Lecture-2
Biomolecules
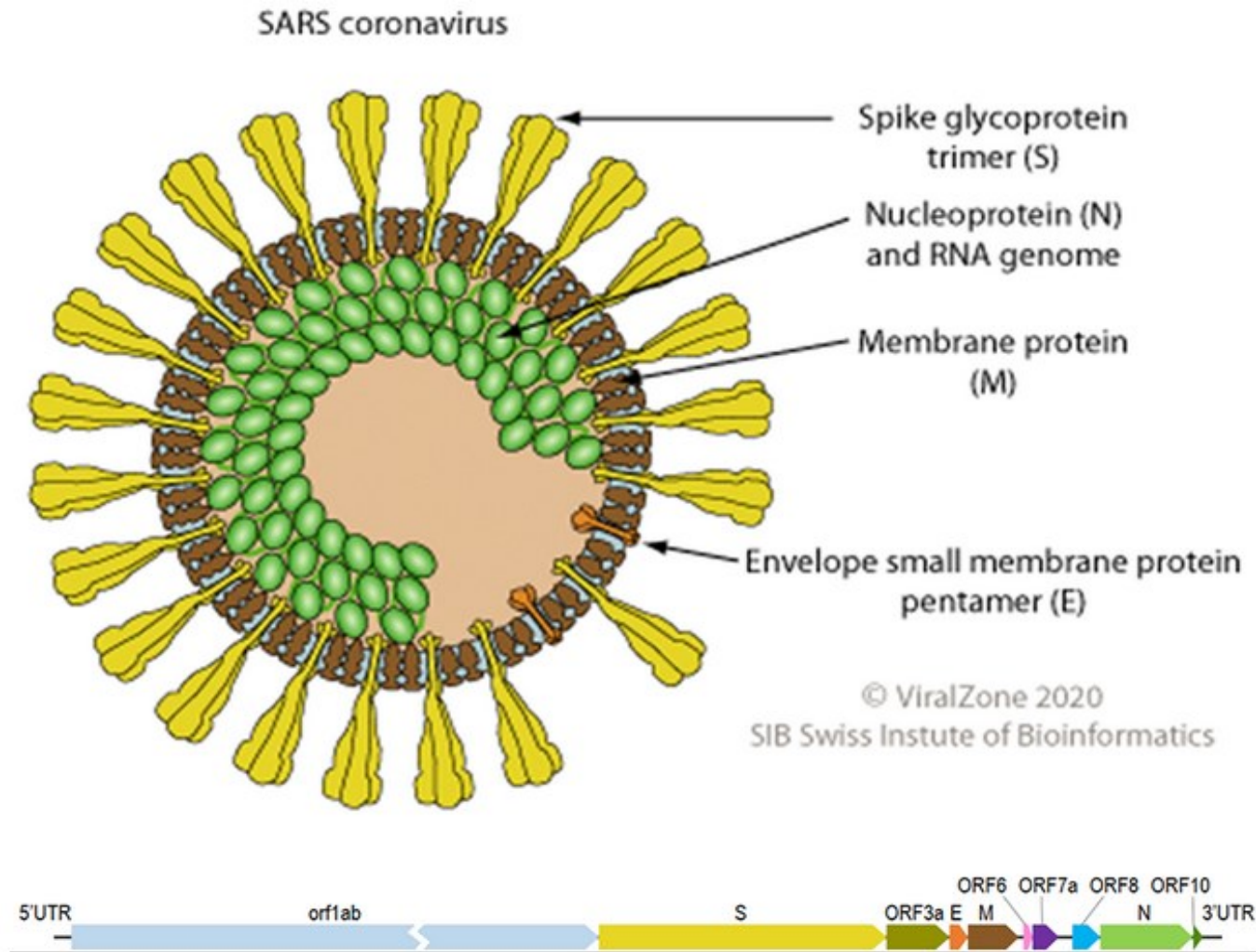
Goal

Goal of molecular cell biology - to understand the physiology of living cells in terms of the information that is encoded in the genome of the cell

How computer science can help in achieving this goal?

$\Rightarrow$ **To identify where are the genes in the genome, which gene is expressed when, where and how much, what factors affect its expression, what's its function, what happens in the disease state, what are the genetic variations and how to identify them, etc.**

What kind of biological data analysis can help in combating COVID-19 disease?

SARS coronavirus

Spike glycoprotein trimer (S)

Nucleoprotein (N) and RNA genome

Membrane protein (M)

Envelope small membrane protein pentamer (E)

© ViralZone 2020
SIB Swiss Instute of Bioinformatics

5'UTR   orf1ab   S   ORF3a E M   ORF6 ORF7a ORF8 ORF10   N   3'UTR

What kind of analysis can we carry out to know about the virus causing COVID-19?

- **How to identify if a person is infected with SAR-COV-2?**

- **Is it the only known human coronavirus?**

- **Compare its genome with other viral genomes – to identify its closest relative**

- **What proteins aid in its transmission and infection?**

- **Identify drug targets and develop vaccines**

- **What organs/tissues are affected by its infection?**

- **Its rate of propagation**

- **Is it mutating and becoming more virulent, or milder with time, etc.**
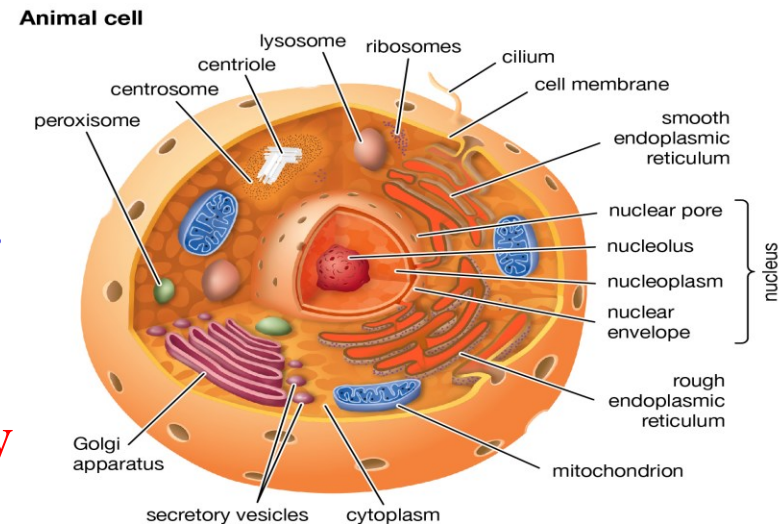
Cells

All living things are made of cells: small, membrane-enclosed units - have the ability to create copies of themselves by growing and dividing in two - replication.

E. B. Wilson: "the key to every biological problem must be sought in the cell; for every living organism is, or at some time has been, a cell."

~ 10^{13} cells that form a human body, the whole organism has been generated by cell divisions from a single cell

Cells are fundamental units of life
- the vehicle for all the hereditary information that defines each species.

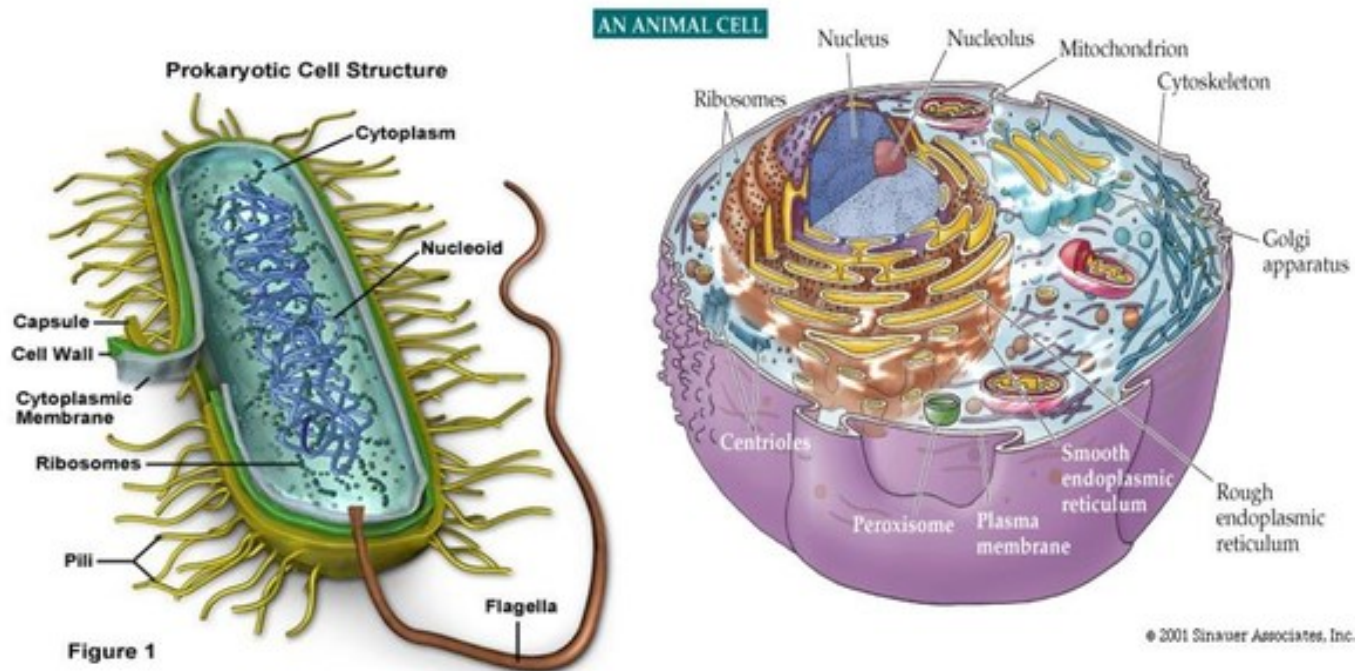Study of the structure, function, and behavior of cells is called Cell Biology

Animal cell

lysosome   ribosomes   cilium
centriole   cell membrane
centrosome   smooth endoplasmic reticulum
peroxisome   nuclear pore
nucleolus   nucleus
nucleoplasm
nuclear envelope
rough endoplasmic reticulum
Golgi apparatus   mitochondrion
secretory vesicles   cytoplasm

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Cells and Chromosomes

- **All cells store their hereditary information in the same linear chemical code: DNA (Deoxyribonucleic acid)**

  - **organized in coiled structures called chromosomes.**

- **Chromosomes are physically separate molecules that range in length from 50 - 250M base pairs.**

- **In most prokaryotes, each cell has a single chromosome.**

- **In eukaryotes, all cells contain same number of chromosomes, 8 in fruit flies, 46 in humans and bats, 84 in rhinoceros.**

- **In multi-cellular organisms, similar cells join together to form tissues.**

- **Complete DNA content of an organism is called the genome.**

Living organism divides into two major groups:

- **Prokaryotes** - cells with <u>no nucleus</u>, e.g., bacteria and archaea

- **Eukaryotes** – cells with a nucleus, e.g., plants, animals and protozoas. These maybe unicellular (e.g., Yeasts) or multi-cellular (e.g., humans).

Prokaryotic Cell Structure

Cytoplasm
Nucleoid
Capsule
Cell Wall
Cytoplasmic Membrane
Ribosomes
Pili
Flagella

Figure 1

AN ANIMAL CELL

Ribosomes
Nucleus
Nucleolus
Mitochondrion
Cytoskeleton
Golgi apparatus
Centrioles
Peroxisome
Plasma membrane
Smooth endoplasmic reticulum
Rough endoplasmic reticulum

© 2001 Sinauer Associates, Inc.

