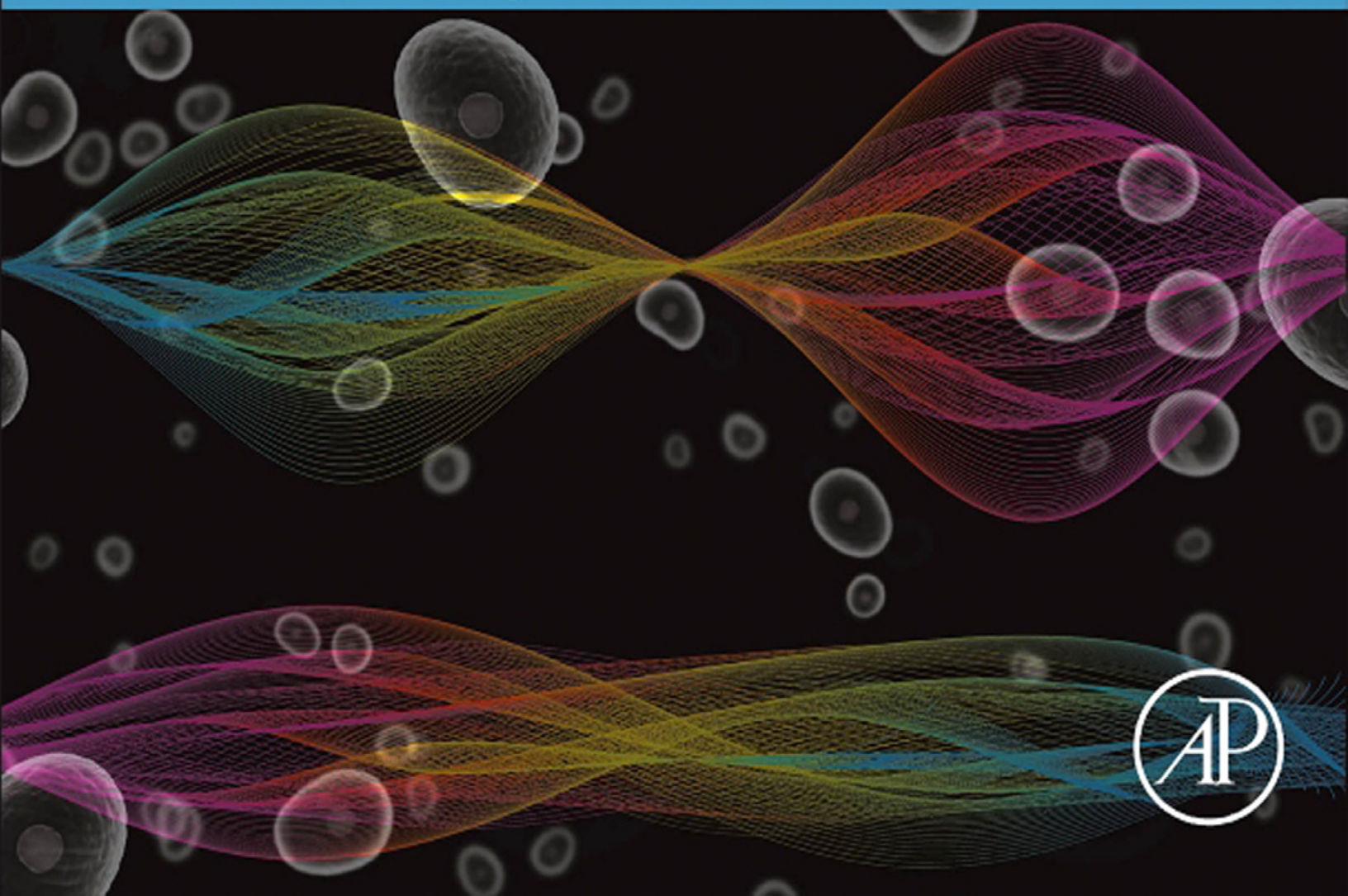


Ashish S. Verma
Anchal Singh

Animal Biotechnology

Models in Discovery and Translation



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Edited by

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Academic Press is an imprint of Elsevier



Academic Press is an imprint of Elsevier
The Boulevard, Langford Lane, Kidlington, Oxford, OX5 1GB, UK
225 Wyman Street, Waltham, MA 02451, USA

First published 2014

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British Library Cataloguing in Publication Data

A catalogue record for this book is available from the British Library

Library of Congress Cataloguing in Publication Data

A catalogue record for this book is available from the Library of Congress

ISBN: 978-0-12-416002-6

For information on all Academic Press publications
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Printed and bound in the United States

14 15 16 17 18 10 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1



**This book is dedicated in fond memories of
Dr. Har Swarup Verma**



**(1941–1995)
Loving Father,
Admirable Professor,
&
Compassionate Physician.
Ashish (son) & Anchal**

Contributors	xxi
Foreword	xxv
Preface	xxvii
Acknowledgments	xxix

Section I

Human Diseases: In Vivo and In Vitro Models

1. Drosophila: A Model for Biotechnologists

K. Ravi Ram and D. Kar Chowdhuri

Summary	3
What You Can Expect to Know	3
History and Methods	3
Introduction	3
Classical Aspects of <i>Drosophila melanogaster</i>	4
History	7
Principle	9
Methodology	10
Culturing of <i>Drosophila</i>	10
Preparation of <i>Drosophila</i> Food Medium	10
Handling of Flies	10
Fly Disposal	10
Egg Collection	10
Dechorination of Eggs	10
Preparation of DNA for Injection	11
Protocols	11
Protocol for Germ-Line Transformation in <i>Drosophila</i>	11
Ethical Issues	12
Translational Significance	13
Drosophila Models of Human Disease	13
Drosophila-Based Models for Understanding Human Neurodegenerative Diseases	13
Drosophila as a Model for Understanding Human Metabolic Disorders	14
Drosophila as a Model for Understanding Nephrolithiasis (Kidney Stones)	15
Drosophila-Based Model for Understanding HIV Pathology	15

Drosophila-Based Therapeutic Peptide Production	15
World Wide Web Resources	17
References	17
Further Reading	18
Glossary	18
Abbreviations	19
Long Answer Questions	19
Short Answer Questions	19
Answers to Short Answer Questions	19

2. Animal Models of Tuberculosis

Devyani Dube, Madhu Gupta, Udita Agrawal and Suresh P. Vyas

Summary	21
What You Can Expect to Know	21
History and Methods	22
Introduction	22
Comparative Pathology of TB in Humans and Animals	22
Pathogen Diversity: Crossing Species Barriers	22
Host Diversity: Fundamental Processes and Fine Tuning	23
Animal Models of TB: Limits and Lessons	24
Various Animal Models	25
Mouse Model	25
Guinea Pig Model	26
Rabbit Model	26
Non-Human Primate Model	26
Cattle Model	28
Ethical Issues	28
Translational Significance	30
World Wide Web Resources	30
Protocols	30
Preparing <i>M. tuberculosis</i> Inoculum for Aerosol Exposure	30
Aerosol Infection of Mice Using the Middlebrook Apparatus	30
Aerosol Infection of Guinea Pigs Using a Madison Chamber	31
Bacterial Loading	31

Intravenous Infection of Mice with <i>M. tuberculosis</i>	31	4. Epigenetics and Animal Models: Applications in Cancer Control and Treatment	
Isolation of Samples for Determining <i>M. tuberculosis</i> Load by RT-PCR	32	<i>Mukesh Verma, Neelesh Agarwal and Mudit Verma</i>	
Determination of Bacterial Loads in Target Organs	32	Summary	57
Preparation of Lungs or Other Tissues for Histology	35	What You Can Expect to Know	57
Preparation of Lung Cell Suspension	35	History and Methods	58
References	35	Introduction	58
Further Reading	36	History: Landscape of Epigenetics	58
Glossary	36	Principle	61
Abbreviations	36	Use of Mouse Models in the Epigenetics of Cancer	61
Long Answer Questions	36	Examples with Applications	61
Short Answer Questions	36	Methodology	64
Answers to Short Answer Questions	36	Methylation Profiling	64
		Histone Profiling	64
		Nucleosome Mapping	64
		Data Storage and Processing	64
		Protocols	65
		Some Useful Points to Consider in a Project Involving Epigenetic Profiling	65
		Ethical Issues	67
		Translational Significance	67
		World Wide Web Resources	69
		References	70
		Further Reading	71
		Glossary	71
		Abbreviations	72
		Long Answer Questions	72
		Short Answer Questions	72
		Answers to Short Answer Questions	72
		5. Development of Mouse Models for Cancer Research	
		<i>Amrita Datta and Debasis Mondal</i>	
		Summary	73
		What You Can Expect to Know	73
		History and Methods	74
		Introduction	74
		History	75
		Principle	75
		IACUC Approval	75
		IACUC Guidelines	76
		Methodology	76
		Inbred Mice	76
		Examples with Applications	78
		Immunocompetent Mice	78
		Immunodeficient Mice	81
		Checklist for a Successful <i>In Vivo</i> Experiment	83
3. Animal Models for Neurodegenerative Disorders			
<i>Hitomi Tsuiji and Koji Yamanaka</i>			
Summary	40		
What You Can Expect to Know	40		
History and Methods	40		
Introduction	40		
Neurodegenerative Diseases	40		
Amyotrophic Lateral Sclerosis (ALS)	40		
Spinal Muscular Atrophy (SMA)	41		
Spinal and Bulbar Muscular Atrophy (SBMA)	42		
Principles	43		
Genetics of ALS	43		
Genetics of SMA	44		
Genetics of SBMA	44		
Methodology	44		
Generation of Transgenic Mice	45		
Cre-loxP Technology	46		
ALS Models	47		
SMA Models	49		
SBMA Models	49		
Examples and their Applications	49		
SOD1-Linked ALS	50		
Other ALS	51		
SMA	52		
SBMA	52		
Ethical Issues	53		
Translational Significance	53		
World Wide Web Resources	54		
References	54		
Further Reading	55		
Glossary	55		
Abbreviations	55		
Long Answer Questions	56		
Short Answer Questions	56		
Answers to Short Answer Questions	56		

Protocols	85	Public Health Concerns with Screening Implementation	109
An Orthotopic Mouse Model of Colorectal Cancer	85	Risk	109
A Xenograft Model of Prostate Cancer Metastasis	87	Benefit vs. Cost	110
Ethical Issues	88	Patient Autonomy and Coercion	110
Translational Significance	88	Public Health Concerns about Vaccine Implementation	110
World Wide Web Resources	89	Treatment	110
References	90	Ablative Techniques	110
Further Reading	91	Excisional Techniques	110
Glossary	91	Follow-Up for Excisional/Ablative Treatment	111
Abbreviations	92	Hysterectomy	111
Long Answer Questions	92	Therapeutic Interventions	111
Short Answer Questions	92	Preventive Measures	112
Answers to Short Answer Questions	93	Translational Significance	112
6. Human Papillomavirus (HPV): Diagnosis and Treatment		Prophylactic HPV Vaccines	112
<i>Mausumi Bharadwaj, Showket Hussain, Richa Tripathi, Neha Singh and Ravi Mehrotra</i>		Therapeutic HPV Vaccines	113
Summary	96	Genetic-Based DNA Vaccines	113
What You Can Expect to Know	96	Issues/Unanswered Questions Associated with HPV Vaccines	113
History and Methods	96	Vaccine Efficacy	113
Cancer Overview	96	Vaccine Protection	113
Classification of Cancer	96	Who Should be Vaccinated?	114
Carcinoma	96	Future Prospects of HPV with Respect to Biotechnology	114
Sarcoma	97	Conclusion	115
Myeloma	97	Key Points	115
Leukemia	97	World Wide Web Resources	116
Lymphoma	97	References	117
Mixed Types	97	Further Reading	117
Tumor Grading	97	Glossary	118
Cancer Staging	97	Abbreviations	118
Cancer-Causing Agents	98	Long Answer Questions	119
Oncogenic Viruses	98	Short Answer Questions	120
Chemicals	98	Answers to Short Answer Questions	120
Radiation	99	7. Human DNA Tumor Viruses and Oncogenesis	
Cervical Cancer	99	<i>Pravinkumar Purushothaman and Subhash Chandra Verma</i>	
Anatomy of the Female Pelvis	99	Summary	121
Historical Overview	100	What You Can Expect to Know	121
Mistaken Theories of Causation	100	History and Methods	122
The First Breakthrough	101	Introduction	122
Nobel Prize for Discovering HPV	101	Transformation and Oncogenesis	122
Prevalence and Epidemiology of Cervical Cancer	101	History of Human DNA Tumor Viruses and Cancer	123
Global Scenario	101	Epstein–Barr Virus	125
Symptoms of Cervical Cancer	102	Kaposi's Sarcoma-Associated Herpesvirus (KSHV)	125
Types of Cervical Cancer	102	Human Papillomavirus (HPV)	126
Risk Factors for Cervical Cancer	102	Hepatitis B Virus (HBV)	127
Pre-Cancer Classification	102		
Cancer Classification	103		
Human Papillomaviruses (HPVs)	104		
Ethical Issues	109		

Principle	181
Reactive Oxygen Species – Causative Agent of Aging	181
Methodology: Measurement of Free Radicals and Methods to Monitor Aging	183
Protein Oxidation/Protein Carbonyl Content	183
Common Laboratory Animal Experimental Models for Aging Research	184
Mouse	184
Fish	184
Other Models	185
Polyphenols as an Agent to Fight Aging	185
Flavonoids	185
Tea as a Source of Anti-Aging Compounds	185
Types of Teas	186
Tea Catechins	187
Health Benefits of Tea	187
Molecular Mechanisms of Green Tea Effects	187
Green Tea in Aging and Neurodegenerative Diseases	188
Animal Biotechnology as a Tool to Understand and Fight Aging	188
Ethical Issues	188
Translational Significance	189
World Wide Web Resources	189
References	189
Further Reading	190
Glossary	190
Abbreviations	190
Long Answer Questions	190
Short Answer Questions	191
Answers to Short Answer Questions	191

Section II

Animal Biotechnology: Tools and Techniques

11. MultiCellular Spheroid: 3-D Tissue Culture Model for Cancer Research

Suchit Khanna, Anant Narayan Bhatt and Bilikere S. Dwarakanath

Summary	195
What You Can Expect to Know	195
History and Methods	196
Introduction	196
MultiCellular Tumor Spheroids	196
Historical Facts Towards the Development of Tissue Culture Technology from 2-D and 3-D Cultures	199
An Example where 3-D Culture is More Beneficial over 2-D Culture	200

Techniques for the Generation of Spheroids	200
Hanging-Drop Method	200
Liquid Overlay Method	201
Microfabricated Microstructures Method	202
Rotatory Flask Methods	202
Surface Modification-Based Methods	202
Chip-Based Spheroid Generation	202
Protocol for Tumor Spheroid Generation	203
Drug Treatment Protocol	203
Parameters to Monitor Drug Efficacy in 3-D Cultures	203
Radiation Response of Tumor Cells and its Modifications	203
Response to Anticancer Drugs	204
Response to Photodynamic Therapy	205
Response to Anti-Angiogenesis Therapeutics	205
Evaluation of Response to Immunotherapy	206
Application of 3-D Cultures in Other Diseases	207
Conclusions	207
Ethical Issues	207
Translational Significance	207
World Wide Web Resources	208
References	208
Further Reading	209
Glossary	210
Abbreviations	210
Long Answer Questions	210
Short Answer Questions	210
Answers to Short Answer Questions	210

12. Animal Tissue Culture: Principles and Applications

Anju Verma

Summary	212
What You Can Expect to Know	212
History and Methods	212
Introduction	212
Development of Animal Cell Culture	213
Basic Concept of Cell Culture	214
How are Cell Cultures Obtained?	214
Cell Passage and Use of Trypsin	214
Quantitation	215
Reconstruction of Three-Dimensional Structures	215
Types of Cell Culture	215
Primary Cell Culture	215
Secondary Cell Culture	216
Cell Line	216
Finite Cell Lines	216
Indefinite Cell Lines	216
Commonly Used Cell Lines	216
Advantages of Continuous Cell Lines	216
Growth Cycle	217
Phases of the Growth Cycle	217

Monitoring Cell Growth	217	History	234
Characteristics of Cell Cultures	218	Basic Approach to Tissue Engineering:	
Cell Viability	218	Principles and Methodology	234
Cytotoxicity	218	Cells	234
Hayflick's Phenomenon	219	Scaffolds	235
Culture Media	219	Media	235
Basic Components in Culture Media	220	Bioreactors	235
Serum	220	Methodology	235
Serum-Free Media	221	Scaffold Design	235
Chemically Defined Media	221	Materials for Scaffolds	237
Protein-Free Media	221	Scaffold Fabrication Methods	237
Characterization of Cell Lines	221	Fiber Bonding	237
Identity Testing	221	Solvent Casting and Particulate Leaching	238
Purity Testing	222	Melt Molding	238
Stability Testing	222	Membrane Lamination	239
Viral Testing Assays	222	Phase Separation	239
Advantages of Animal Cell Culture	222	Gas Foaming	239
Disadvantages of Animal Cell Culture	222	Polymer Ceramic Composite Foam	239
Ethical Issues	223	Solid Free form Techniques	239
Use of Fetal Bovine Serum in Animal		Pressure-Assisted Micro Syringe Method	239
Culture Media	223	Freeze Drying	240
Translational Significance	223	Examples of Tissue-Engineered Organs	240
Anti-Viral Vaccines	223	Skin	240
Viral Particles Production by Cell Culture	223	Pancreas	240
Production of Virus-Like Particles (VLPs)	224	Liver	240
Recombinant Therapeutic Proteins	225	Kidney	240
Main Therapeutic Proteins	225	Bone/Cartilage	240
Gene Therapy	227	Nerves	241
Importance of Cell Culture in Gene Therapy	227	Blood Vessels	241
Clinical Studies	227	Tissue Engineering Using Stem Cells	241
Biopesticides	227	Issues and Challenges	241
Baculovirus Production in Animal Cell Culture	227	Ethical Issues	242
Cell Lines for Biopesticide Production	228	Translational Significance	242
Viral Mutant Formation in Cell Culture	228	World Wide Web Resources	242
Monoclonal Antibodies	228	References	242
Stem Cells	228	Further Reading	244
Culturing Embryonic Stem Cells in the		Glossary	244
Laboratory	228	Abbreviations	244
World Wide Web Resources	229	Long Answer Questions	244
References	229	Short Answer Questions	244
Further Reading	230	Answers to Short Answer Questions	244
Glossary	230		
Abbreviations	230		
Long Answer Questions	231		
Short Answer Questions	231		
Answers to Short Answer Questions	231		
13. Concepts of Tissue Engineering		14. Nanotechnology and Its Applications to Animal Biotechnology	
<i>Poonam Verma and Vipin Verma</i>		<i>Ashok K. Adya and Elisabetta Canetta</i>	
Summary	233	Summary	247
What You Can Expect to Know	233	What You Can Expect to Know	247
History and Methods	234	History and Methods	248
Introduction	234	Introduction	248
		Methodologies	249
		Nanotools and Nanotechniques	249
		Chemical Modification of AFM Probes	255

Nano-Structural Features of Animal Cells and Tissues	255	Polyclonal Antibody <i>versus</i> Monoclonal Antibody	269
Nanomechanical Properties of Animal Cells and Tissues	255	Polyclonal Antibodies (PoAb)	269
Nanomanipulation	256	Monoclonal Antibodies (MoAb)	270
Nanofabrication	256	Naming Monoclonal Antibodies	271
Examples of Nanotechnology Applications to Animal Biotechnology	256	Prefix	271
AFM as a Diagnostic Tool to Identify Orthopoxvirus in Animals	256	Infix-1	272
Frictional Response of Bovine Articular Cartilage	256	Infix-2	272
Microstructure and Nanomechanical Properties of Cortical Bone Osteons from Baboons	256	Additional Words	272
Use of Calf Thymus DNA for Cancer Experiments	257	Antibodies as Therapeutics:	
Characterization of Mitochondria Isolated from Normal and Ischemic Hearts in Rats	257	Adverse Effects	272
Polymorphism and Ultrastructural Organization of Prion Protein	257	Serum Sickness	272
Ultrastructural Investigation of Animal Spermatozoa Using AFM	257	Human Anti-Monoclonal Antibody (HAMA) Response	273
Multifactor Analysis of Living Animal Cells for Biotechnology and Medicine	258	Human Anti-Chimeric Antibody (HACA) Response	273
Ethical Issues	258	Human Anti-Humanized Antibody (HAHA) Response	274
Translational Significance	258	Applications of Antibodies	274
World Wide Web Resources	259	Therapeutic Applications	274
References	259	Analytical Applications	275
Further Reading	260	Preparative Applications	276
Glossary	261	Methodology, Principles, and Protocols	276
Abbreviations	261	Polyclonal Antibodies	276
Long Answer Questions	261	Monoclonal Antibodies	278
Short Answer Questions	261	Antibody Titration	281
Answers to Short Answer Questions	262	Biochemical Pathway: Hybridoma Selection	282
15. Antibodies: Monoclonal and Polyclonal		Ethical Issues	283
<i>Anchal Singh, Sushmita Chaudhary, Ashima Agarwal and Ashish Swarup Verma</i>		Translational Significance	284
Summary	265	World Wide Web Resources	284
What You Can Expect to Know	265	References	285
History and Methods	266	Further Reading	285
Introduction	266	Glossary	286
Tiselius and Kabat's Experiment	266	Abbreviations	286
History	266	Long Answer Questions	286
Elucidation of Immunoglobulin Structure	267	Short Answer Questions	286
Edelman's Experiment	268	Answers to Short Answer Questions	286
Porter's Experiment	268		
Nisonoff's Experiment	268	16. Molecular Markers: Tool for Genetic Analysis	
Conclusion from Papain and Pepsin Digestion	268	<i>Avinash Marwal, Anurag Kumar Sahu and R.K. Gaur</i>	
Immunoglobulin G: A Prototype for Immunoglobulin	268	Summary	289
		What You Can Expect to Know	289
		History and Methods	290
		Introduction	290
		Methodology	291
		Restriction Fragment Length Polymorphism (RFLP)	291
		Allele-Specific Oligonucleotide (ASO)	292
		Allele-Specific PCR (AS-PCR)	293
		Single-Strand Conformation Polymorphism (SSCP)	293

Sequence Tagged Site (STS)	293	Glossary	324
Random Amplified Polymorphic DNA (RAPD)	293	Abbreviations	324
Restriction Landmark Genome Scanning (RLGS)	294	Long Answer Questions	324
Single Nucleotide Polymorphisms (SNP)	294	Short Answer Questions	324
Amplified Fragment Length Polymorphism (AFLP)	295	Answers to Short Answer Questions	325
Methylation Sensitive Amplification Polymorphism (MSAP)	296	18. Ribotyping: A Tool for Molecular Taxonomy	
Miniature Inverted-Repeat Transposable Element (MITE)	296	<i>S.K. Kashyap, S. Maherchandani and Naveen Kumar</i>	
Microsatellites	296	Summary	327
Ethical Issues	299	What You Can Expect to Know	327
Translational Significance	301	History and Methods	328
World Wide Web Resources	301	Introduction	328
References	302	Historical Developments in Bacterial Taxonomy	328
Further Reading	303	Typing Methods Used for Bacterial Systematics	329
Glossary	303	Phenotypic Typing Methods	330
Abbreviations	304	Genotypic Typing Methods	331
Long Answer Questions	304	Basis of Using rRNA and rRNA Genes as Taxonomic Tools	331
Short Answer Questions	304	Organization of the Ribosomal Operon	331
Answers to Short Answer Questions	304	Different Techniques of Ribotyping	332
17. Gene Expression: Analysis and Quantitation		Conventional Ribotyping	333
<i>Denys V. Volgin</i>		Selection of Restriction Endonuclease for Ribotyping by Sequence Analysis (<i>In Silico</i>)	333
Summary	307	Automated Ribotyping	335
What You Can Expect to Know	307	PCR Ribotyping	335
History and Methods	308	<i>In Situ</i> Hybridization Targeted to Detect rRNA	338
Introduction	308	Limitations of Ribotyping	341
Principles	308	Future Perspectives	341
Methodology	310	Ethical Issues	342
Quantitation of mRNA Levels Using RT-PCR	310	Translational Significance	342
Quantitation of Protein Levels	312	World Wide Web Resources	342
Protocols	316	References	342
Protocol 1. Parallel Quantitation of mRNA and Protein from Defined Rodent Brain Region	316	Further Reading	343
Protocol 2. Single-Cell RT-PCR	318	Glossary	343
Protocol 3. Semi-Quantitative Immunohistochemistry	319	Abbreviations	343
Examples	320	Long Answer Questions	344
Prolonged Upregulation of Gene Expression for the Hypothalamic GABA _A Receptors in a Rodent Model of Prenatal Exposure to Alcohol	320	Short Answer Questions	344
Hypothalamic Orexin System and mRNA Expression Profiling at the Single-Cell Level	321	Answers to Short Answer Questions	344
Ethical Issues	321	19. Next Generation Sequencing and Its Applications	
Translational Significance	322	<i>Anuj Kumar Gupta and U.D. Gupta</i>	
World Wide Web Resources	322	Summary	345
References	323	What You Can Expect to Know	346
Further Reading	323	History and Methods	346
		Introduction	346
		History of DNA Sequencing	346
		Generation of Sequencing Technologies	346
		Principle of Sanger Sequencing vs. Next Generation Sequencing	347

Next Generation/Second Generation Technologies	348	Short Answer Questions	366
Pyrosequencing Technology	348	Answers to Short Answer Questions	366
Reversible Terminator Technology	349		
Sequencing by Ligation Technology	349		
Third Generation Sequencing Technologies	350	20. Biomolecular Display Technology: A New Tool for Drug Discovery	
Single Molecule Real-Time Sequencing	350	<i>Madhu Biyani, Koichi Nishigaki, and Manish Biyani</i>	
True Single Molecule Sequencing (tSMS)	350	Summary	369
Ion Semiconductor Sequencing	351	What You Can Expect to Know	369
Other/4th Generation Sequencing Technologies	351	History and Methods	370
Nanopore Sequencing	351	Introduction	370
Polony-Based Sequencing Technology	352	Principle	370
DNA Nanoball Sequencing	352	Necessity: Small Molecule vs. Biomolecular (Biologics) Drugs	371
Downstream Bioinformatics	353	Methodology: Biomolecular Display Technologies	373
<i>De Novo</i> Assembly	353	Phage Display	374
Mapping	353	Ribosome Display	376
General Principles of NGS Methods in Various Applications	354	mRNA Display	377
Whole Genome <i>De Novo</i> Sequencing	354	Other Display Systems	377
Whole Genome Re-Sequencing	355	A General Method for Discovery of Functional Peptide Aptamers	378
Targeted Re-Sequencing	356	Conclusion and Future Perspectives	380
Transcriptome Sequencing	356	Ethical Issues	380
Amplicon Sequencing	357	Translational Significance	380
ChIP DNA Sequencing	357	References	381
Small RNA Sequencing	357	Further Reading	382
Animal Biotechnology and the Cattle Genome	357	Glossary	383
Applications of NGS in Animal Biotechnology	358	Abbreviations	383
Evolutionary Research	358	Long Answer Questions	383
Epigenetics	359	Short Answers Questions	383
Metagenome Sequencing	359	Answers to Short Answers Questions	384
Ancient DNA	359		
Genomic Variability and SNP/CNV Discovery	360	21. <i>In Silico</i> Models: From Simple Networks to Complex Diseases	
Beef Cattle Selection	360	<i>Debmalya Barh, Vijender Chaitankar, Eugenia Ch Yiannakopoulou, Emmanuel O Salawu, Sudhir Chowbina, Preetam Ghosh and Vasco Azevedo</i>	
Animal Breeding and Improvement of Livestock Productivity and Health	361	Summary	385
Food, Safety, and Nutrition	361	What You Can Expect to Know	385
Transgenics	361	History and Methods	386
Applications of NGS in Human Health	361	Bioinformatics in Animal Biotechnology	386
Cancer Research	361	Bioinformatics and Systems Biology	387
Genetic Disorders	362	Common Computational Methods in Systems Biology	387
Human Microbiome	362	Experimental Methods in Systems Biology	388
Pre- and Post-Natal Diagnosis	362	Protein–Protein Interactions (PPIs)	388
Infectious Diseases	362	Transcriptional Control Networks	388
Personalized Medicine	362	Signal Transduction Networks	388
Future Perspectives	363	Mathematical Modeling Techniques	389
Challenges	363	The Concept of Modeling	390
Ethical Issues	363		
Translational Significance	364		
World Wide Web Resources	364		
References	364		
Further Reading	365		
Glossary	365		
Abbreviations	366		
Long Answer Questions	366		

<i>In Silico</i> Models of Cells	391	Transgenic Animals as Xenotransplanters	415
Advantages and Disadvantages of <i>In Silico</i>		Transgenic Animals as Food Sources	415
Modeling	392	Superpig	415
Applications of <i>In Silico</i> Disease Modeling		Superfish	416
in Practice	392	Transgenic Animals for Drug and Industrial	
<i>In Silico</i> Models of Cancer	392	Production	416
<i>In Silico</i> Models and Inflammatory Response		Transgenic Animals' Impact on the	
Syndrome in Trauma and Infection	394	Environment	417
Infectious Diseases	394	Patenting Transgenic Animals	418
Neuronal Diseases	397	Ethical Issues	419
Conclusion	400	FDA Guidelines on Genetically Engineered	
Ethical Issues	400	Animals	420
Translational Significance	400	Translational Significance	420
World Wide Web Resources	401	World Wide Web Resources	420
References	401	References	421
Further Reading	403	Further Reading	422
Glossary	403	Glossary	422
Abbreviations	403	Abbreviations	423
Long Answer Questions	403	Long Answer Questions	423
Short Answer Questions	403	Short Answer Questions	423
Answers to Short Answer Questions	403	Answers to Short Answer Questions	423

Section III

Animal Biotechnology: Applications and Concerns

22. Transgenic Animals and their Applications

*Shet Masih, Pooja Jain, Rasha El Baz
and Zafar K. Khan*

Summary	407
What You Can Expect to Know	407
Introduction	408
Creating Transgenic Animals	409
Construction of a Transgene	409
Microinjection	409
Embryonic Stem Cell Transfer	409
Retrovirus-Mediated Gene Transfer	411
Gene Knockdown and RNA Interference	412
Screening for Transgenic Positives	412
Transgenic Animals as Disease Models	413
OncoMouse	413
AIDS Mouse	413
Alzheimer's Mouse	413
Parkinson's Fly	414
Transgenic Animals as Biological Models	414
ANDi (Monkey)	414
Doogie (Smart Mouse)	414
Supermouse	414
Youth Mouse	414
Influenza-Resistant Mouse	415

23. Stem Cells: A Trek from Laboratory to Clinic to Industry

Bhudev C. Das and Abhishek Tyagi

Summary	426
What You Can Expect to Know	426
History and Methods	426
History of Stem Cell Research	426
What are Stem Cells and Why are they Important?	427
What Makes Stem Cells Special?	428
Differentiation Potential/Potency of Stem Cells	428
Totipotent Stem Cells	428
Pluripotent Stem Cells	429
Multipotent Stem Cells	429
Unipotent Stem Cells	429
Are Stem Cells Immortal?	429
Characteristics of Stem Cells	429
Stem Cell Plasticity	429
Mechanisms of Stem Cell Plasticity	429
Stem Cell Fate	430
Stem Cell Quiescence	430
Where to Find Stem Cells?	430
Embryos	430
Fetal Tissue	430
Amniotic Fluid-Derived Stem Cells (AFSCs)	431
Where do Stem Cells Come From?	431
Embryonic Stem Cells (ESCs)	431
Embryonic Germ Cells (EGCs)	432
Adult Stem Cells (ASCs)	432

How are Stem Cells Identified, Isolated, and Characterized?	432	Short Answer Questions	449
Embryonic Stem Cell Identification	433	Answers to Short Answer Questions	449
Adult Stem Cell Identification	433		
Methods to Identify Stem Cells	433		
The Stem Cell Niche	436	24. Role of Cytogenetics and Molecular Genetics in Human Health and Medicine	
What Keeps Stem Cells in their Niche?	436	<i>Madhumita Roy Chowdhury and Sudhisha Dubey</i>	
How Do Stem Cells Get Activated in their Niche?	437	Summary	451
Growing Stem Cells in the Laboratory	437	What You Can Expect to Know	451
iPSCs: A Stem Cell Research Breakthrough	437	History and Methods	452
Cancer Stem Cells (CSCs)	438	Introduction	452
Protocols for Hoechst 33342 or DCV Staining and Stem Cell Purification	440	Cytogenetics: An Overview	452
Hoechst or DCV Staining	440	Chromosome Morphology and Classification	453
Flow Cytometry Set-Up	440	Nomenclature	454
Tips for Optimal Resolution of SP Cells	440	Chromosomal Disorders	455
Ethical Issues	440	Structural Abnormalities	456
Stem Cell Research at the Crossroads of Religion and Social Issues	440	Chromosome Breakage and Fragile Sites	458
Greek Orthodox and Roman Catholic Churches	441	Methodology: Application of Different Cytogenetic Techniques in Diagnosis of Genetic Disorders	459
Protestant Churches	441	Identification of Chromosomes and Karyotyping	459
Judaism	441	Fluorescence <i>In Situ</i> Hybridization (FISH)	460
Islamic Countries	441	Spectral Karyotyping (SKY) and Multicolor FISH (M-FISH)	460
Hinduism and Buddhism	441	Comparative Genomic Hybridization (CGH) and array-CGH (aCGH)	461
Translational Significance	442	Principle	462
Therapeutic Potential of Stem Cells: A New Age in Health Care	442	Molecular Genetics: An Overview	462
Stem Cell Therapy: A Ray of Hope	442	Hereditary Material	462
Principles of Stem Cell Therapy	442	Single-Gene Disorders	465
How are Stem Cells Used in Cell-Based Regenerative Therapies?	443	Multigenic and Multifactorial Disorders	466
Can Stem Cells be used to Find New Medicines?	443	Mitochondrial Disorder	466
Potential Uses of Stem Cells	443	Acquired Somatic Genetic Disorders	466
Damaged Tissue Replacement	444	Methodology: Application of Different Molecular Techniques for Diagnosis of Genetic Disorders	466
Human Development Studies	444	Southern Blotting	467
New Drug Testing	444	Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR)	468
Screening Toxins	444	DNA Sequencing	468
Testing Gene Therapy Methods	444	Principle	469
Stem Cell Banking	445	Case Study	469
What is Stem Cell Banking?	445	Ethical Issues	470
Why Bank Stem Cells?	445	Translational Significance	471
Present Scope and Future Possibilities of Stem Cell Banking	445	World Wide Web Resources	471
Stem Cell Banks in India	445	References	471
World Wide Web Resources	445	Further Reading	472
References	447	Glossary	472
Further Reading	447	Abbreviations	472
Glossary	447	Long Answer Questions	472
Abbreviations	448	Short Answer Questions	472
Long Answer Questions	449	Answers to Short Answer Questions	472

25. Antibodies and their Applications

Fahim Halim Khan

Summary	473
What You Can Expect to Know	473
History and Methods	474
Immunodiagnosics: Role of Antibodies	474
Introduction	474
History	474
Antigens and Antibodies	474
Polyclonal and Monoclonal Antibodies	475
Hybridoma Technology and Methodology	476
Application of Monoclonal Antibodies	478
Antibody Constructs	485
Diabody	485
Human Antibodies from Transgenic Mouse	485
Bispecific Antibodies	486
Ethical Issues	487
Translational Significance	487
World Wide Web Resources	488
Pros	489
Cons	489
Websites	489
References	489
Further Reading	489
Glossary	489
Abbreviations	490
Long Answer Questions	490
Short Answer Questions	490
Answers to Short Answer Questions	490

26. Vaccines: Present Status and Applications

Dinesh K. Yadav, Neelam Yadav and Satyendra Mohan Paul Khurana

Summary	491
What You Can Expect to Know	491
History and Methods	491
Introduction	491
Types of Vaccines	493
Traditional Vaccines	493
Toxoid Vaccines	496
Subunit Vaccines	497
Conjugate Vaccines	498
DNA Vaccines	498
Recombinant Vector Vaccines	500
Molecular Farming using Plants as Bio-Reactors	501
Role of Adjuvants	502
Immune-Stimulating Complexes (ISCOMs)	503
Protocol for the Development of Vaccines	503
Future Challenges in Vaccine Development	504
Foremost Infectious Disease Problems	504
Infectious Disease Threats	504

Ethical Issues	505
Mandates	505
Vaccine Research and Testing	505
Informed Consent	505
Access Issues	506
Translational Significance	506
World Wide Web Resources	506
References	506
Further Reading	507
Glossary	507
Abbreviations	507
Long Answer Questions	507
Short Answer Questions	508
Answers to Short Answer Questions	508

27. Safety Assessment of Food Derived from Genetically Modified Crops

Premendra D. Dwivedi, Mukul Das, Sandeep Kumar and Alok Kumar Verma

Summary	509
What You Can Expect to Know	509
History and Methods	510
Introduction	510
Rationale for the Allergenicity Assessment of GM Foods	511
Mechanism of Food Protein-Induced Allergenicity	511
Simulated Gastric Fluid (SGF) Assay	512
How the SGF Assay Works	512
Components of SGF	514
General Protocol of the SGF Assay	515
Factors Relevant to Gastrointestinal Digestion of Allergens	515
Supportive and Negative Evidence of SGF	516
Simulated Intestinal Fluid (SIF) Assay	516
General Protocol of SIF Assay	516
Effect of Assay Conditions on Protein Stability in the SIF Assay	517
Supportive and Negative Evidences of the SIF Assay	517
Contradictory Results of the SIF Digestibility of Food Proteins	517
Thermal Treatment Assay	518
Mechanism of Thermal Treatment Assay	518
Standard Protocol for Thermal Treatment Assay	519
Functional Stability of Proteins and Importance of Thermal Stability Assay	520
Contradictory Results in Thermal Treatment Procedure	521
Ethical Issues	521
Translational Significance	522
World Wide Web Resources	522

References	522	Translational Significance	537
Further Reading	523	Future Approaches	537
Glossary	523	World Wide Web Resources	537
Abbreviations	523	References	538
Long Answer Questions	524	Further Reading	539
Short Answer Questions	524	Glossary	539
Answers to Short Answer Questions	524	Abbreviations	539
		Long Answer Questions	539
		Short Answer Questions	539
		Answers to Short Answer Questions	539
28. Nanotechnology and Detection of Microbial Pathogens		29. Biotechnological Exploitation of Marine Animals	
<i>Rishi Shanker, Gulshan Singh, Anurag Jyoti, Premendra Dhar Dwivedi and Surinder Pal Singh</i>		<i>Surajit Das</i>	
Summary	525	Summary	541
What You Can Expect to Know	525	What You Can Expect to Know	541
History and Methods	526	History and Methods	542
Introduction	526	Introduction	542
Indicators of Microbial Water Quality	526	Marine Bioresources and Biotechnology	542
Need for Detection of Water- and Food-Borne Pathogens	527	Historical Background	542
Conventional Methods to Detect Fecal Indicator Organisms and Other Pathogenic Bacteria	528	Biotechnologically Important Marine Animals	542
Most Probable Number Method	529	Genetic Engineering and its Application in Aquaculture	545
Membrane Filtration Method	529	Transgenic Fish	545
Defined Substrate Methods	529	Methods of Gene Transfer	545
Rapid Detection Using Chromogenic Substrates	529	Chromosome Manipulation	545
Immunological Methods	529	Sex Reversal	548
Molecular Methods Based on Genetic Signature of Target Pathogen	530	Cryopreservation of Gametes	549
Polymerase Chain Reaction Technique and Quantitative PCR	530	Marine Ornamental Fish Trade and Chromosomal Manipulation	549
Nanotechnology and its Promise	531	Advances in Mariculture	550
Metallic Nanoparticles	532	Captive Rearing Technology	550
History	532	Feed Technology: Microencapsulated, Micro-Coated, and Bio-Encapsulated Feeds	550
Detection Principle	533	Application of Nanotechnology in Aquaculture	550
Methodology	533	Marine Genomics	551
Synthesis of Gold Nanoparticles	533	Disease Diagnosis of Cultivable Animals	552
Computation of ssDNA Sequences for Functionalization of Gold Nanoparticles	534	Immunodiagnosics	552
Functionalization of Gold Nanoparticles with Thiol-Modified DNA	534	DNA-Based Diagnosis	554
Examples	534	Therapeutics from Marine Animals	554
Colorimetric Detection of DNA of Shiga Toxin Producing <i>Escherichia Coli</i> (Using Bio-Conjugated Gold Nanoparticles)	535	Marine Natural Products of Animal Origin	554
Colorimetric Detection of Enterotoxigenic <i>Escherichia coli</i> (ETEC) Gene Using Gold Nanoparticle Probes	535	Commercial Bio-Products from Marine Organisms	556
Clinical Significance of Nanoparticle-Based Detection	536	Green Fluorescent Protein from Jelly Fish and its Application	557
Ethical Issues	536	Ethical Issues	559
		Translational Significance	559
		Future Directions	559
		World Wide Web Resources	560
		References	560
		Further Reading	561
		Glossary	561

Abbreviations	562	Examples with Applications	588
Long Answer Questions	562	Ethical Issues	589
Short Answer Questions	562	Translational Significance	590
Answers to Short Answer Questions	562	World Wide Web Resources	591
30. Herbal Medicine and Biotechnology for the Benefit of Human Health		References	591
<i>Priyanka Srivastava, Mithilesh Singh, Gautami Devi and Rakhi Chaturvedi</i>		Further Reading	592
Summary	563	Abbreviations	592
What You Can Expect to Know	563	Glossary	592
History and Methods	563	Long Answer Questions	593
Introduction	563	Short Answer Questions	593
Traditional Medicine	564	Answers to Short Answer Questions	593
Ancient System of Medicine	565	32. Ethical Issues in Animal Biotechnology	
Methodology	565	<i>Abhik Gupta</i>	
Investigation of Medicinal Plants	565	Summary	597
Biotechnological Approaches for Herbal		What You Can Expect to Know	597
Drug Production	569	History and Methods	598
Organ Cultures	569	Introduction	598
Callus Cultures	570	A Brief Overview of Ethical Thoughts and	
Suspension Cultures	570	Principles	599
Case Study: <i>Lantana camara</i> L.	570	Virtue Ethics	599
Opportunities and Challenges	571	Deontological (Duty-Based) Ethics	600
Conclusions and Outlook	573	Consequentialist Ethics	600
Ethical Issues	573	Principles	600
Translational Significance	573	Methodology	601
World Wide Web Resources	574	Application of Ethics in Animal Biotechnology	601
References	574	Ethical Concerns in Animal Biotechnology	602
Further Reading	574	Intrinsic Concerns	602
Glossary	574	Extrinsic Concerns	604
Abbreviations	575	Some Challenging Ethical Issues in Animal	
Long Answer Questions	575	Biotechnology	607
Short Answer Questions	575	Chimeras	607
Answers to Short Answer Questions	575	Animal Biopharming	608
31. Perspectives on the Human Genome		Constitution of Ethics Committees	610
<i>Aruna Kumar and Kailash C. Upadhyaya</i>		Translational Significance	610
Summary	577	Human Therapeutic Cloning and Other	
What You Can Expect to Know	577	Techniques in Animal Biotechnology	610
History and Methods	577	Conclusions	611
Introduction	577	World Wide Web Resources	611
Human Genome Sequencing Project	578	References	612
History	578	Further Reading	612
Human Genome: Organization and		Glossary	612
Perspective	579	Abbreviations	613
Complexity of Human Genome	579	Long Answer Questions	613
Gene Content	579	Short Answer Questions	613
Principle	586	Answers to Short Answer Questions	613
Methodology	587	Index	615

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Animal biotechnology is one of the eight disciplines – along with environmental, food, plant, aquaculture, industrial, molecular, and medical studies – of biotechnology. This volume, drawn together by Professor Ashish Verma and Dr. Anchal Singh, is a comprehensive overview of animal biotechnology from a diverse set of perspectives. The volume is comprised of 32 chapters divided into three main sections: (1) *in vivo* and *in vitro* models of human disease, (2) tools and techniques, and (3) applications and concerns.

