

Chapter 17: From Gene to Protein

Over View

- **Genetic material** : -is the information content of DNA
Or – it is specific sequences of nucleotides along strands of the DNA .
 - The DNA inherited by an organism leads to specific traits by dictating the synthesis of proteins .
-**Proteins are the links between genotype and phenotype** (this is the main point of this chapter).
 - **Gene expression**: the process by which DNA directs protein synthesis, includes two stages:
Transcription and Translation
-

Concept 17.1 : *Genes specify proteins via transcription and Translation.*

-How was the fundamental relationship between genes and proteins discovered?

• Evidence from the Study of Metabolic Defects

- In 1909, British physician Archibald **Garrod** first suggested that genes dictate phenotypes through enzymes that catalyze specific chemical reactions in the cell .
So , genes dictate the production of a specific enzyme , and the inability to synthesize a certain enzyme leads to inherited disease.
 - Biochemists accumulated much evidence that, cells synthesize and degrade molecules via metabolic pathways , in which each chemical reaction is catalyzed by a specific enzyme .(such metabolic pathway leads to synthesis of pigments that give the color of eyes of fruit fly)

↻ **Nutritional Mutants in Neurospora**

- Scientific Inquiry

- George Beadle and Edward Tatum exposed bread mold called (*Neurospora crassa*) to X-rays, for creating mutants (they wanted mutants which are unable to survive in minimal medium .

Note : in minimal medium wild-type bread mold can survive ; by their metabolic pathways they produce all the other molecules they need , while mutants couldn't because they were unable to synthesize certain essential molecules from the minimal ingredients , so they need COMPLETE MEDIUM or minimal medium with additional nutrients, to grow .

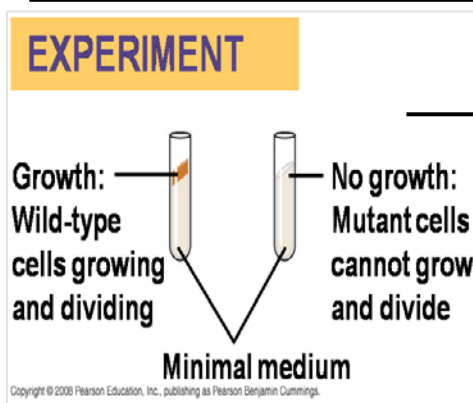
what did Beadle & Edward do ?

- they want to characterize the metabolic defect in each mutant , they took samples from grown mutant and distributed them in vials (vials contained minimal mediums+single additional nutrient) ; **the particular additional nutrient that allowed the growth indicated the metabolic defect .**

- for example if the supplemented vial that supported growth of the mutant was the one contain amino acid (arginine) they will conclude that mutant was defective in synthesise of (arginine) .

Note : Arginine biosynthesis involved precursor nutrient + intermediate molecules (ornithine & citrulline) together. And that needs many enzymes .

their experierment below is about (**Do individual genes specify the enzymes that function in abiochemical pathway**)



- mutant cell cannot grow because it needs areginine (it cant produce it)
- mutants that required argenine in their growth are fell in 3 classes , each lacking a different necessary enzyme for synthesizing argenine .
- they grew each one of these 3 classes into 4 conditions to know what the differences between these 3 classes of mutants .

the results are in the figure >>

(MM) means (minimal medium)

1st column : wild type was capable to growth in all conditions , requiring only the minimal medium .

1st row : no nutrient was added to the minimal medium (it's pure precursor nutrient) so mutant cell wasn't grown in any one .

4th row : argenine was added directly so the mutant cell was grown in the 3 classes .

-**the three classes of mutants each had a specific s growth requirements** , for example (class II) mutants couldn't grow when ornithine alone but could grow when either citrulline or argenine was added .

		Classes of <i>Neurospora crassa</i>			
		Wild type	Class I mutants	Class II mutants	Class III mutants
Condition	Minimal medium (MM) (control)	Growth	Growth	Growth	Growth
	MM + ornithine	Growth	No growth	No growth	No growth
	MM + citrulline	Growth	Growth	Growth	No growth
	MM + arginine (control)	Growth	Growth	Growth	Growth

التجربة معقدة قليلا لكن الاستنتاج النهائي بوضوح كل فكرتها ، أكمل للنهاية ... ☺

Conclusion : - Each class of mutant was unable to carry out one step in the pathway for synthesizing argenine , because it lacked the necessary enzyme which catalyze that blocked step.

Steps of argenine synthesis :

1.synthesis (**ornithine**) needs (**precursor nutrients**) and (**enzyme A**)

2. synthesis (**Citrulline**) needs (**Ornithine**) and (**enzyme B**) .

3. synthesis (**Argenine**) needs (**Citrulline**) and (**enzyme C**).

In another word >>
No enzyme A >it needs a ready ornithine to begin the synthesis way of argenine ...

CONCLUSION

	Wild type	Class I mutants (mutation in gene A)	Class II mutants (mutation in gene B)	Class III mutants (mutation in gene C)
○ Precursor	Precursor	Precursor	Precursor	Precursor
Gene A →	Enzyme A ↓	Enzyme A ✗	Enzyme A ↓	Enzyme A ↓
○ Ornithine	Ornithine	Ornithine	Ornithine	Ornithine
Gene B →	Enzyme B ↓	Enzyme B ↓	Enzyme B ✗	Enzyme B ↓
○ Citrulline	Citrulline	Citrulline	Citrulline	Citrulline
Gene C →	Enzyme C ↓	Enzyme C ↓	Enzyme C ↓	Enzyme C ✗
○ Arginine	Arginine	Arginine	Arginine	Arginine

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From this inquiry >>

- they concluded that each mutated gene must normally dictate the production of one enzyme .

-They developed a (**one gene–one enzyme hypothesis**), which says that the function of the gene is to dictate production of a specific enzyme .

- **But ,** researchers later revised the hypothesis: *one gene–one protein* because Some proteins aren't enzymes and Many proteins are composed of several polypeptides, each one has its own gene .



Beadle and Tatum's hypothesis is now restated as the **one gene–one polypeptide hypothesis** , but it is common to refer to gene products as proteins rather than polypeptides 😊

• Basic Principles of Transcription and Translation

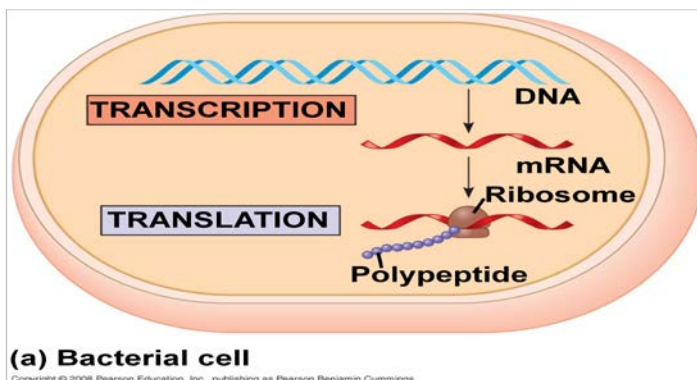
- Genes provide instructions for making specific proteins but not directly , the bridge between DNA and Protein is the nucleic acid RNA .
 - **Transcription** is the synthesis of RNA under the direction of DNA
- Both nucleic acids (**DNA & RNA**) use the same language , and information is simply transcribed or copied from one molecule to another .
 1. DNA molecule serves as a template for assembling a complementary sequence of RNA nucleotides .
 2. Then the RNA molecule will carry the genetic message from the DNA to Protein synthesizing machinery of the cell . This type of RNA called **Messenger RNA (mRNA)** .

Note transcription is the general term for the synthesis of any kind of RNA on a DNA template , not only for mRNA synthesizing .

- **Translation** is the synthesis of a polypeptide, which occurs under the direction of mRNA
- **During this stage there is a change in language** : the cell must translate the base sequence of an mRNA molecule into the amino acid sequence of a polypeptide .
- the sites of translation are **Ribosomes** (complex particles that facilitate the orderly linking of amino acids into polypeptide)

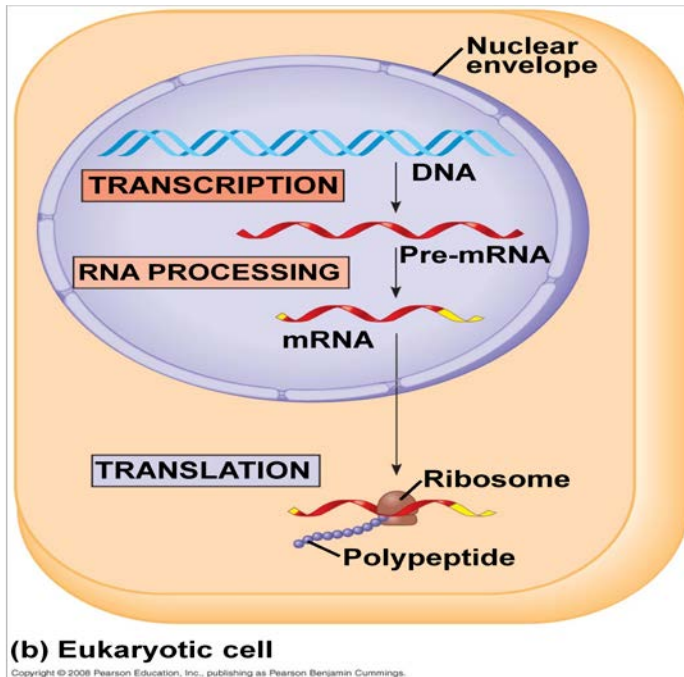
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- Transcription and Translation occur in all organisms , the basic mechanics are similar for bacteria and eukaryotes , but there is a difference in the flow of genetic information within the cell.

-In prokaryotes, mRNA produced by transcription is immediately translated without additional processing .



- Because of lacking for nuclei ; DNA is not segregated (separated) from ribosomes that allows translation of an mRNA to begin while its transcription is still in progress.

- in eukaryotes , the nuclear envelope separate transcription from translation in space and time . Transcription occur in nucleus and mRNA is transported to the cytoplasm where translation occurs.
- before the mRNA leave nucleus , it modified in various way to produce the final functional mRNA .



1. The primary transcript : The initial RNA transcript from any eukaryotic gene (in protein coding) which results in **Pre-mRNA**.
2. Pre-mRNA will modified in various ways to produce the final functional mRNA.

- We concludes that , cells are governed by a cellular chain of command: **DNA → RNA → protein** (this concept was dubbed **The central dogma**).

Revision from chapter 5 :

What are the differences between DNA & RNA ?

- RNA contains ribose while DNA contains deoxyribose
- RNA has the nitrogenous base uracil , while DNA has nitrogenous base Thymine.
- RNA molecule consists usually of a single strand .

• The Genetic Code

- When biologists guessed that the instructions for protein synthesis were encoded in DNA they recognized a problem : **There are 20 types of amino acids , but there are only four types of nucleotide bases in DNA ! How many bases correspond to an amino acid?!**

1- The flow of information from gene to protein is based on a **triplet code** a series of (non-overlapping, three-nucleotide) words.

triplet code = the genetic instructions which are written in the DNA for the polypeptide chain.

