



Aakash

+ BYJU'S NOTES

Molecular Basis of Inheritance



Key Takeaways



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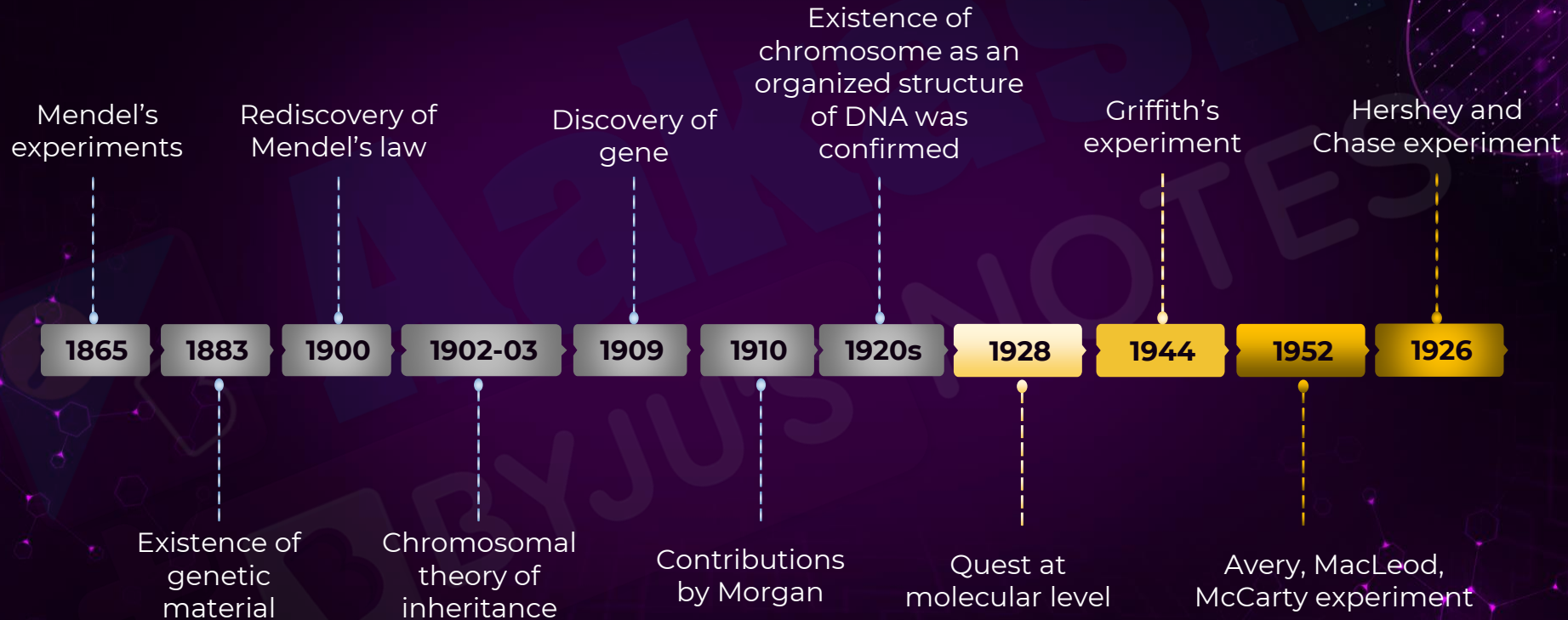
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DNA fingerprinting

Summary



Search for Genetic Material



Griffith's Experiments

Streptococcus pneumoniae
Is a bacteria that causes pneumonia

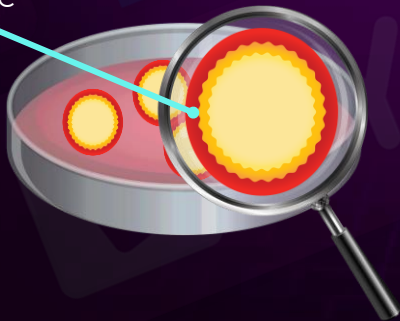
Smooth colonies

S strain
Virulent

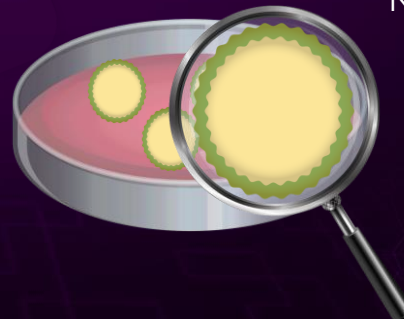
Rough colonies

R strain
Non-virulent

Polysaccharide coat



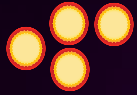
No Polysaccharide coat



Griffith's Experiments

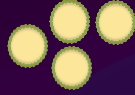


Live S strain



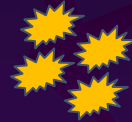
S strain bacteria
isolated from
dead mice

Live R strain



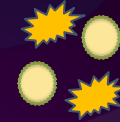
Mice did
not die

Heat-killed S strain



No living bacteria
isolated from
live mice

Heat-killed S strain +
Live R strain

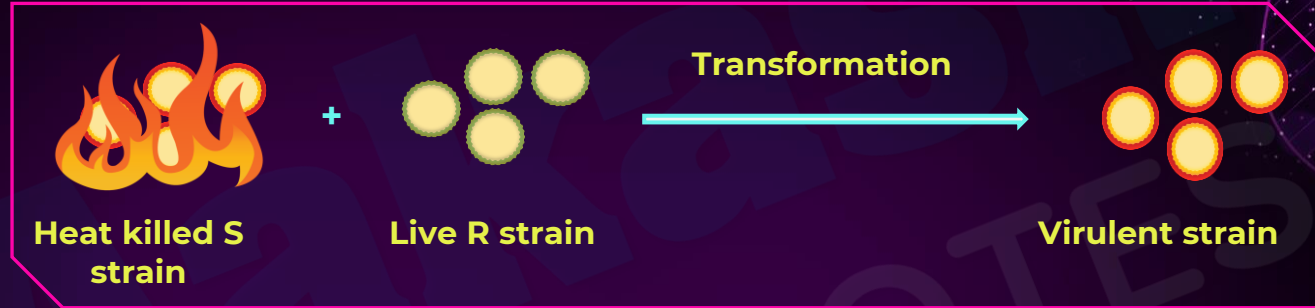


Living S- strain
bacteria isolated
from dead mice

Griffith's Experiments

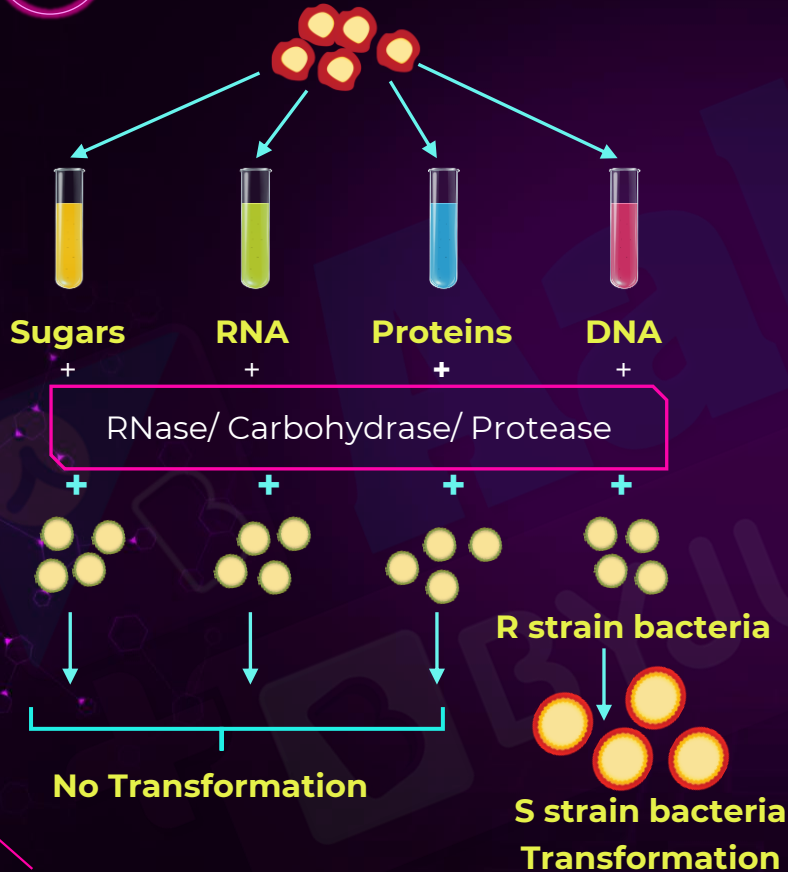


Conclusion

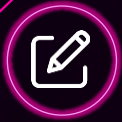


- When S strain and R strain bacteria were mixed, the **non-virulent R strain** of bacteria got transformed into the virulent **S strain bacteria**.
- This process is called **transformation**, and through which it happened is called **transforming principle**.
- This **'transforming principle'** got transferred from the heat-killed S strain.
- This had enabled the R strain to **synthesise** a smooth polysaccharide coat and become **virulent**.
- Griffith concluded that this must be due to the **transfer of the genetic material**.
- The biochemical nature of genetic material was still not defined from his experiments.

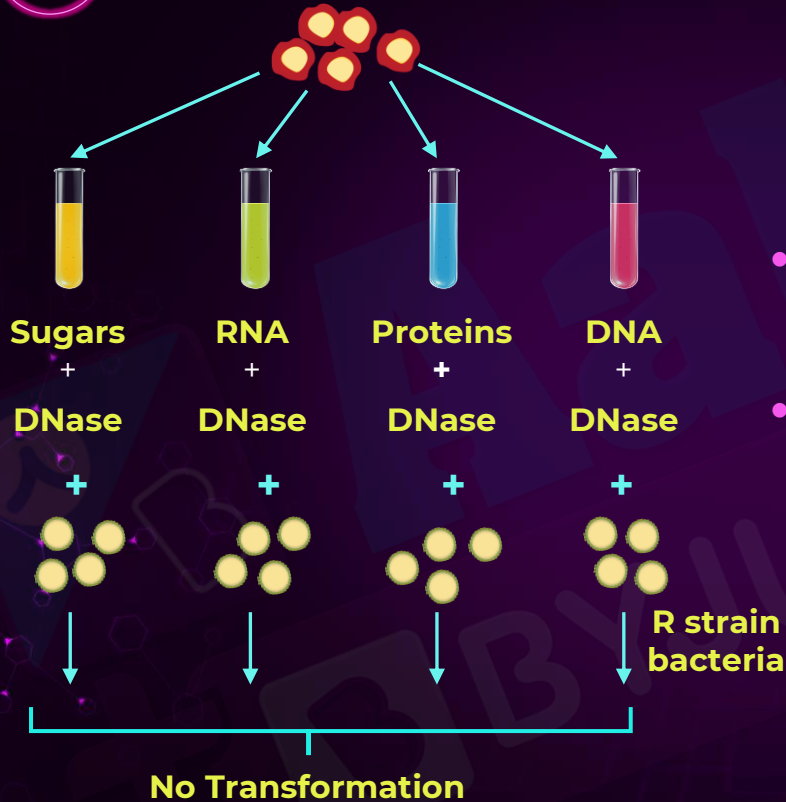
Avery, MacLeod and McCarty Experiment



- Avery, MacLeod and McCarty purified biochemicals, carbohydrates, proteins, DNA and RNA, from the **heat-killed S cells**.
- They added live R strain bacteria to it.
- Sugars/carbohydrates, RNA and proteins showed **no transformation**.
- The **one with DNA in it transformed** the **R strain bacteria** into the S strain.
- Hence, DNA is the **transforming principle**.
- To confirm, they added either:
 - **Carbohydrase** (the enzyme which breaks down carbohydrates in all the solutions)
 - **RNase** (the enzyme which degrades RNA molecules)
 - **Protease** (the enzyme that breaks down proteins)
- The solution with DNA caused **transformation of R strain to the virulent S strain**



Avery, MacLeod and McCarty Experiment



- However, when they added **DNase** in all the solutions, none of the solutions showed transformation.
- This proved that **DNA is the genetic material.**

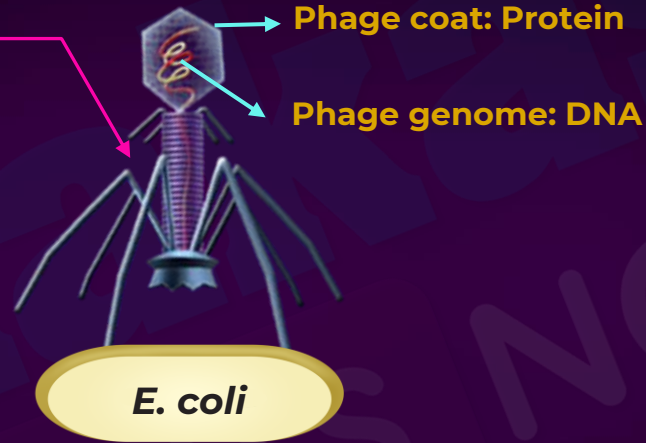


Hershey and Chase's Experiment



Bacteriophage: A virus that infects bacteria

Transduction: Process by which foreign DNA is introduced into a cell by a virus vector.



- They worked with virus (**T₂ Bacteriophage**) which infects *E. coli* and multiplies inside it.

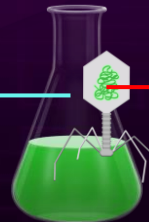
Medium with radioactive sulfur (S^{35})

Radioactive protein capsid



Medium with radioactive phosphorus (P^{32})

Bacteriophage



Radioactive DNA

- They **grew some viruses** on a medium that contained radioactive phosphorus and some others on medium that contained radioactive sulfur.

Hershey and Chase's Experiment



Step 1: Infection

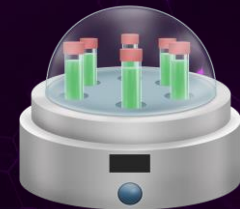
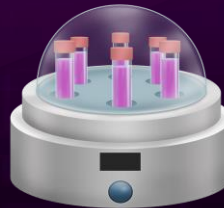
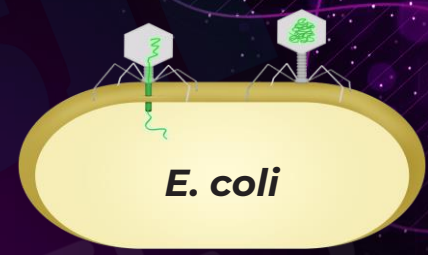
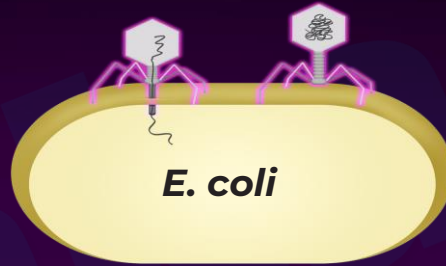
Both types were **allowed to infect** normally cultured bacteria separately.

