

# Applications of Advanced Synthetic Biology

## Genome Engineering

# Genome Engineering - big-ticket projects



JCVI synthetic cell

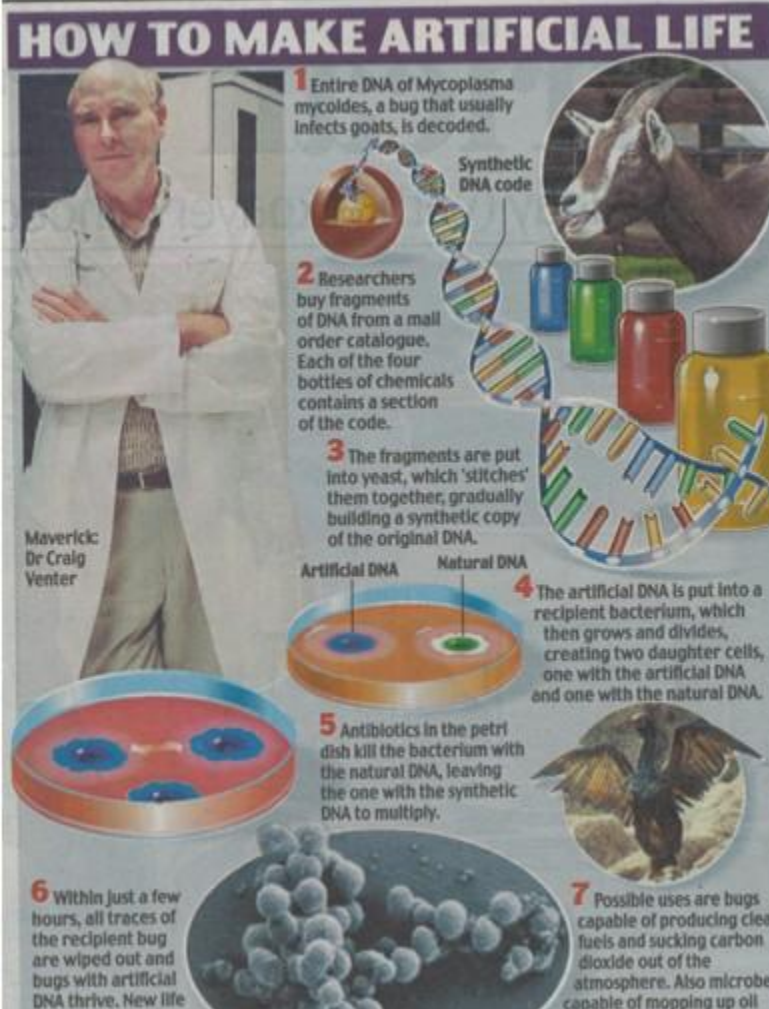
10+ years

30+ people

>\$50 million

# The first synthetic cell – 'Synthia'

## HOW TO MAKE ARTIFICIAL LIFE



**1** Entire DNA of *Mycoplasma mycoides*, a bug that usually infects goats, is decoded.

**2** Researchers buy fragments of DNA from a mail order catalogue. Each of the four bottles contains a section of the code.

**3** The fragments are put into yeast, which 'stitches' them together, gradually building a synthetic copy of the original DNA.

**4** The artificial DNA is put into a recipient bacterium, which then grows and divides, creating two daughter cells, one with the artificial DNA and one with the natural DNA.

**5** Antibiotics in the petri dish kill the bacterium with the natural DNA, leaving the one with the synthetic DNA to multiply.

**6** Within just a few hours, all traces of the recipient bug are wiped out and bugs with artificial DNA thrive. New life has been created.

**7** Possible uses are bugs capable of producing clean fuels and sucking carbon dioxide out of the atmosphere. Also microbes capable of mopping up oil.

Maverick Dr Craig Venter



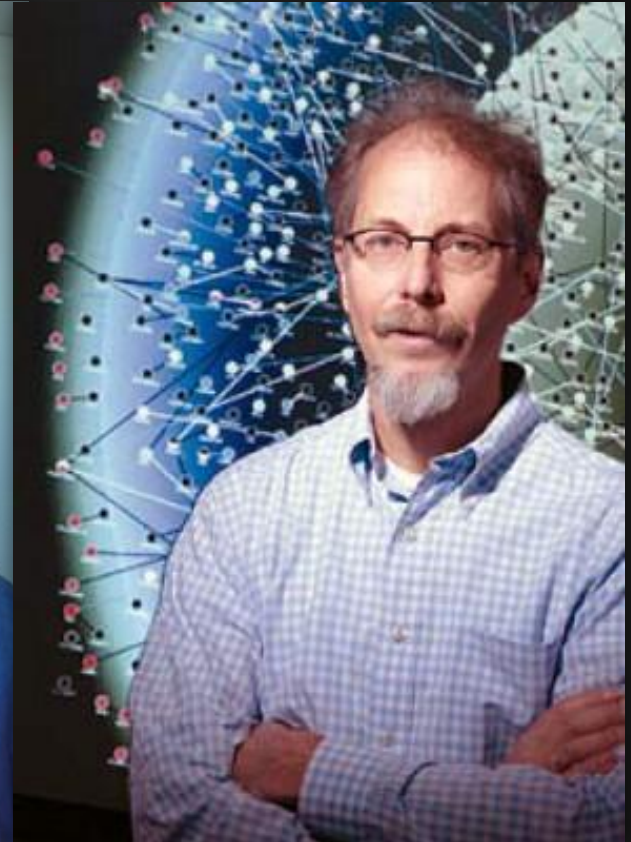


# Three major groups are leading synthetic life



George Church  
Harvard  
*E. coli*

J. Craig Venter  
JCVI  
*Mycoplasma*



Jef Boeke  
JHU  
*Yeast*

# Lecture Content

In this lecture we'll cover:

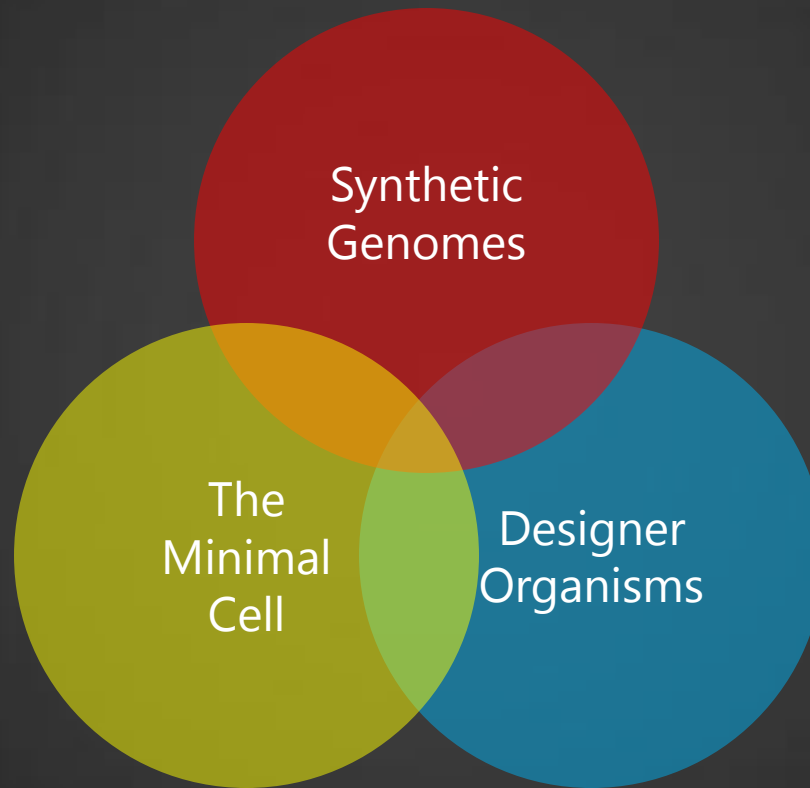
1. Minimal cells
2. *Craig Venter's first cell made with a synthetic genome*
3. The DNA assembly techniques used
4. *SC2.0 – a synthetic yeast genome*
5. Design rules for engineered genomes
6. Techniques for editing genomes
7. *RE.coli*
8. Applications of minimal cells and engineered genomes

# Learning Objectives

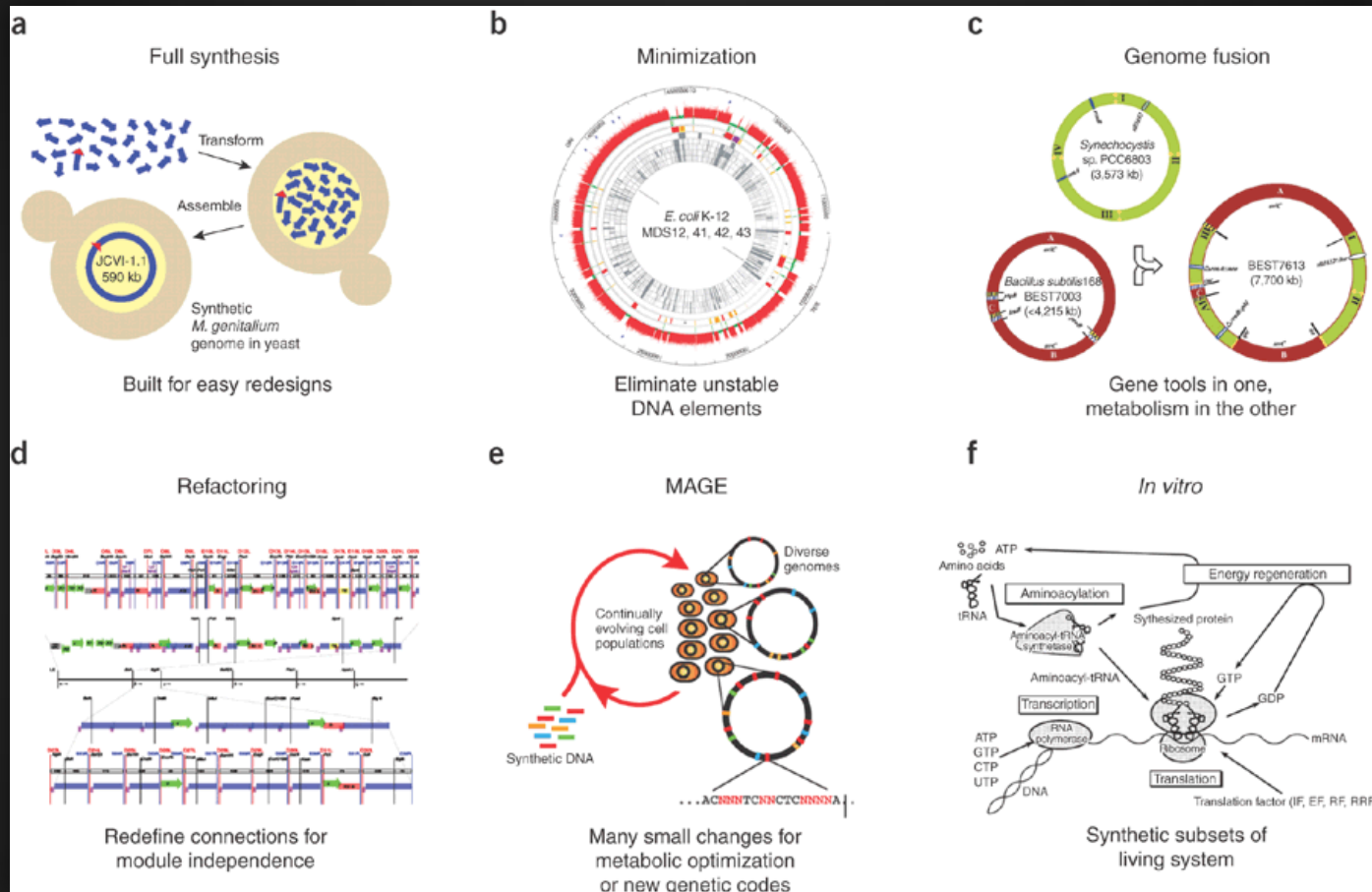
In this lecture you will learn:

1. Examples of natural and synthetic minimal cells
2. DNA Assembly techniques to allow genome-scale work
3. Examples of genome engineering projects
4. Examples of synthetic changes to make to genomes
5. Synonymous codons and their use in synthetic biology
6. Applications of minimal cells and engineered genomes

# The construction of synthetic organisms



# Genome Engineering



Genome Engineering – PA Carr and GM Church  
Nature Biotechnology, Vol. 27, No.12. (12 December 2009), pp. 1151-1162



# Natural Minimal Cells

*M.genitalium*, *Pelagibacter ubique*, *Nanoarchaeum equitans*

*Carsonella ruddii* (213 genes – 160 kbp)

*Hodgkinia cicadicola* (188 genes – 144 kbp)

Many are not free-living but either parasites or symbionts

*Mycoplasma pneumoniae* has recently been studied in detail

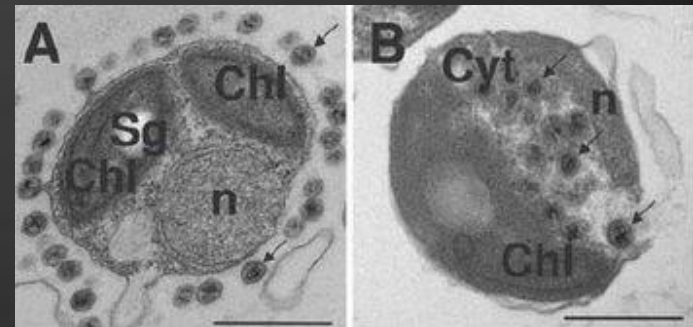
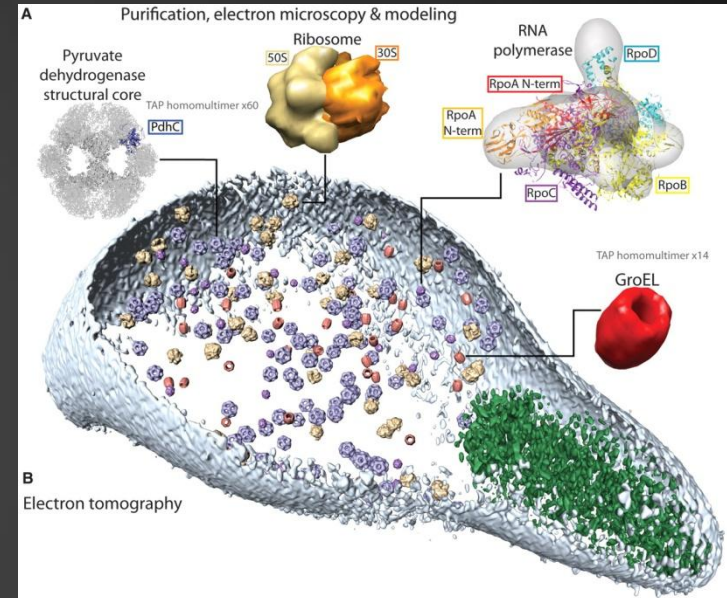
Science: 27<sup>th</sup> November 2009

