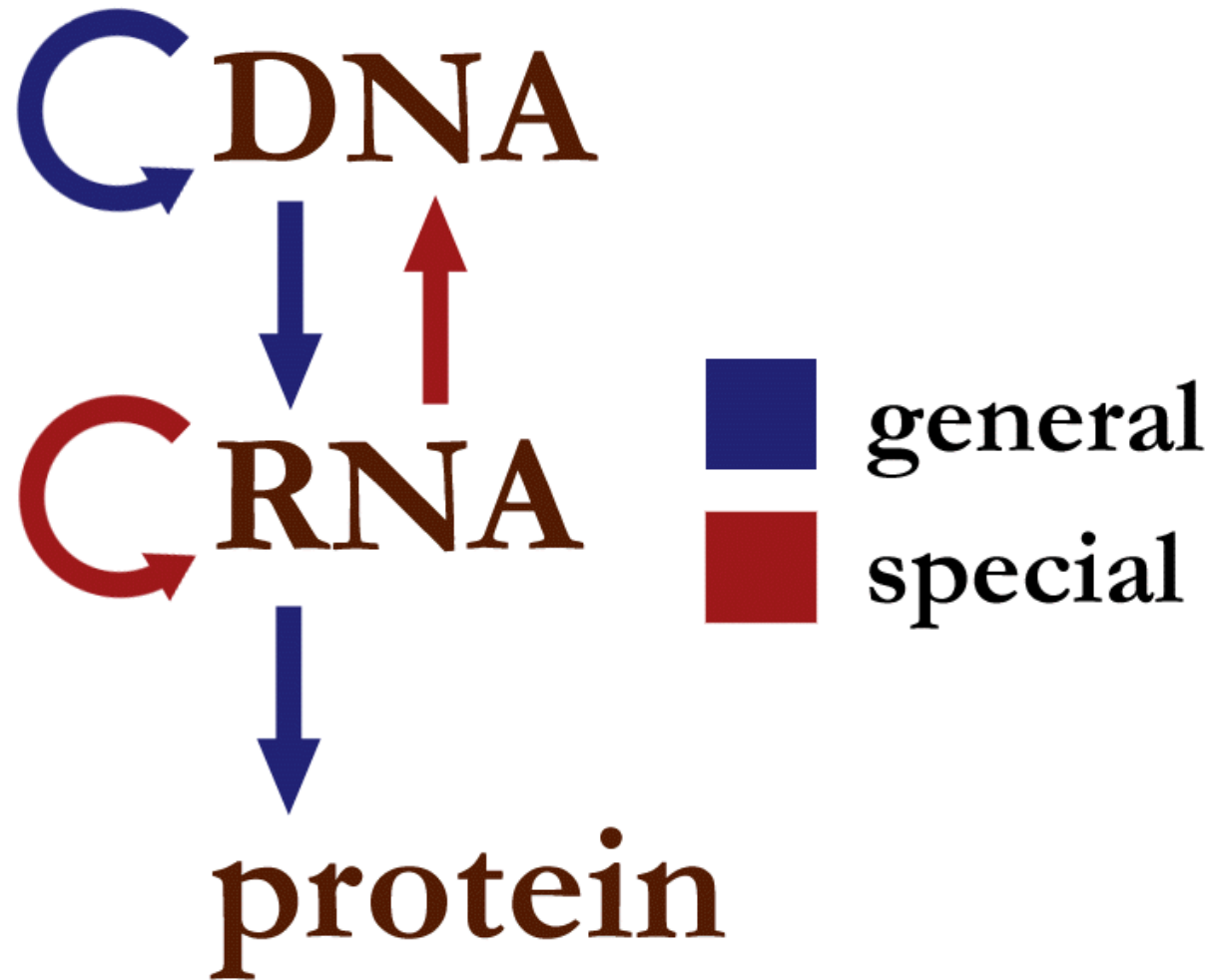


Lecture 5 - Biochemistry



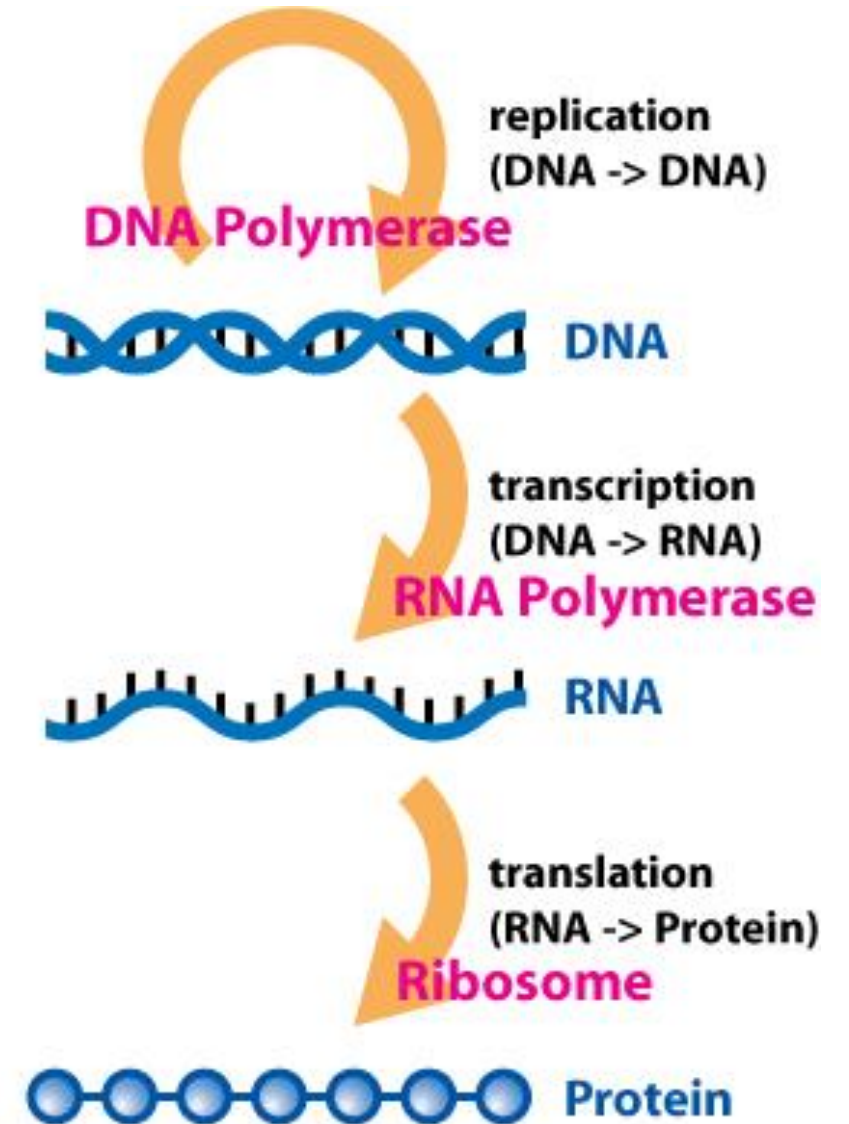
Prof. Sebastian Maerkl

Central Dogma



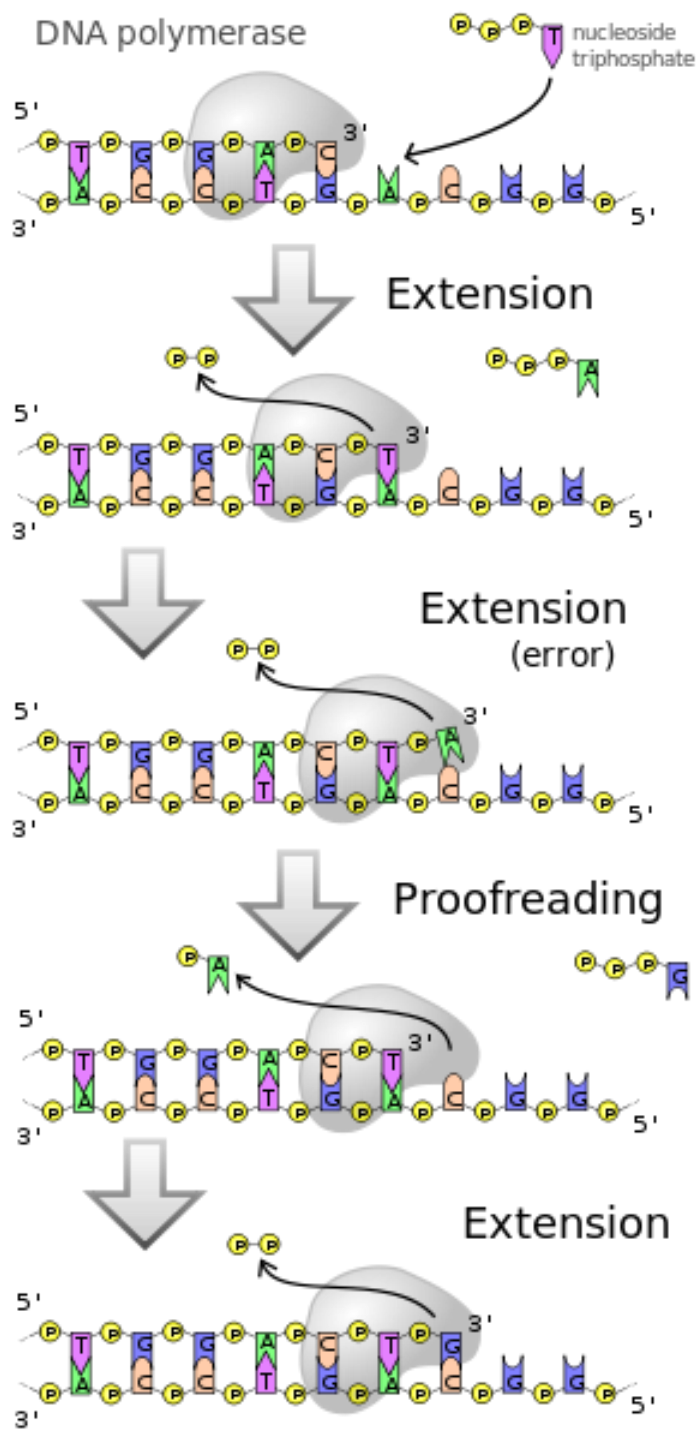
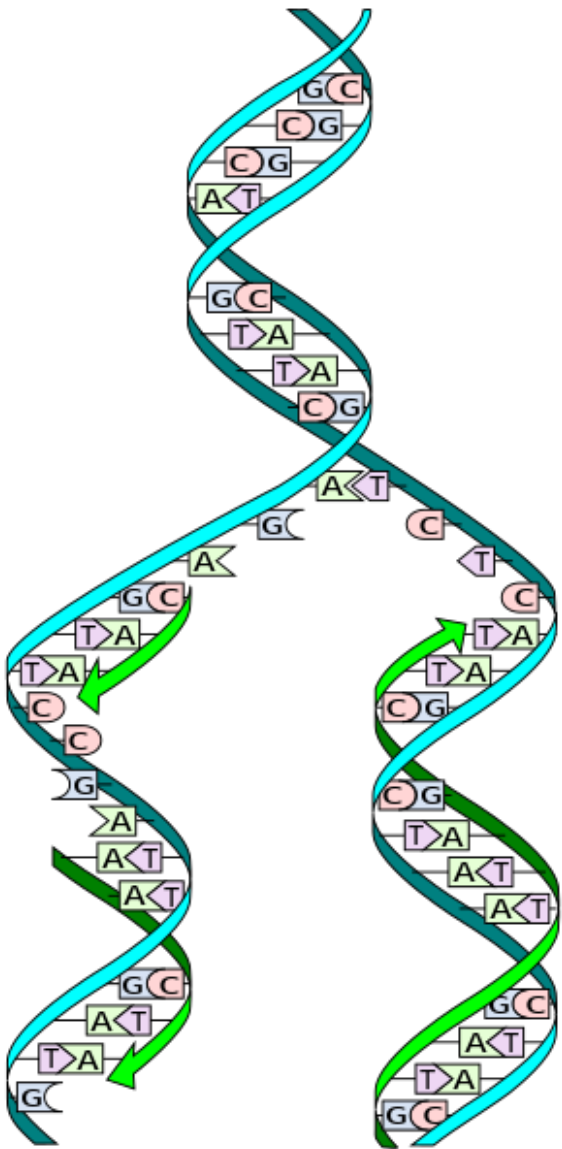
Reverse transcription: reverse transcriptase

RNA replication: RNA-dependent RNA Polymerase

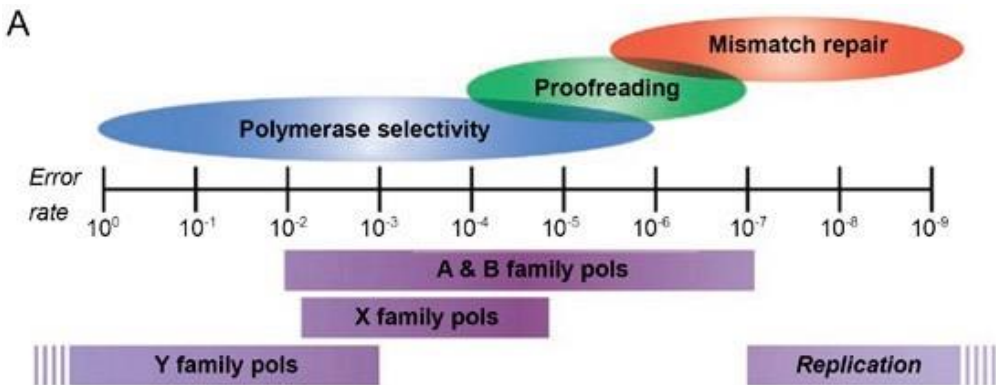


DNA Replication

DNA synthesis



- 5' -> 3' elongation
- 3' -> 5' proof-reading (exonuclease)
- Strand-displacement
- Error rate ~ 10^{-9} (10^{-7})
- Processivity > 50 kb (20bp – 70kb)
- Synthesis Rate ~750 nucleotides / sec

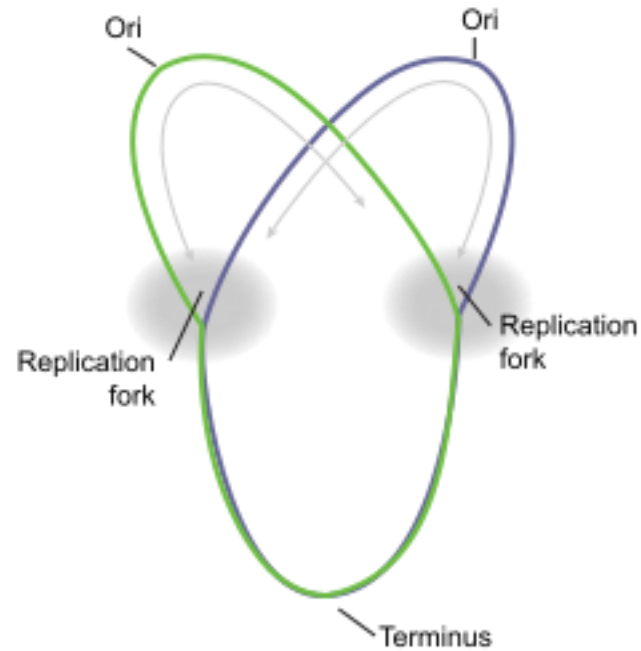
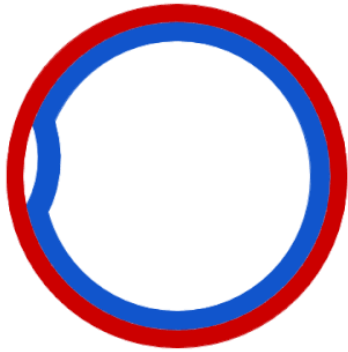


Enzyme	Expt.	Avg. doublings/PCR reaction	Number of clones sequenced	Total bp sequenced	Number of mutations observed	Error rate
Taq	1	20.5 ± 1.2	65	8.8 × 10 ⁴	54	3.0 × 10 ⁻⁵
	2	16.7 ± 0.7	37	4.7 × 10 ⁴	45	5.6 × 10 ⁻⁵
AccuPrime-Taq	1	17.0 ± 1.2	75	1.0 × 10 ⁵	18	1.0 × 10 ⁻⁵
	2	16.9 ± 0.6	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.
KOD	1	20.8 ± 1.5	70	1.0 × 10 ⁵	16	7.6 × 10 ⁻⁶
	2	17.6 ± 0.8	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.
Pfu (cloned)	1	16.5 ± 1.1	151	2.0 × 10 ⁵	9	2.8 × 10 ⁻⁶
	2	12.0 ± 1.8	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.
Phusion	1	21.0 ± 1.9	175	2.4 × 10 ⁵	13	2.6 × 10 ⁻⁶
	2	16.6 ± 1.1	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.
Pwo	1	22.5 ± 1.2	170	2.4 × 10 ⁵	13	2.4 × 10 ⁻⁶
	2	17.6 ± 0.6	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.

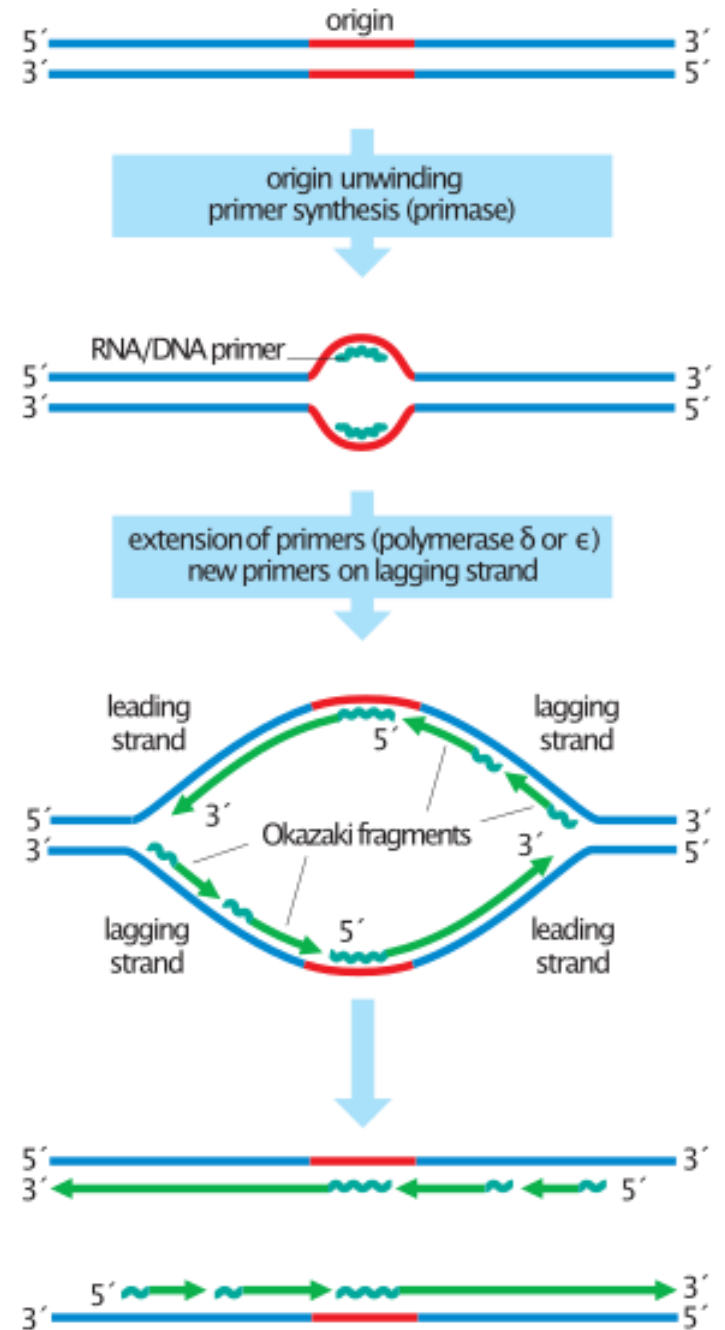
N.D.: not determined.

