

THE POLYMERASE CHAIN REACTION: DNA EXTRACTION AND AMPLIFICATION

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The polymerase chain reaction (PCR) is a method of cloning DNA without the use of microorganisms (Saiki et al. 1985, Mullis et al. 1986). In five short years since the development of PCR, this technology has been modified for many uses (Innes et al. 1990) and has essentially revolutionized molecular biology (Guyer and Koshland 1989). PCR allows the rapid selection, isolation and amplification of DNA regions of interest from small amounts of tissue and can be used to help prepare DNA for sequencing. Because it works well for small amounts of tissue and for small pieces of DNA, PCR allows the examination of nucleotide sequences from ancient preserved specimens which have been dried, frozen, hidden in anaerobic sediments, or soaked in alcohol or formalin (Paabo 1990). The greatly increased speed of extraction, amplification, and sequencing has made nucleotide sequence data available on the large scale necessary for population biological and systematic studies. If sequencing studies turn up consistent differences in nucleotide sequence among populations or taxa, PCR can be combined with RFLP analysis to rapidly screen for these known differences. Dot blot analysis with allele specific probes or allele specific PCR primers can be used for a similar purpose (Innes et al. 1990).

PCR makes use of 18-25 bp pieces of DNA called primers which flank the region to be copied and create starting points for strand synthesis. These primers must be homologous or nearly homologous to segments of the sample mtDNA bordering the region to be cloned. If the nucleotide sequence of the sample mtDNA is not known, potential primers must be chosen based on sequences of close relatives. For taxa for which no close relatives have been sequenced, highly conserved regions of DNA can serve as "universal" primers for DNA amplification (Kocher et al. 1989, Simon et al. 1990). For

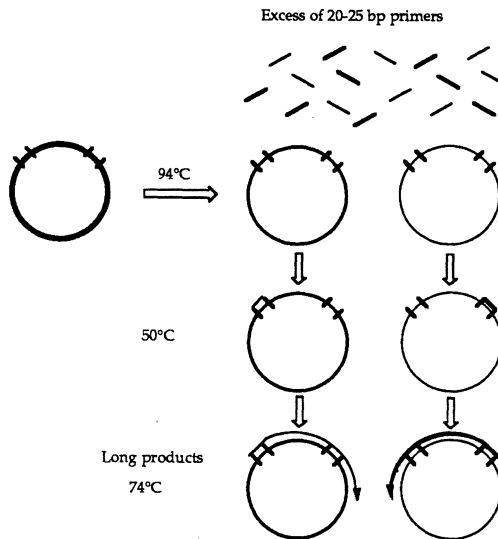
amplification of protein coding regions for unstudied species, degenerate primers can be used which are designed to include a mixture of possible primers all matching a known conserved amino acid sequence. The substitution of nucleotides by the non-specific base analog inosine in degenerate positions increases the universality of a primer (Linz et al. 1990). Tips for constructing PCR primers are provided in Appendix 1. References useful for designing primers are provided in Appendix 2. Useful PCR primers with varying degrees of conservation are provided in Appendix 3. A discussion of the choice of particular DNA regions appropriate for various taxonomic levels of investigation is given in part 1 of this book (Simon, this volume).

The PCR reaction takes place in three basic steps: template denaturation, primer annealing, and new strand extension (Figure 1). The reaction mixture contains template DNA, two primers each complementary to opposite strands, buffer, the four nucleotides in equal proportions, and a thermo-stable polymerase enzyme (Taq polymerase). In the first step, the temperature is raised rapidly to 92-96° C and held there for 15 seconds to 1 minute. This causes the double stranded template DNA to dissociate. An initial denaturation of 3-4 minutes prior to the first cycle improves the efficiency of the reaction (Adding the Taq polymerase after this initial denaturation step will prolong the life of the enzyme). For the second step, the temperature is dropped rapidly to approximately 50° C. This allows annealing of the oligonucleotide primers. The excess of primers assures that they will compete successfully with the double strands of the original template molecules for annealing. We use a range of annealing temperatures from 45 to 72° C; 50° C is a good starting point. The lower the temperature, the less specific the annealing, therefore we recommend using as high a temperature as possible to avoid mispriming. In the third, extension, step of the PCR cycle, the temperature is raised to 72-74° C for maximum efficiency of the Taq polymerase. At this temperature, Taq has been found to add between 35 and 100 nucleotides per second such that an extension time of one minute is sufficient to amplify up to 2 Kb (Innis and Gelfand 1990), although empirically we have found 2 minutes to work well. The cycle ends when the temperature is again raised to 92° C and the strands dissociate. The number of cycles necessary varies between 25 and 40 depending on the number of target molecules in the initial reaction.

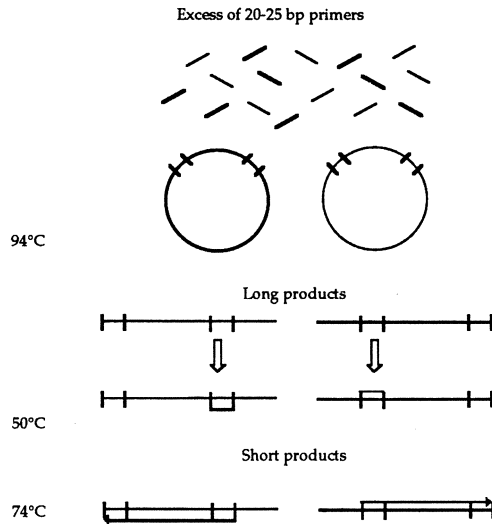
Figure 1. Diagrammatic representation of the PCR Cycle. A) In the first cycle of PCR, dissociation at 94 degrees C is followed by annealing of the primers to the complementary strands, and finally by extension at 74 degrees C. Long products are produced from the dissociated circular mtDNA strands because extension is terminated only by a new cycle of denaturation or the *Taq* enzyme falling off. B) In the second cycle of a PCR reaction a second set of long products is generated for each molecule of starting template DNA. This is not shown because it is identical to the diagram in A. In addition, one set of short products is produced from the long products. Extension of the short product stops when the end of the long product is reached. C) In all subsequent cycles of PCR, one set of long products is produced from each molecule of starting template DNA (not shown) and short products are produced from long products and from existing short products. Thus, short products increase exponentially while long products accumulate linearly.

