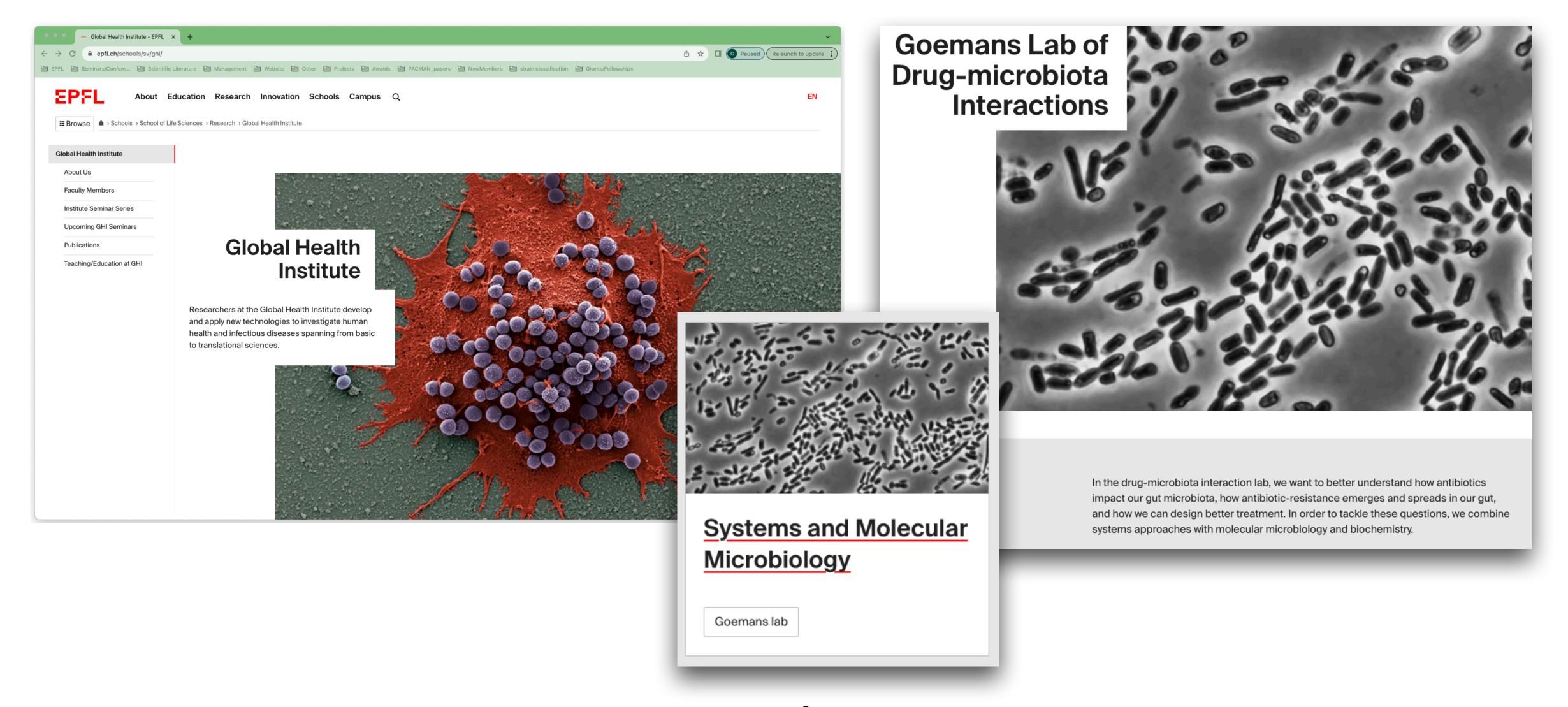
# Welcome to Cellular and Molecular Biology I

**BIO-205-1** 

Prof. Camille Goemans EPFL-SV-GHI

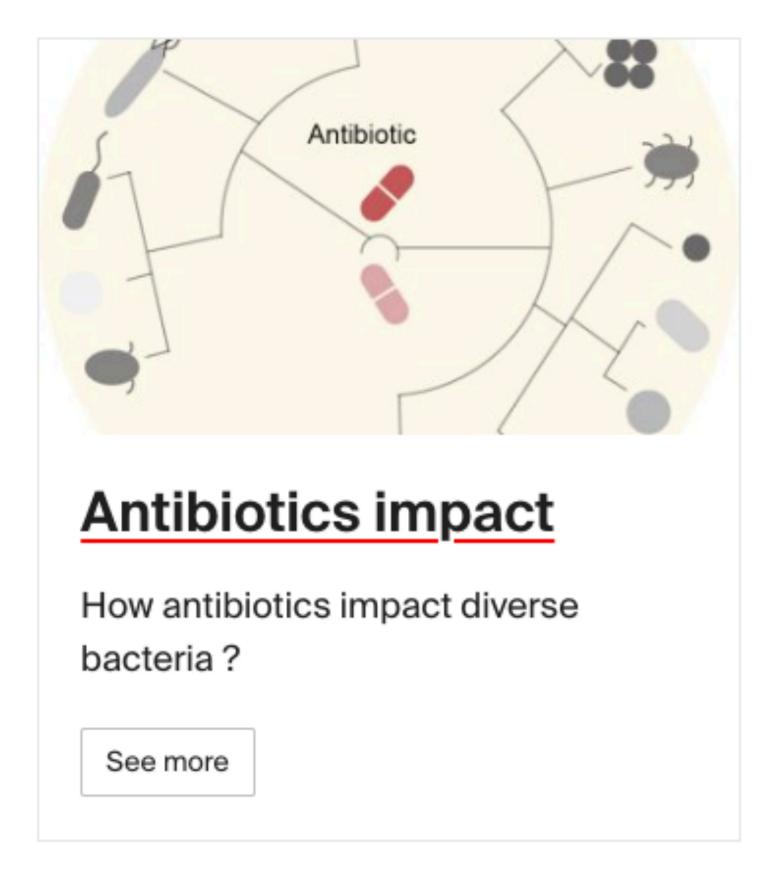
#### Research interests of the Goemans Lab

#### Systems and Molecular Microbiology

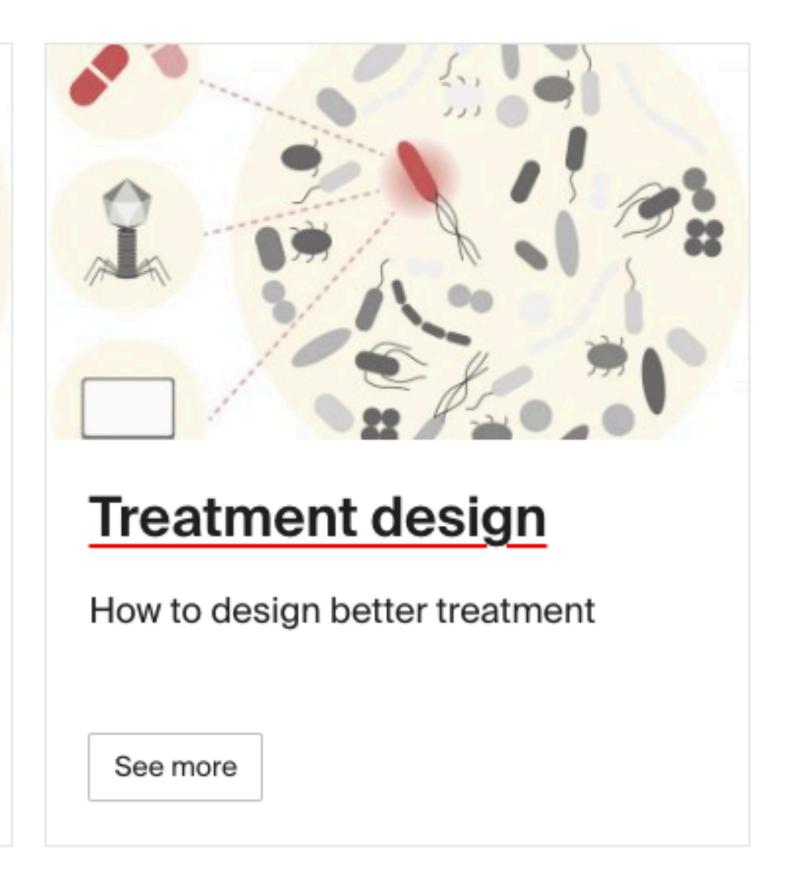


#### Research interests of the Goemans Lab

#### Systems and Molecular Microbiology







#### General information about this course

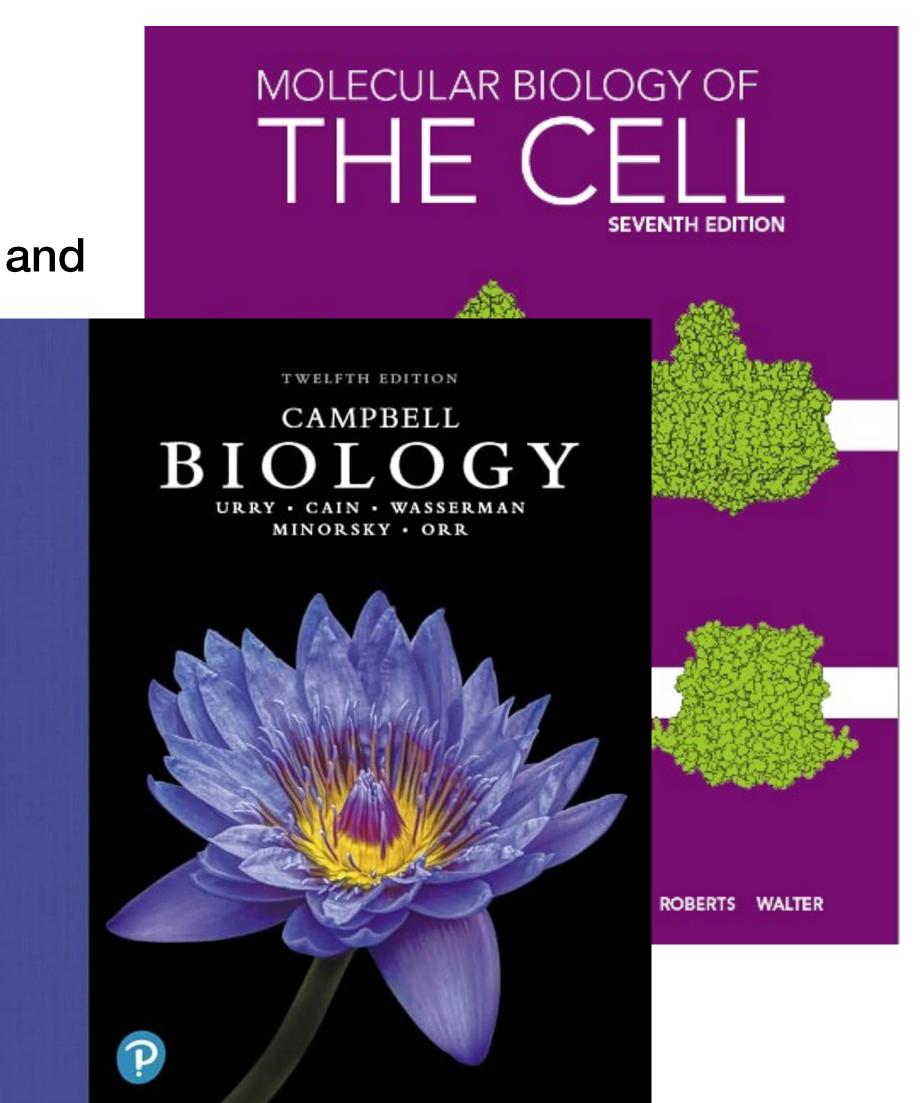
• Slides and lectures are in **English** - with notes

 Reference Books are Molecular Biology of the Cell (chapters 4-9) and Biology, both available at the library - not needed

• Images are primarily from both books

All references available upon request

- Background is Biology I with some overlap
- Questions: during the break
- Interesting resources: https://www.biointeractive.org/classroomresources



#### General information about this course

- **Exam** (English) on lectures+exercise material; with open book (only slides and notes), similar to exercises
  - multiple choices
  - TRUE or FALSE
- Questions/Feedback during the break
- Interactive quizz during the course: please participate
- Student's reps?

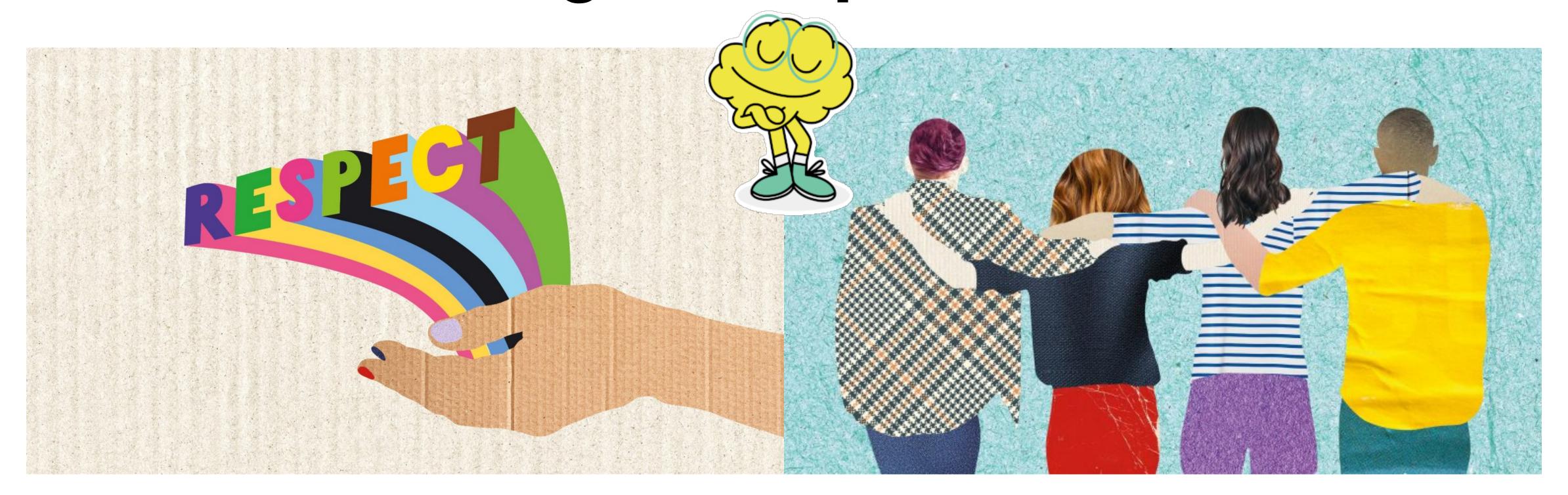
#### General information about this course

- Every Wednesday on Moodle:
  - Slides for the next class (material is new this year!)
  - Exercises for the next session
  - Answers to last week's exercises

#### Exercise sessions with TAs

- Exercises (English): Mondays 17.15-19.00
- Room CE1100: students A-F (last name)
- Room CE1101: students G-O (last name)
- Room CE1105: students P-Z (last name)
- Do attend the exercise sessions as they prepare you for the exam!

## Let's make this a great experience



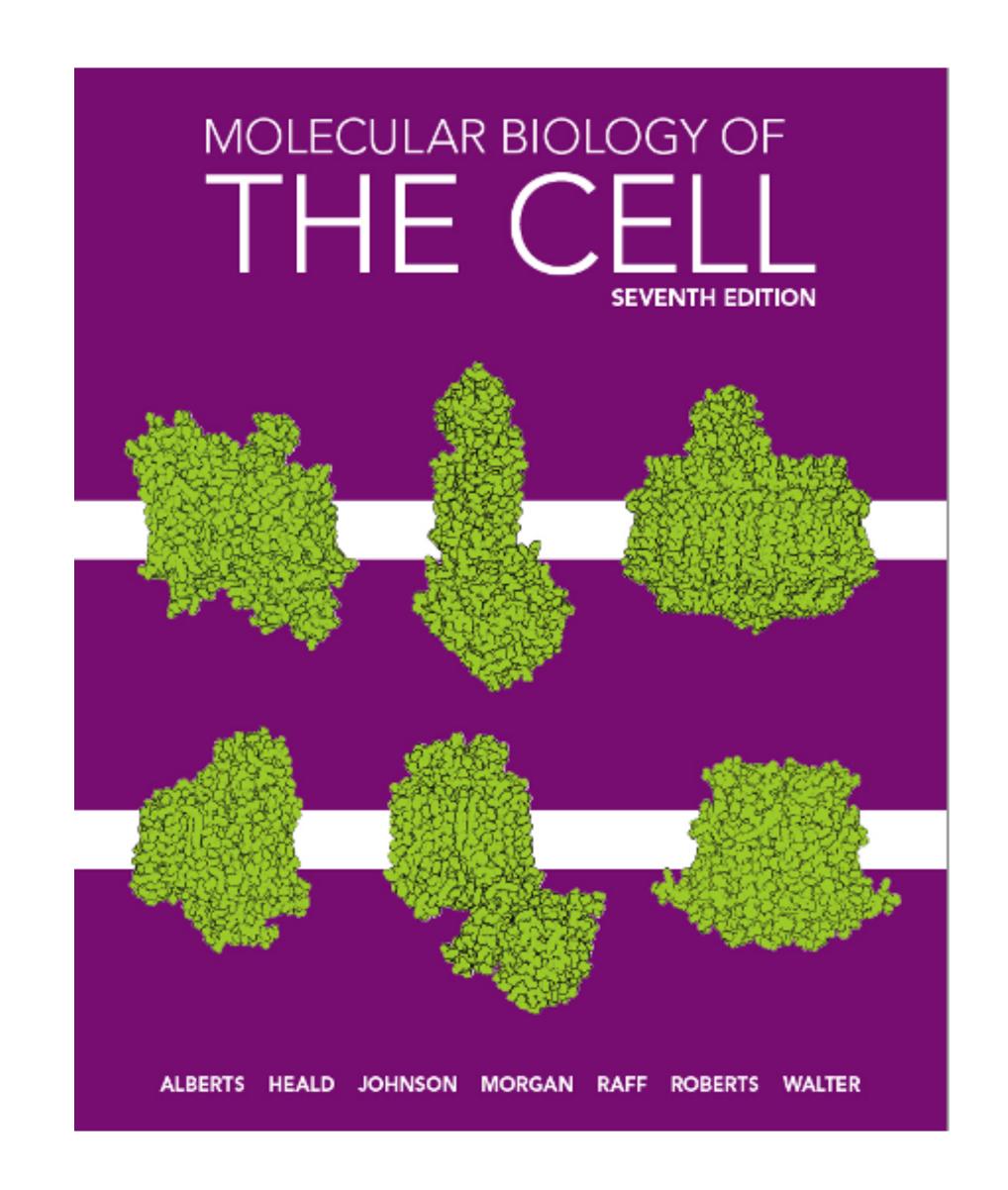
- I show up on time
- I prepare my classes so they are (hopefully) enjoyable
- I am open to feedback

- You show up on time/listen to the class
- You participate to the class when needed
- You provide me with feedback when necessary

# General objectives of this course

- Understand DNA organization, gene expression and protein function
- General principles and experimental approaches

