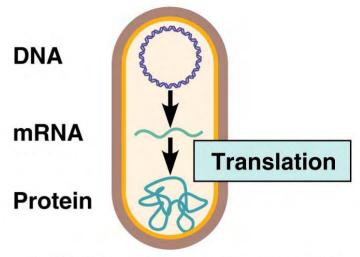
Chapter 8: Microbial Genetics

- **1. Gene Expression**
- 2. Gene Regulation
- 3. DNA Replication & Mutation
- 4. Mechanisms of Gene Transfer

1. Gene Expression

Gene Expression

The expression of a gene into a protein occurs by:



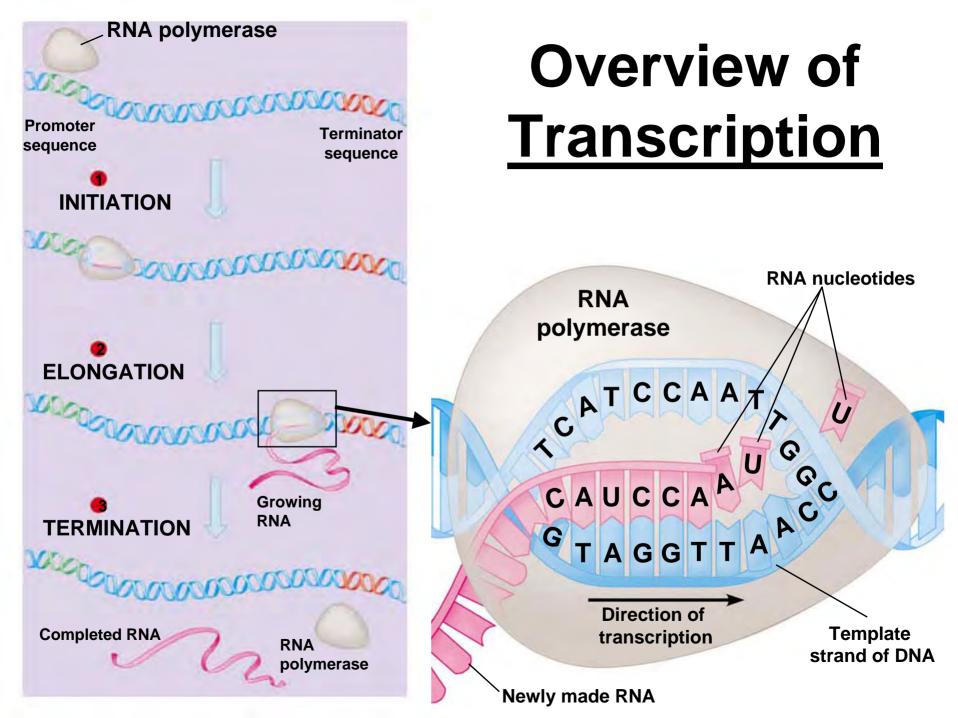
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1) <u>Transcription</u> of a gene into RNA

- produces an RNA copy of the coding region of a gene
- the RNA transcript may be the actual gene product (rRNA, tRNA) or be translated into a polypeptide gene product (mRNA)

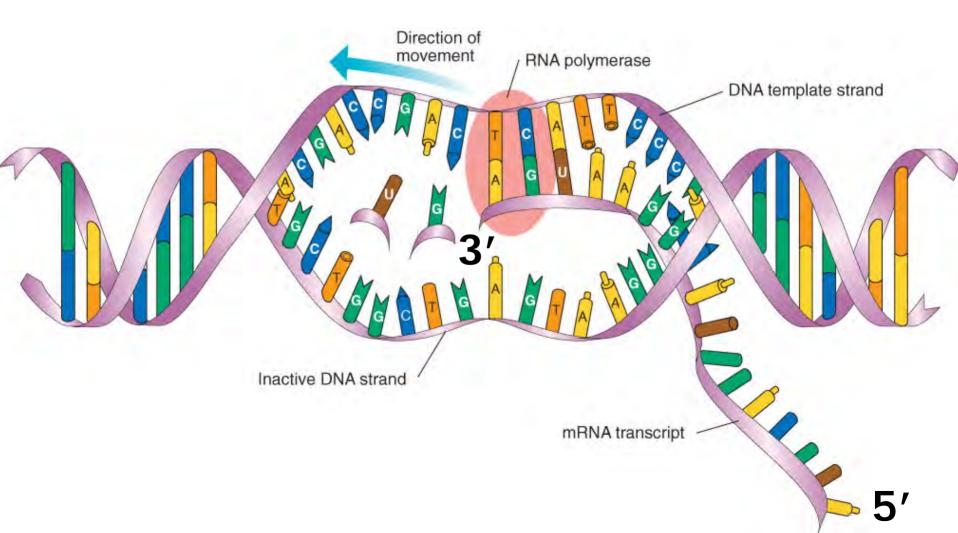
2) Translation of mRNA transcript into polypeptide

accomplished by <u>ribosomes</u> with the help of tRNA



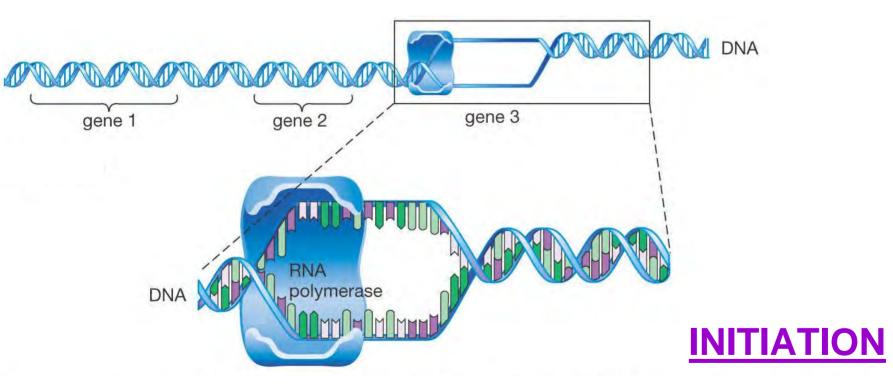
Transcription is Uni-directional

 ribo-nucleotides can only be added to the 3' end of an transcript, thus elongation is in a <u>5' -> 3'</u> direction



3 Steps of Transcription 1) Initiation

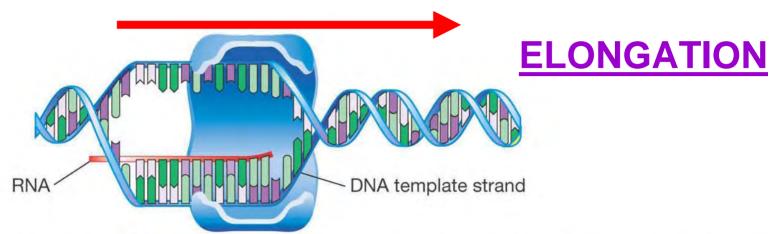
• <u>RNA polymerase</u> binds to the <u>promoter</u> of a gene

