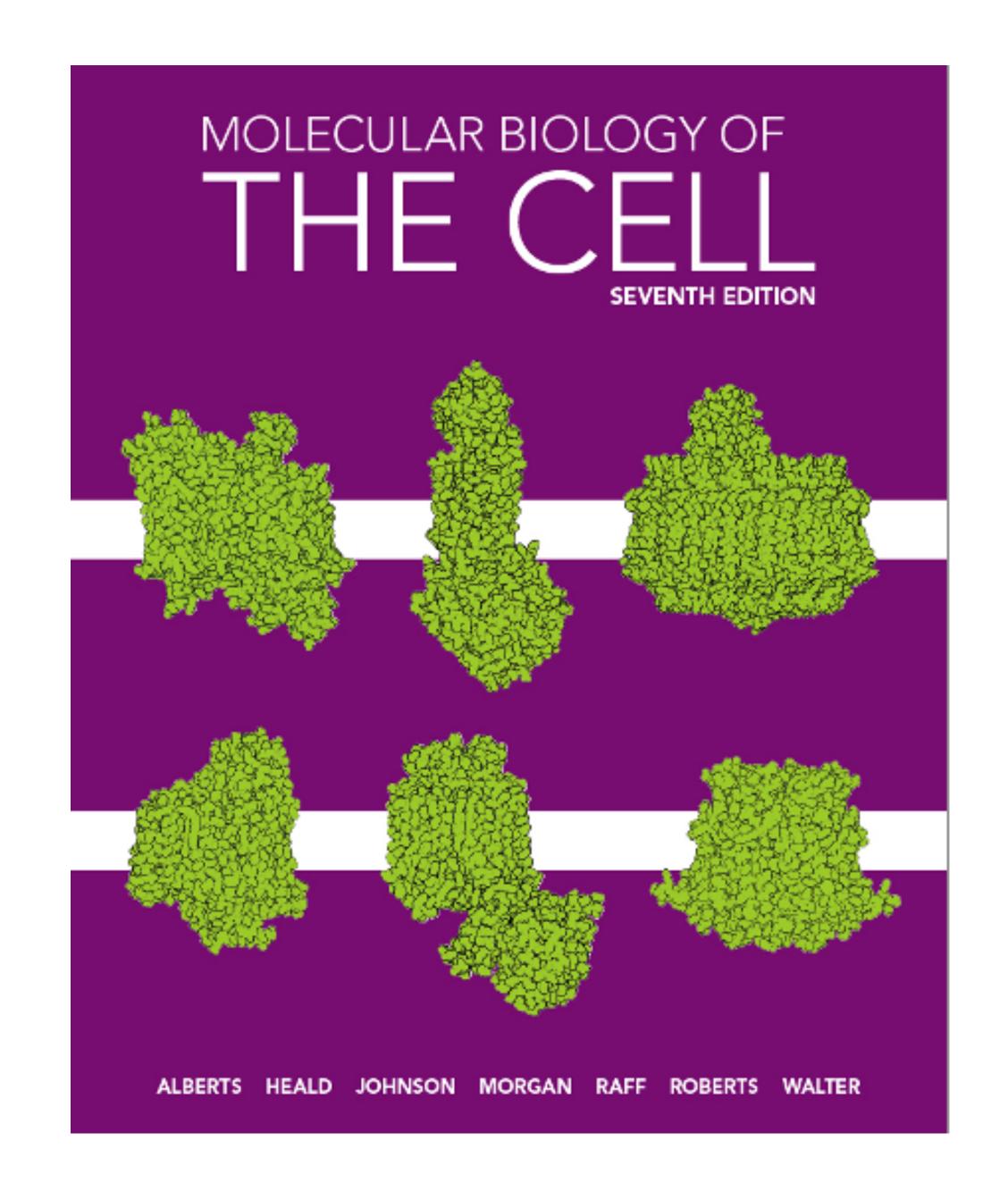
Cellular and Molecular Biology I

BIO-205-6

Camille Goemans - 2024

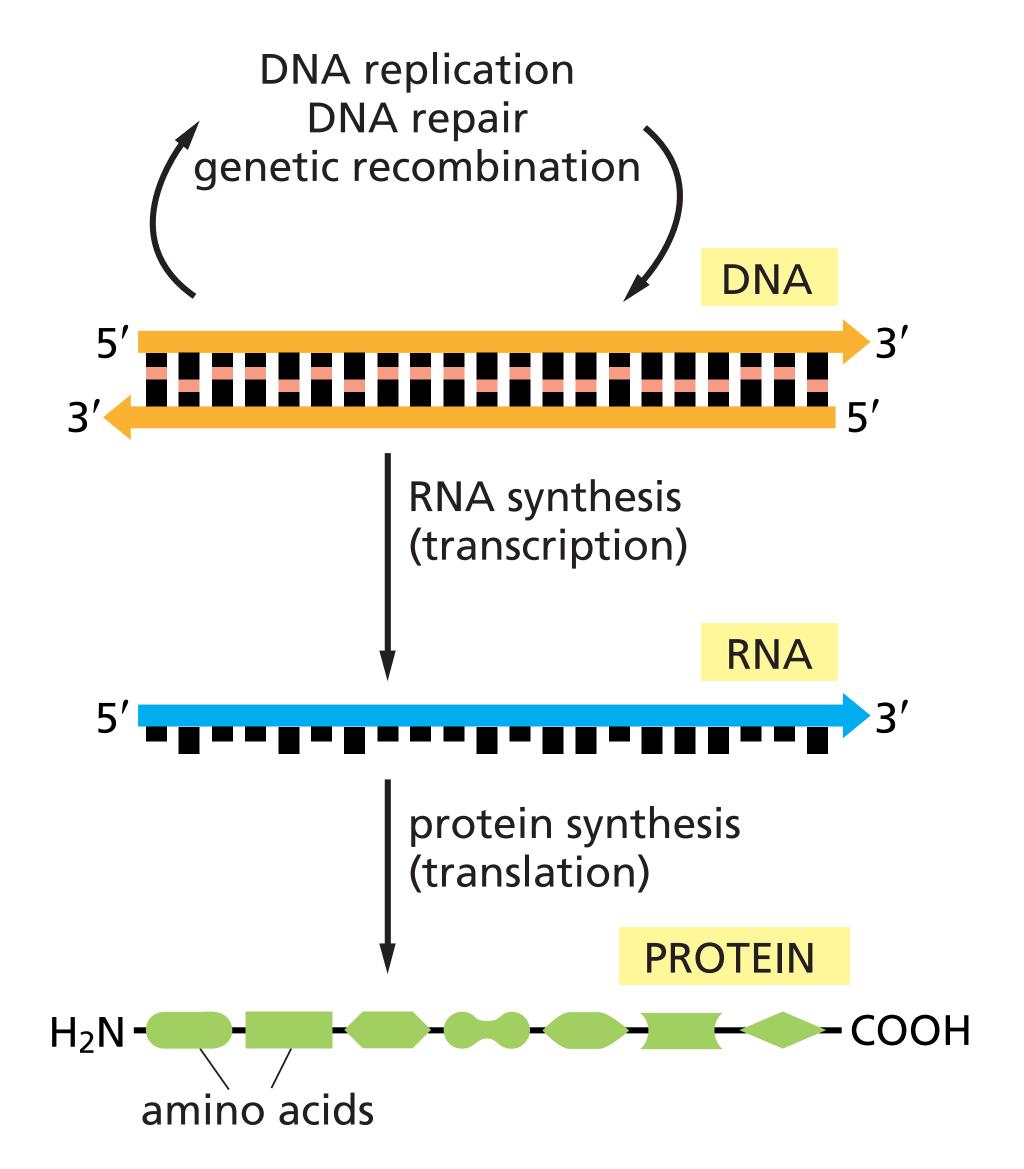


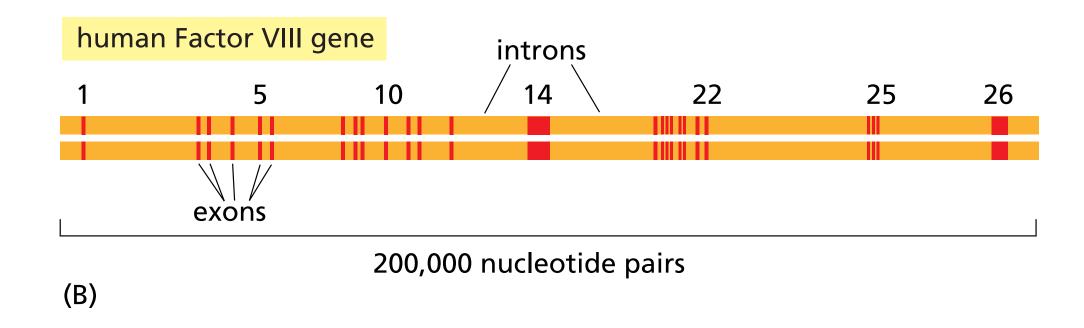
Chapter 6

How Cells Read the Genome: From DNA to Protein

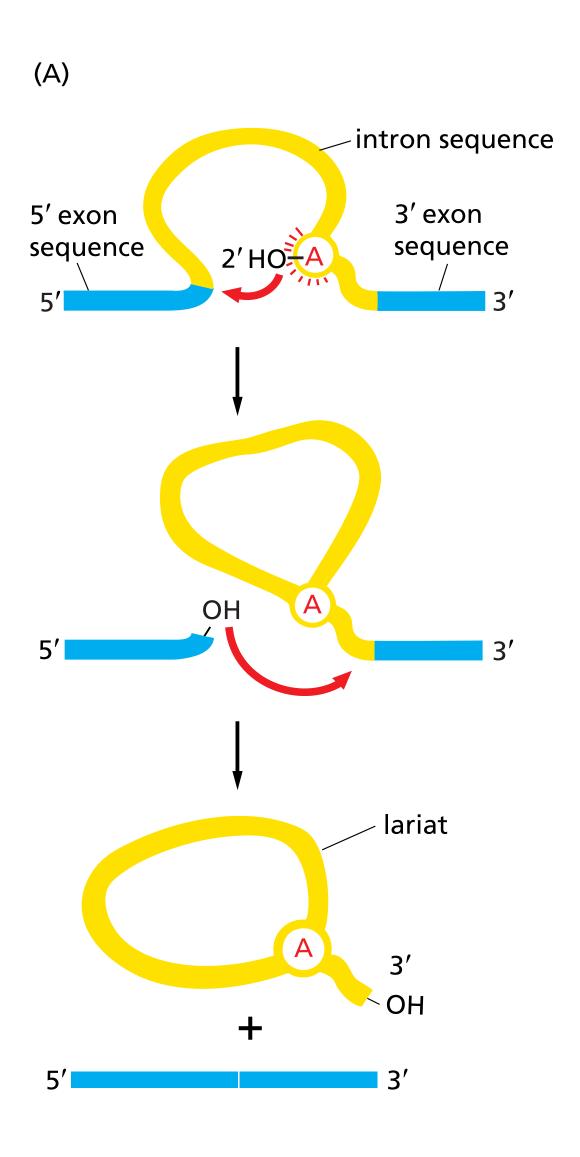
Quick recap

- RNA
- Transcription
- Transcription initiation
- RNA processing
- Non-coding RNAs

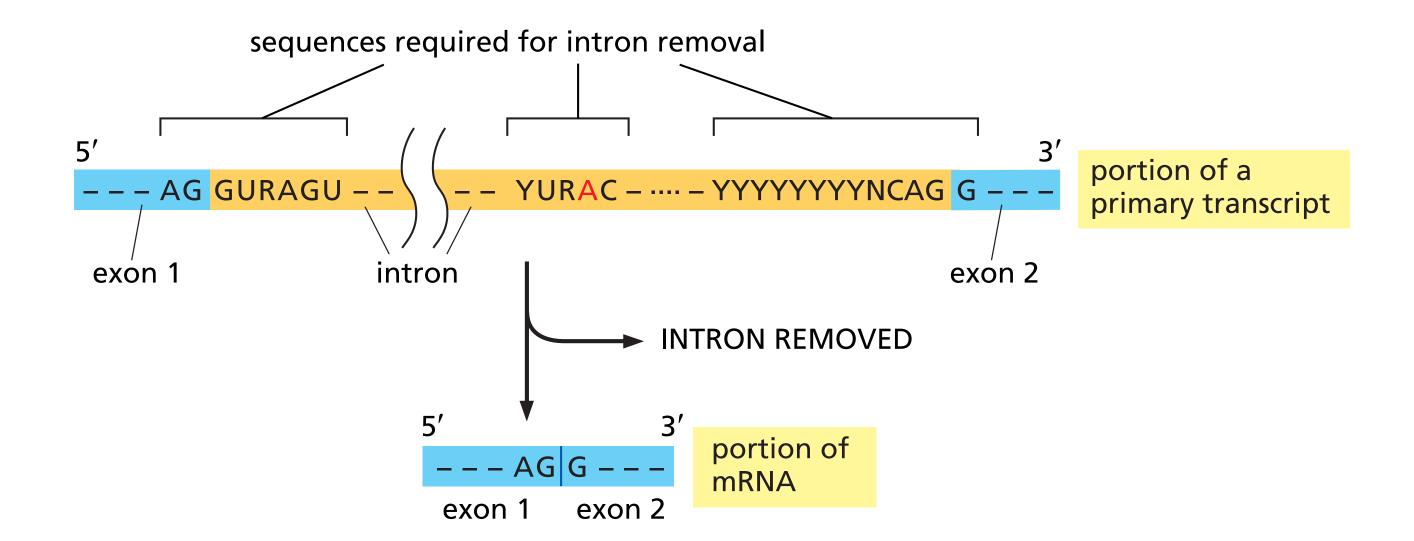




- Protein coding sequence (exons) in eukaryotic genes is interrupted by non-coding sequences (introns)
- Both introns and exons are transcribed into RNA
- The introns are removed through RNA splicing
- Before splicing, the mRNA is called precursormRNA (or pre-mRNA)

