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library. NLM provides access to scientific literature. Inclusion in an NLM database does not imply endorsement or agreement with the contents by NLM or the National Institutes of Health. Learn more: PMC Disclaimer | PMC Copyright Notice. 2019 Apr-Jun;36(2):116117. doi: 10.4103/JOC.JOC.110.18DNA extraction and polymerase chain reaction (PCR) are the basic techniques employed in the molecular laboratory. This short review covers various physical and chemical methods used for DNA extraction so as to obtain a good-quality DNA sample in sufficient quantity. PCR can be amplified with the help of PCR. The basic principle and different variations of PCR are discussed. Keywords: DNA extraction, Polymerase chain reaction, real time PCR.DNA extraction is a method to purify DNA by using physical and/or chemical methods from a sample separating DNA from cell membranes, proteins, and other cellular components. Friedrich Miescher in 1869 did DNA isolation for the first time. The use of DNA isolation technique should lead to efficient extraction with good quantity and quality of DNA, which is pure and devoid of contaminants, such as RNA and proteins. Manual methods as well as commercially available kits are used for DNA extraction. Various tissues including blood, body fluids, direct fine needle aspiration cytology (FNAC) aspirate, formalin-fixed paraffin-embedded tissues, frozen tissue section, etc., can be used for DNA extraction. DNA extraction involves lysing the cells and solubilizing DNA, which is followed by chemical or enzymatic methods to remove macromolecules, lipids, RNA, or proteins. DNA extraction techniques include organic extraction (phenol-chloroform method), nonorganic method (salting out), silica-based extraction (silica spin filter method), and silica bead-based extraction (spin column method). Silica-based extraction is the most commonly used method because it is simple, fast, and yields high-quality DNA. Organic extraction uses chloroform, phenol, or a mixture of phenol and chloroform (phenol/chloroform/isomyl alcohol ratio is 25:24:1) are used for denaturation and precipitation of proteins from nucleic acid solution, and denatured proteins are removed by centrifugation and wash steps. RNase treatment is done for the removal of unwanted RNA. Precipitation with ice-cold ethanol is performed for concentrating DNA. Nucleic acid precipitate is formed, when there is moderate concentration of monovalent cations (salt). This precipitate can be recovered by centrifugation and is redissolved in TE buffer or double-distilled water. Other methods include silica-based technology (DNA adsorbs to silica beads/particles at a specific pH in presence of specific salts), magnetic separation (DNA binds reversibly to magnetic beads, which are coated with DNA-binding antibody), anion exchange technology, salting out, and cesium chloride density gradients. Assessing the quality and yield of DNA: The quality and yield of DNA are assessed by spectrophotometry or by gel electrophoresis. Spectrophotometry involves estimation of the DNA concentration by measuring the amount of light absorbed by the sample at specific wavelengths. Absorption peak for nucleic acids is at ~260 nm. The A260/A280 ratio is ~1.8 for dsDNA. A ratio of less than 1.7 indicates protein contamination. Polymerase chain reaction (PCR) is a robust technique to selectively amplify a specific segment of DNA in vitro.[1] PCR is performed on thermocycler and it involves three main steps: (1) denaturation of dsDNA template at 95°C, (2) annealing of primers at 50/60°C, and (3) extension of dNTP molecules at approx. 72°C. These steps are repeated for 30–40 cycles. Various chemical components of PCR are TaqCl, buffer, MgCl₂, primer, template, dNTP, and Taq polymerase. [2]Target sequence is the sequence which is to be amplified. Primers are single-stranded oligonucleotides (usually 18–22 nt) complementary to the target sequence. They are used to initiate the PCR reaction. High-fidelity polymerases are used for PCR amplification. Quality control of PCR product: PCR products are analyzed by agarose gel electrophoresis. Gel documentation system like GeneSnap™ or GeneTools™ are used for quantification of PCR products. Multiplex PCR: It is used to amplify multiple targets in a single PCR permitting their simultaneous analysis. Nested PCR: It is a modified PCR intended to decrease nonspecific binding of products because of amplification of unexpected primer-binding sites. It involves two PCR steps. In the first PCR reaction, one pair of primers is used to produce DNA products, which act as a target for the second PCR reaction. It helps to increase the specificity of DNA amplification.