

## AMINO ACIDS: TOPIC ONE

- Side Chains

- hydrophobic: A, V, I, L, M, F, Y, W
- hydrophilic: R, H, K, D, E, S, T, N, Q  
 + charge - charge      polar  
 uncharged

- borderline: G, P, C, U

- amphipathic (in addition to other property): M, Y, K

- Transfer Free Energy

- measures preference of solubility in water compared to nonpolar solvent

$$\rightarrow K = \frac{[X]_{H_2O}}{[X]_{org}} \rightarrow \Delta G_{tr}^{\circ} = \mu_{org}^{\circ} - \mu_{H_2O}^{\circ} = -RT \ln K$$

$\rightarrow \Delta G_{tr}^{\circ} > 0 \Rightarrow$  hydrophobic

$\rightarrow \Delta G_{tr}^{\circ} < 0 \Rightarrow$  hydrophilic

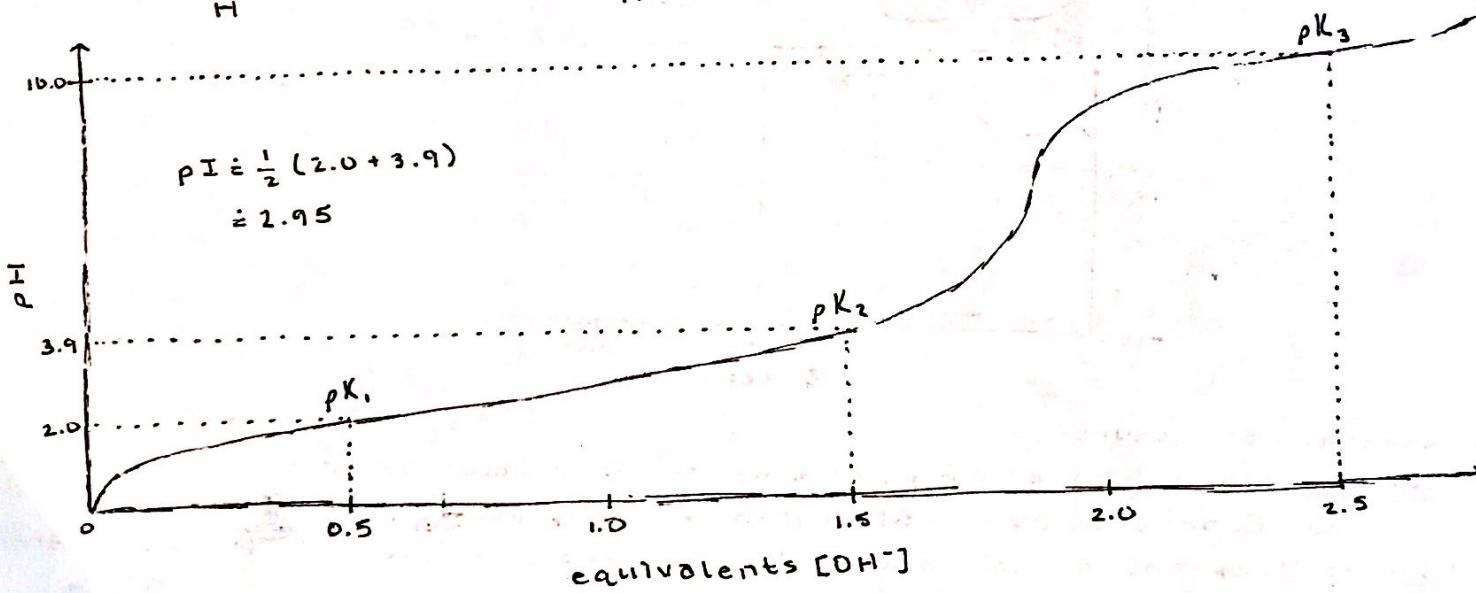
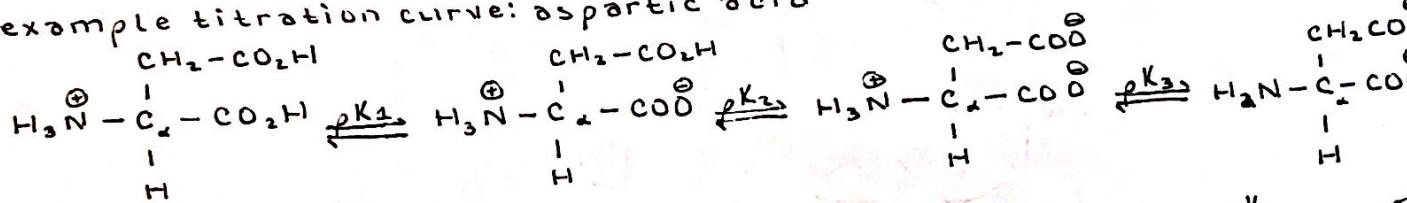
- correlated w/ solvent-accessible surface area + aliphaticity

- Equivalence Point + Titrations

- $pI = \frac{1}{2} (\rho K_1 + \rho K_2)$

$\rightarrow$  stands for isoelectric point (when zwitterion is dominant)

- example titration curve: aspartic acid



- $pK_a$  Protein Value Influences

- 1) dielectric constant

- charged residue in hydrophobic interior protein cavity (lower  $\ggg$  dielectric constant)
- charged residue exterior to protein + exposed to aqueous environment (higher dielectric constant)

- 2) charge-charge/salt bridge interactions

- interactions present  $\ggg$  no interactions present

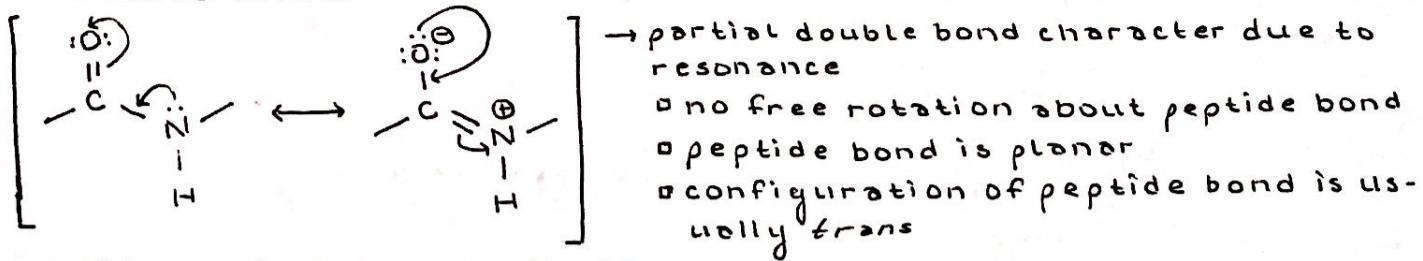
- 3) hydrogen bonding

- H-bond donor  $\ggg$  H-bond acceptor

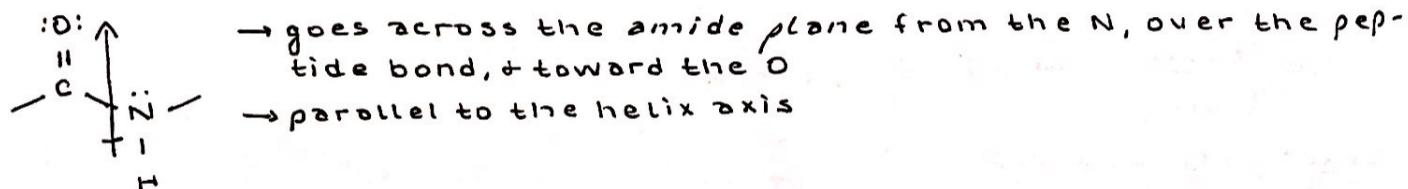
## PROTEIN STRUCTURE: TOPIC TWO

### • Amide Group + Peptide Bond

- resonance forms

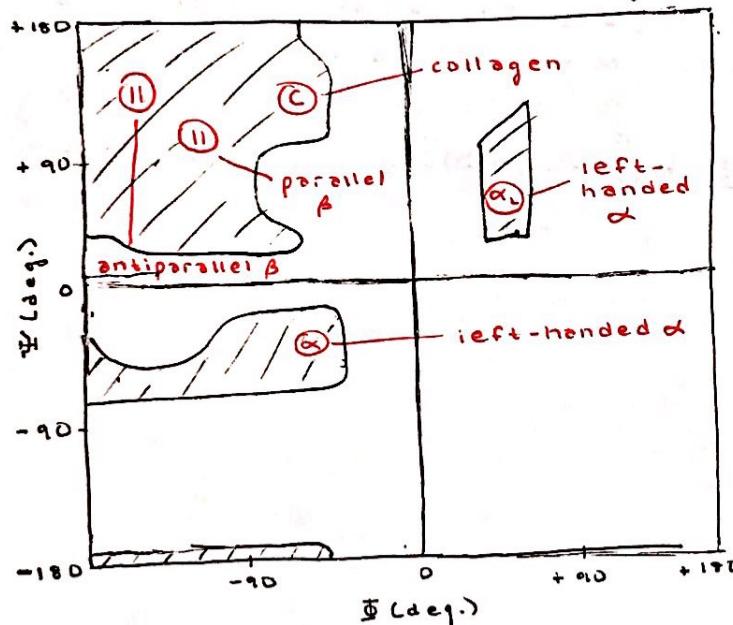


- peptide bond possesses a dipole



### dihedral angles

→  $\Psi$ : N-C<sub>α</sub>-C-N dihedral angle } only certain combinations are allowed due to steric hindrance;  
 →  $\Phi$ : C-N-C<sub>α</sub>-C dihedral angle } shown by Ramachandran plot



### • Secondary Structures

- $\alpha$ -helix: right-handed 3.6<sub>13</sub> helix w/ 1.5 Å transition per residue  
 → H-bonds between C=O of  $\alpha\beta_i$  + N-H of  $\alpha\beta_{i+4}$  along helical axis
- $\beta$ -sheet: extended chain segment stabilized by H-bonds between peptides on adjacent strands  
 → can be parallel or antiparallel
- $\beta$ -bend: short loop often joining antiparallel  $\beta$ -sheet strands  
 → Type I is slightly less open (carbonyl projects inward)  
 → Type II is slightly more open (carbonyl projects outward)
- four main supersecondary structural motifs  
 1)  $\beta\alpha\beta$  motif 2)  $\beta$ -hairpins 3)  $\alpha$ -helix bundles 4) Greek key motif