Guell *et al.* – Systems biology study

Yus *et al.* – Metabolism study

Kunhner *et al.* – Proteome study

*Ostreococcus tauri*, the smallest known free-living photosynthetic eukaryote.  
12.56-Mb genome with high gene density

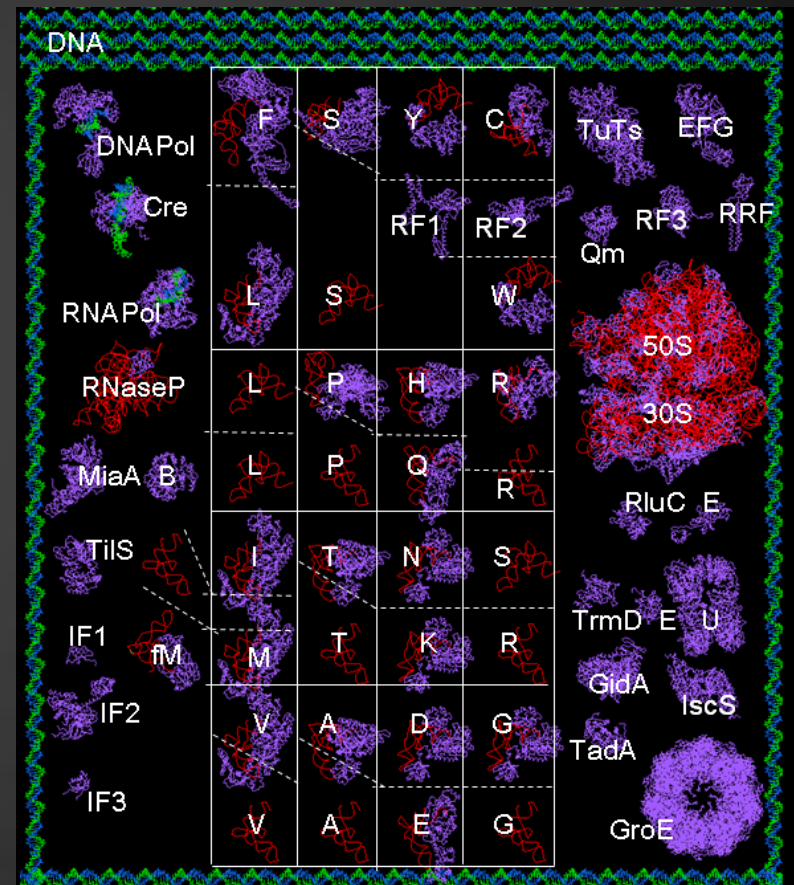
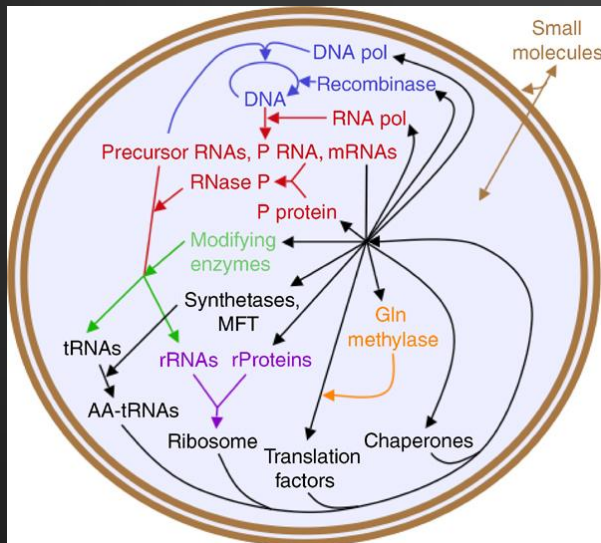


# The minimal cell: bottom-up approach

“We know enough about a cell to identify the essential molecules and build our own from scratch” - hardcore synthetic biology

Biochemistry identifies the essential molecules that make cellular life

DNA → RNA → Protein



AC Forster & GM Church. Mol Sys Biol 2006

# The minimal cell: bottom-up approach

Just how many genes for a bottom-up minimal cell?

- Estimate: 151 genes = 38 RNAs + 113 proteins (~200 is a better guess)

Basic DNA replication 2	Chaperones 2	Ribosome 63
RNA transcription 1	RNA Processing 3	tRNA set 33
Translation Factors 11	AA-tRNA synthetases 21	tRNA modifiers 15

Would require all metabolites (eg. NTP) to be provided – no metabolism

Would have no control over compartmentalisation – no membrane synthesis

Really minimal cell – fragile *in vitro* system

add metabolism, add lipid-synthesis for membranes, add proteins to control cell division, pores and transporters for sugar-import

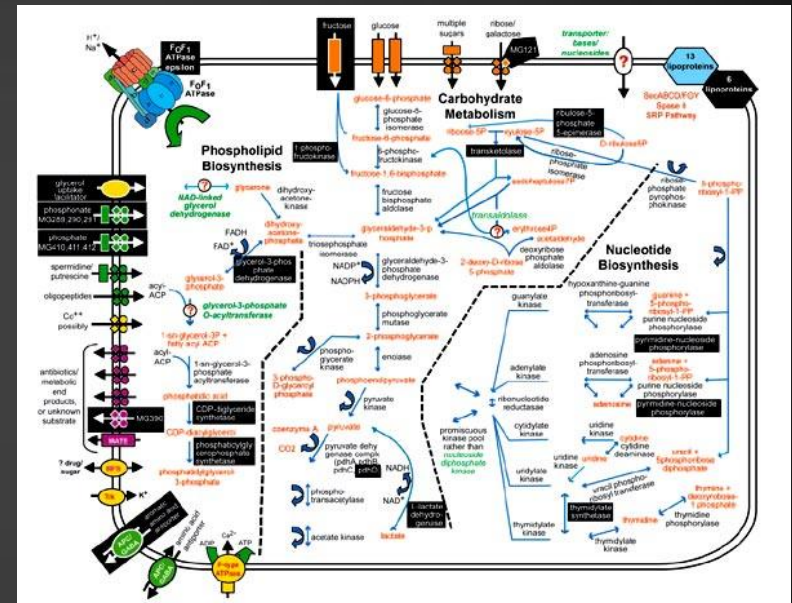
Working minimal cell – capable of self-evolution

# The minimal cell: top-down approach

Smallest natural genomes = 500 genes 500000 bps of DNA (e.g. *M.genitalium*) But... not all genes are required for lab-based growth

How many essential genes?

1. Compare DNA throughout nature to identify essential genes  
Estimates: 50 to 380
2. Knock-out (delete) genes of small genomes to see what is needed  
Estimate: 430



Around a quarter of genes identified by these screens have unknown function  
How do we really know that a gene is essential and not just playing many roles in a network?



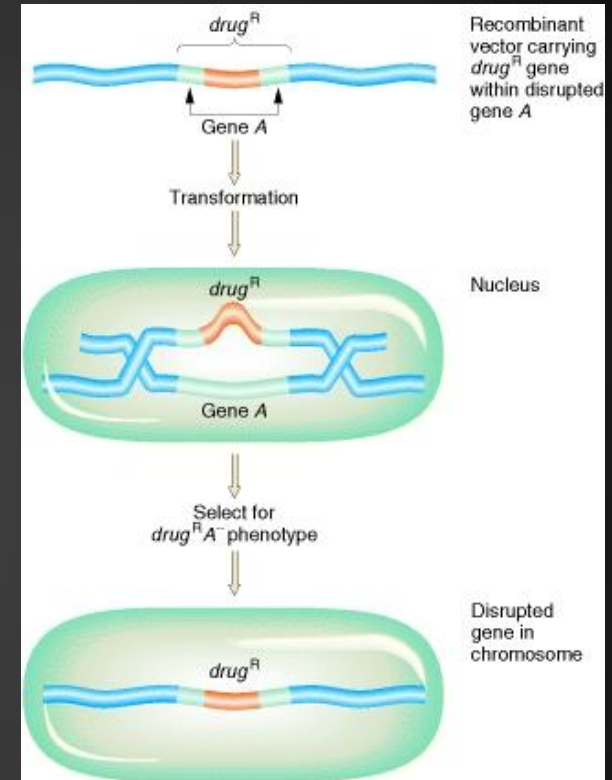
# The minimal cell: top-down methods

## *In vivo* reduction

- Traditionally done using transposons and recombinases (e.g. Cre)
- Knock-out genes at random and work out which aren't essential
- Venter's plan = *Mycoplasma laboratorium*
- Synthesise a version of *M.genitalium* with only the essential genes

Venter 2010: "We can ascribe no function to almost 100 of approximately 370 [essential] genes in *M.genitalium*"

*M.Genitalium* naturally has 525 genes





# The first synthetic organism – JCVI Project

The 1st synthetic organism – life made from a chemically synthesized genome

tRNA gene synthesized – Nobel Prize for Khorana

Phage/Virus genomes synthesized – synthesis of polio virus 2002

## 2010... Bacteria

A big two-part project by the J Craig Venter Institute

Part 1: Can a complete DNA genome be synthesized from chemicals  
Completed in 2008

Part 2: Can a cleaned DNA genome boot-up a cell  
Completed in 2007

Synthetic Organism = Parts 1 and Parts 2 combined

2010

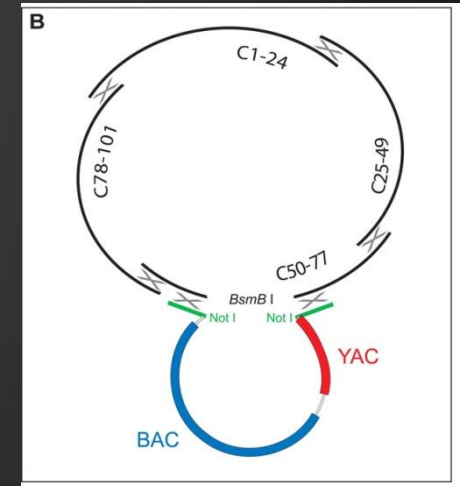
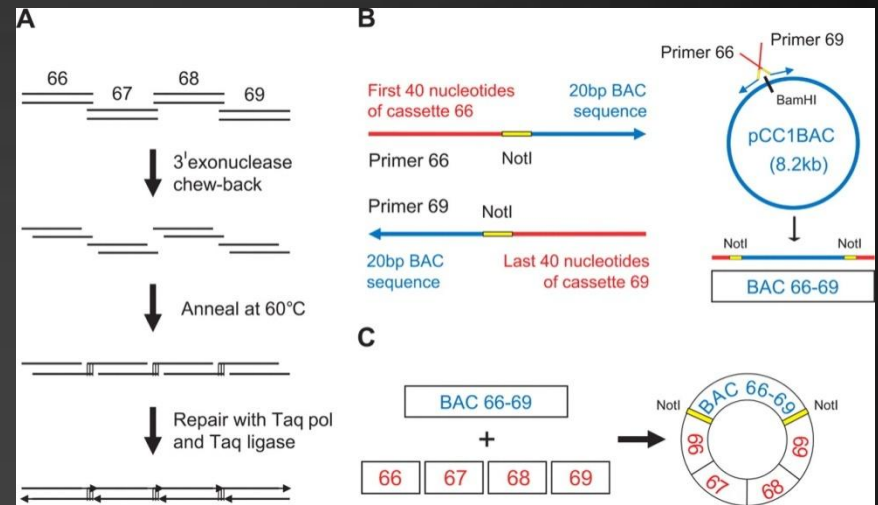
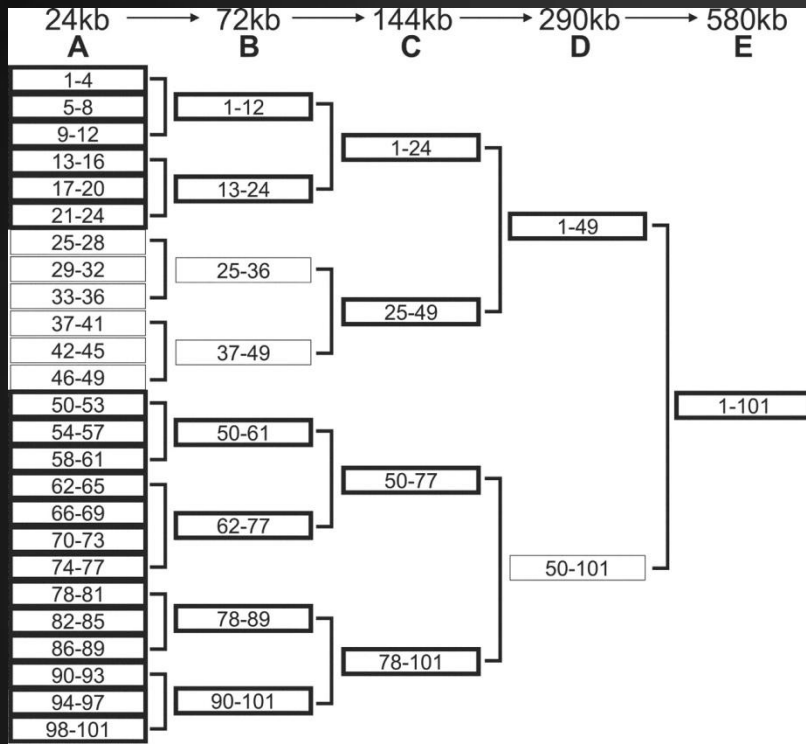
# The first synthetic organism: (1) Synthesis

AIM: Synthesize  $\sim 10^4$  DNA 50-base oligomers and assemble into a complete error-free 582970 bp *M.genitalium* genome (with watermarks)