Step 2: Blending

They were then agitated, to **break the contact between virus and bacteria**.

Step 3: Configuration

This separated bacterial cells and viruses into two different levels as **bacterial cells are heavier**, therefore they settle down.

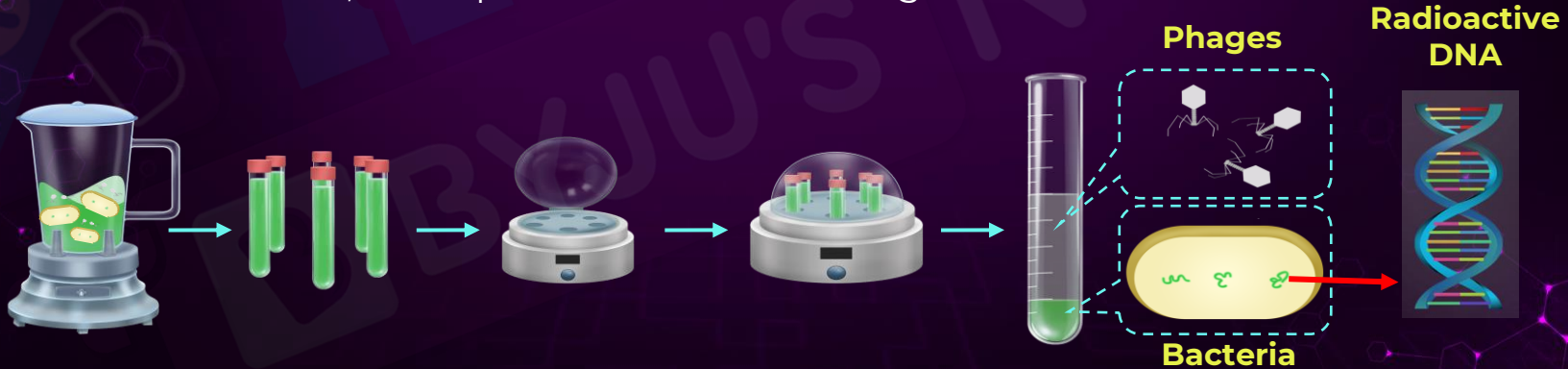


Hershey and Chase's Experiment



Results

- The bacteria which were infected with **radioactive DNA viruses** were **radioactive**, indicating that **DNA was the material that passed** from the virus to the bacteria.
- However, **bacteria** that were **infected with viruses containing radioactive proteins** were **not radioactive**.
- This showed that **proteins did not enter** the **bacteria** from the viruses.
- Hence, it was proved that **DNA** is the genetic material.





Nucleic Acids : Discovery



Discovered nuclein (DNA) in the nuclei of WBCs

1869

Friedrich Miescher

Albrecht Kossel

Late 1800s

Determined that DNA contains nitrogenous bases

Proposed Tetranucleotide theory

1909

Phoebus Levene

Erwin Chargaff

1948 - 1951

Discovered regularity in base ratios of DNA



Nucleic Acids



Nucleic acids

DNA

RNA

Deoxyribonucleic acid

Ribonucleic acid



Nucleotide

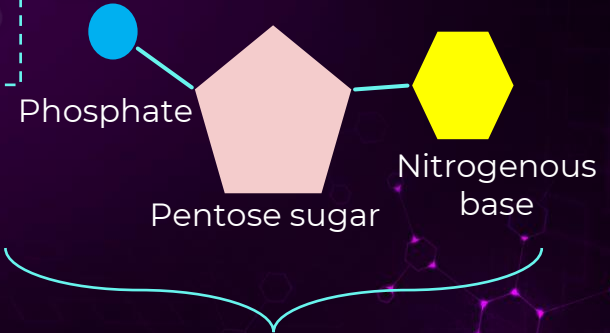
Monomers of nucleic acid

Pentose sugar

Nitrogenous base

Phosphate group

Nucleoside



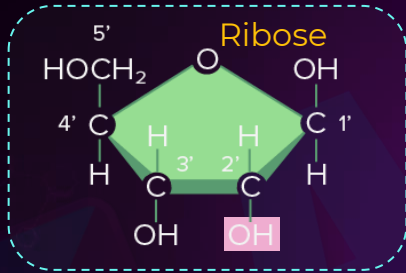
Nucleotide



Pentose sugar and Phosphate Group

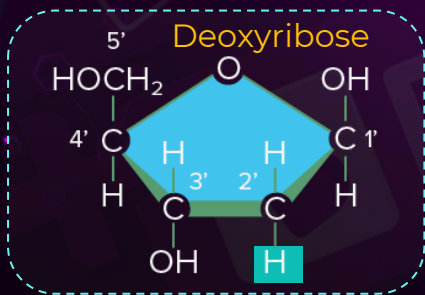
RNA has ribose sugar, with

-OH group at 2' position

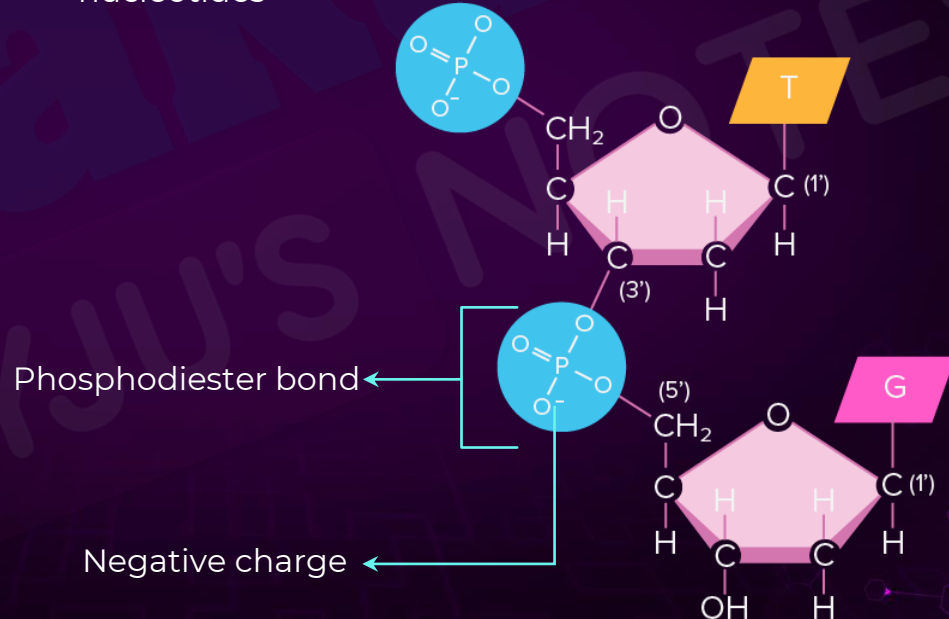


DNA has deoxyribose sugar, with

-H group at 2' position



- Phosphate group links the **3'-carbon** of one sugar of one nucleotide to the **5'-carbon** of the sugar of the succeeding nucleotide through an **ester bond**.
- Phosphodiester bond is a connecting link between two consecutive nucleotides





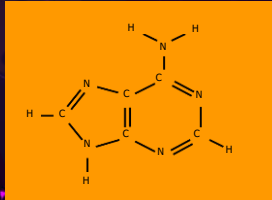
Nitrogenous Base

Nitrogenous bases

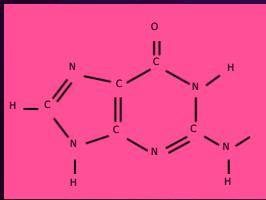
Heterocyclic Nitrogen-containing compounds

Purines

9 membered double ringed structure



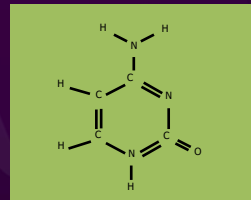
Adenine (A)



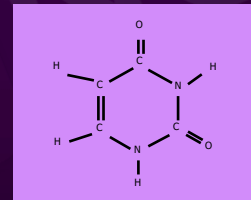
Guanine (G)

Pyrimidines

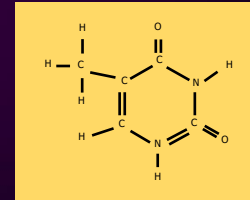
6 membered single ringed structure



Cytosine (C)



Uracil (U)



Thymine (T)

- In both DNA and RNA

- In DNA, cytosine and thymine are found
- In RNA, cytosine and uracil are found



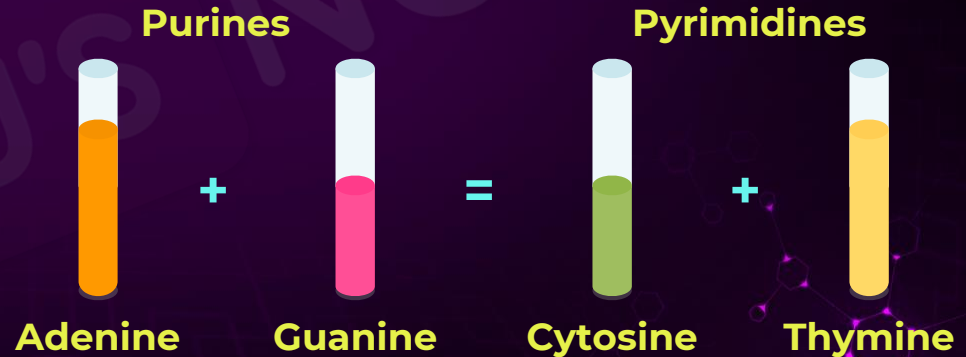
Derivation of DNA structure

X-ray crystallography :

- **Maurice Wilkins** and **Rosalind Franklin** obtained very fine X-ray diffraction pictures of DNA
- Suggested that structure of **DNA was sort of helix with 3.4 Å periodicity**
- However, did not propose a definitive model for DNA

Chargaff's rule :

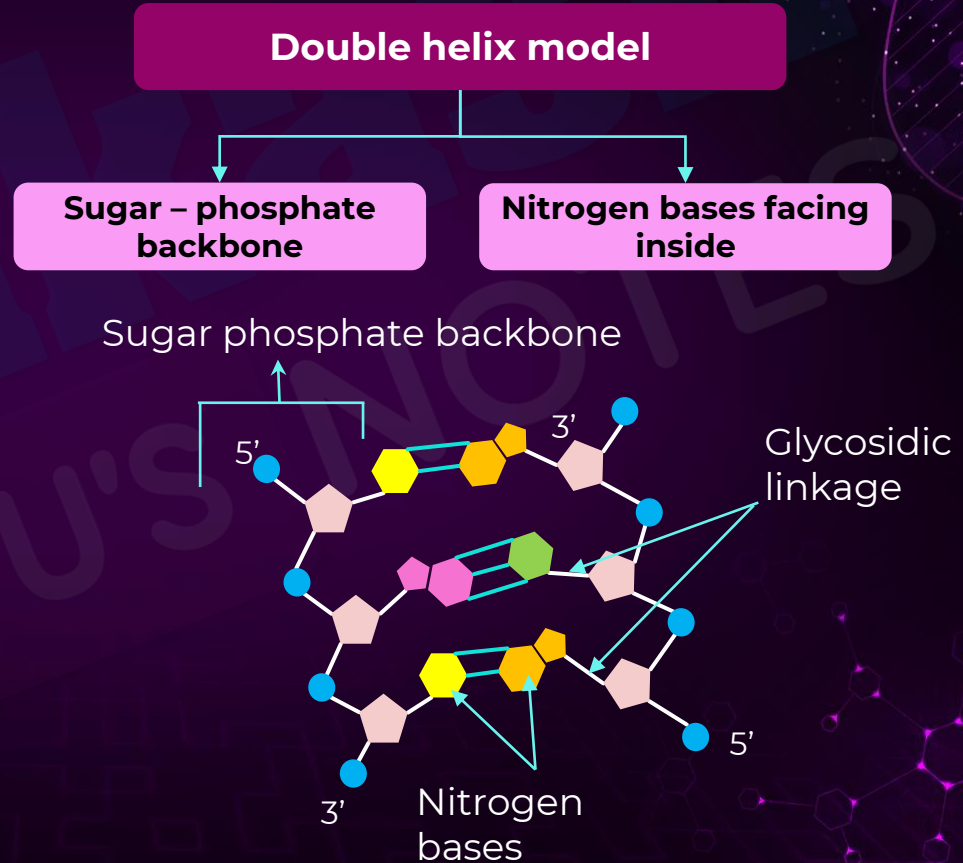
- In DNA, **Adenine** = **Thymine**; **Cytosine** = **Guanine**
- **A + G = C + T**
- Total number of Purines = Total number of Pyrimidines
- Not applicable for single stranded DNA





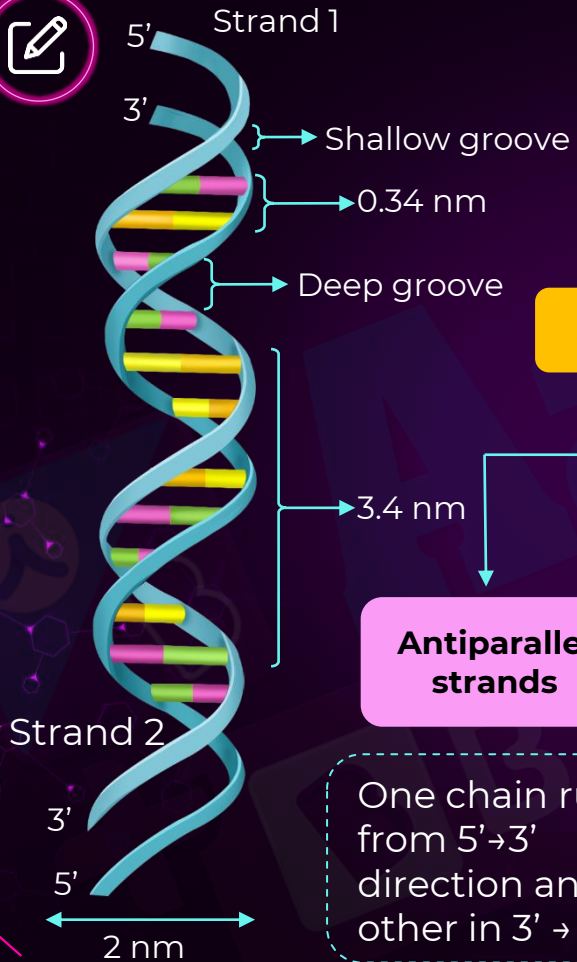
Double Helix Model

- **James Watson** and **Francis Crick** proposed double helix model
- Made up of **two polynucleotide chains**, existing as a double helix
- Two polynucleotide strands are joined together by **hydrogen bonds between purines and pyrimidines**





Double Helix Model



Double helix model

Sugar - phosphate backbone

Nitrogen bases facing inside

Antiparallel strands

Right-handed coiling

Helical pitch 3.4 nm

Helix diameter 2 nm

Helical rise 0.34 nm

One chain runs from 5' → 3' direction and other in 3' → 5'

