REULATION OF GENE EXPRESSION

• Living cells adapt to changes in environment by regulating gene expression

• Eg: insulin is synthesized only by specialized cells of Pancreas

• Regulatory mechanisms allows expression of insulin genes only in pancreas, while preventing its expression in other cells

Types of regulation

- **Positive regulation** –
- When expression of genetic information is quantitatively increased by the presence of a regulating element [activator/inducer]
- <u>Negative regulation</u> –
- When expression of genetic information is quantitatively diminished by the presence of a regulating element [repressor]

Types of genes

- Inducible genes
 - expressed only when a specific regulatory substance inducer/activator is present.
 - Eg: glucokinase induced by insulin in human
- Constitutive genes
 - Expression is not regulated
 - Expressed at a constant rate as the proteins are required all the time in the cell [house keeping gene]
 - Eg: enzymes of TCA cycle

Regulation in prokaryotes

- Have a simple mechanism for regulation of genes
- prokaryotes adapt by turning groups of genes 'on' and 'off' in response to various environmental signals
- Genes involved in a particular metabolic pathway are often arranged in a linear fashion called 'operon'

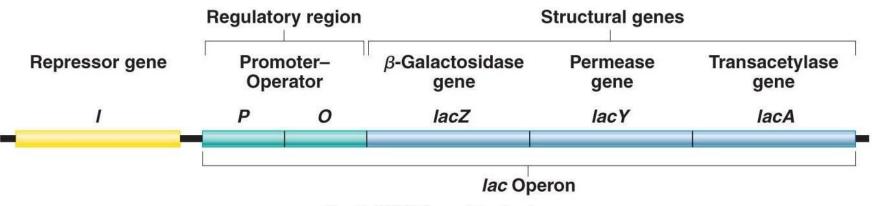
- An operon is a cluster of bacterial genes along with an adjacent promoter that controls the transcription of those genes
- Eg: lactose operon [lac operon] for regulation of lactose metabolism
- *Galactose operon [gal operon]* for regulation of galactose metabolism

Lac operon

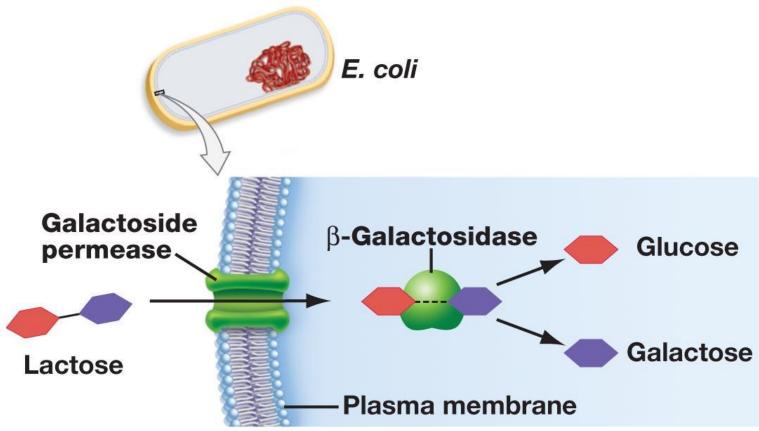
- Jacob and Monod in 1961 [Nobel prize in 1965] described lac operon in e.coli
- A unit of gene expression to make the enzymes necessary to metabolize lactose
- *Glucose is the preferred and most frequently available energy source* for *E. coli. The enzymes to metabolize glucose are made constantly*

- Whenever glucose is present, E.coli metabolizes it before using any alternative energy sources such as lactose, arabinose, galactose, and maltose
- When both glucose and lactose are available, the genes for lactose metabolism are transcribed at very low levels.
- Only when the supply of glucose has been exhausted, RNA polymerase start to transcribe the lac genes efficiently, which allows E.coli to metabolize lactose

