

FUNCTIONAL GENOMICS

Q1) The GSS division contains (but is not limited to) the following types of data:

1. Random "single-pass read" genome survey sequences:

- **Random "single pass read" genome survey sequences** are GSSs that generated along single pass read by random selection.
- **Single-pass** sequencing with **lower fidelity** can be used on the **rapid accumulation** of genomic data but with a **lower accuracy**.
- It includes **RAPD** (Random amplification of polymorphic DNA), **RFLP**(Restriction fragment length polymorphism), **AFLP**(Amplified fragment length polymorphism) and so on.

2. Cosmid/BAC/YAC end sequences:

- **Cosmid/BAC/YAC** end sequences use "**Cosmid**" or "**Bacterial artificial chromosome**" or "**Yeast artificial chromosome**" to sequence the genome from the end side.
- These sequences act like very low copy plasmids. Sometimes there is only one copy per cell.
- **Cosmid/BAC/YAC** can also be used to get **bigger clone of DNA fragment** than vectors like plasmid and phagemid.

3. Exon trapped genomic sequences:

- **Exon trapped sequence** is used to identify genes in **cloned DNA**, and this is achieved by **recognizing** and **trapping** carrier containing **exon sequence** of DNA.
- **Exon trapping** has **two main features**: First, it is **independent of availability of the RNA** expressing target DNA. Second, **isolated sequences can be derived directly from clone** without knowing tissues expressing the gene which needs to be identified.
- Since **fragment of DNA** can be **inserted into sequences**, if an **exon is inserted into intron**, the transcript will be **longer than usual** and this transcript can be **trapped by analysis**.

4. Alu PCR sequences:

- **Alu repetitive element** is member of **Short Interspersed Elements (SINE)** in **mammalian genome**.
- There are about **300 to 500 thousand copies** of Alu repetitive element in **human genome**, which means one Alu element exists in **4 to 6 kb** averagely.
- **Alu PCR** is a "**DNA fingerprinting**" technique. This approach is **rapid and easy** to use. It is obtained from **analysis of many genomic loci** flanked by Alu repetitive elements, which are **non-autonomous retrotransposons** present in **high number** of copies in **primate genomes**.

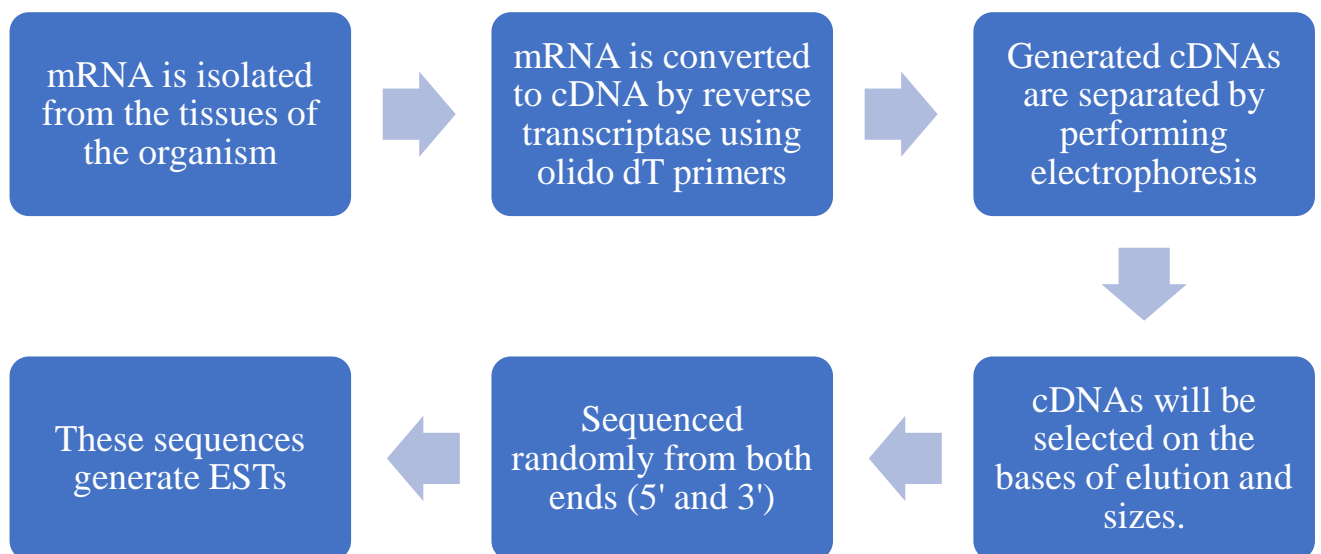
5. Transposon-tagged sequences:

- **Transposon** can be used as **tag for a DNA** with a **known sequence**.
- Transposon can **appear at other locus** through **transcription** or **reverse transcription** by the **effect of nuclease**.

- This **appearance of transposon** proved that **genome is not statistical**, but always **changing the structure of itself**.
- There are **two advantages** by using transposon tagging:
 - i. Transposon is **inserted into a gene sequence**; this insertion is **single and intact**.
 - ii. **Many transposons** can be **found and eliminated** from tagged gene sequence when **transposase is analyzed**.

Q2) What are ESTs? Explain the protocol for EST generation

- **Expressed sequence tags (ESTs)** are short sequence reads, **typically within the range of 300–700 bp**, obtained from **randomly selected cDNA clones**.
- ESTs are **often generated** by **single-pass sequencing** of cDNA clones from one or both ends, **usually covering only a part of the transcript sequence**, and are relatively **prone to error**.
- They provide an **alternative to full-length cDNA sequencing**.
- Also, ESTs are an **inexpensive means of gene discovery**.
- The **randomly sequenced ESTs** allow us to make **gene discoveries** as they give **information of the transcribed regions of the gene**.
- **Protocol for EST Generation:**



Q3) Write a short note:

1. STS:

- **Sequence-Tagged site (STS)** is a **relatively short, easily PCR-amplified** sequence (200 to 500bp) which can be **specifically amplified** by PCR and **detected** in the **presence of all other genomic sequences** and whose **location in the genome is mapped**.
- The **STS concept** was introduced by **Olson et al (1989)**.

- In assessing the likely impact of the **Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR)** on **human genome research**, they recognized that **single-copy DNA sequences** of known map location could **serve as markers** for genetic and physical **mapping of genes** along the chromosome.
- The **advantage of STSs** over other **mapping landmarks** is that the means of **testing for the presence** of a particular STS can be completely **described as information in a database**.
- STS-based PCR produces a **simple and reproducible pattern** on agarose or polyacrylamide gel. In most cases STS markers are **co-dominant**, i.e., allow **heterozygotes to be distinguished** from the **two homozygotes**.
- The **DNA sequence** of an STS **may contain repetitive elements**, sequences that **appear elsewhere** in the genome, but as long as the sequences at **both ends of the site are unique** and conserved, researchers can **uniquely identify this portion of genome** using tools usually present in any laboratory.
- For example, some STSs can be used in **screening by PCR** to **detect microdeletions in Azoospermia (AZF) genes** in infertile men. Identification of **genes in elephants** could provide additional information for evolutionary studies and for **evaluating genetic diversity** in existing elephant populations.

2. SAGE:

- **Serial Analysis of Gene Expression (SAGE)** is a transcriptomic technique used by molecular biologists to produce a **snapshot of the messenger RNA** population in a **sample of interest** in the form of **small tags** that **correspond** to fragments of those transcripts.
- **Several variants** have been developed since, most notably a more robust version, **LongSAGE**, **RL-SAGE** and the most recent **SuperSAGE**. Many of these have **improved the technique** with the capture of **longer tags**, enabling **more confident identification** of a source gene.
- The **output** of SAGE is a list of **short sequence tags** and the **number of times** it is observed. **Using sequence databases**, a researcher can usually determine, with some confidence, from **which original mRNA** and therefore **which gene the tag was extracted**.
- **Statistical methods** can be applied to **tag and count lists** from different samples in order to **determine which genes are more highly expressed**. For example, a **normal tissue** sample can be compared **against a corresponding tumour** to determine which genes tend to be more active.
- **Once analysed**, SAGE data **provide** both a **qualitative** and **quantitative assessment** of potentially **every transcript** present in a particular cell or tissue type. Following the protocols, investigators should be able to **generate unique SAGE libraries**, which can be directly compared with our **reference library**.
- It works by **isolating short fragments** of genetic information from the **expressed genes** that are present in the **cell being studied**.