# Now, let's start!



#### **Chapter 4**

DNA, Chromosomes, and Genomes

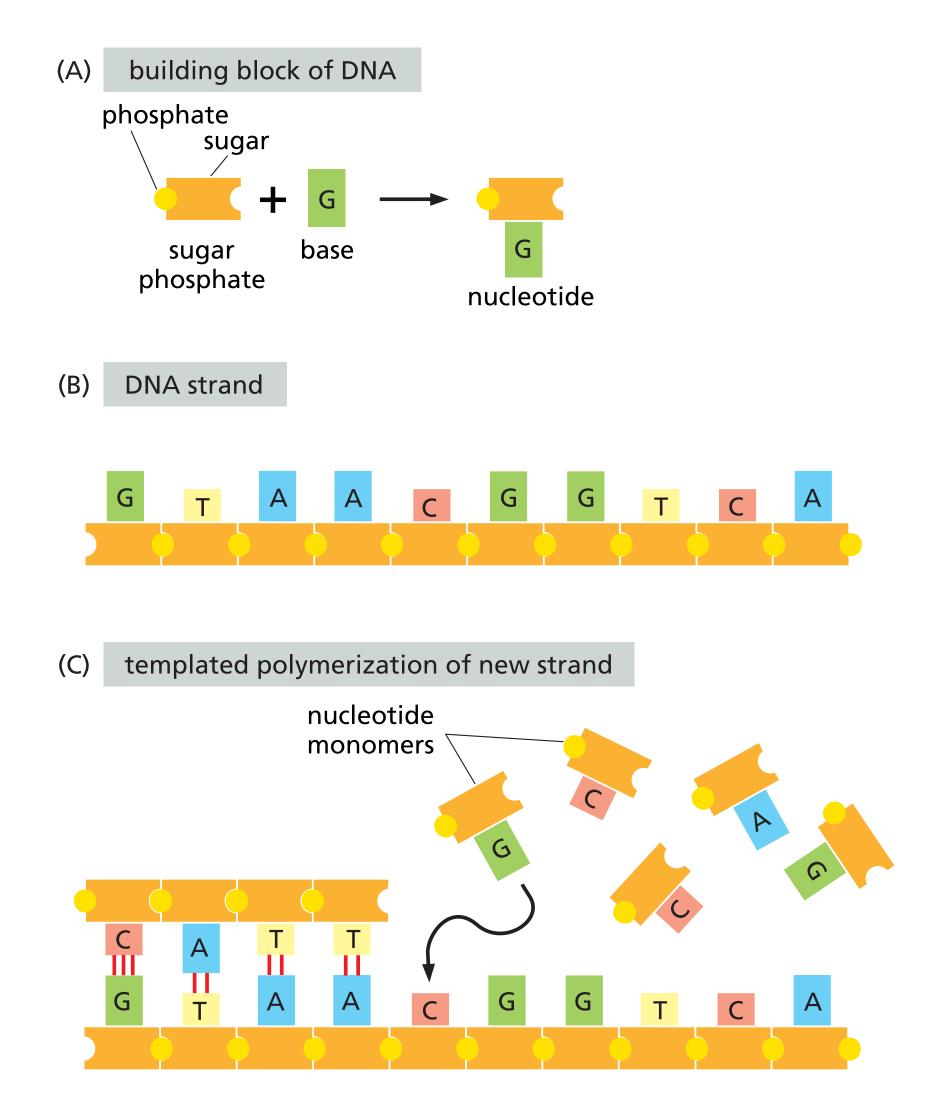
# Now, let's start!

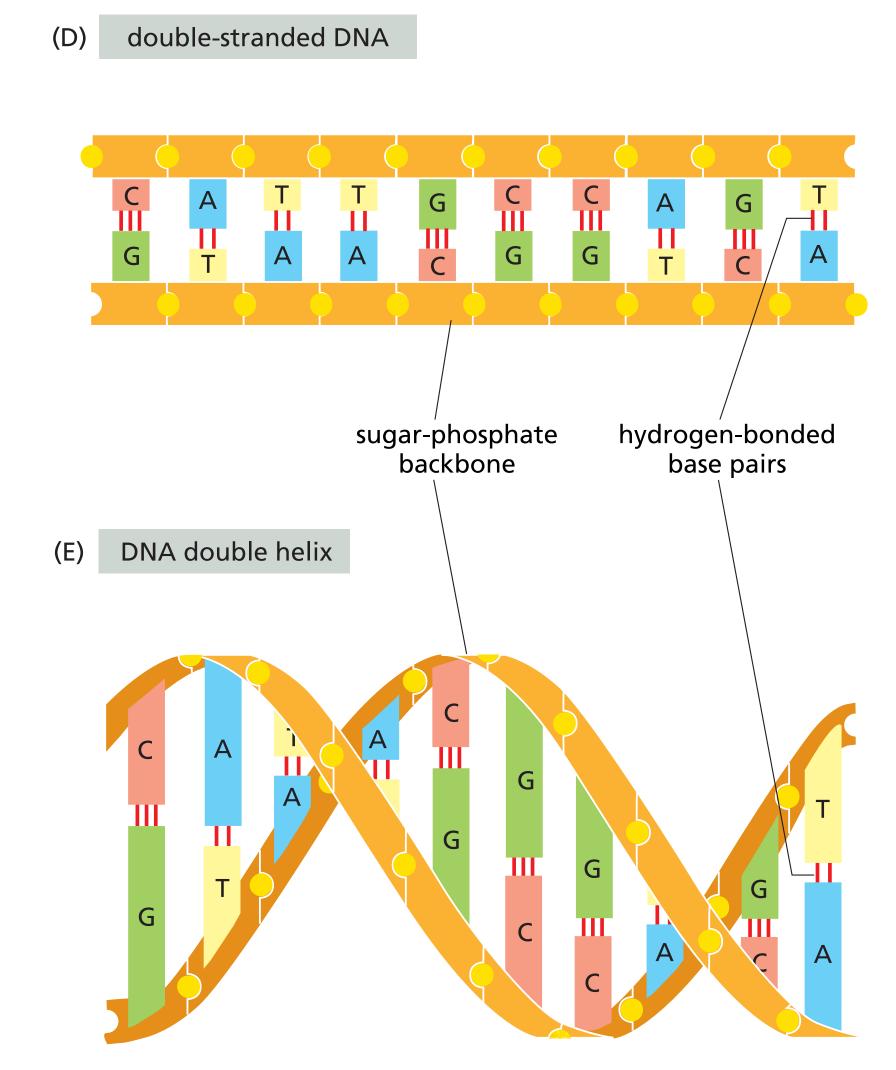
- Brief introduction on Biology basics
- The structure and function of DNA
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# Brief introduction on Biology basics

- Living organisms are diverse
- They are all made of cells
  - Membrane-enclosed units
  - Filled with a concentrated aqueous solution of chemicals
  - Ability to grow and divide in two
- All cells store their hereditary information in the same chemical linear code: DNA

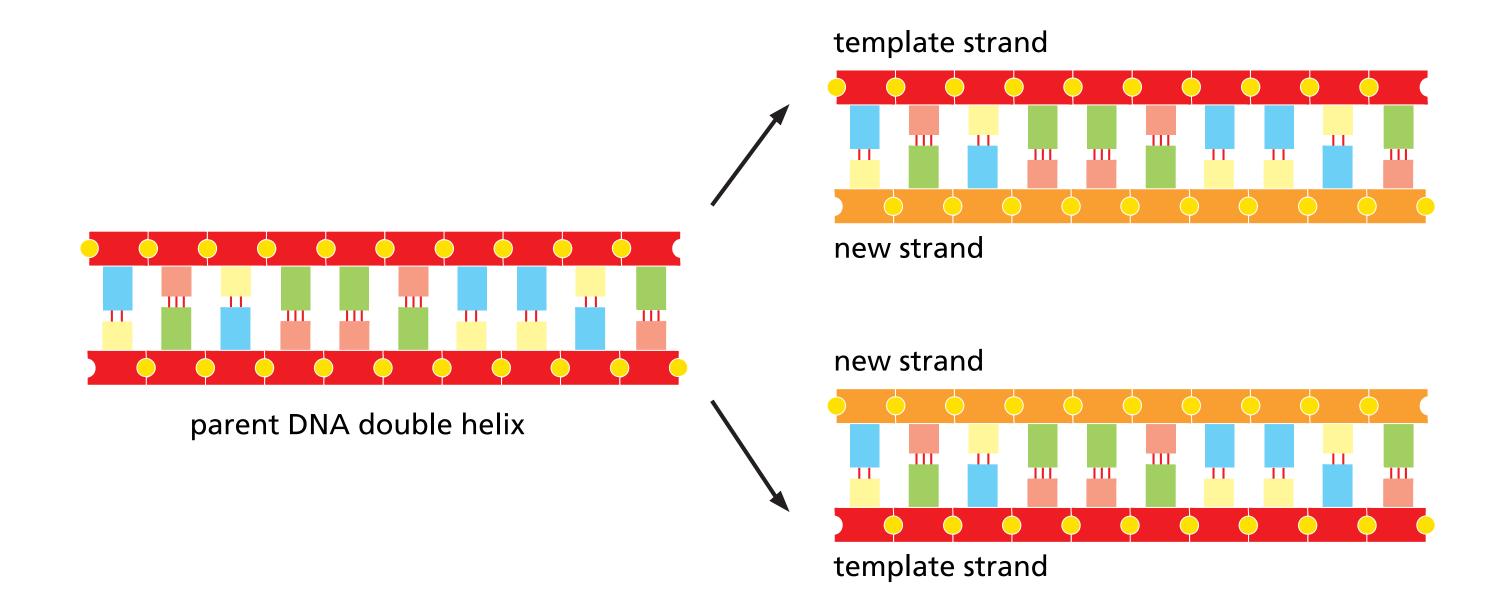
#### What is DNA?





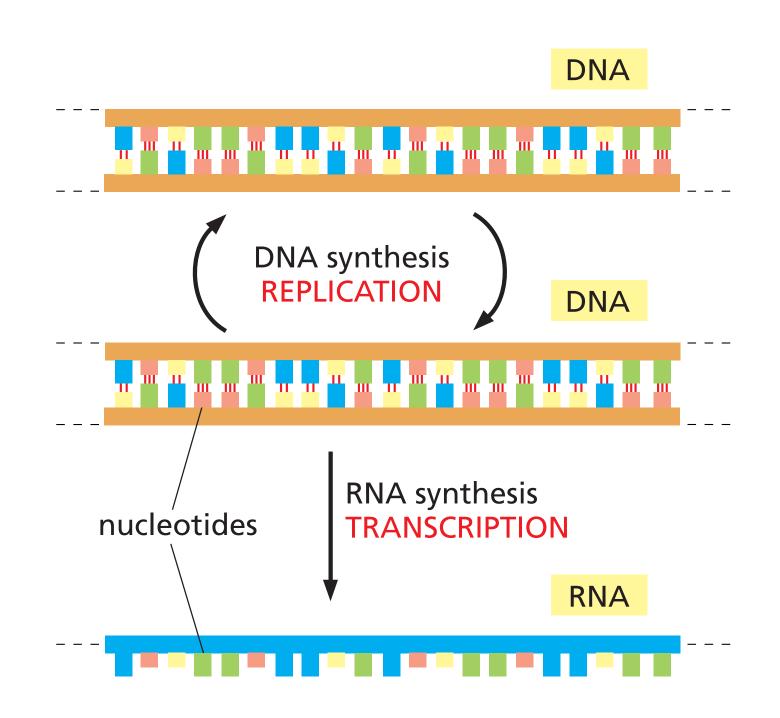
# DNA replication

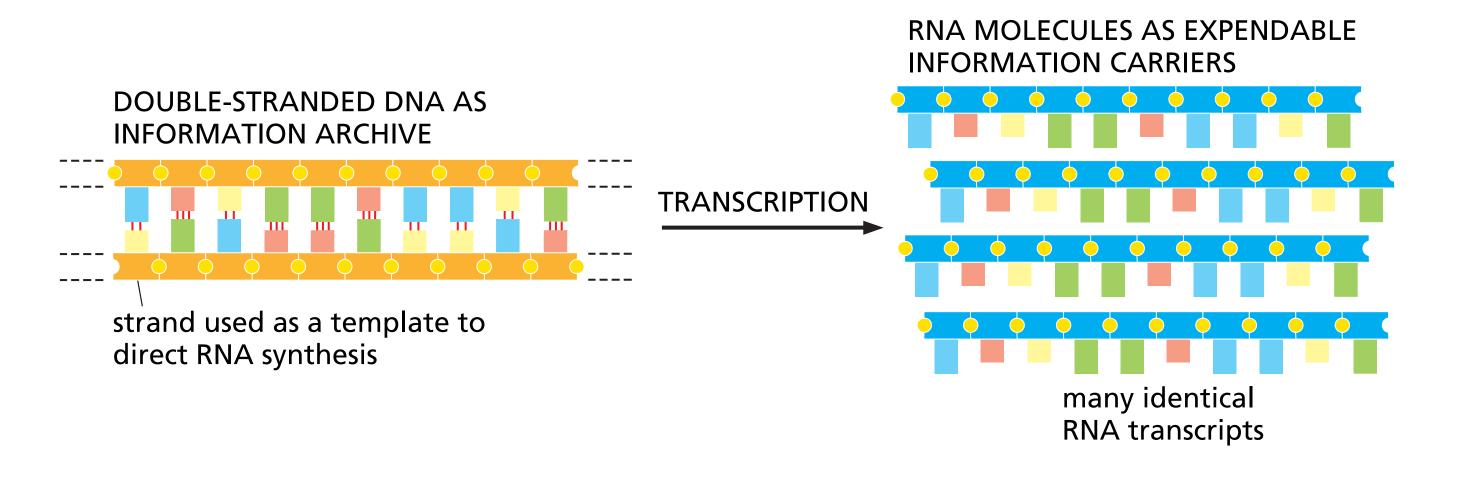
All cells replicate their DNA by templated polymerization



# Transcription

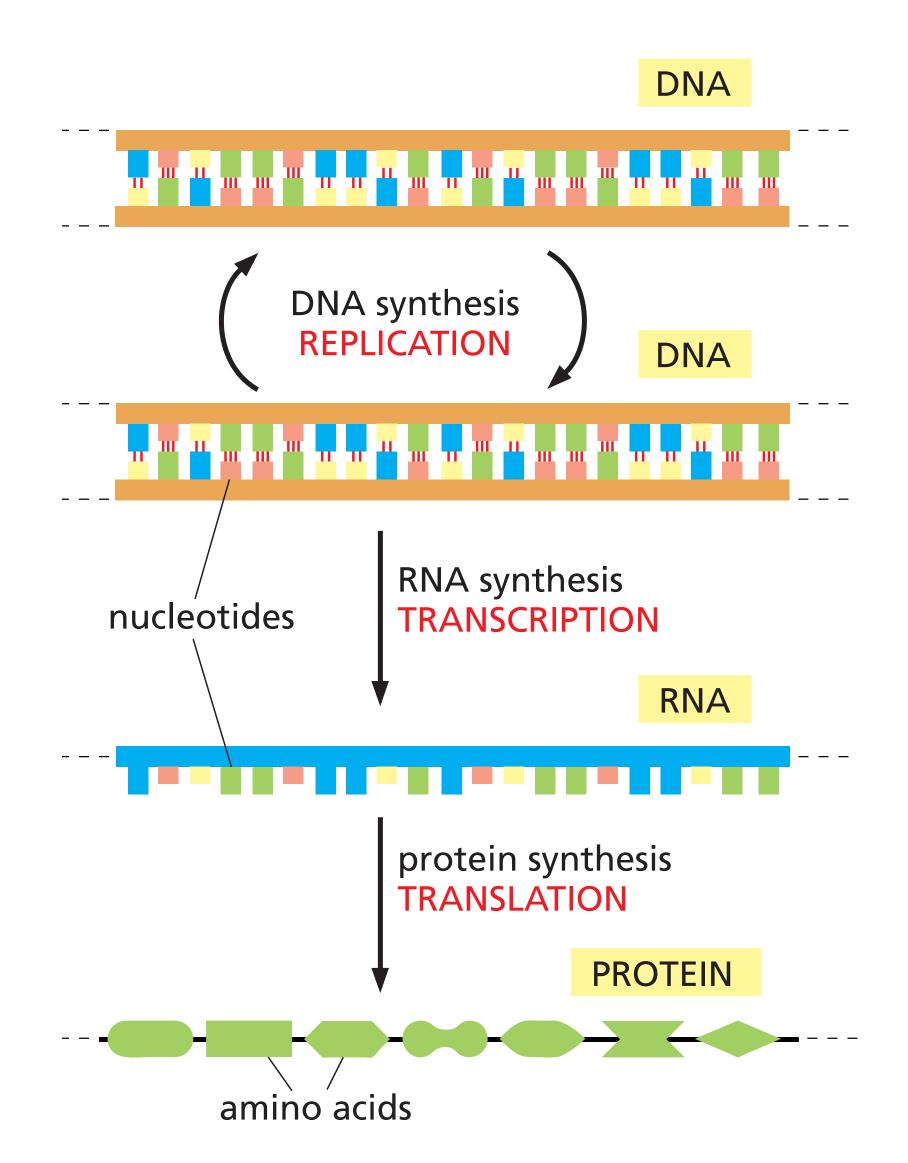
All cells transcribe portions of their DNA into RNA





#### Translation

All cells translate RNA into proteins the same way



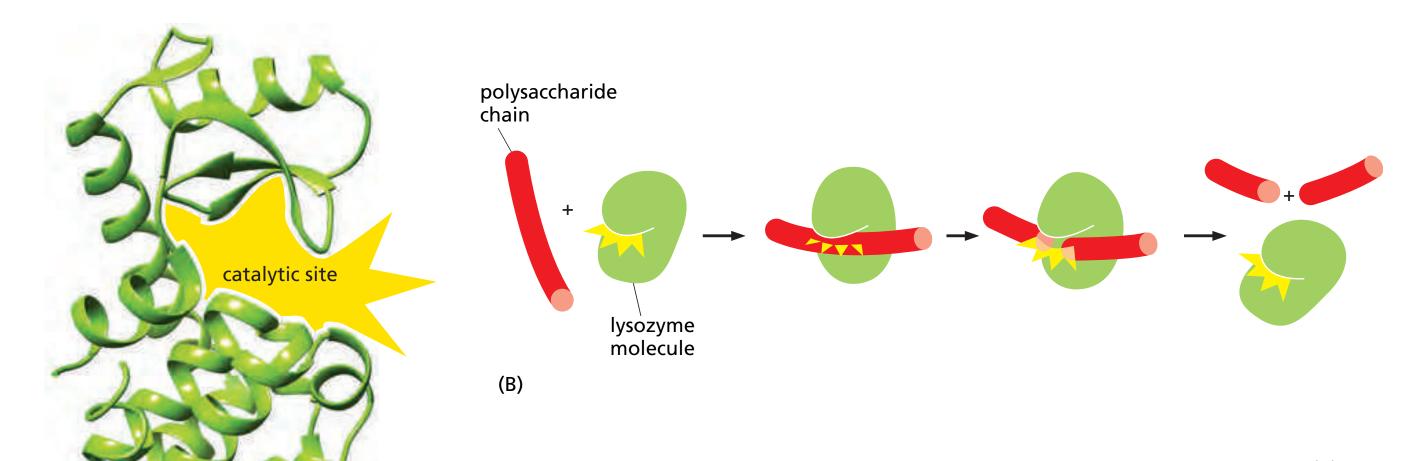
# What are proteins?