1. Companies synthesise 101 pieces of 5 to 7 kb from overlapping oligos (e.g. Blue Heron and GeneArt)
2. 101 pieces recombined using *in vitro* enzymes to make 24 big pieces
3. 24 big pieces maintained in BACs in *E.coli* and recombined to make even bigger pieces
4. Big pieces all inserted into yeast and whole circular genome is made by recombination using native yeast genetics (using a YAC)
5. DNA sequencing used to check fidelity throughout process

DG Gibson *et al.* Science 2008

# The first synthetic organism: (1) Synthesis



101 synthesized fragments with overlap  
 Stepwise *in vitro* DNA assembly using a new method  
 Final assembly using yeast as the vector

# Gibson Isothermal Assembly (1)

Daniel Gibson's PCR-free method of annealing overlapping DNA sequences

- Overlapping sequences need to be 30 or more bp
- Requires a cocktail of T5 Exonuclease, Taq Ligase and Phusion Polymerase

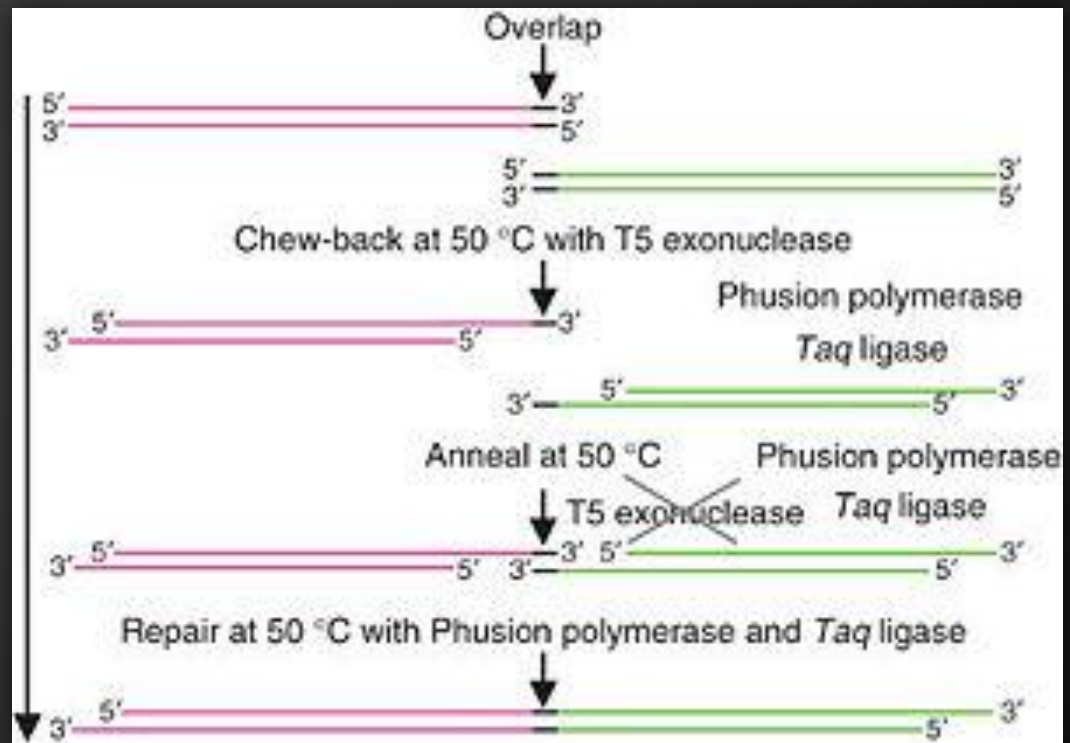
Make and store a master-mix for months

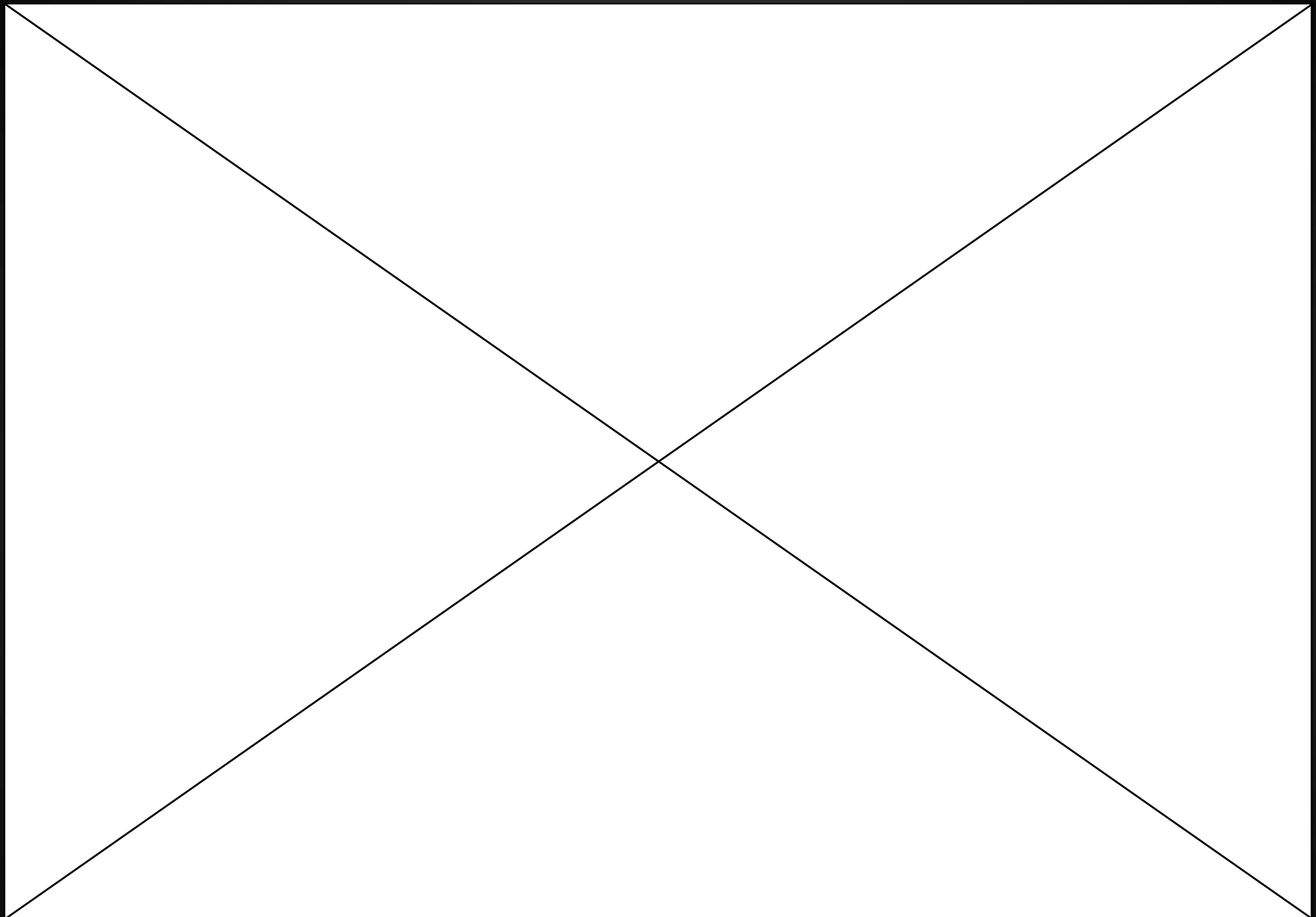
Takes 30 minutes at 50 degrees C

Very simple and scalable

*In vitro* and automatable

Requires overlapping DNA

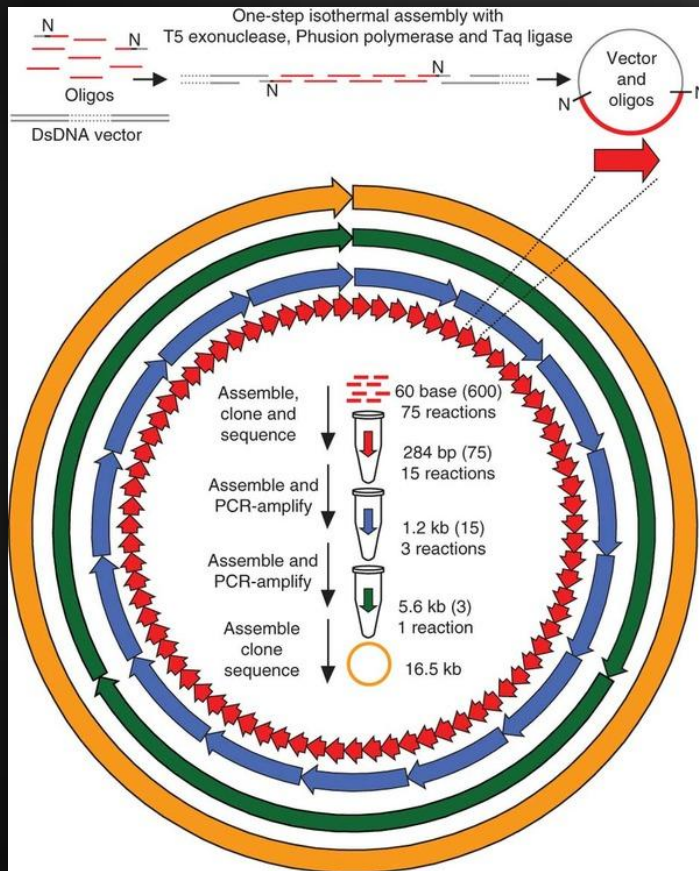






# Gibson Isothermal Assembly (2)

Gibson Isothermal Assembly used as the only method to create a whole Mouse Mitochondrial Genome. DG Gibson *et al.* Nature Methods 2010



- a** Add 8 oligos to 75 wells  
↓  
Add assembly mixture  
↓  
Incubate at 50 °C for 1 h  
↓  
Pool the 75 assembly reactions  
↓  
One transformation into *E. coli*  
↓  
Sequence 600 clones  
(8 × redundancy)
- b** Add 8 oligos to 75 wells  
↓  
Add assembly mixture  
↓  
Incubate at 50 °C for 1 h  
↓  
Individually transform *E. coli*  
↓  
Sequence 8 clones from each of the 75 transformations



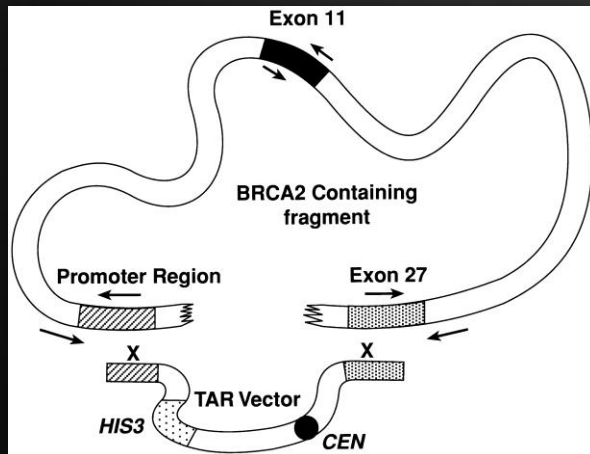
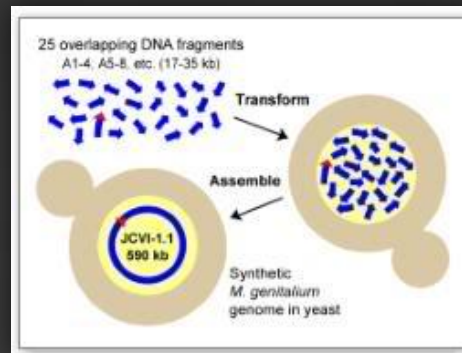
# Yeast Assembly (TAR cloning)

Yeast can be transformed with DNA and will assemble overlapping DNA

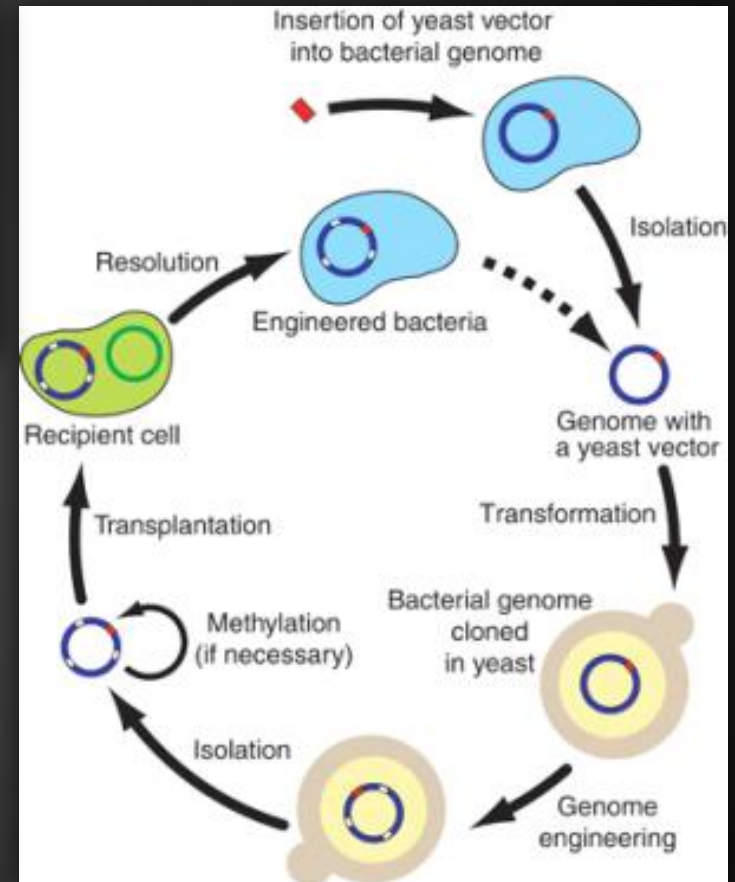
Quite an old method  
'TAR Cloning'

Overlaps need to be  
about 40 bp or more

Yeast can take >2.5 Mbp



*All you  
need is  
yeast!*



# The first synthetic organism: (2) Booting-up

AIM: Genome A into Cell B → turn Cell B into Cell A

A: *M. mycoides* B: *M. capricolum*  
biology

\*different but compatible

C Lartigue *et al.* Science 2007

Comparable to nuclei-switch experiments in *In Vitro* Fertilisation

Genomes are fragile to handle in the lab – maintain in agarose plugs

How to get DNA into cell B? – incredibly inefficient, requires cell fusions  
(no cell wall)

