FROM GENE TO PROTEIN

## Introduction

* The information content of DNA is in the form of specific sequences of nucleotides along the DNA strands.
* The DNA inherited by an organism leads to specific traits by dictating the synthesis of proteins.
* Proteins are the links between genotype and phenotype.
* For example, Mendel’s dwarf pea plants lack a functioning copy of the gene that specifies the synthesis of a key protein, gibberellins.
* Gibberellins stimulate the normal elongation of stems.

**A. The Connection Between Genes and Proteins**

1. The study of metabolic defects provided evidence that genes specify proteins

* In 1909, Archibald Gerrod was the first to suggest that genes dictate phenotype through enzymes that catalyze specific chemical reactions in the cell.
* The symptoms of an inherited disease reflect a person’s inability to synthesize a particular enzyme.
* Gerrod speculated that alkaptonuria, a hereditary disease, was caused by the absence of an enzyme that breaks down a specific substrate, alkapton.
* Research conducted several decades later supported Gerrod’s hypothesis.
* Progress in linking genes and enzymes rested on the growing understanding that cells synthesize and degrade most organic molecules in a series of steps, a metabolic pathway.
* In the 1930s, George Beadle and Boris Ephrussi speculated that each mutation affecting eye color in *Drosophila* blocks pigment synthesis at a specific step by preventing production of the enzyme that catalyzes that step.
* However, neither the chemical reactions nor the enzymes were known at the time.
* Beadle and Edward Tatum were finally able to establish the link between genes and enzymes in their exploration of the metabolism of a bread mold, *Neurospora crassa*.
* They mutated *Neurospora* with X-rays and screened the survivors for mutants that differed in their nutritional needs.
* Wild-type *Neurospora* can grow on a minimal medium of agar, inorganic salts, glucose, and the vitamin biotin.
* Most nutritional mutants *can* survive on a *complete growth medium* that includes all 20 amino acids.
* One type of mutant required only the addition of arginine to the minimal growth medium.
* Beadle and Tatum concluded that this mutant was defective somewhere in the biochemical pathway that normally synthesizes arginine.
* They identified three classes of arginine-deficient mutants, each apparently lacking a key enzyme at a different step in the synthesis of arginine.
* They demonstrated this by growing these mutant strains in media that provided different intermediate molecules.
* Their results provided strong evidence for the *one gene - one enzyme* *hypothesis.*
* Later research refined the one gene - one enzyme hypothesis.
* First, it became clear that not all proteins are enzymes and yet their synthesis depends on specific genes.
* This tweaked the hypothesis to *one gene - one protein*.
* Later research demonstrated that many proteins are composed of several polypeptides, each of which has its own gene.
* Therefore, Beadle and Tatum’s idea has been restated as the **one gene - one polypeptide hypothesis**.

2. Transcription and translation are the two main processes linking gene to protein: *an overview*

* Genes provide the instructions for making specific proteins.
* The bridge between DNA and protein synthesis is RNA.
* RNA is chemically similar to DNA, except that it contains ribose as its sugar and substitutes the nitrogenous base uracil for thymine.
* An RNA molecule almost always consists of a single strand.
* In DNA or RNA, the four nucleotide monomers act like the letters of the alphabet to communicate information.
* The specific sequence of hundreds or thousands of nucleotides in each gene carries the information for the primary structure of a protein, the linear order of the 20 possible amino acids.
* To get from DNA, written in one chemical language, to protein, written in another, requires two major stages, transcription and translation.
* During **transcription**, a DNA strand provides a template for the synthesis of a complementary RNA strand.
* This process is used to synthesize any type of RNA from a DNA template.
* Transcription of a gene produces a **messenger RNA** (**mRNA**) molecule.
* During **translation**, the information contained in the order of nucleotides in mRNA is used to determine the amino acid sequence of a polypeptide.
* Translation occurs at ribosomes.
* The basic mechanics of transcription and translation are similar in eukaryotes and prokaryotes.
* Because bacteria lack nuclei, transcription and translation are coupled.
* Ribosomes attach to the leading end of a mRNA molecule while transcription is still in progress.
* In a eukaryotic cell, almost all transcription occurs in the nucleus and translation occurs mainly at ribosomes in the cytoplasm.
* In addition, before the **primary transcript** can leave the nucleus it is modified in various ways during **RNA processing** before the finished mRNA is exported to the cytoplasm.
* To summarize, genes program protein synthesis via genetic messenger RNA.
* The molecular chain of command in a cell is:

 DNA -> RNA -> protein.

