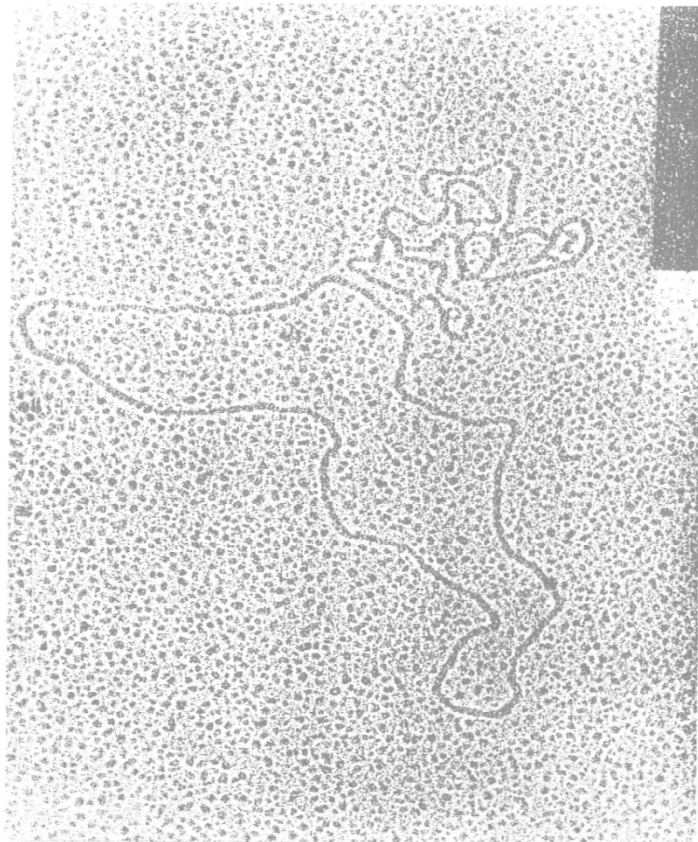


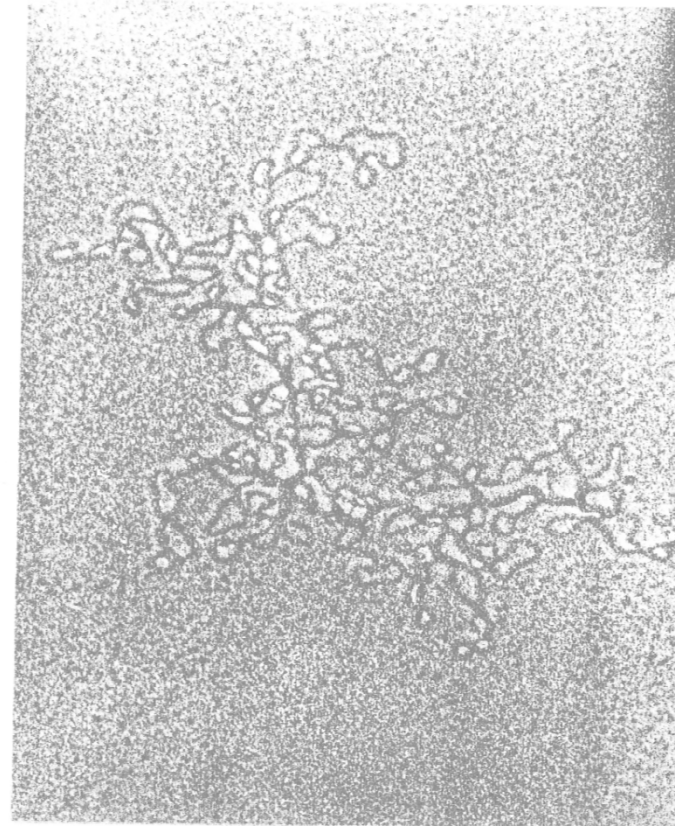


Bacterial Plasmids

Open circular form



Covalently closed circles (ccc-form)



20



Bacterial Plasmids

Copy Number

Replication & its control

Stringent control: low copy plasmids
F, R1, RP4/RK2 (1-6)

Relaxed Control: high copy number
ColE1, pBR322, pUC18

Incompatibility:

Replication / Control
Partitioning

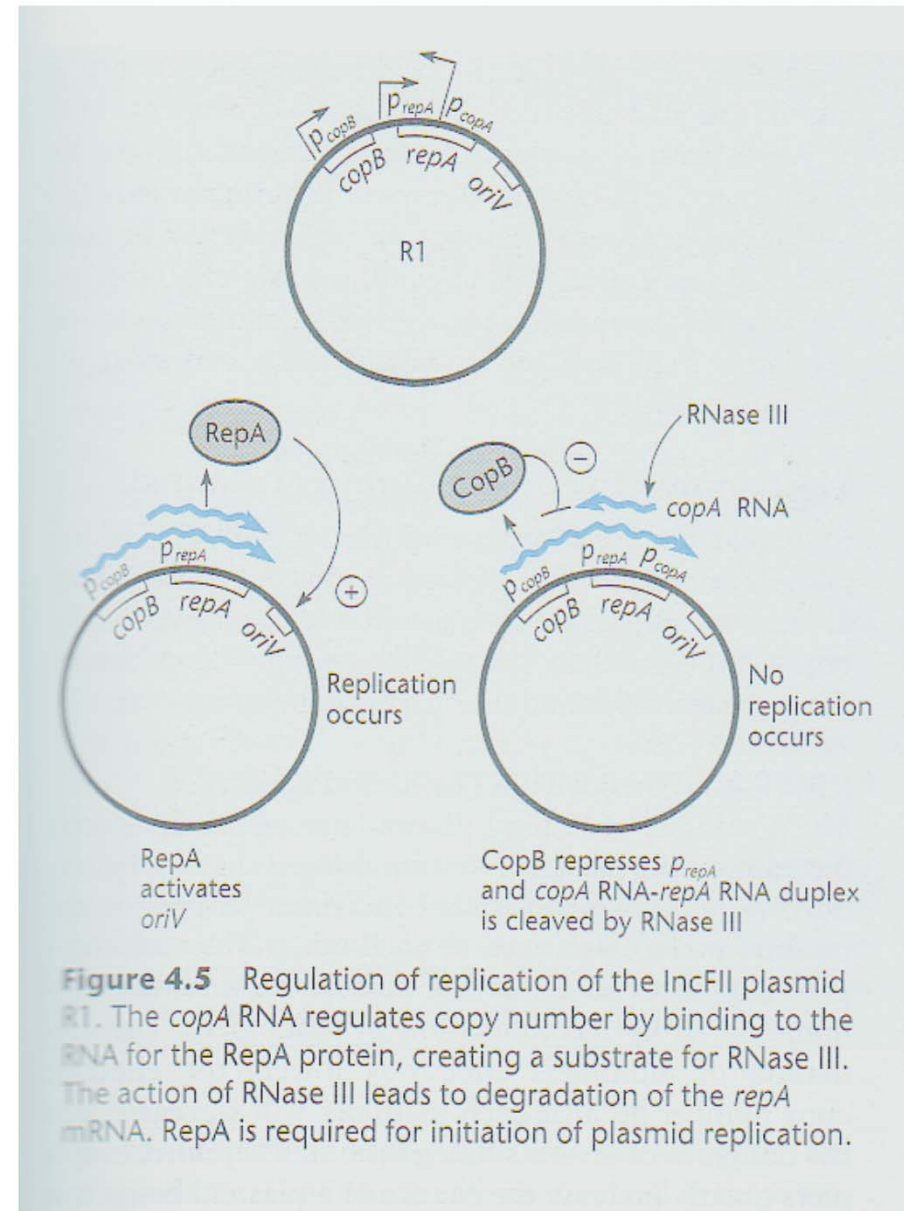
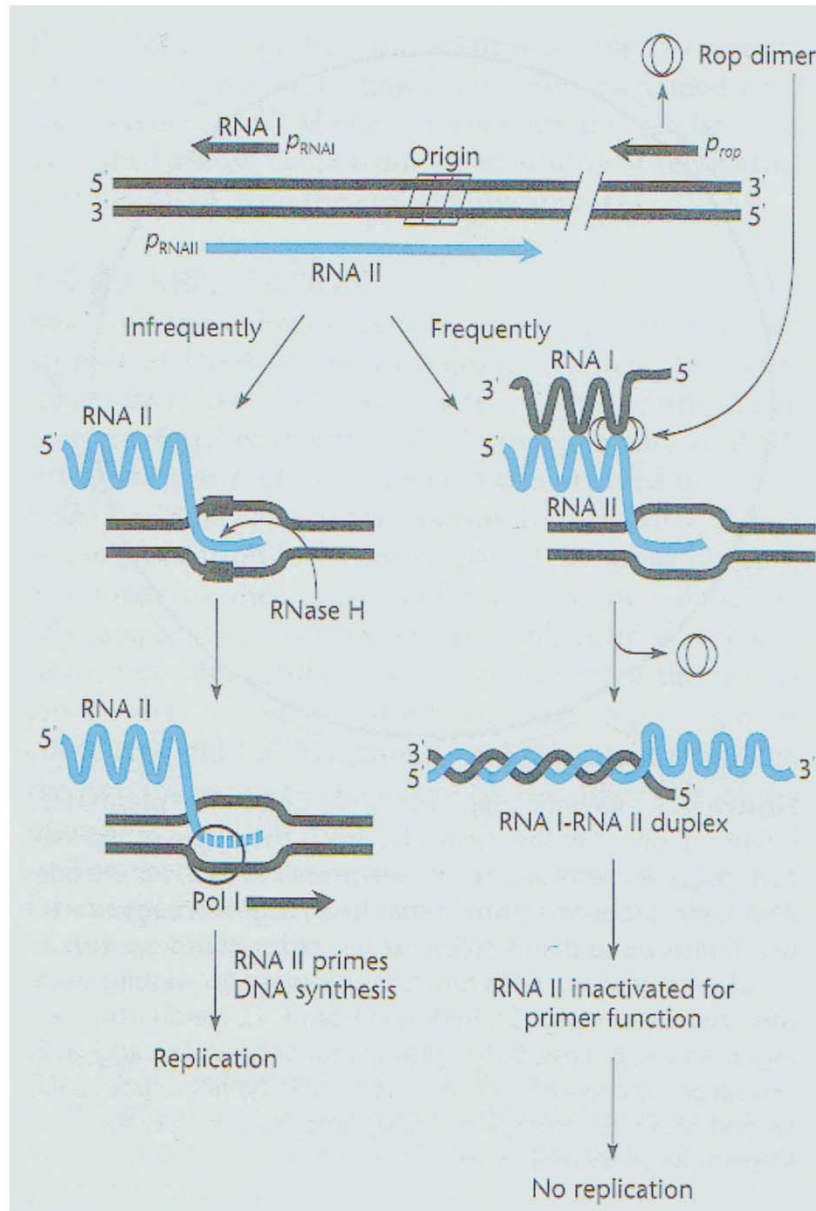
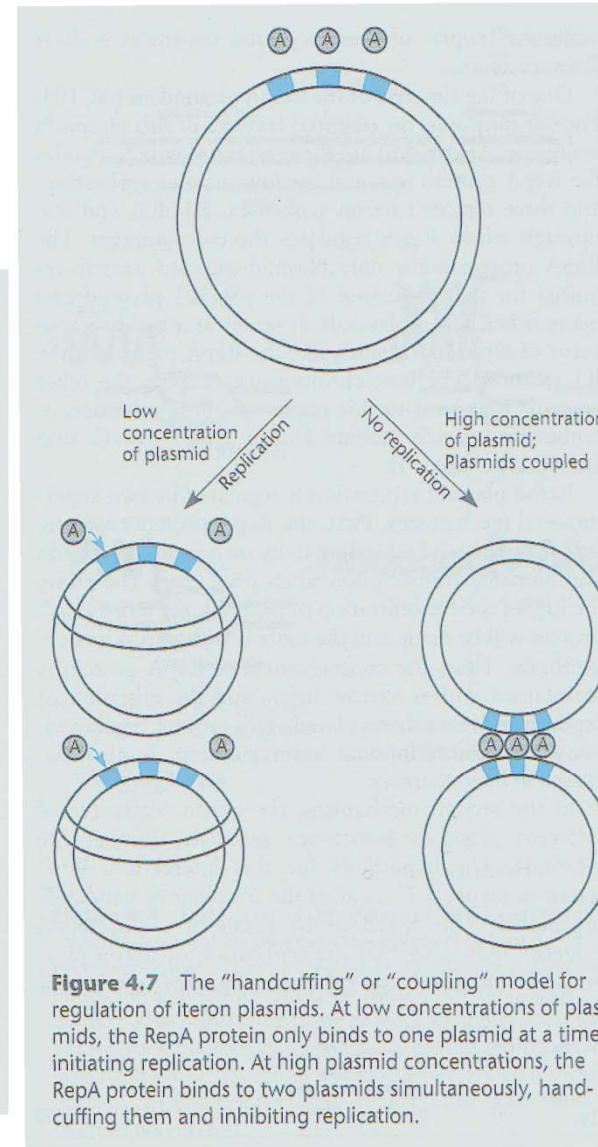
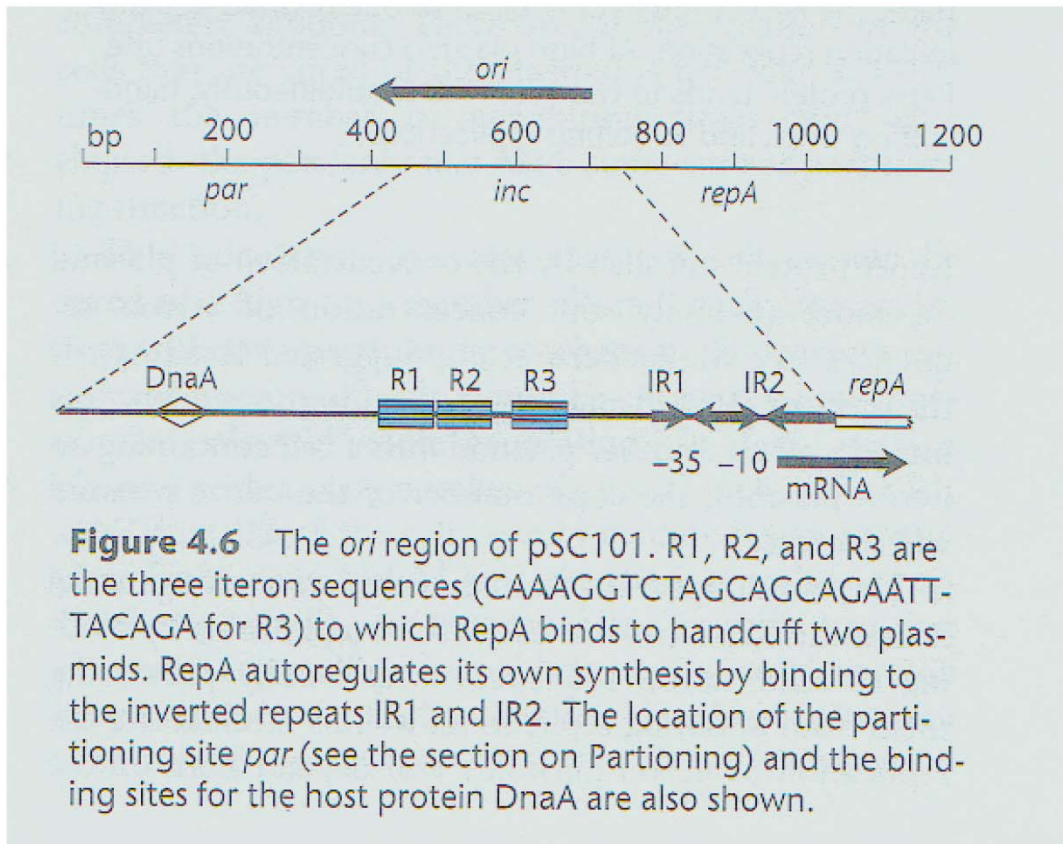