A.

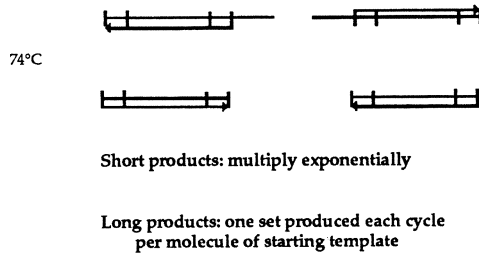
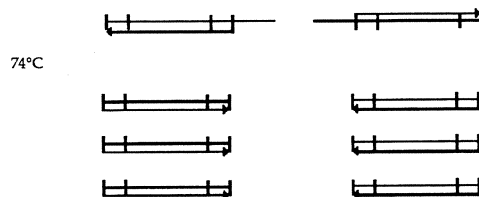
PCR - First Cycle



B.

PCR - Second Cycle**Short Products Produced From Long Products**

c.

Short Products of Third Cycle**Short Products of Fourth Cycle**

In addition to the standard PCR reaction which produces a double stranded product, PCR can be modified to produce single stranded DNA (Gyllenstein and Erlich 1988). In this "asymmetric amplification", one primer, the "limiting primer" is added in 50 to 100 times less concentration. Amplification proceeds exponentially until the limiting primer is exhausted. At this point, the reaction becomes linear and only one strand is produced. Two amplification mixtures are prepared each containing a limiting amount of one of the two primers. The limiting primer can be used for sequencing or a third, internal, primer can be used.

The protocols presented below were developed for extracting and amplifying mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) from insect tissue but they vary little from the standard protocols used in PCR. The book, "PCR Protocols: A Guide to Methods and Applications" (Innes et al. 1990) provides detailed descriptions of basic PCR methodology as well as a wide variety of modifications. The protocols provided here emphasize simplicity, efficiency, and applications to mitochondrial DNA, especially that of invertebrate taxa.

EXTRACTION PROTOCOLS

Most extraction protocols share the same basic steps: homogenization, destruction of extraneous or harmful proteins (such as nucleases), lysis of membranes containing DNA, and the separation of DNA from cell debris, digested proteins and other extraneous materials. Because PCR primers are specific, simple genomic DNA preps (containing mitochondrial and nuclear DNA) work well for mtDNA amplification. Thus, time consuming ultracentrifugation of DNA in a cesium gradient can be avoided. Below we present two protocols: A standard genomic protocol and a simplified genomic protocol for use with small amounts of tissue. In the standard protocol, we have noted where amounts of certain components can vary. Obviously, these amounts are not critical. Success of each recipe may vary depending on the sample organisms. In the second protocol, the ability of PCR to work from small amounts of tissue allows the omission of centrifugation, unpleasant phenol/chloroform extractions, and ETOH precipitation. We have just begun using this technique and have obtained excellent amplifications for periodical cicadas for the 12A & B primer set (Appendix 3).

Extraction of Genomic DNA (Periodical cicada used as an example) for Mitochondrial DNA Amplification.

1. Homogenize entire insect (trim wings, legs, excess chitin): Flight muscles and egg masses are excellent sources of mitochondrial DNA. Amount of homogenization buffer will depend on the amount of tissue used.

HOMOGENIZATION BUFFER:	10 mM NaCl	.584 g	
	50 mM Tris HCl	6.05 g	(pH 7.5 in 1M soln.)
	100 mM EDTA	37.22 g	
	250 mM Sucrose	85.57 g	
	Sterile Distilled Water	to 1 L	

2. Centrifuge 10 minutes at 3.5K rpm. Transfer supernatant to new tube discard pellet (mostly nuclei and cell debris). This and the following step increase the ratio of mitochondria to nuclei and are optional.
3. Centrifuge 20 minutes at 13K rpm. At this speed the mitochondria will pellet. Save pellet and dissolve in 700 microliters sterile distilled water.
4. Transfer to 1.5 ml eppendorf and add: 70 μ l 10.0% SDS (to make 1%), and Proteinase K (to make 100 μ g/ml; extraction protocols are highly variable in amount of Proteinase K from 1 μ g/ml to 500 μ g/ml).
5. Incubate at 60° C overnight. (Other protocols: 37° C for 10 - 20 hours; or 55 - 65° C for 2-3 hours).
6. Extract once with 500 μ l Phenol (equilibrated with Tris HCl pH 8 and containing 0.1 % 8-Hydroxy quinolin), then extract 3 times with 500 μ l Chloroform/Isoamyl Alcohol (24:1).
7. Pipette aqueous phase into new 1.5 ml eppendorf and ppt. DNA with 2 volumes 95% ETOH. Spin at 10K rpm for 2 minutes.
8. Wash pellet with 70% ETOH and dry
9. Resuspend in 300 μ l sterile distilled water.
10. Use 5 μ l in PCR reaction. Note: mtDNA content varies among species and among individuals (see "Sample Concentration," below).

Simplified Extraction Protocol for Small Amounts of Tissue Modified from Kawasaki (1990).

