بسم الله الرحمان الرحيم (وَفَوْقَ كُلِّ ذِي عِلْمٍ عَلِيمٌ)





Cytology & Molecular Biology | FINAL 1

Overview & Gelelectrophoresis (Pt.1)

Written by: DST, NST

Reviewed by: موسى بشار



وَ لِلَّهِ الْأَسْمَاءُ الْحُسْنَى فَادْعُوهُ بِهَا

العلم بأسماء الله الحسنى أجل العلوم وأشرفها، لأن به يعرف الناس ربهم وخالقهم، خالق السماوات والأرض، ويتبع ذلك عبادته، ومحبته، وخشيته، وتعظيمه سبحانه وتعالى، ثم إنّ شرف العلم يكون من شرف المَعلوم، ولمّا كان المَعلوم من تعلّم أسماء الله الحسنى هو الله سبحانه وتعالى؛ كان شرف تعلّم أسماء الله تعالى عظيمًا.

فتظهر أهمية معرفة أسماء الله وصفاته في جوانب عدّة لا يجب أن تخفى على كل مسلم، ومنها:

- 1. أن العلم بالله تعالى وأسمائه وصفاته أصل العلوم وأساس الإيمان، فإذا عرف العبد ربَّه عَبَدَهُ حقَّ العبادة يقول الأصبهاني: "قال بعض العلماء: أول فرض فرضه الله تعالى على خلقه معرفته، فإذا عرفه الناس عبدوه قال الله تعالى: {فاعلم أنه لا إله إلا الله}". وقال: "ولو أراد إنسان أن يتزوج أو يتامل إنسانا؛ طلب أن يعرف اسمه وكنيته، واسم أبيه وجده، وسأل عن صغير أمره وكبيره، فالله الذي خلقنا ورزقنا ونحن نرجوا رحمته ونخاف من سخطه أولى أن نعرف أسماءه ونعرف تفسيرها ".
- 2. التلازم الوثيق بين صفات الله تعالى وما تقتضيه من العبادات الظاهرة والباطنة، فلكل صفة عبادة خاصة هي من مقتضاها، وفي ذلك يقول ابن القيم: "فلكل صفة عبودية خاصة هي من موجباتها ومقتضياتها، أعني: من موجبات العلم بها والتحقق بمعرفتها وهذا مطرد في جميع أنواع العبودية التي على القلب والجوارح: فعلم العبد بتفرد الرب تعالى بالضر والنفع، والعطاء والمنع، والخلق والرزق، والإحياء والإماتة؛ يثمر له عبودية التوكل عليه باطنا، ولوازم التوكل وثمراته ظاهرًا. وعلمه بسمعه تعالى وبصره وعلمه، وأنه لا يخفى عليه مثقال ذرة في السموات ولا في الأرض، وأنه يعلم السر وأخفى...، فرجعت العبودية كلها إلى مقتضى الأسماء والصفات".
- ق. المعلم بأسماء الله الحسنى وصفاته ثمرات طيبة في التعامل مع الفتن والمصائب والمكروهات التي تصيب العبد، فالعبد إذا علم أن الله تعالى حكيم لا يفعل شيئًا عبثًا، وأنه عدل لا يظلم أحدًا، وأنه رحيم بعباده يبتليهم ليغفر لهم؛ إذا علم العبد ذلك كله رضي وصبر على المكروه والمصاب الذي ينزل به، واطمأن قلبه وفوض أمره لربه سبحانه.

وغيرها الكثير من الثمرات التي تنعكس على عبادة المسلم وجميع جوانب حياته الدنيوية...

وَ لِلَّهِ الْأَسْمَاءُ الْحُسنتَى فَادْعُوهُ بِهَا

المعنى: اسم «الله» دالُّ على كونه مألوهًا معبودًا، تألهه الخلائق محبة، وتعظيمًا، وخضوعًا، وفزعًا إليه في الحوائج والنوائب، وهو الاسم الجامع لمعاني أسماء الله الحسنى.

الورود: ورديخ القرآن (٢٧٢٤) مرة.

الشاهد: ﴿ إِنَّنِي أَنَا ٱللَّهُ لَا إِلَهَ إِلَّا أَنَا فَأَعْبُدُنِي وَأَقِمِ ٱلصَّلَوٰةَ لِذِكْرِي ﴾ [طه: ١٤].





اضغط هنا لشرح أكثر تفصيلًا

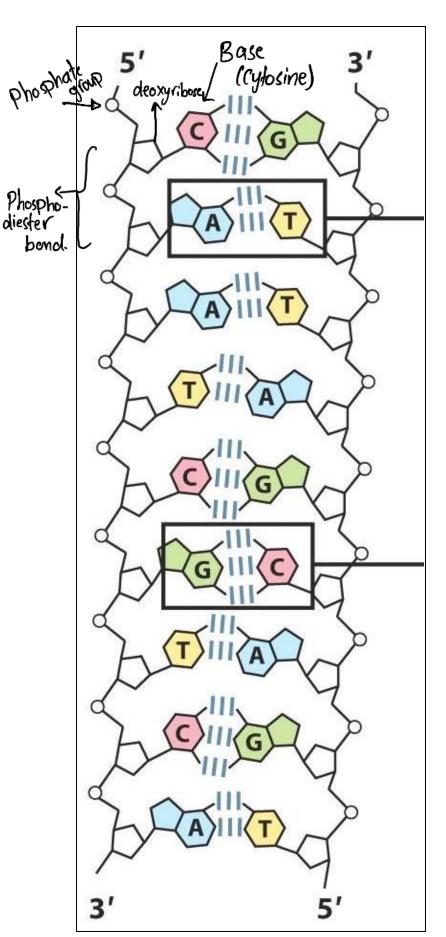
Molecular Biology (1) Structure of nucleic acids

