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STRUCTURE AND FUNCTION OF GENOME IN PROKARYOTIC AND EUKARYOTIC

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Abstract

Genomes is the fundamental unit in carry of genetic information during the generations, and the different between types of organism's making the genome also different, So we highlight the most important differences from where structure and function of genome and it's contents in the eukaryotic and prokaryotic cells, Size and organization of chromosomes in the genome of human and some prokaryotic cells.

Genome:- A complete set of genetic instructions for any organism, and all genomes are encoded in nucleic acids, either RAN or DNA. Nucleic acids are polymers consisting of repeating units called nucleotides ; each nucleotide consists of Sugar phosphate, and nitrogenous base .

The nitrogenous base in DNA are of four types (abbreviated base A,C,G and T),and the sequence of these bases encodes genetic information in DNA, but a few viruses carry it in RNA, The four nitrogenous bases of RNA are (abbreviated A,C,G and U)

DNA is closely associated with special class of proteins, the histones (A group of proteins responsible for the first level of DNA packing in chromatin)to form tightly packed chromosomes. This complex of DNA and histone proteins is termed chromatin, which is the stuff of eukaryotic chromosomes.

In prokaryotic cell is subcellular organism that lacks a nucleus,its DNA is not associated to histone proteins,and its genome is usually a single chromosome.

In addition,a genome also contains many regions of noncoding DNA that do not encode proteins or noncoding DNA products .Non coding DNA is commonly found in areas prior to the start of coding sequences of genes as well as in intergenic regions (I.e,DNA sequences located between genes).

The study of genome is called "genomic "

Function of genome:-

Analysis of genes at the function level is one of the main uses of genomics, an area known generally as functional genomics. Determining the function of individual genes can be done in several ways. Often a gene identified by forward genetics has been mapped to one specific chromosomal region, and the full genomic sequence reveals a gene in this position with an already annotated function.

The well-accepted major functions of the genome are to store and propagate the genetic material and to control the expression of genetic information encoded in DNA.

The genome is also a major physical entity of each cell:

It is large mass, dynamic properties, and unique structural features effect major cellular processes by nongenetic means. As a physical entity, the genome exerts mechanical forces into its cellular environment via transmission from the nucleus to the cytoplasm as well as within the nucleus between chromatin domains.

