

# Gene Technology & DNA Sequencing

## **Lecture-3**

**For all computational purposes, DNA is represented as a string of 4-letter alphabets - A, T, C, G:**

**attgctacgttacatcgctgca**

**How do we get this string representation from a dynamic double-stranded molecule?**

**DNA Sequencing** - determine the precise sequence of nucleotides in a sample of DNA

**To carry out this task we need to be able to chop the DNA, store it, make copies of it.**

**To sequence a gene, we need to**

- **Identify the **region of interest****
- **Isolate it from the organism – **DNA fragmentation****
- **move it to another easily manageable organism such as a bacterium for obtaining multiple copies – **cloning****

**Such manipulations are conducted by a toolkit of enzymes:**

**Restriction endonucleases** - used as molecular scissors

**DNA ligase** - to bond pieces of DNA together

**- a variety of additional enzymes that modify DNA are used to facilitate the process.**

**Restriction endonucleases** are enzymes that make **site-specific** cuts in the DNA – chemical scissors

Ability to cut DNA into discrete fragments allows to understand

- how genetic material of an organism is **organized**
- how expression of genetic information is **controlled**
- how **alteration** of genetic information can give rise to genetically inherited disorders, etc.
- in **bulk production** of pharmaceutically important proteins

First restriction enzyme was isolated from *H. influenzae* in 1970 by Daniel Nathans and Kathleen Danna

- awarded the Nobel Prize for Medicine in 1978

## Radioautogram of $^{14}\text{C}$ -labeled SV40 DNA cleaved with endonuclease R



SV40 DNA (a tumor virus) - after cutting, or "digesting" it with *H. influenzae* restriction enzyme, analyzed the pieces using a polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis.

- 11 distinct DNA bands were visible in the gel, indicating that the enzyme always cut SV40 DNA resulting in the same 11 pieces

# Background

## How were these restriction endonucleases identified?

Bacteria are under constant attack by viruses, e.g., bacteriophages

To protect themselves, bacteria have developed a method to chop up any foreign DNA, by an enzyme, called **endonuclease**

- it circulates in the bacterial cytoplasm, waiting for any attacking virus.

- also called **restriction enzymes** because they **restrict** the infection of bacteriophages.

## Why do the restriction enzymes not chew up the genomic DNA of their host?

# Background

**A bacterium that makes a particular restriction endonuclease, also synthesizes a companion DNA methyltransferase,**

**- which methylates the DNA target sequence for that restriction enzyme, thereby protecting it from cleavage.**

**DNA from an attacking bacteriophage will not have these protective methyl groups and will be destroyed.**

**Methyl groups (attached to the cytosine in dinucleotide CG) block the binding of restriction enzymes, but do not block the normal reading and replication of the genomic information stored in the host DNA.**

# DNA Fragmentation

Different endonucleases present in different bacteria recognize **different** nucleotide sequences

Naming of restriction enzymes - after their host of origin, e.g.,

- **EcoRI** - *Escherichia coli*
- **Hind II & Hind III** - *Haemophilus influenzae*
- **XhoI** - *Xanthomonas holcicola*

When cut with a restriction enzyme (RE), the ends of the cut DNA fragment can be **cohesive or blunt-ended** depending on the enzyme.



# Generation of Cohesive & Blunt-ended Fragments

Cutting with Eco R I

5'... G ↓ AATTC... 3'  
3'... CTTAA ↑ G ... 5'

5'... G  
3'... CTTAA

AATTC...3'  
G... 5'

**Cohesive or  
“Sticky” Ends**

Cutting with Pst I

5'... CTGCA ↓ G... 3'  
...G ↑ ACGTC...'

5'... CTGCA  
3'... G

G... 3'  
ACGTC... 5'

**Cohesive or  
“Sticky” Ends**

(a)

Cutting with Sma I

↓

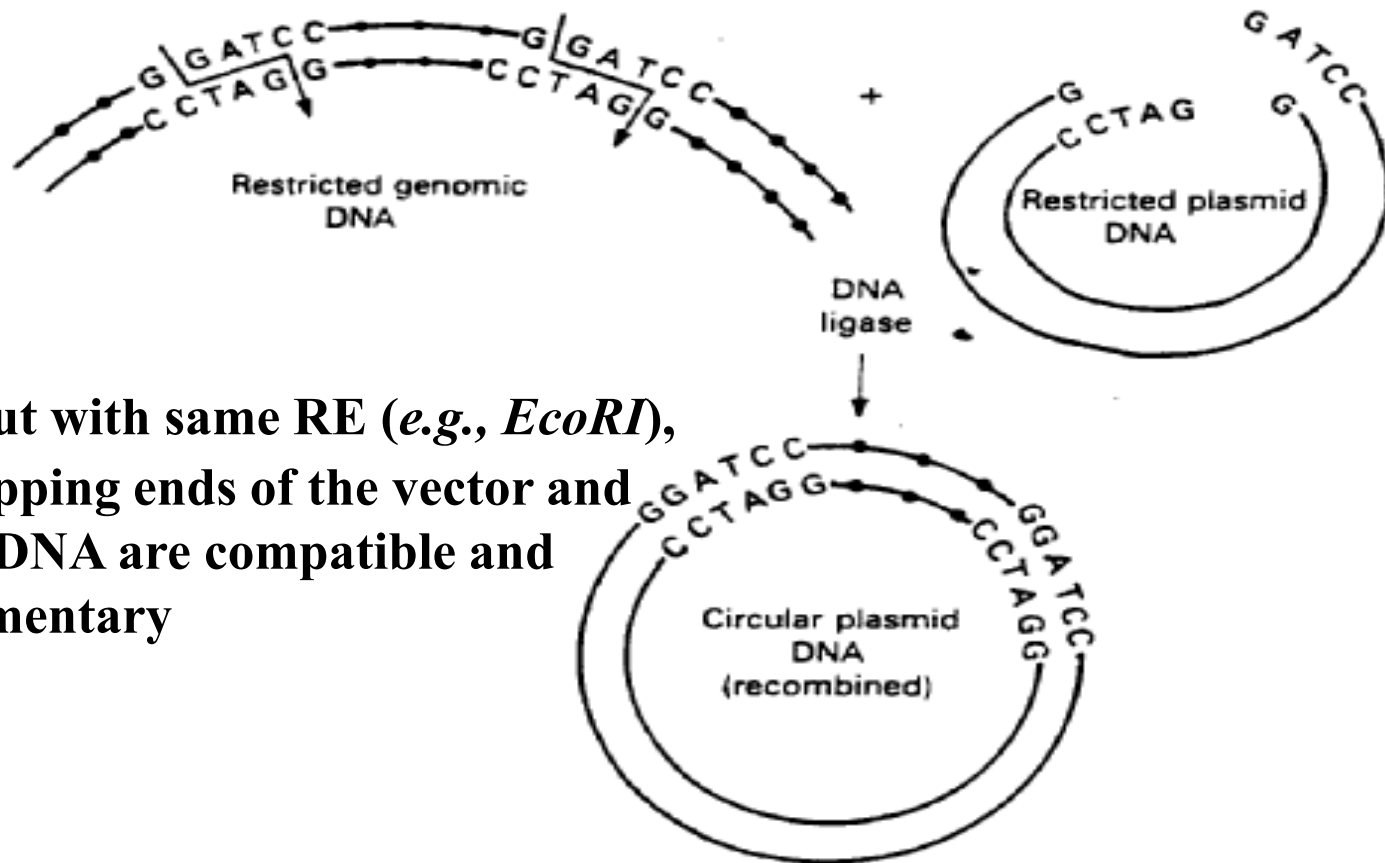
5'... CCC GGG... 3'  
3'... GGG CCC... 5'

5'... CCC  
3'... GGG

**Blunt Ends**

GGG... 3'  
CCC... 5'

# Restriction enzyme digestion of genomic DNA and plasmid vector DNA



When cut with same RE (*e.g.*, *EcoRI*),  
- overlapping ends of the vector and  
foreign DNA are compatible and  
complementary

A plasmid is a small, circular, double-stranded DNA molecule that is distinct from a cell's chromosomal DNA.

# Features of Restriction Enzymes

- **Length** of recognition sequence dictates **how frequently** the enzyme will cut a DNA sequence

**Frequency of recognition sites of length, 4, 6, or 8?**

- Different REs can have the **same** recognition site and are called **isoschizomers**, e.g., *SacI* & *SstI* : GAGCTC
- Restriction recognitions sites can be **unambiguous**, e.g., *Hinf* I recognition site: GANTC – **it's frequency of occurrence?**
- **Most recognition sequences are palindromes - they read the same forward and backward**

**Can we use the property of palindrome sequence to identify restriction recognition sites?**

# Applications of Restriction Enzymes

- To prepare a **physical map** of the genome
- In **genetic engineering** - to assemble **customized genomes**; create designer bacteria that make insulin, or growth hormones, or add genes for disease resistance to agricultural plants, etc.
- in **DNA sequencing**

# Restriction Map

**Restriction map** is a description of restriction endonuclease cleavage sites within a piece of DNA

- generating such a map is the first step in **characterizing** an unknown DNA

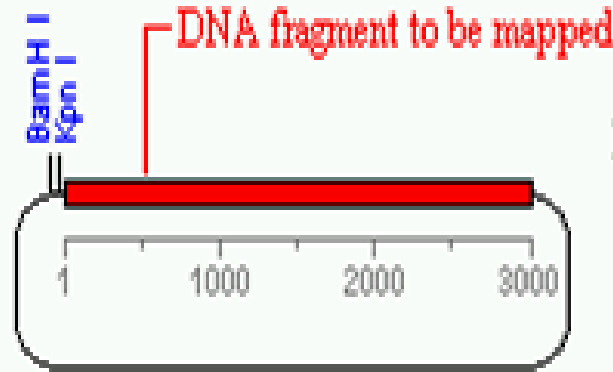
**Multiple Complete Digest Mapping** – creates a map by digesting DNA with multiple REs

- each recognizing a different specific short DNA sequence and producing a separate **fingerprint** for each clone

DNA to be restriction mapped is usually contained within a well-characterized plasmid or bacteriophage vector for which the sequence is known, which facilitates making the map.

# Restriction Mapping

**Ex:** Consider a plasmid that contains a 3000 bp fragment of unknown DNA & unique recognition sites for enzymes **Kpn I** & **BamH I**.



Consider first separate digestions with **Kpn I** & **BamH I**:

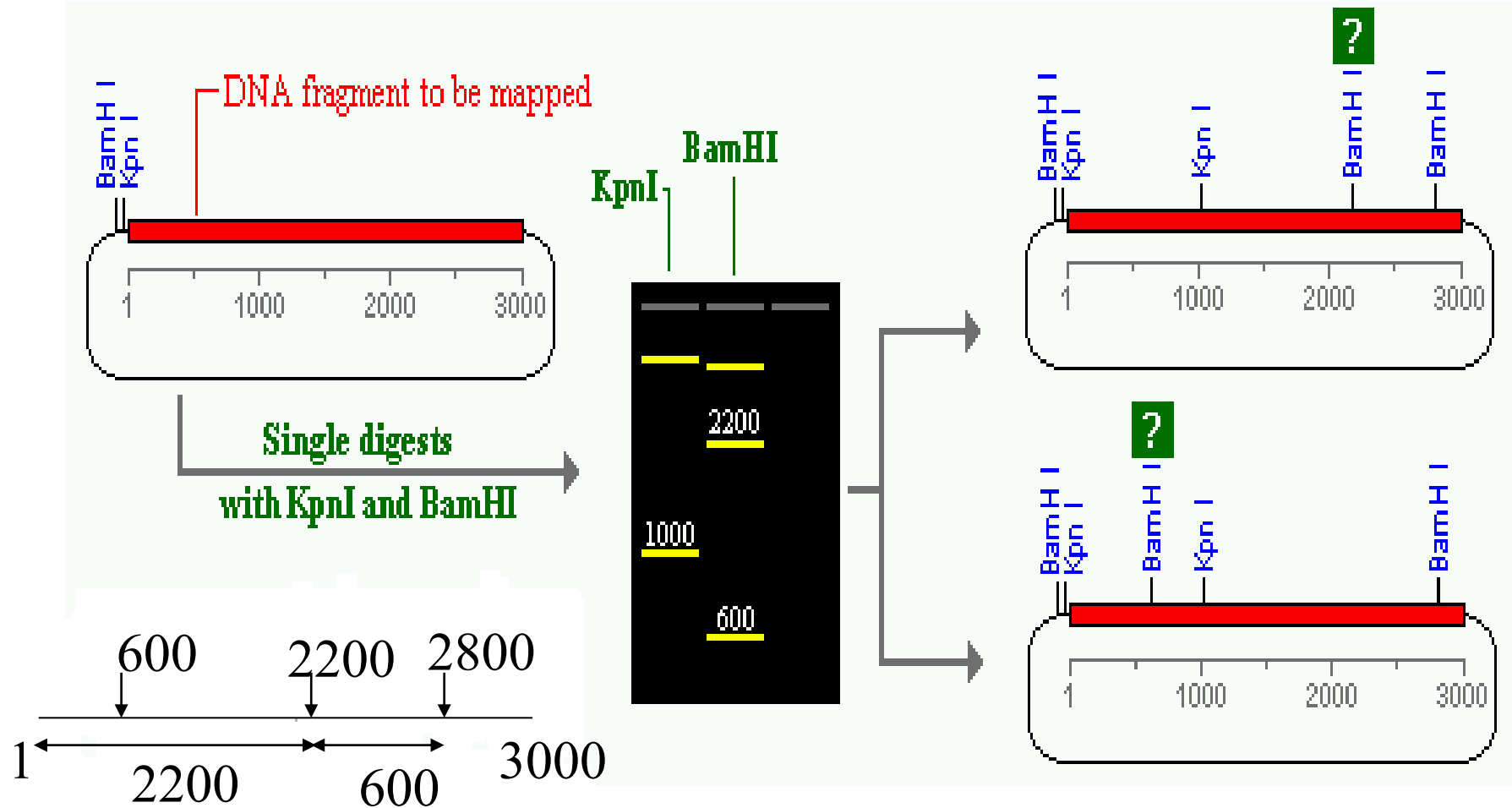
**Kpn I** yields 2 fragments: 1000bp & “big”