- These **triplets** are the smallest units of uniform length that can code for all the amino acid . (هي أصغر وحدة يمكن ان تكون شيفرة لأحماض امينية)

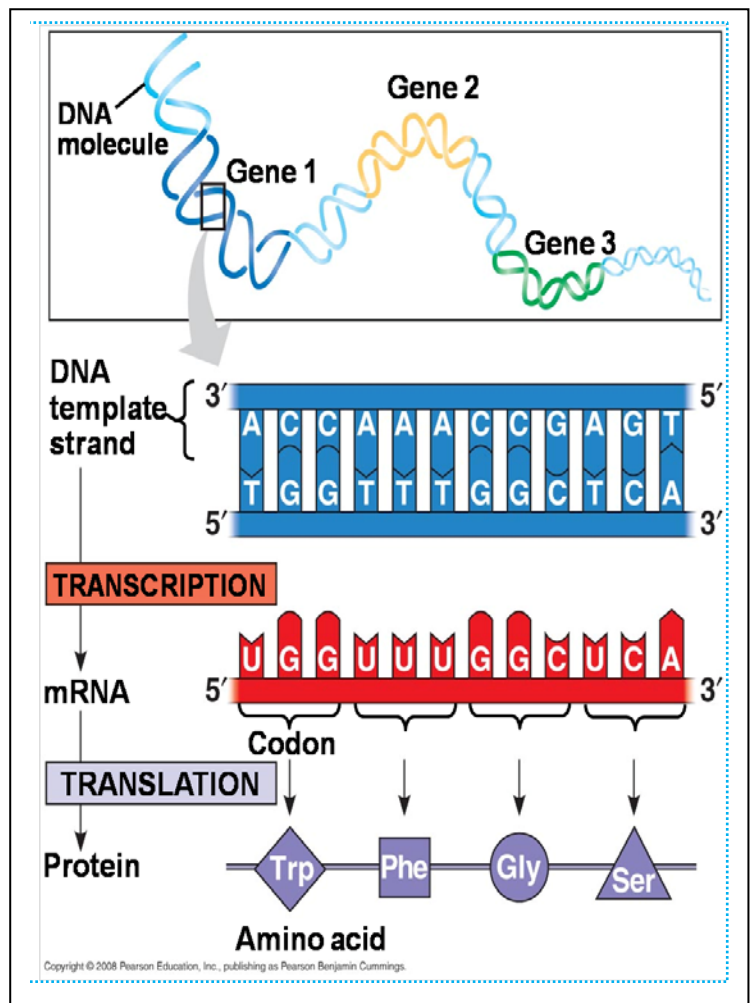
Example: this triplet code (AGT) at a particular position on a DNA strand results the amino acid (serine) at the corresponding position of the polypeptide chain .

Figure17.4 : The Triplet Code

1) During **Transcription**, one of the two DNA strands called the **template strand** works as a template for ordering the sequence of nucleotides in an RNA transcript.

Note the RNA molecule is synthesized in an anti-parallel direction to the template strand of DNA.

2) During **Translation**, the mRNA base triplets, called **codons**, they are translated (decoded) by translation machinery in the 5' to 3' direction, each codon specifies the addition of one of 20 amino acids .



Notes :

1. mRNA molecule is complementary ,not identical to its DNA template ☺
- 2.the term codon is also used for the DNA base triplets along non-template strand , and thus identical in sequence to the mRNA except they have (T) instead of (U) .for this reason the non-template DNA strand called the coding strand ;)
3. the number of nucleotides in mRNA must be 3 times more than the number of the resulted amino acids . (12 nucleotide on mRNA = 4 amino acids)

☒ Cracking the Code

- All 64 codons were deciphered by the mid-1960s . look to figure below ☺

		Second mRNA base				
		U	C	A	G	
U	UUU	Phe	UCU	UAU	UGU	U
	UUC					
	UUA	Leu	UCA	UAA	UGA	A
	UUG					
C	CUU	Leu	CCU	CAU	CGU	U
	CUC					
	CUA	CCA	CAA	Gln	CGA	A
	CUG					
A	AUU	Ile	ACU	AAU	AGU	U
	AUC					
	AUA	ACA	AAA	Lys	AGA	A
	AUG					
G	GUU	Val	GCU	GAU	GGU	U
	GUC					
	GUA	GCA	GAA	Glu	GGA	A
	GUG					

First mRNA base (5' end of codon) | Third mRNA base (3' end of codon)

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- Of the 64 triplets, 61 code for amino acids ; and 3 triplets are "stop codons" signals to end translation (UAA , UAG , UGA).

- the codon(AUG) has a dual function >
 - it codes for the amino acids methenine (Met)
 - functions as a "start " signal or initiation codon .

So , genetic messages must begin with the mRNA codon (AUG) which signals the protein –synthesizing machinery to begin translating mRNA . And because this codon stands for the amino acid (methonine) , polypeptide chains also must begin with (methonine) . however, an enzyme may then remove this starter amino acid from the chain .

- The genetic code is **redundant** but **not ambiguous** ;
no codon specifies more than one amino acid(no ambiguity) , but more than one codons may specify the same amino acid (redundancy)
Example : the amino acid (Pro)is specified by 4 codons . look to the figure ↑
- Codons must be read in the correct **reading frame** (correct groupings) in order producing a specified polypeptide.
** Although a genetic message is written with no space between the codons , the cells protein- synthesizing machinery reads the message as a series of non overlapping three letters words (the message isn't read in this way UGGUUU >> it is read in this way : UGGUUUGGC) .

❖ Evolution of the Genetic Code

- The genetic code is nearly universal, shared by the simplest bacteria to the most complex animals .

there are exceptions to this universality (as example there are a slight variations *in the genetic code exist in certain unicellular eukaryotes . and in* translating stop codons into one of two amino acids not found in all organisms) but it's a small variations!

- Genes can be (transcribed and translated after being transplanted) from one species to another.

Example : bacteria can be programmed by the insertion of human genes to synthesize certain human proteins for medical use , such as Insulin.

Concept Check ^_^

Q1 : what polypeptide product would you expect from a poly-G mRNA that is 30 nucleotides long ? you can use the last table ☺

Q2 : the template strand of the gene contains the sequence (3'-TTCAGTCGT-5') ,

- drawn **1** – the non-template sequence **2- the** mRNA sequence indicating 3 and 5 ends of each ..
- imagine that the non template sequence is transcribed instead of the template sequence , draw the mRNA sequence and translate it . you can use the last table.

Answers :

Q1 :

the poly peptide made up of 10 Gly (glycine) amino acid .

Q2 :

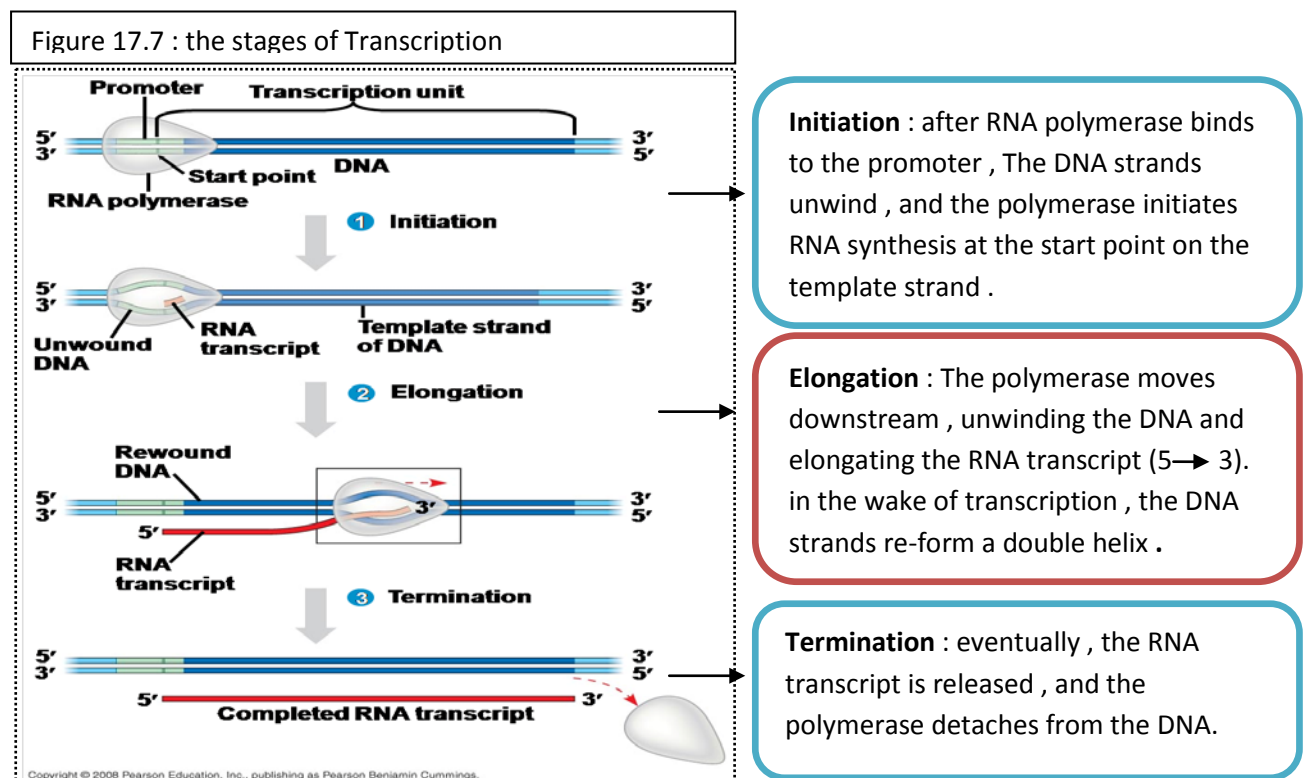
- 1- non template sequence : 5'-AAGTCAGCA-3'
2- mRNA sequence : 5'-AAGUCAGCA-3'
- 1- you have to write the non template sequence again conversely (3'-5') before transcription
non template sequence → template sequence
5'-AAGTCAGCA-3' → **3'-ACGACTGAA-5'**
2- **mRNA sequence** = 5'-UGCUGACUU-3'
3- **Translated polypeptide** = Cys-STOP- Leu (from the table in page 7)

Concept 17.2 : Transcription is the DNA-directed synthesis of RNA (a closer look)

Transcription, the first stage of gene expression, can be examined in more details >>

a) Molecular Components of Transcription :

- An enzyme called an **RNA Polymerase** pries the two strands of DNA apart and joins the RNA nucleotides as they base-pair along the DNA template.
- This enzyme (like the DNA polymerase that functions in DNA replication) can assemble the nucleotides only in its (5' → 3') direction , and (unlike DNA polymerase) it is able to start a chain from scratch (من الصفر) ; it doesn't need a primer .
- RNA synthesis follows the same base-pairing rules as DNA, except (Uracil) substitutes for (Thymine) and the type of nucleotides.
- Specific sequence of nucleotides along the DNA mark where transcription of a gene begins and ends :
 - **Promoter** : The DNA sequence where RNA polymerase attaches .
 - **Terminator** : the sequence signaling the end of transcription .
- biologists refer to the direction of transcription as "downstream" and the other direction as "upstream" , these terms are also used to describe the positions of nucleotide sequences within DNA and RNA. So the promoter sequence is up – stream in DNA from the terminator .
- The stretch of DNA that is transcribed into an RNA molecule is called a **transcription unit** .



Note while bacteria has a single type of RNA polymerase that synthesize not only mRNA but also another types of RNA , eukaryotes have at least 3 types of RNA polymerase in their nuclei , **the one that used for mRNA synthesis is called (RNA polymerase II) .**

b) **Synthesis of an RNA Transcript consists of 3 stages :**

- **Initiation**
- **Elongation**
- **Termination**

- **stage 1 RNA Polymerase Binding and Initiation of Transcription**

- Promoter's roles are : serving as a binding site for RNA polymerase , determining the initiation of RNA synthesis and determining which one of the two strands of the DNA helix is used as a template .
 - In bacteria RNA polymerase itself recognizes the promoter and binds to it, but in eukaryotes there is a collection of proteins called "**Transcription factors**" mediate the binding of RNA polymerase and the initiation of transcription (only after certain transcription factors are attached to the promoter RNA polymerase II bind to it) .

