

BIOTECHNOLOGY

UNIT 2 NOTES

- CLONING VECTORS
- RESTRICTION ENDONUCLEASES
- DNA LIGASE
- rDNA TECHNOLOGY & ITS APPLICATIONS
- INTERFERON, HEPATITIS B, INSULIN
- PCR



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CLONING VECTORS

- Cloning vectors is DNA molecule used to carry a foreign gene into a host cell & make multiple copies of it.
- It is simply a DNA carrier used for gene cloning (copying DNA).
- Example: Plasmids, Cosmids etc.

NEED OF CLONING VECTORS

- Cloning Vectors are used to:
- Insert a gene of interest into a host cell.
- Produce many copies (clones) of that gene.
- Store & maintain the gene for research.
- Help in DNA analysis & genetic studies.

CHARACTERISTICS OF CLONING VECTORS

- Origin of Replication: It allows the vector to replicate inside the host cell.
- Selectable Marker: It helps in identifying cells that contain the vector.
- Multiple Cloning site: It provides specific sites for insertion of foreign DNA.
- Small size: Easy to handle & transfer into host cells.
- Stability: It ensures the vector remains stable inside the host cell.

- Host Compatibility: It ensures proper functioning of the vector inside the host cell.
- Unique restriction Site: Allows precise & controlled insertion of DNA.

TYPES OF CLONING VECTORS

- ① Plasmids
- ② Bacteriophage
- ③ Cosmids
- ④ Artificial Chromosomes

① PLASMIDS

- Plasmids are small, circular, double-stranded DNA molecules found mainly in bacteria.
- They're separate from the main chromosomal DNA & replicate independently.

FEATURES OF PLASMIDS

- Circular DNA structure
- Double stranded DNA
- Self-replicating (have their own origin of replication)
- Usually small in size (few kb)
- Provides advantages such as antibiotic resistance to bacteria.

TYPES OF PLASMIDS

- ① Fertility (F) plasmids: Helps in bacterial conjugation
- ② Resistance (R) Plasmids: Provide antibiotic resistance
- ③ Col Plasmids: Produce bacteriocins (Toxins to kill other bacteria)
- ④ Degradative Plasmids: Helps in metabolism of unusual substance
- ⑤ Virulence Plasmids: Increase pathogenicity

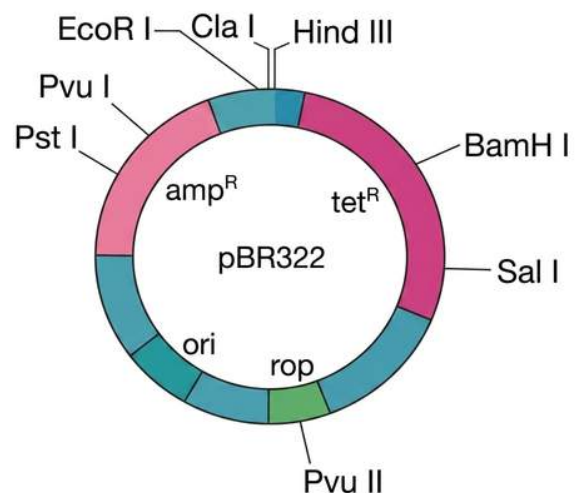
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pBR322

- pBR322 is the oldest & most commonly used Artificial Plasmid Vectors in genetic engineering.
- It is developed by Boliver & Rodriguez
- Name breakdown:
 - p: Plasmid
 - BR: Boliver & Rodriguez
 - 322: Identification Number

CHARACTERISTICS

- pBR322 is a circular double-stranded DNA
- It contains 4361 base pairs.
- It has important regions like:
 - amp^R (ampicillin resistance)
 - ori (origin of replication)
 - tet^R (tetracycline resistance)
 - rop gene
 - Multiple restriction sites



IMPORTANT REGIONS OF pBR322

① ori (origin of replication)

- It is the starting point of DNA replication.
- Helps plasmid to multiply inside bacteria.

② rop gene

- rop = repressor of primer.
- Helps in controlling plasmid copy number

③ Antibiotic Resistance Gene

- amp^R (Ampicillin Resistance): Protects bacteria from ampicillin
- tet^R (Tetracycline Resistance): Provides resistance against tetracycline
- These are used as selectable markers.