Prokaryotic DNA replication

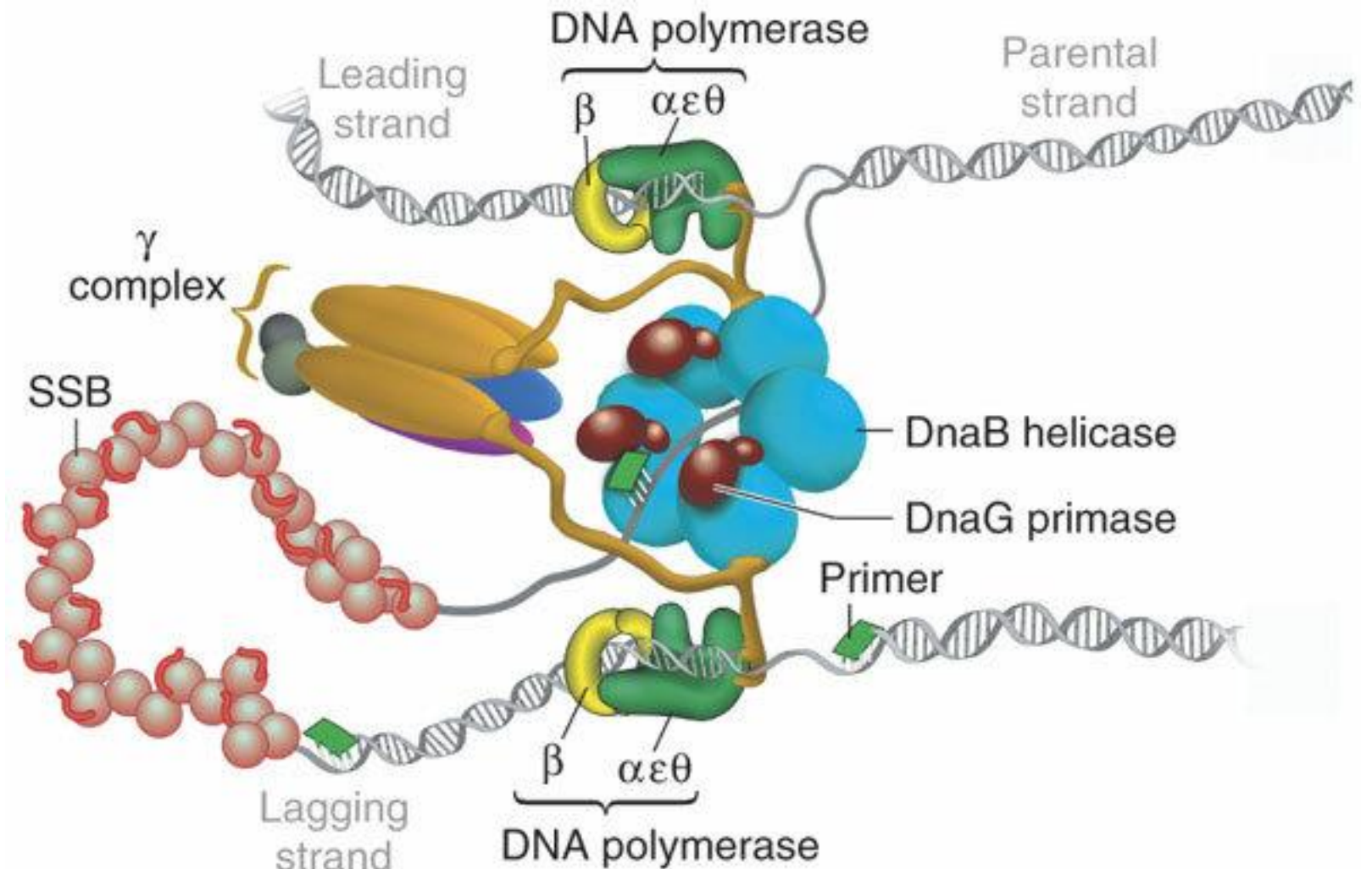
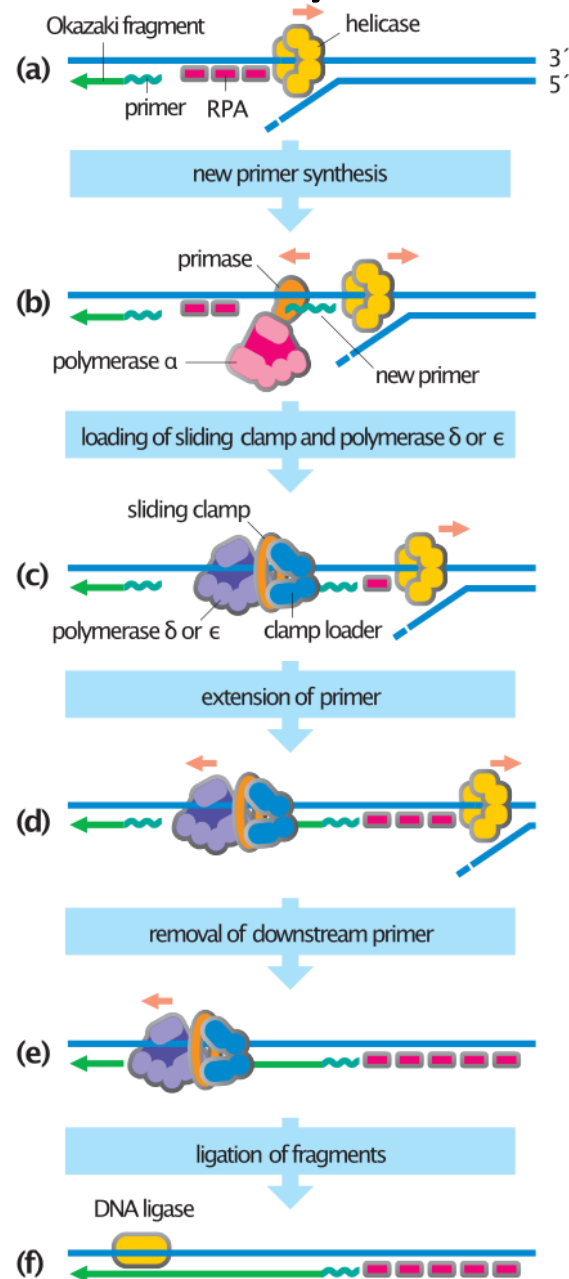
Theta-type replication



- Original DNA Strand 1
- Original DNA Strand 2
- New DNA



Prokaryotic DNA replication



Prokaryotic DNA replication

oriC:

- origin of replication
- contains binding sites for DnaA

DnaA:

- DnaA binding to oriC leads to strand displacement

DnaC helicase loader:

- interacts with DnaA and recruits DnaB helicase

DnaB helicase:

- unwinds DNA

DnaG primase :

- lays down RNA primer

DNA polymerase III holoenzyme:

- synthesizes DNA

SSB:

- single strand binding protein
- stabilizes ssDNA

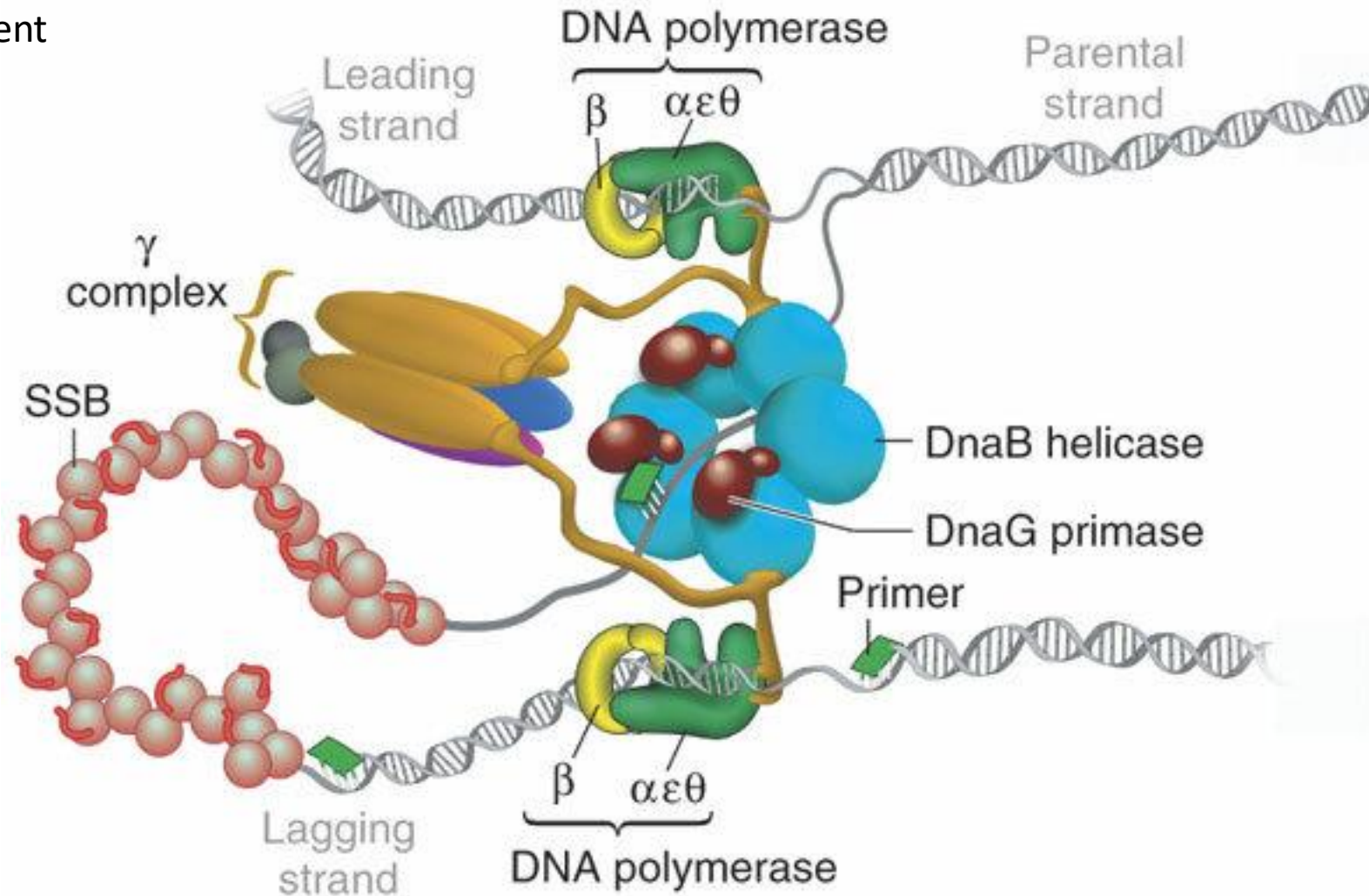
Leading strand:

- continuously synthesized

Lagging Strand:

- synthesized in short separate fragments

Okazaki fragment



Lagging strand

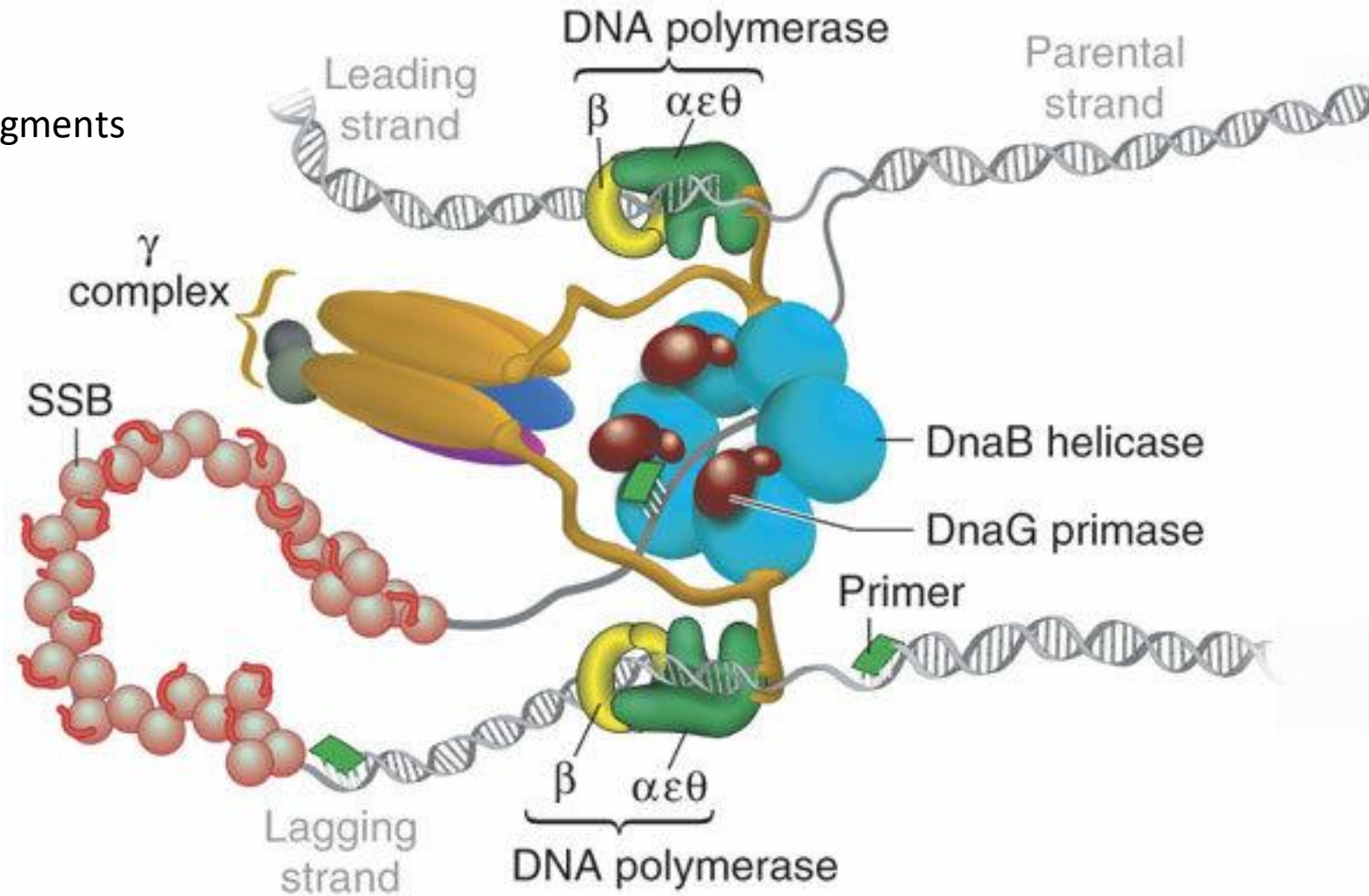
Resolving Okazaki fragments

RNaseH and DNA polymerase I:

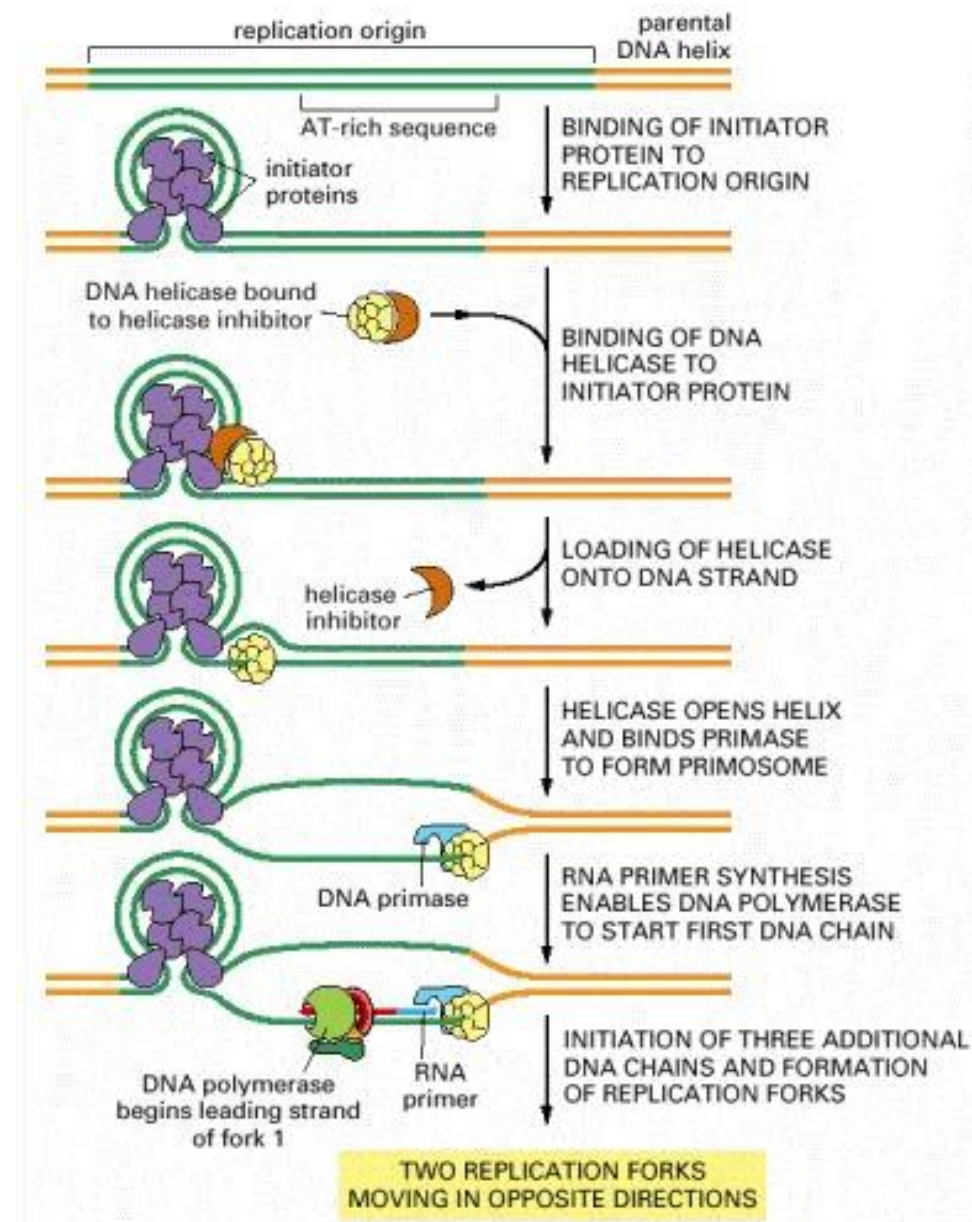
- degrade RNA primers
- fill in deoxyribonucleotides

Ligase:

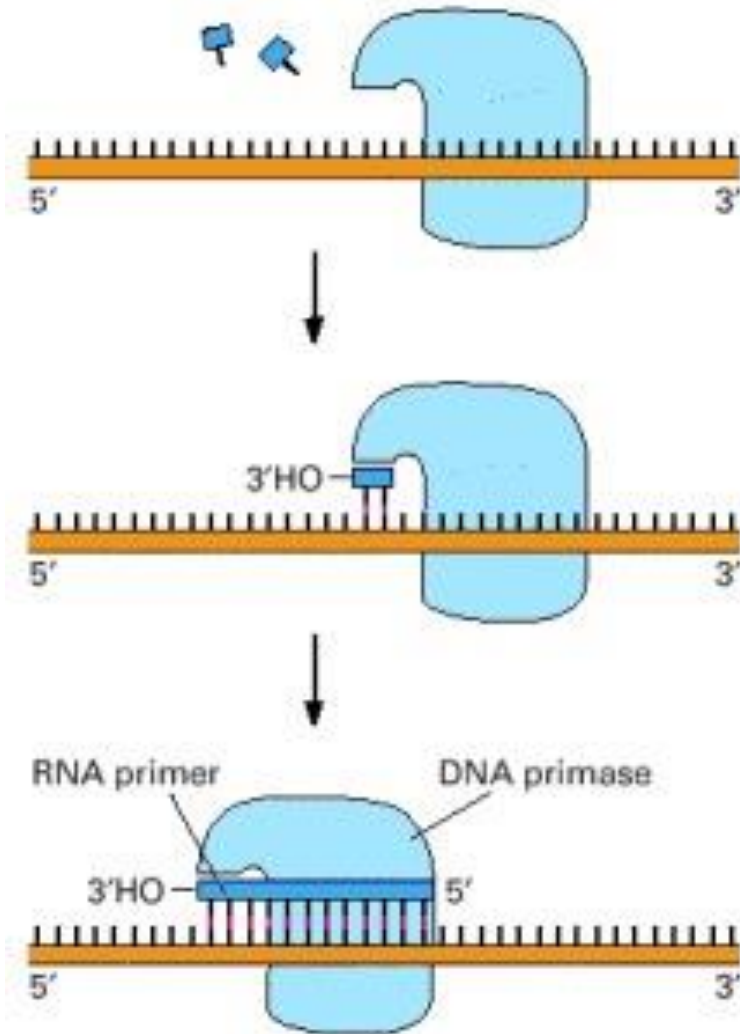
- seals (ligates) the gap between two Okazaki fragments