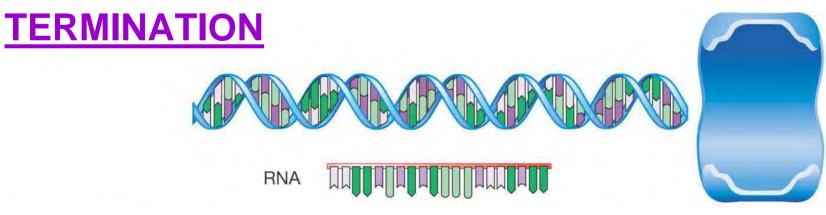


- promoter serves to target and orient RNA polymerase
- once "docked" at promoter, RNA polymerase unzips DNA

2) Elongation

• only 1 DNA strand is used as a template





3) Termination

• triggered by specific DNA sequences in the gene

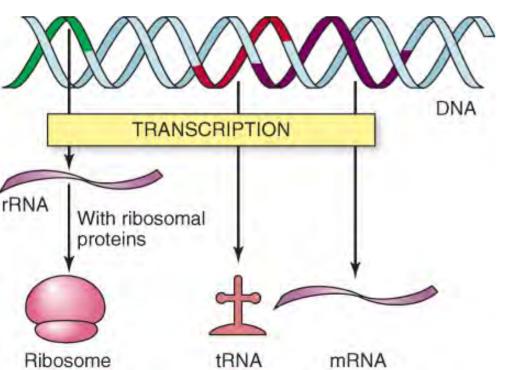
Various Roles of RNA Transcripts

1) messenger RNA (mRNA)

• RNA copy of a gene that encodes a polypeptide

2) ribosomal RNA (rRNA)

• RNA that is a structural component of ribosomes



3) transfer RNA (tRNA)

 delivery of "correct" amino acids to ribosomes during translation

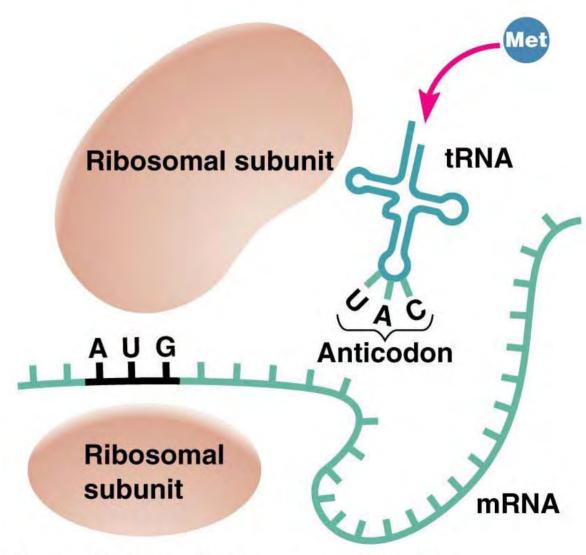
Overview of <u>Translation</u>

The building of a polypeptide, 1 amino acid at a time, by <u>ribosomes</u> using info in mRNA:

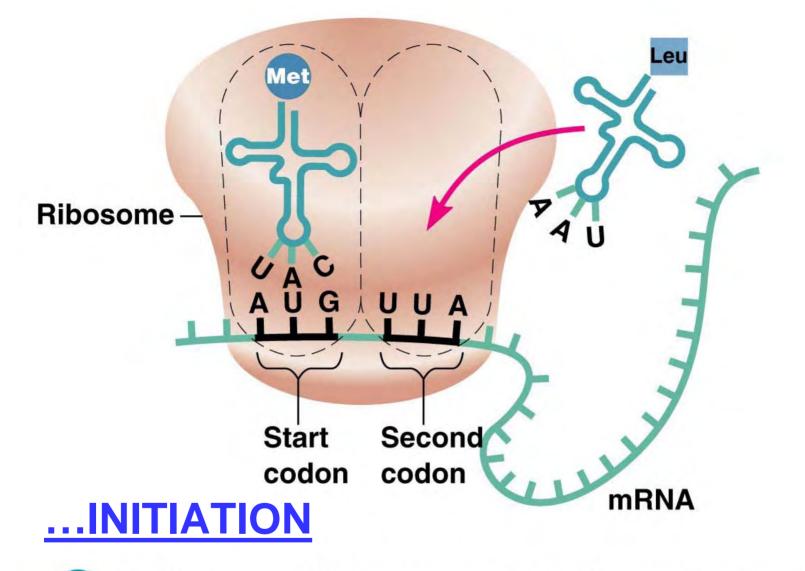
- ribosomes bind directly to mRNA, "read" codon by codon
 - ribosomes always start at <u>AUG</u> (methionine)
- translation also involves tRNA, each of which is attached to 1 of the 20 amino acids (AAs)
 - ribosomes match the right tRNA (via anticodon) with the right codon in the mRNA, then add its AA to the growing protein

Translation: step by step...

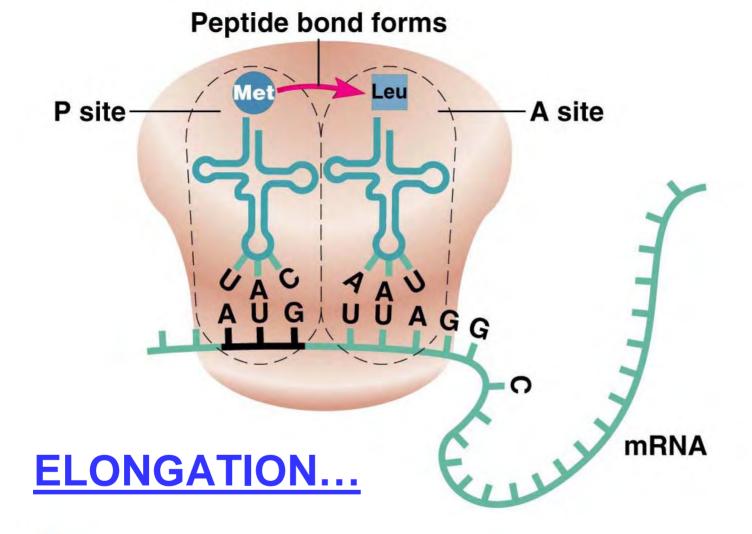




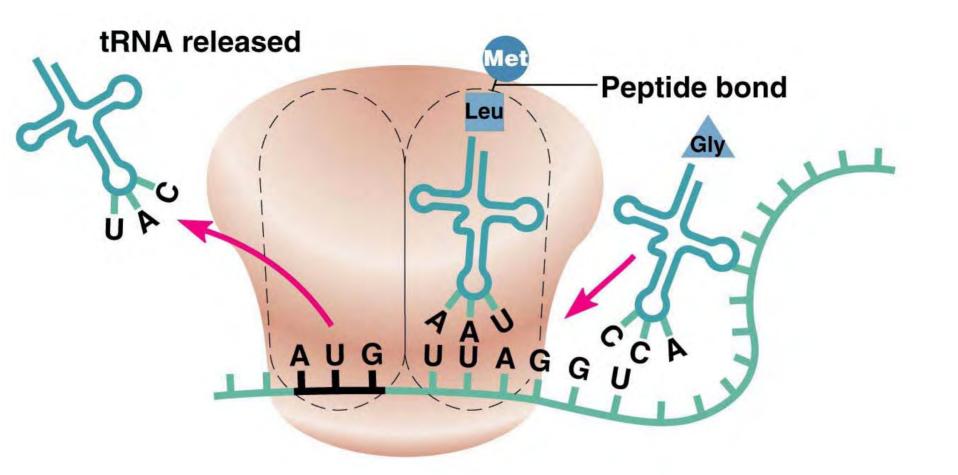
Components needed to begin translation come together.