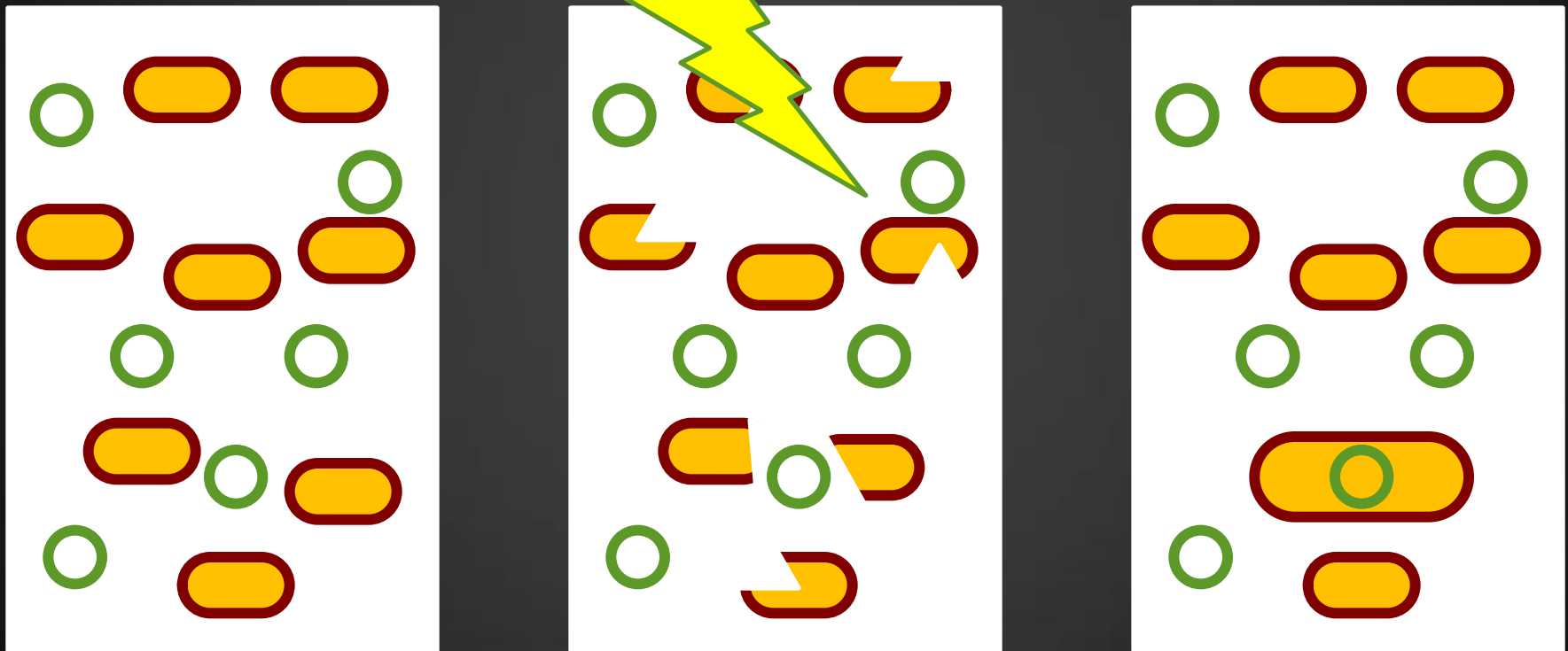
What happens to genome of cell B? – doesn't have antibiotic resistance

Verify with sequencing, proteomics and phenotyping - Expensive

# The first synthetic organism: (2) Booting-up

Successful cell fusion is a very rare event for bacteria

Works with Mycoides but would be tough with bacteria with cell walls



# Finally making Synthia- published in 2010

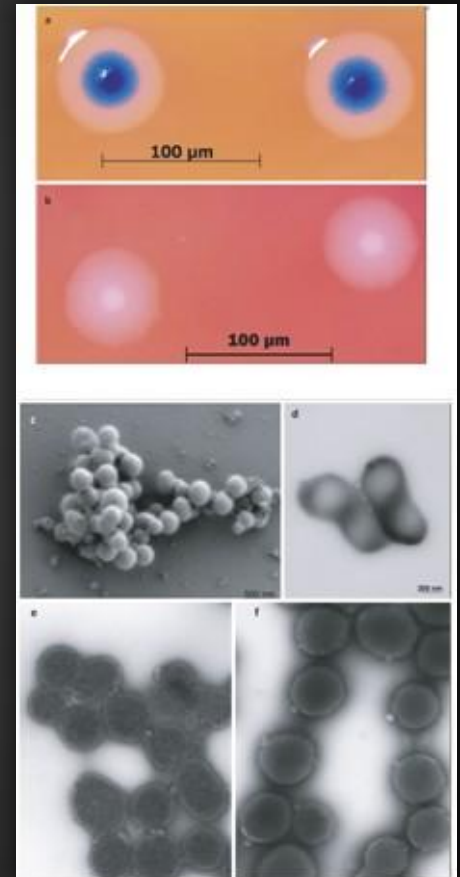
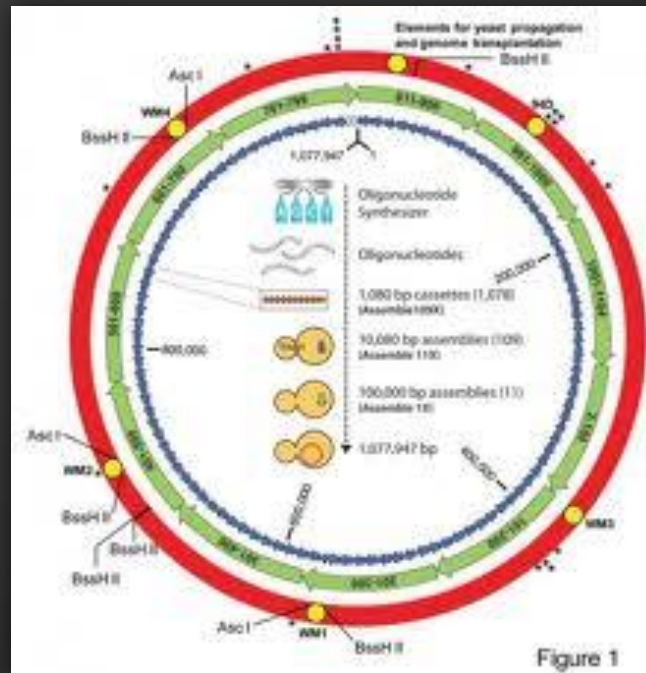
They got it to work: D.G. Gibson *et al* 2010, Science 329 (5987): 52-56

Methylation and restriction enzymes caused trouble in *M.genitalium* – ‘natural immune system for bacteria’

Switched to a different cell  
*M. Mycoides*  
(worked before!)

*M. Mycoides* not a minimal genome cell

Single-base error in synthesis set them back by months





# Genome Engineering can be done by students too!

Jef Boeke and others at John's Hopkins University, USA


Project = Synthetic Yeast 2.0 <http://biostudio.bme.jhu.edu/sc2/>

Undergrad course & iGEM 2008 = **JHU Build-A-Genome Project**  
Now international (China, India, USA and UK)



Jessica S. Dymond *et al.* **Synthetic chromosome arms function in yeast and generate phenotypic diversity by design.** *Nature*, 2011; DOI: [10.1038/nature10403](https://doi.org/10.1038/nature10403)

Team:Johns Hopkins-BAG/B-A-G course



# JHU Build A Genome

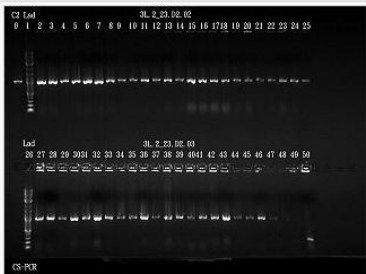
[Moodle](#) [Synthetic Yeast Wiki](#) [Protocols](#) [References](#) [Acknowledgements](#) [Contact](#)

[Home](#)
[Team](#)
[Synthetic Yeast Genome](#)
[B-A-G course](#)
[Building Block synthesis](#)
[A New Standard](#)
[Software Tools](#)

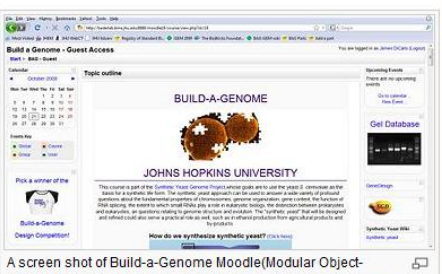
## B-A-G Course

The Build-a-Genome course offers a cool environment in which undergraduate students can participate in cutting-edge interdisciplinary research. In pursuing the synthesis of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* Sc2.0 chromosomes, students gain hands-on experience in synthetic biology research. The de novo synthesis of genetic information offers the promise of a deeper understanding of chromosome structure, gene function, and gene order. The ultimate goal of this class is the development of students into skilled, independent researchers with well-developed troubleshooting skills and experience and familiarity with molecular biology and computational approaches to genomics problems.

The Build-a-Genome course consists of lectures, "Molecular Biology Boot Camp", and eventually, independent research. The lectures offered in the course reflect the many-faceted underpinnings of synthetic biology, ranging in topics from fundamentals of genetics (such as nucleic acid structure and function, chromosome structure, and genome organization) to bioinformatics, to central concepts of synthetic biology (such as recombinant DNA technology, gene synthesis, synthetic circuitry and of course iGEM!). After introductory lectures are complete, students go through eight sessions of molecular biology "boot camp" that serve as a period to review lecture topics, master lab techniques, and learn the methods used in this project. Graduation from the boot camp requires students to submit assignments that verify proficiency in each step of the gene synthesis protocol – such as PCR, agarose gel electrophoresis, molecular cloning, sequence analysis, etc.



An example of a student's colony screening PCR to check for correct inserts after transformation



A screen shot of Build-a-Genome Moodle (Modular Object-Oriented Dynamic Learning Environment) course management software

## Build-a-Genome Course

1. Intro Lectures
2. Molecular Biology Boot Camp (lab practicals on yeast, PCR, recombination etc.)
3. Each student is assigned 12-16 building blocks (~10,000 bp) to build
4. Integration of synthetic DNA into yeast to build the synthetic genome

Building blocks are constructed by the students from 60-80 base oligos.

- a) Use 'overlap assembly' PCR to generate ~800 bp blocks from synthetic oligos



- b) Sequence verification and quality control needed
- c) Building blocks are linked together *in vitro* using Gibson or USER Assembly (Uracil Specific Excision Reagent)

