Oncu Oner, T., et al., An Improved Method for Efficient DNA Extraction from Grapevine International Journal of Life Sciences and Biotechnology, 2023 6(1): p. 21-36. DOI: 10.38001/ijlsb.1150387

An Improved Method for Efficient DNA Extraction from Grapevine

Tulay Oncu Oner¹, Melih Temel¹, Seda Pamay¹, Altin Kardelen Abaci¹, Hilal Betul Kaya^{1*}

ABSTRACT

Grapevine (Vitis vinifera L.) is one of the oldest and most important perennial crops worldwide which has been the subject of extensive genetic studies including gene mapping, genetic transformation, and DNA fingerprinting. Grapevines are rich in polysaccharides, polyphenolic compounds, and various secondary metabolites, many of which have significant importance in food, agrochemical, and pharmaceutical industries. While metabolites are one of the indicators of quality of grapevines, the presence of them makes grapevine one of the most difficult plants to extract DNA from. These metabolites not only affect DNA extraction procedures but also downstream reactions such as restriction digestion and PCR. Development of new genotyping techniques based on sequencing such as genotyping by sequencing (GBS) requires highquality DNA for digestion and sequencing. To date, several protocols have been developed for DNA extraction from grapevine. In this study, three different protocols with modifications were compared for DNA extraction performance from grapevine leaves from four different cultivars. Efficiencies of these methods were determined by extracted DNA's quantity and quality. To confirm the suitability for GBS, extracted DNA was digested with restriction enzymes. Although all protocols were based on the traditional CTAB method, they resulted in different DNA yield and restriction digestion efficiency. The modified protocol including PVP-40 and ß-mercaptoethanol was found to be the most efficient method to obtain high quality and quantity grapevine DNA that is amenable to restriction digestion.

ARTICLE HISTORY Received 01 August 2022 Accepted 14 November 2022

KEYWORDS

grapevine, DNA extraction, restriction digestion, GBS

Introduction

Grapevine (*Vitis vinifera* L.), which belongs to Vitaceae family, is one of the most important fruit crops worldwide since it is used in the production of wine, table grapes, dried grapes, and grape juice [1-3]. Besides grape berries, grapevine leaves also have been traditionally used in Mediterranean cuisine and have cultural importance [4]. Grapevine leaves are generally large and petiolate, and appear to be shaped like a hand [5]. They are rich in carotenoids, vitamins, minerals, volatile compounds, and phenolic compounds [6, 7]. In particular, flavonoids, tannins, anthocyanins and procyanidins are the phenolic compounds found in grapevine leaves [8]. Grapes and their byproducts have been used

¹ Department of Bioengineering, Engineering Faculty, Manisa Celal Bayar University, Manisa, Turkey

^{*}Corresponding Author: Hilal Betul Kaya, e-mail: hilalbetul.kaya@cbu.edu.tr

in traditional medicine, including the treatment of skin diseases, bleeding, nausea, inflammation, pain, diarrhea, and gastroenteritis, for thousands of years [9].

Grapevine has been the subject of extensive genetic studies including genetic transformation, DNA fingerprinting, QTL and association mapping [10]. Although DNA extraction from grape berries, stems, and seeds have been shown in different studies [11-13], leaves are the most widely used plant organ for DNA extraction. Genomic DNA extraction from grapevine leaves has always been problematic because of large amounts of secondary metabolites [14, 15]. High polyphenol, polysaccharide and other secondary metabolite content can interfere with DNA extraction and purification [16, 17]. Especially difficult are the oxidized form of polyphenols, as they can covalently bind to DNA interfering with the purification steps in DNA extraction [18, 19]. Also, polysaccharides can affect downstream digestion and amplification processes by inhibiting restriction enzyme and *Taq* polymerase activity, respectively. Polysaccharides in the extracted DNA increase the viscosity of the solution which makes it difficult to work with and affects the quality of DNA [20-23].

Molecular markers are generally used in DNA fingerprinting, population structure and genetic mapping studies [24, 25]. Various molecular markers such as amplified fragment length polymorphism (AFLP) [26], sequence characterized amplified region (SCAR) [27], random amplified polymorphic DNA (RAPD) [28], sequence-related amplified polymorphism (SRAP) [29] and simple sequence repeat (SSR) [30] have been utilized to identify genetic diversities and population structures of grapevine. With the advancement of next-generation sequencing (NGS) techniques, the cost of marker identification decreased considerably. Results were obtained faster and more reliably while novel applications such as genotyping-by-sequencing (GBS) have been developed [31]. GBS offers a reliable and fast approach that can be applied to a large number of samples simultaneously by reducing genome complexity and providing high SNP coverage [32]. The low cost and flexibility of the method make GBS a preferred tool for plant genetic studies [33]. Yet, GBS requires high quality DNA suitable for enzymatic reactions such as digestion and amplification [34].

