

Manipulating and sequencing DNA

Chem 210

2/9/00

Where are we so far?

- The primary component of genes is *DNA*.
- The *sequence of nucleotides* within genes encodes information.
- Most genes code for the synthesis of *proteins*--the nucleotide sequences determine amino acid sequences (according to the *genetic code*)
- DNA contains a template for its own replication.

The human genome

- A *genome* is the collection of genetic information contained within the cell.
- The human genome is contained on 23 chromosomes (most cells have two copies, one from each parent, to make 46 total).
- There are about 100,000 genes in the human genome.
- There are about 3.3×10^9 nucleotide base pairs of DNA.
- Some organelles also contain DNA; the mitochondrial genome has 35 genes with 16,569 base pairs.
- By comparison: the *E. coli* genome contains about 5000 genes with about 5×10^6 base pairs of DNA.

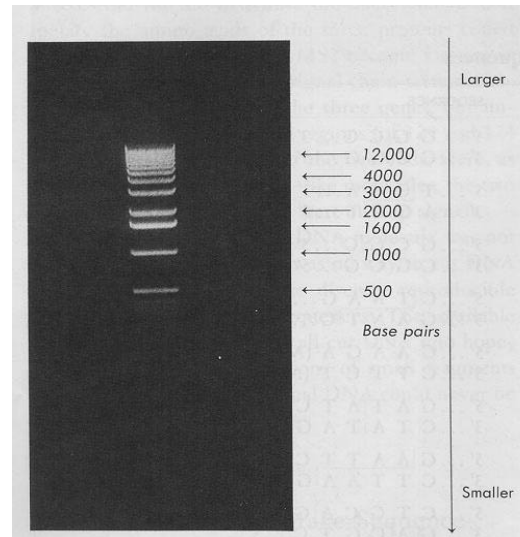
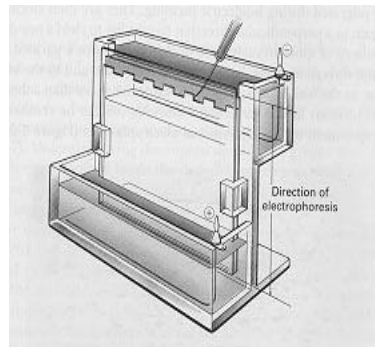
The human genome project

- A major research program directed mapping and sequencing all 100,000 genes of the human genome.
- The end result should be a detailed molecular blueprint.
- In the process, many genes associated with diseases have/will be identified.

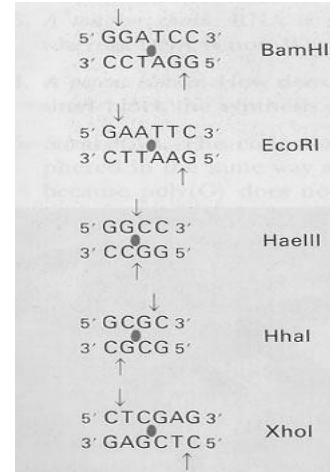
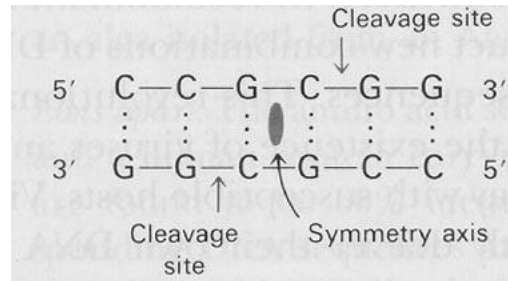
Molecular biologists have developed a versatile tool box for working with DNA

- **Electrophoresis**: separate DNA strands based on size.
- **Restriction endonucleases (restriction enzymes)**: cut DNA at specific sequences.
- **DNA ligases**: covalently attach two different strands of DNA.
- **Reverse transcriptase**: synthesizes a DNA strand from an RNA template.
- **DNA polymerases**: synthesize new DNA strands from a DNA template.
- **DNA sequencing**: determine the sequence of a DNA strand

Electrophoresis can be used to separate DNA fragments by size



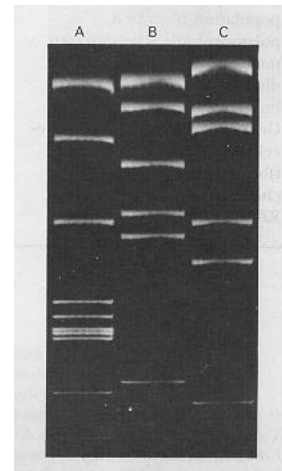
Restriction enzymes cleave DNA at specific sequences