[3,4]Reverse transcriptase PCR: RT-PCR involved mRNA as the starting material and it uses reverse transcriptase to convert mRNA into the complementary DNA (cDNA). This cDNA is then amplified with the help of regular PCR.Quantitative PCR: It is used to quantify the amount of target DNA (or RNA) in a particular sample.Hot-start PCR: The main advantage of hot-start PCR is to decrease nonspecific amplification of DNA at lower temperature steps of PCR. Reaction components are manually heated before adding Taq polymerase to the DNA-melting temperature (i.e. 95°C).[4]Touchdown PCR: Annealing temperature during the first two cycles of amplification is set at approximately 310C above estimated Tm and the temperature is slowly decreased in the subsequent cycles. Higher annealing temperature in two initial cycles leads to more specificity for primer binding, and the lower temperatures allow more efficient amplification later on.[4]Assembly PCR: Assembly PCR helps in synthesis of long DNA segments by doing PCR on a pool of long oligonucleotides having short overlapping segments and in turn assembling more DNA segments into one segment.Methylation specific PCR: This PCR involves sodium bisulfite treatment of DNA prior to PCR amplification. Sodium bisulfite converts methylated cytosines to thymine. After PCR, the resulting DNA fragments are sequenced to determine the methylation status of the original DNA. This technique is widely used in epigenetics research, particularly in cancer studies, where changes in DNA methylation patterns are often associated with disease progression. It is used to identify differentially methylated regions (DMRs) across samples, providing insights into gene regulation and developmental processes. Applications include studying environmental influences on gene expression, identifying biomarkers for diseases, and understanding the role of epigenetics in aging and disease pathogenesis. The process typically involves bisulfite conversion of genomic DNA, followed by PCR amplification of specific regions, and finally sequencing the amplified products to detect methylation levels.

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Please help improve this article by adding citations to reliable sources. Un sourced material may be challenged and removed.Find sources:"DNA extraction"news newspapers books scholar JSTOR May 2014) (Learn how and when to remove this message)The first isolation of deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) was done in 1869 by Friedrich Miescher.[1] DNA extraction is the process of isolating DNA from the cells of an organism isolated from a sample, typically a biological sample such as blood, saliva, or tissue. It involves breaking open the cells, removing proteins and other contaminants, and purifying the DNA so that it is free of other cellular components. The purified DNA can then be used for downstream applications such as PCR,[12] sequencing, or cloning. Currently, it is a routine procedure in many laboratories. The process typically involves several steps: cell lysis, protein removal, DNA purification, and DNA storage. The choice of method depends on the type of sample, the desired purity of the DNA, and the downstream application. Common methods include organic extraction (phenol-chloroform), silica-based extraction (silica spin columns), and silica bead-based extraction (spin columns). Each method has its own advantages and disadvantages regarding cost, time, safety, and risk of contamination.Organic extraction involves the addition of incubation in multiple different chemical solutions:[9] including a lysis step, a phenol-chloroform extraction, an ethanol precipitation, and washing steps. Organic extraction is often used in laboratories because it is cheap, and it yields large quantities of pure DNA. Though it is easy, there are many steps involved, and it takes longer than other methods. It also involves the unfavorable use of the toxic chemicals phenol and chloroform, and there is an increased risk of contamination due to transferring the DNA between multiple tubes.