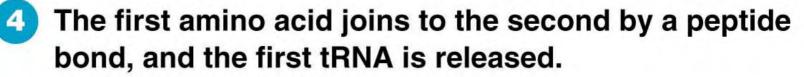
On the assembled ribosome, a tRNA carrying the first amino acid is paired with the start codon on the mRNA. A tRNA carrying the second amino acid approaches.

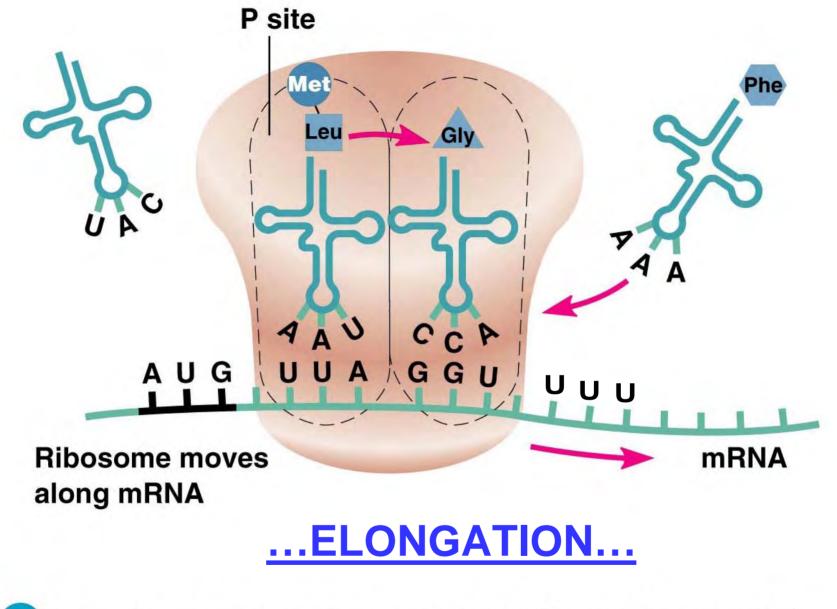


3 The place on the ribosome where the first tRNA sits is called the P site. In the A site next to it, the second codon of the mRNA pairs with a tRNA carrying the second amino acid.

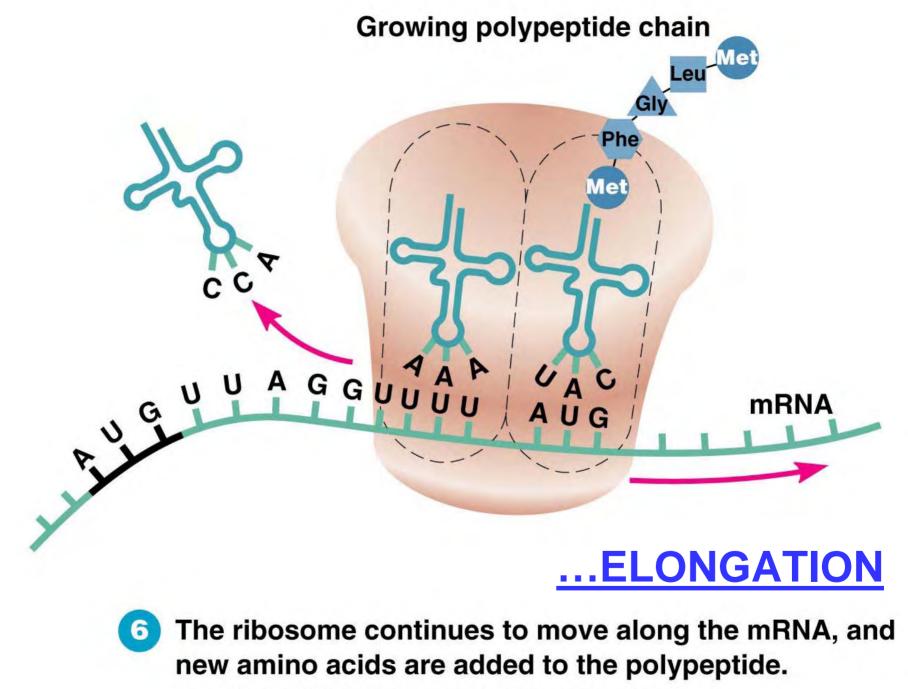


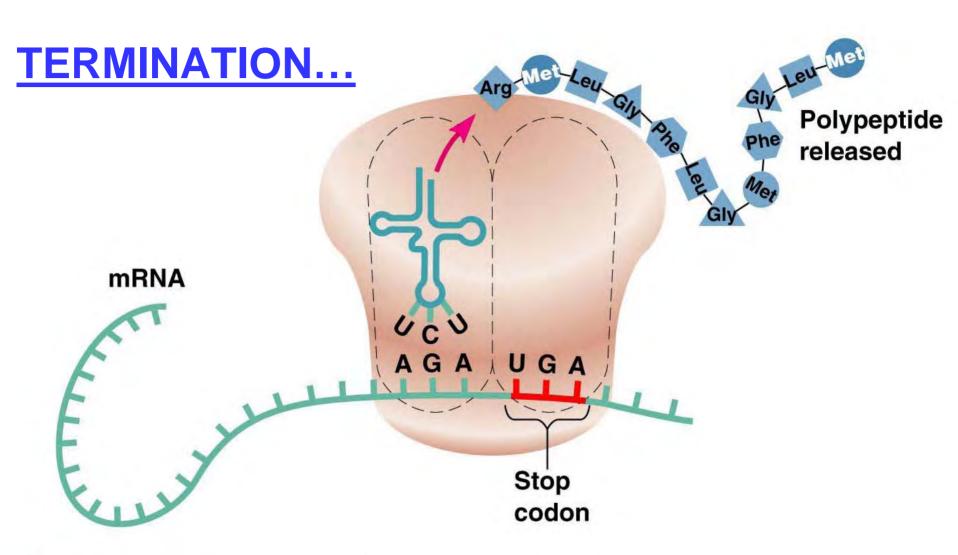
...ELONGATION...

