

Bi9690en Synthetic Biology – Lecture 2

Karel Říha, CEITEC MU, A26/209
e-mail: karel.riha@ceitec.muni.cz

 @karlriha



History of Synthetic Biology

DNA assembly

Synthetic genomes

Genome editing



Synthetic Biology

- "Synthetic biology is an emerging area of research that can broadly be described as the design and construction of novel artificial biological pathways, organisms or devices, or the redesign of existing natural **biological systems**."

British Royal Society

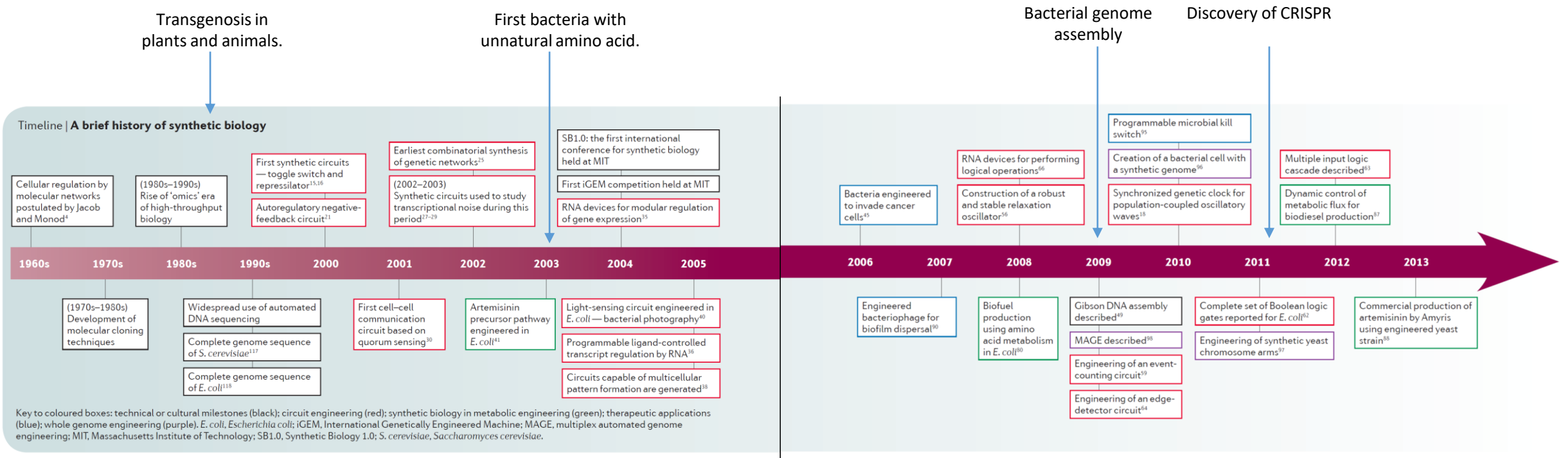
- Synthetic biology is the engineering of biology: the synthesis of complex, **biologically based** (or inspired) **systems** which display functions that do not exist in nature. This engineering perspective may be applied at all levels of the hierarchy of biological structures – from individual molecules to whole cells, tissues and organisms. In essence, synthetic biology will enable the design of ‘biological systems’ in a rational and systematic way."

High-level Expert Group European Commission

- Fundamental principle of synthetic biology is that **biological matter** can be predictably designed and utilized as an engineering material.
- Applying rigorous engineering methods to derive **economic value** from biological matter.
- *De novo* synthesis of life from physical and chemical processes.



A brief history of synthetic biology



Cameron et al: Nat Rev Microbiol 2014

Synthetic Biology Market is Expected to Reach \$38.7 Billion, Globally, by 2020 - Allied Market Research

DNA synthesis is the largest segment within enabling products segment, whereas oligonucleotide synthesis is expected to be fastest growing market at 57.8% CAGR during 2014 and 2020. **Chassis organism** would be the fastest growing core product during the forecast period with synthetic DNA occupying largest market share. Other core products included in the study are **synthetic genes, synthetic cells,** and XNA. **Biofuels**, within enabled product segment, is expected to exhibit tremendous growth; registering a CAGR of 110.1% during forecast period. However, **synthetic biology-based pharmaceuticals and diagnostics products** will generate largest amount of revenue within enabled product segment followed by **agriculture** and **chemicals** sub-segments.



Top-down and bottom-up approaches in synthetic biology

The bottom-up approach starts with nonliving matter. Cell-like functionality is derived by reconstituting functional modules, made from natural or artificial molecular building blocks. The complexity of the synthetic cell is increased step-by-step, by including more and more components. The ultimate goal is construction of an artificial cell (reconstruction of life).

The top-down approach derives a synthetic cell from a biological cell by manipulating, for example, its genes and protein content. This type of synthetic cell is typically living and still closely related to its biological ancestor. Top down synthetic biology involves using metabolic and genetic engineering techniques to impart new functions to living cells.

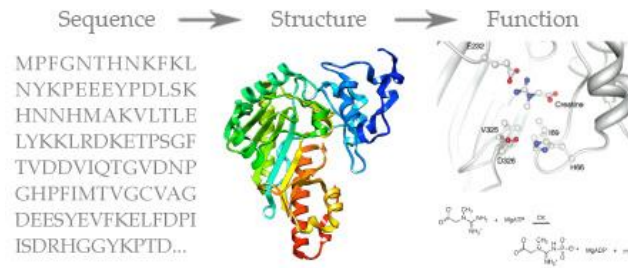


Hierarchical organization of living matter

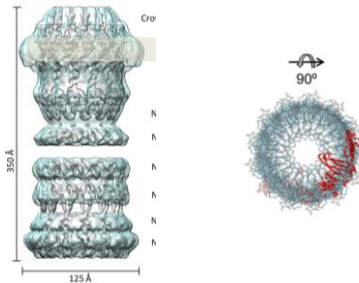
- the blueprint: DNA

...AACGGCTAATCTGG...

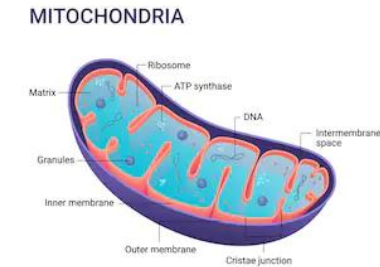
- the effectors: proteins



- nanomachines: protein complexes



- organelles: cellular factories



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- autonomous units of life: cells



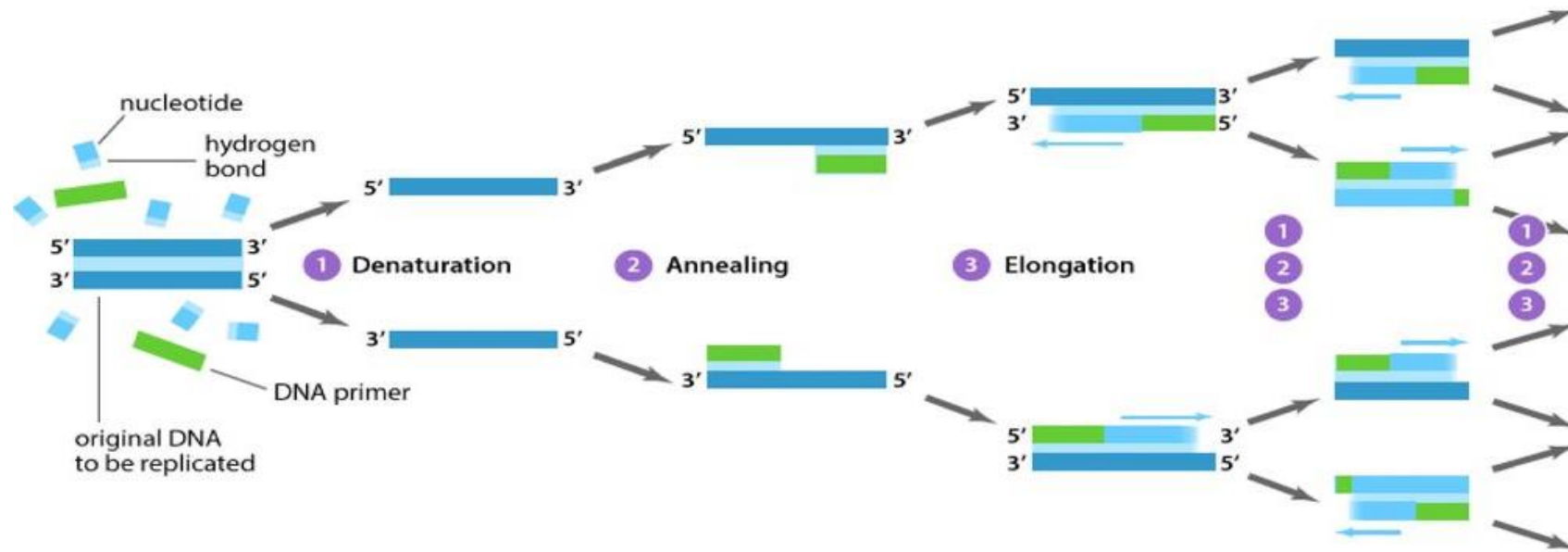
- organisms and ecosystems



Enabling technologies: DNA assembly



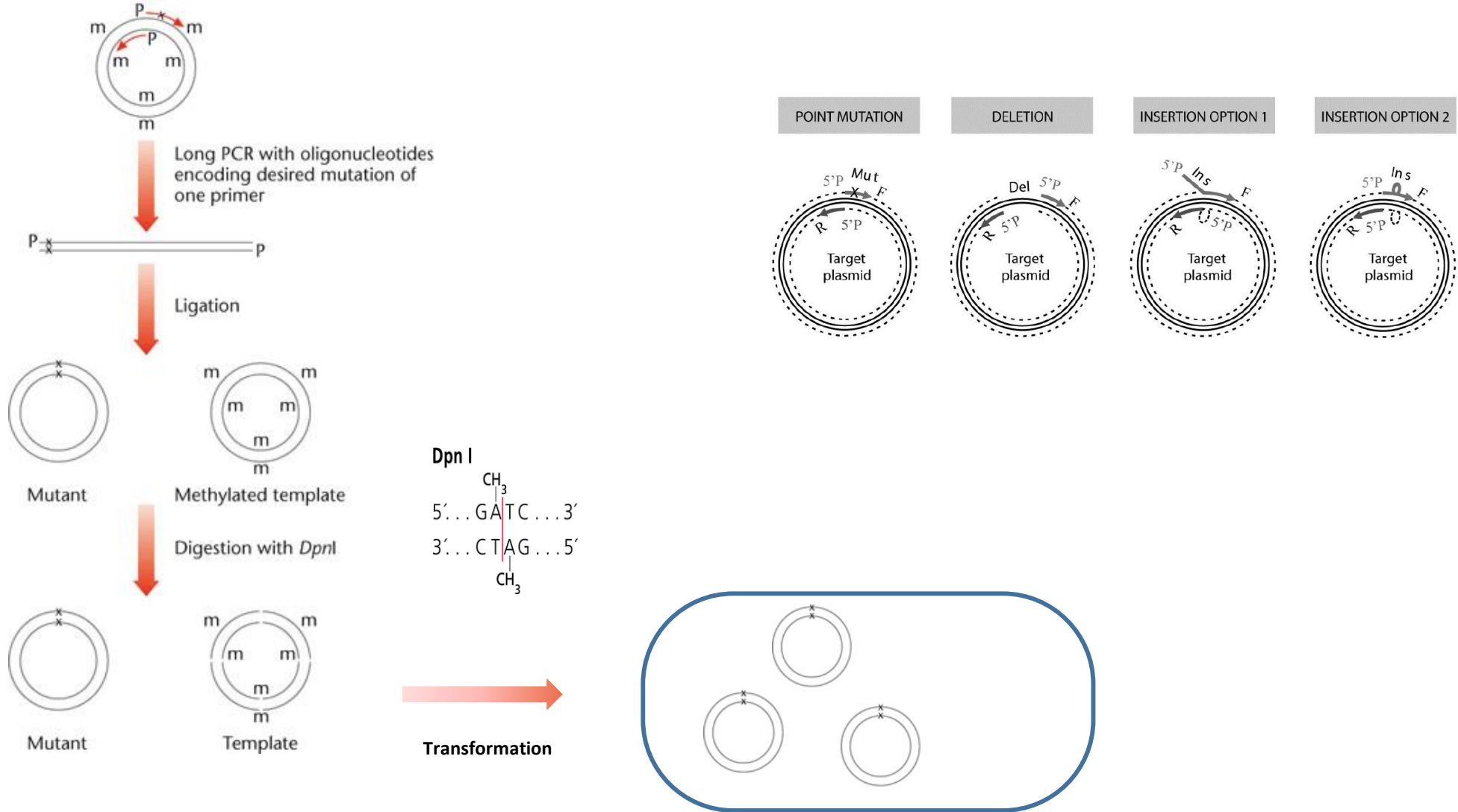
Polymerase chain reaction (PCR)



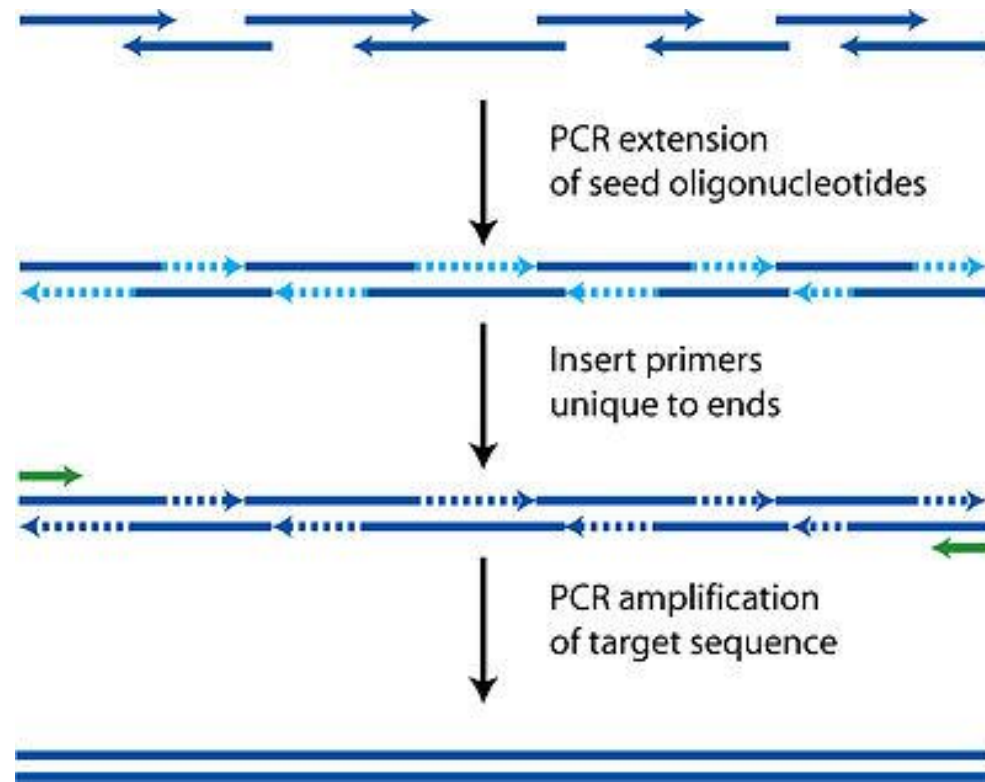
Amplification of up to 20 kb DNA fragment from pre-existing template (genomic DNA, cDNA library, cloned fragment)



