# DEVELOPMENT OF FUNCTIONAL SSR MARKERS FOR D -LIMONENE CONTENT AND ANALYSIS OF GENETIC POLYMORPHISM IN CARDAMOM (*Elettaria cardamom* Maton)

By

#### **RESHMA RETNAKARAN**

(2013-09-112)

#### THESIS

Submitted in partial fulfilment of the

requirement for the degree of

#### B. Sc. - M. Sc. (INTEGRATED) BIOTECHNOLOGY

#### Faculty of Agriculture Kerala Agricultural University, Thrissur



# DEPARTMENT OF PLANT BIOTECHNOLOGY COLLEGE OF AGRICULTURE VELLAYANI, THIRUVANANTHAPURAM- 695 522 KERALA, INDIA 2018

#### **DECLARATION**

I hereby declare that the thesis entitled "Development of functional SSR marker for D-Limonene content and analysis of genetic polymorphism in cardamom (*Elettaria cardamomum* Maton)" is a bonafide record of research done by me during the course of research and that the thesis has not previously formed the basis for the award of any degree, diploma, fellowship or other similar title, of any other University or Society.

Place: Vellayani

Date:21/11/2018

RESHMA RETNAKARAN

(2013-09-112)

# KSCSTEJNTBGRI



കെ എസ് സി എസ് ടി ഇ - ജവഹർലാൽ നെഹ്റു ട്രോഷിക്കൽ ബൊട്ടാണിക് ഗാർഡൻ ആന്റ് റിസർച്ച് ഇൻസ്റ്റിറ്റൂട്ട് KSCSTE - Jawaharlal Nehru Tropical Botanic Garden and Research Institute

An institution of Kerala State Council for Science, Technology & Environment; National Centre of Excellence, Govt. of India

#### **CERTIFICATE**

This is to certify that this thesis entitled "Development of functional SSR markers for D-Limonene content and analysis of genetic polymorphism in cardamom (*Elettaria cardamomum* Maton)" is a record of research work done by Ms. Reshma Retnakaran (2013-09-112) under my guidance and supervision and that this has not previously formed the basis for the award of any degree, diploma, fellowship or associateship to her.

Place: Palode Date: 21/11/2018

Dr. K. K. Sabu Senior Scientist, Biotechnology and Bioinformatics Division, JNTBGRI, Palode, Thiruvananthapuram- 695 562

#### **CERTIFICATE**

We, the undersigned members of the advisory committee of Ms. Reshma Retnakaran (2013-09-112), a candidate for the degree of B. Sc. – M. Sc. (Integrated) Biotechnology, agree that the thesis entitled "Development of functional SSR markers for D-Limonene content and analysis of genetic polymorphism in cardamom (*Elettaria cardamomum* Maton)" may be submitted by Ms. Reshma Retnakaran in partial fulfilment of the requirement for the degree.

**Dr. K. K. Sabu** (Chairperson, Advisory Committee) Senior Scientist Biotechnology and Bioinformatics Division JNTBGRI, Palode Thiruvananthapuram- 695 562

Dr. R. K. Radha (Member, Advisory Committee) Scientist Biotechnology and Bioinformatics Division JNTBGRI, Palode Thiruvananthapuram- 695 562 Sweepnes

Dr. Swapna Alex (Member, Advisory Committee) Professor & Head Department of Plant Biotechnology College of Agriculture, Vellayani Thiruvananthapuram – 695 522

Dr. K. B. Soni (Member, Advisory Committee) Professor & Course Director B. Sc. – M. Sc. (Integrated) Biotechnology Department of Plant Biotechnology College of Agriculture, Vellayani Thiruvananthapuram – 695 522

Dr. Shirly Raichal Anil

Dr. Shirly Raichal Anil (External Examiner) Senior Scientist (Scientist E-1) Division of Crop Improvement Central Tuber Crops Research Institute, Sreekariyam Thiruvananthapuram – 695 017

#### ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I consider myself luck to have got the opportunity to associate with the prestigious and picturesque institutes like JNTBGRI and College of Agriculture.

I would like to thanks all the people who extended their help for the completion of my first research undertaking. It wouldn't have been possible for me to complete the same without the aid of these people.

First and foremost I would like to express my heartfelt gratitude to my guide, Dr. K. K. Sabu for his priceless advices, immerse encouragement and whole hearted support throughout the work. I am very fortunate to have him as my advisor. I admire him for his patience and inspiration, which helped me to recover when my steps faltered and to proceed successfully. I will always remember his painstaking efforts in the correction of my thesis and feel privileged to be associated with a person like him.

I owe my sincere thanks to Dr. K. Satheeshkumar, HOD, Biotechnology and Bioinformatics Division, JNTBGRI for providing me with the required facilities necessary for the completion of my work.

I would also like to place on record my thankfulness and appreciation to my committee member Dr. R. K. Radha for their invaluable contributions and logical suggestions that helped me to achieve the successful completion of this project.

I express my indebtedness to Dr. Swapna Alex, HOD, Department of Plant Biotechnology, College of Agriculture, Vellayani, for her incredibile cooperation and extended backing, and also for the critical suggestion during the coorection of my thesis.

Dr. K. B. Soni, my constant supporter and advisor, who always there for me with her motherly care whenever I needed it the most. Her scientific inputs, insightful comments and responsive guidance contributed a lot to me, both in my academic and personal life. I express my deepest gratitude from the core of my heart, for all her love attention that helped me reach here. I am grateful to Mrs. Soumya S. Dharan for her constant help and valuable advises throughout my work.

My acknowledgement will never be complete without the special mention of the seniors in the lab whose assistance, support and care that created an excellent working atmosphere for me. I would like to acknowledge Mrs. Nadiya, Mr. Shafeek, Mr. Mohammed Ali Noushad, Ms. Sakthipriya, Ms. Gouripriya R. and Mrs. Jinu Thomas. I would also like to thank Ms. Anusree, Mrs. Jisha, Ms. Soorya and Mr. Shibin Felix for helping me to distress during crises situation.

I express my deepest gratitude to my ever loving friends, my strength, who were always there to support, help and encourage me. I don't want to mention them individually as each one of them means a lot to me.

Finally I would like to acknowledge my family, which means the world to me. My parents, sisters and my beloved ones who always concern about me and give me support for all my endeavours. It's their faith on me and the prayer for me that lift me come up this far.

Above all I praise the Almighty for giving me the strength and patience for the successful accomplishment of my work....

Reshma Retnakaran

# CONTENTS

Sl. No.	TITLE	Page No.
1	INTRODUCTION	1 - 2
2	REVIEW OF LITERATURE	3 - 17
3	MATERIALS AND METHOD	18 - 26
4	RESULTS	27 – 55
5	DISCUSSION	56 – 57
6	SUMMARY	58 - 60
7	REFERENCES	61 – 73
8	APPENDICES	74 – 75
9	ABSTRACT	76 – 77

## LIST OF TABLES

Table No.	Title	Page No.	
1	List of Cardamom accessions used for the study	18-19	
2	Cardamom specific SSR markers		
3	PCR reaction mix	23	
4	Gene specific primers	26	
5	Morphological data collected from the thirty different cardamom accessions	28	
6	Quality and quantity of isolated DNA samples	29	
7	Annealing temperature of Primers used for diversity analysis	31	
8	Summary of genetic variation statistics for 30 accessions analyzed using 6 SSR primer pairs	39	
9	Nei's original measures of genetic identity and genetic distance estimated from the SSR analysis	40-41	
10	Essential oil components of the sample Palakkudi	43-44	
11	Essential oil components of the sample Pathumuriyan	44-45	

12	Essential oil components of the sample Njellani	45-46
13	Essential oil components of the sample Green bold	46
14	Total D- Limonene percentage of 4 samples	47
15	Gene specific limonene primers	50

## LIST OF FIGURES

Fig. No.	Title	Page No.
1	Dendrogram based on genetic distance assessed using 6 SSR primers in 30 cardamom accessions denoted by the local name	42
2	Spectrogram of Palakkudi	47
3	Spectrogram of Pathumuriyan	48
4	Spectrogram of Njellani	48
5	Spectrogram of Greenbold	49

# LIST OF PLATES

Plate No.	Title	Page No.
1	Cardamom plant bearing capsules	24
2	Clevenger apparatus and separated oil	25
3	Genomic DNA isolated from 30 cardamom accession	30
4	SSR profile obtained for primer CaSSR 41	32
5	SSR profile obtained for primer CaSSR 42	33
6	SSR profile obtained for primer CaSSR 46	34
7	SSR profile obtained for primer CaSSR 49	35
8	SSR profile obtained for primer CaSSR 52	36
9	SSR profile obtained for primer CaSSR 53	37
10	SSR profile obtained for primer S1	51
11	SSR profile obtained for primer S2	52
12	SSR profile obtained for primer K1	53
13	SSR profile obtained for primer K2	54
14	SSR profile obtained for primer P	55

# LIST OF APPENDICES

SI No.	Title	Appendix No.
1	TBE buffer	I
2	Tracking dye	п
3	AE Buffer	ш
4	Gel for AGE	IV

# LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

%	Percentage	
μl	Microlitre	
A <sub>260</sub>	Absorbance at 260 nm wavelength	
A <sub>280</sub>	Absorbance at 280 nm wavelength	
Ave_Het	Average hetrozygosity	
bp	Base pair	
cm	Centimetre	
СТАВ	Cetyltrimethylammonium bromide	
DNA	Deoxyribo nucleic acid	
EDTA	Ethylene diamine tetra acetic acid	
EST	Expressed sequence tags	
Exp_Het	Expected heterozygosity	
G	Guanine	
GC-MS	Gas Chromatography- Mass Spectrometry	
g	Gram	
h	Nei's heterozygosity	

I	Shannon's information index	
ISSR	Inter simple sequence repeats	
М	Molar	
mg	Milligram	
min	Minute	
ml	Millilitre	
mM	Millimolar	
mRNA	Messenger ribonucleic acid	
MSA	Multiple Sequence Alignment	
ng	Nanogram	
□C	Degree Celsius	
na	Number of alleles per locus	
ne	Effective number of alleles	
Obs_Het	Observed homozygosity	
OD	Optical density	
Р	Percentage of polymorphic loci	
PCR	Polymerase chain reaction	

Randam amplified polymorphic DNA	
Restriction fragment length polymorphism	
Revolution per minute	
Sequence characterised amplified region	
Standard Deviation	
Squence- related amplified polymorphisim	
Species	
Single Nucleotide Polymorphism	
Simple sequence repeat	
Short tandem repeats	
Tris-borate EDTA buffer	
Tris-EDTA buffer	
Melting temperature	
Unweighted pair group with arithmetic mean	
UDP-glucuronosyltransferase	
Volt	
Through	

#### **1. INTRODUCTION**

*Elettaria cardamomum* Maton, commonly known as green or true cardamom, is a large perennial, herbaceous, rhizomatous monocot belonging to Zingiberace family. Origin of the genus *Elettaria* is believed to be from evergreen rain forests of South India and Sri Lanka and later extended its boundary to other tropical countries.

Cardamom is one of the world's most expensive spice with sweet, burning taste and a very distinctive spicy odour. Plant grows upto a height of about 2 to 4 meters and forms a canopy. Flowers are beautiful and tiny and are usually white in colour with yellow or red strips over them. The colour of the fruit is green and turns golden yellow on ripening. The seeds from the capsules, which are harvested before they are fully ripe, constitute the spice known as cardamom.

The suitable growing condition of the cardamom is tropical, hot and wet climates. Small cardamom varieties are broadly classified into two depending upon their fruit size as *Elettaria cardamomum* var. major consisting of wild indigenous types and *Elettaria cardamomum* var. minor comprising the cultivated types *viz.*, Malabar, Mysore and Vazhuka.

The world production of cardamom is around 36000 tonnes per annum. Kerala is the leading producer of cardamom in the country constituting 78% of the total production which is harvested from 56% of the total land area under cardamom cultivation in the country.

Small cardamom is affected by various major and minor diseases which have been identified as the major cause of crop loss. The higher altitude, with heavy rain fall and humid conditions permits the occurrence of many fungal, bacterial and viral diseases such as katte disease, nilgiri necrosis, and rhizome rot. Indian Institute of Spices Research (IISR) in Kozhikode, Indian Cardamom Research Institute (ICRI) in Myladumpara, and Cardamom Research Centre (CRC) in Pambadumpara are currently engaged in research focusing on the improvement of cardamom and promising new varieties. The study aims to analyse the genetic diversity inherent in the cardamom genome using molecular (simple sequence repeats, SSR or microsatellite) markers and establish a correlation with D-Limonene, a component of cardamom essential oil possessing antioxidant activity.

D-Limonene, one of the constituent of cardamom oil is reported to have tumor suppressing effect against colon, mammary, liver, lung skin and stomach cancers in rodents (Samir *et al.*, 2015). The limonene possess antimicrobial and antioxidant properties (Desislave *et al.*, 2016).

Molecular markers are used to confess a polymorphism at the DNA level and have been playing an increasingly interesting part in plant biotechnology and molecular genetic studies. Microsatellite DNA markers has been widely used, due to its ease of handling by simple PCR, followed by a denaturing gel electrophoresis for the determination of allele size, and to the high degree of information provided by large number of alleles per locus.

Genomic libraries are used for developing microsatellite markers which belongs to either the transcribed region or non transcribed region of the genome (Jarne and Lagoda, 1996). Due to their high degree of variability, microsatellite sequences are suitable for distinguishing closely related genotypes. For studying variation in population genetics, microsatellite informative markers can be used.

Microsatellite markers have frequently been used for genetic diversity studies, because of their large number, distribution throughout the genome, high level of polymorphism, co-dominant inheritance, neutrality with respect to selection and easy automation of analytical procedures (Gupta and Varshney, 2000).

By screening diverse germplasm accessions, this study has the potential to analyze the genetic diversity with respect to limonene content and microsatellite markers. Correlation analysis was conducted to determine if the genetic variability as estimated by SSR markers as a good indicator for limonene content among the various germplasm accessions.

#### 2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Small Cardamom, *Elettaria cardamomum* Maton belonging to the family Zingiberaceae. It is an under crop plant in forest lands and mostly grown in the hilly regions of South India at elevations of 800- 1300 m above msl. According to reliable reports, cardamom cultivation started in India at 1803 and until then, cardamom pods were harvested from forests (Ravindran and Madhusoodanan *et al.*, 2002). Cardamom belongs to the genus *Elettaria* and species *cardamomum* (Maton). The generic name *Eletteria* was derived from its Tamil root 'Elettari' which means cardamom seeds (Sasikumar *et al.*, 1999). Ecosystem diversity is very limited in cardamom and majority of the diversity in cardamom comes from varietal diversity (Madhusoodhanan *et al.*, 1994).

Large cardamom commonly known as 'bada elachi' in Hindi (Amomum subulatum Roxburg) (Scitaminae: Zingiberaceae) is indigenous to moist deciduous and evergreen forests of sub Himalayan tracts. The presence of wild species locally known as 'churumpa' viz. A. delbatum, A. aromaticum, A. kingir, A. lingriformi, A. corynostachum etc. and the tremendous variability within the cultivated species support the view of its origin in Sikkim (Subba et al., 1984). It is the most important cash crop of Sikkim from where it spread to North Eastern States and parts of West Bengal and neighbouring countries; Nepal and Bhutan (Singh et al., 1978; Gupta et al., 1983). Sikkim has the largest area under cultivation (91%) with the highest production (87.5%) in India (John et al., 1984). Large cardamom is a shade loving crop and is better established under humid and cold conditions at an altitude of 900 to 2000 m above MSL and within a temperature range of 10 to 30°C under uniformly distributed annual rainfall of 2000 to 3500 mm (Biswas et al., 1988).

#### 2.1 PLANT MORPHOLOGY

Small cardamom is a perennial herb having subterranean rhizomes and several leafy aerial shoots (tillers) rising from the rhizome that grows up to 1.5 to 2 m height. Leaves are lanceolate and distichous in nature. Top portion of leaf

is dark green and bottom portion is light green in colour. Inflorescence emerges from the foot of leafy shoot and flowers are seen on inflorescences which can be of three different types such as erect, prostrate and semi-erect which varies with different varieties of cardamom. Flowers are racemic and zygomorphic nature. Bisexual flowers with inferior ovary are usually white in colour with violet lines characterized with a charismatic labellum. Fruit is a trilocular capsule and green in colour (Anandaraj and Sudharshan, 2010). Capsules are 20 to 25 mm in length, oval to globose and contain 30 to 55 seeds. It is a shade loving plant and 40 to 50 percent shade promote its vegetative growth and development (Kumar *et al.*, 2015)

Three varieties of cardamom are recognized based on their panicles nature (Sastri *et al.*, 1952) which include Mysore, Malabar and Vazhukka. Panicle of var. Malabar is of prostrate nature whereas var. Mysore is erect. Vazhukka is a crossbreed of the Malabar and Mysore varieties and its panicle is semi-erect in nature. Malabar var. plants are medium in size and attain 2-3 m height on maturity whereas var. Mysore plants are robust and attain about 3-4 m. Vazhukka var. has been considered to be a natural hybrid of both Malabar and Mysore varieties and exhibits characteristics intermediate to both (Ravindran and Madhusoodanan, 2002)

#### 2.1.2 Use of Cardamom

Cardamom is one of the world's ancient, expensive and highly valued spice. Its fruits are oblong, gray, each containing many seeds. It is effective against cardiac disorders, renal and vesicular calculi, dyspepsia, debility, anorexia, asthma, bronchitis, halitosis, gastrointestinal disorders including indigestion and flatulence. It possessed antioxidant, antihypertensive, gastro protective, antispasmodic, antibacterial, antiplatelet aggregation and anticancer properties (Verma *et al.*, 2009). It works as a laxative and soothes colic, wind, dyspepsia and nausea, even during pregnancy. It warms the stomach and also helps recovering from heart burn. In aromatherapy it is used as a massage oil or diluted in the bath,

cardamom oil comforts the digestive system, coughs and is used as a general tonic (Nirmala *et al.*, 2000).

Its aphrodisiac property makes it useful in medicines fighting stress, obesity and loss of appetite (Lwasa *et al.*, 2007). It is effective to remove fats and as a cure for urinary and skin infections in Ayurvedic medicine. The ancient Egyptians chewed it as a tooth cleaner and to aid in digestion. The seeds are regarded as carminative, stomachic, desiccant, resolvent, digestive and anti-emetic and ingested for the treatment of gastrointestinal disorders (Farah *et al.*, 2005) Cardamom essential oil has proven to inhibit fungus growth and marked antispasmodic, analgesic, and anti-inflammatory activities (Rehaman and Al-Zuhair, 2000). The seeds are used in spicy mixtures like curries, beverages such as tea and coffee, baked foods, confectionaries, meat products, biscuits, custards, wines and liqueurs (Lwasa *et al.*, 2007).

#### 2.1.3 Phytochemical studies

Cardamom is used as a flavouring material in three forms; whole capsule, decorticated seeds and ground seed powder. Essential oil of cardamom is the source of its aroma and flavour. Researches so far were concerned mainly with the composition of the oil. As early as 1908 there were reports that cardamom oil contained terpinene, sabinene, limonene, 1, 8-cineole,  $\alpha$ - terpineol,  $\alpha$ - terpinyl acetate, terpinen- 4-yl formate, acetate and terpinen-4-ol (Guenther *et al.*, 1975). The volatile oil is extracted from the seeds and the husks hardly give 0.2 per cent oil. Even though the public perception about good quality cardamom is the greenish capsule, the appearance of the capsule has little to do with the recovery of volatile oil (Sarath kumar *et al.*, 1985).