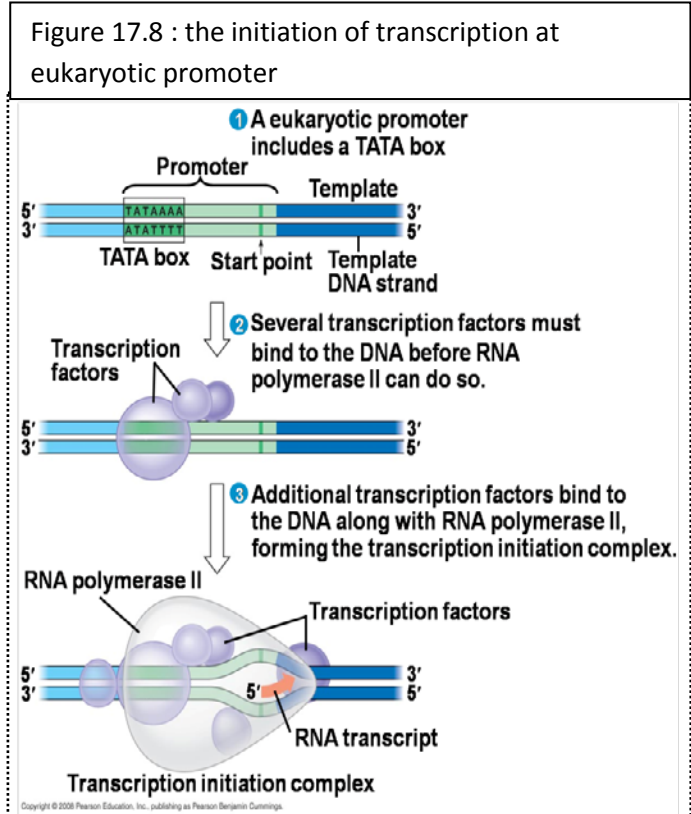
****in eukaryotes****

- transcription factors and RNA polymerase II biund to a promoter to form a completed assembly called a "**Transcription initiation complex**".
 - a section of promoter (a promoter DNA sequence) called "**TATA box**" is crucial in forming the initiation complex at the eukaryotic promoter . (without it transcription factors will not bind to DNA promoter and so polymerase will not binds too !)
- look to next figure >>

Note : the interaction between eukaryotic polymerase II and the transcription factors is an example of the importance of protein – protein interactions in controlling eukaryotic transcription.

Once the polymerase is firmly attached to the promoter DNA , the two DNA strands unwind there and the enzyme starts transcribing the template strand.

Figure 17.8 : the initiation of transcription at eukaryotic promoter

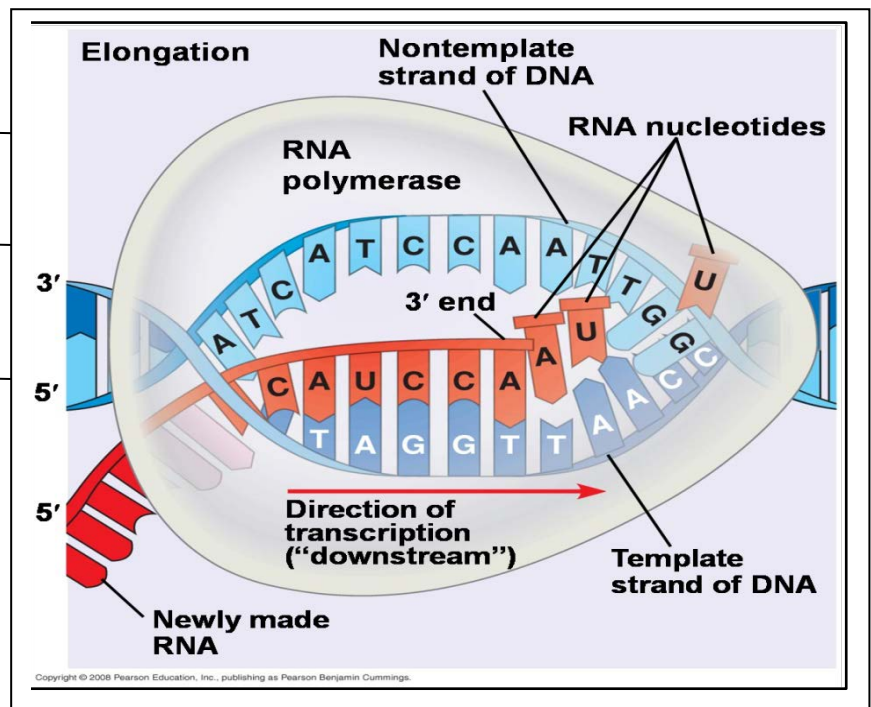


Stage2 : Elongation of the RNA Strand

- RNA polymerase moves along the DNA, it untwists the double helix, 10 to 20 bases at a time.
- Transcription progresses at a rate of 40 nucleotides per second in eukaryotes
- A gene can be transcribed simultaneously by several RNA polymerases following each other, Which helps the cell make the encoded protein in large amounts .

1.the enzyme adds nucleotides to the **3' end** of the growing RNA molecule .

2.in the wake of RNA synthesis , **The new RNA molecule peels away from its DNA template** and **the DNA double helix reform .**



Stage 3 : *Termination of Transcription*

- The mechanisms of termination are different in bacteria and eukaryotes
 - **In bacteria**, the polymerase stops transcription at the end of the terminator (polymerase detach from the DNA and release the transcript , which is available for use as mRNA)
 - **In eukaryotes**,
 1. RNA polymerase II transcribes a sequence on the DNA called the polyadenylation signal sequence , which codes for a **polyadenylation signal** (AAUAAA) in the pre-mRNA ..
 2. at a point about 10 to 35 nucleotides downstream from the **AAUAAA signal** , the proteins cut it free from the polymerase forming (pre-mRNA) , but polymerase continues transcribing .

in another word : in eukaryotes , (polymerase doesn't release from DNA template at the same time with pre-mRNA transcript). ☺

(recent research suggests that the RNA produced by the continued transcription (after pre-mRNA released) is digested by enzyme that moves along the RNA ; when this enzyme reach the polymerase , transcription is terminated and the polymerase falls off the DNA .

Concept 17.3 : Eukaryotic cells modify RNA after transcription

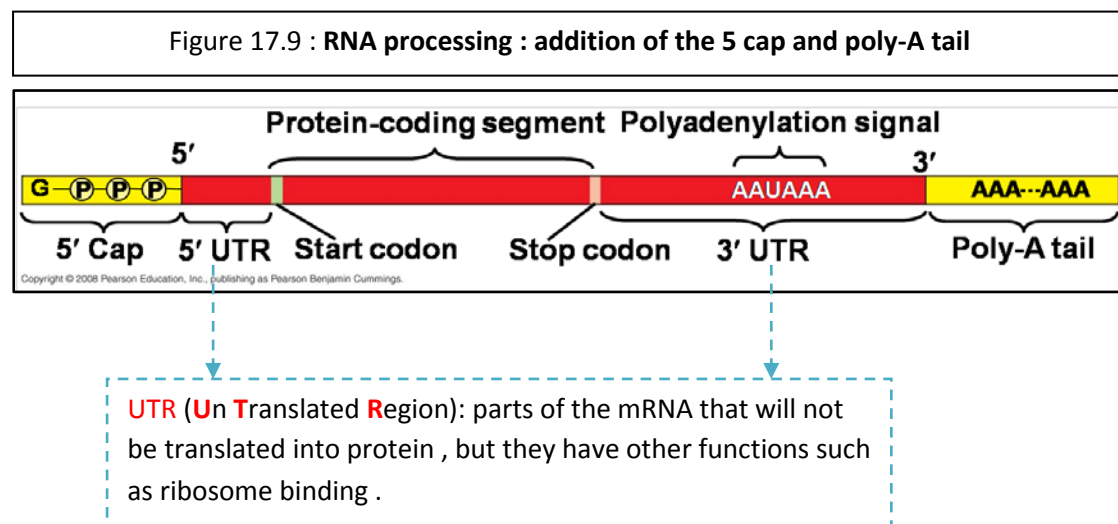
- Enzymes in the eukaryotic nucleus modify pre-mRNA before the genetic messages are dispatched to the cytoplasm
 - During RNA processing, both ends of the primary transcript are usually altered.
 - Also, usually some interior parts of the RNA molecule are cut out, and the other parts spliced together .

These modifications produce an mRNA molecule ready for translation ...

• **Alteration of mRNA Ends**

- Each end of a pre-mRNA molecule is modified in a particular way:
 - The 5' end receives a modified nucleotide (**5' cap**)
 - The 3' end gets a **poly-A tail**
- **5' cap** = a modified form of (**Guanine**) nucleotide added onto the 5' end , after transcription of the first 20 to 40 nucleotides . (**not translated into protein**)
- **Poly A-tail** = (50 – 250) (**Adenine**) nucleotides added to the 3' end . (**not translated into protein**)
- **These modifications share several functions:**
- **They seem to facilitate and promote the export of mRNA from nucleus .**
- **They protect mRNA from degradation from hydrolytic enzymes .**
- **They help ribosomes attach to the 5' end (in conjunction with cytoplasmic proteins) when mRNA arrive to cytoplasm .**

Look to the figure >>

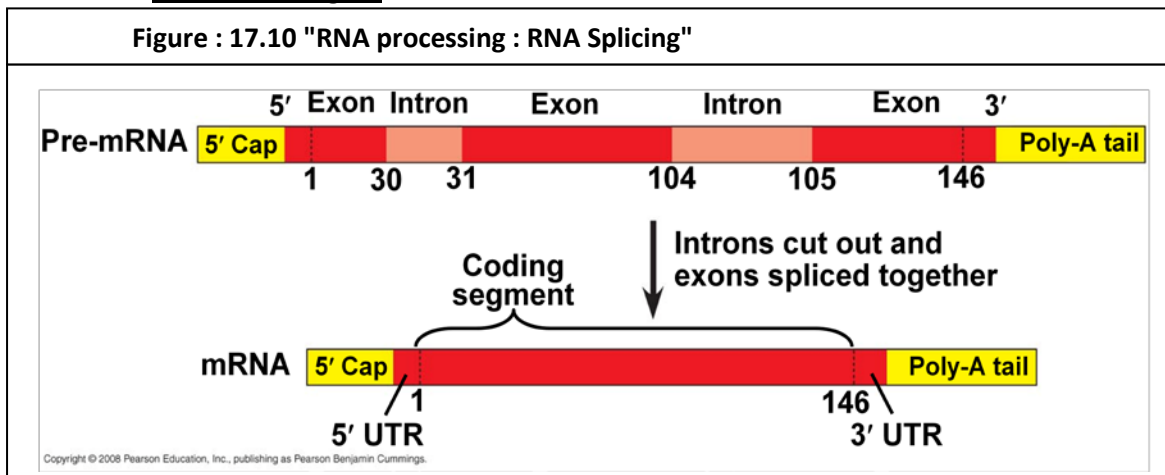


- **Split Genes and RNA Splicing**

- Most eukaryotic genes and their RNA transcripts have long noncoding stretches of nucleotides that lie between coding regions .that means the sequence of DNA nucleotides that codes for a eukaryotic polypeptide is usually not continuous , its split into segments .
 - These non-coding regions are called intervening sequences, or **introns**
 - The other regions are called **exons** because they are eventually expressed (usually translated into amino acid sequences).
- But** , there is an exception; UTR codes of the exons at the ends of the RNA , which make up part of the mRNA aren't translated into protein !! because of this exceptions ,you can say Exons are "sequences of RNA that exit the nucleous " , with this definition UTR are part of Exons ☺
- **RNA splicing** removes introns and joins exons, this process creating an mRNA molecule with a continuous coding sequence .

Note : the term exons and introns are used for both RNA sequence and the DNA sequence that encodes them .

Look to next figure



- figure (17.10) shows RNA molecule codes for B-globin ..
- The number under the RNA refers to codons , in this figure > it consists of 164 codon .
- There are 3 exons , those will form the sequence of mRNA ..
- During RNA processing the introns will cut out and exons spliced together.

How is Pre-mRNA splicing carried out ?

Researchers have concluded that >>

- 1) There is a short nucleotide sequence at each end of an intron works as a signal for RNA splicing.
- 2) particles called **small nuclear RiboNucleoProteins** (snRNP) recognize these splice sites.
- 3) Several different snRNPs join with additional proteins to form **Spliceosome** (which is almost as big as Ribosome) .
Spliceosome interacts with certain sites along an intron , releasing the intron and joining together the two exons ..