DNA extraction process efficiency depends on a number of factors including plant tissue, material storage conditions, and extraction buffer components such as detergents, chelating and reducing agents [16, 35]. To extract DNA from plants, various types of plant tissues such as seeds, leaves, roots, callus, and endosperm can be used, with optimization required for each tissue type. Collection method of tissue and storage conditions are also important parameters for successful DNA extraction [36]. To avoid degradation of DNA, liquid nitrogen or silica gels can be used and plant tissue should be stored at proper conditions [35].

DNA extraction method should be efficient, rapid, simple and cost-effective especially if working with a large number of samples [37]. In the past, various DNA extraction methods were developed for grapevine [10, 38-40]. In addition to manual extraction methods, commercial kits have become available. However, these kits are expensive and usually yield a small amount of DNA. Therefore, developing a standardized high yield and cost-efficient DNA extraction protocol amenable to modern applications is crucial for future grapevine studies [41, 42].

The aim of the present study is to evaluate three different DNA extraction protocols with modifications and select the best one in terms of yield, quality, and suitability for restriction digestion. The result is an optimized DNA extraction protocol from grapevine using leaf samples. This protocol does not only provide extracted DNA suitable for GBS and other sequencing methods but can also be used as a useful guideline that may be applied to other plants.

Materials and Methods

Plant material

Fresh young grapevine leaves from four different cultivars, Alphonse, Hamburg misketi, Royal, and Cardinal, were collected from the vineyard in Manisa Viticulture Research Institute, Turkey (38°N, 27°E). Grapevine leaves were immediately frozen in the liquid nitrogen and then stored at -80°C until DNA extraction.

Comparison of DNA extraction protocols

Fresh grapevine leaves (0.2 g) were ground using liquid nitrogen and a mortar and pestle to a fine powder, and then transferred into 2 ml eppendorf tubes. After this common step, the following protocols were used. A schematic overview of workflow for the protocols is shown in Fig 1.



Fig 1 Workflow for implemented DNA extraction protocols. BME: β-mercaptoethanol, CTAB: cetyl-trimethyl ammonium bromide, EDTA: ethylene diamine tetra acetic acid, N₂: nitrogen, PVP-40: polyvinylpyrrolidone

DNA extraction protocol 1

The extraction of DNA was performed using the in-house DNA extraction protocol of the Diversity Arrays Technology (DArT) with some modifications. (<u>https://www.diversityarrays.com/orderinstructions/plant-dna-extraction-protocol-for-</u>

dart/). The CTAB-based DArT DNA extraction protocol includes extraction buffer, lysis buffer and sarcosyl stock solutions as follows: Extraction buffer was prepared with 6.4% (w/v) sorbitol, 5 mM EDTA (pH: 8.0), 100 mM TrisHCl (pH: 8.0) in ddH₂O. Lysis buffer contained 2% (w/v) CTAB, 1 M NaCl, 50 mM EDTA, 200mM TrisHCl (pH: 8.0). Sarcosyl stock was 5% (w/v). Final concentrations of sodium disulfite and PVP-40 in the working solution were 0.5% (w/v) and 2% (w/v), respectively. Fresh working solution was prepared by dissolving sodium disulfite and PVP-40 in extraction buffer and mixing this solution with lysis buffer and sarcosyl stock at a ratio of 5:5:2. Leaf tissues were ground in mortar and pestle under liquid nitrogen to fine powder and suspended in 1 ml fresh buffer solution kept at 65 °C. The sample was incubated at 65 °C for 1 h with gentle shaking and inverting the tubes every 15 minutes. After incubation, the mixture was cooled down for 5 min and 1 ml of chloroform: isoamyl alcohol (24:1) was added and mixed well for 15 min. The mixture was centrifuged at 10000 rpm for 20 min. The water phase was transferred to new eppendorf tube and 1 ml ice cold absolute ethanol (isopropanol in the original protocol by DArT) was added and mixed by inverting 10-15 times. The mixture was centrifuged at 5000 rpm for 15 min. Supernatant was discarded carefully and, diverging from the DArT protocol, the pellet was washed with 500 µl of 70% ethanol solution containing 0.2 M sodium acetate and again with 500 µl of 70% ethanol solution only. The mixture was centrifuged at 5000 rpm for 5 min. The supernatant was decanted carefully, and the pellet was dried at room temperature. Finally, the DNA pellet was dissolved in 200 µl of ultra-pure water (TE buffer was used in the original protocol by DArT) at 65 °C for 30 min. Genomic DNA was treated with 1 µl RNAse A (10 mg/ml) and incubated at 37 °C for 15 min to remove RNA contamination. DNA was stored at -20 °C for future use.

