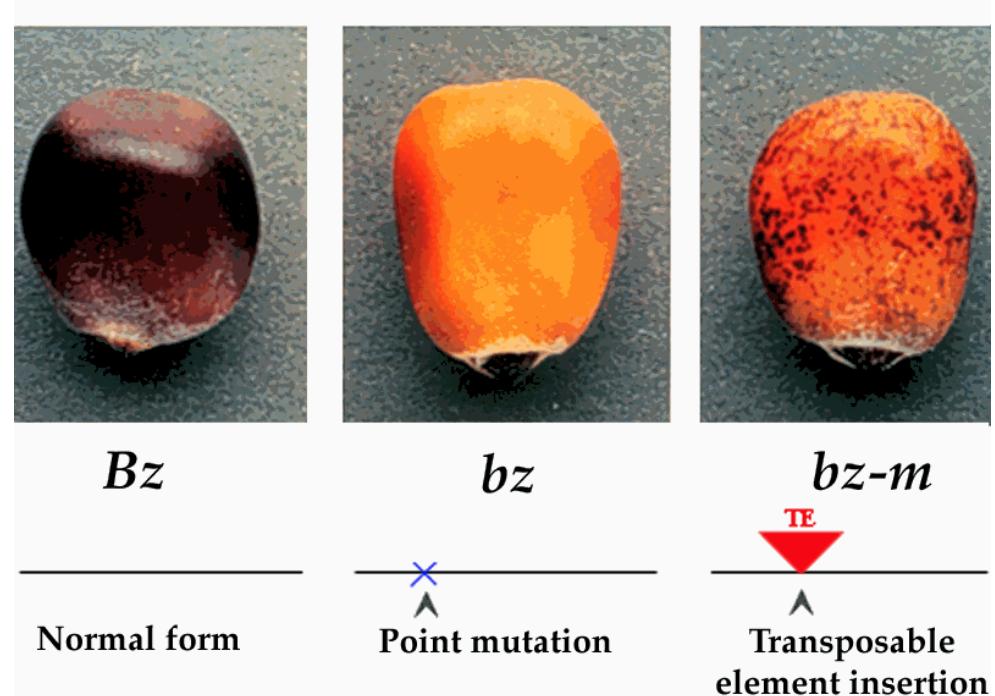
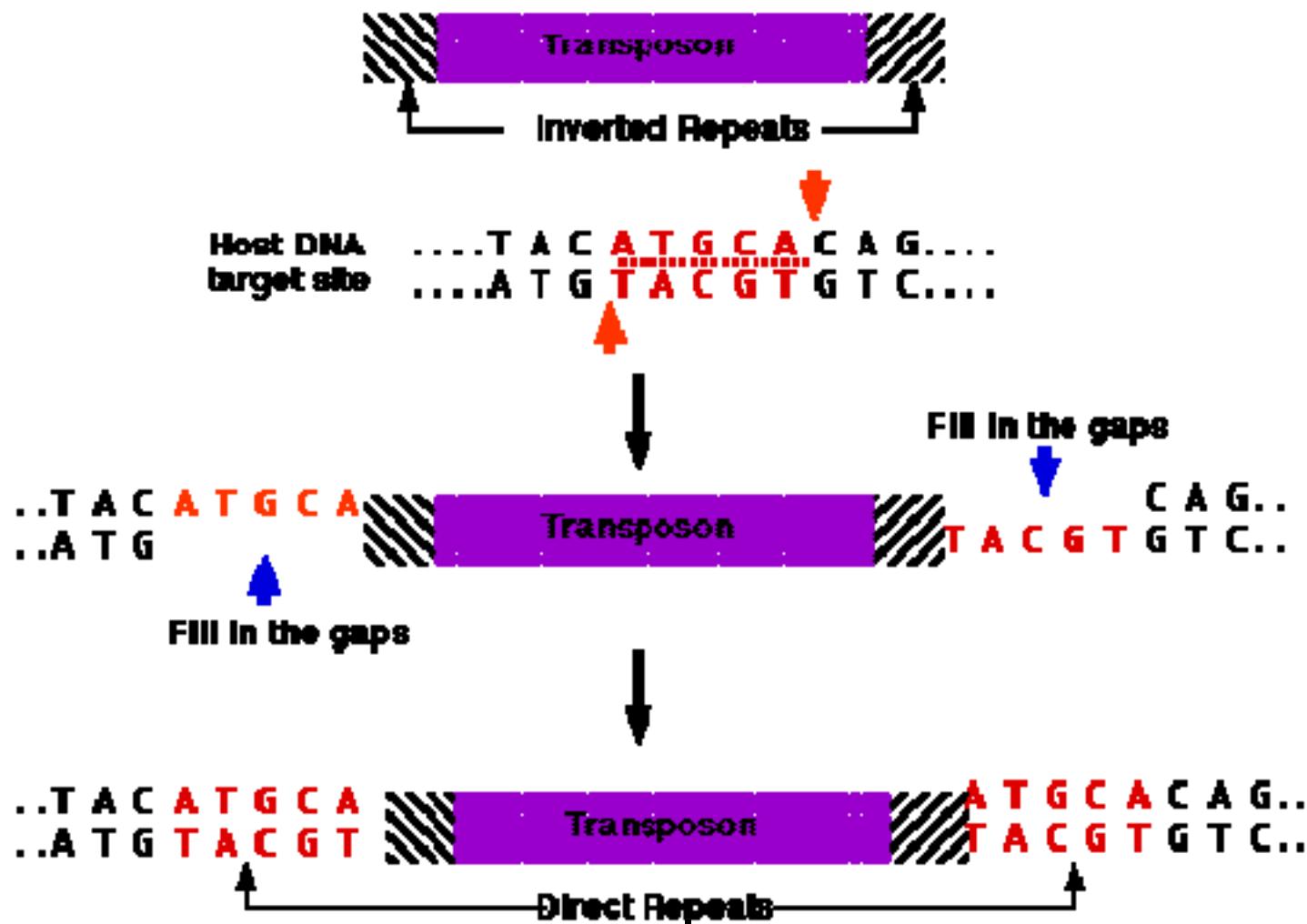


DNA-Transposons

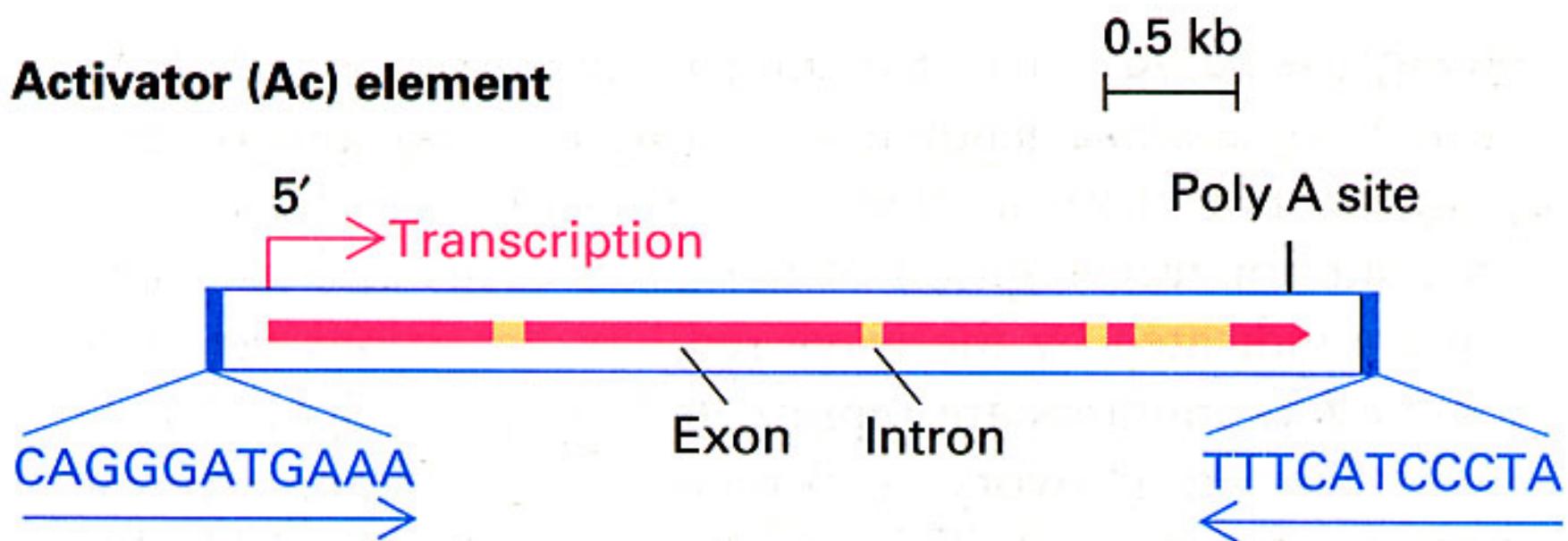


Nobel-Preis 1983

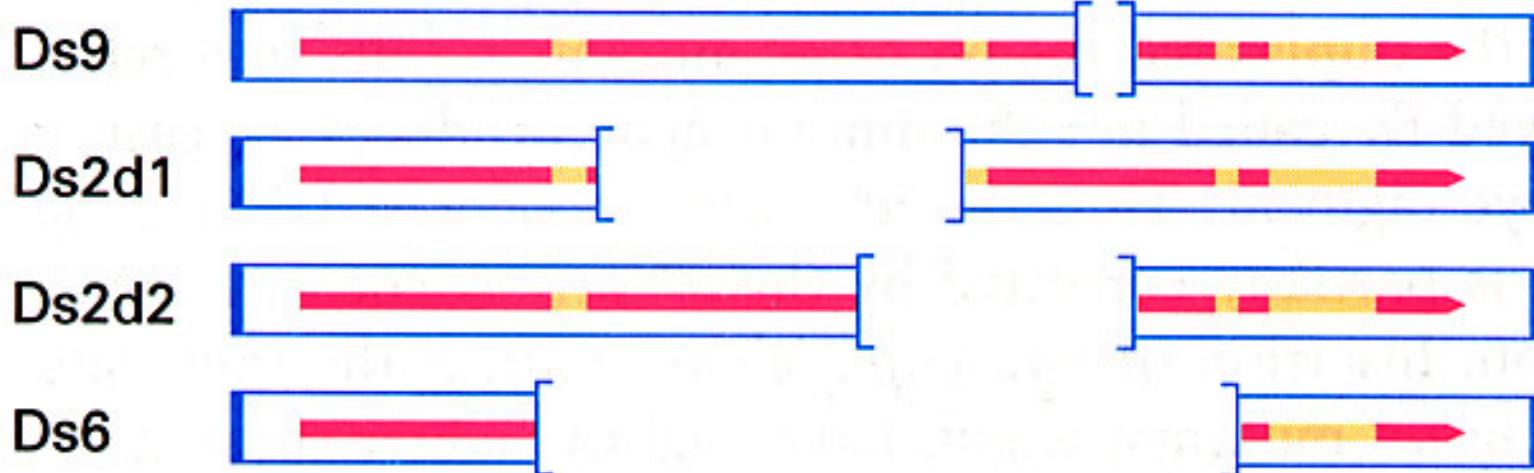
DNA-Transposons erzeugen „target site duplications“



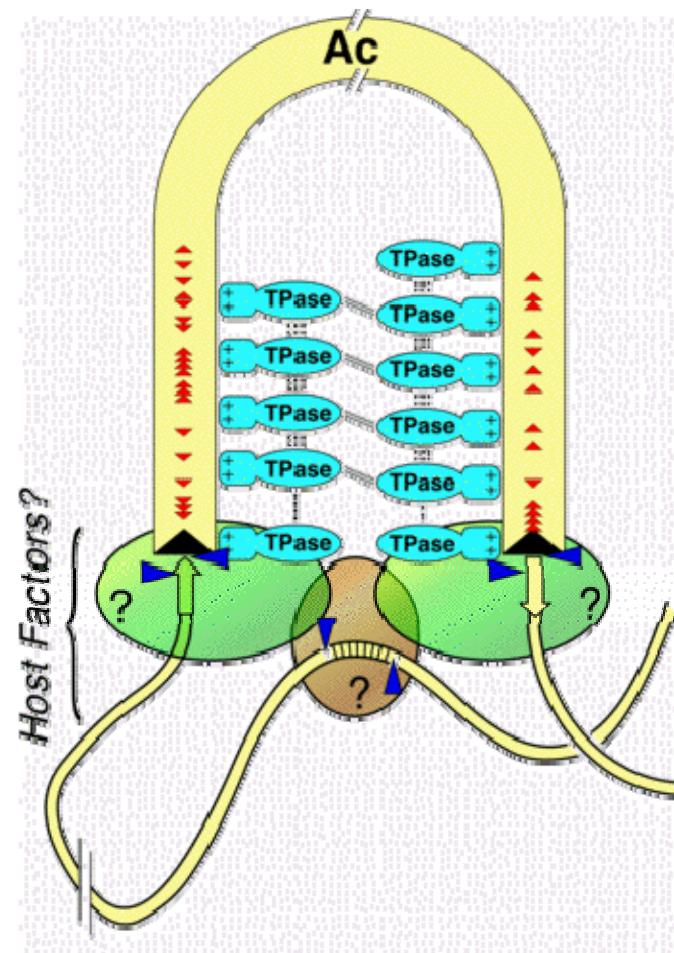
Das AC-Element besitzt eine aktive Transposase, Ds Elemente sind „nicht-autonom“



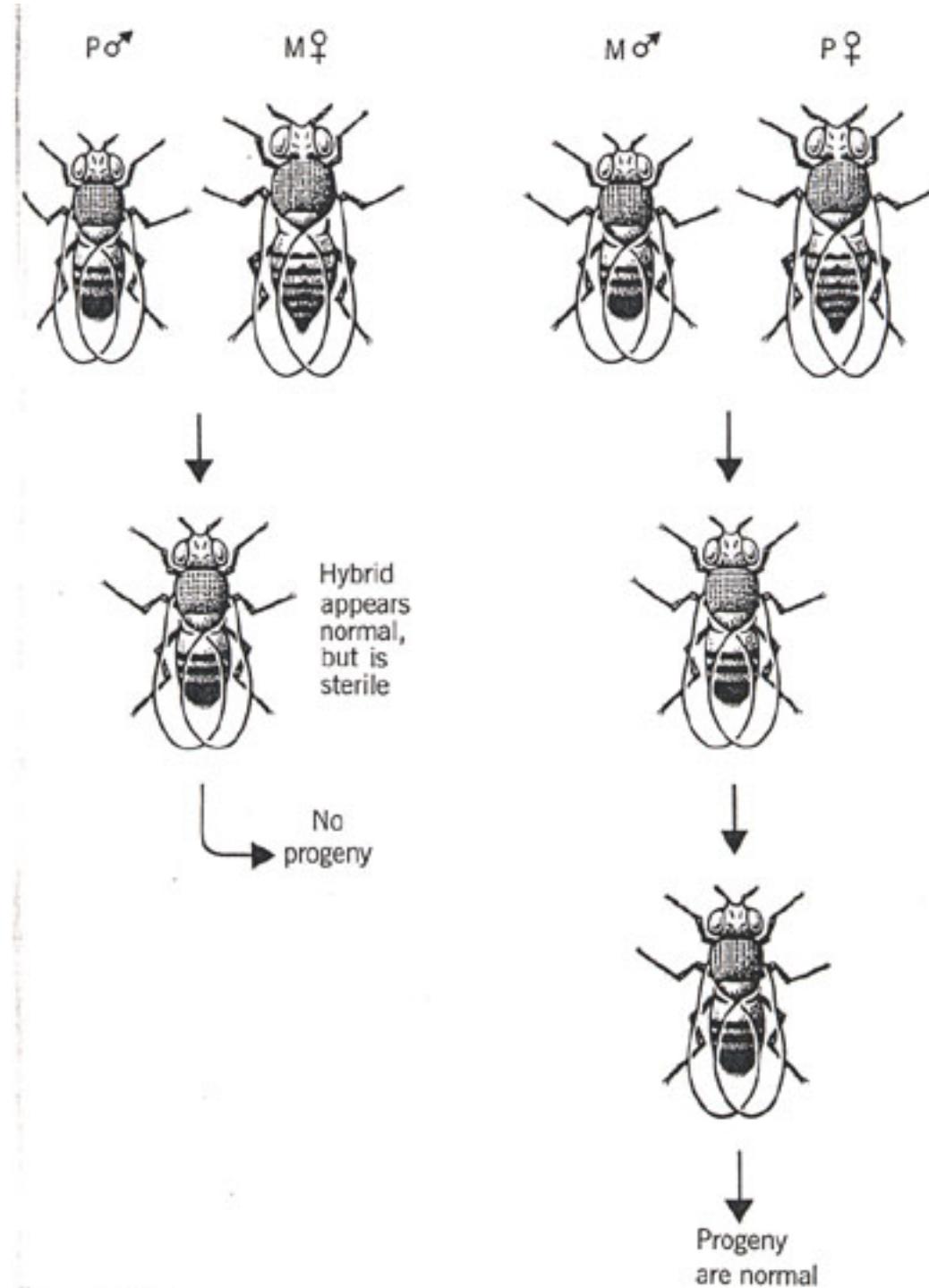
Dissociation (Ds) elements



Bei der Transposition spielen die „inverted repeats“ ein große Rolle



Die P-Elemente von
Drosophila erzeugen
„hybrid dysgenesis“



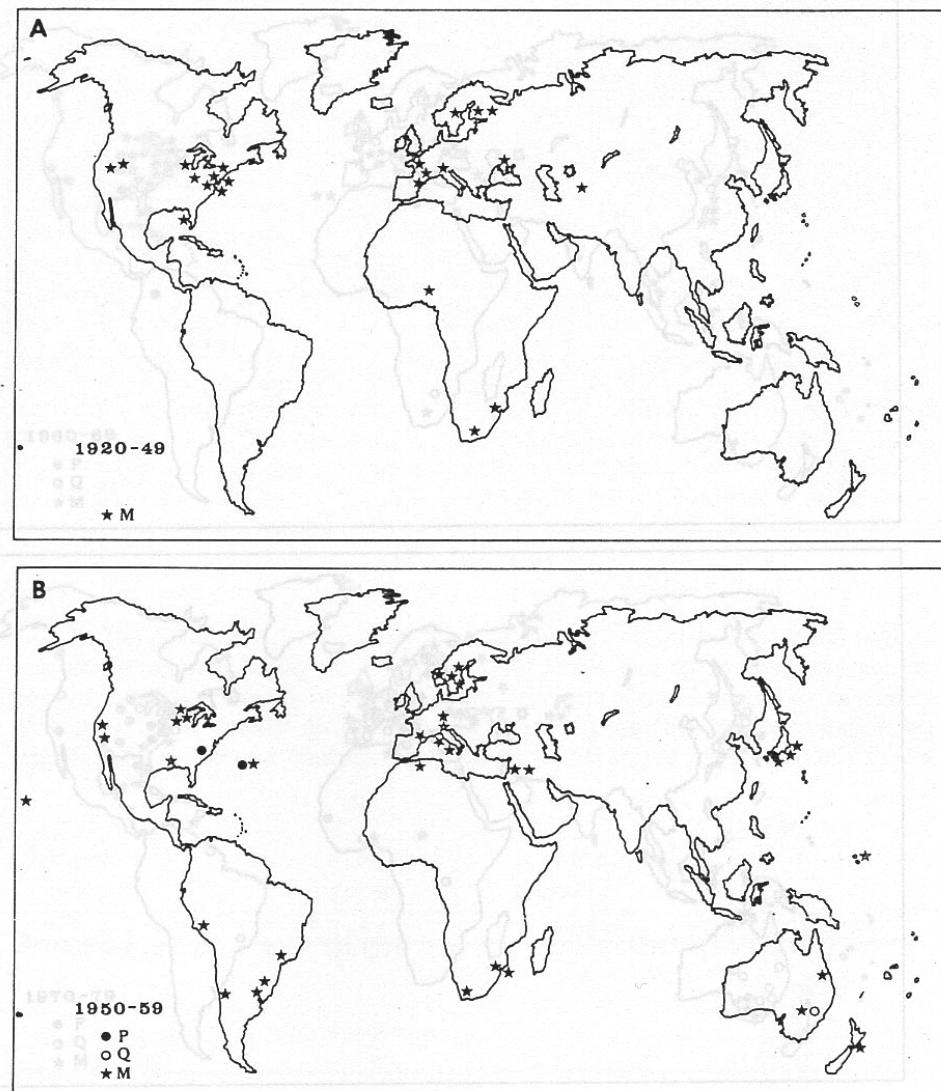


FIG. 3.—The geographical distribution of strains collected from the wild during five time periods and classified according to their cross A* phenotypic characteristics in the P-M system of hybrid dysgenesis. A, 1920–49; B, 1950–59; C, 1960–69; D, 1970–79; E, 1980–86. Strains and isofemale lines collected at the same location and having the same characteristics are represented by a single symbol.