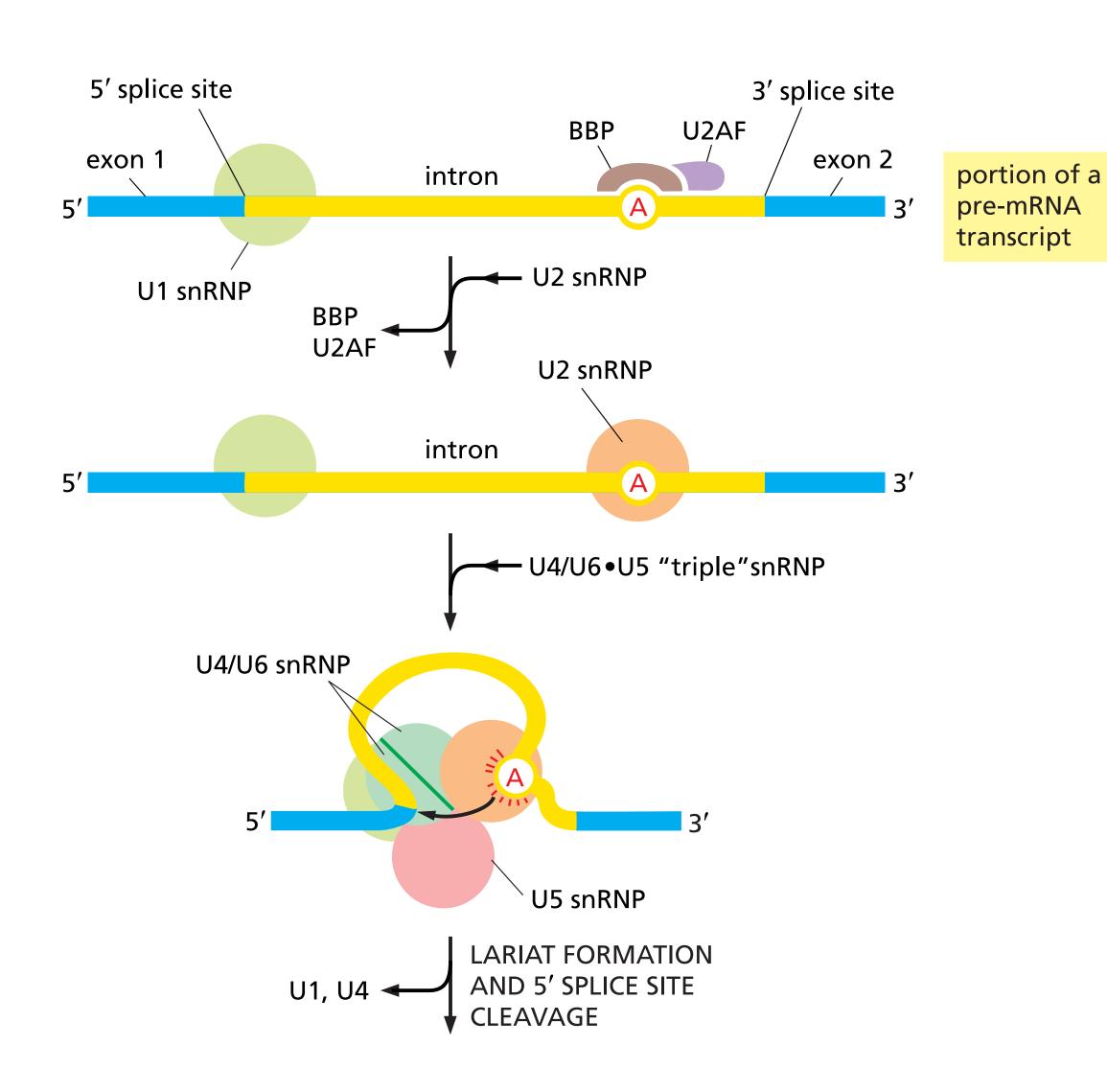


- Each splicing event removes an intron and joins two exons
- The removed part is called a lariat
- The machinery is complex and consists of 5 RNA molecules (small nuclear RNAs) called U1, 2, 4, 5, 6
- Each snRNA is complexed with at least 7 proteins to form the small nuclear ribonucleoprotein or snRNP
- •The complexity ensures the **accuracy** of the splicing and **flexibility** to accommodate all sequences



How does this work?

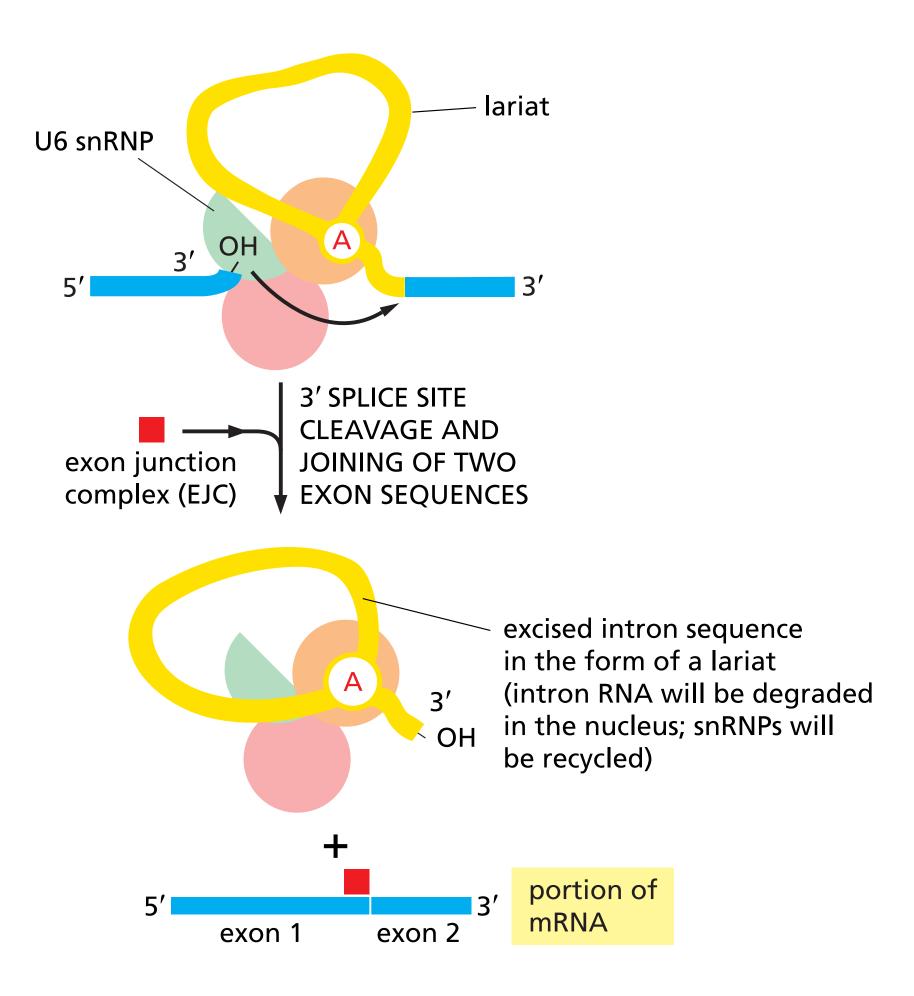
- The splicing machinery needs to **recognize 3** sequences (the 5' splice site, the 3' splice site and the branch point)
- Sequence recognition happens through base-pairing with the snRNAs.
- Sequences are **highly variable** difficult for scientists to predict the exact sequences



The U1 snRNP forms base pairs with the 5' splice junction (see Figure 6–29) and the BBP (branch-point binding protein) and U2AF (U2 auxilliary factor) recognize the branch-point site.

The U2 snRNP displaces BBP and U2AF and forms base pairs with the branch-point site consensus sequence.

The U4/U6•U5 "triple" snRNP enters the reaction. In this triple snRNP, the U4 and U6 snRNAs are held firmly together by base-pair interactions. Subsequent rearrangements break apart the U4/U6 base pairs, allowing U6 to displace U1 at the 5' splice junction (see Figure 6–29). This creates the active site that catalyzes the first phosphoryltransferase reaction.



Additional RNA–RNA rearrangements create the active site for the second phosphoryl-transferase reaction, which then completes the splice (see Figure 6–25A).

Figure 6–28 The pre-mRNA splicing

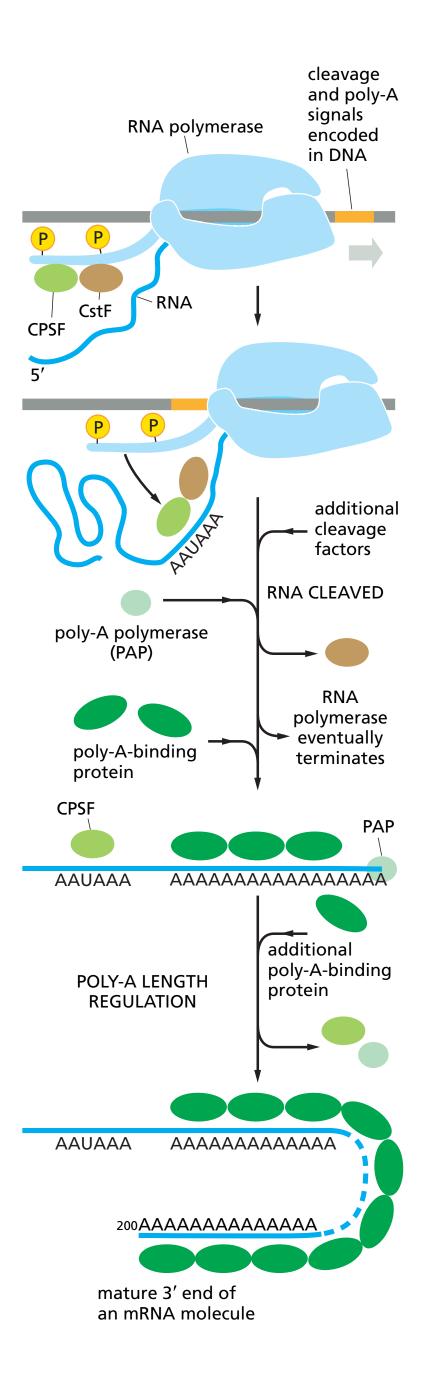
mechanism. RNA splicing is catalyzed by an assembly of snRNPs (shown as colored circles) plus other proteins (most of which are not shown), which together constitute the spliceosome. The spliceosome recognizes the splicing signals on a pre-mRNA molecule, brings the two ends of the intron together, and provides the enzymatic activity for the two reaction steps required (see Figure 6–25A and Movie 6.5). As indicated, a set of proteins called the exon junction complex (EJC) remains on the spliced mRNA molecule; its subsequent role will be discussed shortly.

How does this work?

- ATP is used for the assembly and re-arrangements of the spliceosome
- Accuracy is increased because the splicing is **coupled** to transcription (prevents from skipping splice sites)
- Details are not fully understood

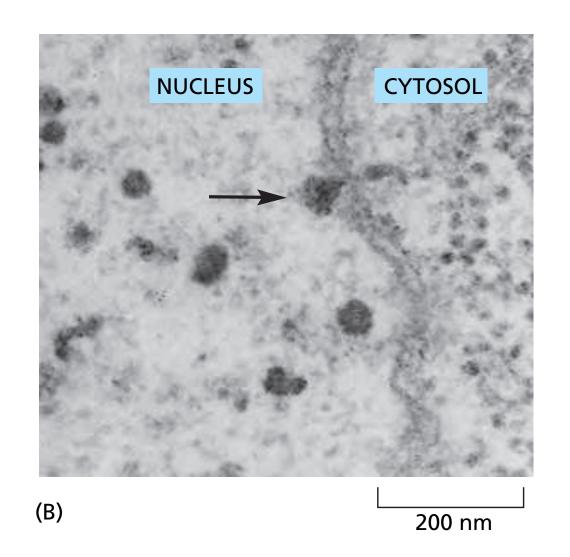
3'end of the eukaryotic mRNAs

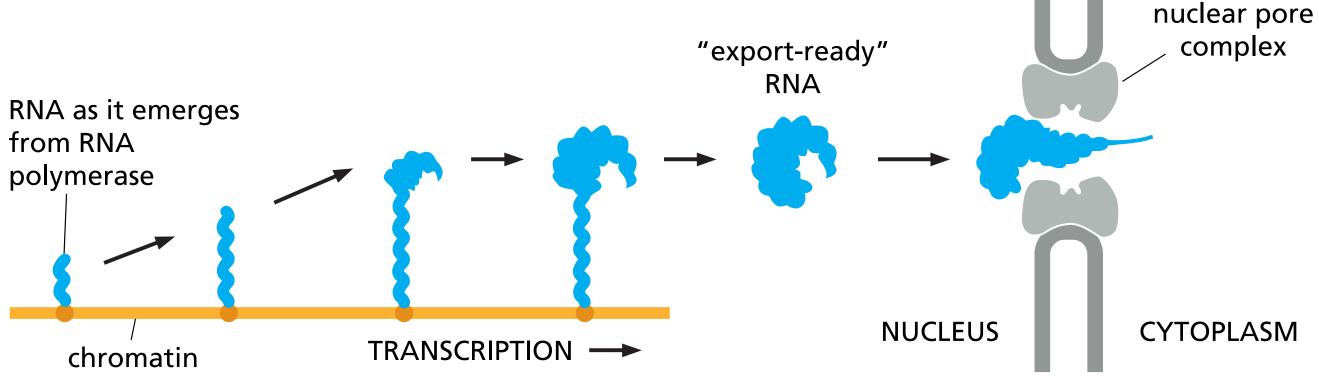
- position of the 3' end is specified by signals encoded in the genome
- these signals are transcribed into RNA and recognised by RNA-binding-proteins and RNA-processing enzymes
- CstF and CPSF bind their recognition sequence on the emerging RNA molecule
- RNA is **cleaved** from the polymerase
- PAP adds ~200 A nucleotides at the end of the sequence, creating the poly-A tail
- poly-A binding proteins bind to it