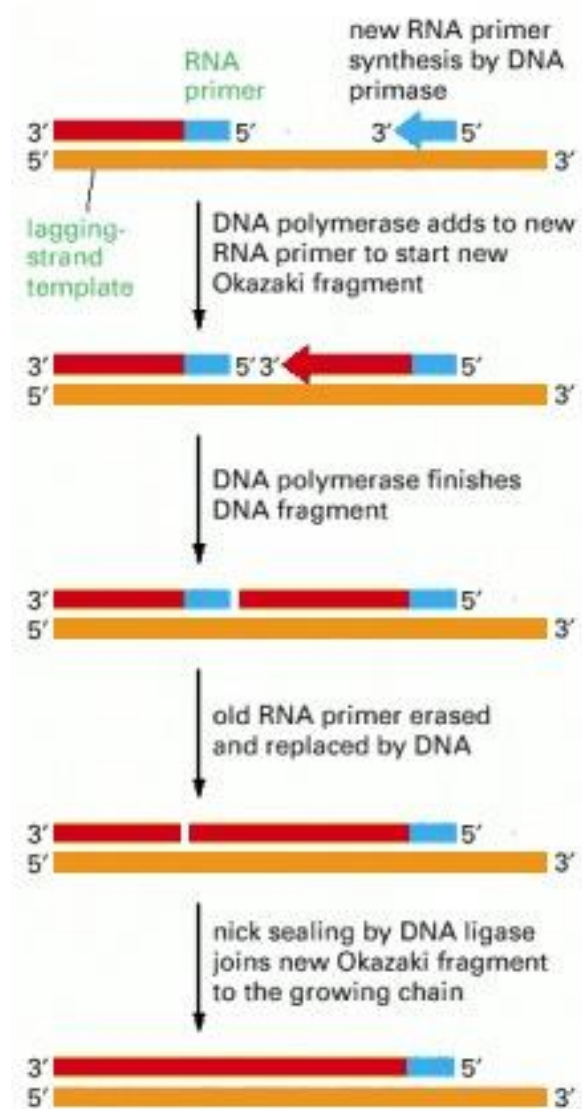
Origin of replication and initiation of DNA synthesis



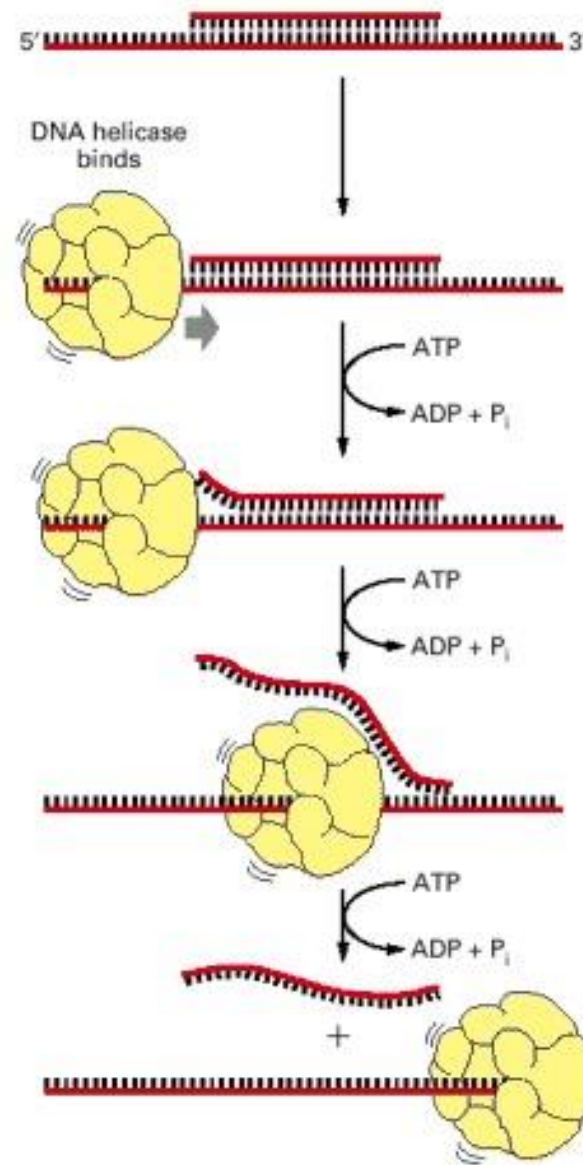
Short RNA primer synthesis by DNA primase



Lagging strand DNA synthesis



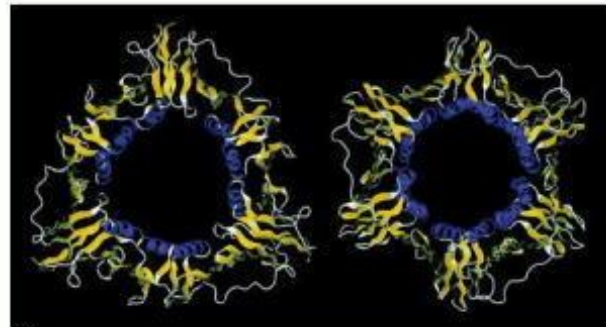
Strand displacement by DNA helicase



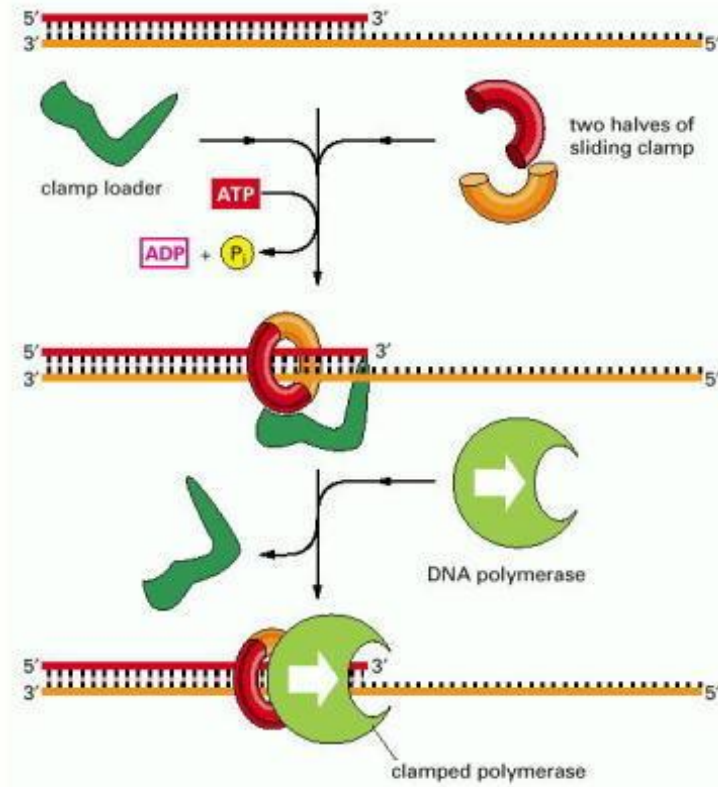
DNA synthesis by DNA polymerase



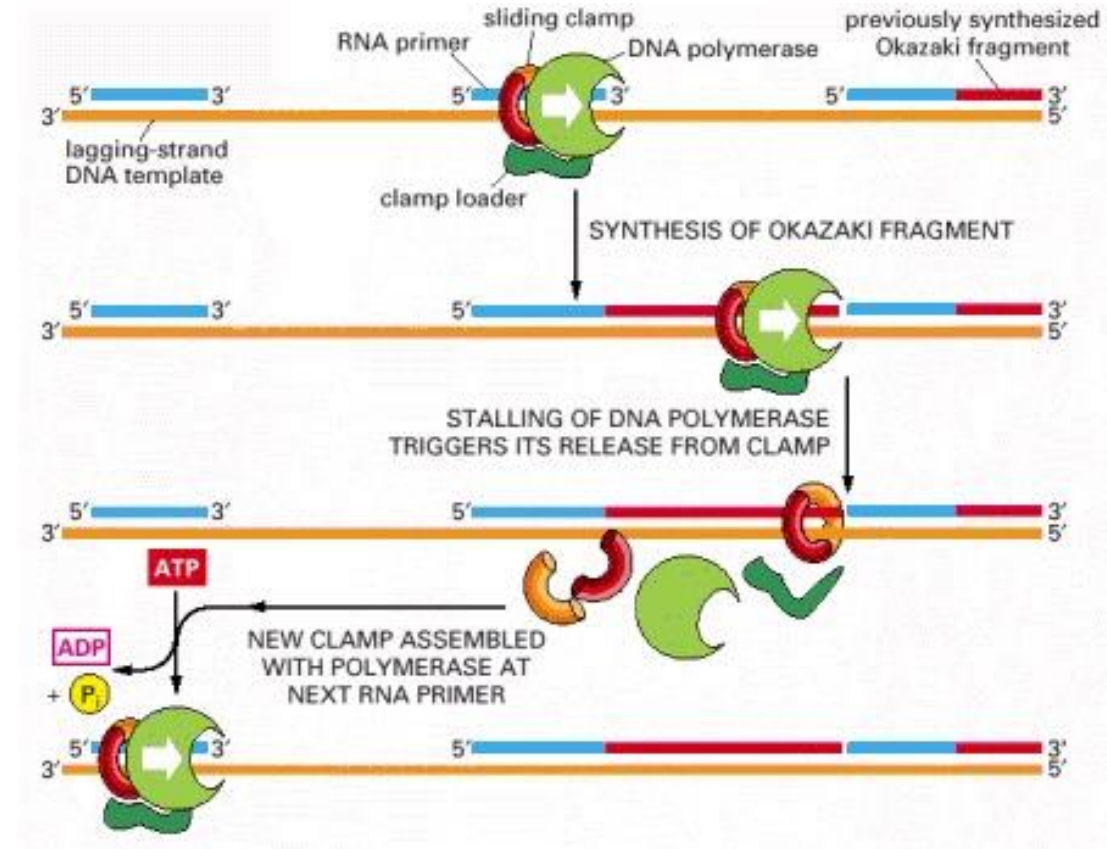
(A)



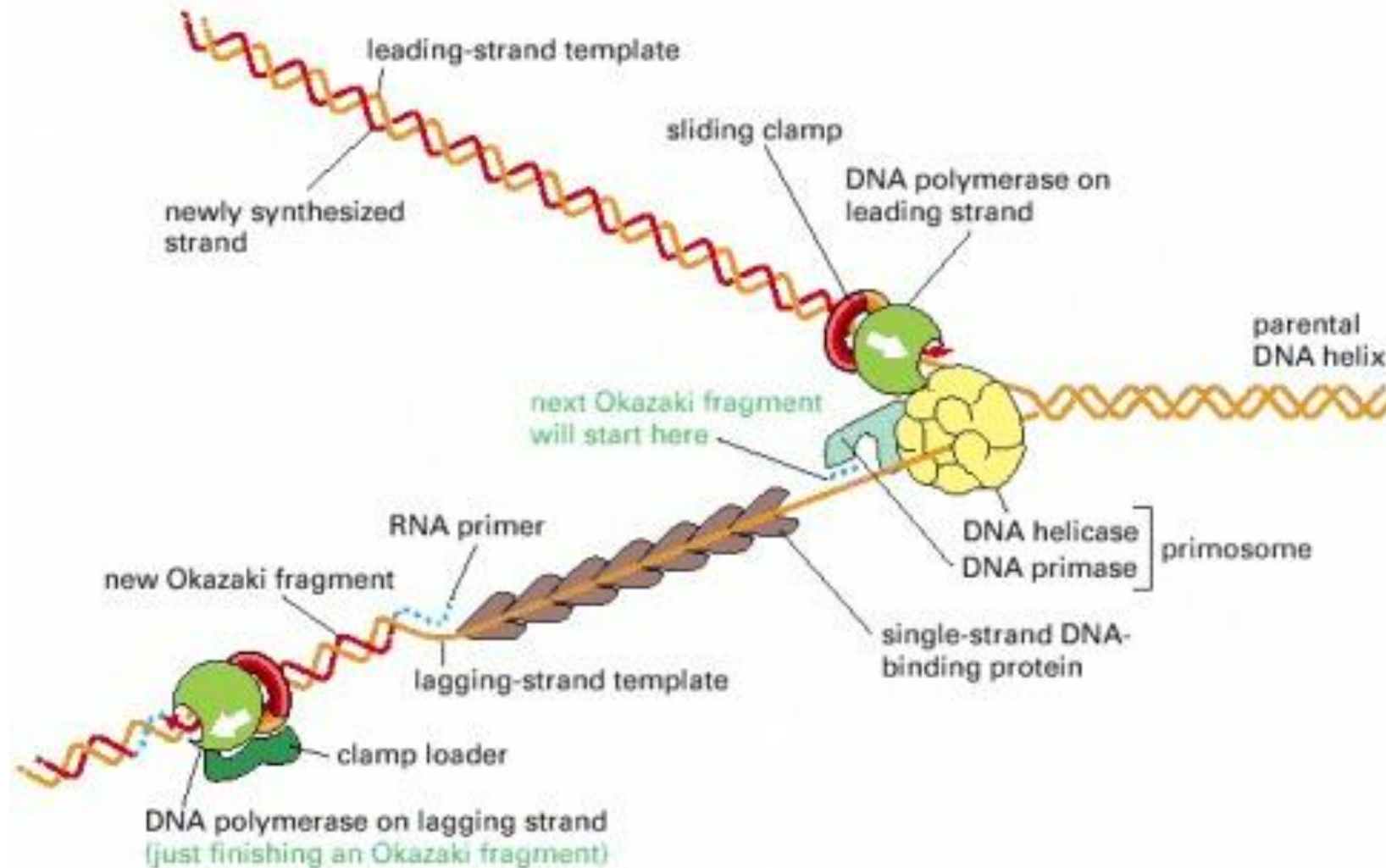
(B)



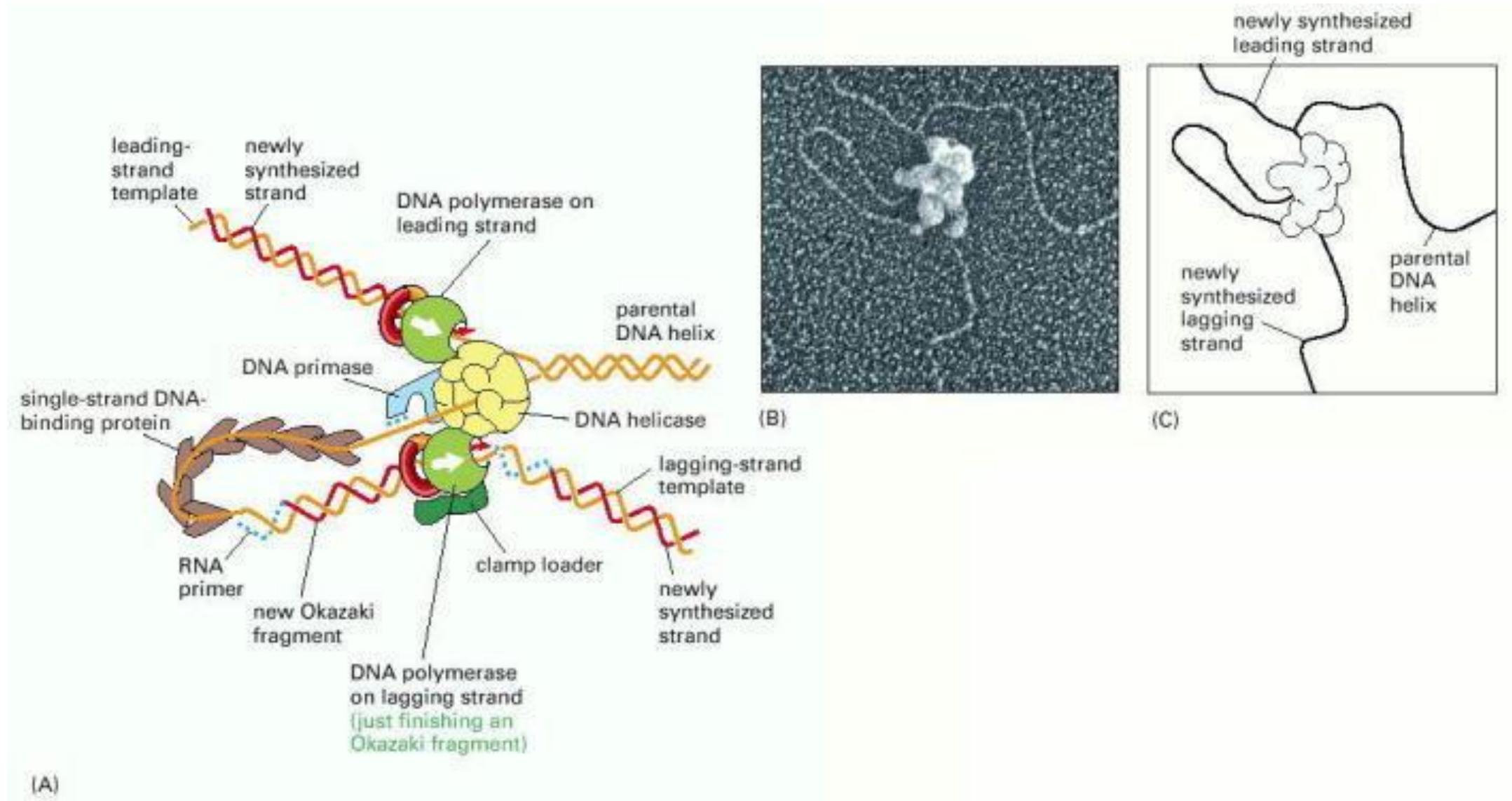
(C)



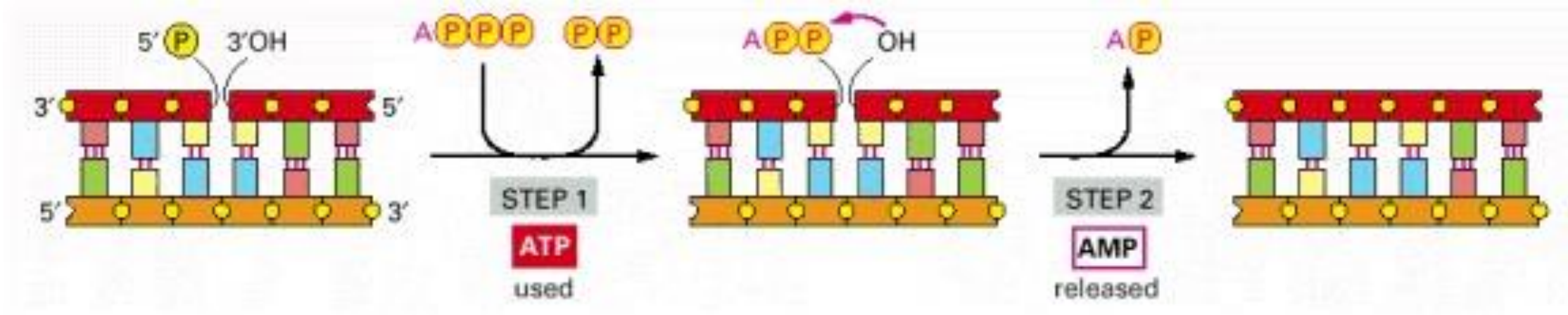
The complete replication fork



The complete replication fork

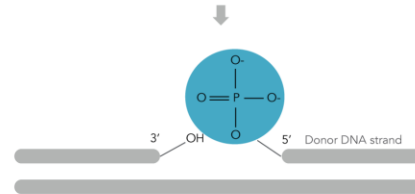


Strand ligation by DNA ligase

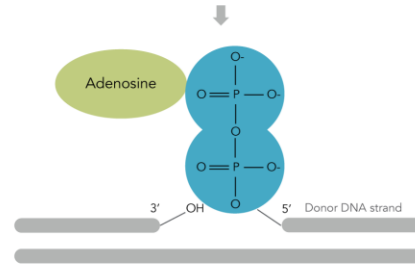


Step 1. DNA ligase self-adenylates

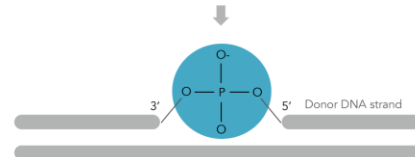
DNA ligase + ATP (or NAD⁺)