1. Remove three eggs from one periodical cicada (or small amount of other tissue) and place in 35 μ l lysis buffer:

LYSIS BUFFER: 10 mM Tris HCl pH 7.5-8.0
 1 mM EDTA
 1 % Nonidet (preferentially lyses mitochondria)
 100 µg/ml Proteinase K

2. Add an equal volume of sterile distilled water.
3. Heat to 95° C for 3 min.
4. Use 1 µl in PCR reaction.

AMPLIFICATION PROTOCOL

10 X PCR Buffer: 670 µl 1M Tris HCl pH 8.8
 20 µl 1M MgCl₂
 83 µl 2M (NH₄)₂SO₄
 227 µl sterile distilled water

 1000 µl total

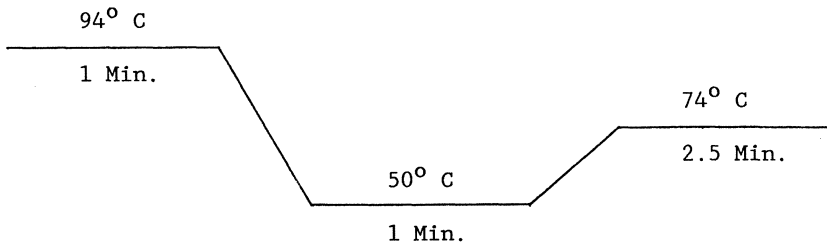
In a .5 µl eppendorf tube, make a 100 µl rxn using:

<u>Volume</u>	<u>Final Concentration</u>
1-5 µl extracted DNA	unknown (see below)
10 µl 10X PCR Buffer:	67.0 mM Tris HCl
	2.0 mM MgCl ₂
	16.6 mM (NH ₄) ₂ SO ₄
5 µl primer 1 10µM stock	0.5 µM
5 µl primer 2 10µM stock	0.5 µM
10 µl dNTP's 10mM stock	1.0 mM total or .25 mM each
.5 µl <u>Taq</u>	1 unit

Optional:

Bovine Serum Albumin 2 - 100 µg/ml (nuclease free)
 or Autoclaved Gelatin 100 µg/ml
 β-Mercaptoethanol 10 mM

Overlay with 2 drops mineral oil and amplify 30-35 cycles (Denature: 94° C; Anneal: 50° C; Extend: 72° C) as illustrated.



Following the reaction, run 10 μ l of product with 4 μ l dense dye on a minigel, with a known size standard (Phi-X HAE III). Stain with EtBr. A water control (all rxn components except template DNA) should always be run because contamination is a serious problem in PCR (see Kwok 1990 for procedures to minimize contamination). Minigels can be run with TBE or TA buffer.

	<u>Amount</u>	<u>10X Concentration</u>
10X TBE Buffer:		
Tris base	215.60 g	890 mM
Boric Acid	110.05 g	890 mM
EDTA	14.80 g	20 mM

Sterile dH₂O to 2.0 L

Template Concentration. When extracting total DNA it is difficult to know the concentration of mitochondrial versus genomic DNA. Probing of each sample with a mitochondrial probe on a southern blot would provide an estimate of relative mtDNA concentration but is too time consuming for routine procedures. We have found considerable variation in the amount of total DNA from individual to individual. Total DNA concentrations can be equalized by eye by running 15 μ l of each extraction on a minigel, staining with EtBr, comparing staining intensities among individual samples and diluting more concentrated samples. Although PCR is supposed to work from one or two molecules of starting DNA, often when comparing samples of the same species extracted in parallel, some samples simply will not amplify. A sample may be either too concentrated or too dilute to work. We recommend titration of sample concentration in both directions.

PCR Buffer. The PCR buffer may contain the salt (NH₄)₂SO₄, or KCl or no salt other than MgCl₂ (e.g. Pääbo 1990). Magnesium concentration effects primer annealing and enzyme activity. It may have to be re-adjusted for each primer pair for optimum amplification. Cetus recommends MgCl₂ titration over the range 1.5 - 4.0 mM and that the final magnesium concentration be at least 0.5 to 1.0 mM higher than the total dNTP concentration (Oste 1989). We have found that it is useful to titrate each primer separately for the single stranded reactions.

Primer Concentration. If primer concentrations are too high, non-specific priming can occur (resulting in multiple products). High primer concentration can also increase the incidence of primer-dimers (see primer construction tips).

dNTP Concentration. The four dNTPs should be in equal concentrations. Innis and Gelfand (1990) recommend comparing nucleotide concentrations between 20 and 200 μM each dNTP. Low concentrations minimize mispriming.

Taq Concentration. Taq concentrations can be varied between .5 units per reaction to 2.5 units per reaction with good success. Concentrations necessary will vary with template and primers. Because Taq is expensive, it pays to try a titration series. High concentrations of Taq may result in non-specific products.

Asymmetrical amplifications. As described above, asymmetrical (single stranded) amplifications can be performed using the same protocol as for symmetrical (double stranded) reactions and varying the concentration of one of the primers to 1/100 or 1/50 that of the other. The number of cycles is increased from 35 to 40 to increase the amount of single stranded product produced during the linear phase of the reaction. Template DNA for the asymmetrical amplification can come directly from the original genomic extraction, from a double stranded PCR reaction, or from a band of double stranded product cut or melted (diluted 100X in water) from a 2-4% NuSieve agarose gel slice. If the template DNA for the asymmetrical amplification is contaminated with primers from the double stranded reaction or if the starting amount of amplified double stranded DNA is high enough, it may not be necessary to add limiting primer in order to obtain sufficient single stranded DNA for sequencing. We have tried all of these techniques and found that the relative success of each varies across species and primer pairs. It is not uncommon that in single stranded reactions, one primer will amplify better than its opposing partner. If this is the case, there are several options: sequence double stranded rather than single stranded template; kinase one primer and then digest one strand of a double stranded PCR reaction to produce single stranded DNA (see Kreitman, this volume); or add a third primer, external to the problem primer, for single stranded amplification. Amplify double stranded with the three primers. The problem strand will thus increase more than exponentially. Use 1 μl of this solution for single stranded reactions with the each of the two original primers, respectively (use no limiting primer). Sequence the single strands with the appropriate original primers. We have found that the problem primer as well as its opposing partner will sequence well with this technique.

To Prepare DNA for Sequencing: To purify DNA for sequencing, the reaction mixture can be concentrated (to approx. 30-40 µl) using a Centricon 30 microconcentrator¹ (Amicon, Danvers, MA) or an Ultrafree Microconcentrator 30,000 (Millipore, Bedford, MA) which remove salts, excess nucleotides and primers. Both methods retain more DNA than ethanol precipitation and the latter is less expensive, faster to use, and works well. In our laboratory sequencing is performed using approximately 5-7 µl of the purified, concentrated single stranded product in a dideoxy sequencing reaction using the Sequenase enzyme system (U.S. Biochemical Co, Cleveland, OH).

