

Chapter 8 – From DNA to Proteins

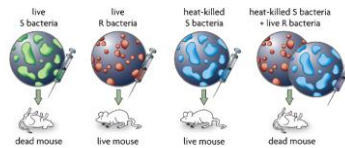
KEY CONCEPT – Section 1
DNA was identified as the genetic material through a series of experiments.



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Griffith finds a 'transforming principle.'

- Griffith experimented with the bacteria that cause pneumonia.
- He used two forms: the S form (deadly) and the R form (not deadly).
- A transforming material passed from dead S bacteria to live R bacteria, making them deadly.



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Avery identified DNA as the transforming principle.

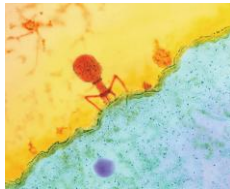
- Avery isolated and purified Griffith's transforming principle.
- Avery performed three tests on the transforming principle.
 - Qualitative tests showed DNA was present.
 - Chemical tests showed the chemical makeup matched that of DNA.
 - Enzyme tests showed only DNA-degrading enzymes stopped transformation.

CHEMICAL ANALYSIS OF TRANSFORMING PRINCIPLE			
	% Nitrogen (N)	% Phosphorus (P)	Ratio of N to P
Sample A	14.21	8.57	1.66
Sample B	15.93	9.09	1.75
Sample C	15.36	9.04	1.69
Sample D	13.40	8.45	1.58
Known value for DNA	15.32	9.05	1.69

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Hershey and Chase confirm that DNA is the genetic material.

- Hershey and Chase studied viruses that infect bacteria, or bacteriophages.
 - They tagged viral DNA with radioactive phosphorus.
 - They tagged viral proteins with radioactive sulfur.



- Tagged DNA was found inside the bacteria; tagged proteins were not.

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KEY CONCEPT – Section 2

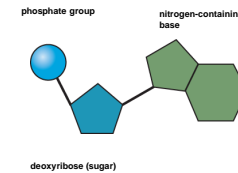
DNA structure is the same in all organisms.



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DNA is composed of four types of nucleotides.

- DNA is made up of a long chain of nucleotides.
- Each nucleotide has three parts.
 - a phosphate group
 - a deoxyribose sugar
 - a nitrogen-containing base



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- The nitrogen containing bases are the only difference in the four nucleotides.

PYRIMIDINES = SINGLE RING			PURINES = DOUBLE RING		
Name of Base	Structural Formula	Model	Name of Base	Structural Formula	Model
thymine			adenine		
cytosine			guanine		

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- Watson and Crick determined the three-dimensional structure of DNA by building models.

- They realized that DNA is a double helix that is made up of a sugar-phosphate backbone on the outside with bases on the inside.



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- Watson and Crick's discovery built on the work of Rosalind Franklin and Erwin Chargaff.
 - Franklin's x-ray images suggested that DNA was a double helix of even width.
 - Chargaff's rules stated that A=T and C=G.



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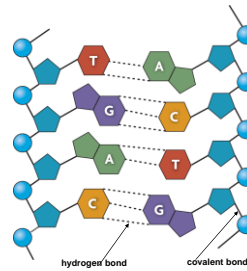
- Nucleotides always pair in the same way.

- The base-pairing rules show how nucleotides always pair up in DNA.
 - A pairs with T
 - C pairs with G
- Because a pyrimidine (single ring) pairs with a purine (double ring), the helix has a uniform width.



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- The backbone is connected by covalent bonds.
- The bases are connected by hydrogen bonds.



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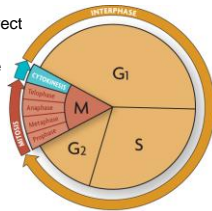
- KEY CONCEPT – Section 3**
DNA replication copies the genetic information of a cell.



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• **Replication copies the genetic information.**

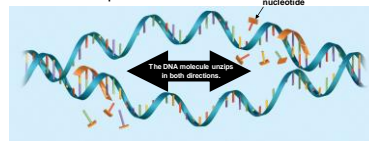
- A single strand of DNA serves as a template for a new strand.
- The rules of base pairing direct replication.
- DNA is replicated during the S (synthesis) stage of the cell cycle.
- Each body cell gets a complete set of identical DNA.



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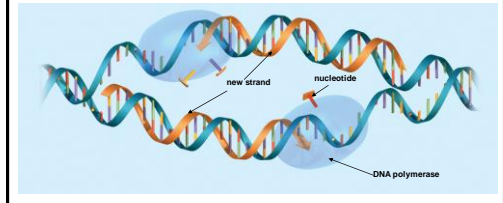
• **Proteins carry out the process of replication.**

- DNA serves only as a template.
- Enzymes and other proteins do the actual work of replication.
 - Enzymes unzip the double helix.
 - Free-floating nucleotides form hydrogen bonds with the template strand.