Site directed mutagenesis



Synthetic genes: Polymerase chain assembly



Price of synthetic fragments up to 3 kb is below €0.10 per bp

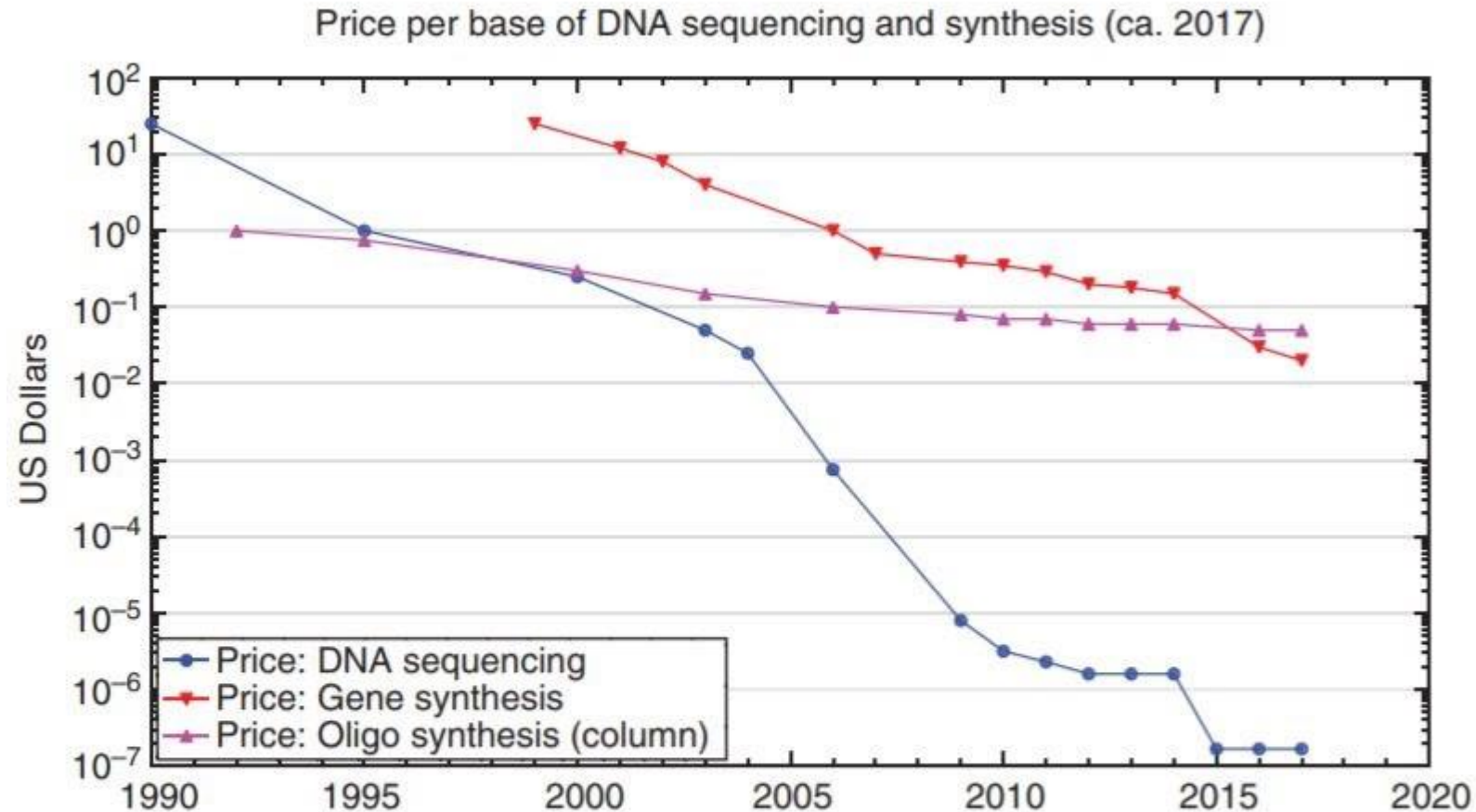
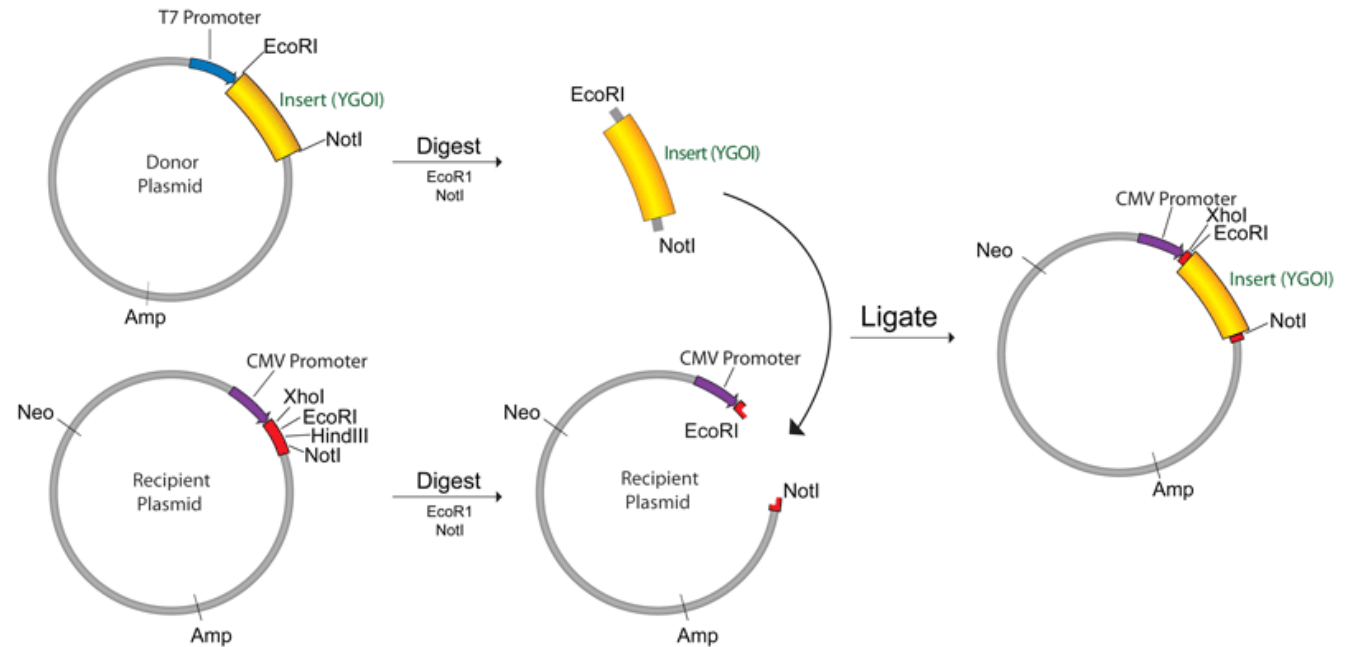
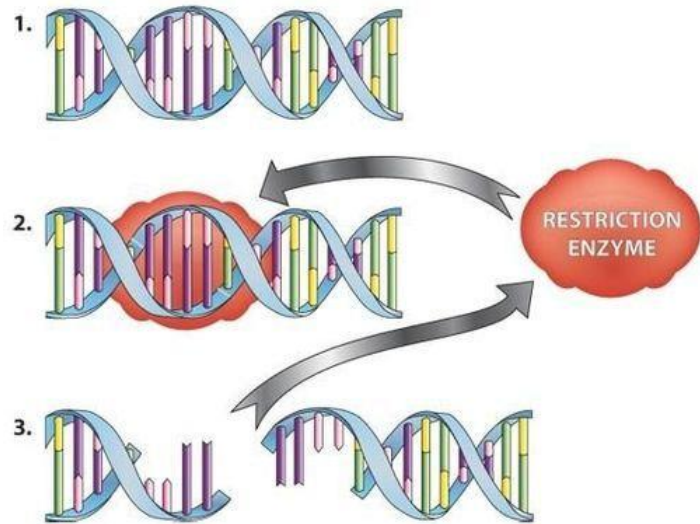


Figure 1.2 Commercial prices per base for DNA sequencing, column-synthesized oligonucleotides, and gene-length sDNA. Reported prices for array-synthesized oligos vary widely, and no time series is available. Market pricing for genes can vary by up to an order of magnitude, depending on sequencing composition and complexity. (Carlson (2010), Commercial price quotes.)