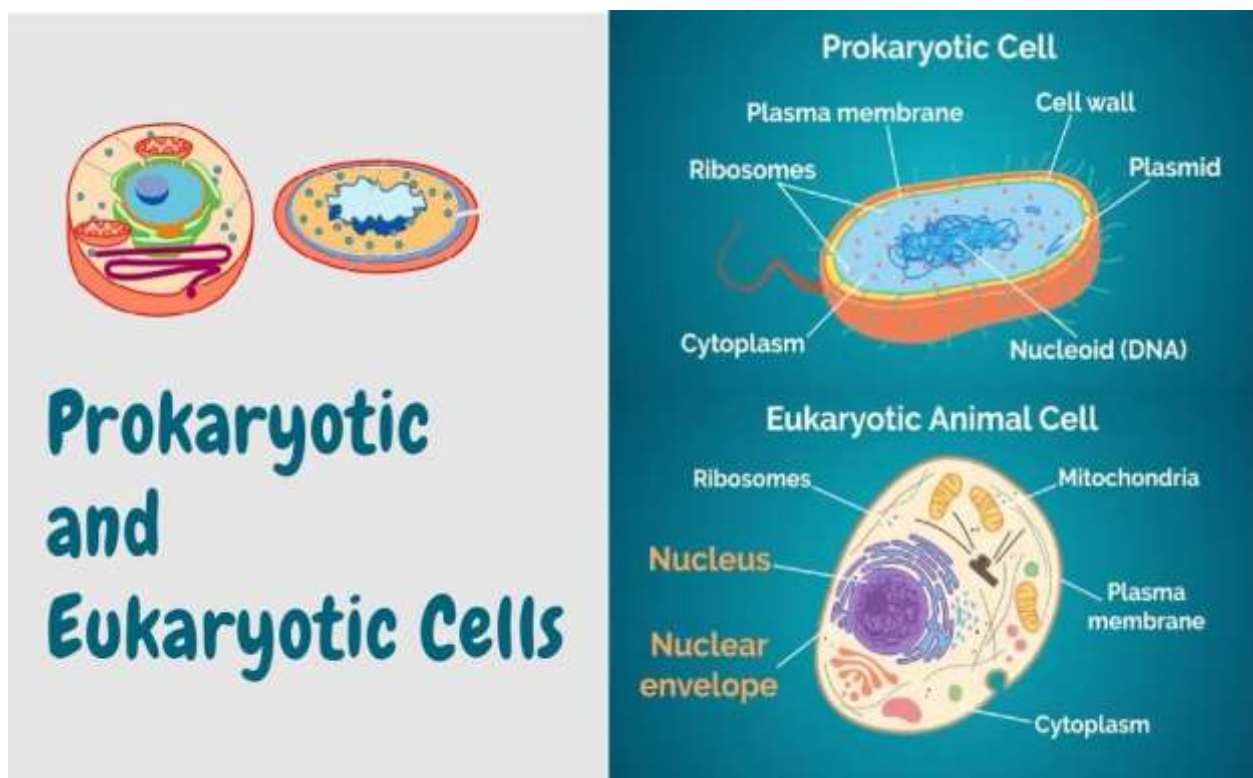
Results from a broad range of experiments show that mechanical forces generated by the genome are critical contributors to a wide range of cellular processes and to cellular homeostasis. The chromatin fiber also serves as a physical binding scaffold both for proteins and for membranes, and it is increasingly evident that key cellular events, including faithful cell division, involve controlled interactions of large molecular protein complexes and membranes with the genetic material. The genome is also a major structural component of the cell.

Genome in prokaryotic cell

Viral Genome

Viral genomes exhibit significant diversity in structure. Some viruses have genomes that consist of DNA as either genetic material. This DNA may be single stranded, as exemplified by human parvoviruses, or double stranded, as seen in the herpesviruses and poxviruses. Additionally, although all cellular life uses DNA as its genetic material, some viral genomes are made of either single or double stranded RNA. Most bacterial genomes, encoding only a few genes, because they rely on their hosts to carry out many of the functions required for their replication.

Most of the DNA in a genome codes for proteins (tRNA and rRNA), with a small amount of coding DNA, primarily regulators.



genome in eukaryotic cell

Human genome

Humans come in many shapes and size ,but we 're all very similar at the DNA level .in fact ,the genome of a my two people are more than 99% the same. Most of the DNA (about 98.5%) does not code to proteins or mRNA.

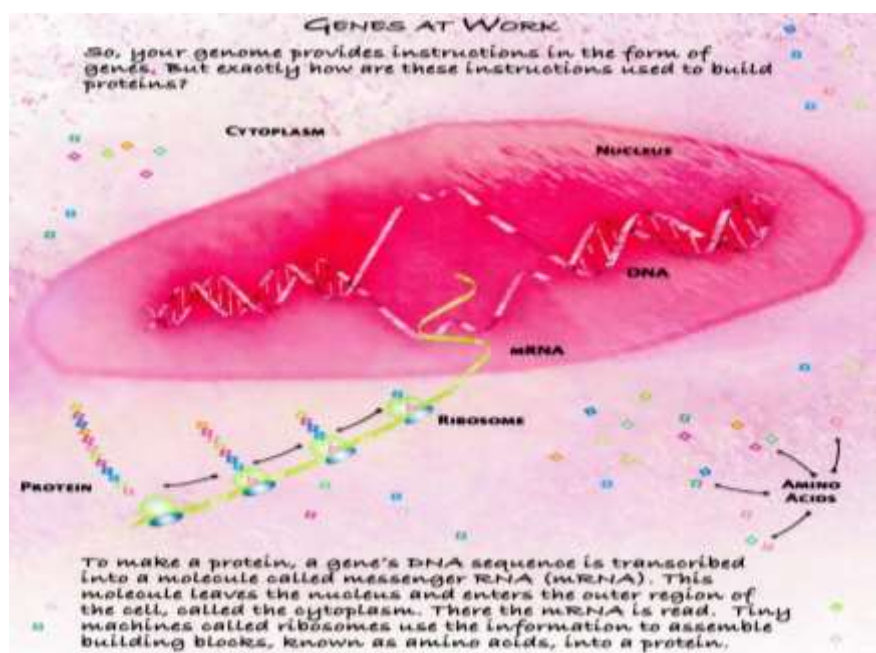
some noncoding regions are regulatory sequences , and other are introns.

