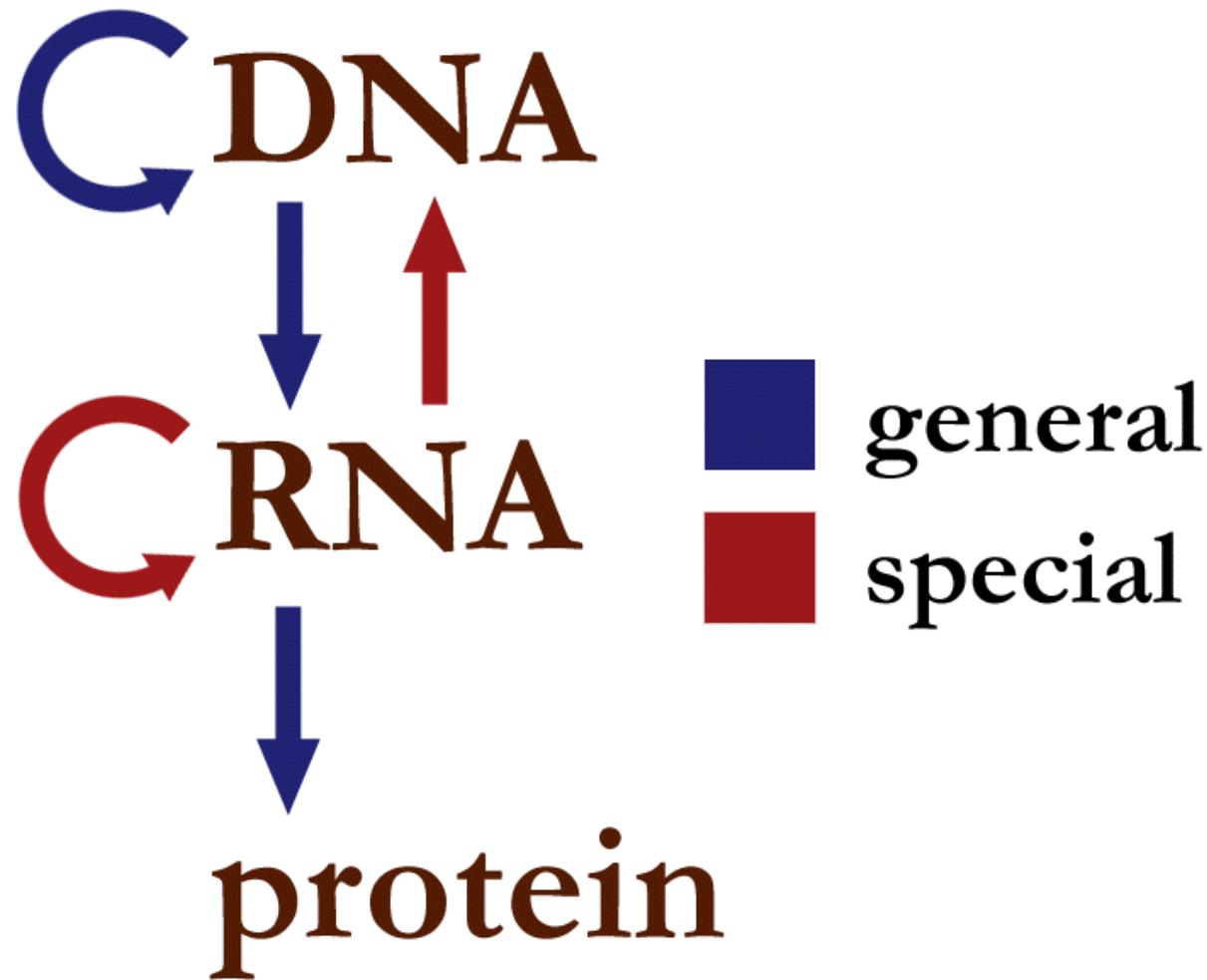


# Lecture 5 - Biochemistry



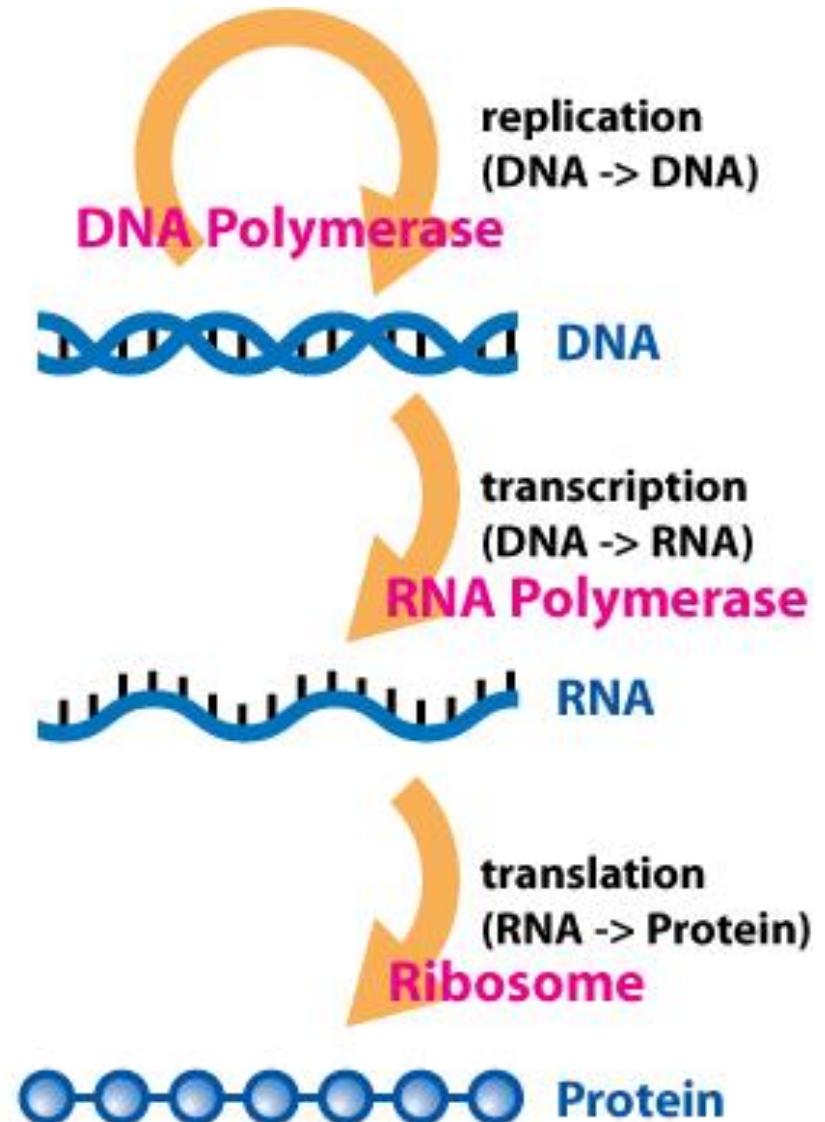
Prof. Sebastian Maerkl

# Central Dogma



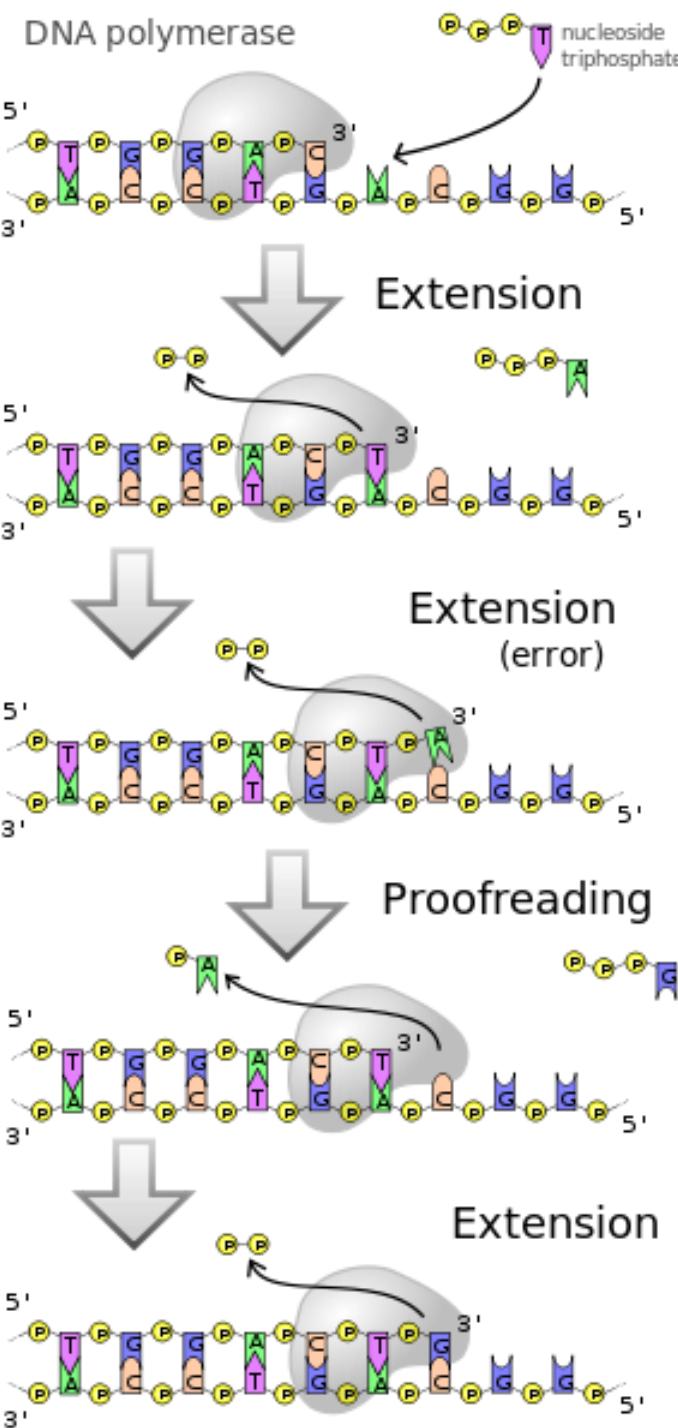
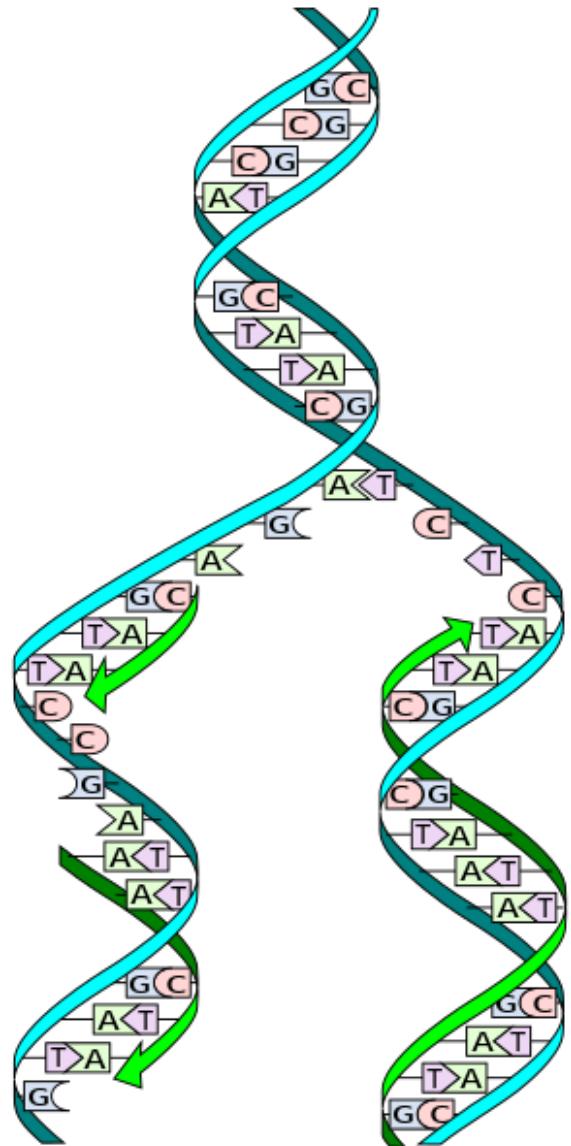
Reverse transcription: reverse transcriptase

RNA replication: RNA-dependent RNA Polymerase



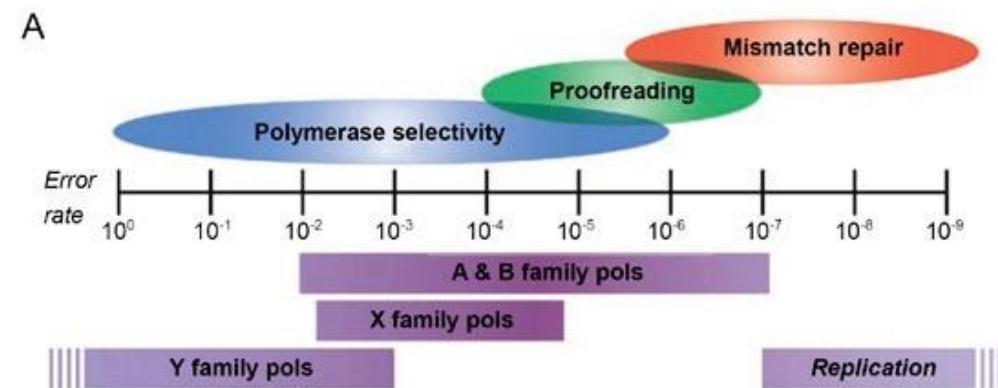
# DNA Replication

# DNA synthesis



5'  $\rightarrow$  3' elongation  
 3'  $\rightarrow$  5' proof-reading (exonuclease)  
 Strand-displacement

Error rate  $\sim 10^{-9}$  ( $10^{-7}$ )  
 Processivity  $> 50$  kb (20bp – 70kb)  
 Synthesis Rate  $\sim 750$  nucleotides / sec

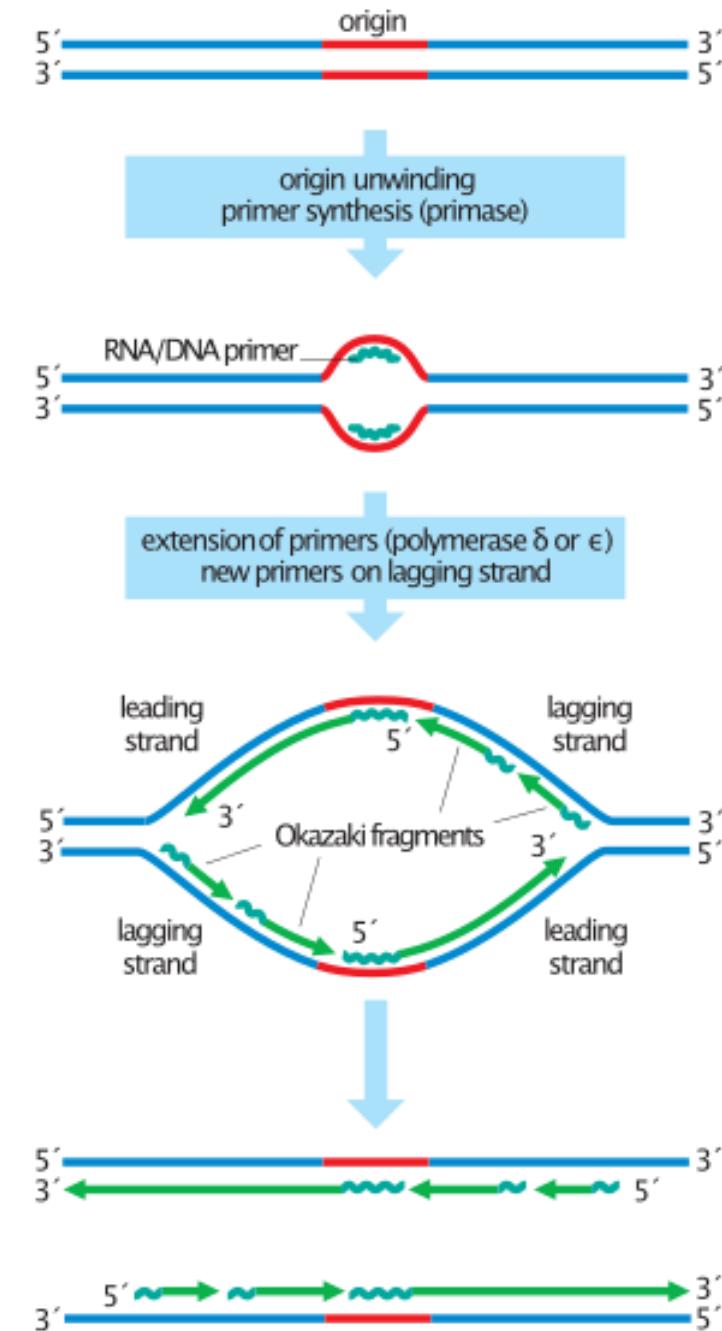
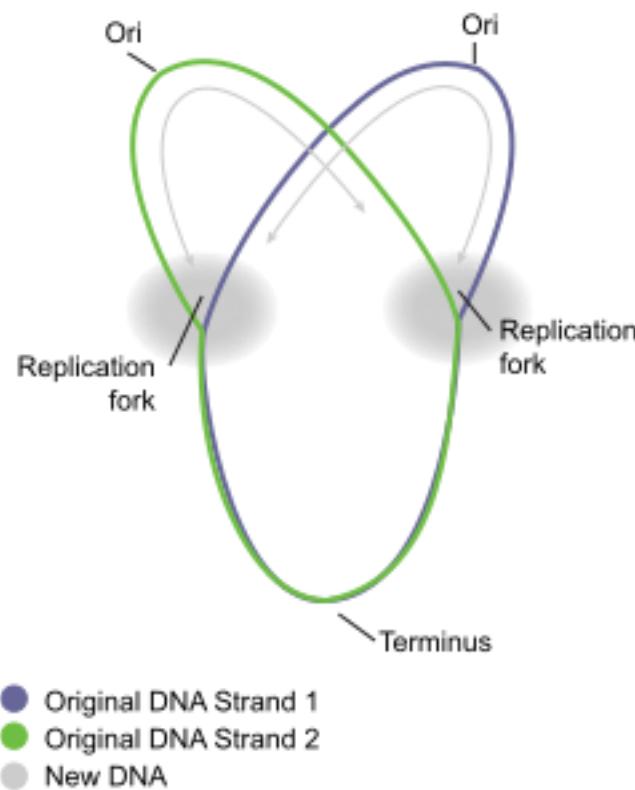
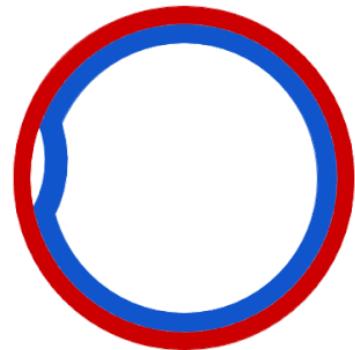