Viruses

Viruses do not fall in either of the two divisions.

These are **acellular** entities with many of the properties of other life forms but are genetically and structurally too dissimilar to fit into the taxonomy scheme.

Viruses <u>cannot</u> be classified as living or non-living. They can replicate & carry out their functions only in a host – called **obligate parasites**.

May contain DNA or RNA as their nuclear material.

Viruses are acellular. So, if they do not have a cell, how does their genetic material remain intact?

DNA

DNA (Deoxyribonucleic acid):

Composed of four basic units - called nucleotides

Each nucleotide contains - a sugar, a phosphate and one of the four bases:

Adenine (A),   Thymine (T),

Guanine (G),   Cytosine (C).
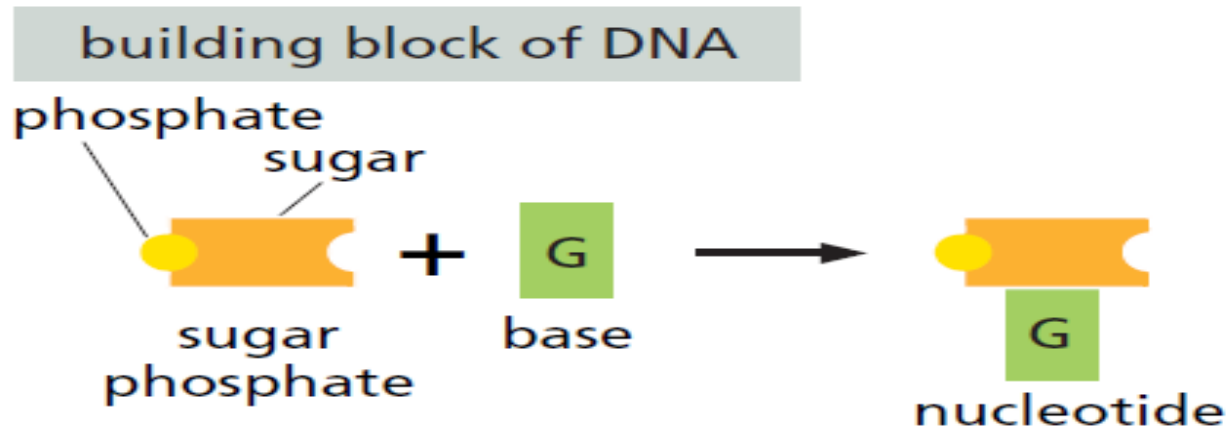
DNA

Bases: are ring-shaped and come in four types which fit together in pairs - this pairing forms the basis of information carrying capacity of DNA.
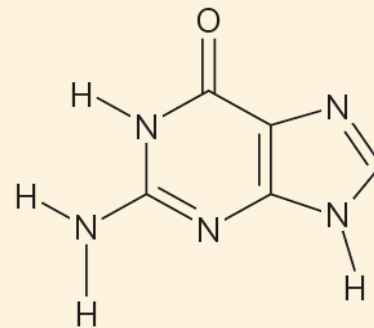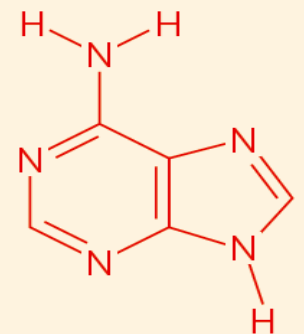
These are categorized as:

Pyrimidines
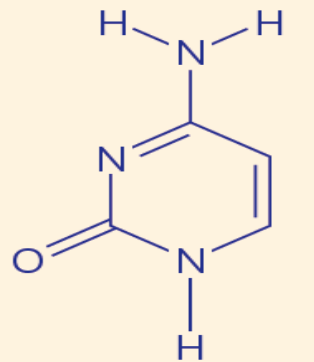
Cytosine (C)
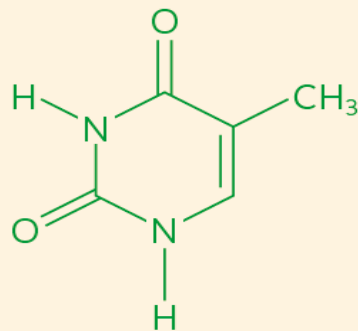
Thymine (T)

Purines

Guanine (G)

Adenine (A)

Base Pairing: C ⇔ G, A ⇔ T

DNA

Backbone of a polynucleotide strand is made of linked sugar-phosphate-sugar-phosphate, with one base joined to each sugar molecule.

- built by creating a phosphodiester bond that links 3′ carbon on the sugar of growing chain with the phosphate attached to 5′ carbon of an incoming nucleotide.

DNA Strand
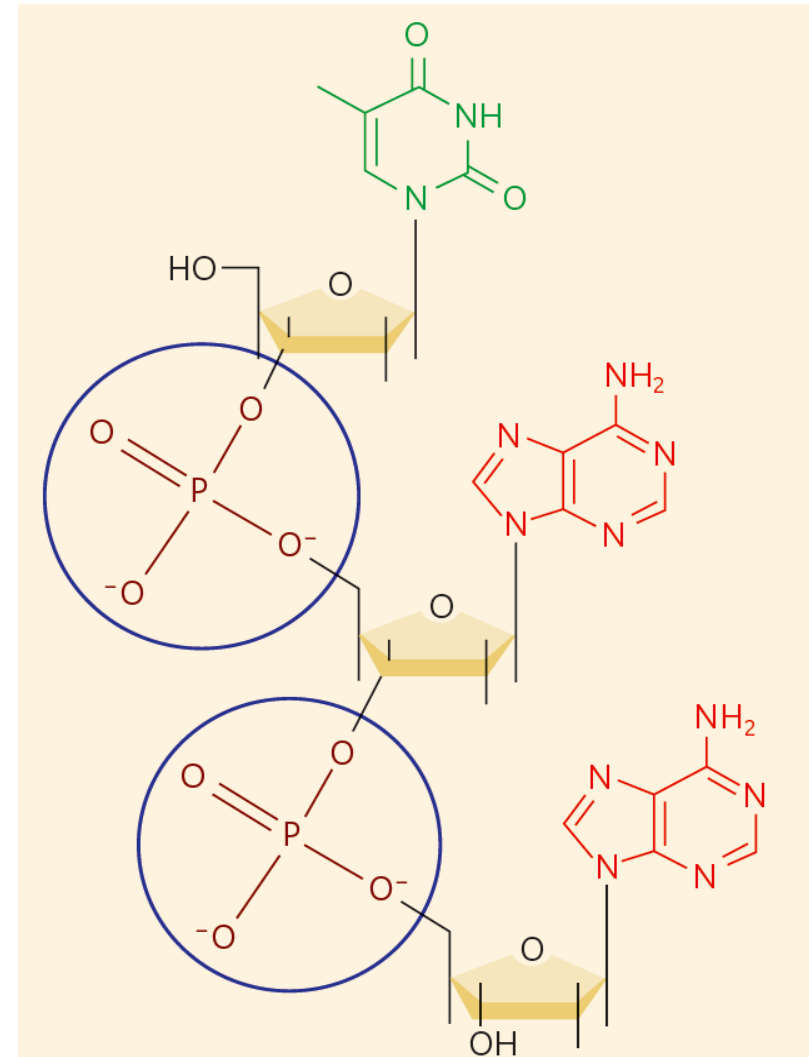
DNA

Base Pairing: **If two polynucleotide strands face each other, sugar-phosphate backbone runs down each side, and complementary pairs of bases in the middle spontaneously form hydrogen bonds:**

Left Strand: 5' to 3':
phosphate connected to 5' of sugar which is connected at 3' to the next phosphate

?

**Note: two strands are not mirror images of each other - they run antiparallel**

Triple bond: C-G

Double bond: A-T

$5' \rightarrow 3'$
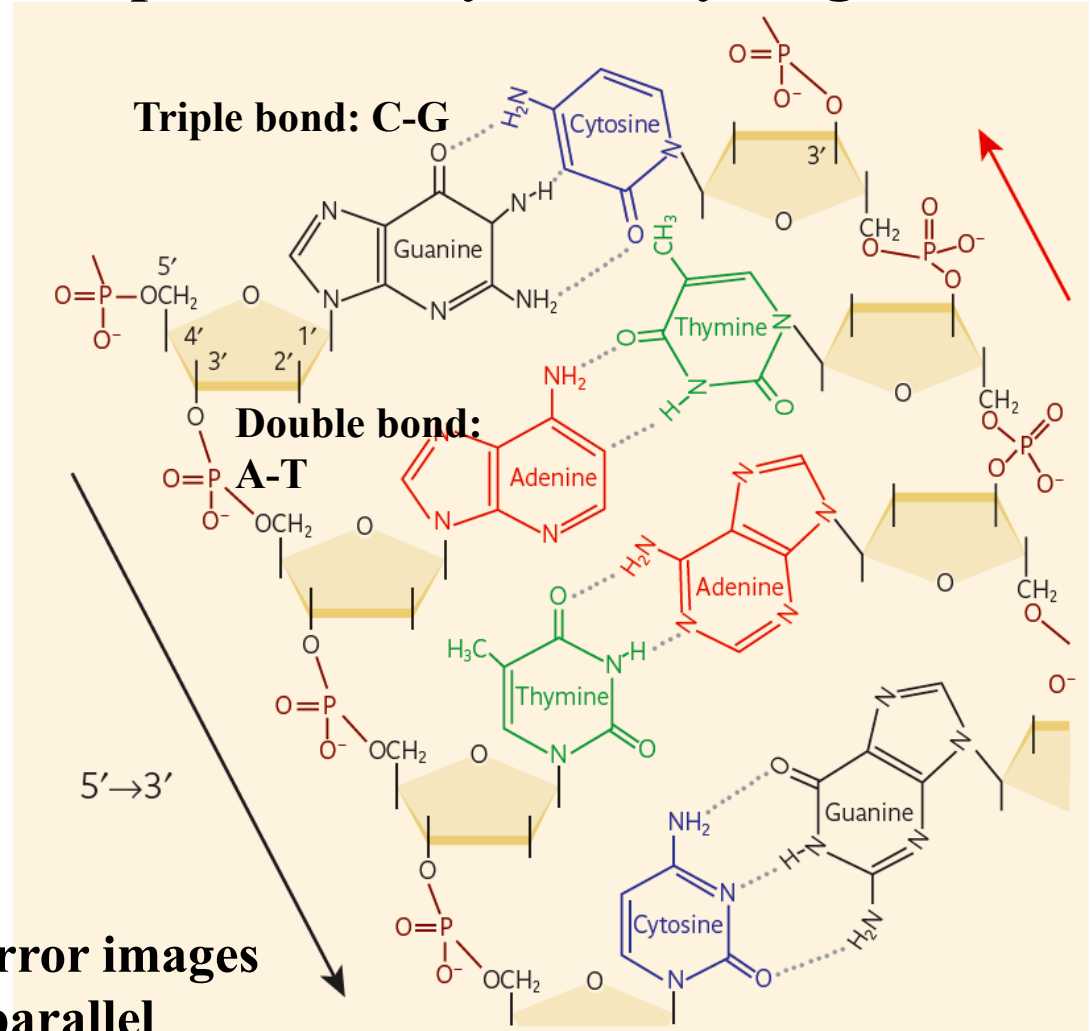
DNA

Double-Stranded DNA: **Nucleotides within each strand are linked by strong (covalent) chemical bonds; complementary nucleotides on opposite strands are held together more weakly by hydrogen bonds:**

sugar-phosphate backbone

hydrogen-bonded base pairs

Why does DNA form a helical structure?