Figure 4.5 Regulation of replication of the IncFII plasmid R1. The *copA* RNA regulates copy number by binding to the RNA for the RepA protein, creating a substrate for RNase III. The action of RNase III leads to degradation of the *repA* mRNA. RepA is required for initiation of plasmid replication.



Iteron Model





Plasmids

Conjugative Transfer:

Gram-negative:	F, RP4/RK2,
Gram-positive:	pAM β 1, SCP2*
Plants	Ti

Bacteriocin-/ Microcin-Production:

Antibiotika-Resistance:

β -Lactam Antibiotics:	β -Lactamases
Chloramphenicol:	Acetyltransferases
Aminoglycoside-Ab.:	Phosphotransferases
Tetracycline:	Membrane transfer
Sulfonamide:	Bypass
Trimethoprim	

Heavy metal resistance:

mercury, Hg-organic compounds,
Tellurium
Arsenic, Antimony, Cadmium,
Copper, Silver



Plasmids

Degradive Plasmids:

Aromatic, heterocyclic compounds
Carbohydrates (sucrose)
specific metabolites (Nopalin, Octopin)

Specific metabolic pathways

Nitrogen fixation
Hydrogen oxidation

Symbiosis factors

Rhizobia

Medically relevant features

Colonizing factors
Invasins
Toxins
Siderophores



Plasmids in Eukaryotes - Yeast

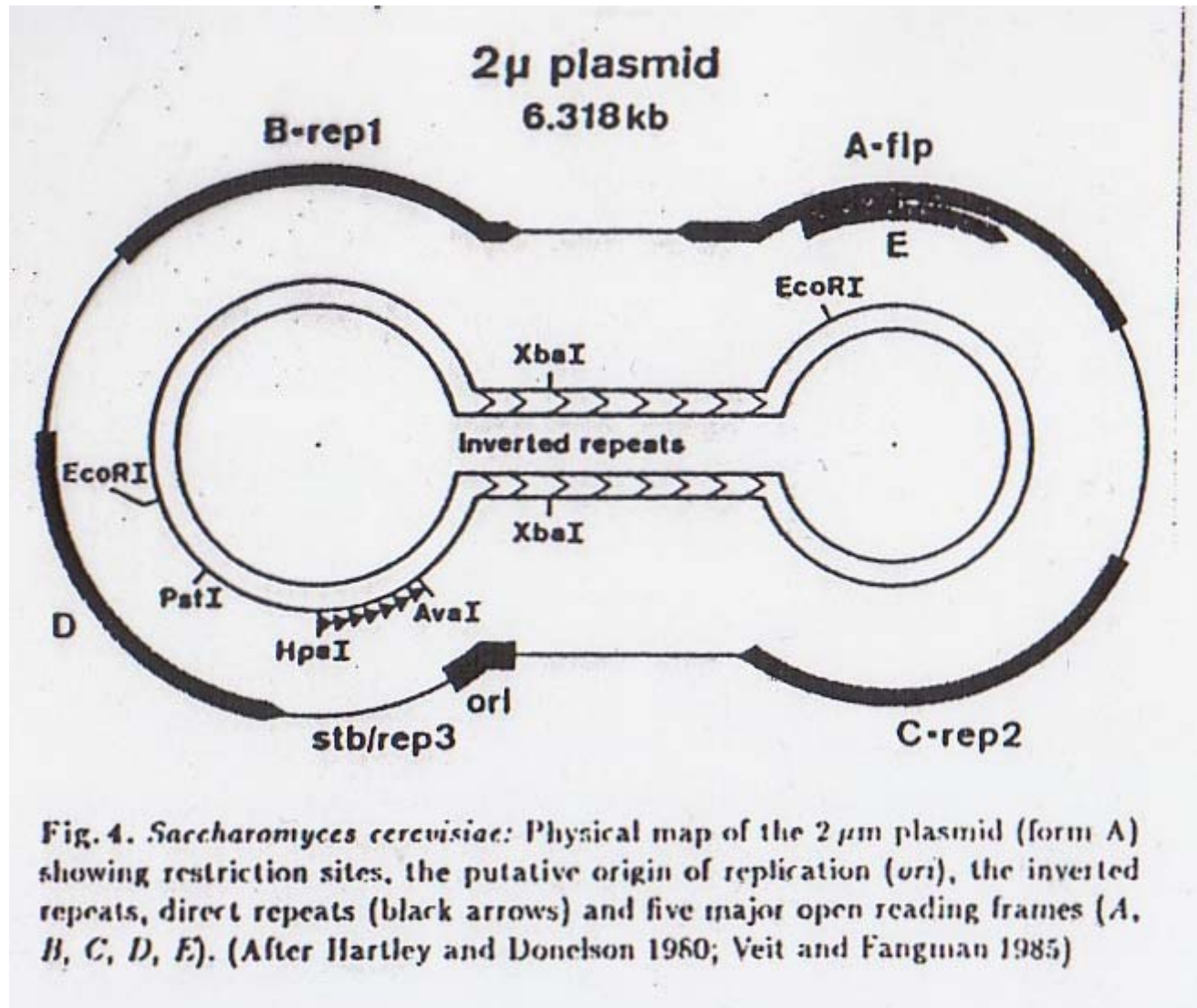




Fig. 2a, b. *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*: structure of the $2\ \mu\text{m}$ plasmid: (a) double-stranded plasmid; (b) homoduplex of the $2\ \mu\text{m}$ plasmid. The self-annealing of the inverted repeats of the plasmid yields typical "dumb-bell" structures (from C.P. Hollenberg)

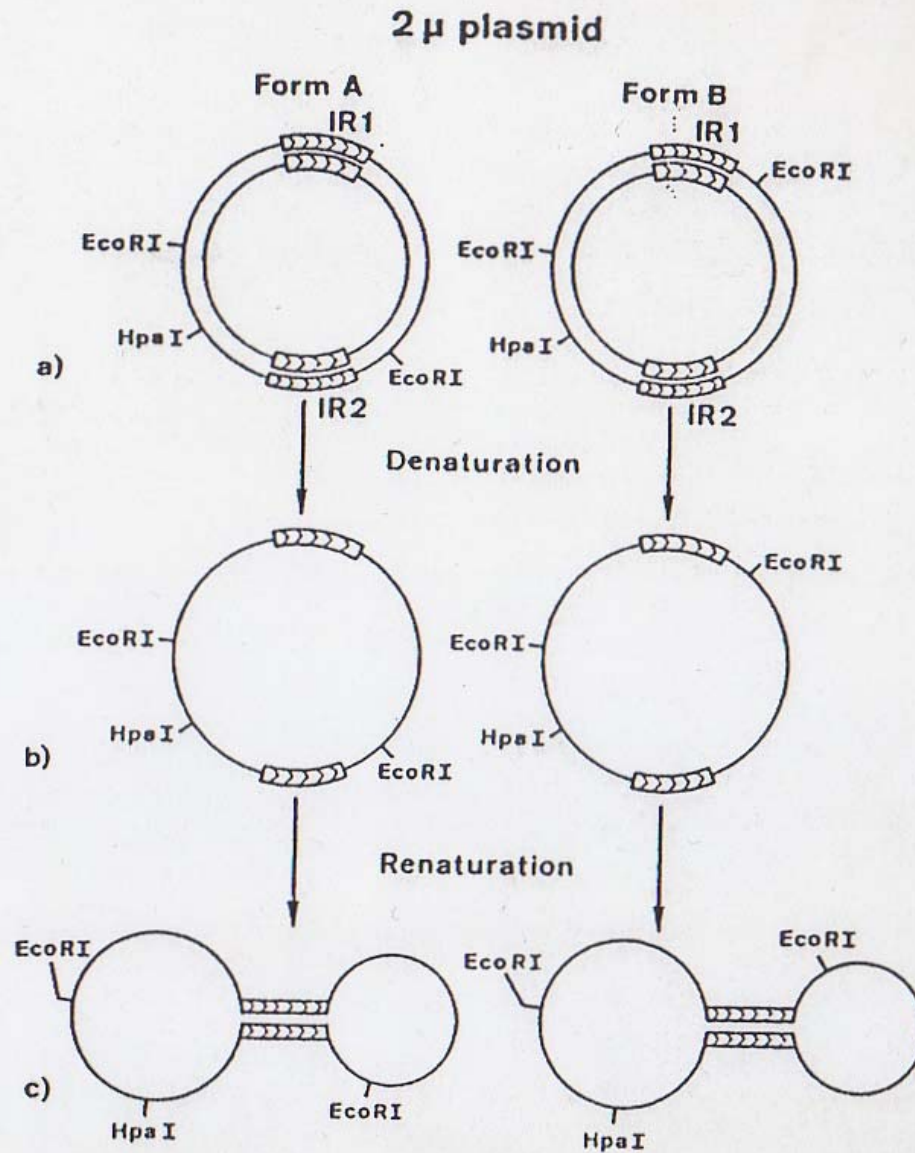
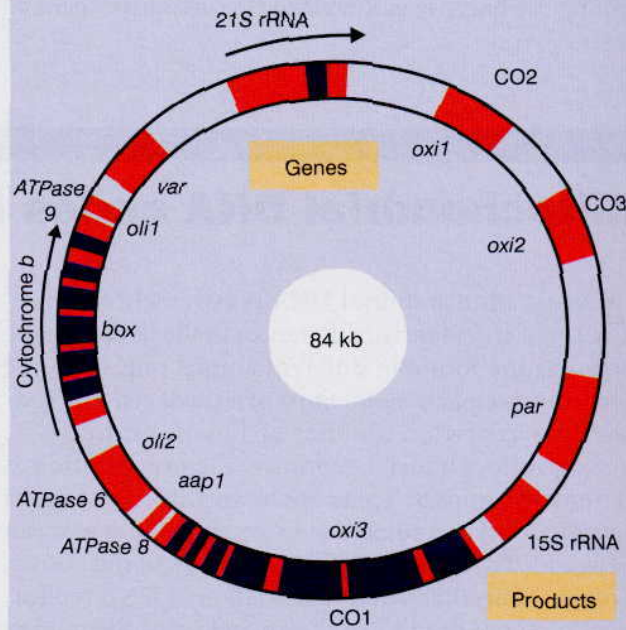


Fig. 3. *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*: Scheme for the formation of two types of homoduplex molecules following denaturation and renaturation of the ds 2 μ m plasmid DNA



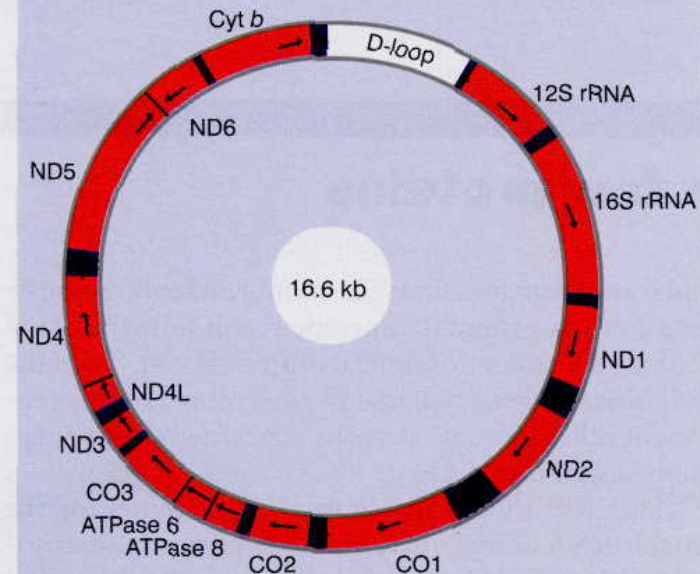
Figure 3.14 The mitochondrial genome of *S. cerevisiae* contains both interrupted and uninterrupted protein-coding genes, rRNA genes, and tRNA genes (positions not indicated). Arrows indicate direction of transcription.



