

APPLICATION CHEMISTRY:

CHEMISTRY OF LIFE

Proteins

By: Mr. Chan M.H., Lucas, edited by Lillian Lee

Proteins

- **Antibodies, enzymes and haemoglobin, are water-soluble molecules**
- **Collagen and keratin, are insoluble and aggregate to form very tough and resistant structures**
- Proteins make up 18% of the mass of the average person.
- Proteins are **unbranched polymer chains made by linking together large numbers** (from hundreds to several thousand) **of amino acid monomer units by peptide bonds.**
- Such chains are often referred to as polypeptide chains

Proteins

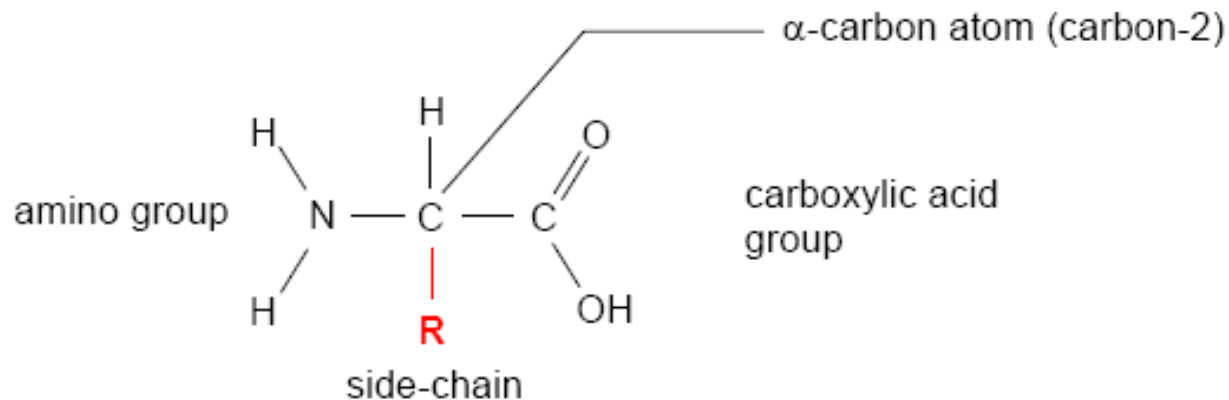
Table 1.1: Some proteins and their functions

Protein(s)	Function	Location
myosin ----- actin	muscle contraction	muscle tissue
chymotrypsin ----- pepsin	digestive enzymes	small intestine ----- stomach
insulin	hormone	blood
immunoglobulins	antibodies	blood
collagen ----- keratin	structural proteins	skin, tendon ----- hair
haemoglobin	transport	blood
ferritin	storage	bone marrow, liver, spleen

Amino Acids

- Protein chains are synthesized from **twenty different amino acids**.
- Nineteen of these molecules contain **two functional groups**: a **carboxylic acid group ($-\text{COOH}$)** and a **primary amino group ($-\text{NH}_2$)**.
- All have **one common feature**: the **two functional groups** are both attached to the same carbon atom

Amino Acids



- The **carbon atom of an acid group** is always **counted as the first in the structure**
- **Amino group** is always **attached to the second carbon atom (C-2)**
- This carbon atom is also sometimes known as the **α -carbon atom**
- These important molecules are therefore all 2-amino acids (or α -amino acids).

Amino Acids

- The 20 different amino acids that cells use to build proteins **differ in the nature of the R-group**
- Simplest, where R is **hydrogen atom** –
2-aminoethanoic acid (glycine)
- The **20 different amino acids** can usefully be categorized **into separate sub-groups according to the nature of the R-group**
- There are **three broad categories** depending on whether the **side-chain** group is **non-polar**, **polar**, or **can be ionised (charged)** under appropriate conditions