The term animal biotechnology is broadly applied when the production or the processing of products derived from animals or aquatic species is subjected to a particular set of scientific and engineering principles in order to enhance accessibility and services. Some classic examples are the development of transgenic animals or aquatic species, the use of cloning techniques to generate nearly identical animals, and various gene knockout strategies. Transgenic animals, including cattle, pigs, and poultry, have been developed to enhance the production of human pharmaceuticals and proteins such as enzymes, antibodies, clotting factors, and albumin. Somatic cell nuclear transfer has been used to clone several important mammalian species, including sheep, pigs, goats, cattle, rats, and mice. Because success rates for implanted embryos are often quite low, this offers opportunities for research and development. It is critical that this stimulating and wide-ranging progress be assembled, assessed, and considered in a timely manner, for the development of future initiatives, and to provide appropriate and accessible background for agricultural and health regulators. This treatise does just that. From a societal perspective, there are two main questions: (1) How is animal biotechnology addressing the needs of human agriculture and health? (2) Are products from the technology safe for human consumption and not detrimental to the environment? This volume does not shy away from those tough discussions, and anchors the responses in science.

Section I of the volume offers 10 chapters on *in vivo* and *in vitro* model systems that have been developed for animal biotechnology research. It includes discussions on the applications of *Drosophila*, and the use of animal models for tuberculosis, human neurodegenerative diseases, and aging, as well as work on cancer, HIV and other anti-retrovirals, HPV diagnosis, and DNA tumor viruses.

Section II assembles 11 chapters on the basic tools and techniques that are being used in contemporary animal biotechnology. These include the use of multicellular spheroids in cancer research, animal tissue culture and tissue engineering, and the applications of nanotechnology, antibodies, and molecular markers. The techniques and uses of gene expression and ribotyping are discussed, and the future of sequencing strategies presented. Finally, the importance of biomolecular displays and *in silico* modeling of networks and complex diseases in contemporary research are delineated.

Section III, which also consists of 11 chapters, focuses on applications and societal concerns. It provides summaries of the development and applications of transgenic animals, the saga of stem cells in medical research and therapy, the role of cytogenetics in medicine, and the applications of antibodies and vaccines. The importance of safety assessment of crop-derived foods is presented, together with the use of nanotechnology for the detection of pathogens, the development of marine animal biotechnology, and discussions on how the phytochemistry and pharmacology of herbal medicine biotechnology are linked to animal health. Finally, there are two chapters that provide an overview of the human genome and its relationship to animal biotechnology, and a consideration of the ethical issues that are fundamental to many aspects for the future evolution of animal biotechnology.

This volume makes clear both the vibrant diversity of the field of animal biotechnology, and the ethical and societal concerns that must be addressed. It is therefore an important volume for a wide audience, including researchers, veterinarians, physicians, agricultural and developmental economists, and policy regulators. The next few years are likely to see major breakthroughs in this field, which will be necessary to meet the nutritional and health care needs of a burgeoning global society.

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Lately, “biotechnology” has become a buzz-word in both the academic arena and in day-to-day life. It is still debatable as to when and where the term originated. Who is its originator? Was biotechnology always known to the world in its present form? The answers to these questions are not known. The scientific literature tells us that Karl Erkey, a Hungarian Engineer, coined the term biotechnology in 1919. The next question is, did nature sire biotechnology or is it human beings that have created it in its present form? Again, it is difficult to come to any conclusion about the current state of knowledge. Let us go back and review the evolution of life from the most primitive form of organisms (i.e. viruses) to the most evolved form of life (i.e. human beings).

Certainly, one of the most important and advanced aspects of biotechnology and biotechnological tools is the manipulation of the genome of an organism. These manipulations can have either good or bad implications, but the answer lies in the final outcome. The most primitive form of life (i.e. viruses: bacteriophages) infects bacteria and replicates in bacterial hosts due to the integration of the viral genome into the bacterial genome. Is it Nature’s biotechnological experiment to integrate genomes of two entirely different organisms? It is probably a natural need of life to compete and evolve with selection of better traits to survive against adversaries. It can be easily concluded that the present state of biotechnology has evolved due to the in-depth understanding of some of these natural processes and biological phenomenon.

There is no doubt that the life sciences have seen tremendous improvements by virtue of keen observations and discoveries made by numerous great scientists. Antibiotics and vaccinations are two of the most pronounced examples. During previous years, knowledge gained through various branches of science, namely biochemistry, molecular biology, virology, and recombinant DNA technology, etc., has tempted scientists to imitate Nature’s experiments in laboratories. For successful and useful manipulations, there are three essential requirements: (1) to understand the mechanism of the biological process, (2) to replicate the same process exactly in an experimental model, and (3) to have a logical hypothesis. If these manipulations are successful, we may be able to find solutions to many prevailing and unresolved problems, namely famine, malnutrition, infectious

diseases, new and emerging infections, genetic disorders, aging, debilitating diseases, etc. No doubt advancements in biotechnology, with reference to the animal sciences, have already provided solutions for some of these issues. Some issues are even partially resolved, while others are still in experimental stages.

The explosion in the knowledge of biotechnology is attributed to two important discoveries: (1) the structure of DNA, and (2) the Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR). Advancements and applications of biotechnology have become so fascinating that it is almost difficult to confine it to the domain of scientists and high-end laboratories. This information has to be passed to the general public in order to increase awareness and to reap the benefits of these discoveries. With the explosion of biotechnology, numerous large and small companies dealing with the production and commercialization of biotechnology products have come into existence. To survive and thrive in the biotech market, companies are in a perdurable search for trained manpower.

That’s how biotechnology as an educational course found its niche in the university curricula. The demand for trained biotechnologists led to the development of undergraduate and postgraduate courses in biotechnology at various universities and academic institutions. Realizing the needs of industry, some institutions developed management courses pertaining to biotechnology. In the last couple of decades it was realized that biotechnology education had to be imparted even to younger students, and that is the reason biotechnology was also included in the curricula of 10th and 12th Standard. Biotechnology itself is an amalgamation of various disciplines in the life sciences. Some of these disciplines are well evolved and have numerous good books to cater to the needs of audiences: biochemistry, molecular biology, genetics, microbiology, etc. However, animal biotechnology as a subject is still in its infancy, and has yet to develop and evolve as a full discipline in academic departments at universities. As such, it is difficult to find books in animal biotechnology that can fulfill the need of biotechnology students.

We teach animal biotechnology to undergraduate and postgraduate students. We have had a tough time teaching this course because of major limitations like an ever-evolving curricula and unavailability of reasonable textbooks on the subject. The only available resources are

research publications and books semi-related to research topics. On the one hand it's hard for students to find a place to start when learning the subject, and on the other hand instructors have a difficult time locating and organizing materials and resources for the classroom. The ultimate resource for instructors and students is the World Wide Web (WWW). In our teaching experience, we come across curious students who ask numerous intelligent questions almost every day. Their quest for information and knowledge remains insatiable due to the limitation of consolidated sources of information. Not only this, but we routinely face questions from students about where they can get more information on a specific subject or topic, and to their utter disappointment, it's hard for us to pinpoint one book or a good resource to answer all their questions. We frequently discuss the issue of the lack of applicable literature, almost every day over coffee with our colleagues. Discussing various options and trying to narrow down our search to fill this void of content in the area of animal biotechnology was not getting us anywhere.

After numerous deliberations, it was Dr. Anchal Singh who came up with the idea to explore the possibility of developing a book on animal biotechnology to partially (if not completely) fill this void. Then we deliberated on our *modus operandi* to develop this book. Finally, we decided to develop a book by inviting chapters from experts in the field who have relevant research experience and an understanding of the intricacies of the subject. We had in mind a book that would help to alleviate most of the worries of both students and instructors. We discussed, argued, and disagreed until we came up with the thought that a resource book would be a reasonable format, as it could provide sufficient

information and literature for instructors to teach the subject, while providing students with ample information to gain better insight about the subject. Once we formulated these thoughts to develop a resource book, the ball started rolling, and we identified various experts and convinced them to contribute chapters.

Bringing this book to completion was a joint effort. We could not possibly assemble all subjects together in one book, therefore we tried to bring together some of the important topics that usually interest students and instructors of animal biotechnology. The subject matter of this book varies from the basics of animal biotechnology, to animal tissue culturing, to the production of antibodies against infectious agents like HIV. Included are chapters dealing with animal models of important diseases like cancer and tuberculosis, and also *in silico* models, to emphasize their importance in understanding disease pathogenesis. An attempt was made to include the latest tools and technology related to the subject, namely, ribotyping, epigenetics, cytogenetics, bimolecular display technologies, next generation sequencing, and many more such topics not listed here.

This is our maiden effort to produce a book to help students and instructors of animal biotechnology. We hope that we will get support from the readers of this book. We are always open to criticism, suggestions, and recommendations that can help to improve the content and presentation of the book. Your suggestions and criticisms will give us an opportunity to explore other aspects of animal biotechnology in our future ventures and endeavors.

Ashish S. Verma
Anchal Singh

Acknowledgments

We are grateful to The GOD, because of whom we exist. God has gifted us (Human Beings) with a brain to hypothesize and analyze, courage to dream, and motivation to achieve.

Then we would like to thank Prof. Geoffrey A. Cordell, who agreed to write a Foreword for our book. This turned out to be a power boost for the editors.

Anchal would like to thank her dad, Mr. Kanhaiya Ji Singh, her mom, Ms. Mohini Singh, her brother, Abhisar, and his wife, Meenakshi, for their support, love, and help. Anchal's eight-year-old son, Aviral, was a stress buster whose unstoppable questions and witty answers alleviated the stress and pressure of editing this book.

I (Ashish) would like to express my indebtedness to my mother, Ms. Sushma Saxena. I do exist due to her great efforts to raise and groom me. She has always been the person in my life whom I can bank upon for anything, anytime. My brother, Mr. Saumya Swarup, his wife, Ms. Nimisha Swarup, and their kids, Utkarsh and Shreeparna, have also supported me as and when, I needed them. Similarly, my sisters and their family members always encouraged me to remain focused on this book. It is not only family members who inspired me during the development of this book, but also Anchal's son, Aviral with his inquisitiveness and unending innocent queries, which kept me refreshed. We must admit that it is young kids who are our prime stress relievers.

We are thankful to Dr. A. K. Chauhan, Founder President for his support and encouragement. Our special thanks go to Prof. Ajit Varma, who was always with us when we needed him, with his excellent and practical advices. We would not do justice to this project if we do not acknowledge the role of Prof. Soom Nath Raina, one of our colleagues. For us, Prof. Raina is more than a colleague. His affection, care, and concern made him a part of our extended family. We will always remain thankful for his untiring support, which kept us motivated in this long and sometimes clumsy journey of book editing.

Our students – Priyadarshini Mallick, Shruti Rastogi, Shishir Agrahari, Sneha Saran, Deepak Kushwaha, and Ajay Yadav – contributed both directly and indirectly towards the development of this book. We remain thankful for their support. Some of them provided help and support to organize us better, some of them offered their viewpoints, and some of them did not forget to offer us their critiques. We admire all of them for what they have contributed to this book. We have discovered that the biggest motivations for teachers are always their students and students' needs.

We are deeply indebted to Mr. Dinesh Kumar, who has worked with us since we joined this organization and has always provided crucial secretarial assistance. To Mr. Yogendra Singh, who has worked for a long time as a member of our group, and is always there with freshly brewed coffee to fulfill our caffeine requirements. Mr. Sandeep Kumar, who, though recently joined our group, also contributed with his efforts to this project.

Our special thanks go to Ms. Chirstine A. Minihane, who helped us initiate and develop this book. Last but not least, this book could never have been completed without constant support from dedicated persons at Elsevier: Mr. Unni Kannan (Technical Assessor), Ms. Catherine A. Mullane (Editorial Project Manager), Graham Nisbet (Acquisitions Editor), and Edward Taylor (Production Manager). They all provided the support and motivation to push us through to the completion of this project.

As editors, we would like to express our gratitude and thanks to all the contributing authors who shared their expertise and experience by writing chapters in their respective fields. Finally, as the editors, we would like to convey our heartfelt thanks to everyone who has contributed directly or indirectly towards this book.

Ashish S. Verma
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Herbal Medicine and Biotechnology for the Benefit of Human Health

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Chapter Outline

Summary	563	Callus Cultures	570
What You Can Expect to Know	563	Suspension Cultures	570
History and Methods	563	Case Study: <i>Lantana camara</i> L	570
Introduction	563	Opportunities and Challenges	571
Traditional Medicine	564	Conclusions and Outlook	573
Ancient System of Medicine	565	Ethical Issues	573
Methodology	565	Translational Significance	573
Investigation of Medicinal Plants	565	World Wide Web Resources	574
Extraction	566	References	574
Chemical Screening	567	Further Reading	574
Biological Assays	567	Glossary	574
Isolation and Characterization of		Abbreviations	575
Bioactive Compounds	567	Long Answer Questions	575
Biotechnological Approaches		Short Answer Questions	575
for Herbal Drug Production	569	Answers to Short Answer Questions	575
Organ Cultures	569		

SUMMARY

The present chapter discusses the importance of plants and their metabolites in herbal medicines. Various examples of biotechnological tools have been highlighted how plants can be exploited commercially without affecting their natural population. Furthermore, the chapter discusses processing plants for herbal medicine and drug discovery from natural products.

WHAT YOU CAN EXPECT TO KNOW

How do herbal medicines compare to conventional forms of medicine? What are their advantages and limitations? Besides this, what are their methods of production from plant sources, and what are the various techniques required to analyse and characterize them?

HISTORY AND METHODS

INTRODUCTION

Herbal medicines refer to the use of plant seeds, berries, roots, leaves, bark, or flowers for medicinal purposes (Figure 30.1). Medicinal plants have been a major source of drugs for thousands of years, and even today they are the basis of systematic traditional medicines in almost all countries of the world. Unani and Ayurveda systems of medicine are two of the classic and oldest examples of this category. Around 80% of the population in developing countries is completely dependent on plants for their primary health care (Bannerman et al., 1983). Even in developed countries, which are enormously advanced in terms of medicinal chemistry, over one-fourth of all prescribed pharmaceuticals originate directly or indirectly from plants



FIGURE 30.1 Herbal medicines. (Courtesy: Google)

(Newman et al., 2000). Furthermore, out of 252 drugs considered as indispensable by the World Health Organization (WHO), 11% are mainly derived from flowering plants, and 28% of synthetic drugs are obtained from natural precursors (Namdeo, 2007).

As already mentioned, herbal medicines are derived from plants. Understandably, these pharmaceuticals are produced solely from massive quantities of whole plant parts, which can lead to problems. One problem is that excessive harvesting can diminish local plant populations and erode genetic diversity. A second, but important, concern is inconsistency of the derived products in terms of quality and quantity. The latter can spell trouble in terms of safety, supply, and economic feasibility of these herbal products on a commercial scale. In order to overcome these bottlenecks, domestication and acceptance of good agricultural practices are crucial, especially for revival of diminishing plant populations. However, the conventional methods of plant propagation are lengthy and time consuming. The long cultivation periods between planting and harvesting make the entire process cumbersome and uneconomical, which in turn leads to the high cost of drugs. Moreover, wild populations are susceptible to problems of disease, drought, environmental fluctuations, low rate of fruit set, and poor seed yield, germination, and viability. This vulnerability of plants also affects

batch-to-batch consistency of derived metabolites to be used as drugs or drug precursors. Clearly, there is an urgent need of alternative and complimentary methods for uniform production of herbal medicine. In this context, tools and techniques of biotechnology, like *in vitro* plant, cell, tissue, and organ culture, offer solutions in terms of mass propagation of plants in a shortened time span, occupying much less space than wild populations, and uniform production of metabolites all year round, irrespective of seasons and vagaries of climatic conditions. One clarification required at this point is the term “metabolites.” The majority of the compounds used as drugs are secondary metabolites (Kubmarawa et al., 2007), whose production is largely affected by environmental fluxes.

Traditional Medicine

The World Health Organization (WHO) defines traditional medicine as being the “sum total of knowledge, skills, and practices based on the theories, beliefs and experiences that are indigenous to different cultures, which are used to maintain health, as well as to prevent, diagnose, improve, or treat physical and mental illnesses.” Every early civilization used plants as their main source of medicine, and most of the world’s population still relies on them. The first

recorded literature on medicinal plants can be traced back to early human history, the Atharvaveda (2000 B.C.) in India. With time, the original population of an area gained knowledge which plants could be used for certain diseases or states of illness. In addition, they also gained knowledge of the harmful and poisonous plants. It is evident that the modern drug industry has been developed to a considerable degree as a result of plant-based traditional medicines.

There are a few closely related terms in use today, meanings of which should be understood clearly. *Traditional medicine* refers to the following components: acupuncture (China), Ayurveda (India), Unani (Arabic countries), traditional birth attendant's medicines, mental healer's medicines, herbal medicines, and various forms of indigenous medicines. *Complementary or alternative medicine* refers to a broad set of health care practices that are not part of a country's own tradition, and are not integrated into the dominant health care system. Traditional medicine has maintained its popularity in all regions of the developing world, and its use is rapidly spreading in industrialized countries.

Ancient System of Medicine

Ayurveda, perhaps the most ancient of all medicinal traditions, is probably older than traditional Chinese medicine. It is derived from "Ayur" meaning "life," and "Veda," meaning "knowledge." Ayurveda means the "science of life." It takes a holistic view of human beings, their health, and illness. It aims at positive health, which has been defined as a well-balanced metabolism coupled with a healthy state of being. According to Ayurveda, disease can arise from the body and/or mind due to external factors or intrinsic causes. The origin of Ayurveda is lost in prehistoric antiquity, but its characteristic concepts appear to have matured between 2,500 and 500 B.C. in ancient India. The earliest references to drugs and diseases can be found in the Rigveda and Atharvaveda.

Ayurvedic drugs have been found to perform very well against chronic ailments. Today, they are also attracting attention for diseases for which there are no (or inadequate) drugs for treatment in modern medicine, such as metabolic and degenerative disorders. Most of these diseases have multifactorial causation, and there is a growing awareness that in such circumstances, a combination of drugs, acting at a number of targets concurrently, is likely to be more effective than drugs acting at one target. Ayurvedic drugs, which are often multi-component, have a special impact on such conditions. For various reasons, Ayurveda has not included much of modern science/scientific tools. Studies of the biological activity of multicomponent Ayurvedic drugs will bring Ayurveda into the mainstream of scientific investigations.

METHODOLOGY

Investigation of Medicinal Plants

Medicinal plants have formed the basis of health care throughout the world since the earliest days of civilization, and are still widely used, and have noteworthy significance in international trade. Recognition of their clinical, pharmaceutical, and economic value is still growing, although this varies widely between countries. Plants are important for pharmacological studies and drug development, not only when bioactive compounds are used directly as therapeutic agents, but also as starting materials for the synthesis of drugs or as models for pharmacologically active compounds.

Each plant species has its own specific set of secondary metabolites. Apart from the family Poaceae, which harbors the world's worst weeds but is low in medicinal plants, many of the top twelve weed families are also the ones that are important for medicinals. The ecological and biochemical evidence suggest the preponderance of weeds in medicinal floras. Secondary compounds in plants are involved in the interaction of the plant with its environment and are important for ecological functions such as allelopathy, insect and animal attractants for pollination, seed dispersal, and for chemical defense against microbes, insects, and herbivory (Bourgaud et al., 2001). These compounds do not participate in the vital metabolic processes of the plant system, but are the ones that exhibit bioactivity, and can serve as medicinals for humans. The spectrum of chemical structures synthesized by the plant kingdom is broader than that of perhaps any other group of organisms (Rao and Ravishankar, 2002).

In the present scenario, a large proportion of the drugs used in modern medicine are either directly isolated from plants, or synthetically modified from a lead compound of natural origin. However, rarely is the drug isolated in the pure, usable form. What is initially obtained is the crude extract, which requires stepwise purification to obtain the finished product. The finished product as herbal medicine most of the time is a mixture of several compounds. When each and every component in the mixture is characterized qualitatively and quantitatively, it is called "*characterized extract*," which is understandably more desirable than the "*uncharacterized extract*." Plant extracts are known to consist of many chemicals, and among them, a few compounds could be acting synergistically. Sometimes, isolation of the compounds from the extract may cause a decrease in desired activity, which underlines the importance of extract screening (Orhan et al., 2009).

Evidence-based studies on the efficacy and safety of traditional Indian medicines are limited. The essential ingredients in most formulations are not precisely defined. This is one of the most important challenges to scientists attempting to identify a single bioactive compound. Therefore, in-depth studies and more stringent conditions should

be followed to make a herbal formulation so that the role of each and every component is known.

Drug discovery is the process by which drugs are discovered or designed. Plants have long been a very important source of drugs, and many plant species have been analyzed to see if they contain substances with therapeutic activity. Many plant drugs of folklore were investigated to determine the active ingredient in the mixture. Several reviews are available in the literature pertaining to approaches for selecting plants as candidates for drug discovery programs.

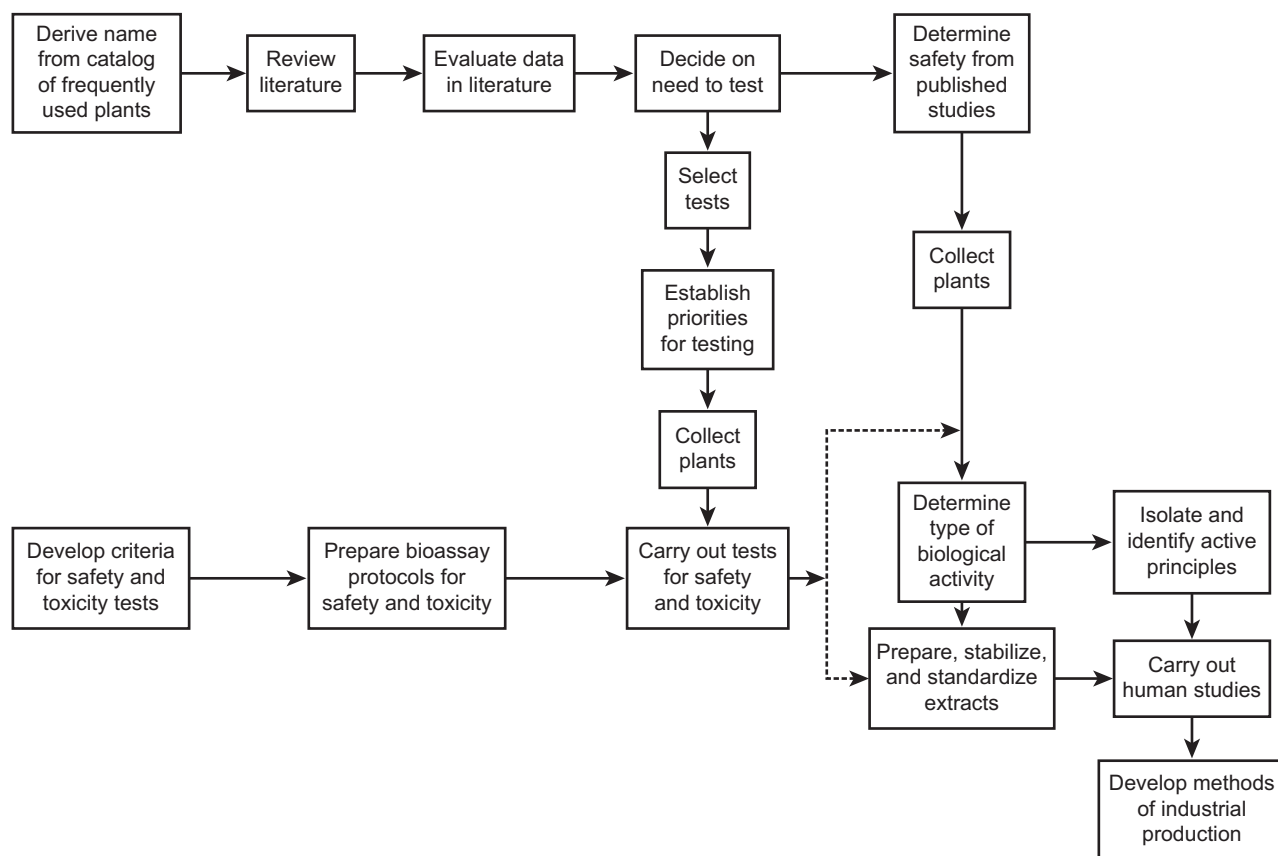
Today, many new chemotherapeutic agents are obtained synthetically, based on “rational” drug design. The study of natural products has many rewards over synthetic drug design. The former leads to materials having new structural features with novel biological activity. In this context not only do plants continue to serve as possible sources for new drugs, but chemicals derived from the various parts of these plants can also be extremely useful as lead structures for synthetic modification and optimization of bioactivity. The starting materials for about one-half of the medicines we use today come from natural sources. There is no doubt that the future of plants as sources of medicinal agents for use in investigation, prevention, and treatment of diseases is very promising.

Drug discovery from natural resources is a very tedious process. It involves identification of plant material, extraction, preliminary phytochemical screening of the crude extract, evaluation of biological activity, isolation of various bioactive compounds, and finally elucidation of structures. If the molecule is appealing, with strong pharmacological properties, then further preclinical studies are conducted on the molecules, such as toxicity, stability, and solubility studies. After undertaking these studies, if it is found that a molecule is substantially more active than the currently used drug, only then are processes developed for its economical and easy isolation from the source so that it can be readily available for therapeutic use.

In the context of isolation and screening of chemicals from plants that may possess medicinal properties, different approaches can be used. The process of obtaining bioactive substances and their chemical characterization can be schematically represented as in [Flow Chart 30.1](#).

Extraction

Extraction involves the separation of medicinally active fractions of plant from inactive or inert components by using selective solvents through extraction procedures. The products so obtained from plants are relatively complex



FLOW CHART 30.1 Flow chart of sequence for the study of plants used in traditional medicine. (Adapted from *Fabricant and Farnsworth, 2001*.)

mixtures of metabolites in liquid, semi-solid, or (after removing the solvent) dry powder form. This is the critical first step in the investigation of medicinal plants.

The selection of a solvent system mainly depends on the exact nature of the bioactive compounds being targeted because during the extraction process, solvents diffuse into the solid plant material and solubilize compounds of similar polarity. The extraction of hydrophilic compounds uses polar solvents, such as methanol, ethanol, or ethyl acetate. For extraction of more lipophilic compounds, dichloromethane is used. In a few cases, extraction with hexane is used to eliminate chlorophyll and oil.

As the target compounds may be non-polar to polar and thermally labile, the suitability of the methods of extraction must be well thought out. Different methods, such as sonication, heating under reflux, soxhlet extraction, and others, are commonly used for plant sample extraction. Additionally, plant extracts are also prepared by maceration or percolation of fresh green plants or dried powdered plant material in water and/or organic solvent systems.

Other modern extraction techniques include solid-phase micro-extraction, supercritical-fluid extraction, pressurized-liquid extraction, microwave-assisted extraction, solid-phase extraction, and surfactant-mediated techniques, which possess certain advantages.

Chemical Screening

This technique is also known as phytochemical screening. In this method, aqueous and organic extracts are prepared from those plant samples that are the reservoir of secondary metabolites, such as leaves, stems, roots, or bark. The plant extracts are then analyzed for the presence of secondary metabolites like alkaloids, terpenes, and flavonoids. Standard tests are available in the literature for each class of compounds to be analyzed. Following this, a simple separation technique like thin-layer chromatography (TLC) is generally used to analyze the number and type of components present in the mixture. In TLC, the extracts are loaded in a glass coated with silica gel or other adsorbent, which is then kept in a chromatographic chamber containing a suitable running solvent. This technique mainly consists of a mobile phase and a stationary phase, whereby the compounds are separated based on their polarity. Sometimes a developing solvent might also be used after the plate has been taken out of the chromatographic chamber to detect the chemicals. This approach has been used in the past, and is still being used in developing countries. Since the isolation of pure bioactive components is a long and tedious process, this procedure enables the early recognition of known metabolites in the extracts, and is thus economically viable. The tests are simple to perform, however, it is not suitable for the efficient separation of metabolites, and has low selectivity and sensitivity of detection, which makes it difficult to detect traces of components in the sample.

Biological Assays

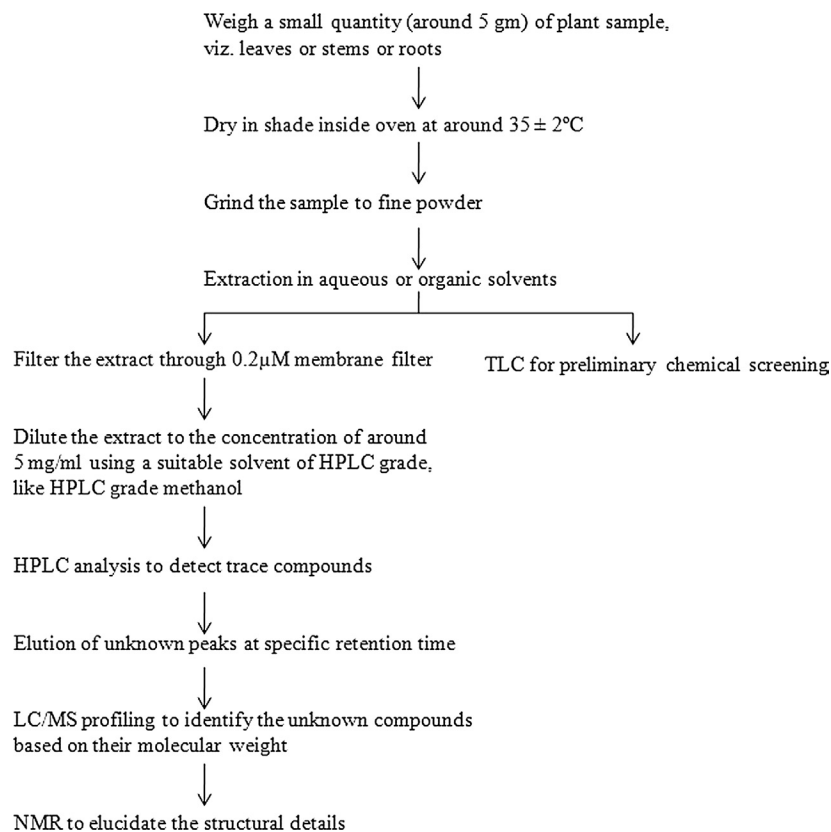
Plant extracts have served as an important source of bioactive compounds for many drug discovery programs, and several important drugs have been isolated and identified from plants. In any isolation program in which the end product is a drug or lead compound, some type of bioassay screening or pharmacological evaluation must necessarily be used to guide the isolation process towards the pure bioactive component.

The selection of the biological assay to be adopted usually depends on the target syndrome as well as on the available information about the plant to be studied. For instance, if a plant has an ethanopharmacological history of use against a particular disease, then one would rationally use a specific bioassay technique that can predict the reputed therapeutic activity in order to isolate the lead that is responsible for that biological activity.

In the past, the extracts from plants were mainly evaluated in experimental animals, primarily mice and rats. Currently, anti-microbial assay by the disk diffusion method is in practice. However, this technique had several disadvantages. Firstly, the phytochemical extracts are highly heterogeneous due to the presence of a mixture of different bioactive components. A desired biological response may not be due to a single bioactive compound, but to a mixture of several bioactive compounds. Moreover, although several new bioassay techniques have been developed, at present these techniques are still expensive, time-consuming, and technologically complicated. The major disadvantage of bioassay techniques is the use of biological organisms, particularly mice and rats, which is not practical as these living organisms most often have to be sacrificed. Lastly, isolation, screening, and quantification of a specific bioactive compound are difficult using biological assays. Hence, this technique is losing popularity.

Isolation and Characterization of Bioactive Compounds

Due to the fact that plant extracts usually contain various types of compounds with different polarities, their separation still remains a big challenge for the process of identification and characterization of bioactive compounds. Apart from this, there are always chances of wide variations with respect to their chemical content in crude drugs/raw materials of plant origin due to varied reasons such as climatic conditions, geographical distribution, source and season of collection, and lack of scientific methods of post-harvest processing, storage, and preservation. Therefore, identification and quantification of bioactive compounds are essential prerequisites for herbal drug development (Flow Chart 30.2). Thin-layer chromatography is a powerful and simple analytical tool used for this purpose. However,



FLOW CHART 30.2 Schematic representation showing the process of chemical screening, isolation and characterization of bioactive substances from plants.

there are situations where this tool does not give satisfactory results because of its own limitations. High-pressure liquid chromatography (HPLC), liquid chromatography/mass spectrometry (LC/MS), nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR), etc., are well-suited quantitative and qualitative analytical methods of choice to control the quality of phytopharmaceuticals.

High-pressure liquid chromatography, also called as high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC), is an important analytical tool for the efficient localization and rapid characterization of natural products. It involves the injection of a small volume of liquid sample into a tube packed with porous particles (stationary phase), and the individual components of the sample are pulled along the packed tube (column) by a solvent (mobile phase) moved by gravity. A pump forces the liquid through the column at a specific flow rate and generates high pressure. The column packing separates the components of the sample by various physical and chemical interactions between the molecules and the packing material. The separated components get collected at the exit of the column and are detected by several techniques like UV, fluorescence detection, diode array detection, etc. Data is generated in the form of chromatograms, where individual components show peaks at specific retention times at which the

component was eluted. Since, HPLC has a high resolution and is very sensitive, this technique is suitable for the detection of trace components whose concentration in the sample is very low.

The processing of a plant crude extract to provide a sample suitable for HPLC analysis, as well as the selection of solvent for sample reconstitution, can have a significant bearing on the overall success of natural product isolation and identification. The source material (e.g. dried powdered plant) will initially need to be treated in such a way as to ensure that the compound of interest is efficiently liberated into solution. This is where an efficient extraction protocol becomes important. An organic solvent may be used for extraction, and then solid material is removed by centrifugation and filtration of the extract. The filtrate is then concentrated and injected into an HPLC instrument for separation. Use of guard columns is necessary in the analysis of crude extract. Many natural product materials contain significant levels of strongly binding components such as chlorophyll and other endogenous materials that may in the long term compromise the performance of analytical columns.

Liquid chromatography coupled to mass spectrometry (LC/MS) is a newer technique, and is one of the most

sensitive methods of molecular analysis. It yields information on the molecular weight and structure of the analytes. A component showing a specific retention time in HPLC can be eluted out at that particular retention time, and its mass spectral analysis can be done to get more details about its molecular weight and structure. An MS detector senses a compound eluting from the HPLC column first by ionizing it, and then by measuring its mass or by fragmenting the molecule into smaller pieces that are unique to the compound. The MS detector can sometimes directly identify the compound since every compound has its own unique mass spectrum and acts as a fingerprint for that particular compound.

Nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) is another important analytical tool that helps in elucidation of the structural details of bioactive compounds. NMR has the ability to provide a detailed picture of molecules. Even the conformational space of molecules can be studied in great detail using this tool. This technique probes the magnetic properties of nuclei induced by their spin states. Almost every element has an isotope that is magnetically active, and their magnetic vectors align in an external field either parallel or anti-parallel to the field. There is always a small energy difference associated with the parallel and anti-parallel orientations, and the difference in energy can be visualized by irradiation with proper radio frequencies. The amount of splitting of energy levels is different for different nuclei, and is linearly dependent on the magnetic field. Therefore, different nuclei can be observed at different radio frequencies, and hence, each radio frequency becomes unique for a particular nucleus and can be easily identified.