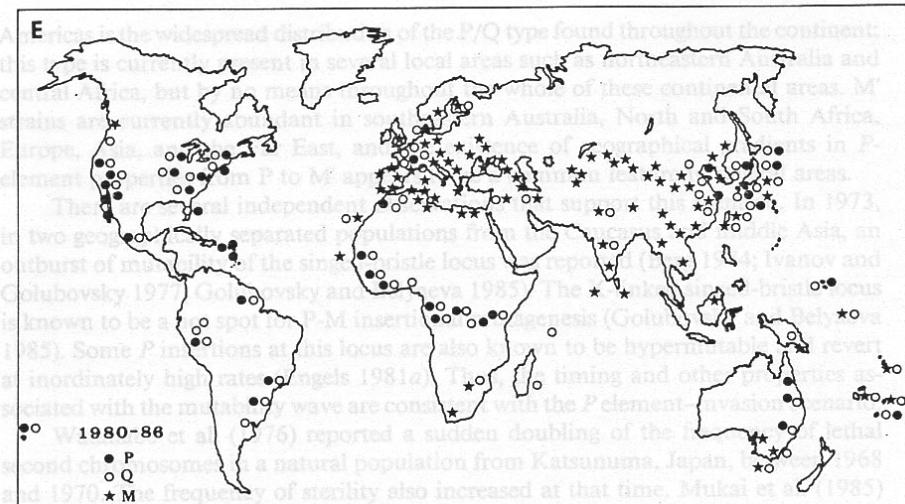


FIG. 3.—Continued.

3. The postulated *P*-element invasion of Europe and other continental regions was largely initiated during the 1960s and early 1970s, and the process may not yet be complete. The existence of isolated island reservoirs of true M populations cannot be excluded. The current distribution of *P*-element properties in other continental regions differs in several important respects from that in the Americas. Only in the

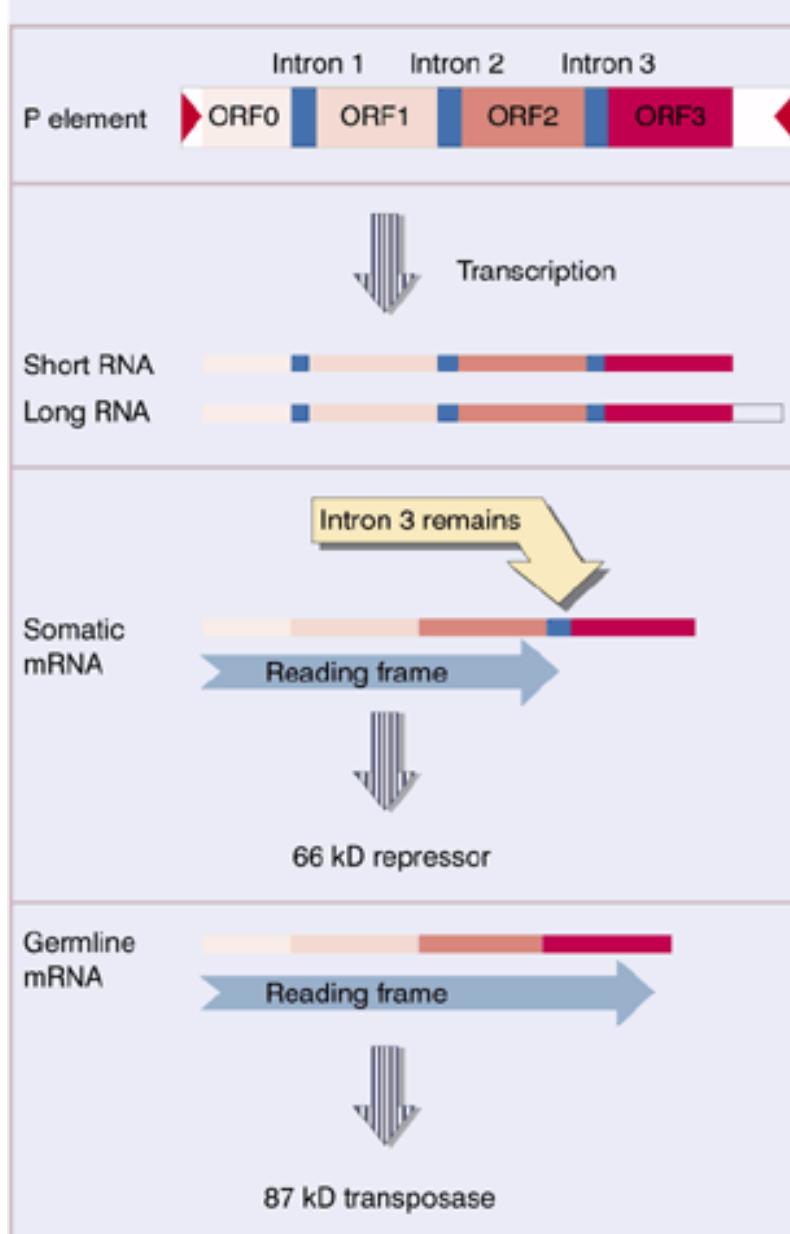
decade. Also, perusal of tables 2 and 3 of the present report shows that strong P strains also tend to be restricted to the late 1960s and early 1970s in France and the USSR, at approximately the time when the postulated multistep P (Demerec 1974) was at its peak.

One of the most difficult unanswered questions concerning the invasion by *P* elements during quiescent periods is the mechanism(s) by which different geographical regions could have arisen. The difficulty appears to be due to current ignorance about the detailed molecular mechanisms that regulate *A* and *M* transposition. The recent work of H. Robertson and W. R. Engels (personal communication) and France et al. (1987) has shown that the molecular mechanism of *P* element transposition originally proposed that *P*-element regulation is always closely associated with the development of a cellular state called *P* cytotype (Engels 1979, 1981a). This hypothesis is dependent on the presence of *P* factors in the genome (Sved 1987). The molecular basis of *P* cytotypes is not clearly understood; the two-component model proposed by Robertson and W. R. Engels (personal communication) has been proposed by

Rubin (1987) to explain the formation of *P* cytotypes.

Die P- Elemente von Drosophila:

Figure 15.26 The P element has four exons. The first three are spliced together in somatic expression; all four are spliced together in germline expression.



Die P-Elemente von Drosophila:

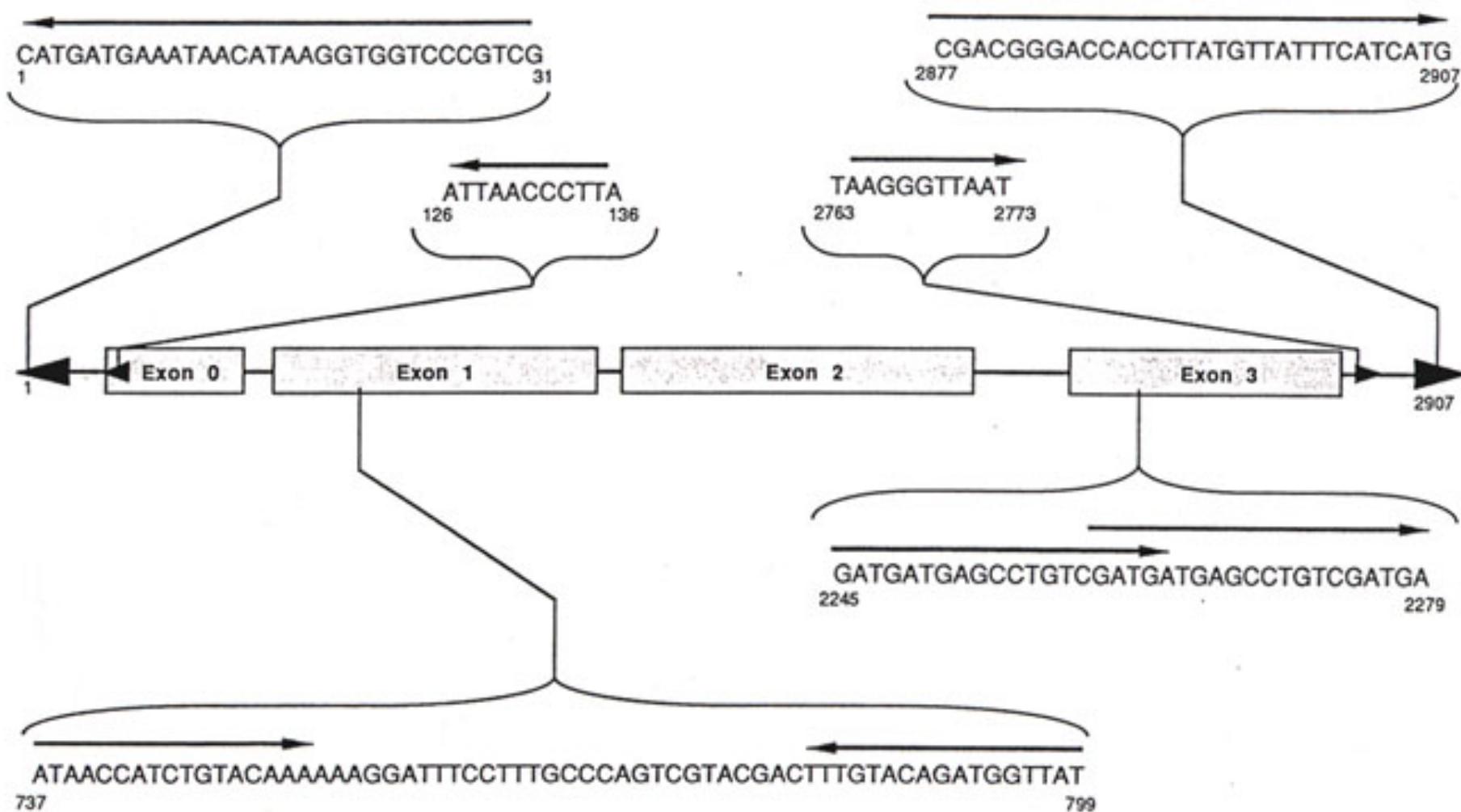
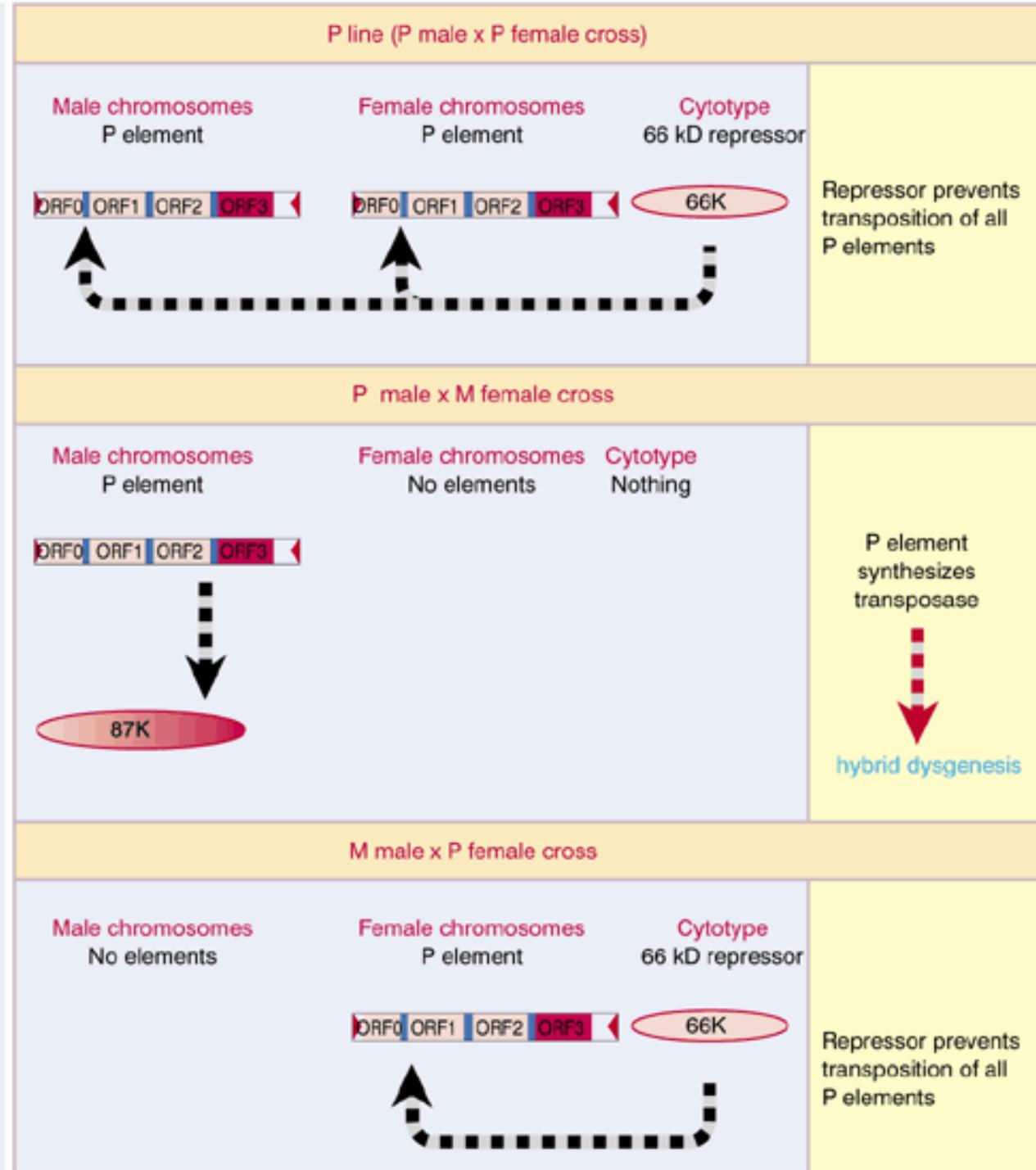


Figure 3. The complete P element and its repeat structures. The sequence was obtained by O'Hare and Rubin (155).

Figure 15.27 Hybrid dysgenesis is determined by the interactions between P elements in the genome and 66 kD repressor in the cytoype.

Die
„hybrid dysgenesis“
Ist die Folge von einem
Wechselspiel von
aktiver Transposase
In Keimzellen von P-freien
Tieren und dem Repressor
In P-haltigen Tieren

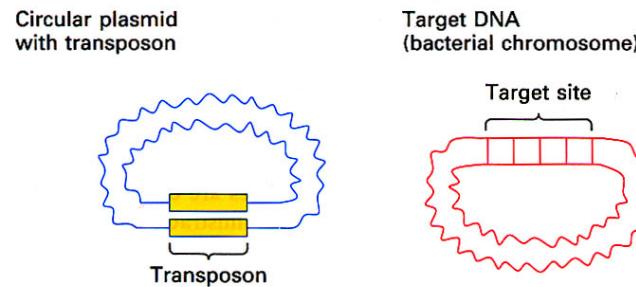


DNA-Transposons beim Menschen

Table 11 Number of copies and fraction of genome for classes of interspersed repeat

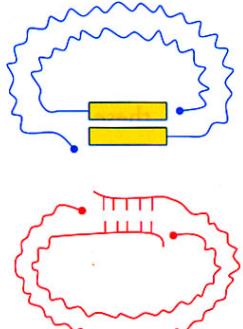
	Number of copies (x 1,000)	Total number of bases in the draft genome	Fraction of the draft genome sequence (%)	Number of families (subfamilies)
DNA elements	294	77.6	2.84	
hAT group				
MER1-Charlie	182	38.1	1.39	25 (50)
Zaphod	13	4.3	0.16	4 (10)
Tc-1 group				
MER2-Tigger	57	28.0	1.02	12 (28)
Tc2	4	0.9	0.03	1 (5)
Mariner	14	2.6	0.10	4 (5)
PiggyBac-like	2	0.5	0.02	10 (20)
Unclassified	22	3.2	0.12	7 (7)

Mechanismus der replikativen Transpososition

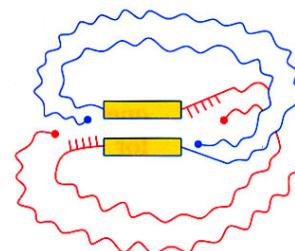


◀ **Figure 10-24** Proposed model for duplication and integration of a bacterial transposon and a circular recipient chromosome (*top*). This process results in two copies of the transposon, one inserted at the target site in the recipient chromosome with a target site duplication of five bases. [See J. Shapiro, 1979, *Proc. Nat'l Acad. Sci. USA* 76:1933; K. Mizuuchi, 1983, *Cell* 35:785.]

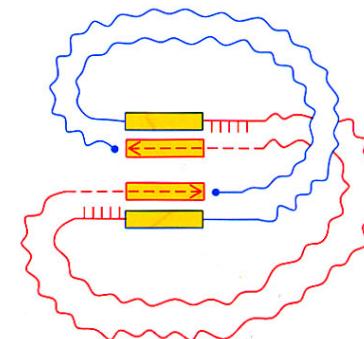
(a) Staggered cuts are made at ends of transposon and target site



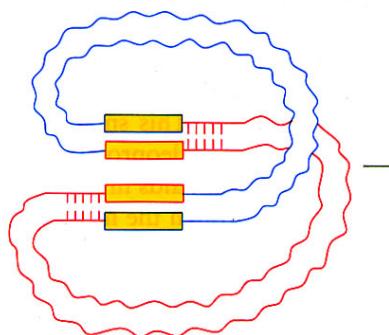
(b) Strand transfer occurs between 3' ends of transposon and 5' ends of target DNA



(c) Copying of transposon begins at free 3' ends of target DNA, beginning with duplication of target site



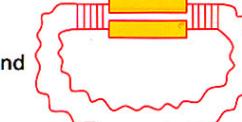
(d) Completion of replication yields cointegrate containing plasmid DNA, target DNA, and two copies of transposon. Cointegrate is resolved by site-specific recombination.



Circular plasmid with transposon

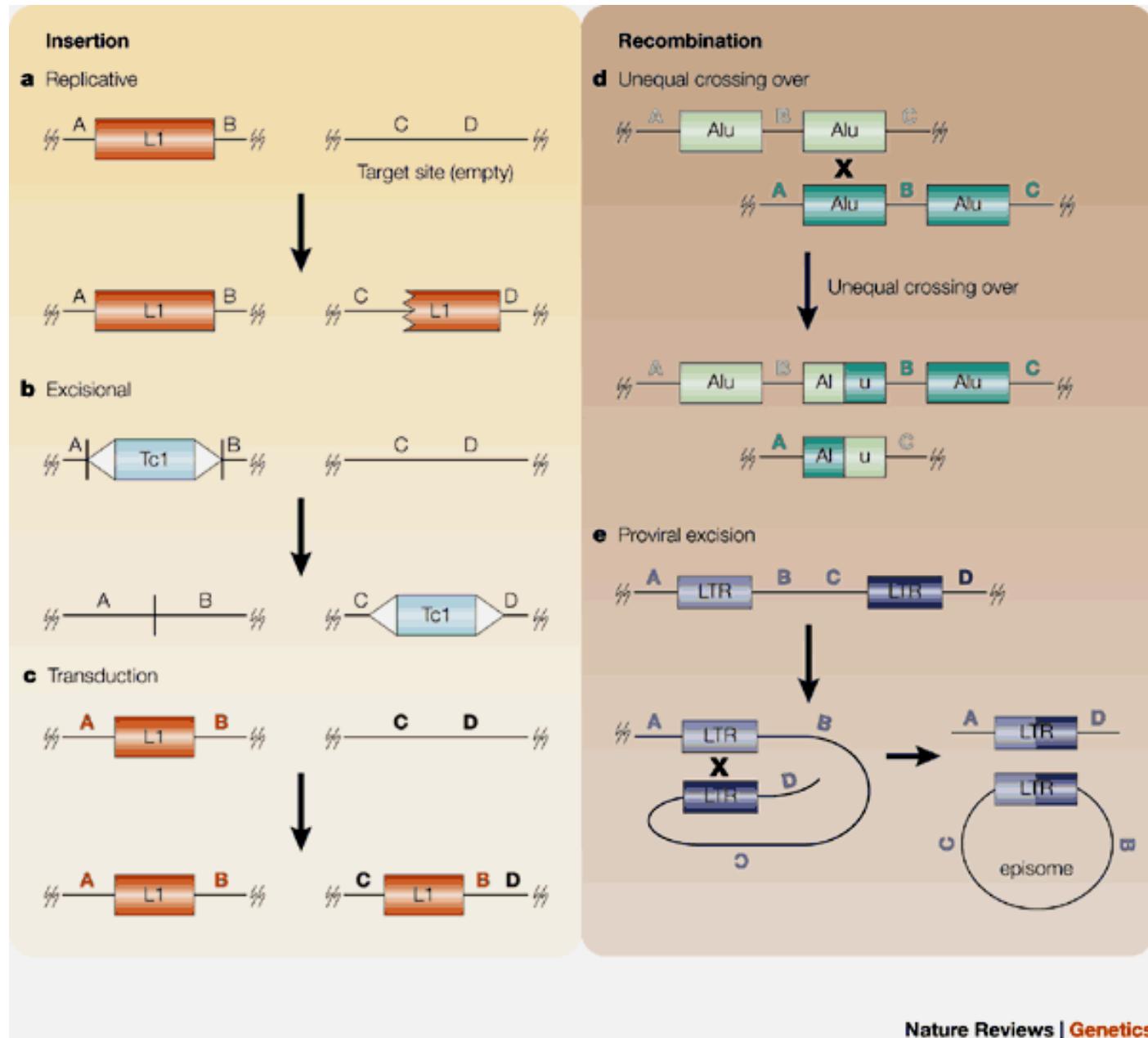


Target DNA with copy of transposon inserted between duplicated target sites

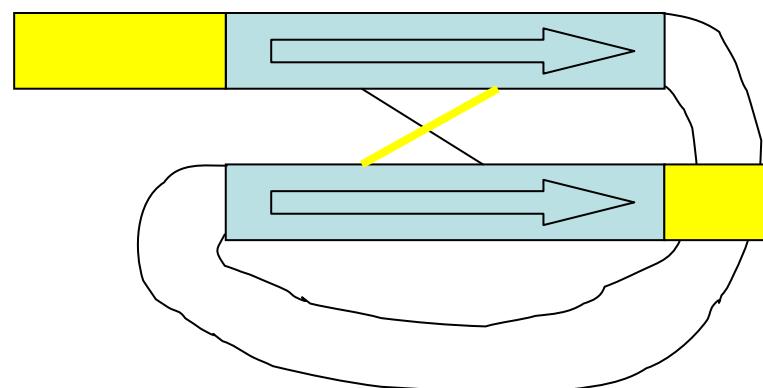
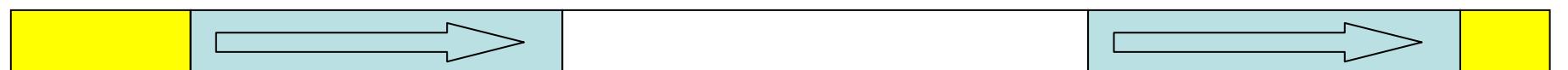