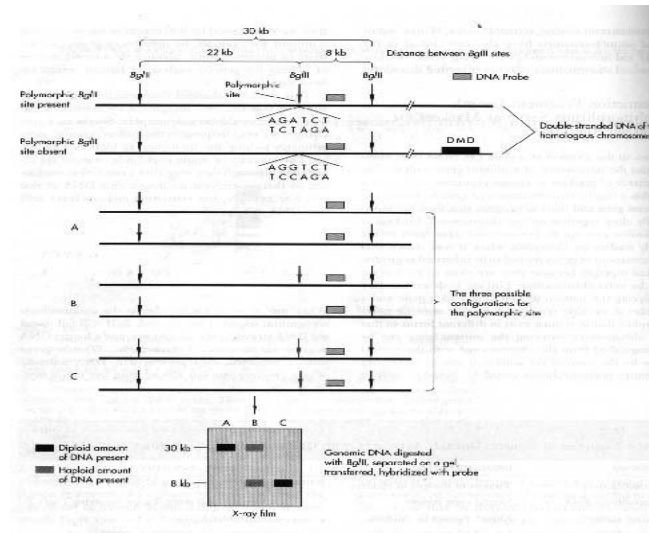
- Usually cleave at palindromic sequences.
- Can cleave to leave “sticky ends” or “blunt ends”
- Many restriction enzymes are known

Chromosomes can be analyzed by a restriction enzyme map

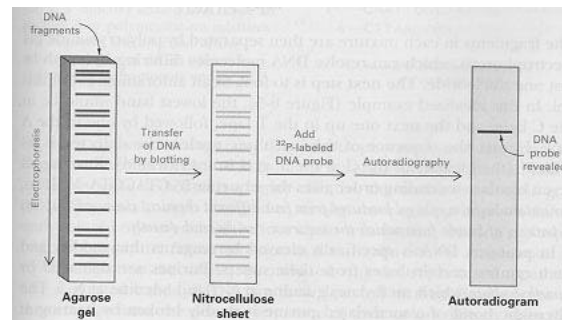
- Cut a large piece of DNA with a restriction enzyme;
- A large piece of DNA will likely contain multiple restriction enzyme cleavage sites;
- Two pieces of DNA can be compared based on the number of fragments (and size of fragments) produced by a restriction enzyme digest.
- This provides “low resolution” information on a DNA sequence.



Diseases can be detected by restriction fragment length polymorphisms (RFLPs)



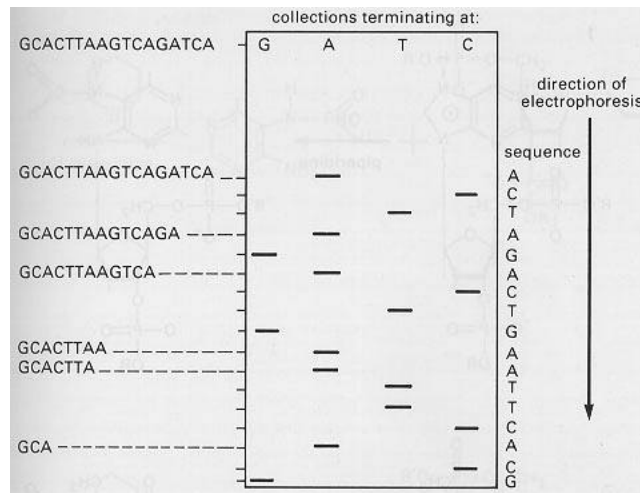
DNA fragments in gels can be probed by Southern blotting



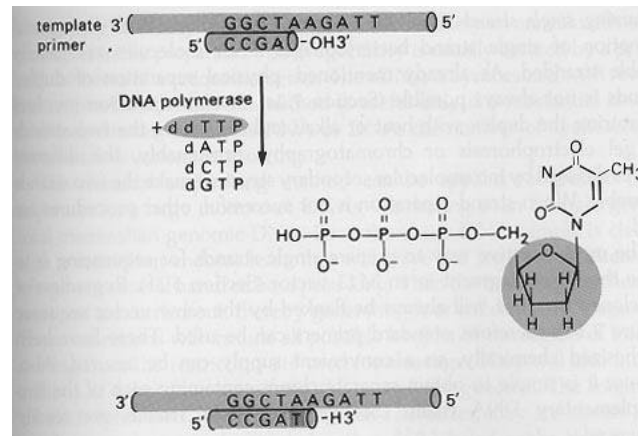
There are two major strategies for DNA sequencing