3. In the genetic code, nucleotide triplets specify amino acids

* If the genetic code consisted of a single nucleotide or even pairs of nucleotides per amino acid, there would not be enough combinations (4 and 16 respectively) to code for all 20 amino acids.
* Triplets of nucleotide bases are the smallest units of uniform length that can code for all the amino acids.
* In the **triplet code**, three consecutive bases specify an amino acid, creating 43 (64) possible code words.
* The genetic instructions for a polypeptide chain are written in DNA as a series of three-nucleotide words.
* During transcription, one DNA strand, the **template strand**, provides a template for ordering the sequence of nucleotides in an RNA transcript.
* The complementary RNA molecule is synthesized according to base-pairing rules, except that uracil is the complementary base to adenine.
* During translation, blocks of three nucleotides, **codons**, are decoded into a sequence of amino acids.
* During translation, the codons are read in the 5’->3’ direction along the mRNA.
* Each codon specifies which one of the 20 amino acids will be incorporated at the corresponding position along a polypeptide.
* Because codons are base triplets, the number of nucleotides making up a genetic message must be three times the number of amino acids making up the protein product.
* It would take at least 300 nucleotides to code for a polypeptide that is 100 amino acids long.
* The task of matching each codon to its amino acid counterpart began in the early 1960s.
* Marshall Nirenberg determined the first match: UUU coded for the amino acid phenylalanine.
* He created an artificial mRNA molecule entirely of uracil and added it to a test tube mixture of amino acids, ribosomes, and other components for protein synthesis.
* This “poly(U)” translated into a polypeptide containing a single amino acid, phenyalanine, in a long chain.
* Other more elaborate techniques were required to decode mixed triplets such as AUA and CGA.
* By the mid-1960s the entire code was deciphered.
* 61 of 64 triplets code for amino acids.
* The codon AUG not only codes for the amino acid methionine but also indicates the start of translation.
* Three codons do not indicate amino acids but signal the termination of translation.
* To extract the message from the genetic code requires specifying the correct starting point.
* This establishes the **reading frame** and subsequent codons are read in groups of three nucleotides.
* The cell’s protein-synthesizing machinery reads the message as a series of nonoverlapping three-letter words.
* In summary, genetic information is encoded as a sequence of nonoverlapping base triplets, or codons, each of which is translated into a specific amino acid during protein synthesis.

4. The genetic code must have evolved very early in the history of life

* The genetic code is nearly universal, shared by organisms from the simplest bacteria to the most complex plants and animals.
* In laboratory experiments, genes can be transcribed and translated after they are transplanted from one species to another.
* This has permitted bacteria to be programmed to synthesize certain human proteins after insertion of the appropriate human genes.
* This and other similar applications are exciting developments in biotechnology.
* Exceptions to the universality of the genetic code exist in translation systems where a few codons differ from standard ones.
* These occur in certain single-celled eukaryotes like *Paramecium*.
* Other examples include translation in certain mitochondria and chloroplasts.
* The near universality of the genetic code must have been operating very early in the history of life.
* A shared genetic vocabulary is a reminder of the kinship that bonds all life on Earth.