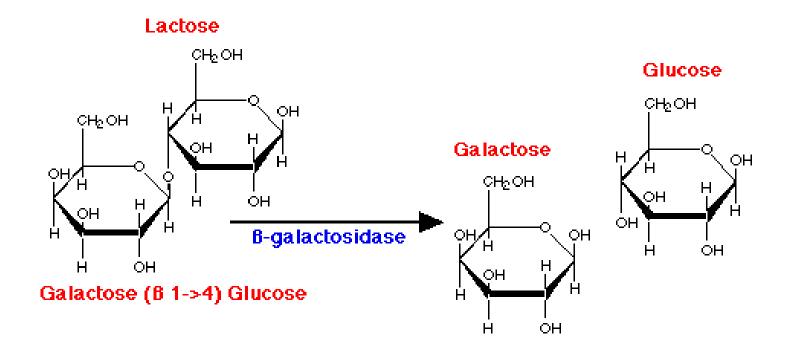
- Lac operon contain the following elements
 - *Repressor/inhibitor gene [lac i] produces repressor protein*
 - *Promoter site* [*P*] *containing cap binding site and RNAP binding site*
 - Operator site [O] repressor protein binds and blocks initiation
 - Structural genes [lac Z, lac Y, lac A] code for βgalactosidase, galactoside permease and thiogalactoside transacetylase respectively, required for lactose metabolism



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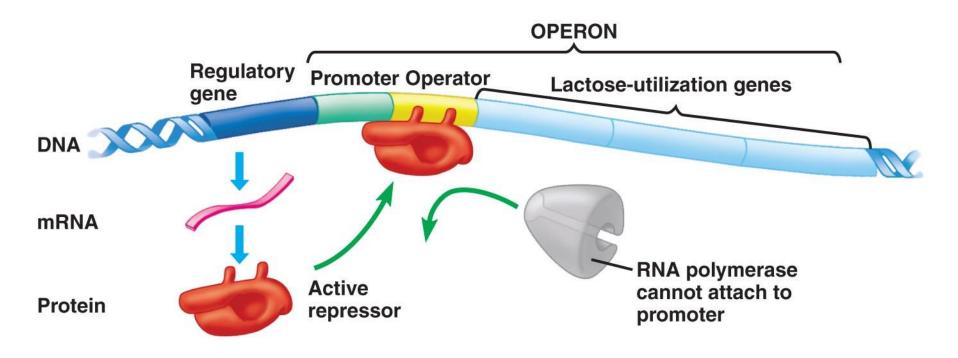


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- Thiogalactoside transacetylase [Galactoside O-acetyl transferase]
- acetyl-CoA + beta-D- $galactoside \rightarrow CoA + 6$ -acetyl-beta-D-galactoside

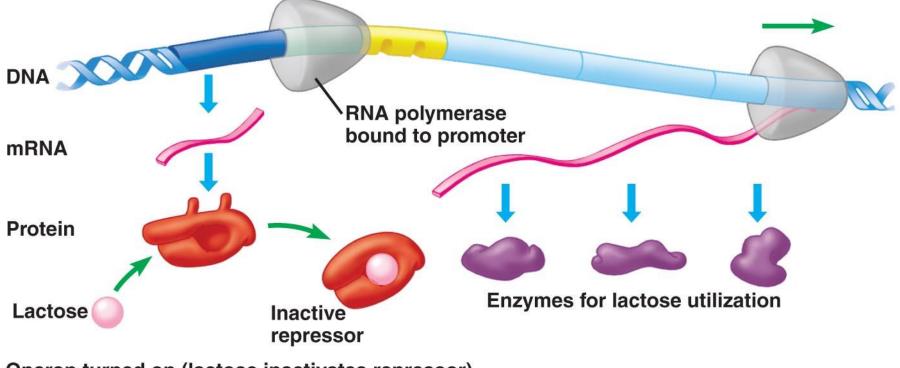
- Repression of lac operon [in the absence of lactose]–
 - Lac I is a constitutive gene [expressed at a constant rate] which produce lac repressor
 - Repressor specifically bind lac O
 - Prevent binding of RNAP to promoter site
 - -Blocking transcription of Z, Y, A
 - Repressor act as negative regulator of gene expression



