = modulator

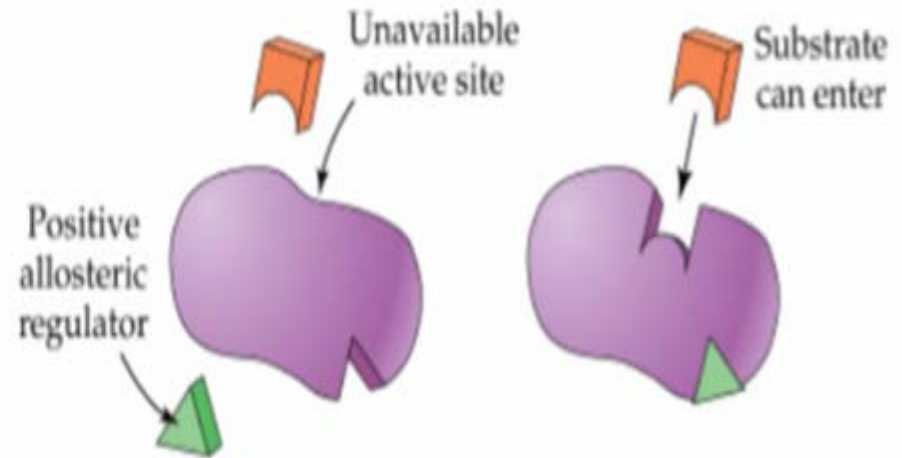
O₂ --- as both a normal ligand and an activating homotropic modulator for Hb

Allosteric control: either an activator or inhibitor acts on a portion of the enzyme other than the active site to regulate enzyme function.