sub-group (based on type of R-group)	example	structure
non-polar	alanine (ala)	$ \begin{array}{c} \text{H} \\ \\ \text{NH}_2 - \text{C} - \text{COOH} \\ \\ \text{CH}_3 \end{array} $
	valine (val)	$ \begin{array}{c} \text{H} \\ \\ \text{NH}_2 - \text{C} - \text{COOH} \\ \\ \text{CH} \\ / \quad \backslash \\ \text{CH}_3 \quad \text{CH}_3 \end{array} $
polar	serine (ser)	$ \begin{array}{c} \text{H} \\ \\ \text{NH}_2 - \text{C} - \text{COOH} \\ \\ \text{CH}_2\text{OH} \end{array} $
sub-group (based on type of R-group)	example	structure
electrically-charged (acidic or basic side-chains)	aspartic acid (asp)	$ \begin{array}{c} \text{H} \\ \\ \text{NH}_2 - \text{C} - \text{COOH} \\ \\ \text{CH}_2\text{COOH} \end{array} $
	lysine (lys)	$ \begin{array}{c} \text{H} \\ \\ \text{NH}_2 - \text{C} - \text{COOH} \\ \\ (\text{CH}_2)_4\text{NH}_2 \end{array} $

Figure 1.9 – examples of the 20 different amino acids found in proteins

Ionisation of Amino Acids

- Amino acid molecule – **amphoteric**
- X-ray crystallography of crystalline amino acids has shown that amino acids exist in the **zwitterionic** form in the solid.
- Physical properties characteristic of ionic compounds: **white solids** that are **soluble** in **water**.

Ionisation of Amino Acids

- Amino acids such as **glycine or alanine**, with **non-polar R-groups**, will have **no net charge at pH 7** (overall charge = 0)
- **Aspartic acid** will have an **overall charge of -1** because of the additional **acid group** in its side-chain.
- These **differences in charge** can be **used to separate amino acids** by **electrophoresis** or **ion exchange chromatography**.

Amino Acids

- The nature of the R-groups in these amino acids is of crucial importance.
- Once the amino acids have condensed together to form a **polypeptide chain**, the **R-group is the remaining feature of a particular amino acid** which is still distinctive.
- **Interactions between the different R-groups** profoundly **influence the folding of the polypeptide chain**, and hence the **shape of the final protein**.

Structure

Condensation Polymerisation of amino acids

- When many amino acids react to form a polymer they produce a condensation polymer – a protein (or polypeptide chain).

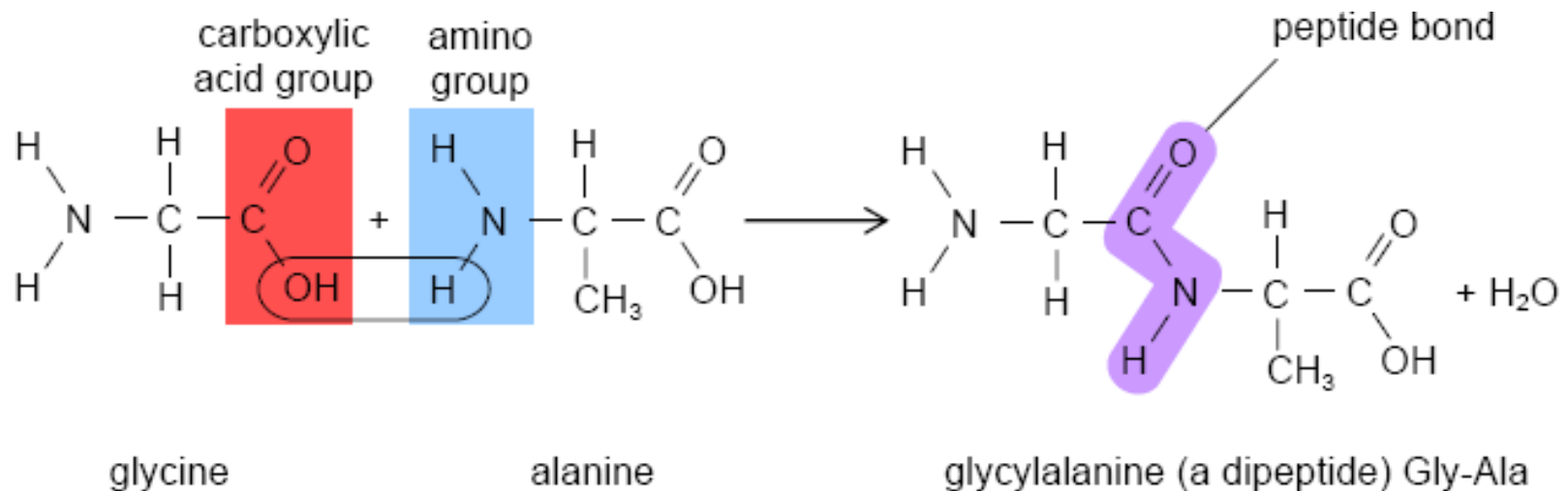


Figure 1.10 – Diagram showing the formation of a gly-ala dipeptide

- Additional amino acids can react with the dipeptide to form first a tripeptide and then eventually a polypeptide. In this way a protein can be put together.