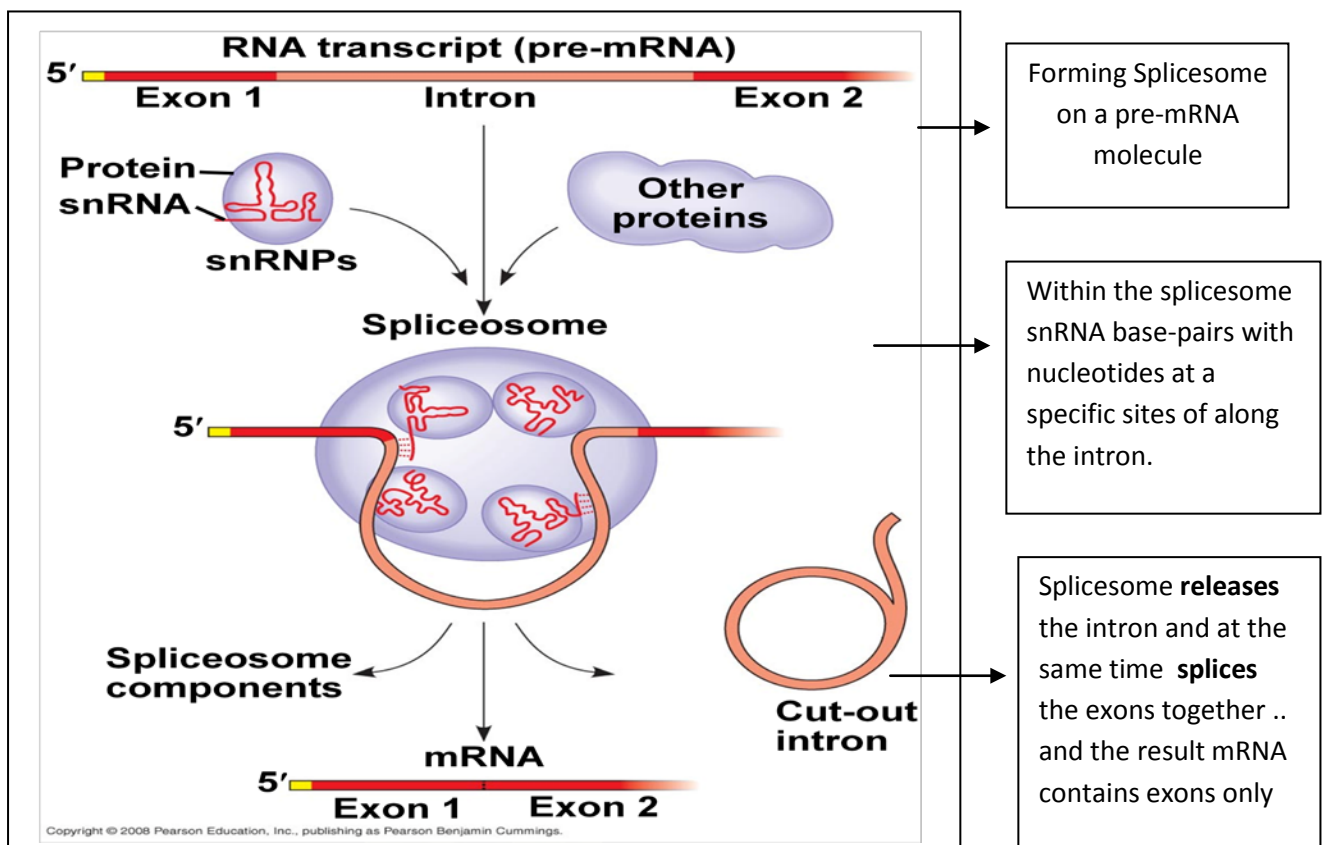
small nuclear RiboNucleoProteins (snRNP) pronounced "*snurps*"

- they are located in the cell nucleus
- they are composed of RNA and protein molecules
- **RNA in those particles called **small nuclear RNA** .

Its Role :

- Catalyze the previous process.
- Participate in spliceosome .
- Recognize Splice sites .

Figure 17.11 : The Role of snRNP and spliceosomes in pre-mRNA splicing.



<<Ribozymes >>

- **Ribozymes** are catalytic RNA molecules that function as enzymes and can splice RNA, that splicing can be called self-splicing.
- For example in *Protozoan Tetrahymena* *self splicing occurs in the production of ribosomal RNA (rRNA)* "a component of the organisms ribosomes". The pre rRNA actually removes its own introns .
- The discovery of ribozymes disagreed the belief that all biological catalysts were proteins
- Three properties of RNA enable it to function as an enzyme (aribozymes)
 - 1- It can form a three-dimensional structure because of its ability to base pair with itself .
 - 2- Some bases in RNA contain functional groups .
 - 3- RNA may hydrogen-bond with other nucleic acid molecules .

Concept 17.4: Translation is the RNA-directed synthesis of a polypeptide

❖ **Molecular Components of Translation**

- the cell keeps its cytoplasm stocked with all 20 amino acids in the (cytoplasmic pool of amino acids) ; by synthesizing them from other compounds or by taking them up from the surrounding solution .
- A cell translates an mRNA message into protein in ribosomes with the help of transfer RNA "tRNA".
 - The mRNA message is a series of codons.
 - tRNA molecules transfer the amino acids from cytoplasm to a ribosome.
 - Ribosomes adds each amino acid brought to it by tRNA to the growing end of a polypeptide chain (join the amino acids into a chain)

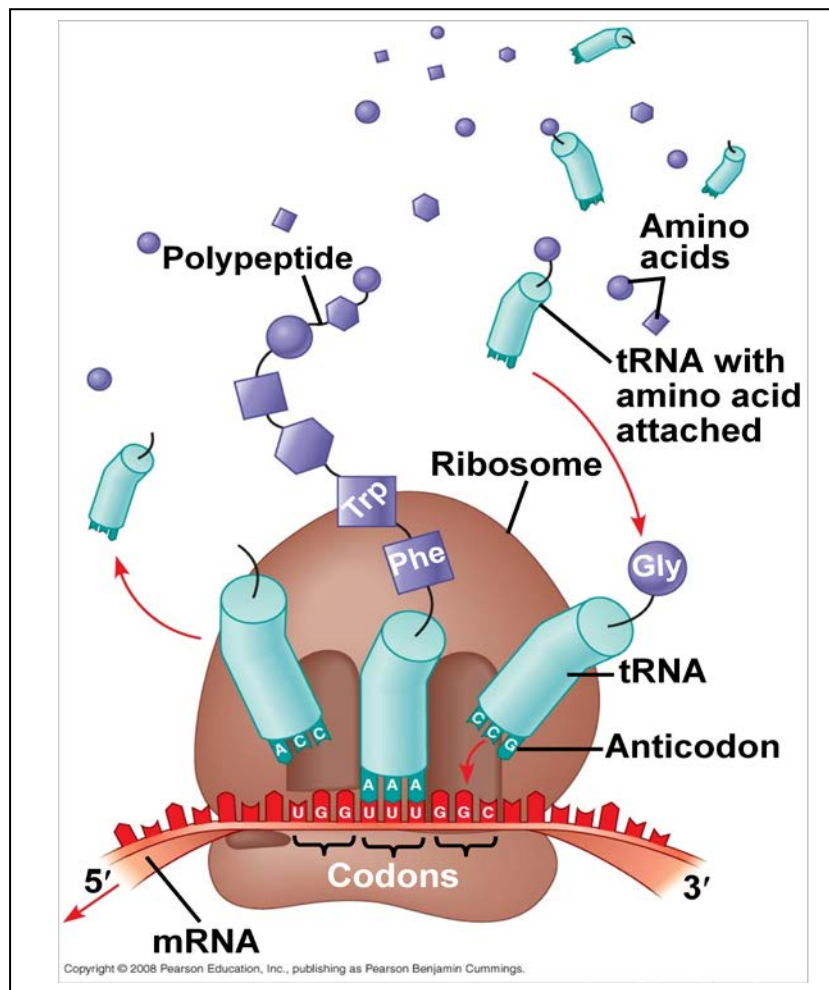
Note :

Molecules of tRNA are not all identical :

- Each tRNA molecule translates a particular mRNA codon into a particular amino acid , how ?

Each tRNA carries a specific amino acid on one end . and has an **anticodon (nucleotide triplet)** on the other end ; the anticodon base-pairs with a complementary codon on mRNA (by hydrogen bonds).

look to figure 17.13 " Translation :the basic concept"



This figure shows that >>

- 1) As the mRNA is moved through a ribosome , codons are translated into amino acids , one by one .
- 2) tRNA adds its amino acid to a growing polypeptide chain when the anticodon hydrogen bonds to a complementary codon on the mRNA .

Q : tRNA is a translator , how ?

because it can read a nucleic acid word (mRNA codon) and interpret it as a protein word (the amino acid) .

a) The Structure and Function of Transfer RNA

- tRNA Like other types of cellular RNA ; it is transcribed from DNA templates . and in eukaryotic cells its made in nucleus like mRNA and then travel to the cytoplasm ,where translation occurs .
- tRNA in both bacterial and eukaryotic cells is used repeatedly ; after transferring an amino acid to ribosome goes to cytoplasm and pick another one and transfer it , and so on ..
- A tRNA molecule consists of a single RNA strand that is only about 80 nucleotides long (it is shorter than mRNA)
- tRNA , this single strand can fold back upon itself and form a molecule with a three-dimensional structure by hydrogen bonds between its bases .
- when tRNA is Flattened into one plane it looks like a clover leaf, and when it is twisted and folds in 3-D structure it is roughly has L-shape .