DNA double helix
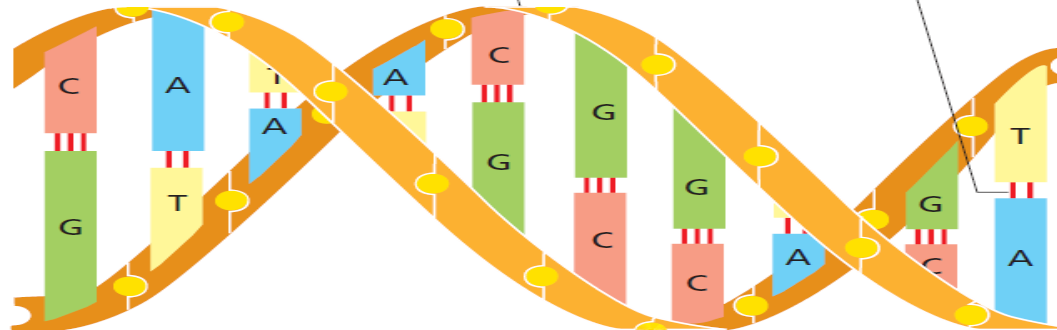
To minimize the destabilizing effect of water molecules

Double-Stranded DNA: **If the sequence in the forward strand in 5′ to 3′ direction is:**

5′ CATTGCCAGT 3′

Then what would be the sequence on the reverse strand when read in 5′ to 3′ orientation?

DNA

If the sequence in the forward strand in 5′ to 3′ direction is:

5′ CATTGCCAGT 3′

Then what is the sequence on the reverse strand when read in 5′ to 3′ orientation?

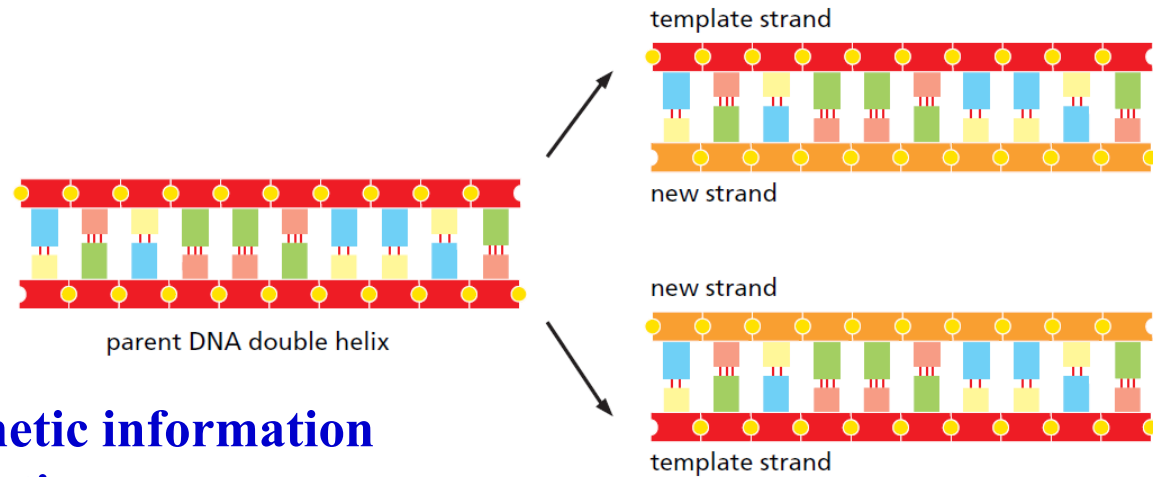First write its complement:

5′ CATTGCCAGT 3′

3′ GTAACGGTCA 5′

When read in 5′ to 3′ orientation, the sequence on the reverse strand is:

5′ ACTGGCAATG 3′

DNA Replication

In living cells DNA is not synthesized as a free strand in isolation, but on a template formed by a pre-existing DNA strand.

Copying of genetic information by DNA replication
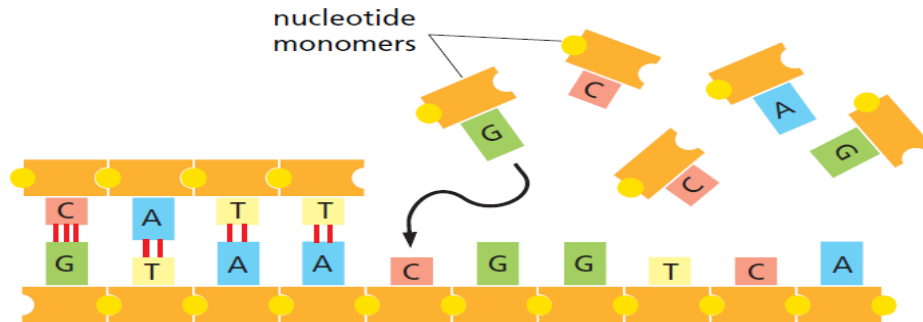
templated polymerization

Central Dogma of Molecular Biology

All cells transcribe portions of their hereditary information into the same intermediary form: Ribonucleic acid (RNA).

DNA expresses its information, by letting the information guidethe synthesis of other molecules in the cell: RNAs and Proteins

Process begins with a templated polymerization called transcription, for the synthesis of RNA.

In the more complex process of translation, these RNA molecules direct the synthesis of proteins
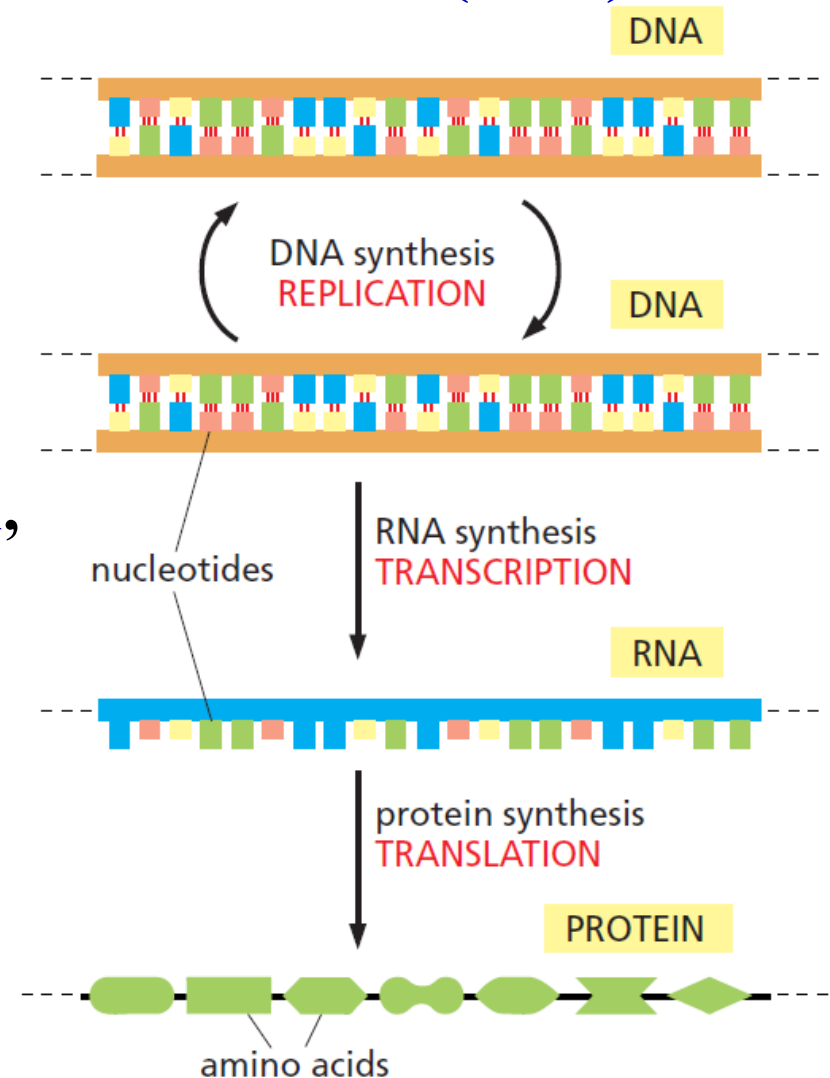
Ribonucleic Acid (RNA):

It is **single-stranded** molecule

Composed of four basic units - called **nucleotides:**

Each nucleotide contains - a sugar (ribose), a phosphate and one of the four bases: Adenine (A), **Uracil (U)**, Guanine (G), Cytosine (C)

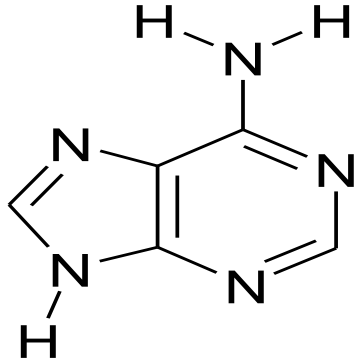RNA polynucleotide strand is built by creating a **phosphodiester bond** between nucleotides.

Intra-strand base pairing is a characteristic feature of RNA

Base Pairing – formed by weak H-bonds and follows the following complementarity rule:
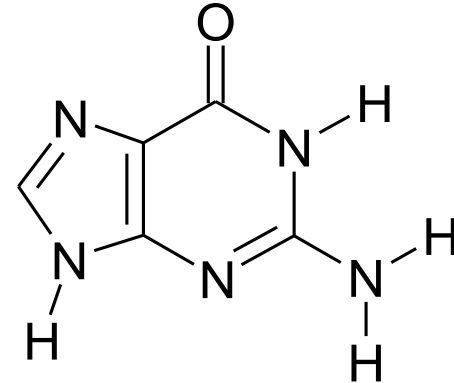
$$G \longleftrightarrow C, \quad A \longleftrightarrow U, \text{ and } G \longleftrightarrow U$$

Ring Structure of Nucleic Acid bases

Adenine (A)

Guanine (G)

Purines

Cytosine (C)