#### **Proteins** are

- Long polymers of **amino acids** (20 types) = polypeptide
- Important **3D structure** linked to a function

(A) lysozyme

• Can act as enzymes, structure, generation movement, sensing signals,...



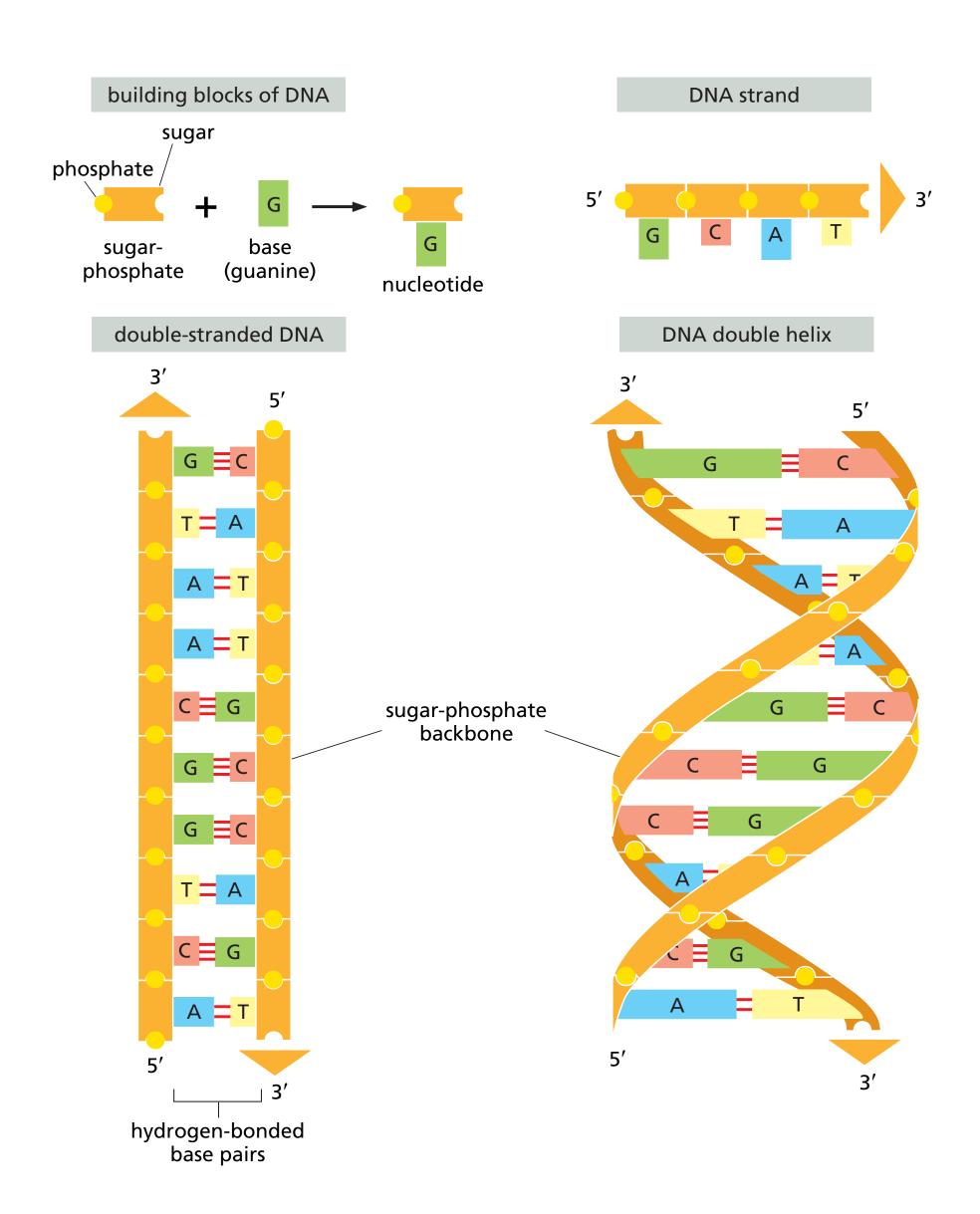
rigure 1–7 How a protein molecule acts as a catalyst for a chemical reaction. (A) In a protein molecule, the polymer chain folds up into a specific shape defined by its amino acid sequence. A groove in the surface of this particular folded molecule, the enzyme lysozyme, forms a catalytic site. (B) A polysaccharide molecule (red)—a polymer chain of sugar monomers—binds to the catalytic site of lysozyme and is broken apart, as a result of a covalent bond-breaking reaction catalyzed by the amino acids lining the groove (see Movie 3.9). (PDB code: 1LYD.)

#### Plan

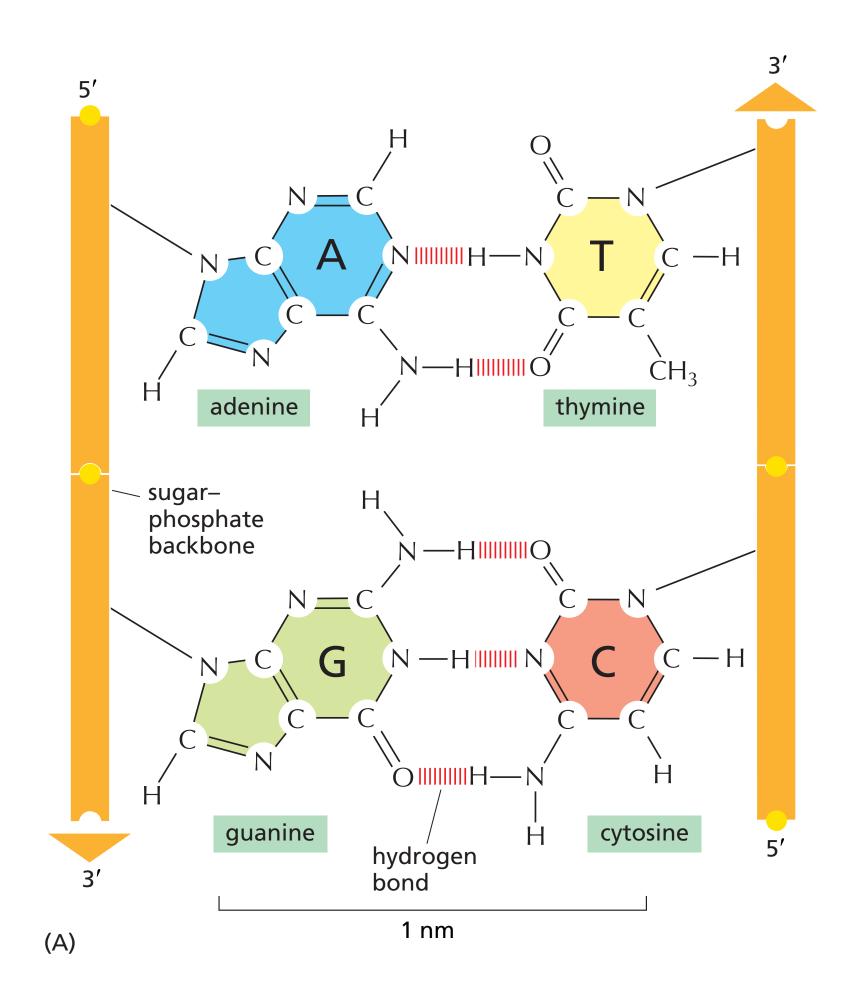
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- DNA is passed from one cell to its daughter cells at cell division
- Instructions are stored as **genes**, which define the characteristics of a **species**
- In the 1940s, it was difficult to imagine that a molecule as **simple** as DNA could be the genetic material
- In the 1950s, x-ray diffraction analysis showed it had two strands and formed a helix
- 1953: model of DNA by Watson and Crick

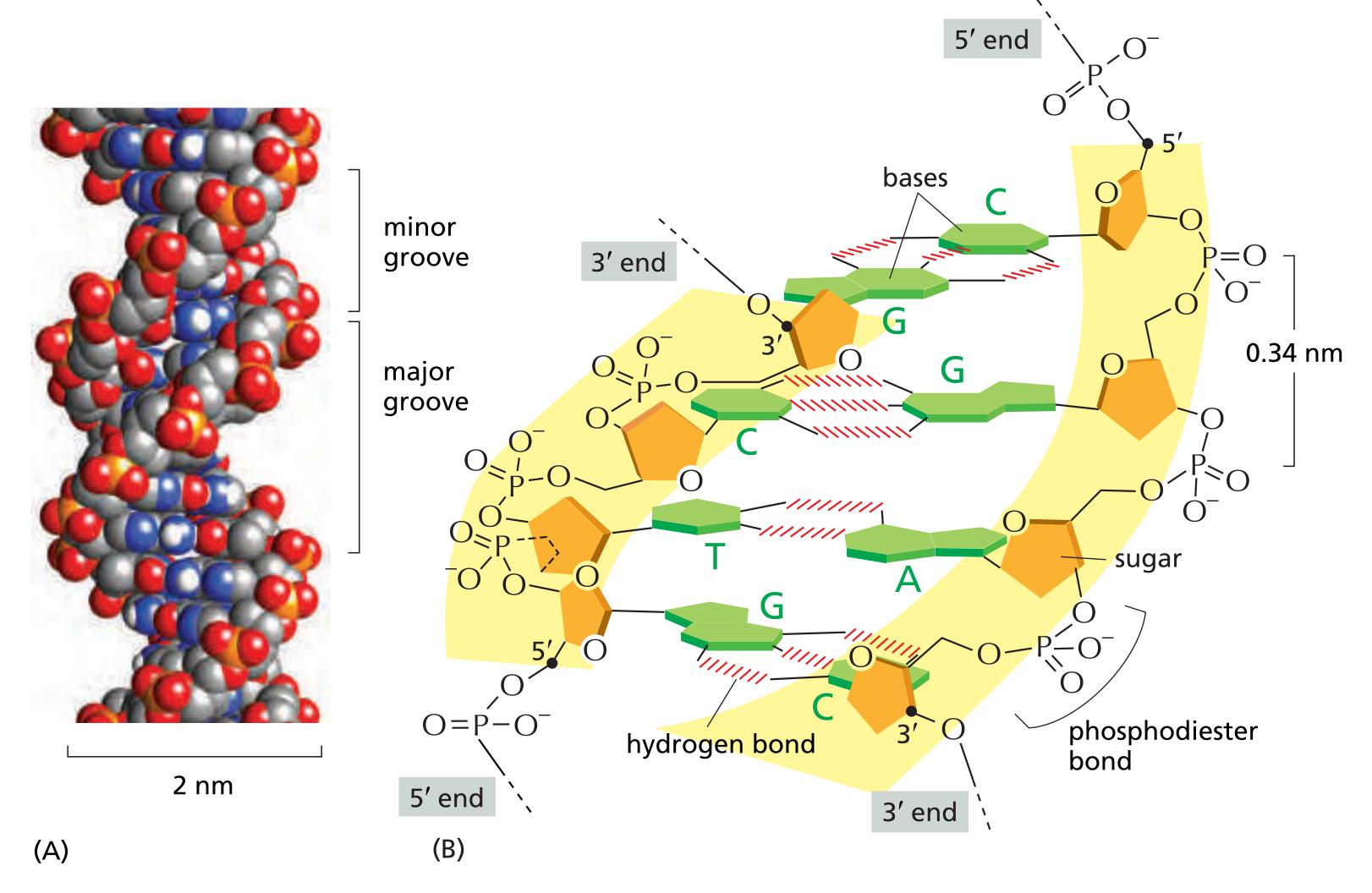
- **DNA** = Deoxyribonucleic Acid
- Nucleotides are the building blocks of DNA
- Nucleotides are formed by a sugar (deoxyribose) linked to a phosphate group and a nitrogen-containing base (adenine, cytosine, guanine, thymine)
- Covalent link to form the sugar-phosphate backbone = DNA strand
- Two long polynucleotide chains
- Antiparallel to each other (5' end and 3' end can be distinguished)
- Linked by hydrogen bonds



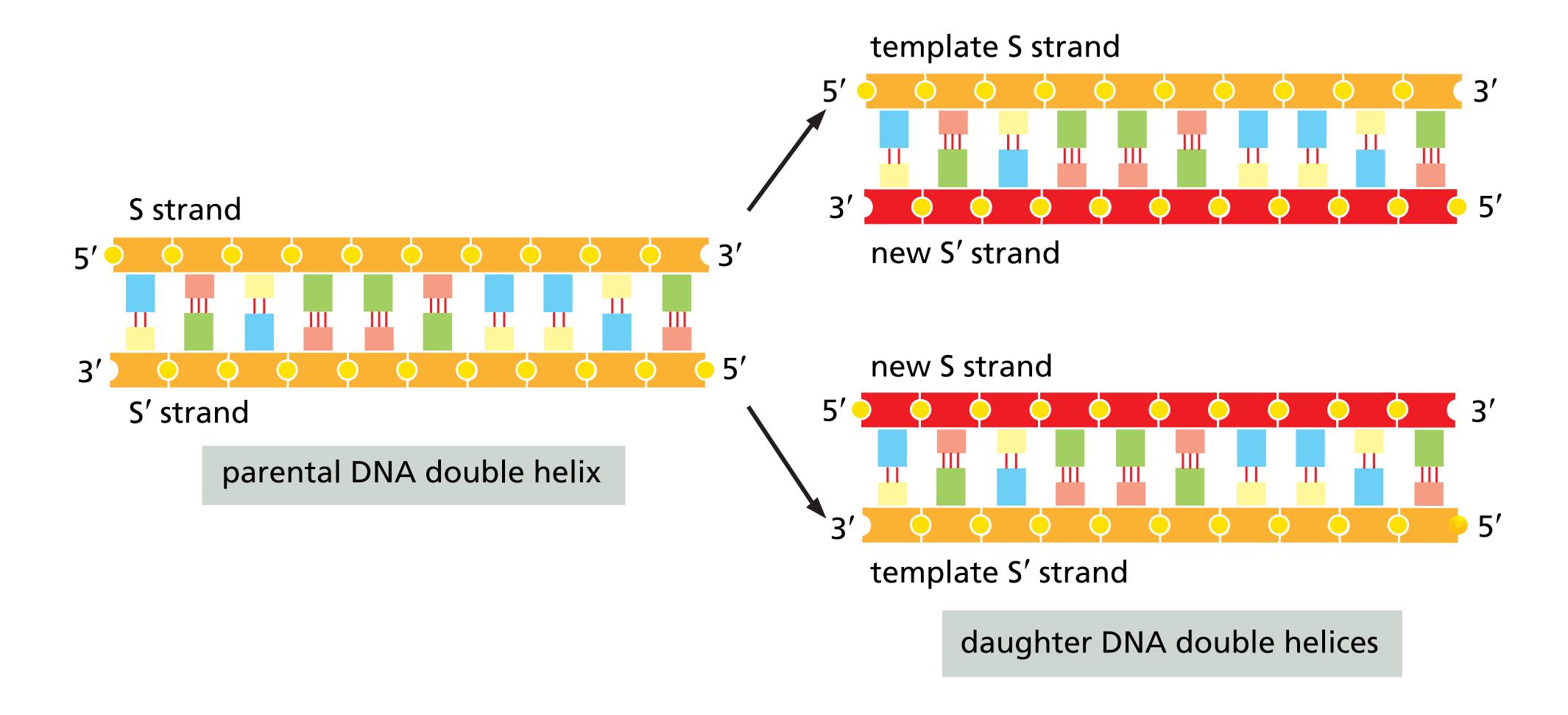
- A pairs with T; and G with C
- 2-ring base = purine
- 1-ring base = pyrimidine



The two backbones wind around each other to form a helix with a turn per 10 base pairs

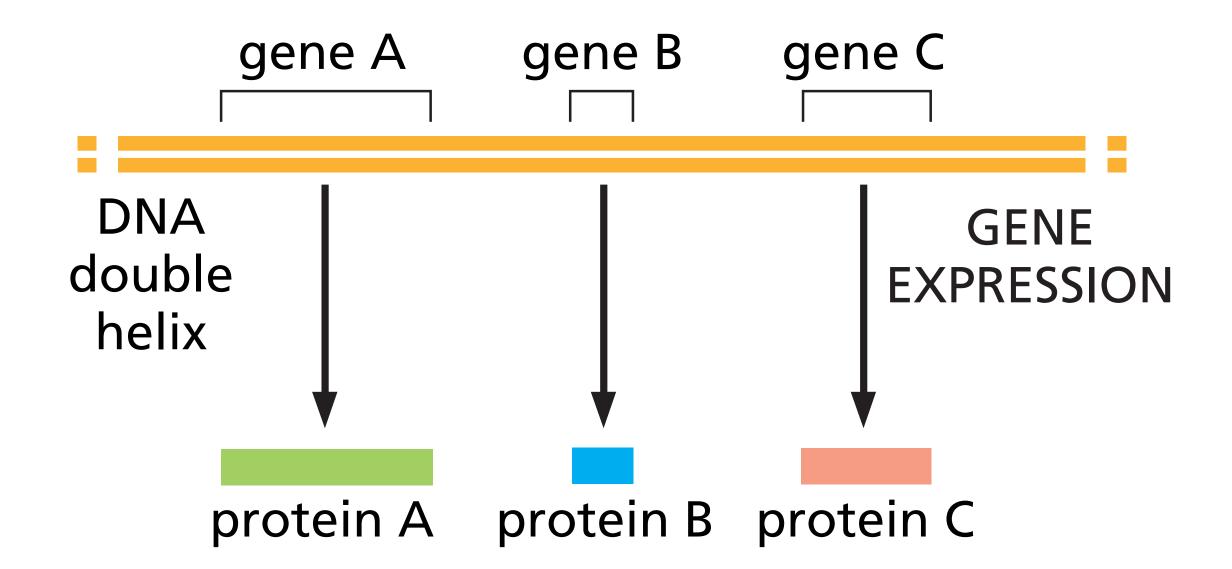


# How is information copied from generation to generation?



#### How is information stored?

- Genes encode the information to make proteins
- If genes are made of DNA, DNA can be somehow turned into proteins
- Genetic code: correspondance between DNA and amino-acid
- The complete store of information of an organism is called genome