#### 2.2 D-LIMONENE

D- Limonene (1-methyl-4-(1-methylethenyl) cyclohexane), a bioactive component in the cardamom essential oil was reported to posses chemo preventive property towards colon cancer, lung, liver mammary, skin and stomach cancers in rodents (Acharya *et al.*, 2010) (Asamoto and Ota, 2002). Hence better

understanding of genes and pathways associated with the biosynthesis of the active compounds in cardamom essential oil might be beneficial for therapeutic purposes as well as selection of superior genotypes.

D-limonene is a monocyclic monoterpene with a lemon-like odour and one among the major constituent in several citrus oils (orange, lemon, mandarin, lime, and grapefruit). It is widely used as a flavour and fragrance additive in perfumes, soaps, foods, chewing gum, and beverages due to its pleasant citrus fragrance..

D-limonene has well-established chemopreventive activity against many sorts of cancers. Evidence from a phase I clinical trial shows a partial response in a patient with breast cancer and stable disease for more than six months in three patients with colorectal cancer. D-limonene induces phase I and phase II carcinogen-metabolizing enzymes (cytochrome p450), which metabolize carcinogens to less toxic forms and prevent the interaction of chemical carcinogens with DNA. D-limonene has been shown to enhance gastrointestinal UDP- glucuronosyltransferase (UGT) activity in rats (Van der *et al.*, 2004). It also inhibits tumor cell proliferation, acceleration of the rate of tumor cell death and/or induction of tumor cell differentiation. Furthermore, d-limonene inhibits protein isoprenylation.

The antimicrobial activity of the oil of black pepper is due to the carbohydrates sabinene, cymene, limonene, linalool and bisabolol. In coriander oil the components responsible for the antimicrobial activity are sabinene, cymene, limonene, linalool, borneol, geraniol, thymol and citral. In cumin oil the antimicrobial activity is due to cymene, limonene and linalol, in cardamom oil - to sabinene, cymene, limonene, linalool, geraniol and citral (Asbahani *et al.*, 2015).

#### 2.3 GENETIC DIVERSITY

Bio-diversity refers to the "variations" existing within the living world, while Rao and Hodgkin (2002) describe genetic diversity as the sum total of genetic characteristics within any species or genus. Many scientific studies remarked the importance of genetic diversity in providing genetic resistance against different biotic and abiotic stresses (Hughes *et al.*, 2004; Hajjar *et al.*,



2008). Hajjar *et al.*, 2008 showed that as genetic diversity increases, pest and disease management tends to improve and hence provides opportunity for further improvement of the species. Genetic diversity is essential for the rapid genetic improvement of crop species (Trethowan and Kazi, 2008).

India, the centre of diversity of small cardamom is one of the most important economical spices, along with saffron and vanilla. Cardamom var. minor acclaimed, as the 'Queen of spices', is the true cardamom belonging to the family Zingiberaceae under natural order Scitaminae. The monocot genus consists of relatively six to seven species distributed in India, Sri Lanka, Malaya and Indonesia (Hooker *et al.*, 1894; Holttum *et al.*, 1950; Madhusoodanan *et al.*, 2002). Small cardamom occurs in the wild gaps of evergreen mountain monsoon forests of Western Ghats in South India and in the western high lands of Sri Lanka (Wardini and Thomas, 1999).

Microsatellites occur in plant genomes are widely studied for analyzing the genetic variations. They are abundant in non-coding genomic regions, but also detected in coding regions through studies using microsatellites from expressed sequence tags (EST-SSRs) (Ranade *et al.*, 2014). The significance of EST-SSR as a molecular tool in genetic studies is well known (Ellis and Burke, 2007) and demonstrated in population studies and analysis of genetic diversity in many species like *Populus* (Xinye *et al.*, 2009). Recently, it was reported that EST-SSRs of turmeric and ginger showed considerable genetic variation in cardamom (Anjali *et al.* 2015).

Genetic diversity analysis *via* molecular markers paved way for genetic mapping and marker-assisted selection in breeding (Lapitan *et al.*, 2007). George *et al.* (2006) stated the preliminary assessment of the utility of ISSR analysis for detecting polymorphism in spices. Venugopal and Prasanth, 2004 reported on the analysis of genetic diversity for quantitative characters in cardamom germplasm. The improvement of crop genetic resources is reliant on the continuous infusions of wild relatives and traditional varieties with the help of modern breeding

techniques. All these procedures require the assessment of diversity at some level, to select resistant and highly productive varieties for raising a potential population (Mondini *et al.*, 2009).

DNA based molecular marker technologies, such as simple sequence repeat (SSR), amplified fragment length polymorphism (AFLP), sequence-related amplified polymorphism (SRAP) and single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs), have several advantages including abundant, independent from the environment, suitability for early and rapid evaluation, and having non-tissue specific characteristics. Among them, SSRs, also known as microsatellites or short tandem repeats (STR), are widely present in eukaryotic genomes (Sharma et al., 2007) and very useful for a number of reasons including co-dominant inheritance, high polymorphism, high variability and suitability for automated allele sizing and cross-species transferability (Jian-Wei Zong *et al.*, 2015).

#### 2.4 PRIMER DESIGNING

For a PCR reaction to be successful it requires a good primer for the exponential amplification process. Designing a good primer is very essential for carrying out an effective PCR reaction. Primer specificity, denying mis-priming and efficiency for precise amplification are important parameters in PCR primer design. Primers having a melting temperature in the range of 52-58°C usually yield best results. Primers showing an increased melting temperature have a tendency for secondary annealing and the GC content of the sequence provides a reasonable hint about the melting temperature of the same (Patricia *et al.*, 2009).

According to the set of rules recommended by Innis and Gelfand (1990), the designed primers should have a length of 17-28 bases, with 50-60% (G+C) combination, ending with G,C,GC or CG (at 3') and Tm ranges between  $55-80^{\circ}$ C. It should be devoid of three or more Cs or Gs at the 3'-ends that promotes mismatches, and also lack 3'-end complementarity and self-complementarity (Innis and Gelfand, 1990). Reducing intra-molecular or inter-molecular homology

while designing primers minimise the formation of hairpins and primer dimerization (Abd-Elsalam *et al.*, 2003).

Designing primers with last two nucleotides as AA or TT reduce the possibility for dimerization of the primers, is a practical strategy for upholding the stability of the hybridised 3 prime end (Innis and Gelfand, 1999). The primer pairs selected should be able to extend the newly synthesizing strand on either side in the direction of the parent strand to cover the specified target region (Kampke *et al.*, 2001).

#### 2.5 MOLECULAR ANALYSIS

#### **2.5.1 DNA Isolation**

Isolation of genomic DNA is the first step in most molecular biology experiments. The decisive factors when selecting an extraction method are quantity, quality and purity of isolated DNA. Techniques of molecular biology require DNA of varying purity and quality. Currently, there are many methodologies and isolation kits for the extraction of genomic DNA with optimal properties (Oza *et al.*, 2008). The buffer containing nonionic detergents such as cetyltrimethylammonium bromide (CTAB) is often used for DNA isolation, followed by a series of steps for the purification of DNA from contaminants using organic solvents or salt precipitation (Bossinger et al., 2006).

Isolation of DNA from plant tissues is problematic in comparison with DNA isolation from animal tissues because of the rigid cell wall that surrounds the plant cells. For DNA extraction from cells of animal tissues, only buffer containing detergents and proteinase K are necessary. For DNA isolation from plant tissues, participation of carbohydrates and enzymes ensuring lysis of cell wall is necessary (Manen *et al.*, 2005). The presence of polysaccharides, polyphenols and other organic compounds may interfere with DNA isolation there are two basic steps – degradation of cell membranes and purification of nucleic acids from contaminants of cellular content.

Traditional methods like phenol/chloroform extraction are still in use because of its consistency in the production of high-quality DNA (Hillis *et al.*, 1996). Proteins, lipids, carbohydrates, and cell debris are removed through extraction of the aqueous phase with the organic mixture of phenol and chloroform (Sambrook and Russel, 2001; Chomczynski and Sacchi, 2006). The DNA pellet recovered at the end is usually kept dissolved with TE buffer or sterile distilled water (Buckingham and Flaws, 2007).

The extraction of DNA from ancient and forensic material demands surface decontamination, by cleaning with 0.5% sodium hypochlorite solution following mechanical removal of the outer surface under strictly DNA-free circumstances (Zink *et al.*, 2005). Currently numerous attractive DNA extraction kits are commercially available and these systems are gradually becoming popular because of their ease and comfort of use, limited labour, and the ability to reliably produce high-quality DNA.

The potential benefits of DNA-level analysis embrace the fact that the DNA can be prepared from minor quantities of sample at any phase of life cycle and that it is relatively stable (Onyango *et al.*, 2010).

#### 2.5.2 Polymerase Chain Reaction

PCR is a scientific technique in molecular biology developed for amplifying a single piece or a number of copies of DNA across many orders of magnitude and producing thousands to millions of copies of a particular DNA sequence. It was developed in 1984 by the American biochemist, Kary Mullis. He got the Nobel Prize and also the Japan Prize for developing PCR in 1993 (Bartlett *et al.*, 2003). However the main principle of replicating a single copy of DNA using two primers had already been described by Gobind Khorana in 1971.

PCR is currently a standard and often indispensable technique used in medical and biological research labs because it is rapid, simple and inexpensive (Saiki *et al.*, 1985). The technique amplifies specific DNA fragments from minute

quantities of source DNA material, even when that source DNA is of relatively poor quality.

The major three steps involved in PCR technique are denaturation, annealing, and extension. In step one; the DNA is denatured at high temperatures from  $90-97^{0}$ C. In step two, primers anneal to the DNA template strands to prime extension. In step three, extension occurs at the end of the annealed primers to create a complementary copy of DNA strand. This effectively doubles the DNA quantity through the third steps within the PCR cycle. To amplify a section of DNA using PCR, the sample is first heated so the DNA denatures, or separates into two pieces of single-stranded DNA. Next, an enzyme called 'Taq polymerase' will synthesis two new strands of DNA, using the original strands as templates. This method ends up in the duplication of the original DNA, with each of the new molecules containing one old and one new strand of DNA. Then each of these strands can be used to create two new copies, and so on, and so on (Ochman *et al.*, 1988).

The annealing phase happens at a lower temperature, 50-60°C. This allows the primers to hybridize to their respective complementary sequences in template strand, a very useful tool in forensic chemistry. The newly-formed DNA strand of primer attached to template is then used to create identical copies of the original template strands desired. The enzyme, Taq polymerase adds available nucleotides to the end of the annealed primers and the extension of the primers occurs at approx 72°C for 2-5 minutes.

DNA polymerase I cannot be used to elongate the primers as one would expect because it is not stable at the high temperatures required for PCR. The beauty of the PCR cycle and process is that it is very fast compared to other techniques and each cycle doubles the number of copies of the desired DNA strand. After 25-30 cycles, whoever is doing the PCR process on a DNA sample will have number of copies of the original DNA sample to conduct experimentation. Assuming the maximum amount of time for each step, 30 cycles would only take 6 hours to complete.

As the process of denaturation, annealing, and polymerase extension is continued the primers repeatedly bind to both the original DNA template and complementary sites in the newly synthesized strands and are extended to produce new copies of DNA. The end result is an exponential increase in the total number of DNA fragments that include the sequences between the PCR primers, which are finally represented at a theoretical abundance of 2n, where n, is the number of cycles (Gibbs and Arnheim, 1990).

In molecular biology, qRT- PCR, also known as quantitative real time polymerase chain reaction is a laboratory technique based on the PCR, which is used to amplify and simultaneously quantify a targeted DNA molecule. Traditionally, PCR is performed in a tube and when the reaction is complete the products of the reaction (the amplified DNA fragments) are analyzed and visualized by gel electrophoresis. However, Real-Time PCR allows the analysis of the products while the reaction is actually in progress. This is achieved by using various fluorescent dyes which react with the amplified product and can be measured by an instrument. This also facilitates the quantification of the DNA.

PCR is helping in the investigation and diagnosis of increasing number of diseases. It has also long been a standard method in all laboratories that carry out research on or with nucleic acids. Even competitive techniques equivalent to DNA chips typically need amplification of DNA by means of PCR as an essential preliminary step. By allowing the determination and quantification of changes in gene expression, these techniques have provided a greater understanding of disease processes and now serve as a foundation for diagnostics and basic science research (Faoud and Cristiana, 2008). One of the important application of PCR in medical diagnosis, is the analysis of mutations that occur in many genetic diseases such as, cystic fibrosis, sickle cell anaemia, phenylketonuria, muscular dystrophy,

etc. (Prescott *et al.*, 2008). In genetic engineering PCR offers rapid screening of bacterial colonies for the correct DNA vector constructs (Pavlov *et al.*, 2006).

PCR methods have also succeeded in the discovery of unknown genes for an organism from the homologous sequences of known genes from similar organisms (Rose *et al.*, 1998). The prerequisite of knowledge about primers that are complementary to both the termini of the template DNA is one of the major limitations of conventional PCR.

#### 2.6 MOLECULAR MARKERS

Molecular markers are important tools for dissection and analysis of genomes for better understanding of genome architecture. This helps breeders to incorporate important agronomical traits in breeding programmes by marker assisted selection (Christiansen *et al.*, 2002). Among the molecular markers, microsatellite (Simple Sequence Repeat) markers are widely accepted for genetic diversity studies because of their reproducibility and codominant nature (Zane *et al.*, 2002). They show allelic variation and can be used for germplasm studies, linkage mapping and breeding studies. Molecular markers include PCR based and hybridisation based markers.

#### 2.6.1 PCR based Molecular markers

PCR is a precise scientific technique generally used in molecular biology and genetics for the exponential amplification of a specific segment of DNA (Joshi and Deshpande, 2010). The development of Polymerase Chain Reaction marked the commencement of the era of PCR based molecular markers (Mullis *et al.*, 1986).

#### 2.6.1.1 Random Amplified Polymorphic DNA (RAPD)

RAPD technique is simple, fast, does not require any DNA sequence information and is able to identify genetic variation within and between populations (Govarthanan *et al.*, 2011). This PCR based procedure detects nucleotide sequence polymorphisms by using arbitrary chosen primers usually 8-

10 bp long. The choice of a compatible primer and optimization of PCR conditions are the significant aspects in RAPD analysis (Blixt *et al.*, 2003). RAPD is considered to have a crucial role in cultivar identification (DNA typing), assessment of genetic variability and relationships management of genetic resources and biodiversity, studies of phylogenetic relationships and in genome mapping (Hasibe *et al.*, 2009).

#### 2.6.1.2 Amplified Fragment Length Polymorphism (AFLP)

To overcome the constraints of reproducibility linked with RAPD, AFLP technology for DNA fingerprinting was established by the Dutch company, Keygene (Zabeau and Vos, 1992). First employed by Vos *et al.*1995, the procedure of AFLP begins with the digestion of whole genomic DNA with two restriction enzymes. The technique dominates over RFLP and RAPD by combining the supremacy of RFLP with the flexibility of PCR based technology by ligating primer recognition sequence (adaptors) to the restricted DNA (Lynch and Walsh, 1998).

For the DNA of any organism, it is possible to construct AFLP markers, without an initial investment in primer/probe development and sequence analysis. As described by (Vos *et al.* 1995), amplification occur only when the primers anneal to fragments having the adaptor sequence plus the complementary base pairs to the additional nucleotides called selective nucleotides. AFLP succeeded in consolidating the advantage of PCR based technique in terms of efficacy, high throughput and amenability to automation with the specificity and robustness of RFLP based techniques (Vos *et al.*, 1995).

#### 2.6.1.3 Simple Sequence Repeats (SSR)

Microsatellites are multiple copies of tandemly arranged simple sequence repeats (SSRs) having a size ranging from 1 to 6 base pairs (Tautz, 1989; Litt and Luty, 1989). Because of their multi-allelic nature, reproducibility, codominant inheritance, high abundance and extensive genome coverage, SSR markers offer a

wide range of applications in plant breeding and genetics (Gupta and Varshney, 2000).

One of the significant features of microsatellite markers that make them the ideal candidates for genetic analysis is their extreme polymorphic nature, *i.e.*, across different genotypes, a large number of allelic variants are possible (Akkaya *et al.*, 1992; Powell *et al.*, 1996). Cardle *et al.*, 2000 reported that SSRs happen frequently as once in almost every 6 kb in plant genomes.

In addition to molecular mapping, EST-SSRs also offer opportunity for gene discovery when linked with a trait of interest (Thiel *et al.*, 2003). Enormous datasets of ESTs are being generated with the recently increased emphasis on functional genomics, and it is now possible to identify and develop EST–SSR markers at a large scale in a time and cost-effective manner using bioinformatics approaches (Scott *et al.*, 2000; Kantety *et al.*, 2002; Varshney *et al.*, 2002). Compared to those markers generated from genomic sequences, EST-SSR markers have more conserved region and therefore show increased transferability between species (Portis *et al.*, 2007; Varshney *et al.*, 2005).

Bioinformatics has great potential for being an attractive alternative for molecular approaches, subsequently, databases available for a large number of genome sequences, can be mined for SSR development (Gu *et al.*, 1998; Kantety *et al.*, 2002; Robinson *et al.*, 2004; Varshney *et al.*, 2002). In addition to the reduction in developmental costs it also permits development of a large number of markers in a short span of time.

Even though the development of EST-SSR markers was reported in other plant species such as wheat (Gupta *et al.*, 2003), cucumber (Hu *et al.*, 2010) medicago (Gupta and Prasad, 2009) etc, no EST based SSR markers of cardamom have been reported. Microsatellite markers are widely used in population genetic studies as they offer high ubiquity, relative ease of screening and also the requirement of minor quantity of low quality DNA for PCR amplification (Hutchinson *et al.*, 2003).

The course of discovery, isolation and design of suitable flanking primers which imparts time consumption, expensive and technical demand are the major limitations reflected in the application of microsatellite markers (Benali *et al.*, 2012).

#### 2.6.1.4 Inter Simple Sequence Repeats (ISSR)

Inter Simple Sequence Repeat marker was reported as a new fingerprinting method in 1994 by Zietkiewicz *et al.* and is useful for taxonomic, phylogenetic and mapping studies. ISSRs are around 100-3000 bp long DNA sequences situated between oppositely aligned and neighbouring SSR regions (Bracci *et al.*, 2011). Primers used for the amplification of ISSR regions will be microsatellite sequences.

#### 2.6.1.5 Single Nucleotide Polymorphism (SNP)

The single base differences occurring between DNA of different individuals is termed as Single Nucleotide Polymorphisms (SNPs). Once identified, SNPs can be converted into usable genetic markers that support several assays in molecular biology aided for clinical purpose and evolutionary studies (Gut *et al.*, 2001; Kwok *et al.*, 2001).

SNPs present within the coding regions, can result either in nonsynonymous mutations with alternation in amino acid sequence, or synonymous mutations that causes no change in the amino acid sequence (Sunyaev *et al.*, 1999). Sunyaev and co-workers estimated that about 20% of common nonsynonymous SNPs will have deleterious effects on protein structure based on the location of SNPs mapped onto 3D-structures and comparative homology analyses (Sunyaev *et al.*, 2001). Real-Time PCR is the most common application which is currently in use for detection of SNPs (Kwok, 2002). The increased interest towards the assay is because of the requirement of only a small amount of purified DNA.