④ Restriction Sites

- pBR322 contains 40+ unique restriction enzyme sites in which these are the most common ones:
 - EcoRI
 - ClaI
 - Hind III
 - BamHI
 - SalI
 - PstI
 - PvuI
 - PvuII



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INSERTIONAL INACTIVATION

- When foreign DNA is inserted:
- If inserted in amp^R : ampicillin resistance lost
- If inserted in tet^R : tetracycline resistance lost

FUNCTIONS OF pBR322

- It is used as cloning vector
- It helps in DNA insertion
- It is used in gene transfer
- It helps in selection of recombinant cells.

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② BACTERIOPHAGE

- Bacteriophage are viruses that infect bacteria.
- They're used as vectors to carry foreign DNA.
- They can carry 15-20kb DNA fragments.
- Common example: λ (lambda) phage

③ COSMIDS

- Cosmids are hybrid vectors made by combining features of plasmids + bacteriophage (λ phage).
- They're circular DNA (like plasmids)
- They can carry large DNA fragments ($\approx$ 35-45 kb)

④ ARTIFICIAL CHROMOSOMES

- Artificial Chromosomes are man-made DNA molecules that behave like real chromosomes are used to carry very large DNA fragments in cloning.

TYPES OF ARTIFICIAL CHROMOSOMES

① YAC (Yeast Artificial Chromosomes)

- Used in yeast cells
- Can carry very large DNA fragments (up to 1mb)

② BAC (Bacterial Artificial Chromosomes)

- Used in bacteria (E.coli)
- Capacity: 100 - 300 kb

© HAC (Human Artificial Chromosomes)

- Used in Human cells
- Very large DNA (more than 1mb) capacity

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RESTRICTION ENDONUCLEASES

- Restriction Endonucleases are enzymes that cut DNA at specific sequences.
- They act like Molecular Scissors.
- They're found in Bacteria.
- Restriction: They protect bacteria from viruses by cutting viral DNA, thus 'restrict' viral growth.
- Endonucleases: Endo = Inside
Nucleases = Enzyme that cuts Nucleic Acids

TYPES OF RESTRICTION ENDONUCLEASES

They're mainly of 3 types:

- ① Type I
- ② Type II
- ③ Type III

① TYPE I

- They cut DNA at random sites (far from recognition site)
- They are complex enzymes & not used in genetic engineering.

② TYPE II

- They cut DNA at specific sites
- They're simple, precise & widely used in Gene cloning.
- Example: EcoR I, Hind III, BamH I

③ TYPE III

- They cut DNA near the recognition site.
- They're less commonly used.

RECOGNITION SEQUENCE

- Each enzyme recognizes a specific DNA sequence, usually Palindromic Sequence
- Palindromic sequence: Same when read in both directions.
- Example: EcoR I recognizes:
5' — GAATTC — 3'
3' — CTTAAG — 5'

EXAMPLE OF SOME RE ENZYMES & CLEAVAGE SITES

RESTRICTION ENDONUCLEASES	SOURCES	CLEAVAGE SITES
Hind III	Haemophilus influenza - d	5' — AAGCTT — 3' 3' — TTCGAA — 5'
Eco RI	Escherichia coli RY 13	5' — GAATTC — 3' 3' — CTTAAG — 5'
Hpa I	Haemophilus parainfluenza	5' — GTTAAC — 3' 3' — CAATTG — 5'
Bam HI	Bacillus Amiloliquefaciens H	5' — GGATCC — 3' 3' — CCTAGG — 5'

DNA LIGASE

- DNA ligase is an enzyme that joins two DNA fragments together.
- It acts like a "molecular glue".
- It forms phosphodiester bonds b/w DNA fragments.
- Joins 3'-OH end of one strand with 5'-phosphate end of another
- DNA ligase is naturally present in cells & used in DNA replication (joins Okazaki fragments) & DNA repair.

TYPES OF DNA LIGASE

① PROKARYOTIC DNA LIGASE

- Found in bacteria (e.g., E. coli)
- Uses NAD^+ (Nicotinamide Adenine Dinucleotide) as energy source.

② EUKARYOTIC DNA LIGASE

- Found in higher organisms (humans, animals, plants)
- Uses ATP as energy source
- They're further subdivided as:
 - DNA ligase I
 - DNA ligase II
 - DNA ligase III
 - DNA ligase IV

③ T₄ DNA ligase

- It is obtained from bacteriophage T₄.
- It is widely used in genetic engineering.

