

- (c) DNA grows only from the 3' end
- (d) Bases pair up according to complementary base-pairing rules – A to T and G to C
- (4) Tools
 - (a) DNA fragment to be copied
 - (b) Heat-stable DNA polymerase
 - (i) Thermophilic – tolerant to heat and not denatured by the extreme temperatures used during the process
 - (ii) Derived from Taq (a thermophilic bacterium) that grows and lives in hot springs where temperature regularly reach up to 90°C
 - (iii) Capable of joining tens of thousands of nucleotides together in minutes
 - (c) Primers – oligonucleotides with complementary bases to those at one end of each of the two DNA strands to be copied
 - (i) Oligonucleotides – short, single-stranded nucleotide sequences
 - (ii) Used in sequencing reactions and polymerase chain reactions
 - (iii) Around 10-20 bases in length
 - (iv) Needed to bind to a section of DNA because the DNA polymerase enzyme cannot bind directly to single-stranded DNA fragments
 - (d) Free-floating nucleotides that contain all four bases in DNA
 - (e) Thermocycle – computer controlled machine that varies the temperature of the environment precisely over a period of time
 - (i) Eg. Cools so that primer hybridises to the DNA
- (5) Stage 1 – separation of DNA
 - (a) Place all DNA fragments to be copied, free-floating DNA nucleotides and DNA polymerase into the thermocycler
 - (b) Heat to 95°C – heat does the job of DNA helicase enzymes in nature
 - (c) Heat breaks hydrogen bonding holding the complementary strands together
 - (d) Strands of DNA separated and made single-stranded
- (6) Stage 2 – annealing (joining)
 - (a) Add primers to the thermocycler
 - (b) Cool mixture to 55°C
 - (c) Primers allowed to anneal to the complementary bases at the end of the DNA fragments via hydrogen bonding
 - (d) Small sections of double-stranded DNA at either end of the DNA sample formed
 - (e) Primers provide double-stranded sections for DNA polymerase to bind and work
- (7) Stage 3 – synthesis of DNA
 - (a) Increase temperature to 72°C
 - (b) Optimum temperature for DNA polymerase
 - (c) DNA polymerase starts to add free, complementary DNA nucleotides along each of the separated DNA strands
 - (d) Double stranded sections of DNA provided by the primers are extended
 - (e) This will continue until the DNA polymerase reaches the end of the chain

ix) *Explain how isolated DNA fragments can be placed in plasmids, with reference to the role of ligase*

- (1) DNA ligase enzyme – catalyses a condensation reaction which joins the sugar-phosphate backbones of the DNA double helix together
- (2) Used in natural DNA replication to seal DNA nucleotides together to form new DNA
- (3) Both DNA fragments need to have originally been cut with the same restriction enzyme to be joined together by DNA ligase
 - (a) Ensures nucleotide bases of sticky ends are complementary to one another
 - (b) Bases of sticky ends can anneal – pair up and hydrogen bond together
 - (c) DNA ligase can seal the sugar-phosphate backbone to form recombinant DNA

x) *State other vectors into which fragments of DNA may be incorporated*

- (1) Choice of cloning vector depends upon the nature of the experiment undertaken
- (2) Naturally occurring vectors include...
 - (a) Bacteriophages – viruses which act as parasites, infecting and replicating inside a bacteria, requiring much preparation before being used as cloning vehicles
 - (b) Plasmids – small (relative to major chromosome) double-stranded circular pieces of DNA found in many bacteria, separate from the main bacterial chromosome
 - (i) Capable of self-replication independent of the host cell chromosome – more than one can be found in a single bacterial cell
 - (ii) Carry genes needed only under special circumstances eg. those genes coded for antibiotic resistance
 - (iii) Gene sealed into a natural plasmid using DNA ligase
 - (c) Virus genomes
 - (d) Yeast cell chromosomes

xi) *Explain how plasmids may be taken up by bacterial cells in order to produce a transgenic microorganism that can express a desired gene product*