Gas chromatography/mass spectrometry (GC/MS) is based upon the partitioning of compounds between a liquid and a gas phase. This technique is widely used for the qualitative and quantitative analysis of a large number of herbal drugs because it has high sensitivity, reproducibility, and speed of resolution. It has proved to be most valuable for the separation of volatile, non-polar, and semi-polar bioactive compounds. In GC/MS, the sample is injected into a long tubular column, the chromatography column, which has a high boiling point stationary phase, such as silicon grease. The basis of the separation is the difference in the partition coefficients of volatilized compounds between the liquid and gas phase as the plant metabolites are carried through the column by the inert carrier gas (e.g. nitrogen, helium, or argon). The time taken by the sample to pass through the length of the column is referred to as its retention time (RT). The RT for a given sample is an identifying characteristic. The detector for the GC is the mass spectrometry (MS) detector. As a sample exits the end of the GC column, it is fragmented by ionization, and the fragments are sorted by mass to form a fragmentation pattern.

BIOTECHNOLOGICAL APPROACHES FOR HERBAL DRUG PRODUCTION

Intact plants in the field or wild habitats produce high-value bioactive compounds. However, the quantity and availability of these economic products from natural resources restrict their maximized uses for the benefit of humankind. For the last few years, as the demand for bioactive compounds has increased, exploitation of medicinal plants has also increased. Hence, there is an urgent need to develop an alternative method for the large-scale production of metabolites and quality plants. In this respect, biotechnology put forward an attractive alternative to whole-plant extraction for homogeneous, controlled production, especially, when we take the commercial demand into picture. It also results in more consistent yield and quality of the products, irrespective of the seasons and the regions. Biotechnology offers an opportunity to exploit plant cells, tissues, organs, or entire organisms by growing them *in vitro* and genetically manipulating them to get desired compounds (Rao and Ravishankar, 2002). Many biotechnological strategies, such as embryogenesis, organogenesis, screening of cell lines, media optimization, and elicitation, can be carried out for enhanced production of secondary metabolites from medicinal plants. The subsequent sections briefly discuss the different *in vitro* culture techniques that can be used for herbal drug production.

Organ Cultures

The selection of an appropriate technique depends on the results that one wants. In plants where molecules of interest are localized in specialized cells, dedifferentiated cultures are not desirable. Therefore, establishment of organogenic cultures would be advantageous. Under *in vitro* conditions, redifferentiation is generally associated with an improved synthesis of secondary metabolites (Collin 2001). This is probably due to the appearance of complex cells and tissues that are metabolically more proficient. In all redifferentiated cell lines, along with the shoot-forming nodules, non-morphogenic cell masses are also present, which though non-morphogenic, might have a certain degree of differentiation at the cellular stage, and due to co-evolution, imitate the biochemistry of redifferentiated cells (Brown et al., 1986). The reports on *Artemisia annua* and *Azadirachta indica* stated that artemisinin and azadirachtin production, respectively, were very poor in dedifferentiated callus cultures, and a certain degree of redifferentiation was obligatory for compound production. Organogenesis was also found to be an essential prerequisite for steroidal saponin production in *Ruscus aculeatus*. Similar observations were made for the biosynthesis of picroside in *Picrorhiza kurroa*, wherein the metabolite did not accumulate in the dedifferentiated callus cultures, but occurred specifically in

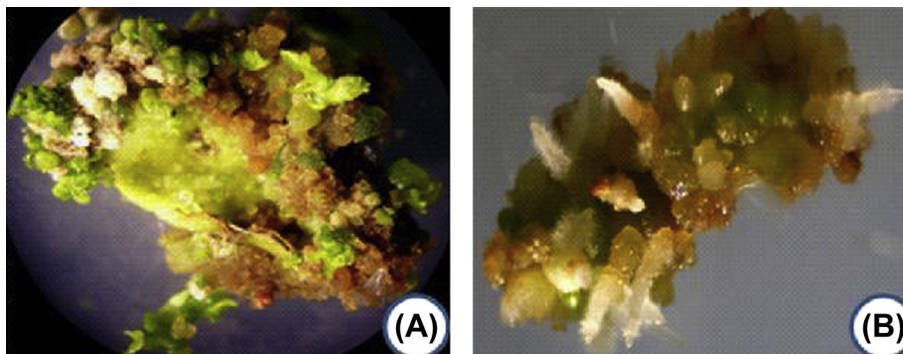


FIGURE 30.2 Neem organogenesis from leaf explants indirectly via callusing: (A) Shoot differentiation. (B) Root differentiation

the redifferentiated cultures. Berkov et al. (2010) also demonstrated that alkaloid synthesis in *Pancreatium maritimum* is closely related to tissue differentiation.

Since it was observed that production of bioactive compounds is generally higher in organized plant tissues; there are attempts to regenerate whole plant organs (i.e. shoots or roots) under *in vitro* conditions, either directly from explants, or indirectly via an intervening callus phase (Figure 30.2). As expected, such regenerating cultures produce patterns of secondary metabolites that are similar to the field-grown parent plant, with the added advantage of improved production of metabolites. Another advantage of using the organized cultures is that they are relatively more stable in the production of secondary metabolites than cultures of undifferentiated cells, such as cells in callus or suspension cultures (Rao and Ravishankar, 2002).

Callus Cultures

Callus culture is the culture of dedifferentiated plant cells induced on media usually containing relatively high auxin concentrations or a combination of auxin and cytokinin under *in vitro* conditions. In plants, where sought after metabolites are present in leaves, establishing *in vitro* cultures from leaves and using them for the extraction of compounds would be an ideal alternative. Callus cultures containing the bioactive substances are collected at a specific stage (usually during the stationary phase of their growth cycle, since secondary metabolite production is greater during the stationary phase), dried, extracted, and the extract then taken for identification and quantification of the desired medicinal compound using HPLC, LC-MS, etc. The further scale-up and yield enhancement studies of the compound are performed by raising the callus in suspension, first in a shake-flask culture, and then in a suitably designed bioreactor, to maximize its production.

Suspension Cultures

A breakthrough in cell-culture methodology occurred with the successful establishment of cell lines capable of

producing high yields of secondary compounds in cell suspension cultures (Zenk, 1978). During the past decades, this approach of metabolite production has attracted much academic and industrial interest. The technique of using plant cell suspension cultures for secondary metabolite production is based on the concept of biosynthetic totipotency of plant cells, which means that each cell in the culture retains the complete genetic information for production of the range of compounds found in the whole plant. Cell suspension cultures are initiated from established callus cultures by inoculating them into liquid media. The cultures are then kept in glass flasks under continual agitation on horizontal or rotating shakers; they can eventually be transferred to a specialized bioreactor. Cells in suspension cultures grow much better than in semi-solid media because of better mixing of oxygen and nutrients during shaking conditions.

Productivity of suspension cultures is critical to the practical application of this cell technology for bioactive compound production. To improve the production of secondary metabolites in *in vitro* cultures, various strategies such as the manipulation of parameters of the environment and medium, selection of high-yielding cell clones, precursor feeding, and elicitation can be opted for.

Case Study: *Lantana camara* L

This example using *Lantana camara* L. shows how plant tissues can be employed in tissue culture and further in biochemical studies.

Lantana camara L. (Sage (English) or Caturang (Hindi)) is an aromatic, evergreen shrub belonging to the family Verbenaceae. It is a reservoir of several important bioactive molecules. It has been listed as one of the important medicinal plants in the world (Sharma et al., 2000). For many years, natural products from *Lantana* have been used in the prevention and cure of many serious diseases, including cancers. The most significant bioactive molecules of this plant are shown in Figure 30.3.

For establishing tissue cultures, the first prerequisite is the selection of healthy plant material. Thus, for this study, leaves from *Lantana* plants bearing pink-yellow flowers were

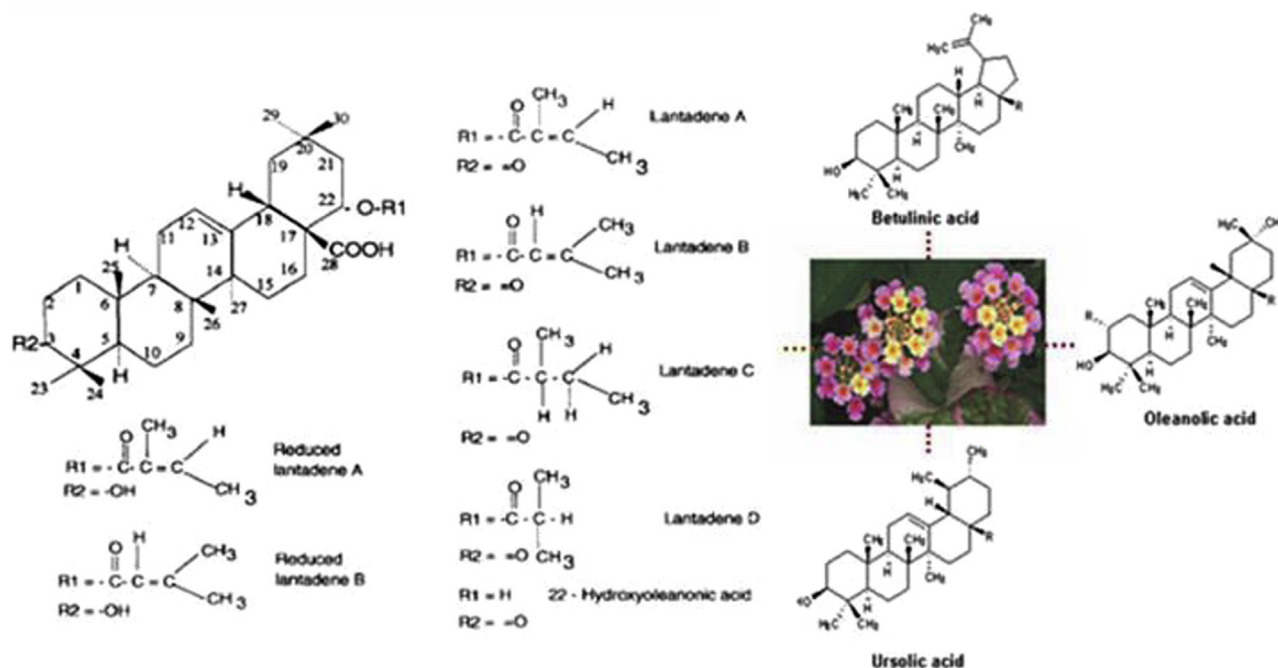


FIGURE 30.3 Bioactive compounds of *Lantana*.

picked. Leaves were disinfected using 1% (v/v) Tween-20 and 0.1% (w/v) mercuric chloride, followed by three rinses in sterile distilled water after each step. The leaf disk explants were prepared using a cork borer of 5 mm diameter. The basal media used in all the experiments related to callus induction and proliferation consisted of MS (Murashige and Skoog, 1962) medium enriched with 30 g/L sucrose and solidified with 0.8% agar (HiMedia Laboratories, Mumbai, India). The pH of the media was adjusted to 5.8 before autoclaving at 1.06 kg cm⁻² and 121°C for 15 min. The media was supplemented with different plant growth regulators (auxins and cytokinins) at defined concentrations. Remaining steps are explicitly described in Figure 30.4.

OPPORTUNITIES AND CHALLENGES

The consumption of herbal medicines and the importance of the herbal medical industry are fast growing and widespread. According to estimates of the World Health Organization, more than 80% of the world's population depends primarily on herbal medicines. The ancient art of herbal medicine is fast developing today, and is undergoing something of a renaissance all over the world, particularly in developed countries. Most of the ingredients used in herbal medicines are taken from wild plants, and the increasing demand for medicinal plants, along with habitat loss, is putting pressure on many species. Indiscriminate harvesting from the wild has led to loss of genetic diversity, diminishing populations, local extinctions, and habitat destruction. This has raised the ire of plant conservationists.

Domestic cultivation of medicinal plants offers a viable conservation strategy, and also eliminates the problems that are generally faced in herbal extracts, such as misidentification, genetic and phenotypic variability, extract variability and instability, toxic components, and contamination. Optimized yield and uniform high-quality product can also be achieved through cultivation. However, in a rapidly shifting and fashion-prone market, the cultivator has to make the difficult decision of which particular species to grow. Therefore, the difficulty in predicting which extracts will remain marketable is another serious obstacle in bringing medicinal plants into successful commercial cultivation.

Although a large number of plant species used in herbal medicine are cultivated, a great majority of them are still utilized from the wild population. There are certain difficulties faced by growers in the cultivation of herbal plants because of low germination rates or specific ecological requirements. Lack of knowledge about the specific requirements for pollination, seed germination, and growth are the main hindrances in the cultivation of herbal plants. Fungal infection or mechanical damage frequently results in low germination rates that can be easily overcome by improved seed treatments and by ensuring optimal storage conditions. Moreover, difficult-to-grow herbal plants can be easily cultivated on a commercial scale by using controlled environments, including hydroponic systems.

Another major challenge faced in the production of herbal medicines is that the main bioactive component, which is the major ingredient in the herbal medicine, is synthesized in a very small quantity in the specific plant. This is obvious, as the bioactive components are mainly produced as secondary

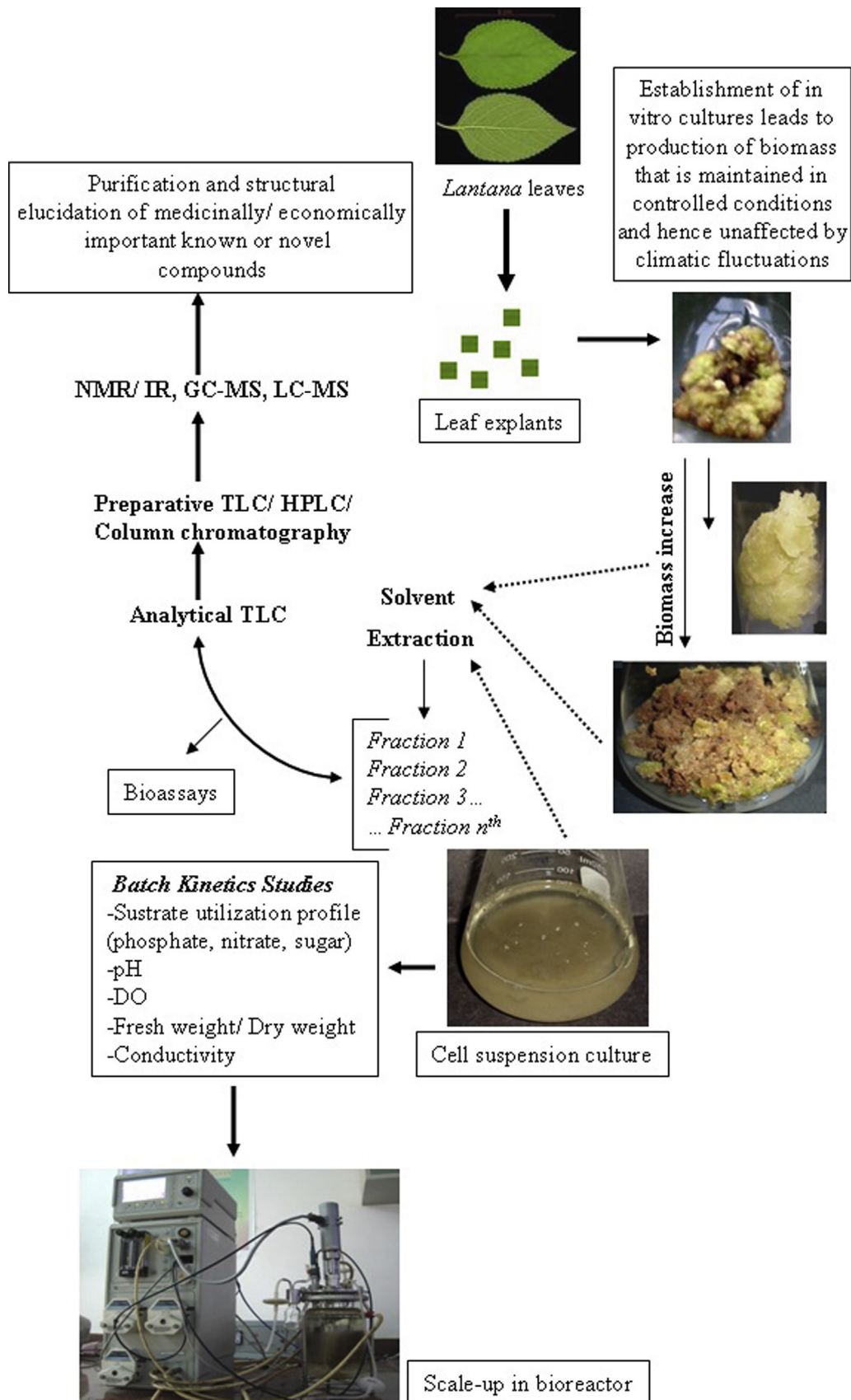


FIGURE 30.4 Isolation of bioactive compounds from *Lantana camara*, a medicinal plant.

metabolites in plant cells that are produced in small quantities. This leads to cutting down of a large number of herbal plants for producing a single drug. However, by the use of modern tissue culture techniques and genetic transformation that alters the pathways for the biosynthesis of target metabolites, today this wasteful harvesting technique can be easily overcome.

Together with supporting the use of herbal medicines, it is high time for everyone, herbalist and conservationist alike, to reduce the overexploitation of the world's wild plants. In the modern world, the trade in medicinal plants is ever-increasing, but largely unmonitored. At the moment, many harvesting practices are unsustainable, which is threatening populations of medicinal plants and their habitats, and also the livelihoods of those people engaged in their collection. It is time for the conservationists, the government, and each and every one of us to find workable global solutions.

CONCLUSIONS AND OUTLOOK

Medicinal plants are widely used by the people living in both rural and urban areas. Globalization has greatly renewed the interest in herbal medicines, and today most people prefer to take herbal medicines as an alternative therapy. This resurgence in plant remedies has mainly resulted from the following factors:

1. Herbal medicines are found to be highly effective in curing diseases.
2. Most modern drugs have one or more side effects.
3. Development of science and technology.

In addition to these factors, economic advantages also contribute to their ever-increasing popularity. Development of modern science and technology, and further studies into traditional plant medicines conducted with modern theories and techniques have greatly enriched the use of herbal medicines by absorbing new ideas and concepts from traditional plant medicine from all over the world. This has led to the tremendous expansion of the herbal medicine industry in the last few decades, and has paved the route for employment of millions of unemployed persons. Looking at all these factors, we can say that in the not-too-distant future, traditional plant medicine will become an area of major importance in the health care system. However, efforts should be made to achieve sustainable harvesting of medicinal plants so that they are not overexploited. Also, in order to utilize the available resources of medicinal plants to their full extent, social, cultural, and economic problems, lack of well-planned and integrated strategies, and poor access to scientific information must be dealt with first.

ETHICAL ISSUES

Although approximately 80% of people today depend upon herbal medicine as a component of their primary health care,

there is still concern about the safety and efficacy of herbal drugs. Despite the fact that herbal medicine can potentially contribute to the improvement of health care, many major challenges must be overcome prior to the successful incorporation of herbal remedies into medicine. Beneficence, non-maleficence, patient autonomy, justice, and public accountability are the pillars of bioethical principles, which are religiously followed in conventional medicine. They guide the clinicians such that the patients' interests are best served. As the use of complementary medicine (including herbal medicines) becomes increasingly popular, it is becoming apparent that the same bioethical principles are applicable to these alternate forms of health care (Kemper and Cohen, 2004). Beneficence is the principle that says it is a clinician's responsibility to promote a patient's well-being; clinicians must take appropriate measures to ensure that some positive outcome will occur. Non-maleficence is the responsibility to not hurt others. This ethical principle is almost the same as beneficence, but with important distinctions, as one's duty to prevent harm is not the same as the duty to promote well-being (Beauchamp and Childress, 2009). Patient autonomy is a foundation of conventional medicine that is pertinent to the use of herbal medicines too. In most parts of the world, consumer access to herbal medicines is controlled by prescription, thus allowing for extensive use. With self-care as one component of patient autonomy, another key element is that the patient has sound information to make an informed treatment decision (Ernst and Cohen, 2001). Time and again researchers come across cases where a patient has gathered information about herbal medicines from relatives, friends, magazines, and the Internet (Gardiner and Riley, 2007; Khader et al., 2008; Low, 2009), all of which are perceived as less reputable than official sources (Health Canada and Reid, 2005).

TRANSLATIONAL SIGNIFICANCE

Animal models are used in the study of human diseases because both animals and humans are similar in genetics, anatomy, and physiological aspects. Also, animal models are often preferable because of their easy and abundant supply and ease of manipulation. Also, for statistical analysis, a sufficient number of specimens must be used for a particular experiment. Therefore, scientists cannot conduct research on just one animal or human, and it is easier for scientists to use sufficiently large numbers of animals instead of humans to get reliable results. Only in cases of advanced clinical trials are humans used for investigations. Otherwise, animals like mice, rats, monkeys, dogs, and several fungal, bacterial, and plant species, are used as model organisms for such studies. However, even with the evident similarities between animal models and humans, only about 1% of drugs reach the last phase of clinical trials. As far as herbal medicines are concerned, the chemical constituents present

in them are a part of the physiological functions of living plants, and therefore they have better compatibility with the human body. However, scientific proof of this statement is not sufficient, and this is therefore one major area where research can be carried out.

WORLD WIDE WEB RESOURCES

One of the first steps in the use of herbal medicine is to find out the best source for complete information about herbs and/or derivatives. At present, the Web is the most powerful (and perhaps most familiar) tool, but the Internet, like other resources, has its own strengths and weaknesses.

The major strength of the Internet is that it is an especially valuable research tool when looking for information that is current and frequently updated. It is also quick to access.

As far as weaknesses go, the Internet is not the best place to find established viewpoints in their original form since it is often the case that information is changed from its original source. Information on the Internet is often second-, third-, or even fourth-hand. Published books remain the safest place to get established facts and opinions, especially when looking for traditional ideas.

However, the following web sites do provide comprehensive information on herbal medicines:

<http://ethnomedicinetomodern.blogspot.in/>
<http://www.umm.edu/altmed/articles/herbal-medicine-000351.htm>
<http://www.nlm.nih.gov/medlineplus/herbalmedicine.html>

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GLOSSARY

- Bioactivity** Specific effect on, or a reaction in, a living being upon exposure to a substance.
- Biosynthetic Totipotency** The inherent potentiality of a plant cell to give rise to a whole plant.
- Dedifferentiation** The phenomenon of a mature cell reverting to its meristematic state and forming undifferentiated callus tissue.

Plant Metabolite The intermediates and products of metabolism. Usually restricted to small molecules of a plant.

Morphogenic The development of form and structure during growth.

Redifferentiation The phenomenon of whole-plant formation from undifferentiated callus tissue.

Secondary Metabolite Organic compounds that are not directly involved in the normal growth, development, or reproduction of a plant, but often have an ecological role, such as attractant of pollinators and chemical defense against microorganisms. Humans use secondary metabolites as medicines, flavorings, and recreational drugs.

Traditional Medicine (TM) Refers to the knowledge, skills, and practices based on the theories, beliefs, and experiences, used in the maintenance of health, and in the prevention, diagnosis, improvement, or treatment of physical and mental illness.

Natural Product A chemical compound or substance produced by a living organism. A natural product often has pharmacological or biological activity for use in pharmaceutical drug discovery and drug design. A natural product can be considered as such even if it can be prepared by total synthesis.

ABBREVIATIONS

GC/MS Gas Chromatography/Mass Spectrometry

HPLC High-Performance Liquid Chromatography

LC/MS Liquid Chromatography/Mass Spectrometry

MS Mass Spectrometry

NMR Nuclear Magnetic Resonance

RT Retention Time

TLC Thin-Layer Chromatography

WHO World Health Organization

LONG ANSWER QUESTIONS

1. Write an essay on plant secondary metabolites.
2. Elucidate various steps for the study of plants in traditional medicine.

3. What is drug discovery? What are different ways for drug discovery from natural products?
4. Write a detailed account of the tools and techniques of plant tissue culture and highlight the importance of each.
5. Enlist and describe in detail important analytical techniques associated with characterization of medicinal metabolites.

SHORT ANSWER QUESTIONS

1. Define the term “secondary metabolites.”
2. What is ethnobotany?
3. Differentiate between *characterized* and *uncharacterized* plant extracts.
4. Give the names of three solvents that can be used for the extraction of hydrophilic compounds?
5. Which analytical technique can be used for the separation and identification of volatile compounds?

ANSWERS TO SHORT ANSWER QUESTIONS

1. Secondary metabolites are compounds that are not directly involved in primary metabolic processes of an organism. They generally defend the organisms from environmental stresses and predators.
2. Ethnobotany is the study of how people of a particular region relate to the plants of their environment.
3. Characterized extracts are ones where each component, its concentration, and function, are known; for uncharacterized extracts, the entire components of the mixture and the role they play are not known.
4. Methanol, ethanol, and acetone.
5. GC-MS.

Note: Page numbers followed by “f” denote figures; “t” tables.

A

- AAALAC. *See* Association for Assessment and Accreditation of Laboratory Animal Care
- Ab. *See* Antibody
- ABC. *See* ATP-binding cassette
- ABCG2 marker, 434
- Abdominal-A (AbdA), 6–7
- ABI SOLiD, 349–350
- Ablative techniques, 110
- Absorption, distribution, metabolism and excretion (ADME), 88–89, 400
- Abstraction, 390
- ABTS. *See* 2,2-azobis-3-ethylbenzthiazoline-6-sulfonic acid
- ACE2. *See* Angiotensin converting enzyme-2
- aCGH. *See* Array-comparative genomic hybridization
- AcMNPV. *See* *Autographa California* nucleopolyhedroviruses
- Acquired Immunodeficiency Disease (AID), 156–157
- Acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS), 15, 156
- Acrocentric chromosomes, 453
- ACSF. *See* Artificial cerebrospinal fluid
- Activated T cells, 493–494
- Activator Protein-1 (AP-1), 115
- Acute lymphoblastic leukemias (ALL), 62–63
- Acute myelocytic leukemia (AML), 97, 173
- AD. *See* Alzheimer’s disease
- Adaptive immunity, 474
- ADCC. *See* Antibody-dependent cell-mediated cytotoxicity
- Adenine, 462
- Adenine/thymidine (AT), 459
- Adenocarcinoma, 96–97, 102
- Adenoma polyposis coli (APC), 79–80
- Adenosine triphosphate (ATP), 181
- Adenoviruses (ADV), 206–207
- ADEPT. *See* Antibody Directed Enzyme Prodrug Therapy
- Adequate pressure driving, 33f
- Adherent cell trypsinization, 215f
- Adipokinetic hormone (AKH), 14–15
- Adjuvants, 502–503
- ADME. *See* Absorption, distribution, metabolism and excretion
- Adult human GI tract, 512–514
- Adult stem cells (ASCs), 432, 433t
identification, 433
single mature cell type, 428
- ADV. *See* Adenoviruses
- Aequorea victoria*, 557
- Affinity screening. *See* Biopanning
- Aflatoxin B1 toxin, 98
- AFLP. *See* Amplified fragment length polymorphism
- AFM. *See* Atomic Force Microscope
- AFM force mapping (AFM-FM), 251
- AFM force spectroscopy (AFM-FS), 251, 251f
- AFSCs. *See* Amniotic Fluid-Derived Stem Cells
- 8-AG. *See* 8-azoguanine
- Agglutination reactions, 281
- Aggregation, 533
- Aging, 178
animal experimental models, 184
fish, 184–185
mouse, 184
biotechnology, 188
ethical issues, 188–189
polyphenols, 185–188, 185f
protein oxidation, 183–184
ROS, 178f, 181–183
theories, 178
cellular theories, 179–180
CR theory, 180–181
evolutionary theories, 178–179
FRTA, 180
molecular theories, 179
system-based theories, 180
translational significance, 189
WWW resources, 189
- Agrobacterium tumefaciens*, 510
- AGUS. *See* Atypical glandular cells of undetermined significance
- AHR. *See* Aryl hydrocarbon receptor
- AI. *See* Artificial insemination
- AID. *See* Acquired Immunodeficiency Disease
- AIDS. *See* Acquired immunodeficiency syndrome
- AKH. *See* Adipokinetic hormone
- Alemtuzumab, 480
- Alkoxy radicals (RO·), 182
- Alkyl peroxides (ROOH), 182
- Alkyl radicals (R·), 182
- ALL. *See* Acute lymphoblastic leukemias
- All-Steps-All-Combinations (ASAC), 378
- Allele-specific oligonucleotide (ASO), 292–293
- Allele-specific PCR (AS-PCR), 293
- Allele(s), 294–295
- Allelic heterogeneity, 465
- Allen Brain Atlas, 322–323
- Allergenic proteins, 511–512
- Allergenicity, 511
- Allergens, 511, 517, 520
cross-linking of, 512
- Allergic reactions, 511
- Allograft transplants, 81–82. *See also* Xenograft transplants
cancerous cells or solid tumors, 81–82
generation of, 81f
PyMT tumors, 82
- Alpha-1-antitrypsin, 608–609
- α 1-PI. *See* α 1-proteinase inhibitor
- α 1-proteinase inhibitor (α 1-PI), 416–417
- ALS. *See* Amyotrophic lateral sclerosis
- Alternative medicine. *See* Complementary medicine
- Alu family, 584
- Alzheimer’s disease (AD), 13, 40, 398–399
- Alzheimer’s mouse, 413–414
- AMA. *See* American Medical Association
- American Medical Association (AMA), 284
- American Public Health Association (APHA), 526
- American Veterinary Medical Association (AVMA), 76
- Ames test, 98
- Amino acids, 519
- AML. *See* Acute myelocytic leukemia
- Amniotic Fluid-Derived Stem Cells (AFSCs), 431
- Amplicon Sequencing, 357
- Amplified fragment length polymorphism (AFLP), 289–290, 295, 331
applications of, 296
steps in analysis, 295–296
- Amplified ribosomal DNA restriction analysis (ARDRA), 336
- Amyloid precursor protein (APP), 13, 40, 148–149
- Amyloid β (A β), 13
- Amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (ALS), 40–41
adult motor neuron disease, 40–41
causative genes, 42t
genes implication in RNA metabolism, 43–44
pathomechanisms, 41
Sod1-ALS, 43
SOD1-linked ALS
in vitro, 51
mis-folded mutant SOD1 protein, 50
non-cell autonomous neurodegeneration, 51
SOD1 mouse models, 51f
SOD1 mutations, 50
SOD1^{G93A} mice, 50, 50f

- Amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (ALS) (*Continued*)
 TDP-43 wild-type, 51–52
 transgenic mice
 SOD1^{G37R}, 47–48, 48f
 SOD1^{G93A}, 48
 SOD1^{WT}, 49
- Analysis of variance (ANOVA), 84–85
- Analytical step-by-step model, 601
- Anaphylaxis, 512, 555
- Anchorage-dependent/adherent cells, 216
- Anchorage-independent/suspension cells, 216
- Ancient DNA, 359–360
- Ancient Greek moral theories, 599–600
- Androgen receptor (AR), 44, 49, 52–53
- Androgenesis, 548, 548f
- Aneuploidy, 455
- Angiotensin converting enzyme-2 (ACE2), 374f
- Animal biopharming, 598, 608–609
 escape of, 609
 ethical issues in, 609
 food chain contamination, 609
 horizontal gene transfer, 609
 risks to human health, 609
 welfare issues, 609
- Animal biotechnology, 357, 386, 590–591
 ancient DNA, 359–360
 anthropocentrism, 598
 applications, 358, 358f, 601–602
 beef cattle selection, 360–361
 bioinformatics in, 386–387
 biopharming, 598
 challenging ethical issues in, 607–610
 animal biopharming, 608–609
 chimeras, 607–608
 constitution of ethics committees, 610
 concerns
 over animal biotechnology, 598
 for human health, 598
 consequentialist ethics, 600
 deontological
 approaches, 597
 ethics, 600
 epigenetics, 359
 ethical concerns in, 602
 ethical
 debates, 599, 602–607
 theories, 597
 evolutionary research, 358–359
 extrinsic concerns
 animal welfare, 604–606
 environmental concerns, 607
 human health, 606–607
 precautionary principle, 607
 food, safety, and nutrition, 361
 gene-based technologies, 598
 genomic variability, 360
 human therapeutic cloning, 610–611
 Internet Encyclopedia of Philosophy,
 598–599
 intrinsic concerns, 602–603
 hESC religious critique, 603
 human reproductive cloning religious
 critique, 603–604
 IVF religious critique, 604
 religious intrinsic critique, 603–604
- livestock productivity and health
 improvement, 361
 for medical purposes, 598
 metagenome sequencing, 359
 methodological approach, 601, 602f
 physical and mental health, 598
 pluripotent stem cells, 598
 principles, 598, 600–601
 public health ethics, 606–607
 public perceptions, 604
 secular intrinsic objections, 604
 SNP/CNV discovery, 360
 transgenics, 361
 virtue ethics, 599–600
 WWW resources, 611–612
- Animal breeding, 361
- Animal cell culture, 214
 advantages of, 222
 anti-viral vaccines, 223–225
 baculovirus production, 227–228
 cell growth, 217
 cell line, 216
 cell passage, 214–215
 cell viability, 218–219
 culture media, 219–221
 development of, 213
 disadvantages of, 222
 ethical issues, 223
 FBS use of, 223
 gene therapy, 227
 historical events in, 213t
in vitro maintenance, 214
 monolayer cultures, 214
 organ culture, 214
 organotypic and histotypic cultures, 214
 primary, 215–216
 advantages and disadvantages, 215–216
 anchorage-dependent/adherent cells, 216
 anchorage-independent/suspension cells,
 216
 quantitation, 215
 secondary, 216
 suspension cultures, 214
 3D structure reconstruction, 215
 translational significance, 223
 trypsin use, 214–215
 types, 214–216
 variety of research efforts, 212
 viral mutant formation, 228
 viral vaccines, 212
 WWW resources, 229
- Animal models, 573–574
- Animal rights, 601
- Animal vaccines, 492
- Animal welfare, 601–602, 604–605
 animal biotechnology, 605
 animal treatment by humans, 605–606
 freedoms, 605
 gene knockout technology, 606
 rDNA, 605
 technological application, 606
- Animal Welfare Act (AWA), 420
- ANOVA. *See* Analysis of variance
- Antennapedia (ANTP), 6
- Anthropocentrism, 598
- Anti-angiogenesis therapeutics, response to,
 205–206
- Anti-microbial assay, 567
- Anti-viral vaccines
 DNA technology, 223
 HBV, 223
 recombinant hepatitis B vaccines, 223t
 viral particle production, 223–224
 stages, 224
 VLPs, 224–225
- Antibodies, 265–266
 adverse effects, 272–274, 273t
 analytical applications, 275–276
 ethical issues, 283
 functions, 266
 hybridoma selection, 282–283, 283f
 immunoglobulins, 266
 structure elucidation, 267–268, 267f, 269f
 methodology, principles, and protocols,
 276–282
 preparative applications, 276
 therapeutic applications, 274–275, 275t
 Tiselius and Kabat's experiment, 266
 translational significance, 284
 WWW resources, 284
- Antibody (Ab), 473, 553
 class and function, 476t
 drugs by FDA, 482t
 ethical issues, 487
 immunodiagnostics, 474–487, 488t
 production, 265–266
 titration, 277, 281–282, 282f
 translational significance, 487–488
 WWW resources, 488
- Antibody Constructs, 485
- Antibody Directed Enzyme Prodrug Therapy
 (ADEPT), 274–275
- Antibody-dependent cell-mediated cytotoxicity
 (ADCC), 480
- Anticipation, 582
- Antigen (Ag), 474–475, 553
 determinants, 474
 epitopes, 497
 molecules, 497
 preparation, 277
- Antigen binding fragment. *See* Fragment
 antigen binding (Fab)
- Antigen-presenting cells (APC), 493–494, 512
- Antigenic determinants, 511
- Antioxidant capacity, 184
- Antiretroviral drugs, 164–165, 165t
 assays, 168–169
- Antiretroviral Treatment (ART), 164
- Antisense oligonucleotide (AS-ODN),
 114–115
- Antiserum, 272
- ANTP. *See* Antennapedia
- AP-1. *See* Activator Protein-1
- APC. *See* Adenoma polyposis coli; Antigen-
 presenting cells
- APHA. *See* American Public Health
 Association
- APP. *See* Amyloid precursor protein
- Applied ethics, 597, 599
- Approach cycle, 251