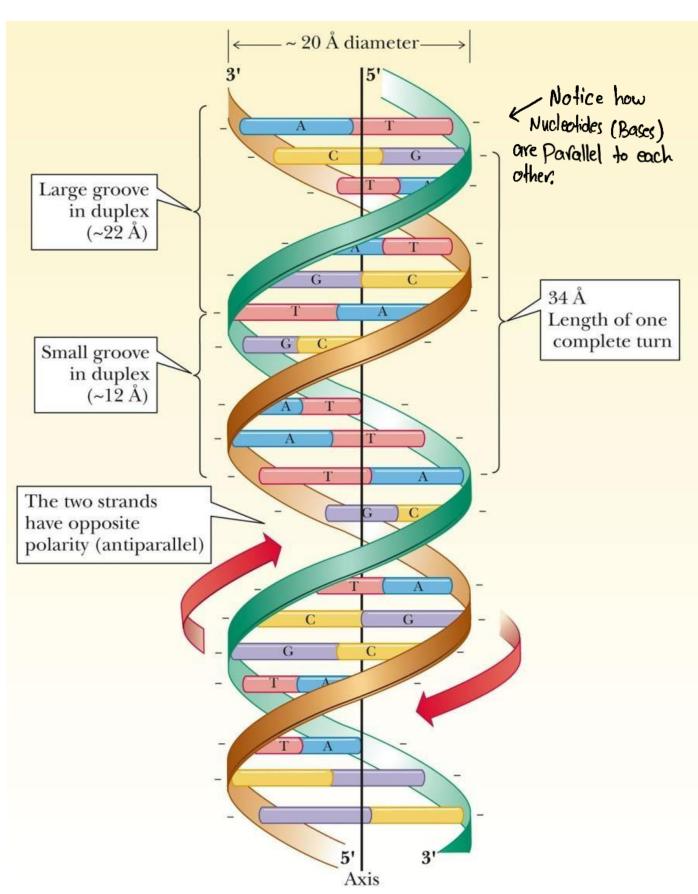
Prof. Mamoun Ahram

School of Medicine

Second year, Second semester, 2024-2025

DNA (Deoxyribonucleic acid/ Deoxyribonucleoside triphosphate) Structure





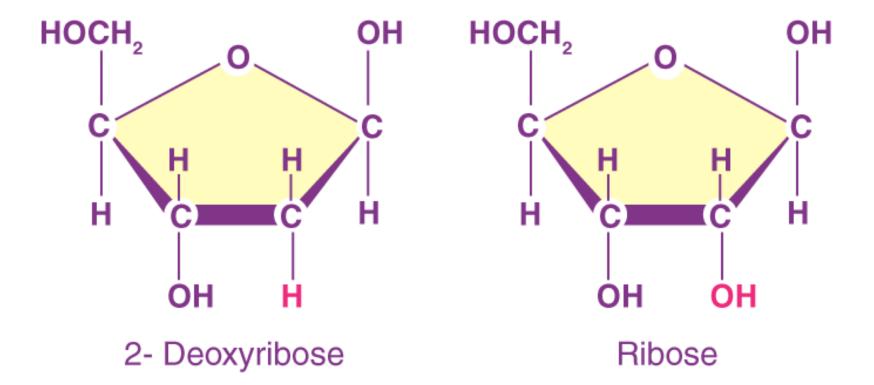
- The monomer
- A double helix
- Specific base-pairing
 - A = T; G = C; Pur = pyr (Chargaff's rule)
- Complementary
- Backbone vs. side chains
- Antiparallel
- Stability vs. flexibility
- Groovings

Explanation of the previous slide (pt.1):

 What does the name DNA (Deoxyribonucleic acid/ deoxyribonucloside triphosphate) implies?

Deoxy: there is this a molecule that was oxygenated and it deoxygenated (there is a deoxygenated molecule) which is **deoxyribose** the deoxygenated form of ribose.

Deoxygenation is at carbon number 2



Acid: due to the presence of three phosphate groups, each one has a negative charge, which means 3 negative charges, so it is an acidic molecule.

Explanation of the previous slide (pt.2):

- DNA is a polymer made up of nucleotides (monomers).
- Each nucleotide contains one of four nitrogenous bases:
 - Adenine (A)
 Guanine (G)
 Purines, each with a two rings structure.
 (Purines) الكبير (2 rings)
 Structure
 Thymine (T)
- DNA strands are held together by:
- phosphodiester bonds in the backbone, between nucleotides in same standard (between carbon 3 (called 3' carbon) and 5 (called 5' carbon)).
- ✓ Prime ('): we write it to distinguish it from nitrogenous bases carbons.
- ✓ Addition of nucleotides is always at carbon number 3.
- hydrogen bonds between complementary bases: adenine with thymine (two bonds) and guanine with cytosine (three bonds).

Explanation of the previous slide (pt.3):

- DNA: is a double⁽¹⁾ helical⁽²⁾ (stranded) polymer⁽³⁾.
- (1) Because it is composed of two complementary strands.

(2) Because the two strands are going around each other in a helical pattern. (but it's not really a perfect helix, see next slide for illustration).

(3) Because each strand of DNA is composed of a sequence of nucleotides.

Explanation of the previous slide (pt.4):

The DNA helical structure is not a perfect helix, but why?

1. Propeller Twist:

The individual bases within a single base pair are not perfectly flat; they are internally rotated relative to each other, a structural deviation known as **Propeller Twist**.

2. Stacking Optimization:

Bases are organized at an **offset angle** along the helix axis to maximize favorable hydrophobic interactions and optimize inter-atomic distances for stabilizing **van der Waals forces** (which prevents electron cloud repulsion).

3. Base Plane Orientation:

The plane of the base pairs is **not oriented perpendicular** (at a 90° angle) to the central axis of the DNA helix; instead, they exhibit a slight **tilt** or **roll**.

Explanation of the previous slide (pt.5):

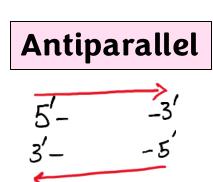
- Base pairing⁽¹⁾ is complementary⁽²⁾.
- (1) Nitrogenous bases are bound to each others via hydrogen bonds, and the pairing is always between **purines and pyrimidines**; to have an equal diameter of the helix of 20Å (Angstrom).

(2) When two bases are bound to each other by hydrogen bonds they're complementary to each other.

- A always pair T(by 2H-Bonds), and C always pair G(by 3H-Bonds).
- Knowing that H-bonds provide strength; the DNA strands that have more C and G content are connected in a stronger manner than those strands with more A and Tcontent.

Explanation of the previous slide (pt.6):

- →In each strand of DNA there's a backbone composed of:
- phosphate groups and deoxyribose sugars.
- And the side chains are: the bases themselves, perpendicular to the backbone.
- ❖ A single DNA strand has 2 ends:
- one that starts with a phosphate group (5' end).
- while the other starts with a sugar with a free carbon no.3 (3' end).
- DNA is **Antiparallel** (running in the **opposite direction**); so each strand is in the opposite direction in relation to the complementary strand (5' end of strand 1, faces the 3' end of strand 2).
- ❖ DNA is stable yet flexible; the molecule can be bent but not easily broken bond. (Breakage of Phosphodiester bonds).



Explanation of the previous slide (pt.7):

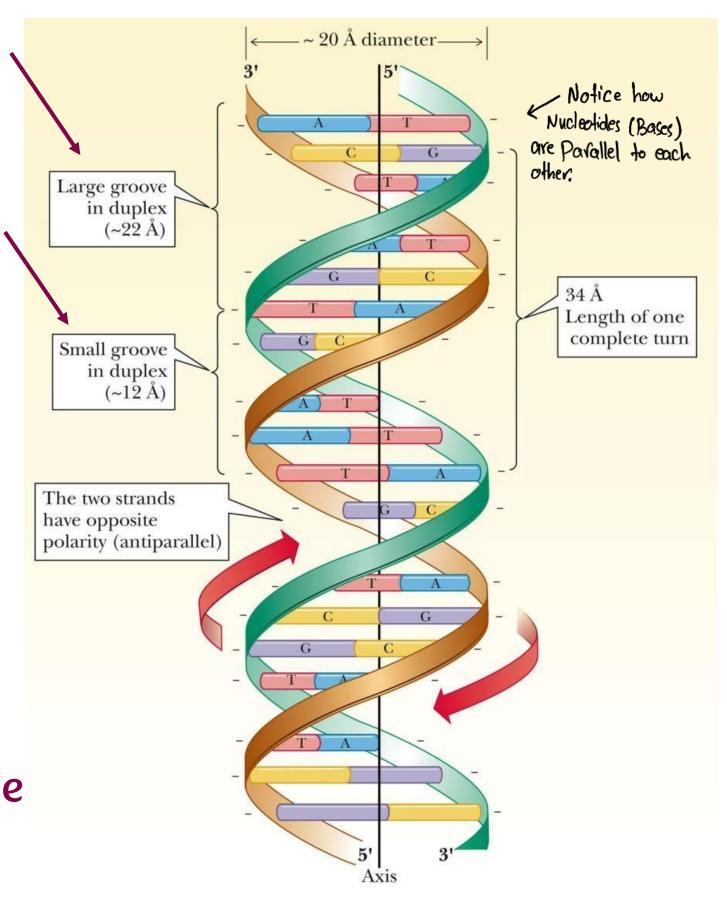
There are two types of groves (because of the imperfection in helical shape):

- 1. Major Groves: wider (Approximately 22A).
- 2. Minor Groves: narrower (Approximately 12A).

These two types of groves are alternative* and opposite to each other**.