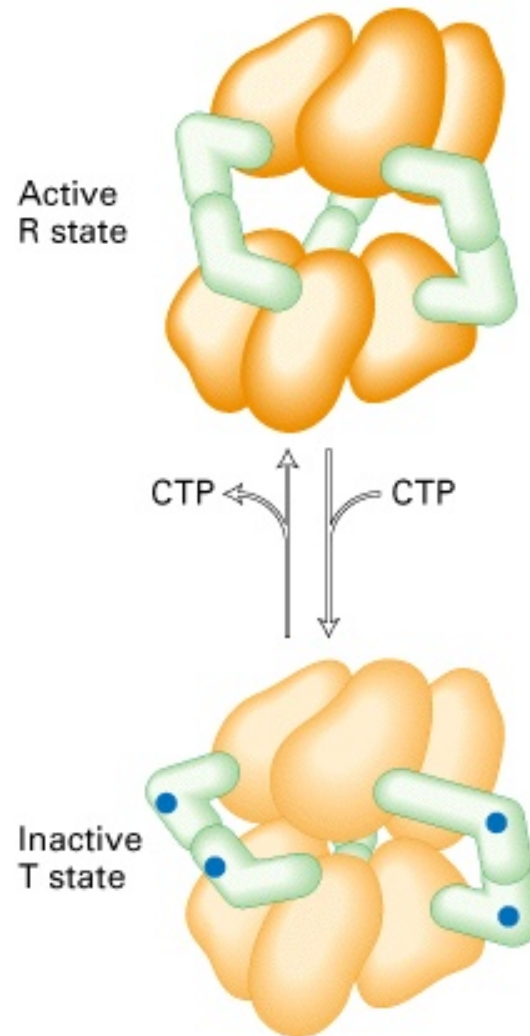
Negative allosteric control



Positive allosteric control



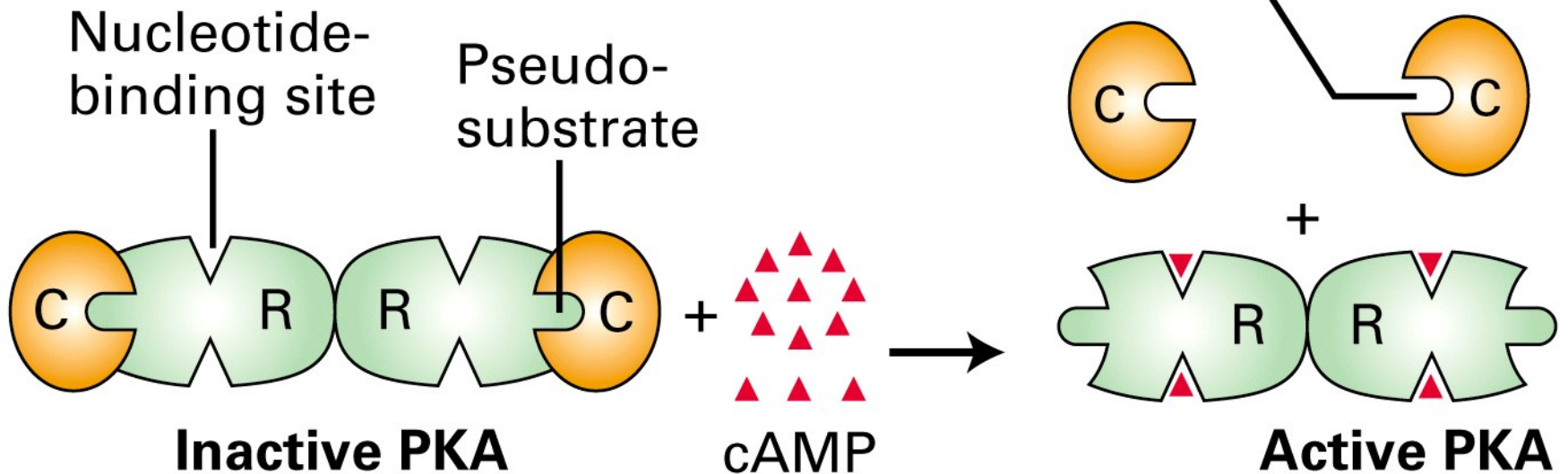
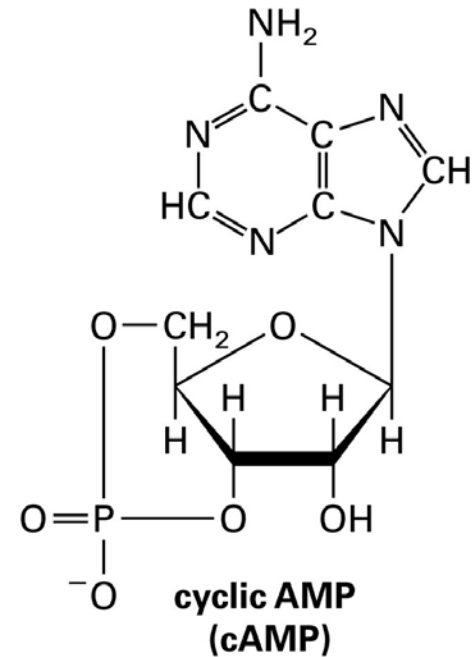
Allosteric transition between active and inactive states



Allosteric release of catalytic subunits

Ligand-induced activation of protein kinase

Ligand binding can induce allosteric release of catalytic subunits or transition to a state with different activity