Operon turned off (lactose absent)

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- De-repression of lac operon [in the presence of lactose]
 - Repressor molecule have high affinity for lactose
 - Bind to and induce conformational change in the repressor
 - Repressor get inactivated and cannot bind to lac O
 - Transcription proceeds expressing 3 enzymes
 - Lactose induces the synthesis of these 3 gens
 - -Act by inactivating the repressor molecule



Operon turned on (lactose inactivates repressor)

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Regulation in eukaryotes

- Expression and regulation are more complex because –
- Each cell contain the entire genome
- Larger and complex genome
- Different cell types
- Genes not organized into operons, instead, spread widely across the genome
- Transcription and translation are uncoupled

Regulated by a variety of mechanisms –

- 1. DNA level regulation
- 2. Transcriptional regulation
- 3. Post transcriptional regulation
- 4. Translational regulation
- 5. Post translational regulation

1. DNA level regulation

- Gene amplification –
- To produce large number of specific proteins, number of a gene is increased several fold
- Commonly observed during developmental stages
- eg: Drosophila [fruit fly] chorion [egg shell] gene amplified to make large quantities of proteins to surround egg during oogenesis
- In other cells only 1 copy of the gene present

- <u>Gene rearrangement –</u>
- Segment of DNA is moved from 1 location to another in a genome
- Produce different proteins
- Eg: in B cells, producing antibodies, heavy chain gene of IgG is generated by rearranging the sequence large precursor into a single exon

- <u>Gene loss –</u>
- If chains are deleted or partially deleted, functional proteins cannot be formed
- Eg: immature erythroblast contain nuclei with genes that code for globin chain of hemoglobin. As cells mature, nuclei extrude and no genome to produce globin

• Chemical modification –

- Cytosine on both DNA strands undergo methylation by methylase to form 5-ethyl cytosine
- Resulting DNA remain inactive during differentiation
- Important in preventing transcription of genes intended to be permanently turned off

2. Transcriptional regulation

- <u>Chromosomal packaging –</u>
- Regulates large area of chromosome containing many gene
- Tight packing causes genes made inaccessible to form inactive heterochromatin
- Eg: one X chromosome is inactivated in females by tight wounding

- Individual gene regulation –
- Transcription factors are necessary to attach and activate a gene
- Function by binding to promoter or enhancer

3. Post transcriptional regulation

- Alternative splicing –
- Some genes produce related, but different proteins by alternative splicing
- Calcitonin gene in thyroid gland produce calcitonin [in calcium regulation]
- In neurons produce calcitonin related peptide [involved in taste sensation]
- Difference in third coding exon position

• <u>Regulation of RNA stability –</u>

- hnRNA which are never processed to mRNA are degraded in nucleus
- Some genes that code for long acting peptides
 [eg: β-globulin] have long half life [>10 hrs]
- Some genes that code for short acting peptides
 [eg: growth factors] have short half life [<1
 hr]
- Longer poly A tail increase half life

4. Translational regulation

- Mostly affect initiation
- *eIF*₂ *is inactivated by phosphorylation by protein kinase*
- Heme inhibits protein kinase and enhance eIF_2 activity

5. Post translational regulation

- Protein activation –
- Some proteins are not active when formed
- Eg: bovine pro insulin [inactive], cleaved into 2 peptides, 30 amino acids removed to form insulin [active]

- Feed back control –
- Product of a pathway inhibit the same pathway
- Protein degradation/turnover -
- Proteins are constantly degraded to prevent formation of unwanted or abnormal proteins
- Ubiquitin is a tag that labels proteins for degradation
- It directs proteins to compartments in the cell which destroys and recycles proteins.
- This discovery won the Nobel Prize for chemistry in 2004

THANK YOU