Mature mRNAs are exported from the nucleus

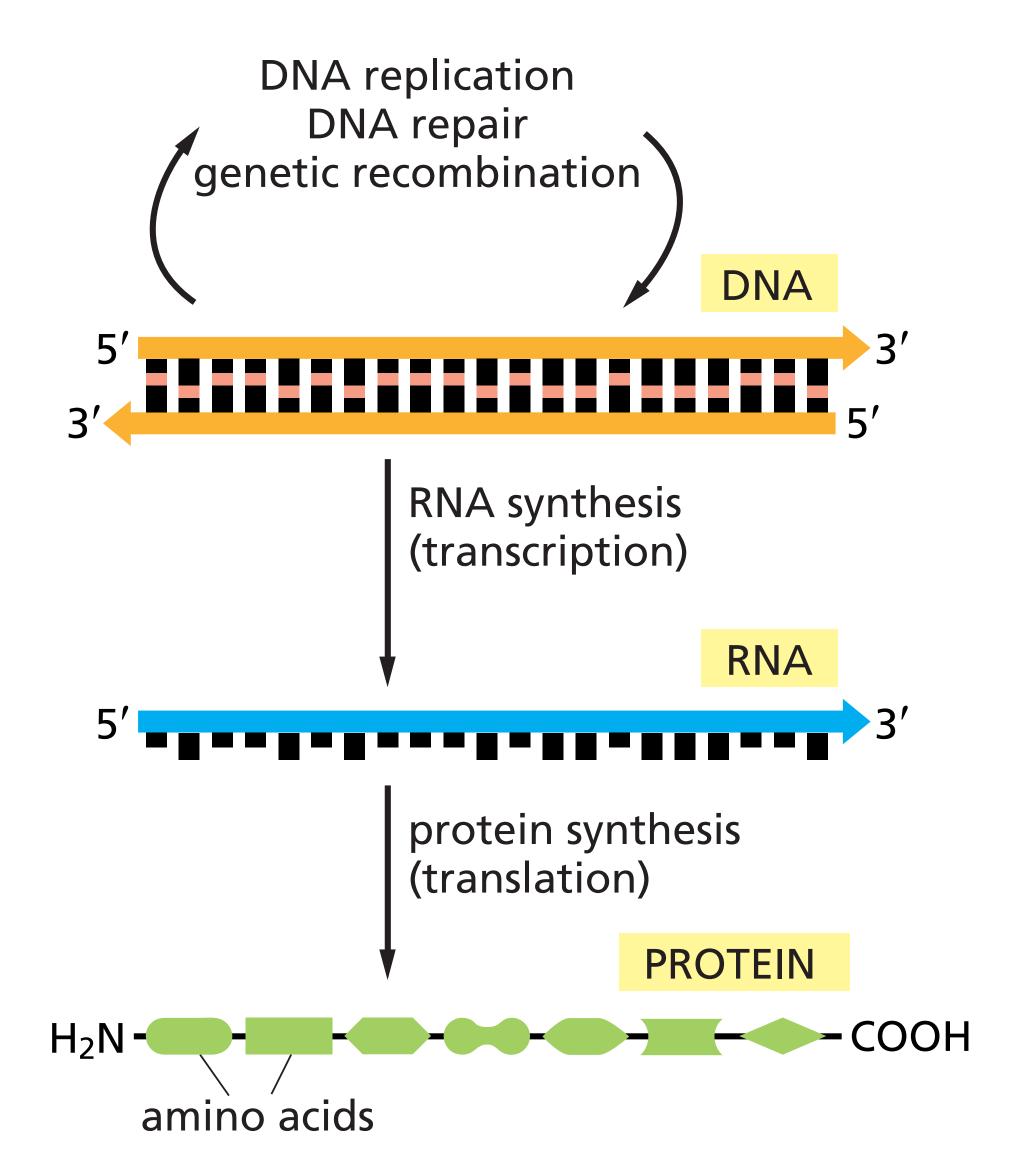
- How to distinguish?
 - √ cap-binding complexes
 - √ exon junction complexes
 - ✓ polyA binding proteins
- Processed mRNAs are guided through nuclear pore complexes (NPCs), where they are exported





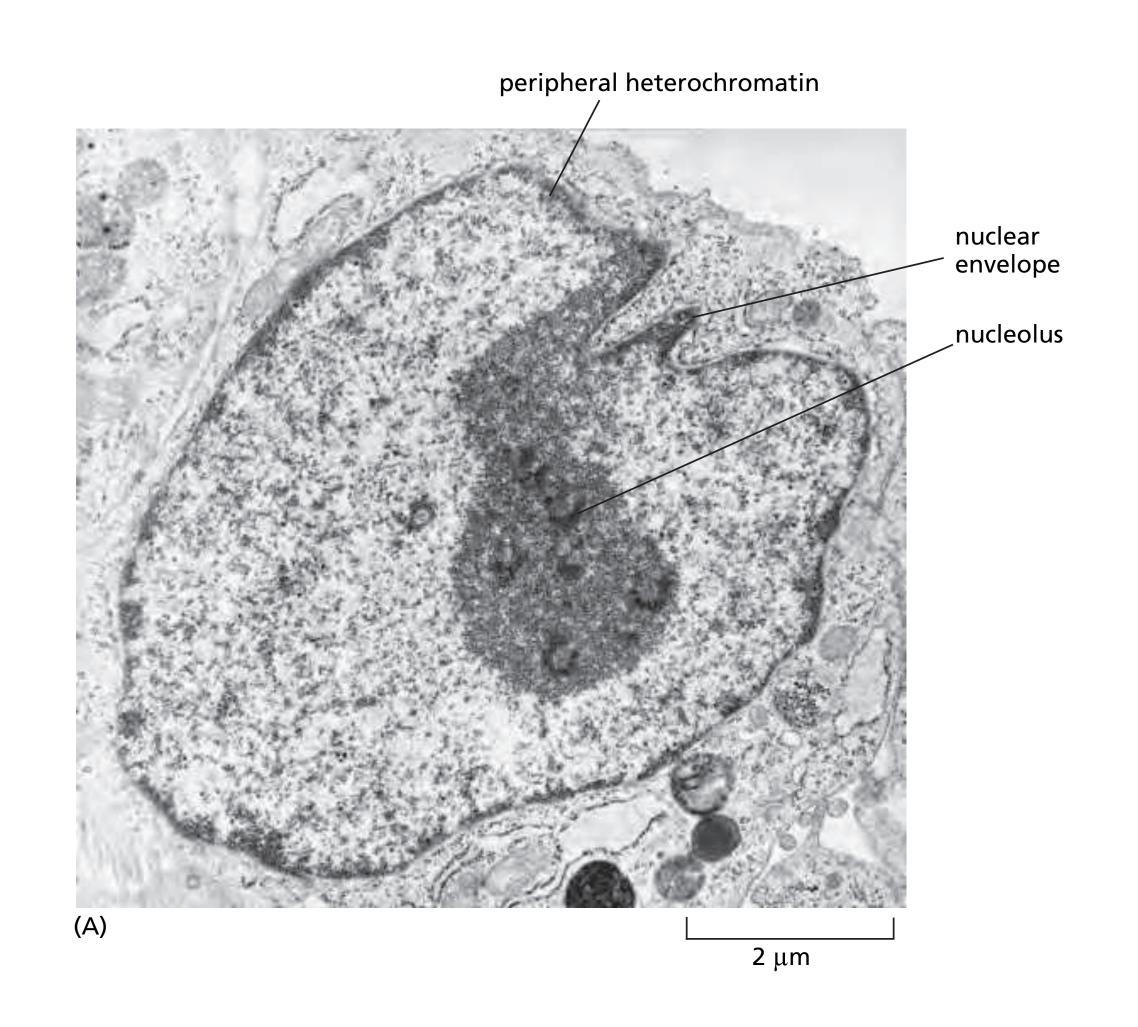
Plan

- RNA
- Transcription
- Transcription initiation
- RNA processing
- Non-coding RNAs

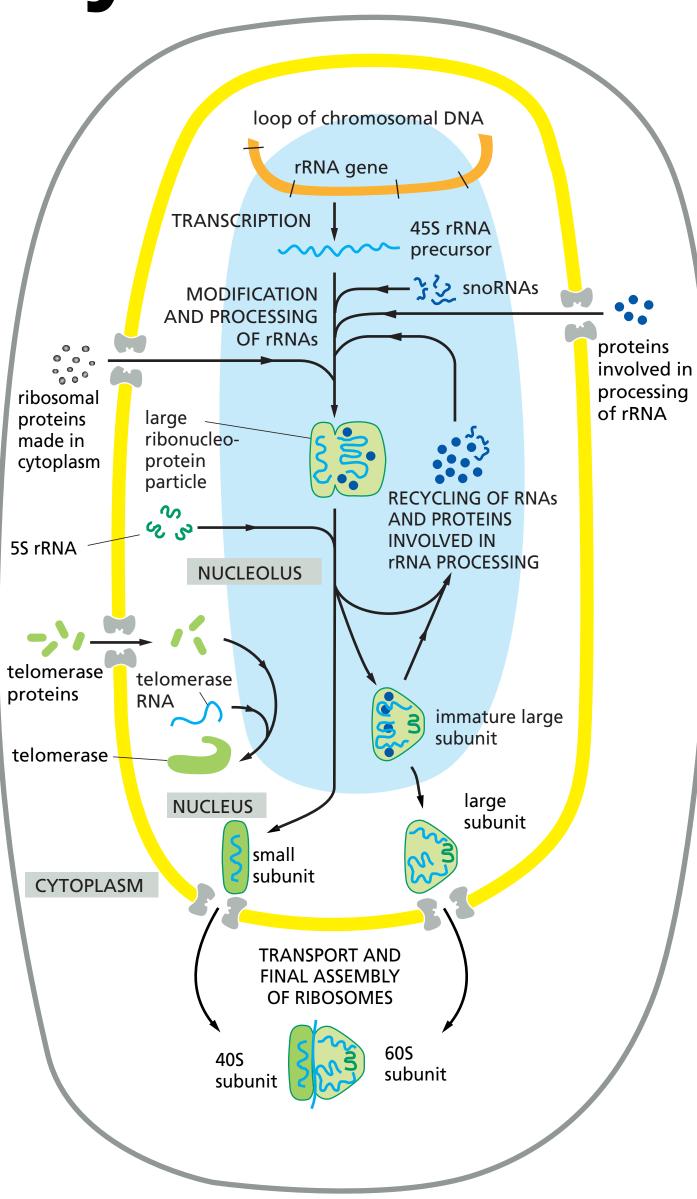


Non-coding RNAs

- 80% of the cellular RNA is **ribosomal RNAs** (rRNAs)
- Produced by RNA polymerase I in eukaryotic cells
- Does not have a **Ct tail** (which explains the lack of cap and poly-A tail of the rRNAs)
- Multiple copies of rRNA genes (~200 in humans) that encode rRNAs to have enough ribosomes (no amplification at the translation level)
- Ribosomes are assembled in the nucleolus



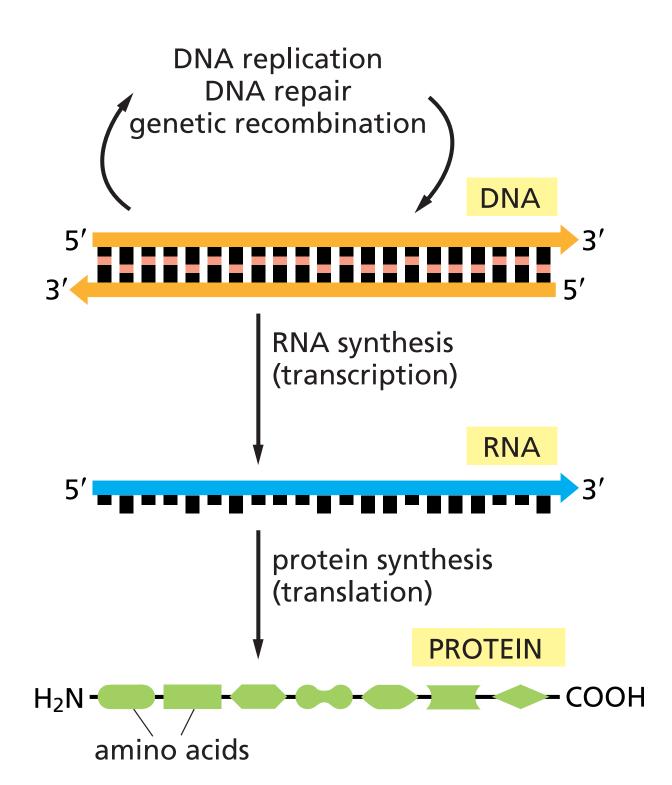
Ribosome assembly



Plan

From RNA to protein

- Translation
- tRNAs
- Polypeptide chain
- Ribosomes



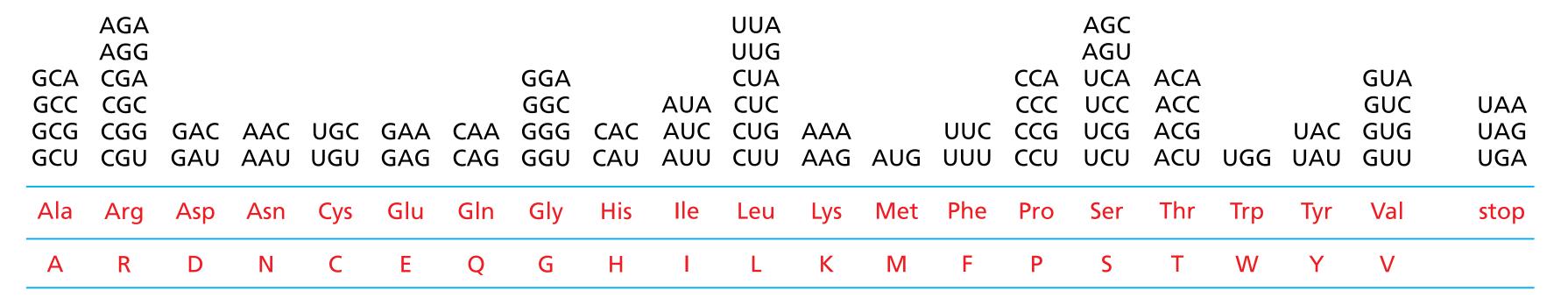
Translation

- = conversion of information from **RNA** into **proteins**
- 4 nucleotides and 20 amino-acids genetic code
- Used in **all organisms** (some small variations)
- A sequence has three reading frames