Restriction cloning

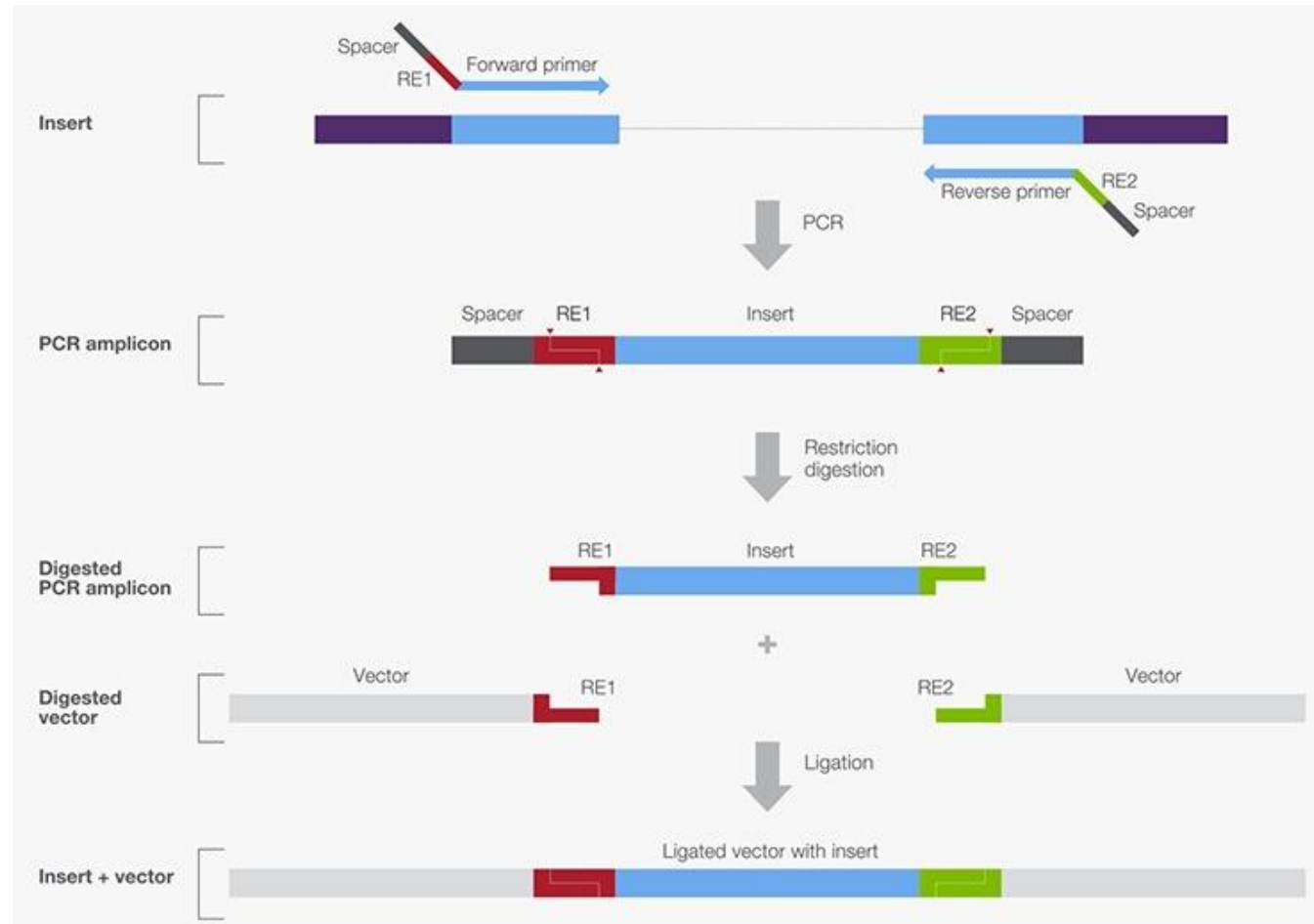


in vitro

in bacteria



PCR-based cloning

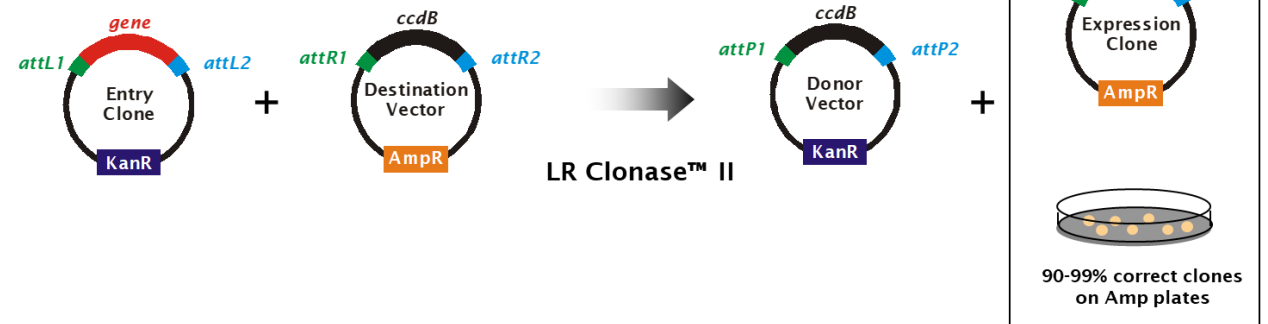
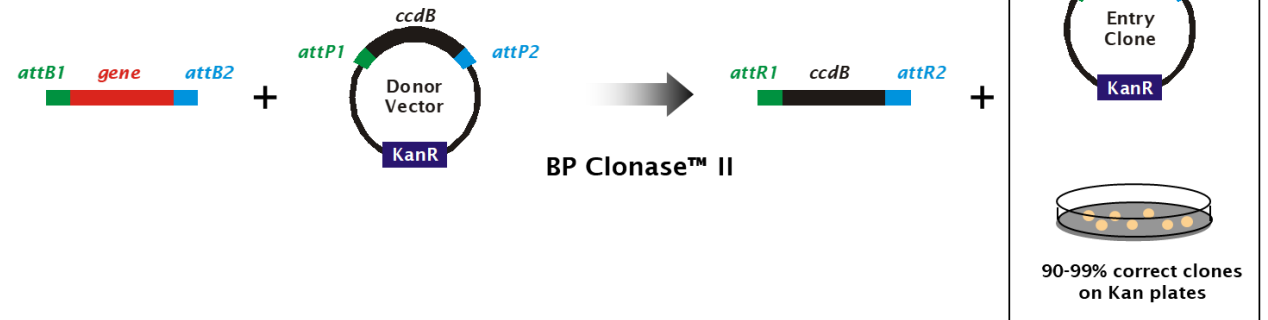
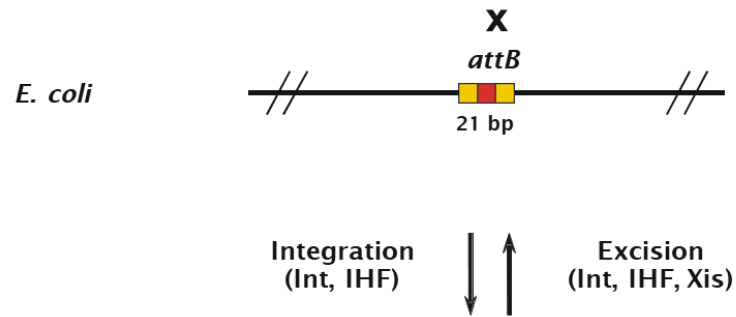
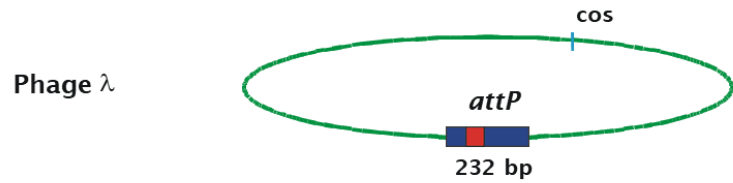


- DNA of interest can be flanked by any restriction site.

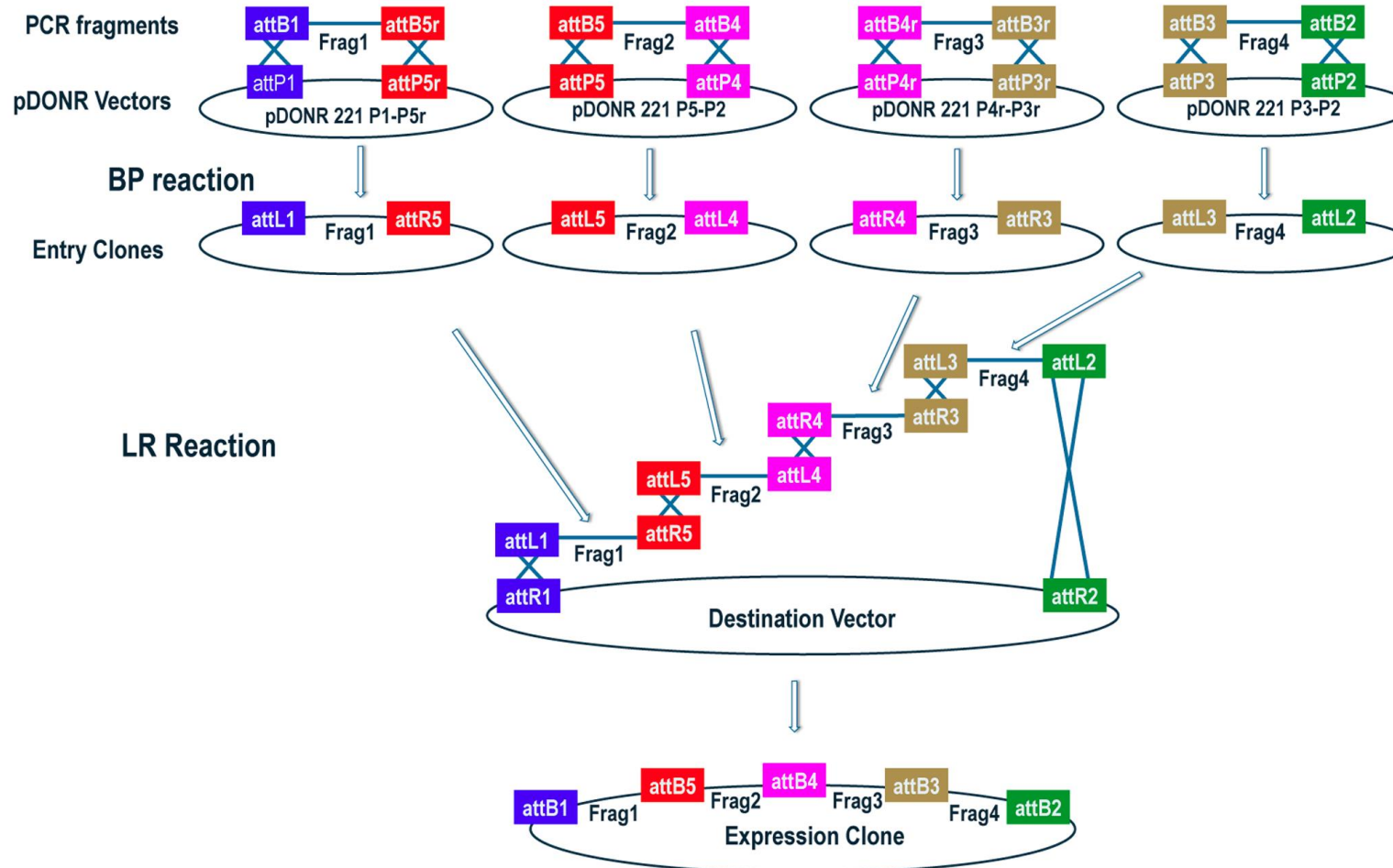


Gateway cloning

λ bacteriophage site specific integration system



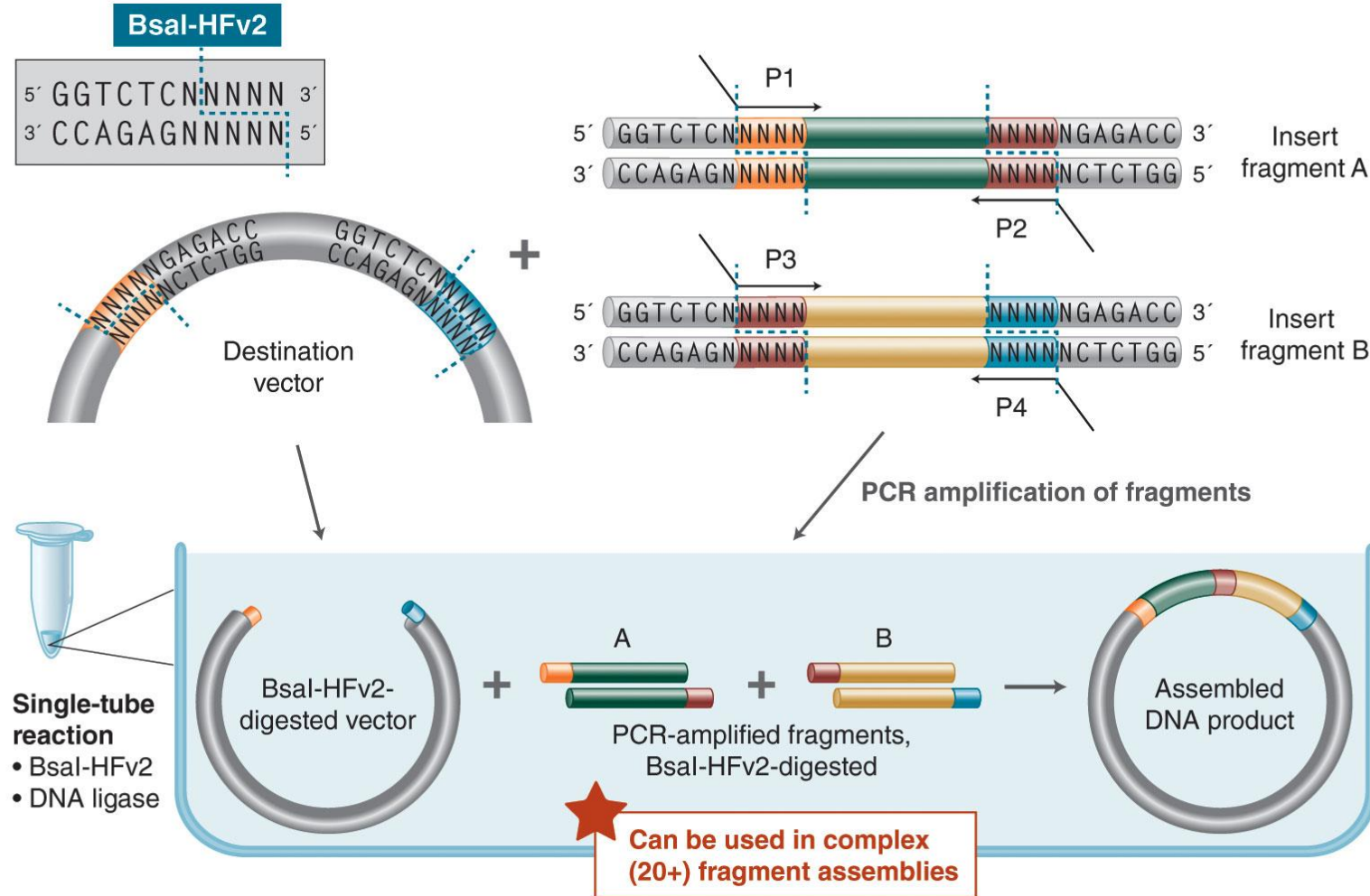
DNA assembly with multisite Gateway cloning



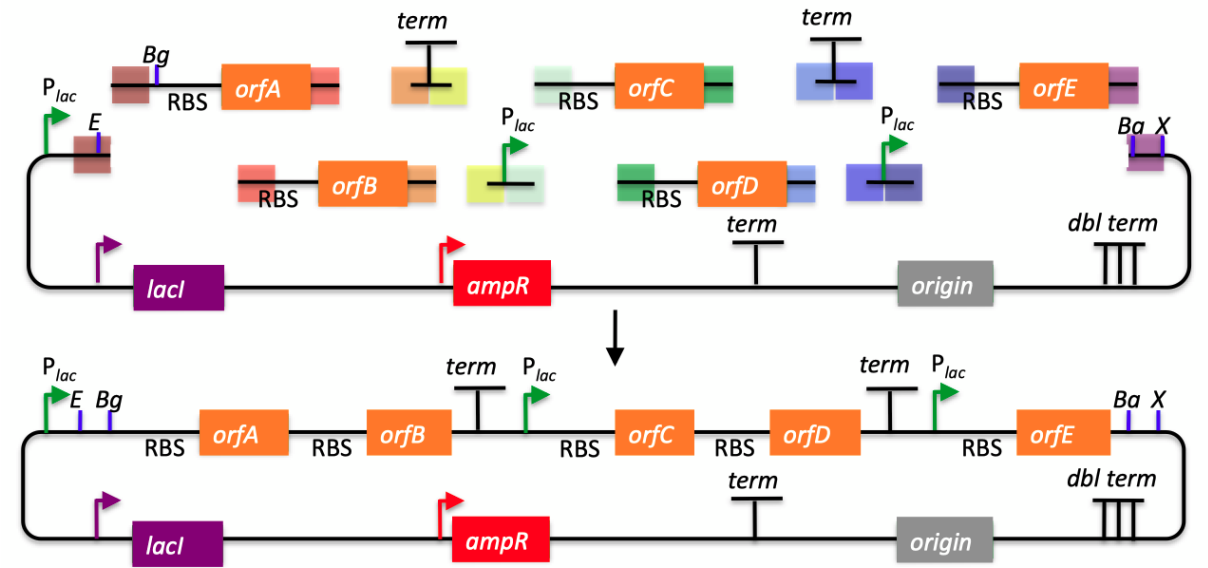
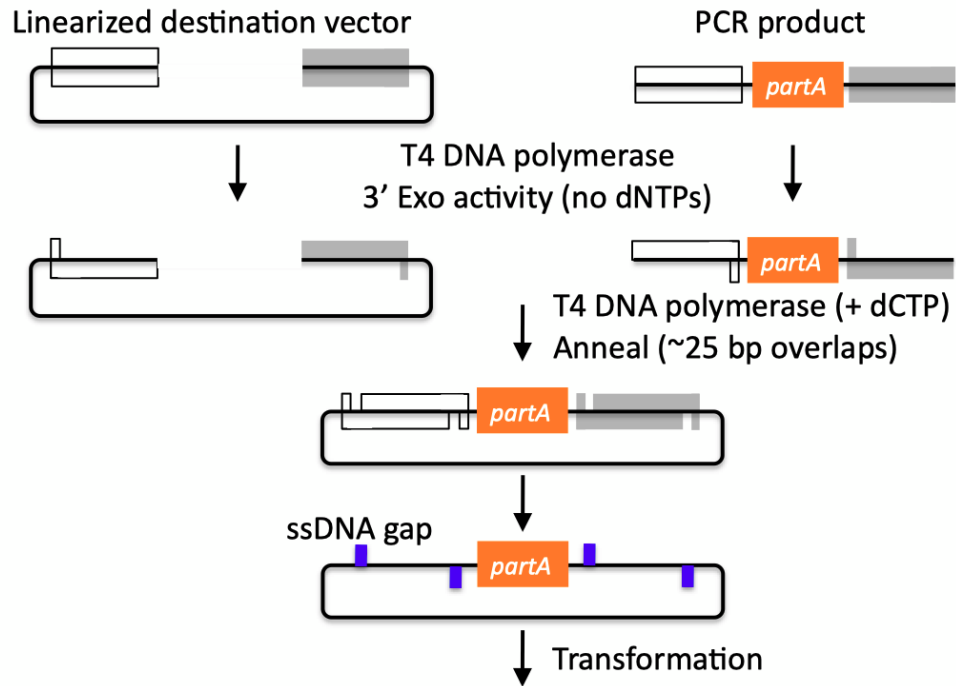
The multisite Gateway system relies on five sets of specific and non-crossreacting *att* sequences.



