# Cheatography

## Nucleic acids and their functions Cheat Sheet by lonnieRCH via cheatography.com/208046/cs/44690/

#### Nucleotides

Both DNA and RNA are made up of monomers called nucleotides

Each nucleotide contains a phosphate group, a nitrogen--containing organic base, and a pentose (5-carbon) sugar: either ribose (RNA) of deoxyribose (DNA)

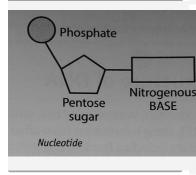
There are 2 groups of organic bases: **Pyrimidines** (single ring) and **purines** (double ring)

For **nitrogenous bases** found in DNA:

- Guanine (Purine)
- Cytosine (pyrimidine)
- Adenine (purine)
- Thymine (pyrimidine)

In RNA the pyrimidine uracil replaces thymine

## Nucleotide diagram



#### ATP

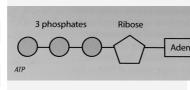
Adenine triphosphate is also a nucleotide: it has a ribose sugar joined to the adenine base, with three phosphate groups attached.

## ATP (cont)

When the high-energy bond between the second and third phosphate group is broken via hydrolysis by the enzyme ATPase, 30.6Kg of energy is released for use in the cell, and adenine diphosphate is formed.

This reaction is reversible, requiring energy from respiration of glucose to reform the bond

## ATP Diagram



## Structure of DNA

DNA consists of **2 polynucleotide** strands that are **arranged** into a **double helix**.

when a condensation reaction

dinucleotide is formed

The 5th carbon atom of a

Nitrogenousdeoxyribose sugar is joined to the 3rd carbon atom of the deoxyribose sugar of the nucleotide above it, via the phosphate molecule.

This continues, building a **single strand** of DNA in the **5'-3' direction**.

DNA then forms a double-stranded molecule from two strands: one strand runs in the opposite direction to the other (anti-parallel).

## Structure of DNA (cont)

Both strands are held together by hydrogen bonds that form between complimentary nitrogenous bases.

The **double strand** then **twists** to form a **double helix**.

Bases between both stands pair up in a certain way which is called the complementary base pairing rule:

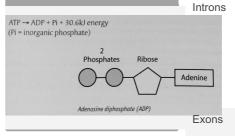
Guanine forms hydrogen bonds
with an adjacent cytosine
molecule and adenineforms
hydrogen bonds with an
adjacent thymine molecule.

Adening thydrogen bonds are weak, but

the sheer number of them present in a molecule of DNA over a million nucleotides long, means that collectively they are very strong.

In fact you would need to heat DNA to over 95 degrees C to break them all.

## ADP Diagram



## Advantages and roles of ATP

Advantages of ATP:

Energy is **released quickly** from a **one-step reaction** involving just **one enzyme** (hydrolysis of glucose takes many steps)

## Advantages and roles of ATP (cont)

Energy is released in small amounts, 30.6KJ where it is needed. By contrast just one molecule of glucose contains 1880KJ which couldn't safely be released all at once.

It is the 'universal energy currency', i.e. it's a common source of energy for all reactions in all living things.

Roles of ATP in cells:

Used in many **anabolic reactions**, e.g. **DNA** and **protein synthesis** 

Active transport

Muscle contraction

Nerve impulse transmission

#### Key Term

Codon

The triplet of bases in mRNA that codes for a particular amino acid, or a punctuation signal.

Non-coding nucleotide sequence in DNA and pre-mRNA, that is removed from premRNA, to produce mature mRNA.

Nucleotide sequence on one strand of the DNA molecule and the corresponding mRNA that codes for the production of a specific polypeptide.



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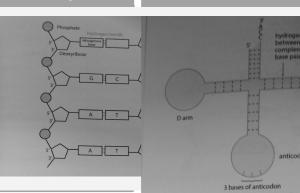


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## Structure of DNA diagram

## Structure of tRNA

Process of semi-conservative DNA replication



rocess requires ATP, free otides and enzymes.

helicase breaks the

hydragen bonds between the bases causing the double helix to unwind and separate into two strands.

- The exposed bases bind to free floating nucleotides in the nucleoplasm.
- DNA polymerase binds the complimentary nucleotides (forming the phosphodiester bond).
- One strand acts as the template for the new molecule, so newly synthesised DNA contains one parent strand and a complimentary newly synthesised strand.

