UNFOLDING THE MOLECULAR RESOURCE ARSENAL: r-DNA TECHNOLOGY

Joys Rachel I[1]
Computational and Mathematical Biology Lab
Translational Health Science and Technology Institute
Faridabad, Haryana, India
Email: joysrachel18@gmail.com

Dr. Ashish Kumar Agrahari*
M K BHAN Young Researcher
Translational Health Science and Technology Institute
Faridabad, Haryana, India
Email: akagrahari@thsti.res.in*
*Corresponding Author

I. ABSTRACT:

Recombinant DNA (rDNA) technology has revolutionized the field of biotechnology, offering unprecedented opportunities for the manipulation and engineering of genetic material. This abstract provides a concise overview of the current state of rDNA technology and its potential applications. The foundation of rDNA technology lies in the ability to combine genetic material from different sources to create novel DNA sequences. This process, facilitated by restriction enzymes and DNA ligases, has led to the development of genetically modified organisms (GMOs), recombinant proteins, and gene therapies. The ability to manipulate DNA has transformed agriculture, pharmaceuticals, and medical research.

In agriculture, rDNA technology has enabled the creation of genetically modified crops with enhanced traits, such as pest resistance and increased nutritional content. These advancements hold the promise of addressing global food security challenges and reducing the environmental impact of agriculture. In the pharmaceutical industry, rDNA technology has paved the way for the production of therapeutic proteins, like insulin and growth hormones, through the use of genetically engineered microorganisms. These advancements have improved the quality and availability of essential medications.

In the realm of medicine, rDNA technology has opened doors to gene therapy, a groundbreaking approach to treating genetic disorders by introducing functional genes into patients. This technology has the potential to cure previously incurable diseases and transform the landscape of personalized medicine. However, with great promise comes ethical and safety concerns. The responsible and ethical use of rDNA technology is of paramount importance, as unintended consequences and environmental risks may arise from its widespread application. Regulatory frameworks and guidelines are continuously evolving to address these challenges.

In conclusion, recombinant DNA technology represents a dynamic and transformative field with far-reaching implications for agriculture, medicine, and industry. As researchers continue to refine and expand its applications, society must grapple with the ethical, regulatory, and safety considerations to ensure that rDNA technology is harnessed for the benefit of humanity and the environment.

Keywords— Recombinant DNA, Genetically Modified Organism, Manipulate DNA, Gene Therapy.

II. INTRODUCTION:

A. What is a recombinant DNA?

This is the technology where individual genes can be isolated and cloned by cleaving the DNA using restriction endonucleases into small fragments and then ligating the fragments to the replicating plasmid, only to give forth a recombinant DNA.

The technology used to create recombinant DNA is known as genetic engineering or gene cloning. Genetic engineers use specialized techniques to isolate specific genes or DNA fragments of interest from one organism and then insert them into the DNA of another organism. This allows them to transfer desired traits, genes, or genetic information from one organism to another. Once inside the host cell, the recombinant DNA can be replicated and expressed, leading to the production of proteins encoded by the inserted genes (Birnboim & Doly, 1979)

B. Historical Context:

The historical development of Recombinant DNA technology has revolutionized various fields, including biotechnology, medicine, agriculture, and basic scientific research. It allows scientists to produce valuable proteins, create genetically modified organisms (GMOs) with improved traits, study gene functions, and develop treatments for genetic disorders (Cohen, 2013)

Recombinant DNA technology, with its roots dating back to the 1970s, has evolved through significant breakthroughs in molecular biology and genetics. The discovery of restriction enzymes and DNA ligase allowed the manipulation of DNA fragments and the creation of recombinant DNA molecules. The first successful combination of DNA from different sources marked a pivotal moment in the field. Gene cloning techniques and the development of PCR further accelerated progress. This technology has enabled the production of valuable proteins, gene therapy advancements, and genetic engineering in various industries. The completion of the Human Genome Project and the advent of genome editing tools like CRISPR-Cas9 have propelled recombinant DNA technology to new heights, fostering numerous applications in biotechnology, medicine, agriculture, and scientific research, aimed at enhancing human well-being and understanding the complexities of life.(A. Pingoud et al., 2014)

However, it is important to note that the creation and use of recombinant DNA are subject to ethical considerations and regulatory guidelines to ensure responsible and safe practices in biotechnology and genetic research.

C. Milestones in the Development of Recombinant DNA Technology

Recombinant DNA technology has undergone a series of transformative milestones that have revolutionized molecular biology and biotechnology. Beginning in the 1960s, the discovery of restriction enzymes, capable of cutting DNA at specific sites, paved the way for gene cloning. The early 1970s saw the development of the fundamental techniques for recombinant DNA technology, which are attributed to R. K. Saiki, H. A. Erlich, and H. L. Inman. They were the first to employ DNA polymerase to duplicate particular DNA sequences, which is an essential step in molecular biology research and the development of revolutionary genetic engineering techniques (Khan et al. 2016). In 1972, the first recombinant DNA molecule was created, fusing DNA from different sources. This breakthrough opened up new possibilities for genetic engineering and biotechnology (Loenen et al. 2014)

Throughout the 1970s and 1980s, gene cloning techniques rapidly advanced, enabling the isolation and insertion of specific genes into plasmids. The advent of PCR in 1983 further accelerated DNA amplification, making gene cloning and analysis more accessible and efficient (Garibyan and Avashia 2013) As the biotechnology industry flourished in the 1980s and 1990s, recombinant DNA technology played a crucial role in producing valuable proteins, such as insulin and human growth hormone, using genetically modified organisms (GMOs) (Stryjewska et al., 2013)