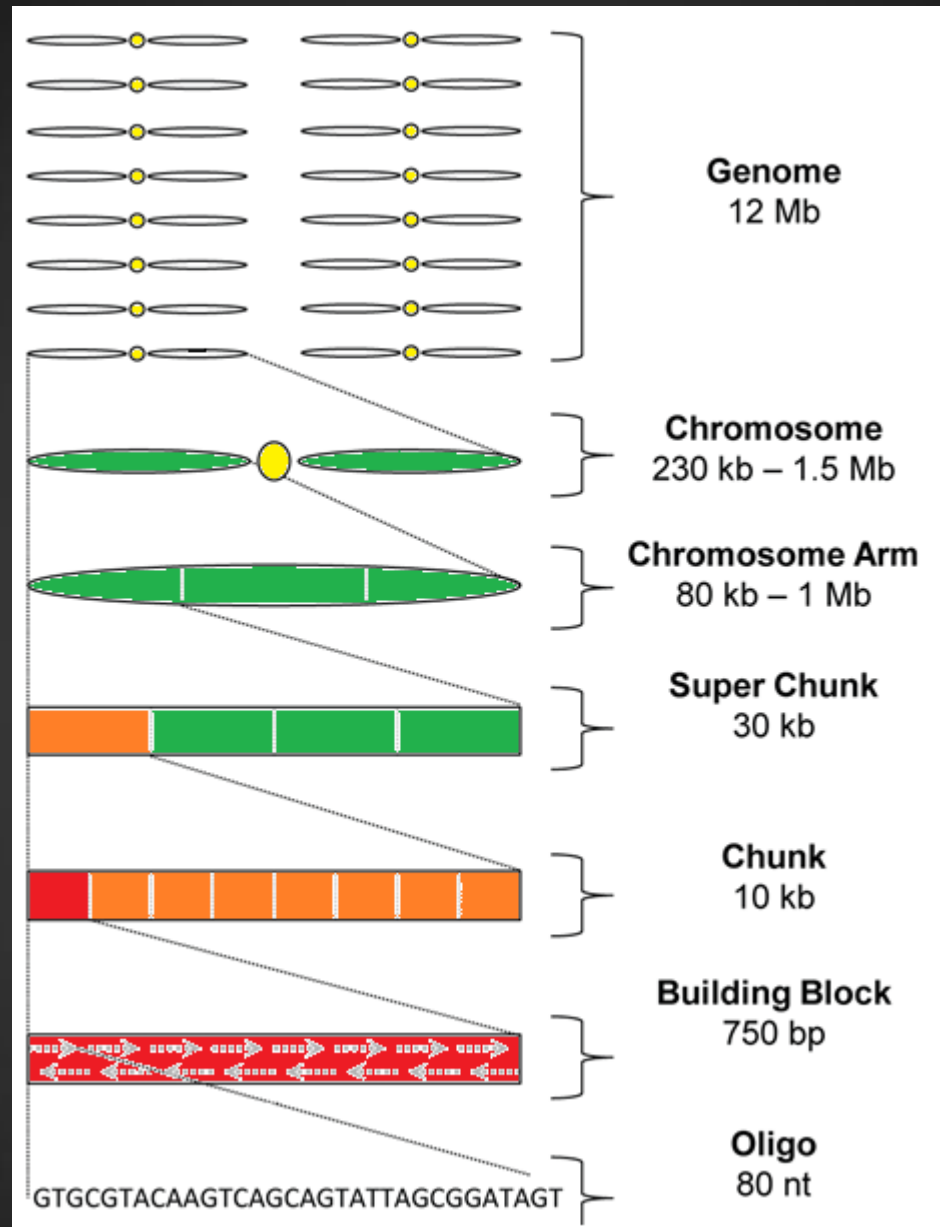
## DNA ASSEMBLY

Yeast native  
recombination

Restriction enzyme  
digest and Ligate

Gibson/USER

PCA: Polymerase  
Chain Assembly



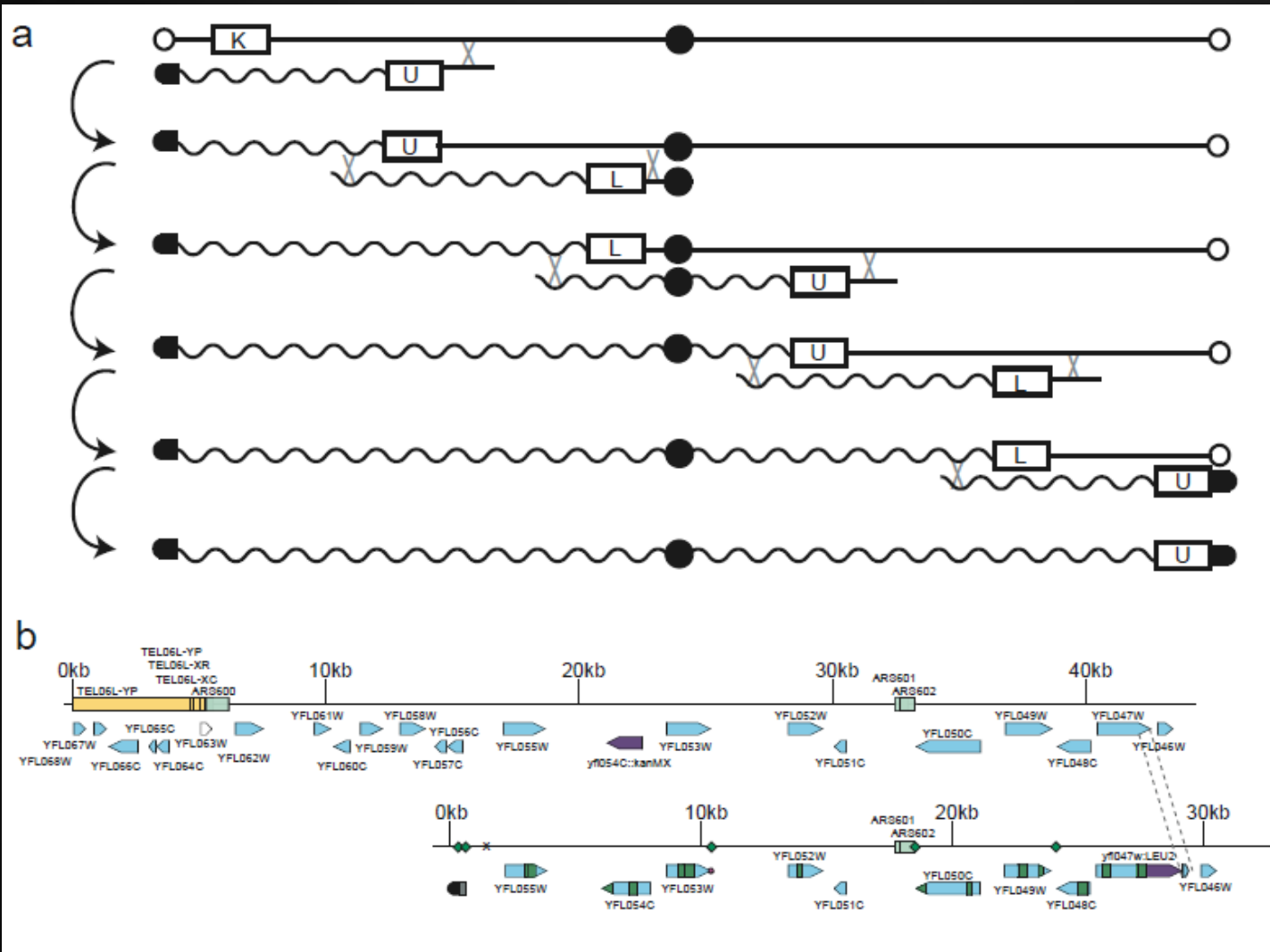
## DNA SOURCE

CHUNKS (10 kb)  
Buy from Genscript,  
GeneArt, DNA2.0, etc.

BLOCKS (0.8 kb)  
Buy from IDT, Gen9 etc.

OLIGOS (80 to 120 nt)  
Buy from IDT, Agilent,  
and many others.

# How to replace native sequence with synthetic in yeast



Reiterative  
Recombination  
Method

Requires two  
selectable  
markers

Makes use of  
yeast's ability  
to recombine  
matching  
sequences

SERIAL process



# Two chromosome arms working by 2011

2011 Nature Paper (make sure to also look at the Supplementary materials)

*Jessica S. Dymond et al. Synthetic chromosome arms function in yeast and generate phenotypic diversity by design. Nature, 2011; DOI: 10.1038/nature10403*

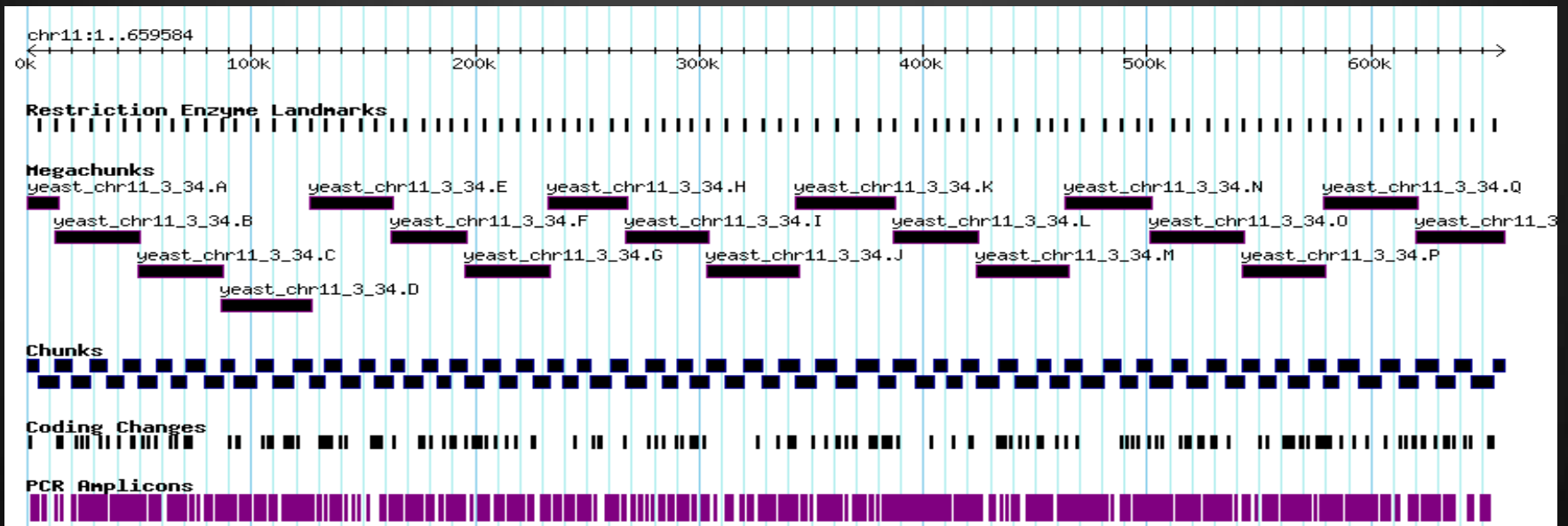
Same basic idea as the iGEM 2009 project and the Build-A-Genome Course

1. **synIXR**      **Chromosome 9 right arm**      **added in one go**

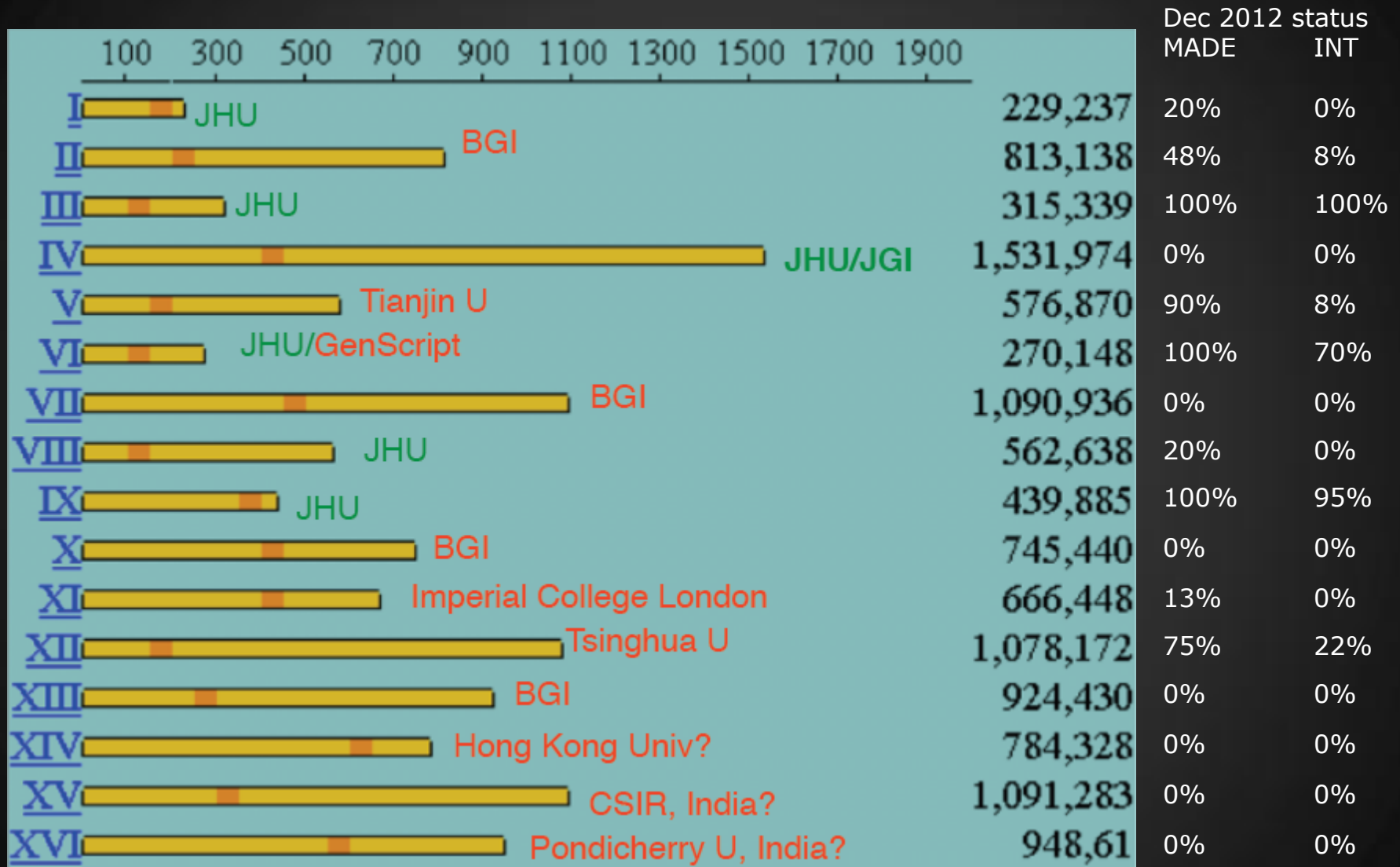
made by commercial gene synthesis and assembled into a BAC (bacterial artificial chromosome) by the company Codon Devices.

2. **semi-synVIL**      **Chromosome 6 left arm**      **4 chunks added serially**

4 big chunks (up to 10,000 bp) were assembled from synthetic oligos by Epoch Biolabs



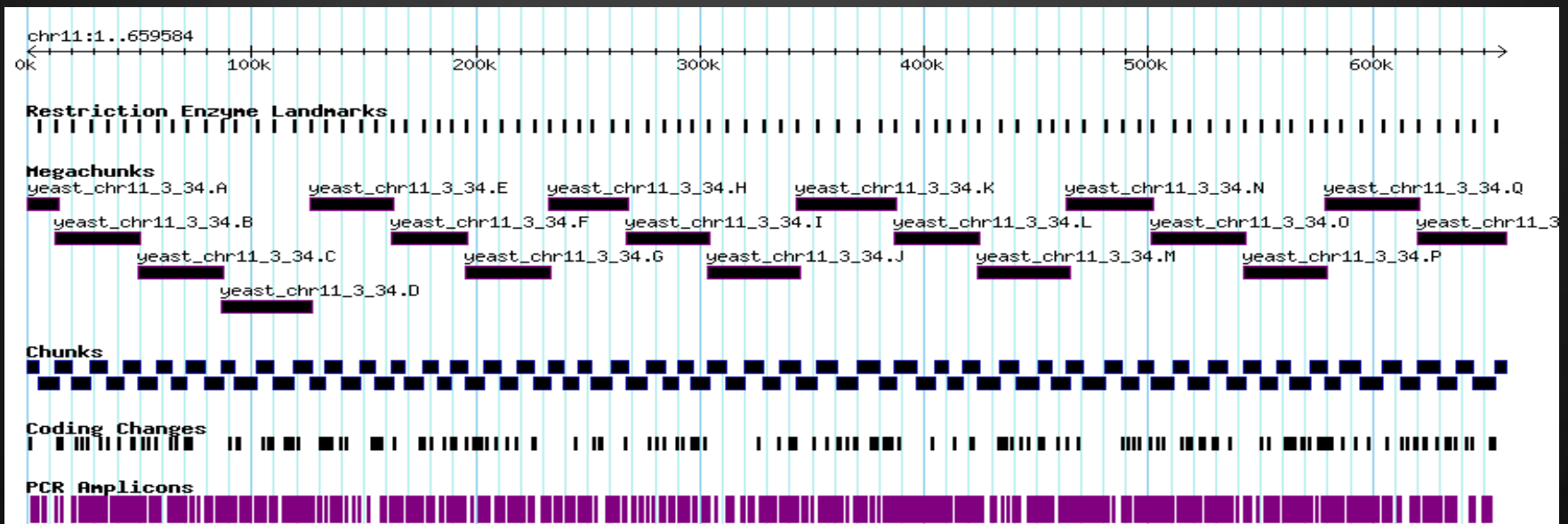
# Synthetic Yeast Goes Global



# Synthetic Yeast Goes Global



UK are doing  
chromosome XI  
(666,000 bp)



