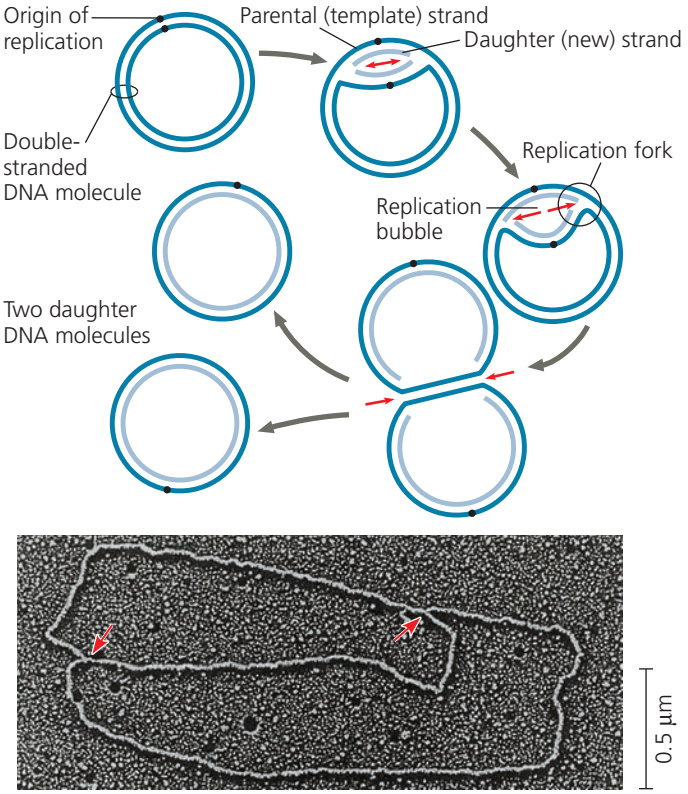
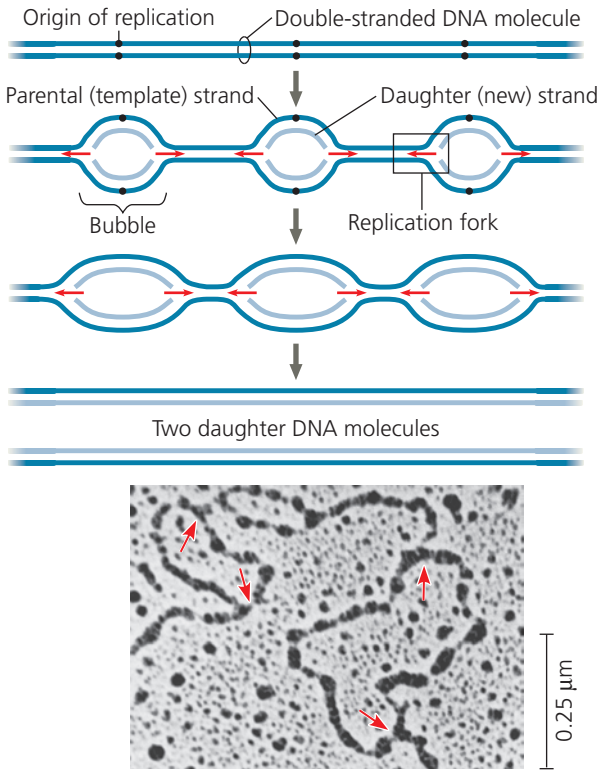
Figure 16.12 Origins of replication in *E. coli* and eukaryotes. The red arrows indicate the movement of the replication forks and thus the overall directions of DNA replication within each bubble.

(a) Origin of replication in an *E. coli* cell



The circular chromosome of *E. coli* and other bacteria has only one origin of replication. The parental strands separate there, forming a replication bubble with two forks (red arrows). Replication proceeds in both directions until the forks meet on the other side, resulting in two daughter DNA molecules. The TEM shows a bacterial chromosome with a replication bubble.

(b) Origins of replication in a eukaryotic cell



In a linear chromosome of a eukaryote, replication bubbles form at many sites along the giant DNA molecule during S phase of interphase. The bubbles expand as replication proceeds in both directions (red arrows). Eventually, the bubbles fuse and synthesis of the daughter strands is complete. The TEM shows three replication bubbles along the DNA of a cultured Chinese hamster cell.

DRAW IT ➤ *In the TEM, add arrows in the forks of the third bubble.*

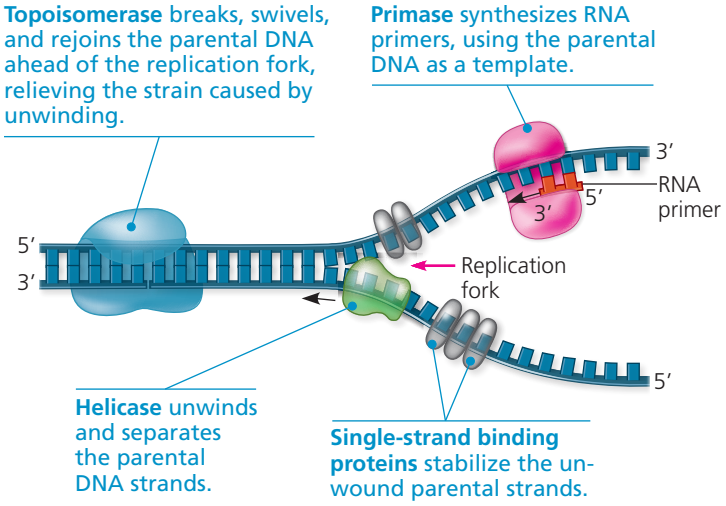
BioFlix® Animation: The Replication Fork in *E. coli*

At each end of a replication bubble is a **replication fork**, a Y-shaped region where the parental strands of DNA are being unwound. Several kinds of proteins participate in the unwinding **(Figure 16.13)**. **Helicases** are enzymes that untwist the double helix at the replication forks, separating the two parental strands and making them available as template strands. After the parental strands separate, **single-strand binding proteins** bind to the unpaired DNA strands, keeping them from re-pairing. The untwisting of the double helix causes tighter twisting and strain ahead of the replication fork. **Topoisomerase** is an enzyme that helps relieve this strain by breaking, swiveling, and rejoining DNA strands.

Synthesizing a New DNA Strand

The unwound sections of parental DNA strands are now available to serve as templates for the synthesis of new complementary DNA strands. However, the enzymes that synthesize

Figure 16.13 Some of the proteins involved in the initiation of DNA replication. The same proteins function at both replication forks in a replication bubble. For simplicity, only the left-hand fork is shown, and the DNA bases are drawn much larger in relation to the proteins than they are in reality.



DNA cannot *initiate* the synthesis of a polynucleotide; they can only add DNA nucleotides to the end of an already existing chain that is base-paired with the template strand. The initial nucleotide chain that is produced during DNA synthesis is actually a short stretch of RNA, not DNA. This RNA chain is called a **primer** and is synthesized by the enzyme **primase** (see Figure 16.13). Primase starts a complementary RNA chain with a single RNA nucleotide and adds RNA nucleotides one at a time, using the parental DNA strand as a template. The completed primer, generally 5–10 nucleotides long, is thus base-paired to the template strand. The new DNA strand will start from the 3′ end of the RNA primer.

Enzymes called **DNA polymerases** catalyze the synthesis of new DNA by adding nucleotides to the 3′ end of a preexisting chain. In *E. coli*, there are several DNA polymerases, but two appear to play the major roles in DNA replication: DNA polymerase III and DNA polymerase I. The situation in eukaryotes is more complicated, with at least 11 different DNA polymerases discovered so far, although the general principles are the same.

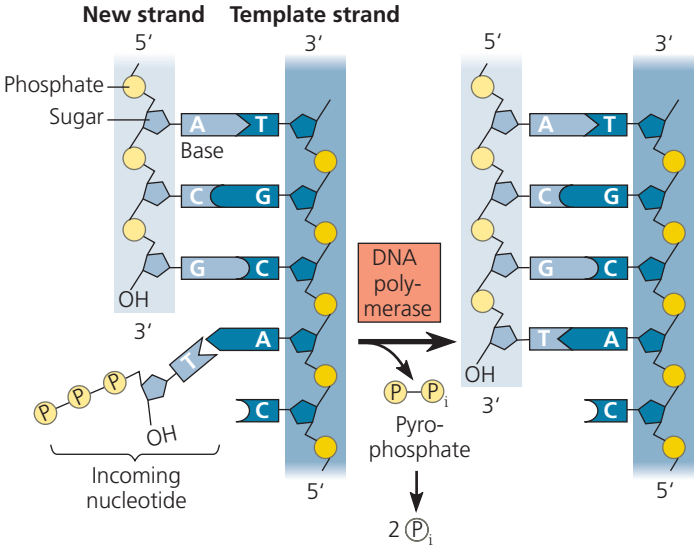
Most DNA polymerases require a primer and a DNA template strand, along which complementary DNA nucleotides are lined up. In *E. coli*, DNA polymerase III (abbreviated DNA pol III) adds a DNA nucleotide to the RNA primer and then continues adding DNA nucleotides, complementary to the parental DNA template strand, to the growing end of the new DNA strand. The rate of elongation is about 500 nucleotides per second in bacteria and 50 per second in human cells.