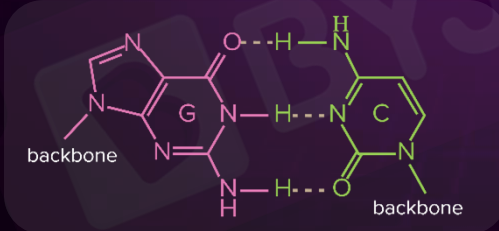
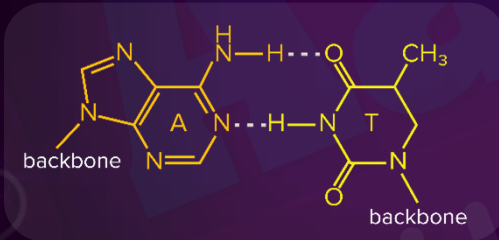
Helix pitch can be defined as the height of one complete helix turn

Double Helix Model

Double helix model

Sugar – phosphate backbone

Nitrogen bases facing inside



Purines

Pyrimidines

Complementary base pairing

A=T

2 Hydrogen bonds

C≡G

3 Hydrogen bonds



DNA

Forms of DNA

B - form

- Usual DNA
- 10 base pairs per turn
- Right-handed coiling

A - form

- 11 base pairs per turn
- Not perpendicular to the axis but slightly tilted
- Right-handed coiling

C - form

- Like B-form
- 9.33 base pairs per turn
- Right-handed coiling

Z - form

- 12 base pairs per turn
- Left-handed coiling

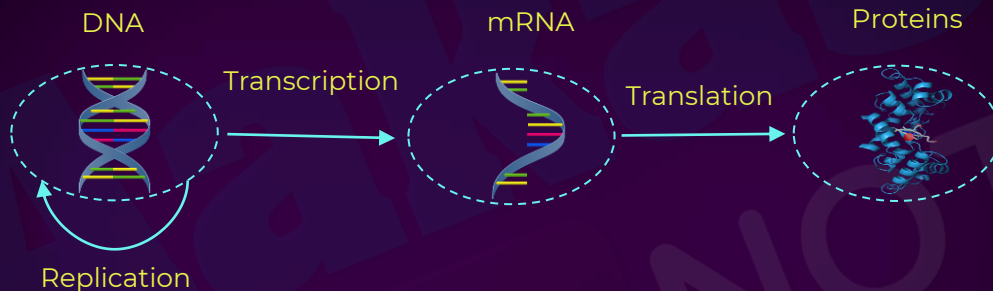
- **Linear double stranded DNA** : found in eukaryotes and PPLO
- **Repetitive DNA** : part of DNA with long sequence of short repetitive DNA called satellite DNA
- **Palindromic DNA** : base sequences which reads the same from either of the strands

- **Denaturation/ Melting** : Separation of two strands of DNA from each other due to breakage of H-bonds when it is exposed to high temperature, acid or alkali
- **Renaturation/ Annealing** : Reassociation of separated DNA by H-bonds formation
 - DNA with more A = T, low melting areas
 - DNA with more G = C than A = T has high melting areas
- **C - value** : Total amount of DNA per genome. Expressed in picogram

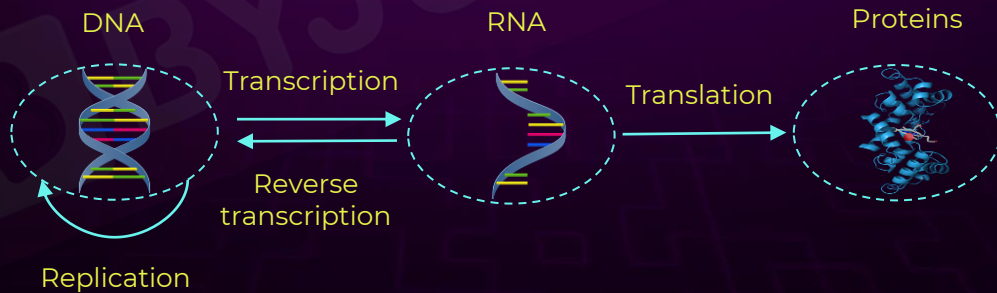
DNA



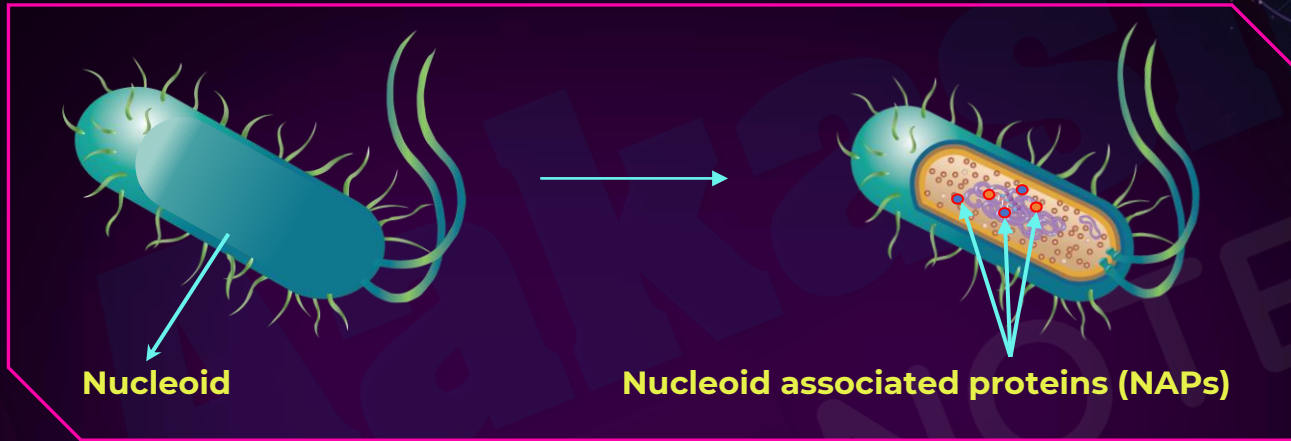
- **Central dogma of Molecular Biology** : Unidirectional flow of information from master copy DNA to working copy RNA and from RNA to building molecule or trait expressing molecule polypeptide; Proposed by **Francis Crick**



- **Reverse Central Dogma or Teminism** : Reported in 1970 by **H. Temin and D. Baltimore**
 - Independently discovered reverse transcription in some viruses
 - Viruses produce an enzyme **reverse transcriptase** which synthesizes DNA from RNA template



DNA Packaging : Prokaryotes



- DNA is not scattered throughout. It does **not have a defined nucleus**.
- DNA is found in cytoplasm in **super coiled stage**
 - The coils are maintained by **non-histone basic protein polyamines** which have **positive charge**
 - Packaged structure of DNA is called **nucleoid** or **genophore**
- Genomic DNA in prokaryotes is organized in **large loops held by special proteins** called **NAPs**

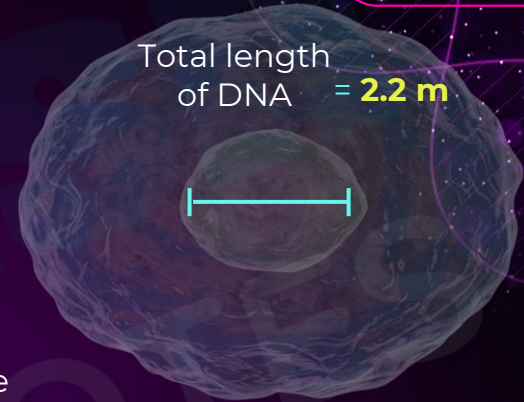
DNA Packaging : Eukaryotes



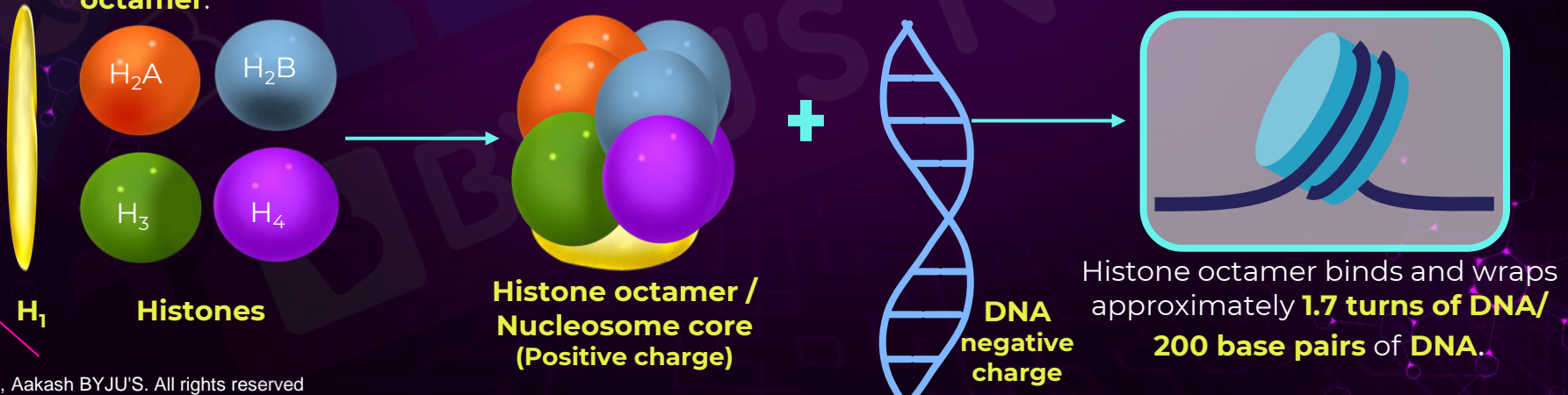
Base pairs in a cell = 6.6×10^9

Distance between adjacent base pairs = 0.34 nm

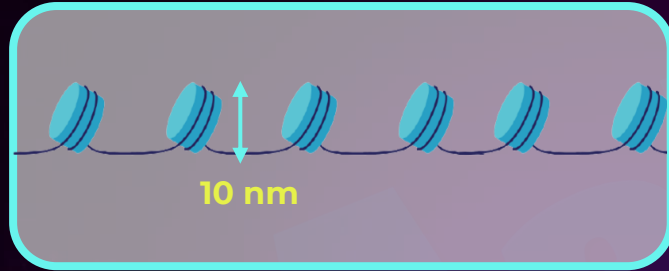
Total length of DNA = $6.6 \times 10^9 \times 0.34 \times 10^{-9} \text{ m} = 2.24 \text{ m}$



- In eukaryotes, the positively charged basic **proteins involved in packaging** are called **histones**. Histones are rich in lysine and arginine amino acids.
- **Histones** are organised to form a **unit of eight molecules** called **histone octamer**.



DNA Packaging : Eukaryotes



Chromatin



Chromosome

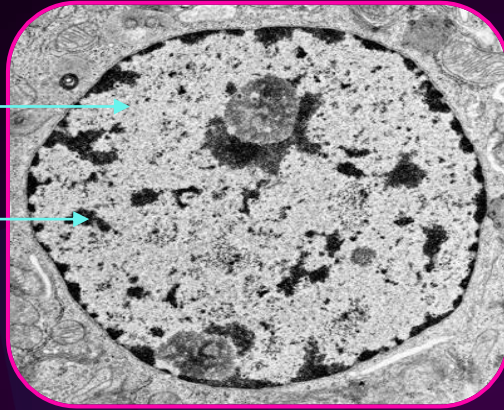
- DNA present between two adjacent nucleosome is called **linker DNA**.
- Nucleosomes are seen as beads on **thread-like structures** in the nucleus under electron microscope.
- These structures are known as **chromatin** because they are seen as **coloured bodies** when stained. Chromatin fibres are approximately 10 nm in diameter.
- The nucleosomes further coils to form **solenoid/ chromatin fibre**. It has a diameter of 30 nm.
- Chromatin fibre further condenses at metaphase stage to form **chromosome**.
 - This process requires an additional set of proteins that are collectively called **non-histone chromosomal protein (NHC)**.

DNA Packaging : Eukaryotes



Lightly stained
euchromatin

Dark stained
heterochromatin



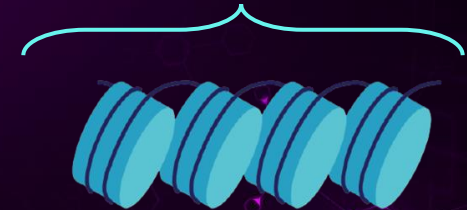
- When nucleus is stained some parts of the chromatin are **lightly stained** whereas others are stained darker.
- **Lightly stained** regions are called **euchromatin**.
- **Dark stained** regions are called **heterochromatin**.

Euchromatin



- Loosely packed region
- Stains light
- Transcriptionally active

Heterochromatin



- Densely packed region
- Stains dark
- Transcriptionally inactive



Properties of Genetic Material (DNA or RNA)

Criteria for genetic material :

- Chemical and structural **stability**
- Able to generate its replica (**replication**)
- Provide the scope for **slow mutation** that is required **for evolution**
- Able to **express** itself in the form of **Mendelian characters**

DNA being more stable is preferred for storing genetic material, as

- Free 2'OH of RNA makes it **more labile** and **easily degradable**. Therefore, DNA in comparison is **more stable**.
- Presence of **thymine** (5-Methyl uracil) at the place of uracil, which provides **additional stability to DNA**
- RNA being unstable, mutates at a faster rate
- Viruses having RNA genome can directly code for the synthesis of proteins, hence can easily express the characters

RNA World and Replication



- **RNA = first genetic material**
- RNA = adapter, structural molecule and catalytic
- Due to stability :
- DNA (more stable) - preferred for **storage of genetic material**
 - RNA (less stable) - preferred for the **transmission of genetic information**
- **Replication** : A process of copying and duplicating of the genetic material (DNA)
- Watson and Crick - Believed in **semi-conservative** DNA replication



- **Semi-conservative DNA replication**: Two strands of DNA unwind from each other and each act as a **template** for synthesis of a new, **complementary strand**



Meselson and Stahl's Experiment - Setup

Step 1

Grow *E. coli* in $^{15}\text{N}\text{H}_4\text{Cl}$ Media

$^{15}\text{N}\text{H}_4\text{Cl}$ Media



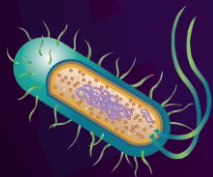
E. coli

^{15}N is a heavier isotope of Nitrogen and not a radioactive isotope.