DNA extraction protocol 2

The extraction of DNA was performed with the protocol described by Lodhi *et al.* (1994) with the following modifications: preheated extraction buffer, 0.2 g of leaf tissue powder was used instead of 0.5 g. Extraction buffer was prepared using 2% CTAB (w/v), 1.4 M

NaCl, 100 mM Tris-HCl (pH: 8.0) and 20 mM EDTA and added 0.2% of ßmercaptoethanol (w/v) just before use. Differently from Lodhi et al. (1994), extraction buffer was preheated in a 65 °C water bath and 1 ml extraction buffer was added to the eppendorf tube containing grapevine leaf powder and mixed well by vortexing. Addition of PVP-40 was omitted before incubation. The sample was incubated at 65 °C for 30 min and then cooled to room temperature (instead of incubation at 60 °C for 25 min). Then 1 ml of chloroform:isoamyl alcohol (24:1) was added (Lodhi et al. used chloroform:octanol) and mixed gently by inverting the tubes 20 to 25 times to form an emulsion. This mixture was centrifuged at 6000 rpm for 15 min. The aqueous phase was transferred to a new eppendorf tube. If the supernatant was not clear, this chloroform: isoamyl alcohol step was repeated. 5 M NaCl equal to half the volume of supernatant was added and mixed well. Thereafter two volumes of cold 100% ethanol (-20 °C) were added and mixed gently by inverting the tubes until DNA strands began to appear. The mixture was centrifuged at 3000 rpm for 3 min and immediately after at 5000 rpm for 3 min at room temperature. This differential spinning step kept the DNA at the bottom of the eppendorf tube. Supernatant was discarded and the pellet was washed with cold 70% ethanol (0 to 4 °C) and then air-dried at room temperature. Finally, instead of TE buffer (Lodhi et al. 2014), the pellet was dissolved in 200 µl of ultra-pure water. This 200 µl DNA solution was treated with 1 µl RNase A (10 mg/ml) and incubated at 37 °C for 15 minutes. DNA was stored at -20 °C for future use.

DNA extraction protocol 3

DNA extraction Protocol 3 mirrored Protocol 2 but included the addition of 3% PVP-40 (w/v) (polyvinylpyrrolidone) in the extraction buffer. While PVP-40 was added separately to the leaf slurry after addition of the extraction buffer (Lodhi et al., 2014) in the original protocol, PVP-40 was added directly to the extraction buffer in this study. Preheated extraction buffer (preheated to 65 °C) was also used in this protocol which was different from Lodhi *et al.* (1994). The same incubation and centrifuge conditions were implemented in this protocol as in Protocol 2, as well as resuspension, RNAse treatment, and storage.

DNA quantification and quality assessment

DNA quantification was performed with Qubit dsDNA BR Assay Kit (Invitrogen, cat no. Q32850) on a Qubit 3.0 Fluorometer (Invitrogen) using an aliquot of 1 µl genomic DNA.

The instrument was calibrated with the Quant-iT dsDNA BR Assay (stated assay range between 2–1000 ng; sample starting concentration between 100 pg/ μ l and μ g/ μ l) according to the manufacturer's instructions.

Based on DNA concentration derived from the Qubit measurements, total yield was obtained by multiplying the DNA concentration by the volume of the total DNA sample.

Total DNA yield (μ g) = DNA concentration × total DNA sample volume (ml) In addition, the presence and quality of genomic DNA was evaluated by electrophoresis. DNA was stained with Sybr Safe (Invitrogen), separated by 1% agarose gel for 1 h at 200 V using 1 x TAE (40 mM Tris-acetate, 1 mM EDTA) running buffer in Thermo ScientificTM OwlTM A2 Large Gel Systems, and then visualized by UV gel documentation system E-box VX2/20LM (Vilber Lourmat).

Restriction digestion with *EcoRI* enzyme

DNA extracted from the grapevine leaves was subjected to restriction digestion with *EcoRI* enzyme (R0101S, NEB), which cuts DNA at the sequence GTTAAC. A mixture was prepared using 1 μ g genomic DNA, 1 μ l *EcoRI* restriction enzyme and 5 μ l 10X NEBuffer and the reaction volume brought up to 50 μ l with nuclease free water. This mixture was incubated at 37 °C for 30 min. Then the enzyme was inactivated by incubation at 65 °C for 20 min. Digested DNA were run on a 1% agarose gel to test the efficiency of the digestion.

Application of the best protocol to twenty-two different cultivars

Based on the results of the experiments from different protocols described above, the best DNA extraction method, Protocol 3, was implemented with some modifications as follows. To test the method's efficiency in various cultivars, twenty-two different grapevine cultivars was used for DNA extraction. Instead of grinding sample in a mortar and pestle, grinding was performed on a Precellys Evolution tissue homogenizer (Bertin instruments, Montigny-le-Bretonneux, France). DNA pellet was dissolved in 200 μ l of TE buffer. All the other steps were as described in Protocol 3 and DNA quantification and quality assessment were performed as mentioned above.