#### 2.6.1.6 Sequence Characterised Amplified Region (SCAR)

Sequence Characterised Amplified Region (SCAR) marker is a modified version of RAPD marker system. The basic idea of changing dominant RAPD marker to codominant SCAR marker is to overcome the difficulties caused by the laborious procedures of RAPD (Yang et al., 2013). Sequence obtained from the cloned amplified product of RAPD marker is used to design primers for SCAR and this oligonucleotide primer pairs amplify DNA fragment at a single loci (Paran and Michelmore, 1993).

#### 2.6.2 Hybridisation based markers

In this technique, genomic DNA from different genotypes is cleaved by specific restriction endonucleases to produce DNA fragments and variation in length of these fragments is analysed.

#### 2.6.2.1 Restriction Fragment Length polymorphism (RFLP)

Restriction Fragment Length Polymorphism (RFLP) markers were used as molecular marker for plants after identifying DNA sequence polymorphism in adeno-virus and human genome mapping. Due to mutation, one or more nucleotides in the DNA of individuals of same species may differ. If this difference in nucleotides occurs at restriction sites, DNA fragments of different size will be produced by restriction enzymes. These fragments are separated by gel electrophoresis and transferred by southern blotting to facilitate the hybridisation of target DNA to the labelled probe. Finally autoradiography is employed for visualisation (Semagn *et al.*, 2006).

#### 3. MATERIALS AND METHOD

The research work was carried out at Biotechnology and Bioinformatics division of Jawaharlal Nehru Tropical Botanic Garden and Research Institute (JNTBGRI), Palode during the period 2017-2018.

#### 3.1 SAMPLE COLLECTION

*Elettaria cardamomum* Maton was used for the present study to analyse the genetic diversity of thirty different accessions and to develop a functional molecular marker in relation to its D- Limonene content. Samples were collected from different locations of Idukki and from the cardamom germplasm conservatory of JNTBGRI, Palode (Table 1).

Table 1: List of Cardamom accessions used for the stud
--

Sl No.	Accession Nos.	Local Name	Location
1	C65	PV2	Pampadumpara, Idukki
2	C51	Kanniyelam (Feral)	Maniyaramkudi, Idukki
3	T7	Wild	Therakudi
4	C70	Unknown	Kaki, Periyar
5	C53	Unknown	Bonacadu
6	C61	ICRI 2 (RV)	Myladumpara, Idukki
7	C103	Pathumuriyan	Vacacity, Idukki
8	C116	Kothu mysore	Chemmanar, Idukki
9	C107	Njellani	Vacacity, Idukki
10	C108	Njellani	Vacacity, Idukki
11	C104	Nadan	Chemmanar, Idukki
12	V8	Wild	Variyam
13	C106	Elam Raja	Mukkadi, Idukki

	10	4	
	×.	J	ł
(	X		l

14	C105	Njellani	Mukkadi, Idukki
		-	Wuxkuui, Iuukki
15	C112	Njellani	Kadamankudi, Idukki
16	C109	Green bold	Vallakkadavu, Idukki
17	C118	Thiruthaali	Chemmanar, Idukki
18	C120	Palakkudi	Vangalappara, Idukki
19	C113	Palakkudi	Vangalappara, Idukki
20	C117	Vazhukka mysore	Chemmanar, Idukki
21	LC	Large cardamom	Vallakkadavu, Idukki
22	C111	Njellani	Kadamankudi, Idukki
23	C64	PV1	Pampadumpara, KAU
24	C24	Wild	Pandimotta
25	C110	Green bold	Vallakkadavu, Idukki
26	ER	Elam Raja	Mukkadi, Idukki
27	NJ1	Njellani	Vacacity, Idukki
28	NJ2	Njellani	Vacacity, Idukki
29	NJ3	Njellani	Vacacity, Idukki
30	NJ4	Njellani	Vangalappara, Idukki

# 3.2 DIVERSITY ANALYSIS

## 3.2.1 DNA Isolation

The genomic DNA of thirty different cardamom accessions were isolated using Origin Plant Genomic DNA purification kit. Leaf samples were collected and wiped with sterile distilled water and subjected to DNA isolation with the following procedure;

Before the commencement of isolation, the buffer PW and GD were prepared by adding 60 ml of ethanol (96-100%) as instructed on the bottle and shaken thoroughly.

20

- 100mg of fresh leaf sample was weighed and grinded to fine powder using liquid nitrogen.
- 700 µl 65°C pre- heated GP1 buffer along with 0.1% β-Mercaptoethanol was added to the powdered sample and vortexed for 10- 20 s to disperse all clumps. The sample was then incubated at 65°C for 20 mins and mixed by inverting the tube several times.
- 700µl chloroform was added, mixed by inverting the tube and centrifuged for 5 min at 12,000 rpm.
- The aqueous supernatant was transferred to a new tube and 700 µl buffer GP2 was added, mixed by inverting the tube for several times.
- The whole mixture was then transferred into the Spin Column CB3 placed in a collection tube. Closed the CB3 lid and centrifuged for 30 s at 12,000 rpm. The filtrate was then discarded and the spin column CB3 was placed back into the collection tube.

(When the sample volume exceeded 700 $\mu$ l, successive aliquots were centrifuged in the same column.)

- 500 µl Buffer GD was added and centrifuged at 12000 rpm for 30 s, the filtrate was discarded and placed the Spin Column CB3 back into the collection tube.
- 600 µl Buffer PW was added to the Spin Column CB3, and repeated centrifugation for 30 s at 12,000 rpm, discarded the flow-through and placed the Spin Column CB3 back into the collection tube.
- The above step was repeated for one more time.
- Placed the Spin Column CB3 in the collection tube and kept for centrifugation at 12,000 rpm for 2 min, the flow through was discarded. The lid of CB3 column was kept opened at room temperature for a while to dry the membrane completely.

Spin Column CB3 was placed into a fresh 1.5 ml tube, and 50-200µl TE buffer was added directly onto the CB3 membrane, incubated 2-5 min at room temperature (15-25°C), and then eluted DNA via centrifugation at 12,000 rpm for 2 min.

#### 3.2.2 Agarose Gel Electrophoresis

The integrity of the isolated DNA samples were analyzed using Agarose Gel Electrophoresis. The technique separates biomolecules based on their charge/ size under the influence of an electric field. Samples were added to the well close to the anode. The DNA which was negatively charged due to their phosphate backbone repels from anode and moves towards cathode. Larger nucleic acids have a harder time moving through the gel matrix, thus the nucleic acid will get separated by size.

3µl of DNA aliquots from each sample was loaded in 0.8% agarose gel. The gel was run at 110V with 1X tank TBE buffer in horizontal gel electrophoresis unit for about 3 hours. The genomic DNA bands in the gel were visualized by Ethidium bromide staining under the gel documentation system.

#### 3.2.3 Biophotometer analysis

The quality and quantity of the DNA samples were analyzed by using biophotometer ((Eppendorf India Limited). The instrument was calibrated with 50µl sterile water as blank. Biophotometer required a sample size of 1µl DNA diluted with 49µl sterile distilled water for measuring the optical density and to identify the specified parameters. The instrument provided analytical data on,

- The absorbance of nucleic acid at 260 and 280 nm wavelength
- Concentration of DNA in the sample  $(\mu g/\mu l)$
- Purity of DNA sample (260/280)

# 3.2.4 Diversity analysis using available primer

For the analysis of genetic polymorphism and differentiation, already available cardamom specific SSR markers in JNTBGRI was used (<u>https://doi.org/10.2174/1574893611666161128123827</u>) (Table 2)

Sl. No.	Primer	Sequence
1	CaSSR 41F	GGAGGAGGAAGAAGGAGAAGAG
	CaSSR 41R	GAGCGAGAAGAAGAGGAGGAG
2	CaSSR 42F	ACCGTCTTGTCGTAGGTCTTGT
	CaSSR 42R	GGAAGGAGAGGATGGAGAGGTA
3	CaSSR 46F	TGTTGTTACTGTTGCTGTTCCC
	CaSSR 46R	GCTAACTCAATGTTTTCCCTGC
4	CaSSR 49F	CGAGGCAGAAATACAGATGATG
	CaSSR 49R	GCTGCTGATTCTTAGGCTTTGT
5	CaSSR 52F	ACTGGAGAGGGTATGGATGAGA
	CaSSR 52R	AAAAGCAACGAAAAGACGAGAG
6	CaSSR 53F	TTCGTCGCAGGATAGGCTT
	CaSSR 53R	CGATAAGATGGAGAAGGAGGC

Table2: Cardamom specific SSR markers

# 3.2.4 PCR amplification of genomic DNA with the designed primers

The newly synthesized primer pairs were optimized for PCR parameters such as the annealing temperature and concentration of reagents. The annealing temperature was standardized using gradient PCR. DNA samples were then subjected to PCR amplification with the designed non redundant primers. The reaction mixture consisted of the following items: (Table 3)

Reagents	Volume	
Water	6.2µl	
Taq PCR smart mix	7.5 μl	
Forward primer (25 nM)	0.15µl	
Reverse primer (25 nM)	0.15 µl	
Template DNA	1 μl	
Total volume	15.0 µl	

#### Table3: PCR reaction mix

Amplification was carried out on Agilent Technologies thermal cycler (Agilent technologies, Malaysia) using the following temperature profile: Reactions began with a 2 min initial denaturation at 94 °C, followed by 35 cycles with 30 sec at 94 °C, then 1 min at specific annealing temperature and 2 min extension at 72 °C, a final extension step covering 7 min at 72 °C marked the end of the reaction. The amplified products were resolved in 3 % agarose gel with ethidium bromide and were analysed using gel documentation system (UVP, UK). A 1000 bp DNA ladder was loaded along with the samples to compare the size of resultant bands.

#### 3.2.6 Diversity analysis with POPGENE

Diversity analysis was done using POPGEN software following the UPGMA method. The gel scoring data was converted to software acceptable format and statistical analysis was performed.

#### 3.3 D- LIMONENE ESTIMATION AND MOLECULAR ANALYSIS

#### 3.3.1 Sample preparation for oil extraction

Fresh cardamom capsules collected from different locations of Idukki were used as the samples for limonene estimation. Four varieties used for oil extraction were Palakudi, Pathumuriyan, Green bold, and Njellani. High yielding varieties such as Green bold and Njellani are the recent popular cultivars whereas Pathumuriyan and Palakudi are not widely in use due to their low productivity.

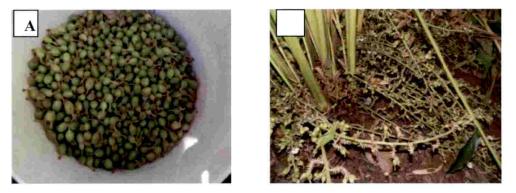


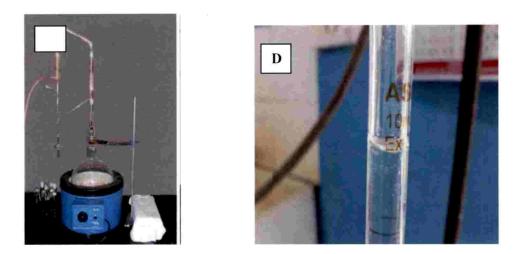
Plate 1: (A) Freshly collected cardamom Capsules; (B) Cardamom plant bearing capsules

Freshly collected capsules were washed under running tap water and let it dried to drain off the water. Each sample was weighed 65g and grinded using a blender to rupture the pods.(Plate:1)

## 3.3.2 Extraction of oil

Clevenger- type apparatus, a vertical hydro distillation unit has been used for essential oil extraction. It consists of a hot plate, boiling flask, biomass flask, still head, condenser and a receiver. The grinded capsules were soaked in water and boiled until the oil gets separated from water. The essential oil which was clearly distinguishable from water was then collected from the receiver. The samples were hydro- distilled for 3 hours and the collected oil was dried over anhydrous sodium sulphate (NaSO<sub>4</sub>) and stored at  $4\square$ C until analyzed.(Plate:2)





The extracted essential oils were analyzed by Gas Chromatography–Mass Spectrometry (GC- MS). GC- MS analysis was performed on a Shimadzu (Tokyo, Japan) Make GCMS-TQ8030 with non polar Rxi 5Sil MS capillary column, full scan mode, injector mode- split with 50:1 split ratio, quadra pole mass selective detector (MSD), injection temperature 220 $\Box$ C, GC- MS interface temperature 220 $\Box$ C, injection volume of essential volume was 1µl. Helium was employed as carrier gas, at a pressure of 57.5KPa and its flow rate was 1ml/min. Mass spectra were detected at 70eV. Temperature programming was set as follows: column temperature was started from 60 °C (held for 2 min) and linearly increased by 3°C/min to 250°C (held for 4 min). Total GC running time was 69.33 min.

#### 3.3.4 Designing of Primer

Using the keyword "Limonene synthase", a set of EST sequences was downloaded in FASTA format from the dbEST database available in NCBI Genbank (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/dbEST/index.html). dbEST is a division of Genbank that contains sequence data and other information on single pass cDNA sequences or expressed sequence tags. Cardamom specific limonene sequence was not available in NCBI Genbank, so limonene specific gene sequences of various plant species were selected for the synthesis of functional SSR primers. By using Multiple Sequence Alignment (MSA) tool in Clustal Omega, sequences were aligned. The sequences were uploaded to the WEBSAT software for identifying the SSR regions residing within the sequences. However, no SSRs were detected within the target region. So for, validating the results of GC-MS, gene specific primers for limonene were designed with the conserved regions obtained from Multiple Sequence Alignment (MSA). Efficiency of the newly designed primers was verified by using the software Oligo analyzer. The GC content of the derived primers were around 35-55% and melting temperature was about 45-58°C. Details of the primers synthesized were represented in table 4

S1.				1	1
No.	Primer	Sequence	No. of bases	GC (%)	Tm (°C)
1	LMP F	GATGATATTTACGATGTCTATGGTAC	26	34.62	53.23
	LMP R	GAATTGATTTCGGCACATCGCCTC	24	50	57.38
2	LMS1 F	ATAAGCCAGTCCAATGCCTT	20	45	49.73
	LMS1 R	TTTGTCCTCCAAGGGAATGG	20	50	51.78
3	LMS2 F	GCAGTCATTGAATAGCAAC	19	42	46.77
	LMS2 R	CCTTCTTCCACATCTGTCTC	20	50	51.78
4	LMK1 F	GAACAGAGCGGCCAGAAA	18	55.56	50.32
	LMK1 R	GATAGCCCACGCGCATATAA	20	50	51.78
5	LMK2 F	TTTCGCCAGAACGGCTTTA	19	47.37	48.98
	LMK2 R	CATCGCCGCGTTTCATTTC	19	52.63	51.09

T 11 4	~		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
Table 4:	-ono	cnocitic	primers
Table T.	Gene	specific	DIMETS

#### 4. RESULTS

This chapter includes the results of the project work entitled "Development of functional SSR markers for D- Limonene content and analysis of genetic polymorphism in cardamom (*Elettaria cardamomum* Maton)" carried out at the Biotechnology and Bioinformatics Division of JNTBGRI, Palode during the academic year 2017-2018.

## 4.1 GENETIC DIVERSITY ANALYSIS

Morphological observations like plant height, number of tillers and number of leaves per tiller were recorded prior to the molecular experimentation procedures. The morphological data documented is represented in table 5

#### 4.1.1 DNA isolation

DNA samples were isolated from the thirty accession used for the study with Origin Plant Genomic DNA Kit. Isolated samples were resolved in 0.8% agarose gel with ethidium bromide for visual observation (Plate 3). The quality and quantity of the isolated materials estimated with biophotometer is represented in table 6

S.No.	Acession no.	Plant variety	Plant height	No. of tillers	No. of leaves per tillers						
1	C <sub>65</sub>	PV2	7	6	17,14,15						
2	C <sub>51</sub>	Kanniyelam	5.10	5	13,11,14						
3	<b>T</b> <sub>7</sub>	Wild	7.1	7	16,18,14						
4	C <sub>70</sub>	Unknown	4.8	6	14,12,11						
5	C <sub>53</sub>	Unknown	6	6	13,16,17						
6	<b>C</b> <sub>61</sub>	ICRI-2	8	10	16,12,13						
7	<b>C</b> <sub>103</sub>	Pathumuriyan	13.2	13	19,13,17						
8	<b>C</b> <sub>116</sub>	Kothu mysore	8.8	9	8,9,11						
9	C <sub>107</sub>	Njellani	12.4	37	12,25,18						
10	C <sub>108</sub>	Njellani	10.5	22	27,21,23						
11	<b>C</b> <sub>104</sub>	Nadan	10.4	7	12,14,13						
12	<b>V</b> <sub>8</sub>	Wild	7.1	8	15,11,13						
13	<b>C</b> <sub>106</sub>	Elam Raja	10.9	22	16,15,19						
14	<b>C</b> <sub>105</sub>	Njellani	13.4	35	22,21,17						
15	<b>C</b> <sub>112</sub>	Njellani	12.3	42	17,12,20						
16	<b>C</b> <sub>109</sub>	Green bold	9.7	25	10,13,20						
17	<b>C</b> <sub>118</sub>	Thiruthaali	9.5	40	18,9,10						
18	<b>C</b> <sub>120</sub>	Palakkudi	10.8	35	11,17,15						
19	<b>C</b> <sub>113</sub>	Palakkudi	12	60	18,21,20						
20	<b>C</b> <sub>117</sub>	Vazhukka mysore	9.2	36	21,17,24						
21	LC	Large cardamom	5	11	9, 8, 9						
22	<b>C</b> <sub>111</sub>	Njellani	9.10	56	14,17,10						
23	C <sub>64</sub>	PV1	6.4	3	12,13,10						
24	C <sub>24</sub>	Wild	6	5	9,11,14						
25	<b>C</b> <sub>110</sub>	Green bold	11.7	32	26,23,19						
26	ER	Elam Raja	10	31	16,17,18						
27	$NJ_1$	Njellani	10.8	13	19,17,16						
28	NJ <sub>2</sub>	Njellani	11.3	32	14,18,16						
29	NJ <sub>3</sub>	Njellani	10.3	18	27,20,19						
30	NJ <sub>4</sub>	Njellani	9.5	40	9,8,20						

 Table 5: Morphological data collected from the thirty different cardamom accessions.

Sl. no.	Sample (accession no.)	Concentration (µg/µl)	purity (260/280)	concentration (ng/µl)				
1	C <sub>65</sub>	0.31	1.9	310				
2	C <sub>51</sub>	0.273	1.87	270				
3	T <sub>7</sub>	0.08	1.97	80				
4	C70	0.35	1.79	350				
5	C53	0.03	1.76	306				
6	C61	0.04	1.63	402				
7	C103	0.32	1.7	320				
8	C116	0.20	1.93	200				
9	C107	0.21	1.91	210				
10	C108	0.16	1.89	160				
11	C104	0.23	1.83	230				
12	V8	0.15	1.8	150				
13	C106	0.15	1.96	150				
14	C105	0.18	1.93	180				
15	C112	0.25	1.87	250				
16	C109	0.13	1.91	130				
17	C118	0.27	1.86	270				
18	C120	0.13	1.88	130				
19	C113	0.16	1.86	160				
20	C117	0.31	1.94	310				
21	LC	0.42	1.91	420				
22	C111	0.21	1.90	210				
23	C64	0.26	1.92	260				
24	C24	0.25	1.87	250				
25	C110	0.12	1.85	120				
26	ER	0.22	1.90	220				
27	NJI	0.22	1.83	220				
28	NJ2	0.17	1.90	170				
29	NJ3	0.21	1.88	210				
30	NJ4	0.21	1.90	210				

# Table 6: Quality and quantity of isolated DNA samples

1	2	3	4	5						1 12						ŀ
i s sa d	. i. i i. i															ŀ
																l
																ŀ
																l
21	22	2	3	24	25	5 2	б	27	28	29	30	)				
																I
	6															l
																l

Plate 3: Genomic DNA isolated from 30 cardamom accessions.