- Aquaculture, 552
 chromosome manipulation, 545–548
 fish culture, 545
 gametes cryopreservation, 549
 gene transfer methods, 545
 nanotechnology application, 550–551
 sex reversal, 548–549
 transgenic fish technology, 545
- AR. *See* Androgen receptor
- Ara-C. *See* Arabinosyl cytosine
- Arabidopsis, 583
- Arabinosyl cytosine (Ara-C), 556
- ARACNE, 388
- ARDRA. *See* Amplified ribosomal DNA restriction analysis
- Area under the curve (AUC), 25–26
- Array-comparative genomic hybridization (aCGH), 459, 461, 461f
- Arsenic, 60–61
- ART. *See* Antiretroviral Treatment; Assisted reproductive technology
- Arthropods, 544
- Artificial cerebrospinal fluid (ACSF), 316
- Artificial insemination (AI), 601–602
- Aryl hydrocarbon receptor (AHR), 78
- AS-ODN. *See* Antisense oligonucleotide
- AS-PCR. *See* Allele-specific PCR
- ASAC. *See* All-Steps-All-Combinations
- ASC. *See* Atypical Squamous Cell
- ASCs. *See* Adult stem cells
- ASCUS. *See* Atypical squamous cells of undetermined significance
- ASO. *See* Allele-specific oligonucleotide
- Aspirin, 370
- Assisted reproductive technology (ART), 604
- Association for Assessment and Accreditation of Laboratory Animal Care (AAALAC), 301, 420
- Astrocytes, 51
- Asymmetric stem cell division, 430f
- AT. *See* Adenine/thymidine
- Atlantic cod (*Gadus morhua*), 295
- Atlantic Ocean, 542
- Atomic Force Microscope (AFM), 248–250
 advantage, 250
 applications, 251
 force mapping mode, 251, 251f
 force spectroscopy mode, 251
 imaging capabilities of, 250
 operating principle of, 250f
 orthopoxvirus in animals, 256
 probe, 250
 protocol for, 251, 252f
 Raman confocal hybrid systems, 254–255
- ATP. *See* Adenosine triphosphate
- ATP-binding cassette (ABC), 434
- Attenuated bacteria, 500
- Atypical glandular cells of undetermined significance (AGUS), 103
- Atypical Squamous Cell (ASC), 103
- Atypical squamous cells of undetermined significance (ASCUS), 103
- AUC. *See* Area under the curve
- Autographa California* nucleopolyhedroviruses (AcMNPV), 228
- Automated capillary sequencing, 338
- Automated ribotyping, 335
- Autonomous retrotransposons, 584
- Autonomous transposons, 583
- Autonomy, 110, 600
- Autopap, 108
- Autosomal dominant trait, 465
- Autosomal recessive disorders, 465
- Autosomes, 453–454
- Avascular tumor growth, 389–390
- AVMA. *See* American Veterinary Medical Association
- AWA. *See* Animal Welfare Act
- Ayurvedic drugs, 565
- 5-Aza-2-deoxycytidine, 67–68
- 5-azacytidine, 61, 67–68
- AZF. *See* Azoospermia
- Azido group, 164
- 2,2-azobis-3-ethylbenzthiazoline-6-sulfonic acid (ABTS), 184
- Azidothymidine (Azt), 157
- 8-azoguanine (8-AG), 282–283
- Azoospermia (AZF), 293
- Azt. *See* Azidothymidine
- A β . *See* Amyloid β
- B**
- B-cell receptor (BCR), 132
- Baby hamster kidney (BHK), 228
- BAC. *See* Bacterial artificial chromosome
- Bacillus thuringiensis*, 510
- Bacterial artificial chromosome (BAC), 134, 357–358, 551–552, 578
- Bacterial loading, 31, 33f
- Bacterial products, 502–503
- Bacterial systematics
 genotypic typing methods, 331
 phenotypic typing methods, 330–331
 sources of information, 329–330
- Bacterial taxonomy, 328–329
- BAL. *See* Bioartificial liver
- Bam A. *See* BamHI A region
- BamHI A region (Bam A), 132
- BamHI A rightward transcripts (BARTs), 132
- Barrett's esophagus, 62
- BARTs. *See* BamHI A rightward transcripts
- Bayesian network analysis, 389
- BBB. *See* Blood-brain barrier
- BCR. *See* B-cell receptor
- BCRP1 marker. *See* ABCG2 marker
- BDNF. *See* Brain-derived neurotrophic factor
- Beef cattle selection, 360–361
- Beneficence, 600
- Berlin Man, 172
- Betaine homocysteine-S-methyltransferase (BHMT), 63
- Bethesda System, 102–103
- BHK. *See* Baby hamster kidney
- BHMT. *See* Betaine homocysteine-S-methyltransferase
- Bi-thorax complex (BX-C), 6–7
- Bicoid, 6
- “Big data” problem, 68
- Bio-encapsulated feeds, 550
- Bio-Safety Level-3 (BSL-3), 167
- Bioactive compounds
 GC/MS, 569
 HPLC, 568
 LC/MS, 568–569
 natural product materials, 568
 NMR, 569
 thin-layer chromatography, 567–568
- Bioartificial liver (BAL), 202
- Biochemical
 markers, 290
 networks, 389
- Biocompatibility, 235–237
- Bioinformatics
 in animal biotechnology, 386–387
 enrichment tools, 387
 and systems biology, 387
- Bioinformatics Resource Centers (BRCs), 401
- Biological assays, 567
- Biomolecular display technologies, 373, 375
 display module in, 373f
 ethical issues, 380
 illustration and comparison, 374f
 mRNA display, 377
 phage display, 373–375
 ribosome display, 376–377
 shortcomings, 377–378
 therapeutic peptides, 381t
 translational significance, 380
- Biomolecules, 532
- Biopanning, 375, 484–485
- Biopesticides, 227
 baculovirus production, 227–228
 cell lines for, 228
 DIP mutations, 228
 factors, 228
in vitro production process, 227–228
 insect baculovirus–cell system, 228
 viral mutant formation, 228
- Biopharm animals, 609
- Biopharming. *See* Animal biopharming
- Biopsy, 107
- Bioreactors, 235
- Biotechnology, 363, 386, 545, 598
 religious intrinsic critique, 603–604
 secular intrinsic objections to, 604
- BIS. *See* Bureau of Indian Standards
- Bispecific antibodies, 486–487
- Bivalves, 543–544
- BK virus (BKV), 128
- BL cells. *See* Burkitt lymphoma cells
- Black Tea, 186
- Blackwith-Wiedemann syndrome (BWS), 60
- Blastocyst, 426, 431–432
- Blastomas, 97
- Blood typing reagent, 479
- Blood vessels, 241
- Blood-brain barrier (BBB), 172
- Blue biotechnology, 559
- Blue fluorescent protein (EBFP), 557–558
- BMS. *See* Bristol Meyers Squibb
- BMT. *See* Bone marrow transplantation
- Body cavity lymphoma. *See* Primary Effusion Lymphoma (PEL)
- Bone marrow transplantation (BMT), 130–131
- Bone tissue, 240

- Bottom-up approach, 249–250. *See also*
Top-down approach
- Bovine articular cartilage, 256
- Bovine serum albumin (BSA), 488
- bovine somatotropin (bST), 606
- Bovine spongiform encephalopathy (BSE), 609
- Brain, 308
- Brain cancer, 61
- Brain-derived neurotrophic factor (BDNF), 435
- BRCs. *See* Bioinformatics Resource Centers
- BrdU. *See* Bromo-deoxy-uridine
- Breast cancer, 61
- Bristol Meyers Squibb (BMS), 166–167
- Brittle stars, 544
- Broad-range PCR ribotyping, 337
- Broiler poultry, 605
- Bromo-deoxy-uridine (BrdU), 203, 436
- Bryostatins, 556
- BSA. *See* Bovine serum albumin
- BSE. *See* Bovine spongiform encephalopathy
- BSL-3. *See* Bio-Safety Level-3
- bST. *See* bovine somatotropin
- Buddhism, 603–604
- Bugula neritina*, 556
- Bureau of Indian Standards (BIS), 526
- Burkitt lymphoma cells (BL cells), 130–131, 133
- BWS. *See* Blackwith-Wiedemann syndrome
- BX-C. *See* Bi-thorax complex
- C**
- c-Myc gene, 79
- C9orf72* gene, 44
- CA. *See* Capsid protein
- Cadmium exposure, 60–61
- CAH. *See* Congenital Adrenal Hyperplasia
- CAID. *See* Community Acquired Immuno
Dysfunction
- CALCA. *See* Calcitonin
- Calcitonin (CALCA), 590
- Calcium oxalate (CaOx), 15
- California Institute of Regenerative Medicine
(CIRM), 446
- Callus cultures, 570
- Caloric Restriction theory (CR theory), 180–181
- Calorie-restricted monkeys, 180–181
- CAM. *See* Cell adhesion molecule
- Camellia sinensis* (*C. sinensis*), 185–186
- Campylobacter jejuni*, 528
- Canadian Council on Animal Care (CCAC),
301–302
- Canadian Institutes of Health Research (CIHR),
301–302
- Cancer, 58, 96
- cervical cancer, 99–101
- classification, 96–98, 103–104
- continuum models, 393
- development, 96
- diagnostic applications in, 480
- discrete models, 393
- hybrid models, 393–394
- in silico* models, 392–394
- research, 361–362
- staging, 97–98
- therapeutic applications in, 480–481
- Cancer Genetic Markers of Susceptibility
(CGEMS), 589
- Cancer stem cells (CSC), 115, 426
- cancer stem cell targeting, 439f
- cell surface CD markers, 438–439, 439t
- embryonal rest theory, 438
- isolation, 434f
- teratocarcinomas, 438
- Cancer-causing agents, 98
- chemicals, 98–99
- oncogenic viruses, 98, 98t
- radiation, 99
- CaOx. *See* Calcium oxalate
- Capsid protein (CA), 161
- Capsomeres, 105
- Captive rearing technology, 550
- Carbonyl group content, 183
- Carcinogenesis, 122
- Carcinoma, 96–97
- Carcinoma *in situ* (CIS), 102
- CARD. *See* Catalyzed reported deposition
- CARD Fish, 340
- Cartagena Protocol on biosafety, 53
- Caseous necrosis, 23
- Catalyzed reported deposition (CARD), 340
- Catholic Church, 604
- Cattle genome, 357–358
- Cattle model, 28. *See also* Guinea pig models
- Causation mistaken theories, 100–101
- CBER-OCTGT. *See* Center for Biologics
Evaluation and Research, Office of
Cellular, Tissue, and Gene Therapies
- CCAC. *See* Canadian Council on Animal Care
- CCD. *See* Charge-coupled device
- CCR5. *See* Chemokines receptors
- CD. *See* Cluster of differentiation
- CD133 marker, 434
- CD34 marker, 434
- CDC. *See* Centers for Disease Control and
Prevention
- CDI. *See* Cumulative disease index
- CDK. *See* Cyclin-dependent kinase
- Cdkn2a* gene, 63
- CDMS. *See* Clinically definite MS
- cDNA. *See* complementary DNA
- CDR. *See* Complementarity determining region
- Cell adhesion molecule (CAM), 235–237
- Cell growth monitoring, 217–218
- cell culture characteristics, 218
- Cell line, 217t
- advantages of, 216
- for biopesticide production, 228
- characterization of, 221–222
- finite cell lines, 216
- indefinite cell lines, 216
- therapeutic proteins production, 226t
- viral vaccine used, 224t
- Cell viability, 218
- cytotoxicity, 218–219
- dead cell, 219
- Hayflick's phenomenon, 219
- LDH release, 219, 219f
- luminescent protease release assay, 219f
- MTT assay, 219f
- viability assays, 218f
- Cell-based therapy, 442
- Cell-cycle models, 389
- Cell-cycle regulators, 589
- Cell-mediated immunity (CMI), 25, 474–475
- Cell(s), 234–235, 391
- culture, 459
- death, 235
- passaging, 214–215
- Cellphone base stations, 599
- Cellular Senescence Theory, 179–180
- Cellular theories, 179–180. *See also* Molecular
theories
- Center for Biologics Evaluation and Research,
Office of Cellular, Tissue, and Gene
Therapies (CBER-OCTGT), 446
- Centers for Disease Control and Prevention
(CDC), 156, 158
- Central nervous system (CNS), 128, 139, 144,
172, 435
- Centromere, 453
- Cephalopods, 544
- Cephalothorax, 544
- Ceramics, 237
- Cervical cancer
- biological behavior of HPV infection, 100f
- causation mistaken theories, 100–101
- female pelvis anatomy, 99–100
- historical overview, 100
- noble prize for discovering HPV, 101
- prevalence and epidemiology
- cancer classification, 103–104
- global scenario, 101–102
- HPV, 104–109
- pre-cancer classification, 102–103
- risk factors for, 102, 102t
- symptoms, 102
- types, 102
- Cervical dysplasia, 102
- Cervical intraepithelial neoplasia (CIN), 100, 102
- Cervicography, 108
- CFA. *See* Complete Freund's adjuvant
- CFM. *See* Chemical Force Microscopy
- CFUs. *See* Colony-forming units
- CGD. *See* Chronic granulomatous disease
- CGEMS. *See* Cancer Genetic Markers of
Susceptibility
- CGH. *See* Comparative genomic hybridization
- CH. *See* Congenital hypothyroidism
- Chamomile tea, 186
- Characterized extract, 565
- Chargaff's rule, 462
- Charge-coupled device (CCD), 10–11
- Chemical Force Microscopy (CFM), 250–251
- Chemical screening, 567
- Chemically defined media, 221
- Chemo-labeled antibodies, 481
- Chemokines receptors (CCR5), 166
- Chicken RBCs (CRBC), 277
- Chimeras, 607–608
- Chimeric antibodies, 483
- Chimerism, 458
- Chinese hamster ovary (CHO), 228
- ChIP. *See* Chromatin immunoprecipitation
- ChIP DNA sequencing, 357
- Chip-based spheroid generation, 202–203

- ChIP-on-chip method, 64
 ChIP-seq, 66
 CHO. *See* Chinese hamster ovary
 Choice of Linkers, 481–483
 Cholera toxin B subunit (CTB subunit), 502–503
 Chordates, 544
 Chromatids, 453
 Chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP), 66, 357
 Chromogenic substrates, 529
 Chromosomal disorders
 aneuploidy, 455
 chromosome breakage syndrome, 458–459
 down syndrome, 455
 fragile sites, 458–459
 monosomy, 456
 polyploid cells, 456
 structural abnormalities, 456–457
 balanced translocation, 457f
 chimera and mosaic, 458
 deletion, 457, 457f
 down syndrome patient, 456f
 isochromosome, 457, 458f
 mosaicism, 458
 paracentric and pericentric inversion, 458f
 ring chromosome, 457f
 turner syndrome patient and karyotype, 456f
 trisomy, 455
 Chromosomal fragile sites, 458–459
 Chromosome, 451–453, 453f
 banding methods, 452–453
 breakage syndrome, 458–459
 genetic(s)
 component, 452
 and biochemistry, 452
 in medicine, 452
 laws of, 452
 medical genetics field, 452
 morphology and classification
 autosomes and sex chromosomes, 453–454
 centromere, 453
 chromosomes, 453, 453f
 descending order of size and position, 454t
 identical strands, 453
 karyotype, 454, 454f
 mitosis and meiosis, 453
 nomenclature, 454–455, 455t
 telomeres, 453
 transformation process, 452
 Chromosome 21, 578
 Chromosome manipulation, 545–546, 549
 androgenesis, 548, 548f
 gynogenesis, 547–548, 547f
 inducing process, 546f
 polyploidy, 546–547
 Chronic granulomatous disease (CGD), 225–226
 Chronic lymphocytic leukemia (CLL), 63, 97, 480
 Chronic myelocytic leukemia (CML), 97
 CIA. *See* Collagen-induced arthritis
 CIHR. *See* Canadian Institutes of Health Research
 CII. *See* Collagen type II
 CIN. *See* Cervical intraepithelial neoplasia
 Cinnamon tea, 186
 CIRM. *See* California Institute of Regenerative Medicine
 CIS. *See* Carcinoma *in situ*
 CKC. *See* Cold-knife conization
 Cladistic approach, 328
 Clams (*Macoma*, *Mercenaria*), 543–544
 Class Bivalvia. *See* Bivalves
 Class Cephalopoda. *See* Cephalopods
 Class Gastropoda. *See* Gastropods
 Clawless spiny lobster (*Panulirus*), 544
 Clinical diagnostic testing, 466
 Clinically definite MS (CDMS), 145–146
 CLL. *See* Chronic lymphocytic leukemia
 Clone-FISH technique, 339
 Clones
 expansion, 280
 selection, 280
 Cloves tea, 186
 Cluster of differentiation (CD), 438–439
 CMI. *See* Cell-mediated immunity
 CML. *See* Chronic myelocytic leukemia
 CN. *See* Copy number
 Cnidocysts. *See* Nematocysts
 CNS. *See* Central nervous system
 CNV. *See* Copy number variation
 CO. *See* Cytochrome oxidase
 COBRA. *See* Combined bisulfate restriction analysis
 Cold-knife conization (CKC), 111
 Collagen type II (CII), 143
 Collagen-induced arthritis (CIA), 142
 Colloidal metal nanoparticles, 532
 Colony-forming units (CFUs), 25
 Colorectal cancer, 61–62
 Colorimetric detection
 E. coli, 535
 ETEC gene, 535–536
 UV-Vis spectra, 536f
 Colposcopy, 107
 Column-based kit, 316
 Combined bisulfate restriction analysis (COBRA), 66
 Commercial bio-products
 amino acid sequences, 557t
 Ara-C, 556
 enzyme inhibitors, 556
 in marine biotechnology, 556–557
 Community Acquired Immuno Dysfunction (CAID), 156–157
 Comparative genomic hybridization (CGH), 461
 Comparative Genomics, 590
 Complementarity determining region (CDR), 274, 475, 483
 complementary DNA (cDNA), 163–164
 Complementary medicine, 565
 Complete Freund's adjuvant (CFA), 142–143
 Complete Genomics, 352–353
 Complex diseases, 577–578
 Conalbumin, 517
 Concerns over animal biotechnology, 598
 Cone snails, 556
 Confidentiality, 601
 Confocal Raman Spectroscopy (CRS), 253–254
 Congenic strains, 76–77
 Congenital Adrenal Hyperplasia (CAH), 468
 Congenital hypothyroidism (CH), 467
 Conjugate vaccines, 498, 498f
 Conopeptides, 556
 Conotoxins, 556
 Consequentialist ethics, 600
 Consomic strains, 76–77
 Continuum models, 393
Conus peptides, 556
 Conventional ribotyping, 333, 334f
 Conventional techniques, 528–529
 Copaxone®. *See* Glatiramer acetate
 Copy number (CN), 360
 Copy number variation (CNV), 360
 Cord blood, 445
 Core-like particle (CPL), 224
Corynebacterium diphtheriae (*C. diphtheriae*), 274
 Cortisol-binding protein. *See* Transcortin
 COX-2. *See* Cyclooxygenase-2
 CPE. *See* Cytopathic effect
 CpG islands, 583
 CPL. *See* Core-like particle
 CR theory. *See* Caloric Restriction theory
 CRBC. *See* Chicken RBCs
 Cre recombinase, 46–47
 CRE-Lox recombinase system, 75
 Cre-loxP system, 46–47, 47f
 Cre/Lox system, 80f
 Cre-recombinase enzyme, 80
 gene expression, 80
 human colorectal cancers, 80
 CRS. *See* Confocal Raman Spectroscopy
 Crustaceans. *See* Transgenic fish
 Cryopreservation, 549
 Cryoprotectants, 549
 Cryotherapy, 110
 CSC. *See* Cancer stem cells
 CTB subunit. *See* Cholera toxin B subunit
 CTCL. *See* Cutaneous T-cell lymphoma
 CTL. *See* Cytotoxic T lymphocytes
 CTL cells. *See* Cytotoxic T cells
 Cultivable animals
 disease diagnosis, 552
 DNA-based diagnosis, 554
 oyster, 554
 shrimp, 554
 immunodiagnostics, 552
 enzyme immunoassay, 552–553
 latex agglutination test, 553
 monoclonal antibodies, 553–554
 Culture media, 219
 artificial media, 220
 chemically defined media, 221
 components, 220
 natural media, 220
 protein-free media, 221
 serum, 221
 serum-free media, 221
 advantages of, 221
 disadvantages of, 221
 Culture-based methods, 528–529
 Cumulative disease index (CDI), 147
 Cutaneous T-cell lymphoma (CTCL), 480
 Cuttlefish ink, 555

Cuttlefishes (*Sepia*), 544, 555
 Cyan fluorescent protein (ECFP), 557–558
 Cyclin-dependent kinase (CDK), 389
 Cyclo-(L-Pro-L-Phe), 555
 Cyclooxygenase-2 (COX-2), 62
 Cyp-450. *See* Cytochrome P450
 Cytidine deaminase, 62
 Cytochrome oxidase (CO), 529
 Cytochrome P450 (Cyp-450), 89, 182
 Cytogenetics, 452–453, 459
 Cytopathic effect (CPE), 123–125, 222
 Cytosar-UP, 556
 Cytosine, 462
 Cytotoxic T cells (CTL cells), 493–494, 499
 Cytotoxic T lymphocytes (CTL), 206–207
 Cytotoxicity, 218

D

Dark-staining regions (G-dark regions), 459
 Data storage and processing technology, 64–65
 Data-driven modeling approaches, 389
 DBT. *See* Department of Biotechnology
 DCs. *See* Dendritic cells
 DCV staining, 440
 ddNTPs. *See* dideoxy nucleotides
De novo assembly, 353
De novo pathway, 282
 De-differentiation, 429–430
 Dead cell, 219
 Declaration of Helsinki, 610
 Deductive models, 390
 2-DG. *See* 2-deoxy-D-glucose
 Dehydroepiandrosterone, 180
 Delayed apoptosis, 203–204
 Delayed type hypersensitivity (DTH), 26
 Δ32 deletion, 172
 Demyelination, 146
 Dendritic cells (DCs), 512
 Deontological ethics, 600
 2-deoxy-D-glucose (2-DG), 204
 deoxynucleoside triphosphate (dNTP), 348
 Deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA), 8–9, 462
 chemical components, 462
 chromosome, 463
 cytometry, 108
 DMD and alpha thalassemia, 464f
 double helix structure, 463, 463f
 dynamic mutations, 465
 fragments, 467–468
 frameshift mutation, 464–465, 464f
 genetic disorders, 465
 genetic polymorphism, 465
 human gene structure, 463f
 immunization, 500
 insertion, 465, 465f
 introns, 463
 methylation, 58–59
 missense mutation, 464, 464f
 modifying genes, 463
 molecule, 462–463
 mutation, 464
 nano-vaccines, 550–551
 non-sense mutation, 464, 464f
 non-synonymous mutation, 464
 polynucleotide strand, 463

sequencing, 346, 468, 577–578
 technologies generation, 346–347
 timeline of, 347f
 stop codons, 463
 synonymous mutation, 464
 transposons, 584
 tumor virus infection, 122–123, 123f
 vaccines, 498, 499f
 advantages, 500
 construction, 498–499
 disadvantages, 500
 future of, 500
 mechanisms, 499, 500f
 steps in development, 499f
 Deoxyribose sugar, 462
 Department of Biotechnology (DBT), 445–446
 DES. *See* Diethylstilbestrol
 Diabetes, 240
 Diabody, 485
 Dicer, 581
 dideoxy nucleotides (ddNTPs), 347, 468
 Dietary supplementation, 548
 Diethylstilbestrol (DES), 98–99
 Digital transcriptome subtraction (DTS), 128
 2,4-dinitrophenylhydrazine (DNPH), 183
 Dinucleotide CpG, 583
 Dinucleotides (dNTPs), 468
 1,2-dimethylhydrazine (DMH), 61–62
 1,1-diphenyl-2-picrylhydrazyl free radical (DPPH·), 184
 Diphtheria bacteria, 492
 DIPs-defective interfering particles, 228
 Direct detection methods, 531
 Direct RNA Sequencing (DRS™), 357
 Discrete models, 393
 Disease-modifying anti-rheumatic drug (DMARD), 141–142
 Disease-related genes, 588–589
 Disposable Soma Theory of aging, 178–179
 disulfide-linked variable fragment (dsFv), 473, 485
 DMARD. *See* Disease-modifying anti-rheumatic drug
 DMD. *See* Duchenne Muscular Dystrophy
 DMH. *See* 1,2-dimethylhydrazine
 DNA. *See* Deoxyribonucleic acid
 DNA methyl transferases (DNMTs), 60
 DNA-based diagnosis, 554
 oyster, 554
 shrimp, 554
 DNA-based markers, 578, 586
 DNA-binding domain, 115
 DNMTs. *See* DNA methyl transferases
 DNPH. *See* 2,4-dinitrophenylhydrazine
 dNTP. *See* deoxynucleoside triphosphate
 dNTPs. *See* Dinucleotides
 DOE. *See* United States Department of Energy
 Doogie mouse, 414
 Dopamine receptor, D1-α (DRD1), 590
 Dot blot technique, 317
 Dot immunobinding assay, 553
 dot-ELISA, 553
 Down syndrome, 452, 455
 Downey cells, 133

Downstream bioinformatics, 353
 de novo assembly, 353
 mapping, 353–354
 DPPH·. *See* 1,1-diphenyl-2-picrylhydrazyl free radical
 DRD1. *See* Dopamine receptor, D1-α
 Dried powdered plant, 568
Drosophila busckii (*D. busckii*), 8–9
Drosophila melanogaster (*D. melanogaster*), 3–4, 558
 biological processes, 9–10
 biotechnology research, 9
 culturing, 10
 development, 4
 DNA preparation for Injection, 11
 egg collection, 10
 eggs dechorination, 10–11
 embryogenesis in, 4–5
 ethical issues, 12–13
 fly disposal, 10
 food medium, 10
 genetic manipulation, 3–4
 genome, 7
 handling of flies, 10
 HIV pathology, 15
 homeotic genes in, 6–7
 human disease models, 13
 human metabolic disorders, 14–15
 human neurodegenerative diseases, 13–14
 life cycle, 4, 5f
 mutations, 9
 nephrolithiasis, 15
 pattern formation in, 5–6, 7f
 physical appearance, 4
 plant models, 7
 polytene chromosomes, 8–9
 protocol for germ-line transformation in, 11–12
 sex-limited trait, 7–8
 sex-linked inheritance, 8f
 species, 4
 therapeutic peptide production, 15–17
 translational significance, 13
 WWW resources, 17
 network resources, 16f
 physical resources, 17f
 DRS™. *See* Direct RNA Sequencing
 Drug discovery and development, 369–370, 566. *See also* Biomolecular display technology
 from natural resources, 566
 paradigm shift in, 370f
 principle, 370–371
 small molecule vs. biomolecular drugs, 371–372
 stages and timeline, 370–371
 therapeutics comparison, 372f
 Drug holiday, 166
 “Drug re-purposing” approach, 400–401
 Drug treatment protocol, 203
 dsFv. *See* disulfide-linked variable fragment
 DTaP vaccine, 492
 DTH. *See* Delayed type hypersensitivity
 DTS. *See* Digital transcriptome subtraction
 Duchenne Muscular Dystrophy (DMD), 466
 patient affected with, 469f

- Duty-based ethics. *See* Deontological ethics
Dwarf octopus (*Octopus joubini*), 544
Dye efflux property, 435–436, 435f
Dynamic mutations, 465
Dynamical systems theory, 385–386
Dystrophin, 579–580
- E**
e-infrastructure, 551–552
E6-associated protein (E6AP), 106
E6AP. *See* E6-associated protein
EAE. *See* Experimental allergic encephalomyelitis
EBER. *See* EBV-encoded RNA
EBFP. *See* Blue fluorescent protein
EBNA-LP protein, 131–132
EBNA1 DNA-binding protein, 131
EBNA3 family, 131
EBV. *See* Epstein–Barr virus; Estimated breeding value
EBV lymphoblastoid cell lines (EBV-LCLs), 134
EBV-encoded RNA (EBER), 132
EBV-LCLs. *See* EBV lymphoblastoid cell lines
ECFP. *See* Cyan fluorescent protein
ECG. *See* Epicatechin-3-gallate
Echinacea tea, 186
Echinoderms, 544
ECM. *See* Extracellular matrix
Ectodomain, 161
Edelman’s experiment, 268
Edible vaccines, 501–502
EDS. *See* Energy Dispersive Spectroscopy
EFSA. *See* European Food Safety Authority
EGCG. *See* Epigallocatechin-3-gallate
EGCs. *See* Embryonic germ cells
EGE. *See* European Group on Ethics
EGF. *See* Epidermal growth factor
EGFR. *See* Epidermal growth factor receptor
Egg collection, 10
Eggs dechorination, 10–11
EHEC. *See* Enterohemorrhagic *E. coli*
EIA. *See* Enzyme immunoassay
Electromagnetic radiation, 99
Electronic counting, 215
electronic Models Information, Communication, and Education (eMICE), 90
Electroporation, 545
Electrosurgical Excision (LEEP), 110
ELISA. *See* Enzyme-linked immunosorbant assay
ELS. *See* Essential life span
ELSI. *See* Ethical, legal, and social issues
Embryo development process, 426
Embryonal rest theory, 438
Embryonic germ cells (EGCs), 430, 432
Embryonic stem cells (ESC), 75, 78–79, 205, 241, 408, 430–432, 432t–433t, 610–611 markers, 433 transfer, 409–411, 411f
Embryos, 430
Embryonic stem cell identification, 433
EMEA. *See* European Medicines Agency
eMICE. *See* electronic Models Information, Communication, and Education
Encode Project, 590
Enderling’s earlier model, 389
Endogenous retrovirus (ERV), 584
Endoplasmic reticulum (ER), 225, 499
Energy Dispersive Spectroscopy (EDS), 249
Enterohemorrhagic *E. coli* (EHEC), 527–528, 534
Enterotoxigenic *Escherichia coli* (ETEC), 527–528
Env. *See* Envelope
Envelope (Env), 161
Environment Scanning Electron Microscope (ESEM), 249
Environmental concerns. *See also* Intrinsic concerns
ethical positions, 607
by transgenic technology, 607
Environmentally benign nature, 601
Enzyme immunoassay (EIA), 132–133, 552
dot immunobinding assay, 553
ELISA, 552–553, 553f
western blotting, 553
Enzyme inhibitors, 556
Enzyme-linked immunosorbant assay (ELISA), 149, 275–276, 488f, 552–553, 553f
(–)-epicatechin (EC), 187
Epicatechin-3-gallate (ECG), 187
Epidermal growth factor (EGF), 220, 226
Epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR), 486
(–)-epigallocatechin (EGC), 187
Epigallocatechin-3-gallate (EGCG), 187
Epigenetics, 57, 359, 584
applications, 61–64
arsenic, 60–61
biomarkers of exposure, 60
chromatin structure, 59
CpG in promoter, 60
DNA methylation, 58–59
DNMT activity, 60
ethical issues, 67
gene expression, 58f
gene imprinting, 60
genetic alterations, 58
histone analysis, 70f
histone octamer, 59
inhibitors, 68t
liver cancer patients, 59
MBP, 59
methodology, 64–65
methylation profiling, 69f
miRNAs, 59–60
MLL, 59
using mouse models, 61
protocols, 65–67
translational significance, 67–69
WWW resources, 69
Epigenome, 58
Epitopes. *See* Antigenic determinants
EPO. *See* European Patent Office
Epstein–Barr virus (EBV), 121–125
clinical symptoms and diagnosis, 132–134
entry into cell, 129–130
ethical issues, 135
genome structure, 129
latency, 130–131
latent genes, 131
lifecycle stages, 129f
lytic replication, 130
research methods and protocols, 134
translational significance, 135
WWW resources, 135–136
Equality, 601
ER. *See* Endoplasmic reticulum
eRAPANSY. *See* Evolutionary Rapid Panning Analysis System
ERBs. *See* Ethical review boards
ERV. *See* Endogenous retrovirus
ES cell. *See* Embryonic stem cell
ES cells. *See* Embryonic stem cells (ESC)
ESC. *See* Embryonic stem cells
ESCC. *See* Esophageal squamous cell carcinoma
ESEM. *See* Environment Scanning Electron Microscope
Esophageal cancer, 62
Esophageal squamous cell carcinoma (ESCC), 62
Essential life span (ELS), 178
EST. *See* Expressed sequence tag
Estimated breeding value (EBV), 361
ETEC. *See* Enterotoxigenic *Escherichia coli*
Ethical, legal, and social issues (ELSI), 589
Ethical review boards (ERBs), 610
Ethical theories, 597
Ethics, 598–599
Ethics, 305
committee constitution, 610
Ethos. *See* Ethics
Etoposide, 481
Euchromatin, 59, 459, 579
Eudaimonia, 599–600
European Commission, 611
European Food Safety Authority (EFSA), 606
European Group on Ethics (EGE), 300
European Medicines Agency (EMA), 609
European Patent Office (EPO), 419
Evolutionary Rapid Panning Analysis System (eRAPANSY), 378
Evolutionary research, 358–359
Evolutionary systematics. *See* Synthetic systematics
Evolutionary theories, 178–179
Experimental allergic encephalomyelitis (EAE), 139, 146
Expressed sequence tag (EST), 357–358, 586
Extensively drug resistant (XDR), 22
Extracellular matrix (ECM), 234
Extraction, 566–567
Extranodal lymphomas, 97
Extrinsic concerns. *See also* Environmental concerns
animal welfare, 604–606
human health, 606
precautionary principle, 607
by transgenic technology, 607
Extrinsic value, 601
- F**
FA. *See* Folic acid
Fab. *See* Fragment antigen binding
FACS. *See* Fluorescent associated cell sorting

- False building blocks, 164
 Familial disorders, 465
 FAO. *See* Food and Agriculture Organization
 Farm Animal Welfare Advisory Committee, 605
 Farm animals, 386
 FASD. *See* Fetal alcohol spectrum disorders
 FBS. *See* Fetal bovine serum
 FC. *See* Fecal coliforms
 Fc epsilon receptor 1 (FceR1), 512
 FCA. *See* Freund's Complete Adjuvant
 FceR1. *See* Fc epsilon receptor 1
 F-d curve. *See* Force-distance curve
 FDA. *See* Food and Drug Administration;
 U.S. Food and Drug Administration
 FDCA. *See* Food, Drug, and Cosmetic Act
 Fecal coliforms (FC), 527
 Fecal indicator bacteria (FIB), 526–527
 Fecal indicator organism detection
 using chromogenic substrates, 529
 conventional techniques, 528–529
 immunological methods, 529–530
 MF method, 529
 MPN method, 529
 pathogen detection methods, 529f
 substrate methods, 529
 Fecal wastes, 526
 Female triploids, 546
 Ferric Reducing Ability of Plasma (FRAP),
 184, 184f
 Fetal alcohol spectrum disorders (FASD), 322
 Fetal bovine serum (FBS), 87, 223
 Fetal tissue, 430
 FIA. *See* Freund's Incomplete Adjuvant
 FIB. *See* Fecal indicator bacteria
 Fiber bonding, 237–238
 FIGO system. *See* International Federation of
 Gynaecology and Obstetrics system
 FISH. *See* Fluorescence *in situ* hybridization
 (F)ISH procedure, 339
 Fish biotechnology, 545
 Flavonoids, 185, 186f
 Flow cytometry set-up, 440
 Fluid Force microscopy (FluidFM), 250, 252
 FluidFM. *See* Fluid Force microscopy
 Fluorescence *in situ* hybridization (FISH),
 459–460, 460f, 467, 530
 Fluorescence labeling, 531
 Fluorescence-based detection systems, 531
 Fluorescent associated cell sorting (FACS),
 275–276, 435–436
 Fluorescent dyes, 65–66
 Fluorescent protein imaging (FPI), 85–86
 5-fluorouracil (5-FU), 199
 Fly morgue, 10
 FOCM. *See* Folic acid one carbon metabolism
 Folic acid (FA), 61–62, 69
 Folic acid one carbon metabolism (FOCM), 69
 Food, Drug, and Cosmetic Act (FDCA), 420
 Food allergy, 511
 Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), 290,
 511
 Food chain contamination, 609
 Food protein-induced allergenicity mechanism,
 511–512
 Food proteins, 511–512
 Food-borne pathogens detection, 527–528
 Force mapping mode, 251
 Force spectroscopy mode, 251
 Force-distance curve (F-d curve), 251
 Foreign protein, 499
 454 sequencing, 348
 Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR),
 330
 4th generation sequencing technologies, 351
 DNA nanoball sequencing, 352–353
 nanopore sequencing, 351–352
 polony-based sequencing technology, 352
 Fp-few polyhedral, 228
 FPI. *See* Fluorescent protein imaging
 Fractional vaccines, 495
 Fragile X syndrome, 459, 485
 Fragment antigen binding (Fab), 268
 Frameshift mutation, 464–465, 464f
 FRAP. *See* Ferric Reducing Ability of Plasma
 Free Radical Theory of Aging (FRTA), 180
 Free radicals, 181
 Freemartinism, 299
 Freeze drying, 240
 Freund's Complete Adjuvant (FCA), 277, 487
 Freund's Incomplete Adjuvant (FIA), 277, 487
 Frontotemporal lobar degeneration (FTLD), 40
 FRTA. *See* Free Radical Theory of Aging
 Fruit fly study (*Drosophila melanogaster*), 452
 FTIR. *See* Fourier transform infrared
 spectroscopy
 FTLD. *See* Frontotemporal lobar degeneration
 5-FU. *See* 5-fluorouracil
 Functional peptide aptamers. *See also*
 Biomolecular display technologies
 eRAPANSY, 378
 PLM, 378, 380f
 ASAC and selection, 378–379
 method for *in vitro* evolution, 379f
 p&p, 379–380
 YLBS and selection, 378
 shortcomings for drug discovery, 377–378
 Fused deposition modeling, 239
 Fused in sarcoma (FUS), 43–44
 Fusion of cells, 280
- G**
 G-dark regions. *See* Dark-staining regions
 G-light regions. *See* Light-staining regions
 GABA. *See* Gamma-amino-butyric acid
 Gag. *See* Group Specific Antigen
 GAIN. *See* Genetic Association Information
 Network
Galleria mellonella nucleopolyhedroviruses
 (GmMNPV), 228
 Gamma-amino-butyric acid (GABA), 320
 GAP. *See* Great Ape Project
 Gas chromatography/mass spectrometry
 (GC/MS), 569
 Gas foaming, 239
 Gastric cancer, 62
 Gastrointestinal tract (GI tract), 511
 Gastropods, 543
 Gastrulation, 4–5
 GATU. *See* Genome Annotation Transfer
 Utility
 Gay Compromise Syndrome (GCS), 156–157
 Gay Related Immune Deficiency (GRID),
 156–157
 GC-rich regions, 579–580
 GC/MS. *See* Gas chromatography/mass
 spectrometry
 GCP. *See* Good clinical practice
 GCS. *See* Gay Compromise Syndrome
 GCs. *See* Germinal centers
 Gel electrophoresis, 292
 GEM. *See* Genetically engineered mouse
 GenBank®, 322
 Gene, 463
 delivery, 551
 discovery, 290–291
 imprinting, 60
 knockout technology, 606
 transfer methods, 545
 Gene content, 579
 biological insights, 582
 CpG islands, 583
 DNA transposons, 584
 dystrophin, 579–580
 ensemble database version 68. 37, 580t
 epigenetic mechanisms, 584
 genes and diseases, 582
 goals of HGP, 586
 LINE, 584
 long-range variation, 582–583
 LTR retrotransposons, 584
 miRNAs, 581
 mitochondrial genome, 585
 mobile elements, 583t
 mtDNA, 585–586
 non-coding genes, 580
 non-coding RNA types, 582t
 polygenic disorders, 582
 protein-coding genes, 579
 pseudogenes, 584–585
 repeat content, 583
 rRNAs, 581
 segmental duplications, 585
 SINE, 584
 small nuclear RNAs, 581
 snoRNAs, 581
 snRNAs, 581
 SSRs, 585
 structure of chromosomes, 582
 transposable element-derived repeats, 583
 tRNAs, 581
 X chromosome, 579
 Gene expression, 308
 ethical issues, 321
 hypothalamic orexin system, 321
 mRNA expression profiling, 321–322
 mRNA quantitation, 310–312
 principles, 308–310
 prolonged upregulation of, 320–321
 protein quantitation, 312–316
 protocols, 316
 mRNA and protein quantitation, 316–318
 semi-quantitative immunohistochemistry,
 319–320
 single-cell RT-PCR, 318–319
 Western blot technique, 316