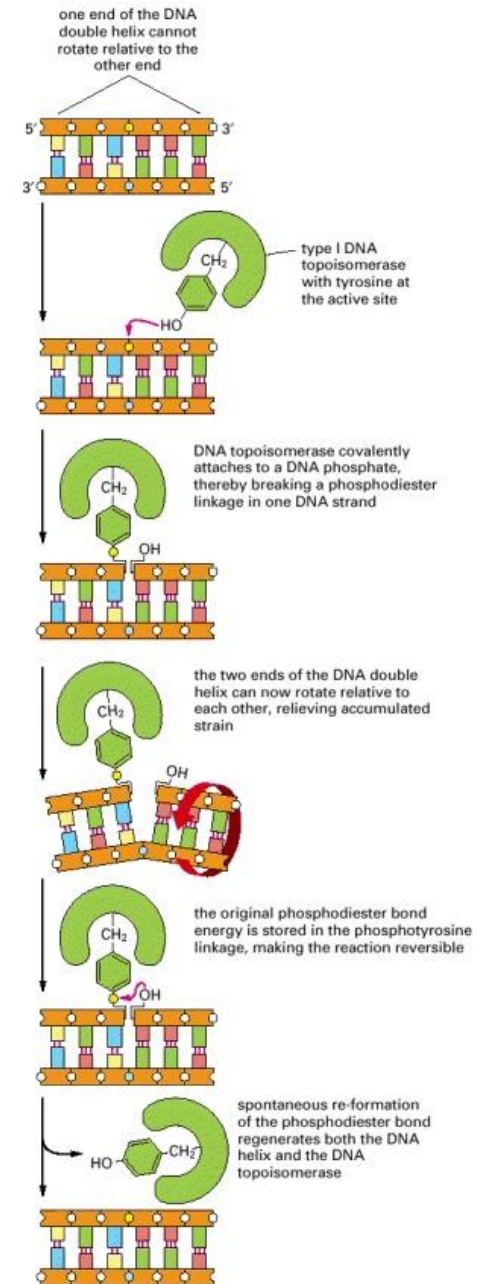
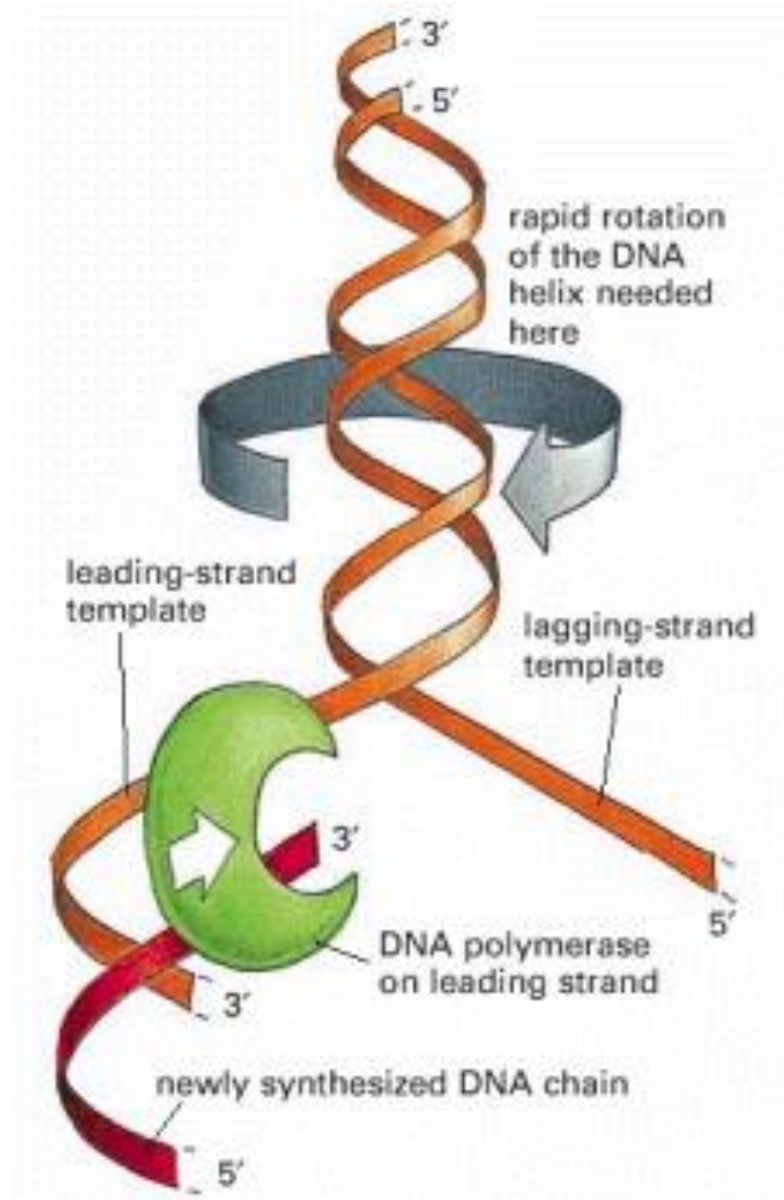
Step 2. Adenyl-group transfers to donor DNA



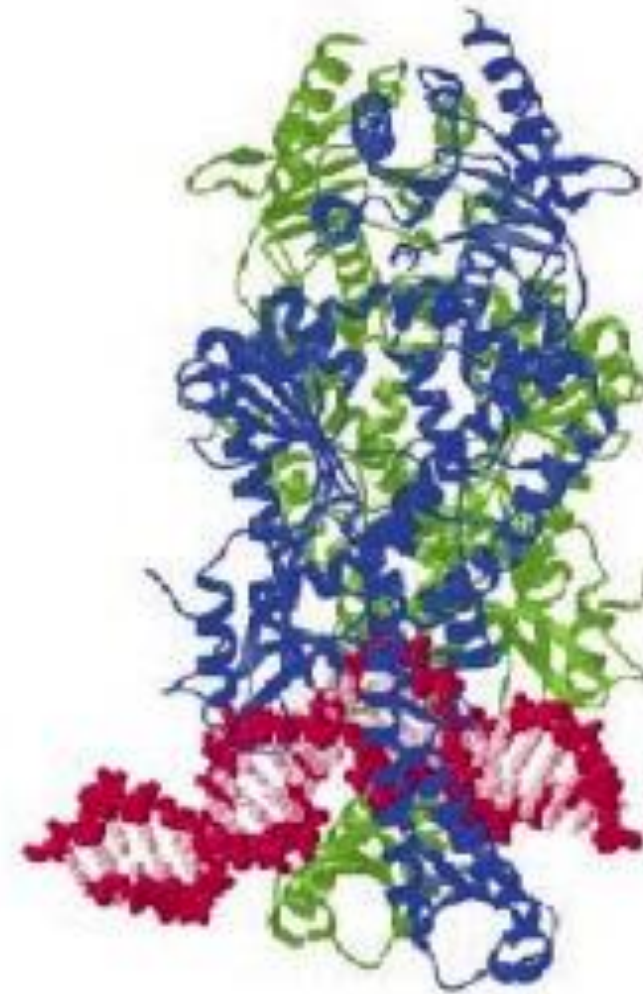
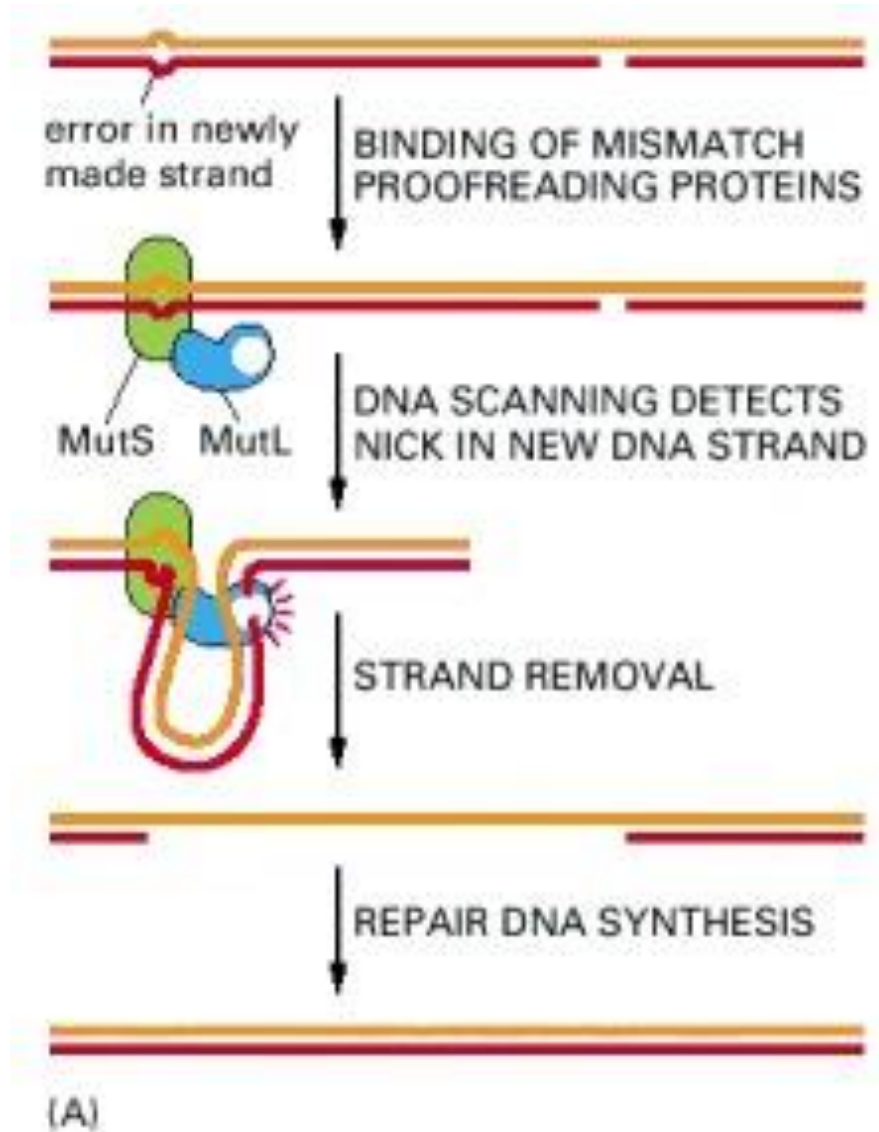
Step 3. Phosphodiester bond forms



DNA topoisomerases prevent “tangling” of DNA



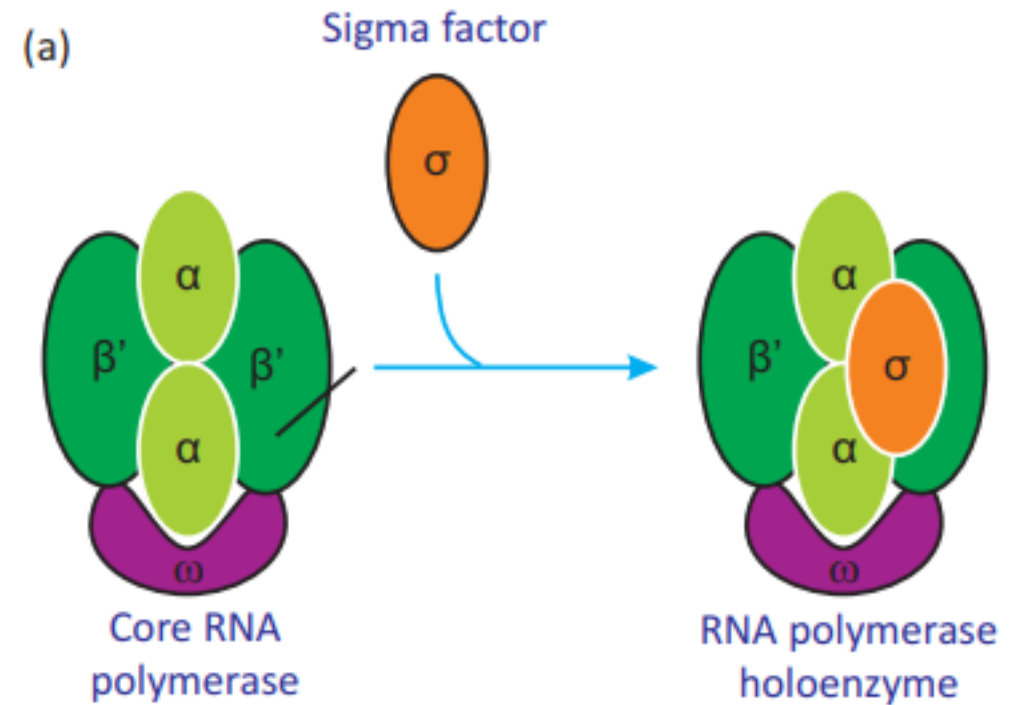
Strand-directed mismatch repair



Transcription

Prokaryotic

- RNA is synthesized by a single RNA polymerase enzyme which contains multiple polypeptide subunits.
- In *E. coli*, the RNA polymerase has subunits: two α , one β , one β' and one ω and σ subunit ($\alpha_2\beta\beta'\omega\sigma$). This complete enzyme is called as the **holoenzyme**.
- The **σ subunit may dissociate from the other subunits to leave a form known as the core enzyme.**

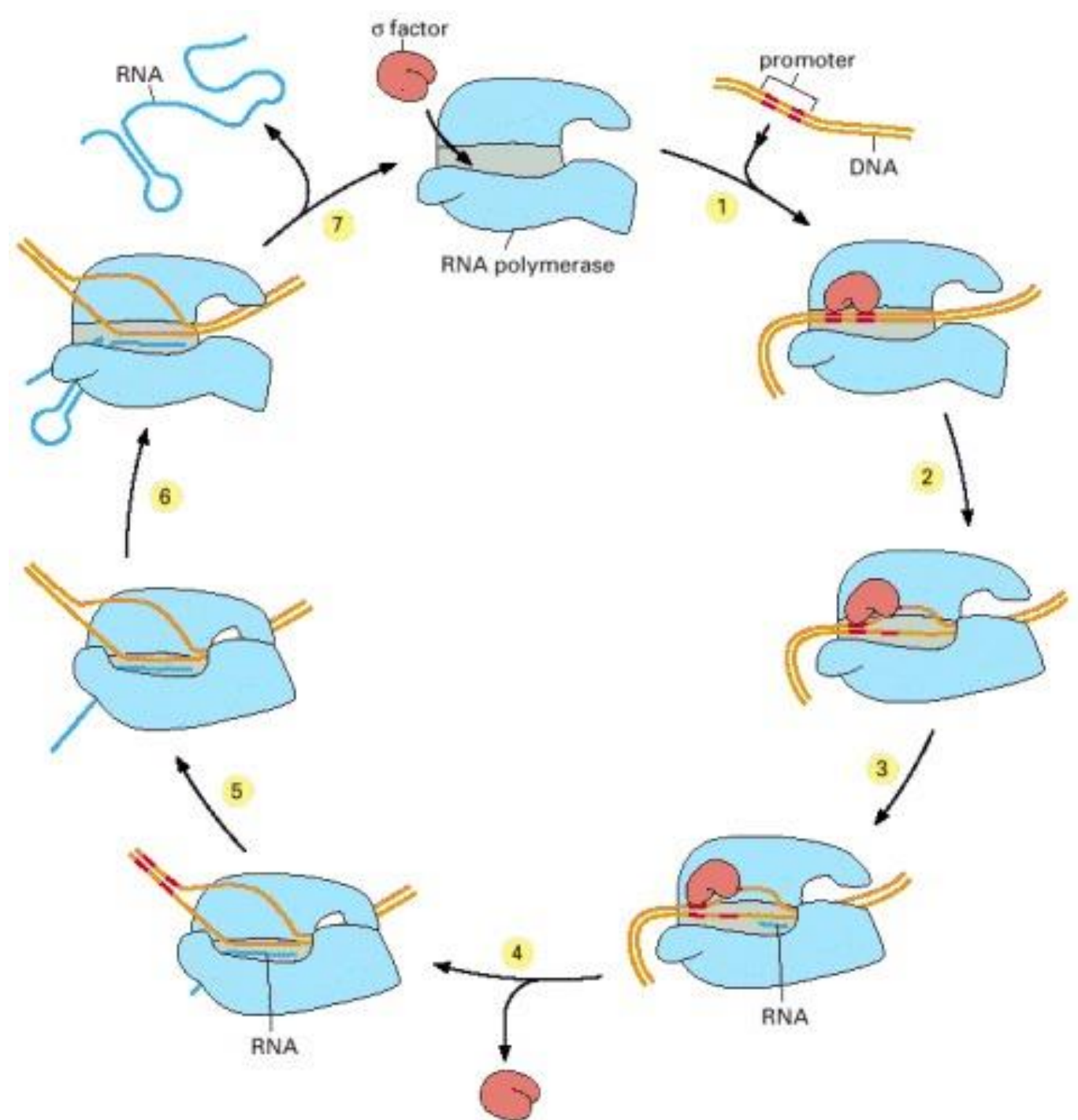


<u>Subunit</u>	<u>Size</u>	<u>#/Molecule</u>	<u>Function</u>
α	36.5 kD	2	chain initiation and interaction with regulatory proteins
β	151 kD	1	chain initiation and elongation
β'	155 kD	1	DNA binding
σ	70 kD	1	promoter recognition

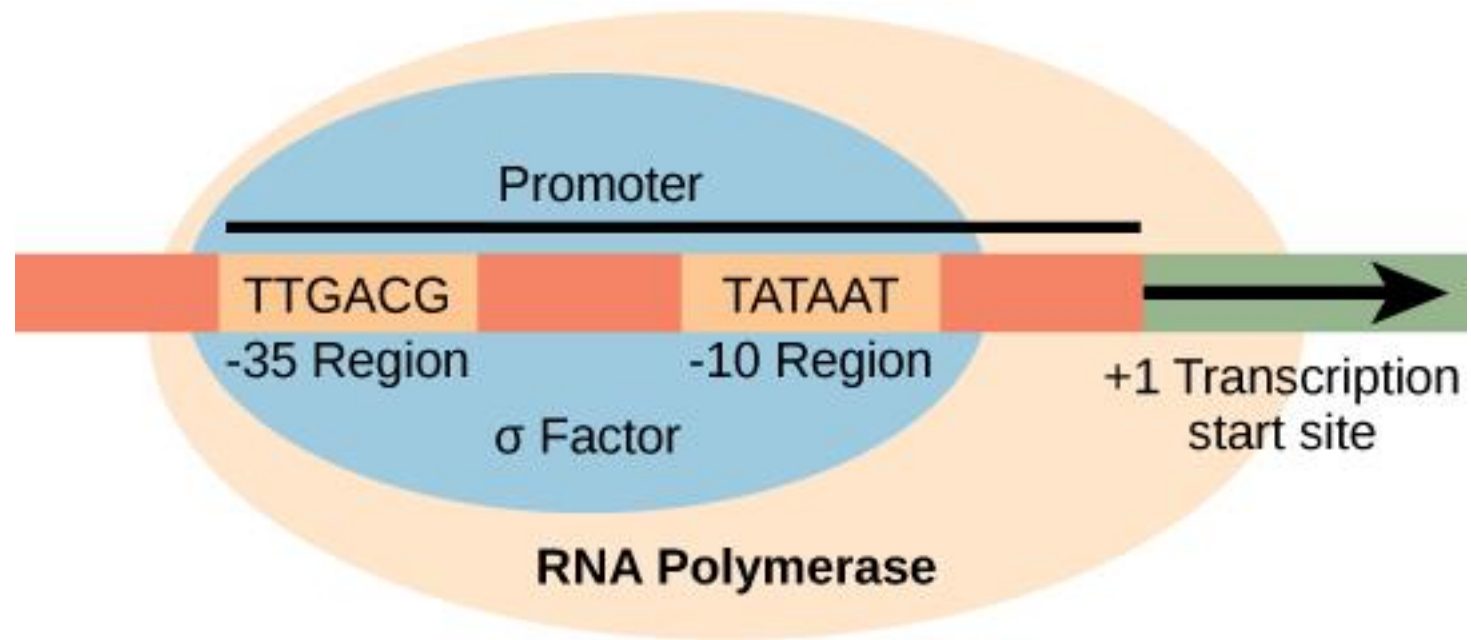
Transcription

Major steps:

- Initiation (1-3)
- Elongation (4-5)
- Termination (6-7)



Initiation



- The holoenzyme binds to a promoter region about 40–60 bp in size and then initiates transcription a short distance downstream (i.e. 3' to the promoter).
- Within the promoter lie two 6 base pair sequences that are particularly important for promoter function.
- They are highly conserved between species.
- Using the convention of calling the first nucleotide of a transcribed sequence as +1, these two promoter elements lie at positions –10 and –35, that is about 10 and 35 bp, respectively, upstream of where transcription will begin.
- The –10 sequence has the consensus **TATAAT**. Because this element was discovered by Pribnow, it is also known as the Pribnow box. It is an important recognition site that interacts with the σ factor of RNA polymerase.
- The –35 sequence has the consensus **TTGACA** and is important in DNA unwinding during transcriptional initiation.
- RNA polymerase does not need a primer to begin transcription; having bound to the promoter site, the RNA polymerase begins transcription directly.