- 1. C<sub>65</sub> (PV2)
- 2. C<sub>51</sub> (Kanniyelam)
- 3. T<sub>7</sub> (Wild)
- 4. C<sub>70</sub> (Unknown)
- 5. C<sub>53</sub> (Unknown)
- 6. C<sub>61</sub> (ICRI-2)
- 7. C<sub>103</sub> (Pathumuriyan)
- 8. C<sub>116</sub> (Kothu mysore)
- 9. C<sub>107</sub> (Njellani)
- 10. C<sub>108</sub> (Njellani)
- 11. C104 (Nadan)
- 12. V<sub>8</sub> (Wild)
- 13. C<sub>106</sub> (Elam Raja)
- 14. C<sub>105</sub> (Njellani)
- 15. C<sub>112</sub> (Njellani)

- 16. C<sub>109</sub> (Green bold)
- 17. C<sub>118</sub> (Thiruthali)
- 18. C<sub>120</sub> (Palakkudi)
- 19. C<sub>113</sub> (Palakkudi)
- 20. C<sub>117</sub> (Vazhukka mysore)
- 21. LC (Large cardamom)
- 22. C<sub>111</sub> (Njellani)
- 23. C<sub>64</sub> (PV1)
- 24. C24 (Wild)
- 25. C<sub>110</sub> (Green bold)
- 26. ER (Elam Raja)
- 27. NJ<sub>1</sub> (Njellani)
- 28. NJ<sub>2</sub> (Njellani)
- 29. NJ<sub>3</sub> (Njellani)
- 30. NJ<sub>4</sub> (Njellani)

# 4.1.2 Primers used for diversity analysis

Gradient PCR was performed at varying temperatures for optimizing the annealing temperature of the primers used for diversity analysis. The six SSR primers along with their optimized annealing temperature is represented by table 7. Amplified DNA sequences were observed by 3% agarose gel electrophoresis (Plate: 4-9).

Table 7: Annealing temperature of Primers used for diversity analysis

Primers	CaSSR	CaSSR	CaSSR	CaSSR	CaSSR	CaSSR
	41	42	46	49	52	53
Annealing Temperature	50 °C	50 °C	52 °C	44 °C	58 °C	56 °C

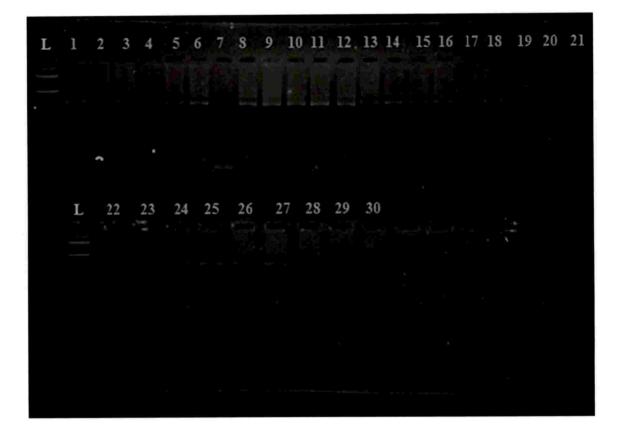


Plate 4: SSR profile obtained for primer CaSSR 41 (Product size: 310bp)

- L- Ladder
- 1. C<sub>65</sub> (PV2)
- 2. C<sub>51</sub> (Kanniyelam)
- 3. T<sub>7</sub> (Wild)
- 4. C<sub>70</sub> (Unknown )
- 5. C<sub>53</sub> (Unknown)
- 6. C<sub>61</sub> (ICRI-2)
- 7. C<sub>103</sub> (Pathumuriyan)
- 8. C<sub>116</sub> (Kothu mysore)
- 9. C<sub>107</sub> (Njellani)
- 10. C<sub>108</sub> (Njellani)
- 11. C<sub>104</sub> (Nadan)
- 12. V<sub>8</sub> (Wild)
- 13. C<sub>106</sub> (Elam Raja)
- 14. C<sub>105</sub> (Njellani)
- 15. C<sub>112</sub> (Njellani)

- 16. C<sub>109</sub> (Green bold)
- 17. C<sub>118</sub> (Thiruthali)
- 18. C<sub>120</sub> (Palakkudi)
- 19. C<sub>113</sub> (Palakkudi)
- 20. C<sub>117</sub> (Vazhukka mysore)
- 21. LC (Large cardamom)
- 22. C<sub>111</sub> (Njellani)
- 23. C<sub>64</sub> (PV1)
- 24. C<sub>24</sub> (Wild)
- 25. C<sub>110</sub> (Green bold)
- 26. ER (Elam Raja)
- 27. NJ<sub>1</sub> (Njellani)
- 28. NJ<sub>2</sub> (Njellani)
- 29. NJ<sub>3</sub> (Njellani)
- 30. NJ<sub>4</sub> (Njellani)

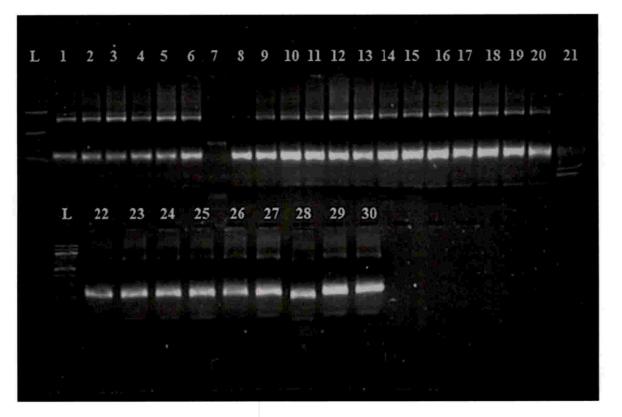


Plate 5: SSR Profile obtained for CaSSR 42 (Product size: 271b)

## L- Ladder

- 1. C<sub>65</sub> (PV2)
- 2. C<sub>51</sub> (Kanniyelam)
- 3. T<sub>7</sub> (Wild)
- 4. C<sub>70</sub> (Unknown)
- 5. C<sub>53</sub> (Unknown)
- 6. C<sub>61</sub> (ICRI-2)
- 7. C<sub>103</sub> (Pathumuriyan)
- 8. C<sub>116</sub> (Kothu mysore)
- 9. C<sub>107</sub> (Njellani)
- 10. C<sub>108</sub> (Njellani)
- 11. C<sub>104</sub> (Nadan)
- 12. V<sub>8</sub> (Wild)
- 13. C<sub>106</sub> (Elam Raja)
- 14. C<sub>105</sub> (Njellani)
- 15. C<sub>112</sub> (Njellani)

- 16. C<sub>109</sub> (Green bold)
- 17. C<sub>118</sub> (Thiruthali)
- 18. C<sub>120</sub> (Palakkudi)
- 19. C<sub>113</sub> (Palakkudi)
- 20. C<sub>117</sub> (Vazhukka mysore)
- 21. LC (Large cardamom)
- 22. C<sub>111</sub> (Njellani)
- 23. C<sub>64</sub> (PV1)
- 24. C<sub>24</sub> (Wild)
- 25. C<sub>110</sub> (Green bold)
- 26. ER (Elam Raja)
- 27. NJ<sub>1</sub> (Njellani)
- 28. NJ<sub>2</sub> (Njellani)
- 29. NJ<sub>3</sub> (Njellani)
- 30. NJ<sub>4</sub> (Njellani)

	3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21
n ninga j	
	*
L 22 23	24 25 26 27 28 29 30
anner an anner an	and and a serve part with a serve of a serve of the serve
a.	

Plate 6: SSR Profile obtained for CaSSR 46 (Product size: 184bp)

- L- Ladder
- 1. C<sub>65</sub> (PV2)
- 2. C<sub>51</sub> (Kanniyelam)
- 3. T<sub>7</sub> (Wild)
- 4. C<sub>70</sub> (Unknown)
- 5. C<sub>53</sub> (Unknown)
- 6. C<sub>61</sub> (ICRI-2)
- 7. C<sub>103</sub> (Pathumuriyan )
- 8. C<sub>116</sub> (Kothu mysore)
- 9. C<sub>107</sub> (Njellani)
- 10. C<sub>108</sub> (Njellani)
- 11. C<sub>104</sub> (Nadan)
- 12. V<sub>8</sub> (Wild)
- 13. C<sub>106</sub> (Elam Raja)
- 14. C<sub>105</sub> (Njellani)
- 15. C<sub>112</sub> (Njellani)

- 16. C<sub>109</sub> (Green bold)
- 17. C<sub>118</sub> (Thiruthali)
- 18. C<sub>120</sub> (Palakkudi)
- 19. C<sub>113</sub> (Palakkudi)
- 20. C<sub>117</sub> (Vazhukka mysore)
- 21. LC (Large cardamom)
- 22. C<sub>111</sub> (Njellani)
- 23. C<sub>64</sub> (PV1)
- 24. C24 (Wild)
- 25. C<sub>110</sub> (Green bold)
- 26. ER (Elam Raja)
- 27. NJ1 (Njellani)
- 28. NJ<sub>2</sub> (Njellani)
- 29. NJ<sub>3</sub> (Njellani)
- 30. NJ<sub>4</sub> (Njellani)

10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 L 1 3 5 6 7 8 9 18 19 20 2 4 25 26 27 28 29 30 L 21 22 23 24

Plate 7: SSR Profile obtained for CaSSR 49 (Product size: 210 bp)

- L- Ladder
- 1. C<sub>65</sub> (PV2)
- 2. C<sub>51</sub> (Kanniyelam)
- 3. T<sub>7</sub> (Wild)
- 4. C<sub>70</sub> (Unknown)
- 5. C<sub>53</sub> (Unknown)
- 6. C<sub>61</sub> (ICRI-2)
- 7. C<sub>103</sub> (Pathumuriyan)
- 8. C<sub>116</sub> (Kothu mysore)
- 9. C<sub>107</sub> (Njellani)
- 10. C<sub>108</sub> (Njellani)
- 11. C<sub>104</sub> (Nadan)
- 12. V<sub>8</sub> (Wild)
- 13. C<sub>106</sub> (Elam Raja)
- 14. C<sub>105</sub> (Njellani)
- 15. C<sub>112</sub> (Njellani)

- 16. C<sub>109</sub> (Green bold)
- 17. C<sub>118</sub> (Thiruthali)
- 18. C<sub>120</sub> (Palakkudi)
- 19. C<sub>113</sub> (Palakkudi)
- 20. C<sub>117</sub> (Vazhukka mysore)
- 21. LC (Large cardamom)
- 22. C<sub>111</sub> (Njellani)
- 23. C<sub>64</sub> (PV1)
- 24. C<sub>24</sub> (Wild)
- 25. C<sub>110</sub> (Green bold)
- 26. ER (Elam Raja)
- 27. NJ<sub>1</sub> (Njellani)
- 28. NJ<sub>2</sub> (Njellani)
- 29. NJ<sub>3</sub> (Njellani)
- 30. NJ<sub>4</sub> (Njellani)

L 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21

Plate 8: SSR Profile obtained for CaSSR 52 (Product size: 332bp) Lane representation:

- L Ladder
- 1. C<sub>65</sub> (PV2)
- 2. C<sub>51</sub> (Kanniyelam)
- 3. T<sub>7</sub> (Wild)
- 4. C<sub>70</sub> (Unknown)
- 5. C<sub>53</sub> (Unknown)
- 6. C<sub>61</sub> (ICRI-2)
- 7. C<sub>103</sub> (Pathumuriyan )
- 8. C<sub>116</sub> (Kothu mysore)
- 9. C<sub>107</sub> (Njellani)
- 10. C108 (Njellani)
- 11. C<sub>104</sub> (Nadan)
- 12. V<sub>8</sub> (Wild)
- 13. C<sub>106</sub> (Elam Raja)
- 14. C<sub>105</sub> (Njellani)
- 15. C<sub>112</sub> (Njellani)

- 16. C<sub>109</sub> (Green bold)
- 17. C<sub>118</sub> (Thiruthali)
- 18. C<sub>120</sub> (Palakkudi)
- 19. C<sub>113</sub> (Palakkudi)
- 20. C<sub>117</sub> (Vazhukka mysore)
- 21. LC (Large cardamom)
- 22. C<sub>111</sub> (Njellani)
- 23. C<sub>64</sub> (PV1)
- 24. C24 (Wild)
- 25. C<sub>110</sub> (Green bold)
- 26. ER (Elam Raja)
- 27. NJ1 (Njellani)
- 28. NJ<sub>2</sub> (Njellani)
- 29. NJ<sub>3</sub> (Njellani)
- 30. NJ<sub>4</sub> (Njellani)

L	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	15	17	18	19	20	21
	L	22	23					28											
			ainia																

Plate 9: SSR Profile obtained for CaSSR 53 (Product size: 311bp)

- L- Ladder
- 1. C<sub>65</sub> (PV2)
- 2. C51 (Kanniyelam)
- 3. T7 (Wild)
- 4. C70 (Unknown)
- 5. C53 (Unknown)
- 6. C61 (ICRI-2)
- 7. C103 (Pathumuriyan)
- 8. C116 (Kothu mysore)
- 9. C107 (Njellani)
- 10. C108 (Njellani)
- 11. C104 (Nadan)
- 12. V8 (Wild)
- 13. C106 (Elam Raja)
- 14. C105 (Njellani)
- 15. C112 (Njellani)

- 16. C109 (Green bold)
- 17. C118 (Thiruthali)
- 18. C120 (Palakkudi)
- 19. C113 (Palakkudi)
- 20. C117 (Vazhukka mysore)
- 21. LC (Large cardamom)
- 22. C111 (Njellani)
- 23. C64 (PV1)
- 24. C24 (Wild)
- 25. C110 (Green bold)
- 26. ER (Elam Raja)
- 27. NJ1 (Njellani)
- 28. NJ2 (Njellani)
- 29. NJ3 (Njellani)
- 30. NJ4 (Njellan)

# 4.2 SSR PROFILE AND GENETIC DATA ANALYSIS

Genetic data analysis of the 30 accessions was subjected to microsatellite analysis and their summary of genetic variation and genetic distance were statistically generated using POPGENE (Yeh and Boyle, 1997). Results are represented in Table 8

#### 4.3 ESTIMATION OF SSR POLYMORPHISM

The observed number of alleles per locus (na) ranged from 1.00 to 1.33, effective number of alleles (ne) also ranged from 1.00 to 1.33, Shannon's information index (I) ranged from 0.00 to 0.23, observed heterozygosity (Obs\_Het) ranged from 0.00 to 0.33, expected heterozygosity (Exp\_Het) ranged from 0.00 to 0.33, Nei's heterozygosity (h) ranged from 0.00 to 0.16, average heterozygosity (Ave\_Het) ranged from 0.01 to 0.09 and percentage of polymorphic loci (P) ranged from 0.00 to 33.33.

## 4.4 GENETIC RELATIONSHIPS AND CLUSTER ANALYSIS

The pair- wise genetic similarity and distance matrix were prepared on the basis of SSR data (Table 9). The genetic similarity values varied from 0.10 to 1.00 with a mean value of 0.854.

Cluster analysis was performed on the SSR data using POPGENE software following the UPGMA method and the dendrogram were constructed through MEGA7 showing overall genetic relatedness among the individuals (Figure 1). The accession studied were clustered into two main group, one with 29 accessions and other with one accession, which is an out group sample (Large cardamom). The first group has again divided into two subgroup and the remaining 29 samples are mixed in the cluster. The dendrogram revealed a complex distribution of pattern.

#### Sl.No. na\* Accession ne\* I\* Obs Het Exp Het\* Nei\*\* Ave Het Number of % of no. polymorphic polymorphic loci loci (P) 1 C65 1.0000 1.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0667 0 0.00 2 C51 1.0000 1.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0733 0 0.00 3 T7 1.0000 1.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0800 0 0.00 C70 4 1.0000 1.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0667 0 0.00 5 C53 1.0000 1.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0667 0 0.00 6 C61 1.0000 1.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0667 0 0.00 7 C103 1.0000 1.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0917 0 0.00 C116 1.1667 8 1.1667 0.1155 0.1667 0.1667 0.0833 0.0667 1 16.67 C107 9 1.2000 1.2000 0.1386 0.2000 0.2000 0.1000 0.0733 1 16.67 10 C108 1.2000 1.2000 0.1386 0.2000 0.2000 0.1000 0.0733 1 16.67 11 C104 1.1667 1.1667 0.1155 0.1667 0.1667 0.0833 0.0667 1 16.67 12 V8 1.2000 1.2000 0.1386 0.2000 0.2000 0.1000 0.0800 1 16.67 13 C106 1.1667 1.1667 0.1155 0.1667 0.1667 0.0833 0.0667 1 16.67 C105 14 1.1667 1.1667 0.1155 0.1667 0.1667 0.0833 0.0667 1 16.67 15 C112 1.1667 1.1667 0.1155 0.1667 0.1667 0.0833 0.0667 1 16.67 16 C109 1.1667 1.1667 0.1155 0.1667 1 0.1667 0.0833 0.0667 16.67 17 C118 1.1667 1.1667 0.1155 0.1667 0.1667 0.0833 0.0667 1 16.67 18 C120 1.1667 1.1667 0.1155 0.1667 0.1667 0.0833 0.0667 1 16.67 19 C113 1.1667 1.1667 0.1155 0.1667 0.1667 0.0833 0.0667 1 16.67 C117 20 1.1667 1.1667 0.1155 0.1667 0.1667 0.0833 0.0667 1 16.67 21 LC 1.1667 1.1667 0.1155 0.1667 0.1667 0.0833 0.0667 1 16.67 22 C111 1.1667 1.1667 0.1155 0.1667 0.1667 0.0833 0.0667 1 16.67 23 C64 1.3333 1.3333 0.2310 0.3333 0.3333 0.1667 0.0667 2 33.33 24 C24 1.3333 0.2310 0.3333 1.3333 0.3333 0.1667 0.0667 2 33.33 25 C110 1.2000 1.2000 0.1386 0.2000 0.2000 0.1000 0.0733 1 16.67 ER 26 1.1667 1.1667 0.1155 0.1667 0.1667 0.0833 0.0667 1 16.67 27 NJ1 1.2000 1.2000 0.1386 0.2000 0.2000 0.1000 0.0733 1 16.67 NJ2 28 1.0000 1.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0111 0 0.00 29 NJ3 1.2000 1.2000 0.1386 0.2000 0.2000 0.1000 0.0733 1 16.67 30 NJ4 1.2000 1.2000 0.1386 0.2000 0.2000 0.1000 0.0733 1 16.67 Min 1.00 1.00 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.01 0 0.00 1.33 1.33 0.23 0.33 Max 0.33 0.16 0.09 2 33.33

Table 8: Summary of genetic variation statistics for 30 accessions analyzed using 6 SSR primer pairs