**BamH I** yields 3 fragments: 600, 2200 & “big”

**big** – part of unknown DNA sequence + vector

⇒ **one Kpn I site & two BamH I sites are present in the unknown DNA sequence**

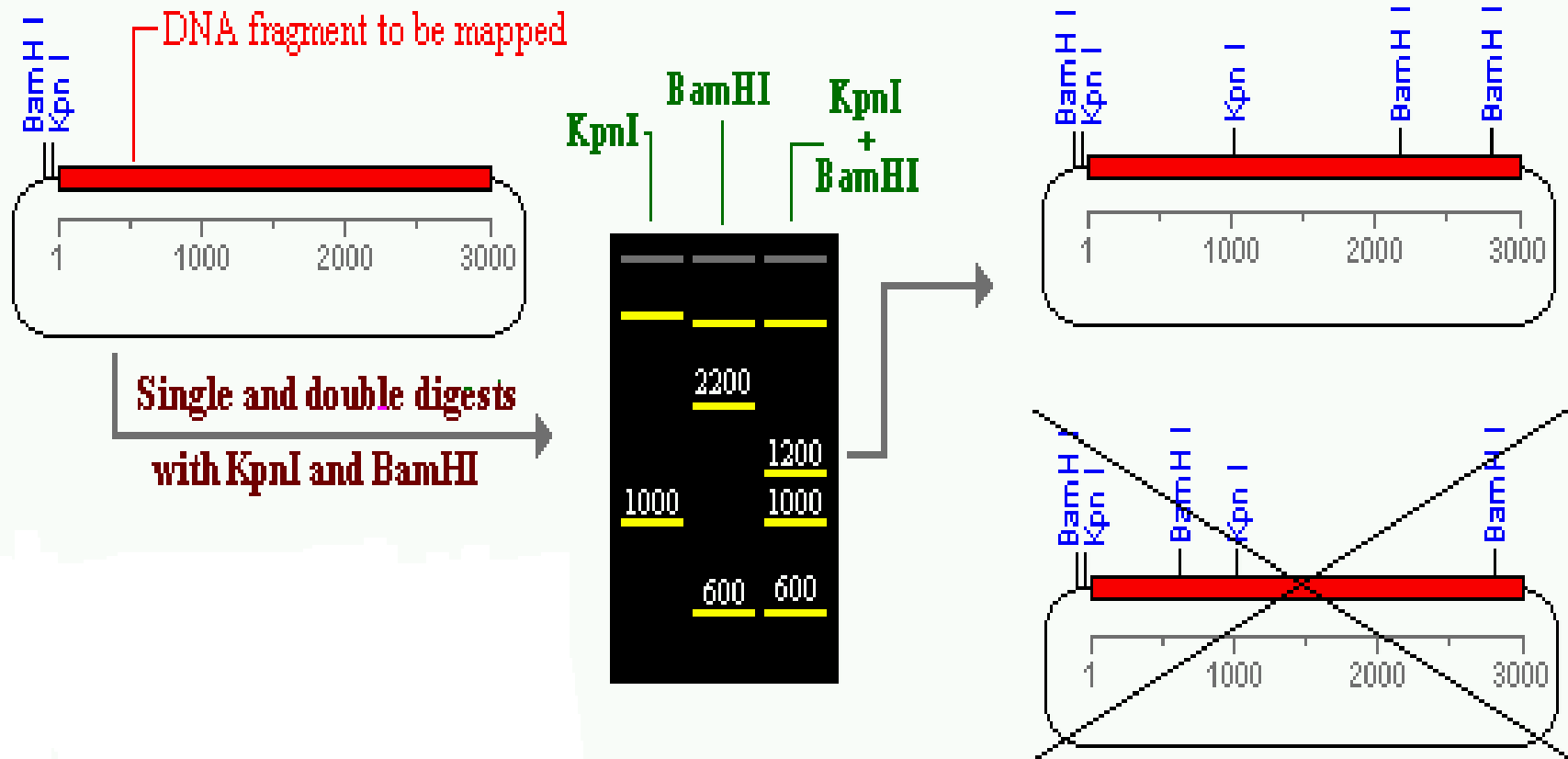
# Restriction Mapping



One BamH I site is at **2800 bp**. Trick to determine the location of 2<sup>nd</sup> BamH I site is to digest the plasmid with **Kpn I & BamH I** together

# Restriction Mapping

Double digest yields fragments of **600, 1000 & 1200 bp** (plus the "big" fragment).





# Restriction Mapping

If the above process is conducted with a larger set of enzymes, a much more complete map would result

**single digests** - are used to determine which fragments are in the unknown DNA, and

**multiple digests** - to order and orient the fragments correctly.

**Can we computationally generate a restriction map of DNA sequence?**

# Restriction Mapping

## Using a Computer to Generate Restriction Maps

If the sequence is known, feed it to computer programs, which will search the sequence for various RE recognition sites and build a map.

- **Mapper** - available as part of Molecular Toolkit  
<http://arbl.cvmbs.colostate.edu/molkit/mapper/>
- **Webcutter**  
<http://www.firstmarket.com/cutter/cut2.html>
- **RebSite** – as part of the REBASE Tools  
<http://tools.neb.com/REBsites/index.php3>

**REBASE - The Restriction Enzyme dataBASE**

[Back to...](#)



# REBsites

This tool will take a DNA sequence and digest it with one example of each of the known Type 2 restriction enzyme specificities.  
The maximum size of the input file is 2 MByte, and the maximum sequence length is 200 KBases.

Local sequence file:

GenBank number:  ([Browse GenBank](#))

Name of sequence:  (optional)

or Paste in your DNA sequence: (plain or FASTA format)

Standard sequences:  

Lambda  
pBR322  
PhiX174  
Ad2

The sequence is: ☒ Linear  
☐ Circular

Input sites: ☒ All specificities  
☐ Defined oligonucleotide sequences:

Name	Oligonucleotide sequence
<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>
<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>

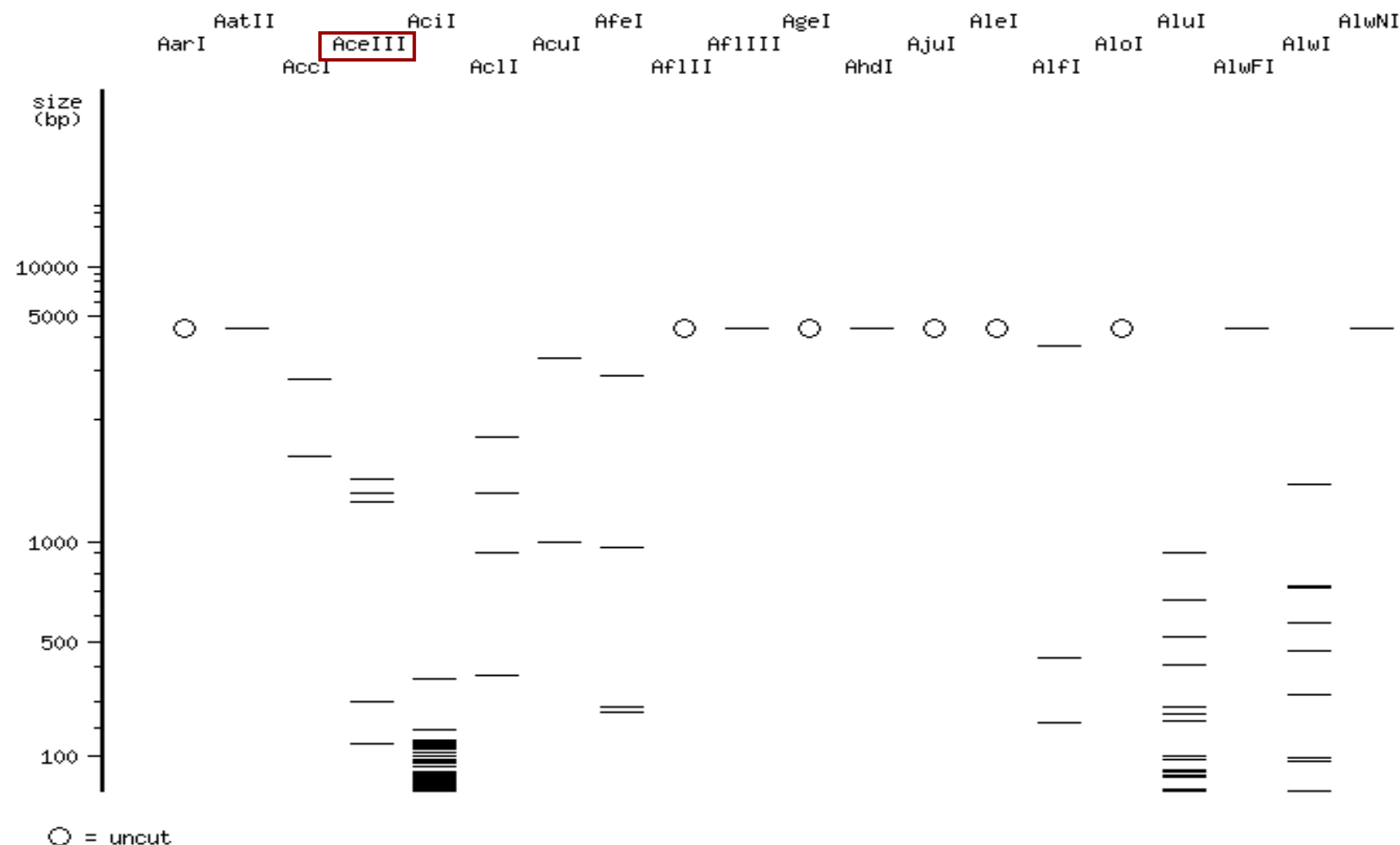
**theoretical digest with all  
REBASE prototypes**

**pBR322**

Order by: enzyme name

**1** 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 [Next >>]

[Print]



zyme name for a list of fragments.

gel was generated by interpolating experimental data. See [details](#).

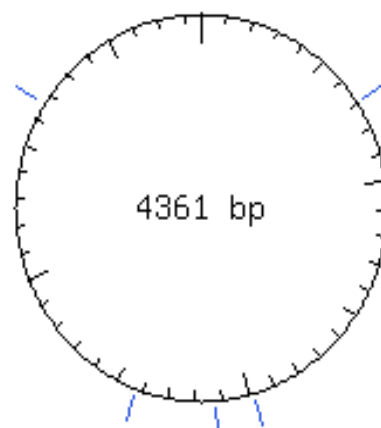
[Print](#)

## Fragment list

[Close](#)

pBR322 digested with AceIII

[\[Sites with flanks\]](#)



#	Coordinates	Length (bp)
1	3666-697	1393
2	698-1984	1287
3	2426-3665	1240
4	2126-2425	300
5	1985-2125	141

## Type II Restriction Enzymes

Enzymes	Recognition Sequence	Isoschizomers	Suppliers
<a href="#">AaaI</a>	C↓GGCCG	<a href="#">yes</a>	-
<a href="#">AacI</a>	GGATCC	<a href="#">yes</a>	-
<a href="#">AaeI</a>	GGATCC	<a href="#">yes</a>	-
<a href="#">AagI</a>	AT↓CGAT	<a href="#">yes</a>	-
<a href="#">AamI</a>	-	-	-
<a href="#">AaqI</a>	GTGCAC	<a href="#">yes</a>	-
<a href="#">AarI</a>	CACCTGC (4/8)	-	<a href="#">Y</a>
<a href="#">AasI</a>	GACNNNN↓NNGTC	<a href="#">yes</a>	<a href="#">Y</a>
<a href="#">AatI</a>	AGG↓CCT	<a href="#">yes</a>	<a href="#">Y</a>
<a href="#">AatII</a>	GACGT↓C	<a href="#">yes</a>	<a href="#">Y</a>
<a href="#">AauI</a>	T↓GTACA	<a href="#">yes</a>	-
<a href="#">AbaI</a>	T↓GATCA	<a href="#">yes</a>	-
<a href="#">AbeI</a>	CCTCAGC (-5/-2)	<a href="#">yes</a>	-
<a href="#">AboORF2079P</a>	AGGCCT	<a href="#">yes</a>	-
<a href="#">AbrI</a>	C↓TCGAG	<a href="#">yes</a>	-
<a href="#">AcaI</a>	TTCGAA	<a href="#">yes</a>	-
<a href="#">AcaII</a>	GGATCC	<a href="#">yes</a>	-
<a href="#">AcaIII</a>	TGCGCA	<a href="#">yes</a>	-
<a href="#">AcaIV</a>	GGCC	<a href="#">yes</a>	-
<a href="#">AccI</a>	GT↓MKAC	<a href="#">yes</a>	<a href="#">Y</a>
<a href="#">AccII</a>	CG↓CG	<a href="#">yes</a>	<a href="#">Y</a>

# AaI

Type II restriction enzyme  
subtype: P

Different enzyme:

## Recognition Sequence:

C<sup>^</sup>GGCCG



REBASE Enz Num 1 entered Jan 1 1987 ... modified May 24 2004

Prototype: [XmaIII](#)

Org #: [1](#)

Organism: [Acetobacter aceti ss aceti](#)

Organism source: [M. Fukaya](#)

Growth Temperature: 26 °

### # sites on

*Adeno2*: 19

*Lambda*: 2

*pBR322*: 1

*PhiX174*: 0

*SV40*: 0

[Site frequency in sequenced genomes...](#)

## Related References...

[sorted by date](#) [in new window](#)

[sorted by authors](#) [in new window](#)

NOT commercially available

[Similar enzymes...](#)

# Assignment

- **Write a program to generate a restriction map for a specific RE and compare your results with Mapper.**
- **Write a program to identify restriction recognition sites in a given DNA sequence.**
- **Write to program to obtain the reverse strand in the forward strand of a DNA sequence in given**



# Cloning

# What is cloning?

The process of cloning involves the production of **multiple copies** of a DNA fragment of interest by amplification *in vivo*

- depends upon the ability of vectors to continue their life cycles in bacterial or yeast cells in spite of having foreign DNA inserted into them.

**Cloning vector** - a DNA molecule that carries foreign DNA into a host cell, replicates inside a bacterial (or yeast) cell and produces many copies of itself and the foreign DNA

# Types of Vectors

Vector	Insert size (kb)
Plasmids	<10 kb
Bacteriophage	9 - 20 kb
Cosmids	33 - 47 kb
Bacterial artificial chromosomes (BACs)	75 - 125 kb
Yeast artificial chromosomes (YACS)	100-1000 kb

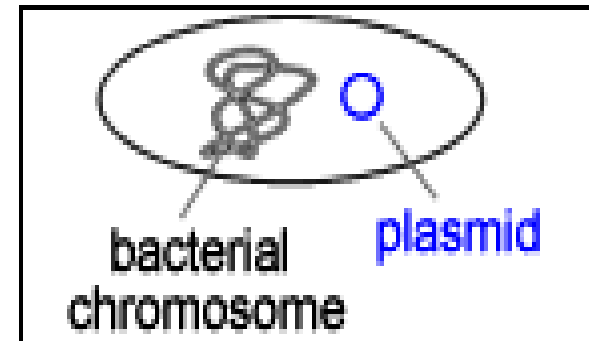
# Types of Vectors

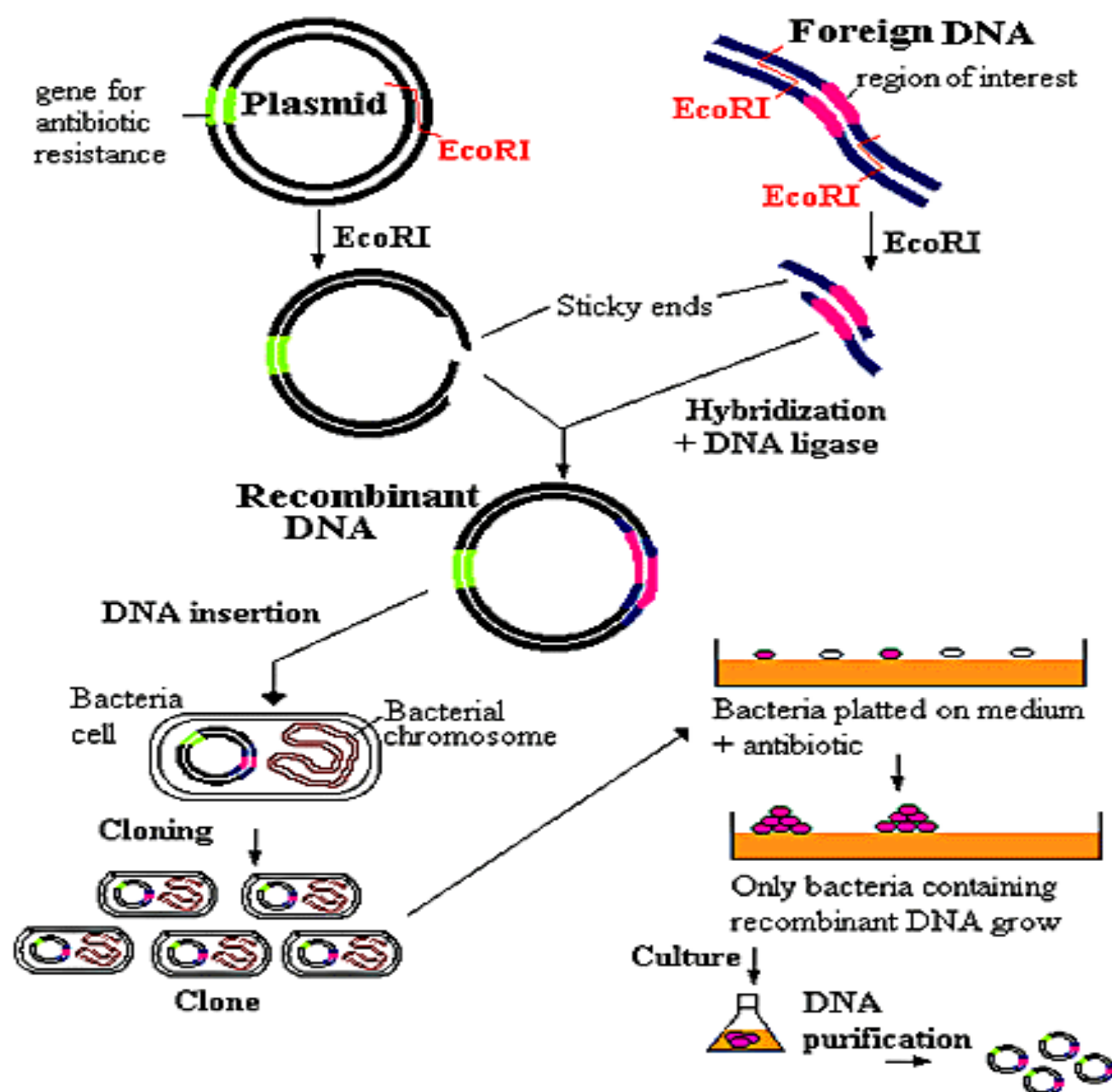
**Plasmids** - an **extra-chromosomal** double-stranded **circular DNA** molecules that replicates autonomously inside the bacterial cell