* Non coding DNA the function of which is not well understood .Some noncoding DNA appears to participate in the formation of small noncoding RNA molecules that influence gene expression :some appears to play areole in maintaining chromosomal structure and in DNA packaging.

it is made up of 23 Chromosome pairs with a total of about 3billion DNA base pairs.

There are 24 distinct human chromosomes: 22 auto Somali chromosomes , plus the sex -determining x and y chromosomes .chromosomes 1-22 are numbered roughly in order of decreasing size . somatic cells usually have are copy of chromosomes 1-22 from each parent , plus on X chromosome from the mother and either any or x from the father , for atotel of 46

There are an estimated 20.000-25.000 human protein - coding genes.



Genome size

Genome size is usually measured by base pairs (or bases in single-stranded DNA or RNA). The value is another measure of genome size. Research on significant positive correlation between the C-value of prokaryotes and the amount of genes that compose the genome. This indicates that gene number is the main factor influencing the size of the prokaryotic genome.

In Eukaryotic organisms, there is a paradox observed namely that the number of genes that make up the genome does not correlate with genome size in much larger than would be expected given the total number of protein coding genes.

Genome size can be increased by duplication, insertion, or polyploidization. Recombination can lead to both DNA loss or gain. Genomes can also shrink because of deletions. A famous example for such gene decay is the genome of *Mycobacterium leprae*, the causation agent of leprosy. *M. leprae* has lost many once-functional genes over time due to the formation of pseudogenes. This is evident in looking at its closest ancestor *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* it lives and replicates inside of host and due to this arrangement it does not have allowed it to live and prosper outside the host. Thus over time these genes have lost their function through mechanisms such as mutation causing them to become pseudogenes. It is beneficial to an organism to rid itself of

non-essential genes because it makes replicating its DNA much faster and require less energy. An example of increasing genome size over time is seen in filamentous plant pathogens. These plant pathogen genomes have been growing larger over the years due to repeat-driven expansion. The repeat-rich regions contain genes coding for host interaction proteins. With the addition of more and more repeats to these regions the plants increase the possibility of developing new virulence factors through mutation and other forms of genetic recombination. In this way it is beneficial for these plant pathogens to have larger genomes.

Pseudogenes-:

often a result of spontaneous mutation, pseudogenes are dysfunctional genes derived from previously functional gene relatives. There are many mechanisms by which a functional gene can become a pseudogene including the deletion or insertion of one or multiple nucleotides. This can result in a shift of reading frame, causing the gene to no longer code for the expected protein, introduced a premature stop codon or a mutation in the promoter region. Often cited examples of pseudogenes within the human genome include the once functional (olfactory) gene families. Over time many olfactory genes in the human genome become pseudogenes and were no longer able to produce functional proteins, explaining the poor sense of smell humans possess in comparison to their mammalian relatives.

Organization of Genetic Material

The vast majority of an organism's genome is organized into cells chromosomes, which are discrete DNA structures within cells that control cellular activity. Recall that while eukaryotic chromosomes are housed in the membrane-bound nucleus, most prokaryotes contain a single circular chromosome that is found in an area of the cytoplasm called the "nucleoid". A chromosome may contain several thousand genes.