Each nucleotide to be added to a growing DNA strand consists of a sugar attached to a base and to three phosphate groups. You have already encountered such a molecule—ATP (adenosine triphosphate; see Figure 8.9). The only difference between the ATP of energy metabolism and dATP, the adenine nucleotide used to make DNA, is the sugar component, which is deoxyribose in the building block of DNA but ribose in ATP. Like ATP, the nucleotides used for DNA synthesis are chemically reactive, partly because their triphosphate tails have an unstable cluster of negative charge. DNA polymerase catalyzes the addition of each monomer via a dehydration reaction (see Figure 5.2a). As each monomer is joined to the growing end of a DNA strand, two phosphate groups are lost as a molecule of pyrophosphate (Ⓟ—Ⓟ$_i$). Subsequent hydrolysis of the pyrophosphate to two molecules of inorganic phosphate (Ⓟ$_i$) is a coupled exergonic reaction that helps drive the polymerization reaction **(Figure 16.14)**.

Antiparallel Elongation

As we have noted previously, the two ends of a DNA strand are different, giving each strand directionality, like a one-way street (see Figure 16.5). In addition, the two strands of DNA in a double helix are antiparallel, meaning that they are oriented in opposite directions to each other, like the two sides of a divided street (see Figure 16.14). Therefore, the two new strands formed during DNA replication must also be antiparallel to their template strands.

Figure 16.14 Addition of a nucleotide to a DNA strand.
DNA polymerase catalyzes the addition of a nucleotide to the 3′ end of a growing DNA strand, with the release of two phosphates.



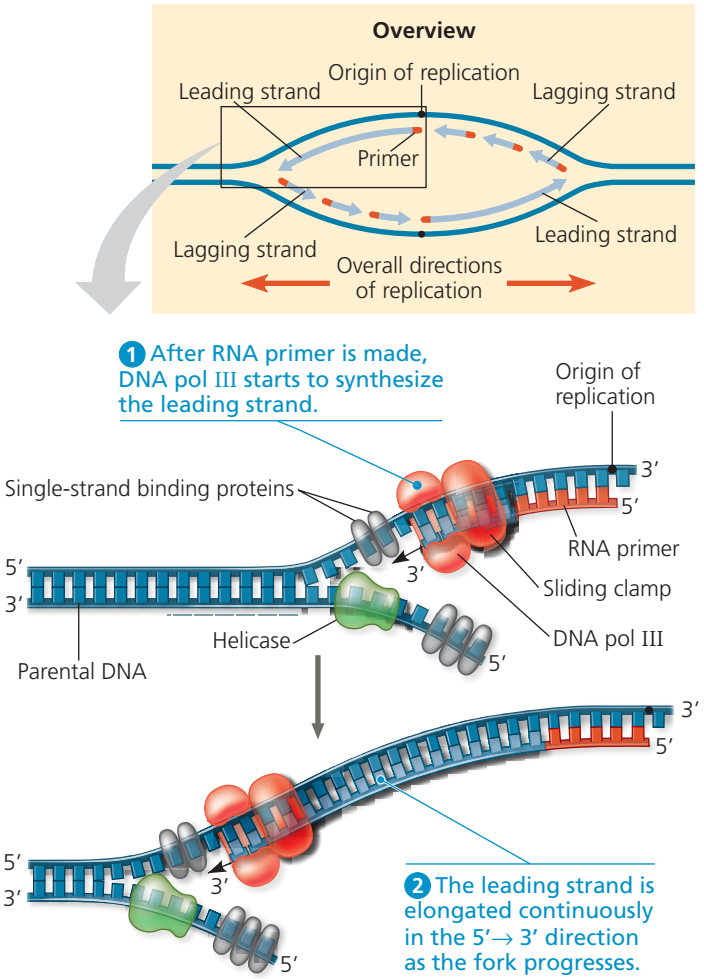
VISUAL SKILLS ➤ *Use this diagram to explain what we mean when we say that each DNA strand has directionality.*

MB **Figure Walkthrough**

The antiparallel arrangement of the double helix, together with a property of DNA polymerases, has an important effect on how replication occurs. Because of their structure, DNA polymerases can add nucleotides only to the free 3′ end of a primer or growing DNA strand, never to the 5′ end (see Figure 16.14). Thus, a new DNA strand can elongate only in the 5′ → 3′ direction. With this in mind, let's examine one of the two replication forks in a bubble **(Figure 16.15)**. Along one template strand, DNA polymerase III can synthesize a complementary strand continuously by elongating the new DNA in the mandatory 5′ → 3′ direction. DNA pol III remains in the replication fork on that template strand and continuously adds nucleotides to the new complementary strand as the fork progresses. The DNA strand made by this mechanism is called the **leading strand**. Only one primer is required for DNA pol III to synthesize the entire leading strand (see Figure 16.15).

To elongate the other new strand of DNA in the mandatory 5′ → 3′ direction, DNA pol III must work along the other template strand in the direction *away from* the replication fork. The DNA strand elongating in this direction is called the **lagging strand**. In contrast to the leading strand, which elongates continuously, the lagging strand is synthesized discontinuously, as a series of segments. These segments of the lagging strand are called **Okazaki fragments**, after Reiji Okazaki, the Japanese scientist who discovered them. The fragments are about 1,000–2,000 nucleotides long in *E. coli* and 100–200 nucleotides long in eukaryotes.

Figure 16.15 Synthesis of the leading strand during DNA replication. This diagram focuses on the left replication fork shown in the overview box. DNA polymerase III (DNA pol III), shaped like a cupped hand, is shown closely associated with a protein called the "sliding clamp" that encircles the newly synthesized double helix like a doughnut. The sliding clamp moves DNA pol III along the DNA template strand.

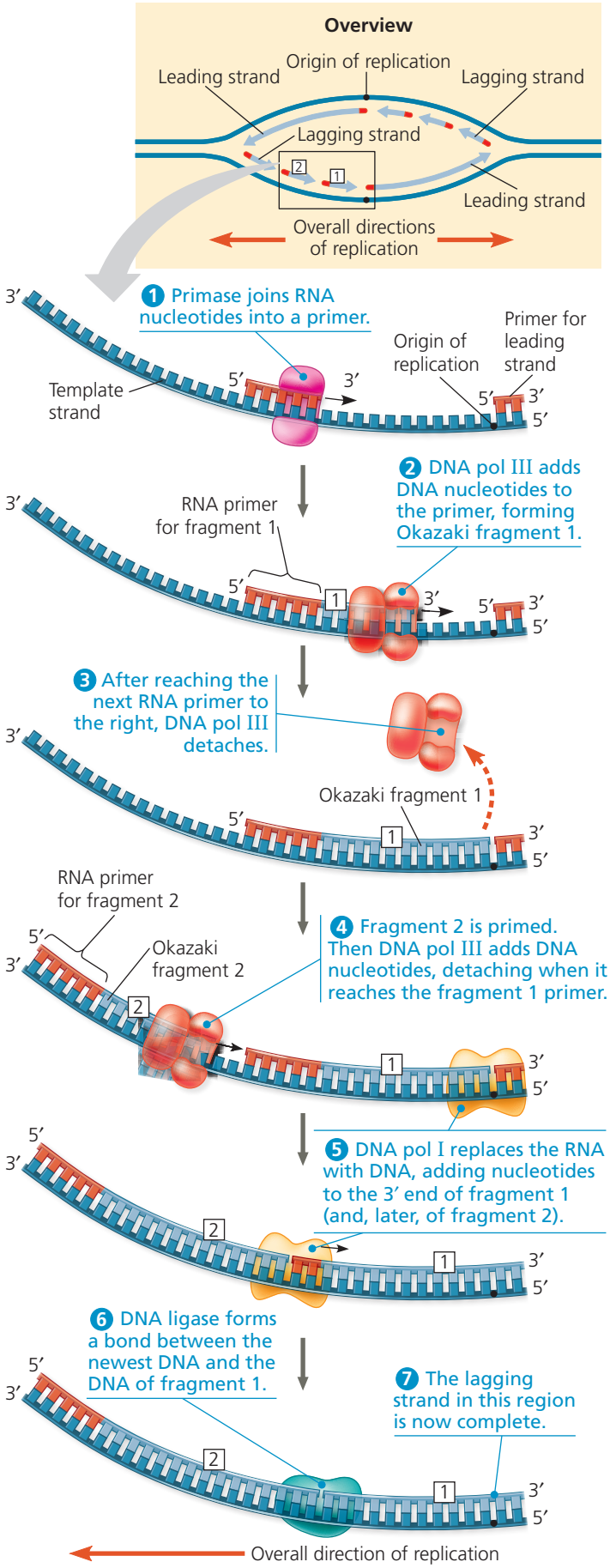


BioFlix® Animation: Synthesis of the Leading Strand

Figure 16.16 illustrates the steps in the synthesis of the lagging strand at one fork. Whereas only one primer is required on the leading strand, each Okazaki fragment on the lagging strand must be primed separately (steps 1 and 4). After DNA pol III forms an Okazaki fragment (steps 2 to 4), another DNA polymerase, DNA pol I, replaces the RNA nucleotides of the adjacent primer with DNA nucleotides one at a time (step 5). But DNA pol I cannot join the final nucleotide of this replacement DNA segment to the first DNA nucleotide of the adjacent Okazaki fragment. Another enzyme, **DNA ligase**, accomplishes this task, joining the sugar-phosphate backbones of all the Okazaki fragments into a continuous DNA strand (step 6).