Enzyme	Expt.	Avg. doublings/PCR reaction	Number of clones sequenced	Total bp sequenced	Number of mutations observed	Error rate
<i>Taq</i>	1	$20.5 \pm 1.2$	65	$8.8 \times 10^4$	54	$3.0 \times 10^{-5}$
	2	$16.7 \pm 0.7$	37	$4.7 \times 10^4$	45	$5.6 \times 10^{-5}$
AccuPrime- <i>Taq</i>	1	$17.0 \pm 1.2$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

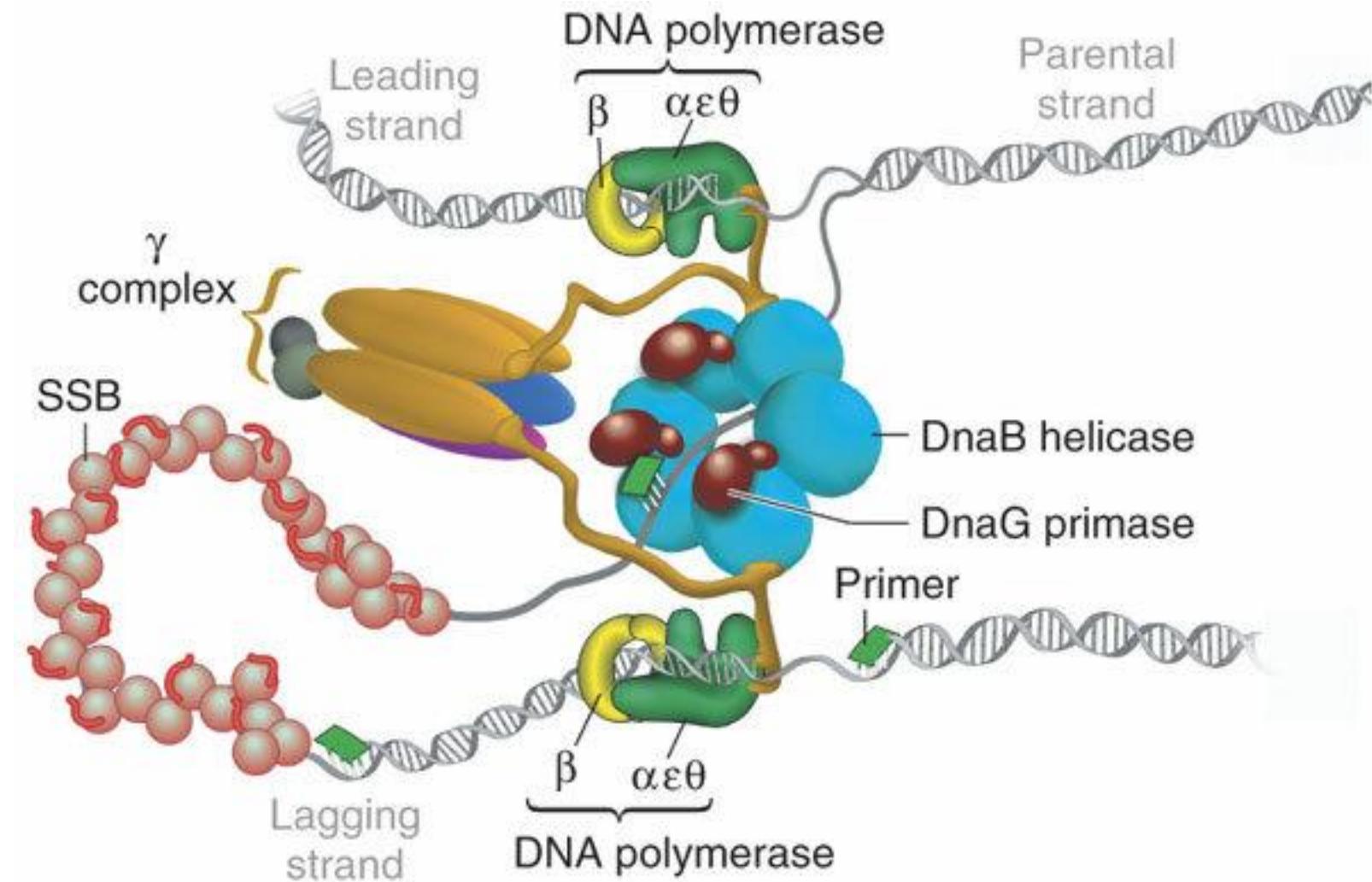
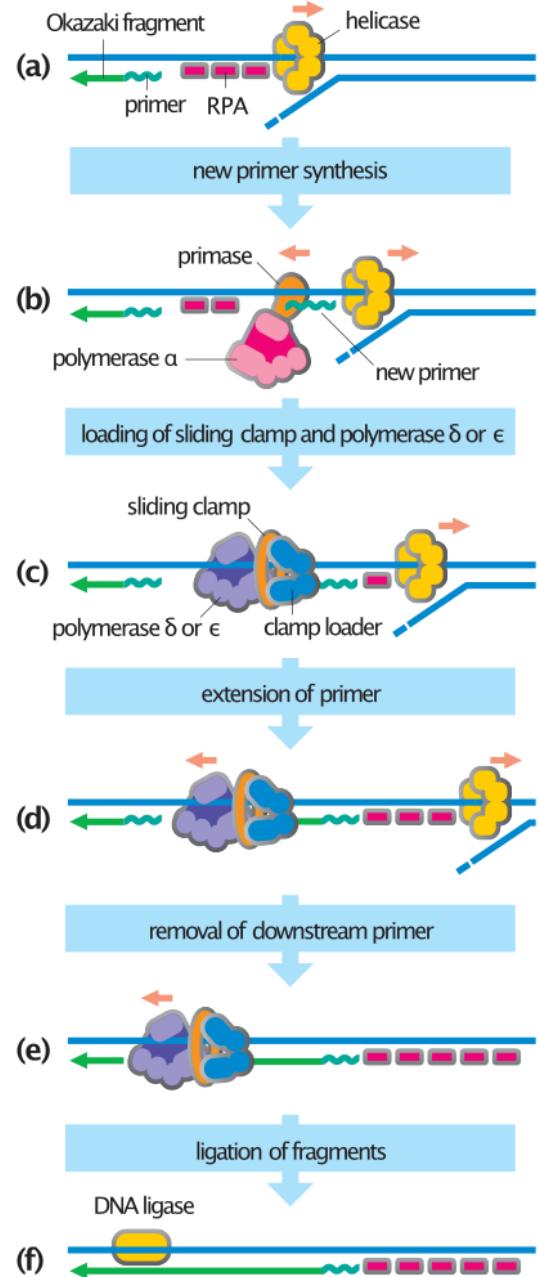
N.D.: not determined.

# Prokaryotic DNA replication

## Theta-type replication



# 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

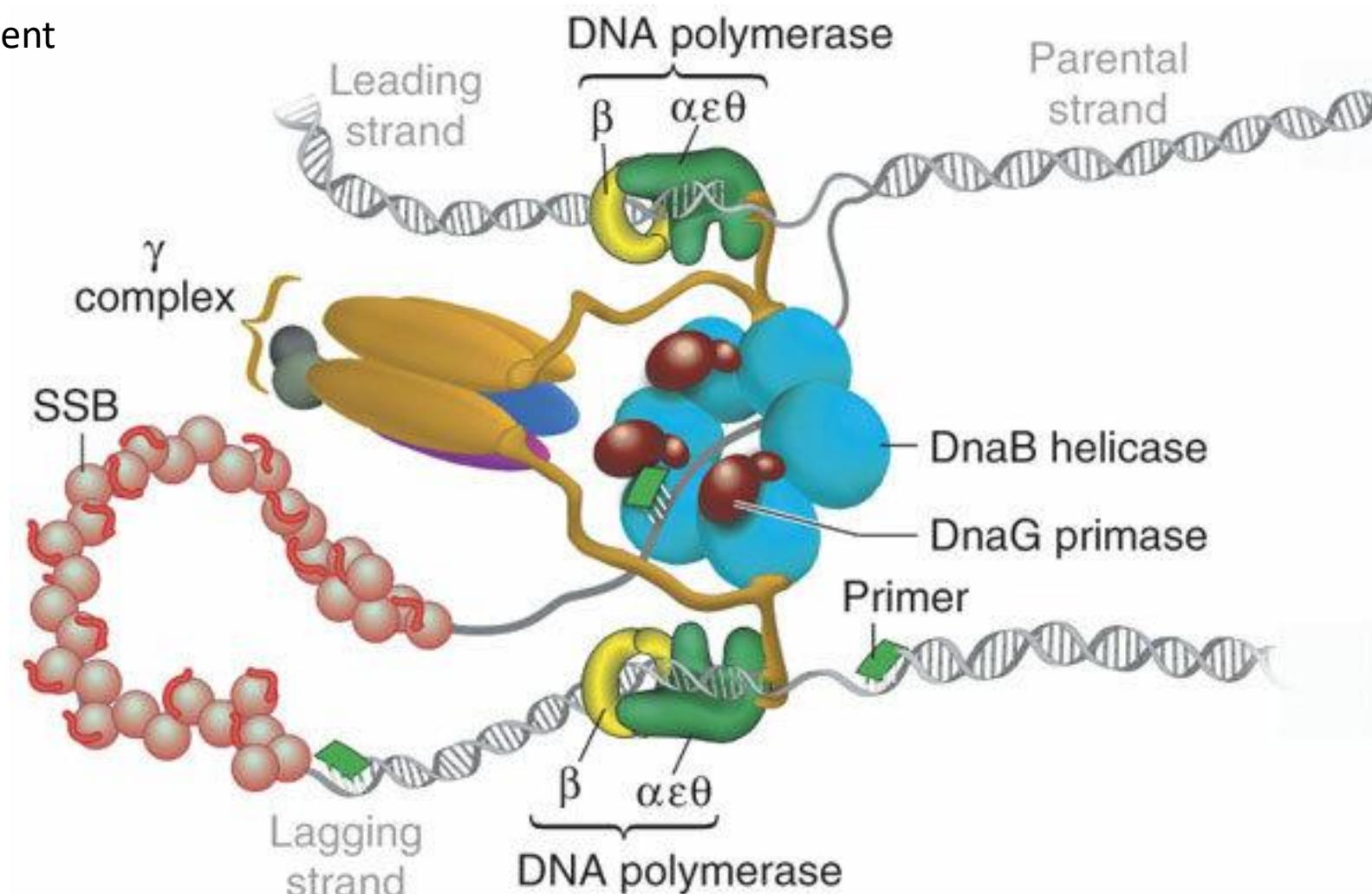
## Leading strand:

- continuously synthesized

## Lagging Strand:

- synthesized in short separate fragments

## Okazaki fragment



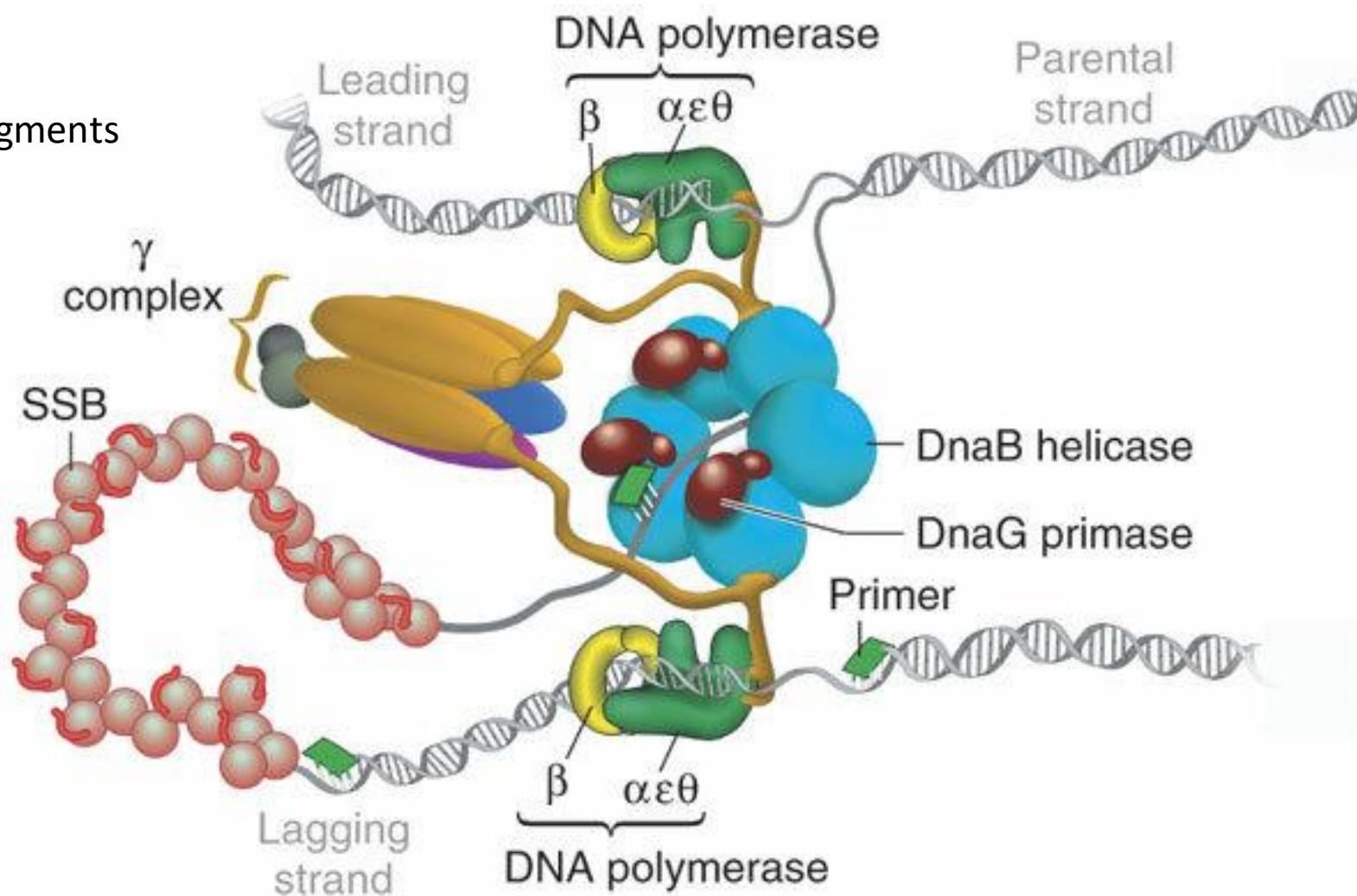
# Resolving Okazaki fragments

## RNaseH and DNA polymerase I:

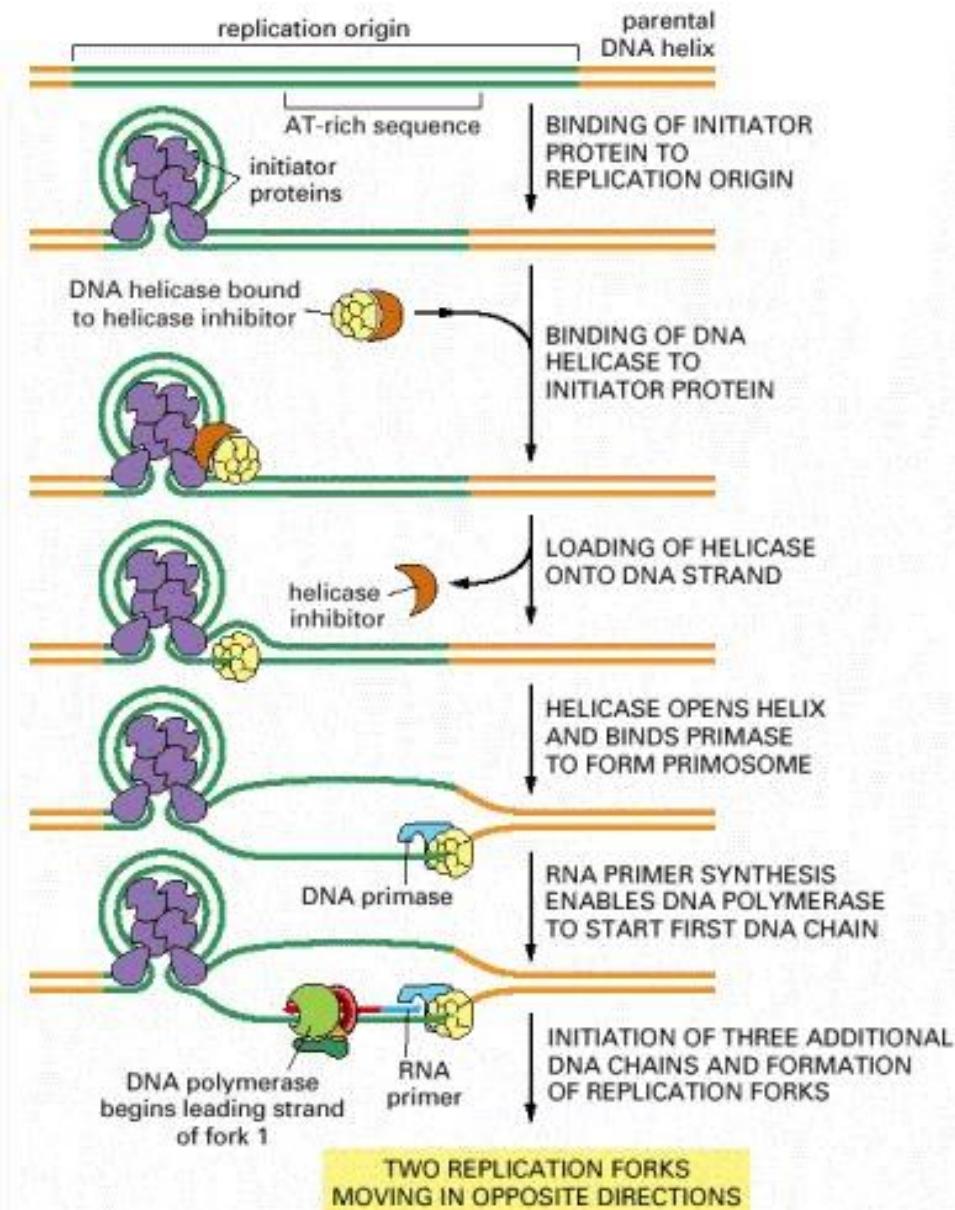
- degrade RNA primers
- fill in deoxyribonucleotides