## Extracting DNA

DNA can be easily extracted from cells by grinding up a sample in a solution of ice cold salt and washing up liquid.

The detergent dissolves the lipids in the phospholipid membranes, allowing DNA to be released, and the cold temperature protects the DNA from cellular DNAases.

Addition of protease will digest any remaining cellular enzymes and the histones that the DNA is wound around.

Finally, adding ethanol to the salt already present, will cause the DNA to precipitate out from the solution.

## Structure of RNA

RNA is usually **shorter** than **DNA** and **single-stranded**.

Nucleotides also differ in that the sugar is ribose, the one base thymine replaced with uracil.

Three different types of RNA are involved in protein synthesis.

## Types of RNA

mRNA Messenger RNA is a single-stranded molecule typically 300-2000 nucleotides long. It is produced in the nucleus using one of the DNA strands as a template during transc-

rRNA Ribosomal RNA forms
ribosomes with the
addition of protein.

tRNA Transfer RNA is a
small molecule that
winds itself into a
cloverleaf shape. It has
an anticodon at one
end, and an amino acid
at the other. As the
name suggests, it
'transfers' the correct
amino acid to the
growing polypeptide
during translation.

## Functions of DNA

DNA has 2 main functions in organisms

- 1. Protein synthesis the sequence of bases in one strand, called the template strand, determines the order of amino acids in the polypeptide (primary structure).
- 2. Replication when cells divide, a complete copy of the DNA in the cell needs to be made. Both DNA strands separate and each strand acts as a template to synthesise a complimentary strand.

Three theories for how DNA replicates have been proposed:

## Functions of DNA (cont)

- Conservative replication: original parent stranded molecule is conserved, and a new double-stranded DNA molecule synthesised from it.
- 2. Semi-conservative replication: parental strands separate, and each strands acts as a template to synthesise a new strand. The new molecule consists of one original parent strand and one newly synthesised strand.
- Dispersive: the newly synthesised molecules contain fragments from the original parent strand and newly synthesised DNA.

## **Key Term**

Silent Mutation A change in the sequence of nucleotide bases without a subsequent change in the amino acid.

## Meselson-stahl experiment

1. Grow bacteria on a 15N is a heavy isotope of nitrogen so all DNA produced would be a heavier weight than normal. When DNA was extracted by centrifuging in caesium chloride, the DNA band appeared low down in the tube.



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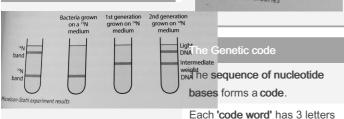
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# Meselson-stahl experiment (cont)

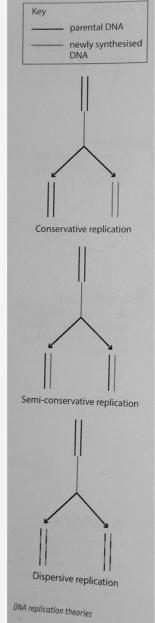
- 2. Bacteria were then grown on a 14N medium (normal weight nitrogen), and after one generation the DNA extracted formed an intermediate band half way up the tube. This is because the DNA molecule contained one strand from the heavy parent and one newly synthesised light DNA strand. (Because one band was produced this rules out conservative replication).
- 3. The bacteria were grown for a further generation using 14N medium. The DNA extracted formed an intermediate band half way up the tube, and a lighter band towards the top of the tube. Because half of the DNA was intermediate weight and half light, this rules out dispersive replication.
- DNA therefore replicates semi-conservatively.
- 5. If grown for further generations using 14N medium, whilst intermediate weight DNA would remain, the proportion of light DNA produced would increase.

# Meselson-stahl experiment diagram



acid.

## DNA replication theories



called a **triplet code** or **codon**, which codes for a **specific amino** 

	Sorious cous examples.			
D	NA	mRNA	Amino acid	Amir
CC	odon	codon	that is	acid
			coded for	abbr
				iatio
G	GG	CCC	Proline	Pro
С	GG	GCC	Glycine	Gly
Α	TG	UAC	Tyrosine	Tyr
T	AC	AUG	Methionine	Met
٨	СТ	LIGΑ	Ston	

Genetic code examples

#### The Genetic code part 2

There are 20 amino acids that are coded by 4power3 bases, i.e. 64 different combinations of A, G, C, T(U).

