= 16 amino acids. A code of 3 nucleotides could code for a maximum of 43 = 64 amino acids.

The Crick, Brenner et al. experiment first demonstrated that codons consist of three DNA bases; Marshall Nirenberg and Heinrich J. Matthaei were the first to elucidate the nature of a codon in 1961 at the National Institutes of Health. They used a cell @-@ free system to translate a poly @-@ uracil RNA sequence (i.e., UUUUU ...) and discovered that the polypeptide that they had synthesized consisted of only the amino acid phenylalanine. They thereby deduced that the codon UUU specified the amino acid phenylalanine. This was followed by experiments in Severo Ochoa 's laboratory that demonstrated that the poly @-@ adenine RNA sequence (AAAAA ...) coded for the polypeptide poly @-@ lysine and that the poly @-@ cytosine RNA sequence (CCCCC ...) coded for the polypeptide poly @-@ proline. Therefore, the codon AAA specified the amino acid lysine, and the codon CCC specified the amino acid proline. Using different copolymers most of the remaining codons were then determined. Subsequent work by Har Gobind Khorana identified the rest of the genetic code . Shortly thereafter , Robert W. Holley determined the structure of transfer RNA (tRNA), the adapter molecule that facilitates the process of translating RNA into protein. This work was based upon earlier studies by Severo Ochoa, who received the Nobel Prize in Physiology or Medicine in 1959 for his work on the enzymology of RNA synthesis.

Extending this work, Nirenberg and Philip Leder revealed the triplet nature of the genetic code and deciphered the codons of the standard genetic code. In these experiments, various combinations of mRNA were passed through a filter that contained ribosomes, the components of cells that translate RNA into protein. Unique triplets promoted the binding of specific tRNAs to the ribosome. Leder and Nirenberg were able to determine the sequences of 54 out of 64 codons in their experiments. In 1968, Khorana, Holley and Nirenberg received the Nobel Prize in Physiology or Medicine for their work.

= = Features = =

= = = Reading frame = = =

A codon is defined by the initial nucleotide from which translation starts and sets the frame for a run of uninterrupted triplets, which is known as an "open reading frame "(ORF). For example, the string GGGAAACCC, if read from the first position, contains the codons GGG, AAA, and CCC; and, if read from the second position, it contains the codons GGA and AAC; if read starting from the third position, GAA and ACC. Every sequence can, thus, be read in its 5 '? 3 ' direction in three reading frames, each of which will produce a different amino acid sequence (in the given example, Gly @-@ Lys @-@ Pro, Gly @-@ Asn, or Glu @-@ Thr, respectively). With double @-@ stranded DNA, there are six possible reading frames, three in the forward orientation on one strand and three reverse on the opposite strand. The actual frame from which a protein sequence is translated is defined by a start codon, usually the first AUG codon in the mRNA sequence.

In eukaryotes, ORFs in exons are often interrupted by introns.

= = = Start / stop codons = = =

Translation starts with a chain initiation codon or start codon. Unlike stop codons, the codon alone is not sufficient to begin the process. Nearby sequences such as the Shine @-@ Dalgarno sequence in E. coli and initiation factors are also required to start translation. The most common start codon is AUG, which is read as methionine or, in bacteria, as formylmethionine. Alternative start codons depending on the organism include " GUG " or " UUG "; these codons normally represent valine and leucine, respectively, but as start codons they are translated as methionine or formylmethionine.

The three stop codons have been given names: UAG is amber, UGA is opal (sometimes also called umber), and UAA is ochre . " Amber " was named by discoverers Richard Epstein and Charles Steinberg after their friend Harris Bernstein , whose last name means " amber " in German . The other two stop codons were named " ochre " and " opal " in order to keep the " color names " theme . Stop codons are also called " termination " or " nonsense " codons . They signal release of the nascent polypeptide from the ribosome because there is no cognate tRNA that has anticodons complementary to these stop signals , and so a release factor binds to the ribosome instead .

= = = Effect of mutations = = =

During the process of DNA replication , errors occasionally occur in the polymerization of the second strand . These errors , called mutations , can affect the phenotype of an organism , especially if they occur within the protein coding sequence of a gene . Error rates are usually very low ? 1 error in every 10 ? 100 million bases ? due to the " proofreading " ability of DNA polymerases .

Missense mutations and nonsense mutations are examples of point mutations, which can cause genetic diseases such as sickle @-@ cell disease and thalassemia respectively. Clinically important missense mutations generally change the properties of the coded amino acid residue between being basic, acidic, polar or non @-@ polar, whereas nonsense mutations result in a stop codon.

Mutations that disrupt the reading frame sequence by indels (insertions or deletions) of a non @-@ multiple of 3 nucleotide bases are known as frameshift mutations. These mutations usually result in a completely different translation from the original, and are also very likely to cause a stop codon to be read, which truncates the creation of the protein. These mutations may impair the function of the resulting protein, and are thus rare in in vivo protein @-@ coding sequences. One reason inheritance of frameshift mutations is rare is that, if the protein being translated is essential for growth under the selective pressures the organism faces, absence of a functional protein may cause death before the organism is viable. Frameshift mutations may result in severe genetic diseases such as Tay @-@ Sachs disease.

Although most mutations that change protein sequences are harmful or neutral , some mutations have a beneficial effect on an organism . These mutations may enable the mutant organism to withstand particular environmental stresses better than wild type organisms , or reproduce more quickly . In these cases a mutation will tend to become more common in a population through natural selection . Viruses that use RNA as their genetic material have rapid mutation rates , which can be an advantage , since these viruses will evolve constantly and rapidly , and thus evade the defensive responses of e.g. the human immune system . In large populations of asexually reproducing organisms , for example , E. coli , multiple beneficial mutations may co @-@ occur . This phenomenon is called clonal interference and causes competition among the mutations .

= = = Degeneracy = = =