3. cDNA:

- **Complementary DNA (cDNA)** is a **DNA copy of a messenger RNA (mRNA)** molecule **produced by reverse transcriptase**, a DNA polymerase that can **use either DNA or RNA as a template**.

- cDNA is **not genomic DNA**, as the transcript of genomic RNA **lacks promoters and introns**.
- **Synthesis of cDNA from mRNA** poly A tail is used as **priming site**, a **short tag of oligo dT with a free 3'OH group** will bind and which will be **extended by reverse transcriptase** to create cDNA.
- **mRNA is then removed** which is achieved by treating it with **RNase enzyme** resulting in the **single stranded cDNA**.
- The **single stranded cDNA** needs to be converted to **double stranded cDNA** which is achieved with the help of **DNA polymerase**.
- The **free 3'OH group** for polymerase extension is provided by the **single stranded cDNA** itself by forming a **hairpin loop like structure**, which can later be **cleaved using nuclease**.
- **Restriction endonucleases** and **DNA ligase** are then used to **clone** the sequences into **bacterial plasmids**. The **cloned bacteria** are then selected, **commonly through** the use of **antibiotic selection**. Once selected, **stocks of the bacteria** are created which can **later be grown** and sequenced to **compile the cDNA library**.

4. DNA Microarray:

- The **DNA microarray** is a tool used to **determine** whether the **DNA** from a **particular individual** contains a **mutation in genes** like **BRCA1** and **BRCA2**.
- The **chip** consists of a **small glass plate encased in plastic**. Some companies manufacture microarrays using methods similar to those used to make **computer microchips**.
- **Each chip** contains thousands of **short, synthetic, single-stranded DNA** sequences, which together add up to the **normal gene in question**, and to **variants (mutations)** of **that gene** that have been found in the **human population**.
- **DNA microarrays** were used first only as a **research tool** but scientists continue today to **conduct large-scale population studies** for example, to determine **how often individuals** with a particular mutation actually **develop breast cancer**, or to identify the **changes in gene sequences** that are most often **associated with particular diseases**.
- Also, microarrays can also be used to **study the extent** to which certain genes are **turned on or off in cells and tissues**. In this case, instead of isolating DNA from the samples, **RNA is isolated and measured**.
- Basically, it determines whether an **individual possesses a mutation for a particular disease**, a scientist first obtains a **sample of DNA** from the patient's blood as well as a **control sample** along with the one that does not contain a mutation in the **gene of interest**.
- Then the **DNA is denatured** in the samples this process will **separate the two complementary strands** of DNA into **single-stranded molecules**. The next step is to **cut the long strands of DNA into smaller, more manageable fragments** and then to **label each fragment** by attaching a **fluorescent dye**. The individual's **DNA is labelled with green dye** and the **control - or normal - DNA is labelled with red dye**. Both sets of labelled DNAs are then **inserted**

into the chip and allowed to **hybridize** - or bind – to the **synthetic DNA on the chip**.

- If the **individual does not have a mutation** for the gene, **both** the red and green samples will **bind to the sequences on the chip** that represent the **sequence without the mutation**.

5. Gene index (Gene Indices):

- Several efforts are under way to **condense single-read expressed sequence tags (ESTs)** and **full-length transcript data** on a large scale by means of **clustering or assembly**.
- One goal of these projects is the **construction of gene indices** where **transcripts are partitioned into index classes** (or clusters) such that they are **put into the same index class** if and only if they **represent the same gene**.
- **Accurate gene indexing** facilitates **gene expression studies** and inexpensive and **early partial gene sequence** discovery through the **assembly of ESTs** that are **derived from genes** that have **yet to be positionally cloned** or obtained directly through **genomic sequencing**.
- The **three major gene indices** use **different EST clustering methods**:
 - i. **TIGR Gene Index** uses a **stringent and supervised clustering method**, which generate **shorter consensus sequences** and **separate splice variants**.
 - ii. **STACK** uses a **loose and unsupervised clustering method**, producing **longer consensus sequences** and including **splice variants in the same index**.
 - iii. A **combination of supervised and unsupervised methods** with **variable levels of stringency** is used in **UniGene**. **No consensus sequences** are produced.