Plasmids are important as one can:

- (i) isolate them in large quantities,
- (ii) cut & splice them, add DNA of choice,
- (iii) put them back into bacteria, where they replicate along with the bacteria's own DNA,
- (iv) isolate them again to get billions of copies of inserted DNA

**Limitation**: size of DNA that can be introduced into the cell by transformation (**~ 2 - 10kb**)





## Cloning into a plasmid

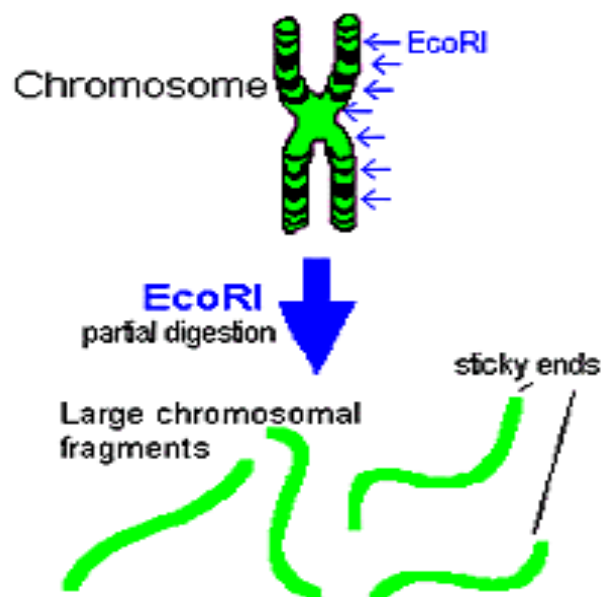
**YAC** - a functional self-replicating artificial chromosome. It includes three specific DNA sequences that enable it to propagate from one cell to its offspring:

- **TEL:** The telomere which is located at each chromosome end, protects the linear DNA **from degradation** by nucleases
- **CEN:** The centromere which is the attachment site for mitotic spindle fibers, "pulls" one **copy of each duplicated chromosome into each new daughter cell.**
- **ORI:** Replication origin sequences, specific DNA sequences that **allow the DNA replication machinery** to assemble on the DNA and move at the replication forks

It also contains few other specific sequences like:

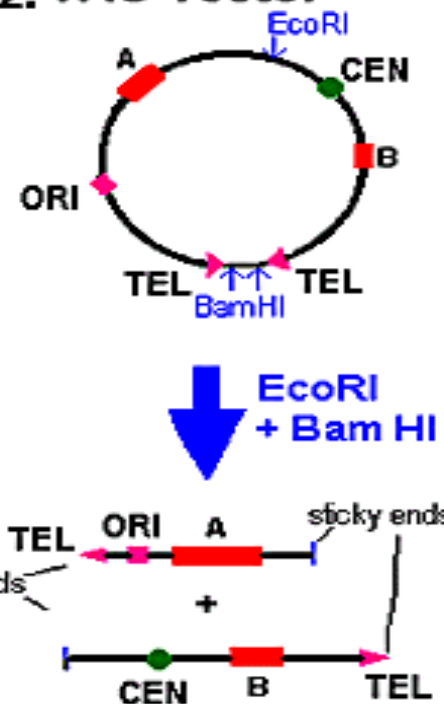
- **A and B:** **selectable markers** that allow easy isolation of yeast cells that have taken up the artificial chromosome.
- **Recognition site** for two REs: **EcoRI & BamHI**

## 1. Human DNA

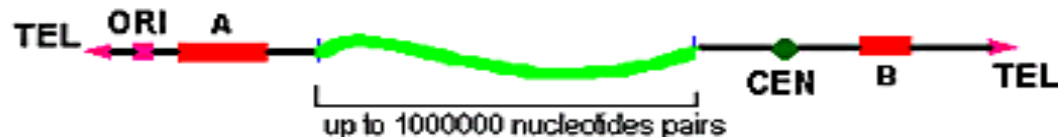


Recombination  
+ DNA ligase

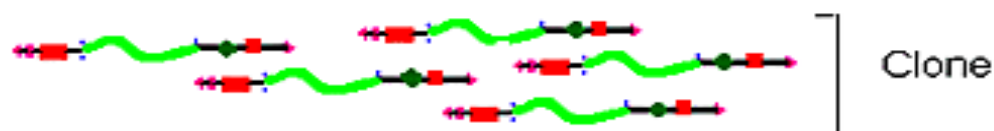
## 2. YAC vector



## 3. Yeast artificial chromosome with inserted human DNA



yeast cell  
transformation



**Cloning into a Yeast Artificial Chromosome (YAC)**

## **Why is it important to be able to clone large sequences?**

**To map the entire human genome ( $3 \times 10^9$  bps) would require more than 1,000,000 plasmid clones (~10Kb limit).**

**In principle, the human genome could be represented in about 10,000 YAC clones (~1Mb limit)**



# **DNA Sequencing**

**DNA Sequencing** - determine the precise sequence of nucleotides in a sample of DNA – **the order of A, T, G, C**

Various types of sequencing:

- Sequencing a **region of interest**, e.g., gene.
  - **Whole Genome/Exome Sequencing**
  - **cDNA Sequencing** – sequencing cDNA libraries of the expressed genes
  - **High-throughput sequencing** – next-generation, 3<sup>rd</sup> & 4<sup>th</sup> generation sequencing - **whole Genome/Exome/targetted**
  - **Metagenome sequencing** - sequencing of environmental samples
- depending on the nature of analysis, type of sample, or type of sequencer used

# Sequencing a Region of Interest

First requirement in sequencing a region of DNA is

- to have **enough starting template** for sequencing.

This is achieved by **PCR - Polymerase Chain Reaction**

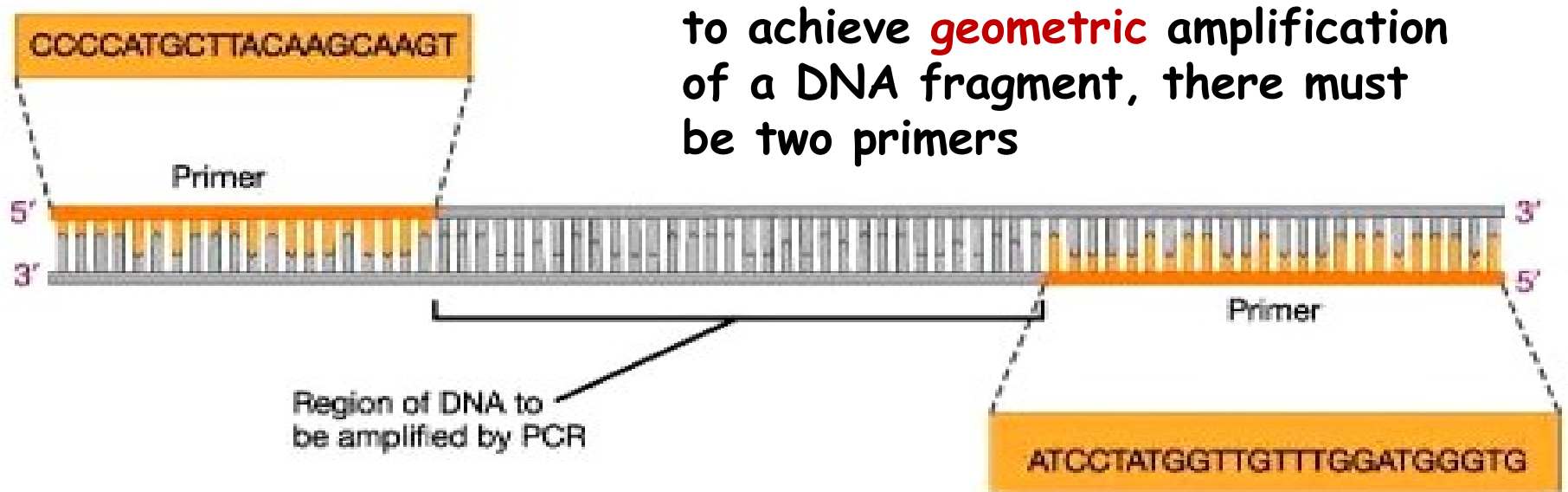
- carried out in an automated cyclor for 30 - 40 cycles.

Essential requirements for a PCR:

- a mixture of 4 deoxy-nucleotides in ample quantities
- dATP, dGTP, dCTP, dTTP
- Taq DNA polymerase
- Primers ?
- Genomic DNA of interest

**What is the advantage of using PCR over traditional gene cloning?**

## Region of DNA to be amplified by PCR



**Primers** - short single-stranded oligonucleotides which anneal to the DNA template and serve as a starting point for DNA synthesis

**Why are primers required?**

# The Cycling Reactions

## Step-1: Denaturation at 94°C

- opens up double stranded DNA, all enzymatic reactions stop.

## Step-2: Annealing at 54°C

- Primers jiggling around because of Brownian motion, binds to single stranded template once an exact match is found; the polymerase then attaches and start copying the template.

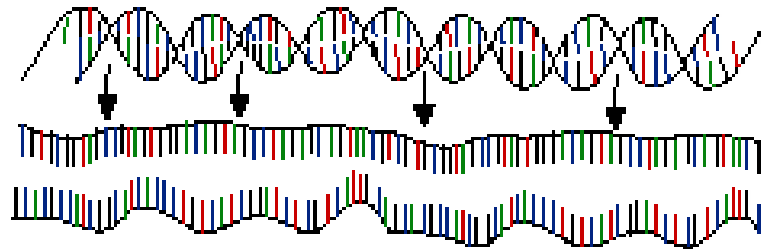
## Step-3: Extension at 72°C

- ideal working temperature for the polymerase. Bases complementary to the template are coupled to the primer on 3' side (reading the template from 3' to 5' side)

# Different Steps in PCR

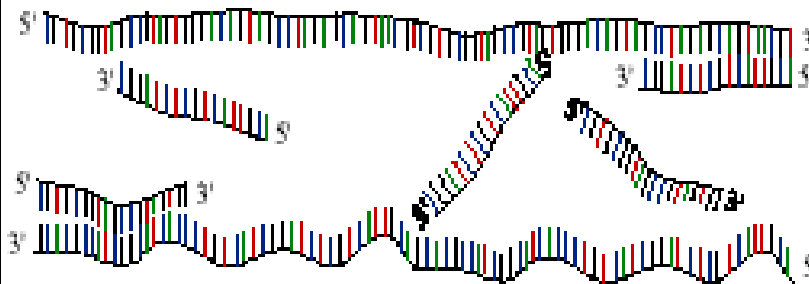
## PCR : Polymerase Chain Reaction

30 - 40 cycles of 3 steps :



Step 1 : denaturation

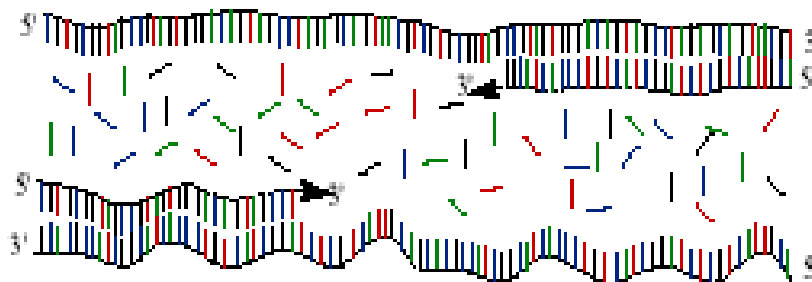
1 minut 94 °C



Step 2 : annealing

45 seconds 54 °C

forward and reverse  
primers !!!