APPLICATIONS

- Gene cloning
- Recombinant DNA technology
- DNA repair studies
- Biotechnology & research

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rDNA TECHNOLOGY

- Recombinant DNA (rDNA) technology is a technique in Molecular Biology in which DNA from different sources is combined artificially to form a new DNA molecule.
- This new DNA is called recombinant DNA (rDNA)
- The phenomenon of rDNA formation is known as Genetic Engineering.
- Example: Human insulin production using bacteria

PRINCIPLE OF rDNA TECHNOLOGY

- The principle of rDNA technology is based on cutting & joining DNA from different sources to form a new DNA molecule, which is then introduced into a host cell to produce desired proteins.

COMPONENTS OF rDNA TECHNOLOGY

- ① DONOR DNA:
 - It is the DNA that contains the gene of interest.
 - Example: Human Insulin Gene
- ② VECTOR:
 - It is the carrier DNA that transfers gene into host cell.
 - Common vectors: Plasmids, Bacteriophages
- ③ HOST CELL:
 - It is the organism, where rDNA is inserted.
 - Example: Bacteria (E.Coli, Yeast)

- ④ RESTRICTION ENDONUCLEASES :
- It is the enzyme which cuts DNA at specific sites.
 - They're also known as 'Molecular Scissors'
- ⑤ DNA LIGASE :
- It is the enzyme that joins DNA fragments.
 - It is also known as 'Molecular Glue'.

STEPS INVOLVED IN rDNA TECHNOLOGY

It involves following steps:

- Isolation of Desired Gene
- Cutting of DNA
- Selection of Vector
- Ligation
- Introduction into Host cell
- Cloning & Expression

① ISOLATION OF DESIRED GENE

- First the gene of interest (useful gene) is identified & isolated from the donor organism.
- Example: Insulin gene from human cells
- The main purpose is to obtain the specific DNA fragment that codes for a desired protein.

② CUTTING OF DNA

- Special enzymes called restriction endonucleases act like molecular scissors.
- They cut DNA at specific sequences.

③ SELECTION OF VECTOR

- A vector is a DNA molecule used to carry the desired gene into a host cell.
- The most common vectors are Plasmids, Bacteriophages & Cosmid.

④ LIGATION

- The desired gene is joined with the vector using an enzyme called DNA ligase.
- This forms rDNA.
- Desired gene + Vector DNA = Recombinant DNA

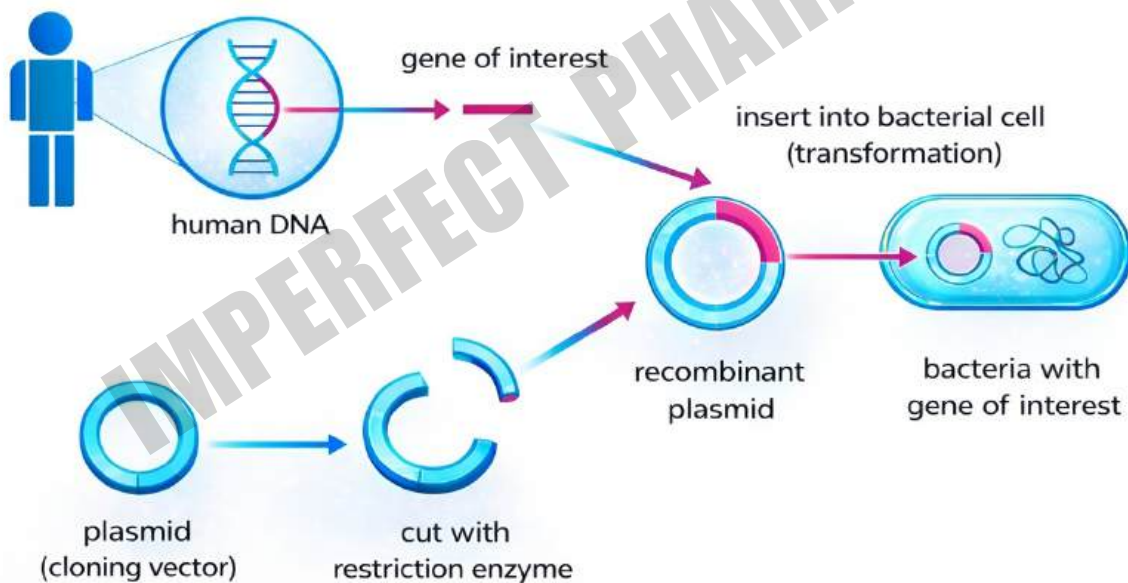
⑤ INTRODUCTION INTO HOST CELL

- The rDNA is introduced into a suitable host cell such as:
 - Bacteria (E.coli)
 - Yeast
 - Animal Cells

⑥ CLONING & EXPRESSION OF GENE

- Inside the host:
- The host cell multiplies.
- The inserted gene replicates
- The gene produces the desired protein (expression).
- Example: Bacteria produce large amounts of insulin.