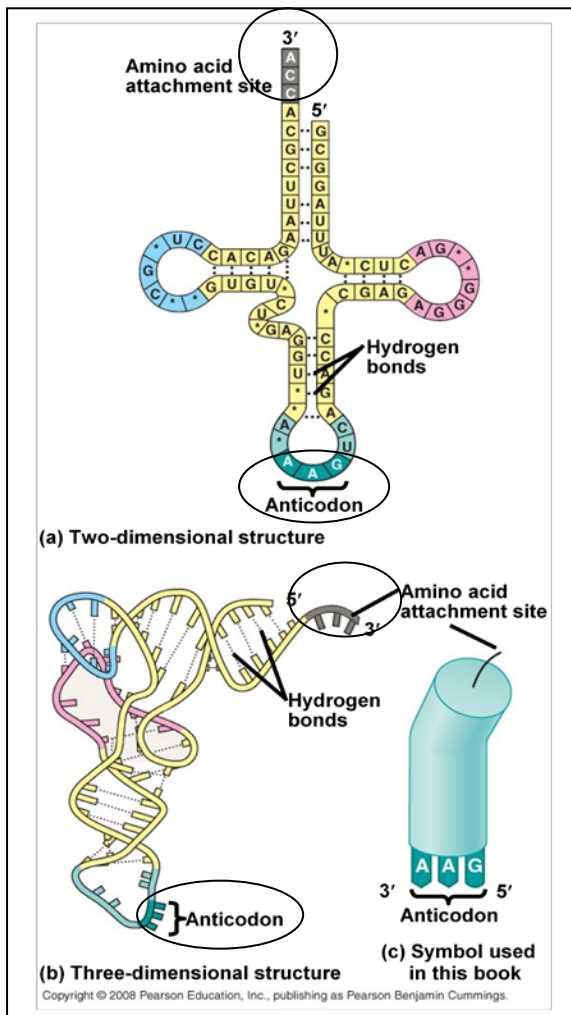
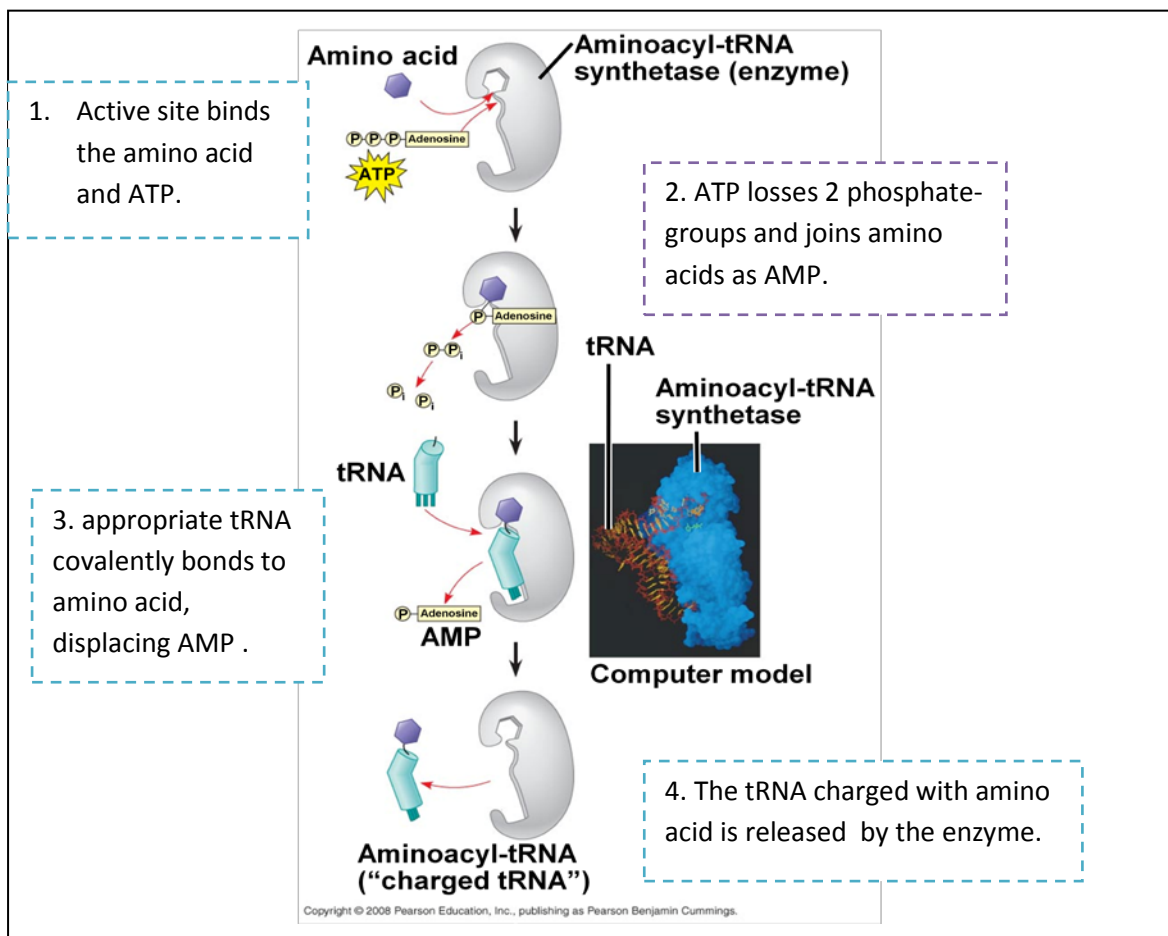


Figure 17.14 The structure of transfer RNA (tRNA)

- a) In Two dimensional structure :
- In all tRNA , there are 4 base-paired regions with 3 loops , and base sequence of the amino acid attachment site at the 3' end .
 - The colored sequences in these 3 loops are unique to each tRNA type. so anti-codon is unique too.
- b) In three dimensional structure :
- The loop extending from one end of the (L-shaped tRNA) includes the anti-codon .
 - the other end of (L-shaped tRNA) protrudes its (3' end) which is the attachment site for amino acid.
- c) look to anti-codon its written as 3' to 5' sequence for aligning properly with codon which is 5' to 3' sequence .

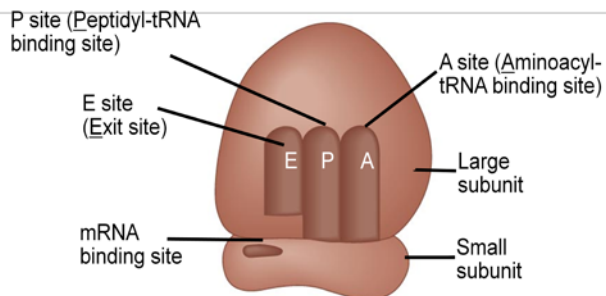
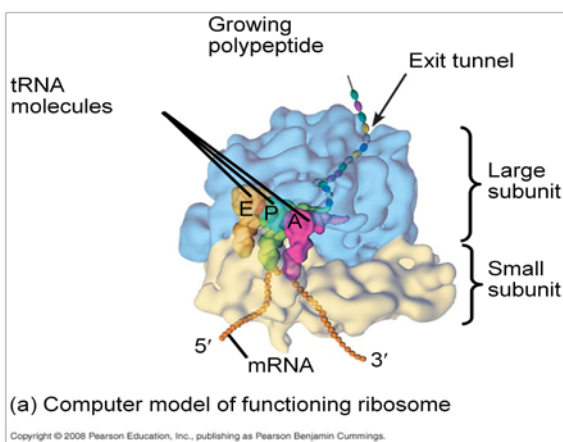
- ☉ Accurate translation requires two processes of molecular recognition :
 - **First** : a correct match between a tRNA and an amino acid, done by a family of related enzymes called **aminoacyl-tRNA synthetases**
 - The active site of each type of aminoacyl-tRNA synthetase fits only a specific combination of amino acid and tRNA . there are 20 different synthetases .
 - Synthetase catalyses the covalent attachment of the amino acid to its tRNA in a process driven by the hydrolysis of ATP .and the resulted **aminoacyl tRNA** also called **charged tRNA** which is ready to go ribosome.



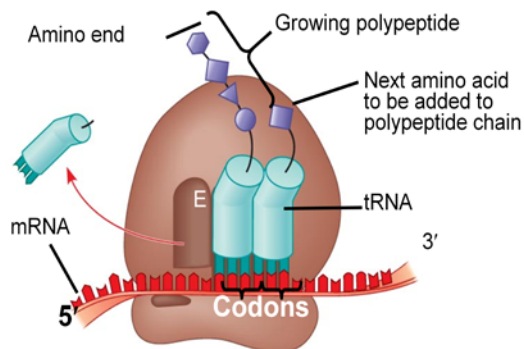
- **Second**: a correct match between the tRNA anticodon and an mRNA codon
 There are 61 types of mRNA codons while only 45 types of tRNA anti-codons .. because of that , some of tRNA s must bind to more than one codon .
 For example : the base U at the 5-end of the anti-codon can bind with A or G in the third position(at the 3-end) of an mRNA codon ...
- Flexible pairing at the third base of a codon is called **wobble**
- Wobble explains why one amino acid can be presented by more than one codon differs in their third bases only ☺

b) Ribosomes

- Ribosomes facilitate specific coupling of tRNA anti-codons with mRNA codons in protein synthesis
- The two ribosomal subunits (large and small) are made of **proteins** and **ribosomal RNA "rRNA"** (rRNA form 2/3 of ribosome mass , and it's the most abundant type of RNA in the cell)
- In eukaryotes the subunits are made in the nucleolus . when the rRNA is transcribed , it will be processed and assembled in nucleus with imported protein from cytoplasm to form the subunits , which will exported to cytoplasm via nuclear pores.
- **In bacteria and eukaryotes , large and small subunits join to form a functional ribosome only when they attach to an mRNA molecule .**



(b) Schematic model showing binding sites



(c) Schematic model with mRNA and tRNA

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Picture (a) :

When the polypeptide becomes longer it passes through "exit tunnel" in the large subunit , and when its become complete it leaves to cytosole.

picture (b) & (c)

- A ribosome has three binding sites for tRNA:
 - The **P site** : holds the tRNA that carries the growing polypeptide chain
 - The **A site** : holds the tRNA that carries the next amino acid to be added to the chain
 - The **E site** : it is the exit site, where discharged tRNAs leave the ribosome.
- After addition the new amino acid to the carboxyl end of the growing polypeptide . ribosome catalyze the formation of peptide bond .

Note :

Recent researches support the hypothesis that the rRNA is responsible for both structure and function of ribosome ; it's the main constituent of the interface between the 2 subunits and(A and P sites) and it's the catalyst of peptide bond formation .

What about protein ? it supports the shape changes of the rRNA molecules during translation.

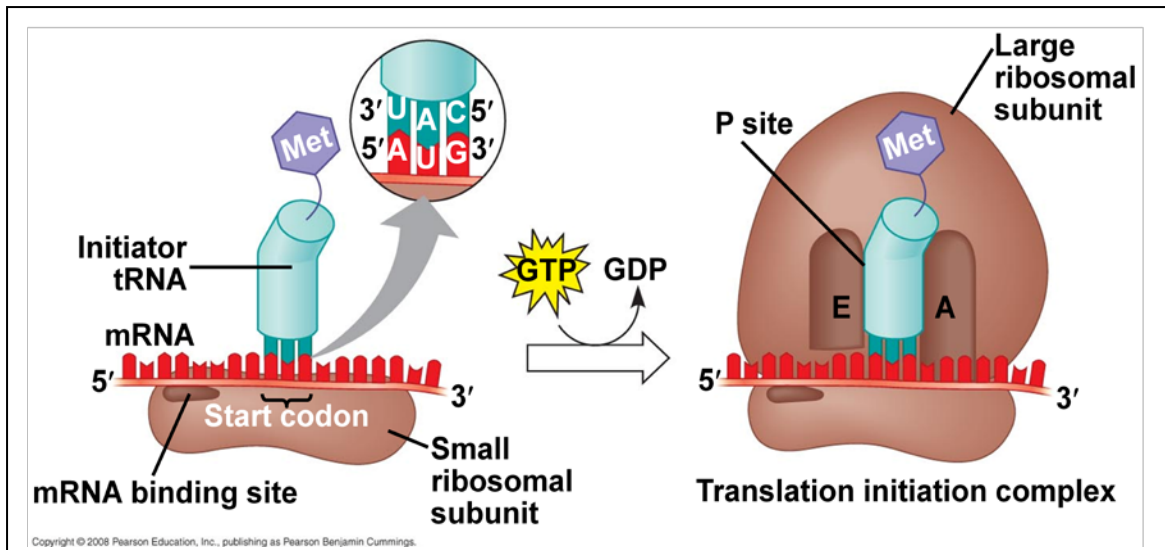
❖ Building a Polypeptide

- we can divide translation (synthesis of polypeptide) into three stages :
 - **Initiation**
 - **Elongation**
 - **Termination**
 - All three stages require **proteins “factors”** that aid the translation process
 - **energy** is provided by the hydrolysis of **GTP**(**Guanosine Triphosphate**) .
 - The polypeptide is synthesized always in one direction from **N-terminus** (initial amino acid end ,**met**) toward the **C-terminus** (carboxyl end) .
-

a) ***Ribosome Association and Initiation of Translation***

- The initiation stage of translation brings together mRNA, tRNA with the first amino acid, and the two ribosomal subunits : figure(17.17)
 1. the small ribosomal subunit binds with mRNA and a special initiator tRNA which carried the amino acid (**methionine**) and anti-codon (UAC).
 2. the small subunit moves along the mRNA until it reaches the start codon (AUG) .
 - In bacteria : small subunit binds to mRNA at a specific nucleotide sequence
in eukaryotes : small subunit with the initiator tRNA are already bound and then **bind to the 5'cap of the mRNA** (which is upstream to the start codon) . then they move downstream along the mRNA until they reach the start codon , and tRNA hydrogen bonds to it .
 - **Start codon** : it signals the start of translation ; it establishes the codon reading frame for the mRNA .
 3. The union of mRNA & initiator tRNA& small ribosomal subunit is followed by attachment of large ribosomal subunit and forming **Translation Initiation Complex** . and that requires :
 - Proteins called **initiation factors** are required to bring all these components together .
 - **GTP molecule is required** to form the **initiation complex** .
- When the initiation process is completed , the initiator tRNA sits in the P site of the ribosome and A site will be ready for the next aminoacyl tRNA .