E. coli sigma factors

Sigma factors recognize promoters by consensus sequences				
Gene	Factor	–35 Sequence	Separation	–10 Sequence
<i>rpoD</i>	σ^{70}	TTGACA	16–18 bp	TATAAT
<i>rpoH</i>	σ^{32}	CCCTTGAA	13–15 bp	CCCGATNT
<i>rpoN</i>	σ^{54}	CTGGNA	6 bp	TTGCA
<i>fliA</i>	σ^{28} (σ^F)	CTAAA	15 bp	GCCGATAA
<i>sigH</i>	σ^H	AGGANPuPu	11–12 bp	GCTGAATCA

FIGURE 11.34 *E. coli* sigma factors recognize promoters with different consensus sequences.

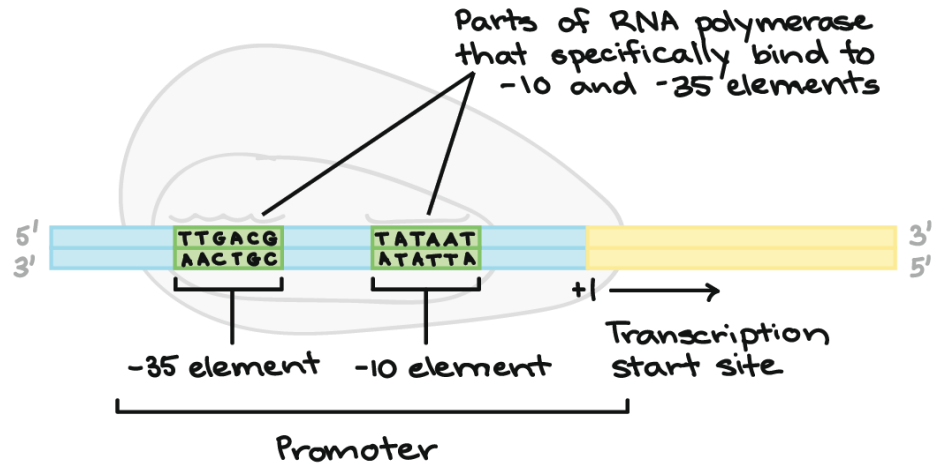
Sigma factors in Escherichia coli

Name ^a	Function
σ^{70} RpoD	For most genes, major sigma factor for normal growth
σ^{54} RpoN	Nitrogen assimilation
σ^{38} RpoS	Stationary phase, plus oxidative and osmotic stress
σ^{32} RpoH	Heat shock response
σ^{28} FliA	For genes involved in flagella synthesis
σ^{24} RpoE	Response to misfolded proteins in periplasm
σ^{19} FecI	For certain genes in iron transport

^aSuperscript number indicates size of protein in kilodaltons.

Promoters

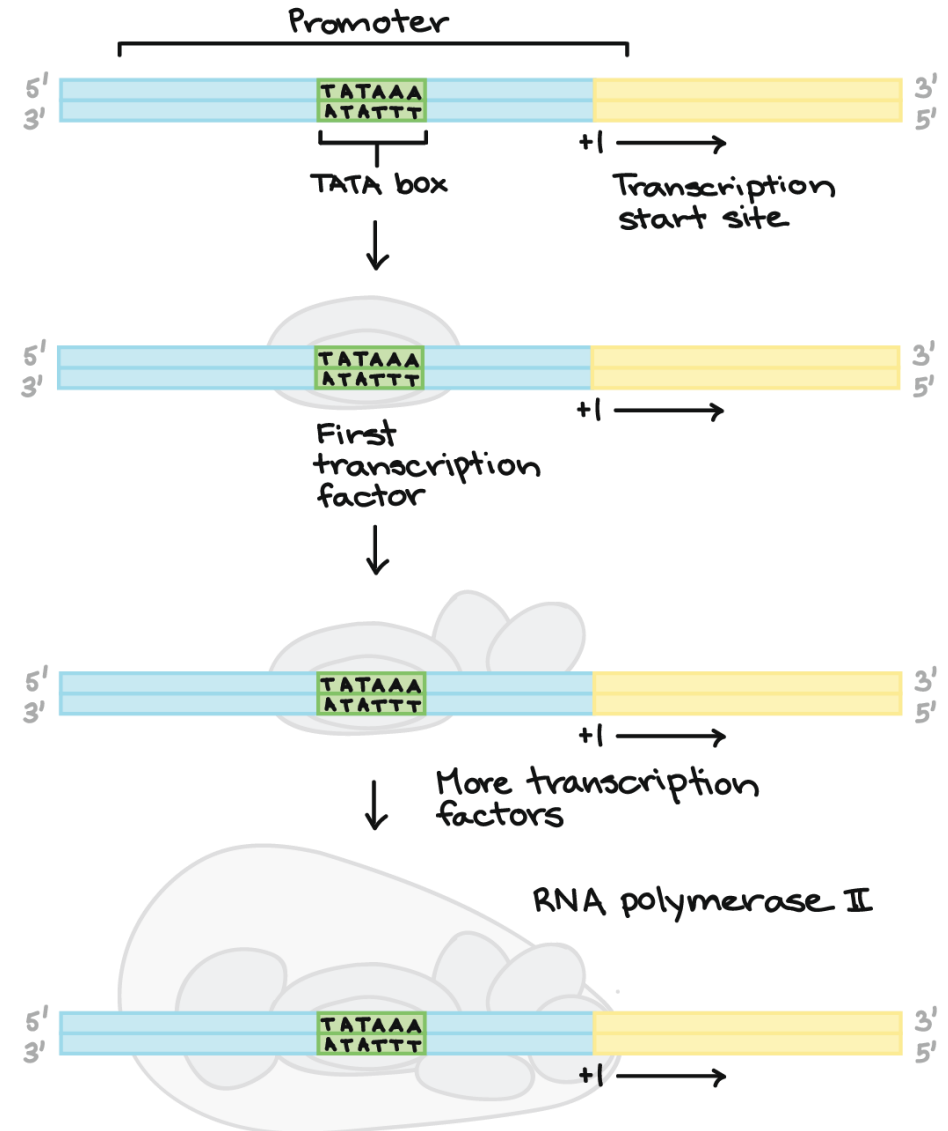
Prokaryotic



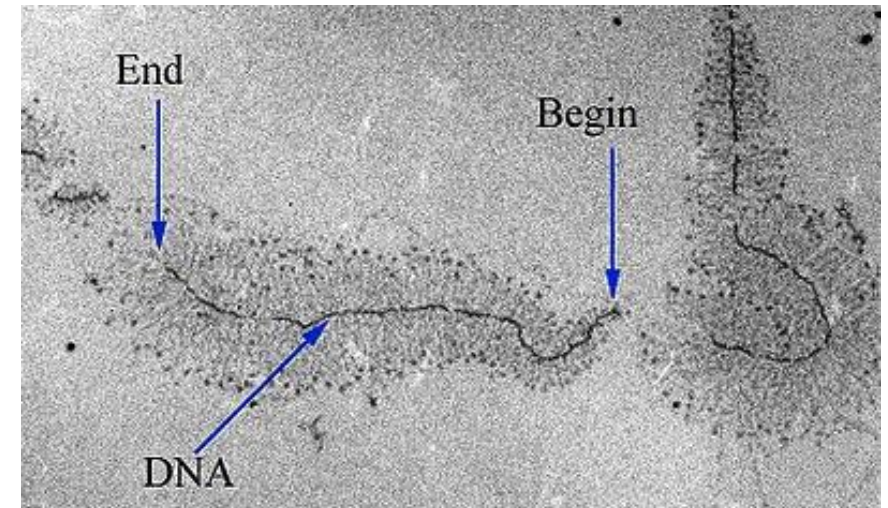
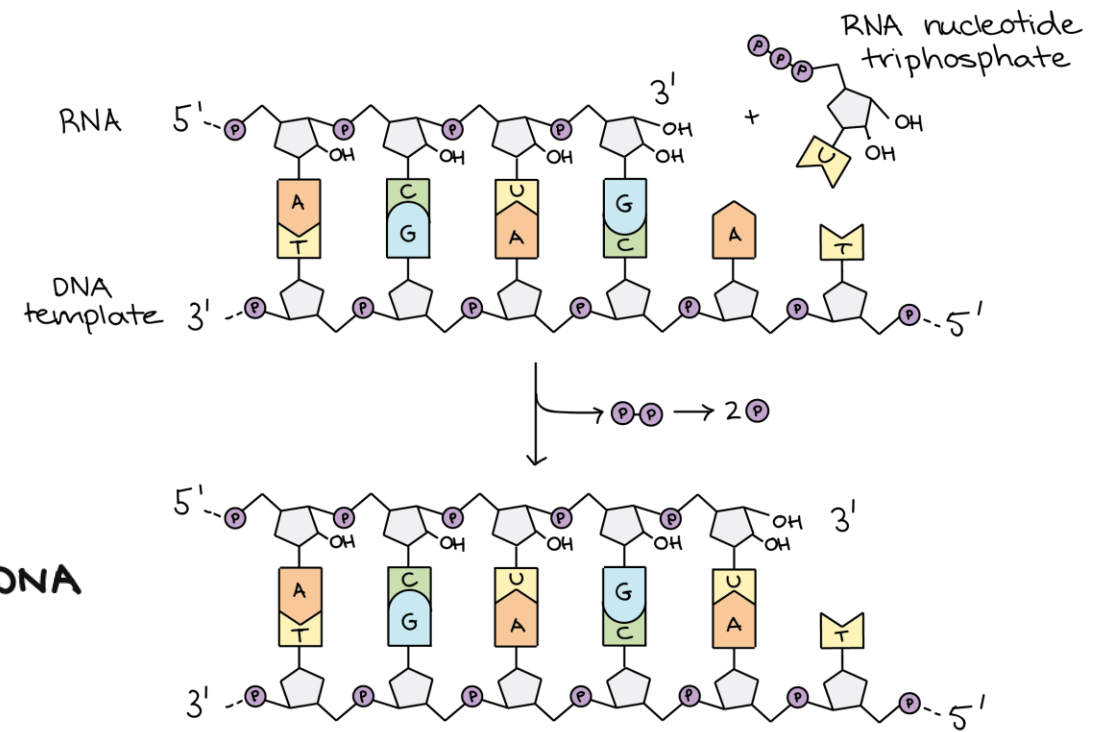
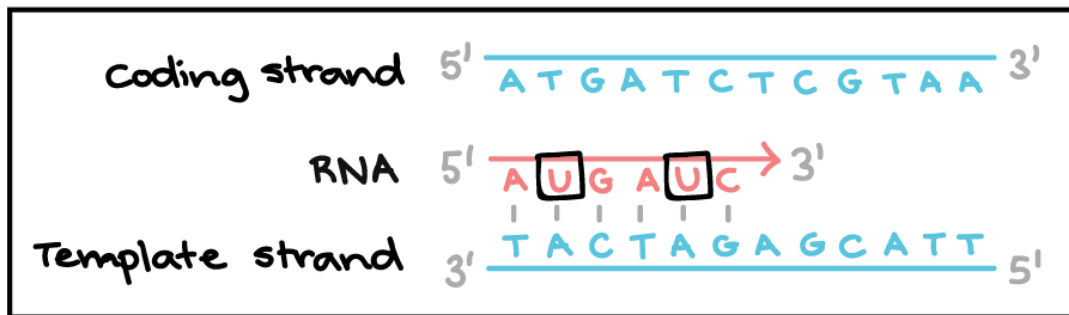
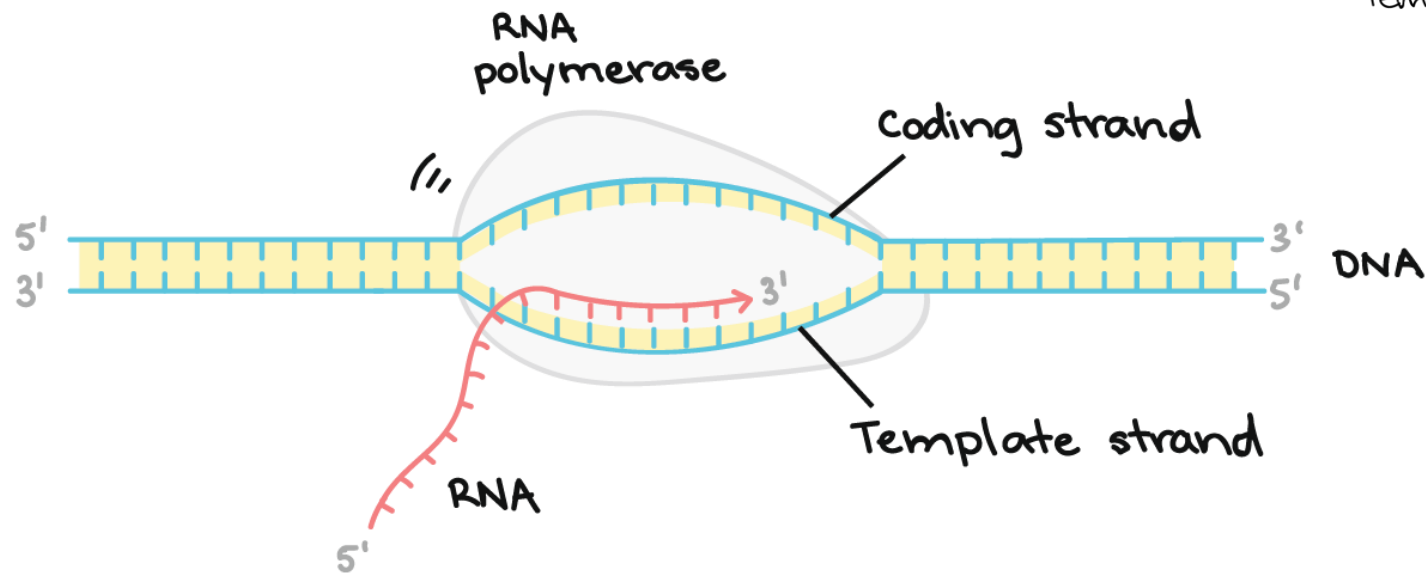
The promoter of bacteria consists of 3 – 4 consensus sequences:

- (i) **Pribnow box (-10 sequence)**
- (ii) **Recognition box (-35 sequence)**
- (iii) UP element.
- (iv) -10 extended box

Eukaryotic

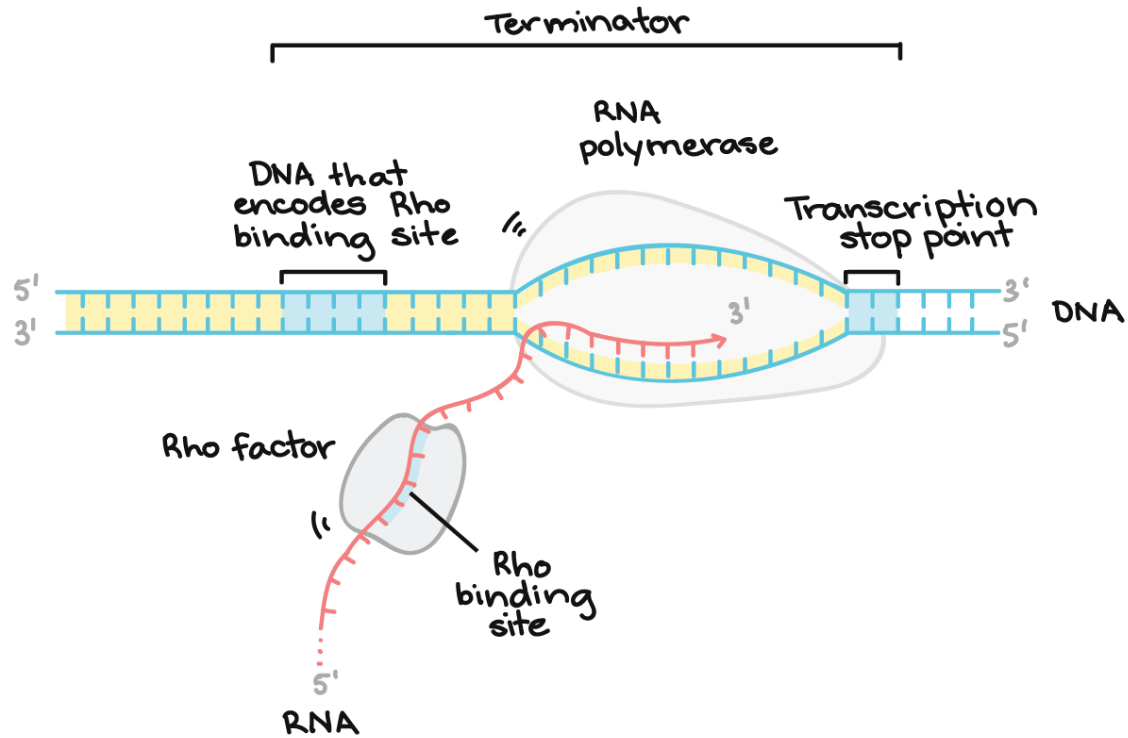


Elongation



Termination

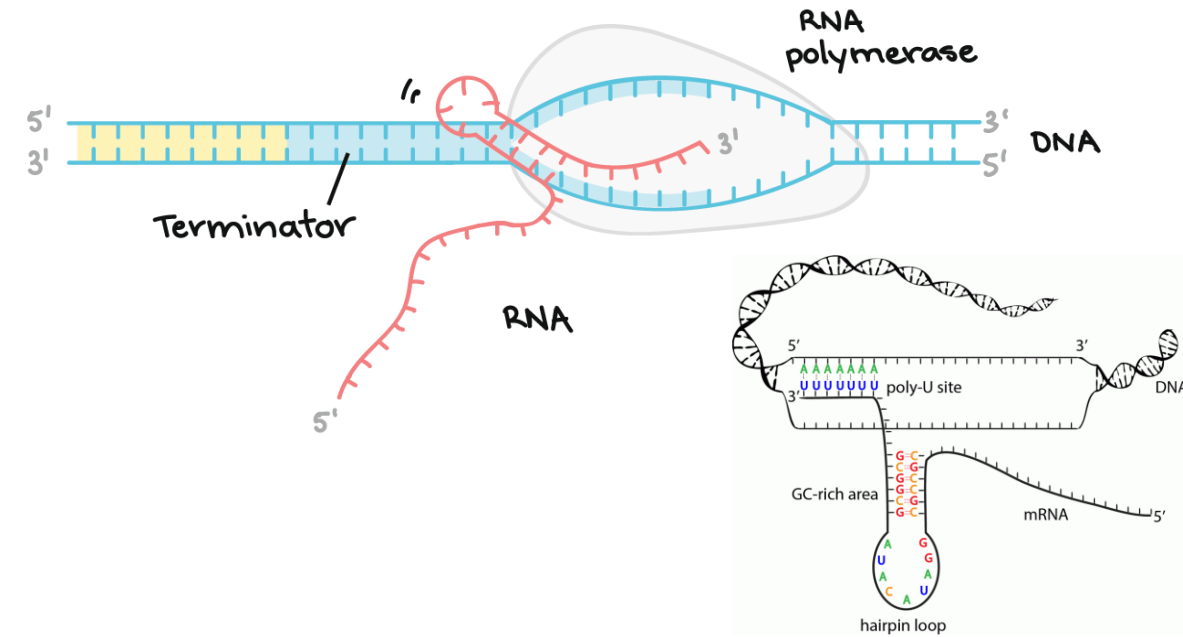
Rho-dependent



In **Rho-dependent termination**, the RNA contains a binding site for a protein called Rho factor. Rho factor binds to this sequence and starts "climbing" up the transcript towards RNA polymerase.