Structure

Condensation Polymerisation of amino acids

- The **peptide bond consists of** the group **–CONH–** in which the four atoms lie in one plane, with all **bond angles being about 120°**.
- *Biochem pg 12*
- Each protein chain is a linear polymer built from its own unique selection from the amino acid pool.
- The sequence is genetically determined and characterizes that particular protein.

Structure

Condensation Polymerisation of amino acids

- The structure of a single protein chain in its functional form can be considered on three levels:
 - **Primary structure** – the **sequence of amino acids in a polypeptide chain** – the direct product of the coding sequence in the gene.
 - **Secondary structure** – regular structural arrangements of the polypeptide chain that result from **hydrogen-bonding between peptide bond** regions of the chain.
 - **Tertiary structure** – the **overall folding of a polypeptide** chain that arises from **interactions** between the amino acid **side-chains**.

Primary Structure

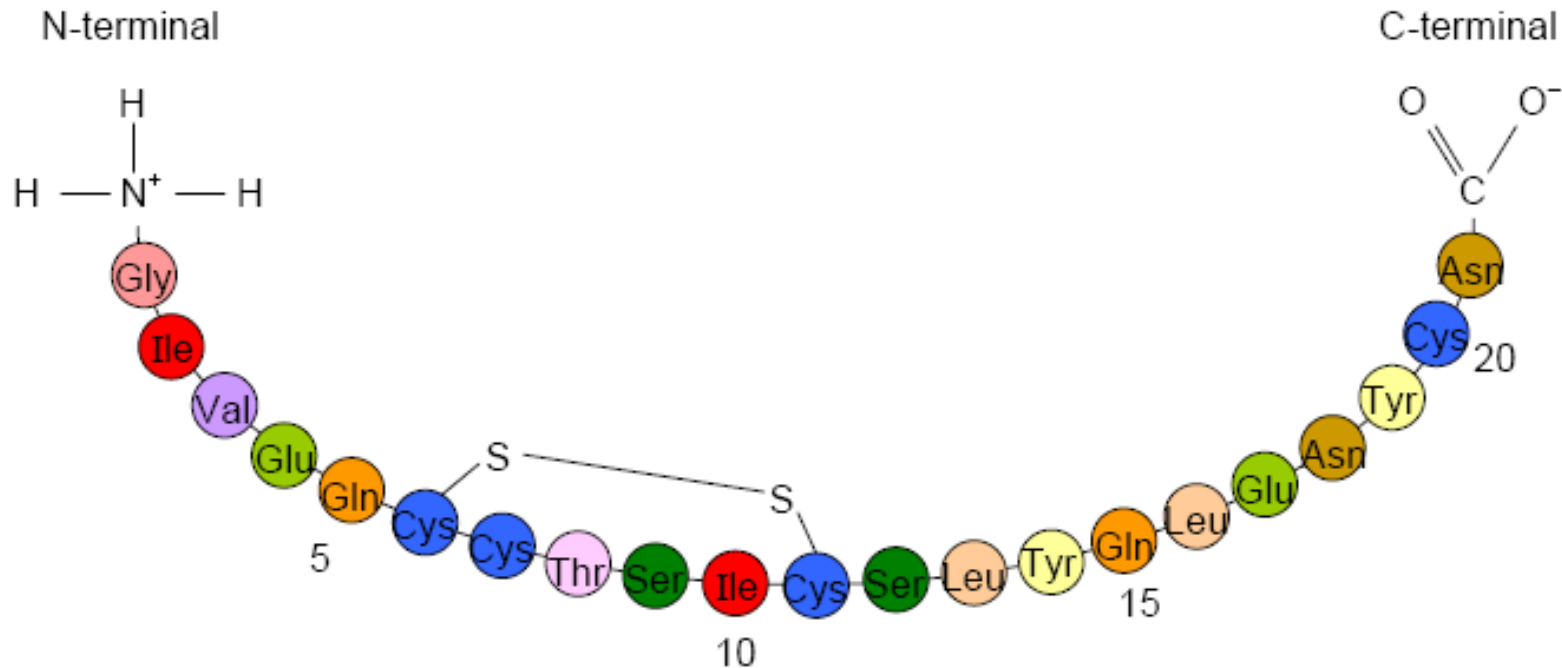