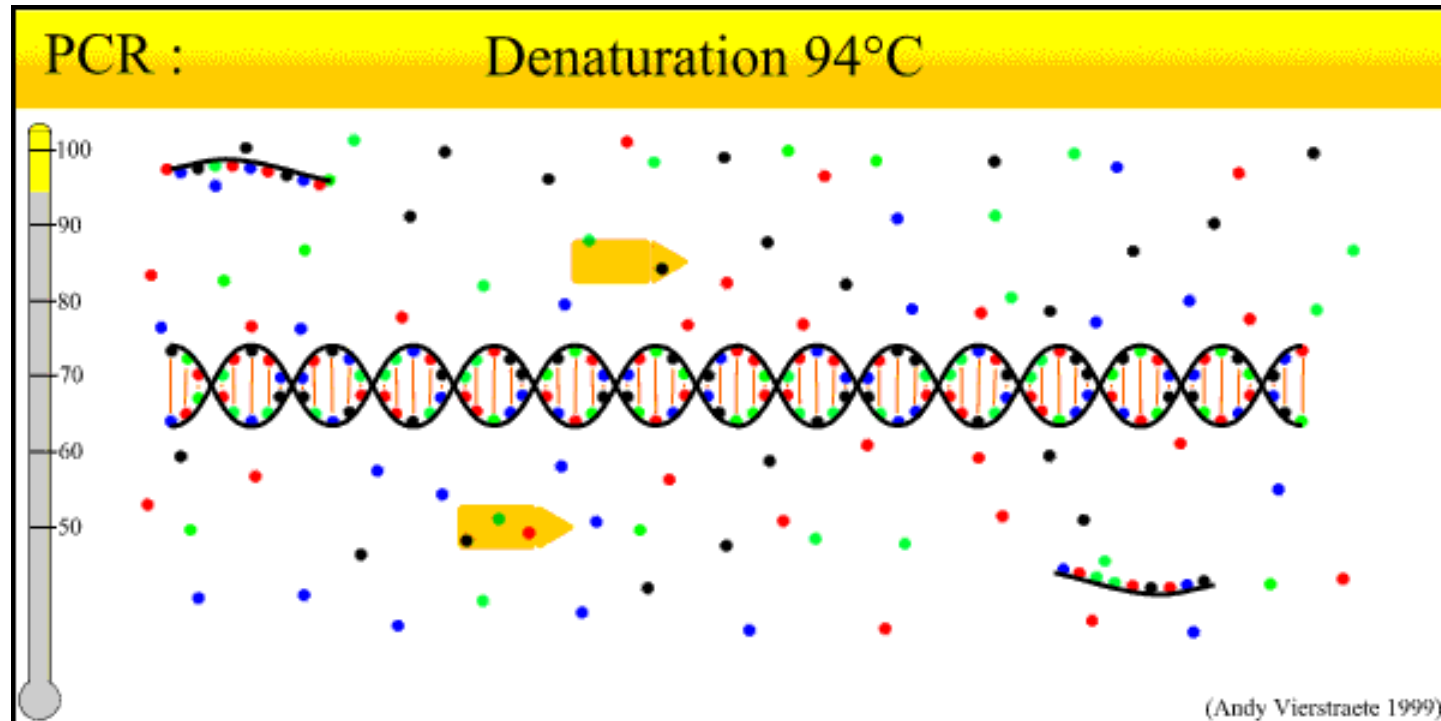


Step 3 : extension

2 minutes 72 °C

only dNTP's

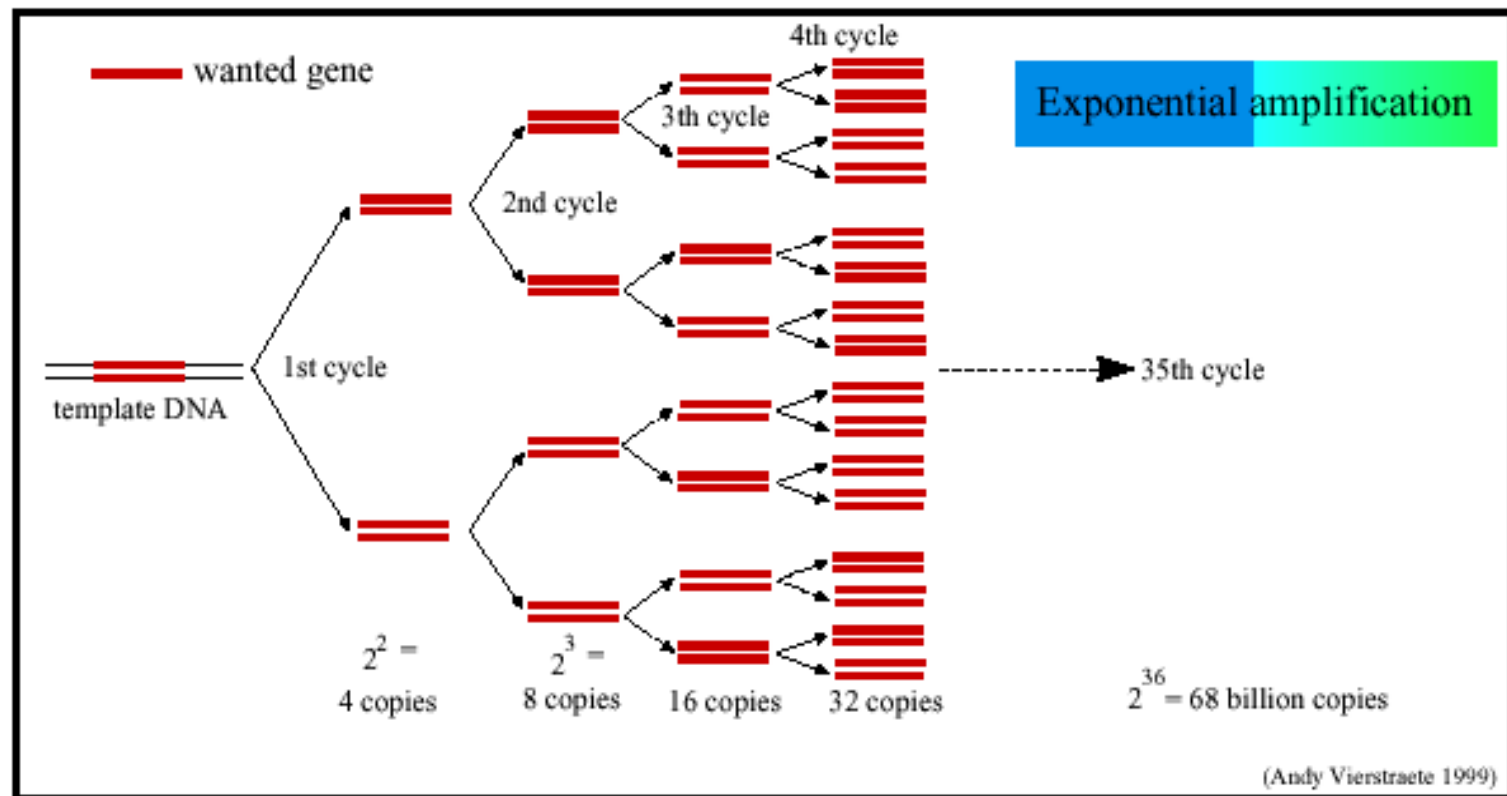
# Different Steps in PCR



# Exponential amplification of region of interest

Both strands are copied during PCR

- leading to an **exponential increase** of the number of copies of the region of interest.





# **Verification of PCR Product**

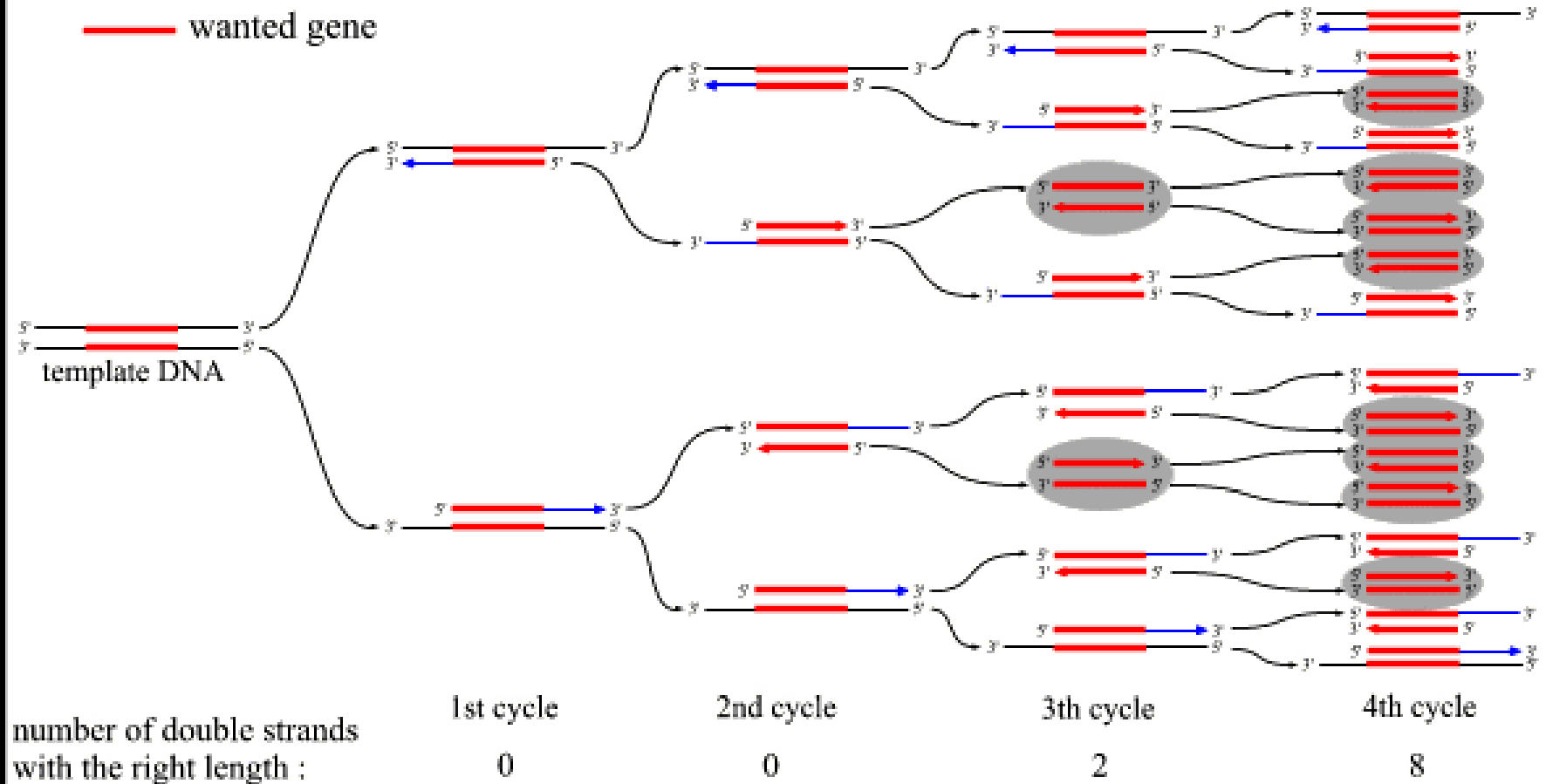
**Is the template copied during PCR and is it the right size?**

**Before the PCR product is used in further applications, it has to be checked if:**

- 1. A product is formed**
- 2. The product is of the right size**
- 3. Only one band is formed**

# First 4 cycles of a PCR reaction

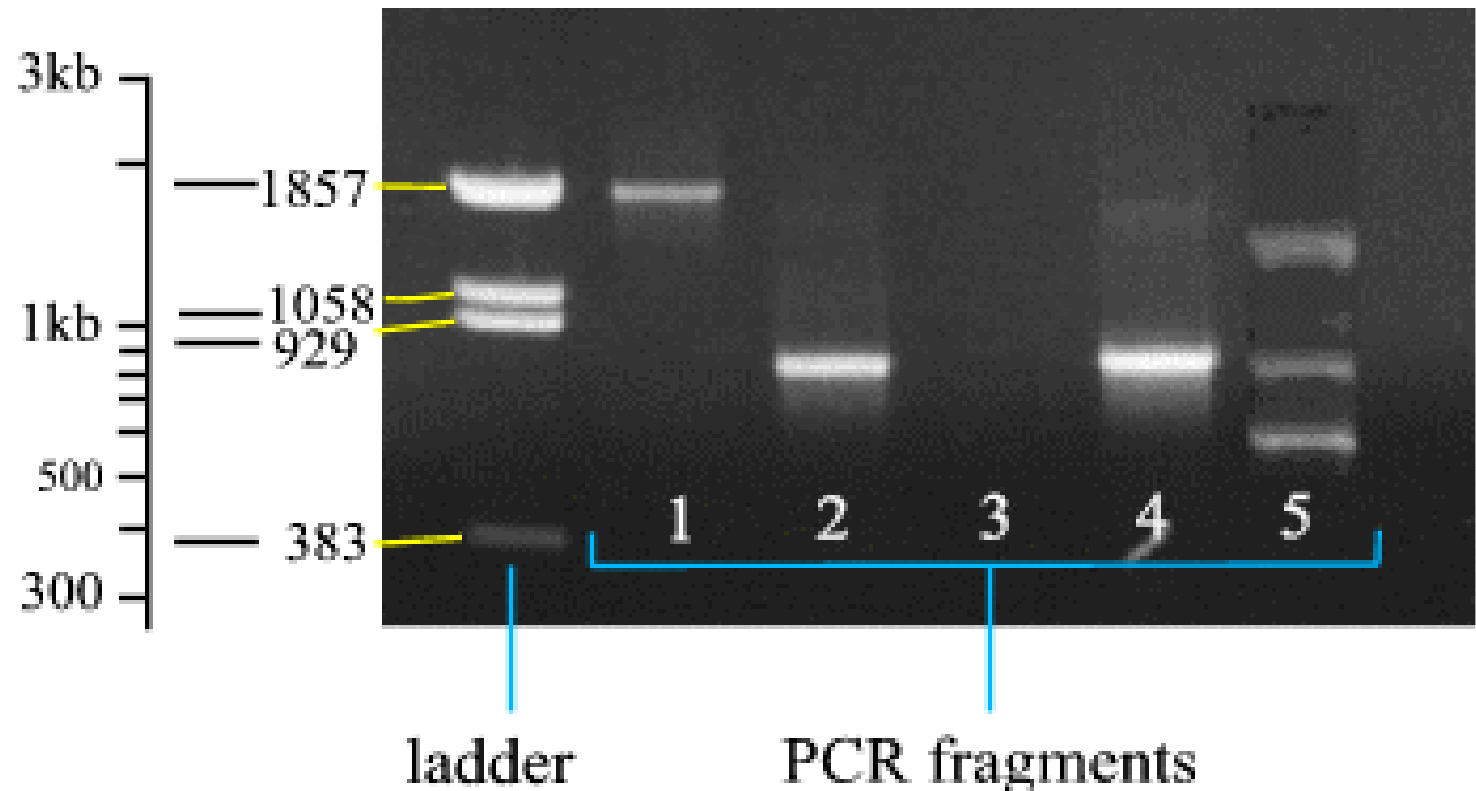
## The first 4 cycles of PCR in detail



(Andy Vierstraete 2001)

# Verification of the PCR product

Verification of PCR product on  
agarose or separeide gel

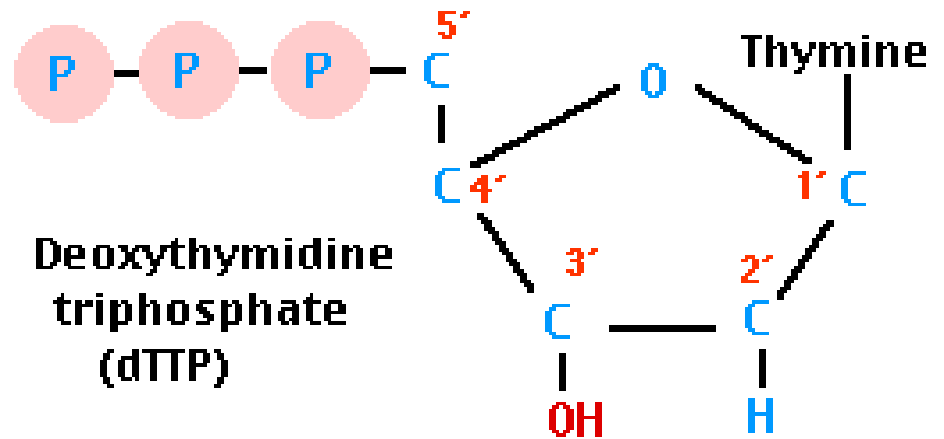


# PCR Sequencing

For sequencing, we don't start from gDNA (like in PCR) but mostly from PCR fragments or cloned genes.