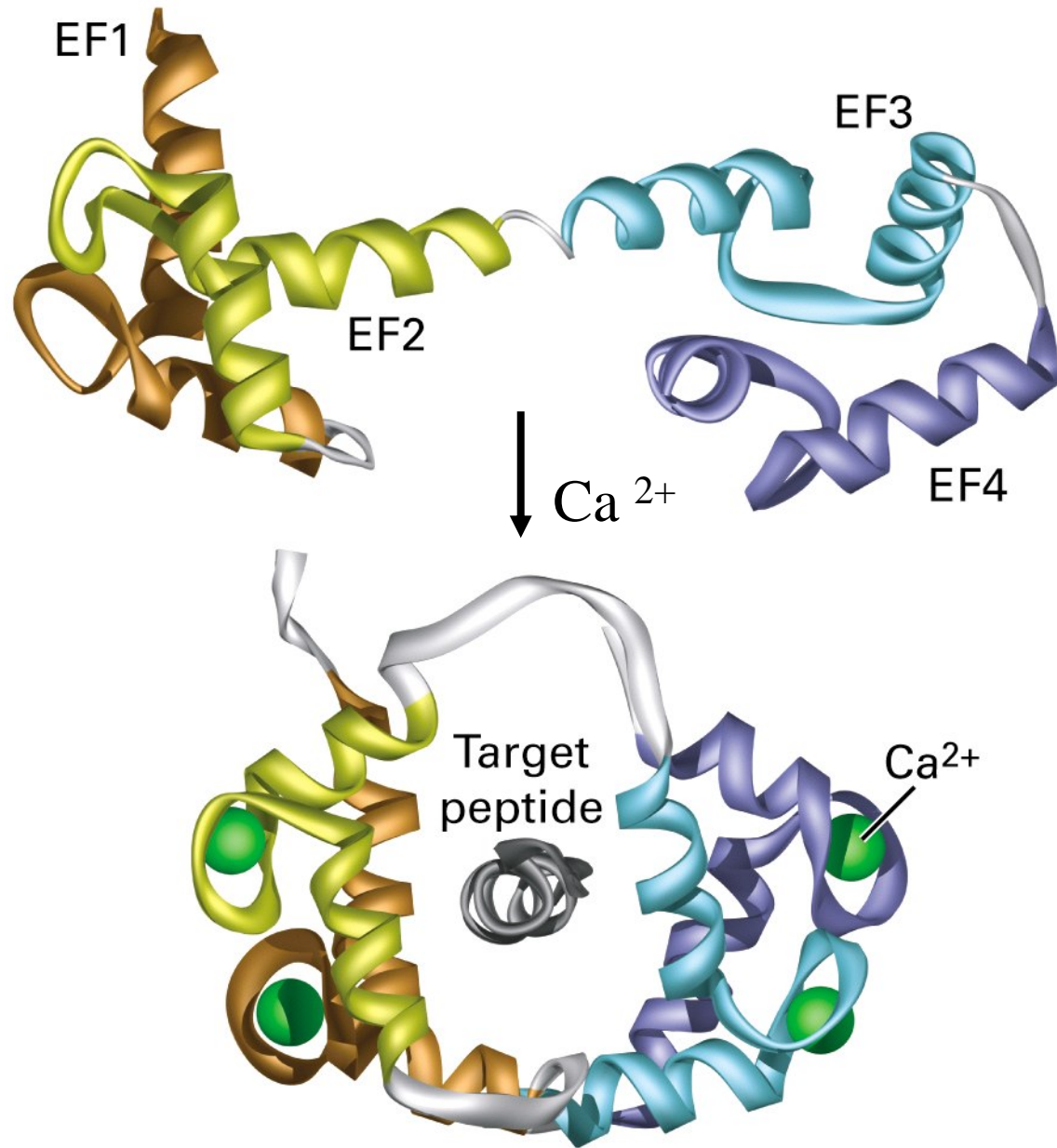


Switch mediated by Ca^{2+} /calmodulin

In normal condition:

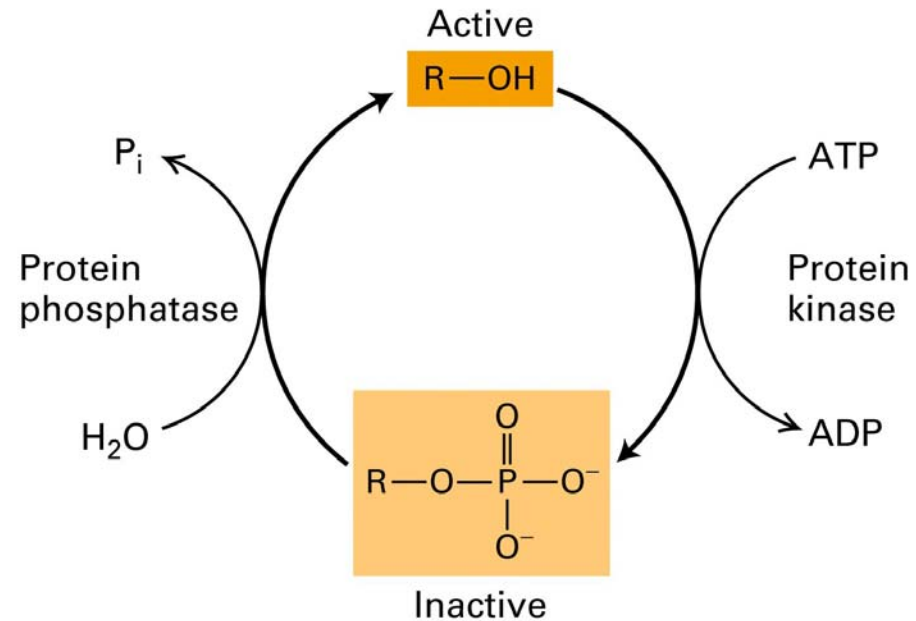
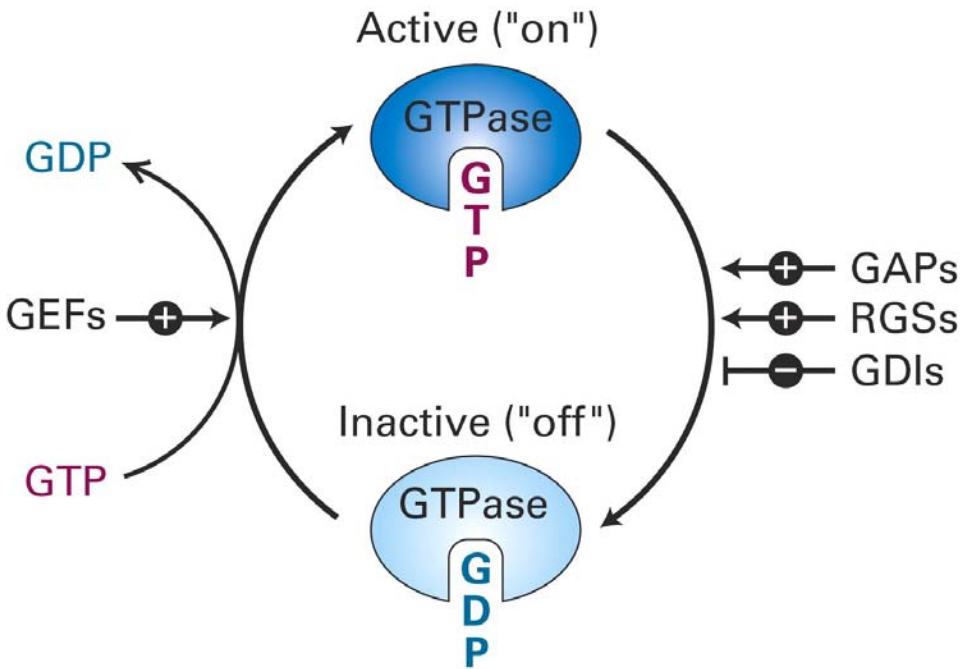
cytosolic calcium is low 10^{-7} M by ER or pump.