B. The Synthesis and Processing of RNA

**1. Transcription is the DNA-directed synthesis of RNA: *a closer look***

* Messenger RNA is transcribed from the template strand of a gene.
* **RNA polymerase** separates the DNA strands at the appropriate point and bonds the RNA nucleotides as they base-pair along the DNA template.
* Like DNA polymerases, RNA polymerases can add nucleotides only to the 3’ end of the growing polymer.
* Genes are read 3’->5’, creating a 5’->3’ RNA molecule.
* Specific sequences of nucleotides along the DNA mark where gene transcription begins and ends.
* RNA polymerase attaches and initiates transcription at the **promotor**, “upstream” of the information contained in the gene, the **transcription unit**.
* The **terminator** signals the end of transcription.
* Bacteria have a single type of RNA polymerase that synthesizes all RNA molecules.
* In contrast, eukaryotes have three RNA polymerases (I, II, and III) in their nuclei.
* RNA polymerase II is used for mRNA synthesis.
* Transcription can be separated into three stages: initiation, elongation, and termination.
* The presence of a promotor sequence determines which strand of the DNA helix is the template.
* Within the promotor is the starting point for the transcription of a gene.
* The promotor also includes a binding site for RNA polymerase several dozen nucleotides upstream of the start point.
* In prokaryotes, RNA polymerase can recognize and bind directly to the promotor region.
* In eukaryotes, proteins called **transcription factors** recognize the promotor region, especially a **TATA box**, and bind to the promotor.
* After they have bound to the promotor, RNA polymerase binds to transcription factors to create a **transcription initiation complex**.
* RNA polymerase then starts transcription.
* As RNA polymerase moves along the DNA, it untwists the double helix, 10 to 20 bases at time.
* The enzyme adds nucleotides to the 3’ end of the growing strand.
* Behind the point of RNA synthesis, the double helix re-forms and the RNA molecule peels away.
* A single gene can be transcribed simultaneously by several RNA polymerases at a time.
* A growing strand of RNA trails off from each polymerase.
* The length of each new strand reflects how far along the template the enzyme has traveled from the start point.
* The congregation of many polymerase molecules simultaneously transcribing a single gene increases the amount of mRNA transcribed from it.
* This helps the cell make the encoded protein in large amounts.
* Transcription proceeds until after the RNA polymerase transcribes a terminator sequence in the DNA.
* In prokaryotes, RNA polymerase stops transcription right at the end of the terminator.
* Both the RNA and DNA are then released.
* In eukaryotes, the polymerase continues for hundreds of nucleotides past the terminator sequence, AAUAAA.
* At a point about 10 to 35 nucleotides past this sequence, the pre-mRNA is cut from the enzyme.

2. Eukaryotic cells modify RNA after transcription

* Enzymes in the eukaryotic nucleus modify pre-mRNA before the genetic messages are dispatched to the cytoplasm.
* At the 5’ end of the pre-mRNA molecule, a modified form of guanine is added, the **5’ cap**.
* This helps protect mRNA from hydrolytic enzymes.
* It also functions as an “attach here” signal for ribosomes.
* At the 3’ end, an enzyme adds 50 to 250 adenine nucleotides, the **poly(A) tail**.
* In addition to inhibiting hydrolysis and facilitating ribosome attachment, the poly(A) tail also seems to facilitate the export of mRNA from the nucleus.
* The mRNA molecule also includes nontranslated leader and trailer segments.
* The most remarkable stage of RNA processing occurs during the removal of a large portion of the RNA molecule during **RNA splicing**.
* Most eukaryotic genes and their RNA transcripts have long noncoding stretches of nucleotides.
* Noncoding segments, **introns**, lie between coding regions.
* The final mRNA transcript includes coding regions, **exons**, which are translated into amino acid sequences, plus the leader and trailer sequences.
* RNA splicing removes introns and joins exons to create an mRNA molecule with a continuous coding sequence.
* This splicing is accomplished by a **spliceosome**.
* Spliceosomes consist of a variety of proteins and several *small nuclear ribonucleoproteins* (*snRNPs*).
* Each snRNP has several protein molecules and a *small nuclear RNA molecule* (*snRNA*).
* Each is about 150 nucleotides long.

• 1) Pre-mRNA combines with snRNPs and other proteins to form a spliceosome.

• 2) Within the spliceosome, snRNA base-pairs with nucleotides at the ends of the intron.

• 3) The RNA transcript is cut to release the intron, and the exons are spliced together; the spliceosome then comes apart, releasing mRNA, which now contains only exons.

* In this process, the snRNA acts as a **ribozyme**, an RNA molecule that functions as an enzyme.
* Like pre-mRNA, other kinds of primary transcripts may also be spliced, but by diverse mechanisms that do not involve spliceosomes.
* In a few cases, intron RNA can catalyze its own excision without proteins or extra RNA molecules.
* The discovery of ribozymes rendered obsolete the statement, “All biological catalysts are proteins.”
* RNA splicing appears to have several functions.
* First, at least some introns contain sequences that control gene activity in some way.
* Splicing itself may regulate the passage of mRNA from the nucleus to the cytoplasm.
* One clear benefit of split genes is to enable a one gene to encode for more than one polypeptide.
* **Alternative RNA splicing** gives rise to two or more different polypeptides, depending on which segments are treated as exons.
* Early results of the Human Genome Project indicate that this phenomenon may be common in humans.
* Split genes may also facilitate the evolution of new proteins.
* Proteins often have a modular architecture with discrete structural and functional regions called **domains**.
* In many cases, different exons code for different domains of a protein.
* The presence of introns increases the probability of potentially beneficial crossing over between genes.
* Introns increase the opportunity for recombination between two alleles of a gene.
* This raises the probability that a crossover will switch one version of an exon for another version found on the homologous chromosome.
* There may also be occasional mixing and matching of exons between completely different genes.
* Either way, exon shuffling could lead to new proteins through novel combinations of functions.