- Maxam-Gilbert method: use chemical techniques to break DNA into fragments; analyze fragments by electrophoresis
- Sanger (dideoxy- terminator) method: use enzymatic digestion to break DNA into fragments; analyze by electrophoresis

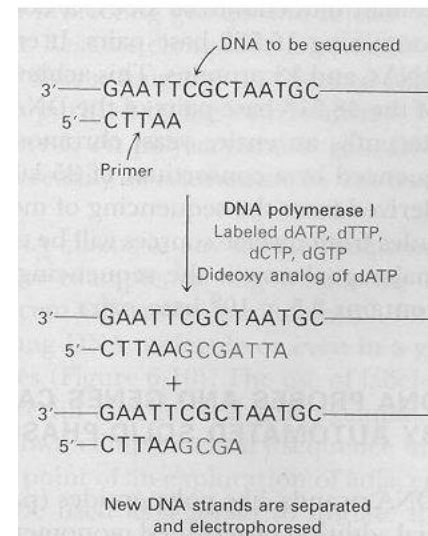
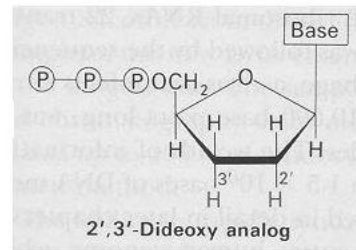
Maxam-Gilbert sequencing



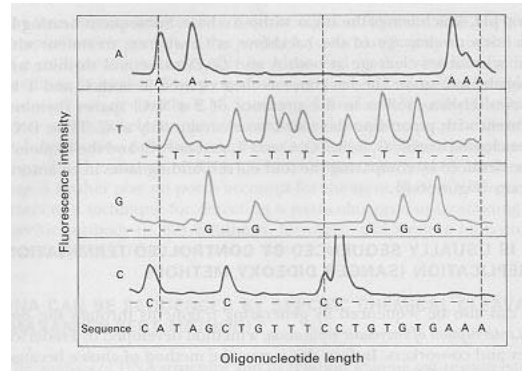
Sanger sequencing: general scheme



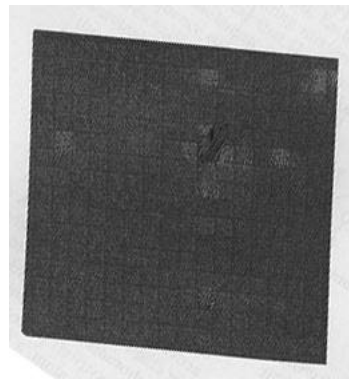
DNA polymerase cannot extend a chain once a dideoxy nucleotide has been incorporated



The Sanger method can be combined with fluorescence detection and automated



DNA chips may be a quick method of obtaining sequence information



- An array of oligonucleotides can be chemically attached to a silicon chip (like a computer chip).
- The chip is then exposed to an oligonucleotide of unknown sequence.
- An electrical or optical signal is produced if the unknown oligonucleotide binds to one of the oligos in the array.

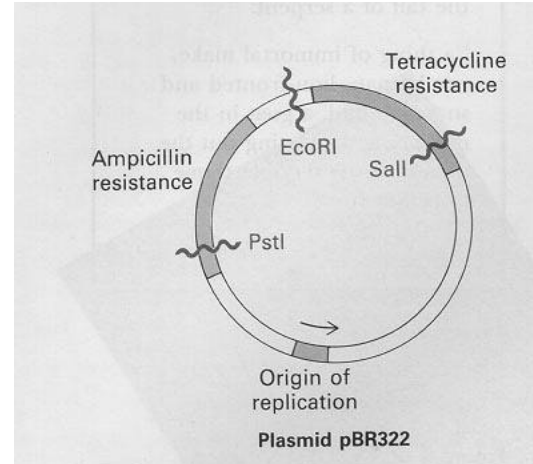
How do we get the DNA to analyze? DNA cloning: making copies of DNA

- Cloning of genomic DNA: break the chromosomal DNA into pieces, make a lot of copies of these fragments.
 - Advantage: get the “real” DNA to analyze
 - Disadvantage: a lot of that DNA can’t be understood (introns, repeat sequences, etc.).
- Cloning “cDNA”: the DNA which is complementary to the RNA of a cell.
 - Advantage: get the important, coding parts of the genome.
 - Disadvantage: missing all of the mysterious parts; not easy to relate to position within chromosomes.