ER release calcium to 10-100 fold \rightarrow sense calmodulin \rightarrow conformational change \rightarrow regulated other protein or molecule



Cycling of GTPase switch proteins between the active and inactive forms

Regulation of protein activity by kinase/phosphatase switch



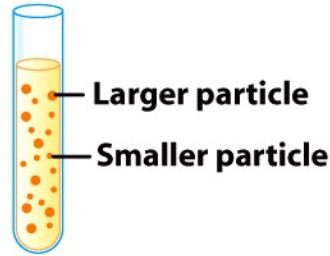
Purifying, detecting, and characterizing proteins

A protein must be purified to determine its structure and mechanism of action

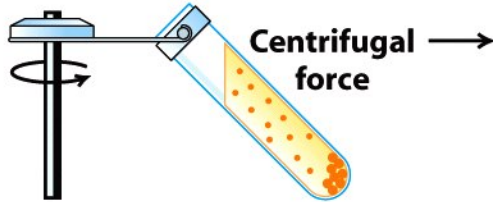
Molecules, including proteins, can be separated from other molecules based on differences in physical and chemical properties

(a) Differential centrifugation

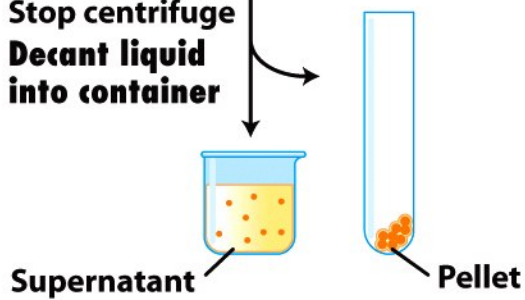
1 Sample is poured into tube



2 Centrifuge
Particles settle
according to
mass

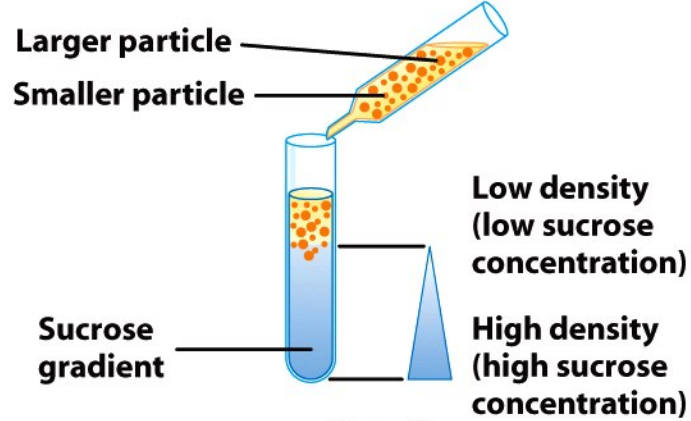


3 Stop centrifuge
Decant liquid
into container

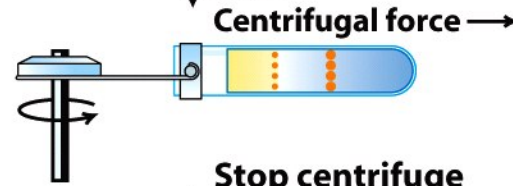


(b) Rate-zonal centrifugation

1 Sample is layered on top of density gradient



2 Centrifuge
Particles settle
according to
mass



3 Stop centrifuge
Collect fractions
and do assay

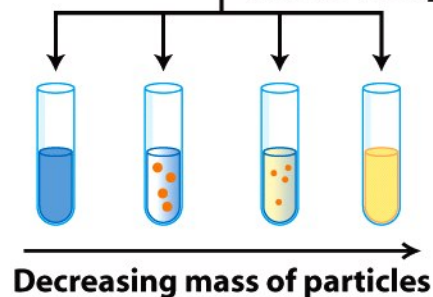
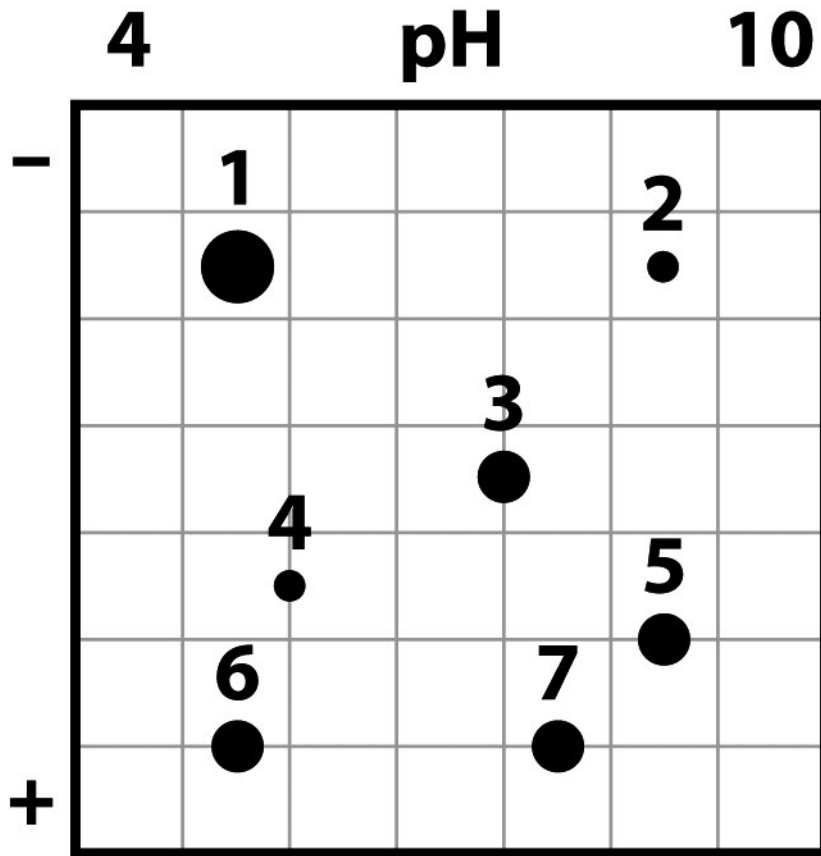
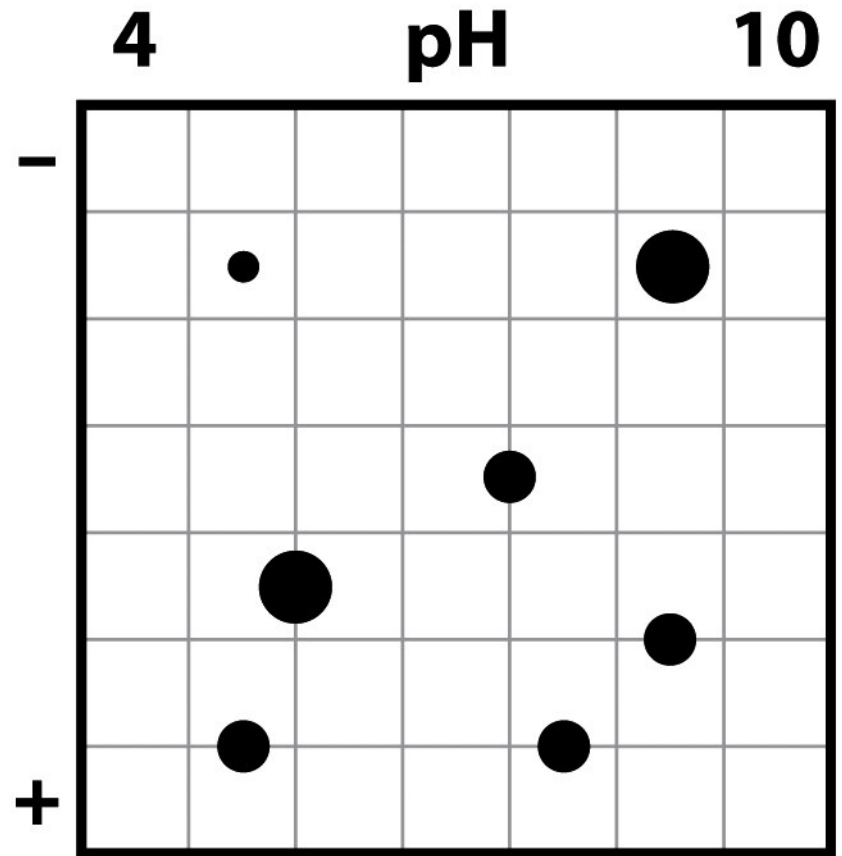