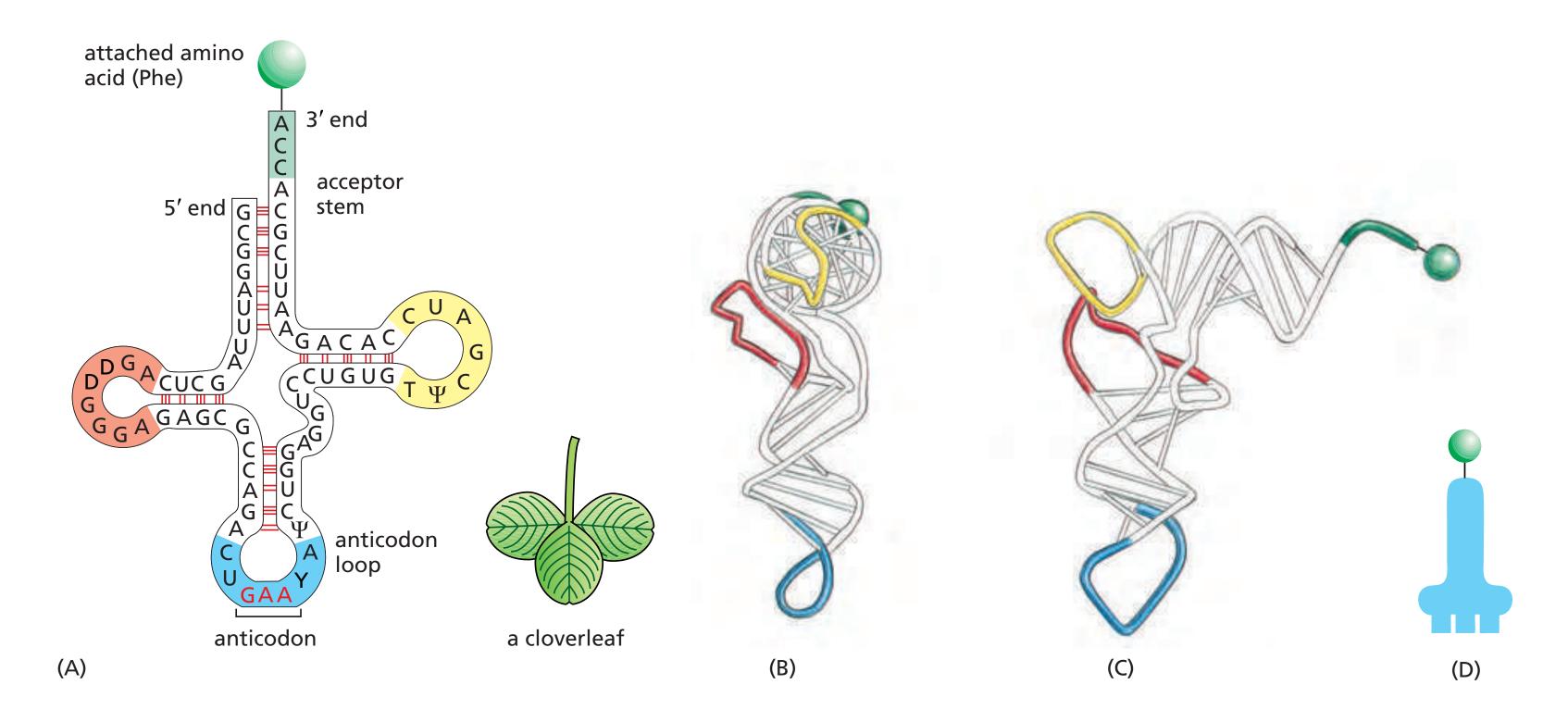




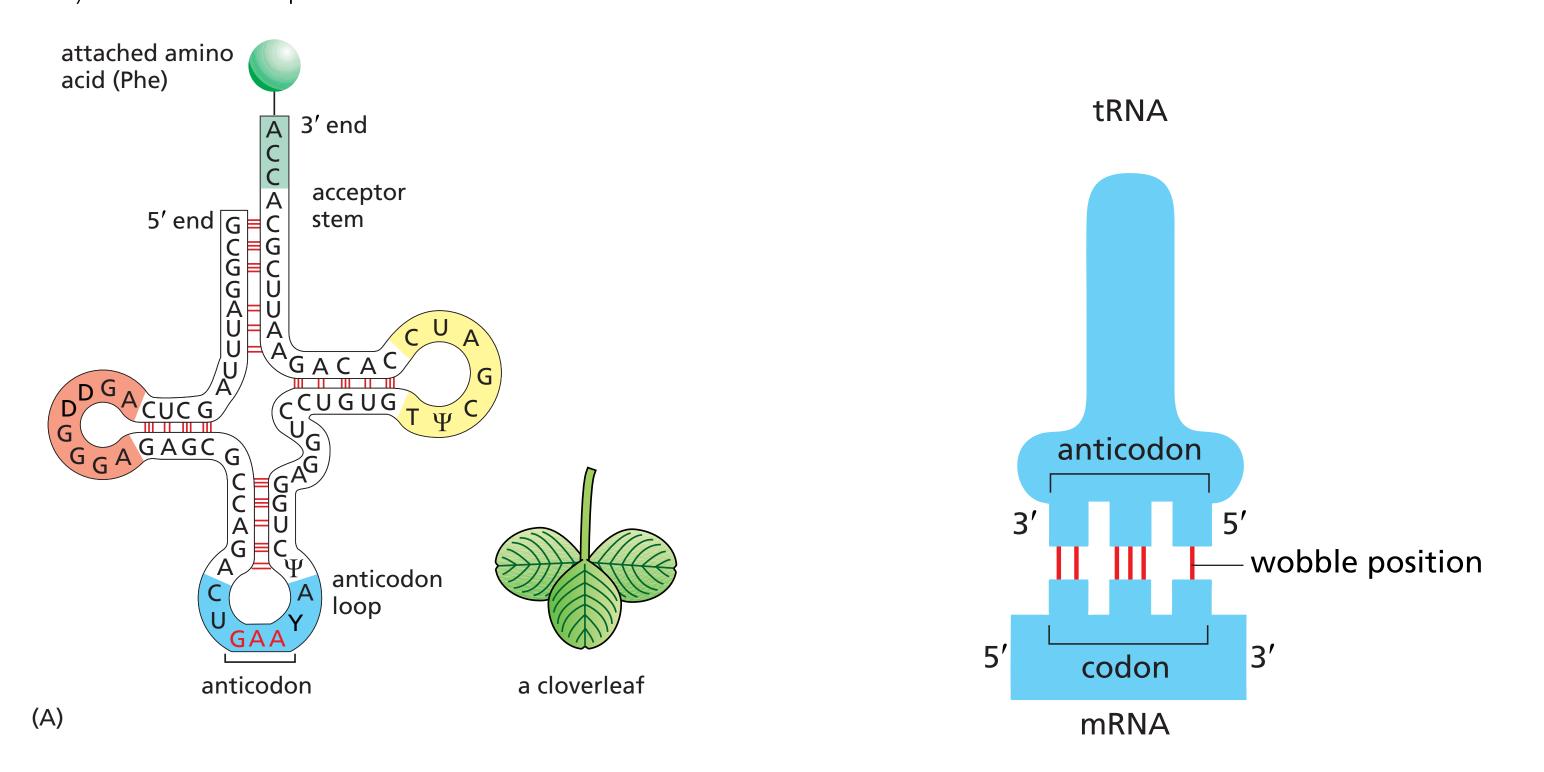


The genetic code is redundant (64 possible combinations for 20 amino acids)

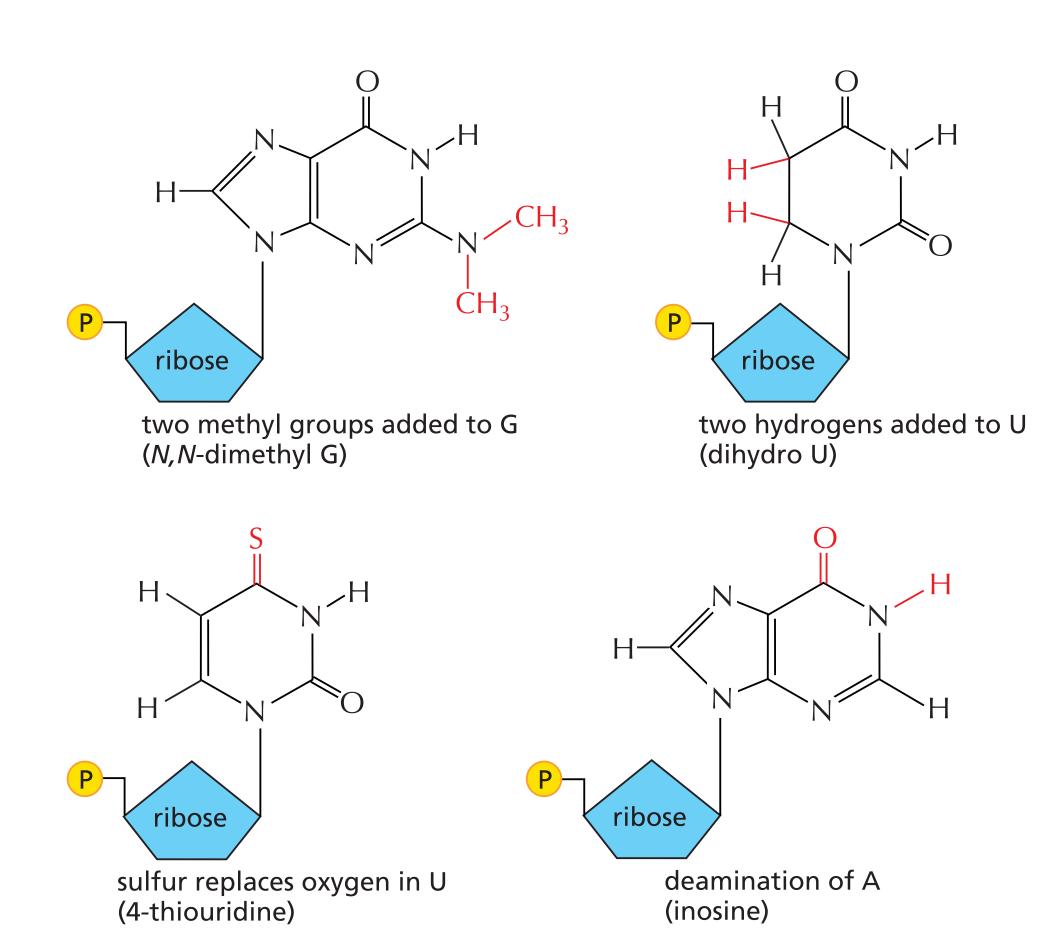
- the codons (triplet) is not directly recognised by an amino-acid
- translation depends on *adaptors* = transfer RNA or **tRNA**
- ~80 nucleotides with **3D structure**

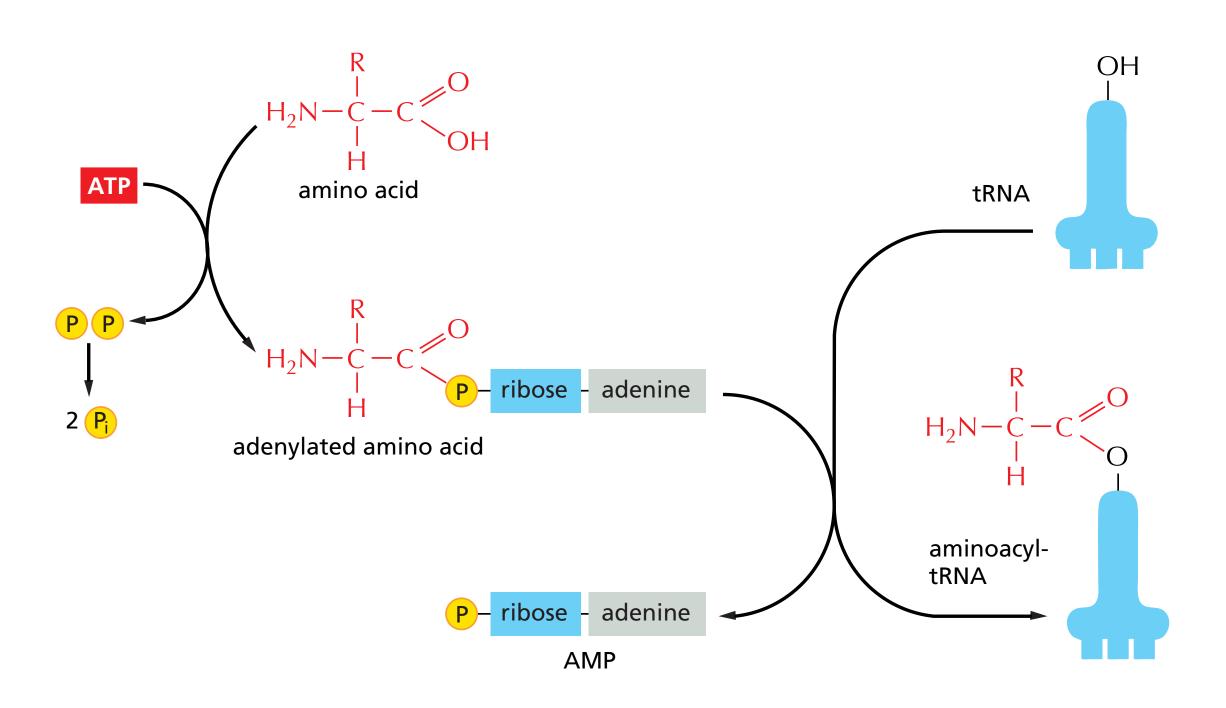


- anticodon region: 3 nucleotides that pair with the complementary codon in the mRNA molecule
- 3'end region: binds the corresponding amino-acid
- Genetic code is redundant: some amino-acids have more than one tRNA; some tRNAs allow a mismatch (wobble) at the 3d position