Recombinant DNA technology



APPLICATION OF rDNA TECHNOLOGY

① PRODUCTION OF HORMONES

- rDNA technology is used to produce human hormones like insulin & growth hormone using bacteria.

② PRODUCTION OF VACCINES

- Vaccines are made by inserting antigen genes into microorganisms.
- These vaccines are safe because they don't contain the whole pathogen but still trigger immunity.

③ GENE THERAPY

- It is used to treat genetic diseases by replacing defective with normal genes.

④ PRODUCTION OF GIM CROPS

- Genes are inserted into plants to improve qualities like pest resistance & high yield.

⑤ PRODUCTION OF ENZYMES

- Microorganisms are genetically modified to produce useful enzymes.

⑥ DNA FINGERPRINTING

- rDNA technology helps in identifying individuals based on their unique DNA pattern.
- It is used in crime investigation & paternity testing.

⑦ PRODUCTION OF MONOCLONAL ANTIBODIES

- Specific antibodies are produced using genetic engineering techniques.
- These are used in disease diagnosis & treatment, especially in cancers.

INTERFERONS

- Interferons are antiviral proteins (mainly glycoproteins) produced by body cells in response to viral infection.
- It act as a first line defense against viral attack.
- They help protect cells by inhibiting virus replication & activating the immune system.

TYPES OF INTERFERONS

- ① Interferon - α
- ② Interferon - β
- ③ Interferon - γ

① INTERFERON - α

- They're produced by WBCs
- They've strong antiviral activity.

② INTERFERON - β

- They're produced by fibroblasts.
- They play an important role in viral defense & immune regulation.

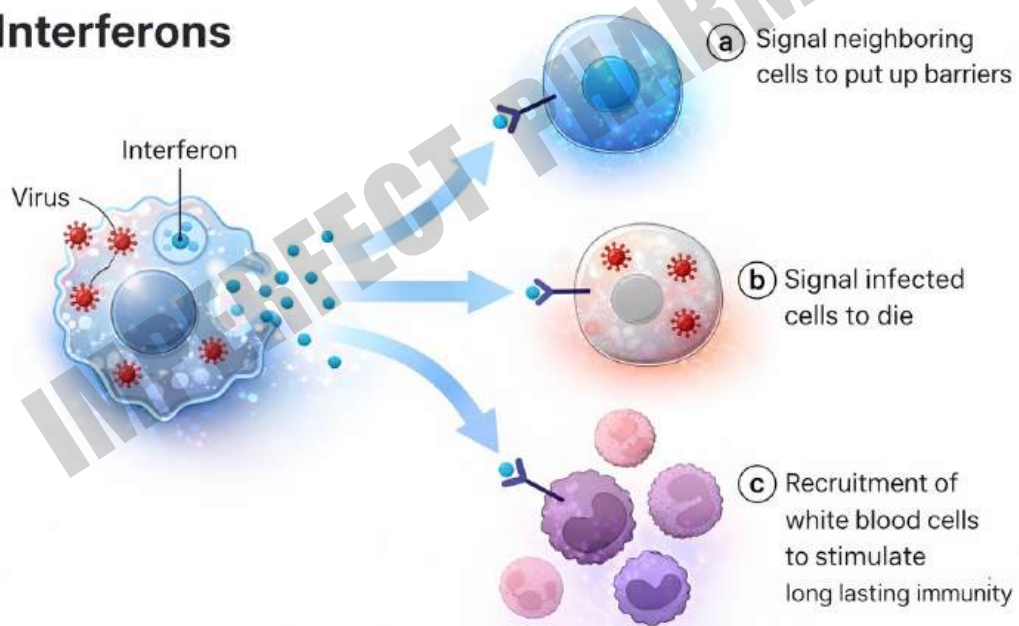
③ INTERFERON - γ

- They're produced by T- lymphocytes
- They activates immune cells.