- quantitative analysis of, 307–308
 quantitative real-time PCR, 309f
 translational significance, 322
 WWW resources, 322–323
- Gene Knockdown, 412
- Gene regulation theory of aging, 179
- Gene therapy, 227
 method testing, 444
- Gene-Ontology (GO), 387
- GeneNetWeaver tool (GNW tool), 390
- Generation, 346
- Genetic
 biomarkers, 299–300
 code, 463
 diseases, 577–578
 disorders, 362, 465
 engineering methods, 510
 heterogeneity, 465
 monitoring, 298
 polymorphism, 465
 signature sequences, 530
- Genetic Association Information Network (GAIN), 589
- Genetic disorder diagnosis
 CGH and aCGH, 461, 461f
 chromosomes and karyotyping identification, 459–460
 cytogenetic and molecular techniques, 459
 electropherogram, 469f–470f
 ethical issues, 470–471
 FISH, 460, 460f
 human lymphocyte culture, 459f
 MLPA picture, 470f
 molecular diagnostic technologies, 466–469
 multiplex PCR amplification, 469f
 patient affected with DMD, 469f
 principle, 462
 SKY and M-FISH, 460–461, 461f
 translational significance, 471
 WWW resources, 471
- Genetic Information Non-Discrimination Act (GINA), 589
- Genetically engineered mouse (GEM), 73–75
 breast cancers, 79
 gastrointestinal cancer, 79–80
 homologous recombination, 78–79
 in immunocompetent mice, 79f
 knock in models of cancer, 79
- Genetically engineered vaccines, 497
- Genetically modified crops (GM crops), 510
 accumulated hectare, 510
 allergenicity, 511
 allergens, 511
 ethical issues, 521–522
 food allergens stability, 513t
 food protein-induced allergenicity mechanism, 511–512
 safety assessment and regulation, 510–511
 SGF assay, 512–516
 simulated intestinal fluid assay, 516–518
 translational significance, 522
 WWW resources, 522
- Genome Annotation Transfer Utility (GATU), 401
- Genome of interest (GoI), 388
- Genome-wide association studies (GWAS), 361–362, 589–590
- Genome-wide gene expression analysis, 199
- Genomic information, 329–330
- Genomic variability, 360
- Genomics, 386, 470
- Genotype, 463
- Genotypic typing methods, 331
- GEObs. *See* Global Ethics Observatory
- Germ stem cells (GSCs), 436–437
- Germ-line transformation, 11–12
- Germinal centers (GCs), 493–494
- GFP. *See* Green fluorescence protein
- GI tract. *See* Gastrointestinal tract
- Giant clam (*Tridacna*), 543–544
- Giant squid (*Architeuthis*), 544
- Giemsa banding, 459
- Giemsa reagent, 459
- GINA. *See* Genetic Information Non-Discrimination Act
- Ginger tea, 186–187. *See also* Peppermint tea
- Ginkgo tea, 187
- Ginseng tea, 187
- Glass-Col apparatus, 31f
- Glatiramer acetate, 146
- Glaxo-SmithKline (GSK), 112
- Gliososis, 51
- Global Ethics Observatory (GEObs), 611
- Global marine aquarium trade, 549t
- GLP. *See* Good laboratory practices
- Glycophorin A (GPA), 435
- Glycoprotein gp120, 161
- GM crops. *See* Genetically modified crops
- GM foods, allergenicity assessment, 511
- GM-CSF. *See* Granulocyte macrophage colony stimulating factor
- GmMNPV. *See* *Galleria mellonella* nucleopolyhedroviruses
- GMP. *See* Guanosine monophosphate
- GNPs. *See* Gold nanoparticles
- GNW tool. *See* GeneNetWeaver tool
- GO. *See* Gene-Ontology
- GoI. *See* Genome of interest
- Gold nanoparticles (GNPs), 525–526, 532, 535
 high surface-to-volume ratio, 532
 rich surface chemistry, 532
 synthesis, 533–534, 534f
 with thiol-modified DNA functionalization, 534
- Golgi complex, 164
- Gompertz function, 197–198
- Gonadal ridge, 432
- Good clinical practice (GCP), 445–446
- Good laboratory practices (GLP), 445–446
- GPA. *See* Glycophorin A
- Granulocyte macrophage colony stimulating factor (GM-CSF), 141
- Granulomas, 23
- Great Ape Project (GAP), 301
- Green fluorescence protein (GFP), 414, 554–555, 557
D. melanogaster, 558
 marine by-products, 558t
 mutants of, 557–558
- Green tea, 186. *See also* Black Tea
 in aging and neurodegenerative diseases, 188
 molecular mechanisms, 187–188
- GRID. *See* Gay Related Immune Deficiency
- Group Specific Antigen (Gag), 161
- Growth cycle, 217
 characteristic growth pattern
 lag phase, 217
 log phase, 217
 plateau phase, 217
- GSCs. *See* Germ stem cells
- GSK. *See* Glaxo-SmithKline
- Guanine, 462
- Guanosine monophosphate (GMP), 179
- Guinea pig models
 immunologic reagents for, 26
 TB transmission, 26
- GWAS. *See* Genome-wide association studies
- Gynogenesis, 547–548, 547f
- ## H
- H-strand, 585
- H₃PO₄. *See* Phosphoric acid
- HAART. *See* Highly Active Antiretroviral Treatment
- HACA response. *See* Human anti-chimeric antibody response
- HAD. *See* HIV-associated dementia
- hADSCs. *See* human adipose-derived stem cells
- Haemophilus influenzae* A (HiA), 497
- Haemophilus influenzae* genome, 587
- Haemophilus influenzae* type b vaccines (Hib vaccines), 492
- Haemophilus influenzae* strain Rd, 333–334
in silico analysis, 334–335
- HAHA response. *See* Human anti-humanized antibody response
- HAMA. *See* Human anti-mouse antibody
- HAMA response. *See* Human anti-mono-clonal antibody response
- Hanging-drop method, 200–201
- Hank's-buffered saline solution (HBBS), 87
- Haplosporidium nelsoni*, 554
- HaSNPV. *See* *Helicoverpa armigera* nucleopolyhedroviruses
- HAT. *See* Hypoxanthine, Aminopterin, and Thymidine
- Hayflick limit, 429
- Hayflick's phenomenon, 219
- Hazelnut allergens, 517–518
- HBBS. *See* Hank's-buffered saline solution
- HBcAg. *See* Hepatitis B core antigen
- HBeAg. *See* Hepatitis B early antigen
- HBsAg. *See* Hepatitis B surface antigen
- HBV. *See* Hepatitis B virus
- HC. *See* Hemorrhagic colitis
- HCC. *See* Hepatocellular carcinoma; Human hepatocellular carcinoma
- HCG. *See* Human chorionic gonadotropin
- HCT/Ps. *See* Human cells, tissues, and cellular and tissue-based products
- HCV. *See* Hepatitis C virus
- HD. *See* Huntington's disease
- HDMs. *See* Histone demethylases

- Head and neck squamous cell carcinoma (HNSCC), 62
- Head cancer, 62
- Heat shock protein 27 (HSP27), 205
- Heat treatment, 518–519
- Heat-labile enterotoxin (LTI), 527–528
- Hedgehog* gene, 9
- HEK. *See* Human embryonic kidney
- HeLa. *See* Henrietta Lacks
- Helicobacter pylori* (*H. pylori*), 62
- Helicos biosciences, 350
- Helicoverpa armigera* nucleopolyhedroviruses (HaSNPV), 228
- Hemagglutination, 277, 281
- Hematopoietic stem cells (HSCs), 434
cord blood and, 445
markers, 434
- Hemocytometer, 215
- Hemolytic-uremic syndrome (HUS), 534
- Hemorrhagic colitis (HC), 534
- Henrietta Lacks (HeLa), 199–200
- Hepatitis B core antigen (HBcAg), 127–128
- Hepatitis B early antigen (HBeAg), 127–128
- Hepatitis B surface antigen (HBsAg), 127–128, 497
- Hepatitis B vaccines, 497
- Hepatitis B virus (HBV), 121–125, 223
inflammatory disease of liver, 127
non-HCC tissues, 128
viral cause, 127–128
- Hepatitis C virus (HCV), 121–122, 127, 377
- Hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC), 63
- Hepatocytes, 235, 236f
- HER2. *See* Human epidermal growth factor receptor
- Herbal drug production, biotechnological approaches for
callus cultures, 570
high-value bioactive compounds, 569
neem organogenesis, 570f
organ cultures, 569–570
suspension cultures, 570
- Herbal medicines, 563–564, 564f
ancient system, 565
ethical issues, 573
using *Lantana camara* L., 570–571
medicinal plants investigation, 565–569
opportunities and challenges, 571–573
pharmaceuticals, 564
traditional medicine, 564–565
translational significance, 573–574
WWW resources, 574
- Herceptin, 83
- Herpes viruses, 101
- hES. *See* Human embryonic stem cells (hESCs)
- hESCs. *See* Human embryonic stem cells
- Heterochromatin, 59, 459, 579
- HGP. *See* Human Genome Project
- HGPRT. *See* Hypoxanthine-guanine phosphoribosyl transferase
- HGSIL. *See* High-grade squamous intraepithelial lesions
- hHeps. *See* human hepatocytes
- HHV-6. *See* Human herpes virus 6
- HiA. *See* Haemophilus influenzae A
- Hib vaccines. *See* Haemophilus influenzae type b vaccines
- High Squamous Intraepithelial Lesions (HSIL), 103
- High-grade squamous intraepithelial lesions (HGSIL), 111
- High-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC), 567–568
- High-pressure liquid chromatography. *See* High-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC)
- High-temperature requirement protein A2 (HTRA2), 13–14
- Highly Active Antiretroviral Treatment (HAART), 165
- Hinduism, 603–604
- Histidine-proline-glutamine (HPQ), 377
- Histocompatibility complex (HLA), 150
- Histocompatibility testing, 467
- Histone analysis, 70f
- “Histone code” hypothesis, 59
- Histone deacetylase inhibitor. *See* Suberoylanilide hydroxamic acid (SAHA)
- Histone demethylases (HDMs), 59
- Histone profiling, 64
- HIV. *See* Human immunodeficiency virus
- HIV-associated dementia (HAD), 171
- HIV-associated encephalopathy (HIVE), 171
- HIV-associated minor cognitive and motor disorders (MCMD), 171
- HIVE. *See* HIV-associated encephalopathy
- HLA. *See* Histocompatibility complex; Human leukocyte antigen
- HLA-A. *See* Human leukocyte antigen (HLA)
- HMP. *See* Human Microbiome Project
- HNF. *See* Holographic notch filter
- HNSCC. *See* Head and neck squamous cell carcinoma
- Hodgkin/Reed–Sternberg cells (HRS cells), 133
- Hodgkin’s lymphoma, 97, 133
- Hoechst 33342 dye staining, 435–436
- Holographic notch filter (HNF), 253
- Holothurin, 556
- Homeostasis, 140, 428
- Homing, 436–437
- Homoplasmy, 299
- Horizontal gene transfer, 609
- Horse Radish Peroxidase (HRPO), 280–281
- Horseradish peroxidase (HRP), 340
- Horseshoe Crabs, 544
- Host–pathogen/agent equilibrium, 396
- HPA axis. *See* Hypothalamo-pituitary-adrenal axis
- HPETE. *See* Hydroperoxyeico-satetraenoic acid
- HPLC. *See* High-performance liquid chromatography
- HPQ. *See* Histidine-proline-glutamine
- HPRT. *See* Hypoxanthine phosphoribosyltransferase
- HPV. *See* Human papillomavirus
- HPV16 E6/E7 transcription, 115
- HRP. *See* Horseradish peroxidase
- HRPO. *See* Horse Radish Peroxidase
- HRS cells. *See* Hodgkin/Reed–Sternberg cells
- HSCs. *See* Hematopoietic stem cells
- HSE. *See* Human Skin Equivalent
- HSIL. *See* High Squamous Intraepithelial Lesions
- HSP27. *See* Heat shock protein 27
- HTLV-1. *See* Human T lymphotropic virus
- HTRA2. *See* High-temperature requirement protein A2
- human adipose-derived stem cells (hADSCs), 207
- Human anti-mouse antibody (HAMA), 483
- Human antibody transgene, 486
- Human anti-chimeric antibody response (HACA response), 273–274
- Human anti-humanized antibody response (HAHA response), 274
- Human anti-mono-clonal antibody response (HAMA response), 273
- Human cells, tissues, and cellular and tissue-based products (HCT/PS), 446
- Human chorionic gonadotropin (HCG), 40–41
- Human chromosome nomenclature systems, 454–455, 455t
- Human development studies, 444
- Human dignity, 601, 606
- Human disease for animal models
blood circulatory system, 140
disease mechanisms, 140
ethical issues, 149–150
homeostasis, 140
MS, 144–149
RA, 140–144
translational significance, 150
WWW resources, 150
- Human DNA tumor viruses, 123–125, 124t
EBV, 125
KS, 126
KSHV, 125–126
PEL, 126
- Human embryonic kidney (HEK), 227–228
- Human embryonic stem cells (hESCs), 228, 440–441, 603
- Human epidermal growth factor receptor (HER2), 206–207
- Human genome, 463
- Human Genome Project (HGP), 370, 578
sequencing, 579
- Human genome sequencing project, 577–578
complexity, 579
DNA sequences, 577–578
ethical issues, 589
examples with applications, 588–589
full-scale sequencing, 578
gene content, 579–586
high-density genetic and physical maps, 578
methodology, 587–588
organization and perspective, 579
principle, 586–587, 587f
translational significance, 590–591
whole genome shotgun sequencing approach, 588f
WWW resources, 591
- Human health
animal biotechnology, 606–607
nature of risk, 606
public health ethics, 606–607

- Human hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC), 122–125, 127
- human hepatocytes (hHeps), 207
- Human herpes virus 6 (HHV-6), 144–145
- Human herpesvirus 4. *See* Epstein–Barr virus (EBV)
- Human herpesvirus 8 (HHV8). *See* Kaposi sarcoma-associated herpesvirus (KSHV)
- Human immunodeficiency virus (HIV), 15, 156–157
- antiretroviral
 - drugs, 164–165
 - types, 166–167
 - bone marrow transplantation, 172–173
 - clinical stages, 158–160
 - asymptomatic stage, 159–160
 - persistent generalized lymphadenopathy, 160
 - seroconversion stage, 159
 - symptomatic stage, 160
 - WHO classification, 159t
 - ethical issues, 173
 - genome, 161f
 - global disease burden, 157–158
 - history, 156–157
 - methodology and principles, 167
 - anti-HIV effects evaluation, 170–171
 - antiretroviral drugs assays, 168–169
 - growing HIV stock, 167–168, 168f
 - monitoring antiretroviral drug toxicity, 169–170, 169f
 - molecular biology, 160–162
 - NeuroAIDS, 171–172
 - replication, 162–164, 163f
 - resistance and antiretroviral treatment, 165
 - drug holiday, 166
 - HAART therapy, 165
 - salvage therapy, 165
 - structure, 160f
 - translational significance, 173–174
 - types, 156
 - WWW resources, 174
- Human JC virus (JCV), 128
- Human leukocyte antigen (HLA), 140, 179
- Human lymphocyte culture, 459, 459f
- Human metabolic disorders, 14–15
- Human microbiome, 362
- Human Microbiome Project (HMP), 362
- Human neurodegenerative diseases, 13–14
- Human papillomavirus (HPV), 96, 114t, 121–122, 126–127, 230
- cervical cancer diagnostic methodologies, 107–109
 - DNA testing, 108f
 - effects and diseases, 104t
 - genetic-based DNA vaccines, 113
 - genomic organization, 105
 - genotypes, 104
 - inactivation and degradation of p53, 106–107
 - infections, 104, 126–127
 - onco-proteins E6 and E7, 106
 - prophylactic HPV vaccines, 112–113
 - replication, 106
 - therapeutic HPV vaccines, 113
 - transcriptional regulation, 105–106
 - vaccines, 497
 - viral proteins, 127
- Human pathogens, 505
- Human polyomaviruses, 128
- MCPyV, 128–129
- Human repeat sequences, 583
- Human reproductive cloning, 603–604
- Human Skin Equivalent (HSE), 240
- Human T lymphotropic virus (HTLV-1), 121–122, 157
- Human-to-animal chimeras, 607–608
- Humanized antibody, 274
- Humanized mice, 135
- Humoral immunity, 474–475
- Huntington's disease (HD), 40
- HUS. *See* Hemolytic-uremic syndrome
- Hybrid cell selection, 280
- Hybrid models, 393–394
- Hybrid protein, 503
- Hybridoma cell lines, 553–554
- Hybridoma selection, 282–283, 283f
- Hydrogen Peroxide (H₂O₂), 182
- Hydroperoxyeico-satetraenoic acid (HPETE), 182–183
- Hydroxyl Radical (-OH), 182
- 5-hydroxymethyl cytosine, 64
- Hyper-immune serum, 273
- Hypothalamic orexin system, 321
- Hypothalamo-pituitary-adrenal axis (HPA axis), 180
- Hypothesis, 390
- Hypoxanthine, Aminopterin, and Thymidine (HAT), 280
- Hypoxanthine phosphoribosyltransferase (HPRT), 179
- Hypoxanthine-guanine phosphoribosyl transferase (HGPRT), 179, 282–283, 476–478
- Hypoxia, 205
- Hypoxic fraction, 203–204
- Hysterectomy, 111
- I**
- IACUC. *See* Institutional Animal Care and Use Committees
- IAP. *See* Inhibitor of apoptosis
- IBC. *See* International Bioethics Committee
- ICGC. *See* International Cancer Genome Consortium
- ICMR. *See* Indian Council for Medical Research
- ICR. *See* Imprinting control regions
- Identity testing, 467
- Ideogram, 454
- IEC. *See* Independent Ethics Committee
- IFA. *See* Immunofluorescence assay
- IFBC. *See* International Food Biotechnology Council
- IFN. *See* Interferon
- IGBC. *See* Intergovernmental Bioethics Committee
- IgE. *See* Immunoglobulin E
- IGF. *See* Insulin-like growth factor
- IGF1R. *See* Insulin-like growth factor-1 receptor
- IgG. *See* Immunoglobulin-G
- IHC. *See* Immunohistochemistry
- IHGSC. *See* International Human Genome Sequencing Consortium
- IIS. *See* Insulin-like growth factor-1 signaling
- IL-10. *See* Interleukin-10
- IL-2. *See* Interleukin
- Illumina Solexa, 349
- ILSI. *See* International Life Sciences Institute
- IM. *See* Infectious mononucleosis
- ImageJ, 322
- Immersion technique, 548
- Immortal DNA strand hypothesis, 429
- Immune antibody libraries, 485
- Immune system, 491–492
- Immune-stimulating complexes (ISCOMs), 503
- Immune-purification, 276
- Immunis, 491–492
- Immunitas, 491–492
- Immunization, 277
- Immunoblotting, 309–310, 316
- Immunocompetent mice, 78–80
- Immunodeficient mice, 81–83
- Immunodiagnostics, 552
- enzyme immunoassay, 552–553
 - latex agglutination test, 553
 - monoclonal antibodies, 553–554
- Immuno-enrichment. *See* Immune-purification
- Immunofluorescence assay (IFA), 132–133
- Immunogens. *See* Antigens
- Immunoglobulin E (IgE), 512
- IgE-binding epitopes, 519
 - molecules, 512
- Immunoglobulin-G (IgG), 268–269
- Immunohistochemistry (IHC), 275–276, 309–310
- semi-quantitative, 319–320
- Immunological methods, 532–533
- antibody-based detection, 529–530
 - IMS method, 530
 - rapid culture-based methods, 530
- Immunomagnetic separation (IMS), 530
- Immunosorbent chromatography, 479
- Immunotoxins, 274–275, 481
- IMP. *See* Ionosine ionophosphate
- Imprinting control regions (ICR), 60
- IMS. *See* Immunomagnetic separation
- IMS/culture methods, 530
- IMSR. *See* International Mouse Strain Resource
- IMV. *See* Intracellular mature virus
- In silico* models, 385–386
- advantages and disadvantages, 392
 - applications, 392
 - bioinformatics
 - in animal biotechnology, 386–387
 - and systems biology, 387
 - cancer, 392–394
 - in silico* model types, 393–394
 - of cells, 391–392
 - ethical issues, 400
 - infectious diseases, 394
 - approach/scenario, 395–396
 - bacterial and viral dynamics model, 397
 - challenges in, 397
 - examples, 396–397
 - parameters, 395
 - triad of, 394–395

- In silico* models (*Continued*)
 and inflammatory response syndrome, 394
 mathematical modeling
 concept, 390–391
 techniques, 389–390
 neuronal diseases, 397
 Alzheimer's disease model, 399
 approach/scenario, 398
 examples, 398–399
 limitations, 399
 parameters, 398
 pathophysiology of, 397–398
 PPIS, 388
 signal transduction networks, 388–389
 systems biology
 computational methods in, 387–388
 experimental methods in, 388
 transcriptional control networks, 388
 translational significance, 400–401
 WWW resources, 401
- In situ* hybridization, 338–341, 339f
 CARD Fish, 340
 clone-FISH technique, 339
 PNA probes, 341
 RING FISH, 340
 stable isotope-labeled probing, 340–341
- In vitro* 2-D cultures, 199–200
In vitro assays, 88–89
In vitro cell cultures, 196
In vitro compartmentalization (IVC), 373–374
In vitro fertilization (IVF), 470, 604
 public perceptions, 604
 secular intrinsic objections to biotechnology, 604
- Inactivated whole virus vaccines, 495, 495f
 advantages, 495–496
 bacterial and viral vaccines, 496t
 comparison, 496t
 disadvantages, 496
 methodology, 495
- Inbred mice methodology, 77f
 BALB/c inbred mouse strain, 76
 cancer investigations, 76, 77t
 Consomic strains, 76–77
 DBA strain, 76
- Inbreeding, 294
 Independent Ethics Committee (IEC), 207, 610
 Indian Council for Medical Research (ICMR), 445–446, 470
 Indicator organisms, 526
 Indicators, 527
 induced pluripotent stem cells (iPSCs), 51, 426, 432, 437
 generation, 438f
 reprogramming factors, 438
 somatic cell, 437
- Inductive models, 390
 Infectious disease, 362, 493
 problems, 504
 threats, 504–505
 triad of, 394–395
- Infectious disease *in silico* models, 394
 approach/scenario, 395–396
 bacterial and viral dynamics model, 397
 challenges in, 397
 examples, 396–397
 parameters, 395
- Infectious mononucleosis (IM), 125, 133
 Infix-1, 272
 Infix-2, 272
 Influenza Research Database (IRD), 401
 Influenza vaccine, 492
 Influenza-Resistant Mouse, 415
 Information, 378
 Informed choice, 600
 Informed consent, 600
 Inhibitor of apoptosis (IAP), 375
 InIs. *See* Integrase Inhibitors
 Injection, 548
 INN. *See* International Non-Proprietary Name
 Institute of Nanotechnology (IoN), 259
 Institutional Animal Care and Use Committees (IACUC), 67, 75, 321–322, 409
 approval, 75–76
 guidelines, 76
 Institutional Review Board (IRB), 207, 610
 Insulin, 14
 Insulin resistance, 14
 Insulin-like growth factor (IGF), 226
 Insulin-like growth factor-1 receptor (IGF1R), 590
 Insulin-like growth factor-1 signaling (IIS), 14
 Intact food allergens, 512
 Integrase Inhibitors (InIs), 165
 Integrase inhibitors, 164
 Inter simple sequence repeats (ISSR), 297
 Interferon (IFN), 106, 140, 225
 applications of, 225–226
 Interferon regulatory factor (IRF), 106
 Intergovernmental Bioethics Committee (IGBC), 611
 Interleukin (IL-2), 134
 Interleukin-10 (IL-10), 140
 Internal repeat sequences (IRs), 129
 Internal ribosomal entry site (IRES), 377
 Internal spacer regions (ISRs), 332
 length heterogeneity of, 335f
 International Bioethics Committee (IBC), 611
 International Cancer Genome Consortium (ICGC), 361–362
 International Federation of Gynaecology and Obstetrics system (FIGO system), 103, 103t
 International Food Biotechnology Council (IFBC), 510–511
 International HapMap project, 589
 International Human Genome Sequencing Consortium (IHGSC), 578
 International Life Sciences Institute (ILSI), 510–511
 International Mouse Strain Resource (IMSR), 54
 International Non-Proprietary Name (INN), 271
 International Organization for Standardization (ISO), 530–531
 International Sheep Genomics Consortium (ISGC), 358
 International Society for Stem Cell Research (ISSCR), 446
 Interspersed repeats. *See* Transposable element-derived repeats
- Intervening sequences (IVS), 337–338
 Intestinal epithelium, 512
 Intracellular mature virus (IMV), 256
 Intrinsic concerns, 602–603. *See also* Extrinsic concerns
 IVF, 604
 religious intrinsic critique, 603–604
 Intrinsic value, 601
 Introns, 463
 Inversion, 458
 Ioinizing radiation, 99
 IoN. *See* Institute of Nanotechnology
 Ion Semiconductor Sequencing, 351
 Ion Torrent technology, 351
 Ionizing radiation, 203–204
 Ionosine ionophosphate (IMP), 179
 IonTorrent, 347
 iPSCs. *See* induced pluripotent stem cells
 IRB. *See* Institutional Review Board
 IRD. *See* Influenza Research Database
 IRES. *See* Internal ribosomal entry site
 IRF. *See* Interferon regulatory factor
 IRMS. *See* Isotope ratio mass spectrometry
 IRs. *See* Internal repeat sequences
 ISCOMs. *See* Immune-stimulating complexes
 ISGC. *See* International Sheep Genomics Consortium
 ISO. *See* International Organization for Standardization
 Isochromosome, 457, 458f
 Isoschizomers, 303
 Isotope ratio mass spectrometry (IRMS), 341
 ISRs. *See* Internal spacer regions
 ISSCR. *See* International Society for Stem Cell Research
 ISSR. *See* Inter simple sequence repeats
 IVC. *See* *In vitro* compartmentalization
 IVF. *See* *In vitro* fertilization
 IVS. *See* Intervening sequences
- J**
 JCV. *See* Human JC virus
 Jellies. *See* Jellyfish
 Jellyfish, 542–543, 554
 Judaism, 603
 Jumonji AT-rich interactive domain (JARID1), 59
 Justice, 601
- K**
 Kaposi sarcoma-associated herpesvirus (KSHV), 121–125
 Kaposi's sarcoma (KS), 126
 Kaposi's Sarcoma and Opportunistic Infections (KSOI), 156–157
 Karyotype, 454
 Kautilya's Arthashastra, 599–600
 KDR. *See* Kinase domain-containing receptor
 Kennedy-Alter-Sung disease. *See* Spinal and bulbar muscular atrophy (SBMA)
 Ketamine-xylazine-acepromazine (KXA), 86
 Keyhole limpet hemocyanin (KLH), 552
 Kidney, 240
 Kinase domain-containing receptor (KDR), 375
 Kissing disease. *See* Infectious Mononucleosis (IM)

- KLF4. *See* Kuppel-like factor-4
 KLH. *See* Keyhole limpet hemocyanin
 KS. *See* Kaposi's sarcoma
 KSHV. *See* Kaposi sarcoma-associated herpesvirus
 KSOI. *See* Kaposi's Sarcoma and Opportunistic Infections
 Kugerberg-Welander disease, 41–42
 Kuppel-like factor-4 (KLF4), 61
 KXA. *See* Ketamine–xylazine–acepromazine
- L**
- L-strand, 585
 LAD. *See* Liver assist devices
 Lag phase, 217
 LAIV. *See* Live, attenuated influenza vaccine
 LAK. *See* Lymphokine activated killer cells
 LANA. *See* Latency-associated nuclear antigen
Lantana camara L., 570–571, 571f–572f
 Laparotomy, 86
 Large-insert clones, 588
 Laser ablation, 110
 Laser conization, 110–111
 Latency-associated nuclear antigen (LANA), 125–126
 Latent infection, 164
 Latent-membrane proteins (LMP), 130–131
 Latex agglutination test, 553
 LAV. *See* Lymphadenopathy Associated Virus
 LC/MS. *See* Liquid chromatography/mass spectrometry
 LCLs. *See* Lymphoblastoid cell lines
 LCR. *See* Long control region
 Lead identification, 370–371
 Least harm, 600
 LEEP. *See* Electrosurgical Excision
 Leptin receptor (LEPR), 293
 Leucine-rich-repeat kinase 2 (LRRK2), 13–14
 Leukemia, 62–63, 97
 Leukotrienes, 182–183
 Leuprorelin, 54
 LGSIL. *See* Low-grade squamous intraepithelial lesion
 LHRH. *See* Luteinizing hormone-releasing hormone
 Licorice tea, 187
 LifeCell, 445
 Ligation technology, 349–350
 Light-staining regions (G-light regions), 459
 LINE. *See* Long Interspersed Nuclear Elements
 Lineage labeling assay, 436
 Linear epitopes, 519
 Linnaeus's plant taxonomy, 328–329
 Lipopolysaccharide (LPS), 142
 Lipoxigenase, 182–183
 Liquid cancers, 97
 Liquid chromatography/mass spectrometry (LC/MS), 567–569
 Liquid overlay method, 201–202, 203f
 Live, attenuated influenza vaccine (LAIV), 494f, 497
 advantages, 495
 disadvantages, 495
 methodology, 493–495
 Live typhoid vaccine (Ty21a), 497
- Liver, 240
 Liver assist devices (LAD), 240
 Liver cancer, 63
 Livestock productivity and health improvement, 361
 Living modified organism (LMO), 53
 LLNA. *See* Local lymph node assay
 LMO. *See* Living modified organism
 LMP. *See* Latent-membrane proteins
 LMP1 protein, 132
 LMW. *See* Low-molecular-weight
 LNGFR. *See* Low-Affinity Nerve Growth Factor Receptor
 Lobsters (*Homarus*), 544
 Local lymph node assay (LLNA), 207, 400
 Locus, 463
 Locus heterogeneity, 465
 Log phase, 217
 LOI. *See* Loss of imprinting
 Long control region (LCR), 105
 Long Interspersed Nuclear Elements (LINE), 58–61, 584
 Long PCR ribotyping, 337
 Long terminal repeat (LTR), 155, 160–161
 retrotransposons, 584
 Loss of imprinting (LOI), 60
 Low Squamous Intraepithelial Lesions (LSIL), 103
 Low-Affinity Nerve Growth Factor Receptor (LNGFR), 435
 Low-grade squamous intraepithelial lesion (LGSIL), 103
 Low-molecular-weight (LMW), 399
 “Lower motor” neurons, 40. *See also* “Upper motor” neurons
 LPS. *See* Lipopolysaccharide
 LRRK2. *See* Leucine-rich-repeat kinase 2
 LSIL. *See* Low Squamous Intraepithelial Lesions
 LTI. *See* Heat-labile enterotoxin
 LTR. *See* Long terminal repeat
 Lung cancer, 62
 Lung cell suspension, 35, 35f
 Luteinizing hormone-releasing hormone (LHRH), 54
 Lymphadenopathy Associated Virus (LAV), 157
 Lymphoblastoid cell lines (LCLs), 125, 129–130
 Lymphokine activated killer cells (LAK), 206
 Lymphoma, 62–63, 97
 Lyophilizer, 240
 Lytic origin of replication (ori-lyt), 130
- M**
- M-FISH. *See* Multicolor FISH
 MA. *See* Matrix protein
 mAb. *See* Monoclonal antibodies (MoAb)
 Macrophage inflammatory protein 1 (MIP-1), 141
 Madison chamber, 31
 exterior and interior, 32f
 photohelic meter for, 32f
 Madison guinea pig aerosol chamber, 32f
 MAG. *See* Myelin-associated glycoprotein
 Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), 85–86, 141
 Maillard reaction, 519, 519f
 Maine animals, 542
- Major histocompatibility complex (MHC), 140–141, 474–475
 MALDI-TOF. *See* Matrix-assisted laser desorption ionization time-of-flight
 MALDI-TOF MS. *See* Matrix-assisted laser desorption/ionization-time of flight mass spectrometry
 Male triploids, 546
 Mammalian cell line characterization
 identity testing, 221
 purity testing, 222
 stability testing, 222
 viral testing assays, 222
 Mammalian ion channels, 556
 Mammalian-wide interspersed repeat (MIR), 584
 Mapping, 353–354
 Mariculture, 550, 559
 captive rearing technology, 550
 feed technology, 550
 nanotechnology application in aquaculture, 550–551
 Marine animals
 arthropods, 544
 bivalves, 543–544
 cephalopods, 544
 chordates, 544
 crustaceans, 544
 cuttlefishes, 544
 echinoderms, 544
 gastropods, 543
 Horseshoe Crabs, 544
 jellyfish, 542–543
 sponges, 542
 squids, 544
 therapeutics from
 commercial bio-products, 556–557
 ethical issues, 559
 future directions, 559
 green fluorescent protein, 557–558
 marine by-products, 558t
 marine natural products, 554–556
 translational significance, 559
 valuable medical products, 554
 WWW resources, 560
 WWW resources, 560
 Marine bioresources
 earth's surface, 542
 knowledge of ocean, 542
 marine animals, 542–544
 Marine biotechnology, 542, 559
 animal phyla characteristics, 543t
 archaeologists, 542
 average depths and areas, 542t
 earth's surface, 542
 Marine character, 551
 Marine genomics, 551
 BAC, 551–552
 genetic analysis, 551
 marine organisms, 552
 novel proteins, 551
 Marine natural products
 Conus peptides, 556
 Conus spp., 556
 cuttlefish and squid, 555
 E. Conus, 556

- Marine natural products (*Continued*)
 GFP, 554–555
 jellyfish, 554
 using nematocysts, 555
 scyphozoan jellyfish stings, 555
 sea snake, 555–556
 snake venoms, 556
 sponges, 555
 squid ink from *Loligo* spp., 555
- Marine organisms, 541–542
- Marine ornamental fishery, 549
- Marine sponges, 555
- Mass spectrometry (MS), 569
- Master Cell, 428
- Mate tea, 187
- Mathematical abstraction, 391
- Matrix metalloproteinase-7 (MMP-7), 62
- Matrix metalloproteinases (MMPs), 134–135, 141
- Matrix protein (MA), 161
- Matrix-assisted laser desorption ionization time-of-flight (MALDI-TOF), 67
- Matrix-assisted laser desorption/ionization-time of flight mass spectrometry (MALDI-TOF MS), 331
- MBP. *See* Methylated binding proteins; Myelin basic protein
- MCA. *See* Methylated CpG island amplification
- MCBD2. *See* Methyl CpG binding domain 2
- MCC. *See* Merkel cell carcinoma
- MCD. *See* Multi-centric Castleman's disease
- MCMD. *See* HIV-associated minor cognitive and motor disorders
- MCP-1. *See* Monocyte chemoattractant protein 1
- MCPyV. *See* Merkel cell polyomavirus
- MCSS. *See* Multicellular spheroids
- MCTS. *See* Multi-cellular tumor spheroids
- MDP. *See* Muramyl dipeptide
- MDR. *See* Multi-drug resistance
- Measles vaccine, 492
- Media, 235
- Medicinal plants, 563–564
 biological assays, 567
 chemical screening, 567, 568f
 domestic cultivation, 571
 drug discovery, 566
 extraction, 566–567
 investigation, 565
 isolation and characterization, 567–569
 in modern medicine, 565
 plant species, 565
 rational drug design, 566
 in traditional medicine, 566f
- MedlinePlus, 150
- Medulloblastoma, 61
- MEF. *See* Mouse embryonic fibroblast feeder layers
- Mega-HAART. *See* Salvage therapy
- Meiosis, 453
- Meiosis I triploidy, 546–547
- Meiosis II triploid larvae, 546–547
- Meiotic gynogenesis, 547
- MELAS. *See* Mitochondrial encephalopathy with lactic acidosis and stroke
- Melatonin receptor 1a (MTNR1A), 293
- Melt molding, 238
- Melt spinning, 237–238
- Membrane filter technique (MF technique), 529
- Membrane lamination, 239
- Mendelian disorders, 588–589
- Mendelian inheritance, 299
- Merkel cell carcinoma (MCC), 128–129
- Merkel cell polyomavirus (MCPyV), 121–125, 128
- MERRF. *See* Myoclonic epilepsy with ragged red fibers
- Mesenchymal stem cells (MSCs), 241
- messenger RNA (mRNA), 463
- Meta-proteomics, 551–552
- Meta-transcriptomics, 551–552
- Metabolic engineering, 552
- Metaethics, 597–599
- Metagenome sequencing, 359
- Metagenomics, 551–552
- Metallic nanoparticles, 532
- Methyl CpG binding domain 2 (MCBD2), 66
- 5-methyl cytosine, 64
- methyl DIP. *See* methylated DNA immunoprecipitation
- Methyl-seq, 66
- Methylated binding proteins (MBP), 59
- Methylated CpG island amplification (MCA), 65–66
- Methylated CpG island recovery assay (MIRA), 66
- methylated DNA immunoprecipitation (methyl DIP), 63–64
- Methylation biomarkers, 62
- Methylation profiling, 69f. *See also* Histone profiling
 bisulfite treatment, 64
 DNA, 64
 genome-wide profiling techniques, 64
 QMSP, 64
- Methylation sensitive amplification polymorphism (MSAP), 296
- Methylation-sensitive single-strand conformational analysis (MS-SSCA), 67
- Methylene tetrahydrofolate reductase (MTHFR), 62
- MethylLight technology, 64
- MethylScope, 65–66
- MF technique. *See* Membrane filter technique
- MGI. *See* Mouse Genome Informatics
- MHC. *See* Major histocompatibility complex
- Micro-coated feeds, 550
- Microarray, 468
- Microbial pathogens
 detection principle, 532–533
 EHEC, 534–535
 ethical issues, 536–537
 fecal indicator organisms detection, 528–530
 future approaches, 537
 GNPs synthesis, 533–534, 534f
 methodology, 535f
 microbial water quality indicators, 526–527
 nanoparticle-based detection, 536
 nanotechnology, 531–532
 ssDNA sequences, 534, 535t
 target pathogen genetic signature, 530–531
- thiol-modified DNA, 534
 translational significance, 537
 water quality, 526
 water-and food-borne pathogens, 527–528
 waterborne disease, 526
 WWW resources, 537–538
- Microbial systematics, 329
- Microbial taxonomy, 327–328, 341–342
- Microbial water quality indicators
 environmental indicators, 527
 FIB, 526–527
 indicator organisms, 527f
 microbiological indicators, 528t
 types of, 527
- Microbiology, 328–329
- Microdeletion syndrome, 461
- Microduplication syndrome, 461
- Microencapsulated feeds, 550
- Microenvironment-tissue level models, 393
- Microfabricated microstructures method, 202
- Microglia, 51
- Microinjection, 409, 411f, 545
- Microinvasive carcinoma treatment, 111f
- microRNA (miRNA), 59–60, 132, 357, 580–581
- Microsatellites, 296–297
 advantages and disadvantages, 299
 applications of, 299
 detection, 298, 299f
 examples, 298, 299f
 ISSR, 297
 markers, 289–290
 SSLP, 298
 SSRs, STRs and SSTR, 297
 STMS, 298
 VNTRs, 297–298
- Microscopic polymeric particles, 553
- Microsphere-based diagnostic tests, 553
- Microvessel density (MVD), 85–86
- MIDAS. *See* Models of Infectious Disease Agent Study
- Middlebrook airborne infection apparatus, 30–31, 31f
- Mini-satellites, 297–298
- Miniature inverted-repeat transposable element (MITE), 296, 301
- MIP-1. *See* Macrophage inflammatory protein 1
- MIPs. *See* Molecular inversion probes
- MIR. *See* Mammalian-wide interspersed repeat
- MIRA. *See* Methylated CpG island recovery assay
- miRNA. *See* microRNA
- Missense mutation, 464, 464f
- MITE. *See* Miniature inverted-repeat transposable element
- Mitochondrial disorder, 466
- mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA), 585–586
- Mitochondrial encephalopathy with lactic acidosis and stroke (MELAS), 466
- Mitochondrial genome, 585
- Mitochondrial myopathies, 585–586
- Mitosis, 453
- Mitotic gynogenesis, 547–548
- Mixed lineage leukemia (MLL), 59
- MLL. *See* Mixed lineage leukemia