## Ligase:

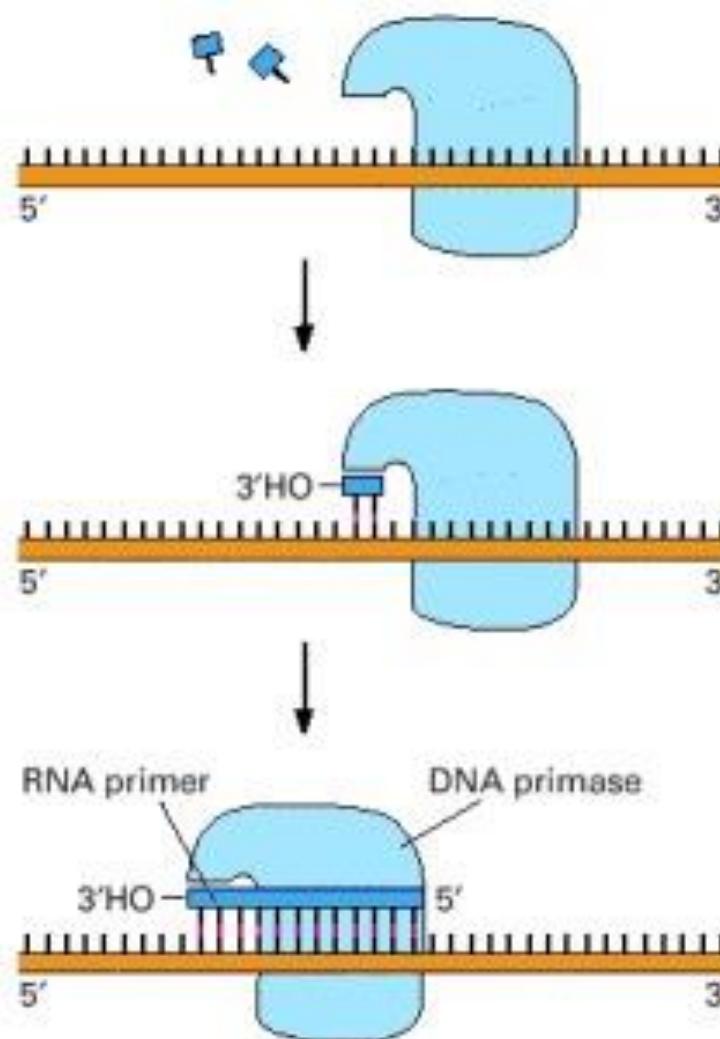
- seals (ligates) the gap between two Okazaki fragments



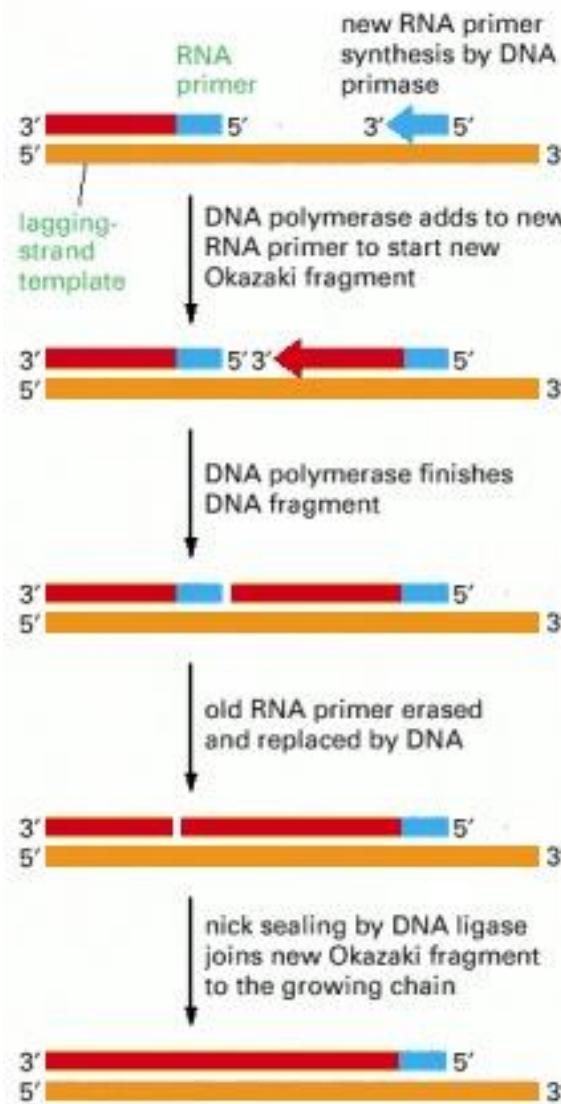
# Origin of replication and initiation of DNA synthesis



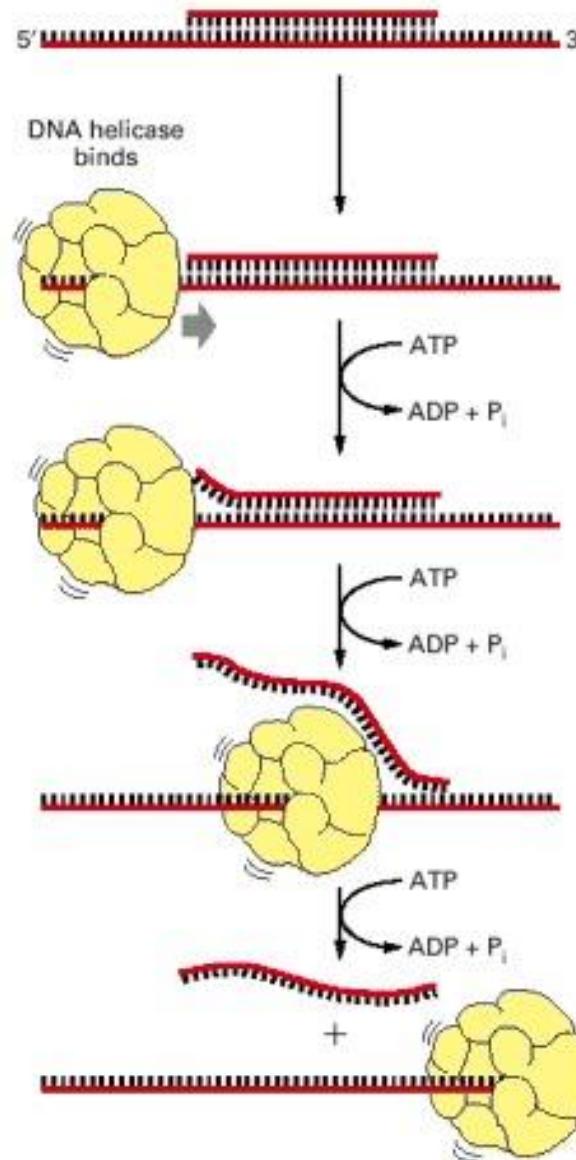
# Short RNA primer synthesis by DNA primase



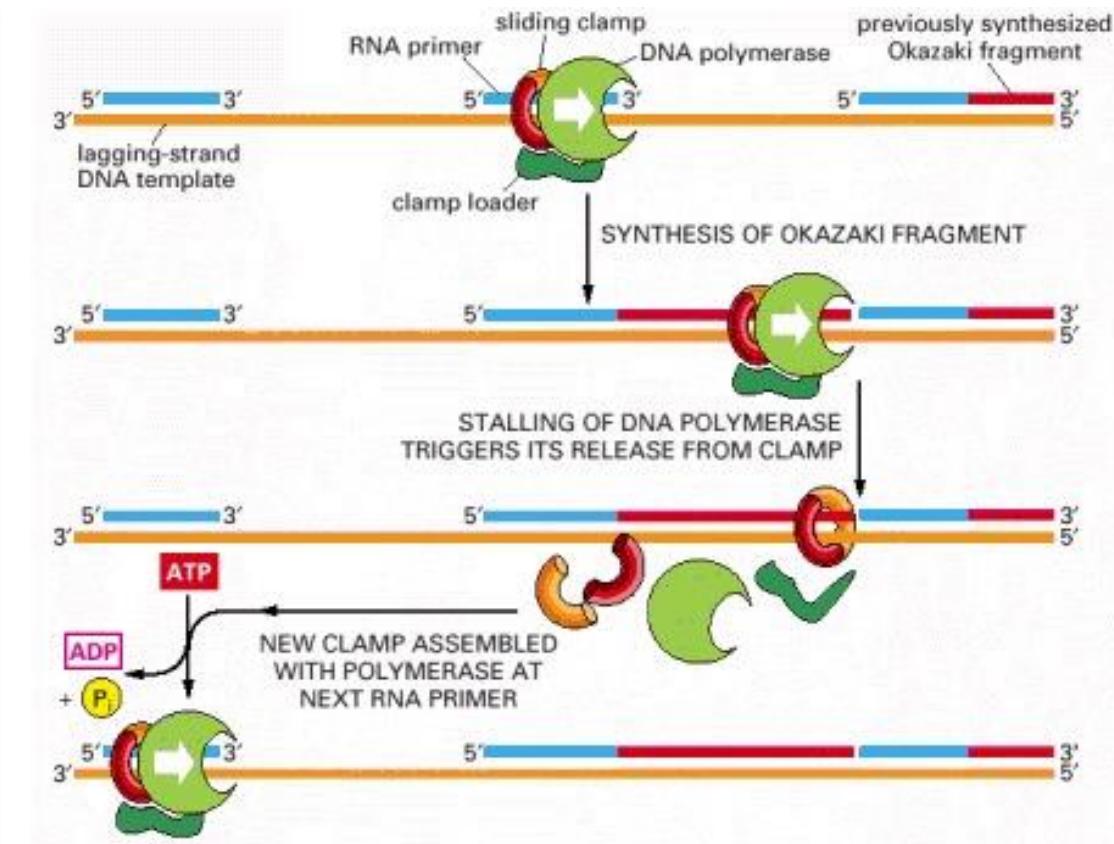
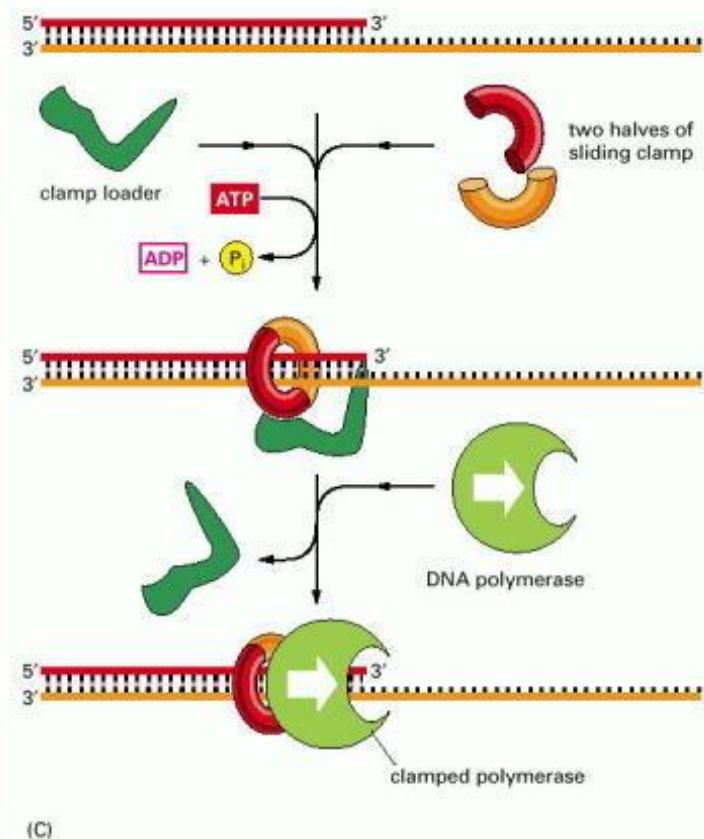
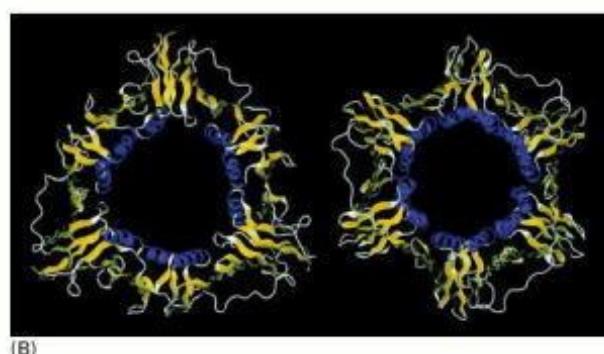
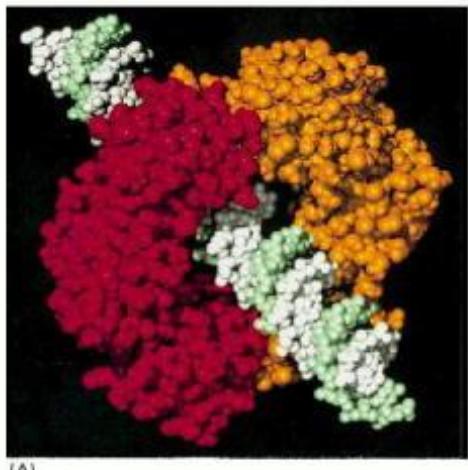
# Lagging strand DNA synthesis