*: one after the other (minor then major then minor)

**: whenever there is a major grove, there is a minor one at the opposite side.



Writing the sequence of nucleic acids

Shows complementarity and how DNA is Antiparallel.

```
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'
```

Here you can see that A pairs with T, and G pairs with C. (Base pairing)

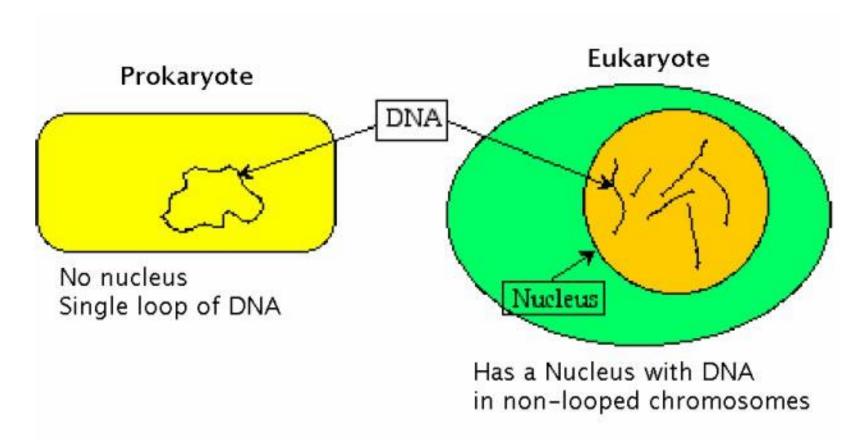
OR ATGGCCTGGACTTCA.

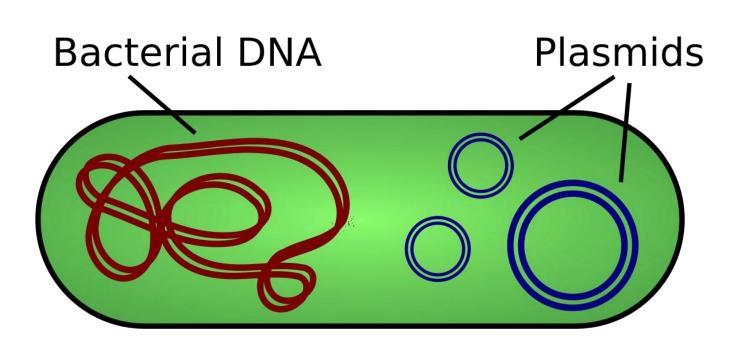
DNA sequence can be written without pointing the ends, but the left end indicated the 5' end. And knowing that it's DNA (double stranded) the complementary strand's sequence can be interpreted from the given sequence.

RNA 5'...AUGGCCUGGACUUCA... 3'

RNA is single stranded (some viruses are exception having it as a double helical stranded), with 4 different monomers (nucleotides) (Adenine (A), Guanine (G), Cytosine (C) or Uracil (U)). RNA has U instead of T.

The genome of prokaryotes versus eukaryotes 1

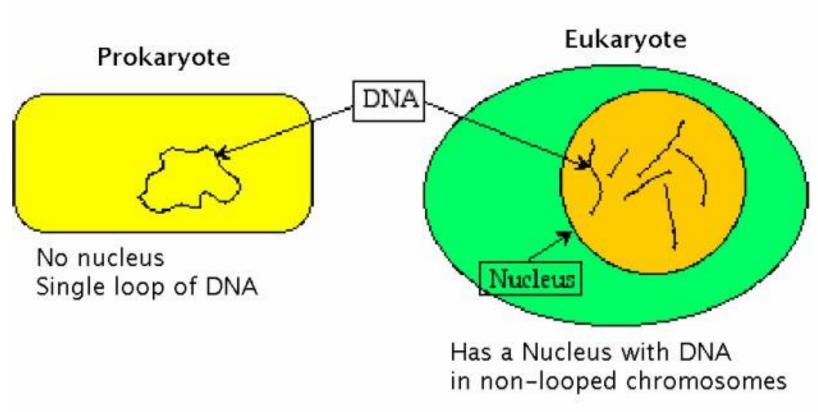


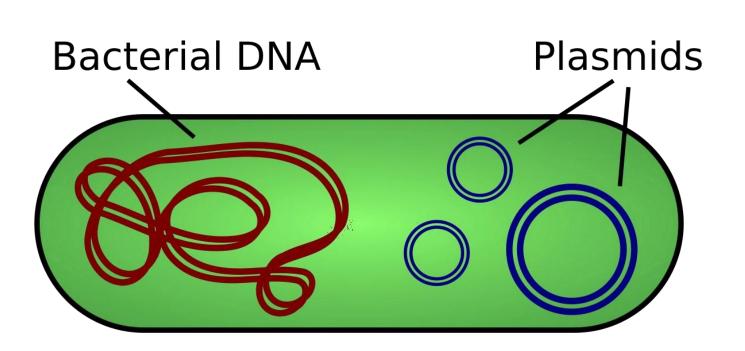


- Genome: the total genetic material of a living being (bacteria vs. human), a species (monkey vs. human), an individual (me vs. you), or a cell (brain vs. liver), etc.
- if they are from the same person, they should be identical.
- Prokaryote: circular genome + plasmid (not essential, may not br present).
- Eukaryote: a linear, nuclear genome (chromosomes) + mitochondrial genome
- Viruses genome can be <u>single stranded</u>
 <u>DNA, double stranded DNA, single</u>
 <u>stranded RNA and double stranded RNA.</u>

I can say Eukaryotic genome or human genome, mice genome, Arabs Genome and non-Arab Genome, etc.

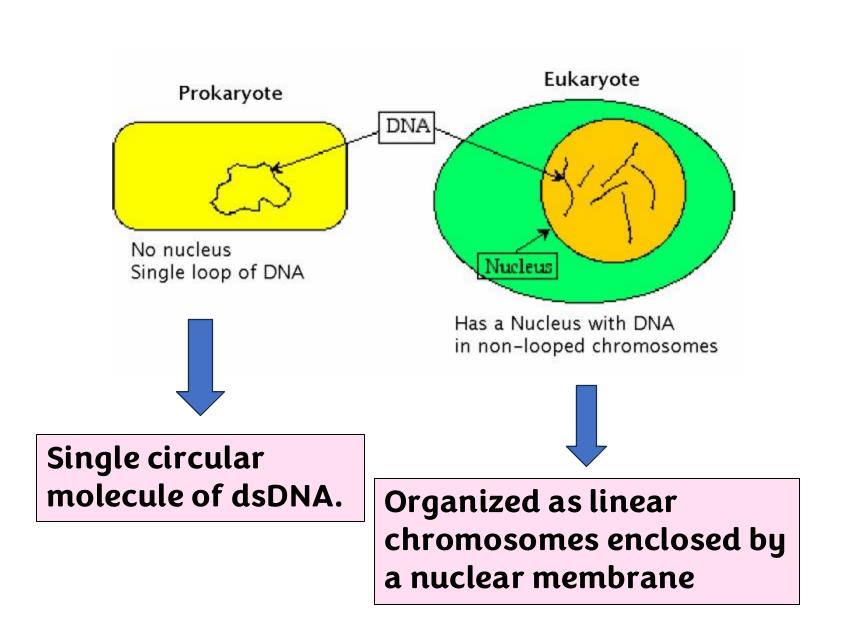
The genome of prokaryotes versus eukaryotes 2

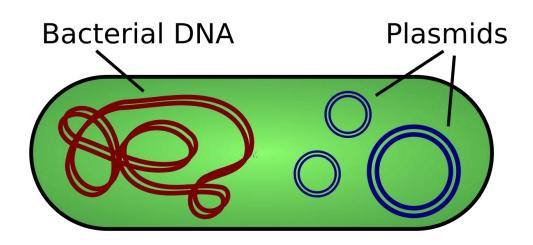




- Remember that each chromosome is made of a long dsDNA packed by Histone proteins.
- Mitochondria have their own genome (mtDNA), which is circular and less stable than the nuclear genome. In eukaryotes there are multiple copies of mitochondria in the cytosol, each of which has multiple (identical) genomes.