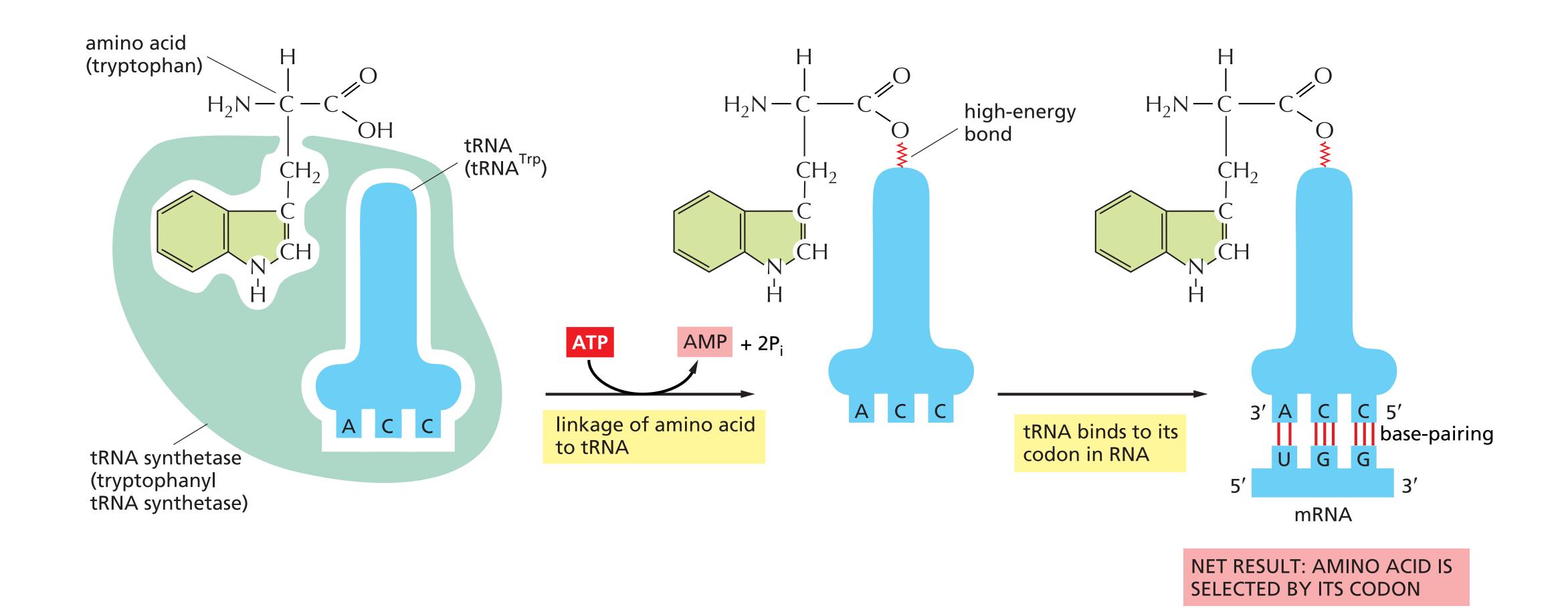


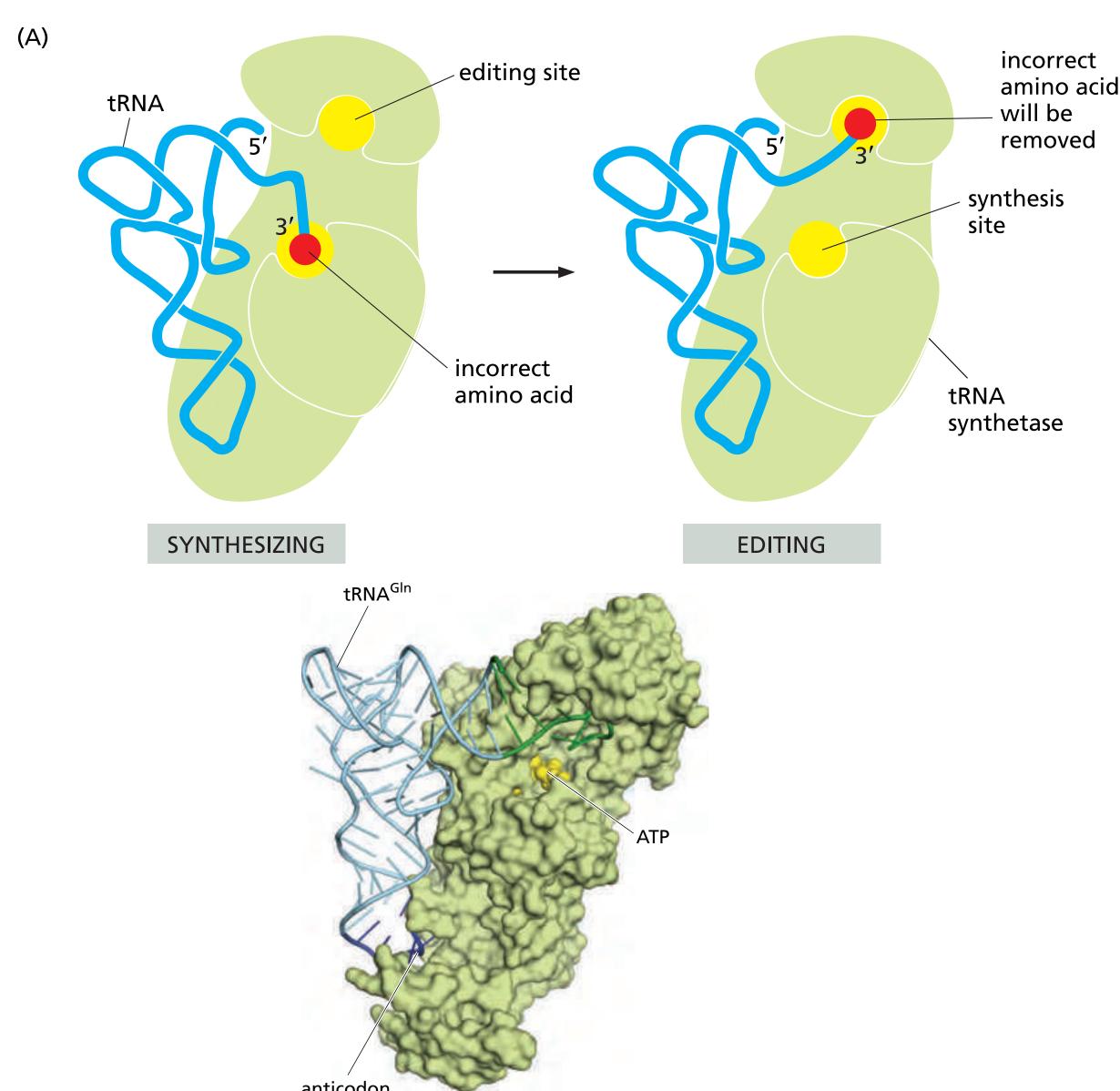
- synthesized by RNA polymerase III as larger precursors
- trimmed to produce mature tRNAs
- some have introns which must be spliced out by a cutand-paste mechanism (different from mRNA)
- all tRNAs are **modified chemically**: 1 in 10 nt is an altered version of the initial ribonucleotide (>50 types of modifications are known)





- amino-acyl-tRNA synthetases covalently couple each amino acid to their corresponding tRNAs
- reaction coupled with energy-releasing hydrolysis of ATP



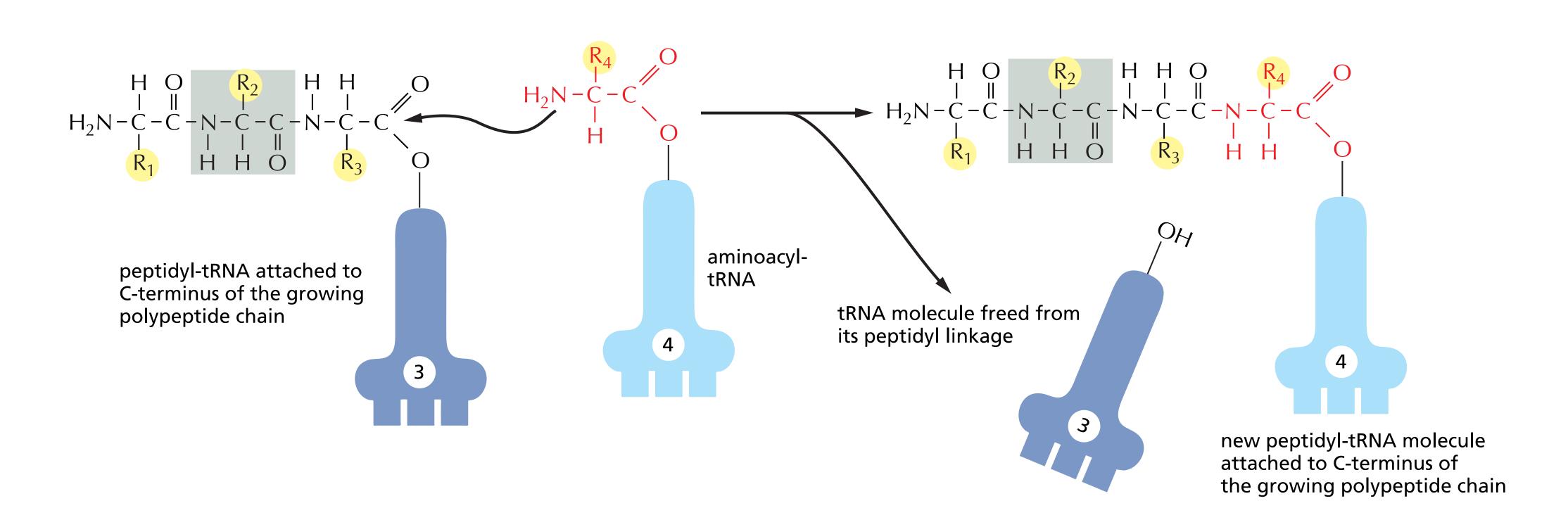


How to ensure that the right amino-acid is selected?

- Correct amino acid has larger affinity
- Larger amino acid cannot fit in the catalytic site of the enzyme
- For similar **size amino acids**, the covalent linkage can happen
- Further tested in the **editing site** if it fits, it is not the right amino-acid
- The enzymes also need to recognize the **anticodons** of the tRNA

Polypeptide chain

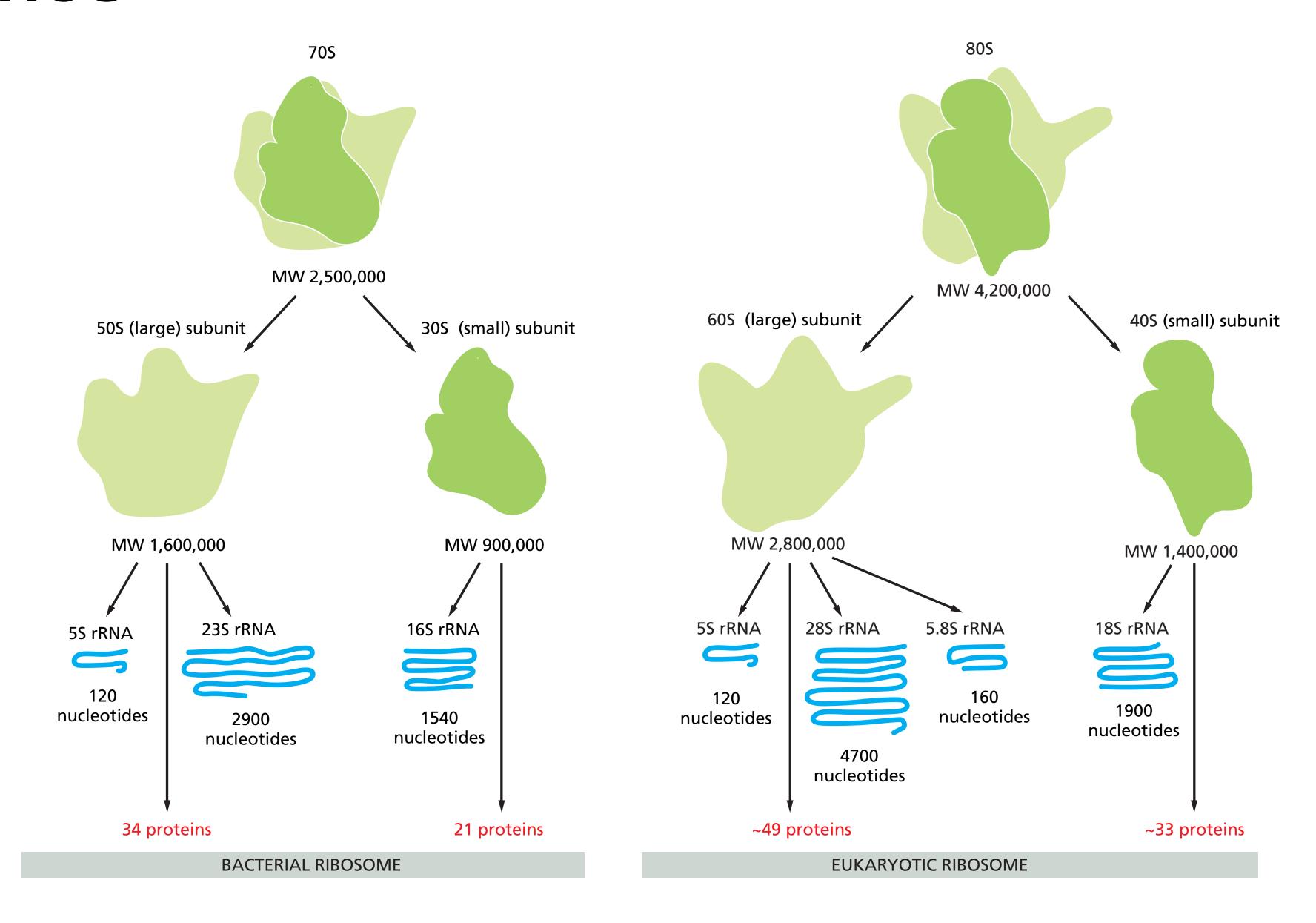
• Formation of a **peptide bond** between the **carboxyl group** at the end of a growing polypeptide chain and a free **incoming amino acid** (assembly from N-terminal to C-terminal)



Ribosomes

- perform protein synthesis (maintain the correct reading frame and ensure accuracy)
- made of >50 proteins and ribosomal RNAs (rRNAs)
- millions of ribosomes in the cytoplasm of a eukaryotic cell
- consists of a large and small subunit, each assembled in the nucleus
- the two subunits are exported to the cytoplasm, where they join on an mRNA molecule