■ Exons ■ Introns
oli } = subunits of oligomycin-sensitive ATPase
aap }
oxi = subunits of cytochrome *c* oxidase (CO)

box = cytochrome *b*
par = unknown functions
var = small ribosome subunit protein

Figure 3.13 Human mitochondrial DNA has 22 tRNA genes, 2 rRNA genes, and 13 protein-coding regions. 14 of the 15 protein-coding or rRNA-coding regions are transcribed in the same direction. 14 of the tRNA genes are expressed in the clockwise direction and 8 are read counter clockwise.



■ tRNA genes
■ Coding regions
 → Indicates direction of gene, 5' to 3'
 CO: cytochrome oxidase
 ND: NADH dehydrogenase



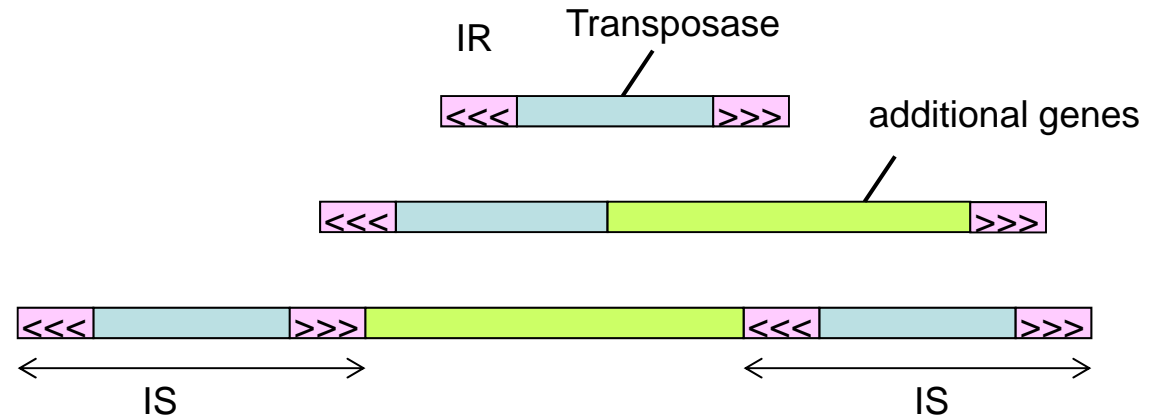
Transposable Elements - Insertion Sequences and Transposons

DNA – DNA Transposition

IS Elements

Simple Transposons

Composite Transposons



DNA – RNA – DNA Transposition

Retrotransposons

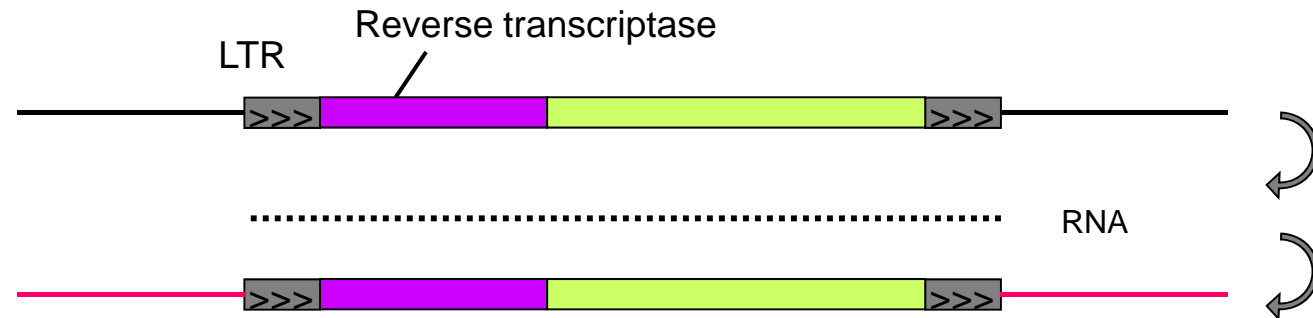
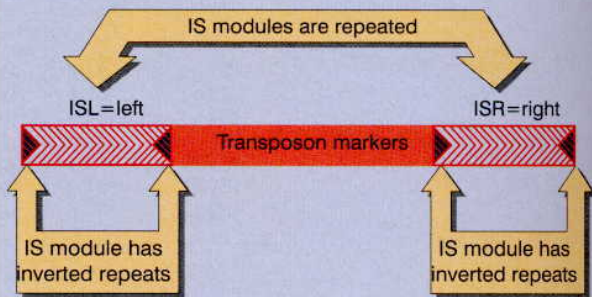
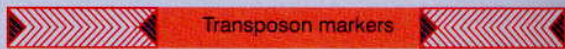
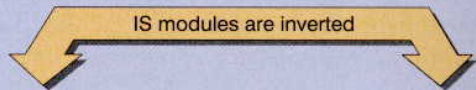




Figure 15.2 A composite transposon has a central region carrying markers (such as drug resistance) flanked by IS modules. The modules have short inverted terminal repeats. If the modules themselves are in inverted orientation (as drawn), the short inverted terminal repeats at the ends of the transposon are identical.

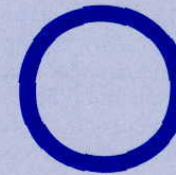


Example
 Tn9 IS1 *cam*^R IS modules identical both functional

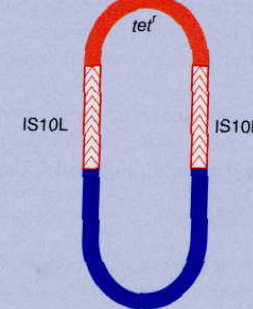


Transposon	Left end	Markers	Right end
Tn903	IS903	<i>kan</i> ^R	both IS ends functional
Tn10	IS10L nonfunctional	<i>tet</i> ^R	IS10R functional
Tn5	IS50L nonfunctional	<i>kan</i> ^R	IS50R functional

Figure 15.3 Two IS10 modules create a composite transposon that can mobilize any region of DNA that lies between them. When Tn10 is part of a small circular molecule, the IS10 repeats can transpose either side of the circle.

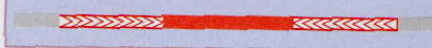


Transposon integrates into circular DNA



Outcome 1

Tn10 transposon moves again



Outcome 2

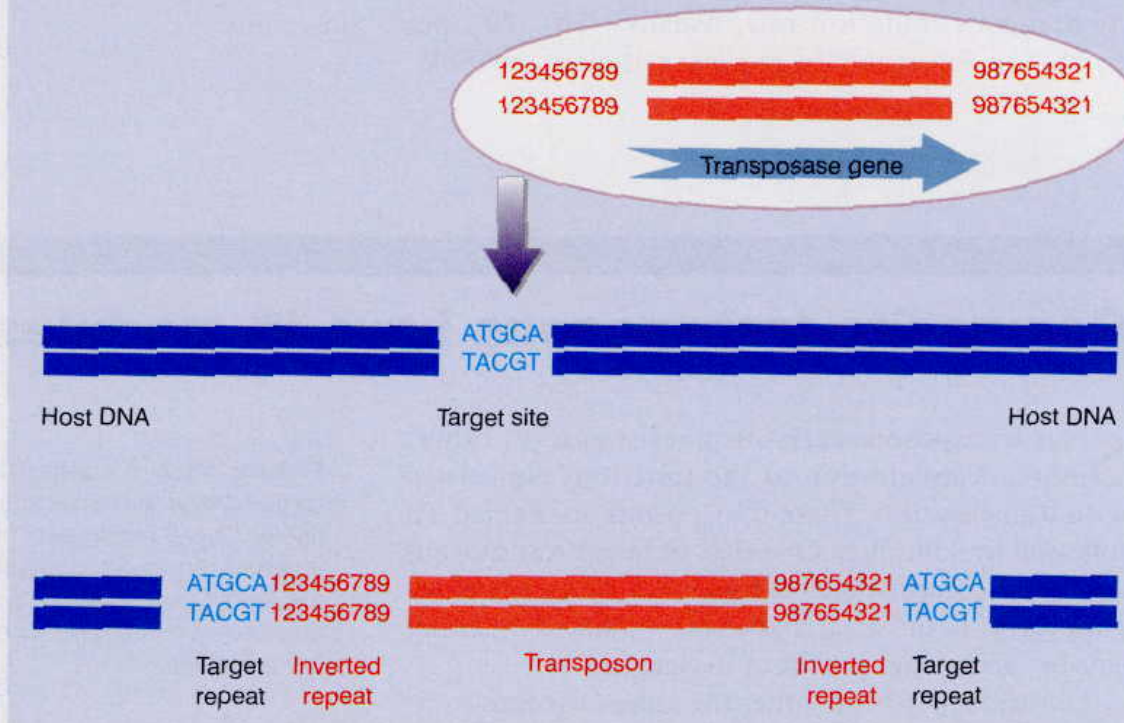
New transposon created by mobilization of IS10 modules in alternative orientation





Target site duplication

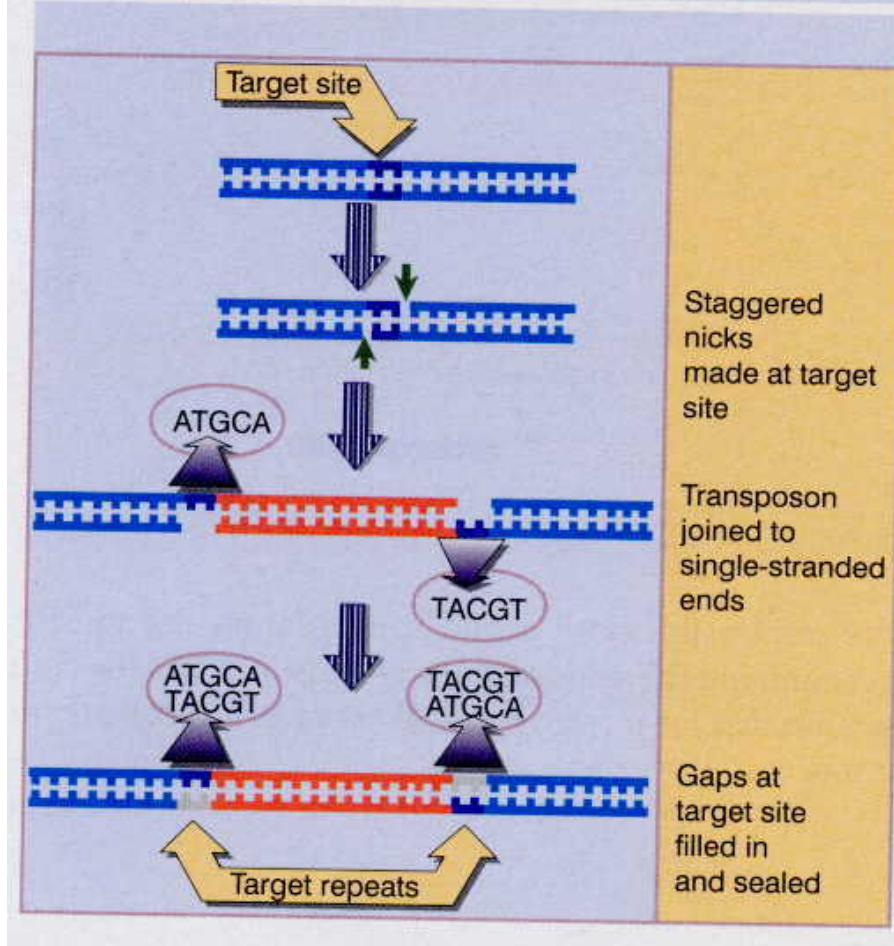
Figure 15.1 Overview: transposons have inverted terminal repeats and generate direct repeats of flanking DNA at the target site. In this example, the target is a 5 bp sequence. The ends of the transposon consist of inverted repeats of 9 bp, where the numbers 1 through 9 indicate a sequence of base pairs.



			Overall length	Target selection
IS1	9 bp	23 bp	768 bp	random
IS2	5 bp	41 bp	1327 bp	hotspots
IS4	11-13 bp	18 bp	1428 bp	AAAN ₂₀ TTT
IS5	4 bp	16 bp	1195 bp	hotspots
IS10R	9 bp	22 bp	1329 bp	NGCTNAGCN
IS50R	9 bp	9 bp	1531 bp	hotspots
IS903	9 bp	18 bp	1057 bp	random



Figure 15.4 The direct repeats of target DNA flanking a transposon are generated by the introduction of staggered cuts whose protruding ends are linked to the transposon.