Amplified PCR product is supplied with

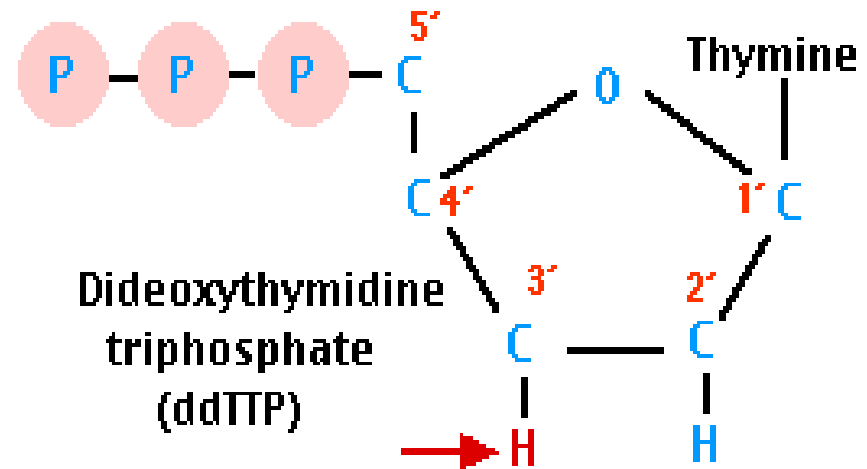
- a mixture of all four normal (deoxy) nucleotides in ample quantities
  - dATP
  - dGTP
  - dCTP
  - dTTP
- *Taq* DNA polymerase



# PCR Sequencing

- a mixture of all four dideoxynucleotides, each present in limiting quantities and each labeled with a "tag" that **fluoresces** a different color:

- **ddATP**
- **ddGTP**
- **ddCTP**
- **ddTTP**



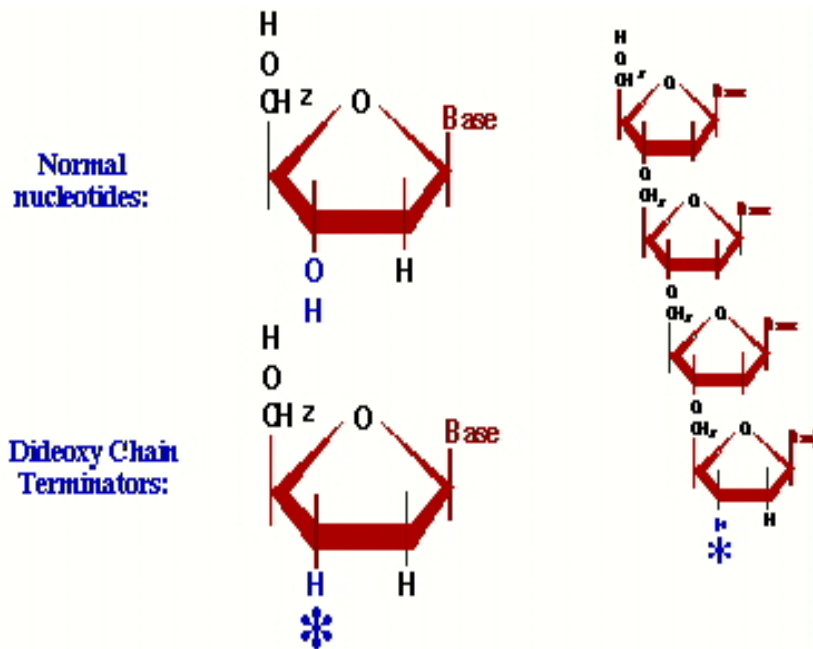
This method of DNA sequencing is called **dideoxy method**, or **chain termination method**, or **Sanger's method**.

# PCR Sequencing

**Dideoxy method:** DNA is synthesized from four deoxynucleotide triphosphates.

Each new nucleotide is added to 3' -OH group of the last nucleotide added.

When a dideoxynucleotide, **ddNTP is added** to the growing DNA strand, **chain elongation stops** because there is no 3'-OH for the next nucleotide to be attached to.



# Steps in PCR Sequencing

## I The sequencing reaction

- Denaturation at 94°C
- Annealing at 50°C
- Extension at 60°C ← instead of 72°C

## II Separation of the fragments

## III Detection on an automated sequencer

## IV Assembling the sequenced parts

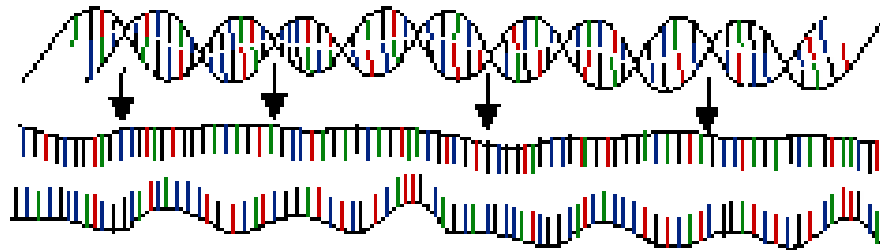
# Different steps in Sequencing

## Sequencing

30 cycles of 3 steps :

### Step 1 : denaturation

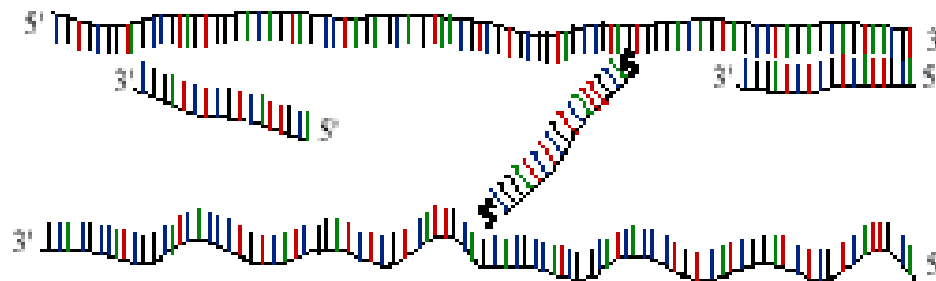
1 minut 94 °C



### Step 2 : annealing

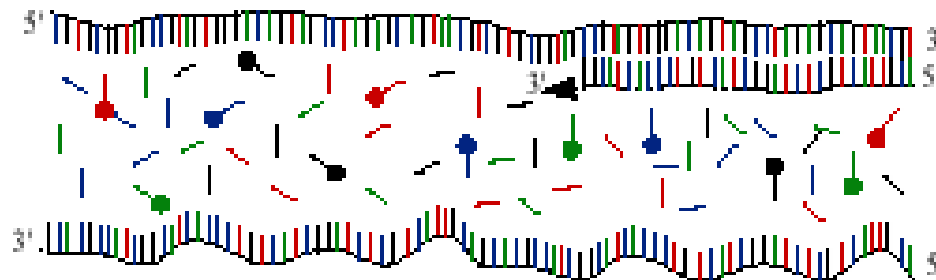
15 seconds 50 °C

1 primer !!!!



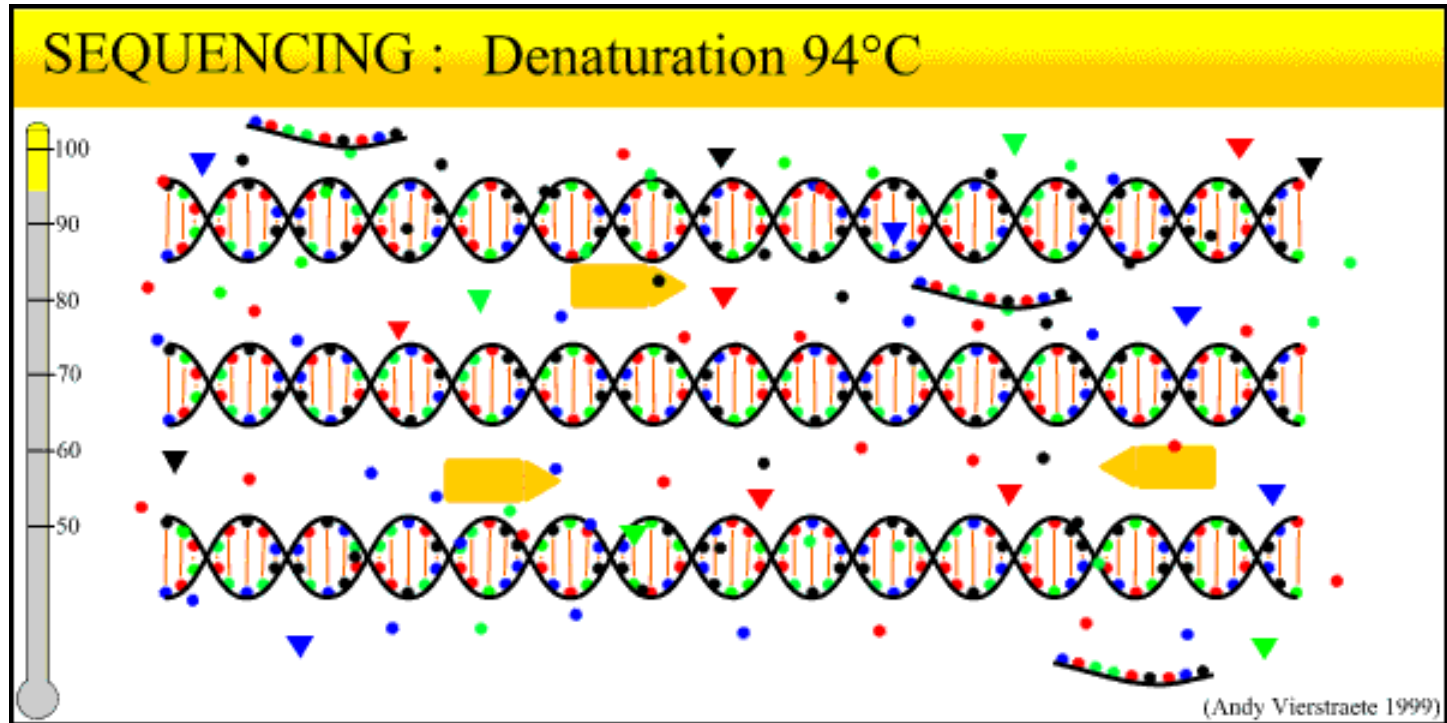
### Step 3 : extension

4 minutes 60 °C  
mixture of dNTP's |  
and ddNTP's ↓





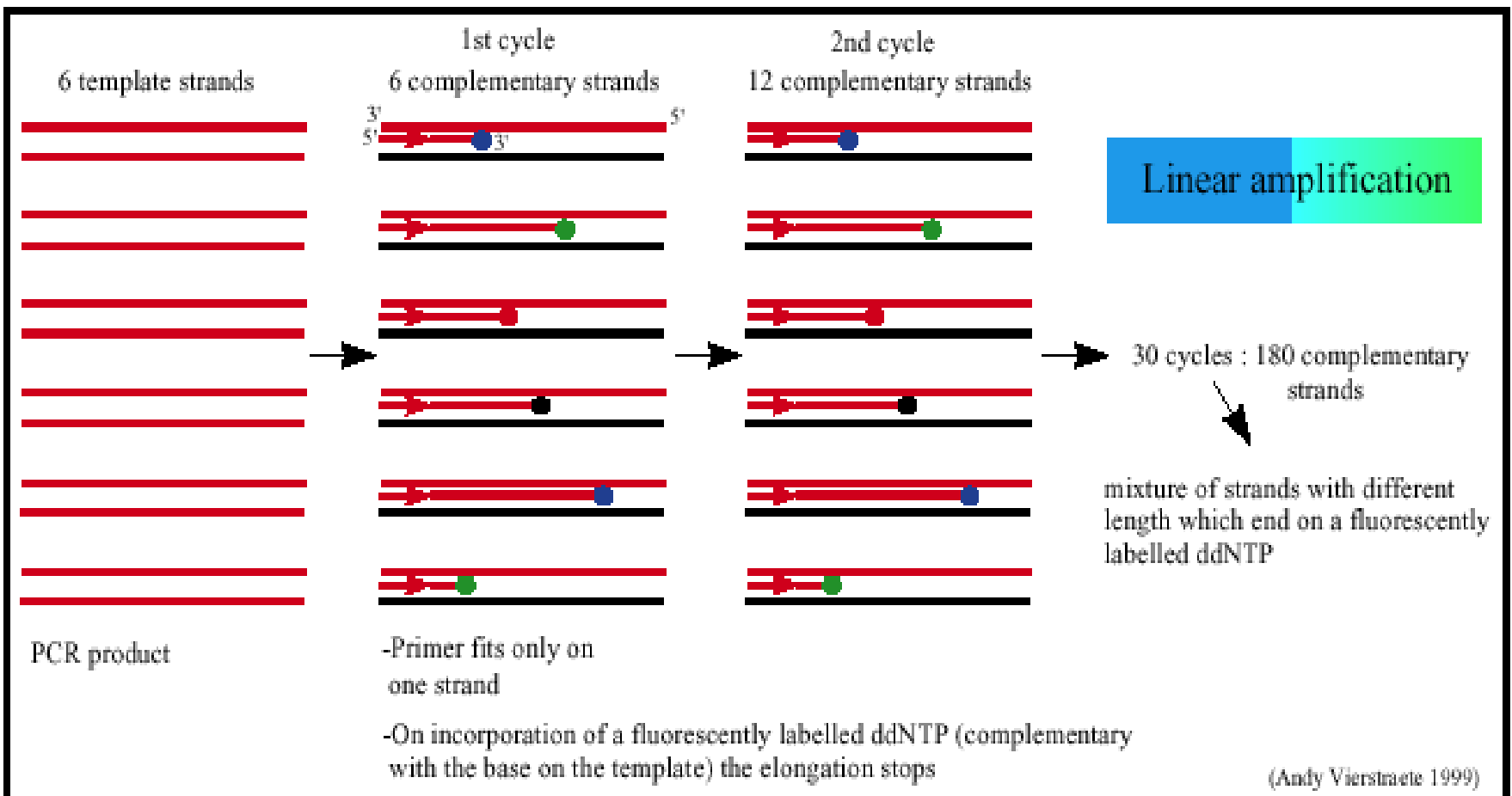
# Different steps in Sequencing



# PCR Sequencing

Since only one primer is used, only one strand is copied during sequencing – results in **linear increase** of the No. of copies.

⇒ large amount of DNA in the **starting mixture is required**.



# PCR Sequencing

## II Separation of the molecules:

After the sequencing reactions, the mixture of strands of different lengths, all ending on a fluorescently labeled ddNTP are loaded on an acrylamide gel for separation

- gel electrophoresis.

During electrophoresis, a **voltage** is created across the gel making one end positive and the other negative.

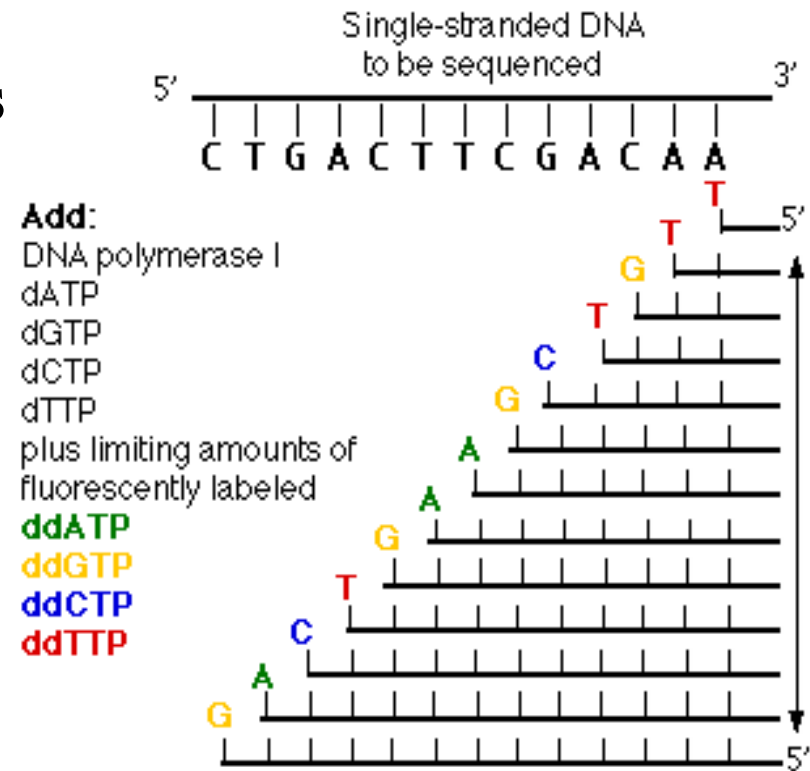
DNA being –vely charged, migrates to the positive side;

- strands of different length migrate at **different rates** and thus are separated based on their size - **the smallest strand travels the fastest.**