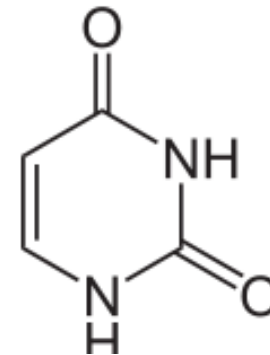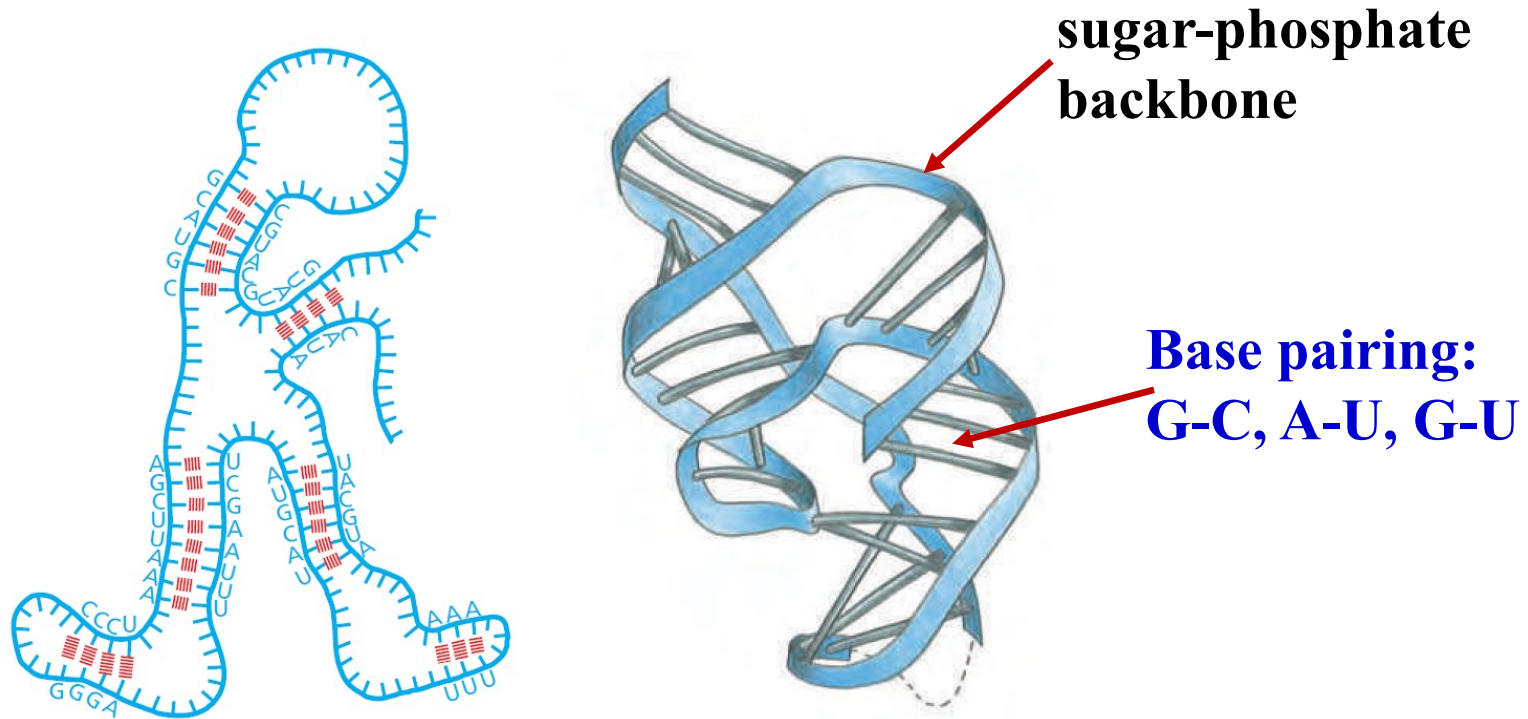**Uracil (U)**

Pyridimines

Thymine (T)
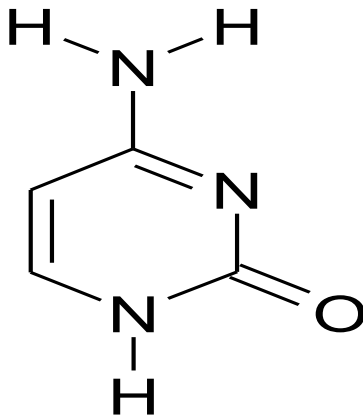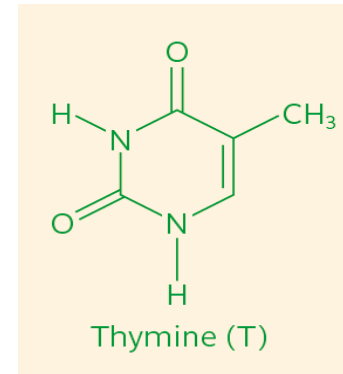
RNA

Nucleotide pairing between different regions of the RNA polymer chain causes the molecule to adopt a distinctive shape.

sugar-phosphate backbone

Base pairing: G-C, A-U, G-U

Distinct shapes of RNA molecules resulting from such internal associations enable it to recognize other molecules by binding to them selectively, or, in certain cases, catalyze chemical changes in the molecules that are bound.

RNA Synthesis:

RNA is also read in the 5′ to 3′ orientation.
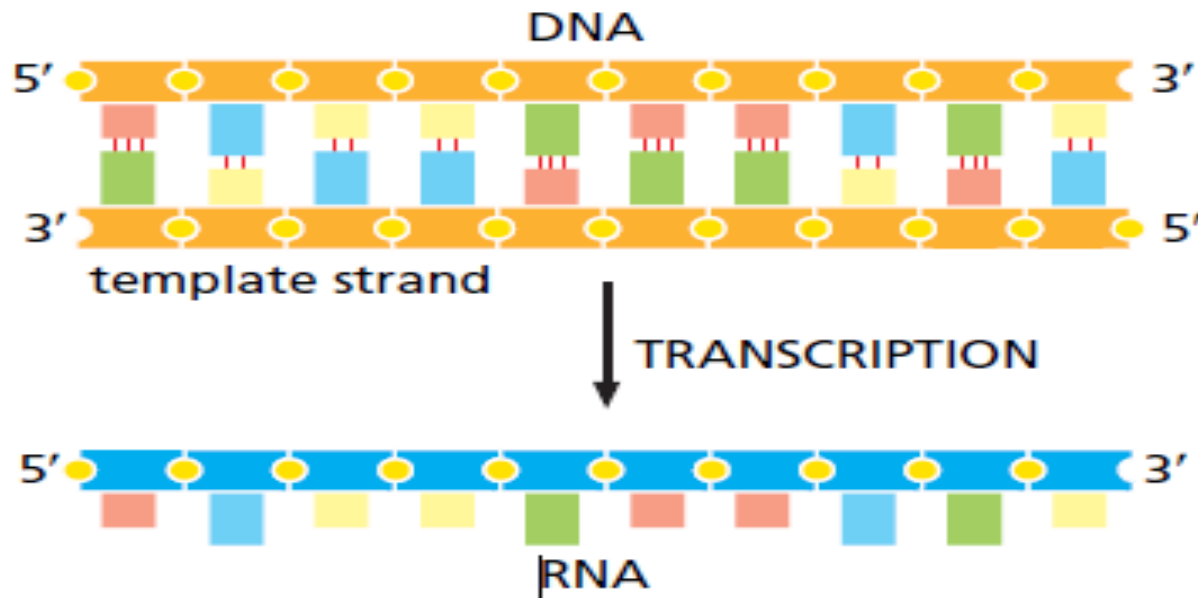
RNA molecules that are copied from the genes (which ultimately direct the synthesis of proteins) are called messenger RNA (mRNA) molecules.

RNA Synthesis

1. For the following DNA sequence in the forward strand:

5′ CATTGCCAGT 3′

What will be the sequence of the RNA strand synthesized?

2. If the following DNA sequence is used as template for RNA synthesis:

5′ CATTGCCAGT 3′

Give the sequence of the RNA strand read in 5′ to 3′ orientation.

RNA Synthesis

1. If the DNA sequence in the forward strand is given as:

5′ CATTGCCAGT 3′

Template sequence used for RNA synthesis is its complement:

5′ CATTGCCAGT 3′

3′ GTAACGGTCA 5′   **template**

The synthesized RNA sequence is the reverse complement of the template:

3′ GTAACGGTCA 5′   **template**

5′ CAUUGCCAGU 3′   **RNA**

- i.e., synthesized RNA sequence is basically the DNA sequence in the forward strand with T replaced by U

RNA Synthesis

If the template DNA sequence for RNA synthesis is given:

$$5' \text{ CATTGCCAGT } 3'$$

First write its complement:

$$5' \text{ CATTGCCAGT } 3'$$
$$3' \text{ GUAACGGUCA } 5' \quad \text{complement}$$

Then the synthesized RNA sequence in $5'$ to $3'$ orientation is:

$$5' \text{ ACUGGCAAUG } 3' \quad \text{RNA}$$

- i.e., synthesized RNA sequence is basically the complement of the template DNA sequence with T replaced by U, when read in the $5'$ to $3'$ orientation

RNA Synthesis:

There are other RNA molecules also obtained from genes. The final product in such cases is RNA.

These RNAs are known as noncoding RNAs because they do not code for protein.

e.g., in yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, over 1200 genes (~15%) produce RNA as their final product; Humans may produce on the order of 10,000 noncoding RNAs.

These RNAs, like proteins, serve as enzymatic, structural, and regulatory components for a wide variety of processes in the cell.

TABLE 6–1 Principal Types of RNAs Produced in Cells

Type of RNA	Function
mRNAs	Messenger RNAs, code for proteins
rRNAs	Ribosomal RNAs, form the basic structure of the ribosome and catalyze protein synthesis
tRNAs	Transfer RNAs, central to protein synthesis as adaptors between mRNA and amino acids
snRNAs	Small nuclear RNAs, function in a variety of nuclear processes, including the splicing of pre-mRNA
snoRNAs	Small nucleolar RNAs, help to process and chemically modify rRNAs
miRNAs	MicroRNAs, regulate gene expression by blocking translation of specific mRNAs and cause their degradation
siRNAs	Small interfering RNAs, turn off gene expression by directing the degradation of selective mRNAs and the establishment of compact chromatin structures
piRNAs	Piwi-interacting RNAs, bind to piwi proteins and protect the germ line from transposable elements
lncRNAs	Long noncoding RNAs, many of which serve as scaffolds; they regulate diverse cell processes, including X-chromosome inactivation

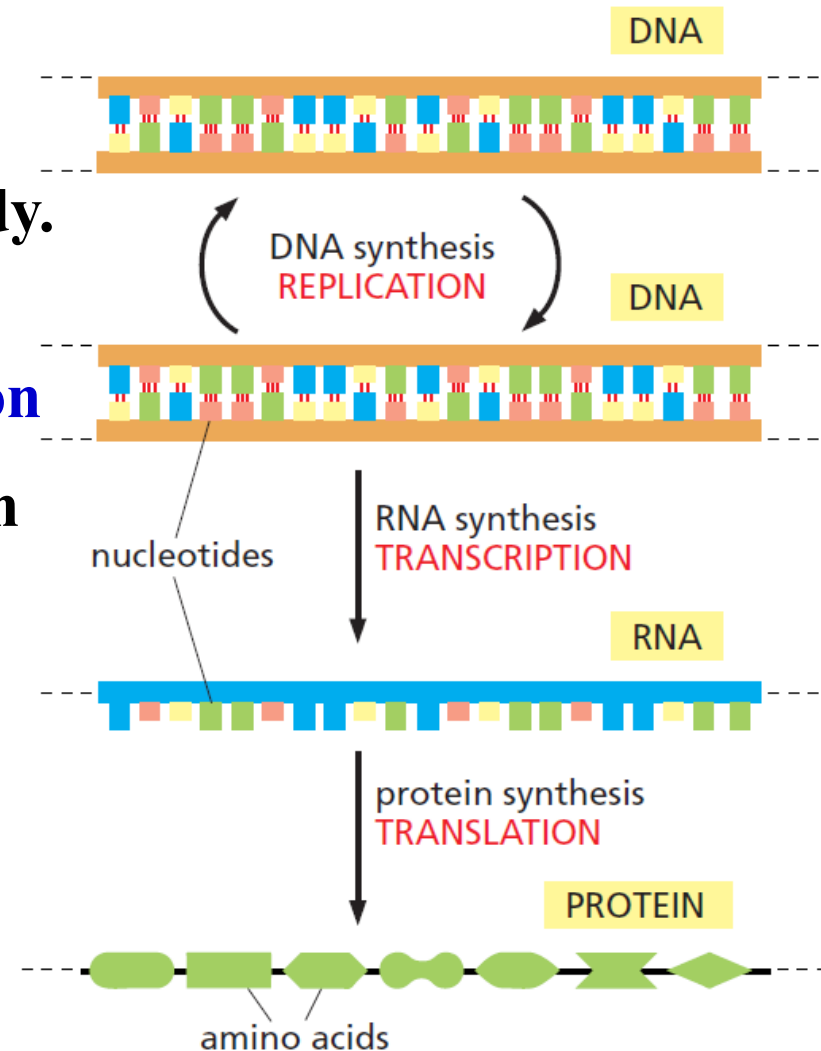**Note: rRNA, tRNA and snRNA play an important role in protein synthesis**

Protein Synthesis

Proteins are synthesized from DNA in a two-step process:

Each chromosome has several genes that code for various traits in the body.