### • Four Protein Fold Classes

- 1)  $\alpha$ -proteins: symmetric arrangement around hydrophobic core
- 2)  $\beta$ -proteins: strands linked by loops + turns
- 3)  $\alpha+\beta$  proteins: well-separated  $\alpha$ -helices +  $\beta$ -strands
- 4)  $\alpha/\beta$  proteins: alternating  $\alpha$ -helices +  $\beta$ -strands

## NON-COVALENT INTERACTIONS: TOPIC THREE

### • Coulombic Interactions

#### ◦ force + interaction energy formulas

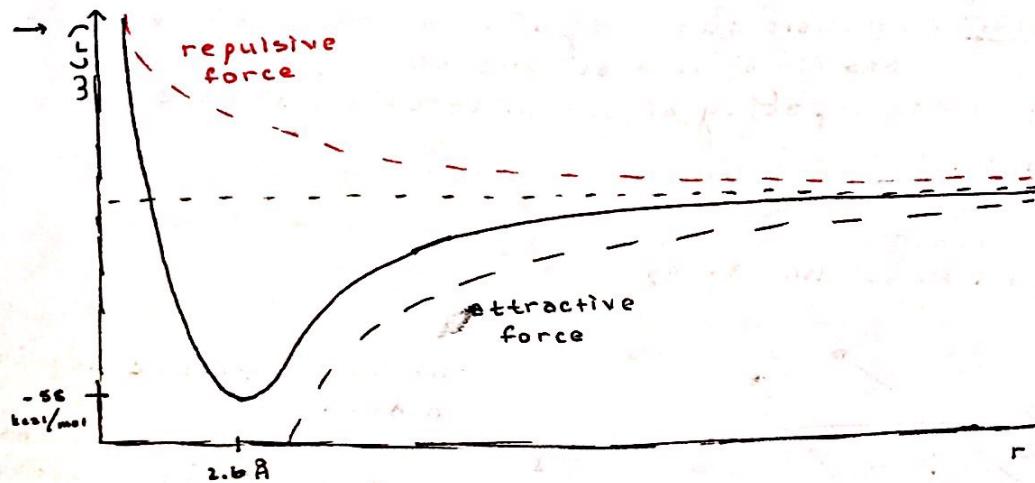
$$\rightarrow F = \frac{q_1 q_2}{4\pi \epsilon_0 \epsilon_r r^2} = \frac{z_1 z_2 e^2}{4\pi \epsilon_0 \epsilon_r r^2} \quad \rightarrow w(r) = \frac{z_1 z_2 e^2}{4\pi \epsilon_0 \epsilon_r r}$$

→ Bjerrum length: distance at which  $w(r) = kT$ ; symbol is  $\beta$   
◦ abundant in proteins along w/ ion-dipole interactions

### • Hydrogen Bonding

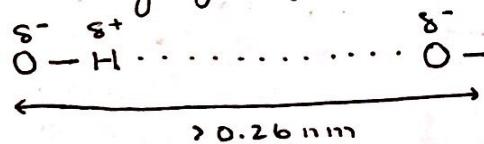
#### ◦ energy of hydrogen bond

$$\rightarrow w(r) = \frac{M_1 M_2}{2\pi \epsilon_0 \epsilon_r r^3}$$

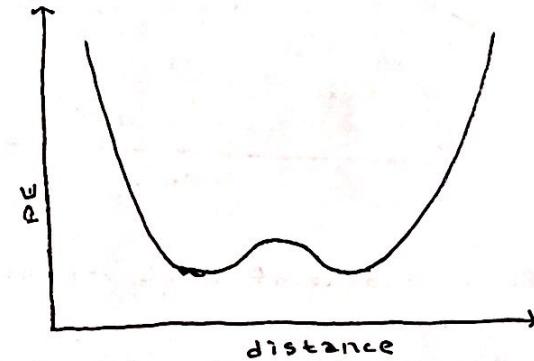
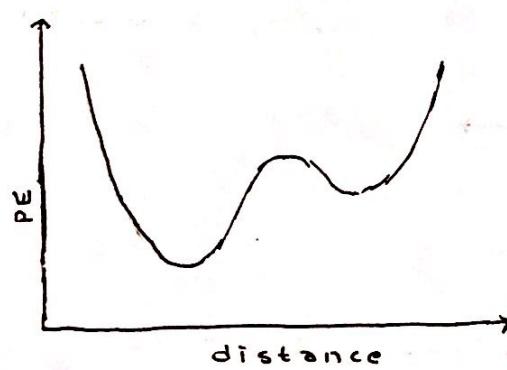
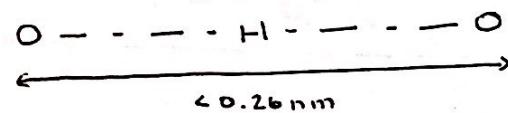


#### ◦ two types of hydrogen bonding

##### 1) ordinary hydrogen bond (OHB)



##### 2) low-barrier hydrogen bond (LBHB)



#### → LBHB formation requirements

- (i) matching donor + acceptor pKa
- (ii) short donor-acceptor distance
- (iii) exclusion of H2O

→ LBHB lower the activation energy barrier for formation of E·P complex

## HYDROPHOBIC EFFECT: TOPIC FOUR

• Hydrophobic Effect: interaction between molecules insoluble in water resulting in association of said molecules via reorganization of water

- is an entropic effect

- ordered water molecules called *Flickering clusters* surround water-insoluble molecules

- amount of these clusters is proportional to SASA of the amino acid residue(s)

• Heat Capacity Definitions

- heat capacity: amt. heat needed to raise the temperature of a substance by 1K

- specific heat capacity: intrinsic quantity of heat capacity per unit mass (in g) of a substance

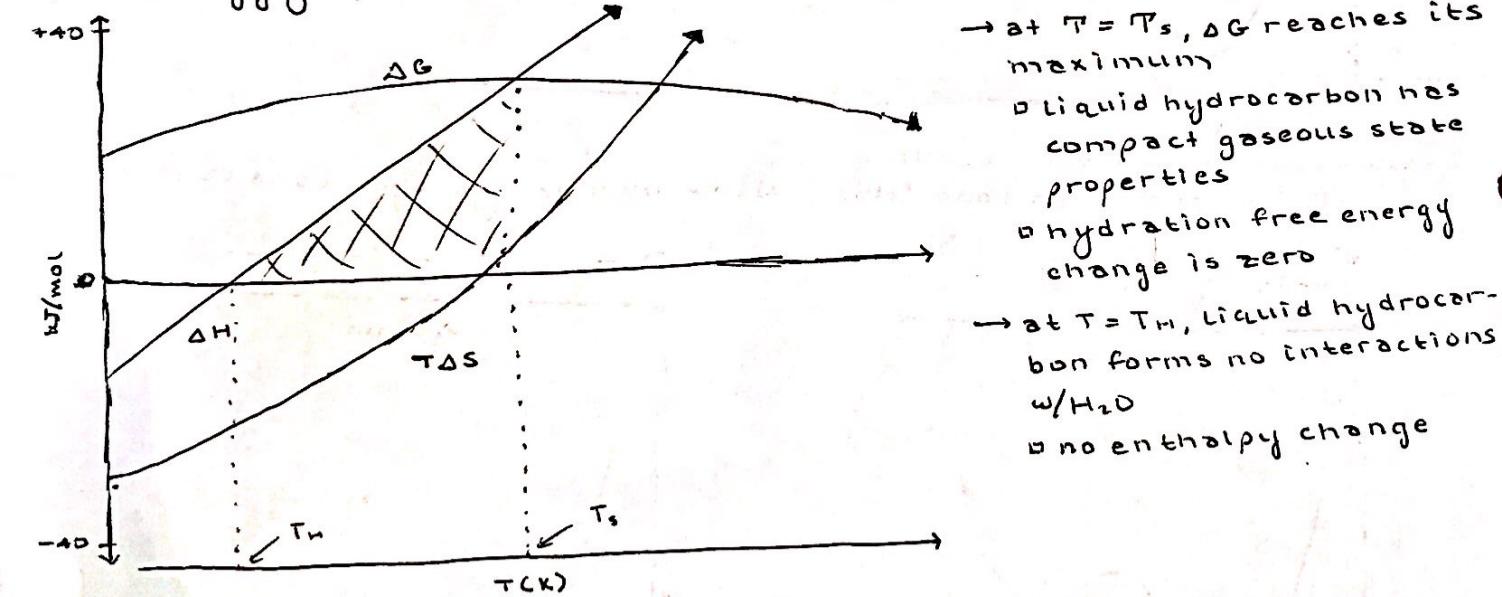
- molar heat capacity: heat capacity of one mole of substance

• Liquid Hydrocarbon Model

- steps

- 1) create a cavity in water
- 2) add liquid hydrocarbon to the cavity

- free energy graph



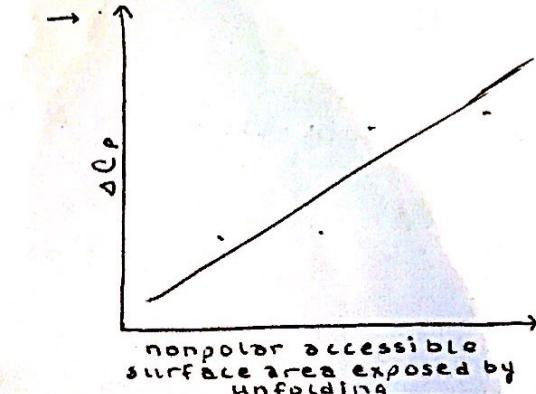
•  $\Delta C_p$

- arises from folding of most proteins

- formulas

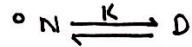
$$\Delta H(T_2) - \Delta H(T_1) = \Delta C_p(T_2 - T_1) \quad \Delta S(T_2) - \Delta S(T_1) = \Delta C_p \ln(T_2/T_1)$$