# C. The Synthesis of Protein

1. Translation is the RNA-directed synthesis of a polypeptide: *a closer look*

* In the process of translation, a cell interprets a series of codons
along a mRNA molecule.
* **Transfer RNA** (**tRNA**) transfers amino acids from the cytoplasm’s pool to a ribosome.
* The ribosome adds each amino acid carried by tRNA to the growing end of the polypeptide chain.
* During translation, each type of tRNA links a mRNA codon with the appropriate amino acid.
* Each tRNA arriving at the ribosome carries a specific amino acid at one end and has a specific nucleotide triplet, an **anticodon**, at the other.
* The anticodon base-pairs with a complementary codon on mRNA.
* If the codon on mRNA is UUU, a tRNA with an AAA anticodon and carrying phenyalanine will bind to it.
* Codon by codon, tRNAs deposit amino acids in the prescribed order and the ribosome joins them into a polypeptide chain.
* Like other types of RNA, tRNA molecules are transcribed from DNA templates in the nucleus.
* Once it reaches the cytoplasm, each tRNA is used repeatedly.

• To pick up its designated amino acid in the cytosol.

• To deposit the amino acid at the ribosome.

• To return to the cytosol to pick up another copy of that amino acid.

* A tRNA molecule consists of a strand of about 80 nucleotides that folds back on itself to form a three-dimensional structure.
* It includes a loop containing the anticodon and an attachment site at the 3’ end for an amino acid.
* If each anticodon had to be a perfect match to each codon, we would expect to find 61 types of tRNA, but the actual number is about 45.
* The anticodons of some tRNAs recognize more than one codon.
* This is possible because the rules for base pairing between the third base of the codon and anticodon are relaxed (called **wobble**).
* At the wobble position, U on the anticodon can bind with A or G in the third position of a codon.
* Some tRNA anticodons include a modified form of adenine, inosine, which can hydrogen bond with U, C, or A on the codon.
* Each amino acid is joined to the correct tRNA by **aminoacyl-tRNA synthetase**.
* The 20 different synthetases match the 20 different amino acids.
* Each has active sites for only a specific tRNA and amino acid combination.
* The synthetase catalyzes a covalent bond between them, forming aminoacyl-tRNA or activated amino acid.
* Ribosomes facilitate the specific coupling of the tRNA anticodons with mRNA codons.
* Each ribosome has a large and a small subunit.
* These are composed of proteins and **ribosomal RNA** (**rRNA**), the most abundant RNA in the cell.
* After rRNA genes are transcribed to rRNA in the nucleus, the rRNA and proteins form the subunits in the nucleolus.
* The subunits exit the nucleus via nuclear pores.
* The large and small subunits join to form a functional ribosome only when they attach to an mRNA molecule.
* While very similar in structure and function, prokaryotic and eukaryotic ribosomes have enough differences that certain antibiotic drugs (like tetracycline) can paralyze prokaryotic ribosomes without inhibiting eukaryotic ribosomes.
* Each ribosome has a binding site for mRNA and three binding sites for tRNA molecules.
* The **P site** holds the tRNA carrying the growing polypeptide chain.
* The **A site** carries the tRNA with the next amino acid.
* Discharged tRNAs leave the ribosome at the **E site**.
* Recent advances in our understanding of the structure of the ribosome strongly support the hypothesis that rRNA, not protein, carries out the ribosome’s functions.
* RNA is the main constituent at the interphase between the two subunits and of the A and P sites.
* It is the catalyst for peptide bond formation.
* Translation can be divided into three stages
* Initiation
* Elongation
* Termination
* All three phase require protein “factors” that aid in the translation process.
* Both initiation and chain elongation require energy provided by the hydrolysis of GTP.
* **Initiation** brings together mRNA, a tRNA with the first amino acid, and the two ribosomal subunits.
* First, a small ribosomal subunit binds with mRNA and a special initiator tRNA, which carries methionine and attaches to the start codon.
* *Initiation factors* bring in the large subunit such that the initiator tRNA occupies the P site.
* **Elongation** consists of a series of three-step cycles as each amino acid is added to the proceeding one.
* During **codon recognition**, an *elongation factor* assists hydrogen bonding between the mRNA codon under the A site with the corresponding anticodon of tRNA carrying the appropriate
amino acid.
* This step requires the hydrolysis of two GTP.
* During **peptide bond formation**, an rRNA molecule catalyzes the formation of a peptide bond between the polypeptide in the P site with the new amino acid in the A site.
* This step separates the tRNA at the P site from the growing polypeptide chain and transfers the chain, now one amino acid longer, to the tRNA at the A site.
* During **translocation**, the ribosome moves the tRNA with the attached polypeptide from the A site to the P site.
* Because the anticodon remains bonded to the mRNA codon, the mRNA moves along with it.
* The next codon is now available at the A site.
* The tRNA that had been in the P site is moved to the E site and then leaves the ribosome.
* Translocation is fueled by the hydrolysis of GTP.
* Effectively, translocation ensures that the mRNA is “read” 5’ -> 3’ codon by codon.

