

African Journal of Agriculture ISSN 2375-1134 Vol. 7 (11), pp. 001-013, November, 2020. Available online at www.internationalscholarsjournals.org © International Scholars Journals

Author(s) retain the copyright of this article.

Full Length Research Paper

A comparative study of morphological and molecular diversity in Ethiopian lentil (*Lens culinaris* Medikus) landraces

Edossa Fikiru^{1*}, Kassahun Tesfaye² and Endashaw Bekele²

¹Mada Walabu University, P. O. Box 84, Bale-Robe, Ethiopia.

²Department of Biology, Faculty of Science, Addis Ababa University, P. O. Box 1176, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.

Accepted 22 October, 2020

Genetic diversity assessment with different methods and their comparison could provide complementary information for improvement and conservation programs. However, such information is not available for Ethiopian lentil landraces. To fill this gap, nine morphological traits and four ISSR primers were used on seventy Ethiopian lentil landrace accessions to study morphological and genetic diversity among the accessions, assess the correlation between phenotypic and genetic dissimilarities, and classify the accessions into groups based on both markers. Analysis of variance of morphological data showed significant (p < 0.01) differences among accessions for all traits. However, days to maturity and flowering, seed weight and plant height showed low phenotypic coefficient of variation. From principal component (PC) analysis number of seeds and pods, seed yield and number of secondary branch were included in PC1, whereas, days to maturity and flowering were dominant in PC2. Seed weight and number of primary branch were also dominant in PC3 and PC4, respectively. With regard to molecular analysis, accessions from Gonder, Shewa and Wello (with I =0.203, 0.174 and 0.162, respectively) showed moderate level of diversity. The average and overall diversity index values, respectively, were 0.145 and 0.264. The overall morphological and genetic dissimilarities ranged from 0.825 - 11.018 and 0.000 - 0.340 with average value of 3.921 and 0.125, respectively. The correlation (R) between morphological and genetic dissimilarity matrices was 0.28 (p < 0.001) indicating that either of the markers could be used for genetic diversity study. Cluster analysis based on morphological and molecular markers, respectively, revealed two and three major groups of lentil landrace accessions. The result of the present study would be useful for further collection and conservation, and improvement programs.

Key words: Clustering, correlation, genetic diversity, ISSR, lentil landraces, morphological variation, principal component.

INTRODUCTION

Ethiopia is among the centers of diversity for lentil (Vavilov, 1956; McGuire, 2000; Tanto and Demissie, 2000; Edossa et al., 2007) and much of the acreage allocated to the crop is covered by landrace cultivars that are small seeded (microsperma type) and generally early maturing (Geletu and Yadeta, 1994; Edossa et al., 2006). Ethiopia is also one of the major lentil producing countries

in the world (Erskine, 1985; Edossa et al., 2006) and the first in Africa (FAO Statistical Yearbook, 2009). On average basis, the crop was grown annually on 1.345 million hectares of land with average seed yield of 1.416 million tons per annum during the years 2005 - 2007 (FAO Statistical Yearboook, 2009).

Landraces are the most diverse populations of cultivated plants (Frankel et al., 1995). Besides being adapted to their environments, natural and man-made, landrace genotypes are co-adapted. Hence, genetic variation within a landrace may be considerable, but is far from random (Qualset et al., 1997). The genetic diversity among and within landraces makes them a valuable

^{*}Corresponding author. E-mail: edossa.fikiru@yahoo.com, edossa.fikiru@gmail.com. Tel: +251 091 111 4683. Fax: +251 022 665 3092.

resource as potential donors of genes for the development and maintenance of modern crop varieties, and for direct use by farmers (Soleri and Smith, 1995).

Knowledge of genetic variation and relationships between accessions or genotypes is important to understand the genetic variability available and its potential use in breeding program, to estimate any possible loss of genetic diversity, to offer evidence of the evolutionary forces shaping the genotypic diversities, and to choose genotypes to be given priority for conservation (Thormann et al., 1994).