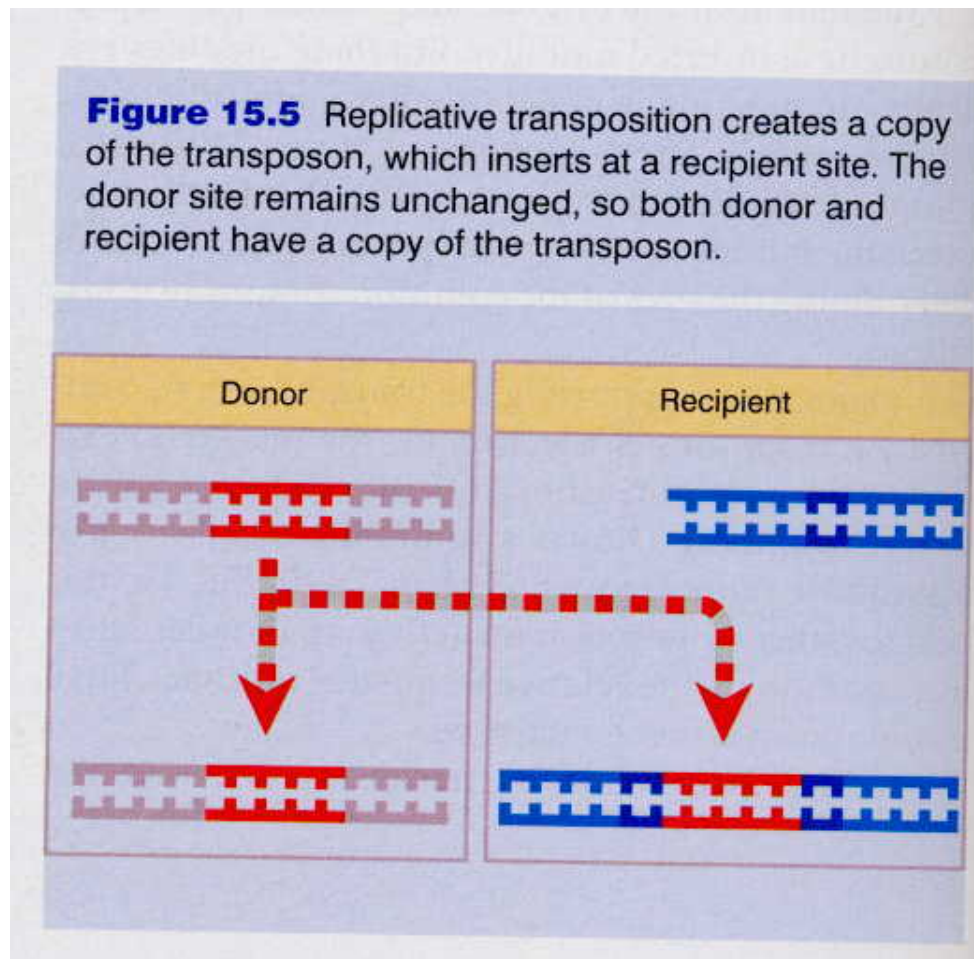
Target site duplication

Target site duplication
caused by staggered cutting



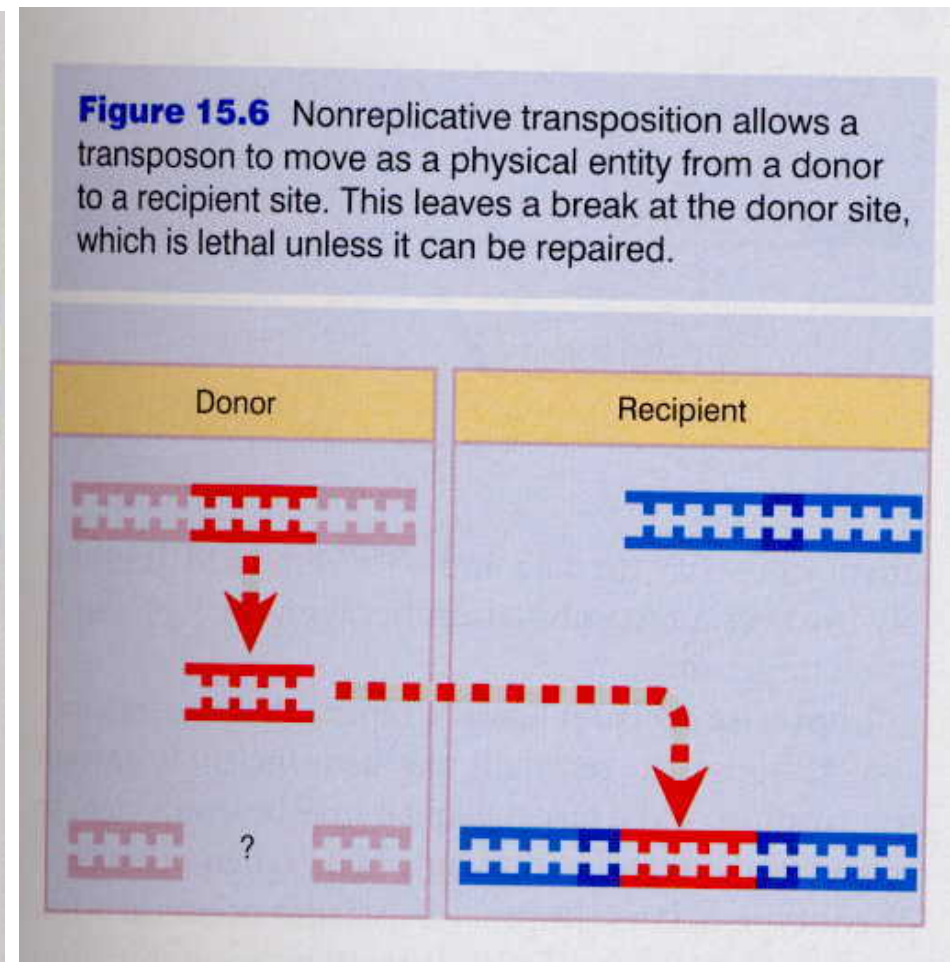
Replicative Transposition

Recipient and donor contain Tn



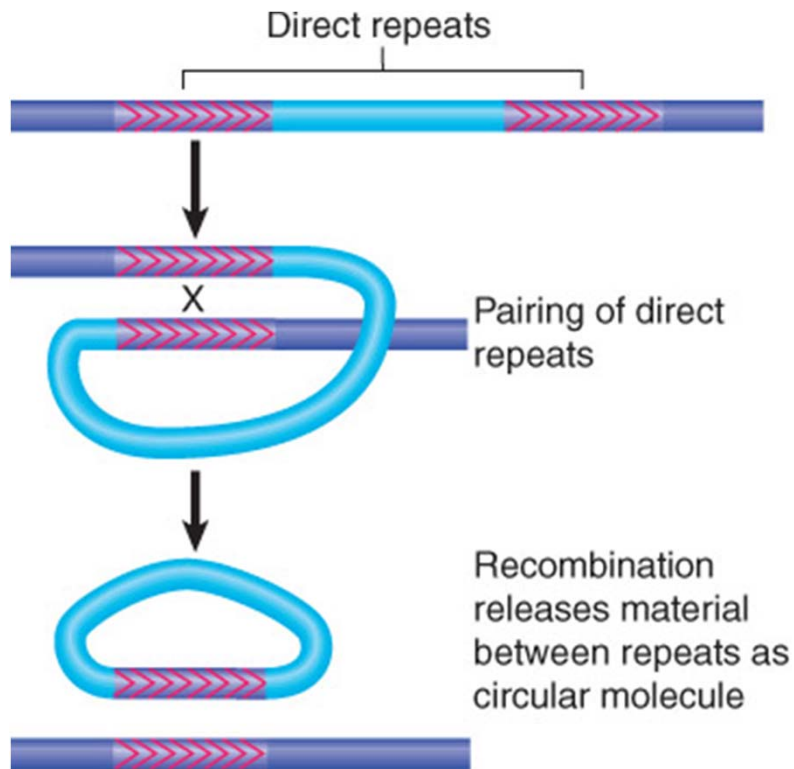
Non-replicative Transposition

Only recipient contains Tn,
Donor loses Tn



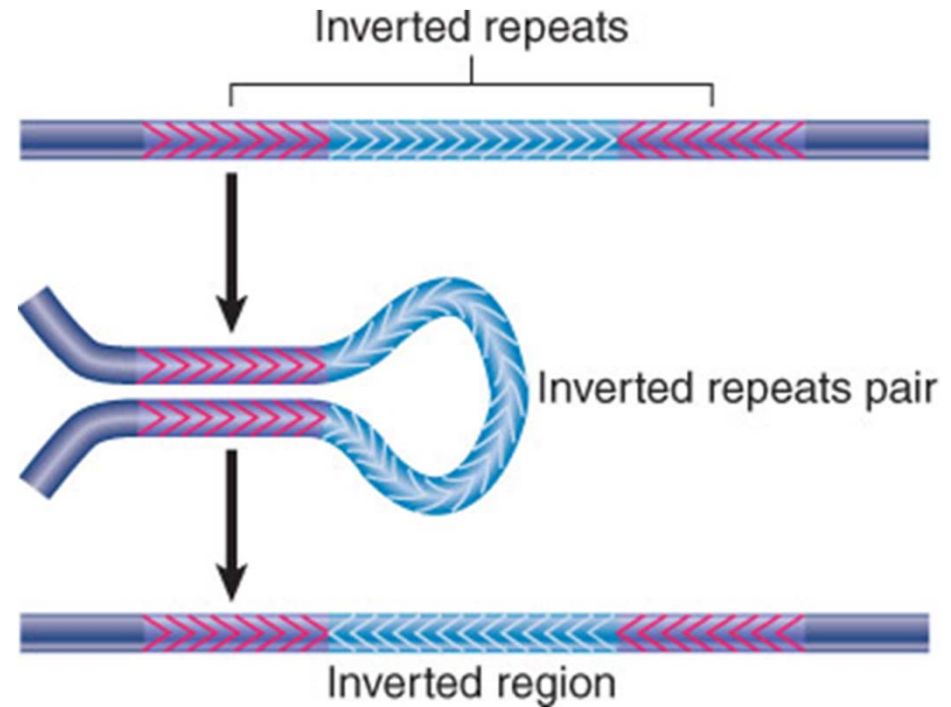


Deletion



Reciprocal recombination between direct repeats excises the material between them.

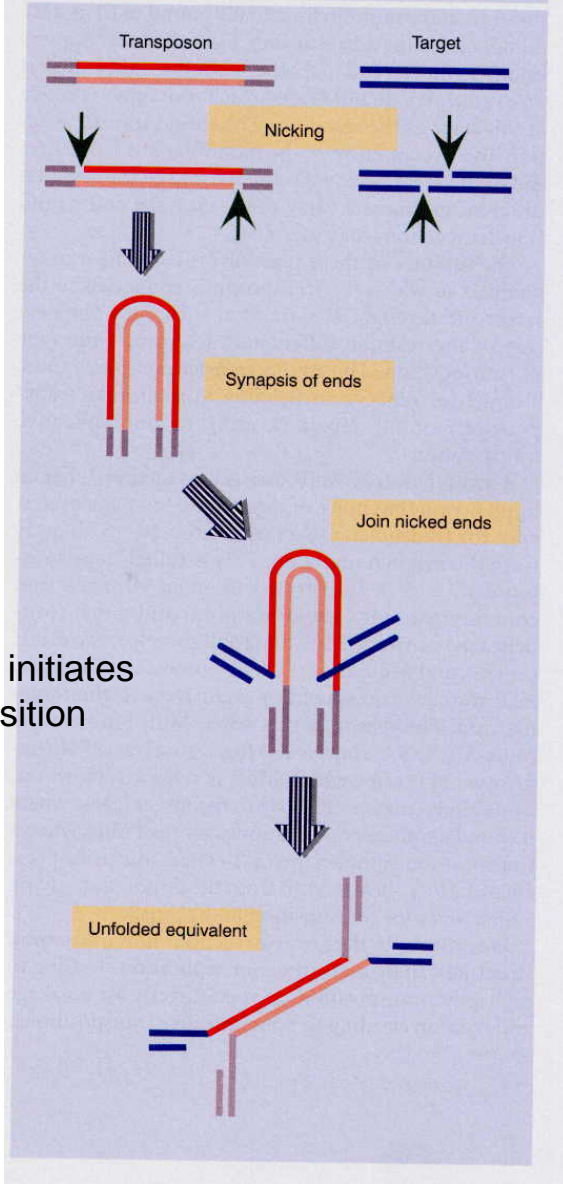
Inversion



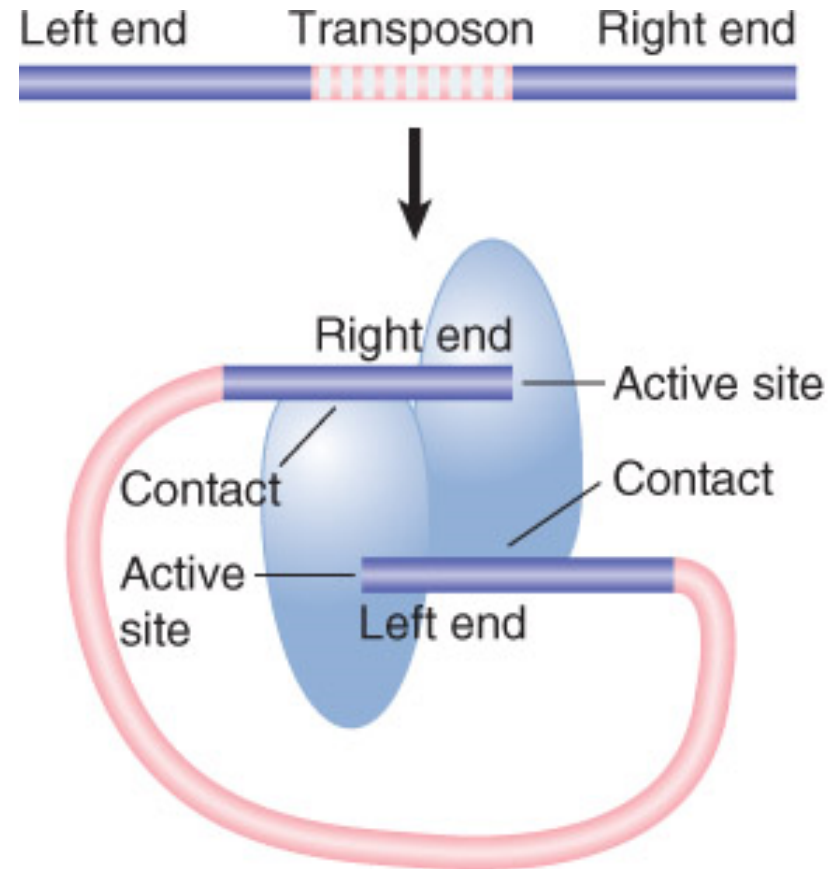
Reciprocal recombination between inverted repeats inverts the region between them.



