



Molecular Biology (1)

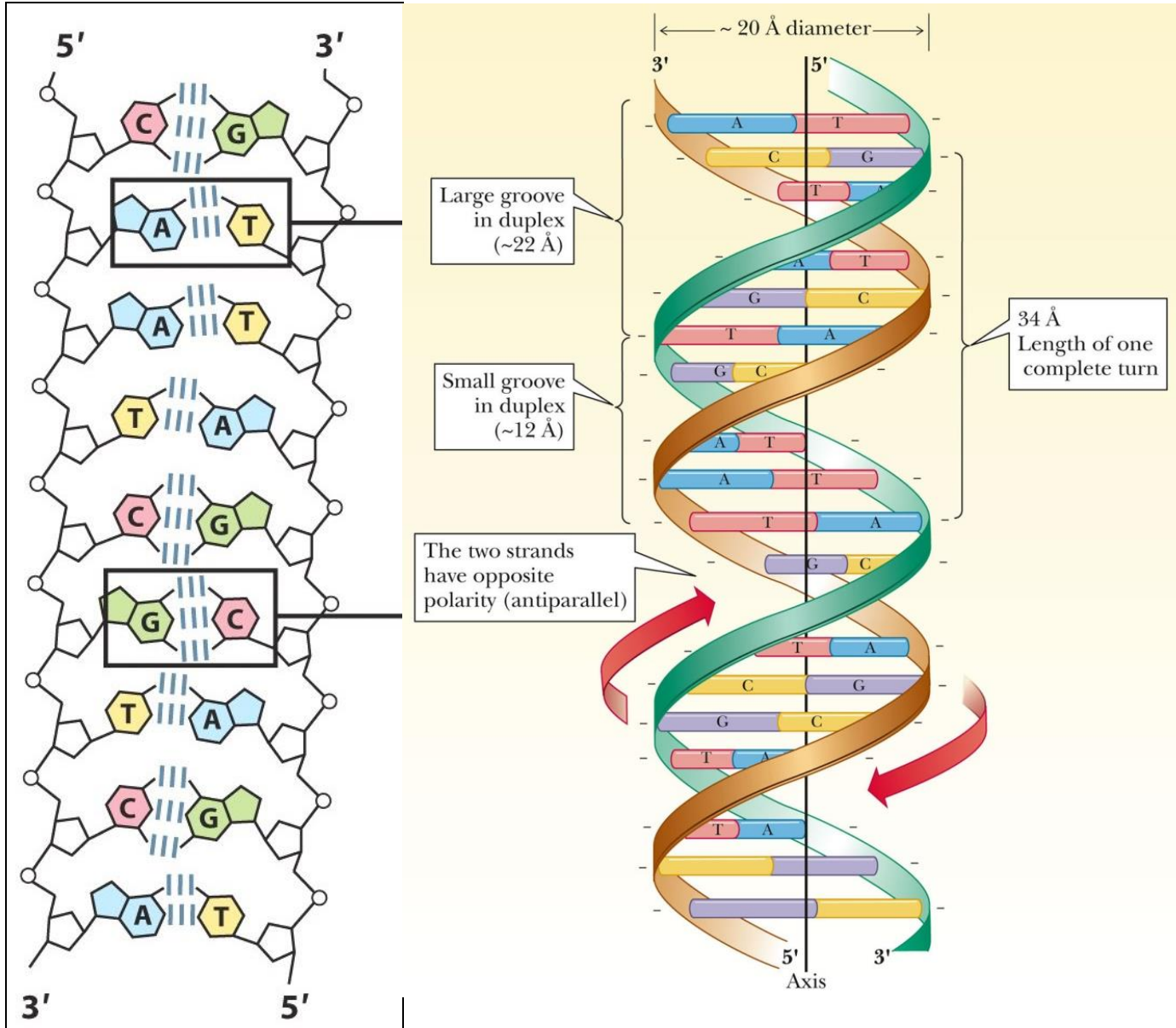
Structure of nucleic acids

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Second year, Second semester, 2024-2025

DNA structure



- The monomer
- A double helix
- Specific base-pairing
 - $A = T$; $G = C$; Pur = pyr
- Complementary
- Backbone vs. side chains
- Antiparallel
- Stability vs. flexibility
- Groovings

Writing the sequence of nucleic acids

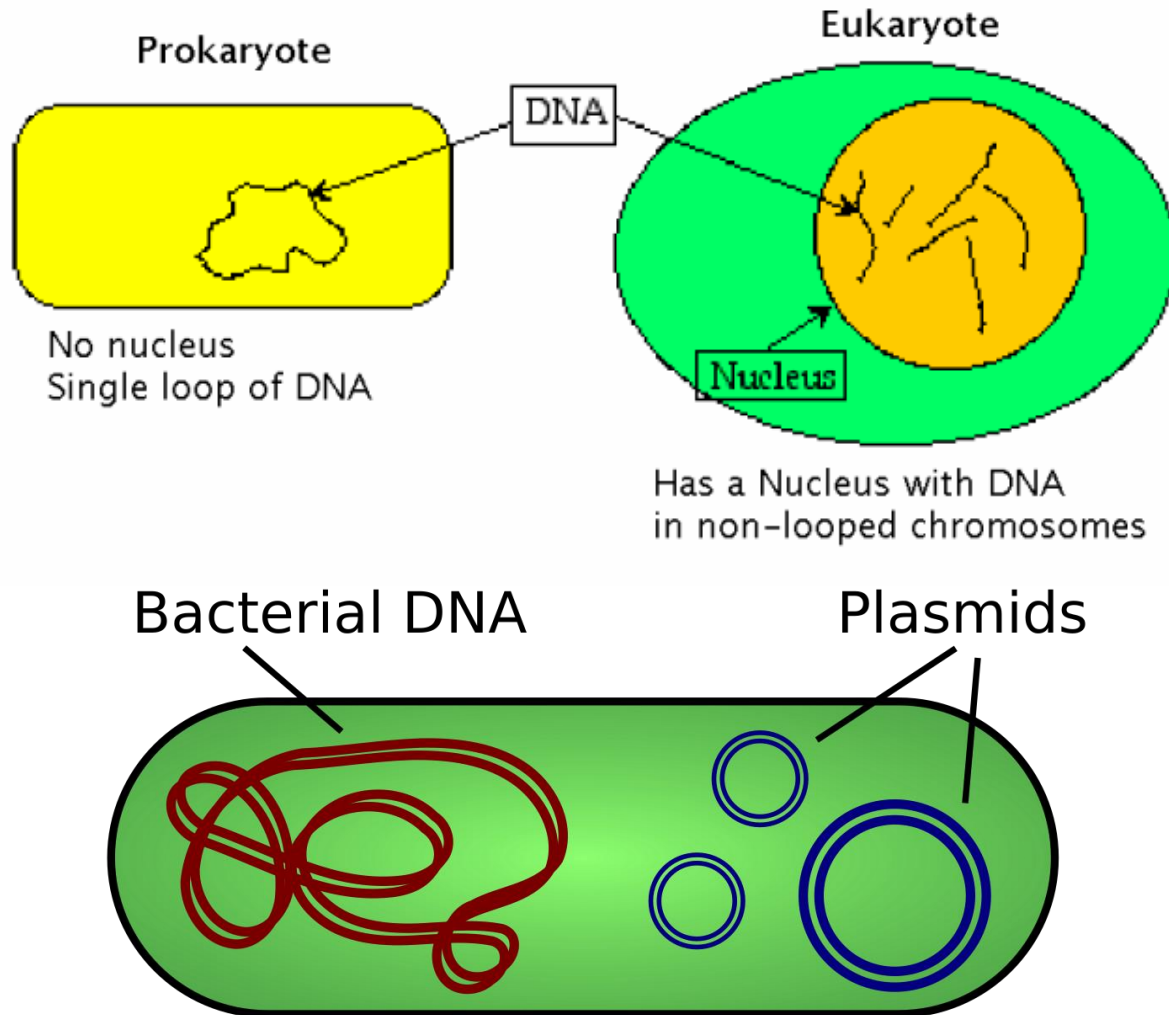


DNA 5' ...A T G G C C T G G A C T T C A... 3'
 3' ...T A C C G G A C C T G A A G T... 5'

OR A T G G C C T G G A C T T C A.

RNA 5' ...A U G G C C U G G A C U U C A... 3'

The genome of prokaryotes versus eukaryotes

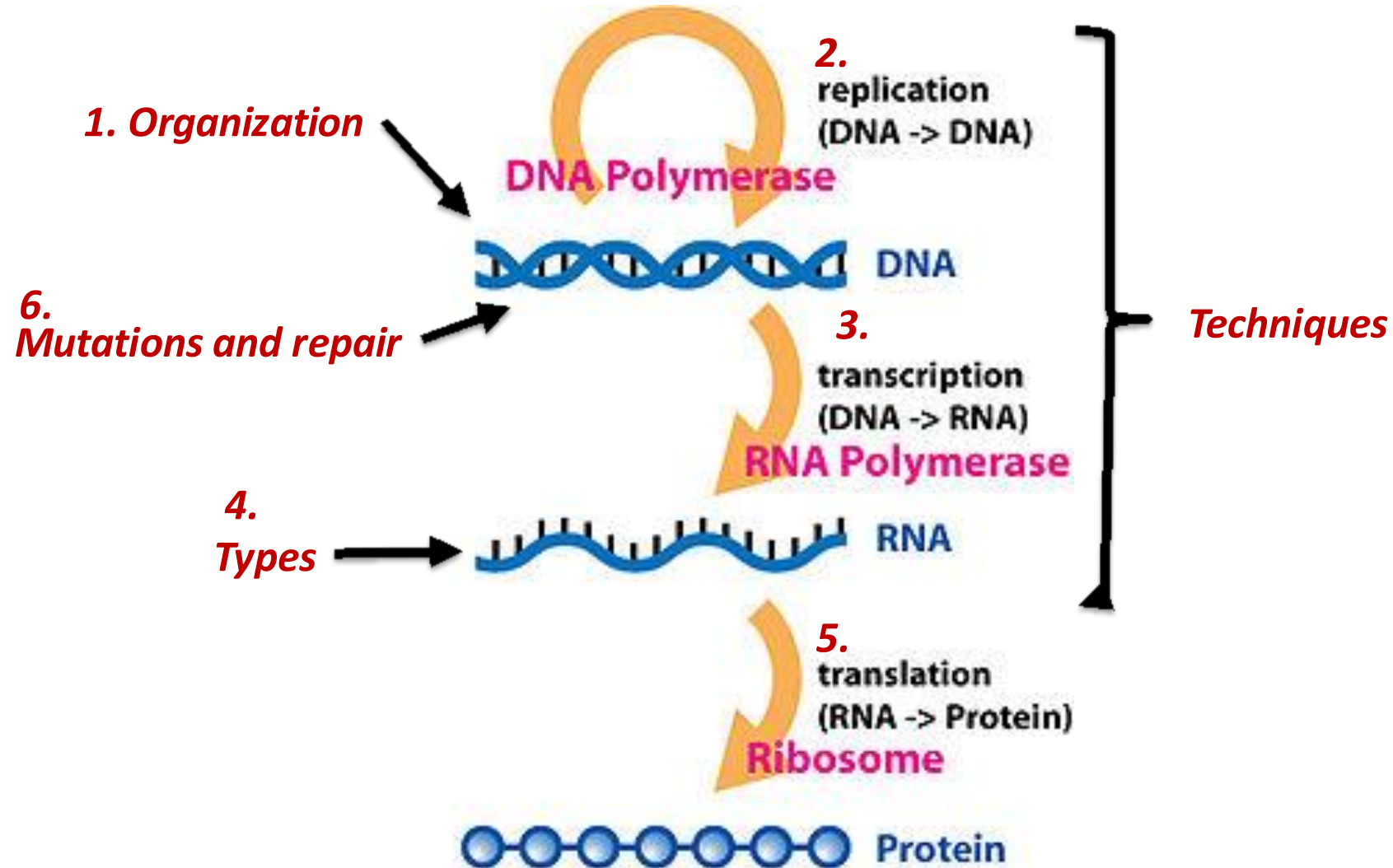


- Genome: the total genetic material of a living being (bacteria vs. human), a species (monkey vs. human), an individual (me vs. you), or a cell (brain vs. liver), etc.
- Prokaryote: circular genome + plasmid
- Eukaryote: a linear, nuclear genome (chromosomes) + mitochondrial genome