Morphological traits were among the earliest markers used in germplasm management (Stanton et al., 1994) but they have a number of limitations, including low polymorphism, low heritability, late expression, and vulnerability to environmental influences (Smith and Smith, 1992; Muthusamy et al., 2008), which, in turn may, affect the estimation of genetic relationships. However, if the traits are highly heritable, morphological markers are one of the choices for diversity studies because the inheritance of the marker can be monitored visually (Yoseph, 2005). Despite the problems associated with this method, it continues to play a major role in studying and characterizing germplasm since it requires no complicated laboratory facilities and procedures.

Characterization of plant genetic resource collections has been greatly facilitated by the availability of a number of molecular marker systems. Different types of molecular markers have been used to assess the genetic diversity in crop species, but no single technique is universally ideal. Therefore, the choice of the technique depends on the objective of the study, sensitivity level of the marker system, financial constraints, skills and facilities available (Weising et al., 2005). The molecular markers best suited for detecting genotypic diversity should be relatively easy and inexpensive to use and should evolve rapidly enough to be variable within populations (Esselman et al., 1999).

More sensitive DNA-based techniques have been developed to detect the genetic variation underlying morphological and phenological variation (Meekins et al., 2001). Microsatellite or simple sequence repeat (SSR), random amplified DNA (RAPD), and amplified fragment length polymorphism (AFLP) techniques have all been used to produce molecular markers for studies of genetic variation at the population level (Wolf and Liston, 1998; Muthusamy et al., 2008).

Another molecular marker in use is the inter-simple sequence repeat (ISSR) (Zietkiewicz et al., 1994). This polymerase chain reaction (PCR)-based technique uses single anonymous primers to produce markers from genomic DNA. In contrast with other molecular techniques, ISSR markers are easy to use, often have three- to five-fold greater variability than RAPDs, and are variable for all plant groups (Meekins et al., 2001). They can be used for systematic, molecular, ecological, evolutionary and crop improvement studies. Most studies have utilized ISSRs to study genetic diversity of germplasm collections and to differentiate cultivars (Wolf and Liston, 1998).

Popularity of ISSR is growing; ISSRs are alternative methods to isozymes and RAPDs in terms of population genetic studies (Meekins et al., 2001).

The value of molecular markers for monitoring the genetic status of germplasm collections is subject to practical limitations. The large number and variability of accessions held usually dictates the approach that can be employed. A quick, simple but reliable molecular method must be combined with an appropriate strategy for handling large sample sizes. Individual plant and bulk sampling are the two methods of sampling plants for DNA extraction. Analysis based on individual plant sampling requires a huge investment in terms of time, labor and financial resources. Besides, it is hardly possible to analyze large number of germplasm using this technique compared to the bulk approach. However, the technique is advantageous in that it allows the assessment of intraaccession diversity (Edossa et al., 2007). Bulk analyses, on the contrary, are economic and rapid, and it is possible to estimate the genetic variability between accessions, whereas, it is not possible to obtain information about the genetic variability within accessions (Fernández et al., 2002). On the other hand, Gilbert et al. (1999) reported that pooling of DNA from individuals within accessions is the most appropriate strategy for assessing large quantities of plant material. However, this technique is more costly compared to leaf sample bulking strategy since it requires extraction of DNA from all representative plants of an accession (Edossa et al., 2007).

Molecular analyses in conjunction with morphological and agronomic evaluation of germplasm are recommended because they increase the resolving power of genetic diversity analyses and provide complementary information (Singh et al., 1991), which would be useful for germplasm collection, management and improvement. Lentil germplasm collected from different parts of Ethiopia by the Institute of Biodiversity Conservation (IBC) are held at the gene bank of the Institute. However, diversity of the germplasm has not yet been fully studied by using different marker systems. The present study was, therefore, conducted with the following objectives: (1) To study the morphological and genetic diversity of Ethiopian lentil landrace accessions, (2) To classify lentil landrace accessions into groups based on both morphological traits and molecular profiles, and (3) To assess the correlation between phenotypic and genotypic distances.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Morphological analyses