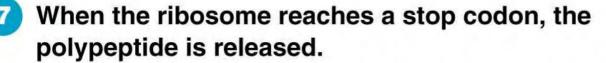


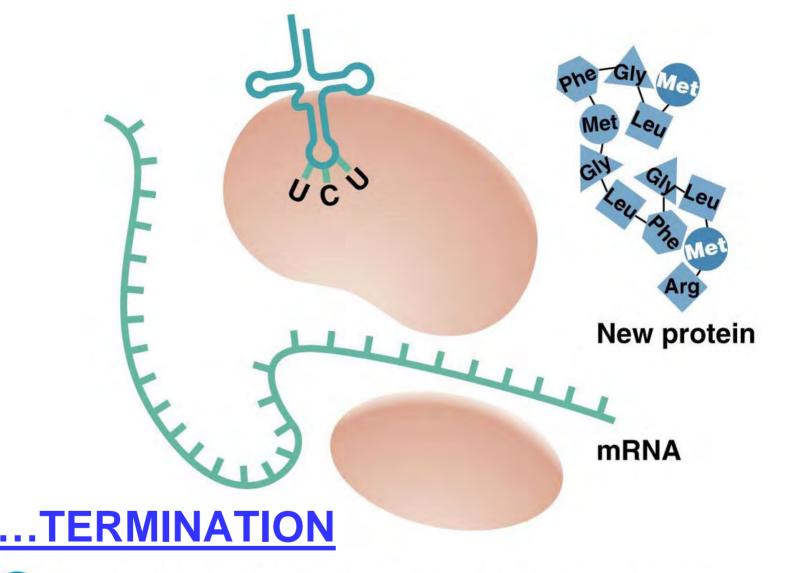


5 The ribosome moves along the mRNA until the second tRNA is in the P site, and the process continues.









8 Finally, the last tRNA is released, and the ribosome comes apart. The released polypeptide forms a new protein.

Summary of Translation

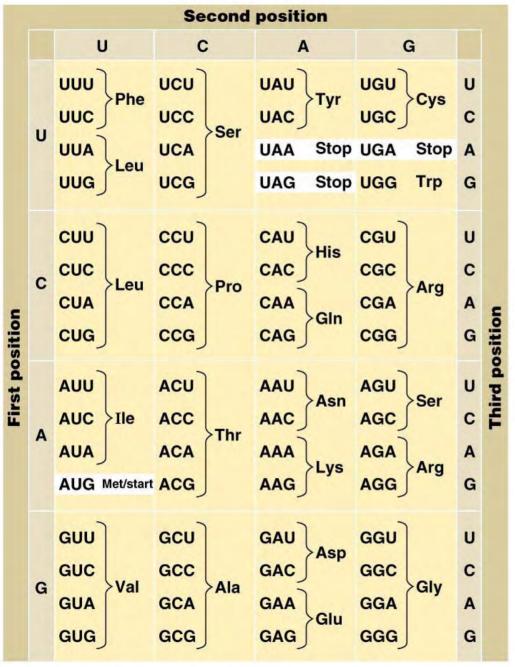
- ribosome assembles at specific AUG of mRNA
- ribosome binds 2 tRNA-AAs, 2 codons at a time
 - matching complementary anti-codons with mRNA codons

ELONGATION

- ribosome catalyzes peptide bond formation between amino acids attached to each tRNA
- ribosome shifts 3 nucleotides (1 codon) on mRNA and repeats the process

TERMINATION

• "stop" codon causes translation to end



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Table of the Genetic Code

If the DNA sequence is: CATGCCTGGGCAATAG

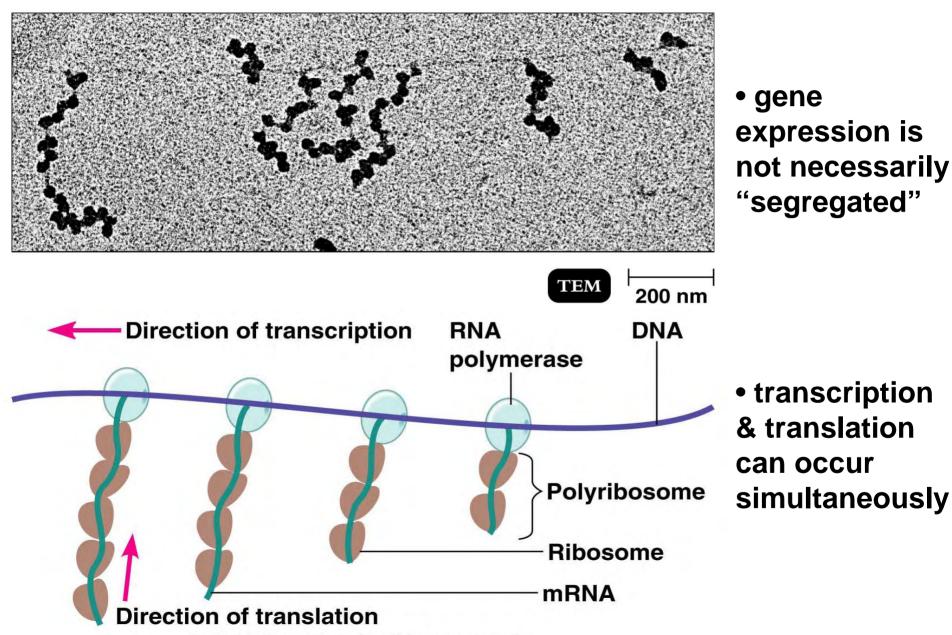
(transcription)

The mRNA copy is: CAUGCCUGGGCAAUAG (translation)

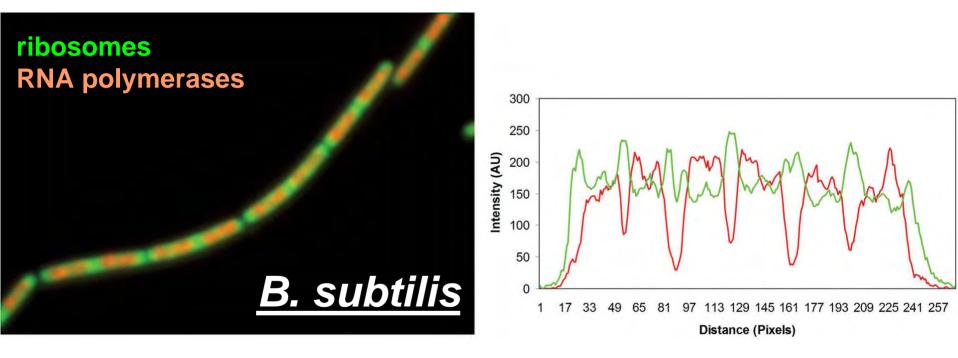
The polypeptide is: *Met-Pro-Gly-Gln-(stop)

*all proteins begin w/Met

Gene Expression in Prokaryotes

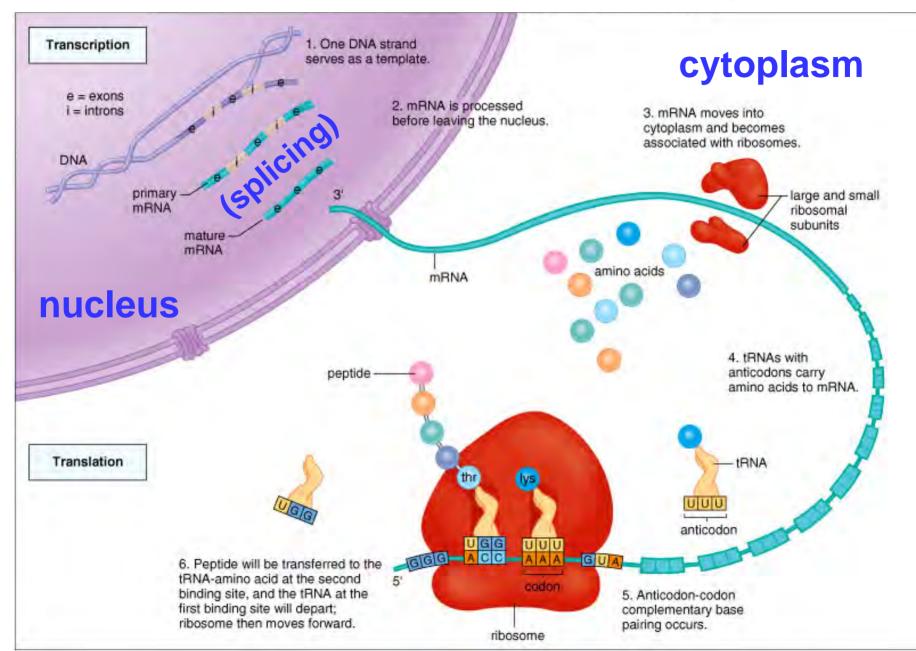


Compartmentalization of Gene Expression in Prokaryotes



• as shown above, there is evidence of the segregation of transcription & translation in some prokaryotes