The genome of prokaryotes versus eukaryotes (extra slide)

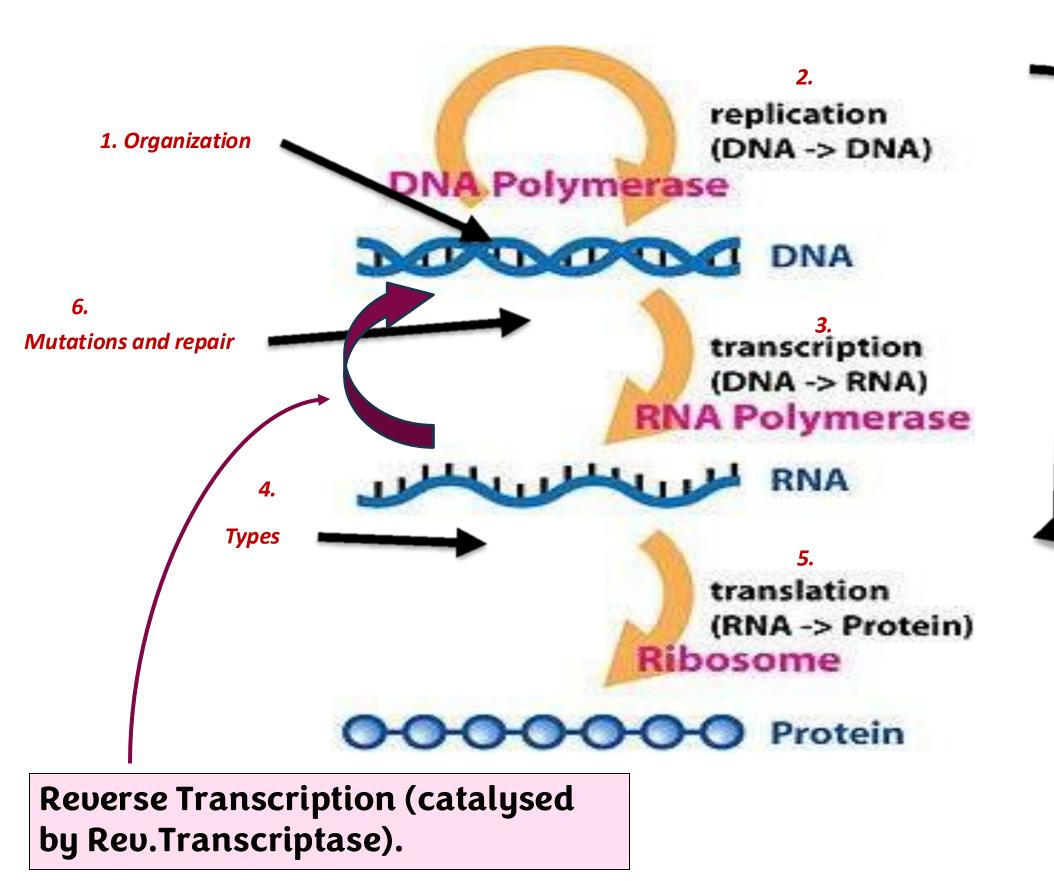




- · In addition to the single ring chromosome, bacteria have a smaller genetic material known as **Plasmid** (circular dsDNA).
- Prokaryotic cells (bacteria) have 1 copy of the ring chromosome but multiple copies of the plasmid.

What is molecular biology?

Central dogma of molecular biology



Techniques

DNA Makes DNA Makes RNA Used to make Proteins

Replication

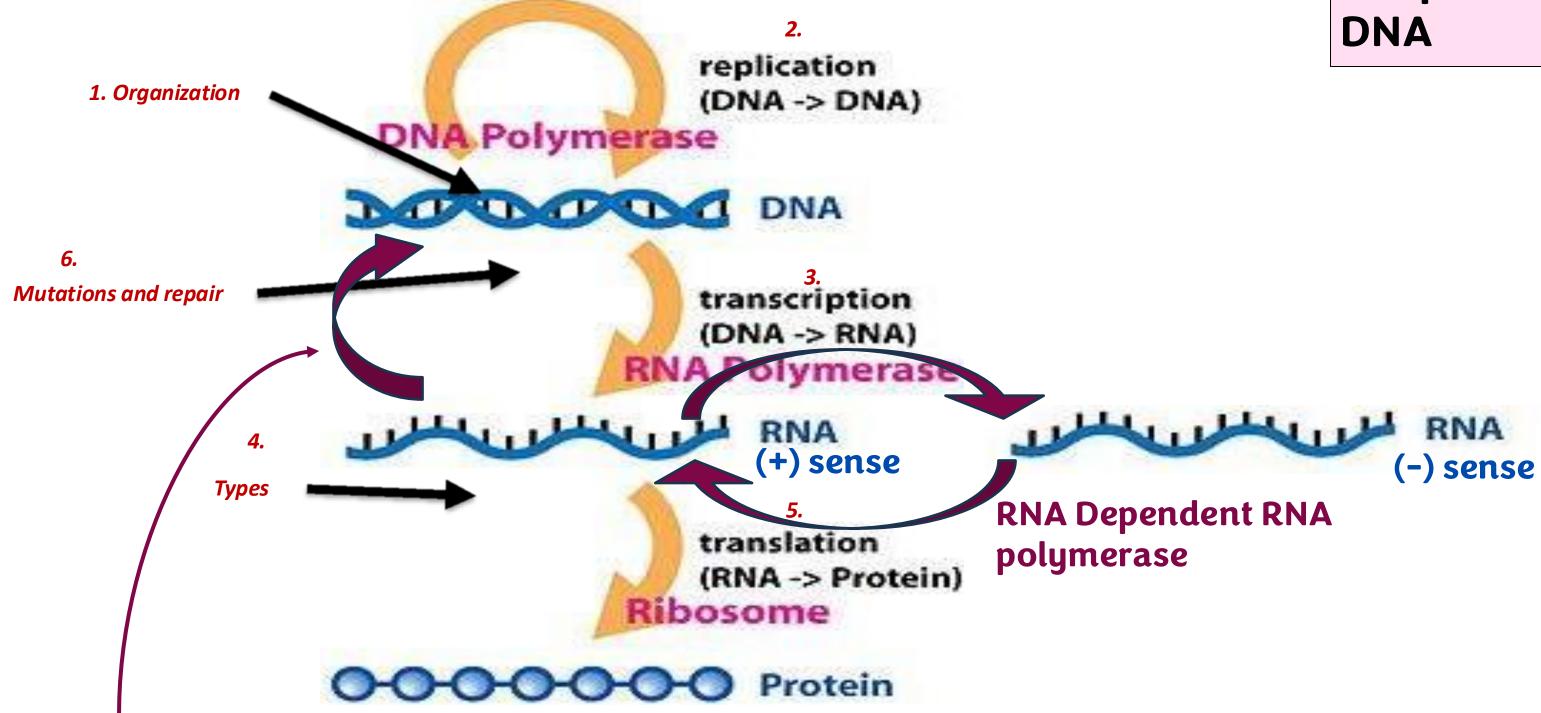
Transcription

Translation

This is called central dogma of molecular biology, but there are some exceptions like: RNA makes RNA RNA makes DNA

What is molecular biology?