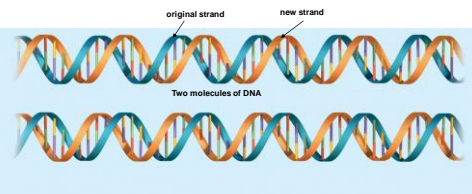
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- DNA polymerase enzymes bond the nucleotides together to form the double helix.
- Polymerase enzymes form covalent bonds between nucleotides in the new strand.



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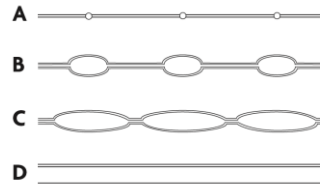
- Two new molecules of DNA are formed, each with an original strand and a newly formed strand.
- DNA replication is semiconservative.



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• **Replication is fast and accurate.**

- DNA replication starts at many points in eukaryotic chromosomes.



There are many origins of replication in eukaryotic chromosomes.

- DNA polymerases can find and correct errors.

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KEY CONCEPT – Section 4

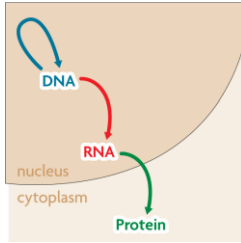
Transcription converts a gene into a single-stranded RNA molecule.



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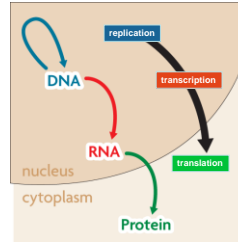
RNA carries DNA's instructions.

- The central dogma states that information flows in one direction from DNA to RNA to proteins.



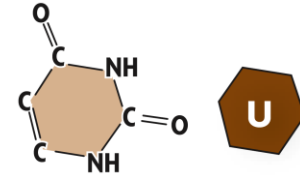
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- The central dogma includes three processes.
 - Replication
 - Transcription
 - Translation
- RNA is a link between DNA and proteins.



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- RNA differs from DNA in three major ways.
 - RNA has a ribose sugar.
 - RNA has uracil instead of thymine.
 - RNA is a single-stranded structure.



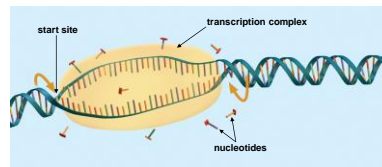
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Transcription makes three types of RNA.

- Transcription copies DNA to make a strand of RNA.

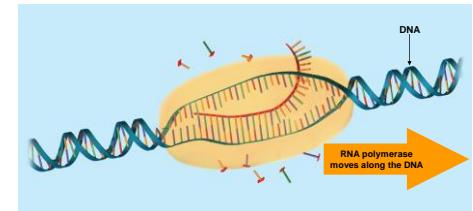
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- Transcription is catalyzed by RNA polymerase.
 - RNA polymerase and other proteins form a transcription complex.
 - The transcription complex recognizes the start of a gene and unwinds a segment of it.



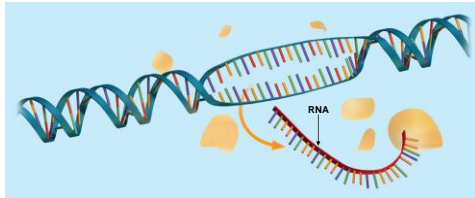
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- Nucleotides pair with one strand of the DNA.
- RNA polymerase bonds the nucleotides together.
- The DNA helix winds again as the gene is transcribed.



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- The RNA strand detaches from the DNA once the gene is transcribed.



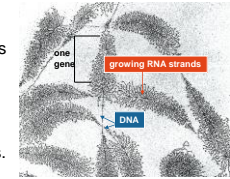
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- Transcription makes three types of RNA.
 - Messenger RNA (mRNA) carries the message that will be translated to form a protein.
 - Ribosomal RNA (rRNA) forms part of ribosomes where proteins are made.
 - Transfer RNA (tRNA) brings amino acids from the cytoplasm to a ribosome.

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- The transcription process is similar to replication.

- Transcription and replication both involve complex enzymes and complementary base pairing.
- The two processes have different end results.
 - Replication copies all the DNA; transcription copies a gene.
 - Replication makes one copy; transcription can make many copies.



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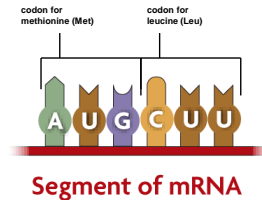
KEY CONCEPT – Section 5
Translation converts an mRNA message into a polypeptide, or protein.



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- Amino acids are coded by mRNA base sequences.