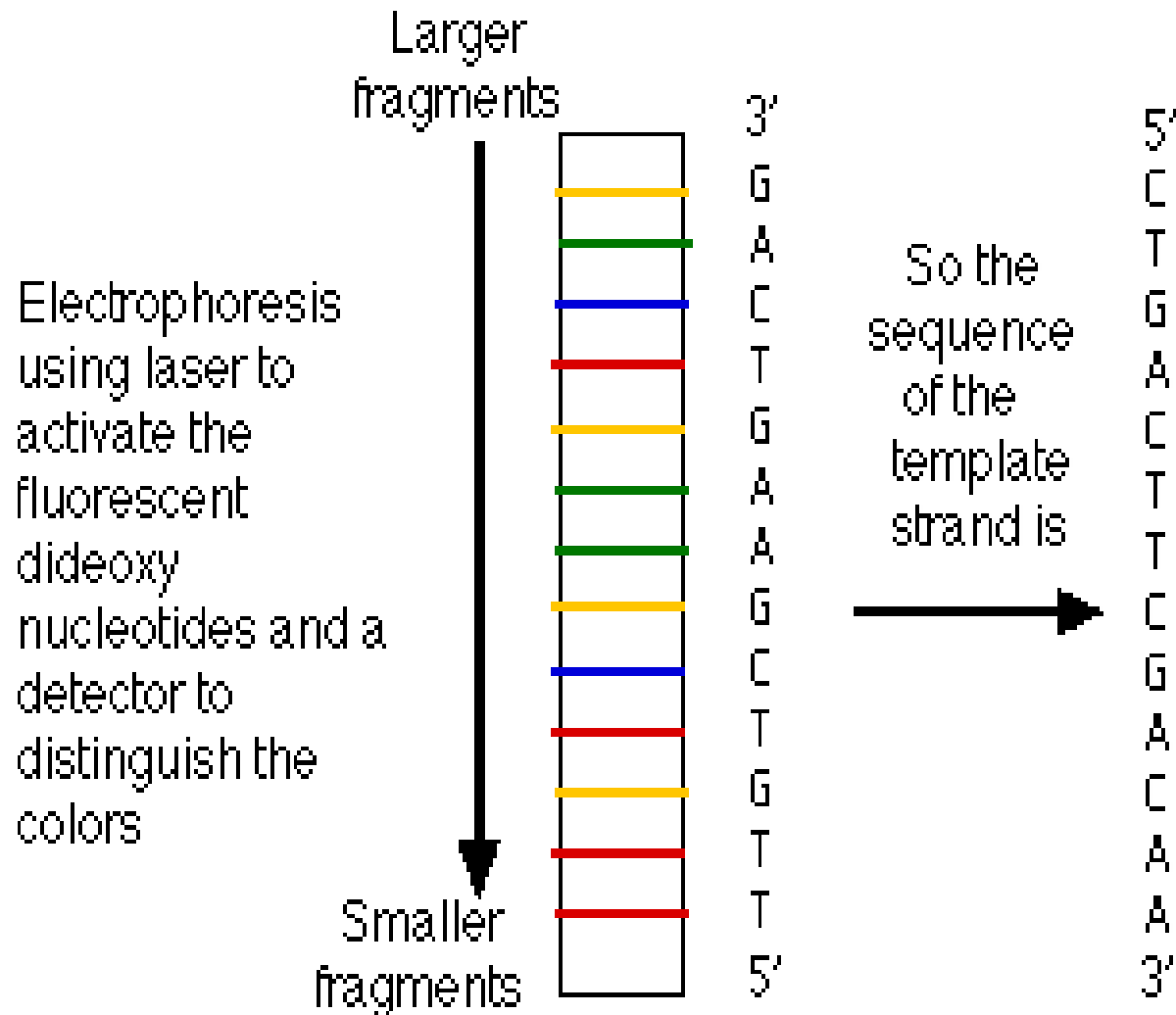
# Separation of molecules with electrophoresis

**Very good resolution** - a difference of even **one** nucleotide is enough to separate a strand from the next shorter or longer strand.

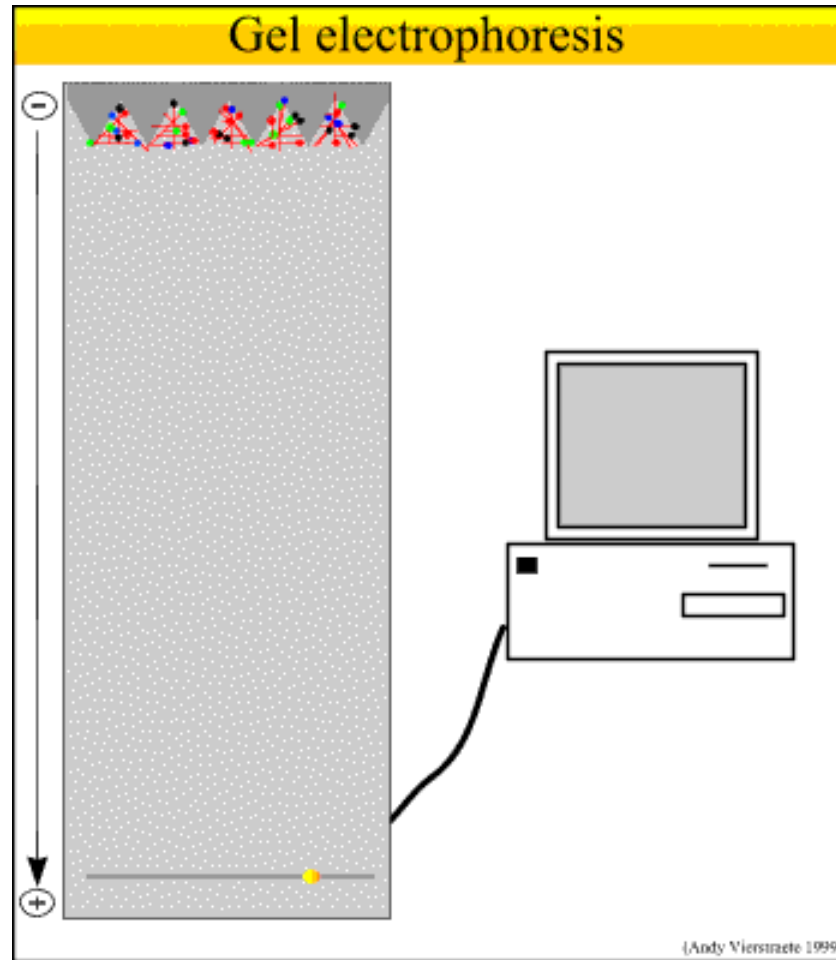
Four dideoxynucleotides fluoresces a **different color** when illuminated by a laser beam and an automatic scanner provides a printout of the sequence.



# Separation of Molecules with Electrophoresis



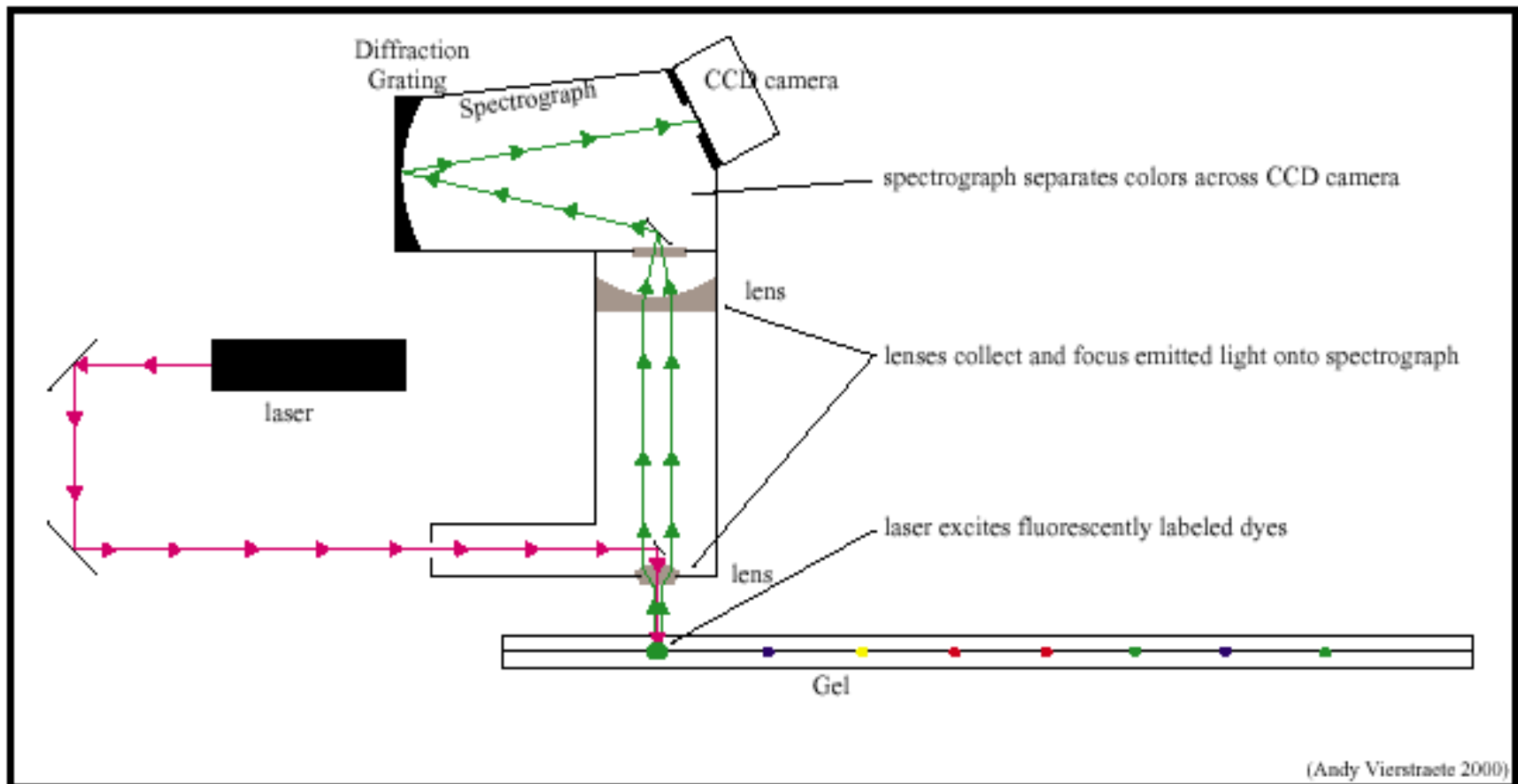
# Separation of the Molecules with Electrophoresis



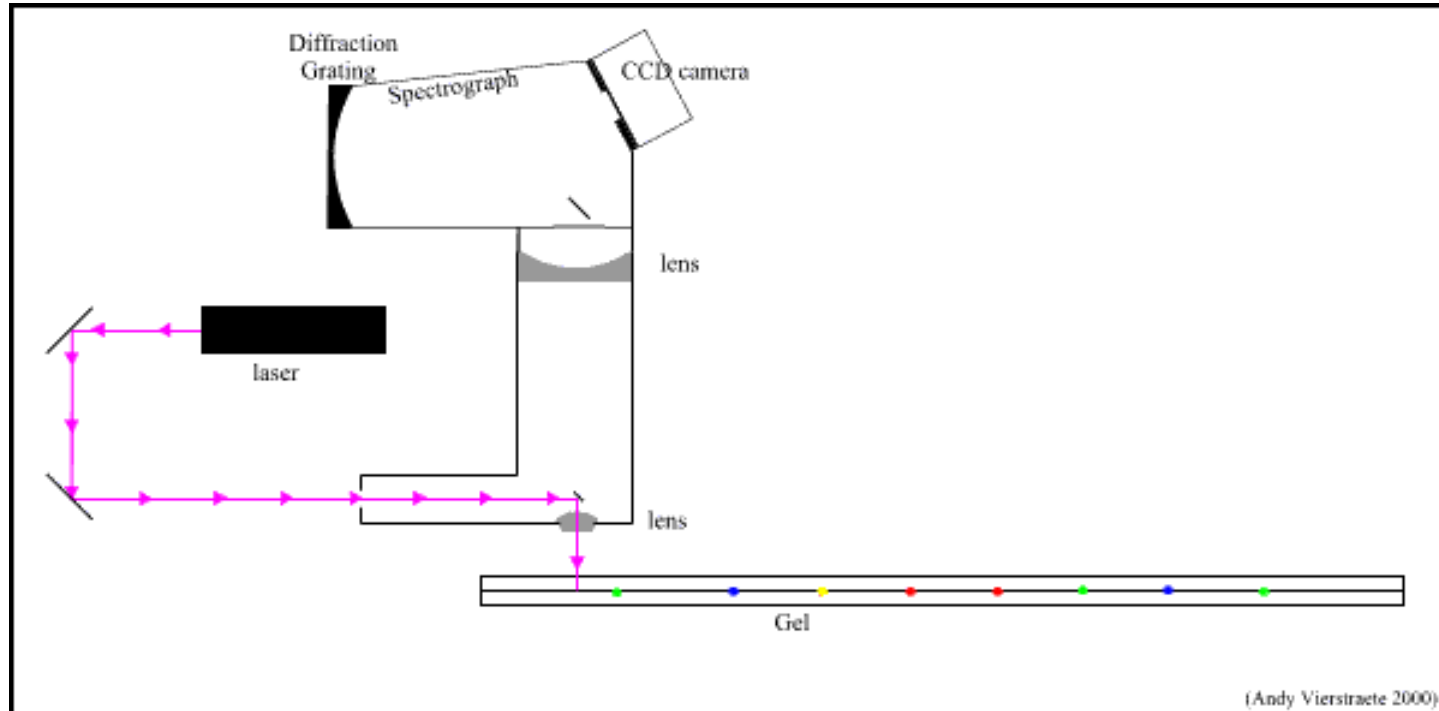
# PCR Sequencing

## III Detection on an automated sequencer:

Fluorescently labeled fragments that migrate through the gel pass a laser beam at the bottom of the gel.



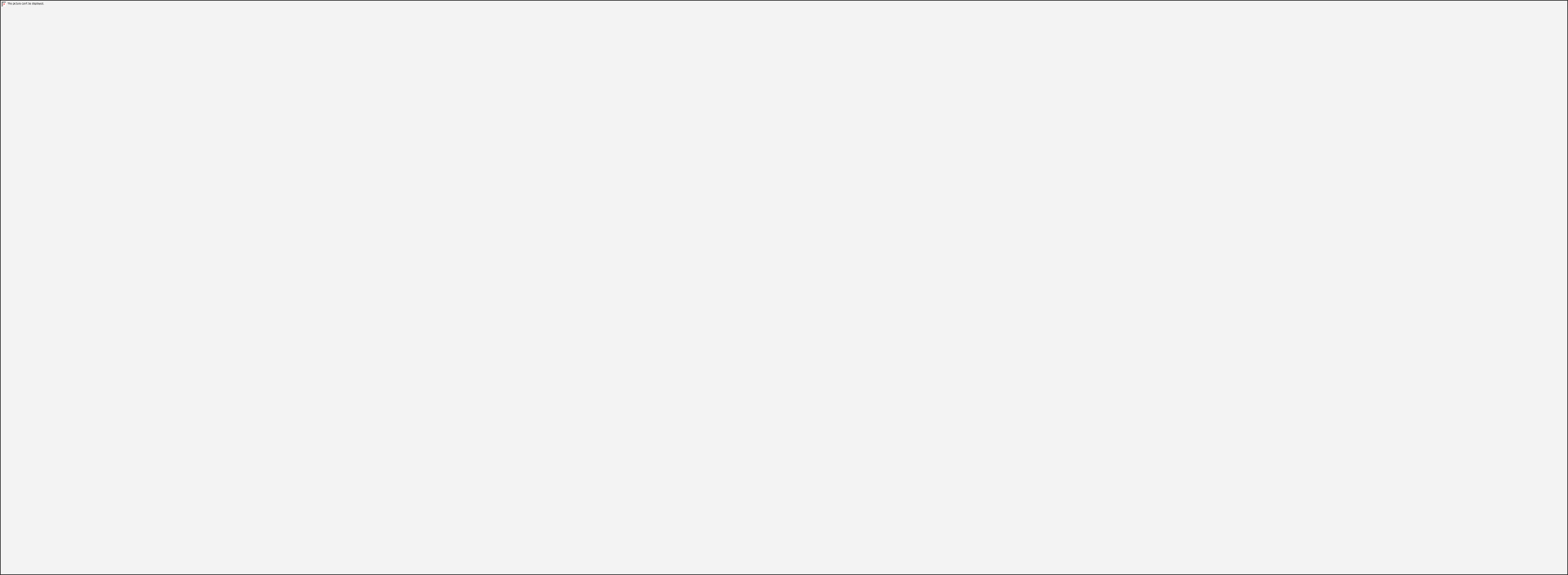
# Scanning & Detection System on a Sequencer