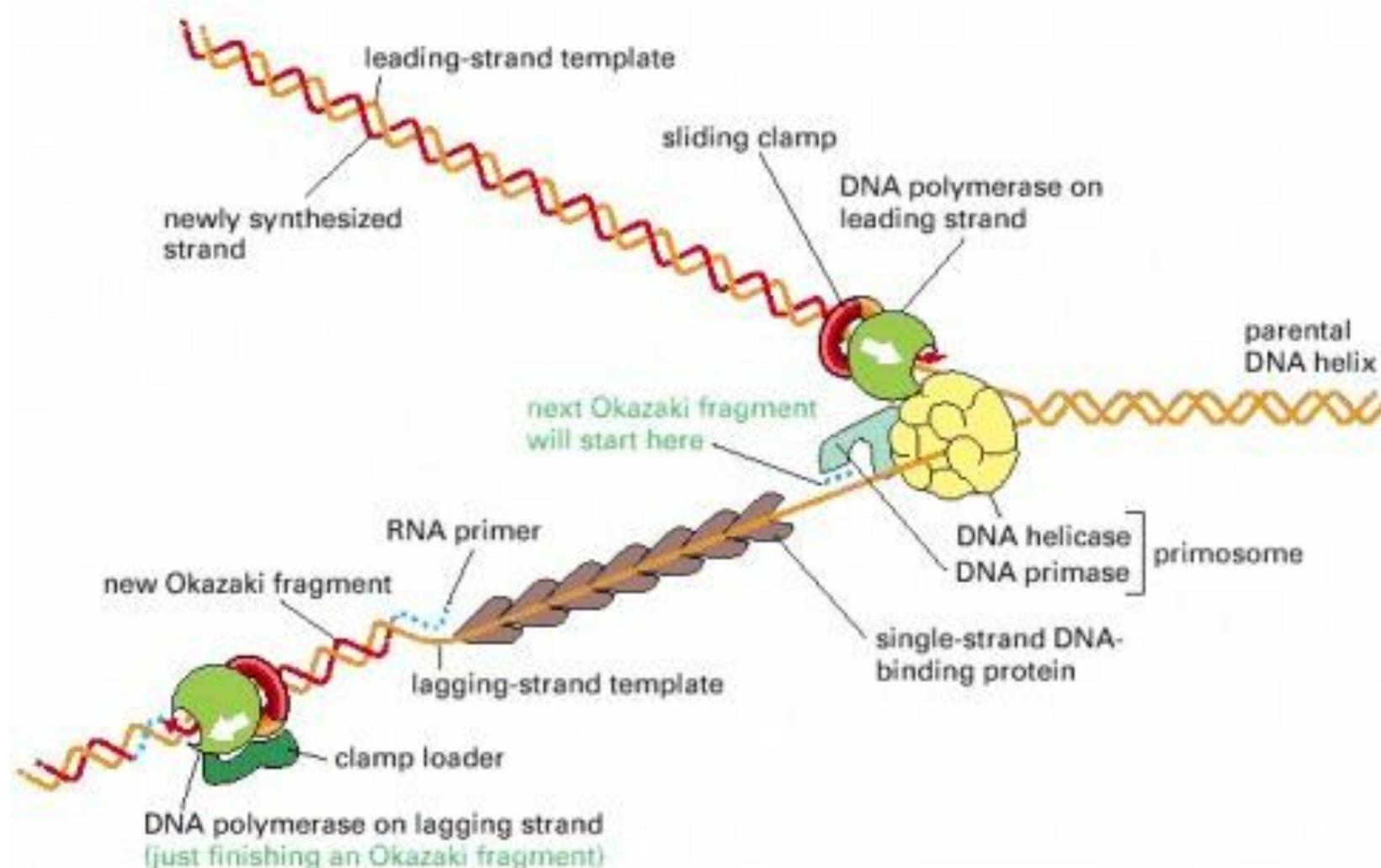
# Strand displacement by DNA helicase



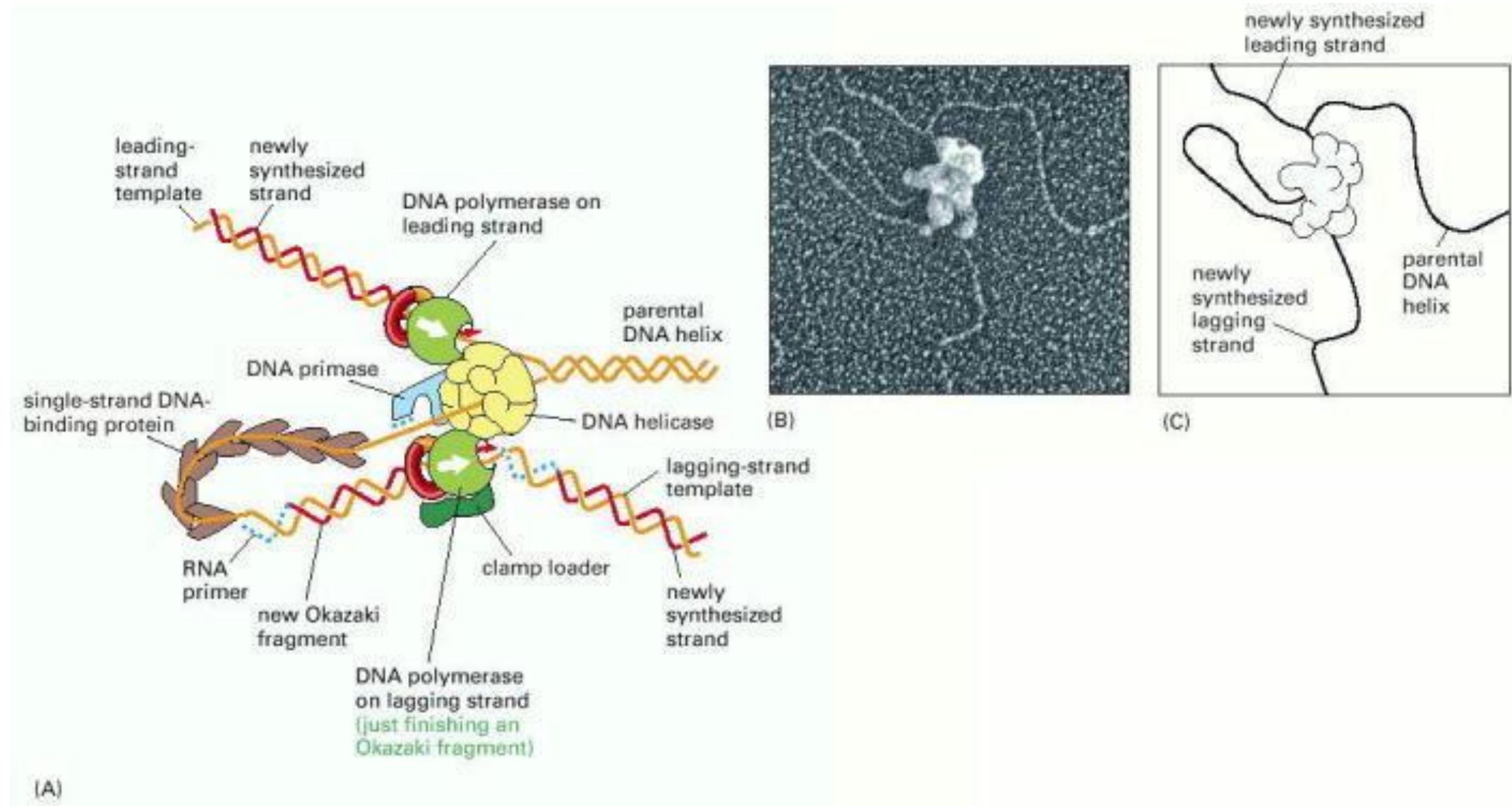
# DNA synthesis by DNA polymerase



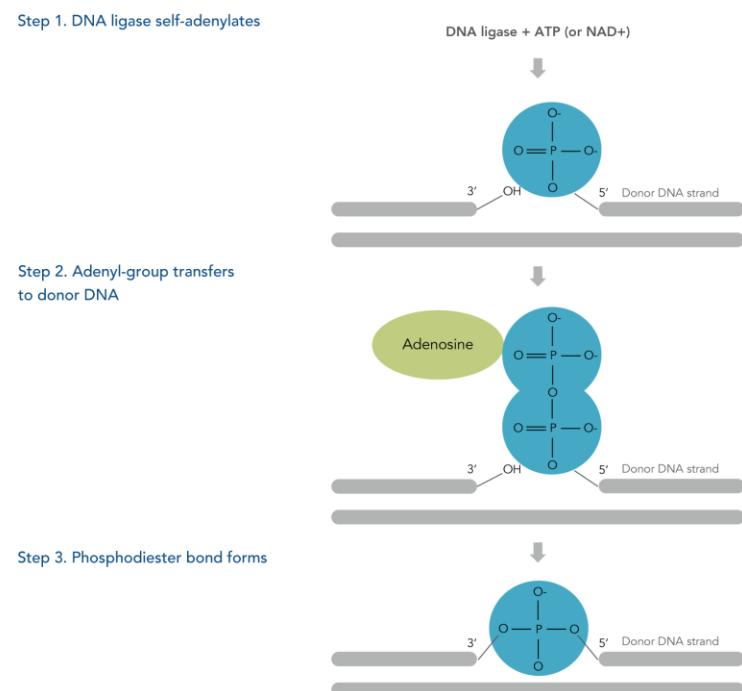
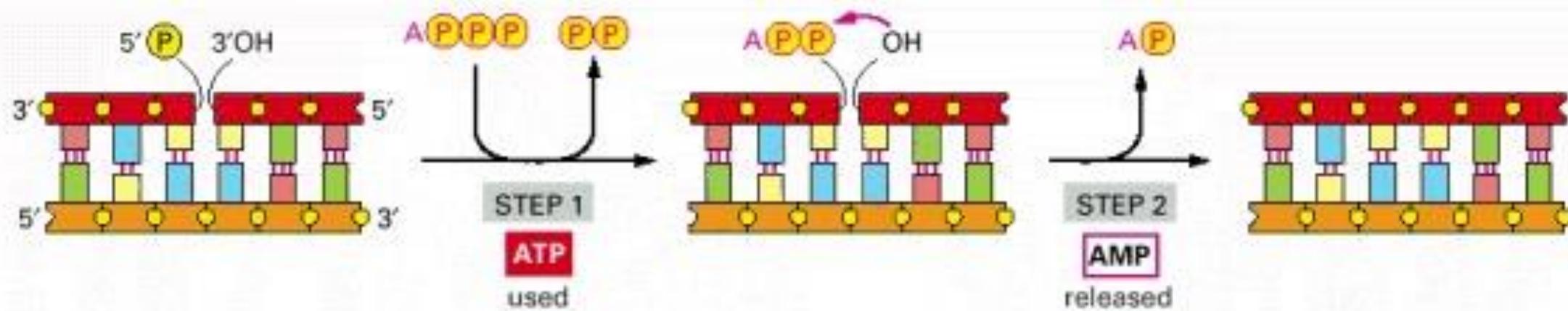
# The complete replication fork



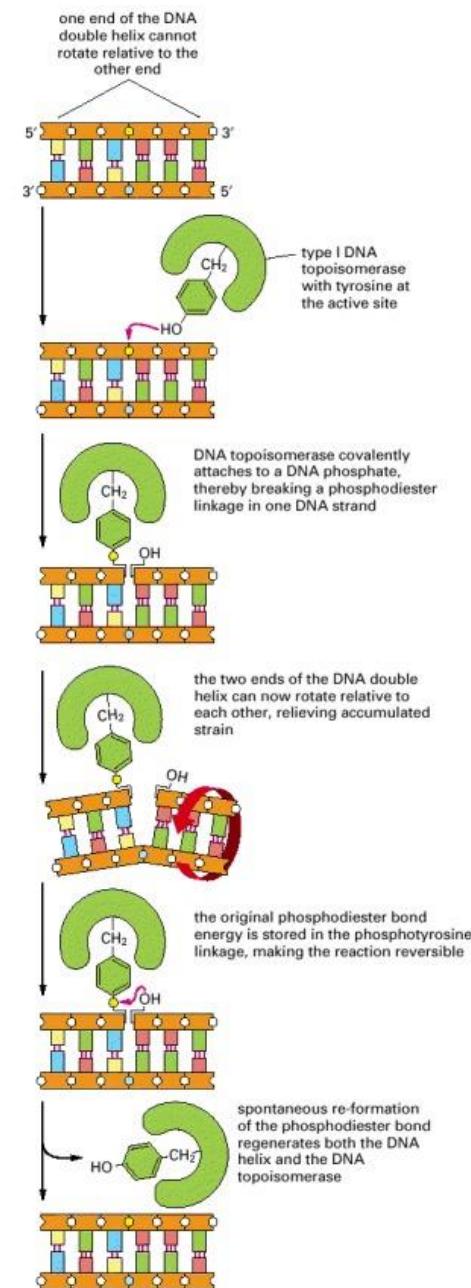
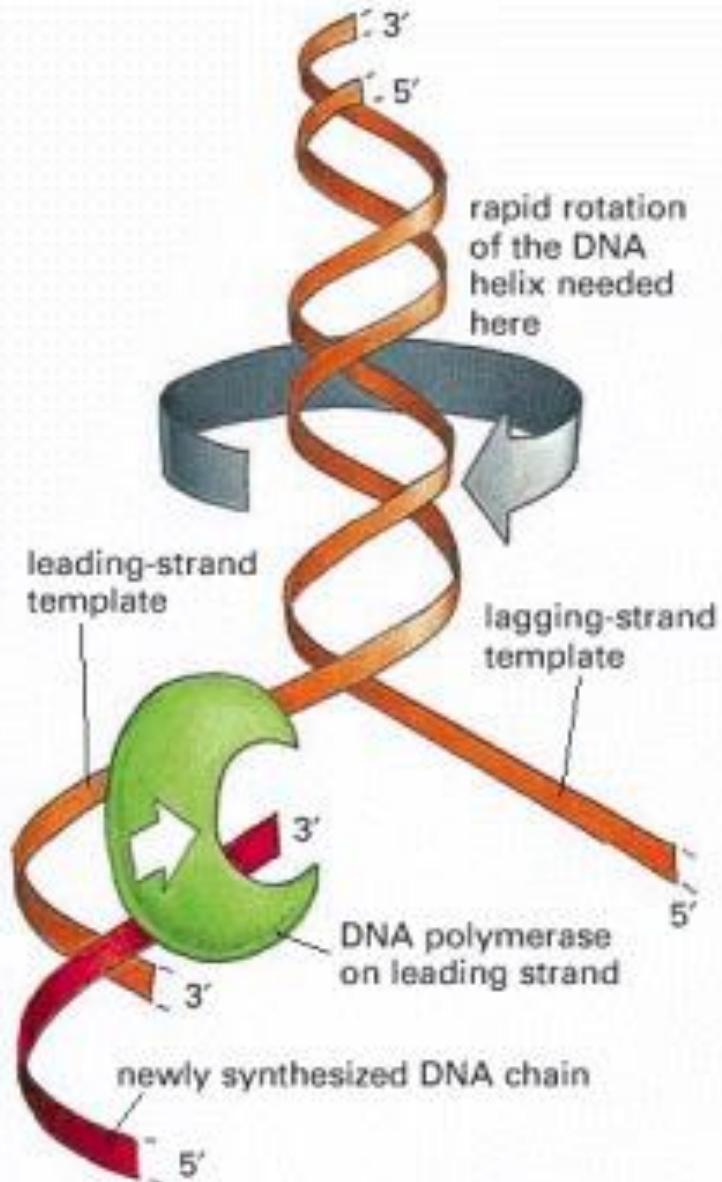
# The complete replication fork



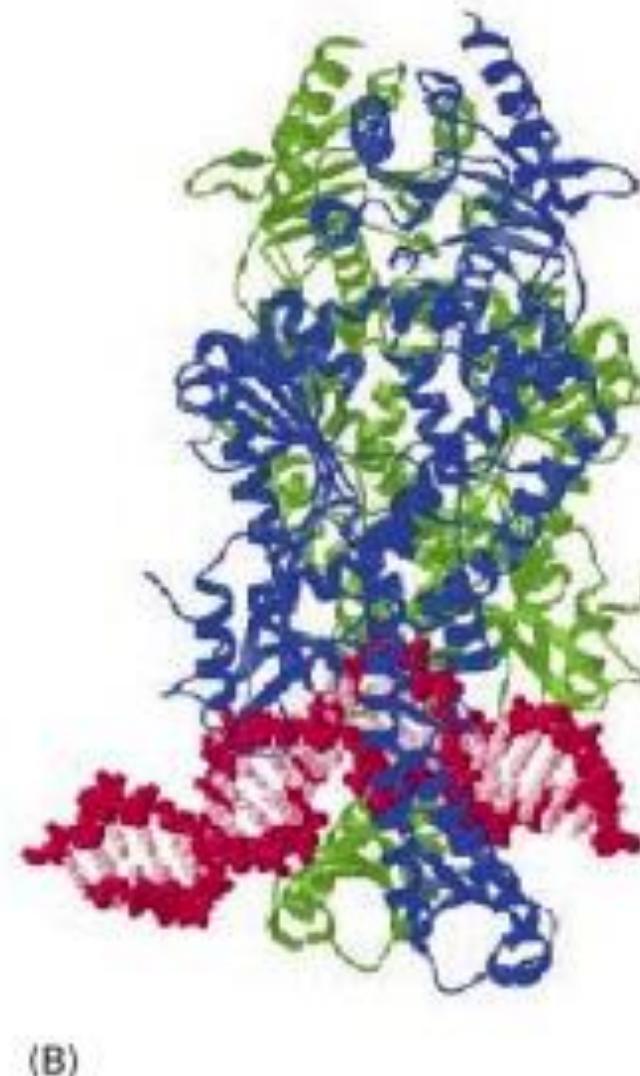
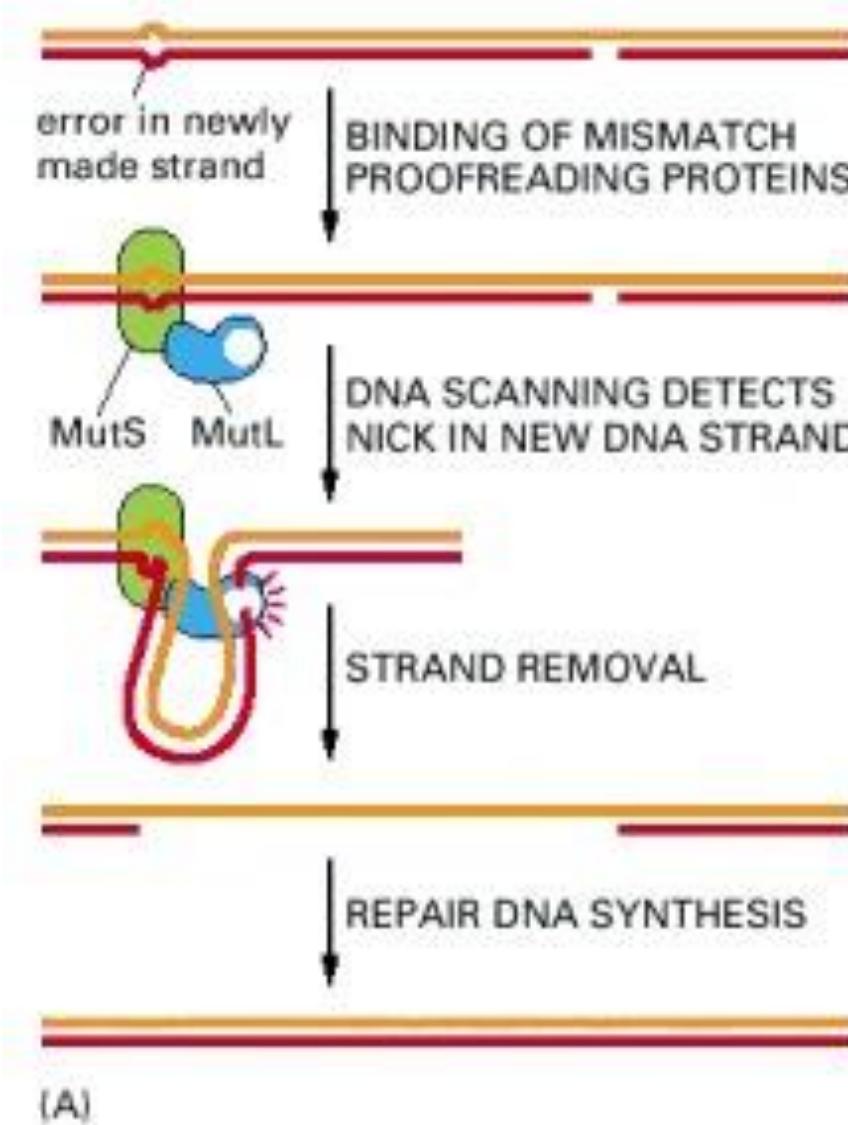
# Strand ligation by DNA ligase



# DNA topoisomerases prevent “tangling” of DNA



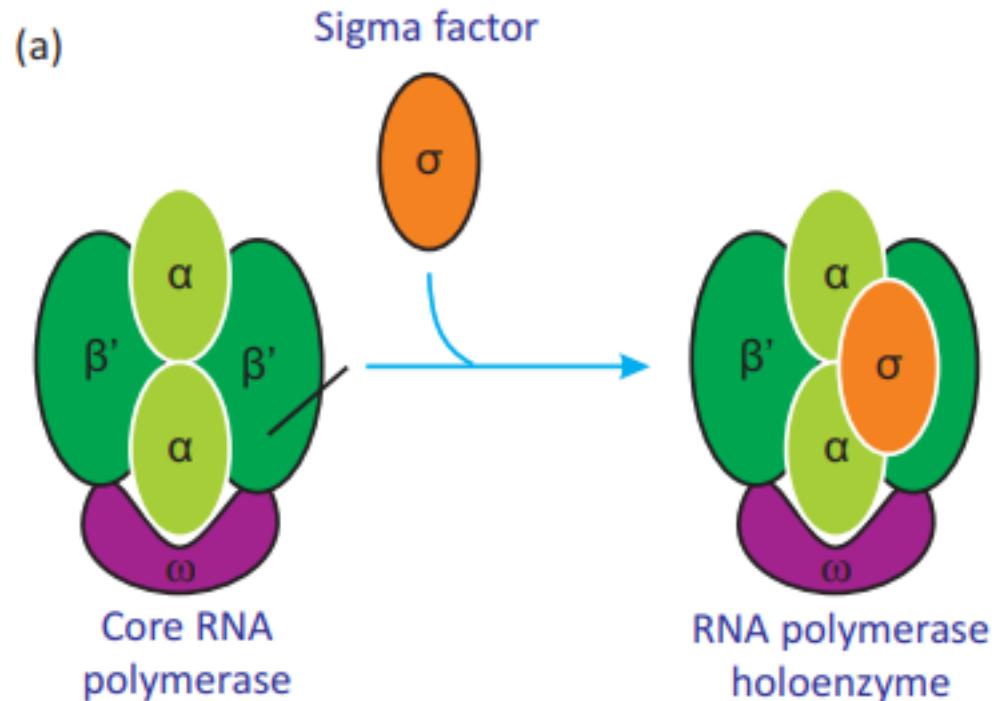
# Strand-directed mismatch repair



# 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  $\alpha$ , one  $\beta$ , one  $\beta'$  and one  $\omega$  and  $\sigma$  subunit ( $\alpha_2\beta\beta'\omega\sigma$ ). This complete enzyme is called as the **holoenzyme**.
- The  $\sigma$  subunit may dissociate from the other subunits to leave a form known as the **core enzyme**.