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¹ Amicon now recommends their new 100,00 MW filter which cleans up PCR products faster and more efficiently and retains pieces up to 125 bp with 90% efficiency. Millipore still recommends their 30,000 MW filter for PCR clean up stating that their filter is "not as tight."

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Appendix 1. Tips on primer construction. The first version of these primer tips was compiled by CS during a research visit to the laboratory of A.C. Wilson in July of 1988 and includes input from D. Irwin, T. Kocher, C. Orego, S. Pääbo, M. Stoneking, and K. Thomas. This updated version incorporates information from our subsequent experiences plus insights compiled in Innis et al. (1990).

1. Oligonucleotide primers should be approximately 18-25 bp long. Above 25 bp there is not much increase in primer annealing specificity.
2. To choose primers for unsequenced organisms, try regions which are known to be highly conserved. Remember to take into account possible gene rearrangements and differences in direction of transcription when choosing opposing primers. Use references in Appendix 2 for these purposes.
3. A convenient size DNA segment for PCR amplifications and sequencing is 400-500 bp. Amplifications of up to 10 Kb have been performed successfully and produce enough product to be visible on a EtBr stained gel. Pieces of 20 kb have been amplified and visualized by probing (Dan Clutter, pers. comm.). Once a reference sequence is obtained for the species under investigation, A useful strategy is to choose universal primers 1000 bp apart for the initial amplification and then to sequence with internal primers which are more specific to your particular organism.
4. The 3' end of the primer is most critical. The first three bases should be complementary. It has been shown that a match at the 3' end of a primer is essential for the success of PCR because *Taq* polymerase lacks a 3'-5' exonuclease activity (Linz et al. 1990). For this reason, it is best not to end a primer on the third position of a codon. A "T" at the 3' end of a primer has been shown to pair with any base (Kwok et al. 1990).
5. The 5' end of a primer is less critical. Some people add a restriction site to the 5' end (for later cloning or expression vector analysis). This site, of course, does not anneal in the first round of polymerization. Thereafter it is copied. In fact, any mismatches in the primer will be copied such that in later runs primers will match the newly created attachment sites perfectly. As a result, annealing temperature can be increased after about 5 cycles of PCR to increase priming specificity.
6. The base composition of a primer should be roughly equivalent for all four bases. G's and C's form stronger bonds than A's and T's. The annealing temperature should be as high as possible to prevent non-specific priming. For standard conditions annealing temperature should be 10 degrees C less than the melting temperature.

$$T_{\text{melting}} \text{ (for 20bp or less) } = (4 \times (G+C)) + (2 \times (A+T)),$$

where G+C = the total number of G's and C's in the primer, etc. Computer programs are available for calculating bonding energy of oligonucleotide primers (see Kreitman, this volume).

Appendix 1 (continued)

7. Runs of nucleotides should be avoided because they can pair with runs of nucleotides outside of the target sequence or complementary runs within the same primer. Avoid palindromic base sequences which could cause the primer to fold and pair with itself. Secondary structure in the template can also interfere with priming. Substitution of 7-deaza-2'-deoxyGTP for dGTP can help solve this problem (Innis and Gelfand 1990).
8. Primer pairs must not have complementary 3' ends. Primers with complementary ends can pair with each other and amplify to form what is known as primer artifacts or primer dimers (in multiples of the size of the original primers). During amplification, primer dimers compete for nucleotides, primers and enzymes and if they form early, can take over a reaction. Watson (1989) reports that, "primer artifacts may form even in the absence of obvious complementarity." He suggests that the Taq enzyme may hold the primers together long enough for extension to take place. Higher annealing temperatures can reduce primer dimers.
9. Primers can be made less specific to match variable positions in the target DNA by substituting inosine (which will pair with any base) or by making degenerate primers--a mixture of primers derived from an amino acid sequence containing all possible combinations of bases at degenerate codon positions (Compton 1990). Degenerate primers should not be degenerate on the 3' end (use the single-codon amino acids methionine and tryptophan for this purpose).
10. If at first you don't succeed, repeat the same amplification. If the reaction fails, lower the annealing temperature. If still no product appears, dilute the template DNA. If this fails, try a different primer combination. Two oligonucleotides that look equally good sometimes are not.

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- Watson R (1989) The formation of primer artifacts in polymerase chain reactions. Amplifications 2:5-6

Appendix 2. References useful for constructing PCR primers for mitochondrial DNA. Comparative gene order, direction of transcription, and level of conservation of nucleotides across species must be taken into account when designing primers.

Complete Mitochondrial DNA Sequences

- | | |
|------------|--|
| HUMAN | Anderson S, Bankier AT, Barrell BG, de Bruijn MHL, Coulson AR, Drouin J, Eperon IC, Nierlich DP, Roe BP, Sanger F, Schreier PH, Smith AJH, Staden R and Young IG (1981) Sequence and organization of the human mitochondrial genome. <i>Nature</i> 290:457-465 |
| COW | Anderson S, De Bruijn MHL, Coulson AR, Eperon IC, Sanger F and Young IG (1982) Complete sequence of bovine mitochondrial DNA. Conserved features of the mammalian mitochondrial genome. <i>J Mol Biol</i> 156:683-717 |
| RAT | Gadaleta G, Pepe G, DeCandia G, Quagliariello C, Sbisa E, and Saccone C (1989) The complete nucleotide sequence of the <u>Rattus norvegicus</u> mitochondrial genome: cryptic signals revealed by comparative analysis between vertebrates. <i>J Mol Evol</i> 28:497-516 |
| MOUSE | Bibb MJ, Van Etten RA, Wright CT, Walberg MW, and Clayton DA (1981) Sequence and gene organization of mouse mitochondrial DNA. <i>Cell</i> 26:167-180 |
| CHICKEN | Desjardins P, and Morais R (1990) Sequence and gene organization of the chicken mitochondrial genome. <i>J Mol Biol</i> 212:599-634 |
| FROG | Roe BA, Ma DP, Wilson RK, and Wong JFH (1985) The complete nucleotide sequence of the <u>Xenopus laevis</u> mitochondrial genome <i>J Biol Chem</i> 260(17):9759-9774 |
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Appendix 2 (cont.)