# PCR Sequencing

**Plot of the colors detected in a 'lane' of the gel (one sample), scanned from smallest fragments to largest.**



**The computer interprets the colors by printing the nucleotide sequence across the top of the plot.**

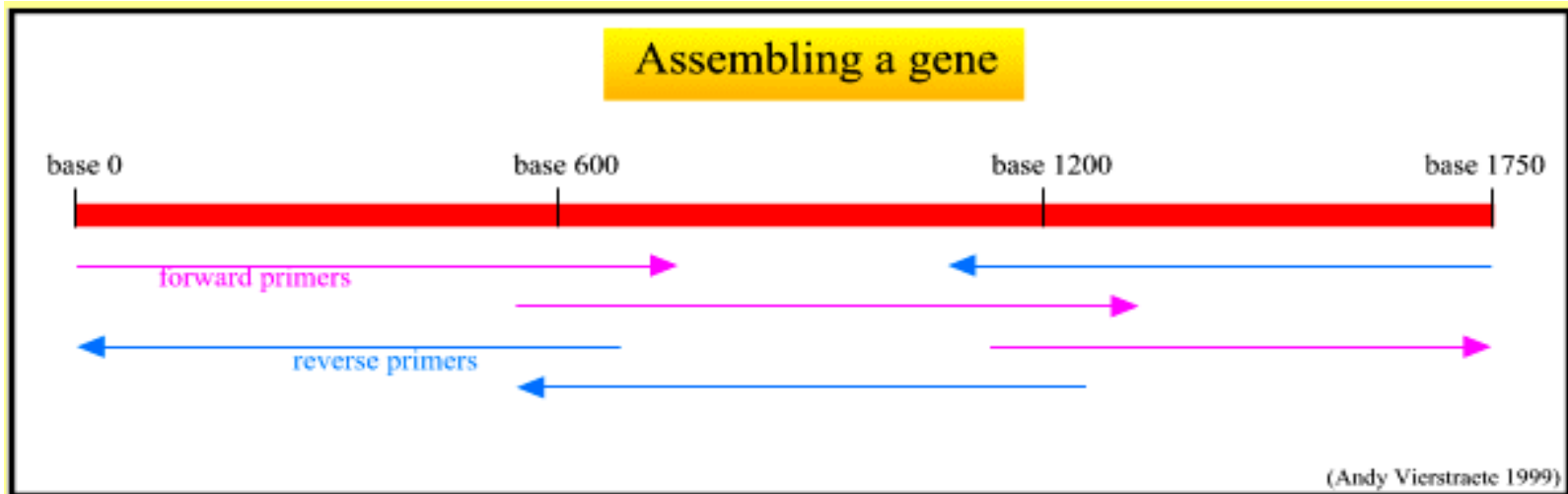
# PCR Sequencing

## IV Assembling the sequenced parts of a gene:

For publication, a gene sequence has to be confirmed in both directions using forward & reverse primers

Since it is only possible to sequence ~ 700-800 bases in one run, a gene of, say, 1800 bases, is sequenced with **internal primers**.

- the sequenced fragments are assembled using a computer program to obtain complete gene sequence.



# Genome Sequencing

# Genome Sequencing

**By Sanger's method, we can sequence a fragment of DNA ~ 1000bp long.**

**But what about longer pieces?**

**Human genome is 3 billion bases long, arranged on 23 pairs of chromosomes.**

**Sequencing machine reads just a drop in the ocean!**

# Genome Sequencing

**Solution:** Break the entire genome into manageable pieces and sequence them.

Two approaches used for sequencing Human genome:

- Publicly funded Human Genome Project (HGP) – **clone-by-clone** or hierarchical shotgun sequencing method
- Privately Funded Sequencing Project - Celera Genomics – **whole genome shotgun** sequencing method

# Genome Sequencing

## Hierarchical shotgun sequencing approach:

- genomic DNA is cut into pieces of about 150 Mb
- inserted into BAC cloning vectors,
- transformed into *E. coli* where they are replicated and stored.

BAC inserts are isolated & mapped to determine the order of each cloned 150 Mb fragment

- referred to as the **Golden Tiling Path**

Begun formally in 1990, Human Genome Project was a 13-yr effort coordinated by the U.S. DAE and NIH.

- **completed in 2003**

# Genome Sequencing

Each BAC fragment in the **Golden Path** is

- **fragmented randomly into smaller pieces,**
- each piece is cloned into a **plasmid** and sequenced on both strands.

**These sequences are aligned so that identical regions overlap.**

Contiguous pieces are then assembled into finished sequence once each strand has been sequenced about **5** times to produce **10× coverage** of high-quality data.

# Genome Sequencing

## **Whole genome shotgun sequencing (WGS)**

- method developed and preferred by Celera Genomics
- skips the entire step of making libraries of BAC clones

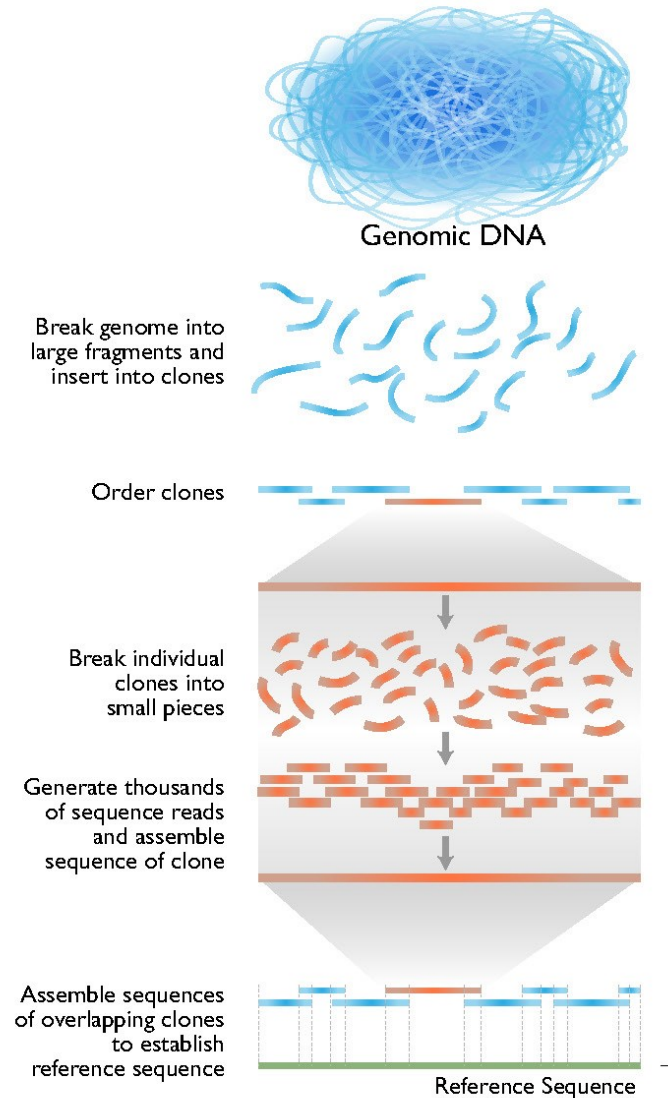
**Blast apart the entire human genome into fragments of 2 - 10 kb and sequence them.**

**Challenge is then to assemble these fragments into the whole genome sequence.**

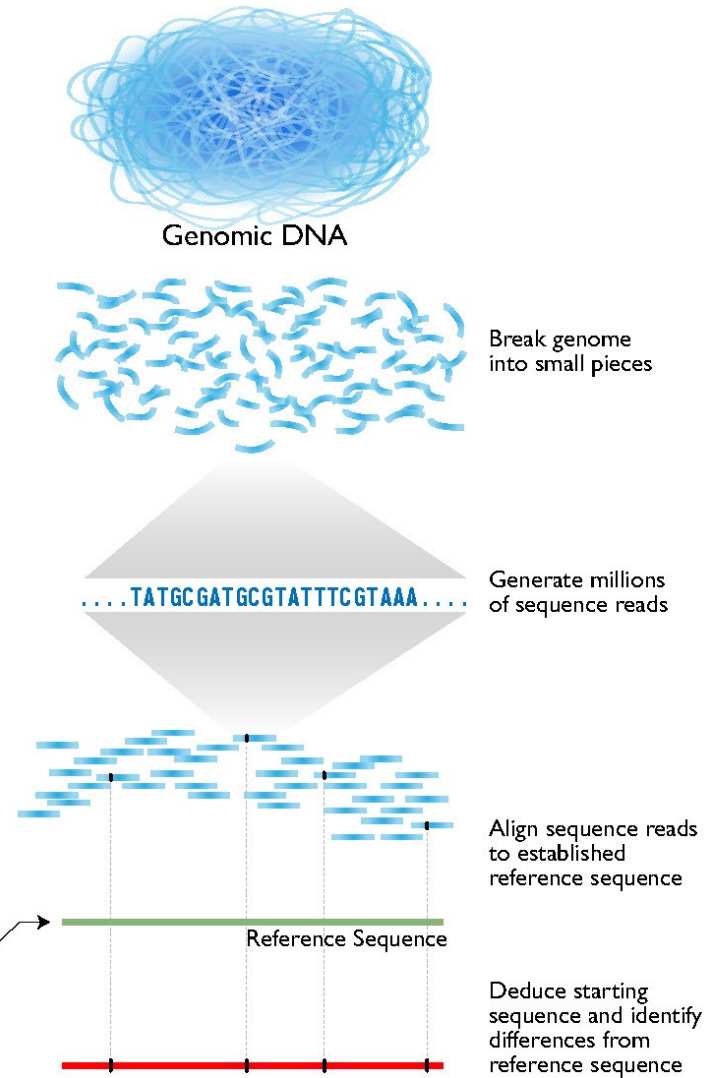


# Human Genome Sequencing

## Generating a Reference Genome Sequence (e.g., Human Genome Project)



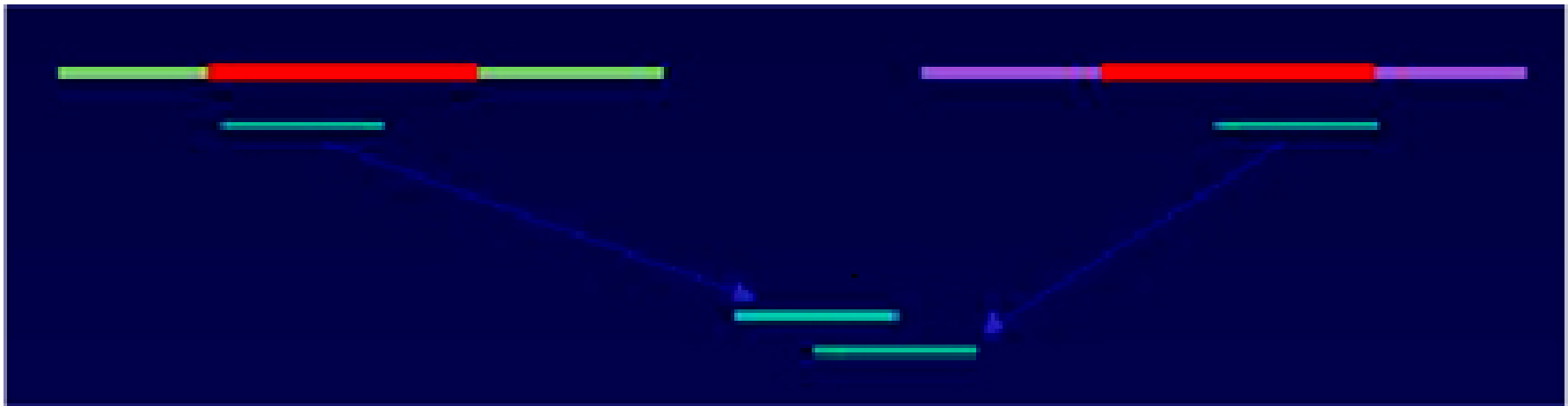
## Generating a Person's Genome Sequence (e.g., Circa ~2016)



# Whole Genome Shotgun Method

What makes the task of assembling the genome fragments especially challenging

- **repeats** in the genome ( $\sim 50\%$  in human genome).



Because of the various ways a fragment could align with a repeat, and the different areas adjacent to the repeats in the original genome, assemblers need to be designed so as not to incorrectly join fragments

# Whole Genome Shotgun Method

Adding to the challenge is the sheer computational complexity of the task.

Size of H. genome =  $3 \times 10^9$  bp. Given length of read ~**500 bps**, for desired coverage of **10x**, No. of reads required is:

$$\begin{aligned}\text{RequiredReads} &= \text{GenomeLength} * \text{DesiredCoverage} / \\ &\quad \text{ReadLength} \\ &= 6 * 10^7\end{aligned}$$

With **60M** reads to assemble, we need algorithms that run in near linear time ( $O(n \log n)$ )

# Whole Genome Shotgun Method

**Which method is better?**

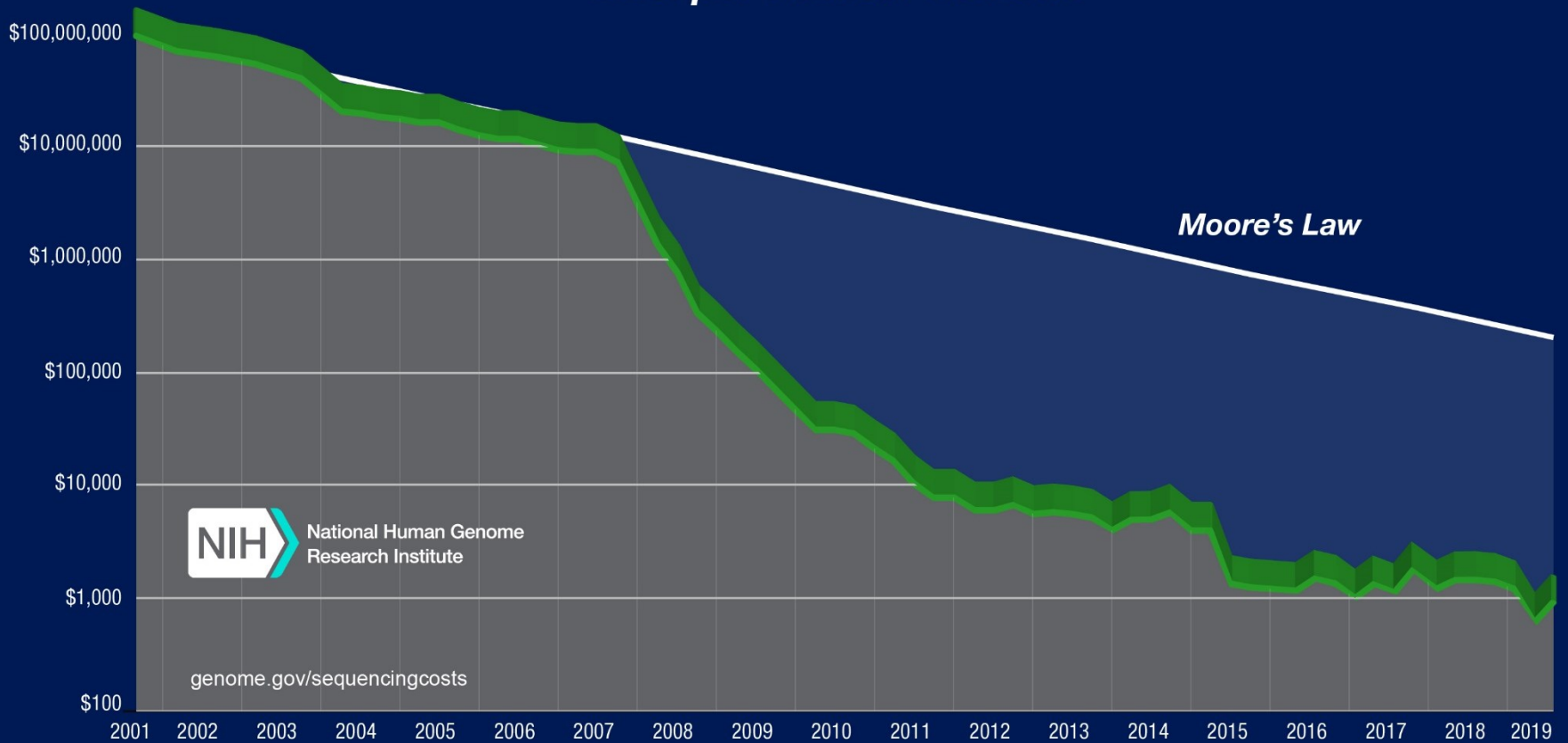
**Depends on the size and complexity of the genome**

**Note: Celera had access to the HGP data but the HGP did not have access to Celera data.**

**Which method is preferable for sequencing the genome of a novel coronavirus – SAR-CoV-2? Why?**

# **High-throughput / Next-Generation Sequencing**

## Cost per Human Genome



13yrs, \$3 billion

S.S.