The completion of the Human Genome Project in 2003 was a groundbreaking achievement, providing a comprehensive map of the human genome and deepening our understanding of genetics and disease (Collins and Fink 1995) The 2010s witnessed the emergence of genome editing technologies, most notably CRISPR-Cas9, which revolutionized gene editing by allowing precise and efficient modifications to DNA (Birney 2021)

As research continues, advancements in synthetic biology have emerged, enabling the design and construction of artificial DNA sequences for the creation of novel organisms and metabolic pathways. Recombinant DNA technology continues to evolve and expand its applications, promising to transform various fields, including medicine, agriculture, environmental conservation, and beyond, shaping the future of biotechnology and genetic engineering (Redwan et al., 2008)

D. Fundamental Impact on Biotechnology and Society:

Recombinant DNA technology has profoundly impacted biotechnology and society in numerous ways. It has revolutionized medicine by enabling the production of therapeutic proteins, gene therapies, and personalized medicine, offering potential cures for genetic disorders and other diseases. Biopharmaceuticals, derived from this technology, have become more targeted and effective

treatments for various illnesses. Moreover, genetically modified crops developed through recombinant DNA technology have increased agricultural productivity, improved resistance to pests and diseases, and enhanced nutritional content, addressing food security challenges and promoting sustainable agriculture.(Walsh, 2002)

Beyond medical and agricultural applications, recombinant DNA technology has extended to environmental conservation efforts. It has allowed the development of microorganisms capable of biodegrading pollutants and cleaning up environmental contaminants, contributing to a greener and cleaner world. Additionally, the technology's impact on forensic science has been significant, with DNA fingerprinting and profiling techniques playing a crucial role in solving crimes and identifying individuals accurately (Hodson et al. 2020)

However, the progress of recombinant DNA technology has raised important ethical and social implications. Genetic privacy, informed consent, and the potential for unintended consequences of genetic engineering remain subjects of ongoing debate. The complexity of intellectual property rights and patenting of genetically modified organisms and genes has also emerged as a challenge.(Gupta et al., 2017)

The growth of the biotechnology industry owes much to recombinant DNA technology, creating new avenues for research, development, and commercialization of biotechnological products and services. Nevertheless, the technology has also prompted diverse public opinions and attitudes, with some embracing its potential benefits and others expressing concerns about genetically modified organisms' impact on the environment and human health.

In conclusion, the impact of recombinant DNA technology is far-reaching, touching on biotechnology, medicine, agriculture, environmental conservation, and forensic science. It offers great promise for solving global challenges and improving human well-being. However, addressing ethical, legal, and social considerations is essential to ensure its responsible and beneficial application for society's overall welfare (Ganguly et al., 2014)

III. Tools of recombinant DNA technology:

A. Restriction Enzymes:

In gene cloning, restriction enzymes, often referred to as "molecular scissors," play a vital role in the restriction digestion step. These enzymes can be broadly categorized into two classes based on their mechanisms of action: Exonucleases and Endonucleases (Petters 1986). To facilitate the proper joining of the vector and the DNA fragment, both must be cut using the same type of restriction enzymes to generate compatible ends.

In the vector, the specific sites for these restriction enzymes are known as Multiple Cloning Sites (MCSs) or polylinkers. These sites serve as recognition sites or restriction sites where the molecular scissors make their cuts. The recognition sites can be composed of symmetrical inverted repeats, forming palindromic sequences, with lengths of 4, 5, 6, or 8 base pairs, as well as asymmetrical sequences. Based on the length of the recognition sites, endonucleases are referred to as four cutters, five cutters, six cutters, or eight cutters. In recombinant DNA technology, four cutters and six cutters are the most commonly used restriction enzymes (Ganguly et al., 2014; Smith, 1993)

The action of restriction enzymes can produce various types of ends, including sticky ends or staggered ends (5' protruding ends or 5' phosphate overhangs and 3' protruding ends or 3' hydroxyl overhangs), as well as blunt ends or flush ends. Sticky ends offer higher ligation efficiency compared to blunt-ended DNA molecules. To convert blunt-ended DNA into sticky-ended molecules, researchers use linkers and adapters. Adapters are short synthetic oligonucleotides with sticky ends, while linkers are blunt-ended synthetic oligonucleotides that contain restriction enzyme recognition sites to generate sticky ends (Williams, 2003)

B. Types of Restriction Endonucleases:

Restriction enzymes, also known as restriction endonucleases, display diversity in their characteristics, which can be categorized based on sequence specificity, cleavage position, composition of their subunits, and the requirements of their co-factors. Let's delve into these aspects:

1. Sequence Specificity: Restriction enzymes recognize specific DNA sequences known as recognition sites or restriction sites.

2. Cleavage Position: Restriction enzymes cleave DNA at specific positions within the recognition sites. Depending on their mode of action, some enzymes generate staggered ends with overhangs (sticky ends), while others create blunt ends with no overhangs.

3. Composition of Subunits: Restriction enzymes are typically composed of multiple subunits. The number and arrangement of subunits vary among different enzymes, impacting their overall structure and enzymatic activity.