Results and Discussion

In molecular genetic studies of plants, extraction of DNA of good quality and quantity is critically important. Quality of the extracted DNA can change depending on the tissue

type of the plants as well as collection and storage conditions of the sample [20]. DNA extraction can be problematic especially in plants which consist of high amounts of secondary metabolites, phenolic compounds and polysaccharides such as grapevine [43]. In this study, CTAB-based protocols reported by Diversity Arrays Technology (DArT) and Lodhi *et al.* (1994) were modified and implemented, showing different DNA yields and restriction digestion efficiencies. The CTAB-based DArT DNA extraction protocol (Protocol 1) has been successfully used in a wide variety of plants including maize [44], safflower [45] and cowpea [46]. This protocol contains PVP-40, sorbitol and sarcosyl reagents that can help remove polyphenols and polysaccharides that are attached to the DNA [47, 48]. Although clear DNA bands without protein contamination were achieved when Protocol 1 was used, a huge amount of RNA contamination was also obtained (Fig 2a) indicating the consistently applied RNAse A treatment was less efficient for this DNA extraction. The yield of DNA obtained was low ranging from 6.4 µg to 12 µg from 0.2 g fresh leave samples with Protocol 1 (Table 1).

		Protocol 1	Protocol 2	Protocol 3
Sample 1	DNA concentration (ng/µl)	32	272	112
	Total DNA yield (µg)	6.4	54.4	22.4
Sample 2	DNA concentration (ng/µl)	40	164	126
	Total DNA yield (µg)	8	32.8	25.2
Sample 3	DNA concentration (ng/µl)	60	113	91
	Total DNA yield (µg)	12	22.6	18.2
Sample 4	DNA concentration (ng/µl)	45	158	85
	Total DNA yield (µg)	9	31.6	17

 Table 1 DNA yield and concentration values obtained from four samples using three different extractions protocols

The protocol reported by Lodhi *et al.* (1994) was a modified version of the protocol reported by Doyle and Doyle (1987). Lodhi *et al.* (1994) added NaCl and PVP-40 to the extraction buffer to remove polysaccharides and polyphenols, respectively. In this study, we tried extraction buffers with PVP-40 (Protocol 3) and without PVP-40 (Protocol 2) to understand the effect of PVP-40 in the extraction buffer. The protocol 2 extraction method provided the highest amount of DNA ranging from 22.6 μ g to 54.4 μ g while the DNA yields from Protocol 3 ranged from 17 μ g to 25.2 μ g from 0.2 g leaf tissue. According to agarose gel results, extracted DNA by Protocol 2 showed higher amount of protein and

RNA contaminations than DNA obtained from Protocol 3 (Fig 2a). Although RNAse treatment was applied to all DNA samples, various amount of RNA contamination was also obtained in all protocols.

The addition of PVP-40 in the extraction buffer increases the DNA quality by removing RNA and phenolics from plants high in polyphenolic compounds, such as, betula and grape leaves [49]. However, it is also reported that the presence of PVP-40 increased the DNA yield [49, 50]. In the present study, addition of PVP-40 decreased the RNA and protein contamination, but it did not increase the DNA yield. Lodhi *et al.* (1994) reported that grinding of leaf samples to the very fine powder resulted in sheared DNA. However, in this study, grinding to the very fine powder under liquid nitrogen did not result in degradation as shown in Fig 2a.



Fig 2 Result from agarose gel electrophoresis analysis of **a**) DNA extracted using three protocols from four different fresh young grapevine leaves (1: Alphonse, 2: Hamburg misketi, 3: Royal, 4: Cardinal). 1 kb DNA ladder (N3232S, New England BioLabs) was used to estimate the molecular size of the fragments. Lane M: 1 kb DNA ladder. Sample lanes 1 to 4 show DNA extracted using Protocol 1, Protocol 2 and Protocol 3, respectively. **b**) restriction enzyme digestion for three protocols. 1 kb DNA ladder was used to estimate the molecular size of the fragments. Lane M: 1 kb DNA ladder was used to estimate the molecular size of the fragments. Lane M: 1 kb DNA ladder was used to estimate the molecular size of the fragments. Lane M: 1 kb DNA ladder was used to estimate the molecular size of the fragments. Lane M: 1 kb DNA ladder was used to estimate the molecular size of the fragments. Lane M: 1 kb DNA ladder. Sample lanes 1 to 4 show restriction digestion results of DNA extracted Protocol 1, Protocol 2, and Protocol 3, respectively

UV spectrophotometry, dsDNA-specific fluorimetry and quantitative PCR are the most common techniques for DNA quantification [51]. The most frequently used instrument for spectrophotometric analysis, Nanodrop, is based on similar principles as a conventional spectrophotometer but has additional features. The Qubit system uses fluorochromes that specifically bind dsDNA to measure the concentration of DNA. Although Nanodrop has advantages over Qubit such as ease-of use, well-established, and no reagent requirement, Qubit is the more preferred instrument, especially for sequencing, due to its highly reproducible and consistent results [52]. It has been reported

that NanoDrop overestimates DNA concentration [53]. In this study, Qubit 3.0 Fluorometer (Invitrogen) was used for DNA quantification and consistent results were obtained with agarose gel electrophoresis.