- (1) Recombinant plasmid – plasmid containing a gene from another source
 - (a) Cut plasmid with the same restriction enzyme that is used to cut the donor DNA
 - (b) Sticky ends on the plasmid are now complementary to the sticky ends on the DNA
 - (c) Mix quantities of plasmid and DNA fragments with DNA ligase enzyme
 - (d) Sticky ends on the DNA fragment anneal to the sticky ends on the plasmid
 - (e) Blunt end ligations are less successful than sticky end ligations – no sticky ends to hold a fragment of DNA colliding with a cut plasmid in place during ligation
 - (f) DNA ligase catalyses the condensation reaction for that forms phosphodiester bonds between the phosphate on one DNA nucleotide and the sugar on another
 - (g) Plasmid and DNA segment sealed together
 - (h) Some (not all) plasmid will thus combine with the gene
 - (i) Plasmid will be sealed up to form a recombinant plasmid
- (2) Transformation – vector acts as a vehicle to transport the gene into the host cell

- (iii) DNA ligase enzyme used to seal up the plasmid
- (i) Bacteria transformed with plasmid
 - (i) Mix plasmids with bacteria
 - (ii) Some of recombinant plasmids taken up by the bacteria
- (j) Bacteria colonies grown on an agar plate – clones of bacteria that have arisen from a single bacterial cell that has grown and divided
- (k) Transformed bacteria identified on an agar plate using marker genes
- (l) Host bacteria cells containing the desired gene are grown
 - (i) Identified, transformed/transgenic bacteria picked off the agar plate
 - (ii) Transformed bacteria transferred to a fermenter with nutrient broth
 - (iii) Transgenic bacteria cultured on a large-scale
 - (iv) Many copies of the desired gene generated
 - (v) Bacteria expressed desired gene, secreting large quantities of human insulin
- (m) Insulin extracted from fermenter and purified for use

xv) Outline the process involved in the genetic engineering of 'Golden Rice'TM, (HSW6a)

- (1) Vitamin A (retinol)
 - (a) Only comes directly from animal sources in the diet
 - (b) Beta-carotene aka. pro vitamin A – precursor molecule which is converted to active vitamin A in the human gut
 - (c) Fat-soluble – lipids needed in diet if vitamin A is to be absorbed properly
 - (d) Deficiency is significant in poorer populations where rice is the staple food – vitamin and other food supplements to target groups has made little impacts on the devastating effects of malnutrition on these populations
- (2) Functions of vitamin A – central role in maintain integrity of the immune system
 - (a) Eyesight – forms part of the visual pigment rhodopsin
 - (b) Cell growth and development – involved in synthesis of many glycoproteins
 - (c) Epithelial tissue – needed for maintenance and differentiation of epithelial cells, helps reduce the risk of infection
 - (d) Bones – essential for bone growth
- (3) Rice plant (*Oryza sativa*) – contain genes that code for production of beta carotene
 - (a) Green tissues – inedible part of the plant that produces beta carotene
 - (i) Photosynthetic pigment molecule codes for the production of beta carotene
 - (b) Endosperm – grain, edible part of the seed that does not produce beta carotene
 - (i) All required genes to produce beta carotene are present in the grain
 - (ii) But some of these genes are turned off during development
 - (c) Outer coat of dehusked grains – contains valuable nutrients but no beta carotene
 - (i) Eg. Vitamin B and nutritious fats
 - (ii) Not eaten – lost with bran fraction in the processes of milling and polishing
 - (iii) Not apt for long term storage – fatty components of outer coat affected by oxidative processes that make the grain turn rancid when exposed to air

- (f) Cells from to patient become genetically altered
- (g) Altered cells injected into the patient
- (h) Genetically altered cells transcribe and translate functional gene
- (i) Desired protein is produced inside the body
- (j) Patient may no longer have the symptoms associated with the genetic disorder
- (2) Interference RNA – could silence genes by binding to mRNA
 - (a) Used to treat infections in AIDS patients
 - (b) Cytomegalovirus replication is blocked

xviii) Explain the differences between somatic cell gene therapy and germ line cell gene therapy