MECHANISM OF ACTION

- Virus attack on cell
- Cell releases interferons
- Interferons binds to nearby cells
- Activates gene inside nearby cells
- Produce Antiviral proteins
- These proteins:
 - Stop viral replication
 - Destroy Viral RNA
 - Activate immune cells

Interferons



PRODUCTION OF INTERFERON BY rDNA TECHNOLOGY

- Interferons are antiviral proteins produced by human cells.
- Using recombinant DNA (rDNA) technology, interferon genes are inserted into microorganisms like (E.coli or Yeast) to produce large amounts of interferons.

STEPS INVOLVED

- Isolation & Preparation of Desired Gene
- Preparation of Vector
- Formation of
- Introduction into Host cell
- Cloning & Expression

① ISOLATION & PREPARATION OF DESIRED GENE

- mRNA from interferon producing cells is isolated.
mRNA is converted cDNA using reverse transcriptase enzyme.
- This cDNA represents the interferon gene.

② PREPARATION OF VECTOR

- A bacterial plasmid (vector) is selected.
- Plasmid is cut using restriction endonuclease enzymes.

③ FORMATION OF rDNA

- The interferon cDNA is inserted into plasmid using DNA ligase.
- rDNA is prepared.

④ INTRODUCTION INTO HOST CELL

- Recombinant plasmid is introduced into competent E.coli cells.

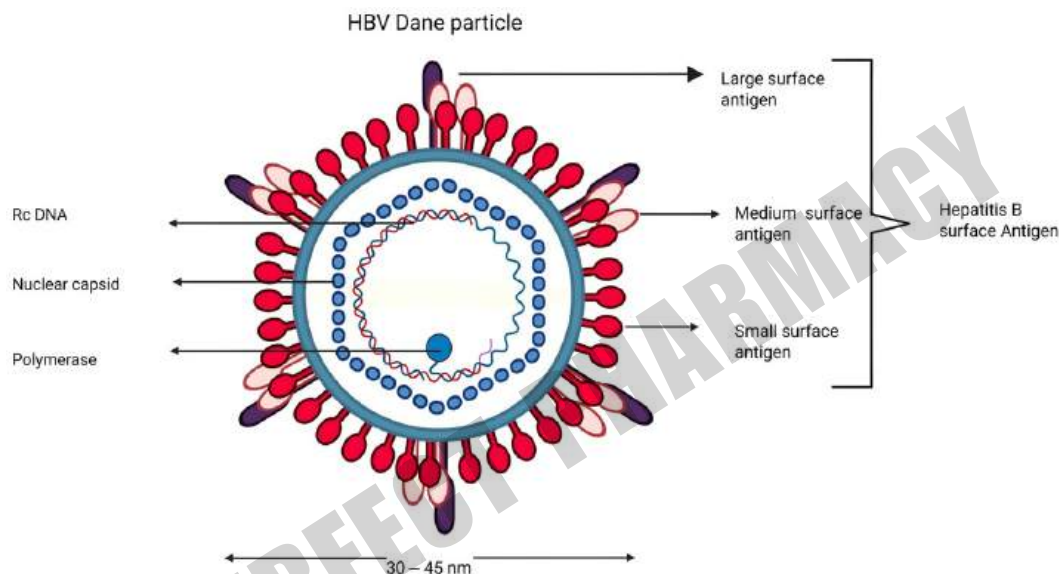
⑤ CLONING & EXPRESSION

- Bacteria are grown in culture (fermenters).
- They multiply & express the interferon protein.

NOTE: In present time mostly Yeast host (*Saccharomyces cerevisiae*) are preferred over bacterial host for production of interferons.

HEPATITIS B VIRUS

- Hepatitis B Virus (HBV) is a DNA virus that infects the liver.
- It causes Hepatitis B, which can be acute or chronic.
- It is spherical shaped (Dane particle)
- It contains HBsAg as surface antigen.



PRODUCTION OF HEPATITIS B VACCINE

- The Hepatitis B Vaccine is a recombinant vaccine produced by inserting the HBsAg gene of the Hepatitis B virus into a host cell using rDNA technology, leading to production of antigen without using the live virus.

STEPS INVOLVED

- Gene isolation
- Insertion into Vector
- Transformation
- Expression
- Fermentation
- Purification & Vaccine Preparation

① GENE ISOLATION

- Gene coding for HBsAg (surface antigen) is isolated from HBV DNA.