DNA quality and quantity requirements change depending on the platform and genotyping techniques by NGS. In the GBS protocol, the first step is an initial digest of sample DNA by restriction enzyme to reduce genome representation [32]. Various compounds including proteins, polysaccharides, phenolic compounds, and other plant secondary metabolites in the DNA sample may inhibit restriction digestion and PCR [10, 54]. For this reason, DNA quality is a critical parameter for the succes of GBS. Genomic DNA should have a clear band greater than 10 kb while digested samples should exhibit a smear. In the present study, effectiveness of digestion was assessed by *EcoR*I restriction enzyme. Analysis of digestion of DNAs by *EcoR*I showed that inconsistent results were obtained when the Protocol 1 used (Fig 2b). However, all DNAs from Protocol 2 and Protocol 3 were fully digested as shown in Fig 2b. In the present study, addition of PVP-40 did not affect the restriction digestion as shown in Fig 2b.



Fig 3 Agarose gel electrophoresis of undigested and digested genomic DNA samples of grapevine. a) Genomic DNA from twenty-two different grapevines, b) Genomic DNA of five random selected grapevine samples digested with *Eco*RI restriction enzyme, Lane M: 1 kb DNA ladder

The SNPs detected by GBS are widely used for genetic diversity analysis [55-58], characterization of population structure [59, 60], QTL mapping [61, 62] and genome-

wide association studies [63-65] (GWAS), and genomic selection [66, 67] in many horticultural crops including grapevine [68-72]. As DNA extraction and purification methods affect GBS results, they also affect the genetic analysis which use GBS data. To date, various DNA extraction protocols have been applied to woody plants including grapevine. Marsal et al. (2013) extracted DNA from young leaves, mature leaves, seeds and stems of grapevine for SSR analysis by using ten different DNA extraction methods including three common commercial kits. They reported that the use of the cationic detergents such as CTAB and DTAB gave better results than SDS in grapevine. The authors also showed that using the combination of CTAB and DTAB provided good DNA yields. However, in our study using only CTAB was enough to meet the requirements of DNA quality and quantity for GBS. They also reported that higher DNA yield was obtained from young leaves than from mature leaves, seeds, and stems. Akkurt (2012) also investigated the effects of sample collection time and samples grown in both vineyard and greenhouse in addition to different DNA extraction protocols [73]. He reported that higher DNA yield was obtained from vineyard sample when they implemented the DNA extraction protocol by Lodhi et al. (1994). Yet, none of these studies evaluated the suitability of the DNAs for NGS.

Sample ID	DNA concentration (ng/µl)	Total yield (µg)	Sample ID	DNA concentration	Total yield (ng)
				(ng/µl)	
1	92	18.4	12	92	18.4
2	97	19.4	13	97	19.4
3	104	20.8	14	87	17.4
4	96	19.2	15	99	19.8
5	98	19.6	16	95	19.0
6	89	17.8	17	92	18.4
7	87	17.4	18	89	17.8
8	94	18.8	19	95	19.0
9	102	20.4	20	112	22.4
10	107	21.4	21	97	19.4
11	93	18.6	22	91	18.2

Table 2 DNA yield and concentration values of 22 grapevine cultivars using Protocol 3

For confirmation, the best performing protocol, Protocol 3, was implemented for genomic DNA extraction of different cultivars of grapevine. Similar band intensities were observed for the extracted DNA from twenty-two grapevines cultivars (Fig 3a) of which fresh leaves were collected and stored at -80 °C upon flash freezing in liquid N₂. None of

DNA samples exhibited significant smearing which indicates degradation of DNA sample. DNA concentrations ranged from 87 ng/ μ l to 112 ng/ μ l (Table 2). In the case of restriction digestion, five random genomic DNAs were digested with *EcoR*I which produced excellent digestion smears as shown in Fig 3b.

Conclusion

In conclusion, we described a simple and rapid protocol that can be reliably used for routine DNA extraction from grapevine leaf tissue and meet the requirements of DNA quality and quantity for GBS. The modified Lodhi extraction method may be used for other tree species that include high levels of polysaccharides, polyphenolic compounds, and various secondary metabolites.

Acknowledgments

The authors thank Manisa Viticulture Research Institute for providing plant material.

Funding

This study was financially supported by Manisa Celal Bayar University Scientific Research Projects funds, Project No: (2017-113).

Data Availability statement The authors confirm that data supporting the findings of this study are available in the article.

Compliance with ethical standards Conflict of interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

Ethical standards

The study is proper with ethical standards

Authors' contributions

Hilal Betul Kaya conceived and designed the study. All authors performed the experiments and contributed to the preparation of the manuscript.