8days, \$10,000

15min, <\$1,000

**DNA sequencing beating Moore's law**

# HTS/NGS Sequencing

**High-throughput sequencing (HTS) technologies have revolutionized the way biologists acquire and analyze genomic data.**

**- massively parallel sequencing**

	Roche GS FLX+	Illumina HiSeq 2000	SOLID™ 4	Ion Torrent PGM
Bases per run	700Mb	600 Gb	100 GB	1 Gb
Time per run	23h	~11 days	~14 days	4.5 h
Reads per run	1 Million	6 Billion (paired-end) 3 Billion (single)	1.4 Billion	Millions
Read length	~700 bp	2 x 100 bases	2 x 50 bases	35–400 bases

**- can generate tens of gigabases per week, at a cost 200-fold less than previous methods.**

# Sequencing Machines: Overview

	Roche GS FLX+	Illumina HiSeq 2000	SOLiD™ 4	Ion Torrent PGM
Bases per run	700Mb	600 Gb	100 GB	1 Gb
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# Sequencing Machines: Overview

## 1. Pyrosequencing



Roche GS-FLX

## 3. Sequence by ligation



Life Technologies SOLiD

## 2. Sequence by Synthesis



Illumina HiSeq

## 4. Proton Detection



Life Technologies Ion Torrent

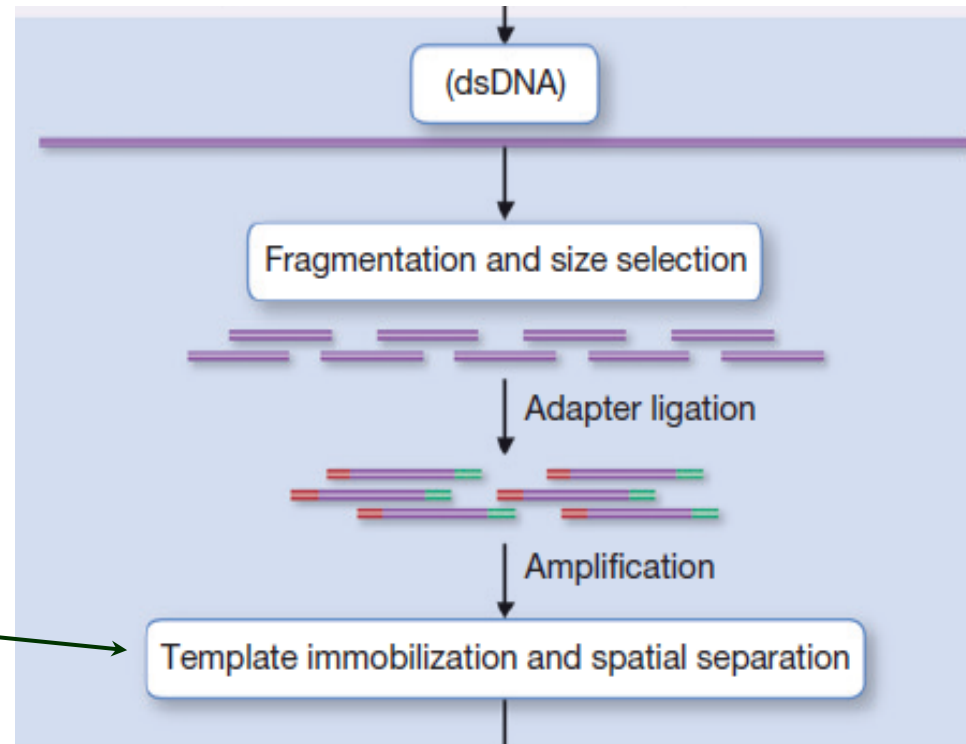
# Basic workflow: Template Generation

Sequence library – convert starting material into a library of sequencing reaction templates.

Require common steps:

- Fragmentation
- Size selection
- Adapter ligation

by attachment to solid  
surfaces or beads

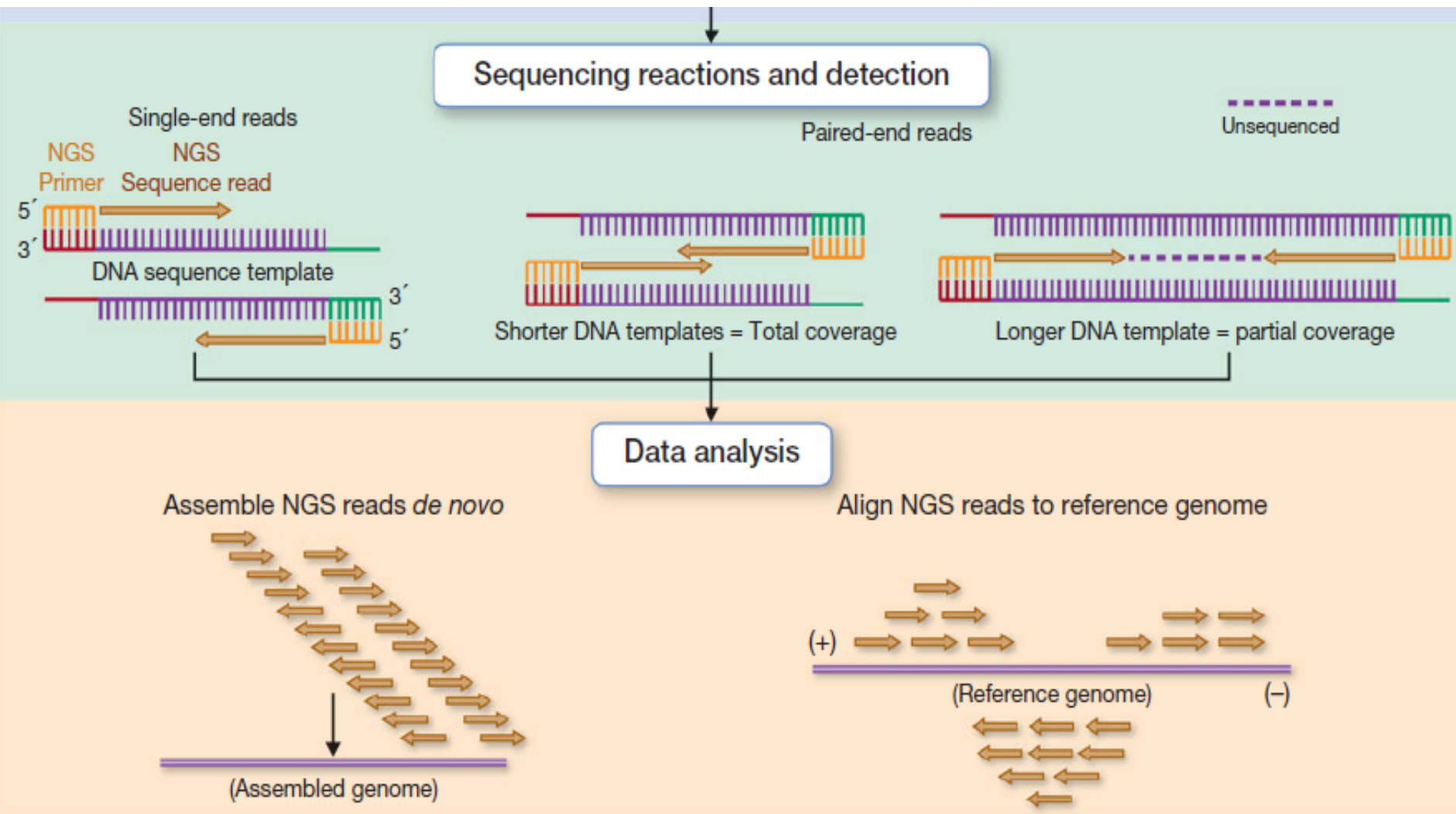


Amplification-based - “second-generation” sequencing technology

Single-molecule - “third-generation” sequencing technology

A library is either sequenced directly - Single-molecule templates  
or, amplified then sequenced - Clonally amplified templates

# Basic workflow: Detection & Data Analysis



# Data Analysis

The scale and nature of data produced by all NGS platforms place substantial demands on IT at all stages of sequencing, including data tracking, storage, and quality control:

- **base calling** - by proprietary software
- Quality check and filtering of reads
- **aligning** sequencing data to Reference genome. if available, or a *de novo assembly* is conducted.

Once the sequence is aligned to a reference genome, the data needs to be **analyzed** in an experiment-specific fashion.

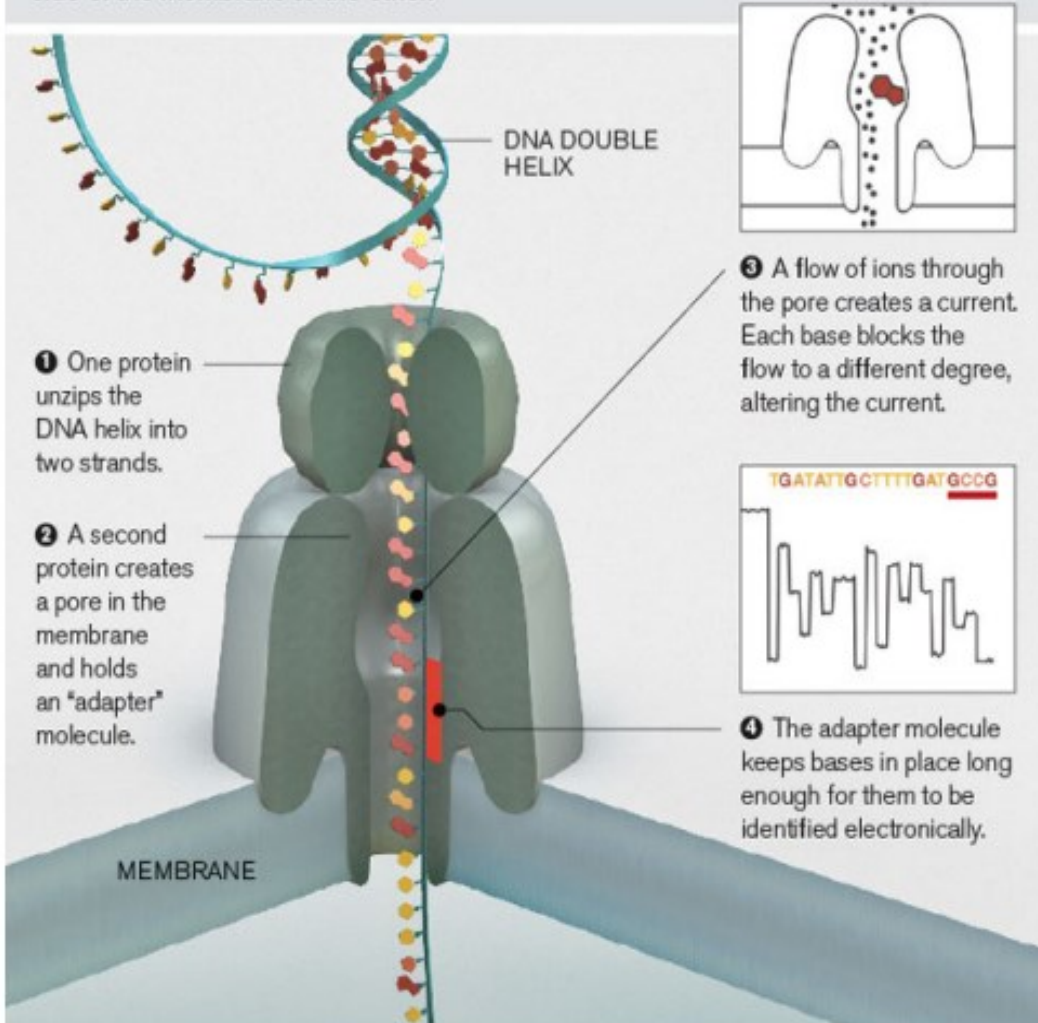
**Sequence alignment & assembly is an active area of computational research**

# Third Generation Sequencing (TGS)

- **‘Long read sequencing’ – read length: ~ 10 – 60Kb**
- **Single molecule sequencing**
- **No PCR step involved**
- **Faster and portable**
- **Under active development**
- **e.g., PacBio Single molecule real time sequencing (SMRT) and Oxford Nanopore**

# Oxford Nanopore - MinION

DNA can be sequenced by threading it through a microscopic pore in a membrane. Bases are identified by the way they affect ions flowing through the pore from one side of the membrane to the other.



# HTS Applications

**One of the most prominent applications of NGS is**

**re-sequencing:**

**Any human individual's  
genome available in NCBI?**

- **whole genome resequencing**
  - **target-region resequencing**
  - **exome resequencing**
- genome-wide analysis of single nucleotide variations and other structural variations, multiple individuals, or strains, cancer sequencing, population-based sampling of a species, migration patterns of a virus, e.g., SARS-CoV-2, etc.**

# **PCR Sequencing**

**How would you go about sequencing SARS-CoV-2 genome, 29903 bases long?**

**What technique is used for diagnostic testing of COVID-19?**

**While sequencing a novel genome for the first time, how are primers identified?**



# PCR Sequencing

## **Real time RT-PCR used for diagnostic testing of COVID-19**

It is a laboratory technique combining **reverse transcription** of RNA into DNA (called complementary DNA or cDNA) and **amplification** of specific DNA targets using polymerase chain reaction (PCR).

It is primarily used to measure the amount of a specific RNA.

This is achieved by monitoring the amplification reaction using fluorescence, a technique called real-time PCR or quantitative PCR (qPCR).

- routinely used for analysis of gene expression and quantification of viral RNA in research and clinical settings.

**Can we now answer these Qs:**

- **How is the SARS-CoV-2 genome sequenced?**
- **How does one identify the coordinates of N gene on it? i.e., how to construct a physical map of a genome?**
- **How does one select which regions in this gene would give specificity for the presence of SARS-CoV-2?\***
- **How is the specific probe regions extracted and amplified for detection?**
- **Is it possible to store the DNA sample for re-testing? How?**

## **References:**

- 1. Concepts in Biotechnology, ed. D. Balasubramanyam**
- 2. Restriction Endonucleases and DNA Modifying Enzymes**  
**<http://arbl.cvmbs.colostate.edu/hbooks/genetics/biotech/enzymes/index.html>**
- 3. REBASE: restriction enzymes and methyltransferases,**  
**Nucleic Acids Research, Vol. 31 (1), 418–420 (2003)**