BioFlix® Animation: Synthesis of the Lagging Strand

Figure 16.16 Synthesis of the lagging strand.



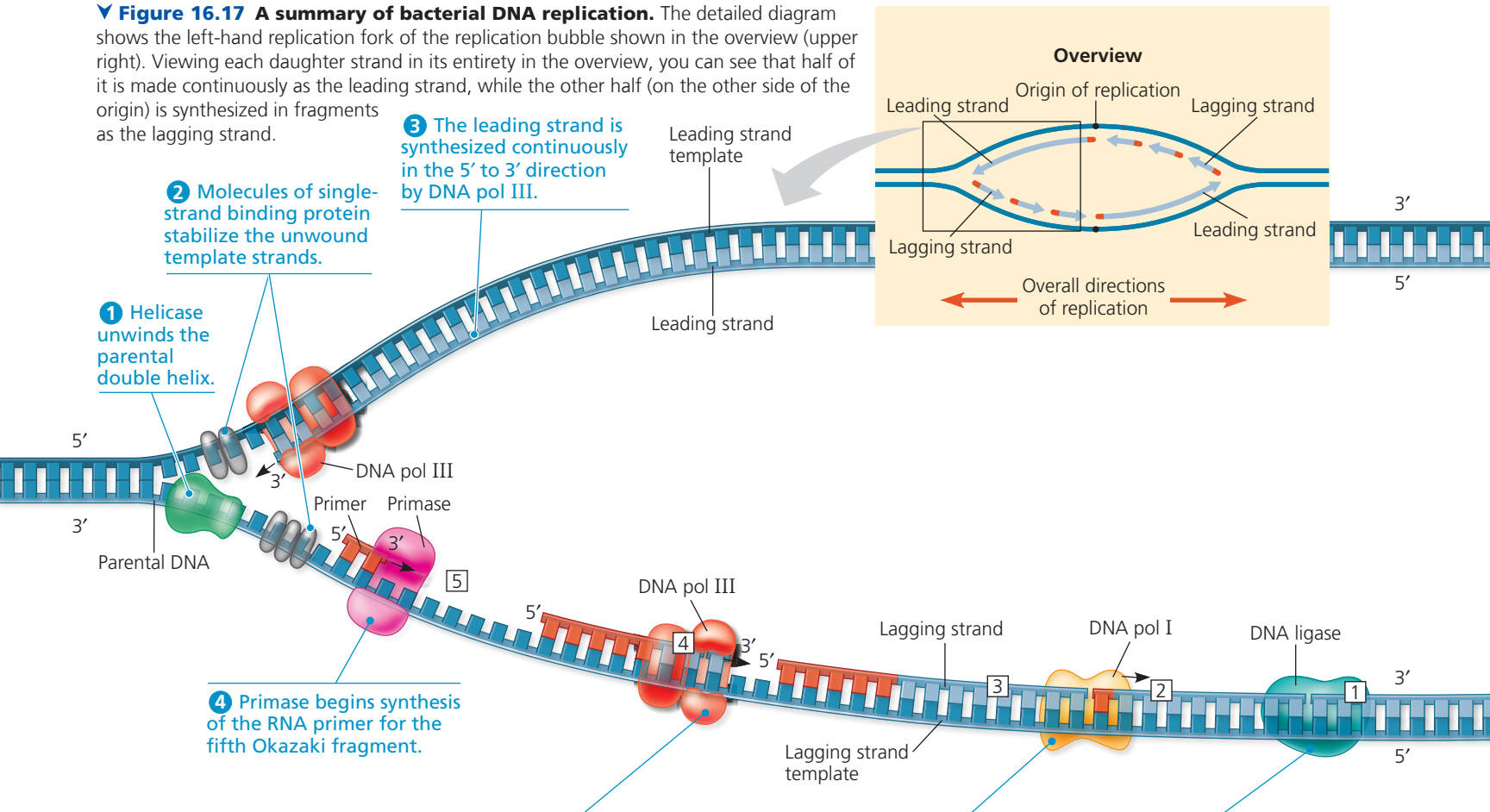
Synthesis of the leading strand and synthesis of the lagging strand occur concurrently and at the same rate. The lagging strand is so named because its synthesis is delayed slightly relative to synthesis of the leading strand; each new fragment of the lagging strand cannot be started until enough template has been exposed at the replication fork.

Figure 16.17 and **Table 16.1** summarize DNA replication. Please study them carefully before proceeding.

The DNA Replication Complex

It is traditional—and convenient—to represent DNA polymerase molecules as locomotives moving along a DNA railroad track, but such a model is inaccurate in two important ways. First, the various proteins that participate in DNA replication actually form a single large complex, a "DNA replication machine." Many protein-protein interactions facilitate the efficiency of this complex. For example, by interacting with other proteins at the fork, primase apparently acts as a molecular brake, slowing progress of the replication fork and coordinating the placement of primers and the rates of replication on the leading and lagging strands. Second, the DNA replication complex may not move along the DNA; rather, the DNA may move through the complex during the replication process. In eukaryotic cells, multiple copies of the complex, perhaps grouped into "factories," may be anchored to the nuclear matrix, a framework of fibers extending through the interior of the nucleus. Experimental evidence in some type of cells supports a model in which two DNA polymerase molecules, one on each template strand, "reel in" the parental DNA and extrude newly made daughter DNA molecules. In this so-called trombone model, the lagging strand is also looped back through the complex **(Figure 16.18)**. Whether the complex moves along the DNA or whether the DNA moves through the complex, either anchored or not, are still open, unresolved questions that are under active investigation. It is also possible that the process varies among species.

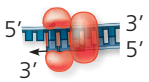
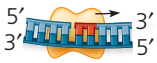
Figure 16.17 A summary of bacterial DNA replication. The detailed diagram shows the left-hand replication fork of the replication bubble shown in the overview (upper right). Viewing each daughter strand in its entirety in the overview, you can see that half of it is made continuously as the leading strand, while the other half (on the other side of the origin) is synthesized in fragments as the lagging strand.



DRAW IT ➤ *Draw a diagram showing the right-hand fork of the bubble in this figure. Number the Okazaki fragments, and label all 5′ and 3′ ends.*

MB **Animation: DNA Replication: A Closer Look**

Table 16.1 Bacterial DNA Replication Proteins and Their Functions

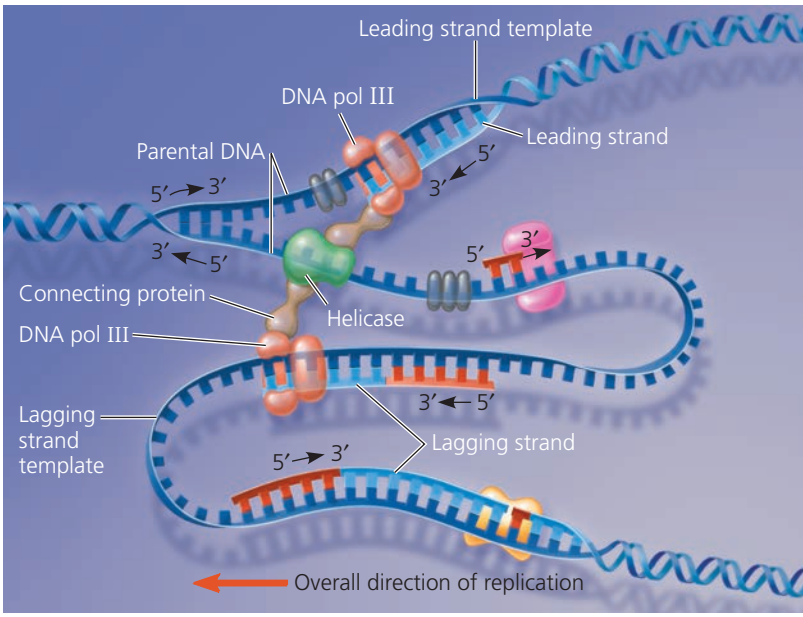
Protein	Function
Helicase 	Unwinds parental double helix at replication forks
Single-strand binding protein 	Binds to and stabilizes single-stranded DNA until it is used as a template
Topoisomerase 	Relieves overwinding strain ahead of replication forks by breaking, swiveling, and rejoining DNA strands
Primase 	Synthesizes an RNA primer at 5′ end of leading strand and at 5′ end of each Okazaki fragment of lagging strand
DNA pol III 	Using parental DNA as a template, synthesizes new DNA strand by adding nucleotides to an RNA primer or a pre-existing DNA strand
DNA pol I 	Removes RNA nucleotides of primer from 5′ end and replaces them with DNA nucleotides added to 3′ end of adjacent fragment
DNA ligase 	Joins Okazaki fragments of lagging strand; on leading strand, joins 3′ end of DNA that replaces primer to rest of leading strand DNA

Proofreading and Repairing DNA

We cannot attribute the accuracy of DNA replication solely to the specificity of base pairing. Initial pairing errors between incoming nucleotides and those in the template strand occur at a rate of one in 10^5 nucleotides. However, errors in the completed DNA molecule amount to only one in 10^{10} (10 billion) nucleotides, an error rate that is 100,000 times lower. This is because during DNA replication, many DNA polymerases proofread each nucleotide against its template as soon as it is covalently bonded to the growing strand. Upon finding an incorrectly paired nucleotide, the polymerase removes the nucleotide and then resumes synthesis. (This action is similar to fixing a texting error by deleting the wrong letter and then entering the correct one.)