Step 2

Transfer of *E. coli* with heavier DNA (^{15}N) into regular $^{14}\text{N}\text{H}_4\text{Cl}$ media

E. coli with heavier DNA



$^{14}\text{N}\text{H}_4\text{Cl}$ Media

Heavier DNA : settle down as heavier bands
Lighter DNA : get suspended in the middle

Step 3

CsCl centrifugation of the DNA samples

DNA isolated + CsCl

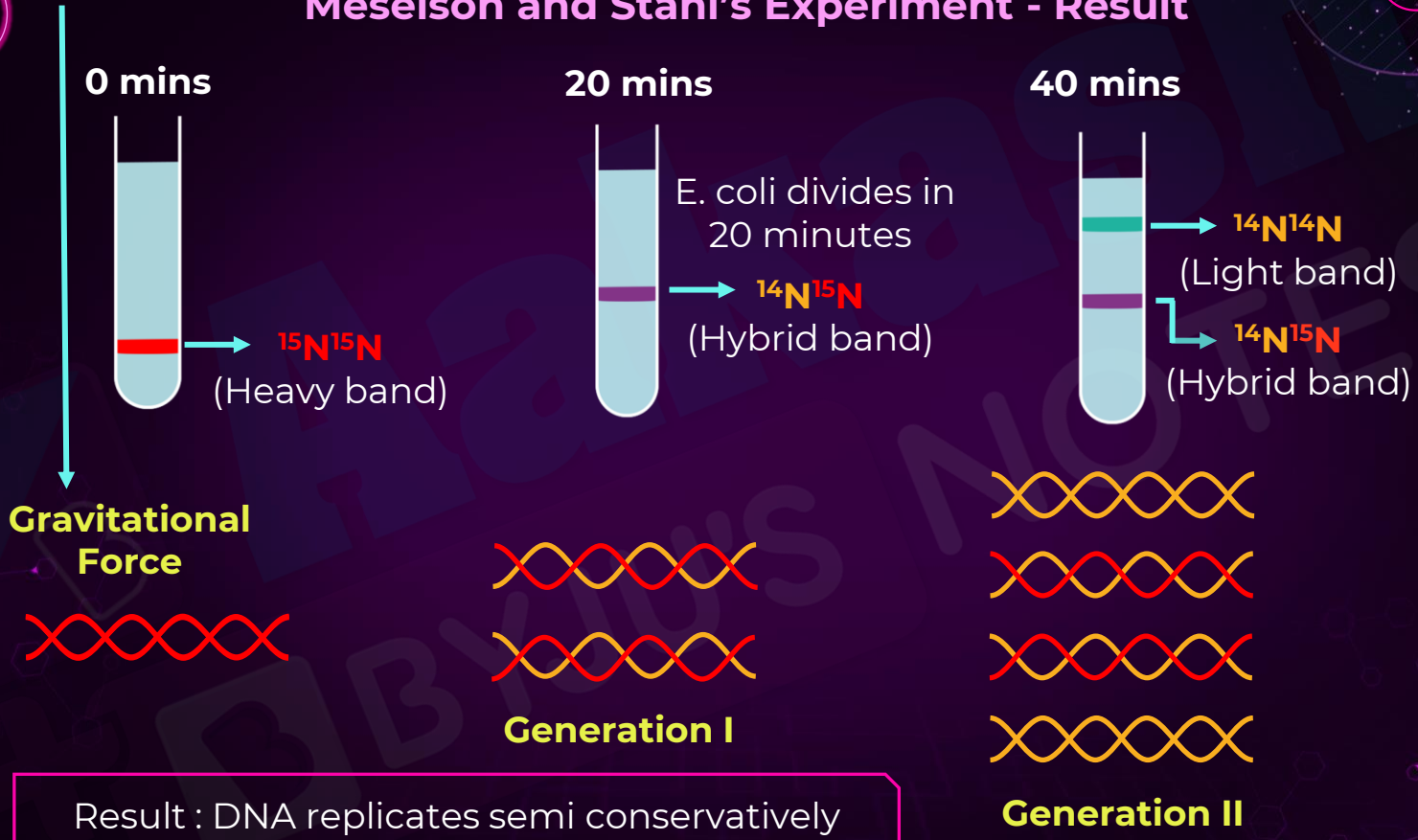


Centrifuge



Bands as result of CsCl centrifugation

Meselson and Stahl's Experiment - Result



Result : DNA replicates semi conservatively



Semi-Conservative Replication



Herbert Taylor (on eukaryotes) performed similar experiment as Meselson & Stahl (on prokaryotes)

Steps

Used radioactive thymidine in root of *Vicia faba* to detect distribution of newly synthesised DNA in the chromosomes

Results

Proved DNA replicates semi-conservatively



Faba bean plant



Process of Replication

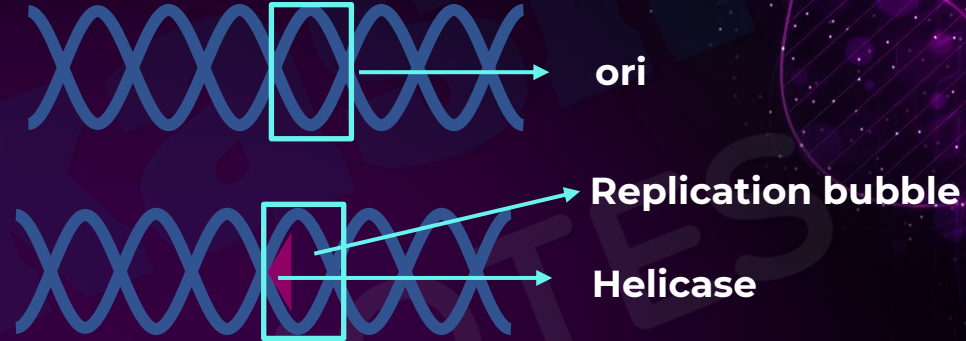


Steps

1. Starts at the **origin of replication** (ori)

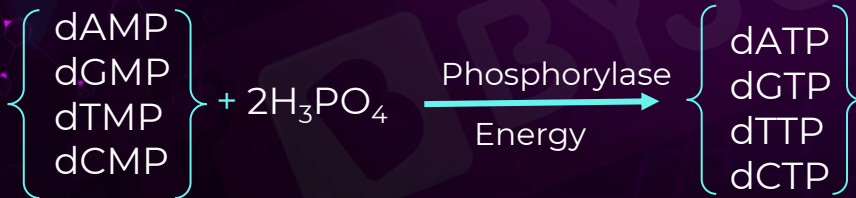
2. Activation of **deoxyribonucleotides**

3. **DNA Helicase** separates the two strands forming replication fork



Origin of replication: Specific regions of DNA where replication starts

Deoxyribonucleotides :



- **DNA Polymerase** adds newer dNTPs to 3' end with the free -OH of primer complementary to the template DNA strand.
- **dNTPs** serve as substrates and provide energy as well.

Helicase: Helps unwind DNA

Replication fork: A small opening of the DNA helix, a Y- shaped structure

Process of Replication

Due to unwinding, a supercoiling gets developed on the end of DNA opposite to replicating fork. This tension is released by enzyme **topoisomerase**. In prokaryotes, **DNA gyrase** has topoisomerase activity.

4. **DNA dependent – DNA Polymerase** synthesise the two strands

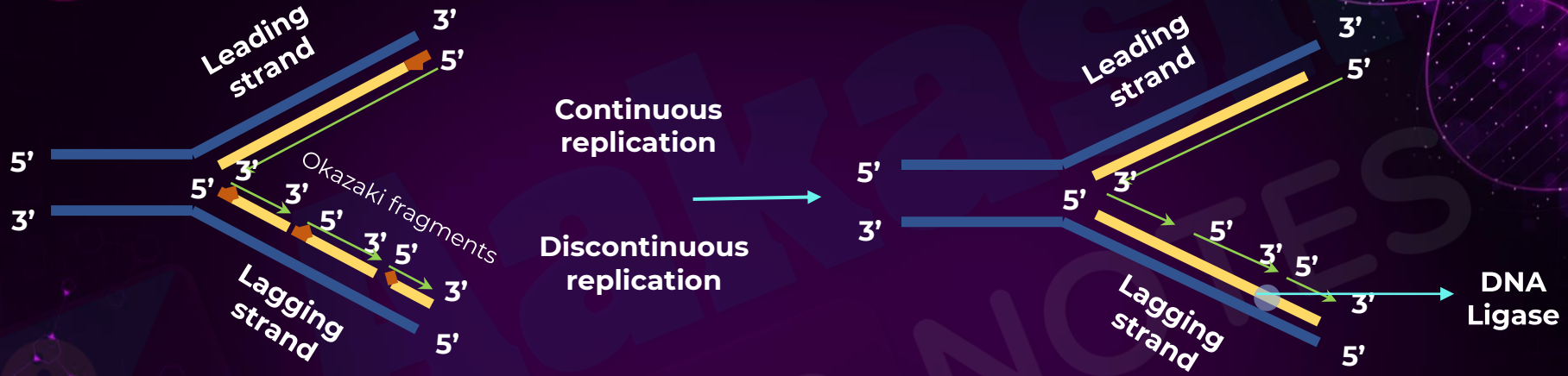


RNA primer: 5 – 10 nucleotide long RNA fragment that is complementary to the DNA and is synthesized by primase enzyme.

DNA polymerase: An enzyme that catalyzes the polymerization of deoxynucleotides.

- In prokaryotes, DNA polymerase I, II, III are the enzymes with exonuclease and polymerase are involved in the activity
- In eukaryotes, DNA polymerase α , β , γ , δ , ϵ are involved

Process of Replication



5. Using leading strand as the template, **DNA Polymerase** adds nucleotides to the new strands continuously.

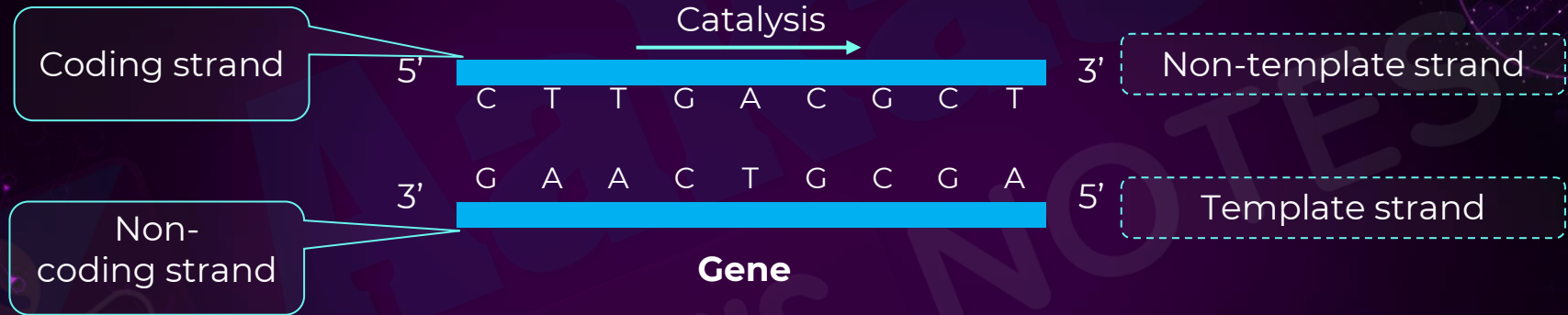
6. DNA is added to lagging strands in discontinuous chunks called **Okazaki fragments**.

7. **DNA Ligase** fills small gap between the fragments.



Transcription

Copying genetic information from one strand of the DNA into RNA is known as **transcription** (Heterocatalytic function of DNA).



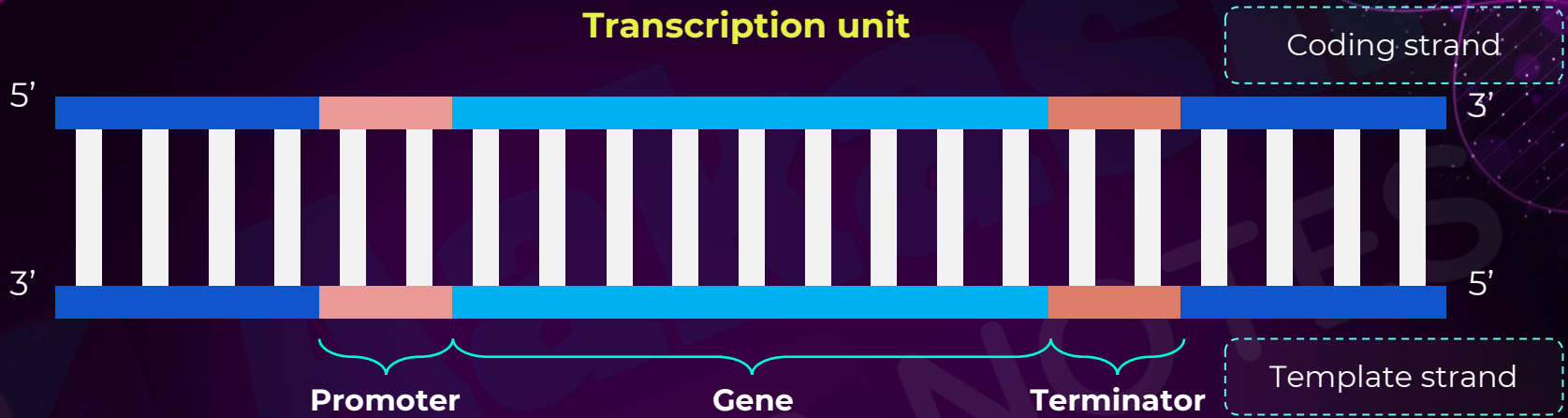
DNA dependent RNA polymerase :

- Uses DNA as template
- Catalyses in the direction 5' \longrightarrow 3'
- Does not require primer to initiate RNA synthesis
- Adds uracil instead of thymine



Transcription

Transcription unit



Gene

- Codes for RNA Molecule

Promoter

- Located towards 5' end of the coding strand of the gene
- RNA polymerase binds here to initiate transcription.
Example : TATA box – has sequence TATAAT
- **Recognition sequences** : Short and conserved sequences

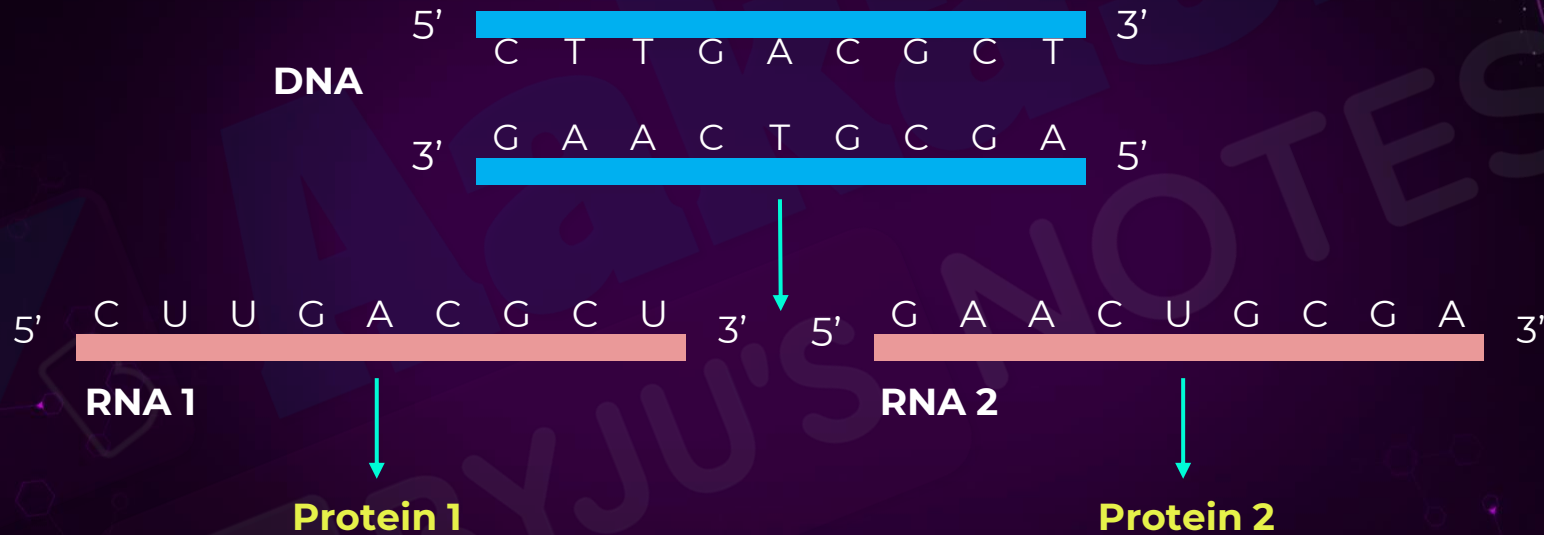
Terminator

- Located towards 3' end of the coding strand of the gene
- Transcription ends at this region



Why is Only One Strand Transcribed ?

