HUMAN GENOME Chromosome PROJECT

DNA



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The Human Genome

- The human genome is the complete set of genetic information for humans (Homo sapiens).
- The human genome is by far the most complex and largest genome.
- Its size spans a length of about 6 feet of DNA, containing more than 30,000 genes.
- The DNA material is organized into a haploid chromosomal set of 22 (autosome) and one sex chromosome (X or Y).



Human Genome Sequencing 2/11/2001 22 autosome + 2 sex chromosomes



From NCBI

Salient Features of Human Genome:

- Human genome consists the information of 24 chromosomes (22 autosome + X chromosome + one Y chromosome); in *Homo sapiens* 2n = 2x = 46
- The human genome contains over 3 billion nucleotide pairs.
- □ Human genome is estimated to have **about 30,000 genes** .
- Average gene consists of 3000 bases. But sizes of genes vary greatly, with the largest known human gene encoding dystrophin containing 2.5 million base pairs.
- Only about 3 %of the genome encodes amino acid sequences of polypeptides and rest of it junk (repetitive DNA).
- □ The **functions are unknown** for over **50%** of the discovered genes.

- □ The repetitive sequences makeup very large portion of human genome. Repetitive sequences have no direct coding function but they shed light on the chromosome structure, dynamics and evolution.
- Chromosome 1 has most genes (2968) and Y chromosome has the lowest (231).
- Almost all nucleotide bases are exactly the same in all people. Genome sequences of different individuals differ for less than 0.2% of base pairs.

Most of these differences occur in the form of single base differences in the sequence. These single base differences are called **single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs).** One SNP occurs at every ~ 1,000 bp of human genome. About 85% of all differences in human DNAs are due to SNPs.

Human Chromosome 1 Genetic Map



What was Human Genome Project(HGP)

- The Human Genome Project was an international research effort to determine the sequence of the human genome and identify the genes that it contains.
- The US Human Genome Project is a 13 year effort, which is coordinated by the
 - Department of Energy (DOE) and
 - National Institutes of Health (NIH).



Milestones

- 1986 The birth of the Human Genome Project.
- 1990 Project initiated as joint effort of US Department of Energy and the National Institute of Health.
- 1994 Genetic Privacy Act: to regulate collection, analysis, storage and use of DNA samples and genetic information is proposed.
- 1996 Welcome Trust joins the project.
- 1998 **Celera Genomics** (a private company founded by Craig Venter) formed to sequence much of the human genome in 3 years.
- 1999 Completion of the sequence of Chromosome 22-the first human chromosome to be sequenced.
- 2000 Completion of the working draft of the entire human genome.
- 2001 Analysis of the working draft are published.
- 2003 HGP sequencing is completed and Project is declared finished two years ahead of schedule.

Goals of Human Genome Project

- 1. To identify all the genes in human DNA.
- 2. To develop a genetic linkage map of human genome.
- 3. To obtain a physical map of human genome.
- 4. To develop technology for the management of human genome information.
- 5. To know the function of genes.
- 6. Determine the sequences of the 3 billion chemical base pairs that make up human DNA.
- 7. Store this information in public databases.
- 8. Develop tools for data analysis.
- 9. Transfer related technologies to the private sectors.

ISSUES OF CONCERN

Ethical, Legal and Social issues of the Human Genome Project

- Fairness in the use of genetic information.
- Privacy and confidentiality of genetic information.
- Psychological impact, stigmatization, and discrimination.
- Reproductive issues.
- Clinical issues.
- Uncertainties associated with gene tests for susceptibilities and complex conditions.
- Fairness in access to advanced genomic technologies.
- Conceptual and philosophical implications.
- Health and environmental issues.
- Commercialization of products.
- Education, Standards, and Quality control.
- Patent issues.

Future Challenges: What We Still Don't Know

- 1. Gene number, exact locations, and functions
- 2. Gene regulation
- 3. Chromosomal structure and organization
- 4. Non-coding DNA types, amount, distribution, information content, and functions
- 5. Coordination of gene expression, protein synthesis, Proteomes and post-translational events
- 6. Predicted vs experimentally determined gene function
- 7. Evolutionary conservation among organisms
- 8. Disease-susceptibility prediction based on gene sequence variation
- 9. Genes involved in complex traits and multigene diseases
- 10. Developmental genetics, genomics

Vectors for Large-Scale Genome Project

- A vector is a DNA molecule that has the ability to replicate in an appropriate host cell, and into which the DNA insert is integrated for cloning.
- □ A vector must have a origin of DNA replication (ori).
- □ The vector is a vehicle or carrier which is used for cloning foreign DNA in bacteria.
- □ For genome sequencing, first DNA fragments of the genome must be cloned in appropriate vectors. Two of the most popular vector:
 - 1. Yeast artificial chromosomes (YACs) and
 - 2. Bacterial artificial chromosomes (BACs)

Yeasts artificial chromosomes (YACs):