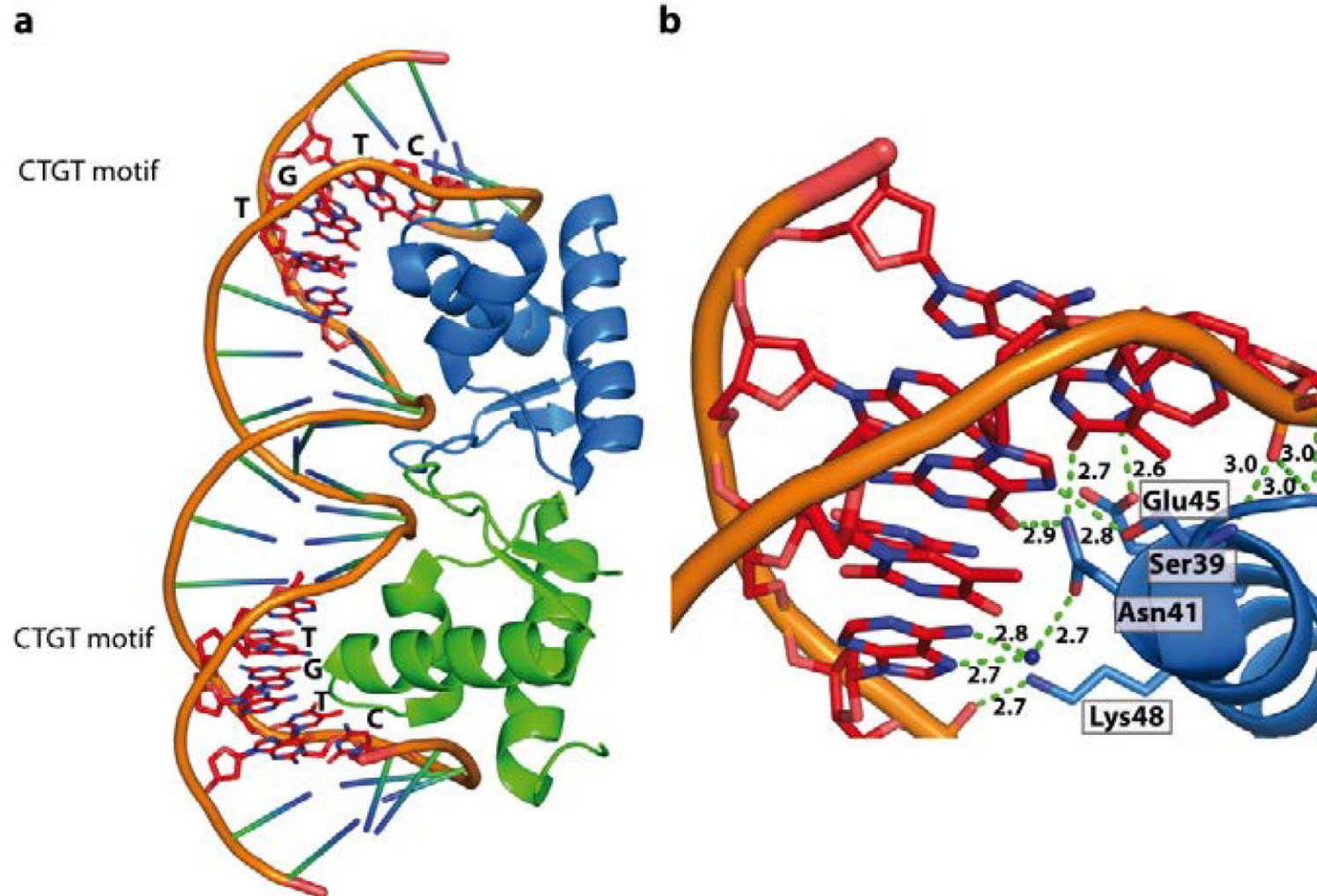


What is molecular biology?

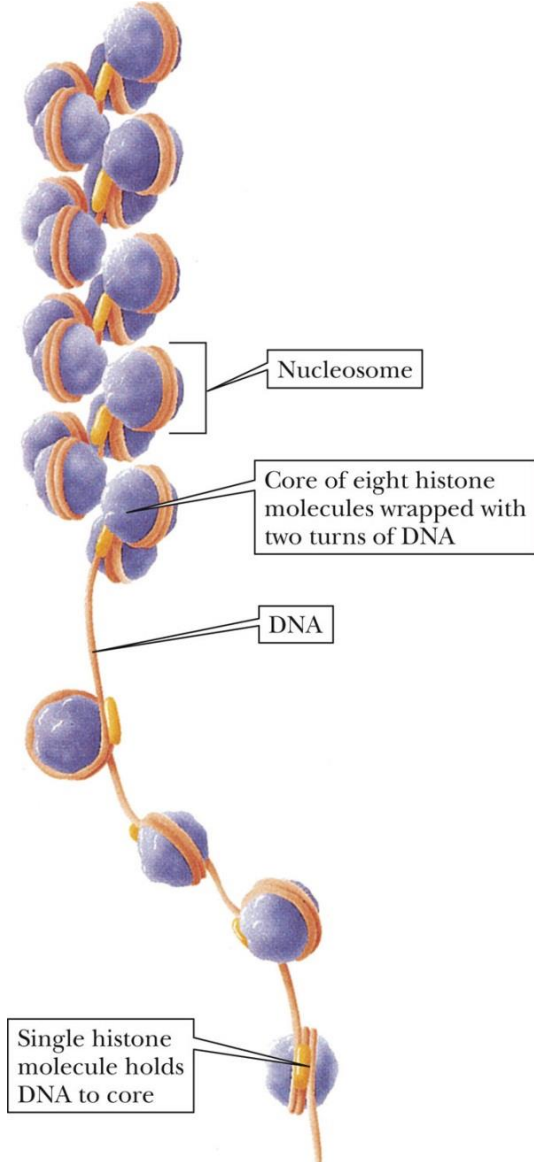
Central dogma of molecular biology



DNA-protein interaction



In eukaryotes...



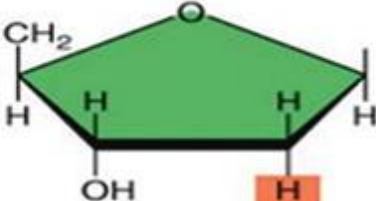
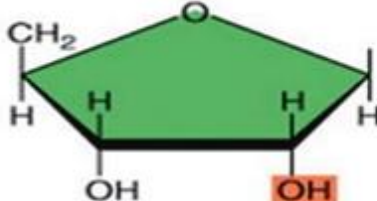
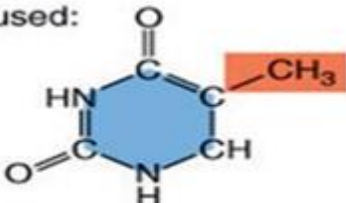
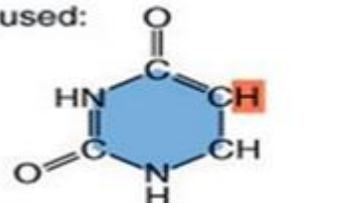


- In eukaryotes, DNA is coiled to package the large, linear DNA.
- Eukaryotic DNA is complexed with a number of proteins, principally histones, which package DNA.
- Chromatin = DNA molecule + proteins.
- The basic structural unit of chromatin is known as a nucleosome.

In prokaryotes and eukaryotes (not viruses)



DNA vs. RNA

	
<u>Double-stranded</u>	<u>Generally single-stranded</u>
	
<u>Deoxyribose</u> as the sugar	<u>Ribose</u> as the sugar
Bases used: 	Bases used: 
<u>Thymine (T)</u> Cytosine (C) Adenine (A) Guanine (G)	<u>Uracil (U)</u> Cytosine (C) Adenine (A) Guanine (G)

Types of RNA



RNA species	Established function(s)
→ mRNA	Messenger for protein production
→ tRNA	Translation of RNA codon to amino acid
→ rRNA	Enzymatic and structural part of ribosomes
snRNA	Pre-mRNA processing
snoRNA	Modification of rRNA
→ miRNA	Repression of translation
piRNA	Silencing of transposons
→ lncRNA	Regulation of transcription, pre-mRNA processing, miRNA abundance and protein function

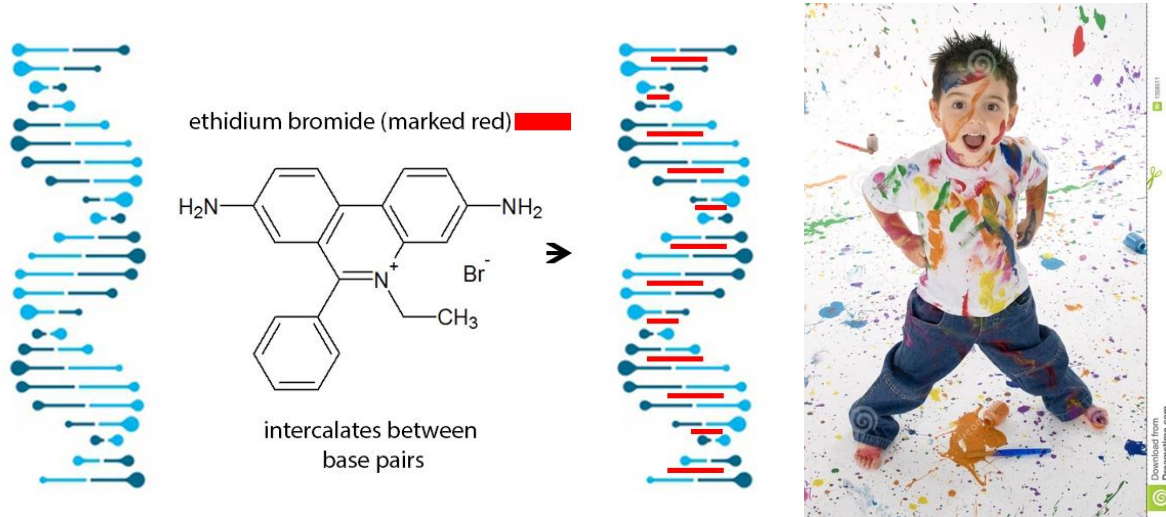


Techniques

DNA labeling versus staining

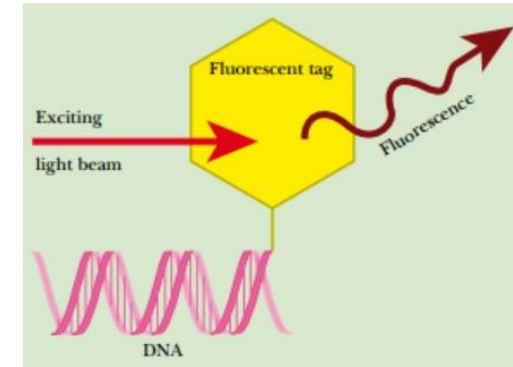


DNA staining

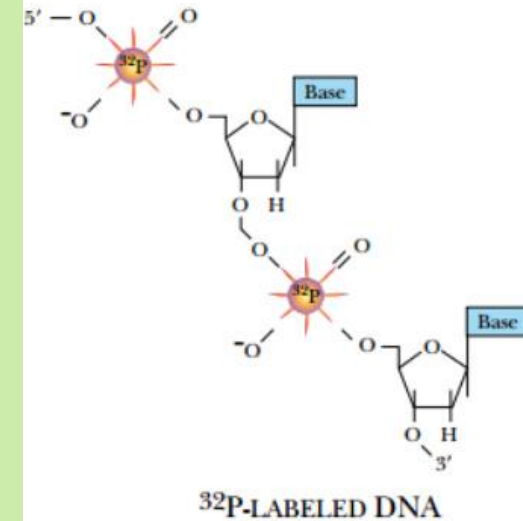


- It involves a general non-covalent interaction of a chemical dye with DNA.
- It is less specific and less sensitive.
- It is usually used to detect, visualize, and/or quantify DNA.

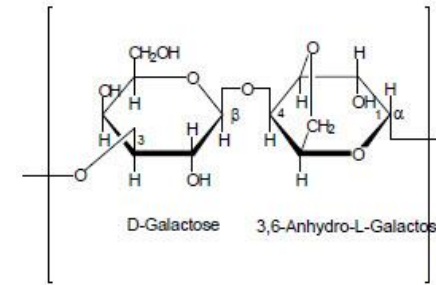
DNA Labeling (more sensitive)