RNA molecules direct synthesis of proteins in a process called translation

- information in mRNA is read out in groups of three nucleotides, called codons.

DNA

DNA synthesis
REPLICATION

DNA

nucleotides

RNA synthesis
TRANSCRIPTION

RNA

protein synthesis
TRANSLATION

PROTEIN

amino acids

The Genetic Code

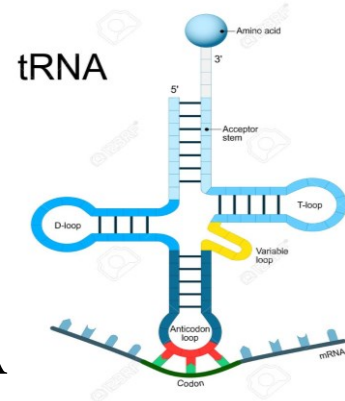The genetic code is **degenerate**

Protein Synthesis

Using the genetic code, obtain the amino acid sequence synthesized from the following mRNA sequence:

<center>

5′ ACU GGC AAU 3′

Thr   Gly   Asn

</center>

This genetic code is read out by a class of small RNA molecules, called **transfer RNAs (tRNAs)**.

- each type of tRNA attaches at one end a specific amino acid and at its other end has a specific sequence of 3 nucleotides - an **anticodon** that enables it to recognize, through base-pairing, a particular codon in the mRNA sequence.

- This process occurs on **ribosome**, a large multi-molecular machine composed of both proteins and ribosomal RNA.
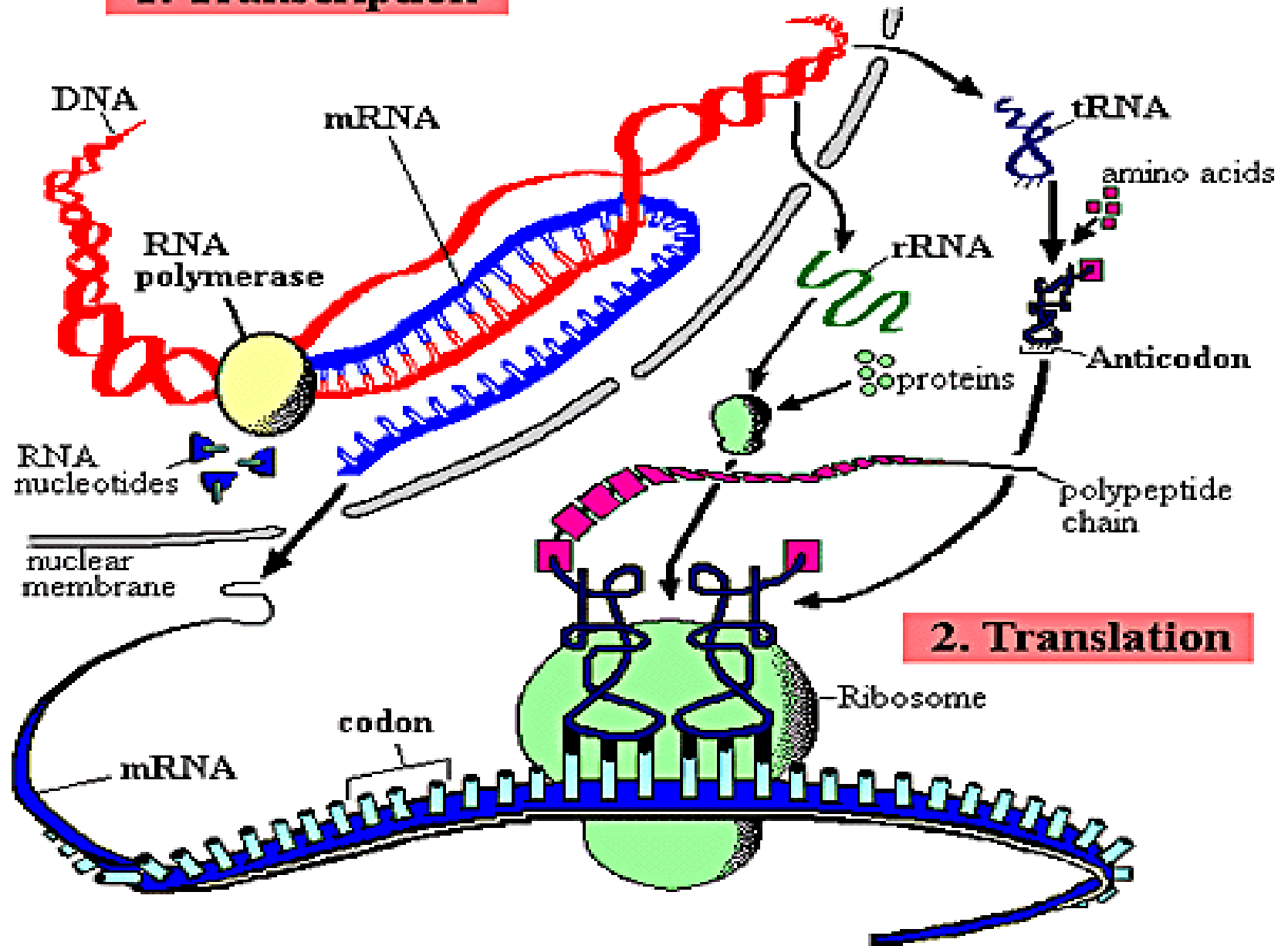
Protein synthesis

Proteins

Like DNA and RNA, Proteins carry information in linear sequence on a 20-letter alphabet, called **amino acids**:

ATRVGTCWPRA

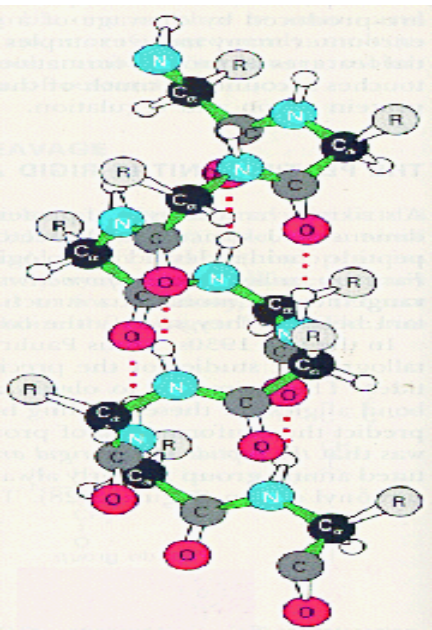Protein structure is divided in 4 hierarchical levels:

- **Primary structure** - represented by AA sequences

- **Secondary structure** - α-helices & β-sheets

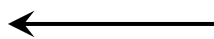- **Tertiary and Quaternary structures**
  - represented by 3D structures

peptide bond
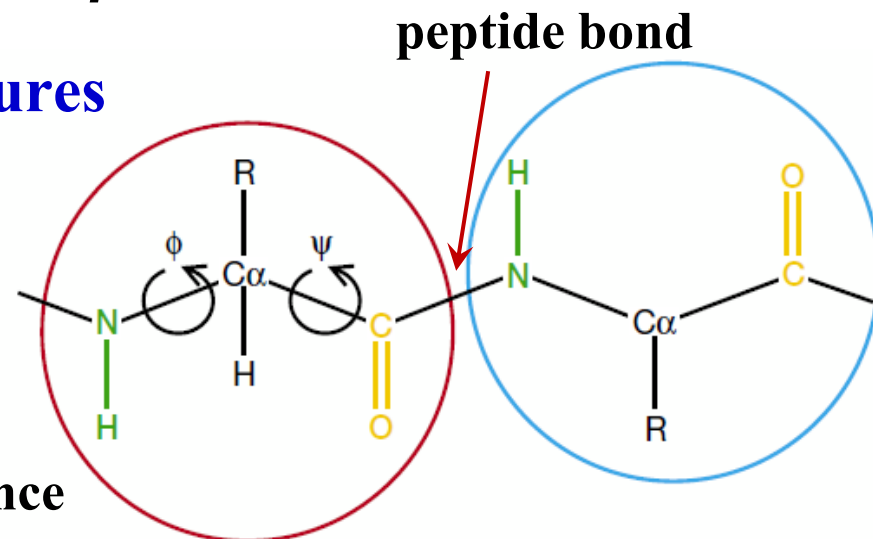
Backbone - N-C$_\alpha$-C sequence