- **Yeast artificial chromosomes (YACs)** are genetically engineered chromosomes derived from the DNA of the yeast, *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, which is then ligated into a bacterial plasmid.
- YACs were very useful in mapping the human genome because they could accommodate hundreds of thousands of kilo bases each.
- YACs containing a mega base or more are known as "mega YACs."
- A YAC can be considered as self replicating element, because it includes **three specific DNA sequences**:
- **1. TEL:** The **telomere** which is located at each chromosome end, protects the chromosome's ends from degradation by nucleases.
- **2. CEN:** The **centromere** which is the attachment site for mitotic spindle fibers and necessary for segregation of sister chromotids to opposite poles of the dividing yeast cell. The centromere is placed in adjacent to the left telomere, and a huge piece of human (or any other) DNA can be placed in between the centromere and the right telomere.

Continue.....

3. ORI: Replication origin sequences which are specific DNA sequences that allow the DNA replication.



It also contains few other specific sequences like:

Selectable markers (A and B) that allow the easy isolation of yeast cells that have taken up the artificial chromosome.

Recognition site for the two **restriction enzymes** EcoRI and BamHI.

Cloning genomic DNA into a YAC

- **1. Genomic DNA** is partially digested with a **restriction enzyme (EcoRI)**.
- 2. The YAC is digested by the two restriction enzymes EcoRI and BamHI.
- **3.** Those two elements recombine at the EcoRI sites of
- **YAC** and are covalently linked by the DNA ligase.
- **4.** A recombinant YAC vector, a yeast artificial chromosome with genomic DNA inserted, is produced. Then YACs vector can be introduced into yeast cells and generated an unlimited number of copies.



Fig: Cloning of genomic DNA into a YAC

Bacterial artificial chromosome (BAC)

- A bacterial artificial chromosome (BAC) is an engineered DNA molecule, used to clone DNA segment in bacterial cells (*E. coli*).
- It is based on a well-known natural **F plasmid** (inhabits *E. coli* cells). This plasmid allows conjugation between bacterial cells.
 - Segments of an organism's DNA, ranging from 150 to about 300 kilo base pairs, can be inserted into BACs.
 - These vectors are able to maintain in stable state in vivo and in vitro.
 - Their copy number is about **two per cell**.
 - Extensively used in analysis of large genomes but the main disadvantage of BAC vectors is some what laborious construction of BAC libraries.

Common gene components

Bacterial artificial chromosome is another cloning vector system in *E.coli* (**pBAC108L**), developed by Melsimon and his colleagues in 1992, have

HindIII and BamHI: the cloning sites

CmR: the chloramphenicol resistance gene, used as a selection tool.

□ oriS: the origin of replication

□ *repE*: for plasmid replication and regulation of ParB copy number.

□ *ParA* and *ParB*: the genes governing partition of plasmids to daughter cells during division and ensures stable maintenance of the BAC.



Fig: Map of the BAC vector, pBAC108L

In some conjugation events, the F-plasmid itself is transferred from a donor **F⁺ cell** to a recipient **F⁻ cell**, converting the letter to an F⁺ cell.

In other events, a small piece of host DNA is transferred as an insert in the F (which is called an F' plasmid if it has an insert of foreign DNA). And in still other events, the F' plasmid inserts into the host chromosome and mobilizes the whole chromosome to pass from the donor cell to the recipient cell. Thus, because the E. coli chromosome contains over 4 million bp, the F plasmid can obviously accommodate a large insert of DNA.

Cloning genomic DNA into a BAC

 Genomic DNA is isolated from a desired source and used restriction enzymes plasmid to cleave the target DNA into fragments.

2. The BAC is digested by restriction enzymes in the cloning sites *HindIII* and *BamHI*.

3. Those two elements recombine by the DNA ligase and attach into a host bacterium.

4. As the bacterial cells grow and divide, they amplify the BAC DNA, which can then be isolated and used in sequencing DNA.



Difference between YAC and BAC

as vector of genome sequencing

Yeast artificial chromosomes (YACs)	Bacterial artificial chromosome (BAC)
1. Yeast artificial chromosomes (YACs) are	1. A bacterial artificial chromosome (BAC)
genetically engineered chromosomes	is an engineered DNA molecule, used to
derived from the DNA of the	clone DNA segment in bacterial cells (E.
yeast, Saccharomyces cerevisiae.	coli).
2. YAC's are used for cloning very large	2. These vectors are used to clone the DNA
(1000-2000kb) DNA segments.	inserts up to 300kb.
3. They are inefficient.	3. They are inefficient.
4. Unlike BAC library, it is not so hard to	4. It is very hard to construct BAC library.
construct YAC library.	
5. They are unstable.	5. They are more stable.
6. They tend to contain scrambled inserts,	6. They contain pure inserts.
i.e. composites of DNA fragments from	
more than one site.	
7. The linear YACs, which tend to break	7. The circular, super coiled BACs resist
under shearing forces.	breakage.
8. They are hard to isolate from yeast cells.	8. They are easy to isolate.

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