[10] Several protocols based on organic extraction of DNA were effectively developed decades ago[11][12] though improved and more practical versions of these protocols have been developed and published in the last years.[12]The chelex extraction method involves adding the Chelex resin to the sample, boiling the solution, then vortexing and centrifuging it. The cellular materials bind to the Chelex beads, while the DNA remains in the supernatant. The supernatant is then transferred to a new tube, and the DNA is purified by ethanol precipitation and resuspended in a buffer, such as Tris-EDTA (TE) buffer, for storage.Another method is freezing the DNA in a buffer such as TE buffer, or in a cryoprotectant such as glycerol or DMSO, at -20 or -80 degrees Celsius. This method preserves the integrity of the DNA and slows down the activity of any enzymes that may degrade it.It's important to note that the choice of storage buffer and conditions will depend on the downstream application for which the DNA is intended. For example, if the DNA is to be used for PCR, it may be stored in TE buffer at 4 degrees Celsius, while if it is to be used for long-term storage or shipping, it may be stored in ethanol at -20 degrees Celsius. The extracted DNA should be regularly checked for its quality and integrity, such as by running a gel electrophoresis or spectrophotometry. The storage conditions should be also noted and controlled, such as the temperature and humidity.It's also important to consider the long-term stability of the DNA and the potential for degradation over time. The extracted DNA should be stored for as short a time as possible, and the conditions for storage should be chosen to minimize the risk of degradation.In general, the extracted DNA should be stored under the best possible conditions to ensure its stability and integrity for downstream applications. There are several quality control techniques used to ensure the quality of extracted DNA, including:[17]Spectrophotometry: This is a widely used method for measuring the concentration and purity of a DNA sample. Spectrophotometry measures the absorbance of a sample at different wavelengths, typically at 260nm and 280nm. The ratio of absorbance at 260nm and 280nm is used to determine the purity of the DNA sample. A ratio of 1.8 is considered ideal. Gel electrophoresis: This technique is used to visualize and compare the size and integrity of DNA samples. It involves loading DNA samples onto an agarose gel and subjecting them to an electric field. The DNA fragments migrate through the gel, and the migration distance is inversely proportional to the logarithm of the fragment size. Fluorescence intensity: This method involves measuring the fluorescence intensity of the DNA sample. Fluorescent dyes that specifically bind to DNA are used to enhance fluorescence. Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR): PCR is a technique that amplifies a specific region of DNA. It is also used as a QC method by amplifying a small fragment of the DNA. If the amplification is successful, it means the extracted DNA is of good quality and it isn't degraded. Qubit Fluorometer: The Qubit Fluorometer is an instrument that uses fluorescent dyes to measure the concentration of DNA and RNA in a sample. It is a quick and sensitive method that can be used to determine the concentration of DNA samples.[17]Bioanalyzer: The bioanalyzer is an instrument that uses electrophoresis to separate and analyze DNA, RNA, and protein samples. It can provide detailed information about the size, integrity, and purity of a DNA sample.Biology portalBiomethod DNA fingerprintingDNA sequencingDNA structureEthanol precipitationPlasmid preparationPolymerase chain reactionCODA DNA purification "a b "Fluorescence In Situ Hybridization (FISH)". Genome.gov. Retrieved 2022-10-23." Gupta, Nalini (2019). "DNA extraction and polymerase chain reaction". Journal of Cytology. 36 (2): 116117. doi:10.4103/JOC.JOC.110.18. ISSN0970-9371. PMID64257963. * Srivastava, Akhleshwar Kumar; Kannaujia, Vinod Kumar; Singh, Rajesh Kumar; Singh, Divya (5 October 2020). "DNA Extraction - an overview | ScienceDirect Topics". Elsevier ScienceDirect. ISBN978-1-821710-8. Retrieved 2023-01-27.. Dehaesele, Marianne; Penver, Patricia; Kempe Lagerlund, Vendela; Ersmark, Erik; Danilov, Gleb K.; Mortensen, Peter; Vartanyan, Sergey; Daln, Love (2022-04-13). "Development and Optimization of a Silica Column-Based Extraction Protocol for Ancient DNA". 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