Gene Expression in Eukaryotes



Splicing of Eukaryotic Transcripts

| | Exon | Intron | Exon | Intron | Exon |
|--------------------------|------|---|----------------------------------|--|----------------------------|
| DNA RNA transcript | | ţ | A gene comport transcribed to | | and introns is polymerase. |
| | | - | nucleus to rer | Processing involves ribozymes and proteins in the nucleus to remove the intron-derived RNA and splice together the exon-derived RNA into mRNA. | |
| | mRNA | After further modification, the mature mRNA travels to the cytoplasm, where it directs protein synthesis. | | | |
| | | Nucleus Cytoplasm | | | |

2. Gene Regulation

Levels of Gene Regulation

The expression of a gene into functional proteins can be regulated at multiple levels:

TRANSCRIPTION*

(regulation of rate at which gene is transcribed)

mRNA transcript stability ("half-life" of transcripts)

*key level of regulation

TRANSLATION

(regulation of translation of mRNA)

post-translational modifications

(e.g., cleavage of polypeptides, addition of chemical groups)

Regulation of Transcription

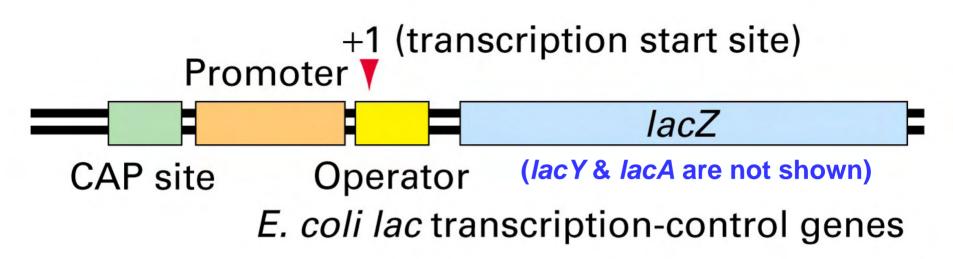
The focal point is whether or not RNA polymerase binds the promoter of a gene and initiates transcription which depends on:

- 1) Affinity of RNA polymerase for a given promoter
 - some promoters are "strong" and bind RNA polymerase with high affinity
 - some promoters are "weak" and bind RNA polymerase with low affinity, requiring help from special proteins called transcription factors
 - the strength of a promoter depends on its sequence

2) Influence of proteins collectively referred to as transcription factors

- proteins that help RNA polymerase bind a promoter (referred to as "<u>activators</u>")
- proteins that inhibit or prevent RNA polymerase from binding a promoter (referred to as "<u>repressors</u>" or "<u>inhibitors</u>")
- the levels of various <u>repressors</u> & <u>activators</u> of transcription depend on the cellular environment, which thus determines which genes are ON or OFF!
- Let's see how this works in genes involved with lactose metabolism in *E. coli*...

The *lac* operon of *E.* coli



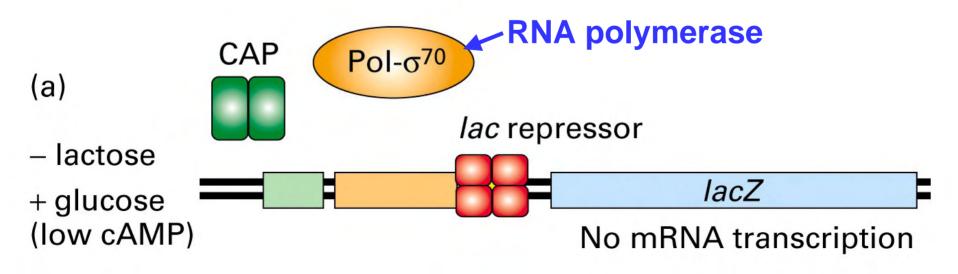
The *lac* operon is a module of 3 genes involved in lactose metabolism, *lacZ*, *lacY* & *lacA*, that are transcribed in a single mRNA from a single promoter.

On either side of the promoter are 2 special sequences, the <u>CAP site</u> which binds the activator <u>CAP</u>, and the <u>Operator</u> which binds the <u>lac repressor</u>...

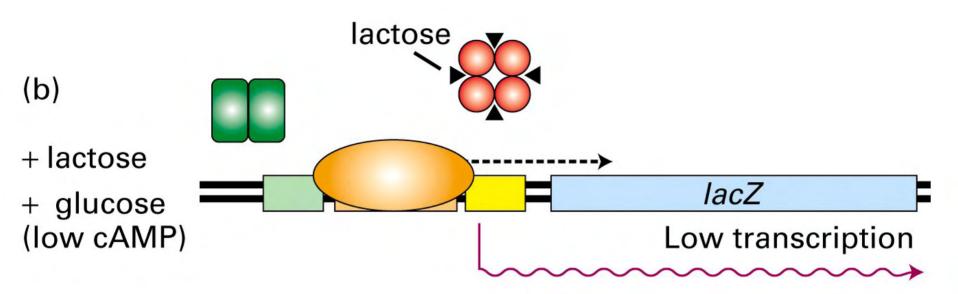
When lactose is absent:

The <u>lac repressor</u> protein by default is bound to the <u>operator</u> sequence, thus blocking part of the promoter and preventing RNA polymerase from binding and initiating transcription of the *lacZ*, *lacY* & *lacA* genes.

• the *lac* operon is OFF since there's no need for these gene products in the absence of lactose



When lactose is present w/glucose:



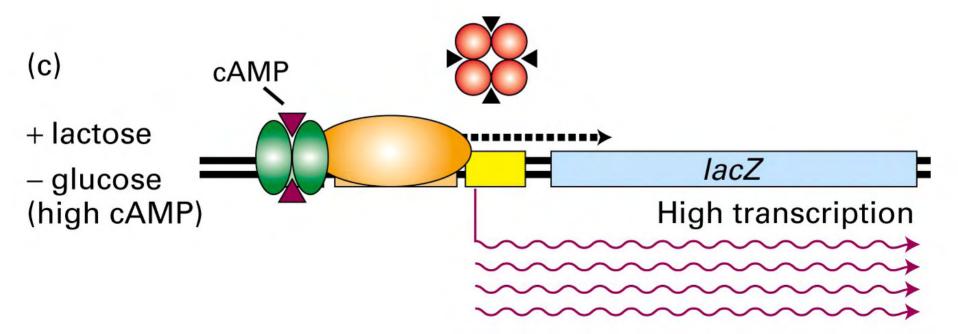
Lactose binds to the *lac* repressor, inducing a change in shape that prevents its binding the Operator sequence.