② INSERTION INTO VECTOR

- The gene is inserted into plasmid vector using restriction enzymes & ligase.

③ TRANSFORMATION

- Recombinant plasmid is introduced into yeast cells (*Saccharomyces cerevisiae*)

④ EXPRESSION

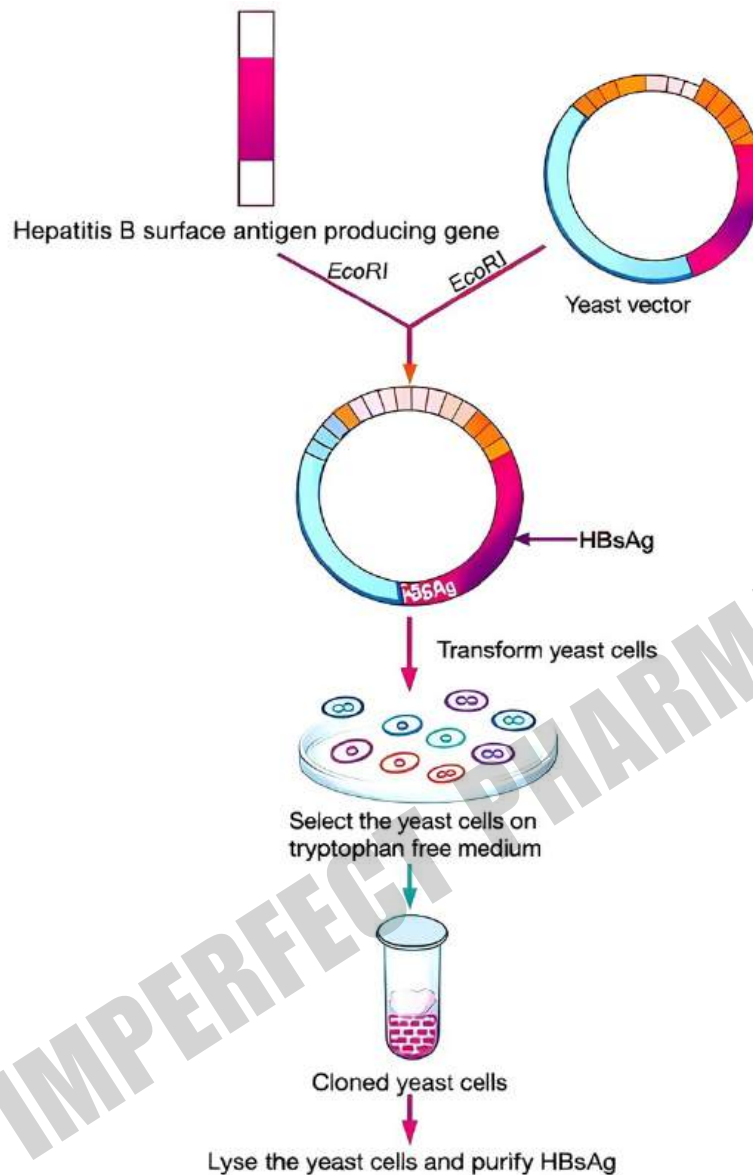
- Yeast cell produce HBsAg Protein.

⑤ FERMENTATION

- Yeast are grown at large scale in bioreactors for mass production.

⑥ PURIFICATION

- HBsAg is extracted & purified.
- Purified HBsAg combined with other ingredients (e.g. aluminium salts) & bottled.
- Now it's ready for vaccination in humans.



ADVANTAGES OF rDNA VACCINE

- Safe (no live Virus)
- Highly effective
- No risk of infection
- Can be produced in large amounts.

INSULIN

- Insulin is a peptide hormone produced by β -cells of pancreas (Islets of Langerhans).
- It plays a crucial role in regulating blood glucose levels.
- It is composed of 51 amino acids arranged in two chains (A & B) connected by disulfide bonds.
- It is secreted in response to increased blood glucose levels.
- It helps in glucose uptake by cells, especially muscle & adipose tissue.

FUNCTIONS

- Lowers blood glucose levels
- Promotes glycogenesis (glucose $\rightarrow$ glycogen)
- Inhibits gluconeogenesis
- Promotes fat storage (lipogenesis)

PRODUCTION OF INSULIN

- Recombinant DNA (rDNA) technology allows production of human insulin using microorganism like E. coli or Yeast avoiding animal sources.
- Genetech and Eli Lilly developed the first recombinant human insulin (Humulin) in 1978 & brought it to market in 1982
- Insulin consists of two polypeptide chains (A & B).
- In earlier days both chains are produced separately in bacteria & later combined to form active insulin.