Figure 15.10 Transposition is initiated by nicking the transposon ends and target site and joining the nicked ends into a strand transfer complex.



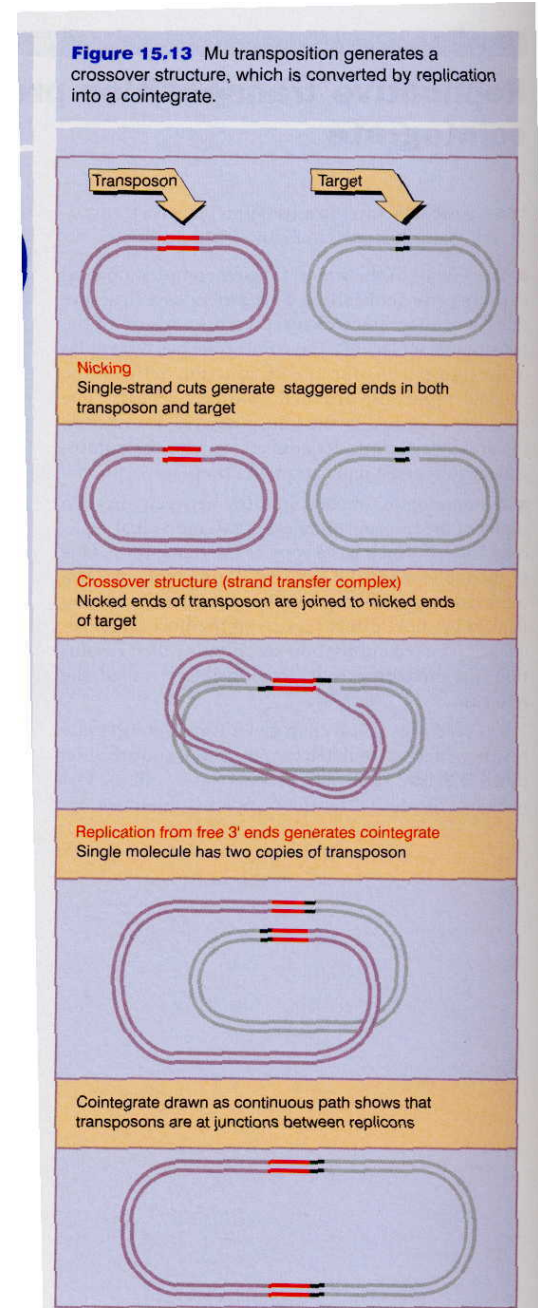
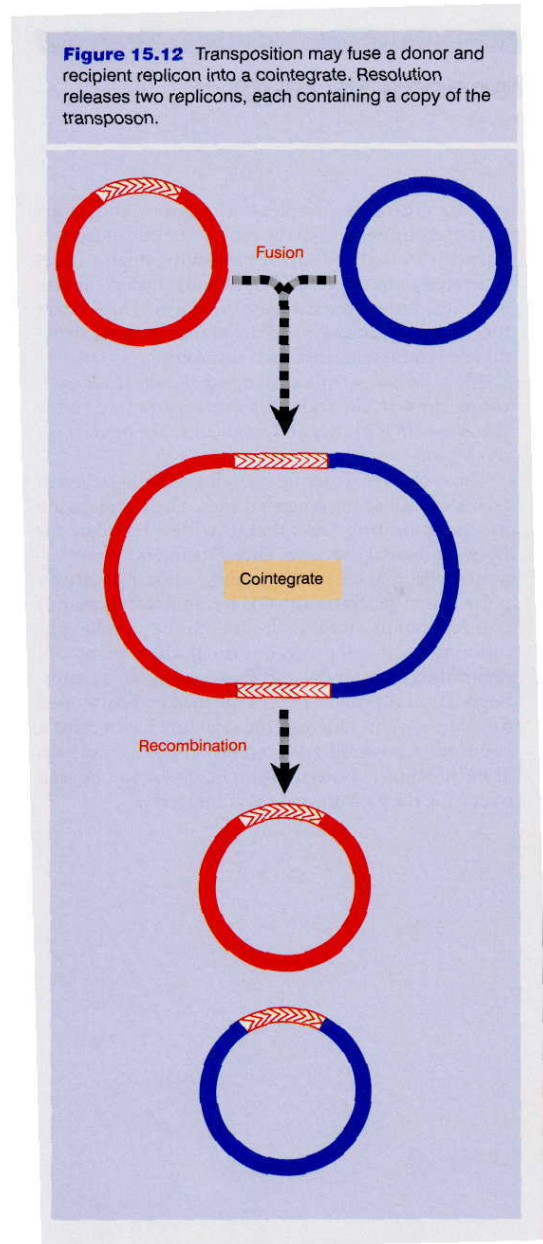
Nicking initiates transposition



Each subunit of the Tn5 transposase has one end of the transposon in its active site and makes contact elsewhere with the other end.



Replicative Transposition



Cointegrate formation and resolution



Figure 15.14 Nonreplicative transposition results when a crossover structure is released by nicking. This inserts the transposon into the target DNA, flanked by the direct repeats of the target, and the donor is left with a double-strand break.

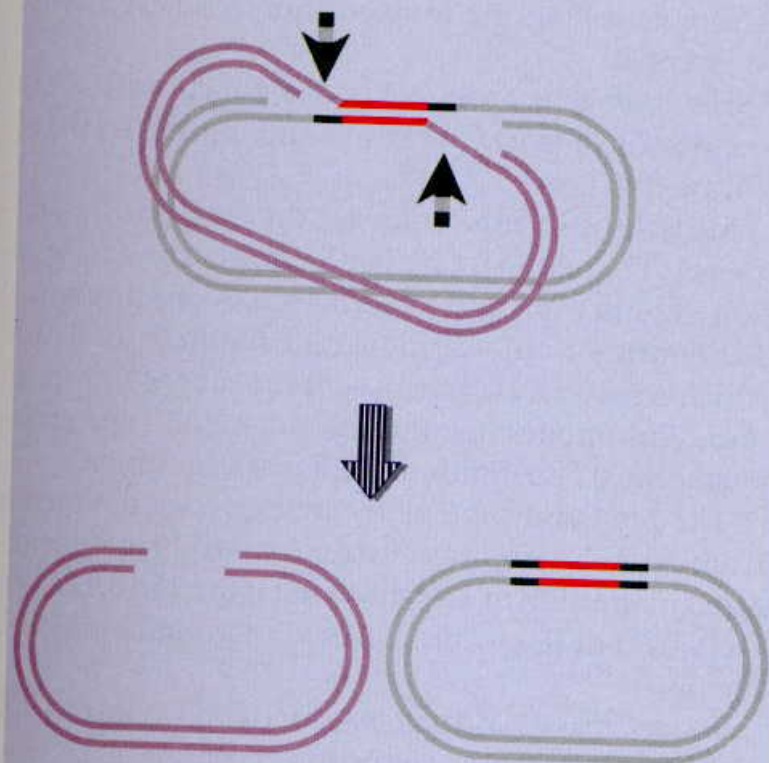
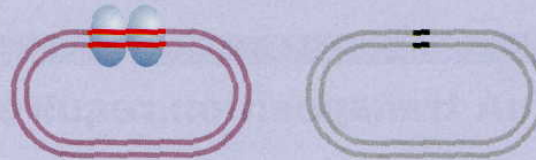
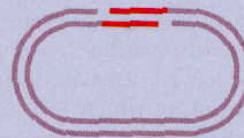


Figure 15.15 Both strands of Tn10 are cleaved sequentially, and then the transposon is joined to the nicked target site.

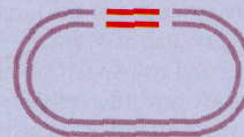
Transposase binds to both ends of Tn



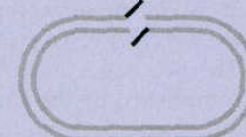
Transferred ends are nicked



Other strands are nicked



Recipient is nicked



Donor is released



Tn joined to target

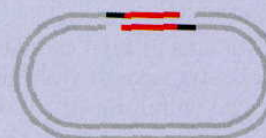
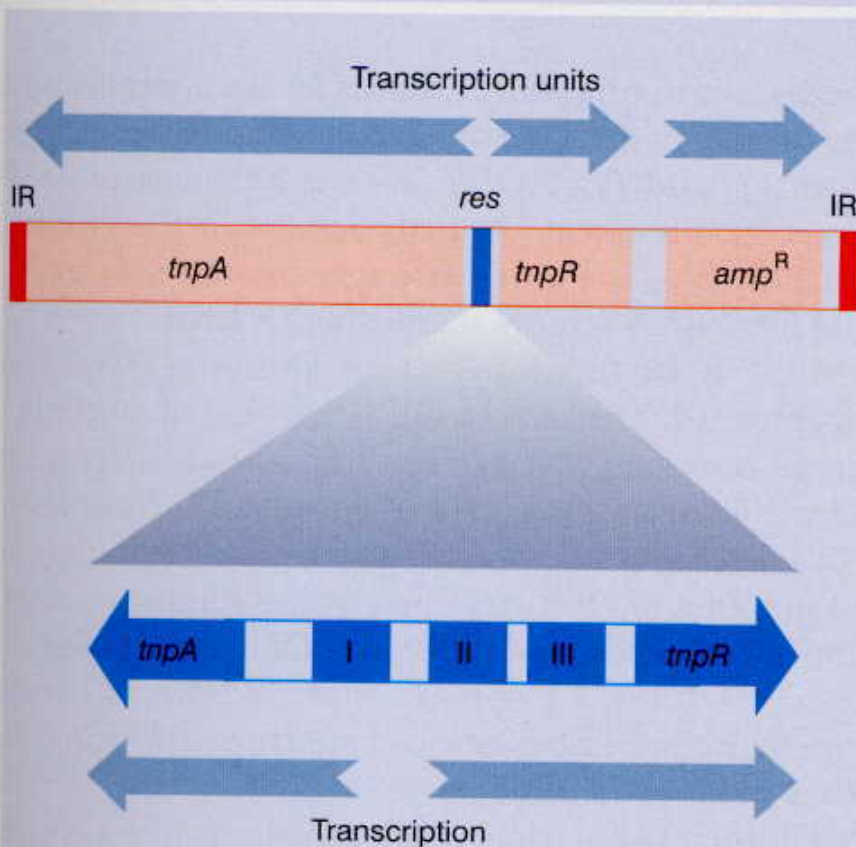




Figure 15.16 Transposons of the TnA family have inverted terminal repeats, an internal *res* site, and three known genes.



Transposons can influence expression of genes flanking integration site

Figure 15.17 Two promoters in opposite orientation lie near the outside boundary of IS10R. The strong promoter P_{OUT} sponsors transcription toward the flanking host DNA. The weaker promoter P_{IN} causes transcription of an RNA that extends the length of IS10R and is translated into the transposase.

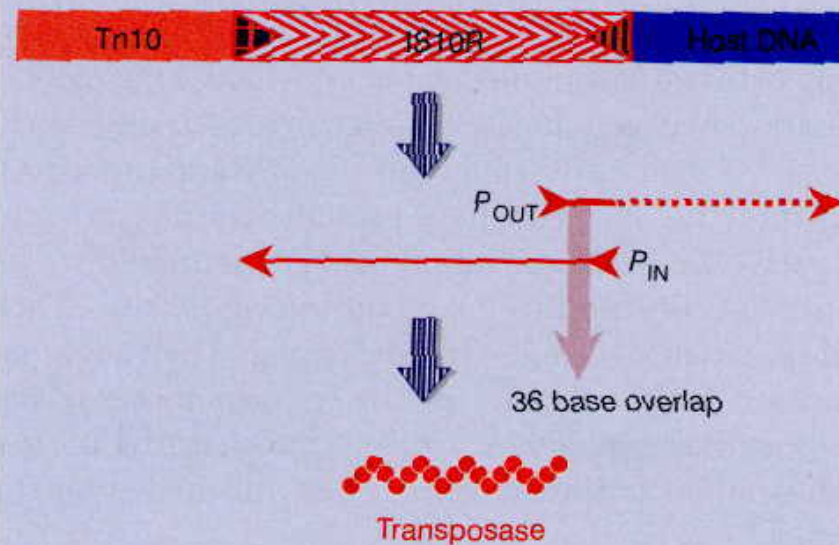
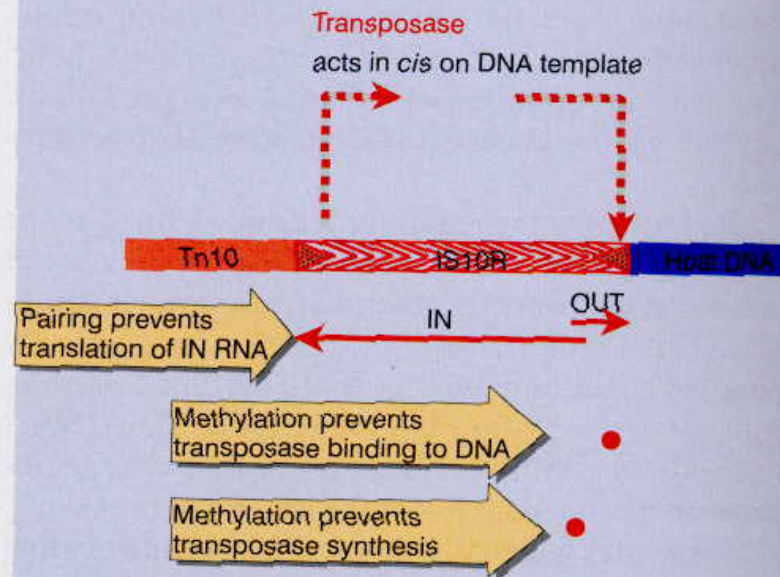




Figure 15.18 Several mechanisms restrain the frequency of Tn10 transposition, by affecting either the synthesis or function of transposase protein. Transposition of an individual transposon is restricted by methylation to occur only after replication. In multicopy situations, *cis*-preference restricts the choice of target, and OUT/IN RNA pairing inhibits synthesis of transposase.