If both strands act as a template, they would code for **RNA molecule with different sequences**



One segment of DNA would be coding for two different proteins, which would complicate the genetic information transfer machinery.



Why is Only One Strand Transcribed ?



- Two RNA molecules produced would be **complementary** to each other, hence would form a double stranded RNA
- Would **prevent RNA from being converted into protein**



Types of RNA

Types of RNA

mRNA (Messenger RNA)

- Longest
- **Carries message from DNA**
- Template for protein synthesis

rRNA (Ribosomal RNA)

- Smaller
- Present in ribosomes
- **Helps in catalysing protein synthesis**

tRNA (Transfer RNA)

- Smallest
- **Carries correct amino acids** to site of protein synthesis

Monocistronic

- Contains single cistron
- Found in **eukaryotes**

Polycistronic

- Contains multiple cistrons
- Found in **prokaryotes**

Nucleotide sequence that codes for single protein is called **cistron**.



Transcription : Prokaryotes

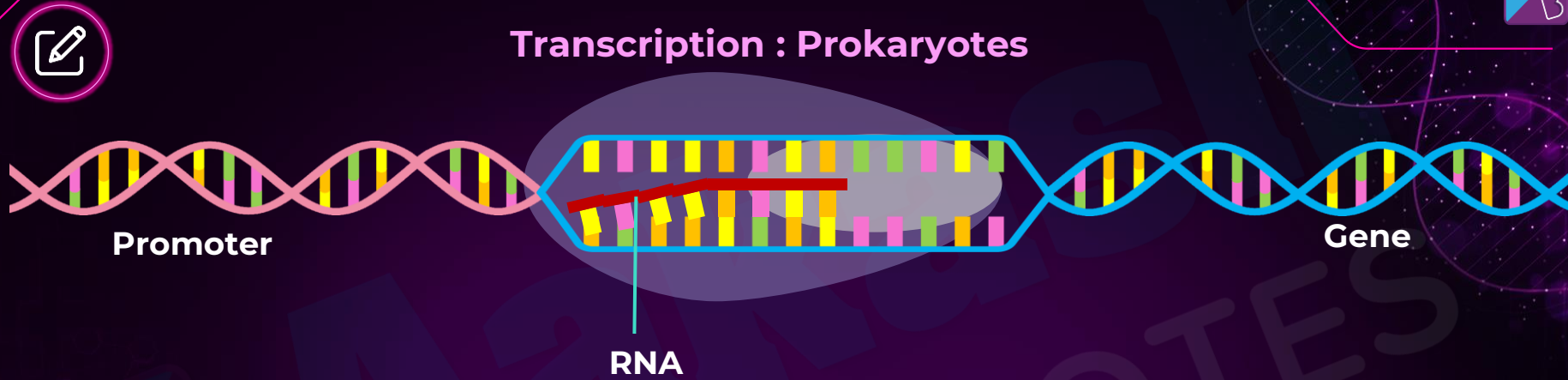


Initiation

Requires DNA as template and RNA polymerase

Sigma factor directs RNA polymerase to **bind to promoter** and move towards gene

Transcription : Prokaryotes



Elongation

RNA polymerase unwinds DNA strands and starts adding nucleotides on DNA template

Elongation continues and size of RNA grows



Transcription : Prokaryotes



Termination

Termination begins once **rho factor** is attached to RNA



Nascent RNA along with RNA polymerase falls off



Transcription : Eukaryotes



- Occurs in the **nucleus**
- Involves **3 RNA polymerases**
- A bit more **complex** than the prokaryotic transcription

RNA Polymerase	Type of RNA transcribed
RNA Polymerase I	rRNA (28S, 18S and 5.8S)
RNA Polymerase II	hnRNA (precursor of mRNA)
RNA Polymerase III	tRNA, scRNA, 5S rRNA, snRNA

* hnRNA – Heterogeneous RNA

mRNA
(Messenger RNA)

tRNA
(Transfer RNA)

rRNA
(Ribosomal RNA)

snRNA
(Small nuclear RNA)

- Characteristics are same, as of prokaryotes

- Ribosome has **large (18S)** and **small (5S, 5.8S and 28S) subunit**

- Helps in **forming mRNA**



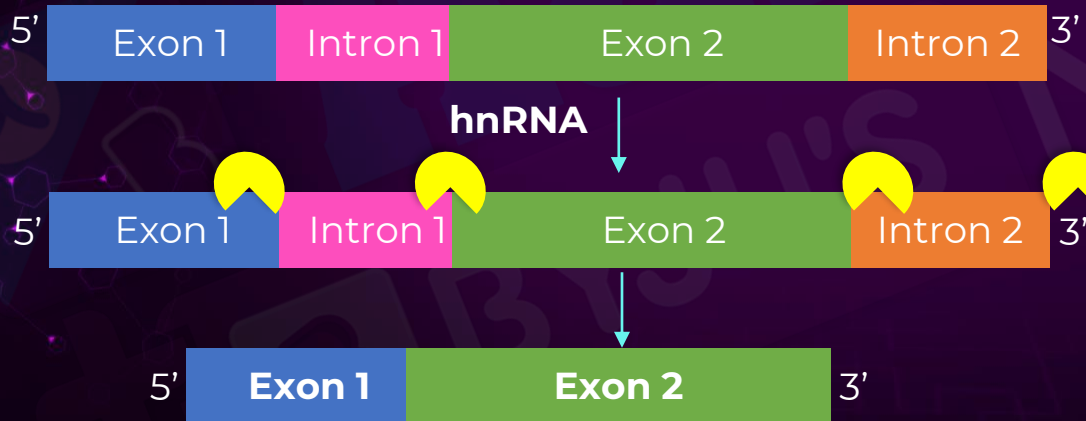
Post – Transcriptional Modification

Splicing

Capping

Tailing

- **Involves removal of introns (non-functional)** and **joining of exons** in defined order
- Mediated by **spliceosome (snRNA + proteins)**



Spliceosome

- **Introns** : Non-coding or intervening sequence
- **Exons** : Coding or functional sequence



Post – Transcriptional Modification

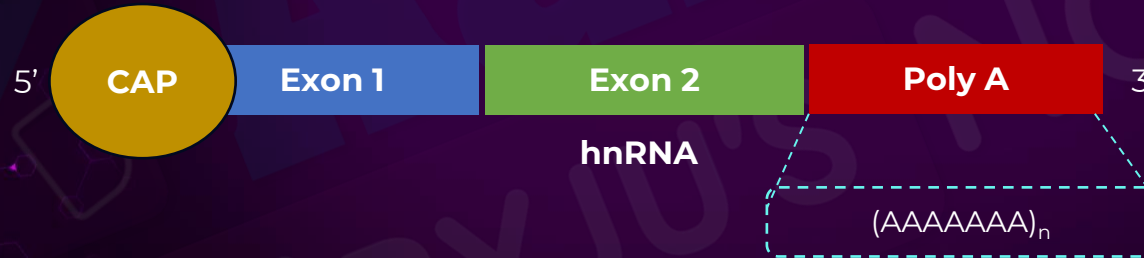
Splicing

Capping

- Addition of **unusual nucleotide** (mostly methylated guanosine triphosphate) **on 5' end**

Tailing

- Addition of **poly A** (200 to 300 residues) **tail at 3' end**



Advantages:

- Capping and tailing **protects transcript** from enzyme attack
- Modifications helps in **recognition for protein production**



Transcription : Prokaryotic vs Eukaryotes

Prokaryotic transcription	Eukaryotic transcription
Occurs in cytoplasm	Occurs in nucleus
1 RNA Polymerase	3 RNA Polymerases
No transcription factor required	Needs transcription factors
RNA formed is polycistronic	RNA formed is monocistronic
No modification required	Involves post-transcriptional modification



Genetic Code

	U	C	A	G	
U	UUU	UCU	UAU	UGU	U
	UUC	UCC	UAC	UGC	C
	UUA	UCA	UAA	UGA	A
	UUG	UCG	UAG	UGG	G
C	CUU	CCU	CAU	CGU	U
	CUC	CCC	CAC	CGC	C
	CUA	CCA	CAA	CGA	A
	CUG	CCG	CAG	CGG	G
A	AUU	ACU	AAU	AGU	U
	AUC	ACC	AAC	AGC	C
	AUA	ACA	AAA	AGA	A
	AUG	ACG	AAG	AGG	G
G	GUU	GCU	GAU	GGU	U
	GUC	GCC	GAC	GGC	C
	GUA	GCA	GAA	GGA	A
	GUG	GCG	GAG	GGG	G

- **George Gamow** argued that amino acids must constitute a combination of bases as there are just **4 bases** and **20 amino acids**.
- **Three bases** would code for **1 amino acid**
- **64 combinations > 20 amino acids**
- **3 letter code (triplets)** would be **sufficient** to code for 20 amino acids



Genetic Code



Enzyme is helpful in polymerizing RNA with defined sequences

Severo Ochoa de Albornoz

Synthesis of artificial mRNA with known sequence

Har Gobind Khorana

Cell-free system with required enzymes/ system to produce polypeptides from mRNA outside the cell

Marshall Nirenberg

Nucleotides decoded

mRNA

Polypeptides



Genetic Code

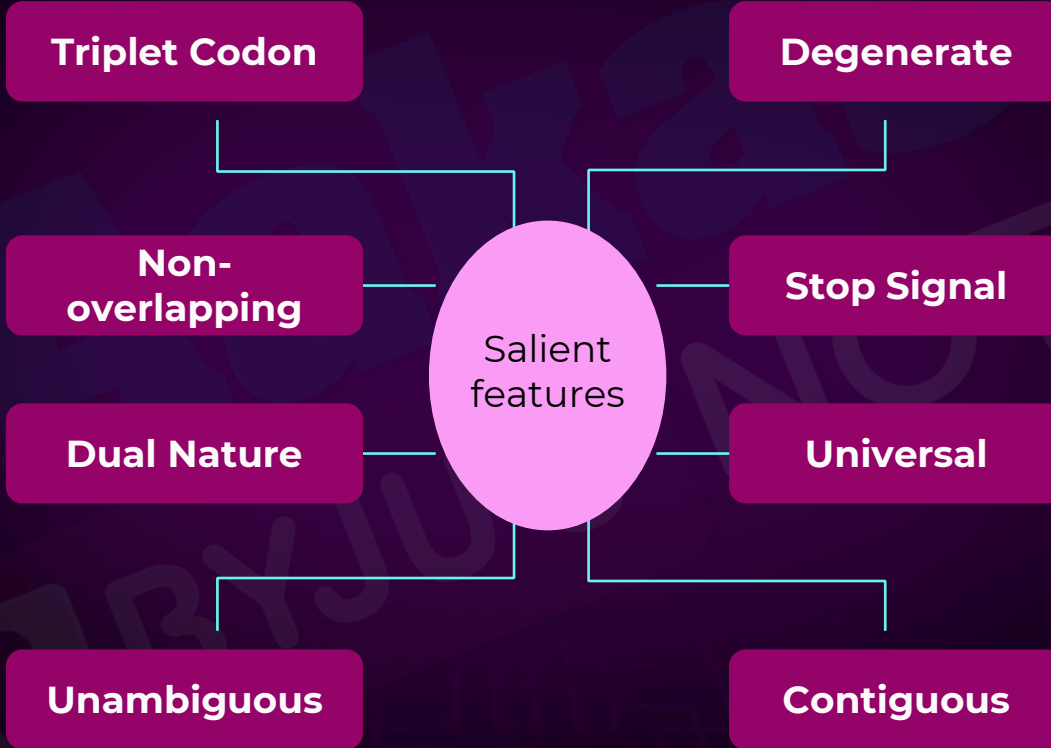


Three nitrogenous bases form a codon

Codons **do not overlap** with each other. They are **discrete**

AUG functions as an **initiator codon** as well as codes for **methionine**

Codon is **specific** to only **one amino acid**



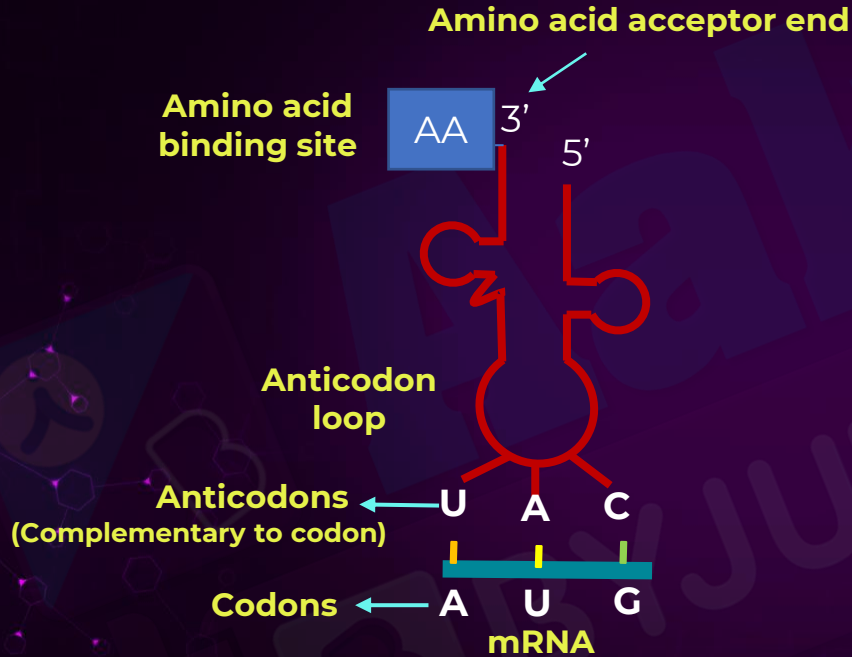
Some amino acids are coded by **more than one codon**