STEPS INVOLVED

- Isolation of A & B chain Genes
- Preparation of Recombinant Plasmids
- Formation of Fusion Proteins
- Transformation into E. coli
- Expression of A & B
- Isolation & Cleavage of Fusion Proteins
- Combination of A & B Chains (Disulfide Bond Formation)
- Formation of Active Insulin

① ISOLATION OF GENES

- Human insulin gene is identified.
- Separate DNA sequences are isolated for:
 - A chain (21 amino acids)
 - B chain (30 amino acids)

② PREPARATION OF RECOMBINANT PLASMIDS

- Two different plasmids are prepared:
 - One containing A chain gene
 - One containing B chain gene
- Plasmids are cut using restriction enzymes (e.g., EcoRI)

③ FORMATION OF FUSION PROTEINS

- Each gene is inserted into plasmid along with β -galactosidase gene
- This forms fusion proteins to protect small insulin chains from degradation inside bacteria.

④ TRANSFORMATION INTO E. COLI

- Recombinant plasmids are introduced into E. Coli cells
- Two separate bacterial cultures are prepared:
 - One produces A chain
 - One produces B chain

⑤ EXPRESSION OF CHAINS

- Bacteria synthesizes:
 - A chain fusion protein
 - B chain fusion protein

⑥ ISOLATION & CLEAVAGE

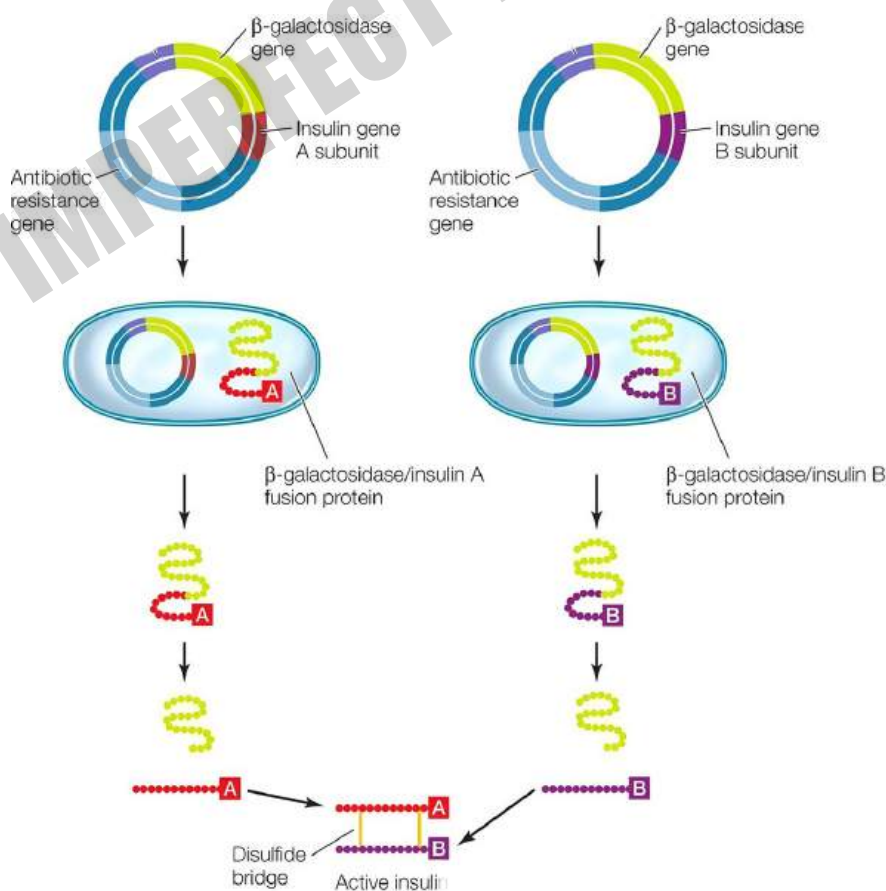
- Fusion proteins are extracted
- They're treated with chemicals to separate A & B chains from fusion proteins.