Golden Gate Assembly

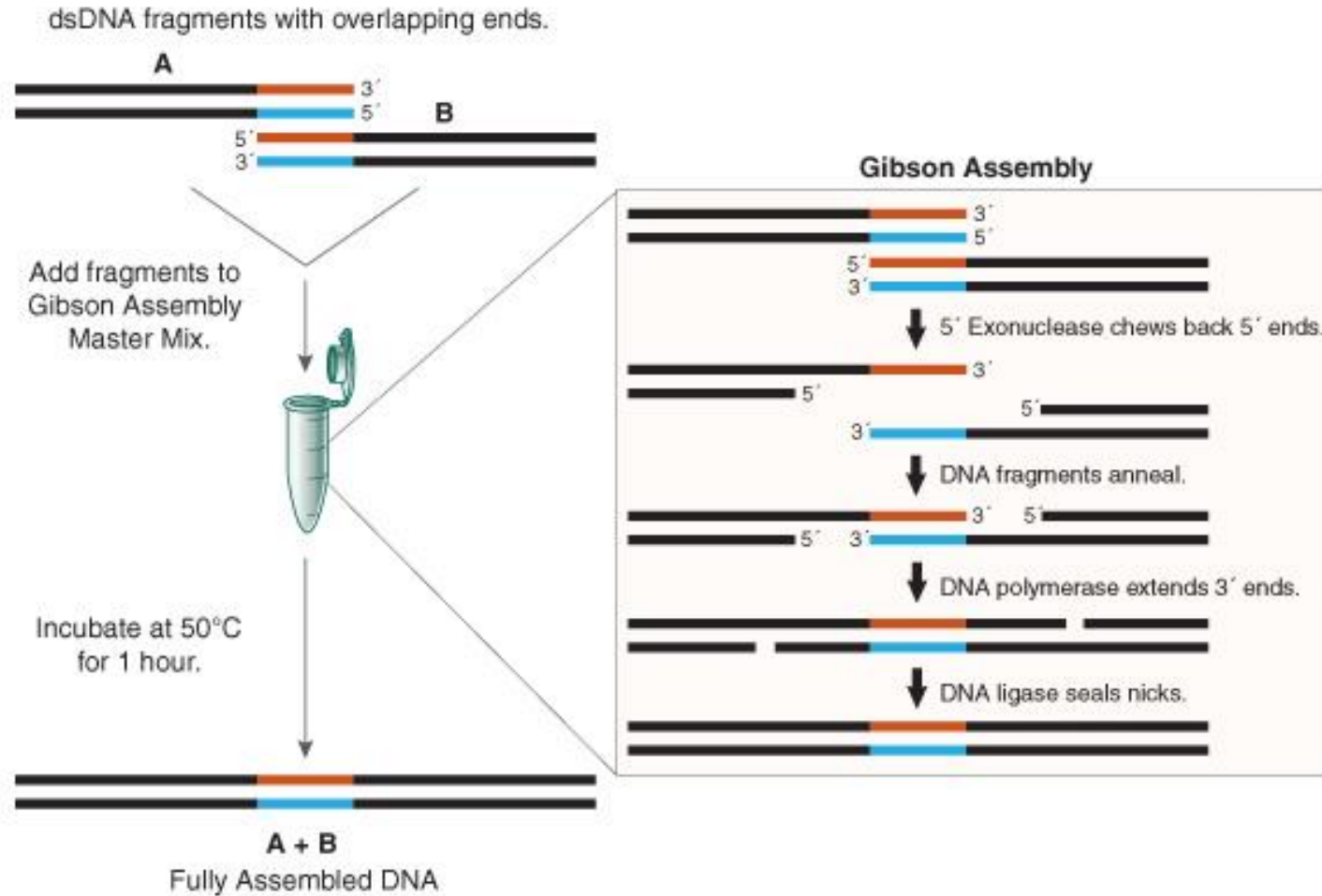


Sequence and ligation independent cloning (SLIC)



Gibson Assembly

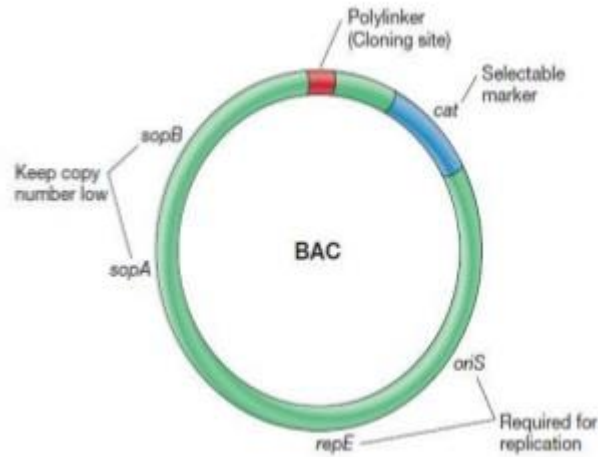
- Seamless assembly



Gibson assembly was used to synthesise 16.3 kb mouse mitochondrial genome directly from 60-mer oligos.



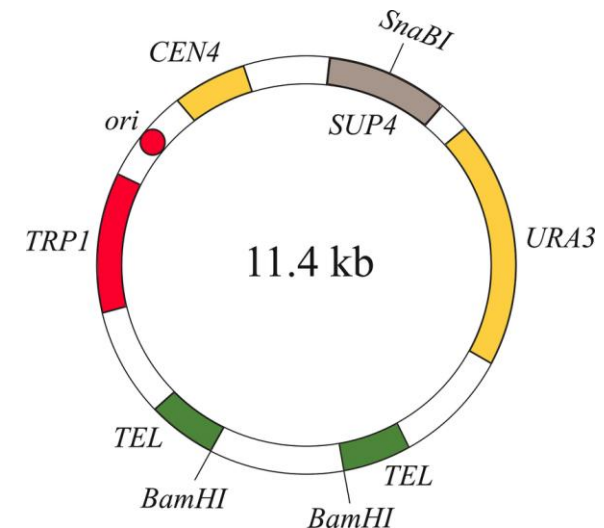
Bacterial artificial chromosomes (BACs)



- BACs are plasmids constructed with the replication origin of *E. coli* F-factor, and so can be maintained in single copy per cell
- They can keep DNA fragments up to 300 kb
- Recombinant BACs are transformed into *E. coli* by electroporation
- Once in the cell, BAC replicates as an F-factor

Yeast artificial chromosomes (YACs)

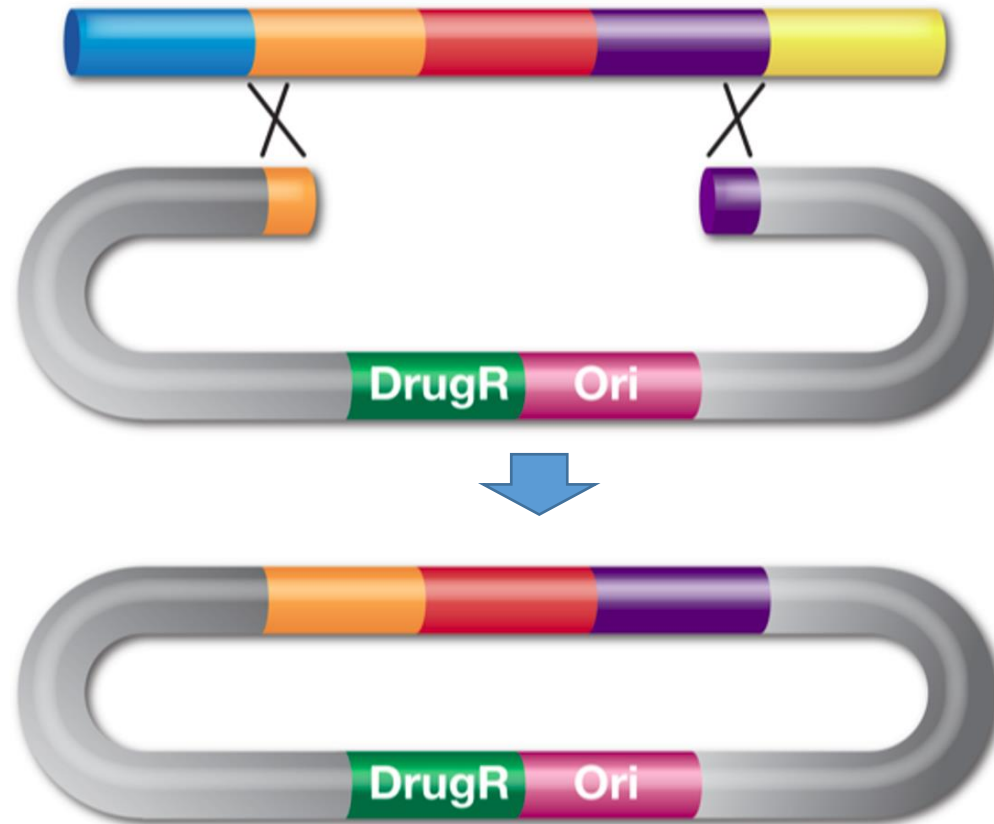
- YACs contain yeast centromeric DNA, telomeres and selectable markers
- YACs can be shuttled between yeast and *E. coli*
- They can keep DNA fragments up to 2000 kb



In vivo cloning: Recombineering

Recombineering takes advantage of cellular homologous recombination machinery to assemble desired DNA molecules in cells (bacteria, yeast) based on sequence homology.

In bacteria can efficiency of homologous recombination further be increased by coexpression of phage recombinant system (lambda red recombineering)

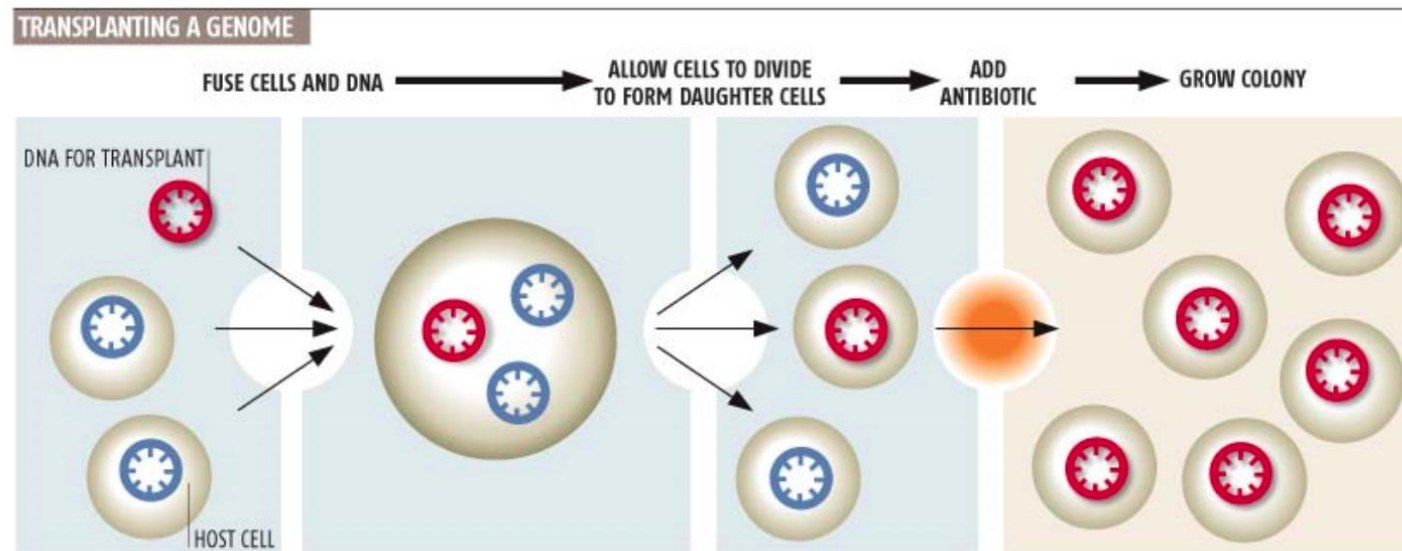


Towards synthetic genomes: genome transplantation

Mycoplasma is a genus of bacteria that lack a cell wall around their cell membranes. This characteristic makes them naturally resistant to antibiotics that target cell wall synthesis. Mycoplasmas have very small genomes.

Lartigue et al: Science 2007: replaced the genome of *Mycoplasma capricolum* with one from another species - *Mycoplasma mycoides* virtually transforming one species in another.

- Intact circular genome free of proteins was isolated through pulsed field gel electrophoresis.
- Isolated genome of *M. mycoides* was transplanted into *M. capricolum* cells by polyethylene glycol-mediated transformation.



Selection: Tetracycline resistance

Screening: β -galactosidase (*lacZ*) genes

Main challenge: isolating intact genome and avoiding recombination



Assembly of a synthetic genome of *Mycoplasma genitalium*

- *Mycoplasma genitalium*: small pathogenic bacterium that lives on the skin cells of the urinary and genital tracts in humans. It has 600 kb genome encoding 500 genes- the smallest genome of any free living creature.
- Overlapping “cassettes” of 5 to 7 kilobases (kb), assembled from chemically synthesized oligonucleotides, were joined by in vitro recombination to produce intermediate assemblies of approximately 24 kb, 72 kb (“1/8 genome”) 144 kb (“1/4 genome”), which were all cloned as bacterial artificial chromosomes in *Escherichia coli*.
- Clones of all four 1/4 genomes was assembled by transformation associated recombination cloning in the yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, then isolated and sequenced.