# Dymond *et al* 2011 - 2 synthetic chromosome arms in yeast

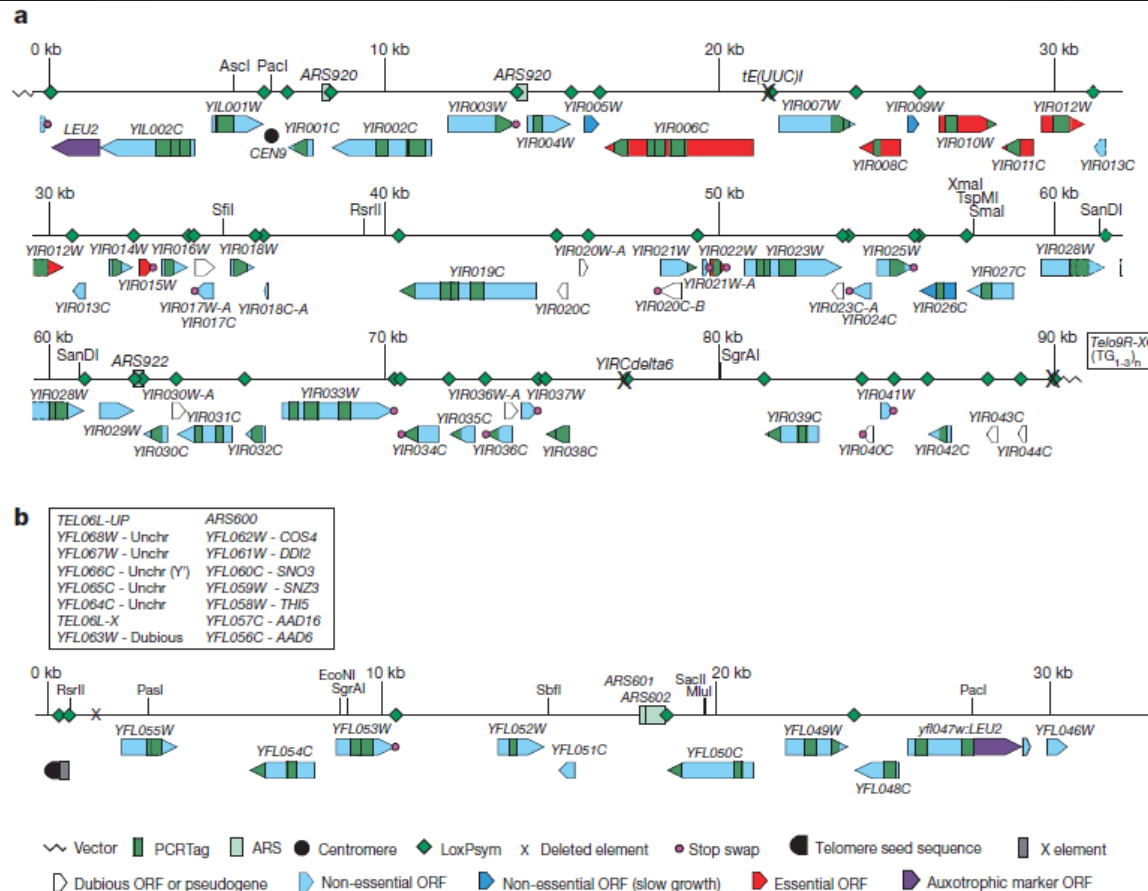


Figure 1 | Maps of synIXR and semi-synVIL. Boxed text indicates elements deleted in the synthetic chromosomes. Vertical green bars inside ORFs indicate PCRTag amplicons; only sequences at the outside edges of these are recorded.

ARS, autonomously replicating sequence. a, SynIXR. Vector is circular. b, Semi-synVIL.



# Dymond *et al* 2011 – Synthetic Design

## BOX 1

### Modifications in synthetic sequence

#### Elements removed

**Retrotransposons:** The *S. cerevisiae* genome contains both active retrotransposons and retrotransposon-derived sequences. These highly repetitive sequences are known to contribute to genome instability<sup>22</sup>. Because retrotransposons are presumed to be nonessential in yeast, we are eliminating these sequences from the synthetic genome.

**Subtelomeric repeats:** Two major types of subtelomeric repeats, Y' and X elements, reside in the genome. Y' elements are of unknown function, and are present at some, but not all, *S. cerevisiae* chromosome ends<sup>23</sup>. In contrast, X elements are present in a single copy at all *S. cerevisiae* chromosome ends; they are more highly divergent, and function in telomeric silencing and possibly in chromosome segregation<sup>23</sup>. To create a more streamlined genome, all Y' elements will be deleted from the synthetic genome; extant X elements will be replaced with the consensus core X-element sequence, as in semi-synVIL.

**Introns:** The yeast genome is estimated to contain approximately 285 introns. Based on a previous intron-deletion study<sup>24</sup> we do not anticipate that removal of introns will result in fitness defects; however, in some cases these introns house small non-coding RNAs (snoRNAs) that can be expressed ectopically in the synthetic yeast.

#### Elements relocated to extrachromosomal array

**tRNA genes:** tRNA genes (tDNAs) are highly redundant, with 275 nuclear tDNAs encoding only 42 tRNA species<sup>25</sup>. In addition, these genes are known regions of genome instability<sup>8,9</sup>. They will therefore be relocated to a dedicated chromosome to contain any instability resulting from their presence.

#### Elements replaced

**TAG stop codons replaced by TAA:** Removal of the TAG stop codon from the synthetic genome will allow future genetic code manipulation. The 'free' codon may be used to incorporate artificial amino acids<sup>11,12</sup>; alternatively, the TAG codon may be placed in essential genes, and, exploiting an engineered orthogonal synthetase/tRNA pair, specify a non-genetically encoded amino acid, thereby providing a mechanism of reproductive isolation and an additional level of control over the synthetic yeast.

**Individual synonymous codons:** The synthetic genome is fabricated in fragments as small as 750 bp<sup>26</sup>. Unique restriction sites are necessary within the synthetic fragment to facilitate construction of these building blocks into large contigs of up to 100 kb. Short stretches of fewer than four codons may therefore be synonymously recoded to introduce or eliminate restriction sites.

**Strings of synonymous codons:** Although several modifications exist between the native and synthetic genomes, the presence of a dedicated mechanism to distinguish between the two sequence types is invaluable. Short stretches of fewer than ten codons are therefore recoded to generate 'PCRTags', synonymous sequences used as the basis for PCR primer design to amplify selectively from wild-type or synthetic genomes.

#### Elements introduced

**LoxP<sub>Sym</sub> sites:** Symmetrical loxP sites<sup>13</sup> are inserted in the 3' UTR of all non-essential genes, as well as at synthetic landmarks. LoxP<sub>Sym</sub> sites lack the directionality of canonical loxP sites, and can therefore align in two orientations. As a result, both inversions and deletions are predicted at equal probability. These loxP<sub>Sym</sub> sites and an inducible Cre recombinase<sup>15</sup> form the basis of the SCRaMbLE toolkit.

#### Elements not changed

**Gene order:** Gene order is preserved in the synthetic yeast to prevent incorporation of a non-permissible configuration in the design phase. Induction of SCRaMbLE results in changes in gene order and chromosome structure; all recovered SCRaMbLEd yeast have viable genome structures.

**Noncoding regions:** Except where noted, noncoding regions have not been modified. The yeast genome is well annotated; however, it is of paramount importance that the synthetic yeast be as fit as wild type until SCRaMbLE is induced. We therefore eschewed changes of noncoding regions to avoid disrupting unannotated critical elements. The few modifications that are made in noncoding sequence are kept to a minimum.

# Genome Engineering – what to change?

Venter – added watermark sequences at intergenic sites using a cryptic code  
scientists' names, famous quotes, email address (rest stays the same)

SC2.0 – many more changes...

## 1. Remove unwanted elements

Retrotransposons, subtelomeric repeats, introns (285 in yeast)

## 2. Relocate essential elements

Move tRNA genes to a dedicated chromosome

## 3. Introduce new elements

Symmetrical loxP sites inserted in the 3'UTR of all non-essential genes, and at synthetic landmarks. This generates the SCRaMbLE toolkit.

## 4. Recode existing elements

With DNA synthesis it is possible to 'silently' change protein coding sequence by using synonymous codons – change all TAG stop codons to TAA codons, incorporate unique sequence tags for PCR and remove some restriction sites.

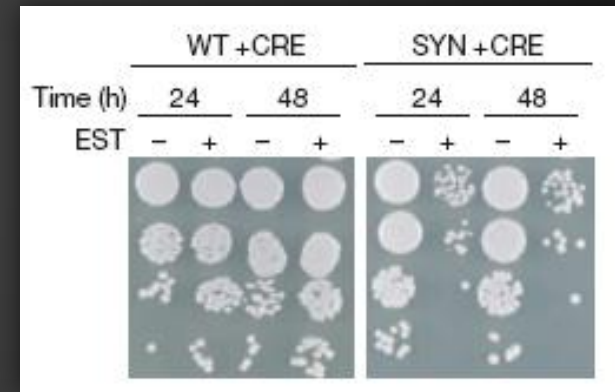
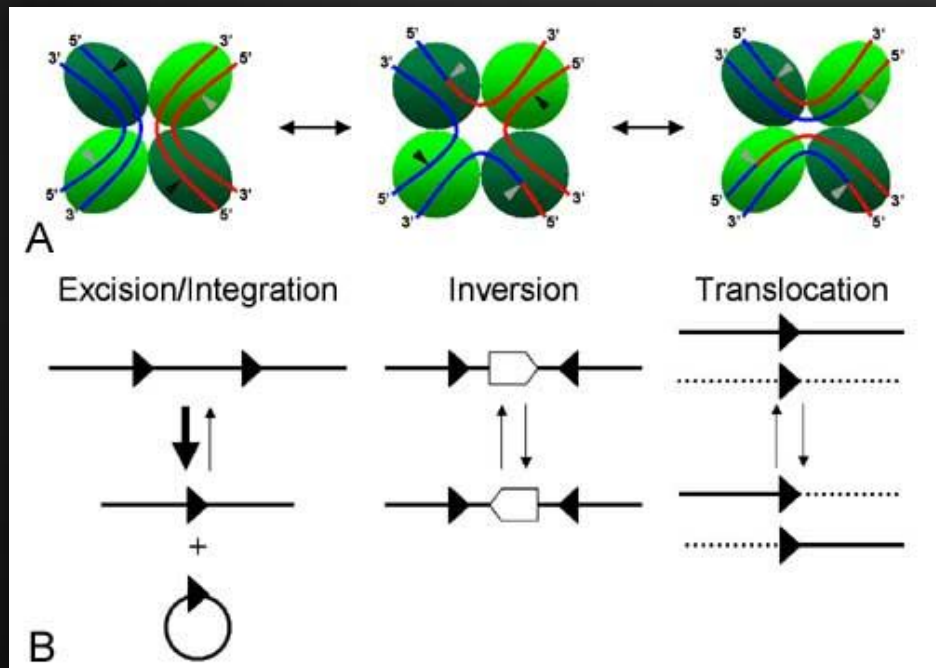
# Automated refactoring of genomes

## SC2.0

Symmetrical loxP sites inserted in the 3'UTR of all non-essential genes, and at synthetic landmarks. This generates the SCRaMbLE toolkit.

LoxPsym sites are cut and moved around by Cre recombinase

SC2.0 has inducible Cre expression. Add oestradiol = whole genome shuffle



Automatic refactoring of genome – un-needed genes will be lost

# Genome Engineering – what to change?

Venter – added watermark sequences at intergenic sites using a cryptic code  
scientists' names, famous quotes, email address (rest stays the same)

SC2.0 – many more changes...

## 1. Remove unwanted elements

Retrotransposons, subtelomeric repeats, introns (285 in yeast)

## 2. Relocate essential elements

Move tRNA genes to a dedicated chromosome

## 3. Introduce new elements

Symmetrical loxP sites inserted in the 3'UTR of all non-essential genes, and at synthetic landmarks. This generates the SCRaMbLE toolkit

## 4. Recode existing elements

With DNA synthesis it is possible to 'silently' change protein coding sequence by using synonymous codons – change all TAG stop codons to TAA codons, incorporate unique sequence tags for PCR and remove some restriction sites.

# Synonymous Codons

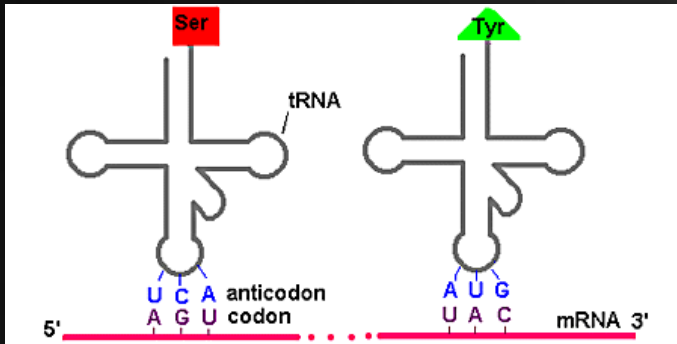
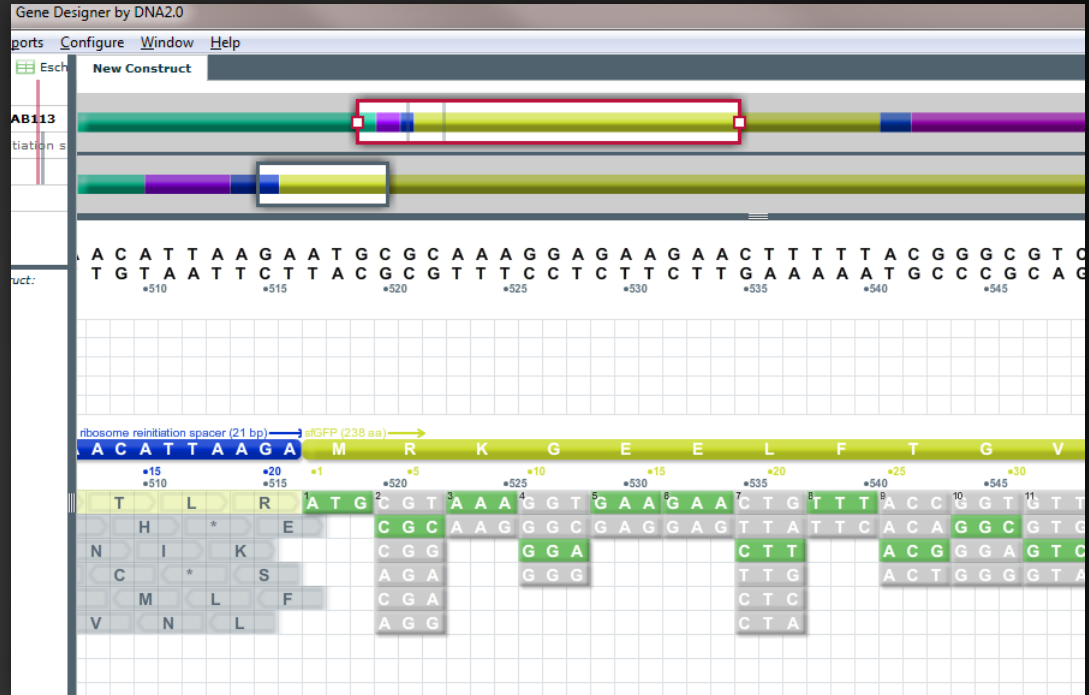


Diagram illustrating the genetic code. A tRNA with an anticodon of UCA (labeled 'Ser') is shown pairing with an mRNA codon of AUG (labeled 'Tyr'). The mRNA sequence is 5' to 3'.