4. Co-Factor Requirements: Some restriction enzymes require co-factors or specific conditions to function optimally.

5. Isoschizomers and Neoschizomers: Isoschizomers are different restriction enzymes that recognize the same DNA sequence and cleave at the same position. Neoschizomers, on the other hand, recognize the same DNA sequence but cleave at a different position (R. J. Roberts, 1976)

Therefore the restriction enzymes are classified into four types:

- Type I restriction endonucleases
- Type II restriction endonucleases
- Type III restriction endonucleases
- Type IV restriction endonucleases (Williams, 2003)

- Type I restriction endonucleases:

Type I restriction endonucleases (REs) are a class of enzymes that recognize and cut DNA at specific sequences. They are found in bacteria and archaea, where they play a role in protecting the cell from foreign DNA, such as from viruses. This type of endonucleases recognize much longer sequences of DNA, typically 12 to 80 base pairs. Secondly, they cut the DNA at multiple sites within the recognition sequence. Most importantly they require ATP to be active. Some examples are: EcoB or EcoK etc.

Type I REs are not as commonly used in molecular biology as type II REs. However, they can be used to map the DNA of large genomes. They can also be used to study the structure and function of DNA (Buckhout-White et al., 2018)

- Type II restriction endonucleases:

Type II restriction endonucleases (REs) are a class of enzymes that cleaves sites specifically. They are the most commonly used and most preferred endonucleases in molecular biology. Here are some of the features of type II restriction endonucleases:

They are found to recognize the short sequences of DNA, typically 4 to 8 base pairs. They cut the DNA within the recognition sequence, typically leaving a single-stranded overhang. They do not require ATP to be active like type one endonucleases. They have a wide range of applications, including gene cloning, DNA sequencing, gene editing, and genetic engineering. Some examples are BamHI, Hhal, HindIII, Notl (Perona, 2002).

- Type III restriction endonucleases:

Type III are similar to type II as they are found to recognize short sequences of DNA. However, they differ in that they require a second protein to be active. This second protein is called a modification methylase. The modification methylase attaches methyl groups to the DNA at specific sites, activating the endonucleases to cleave. This type can then cut the DNA at these specific sites.

Though both type III and II are similar, type III is not most frequently used as type II. However, they have some specialised applications. For example, they can be used to study the structure and function of DNA. They can also be used to map the DNA of large genomes. Some examples are EcoP I, Hinf III (Butterer et al., 2014; Perona, 2002).

Here are some of the features of type III restriction endonucleases:

They recognize short sequences of DNA, typically 4 to 8 base pairs. They cut the DNA within the recognition sequence, typically leaving a blunt end. They require a modification of methylase to be active. They are not as commonly used in molecular biology as type II REs. They have some specialized applications, such as studying the structure and function of DNA and mapping the DNA of large genomes (Wyszomirski et al., 2012)

- Type IV restriction endonucleases:

Type IV REs are similar to type II REs in that they recognize short sequences of DNA. However, they differ in that they require ATP to be active. They have some specialized applications. Here are some of the features of type IV restriction endonucleases:

They recognize short sequences of DNA, typically 4 to 8 base pairs. They cut the DNA within the recognition sequence, typically leaving a blunt end. They require ATP to be active. They are not as commonly used in molecular biology as type II REs. They have some specialized applications, such as studying the structure and function of DNA and mapping the DNA of large genomes. Some examples are Eco 571, McrBC, Mrr (Wyszomirski et al., 2012; Xu et al., 2011)

- Type V restriction endonucleases:

Type V restriction endonucleases (REs) are a newly discovered class of enzymes that recognize and cut DNA at specific sequences. Type V REs are similar to type II REs in that they recognize short sequences of DNA. However, they differ as they do not require ATP to be active (Zheleznaya et al., 2009)

Type V REs are not as commonly used in molecular biology as type II REs. However, they have some potential applications. Here are some of the features of type V restriction endonucleases:

They recognize short sequences of DNA, typically 4 to 8 base pairs. They cut the DNA within the recognition sequence, typically leaving a blunt end. They do not require ATP to be active. They are not as commonly used in molecular biology as type II REs. They have some potential applications, such as studying the structure and function of DNA and developing new methods for gene editing.

Type V restriction endonucleases are a promising new tool that has the potential to be used in a variety of applications. However, more research is needed to fully understand their capabilities. Some examples are Dam, Eco KI (V. Pingoud et al., 2002)

C. DNA ligase

This enzyme ligase is known for facilitating the joining of the strands of DNA by formulating phosphodiester bonds. This plays a vital role in repairing the breaks in the single stranded DNA using the complementary strand of double helix as the template. This is also involved in the replication of the DNA by joining the Okazaki Fragments, which are synthesized on the lagging strand of the DNA molecule, the most common ligase used is T4 DNA ligase (Shuman, 2009).

Apart from this, these enzymes are known to maintain the integrity in the DNA. It is also involved in recombination, gene conversion etc. there are different types of ligases with its own specific function mentioned below:

- DNA Ligase I: The most versatile type of ligases and is found to be involved in replication, repair and recombination.
- DNA Ligase II: This type of ligase is specifically involved in replication, in joining Okazaki Fragments in the lagging strands.
- DNA Ligase III: this specifically involves the repair mechanism of the single stranded breaks. This is also found in the recombination of DNA.
- DNA Ligase IV: This type of ligase is involved in the repair of double stranded DNA but it mostly requires the help of other proteins for its function. (Lohman et al., 2011)

D. Mechanism:

The basic mechanism of a DNA ligase is found to be listed below:

- The enzyme is found to bind the site of damage or break.
- Further it uses the ATP to create a new phosphodiester bond between the 3’ hydroxyl group and the 5’ end of the phosphate group of other nucleotides.
- Ligases then release the DNA and move on the next break.