Three codons do not code for any amino acid and hence function as **stop codons**

Codon codes for the same amino acid **across all living organisms and viruses**

No punctuations between codons in an mRNA

tRNA : Structure



Diagrammatic representation of structure of t-RNA

- Has a 3' and 5' end
- Is non-linear, **clover leaf shaped** structure
- Actual 3D structure looks like an **inverted letter 'L'**
- tRNA is called an **adapter molecule** as it acts as **connecting link** between amino acids (AAs) and mRNA



tRNA : Activation

Activation

Free amino acids in cytoplasm are inactive

Activation happens in presence of aminoacyl synthetase and ATP



AA + AMP + Enzyme = Aminoacyl adenylate synthetase complex

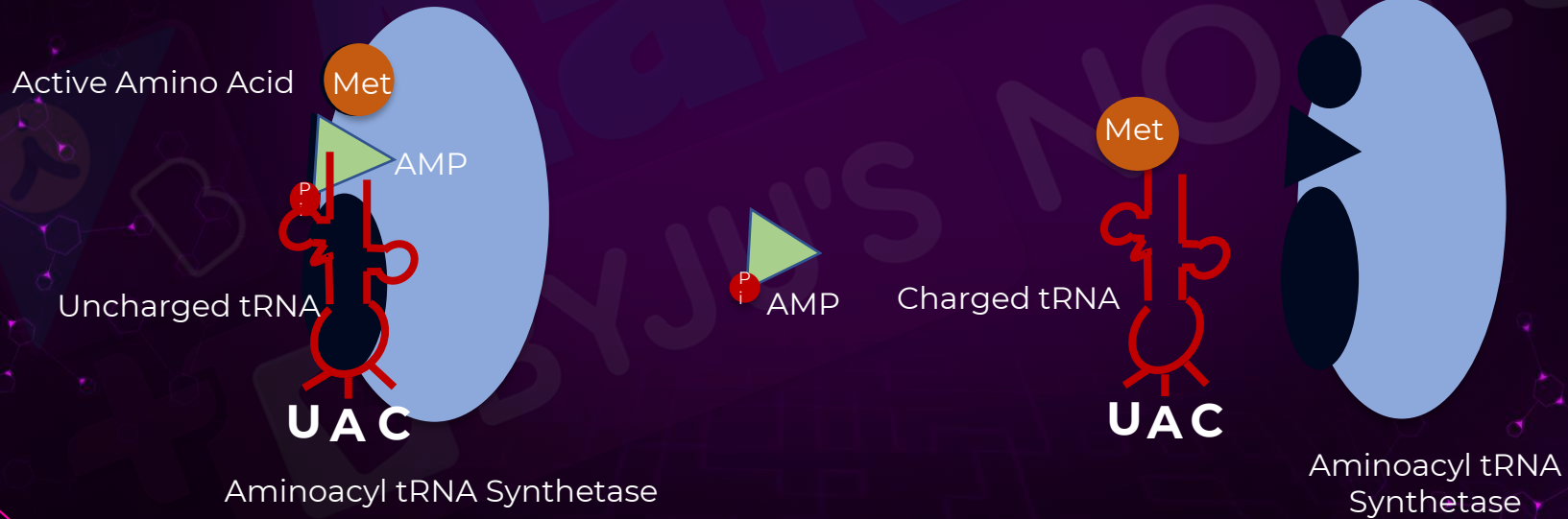
tRNA : Charging



Charging

tRNA without amino acid is called uncharged

Addition of amino acid = Charging



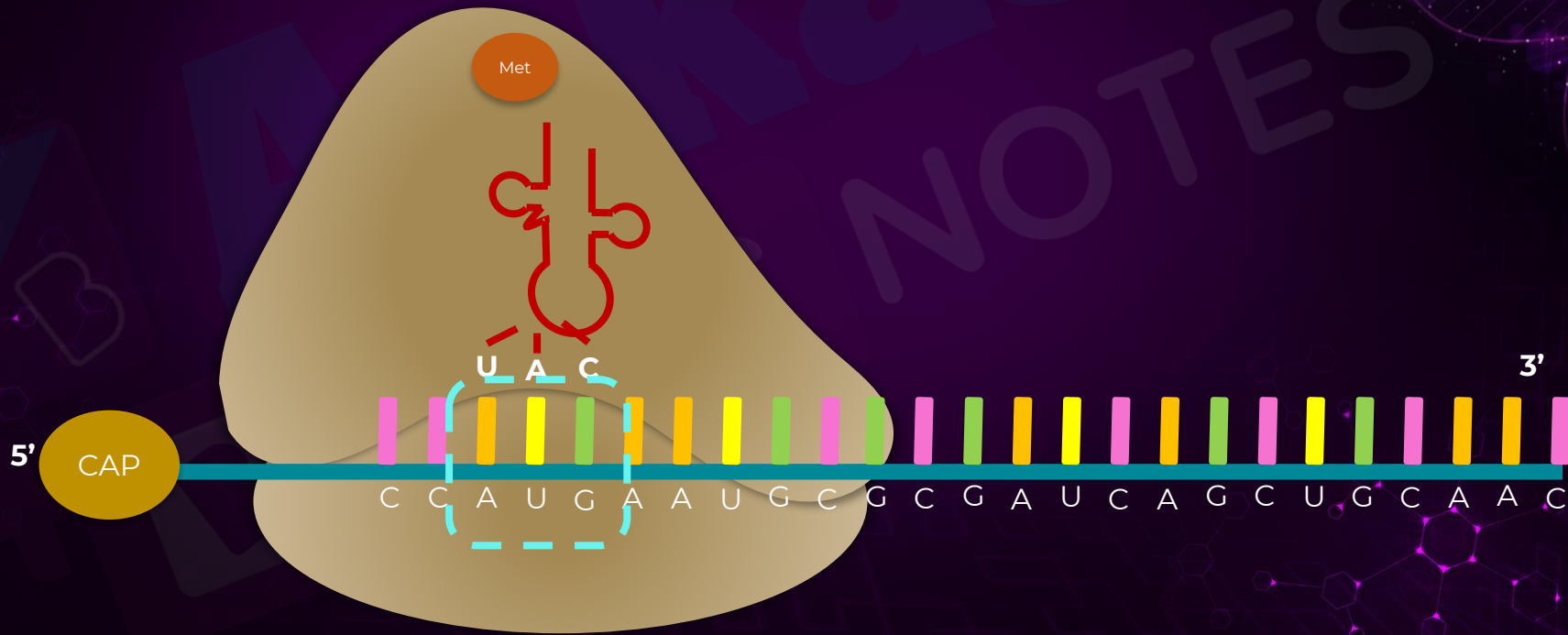


Translation



Initiation

When small ribosomal subunit binds the mRNA at AUG site, translation starts





Translation



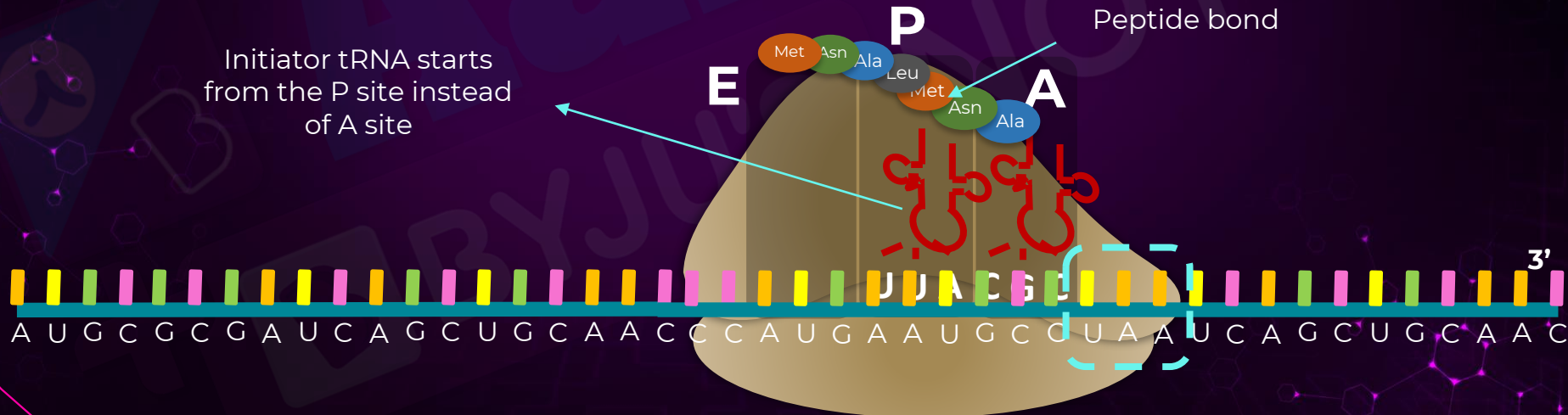
Elongation

Next charged tRNA comes to the A site and peptide bond is formed between two amino acid

Ribosome moves one whole codon hence A site becomes vacant

tRNA at P site exits through E site and A site accepts next aminoacyl tRNA

Polymerisation of amino acid continues





Untranslated Regions (UTRs)

- Some additional sequences in the mRNA are present that are not translated and are known as **UTRs**.
- They are present at both 5' -end (**before the start codon**) and at 3' -end (**after the stop codon**).
- They are important for **efficient translation**.



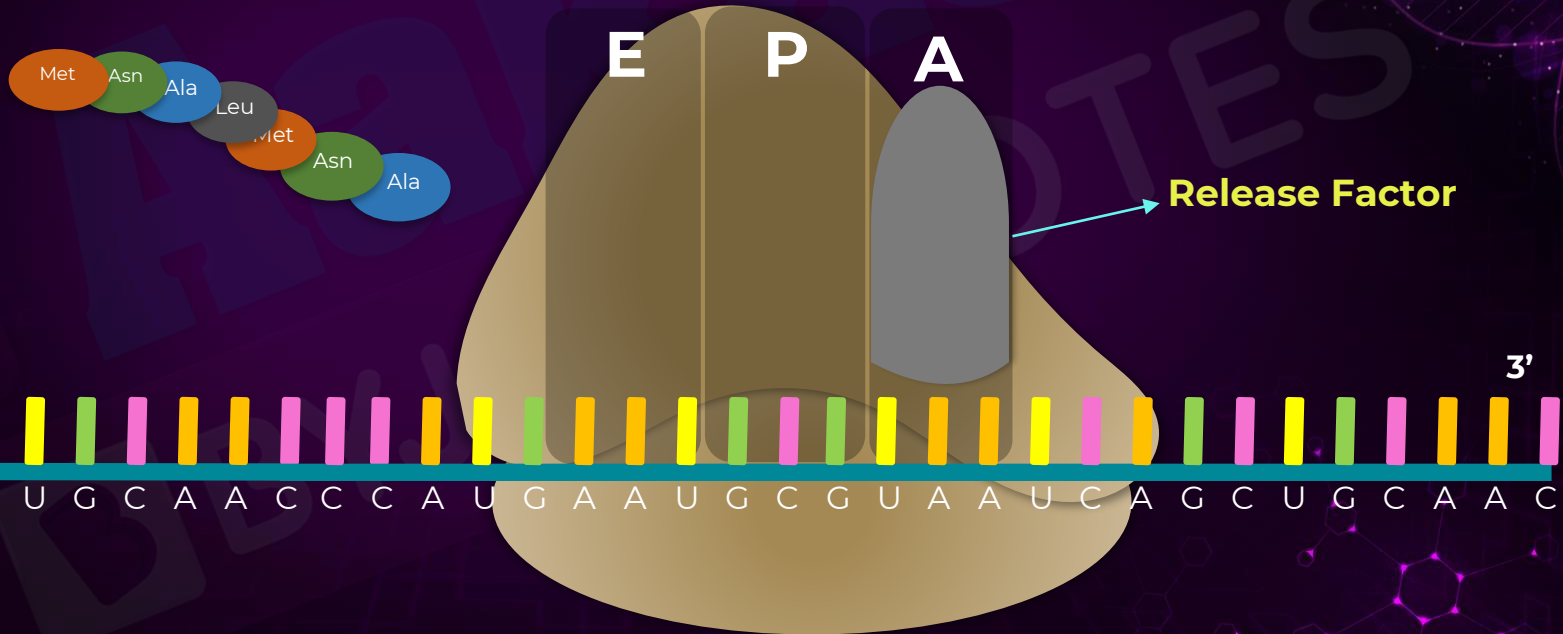


Translation



Termination

Release factor binds to stop codon, terminating translation





Regulation of Gene Expression

- Gene expression is the process by which **genetic information** stored in the **DNA** is **converted** into **protein** within the cell.
- Process of turning **gene expression on** or **off** is known as **gene regulation**.
- In eukaryotes, the regulation could be exerted at
 - **Transcriptional level** : Formation of primary transcript
 - **Processing level** : Regulation of splicing
 - **Transport of mRNA** from nucleus to the cytoplasm
 - **Translational level**



Lac Operon

- **Operon** is defined as a system where the **polycistronic structural gene** is **regulated** by a common **promoter** and **regulatory protein**.
- *E. coli* prefers **glucose over lactose** as an energy source.
- However, in absence of glucose, **lactose** has to be utilized by *E. coli* as a **substitute** for energy.
- **Lactose/ β galactoside** is a **dimeric sugar** (disaccharide) consisting of glucose and galactose.

Lac Operon

lac gene

- **Structural gene** which codes for a **polycistronic *lac* mRNA** and **lactose metabolizing enzymes**



lac gene

Promoter and operator

- P_i** - Promoter of Inhibitory gene
i - Inhibitory gene
- Regulatory gene for lac operon
 - Expressed constitutively
 - Codes for a **repressor protein**

- P** - Promoter of lac gene
O - Operator of lac gene where the repressor protein binds



Lac Operon

lacZ gene

- Lac Z gene codes for **β – galactosidase enzyme**.
- **Lactose** binds to the active site of β – galactosidase.
- Lactose gets digested here into **glucose** and **galactose**.



lacY gene

- Lac Y gene codes for **permease enzyme** which is a cell membrane bound enzyme.
- It make the cell membrane of E. coli **permeable to lactose**.