Compilations

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 Compilation of small ribosomal subunit RNA sequences. Nucl
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 supplement:2319-2330
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 Nucl Acids Res 15 supplement:r53-r188

Partial mtDNA Sequences for Invertebrate Taxa

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Appendix 3. Mitochondrial PCR Primers. The following primers were designed for use with mtDNA. Many were designed to be universal. This compilation was updated from Kessing B, Croom H, Martin A, McIntosh C, McMillan WO, Palumbi S. 1989. The Simple Fools Guide to PCR. Version 1.0. Available from the authors.

Primers are named for the gene in which they are located followed by a letter designation indicating the order in which they were created. All primers are written in the 5' to 3' direction. Codon spacing is used when appropriate. Arrows following primer designation indicate direction of priming (opposing primers are on opposite strands). Direction of priming will be consistent across genes only within the taxa for which the primers were designed (e.g. Insects, Echinoderms, or Vertebrates). If opposing primers are located in different genes and are used for a taxon other than that for which they were designed, direction of priming should be checked by locating the primers in the most closely related sequenced species. Primers are compared to the human, mouse, cow, frog (*Xenopus laevis*), urchin (*Strongylocentrotus purpuratus*), fly (*Drosophila yakuba*) and miscellaneous other mtDNA sequences with their 5'-end positions on the light strand (with reference to humans) numbered as in the references contained in Appendix 2 (unless unnumbered in publication). Approximate sizes of pieces to be amplified can be obtained by subtracting location numbers of opposing primers. The figure at the end of this appendix illustrates gene order and direction of transcription in various taxa.

Primers ending in "r" are the reversed complements of existing primers which someone has tried and found to work (sometimes modified slightly to avoid any lack of conservation which may have been present at the 5' end of its reverse analog). All primers could theoretically be reversed.

12S RNA Gene Primers (Summary figure with locations follows 12S primers)

12Sai (25mer) ►	5'- AAAGTAGGATTAGATACCGTATTAT -3'	Position
Fly	14588
Cicada	Simon & Franke, unpubl.
Cricket (<i>Gryllus</i>)	Rand & Harrison, unpubl.
HumanG.....C.C...	1067
Mouse, RatG.....C.C...	485, 486
CowG.....C.C...	843
FrogG.....C.C...	2485
UrchinC.....G....	491

12Sair (20mer) ◀	5'- AGGGTATCTAATCCTAGTTT -3'	Position
Cicada, <i>Drosoph.</i>	as above

12Sbi (20mer) ◀	5'- AAGAGCGACGGCGATGTGT -3'	Position
Fly	14214
Human	G..G.T.....G.....	1478
Mouse	G..G.T.....G.....	901
Cow	G..G.T.....G.....	1262
Frog	G..G.T.....G.....	2897
Urchin	G....T.....	855

Comments:

12Sai, 12Sair and 12Sbi were made for cicadas (insects) based on comparisons of Drosophila yakuba and Gryllus. The human versions of these primers are one set of the "universal" primers of Kocher et al. 1989. 12Sa has an 11 base pair core (in two pieces) which is conserved across eukaryotic, bacterial, plastid, and mitochondrial small ribosomal RNA genes in 103 out of 106 species examined. The 12Sb primer has a 14bp 3' end which is conserved across 96 of the same 106 species, with the exception of the A in the sixth position of D. yakuba (Simon et al. 1990) and S. purpuratus (Jacobs et al. 1988). The insect primer set 12Sai & 12Sbi will amplify vertebrate DNA and the vertebrate primer set 12Sa & b will amplify insect DNA, despite the mismatches near the 3' end in the 12Sa primers. Because of the 14 bp match of the 3' end of the 12Sb primer between nuclear and mitochondrial DNA, we had some concern that nuclear DNA might compete for this oligonucleotide (although we have obtained excellent sequences from this primer set, it does not work 100% of the time for cicadas). To avoid this potential problem, we designed a new primer, 12Sfi which was moved 8 bases upstream (3' end matches cicada):

			Position
12Sfi (20mer) ◀	5'- CCGGCGATGTGTACATAATT -3'	Fly	14221
12Sbi (20mer) ◀	5'- AAGAGCGACGGCGATGTGT -3'	Fly	14214

Comments: 12Sfi works well for cicada, cricket, & planthopper.

12Sc (20mer) ▶	5'- AAGGTGGATTGCTAGTAAA -3'	Position
Fly	14275
Cicada	..AC.....AA.....	Simon et al. 1990
HumanA.C.....	1416
Mouse	...A.....A.....	839
Cow	...A.....A.C.....	1200
Frog	...C.....A.C.....	2834
Urchin	Does not exist!	----

Comments: Wilson lab primer modified to match Drosophila.

12Se (19mer) ▶	5'- ATTCAAAGAATTGGCGGT -3'	Position
Cicada	Simon et al. 1990
Fly	.C.T...A.....	14521
Human	.C.....G.CC.....	1154
Mouse	.C.....G.C.....	581
Cow	.C.....G.C.....	938
Frog	.CC.....G.C.....	2573
UrchinG.....	547

Comments:

The 12se primer is located at the beginning of Domain III of the 12S gene and works well for cicada.

12Sgi (18mer)►	5' - AAGTTTTATTTTGGCTTA -3'	Position
Fly	14939
Human	.G....GG.CC.A..C.T	651
Cow	.G....GG.CC.A..C.T	434
Mouse	.G....GG.CC....C.T	72
Rat	.G....GG.CC....C.T	71
Frog	.G....GC.CC.A..C.T	2205
Urchin	GGTCC.AGTCCCAATC.T	82

Comments: 12Sgi primer was made for cicadas based on a plant rRNA sequencing primer of Elizabeth Zimmer's. It is located only a few bases away from the beginning of Domain I of the small ribosomal subunit RNA gene. It is not universal but a vertebrate primer could be made at this site which would work for a wide variety of vertebrates.

