Topic 2 – Gene Sequences

DNA

Biology has been an observed or empirical science for a long time

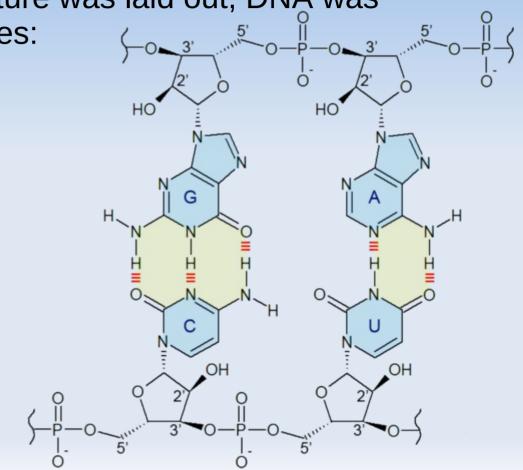
- In the last 75 years, it has become more precise and quantitative: mathematical models used in physics and chemistry have become more common in biology.
- 1920s: 4 nucleotides and polymer nature of DNA accepted but it was not considered the basis for inheritance
- 1952: Hershey-Chase experiment showed that DNA is the genetic material in T2 phage
- 1953: Watson-Crick's double-helix model of DNA structure

DNA bases

Even before the Watson-Crick structure was laid out, DNA was

known to be made of four molecules:

- Adenine (A)
- Cytosine (C)
- Guanine (G)
- Thymine (T)

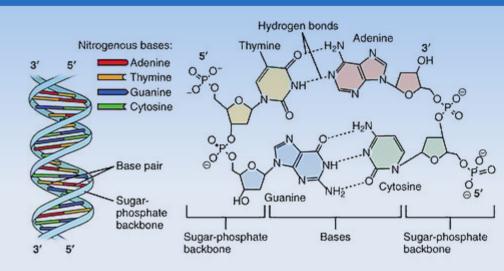


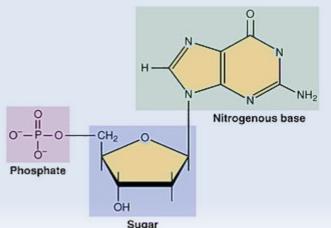
Nucleotides

These four nitrogenous "bases" (adenine, cytosine, guanine, and thymine) are chemical compounds each consisting of about 10 atoms – carbon, hydrogen, nitrogen, and oxygen.

A base bound to a 2-deoxyribose sugar is a nucleoside and a nucleoside bound to a phosphate is a **nucleotide**.

The acidity of DNA is due to the acidic phosphate group



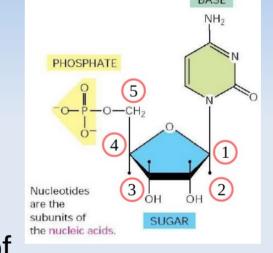


Nucleotides and sugar-phosphate backbone

A cytosine (C) combines with a phosphate (p) and a 5-carbon sugar (s)

to form the nucleotide:

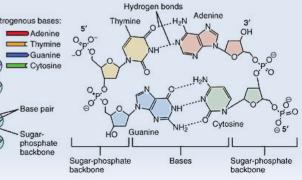
C | p-s



Nucleotides are connected in a chain of

alternating "sugar-phosphate" molecules:

p-s-p-s-p-s-p-s-p-s-p-s



Nucleotide chain

Nucleotides are connected via alternating "sugar-phosphate" molecules:

- There is a direction to this strand: the first phosphate tells us where the DNA strand starts and is called the **5'** end. The last sugar indicates the opposite side and is called the **3'** end.
- Apart from the direction, the sugar-phosphate backbone does not contain any genetic information.
- Thus, the above sequence of nucleotides can be represented as:

DNA Structure

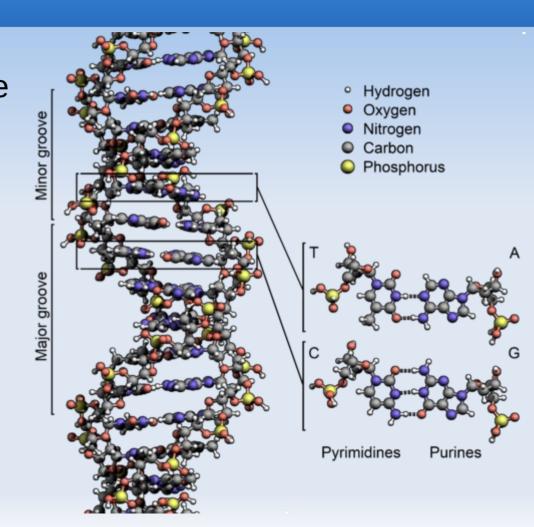
Watson-Crick double-helix model of DNA structure – showed that there is a strict base pairing rule:

Adenines bind with Thymines

Cytosine bind with Guanine

Original paper ends with this amazing understatement:

"It has not escaped our notice that the specific pairing we have postulated immediately suggests a possible copying mechanism for the genetic material."