Primary Structure: ATRVGTCWPRA
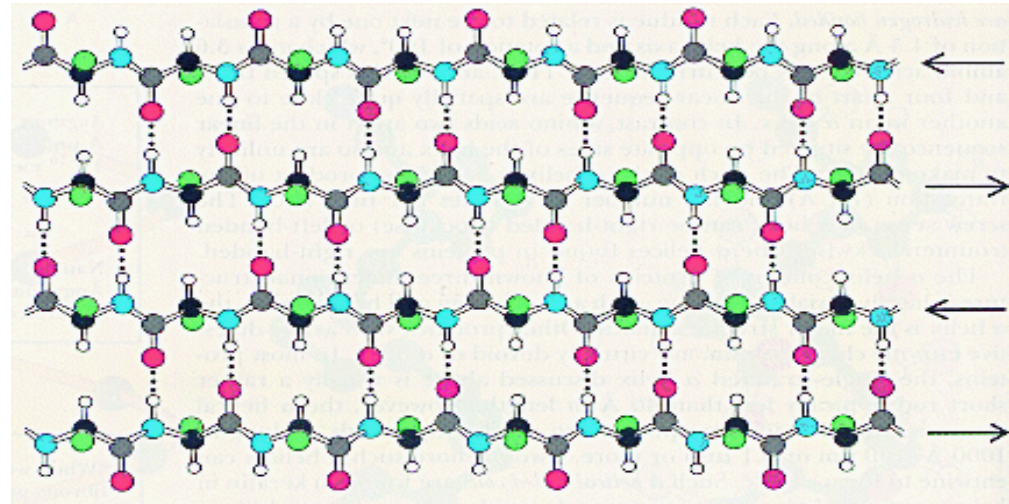

α-helix
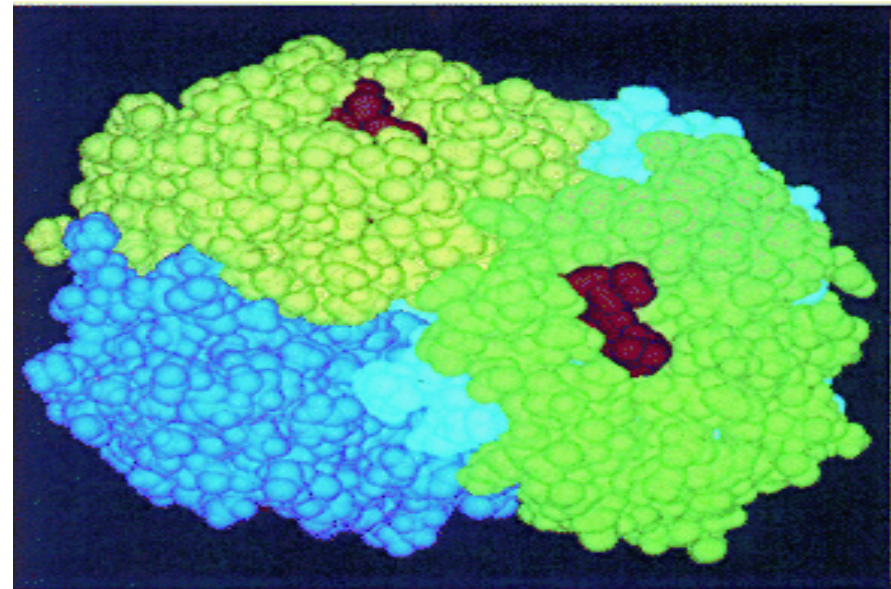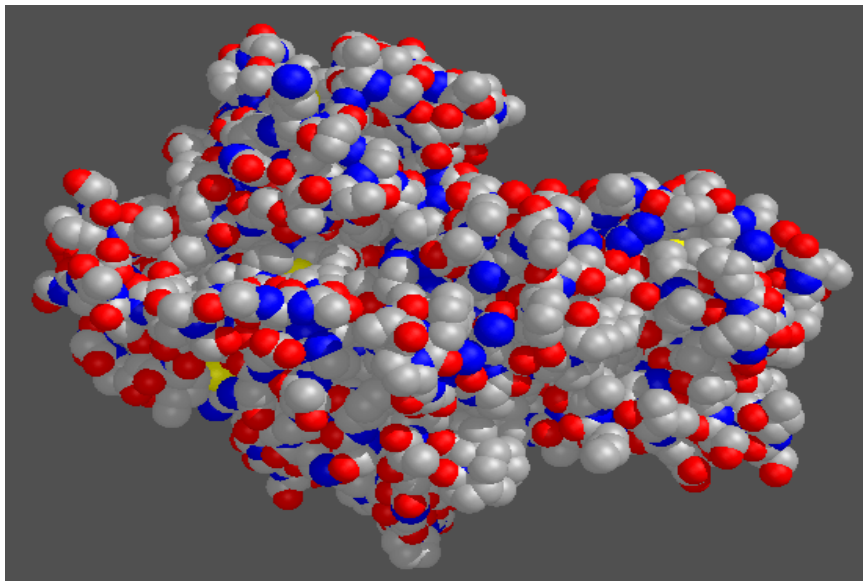
⟵

**Secondary
Structures**

β-sheets

⟶

Tertiary Structure

Quaternary Structure

Function of Proteins

- **Proteins make up much of the cellular structure – hair, skin, fingernails, etc.**

- **Enzymes – catalyze chemical reactions within the cell**

- **Transcription factors – regulate the manner in which genes direct production of other proteins**

- **Receptors – proteins on the surface of cells act as receptors for hormones and other signaling molecules**

- **Recognize and bind to Nucleic acids (DNA, RNA) and other Proteins – to carry out their functions in the cell**

Genes

Special sequences in the DNA code for genes:

- **Protein-coding genes**, for which the final product is a protein.

  - Same gene may give rise to more than one protein (~ 6 per gene in humans).

- **Non-coding RNA genes** - for which the final product is RNA

Genotype – An organism's genotype is the set of genes that it carries.

Phenotype – An organism's phenotype is all of its observable characteristics which are influenced both by its genotype and by the environment e.g., height, hair colour, levels of hormones, etc.

Differences in the genotypes can produce different phenotypes

Genes for ear form are different, causing one of the cats to have normal ears and the other to have curled ears

A change in environment also can affect the phenotype. Pinkness is <u>not</u> encoded in the genotype of flamingos – but the food they eat – brine shrimp and blue-green algae from which they obtain a natural pink dye, canthaxanthin.
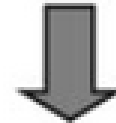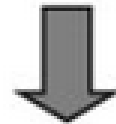
The "Omics" Cascade

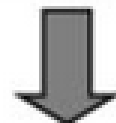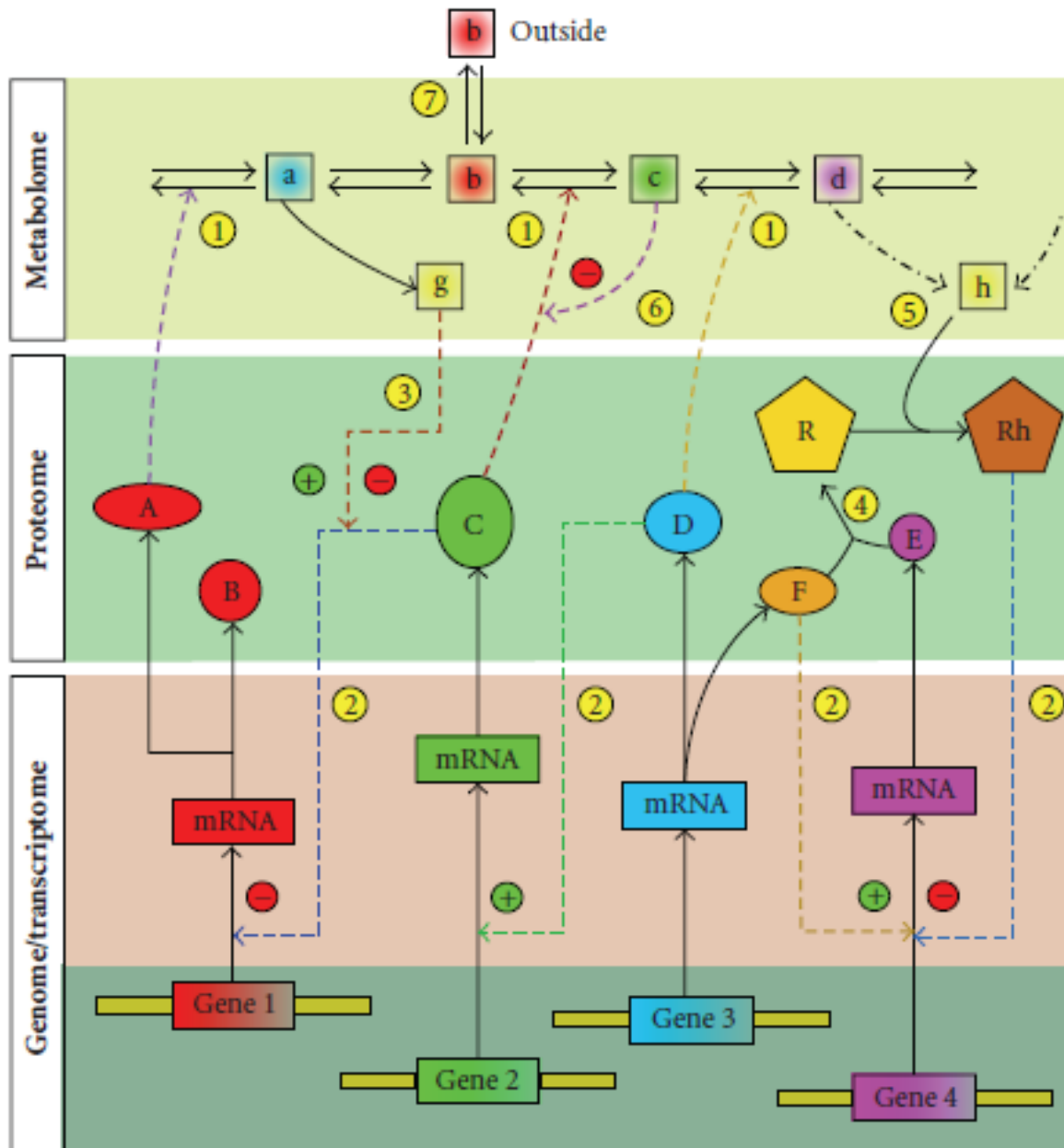|	
What can happen	GENOME
What appears to be happening	TRANSCRIPTOME
What makes it happen	PROTEOME
What has happened and is happening	METABOLOME

PHENOTYPE

Analyze Network of Networks

Types of interactions:
(1) enzyme catalysis,
(2) posttranscriptional control of gene expression by proteins
(3) effect of metabolite on gene transcription mediated by protein
(4) protein-protein interaction
(5) effect of a downstream metabolite on transcription through binding by protein
(6) Feedback inhibition/activation of an enzyme by a metabolite
(7) exchange of a metabolite with outside of the system (eg ,cell)

Complexity and interdependency of biochemical networks

Genes

The biological function of a gene is to preserve and express the genetic information encoded within it

Genes are normally very **stable entities**

Genetic stability is not **absolute**, however.

Genes may occasionally become **altered**; these changes called **mutations** create new **alleles**.

Mutant genes are also **stable entities** and are inherited in the same way as normal, wild-type genes.

Genes

Normal diploid cells of humans contain **two** sets of genes – one set inherited from each parent.

- corresponding genes derived from each parent are called **alleles**.

Together the two alleles govern the **phenotype** of an organism.

What is the percentage of genes in a genome?

Genes

Gene-fraction varies from ~70% in prokaryotes to ~2 - 3% in humans

- does that imply prokaryotes have more gene content than eukaryotes?

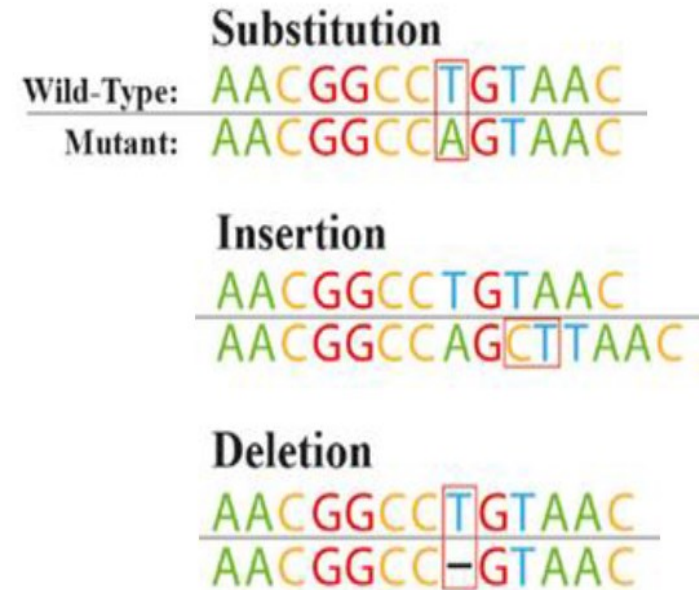- Size of a prokaryotic genome? Eukaryotic genome?

What is the function of the remaining ~97-98% of H. genome?

Major part of the genome is repetitive (~50%), and the remaining part consists of noncoding regions, whose functions may include providing chromosomal structural integrity and regulating where, when, and in what quantity proteins are made.

Mutations

Mutations - are local changes in the DNA content, caused by inexact replication and are of various kinds:

- **Substitution** - a base is replaced by another - may or may not alter the protein sequence depending on the place it occurs.

- **Insertion/Deletion** – addition/removal of one or more bases – results in a frame-shift in coding regions.