This enzyme is very efficient as it can join the strands quickly. This is also specific when it joins two complementary DNA. ligase being as necessary as it is, this is also very critical for the body as its absence will not be able to repair the damage, mutations and cancer (Lehman, 1974)

IV. Vectors in r-DNA Technology:

A vector is designed as a carrier to carry the foreign DNA fragment into a host cell, with the below mentioned properties.

- This has the ability to replicate in the host cell.
- It has a selectable marker, which allows for the identification of cells that have taken up the vector.
- It has a cloning site, which is a specific location where the foreign DNA can be inserted. For each vector the site actually varies (Lisowski et al., 2012)

There are many different types of vectors, including plasmids, bacteriophages, and viruses. Plasmids are small, circular DNA molecules that can be found in bacteria. They are often used as vectors because they are relatively easy to manipulate and they can be easily introduced into bacteria. Bacteriophages are viruses that infect bacteria. They can be used as vectors because they can deliver their DNA into the host cell's genome. Viruses are also used as vectors, but they are more difficult to work with than plasmids or bacteriophages (Cooper, 2000)

Vectors are used in a variety of applications in recombinant DNA technology, including:

- Cloning of genes: Vectors can be used to clone genes, in this process, a DNA is multiplied to many copies as clones. This is done by inserting the gene into a vector and then introducing the vector into a host cell. The host cell will then replicate the vector, including the gene, as long as it requires.
- Gene therapy: Vectors can be used to deliver genes to cells in order to treat diseases. For example, vectors can be used to deliver genes that code for proteins that can fight cancer cells. One such example is the shotgun method.
- Vaccine development: Vectors can be used to develop vaccines. Vaccines are designed to protect the body from disease by exposing it to an attenuated or inactive form of the disease-causing agent. Vectors can be used to deliver the weakened or inactive form of the disease-causing agent to the body (Pita et al., 2022)

Vectors are an important tool in r-DNA technology. They allow scientists to manipulate genes and to deliver genes to cells in order to treat diseases or develop vaccines. These are some specific examples for the cloning vector.

- Plasmids: Plasmids are found in bacteria,they are small, circular DNA. They are often used as vectors because they are relatively easy to manipulate and they can be easily introduced into host cells. Some common plasmids used as vectors include pBR322, pUC19, and pGEM-3Z.
- Bacteriophages: Bacteriophages are viruses that infect bacteria. They can be used as vectors as they can be used to deliver their genetic material into the host cell's genome. Some common bacteriophages used as vectors include λ phage, M13 phage, and ϕX174 phage.
- Viruses: Viruses can also be used as vectors. However, they are more tedious to work with than any other type of vector. Some common viruses used as vectors include adenovirus, adeno-associated virus, and retrovirus. They are mostly used in gene therapy.
- Cosmid: These vectors are a hybrid of plasmids and bacteriophages. They have the size capacity of a bacteriophage but mostly have the origin of replication of a plasmid. This allows them to be packaged into a bacteriophage capsid and delivered to a host cell, but they can also replicate in the host cell like a plasmid.
- Yeast artificial chromosomes: (YACs) are large vectors that can be used to clone DNA fragments up to 1000 kb in size. They are made up of a yeast chromosome that has been artificially created. YACs are useful for cloning large genes or gene clusters.
- Bacterial artificial chromosomes: (BACs) are similar to YACs, but they are smaller and can only clone DNA fragments up to 300 kb in size. BACs are easier to work with than YACs, but they are not as versatile.
- Expression vectors: They are vectors that are designed to express the genes that they carry. They typically have a promoter, which is a sequence of DNA that indicates the cell where to start transcribing the gene, and a terminator, which is a sequence of DNA that tells the cell where to stop transcribing the gene. Expression vectors are used to study the function of genes and to produce proteins for therapeutic purposes (Khan et al., 2016)

The choice of vector depends on the specific application. For example, plasmid vectors are often used for cloning genes, while YACs and BACs are used for cloning large genes or gene clusters. Expression vectors are used to study the function of genes and to produce proteins for therapeutic purposes. Viral vectors are used to deliver genes to cells in order to treat diseases or develop vaccines.

V. Cloning Hosts:

A cloning host is a cell or organism that is used to carry and replicate a foreign DNA fragment. The host cell must be able to take up the foreign DNA, replicate it, and express the genes that are encoded in the DNA.

The most common cloning hosts are bacteria and yeast. Bacteria are single-celled organisms that are easy to culture and can be manipulated in the laboratory. They also have a relatively small genome, which makes it easier to insert foreign DNA into their chromosomes. Yeast are single-celled organisms, but they are more complex than bacteria and have a larger genome. This makes them more difficult to work with, but they can also be used to clone larger DNA fragments (Khan et al., 2016; Lessard, 2013)

There are some other different organisms that can be used as cloning hosts include:

- Animal cells: Animal cells can be used to clone genetic material that are involved in human diseases. However, they are more difficult to work with than bacteria or yeast.
- Plant cells: Plant cells can be used to clone genes that are involved in plant growth and development. They are also used to produce transgenic plants, which are plants that have had genes from other organisms inserted into their genomes.
- Insects: Insects can be used to clone genes that are involved in insect development and behaviour. They are also used to produce transgenic insects, which are insects that have had genes from other organisms inserted into their genomes (Sharma et al., 2014)

The choice of cloning host depends on various aspects. Below mentioned are some of the characteristics of a good cloning host:

- It must be able to take up the foreign DNA.
- It must be able to replicate the foreign DNA.
- It must be able to express the genes that are encoded in the foreign DNA.
- It must be easy to culture and manipulate in the laboratory.
- It must be relatively inexpensive.