The new central dogma of molecular biology



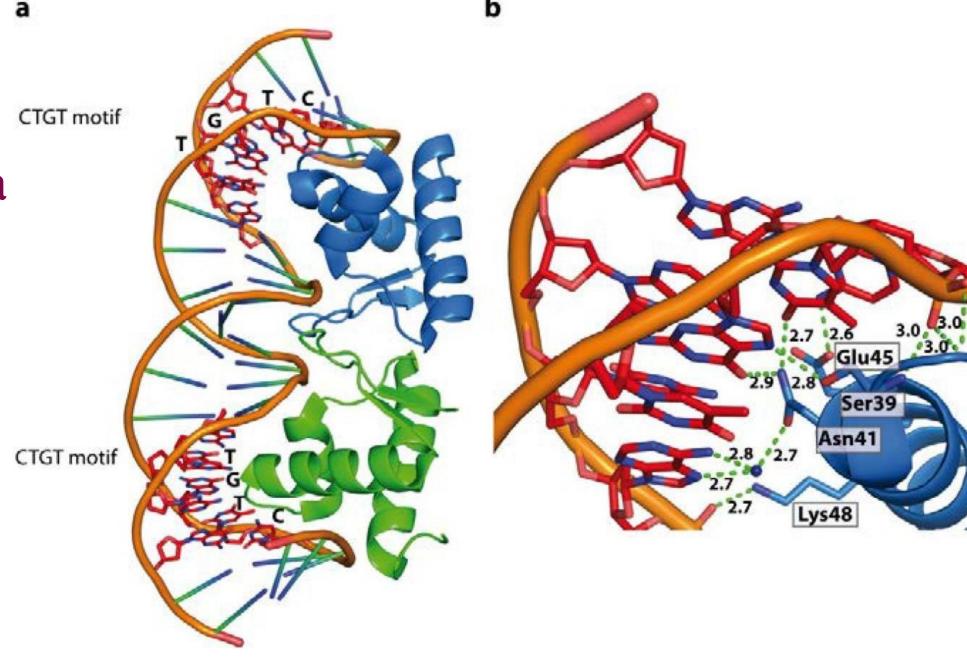
RNA can be used as a template to synthesise DNA

Reverse Transcription (catalysed by Rev.Transcriptase).

DNA-protein interaction

Remember proteins can interact with DNA in a non-randomized fashion (really specific); as a specific amino acid sequence can recognize and bind to a specific **DNA sequence** (order of nucleotides) within a strand or within the molecule.

Interactions usually take place at the major groves rather than minor ones because major groves is wider and allow amino acids of the proteins to enter the grove and bind to a specific DNA sequence, while minor groves are narrower and prevent proteins from entering the grove since it is narrow.

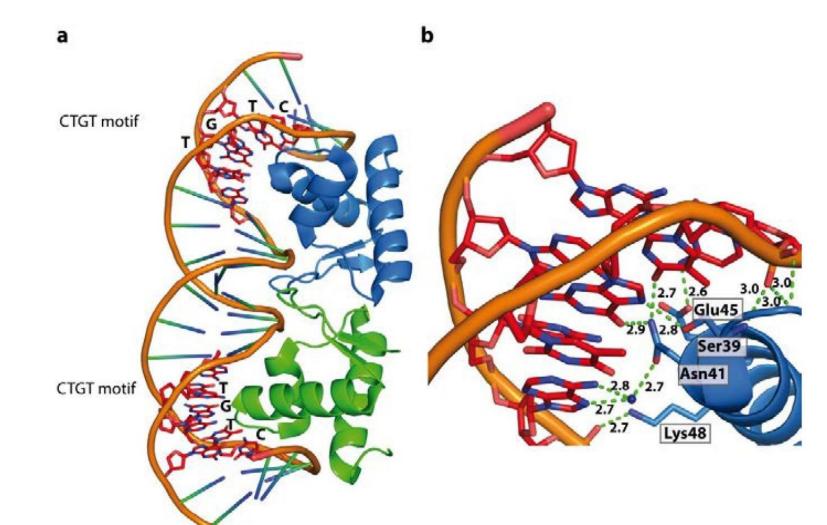


DNA-protein interaction

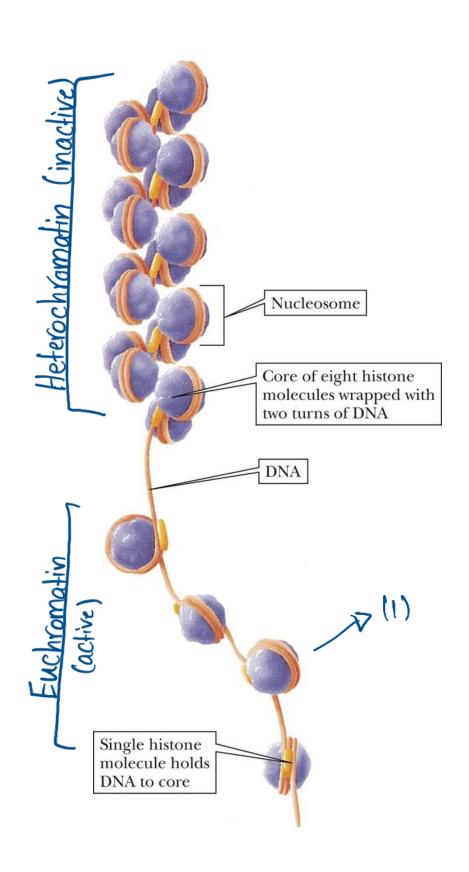
- Nitrogenous bases are sort of hidden inside the helical strands of DNA, except some of them are outside and more susceptible to be identified/seen by proteins, specifically A.As that make up the proteins (precisely the R groups), for example:
- *Carboxylic group (-COOH) of Glutamate (Glu).
- *Hydroxyl group (-OH) of Serine (ser).
- *Amino group (-NH3) of Asparagine (Asn) and Lysine (lys).

These can interact with the bases of DNA.

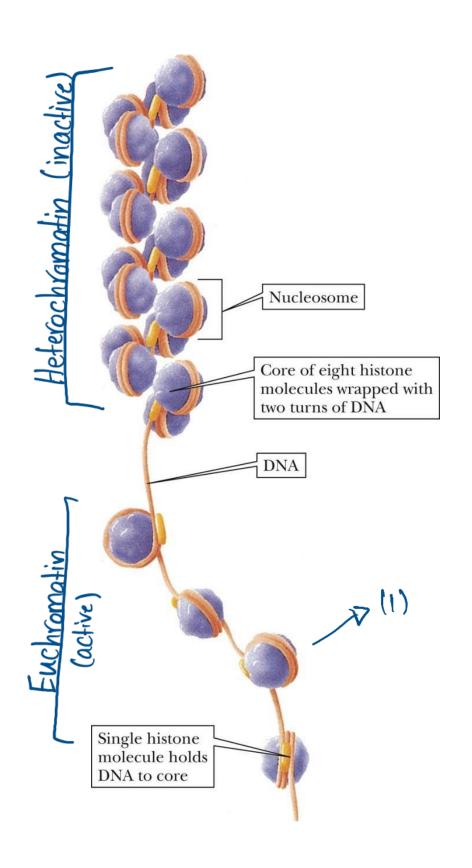
- -The interactions between the bases and amino acids are quite specific.
- The order of the bases and the 3D overall structure of A.As (proteins) can determine the **specificity** of DNA-Protein interactions.
- Further explanation will be provided as we come across DNA-Protein interactions later on.



In eukaryotes...



- An exception to specific DNA-Protein interaction is the Histone-DNA interaction.
- Total DNA in eukaryotic cell is really long (~ 2m), and these 2m must fit in a really small nucleus (~10 μ m). Total DNA can fit easily because DNA is wrapped around **Histone octamers** (two molecules of histones H2A, H2B, H3, and H4), looking like a string wrapped around beads⁽¹⁾, making DNA really packed.
- In eukaryotes, DNA is coiled (around a group of proteins called histones) to package the large, linear DNA.
- Eukaryotic DNA is complexed with a number of proteins, principally histones, which package DNA.
- Chromatin = DNA molecule + proteins (Histones).
- The basic structural unit of chromatin is known as a nucleosome.