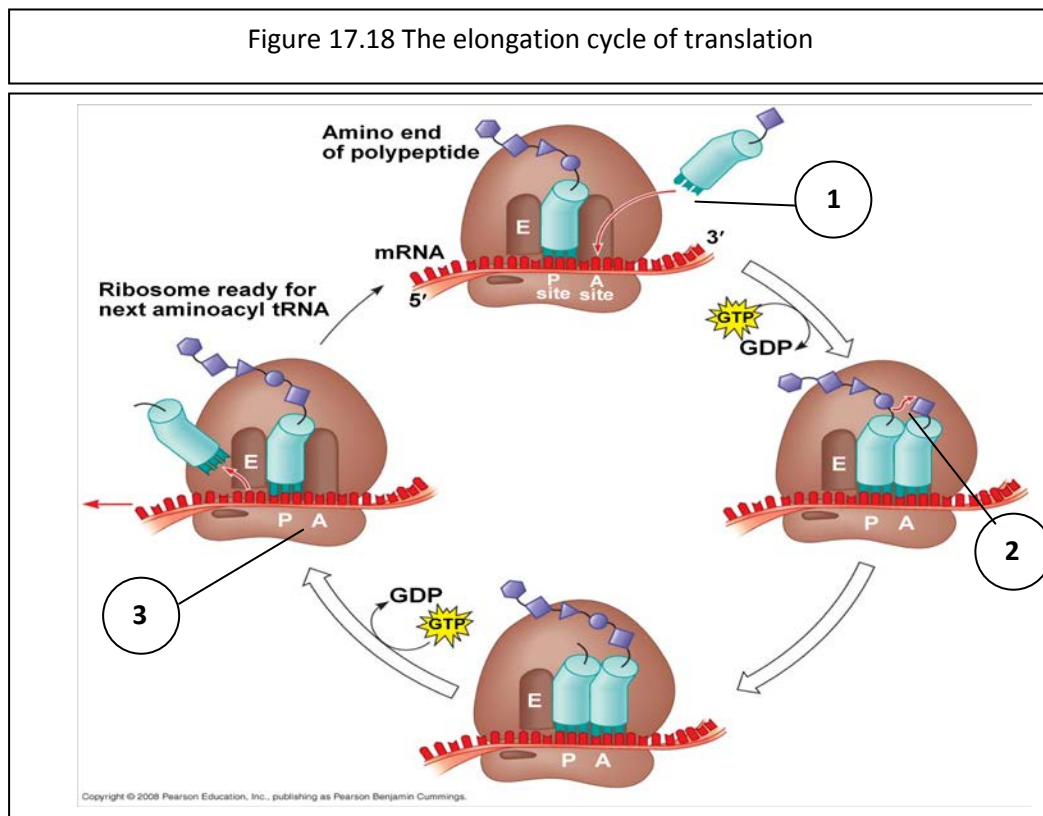
Figure 17.17 The initiation of translation



b) **Elongation of the Polypeptide Chain**

- During the elongation stage, amino acids are added one by one to the preceding amino acid
- Each addition involves proteins (elongation factors) and occurs in three steps cycle : **codon recognition**, **peptide bond formation**, and **translocation**.
- Energy consuming occurs in the first and third steps . each one requires hydrolysis of one GTP .
- This cycle takes less than a tenth of second (0.1 sec)in bacteria , and is repeated at each amino acid is added to the chain until the polypeptide is completed.

Figure 17.18 The elongation cycle of translation



Figure(17.18) Illustration :

1.codon recognition : the anticodon of an incoming aminoacyl tRNA base-pairs with complementary mRNA codon in the A site . hydrolysis of the GTP increases the accuracy and efficiency of this step .

2. peptide bond formation : an rRNA molecule of the large ribosomal subunit catalyzes the formation of a peptide bond between the new amino acid in the A site and the carboxyl end of the growing polypeptide in the P site .. this step removes the polypeptide from the tRNA in the P site and attaches it to the amino acid on the tRNA in the A site .

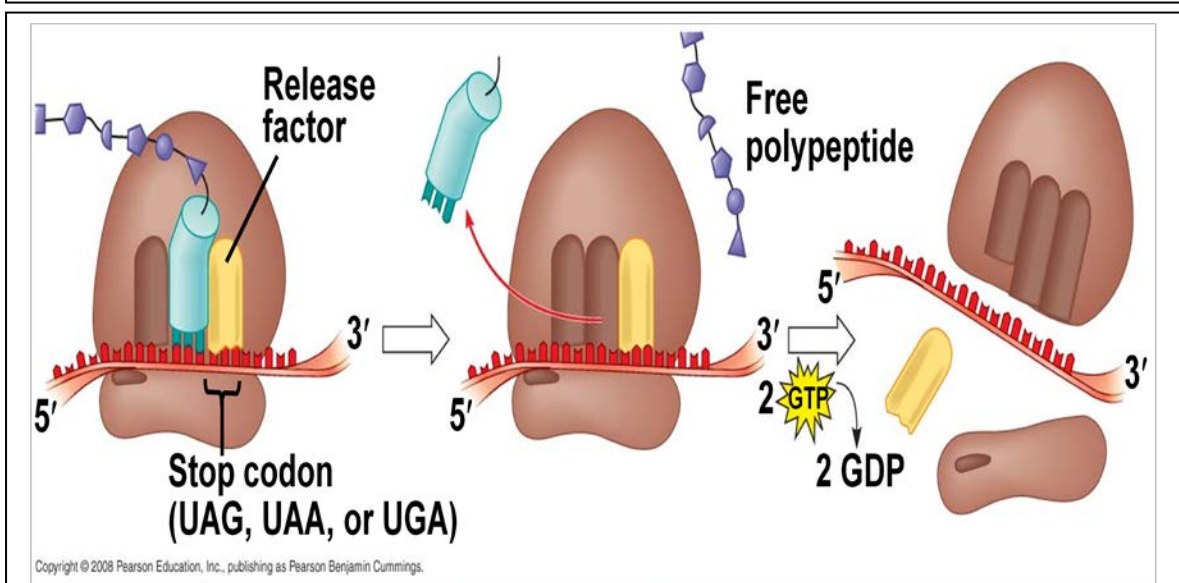
3. Translocation : The ribosome translocates the tRNA in the A site to the P site . and the empty tRNA in the P site is moved to the E site , where its released . the mRNA moves along with its bound tRNAs , bringing the next codon to be translated into the A site .

-mRNA moves in the ribosome in one direction only (from 5' end) . and it moves relatively to each other (unidirectionally) , codon by codon .

c) Termination of Translation

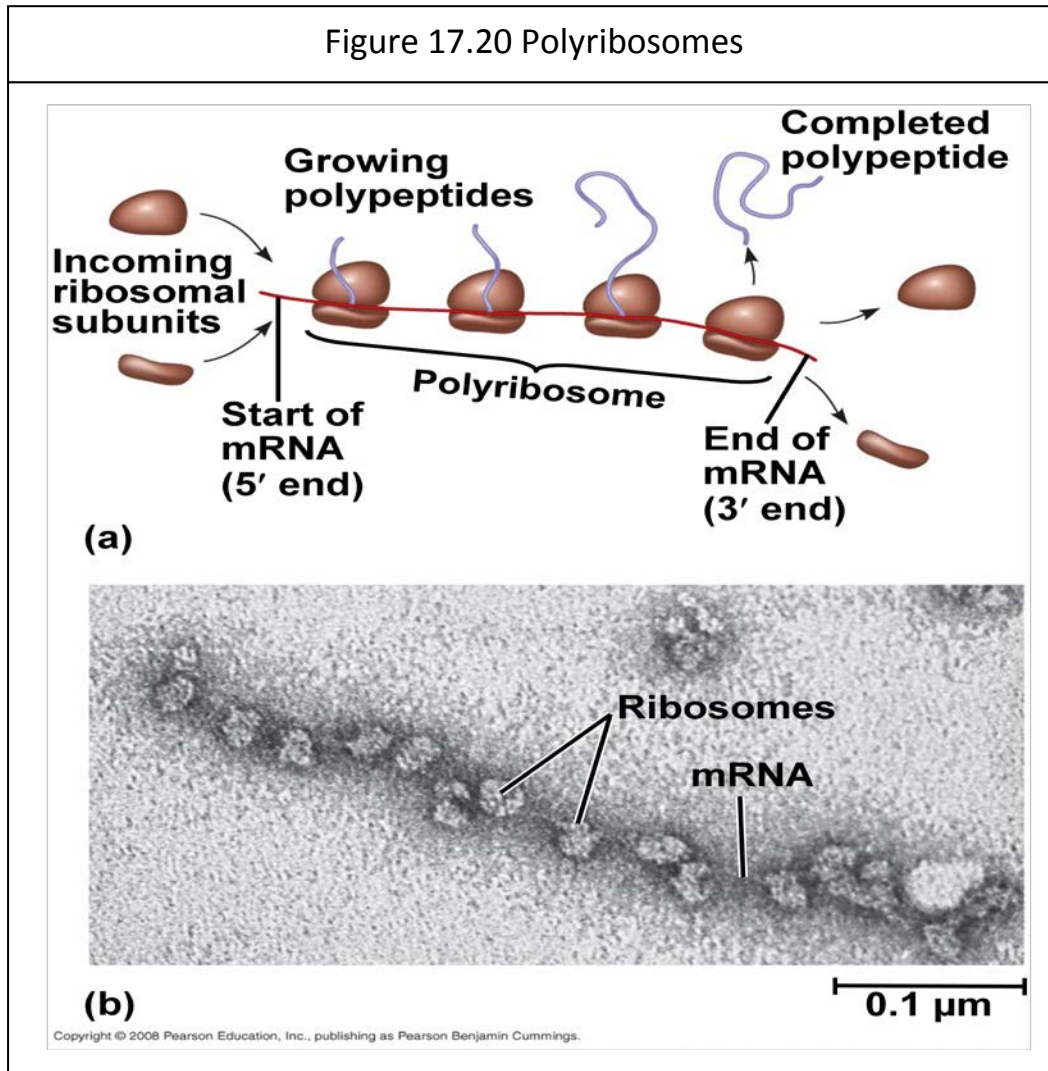
- Termination occurs when a stop codon (UAG, UAA,UGA) in the mRNA reaches the A site of the ribosome .
- a protein called a **release factor** (shaped like tRNA) binds directly to the stop codon in A site, and that causes the addition of a water molecule instead of an amino acid to the poly peptide chain .
- This reaction breaks (hydrolyzes)the bond between the completed polypeptide and the tRNA in the P site. releasing the polypeptide through the exit tunnel .
- translation assembly then comes apart (dissociate) in a multistep process , **aided by other protein factors and requires hydrolysis of 2 more GTP molecules** .

Figure 17.19 The termination of translation



➤ **Polyribosomes**

- A number of ribosomes can translate a single mRNA simultaneously, forming a **polyribosome** (or **polysome**)
- Polyribosomes enable a cell to make many copies of a polypeptide very quickly .
- Poly ribosome are found in bacteria and eukaryotes .



❖ **Completing and Targeting the Functional Protein**

-Often translation is not sufficient to make a functional protein ,Polypeptide chains are modified after translation and Completed proteins are targeted to specific sites in the cell .

a) **Protein Folding and Post-Translational Modifications**

- During and after synthesis, a polypeptide chain spontaneously coils and folds into its three-dimensional shape (secondary or tertiary structure) .
Thus , the gene determines the primary structure , and primary structure in turn determines shape.
** in many cases , a chaperone protein helps the polypeptide fold correctly .
- Proteins may also require post-translational modifications before doing their job, for example :
 - 1- Certain amino acids may be chemically modified by the attachment of sugars, lipids, phosphate groups or other addition .
 - 2- Enzymes may remove one or more amino acids from the leading (amino) end of the polypeptide chain . or cleaved polypeptide chain into 2 or more pieces .
 - 3- 2 or more polypeptides that are subunits of a protein that has quaternary structure , a familiar example is hemoglobin.

b) **Targeting Polypeptides to Specific Locations**

- Two populations of ribosomes are evident in cells: free ribosomes (in the cytosol) and bound ribosomes (attached to the ER) , both they are identical and can switch their status from free to bound .
- Remember : free ribosomes synthesize proteins that stays in the cytosol and function in it. While bound ribosomes synthesize protein of the endo-membrane system and proteins secreted from the cell .
- Polypeptide synthesis always begins in the cytosol , and finishes in the cytosol *unless* the polypeptide signals the ribosome to attach to the ER
- Polypeptides destined for the ER or for secretion are marked by a sequence of amino acids(about 20 amino acid)near the leading (amino) end called **signal peptide**
- a protein- RNA complex called **signal-recognition particle (SRP)** binds to the signal peptide . it brings the signal peptide and its ribosome to the ER (to receptor protein built into ER membrane this receptor is part of a multi-protein translocation complex).