References

- 1. Li-Mallet, A., A. Rabot ,and L. Geny, Factors controlling inflorescence primordia formation of grapevine: their role in latent bud fruitfulness? A review. Botany, 2016. 94(3): p. 147-163.
- Pertot, I., et al., A critical review of plant protection tools for reducing pesticide use on grapevine and new perspectives for the implementation of IPM in viticulture. Crop Protection, 2017. 97: p. 70-84.
- Petronilho, S., M. A. Coimbra and S. M. Rocha, A critical review on extraction techniques and gas chromatography based determination of grapevine derived sesquiterpenes. Analytica chimica acta, 2014. 846: p. 8-35.
- 4. Sat, I., M. Sengul and F. Keles, Use of grape leaves in canned food. Pak. J. Nutr, 2002. 1(6): p. 257-262.

- Cosme, F., T. Pinto ,and A. Vilela, Oenology in the kitchen: The sensory experience offered by culinary dishes cooked with alcoholic drinks, grapes and grape leaves. Beverages, 2017. 3(3): p. 42.
- Anđelković, M., et al., Phenolic compounds and bioactivity of healthy and infected grapevine leaf extracts from red varieties Merlot and Vranac (Vitis vinifera L.). Plant foods for human nutrition, 2015. 70(3): p. 317-323.
- Fernandes, B., et al., Volatile components of vine leaves from two Portuguese grape varieties (Vitis vinifera L.), Touriga Nacional and Tinta Roriz, analysed by solid-phase microextraction. Natural product research, 2015. 29(1): p. 37-45.
- 8. Dani, C., et al., Phenolic content of grapevine leaves (Vitis labrusca var. Bordo) and its neuroprotective effect against peroxide damage. Toxicology in Vitro, 2010. 24(1): p. 148-153.
- 9. Vilela, A. and T. Pinto, Grape infusions: The flavor of grapes and health-promoting compounds in your tea cup. Beverages, 2019. 5(3): p. 48.
- 10. Lodhi, M. A., et al., A simple and efficient method for DNA extraction from grapevine cultivars and Vitis species. Plant Molecular Biology Reporter, 1994. 12(1): p. 6-13.
- 11. Sefc, K. M., et al., Genetic analysis of grape berries and raisins using microsatellite markers. VITIS-GEILWEILERHOF-, 1998. 37: p. 123-126.
- 12. Marsal, G., et al., Comparison of the efficiency of some of the most usual DNA extraction methods for woody plants in different tissues of Vitis vinifera L. OENO One, 2013. 47(4): p. 227-237.
- 13. Ojeda, H., et al., Berry development of grapevines: relations between the growth of berries and their DNA content indicate cell multiplication and enlargement. Vitis, 1999. 38(4): p. 145-150.
- Alfonzo, A., et al., A simple and rapid DNA extraction method from leaves of grapevine suitable for polymerase chain reaction analysis. African Journal of Biotechnology, 2012. 11(45): p. 10305-10309.
- 15. Rathnayake, A. S., et al., High quality DNA obtained from a single seed of Vitis vinifera L. using rapid DNA extraction method. American Journal of Plant Sciences, 2014. 2014.
- 16. Friar, E. A., Isolation of DNA from plants with large amounts of secondary metabolites. Methods in enzymology, 2005. 395: p. 1-12.
- Aboul-Maaty, N. A.-F. and H. A.-S. Oraby, Extraction of high-quality genomic DNA from different plant orders applying a modified CTAB-based method. Bulletin of the National Research Centre, 2019. 43(1): p. 1-10.
- Agrawal, A., A. Sharma and N. P. Shukla, Genomic DNA extraction protocol for Artemisia annua L. without using liquid nitrogen and phenol. International Journal of Applied Sciences and Biotechnology, 2016. 4(4): p. 448-451.
- Rajaei, S., et al., Efficient Strategies for Elimination of Phenolic Compounds During DNA Extraction from Roots of Pistacia vera L. AGRIVITA, Journal of Agricultural Science, 2017. 39(3): p. 279-287.
- Sahu, S. K., M. Thangaraj and K. Kathiresan, DNA extraction protocol for plants with high levels of secondary metabolites and polysaccharides without using liquid nitrogen and phenol. International Scholarly Research Notices, 2012. 2012.
- 21. Adams, R. P. and N. Do, A simple technique for removing plant polysaccharides contaminants from DNA. BioTechniques, 1991. 10(2): p. 162-164.
- 22. Sairkar, P., et al., Optimization of DNA isolation process and enhancement of RAPD PCR for low quality genomic DNA of Terminalia arjuna. Journal of Genetic Engineering and Biotechnology, 2013. 11(1): p. 17-24.
- Valizadeh, N., et al., A comparison of genomic DNA extraction protocols in Artemisia annua L. for large scale genetic analyses studies. Iranian Journal of Science and Technology, Transactions A: Science, 2021. 45(5): p. 1587-1595.
- 24. Agarwal, M., N. Shrivastava ,and H. Padh, Advances in molecular marker techniques and their applications in plant sciences. Plant cell reports, 2008. 27(4): p. 617-631.