- correlates w/SASA



## ABSORPTION + OPTICAL SPEC. AND VAN'T HOFF: TOPIC FIVE

### \* TWO-STATE Protein Denaturation



$$\rightarrow K = \frac{[D]}{[N]} = \frac{f_0}{f_n} \quad \rightarrow f_n + f_0 = 1$$

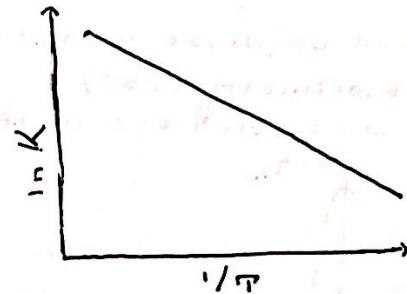
→ derivation of van't Hoff equation

$$\Delta G^\circ = -RT \ln K$$

$$\Delta H^\circ - T\Delta S^\circ = -RT \ln K$$

$$-\ln K = \frac{\Delta H^\circ}{RT} - \frac{T\Delta S^\circ}{R}$$

$$\ln K = \frac{\Delta H^\circ}{R} \left( \frac{1}{T} \right) + \frac{\Delta S^\circ}{R}$$



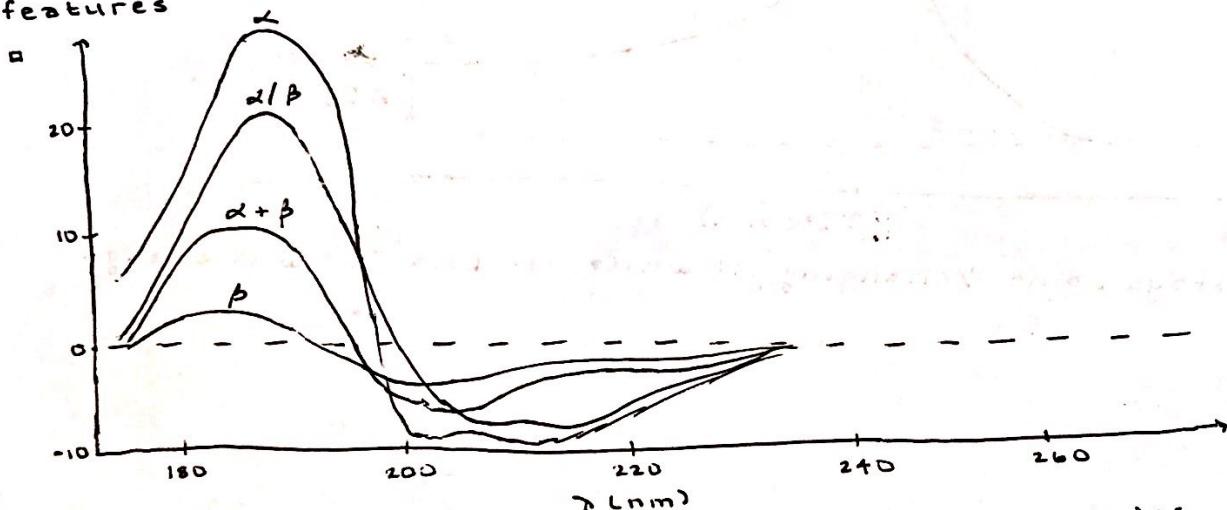
$$\text{slope} = -\frac{\Delta H^\circ}{R}$$

$$\text{int.} = \frac{\Delta S^\circ}{R}$$

### \* Circular Dichroism (CD) spectroscopy

utilizes circularly polarized EM radiation

→ different secondary structures give rise to characteristic spectra features



can be used to monitor thermal denaturation of proteins

## DSC: TOPIC SIX

### C<sub>p</sub> + C<sub>v</sub> Relation

#### formula

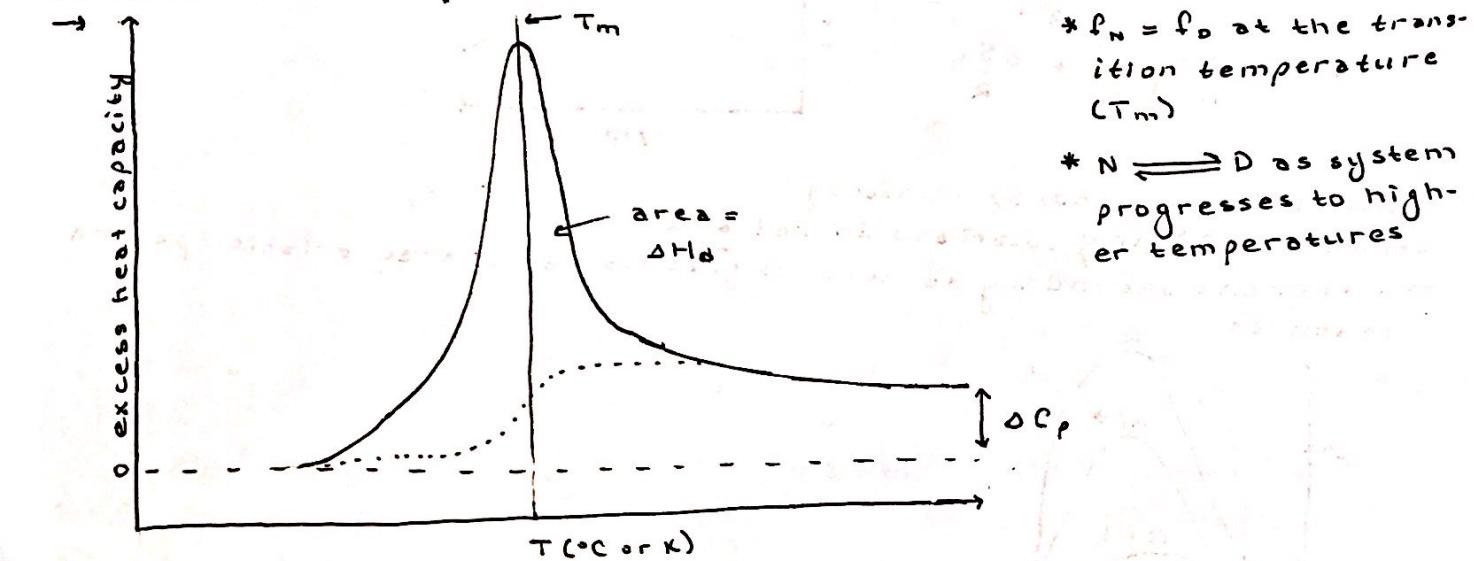
$$\rightarrow C_p = C_v + \gamma T (\alpha^2 / \beta_m)$$

• C<sub>p</sub> is easier to measure for solids & liquids (difficult to maintain constant volume)

→ discontinuities occur at phase transitions

### Differential Scanning Calorimetry (DSC)

• two-state unfolding transition for protein



\*  $f_n = f_o$  at the transition temperature ( $T_m$ )

\*  $N \rightleftharpoons D$  as system progresses to higher temperatures

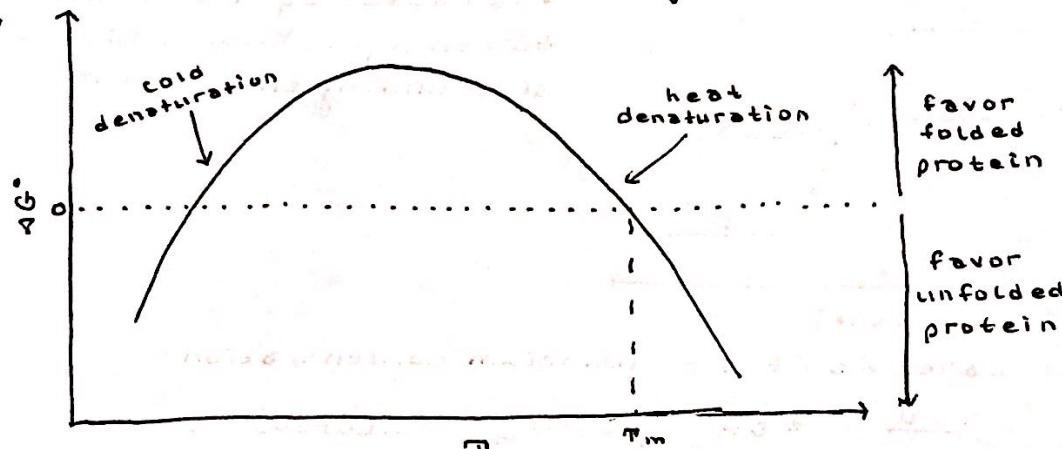
→  $\Delta C_p$  stays same w/changing pH while  $\Delta H^\circ$  (via  $T_m$ ) will change

## • Denaturation

◦  $K_D$  can be altered by

→ temperature → pressure

→ denaturants

◦ there is a maximum  $\Delta G^\circ$  for many protein denaturations

\*  $\Delta H$  dominates at low temp. due to energetically favorable solvation of nonpolar group

\*  $\Delta S$  dominates at high temp. due to greater configurational entropy + low  $\Delta G_p$  from hydrophobic interactions

## • Factors Influencing Protein Stability

## ◦ hydrogen bonding

→ lack of internal H-bond is generally destabilizing to native state  
    ▫ advantage to unfolding + forming one

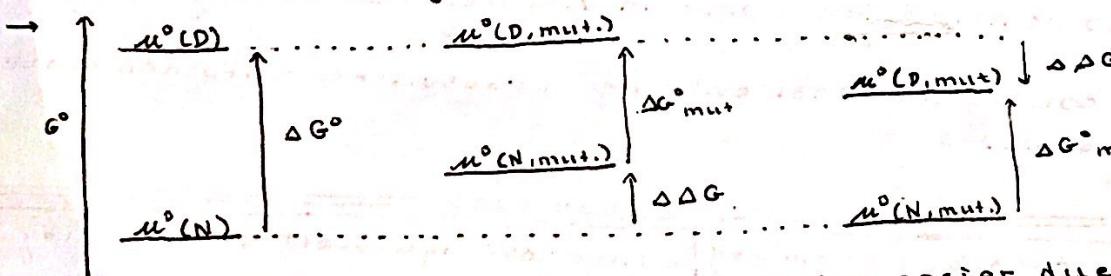
## ◦ electrostatic interactions

→ ion/ion pairs inside of protein are generally destabilizing due to high energetic cost of dehydration  
→ ion/ion pairs on surface can be stabilizing due to ion-dipole interactions w/ solvent