15	0.98	0.88	0.88	0.98	0.98	0.98	0.10	1.03	0.93	0.93	1.03	0.93	1.03	1.03	****	-0.03	-0.03	-0.03	-0.03	-0.03	0.42	-0.03	-0.00	-0.00	0.07	-0.03	0.07	0.29	0.07	0.07
14	0.98	0.88	0.88	0.98	0.98	0.98	0.10	1.03	0.93	0.93	1.03	0.93	1.03	****	-0.03	-0.03	-0.03	-0.03	-0.03	-0.03	0.42	-0.03	-0.00	-0.00	0.07	-0.03	0.07	0.29	0.07	0.07
13	0.98	0.88	0.88	0.98	0.98	0.98	0.10	1.03	0.93	0.93	1.03	0.93	****	-0.03	-0.03	-0.03	-0.03	-0.03	-0.03	-0.03	0.42	-0.03	-0.00	-0.00	0.07	-0.03	0.07	0.29	0.07	0.07
12	0.89	0.76	0.76	0.89	0.89	0.89	0.12	0.93	0.80	0.80	0.93	***	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.31	0.07	0.11	0.11	0.21	0.07	0.21	0.59	0.21	0.21
Π	0.98	0.88	0.88	0.98	0.98	0.98	0.10	1.03	0.93	0.93	****	0.07	-0.03	-0.03	-0.03	-0.03	-0.03	-0.03	-0.03	-0.03	0.42	-0.03	-0.00	-0.00	0.07	-0.03	0.07	0.29	0.07	0.07
10	0.89	0.97	0.76	0.89	0.89	0.89	0.12	0.93	1.03	****	0.07	0.21	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.66	0.07	-0.00	-0.00	-0.03	0.07	-0.03	0.59	-0.03	-0.03
6	0.89	0.97	0.76	0.89	0.89	0.89	0.12	0.93	****	-0.03	0.07	0.21	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.66	0.07	-0.00	-0.00	-0.03	0.07	-0.03	0.59	-0.03	-0.03
×	0.98	0.88	0.88	0.98	0.98	0.98	0.10	****	0.07	0.07	-0.03	0.07	-0.03	-0.03	-0.03	-0.03	-0.03	-0.03	-0.03	-0.03	0.42	-0.03	-0.00	-0.00	0.07	-0.03	0.07	0.29	0.07	0.07
7	0.00	00.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	****	2.22	2.11	2.11	2.22	2.11	2.22	2.22	2.22	2.22	2.22	2.22	2.22	2.22	2.22	2.22	2.15	2.15	2.11	2.22	2.11	0.00	2.11	2 11
9	1.00	0.91	0.91	1.00	1.00	****	0.00	0.02	0.12	0.12	0.02	0.12	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.49	0.02	0.06	0.06	0.12	0.02	0.12	0.34	0.12	0.12
5	1.00	0.91	0.91	1.00	****	0.00	0.00	0.02	0.12	0.12	0.02	0.12	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.49	0.02	0.06	0.06	0.12	0.02	0.12	0.34	0.12	0.12
4	1.00	0.91	0.91	****	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.02	0.12	0.12	0.02	0.12	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.49	0.02	0.05	0.05	0.12	0.02	0.12	0.34	0.12	0.12
3	0.91	0.80	****	0.10	0.10	0.10	0.00	0.13	0.29	0.29	0.13	0.29	0.13	0.13	0.13	0.13	0.13	0.13	0.13	0.13	0.72	0.13	0.19	0.19	0.29	0.13	0.29	0.67	0.29	0.29
2	0.91	****	0.22	0.10	0.10	0.10	0.00	0.13	0.03	0.03	0.13	0.29	0.13	0.13	0.13	0.13	0.13	0.13	0.13	0.13	0.72	0.13	0.08	0.08	0.03	0.13	0.03	0.67	0.03	0.03
1	****	0.10	0.10	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.02	0.12	0.12	0.02	0.12	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.02	0.45	0.02	0.06	0.06	0.12	0.02	0.12	0.34	0.12	0.12
Dop	1	2	3	4	5	9	7	8	6	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30

	an s
	2
	SSR
	the
	m
	ž
	stimated from the SSR ana
	ma
	esti
	2
	6
	ei.
	E
	nce
1	sta
1	cd
	neti
	per
ļ	pu
	N B
1	nti
	ide
	tic
	ene
I	0f 9
	sə.
	Ins
	I measures of genetic identity and genetic distance (Nei, 1972) est
0	alr
3	PIN
0	0LIO
ла П	el's
14 D 14 J	
1	e 9
- 0	-

Dop ID	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30
1	0.98	0.98	0.98	0.98	0.98	0.61	0.98	0.94	0.94	0.89	0.98	0.89	0.70	0.89	0.89
2	0.88	0.88	0.88	0.88	0.88	0.49	0.88	0.93	0.93	0.97	0.88	0.97	0.51	0.97	0.97
3	0.88	0.88	0.88	0.88	0.88	0.49	0.88	0.82	0.82	0.76	0.88	0.76	0.51	0.75	0.75
4	0.98	0.98	0.98	0.98	0.98	0.61	0.98	0.94	0.94	0.89	0.98	0.89	0.70	0.89	0.89
5	0.98	0.98	0.98	0.98	0.98	0.61	0.98	0.94	0.94	0.89	0.98	0.89	0.70	0.89	0.89
9	0.98	0.98	0.98	0.98	0.98	0.61	0.98	0.94	0.94	0.89	0.98	0.89	0.70	0.89	0.89
7	0.10	0.10	0.10	0.10	0.10	0.10	0.10	0.11	0.11	0.12	0.10	0.12	0.00	0.12	0.12
8	1.03	1.03	1.03	1.03	1.03	0.65	1.03	1.00	1.00	0.93	1.03	0.93	0.75	0.93	0.93
6	0.93	0.93	0.93	0.93	0.93	0.52	0.93	1.00	1.00	1.03	0.93	1.03	0.55	1.03	1.03
10	0.93	0.93	0.93	0.93	0.93	0.52	0.93	1.00	1.00	1.03	0.93	1.03	0.55	1.03	1.03
11	1.03	1.03	1.03	1.03	1.03	0.65	1.03	1.00	1.00	0.93	1.03	0.93	0.75	0.93	0.93
12	0.93	0.93	0.93	0.93	0.93	0.72	0.93	0.89	0.89	0.80	0.93	0.80	0.55	0.80	0.80
13	1.03	1.03	1.03	1.03	1.03	0.65	1.03	1.00	1.00	0.93	1.03	0.93	0.75	0.93	0.93
14	1.03	1.03	1.03	1.03	1.03	0.65	1.03	1.00	1.00	0.93	1.03	0.93	0.75	0.93	0.93
15	1.03	1.03	1.03	1.03	1.03	0.65	1.03	1.00	1.00	0.93	1.03	0.93	0.75	0.93	0.93
16	****	1.03	1.03	1.03	1.03	0.65	1.03	1.00	1.00	0.93	1.03	0.93	0.75	0.93	0.93
17	-0.03	***	1.03	1.03	1.03	0.65	1.03	1.00	1.00	0.93	1.03	0.93	0.75	0.93	0.93
18	-0.03	-0.03	****	1.03	1.03	0.65	1.03	1.00	1.00	0.93	1.03	0.93	0.75	0.93	0.93
19	-0.03	-0.03	-0.03	***	1.03	0.65	1.03	1.00	1.00	0.93	1.03	0.93	0.75	0.93	0.93
20	-0.03	-0.03	-0.03	-0.03	****	0.65	1.03	1.00	1.00	0.93	1.03	0.93	0.75	0.93	0.93
21	-0.00	0.42	0.42	0.42	0.42	****	0.65	0.60	09.0	0.52	0.65	0.52	0.50	0.52	0.52
22	-0.03	-0.03	-0.03	-0.03	-0.03	0.42	****	1.00	1.00	0.93	1.03	0.93	0.75	0.93	0.93
23	-0.00	-0.00	-0.00	-0.00	-0.00	0.50	-0.00	***	1.08	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.66	1.00	1.00
24	-0.00	-0.00	-0.00	-0.00	-0.00	0.50	-0.00	-0.07	****	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.67	1.00	1.00
25	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.66	0.07	-0.00	-0.00	***	0.93	1.03	0.55	1.03	1.03
26	-0.03	-0.03	-0.03	-0.03	-0.03	0.42	-0.03	-0.00	-0.00	0.07	****	0.93	0.75	0.93	0.93
27	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.66	0.07	-0.00	-0.00	-0.03	0.07	****	0.55	1.03	1.03
28	0.29	0.29	0.29	0.29	0.29	0.70	0.29	0.40	0.40	0.59	0.29	0.59	****	0.55	0.55
29	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.66	0.07	-0.00	-0.00	-0.03	0.07	-0.03	0.59	****	1.03
30	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.66	0.07	-0.00	-0.00	-0.03	0.07	-0.03	0.589	-0.03	****
***NI~:?	annatio idontit	Jandien (a)	Law diam	hand land	annatio di		ALL LA	1							

41

54A

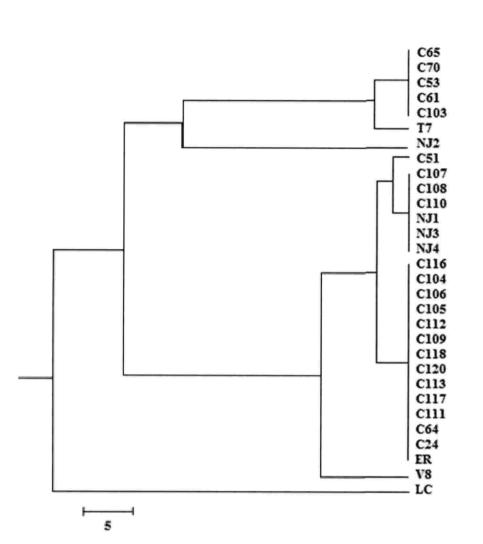


Figure 1: Dendrogram based on genetic distance assessed using 6 SSR primers in 30 cardamom accessions denoted by the local name.

### 4.5 GC- MS Analysis

GC- MS analysis of essential oil of cardamom revealed the presence of around 45 components in selected four samples (Palakkudi, Pathumuriyan, Green bold and Njellani) of cardamom. The limonene percentages were identified from their fragmentation pattern by mass spectrometry using NIIST library. The percentage of the components in oil were identified by their retention time, retention indices as well as by comparison of their mass spectra (Table 10-13). By comparing the retention time and area percentage of D-limonene of each sample, it is identified that Njellani and Green bold has highest amount of limonene compared with other two (Table 14). Spectrogram obtained for the four samples Palakkudi, Pathumuriyan, Green bold and Njellani were represented as figure 2, 3, 4, 5 respectively.

Peak#	Ret.Time	Area%	Height%	Name
1	9.230	0.31	0.48	D-Limonene
2	9.340	2.28	3.54	Eucalyptol
3	10.864	0.79	1.01	5-ISOPROPYL-2-
				METHYLBICYCLO[3.1.0]HEXAN-2-OL
4	12.112	3.38	4.13	LINALOOL L
5	15.129	0.36	0.33	3-Cyclohexene-1-methanol, .alpha.,.alpha.,4-
				trimethyl-
6	15.575	3.29	4.14	3-Cyclohexen-1-ol, 4-methyl-1-(1-methylethyl)-
7	15.940	0.27	0.29	Benzenemethanol, .alpha.,.alpha.,4-trimethyl-
8	16.329	31.01	25.58	3-Cyclohexene-1-methanol, .alpha.,.alpha.,4-
				trimethyl-
9	16.929	0.43	0.57	1-Hexanol, 2-ethyl-, acetate
10	17.335	0.47	0.59	6-Octenal, 2,3-epoxy-3,7-dimethyl-
11	17.636	0.27	0.30	2,3-Pinanediol
12	17.806	0.46	0.60	Oxiranecarboxaldehyde, 3-methyl-3-(4-methyl-3-
				pentenyl)-
13	18.748	2.37	2.40	(2E)-3,7-DIMETHYL-2,6-OCTADIEN-1-OL
14	21.120	0.34	0.29	2-METHYLBICYCLO[2.2.1]HEPTAN-2-OL
15	21.383	0.40	0.36	Ocimenyl acetate
16	21.786	1.06	1.21	2,6-Octadienoic acid, 3,7-dimethyl-, methyl ester,
				(Z)-
17	22.913	27.78	30.28	1-METHYL-1-(4-METHYL-3-CYCLOHEXEN-
				1-YL)ETHYL ACETATE
18	24.253	4.28	5.04	2,6-Octadien-1-ol, 3,7-dimethyl-, acetate, (E)-
19	24.601	0.52	0.37	(Z)-Dec-4-enyl ethyl carbonate
20	26.442	1.00	0.69	1-Methyl-4-(1-acetoxy-1-methylethyl)-cyclohex-
				2-enol
21	27.062	1.16	1.29	Epoxyalphaterpenyl acetate
22	27.503	1.99	2.09	Epoxyalphaterpenyl acetate
23	28.706	0.47	0.61	.betaSelinene
24	29.710	0.95	1.06	1-ISOPROPYL-7-METHYL-4-METHYLENE-
				1,2,3,4,4A,5,6,8A-
25	20.077	1.05	1.00	OCTAHYDRONAPHTHALENE
25	30.066	1.35	1.23	Hydroxyalphaterpenyl acetate
26	31.253	0.84	0.70	Hydroxyalphaterpenyl acetate
27	31.686	3.96	3.64	1,6,10-Dodecatrien-3-ol, 3,7,11-trimethyl-
28	33.646	1.85	1.42	1-Methyl-4-(1-acetoxy-1-methylethyl)-cyclohex-
29	34.772	0.95	0.84	2-enol 1-Methyl-4-(1-acetoxy-1-methylethyl)-cyclohex-
29	54.772	0.95	0.04	2-enol
30	34.905	1.72	1.27	Hydroxyalphaterpenyl acetate
31	36.294	0.71	0.66	Terpinyl formate
32	37.496	0.71	0.46	2,6,10-Dodecatrien-1-ol, 3,7,11-trimethyl-
33	40.316	0.89	0.40	Acetic acid, 1-[2-(2,2,6-trimethyl-
55	+0.510	0.09	0.05	bicyclo[4.1.0]hept-1-yl)-ethyl]-vinyl ester

Table 10: Essential oil components of the sample Palakkudi

34	50.696	0.47	0.48	Retinal, 9-cis-	
35	56.046	0.55	0.61	Heneicosane	
36	61.399	0.57	0.61	Tetratetracontane	

# Table 11: Essential oil components of the sample Pathumuriyan

Peak#	Ret.Time	Area%	Height%	Name	
1	9.234	0.10	0.15	<b>D-Limonene</b>	
2	9.344	3.30	4.74	Eucalyptol	
3	10.874	0.19	0.24	5-ISOPROPYL-2-	
				METHYLBICYCLO[3.1.0]HEXAN-2-OL	
4	12.114	2.84	3.34	LINALOOL L	
5	13.140	0.31	0.38	4-ISOPROPYL-1-METHYL-3-	
				CYCLOHEXEN-1-OL	
6	13.919	0.25	0.31	4-ISOPROPYL-1-METHYL-3-	
				CYCLOHEXEN-1-OL	
7	14.326	0.12	0.16	METHYL 2-HYDROXYHEXANOATE	
8	15.134	0.44	0.41	3-Cyclohexene-1-methanol, .alpha.,.alpha.,4-	
				trimethyl-	
9	15.585	7.73	8.89	3-Cyclohexen-1-ol, 4-methyl-1-(1-methylethyl)-	
10	16.275	17.44	17.50	3-Cyclohexene-1-methanol, .alpha.,.alpha.,.4-	
				trimethyl-	
11	16.865	0.15	0.19	2-Cyclohexen-1-ol, 3-methyl-6-(1-methylethyl)-	
				, trans-	
12	16.929	0.29	0.33	1-Hexanol, 2-ethyl-, acetate	
13	18.123	0.28	0.29	2,6-Octadienal, 3,7-dimethyl-, (Z)-	
14	18.646	0.15	0.22	LINALYL ACETATE	
15	18.747	4.01	3.38	(2E)-3,7-DIMETHYL-2,6-OCTADIEN-1-OL	
16	19.443	0.70	0.65	2,6-Octadienal, 3,7-dimethyl-	
17	21.203	0.18	0.09	4-Decenoic acid, methyl ester	
18	21.389	0.23	0.28	Ocimenyl acetate	
19	21.784	0.60	0.61	2,6-Octadienoic acid, 3,7-dimethyl-, methyl	
				ester, (Z)-	
20	22.923	48.25	46.19	1-METHYL-1-(4-METHYL-3-	
				CYCLOHEXEN-1-YL)ETHYL ACETATE	
21	22.960	0.14	0.12	.mu.3-(Tetracarbonylcobaltosilylidine)-cyclo-	
	00.100	0.00	1.00	tris(tricarbonylcobalt)	
22	23.100	0.99	1.35	1H-Indene, 1-(2,3-dihydro-1H-inden-1-ylidene)-	
22	24.242	2.67	2.00	2,3-dihydro-	
23	24.243	3.67	3.88	2,6-Octadien-1-ol, 3,7-dimethyl-, acetate, (E)-	
24	26.493	0.49	0.32	3-Cyclohexene-1-methanol, .alpha.,.alpha.,4-	
25	27.059	0.42	0.44	trimethyl-, propanoate	
25	27.058	0.43	0.44	Epoxyalphaterpenyl acetate	
26 27	27.501 30.068	0.89	0.82	Epoxyalphaterpenyl acetate	
27		0.28	0.22	Hydroxyalpha.terpenyl acetate	
28	31.257	0.21	0.17	Hydroxyalphaterpenyl acetate	
	31.675	0.87	0.64	1,6,10-Dodecatrien-3-ol, 3,7,11-trimethyl-	
30	33.640	0.71	0.41	1-Methyl-4-(1-acetoxy-1-methylethyl)-	

				cyclohex-2-enol
31	34.778	0.31	0.25	1-Methyl-4-(1-acetoxy-1-methylethyl)-
				cyclohex-2-enol
32	34.901	0.50	0.32	Hydroxyalphaterpenyl acetate
33	36.310	0.28	0.17	Terpinyl formate
34	40.313	0.17	0.16	Acetic acid, 1-[2-(2,2,6-trimethyl-
				bicyclo[4.1.0]hept-1-yl)-ethyl]-vinyl ester
35	50.701	0.68	0.63	Retinal, 9-cis-
36	55.257	0.22	0.18	2,5-Furandione, 3-(dodecenyl)dihydro-
37	56.054	0.57	0.54	Heneicosane
38	58.780	0.12	0.13	Heneicosane
39	60.683	0.23	0.23	1-Heptacosanol
40	61.405	0.68	0.67	Hexacosane