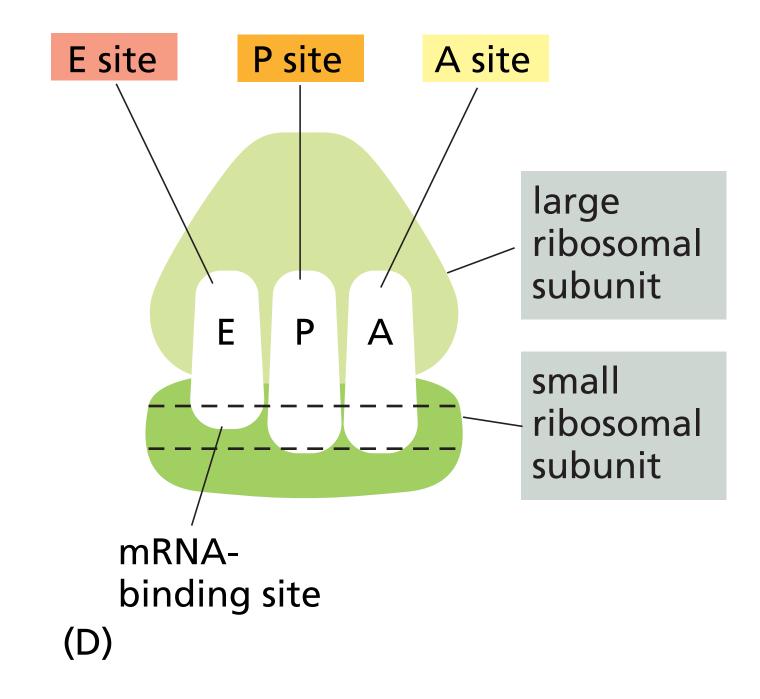
Ribosomes



Ribosomes

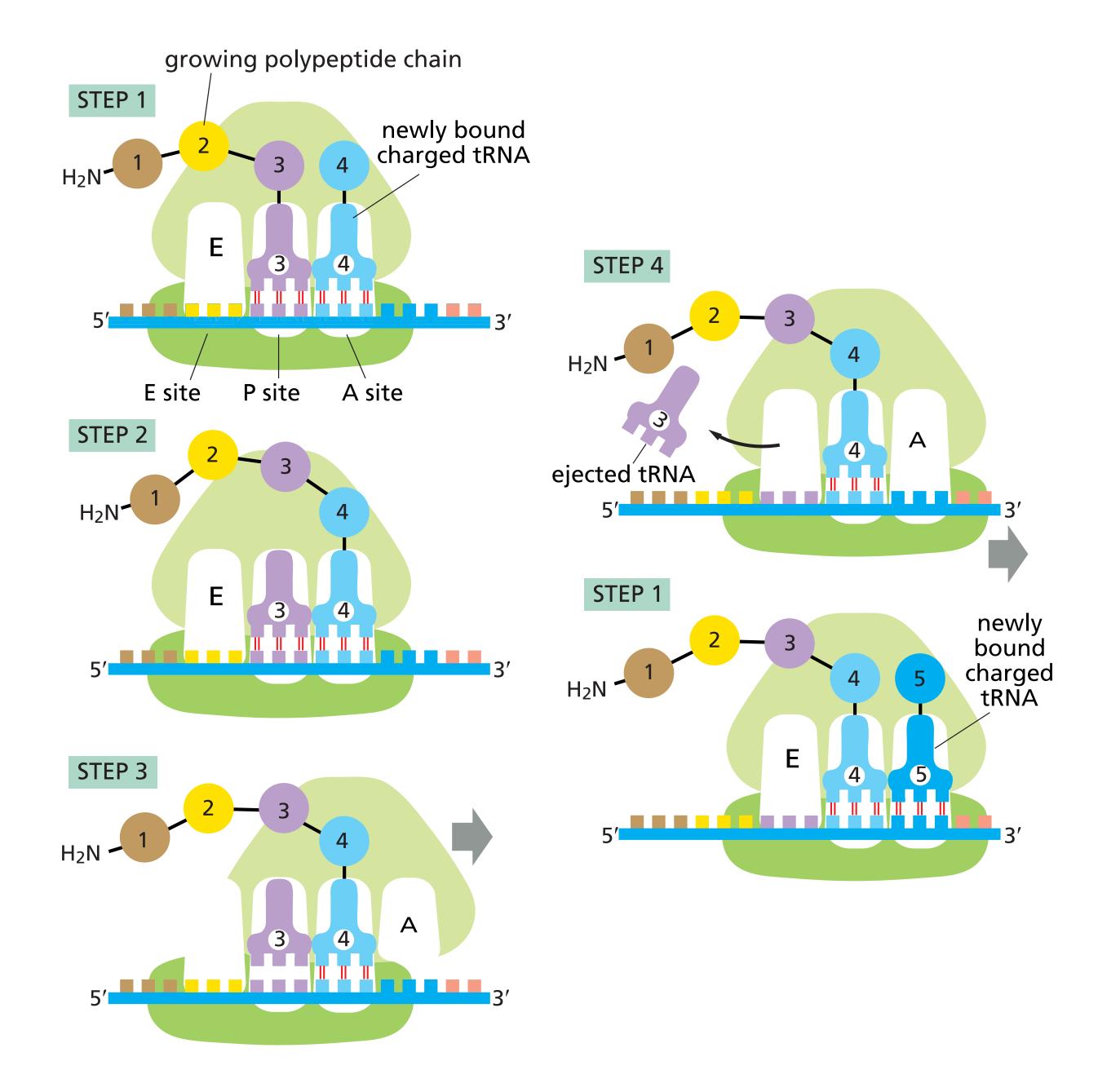
- 4 binding sites for RNA:
 - 1 for **mRNA**
 - 3 for **tRNAs** (A, P and E sites)

- a tRNA is kept in A and P sites if its **anticodon** forms base-pairs with a **complementary codon**
- A and P sites are close enough to accommodate adjacent codons (maintains the correct reading frame)



Protein synthesis

- Step 1: tRNA binding
- Step 2: peptide bond formation by the peptidyl transferase in the large subunit
- Step 3: large subunit translocation
- Step 4: small subunit translocation

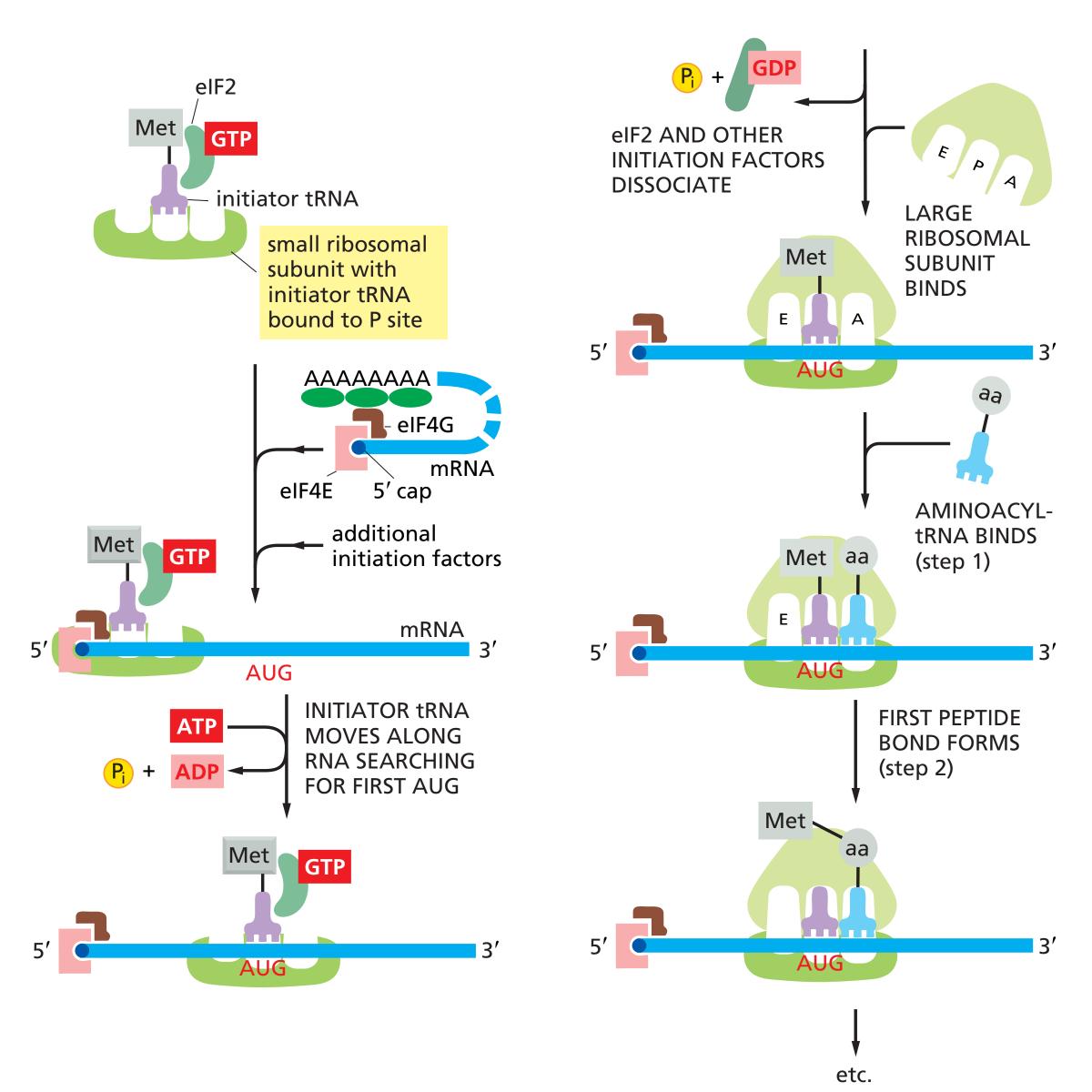


Elongation factors

- make translation more efficient and accurate
- EF1 and EF2 in eukaryotes; EF-Tu and EF-G in bacteria

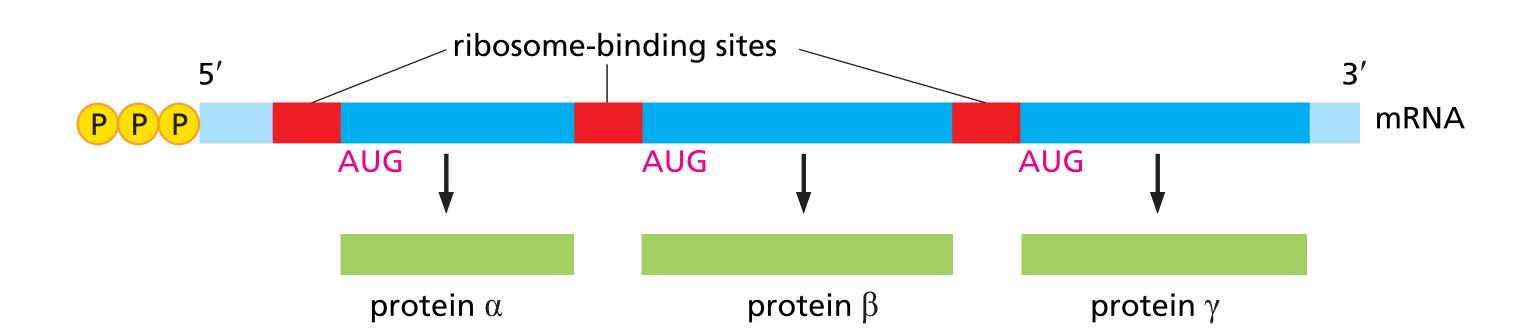
Where to start protein synthesis?

- important as it sets the **reading frame** for the whole protein
- starts with at **AUG codon** and a special tRNA to start translation, which carries **methionine**
- all proteins start with methionine
- the special tRNA is recognised by initiation factors



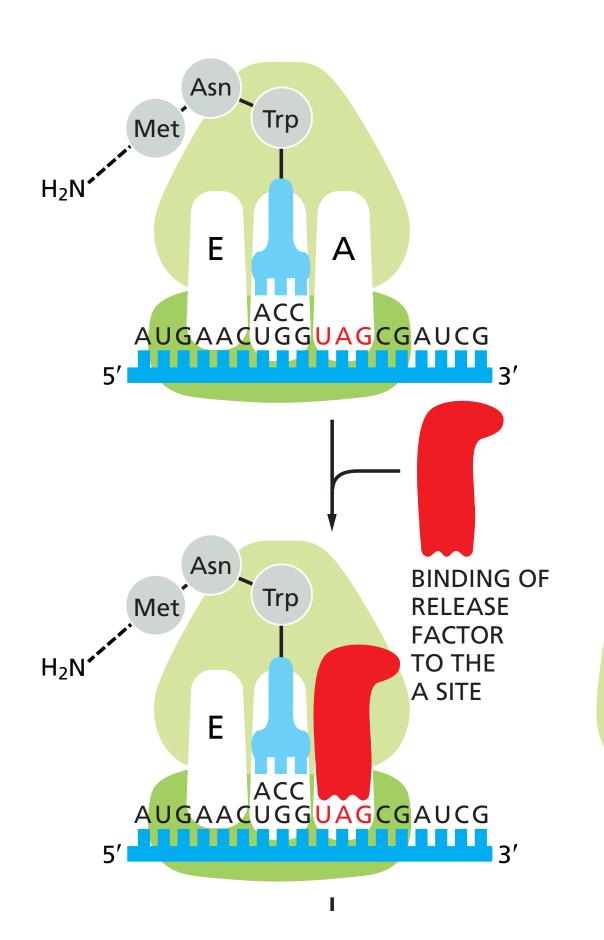
Where to start protein synthesis?

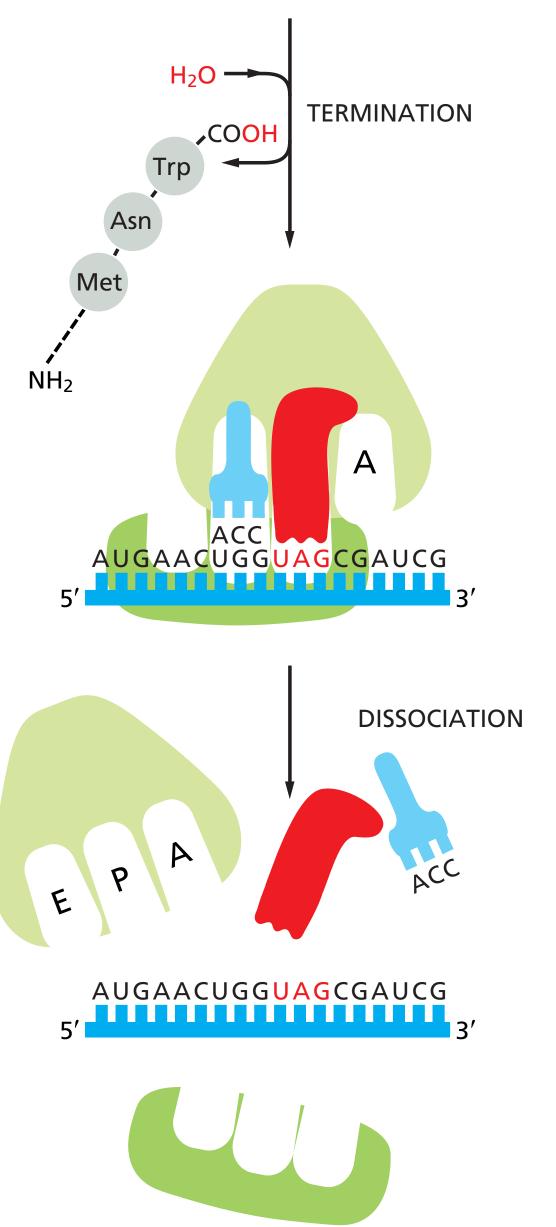
- In bacteria, no cap but a specific ribosomal binding site (called the Shine-Dalgarno sequence)
- this sequence is recognised by the 16 rRNA, which positions the ribosomes properly to read the first AUG
- bacterial mRNAs are often polycistronic