12Sg could be used in combination with 12Sb to amplify most of the 12s gene (about 750 bp), then the other 12S primers could be used as internal sequencing primers operating from this one amplification product. The diagram on the following page shows the location of all 12S primers on the 13-year cicada sequence (Simon & Franke, unpubl.)

12Sh (21mer)►	5' - GACAAAATTCGTGCCAGCAGT -3'	Position
Cicada	Simon & Franke, unpubl.
<u>Drosophila yakuba</u>	...C.....G.....	14756
<u>Drosophila virilis</u>	...C.....G.....A.	
Human	.GTC..T.....CAC	877
Chimpanzee	.GTC..T.....T...CAC	Hixson & Brown, 1976
Gorilla	.GTC..T.....CAC	" " " "
Mouse, Rat	.GT...T.....CAC	296, 295
Cow	.GT...TC.....CAC	656
Frog	.GTC..TC.....-...CGC	2294

Comments: 12Sh primer was made for cicadas. Removing three bases from the 3' end would make it "universal."

12Sj (21mer)◄	5' - TACAAAACAGATTCTCTG -3'	Position
FlyG.....	14490
Cicada -Okanagana	..T.G.....	Simon, Paabo, McIntosh, unpubl.
-Dicerop.	..T.G.....	" " " "
-Magicicada	Simon et al. 1990
HumanG....GC.....A	1195
ChimpanzeeG....GC.....A	Hixson & Brown, 1976
GorillaG....GC.....A	" " " "
Mouse, Rat	..T.G....GC.....A	614, 614
Cow	..T.G....GC.....A	971
FrogG....GC.....A	2606

Comments: The 12Sh primer was made for cicadas. This primer could be made more versatile by omitting the 3' base.

12S REGION IN MAGICICADA TREDECIM SHOWING PRIMERS

12SG ▶

AAGTTTATTTTGGCTTAAA~13 BASES AAAATTTTAATTATATTACATGCATAACTT 51

TAAATTGGTTGAAAATTATCTGAATGATAATTATCCAGAGCGCAGTATTAAGTATTATTA 111

12SH ▶

ATTATTAATTTTAGAGGTAATAAATTTATTTATAGAGGACAAAATTCGTGCAGCAGTTGC 171

GTTATACGATTTTCTAAATTTAACTATGTTAGTTTCAGTTAAAAAGTGTGTGATATTCA 231

ATTTTTTTAAATTTTGGTGGAATAAAATATAAATATGTGTTTAATTTTATGTCTGAGAAA 291

12S A ▶

CTTTTATATAAAACTAGGATTAGATACCTATTATTGAGAGTGTAATAAAATAACTAGA 351

TTTGATCCTAATCTATGGGA

◀12S Ar

12S E ▶

TTATTAATAGTTATGATCTTTAAATTCAAAGAATTTGGCGGTAATTTATCTAATCAGAGG 411
GTCTCC

AATCTGTTTTGTAATTGATAATCCAGATAGATTCTATTTTAAATAAATTTGTATACCTC 471

TTAGACAAAACAT

◀12S J

TGTCAAGAATGTTTTATCAGAATAATTTTCATTTGTTTTATTAATAAAATGTCAGGTCAA 531

GGTGCAGTTAATTTTAAAGAAAAAATGGATTACATTATTGTAAAAAATGAATTGTTTTCT 591

12S C ▶

ATAATGAAATCATGAACTGGATTGAAAGTAAATTTCAATTAATATGTGTTTTTGAAT 651

TTAGGTTCTAAATT

665

◀ TTAATACATGTGTAGCGGGC 12S F

◀ TGTGTAGCGGGCAGCGAGAA 12S B

16s RNA Primers

16sa (20mer) ◀	5' - ATGTTTTTGTAAACAGGCG -3'	Position
Fly	13398
Locust	690
HumanG.....	2491
MouseG.....	1927
CowG.....	2306
FrogG.....	3976
UrchinG.....	5093
16sar (20mer) ▶	5' - CGCCTGTTTAAACAAAACAT -3'	Position
Fly	13398
Locust	690
HumanC.....	2491
MouseC.....	1948
CowC.....	2306
FrogC.....	3976
UrchinC.....	5093
16sb (22mer) ▶	5' - ACGTGATCTGAGTTCAGACCGG -3'	Position
Human	3058
Mouse	2501
Cow	2852
Frog	4573
Urchin	5662
Fly	..A.....A....	12888
Locust	..A.....	163
16sbr (22mer) ◀	5' - CGCGTCTGAACATCAGATCACGT -3'	Position
Human	3058
Mouse	2501
Cow	2852
Frog	4573
Urchin	5662
FlyT.....T..	12888
LocustA..	163

Comments:

The 16Sa primer was developed for cicadas from comparisons of crickets and *Drosophila*. The 16Sb primer is modified from the Wilson lab 16Sl primer. The 16Sar and 16Sbr primers face one another and can be used to amplify a 500-650 base fragment. 16Sa can be used with 12Sa in insects to amplify approximately 1200 bp. These 16S primers work for urchins, vertebrates, insects, corals, gastropods and probably many other taxa as suggested by the extreme conservation illustrated above. In fact, there are many conserved sites in this gene which would make good universal primers and many labs have taken advantage of this (e.g. within 100 base pairs downstream of our 16Sa primer, the Wilson lab has their 16S2 primer and the Templeton lab has their 16SMid primer). Uhlenbush et al. (1987) illustrate these conserved regions in relation 16S rRNA structure.