When it catches up with the polymerase at the transcription bubble, Rho pulls the RNA transcript and the template DNA strand apart, releasing the RNA molecule and ending transcription. Another sequence found later in the DNA, called the transcription stop point, causes RNA polymerase to pause and thus helps Rho catch up.

Rho-independent



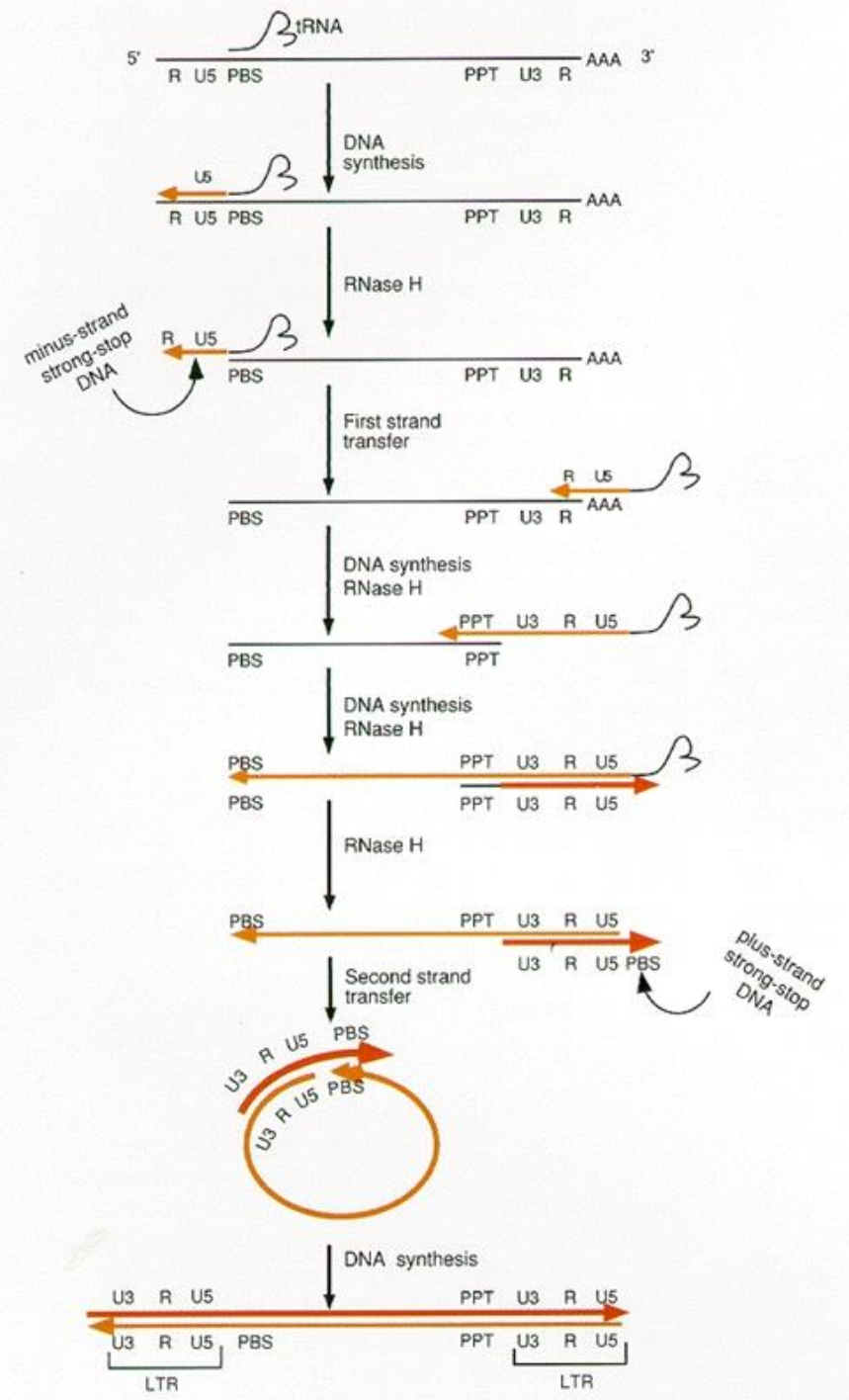
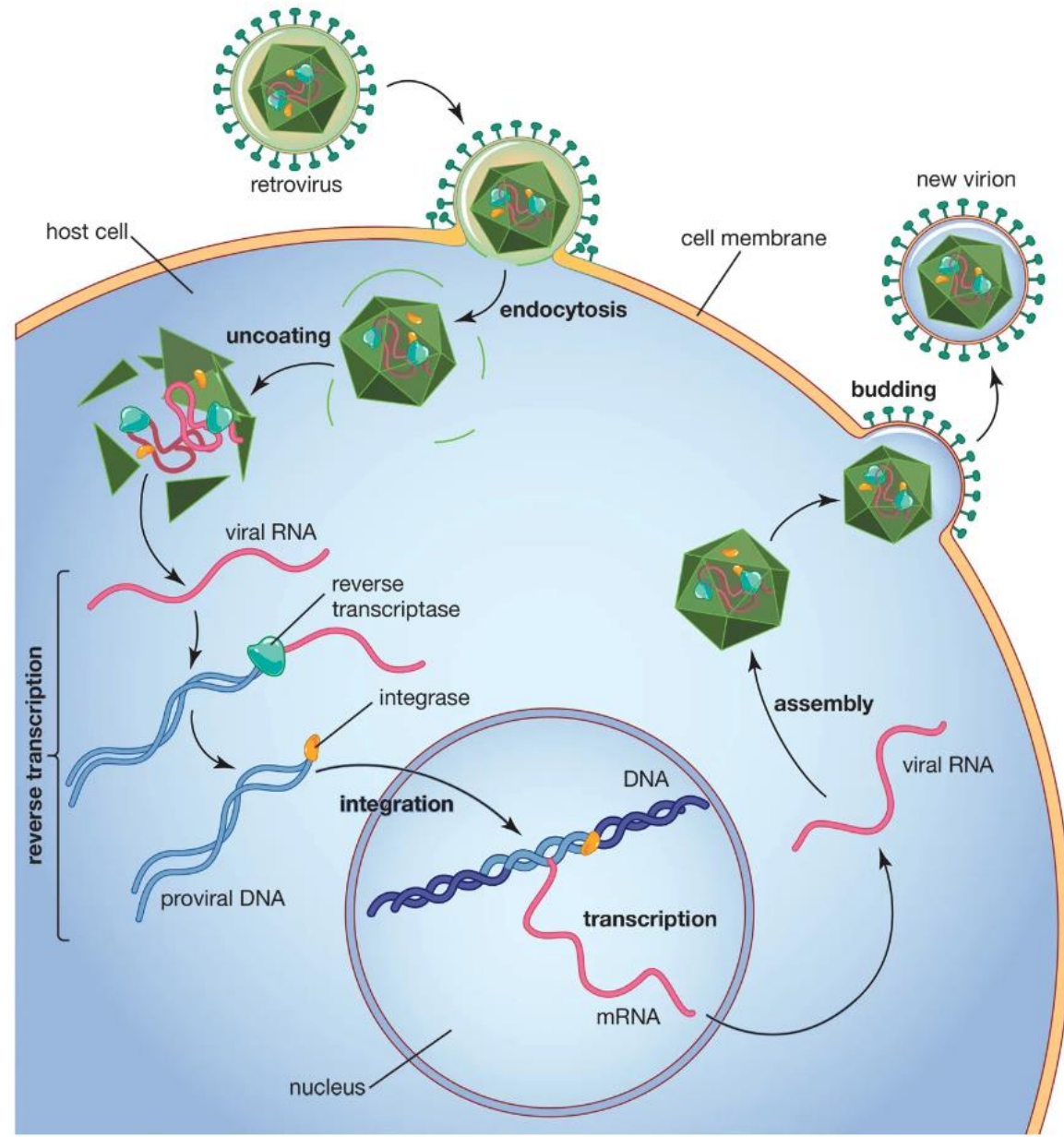
Rho-independent termination depends on specific sequences in the DNA template strand. As the RNA polymerase approaches the end of the gene being transcribed, it hits a region rich in C and G nucleotides. The RNA transcribed from this region folds back on itself, and the complementary C and G nucleotides bind together. The result is a stable hairpin that causes the polymerase to stall.

In a terminator, the hairpin is followed by a stretch of U nucleotides in the RNA, which match up with A nucleotides in the template DNA. The complementary U-A region of the RNA transcript forms only a weak interaction with the template DNA. This, coupled with the stalled polymerase, produces enough instability for the enzyme to fall off and liberate the new RNA transcript.

Reverse-Transcription

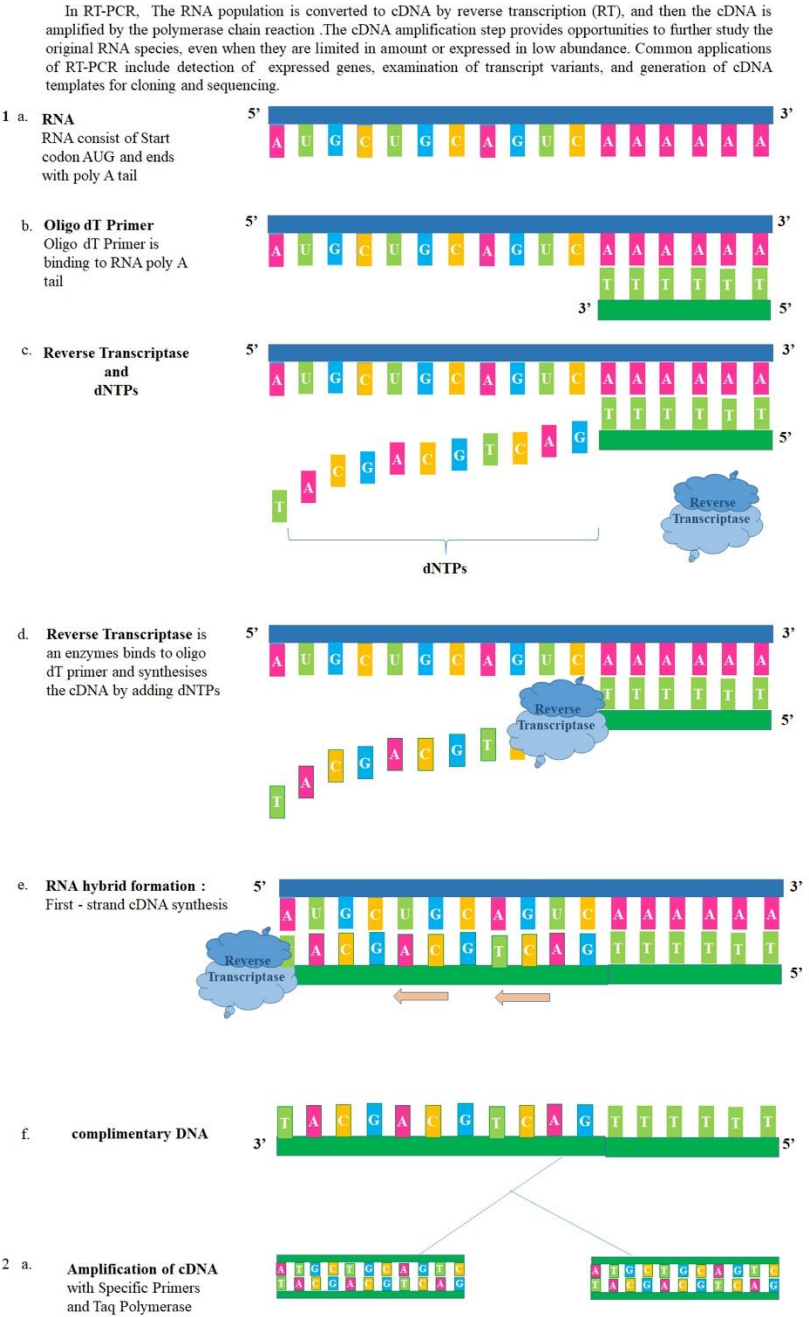
Reverse-transcription

Retrovirus infection and reverse transcription



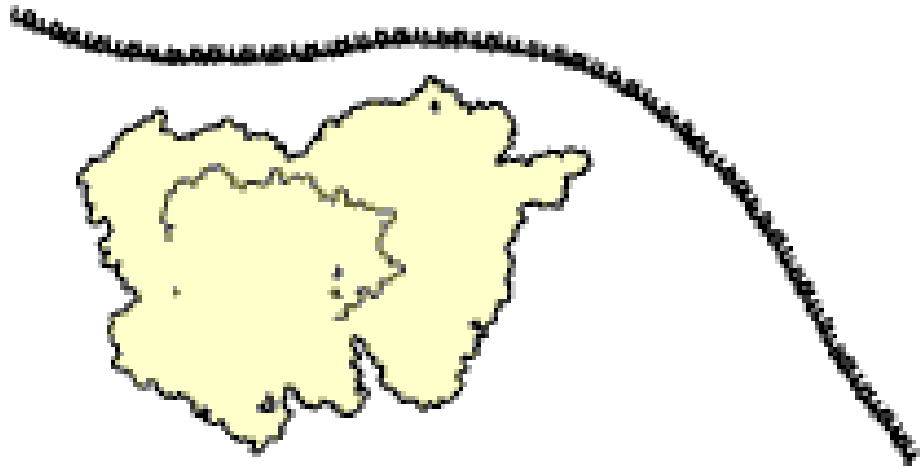
RT-PCR

4.8 Reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR)

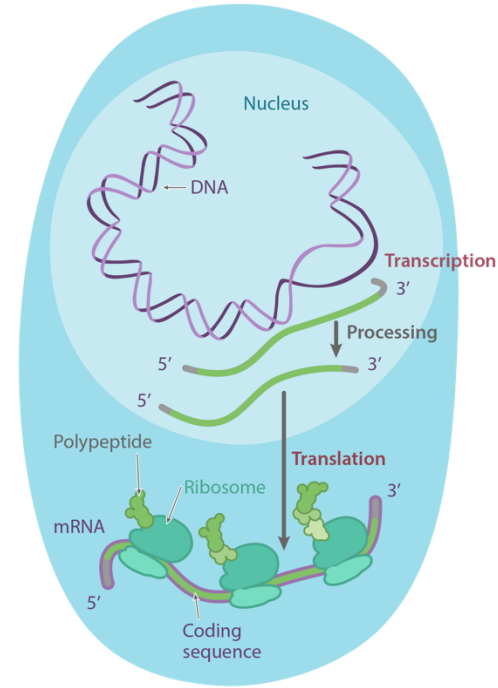


Translation

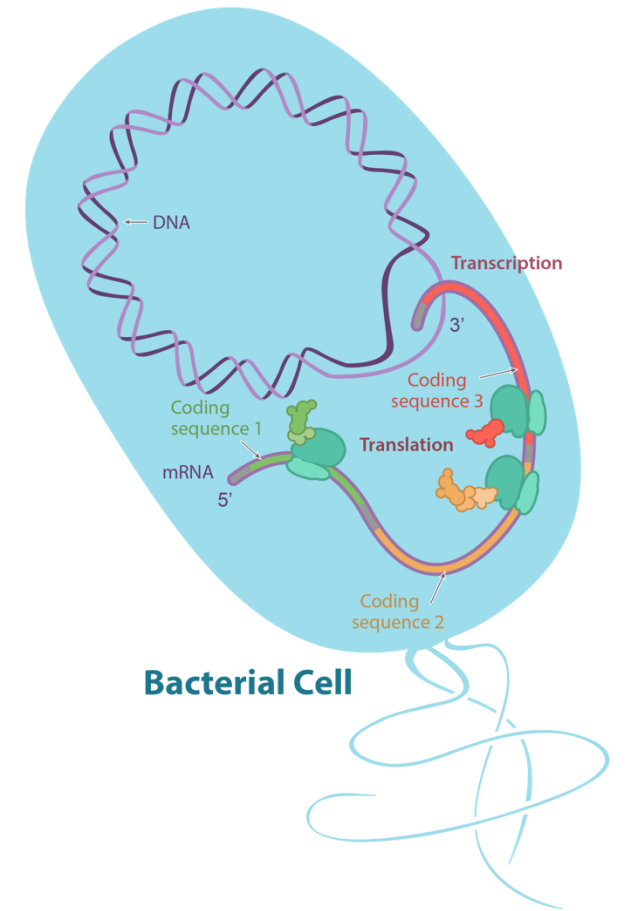
Translation



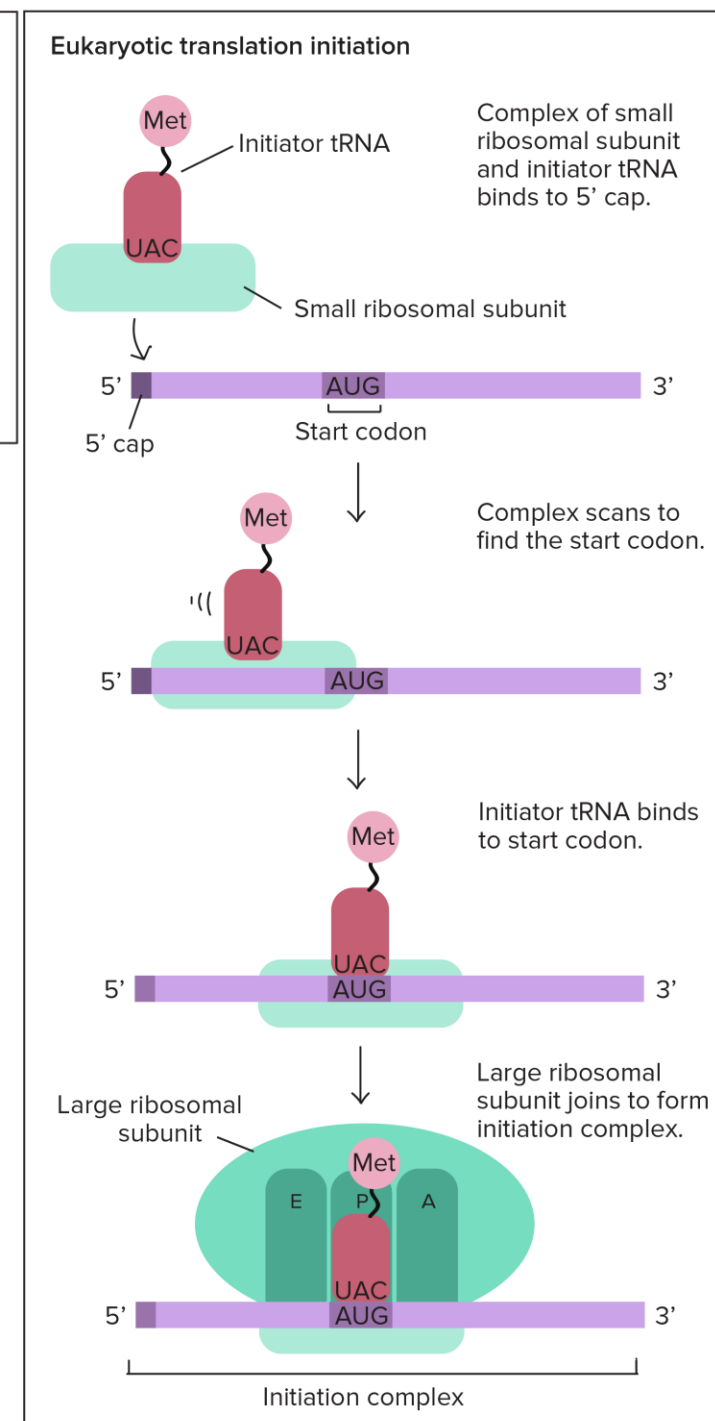
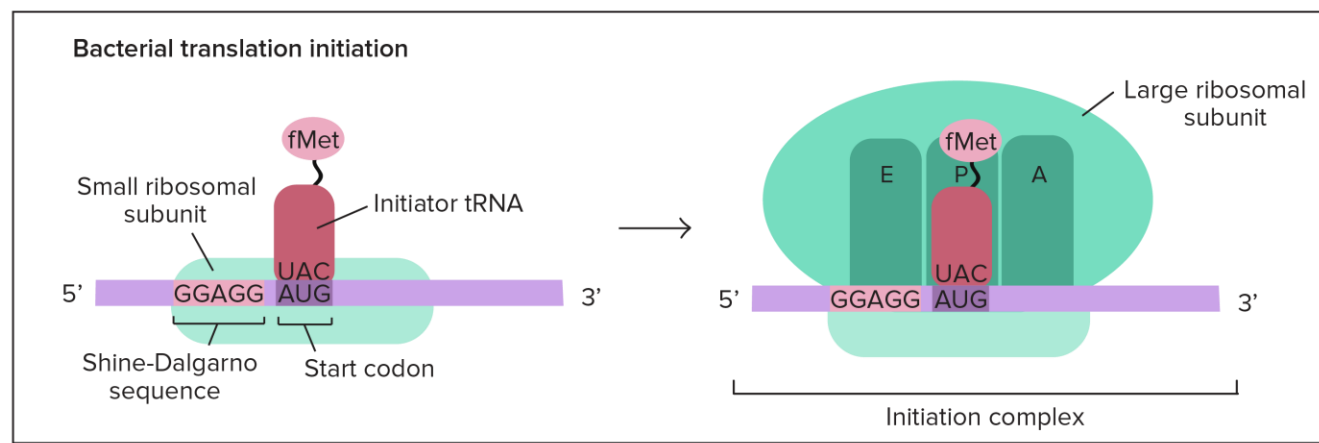
Eukaryotic Cell