Yields

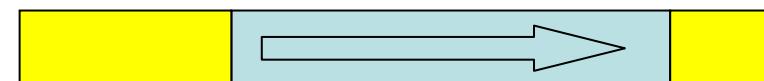
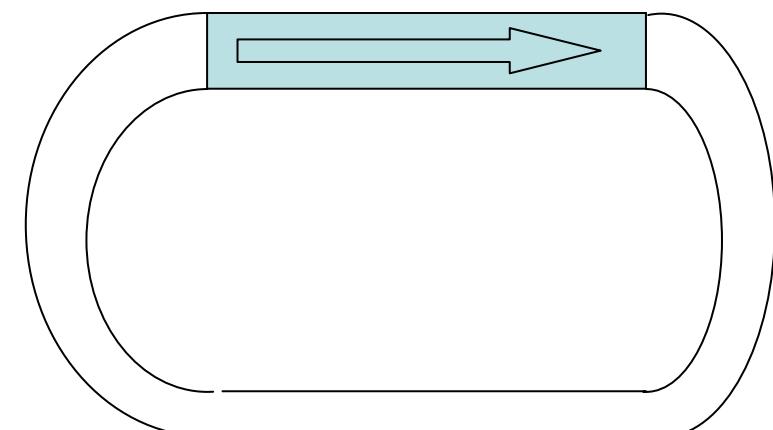
Vermehrung und Transposition von repetitiven Elementen



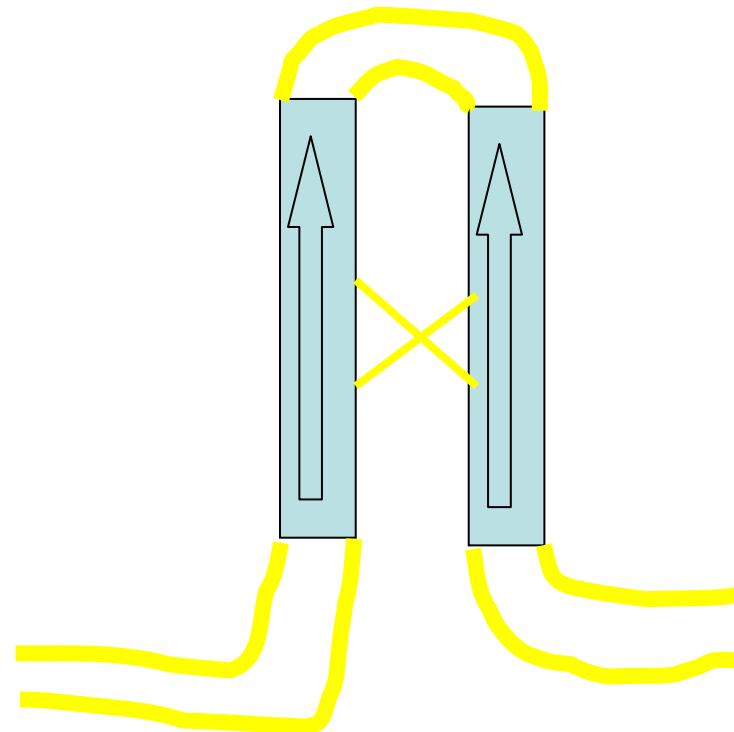
Interspergerte repetitive Elemente können Inversionen und Deletionen erzeugen



Ergebnis:



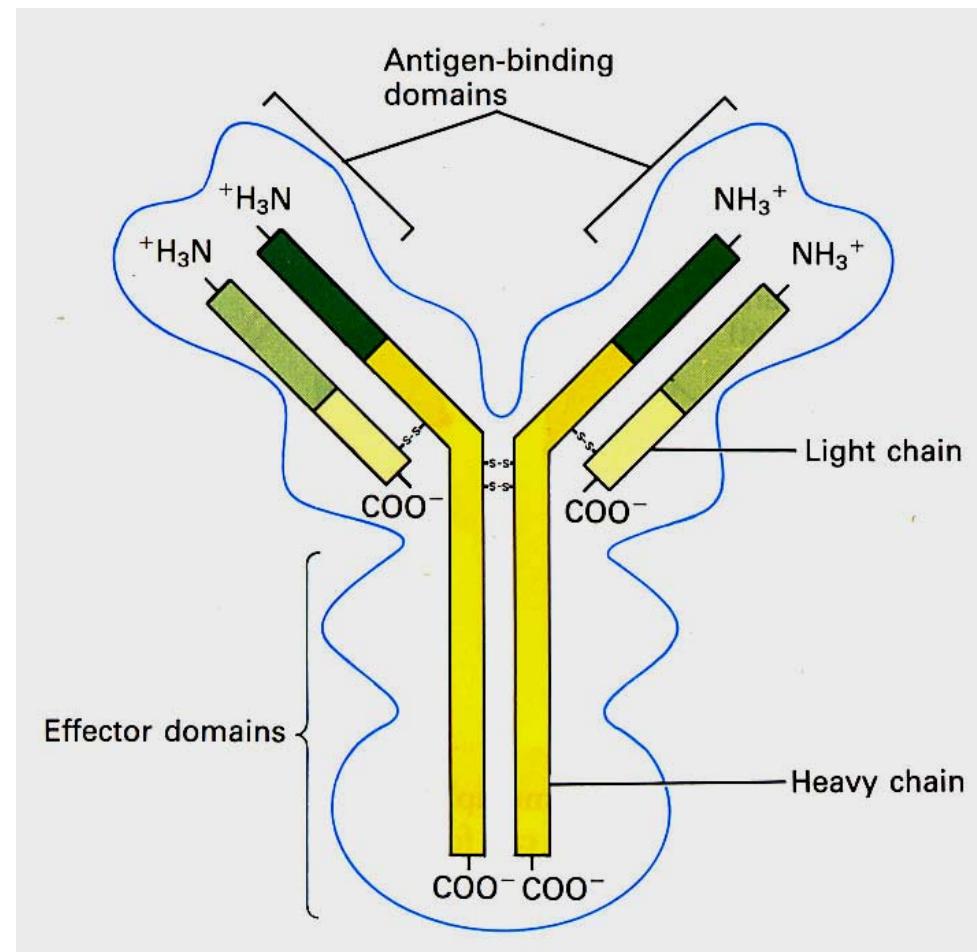
Interspergierte repetitive Elemente können Inversionen und Deletionen erzeugen



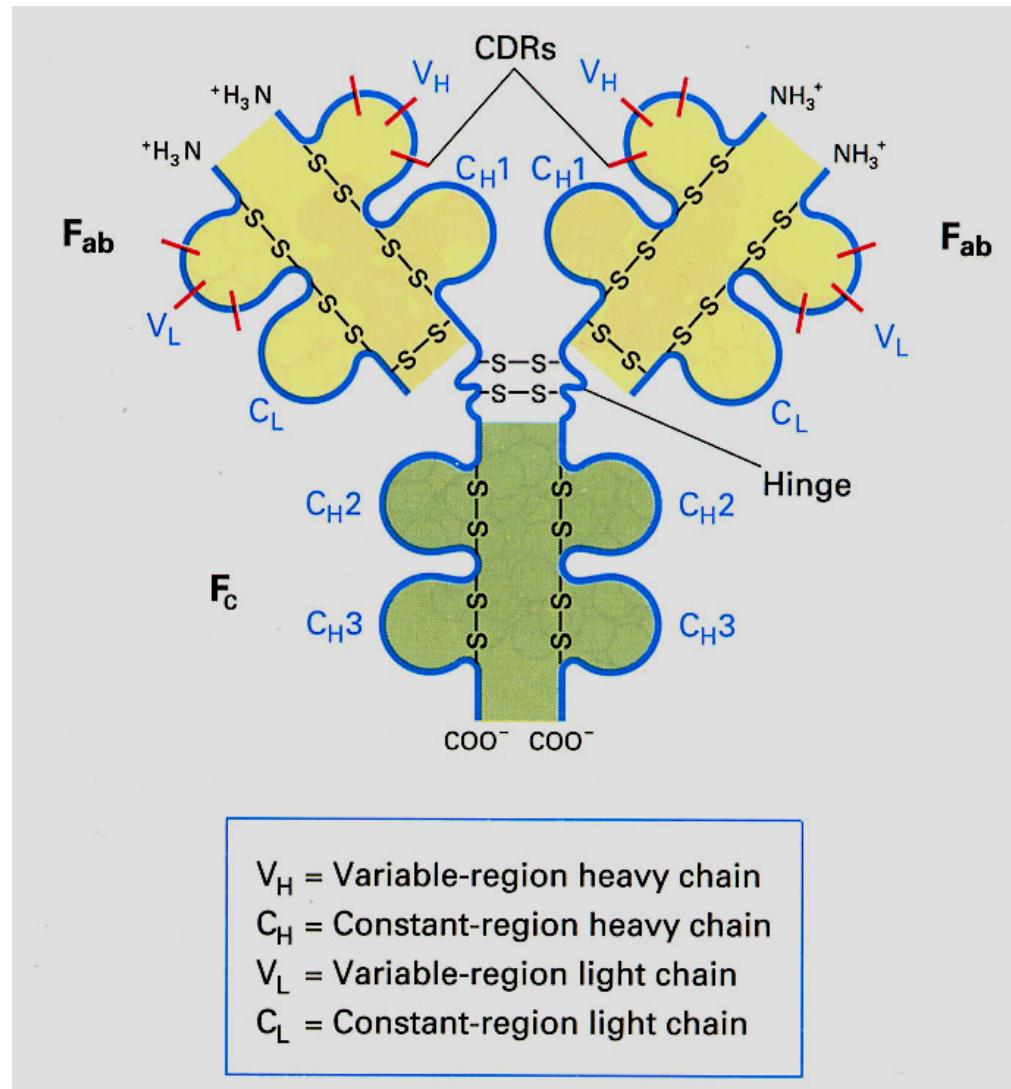
Ergebnis:



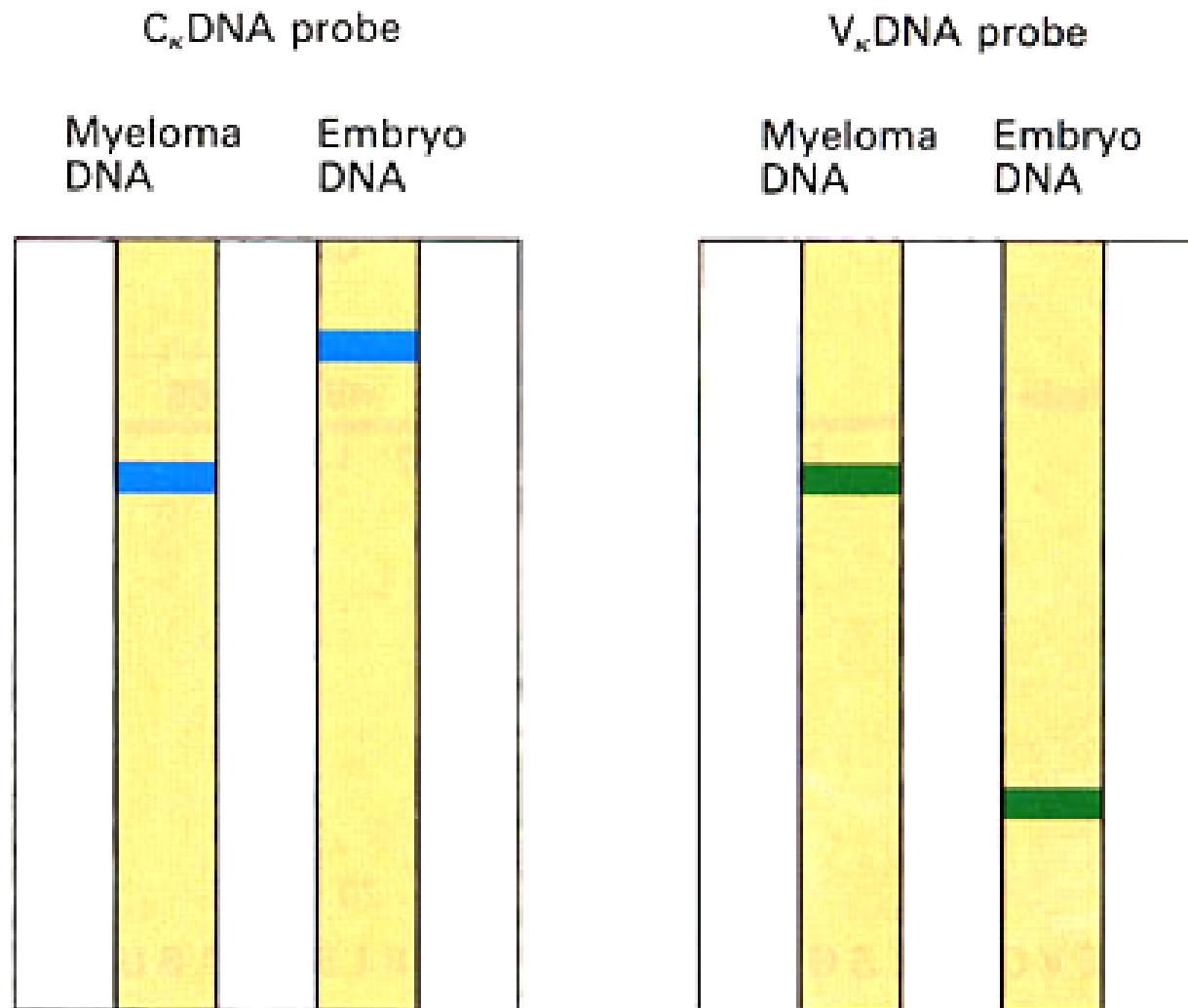
Die Variabilität der Immunglobuline:



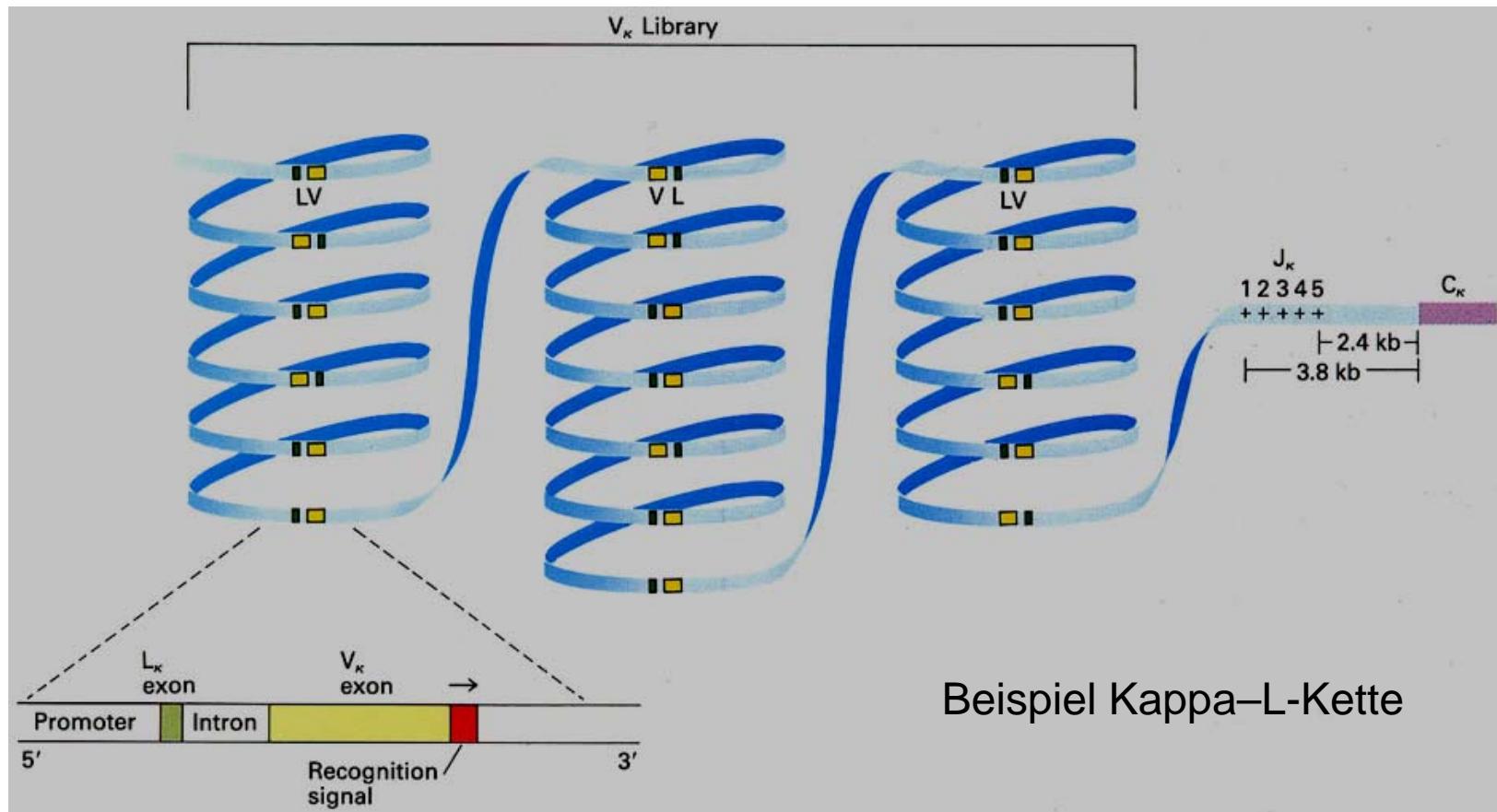
Die Immunglobuline bestehen aus zwei Ketten, L und H, die über Disulfidbrücken verknüpft sind



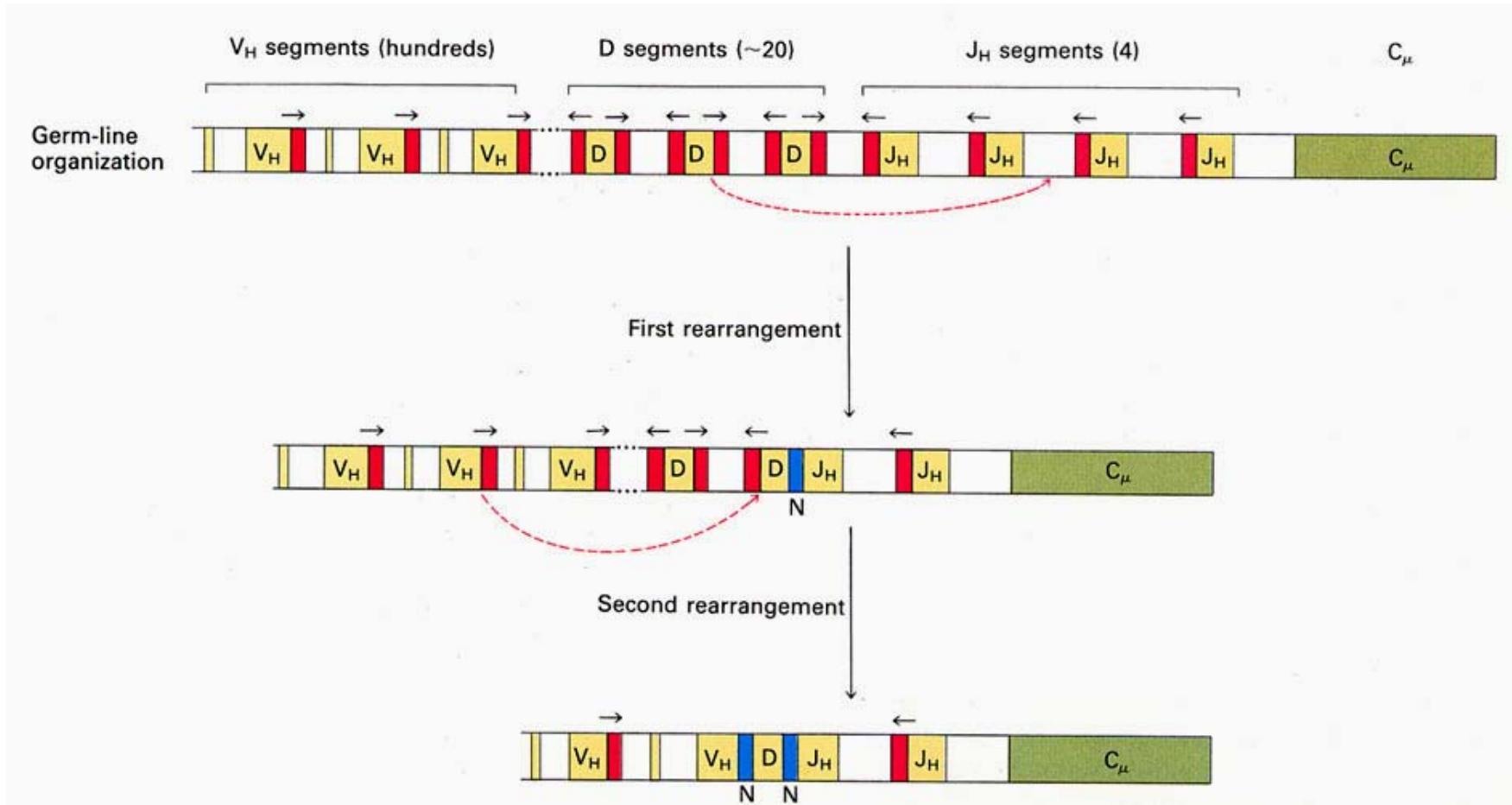
Die Variabilität der Antikörper wird durch „Rearrangements“ der Genteile während der Immunzellenreifung erzeugt: die Southern-Analyse zeigt Unterschiede zwischen Embryo und „reifen“ Immunzellen



