





Crude tissue extracts are subjected to gel <u>electrophoresis</u> and probed with enzymespecific stains, resulting in a simple banding pattern.

Variation in banding patterns between individuals can be interpreted genetically, as would be done with any other <u>phenotypic marker</u>.



Electrophoresis is a chromatographic technique for separating mixtures of ionic compounds. It has been adapted as a common tool for biochemical analysis.



<u>Proteins</u> are the primary product of <u>genes</u>. When the <u>nucleotide</u> sequence of the <u>DNA</u> changes, so too do the proteins' banding patterns. <u>Enzyme</u> electrophoresis can directly reveal genetic <u>polymorphism</u> through demonstrating the multiple forms of a specific enzyme.







The laboratory technician is pipetting extraction buffer onto a section of leaf. Each sample is placed in a plastic dish that is typically used to weigh chemicals. Other utensils such as glass plates can be used instead, but they must be very clean and unlikely to absorb macerated tissue.



Once the extraction buffer is placed on the leaf sample, the leaf is crushed with a plastic rod to ensure the tissue is well broken and homogenized with the buffer. This must be done as quickly as possible to prevent an increase in temperature. While the samples are being crushed, their plastic holders can rest on ice.



A small paper wick, cut from porous paper, is left on the homogenate, until the paper absorbs the sample.



The heated starch solution is being poured into the gel mould. As the gel cools, it will become jelly-like. It will then be ready for being loaded with samples. Until used, the gel can be stored in a refrigerator.



A starch gel, set in advance, has been cut with a scalpel at about one third up the mould. Paper wicks are now being vertically placed against one of the cut sides with the help of tweezers.



A power supply machine must be used to control the voltage and intensity of the current for electrophoresis. Many models are commercially available, and have comparable properties and capacities. In our example, two electrophoresis units can be simultaneously plugged in. A timer may also be included to halt electrophoresis at a given time.



The gel is placed on an electrophoresis unit inside a cold room or refrigerator. The unit has a buffer container at each side (cathode and anode) and contact between the buffer and gel is achieved with a sponge or piece of mesh cloth. A plastic wrap is placed on top to prevent drying out during the process and ensure good buffer transfer. Samples are loaded and their trace followed, the run being marked by a blue colorant.



When the run is complete (usually a brownish shadow can be seen opposite the loading side of the gel), the gel must be cut into slices. The foreground shows the gel ready for cutting, with a plexiglass stand waiting for the gel's transfer (centre). A container where the slices will be placed can be seen at the photograph's top edge.



The gel is now on the stand and thin black guides are placed at each side to control the thickness of the slices. A notch is made at one corner (top right) as guide to the samples' correct location after the gel is stained.



A glass plate is placed over the gel so that pressure can be exerted while cutting, ensuring that the slices are even. A handsaw, fitted with a guitar string, is being used to cut the gel into slices.



Different staining solutions let us visualize different enzymes. Here, a yellowish staining solution is poured into a plexiglass container before a gel slice is transferred.



A slice of gel is being transferred to the container with the desired staining solution. Care must be taken on transferring the slices because their fragility. If a slice does break, the broken pieces can often be rearranged and the enzymes still visualized on the gel.



After a certain period of incubation, a stained gel slice appears similar to the photograph, which shows leaf alcohol dehydrogenase (ADH) of sainfoin (*Onobrychis viciaefolia*), a forage crop.



<u>Allozymes</u> are controlled by <u>codominant alleles</u>, which means that homozygotes (all alleles at a <u>locus</u> are similar) can be distinguished from heterozygotes (parents of the individual have contributed different alleles to that locus).

For monomeric enzymes (i.e. consisting of a single <u>polypeptide</u>), plants that are homozygous for a given locus will produce one band, whereas heterozygous individuals will produce two. For dimeric enzymes (i.e. consisting of two polypeptides), plants that are homozygous for that locus will produce one band, whereas heterozygous individuals will produce three because of random association of the polypeptides.

Multimeric enzymes also exist, where the polypeptides are specified by different loci. The formation of isozymic heteromers can thus considerably complicate banding patterns.

These complexities and the importance of correctly interpreting banding patterns, make genetic analysis desirable, even necessary, using progeny analysis (F_1 , F_2 and back-cross) of artificial crosses between individuals with known banding patterns.



This example shows the behaviour of monomeric enzymes in crosses. Parents are homozygous for the same allele at the same locus or heterozygotes. In the first case, all F_1 progeny will be homozygous and, as a consequence, a single band will result. If parents are heterozygous, three possible F_1 phenotypes will result.



In crosses, dimeric enzymes may behave in three possible ways. If both parents are homozygous for different alleles at the same locus, all progeny are heterozygous, but because of random association of the polypeptides, three combinations are possible and therefore three bands will be resolved on gel electrophoresis and staining.



In the second example on dimeric allozymes, the enzyme's two polypeptides are coded by separate loci. Parents do not share any alleles. Random association of the polypeptides can lead to a total of 10 dimers, because both intragenic dimers (alleles at the same locus) and intergenic dimers (alleles from different loci) are formed.



In the example above, a heterozygous tetraploid, with four alleles at one locus, forms ten dimeric active enzymes due to random association among the four monomers.



Isozyme analysis is, in principle, a robust and reproducible method. In addition, isozymes are codominant markers and are suitable for estimating all population genetics parameters and for genetic mapping.

About 90 isozyme systems have been used for plants, with isozyme loci being mapped in many cases.

The major limitation of isozyme analysis is the low number of markers it provides, because the number of biochemical assays available to detect them is small. Consequently, the percentage of <u>genome</u> coverage is inadequate for a thorough study of genetic diversity.

Another disadvantage of isozyme analysis lies in the markers being based on phenotype. As such, they may be influenced by environmental factors, with differences in expression confounding the interpretation of results. Because differential expression of the genes may occur at different developmental stages or in different tissues, the same type of material must be used for all experiments.



References in purple are explained in detail in the following slides.

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• 1	Fitle: Genetic structure of a Lima bean base collection using allozyme markers. Theor. Appl. Genet 1997. 95:980-991
	Dbjective: To evaluate genetic diversity and structure within a lima bean (<i>Phaseolus lunatus</i> L.) base collection, involving several, widely distributed, wild accessions and <u>landraces</u>
	Aterials and methods: Ten enzyme systems were used to analyse 235 lima bean accessions (1-5 seeds each) collected in Latin America and the Caribbean















Basic references

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