Organization of Eukaryotic chromosomes

The composition of genes in the human genome, as well as the determinants of their expression, is specified in the DNA of the 46 human chromosomes. Each chromosome in the nucleus is long, linear double .

Stranded DNA molecule. The DNA molecule of chromosomes exists as a complex of DNA with family of basic chromosomal protein called histones and heterogeneous group of acidic Together. this complex of DNA and protein is called chromatin. There are 5 major types of histones that play a critical role in the proper packaging of the chromatin fiber are H1, H2A, H2B, H3, H4. each complex of DNA and with core histones is called a(nucleosome) which is the basic structural unit of chromatin. The rest of the genome consists of several clads of (repetitive DNA) and includes DNA whose nucleotide sequence is repeated, either perfectly or with some variation, hundred millions of times in the genome.

The length of a chromosome greatly exceeds the length of the cell, so a chromosome needs to be packaged into a very small space to fit within the cell. For example, the combined length of all of the 3 billion base pairs of DNA of the human genome would measure approximately 2 meters if completely stretched out, and some eukaryotic genomes are many times larger than the human genome. DNA supercoiling refers to the process by which DNA is twisted to fit inside the cell. Proteins known to be involved in supercoiling include topoisomerases. These enzymes help maintain the structure of supercoiled chromosomes, preventing overwinding of DNA during certain cellular processes like DNA replication.

In eukaryotes, the packaging of DNA by histones may be influenced by environmental factors that affect the presence of methyl groups on certain cytosine nucleotides of DNA. Packaging is called epigenetics. Epigenetics is another mechanism for regulating gene expression without altering the sequence of nucleotides. Epigenetic changes can be maintained through multiple rounds of cell division and therefore, can be heritable.

organization of prokaryotic

chromosome

chromosome in bacteria and archaea are usually circular, and prokaryotic cell typically contains only a single chromosome within the nucleoid. Because the chromosome is haploid. As in eukaryotic cells, DNA supercoiling is necessary for the genome to fit within the prokaryotic cell. The DNA in the bacterial chromosome is arranged in several supercoiled domains. As with eukaryotes, topomerases are involved in supercoiling DNA, DNA gyrase is a type of topomerase, found in bacteria and some archaea, that helps prevent the overwinding of DNA (some antibiotics kill bacteria targeting DNA gyrase). In addition, histone-like proteins bind DNA and aid in DNA packaging. Other proteins bind to the origin of replication, the location in the chromosome where replication initiates. Because the different regions of chromosomal DNA are more accessible to enzymes and thus may be used more readily as templates for gene expression. Interestingly, several bacteria, including *Helicobacter pylori* and *Shigella flexneri*, have been shown to induce epigenetic changes in their hosts upon infection, leading to chromatin remodeling that may cause long-term effects on host immunity. Although most DNA is contained within a cell's chromosome, many cells have additional molecules of DNA outside the chromosome, called extra-chromosomal DNA that are also part of its genome. In some cases, genomes of certain DNA viruses can also be maintained independently in host cells during latent viral infection. In these cases, these are another form of extra-chromosomal DNA. For example, the human papilloma virus.

(HPV) may be maintained in infected cells in this way. Beside chromosomes, some prokaryotes also have smaller loops of DNA called (plasmids) that may contain one or a few genes not essential for normal growth. Bacteria can exchange these plasmids with other bacteria in a process known as horizontal gene transfer (HGT). The exchange of genetic material on plasmids sometimes provides microbes with new genes beneficial for growth and survival under special conditions. In some cases, genes obtained from plasmids may have dual implications, encoding virulence factors that give a microbe the ability to cause disease or make a microbe resistant to certain antibiotics. Plasmids are also used heavily in genetic engineering and biotechnology as a way to move genes from one cell to another.