Transposons of Eukaryotes

Figure 15.20 A break at a controlling element causes loss of an acentric fragment; if the fragment carries the dominant markers of a heterozygote, its loss changes the phenotype. The effects of the dominant markers, *Ci*, *Bz*, *Wx*, can be visualized by the color of the cells or by appropriate staining.

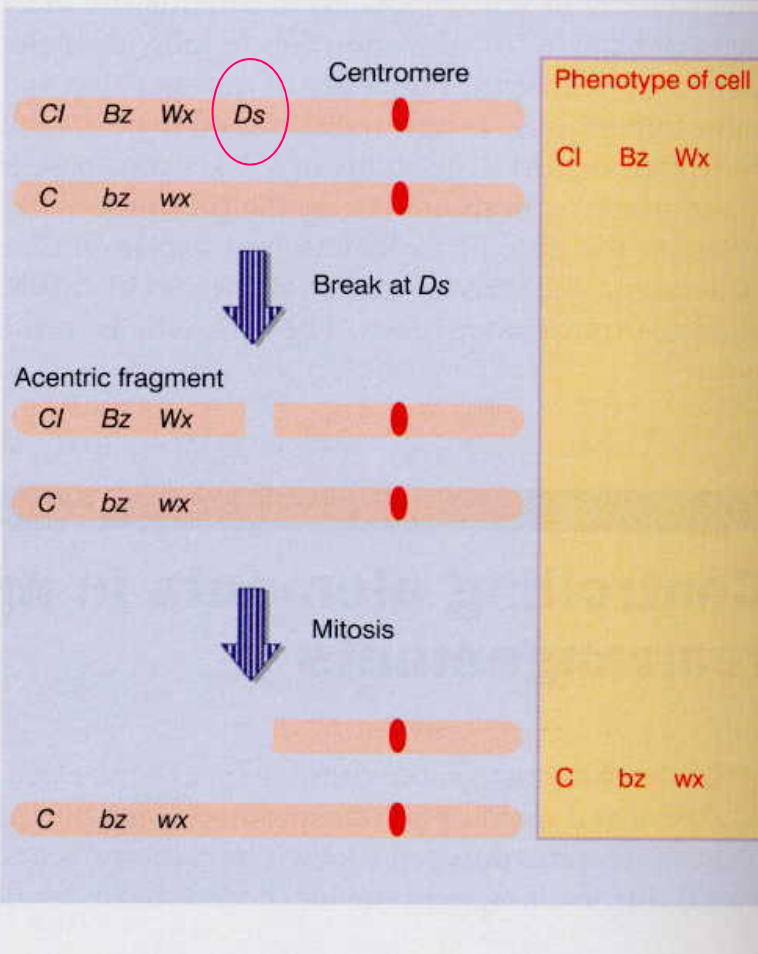
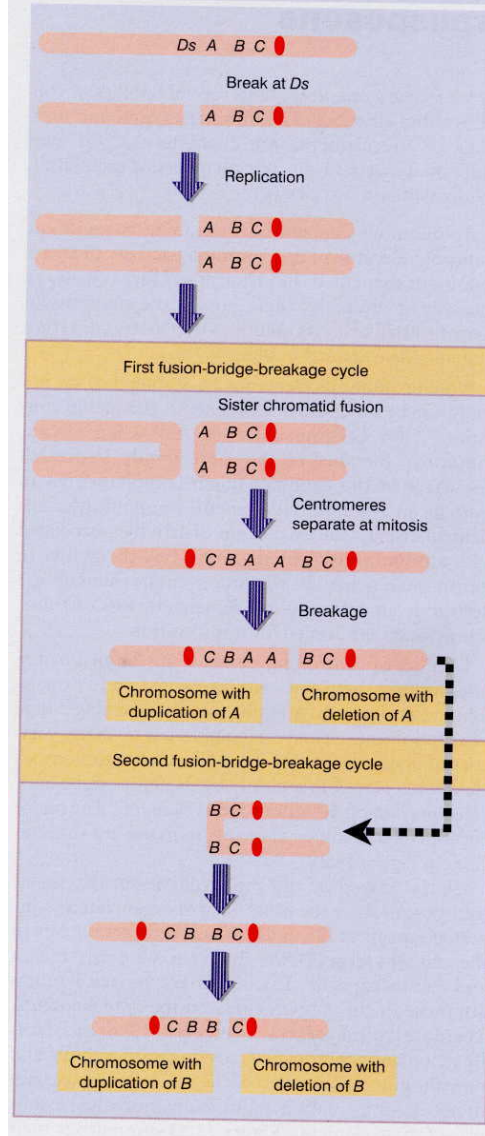


Figure 15.21 *Ds* provides a site to initiate the chromatid fusion-bridge-breakage cycle. The products can be followed by clonal analysis.

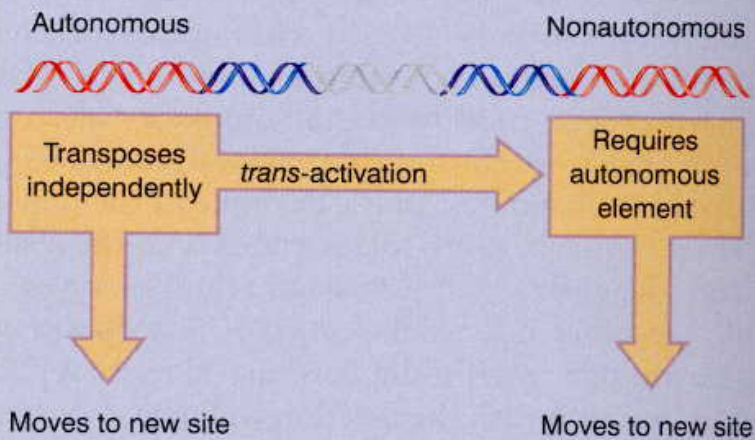


Controlling elements in maize



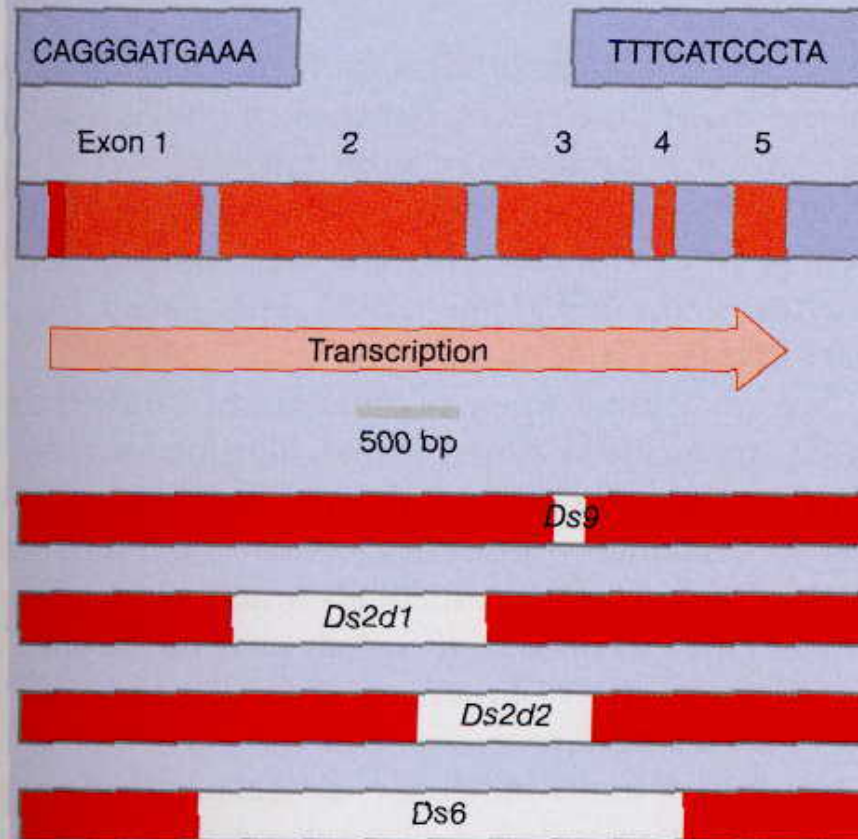
Transposons of Eukaryotes

Figure 15.22 Each controlling element family has both autonomous and nonautonomous members. Autonomous elements are capable of transposition. Nonautonomous elements are deficient in transposition. Pairs of autonomous and nonautonomous elements can be classified in >4 families.



<i>Ac</i> (activator) <i>Mp</i> (modulator)	<i>Ds</i> (dissociation)
<i>Spm</i> (suppressor-mutator) <i>En</i> (enhancer)	<i>dSpm</i> (defective <i>Spm</i>) <i>I</i> (inhibitor)
Dotted	Unnamed
<i>Mu</i> (mutator)	Not known

Figure 15.23 The *Ac* element has two open reading frames; *Ds* elements have internal deletions.

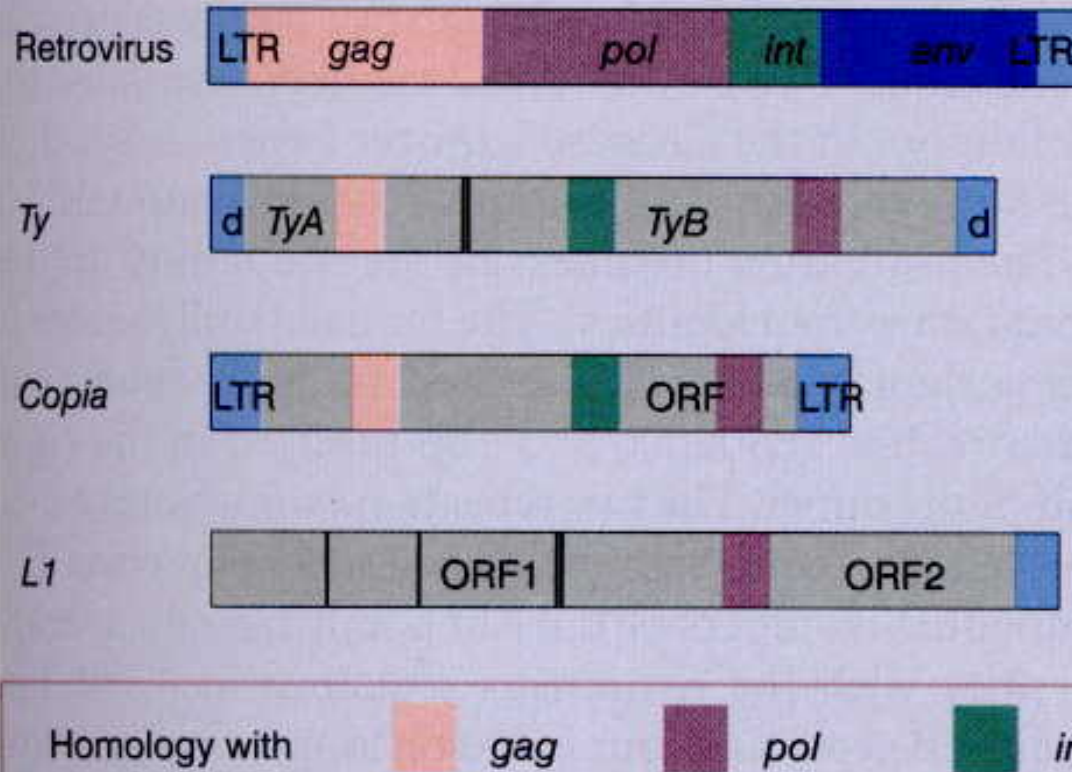




21.10-14



Figure 16.16 Retroposons of the viral family have terminal repeats and include open reading frames.