## ◦ disulfide bonds

→ reducing them generally further destabilizes the denatured state  
    ▫ makes folding more thermodynamically favorable

## • Mutation + Mutation Studies

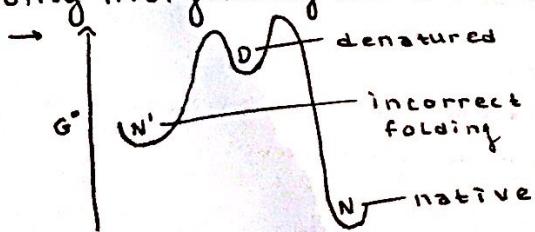
◦ mutations can change  $\Delta G$  of native or denatured state

→ increasing loop size makes denaturation easier due to greater configurational entropy

$$\Delta S_{\text{conf}} = -2.1 - \frac{3}{2} \ln n$$

## • Globular Proteins

◦ only marginally more stable than denatured state



1) if  $\Delta G$  is too big

▫ globular protein may be too non-flexible

▫ can get trapped in improperly folded form

2) if  $\Delta G$  is too small

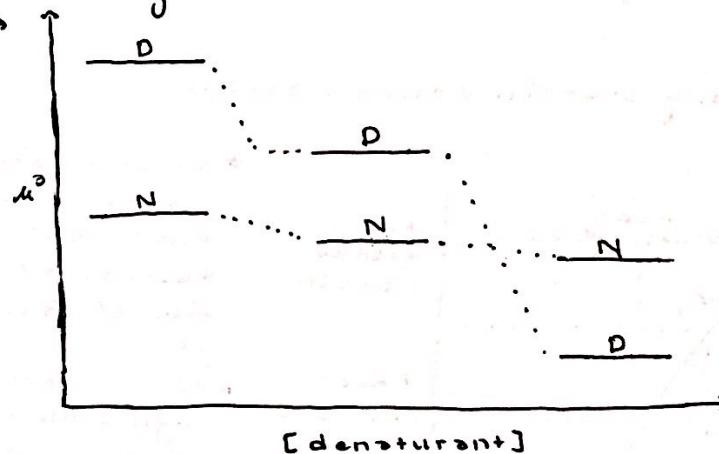
▫ too susceptible to unfolding

▫ proteolytically unstable

## PROTEIN STABILITY & FOLDING THERMODYNAMICS: TOPIC EIGHT

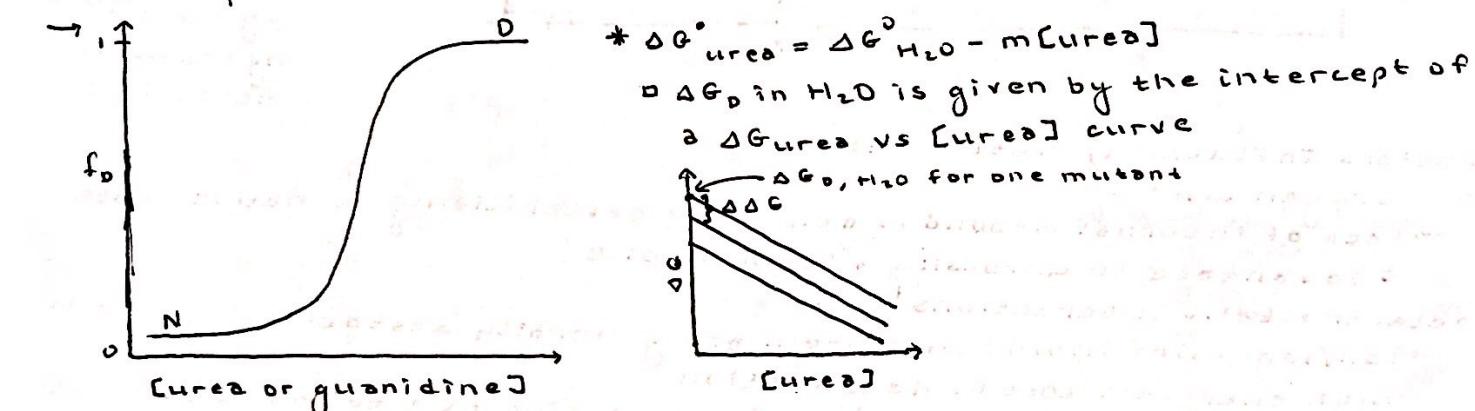
- Effects of Denaturant Concentration

- can change the conformational preference



\*  $N \leftarrow D$  to  $D \leftarrow N$  switch called differential stabilization (lower  $T_m$ )  
+ is caused by interaction between hydrophobic residues & the surrounding environment

- binds in place of water & shifts equilibrium concentration



- Stabilizers + Precipitins

- two mechanisms of action

- 1) increase surface tension
  - increasing surface tension of  $H_2O$  increases the stability of the native protein by destabilizing the denatured state more (greater surface area)
- 2) excluded volume effects
  - shell of  $H_2O$  removed from protein vicinity due to higher cosolvent preference
  - decreases configurational entropy & destabilizes unfolded state

- Kosmotropes + Chaotropes

- property chart

kosmotropes =	chaotropes =
1) decrease hydrocarbon stability in water 2) salt-out proteins 3) stabilize ordered structures 4) protein subunit association	1) increase hydrocarbon solubility in water 2) salt-in proteins 3) denature biopolymers 4) cause dissociation of protein subunits

- distinguishing them

- $\Delta S_{\pi}$  is a function of ionic/charge radius
- smaller ions tend to be kosmotropes & larger ions chaotropes
- optimize solubility & solvent separation of ions in pairs

## PROTEIN FOLDING KINETICS: TOPIC NINE

### • Factors Determining 3D Protein Structure

1) "programming" from cellular machinery

→ Anfinsen Expt.: showed all information needed to define folded/native state is contained in the AA sequence

also showed native state is thermodynamically most stable

2) assistance in structural formation

→ folding pathways: proteins fold down a "folding funnel" toward the most stable/native state

fewer states are accessible as folding progresses

help is needed to avoid low-lying "traps" and intermediates

partially folded proteins can associate + aggregate into even more stable aggregates/oligomers/etc.

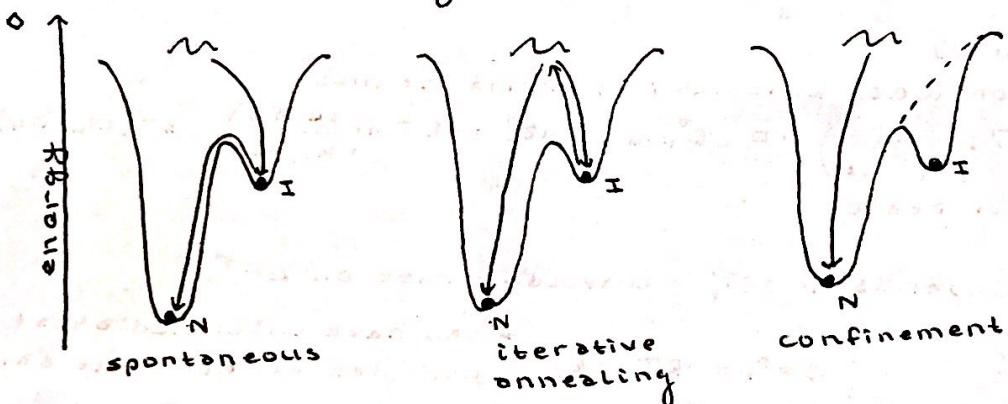
often biological consequences

→ chaperonins: proteins aiding in proper folding pathway of a protein

can increase folding rate

can decrease configurational entropy of unfolded state

can alter the folding landscapes several ways



### 3) energy input

→ can be coupled to ATP hydrolysis

## PROTEIN FOLDING INTERMEDIATES: TOPIC TEN

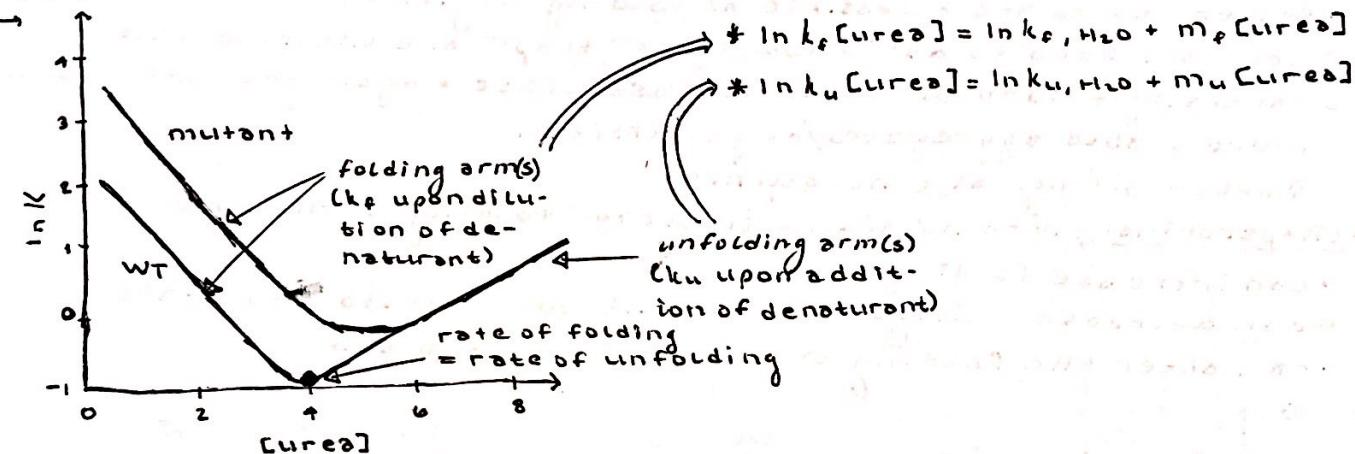
- Protein Folding + Unfolding

- measuring rates

→ unfolding rate ( $k_u$ )  $\Rightarrow$  mix protein quickly into soln. of urea or guanidinium chloride

→ folding rate ( $k_f$ )  $\Rightarrow$  start w/protein in high urea or guanidinium chloride soln. + quickly dilute to reduce denaturant concentration