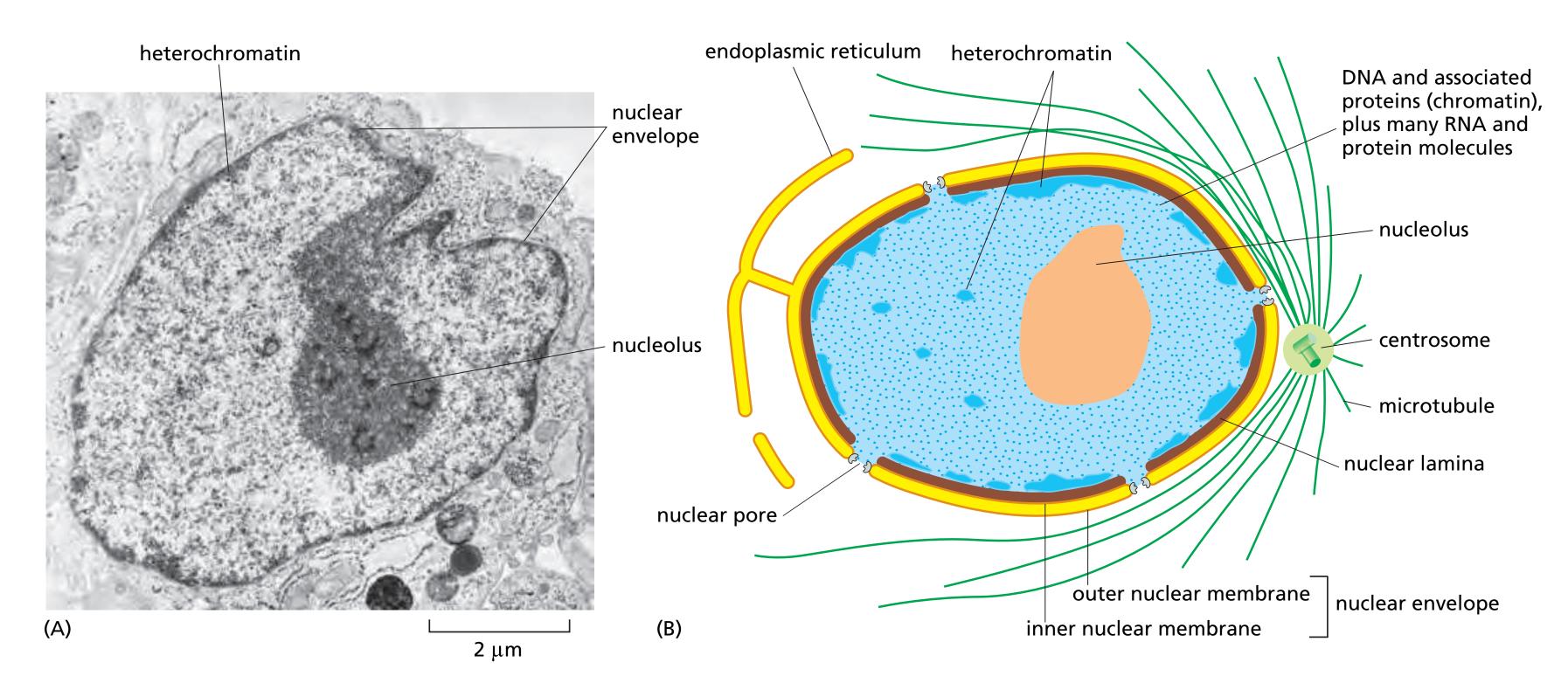


#### Plan

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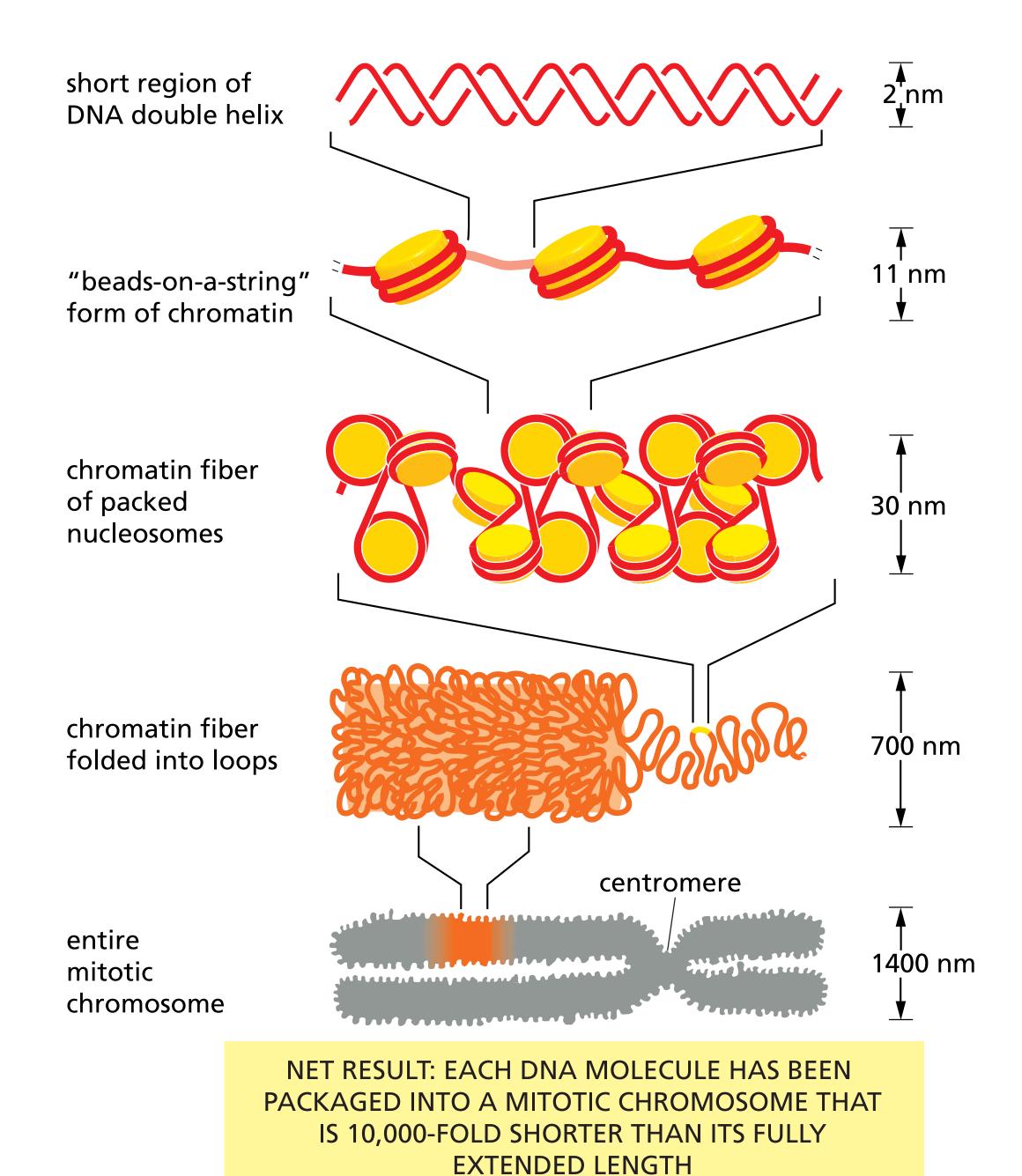
#### Chromosomal DNA and chromatin

- In Eukaryotes, DNA is packed in a nucleus (10% of the volume of the cells), separated by nuclear envelope
- Nuclear envelope is a two concentric lipid bilayer membranes punctured by large nuclear pores
- Mammalian DNA is 2-3 m long but the nucleus has a diameter of ~ 10 um



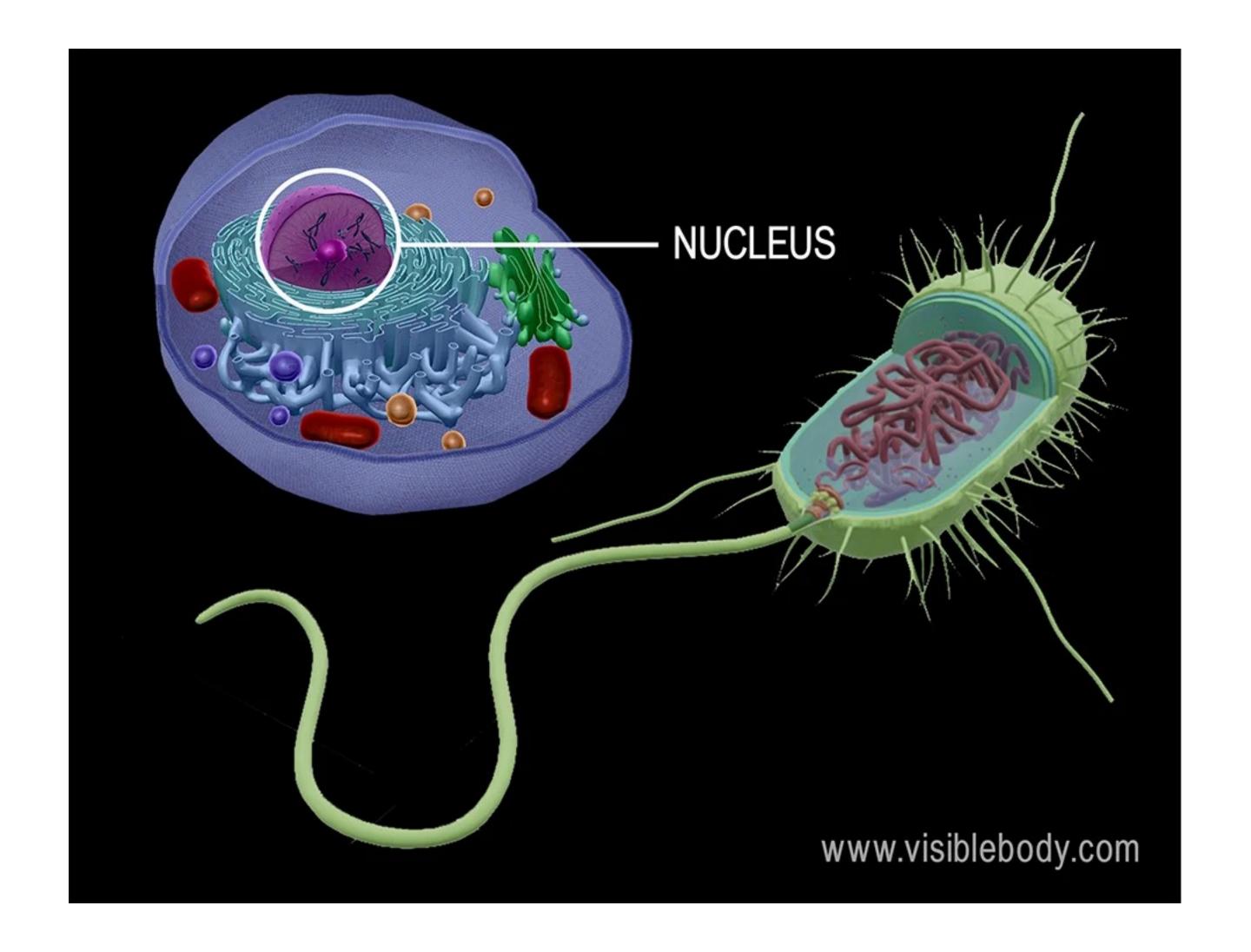
# How is DNA packed?

- Level 1: DNA double helix
- Level 2: DNA and proteins form **chromatin**
- Level 3: Chromatin is condensed into chromosomes
- Each chromosome is a single long DNA molecule with proteins that pack it into the right structure
- Chromosomes reach their highest level of compaction during mitosis
- Bacteria do not have a nucleus and typically have one chromosome (different from the ones in eukaryotes)



# Prokaryotes and eukaryotes

- Prokaryotes:
  - Circular DNA molecule
  - Associated with a **few** proteins
  - Inside the **cell** (no nucleus)
- Eukaryotes:
  - Linear DNA molecules
  - Large amount of proteins
  - Inside the nucleus



- Human cells (except gametes and highly-specialised cells like red-blood cells) have two copies of each chromosome (one from the father, one from the mother)
- The maternal and paternal chromosomes are called homologous chromosomes
- The sex chromosomes in males are non homologous
- Each human cell comprises 46 chromosomes: 22 pairs of autosomes and 2 sex chromosomes

- Two DNA molecules produced during **DNA replication**, each called a **sister chromatid**
- Linked at the centromere (highly-condensed regions)

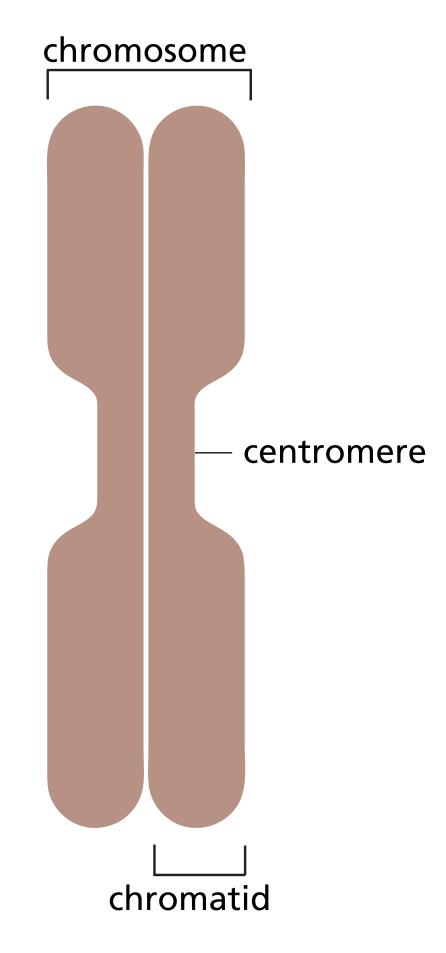
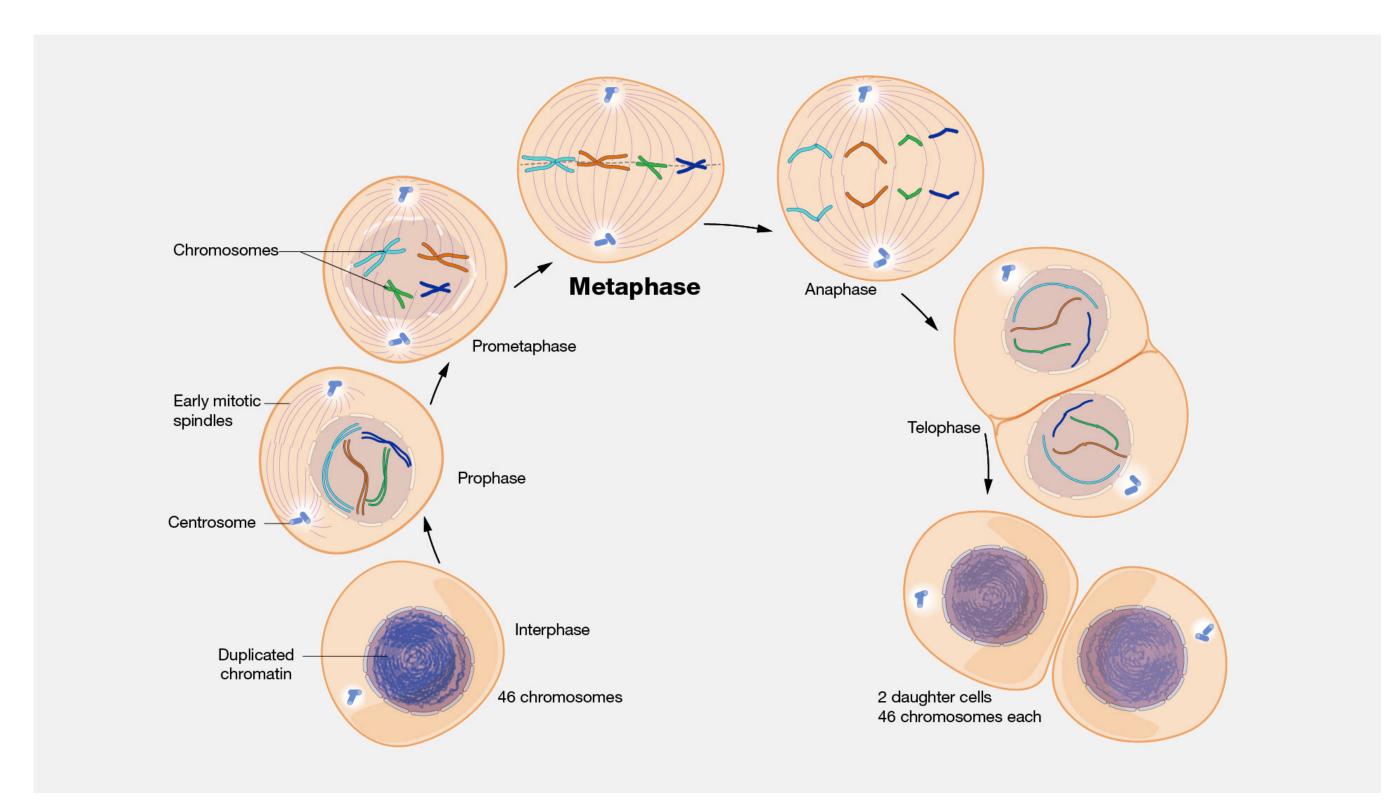
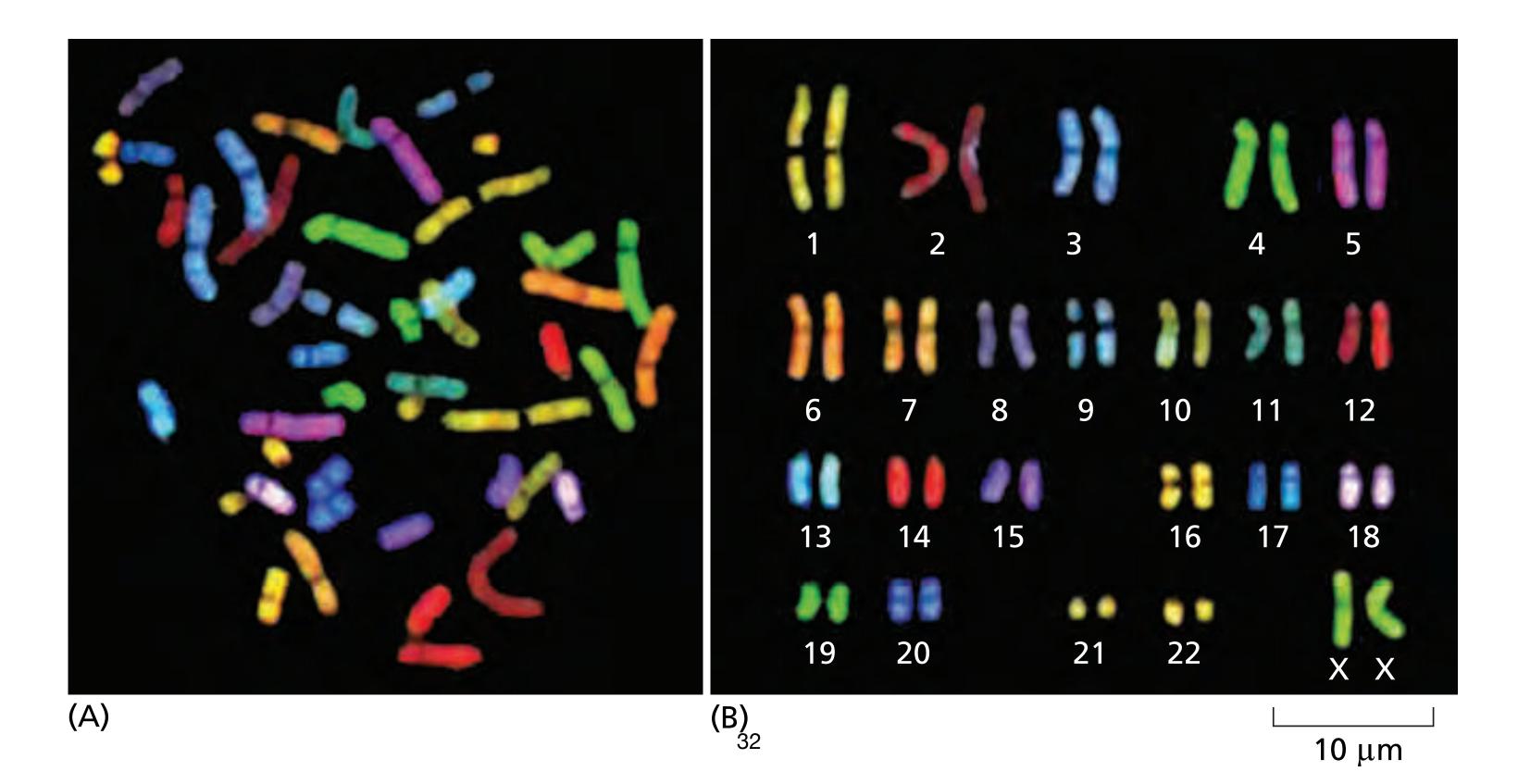


Figure 4–59 A typical mitotic chromosome at metaphase. Each sister chromatid contains one of two identical sister DNA molecules generated earlier in the cell cycle by DNA replication (see also Figure 17–21).