⑦ COMBINATION OF A & B CHAINS

- Purified A & B chains are mixed under controlled conditions.
- Disulfide bonds (S—S bonds) are formed.

⑧ FORMATION OF ACTIVE INSULIN

- Correct folding leads to formation of biologically active insulin.



POLYMERASE CHAIN REACTION

- Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR) is a laboratory technique used to make millions of copies of a specific DNA segment in a short time.
- It is developed by Kary Mullis (1983) & received Nobel Prize in Chemistry in 1993.

PRINCIPLE

- PCR is based on DNA replication mechanism, but performed artificially.
- DNA strands separate on heating.
- Primers bind to target sequence.
- DNA polymerase synthesizes new strand.

COMPONENTS OF PCR

① TEMPLATE DNA

- It is the DNA which you want to copy.

② PRIMERS

- They're short DNA sequences that mark the starting point.

③ DNA POLYMERASE

- They're special heat stable enzyme (commonly Taq polymerase).

④ dNTPs (DEOXYNUCLEOTIDE TRIPHOSPHATES)

- They're building blocks of DNA (A, T, G, C)

⑤ BUFFER SOLUTION

- It maintains proper pH & conditions.

STEPS OF PCR

PCR Consists of 3 main steps:

- ① Denaturation
- ② Annealing
- ③ Synthesis

① DENATURATION

- The reaction mixture is heated to 94° - 98°C
- At this temperature, the double-stranded DNA separates into two single strands due to breaking of hydrogen bonds.
- This step prepares the DNA to act as a template.

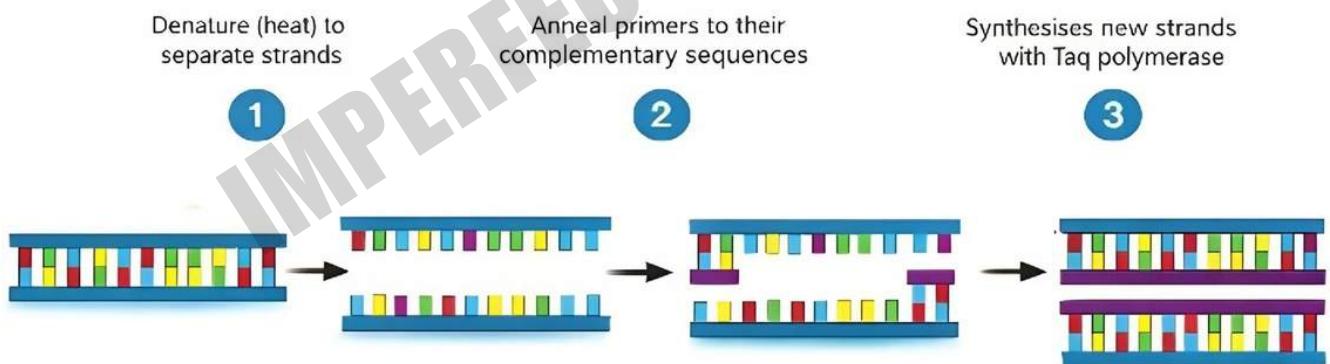
② ANNEALING

- The temperature is reduced to 50 - 65°C .
- Primers bind (anneal) to their complementary sequences on the single-stranded DNA.

③ SYNTHESIS (EXTENSION / ELONGATION)

- The temperature is raised to 72°C .
- DNA Polymerase synthesizes a new DNA strand by adding nucleotides in the $5' \rightarrow 3'$ direction.
- As a result, a new complementary DNA strand is formed.

NOTE: The steps of Denaturation $\rightarrow$ Annealing $\rightarrow$ Extension are repeated for 25-35 cycles, leading to exponential amplification of the target DNA.



ADVANTAGES OF PCR

- Very fast (few hours)
- Highly sensitive (detects even small DNA amount)
- Specific (due to primers)
- Requires small sample.

APPLICATIONS OF PCR

① MEDICAL APPLICATIONS

- Used for diagnosis of infectious diseases (e.g. COVID-19, TB, HIV)
- Detection of genetic disorders

② FORENSIC SCIENCE

- Used in DNA fingerprinting
- Helps in crime investigation
- Used for paternity testing

③ AGRICULTURE

- Detection of genetically modified organisms (GMOs)
- Identification of plant pathogens

④ ENVIRONMENTAL & MICROBIOLOGY

- Detection of micro-organism in water/soil
- Monitoring environmental pollution.

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