- Chevron Plot



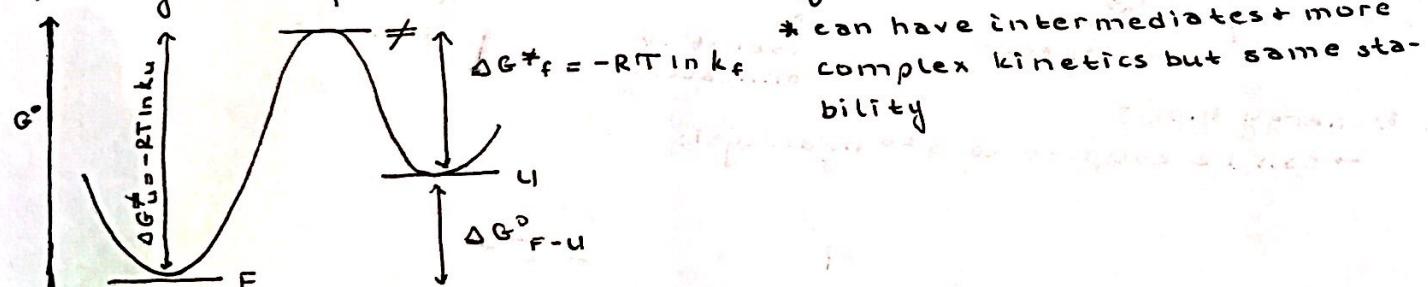
→ relationship between kinetics + thermodynamics

$$\Delta G^{\circ}_{f-u} = -RT \ln \left( \frac{k_u}{k_f} \right) \quad \Delta G^{\circ}_{f-u}[\text{urea}] = -RT \ln \left( \frac{k_{u,\text{H}_2\text{O}}}{k_{f,\text{H}_2\text{O}}} \right) + RT(m_u - m_f)[\text{urea}]$$

- Folding + Transition State

- rates

→ folding rate depends on  $\Delta G_f^{\ddagger}$  + unfolding rate on  $\Delta G_u^{\ddagger}$



- mutational analysis assumptions

1) specificity: overall protein folding pattern not readily altered by one/few mutations

2) stability: thermodynamic stability readily changed by a single mutation but folding pattern is not

3) kinetics: single mutations influence folding/unfolding rates but not the pathway

- Phi Mutational Analysis

- formula

$$\rightarrow \Phi = \Delta G^{\circ} f / \Delta G^{\circ} f-u$$

◦ if  $\Phi = 0$ , transition state is not changed but native structure is

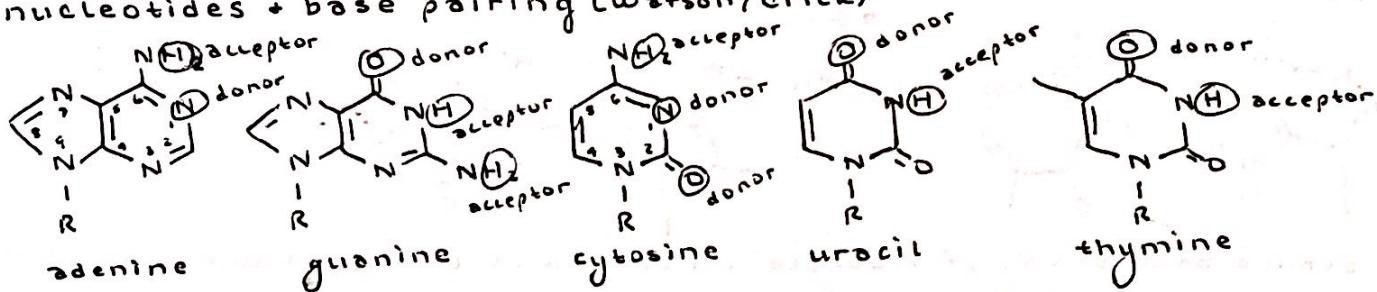
◦ if  $\Phi = 1$ , influence on kinetics + stability are essentially equivalent

◦ patterns for mutations in proteins w/same folding pattern are conserved

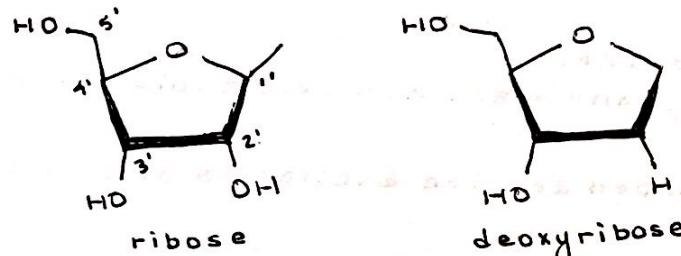
## NUCLEIC ACIDS: TOPIC ELEVEN

### • Structural Review

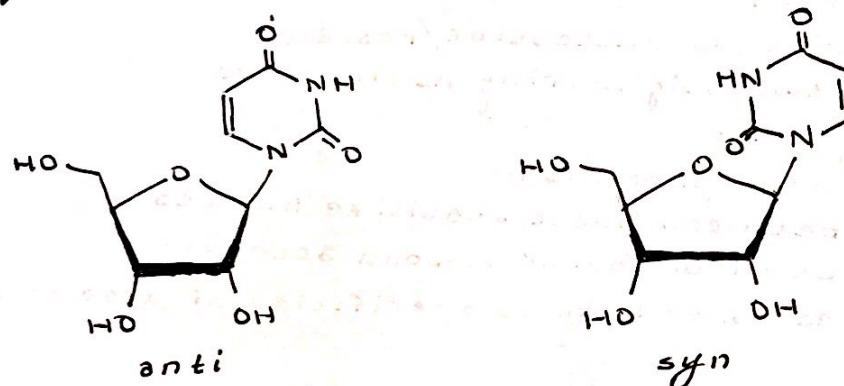
#### ◦ nucleotides + base pairing (Watson/Crick)



#### ◦ sugars



#### ◦ syn + anti: conformations of sugar + base

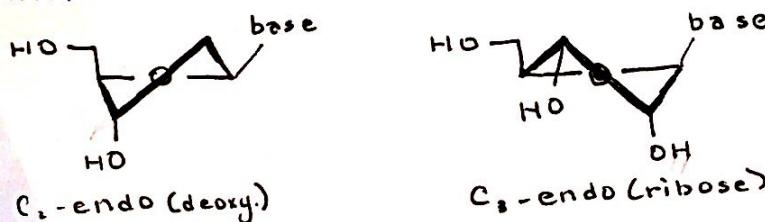


→ differing conformations caused by rotation of the  $\chi$  angle  
→ sugar ring itself can assume different conformations via rotation of the pseudorotation angle

#### • Conformers

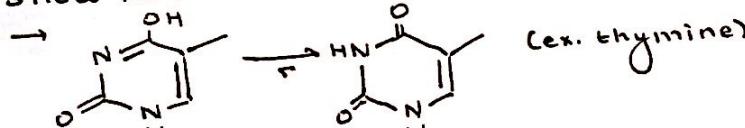
##### ◦ $\chi$ + pseudorotation angles are correlated

→ anti conformation is associated w/ C<sub>2</sub>-endo in DNA + C<sub>3</sub>-endo in RNA



#### • Nucleotide Properties

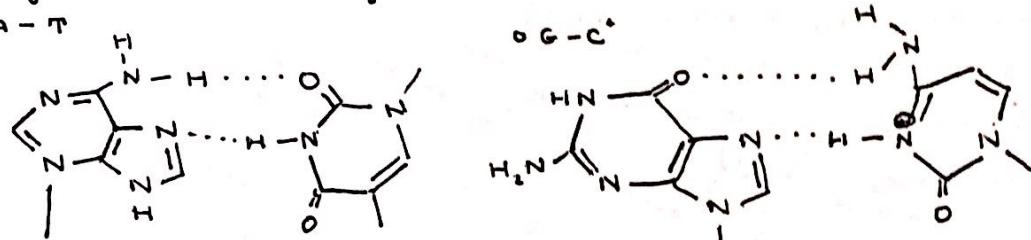
##### ◦ show keto-enol tautomerism



##### ◦ contain titratable functional groups

##### ◦ have large dipole moments

## • Hoogsteen Base Pairing



• distance between C<sub>1</sub> of Hoogsteen base pairs are less than that of Watson-Crick base pairs

## • Properties of Nucleic Acids + Helix

## • properties

- strands can be parallel or antiparallel
- bases in a WC pair are not in a plane & are not perpendicular to the helical axis
- base pairing can remain undisturbed despite exchanges of hydrogens between bases

## • helical parameters

- pitch: (P) axial rise per turn
- helical rise: (H) helical rise per nucleotide/residue
- twist: (m) angle between two neighboring nucleotides

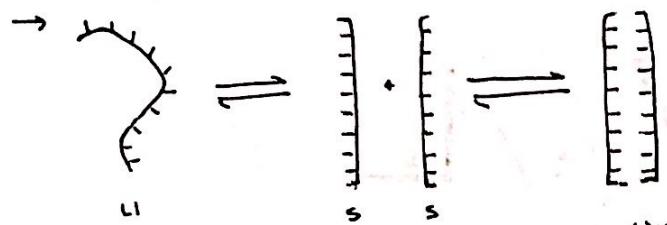
## • factors influencing base pairing

- structural changes/base polymorphisms
- stacking interactions between bases stabilize helices
- pK<sub>a</sub> can make bases better or poorer H-bond acceptors
- LDFs + permanent dipoles contribute to specificity of base stacking interactions

## NUCLEIC ACID SECONDARY STRUCTURE: TOPIC THIRTEEN

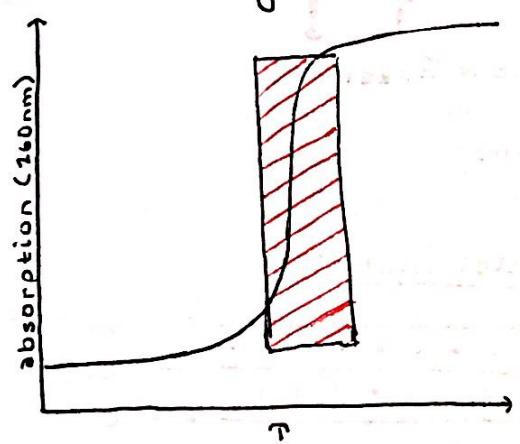
- Thermodynamics of Double Helix Formation