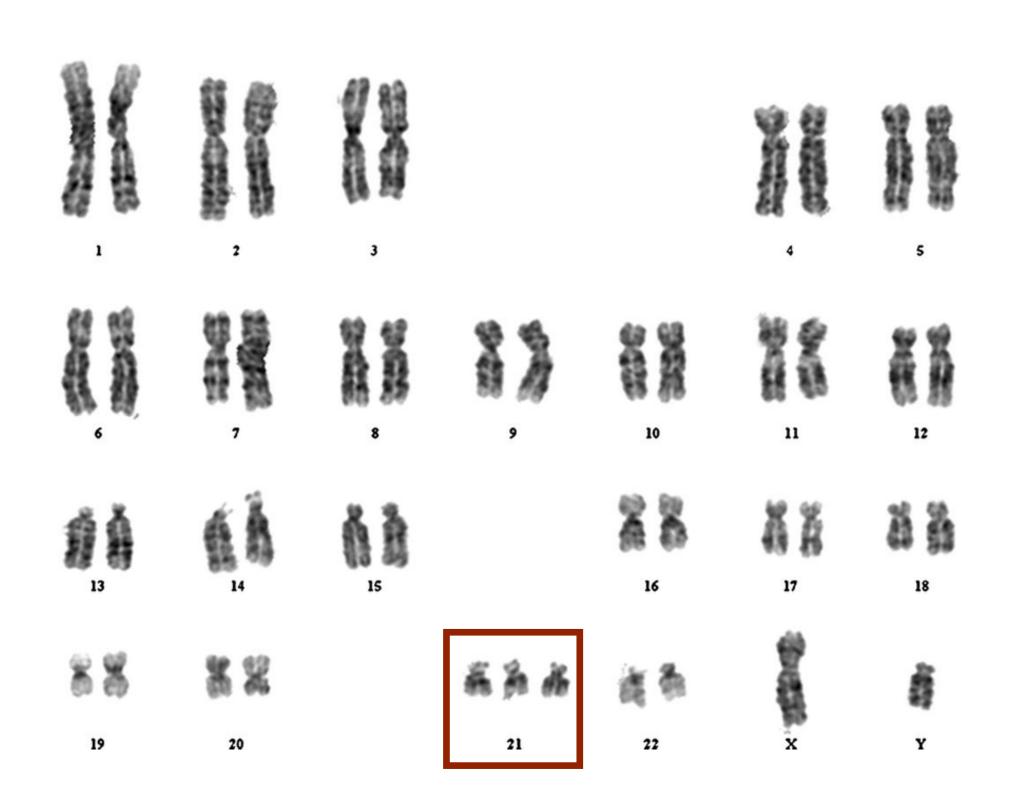
- During mitosis, genes are silenced
- Chromosomes are highly compacted with help of proteins (condensins and cohesins)
- The **centromere** is the region where the **mitotic spindle** will attach to the chromosomes to separate them in two cells

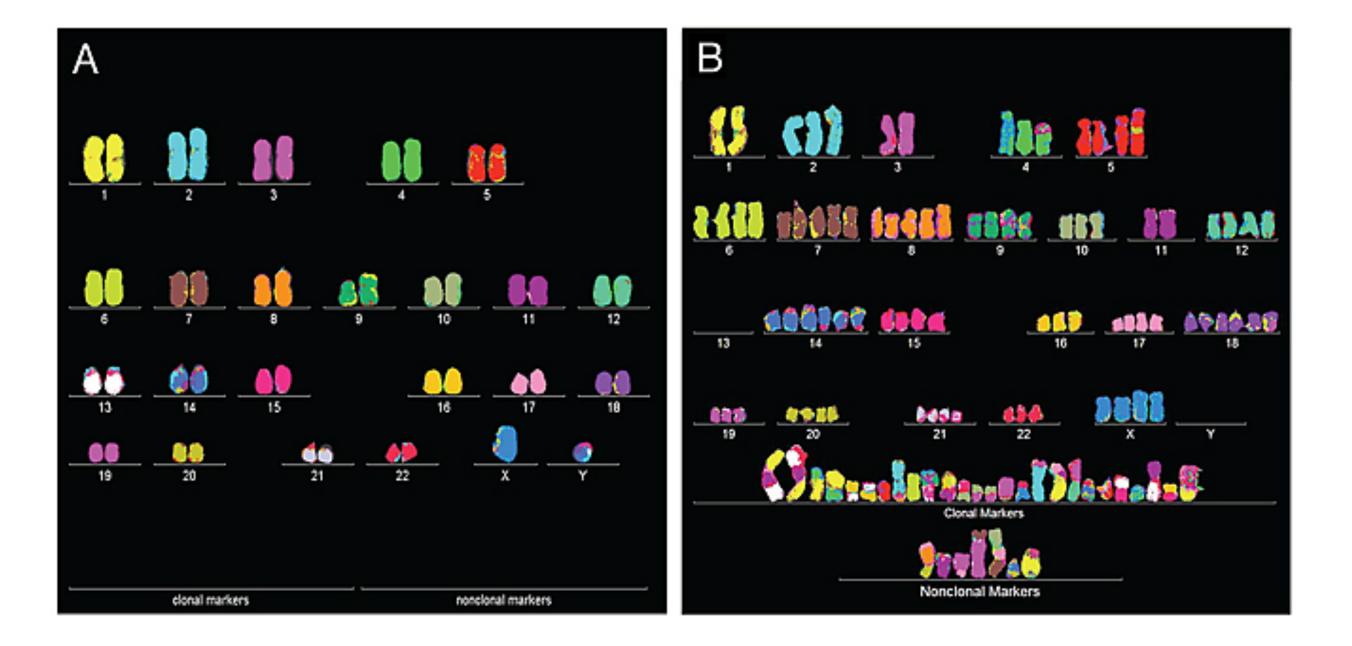
- Chromosomes can be distinguished by "painting" or DNA hybridisation (see later)
- A short strand of nucleic acid with a fluorescent dye serves as a probe that binds a complementary DNA sequence
- The display of the 46 chromosomes at mitosis is called karyotype and is used to detect inherited chromosome abnormalities



#### Chromosome aberrations

• Genetic (trisomy) vs. Somatic diseases (cancer)

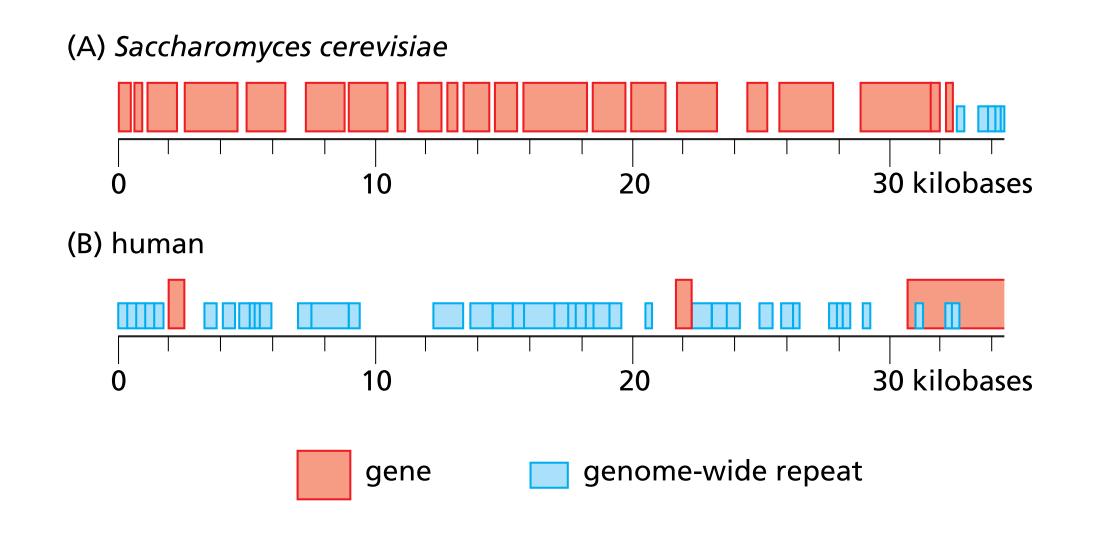




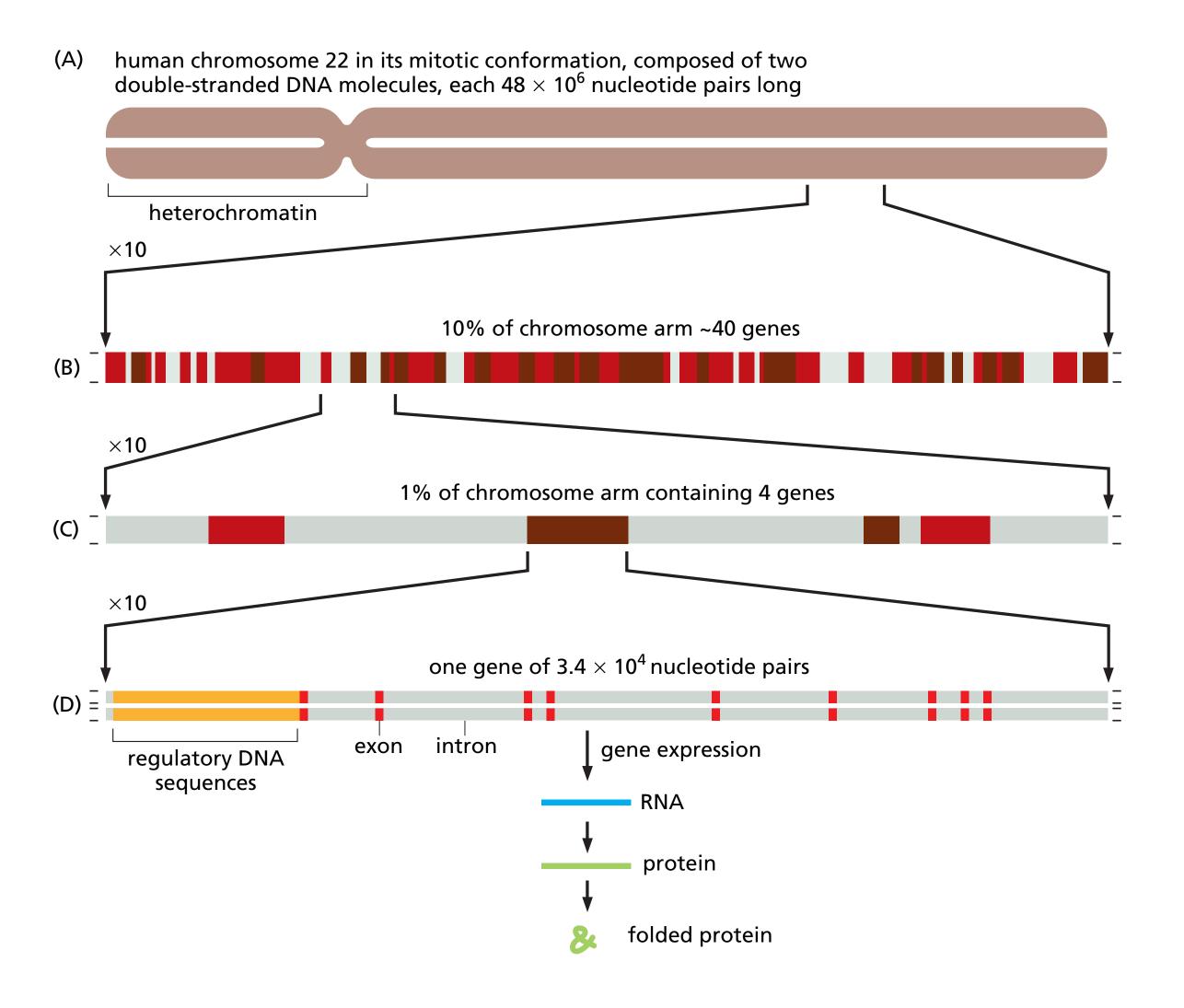
## Zooming into the chromosomes

- Chromosomes carry genes = segments of DNA that contain the instructions to make particular proteins
- Some genes are RNA genes, with RNA as a final product
- Correlation between the complexity of an organism and its number of genes (~3K in bacteria vs. 30K in humans, incl. 21K coding for proteins)
- In multicellular organisms, large quantity of interspersed
   DNA between genes whose function is poorly understood
   crucial for the control of gene expression = non-coding
   DNA

https://www.ensembl.org/index.html



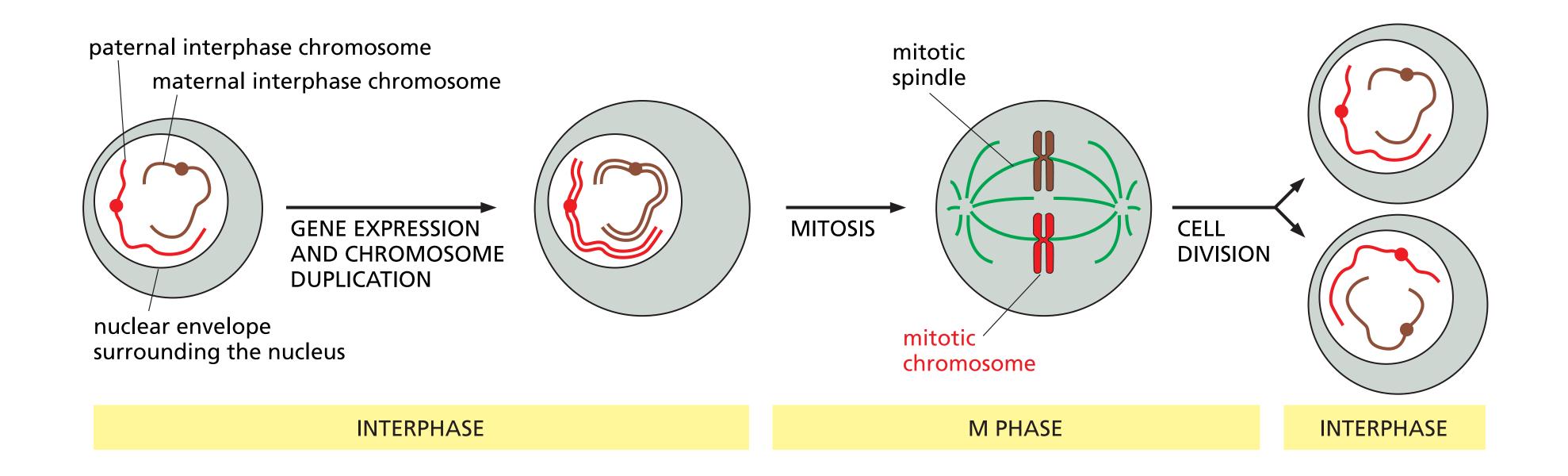
# Zooming into the chromosomes



- In 2004, full sequence of the human genome
- We see how genes are arranged within chromosomes
- Only 1.5% of DNA is coding for proteins
- ~50% is made of mobile DNA, inserted gradually over evolutionary time
- Average gene size is 27Kbp, which is long: introns (non-coding DNA) between exons (coding sequences)

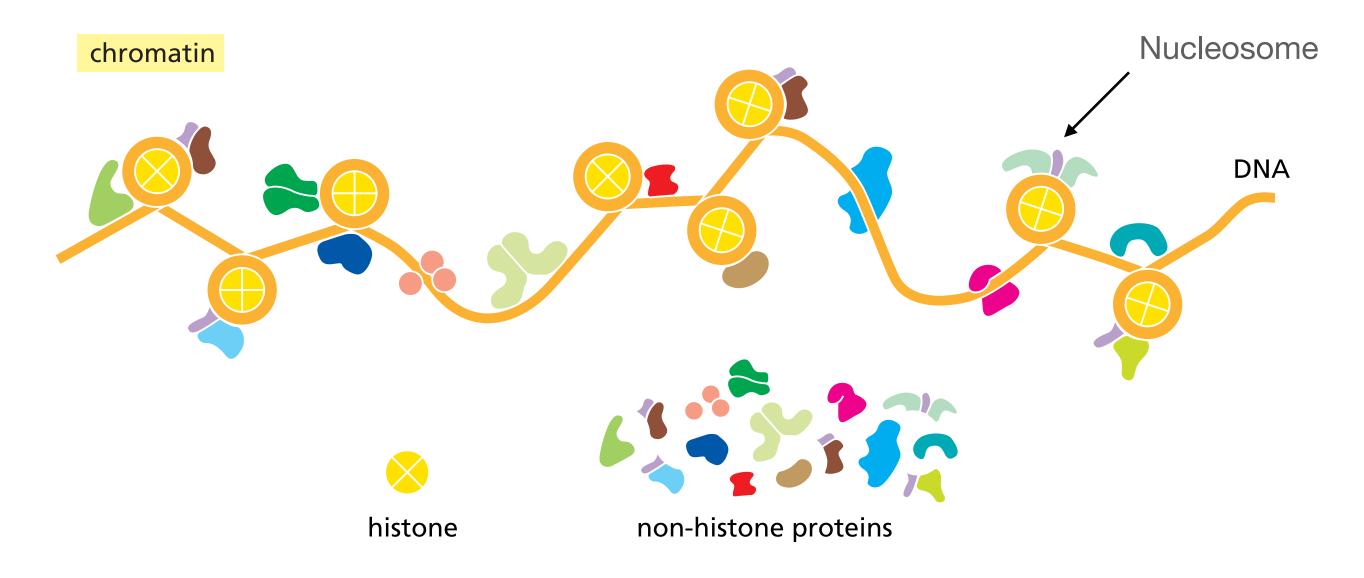
# Chromosomes and cell cycle

- A functional chromosome must be able to replicate, be separated and reliably partitioned into
  daughter cells at each division = cell cycle
- During the Interphase, genes are expressed and chromosomes replicated; the two sister chromatids stay together
- At mitosis, chromosomes are condensed (= mitotic chromosomes)