- (1) Germline cell gene therapy – functional allele placed in the cells that produce the gametes (the sperm or the egg), a fertilized egg (zygote), or an early embryo
 - (a) Germline cell – cell of an early embryo with the potential to become a new being
 - (i) Stem cells – can divide and specialise to become any cell type within the body
 - (ii) Form when a sperm cell fertilises an egg cell to form a zygote
 - (b) Germline cells treated with the functioning allele
 - (c) Straightforward delivery techniques but not being considered at present
 - (d) Long-lived treatment – all cells derived from the germline cell will contain the functioning allele which will be expressed in those requiring the gene product
 - (e) Cells containing the functioning allele will pass the allele to their offspring
 - (f) Genetic manipulations could be passed on to the patient's children – could eliminate disease in future generations as original genetic defect is repaired
- (2) Somatic cell gene therapy – functional allele placed in the cells of the affected tissues
 - (a) Specialised cells still have a full genome but have only certain genes switched on and active, whilst the rest (the majority) are switched off
 - (b) Augmentation – gene therapy by adding genes
 - (i) Some conditions are caused by inheritance of faulty alleles
 - (ii) Inheritance of faulty alleles leads to loss of a gene product and therefore function
 - (iii) Engineer functioning copy of the gene into the relevant specialised cells
 - (iv) Polypeptide is now synthesised
 - (v) Cells can function normally
 - (c) Gene therapy by killing specific cells
 - (i) Targeted treatment of cancers by eliminating certain populations of cells
 - (ii) Make cancerous cells express genes to produce proteins
 - (iii) Eg. Cell surface antigens produced will make the cells vulnerable to attack by the immune system
 - (d) Targeted, somatic cells treated with the functioning allele
 - (e) Difficulties in getting the allele into the genome in a functioning state
 - (i) Use of ex vivo therapy – specific, somatic cells removed, treated and replaced

- (a) Research into genetic engineering is harming current living organisms
 - (i) Trials using inactivated viruses in germline cell gene therapy to carry healthy genes into the patient's cells is not as safe as researchers had once thought
 - (ii) Inadvertent modification of DNA in germline cell – can't tell whether allele has been successfully introduced without unintentional changes to the embryo
- (b) Lack of long-term knowledge – unknown level of risk on future generations
 - (i) Expression of a gene influenced by presence of other genes and environment
 - (ii) Risk means genetically manipulating animals for any reason is unethical
- (c) Reduction in genetic variation
 - (i) GE crop plant passes on genes to wild relatives
 - (ii) GE organism competes with the natural species which is then lost
- (d) Widespread resistance to antibiotics – genetic engineering often uses antibiotic resistance genes as markers which could be passed to other microorganisms
 - (i) E.coli is used to produce insulin
 - (ii) Antibiotic resistant forms of E.coli (a bacteria which forms part of the natural fauna in the human gut) could enter humans
- (e) Mutated genes transferred to pathogenic microorganisms – GE microorganism producing useful products may escape from containment and transfer mutations
- (f) Hybrid crops produced are less useful – produced as GE crop plant and wild relatives share genes
- (g) Super-weeds – herbicide resistance could be passed to weeds so stronger chemicals would need to be developed to remove the weed
- (h) Super-pests – pesticide resistance could be passed to pests so stronger chemicals would need to be developed to remove the pest
- (i) More rapid evolution of attack mechanisms in pathogens – to counteract more plants becoming resistant to the pathogen
- (j) Stability of ecosystems could be affected – pesticide resistance could be passed to pests, affecting many other organisms in the associated food chains
- (k) GM plants may be toxic to other organisms
- (l) GM plants may lead to allergic responses in humans
- (m) Drugs produced by GE animals could contaminate milk/meat supplies
- (n) Large companies get patents for GE organisms and exploit farmers in the 3rd world eg. research on transgenic mouse, seeds from GM crops have to be bought
- (o) Wrong to genetically engineer animals or harvest their organs for human benefit as it leads (or at least has the potential to lead) to animal suffering
- (p) Religious beliefs – orthodox Jewish and Muslim faiths prohibit eating pork, cows are sacred to Hindus
- (q) Individuals resulting from germline cell gene therapy would have no say in whether their genetic material should have been modified
- (r) Eugenics could interfere with human evolution – germline cell gene therapy taken advantage of to enhance favourable characteristics