Figure 1.11 – The primary sequence of the insulin A chain, a short polypeptide of 21 amino acids

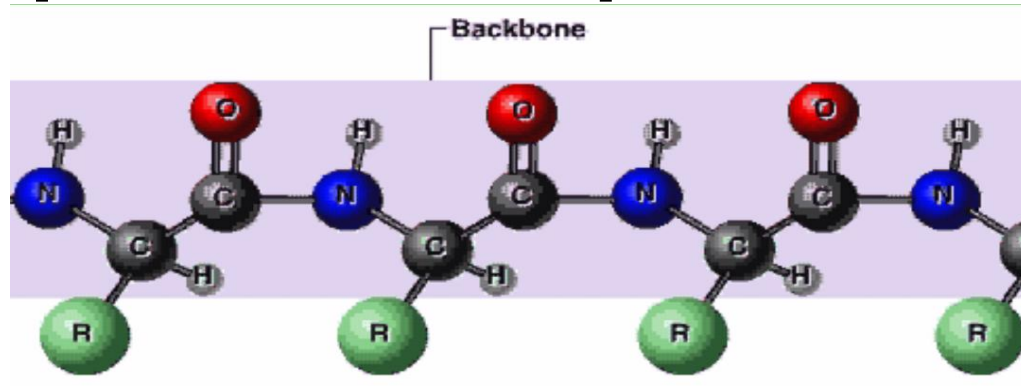
- **Each polypeptide chain is a linear polymer of amino acids** and as such has an amino- (or N-) terminal end and a carboxy- (or C-)terminal end

Primary Structure

- Each polypeptide has direction and the sequence of amino acid residues in a chain is known as the primary structure of the polypeptide.
- In the cell, a **polypeptide chain is always synthesized from the N-terminal end to the C-terminal end.**
- when writing out the primary sequence of a polypeptide chain the **amino acids are numbered from the N-terminal end.**
- Primary structure of a polypeptide chain is **genetically controlled**
- the positions of any **cysteine** residues, will determine the possible formation of **disulphide bridges** to stabilise the **3D-tertiary** structure of the protein.

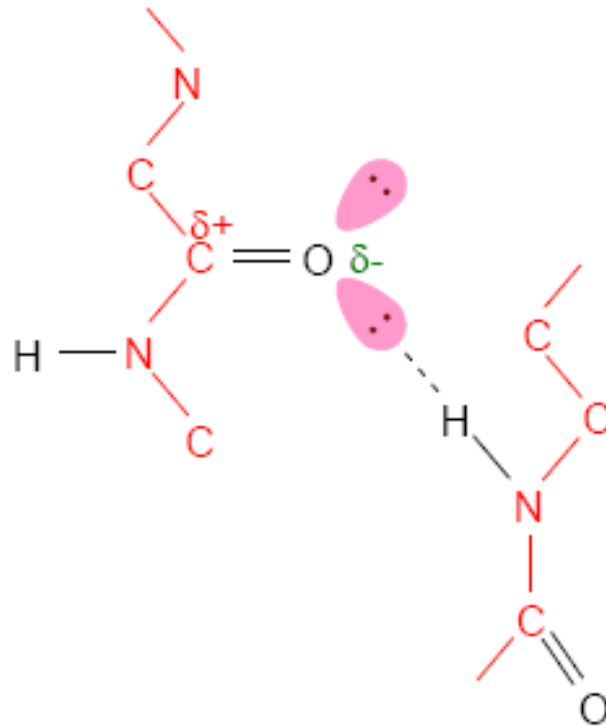
Secondary Structure

- Each polypeptide has a 'backbone'
- This backbone is essentially the same for all protein chains [-C-C-N-C-C-N- etc].



