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## Introduction

The period of sub-atomic marker improvement and applications started during the 1980s. A little later, the development of CRISPR-Cas9 markers followed this significant milestone in plant genomics research [1]. From that point forward, the utilizations of numerous sub-atomic markers have been accounted for in different parts of plant sub-atomic reproducing and genomic sequencing specific or arbitrary oligonucleotide primers, the CRISPR method allows specific DNA sequences to be practically amplified from genomic DNA sections. Currently available tools for plant improvement research in nucleotide markers. The majority of these markers are polymorphic nucleotides that differ between individuals or populations [2].

of the relative characteristics whether the qualities in itself are known or not, and whether the gene(s) can be identified or not. If there are differences in the marker nucleotide sequences that are referred to as polymorphisms between individuals or species, then DNA markers can be used to identify individual genotypic differences in the same or different species. There are many different kinds of DNA mutations that cause nucleotide sequence differences between organisms or between species, resulting in molecular marker polymorphisms.

Point mutations involving single nucleotide substitutions, rearrangements involving insertions or deletions, DNA deletion, duplication, translocations, and inversions, as well as mistakes in tandemly repeated DNA replication, typically result in marker polymorphisms in organisms [5]. Polymorphic markers are signals from molecular markers that can be used to identify genotypic differences between individuals due to differences in marker sequence. Monomorphic markers, on the other hand, are DNA markers that cannot be used to distinguish between genotypes. A good and very useful DNA marker is easily assayable, inexpensive, multiplexed, and able to be automated, ubiquitous and evenly distributed throughout the genome. To effectively differentiate between homozygotes and heterozygotes, an ideal molecular marker must also be highly polymorphic, co-dominant in expression, highly reproducible, and able to share generated data among laboratories. A very good molecular DNA marker also has the properties of being genome-specific, having multiple functions, and not having a negative effect on phenotype [6].

For all intents and purposes, a sub-atomic marker isn't simply the relative polymorphism yet the entirety of the point-by-point conventions or systems for its location or ID. A molecular marker is frequently viewed solely in terms of individual-to-individual variations in DNA sequence or polymorphism. However, it is instructive to note that a molecular marker may in some instances merely consist of a primer or set of primers, restriction enzyme(s), or other relevant components, as well as the procedures for running the marker. The implication is that a complete package of primers, restriction enzymes, or other relevant components as well as the established detailed method for the detection of that particular molecular marker must be known or available for a DNA section to be considered a molecular marker. A sequence polymorphism cannot be useful as a molecular marker in the absence of such a comprehensive collection of information specific to the marker. For sure, this total assortment of data for all intents and purposes characterizes a sub-atomic marker totally.

### Random fragment length polymorphism (RFLP)

DNA probe hybridization in Southern blotting and restriction enzyme cleavage of genomic DNA at random but specific recognition sites generate RFLP, a polymorphism that is dependent on DNA sequence length variation. By determining whether or not specific enzymes used in the restriction of DNA samples produce fragments of varying base pair sizes or lengths, RFLP reveals variation in DNA sequences

electrophoretic gel, individuals with these mutation effects will exhibit distinctive DNA banding patterns. A 200 bp fragment was produced when primers 1 and 2 were annealed to the repetitive DNA sequence in Accession 1. Similar to this, another 375 bp size fragment was amplified by the binding of primers 3 and 4 to the Accession 1 DNA sequence. As a result, Accession 1 produced two distinctive RAPD fragment sizes. In Accession 11, a mutation marked by a red asterisk is found at the binding site of primer 2 [12]. As a consequence of this lack of the primer 2 binding site, only one RAPD fragment (350 bp in size) is amplified in Accession 11. The 375 bp sequence is monomorphic in light of the fact that it could not separate between the populations. However, the 200 bp fragment is polymorphic because it differentiates between accessions.

When two annealing template DNA locations have similar sequences, are appropriately separated by a small amount, and anneal to the template with their orientations facing each other, PCR amplification takes place. Therefore, the nucleotide composition of the template DNA sequence, the species' genome size or complexity, and the primer(s) sequence and length all play a significant role in the success of fragment PCR amplification. RAPD parts are effortlessly isolated in agarose gels by electrophoresis. UV light is used to visualize the gel, which is stained with ethidium bromide or any other suitable stain. Random annealing of arbitrary RAPD primers to various parts of the target organism's genome results in the production of intricate patterns of PCR products. The presence or absence of various types of mutations that determine the binding or non-binding of the respective primers to various sections of each accession's DNA is the cause. Distinctive banding RAPD polymorphisms are typically found due to differences in sequence size between individuals' primer binding sites and the target DNA [13]. On a fundamental level, RAPD polymorphisms emerge essentially from variations in the preliminary hybridization or toughening positions in the objective genome. However, it's important to keep in mind that not all primer annealing sites in the target genome will always result in amplified PCR fragments. Subsequently, essentially, RAPD polymorphisms are sequence-length variations in really created PCR items in the middle between groundwork toughening destinations in the objective genome.

### Retrotransposon-based markers

Long terminal repeats (LTRs) are extremely conserved sequences at the ends of retrotransposons. Eukaryotic retrotransposons are the most common mobile genetic molecules. These mobile genetic molecules or elements frequently reside close to known genes in genomic regions [14]. Several retrotransposon sequences have been generated. Here is an example: m135.57uen9(g)8t() 12(n)8(sq (g)8i'il im)19hloe 5q )lue.1019h

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