# Table 12: Essential oil components of the sample Njellani

Peak#	Ret.Time	Area%	Height%	Name	
1	7.236	0.77	1.21	4(10)-Thujene	
2	7.770	0.56	0.85	1,6-Octadiene, 7-methyl-3-methylene-	
3	7.841	0.12	0.17	METHYL 2-HYDROXY-3-	
				METHYLPENTANOATE	
4 5	8.254	0.16	0.22	Octanal	
	9.074	1.00	0.98	Benzene, methyl(1-methylethyl)-	
6	9.305	2.76	2.72	D-Limonene	
7	9.418	32.30	27.05	2-Oxabicyclo[2.2.2]octane, 1,3,3-trimethyl-	
8	10.868	0.62	0.55	5-ISOPROPYL-2-	
				METHYLBICYCLO[3.1.0]HEXAN-2-OL	
9	12.125	2.99	3.37	LINALOOL L	
10	13.135	0.40	0.46	2-Cyclohexen-1-ol, 1-methyl-4-(1-	
				methylethyl)-, trans-	
11	13.916	0.31	0.35	4-ISOPROPYL-1-METHYL-3-	
				CYCLOHEXEN-1-OL	
12	15.134	0.45	0.35	3-Cyclohexene-1-methanol, .alpha.,.alpha.,4-	
				trimethyl-	
13	15.620	9.55	8.89	3-Cyclohexen-1-ol, 4-methyl-1-(1-	
				methylethyl)-	
14	16.327	16.84	11.86	3-Cyclohexene-1-methanol, .alpha.,.alpha.,4-	
				trimethyl-	
15	16.716	0.11	0.10	Decanal	
16	16.927	0.61	0.50	1-Hexanol, 2-ethyl-, acetate	
17	17.335	0.11	0.12	6-Octenal, 2,3-epoxy-3,7-dimethyl-	
18	17.804	0.12	0.14	6-Octenal, 2,3-epoxy-3,7-dimethyl-	
19	18.114	0.50	0.52	2,6-Octadienal, 3,7-dimethyl-, (Z)-	
20	18.781	4.59	3.54	Geraniol	
21	19.441	0.93	0.91	2,6-Octadienal, 3,7-dimethyl-	
22	19.883	0.14	0.12	1,4-dihydroxy-p-menth-2-ene	
23	20.106	0.15	0.13	Bicyclo[2.2.1]heptan-2-ol, 1,7,7-trimethyl-,	
				acetate, (1S-endo)-	

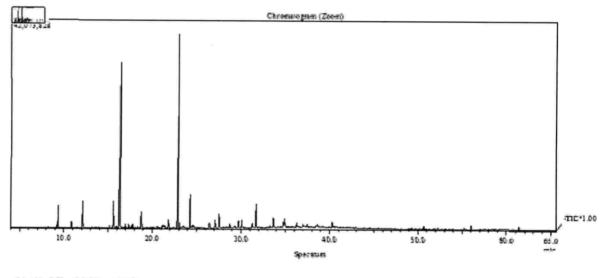
24	21.183	0.23	0.18	[1,1'-Bicyclopropyl]-2-octanoic acid, 2'-hexyl-, methyl ester
25	21.391	0.60	0.51	Ocimenyl acetate
26	21.795	0.88	0.69	2,6-Octadienoic acid, 3,7-dimethyl-, methyl ester, (Z)-
27	22.923	19.41	16.43	1-METHYL-1-(4-METHYL-3- CYCLOHEXEN-1-YL)ETHYL ACETATE
28	23.115	2.79	17.08	3-Cyclohexene-1-methanol, .alpha.,.alpha.,4- trimethyl-, acetate

# Table 13: Essential oil components of the sample Green bold

Peak#	Ret.Time	Area%	Height%	Name		
1	6.052	0.89	2.56	2-Pinene		
2	7.275	3.90	8.73	4(10)-Thujene		
3	7.431	0.34	0.93	2(10)-Pinene		
4	7.801	1.08	2.54	1,6-Octadiene, 7-methyl-3-methylene-		
5	9.240	1.73	1.96	D-Limonene		
6	9.325	0.94	2.27	Benzene, 1,2,3,4-tetramethyl-		
7	9.587	35.75	20.71	2-Oxabicyclo[2.2.2]octane, 1,3,3-trimethyl-		
8	10.914	1.25	2.43	5-ISOPROPYL-2-		
				METHYLBICYCLO[3.1.0]HEXAN-2-OL		
9	12.184	2.62	4.68	LINALOOL L		
10	15.655	3.59	5.54	3-Cyclohexen-1-ol, 4-methyl-1-(1-		
				methylethyl)-		
11	16.449	12.03	9.47	2-(4-METHYL-3-CYCLOHEXEN-1-YL)-2-		
				PROPANOL		
12	18.841	1.53	2.04	2,6-Octadien-1-ol, 3,7-dimethyl-, (Z)-		
13	19.494	0.63	1.02	2,6-Octadienal, 3,7-dimethyl-		
14	23.098	18.47	12.92	1-METHYL-1-(4-METHYL-3-		
				CYCLOHEXEN-1-YL)ETHYL ACETATE		
15	24.336	1.60	2.72	Geranyl acetate		
16	26.519	0.85	0.95	1-Methyl-4-(1-acetoxy-1-methylethyl)-		
			)	cyclohex-2-enol		
17	27.132	0.98	1.73	Epoxyalphaterpenyl acetate		
18	27.592	1.76	2.67	Epoxyalphaterpenyl acetate		
19	28.764	1.07	1.90	Naphthalene, decahydro-4a-methyl-1-		
				methylene-7-(1-methylethenyl)-, [4aR-		
				(4a.alpha.,7.alpha.,8a.beta.)]-		
20	30.142	1.07	1.25	Hydroxyalphaterpenyl acetate		
21	31.333	0.75	0.84	Hydroxyalphaterpenyl acetate		
22	31.762	2.08	3.25	1,6,10-Dodecatrien-3-ol, 3,7,11-trimethyl-		
23	33.763	1.69	2.12	Cyclohexene, 2-ethenyl-1,3,3-trimethyl-		
24	34.883	1.11	1.24	2,4-Pentanedione, 3-tricyclo[3.3.1.13,7]dec-1-		
				yl-		
25	35.041	1.27	2.02	1,2,4,5-TETRAMETHYL-6-		
				METHYLENESPIRO[2.4]HEPTANE		
26	36.396	1.02	1.51	2-Norbornanol, 5,5-dimethyl-6-methylene-		

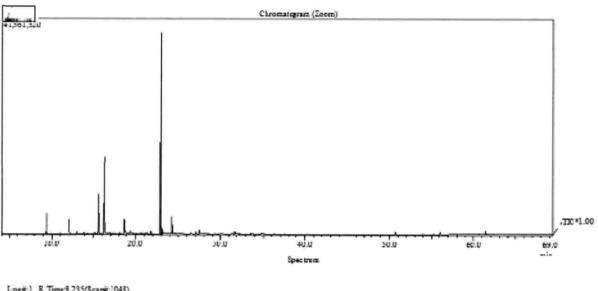
Table 14: Total D- Limonen	e percentage of 4 samples
----------------------------	---------------------------

Variety	Limonene %	
Njellani	2.76%	
Green bold	1.73%	
Palakkudi	0.31%	
Pathumuriyan	0.1%	



Line#:1 R.Time 9.340(Scan#:1069) Mass Peaks:456 RawMode:Averaged 9.300-9.405(1061-1082) BasePeak:81.10(182792) BG Mode:None Group 1 - Event 1 Q3 Scan

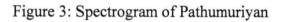
Figure 2: Spectrogram of Palakkudi

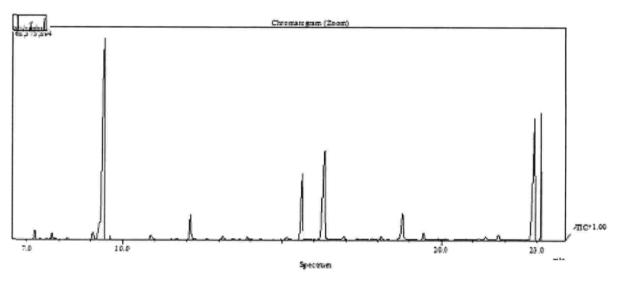


Line#1 R.Tims9.235(Scan#:1043) NassPeaks:456 Eaw Mode:Averaged 9.195-9.250(1040-1051) BasePeak:68.05(15237) BG Mode:None Group 1 - Event 1 Q3 Scan

Act

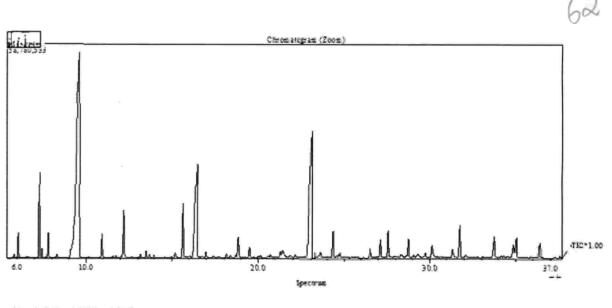
Cn





Line#1 R.Time 22.925(Scan#3786) MassPeaks:367 RawMode:Averaged 22.920-22.930(3785-3787) BasePeak:121.10(6945384) BG Mode:Cak. from Peak Group 1 - Event 1 Q3 Scan

Figure 4: Spectrogram of Njellanai



Line#1 R Time 9:235(Scan#1048) MassPeak: 148 RawMode: Averaged 9:235-9:240(1048-1049) BasePeak: 119.10(60280) BG Mode Calc. from Peak Group 1 - Event 1 Q3 Scan

Figure 5: Spectrogram of Greenbold

## 4.6 PRIMER DESIGNING AND ANALYSIS

No SSR were detected within the target sequence. So validating the results of GC-MS gene specific primers for limonene was designed using various bioinformatics tool. The efficiency of the newly designed primers was verified by using the software Oligo analyzer. The newly synthesised primers were GC rich and devoid of self-dimerization. Gradient PCR for the primers were performed at varying temperatures optimized the annealing temperature for analysis. The primers along with the optimized annealing temperature used for the study is represented by Table15. Amplified sequences were observed by 3% agarose gel electrophoresis (Plate: 10-14).

Table 15: Gene specific limonene primers

Primer	Sequence	No. of bases	GC (%)	Tm (°C)	Annealing temperature
LMP F	GATGATATTTACGATGTCTATGGTAC	26	34.62	53.23	54
LMP R	GAATTGATTTCGGCACATCGCCTC	24	50	57.38	
LMS1 F	ATAAGCCAGTCCAATGCCTT	20	45	49.73	46
LMS1 R	TTTGTCCTCCAAGGGAATGG	20	50	51.78	
LMS2 F	GCAGTCATTGAATAGCAAC	19	42	46.77	
LMS2 R	CCTTCTTCCACATCTGTCTC	20	50	51.78	46
LMK1 F	GAACAGAGCGGCCAGAAA	18	55.56	50.32	50
LMK1 R	GATAGCCCACGCGCATATAA	20	50	51.78	
LMK2 F	TTTCGCCAGAACGGCTTTA	19	47.37	48.98	54
LMK2 R	CATCGCCGCGTTTCATTTC	19	52.63	51.09	
	LMP F LMP R LMS1 F LMS1 R LMS2 F LMS2 R LMK1 F LMK1 R LMK1 R	LMP FGATGATATTTACGATGTCTATGGTACLMP RGAATTGATTTCGGCACATCGCCTCLMS1 FATAAGCCAGTCCAATGCCTTLMS1 FATAAGCCAGTCCAAGGGAATGGLMS1 RTTTGTCCTCCAAGGGAATGGLMS2 FGCAGTCATTGAATAGCAACLMS2 RCCTTCTTCCACATCTGTCTCLMK1 FGAACAGAGCGGCCAGAAALMK1 RGATAGCCCACGCGCATATAALMK2 FTTTCGCCAGAACGGCTTTA	IntermediationIntermediationof basesLMP FGATGATATTTACGATGTCTATGGTACLMP RGAATTGATTTCGGCACATCGCCTCLMS1 FATAAGCCAGTCCAATGCCTTLMS1 FATAAGCCAGTCCAATGCCTTLMS1 RTTTGTCCTCCAAGGGAATGGLMS2 FGCAGTCATTGAATAGCAACLMS2 RCCTTCTTCCACATCTGTCTCLMK1 FGAACAGAGCGGCCAGAAALMK1 RGATAGCCCACGCGCATATAALMK2 FTTTCGCCAGAACGGCTTTALMK2 FTTTCGCCAGAACGGCTTTA	IntermediationIntermediationIntermediationof bases000LMP FGATGATATTTACGATGTCTATGGTAC2634.62LMP RGAATTGATTTCGGCACATCGCCTC2450LMS1 FATAAGCCAGTCCAATGCCTT2045LMS1 RTTTGTCCTCCAAGGGAATGG2050LMS2 FGCAGTCATTGAATAGCAAC1942LMS2 RCCTTCTTCCACATCTGTCTC2050LMK1 FGAACAGAGCGGCCAGAAA1855.56LMK1 RGATAGCCCACGCGCATATAA2050LMK2 FTTTCGCCAGAACGGCTTTA1947.37	IntermediationIntermediationIntermediationImage: IntermediationImage: IntermediationImage: Image: Im

9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 L 8 2 6 7 1 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 L 22 23

Plate 10: PCR profile obtained for primer S1

- L- Ladder
- 1. C<sub>65</sub> (PV2)
- 2. C51 (Kanniyelam)
- 3. T7 (Wild)
- 4. C70 (Unknown)
- 5. C53 (Unknown)
- 6. C61 (ICRI-2)
- 7. C103 (Pathumuriyan)
- 8. C116 (Kothu mysore)
- 9. C107 (Njellani)
- 10. C108 (Njellani)
- 11. C104 (Nadan)
- 12. V8 (Wild)
- 13. C106 (Elam Raja)
- 14. C105 (Njellani)
- 15. C112 (Njellani)
- 16. C109 (Green bold)
- 17. C118 (Thiruthali)

- 18. C120 (Palakkudi)
- 19. C113 (Palakkudi)
- 20. C117 (Vazhukka mysore)
- 21. LC (Large cardamom)
- 22. C111 (Njellani)
- 23. C64 (PV1)
- 24. C24 (Wild)
- 25. C110 (Green bold)
- 26. ER (Elam Raja)
- 27. NJ1 (Njellani)
- 28. NJ2 (Njellani)
- 29. NJ3 (Njellani)
- 30. NJ4 (Njellan)

174449

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 L 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 L

Plate 11: PCR profile obtained for primer S2

Lane representation:

## L- Ladder

- 1. C<sub>65</sub> (PV2)
- 2. C51 (Kanniyelam)
- 3. T7 (Wild)
- 4. C70 (Unknown)
- 5. C53 (Unknown)
- 6. C61 (ICRI-2)
- 7. C103 (Pathumuriyan)
- 8. C116 (Kothu mysore)
- 9. C107 (Njellani)
- 10. C108 (Njellani)
- 11. C104 (Nadan)
- 12. V8 (Wild)
- 13. C106 (Elam Raja)
- 14. C105 (Njellani)
- 15. C112 (Njellani)

- 16. C109 (Green bold)
- 17. C118 (Thiruthali)
- 18. C120 (Palakkudi)
- 19. C113 (Palakkudi)
- 20. C117 (Vazhukka mysore)

- 21. LC (Large cardamom)
- 22. C111 (Njellani)
- 23. C64 (PV1)
- 24. C24 (Wild)
- 25. C110 (Green bold)
- 26. ER (Elam Raja)
- 27. NJ1 (Njellani)
- 28. NJ2 (Njellani)
- 29. NJ3 (Njellani)
- 30. NJ4 (Njellan)

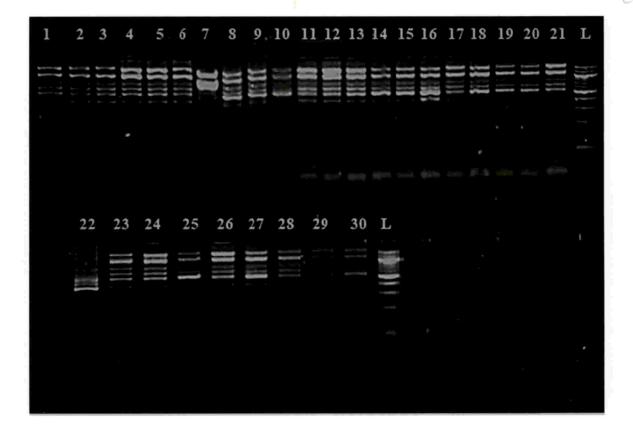


Plate 12: PCR profile obtained for primer K1(1030)

- L- Ladder
- 1. C<sub>65</sub> (PV2)
- 2. C51 (Kanniyelam)
- 3. T7 (Wild)
- 4. C70 (Unknown)
- 5. C53 (Unknown)
- 6. C61 (ICRI-2)
- 7. C103 (Pathumuriyan)
- 8. C116 (Kothu mysore)
- 9. C107 (Njellani)
- 10. C108 (Njellani)
- 11. C104 (Nadan)
- 12. V8 (Wild)
- 13. C106 (Elam Raja)
- 14. C105 (Njellani)
- 15. C112 (Njellani)

- 16. C109 (Green bold)
- 17. C118 (Thiruthali)
- 18. C120 (Palakkudi)
- 19. C113 (Palakkudi)
- 20. C117 (Vazhukka mysore)
- 21. LC (Large cardamom)
- 22. C111 (Njellani)
- 23. C64 (PV1)
- 24. C24 (Wild)
- 25. C110 (Green bold)
- 26. ER (Elam Raja)
- 27. NJ1 (Njellani)
- 28. NJ2 (Njellani)
- 29. NJ3 (Njellani)
- 30. NJ4 (Njellan)

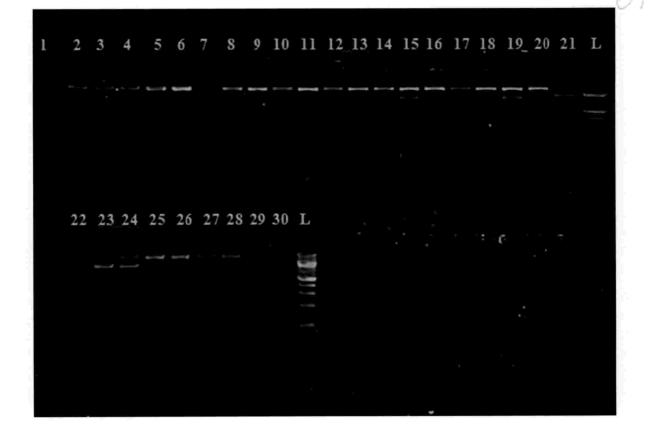


Plate 13: PCR profile obtained for primer K2 (1036bp)

- L-Ladder
- 1. C<sub>65</sub> (PV2)
- 2. C51 (Kanniyelam)
- 3. T7 (Wild)
- 4. C70 (Unknown)
- 5. C53 (Unknown)
- 6. C61 (ICRI-2)
- 7. C103 (Pathumuriyan)
- 8. C116 (Kothu mysore)
- 9. C107 (Njellani)
- 10. C108 (Njellani)
- 11. C104 (Nadan)
- 12. V8 (Wild)
- 13. C106 (Elam Raja)
- 14. C105 (Njellani)
- 15. C112 (Njellani)

- 16. C109 (Green bold)
- 17. C118 (Thiruthali)
- 18. C120 (Palakkudi)
- 19. C113 (Palakkudi)
- 20. C117 (Vazhukka mysore)
- 21. LC (Large cardamom)
- 22. C111 (Njellani)
- 23. C64 (PV1)
- 24. C24 (Wild)
- 25. C110 (Green bold)
- 26. ER (Elam Raja)
- 27. NJ1 (Njellani)
- 28. NJ2 (Njellani)
- 29. NJ3 (Njellani)
- 30. NJ4 (Njellan)

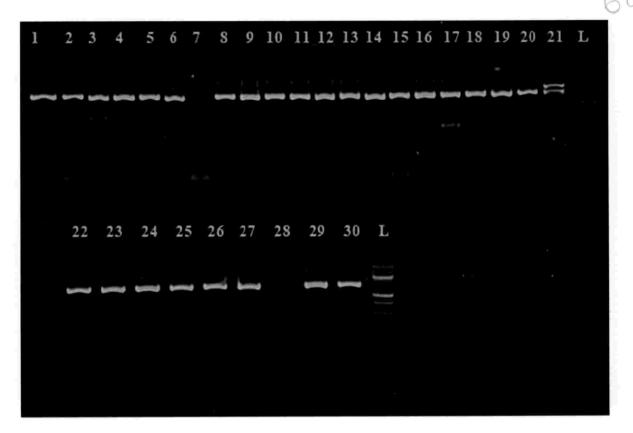


Plate 14: PCR profile obtained for primer P(490)

- L- Ladder
- 1. C<sub>65</sub> (PV2)
- 2. C51 (Kanniyelam)
- 3. T7 (Wild)
- 4. C70 (Unknown)
- 5. C53 (Unknown)
- 6. C61 (ICRI-2)
- 7. C103 (Pathumuriyan)
- 8. C116 (Kothu mysore)
- 9. C107 (Njellani)
- 10. C108 (Njellani)
- 11. C104 (Nadan)
- 12. V8 (Wild)
- 13. C106 (Elam Raja)
- 14. C105 (Njellani)
- 15. C112 (Njellani)

- 16. C109 (Green bold)
- 17. C118 (Thiruthali)
- 18. C120 (Palakkudi)
- 19. C113 (Palakkudi)
- 20. C117 (Vazhukka mysore)
- 21. LC (Large cardamom)
- 22. C111 (Njellani)
- 23. C64 (PV1)
- 24. C24 (Wild)
- 25. C110 (Green bold)
- 26. ER (Elam Raja)
- 27. NJ1 (Njellani)
- 28. NJ2 (Njellani)
- 29. NJ3 (Njellani)
- 30. NJ4 (Njellan)

#### 5. DISCUSSION

The significance of EST-SSR as a molecular tool in genetic studies is well known (Ellis and Burke, 2007) and demonstrated in population studies and analysis of genetic diversity in many species like *Populus* (Xinye *et al.*, 2009). Recently, it was reported that EST-SSRs of turmeric and ginger showed considerable genetic variation in cardamom (Anjali *et al.*, 2015).