- **Rearrangement** - a change in the order of complete segments along a chromosome – large scale variation

Substitution

Wild-Type: AACGGCCTGTAAC
Mutant: AACGGCCAGTAAC

Insertion

AACGGCCTGTAAC
AACGGCCAGCTTAAC

Deletion

AACGGCCTGTAAC
AACGGCC–GTAAC

Mutations

Role of Mutations:

- **Mutations are the source of phenotypic variation on which natural selection acts, creating species & changing them.**

  Without mutations there wouldn't be any evolution!

- **They are responsible for inherited disorders and diseases, which involve alterations in gene.**

- **Large scale rearrangements are responsible for creating new species, e.g., the human and mouse genome are very similar – major difference being the internal order of DNA segments.**
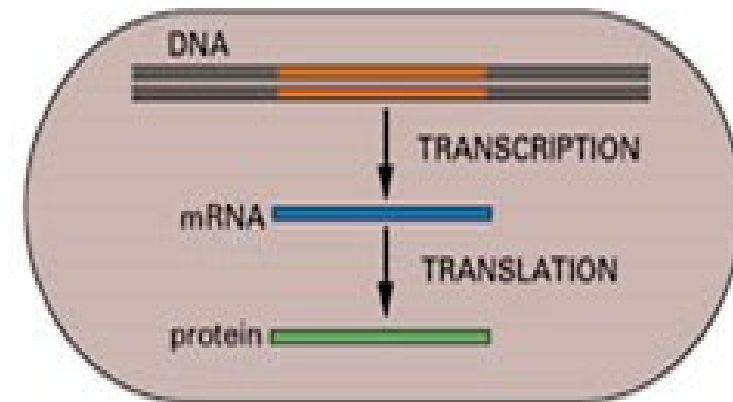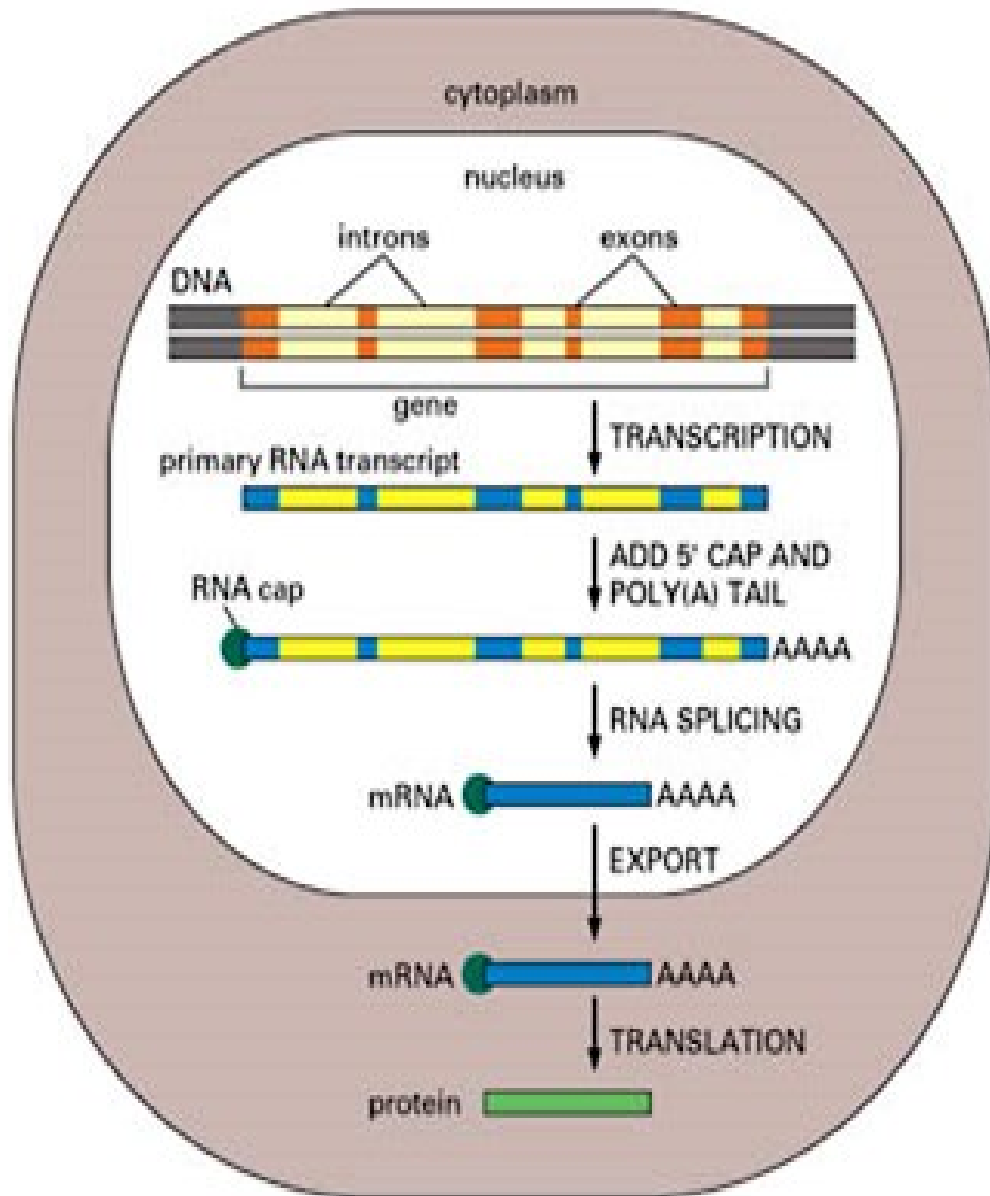
Chromosomal rearrangements occur both within and between chromosomes during evolution

The colors on the mouse chromosomes and the numbers alongside indicate the human chromosomes containing homologous segments.
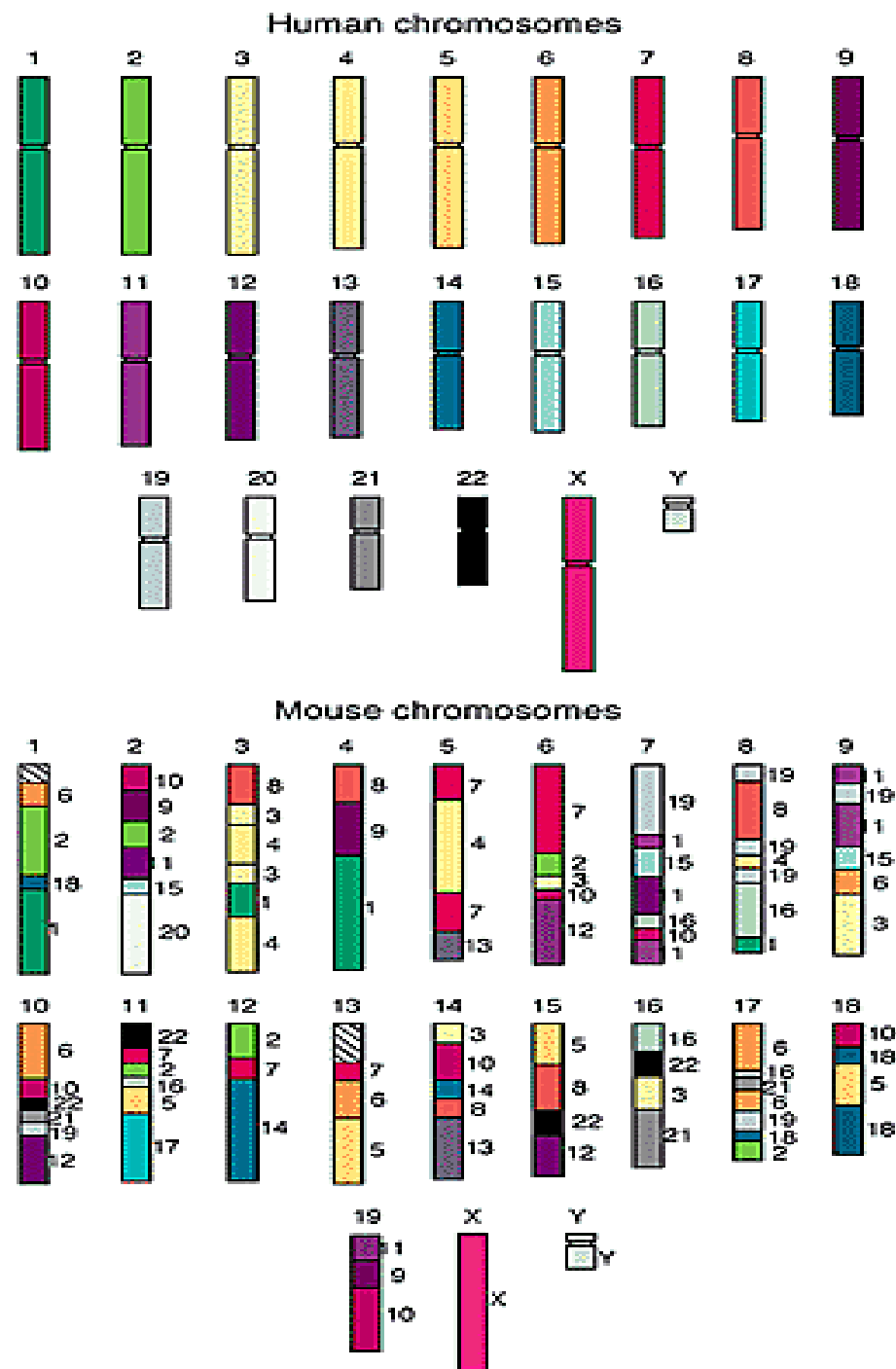
Steps Leading from Gene to Protein
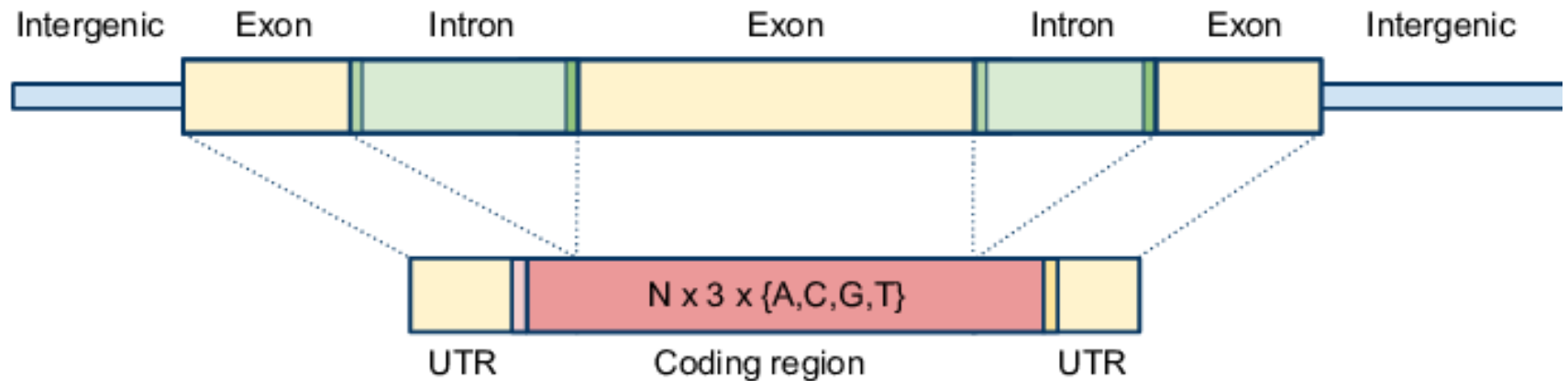