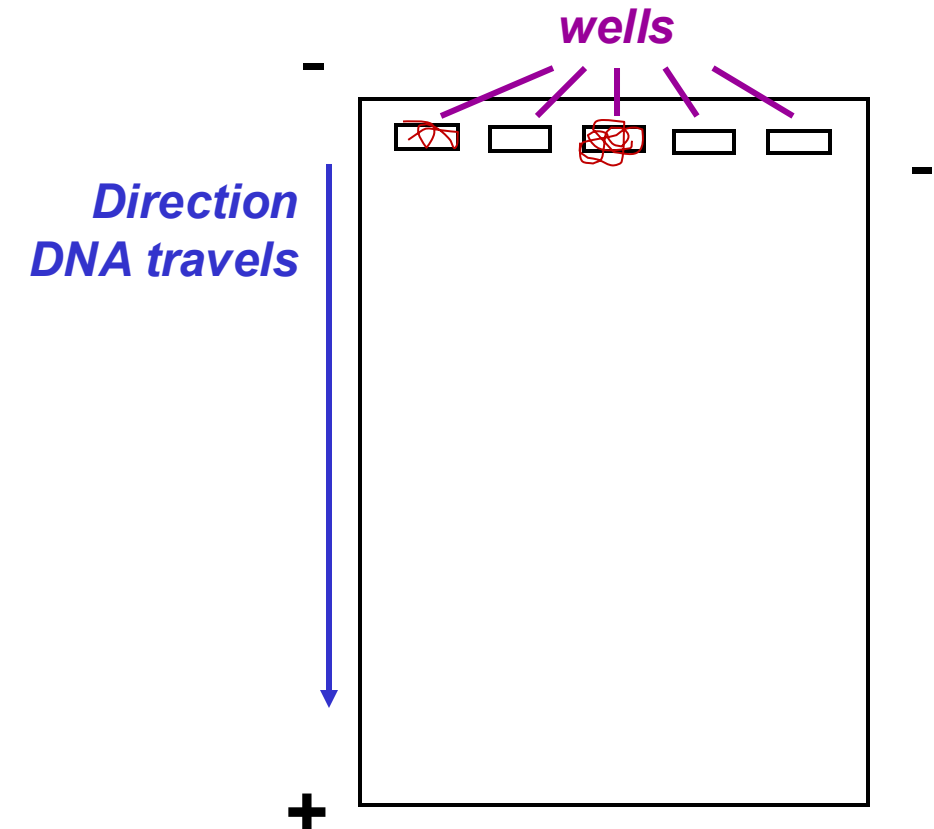
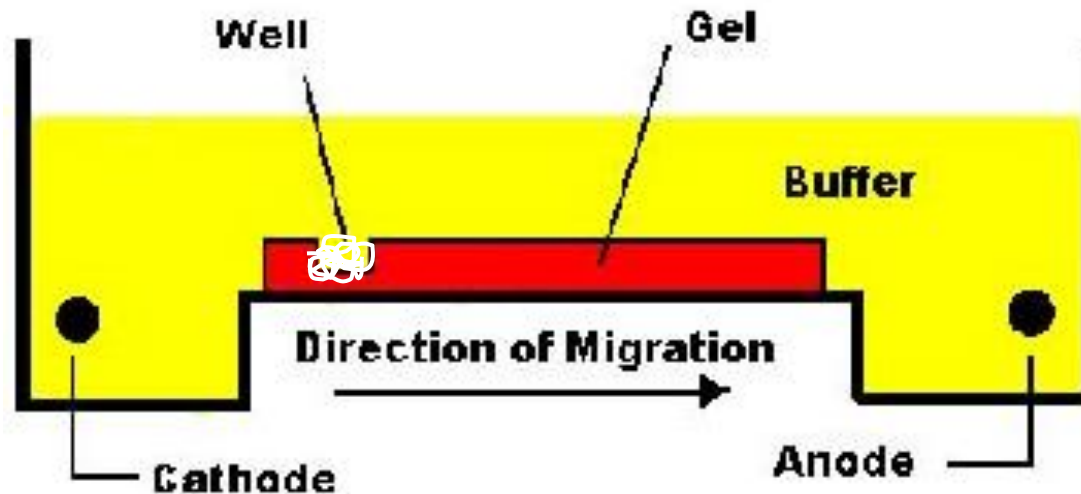
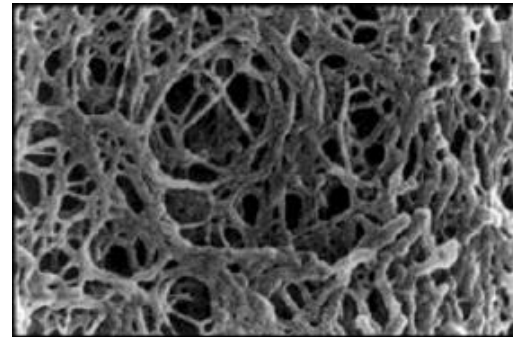
- It usually involves a covalent binding of a fluorescent tag or radioactive phosphate to DNA.
- It is usually sequence-specific.
- It is more sensitive.
- It is usually used to detect and quantify DNA.



Gel electrophoresis

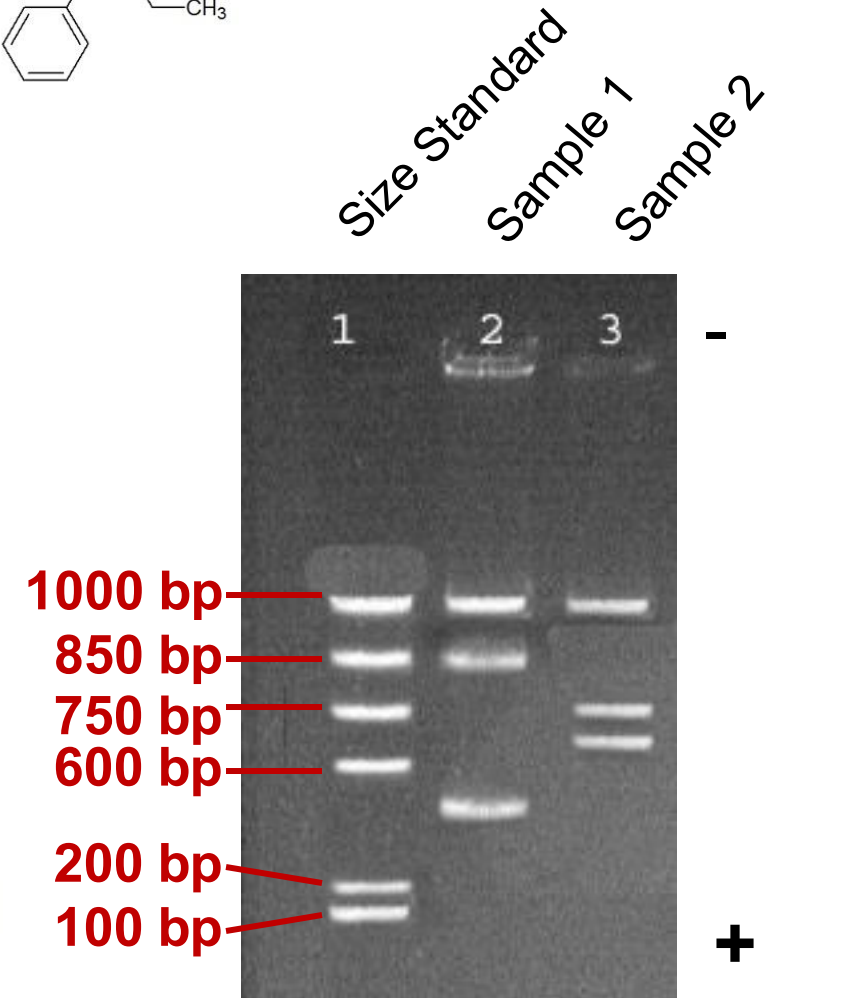
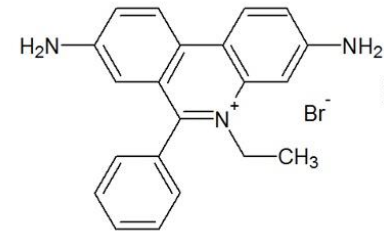
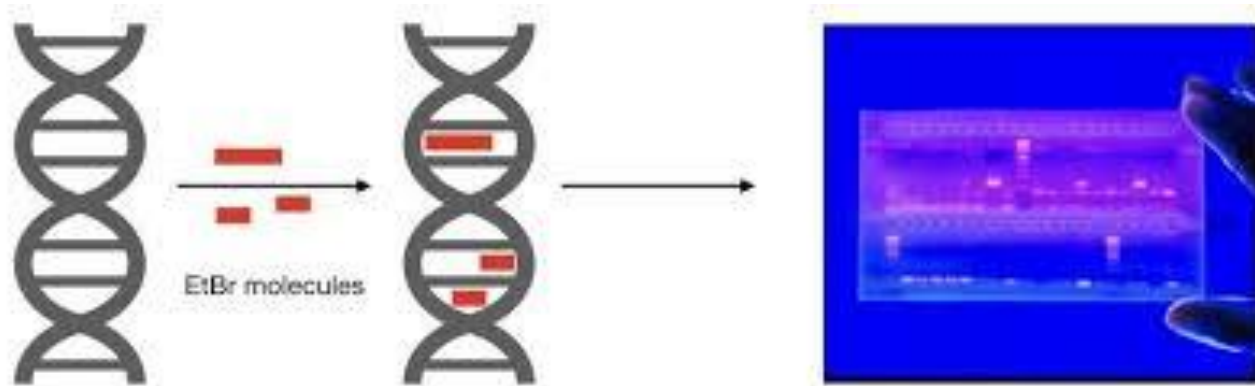


- The length and purity of DNA molecules can be accurately determined by the gel electrophoresis.



Detection

- The DNA molecules of different lengths will run as "bands".
- Each band contains thousands to millions of copies of DNA fragments of the same length but can be of same or different type (not one DNA molecule).
- DNA is stained (that is, colored) with a dye (ethidium bromide) and observed under the uv light.
- It is common that a DNA standard is used to determine the length of the examined DNA molecule.



bp: base pair

Resources

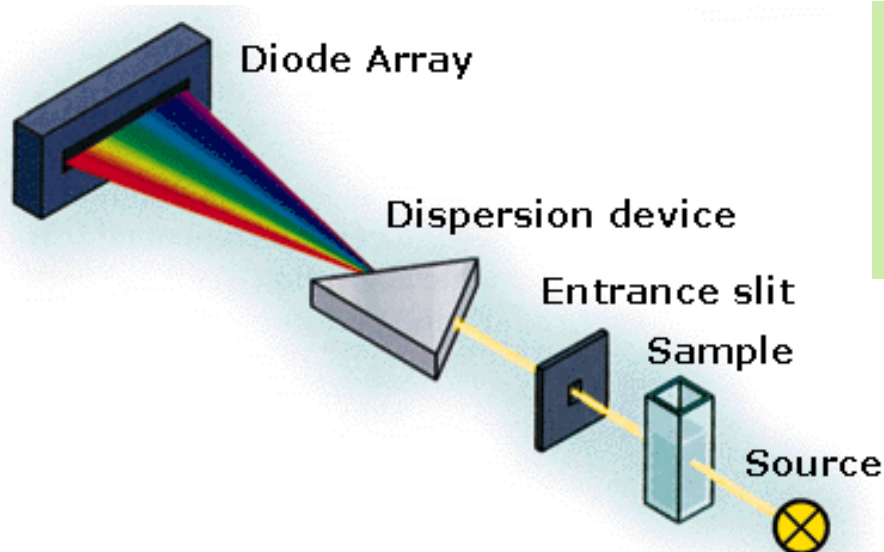


- <http://www.sumanasinc.com/webcontent/animations/content/gelelectrophoresis.html>
- Watch this....very important

Light absorbance of nucleic acids



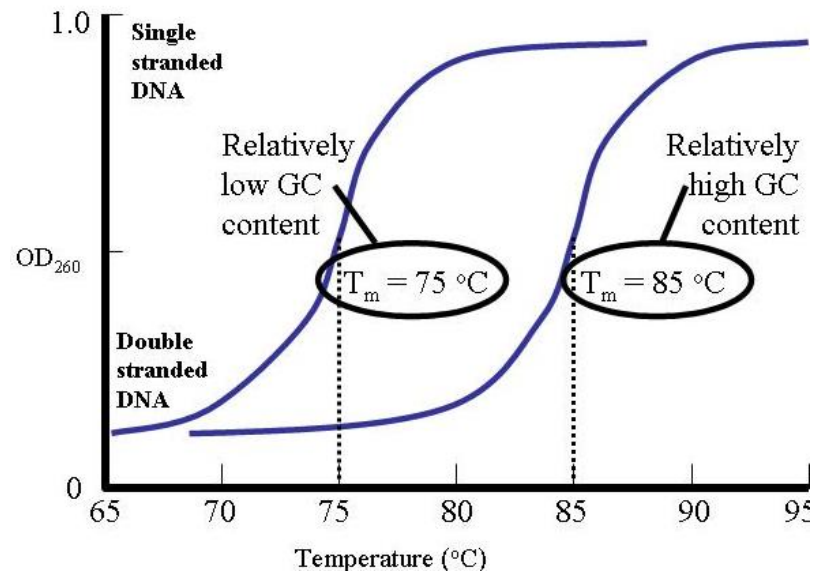
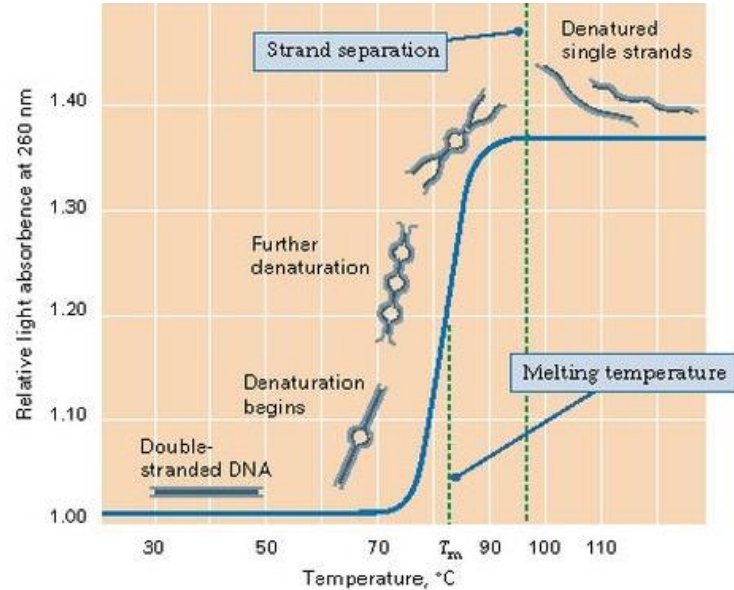
- Aromatic pyrimidines and purines can absorb UV light.
- Using spectrophotometry, the peak absorbance can be measured at 260 nm wavelength.
- The absorbance of nucleic acids at 260 nm (A_{260}) is constant
 - dsDNA: A_{260} of 1.0 = 50 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$



What is the concentration of a double stranded DNA sample diluted at 1:10 and the A_{260} is 0.1?

