

Italy, and his colleagues.

The team detected 16 of the brightest galaxies in the cluster, which consists of a gravitationally caged set of hundreds to thousands of galaxies. It is an extremely early example of the effect of gravity competing — and winning — against the dispersive effect of the Big Bang.

The researchers used both ground- and space-based telescopes, but required X-ray observations of hot gas between the individual galaxies to show that they are bound together in a cluster.

## BIOPHYSICS

### DNA stop and go

*Proc. Natl Acad. Sci. USA* doi:10.1073/pnas.0907404106 (2009)

DNA polymerase enzymes that are responsible for DNA replication can work faster than previously thought.

Using a type of fluorescence spectroscopy, Jerrod Schwartz and Stephen Quake at Stanford University in California studied single polymerase molecules from the bacterium *Escherichia coli* in real time.

The enzyme pauses periodically as it travels along a strand of DNA synthesizing a partner strand, and the researchers measured its speed during periods of movement. They showed that the DNA polymerase Pol I(KF) has an intrinsic speed limit of 14–17 nucleotides per second, depending on the conditions — about ten times greater than estimates based on averages of all of its movements, including pauses. Another polymerase they looked at had a highly variable synthesis rate, ranging from 1 to about 50 nucleotides per second.

## ATMOSPHERIC SCIENCE

### Industrial UV shield

*Atmos. Chem. Phys.* 9, 7737–7751 (2009)

Earth's natural sunscreen — the stratospheric ozone layer — has thinned during the past few decades because of the rise in atmospheric pollutants such as chlorofluorocarbons. This has allowed more ultraviolet (UV) radiation to reach many parts of the planet's surface since the 1970s. However, other forms of pollution have helped to shield Earth from UV rays.

Using an atmospheric radiation model, Gunnar Myhre of the University of Oslo and his colleagues found that, since 1750, pollutants such as sulphate, soot particles, sulphur dioxide and nitrogen dioxide have reduced the amount of UV light reaching some industrialized regions by as much as 20%. By scattering or absorbing UV light, such pollution may be masking some of the effects of ozone depletion, the authors say.

## NANOSCIENCE

### Release the goods

*J. Am. Chem. Soc.* doi:10.1021/ja9061085 (2009)

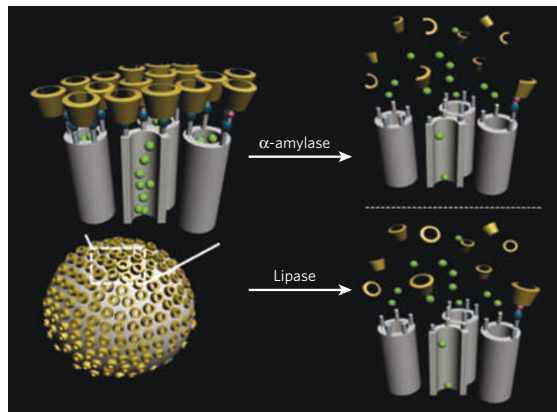
Silica nanoparticles can act as tiny containers to deliver drugs in response to enzymes, thanks to Chulhee Kim and his colleagues at Inha University in Incheon, South Korea.

The particles are pitted with pores that are capped with cyclodextrin molecules. The pores bear the cargo molecules — in the authors' experiments, fluorescent calcein dye.

The enzyme  $\alpha$ -amylase, which increases in acute pancreatitis, was added to a buffer solution containing the particles. The enzyme degraded the cyclodextrin and calcein flooded out (schematic pictured below). The lipase enzyme had a similar effect, but when no enzyme was present, the pores remained closed and their contents locked away.

The system could have uses in drug delivery, diagnostics and imaging, the authors say.

AM. CHEM. SOC.



## GENOMICS

### Sequencing costs drop

*Science* doi:10.1126/science.1181498 (2009)

A team has sequenced three human genomes for US\$4,400 each — at least ten times less than that achieved with other technologies.

Radoje Drmanac and Dennis Ballinger of Complete Genomics in Mountain View, California, and their collaborators developed a technique that chops DNA into fragments, makes many copies of these, rolls them up into 'nanoballs' and binds them to patterned silicon arrays. Nine-base-long probes of specific sequences — tagged with one of four different dyes, each corresponding to a 'letter' of the DNA code — are then added and bind to complementary DNA sequences with the help of synthetic 'adaptors'. Fluorescence imaging picks up the signal from the bound probes.

The technique keeps reagent use, and thus sequencing costs, low. It identified 94–98% of genetic variants when compared with established methods.

## JOURNAL CLUB

**Robert Blelloch**  
University of California, San Francisco

### A computational biologist looks at how mRNA length changes during development.

I am always amazed by how we start as a fertilized egg and develop into a complex, multicellular organism. This feat occurs despite the fact that the DNA in every cell — even the most specialized ones — remains, for the most part, unchanged.

One method of regulating gene activity in differentiated, or specialized, cells is through the messenger RNA (mRNA), the code of which is translated to make proteins. For example, proteins and other RNAs can bind to the untranslated regions (UTRs) at the 5' and 3' ends of mRNAs to regulate mRNA stability and translation.

The constitution of the 3' UTR itself can be regulated through alternative polyadenylation, whereby one of several possible UTR sites is cleaved, followed by the addition of adenosine-based molecules to its end. A broad shift in cleavage site choice — and thus 3' UTR length — during mammalian development was recently described by Bin Tian and his team at the University of Medicine and Dentistry of New Jersey in Newark (Z. Ji *et al. Proc. Natl Acad. Sci. USA* 106, 7028–7033; 2009).

By analysing genomic data, they show that 3' UTRs generally get longer during development and cell differentiation. The authors further show that most of the genes in which 3' UTRs are lengthened are also those that are increasingly suppressed during differentiation, such as the genes for DNA replication and cell division.

These findings bring to the forefront an underappreciated mechanism of genetic regulation that is likely to be important for normal cell differentiation. It is fascinating how many steps of the central dogma (DNA to RNA to protein) are controlled. This seems to be how evolution has managed to take a relatively simple cell and multiply it to form the complex body plan of the human.

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