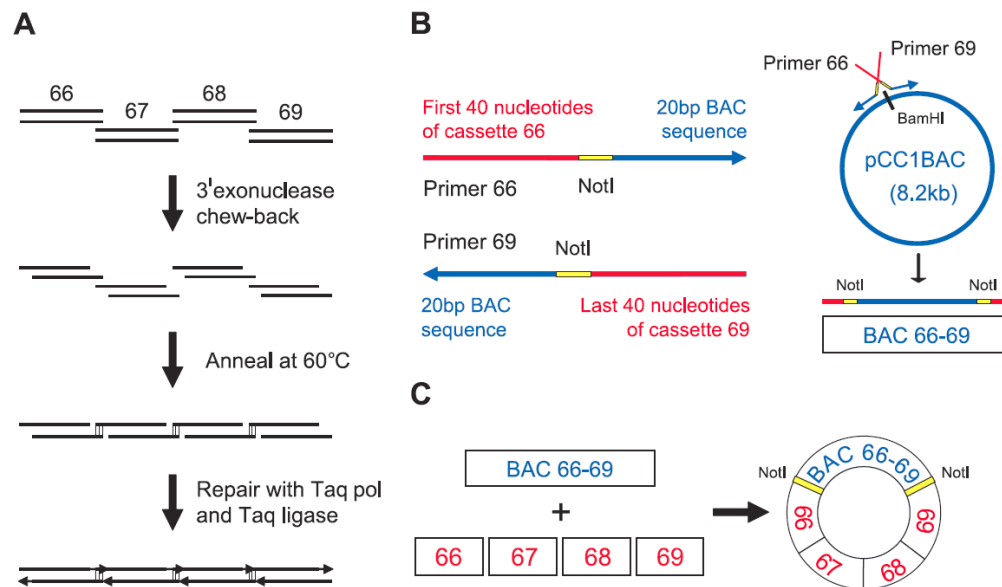
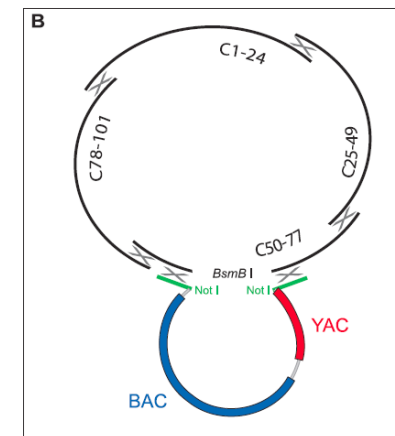
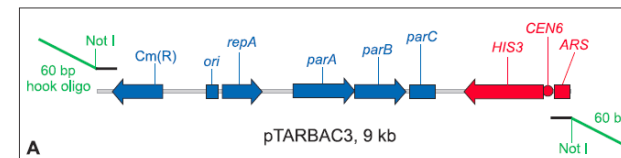


Fig. 3. Assembly of cassettes by in vitro recombination. **(A)** Diagram of steps in the in vitro recombination reaction, using the assembly of cassettes 66 to 69 as an example. **(B)** BAC vector is prepared for the assembly reaction by PCR amplification using primers as illustrated. The linear amplification product, after gel purification, is included in the assembly reaction of **(A)**, such that the desired assembly is circular DNA containing the four cassettes and the BAC DNA as depicted in **(C)**.

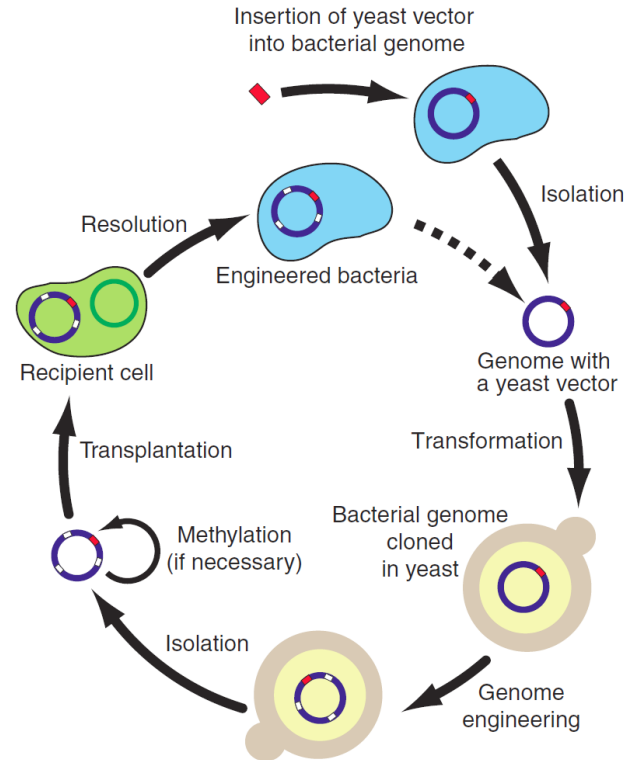


Whole genome assembly in yeast

Creation of bacteria with fully synthetic genome

- *M. genitalium* grows so slow that one experiment can take weeks to complete. The team decided to change microbes in midstream, sequencing the 1-million-base genome of the faster-growing *M. mycoides* and beginning to build a synthetic copy of its chromosome.
- After engineering artificial genome in yeast, one must be able to transplant the bacterial chromosome from yeast back into a recipient bacterial cell.

Fig. 3. Moving a bacterial genome into yeast, engineering it, and installing it back into a bacterium by genome transplantation. A yeast vector is inserted into a bacterial genome by transformation. That genome is cloned into yeast. After cloning, the repertoire of yeast genetic methods is used to create insertions, deletions, rearrangements, or any combination of modifications in the bacterial genome. This engineered genome is then isolated and transplanted into a recipient cell to generate an engineered bacterium. Before transplantation it may be necessary to methylate the donor DNA in order to protect it from the recipient cell's restriction system(s). This cycle can be repeated starting from the newly engineered genome (dashed arrow).



Lartigue et al: Science 2009

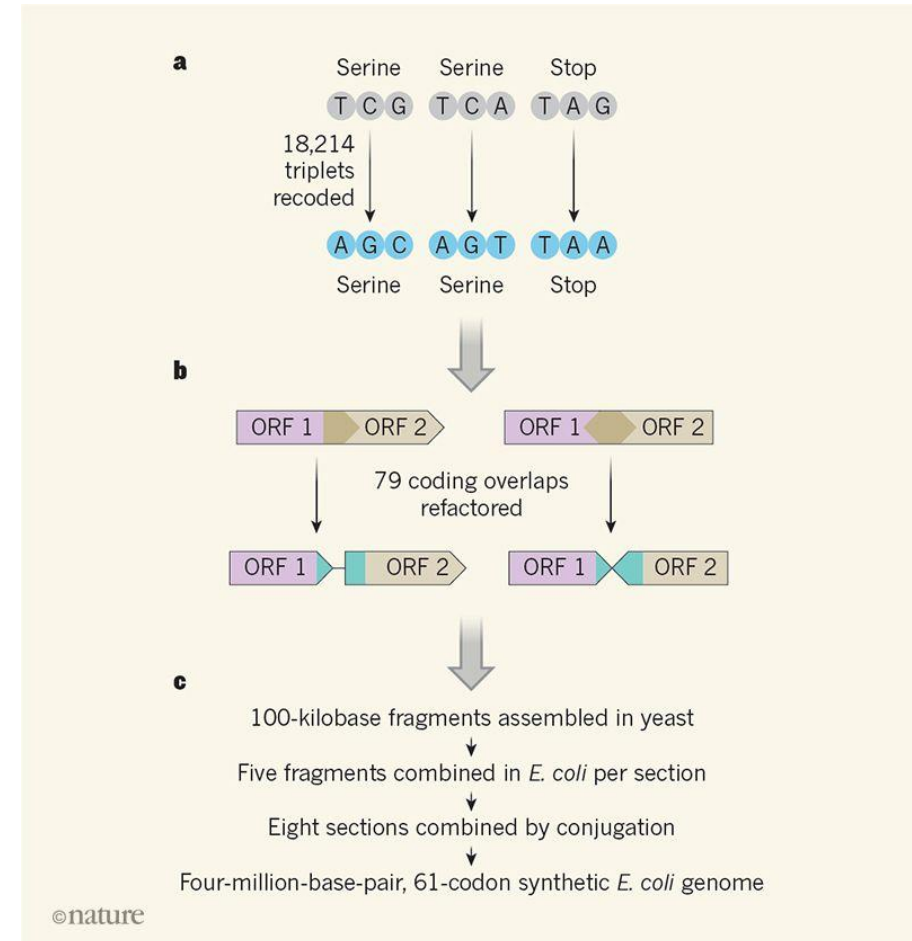
It took geneticist Craig Venter 15 years and US\$40 million to create a bacterial parasite with fully synthetic genome. Venter's team wrote a few coded 'watermarks' into the genome sequence, which spelled out the names of the team members, as well as several famous quotes. But besides these tweaks and a few other changes, the synthetic *M. mycoides* genome was identical to its blueprint.



Synthetic genome of *E. coli* with reduced codon usage

- DNA was computationally designed, chemically synthesized and assembled in 100-kilobase fragments in vectors in *S. cerevisiae*
- These vectors were then taken up by *E. coli* and integrated into the genome in the direct place of the equivalent natural region. Iterating this process five times resulted in 500-kilobase sections of DNA being replaced by synthetic versions.
- Eight strains of *E. coli* were produced in this way, each harbouring synthetic DNA sections that covered a different region of the genome. These sections were then combined using conjugation to make the complete synthetic genome.
- Synthetic *E. coli* genome that uses only 61 of the 64 available codons in its protein-coding sequences, replacing two serine codons and one stop codon with synonyms.

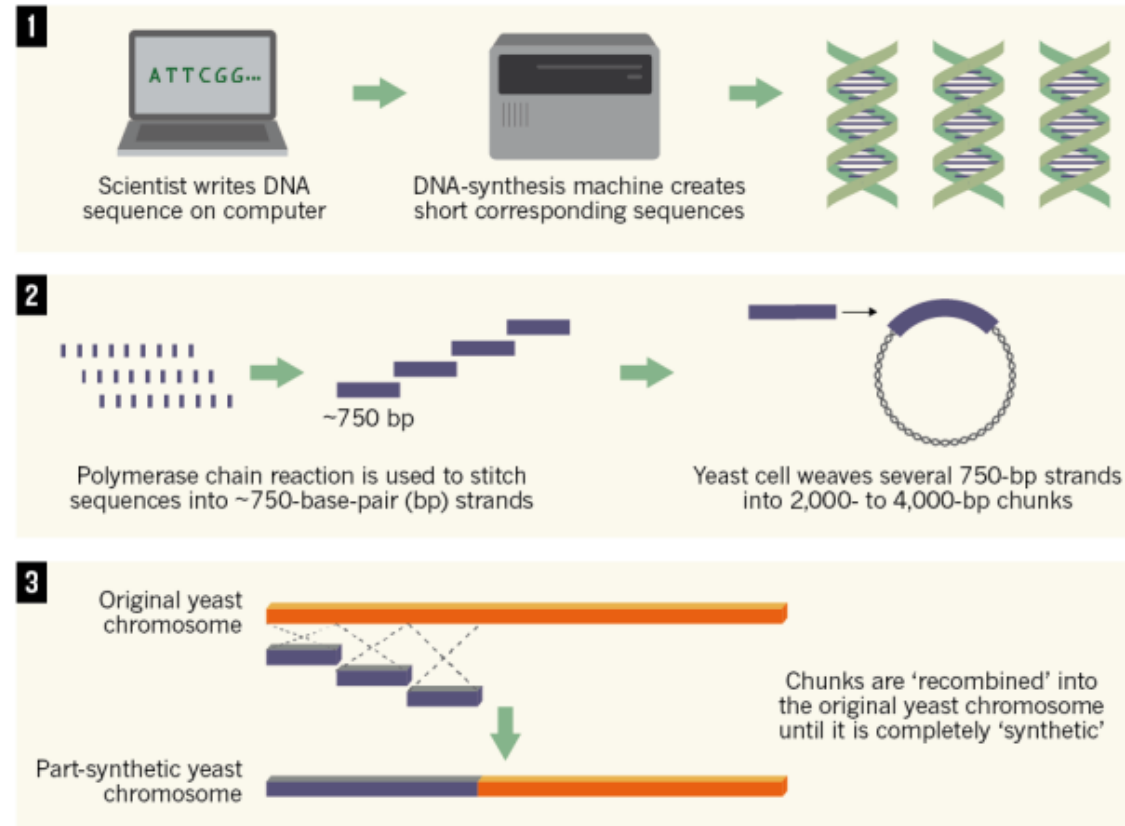
Fredens et al: Nature 2019



An undergrad student project: Synthetic yeast chromosome

CONSTRUCTING LIFE

Researchers have synthesized a fully functional chromosome from the baker's yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. At 272,281 base pairs long, it represents about 2.5% of the organism's 12 million-base-pair genome.



Annaluru et al., Science 2014

The 272,871–base pair designer eukaryotic chromosome, synIII, which is based on the 316,617–base pair native *S. cerevisiae* chromosome III.

Each student makes their own stretch of the yeast genome, which involves stitching together very short lengths of DNA created by a DNA-synthesis machine into ever-larger chunks. These chunks are then incorporated into the yeast chromosome, a few at a time, through a process called homologous recombination. Eventually, this results in an entirely synthetic chromosome.