- Polypeptide **backbone** is flexible and in certain **regions** of the **protein** can fold in a regular manner, known as **secondary structure**.
- These **structures** are **stabilized by hydrogen bonding** between the peptide bond regions of the chain's backbone.

Secondary Structure

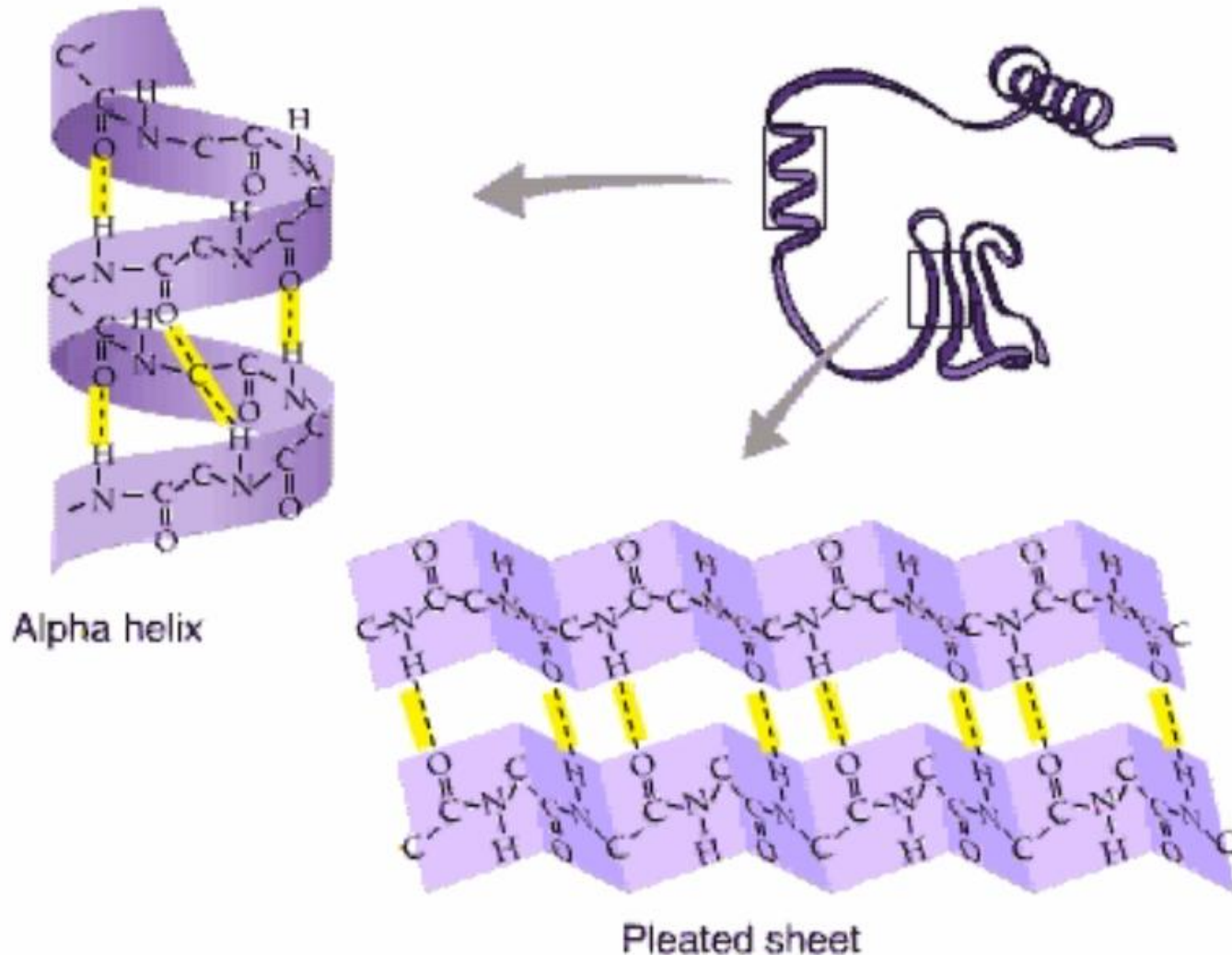


- Collectively this level of structural organisation is known as secondary structure.