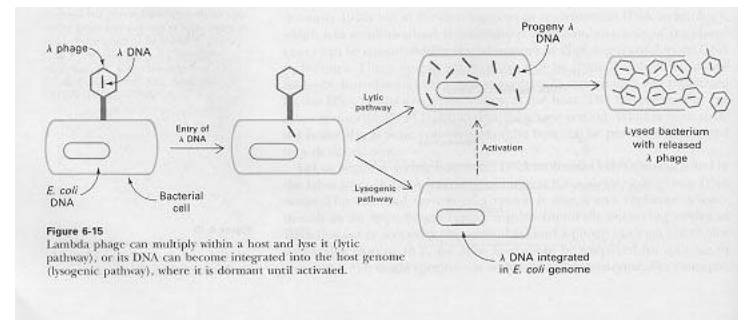
Foreign DNA can be incorporated into vectors

- Plasmids: “extra” (non-chromosomal) DNA elements carried by bacteria.
 - Plasmids are small, circular DNA strands.
 - Bacteria can pick up plasmids from the environment (*transformation*).
 - Bacteria can pass plasmids from one cell to another (*conjugation*).
- Phage: viruses which attack bacteria
 - Contain small genome (short strand of DNA)
 - Need machinery of a host cell to reproduce
 - Infect a host cell; use the cell’s machinery to make copies of itself (and its DNA).

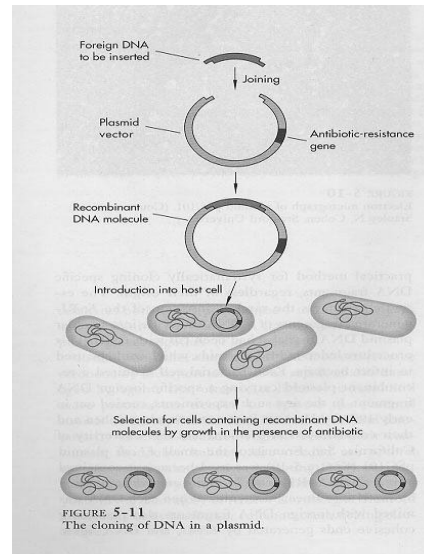
Structure of a plasmid



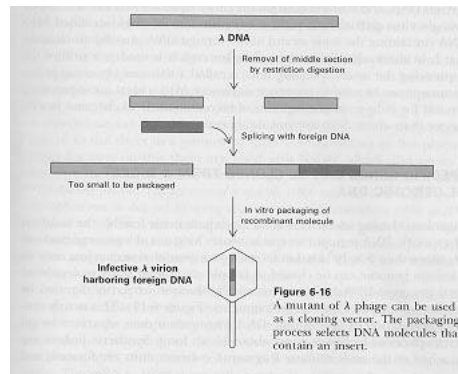
Life cycle of a bacteriophage



Cloned DNA fragments can be introduced into plasmid vectors



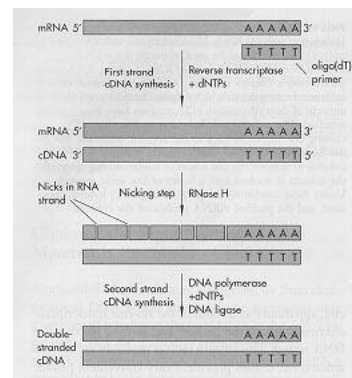
DNA can be incorporated into phage DNA



Genome DNA can be put into libraries

- Isolate chromosomal DNA and break into fragments (using physical, chemical, or enzymatic techniques).
- Insert these fragments into vectors(perhaps taking advantage of restriction-enzyme generated “sticky ends”).
- The vectors can be used to generate a large number of copies of each of the fragments.
- These “libraries” of DNA fragments can be probed by various techniques (Southern blotting, DNA chips, etc.).
- DNA from the libraries can be sequenced or analyzed for RFLPs.

RNA can be converted to DNA using *reverse transcriptase*



- Using RNA as a template, generate a DNA strand.
- This single strand of DNA can be converted to a double strand by a DNA polymerase.

mRNA can be isolated and cloned from a cell