- structural transitions



\* stacking interactions dominate in annealing/duplex formation

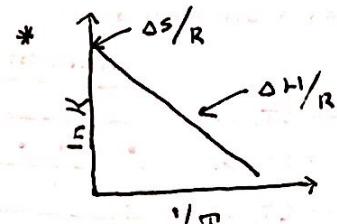
- non-cooperative non-cooperative
- van't Hoff analysis can track the transition



(dsDNA melting curve)

\*  $\Delta C_p$  is mostly constant in the boxed range (error greater outside melting temperature range)

\* caused by dsDNA  $\rightarrow$  ssDNA  $\rightarrow$  unstacked ssDNA transition



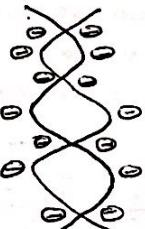
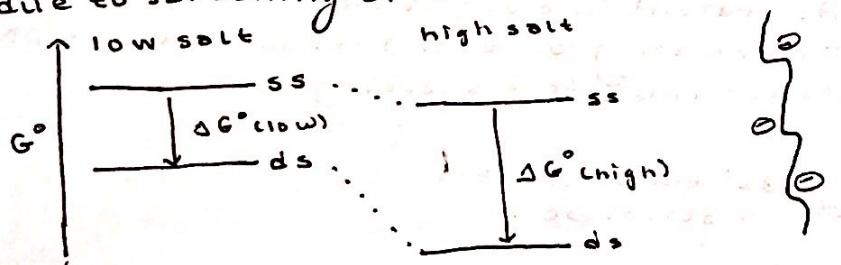
$$-RT \ln K = \left( \frac{\Delta H}{R} \right) \frac{1}{T} + \left( \frac{\Delta S}{R} \right)$$

↑ A ↑ A\_{260}

- factors affecting melting temperature

→  $T_m$  increases w/ ionic strength

◦ higher salt concentrations stabilize dsDNA more than ssDNA due to screening effect



→  $T_m$  increases w/ chain length

→  $T_m$  increases w/ GC content due to greater stacking interactions

- Calculation of Approximate  $T_m$

◦ utilizes the nearest neighbor model

→ formulas

$$\boxed{\Delta T_m = \sum_i f_{MN}^i \cdot T_{MN}^i}$$

$$\boxed{\Delta G = \Delta G_{\text{initiation}} + \Delta G_{\text{terminal}} + \Delta G_{\text{symmetry}} + \sum \Delta G_{\text{stack}}}$$

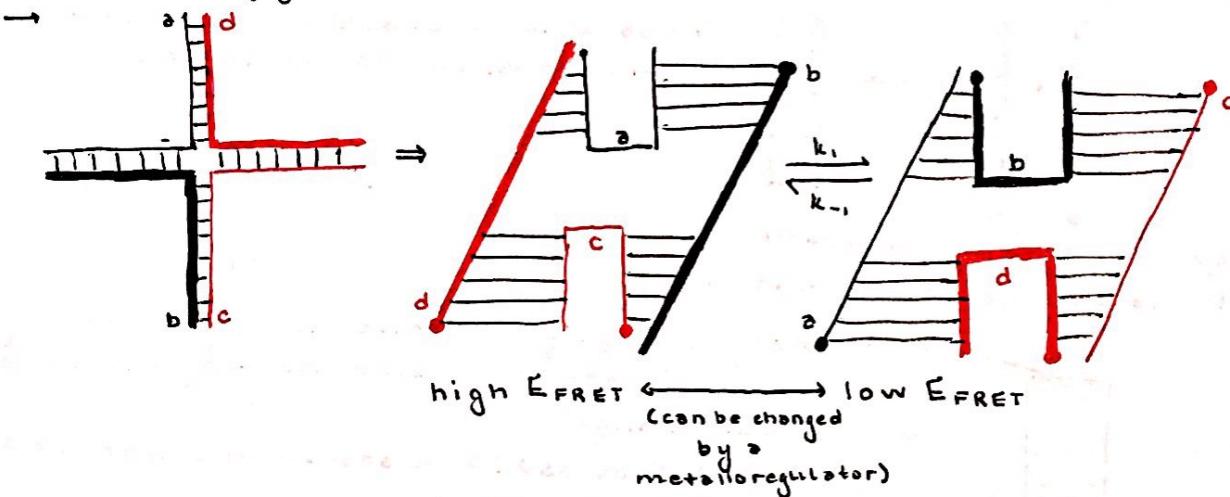
(1.96)      (0.05 if seq. ends w/ AT)      (0.43 if seq. is palindromic)      (<sup>table</sup>)

◦ DNA stability is not very dependent on hydrophobicity  
→  $\Delta C_p$  is not significant

## HIGHER-ORDER DNA/RNA STRUCTURES: TOPIC FOURTEEN

### Holliday Junctions

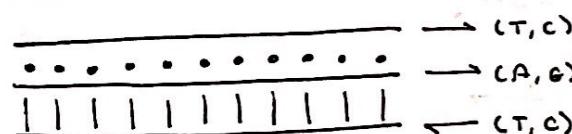
- formed during genetic recombination + can take different structures



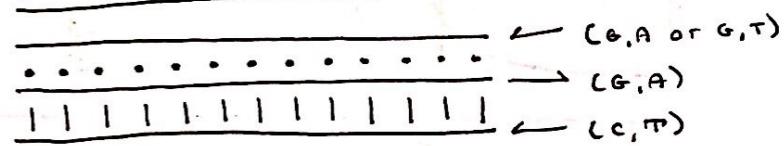
### Triple Helices

- two forms/motifs — parallel + anti-parallel

→ parallel motif



anti-parallel motif

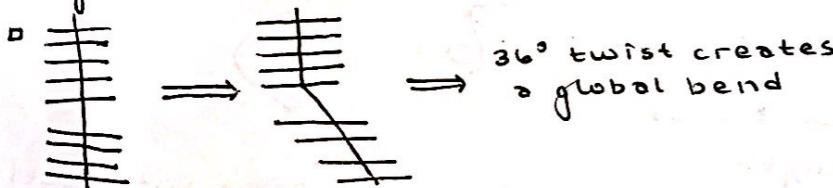


- Hoogsten BP represented by • and Watson-Crick BP by □  
formation is pH-sensitive + sometimes dependent on the presence of base modifications

### DNA Bends

- A-tract: > 5 consecutive As present in a sequence

→ compression at center of minor groove in A-tracts causes DNA bending (helix compensates for imperfect stacking)



cancelled out if A-tracts are out-of-phase

→ if spaced every 10-11 BP, bending is strong

→ if spaced every 9 or 12 BP, bending is weak + helix is almost straight

### DNA Supercoiling

- terminology

→ linking number: (L) number of turns one DNA strand wraps around one another

$$L = T + W$$

→ twist: (T) number of turns one strand of DNA makes about the helix axis ( $T = \text{BP}/10.4$ )

→ writhe: (W) number of turns the duplex makes about the superhelix axis ( $L=0$  for relaxed DNA)

can be positive or negative

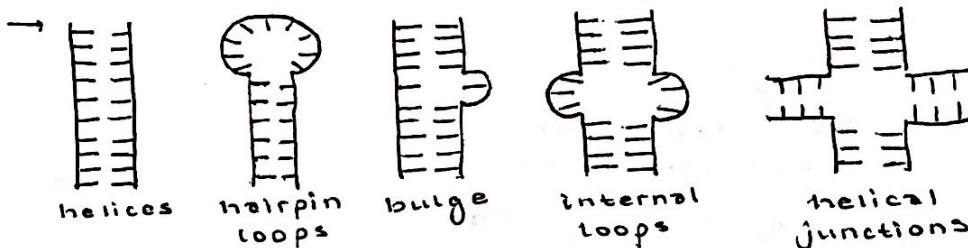
→ right-handed is underwound

→ left-handed is overwound

→  $\Delta L=0$  for closed/circular DNA

## RNA FOLDING + STRUCTURE: TOPIC FIFTEEN

- RNA secondary structure Elements
  - five common motifs



- Tertiary structure Elements

◦ kink-turn motif: introduces tight kinks into helical axis; standard turn has a 3-nucleotide bulge

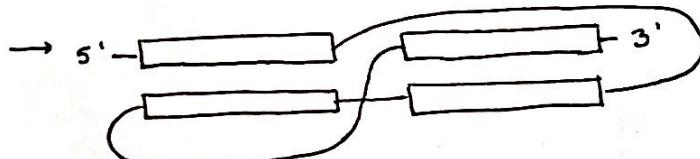


◦ right-angle motif: introduces 90° angles in adjacent helices (usually around A) + stabilized by stacking interactions

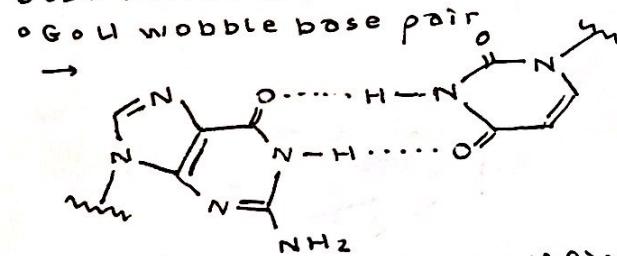
◦ coaxial stacking: terminal bases between two adjacent helices are stacked upon one another

◦ kissing loops: loops from two hairpins interact w/one another

◦ pseudoknots: formation of base pairs between loop regions + ss regions of same RNA or base pairing of alternate ssRNA regions



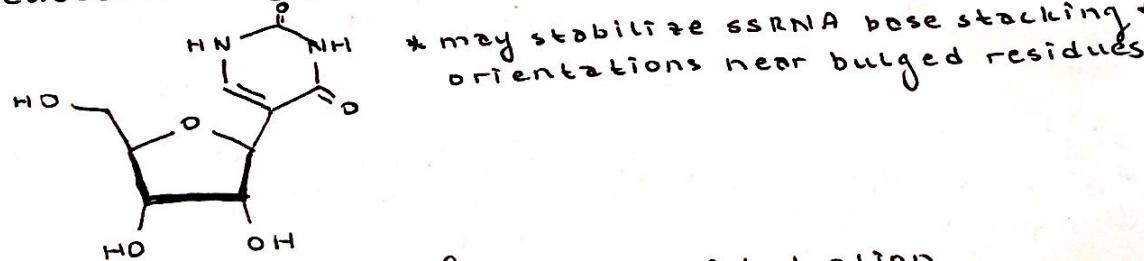
- Base Pairs + Modifications



◦ post-transcriptional modifications

→ methylation is the most abundant class

→ pseudouridine ( $\Psi$ ) is the most common modification



◦ metal ions can influence free energy of hydration  
→ higher concentrations near the major groove

## ELECTROPHORESIS: TOPIC SIXTEEN

### • Retardation Force

- proportional to the Stokes radius

→ formulas

$$\square F_{\text{drag}} = 6\pi\eta as$$

( $\eta$  = viscosity)

( $a$  = sphere rad.)