Bacterial Cell



Initiation



In order for translation to start, we need a few key ingredients:

- A ribosome (which comes in two pieces, large and small)
- An mRNA with instructions for the protein we'll build
- An "initiator" tRNA carrying the first amino acid in the protein, which is almost always methionine (Met)

During initiation, these pieces must come together in just the right way. Together, they form the **initiation complex**, the molecular setup needed to start making a new protein.

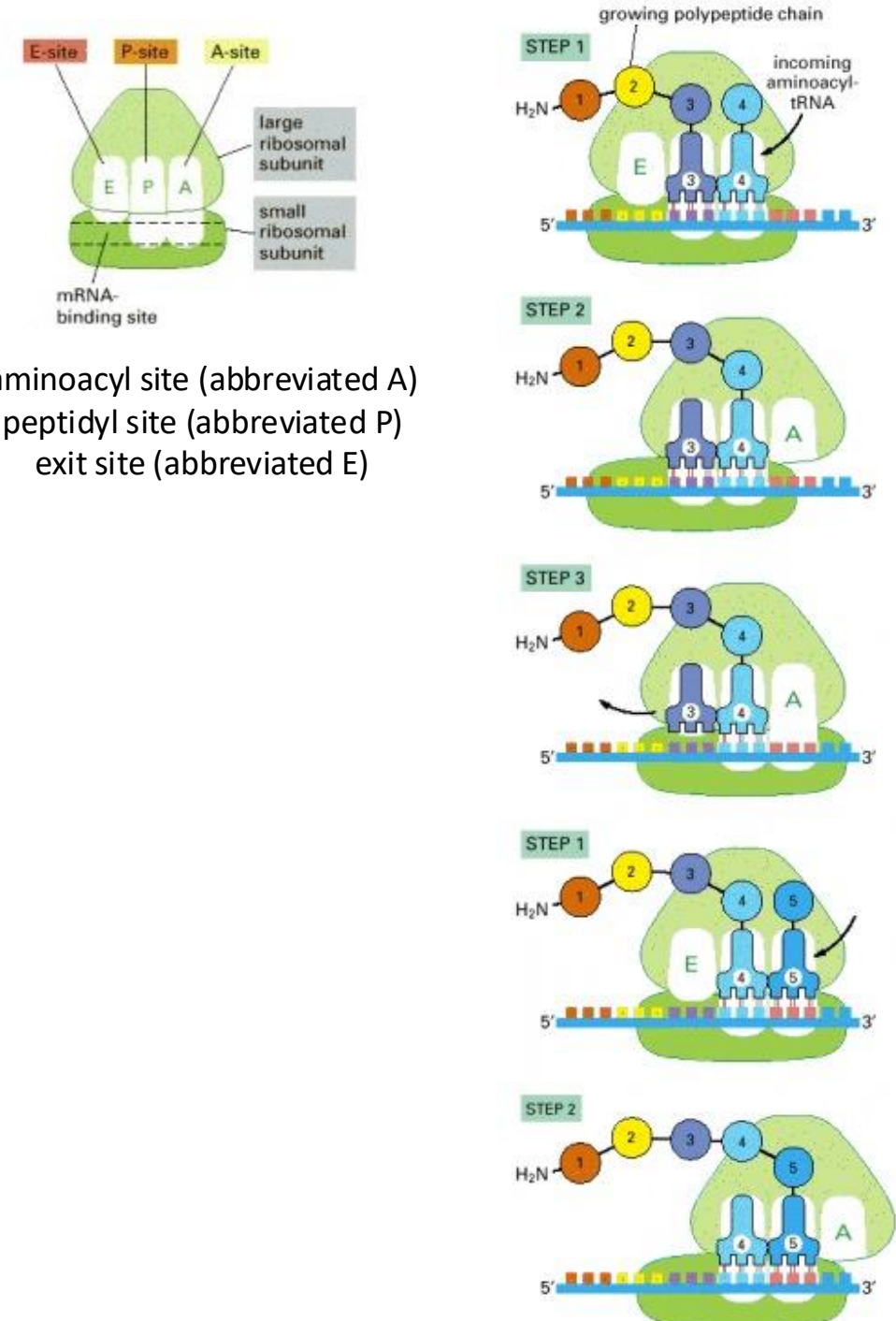
Eukaryotes: first, the tRNA carrying methionine attaches to the small ribosomal subunit. Together, they bind to the 5' end of the mRNA by recognizing the 5' GTP cap (added during processing in the nucleus). Then, they "walk" along the mRNA in the 3' direction, stopping when they reach the start codon (often, but not always, the first AUG).

Prokaryotes: the small ribosomal subunit doesn't start at the 5' end of the mRNA and travel toward the 3' end. Instead, it attaches directly to certain sequences in the mRNA. These **Shine-Dalgarno** sequences come just before start codons and "point them out" to the ribosome.

Elongation

An aminoacyl-tRNA molecule binds to a vacant A-site on the [ribosome](#) in step 1, a new [peptide bond](#) is formed in step 2, and the mRNA moves a distance of three nucleotides through the small-[subunit](#) chain in step 3, ejecting the spent tRNA molecule and “resetting” the ribosome so that the next aminoacyl-tRNA molecule can bind. Although the figure shows a large movement of the small ribosome subunit relative to the large subunit, the conformational changes that actually take place in the ribosome during **translation** are more subtle. It is likely that they involve a series of small rearrangements within each subunit as well as several small shifts between the two subunits. As indicated, the mRNA is translated in the 5'-to-3' direction, and the N-terminal end of a **protein** is made first, with each cycle adding one amino acid to the C-terminus of the polypeptide chain. The position at which the growing peptide chain is attached to a tRNA does not change during the elongation cycle: it is always linked to the tRNA present in the P site of the large subunit.

Synthesis rate: 20 AAs / s (in bacteria)

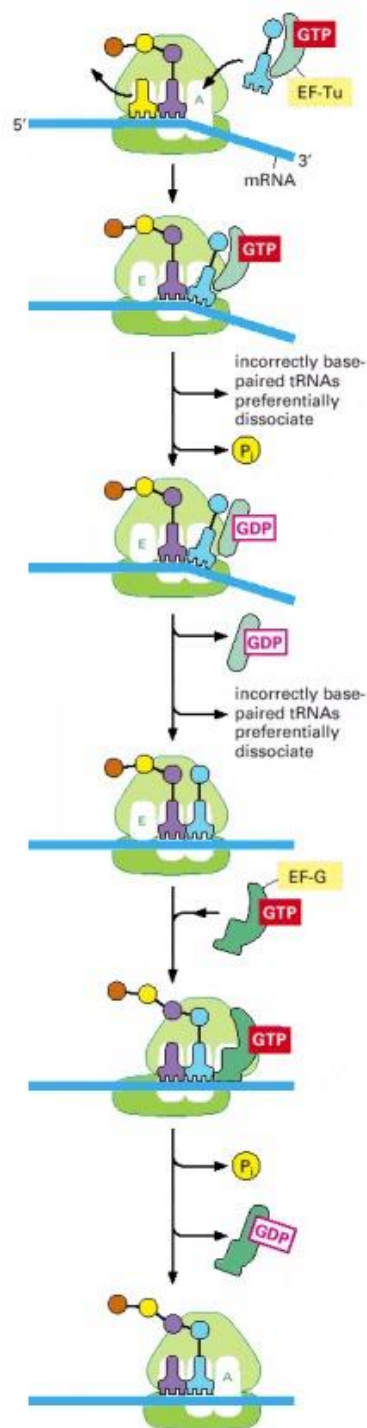


Elongation Factors

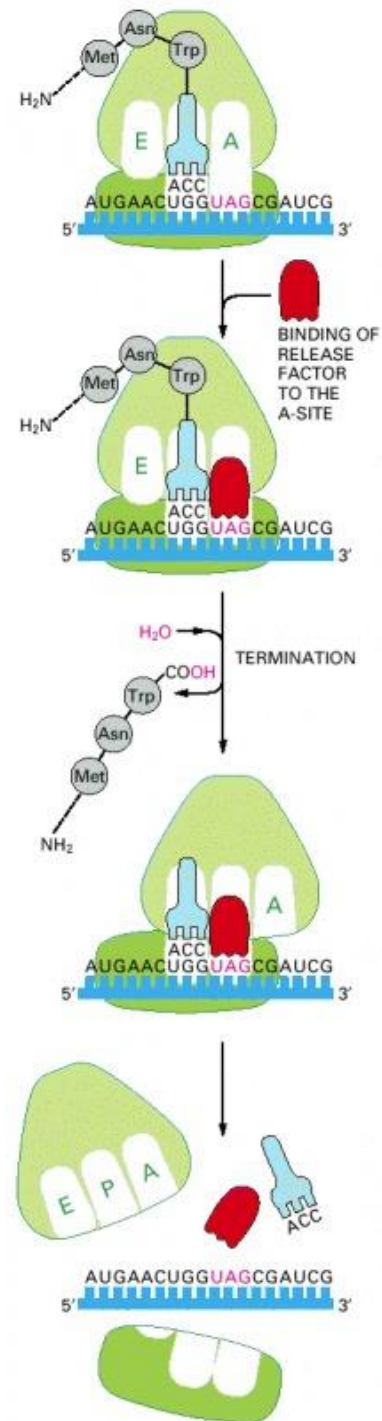
Elongation factors help move translation forwards.

EF-Tu delivers tRNAs to the ribosome.

EF-Tu is also thought to increase accuracy of translation.

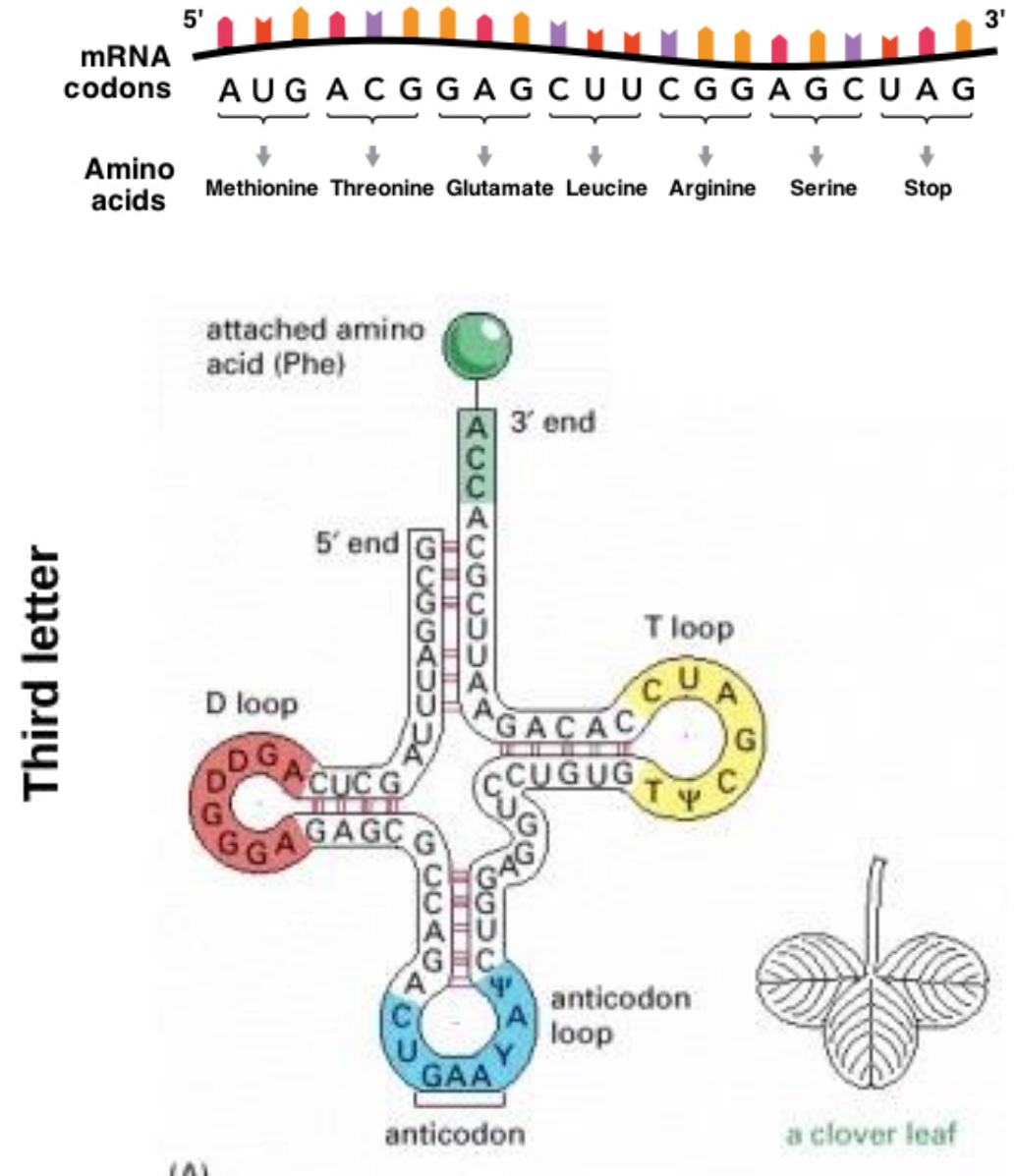


Termination

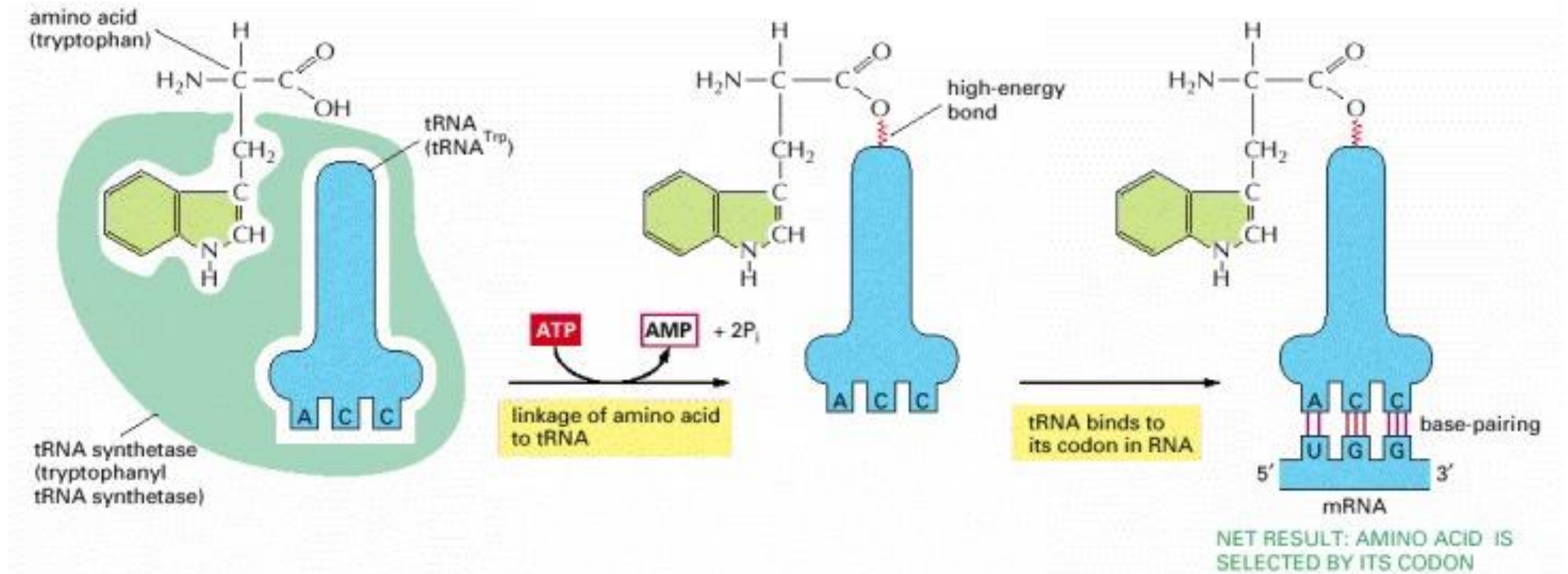


The Genetic Code

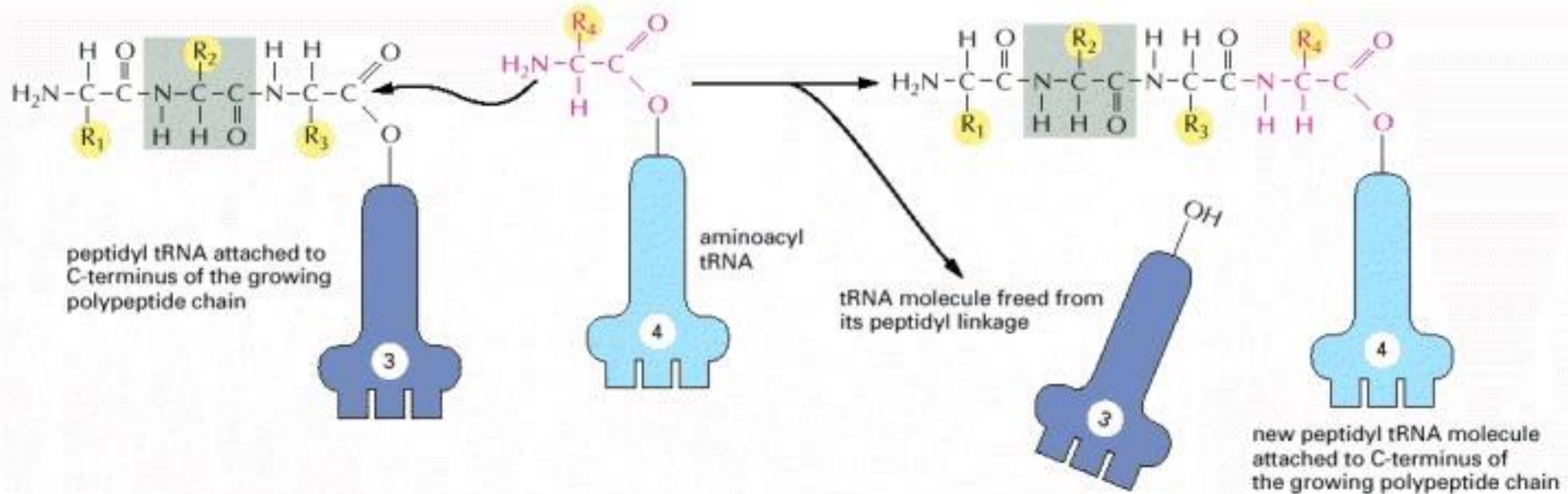
		Second letter			
		U	C	A	G
First letter	U	UUU } Phe UUC } UUA } Leu UUG }	UCU } UCC } Ser UCA } UCG }	UAU } Tyr UAC } UAA Stop UAG Stop	UGU } Cys UGC } UGA Stop UGG Trp
	C	CUU } CUC } Leu CUA } CUG }	CCU } CCC } Pro CCA } CCG }	CAU } His CAC } CAA } Gln CAG }	CGU } CGC } Arg CGA } CGG }
	A	AUU } Ile AUC } AUA } AUG Met	ACU } ACC } Thr ACA } ACG }	AAU } Asn AAC } AAA } Lys AAG }	AGU } Ser AGC } AGA } Arg AGG }
	G	GUU } Val GUC } GUA } GUG }	GCU } GCC } Ala GCA } GCG }	GAU } Asp GAC } GAA } Glu GAG }	GGU } GGC } Gly GGA } GGG }



The Genetic Code (aaRS)



Elongation



Start and Stop Codons

Start Codon

AUG (ATG on DNA)

Codes for:

- Methionine (eukaryotes)
- Formylmethionine (bacteria, archea, mitochondria)

Stop Codons

UAG: amber

UGA: opal

UAA: ochre

Not recognized by a tRNA but by proteins called release factors.