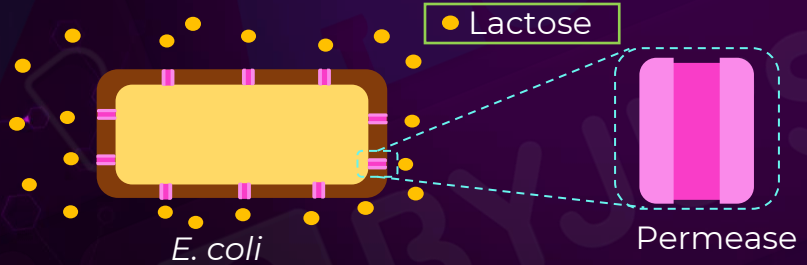
Lac Operon



lacA gene



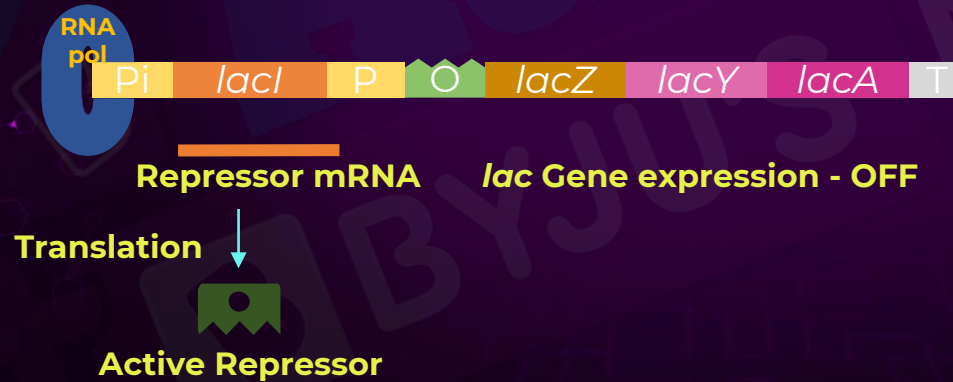
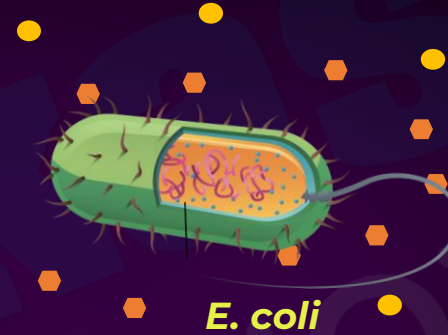
- Lac A gene codes for **transacetylase enzyme**.
- It helps in trans - acetylation reaction.
- Other functions of transacetylase are not known in great detail.



Lac Operon

Scenario 1 : *E. coli* does not feed on lactose on lactose

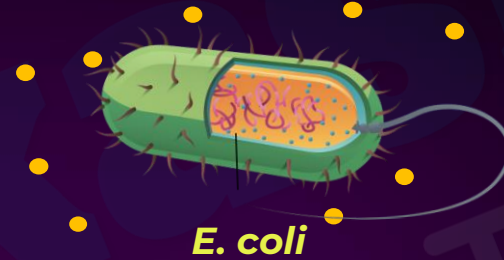
- E. coli* does not feed on lactose normally because *E. coli* prefers glucose over lactose.



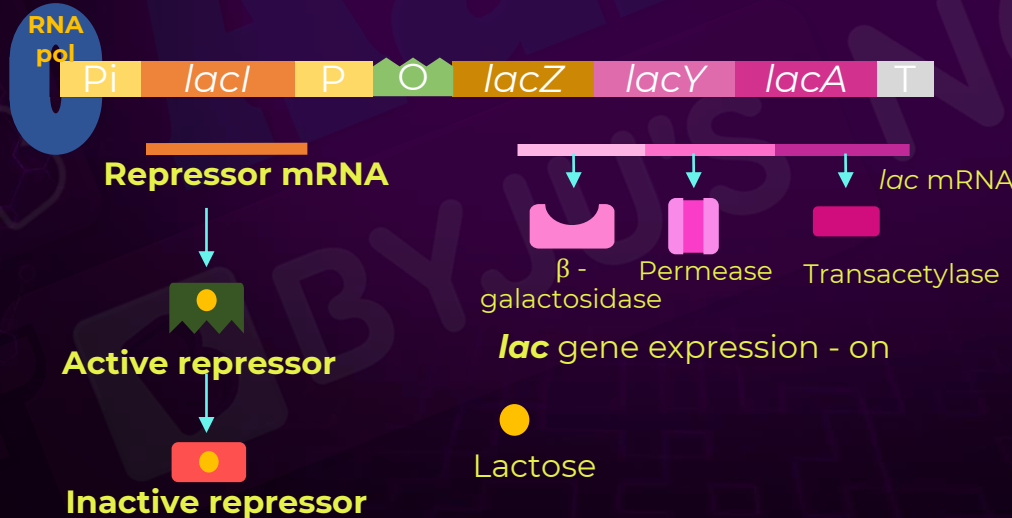
Lac Operon

Scenario 2 : *E. coli* feeds on lactose

- **RNA polymerase** binds to the **promoter** of **inhibitory gene**, and transcribes repressor mRNA which forms **active repressor**.
- **Lactose** binds to the **active repressor** and makes it **inactive**.



● **Lactose**





Human Genome Project



A **thirteen years long project** (1990-2003)
Aim was to sequence the complete human genome
Also known as '**mega project**'

Coordinated by:

- U.S Department of Energy
- National Institute of Health

Partners:

- Wellcome Trust (U.K.)
- Japan
- France
- Germany
- China



Human Genome Project



The **number of base pairs** of the entire human genome is **approx 3×10^9**

Cost of HGP was **\$ 9 billion US dollar = 900 crores INR**

Bioinformatics : Hybrid field that deals with biological data and uses computer science to store, retrieve and analyse them.

DNA sequencing – It is a process of identifying the exact sequence of nitrogenous bases in the DNA.



Human Genome Project : Goals



Identification of approx. **20,000-25,000 genes** in human DNA

Determination of **3 billion chemical base pairs** of human DNA

Storing the information in databases

Improvement of tools for data analysis

Transfer related technologies to other sectors

Address **ethical, legal** and **social issues** that may arise from HGP



Human Genome Project : Methodology

Sequence annotation :

Isolation of DNA



Amplification of DNA or creation of copies



Sequencing of amplified fragmented DNA



Annotation and assigning of DNA

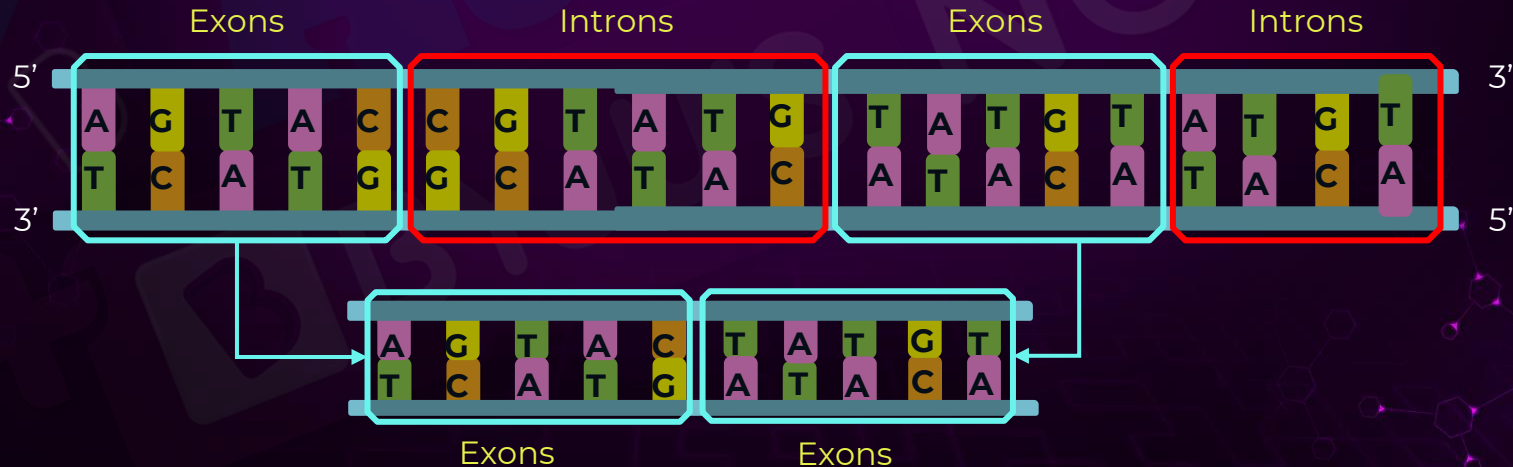
- Fragmented DNA are then cloned in suitable hosts
- The commonly used host were yeast and bacteria and vectors were :
 - **BAC** (Bacterial Artificial Chromosome)
 - **YAC** (Yeast Artificial Chromosome)



Human Genome Project : Methodology

Expressed sequence tags : Identifying all genes that are expressed as RNA

- **DNA** is **isolated** from the cell.
- **mRNA** is obtained from this DNA.
- Since **introns**, which are present between two exons, are **removed** during mRNA synthesis, they are not sequenced.
- This way, all the **coding genes** are isolated and **sequenced**.





Human Genome Project : Features

Human Genome contains approx. **3164.7 million bp**

Average size of gene is **3000 bases**

Human genome has **30000 genes**

Function of over **50% genes is unknown**

Only **2%** of genome **codes for proteins.**

Most of the genome contains **repetitive sequences (VNTRs)**

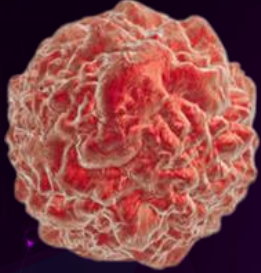
Repetitive sequences **thought to have no direct coding functions** but shed light on **chromosome structure, dynamics and evolution**

Chromosome 1 has **2968 genes** while Y-chromosome has **231 genes**

SNPs were identified which can be used in disease detection and tracing human history



Human Genome Project : Applications



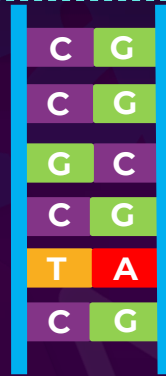
Cancer cell

Early diagnosis of cancer cells

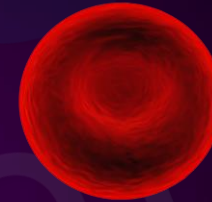


Suspect

Suspect's DNA extracted



In forensic medicine, to match DNA samples of suspects to reach the criminals



Normal RBC



Defected RBC

With genomic sequence, disease like sickle cell anemia can be detected

Repetitive Sequences



- Repetitive elements that **occur multiple times** in the nucleic acid sequences(DNA/RNA)
- In **introns**, the sequences can be both **repetitive** and **non-repetitive**
- Number of these repeats is **different in different individuals**
- **Used in** the technique of **DNA fingerprinting**

5' CTCATGATGATGATGATGTCATCCCGAAATCGTAGCTA 3'

Repetitive sequence

5' CTTAGGATTCAATCCGATTCATCCCGAAATCGT 3'

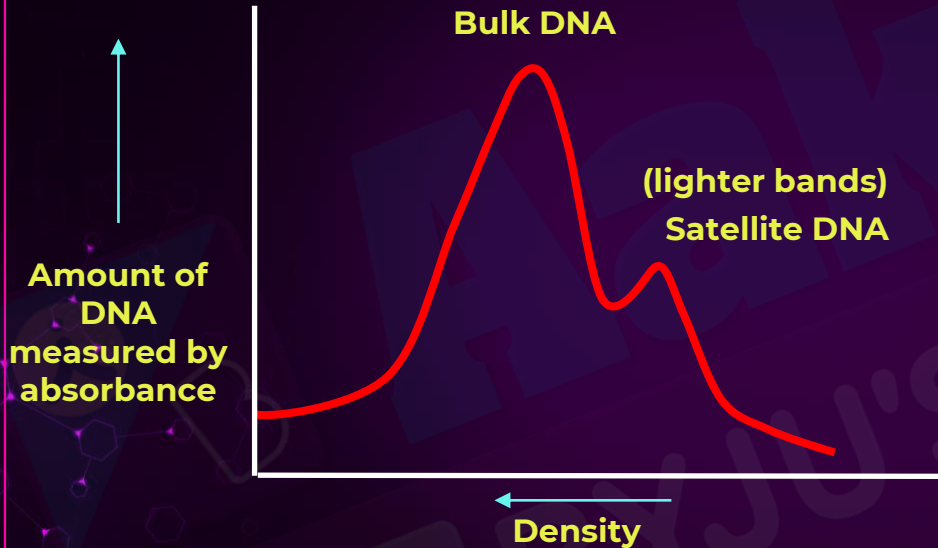
Non-repetitive sequence



Repetitive Sequences



(Main band is formed by the **denser DNA**)



Satellite DNA: Highly repetitive DNA sequence that **does not code for proteins** and is used for DNA fingerprinting.

- It is classified on the basis of
 - length of sequence
 - number of repetitive units
 - base composition

- These **repetitive DNA are separated** from **bulk genomic DNA** as **different peaks** during **density gradient centrifugation**.



Satellite DNA - Types

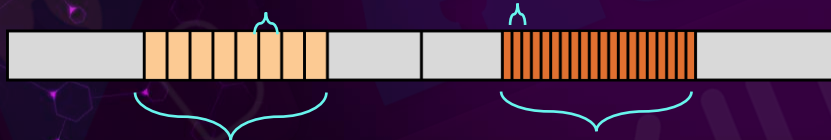


Micro satellite

2-6 base pairs repeating units in tandem repeats

Short Tandem Repeats

Repeat unit size = 2 – 6 base pairs



Repeated 8 times

Repeated 20 times

Short Tandem Repeats (STR)

Mini satellite

10-100 base pairs repeating units in tandem repeats

Variable Number Tandem Repeats

Repeat unit size = 10-100 base pairs



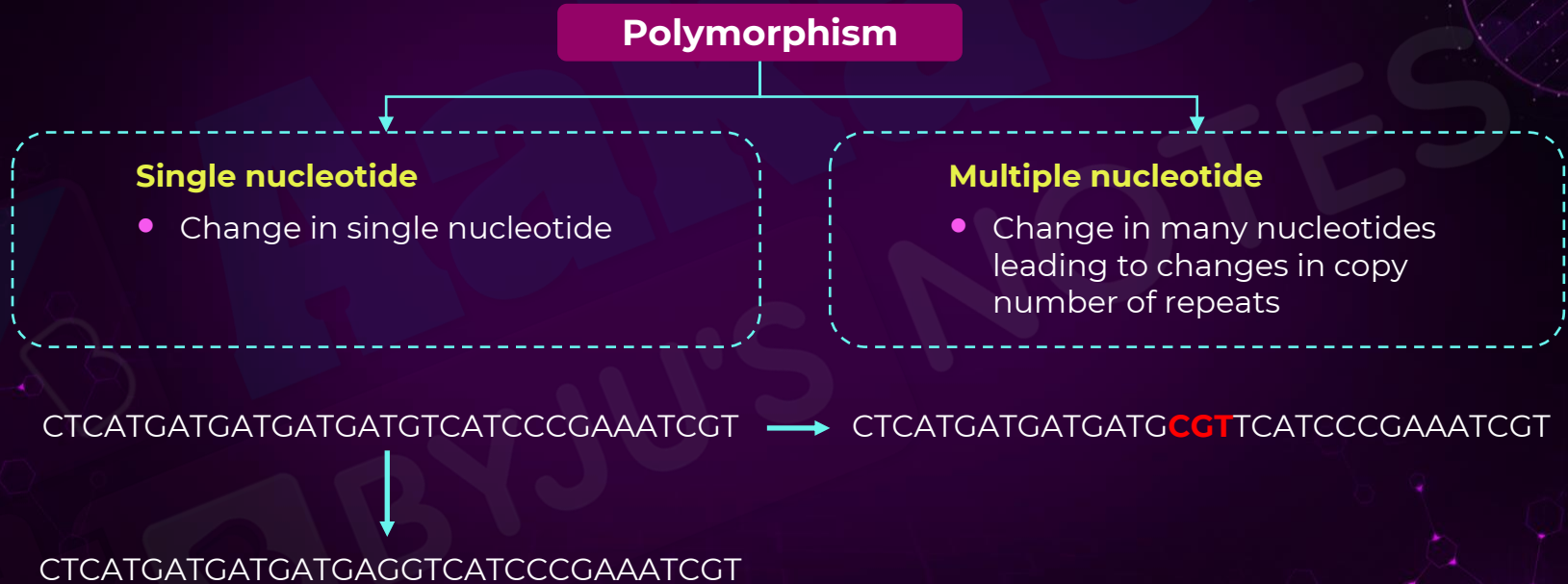
Repeated 4 times

Variable Number Tandem Repeats (VNTR)



Polymorphism

- It is the **inheritable mutation** observed in a population at a **high frequency (Frequency > 0.01)**.
- It plays a **major role in evolution**.