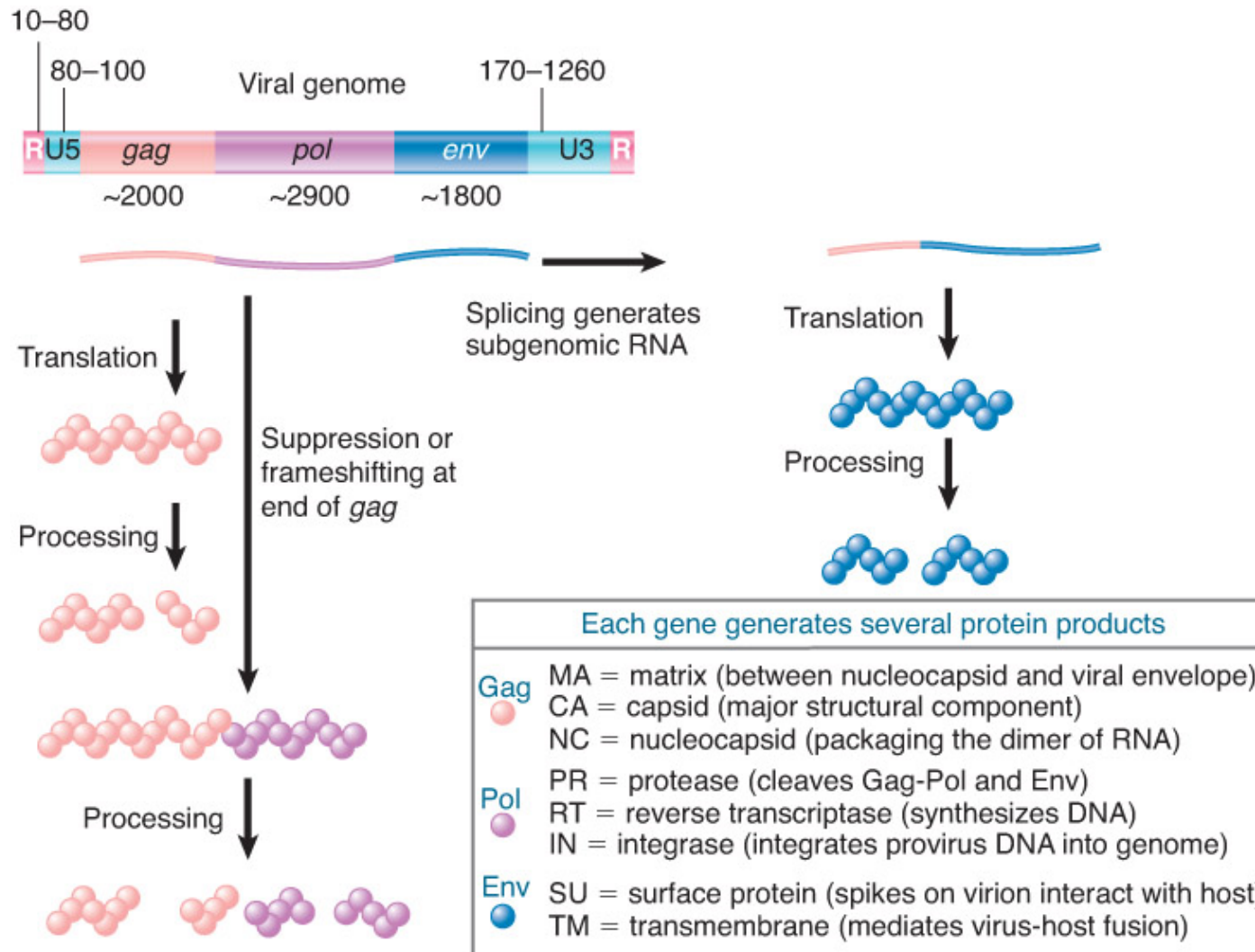


Figure 17.F21: The genes of the retrovirus are expressed as polyproteins that are processed into individual products.



Figure 16.8 Integrase is the only viral protein required for the integration reaction, in which each LTR loses 2 bp and is inserted between 4 bp repeats of target DNA

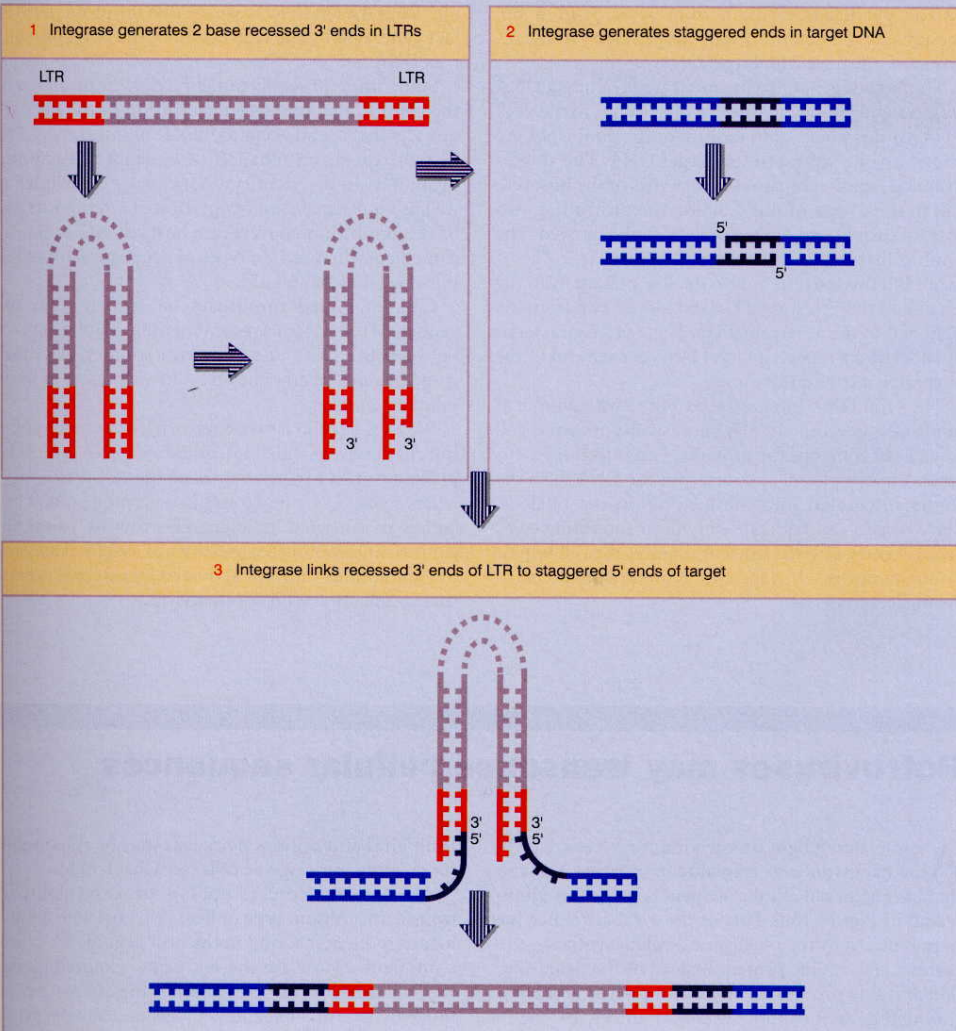


Figure 16.9 Replication-defective transforming viruses have a cellular sequence substituted for part of the viral sequence. The defective virus may replicate with the assistance of a helper virus that carries the wild-type functions.

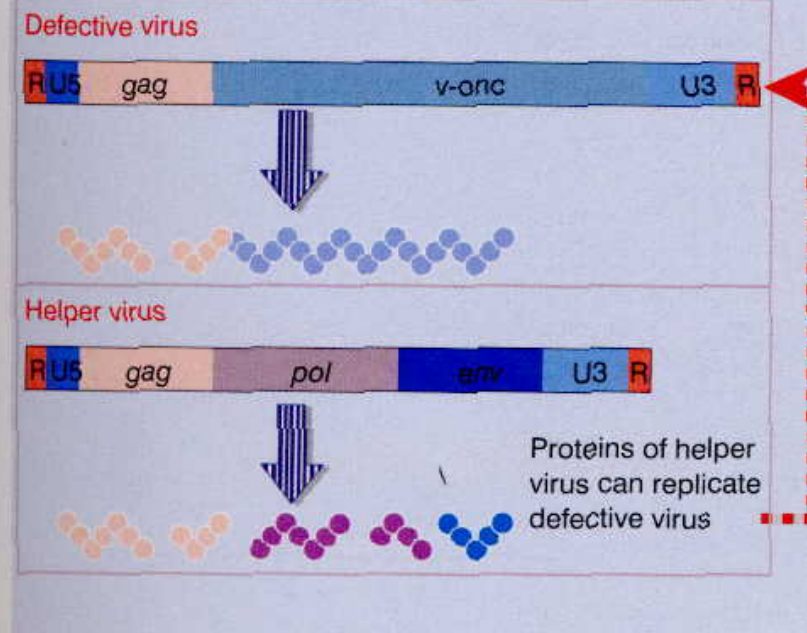




Figure 16.11 Ty elements terminate in short direct repeats and are transcribed into two overlapping RNAs. They have two reading frames, with sequences related to the retroviral *gag* and *pol* genes.

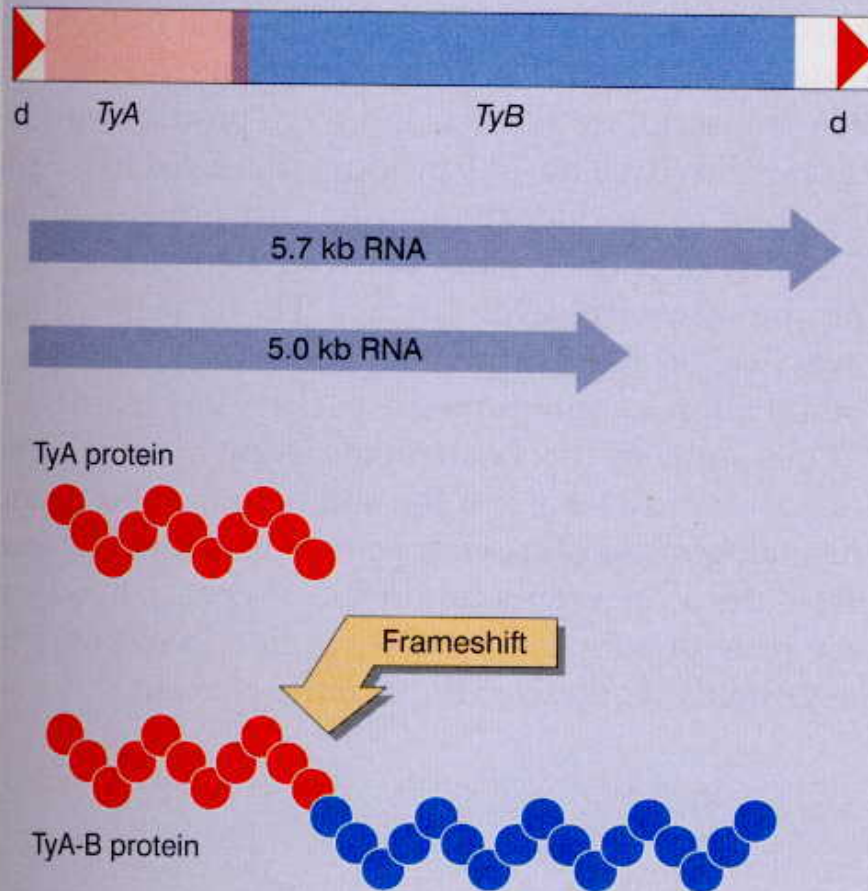


Figure 16.12 A unique Ty element, engineered to contain an intron, transposes to give copies that lack the intron. The copies possess identical terminal repeats, generated from one of the termini of the original Ty element.

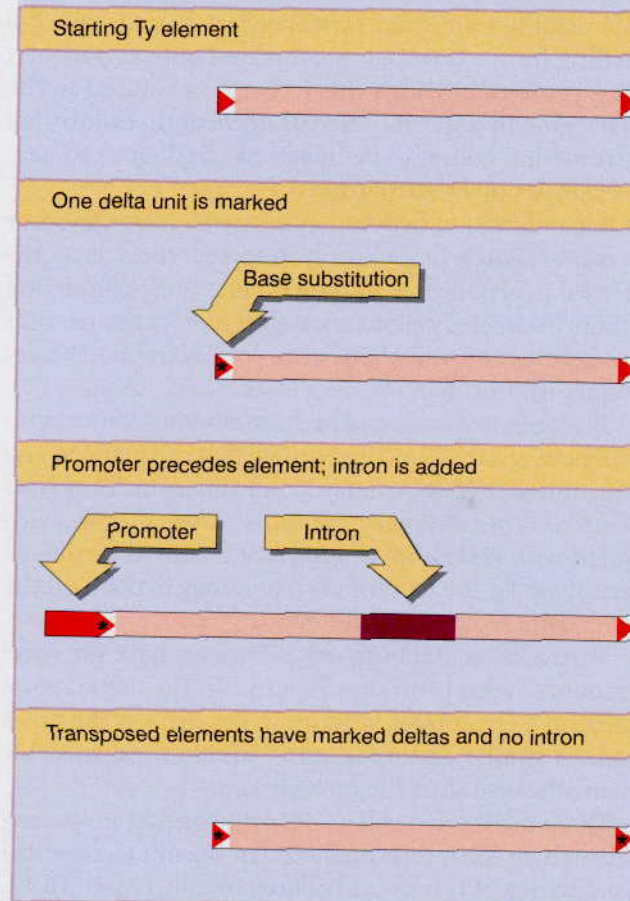
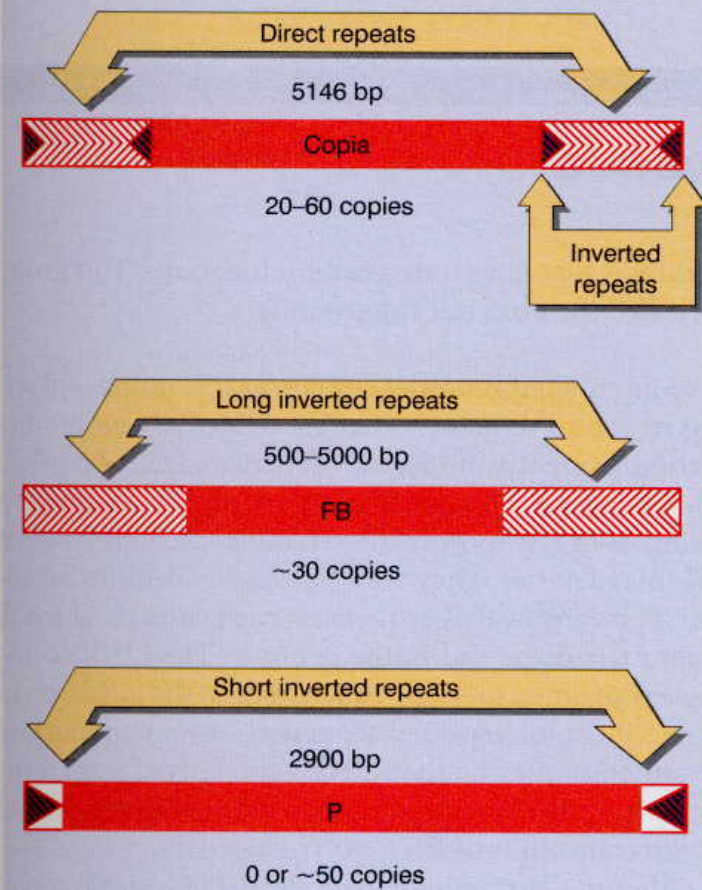




Figure 16.13 Ty elements generate virus-like particles. Photograph kindly provided by Alan Kingsman.