- Translation converts mRNA messages into polypeptides.
- A codon is a sequence of three nucleotides that codes for an amino acid.



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- The genetic code matches each codon to its amino acid or function.

- three stop codons
- one start codon, codes for methionine

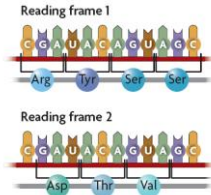
The genetic code matches each RNA codon with its amino acid or function.

		Second base			
		U	C	A	G
First base	U	UUU phenylalanine UUC Phe UUA leucine UUG Leu	UCU serine UCC Ser UCA Ser UCG Ser	UAU tyrosine UAU Tyr UAA STOP UAG STOP	UGU cysteine UGC Cys UGA STOP UGG tryptophan
	C	CUU leucine CUC Leu CUA Leu CUG Leu	CCU proline CCC Pro CCA Pro CCG Pro	CAU histidine CAC His CAA glutamine CAG Gln	CGU arginine CGC Arg CGA Arg CGG Arg
	A	AUU isoleucine AUA Ile AUA Ile AUG methionine	ACU threonine ACC Thr ACA Thr ACG Thr	AUU asparagine AAC Asn AAA lysine AAG Lys	AGU serine AGC Ser AGA arginine AGG Arg
	G	GUU valine GUC Val GUA Val GUG Val	GCU alanine GCC Ala GCA Ala GCG Ala	GAU aspartic acid GAC Asp GAA glutamic acid GAG Glu	GGU glycine GGC Gly GGA Gly GGG Gly

1 Find the first base, C, in the left column.
2 Find the second base, A, in the top row. Find the box where these two intersect.
3 Find the third base, U, in the right column. CUU codes for histidine, abbreviated as His.

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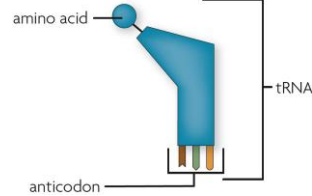
- A change in the order in which codons are read changes the resulting protein.



- Regardless of the organism, codons code for the same amino acid.

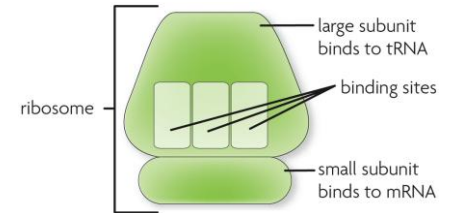
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- Amino acids are linked to become a protein.
- An anticodon is a set of three nucleotides that is complementary to an mRNA codon.
- An anticodon is carried by a tRNA.



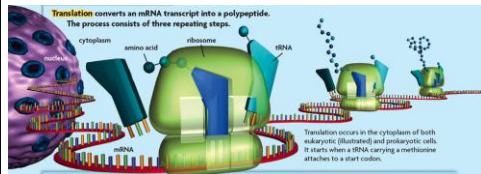
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- Ribosomes consist of two subunits.
 - The large subunit has three binding sites for tRNA.
 - The small subunit binds to mRNA.



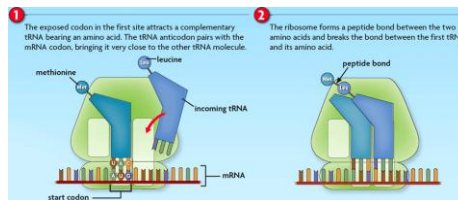
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- For translation to begin, tRNA binds to a start codon and signals the ribosome to assemble.
 - A complementary tRNA molecule binds to the exposed codon, bringing its amino acid close to the first amino acid.



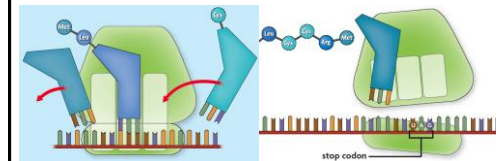
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- The ribosome helps form a polypeptide bond between the amino acids.
- The ribosome pulls the mRNA strand the length of one codon.



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- The now empty tRNA molecule exits the ribosome.
- A complementary tRNA molecule binds to the next exposed codon.
- Once the stop codon is reached, the ribosome releases the protein and disassembles.



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KEY CONCEPT – Section 6

Gene expression is carefully regulated in both prokaryotic and eukaryotic cells.



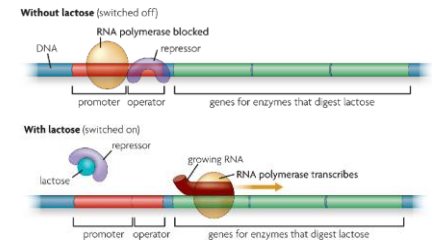
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Prokaryotic cells turn genes on and off by controlling transcription.