DNA Base Pairs

The sequence of nucleotides:

is likely to exist as "double-stranded" DNA:

Note that the complementary strand goes in the opposite direction. DNA is more stable in the double-helix form, i.e. with pairs of bases. Such a "double-stranded" DNA is usually specified in units of base-pairs.

DNA Base Pairs

Under "normal" conditions, the base-pairing rules are followed and if one strand is specified:

the other (complementary) strand can be deduced using the basepairing rules:

Since the information in the two strands is redundant, usually only one is shown. The other strand is assumed to be present.

RNA

We saw earlier that a gene is used to make a protein or RNA product. RNA is similar to DNA but has a different sugar: ribose.

The ribose-phosphate backbone makes RNA relatively stable as a **single strand**. Furthermore, RNA has Uracils instead of the Thymines seen in DNA.

A Uracil can bind to an Adenine in DNA or RNA with less energy than Thymine – good for efficiency in making copies but results in RNA being less stable than DNA.

A process called "transcription" generates RNA from a DNA strand.

DNA Transcription

A process called "transcription" generates RNA from a DNA strand.

The DNA molecule unwinds enough to let certain proteins come into contact with the 5' end of a gene - the "start" location and create an RNA copy of the "coding" strand.

These proteins "read" the bases from the 5' end to the 3' end of the "coding" strand by binding to the non-coding strand and following the base-pairing rules: an Adenine in the DNA generates a Uracil in the RNA strand and a Guanine in the DNA generates a Cytosine in the RNA, and so on.

DNA Transcription

Suppose we have the following dsDNA:

$$5'-C$$
 T T G A G T C $C-3'$ \leftarrow Coding or "sense" strand $3'-G$ A A C T C A G $G-5'$ \leftarrow Reverse complement

This will get transcribed to the following RNA single strand

Protein

If the product of a gene is a protein molecule, the transcribed RNA is used to make the protein.

Information in a gene goes in one direction:

DNA → RNA → Protein

This was thought to be a universal law for all living things until the discovery of RNA viruses which have RNA as their genetic material. For example: retroviruses like the HIV virus.

In eukaryotic cells, messenger RNA goes through a number of sequence "editing" steps before being translated to protein sequences

Protein

DNA → RNA → Protein

Proteins, like DNA and RNA, are linear sequences but instead of nucleotides, proteins are made of amino acids.

The carboxyl group of one amino acid can bind to the amine group of the next, forming a stable chain of amino acids – a protein.

There are 22 amino acids that occur naturally — proteins have a much larger alphabet than RNA or DNA. Two of these 22 are considered "non-standard"

Three consecutive RNA bases (a **codon**) are used to make a single amino acid.

Counting Possibilities

DNA → RNA → Protein

Let's count the number of possible codons. Remember that a codon is any set of 3 (RNA) nucleotides.

This means there are 4 possibilities for the first of the 3, another 4 possibilities for the second and 4 for the third nucleotide in the codon

- → 4 * 4 * 4 different codons
- → 64 codons

These 64 codons are converted to just 20-22 amino acids – there is redundancy in coding: there may be many codons that are translatedd to the same amino acid.

The Genetic Code

The rules used to translate an RNA codon to an amino acid in a protein are called the Genetic code

Our RNA single strand

5'-CUU GAG UCC-3'

will be translated to the amino acid sequence:

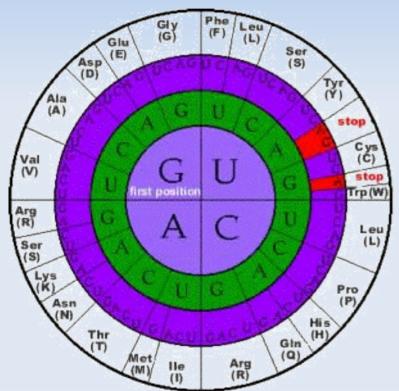
Leu-Glu-Ser

ode:					Secon	d Letter					
		U		С		А		G			
ı	U	UUU UUC UUA UUG	Phe Leu	UCU UCC UCA UCG	Ser	UAU UAC UAA UAG	Tyr Stop Stop	UGU UGC UGA UGG	Cys Stop Trp	UCAG	
1st	С	CUU CUC CUA CUG	Leu	CCU CCC CCA CCG	Pro	CAU CAC CAA CAG	His Gln	CGU CGC CGA CGG	Arg	∪c∢g	3rd
letter	A	AUU AUC AUA AUG	lle Met	ACU ACC ACA ACG	Thr	AAU AAC AAA AAG	Asn Lys	AGU AGC AGA AGG	Ser Arg	⊃∪∢⊍	lette
	G	GUU GUC GUA GUG	Val	GCU GCC GCA GCG	Ala	GAU GAC GAA GAG	Asp Glu	GGU GGC GGA GGG	Gly	DUAG	

The Genetic Code

The standard Genetic code is used in most organisms but there are

alternative genetic codes.



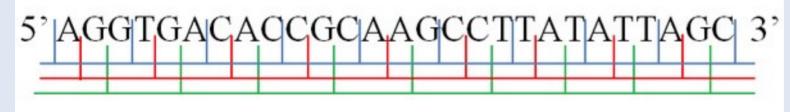
UUU	Phe	UCU	Ser	UAU	Tyr	UGU	Cys
UUC	Phe	UCC	Ser	UAC	Tyr	UGC	Cys
UUA	Leu	UCA	Ser	UAA	Stp, Gln ³	UGA	Stp,Trp ^{4,5} ,Cys ⁶ ,SeC ⁷
UUG	Leu	UCG	Ser	UAG	Stp, Gln ³	UGG	
CUU	Leu	CCU	Pro	CAU	His	CGU	Arg
CUC	Leu	CCC	Pro	CAC	His	CGC	Arg
CUA	Leu	CCA	Pro	CAA	Gln	CGA	Arg
CUG	Leu, Ser ¹	CCG	Pro	CAG	Gln	CGG	Arg, Usp ⁵
AUU	lle	ACU	Thr	AAU	Asn	AGU	Ser
AUC	lle	ACC	Thr	AAC	Asn	AGC	Ser
AUA	lle, Usp ²	ACA	Thr	AAA	Lys	AGA	Arg, Usp ⁹
AUG	Met	ACG	Thr	AAG	Lys	AGG	Arg
GUU	Val	GCU	Ala	GAU	Asp	GGU	Gly
GUC	Val	GCC	Ala	GAC	Asp	GGC	Gly
GUA	Val	GCA	Ala Res 10	GAA	Glu	GGA	Gly
GUG		GCG	Ala	GAG	Glu	GGG	Gly

1–Candida, 2–Micrococcus, 3–ciliated protozoans and green algae, 4–Mycoplasma, 5–Bacteria, 6–Euplotes, 7–Selenocysteine, 8–spiroplasma, 9–Micrococcus, 10 – resume ssrA RNA codon

Reading Frames

A DNA strand has a direction but where does translation start?

Remember, codons occur as consecutive non-overlapping nucleotide triplets. A reading frame is how nucleotide sequences are divided up into codon triplets:



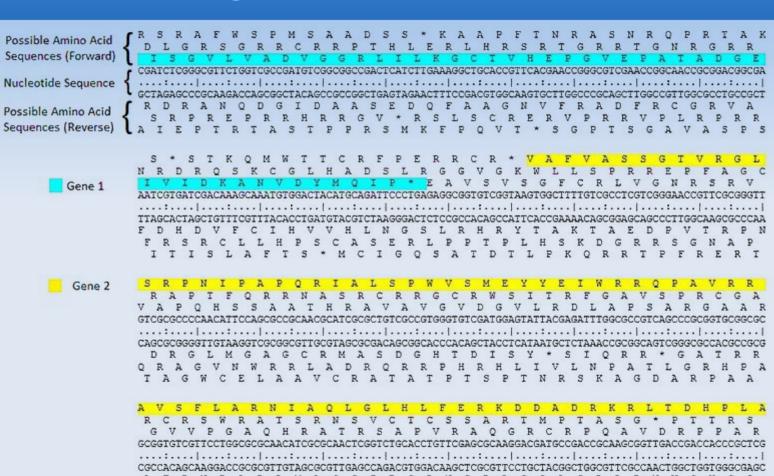
AGG-TGA-CAC-CGC-AAG-CCT-TAT-ATT-AGC

A GGT-GAC-ACC-GCA-AGC-CTT-ATA-TTA-GC

AG-GTG-ACA-CCG-CAA-GCC-TTA-TAT-TAG-C

Reading Frames

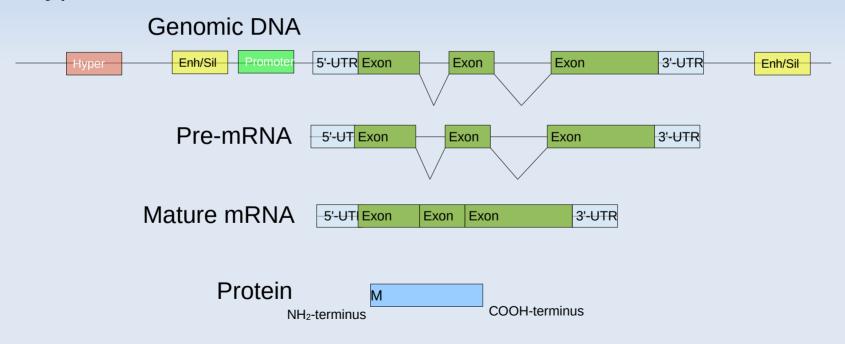
Remember, that a DNA strand is usually assumed to have a reverse complement strand as well. The complementary strand has 3 reading frames as well:



Gene Expression and Regulation

The expression of genes – whether they are

Regulation: promoters, upstream and downstream enhancers/silencers or DNase hypersensitive sites.



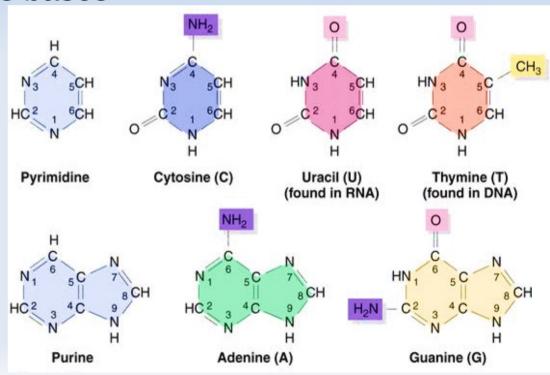
Extras

Chemical properties of DNA

- Deoxyribose or Ribose == 5-carbon sugar
- Nucleotides == Nityrogenous bases
- Acid == phosphate group

- a) Pyrimidines (Y): C, U, T
- b) Purines (R): A, G

Ambiguity code

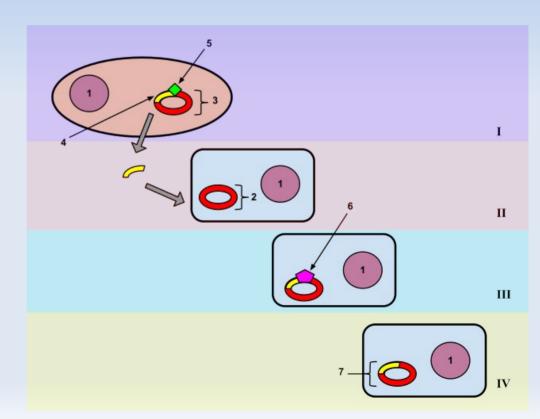


Evidence: DNA holds genetic information

1944 experiments with bacteria – Transformation

 gene from one bacterium (I) can go to another (II-IV)

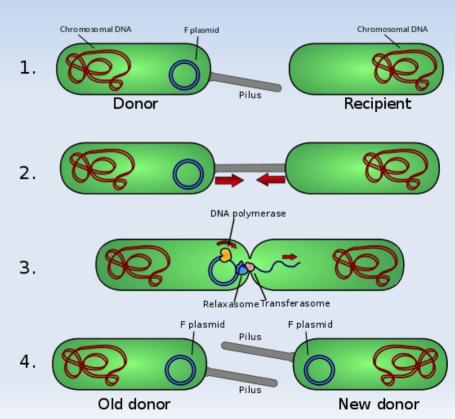
1953: Double-helix



Evidence: DNA holds genetic information

1946 experiments also in bacteria – Conjugation

gene from one bacterium (1)
can go to another (2-4)



Evidence: DNA holds genetic information

1952 experiments in bacteria/virus – Transduction

gene from one bacterium (1) can go to another (5-7) via a

phage

Expts in Madison in 1952