VI. Techniques of recombinant DNA Technology:

A. Gene Cloning:

A key component of recombinant DNA technology is gene cloning, which entails a series of operations to put together DNA fragments and produce a recombinant DNA molecule. In order to create the recombinant DNA molecule, this method involves combining DNA fragments from several sources and ligating them with a vector. Once created, this recombinant DNA is put into a host cell for replication, producing numerous, exact duplicates of the original molecule (Cohen, 2013).
Both ligase dependent and ligase independent techniques can be used to clone a specific DNA fragment into a vector. Among these, cohesive end ligation and blunt end ligation, ligase dependent techniques, are frequently used. While blunt ended ligation necessitates numerous enzymatic modifications, cohesive end ligation uses restriction enzymes to produce cohesive or sticky ends.

The cloning process has been greatly sped up and simplified with the invention of Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR). Several methods, such as ligase independent cloning, TA cloning, and creating restriction enzyme sites at the 5' end of primers, can be used to clone PCR amplified fragments. TA cloning stands out as a successful approach among these ones. In TA cloning, the vector has a 3'-T overhang, and by adding a single 3'-A into the amplified PCR products, Taq polymerase can create a complementary 3'-A overhang. The PCR result can be directly cloned into the vector thanks to the compatibility of the overhangs (Denhardt et al., 1988; Green & Sambrook, 2021).

B. Cloning Steps:

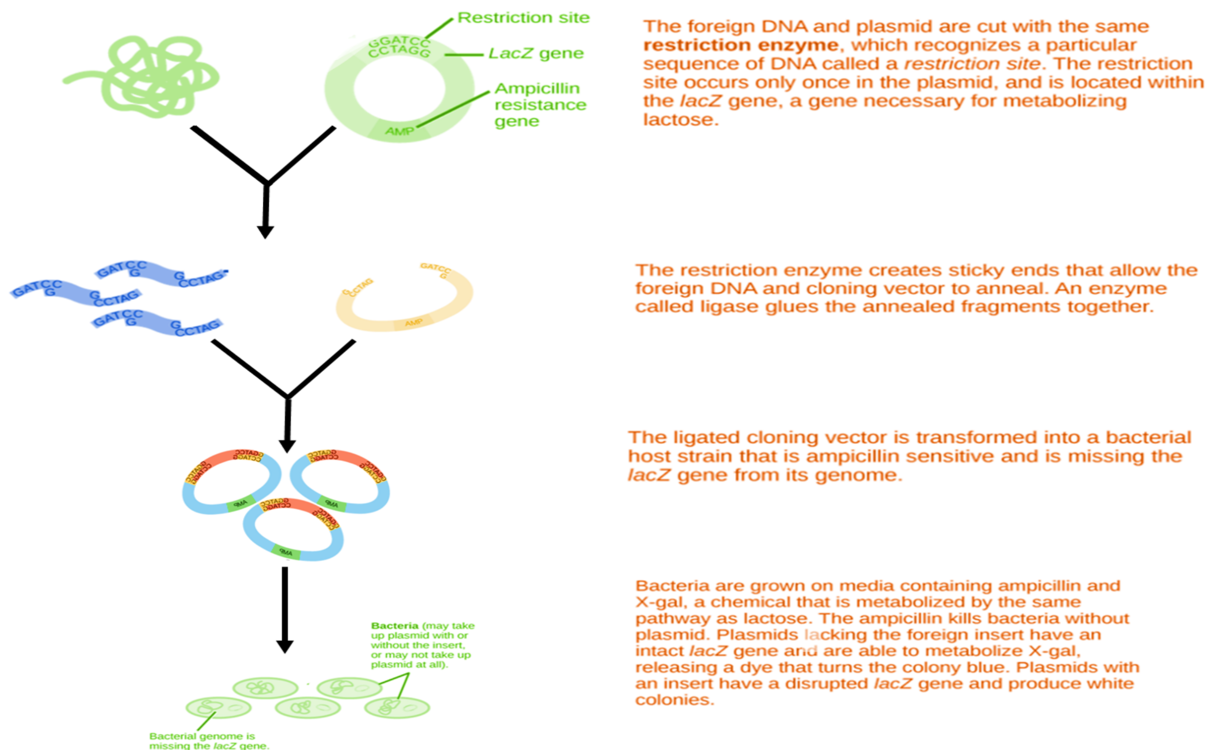

Figure 1: Steps involved in cloning

VII. Features of Vectors:

Successful gene cloning experiments depend on the basic properties of cloning vectors. For the cloning process to be properly facilitated, these vectors must have particular characteristics. The following are the main characteristics of cloning vector:

- **Circular DNA Molecule:** Rather than being linear DNA molecules, cloning vectors are frequently circular. These cells are better able to spread throughout the host cell because of this circular form, which also promotes stability during reproduction.
- **Origin of Replication (ori):** The existence of an origin of replication (ori) region is a crucial component of cloning vectors. The vector can replicate independently in the host cell thanks to this ori site, which enables the creation of several copies of the inserted DNA segment.
- **Selectable Marker Genes:** Selectable marker gene sequences must be carried by cloning vectors. The features encoded by these marker genes identify transformed cells carrying the vector from non-transformed cells. Genes that confer resistance to particular metabolic inhibitors or genes that confer resistance to antibiotics are examples of selectable markers.
- **Multiple Cloning Sites (MCSs) Region:** A section of the vector known as the Multiple Cloning Site (MCS) or polylinker region should be present. The MCS has numerous distinct restriction enzyme recognition sites located adjacent to one another. These spots enable the precise insertion of foreign DNA pieces into the vector, facilitating effective cloning (Wang et al., 2021)

Cloning vectors are powerful tools in gene cloning and recombinant DNA technology because they have essential properties, such as circular structure, an origin of replication for autonomous replication, selectable marker genes, and a multiple cloning site (MCS) region for easy insertion of DNA fragments (Denhardt et al., 1988).

A. Vectors used for cloning:

Table 1: Types of Vectors

S.No	Vectors	Insert Size
1.	Plasmid	~ 10 Kb λ
2.	Phage	~ 23 Kb
3.	Cosmid	~ 45 Kb
4.	BAC	~ 350 Kb
5.	YAC	~ 1000 Kb

VIII. DNA Sequencing:

DNA sequencing is the method of determining the order of the nucleotides in the DNA. It is a very complex and challenging process, but it has become important for many areas of biology and medicine (M. A. J. Roberts, 2019).

There are many different methods of DNA sequencing, but they all share the same basic steps:

- The DNA is broken down to small fragments.
- The fragments are sequenced one at a time.
- The sequences of the fragments are assembled to create the complete sequence of the DNA.

Sure. DNA sequencing is the process of determining the order of the nucleotides in a DNA molecule. It is a complex and challenging process, but it has become essential for many areas of biology and medicine (Verma et al., 2017).

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- The DNA is broken into small fragments.
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The first method of DNA sequencing was developed by Frederick Sanger in the 1970s. This method, called Sanger sequencing, is still widely used today. In Sanger sequencing, the DNA fragments are labelled with different fluorescent dyes. The fragments are then separated and segregated by length using gel electrophoresis. The fluorescent dyes are detected and the sequence of the fragments is determined (França et al., 2002).

Sanger sequencing is an extremely accurate technology, but it is also a slow and expensive one. It continues to be the benchmark for DNA sequencing.

Sanger sequencing has been replaced by other DNA sequencing techniques that are quicker and less expensive. Next-generation sequencing (NGS) approaches are the name given to these techniques. Multiple strategies are used by NGS technologies to sequence DNA fragments simultaneously. Compared to Sanger sequencing, this enables them to sequence DNA significantly more quickly.

Sanger sequencing is more accurate, although NGS techniques are still highly helpful for a variety of applications. Large genomes, like the human genome, are frequently sequenced using these techniques. Small samples, such those from a crime scene or a medical biopsy, are also utilized to sequence DNA (Heather & Chain, 2016).

The tremendous tool of DNA sequencing has completely changed biology and medicine. It has aided in our understanding of the composition and operation of genes and has sparked the creation of novel diagnostic procedures and curative regimens.

IX. Gene Expression:

Gene expression is the process in which the essential information is stored, and is used to produce a functional product, such as a protein. It is a complex process that requires many steps, and is strictly regulated by the cell. The first step in gene expression is transcription. In this process the genetic material, DNA is copied in the RNA. When this is processed, it results in the transportation of the messenger RNA out of the nucleus to the cytoplasm. Once transcription is done, this further moves to translation, in the process resulting in a protein with the help of messenger RNA. further the mRNA is decoded by ribosomes that reads the sequences of nucleotides, assembling the corresponding amino acids in the protein. Gene expression is regulated at many levels. This transcription can be turned on and off by various factors, including the environment of the cell, presence of other proteins and the nutrients available. Translation of mRNA can as well be regulated by controlling how long the mRNA molecule remains stable. This regulation is very important for the cell to function properly. This helps the cell to respond to the environmental changes (Segundo-Val & Sanz-Lozano, 2016).

Here are some examples of gene expression:

- The control of insulin expression gives a signal for blood glucose regulation.
- The X chromosome inactivation in female mammals, prevents an "overdose" of the genes it contains.
- Cyclin expression levels control progression through the eukaryotic cell cycle.
- The expression of genes involved in cancer can be regulated by mutations or environmental factors.

The study of gene expression is a rapidly growing field of research. By understanding how gene expression is regulated, researchers can better understand cell regulation and disease progression. This knowledge can be used to develop new treatments for diseases, such as cancer and diabetes (Hamilton, 2011).

X. Protein Purification:

Protein expression is the method in which a gene is used to produce a functional protein. Though it involves so many steps and is strictly regulated by the cell. The first step involved here is transcription. Where the DNA sequence is converted and copied as RNA, which is further processed in resulting mRNA transportation outside the nucleus. Further leading to the next step being translation, which gives birth to the protein respectively. Further being decoded by ribosomes reads the sequence of nucleotides and assembles the amino acids into protein. The third step in expression is Post- Translational Modification. Where the protein is further modified after being translated, including addition of chemical groups, protein folding and transportation to its final destination. As protein expression is regulated at different levels, the transcription can be turned on and off by various factors or by controlling the availability of enzymes that catalyse the modification reactions or by controlling the folding factors (Labrou, 2014).