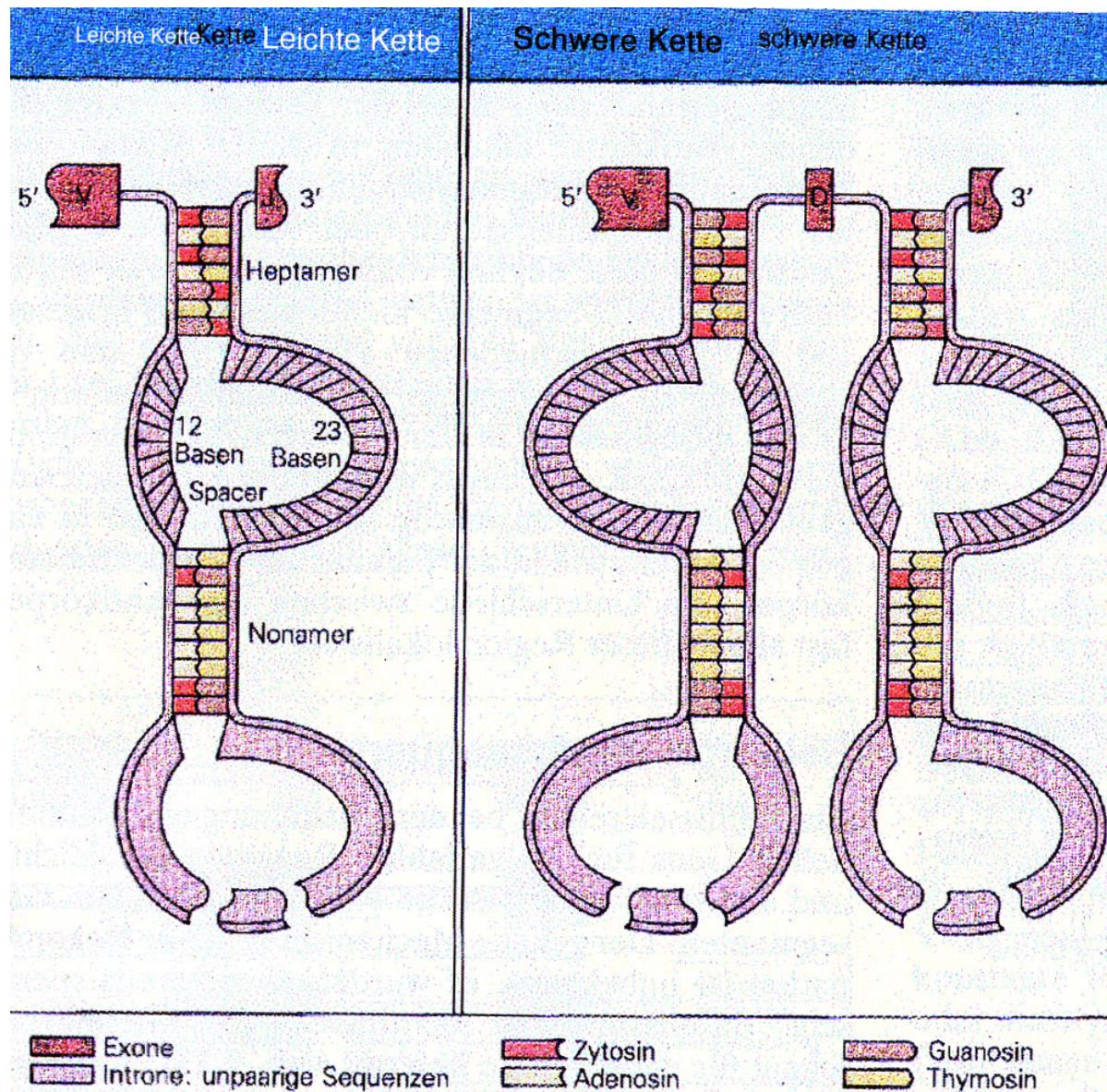
Die Gene für Immunglobuline bestehen aus verschiedenen Teilen, die in den Chromosomen nicht unmittelbar zusammen liegen



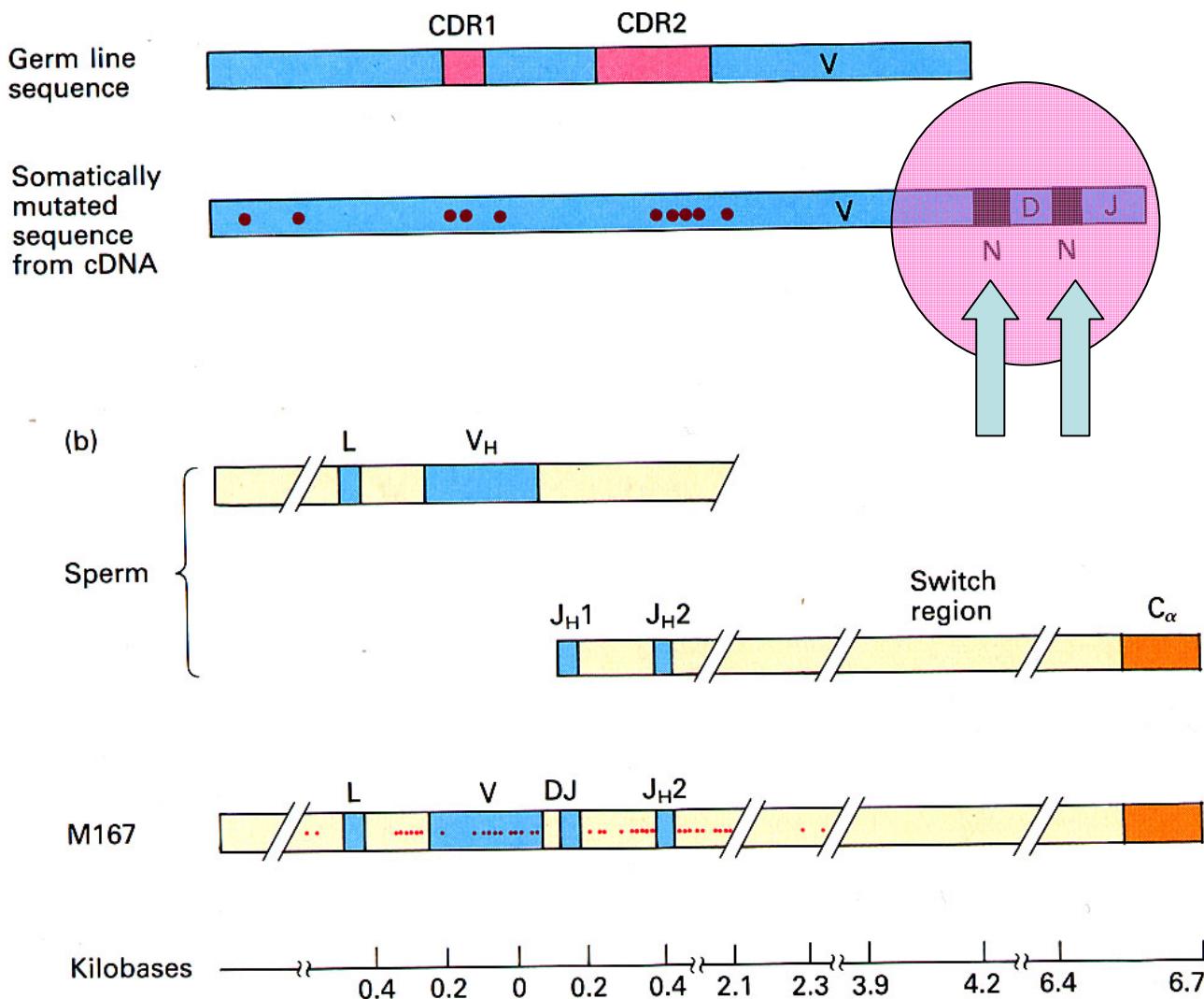
Beim „Rearrangement“ werden jeweils einzelne der Genteile „rekombiniert“



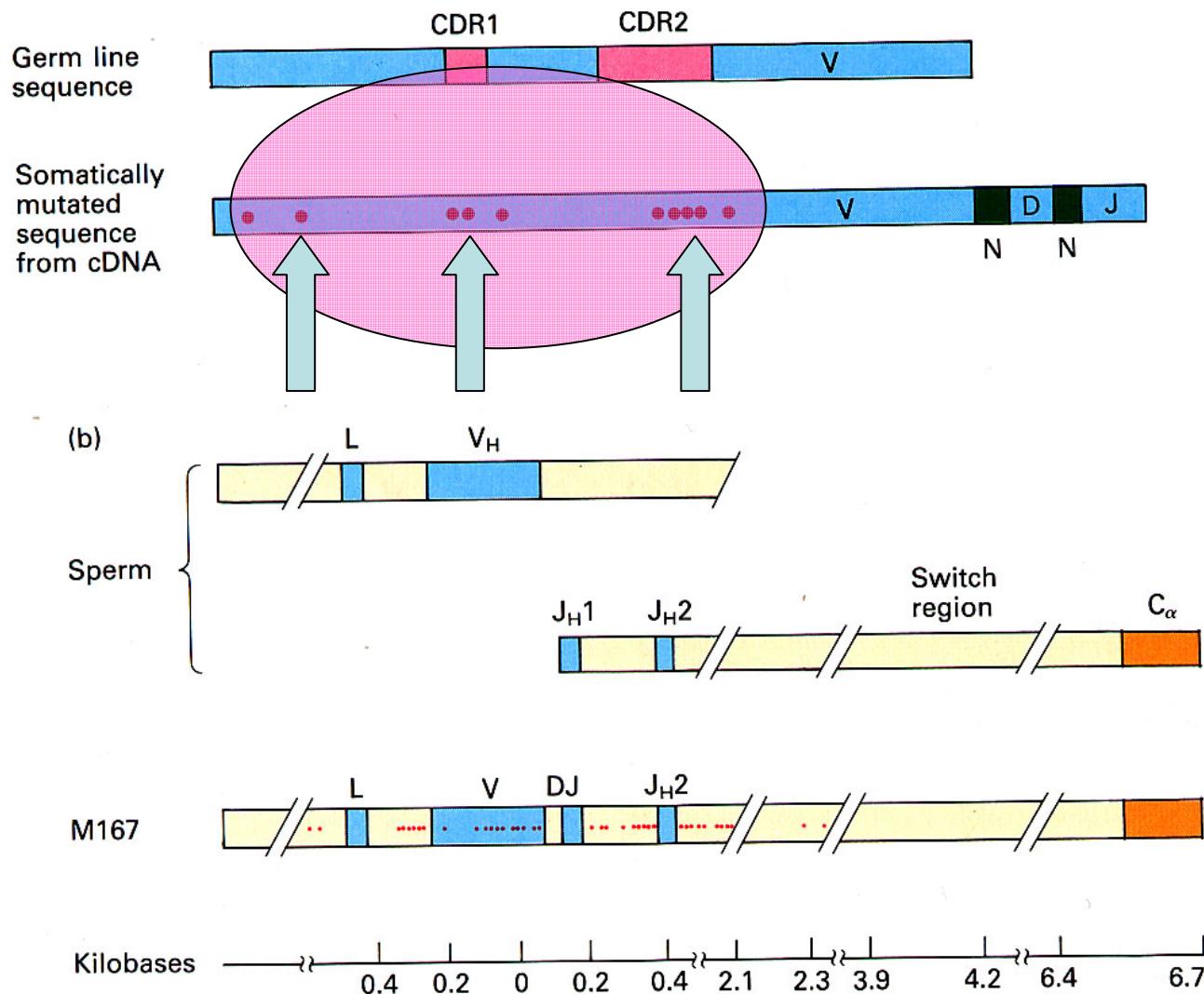
Die Rekombination wird vermittelt durch die „Rekombinationssequenz“ am Ende der Genteile



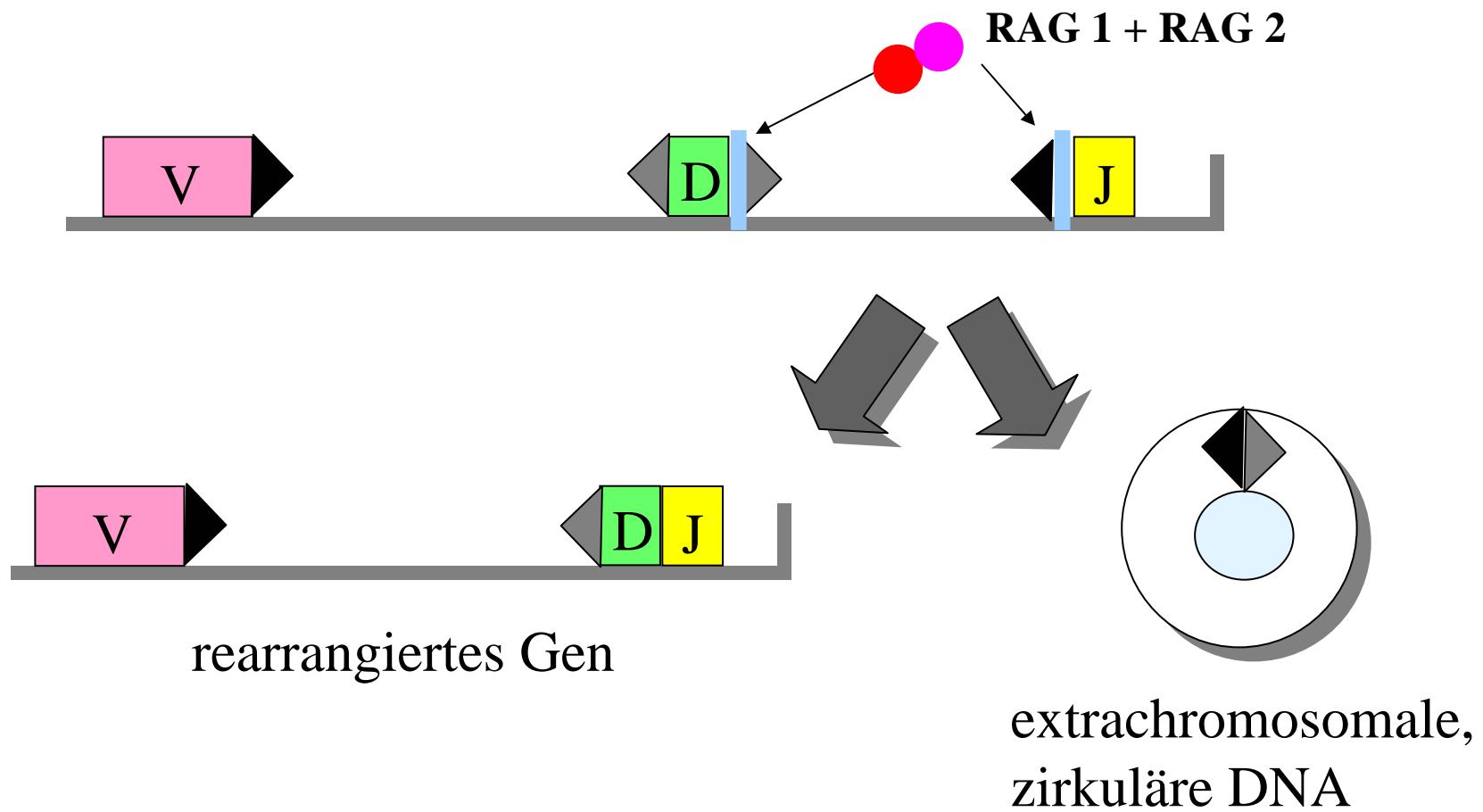
Bei der VDJ- Rekombination werden noch zusätzlich Nukleotide von der terminalen Nukleotidyltransferase Basen eingefügt,



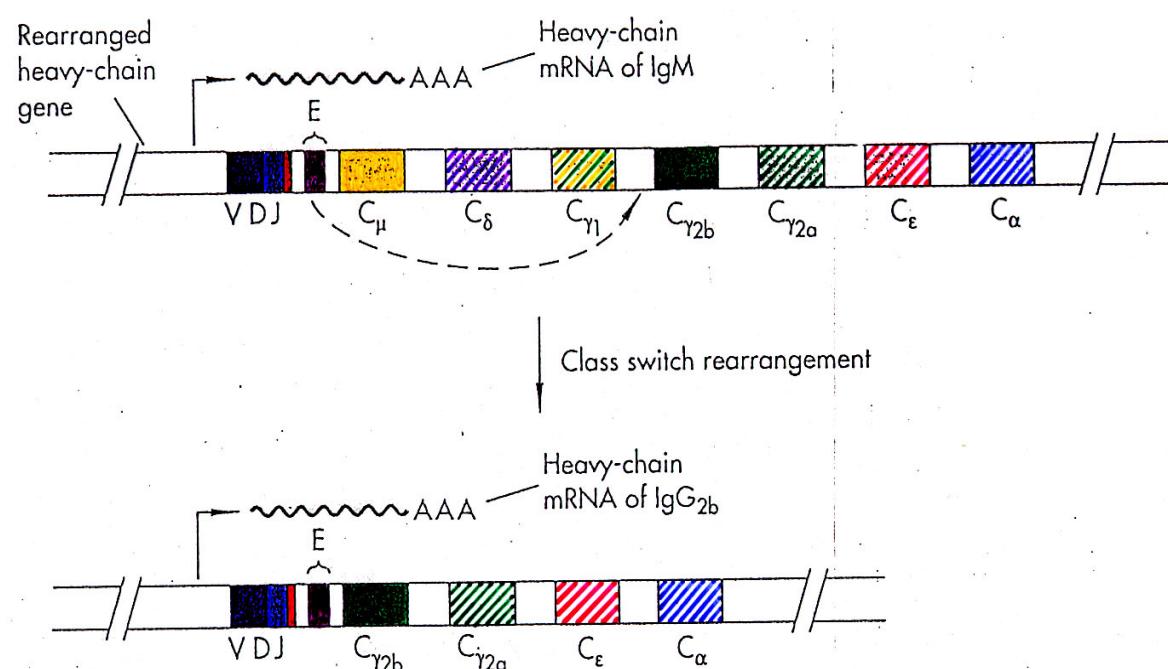
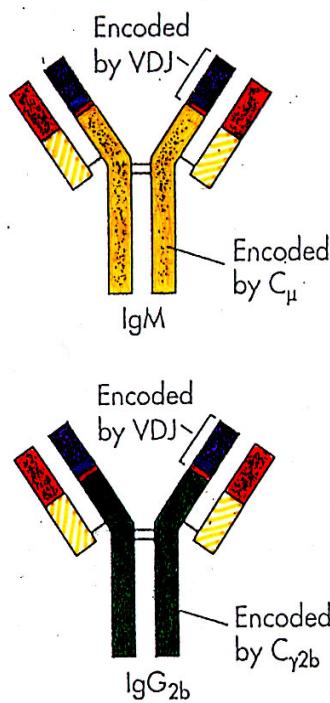
Bei der VDJ- Rekombination entstehen außerdem „somaticische Mutationen“



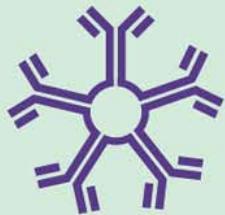
Molekulares Geschehen bei der V-D-J-Rekombination /



Es gibt zusätzlich verschiedene Antikörperklassen.
Die Klasse wird durch die C-Region bestimmt