DNA Fingerprinting



Alec Jeffreys

- A **technique** used to determine the **characteristic of an individual's DNA**
- Used to **compare DNA of two individuals**
- Was discovered by **Sir Alec Jeffreys**
- **Analysing DNA** of two different individuals:
 - 99.9% genome is similar
 - Differ by 0.1% (used for DNA fingerprinting)

Steps of DNA Fingerprinting

DNA isolation: DNA isolation is performed using a biological sample.



DNA isolation

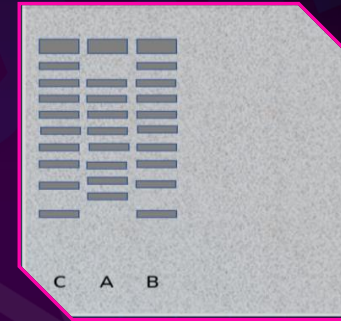
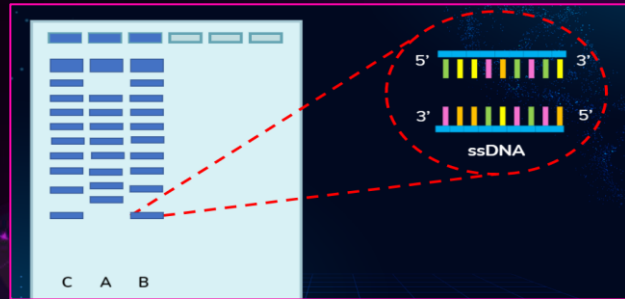


**Restriction digestion
(Cuts DNA into multiple fragments)**



Steps of DNA Fingerprinting

DNA isolation: DNA isolation is performed using a biological sample



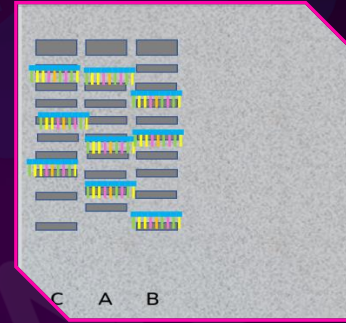
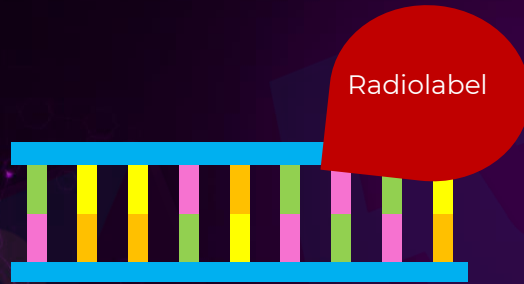
Southern blot
(Transfer of DNA fragments to synthetic medium)



The samples move under the influence of electric charge

Electrophoresis
(Separation of DNA fragments)

Steps of DNA Fingerprinting



DNA probes are labelled with radioactive substances

**Autoradiography
(Detection of hybridised
DNA fragments)**

**Hybridisation
(Using labelled
VNTR probe)**

As probe binds to the complementary DNA, they send out signal (radiolabels)



The banding pattern obtained after exposure to x-ray is analysed.



DNA Fingerprinting : Applications

Paternity –
maternity testing



Personal
identification

Criminal identification
and forensics



Summary

Griffith concluded that **transfer of genetic material takes place** due to transforming principle

Avery, Macleod and **McCarty** experiment proved that **DNA is the genetic material**

Hershey and **Chase's** experiment also proved that **DNA is the genetic material**



Summary

Double helix model

Sugar – phosphate backbone

Nitrogen bases facing inside

Antiparallel strands

Helical pitch
3.4 nm

Right-handed coiling

Helix diameter
2 nm

Helical rise
0.34 nm

Purines

Pyrimidines

Complementary base pairing

A = T

C = G



Summary

Ideal genetic material

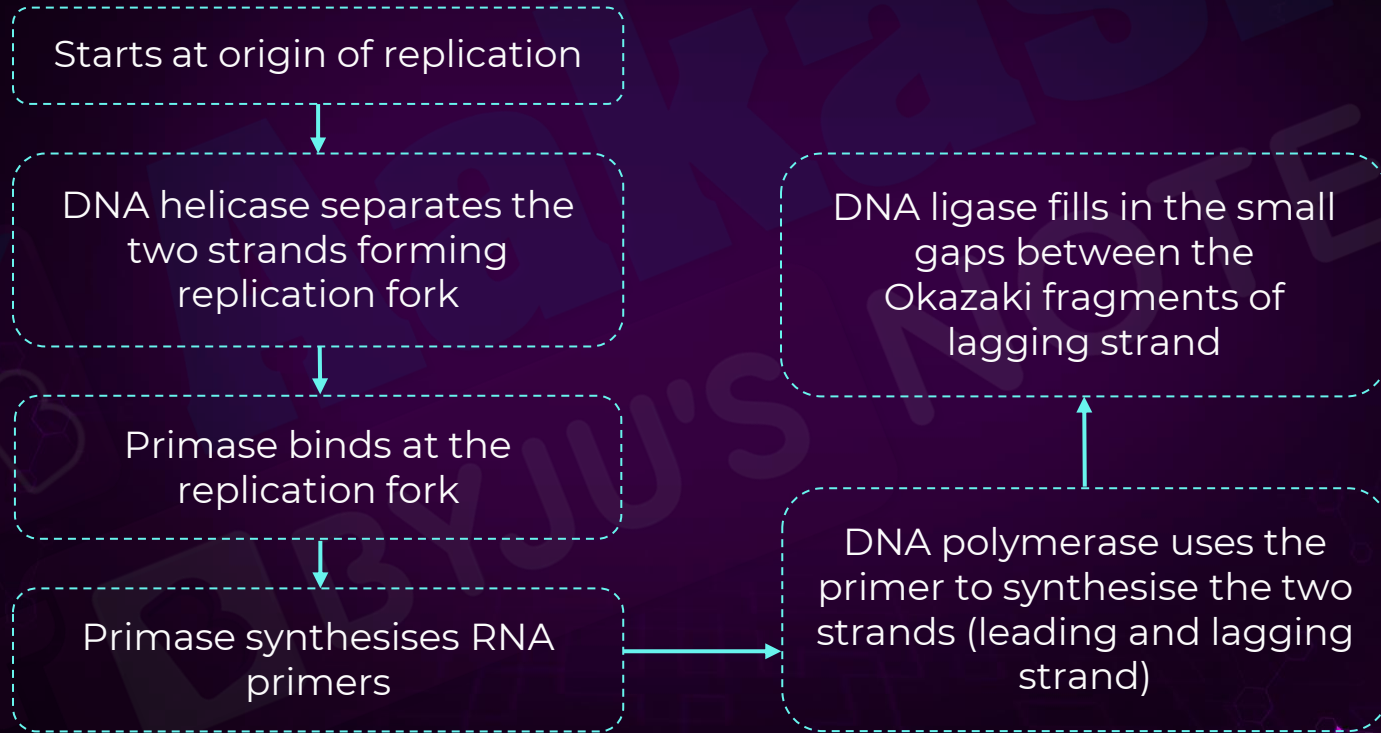
- It should be able to replicate.
- It should be chemically and structurally stable.
- It should provide scope for slow changes (mutation) required for evolution.
- It should be able to express itself in the form of 'Mendelian Characters'.





Summary

Process of replication





Summary

Transcription steps

Initiation

- RNA polymerase along with **sigma factor** attaches to the DNA molecule and recognises a **promoter sequence**.
- The DNA double helix unwinds exposing the **bases of DNA template** strand to form new mRNA.

Elongation

- Nucleotides are added according to the **template strand** that **enables the growth of mRNA**.

Termination

- RNA polymerase encounters a **terminator sequence**, thus causing the release of RNA from **RNA polymerase** with the help of rho factor.



Summary

Post-transcriptional modifications

Splicing

- **Removal of introns** and **joining of exons**

Clapping

- Addition of an **unusual nucleotide at 5' end**

Tailing

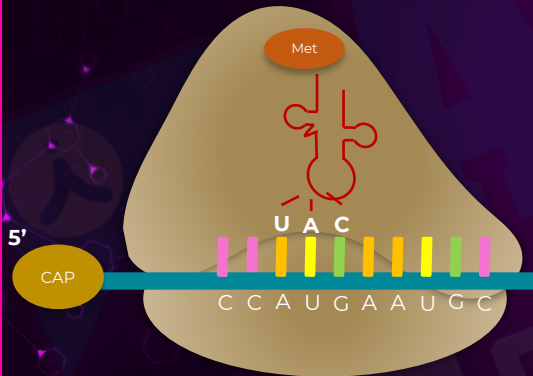
- Adenylate residues **(200-300)** are **added at 3'-end** in a template independent manner

Summary

Steps of translation

1

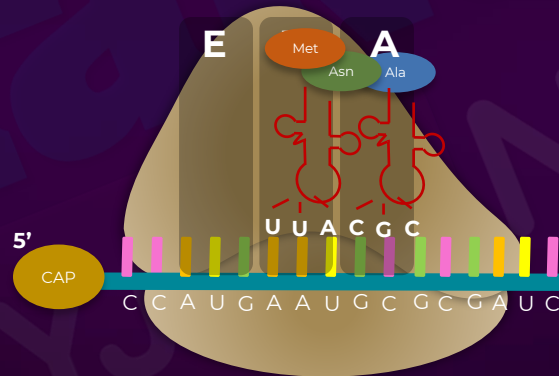
Initiation



- Assembly of mRNA, ribosome and the initiator tRNA

2

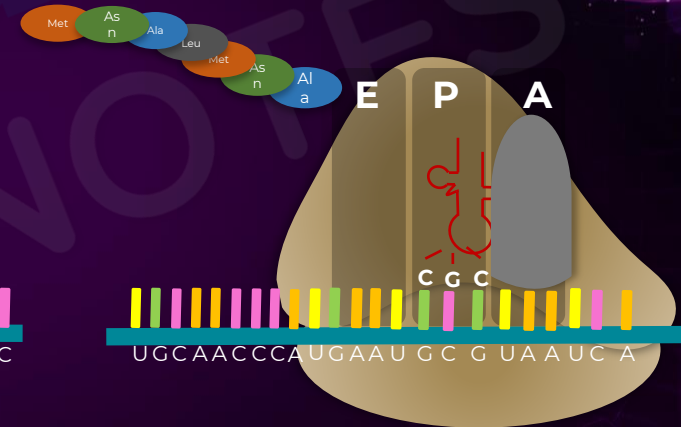
Elongation



- Polymerisation of amino acids

3

Translation

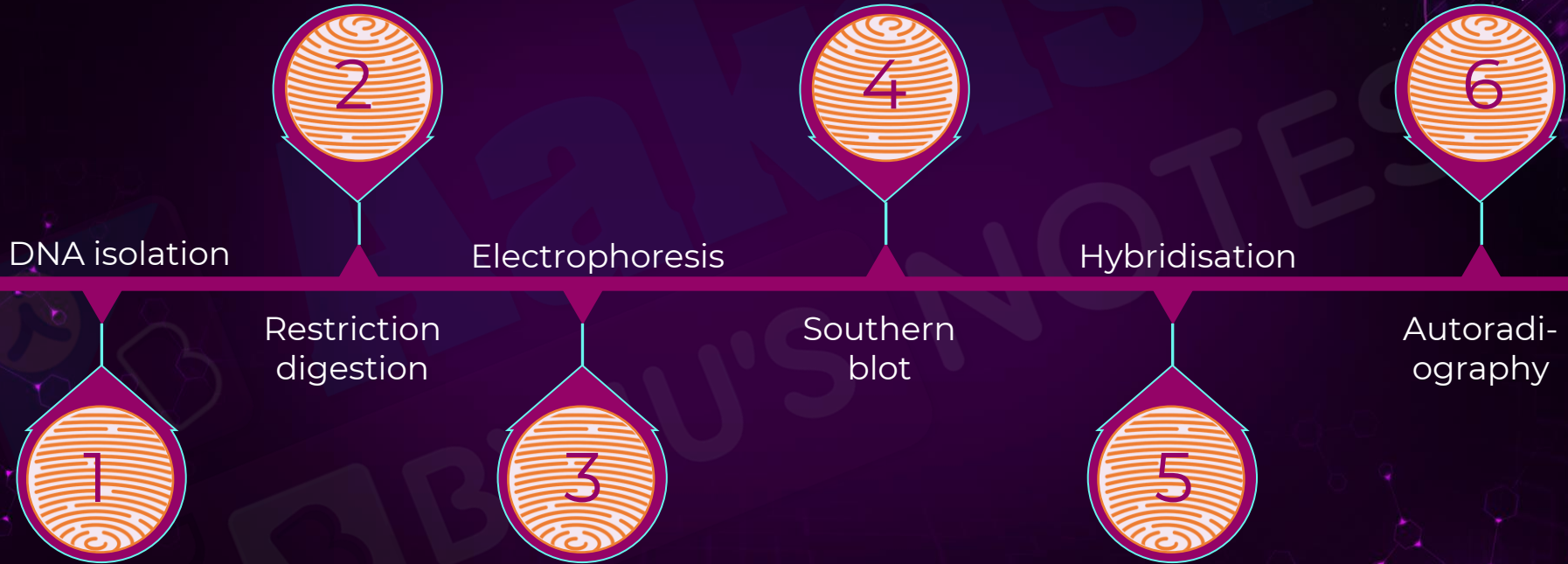


- Release of the polypeptide and disassembly of ribosomes and tRNA



Summary

Steps of DNA fingerprinting





Summary