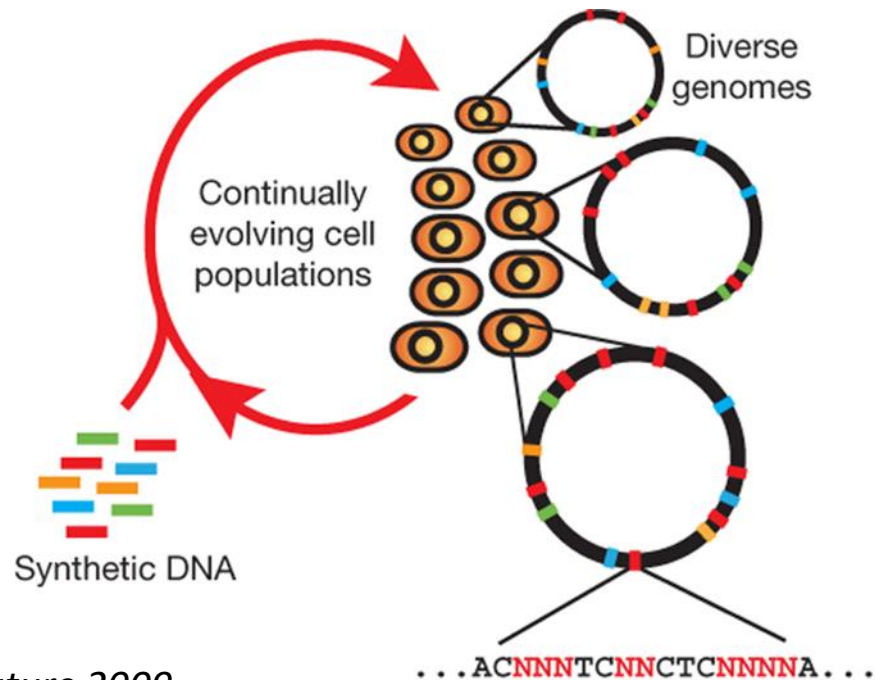
Genome editing technologies

- Synthetic genome technology is still expensive, laborious and limited to a few organisms.
- Genome editing is affordable, relatively easy and applicable in a wide range of organisms.

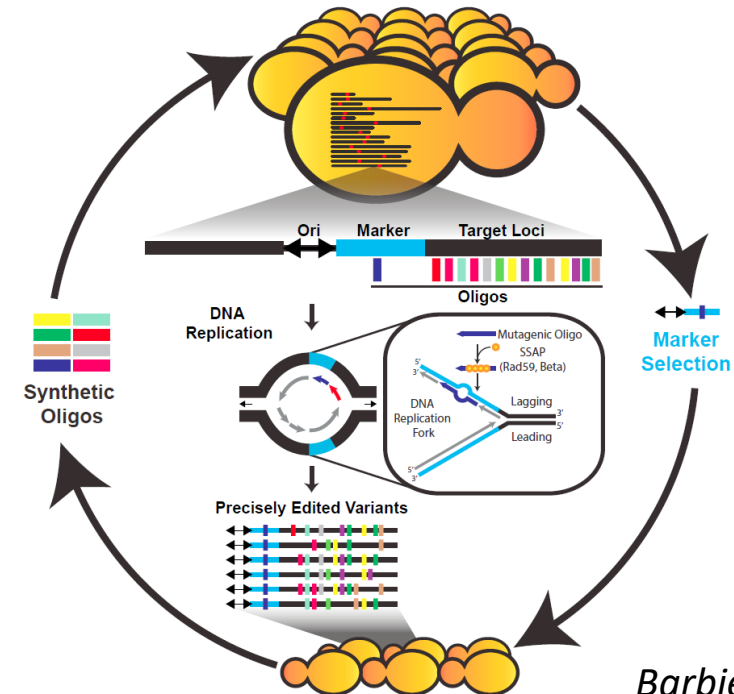


MAGE: Multiple automated genomic engineering

- Up to 50 loci can be simultaneously modified in a single cell.
- Allelic conversion mediated by directing oligonucleotides to the lagging strand of the replication fork during DNA replication that are delivered to a cell by electroporation.
- The conversion is facilitated by the bacteriophage λ -Red ssDNA-binding protein β in *E. coli* and conversion efficiencies can reach up to 30%.
- MAGE enables the rapid and continuous generation of sequence diversity at many targeted chromosomal locations across a large population of cells through the repeated introduction of synthetic DNA.
- MAGE has also been developed for budding yeast with simultaneous incorporation of up to 12 oligos



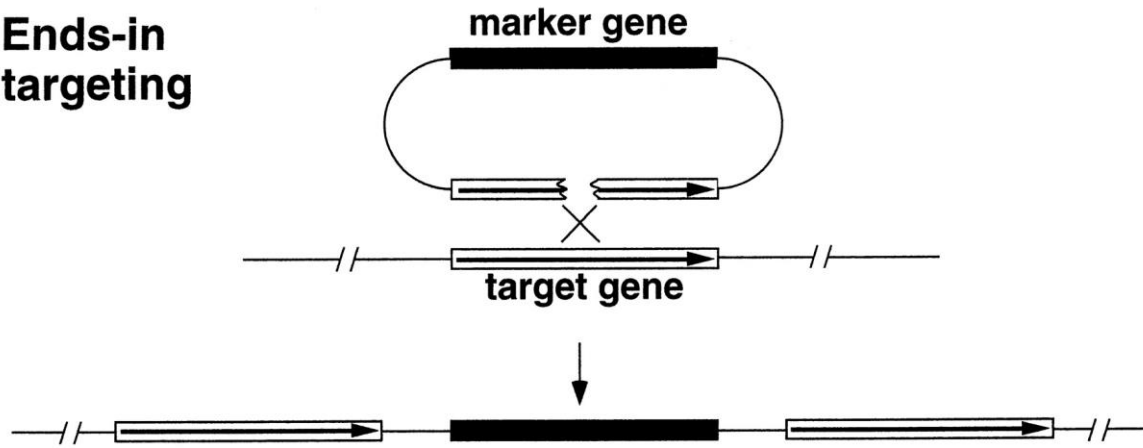
Wang et al., Nature 2009



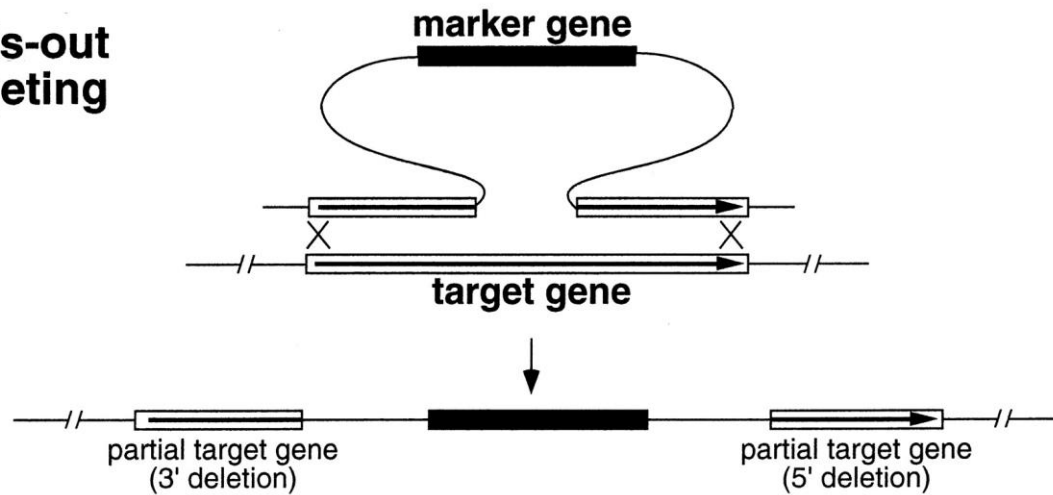
Barbieri et al., Cell 2017

Gene targeting

Ends-in targeting



Ends-out targeting

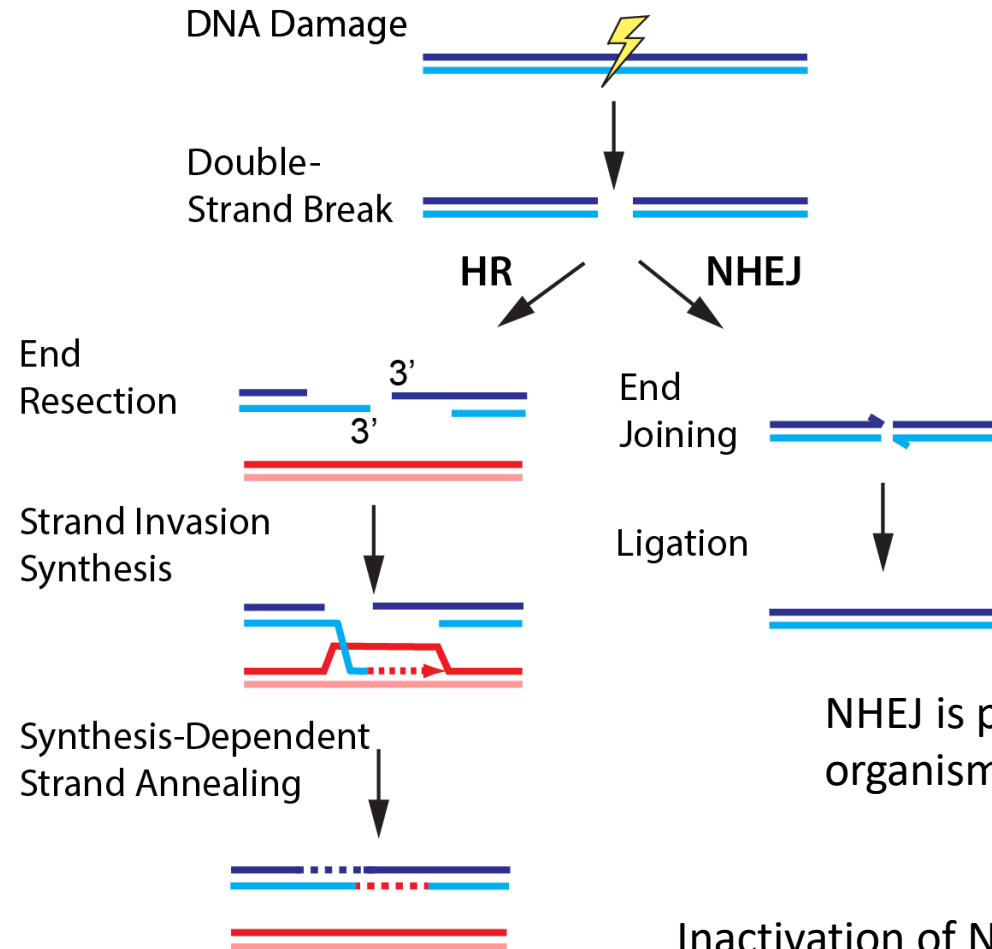


- Targeted gene knock-outs
- Conditional gene knock-outs
- Gene tagging
- Amino acid substitutions
- ...



Gene targeting is extremely inefficient in majority of eukaryotes

Efficient gene targeting is limited to a few model systems (yeast, ES in mouse, chicken DT40 cell line, moss *Physcomitrella patens*, ...)



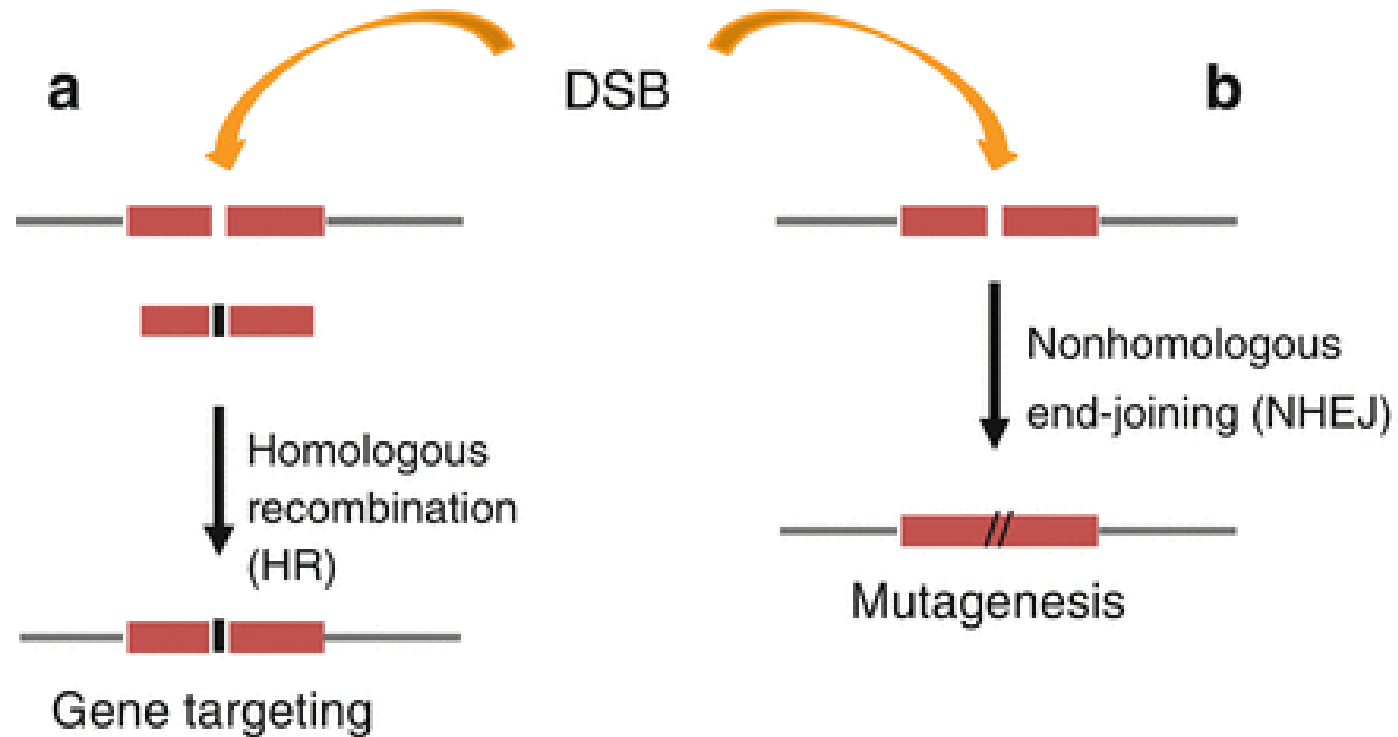
NHEJ is prevalent mode of repair in organisms with complex genome



Inactivation of NHEJ can boost GT in some organisms



Break induction in targeted locus boosts gene targeting



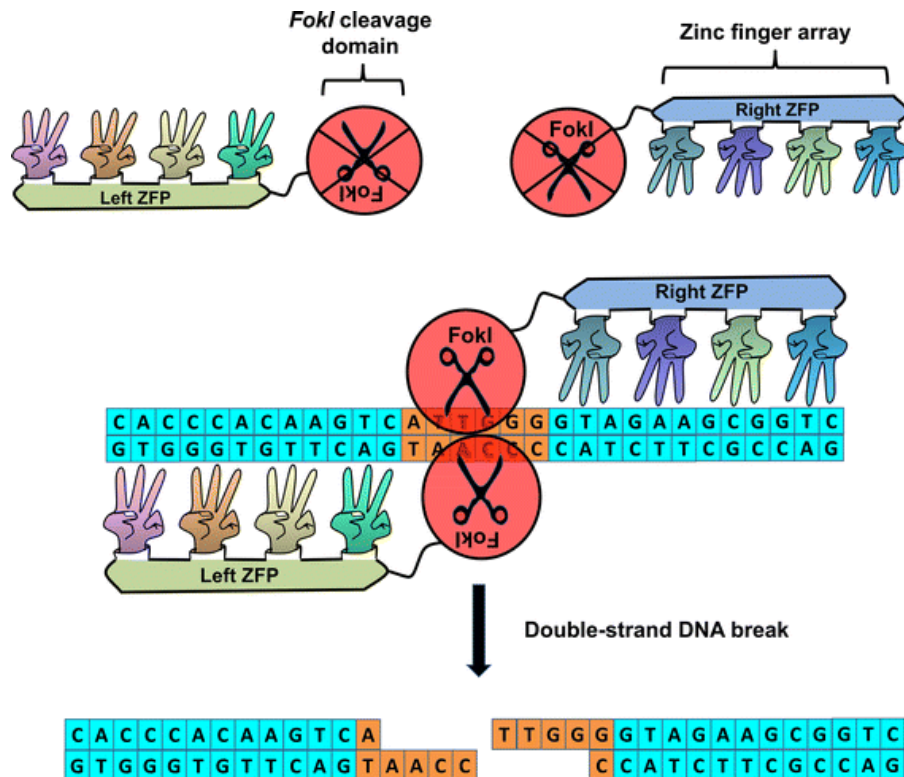
➡ Interest in programmable nucleases that can cleave sequence of choice.