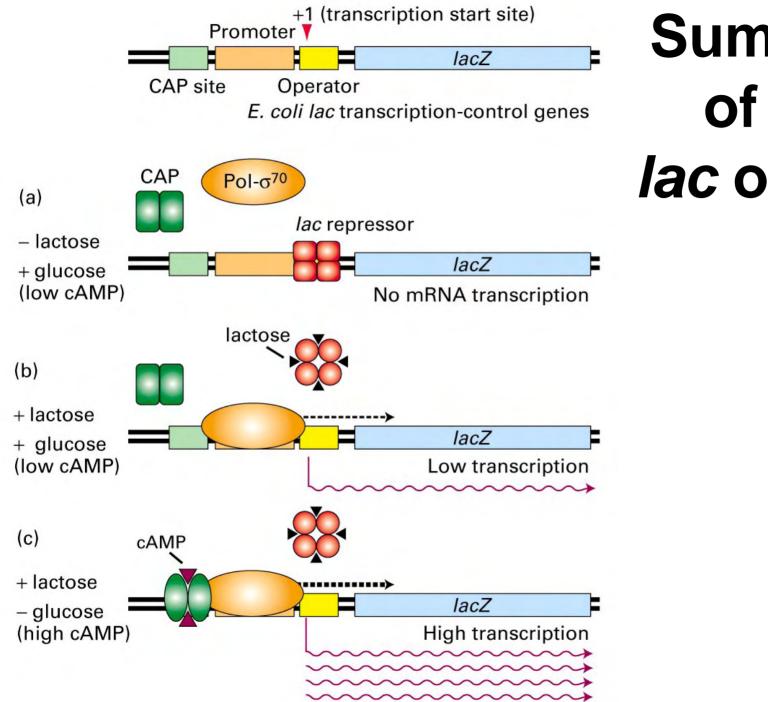
- with the operator no longer occupied, RNA polymerase can bind promoter & initiate a low level of transcription
- since glucose (a preferred energy source) is present, the *lac* operon is ON "low"

When lactose is present w/o glucose:

The <u>lac repressor</u> is bound by lactose and inactive, and the low glucose levels activate <u>CAP</u>, a transcriptional activator, which binds the <u>CAP site</u> & enhances binding of RNA polymerase to the promoter.

• since lactose is a much more important source of energy in the absence of glucose, the *lac* operon is ON "high"

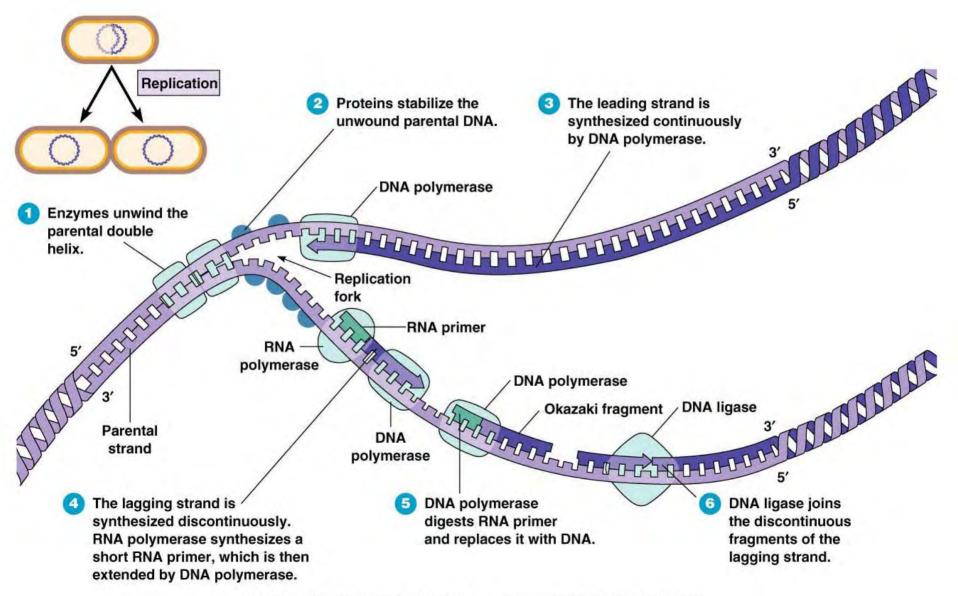




Summary of the *lac* operon

3. DNA Replication & Mutation

DNA Replication



Features of DNA Replication

- Both strands serve as a template:
 - synthesis is always 5'-3'
 - *leading* strand synthesis is <u>continuous</u>, *lagging* strand synthesis is <u>discontinuous</u>

Each new DNA fragment requires an RNA primer:

• DNA synthesis cannot begin without a primer to add to

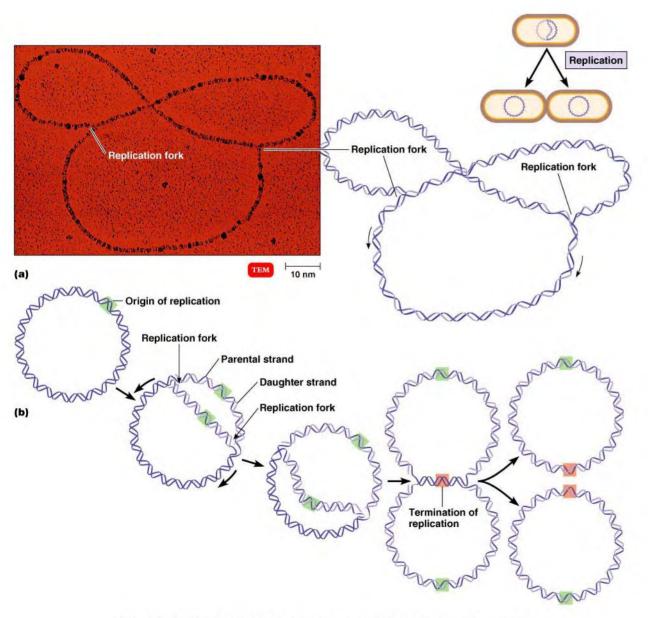
Some important enzymes:

DNA Polymerase (synthesizes new DNA)

Primase (makes RNA primers)

DNA Ligase ("stitches" fragments together)