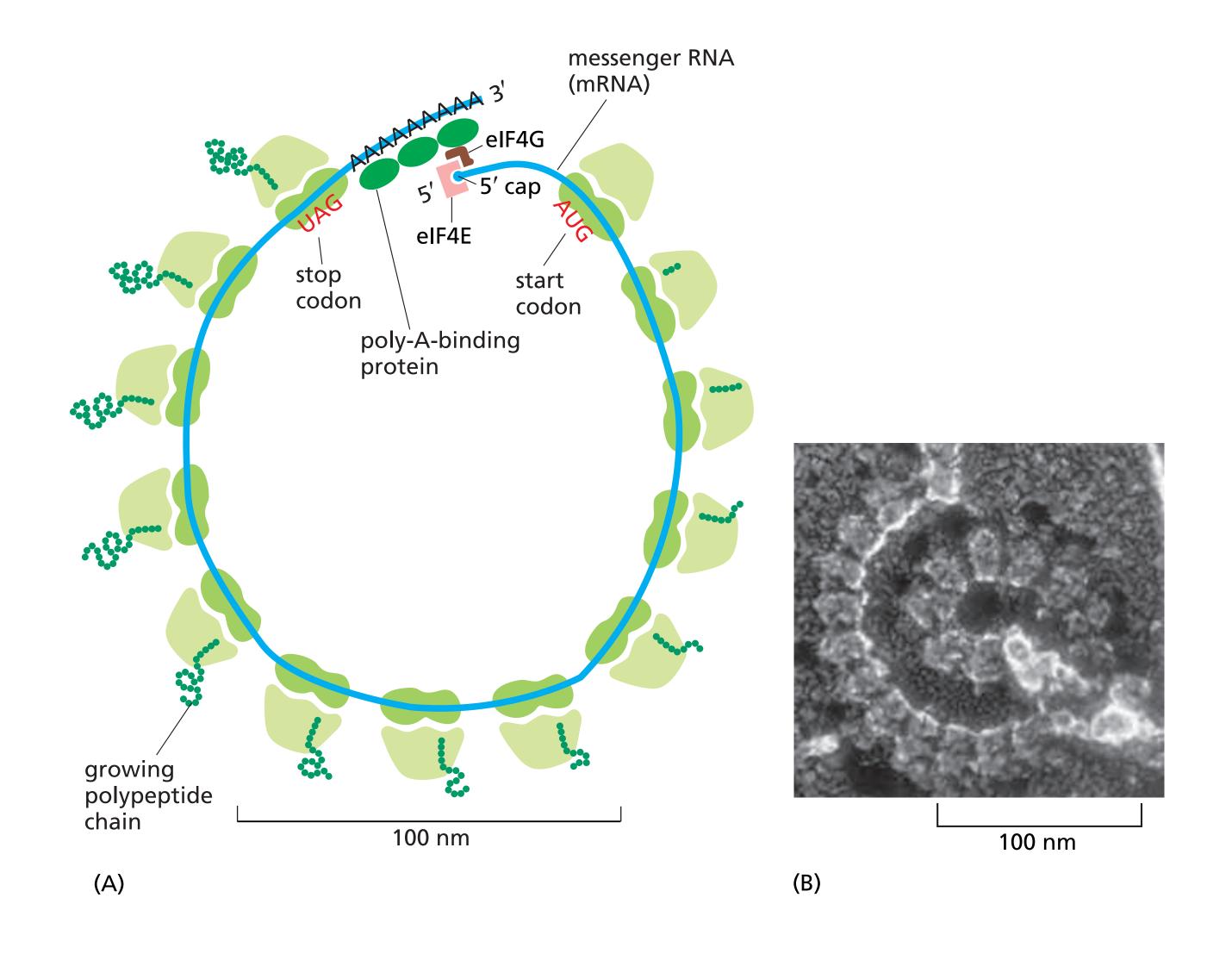
Where to stop protein synthesis?

- The end of the sequence is signalled by **stop codons** (UAA, UAG or UGA)
- No tRNA and amino-acid but signal to the ribosome to stop translation
- Binding of release factors

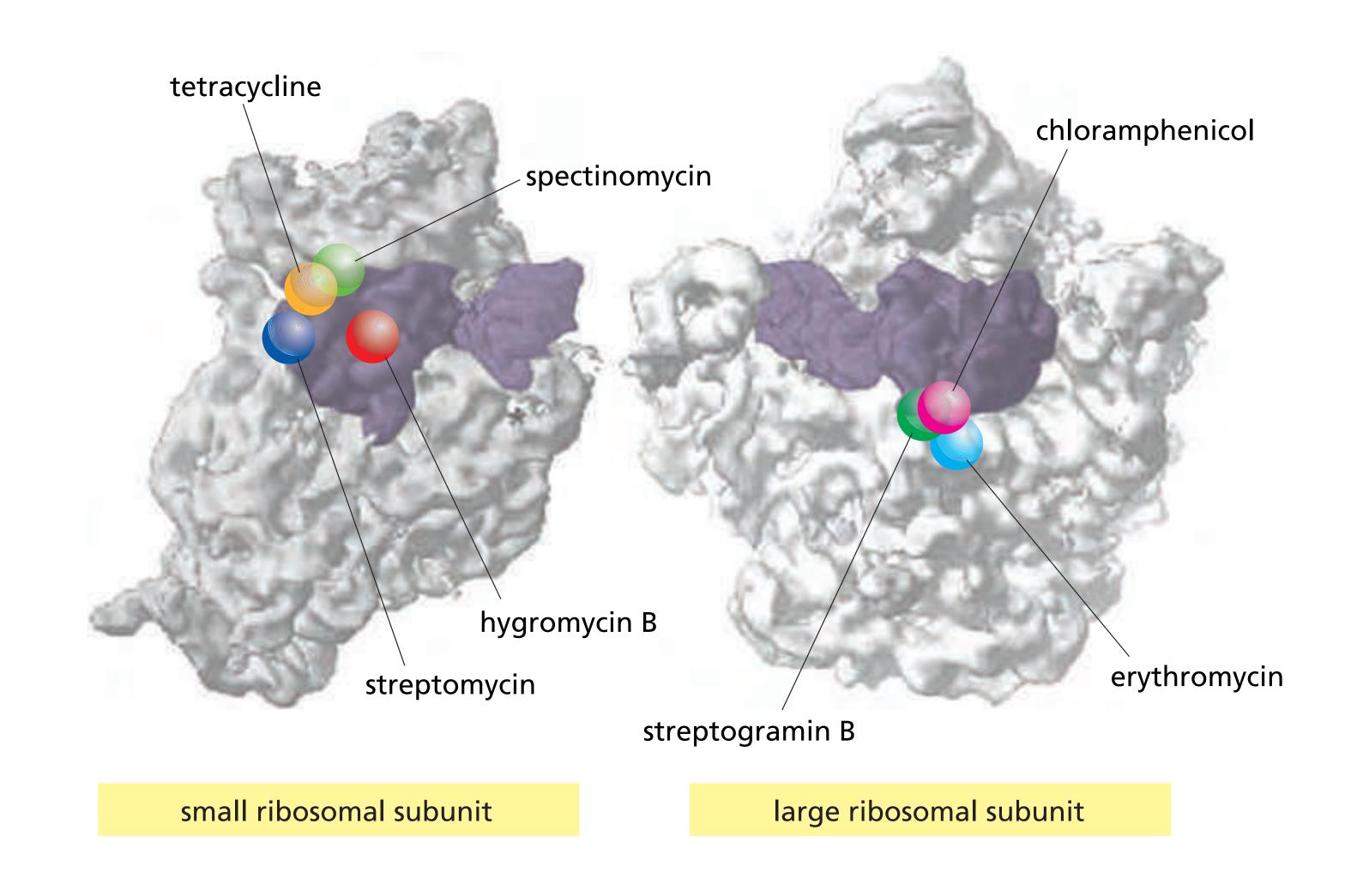




Proteins are made on polyribosomes (=polysomes)

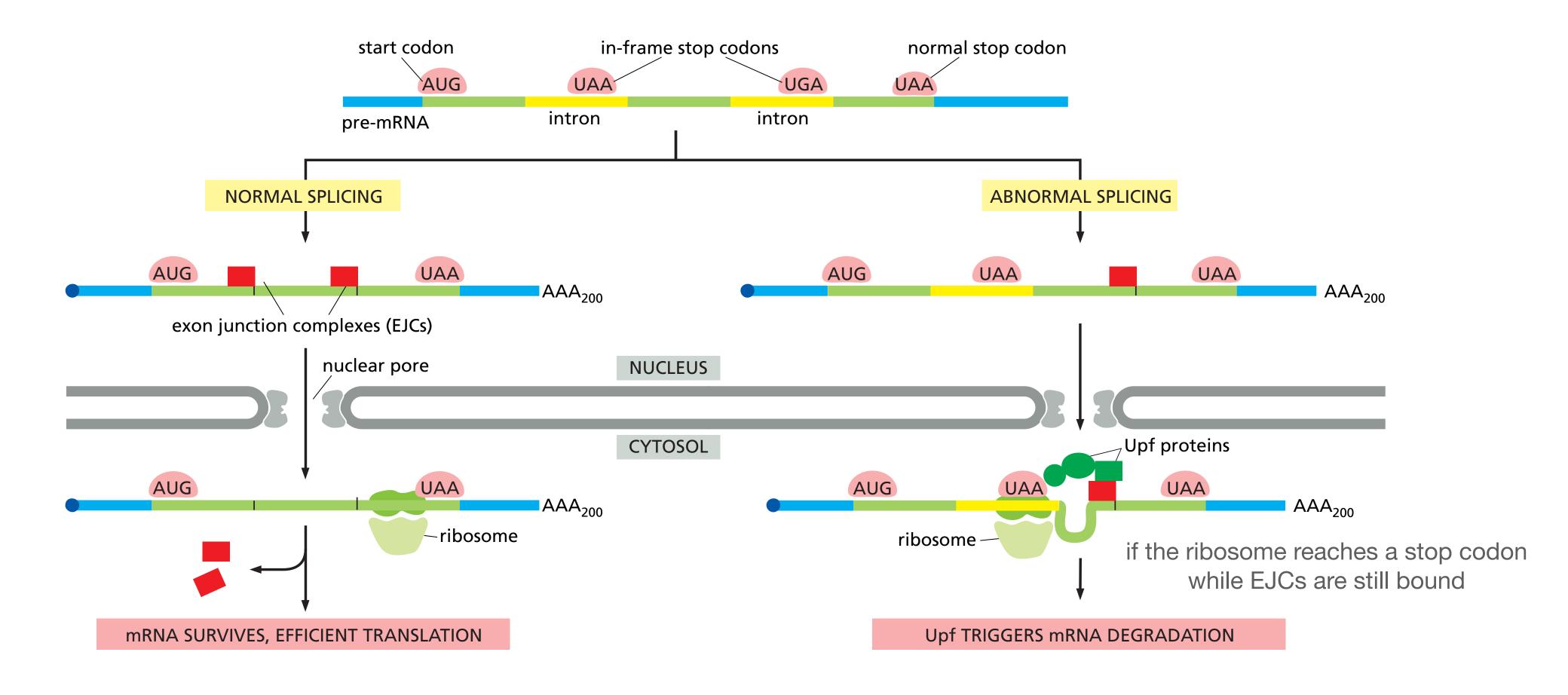


Bacterial synthesis as a target for antibiotics



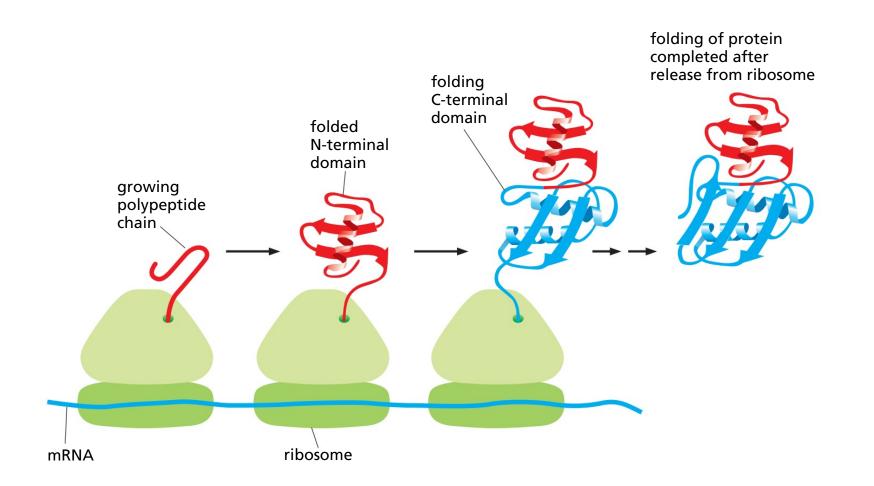
Quality control mechanism

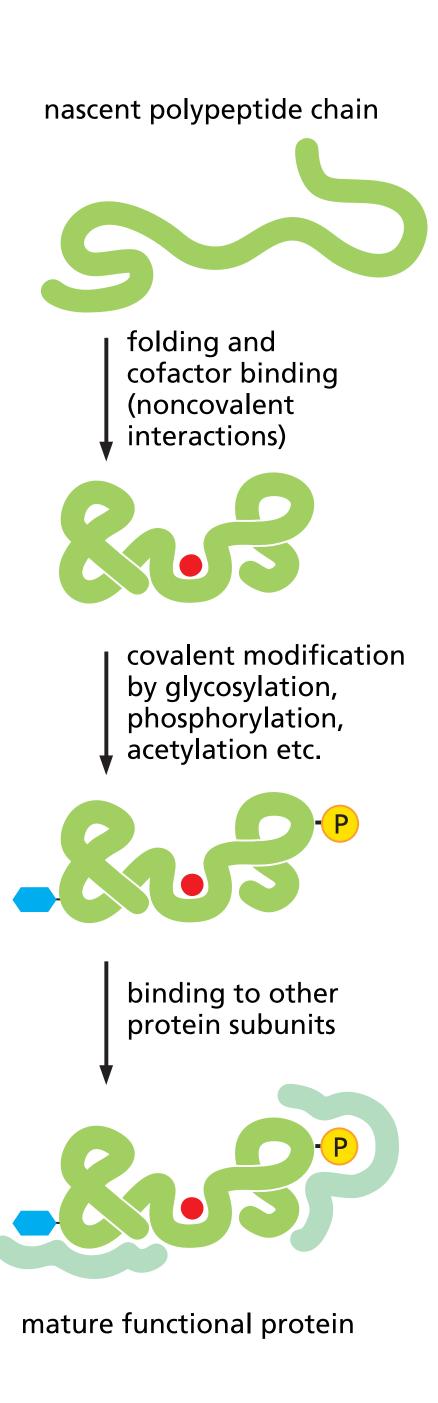
- Nonsense-mediated mRNA decay eliminates defective mRNA before they move away from the nucleus
- active when an mRNA has a **stop codon** at the wrong location



Protein folding

- Polypeptide chain must reach its 3D structure to be active as a protein
- All information needed is part of the sequence
- Hydrophobic core
- Conformation with lowest free energy
- For some proteins, folding occurs as soon as the chain emerges from the ribosome