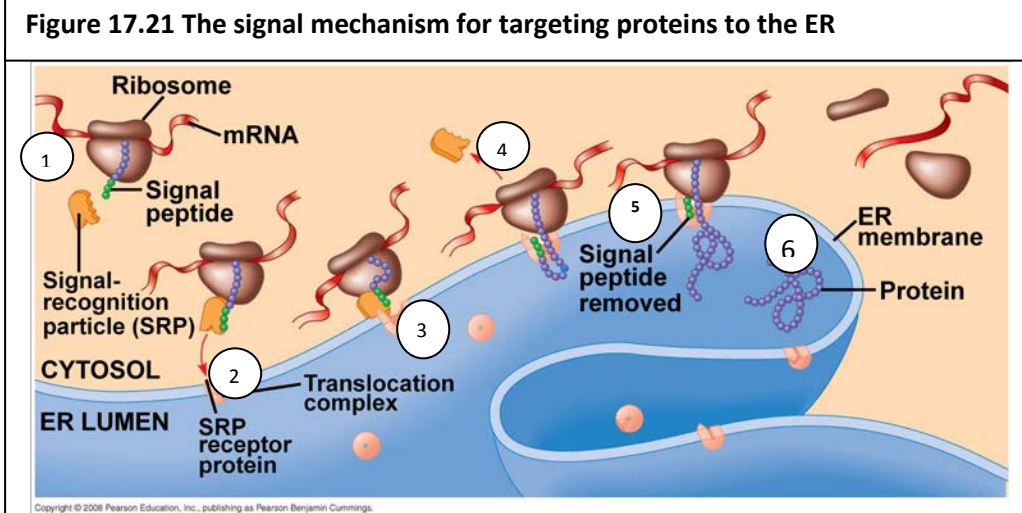


Figure 17.21 Illustration :

1- polypeptide synthesis begins on a free ribosome in the cytosol.

2-An SRP binds to the signal peptide , halting synthesis momentarily .

3-The SRP bind to a receptor protein in the ER membrane . This receptor is part of a protein complex (a translocation complex) that has a membrane pore and a signal-cleaving enzyme.

4-The SRP leaves , and polypeptide synthesis resumes , with simultaneous translocation across the membrane (The signal peptide stays attached to the translocation complex) .

5-the signal-cleaving enzyme cuts off the signal peptide .

6-the rest of the completed polypeptide leaves the ribosome and folds into its final conformation . if it's for secretion it will be released within the ER lumen , and if it is a membrane protein it remains partially embedded in the ER membrane .

Note 1 : There are another kinds of signal peptide that target the protein to organelles which aren't of the endo-membrane system . and in these cases translation will be completed in the cytosol before the polypeptide is embedded in the organelle .

Note 2 : bacteria also employ signal peptides to target proteins for secretion .

Concept check :

1. what two processes ensure that the correct amino acid is added to a growing polypeptide chain ?

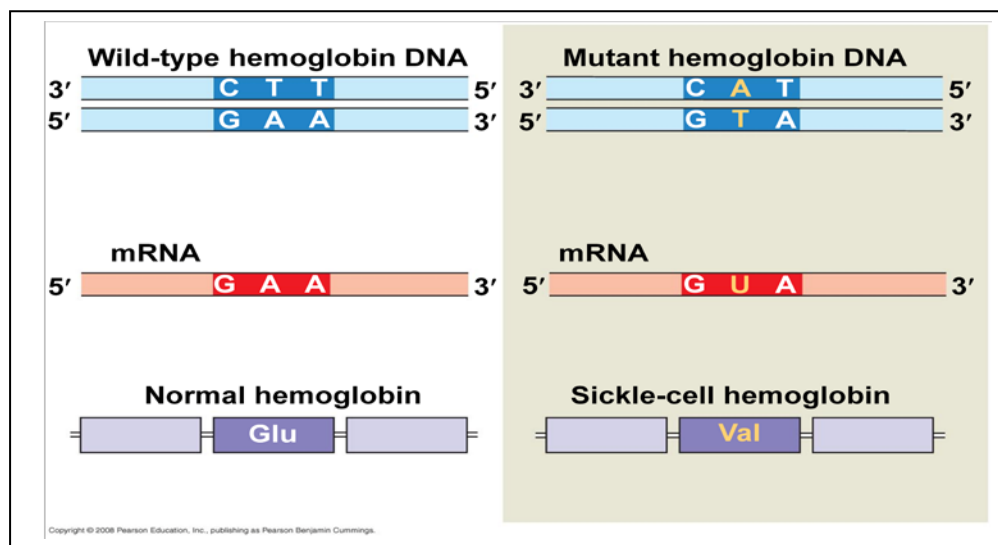
first , each aminoacyl-tRNA synthetase specifically recognizes a single amino acid and attaches it only to an appropriate tRNA .

second, tRNA charged with its specific amino acid binds only to an mRNA codon for that amino acid .

Concept 17.5: Point mutations can affect protein structure and function

- **Mutations** are changes in the genetic material of a cell or virus
- **Point mutations** are chemical changes in just one base pair of a gene
 - The change of a single nucleotide in a DNA template strand can lead to the production of an abnormal protein
 - Point mutation may lead to many disorders , such as heart condition that are responsible for sudden death in young athletes and Sickle –cell disease ..

Figure 17.22 The molecular basis of sickle-cell disease: a point mutation



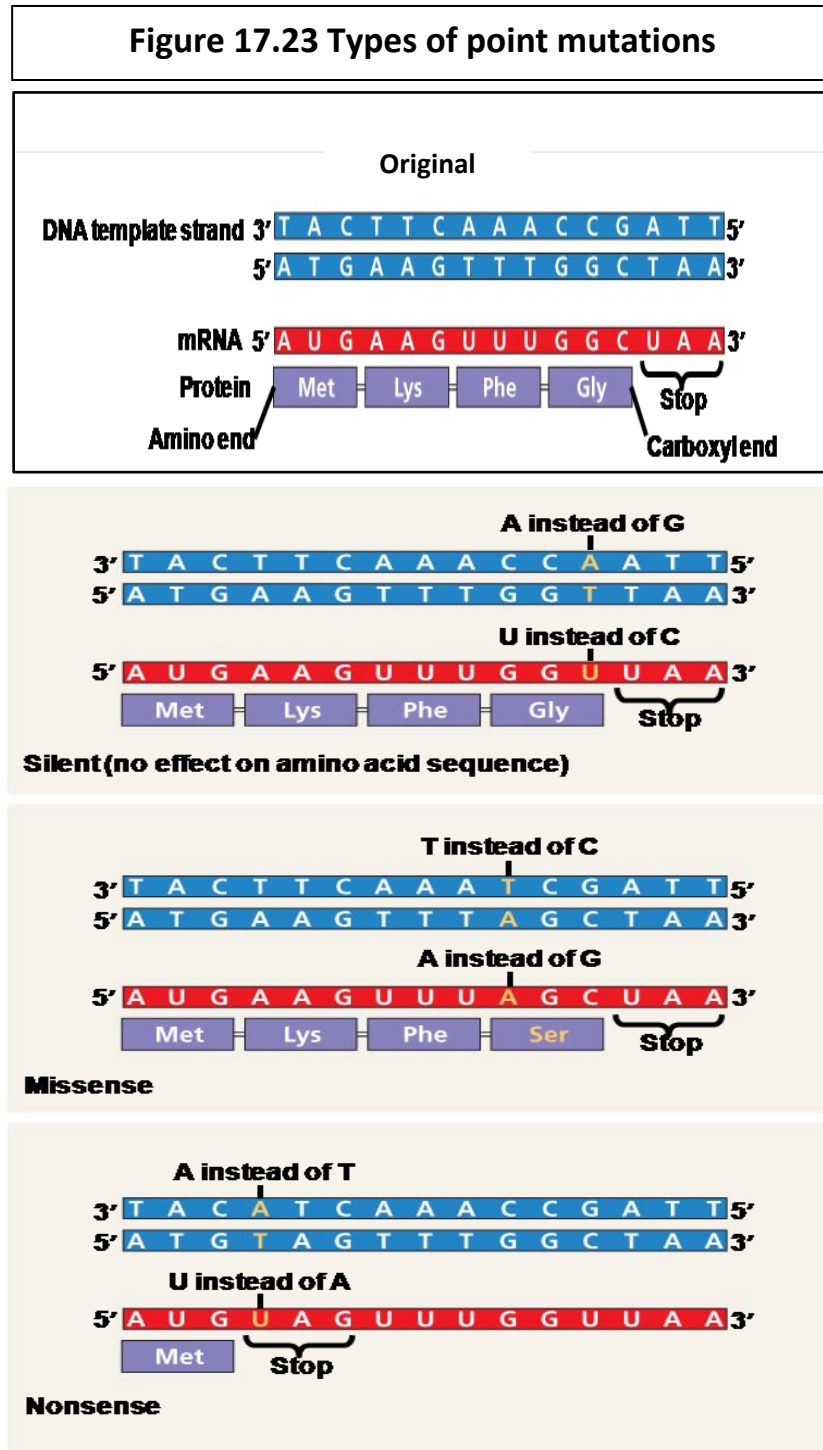
❖ Types of Point Mutations

- Point mutations within a gene can be divided into two general categories
- 1- Base-pair substitutions
 - 2- Base-pair insertions or deletions

1- Base-pair substitutions

- base-pair substitution replaces one nucleotide and its partner with another pair of nucleotides .
- depending on its effect , we can categorize it to : look to figure 17.23
- **Silent mutations** : have no effect on the amino acid produced by a codon because of redundancy in the genetic code (change in codon but no change in amino acid)
- **Missense mutations (most common substitution mutation)** still code for an amino acid, but not necessarily the right amino acid and it has a little effect on the protein ; the amino acid may have properties similar to those of the amino acid it replaces , or the new amino acid is in a non essential region to protein function .

- **Nonsense mutations** change an amino acid codon into a stop codon, nearly always leading to a nonfunctional protein because the resulting polypeptide will be shorter than the polypeptide encoded by the normal gene .