Mismatched nucleotides sometimes evade proofreading by a DNA polymerase. In **mismatch repair**, other enzymes remove and replace incorrectly paired nucleotides that have resulted from replication errors. Researchers highlighted the importance of such repair enzymes when they found that a hereditary defect in one of them is associated with a form of colon cancer. Apparently, this defect allows cancer-causing errors to accumulate in the DNA faster than normal.

Figure 16.18 The "trombone" model of the DNA replication complex. In this proposed model, two molecules of DNA polymerase III work together in a complex, one on each strand, with helicase and other proteins. The lagging strand template DNA loops through the complex, resembling the slide of a trombone.



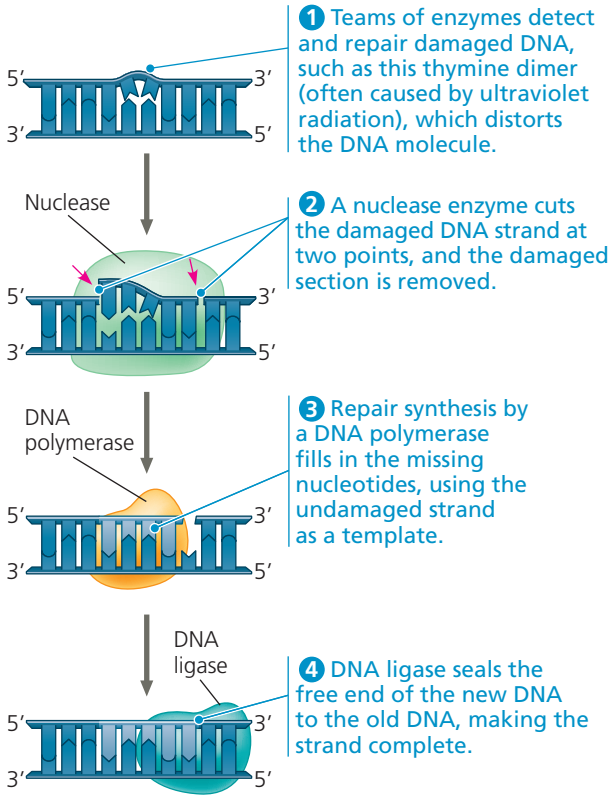
DRAW IT *Draw a line tracing the lagging strand template along the entire stretch of DNA shown here.*

BioFlix® Animation: The DNA Replication Complex

Incorrectly paired or altered nucleotides can also arise after replication. In fact, maintenance of the genetic information encoded in DNA requires frequent repair of various kinds of damage to existing DNA. DNA molecules are constantly subjected to potentially harmful chemical and physical agents, such as X-rays, as we'll discuss in Concept 17.5. In addition, DNA bases may undergo spontaneous chemical changes under normal cellular conditions. However, these changes in DNA are usually corrected before they become permanent changes—*mutations*—perpetuated through successive replications. Each cell continuously monitors and repairs its genetic material. Because repair of damaged DNA is so important to the survival of an organism, it is no surprise that many different DNA repair enzymes have evolved. Almost 100 are known in *E. coli*, and about 170 have been identified so far in humans.

Most cellular systems for repairing incorrectly paired nucleotides, whether they are due to DNA damage or to replication errors, use a mechanism that takes advantage of the base-paired structure of DNA. In many cases, a segment of the strand containing the damage is cut out (excised) by a DNA-cutting enzyme—a **nuclease**—and the resulting gap is then filled in with nucleotides, using the undamaged strand as a template. The enzymes involved in filling the gap are a DNA polymerase and DNA ligase. One such DNA repair system is called **nucleotide excision repair** (Figure 16.19).

Figure 16.19 Nucleotide excision repair of DNA damage.



An important function of the DNA repair enzymes in our skin cells is to repair genetic damage caused by the ultraviolet rays of sunlight. One type of damage, shown in Figure 16.19, is the covalent linking of thymine bases that are adjacent on a DNA strand. Such *thymine dimers* cause the DNA to buckle and interfere with DNA replication. The importance of repairing this kind of damage is underscored by a disorder called xeroderma pigmentosum (XP), which in most cases is caused by an inherited defect in a nucleotide excision repair enzyme. Individuals with XP are hypersensitive to sunlight; mutations in their skin cells caused by ultraviolet light are left uncorrected, often resulting in skin cancer. The effects are extreme: Without sun protection, children who have XP can develop skin cancer by age 10.

Evolutionary Significance of Altered DNA Nucleotides

EVOLUTION Faithful replication of the genome and repair of DNA damage are important for the functioning of the organism and for passing on a complete, accurate genome to the next generation. The error rate after proofreading and repair is extremely low, but rare mistakes do slip through. Once a mismatched nucleotide pair is replicated, the sequence change is permanent in the daughter molecule that has the incorrect nucleotide as well as in any subsequent copies. As we mentioned earlier, a permanent change in the DNA sequence is called a mutation.

Mutations can change the phenotype of an organism (as you'll learn in Concept 17.5). And if they occur in germ cells, which give rise to gametes, mutations can be passed on from generation to generation. The vast majority of such changes either have no effect or are harmful, but a very small percentage can be beneficial. In either case, mutations are the original source of the variation on which natural selection operates during evolution and are ultimately responsible for the appearance of new species. (You'll learn more about this process in Unit Four.) The balance between complete fidelity of DNA replication or repair and a low mutation rate has resulted in new proteins that contribute to different phenotypes. Ultimately, over long periods of time, this process leads to new species and thus to the rich diversity of life we see on Earth today.

Replicating the Ends of DNA Molecules

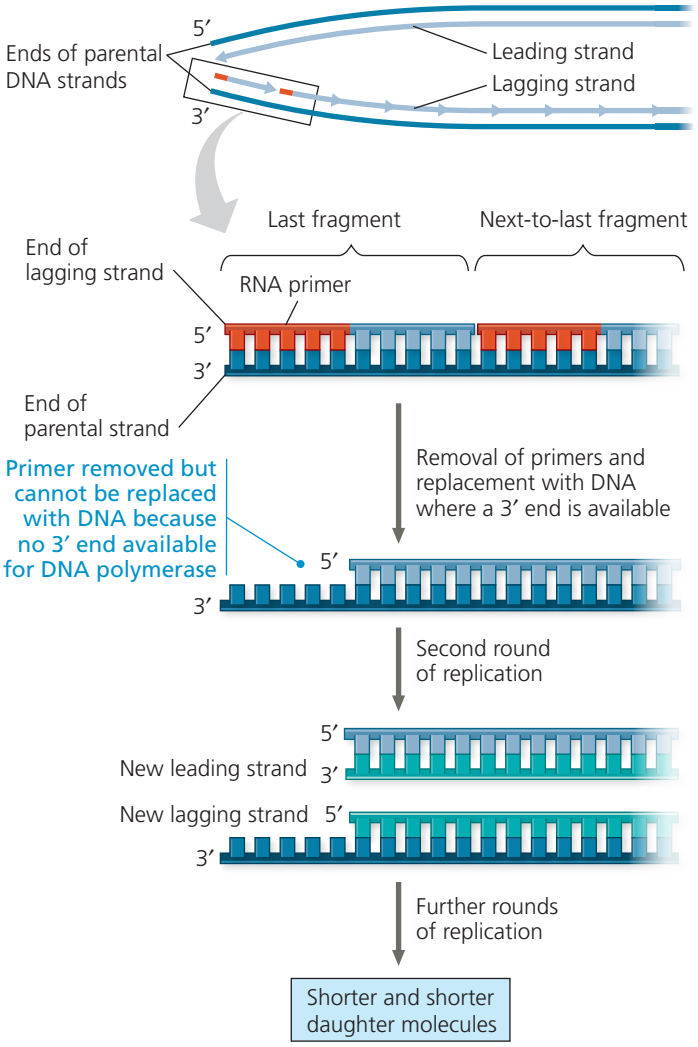
For linear DNA, such as the DNA of eukaryotic chromosomes, the usual replication machinery cannot complete the 5′ ends of daughter DNA strands. (This is another consequence of the fact that a DNA polymerase can add nucleotides only to the 3′ end of a preexisting polynucleotide.) Even if an Okazaki fragment can be started with an RNA primer hydrogen-bonded to the very end of the template strand, once that primer is removed, it cannot be replaced with DNA because there is no 3′ end available for nucleotide addition **(Figure 16.20)**. As a result, repeated rounds of replication produce shorter and shorter DNA molecules with uneven ("staggered") ends.

Most prokaryotes have a circular chromosome, with no ends, so the shortening of DNA does not occur. But what protects the genes of linear eukaryotic chromosomes from being eroded away during successive rounds of DNA replication? Eukaryotic chromosomal DNA molecules have special nucleotide sequences called **telomeres** at their ends **(Figure 16.21)**. Telomeres do not contain genes; instead, the DNA typically consists of multiple repetitions of one short nucleotide sequence. In each human telomere, for example, the six-nucleotide sequence TTAGGG is repeated between 100 and 1,000 times.