Secondary Structure

- Two of the most stable arrangements at this level of protein folding are the **α -helix** and the **β -pleated sheet**.
- In both these structures the chain folds on itself in a very stable arrangement because of the many hydrogen bonds formed between adjacent peptide bond regions.

Secondary Structure



Tertiary Structure

- **Interactions between the R-groups** of the different amino acid residues in a protein chain
- The **three-dimensional shape** or conformation of a protein chain is **maintained by** a series of mainly **non-covalent, intramolecular interactions between the R-groups of the amino acids making the chain.**
- The chemical nature of the different R-groups becomes particularly significant.

Tertiary Structure

- Some of these interactions are relatively easily disrupted, others not so, and include:
 - **van der Waals' forces** between *non-polar* side-chains,
 - **hydrogen bonding** between *polar* R-groups,
 - **ionic bonds** (salt bridges) between *ionised* R-groups, and
 - **covalent disulphide bridges** formed between *cysteine* residues at different locations in the primary sequence (Figure 1.15)

Tertiary Structure

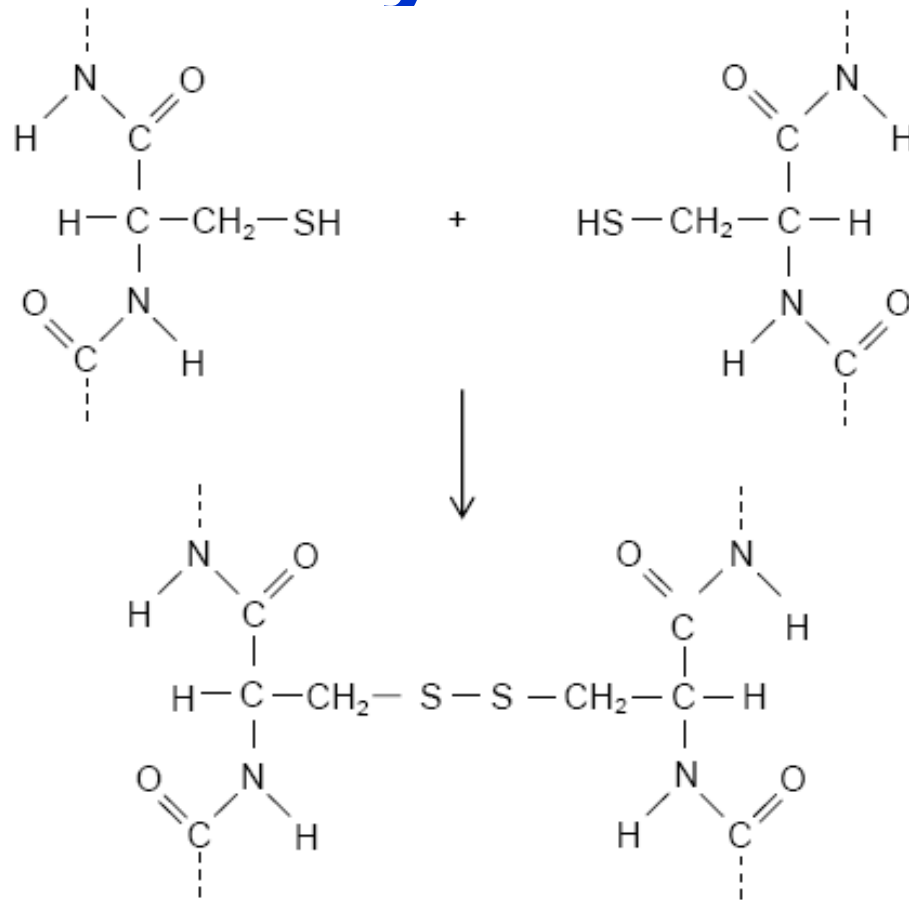


Figure 1.15 – diagram showing the formation of a disulphide bridge

Because of their covalent nature disulphide bonds can have the effect of **locking** a particular tertiary structure in place.