- MLPA. *See* Multiplex ligation-dependent probe amplification
- MMAE. *See* Monomethyl auristatin E
- MMPs. *See* Matrix metalloproteinases
- MoAb. *See* Monoclonal antibodies
- Mobile DNA sequences, 583
- Models of Infectious Disease Agent Study (MIDAS), 401
- Modern extraction techniques, 567
- Modulated Raman Spectroscopy (MRS), 253–254
- MOF. *See* Multiple organ failure
- MOG. *See* Myelin oligodendrocyte glycoprotein
- MOI. *See* Multiplicity of Infection
- Molecular diagnostic technologies, 466
 - case study, 469
 - clinical diagnostic testing, 466
 - congenital hypothyroidism, 467
 - DNA segment, 467
 - DNA sequencing, 468
 - histocompatibility testing, 467
 - identity testing, 467
 - infectious diseases, 466
 - monitoring response to therapy, 467
 - PCR, 468
 - pharmacogenomics, 466–467
 - populations screening, 467
 - principle, 469
 - southern blotting, 467–468
- Molecular farming, 501–502, 501f
- Molecular genetics, 462
 - acquired somatic genetic disorders, 466
 - Chargaff's rule, 462
 - hereditary material
 - DNA molecules, 462
 - DNA structure, 462–465
 - mitochondrial disorder, 466
 - multigenic and multifactorial disorders, 466
 - nuclein, 462
 - single-gene disorders, 465–466
- Molecular inversion probes (MIPs), 356
- Molecular markers, 289–290
 - AFLP analysis, 295–296
 - AS-PCR, 293
 - ASO, 292–293
 - ethical issues, 299–301
 - for genetic analysis of animals, 291t
 - microsatellites, 296–299
 - MITE, 296
 - MSAP, 296
 - RAPD analysis, 293–294
 - RFLP analysis, 291–292
 - RLGS, 294
 - SNP, 294–295
 - SSCP, 293
 - STS, 293
 - three-fold applications, 291
 - translational significance, 301
 - WWW resources, 301–302
- Molecular techniques, 459
- Molecular theories, 179
- Mollusks. *See* Transgenic fish
- Monitoring antiretroviral drug toxicity, 169–170, 169f
- Monoclonal antibodies (MoAb), 228, 270, 553–554
 - additional words, 272
 - advantages, 478
 - application, 478–485, 481f
 - development, 271
 - disadvantages, 478
 - hybridoma technology, 278
 - methodology and rationale, 279–281
 - naming system, 271, 271t
 - organizations, 271
 - production of, 279f, 281, 281f, 477f
- Monocyte chemoattractant protein 1 (MCP-1), 141
- Monogenic diseases, 582
- Monomethyl auristatin E (MMAE), 481
- Monosomy, 456
- Monozygotic twins, 299
- Moral philosophy. *See* Ethics
- Morphological markers, 290
- Mosaicism, 458
- Most probable number technique (MPN technique), 529
- Motor neuron diseases, 40
- Mouse chimeras, 608
- Mouse embryonic fibroblast feeder layers (MEF), 228
- Mouse Genome Informatics (MGI), 90
- Mouse immunization, 279
- Mouse model
 - advantages and limitations, 74t
 - using aerosolized microorganisms, 25
 - applications
 - immunocompetent mice, 78–80
 - immunodeficient mice, 81–83
 - cancer research, 73–74
 - ethical issues, 88
 - genetic inheritance, 75
 - genetic variation, 25
 - H37Rv strain, 25
 - in vitro* testing, 25–26
 - in vivo* experiment, 83–85
 - inbred mice methodology, 76–77
 - mycobacterial infections, 26
 - protocols, 85–88
 - TB infection, 25
 - transgenic technologies, 75
 - translational significance, 88–89
 - tumorigenesis, 74
 - WWW resources, 89–90
- Mouse Phenome Database, 90
- Mouse Tumor Biology Database (MTBD), 90
- MPN technique. *See* Most probable number technique
- MRI. *See* Magnetic resonance imaging
- mRNA. *See* messenger RNA
- mRNA expression profiling, 321
- mRNA quantitation, 310. *See also* Protein quantitation
 - brain tissue sampling procedure, 311f
 - immunocytochemical
 - identification design, 312f
 - identified neuron, 313f
 - qPCR calibration, 317
 - reverse-transcribed total RNA, 311
- RNA extraction, 316–317
- RT-qPCR, 316–317
- single-cell RT-PCR protocol, 310–311
- tissue extraction, 316
 - using two-round PCR amplification, 312
- MRS. *See* Modulated Raman Spectroscopy
- MS. *See* Mass spectrometry; Multiple sclerosis
- MS-SSCA. *See* Methylation-sensitive single-strand conformational analysis
- MSAP. *See* Methylation sensitive amplification polymorphism
- MSCs. *See* Mesenchymal stem cells
- MTBD. *See* Mouse Tumor Biology Database
- mtDNA. *See* mitochondrial DNA
- MTHFR. *See* Methylene tetrahydrofolate reductase
- MTNR1A. *See* Melatonin receptor 1a
- μ -conotoxins, 556
- Multi-cellular tumor spheroids (MCTS), 195–196, 197f
 - cancer research, 196
 - diffusion-limited tissue, 198–199
 - drug treatment protocol, 203
 - ethical issues, 207
 - genome-wide gene expression analysis, 199
 - Gompertz function, 197–198
 - human glioma cell line, 199
 - in vitro* 2-D cultures, 199–200, 200t
 - in vitro* cell cultures, 196
 - in vivo* response, 198f
 - protocol, 203
 - radiation response, 203–204
 - in solid tumors, 196
 - spheroids generation techniques, 200–203, 201t
 - 3-D culture, 200, 200t, 207
 - translational significance, 207–208
 - treatment modalities, 198
 - WWW resources, 208
- Multi-centric Castleman's disease (MCD), 125–126
- Multi-drug resistance (MDR), 22, 434
- Multi-laboratory protocol, 514
- Multicellular spheroids (MCSs), 205
- Multicolor FISH (M-FISH), 460–461, 461f
- Multifactorial disorders, 466
- Multiple organ failure (MOF), 394
- Multiple sclerosis (MS), 139, 144
 - clinical manifestations, 145–146
 - epidemiology and etiology, 144–145
 - experimental models
 - induced models, 146
 - spontaneous models, 146
 - methodology and protocol, 146–147
 - clinical evaluation, 147
 - EAE induction, 147f
 - ELISA, 149
 - histology, 147–148
 - immunohistochemistry, 148–149
 - real-time RT-PCR, 149
 - pathogenesis, 145
 - treatment, 146
- Multiplex ligation-dependent probe amplification (MLPA), 468
- Multiplicity of Infection (MOI), 168, 228

Multipotent stem cells, 429, 432
 Municipal water, 526
 Muramyl dipeptide (MDP), 142
 Mutation Accumulation Theory of Aging, 178
 Mutations, 9, 464
 acquired, 466
 Muzzle soft tissue, 605
 MVD. *See* Microvessel density
Mycobacterium tuberculosis (*M. tuberculosis*), 22–23. *See also* Tuberculosis (TB)
 bacterial loading, 31
 bacterial loads in target organs, 32, 34f
 experimental infection, 29t
 inoculum for aerosol exposure, 30, 31f
 intravenous infection of mice, 31, 33f
 lung cell suspension, 35, 35f
 lungs preparation, 34f, 35
 Madison chamber, 31
 Middlebrook airborne infection apparatus, 30–31
 PCR analysis, 33f
 RT-PCR, 32
Mycobacterium tuberculosis (*M. tuberculosis*), 277, 396
 Myelin basic protein (MBP), 149
 Myelin oligodendrocyte glycoprotein (MOG), 147
 Myelin-associated glycoprotein (MAG), 146
 Myeloma, 97
 Myoclonic epilepsy with ragged red fibers (MERRF), 466

N

NA. *See* Nucleocapsid
 NaBU. *See* Sodium butyrate
 nAChR. *See* nicotinic acetylcholine receptor
 Naked DNA vaccines, 499
 Nano–bio interface, 533
 Nanobiotechnology, 248
 Nanocapsules, 550–551
 Nano–coumarin (NC), 257
 Nanofabrication, 256
 Nanofluidics, 252
 Nanomanipulation, 256
 Nanoparticle-based detection, 536
 Nanoparticles (NP), 257
 Nanopore sequencing, 351–352
 Nanoscale processes, 248
 Nanotechniques, 249
 Nanotechnology, 247, 531
 AFM probes chemical modification, 255
 animal cells and tissues
 nanomechanical properties, 255–256
 nano–structural features, 255
 application in aquaculture, 550–551
 applications to animal biotechnology, 256–258
 cell’s environment, 248
 ethical issues, 258
 interfacial and quantization effects, 248–249
 macroscopic objects, 249
 metallic nanoparticles, 532
 microscopes, 249
 nanobiotechnology, 248
 nanofabrication, 249
 nanomanipulations, 248
 nanomaterial applications, 532f
 nanomaterial components, 532f
 nanoparticle functionalization, 531f
 nanoscale processes, 248
 nanotools and nanotechniques, 249–255
 surface functionalization, 531
 translational significance, 258–259
 WWW resources, 259
 Nanotechnology-based approaches, 531
 Nanotools, 249
 NASA. *See* National Aeronautics and Space Administration
 Nasopharyngeal Cancer (NPC), 133
 Natalizumab, 145
 National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA), 202
 National Bureau of Animal Genetic Resources (NBAGR), 290
 National Cancer Institute (NCI), 157
 National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI), 174, 189, 284
 National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute (NHLBI), 401
 National Human Genome Research Institute (NHGRI), 578
 National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases (NIAID), 401
 National Institutes of Health (NIH), 68, 150, 165, 284, 401, 578
 Natural killer cells (NK cells), 206
 Natural product materials, 568
 Natural Sciences and Engineering Research Council of Canada (NSERC), 301–302
 NBAGR. *See* National Bureau of Animal Genetic Resources
 NC. *See* Nano–coumarin
 NCBI. *See* National Center for Biotechnology Information
 NCC. *See* Norwegian coastal cod
 NCI. *See* National Cancer Institute; US National Cancer Institute
 ncRNA. *See* non-coding RNA
 NCSCs. *See* Neural crest stem cells
 NEAC. *See* North-East Arctic cod
 Near–field Scanning Optical Microscopy (NSOM), 250
 advantage, 252–253
 non–destructive microscopy technique, 253
 Neck cancer, 62
 Negative Factor (Nef), 161
 Negative selection, 479
 Nematocysts, 555
 Nephrolithiasis, 15
 Nerve growth factor (NGF), 435
 Nerves, 241
 development, 213
 Nestin, 435
 Neural crest stem cells (NCSCs), 435
 Neural stem cells (NSCs), 428
 markers, 435
 NeuroAIDS
 AZT, 171
 CNS, 172
 efficacy of drugs, 172
 neuronal damage, 172
 neuropsychiatric complications, 171, 171t
 Neurodegenerative diseases (ND), 13, 40
 AD, 40
 animal models
 ALS, 40–41
 applications, 49–53
 ethical issues, 53
 methodology, 44–49
 neurodegenerative diseases, 40
 principles, 43–44
 translational significance, 53–54
 WWW resources, 54
 characteristics, 40
 motor neuron diseases, 40
 representative, 41t
 Neuroendocrine theory, 180
 Neuromuscular diseases, 582
 Neuronal disease *in silico* models, 397
 Alzheimer’s disease model, 399
 approach/scenario, 398
 examples, 398–399
 limitations, 399
 parameters, 398
 pathophysiology of, 397–398
 Neurotrophin-3 (NT-3), 435
 New drug testing, 444
 Next generation sequencing (NGS), 346
 See also DNA sequencing; Third generation sequencing technologies
 Amplicon Sequencing, 357
 animal biotechnology, 357–358
 applications and sequencing methods, 354f
 applications in human health, 361
 cancer research, 361–362
 genetic disorders, 362
 human microbiome, 362
 infectious diseases, 362
 personalized medicine, 362–363
 pre- and post-natal diagnosis, 362
 cattle genome, 357–358
 challenges, 363
 ChIP DNA sequencing, 357
 comparison, 353t
 ethical issues, 363
 experiment scheme, 348f
 future perspectives, 363
 by ligation technology, 349–350
 principle of Sanger sequencing *vs.*, 347
 principles, 354
 protocols, 355f
 pyrosequencing technology, 348–349
 reversible terminator technology, 349
 small RNA sequencing, 357
 targeted re-sequencing, 356
 techniques, 338
 transcriptome sequencing, 356–357
 translational significance, 364
 whole genome *de novo* sequencing, 354–355
 whole genome re-sequencing, 355–356
 WWW resources, 364
 Next-next generation sequencing. *See* Third generation sequencing
 NF-kB. *See* Nuclear Factor-kB

- NGF. *See* Nerve growth factor
- NGS. *See* Next generation sequencing
- NHGRI. *See* National Human Genome Research Institute
- NHLBI. *See* National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute
- NIAID. *See* National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases
- Nickel, 60–61
- nicotinic acetylcholine receptor (nAChR), 556
- NIH. *See* National Institutes of Health
- Nineteen allergenic proteins, 517
- Nisonoff's Experiment, 268
- Nitric oxide (NO \cdot), 181–182
- Nitrogen-containing organic bases, 462
- Nitrotyrosine, 182
- NK cells. *See* Natural killer cells
- NMR. *See* Nuclear magnetic resonance
- NNRTIs. *See* Non-Nucleoside Reverse Transcriptase Inhibitors
- NOD. *See* Non-obese diabetics
- Non-allergenic food proteins, 517
- non-coding RNA (ncRNA), 308, 580, 582t
- Non-cytolysis mechanisms, 499
- Non-disjunction, 455
- Non-Hodgkin's lymphoma, 97
- Non-Human primate model, 26–28
- Non-immune antibody libraries, 485
- Non-LTR retrotransposons, 583
- Non-maleficence, 600
- Non-Nucleoside Reverse Transcriptase Inhibitors (NNRTIs), 165
- Non-obese diabetics (NOD), 81
- Non-replicating vaccines, 497
- Non-sense mutation, 464, 464f
- Non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs), 141–142
- Non-synonymous mutation, 464
- Non-viral delivery systems, 551
- North-East Arctic cod (NEAC), 295
- Northern Hemisphere, 542
- Norwegian coastal cod (NCC), 295
- Novel food proteins, 521
- Novel protein, 516
- NP. *See* Nanoparticles
- NPC. *See* Nasopharyngeal Cancer
- NRTIs. *See* Nucleoside Reverse Transcriptase Inhibitors
- NSAIDs. *See* Non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs
- NSCB. *See* U.S. National Stem Cell Bank
- NSCs. *See* Neural stem cells
- NSERC. *See* Natural Sciences and Engineering Research Council of Canada
- NSOM. *See* Near-field Scanning Optical Microscopy
- NT-3. *See* Neurotrophin-3
- NtRTIs. *See* Nucleotide Reverse Transcriptase Inhibitors
- Nuclear Factor-kB (NF-kB), 115
- Nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR), 567–569
- Nuclear reprogramming, 432
- Nucleic acid sequences, 530
- Nuclein, 462
- Nucleocapsid (NA), 161
- Nucleoside Reverse Transcriptase Inhibitors (NRTIs), 164
- Nucleosome mapping, 64
- Nucleotide Reverse Transcriptase Inhibitors (NtRTIs), 164
- Nucleotide synthesis, 282
- Numerical taxonomy. *See* Phenetics
- Nuremberg Code, 610
- O**
- o-phenylenediamine (OPD), 553
- Ocean, 542
- Octamer-binding transcription factor 4 (Oct-4), 433
- Octopuses (*Octopus*), 544
- ODD. *See* Ouchterlony's Double Diffusion
- ODE. *See* Ordinary differential equations
- OECD. *See* Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development
- Oligonucleotides, 339, 412
- ω -conotoxins, 556
- OMIM. *See* Online Mendelian Inheritance in Man
- Oncogenic viruses, 98, 98t
- OncoMouse, 413
- Online Mendelian Inheritance in Man (OMIM), 54, 582
- ONOO \cdot . *See* Peroxynitrite
- OPD. *See* o-phenylenediamine
- Open reading frames (ORFs), 105, 125–126, 129, 463
- Oral polio vaccine, 492
- Ordinary differential equations (ODE), 394
- ORFs. *See* Open reading frames
- Organ cultures, 569–570
- Organ transplantation, 415
- Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), 510–511
- Organogenesis, 569–570
- ori-lyt. *See* Lytic origin of replication
- ori-P. *See* Plasmid DNA replication origin
- Ornamental coral reef fishery, 549
- Oropharyngeal cancer (OSCC), 126–127
- Orthotopic Intra-Tibial Model, 87
- Orthotopic mouse model
- of colorectal cancer, 85–86
 - design and execution, 86–87
 - interpretation of results, 87
- OSCC. *See* Oropharyngeal cancer
- Osteoporosis, 256–257
- Ouchterlony's Double Diffusion (ODD), 275–277
- Ovulated eggs, 547
- Oxford Nanopore, 351–352
- Oxygen, 218
- Oxygen-centered radicals, 181
- Oysters (*Crassostrea*), 543–544, 554
- P**
- p&p. *See* pair peptide library
- p53 tumor suppressor gene, 106
- p75 neurotrophin receptor. *See* Low-Affinity Nerve Growth Factor Receptor (LNGFR)
- Pacific biosciences, 350
- PAGE. *See* Polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis
- pair peptide library (p&p), 379–380
- PAMPs. *See* Pathogen-Associated Molecular Patterns
- Pancreas, 240
- Pap smear test, 107
- Papain digestion, 268
- “Paper smear” method, 109
- Papnet, 108
- PAR4. *See* Protease activated receptor 4
- Parkinson's disease (PD), 13–14, 40
- Parkinson's Fly, 414
- Pars intercerebralis (PI), 14–15
- Partial differential equations (PDE), 394
- Pathogen detection methods, 529f
- Pathogen-Associated Molecular Patterns (PAMPs), 474
- Pattern recognition receptors (PRRs), 474
- PBMCs. *See* Peripheral blood mononuclear cell
- PBPK. *See* Physiologically based rapid pharmacokinetic
- PBS. *See* Phosphate buffered saline
- PCP. *See* Pneumocystis carinii pneumonia
- PCR. *See* Polymerase chain reaction
- PCR ribotyping, 327–328
- ARDRA, 336–337
 - broad-range, 337
 - and endonuclease subtyping, 336
 - followed by sequencing of ISR, 336
 - limitations of, 337–338
 - long, 337
 - ribosomal DNA sequence analysis, 338
 - terminal restriction fragment length polymorphism, 337
- PCR-SSCP. *See* Polymerase chain reaction single-strand conformation polymorphism
- PCs. *See* Plasma cells
- PD. *See* Parkinson's disease; Pharmacodynamics; Photodetection
- PDE. *See* Partial differential equations
- PDGF. *See* Platelet-derived growth factor
- PDI. *See* Protein disulfide isomerase
- PDMS. *See* Polydimethylsiloxane
- PDT. *See* Photodynamic therapy
- Peanut allergens, 517–518
- Pearl oysters (*Pinctada*), 543–544
- PEG. *See* Polyethylene glycol
- PEL. *See* Primary effusion lymphoma
- Penaeid shrimps, 546–547
- Penicillin, 370
- Pentose-reducing sugars, 519
- Peppermint tea, 187
- Pepsin, 512–514
- concentration, 515
 - digestion, 268
 - enzymatic action, 514f
 - mechanism, 515f
 - resistance, 511
- Pepsin-resistant protein-induced food allergies, 512, 513t
- Peptide nucleic acid probes (PNA probes), 341
- Peptides, 14–15
- aptamers, 369, 372
 - for mRNA display, 377
 - for phage display, 375
 - for ribosome display, 376–377

- Perfluorooctane sulfonate (PFOS), 60–61
 Pericentric inversions, 458
 Periformal region (PF region), 320
 Peripheral blood lymphocyte cultures, 459
 Peripheral blood mononuclear cell (PBMCs), 134, 167
 Peripheral nervous system (PNS), 172
 Peroxisomes, 181
 Peroxyl radicals (ROO[·]), 182
 Peroxynitrite (ONOO⁻), 182
 Personal Genome Machine (PGM), 351
 Personalized genomic sequencing, 590
 Personalized medicine, 362–363, 466–467, 470
 PF region. *See* Periformal region
 PFOS. *See* Perfluorooctane sulfonate
 PG. *See* Pharmacogenomics
 PGM. *See* Personal Genome Machine
 pH, 218
 Phage display, 373–375. *See also* Ribosome display
 antibody library, 483–484
 peptide selection, 375
 steps, 375
 technology, 483–485, 484f
 Pharmaceutical industries, 552
 Pharmaceutical Technology Journal, 229
 Pharmaceuticals, 564
 Pharmacodynamics (PD), 74, 88
 Pharmacogenomics (PG), 74, 303, 466–467, 590
 Pharmacokinetics (PK), 74, 88
 PHEMA. *See* Poly (2-hydroxyethyl methacrylate)
 Phenetics, 328
 Phenotype, 329–330, 463
 Phenotypic typing methods, 330–331
 Phosphatase and tensin homologue (PTEN), 13–14
 Phosphatase and tensin homologue induced kinase 1 (PINK1), 13–14
 Phosphate, 462
 Phosphate buffered saline (PBS), 86, 147–148
 Phosphinothricin acetyltransferase (PAT), 521
 Phosphoric acid (H₃PO₄), 462
 Photodetection (PD), 205
 Photodynamic therapy (PDT), 205
 response to, 205
 PHRED software package, 587–588
 PHS. *See* Public Health Services
 Phylum Arthropoda. *See* Arthropods
 Phylum Chordata, 544
 Physiological shock, 547
 Physiologically based rapid pharmacokinetic (PBPK), 400
 Phytochemical screening. *See* Chemical screening
 PI. *See* Pars intercerebralis; Propidium Iodide
 PIC. *See* Pre-integration complex
 PINK1. *See* Phosphatase and tensin homologue induced kinase 1
 piRNA. *See* piwi-interacting RNA
 PIs. *See* Protease Inhibitors
 piwi-interacting RNA (piRNA), 357
 PK. *See* Pharmacokinetics
 PKC. *See* Protein kinase C
 PKC α . *See* Protein kinase C α
 Placental tissue, 431
 Plants, 501
 cells, 570
 extracts, 567
 metabolites, 569
 plant-derived vaccine antigens, 501–502
 species, 565
 Plasma cells (PCs), 493–494
 Plasmid DNA replication origin (ori-P), 130
 Plateau phase, 217
 Platelet-derived growth factor (PDGF), 220
 Platinum (Pt), 532
 Pleiotropy, 304
 PLGA. *See* Poly-lactide-co-glycolide acid
 PLM. *See* Progressive library method
 Pluripotent stem cells, 429, 431–432, 598
 PML. *See* Progressive multifocal leukoencephalopathy
 PMSG. *See* Pregnant mare's serum gonadotropin
 PNA probes. *See* Peptide nucleic acid probes
Pneumocystis carinii pneumonia (PCP), 156
 PNI-PAAm. *See* Poly-N-isopropyl acrylamide
 PNS. *See* Peripheral nervous system
 PoAb. *See* Polyclonal antibodies
 Pol. *See* Polymerase
 Polio virus, 492
 Polony-based sequencing technology, 352
 Poly (2-hydroxyethyl methacrylate) (PHEMA), 201–202
 Poly (glycolic acid), 237
 Poly (lactic acid), 237
 Poly (ortho esters), 237
 Poly (α -hydroxy ester), 239
 Poly (ϵ -caprolactones), 237, 239
 Poly-lactide-co-glycolide acid (PLGA), 238, 550–551
 Poly-N-isopropyl acrylamide (PNI-PAAm), 202
 Poly-N-p-vinylbenzyl-D-lactonamide, 201–202
 Poly-sialic acid (PSA), 435
 Polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (PAGE), 312–314
 Polyclonal antibodies (PoAb), 265–266, 269–270, 270t, 475–476
 B-cells, 476
 crucial steps for, 278
 disadvantages, 478
 methodology, 277–278
 principle, 276
 Polyclonals, 478
 Polycomb-group proteins, 60
 Polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons, 98
 Polydimethylsiloxane (PDMS), 202, 207
 Polyethylene glycol (PEG), 202, 476–478
 Polygenic disorders, 582
 Polyglutamine diseases, 53
 Polymer ceramic composite foam, 239
 Polymerase (Pol), 161–162
 Polymerase chain reaction (PCR), 298, 408, 467–468, 530–531, 554, 578
 Polymerase chain reaction single-strand conformation polymorphism (PCR-SSCP), 293
 Polymorphisms, 290
 Polyomavirus nephropathy (PVN), 128
 Polyomaviruses, 128
 Polyphenols, 185–188, 185f
 Polyploid cells, 456
 Polyploidy, 546–547, 546f
 Polysialic Acid-Neural Cell Adhesion Molecule (PSA-NCAM), 435
 Polystyrene (PS), 553
 Polytene chromosomes, 8–9
 puffing on, 9f
 salivary gland of third instar larva, 8f
 Polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFA), 182–183
 Polyvinylpyrrolidone (PVP), 205
 Population genetics, 304
 Populations screening, 467
 Porgen, 238
 Porter's experiment, 268
 Position sensitive detector (PSD), 250
 Positive selection, 479–480
 Potable water, 526
 POU5F1. *See* Octamer-binding transcription factor 4 (Oct-4)
 PP. *See* Precautionary principle
 PPIS. *See* Protein–protein interactions
 PPMS. *See* Primary progressive MS
 PPs. *See* Processed pseudogenes
 Pre- and post-natal diagnosis, 362
 Pre-cancer classification, 102–103
 Pre-integration complex (PIC), 162
 pre-miRNA. *See* Precursor miRNA
 Precautionary principle (PP), 599, 601, 607
 Precursor miRNA (pre-miRNA), 581
 Prefix, 271–272
 Pregnant mare's serum gonadotropin (PMSG), 46
 Pressure-assisted micro syringe method, 239–240
 Primary effusion lymphoma (PEL), 125–126
 Primary library construction, 378
 Primary progressive MS (PPMS), 145
 Prion protein (PrP), 257
 Pristane, 487
 Pro-oxidative enzymes, 182–183
 Pro-viral DNA, 163–164
 Processed pseudogenes (PPs), 584–585
 Progressive library method (PLM), 378
 ASAC and selection, 378–379
 method for *in vitro* evolution, 379f
 p&p, 379–380
 YLBS and selection, 378
 Progressive multifocal leukoencephalopathy (PML), 128
 Prokaryotic protein-coding genes, 579
 Proof-of-concept studies, 533
 Propidium Iodide (PI), 440
 Proportionality, 607
 Prostate cancer, 63
 Prostate-specific antigen (PSA), 376–377
 Protease activated receptor 4 (PAR4), 62
 Protease Inhibitors (PIs), 165
 Protein disulfide isomerase (PDI), 166–167
 Protein kinase C (PKC), 556
 Protein kinase C α (PKC α), 375
 Protein post-translation modifications (PTM), 225
 Protein quantitation, 312–314
 in brain tissue micropunches, 314f
 detection chemistry, 314–316
 dot blot technique, 317
 neutral red-stained section, 315f
 Western blot technique, 317

Protein tyrosine kinases (PTKs), 132
 Protein-coding genes, 579
 Protein-free media, 221
 Protein-protein interactions (PPIS), 388, 396
 Proteins, 511–512
 conformation, 520–521
 oxidation, 183–184, 183f
 Proto-oncogenes, 98
 PrP. *See* Prion protein
 PRRs. *See* Pattern recognition receptors
 Prugosenes, 555
 PS. *See* Polystyrene
 PSA. *See* Poly-sialic acid; Prostate-specific antigen
 PSA-NCAM. *See* Polysialic Acid-Neural Cell Adhesion Molecule
 PSD. *See* Position sensitive detector
 Pseudogenes, 584–585
 PTEN. *See* Phosphatase and tensin homologue
 PTKs. *See* Protein tyrosine kinases
 PTM. *See* Protein post-translation modifications
 Public Health Services (PHS), 67, 606–607
 PubMed, 150
 PUFA. *See* Polyunsaturated fatty acids
 Purified antigens, 530
 Puromycin, 377
 PVN. *See* Polyomavirus nephropathy
 PVP. *See* Polyvinylpyrrolidone
 Pyrazinamide (PZA), 25
 Pyrolysis mass spectrophotometry, 330
 Pyrosequencing technology, 65–66, 348–349
 PZA. *See* Pyrazinamide

Q

Q-bands, 452–453
 QIAquick Gel Extraction Kit (QIAGEN), 317
 Quadroma technology, 486
 Quantitative fluorescent PCR (QF PCR), 468
 Quantitative methylation specific polymerase chain reaction (QMSP), 64
 quantitative PCR (qPCR), 530–533
 Quantitative structure–activity relationship (QSAR), 400
 Quantitative structure–property relationship (QSPR), 400
 Quantitative trait loci (QTL), 299
 Quantum dots (QDs), 536
 Quinacrine mustard (QM), 452–453

R

R-promoter (Rp), 130
 RA. *See* Rheumatoid arthritis
 Rabbit model, 26
 Rabbit papillomavirus (RPV), 100–101
 Radial immunodiffusion (RID), 275–277
 Radio-immunotherapy, 274–275
 Radioisotopes, 481
 Radiolabeled monoclonals, 481
 Raman imaging (RI), 253, 254f
 Raman shift, 253
 Raman spectroscopy (RS), 253
 Random amplified polymorphic DNA (RAPD), 289–290, 293–294, 331, 530
 RAPD. *See* Random amplified polymorphic DNA
 Rapid culture-based methods, 530

RARB. *See* Retinoic acid receptor beta
 Rat Genome Database (RGD), 401
 Rationality, 600
 RDA. *See* Representational differential analysis
 rDNA, stable isotope-labeled probing, 340–341
 rDNA. *See* recombinant DNA
 Reaction-diffusion equation, 390
 Reactive nitrogen species (RNS), 183
 Reactive oxygen species (ROS), 180, 181t
 Real-time (RT), 222
 Real-Time PCR. *See* Quantitative PCR (qPCR)
 Recognition of Individual Gene (RING), 340
 recombinant DNA (rDNA), 605
 Recombinant human ErbB-2 tyrosine kinase receptor, 375
 Recombinant therapeutic proteins
 antibodies, 227
 blood coagulation factors, 227
 cytokines, 225
 groups, 225–227
 growth factors, 226
 hormones, 226
 PTM, 225
 recombinant α -galactosidase A, 226–227
 therapeutic enzymes, 226
 Recombinant vector vaccines, 500–501
 Red light, 533
 Reduction, 53
 Reduction, Refinement, and Replacement (3Rs), 53
 Refinement, 53
 Regulator of Expression of Viral Proteins (Rev), 162
 Relapse remitting MS (RRMS), 145
 Religious critique
 hESCs, 603
 human reproductive cloning, 603–604
 IVF, 604
 Religious intrinsic critique
 human reproductive cloning, 603–604
 human stem cell research, 603
 in vitro fertilization, 604
 public perceptions, 604
 secular intrinsic objections to biotechnology, 604
 Replacement, 53
 Replication, 463
 Replicative cell senescence, 429
 Representational differential analysis (RDA), 65–66
 Reserpine transporter inhibitors, 435–436
 Response evaluation to immunotherapy, 206–207
 Response to anticancer drugs, 204–205
 Restriction endonuclease selection, 333–335
 Restriction enzymes, 292, 304
 Restriction fragment length polymorphism (RFLP), 291, 331, 530, 586
 applications of, 292
 steps in analysis, 291–292, 292f
 Restriction landmark genome scanning (RLGS), 65, 294
 Retention time (RT), 569
 Retinoic acid receptor beta (RAR β), 293
 Retract cycle, 251

Retrovirus-Mediated Gene Transfer, 411–412, 412f
 Rev. *See* Regulator of Expression of Viral Proteins
 Reverse engineering, 388
 Reverse transcriptase (RT), 160, 162–163, 309
 Reverse transcriptase-polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR), 310–311
 mRNA level quantitation, 310–312
 single-cell, 318–319
 Reversible terminator technology, 349
 RFLP. *See* Restriction fragment length polymorphism
 RGD. *See* Rat Genome Database
 Rheumatoid arthritis (RA), 139–140
 clinical manifestations, 141
 epidemiology and etiology, 140
 experimental models
 induced models, 142–143
 spontaneous models, 142
 methodology and protocols, 143
 CIA clinical assessment, 143–144, 144t
 CIA induction, 143, 143f
 histological assessment, 144, 144f, 144t
 radiographic evaluation, 144, 144t
 pathogenesis, 140–141
 treatment, 141–142
 RI. *See* Raman imaging
 Ribonucleic acid (RNA), 331
 Ribosomal genes, 581
 Ribosomal operon organization, 331–332, 332f
 ribosomal RNAs (rRNAs), 581
 Ribosome, 331
 moieties, 376–377
 Ribosome display, 376
 peptide selection, 376–377
 steps, 376
 Ribotyping, 327–328, 332
 automated, 335
 conventional, 333, 334f
 ethical issues, 342
 future perspectives, 341–342
 in situ hybridization, 338–341, 339f
 CARD Fish, 340
 clone-FISH technique, 339
 PNA probes, 341
 RING FISH, 340
 stable isotope-labeled probing, 340–341
 ISR length heterogeneity, 335f
 limitations of, 341
 PCR ribotyping, 335–338
 ARDRA, 336–337
 broad-range, 337
 and endonuclease subtyping, 336
 followed by sequencing of ISR, 336
 limitations of, 337–338
 long, 337
 ribosomal DNA sequence analysis, 338
 terminal restriction fragment length polymorphism, 337
 restriction endonuclease selection, 333–335
 techniques of, 332
 translational significance, 342
 WWW resources, 342
 RID. *See* Radial immunodiffusion

Rifapentine, 25–26
 RING. *See* Recognition of Individual Gene
 Ring chromosome, 457, 457f
 RISC. *See* RNA-induced silencing complex
 Rituximab, 480
 RLGS. *See* Restriction landmark genome scanning
 RNA. *See* Ribonucleic acid
 RNA aptamer-based drug, 371–372
 RNA codons, 463
 RNA Interference (RNAi), 412
 RNA recognition motifs (RRM), 43
 RNA-induced silencing complex (RISC), 412, 581
 RNAi. *See* RNA Interference
 RNS. *See* Reactive nitrogen species
 RO·. *See* Alkoxy radicals
 Roadmap Epigenomics Program, 68
 Roche-454 GS FLX, 348
 Roche/454 FLX pyrosequencer, 586
 ROO·. *See* Peroxyl radicals
 ROOH. *See* Alkyl peroxides
 ROS. *See* Reactive oxygen species
 Rosehip tea, 187
 Rotatory Flask Methods, 202
 Rp. *See* R-promoter
 RPV. *See* Rabbit papillomavirus
 RRM. *See* RNA recognition motifs
 RRMS. *See* Relapse remitting MS
 rRNA
 genes, 579
 stable isotope-labeled probing, 340–341
 as taxonomic tools, 331
 rRNAs. *See* ribosomal RNAs
 RS. *See* Raman spectroscopy
 RT. *See* Real-time; Retention time; Reverse transcriptase
 RT-PCR. *See* Reverse transcriptase-polymerase chain reaction

S

Safety assessment approaches, 511
 SAHA. *See* Suberoylanilide hydroxamic acid
Salmonella, 528
 Salvage therapy, 165
 Sanger's method, 578
 SAP. *See* SLAM-associated protein
 Sarcoma, 97
 SARS. *See* Severe acute respiratory syndrome
 SBMA. *See* Spinal and bulbar muscular atrophy
 SC. *See* Synthesized natural coumarin
 Scaffold design, 235–237
 Scaffold fabrication methods, 237–238, 238t
 Scaffolds, 235
 Scaffolds materials, 237t
 Scallops (*Pecten*), 543–544
 Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM), 249
 Scanning Probe Microscopy (SPM), 248–249, 256
 AFM, 250
 animal biotechnology techniques, 250
 CFM, 251
 FluidFM, 252
 NSOM, 252–253
 Scanning Tunneling Microscope (STM), 248–249
 SCD. *See* Spinocerebellar degeneration
 scFv. *See* single chain variable fragment
 SCID. *See* Severely compromised immunodeficient
 SCJ. *See* Squamocolumnar junction
 Sclerose en plaques, 144
 SCNT. *See* Somatic cell nuclear transfer
 Screening, 109
 Screening toxins, 444
 Scyphozoan jellyfish stings, 555
 SDS. *See* Sodium dodecyl sulfate
 SE. *See* Standard error
 Sea cucumbers, 544
 Sea jellies. *See* Jellyfish
 Sea snake, 555–556
 Sea stars, 544
 Sea urchins, 544, 556–557
 Second generation sequencing. *See* Next generation sequencing (NGS)
 Secondary library construction, 378–379
 Secondary progressive MS (SPMS), 145
 Segmental duplications, 585
 Selective estrogen receptor modulators (SERMs), 78
 Selective LASER sintering, 239
 SELEX. *See* Systematic Evolution of Ligands by Exponential Enrichment
 Self-renewal assay, 436
 SEM. *See* Scanning Electron Microscopy
 Semi-conservative method, 463
 Semiconductor quantum dots, 531
 Sense strand, 463
 Sepia, 555
 Sequence assembly, 354–355
 Sequence tagged site (STS), 293, 586
 Sequence-tagged microsatellites (STMS), 298
 SERMs. *See* Selective estrogen receptor modulators
 Seroconversion, 159
 SERS. *See* Surface-Enhanced Raman Spectroscopy
 Serum, 220
 advantages of, 220–221
 components, 220t
 disadvantages of, 221
 sickness, 272–273
 Serum-free media, 221
 Severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS), 13
 Severely compromised immunodeficient (SCID), 82
 Sex chromosomes, 453–454
 Sex reversal, 548–549
 Sex-linked disorders, 465–466
 SFC. *See* Sphere-forming cell
 SGF assay. *See* Simulated gastric fluid assay
 “sham” reverse transcription reaction, 317
 Sheep Red Blood Cells (SRBC), 277, 282
 Short Interspersed Nuclear Elements (SINE), 58–61, 584
 Short tandem repeats (STRs), 297
 Shrimp, 554
 shRNA. *See* small hairpin RNA

Sialomucin. *See* CD34 marker
 Sickle-cell anemia, 370
 Side Population (SP), 434–436
 SIF assay. *See* Simulated intestinal fluid assay
 Signal Transducer and Activator of Transcription (STAT), 115
 Signature labels, 327–328
 Signature sequence, 333
 SIL. *See* Squamous intraepithelial lesion
 Silver-Russell Syndrome (SRS), 60
 Simian viral immunodeficiency (SIV), 26–28
 Simple sequence length polymorphisms (SSLP), 298, 586
 Simple sequence repeats (SSR), 289–290, 297, 585
 Simple sequence tandem repeats (SSTR), 297
 Simulated gastric fluid assay (SGF assay), 512
 components, 514–515
 correlation between, 512
 factors relevant to GI digestion, 515–516
 protocol, 515, 515f, 516t
 supportive and negative evidence, 516
 works, 512–514
 Simulated intestinal fluid assay (SIF assay), 516. *See also* Thermal treatment assay
 assay conditions effect, 517
 contradictory results, 517–518
 enzyme/test protein ratios, 518t
 protocol of, 516–517, 517f
 supportive and negative evidences, 517
 SINE. *See* Short Interspersed Nuclear Elements
 single chain variable fragment (scFv), 473, 484–485
 Single Molecule Real-Time Sequencing (SMRT), 350
 Single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs), 61, 294–295, 360, 469, 589
 Single-cell RT-PCR, 318
 brain cells labeling, 318
 cell dissociation, 318
 cell harvesting and, 318–319
 Single-gene disorders, 465–466
 Single-nucleotide polymorphism (SNP), 356
 Single-strand conformation polymorphism (SSCP), 293
 single-stranded DNA (ssDNA), 533–534
 Singlet oxygen, 182
 SIP. *See* Stable Isotope Probing
 siRNAs. *See* small interfering RNAs
 SIRS. *See* Systemic inflammatory response syndrome
 Sister-chromatids, 453
 SIV. *See* Simian viral immunodeficiency
 16S ribosomal RNA (16S rRNA), 530
 pseudomonads, 341
 terminal restriction fragment length polymorphism, 337
 16S ribotype, 333
 Skeletal stem cells, 241
 Skin, 240
 SKY. *See* Spectral karyotyping
 SLAM-associated protein (SAP), 133–134
 Slow-cycling population assay, 436