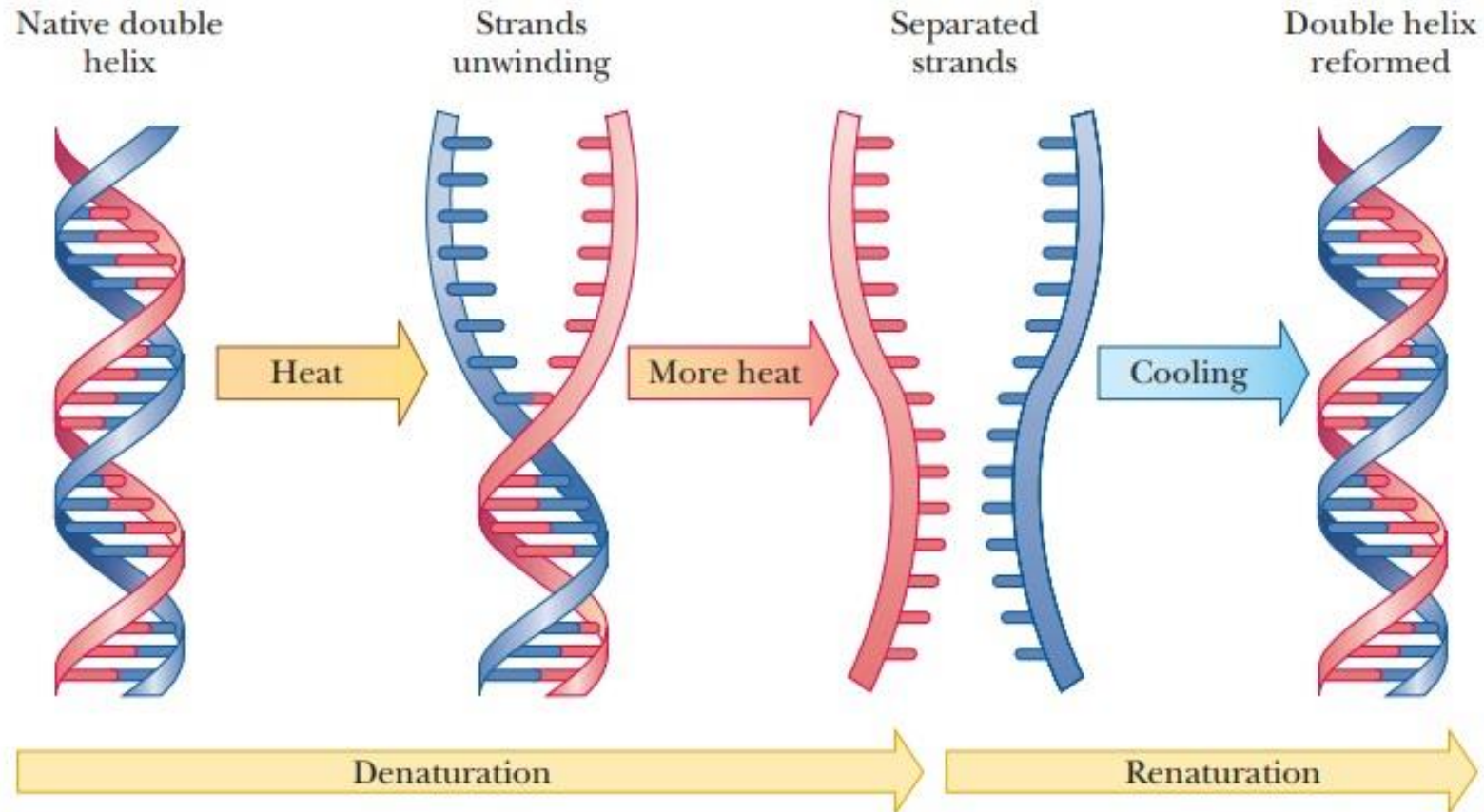
$$\begin{aligned}\text{DNA concentration} &= 0.1 \times 10 \times 50 \mu\text{g}/\text{ml} \\ &= 50 \mu\text{g}/\text{ml}\end{aligned}$$

Observation of denaturation



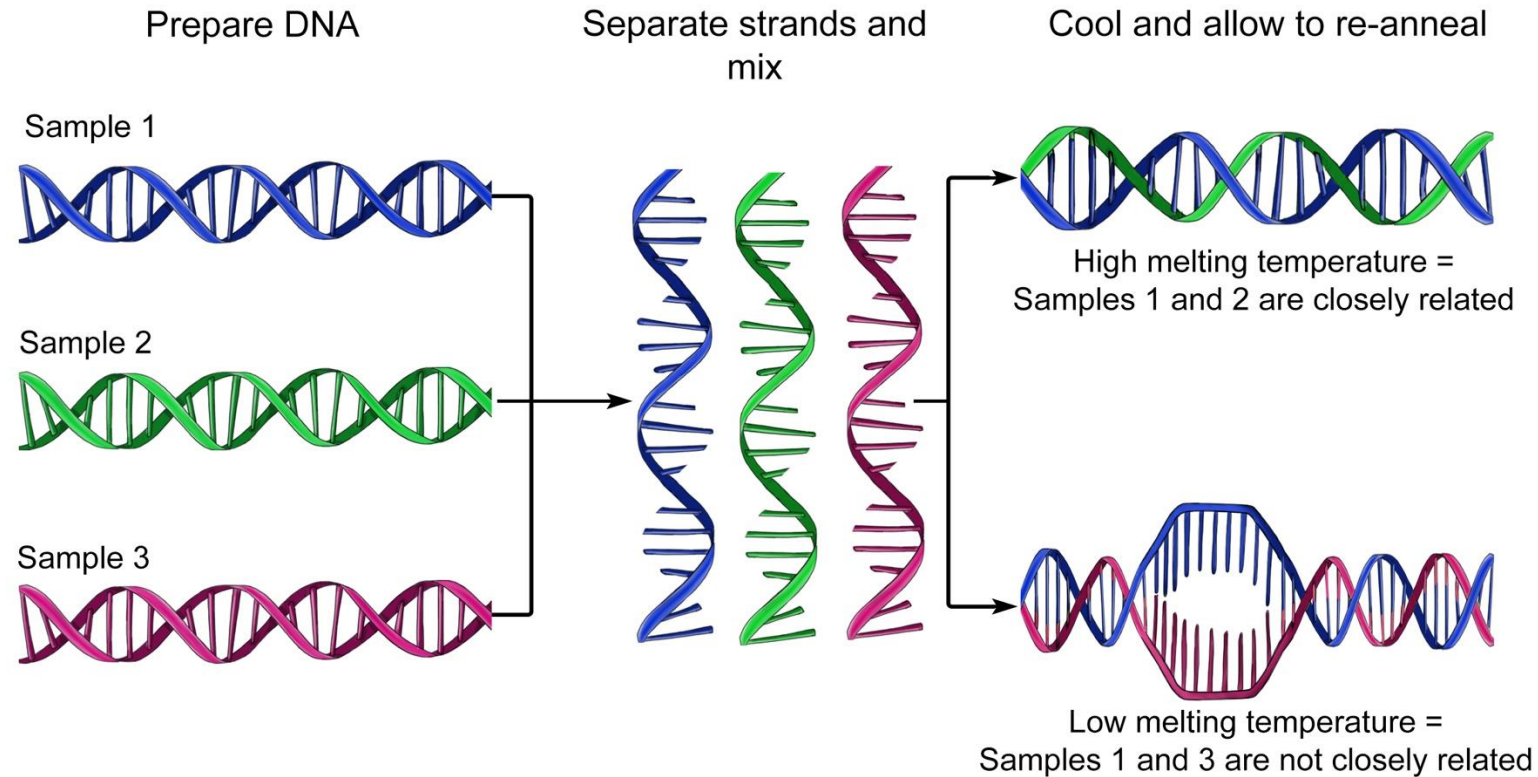
- The transition temperature or melting temperature (T_m).
- Factors influencing T_m
 - Length
 - G·C pairs
 - Hydrogen bonds
 - pH
 - Salts and ions
 - Destabilizing agents (alkaline solutions, formamide, urea)

Denaturation versus renaturation



■ **FIGURE 9.19 Helix unwinding in DNA denaturation.** The double helix unwinds when DNA is denatured, with eventual separation of the strands. The double helix is re-formed on renaturation with slow cooling and annealing.

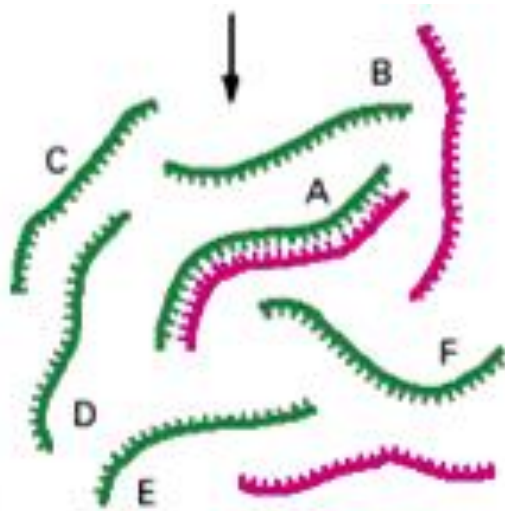
Denaturation versus hybridization



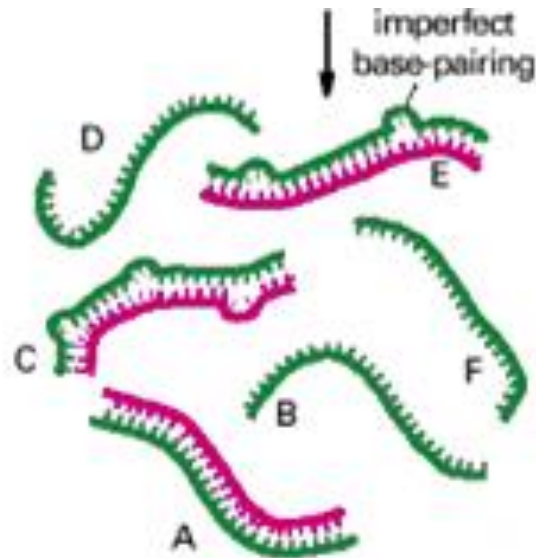
Hybridization



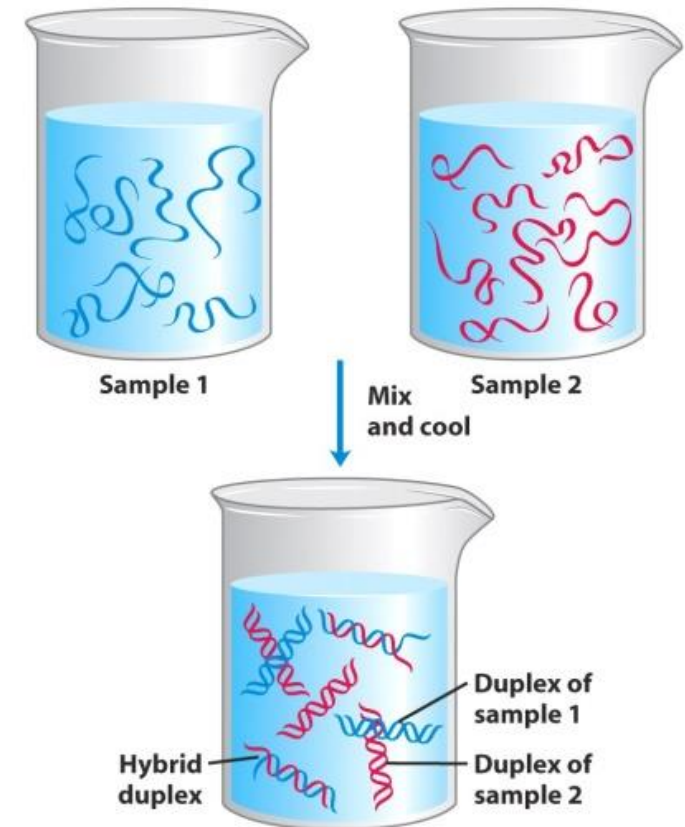
- DNA from different sources can form double helix as long as their sequences are complementary (hybrid DNA).
- Hybridization can be imperfect (when temperature is low, salt concentration is high, etc).



only A forms stable double helix



A, C, and E all form stable double helices



Hybridization can be non-specific



```
      CTCCTGTGGAGAAGTCTGC
      |||||
... CGTGGACTGAGGACACCTCTTCAGACGGCAATGAC ...
```

```
      CTCCTGTGGAGAAGTCTGC
      ||||| |||||
... CGTGGACTGAGGACTCCTCTTCAGACGGCAATGAC ...
```

Hybridization can be controlled by changing the temperature, ionic strength of solutions, GC content, etc.