Figure 3-34
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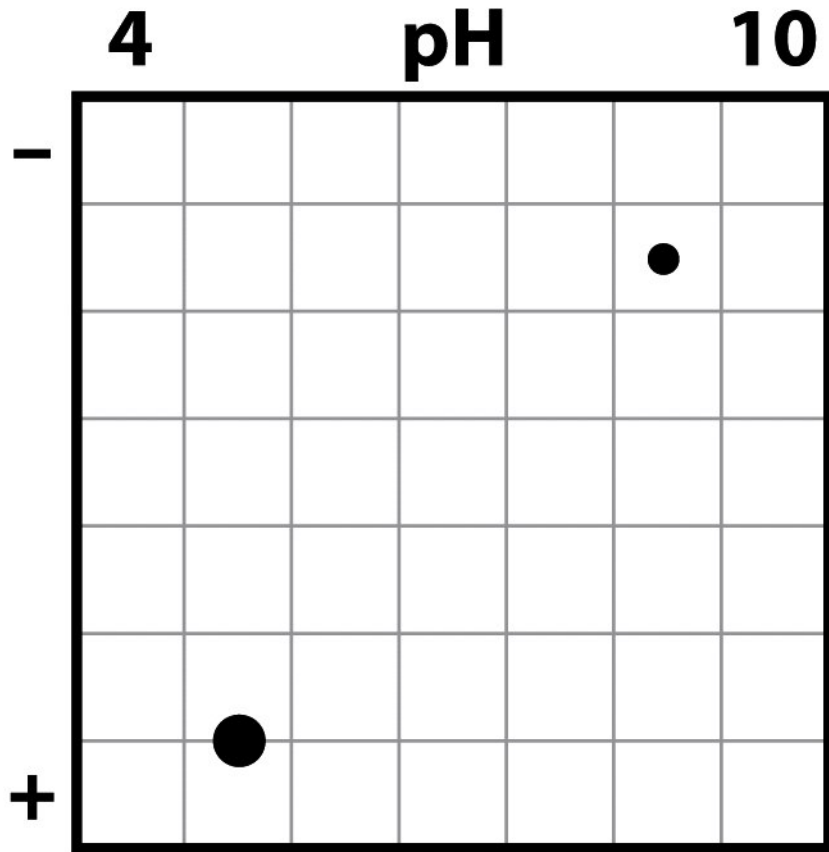
Control



