

Chapter 21
Regulation of Gene Expression

I. Gene Regulation in Prokaryotes

A. some genes not regulated

1. **constitutive genes** = genes that are always active
 - genes that are always "turned on"
 - genes are always needed
 - eg: genes that code for enzymes of glycolytic pathway

B. some genes are regulated

- some genes only needed under certain conditions
- transcription can be "turned on or off"
- enzymes produced from these genes vary greatly in cytoplasmic concentration

C. strategies of prokaryotic gene regulation

1. enzymes for catabolic pathways **regulated differently** than enzymes from anabolic pathways
2. all enzymes of a given pathway **regulated together**
3. two basic types of regulation
 - a. **induction** is associated with catabolic pathways
 - enzymes for a given catabolic pathway synthesized only when needed
 - eg: catabolism of **lactose**
 - lactose is not always present in the growth media
 - when lactose is **not present** in growth media
 - bacteria do not make **beta-galactosidase**
 - bacteria do not make permease
 - when lactose is **present** in growth media
 - both galactosidase and permease are synthesized by cell
 - galactosidase and permease regulated together**
 - see **beta-galactosidase reaction**
 - see **function of galactoside permease**
 - enzyme synthesis "turned on" in presence lactose
 - substrate induction** = turning on enzyme synthesis (transcription + translation) in the presence of the substrate
 - inducible enzymes** = enzymes whose synthesis requires the presence of an inducer (usually a substrate)
 - MOST catabolic pathways in bacteria are subject to substrate induction**
 - b. **repression** is associated with anabolic pathways
 - focus on the "end products" of anabolic pathways
 - opposite of catabolic pathways
 - amount enzyme varies inversely with amount end-product in cell
 - eg: **tryptophan synthesis in cell**
 - low tryptophan in cell
 - enzymes required to synthesize trp are turned on
 - see the pathway**
 - high tryptophan in cell
 - enzymes required to synthesize trp are turned off
 - regulated by tryptophan repression**
 - high [trp] represses (turns off) genes for pathway
 - low [trp] => no repression so genes are turned on
 - MOST anabolic pathways in bacteria are regulated by end-product repression**
 - repression** = reduction in the expression of a gene or group of genes
 - repression deals with protein (enzyme) synthesis starting with DNA
 - c. **effector molecules**
 - effector molecules** = small molecules that trigger the activation or deactivation of a gene or group of genes
 - substrate induction uses effector molecules
 - effector molecules of catabolic pathways**
 - usually **substrates**
 - act as **inducers**
 - eg: **lactose** (the substrate) is the small molecule that "turns on" the genes coding for the enzymes of the pathway
 - end-product repression uses effector molecules

- effector molecules of anabolic pathways
 - usually end-products
 - act as repressors
- eg: [tryptophan](#) is the small molecule that "turns off" the genes coding for the enzymes of the pathway

4. Inducible Operons

- catabolic pathways have inducible operons
- pathways turned ON by the presence of starting materials
- eg: *Lac operon in E. coli*
 - key paper by Francois Jacob and Jacques Monod (1961)
 - discovered two types of genes associated with lactose catabolism
 - structural genes** = genes that code for proteins involved with uptake and metabolism of a given molecule
 - eg: beta-galactosidase
 - eg: galactoside permease
 - eg: transacetylase
 - regulatory genes** = genes that code for proteins that regulate the activity of the structural genes
 - eg: repressor protein
 - Jacob and Monod discovered 3 things:
 - (1) that the **structural genes** were only **expressed in the presence of an inducer** molecule (eg: lactose)
 - (2) that the **structural genes** were all **immediately adjacent to each other**
 - (3) that the **regulatory genes** were **elsewhere** in the genome
 - Jacob and Monod proposed the [Operon Model for gene regulation](#)
 - based on the lactose catabolism system
 - proposed that the three structural genes were part of an "operon"
 - operon** = a cluster of related genes that are turned off/on together
 - proposed that lac repressor protein is an [allosteric protein](#)
 - has [binding site for lactose chime](#)
 - has a [binding site for DNA](#)
 - repressor + lactose => no DNA binding
 - [repressor only => binds DNA chime](#)
 - proposed that the repressor specifically [binds to operator](#) of the lac operon and blocks RNA polymerase from binding and transcribing the mRNA
 - proposed that **when lactose is present**, the lactose binds to the repressor protein and [PREVENTS repressor](#) from binding DNA => polymerase CAN bind and start making mRNA
 - new mRNA codes for beta-galactosidase permease & transacetylase
 - enzymes are synthesized and lactose is metabolized
 - What happens when the lactose is fully metabolized?**