• The three steps of elongation continue codon by codon to add amino acids until the polypeptide chain is completed.

* **Termination** occurs when one of the three stop codons reaches the A site.
* A *release factor* binds to the stop codon and hydrolyzes the bond between the polypeptide and its tRNA in the P site.
* This frees the polypeptide and the translation complex disassembles.
* Typically a single mRNA is used to make many copies of a polypeptide simultaneously.
* Multiple ribosomes, **polyribosomes**, may trail along the same mRNA.
* A ribosome requires less than a minute to translate an average-sized mRNA into a polypeptide.
* During and after synthesis, a polypeptide coils and folds to its three-dimensional shape spontaneously.
* The primary structure, the order of amino acids, determines the secondary and tertiary structure.
* Chaperone proteins may aid correct folding.
* In addition, proteins may require *posttranslational modifications* before doing their particular job.
* This may require additions like sugars, lipids, or phosphate groups to amino acids.
* Enzymes may remove some amino acids or cleave whole polypeptide chains.
* Two or more polypeptides may join to form a protein.

2. Signal peptides target some eukaryotic polypeptides to specific destinations in the cell

* Two populations of ribosomes, free and bound, are active participants in protein synthesis.
* Free ribosomes are suspended in the cytosol and synthesize proteins that reside in the cytosol.
* Bound ribosomes are attached to the cytosolic side of the endoplasmic reticulum.
* They synthesize proteins of the endomembrane system as well as proteins secreted from the cell.
* While bound and free ribosomes are identical in structure, their location depends on the type of protein that they are synthesizing.
* Translation in all ribosomes begins in the cytosol, but a polypeptide destined for the endomembrane system or for export has a specific **signal peptide** region at or near the leading end.
* This consists of a sequence of about 20 amino acids.
* A **signal recognition particle** (**SRP**) binds to the signal peptide and attaches it and its ribosome to a receptor protein in the ER membrane.
* The SRP consists of a protein-RNA complex.
* After binding, the SRP leaves and protein synthesis resumes with the growing polypeptide snaking across the membrane into the cisternal space via a protein pore.
* An enzyme usually cleaves the signal polypeptide.
* Secretory proteins are released entirely into the cisternal space, but membrane proteins remain partially embedded in the ER membrane.
* Other kinds of signal peptides are used to target polypeptides to mitochondria, chloroplasts, the nucleus, and other organelles that are not part of the endomembrane system.
* In these cases, translation is completed in the cytosol before the polypeptide is imported into the organelle.
* While the mechanisms of translocation vary, each of these polypeptides has a “postal” code that ensures its delivery to the correct cellular location.

**3. RNA plays multiple roles in the cell: *a review***

* The cellular machinery of protein synthesis and ER targeting is dominated by various kinds of RNA.
* The diverse functions of RNA are based, in part, on its ability to form hydrogen bonds with other nucleic acid molecules (DNA or RNA).
* It can also assume a specific three-dimensional shape by forming hydrogen bonds between bases in different parts of its polynucleotide chain.
* DNA may be the genetic material of all living cells today, but RNA is much more versatile.
* The diverse functions of RNA range from structural to informational to catalytic.