In the present study microsatellites were used to analyze the genetic polymorphism in cardamom. The genetic polymorphism and differentiation analysis of the accessions were done by using already available cardamom specific SSR markers in **JNTBGRI** (https://doi.org/10.2174/1574893611666161128123827). Bv comparing the results, the sample Pathumuriyan ( $C_{103}$ ) has shown a great variation in the banding pattern. The summary of genetic variation and genetic distance were statistically generated using POPGENE (Yeh & Boyle, 1997). The pair-wise genetic similarity and distance matrix were prepared on the basis of SSR data. The genetic similarity values varied from 0.10 to 1.00 with a mean value of 0.854. Cluster analysis was performed on the SSR data following UPGMA method and dendrogram were constructed through MEGA7 showing overall genetic retardness among the individuals.

For the estimation of D-Limonene, essential oil was extracted from freshly collected capsules of cardamom using clevenger- type apparatus through hydrodistillation (Sattar *et al.*, 1989). Essential oil of *Elettaria cardamomum* Maton has antimicrobial, anticarcinogenic, anti-inflammatory and antioxidant activities (Kubo *et al.*, 1991; Vijayan *et al.*, 2002 & Al Tahir *et al.*, 1997). Four samples was used for the analysis of essential oil and was carried out on GC-MS at NIIST (National Institute for Interdisciplinary Science and Technology), Trivandrum.

In reference to polymorphism analysis, the D-Limonene content was estimated from the sample Pathumuriyan ( $C_{103}$ ) along with two other currently

popular varieties (Njellani and Green bold) and one non- popular cultivar Palakkudi. The essential oil of cardamom revealed the presence of around 45 components. The limonene percentage was identified from their fragmentation pattern by Mass Spectrometry using NIIST library. By comparing the retention time and area percentage of D- Limonene of each 4 sample, the sample Pathumuriyan has got the lowest D- Limonene content of 0.1% indicating some sort of genetic variation related to the D- Limonene synthesis.

In order to validate the GC- MS results, limonene specific functional SSR markers were developed. The advent of DNA marker technology has revolutionized the field of genetics by changing the pace and precision of genetic analysis (Cullis *et al.*, 2002; Dodgson *et al.*, 1997; Rafalski and Tingey, 1993). Microsatellites or Simple Sequence Repeats (SSRs) are one of the most widely used molecular markers in plant breeding, agricultural genetics, mapping, marker assisted selection, and genetic diversity studies (Powell *et al.*, 1996; Gupta & Varshney, 2000). They are stretches of DNA consisting of tandemly arranged units of 1–6 bp in length (Thiel *et al.*, 2003), characterized by the relative abundance, hyper variable, locus specific, codominant, and multiallelic nature (Thiel *et al.*, 2003).

Cardamom specific limonene sequence was not available in NCBI Genebank, so limonene specific gene sequences of various plant species was selected for designing degenerative primers. PCR amplification of the thirty different accessions was done with the newly synthesised primers in which the sample Pathumuriyan has shown a distinct variation in its gel banding pattern. Since the primers custom synthesized were based on the D-Limonene, the differential banding pattern obtained in the accession Pathumuriyan can be considered as a genetic variation associated with genes specific for the synthesis of D- limonene.

#### 6. SUMMARY

The research work entitled "Development of functional SSR markers for D-Limonene content and analysis of genetic polymorphism in cardamom (*Elettaria cardamomum* Maton)" was carried out at Biotechnology and Bioinformatics Division of Jawaharlal Nehru Tropical Botanic Garden and Research Institute (JNTBGRI), Palode during 2017-18. The objective of the study was to analyse the genetic polymorphism and to identify SSR marker with respect to D-Limonene content, a component in cardamom oil having tumor suppressing effect.

Cardamom is one of the world's ancient, expensive and highly valued spices. It's a native of tropical ever green forests in Western Ghats where presumably rich and untapped genetic diversity of the species still resides. The world production of cardamom is around 36000 tonnes per annum. Kerala is the leading producer of cardamom in the country constituting 78% of the total production from 56% of the total land area under cardamom cultivation in the country.

D- Limonene is a bioactive component in the cardamom essential oil and it was reported to posses chemo preventive property towards colon cancer, lung, liver mammary, skin and stomach cancers in rodents. The percentage of limonene is varies in different accessions.

Thirty accessions of cardamom used for this study which were collected from different geographical locations of Idukki and also from the cardamom germplasm conservatory of JNTBGRI which included wild collection, landraces and released varieties. Genomic DNA samples were isolated from the thirty accessions used for the study with Origin Plant Genomic DNA Kit. Isolated DNA samples were resolved in 0.8% agarose gel with ethidium bromide for visual observation. The genetic polymorphism and differentiation analysis of the thirty different accessions of cardamom done with the already available cardamom specific SSR markers in JNTBGRI resulted drastic variation in the banding pattern of the variety Pathumuriyan ( $C_{103}$ ) collected from vacacity region of Idukki. This was a remarkable indication of the existence of genetic variation within the species.

12

The summary of genetic variation and genetic distance were statistically generated using POPGENE. The statistic data which includes the observed number of alleles per locus (na) ranged from 1.00 to 1.33, effective number of alleles (ne) also ranged from 1.00 to 1.33, Shannon's information index (I) ranged from 0.00 to 0.23, observed heterozygosity (Obs\_Het) ranged from 0.00 to 0.33, expected heterozygosity (Exp\_Het) ranged from 0.00 to 0.33, Nei's heterozygosity (h) ranged from 0.00 to 0.16, average heterozygosity (Ave\_Het) ranged from 0.01 to 0.09 and percentage of polymorphic loci (P) ranged from 0.00 to 33.33.

The pair- wise genetic similarity and distance matrix were prepared on the basis of SSR data. The genetic similarity values varied from 0.10 to 1.00 with a mean value of 0.854. Cluster analysis was performed on the SSR data following UPGMA method and dendrogram were constructed through MEGA7 showing overall genetic retardness among the individuals. The accession studied were clustered into two main group, one with 29 accessions and other with one accession, which is an out group sample (Large cardamom). The first group has again divided into two subgroup and the remaining 29 samples are mixed in the cluster. The dendrogram revealed a complex distribution of pattern.

In reference to polymorphism analysis, the D-Limonene content was estimated from that particular sample Pathumuriyan ( $C_{103}$ ) along with two other currently popular varieties (Njellani and Green bold) and one non- popular cultivar Palakkudi. The D-Limonene percentage in each of the 4 samples was analyzed by using GC- MS was done at NIIST, Pappanamcode. As per their report, the cardamom oil have the presence of around 45 components. The limonene percentage was identified from their fragmentation pattern by Mass Spectrometry using NIIST library. By comparing the retention time and area

percentage of D- Limonene of each 4 sample, the sample Pathumuriyan has got the lowest D- Limonene content of 0.1%. It indicated that has some sort of genetic variation related to the D- Limonene synthesis.

In order to validate the GC-MS results, gene specific primers were developed. Cardamom specific limonene sequence was not available in NCBI Genbank, so limonene specific gene sequences of various plant species were selected for the synthesis of functional SSR primers. By using Multiple Sequence Alignment (MSA) tool in Clustal Omega, sequences were aligned. The sequences were uploaded to the WEBSAT software for identifying the SSR regions residing within the sequences. However, no SSRs were detected within the target sequence. So for validating the results of GC-MS, gene specific primers for limonene were designed from the conserved regions obtained from Multiple Sequence Alignment (MSA). These newly synthesised primers were used for amplifying the thirty accessions in which sample Pathumuriyan has shown a distinct variation in its gel banding pattern indicating some genetic variation in the genes associated with D- Limonene synthesis. Study has also shown that D-Limonene, which is the tumour suppressor constituent in cardamom essential oil (Samir et al., 2015) is found high in the current popular cultivars, Njellani and Green Bold compared to other cardamom varieties. Essential oils are more sensitive towards gram positive bacteria and also used as biopreservative agents. Limonene posses antimicrobial and antioxidant properties (Desislave et al., 2016). The present study can be further elaborated to metabolic pathway studies as well as hybridisation techniques to develop elite cardamom varieties with increased D-Limonene content.

174 449

13



# 14

#### **7. REFERENCE**

- Abd-Elsalam, K.A. 2003.Bioinformatic tools and guideline for PCR primer design. African J. of Biotechnol.2(5): 91-95.
- Acharya, A., Das, I., Singh, S., Saha, T. 2010. Chemopreventive properties of indole-3-carbinol, diindolylmethane and other constituents of cardamom against carcinogenesis. Recent Pat. Food Nutr. Agric. 2; 166–177.
- Akkaya, M.S., Bhagwat, A.A. and Cregan, P.B. 1992. Length polymorphisms of simple sequence repeat DNA in soybean. *Genet.* 132: 1131-1139.
- Al Tahir, K. E. H., Shoeb, H., Al- Shora, H. 1997. Exploration of some pharmacological activities of cardamom seed (Elettaria *cardamomum*) volatile oil. Saudi pharm J. 5(2-3):96-102.
- Anandaraj, M., Sudharshan, M. R. 2010. Cardamom, Ginger and Turmeric. Encyclopedia of life essupport systems. Food and agricultural sciences, engineering and technology resources. Soils, Plant Growth and Crop Production. Eolss Publishers Company Limited,
- Asamoto, M., Ota, T., Toriyama-Baba, H., Hokaiwado, N., Naito, A., Tsuda, H. 2002. Mammary carcinomas induced in human c-Ha-ras proto-oncogene transgenic rats are estrogen- independent, but responsive to D-limonene treatment. Jpn. J. Cancer Res. 93; 32–35.
- Asbahani, A. E. I., Miladi, K., Badri, W., Sala, M., Aït Addi, E. H., Casabianca, H., E.I Mousadik, A., Hartmann, D., Jilale, A., Renaud, F. N.R. and Elaissari, A. 2015. Essential oils: From extraction to encapsulation. Int. J. of Pharma. 483(1-2):220-43.
- Bartlett, J.M.S. and Stirling, D.2003. A Short History of the Polymerase Chain Reaction. *Methods in Mol. Biol.*: PCR Protocols. Humana Press Inc., Totowa, New Jersey, pp. 3-6.

- Benali, S., Mohamed, B. and Eddine, H.J. 2012. Microsatellite Markers, an efficient tool in phytopathogenic fungus population studies: Background and Applications. *Eur. J. of Sci. Res.* 84(2): 223-235.
- Biswas, A. K., Bhutia, D. T. and Gupta, R. K. 1988. Large cardamom: Reasons for decline and ways for improving production. *ICRI Tech. Bull.* 105 pp.
- Blixt, Y., Knutsson, R., Borch, E. and Radstrom, P. 2003. Interlaboratory random amplified polymorphic DNA typing of *Yersinia enterocolitica* and *Y. enterocolitica* like bacteria. *Int. J. of Food Microbiol.* 83: 15-26.
- Bossinger, G. 2006. A Rapid Method for Tissue Collection and High-Throughput Isolation of Genomic DNA from Mature Trees. In Plant Mol. Biol. Reporter 21: 81–92.
- Bracci, T., Busconi, M., Fogher, C., Sebastiani, L. 2011. Molecular studies in olive (Olea europaea L.): overview on DNA markers applications and recent advances in genome analysis. *Plant Cell Rep.* 30: 449–462.
- Buckingham, L. and Flaws, M. L. 2007.Molecular Diagnostics: Fundamentals, Methods, & Clinical Applications. F.A. Davis, Philadelphia, p. 18.
- Cardle, L., Ramsay, L., Milbourne, D., Macaulay, M., Marshall, D. and Waugh, R. 2000. Computational and experimental characterization of physically clustered simple sequence repeats in plants. *Genet.* 156: 847-854.
- Christiansen, M. J., Andersen, S. B. and Ortiz, R. 2002. Diversity changes in an intensively bred wheat germplasm during the 20th century. Mol Breed., 9: 1–11.
- Chomczynski, P. and Sacchi, N. 2006. The single-step method of RNA isolation by acid guanidiniumthiocyanate-phenol-chloroform extraction: twentysomething years on. *Nat. Protocols.* 1(2): 581-585.

- Cota-Sánchez, H. J., Remarchuk, K. and Ubayasena, K. 2006. Ready-to-Use DNA Extracted with a CTAB Method Adapted for Herbarium Specimens and Mucilaginous Plant Tissue. *In Plant Mol. Biol. Reporter*. 24:161–167.
- Cullis, C.A. 2002. The use of DNA polymorphisms in genetic mapping. *Genetic* Engineering. 24: 179–89.
- Desislava, T., Zapryana, D., Bogdan, G., Rositsa, D., Georgi, K., Teodora, A., Pavel, M. 2016. Chemical composition and antimicrobial activity of essential oils from black pepper, cumin, coriander and cardamom against some pathogenic microorganisms. Acta Universitatis Cibiniensis. Series E: Food Technol. 20:39-52
- Dodgson, J.B., Cheng, H.H. and Okimoto, R. 1997. DNA marker technology: a revolution in animal genetics. *Poultry Science*. 76: 1108-1114.
  - Ellis, J. R., Burke, J. M. 2007. EST-SSRs as a resource for population genetic analyses. *Heredity* 99: 125–132.
- Farah, A. J., Siddiqui, A., Aslam, M., Javed, K., Jafri, M. A.2005. Antiulcerogenic activity of Elettaria cardamomum Maton. and Amomum subulatum Roxb. seeds. *Indian J. of Tradit. Knowl.* 4: 298-302.
- Faoud, T. I., Cristiana, S. 2008. Principles and application of polymerase chain reaction: basic science for the practicing physician. An. of allergy, asthma and Immunol.: Off. Publ of the American college of Allergy, Asthma and Immunolgy. 101: 437- 43.
- George, K.J., Varma, R.S., Ganga, G., Utpala, P., Sasikumar, B., Saji, K.V. and Parthasarathy, V.A. 2006. ISSR markers for genetic diversity analysis in spices- An appraisal.*Indian JournalofHorticulture*. 63: 302-304.
- Gibbs, R. A. 1990. DNA Amplification by the Polymerase Chain Reaction. Anal. Chem. 62 (13):1202–1214.

- Govarthanan, M., Guruchandar, A., Arunapriya, S., Selvankumar, T., Selvam, K. 2011. Genetic variability among Coleus sp. studied by RAPD banding pattern analysis. Int. J. for Biotechnol. and Mol. Biol. Res. 2: 201–208.
- Guenther, E. 1975.2 The Cardamom oils. In The Essential Oils. Krieger Publishing Company. 5; 85-106
- Gupta, P. N. 1983. Export potential in large cardamom. Cardamom 15(1): 3-9
- Gupta, P.K. and Varshney, R.K. 2000. The development and use of microsatellite markers for genetic analysis and plant breeding with emphasis on bread wheat. *Euphytica*. 113: 163-185.
- Gupta, S. and Prasad, M. 2009. Development and characterization of genic SSR markers in Medicagotruncatula and their transferability in leguminous and non-leguminous species. *Genome*. 52:761-771.
- Gupta, P. K., Rustgi, S., Sharma, S., Singh, R., Kumar, N. andBalyan, H.S. 2003.Transferable EST-SSR markers for the study of polymorphism and genetic diversity in bread wheat. *Mole. Genet. and Genomics*. 270:315-323.
- Gut, G.I. 2001. Automation in genotyping of single nucleotide polymorphisms. *Human Mutation*. 17: 475-492
- Gu, Z., Hillier, L. and Kwok, P.Y. 1998. Single nucleotide polymorphism hunting in cyberspace. *Hum. Mutat.* 12: 221-225.
- Hajjar, R., Jarvis, D.I. and Gemmill-Herren, B. 2008. The utility of crop genetic diversity in maintaining ecosystem services. Agriculture Ecosystem and Environment. 123 (4): 261-270.
- Hasibe, C.V. 2009. Genomic DNA isolation from aromatic and medicinal plants growing in Turkey. *Sci. Res. and Essays.* 4(2): 59-64.

- Hillis, D.M., Mable, B.K., Larson, A. and Davis, S.K. 1996. Nucleic acids IV: Sequencing and cloning. In: Hillis, D.M., Moritz, C. and Mable, B.K. (eds.), *Mol. Syst.* (2<sup>nd</sup> Ed.). Sinauer Associates, Massachusetts, pp. 321-381.
- Holttum, R. E. 1950. The zingiberaceae of the Malay Peninsula. *Gard. Bull. Singapore*, 13:1-249.
- Huges, A.R and Stachowicz, H. 2004. Genetic diversity enhances the resistance of seagrass ecosystem to disturbance. *Proceeding of the national academy of sciences USA*. 101(24): 8998-9002.
- Hutchinson, W.F., Oosterhout, C., Rogers, S.I. and Carvalho, G.R.2003. Temporal analysis of archived samples indicates marked genetic changes in declining North Sea cod (*Gadusmorhua*). Proc. of the R. Soc. London.270: 2125-2132.
- Hu, J. B., Zhoub, X.Y. and Li, J.W. 2010.Development of novel EST-SSR markers for cucumber (*Cucumissativus*) and their transferability to related species. Scientia Horticulturae. 125:534-538.
- Hooker, J.D. 1894. The Flora of British India. Vol.6, Reeves and Co, London. Kress W.J., Linda, M.P. and Kyle, J.W. 2002. The phylogeny and a new classification of the gingers (zingiberaceae): evidence from molecular data. *Amer. J. Botany*, 89(11):1682-1696.
- Innis, M., Gelfand, D., Sninsky, D. and White, T. 1990. PCR Protocols. Academic Press, New York, pp. 20-38.
- Innis, M.A. and Gelfand, D.H. 1990. Optimization of PCRs. In:Gelfand, D.H., Sninsky, J.J., Innis, M.A. and White, H. (eds.), PCR Protocols: A Guide to Methods and Appl. Academic Press, San Diego, pp. 3-12.
- Innis, M. and Gelfand, D. H. 1999. Optimization of PCR: conversations between Michael and David. In:Innis, M., Gelfand, D.H. and Sninsky, J.J. (eds.), PCR Appl.: Protocols for Funct. Genomics. Academic Press, New York, pp. 3-22.