### Chromatin organization

- DNA molecules are highly condensed in chromosomes
- Proteins that coil and fold the DNA into higher levels of organization
- Chromosome structure is dynamic they decondense for replication, gene expression or DNA repair
- Proteins that bind to DNA to form eukaryotic chromosomes are the histones and the non-histone chromosomal proteins
- Histones+ non-histone chromosomal proteins+DNA = chromatin



#### Nucleosomes

- Histories are responsible for the first level of chromosome packing, the nucleosome
- "Beads on a string" structure

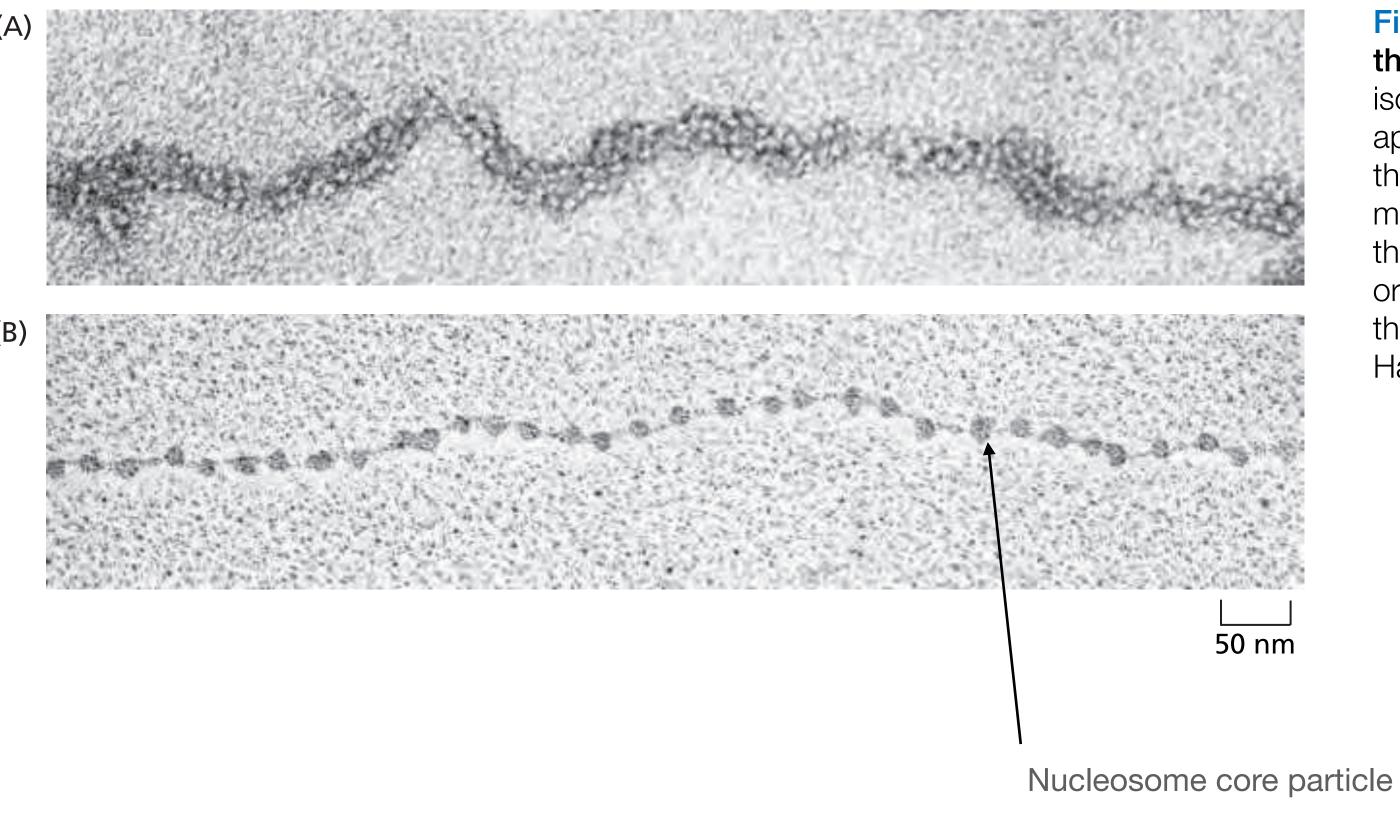
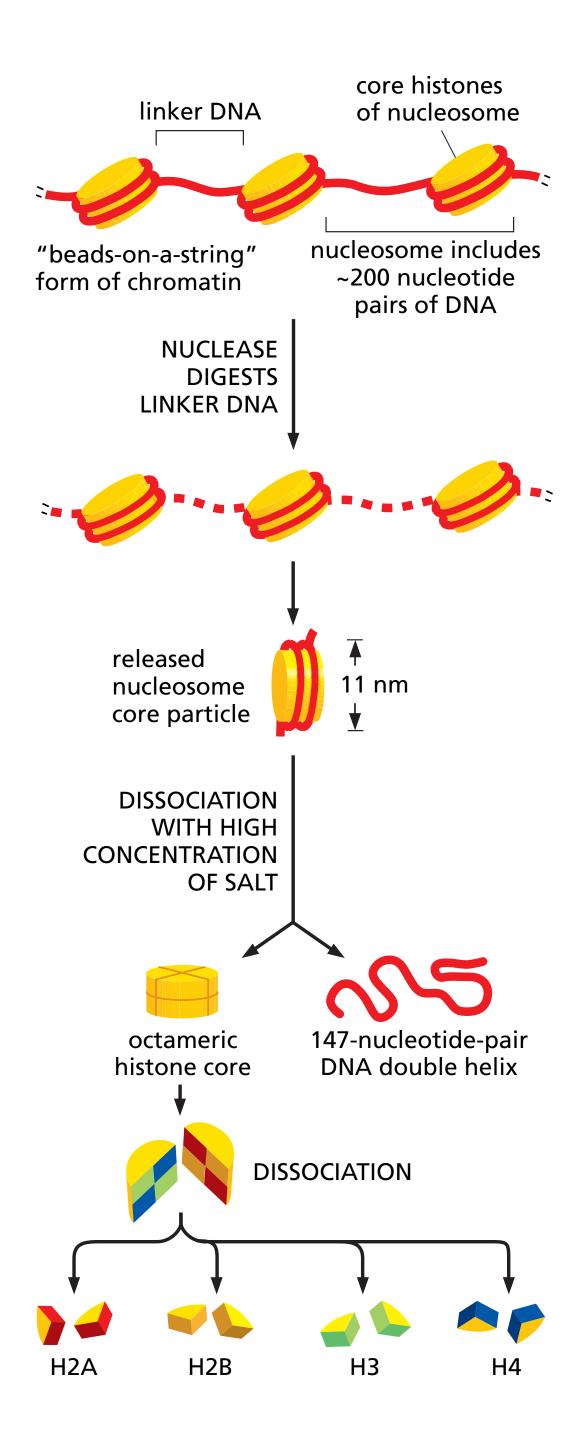


Figure 4–21 Nucleosomes as seen in the electron microscope. (A) Chromatin isolated directly from an interphase nucleus appears in the electron microscope as a thread about 30 nm thick. (B) This electron micrograph shows a length of chromatin that has been experimentally unpacked, or decondensed, after isolation to show the nucleosomes. (A, courtesy of Barbara Hamkalo; B, courtesy of Victoria Foe.)

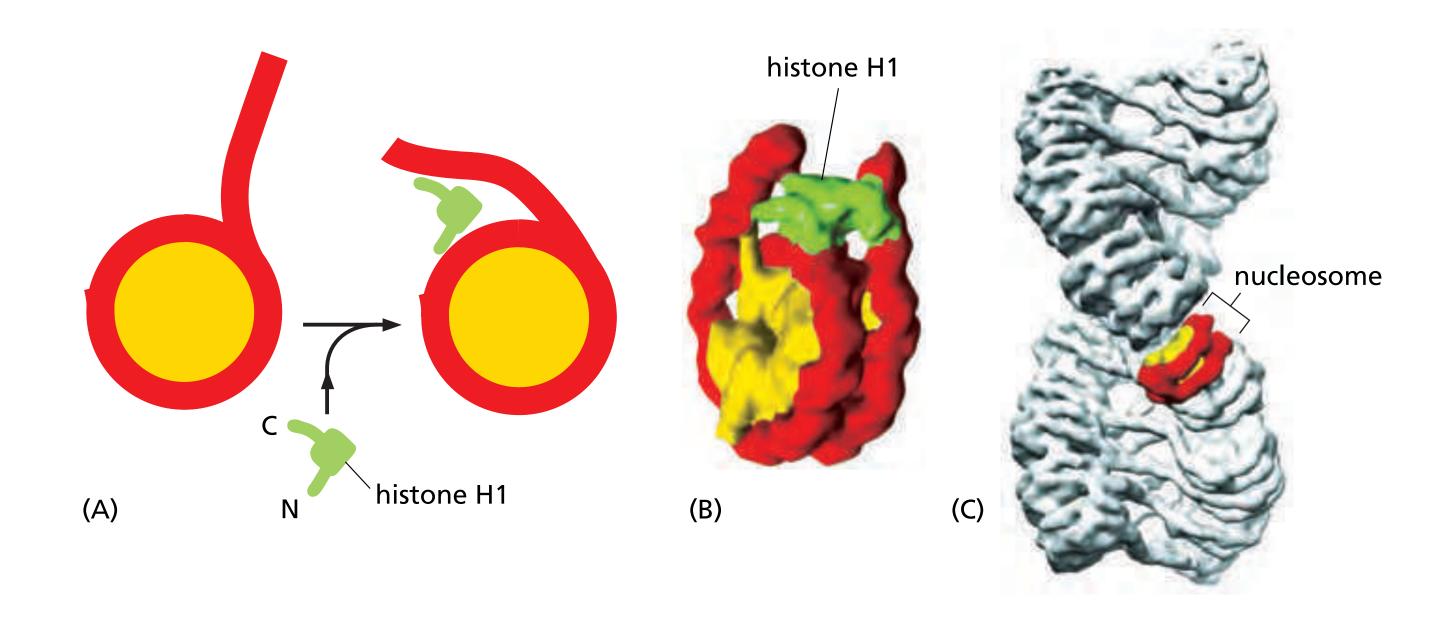
#### Nucleosome structure

- Each individual nucleosome core particle consists of a complex of 8 histone proteins and double-stranded DNA
- 4 different histones in duplicate = **octamer**
- Each histone octamer forms a protein core around which the DNA is wound
- Nucleosomes repeat at intervals of ~200 nucleotide pairs
- Linker DNA is the DNA located between two nucleosomes
- Compacts DNA ~3x



#### Linker DNA and histone-1

- Nucleosomes are packed together into a compact chromatin fiber (diameter 30 nm)
- How this happens is unclear but involves histone tails and an additional histone H1



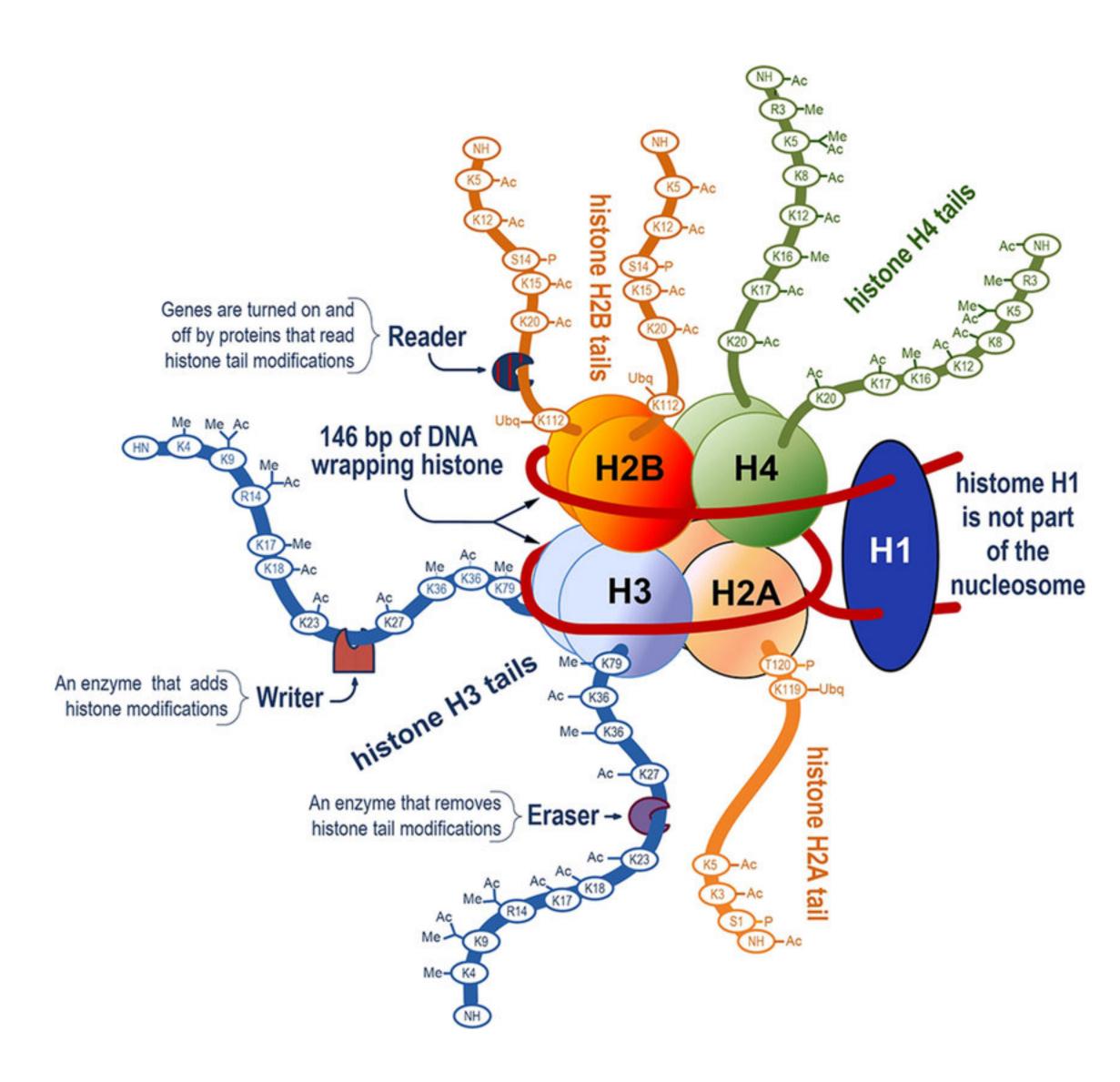
**Figure 4–30 How the linker histone binds to the nucleosome.** The position and structure of histone H1 is shown. The H1 core region constrains an additional 20 nucleotide pairs of DNA where it exits from the nucleosome core and is important for compacting chromatin. (A) Schematic, and (B) structure inferred for a single nucleosome from a structure determined by high-resolution electron microscopy of a reconstituted chromatin fiber (C). (B and C, adapted from F. Song et al., *Science* 344:376–380, 2014.)

### Plan

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#### Histones characteristics

- Positively charged neutralise negative charges from DNA
- Core histories are highly conserved across evolution
- Nucleosomes are dynamic to allow replication and transcription
- N-terminal tails of histones stick out from the nucleosome and are subject to modifications

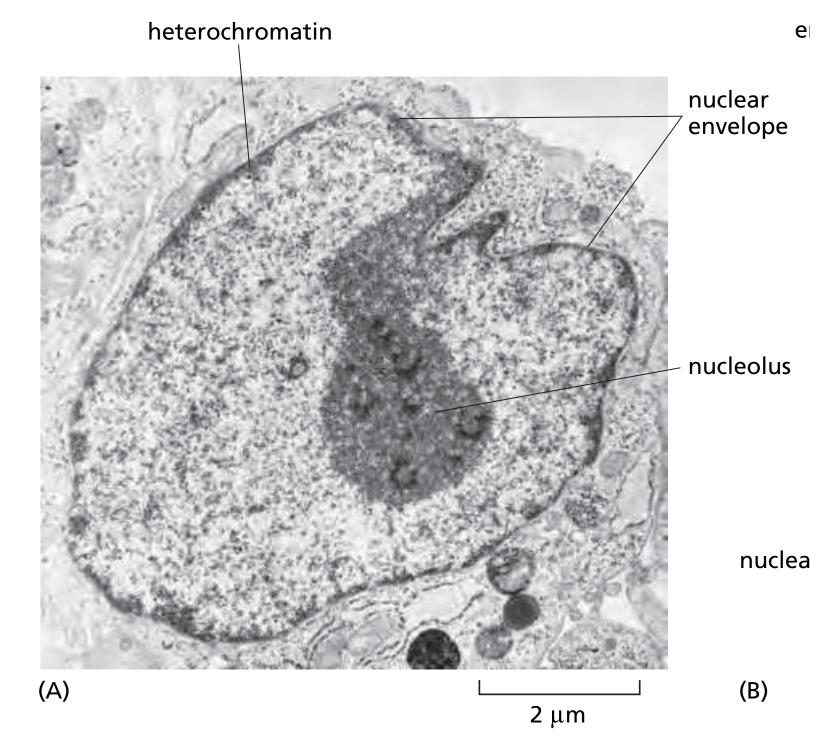


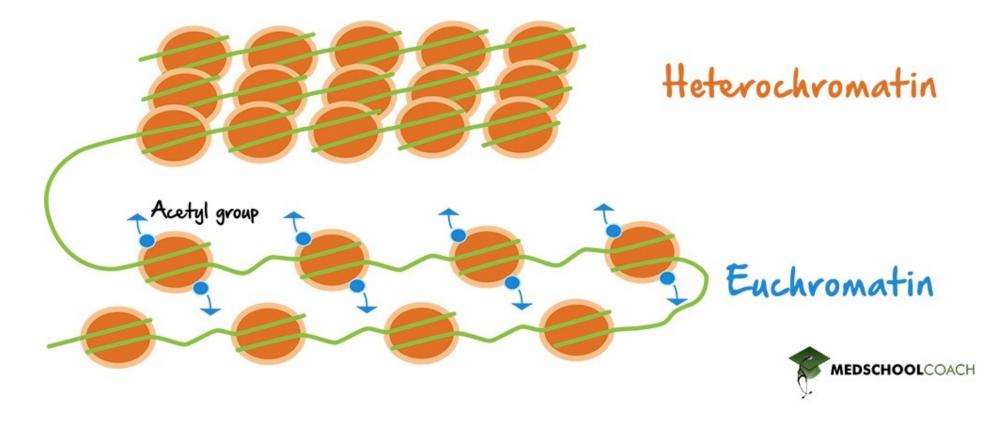
DOI:<u>10.1021/acs.analchem.7b05007</u>

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# Chromatin dynamically changes

- In the 1930s, light microscopy distinguished two types of chromatin: heterochromatin (highly condensed- inactive) and euchromatin (less condensed- active)
- Heterochromatin is highly concentrated in certain regions (centromeres and telomeres), but also present in other regions depending on the physiological state of the cell
- Heterochromatin can be constitutive or facultative
- Heterochromatin contains few genes
- Through chromosome breakage, if a part of euchromatin ends up in heterochromatin, this causes the silencing of normally active genes = position effect