6. Functional Genomics:

- **Functional genomics** is a branch that **integrates molecular biology and cell biology studies**, and deals with the **whole structure, function and regulation** of a gene **in contrast** to the **gene-by-gene** approach of **classical molecular biology technique**.
- Functional genomics **focuses on the dynamic aspects** such as **gene transcription, translation, regulation** of gene expression and **protein–protein interactions**, as **opposed** to the **static aspects** of the **genomic information** such as **DNA sequence or structures**.
- Functional genomics is a **study of how genes and intergenic regions** of the genome **contribute to different biological processes**. A researcher in this field **typically studies genes or regions** on a genome-wide scale, with the hope of tightening them down to a **list of candidate genes** or regions to **analyse in more detail**.
- The **main objective** of functional genomics is to **resolve how the individual segment** of an organism work together to **produce a particular phenotype**.
- It **relies on the dynamic expression** of gene products in a **definite background** such as **during a disease** or at a **specific developmental stage**. Thus, functional genomics **involved in the development** of a model link **between genotype to phenotype**.

- There are **several specific functional genomics approaches** depending on what we are **focused on DNA level, RNA level, Protein level, Metabolite level**.
- These **fundamental methods** commonly **rely on genome-based sequence datasets** using **automated algorithms running in silico** for example, the **function and functional interactions** of unknown open reading frames (ORFs) can be **predicted** by using the **principle of conserved operons**.
- Functional genomics data are **predominantly stored** in one of two public databases such as **Array Express at EMBL-EBI**.
- Because of the **large quantity of data** produced by these techniques and the desire to find **biologically meaningful patterns**, bioinformatics is crucial to **analysis of functional genomics data**.
- Examples of **techniques in this class** are **data clustering** or **principal component analysis** for unsupervised machine learning as well as **artificial neural networks** or **support vector machines** for supervised machine learning.

7. Importance of the Human Genome Project:

- The project was **hugely significant** to biology and has **influenced biological research** ever since.
- The **main tasks** of the Human Genome Project were to **read and record** the **genetic instructions** contained within the human genome and **provide** that **information to researchers worldwide freely** and without restriction.
- The **sequenced human genome** is now a **crucial reference** for all of human biological research. It is a **template** against which **all human genomes are compared**. Since the **full human genome sequence became available** to the scientific community, **progress** of research into human health and disease has **accelerated dramatically**.
- The large-scale **genome research** has driven the technology advancement in **genetic testing, drug design, gene therapy**, and other **genetic related areas** such as pharmacogenetics.
- The **detailed genetic, physical, and sequence maps** developed by the Human Genome Project also will be **critical to understanding** the biological basis of **complex disorders** resulting from the **interplay of multiple genetic and environmental influences**, such as **diabetes; heart disease; cancer; and psychiatric illnesses**, including **alcoholism**.
- Human genome project **helps to understand and treat disease processes** at the **DNA level** are becoming the basis for a **new molecular medicine**. The discovery of **disease-associated genes** provides scientists with the **foundation for understanding** the course of **disease, treating disorders** with synthetic DNA or **gene products**, and assessing the **risk for future disease**.
- **Clinical tests** that detect **disease-causing mutations** in DNA are the most **immediate commercial application** of gene discovery. These tests may **positively identify** the genetic origin of an **active disease, foreshadow** the development of a **disease later in life**, or **identify healthy carriers** of recessive diseases such as **cystic fibrosis**.
- **Gene discovery** also provides **opportunities for developing** gene-based **treatment for hereditary and acquired diseases**.

- Although the project **reveals potential benefits**, it **raises ethical, legal, and social issues**. The outcomes of **individuals genetic information disclosure** may **lead to confidentiality and genetic discrimination issues**. In addition, **clinical relevance** of genetic testing and **psychological effect** from the results are debatable.