Hybridization techniques

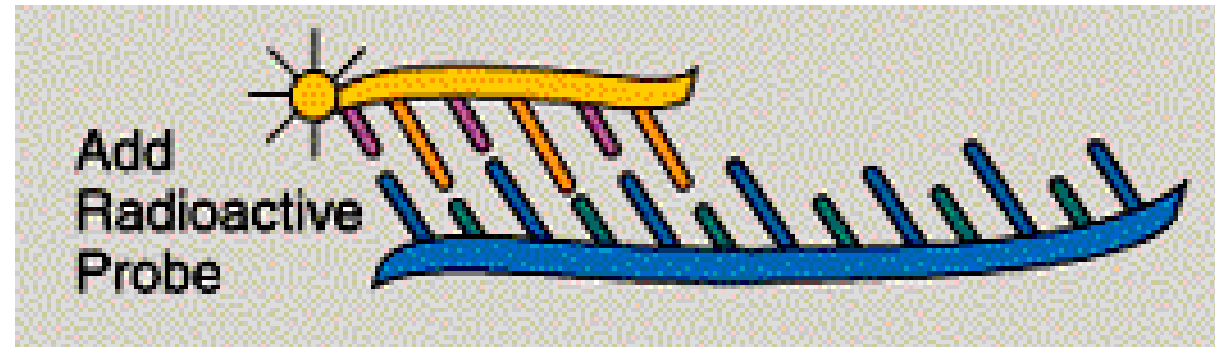


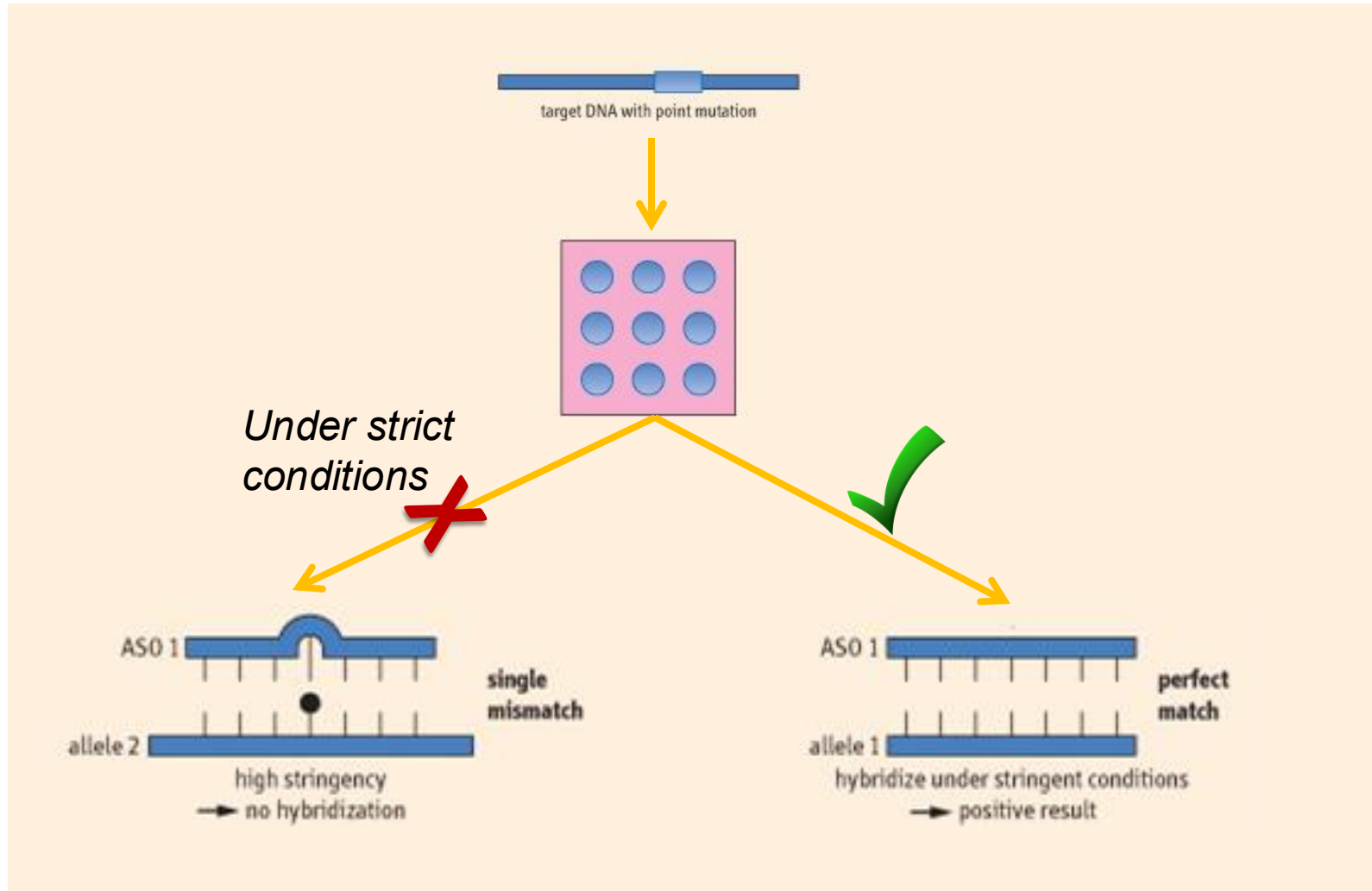
- Hybridization reactions can occur between any two single-stranded nucleic acid chains provided that they have complementary nucleotide sequences
- Hybridization reactions are used to detect and characterize specific nucleotide sequences

Probes (Oligonucleotides)

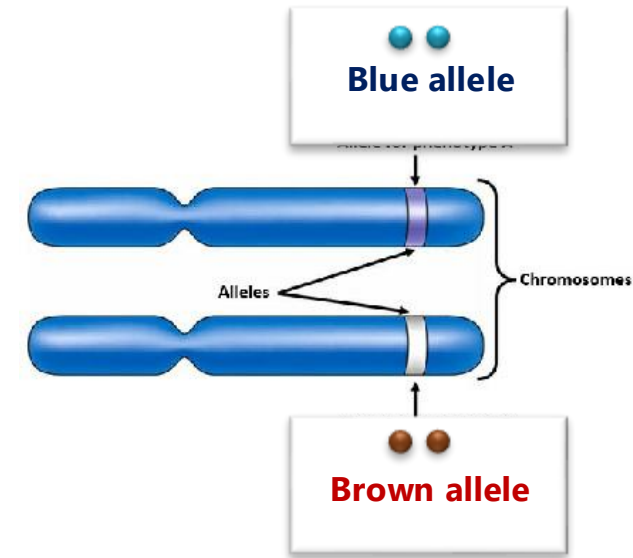
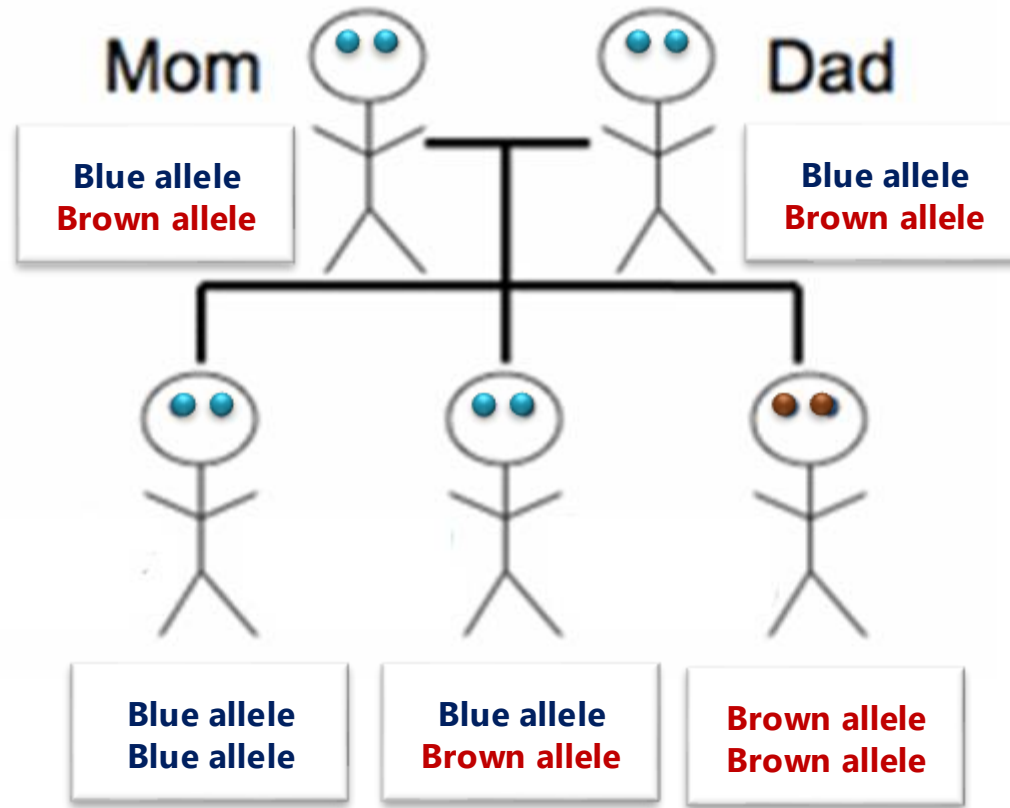


- A probe is a short sequence of single stranded DNA (an oligonucleotide) that is complementary to a small part of a larger DNA sequence.
- Hybridization reactions use labeled DNA probes to detect larger DNA fragments.





Concepts to know...



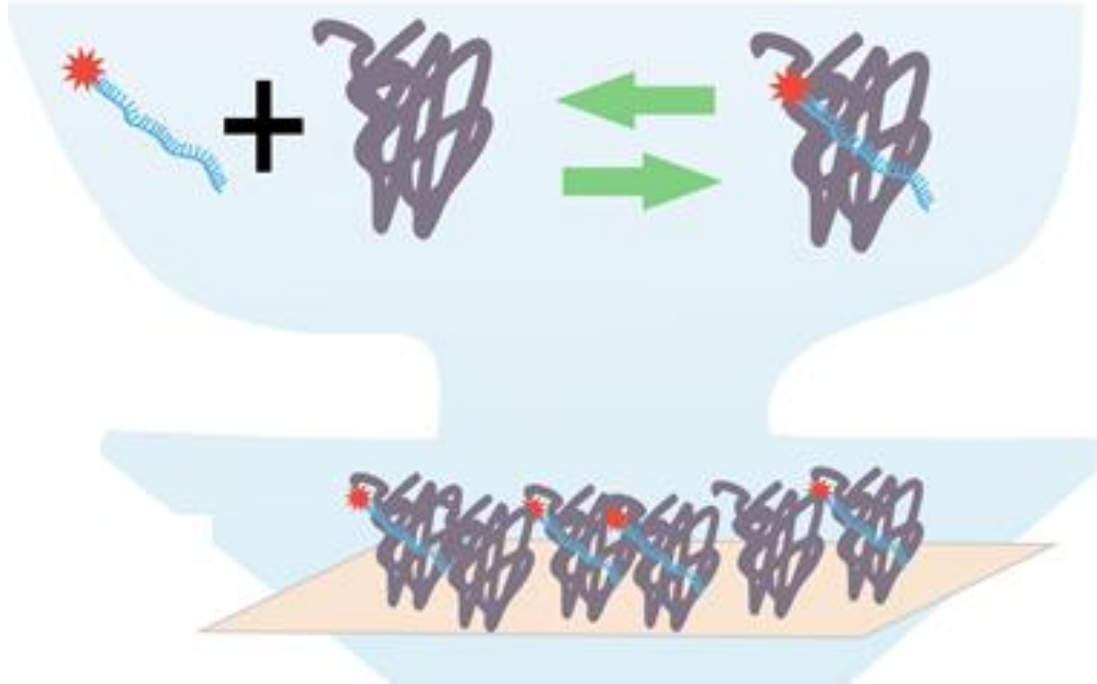
Pedigree

Allele

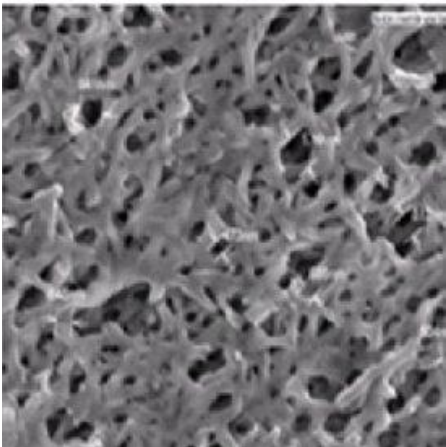
Dominant vs. recessive

Homozygous vs. heterozygous

Dot blot



- This technique informs us if a specific sequence that is complementary to a probe of a known sequence exists in a larger DNA.
- DNA is bound to a solid support and a labeled probe is added. If binding occurs, the sequence exists.