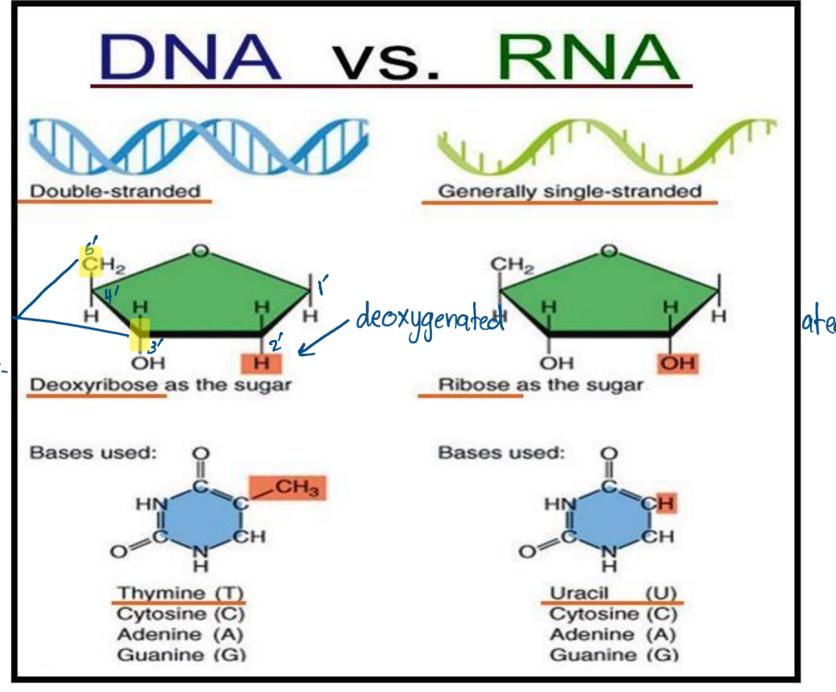




Packing a DNA which is 2m long into the nucleus which is 10 micrometer in diameter is like packing a 35Km length wire into a tinnes ball.

In prokaryotes and eukaryotes (not viruses)

Take a look at the picture



Formation of the Phosphodiester bond, takes place between 3' carbon on one sugar and the 5' end of another sugar (of adjacent nucleotides)

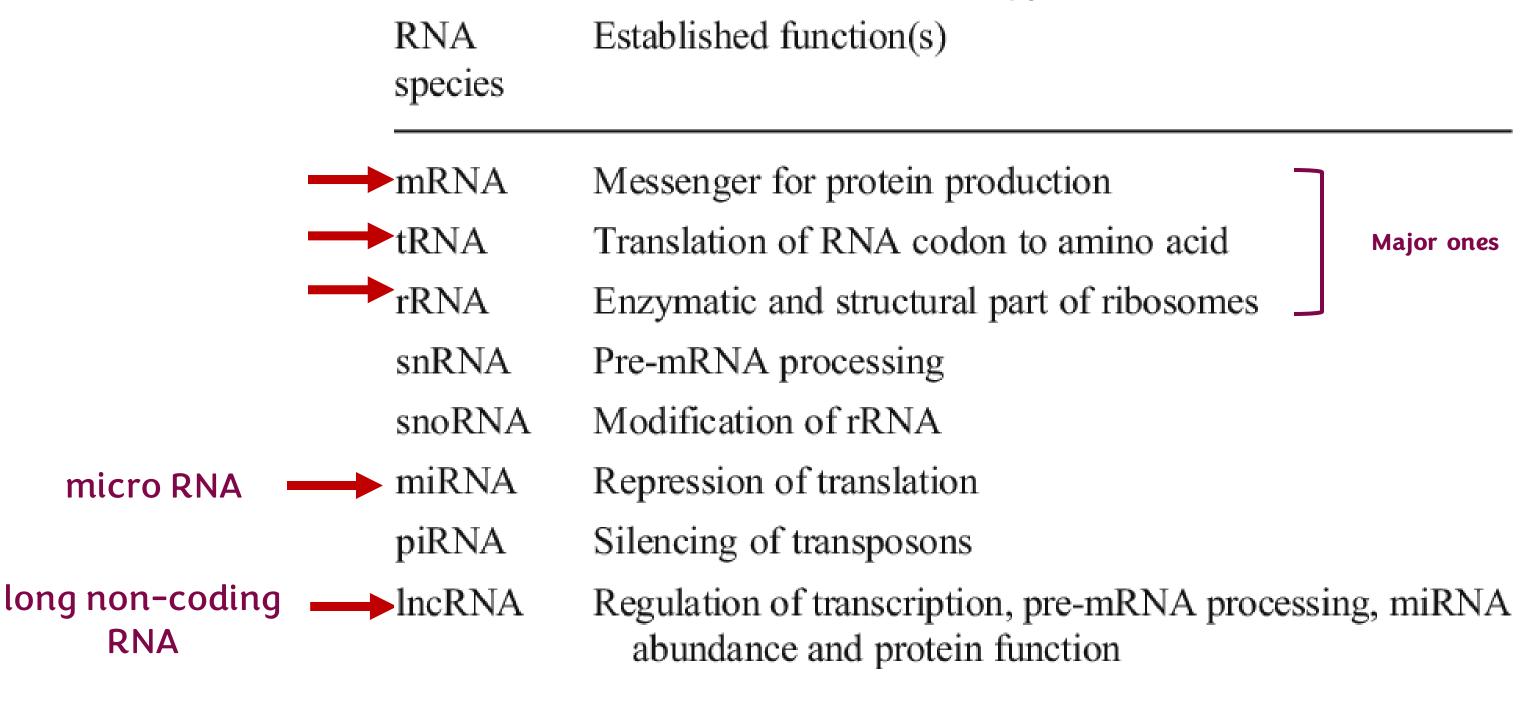
	category	DNA	RNA
	Strands	Double stranded	Single stranded (Generally)
80	Sugar	Deoxyribose (hence the name Deoxyribonucleic Acid)	Ribose (Ribonucleic Acid)
	Bases used	Thymine (T) Adenine (A) Cytosine (C) Guanine (G)	Uracil (U) Adenine (A) Cytosine (C) Guanine (G)

These two
Play a role
in phosphodiester bonds
formation.

Types of RNA

A human cell contain multiple DNA molecules, each one of which forms a distinct chromosomes, serving as templet for RNA synthesis through transcription.

Human cells have different types of RNA molecules:

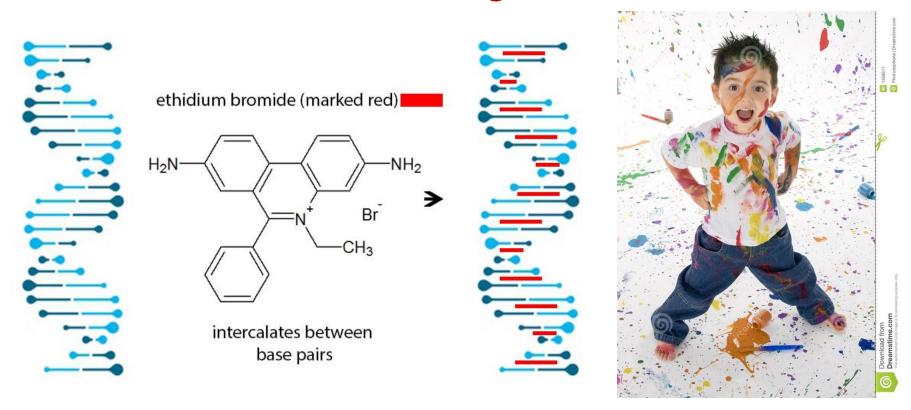


Techniques

In this lecture will cover one type of techniques.