		2nd base in codon				
		U	C	A	G	
1st base in codon	U	Phe Phe Leu	Ser Ser Ser	Tyr Tyr STOP	Cys Cys STOP	U C A G
	C	Leu Leu Leu	Pro Pro Pro	His His Gln	Arg Arg Arg	U C A G
	A	Ile Ile Ile	Thr Thr Thr	Asn Asn Lys	Ser Ser Arg	U C A G
	G	Val Val Val	Ala Ala Ala	Asp Asp Glu	Gly Gly Gly	U C A G
						3rd base in codon

**The Genetic Code**



Gene Designer by DNA2.0

ports Configure Window Help

New Construct

AB113

tation s

uct:

ribosome reinitiation spacer (21 bp)

sGFP (238 aa)

ACATTAAGA M R K G E E L F T G V

15 20 25 30 35 40 45 50 55 60 65 70 75 80 85 90 95 100 105 110 115 120 125 130 135 140 145 150 155 160 165 170 175 180 185 190 195 200 205 210 215 220 225 230 235 240 245 250 255 260 265 270 275 280 285 290 295 300 305 310 315 320 325 330 335 340 345 350 355 360 365 370 375 380 385 390 395 400 405 410 415 420 425 430 435 440 445 450 455 460 465 470 475 480 485 490 495 500 505 510 515 520 525 530 535 540 545 550 555 560 565 570 575 580 585 590 595 600 605 610 615 620 625 630 635 640 645 650 655 660 665 670 675 680 685 690 695 700 705 710 715 720 725 730 735 740 745 750 755 760 765 770 775 780 785 790 795 800 805 810 815 820 825 830 835 840 845 850 855 860 865 870 875 880 885 890 895 900 905 910 915 920 925 930 935 940 945 950 955 960 965 970 975 980 985 990 995 1000

*Gene Designer*  
*Synthetic Biology Design Software*  
*DNA2.0 ltd.*



# Codon Optimisation for Synthetic Biology

UUU F 0.57	UCU S 0.11	UAU Y 0.53	UGU C 0.42
UUC F 0.43	UCC S 0.11	UAC Y 0.47	UGC C 0.58
UUA L 0.15	UCA S 0.15	UAA * 0.64	UGA * 0.36
UUG L 0.12	UCG S 0.16	UAG * 0.00	UGG W 1.00

CUU L 0.12	CCU P 0.17	CAU H 0.55	CGU R 0.36
CUC L 0.10	CCC P 0.13	CAC H 0.45	CGC R 0.44
CUA L 0.05	CCA P 0.14	CAA Q 0.30	CGA R 0.07
CUG L 0.46	CCG P 0.55	CAG Q 0.70	CGG R 0.07

AUU I 0.58	ACU T 0.16	AAU N 0.47	AGU S 0.14
AUC I 0.35	ACC T 0.47	AAC N 0.53	AGC S 0.33
AUA I 0.07	ACA T 0.13	AAA K 0.73	AGA R 0.02
AUG M 1.00	ACG T 0.24	AAG K 0.27	AGG R 0.03

GUU V 0.25	GCU A 0.11	GAU D 0.65	GGU G 0.29
GUC V 0.18	GCC A 0.31	GAC D 0.35	GGC G 0.46
GUA V 0.17	GCA A 0.21	GAA E 0.70	GGA G 0.13
GUG V 0.40	GCG A 0.38	GAG E 0.30	GGG G 0.12

[Codon/a.a./fraction per codon per a.a.]  
E. coli K12 data from the Codon Usage Database

*E. coli*

UUU F 0.46	UCU S 0.19	UAU Y 0.44	UGU C 0.46
UUC F 0.54	UCC S 0.22	UAC Y 0.56	UGC C 0.54
UUA L 0.08	UCA S 0.15	UAA * 0.30	UGA * 0.47
UUG L 0.13	UCG S 0.05	UAG * 0.24	UGG W 1.00

CUU L 0.13	CCU P 0.29	CAU H 0.42	CGU R 0.08
CUC L 0.20	CCC P 0.32	CAC H 0.58	CGC R 0.18
CUA L 0.07	CCA P 0.28	CAA Q 0.27	CGA R 0.11
CUG L 0.40	CCG P 0.11	CAG Q 0.73	CGG R 0.20

AUU I 0.36	ACU T 0.25	AAU N 0.47	AGU S 0.15
AUC I 0.47	ACC T 0.36	AAC N 0.53	AGC S 0.24
AUA I 0.17	ACA T 0.28	AAA K 0.43	AGA R 0.21
AUG M 1.00	ACG T 0.11	AAG K 0.57	AGG R 0.21

GUU V 0.18	GCU A 0.27	GAU D 0.46	GGU G 0.16
GUC V 0.24	GCC A 0.40	GAC D 0.54	GGC G 0.34
GUA V 0.12	GCA A 0.23	GAA E 0.42	GGA G 0.25
GUG V 0.46	GCG A 0.11	GAG E 0.58	GGG G 0.25

[Codon/a.a./fraction per codon per a.a.]  
Homo sapiens data from the Codon Usage Database

*Human*

Codon optimisation – algorithms that use these tables so that genes can be transferred from one organism to another.

Different synthesis companies use different tables and algorithms

# Stop Codon Swapping

**Start**                      **RNA**                      **Stop**

ACCA-**AUG**-AUA-GCC-GAU-GGG-**UGA**-GGAG

**Met -Ile -Ala-Asp-Gly**

**protein**

**The start codon is AUG and it also codes for Methionine**

**There are three  
stop codons  
UGA, UAA, UAG**

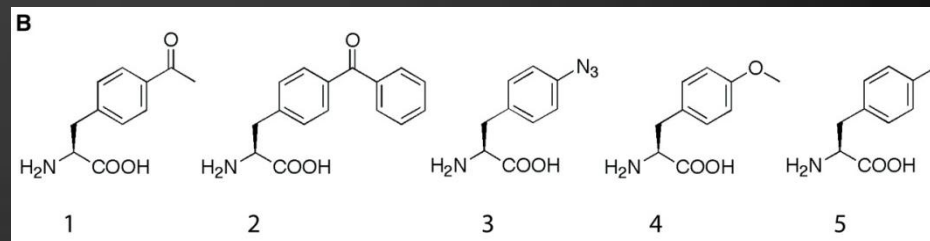
The rarest codon in most genomes is the TAG stop codon

Swapping all of these for TAA codon  
will 'free-up' an unused codon

Previous work by Peter Schultz's Lab has shown that unnatural amino acids can be programmed into yeast proteins by hijacking the TAG codon.

## SC2.0 Yeast with 21 amino acids?

*An Expanded Eukaryotic Genetic Code*  
*Jason W. Chin et al. Science 2003*



# Genome Editing *en masse* - RE.Coli

## Genome Engineering of *E. coli*

George Church Lab – Harvard

Remove all TAG stop  
codons on the natural  
genome (326)

Free-up further codons in  
the future

NOT using DNA synthesis

Future:  
Swap over codons?  
Serine → Arginine

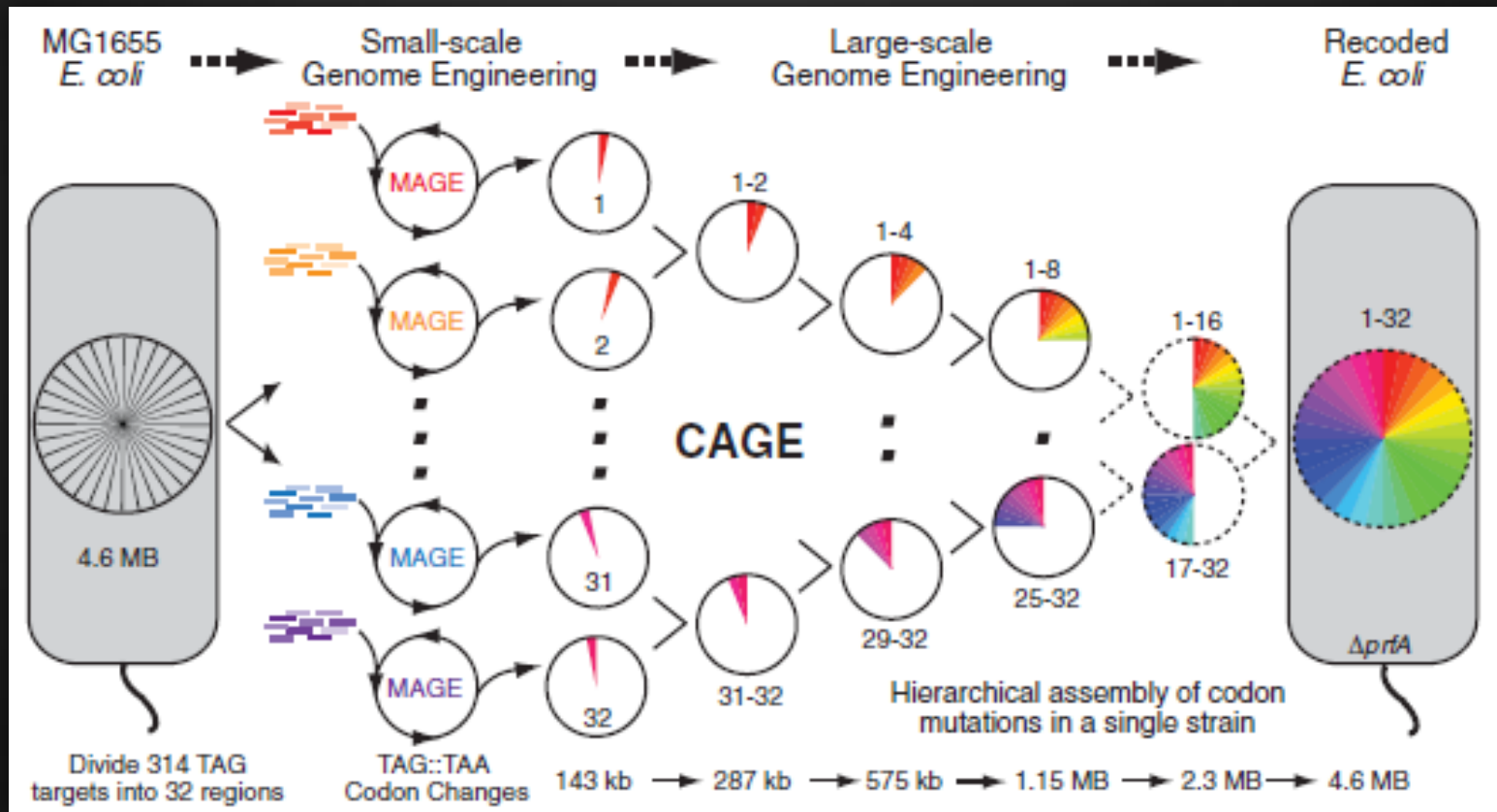
TTT	30362	TCT	11495	TAT	21999	TGT	7048
TTC	F 22516	TCC	S 11720	TAC	Y 16601	TGC	C 8816
TTA	4 18932	TCA	S 9783	TAA	STOP 2703	TGA	STOP 1256
TTG	L 18602	TCG	12166	TAG	STOP 1 326	TGG	W 20683
CTT	15002	CCT	9559	CAT	17613	CGT	28382
CTC	15077	CCC	P 7485	CAC	H 13227	CGC	R 29898
CTA	5314	CCA	P 11471	CAA	20888	CGA	R 4859
CTG	L 71553	CCG	31515	CAG	Q 39188	CGG	7399
ATT	41309	ACT	12198	AAT	24159	AGT	S 11970
ATC	I 34178	ACC	T 31796	AAC	N 29385	AGC	S 21862
ATA	5967	ACA	T 9670	AAA	45687	AGA	2896
ATG	M 37915	ACG	19624	AAG	K 14029	AGG	R 2 1692
GTT	24858	GCT	20762	GAT	43719	GGT	33622
GTC	V 20753	GCC	A 34695	GAC	D 25918	GGC	G 40285
GTA	14822	GCA	A 27418	GAA	53641	GGA	G 10893
GTG	35918	GCG	45741	GAG	E 24254	GGG	15090

Total number of codons in *E. coli* genome

# RE.coli - Large-Scale Editing of Genomes

Last update: Farren J. Isaacs *et al.* Science 15 July 2011: Vol. 333 pp. 348-353

2013... done but not yet published



# Status of 3 main projects in 2013

## *Mycoplasma Mycoides*

1 million bp

Completed

100% synthetic genome

Changes:

A few watermark regions

Team CRAIG VENTER

Private bio-entrepreneur

Special Powers: **Minimal**

- Good starting chassis for synthetic biology
- Investigate what is need for life?