Disease detection by ASO (Cystic fibrosis)



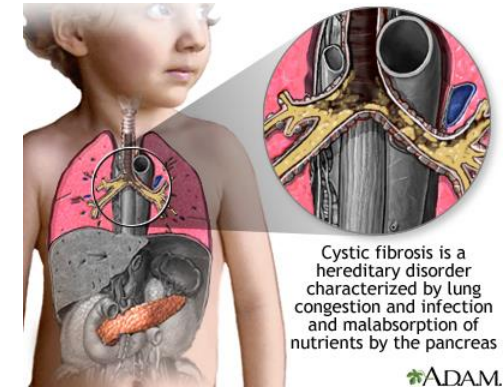
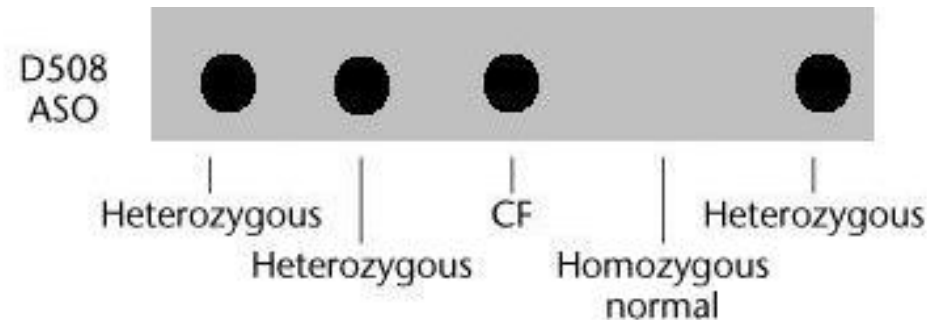
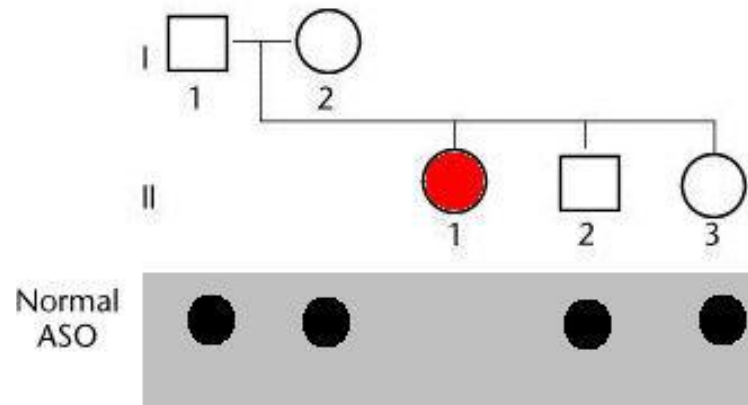
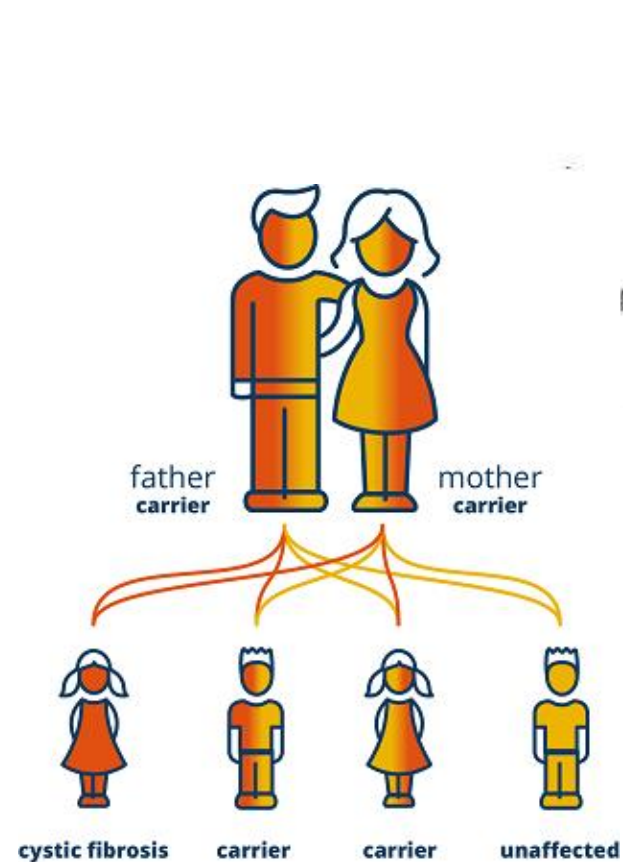
ASO: Allele-specific oligonucleotide

Cystic Fibrosis allele $\Delta 508$ has 3bp deletion [AGA]

ASO for normal DNA 5' CACCAAAGATGATATTTTC-3'

ASO for DNA sequence of $\Delta 508$ mutation 5' CACCAATGATATTTTC-3'

The whole genomic DNA is spotted on a solid support (a membrane) and hybridized with two ASO's, one at a time.



Resources

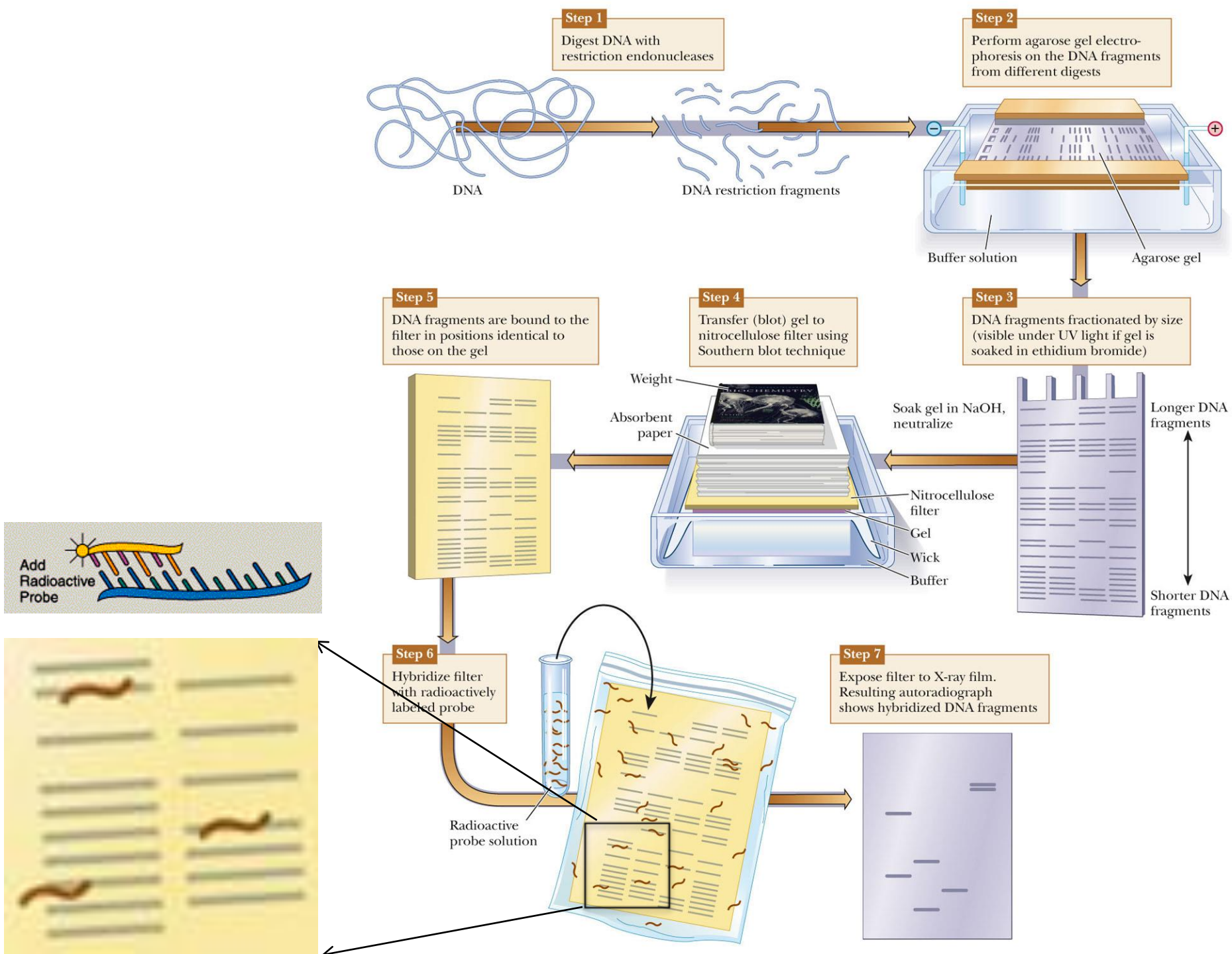


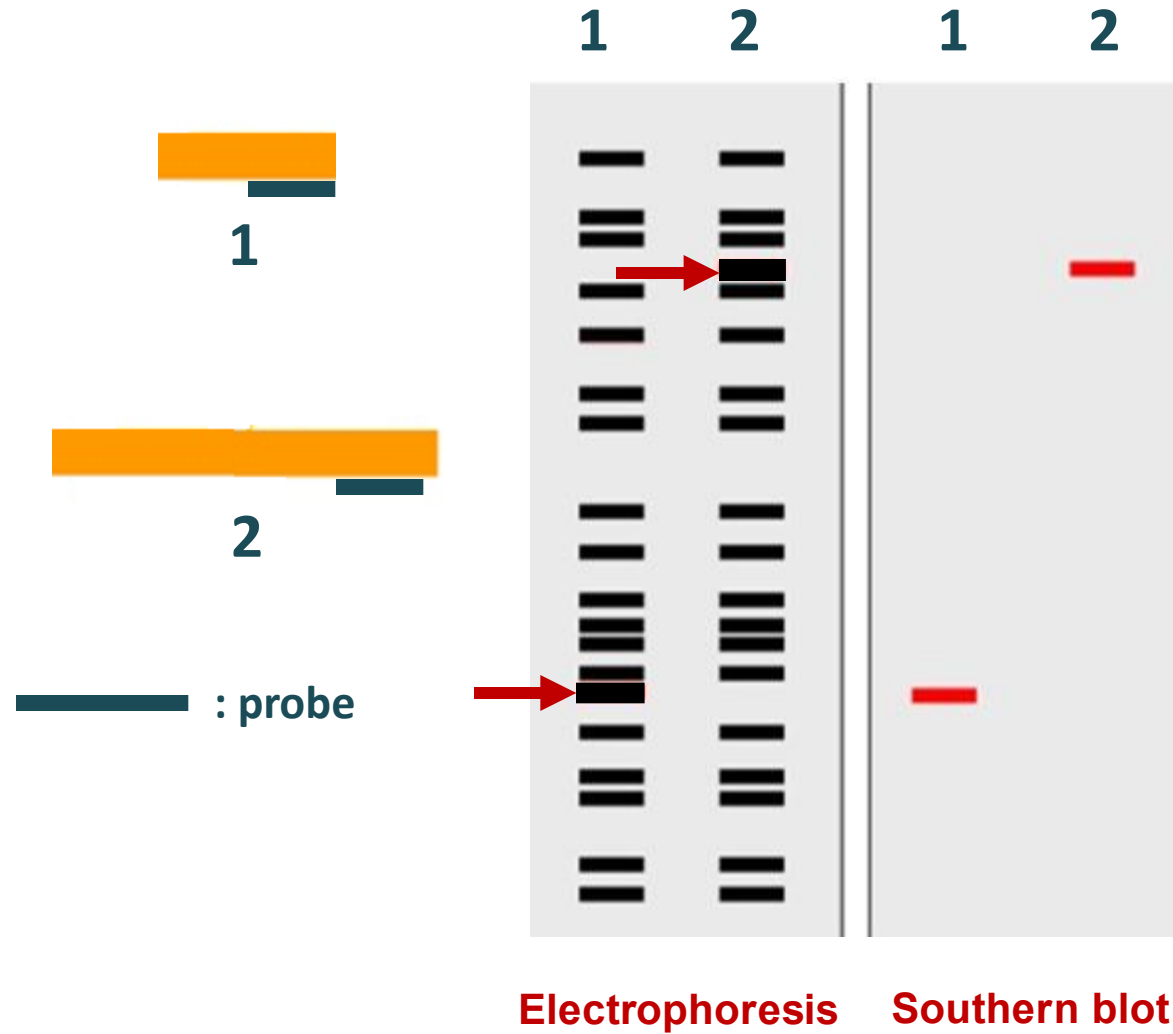
- <http://www.sumanasinc.com/webcontent/animations/content/gelelectrophoresis.html>
- Watch this....very important

Southern blotting



- This technique is a combination of DNA gel electrophoresis and dot blotting
- Used to detect:
 - the presence of a DNA segment complementary to the probe
 - the size of the DNA fragment

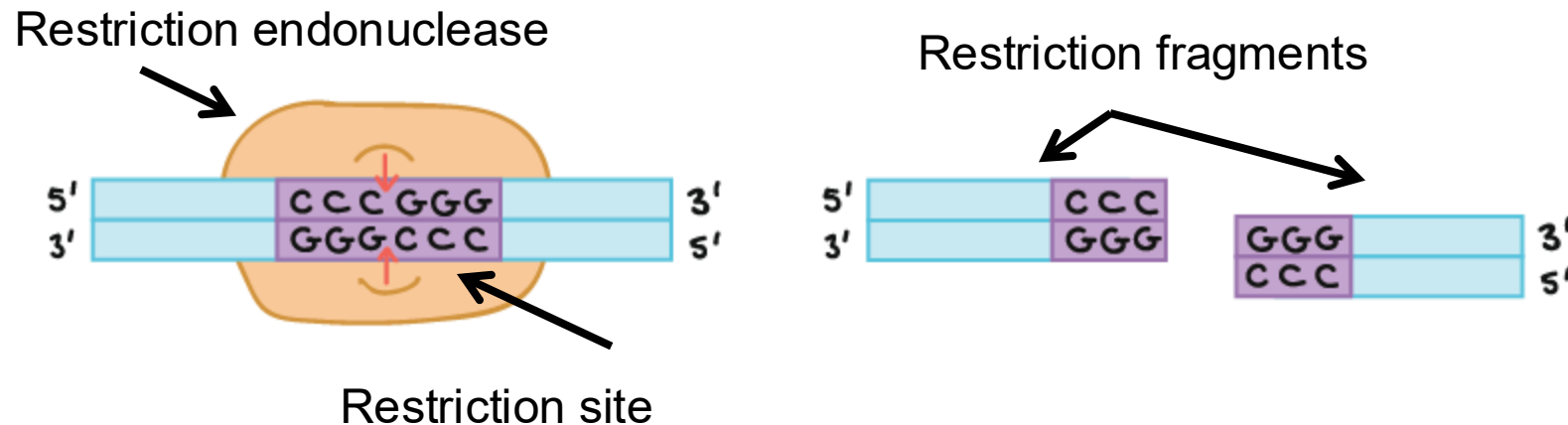




Restriction endonucleases



- Endonucleases are enzymes that degrade DNA within the molecule.
- Restriction endonucleases: Bacterial enzymes that recognize and cut (break) the phosphodiester bond between nucleotides at specific sequences (4- to 8-bp restriction sites) generating restriction fragments.