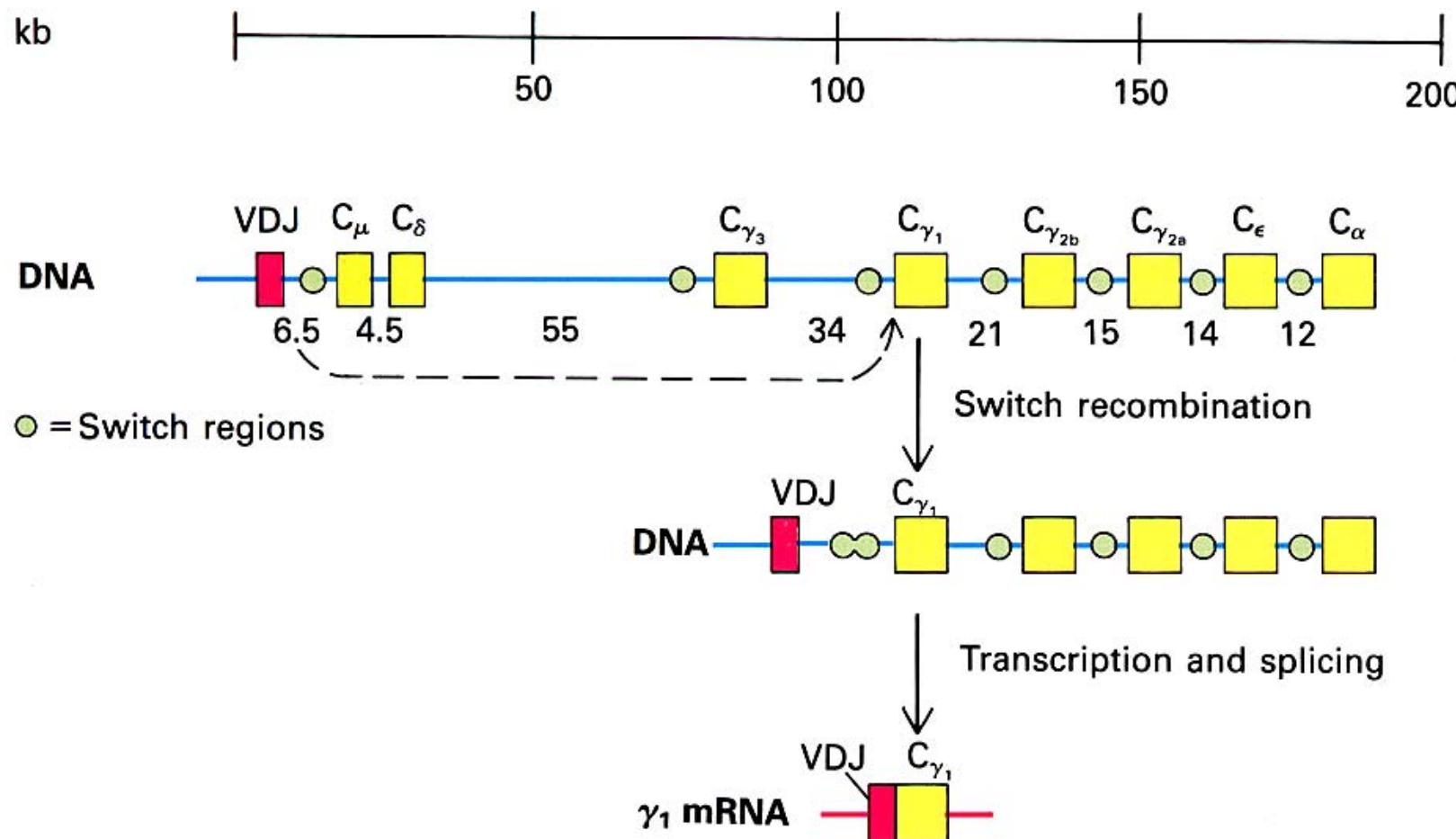
18.3 Antibody Classes (Part 1)

CLASS	GENERAL STRUCTURE	LOCATION	FUNCTION	
IgG	Monomer		Free in plasma; about 80 percent of circulating antibodies	Most abundant antibody in primary and secondary responses; crosses placenta and provides passive immunization to fetus
IgM	Pentamer		Surface of B cell; free in plasma	Antigen receptor on B cell membrane; first class of antibodies released by B cells during primary response
IgD	Monomer		Surface of B cell	Cell surface receptor of mature B cell; important in B cell activation

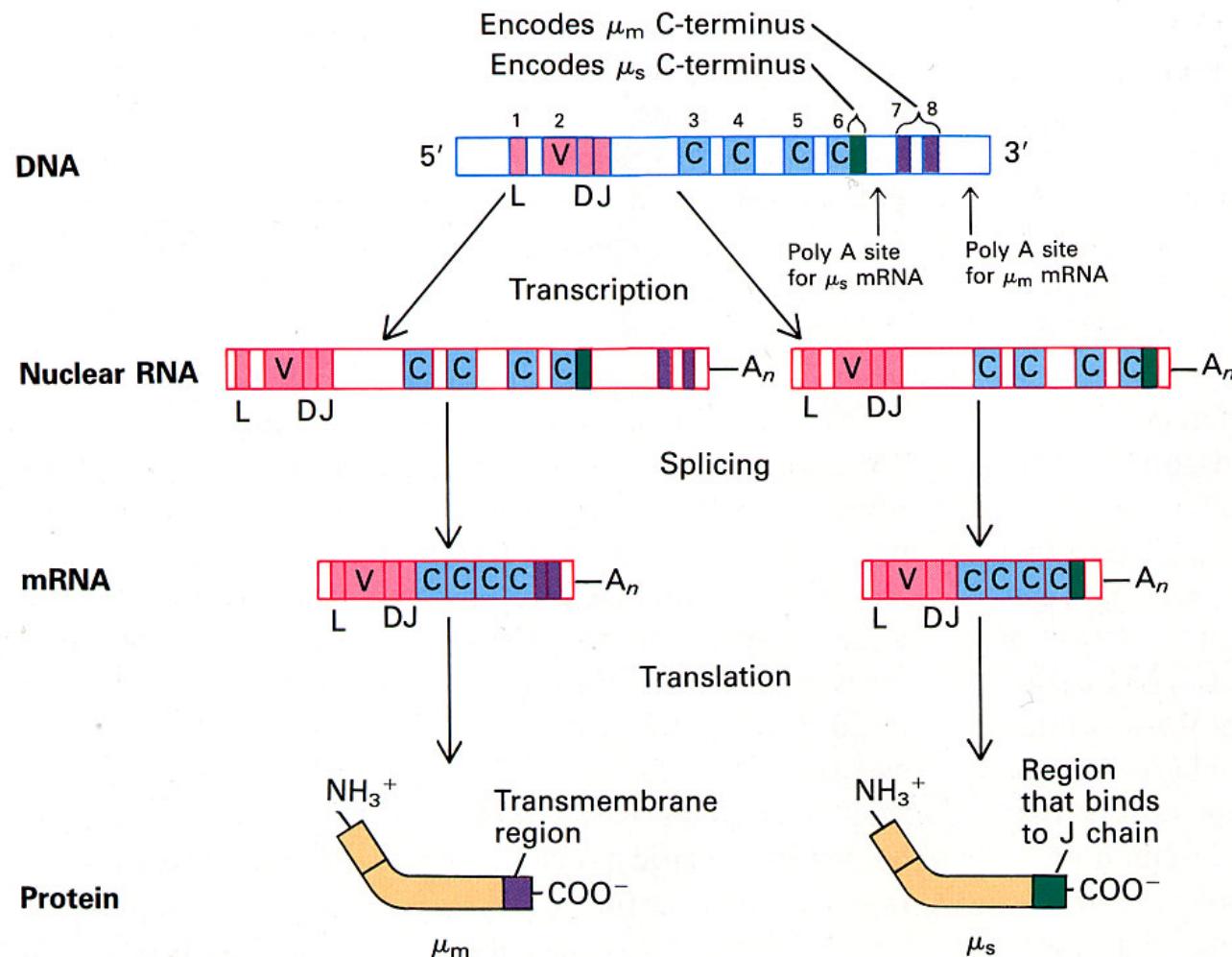
18.3 Antibody Classes (Part 1)

CLASS	GENERAL STRUCTURE	LOCATION	FUNCTION
IgG	Monomer		Free in plasma; about 80 percent of circulating antibodies Most abundant antibody in primary and secondary responses; crosses placenta and provides passive immunization to fetus
IgM	Pentamer		Surface of B cell; free in plasma Antigen receptor on B cell membrane; first class of antibodies released by B cells during primary response
IgD	Monomer		Surface of B cell Cell surface receptor of mature B cell; important in B cell activation
IgA	Dimer		Monomer found in plasma; polymers in saliva, tears, milk, and other body secretions Protects mucosal surfaces; prevents attachment of pathogens to epithelial cells
IgE	Monomer		Secreted by plasma cells in skin and tissues lining gastrointestinal and respiratory tracts Found on mast cells and basophils; when bound to antigens, triggers release of histamine from mast cell or basophil that contributes to inflammation and some allergic responses

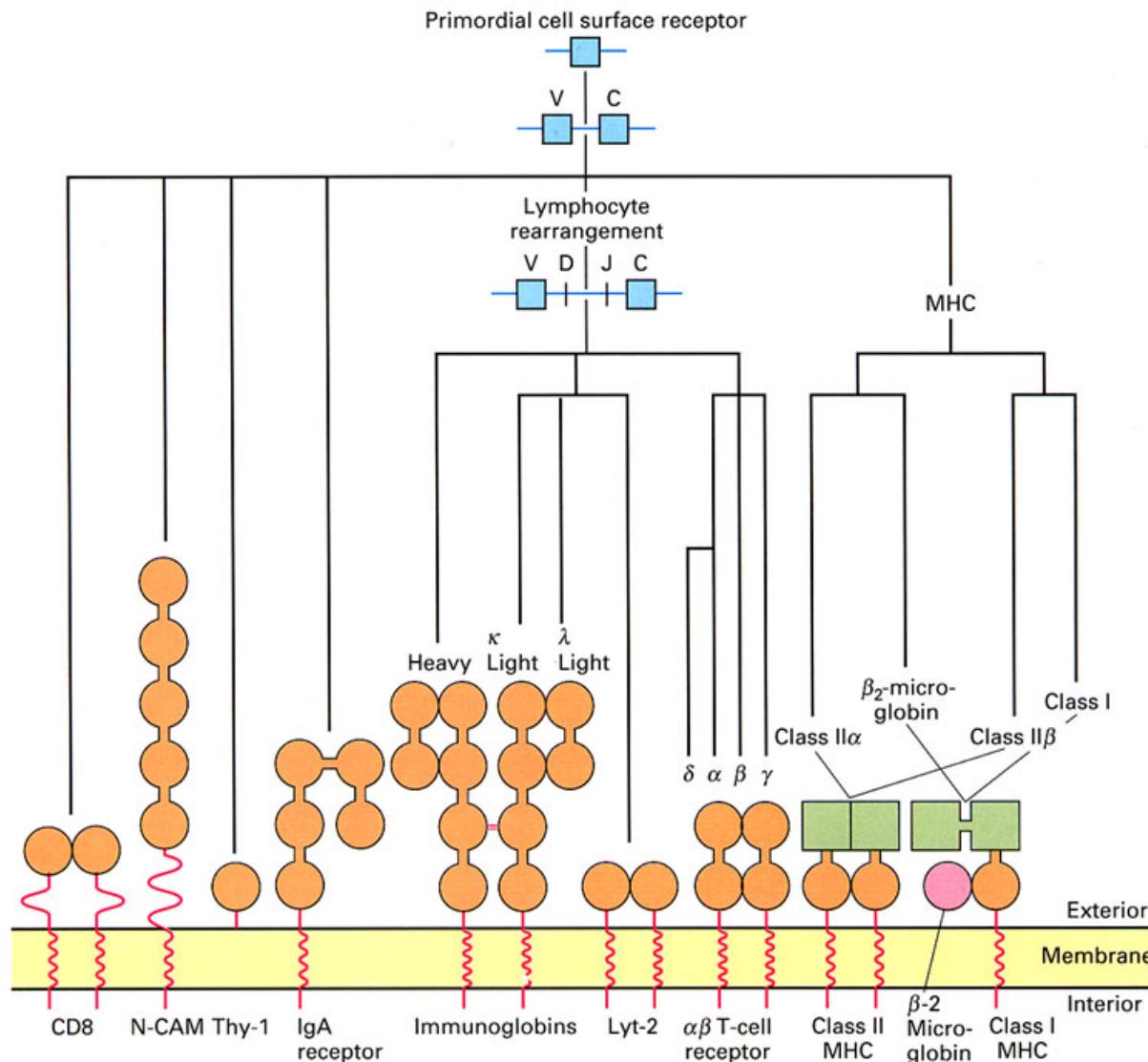
Der Antikörper “switch“ erfolgt durch Rekombination zwischen verschiedenen C-Abschnitten in der „switch“-Region



Durch Verwendung unterschiedlicher Polyadenylierungsstellen kann entweder die lösliche oder die membranständige Form erzeugt werden

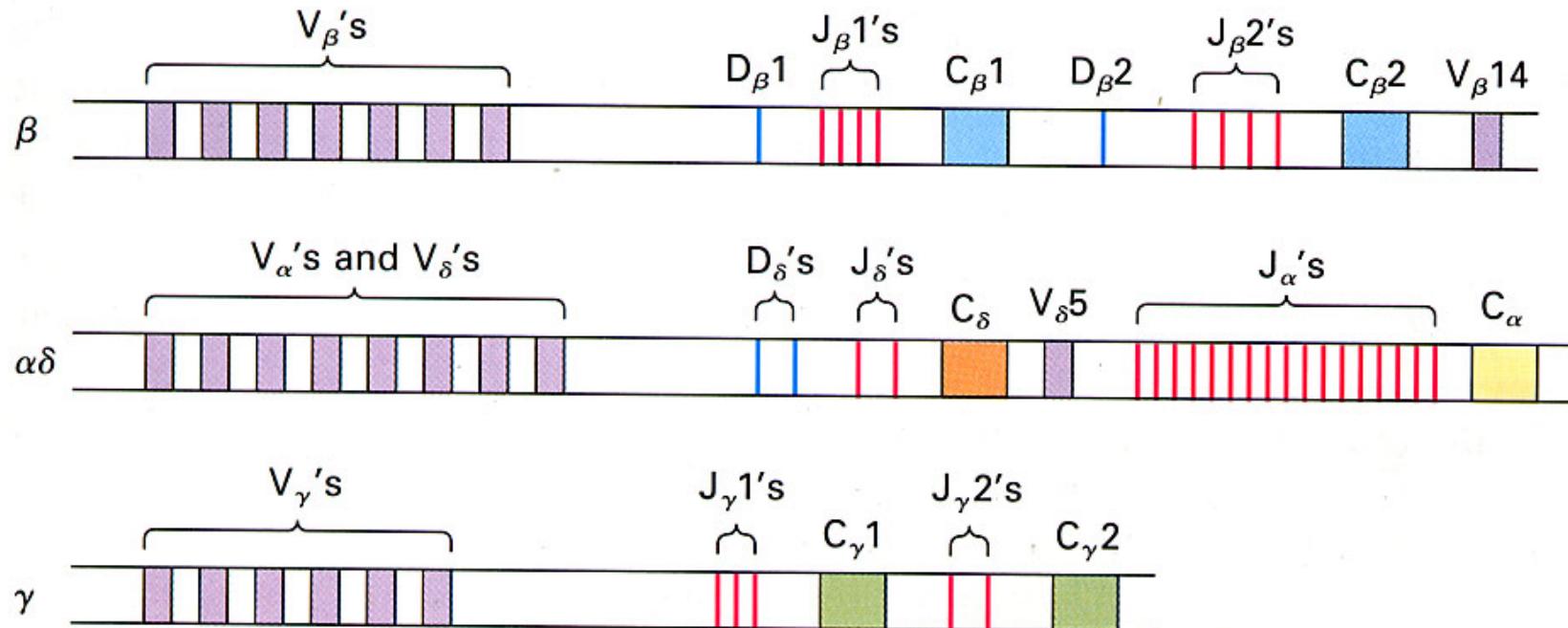


Die IG-Genfamilie hat sehr viele verschiedenen Mitglieder:



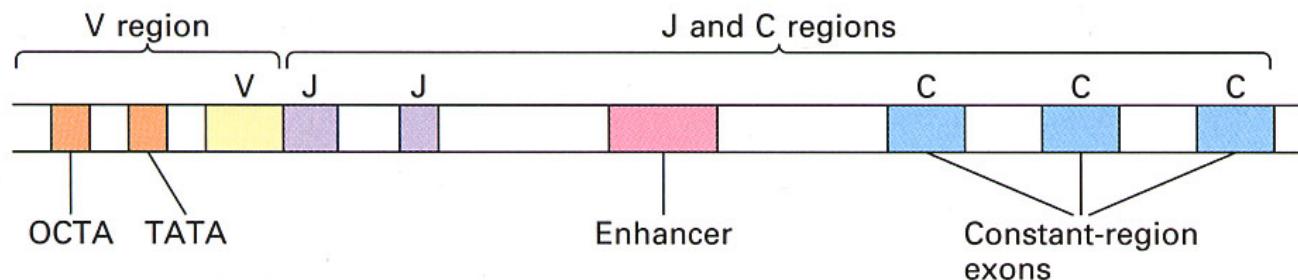
Noch komplizierter sind die Gene für die T-Zell-Rezeptor Ketten

T-cell receptor-chain genes

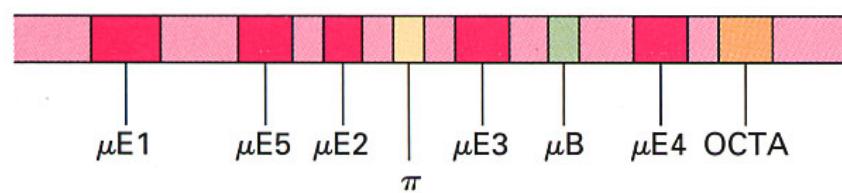


Für die Genregulation ist ein Enhancer im ersten Intron entscheidend:

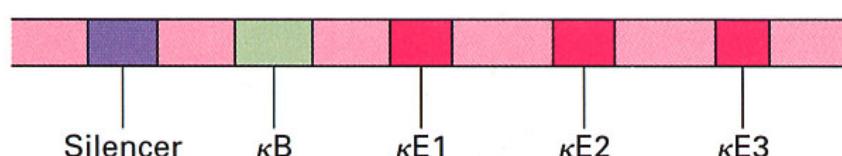
(a) H-chain and κ L-chain transcriptional control elements