DNA Replication in Prokaryotes



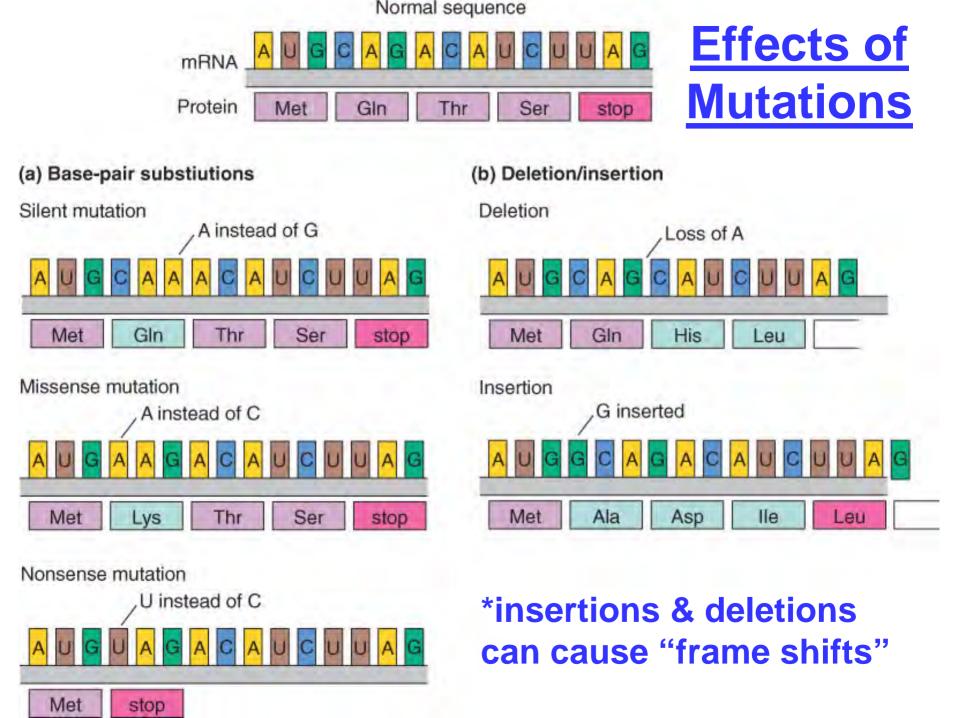
 begins at the origin of replication (OriC)

 can only be completed if DNA is circular

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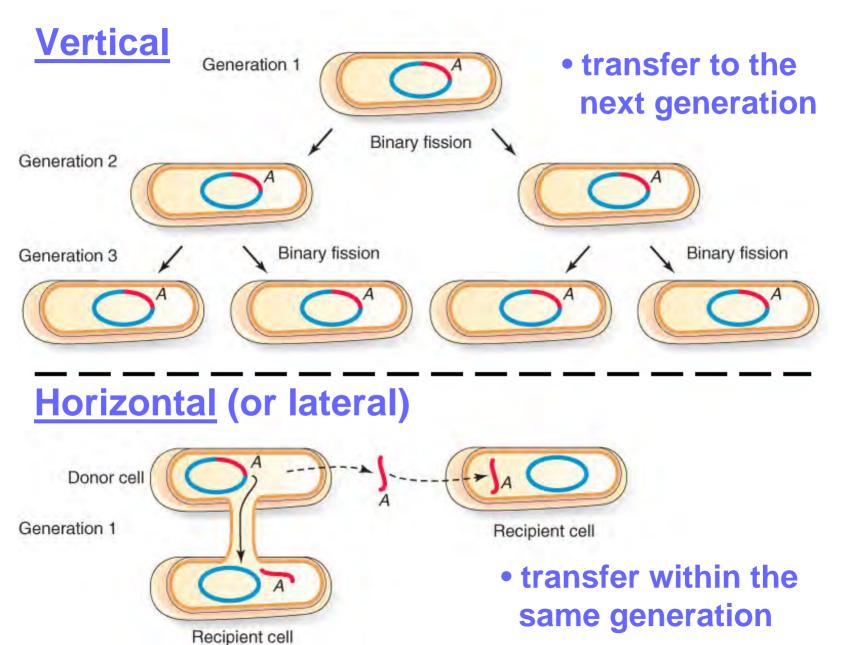
Mutations

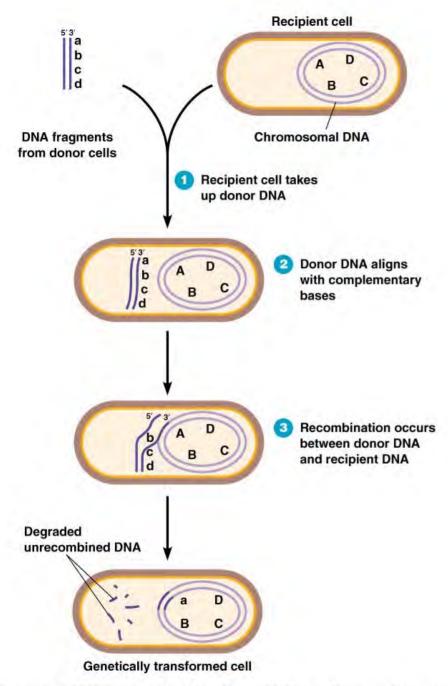
- A mutation is *any* change in DNA sequence:
 - change of one nucleotide to another
 - insertion or deletion of nucleotides or DNA fragments
 - inversion or recombination of DNA fragments
- What causes mutations?
 - errors in DNA replication, DNA repair
 - chemical mutagenesis
 - high energy electromagnetic radiation
 - UV light, X-rays, gamma rays



4. Mechanisms of Gene Transfer

Horizontal vs Vertical Gene Transfer





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Homologous Recombination

Unless transferred DNA is circular w/Ori (plasmid), it must recombine with host DNA to be retained

Recombination can occur between *homologous* (similar) DNA sequences:

- DNA with "same" genes
- facilitated by special proteins
- original DNA is lost

Methods of Gene Transfer

Bacteria can acquire DNA (i.e., new genes) in 3 basic ways:

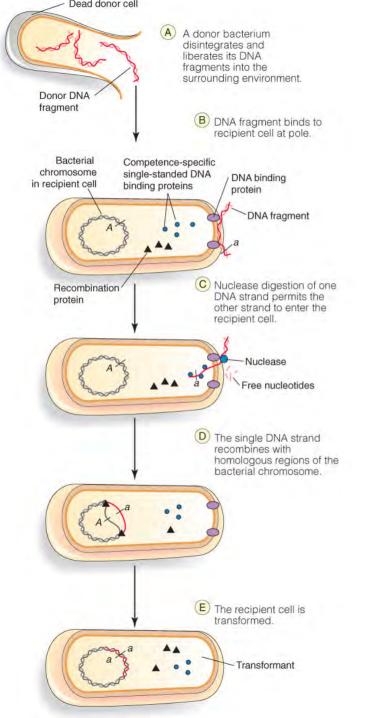
- 1) Transformation
 - uptake and retention of external DNA molecules