Protein expression is a complex process that is important for life. Allowing the cells to produce the proteins they need to carry out their specific functions. The study of protein expression is a rapidly growing field of research. This knowledge can be used to develop new treatments for diseases, such as cancer and diabetes.

Here are some of the reasons why we do need protein expression:

- To study the structure and function of proteins.
- To produce proteins for research or medical purposes.
- To engineer proteins with new or improved properties.
- To study the regulation of gene expression.
- To develop new drugs and therapies.

There are many different methods for protein expression. The choice of method depends on the specific protein being expressed, the desired level of expression, and the availability of resources. Some common methods for protein expression include:

- In vitro transcription and translation: This method expresses proteins in a cell-free system. This is a good option for expressing proteins that are difficult to express in cells.
- Bacterial expression: This method is used to express proteins in bacteria. This is a good option for expressing proteins that are relatively easy to express.
- Mammalian cell expression: This method is used to express proteins in mammalian cells. This is a good option for expressing proteins that require post-translational modifications that are only found in mammalian cells.
- Yeast expression: This method is used to express proteins in yeast. This is a good option for expressing proteins that are relatively easy to express and that do not require post-translational modifications (Liu et al., 2020).

Though being a complex and challenging process, it is also a powerful tool for research and medicine. By understanding how protein expression works, we can develop new ways to study proteins, produce proteins for research or medical purposes, and engineer proteins with new or improved properties (Scopes, 2001)

XI. Applications of Recombinant DNA Technology:

There are many different types of areas where r-DNA technology can be used like; medicine, agriculture and industries.

A. Medicine:

Recombinant DNA technology has many applications in medicine, including:

- Production of therapeutic proteins: Recombinant DNA technology can be utilised to create therapeutic proteins like insulin, growth hormone, and interferon using recombinant DNA technology. Diabetes, cancer, and abnormalities of growth are just a few of the illnesses that these proteins can be utilised to treat.
- Development of vaccines: Using recombinant DNA technology, infectious disease vaccines can be created. By exposing the body to a virus or microbe that has been weakened or rendered inactive, vaccines are created. This aids in the body's development of disease immunity.
- Genetic testing: Genetic illness testing can be done with the help of recombinant DNA technology. This can be accomplished by looking for mutations or other alterations that could result in a disease by studying the DNA of an individual or fetus.
- Gene therapy: A possible new treatment for hereditary illnesses is gene therapy. Genes are introduced into cells during gene therapy to replace or repair damaged genes.
- Targeted drug delivery:Drugs that target particular cells or tissues can be made using recombinant DNA technology. This can lessen negative effects and increase drug effectiveness.
- Biosensors: Biosensors, or tools that can identify the presence of particular molecules like DNA or proteins, can be made using recombinant DNA technology. Biosensors can be used to measure the efficacy of pharmacological therapies, monitor environmental contamination, and diagnose diseases (Khan et al., 2016).

These are only a few of the numerous medical uses for recombinant DNA technology. In the years to come, we may anticipate seeing even more ground-breaking and life-saving uses as technology advances. Here are some instances of current use of recombinant DNA technology in medicine.

These are only a few of the many applications of recombinant DNA technology in medicine. As the technology continues to develop, we can expect to see even more innovative and life-saving applications in the years to come. Here are some specific examples of how recombinant DNA technology is used in medicine today: Insulin, growth hormones, interferons, vaccines and gene therapy etc (Arends & Bird, 1992; Khan et al., 2016).

B. Agriculture:

Recombinant DNA technology (rDNA) is a potent instrument that has been applied in a variety of ways to increase agricultural productivity and sustainability. The following are some of the most typical uses for rDNA technology in agriculture:

- Crop resistance to pests and diseases: Crops can be given genes from other creatures that make them resistant to pests and diseases using recombinant DNA technology. Due to their potential harm to the environment and public health, pesticides and herbicides may be less frequently used as a result. For instance, Bt corn, a genetically modified crop, produces a protein that kills the European corn borer, a significant maize pest.
- Crop tolerance to abiotic stresses: Crops that can withstand abiotic conditions like drought, salt, and severe temperatures can also be engineered using recombinant DNA technology. In places that are vulnerable to these

pressures, this can help to increase crop yields. For instance, genes from different plants have been inserted into corn to create a strain that is resilient to drought and helps the plant conserve water.
- Improved nutritional content: Crop nutrition can be increased with the help of recombinant DNA technology. For instance, golden rice was created by introducing genes from plants that generate beta-carotene, a precursor of vitamin A, into the rice plant. In many impoverished nations, vitamin A deficiency is a significant public health issue. Golden rice may be able to help.
- Increased shelf life: Crop shelf life can also be extended using recombinant DNA technology. For instance, scientists have created potatoes that release a protein that prevents flesh from browning. This might aid in lowering food waste.
- Improved flavor and texture: Crops' flavor and texture can be enhanced using recombinant DNA technology. For instance, tomatoes that have been bred to have a greater flavor and a longer shelf life have been created (Petters, 1986).