## *E. coli (RE.coli)*

4.6 million bp

Done but not published

Oligo-edited genome

Changes:

All TAG codons to TAA

Team GEORGE CHURCH

Famous Harvard scientist

Special Powers: **Recoded**

- Non-natural amino acids can be added
- Potential xenobiology

## *S. cerevisiae yeast (SC2.0)*

12 million bp

5 arms out of 32 (16 Chr)

~90% synthetic genome

Changes:

no introns  
loxPsyms, no TAG codons

Team BOEKE and.... iGEM  
undergrads, China, UK

Special Powers: **Shuffling**

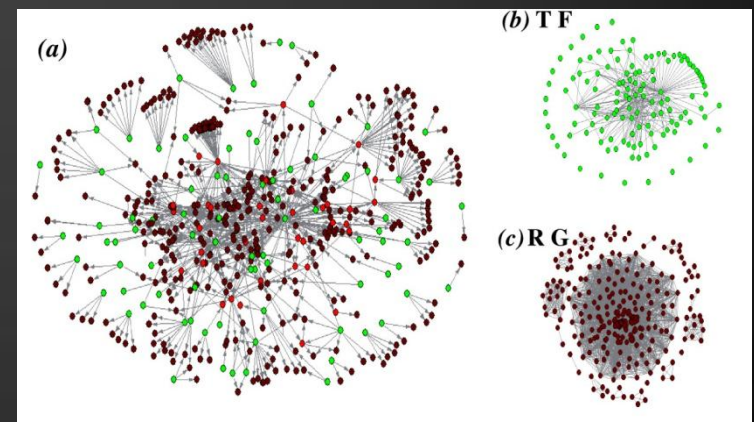
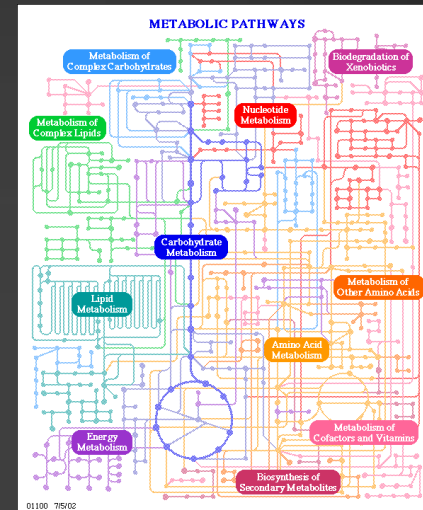
- Automated way to probe gene order
- Automated removal of unneeded genes



# Modeling & Genome Engineering

A computational platform to design genomes : needs large-scale bottom-up models

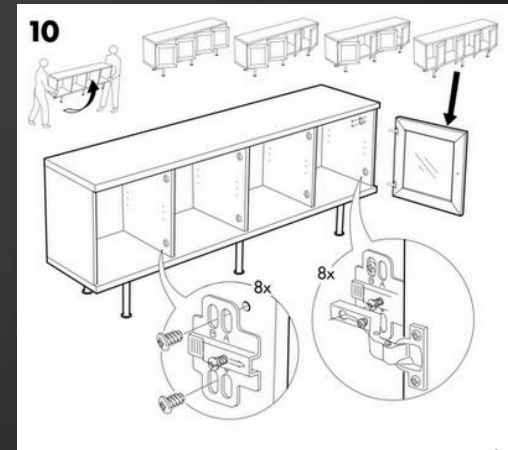
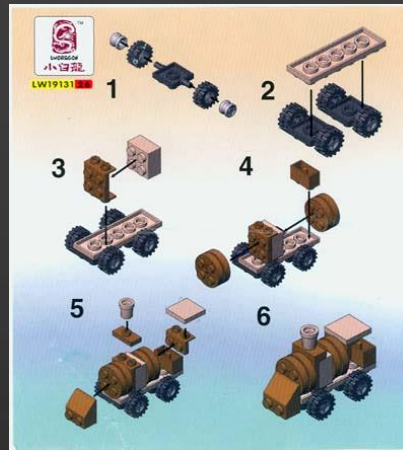
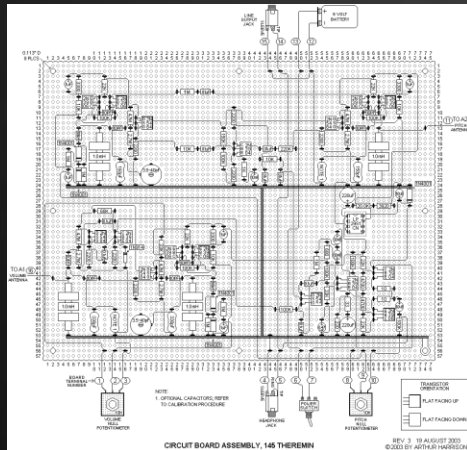
1. Model the central core life functions – Replication, Transcription and Translation
2. Model metabolic networks and enzymes involved
3. Add regulation: a global transcriptional model
4. Improve the models with *in silico* directed evolution
5. Use the models to choose the organisation of genes on the genome
6. Try building versions and testing these



# Why do genome engineering?

## 1. Bottom-up synthetic biology

- Adding genes and devices should be more predictable
- Creating a whole-cell model should be easier and allow better predictions of behaviour
- Provides a route to designing the chassis cell fit for a specific application
- Removal of unstable / recombination elements



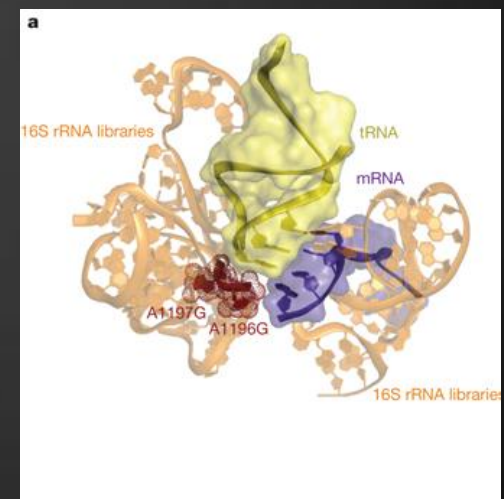
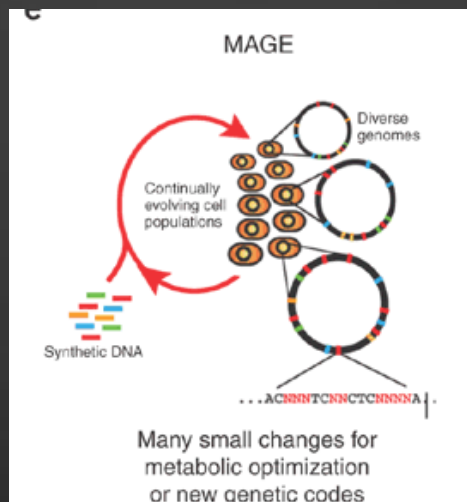
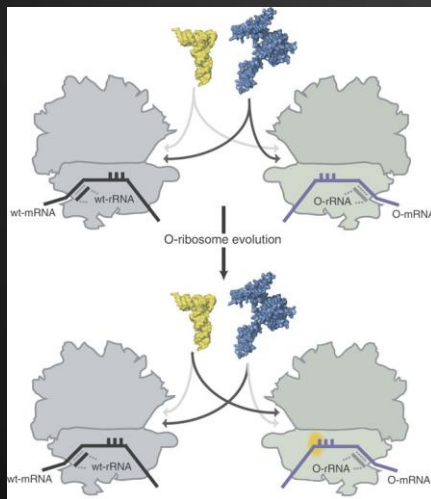
# Why do genome engineering?

## 2. Provides for safer synthetic biology

- Cell can be designed to only survive in lab conditions
- Cell could be made orthogonal so that its biology doesn't interact with nature – a.k.a *xenobiology*

examples: change codon usage or change stereochemistry

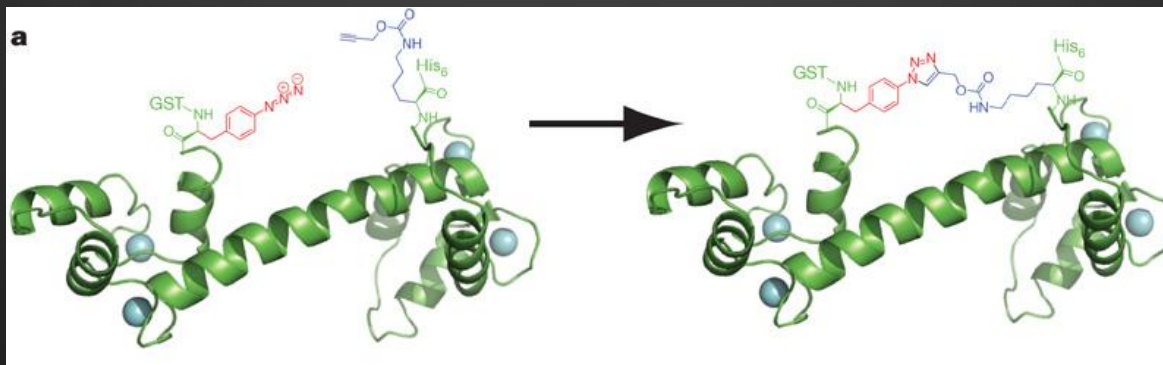
- Better predictability from bottom-up design



# Why do genome engineering?

## 3. Custom synthesis of products

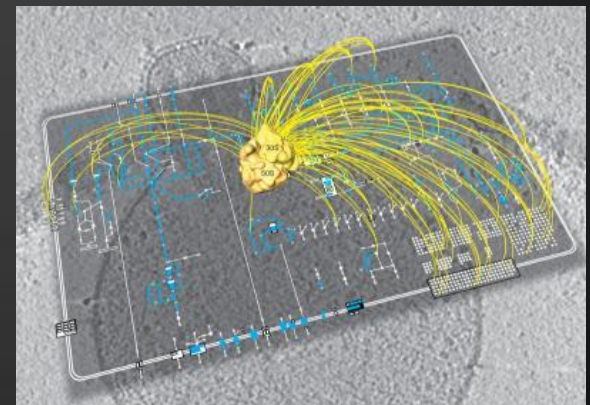
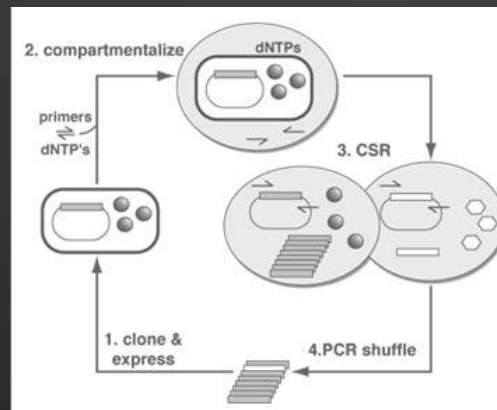
- Cells could be designed to produce non-natural proteins and sugars using synthetic building blocks
- Minimal cells would only use resources to make the desired products and so be more efficient
- Very cheap production of DNA could be engineered
- Synthesis of molecules that are toxic to produce in normal cells
- Recoded cells may not be attached by viruses and phages



# Why do genome engineering?

## 4. Other areas

- Minimal cell gives us a chance to study the origins of cellular life and potentially exobiology
- Fast evolution can be engineered to rapidly produce new enzymes
- Minimal cells would be easier to integrate into life-on-a-chip systems – e.g. a small screening device that sequences DNA, then synthesizes all the proteins from that DNA and compares their affinity to an antigen





# What you should now know and read up on!

You could get exam questions on...

1. Examples of minimal cells in nature
2. Top down versus bottom-up minimal cells
3. How JCVI made the first cell with a synthetic genome
4. The DNA assembly methods for assembling genomes
5. How to make synthetic yeast chromosomes
6. Re-factoring genomes rationally and automatically
7. Synonymous codons and recoding the genetic code
8. Editing bacterial genomes – how and why?
9. Design and modelling for genome-scale engineering
10. Applications for minimal cells and engineered genomes

# Reading – Key Research Papers

Creation of a Bacterial Cell Controlled by a Chemically Synthesized Genome

- DG Gibson et al. Science Vol. 329 no. 5987 (2 July 2010), pp. 52-56

Complete Chemical Synthesis, Assembly, and Cloning of a Mycoplasma genitalium Genome

- DG Gibson et al. Science Vol. 319 no. 5867 (29 February 2008), pp. 1215-1220.

Synthetic chromosome arms function in yeast and generate phenotypic diversity by design

- JS Dymond et al. Nature 477 (22 September 2011) pp. 471–476

ALSO take a look at the Supplementary Materials for this paper

And also there is: [http://2009.igem.org/Team:Johns\\_Hopkins-BAG](http://2009.igem.org/Team:Johns_Hopkins-BAG)  
<http://biostudio.bme.jhu.edu/sc2/>

Precise manipulation of chromosomes in vivo enables genome-wide codon replacement.

- FJ Isaacs et al. Science Vol. 333 (15 July 2011 ) pp. 348-353

Programming cells by multiplex genome engineering and accelerated evolution

- HH Wang et al. Nature 460 (13 August 2009) pp. 894-898

# Reading – Further Research Papers

## METHODS FOR GENOME ASSEMBLY AND TRANSPLANTATION BY VENTER GROUP

Enzymatic assembly of DNA molecules up to several hundred kilobases

- DG Gibson et al. Nature Methods 6, 343 - 345 (2009)

Chemical synthesis of the mouse mitochondrial genome

- DG Gibson et al. Nature Methods 7, 901–903 (2010)

Genome Transplantation in Bacteria: Changing One Species to Another

- C Lartigue et al. Science Vol. 317 no. 5838 (3 August 2007 ), pp. 632-638

# Reading – Useful Reviews & Perspectives

Genome Engineering – PA Carr and GM Church

Nature Biotechnology, Vol. 27, No.12. (12 December 2009), pp. 1151-1162

Update on designing and building minimal cells – MC Jewett and AC Forster

Current Opinion in Biotechnology, Vol. 21, Issue 5 (October 2010), pp. 697-703

Towards Synthesis of a Minimal Cell – AC Forster and GM Church

Molecular Systems Biology, Vol. 2 (22 August 2006)

Excavating the Functional Landscape of Bacterial Cells - H Ochman and R Raghavan

Science, Vol. 326 no. 5957 (27 November 2009 ), pp. 1200-1201

Minimal Cell Model

Artificial assembly of a minimal cell – G Murtas

Mol. BioSyst., Vol. 5, No. 11. (2009), pp. 1292-1297.

Artificial Cells

Towards the automated engineering of a synthetic genome – J Carrera, G Rodrigo and A Jaramillo

Mol. BioSyst., Vol. 5, No. 7. (July 2009), pp. 733-743.

Modeling/Software