- SMA. *See* Spinal muscular atrophy
 small hairpin RNA (shRNA), 412
 small interfering RNAs (siRNAs), 114–115, 357, 412
 small nuclear ribonucleoprotein (snRNP), 44
 Small nuclear RNAs, 581
 Small Nucleolar RNA (snoRNAs), 581
 Small RNA sequencing, 357
 Small tandem repeat (STR), 468
 Smithburn neurotropic strain (SNS), 224
 SMN. *See* Survival of motor neuron
 SMRT. *See* Single Molecule Real-Time Sequencing
 Snake venoms, 556
 snoRNAs. *See* Small Nucleolar RNA
 SNP. *See* Single-nucleotide polymorphism
 SNPs. *See* Single nucleotide polymorphisms
 snRNAs. *See* Spliceosomal Small Nuclear RNAs
 snRNP. *See* small nuclear ribonucleoprotein
 SNS. *See* Smithburn neurotropic strain
 Social justice, 607
 Social utility, 606
 SOD1. *See* Superoxide dismutase 1
 SOD1^{G37R} transgenic mice, 47–48, 48f
 SOD1^{G93A} transgenic mice, 48
 SOD1^{WT} transgenic mice, 49
 Sodium bisulfate treatment, 64
 Sodium butyrate (NaBU), 61–62
 Sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS), 317
 Software packages, 578
 Solid free form techniques, 239
 Solvent casting, 238
 Somatic cell nuclear transfer (SCNT), 437, 440–441
 Somatic genetic disorders, acquired, 466
 Sorting. *See* Biopanning
 Southern blotting, 467–468
 SP. *See* Side Population
 Species-specific signature band, 334–335
 Spectral karyotyping (SKY), 460–461, 461f
 Speculoscopy, 107
 Sperm morphology, 257–258
 Sphere-forming cell (SFC), 115
 Spheres, 436
 Spheroids, 235
 Spinal and bulbar muscular atrophy (SBMA), 40
 abnormal androgen receptor protein, 43
 androgen hormone and mutant AR receptor, 53
 AR-97Q and AR-24Q transgenic mice, 49, 49f
 AR-97Q mice, 52–53
 genetics of, 44
 X-linked recessive inheritance, 42–43
 Spinal muscular atrophy (SMA), 40
 Cre-loxP systems, 52
 genetics, 44, 45f
 human SMN2 transgenic mice, 52
 severe SMA mice, 49
 SMA Type II mice, 49
 SMN, 41–42
 type 1, 2, and 3, 42
 Spinner flask method, 202
 Spinocerebellar degeneration (SCD), 40
 Splenocytes preparation, 280
 Spliceosomal Small Nuclear RNAs (snRNAs), 581
 SPM. *See* Scanning Probe Microscopy
 SPMS. *See* Secondary progressive MS
 Spontaneous tumor models
 carcinogens, 78, 78f
 mouse-inbred strains, 78
 SPR. *See* Surface Plasmon Resonance
 Squamocolumnar junction (SCJ), 99–100
 Squamous cell carcinoma, 102
 Squamous intraepithelial lesion (SIL), 100, 103
 Squid ink, 555
 Squids (*Loligo*), 544, 555
 SRBC. *See* Sheep Red Blood Cells
 SRS. *See* Silver-Russell Syndrome
 SSCP. *See* Single-strand conformation polymorphism
 ssDNA. *See* single-stranded DNA
 SSEA. *See* Stage-Specific Embryonic Antigen
 SSLP. *See* Simple sequence length polymorphisms
 SSR. *See* Simple sequence repeats
 SSTR. *See* Simple sequence tandem repeats
 Stable Isotope Probing (SIP), 340–341
 Stable isotope-labeled probing, 340–341
 Stage-Specific Embryonic Antigen (SSEA), 434
 Standard error (SE), 84–85
 STAT. *See* Signal Transducer and Activator of Transcription
 Statins, 370
 Stem cell(s), 228, 241, 426–427, 431f
 banking, 445
 biological resource, 445
 cord blood, 445
 in India, 445
 life-threatening diseases, 445
 scope and future possibilities, 445
 treatment, 445
 banking, 445
 in cell-based regenerative therapies, 443
 classes, 428f
 culturing embryonic, 228–229
 differentiation potential, 428–429
 embryos, 430
 features, 428
 fetal tissue, 430
 Hoechst 33342 or DCV staining, 440
 immortality, 429
 laboratory studies, 427
 methods, 433–436
 new medicines, 443
 niche, 436–437
 plasticity, 429
 potential uses, 443–444, 444f
 principles, 442
 properties, 428f
 regulatory framework, 446f
 religion and social issues, 440
 Buddhism, 441–442
 Greek Orthodox and Roman Catholic Churches, 441
 Hinduism, 441–442
 Islamic countries, 441
 Judaism, 441
 Protestant Churches, 441
 research, 426, 443f
 therapy, 442
 translational significance, 442
 WWW resources, 445–446
 Step-by-step approach, 509–510
 Stereolithography, 239
 Stirring, 520–521
 STM. *See* Scanning Tunneling Microscope
 STMS. *See* Sequence-tagged microsatellites
 Stone formation, 15
 Stop codons, 463
 STR. *See* Small tandem repeat
 STRO-1 marker, 435
 STRs. *See* Short tandem repeats
 STS. *See* Sequence tagged site
 Suberoylanilide hydroxamic acid (SAHA), 67–68
 Sublimation, 240
 Submetacentric chromosome, 453
 Subphylum Crustacea. *See* Crustaceans
 Substrate methods, 529
 Subunit vaccines, 497–498, 497f
 Superfish, 408, 416
 Supermouse, 414
 Superoxide Anion ($\cdot\text{O}_2^-$), 182
 Superoxide dismutase 1 (SOD1), 43, 182
 Superpig, 415–416
 Surface charge properties, 533
 Surface Modification Based Methods, 202
 Surface Plasmon Resonance (SPR), 531, 533
 Surface water, 526
 Surface-Enhanced Raman Spectroscopy (SERS), 253–254
 Survival of motor neuron (SMN), 41–42
 Symmetric stem cell division, 430f
 Synonymous mutation, 464
 Synovial pannus, 141
 Synthesized natural coumarin (SC), 257
 Synthetic polymers, 237
 Synthetic systematics, 328
 System-based theories, 180
 Systematic Evolution of Ligands by Exponential Enrichment (SELEX), 371–372
 Systemic inflammatory response syndrome (SIRS), 394
 Systems biology, 387
 bioinformatics and, 387
 computational methods in, 387–388
 experimental methods in, 388
 integrative approach, 390
- T**
 T cell receptor complex (TCR), 493–494
 T-helper cells, 163
 Tailoring care issue, 370
 TAM. *See* Tumor-associated macrophages
 TAR-DNA binding protein 43 (TDP-43), 43
 Target identification, 370–371
 Targeted re-sequencing, 356
 Tat. *See* Transactivator of Transcription
 Taxon, 304

- Taxonomic profiling, 328, 338
- TB. *See* Tuberculosis
- TBS. *See* Tris-buffered saline
- TC. *See* Total coliforms
- TCA. *See* Trichloroacetic acid
- TCR. *See* T cell receptor complex
- TD. *See* Transposon Display
- TDM. *See* Trehalosedimycolate
- TDP-43. *See* TAR-DNA binding protein 43
- Tea, 185–186
 - catechins, 187, 187f
 - health benefits, 187
- Telocentric chromosomes, 453
- Telomeres, 453
- Temperature, 218
- Template genome (TG), 388
- Template network (TN), 388
- Template-based transcriptional control network
 - reconstruction method, 388
- Teratocarcinomas, 438
- Terminal repeat (TR), 129
- Terminal restriction fragment length
 - polymorphism, 337
- TERS. *See* Tip-Enhanced Raman Spectroscopy
- Tetrachloroauric acid (HAuCl₄), 533–534
- Tetradecanoyl phorbol acetate (TPA), 98–99, 134
- Tetramethyl benzedine (TMB), 553
- TG. *See* Template genome
- TGF. *See* Transforming growth factor
- TGF-β. *See* Transforming growth factor beta
- The Institute of Genomic Research (TIGR), 346
- Therapeutic nucleic acids (TNAs), 114–115
- Thermal treatment assay, 518. *See also*
 - Simulated gastric fluid assay (SGF assay)
 - contradictory results in, 521
 - Maillard reaction and relation, 519f
 - mechanism of, 518–519
 - protein allergenicity, 521f
 - proteins functional stability, 520–521
 - standard protocol for, 519–520, 520f
- Thin Prep Pap Test, 107
- Thin-layer chromatography (TLC), 567–568
- Third generation sequencing technologies, 347.
 - See also* 4th generation sequencing technologies
 - ion semiconductor sequencing, 351
 - SMRT, 350
 - tSMS, 350–351
- Third library construction, 379–380
- 1000 Genomes Project, 590
- 3D printing, 239
- 3Rs. *See* Reduction, Refinement, and Replacement
- Thymine, 462
- TIGR. *See* The Institute of Genomic Research
- Tip-Enhanced Raman Spectroscopy (TERS), 253–254
- Tirapazamine (TPZ), 199
- Tissue culture, 570–571
- Tissue engineering, 233, 236f
 - bioreactors, 235
 - cells, 234–235
 - ethical issues, 242
 - issues and challenges, 241
 - media, 235
 - methodology, 235
 - scaffold, 235
 - design, 235–237
 - materials, 237t
 - scaffold fabrication methods, 237–238, 238t
 - using stem cells, 241
- tissue-engineered organs, 240–241
- translational significance, 242
- WWW resources, 242
- tissue plasminogen activator (tPA), 226
- Tissue replacement, damaged, 444
- Titanium (Ti), 532
- TKTL1*. *See* Transkelolase-like 1
- TLC. *See* Thin-layer chromatography
- TLS protein. *See* Translocated in liposarcoma protein
- 5-TM. *See* 5-transmembrane
- TMB. *See* Tetramethyl benzedine
- TN. *See* Template network
- TNAs. *See* Therapeutic nucleic acids
- TNF. *See* Tumor necrosis factor
- TNFR. *See* Tumor necrosis factor receptor
- TNM. *See* Tumor, node, metastases
- Top-down approach, 249–250
- Total coliforms (TC), 527
- Totipotent stem cells, 428–429, 431–432
- Toxoid vaccines, 496–497, 496f
- TPA. *See* Tetradecanoyl phorbol acetate
- tPA. *See* tissue plasminogen activator
- TPZ. *See* Tirapazamine
- TR. *See* Terminal repeat; Translational research
- Traditional medicine, 564–565
- Traditional vaccines, 493
 - inactivated whole virus vaccines, 495–496, 495f
 - live, attenuated vaccines, 493–495
- TRAMP. *See* Transgenic adenoma of mouse prostate
- Trans-differentiation, 429–430
- Transactivation domain. *See* DNA-binding domain
- Transactivator of Transcription (Tat), 162
- Transcortin, 479
- Transcriptome sequencing, 356–357
- transfer RNAs (tRNAs), 581
- Transforming growth factor (TGF), 226
- Transforming growth factor beta (TGF-β), 220
- Transgene construction, 409, 410f
- Transgenic adenoma of mouse prostate (TRAMP), 63
- Transgenic animals, 407
 - animal's physiological processes, 408
 - biological models, 414–415
 - categories, 408
 - creation, 409–413
 - disease models, 413–414
 - drug and industrial production, 416–417, 417t
 - environmental impact, 417–418
 - ES cell manipulation, 408
 - ethical issues, 419–420
 - FDA guidelines, 420
 - food sources, 415–416
 - novel gene combinations, 408
 - patenting transgenic animals, 418–419
 - production, 409
 - recombinant DNA, 408
 - regulatory authorities, 409
 - translational significance, 420
 - WWW resources, 420
 - xenotransplanters, 415
- Transgenic Atlantic salmon, 607
- Transgenic crops, 520
- Transgenic fish, 544
- Transgenic fish technology, 545
- Transgenic mice generation, 45, 45f
 - founder mice screening, 46
 - harvesting donor eggs, 46
 - microinjected egg implantation, 46
 - preparation and purification, 45–46
 - stable transgenic line establishment, 46
 - transgene microinjection, 46
- Transgenic positives screening, 412–413
- Transgenic salmon, 418
- Transgenic sheep, 416–417
- Transgenic technology, 607
- Transgenics, 361
- Transkelolase-like 1 (*TKTL1*), 62
- Translation process, 463
- Translational research (TR), 471, 610
- Translocated in liposarcoma protein (TLS protein), 43–44. *See* Fused in sarcoma (FUS)
- Translocation, 456–457
- 5-transmembrane (5-TM), 434
- Transmissible spongiform encephalopathies (TSEs), 609
- Transpharmers, 408
- Transposable element-derived repeats, 583
- Transposon Display (TD), 296
- Trastuzumab™. *See* Herceptin
- Trehalosedimycolate (TDM), 142
- Triad of infectious diseases, 394–395
- Trichloroacetic acid (TCA), 183
- Triploid fish, 546
- Tris-buffered saline (TBS), 317
- Trisomy, 455
- tRNAs. *See* transfer RNAs
- Trojan Horse Hypothesis, 172
- true Single Molecule Sequencing (tSMS), 350–351
- TSEs. *See* Transmissible spongiform encephalopathies
- tSMS. *See* true Single Molecule Sequencing
- Tuberculosis (TB), 22
 - animal models, 22, 24–25, 24t
 - comparative pathology in humans and animals, 22
 - crossing species barriers, 22–23
 - ethical issues, 28–30
 - experimental models, 28t
 - host diversity, 23–24
 - immunological life cycle stages, 27f
 - pathogenesis in animal species, 23t
 - re-exposure to, 22

- translational significance, 30
 WWW resources, 30
- Tumor, node, metastases (TNM), 97
- Tumor grading, 97
- Tumor monitoring, 84
- Tumor necrosis factor (TNF), 140, 435
- Tumor necrosis factor receptor (TNFR), 132
- Tumor suppressor genes, 98
- Tumor-associated macrophages (TAM), 206
- Tumorigenesis, 57, 74
- Twin zygosity, 299
- Ty21a. *See* Live typhoid vaccine
- Tysabri®. *See* Natalizumab
- U**
- U-rich small nuclear RNA (U snRNA), 44
- U.S. Department of Agriculture (USDA), 420
- U.S. Food and Drug Administration (FDA), 107, 157, 229, 407–408, 606
- U.S. National Stem Cell Bank (NSCB), 445
- Ubiquitin carboxy-terminal hydrolase L1 (UCHL1), 13–14
- Ubx. *See* Ultrabithorax
- UCBSC. *See* Umbilical Cord Blood Stem Cell
- UCHL1. *See* Ubiquitin carboxy-terminal hydrolase L1
- UFAW. *See* Universities Federation for Animal Welfare
- Ultrabithorax (Ubx), 6–7
- Ultraviolet radiation (UV radiation), 99
- Umbilical Cord Blood Stem Cell (UCBSC), 431
- Uncharacterized extract, 565
- UNESCO. *See* United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization
- Unipotent stem cells, 429
- United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), 611
- United States Adopted Names Council (USANC), 271
- United States Department of Agriculture (USDA), 284
- United States Department of Energy (DOE), 578
- United States Environmental Protection Agency (USEPA), 526
- United States Food and Drug Administration (USFDA), 510
- Universities Federation for Animal Welfare (UFAW), 301
- 3'-untranslated regions (3'-UTRs), 581
- Upper motor neurons, 40
- Upstream Regulatory Region (URR), 105, 115
- Urine-based non-invasive HPV DNA detection method, 108–109
- URR. *See* Upstream Regulatory Region
- US National Cancer Institute (NCI), 90
- USANC. *See* United States Adopted Names Council
- USDA. *See* U. S. Department of Agriculture; United States Department of Agriculture
- USEPA. *See* United States Environmental Protection Agency
- USFDA. *See* United States Food and Drug Administration
- Utilitarian ethics, 597
- 3'-UTRs. *See* 3'-untranslated regions
- UV radiation. *See* Ultraviolet radiation
- V**
- Vaccination, 493
- Vaccine Information Statement (VIS), 505
- Vaccines, 492
- access issues, 506
- adjuvants, 502–503
- challenges
- foremost infectious disease problems, 504
- infectious disease threats, 504–505
- vaccination methods, 504
- conjugate vaccines, 498, 498f
- DNA vaccines, 498–500
- ethical issues, 505
- foreign pathogenic bacteria or viruses, 493
- infectious agents, 504t
- informed consent, 505
- ISCOMs, 503
- key milestones, 492
- mandates, 505
- molecular farming using plants, 501–502, 501f
- plant-derived vaccines, 502f
- properties of, 493f
- protocol for development, 503–504
- recombinant vector vaccines, 500–501
- research and testing, 505
- subunit vaccines, 497–498, 497f
- toxoid vaccines, 496–497, 496f
- traditional vaccines, 493
- inactivated whole virus vaccines, 495–496
- live, attenuated vaccines, 493–495
- translational significance, 506
- WWW resources, 506
- Vaccinia virus (VACV), 256
- VACV. *See* Vaccinia virus
- Variable number tandem repeats (VNTR), 297–298
- Variant Creutzfeldt–Jakob disease (vCJD), 609
- Variolation technique, 491–492
- Vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF), 88, 205, 227
- VBNC. *See* Viable but non-culturable
- vCJD. *See* Variant Creutzfeldt–Jakob disease
- VEGF. *See* Vascular endothelial growth factor
- Ventrolateral preoptic (VLPO), 320
- Very Late Antigen-4 (VLA-4), 146
- vGPCR. *See* viral G-protein-coupled receptor
- VHL. *See* Von Hippel–Lindau
- VIA. *See* Visual inspection with acetic acid
- Viable but non-culturable (VBNC), 530
- Vibrio cholerae* (*V. cholerae*), 528
- Vibrio parahaemolyticus*, 528
- Vif. *See* Viral Infectivity Factor
- VILI. *See* Visual inspection with Lugol's iodine
- Vinegar-loving fly. *See* *Drosophila*
- ViPR. *See* Virus Pathogen Database and Analysis Resource
- viral G-protein-coupled receptor (vGPCR), 134–135
- Viral infections, 495
- Viral Infectivity Factor (Vif), 162
- Viral mutant formation, 228
- Viral oncoproteins, 124t
- Viral Protein R (Vpr), 162
- Viral Protein U (Vpu), 162
- Virtue ethics, 599–600
- Virus Pathogen Database and Analysis Resource (ViPR), 401
- Virus-like-particles (VLPs), 112
- advantage, 224
- HPV vaccine, 224
- Mammalian and Baculo cell lines, 225t
- production, 224
- vaccines based, 224
- VIS. *See* Vaccine Information Statement
- Visual inspection with acetic acid (VIA), 107
- Visual inspection with Lugol's iodine (VILI), 107
- VLA-4. *See* Very Late Antigen-4
- VLPO. *See* Ventrolateral preoptic
- VLPs. *See* Virus-like-particles
- VNTR. *See* Variable number tandem repeats
- Von Hippel–Lindau (VHL), 122–123
- von Willebrand factor (VWF), 556
- Vpr. *See* Viral Protein R
- Vpr-binding protein, 161
- Vpu. *See* Viral Protein U
- VWF. *See* von Willebrand factor
- W**
- Water quality, 526
- Water-borne pathogens detection, 527–528
- Waterborne disease, 526
- Weight-of-evidence approach, 520
- Wellcome Trust Sanger Institute, 401
- Werdnig-Hoffmann syndrome, 41–42
- Western blot technique, 316–317, 553
- Wet spinning, 237–238
- WGA. *See* Whole genome amplification
- White spot syndrome virus (WSSV), 554
- WHO. *See* World Health Organization
- Whole cell metabolism, 391–392
- Whole genome amplification (WGA), 66
- Whole genome *de novo* sequencing, 354–355
- Whole genome re-sequencing, 355–356
- Whole Genome Shotgun Sequencing, 588, 588f
- Whole inactivated bacterial vaccines, 495
- Whole-cell pertussis vaccine, 506
- Whole-pathogen vaccines, 495
- Wikipedia, 69
- WMA. *See* World Medical Association
- World Health Organization (WHO), 14
- classification, 102
- consultation committee, 511
- EBV infection and tumorigenesis, 135
- genetics, 470
- HIV infection, 158
- immunization programs, 493
- MoAb, 271
- potable water, 526
- traditional medicine, 564–565
- World Medical Association (WMA), 610
- World Wide Web (WWW), 69
- WSSV. *See* White spot syndrome virus

X

- X chromosome, 579
- X-linked agammaglobulinemia (XLA), 130–131
- X-linked lymphoproliferative disease (XLP disease), 133–134, 588–589
- XDR. *See* Extensively drug resistant
- Xenograft model
 - design and execution, 87–88
 - interpretation of results, 88
 - of prostate cancer metastasis, 87

- Xenograft transplants
 - chemoendocrine therapy, 82–83
 - herceptin, 83
 - human tumor cells, 82
 - subcutaneous prostate tumor xenografts, 82
 - tumor-medium mixture, 82
- Xenotransplanters, 415

Y

- Y-ligation-based block shuffling (YLBS), 379–380

- Yellow fluorescent protein derivatives (YFP derivatives), 557–558
- Youth Mouse, 414–415

Z

- ZEBRA response element (ZRE), 130
- Zero Mode Waveguide (ZMW), 350
- Zygote, 431–432

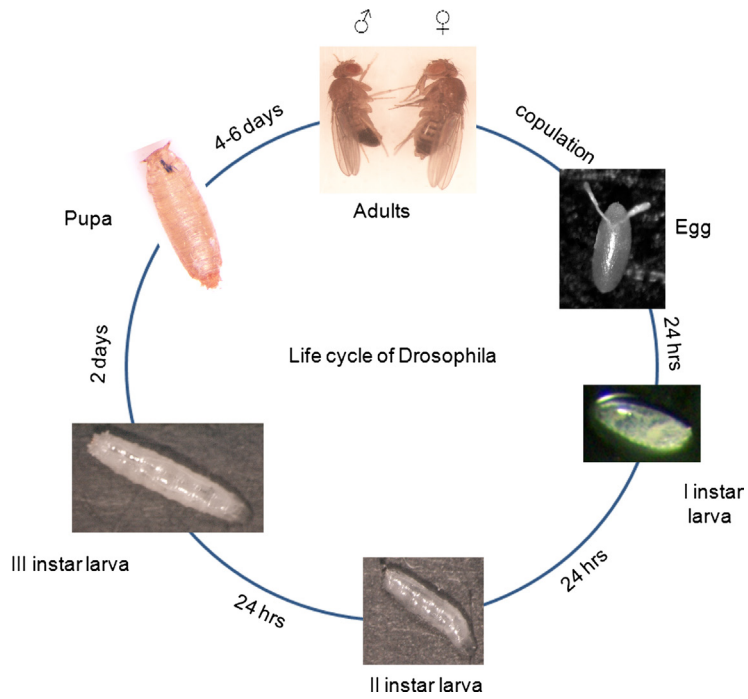


FIGURE 1.1 Life cycle stages of *Drosophila melanogaster*.

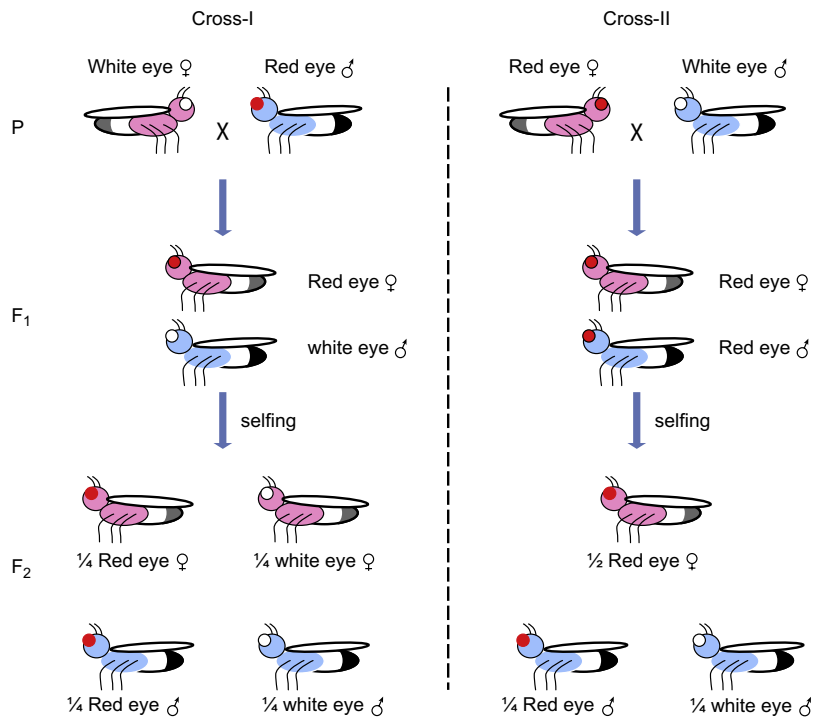


FIGURE 1.2 Schematic depiction of classes of genes associated with pattern formation in *Drosophila melanogaster*.

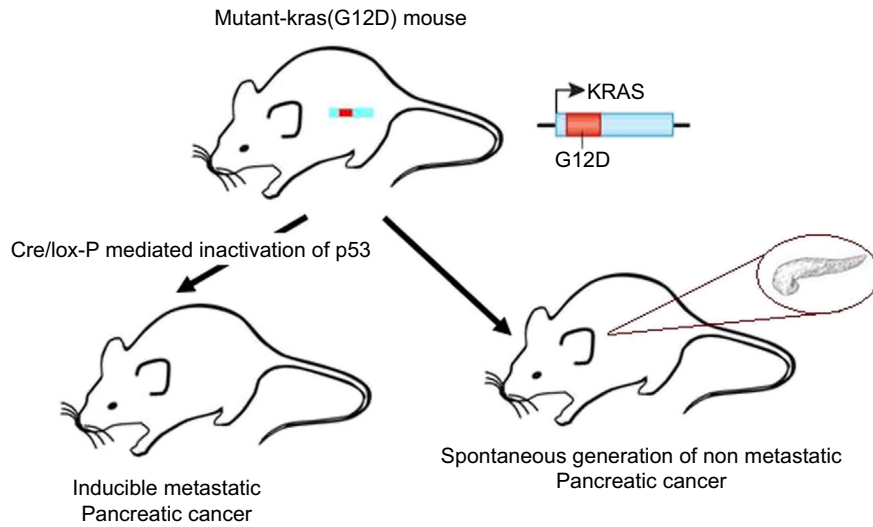


FIGURE 5.2 Generation of spontaneous tumor models for carcinogen studies.

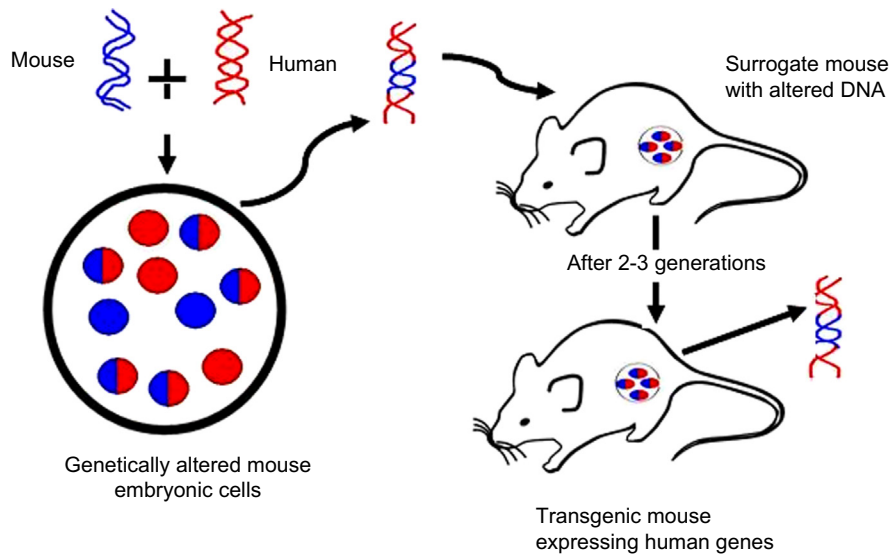


FIGURE 5.3 Generation of GEM models in immunocompetent mice.

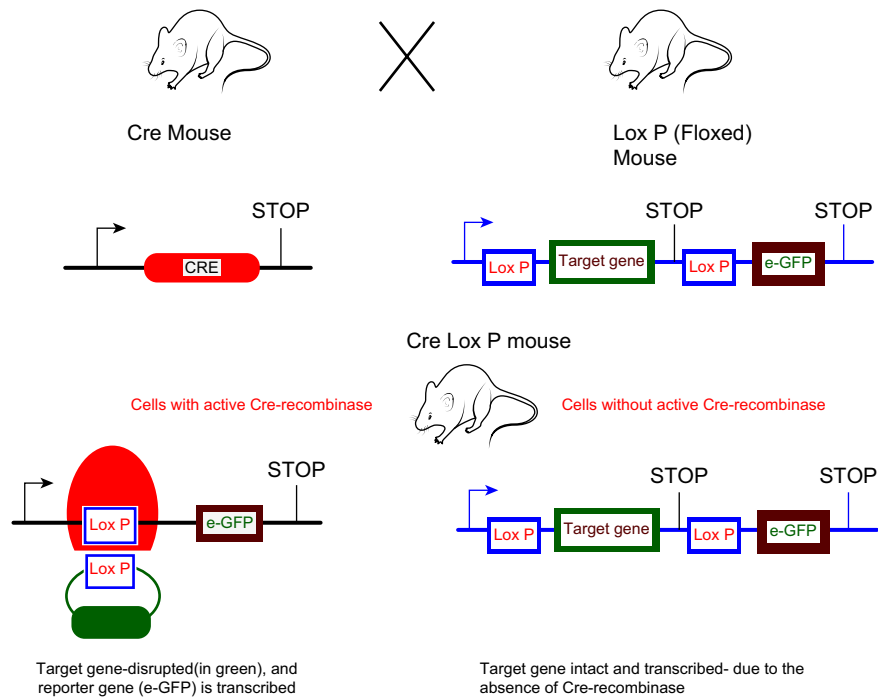


FIGURE 5.4 Generation of the Cre/Lox mouse model.

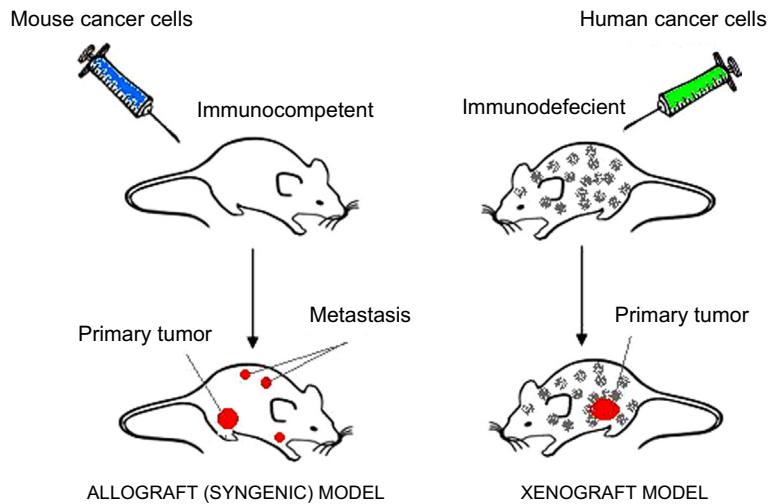


FIGURE 5.5 Generation of allograft and xenograft tumor models.

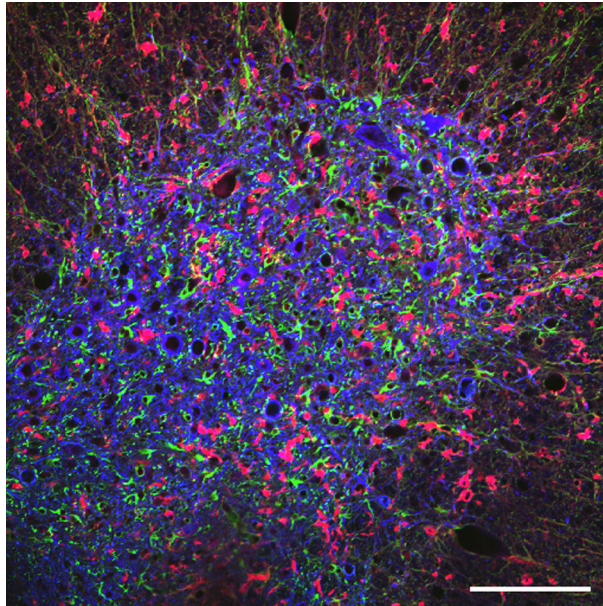


FIGURE 3.6 Activated Microglia and Astrocytes in Lumbar Spinal Cord of Symptomatic Mutant SOD1 Mice. Red: microglia stained with anti-Mac2 antibody, Green: astrocytes stained with anti-GFAP antibody, Blue: motor neurons stained with anti-neurofilament H antibody. Bar: 100 μm .

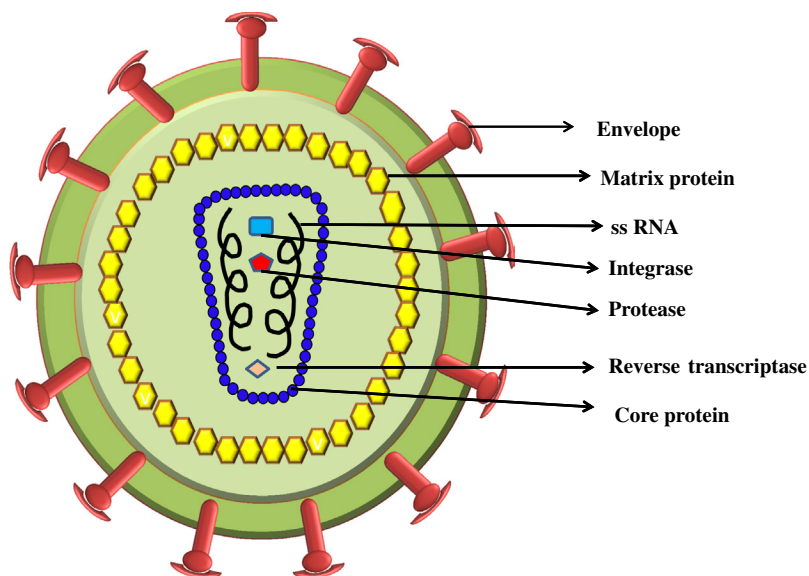


FIGURE 9.1 Structure of HIV. Graphical representation of cross-section of HIV. Envelope is the outermost layer; it consists of a lipid bilayer. The envelope layer is comprised of gp120 and gp41. The layer next to the envelope is the matrix protein. The matrix layer is followed by the core protein. At the center of the virion, two molecules of single-stranded RNA (ssRNA) and other enzymes are present. These enzymes are protease, integrase, and reverse transcriptase. Reverse transcriptase also contains RNase H. The location of each individual protein and RNA is shown in the figure and the molecular mass of the protein is shown in brackets. (Polymerase is not shown; it contains integrase, protease, reverse transcriptase, and RNase H).

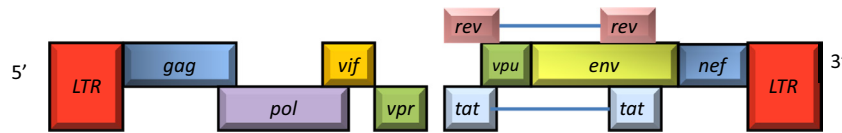


FIGURE 9.2 HIV Genome. Schematic representation of the HIV genome. The genome is 9.8 kB in size, and consists of 9 genes, which are flanked by LTRs on either side of the genome. These 9 genes finally produce 15 proteins: *env*, envelope; *gag*, group specific antigen; *LTR*, Long Terminal Repeat; *nef*, negative factor; *pol*, polymerase; *rev*, regulator of expression of viral proteins; *tat*, transactivator of transcription; *vif*, viral infectivity factor; *vpr*, viral protein R; *vpu*, viral protein U.

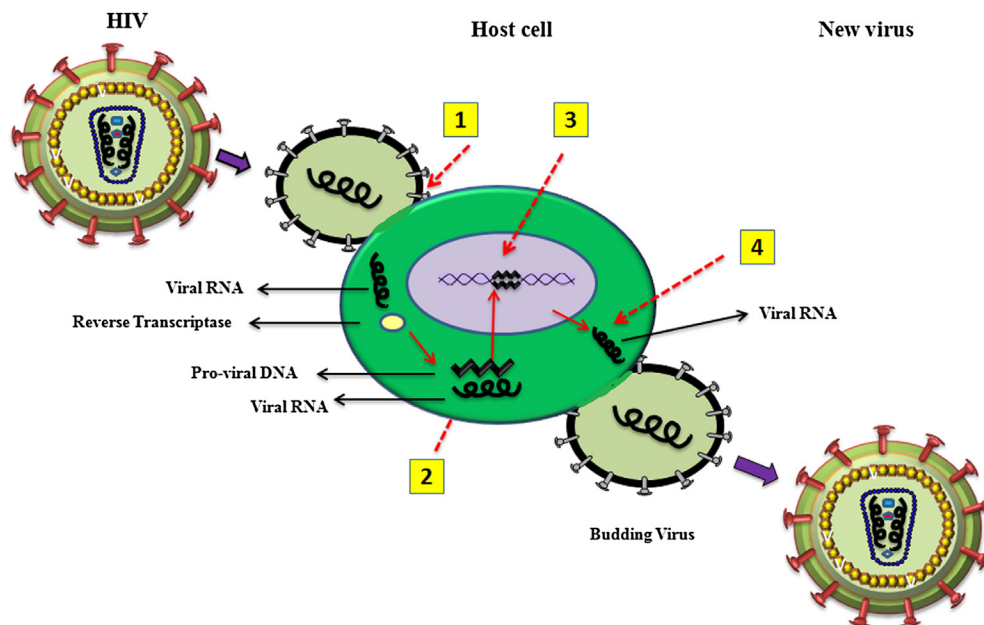




FIGURE 9.3 HIV Replication Steps and Drug Targets. Schematic representation of HIV replication along with the stages where different groups of antiretrovirals work. During infections, HIV attaches to the cell surface of target cells and fuses with the cells to release viral RNA and other proteins. Reverse transcriptase produces pro-viral RNA in the cytoplasm. Pro-viral RNA moves to the nucleus and integrates with the host cell genome with the activity of the integrase. After integration of pro-viral DNA into the host DNA, it gives rise to mRNA, which finally translates into different proteins required for synthesis of new virions. These proteins get cleaved by proteases to get assembled into new virions; new virions are released into circulation due to budding from the cells. Steps for drug targets are mentioned in numerals in blocks: Step 1 is the target for fusion inhibitors, Step 2 is the target for reverse transcriptase inhibitors, Step 3 is the target for integrase inhibitors, and Step 4 is the target for protease inhibitors. : Viral RNA; : Pro-viral DNA.

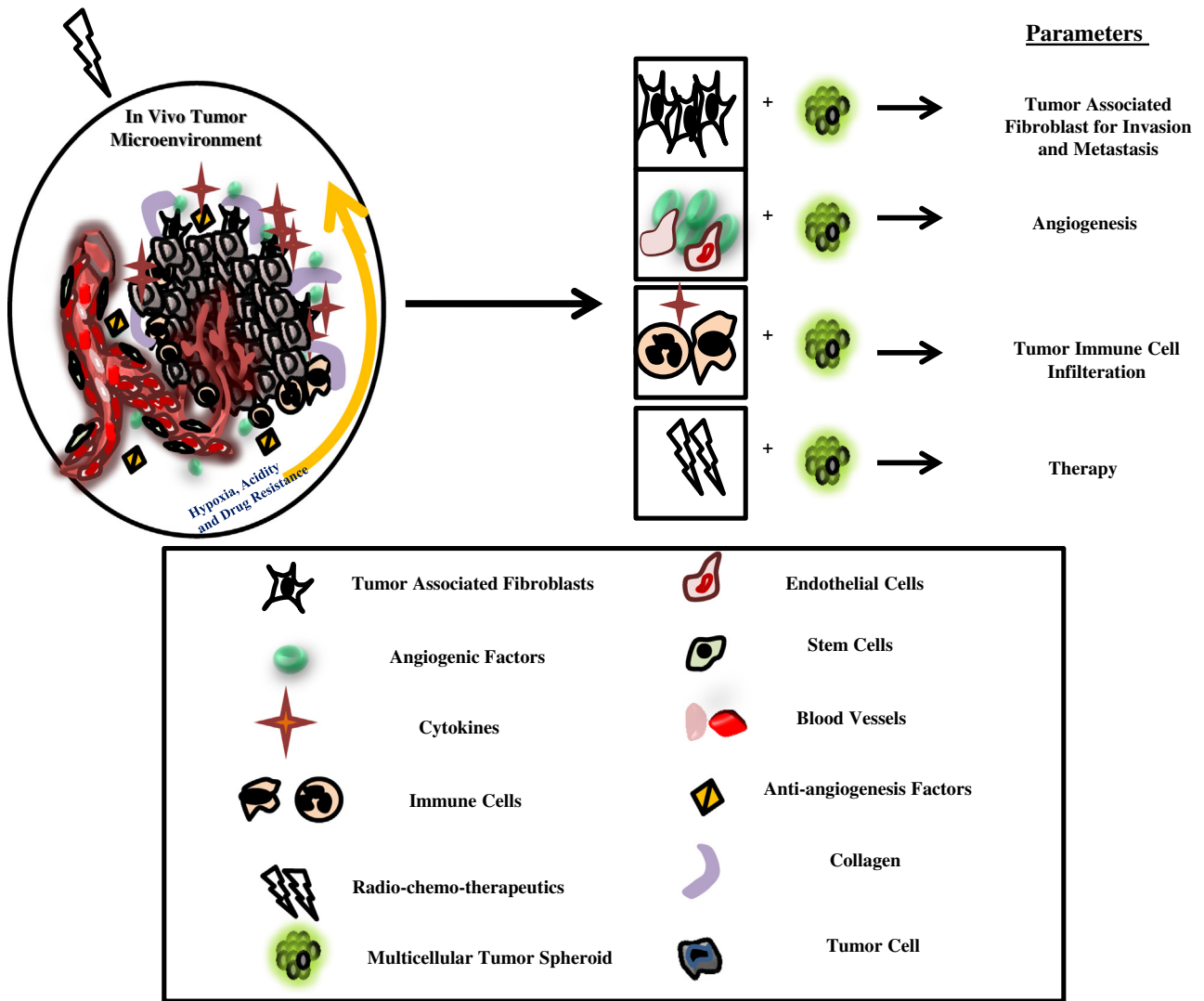


FIGURE 11.2 Approaches for studying the effects of tumor associated parameters on the *in vivo* response of tumors using multicellular tumor spheroid (MCTS).