Telomeres have two protective functions. First, specific proteins associated with telomeric DNA prevent the staggered ends of the daughter molecule from activating the cell's systems for monitoring DNA damage. (Staggered ends of a DNA molecule, which often result from double-strand breaks, can trigger signal transduction pathways leading to cell cycle arrest or cell death.) Second, telomeric DNA acts as a kind of buffer zone that provides some protection against the organism's genes shortening, somewhat like how the plastic-wrapped ends of a shoelace slow down its unraveling. Telomeres do not prevent the erosion of genes near the ends of chromosomes; they merely postpone it.

As shown in Figure 16.20, telomeres become shorter during every round of replication. Thus, as expected, telomeric DNA tends to be shorter in dividing somatic cells of older individuals and in cultured cells that have divided many

Figure 16.20 Shortening of the ends of linear DNA molecules. Here we follow the left end of one DNA molecule through two rounds of replication. After the first round, the new lagging strand is shorter than its template. After a second round, both the leading and lagging strands have become shorter than the original parental DNA. Although not shown here, the other ends of these chromosomal DNA molecules (not shown) also become shorter.

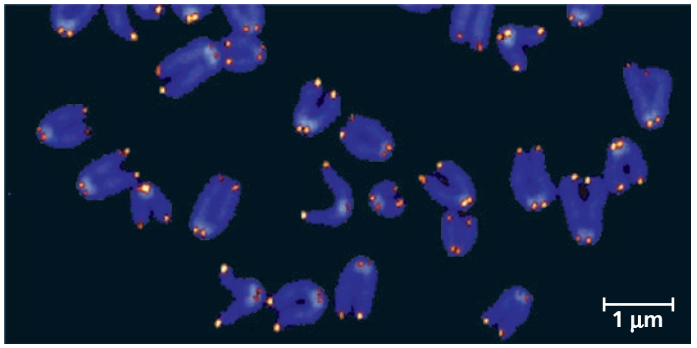


times. It has been proposed that shortening of telomeres is somehow connected to the aging process of certain tissues and even to aging of the organism as a whole.

ABC News Video: The Effect of Exercise on Cells

But what about cells whose genome must persist virtually unchanged from an organism to its offspring over many generations? If the chromosomes of germ cells became shorter in every cell cycle, essential genes would eventually be missing from the gametes they produce. However, this does not occur: An enzyme called *telomerase* catalyzes the lengthening of telomeres in eukaryotic germ cells, thus restoring their original length and compensating for the shortening that occurs during DNA replication. This enzyme contains its own RNA molecule that it uses as a template to artificially

Figure 16.21 Telomeres. Eukaryotes have repetitive, noncoding sequences called telomeres at the ends of their DNA. Telomeres are stained orange in these mouse chromosomes (LM).



"extend" the leading strand, allowing the lagging strand to maintain a given length. Telomerase is not active in most human somatic cells, but its activity varies from tissue to tissue. The activity of telomerase in germ cells results in telomeres of maximum length in the zygote.

BBC Video: Can Humans Live Forever?

Normal shortening of telomeres may protect organisms from cancer by limiting the number of divisions that somatic cells can undergo. Cells from large tumors often have unusually short telomeres, as we would expect for cells that have undergone many cell divisions. Further shortening would presumably lead to self-destruction of the tumor cells. Telomerase activity is abnormally high in cancerous somatic cells, suggesting that its ability to stabilize telomere length may allow these cancer cells to persist. Many cancer cells do seem capable of unlimited cell division, as do immortal strains of cultured cells (see Concept 12.3). For several years, researchers have studied inhibition of telomerase as a possible cancer therapy. While studies that inhibited telomerase in mice with tumors have led to the death of cancer cells, eventually the cells have restored the length of their telomeres by an alternative pathway. This is an area of ongoing research that may eventually yield useful cancer treatments.

CONCEPT CHECK 16.2

1. What role does complementary base pairing play in the replication of DNA?
2. Identify two major functions of DNA pol III in DNA replication.
3. **MAKE CONNECTIONS ➤** What is the relationship between DNA replication and the S phase of the cell cycle? See Figure 12.6.
4. **VISUAL SKILLS ➤** If the DNA pol I in a given cell were nonfunctional, how would that affect the synthesis of a *leading* strand? In the overview box in Figure 16.17, point out where DNA pol I would normally function on the top leading strand.

For suggested answers, see Appendix A.

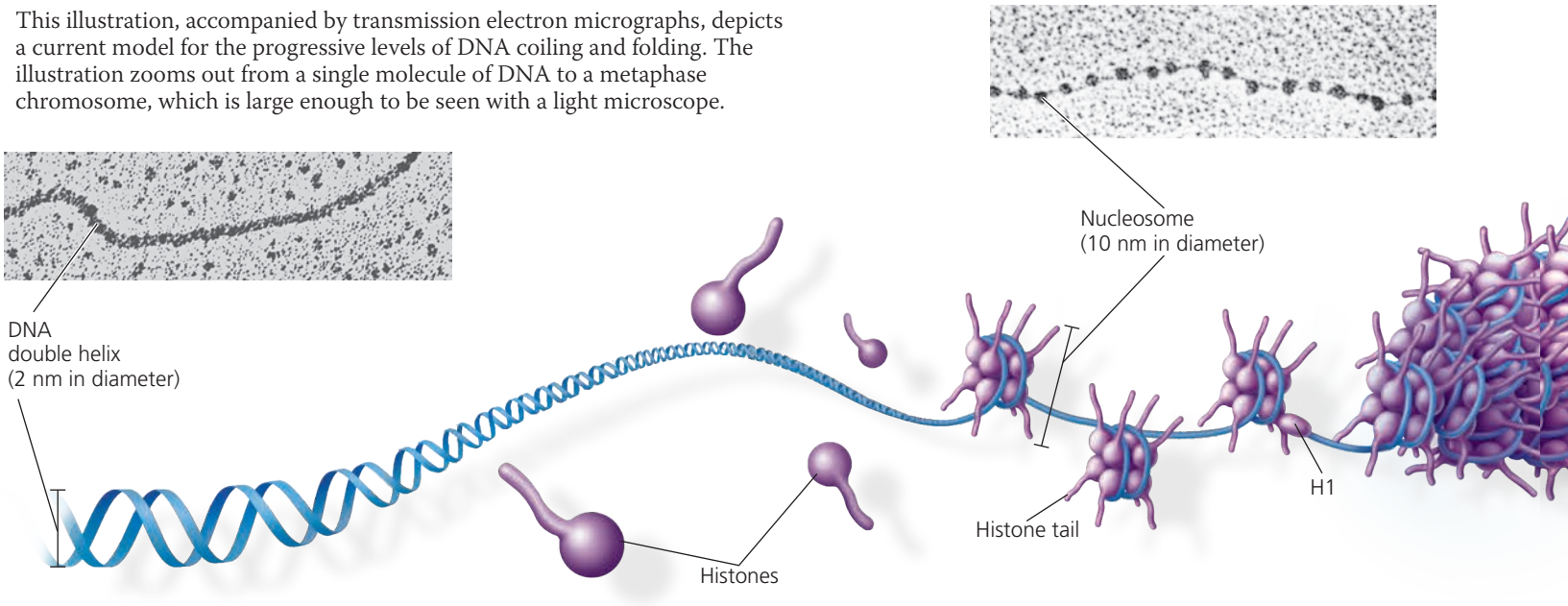
CONCEPT 16.3

A chromosome consists of a DNA molecule packed together with proteins

Now that you have learned about the structure and replication of DNA, let's take a step back and examine how DNA is packaged into chromosomes, the structures that carry genetic information. The main component of the genome in most bacteria is one double-stranded, circular DNA molecule that is associated with a small amount of protein. Although we refer to this structure as the bacterial chromosome, it is very different from a eukaryotic chromosome, which consists of one linear DNA molecule associated with a large amount of protein. In *E. coli*, the chromosomal DNA consists of about 4.6 million nucleotide pairs, representing about 4,400 genes. This is 100 times more DNA than is found in a typical virus, but only about one-thousandth as much DNA as in a human somatic cell. Still, that is a tremendous amount of DNA to be packaged in such a small container.

Figure 16.22 Exploring Chromatin Packing in a Eukaryotic Chromosome

This illustration, accompanied by transmission electron micrographs, depicts a current model for the progressive levels of DNA coiling and folding. The illustration zooms out from a single molecule of DNA to a metaphase chromosome, which is large enough to be seen with a light microscope.



DNA, the double helix

Shown above is a ribbon model of DNA, with each ribbon representing one of the polynucleotide strands. Recall that each phosphate group along the backbone contributes a negative charge along the outside of each strand. The TEM shows a molecule of naked (protein-free) DNA; the double helix alone is 2 nm across.

Animation: DNA Packing

Histones

Proteins called **histones** are responsible for the first level of DNA packing in chromatin. Although each histone is small—containing only about 100 amino acids—the total mass of histone in chromatin roughly equals the mass of DNA. More than a fifth of a histone's amino acids are positively charged (lysine or arginine) and therefore bind tightly to the negatively charged DNA.

Four types of histones are most common in chromatin. The histones are very similar among eukaryotes; for example, histones of the same type in cows and pea plants differ by only two amino acids. The apparent conservation of histone genes during evolution probably reflects the important role of histones in organizing DNA within cells.