Zinc-finger nucleases

Zinc-finger: a small protein structural motif coordinated by one or more zinc ions. Involved in DNA/RNA binding. A single zinc finger can recognize 2 or 3 bases, but does not bind very tightly to nucleic acids. DNA binding specificity is achieved by combining multiple zinc-fingers.

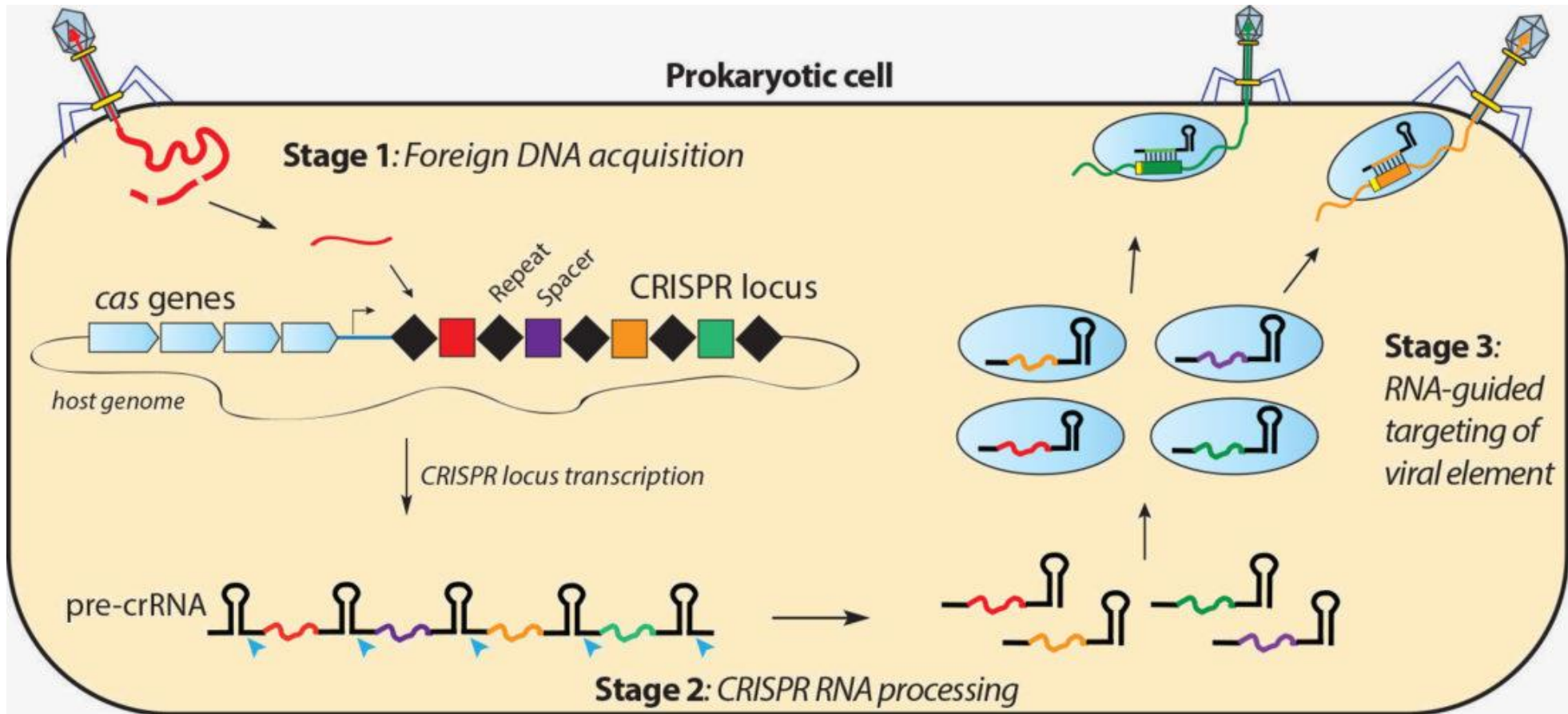
Zinc-finger nucleases are formed by combining multiple zinc-fingers with the nuclease domain of FokI restriction endonuclease. FokI acts as a dimer.



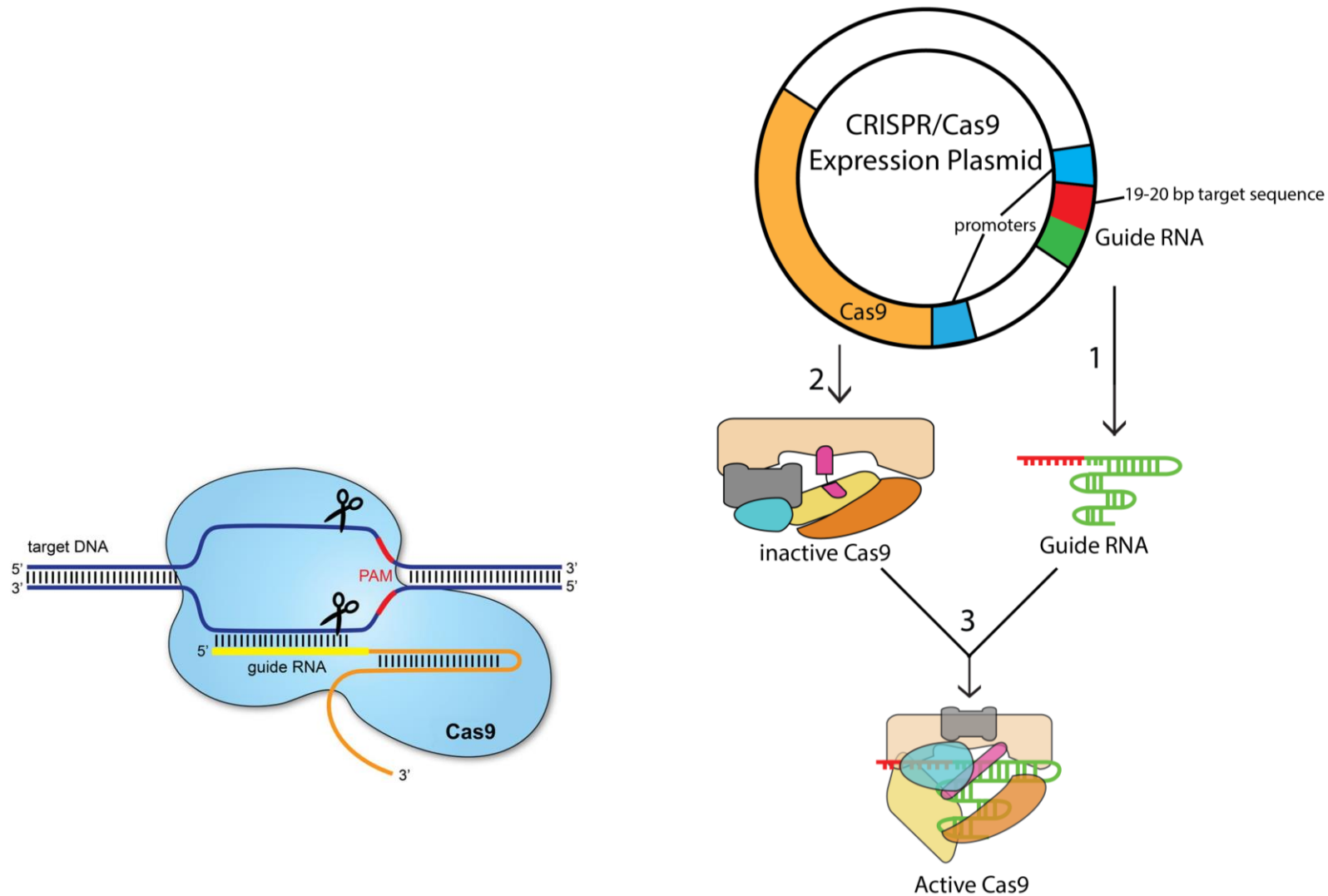
- Expensive, laborious and time consuming in making constructs
- Target each site separately
- Low efficiency
- Fewer off-target mutations
- Target any genomic location



CRISPR-Cas: Prokaryotic adaptive immune system



Programmable CRISPR-Cas9 nuclease



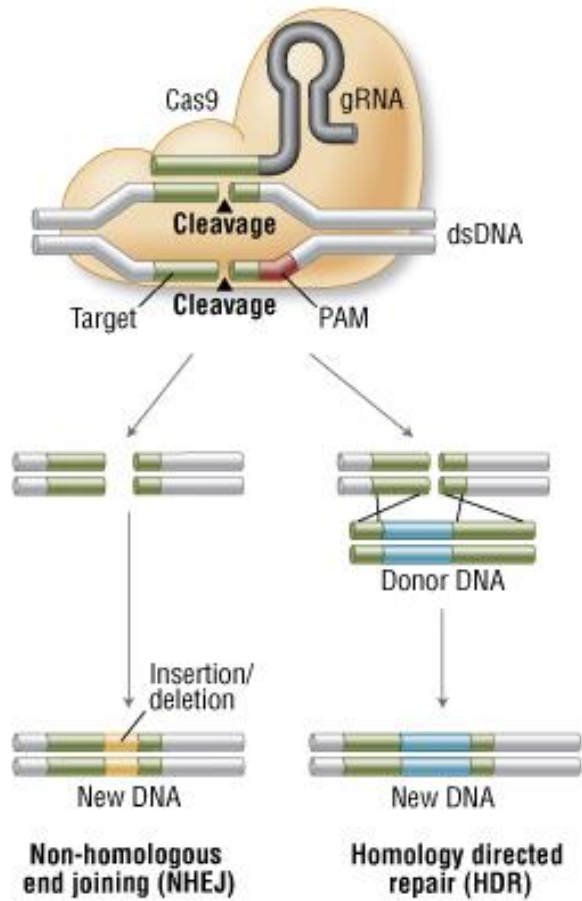
- Target site must have PAM sequence
- Off target cleavage
- Cheap and easy to make constructs
- Highly versatile

It works!!!!

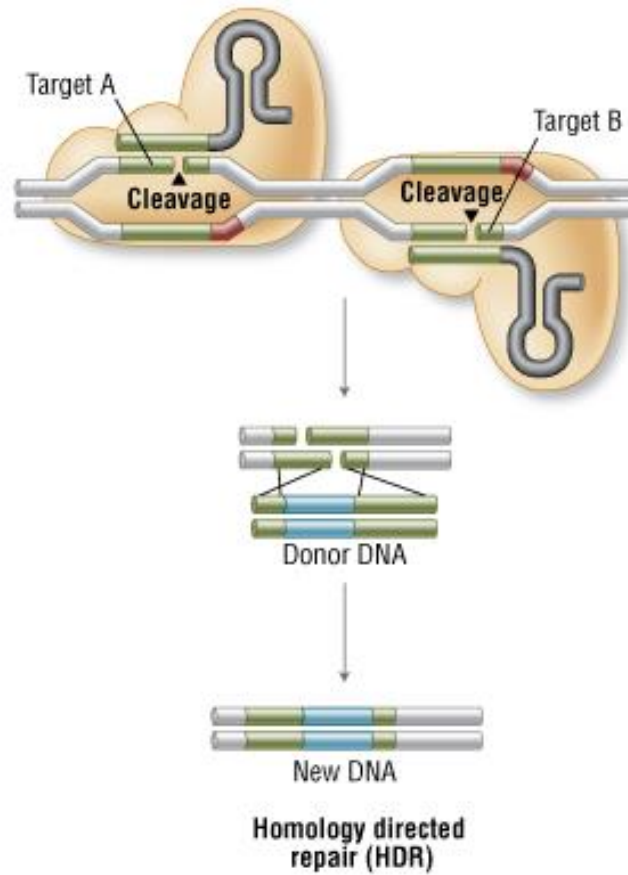


Applications of CRISPR-Cas9 technology

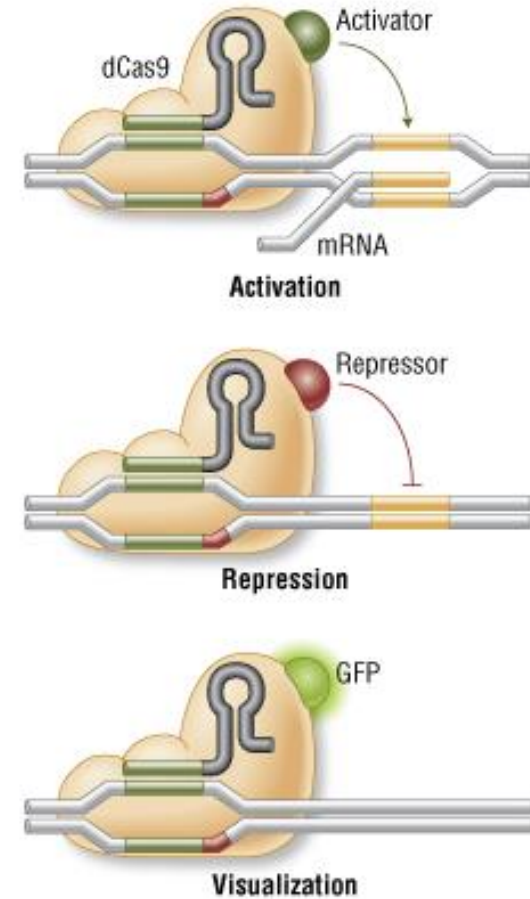
A. Genome Engineering With Cas9 Nuclease



B. Genome Engineering By Double Nicking With Paired Cas9 Nickases



C. Localization With Defective Cas9 Nuclease



Multiplex genome engineering using CRISPR/Cas system

Simultaneous expression of multiple sgRNAs allows efficient targeting of entire gene families.