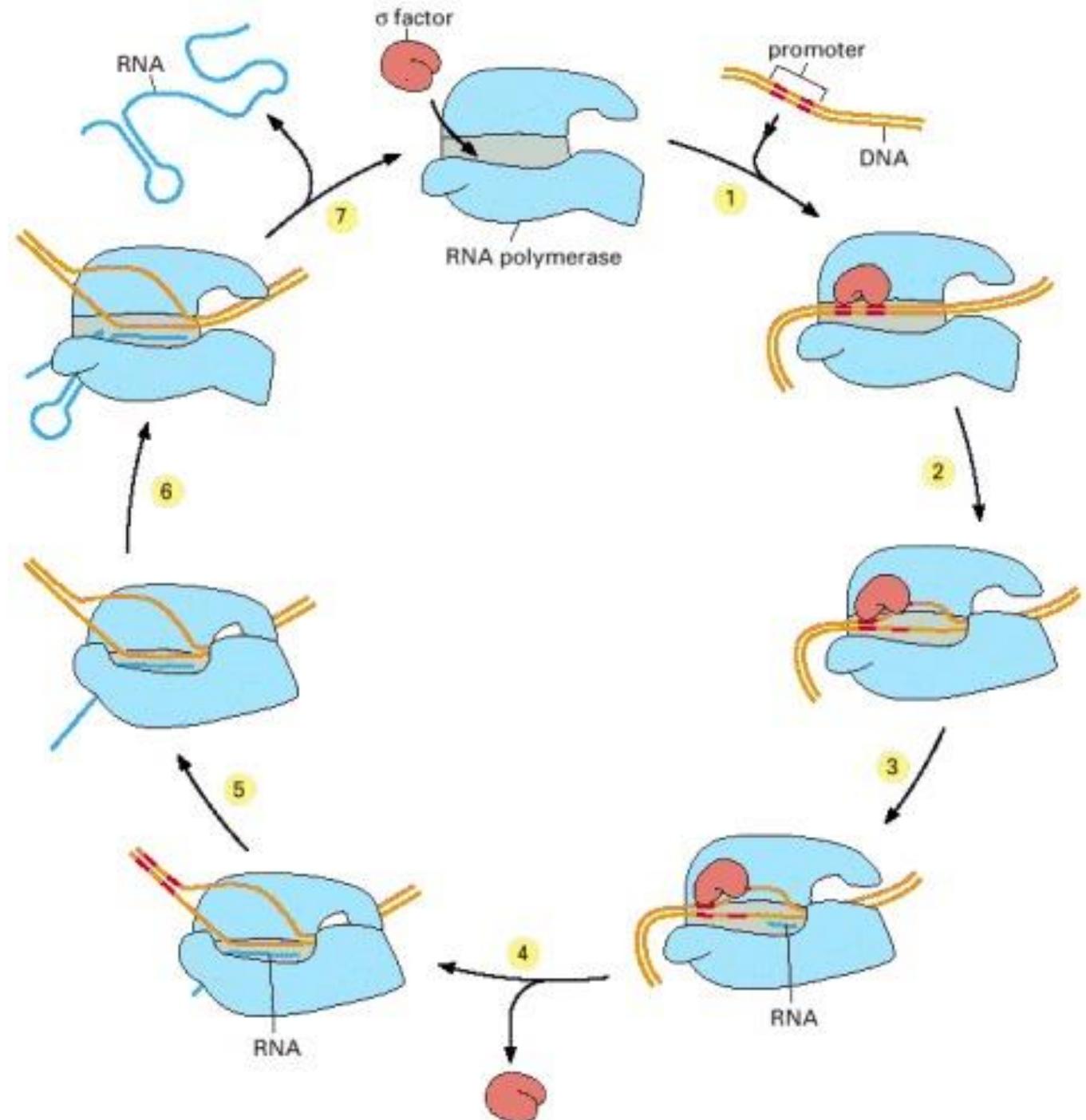


Subunit	Size	#/Molecule	Function
$\alpha$	36.5 kD	2	chain initiation and interaction with regulatory proteins
$\beta$	151 kD	1	chain initiation and elongation
$\beta'$	155 kD	1	DNA binding
$\sigma$	70 kD	1	promoter recognition

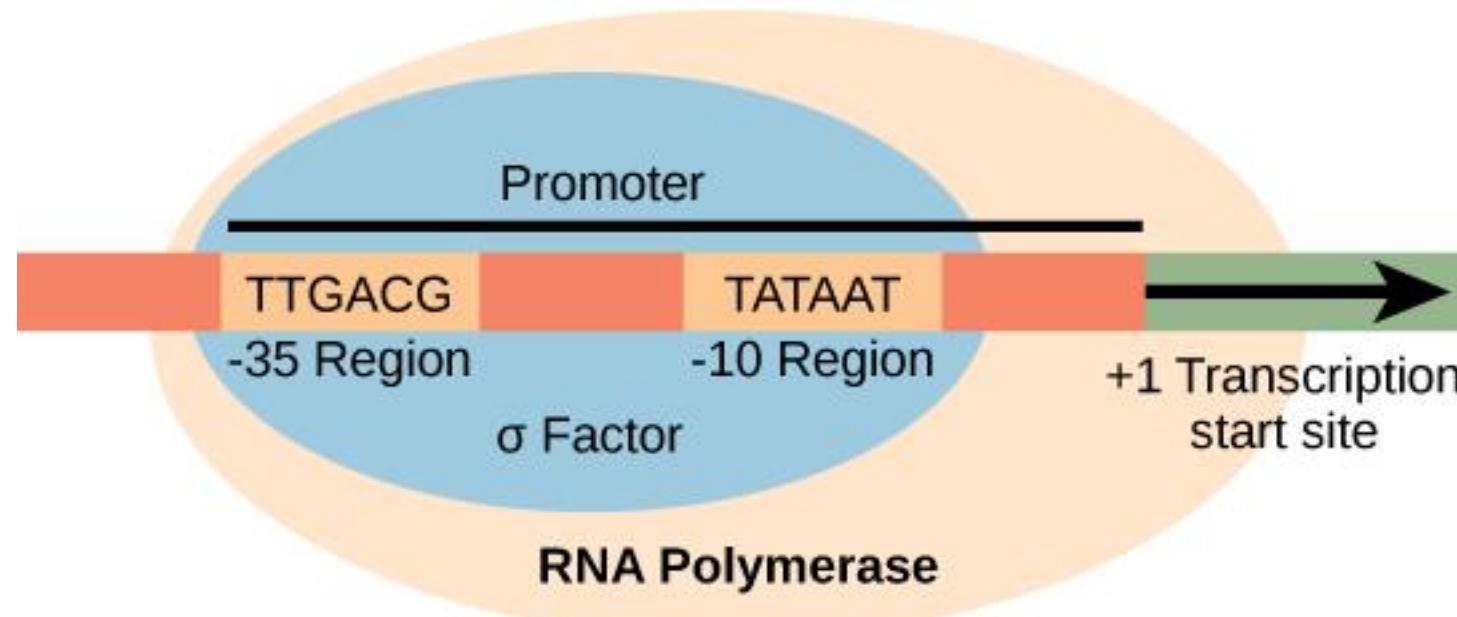
# Transcription

## 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  $\sigma$  factor of RNA polymerase.
- The –35 sequence has the consensus **TTGACG** 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>	$\sigma^{70}$	TTGACA	16–18 bp	TATAAT	
<i>rpoH</i>	$\sigma^{32}$	CCCTTGAA	13–15 bp	CCCGATNT	
<i>rpoN</i>	$\sigma^{54}$	CTGGNA	6 bp	TTGCA	
<i>fliA</i>	$\sigma^{28}$ ( $\sigma^F$ )	CTAAA	15 bp	GCCGATAA	
<i>sigH</i>	$\sigma^H$	AGGANPuPu	11–12 bp	GCTGAATCA	

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

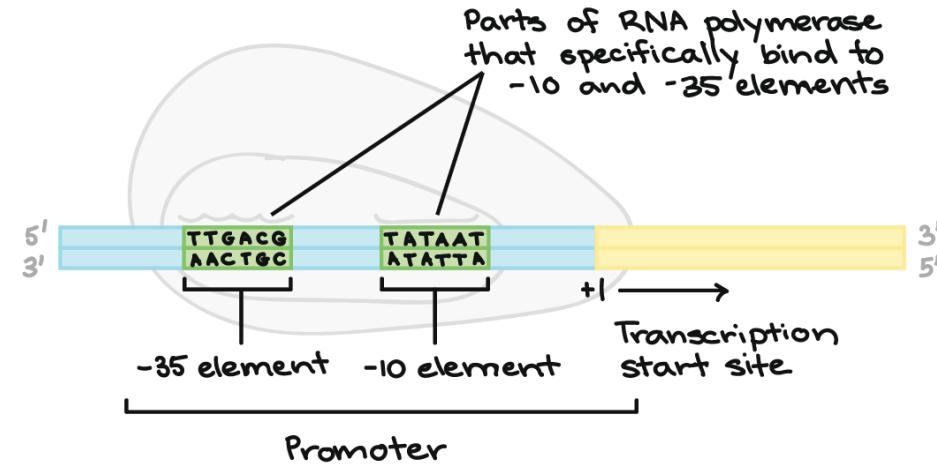
## Sigma factors in *Escherichia coli*

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

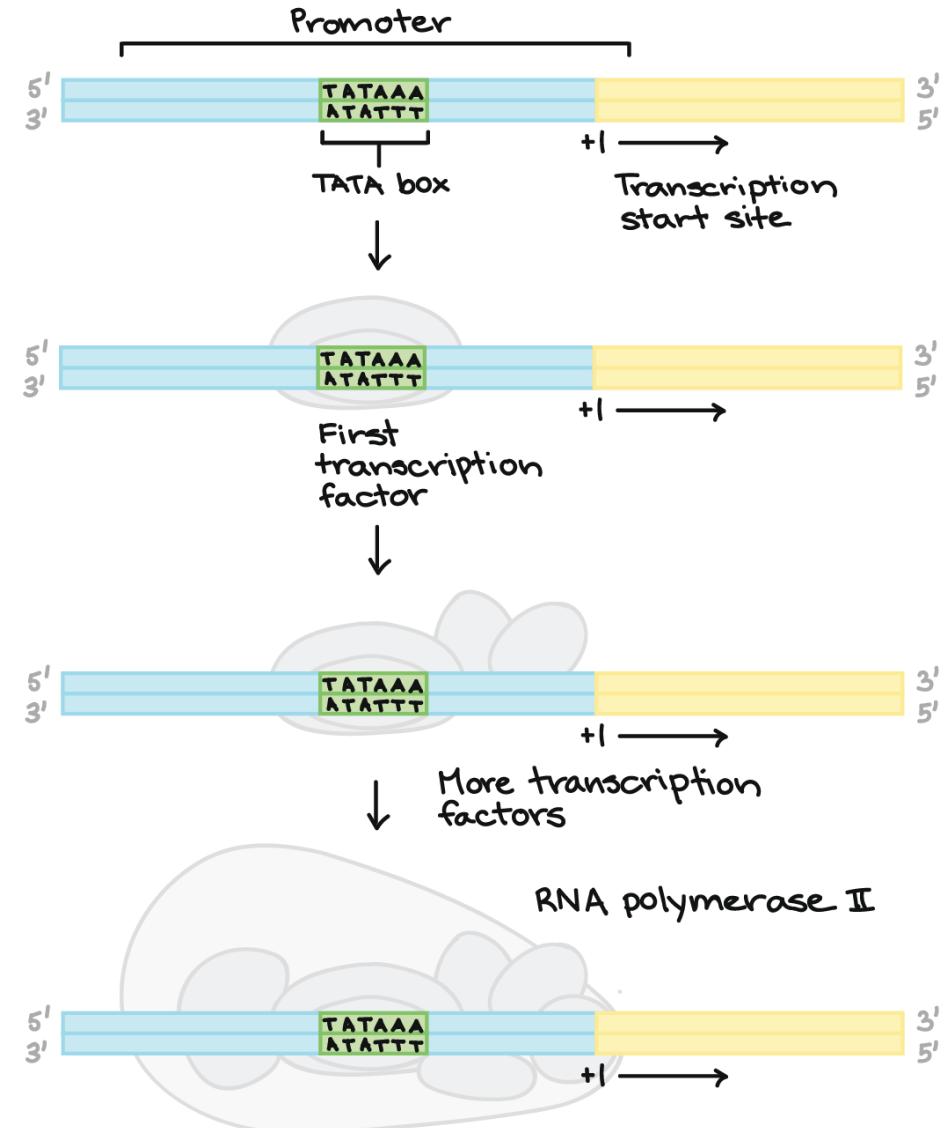
<sup>a</sup>Superscript number indicates size of protein in kilodaltons.

# Promoters

## Prokaryotic



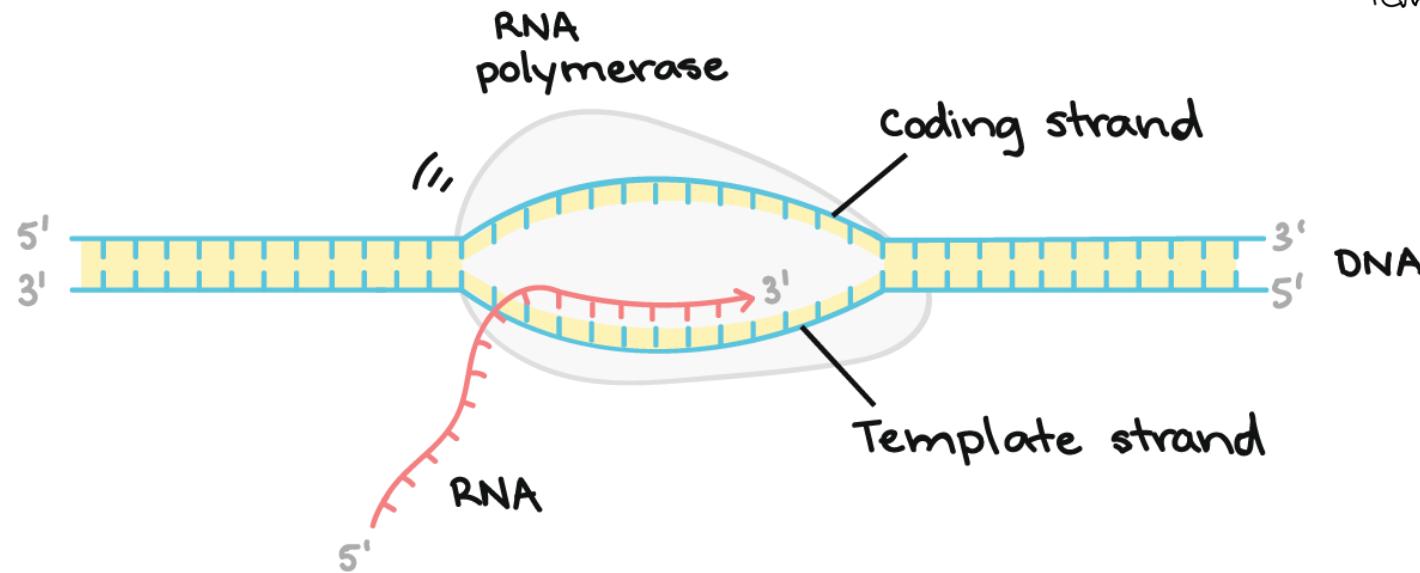
## Eukaryotic



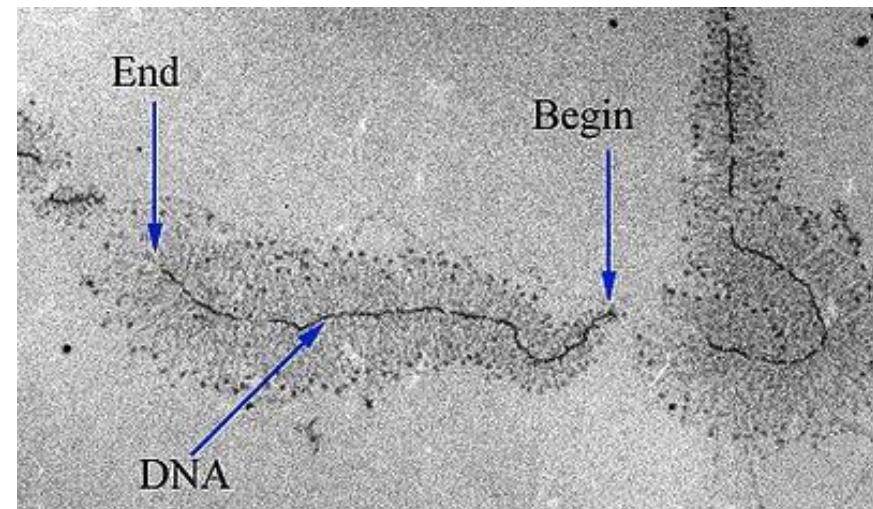
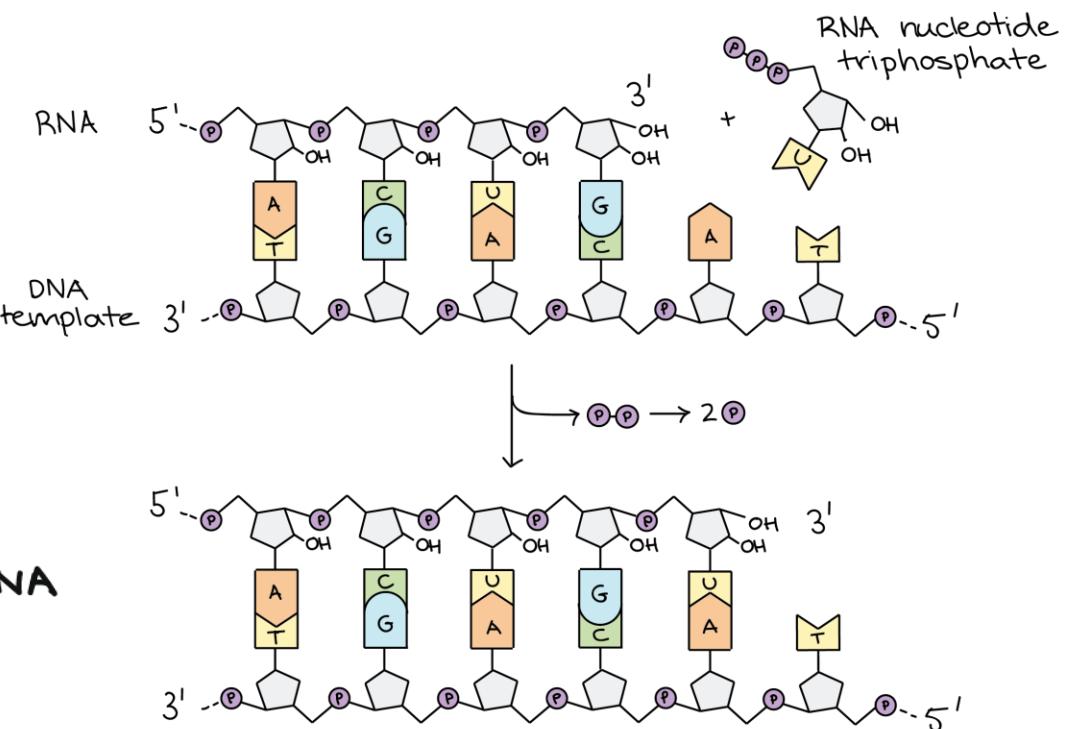
The promoter of bacteria consists of 3 – 4 consensus sequences:

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

# Elongation

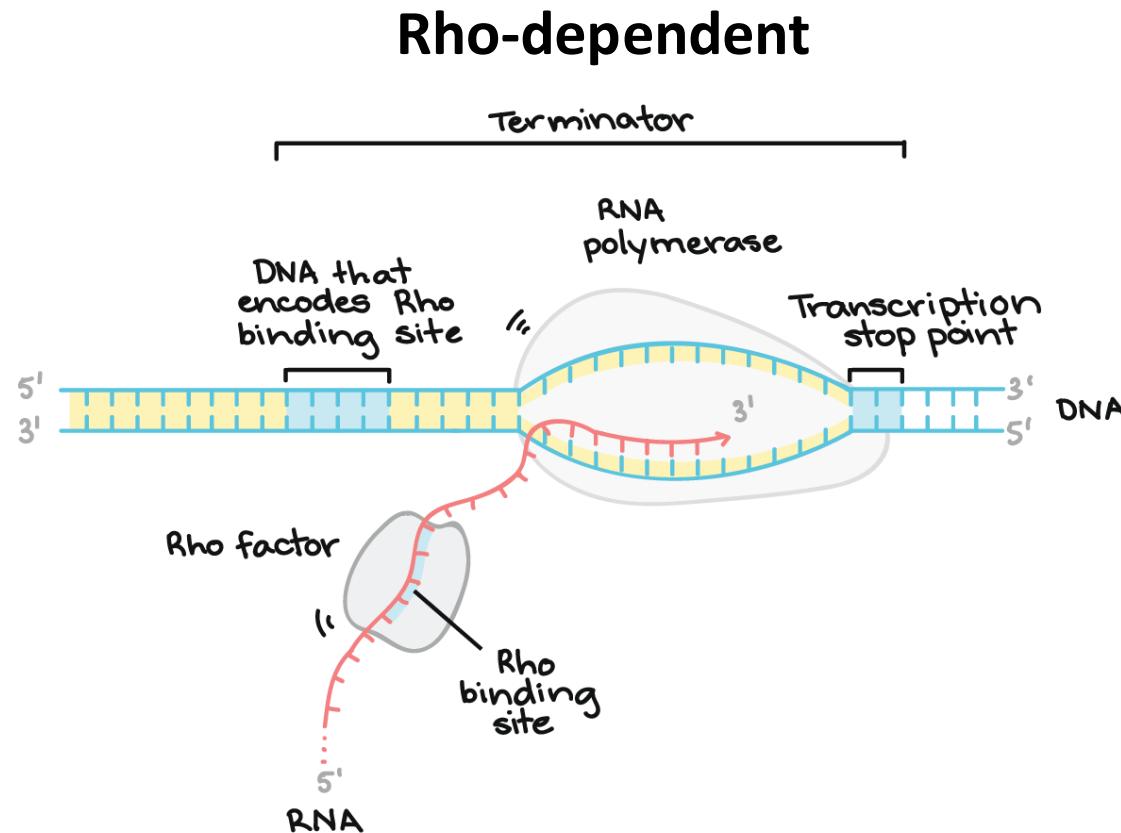


coding strand		5' <u>ATGATCTCGTAA</u> 3'
RNA		5' A <u>U</u> G A <u>U</u> C → 3'
Template strand		3' <u>TACTAGAGCATT</u> 5'



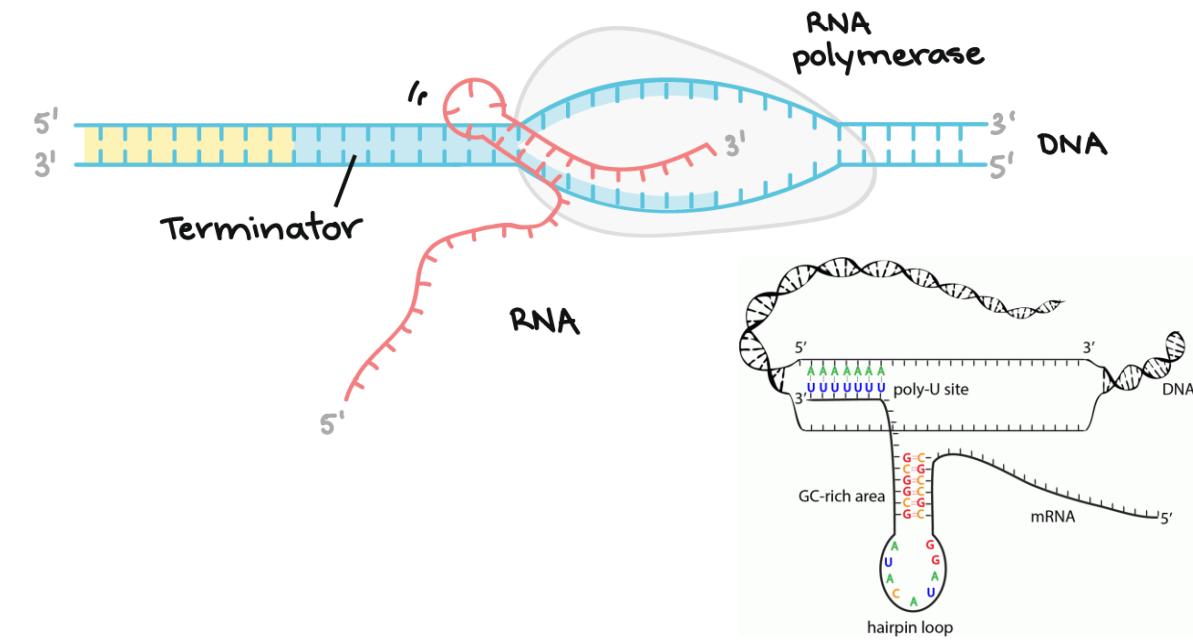
# Termination

## Rho-independent



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.



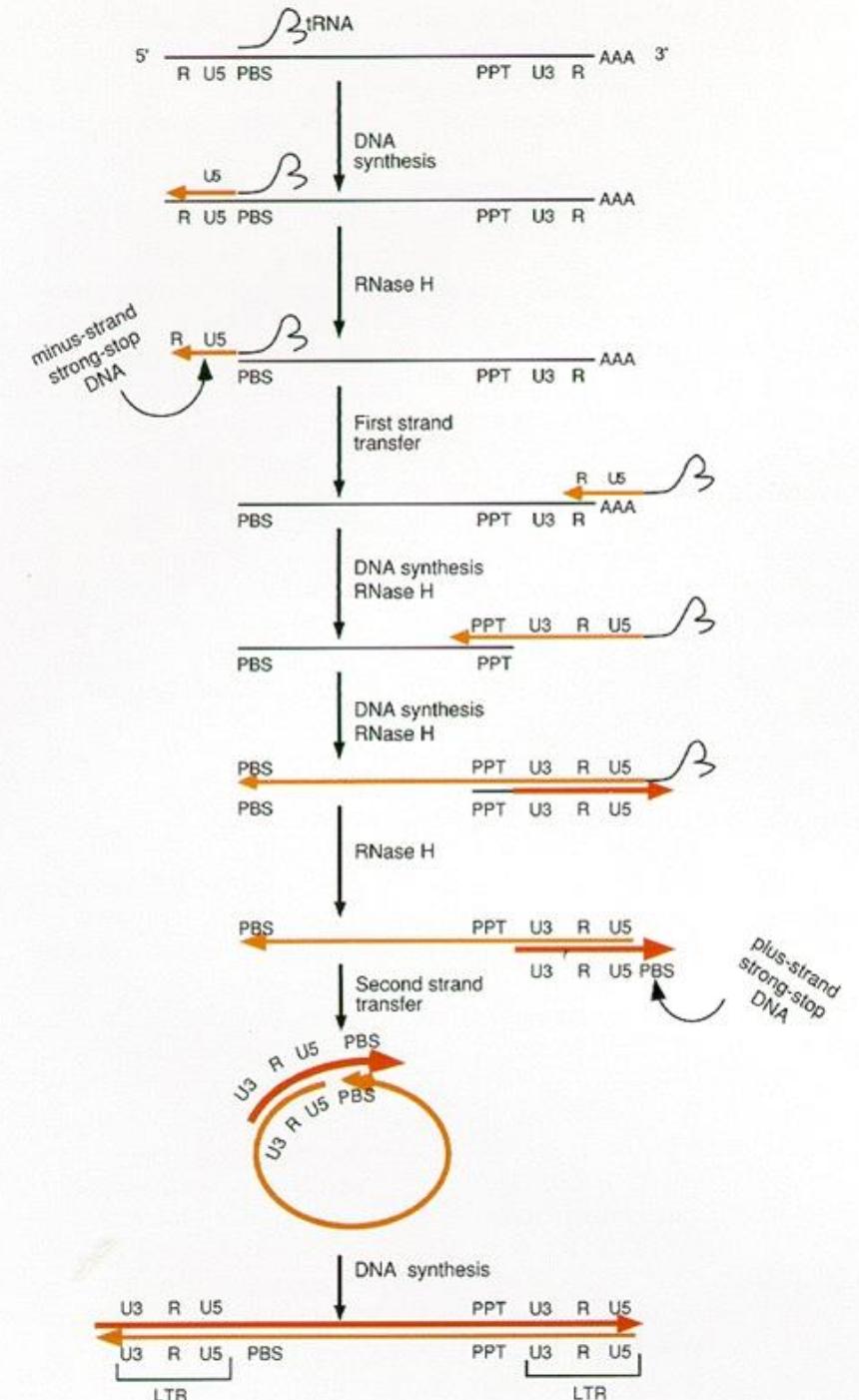
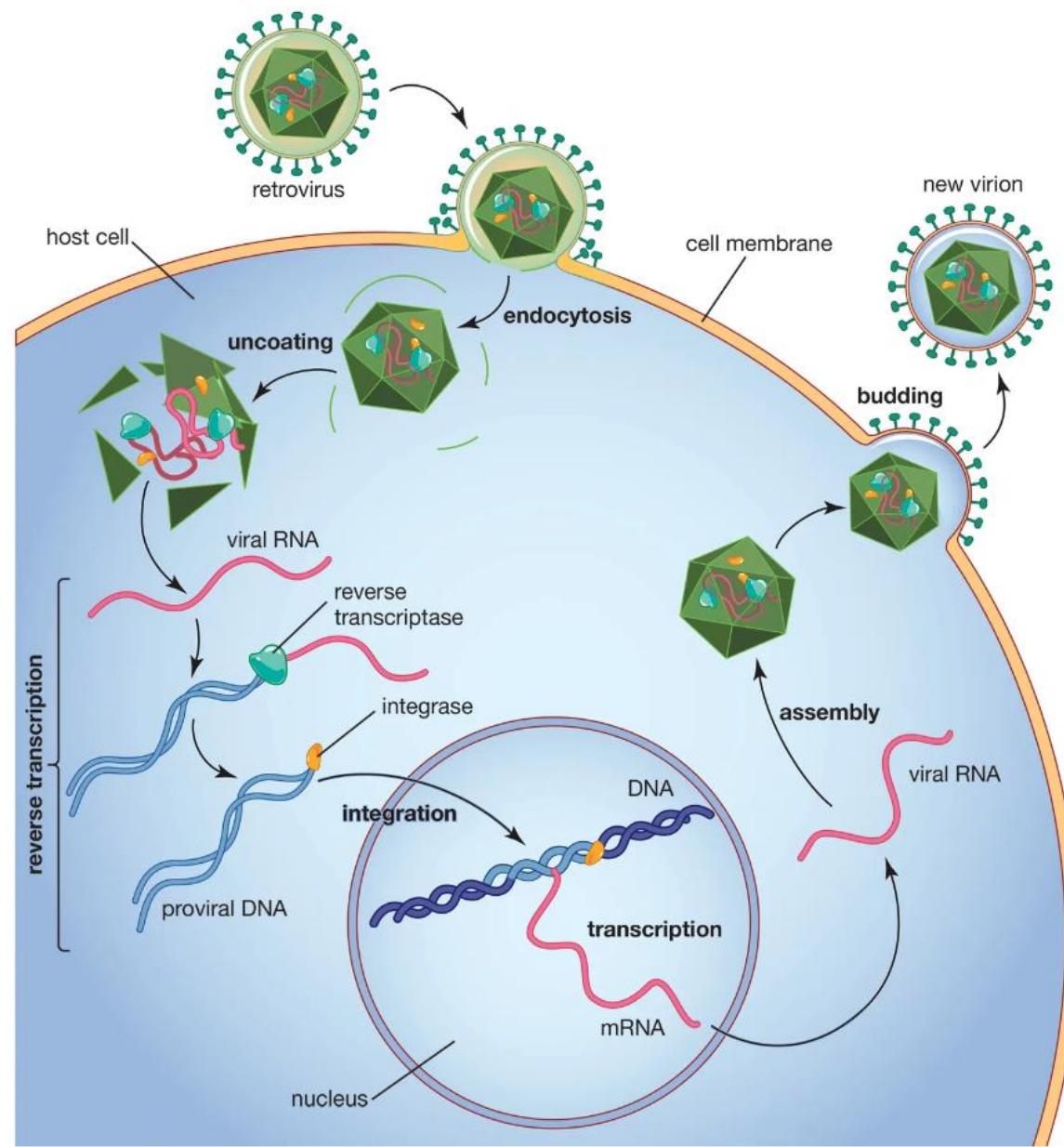
**Rho-independent termination** depends on specific sequences in the DNA template strand. As the RNA polymerase approaches the end of the gene being transcribed, it hits a region rich in C and G nucleotides. The RNA transcribed from this region folds back on itself, and the complementary C and G nucleotides 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

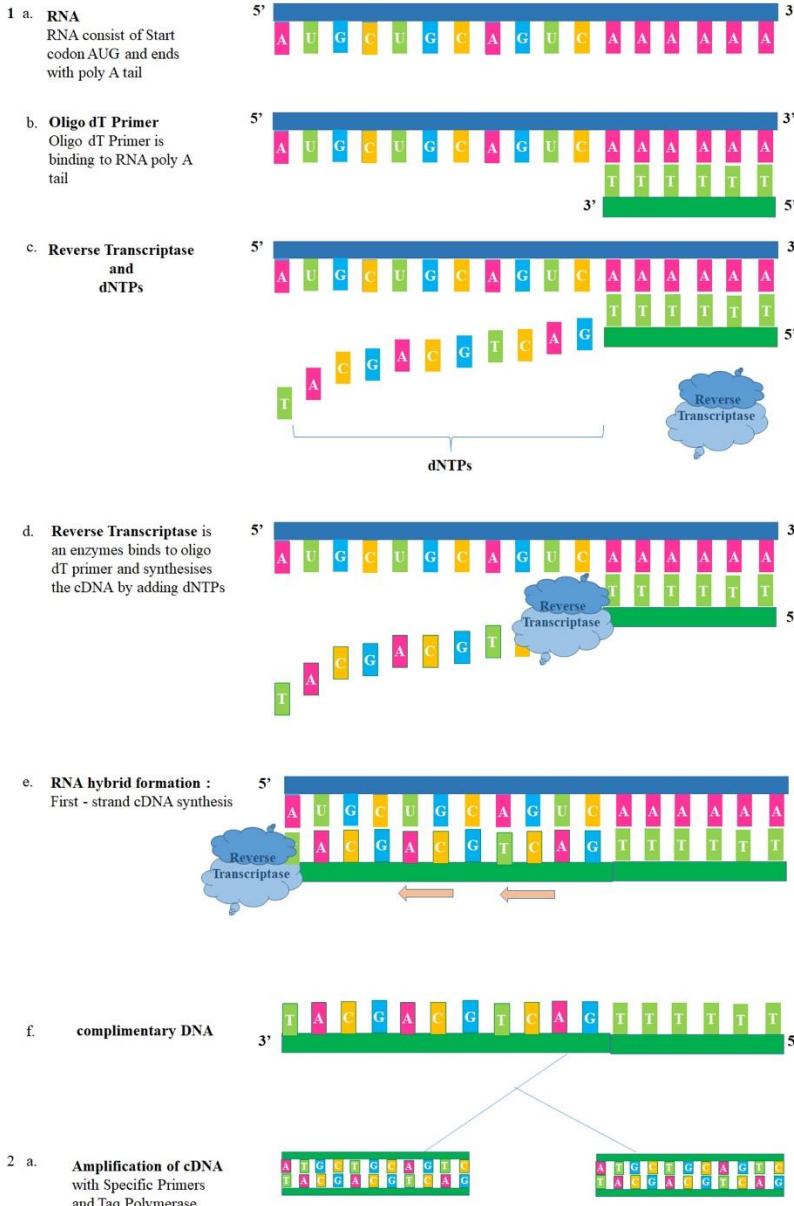
Retrovirus infection and reverse transcription



# RT-PCR

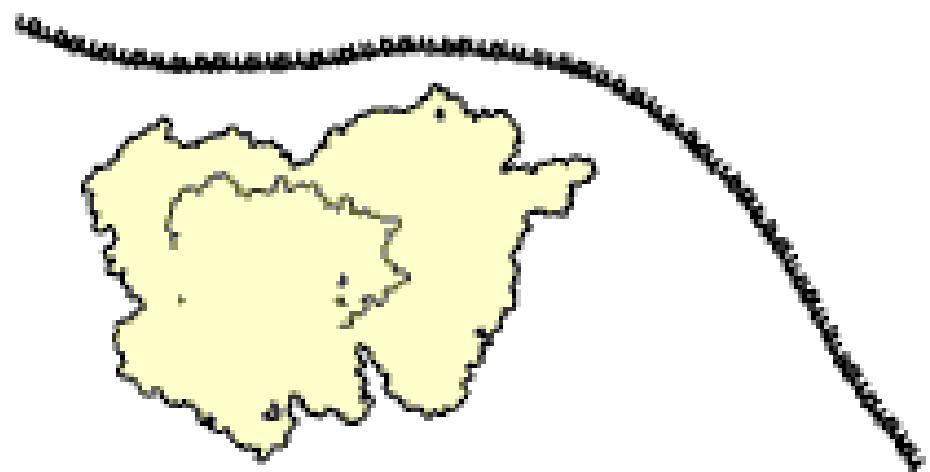
## 4.8 Reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR)

In RT-PCR, The RNA population is converted to cDNA by reverse transcription (RT), and then the cDNA is amplified by the polymerase chain reaction. The cDNA amplification step provides opportunities to further study the original RNA species, even when they are limited in amount or expressed in low abundance. Common applications of RT-PCR include detection of expressed genes, examination of transcript variants, and generation of cDNA templates for cloning and sequencing.