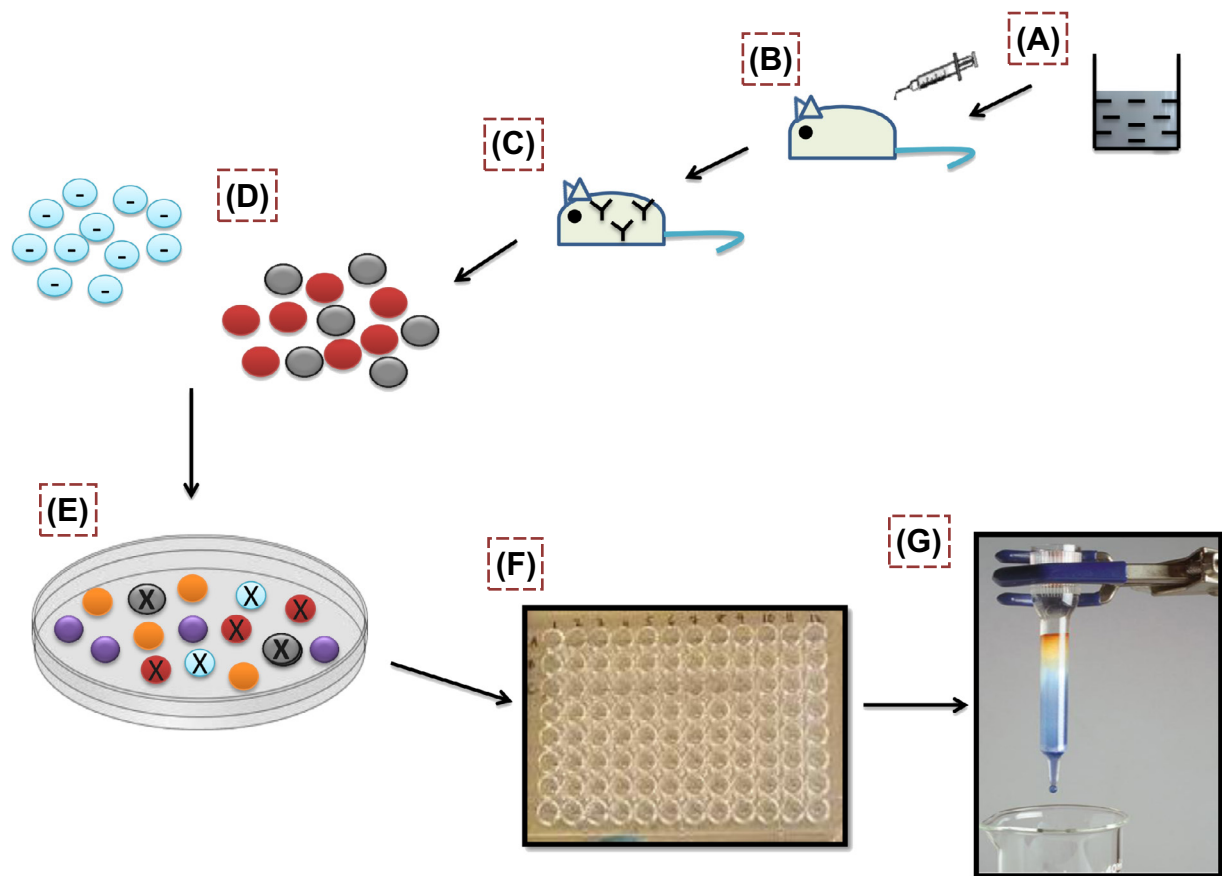


FIGURE 15.3 Schematic Representation of Production of Monoclonal Antibodies. This figure represents different crucial steps in the production of monoclonal antibodies. **(A) Antigen Preparations:** Antigen has to be prepared with Freund's Complete Adjuvant or Freund's Incomplete Adjuvant. **(B & C) Immunization:** Mice have to be immunized by injecting antigen prepared with adjuvant; they also have to be given booster doses. **(D) Preparation of Splenocytes and Fusion with Myeloma:** The spleen has to be removed from immunized mice and a single-cell suspension of splenocytes has to be prepared. Then splenocytes have to be fused with myeloma cells in the presence of fusogenic agents. **(E) Selection of Hybridoma:** After fusion, a hybridoma has to be selected from the cell population mixture. Cells have to be grown in HAT selection medium so that after selection only hybridoma cells can survive, while B-lymphocytes and un-fused myeloma cells will die. **(F) Screening of Clone:** After selection of hybridoma cells, a specific clone has to be selected. Different hybridoma cells are diluted in 96-well plates, and after a period of time each clone has to be tested for specificity against the antigen. **(G) Purification of Monoclonal Antibodies:** After selection of a specific hybridoma clone, monoclonal antibodies can be purified. If downstream application requires purification of monoclonal antibodies, then the clone can be expanded and appropriate methods can be applied for purification of monoclonal antibodies. (●), myeloma cells; (●●), lymphocytes; and (●●), hybridomas. Cells marked with an "X" represent cell death in the selection medium.

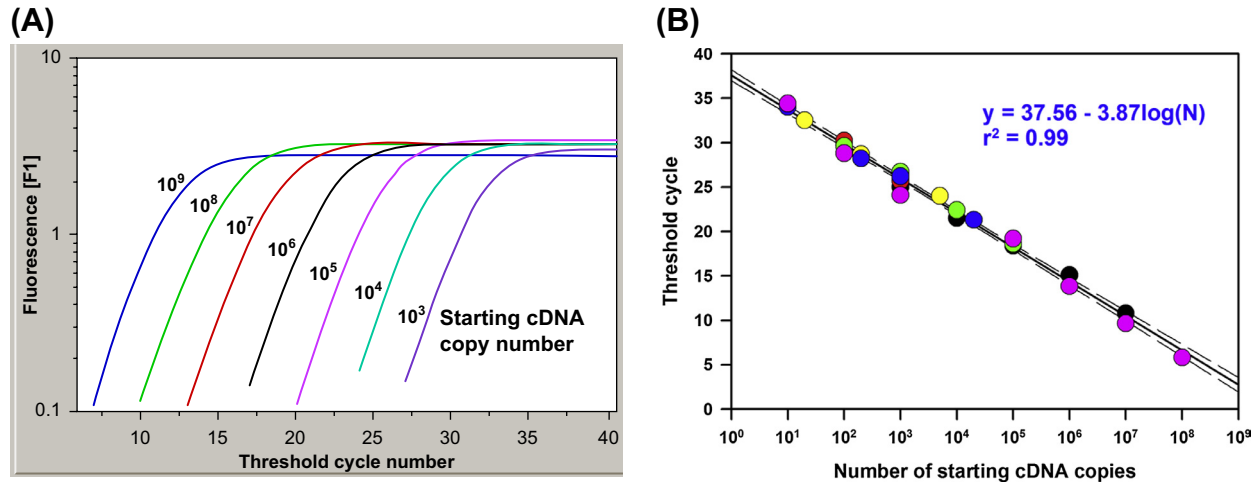


FIGURE 17.1 Example of a quantitative real-time PCR with the primers for α -tubulin. (A) Tubulin cDNA real-time amplification curves for samples containing standard dilutions of the purified target cDNA. (B) Tubulin qPCR calibration curve generated by amplifying known copy numbers of the target cDNA; circles of different colors correspond to separate calibration runs conducted during a 2-year period; dashed lines show 95% confidence intervals for the regression line across all data points.

Phage display	Ribosome display	mRNA display
MW of linkage moiety ($\sim 10^8$)	MW of linkage moiety ($\sim 10^6$)	MW of linkage moiety ($\sim 10^4$)
Library size $\sim 10^8$	Library size $\sim 10^{12}$	Library size $\sim 10^{14}$
Viral capsid linkage	Non-covalent (Ribosome) linkage	Covalent (Puromycin) linkage
Cell-based expression system	Cell-free expression system	Cell-free expression system
Transformation required	Not required	Not required

FIGURE 20.5 Illustration and comparison of the most common biomolecular display technologies. In phage display, an indirect linkage (physical) between the gene and gene product is provided by the viral capsid. In ribosome display, a non-covalent linkage is achieved by producing ternary complexes of RNA, ribosomes, and associated nascent peptides. In the mRNA display system, a covalent linkage is generated through a puromycin molecule attached to the encoding mRNA via a short DNA linker molecule.

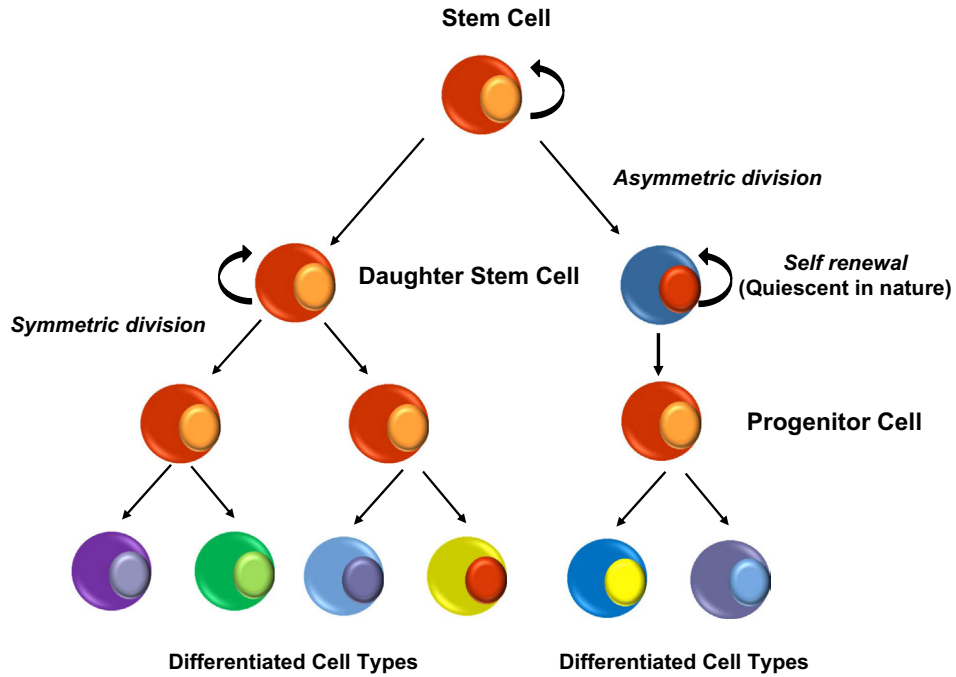


FIGURE 23.2 Asymmetric and symmetric stem cell division.

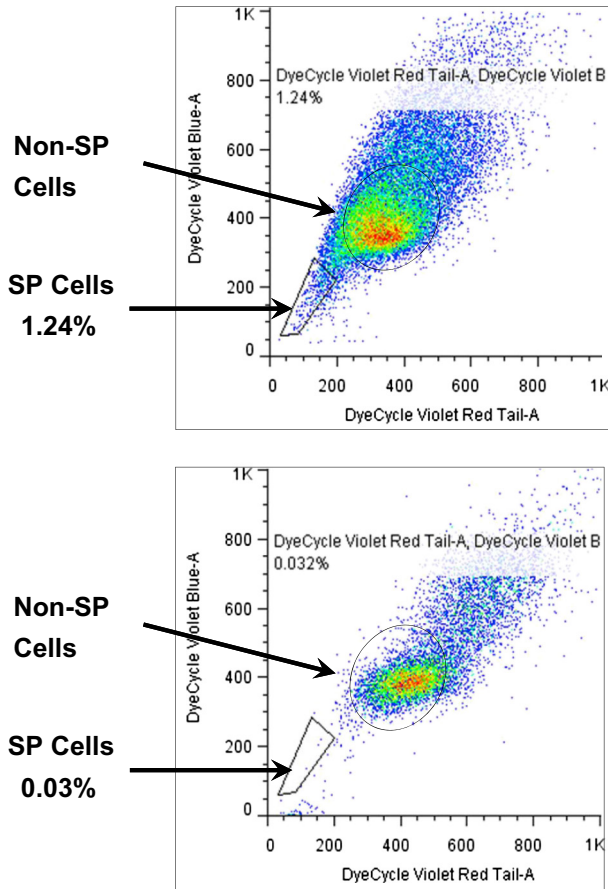


FIGURE 23.4 Side population identification based on DCV dye efflux in HPV16+ve Cervical Cancer Cell Line (SiHa).

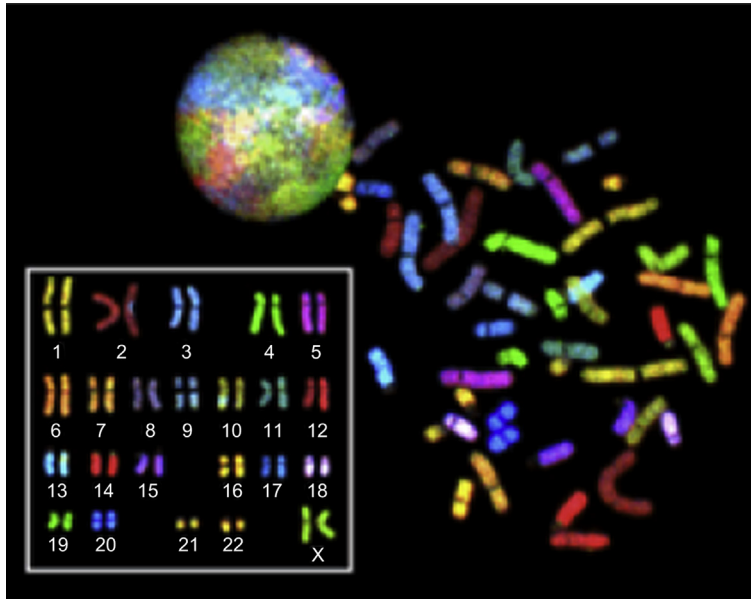


FIGURE 24.5 SKY image showing metaphase chromosomes labeled with different fluorochromes.

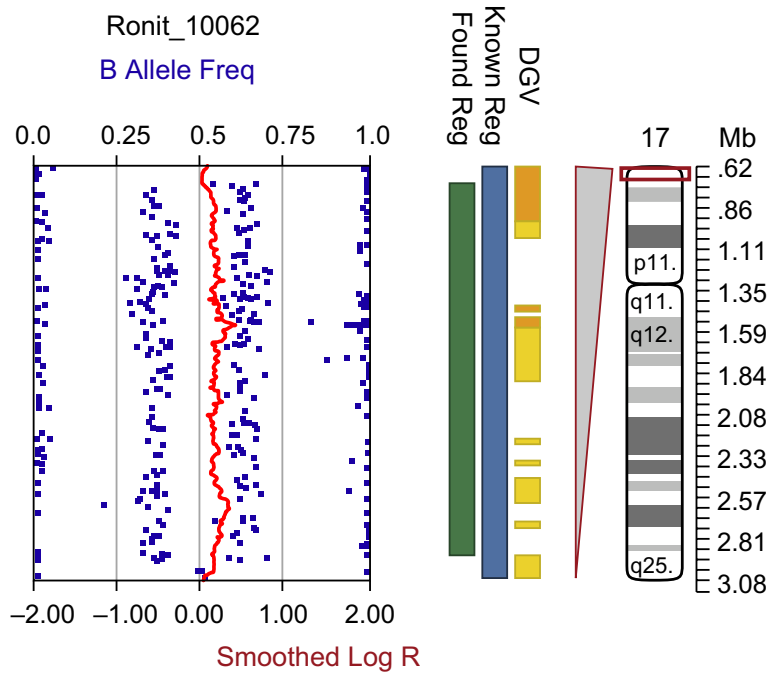


FIGURE 24.6 Array-CGH image showing 2.2 Mb duplication on chromosome 17q13.3.

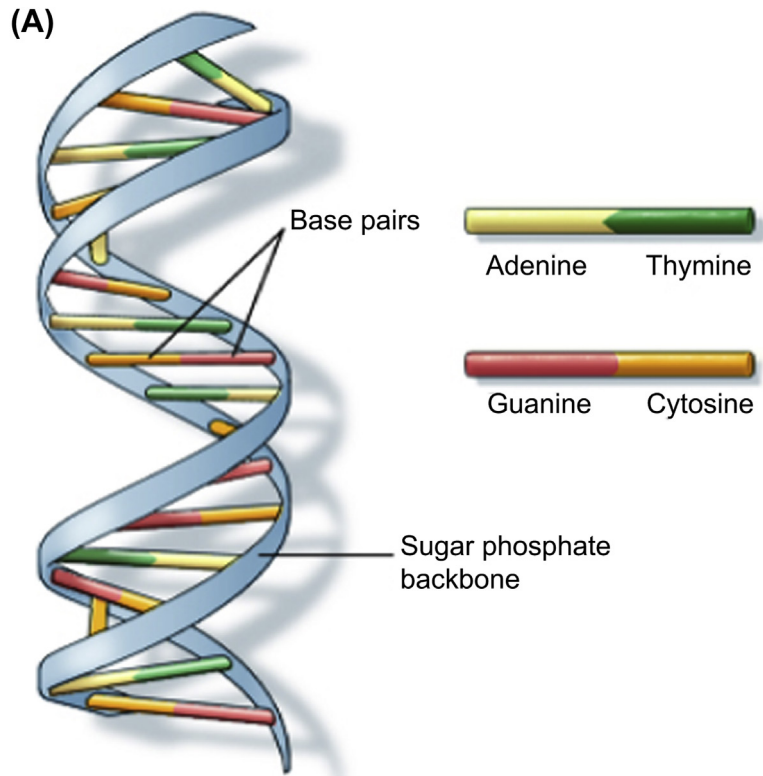


FIGURE 24.7A Double helix structure of DNA. (Courtesy: U.S. National Library of Medicine.)

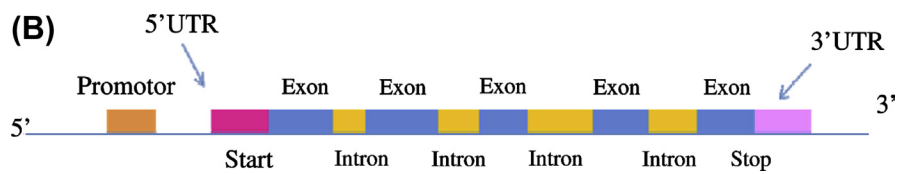


FIGURE 24.7B Structure of a typical human gene.

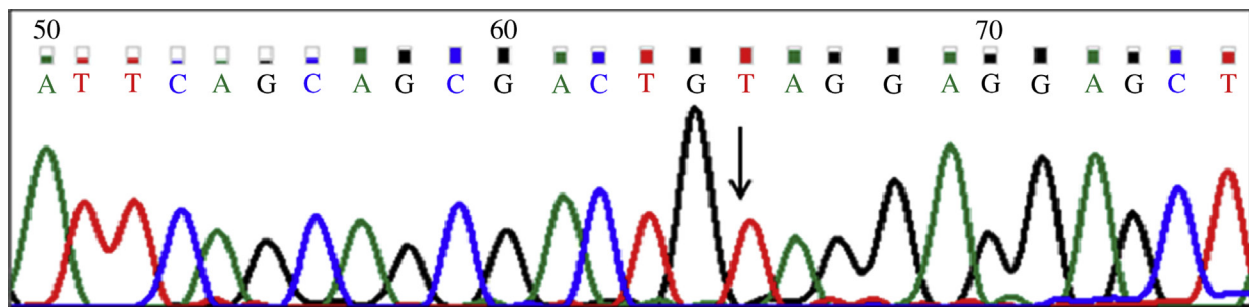


FIGURE 24.8 Electropherogram showing mutation. An arrow shows C to T substitution in codon 318 (CAG to TAG) that results in change of Gutamine (Q) coded by CAG to stop codon TAG, denoted as X.

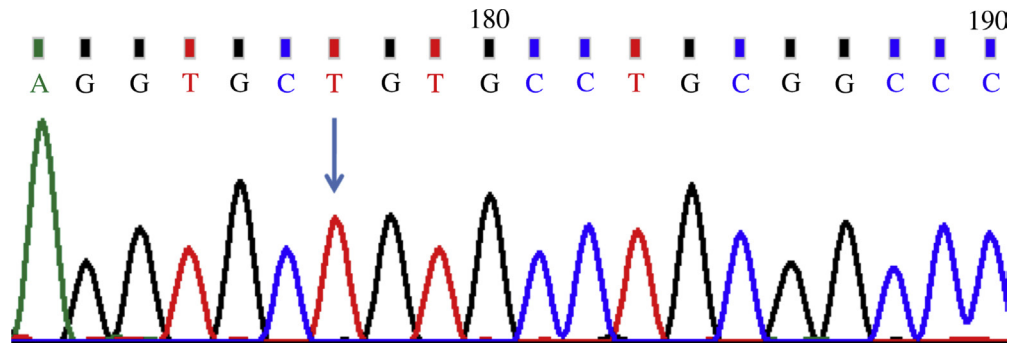


FIGURE 24.9D Partial electropherogram of DMD gene showing C to T change (shown by arrow).

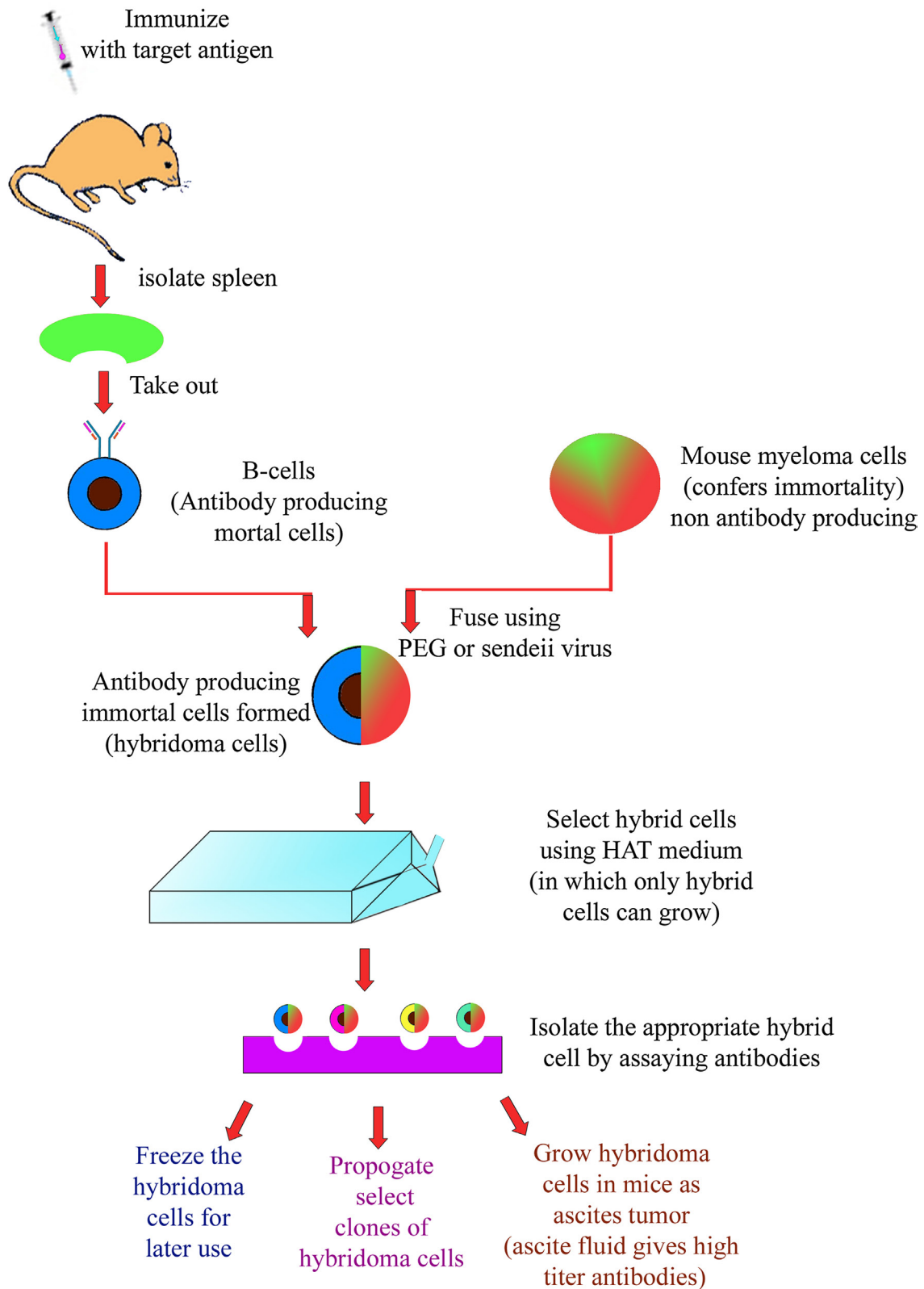


FIGURE 25.1 Production of monoclonal antibodies (a simplified overview).

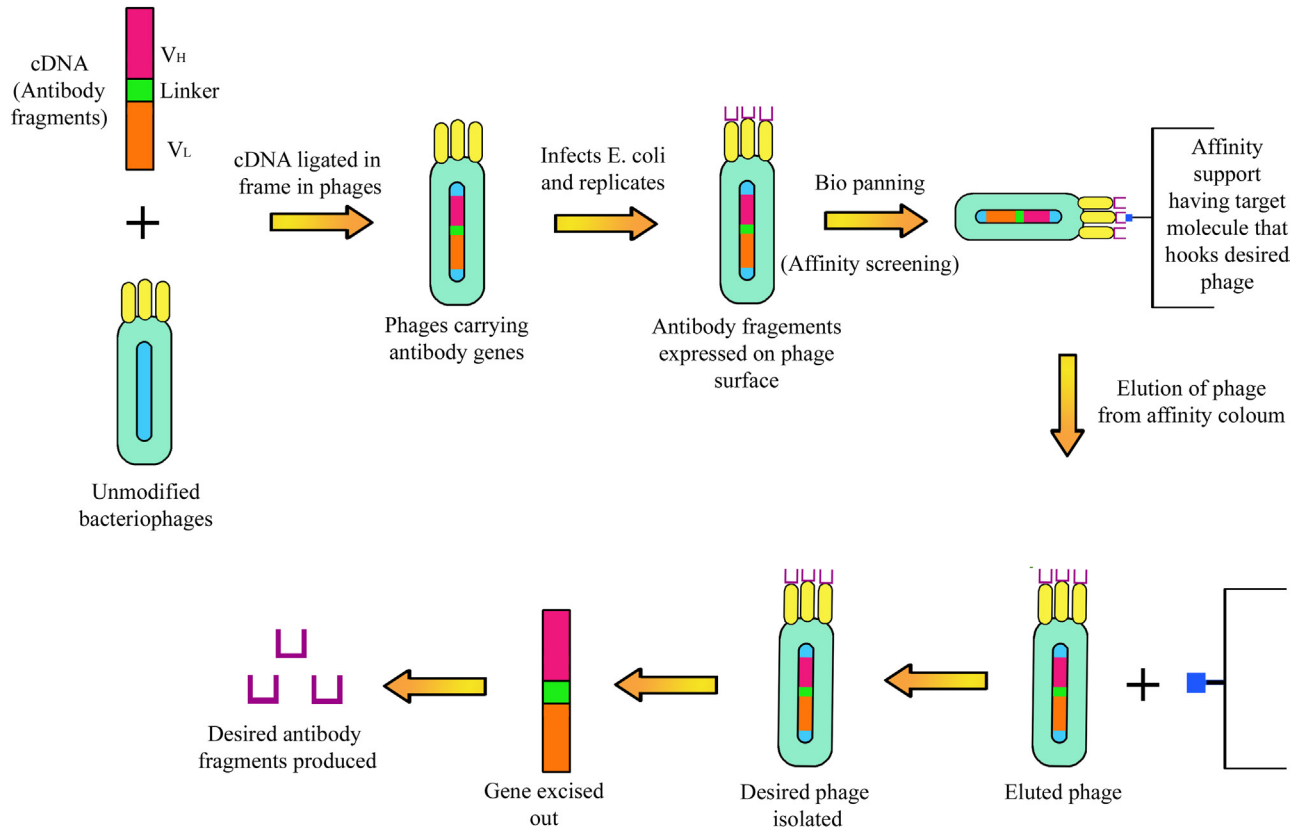


FIGURE 25.3 Phage display technology for antibody screening.

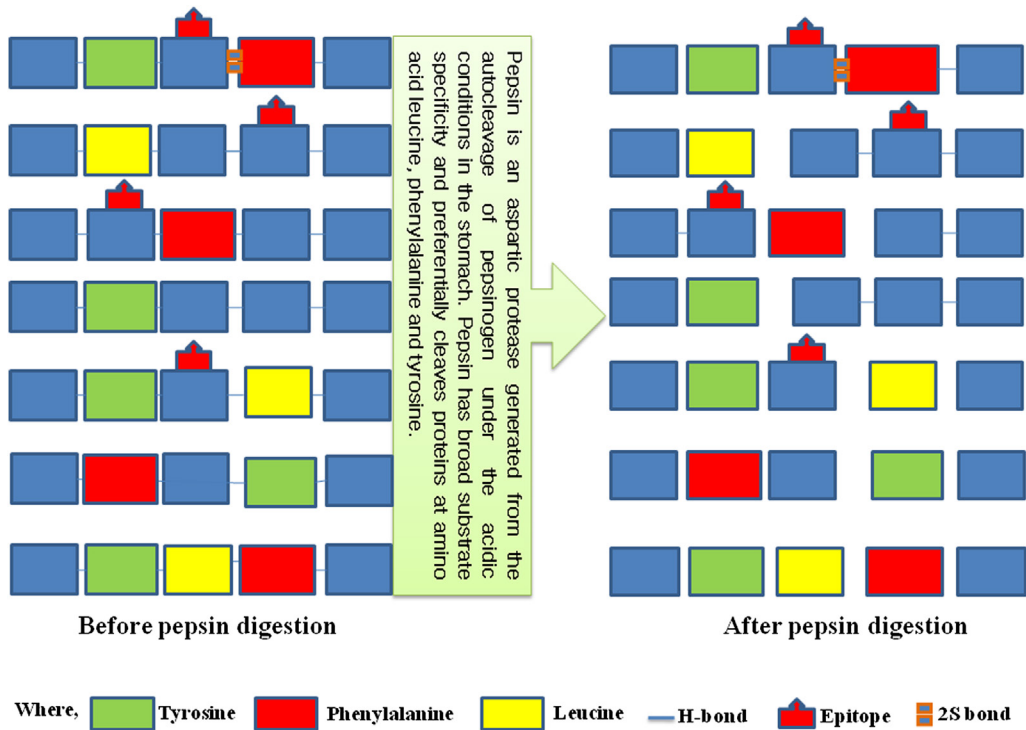


FIGURE 27.2 Mechanism of action of pepsin on polypeptides.

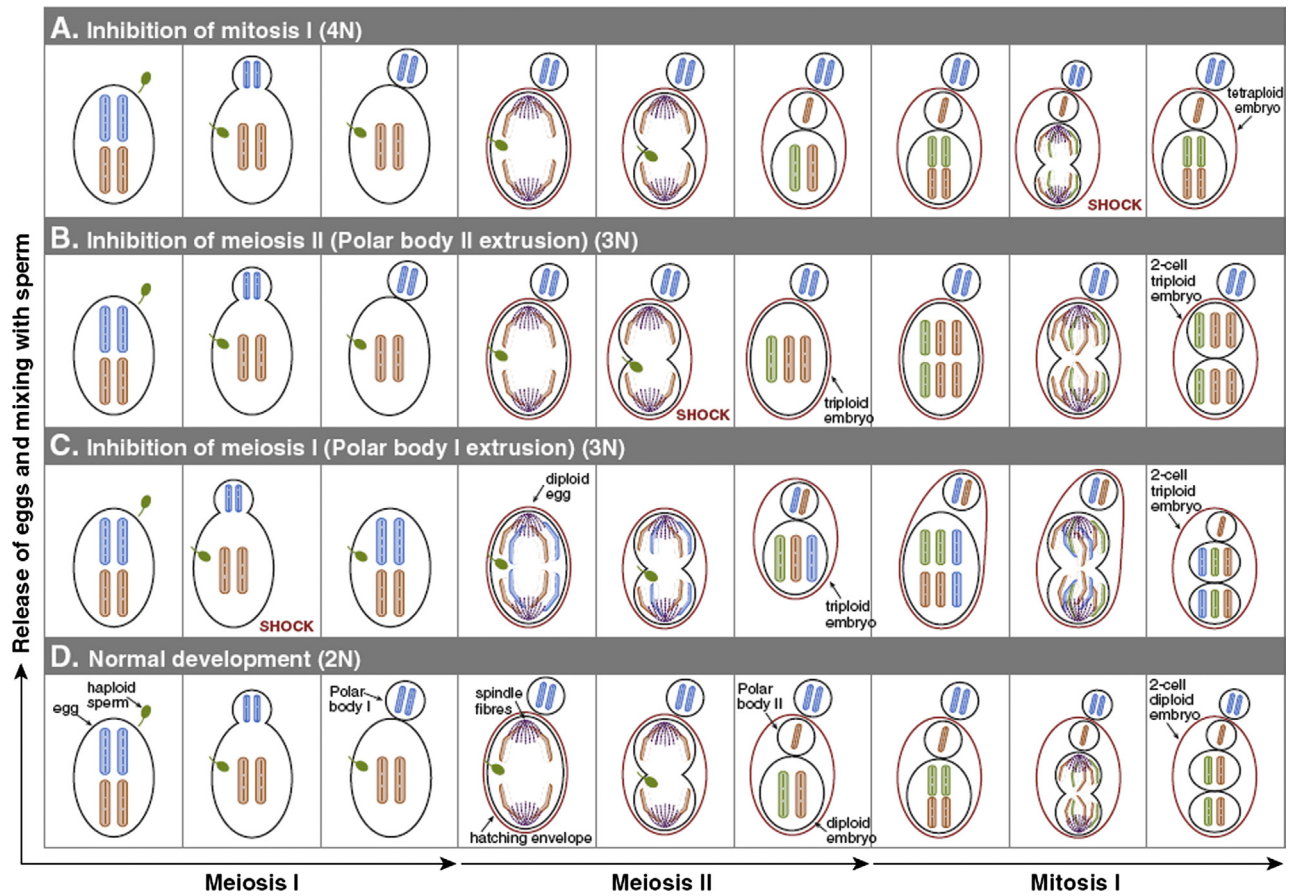


FIGURE 29.1 Process of inducing (A) Meiosis I triploidy, (B) Meiosis II triploidy and (C) Mitotic tetraploidy, and (D) Normal development in penaeid shrimp. (Source: Sellars et al., 2010)

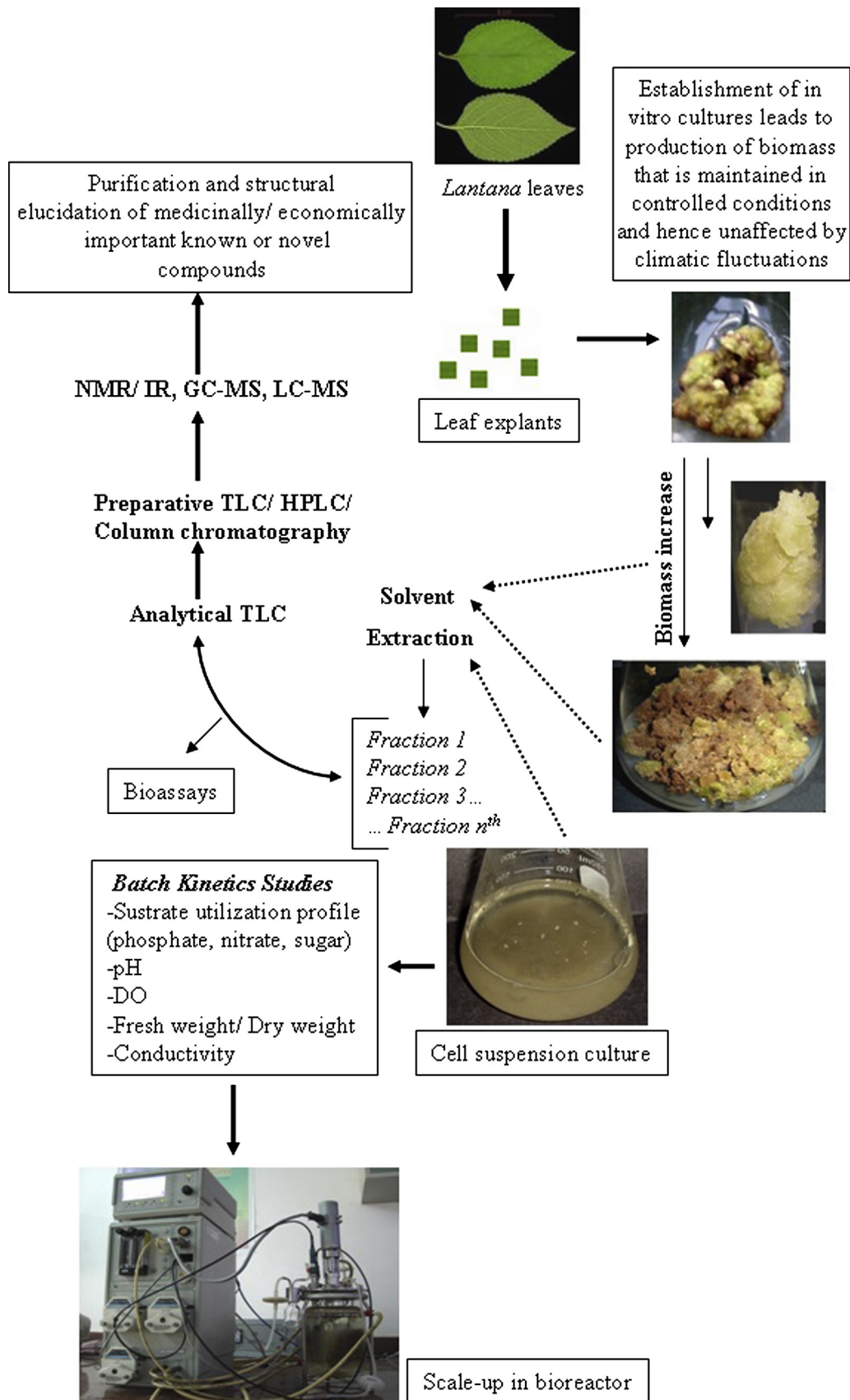


FIGURE 30.4 Isolation of bioactive compounds from *Lantana camara*, a medicinal plant.