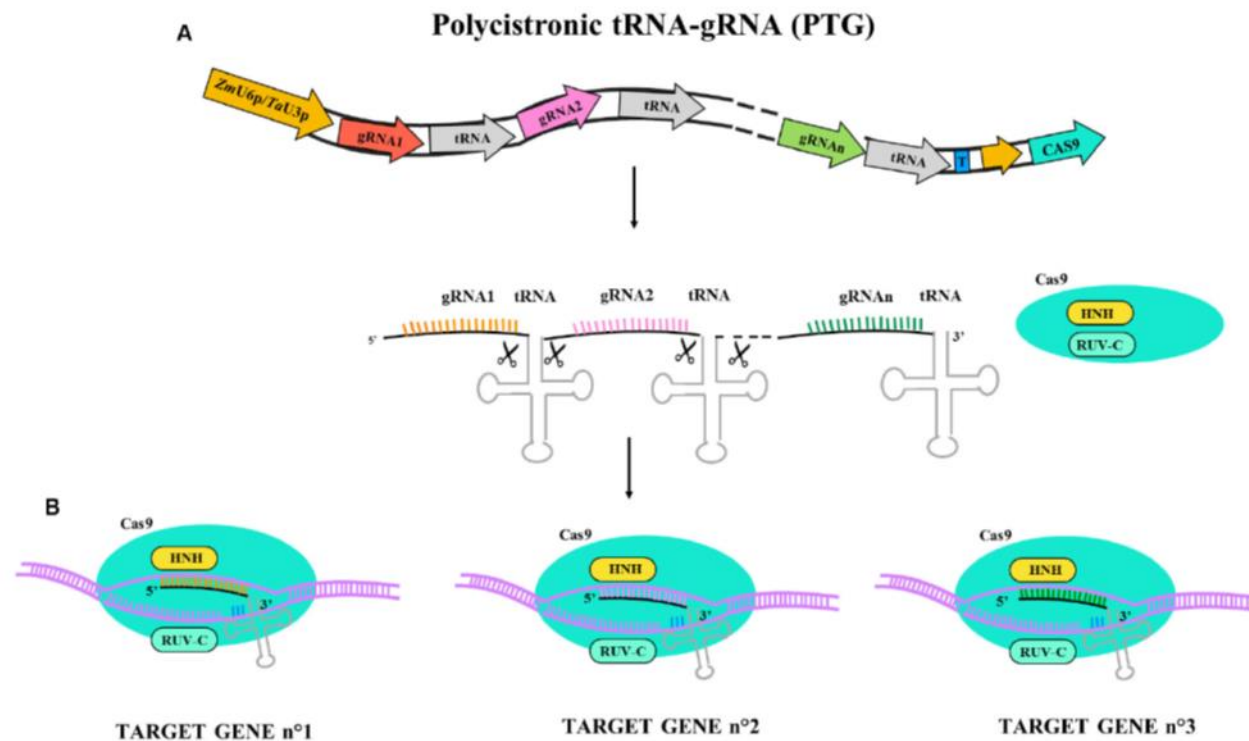
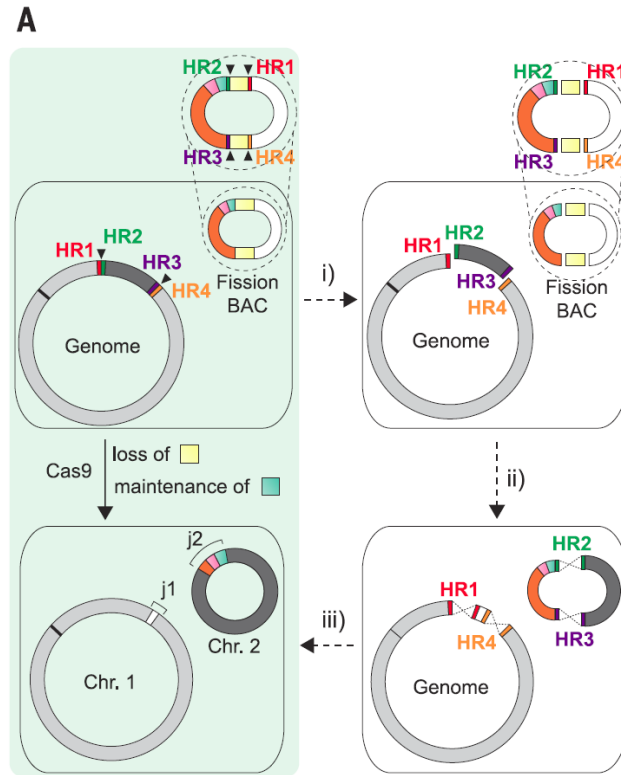


FIGURE 2 | Illustrative diagram of polycistronic tRNA-gRNA (PTG) gene construct and targeting activity for Cas9. PTG is composed of t-RNA-gRNA repeats and is upregulated by ZmU6 promoter or TaU3 promoter according to the experimental design as different terminator region (T) are adopted. **(A)** PTG primary transcript. Endogenous endonuclease cuts the tRNA ends and let each tRNA-gRNA targeting the corresponding gene sequence. **(B)** In PTG system more sequence targets are available (n° gene targets) and the different gRNA are represented in different colors (orange, pink, and green).



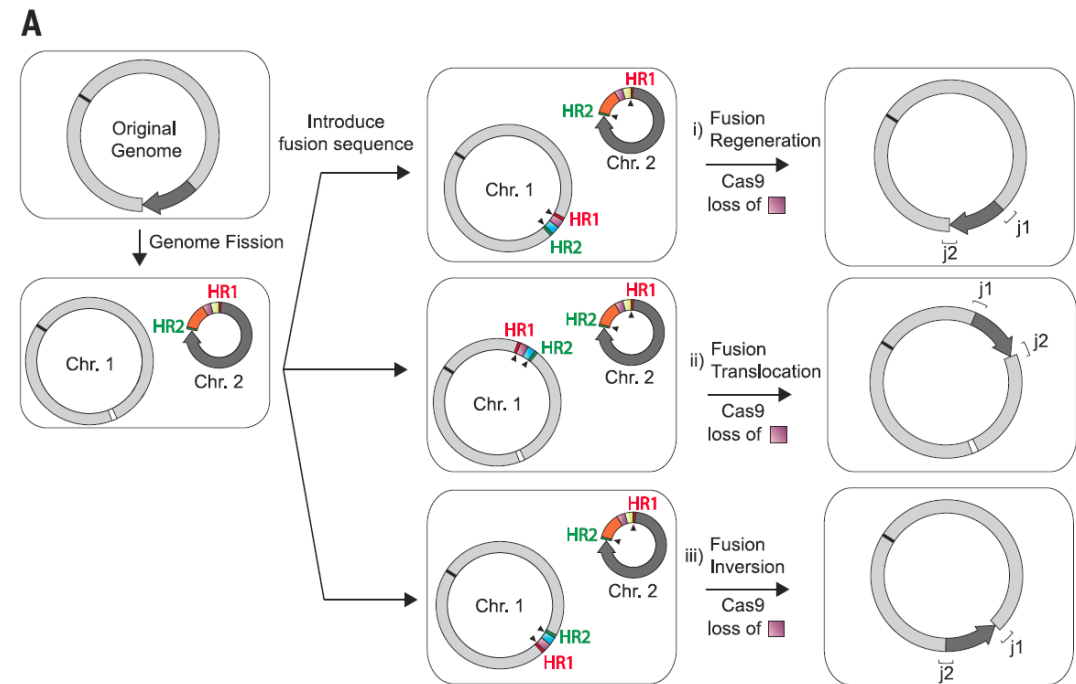
Genome engineering with the CRISPR-Cas system

Chromosome fission



(A) *E. coli* harbors a fission BAC containing a double selection cassette. During fission, (i) Cas9 induces six cuts (black triangles), splitting the genome into fragment 1 (light gray, containing *oriC* indicated by black line) and fragment 2 (dark gray) and the fission BAC into four pieces (linker sequence 1, linker sequence 2, and two copies of *rpsL*). (ii) Homology regions (HRs) between fragments and their cognate linkers. (iii) Lambda red recombination joins fragments and linkers to yield chromosomes 1 and 2 (Chr. 1 and Chr. 2). Junctions 1 and 2 (*j1* and *j2*) are new junctions.

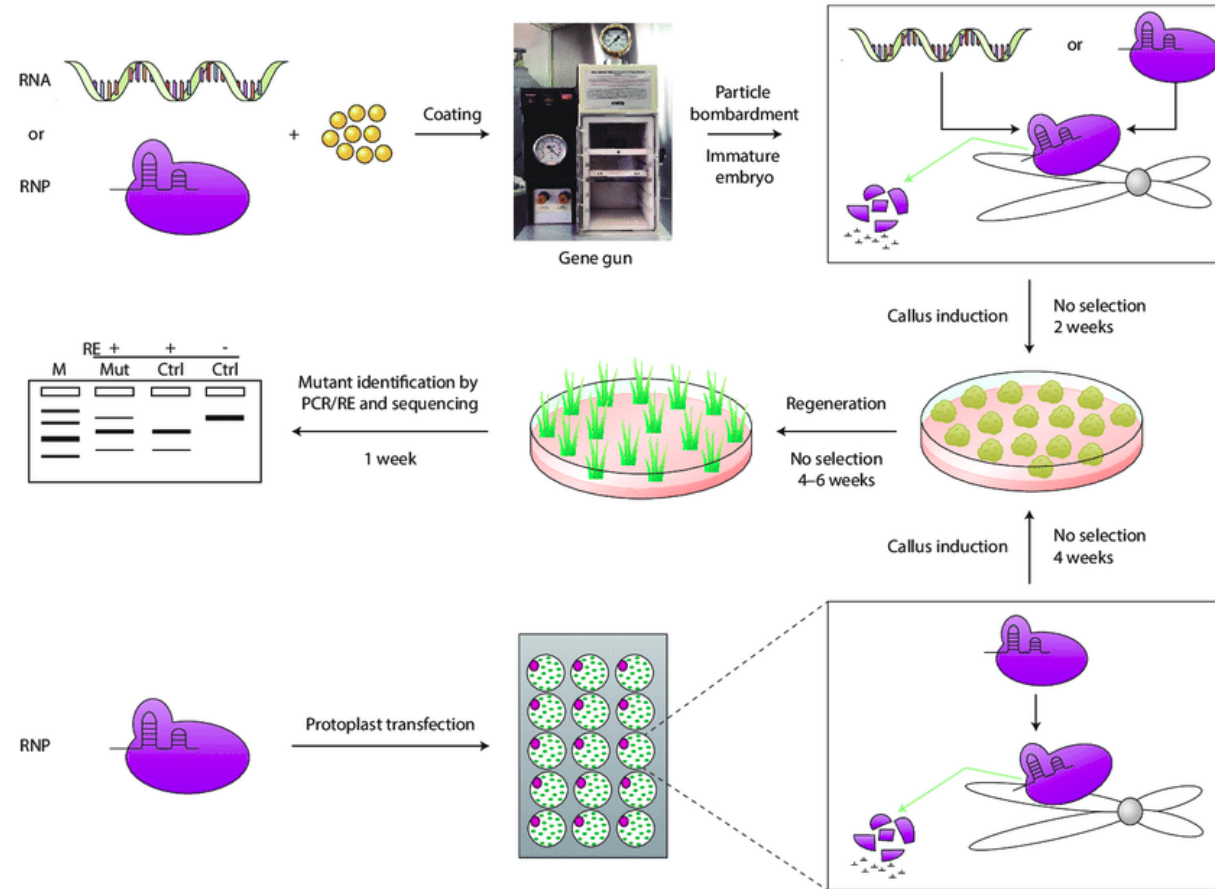
Chromosome fusion



(A) *E. coli* with two chromosomes (Chr. 1 ~3.45 Mb and Chr. 2 ~0.54 Mb) was generated by fission. The sequence of Chr. 2 is watermarked as described in the text. The color-coding is as in Fig. 1A; a *pheS**-KanR double selection cassette (purple and yellow, respectively) is shown. A fusion sequence, consisting of a *pheS**-HygR (purple and blue, respectively) double selection cassette flanked by HR1 and HR2, is introduced in the indicated positions and orientation in Chr. 1 by lambda-red recombination. Cas9 spacer-directed cleavage (black arrows), lambda-red recombination, and selection for fusion products through the loss of *pheS** on 4-chlorophenylalanine yield the indicated products. (i) Regenerating the original genomic arrangement, (ii) translocation of the 0.54-Mb segment 700 kb away from its original position, and (iii) inversion of the 0.54-Mb segment.

Are genome edited organisms GMOs?

transgene free CRISPR/Cas editing



March 2019: A food service company in the Midwestern region of the United States is now using an oil made from **genetically edited soybeans** in its sauces, dressings, and fryer. By using gene-editing technology to deactivate two genes found in soybeans, Minnesota-based agriculture company Calyxt says it's created a soybean oil with no trans fats and more heart-healthy fats than traditional soybean oils.



Nobel Prize in Chemistry 2020: CRISPR/Cas



Emmanuelle Charpentier and Jennifer A. Doudna



Recommended reading:

Gibson et al. (2008) Complete Chemical Synthesis, Assembly, and Cloning of a *Mycoplasma genitalium* Genome. *Science* 319:1215