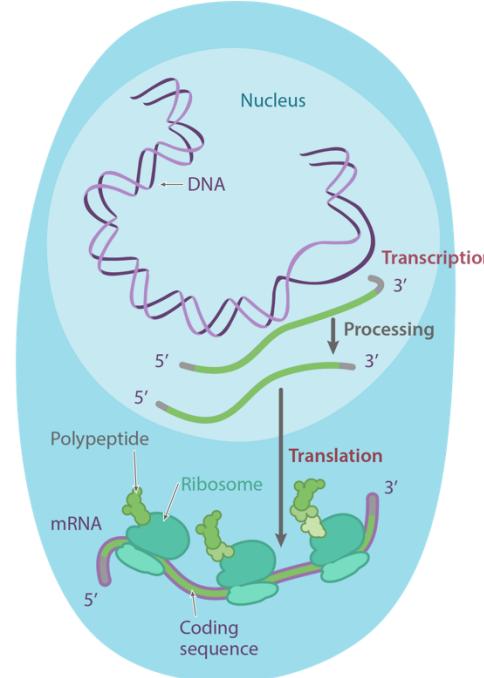


# Translation

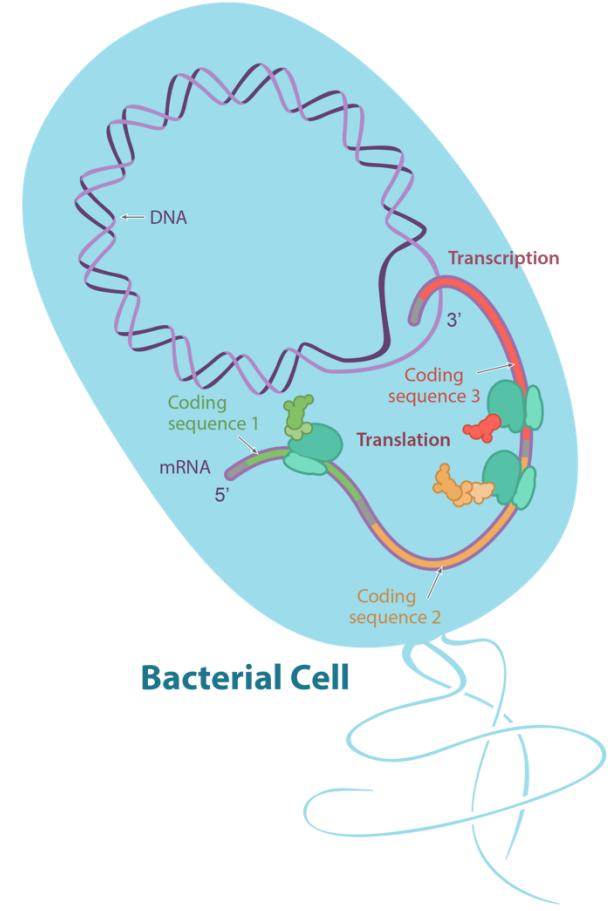
# Translation



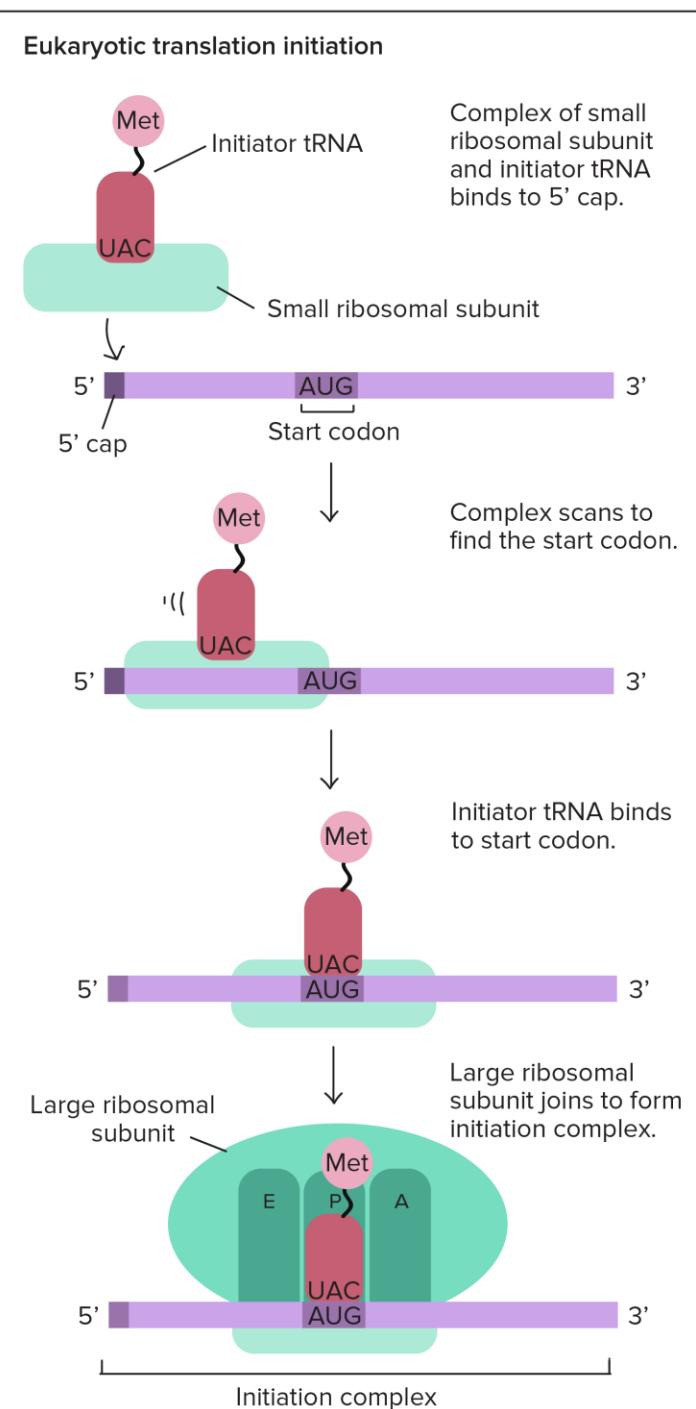
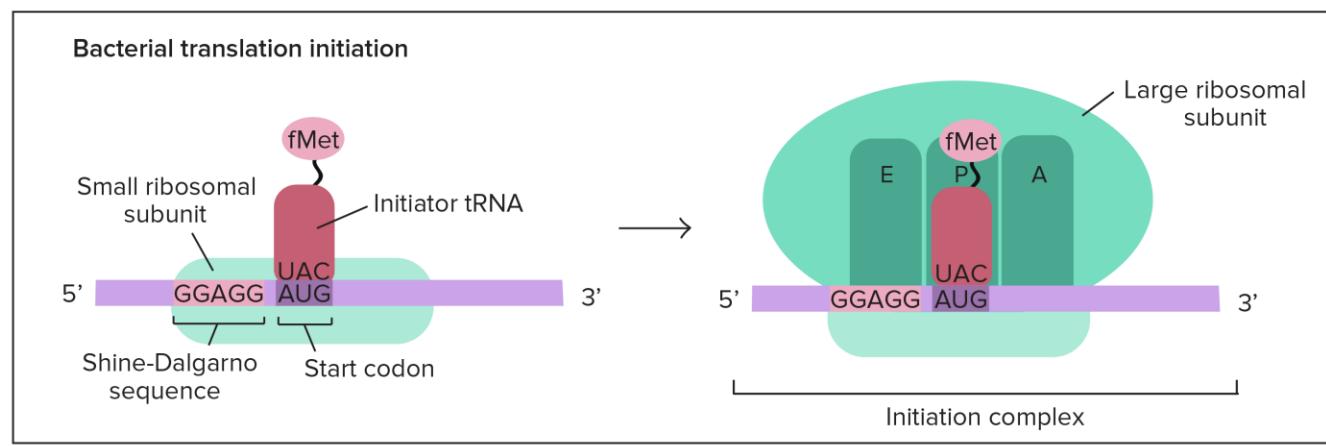
## Eukaryotic Cell



## 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)

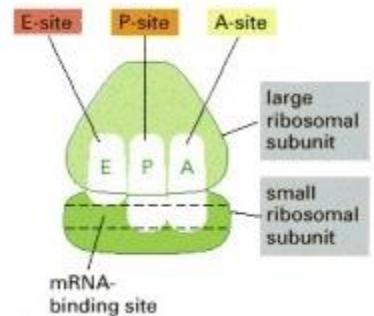
During initiation, these pieces must come together in just the right way. Together, they form the **initiation complex**, the molecular setup needed to start making a new protein.

**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).

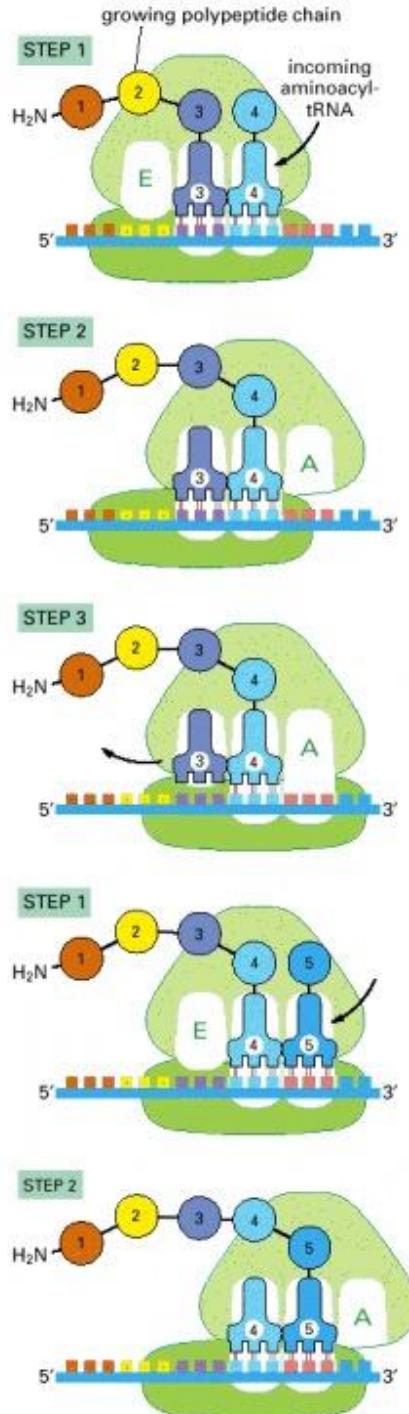
**Prokaryotes:** the small ribosomal subunit doesn't start at the 5' end of the mRNA and travel toward the 3' end. Instead, it attaches directly to certain sequences in the mRNA. These **Shine-Dalgarno** sequences come just before start codons and "point them out" to the ribosome.

# 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.



aminoacyl site (abbreviated A)  
peptidyl site (abbreviated P)  
exit site (abbreviated E)



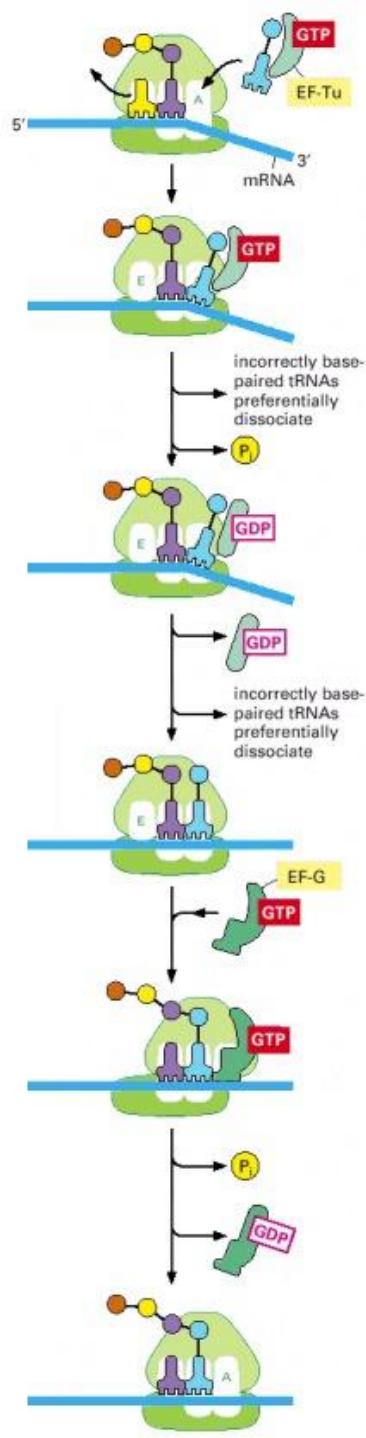
Synthesis rate: 20 AAs / s (in bacteria)

# Elongation Factors

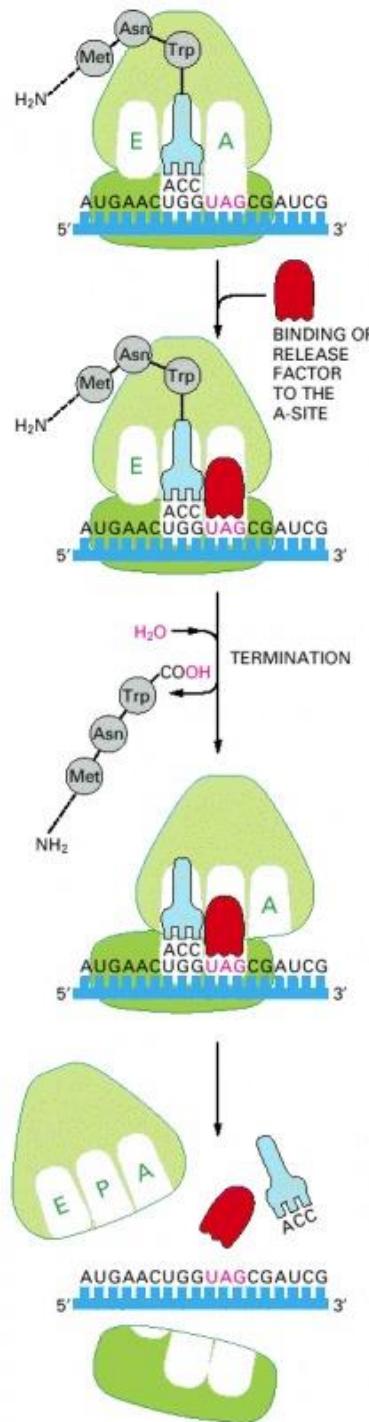
Elongation factors help move translation forwards.

EF-Tu delivers tRNAs to the ribosome.