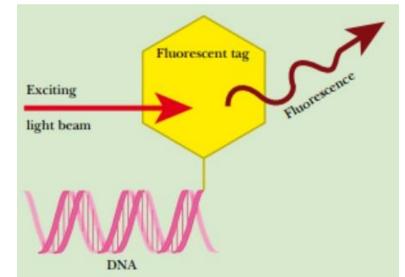
DNA labeling versus staining

DNA staining



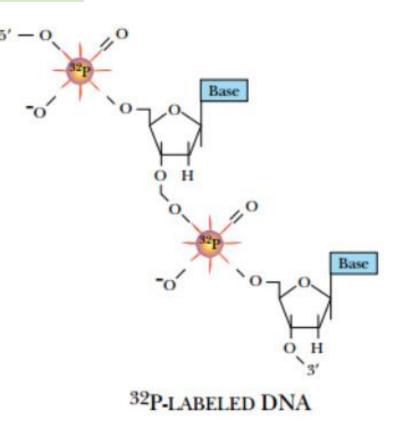
- It involves a general non-covalent interaction of a chemical dye with DNA.
- It is less specific (can bind to any region in the DNA) and less sensitive.
- It is usually used to detect, visualize, and/or quantify DNA.

DNA Labeling (more sensitive)





- It usually involves a
 <u>covalent</u> binding of a
 fluorescent tag or
 radioactive phosphate to
 DNA (we can't see the signal but we can detect it using detectors).
- It is usually sequencespecific.
- It is more sensitive.
- It is usually used to detect and quantify DNA.



Further explanation:

DNA staining:

Similar to staining a shirt with a paint gives us color that we can see with our own eyes

In DNA, we add chemicals **non covalently** between DNA bases that give the DNA a certain color.

- The chemical which is attached to the DNA is responsible for the color production (not the DNA itself)

Further explanation:

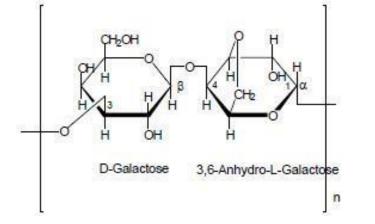
DNA labeling:

> More sensitive.

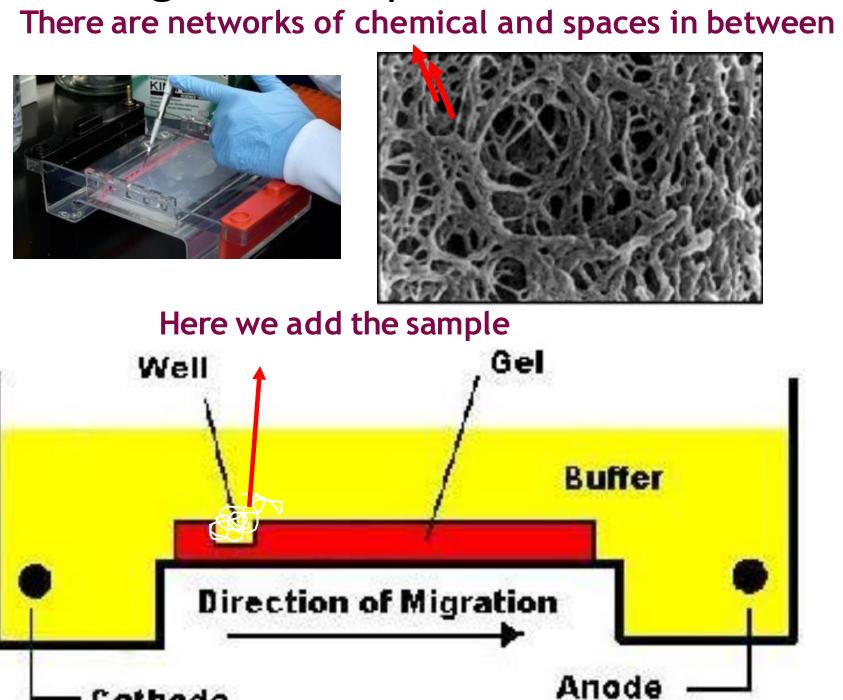
It's essential to understand the distinction between these two terms.

- > Here the DNA itself emits the color (fluorescent signal), which can also be radioactive.
- ➤ We can use radioactive phosphate, why phosphate? Because it is present in the DNA nucleotide structure (rule: if I want to detect a specific molecule using radioactive molecule, the radioactive molecule should be a molecule or atom that present in the structure of the molecule that I want to detect and not in other molecules).
- > We can attach **covalently** a certain dye (molecule) that emits energy in the form of light with certain wavelength. when it is hit by a light with a certain wavelength (different color different wavelength from the one emitted).
- > The DNA itself gives the color.

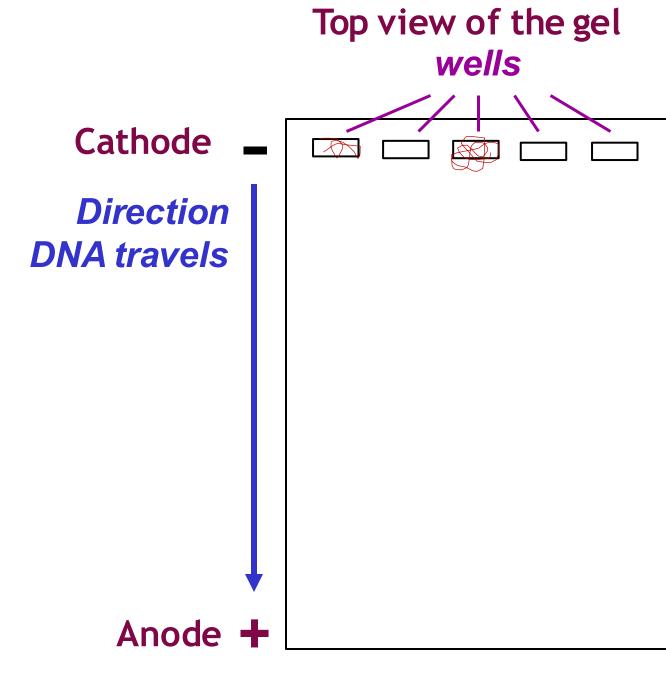
Gel electrophoresis



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



Cathode



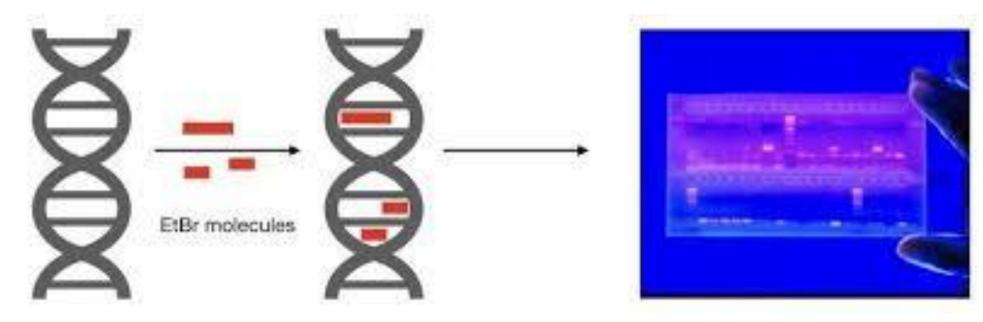
Gel Electrophoresis Overview (extra slide)