5. Repressible Operons

- biosynthetic pathways have repressible operons
- pathways turned OFF by products of pathways
- eg: *trp operon in E. coli*
- has a regulatory gene and an operon
 - regulatory gene codes for a protein (the repressor) that is **INACTIVE**
 - inactive repressor is activated by [trp](#)
 - in absence of trp, repressor is inactive and [RNA polymerase transcribes](#) the structural genes
 - structural genes code for enzymes that [synthesize trp](#)
 - [trp] in cytoplasm rise
 - at a triggering [trp], trp binds to inactive repressor, making it [an ACTIVE repressor](#)
 - active repressor binds to trp operon operator and [prevents RNA polymerase binding and transcription](#)
 - levels of trp operon enzymes fall
 - [trp] in cytoplasm fall
 - repressor returns to inactive form, etc, etc, etc

6. Negative Control of Transcription

- both the lac operon and trp operon are examples of negative control
- repressor turns OFF transcription under certain circumstances

7. Positive Control of Transcription

- a. some operon's are positively controlled
- b. regulatory protein turns ON transcription
- c. **eg: catabolite repression**
 - (1) presence of glucose inhibits the ability of metabolites (eg: lactose) to induce transcription
 - (2) enzymes for glucose metabolism are constitutive
 - (3) prokaryotic cells prefer to metabolize glucose
 - (4) don't make enzymes needed for lactose metabolism if glucose is available
 - (a) eg: grow bacteria on media containing glucose and lactose
 - bacteria metabolize only glucose until all glucose is gone
 - glucose gone => bacteria induce enzymes lactose metabolism
 - start metabolizing lactose
 - (5) mechanism of catabolite repression
 - (a) cells have [cyclic AMP Receptor Protein \(CRP\)](#) [chime](#)
 - (b) [cAMP allosterically activates CRP](#)
 - (c) [activated CRP binds](#) to a specific DNA sequence (C) just upstream from the lac promoter (Plac)
 - (d) bound CRP greatly facilitates RNA polymerase binding and transcription
 - (e) What about glucose?
 - When [glucose] is high in cytoplasm
 - glucose inhibits [adenyl cyclase](#)
 - adenyl cyclase catalyzes:
ATP \rightleftharpoons cAMP + P-O-P
 - high glucose => low [cAMP]
 - low [cAMP] => inactive CRP
 - inactive CRP => no DNA binding
 - no DNA binding => little induction of the lac operon
 - SO: in presence of glucose, the cell doesn't make the enzymes needed to metabolize lactose
 - When [glucose] is low
 - low glucose => high [cAMP]
 - high [cAMP] => active CRP
 - active CRP => CRP binds to DNA
 - CRP binding to DNA => increased RNA polymerase binding
 - enzymes of lac operon are synthesized
 - lactose is metabolized

8. Dual Control of Inducible Operons

A. inducible operons often under dual control

- (1) eg: lac operon
 - a. lac operon **subject to negative control** by a repressor
 - allows the presence of lactose to "turn on" the system
 - b. but, lac operon also **subject to positive control** by CRP
 - allows the "turn on" to only occur under appropriate conditions

9. Sigma Factors

A. bacterial RNA polymerase uses a sigma factor

- (1) recall from [chap 19](#): sigma factors help control initiation of transcription
 - sigma factor binds to RNA polymerase**
 - sigma factor helps RNA polymerase find the promoter
 - bacterial cells have **different types sigma factor specific for sets of genes**
 - sigma factor 70** (MW = 70 kDa) is most common form
 - initiates transcription at most promoters
 - sigma factor 32** (MW = 32 kDa) is produced after heat shock
 - initiates transcription at promoters of genes needed for responding to heat
 - sigma factor 54** turns on genes for nitrogen utilization
 - bacteriophage produces a powerful sigma factor** that preferentially transcribes the phage DNA instead of the bacterial DNA

- II. Skip Comparison of Gene Regulation in Pro and Eukaryotes for 2005
 - A. differences in genome expression

- III. Skip Eukaryotic Gene Regulation for 2005
 - A. Genomic Control
 - B. Transcriptional Control
 - C. Posttranscriptional Control