These four types of histones are critical to the next level of DNA packing. (A fifth type of histone is involved in a further stage of packing.)

Nucleosomes, or "beads on a string" (10-nm fiber)

In electron micrographs, unfolded chromatin is 10 nm in diameter (the *10-nm fiber*). Such chromatin resembles beads on a string (see the TEM). Each "bead" is a **nucleosome**, the basic unit of DNA packing; the "string" between beads is called *linker* DNA.

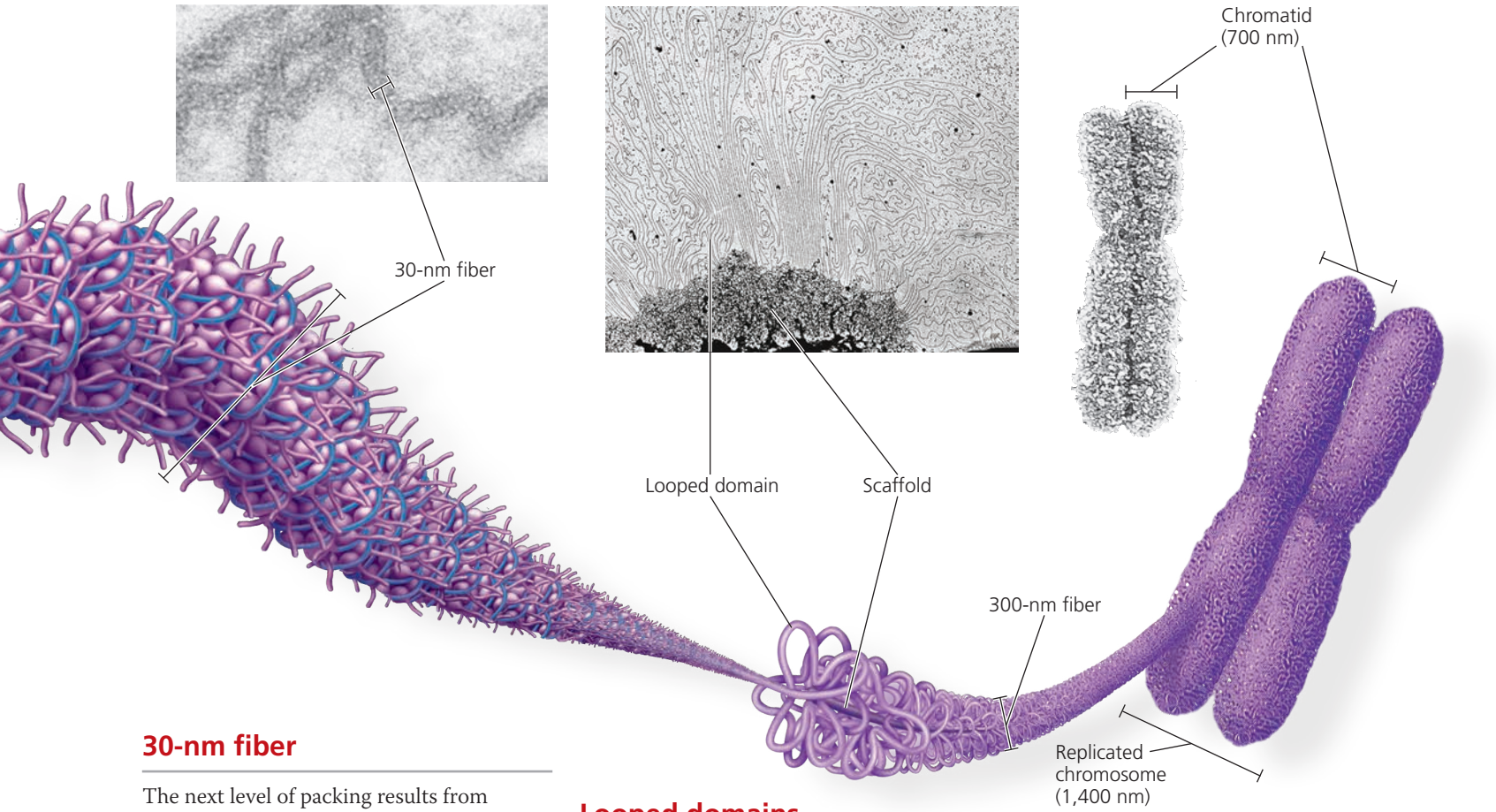
A nucleosome consists of DNA wound twice around a protein core of eight histones, two each of the main histone types. The amino end (N-terminus) of each histone (the *histone tail*) extends outward from the nucleosome.

In the cell cycle, the histones leave the DNA only briefly during DNA replication. Generally, they do the same during the process of transcription, which also requires access to the DNA by the cell's molecular machinery. Nucleosomes, and in particular their histone tails, are involved in the regulation of gene expression.

Stretched out, the DNA of an *E. coli* cell would measure about a millimeter in length, which is 500 times longer than the cell. Within a bacterium, however, certain proteins cause the chromosome to coil and "supercoil," densely packing it so that it fills only part of the cell. Unlike the nucleus of a eukaryotic cell, this dense region of DNA in a bacterium, called the nucleoid, is not bounded by membrane (see Figure 6.5).

Each eukaryotic chromosome contains a single linear DNA double helix that, in humans, averages about 1.5×10^8 nucleotide pairs. This is an enormous amount of DNA relative to a chromosome's condensed length. If completely stretched out, such a DNA molecule would be about 4 cm long, thousands of times the diameter of a cell nucleus—and that's not even considering the DNA of the other 45 human chromosomes!

In the cell, eukaryotic DNA is precisely combined with a large amount of protein. Together, this complex of DNA and protein, called **chromatin**, fits into the nucleus through an elaborate, multilevel system of packing. Our current view of the successive levels of DNA packing in a chromosome is outlined in **Figure 16.22**. Study this figure carefully before reading further.



30-nm fiber

The next level of packing results from interactions between the histone tails of one nucleosome and the linker DNA and nucleosomes on either side. The fifth type of histone is involved at this level. These interactions cause the extended 10-nm fiber to coil or fold, forming a chromatin fiber roughly 30 nm in thickness, the *30-nm fiber*. Although the 30-nm fiber is quite prevalent in the interphase nucleus, the packing arrangement of nucleosomes in this form of chromatin is still a matter of some debate.

Looped domains (300-nm fiber)

The 30-nm fiber, in turn, forms loops called *looped* domains attached to a chromosome scaffold composed of proteins, thus making up a *300-nm fiber*. The scaffold is rich in one type of topoisomerase.

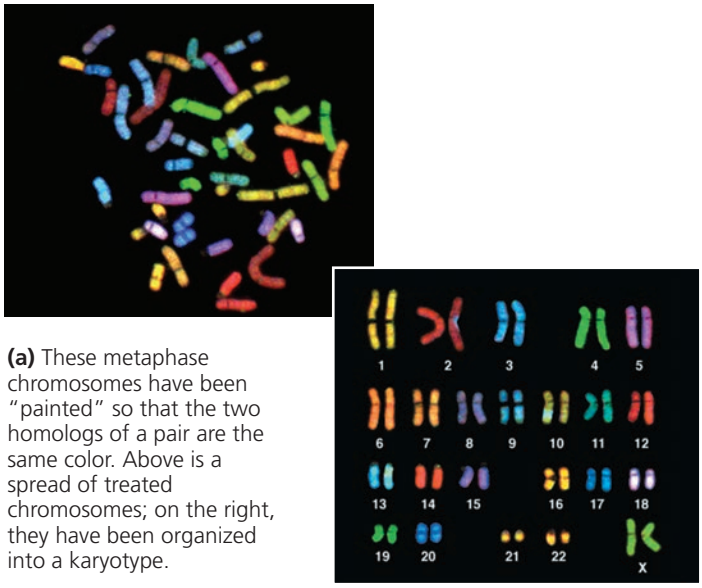
Metaphase chromosome

In a mitotic chromosome, the looped domains themselves coil and fold in a manner not yet fully understood, further compacting all the chromatin to produce the characteristic metaphase chromosome (also shown in the micrograph above). The width of one chromatid is 700 nm. Particular genes always end up located at the same places in metaphase chromosomes, indicating that the packing steps are highly specific and precise.

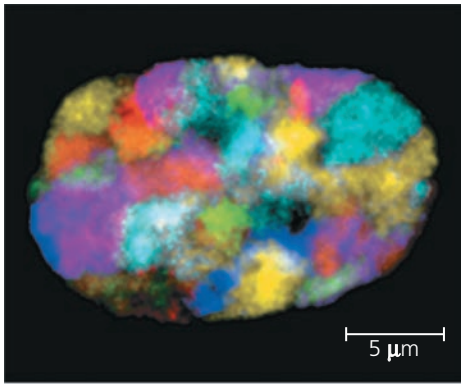
Chromatin undergoes striking changes in its degree of packing during the course of the cell cycle (see Figure 12.7). In interphase cells stained for light microscopy, the chromatin usually appears as a diffuse mass within the nucleus, suggesting that the chromatin is highly extended. As a cell prepares for mitosis, its chromatin coils and folds up (condenses), eventually forming a characteristic number of short, thick metaphase chromosomes that are distinguishable from each other with the light microscope **(Figure 16.23a)**.