- Jarne, P. and Lagoda, P. J. L. 1996. Microsatellites from molecular to population and back. *Trends Ecol. Evol.* 11:424-429.
- Jian-Wei Zong, Tian-Tian Zhao, Qing-Hua Ma, Li-Song Liang, Gui-Xi Wang. 2015. Assessment of Genetic Diversity and Population Genetic Structure of Corylus mandshurica in China Using SSR Markers. PLoS ONE 10(9).
- John, T. D. 1984. Large cardamom holdings in Sikkim. Cardamom 16(2):3,5,11.
- Joshi, M. and Deshpande, J. D. 2010. Polymerase chain reaction: methods, principles and application. *Int. J. of Biomedical Res.* 1(5): 81-97.
- Kampke, T., Kieninger, M. and Mecklenburg, M. 2001. Efficient primer design algorithms. *Bioinforma*. 17(3): 214-225.
- Kantety, R.V., Rota, L.M., Matthews, D.E. and Sorrells, M.E. 2002. Data mining for simple sequence repeats in expressed sequence tags from barley, maize, rice, sorghum and wheat. *Plant Mol.r Biol.* 48: 501-510.
- Kubo, I., Masaki, H., Hisae, M. 1991. Antimicrobial activity of flavour componenets of cardamom Elettaria *cardamomum* (Zingiberaceae) seed. J. Agric. Food Chem. 39(11): 1946-6.
- Kumar, P.K., Radhakrishnan, V.V., Hrideek, T.K., Sunil, S., Kuruvilla, K.M., Sudharshan, M. R. 2015. Shade trees and forage behaviour of honey bees in cardamom plantations. *Prospects in For. and Agric.* 112–117.
- Kwok, P.Y. 2001.Methods for genotyping single nucleotide polymorphisms. Annu. Rev. of Genomics and Hum. Genet.2:235–258.
- Kwok, P.Y. 2002.SNP genotyping with fluorescence polarization detection. *Hum. Mutat.* 19: 315-323.
- Lapitan, V.C., Brar, D.S., Abe, T. and Edilberto, D.R. 2007. Assessment of genetic diversity of Philippine rice cultivars carrying good quality traits using SSR markers. *Breed. Sci.* 57(4): 263-270.

- Litt, M. and Luty, J.A. 1989. A hypervariable microsatellite revealed by in vitro amplification of dinucleotide repeat within the cardiac muscle actin gene. *American J. of Human Genet.* 44: 397-401.
- Lynch, M. and Walsh, B. 1998. Genetics and Analysis of Quantitative Traits.Sinauer Associates, Sunderland, pp. 12-14.
- Lwasa, S., Bwowe, F.2007. Exploring the Economic Potential of Cardamom (Elettaria cardamomum) as an alternative and promising income source for Uganda's smallholder farmers. ACSS Sci. Conf. Proc. 8: 1317-1321.
- Madhusoodhanan, K.J., Kuruvilla, K.M. and Priyadarshan, P.M. 1994. Genetic resources of cardamom. In: Chadha, K.L. and Rethinam (eds.), Advances in Horticulture: Vol. 9. Plantation and Spices Crops. Malhotra Publishing House, New Delhi, pp. 121-130.
- Madhusoodanan, K.J., Pradipkumar, K. and Ravindran, P.N. 2002. Botany, crop improvement and biotechnology of cardamom. In Ravindran P.N. and Madhusoodanan, K.J. 2002. (Eds,) Cardamom - The genus Elettaria, Taylor & Francis Inc, New York, pp. 11-68
- Manen, J. F.2005 . A Fully Automatable Enzymatic Method for DNA Extraction from Plant Tissue. In BMC *Plant Biol*. 5(23)1–9.
- Mondini, L., Noorani, A. and Pagnotta, M.A. 2009. Assessing plant genetic diversity by molecular tools. *Diversity*.1:19-35.
- Mullis, K.B., Faloona, F.A., Scharf, S.J., Saiki, S.K., Horn, G.T. andErlich, H.A. 1986. Specific enzymatic amplification of DNA in vitro: the polymerase chain reaction. *Cold Spring Harbor Symp.* on *Quantitative Biol.* 51: 263-273.
- Nirmala, M. A. 2000. Studies on the volatile of cardamom (Elettaria cardamomum). J. Food Sci. Technol. 37: 406-408.

Nitasha,B., Nayak, N., Vinodraj, K., Chandralekha, N., Mathai, P., Cherian, J. 2015. Comparison of the efficacy of cardamom (*Elettaria cardamomum*) with pioglitazone on dexamethasone- induced hepatic steatosis, dyslipidemia, and hyperglycemia in albino rats. J. Adv. Pharm. Technol. Res. 6(3):136.

- Ochman, H., Gerber, A. S., Hartl, D. L. 1988. Genetic applications of an inverse polymerase chain reaction. *Genet*. 120: 621–623.
- Onyango, M., Haymer, D., Keeley, S. and Manshardt, R. 2010. Analysis of genetic diversity and relationships in East African 'apple banana' (AAB genome) and 'Muraru' (AA genome) dessert bananas using microsatellite markers. *Proc. of IC on Banana and plant. in Africa.* pp.623-636.
- OZA, V. P. 2008. A simple, Rapid and Efficient Method for Isolation of Genomic DNA from Plant Tissue. *In J. of Cell and Tissue Res.* 8: 1383–1386.
- Paran I, Michelmore RW. 1993. Development of reliable PCR-based markers linked to downy mildew resistance genes in lettuce. *Theor. and Appl. Genetics* 85, 985–993.
- Patricia, S.S., John, V., Itamar, G. and Noel, B. 2009. Primers development and virus identification strategies. *In: Insect Pathogens: Molecular Approaches* and Techniques. CAB International, p. 22.
- Pavlov, A.R., Pavlova, N.V., Kozyavkin, S.A. and Slesarev, A.I. 2006. Thermostable DNA polymerases for a wide spectrum of applications: Comparison of a robust hybrid TopoTaq to other enzymes. *In: Kieleczawa, J. (ed.), DNA Sequencing II: Optimizing Preparation and Cleanup.* Jones and Bartlett, USA, pp. 241-257.
- Portis, E., Nagy, I., Sasva, Z., Stagelri, A., Barchi, L. andLanteri, S. 2007. The design of Capsicum spp. SSR assays via analysis of Insilico DNA sequence, and their potential utility for genetic mapping. *Plant Sci.* 172:640-648.

Powell, W., Machray, G.C. and Provan, J. 1996. Polymorphism revealed by

82

- simple sequence repeats. Trends in Plant Sci. 1: 215-222.
- Prescott, L.M., Harley, J.P. and Klein, D.A. 2008. Human diseases caused by viruses In:Dubuqu, I.A. (ed.),*Microbiol*. WMC Brown publishers, Dubuque, p. 72.
- Rafalski, J.A., and Tingey, S.V. 1993. Genetic diagnostics in plant breeding: RAPDs, microsatellites and machines. *Trends in Genetics*.9: 275-280.
- Ranade, S.S, Lin, Y., Zuccolo, A., Van de Peer Y., Garcia-Gil, M. R. 2014. Comparative in silico analysis of EST-SSRs in angiosperm and gymnosperm tree genera. *BMC Plant Biol.* 14: 220.
- Rao, V.R. and Hodgkin, T. 2002. Genetic diversity and conservation of plant genetic resources. *Plant cell, tissue and organ culture*. 68: 1-9.
- Ravindran, P.N. and Madhusoodanan, K.J. 2002. Cardamom-The Genus Elettaria. Taylor and Francis, New York, p. 1–10.
- Rehaman, U., Choudhary, M. I., Ahmed, A., Iqbal, M. Z., Demirci, B., Demirci, F., Baser, K. H.C. 2000. Antifungal activity and essential oil constituent of some spices from Pakistan. J. of Chem. Soc. of Pakistan. 22: 60-65.
  - Robinson,A.J., Love, C.G., Batley, J., Barker, G. and Edwards, D. 2004. Simple sequence repeat marker loci discovery using SSR primer. *Bioinforma*. 20: 1475-1476.
  - Rose, T.M., Schultz, E.R., Henikoff, J.G., Pietrokovsk, S., McCallum, C.M. and Henikoff, S. 1998. Consensus-degenerate hybrid oligonucleotide primers for amplification of distantly related sequences. *Nucleic Acids Res.* 26(7): 1628-1635
  - Saiki, R. K., Scharf, S., Faloona, F., Mullis, K. B., Horn, G. T., Erlich, H. A. 1985. Enzymatic amplification of betaglobin genomic sequences and

restriction site analysis for diagnosis of sickle cell anemia. Sci. 230 (4732): 1350–4.

- Sambrook, J. and Russel, D. 2001.Molecular Cloning: A Laboratory Manual (3<sup>rd</sup> Ed.). *Cold Spring Harbor Lab. Press.* 1: 44-53.
- Samir, Q, Sasikumar, D., and Moez, A. F., 2015 Chemopreventive effect of cardamom (*Elettaria cardamomum* L) against benzo(a)pyrene- induced for estomach papillomagenesis in Swiss Albino Mice. J. Environ. Pathol. Toxicol. Oncol. 34(2): 95-104.
- Sarath Kumara, S. J., Packiyajothy, E.V and Jansz, E. R. 1985. Some effects on the effects of maturity and storage on the chlorophyll content and essential oils of the cardamom fruit (Elettaria cardamomum). J. Sci. Food Agri. 36(6): 491-498.
- Sasikumar, B., Krishnamoorthy, B., Saji, K.V., Johnson, K.G., Peter, K.V. and Ravindran, P.N. 1999. Spice diversity and conservation of plants that yield major spices in India.*Plant Genetic Resources Newsletter*.118:19-26.
- Sastri, B. N. 1952. The wealth of India Raw Materials. Council of Sci. and Ind. Res. 3: 150-160.
- Sattar, A. 1989. Extraction and technology of essential oils. In proceeding of the first National Symposium on Essential oil, perfumes and Flavour. PCSIR Laboraties Complex, Lahore. pp 7-12.
- Semagn, K., Bjornstad, A. and Ndjiondjop, M. N. 2006. An overview of molecular marker methods for plants. *African J. of Biotechnol.* 5(25): 2540-2568.
- Scott, K. D., Eggler, P., Seaton, G., Rossetto, M., Ablett, E.M., Lee, L.S. and Henry, R.J. 2000. Analysis of SSRs derived from grape ESTs. *Theor. and Appl. Genet.* 100: 723-726.
- Sharma, P. C., Grover, A., Kahl, G. 2007. Mining microsatellites in eukaryotic genomes. *Trends Biotechnol*. 25: 490–498.

- Singh, G. B., Gupta, P. N., Pant, H. G. 1978. Large cardamom, a foreign exhange earner from Sikkim. *Indian Farming*. 3:7-8.
- Subba, J. R. 1984. Agriculture in the hills of Sikkim. Sikkim Sci. Soc. 286 pp
- Sunyaev, S., Hanke, J., Aydin, A., Wirkner, U., Zastrow, I., Reich, J. and Bork, P. 1999.Prediction of nonsynonymous single nucleotide polymorphisms in human disease-associated genes. J. of Mol. Med. 77: 754-760.
- Sunyaev, S., Ramensky, V., Koch, I., Lathe, W.,Kondrashov, A.S. and Bork, P. 2001. Prediction of deleterious human alleles. *Hum. Mol. Genetics*.10: 591-597.
- Tautz, D. 1989. Hypervariability of simple sequences as a general source for polymorphic DNA markers. *Nucleic Acids Res.* 17: 6463-6471.
- Thiel, T., Michalek, W., Varshney, R.K. andGraner, A. 2003. Exploiting EST databases for the development and characterization of gene-derived SSRmarkers in barley (*Hordeumvulgare* L.). *Theor. and Appl. Genet.* 106:411-422.
- Trethowan, R. M. and Kazi, A. M. 2008. Novel germplasm resources for improving environmental stress tolerance of hexaploid wheat. *Crop Sci.* 48: 1255-1265.
- Van der Logt, Elise, M.J., Van Der Logt, Hennie, M. J., Roelofs, Esther, M.M., Van Lieshout, Fokko, M., Nagengast and Wilbert, H.M. 2004. Effects of dietary anticarcinogens and nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs on rat gastrointestinal UDP-glucuronosyltransferases. *Anticancer Res.* 24: 843-850.
- Varshney, R.K., Thiel, T., Stein, N., Langridge, P. and Graner, A. 2002. In silico analysis on frequency and distribution of microsatellites in ESTs of some cereal species. *Cell. and Mol. Biol. Letters*. 7: 537-546.

- Varshney, R.K., Graner, A. and Sorrells, M.E.2005. Genic microsatellite markers in plants: features and applications. *Trends in Biotechnol.* 23: 48-55.
- Venugopal, M. N. and Prasath, D. 2004. Genetic diversity and conservation of cardamom (Elettaria cardamomum Maton.) in India. *Plant Genet. Resour. Newsletter* 138: 55-60.
- Verma, K., Jain, V., Katewa, S.S.2009. Blood pressure lowering, fibrinolysis enhancing and antioxidant activities of cardamom (Elettaria cardamomum). Indian J. Biochem. and Biophys. 46: 503-506.
- Vijayan, K. K., Madhusoodanan, V. V., Radhakrishnan, P. N. 2002. Properties and use of cardamom. Medical and aromatic plants. Industrial profiles. 30(cardamom). 269-283.
- Vos, P., Hogers, R., Bleeker, M., Reijans, M., Lee, T.V.D., Hornes, M., Frijters, A., Pot, J., Peleman, J., Kuiper, M. and Zabeau, M. 1995. AFLP: a new technique for DNA fingerprinting. *Nucleic Acids Res*. 23(21):4407-4414.
- Wardini, T. H. and Thomas. 1999. Elettaria Cardamom Maton. Plant Resources of South East Asia. 13- Spices- Prosen. Eds: Backhuys Publishers, Lesden. pp. 117-120.
- Xinye, Z., Congwen, S., Yadong, Z., Yanling, Y., Minren, H. 2009. Development of EST-SSR in Populus deltoides and P. euramericana. *Scientia Silvae Sinicae* 45: 53–59.
- Yang, L., Fu, S., Khan, M. A., Zeng, W., Fu, J. 2013. Molecular cloning and development of RAPD-SCAR markers for Dimocarpus longan variety authentication. SpringerPlus 2, 1–8.
- Yeh, F.C. and Boyle, T.J.B. 1997. POPGENE version 1.2, Microsoft windowsbased software for population genetics analysis. University of Alberta, Alberta, Canada.
- Zabeau, M. and Vos, P. 1992. Selective Restriction Fragment Amplification:a General Method for DNA Fingerprinting. European Patent EP0534858,

Available: <u>http://www.freepatentsonline.com/0534858</u> [24 September 1992].

- Zane, L., Bargelloni, L. and Patarnello, T. 2002. Strategies for microsatellite isolation. *Mol. Ecol.*11:1-16.
- Zink, A.R., Grabner, W. And Nerlich, A.G. 2005. Molecular identification of human tuberculosis in recent and historic bone tissue samples: The role of molecular techniques for the study of historic tuberculosis. *American J. of Phys. Anthropology*. 126: 32–47.
- Zietkiewicz, E., Rafalski, A., Labuda, D. 1994. Genome Fingerprinting by Simple Sequence Repeat (SSR)-Anchored Polymerase Chain Reaction Amplification. *Genomics.* 20: 176–183.

#### 8. APPENDIX I

87

## TBE Buffer (20X) for 100ml solution

Tris base 21.6g

Boric acid 11.0g

0.5M EDTA (Ph 8.0) 8.00ml

### **APPENDIX II**

Tracking dye	
Bromophenol blue	0.25%
Xylene cyanol	0.25%
Glycerol	30%
Water	69.5%

### **APPENDIX III**

## **AE Buffer**

Tris HCL	10 <b>M</b> m
EDTA (Ph 9.0)	0.5Mm

## APPENDIX IV

## Composition of Gel for AGE

Agarose 0.75g

20X TBE buffer 2.5ml

EtBr 2.5µl

## DEVELOPMENT OF FUNCTIONAL SSR MARKERS FOR D-LIMONENE CONTENT AND ANALYSIS OF GENEIC POLYMORPHISM IN CARDAMOM

(Elettaria cardamomum Maton)

#### **RESHMA RETNAKARAN**

(2013-09-112)

Abstract of Thesis Submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirement for the degree of

B. Sc. - M. Sc. (INTEGRATED) BIOTECHNOLOGY

Faculty of Agriculture Kerala Agricultural University, Thrissur



B.Sc. - M.Sc. (Integrated) Biotechnology Department of Plant Biotechnology COLLEGE OF AGRICULTURE VELLAYANI, THIRUVANANTHAPURAM- 695 522 KERALA, INDIA 2018

#### 9. ABSTRACT

The research work entitled "Development of functional SSR markers for D- Limonene content and analysis of genetic polymorphism in cardamom (*Elettaria cardamomum Maton*)" was carried out at the Biotechnology and Bioinformatics Division of Jawaharlal Nehru Tropical Botanical Garden and Research Institute (JNTBGRI), Palode during the academic year 2017-2018.

*Elettaria cardamomum* Maton, commonly known as green or true cardamom, is one of the most economically important spice crop owing to its very pleasant aroma and taste. It is highly valued from ancient time both for its medicinal as well as culinary uses. The study was carried out with an aim to analyse the genetic diversity inherent in the cardamom landraces and wild genotypes using cardamom specific SSR markers and the estimation and validation of its D-Limonene content.

The genetic diversity inherent in the cardamom germplasm were analysed with cardamom specific SSR markers. Thirty accessions including popular and non- popular cultivars, wild varieties, landraces and one large cardamom (as outgroup) were included in the present study. For the diversity analysis, six cardamom specific SSR markers were employed and POPGENE was used to estimate the genetic variation. The Limonene percentage in four samples was estimated through GC- MS. The present study has shown that D- Limonene, is the antimicrobial, antioxidant, and tumour suppressive constituent in cardamom essential oil, is found to be high in the current popular cultivars, Njellani and Green bold (2.76 and 1.73% respectively) compared to other cardamom varieties (Palakkudi, 0.31% and Pathumuriyan, 0.1%). For validating the results of GC-MS, gene specific primers for limonene were designed from the conserved regions of selected plant species. Thirty accessions were validated with these primers, in which the sample Pathumuriyan has shown distinct variation in the PCR products resolved using horizontal agarose gel electrophoresis which clearly demonstrates the variation in the genes involved in the biosynthesis of D-Limonene in this cultivar. The molecular marker and chemical analysis

successfully validated the genetic variability within the species as well as established potential of the two popular cultivars in production of essential oil with high D-Limonene content. The present study can be further elaborated to metabolic pathway analysis with respect to essential oil content and would lead to the development of elite cardamom varieties with increased D- Limonene content through hybridisation techniques.