Cytochrome oxidase I Primers

COLa (21mer)◀	5' - AGT ATA AGC GTC TGG GTA GTC -3'	Position
Human	G.. G.. T.. A.. G.. ..	7227
Mouse	G.. G.. .. A.. ..	6651
Cow	T.. G.. T.. A.. ..	7010
Frog	T..	8720
Urchin	T.. .. G.. .. A.. ..	7108
Fly	... G.. .. A.. A.. .. A..	2791

COLc (22mer)▶	5' - TC GTC TGA TCC GTC TTT GTC AC -3'	Position
Human C.A A.. ..	6454
Mouse	.TA C.. A.T ..	5878
Cow	.. .AA A.A A.T ..	6237
Frog	.. .TA .A .A A.. ..	7947
Urchin	6335
Fly	.T .AA .A G.. A.T ..	2018

COLD (27mer)◀	5' - GAA CAT GAT GAA GAA GTG CAC CTT CCC -3'	Position
Human	... T.. ... AGT ... A.. G.T T.. GG.	7258
Mouse	... ATAGA GGA T.. TG.	6582
Cow	A.. T.. A.. TGC G.T T.. GG.	6940
Frog	A.. T.. T.C TCC A.. A.. G.T T.. T.G	8650
Urchin T.. A.. .. T..	7039
Fly	T.. ACA T.A T.. T.. A.T G.. T.. TTA	2723

Comments: The COLD primer was designed for Echinometrid sea urchins, and works well only within this group.

COLe (23mer)◀	5' - CCA GAG ATT AGA GGG AAT CAG TG -3'	Position
Human	..TA. .G ..A	7110
Mouse	G.T ..A .A. .AT	6533
Cow	..TA. .TA ..	6892
FrogTA .A. .AC	8602
UrchinAG ..G ..A ..C	6992
Fly	... TA .A. .AT ... T..	2672

COLf (20mer)▶	5' - CCT GCA GGA GGA GGA GAY CC -3'	Position
Human	..C ..CC ..	6569
Mouse	..C ..TG ..C ..	5990
Cow	..GC ..	6431
FrogCT ..C ..	8061
UrchinGT ..	6451
Fly	..A .TT. ..	2131

where Y = C or T

Comments: CO1e and CO1f make superb dsDNA amplification. ssDNA amplifications often smear for both primers. Sequencing is difficult with the CO1f primer, perhaps because of its small size and degeneracy. Successful amplifications have been obtained for sharks, lamprey, fish, sea urchins (CO1f only) and corals. Note that CO1f is a degenerate primer.

Cytochrome oxidase II Primers

CO2a (23mer) ►	5'- GGG GCT AAC CAT AGA TTC ATG CC -3'	Position
Human	..A ..AC ..T	8189
Mouse	..A T.C ..T	7713
Cow	... T.AC ..TA ..	7974
Frog	..A ..AC ..C ..T ..A ..	9709
Urchin	8312
FlyTT ..T	3682

Comments: This primer was based on the urchin sequence. It is in a region of high amino acid conservation, but is not very useful for anything but sea urchins.

Cytochrome oxidase III Primers

Co3a (20mer) ►	5'- TTATTATTGTCATCAGAAGT -3'	Position
Locust	2038
FlyTT.....	4995
Human	C.....A.C.....	9459
Co3b (20mer) ◀	5'- TCAACAAAGTGTGAGTATCA -3'	Position
Locust	2503
FlyA.....	5460
Human	..T....A..C.....	9924

Comments: Co3a & b primers were made for cicadas using sequence information from Haucke and Gellissen (1988). These primers face each other. They should work well for most insects. Many more COIII primer sites can be found in this same reference as well as primers for COII and ATPase 6 & 8.

ATPase 6 Primers

ATP6 (22mer) ◀	5'- G TGC GCT TGG TGT TCC CTG TGG -3'	Position
Human	. G.G TG. A.. ... G.. T.. ...	8936
Mouse	. ..A AA. ... A.. ... T.. ...	8333
Cow	. ..G AG .G.T.. ...	8698
Frog	A ..G TG. T.C A..	9709
Urchin	9039
Fly	A AAT TGC A.. ... A.. T.. A..	4478

Comments: Pretty poorly conserved at the 5' end, this primer works well only in Strongylocentrotid sea urchins, where it does a great job.

NADH dehydrogenase Primers

ND4c (18mer) ►	5'- TAC TCC CTA TAC ATA TTT -3'	Position
HumanC	11975
MouseA A.. A..	11187
Cow	..T ..TG C.A	11748
FrogT ..CC	13488
Urchin ATG	11888

ND5a (21mer) ◀	5'- GAA TTC TAT GAT CGA TCA TGT -3'	Position
Human G.. C.. ..	12650
Mouse	..G ..G A.. T..	12055
Cow A.. A..	12420
Frog	A.. ... A.. ... A..	14170
Urchin	... C.. C..	12486

Comments: NADH primers are not really good primers. Amplifications are inconsistent and should be performed at annealing temperatures of 45°C or lower. However, sequence has been obtained for approximately 250 bp from the ND4 primer. Successful amplifications have been obtained for fish.

Cytochrome b Primers

Cyb1 (26mer) ►	5'- CCA TCC AAC ATC TCA GCA TGA TGA AA -3'	Position
HumanC	14817
MouseT ... T..	14208
CowAT ... T..	15753
FrogAT ... T.. ..T.	16321
Urchin	..C C.T ..C ATT ..G	14581

Cyb2 (24mer) ◀	5'- CCC TCA GAA TGA TAT TTG TCC TCA -3'	Position
Human	15175
Mouse	A..	14565
Cow	T..	15753
Frog A.. A..	16677
Urchin	AG. ... A.. G.. C.. ... C.. C..	14937

Comments: These primers seem to work fairly well with most vertebrates. They are based on Kocher et al. (1989).

tRNA Primers: As illustrated in the figure at the end of this appendix, tRNA genes are rearranged considerably among major groups of animals (Jacobs et al. 1988, Wolstenholme et al. 1987). In addition, they may exhibit minor variation in location within animal classes (e.g. Insecta: Crozier et al. 1989, Haucke and Gellissen 1988; Mammalia: Paabo, pers. comm.). Thus even when tRNA sequences are highly conserved between two organisms, the same primer pairs may not function together due to their relative locations. Note also that there are instances where some tRNA's have lost their

function and evolve at higher than normal rates (e.g. Thomas et al. 1989, Cantore et al. 1987), that mitochondrial tRNA are degenerate in nematodes (Wolstenholme et al. 1987) and that Chlamydomonas and Tetrahymena lack some tRNAs and trypanosomes lack all tRNAs (Attardi and Schatz, 1988).