Type	Properties
F	Fertility (susceptibility to transmission by conjugation)
Scp1	Produce substance Anti-Antibiotic
FP2	Resistance pollution of elements of the weight
Col b	Resistance UV.
Col v	Resistance the viral invasion .
Lambda	Resistance the enter to properly cover for virus
R1	Prevent mutations for the bacterial cell
Rp1	Resistance natural substance than made from penicillin

Genome evolution

is the process by which a genome changes in structure (sequence) or size over time. The study of genome evolution involves multiple fields of genomics: parasites, gene and ancient genomics. Genome evolution in bacteria is well understood because of the thousands of completely sequenced bacterial genomes available.

Genetic changes may lead to both increase or decrease of genomic complexity due to adaptive genome streamlining and purifying selection.

In general, free-living bacteria have evolved larger genomes with more genes so they can adapt more easily to changing environmental conditions. By contrast, most parasitic bacteria have reduced genomes as their hosts supply many if not most nutrients, so that their genome does not need to encode for enzymes that produce the nutrients themselves. Eukaryotic genomes evolve over time through many mechanisms including much greater genetic diversity to the offspring than the prokaryotic process of replication in which the offspring are theoretically genetic clones of the parental cell.

characteristic	E.coli genome	Human Genome
Genome size (base pairs)	4.6 Mb	3.2Gb
Genome structure	circular	linear
Number of chromosomes	1	46
Presence of plasmids	Yes	No
Presence of the nucleus	No	Yes
DNA segregated in the nucleus	No	Yes
Number of genes	4288	20000
Presence of introns	No	Yes
Average gene size	700bp	2700bp

*E.coli largely contains only exons in genes. However, it does contain a small amount of self-splicing introns.

FEATURE	PROKARYOTE	EUKARYOTE
Organisms	Bacteria	<u>Protoctists</u> , fungi, plants and animals
Cell size	0.5-10 micrometers in diameter	10-100 micrometers in diameter
Form	Mainly unicellular	<u>Multicellular</u> (the exception being <u>Protoctista</u> which has many unicellular organisms)
Cell Division	Binary Fission (they got no spindles)	Mitosis, meiosis, or both (we have spindles!)
Evolutionary Origin	3.5 thousand million years ago (<u>woah</u> , long time)	1.2 thousand million years ago (because they evolved from <u>prokaryotes</u>)
Genetic Material	DNA is circular and naked (no <u>histones</u>) and lies freely in the cytoplasm	DNA is linear and contained in a nucleus. It is associated with proteins (<u>histones</u>)
Protein Synthesis	Contain 70s ribosomes	Contain 80s ribosomes
Organelles	No membrane bound organelles	Many membrane bound organelles which may be double <u>membraned</u> (eg. mitochondria, nucleus) or single <u>membraned</u> (eg. <u>golgi</u> apparatus, <u>lysosomes</u>)
Cell Walls	Rigid containing polysaccharides with <u>amino</u> acids. Contains <u>murein</u> with is strengthening compound)	<u>Cell walls</u> of green plants and fungi are rigid and contain polysaccharides. Plant walls have cellulose for strengthening. Fungal walls have chitin (no <u>cell walls</u> present in animal cells)
Flagella	Simple. They lack in <u>microtubules</u> and are not enclosed by a cell surface membrane. They are 20 <u>nm</u> in diameter	These are complex. They have a 9+2 arrangement of <u>microtubules</u> and are surrounded by a cell surface membrane. They are 200 <u>nm</u> in diameter
Respiration	<u>Mesosomes</u> in bacteria (except cytoplasmic membranes in blue-green bacteria)	Mitochondria present for aerobic respiration
Photosynthesis	Takes place on membranes which show no staking (blue-green bacteria)	Chloroplasts present for photosynthesis. (membranes in them stacked into <u>grana</u> or <u>lamellae</u>)
Nitrogen Fixation	Some have the ability	None can fix nitrogen

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