( $s$  = drift velocity)

$$\square R_s = \frac{k_B T}{6\pi\eta D}$$

( $k_B$  = Boltzmann constant)

( $D$  = diffusion constant)

→ higher molecular weight = larger Stokes radius

### • Electrophoretic Mobility: velocity per unit of electric field

#### ◦ formula

$$\rightarrow U = \frac{Q}{F} = \frac{V}{E}$$

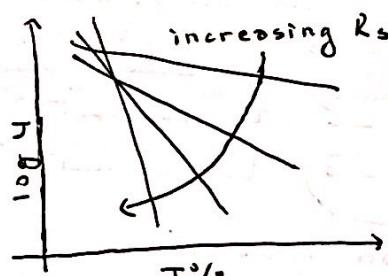
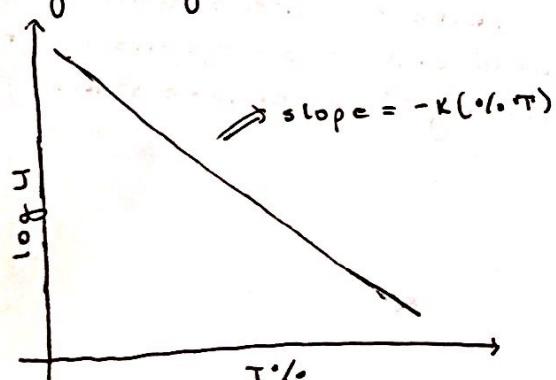
- depends on particle size, charge, + shape

→ matrix enables consideration of all three factors

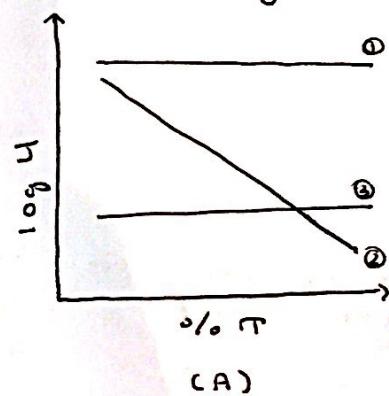
→ sensitivity to  $R_s$  can be modulated by changing matrix pore sizes

$$\square \log U = \log U_0 - K_p (\% \text{ } \text{ } T) \Rightarrow \tau = \text{acrylamide}$$

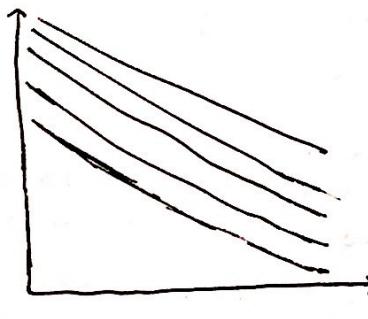
\* gradient of the plot (Ferguson plot) gives retardation coefficient



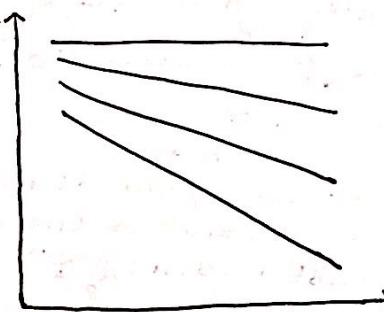
### • Info from Ferguson plots



(A)



(B)



(C)

→ (A) → ① small size, high  $Q$   
② large size, high  $Q$   
③ small size, small  $Q$

→ (B) → isozymes w/ similar sizes but different charges → (C) → diff. sizes but similar charges

### • Isoelectric Focusing: separation of proteins in a pH gradient according to isoelectric point

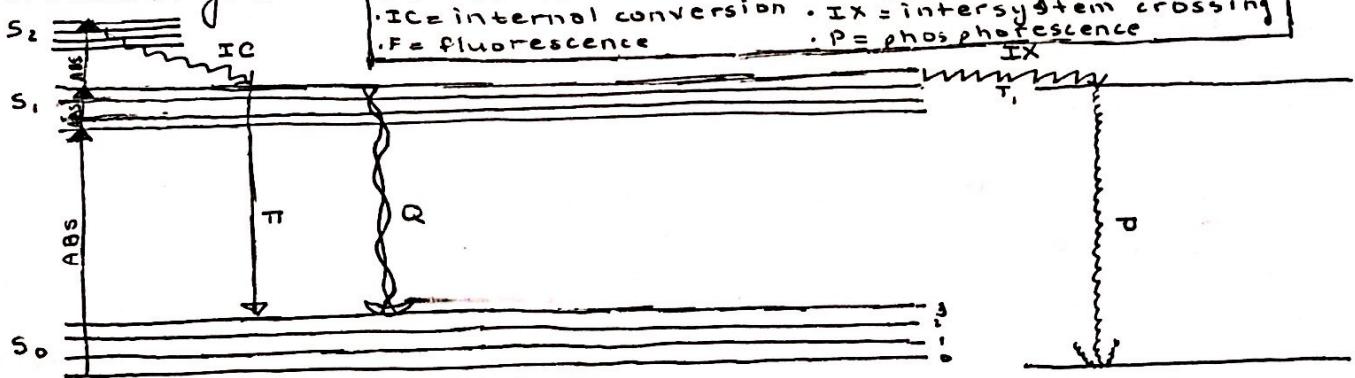
#### ◦ advantages of gradient PAGE

- 1) increased molecular weight range
- 2) increased resolution of proteins

## FLUORESCENCE SPECTROSCOPY: TOPIC SEVENTEEN

• Fates of Energy Absorption

• Jablonski Diagram



• ABS = absorbance

• IC = internal conversion

• F = fluorescence

• Q = quenching

• IX = intersystem crossing

• P = phosphorescence

• definitions

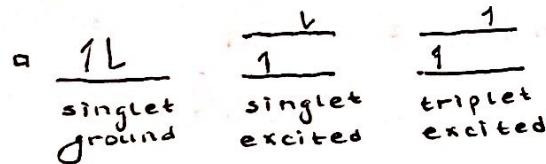
→ fluorescence: emission of radiation energy

→ internal conversion: result of collisions between molecules; energy is given off to vibrational states while molecular spin stays the same

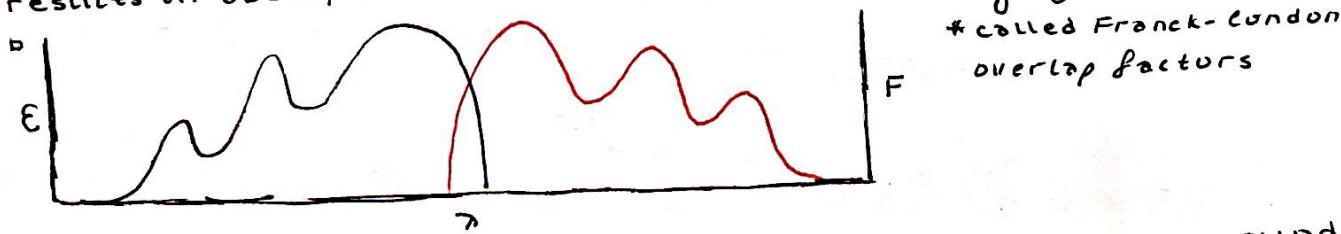
→ quenching: result of collisions between molecules; energy is given off as thermal energy or radiation to another molecule via excimer complex formation

→ intersystem crossing: result of collisions between molecules; energy is given off to vibrational states but molecular spin does not stay the same

→ phosphorescence: occurs through intersystem crossing; result of slow emission of energy from "forbidden" energy states(s) transitions (often a triplet excited state)



• Stokes shift: difference between absorption + emission wavelengths  
→ results in absorption + emission spectra looking symmetric



• quantum yield: ( $\Phi$ ) fraction of molecules that relax down to ground state via fluorescence

→ proportional to lifetime of excited state

$$\rightarrow \Phi = \frac{N^* \cdot k_f}{I_0} = \frac{N^* \cdot k_f}{N^*(k_f + k_s)} = \frac{k_f}{k_f + k_s}$$

→ higher  $\Phi$  is desirable for biological applications

## • Fluorescence Quenching

- two types

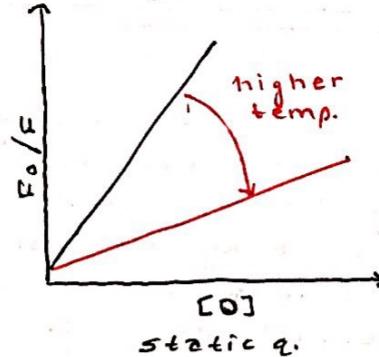
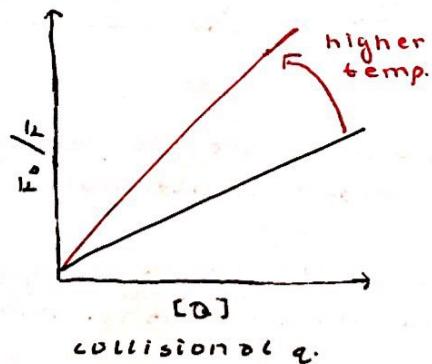
1) collisional: results from collisional encounters between fluorophore + quencher

2) static: results from formation of a non-fluorescent fluorophore-quencher complex

