

Molecular Structure of DNA

San Luis Potosi State University (UASLP) Mexico Molecular Biology Course, Faculty of Medicine graduate program

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What is DNA?

A bicatenary, antiparallel and complementary molecule encoding genetic information of most, but not all living organisms.



DNA genomes 10,000 bacterial species 500 archaeal species 611,000 fungal species, including yeasts 298,000 plant species 7.8 million animal species. 58,000 to 77,000 viral species

RNA genomes 161,979 RNA virus species 44 viroids





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Each DNA chain has a 5' end and a 3' end (depending on the orientation of the deoxyribose).





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dsDNA When chains are part of a duplex.

ssDNA

When chains are isolated and not part of a duplex.

ccdsDNA

Covalently closed circular doublestranded DNA (plasmids, virus, mitochondrial genome).









Helical molecule Filamentous molecule

0.34 nm minor repeating units

3.4 nm major repeating units

- •Helical structure
- •Filamentary shape (large molecule)
- •Small units every 0.34 nm (3.4 Å)
- •Large unit every 3.4 nm (34 Å)
- •1 Ångström = 0.1 nanometer

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Double helix





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DNA Surface topology

The major groove and minor grooves have different widths and depths.

Each groove has unique functional implications in biological processes, especially in how proteins and molecules interact with DNA.

The major groove provides more accessible chemical information to proteins and other molecules.

Allows proteins, like transcription factors, to recognize and bind to specific DNA sequences with high affinity.

Proteins can "read" the DNA sequence without unwinding it.

The minor groove is narrower, less accessible and provides fewer distinguishing features for proteins to recognize specific sequences.







Nucleotides

Nucleotides are the building blocks of DNA and essential for genetic information storage and transmission.

Each nucleotide has a nitrogenous base (adenine, thymine, cytosine, or guanine).

A pentonse deoxyribose sugar that stabilizes the DNA structure.

A phosphate group that forms the DNA backbone through phosphodiester bonds.





Nitrogenous bases





Purines

2 rings (Pyrimidine and imidazole) A is similar to NH group in form G is similar to O group in form Attach to pentose via Nitrogen #9



Pyrimidines

Single pyrimidine ring Look like letter "i" Have mane "i's" in name (in Spanish at least) Attach to pentose via Nitrogen #1



Uracil is not methylated, thymine is.





Pentose relevance

Carbons labelled ' (prime) to distinguish from atoms of nitrogenous base.

Carbon 1' attaches to nitrogenous base.

Carbon 2' distinguishes DNA (deoxydized) from RNA (oxydized).

Carbon 3' and 5' establish polarity.

Carbon 5' attaches to phosphate group.

Polymerases attach nucleotides to 3'-OH group (extensible 3'-OH).







Polymerases attach nucleotides to 3'-OH group (extensible 3'-OH).

During DNA and RNA synthesis, the 3' hydroxyl group of one nucleotide reacts with the 5' phosphate group of the incoming nucleotide through a phosphodiester bond.

Without the 3' hydroxyl group, the chain cannot extend, halting DNA or RNA synthesis exploited by Chain Termination in Sanger DNA Sequencing.



(a)





Nomenclature

Distinguishes between nitrogenous bases, nucleosides, nucleotides, RNA and DNA.

In RNA nucleotides are known as NTPs

Adenine, Adenosine, Adenosimonophosphate (AMP), ADP and ATP. Guanine, Guanosine, Guanosindiphosphate (GMP), GDP and GTP. Cytosine, Cytidine, Cytidintriphosphate (CMP), CDP and CTP. Thymine, Thymidine, Thymidintriphosphate (TMP), TDP and TTP Uracil, Uridine, Uridintriphosphate (UMP), UDP and UTP

In DNA nucleotides are known as dNTPs

Deoxyadenosimonophosphate (dAMP) Deoxyguanosindiphosphate (dGMP) Deoxycytidintriphosphate (cCMP) Deoxythymidintriphosphate (dTMP)



Base



Phosphate groups

Phosphates and phosphodiester bonds = Polymerization of nucleic acids



Each phosphodiester bond carries an electrostatic charge of -1 so the net charge of the nucleotide polymer (DNA) is negative.





Phosphate groups

DNA backbone has an overall negative charge due to phosphate groups.











Hydrogen bonds

An electrostatic force of attraction between a hydrogen (H) atom covalently bonded to an electronegative "donor" atom (δ +), and another electronegative atom bearing a lone pair of electrons (δ -).



Hydrogen bonds between water molecules.



Molecular Biology of the Cell, 4th Edition.





Watson–Crick base pairing

Specific hydrogen bonding patterns allow for "Watson–Crick" (or "Watson–Crick–Franklin") base pairing.

G≡C and A=T

The complementary nature of these base pairs provides a redundant copy of the genetic information in each strand of DNA.

Paired DNA & RNA molecules are stable at room temperature but separate above a melting point determined by the length of the molecules and the GC content.

Purine + purine: too wide Pyrimidine + pyrimidine: too narrow Purine + pyrimidine: width consistent with X-ray data 2 nm Renaturation (special conditions Heat, OF required) Single-stranded denatured state Native state Renatured state

Molecular Biology of the Cell, 4th Edition.





Applications of nucleic acid hybridization

Southern blotting **Microarrays** Fluorescent in situ hybridization (FISH) Dot blot hybridization Colony hybridization Northern blotting (for RNA detection) DNA:RNA hybridization assays PCR-SSP PCR-SSO Reverse dot blot hybridization** Array-based Comparative Genomic Hybridization (aCGH)** Quantitative Fluorescent In Situ Hybridization (Q-FISH)** Tissue Microarrays (TMA)** Stringent DNA Probe Hybridization** Padlock Probes** Hybridization Chain Reaction (HCR)** Electrochemical DNA Hybridization Assays** Bead-based Hybridization Assays** Dual-labeled Probe Hybridization (e.g., TaqMan probes)**







Non-canonical base pairing

Base-pairing with alternative base orientation, and number and geometry of hydrogen bonds.

Accompanied by alterations to the local backbone shape.

Wobble base pairing that occurs between tRNAs and mRNAs at the third base position of many codons during transcription.







DNA can adopt several conformations, with three primary forms known as A-DNA, B-DNA, and Z-DNA.

Each conformation has unique structural characteristics and is influenced by environmental conditions, sequence composition, and biological function.

B-DNA

Most common and biologically relevant form of DNA in cells.

Right-handed double helix with 10.5 bp/turn

Its major and minor grooves allow proteins to interact with specific sequences, making B-DNA ideal for genetic information storage and protein binding.







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A-DNA

A right-handed helix more compact than B-DNA.

11 base pairs per turn.

Found under dehydrated conditions or in doublestranded RNA and DNA-RNA hybrids.

Its wider and shallower grooves make it less accessible to proteins, but it's still structurally stable.







DNA can adopt several conformations, with three primary forms known as A-DNA, B-DNA, and Z-DNA.

Each conformation has unique structural characteristics and is influenced by environmental conditions, sequence composition, and biological function.

Z-DNA

Left-handed helical form has a zigzag backbone, hence the name "Z-DNA."

It occurs in regions with alternating purinepyrimidine sequences (like CG repeats) and may form transiently during active transcription.

Z-DNA is thought to play a role in gene regulation and is recognized by specific proteins.







Functional relevance of DNA topology

DNA conformation affects the physicochemical properties of the molecule and therefore the type of interactions it can have with proteins.

Interferon Beta promoter being recognized by transcription factor with affinity for the minor cleft.







Transcription factor CRO 434 recognizing the OR1 operator of phage 434





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