**4. Comparing protein synthesis in prokaryotes and eukaryotes: *a review***

* Although bacteria and eukaryotes carry out transcription and translation in very similar ways, they do have differences in cellular machinery and
in details of the processes.
* Eukaryotic RNA polymerases differ from those of prokaryotes and require transcription factors.
* They differ in how transcription is terminated.
* Their ribosomes are also different.
* One big difference is that prokaryotes can transcribe and translate the same gene simultaneously.
* The new protein quickly diffuses to its operating site.
* In eukaryotes, the nuclear envelope segregates transcription from translation.
* In addition, extensive RNA processing is inserted between these processes.
* This provides additional steps whose regulation helps coordinate the elaborate activities of a eukaryotic cell.
* In addition, eukaryotic cells have complicated mechanisms for targeting proteins to the appropriate organelle.

5. Point mutations can affect protein structure and function

* **Mutations** are changes in the genetic material of a cell (or virus).
* These include large-scale mutations in which long segments of DNA are affected (for example, translocations, duplications, and inversions).
* A chemical change in just one base pair of a gene causes a **point mutation**.
* If these occur in gametes or cells producing gametes, they may be transmitted to future generations.
* For example, sickle-cell disease is caused by a mutation of a single base pair in the gene that codes for one of the polypeptides of hemoglobin.
* A change in a single nucleotide from T to A in the DNA template leads to an abnormal protein.
* A point mutation that results in the replacement of a pair of complementary nucleotides with another nucleotide pair is called a **base-pair substitution**.
* Some base-pair substitutions have little or no impact on protein function.
* In *silent mutations*, alterations of nucleotides still indicate the same amino acids because of redundancy in the genetic code.
* Other changes lead to switches from one amino acid to another with similar properties.
* Still other mutations may occur in a region where the exact amino acid sequence is not essential for function.
* Other base-pair substitutions cause a readily detectable change in a protein.
* These are usually detrimental but can occasionally lead to an improved protein or one with novel capabilities.
* Changes in amino acids at crucial sites, especially active sites, are likely to impact function.
* **Missense mutations** are those that still code for an amino acid but change the indicated amino acid.
* **Nonsense mutations** change an amino acid codon into a stop codon, nearly always leading to a nonfunctional protein.
* **Insertions** and **deletions** are additions or losses of nucleotide pairs in a gene.
* These have a disastrous effect on the resulting protein more often than substitutions do.
* Unless these mutations occur in multiples of three, they cause a **frameshift mutation**.
* All the nucleotides downstream of the deletion or insertion will be improperly grouped into codons.
* The result will be extensive missense, ending sooner or later in nonsense - premature termination.
* Mutations can occur in a number of ways.
* Errors can occur during DNA replication, DNA repair, or DNA recombination.
* These can lead to base-pair substitutions, insertions, or deletions, as well as mutations affecting longer stretches of DNA.
* These are called *spontaneous mutations*.
* **Mutagens** are chemical or physical agents that interact with DNA to cause mutations.
* Physical agents include high-energy radiation like X-rays and ultraviolet light.
* Chemical mutagens may operate in several ways.
* Some chemicals are base analogues that may be substituted into DNA, but that pair incorrectly during DNA replication.
* Other mutagens interfere with DNA replication by inserting into DNA and distorting the double helix.
* Still others cause chemical changes in bases that change their pairing properties.
* Researchers have developed various methods to test the mutagenic activity of different chemicals.
* These tests are often used as a preliminary screen of chemicals to identify those that may cause cancer.
* This makes sense because most carcinogens are mutagenic and most mutagens are carcinogenic.

**6. What is a gene? *revisiting the question***

* The Mendelian concept of a gene views it as a discrete unit of inheritance that affects phenotype.
* Morgan and his colleagues assigned genes to specific loci on chromosomes.
* We can also view a gene as a specific nucleotide sequence along a region of a DNA molecule.
* We can define a gene functionally as a DNA sequence that codes for a specific polypeptide chain.
* Transcription, RNA processing, and translation are the processes that link DNA sequences to the synthesis of a specific polypeptide chain.
* Even the one gene-one polypeptide definition must be refined and applied selectively.
* Most eukaryotic genes contain large introns that have no corresponding segments in polypeptides.
* Promotors and other regulatory regions of DNA are not transcribed either, but they must be present for transcription to occur.
* Our definition must also include the various types of RNA that are not translated into polypeptides.
* *A gene is a region of DNA whose final product is either a polypeptide or an RNA molecule.*