Though interphase chromatin is generally much less condensed than the chromatin of mitotic chromosomes, it shows several of the same levels of higher-order packing.

Figure 16.23 "Painting" chromosomes. Researchers can treat ("paint") human chromosomes with molecular tags that cause each chromosome pair to appear a different color.



(a) These metaphase chromosomes have been "painted" so that the two homologs of a pair are the same color. Above is a spread of treated chromosomes; on the right, they have been organized into a karyotype.



(b) The ability to visually distinguish among chromosomes makes it possible to see how the chromosomes are arranged in the interphase nucleus. Each chromosome appears to occupy a specific territory during interphase. In general, the two homologs of a pair are not located together.

MAKE CONNECTIONS ➤ *If you arrested a human cell in metaphase I of meiosis and applied this technique, what would you observe? How would this differ from what you would see in metaphase of mitosis? Review Figure 13.8 and Figure 12.7.*

Some of the chromatin comprising a chromosome seems to be present as a 10-nm fiber, but much is compacted into a 30-nm fiber, which in some regions is further folded into looped domains. Early on, biologists assumed that interphase chromatin was a tangled mass in the nucleus, like a bowl of spaghetti, but this is far from the case. Although an interphase chromosome lacks an obvious scaffold, its looped domains appear to be attached to the nuclear lamina, on the inside of the nuclear envelope, and perhaps also to fibers of the nuclear matrix. These attachments may help organize regions of chromatin where genes are active. The chromatin of each chromosome occupies a specific restricted area within the interphase nucleus, and the chromatin fibers of different chromosomes do not appear to be entangled **(Figure 16.23b)**.

Even during interphase, the centromeres and telomeres of chromosomes, as well as other chromosomal regions in some cells, exist in a highly condensed state similar to that seen in a metaphase chromosome. This type of interphase chromatin, visible as irregular clumps with a light microscope, is called **heterochromatin**, to distinguish it from the less compacted, more dispersed **euchromatin** ("true chromatin"). Because of its compaction, heterochromatic DNA is largely inaccessible to the machinery in the cell responsible for transcribing the genetic information coded in the DNA, a crucial early step in gene expression. In contrast, the looser packing of euchromatin makes its DNA accessible to this machinery, so the genes present in euchromatin can be transcribed. The chromosome is a dynamic structure that is condensed, loosened, modified, and remodeled as necessary for various cell processes, including mitosis, meiosis, and gene activity. Chemical modifications of histones affect the state of chromatin condensation and also have multiple effects on gene activity, as you'll see in Concept 18.2.

In this chapter, you have learned how DNA molecules are arranged in chromosomes and how DNA replication provides the copies of genes that parents pass to offspring. However, it is not enough that genes be copied and transmitted; the information they carry must be used by the cell. In other words, genes must also be expressed. In the next chapter, we will examine how the cell expresses the genetic information encoded in DNA.

CONCEPT CHECK 16.3

1. Describe the structure of a nucleosome, the basic unit of DNA packing in eukaryotic cells.
2. What two properties, one structural and one functional, distinguish heterochromatin from euchromatin?
3. **MAKE CONNECTIONS ➤** Interphase chromosomes appear to be attached to the nuclear lamina and perhaps also the nuclear matrix. Describe these two structures. See Figure 6.9 and the associated text.

For suggested answers, see Appendix A.

16 Chapter Review

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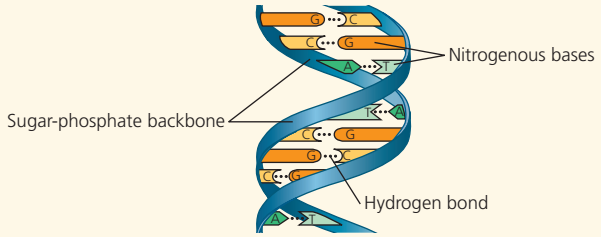
SUMMARY OF KEY CONCEPTS

CONCEPT 16.1

DNA is the genetic material *(pp. 315–320)*

VOCAB SELF-QUIZ goo.gl/6u55ks

- Experiments with bacteria and with **phages** provided the first strong evidence that the genetic material is DNA.
- Watson and Crick deduced that DNA is a **double helix** and built a structural model. Two **antiparallel** sugar-phosphate chains wind around the outside of the molecule; the nitrogenous bases project into the interior, where they hydrogen-bond in specific pairs, A with T, G with C.

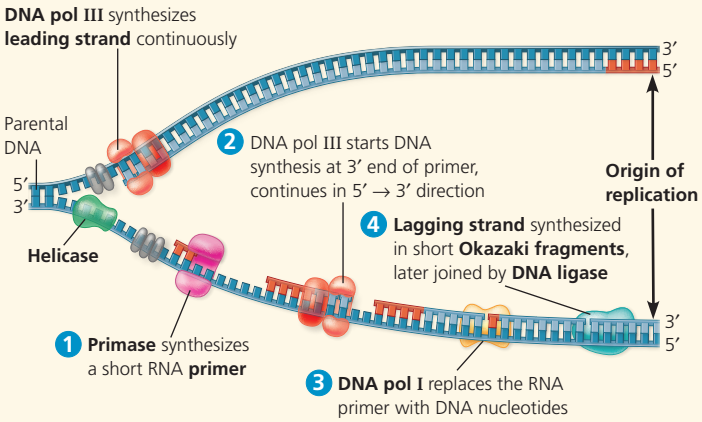


What does it mean when we say that the two DNA strands in the double helix are antiparallel? What would an end of the double helix look like if the strands were parallel?

CONCEPT 16.2

Many proteins work together in DNA replication and repair *(pp. 320–329)*

- The Meselson-Stahl experiment showed that **DNA replication** is **semiconservative**: The parental molecule unwinds, and each strand then serves as a template for the synthesis of a new strand according to base-pairing rules.
- DNA replication at one **replication fork** is summarized here:



- **DNA polymerases** proofread new DNA, replacing incorrect nucleotides. In **mismatch repair**, enzymes correct errors that persist. **Nucleotide excision repair** is a process by which **nucleases** cut out and other enzymes replace damaged stretches of DNA.
- The ends of eukaryotic chromosomal DNA get shorter with each round of replication. The presence of **telomeres**, repetitive sequences at the ends of linear DNA molecules, postpones the erosion of genes. Telomerase catalyzes the lengthening of telomeres in germ cells.

Compare DNA replication on the leading and lagging strands, including both similarities and differences.

CONCEPT 16.3

A chromosome consists of a DNA molecule packed together with proteins *(pp. 330–332)*

- The chromosome of most bacterial species is a circular DNA molecule with some associated proteins, making up the nucleoid. The **chromatin** making up a eukaryotic chromosome is composed of DNA, **histones**, and other proteins. The histones bind to each other and to the DNA to form **nucleosomes**, the most basic units of DNA packing. Histone tails extend outward from each bead-like nucleosome core. Additional coiling and folding lead ultimately to the highly condensed chromatin of the metaphase chromosome.
- Chromosomes occupy restricted areas in the interphase nucleus. In interphase cells, most chromatin is less compacted (**euchromatin**), but some remains highly condensed (**heterochromatin**). Euchromatin, but not heterochromatin, is generally accessible for transcription of genes.

Describe the levels of chromatin packing you'd expect to see in an interphase nucleus.

TEST YOUR UNDERSTANDING

Level 1: Knowledge/Comprehension

PRACTICE TEST goo.gl/CUYGKD

1. In his work with pneumonia-causing bacteria and mice, Griffith found that
   (A) the protein coat from pathogenic cells was able to transform nonpathogenic cells.
   (B) heat-killed pathogenic cells caused pneumonia.
   (C) some substance from pathogenic cells was transferred to nonpathogenic cells, making them pathogenic.
   (D) the polysaccharide coat of bacteria caused pneumonia.
2. What is the basis for the difference in how the leading and lagging strands of DNA molecules are synthesized?
   (A) The origins of replication occur only at the 5′ end.
   (B) Helicases and single-strand binding proteins work at the 5′ end.
   (C) DNA polymerase can join new nucleotides only to the 3′ end of a pre-existing strand, and the strands are antiparallel.
   (D) DNA ligase works only in the 3′ → 5′ direction.
3. In analyzing the number of different bases in a DNA sample, which result would be consistent with the base-pairing rules?
   (A) A = G
   (B) A + G = C + T
   (C) A + T = G + C
   (D) A = C
4. The elongation of the leading strand during DNA synthesis
   (A) progresses away from the replication fork.
   (B) occurs in the 3′ → 5′ direction.
   (C) produces Okazaki fragments.
   (D) depends on the action of DNA polymerase.
5. In a nucleosome, the DNA is wrapped around
   (A) histones.
   (B) ribosomes.
   (C) polymerase molecules.
   (D) a thymine dimer.