Palindromic sequences



- The sequences recognized by restriction endonucleases—their sites of action—read the same from left to right as they do from right to left (on the complementary strand).

EcoRI

5' GAATTC 3'
3' CTTAAG 5'

HindIII

5' AAGCTT 3'
3' TTCGAA 5'

SmaI

5' CCCGGG 3'
3' GGGCCC 5'

They recognize specific sequences



- The enzyme *Eco*RI recognizes and cuts within the sequence (GAATTC).

Variant 1
*Eco*RI does not cut



The DNA stays intact

Variant 2
*Eco*RI does cut

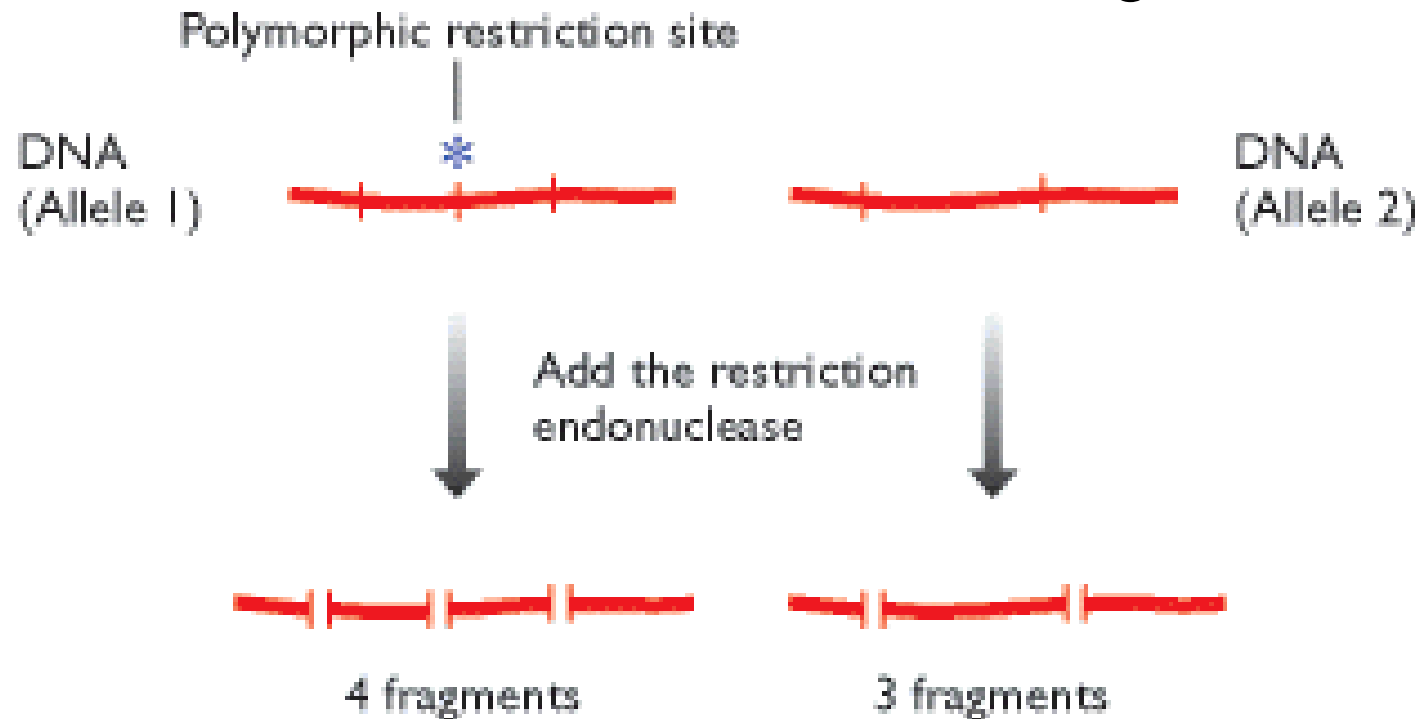


**The DNA is cut into
two pieces**

Cuts versus number of fragments



- Restriction endonucleases can cut the same DNA strand at several locations generating multiple restriction fragments of different lengths.
- What if a location on one strand is not recognized?



DNA polymorphisms



- Individual variations in DNA sequence (genetic variants) may create or remove restriction-enzyme recognition sites generating different restriction fragments.
- Remember:
 - Our cells are diploid.
 - Alleles can be homozygous or heterozygous at any DNA location or sequence.

Restriction fragment length polymorphism

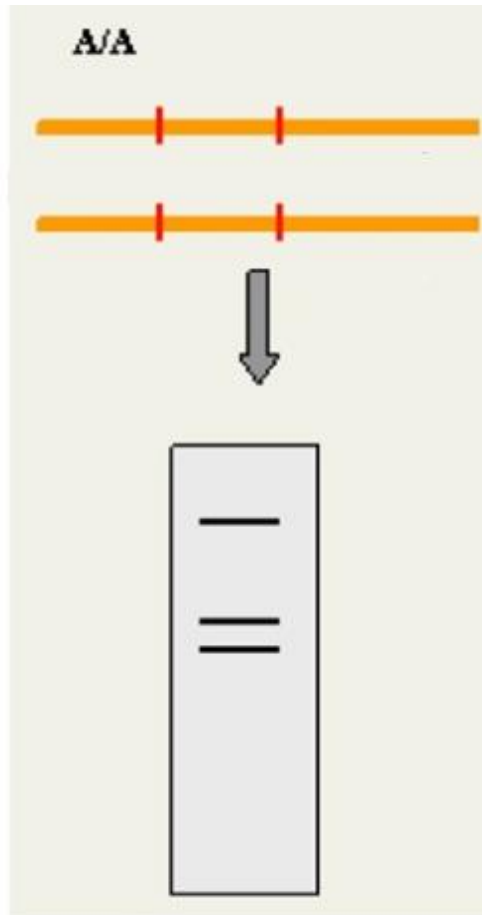


- The presence of different DNA forms in individuals generates a restriction fragment length polymorphism, or RFLP.
- Individuals can generate restriction fragments of variable lengths. This is known as molecular fingerprinting.
- These can be detected by gel electrophoresis by itself or along with Southern blotting.

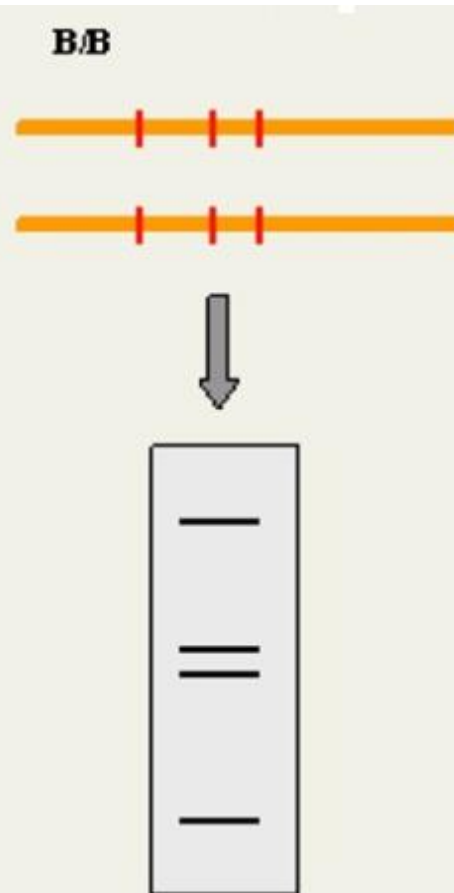
Gel electrophoresis only



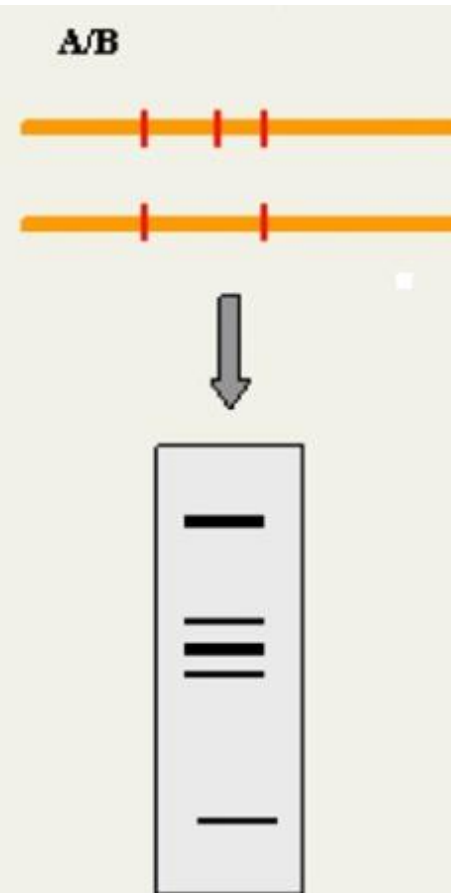
**Homozygous
individual for A**



**Homozygous
individual for B**



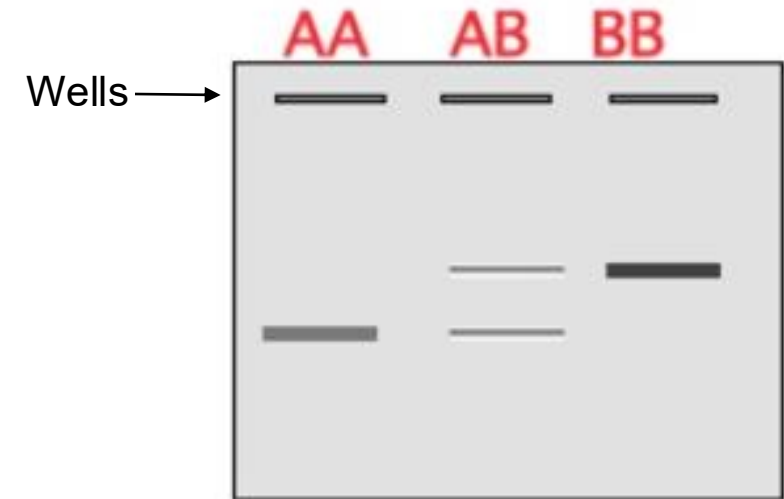
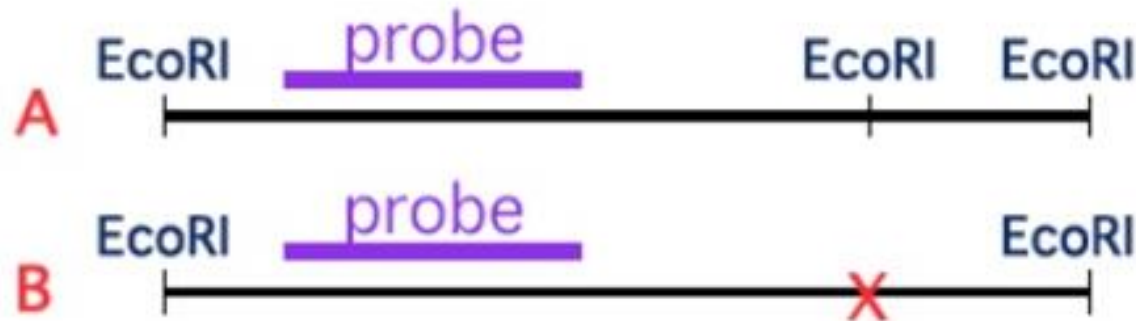
**Heterozygous
(A/B)**



Electrophoresis then blotting



- Only DNA fragments that hybridize to the probe are detected.