These are just a handful of the numerous applications of rDNA technology in agriculture. In the years to come, we may anticipate seeing even more cutting-edge uses as technology advances. It is significant to mention that several worries exist regarding the application of rDNA technology in agriculture (Fang et al., 2016)

The potential for these crops to cross-pollinate with non-genetically modified crops has some people worried about the safety of genetically modified crops. However, rDNA technology has considerable promise for use in agriculture and is anticipated to become more prevalent in the coming years (Fang et al., 2016)

C. Industries:

Recombinant DNA technology (rDNA) is a powerful tool that has many applications in industries, including:

- Pharmaceutical industry:Therapeutic proteins including insulin, growth hormone, and antibodies are created using rDNA technology. Diabetes, cancer, and abnormalities of growth are just a few of the illnesses that these proteins can be utilized to treat.
- Biotechnology industry: The production of genetically modified organisms (GMOs) uses rDNA technology. GMOs are animals whose genes have been changed in a way that does not happen normally. GMOs can be used to increase crop yields, produce new foods, and manufacture novel pharmaceuticals and therapeutics.
- Food industry: Producing food additives like enzymes and vitamins uses rDNA technology. Additionally, it is utilized to produce genetically engineered crops with increased nutritional value or pest and disease resistance.
- Chemical industry: The production of industrial enzymes and chemicals uses rDNA technology. New methods for producing biofuels and other renewable energy sources are also developed using it.
- Environmental industry: Environmental contamination can be cleaned out using rDNA technology. For instance, it is possible to genetically modify microbes to degrade contaminants like oil spills. These are only a handful of the numerous industrial uses for rDNA technology (Katz et al., 2018)

In the years to come, we may anticipate seeing even more ground-breaking and life-saving uses as technology advances.Here are some specific examples of how rDNA technology is used in industries like, pharmaceutical industry, biotechnology industry, food industry, chemical industry and environmental industry (Chance & Frank, 1993).

XII. Ethics of Recombinant DNA Technology:

Recombinant DNA technology is a powerful tool that has the potential to do great good, but it also raises some ethical concerns. Some of the ethical issues that have been raised about recombinant DNA technology include:

- The safety of genetically modified organisms (GMOs): There are worries that GMOs could be harmful to the environment or people's health. For instance, some individuals are concerned that GMOs might pollinate non-GMO crops or harm beneficial insects or animals.
- The ownership of genetic information: Who controls the genetic data of a living thing? There is no simple solution to this difficult question. Genetic data should be owned by the people or businesses who develop it, according to some, while others think it should be regarded as a public good.
- The potential for discrimination: Recombinant DNA technology has raised concerns that it could be used to discriminate against specific individuals or groups of individuals. For instance, some people are concerned that businesses would use genetic testing to weed out candidates for jobs or that insurance providers might use genetic data to reject coverage.
- The impact on developing countries: The use of recombinant DNA technology may have a big impact on underdeveloped nations. GMOs, for instance, may be employed to increase food yields and decrease hunger, but they also run the risk of displacing traditional farmers or destroying biodiversity.

- The potential for misuse: Recombinant DNA technology might be abused for bad things like modifying the human genome or developing biological weapons. It is crucial to create security measures to stop this technology from being abused (Ormond et al., 2019).

These are only a few of the moral questions that have been brought up in relation to recombinant DNA technology. As technology advances, it is critical to keep talking about and debating these issues (Bayertz, 2000)

The following ethical guidelines can be used to direct the creation and application of recombinant DNA technology:

- The principle of beneficence: we need to act in a way that helps others around us. Recombinant DNA technology has both potential advantages and disadvantages for the environment, human health, and society at large.
- The principle of non-maleficence: This asserts that we should refrain from hurting other people. When utilizing recombinant DNA technology, precautions should be taken to reduce the possibility of injury (Tamura & Toda, 2020).
- The fairness principle: According to this idea, we ought to treat everyone equally and fairly. We must make sure that the advantages and hazards of recombinant DNA technology are dispersed fairly.
- The principle of respect for autonomy: According to this tenet, we ought to respect people's autonomy in making decisions. We must get the informed consent of those who will be impacted by recombinant DNA technology before deploying it (Huzair, 2020; Tamura & Toda, 2020).

These moral guidelines can aid in the development and proper application of recombinant DNA technology

XIII. Conclusion:

Recombinant DNA technology is a tremendous instrument that could alter a variety of facets of our life, including medicine, agriculture, and environmental cleanup. However, it's crucial to keep in mind that this technology is still in its infancy and that a number of ethical issues need to be resolved before it can be utilized safely and responsibly. Concerns about the safety of genetically modified organisms (GMOs) are among the most urgent ethical issues. GMOs are animals whose genes have been changed in a way that does not happen normally. The environment or human health may suffer unforeseen repercussions as a result of this.For instance, there are worries that GMOs might pollinate non-GMO crops or harm vital insects or animals.

The ownership of genetic data is another issue from an ethical standpoint. Who controls the genetic data of a living thing? There is no simple solution to this difficult question. Genetic data should be owned by the people or businesses who develop it, according to some, while others think it should be regarded as a public good. This may have effects on how genetic data is used, for example, in the medical or insurance industries. The possibility that recombinant DNA technology would be utilized to discriminate against certain individuals or groups of individuals is a last worry. For instance, some people are concerned that businesses would use genetic testing to weed out candidates for jobs or that insurance providers might use genetic data to reject coverage. It is crucial to create security measures to stop this technology from being abused.

Recombinant DNA technology can only be used for good if we properly analyze the ethical implications of its use. These are important topics that require open and honest conversation as well as the creation of laws and policies that will safeguard both people and the environment. Then and only then will we be able to fully benefit from this advanced technology.

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