- 25. Khlestkina, E., Molecular markers in genetic studies and breeding. Russian Journal of Genetics: Applied Research, 2014. 4(3): p. 236-244.
- 26. Theocharis, A., et al., Study of genetic diversity among inter-intraspesific hybrids and original grapevine varieties using AFLP molecular markers. Australian Journal of Crop Science, 2010. 4(1): p. 1-8.
- 27. Li, Z. T., S. Dhekney and D. Gray, Molecular characterization of a SCAR marker purportedly linked to seedlessness in grapevine (Vitis). Molecular breeding, 2010. 25(4): p. 637-644.
- 28. Zhao, M., et al., A new strategy for complete identification of 69 grapevine cultivars using random amplified polymorphic DNA (RAPD) markers. Afr. J. Plant Sci, 2011. 5(4): p. 273-280.
- 29. Guo, D., et al., Genetic variability and relationships between and within grape cultivated varieties and wild species based on SRAP markers. Tree genetics & genomes, 2012. 8(4): p. 789-800.
- Lorenzis, G. d., et al., Study of genetic diversity in V. vinifera subsp. sylvestris in Azerbaijan and Georgia and relationship with species of the cultivated compartment. Acta horticulturae, 2015(1074): p. 49-53.
- 31. Alipour, H., et al., Genotyping-by-sequencing (GBS) revealed molecular genetic diversity of Iranian wheat landraces and cultivars. Frontiers in plant science, 2017. 8: p. 1293.
- 32. Elshire, R. J., et al., A robust, simple genotyping-by-sequencing (GBS) approach for high diversity species. PloS one, 2011. 6(5): p. e19379.
- 33. Poland, J. A., et al., Development of high-density genetic maps for barley and wheat using a novel two-enzyme genotyping-by-sequencing approach. PloS one, 2012. 7(2): p. e32253.
- 34. Peterson, G. W., et al., Genotyping-by-sequencing for plant genetic diversity analysis: a lab guide for SNP genotyping. Diversity, 2014. 6(4): p. 665-680.
- 35. Matasyoh, L. G., et al., Leaf storage conditions and genomic DNA isolation efficiency in Ocimum gratissimum L. from Kenya. African Journal of Biotechnology, 2008. 7(5).
- 36. Till, B. J., et al., Low-cost methods for molecular characterization of mutant plants: tissue desiccation, DNA extraction and mutation discovery: protocols. 2015: Springer Nature.
- Khan, S., et al., Protocol for isolation of genomic DNA from dry and fresh roots of medicinal plants suitable for RAPD and restriction digestion. African Journal of Biotechnology, 2007. 6(3): p. 175-178.
- Doyle, J., DNA protocols for plants, in Molecular techniques in taxonomy. 1991, Springer. p. 283-293.
- 39. Harding, K. and K. Roubelakis-Angelakis, The isolation and purification of DNA from Vitis vinifera L. plants and in vitro cultures. Vitis, 1994. 33(4): p. 247-248.
- 40. Steenkamp, J., et al., Improved method for DNA extraction from Vitis vinifera. American Journal of Enology and Viticulture, 1994. 45(1): p. 102-106.
- 41. Satyanarayana, S. D., M. Krishna ,and P. P. Kumar, Optimization of high-yielding protocol for DNA extraction from the forest rhizosphere microbes. 3 Biotech, 2017. 7(2): p. 1-9.
- 42. Salgotra, R. K. and B. S. Chauhan, Comparison of genomic DNA extraction methods to obtain high DNA quality from barnyard grass (Echinochloa colona). 2020.
- 43. Ali, K., et al., Metabolic constituents of grapevine and grape-derived products. Phytochemistry Reviews, 2010. 9(3): p. 357-378.
- 44. Obi, Q. N., et al., Development of Efficient Genotyping Workflow for Accelerating Maize Improvement in Developing Countries. 2020.
- 45. Ali, F., et al., Genetic diversity, population structure and marker-trait association for 100-seed weight in international safflower panel using silicoDArT marker information. Plants, 2020. 9(5): p. 652.
- Gbedevi, K. M., et al., Genetic Diversity and Population Structure of Cowpea [Vigna unguiculata (L.) Walp.] Germplasm Collected from Togo Based on DArT Markers. Genes, 2021. 12(9): p. 1451.