Tertiary Structure

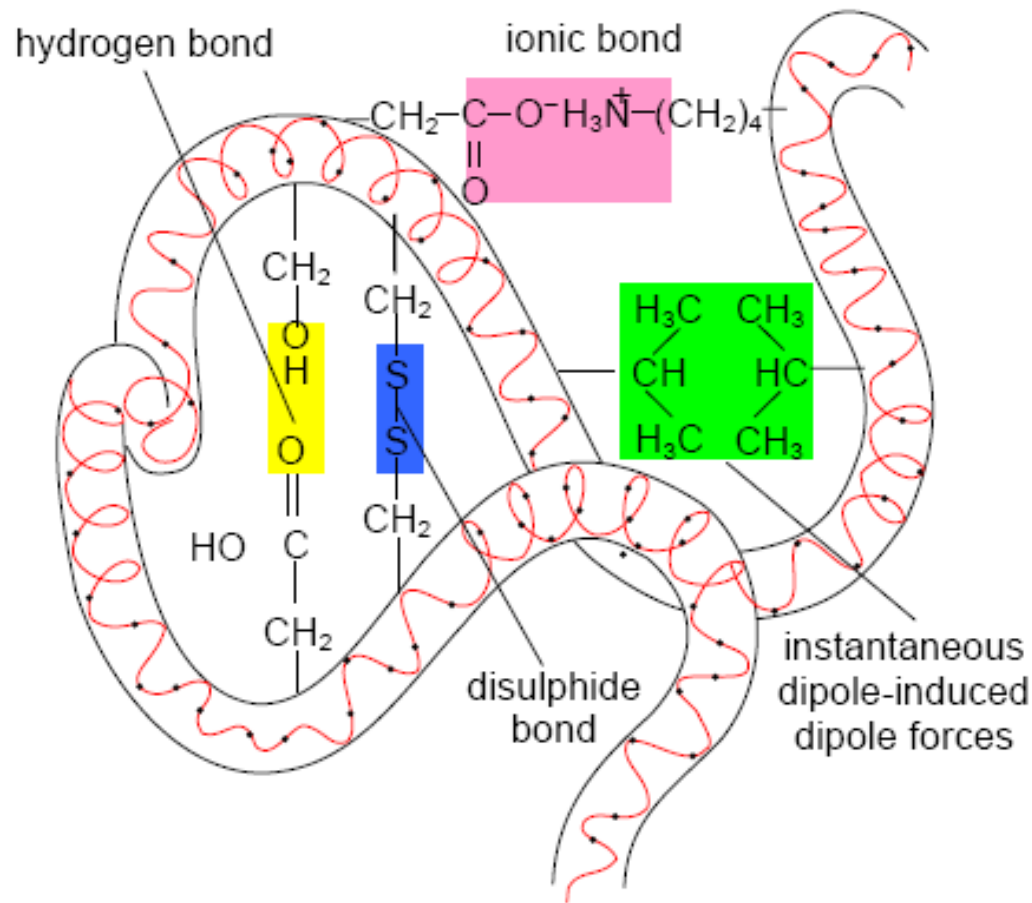


Figure 1.16 – diagram illustrating the nature of the interactions responsible for protein tertiary structure

Haemoglobin

- **Consists of two pairs of identical protein chains** (subunits) known as **α - and β -chains**. (quaternary structure)
- These assemble together to form the functional, oxygen-carrying protein in our red blood cells (Figure 1.17).
- The human globin α - and β -chains are different polypeptide chains coded for by different genes.
- When folded, each of the globin chains has a high degree (about 70%) of **α -helical** secondary structure.