Prokaryotes

Eukaryotes

Gene Structure

UTR: Untranslated region

Eukaryote Gene Structure

Start codon: ATG   **Stop Codon: TAA/TAG/TGA**

Splice sites: GT/AG

Primary RNA transcript
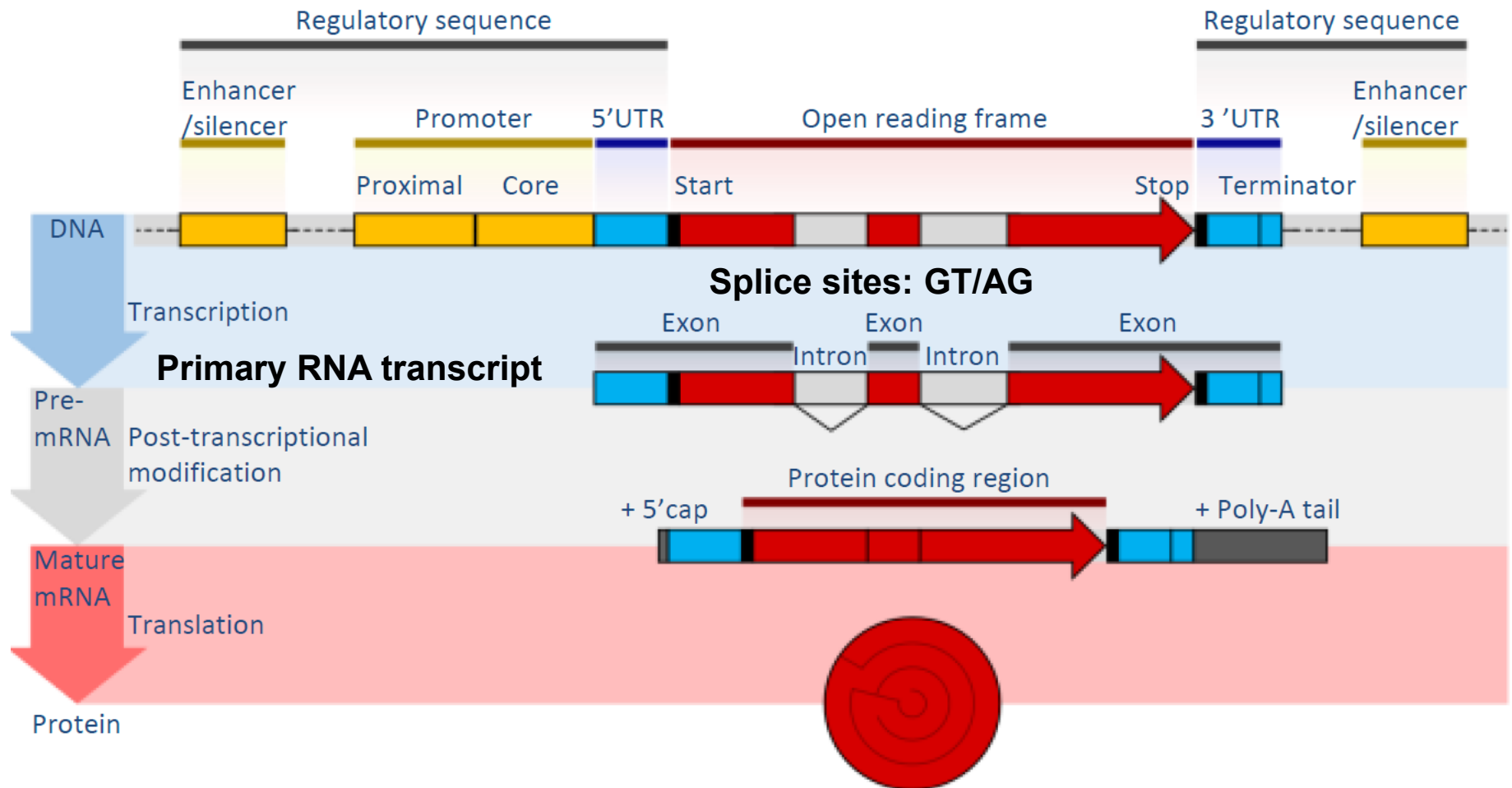
Transcription is initiated only at certain specific positions in the sequence, signaling the beginning of genes, called promoters.

Alternative Splicing

- **In many cases, the pattern of splicing can vary depending on the tissue in which the transcription occurs.**

  e.g., an exon maybe spliced in the gene transcribed in liver, but retained when transcribed in the brain.

- **This variation called alternative splicing, contributes to the overall protein diversity in the organism**

Alternative Initiation

- **Another type of variation that contributes to protein diversity is alternative initiation**
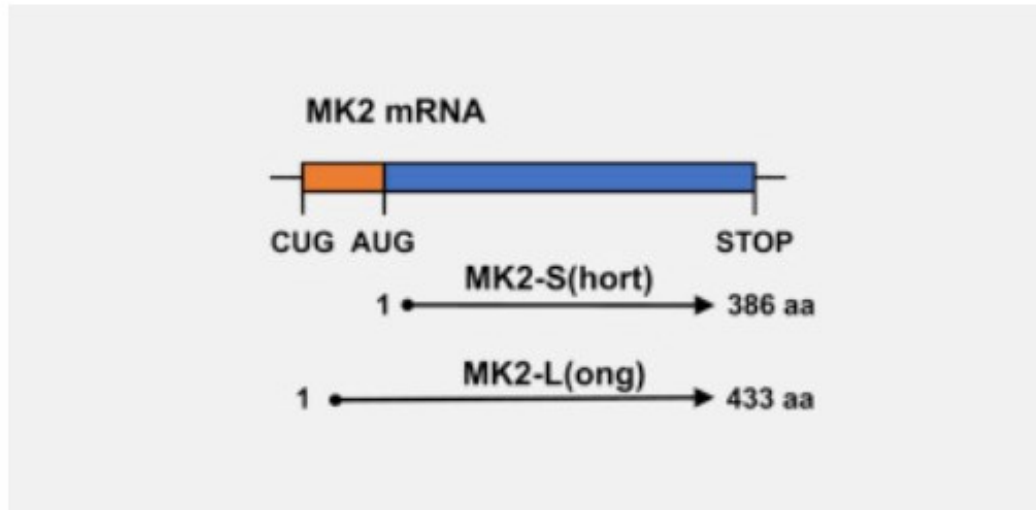
- **Alternative translation is an important mechanism of post-transcriptional gene regulation leading to the expression of different protein isoforms originating from the same mRNA**

Data Representation

DNA - a complex, dynamic, three-dimensional molecule represented as a string of alphabets
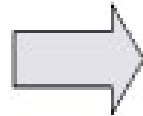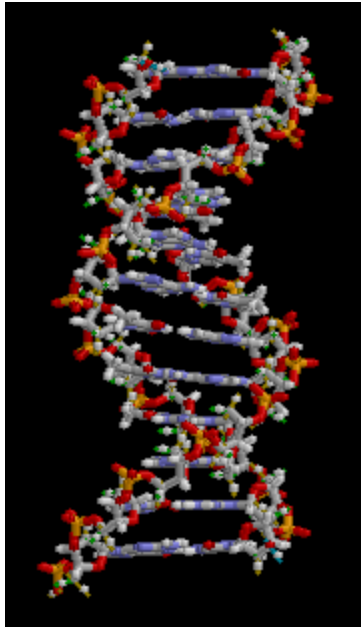
acgtcgtagttccagtc

- a perfect representation for computer analysis

Data Representation

For all computational purposes, a DNA sequence is considered to be a string on a 4-letter alphabet: A, T, G, C

ACGCTGAATAGC

Aim: to find grammar & syntax rules of DNA language based on this 4-letter alphabet

- similar to English Grammar to form meaningful sentences

Similarly, RNA sequence is represented as a string of 4 alphabets and protein sequence a string of 20 alphabets

Biological Sequence Analysis

<u>Pattern Recognition:</u>

Assumption in biological sequence analysis:

- strings carrying <u>information</u> will be different from random strings

If a hidden pattern can be identified in a string, it must be carrying some functional information

Biological Sequence Analysis

Order of occurrence of bases:

not completely <u>random</u>

- Different regions of the genome exhibit different patterns of the four bases, A, T, G, C

e.g., protein coding regions, regulatory regions, intron/exon boundaries, repeat regions, etc.

Aim: Identify various patterns to infer their functional roles

Example

(symbolic font text)

(symbolic font text)

This is a lecture on bioinformatics

asjd lkjfl jdjd sjftye nvcrow nzcdjhspu

Frequency of letters

A.	7.3%		N.	7.8%
B.	0.9%		O.	7.4%
C.	3.0%		P.	2.7%
D.	4.4%		Q.	0.3%
E.	13.0%		R.	7.7%
F.	2.8%		S.	6.3%
G.	1.6%		T.	9.3%
H.	3.5%		U.	2.7%
I.	7.4%		V.	1.3%
J.	0.2%		W.	1.6%
K.	0.3%		X.	0.5%
L.	3.5%		Y.	1.9%
M.	2.5%		Z.	0.1%

Other statistics

Frequencies of the most common first letter of a word, last letter of a word, doublets, triplets, etc.

20 most used words in written English

- the of to in and a for was is that on at he with by be it an as his

 20 most used words in spoken English

- the and I to of a you that in it is yes was this but on well he have for

Parallels in DNA language

ATGGTGGTCATGGCGCCCCGAACCCTCTTCCTGCTG
CTCTCGGGGGCCCTGACCCTGACCGAGACCTGGGCG
GGTGAGTGCGGGGTCAGGAGGGAAACAGCCCCTGC
GCGGAGGAGGGAGGGGCCGGCCCGGCGGG

GTCTCAACCCCTCCTCGCCCCCAGGCTCCCACTCCA
TGAGGTATTTCAGCGCCGCCGTGTCCCGGCCCGGCC
GCGGGGAGCCCCGCTTCATCGCCATGGGCTACGTGG
ACGACACGCAGTTCGTGCGGTTC

Parallels in DNA language

ATG GTG GTC **ATG** GCG CCC CGA ACC CTC TTC
CTG CTG CTC TCG GGG GCC CTG ACC CTG ACC
GAG ACC TGG GCG GGT GAG TGC GGG GTC AGG
AGG GAA ACA GCC CCT GCG CGG AGG AGG GAG
GGG CCG GCC CGG CGG…

GTC TCA ACC CCT CCT CGC CCC CAG GCT CCC ACT
CCA **TGA** GGT ATT TCA GCG CCG CCG TGT CCC
GGC CCG GCC GCG GGG AGC CCC GCT TCA TCG
CCA TGG GCT ACG TGG ACG ACA CGC AGT TCG
TGC GGT TC…

1ˢᵗ exon and 1ˢᵗ intron of Human HLA gene

This task needs to be automated because of the large genome sizes:

Smallest genome:

Mycoplasma genitalium 0.5×10^6 bp

Human genome: 3×10^9 bp – not the largest!

~ 10-100 times the Britannica Encyclopedia

Plant genomes are even larger.

DNA Sequence Analysis

- Evolution has operated on every sequence that we see today - genes and sequences involved in gene regulation are conserved.

- these are transferred, like code modules, from one organism to another.

- Because of evolution, similar sequences have similar functions.

- Algorithms for comparing sequences and finding similar regions are at the <u>heart</u> of computational biology.