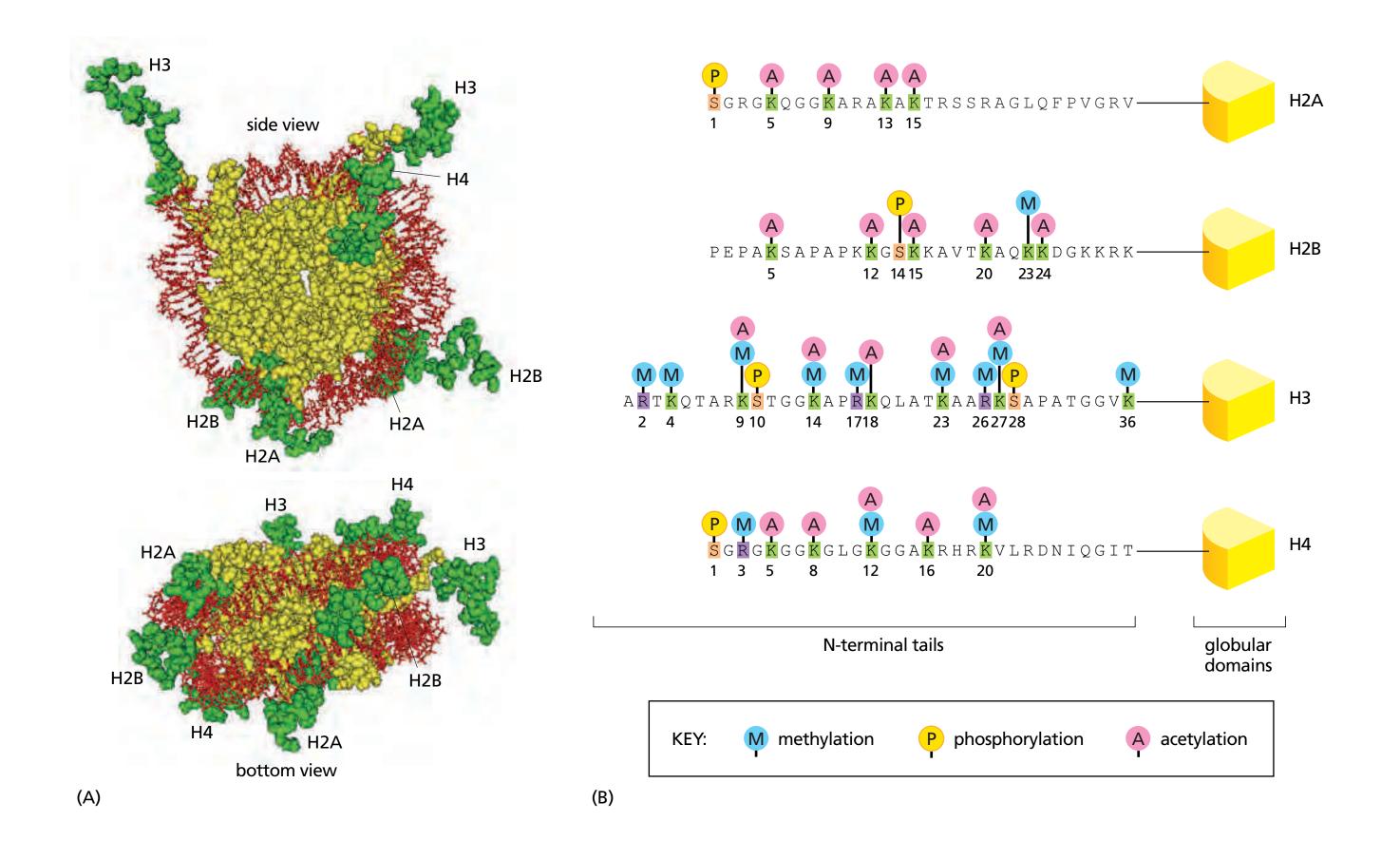




43 =

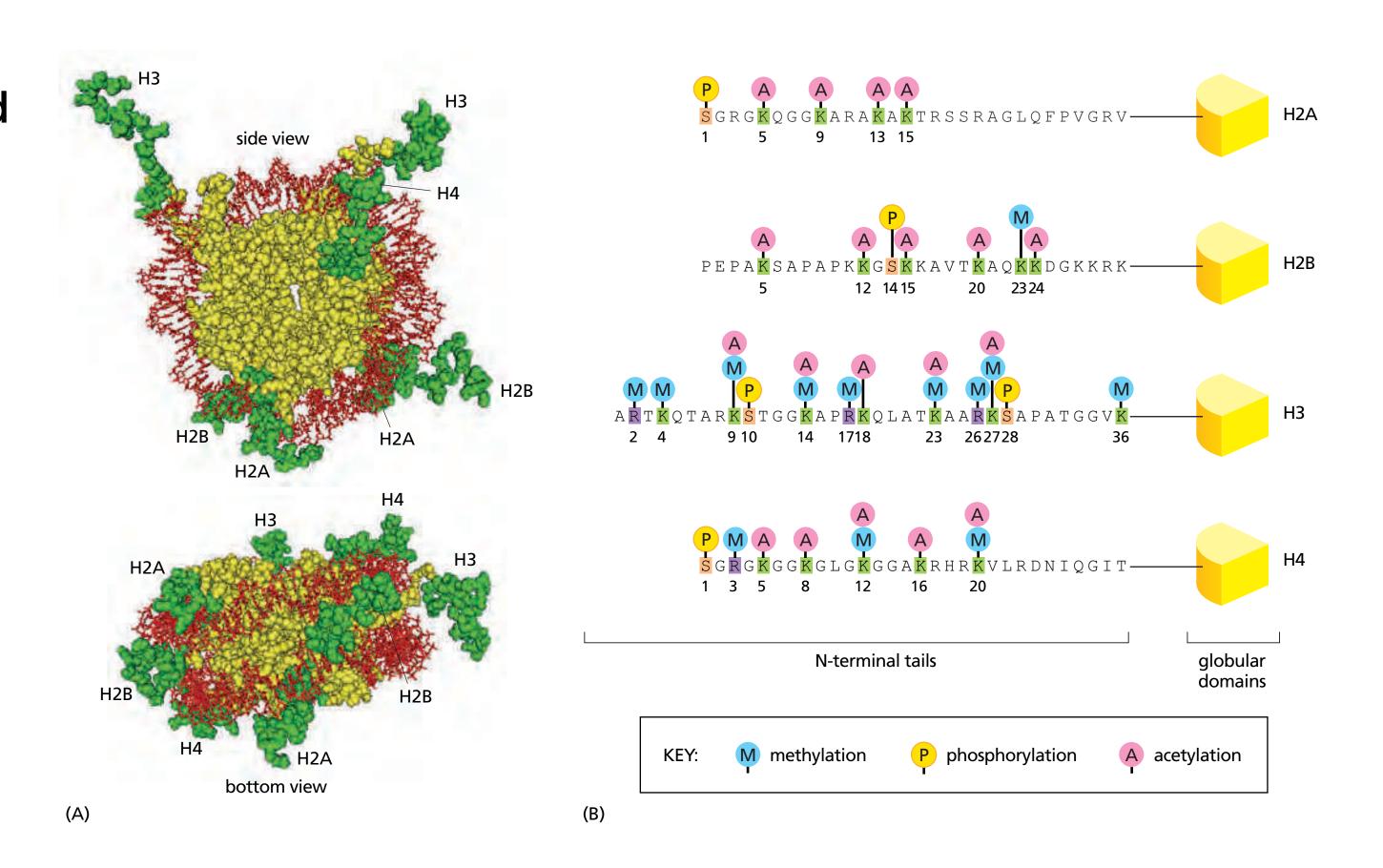
#### Histone modifications

- The amino-acid side-chain of the <u>core</u>
   histones are subjected to many covalent
   mutations (acetylation of lysines, methylation
   of lysines or phosphorylation of serines)
- Primarily on histone tails but also on nucleosome core
- Modifications are reversible with dedicated enzymes to add or remove them (e.g. HATs and HDACs)
- Result in change in chromatin organization
- Are referred to as the "histone code"

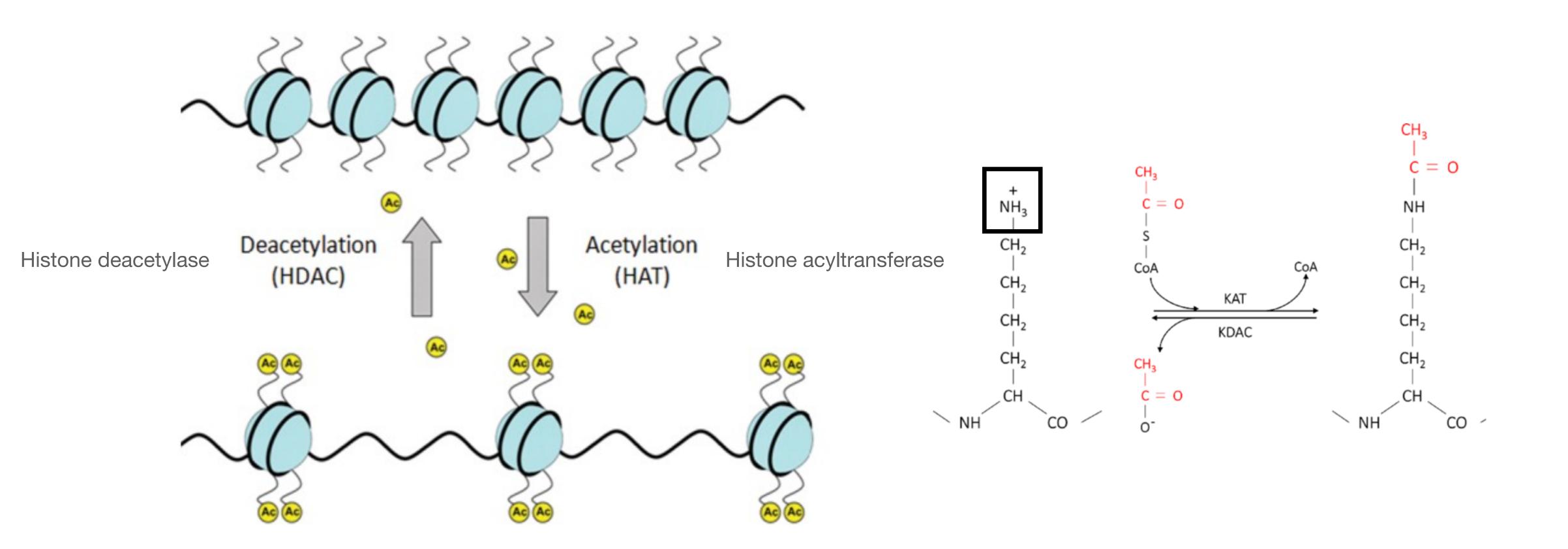


#### Histone modifications

- Modification enzymes bind to DNA sequences, so DNA determines how histones are modified
- Some modifications persist in time



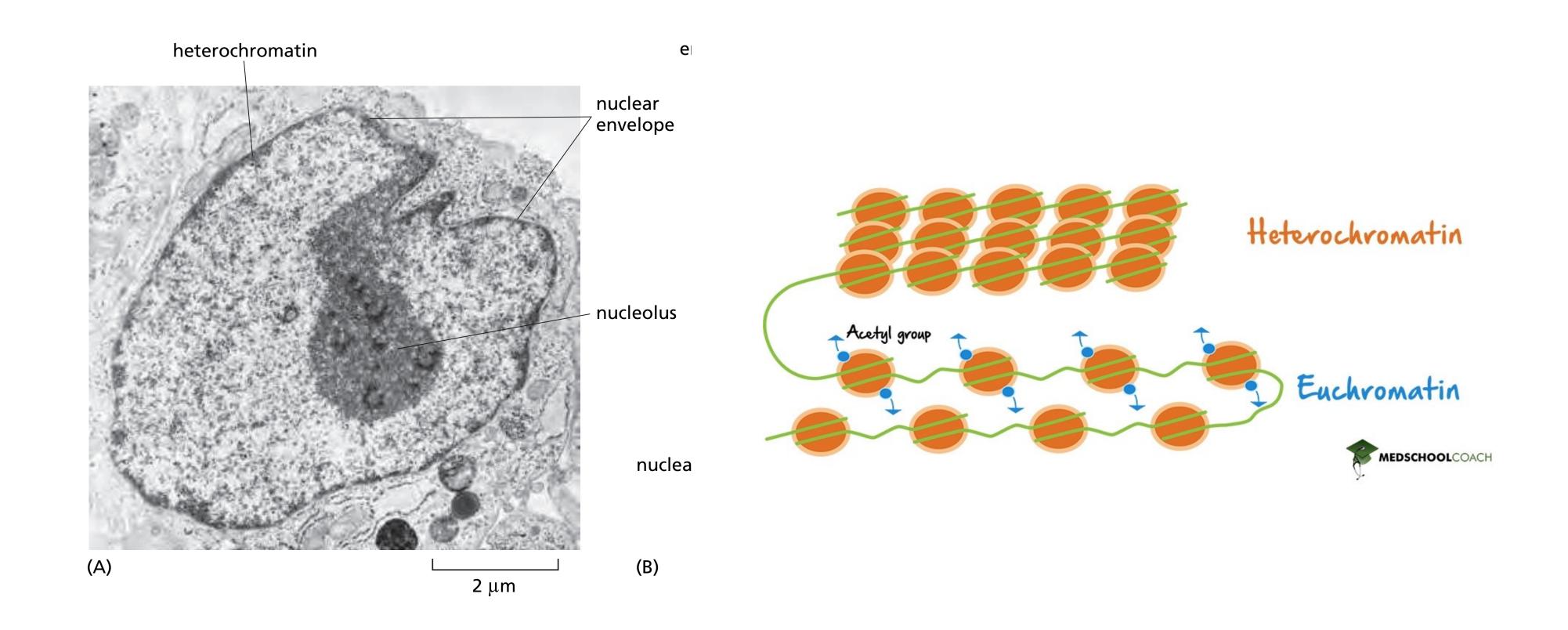
# Example: Histone acetylation



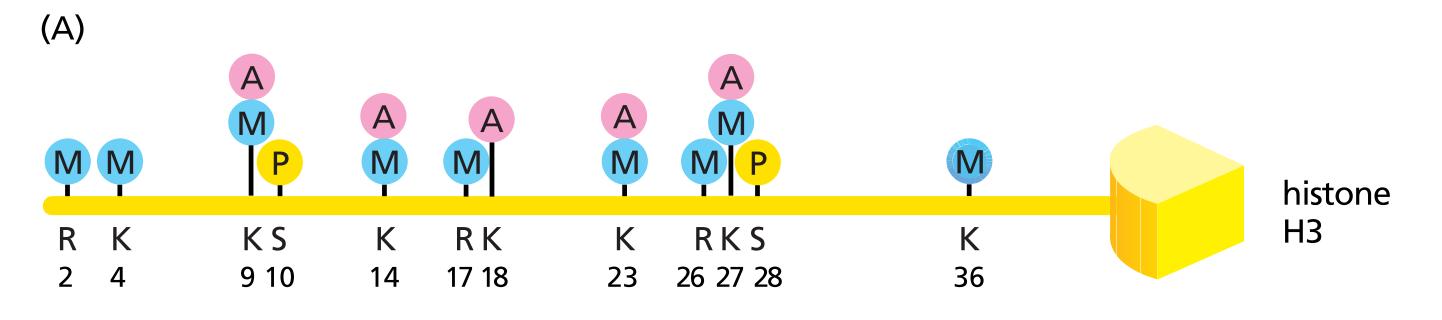
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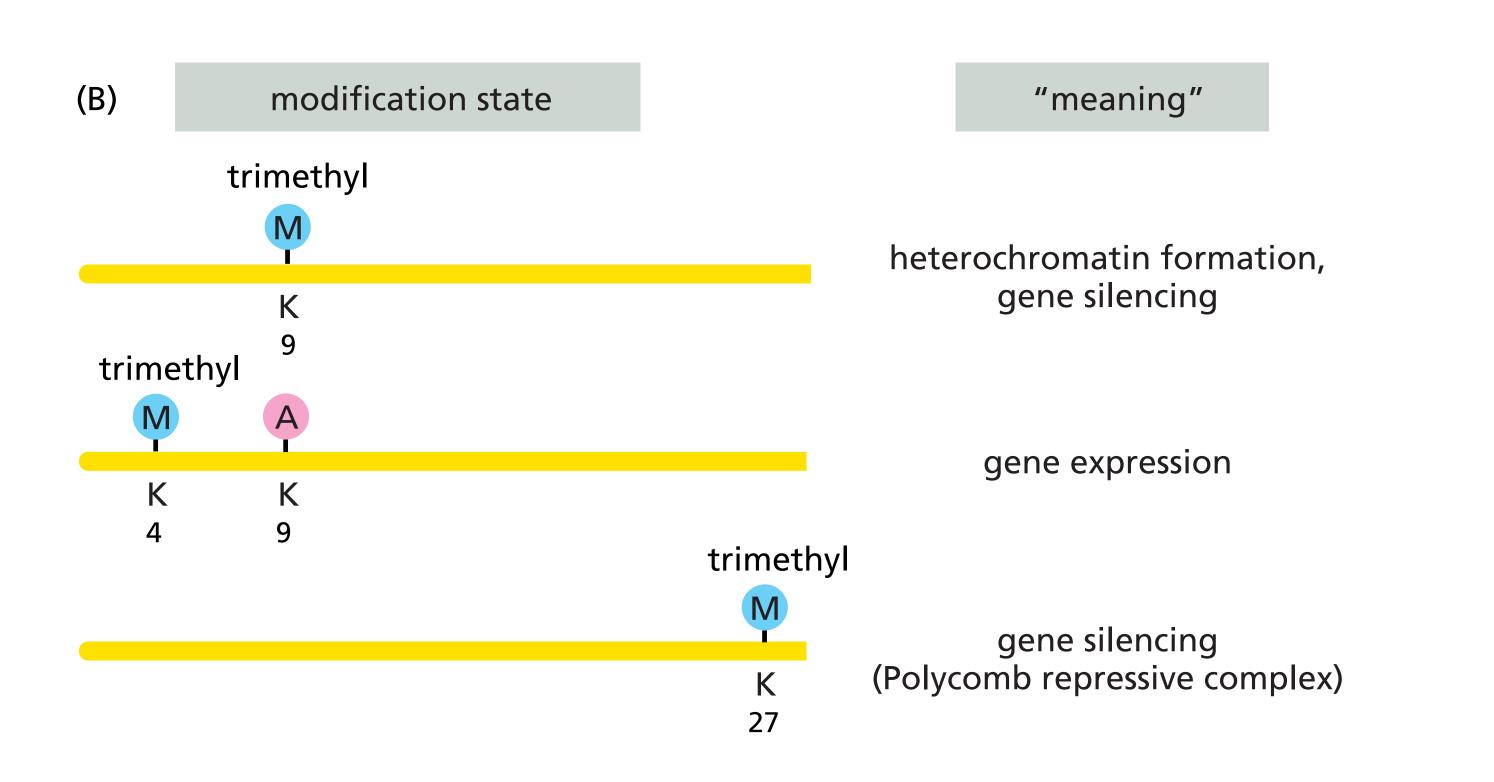
### Histone modifications influence gene expression