t-Arg (24mer) ◀	5'- CGAAATCAGAGGTTCTCCTTAAAC -3'	Position
CowTTTA..T.AT..T..A	10203
Urchin	7380
FlyCT.ACT.CAA.TAA.CGCT	6102

Comments: Made to match urchins. Clearly not a good primer for anything else.

t-Phe (20mer) ◀	5'- TCTTCTAGGCATTTTCAGTG -3'	Position
Human	C.G....AA.....	625
Mouse	C.A....A.....	49
Cow	..A.....	411
Frog	..A...CA.....	2182
Urchin	C...TG.A.....	52

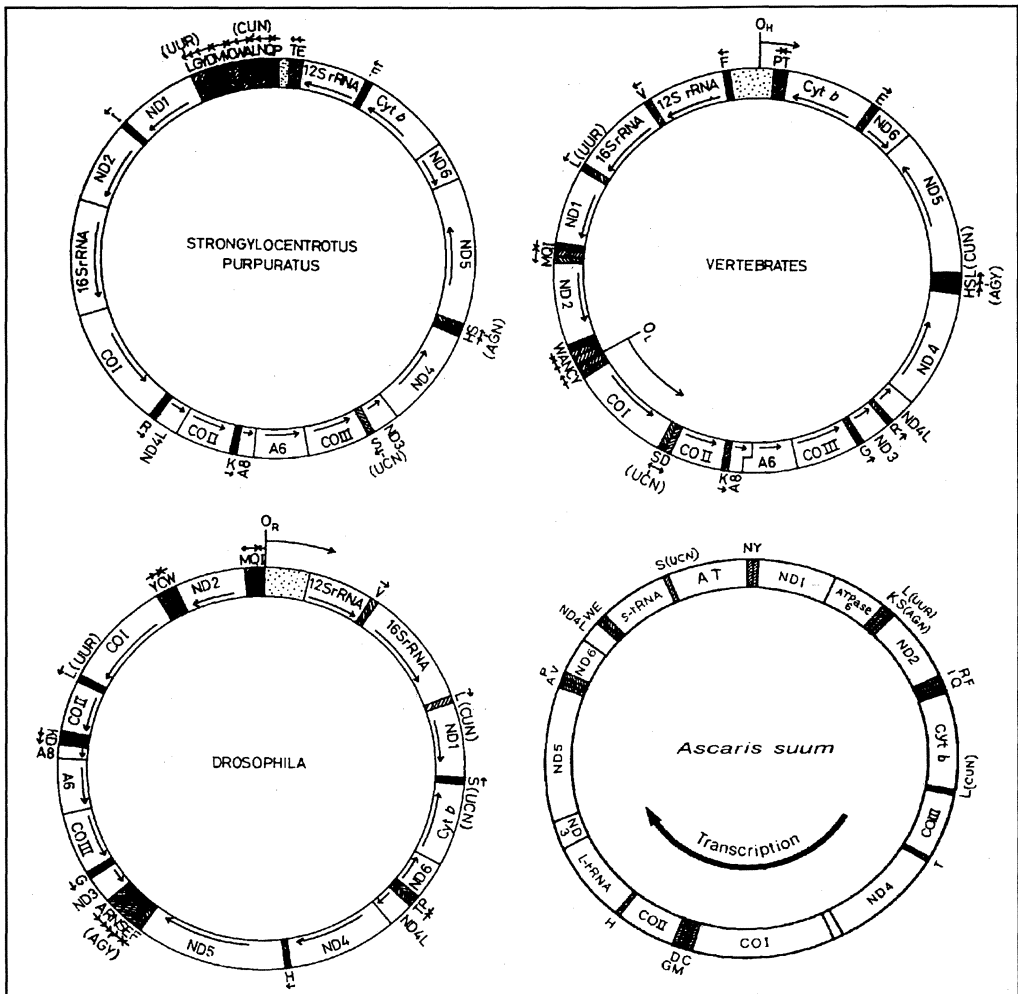
t-Pro (20mer) ▶	5'- CTACCTCCAACCTCCCAAAGC -3'	Position
Human	.C...ATT.G.A.....	15980
Mouse	.AC.AC.AGG.A.....	15701
Cow	TC...AT....C.....	15753
Frog	.C..TATTG..C.....	17510
Urchin	TACAT.G.....	

Comments: t-Phe and t-Pro go through the entire vertebrate D-loop (control region) based on Kocher et al. (1989). Successful amplifications have been obtained for Fish.

t-Iso (19mer) ▶	5'- ATTT-ACCCTATCAAGGTAA -3'	Position
Fly-.....	42
Human-..T.....A....	4303
Mouse-..T.....A....	3728
Cow-..T.....A....	4079
FrogC..T.....A..G.	

Comments: The above primer can be used in combination with one of the 12S primers to amplify the A+T-rich region in insects. It has worked for Drosophila virilis. It did not work for Magicicada. This may be because in this cicada, the t-RNA is transposed or because the A+T-rich region can be up to 4Kb (Martin and Simon 1990). Considerable length variation has been found in this region in invertebrates (Rand and Harrison 1989; Snyder et al. 1987); in weevils the A+T-rich region is known to vary between 9 and 13Kb (Boyce et al. 1989). Note that tRNA iso is transposed in vertebrates and Xenopus has an insertion and a substitution one base from the 3' end.

Appendix Figure 1. Mitochondrial gene order in *Strongylocentrotus* (urchin), vertebrates [except in chicken where tRNA (Glu) and ND6 lie between the D-loop and tRNA (Pro) (Desjardins and Morals 1990)], *Drosophila* (fly), and *Ascaris* (nematode). tRNA genes (dark bars) are indicated by the one letter code of the amino acid they correspond to. Arrows indicate direction of transcription. O indicates origin of replication (for heavy [H], light [L], or both [R] strands). The origin of replication of *Strongylocentrotus* remains unmapped. The hypervariable, non-coding regions are indicated by stippling in all but *Ascaris* where it is labeled "A T" for A+T-rich region. Redrawn from Wolstenholme et al. 1987 and Jacobs et al. 1988.



Additional References for Appendix 3:

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