Note: the size of the detected DNA fragment reflects its size, not the size of the probe



RFLP in the clinic



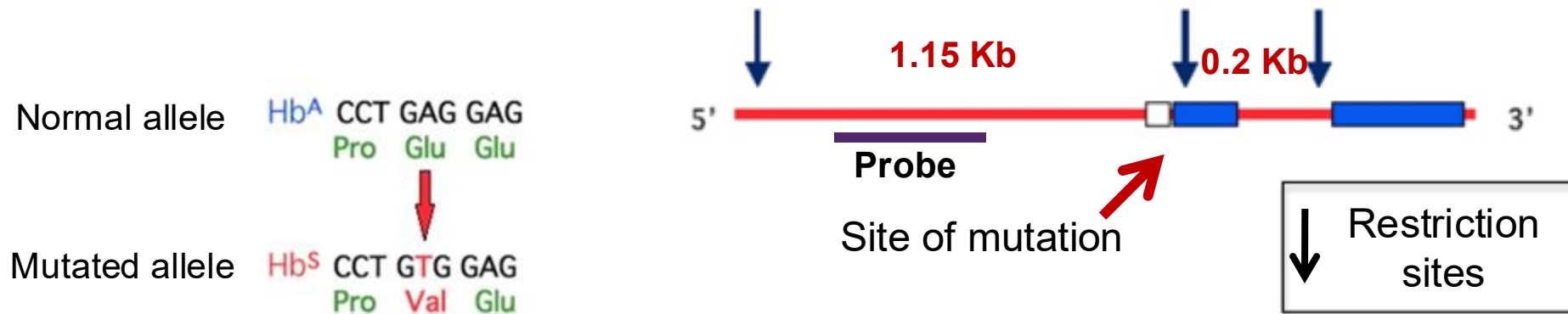
- RFLP can be used as diagnostic tools.
- For example, if a mutation that results in the development of a disease also causes the generation of distinctive RFLP fragments, then we can tell:
 - if the person is diseased as a result of this mutation
 - from which parent this allele is inherited

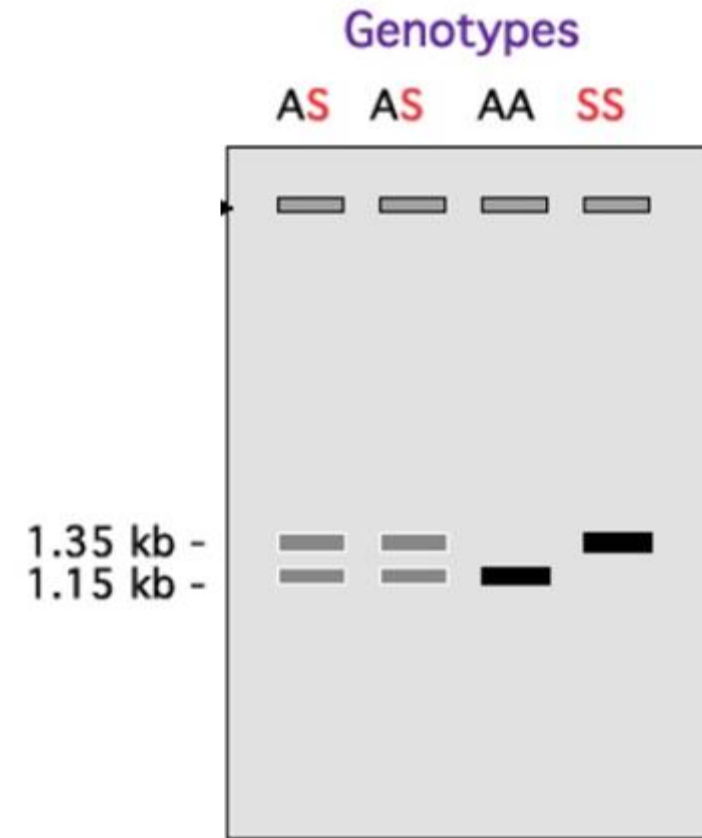
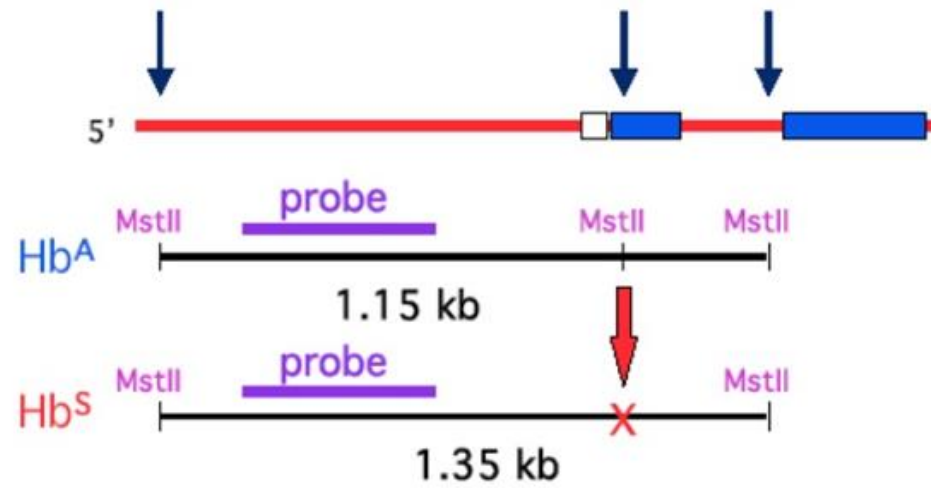


Example 1: Disease detection by RFLP

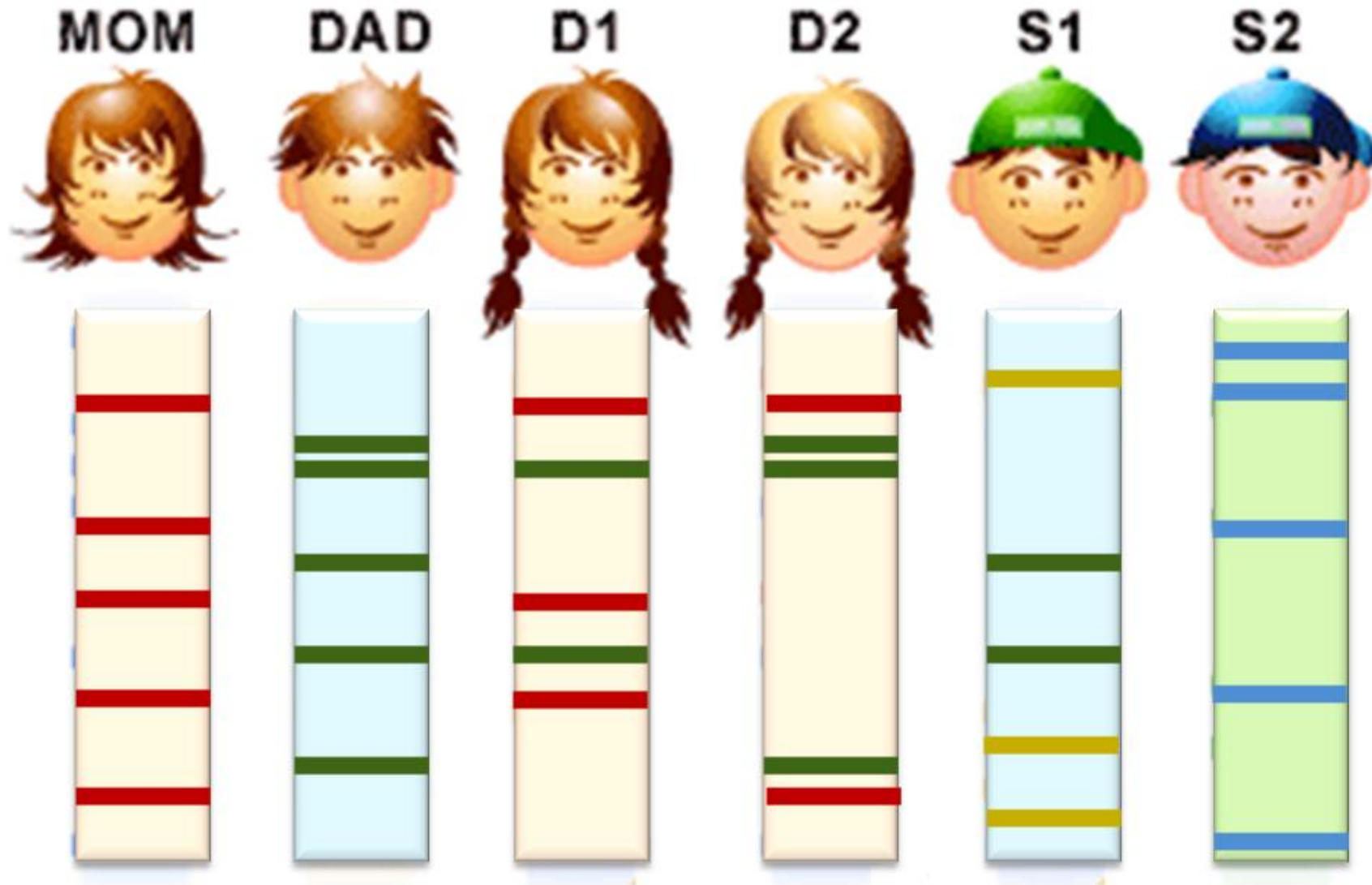
(sickle cell anemia)

- Sickle cell anemia is caused by a mutation in one nucleotide (base) in the globin gene that is responsible for making hemoglobin.
- The position of this nucleotide happens to be within a restriction site.
- Individuals can be:
 - Homozygous with two normal alleles (AA)
 - Heterozygous or carriers of one normal allele and one mutated allele (AS)
 - Homozygous for the mutated allele, or affected (SS)

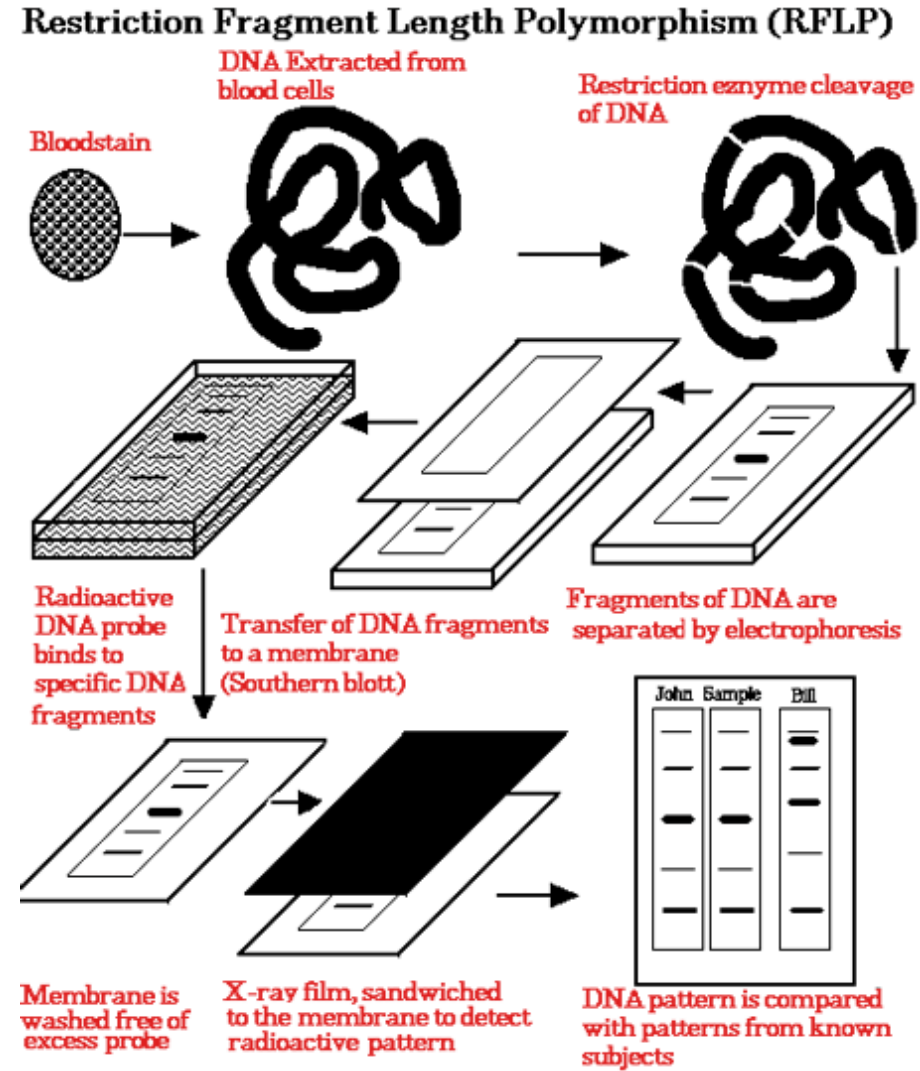
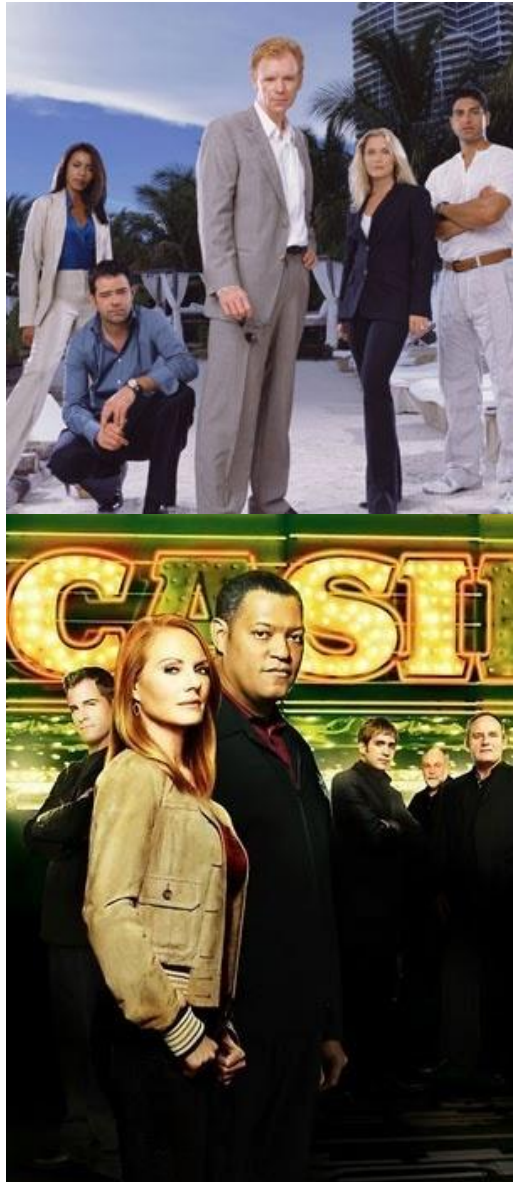




Example 2: Paternity testing



Example 3: Forensics



Real cases