(b) The H-chain enhancer

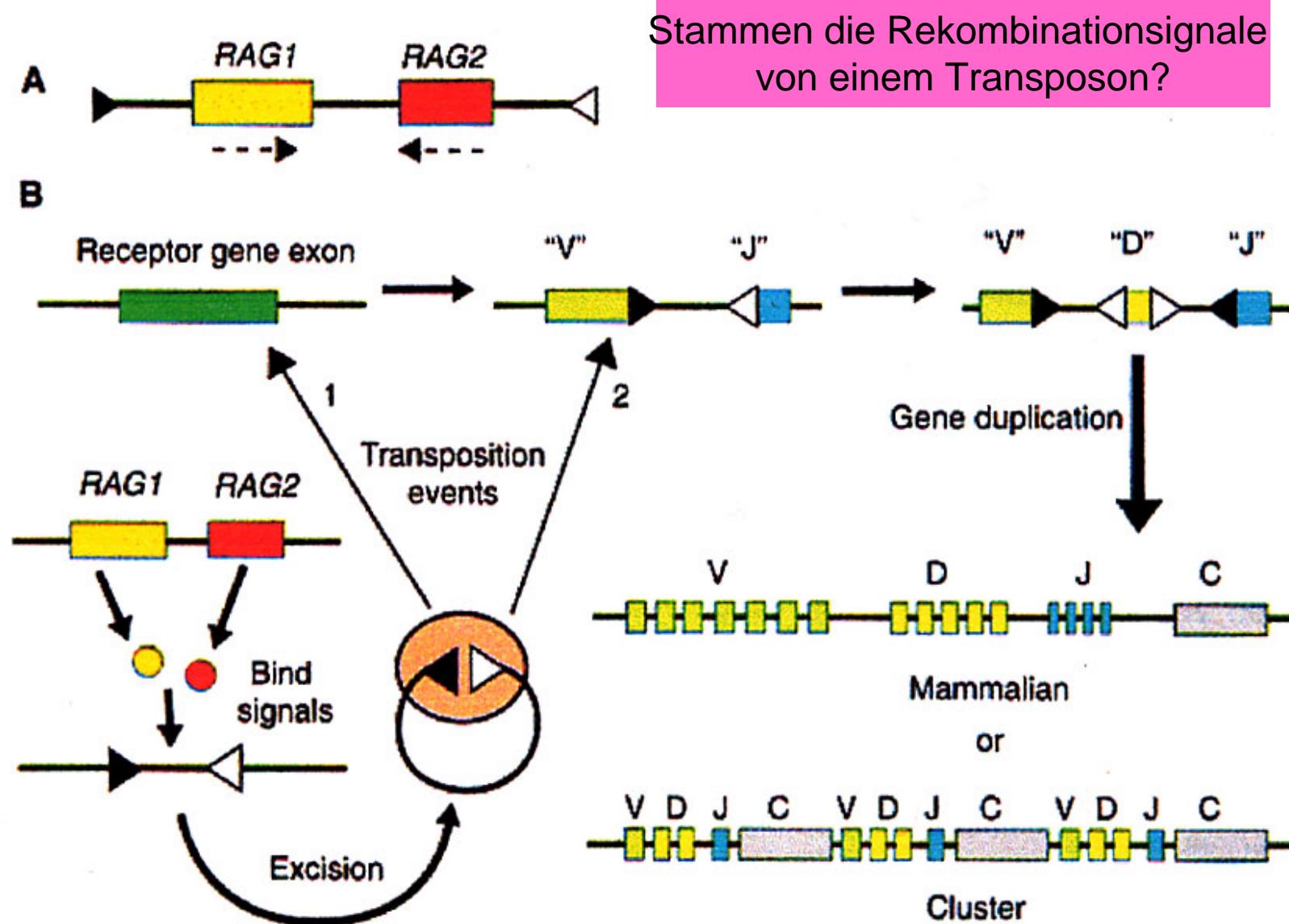


(c) The κ L-chain enhancer

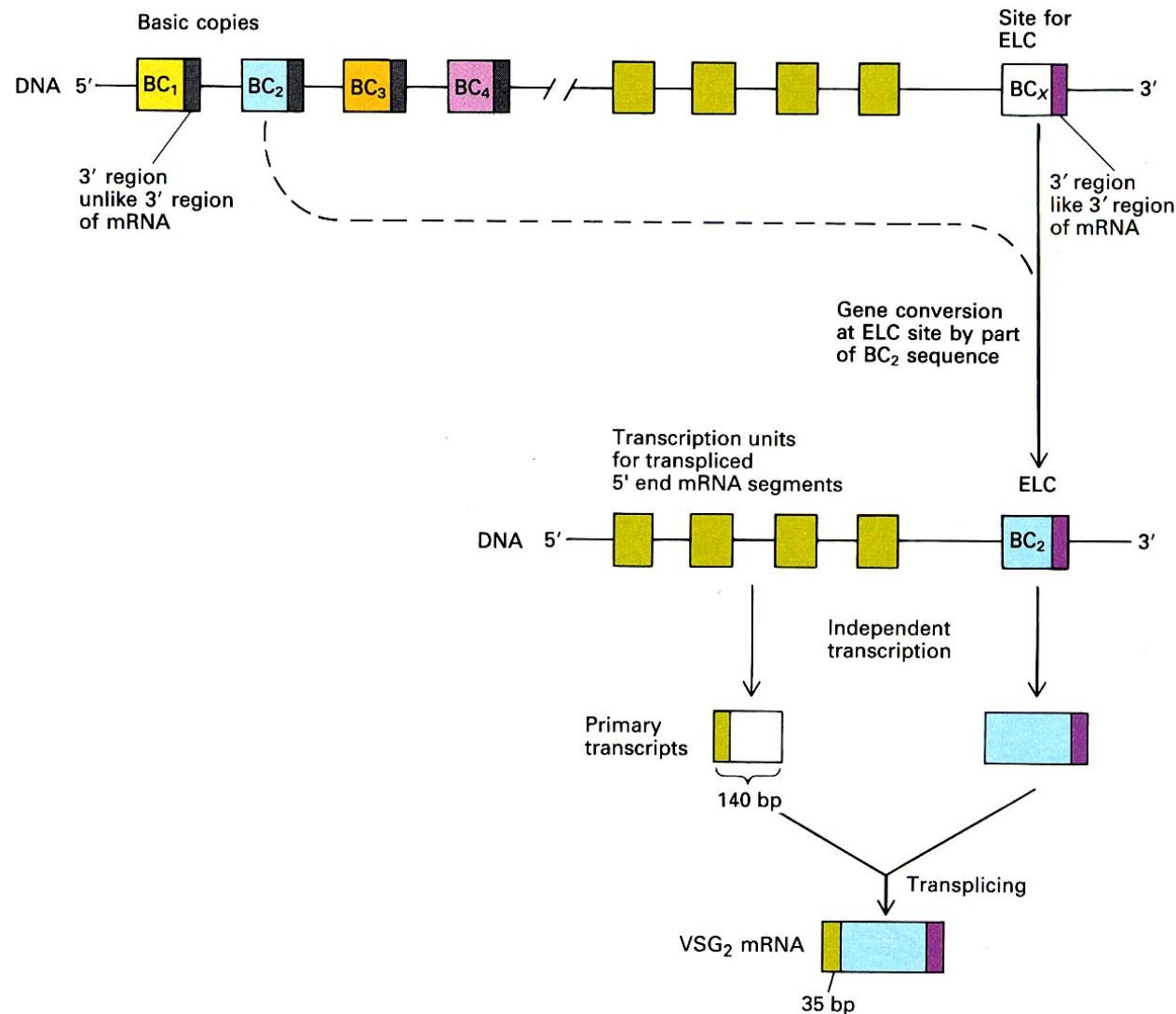


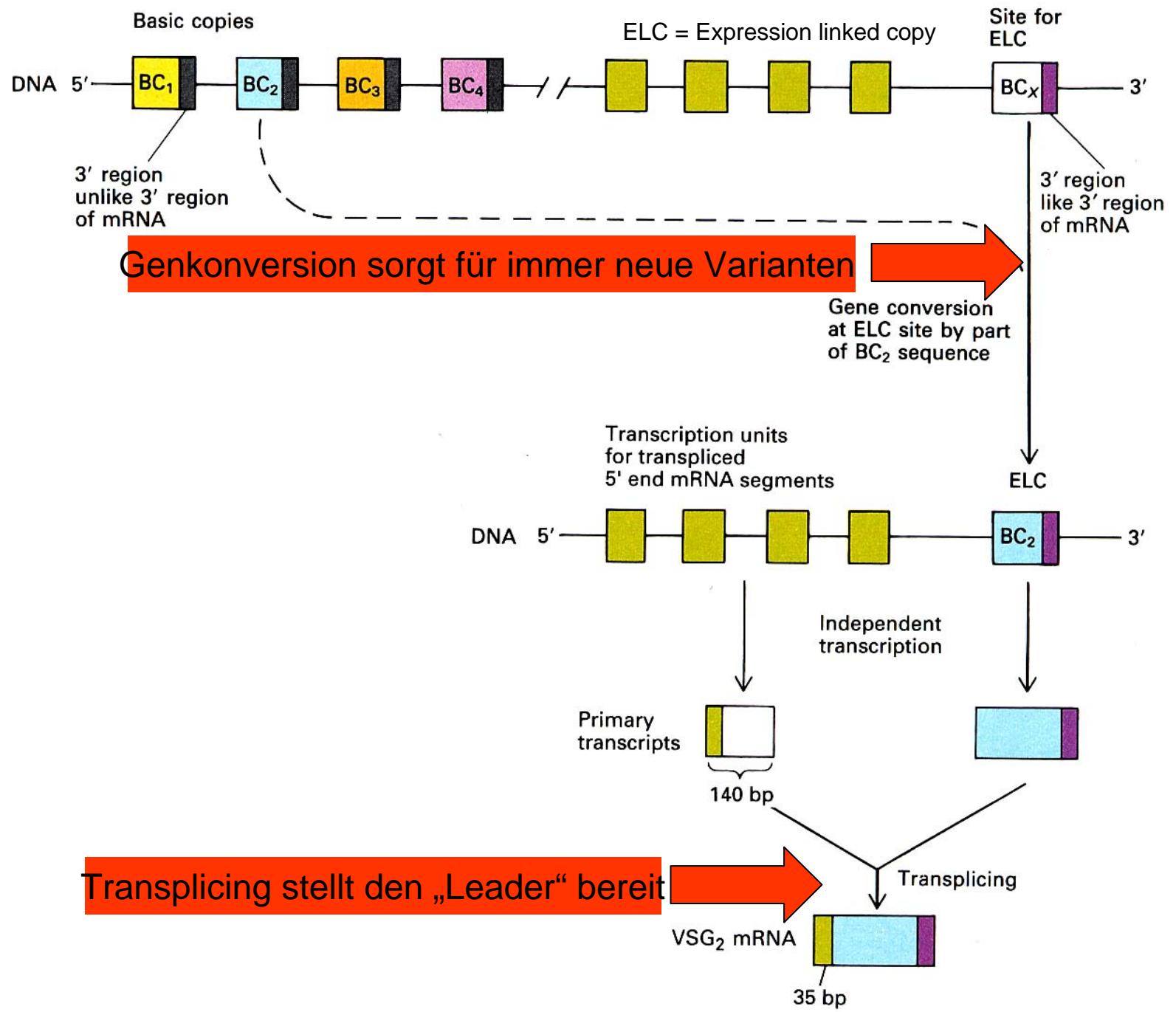
◀ **Figure 25-28**]
gene expression con
segments that bind
contain common pr
enhancers are differ
tains multiple motif

Was hat das alles mit Transposons zu tun?

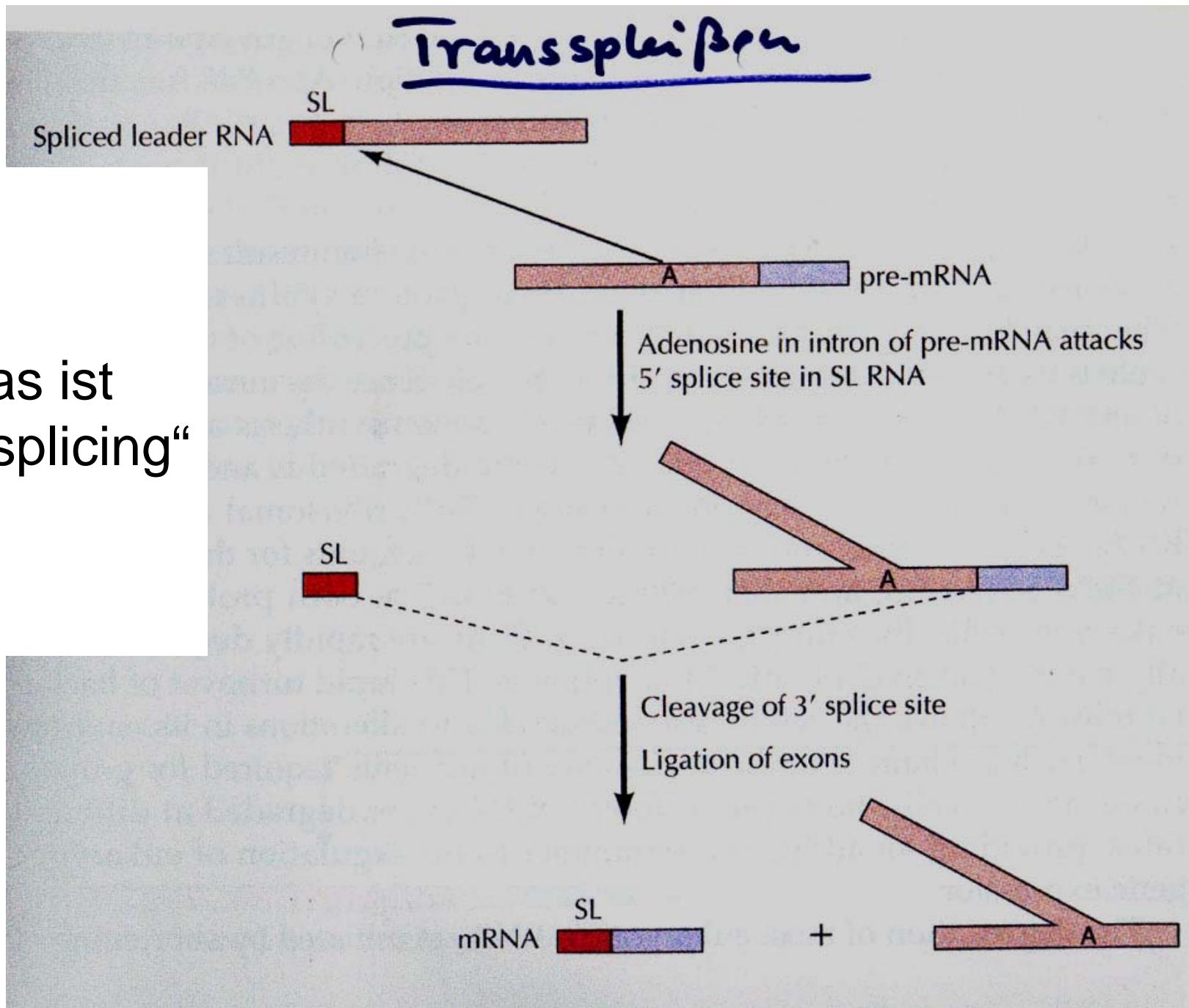


Variabilität bei Oberflächenproteinen von Trypanosomen („VSGs“)





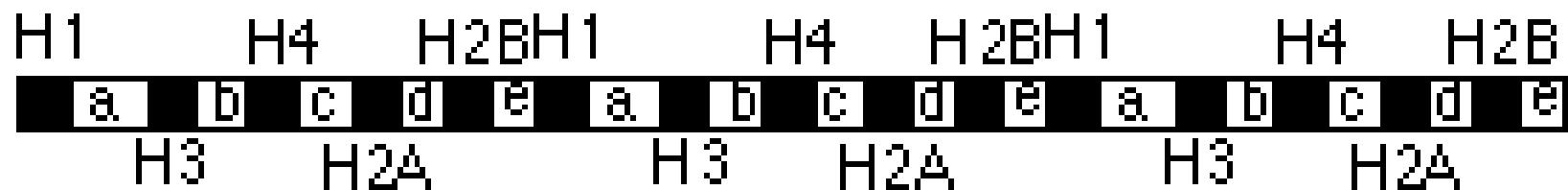
Was ist „Translicing“



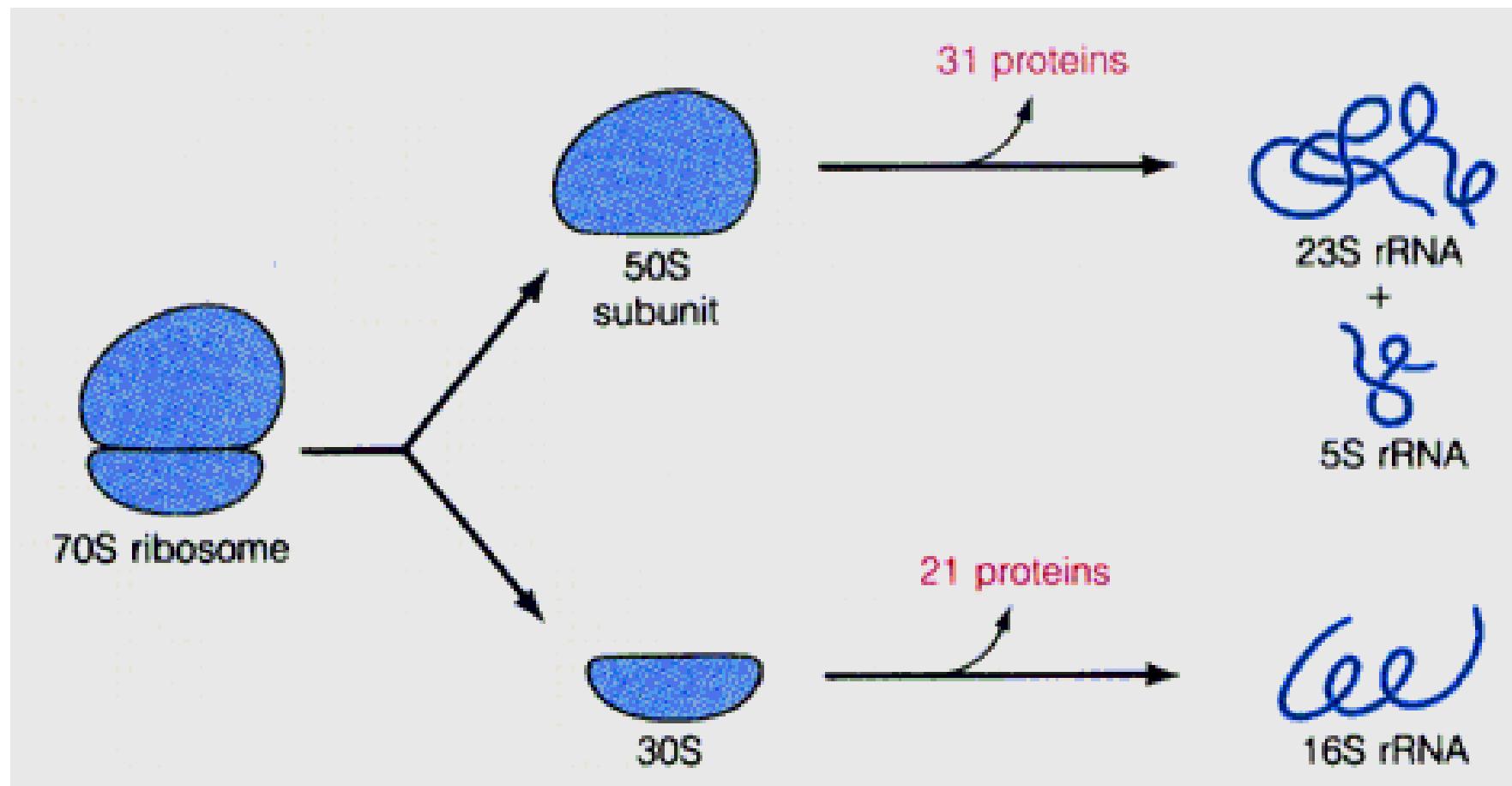
Repetitive Gene:

- Immunglobulingenfamilie
- Gene für rRNA
- Gene für ribosomale Proteine
- Gene tRNA
- Histongene
- Gene für snRNA
- und viele andere

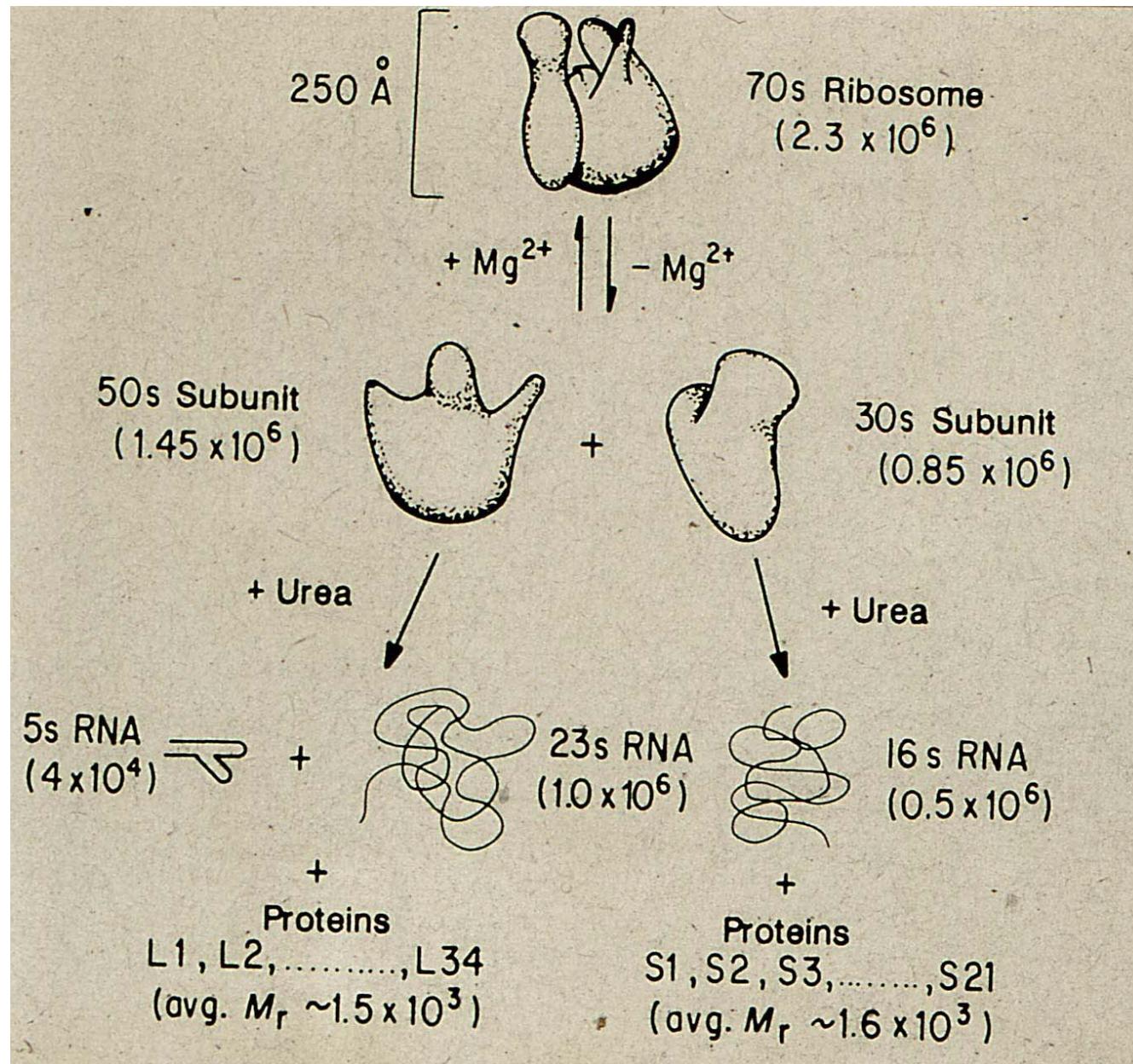
Histongencluster bei Drosophila



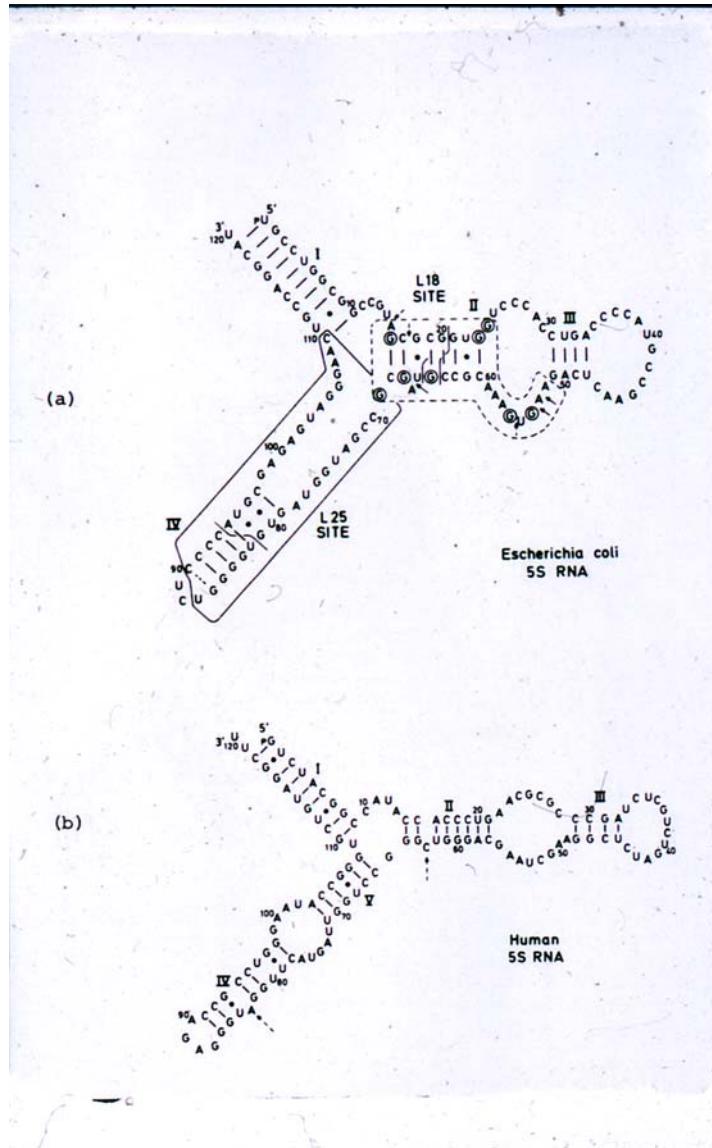
Ribosomen und ribosomale RNA:



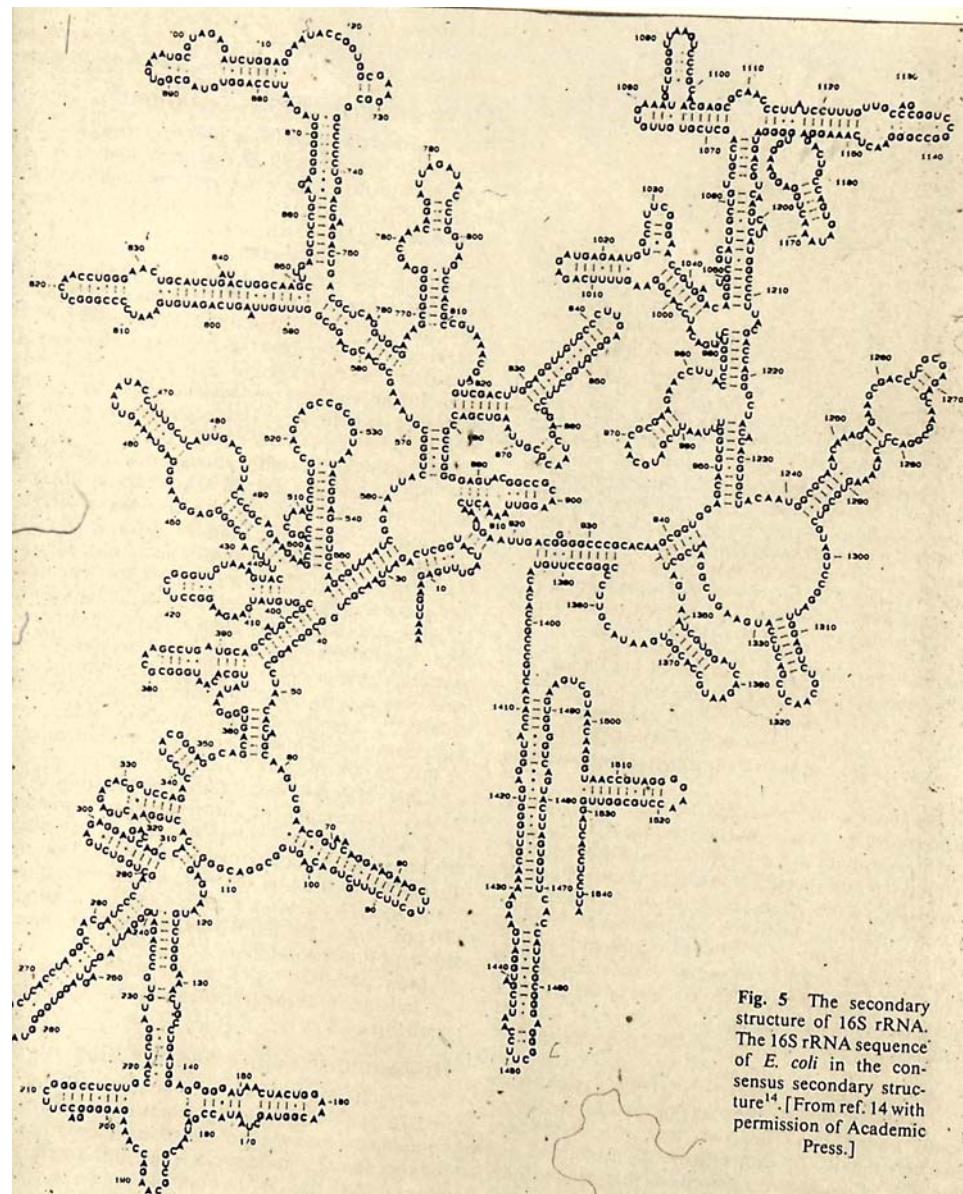
Komponenten des Ribosoms



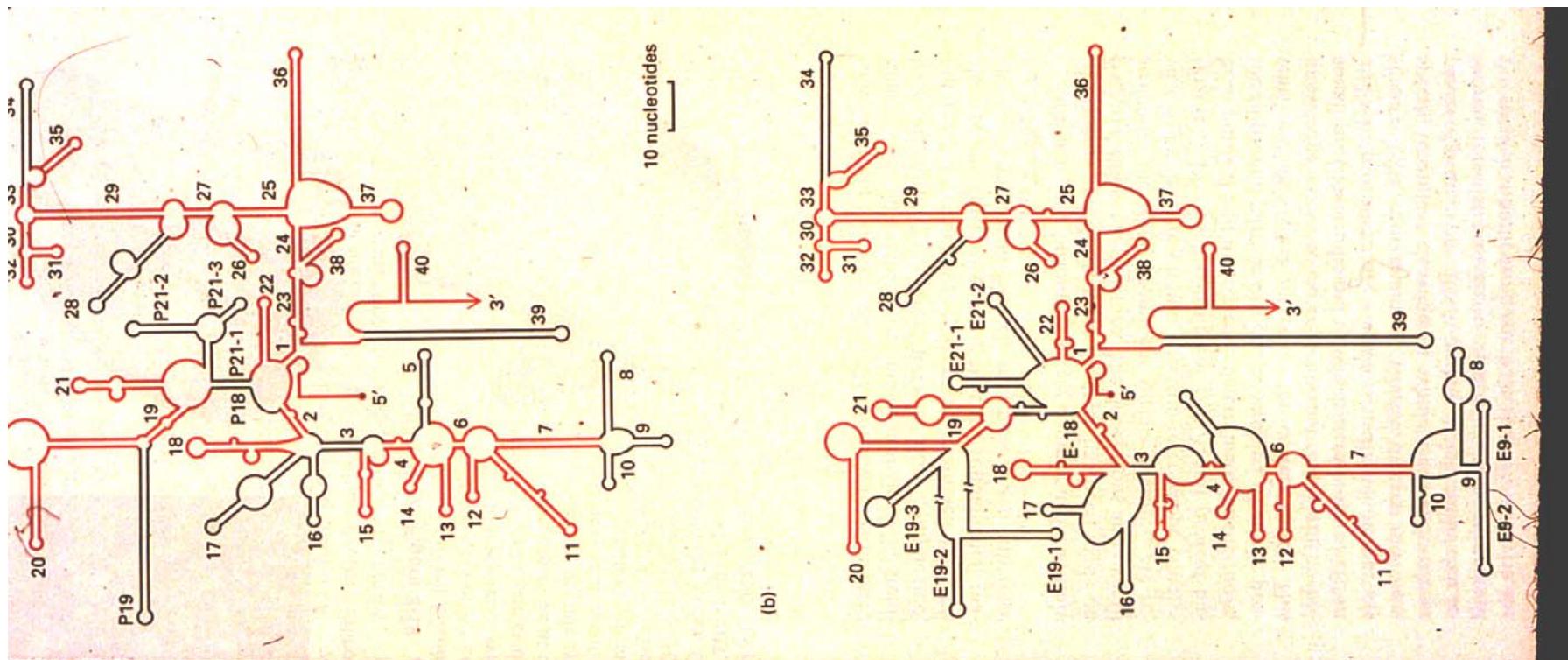
Komponenten des Ribosoms, 5sRNA



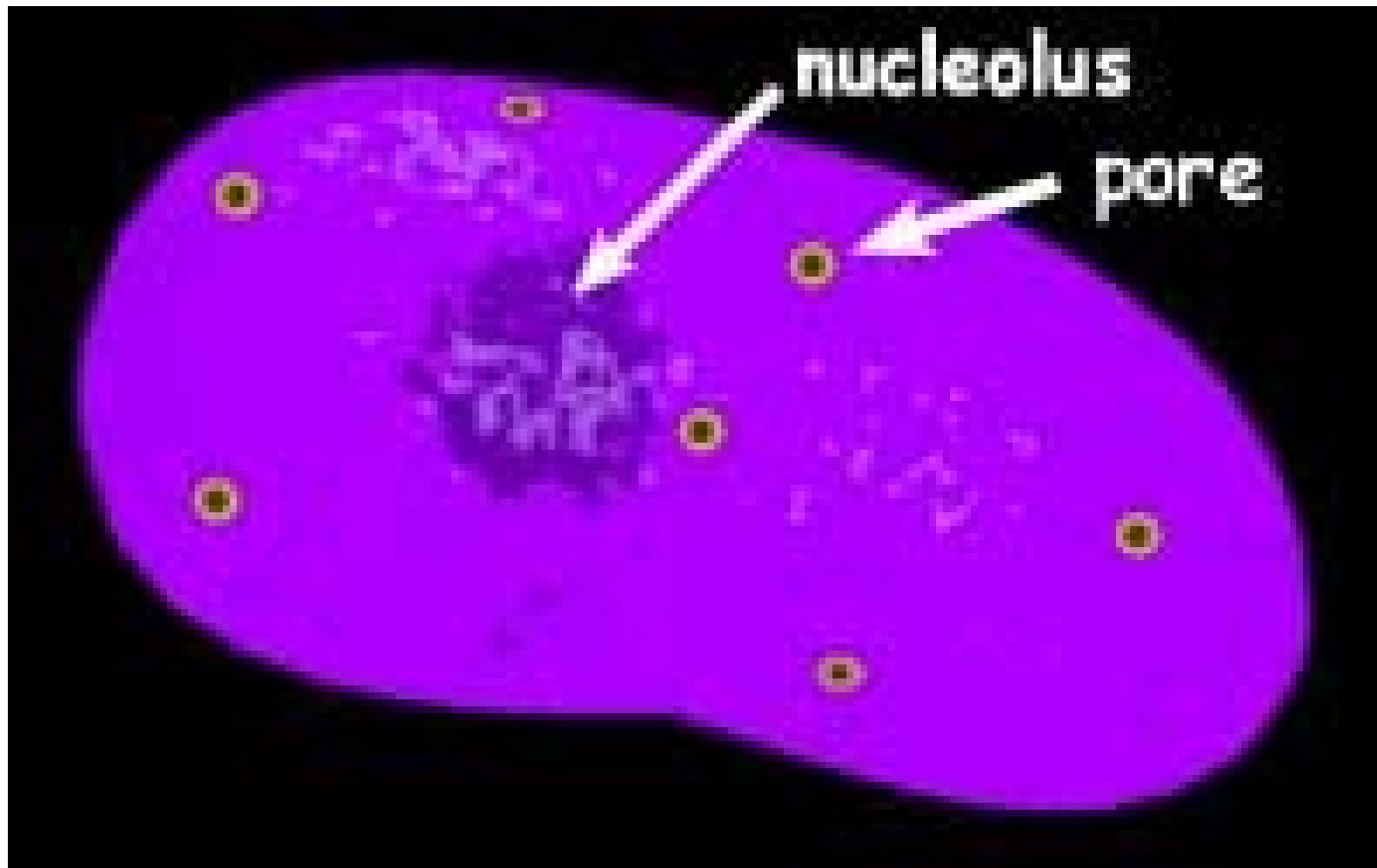
Komponenten des Ribosoms, 16sRNA



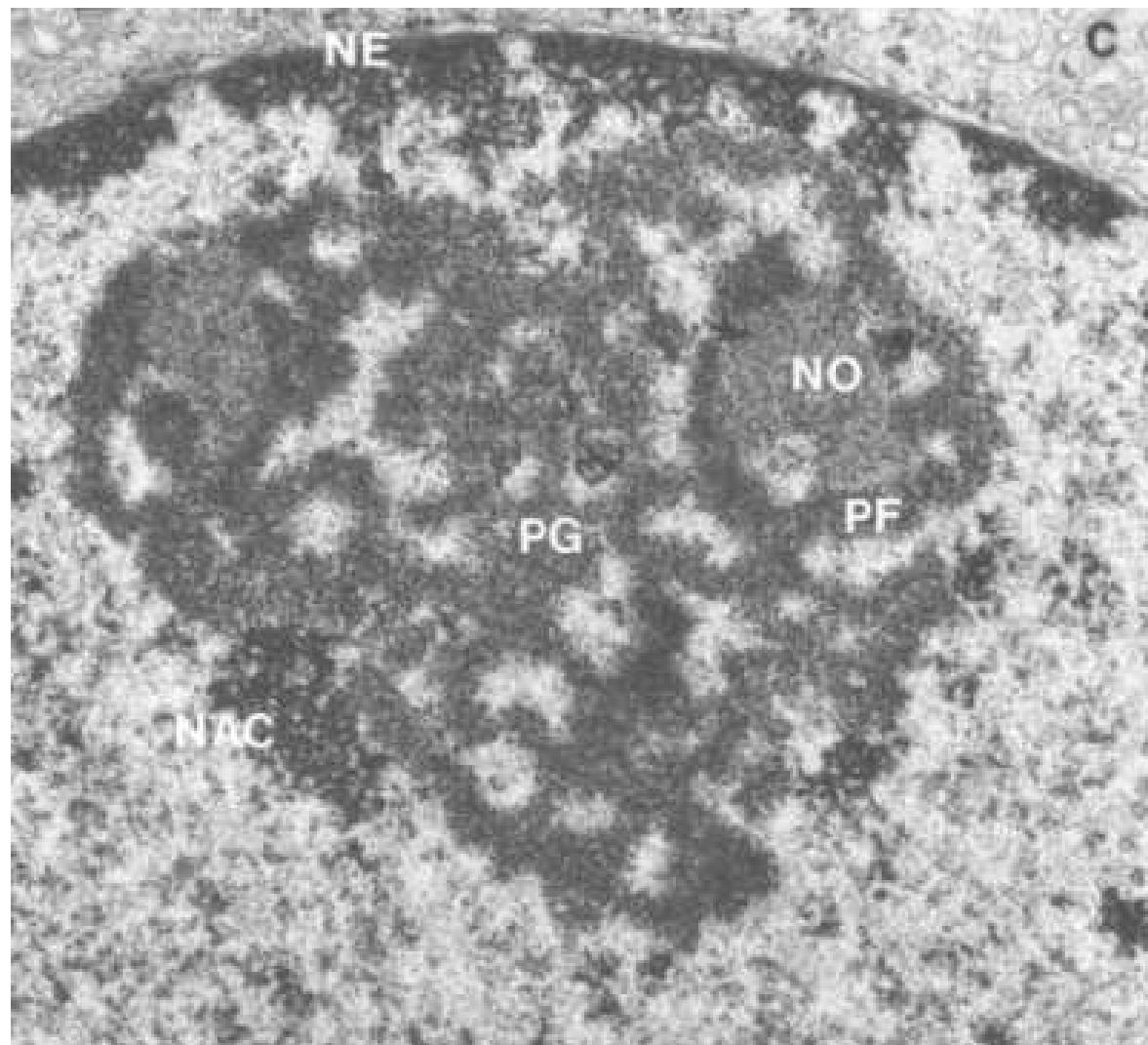
Die rRNA-Sekundärstruktur ist evolutionär extrem konserviert