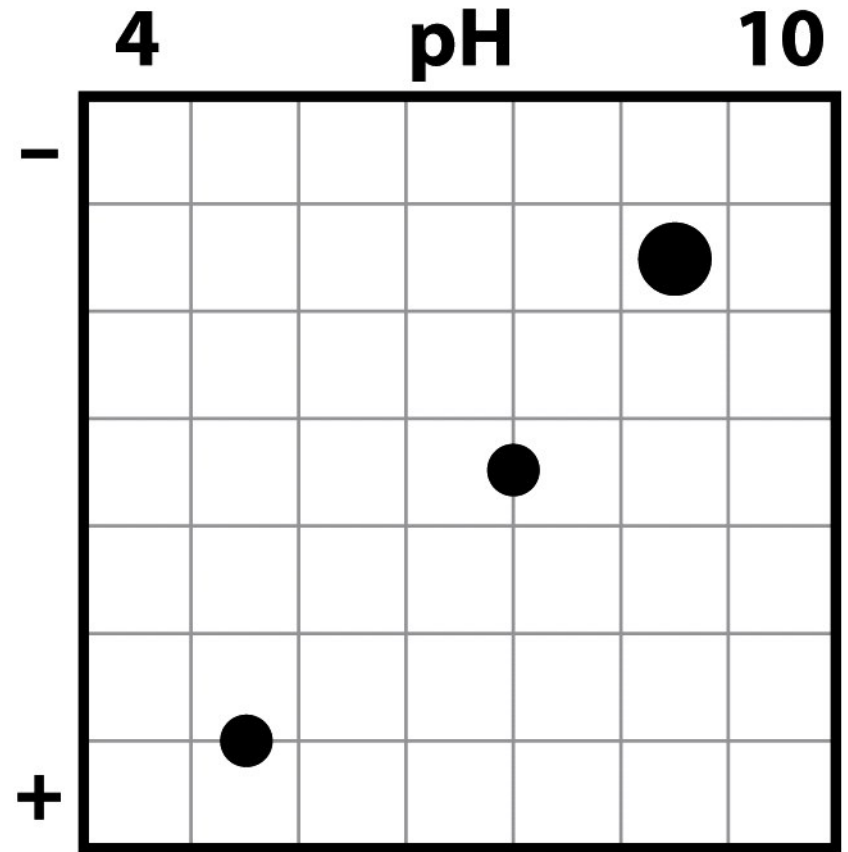
+ Drug



Control



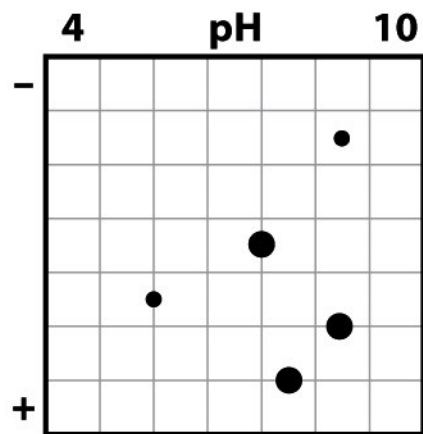
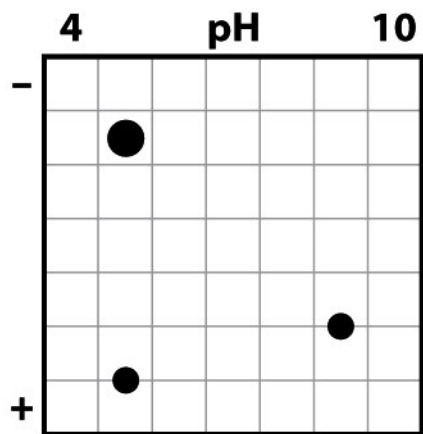
+ Drug



Control

Nuclear

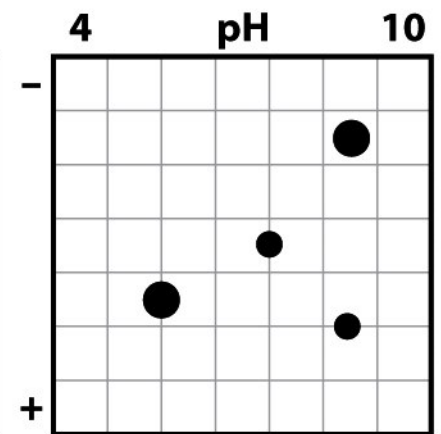
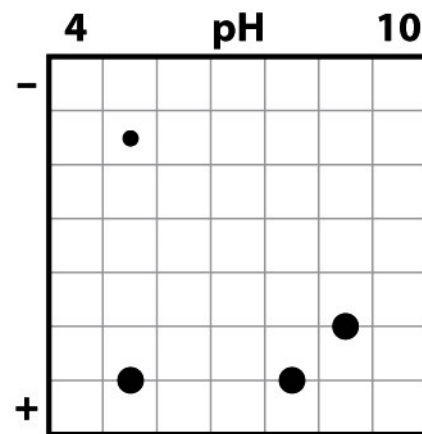
Cytoplasmic



+ Drug

Nuclear

Cytoplasmic



Analyze the Data 3-3

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