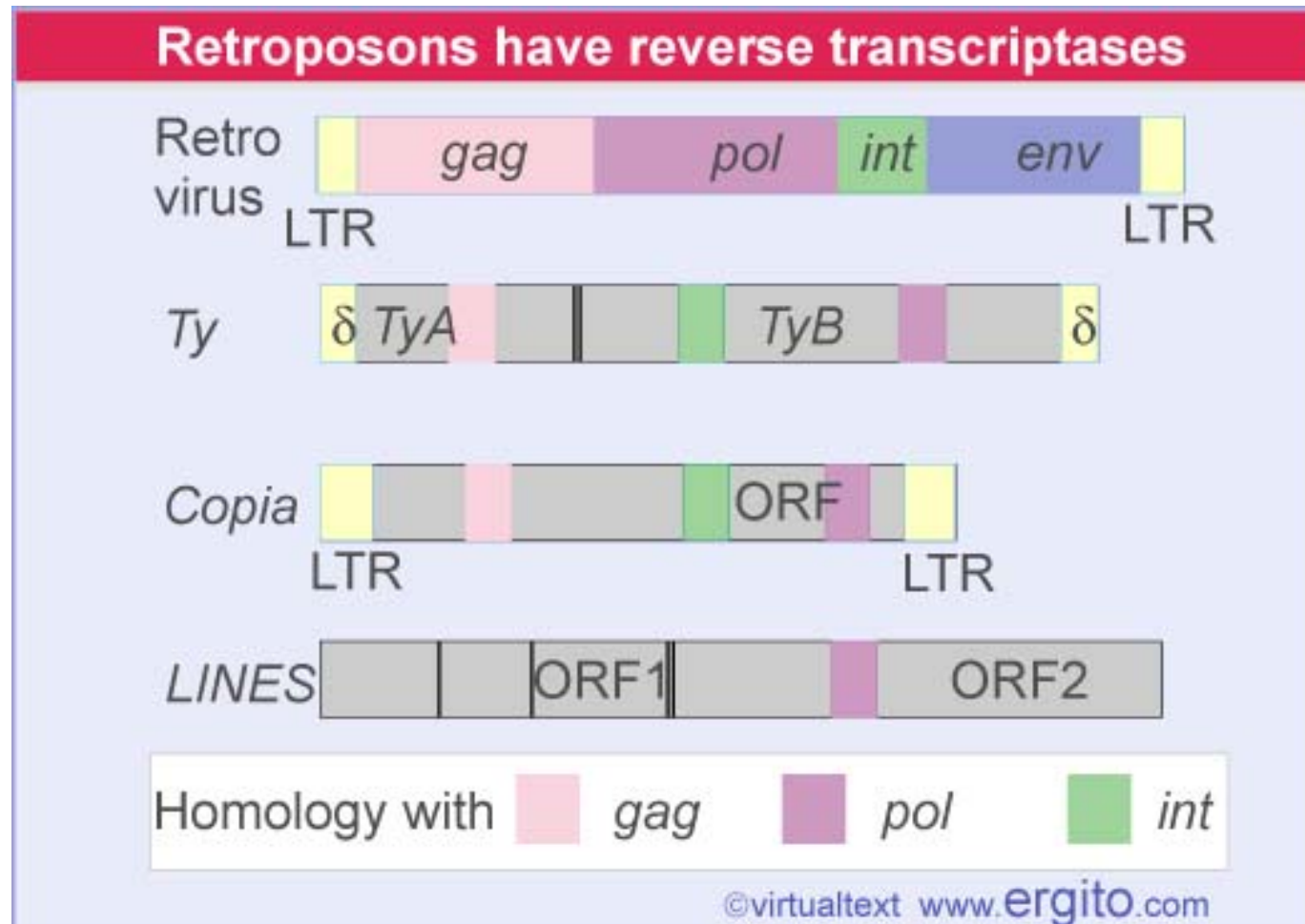


Figure 16.14 Three types of transposable element in *D. melanogaster* have different structures.





Mammalian genomes have three types of retroposons			
	Viral Superfamily	LINES	Nonviral Superfamily
Common types	<i>Ty</i> (<i>S. cerevisiae</i>) <i>copia</i> (<i>D. melanogaster</i>)	L1 (human) B1, B2 ID, B4 (mouse)	SINES (mammals) Pseudogenes of pol III transcripts
Termini	Long terminal repeats	No repeats	No repeats
Target repeats	4-6 bp	7-21 bp	7-21 bp
Enzyme activities	Reverse transcriptase and/or integrase	Reverse transcriptase /endonuclease	None (or none coding for transposon products)
Organization	May contain introns (removed in subgenomic mRNA)	1 or 2 uninterrupted ORFs	No introns



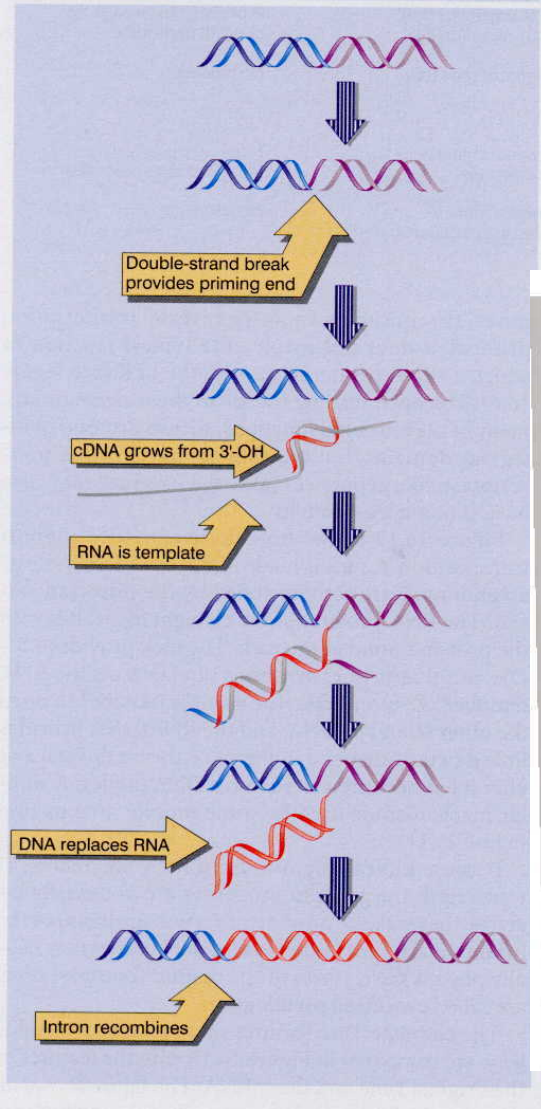


Retroviruses and transposons constitute half the human genome						
Element	Organization	Length (Kb)	Human genome Number	Fraction		
Retrovirus/retroposon	LTR gag pol (env) LTR	1-11	450,000	8%		
LINES (autonomous) e.g. L1	ORF1 (pol) (A) _n	6-8	850,000	17%		
SINES (nonautonomous) e.g. Alu	(A) _n	<0.3	1,500,000	15%		
DNA transposon	Transposase	2-3	300,000	3%		

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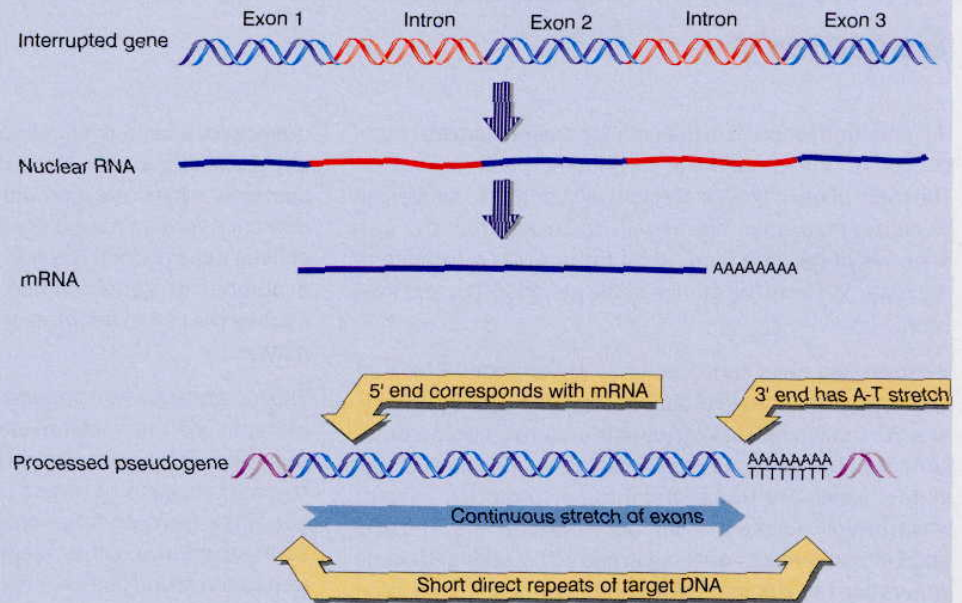


Figure 16.17 Retrotransposition of non-LTR elements occurs by nicking the target to provide a primer for cDNA synthesis on an RNA template.



Reverse Transcription → Tool for Genetic Variation

Figure 16.18 Pseudogenes could arise by reverse transcription of RNA to give duplex DNAs that become integrated into the genome.



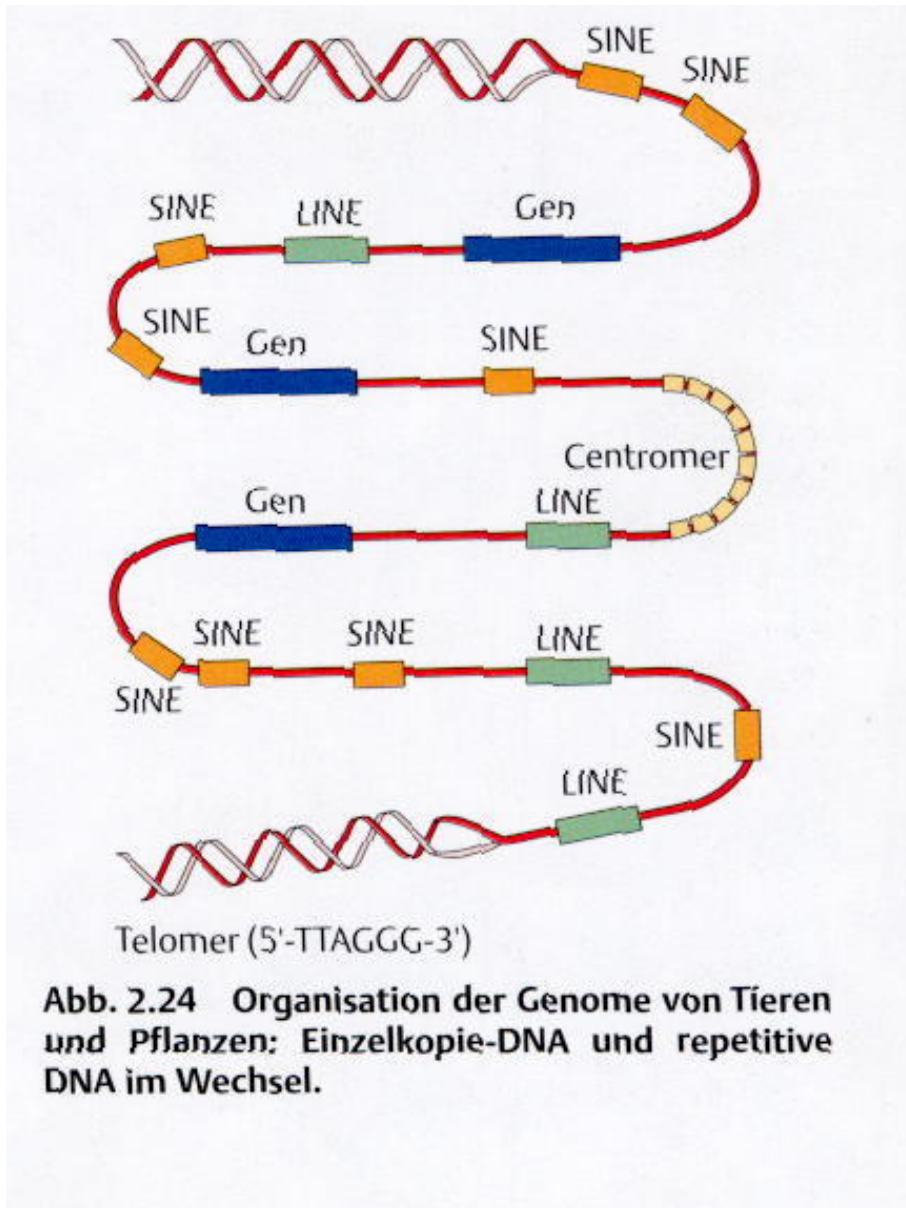


Abb. 2.24 Organisation der Genome von Tieren und Pflanzen: Einzelkopie-DNA und repetitive DNA im Wechsel.