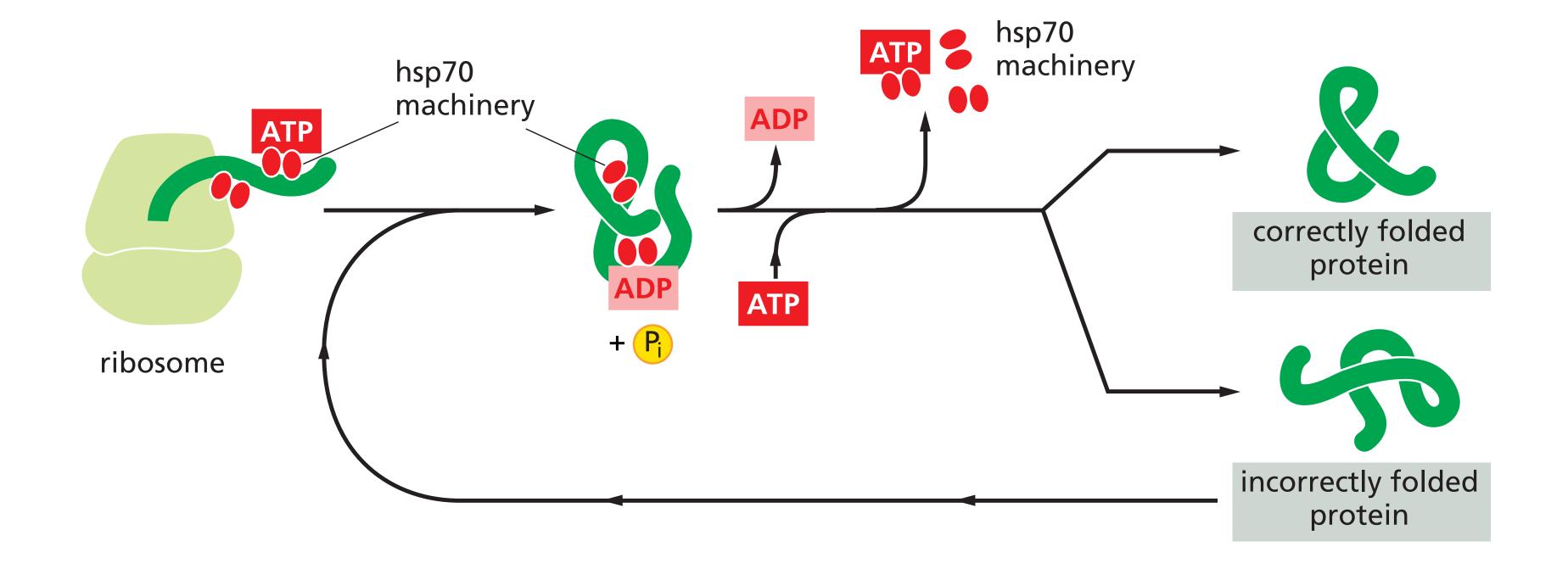




Molecular chaperones

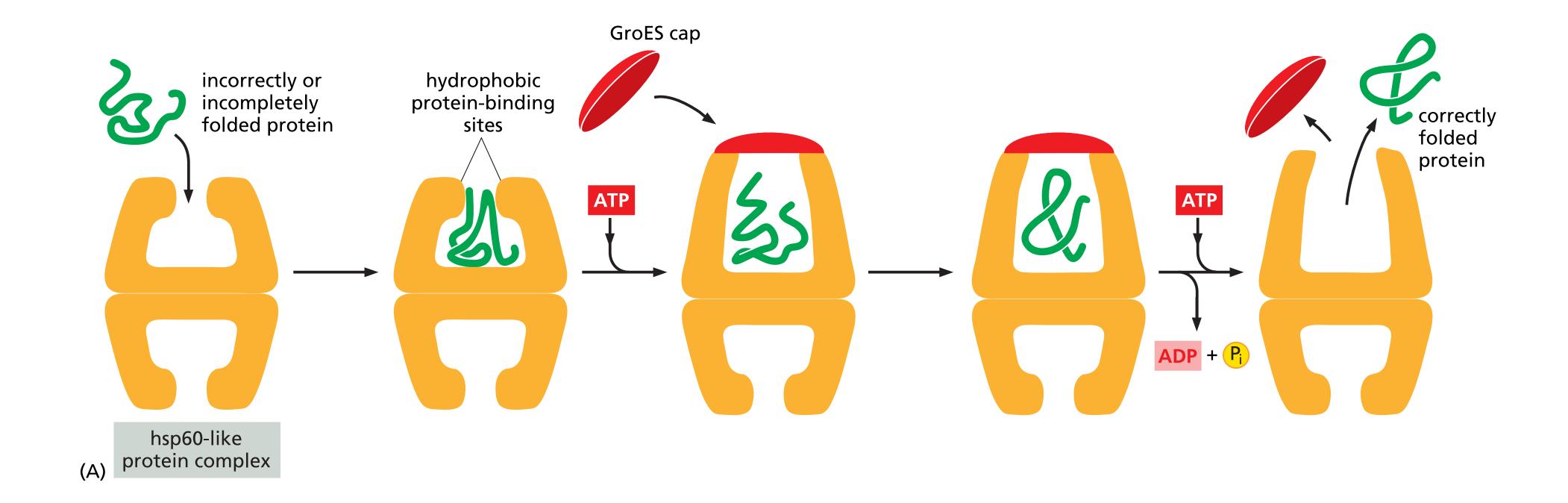
- Some proteins require the help of molecular chaperones to properly fold and would otherwise aggregate
- Recognise incorrect folding by exposure of hydrophobic surfaces
- Called heat shock proteins (hsp)
- Major families are hsp60 and hsp70 + associates
- Use **ATP** to bind and release unfolded proteins

Hsp70



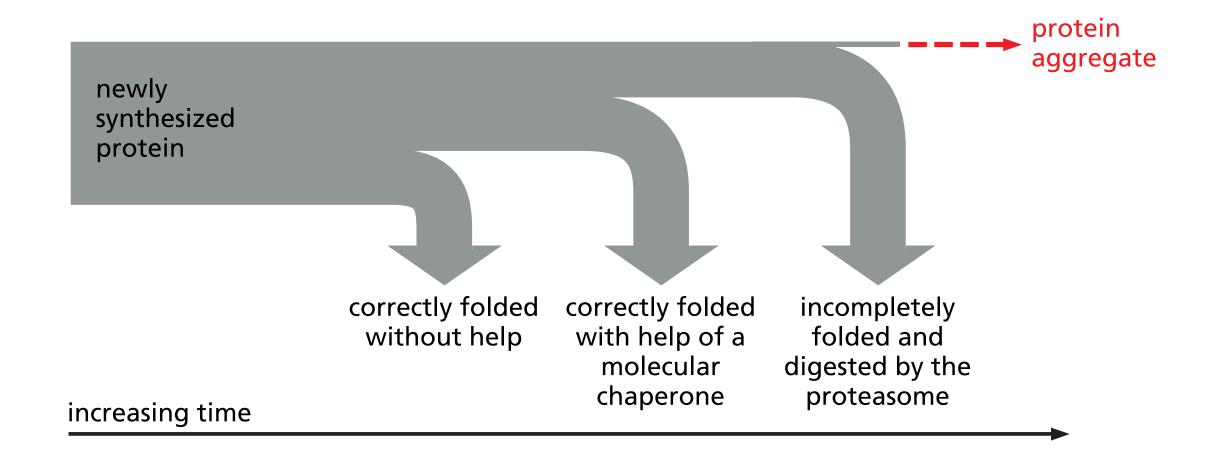
- Acts early in the protein life
- Binding and release of the substrate

Hsp60



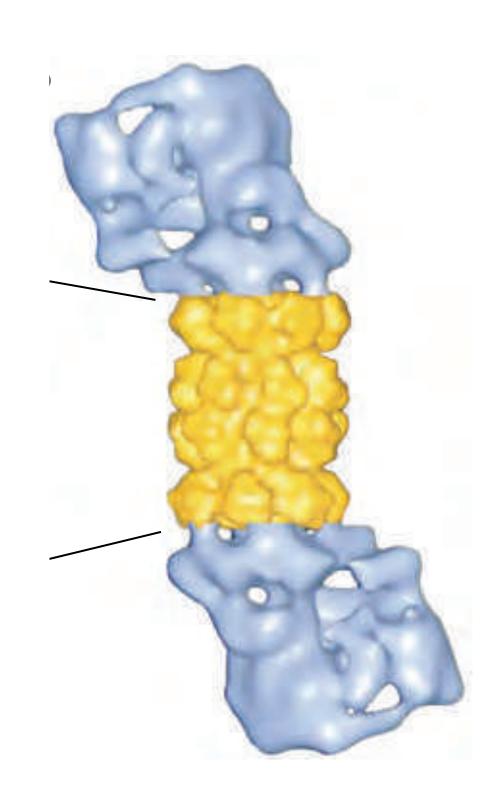
- Acts when the whole protein is synthesized
- Isolation chamber for the folding process

Quality control choices



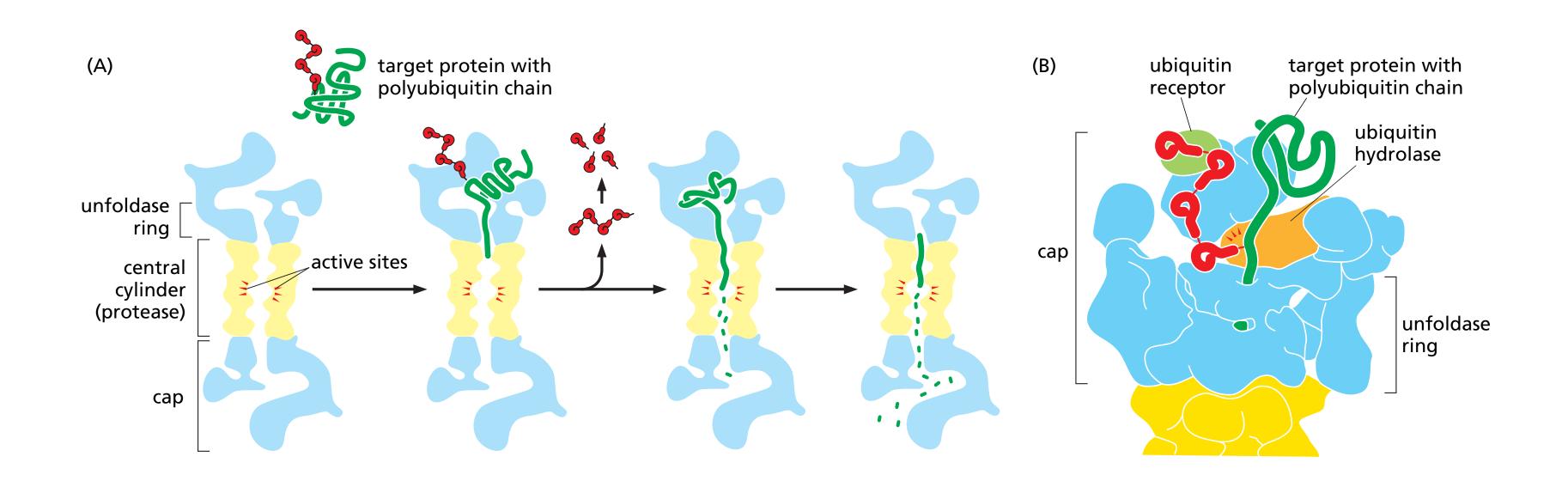
Proteasome

- Large protein complex
- Destroys aberrant proteins
- Present in many copies in the cytosol and nucleus

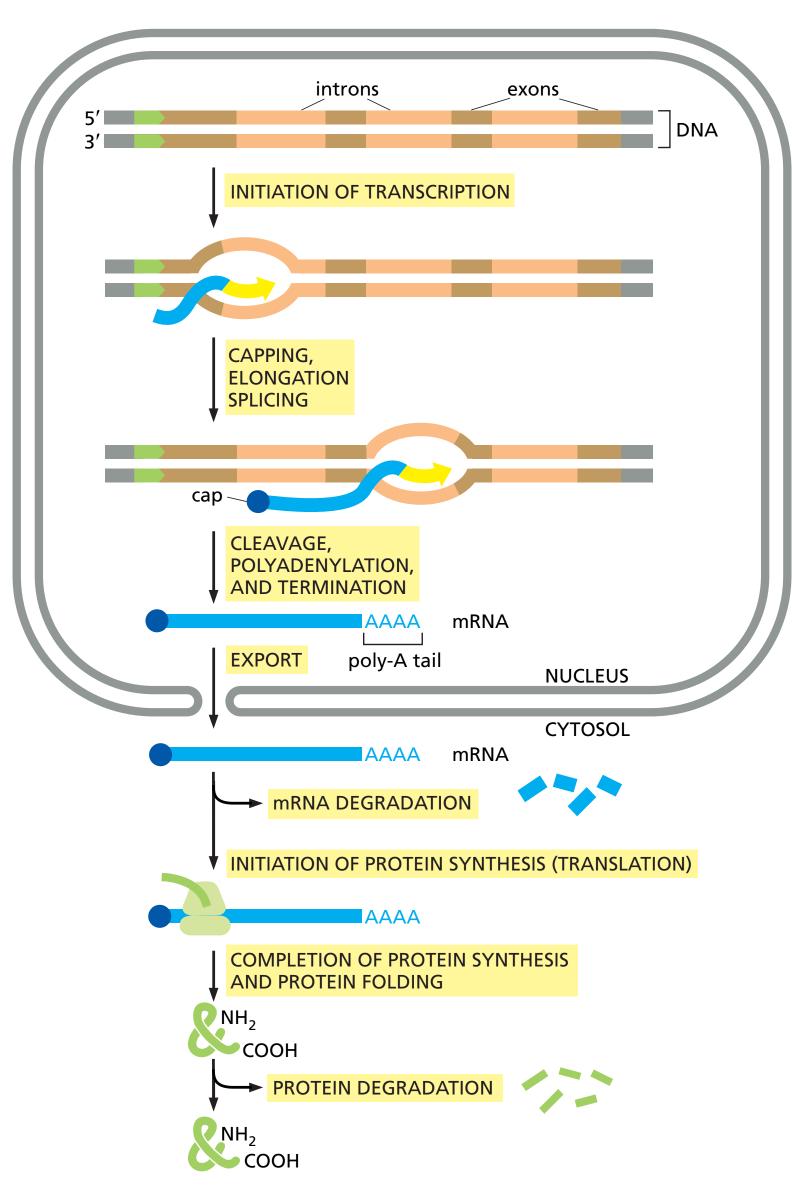


Proteasome

- Central cylinder, with some proteins acting as proteases
- Target proteins are **unfolded** as they move through the cap (made of **unfoldases**), exposing them to proteases
- Destruction mark is the covalent attachement of the small protein ubiquitin
- Also allows to ensure the **short lifetime** of certain normal proteins (e.g. cell cycle)



Recap: from DNA to proteins



Have a nice week off!