Bacterial release factors

Class 1:

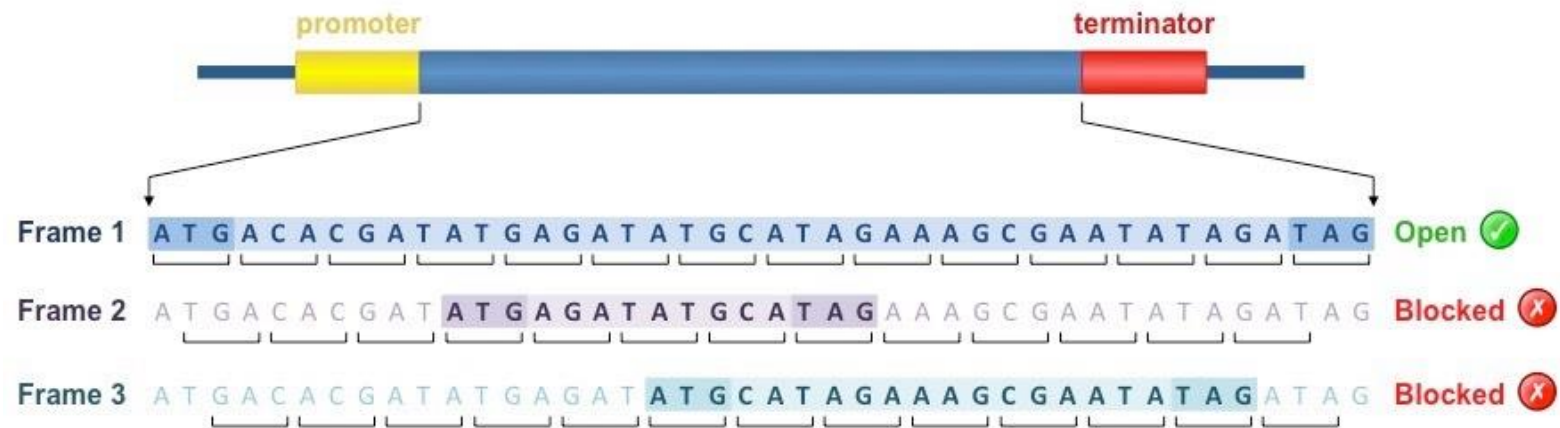
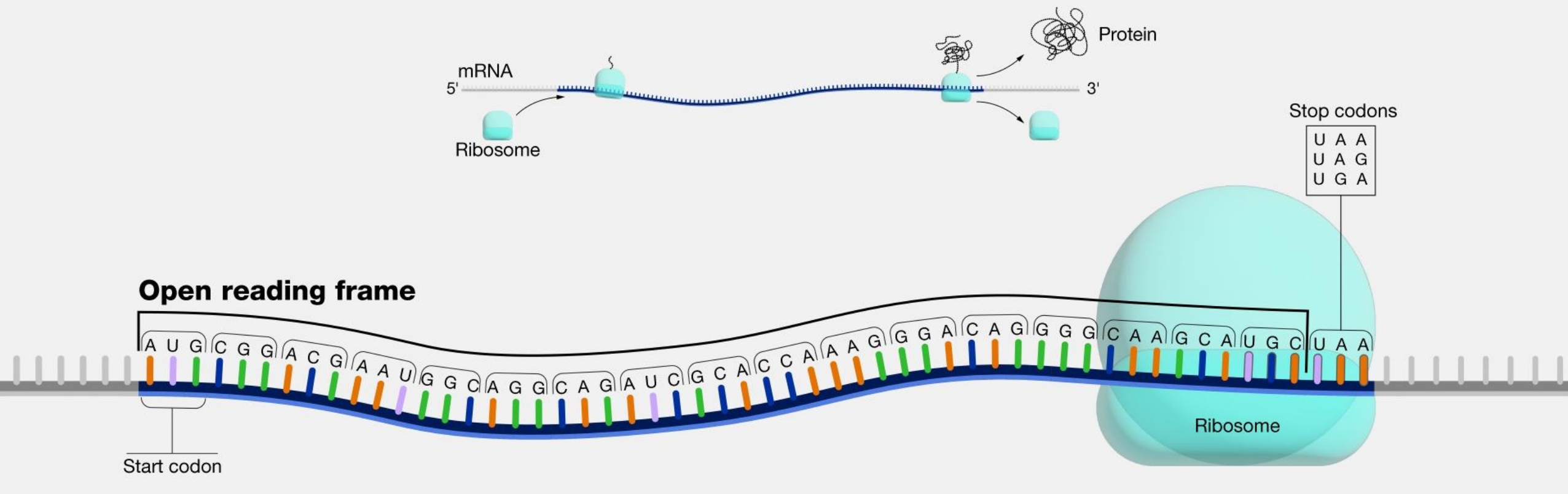
RF1 -> UAA and UAG

RF2 -> UAA

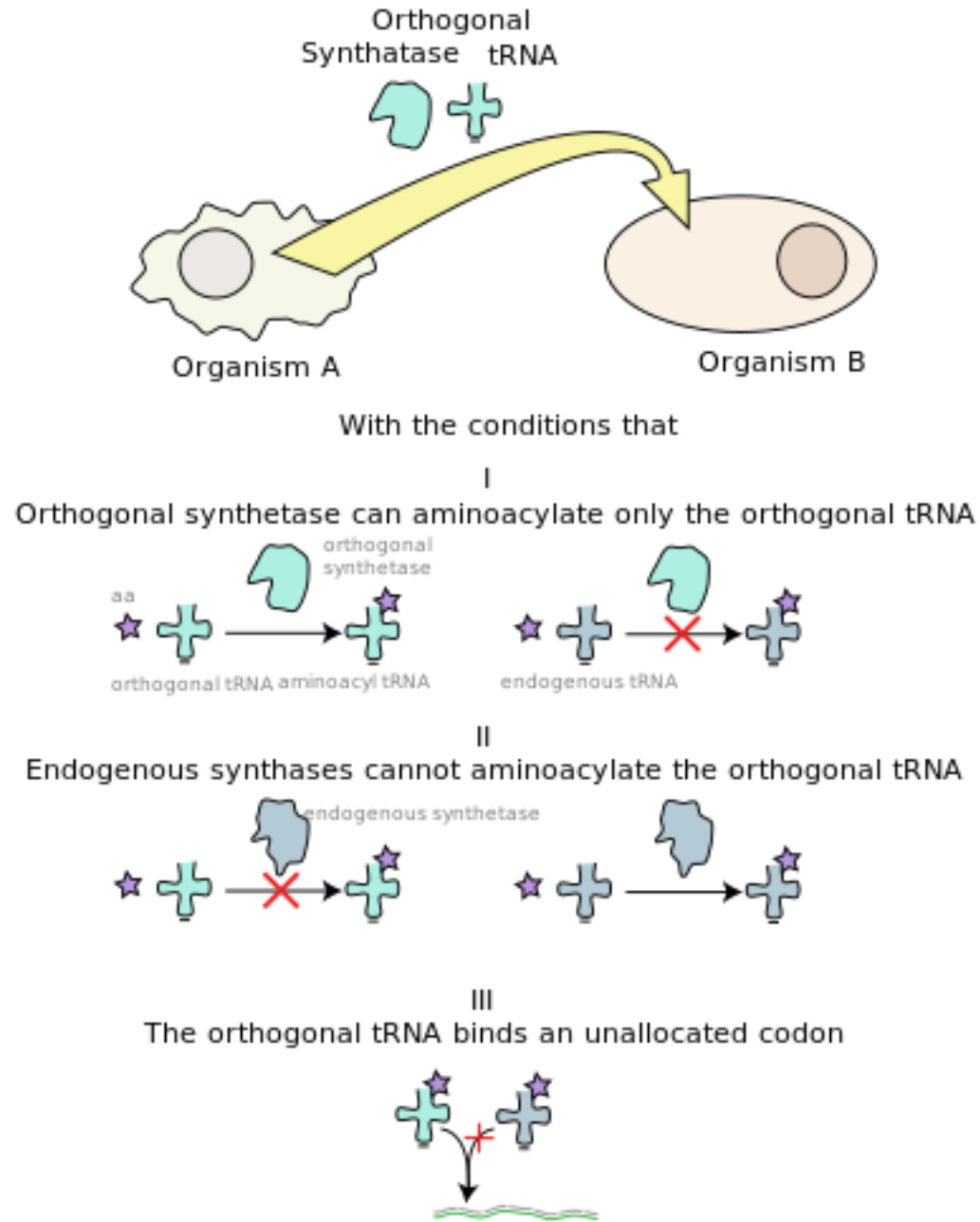
Class 2:

RF3 -> class 2 release factor: enhances activity of class 1

Reading Frame



Genetic Code Expansion



Stop Codons

UAG: amber

UGA: opal

UAA: ochre

Not recognized by a tRNA but by proteins called release factors.

Bacterial release factors

Class 1:

RF1 -> UAA and UAG

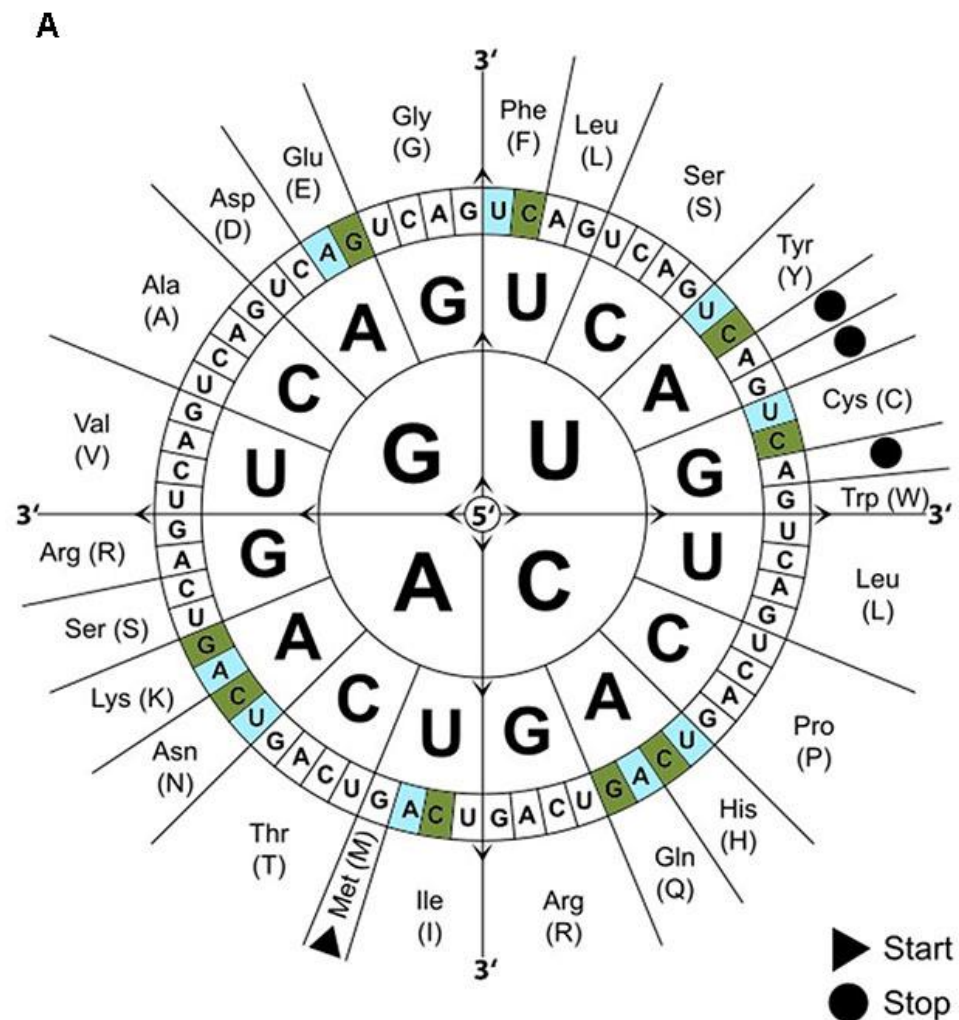
RF2 -> UAA and UGA

The key prerequisites to expand the genetic code are:

- the **non-standard amino acid** to encode,
- an unused codon to adopt,
- a **tRNA** that recognises this codon, and
- a **tRNA synthetase** that recognises only that tRNA and only the non-standard amino acid.

Expanding the genetic code is an area of research of **synthetic biology**, an applied biological discipline whose goal is to engineer living systems for useful purposes. The genetic code expansion enriches the repertoire of useful tools available to science.

Codon Usage Bias



AA	Codon	Freq	AA	Codon	Freq
Ala	GCA	0.28	Leu	CTT	0.05
Ala	GCC	0.07	Leu	TTA	0.03
Ala	GCG	0.21	Leu	TTG	0.02
Ala	GCT	0.45	Lys	AAA	0.81
Arg	AGA	0.02	Lys	AAG	0.19
(Arg)	AGG	0	Met	ATG	1
(Arg)	CGA	0	Phe	TTC	0.79
Arg	CGC	0.24	Phe	TTT	0.21
(Arg)	CGG	0.01	Pro	CCA	0.08
Arg	CGT	0.73	(Pro)	CCC	0.01
Asn	AAC	0.91	Pro	CCG	0.82
Asn	AAT	0.09	Pro	CCT	0.08
Asp	GAC	0.72	Ser	AGC	0.15
Asp	GAT	0.28	(Ser)	AGT	0.01
Cys	TGC	0.8	Ser	TCA	0.02
Cys	TGT	0.2	Ser	TCC	0.39
Gln	CAA	0.14	Ser	TCG	0.04
Gln	CAG	0.86	Ser	TCT	0.39
Glu	GAA	0.83	Stop	TAA	0.83
Glu	GAG	0.17	Stop	TAG	0.17
(Gly)	GGA	0	Stop	TGA	0
Gly	GGC	0.5	Thr	ACA	0.02
(Gly)	GGG	0.01	Thr	ACC	0.56
Gly	GGT	0.48	Thr	ACG	0.05
His	CAC	0.83	Thr	ACT	0.36
His	CAT	0.17	Trp	TGG	1
Ile	ATA	0.02	Tyr	TAC	0.8
Ile	ATC	0.86	Tyr	TAT	0.2
Ile	ATT	0.12	Val	GTA	0.21
(Leu)	CTA	0.01	Val	GTC	0.07
Leu	CTC	0.06	Val	GTG	0.15
Leu	CTG	0.83	Val	GTT	0.57

Frequency refers to the percentage occurrence of synonymous codons encoding amino acids in *E. coli* highly expressed proteins. The nucleic acid sequences of the following genes were combined into a single pseudo-gene and then used in the Kazusa Countcodon program <http://www.kazusa.or.jp/codon> with eubacterial translation exceptions to generate a codon usage table for that pseudo-gene: ompA (V00307),

Mutations

Point mutations

Missense mutation:

- Results in a different amino acid

Nonsense mutation:

- Results in a stop codon

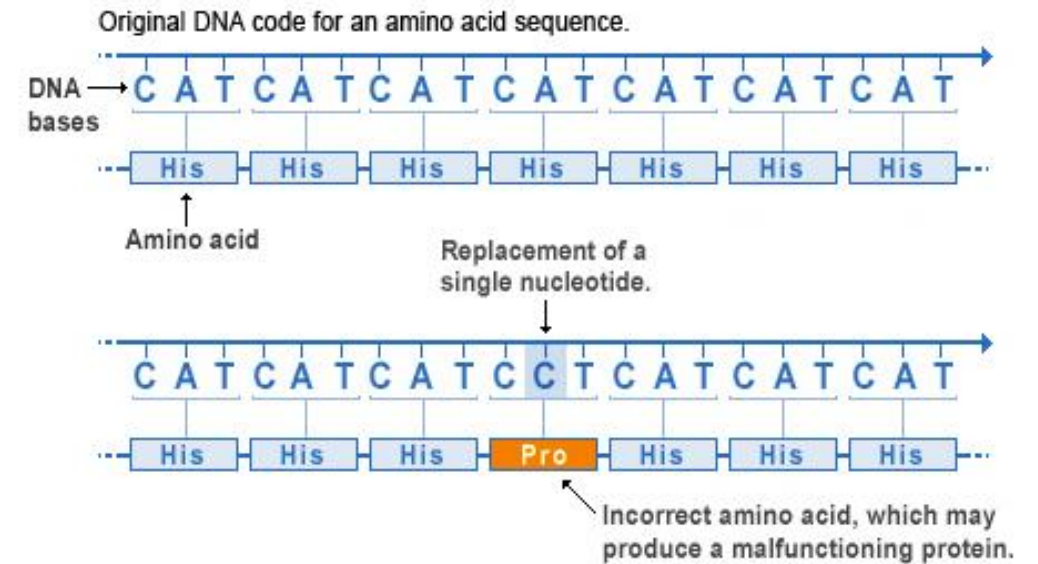
Synonymous substitution (silent mutation):

- Is a mutation that doesn't change the AA

Insertions / Deletions (indels)

- Are frameshift mutations (if not multiple of 3)

Missense mutation



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DNA: 5' - ATG ACT CAC CGA GCG CGA AGC TGA - 3'
      3' - TAC TGA GTG GCT CGC GCT TCG ACT - 5'
mRNA: 5' - AUG ACU CAC CGA GCG CGA AGC UGA - 3'
Protein: Met Thr His Arg Ala Arg Ser Stop

DNA: 5' - ATG ACT CAC TGA GCG CGA AGC TGA - 3'
      3' - TAC TGA GTG ACT CGC GCT TCG ACT - 5'
mRNA: 5' - AUG ACU CAC UGA GCG CGU AGC UGA - 3'
Protein: Met Thr His Stop
```


The End