Level 2: Application/Analysis

6. *E. coli* cells grown on ^{15}N medium are transferred to ^{14}N medium and allowed to grow for two more generations (two rounds of DNA replication). DNA extracted from these cells is centrifuged. What density distribution of DNA would you expect in this experiment?
(A) one high-density and one low-density band
(B) one intermediate-density band
(C) one high-density and one intermediate-density band
(D) one low-density and one intermediate-density band

7. A biochemist isolates, purifies, and combines in a test tube a variety of molecules needed for DNA replication. When she adds some DNA to the mixture, replication occurs, but each DNA molecule consists of a normal strand paired with numerous segments of DNA a few hundred nucleotides long. What has she probably left out of the mixture?
(A) DNA polymerase
(B) DNA ligase
(C) Okazaki fragments
(D) primase

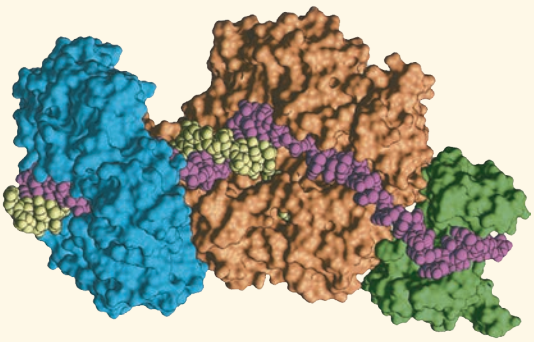
8. The spontaneous loss of amino groups from adenine in DNA results in hypoxanthine, an uncommon base, opposite thymine. What combination of proteins could repair such damage?
(A) nuclease, DNA polymerase, DNA ligase
(B) telomerase, primase, DNA polymerase
(C) telomerase, helicase, single-strand binding protein
(D) DNA ligase, replication fork proteins, adenylyl cyclase

9. MAKE CONNECTIONS Although the proteins that cause the *E. coli* chromosome to coil are not histones, what property would you expect them to share with histones, given their ability to bind to DNA (see Figure 5.14)?

Level 3: Synthesis/Evaluation

10. EVOLUTION CONNECTION Some bacteria may be able to respond to environmental stress by increasing the rate at which mutations occur during cell division. How might this be accomplished? Might there be an evolutionary advantage to this ability? Explain.

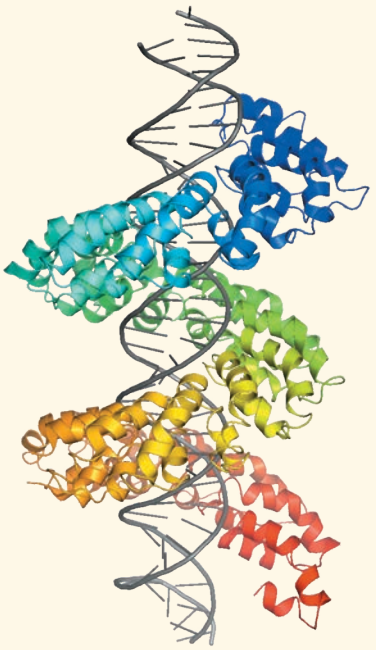
11. SCIENTIFIC INQUIRY



DRAW IT Model building can be an important part of the scientific process. The illustration shown above is a computer-generated model of a DNA replication complex. The parental and newly synthesized DNA strands are color-coded differently, as are each of the following three proteins: DNA pol III, the sliding clamp, and single-strand binding protein.
(a) Using what you've learned in this chapter to clarify this model, label each DNA strand and each protein.
(b) Draw an arrow to indicate the overall direction of DNA replication.

12. WRITE ABOUT A THEME: INFORMATION The continuity of life is based on heritable information in the form of DNA, and structure and function are correlated at all levels of biological organization. In a short essay (100–150 words), describe how the structure of DNA is correlated with its role as the molecular basis of inheritance.

13. SYNTHESIZE YOUR KNOWLEDGE



This image shows DNA (gray) interacting with a computer-generated model of a TAL protein (multicolored), one of a family of proteins found only in a species of the bacterium *Xanthomonas*. The bacterium uses proteins like this one to find specific gene sequences in cells of the organisms it infects, such as tomatoes, rice, and citrus fruits. Given what you know about DNA structure and considering the image above, discuss how the TAL protein's structure suggests that it functions.

For selected answers, see Appendix A.

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Gene Expression: From Gene to Protein

17

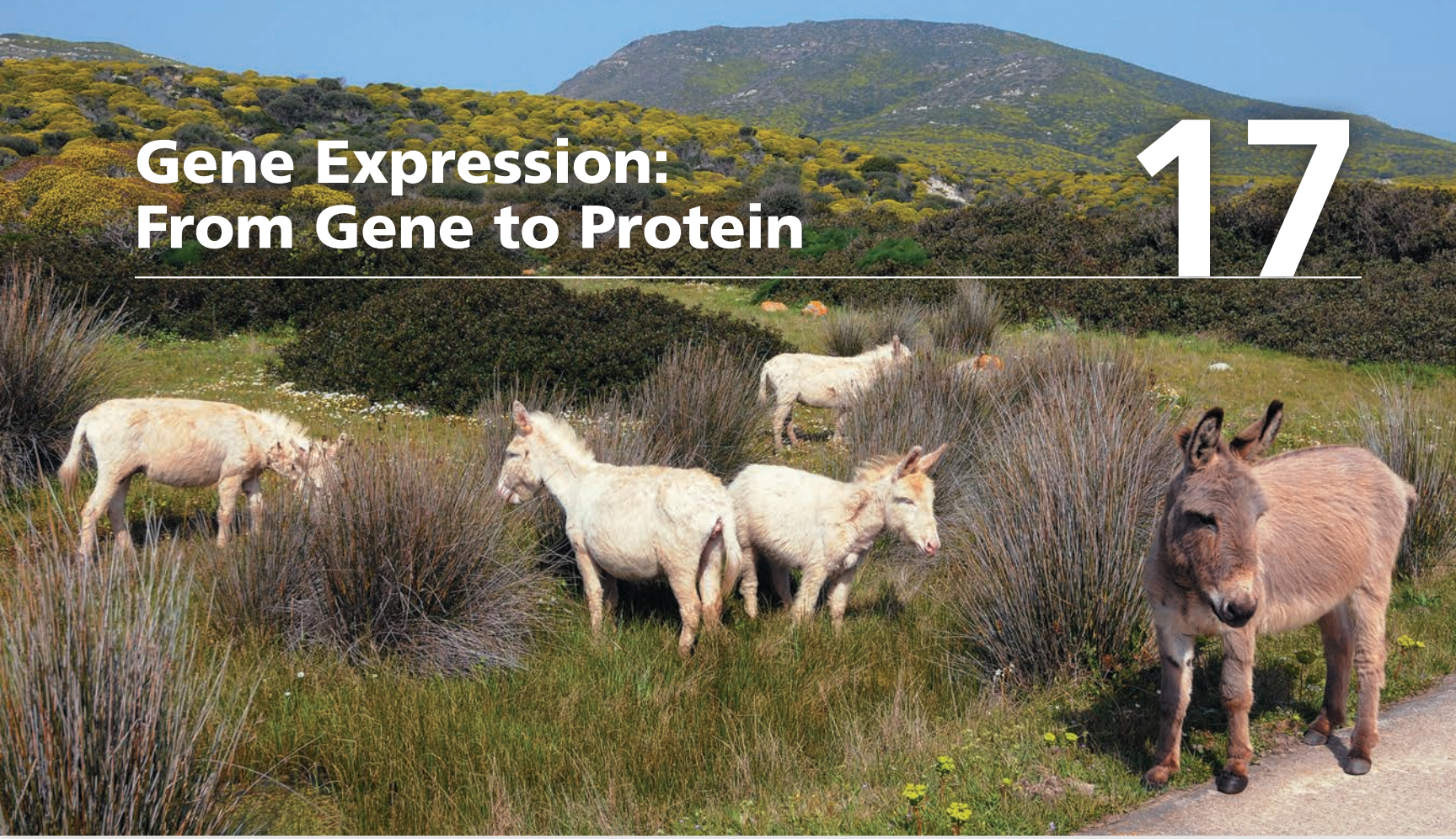

Figure 17.1 How does a single faulty gene result in the dramatic appearance of these albino donkeys?

KEY CONCEPTS

An albino raccoon.

The Flow of Genetic Information

The island of Asinara lies off the coast of the Italian island of Sardinia. The name Asinara probably originated from the Latin work *sinuaria*, which means "sinus-shaped." A second meaning of Asinara is "donkey-inhabited," which is perhaps even more appropriate because Asinara is home to a wild population of albino donkeys **(Figure 17.1)**. What factors are responsible for the albino phenotype?

Inherited traits are determined by genes, and the trait of albinism is caused by a recessive allele of a pigmentation gene (see Concept 14.4). The information content of genes is in the form of specific sequences of nucleotides along strands of DNA, the genetic material. The albino donkey has a faulty version of a key protein, an enzyme required for pigment synthesis, and this protein is faulty because the gene that codes for it contains incorrect information.

This example illustrates the main point of this chapter: The DNA inherited by an organism leads to specific traits by dictating the synthesis of proteins and of RNA molecules involved in protein synthesis. In other words, proteins are the link between genotype and phenotype. **Gene expression** is the process by which DNA directs the synthesis of proteins (or, in some cases, just RNAs). The expression of genes that code for proteins includes two stages: transcription and translation. This chapter describes the flow of information from gene to protein and explains how genetic mutations affect organisms through their proteins. Understanding the processes of gene expression will allow us to revisit the concept of the gene in more detail at the end of the chapter.

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