- Stern-Volmer equation

$$\rightarrow \frac{F_0}{F} = 1 + K_q [Q]$$

- temperature dependence changes based on type of Q



\* slope of plot indicates solvent exposure of a fluorophore

- molecular beacons are based on quenching (fluorescence decreases upon target binding)
- base stacking results in greater quenching

## • Fluorescence Anisotropy

- looks at molecular tumbling through polarized light

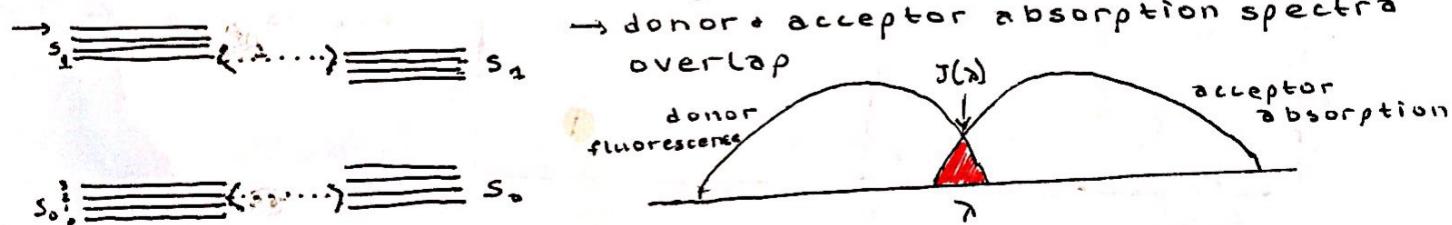
→ slow-tumbling molecules show more fluorescence polarization  
◦ tend to be smaller molecules

→ large-tumbling molecules show less fluorescence polarization  
◦ tend to be larger molecules

- increases w/ protein binding + decreases w/ strand separation

## • FRET

- mechanism of resonance energy transfer from donor to acceptor



- efficiency depends on donor + acceptor distance

→ useful as a "molecular ruler"

$$\rightarrow E = \frac{R_0^6}{R_0^6 + r^6} \quad \rightarrow \text{FRET} = \frac{I_A}{I_A - I_D}$$

## MASS SPECTROMETRY: TOPIC TWENTY

### • Mass Spec Components

#### 1) ion source

→ MALDI: matrix-assisted laser desorption ionization

##### ▫ use steps

▫ protein cocrystallized w/matrix

▫ electric field applied between sample + TOF entrance

▫ laser pulses excite matrix + protein into gas state

▫ biomolecule ions like  $M^+$  +  $(M+H)^+$  are produced + detected

##### ▫ pros/cons

###### ▫ pros

~ mass range to 300,000 Da

~ femtomole sensitivity

~ soft ionization

~ tolerates millimolar salts

~ can analyze complex mixtures

##### ▫ two sample prep methods

(i) dried droplet: protein premixed w/matrix + soln. spotted + dried on MALDI sample plate

(ii) fast evaporation: water-insoluble matrix spotted + allowed to dry before protein sample applied + absorbed onto matrix crystals

→ ESI: electrospray ionization

##### ▫ use steps

▫ dry gas/heat applied to evaporate solvent from droplets

▫ decreasing droplet size increases charge density, causing droplets to break up + ejections

▫ electric field creates Taylor cone + fine spray of highly charged droplets

##### ▫ produces multiply charged ions

$$\diamond z_n = \frac{m_{n+1} - 1.008}{m_n - m_{n+1}}$$

##### ▫ pros/cons

###### ▫ pros

~ mass range to 20,000 Da

~ femt mole sensitivity

~ softest ionization method

(can generate non-covalent complexes)

~ no matrix interference

~ LC/ESI MS coupling is easy

~ can analyze high m.m. ions

###### ▫ cons

~ sensitive to salts

~ cannot easily analyze complex mixtures

#### 2) mass analyzer

→ quadrupole: oscillating electric fields stabilize/destabilize ion paths or trap ions w/specific  $m/z$  ratios

→ TOF: accelerate ions through a potential then measure time of flight in a drift tube

#### 3) detector

→ record charge induced or current induced when ion passes/hits detector

## MASS SPECTROMETRY BIOAPPLICATIONS: TOPIC TWENTY-ONE

- Mass Resolution: ability to detect two neighboring peaks

- formula

$$\rightarrow R_s = \frac{m}{\Delta m} = \frac{m}{m_2 - m_1}$$

- accuracy + range

→ mass accuracy: ratio of difference between measured + true  $m/z$

→ mass range: range of  $m/z$  that can be analyzed by a given mass analyzer

- greatest for MALDI

### • Mass Definitions

- average molecular mass: weighted average of naturally occurring isotope masses

- monoisotopic mass: mass of molecule using masses of most abundant isotope for each element

- nominal mass: mass of molecule using integer mass of most abundant isotope for each element

- most abundant mass: mass of most abundant ion in the isotope distribution

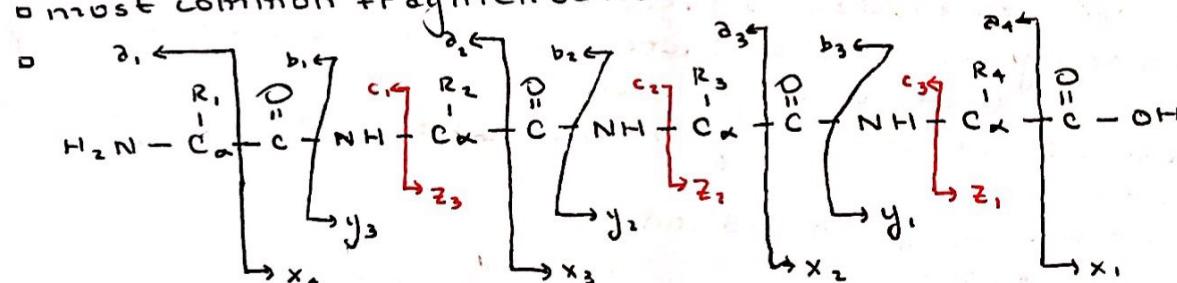
### • Peptide Sequencing

- can be done w/ tandem MS

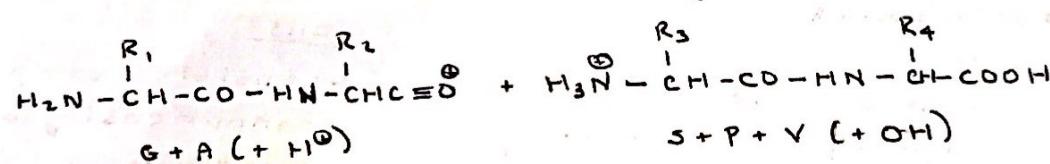
→ proteins digested w/ trypsin enzyme

→ CID: collision-induced dissociation

- most common fragmentation method



↓ ex. cut at  $b_2/y_2$



↓

calculate fragment masses  
using monoisotopic mass table

## MOLECULAR INTERACTIONS: TOPIC TWENTY-TWO

### • Classes of Molecular Interactions

- 1) micro-associations: small ligands interacting w/a macromolecule
  - (i) substrate - enzyme binding
  - (ii) cofactor - enzyme binding
  - (iii) allosteric effector binding
  - (iv) metals/dyes/etc. binding to proteins, nucleic acids, or membranes
- 2) macro-associations: interactions between macromolecules
  - (i) protein subunit association
  - (ii) multi-enzyme complexes
  - (iii) protein binding to membranes
  - (iv) polynucleotide interactions
  - (v) protein-nucleic acid binding

### • Collisions

- o must consider diffusion of both molecules

$$\rightarrow k_{coll} = \frac{4\pi R_{12} D_{12} N}{1000}$$

- o only collisions w/in binding site are effective

$$\rightarrow \frac{\text{binding site area}}{\text{total area}} = \frac{\text{fraction of b.s.}}{\text{surface area}} \rightarrow \frac{\text{effective collision rate}}{(f_n)} = (f_n)(\text{collision rate})$$

### • Thermodynamic Considerations

- o most stability comes from hydrophobic interactions

#### favorable components

- 1) hydrophobic interactions give ~25 cal/A<sup>2</sup> buried nonpolar surface area

- 2) hydrogen bonds give ~0.5-0.6 kcal/mol depending on neutral or charged pair

- 3) van der Waals interactions

#### unfavorable components

- 1) loss of translational + rotational entropy (-20 J/K/mol)
- 2) loss of entropy upon complex formation is not size-dependent so multiple contact sites are favorable

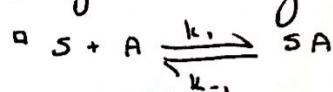
### • Adair Equation

- o relates ligands bound to total protein concentration

$$\rightarrow \bar{v} = \frac{A_b}{P_T} = \frac{[PA] + 2[PA_2] + 3[PA_3] + \dots N[PA_N]}{P_T + [PA] + [PA_2] + [PA_3] + \dots [PA_N]}$$

$$= \frac{K_1[A] + 2K_1K_2[A^2] + 3K_1K_2K_3[A^3] + \dots NK_1K_2\dots K_N[A^N]}{1 + K_1[A] + K_1K_2[A^2] + K_1K_2K_3[A^3] + \dots K_1K_2\dots K_N[A^N]}$$

#### → single binding-site derivation



$$\{[S](1-\theta)\} k_1 = \{[S](\theta)\} k_{-1}$$

$$\left(\frac{\theta}{1-\theta}\right) = K_0[A]$$

$$\frac{\bar{v}}{N-\bar{v}} = K_0[A]$$

### • Binding Plots

- 1) direct ( $\bar{v}$  vs. [A])
- 2) Bjerrum ( $\bar{v}$  vs. log [A])
- 3) Hill ( $\frac{\theta}{1-\theta}$  vs. log [A])

- 4) reciprocal ( $1/\bar{v}$  vs.  $1/[A]$ )

- 5) Scatchard ( $\bar{v}/[A]$  vs.  $\bar{v}$ )

→ cooperativity gives rise to curving in these plots

\*infinitely cooperative systems show all-or-none binding\*

↓ (assume four sites)

$$\bar{v} = \frac{4K_1K_2K_3K_4[A^4]}{1 + K_1K_2K_3K_4[A^4]}$$

↓

\*general version is called the Hill equation