(a) Base-pair substitution

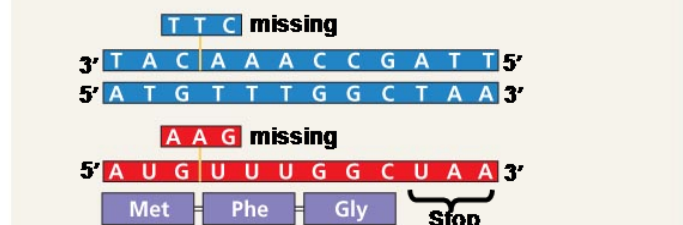
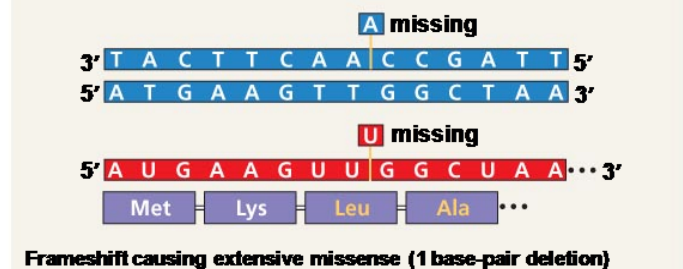
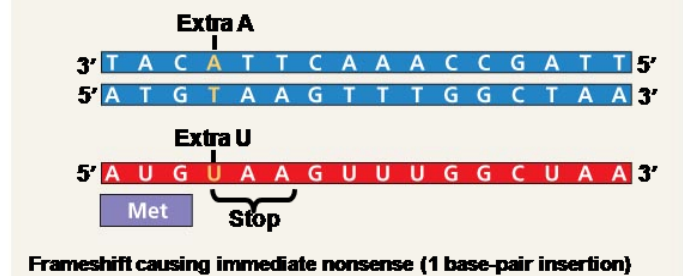
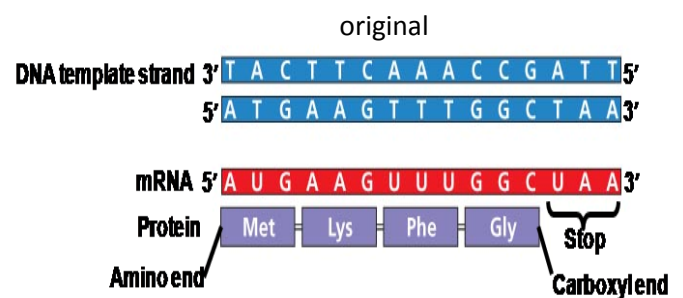
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2- Insertions and Deletions

- **Insertions** and **deletions** are additions or losses of nucleotide pairs in a gene
- These mutations have a disastrous effect on the resulting protein more often than substitutions do
- Insertion or deletion of nucleotides may alter the reading frame, producing a **frame shift mutation** (when the number of nucleotides inserted or deleted isn't multiple of three).

Figure 17.23 Types of point mutations

- All the nucleotides downstream of the deletion or insertion will be improperly grouped into codons, and the result will be, extensive missense and usually ending sooner or later in nonsense.
- Unless the frame shift is very near the end of the gene, the protein is almost certain to be nonfunctional.



(b) Base-pair insertion or deletion

❖ Mutagens

- We studied that , When there is an error in replication it will be corrected by a system that we learned about in chapter #16 . otherwise the incorrect base will be used as a template in the next round of replication , resulting in a mutations .
- The rate of mutation is about (1 nucleotide in every 10^{10} is altered) .
- **Mutagens** are physical or chemical agents that can cause mutations , such as :
 - Physical mutagens** > X-rays , ultraviolet light (which can cause disruptive Thymine dimers in DNA) .
 - Chemical mutagens** > they affect the structure of DNA and they are carcinogenic >> examples of types
 - Base analogs : Chemical mutagens that are similar to normal DNA bases , but they pair incorrectly during DNA replication .
 - some Chemical mutagens insert themselves into the DNA and distorting the double helix .

Concept check :

- What happens when one nucleotide pair is lost from the middle of the coding sequence of a gene ?

The answer is in (insertion and deletion) part ☺

- What if a gene whose template strand contains the sequence (3'-TACTTGTCGGATATC-5') is mutated to (3'-TACTTGCCAATATC-5')
For both normal and mutant genes draw
 - 1- the double stranded DNA
 - 2- resulting mRNA
 - 3- amino-acid sequence (depend on the table page 7).

	Normal	Mutant
1- double DNA strand	3'- TACTTGTCGGATATC-5' 5'-ATGAACAGGCTATAG-3'	3'-TACTTGTCGGATATC -5' 5'-ATGAACAGGTTATAG-3'
2- mRNA sequence	5'-AUGAACAGGCUAUAG-3'	5'- AUGAACAGGUUUAUAG -3'
3- amino acid sequence	Met-Asn-Arg-Leu-stop	Met-Asn-Arg-Leu-stop

- The mutation has no effect ☺ because the amino acid sequence still as it was ..

Concept 17.6: While gene expression differs among the domains of life, the concept of a gene is universal

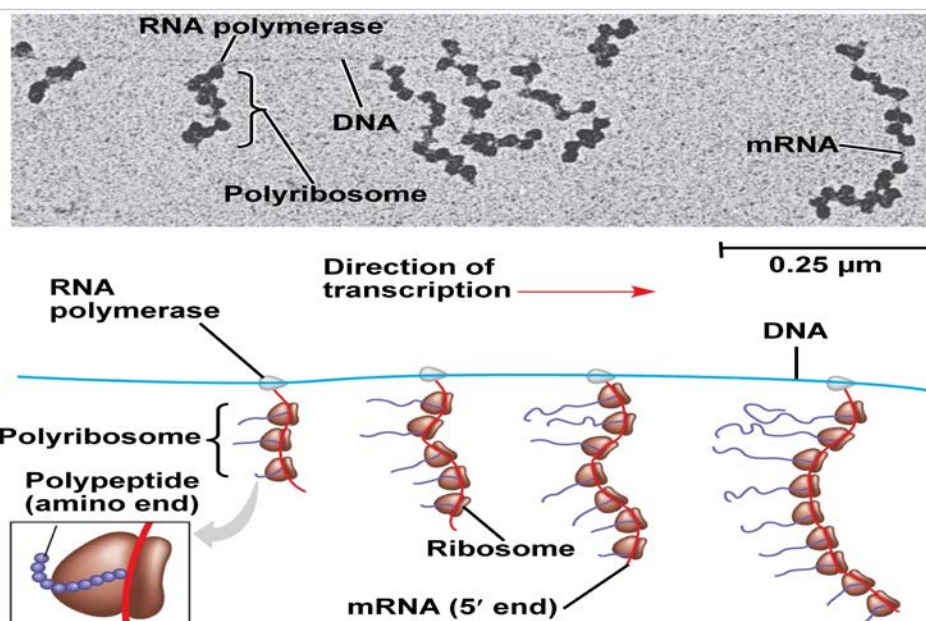
- before 40 years organisms were divided into 3 categories : bacteria , archea, eukaryotes.

- Archaea are prokaryotes, but share many features of gene expression with eukaryotes

❖ **Comparing Gene Expression in Bacteria, Archaea, and Eukarya**

- Bacteria and eukarya differ in their RNA polymerases, termination of transcription ; archaea tend to resemble eukarya in these respects .
- bacterial and eukaryotic differ in ribosomes and initiation of translation, archaea ribosome are the same size with bacterial ribosome , but their sensitivity to chemical inhibitors is most closely to eukaryotic ribosomes , and in initiation it is more like bacterial process .
- Bacteria (with absence of nucleus) can simultaneously transcribe and translate the same gene . and the resulted protein quickly diffuse to its site of function .
- In eukarya, nuclear envelope separates transcription and translation . it provides a compartment of extensive RNA processing that leads to have additional steps in the process
- In archaea, since it lack nuclear envelope ,transcription and translation are likely coupled .

Figure 17.24 Coupled transcription and translation in bacteria

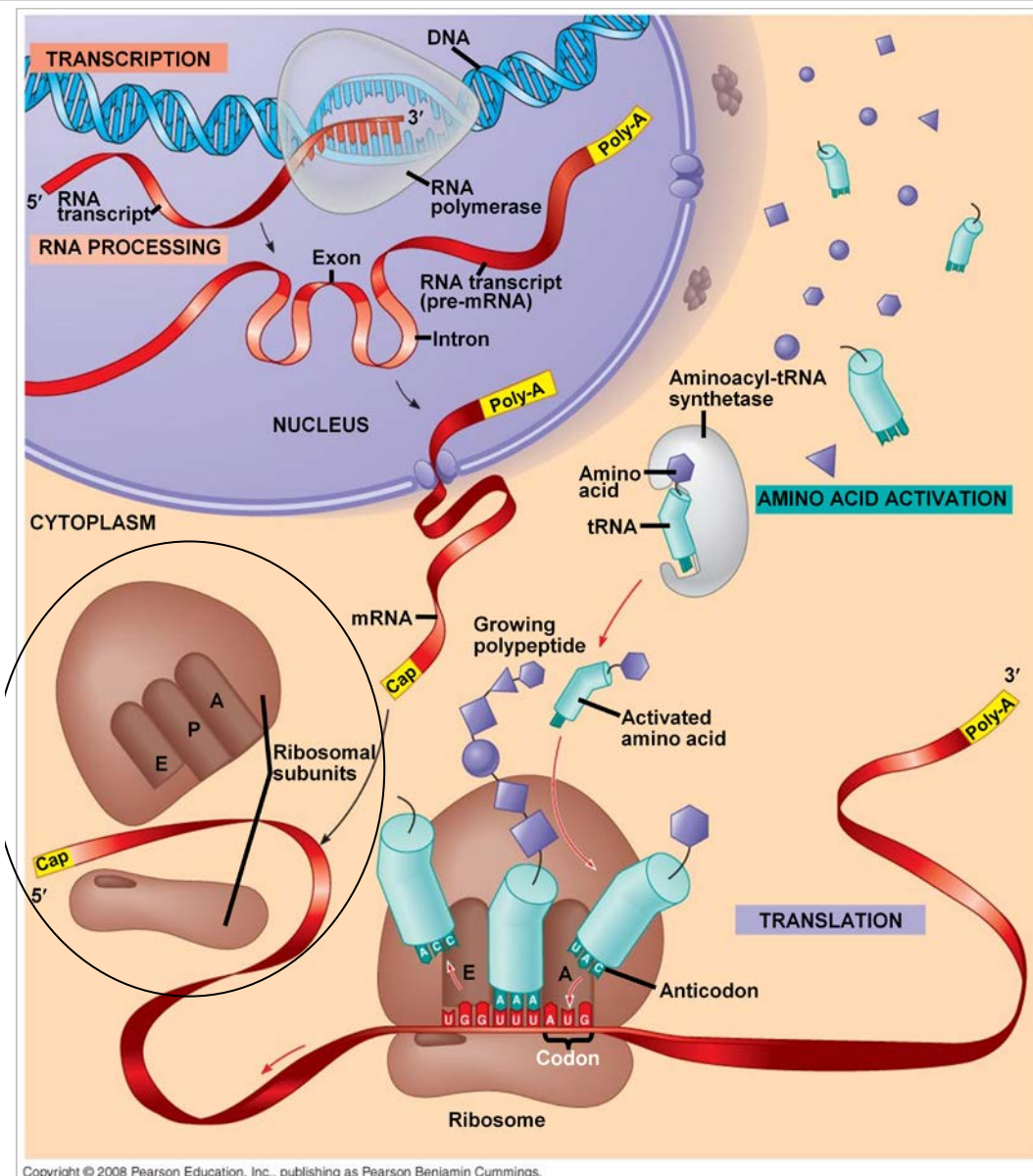


The Idea of this figure >>
In bacterial cells the translation of mRNA can begin as soon as the leading (5') end of mRNA molecule peels away from the DNA template .

❖ **What Is a Gene? *Revisiting the Question***

- The idea of the gene itself is a unifying concept of life
 - We have considered a gene as:
 - A discrete unit of inheritance
 - A region of specific nucleotide sequence along the length of a DNA molecule in a chromosome (chapter 16)
 - A DNA sequence that codes for a specific polypeptide chain (chapter 17)

Figure 17.25 A summary of transcription and translation in a eukaryotic cell



The 2 subunits dissociate after each translation .

Finally we can define gene as >>

a region of DNA that can be expressed to produce a final functional product that is either a polypeptide or an RNA molecule .

Quick Summary :
types of RNA >>

Type of RNA	Functions
Messenger RNA (mRNA)	Carries information specifying amino acid sequences of proteins from DNA to ribosomes.
Transfer RNA (tRNA)	Serves as adapter molecule in protein synthesis; translates mRNA codons into amino acids.
Ribosomal RNA (rRNA)	Plays catalytic (ribozyme) roles and structural roles in ribosomes.
Primary transcript	Is a precursor to mRNA, rRNA, or tRNA, before being processed. Some intron RNA acts as a ribozyme, catalyzing its own splicing.
Small nuclear RNA (snRNA)	Plays structural and catalytic roles in spliceosomes, the complexes of protein and RNA that splice pre-mRNA.

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This chapter has many Terms , we try to make it easier but all of them are necessary ..!

if there is any mistakes we are sorry and please tell us by a message to our account on face book " Iijan Rehabilitation"

best wishes for You ☺