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

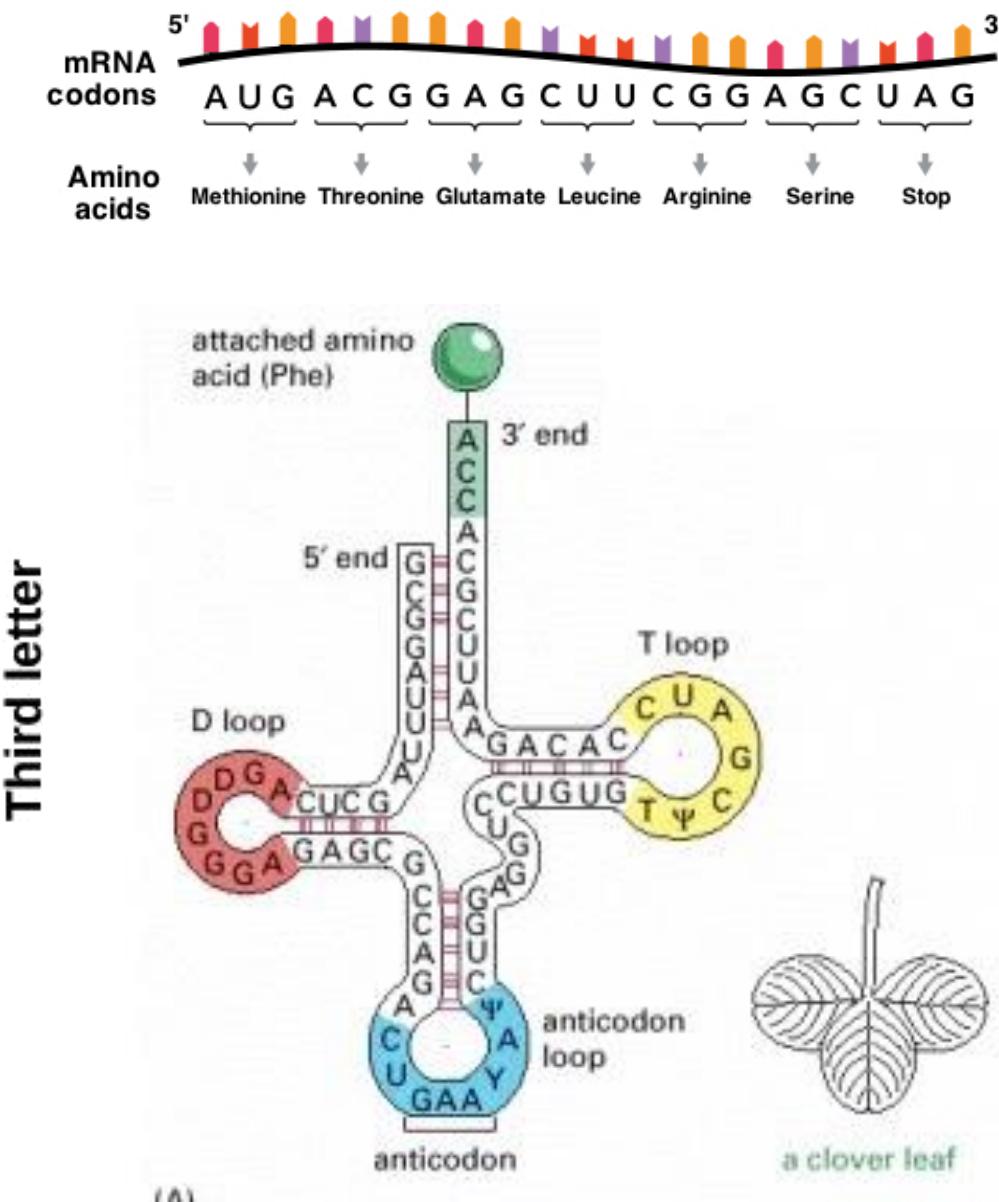


# Termination

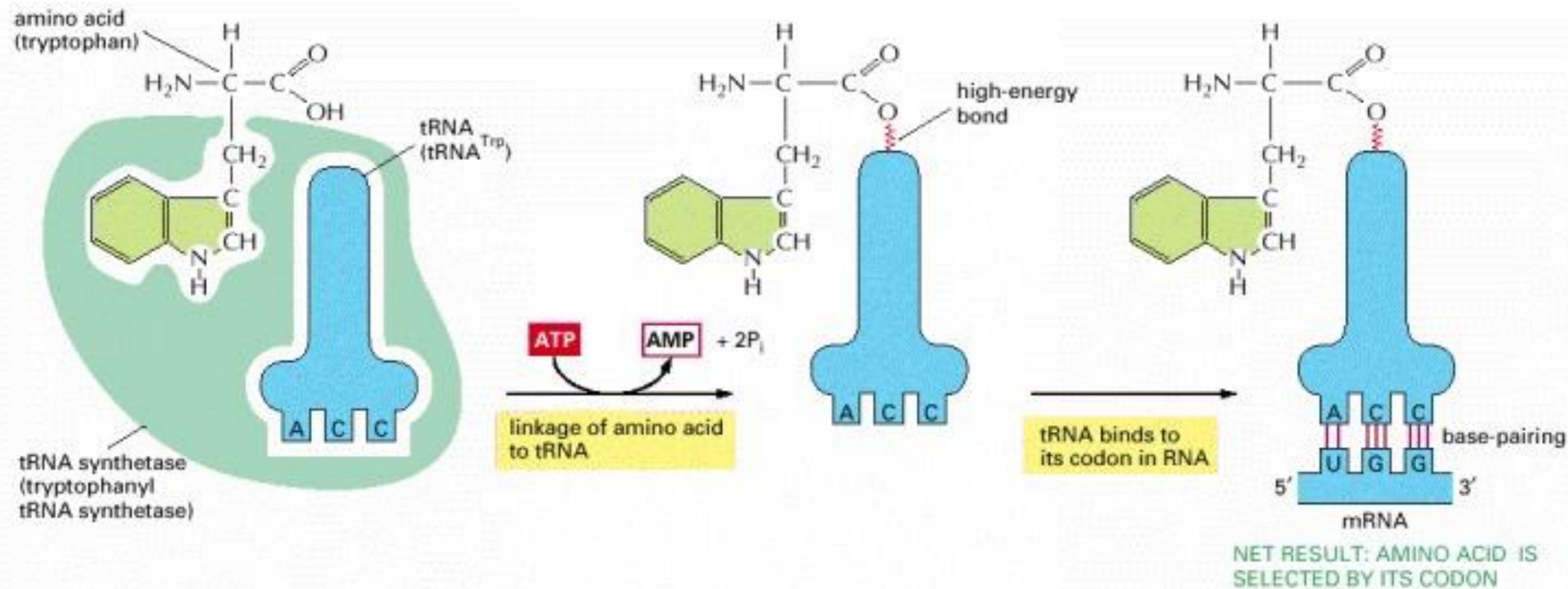


# The Genetic Code

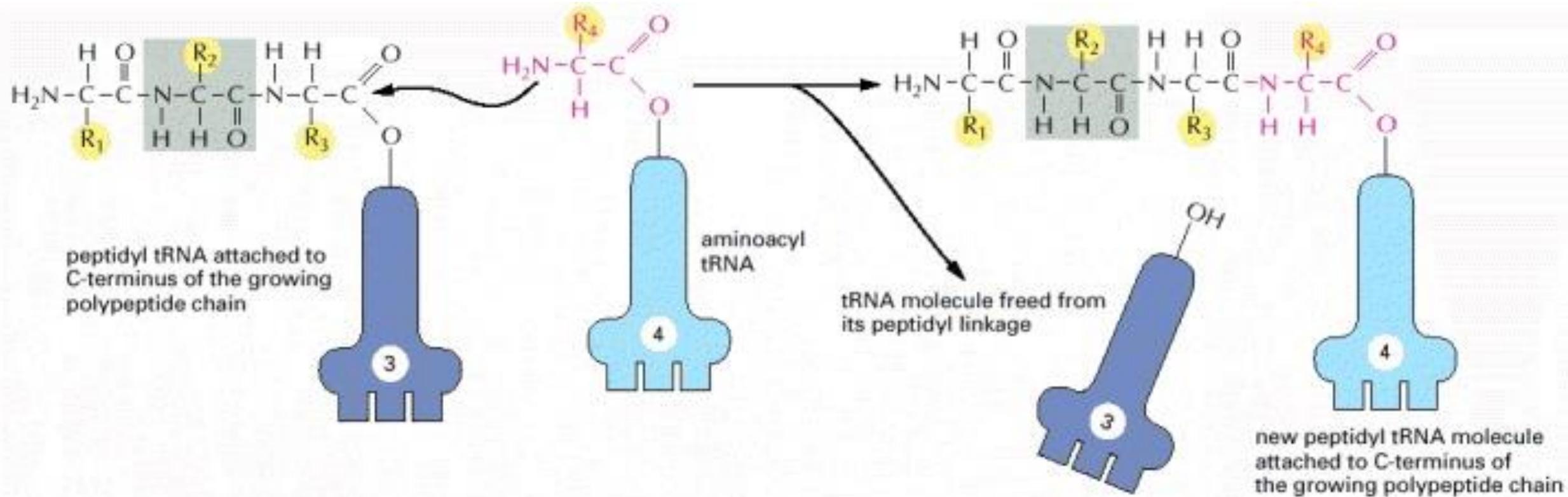
		Second letter						
		U	C	A	G			
First letter	U	UUU } Phe UUC } UUU } Leu UUG }	UCU } UCC } Ser UCA } UCG }	UAU } Tyr UAC } UAA Stop UAG Stop	UGU } Cys UGC } UGA Stop UGG Trp	U C A G		
	C	CUU } CUC } Leu CUA } CUG }	CCU } CCC } Pro CCA } CCG }	CAU } His CAC } CAA } Gln CAG }	CGU } CGC } CGA } Arg CGG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



# The Genetic Code (aaRS)



# Elongation



# Start and Stop Codons

## Start Codon

AUG (ATG on DNA)

Codes for:

- Methionine (eukaryotes)
- Formylmethionine (bacteria, archaea, 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:

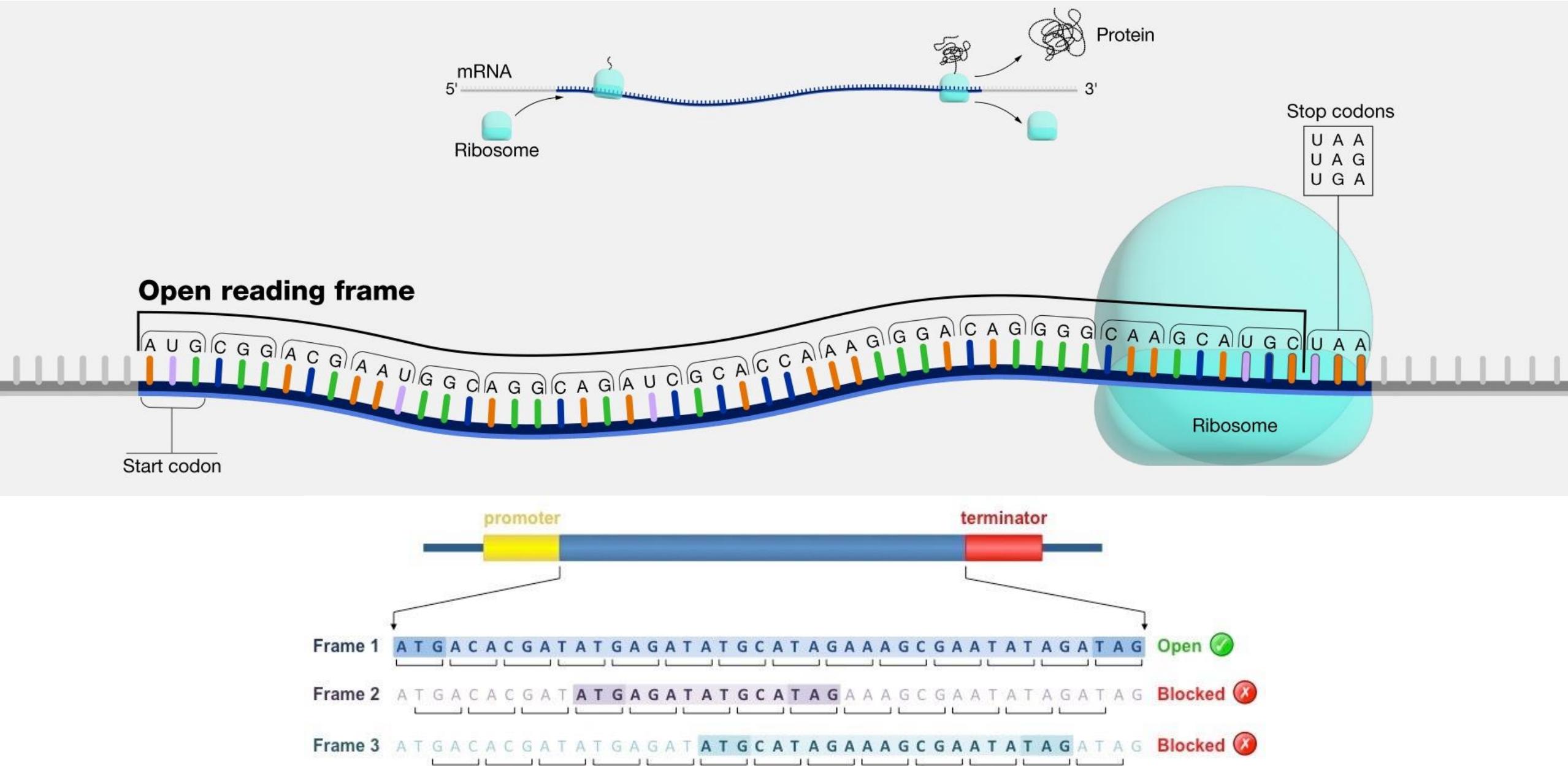
RF1 -> UAA and UAG

RF2 -> UAA

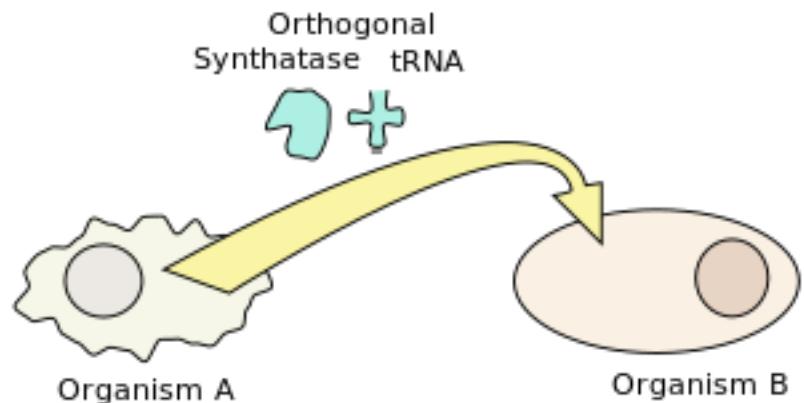
Class 2:

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

# Reading Frame



# Genetic Code Expansion



With the conditions that

I

Orthogonal synthetase can aminoacylate only the orthogonal tRNA



II

Endogenous synthases cannot aminoacylate the orthogonal tRNA



III

The orthogonal tRNA binds an unallocated codon



## 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  $\rightarrow$  UAA and UAG

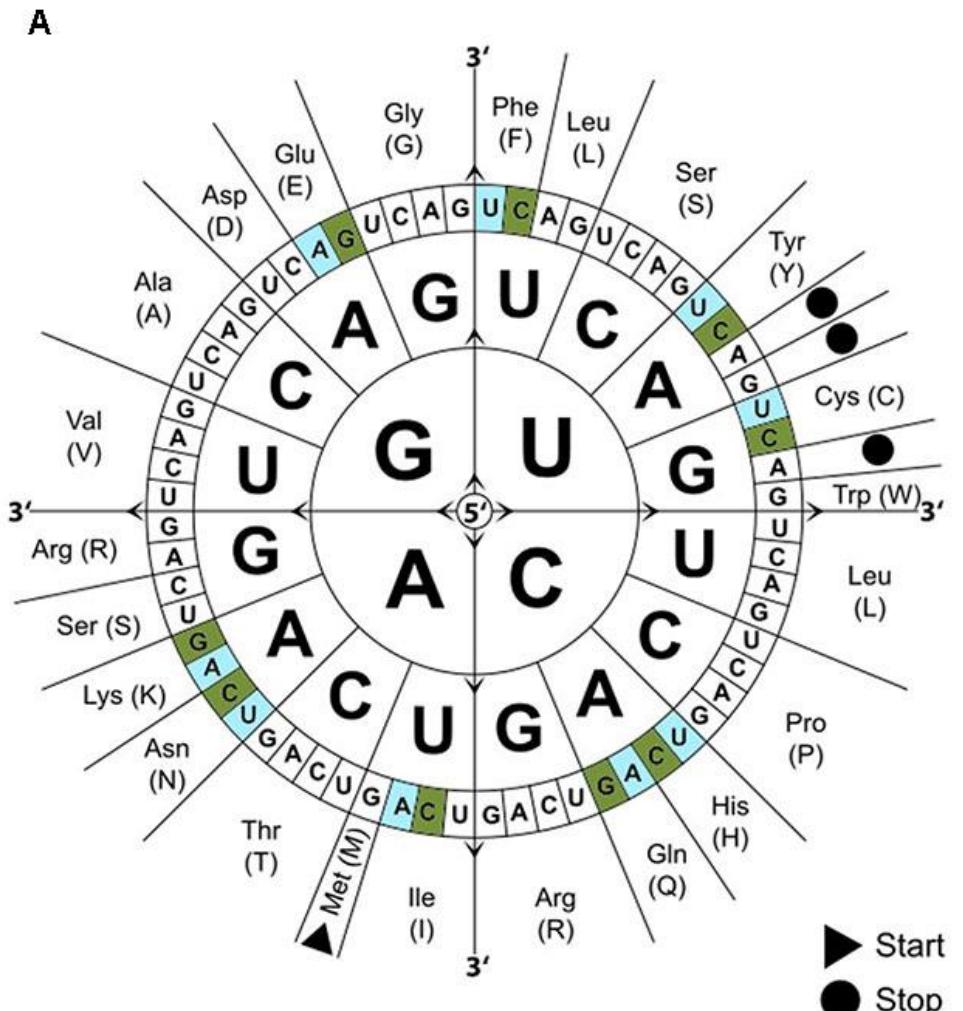
RF2  $\rightarrow$  UAA and UGA

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)	<b>AGG</b>	<b>0</b>	Met	ATG	1
(Arg)	<b>CGA</b>	<b>0</b>	Phe	TTC	0.79
Arg	CGC	0.24	Phe	TTT	0.21
(Arg)	<b>CGG</b>	<b>0.01</b>	Pro	CCA	0.08
Arg	CGT	0.73	(Pro)	<b>CCC</b>	<b>0.01</b>
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)	<b>AGT</b>	<b>0.01</b>
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)	<b>GGA</b>	<b>0</b>	Stop	TGA	0
Gly	GGC	0.5	Thr	ACA	0.02
(Gly)	<b>GGG</b>	<b>0.01</b>	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)	<b>CTA</b>	<b>0.01</b>	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

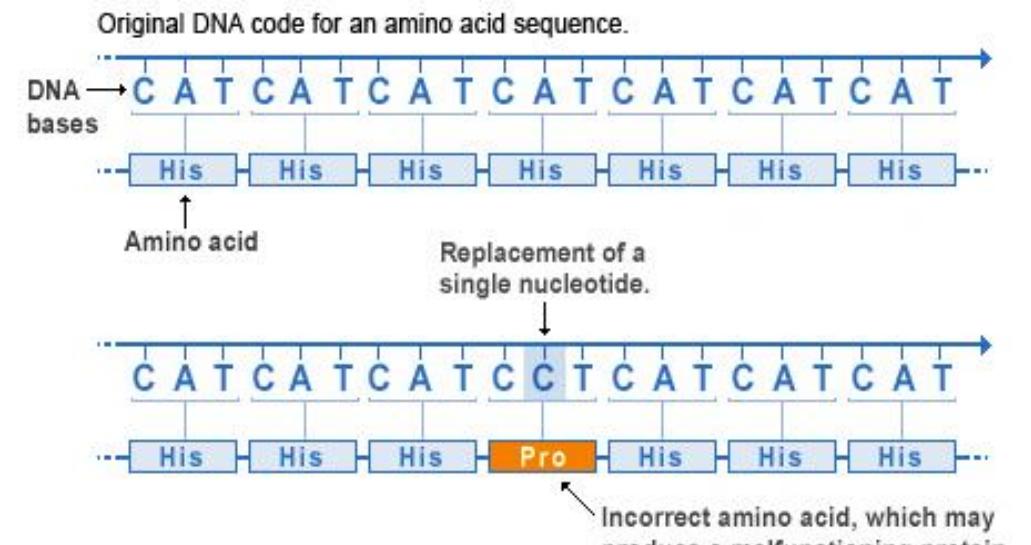
Nonsense mutation:

- Results in a stop codon

Synonymous substitution (silent mutation):

- Is a mutation that doesn't change the AA

### Missense mutation



## Insertions / Deletions (indels)

- Are frameshift mutations (if not multiple of 3)

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