Haemoglobin

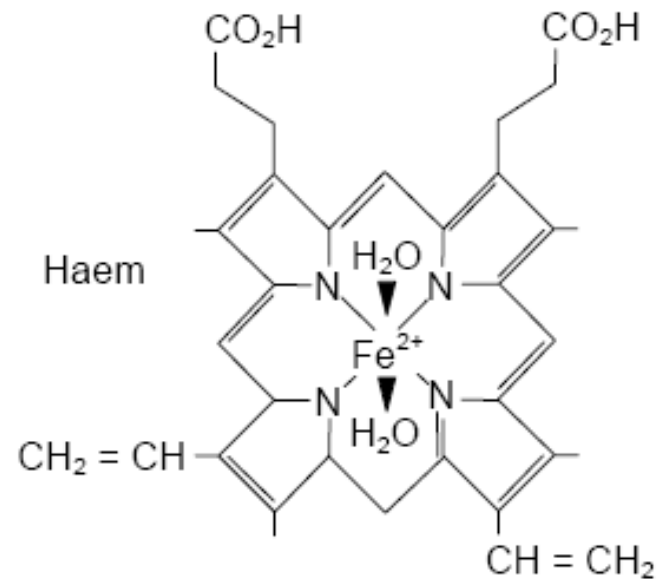
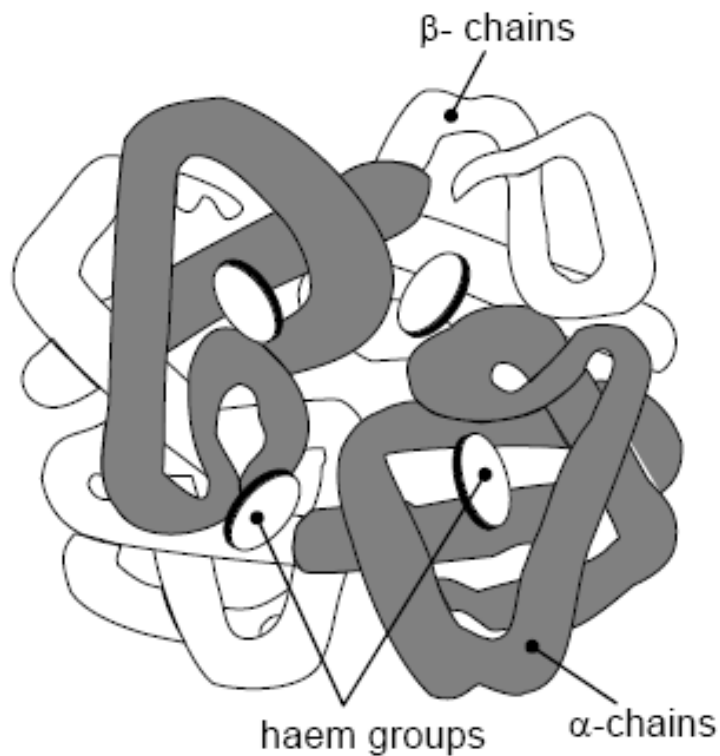


Figure 1.17 – (a) the structure of haemoglobin showing the α and β chains;
(b) the structure of the haem group.

Haemoglobin

- Each of the protein subunits in one molecule is also bound to a non-protein **haem group** containing an iron(II) ion (**Fe²⁺**).
- The **iron(II) ions** in the haem groups **bind oxygen** and enable the molecules to perform their function of transporting oxygen around the body.
- The non-covalent interactions similar to those involved in tertiary structure bind these haem groups in place in the structure.

Haemoglobin

- Overall structure of the whole molecule changes as oxygen binds to the haem groups.
- There is a favoured sequence for the attachment and detachment of oxygen from the molecule.
- Either all four subunits have oxygen attached to their haem groups, or none of them do.

Denaturation of protein

- Denaturation → disruption of protein structure.
- Weaker interactions that holds the shape of the protein is disrupted.
- Protein losses its unique 3-D shape.
- 4 factors :
 - 1) pH of solution
 - 2) Temperature
 - 3) Chemicals

Change in pH

- Drastic change in pH can alter the **protonation** or **ionisation** of R groups.

- Eg :

At low pH: - COO^-
 - NH_2

At high pH : - COOH
 - NH_3^+

- Everyday example :

Curdling of milk protein when milk turns sour or mixed with vinegar.

Temperature

- Increase temperature gives molecules more energy.
- → **increase vibrational motion** of molecules
- → weak interactions (such as **van der Waal's forces**) that holds the 3D shape of the molecules are disrupted.
- Irreversible denaturation occurs when secondary and tertiary structure are disrupted to produce random coils.
- The chains are so unraveled that they tangle with each other (occurs between 60 – 70°C).
- E.g : Eggs turned solid when cooked.

Chemical denaturation

a) **Metal ions**

- Disrupts **ionic interactions**
- E.g :

b) **Urea**

- **Urea denatures proteins by disrupting the hydrogen bonds** that maintain the secondary and tertiary structure of proteins.