Therefore, there are 'spare' base codes.

This is referred to as degeneracy or the 'degenerate code'.

This code is **universal**, i.e. it is the **same** in **all living things**.

One **codon** acts as a **START** codon, marking the point on the **DNA** where **transcription** begins - this is **AUG** on the **mRNA** and codes for **methionine**.

Each gene found on the DNA will code for a different polypeptide: this is called the one gene, one polypeptide hypothesis.

## Post-translational modification

Translation produces a polypeptide, but further modification is needed in order to produce a protein with a secondary, tertiary or quaternary structure.

# Post-translational modification (cont)

acid This modification occurs within abbreve Golgi body.

iation Modification also occurs to

produce molecules such as glycoproteins, lipoproteins, and complex quaternary structures such as haemoglobin.

To form haemoglobin, 2 alpha chains and 2 beta chains (coded by 2 different genes) need to be assembled together with iron as a prosthetic group.

## **Protein Synthesis**

**Transcription** occurs in the **nucleus**.

**Translation** occurs at the **ribosomes** 

Post-translational modification occurs in the Golgi apparatus prior to packaging of the protein into vesicles.

#### Transcription

**DNA** acts as a **template** for the **production** of **mRNA**.

DNA helicase acts on a specific region of the DNA molecule called the cistron, breaking the hydrogen bonds between both DNA strands, causing the strands to separate and unwind, exposing nucleotide bases.

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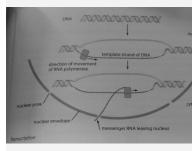
#### Transcription (cont)

Free RNA nucleotide pair to exposed bases on the DNA template strand and RNA polymerase joins them by forming the phosphodiester bonds between the phosphate group on one nucleotide and the ribose sugar on the next.

This continues until the RNA
polymerase reaches a STOP
codon, when the RNA
polymerase detaches and
production of mRNA is complete.

The mRNA strand leaves the nucleus via the nuclear pores and moves to the ribosomes.

#### Transcription diagram



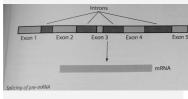
## Introns and Exons

In eukaryotes, introns are present within many genes so are also transcribed producing pre-mRNA.

The **coding regions** are referred to as **exons**.

The pre-mRNA is spliced to remove the non-coding regions before passing to the ribosomes. In prokaryotes, the DNA does not contain introns, and so the mRNA is produced directly from the DNA template.

## Splicing of pre-mRNA



#### Translation

Involves another specific RNA molecule called transfer RNA (tRNA).

At one end of the tRNA molecule there are 3 exposed bases called the anticodon, these are complimentary to the mRNA codon.

At the opposite end of the tRNA molecule is an amino acid attachment site where the relevant amino acid is found.

The attachment of the relevant amino acid to the attachment site is called amino acid aviation and requires ATP.

Translation involves converting the codons on the mRNA into a sequence of amino acids known as a polypeptide.

Each ribosome (found free in the cytoplasm, or attached to the rough endoplasmic reticulum) is made up of 2 subunits made from ribosomal RNA and protein.

The mRNA binds to the smaller subunit, whilst tRNA to one of 2 attachment sites on the larger subunit.

## The process of translation

Initiation: ribosome attaches to

tRNA molecule with a complimentary anticodon to the first codon, binds to the first attachment site on the ribosome.

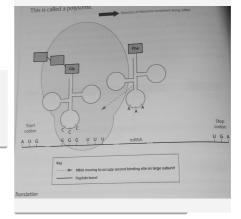
A second tRNA molecule joins to the second attachment site, and a ribosomal enzyme catalyses the formation of a peptide bond between the 2 amino acids. This is known as elongation.

The first tRNA molecule is released and the ribosome now moves one codon along the mRNA, which exposes a free attachment site and another tRNA molecule joins and the process is repeated.

This repeats until a STOP codon is reached, when the polypeptide is released. This is called termination.

Usually several ribosomes bind to a single mRNA strand at the same time. This is called a polysome.

## Translation Diagram





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