- Rodrigues, P., A. Venâncio and N. Lima, Toxic reagents and expensive equipment: are they really necessary for the extraction of good quality fungal DNA? Letters in applied microbiology, 2018. 66(1): p. 32-37.
- 48. Karakousis, A., et al., An assessment of the efficiency of fungal DNA extraction methods for maximizing the detection of medically important fungi using PCR. Journal of microbiological methods, 2006. 65(1): p. 38-48.
- 49. Rezadoost, M. H., M. Kordrostami ,and H. H. Kumleh, An efficient protocol for isolation of inhibitor-free nucleic acids even from recalcitrant plants. 3 Biotech, 2016. 6(1): p. 61.
- 50. Deepa, K., et al., A simple and efficient protocol for isolation of high quality functional RNA from different tissues of turmeric (Curcuma longa L.). Physiology and Molecular Biology of Plants, 2014. 20(2): p. 263-271.
- 51. Sedlackova, T., et al., Fragmentation of DNA affects the accuracy of the DNA quantitation by the commonly used methods. Biological Procedures Online, 2013. 15(1): p. 1-8.
- 52. Simbolo, M., et al., DNA qualification workflow for next generation sequencing of histopathological samples. PloS one, 2013. 8(6): p. e62692.
- 53. Garcia-Elias, A., et al., Defining quantification methods and optimizing protocols for microarray hybridization of circulating microRNAs. Scientific reports, 2017. 7(1): p. 1-14.
- 54. Labra, M., et al., Extraction and purification of DNA from grapevine leaves. VITIS-GEILWEILERHOF-, 2001. 40(2): p. 101-102.
- 55. Campa, A. and J. J. Ferreira, Genetic diversity assessed by genotyping by sequencing (GBS) and for phenological traits in blueberry cultivars. PloS one, 2018. 13(10): p. e0206361.
- 56. Kumar, S., et al., Genotyping-by-sequencing of pear (Pyrus spp.) accessions unravels novel patterns of genetic diversity and selection footprints. Horticulture research, 2017. 4(1): p. 1-10.
- Gürcan, K., et al., Genotyping by sequencing (GBS) in apricots and genetic diversity assessment with GBS-derived single-nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs). Biochemical genetics, 2016. 54(6): p. 854-885.
- 58. Micheletti, D., et al., Whole-genome analysis of diversity and SNP-major gene association in peach germplasm. PloS one, 2015. 10(9): p. e0136803.
- 59. Larsen, B., et al., Population structure, relatedness and ploidy levels in an apple gene bank revealed through genotyping-by-sequencing. PLoS One, 2018. 13(8): p. e0201889.
- 60. Islam, A., et al., Genetic Diversity and Population Structure Analysis of the USDA Olive Germplasm Using Genotyping-By-Sequencing (GBS). Genes, 2021. 12(12): p. 2007.
- 61. Gardner, K. M., et al., Fast and cost-effective genetic mapping in apple using next-generation sequencing. G3: Genes, Genomes, Genetics, 2014. 4(9): p. 1681-1687.
- 62. Guajardo, V., et al., Construction of high density sweet cherry (Prunus avium L.) linkage maps using microsatellite markers and SNPs detected by genotyping-by-sequencing (GBS). PloS one, 2015. 10(5): p. e0127750.
- 63. Migicovsky, Z., et al., Genomic consequences of apple improvement. Horticulture Research, 2021. 8(1): p. 1-13.
- 64. McClure, K. A., et al., A genome-wide association study of apple quality and scab resistance. The plant genome, 2018. 11(1): p. 170075.
- Kaya, H. B., et al., Genome wide association study of 5 agronomic traits in olive (Olea europaea L.). Scientific reports, 2019. 9(1): p. 1-14.
- 66. Li, Y., et al., Genomic selection for non-key traits in radiata pine when the documented pedigree is corrected using DNA marker information. BMC genomics, 2019. 20(1): p. 1-10.
- 67. Nsibi, M., et al., Adoption and Optimization of Genomic Selection To Sustain Breeding for Apricot Fruit Quality. G3: Genes, Genomes, Genetics, 2020. 10(12): p. 4513-4529.
- 68. Yang, S., et al., Next generation mapping of enological traits in an F2 interspecific grapevine hybrid family. PloS one, 2016. 11(3): p. e0149560.

- 69. Barba, P., et al., Grapevine powdery mildew resistance and susceptibility loci identified on a high-resolution SNP map. Theoretical and applied genetics, 2014. 127(1): p. 73-84.
- 70. Hyma, K. E., et al., Heterozygous mapping strategy (HetMappS) for high resolution genotypingby-sequencing markers: a case study in grapevine. PloS one, 2015. 10(8): p. e0134880.
- Tello, J., et al., A novel high-density grapevine (Vitis vinifera L.) integrated linkage map using GBS in a half-diallel population. Theoretical and Applied Genetics, 2019. 132(8): p. 2237-2252.
- 72. Jang, H. A. and S.-K. Oh, Development of an efficient genotyping-by-sequencing (GBS) library construction method for genomic analysis of grapevine. Korean Journal of Agricultural Science, 2017. 44(4): p. 495-503.
- 73. Akkurt, M., Comparison between modified DNA extraction protocols and commercial isolation kits in grapevine (Vitis vinifera L.). Genetics and molecular Research, 2012. 11(3): p. 2343-2351.