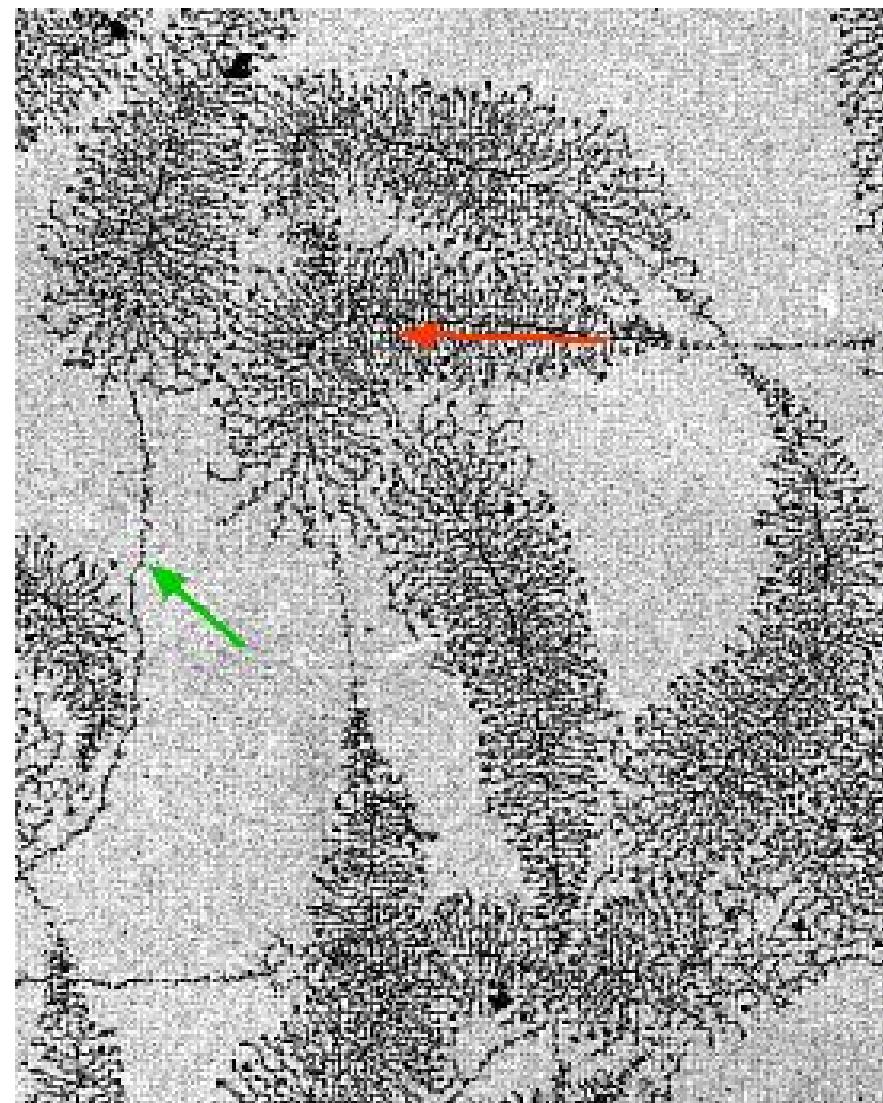
Ribosomen im Nukleolus



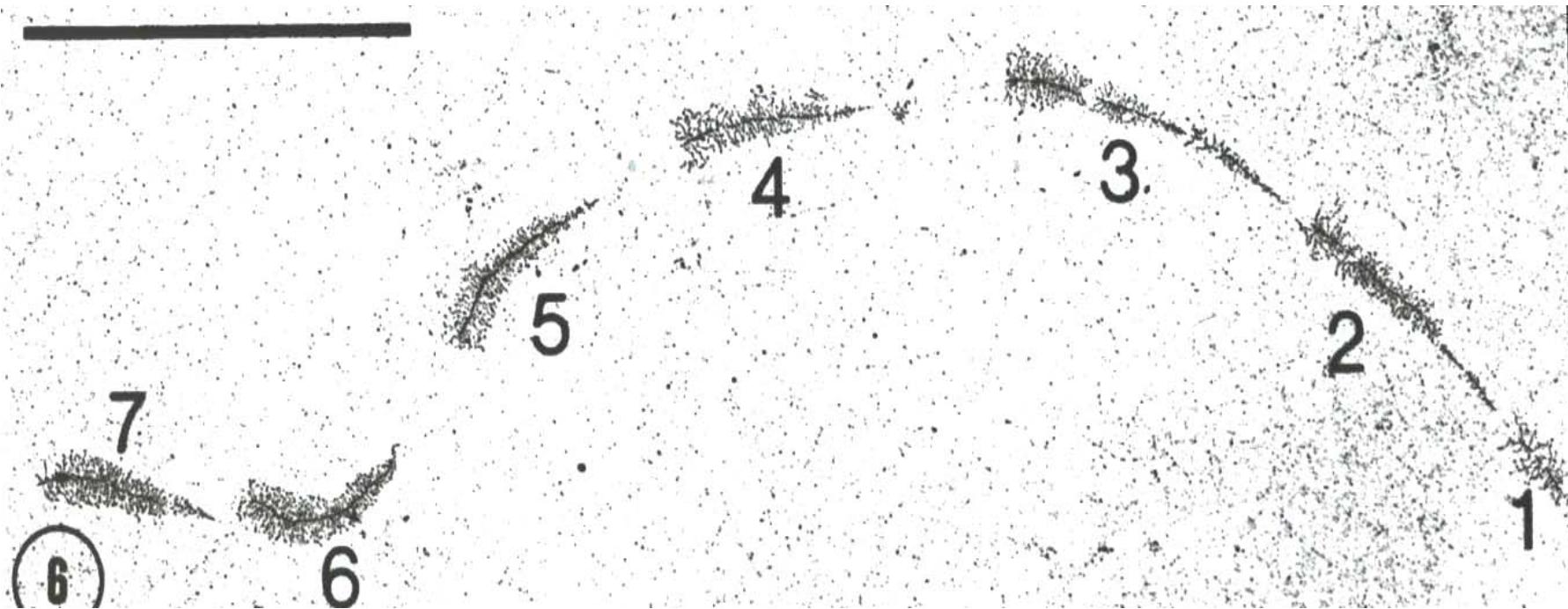
Nukleolus die Ribosomenmanufaktur



Nucleolus im EM: Aktive Gene für ribosomale RNA



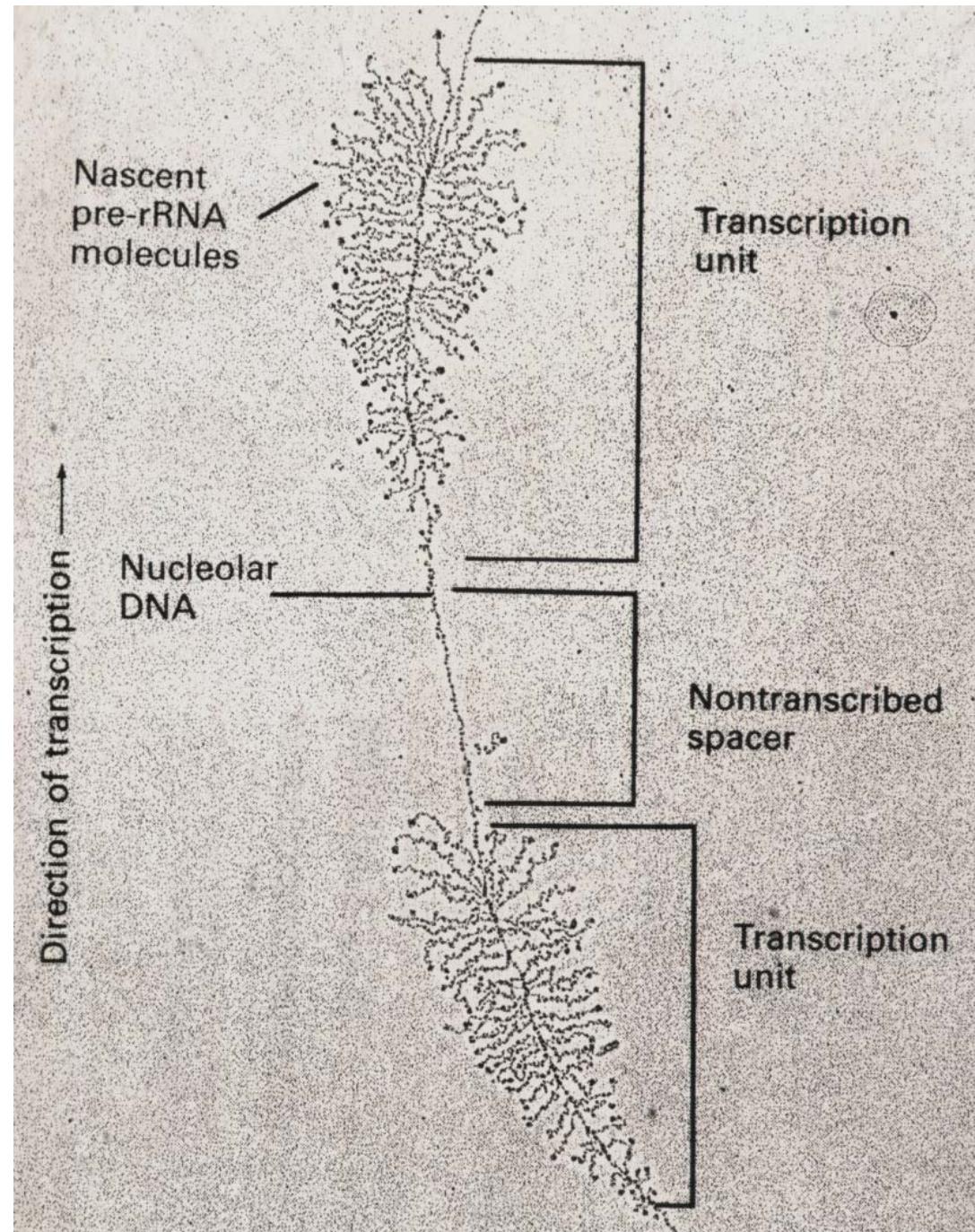
Gene für ribosomale RNA:



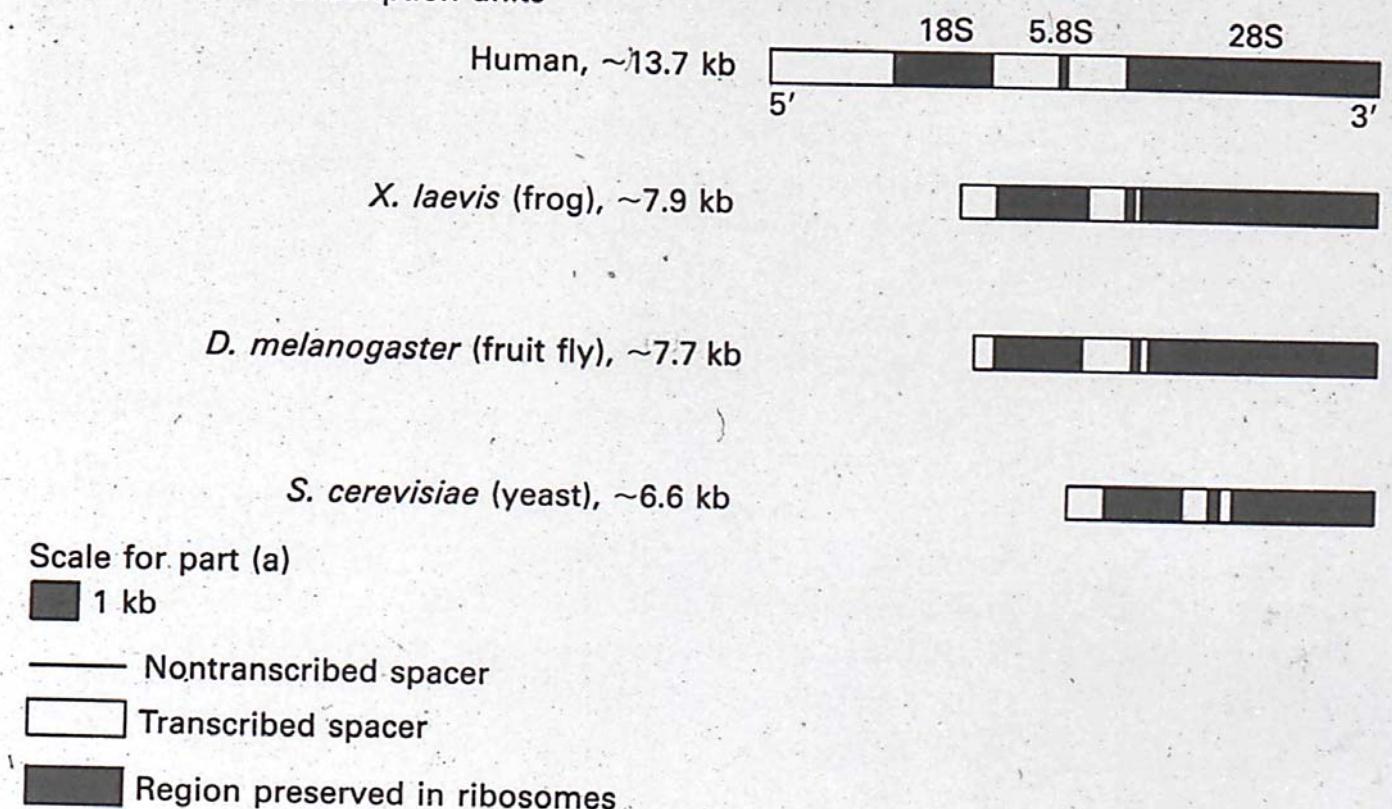
Elektronenmikroskopische Darstellung transkriptionsaktiver Gene
nach sog. „Miller-Spreitung“

rDNA

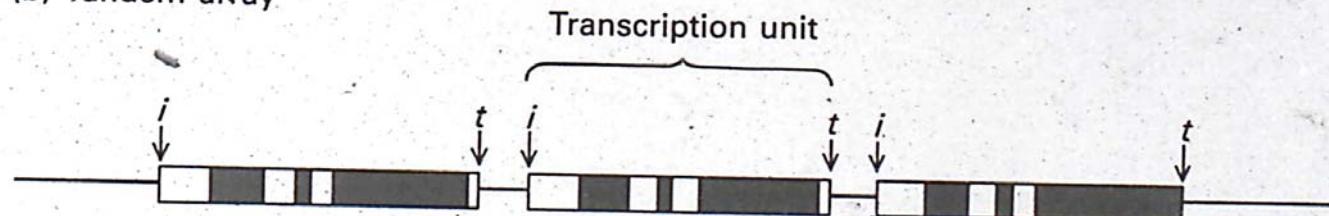
die Gene für die ribosomalen RNAs



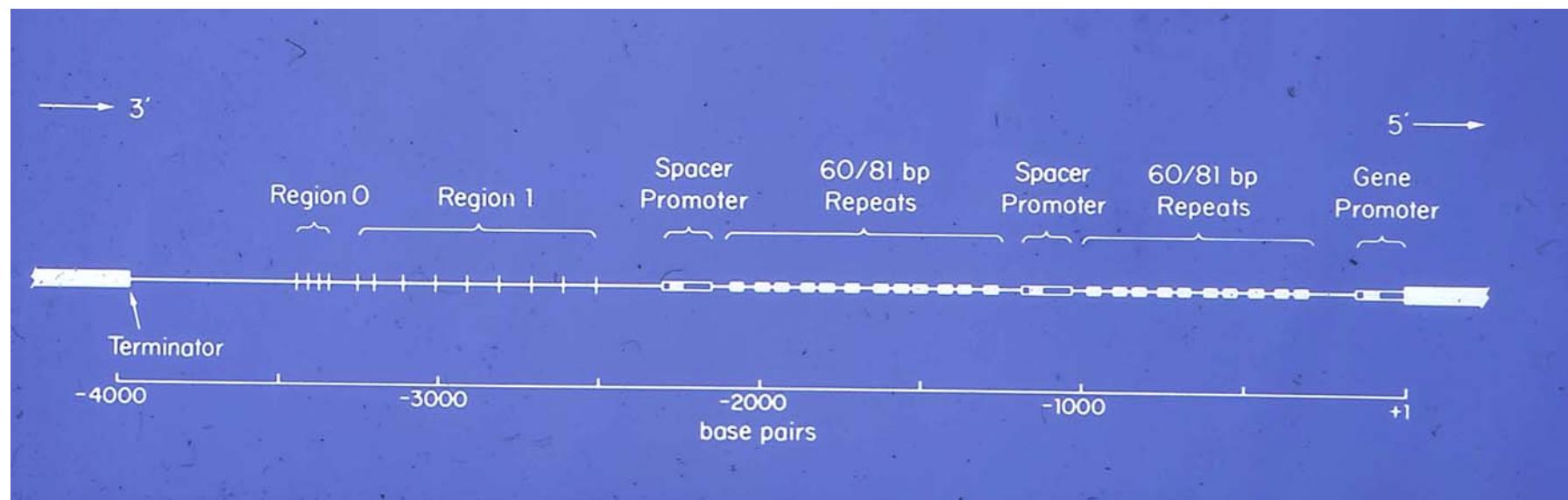
(a) Ribosomal transcription units



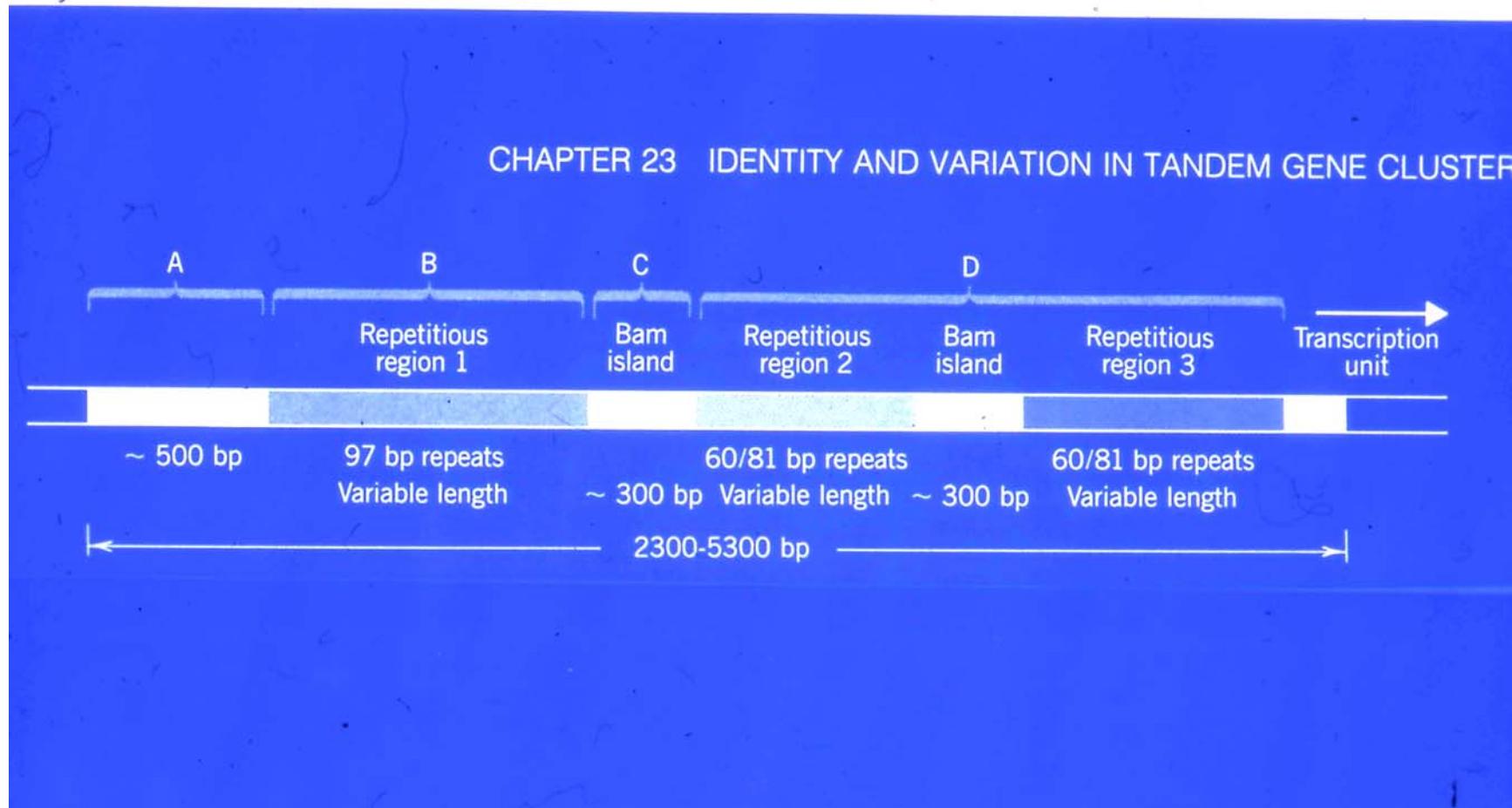
(b) Tandem array



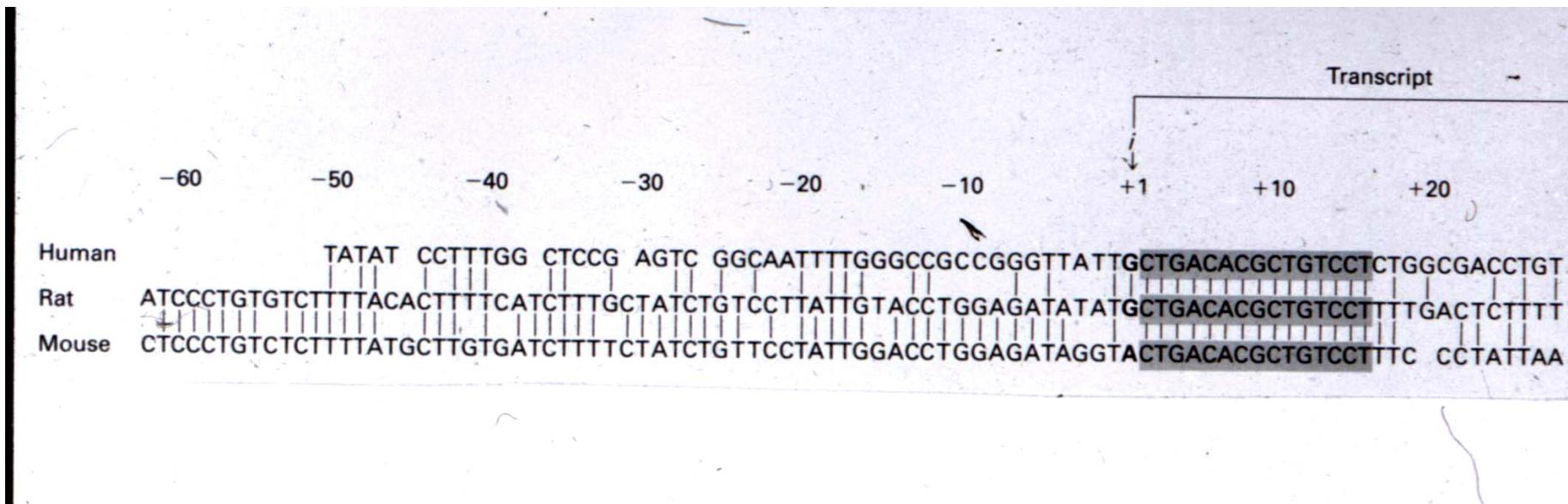
NTS-Promotor Enhancer



rDNA, die NTS-Region



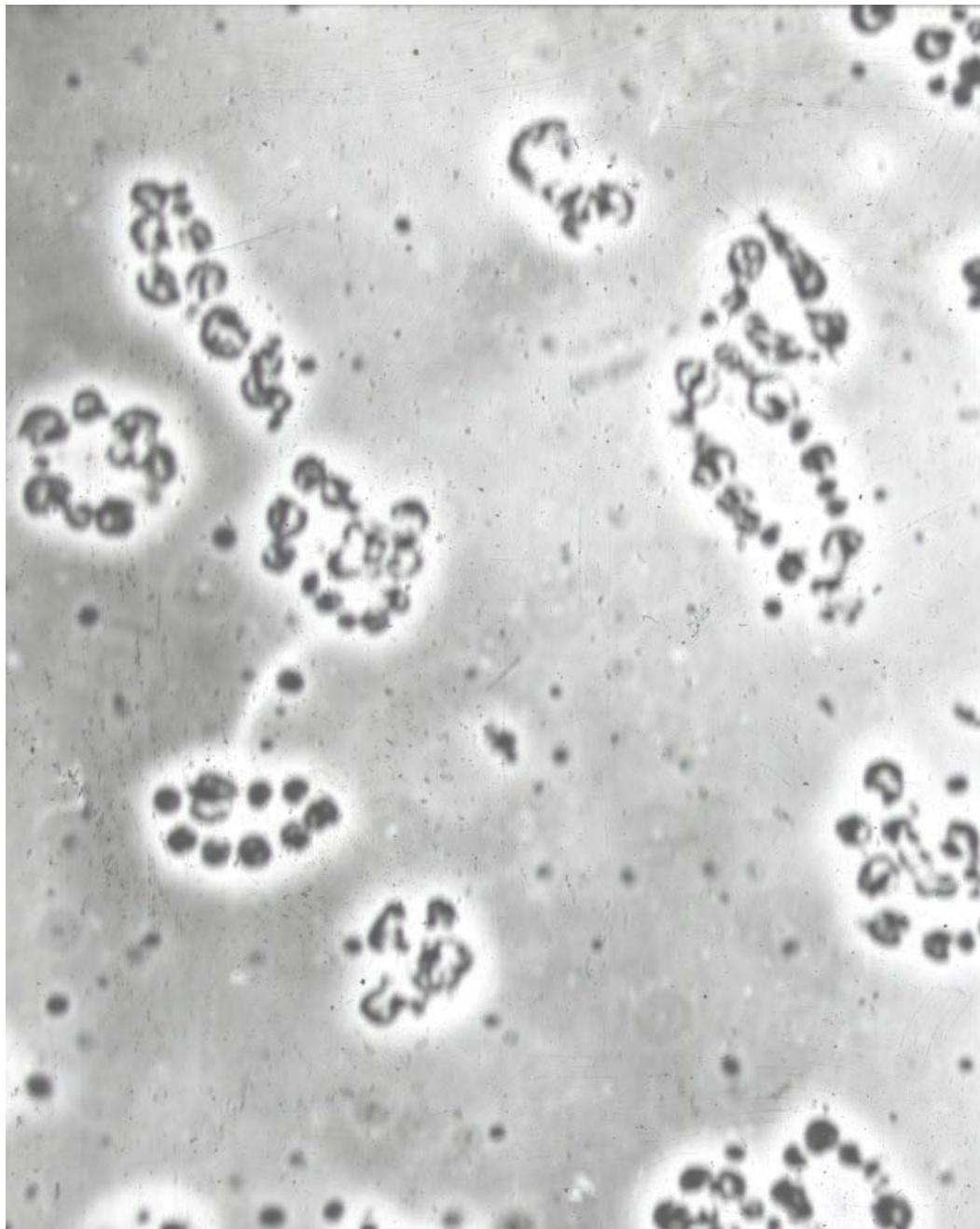
Die RNA-Pol I-Promotorregion ist nicht gut konserviert



Die Zahl der rDNA-Gene ist in verschiedenen Spezies sehr unterschiedlich:

Species	Number of 18S/ 28S Genes	Ratio of rDNA to Total DNA	No. 5S Genes	No. tRNA Genes
<i>E. coli</i>	7	1.0%	7	60
<i>S. cerevisiae</i>	140	5.5%	140	250
<i>D. discoideum</i>	180	17.0%	180	?
<i>D. melanogaster</i>				
(X)	250	1.3%	165	850
(Y)	150			
Human	280	0.4%	2000	1300
<i>X. laevis</i>	450	0.18%	24000	1150

Amplifikation der rDNA beim Gelbrabdkäf er



rDNA, Amplifikation rolling circle