2) Conjugation

direct transfer of DNA from one bacterium to another

3) Transduction

• the transfer of DNA between bacteria by a virus

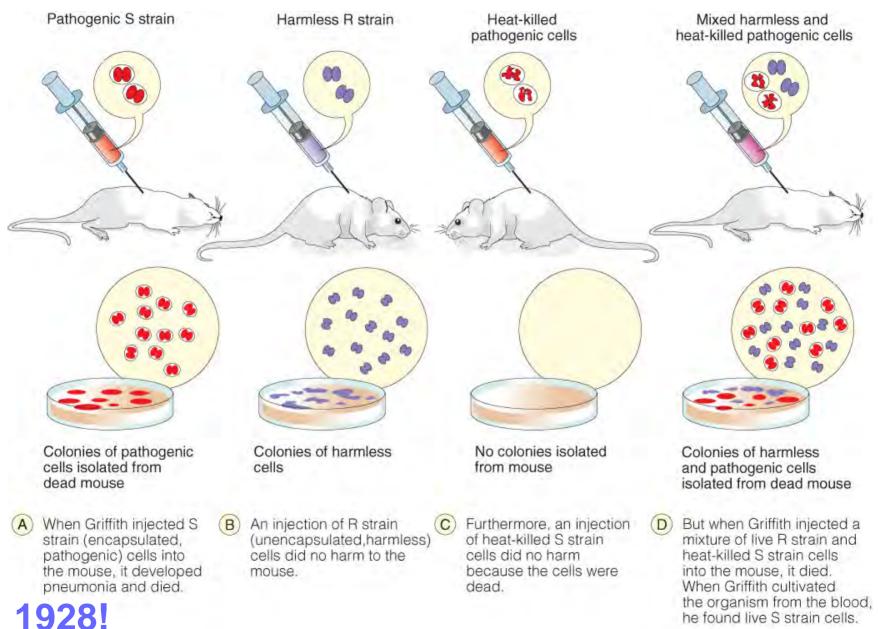


Transformation

Under the right conditions, bacteria can "take in" external DNA fragments (or plasmids) by <u>transformation</u>.

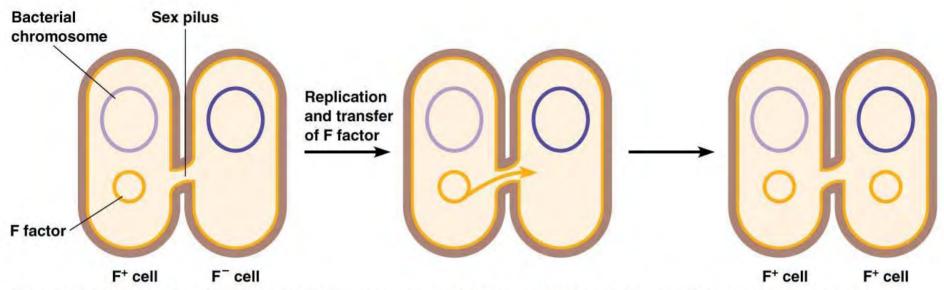
- DNA binding proteins transfer external DNA across cell envelope
- homologous recombination can then occur
- bacterial cells capable of transformation are referred to as <u>competent</u>

Griffith's Transformation Experiment

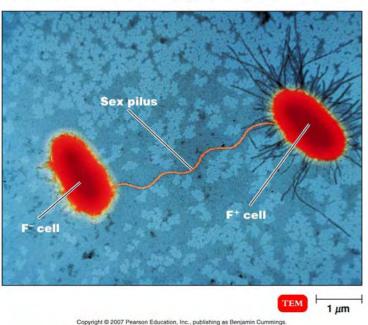


he found live S strain cells.

Bacterial Conjugation



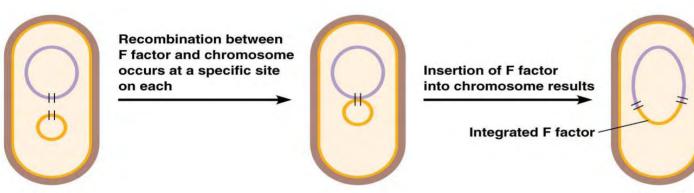
(a) When an F factor (a plasmid) is transferred from a donor (F⁺) to a recipient (F⁻), the F⁻ cell is converted into an F⁺ cell.



Requires an <u>F factor</u> plasmid

- has all "conjugation genes"
- directs formation of a sex pilus
- single DNA strand produced by DNA replication is transferred to F- cell through the sex pilus, recipient produces 2nd strand

Hfr Conjugation If F factor plasmid is inserted into host chromosome (<u>Hfr</u> cell), this will result in the transfer of the entire DNA complex.

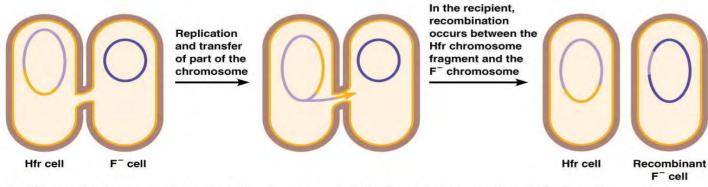


 recipient can incorporate donor cell genes by recombination

Hfr cell

F⁺ cell

(b) When an F factor becomes integrated into the chromosome of an F⁺ cell, it makes the cell a high frequency of recombination (Hfr) cell.



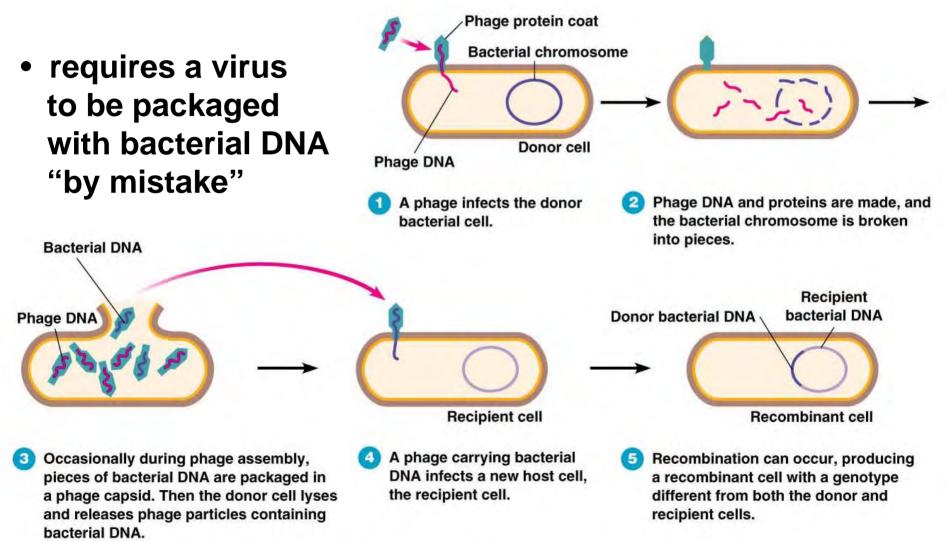
(c) When an Hfr donor passes a portion of its chromosome into an F^- recipient, a recombinant F^- cell results.

Hfr = "<u>High frequency of recombination</u>

 also useful for mapping bacterial genes based on the rate of transfer

Transduction

A virus (phage) particle can transfer DNA fragments from one host cell to another followed by recombination



Key Terms for Chapter 8

- transcription factor, activator, repressor
- lac operon, lac repressor, operator, CAP
- leading strand, lagging strand, primase, DNA ligase
- missense, nonsense, silent mutations, frame shift
- horizontal vs vertical gene transfer
- homologous recombination
- transformation, transduction, conjugation, Hfr

Relevant Chapter Questions rvw: 1-4, 8, 9, 11, 13 MC: 1, 2, 4, 5, 7-10