Acetylated histories - open chromatin (euchromatin)- transcriptional activity

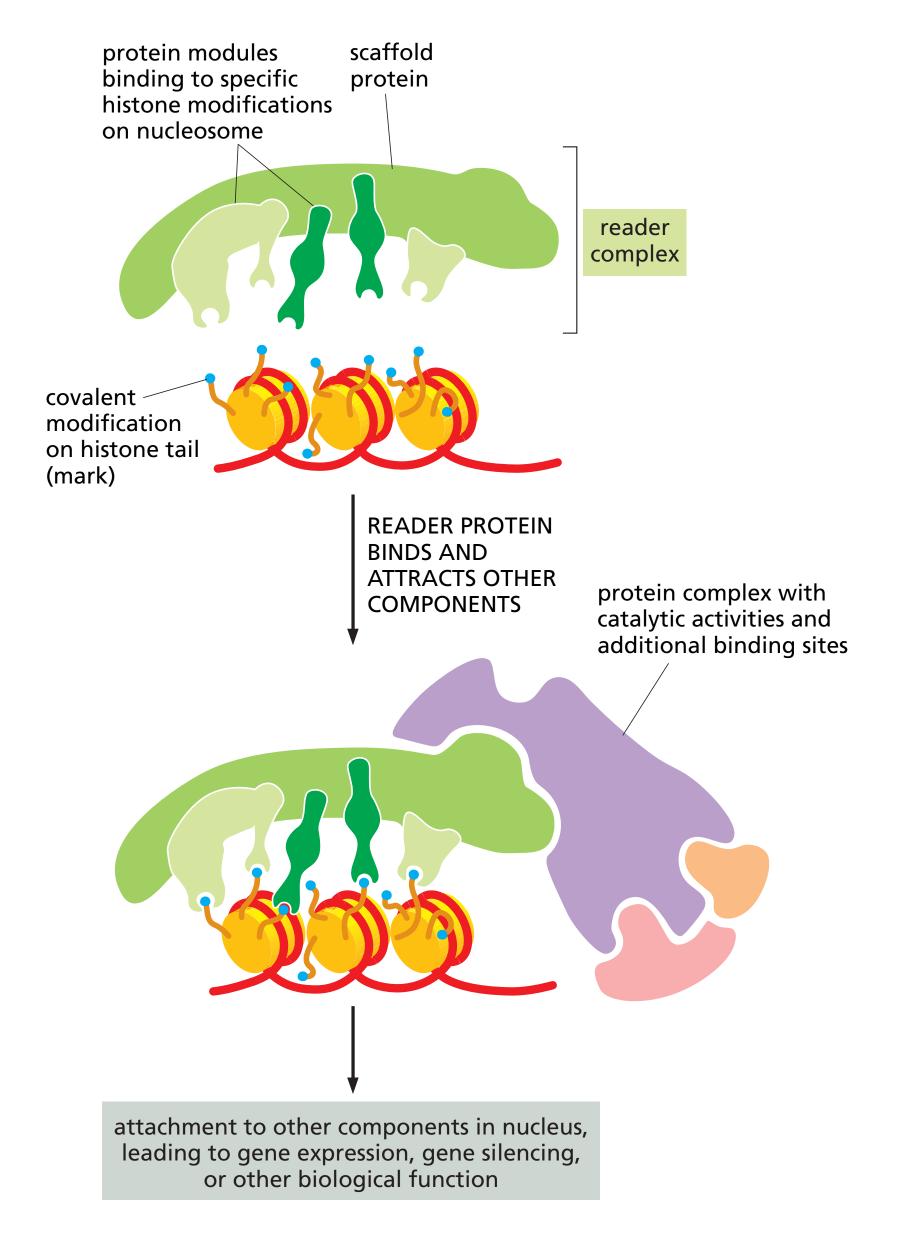


## Example: histone code (H3)

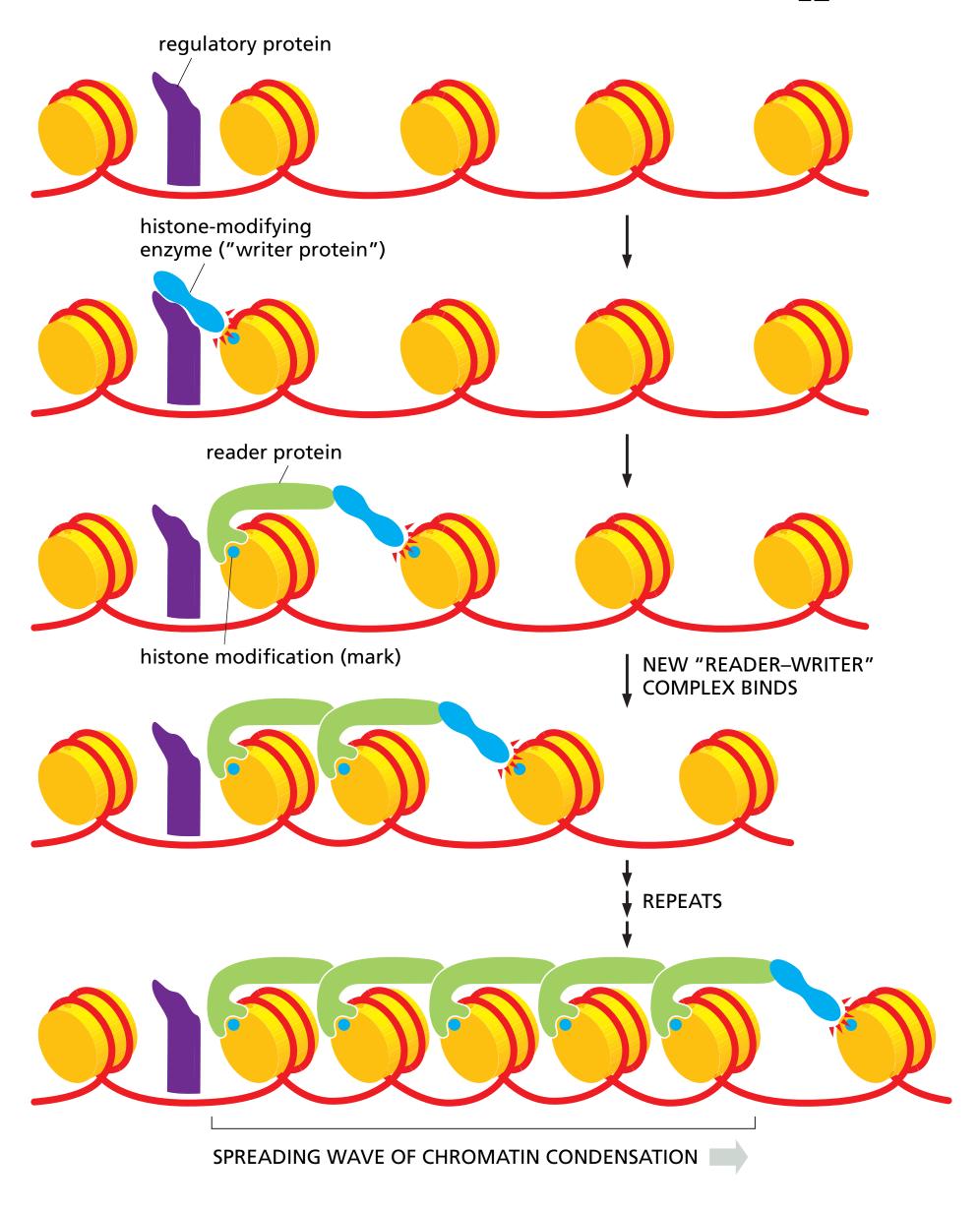




### Reader complexes read the histone code



### The spread of heterochromatin (position effect)



### What blocks the spread of heterochromatin?

- This can be problematic as each chromosome is one long stretch of DNA
- DNA sequences have been identified and mark the boundaries of chromatin domains = barrier sequences. If those are deleted, euchromatin can be invaded by heterochromatin
- Cluster of binding sites for acetylation enzymes
- Acetylation of a lysine side-chain is **not** compatible with methylation of the same side-chain
- Specific lysine methylations are required to spread heterochromatin so histone acetylases are logical candidates for barrier regions

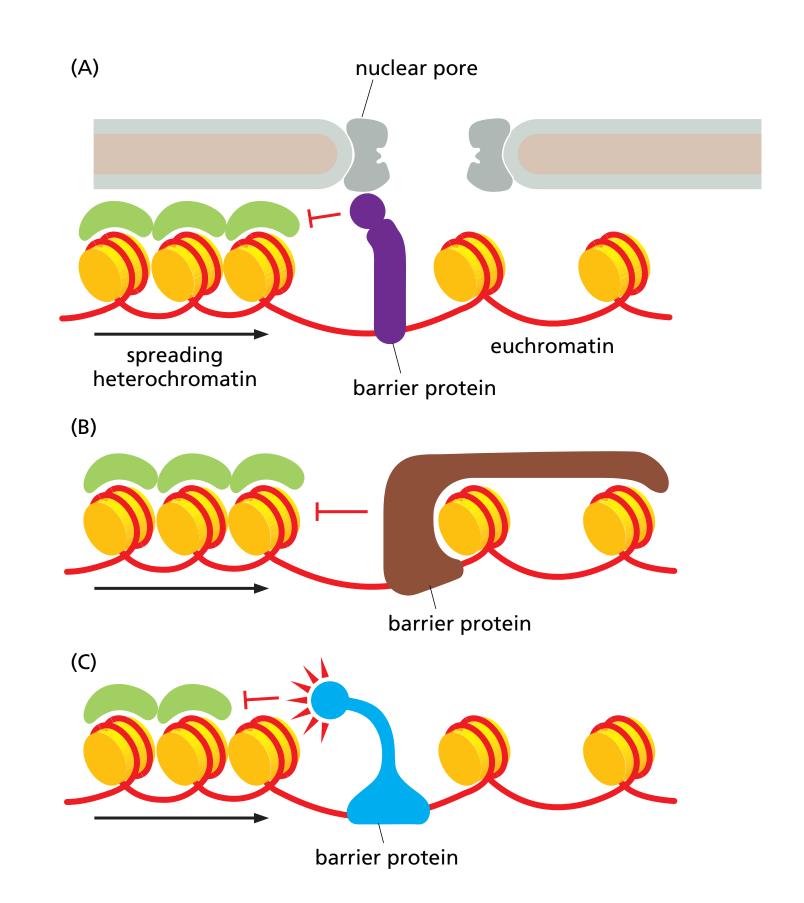
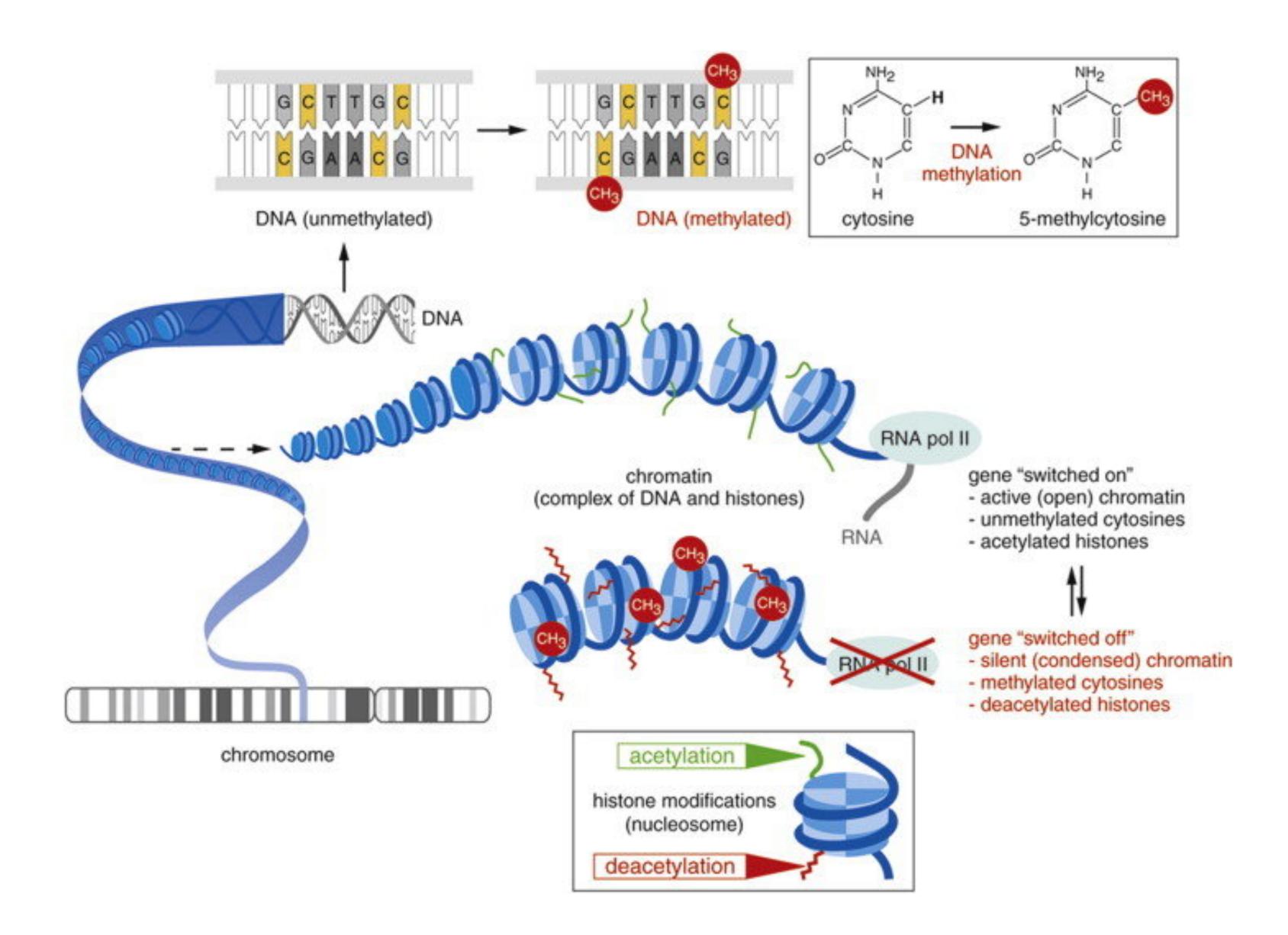


Figure 4–41 Some mechanisms of barrier action. These models are derived from experimental analyses of barrier action, and a combination of several of them may function at any one site. (A) The tethering of a region of chromatin to a large fixed site, such as the nuclear pore complex illustrated here, can form a barrier that stops the spread of heterochromatin. (B) The tight binding of barrier proteins to a group of nucleosomes can make this chromatin resistant to heterochromatin spreading. (C) By recruiting a group of highly active histone-modifying enzymes, barriers can erase the histone marks that are required for heterochromatin to spread For example, a potent acetylation of lysine 9 on histone H3 will compete with lysine 9 methylation, thereby preventing the binding of the HP1 protein needed to form a major form of heterochromatin. (Based on A.G. West and P. Fraser, Hum. Mol. Genet. 14:R101-R111, 2005. With permission from Oxford University Press.)

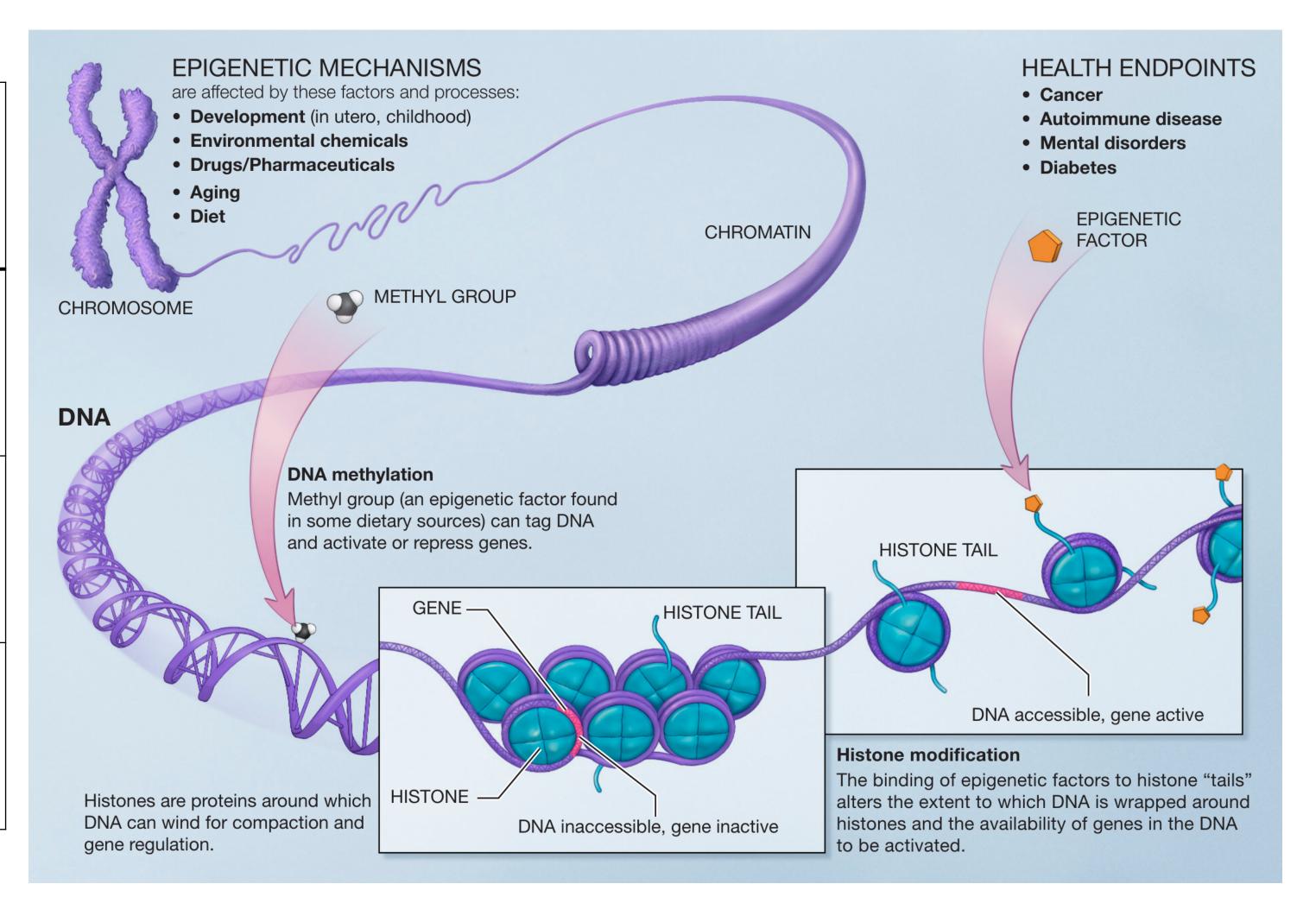
### In addition to histones, is DNA also modified?

- DNA methylation on cytosine
- DNA methylation influences gene expression but not the chromatin organisation (hetero- and euchromatin)



# Genetics vs. Epigenetics

Genetic code	Epigenetic code
Conserved during division	Semi-conserved during division
Strong evolutionary conservation	Rapid evolutionary divergence
Identical in all cell types	Differs between cell types, responsive to environment



# Have a nice day!