- A promoter is a DNA segment that allows a gene to be transcribed.
- An operator is a part of DNA that turns a gene “on” or “off.”
- An operon includes a promoter, an operator, and one or more structural genes that code for all the proteins needed to do a job.
 - Operons are most common in prokaryotes.
 - The *lac* operon was one of the first examples of gene regulation to be discovered.
 - The *lac* operon has three genes that code for enzymes that break down lactose.

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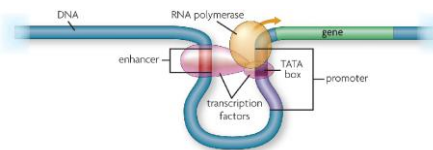
- The *lac* operon acts like a switch.
 - The *lac* operon is “off” when lactose is not present.
 - The *lac* operon is “on” when lactose is present.



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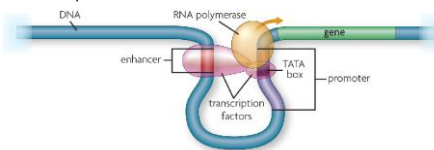
Eukaryotes regulate gene expression at many points.

- Different sets of genes are expressed in different types of cells.
- Transcription is controlled by regulatory DNA sequences and protein transcription factors.



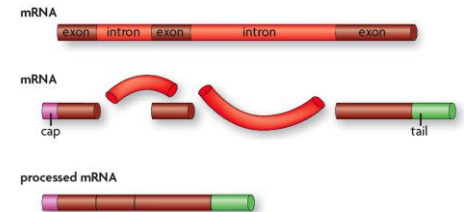
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- Transcription is controlled by regulatory DNA sequences and protein transcription factors.
 - Most eukaryotes have a TATA box promoter.
 - Enhancers and silencers speed up or slow down the rate of transcription.
 - Each gene has a unique combination of regulatory sequences.



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- RNA processing is also an important part of gene regulation in eukaryotes.
- mRNA processing includes three major steps.



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- mRNA processing includes three major steps.
 - Introns are removed and exons are spliced together.
 - A cap is added.
 - A tail is added.

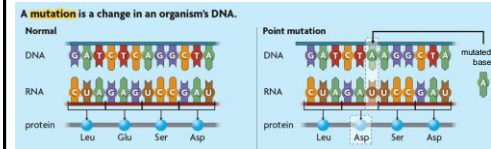
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KEY CONCEPT – Section 7
Mutations are changes in DNA that may or may not affect phenotype.



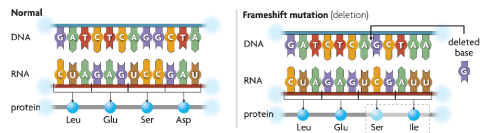
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- Some mutations affect a single gene, while others affect an entire chromosome.
 - A mutation is a change in an organism's DNA.
 - Many kinds of mutations can occur, especially during replication.
 - A point mutation substitutes one nucleotide for another.



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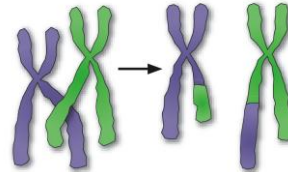
- Many kinds of mutations can occur, especially during replication.
 - A frameshift mutation inserts or deletes a nucleotide in the DNA sequence.



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- Chromosomal mutations affect many genes.
 - Chromosomal mutations may occur during crossing over.
 - Chromosomal mutations affect many genes.
 - Gene duplication results from unequal crossing over.

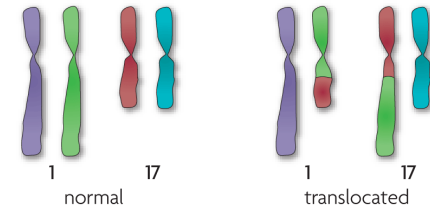
Gene duplication



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- Translocation results from the exchange of DNA segments between nonhomologous chromosomes.

Gene translocation



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▣ Mutations may or may not affect phenotype.

- Chromosomal mutations tend to have a big effect.
- Some gene mutations change phenotype.
 - A mutation may cause a premature stop codon.
 - A mutation may change protein shape or the active site.
 - A mutation may change gene regulation.



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- Some gene mutations do not affect phenotype.
 - A mutation may be silent.
 - A mutation may occur in a noncoding region.
 - A mutation may not affect protein folding or the active site.

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- Mutations in body cells do not affect offspring.
- Mutations in sex cells can be harmful or beneficial to offspring.
- Natural selection often removes mutant alleles from a population when they are less adaptive.

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▣ Mutations can be caused by several factors.

- Replication errors can cause mutations.
- Mutagens, such as UV ray and chemicals, can cause mutations.
- Some cancer drugs use mutagenic properties to kill cancer cells.