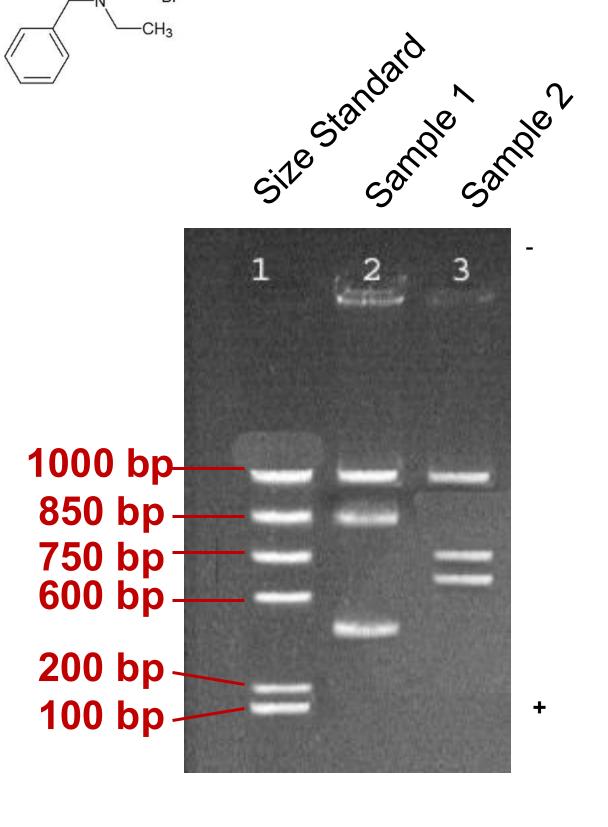
- * Purpose: Separates DNA fragments by size.
- Process:
- 1. Gel Preparation: A jello-like gel is created with wells for samples.
- 2. Sample Loading: DNA samples are placed in the wells.
- 3. Current Application: An electric current is applied; DNA moves toward the positive (anode) due to its negative charge from phosphate group.

- 4. Size-Based Separation: Smaller DNA fragments travel faster through the gel's pores, while larger ones move more slowly.
- 5. Result: DNA fragments are separated by length (size).

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.

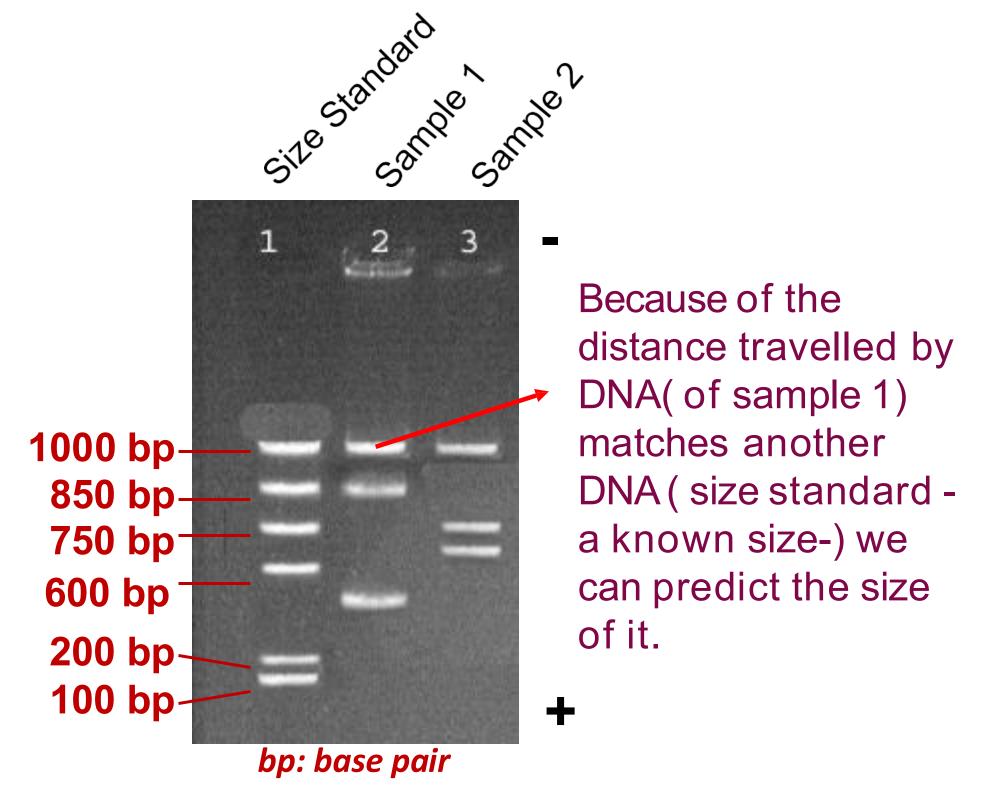




bp: base pair

Detection (pt.2)

- Each band contains millions of DNA molecules that have the same size but differs types, (different sequence of bases).
- When the amount of DNA is very low and cannot be visualized → the DNA is labeled (using radioactive 32P). A more powerful signal and a highly sensitive technique are then used to detect the DNA.
- Size standered: A sample of a DNA molecule that we add, that contains a DNA molecules of different sizes and their size are known, for determining the others length in relative to the standard.



By applying an estimation methodology, we can determine the size of each sample band by comparing it to the size standard.

Resources

• http://www.sumanasinc.com/webcontent/animations/content/gelelectrophoresis.html

Watch this....very important

Additional Resources:

رسالة من الفريق العلمي:

Post-Mid Recap 🗟 🎎





Final material before Week 10

I mat material before week to						
Pathology	Pharmacology	Community				
☐ Inflammation 7 (recorded)	☐ Introduction to ANS in pharma Pt.1	Maternal & child health 4				
☐ Inflammation 8 (recorded)	☐ Introduction to ANS in pharma Pt.2☐ Cholinergic drug	Maternal & child health 5 Maternal & child health 6				
 Inflammation 9 Inflammation 10 review (recorded) 	☐ Cholinergic - Blocking drug	Growth monitoring on children (activity) Environmental Health				
□ Neoplasia lecture 1 (online)	☐ Adrenomimetic drug pt,1	Air pollution Occupational health Water pollution (activity)				
□ Neoplasia lecture 2	Adrenomimetic drug pt.2	Injuries Violence against women				
		☐ Violence against children				
		Bullying (activity)				

Post-Mid Recap





Final material before Week 10

Metabolism	Molecular	Microbiology
Alcohol Metabolism Metabolism of monosaccharides and disaccharides pt.1+pt.2 Phosphate Pentose pathway	Structures of nucleus acids and basic techniques Pt.1 Structures of nucleus acids and basic techniques Pt.2	Virus Classification, Replication & Pathogenesis(online) Principles of Diagnosis of Virus Infections
Pt.1 Phosphate pentose pathway Pt,2+Lipid digestion and absorption Pt,1	Structures of nucleus acids and basic techniques Pt.3	Principles of Treatment & Prevention of Virus Infections DNA viruses pt.1
Lipid digestion and absorption Pt.2 (recorded) Degradation of fatty acids Pt.1	 ☐ Human Genome ☐ DNA replication Pt.1 ☐ DNA sequencing Pt.1 	DNA viruses pt.2
Degradation of fatty acids Pt.2+ Syntheof fatty acids Pt.1 Ketogenesis(recorded)	DNA sequencing (online) polymerase chain reaction (PCR)	parasitology (online) Common protozal infection
Synthesis of fatty acid pt.2 + Metabolism of glycerophospholipids pt.1	DNA replication 2	Common helminthic infection
Metabolism of glycerophospholipids pt.2+ metabolism of cholesterol pt.1 Eicosanoid metabolism	Recombinant DNA technology & DNA cloning	

قربنا نكمل المتراكم:)

For any feedback, scan the code or click on it.



Corrections from previous versions:

Versions	Slide # and Place of Error	Before Correction	After Correction
V0 → V1	Slide 22		Packing a DNA which is 2m long into the nucleus which is 10 micrometer in diameter is like packing a 35Km length wire into a tinnes ball.
	Slide 18	DNA Dependent RNA polymerase	RNA Dependent RNA polymerase.
V1 → V2			