Plant materials

Seeds of seventy lentil landrace accessions collected from ten districts of seven different administrative regions (ARs) of Ethiopia (Table 1) were obtained from Institute of Biodiversity Conservation

 Table 1. Passport data of Ethiopian lentil landrace accessions used in the study.

| Accession name | Regional state | District | Administrative region | Latitude | Longitude | Altitude |
|----------------|----------------|-----------------|-----------------------|----------|-----------|----------|
| Acc 36007 | Oromiya | Dodota Sire | Arsi | 8-09-N | 39-21-E | 2050 |
| Acc 36008 | Oromiya | Gedeb | Arsi | 7-10-N | 39-12-E | 2440 |
| Acc 36041 | Oromiya | Merti | Arsi | 8-24-N | 39-52-E | 2040 |
| Acc 36042 | Oromiya | Chole | Arsi | 08-22-N | 39-53-E | 2520 |
| Acc 36047 | Oromiya | Sude | Arsi | 07-53-N | 39-44-E | 2520 |
| Acc 36131 | Oromiya | Robe | Arsi | 7-49-N | 39-47-E | 2480 |
| Acc 216879 | Oromiya | Bekoji | Arsi | | | |
| Acc 216881 | Oromiya | Dodota Sire | Arsi | 08-07-N | 39-27-E | 2370 |
| Acc 231239 | Oromiya | Sherka | Arsi | Aug-35 | 39-52- | 2330 |
| Acc 231240 | Oromiya | Jeju | Arsi | Aug-37 | 39-41- | 1920 |
| Acc 36029 | Oromiya | Agarfa | Bale | 7-18-N | 39-58-E | 2580 |
| Acc 36033 | Oromiya | Sinana Dinsho | Bale | | | 2620 |
| Acc 36121 | Oromiya | Dodola | Bale | | | |
| Acc 212848 | Oromiya | Goro | Bale | 7-00-N | 40-28-E | 1800 |
| Acc 212851 | Oromiya | Nansebo | Bale | | | |
| Acc 230015 | Oromiya | Kokosa | Bale | | | 2620 |
| Acc 230017 | Oromiya | Agarfa | Bale | 7-10-N | 34-11-E | |
| Acc 230020 | Oromiya | Ginir | Bale | 07-08-N | 40-36-E | 2020 |
| Acc 231243 | Oromiya | Adaba | Bale | | | |
| Acc 237988 | Oromiya | Adaba | Bale | | | 2460 |
| Acc 36026 | Amhara | Este | Gonder | 11-34-N | 38-45-E | 2590 |
| Acc 36065 | Amhara | Dembia | Gonder | | | |
| Acc 36072 | Amhara | Farta | Gonder | 11-48-N | 35-28-E | 3114 |
| Acc 36086 | Amhara | Lay Gayint | Gonder | 11-41-N | 38-29-E | 3120 |
| Acc 36146 | Amhara | Debark | Gonder | 13-13-N | 38-01-E | 3220 |
| Acc 207257 | Amhara | Wegera | Gonder | | | |
| Acc 207259 | Amhara | Fogera | Gonder | | | |
| Acc 207266 | Amhara | Kemekem | Gonder | | | |
| Acc 207291 | Amhara | Janamora | Gonder | | | |
| Acc 207305 | Amhara | Simada | Gonder | | | |
| Acc 36024 | Amhara | Dega Damot | Gojam | | | |
| Acc 36025 | Gulomahada | Wenbera | Gojam | | | 1580 |
| Acc 36027 | Amhara | Enarj Enawga | Gojam | 10-38-N | 38-10-E | 2510 |
| Acc 36028 | Amhara | Hulet Ej Enese | Gojam | 11-4-N | 37-051-E | 2270 |
| Acc 36069 | Amhara | Guzamn | Gojam | 10-20-N | 37-44-E | 2460 |
| Acc 36118 | Amhara | Shebel Berenta | Gojam | 10-27-N | 38-21-E | 2420 |
| Acc 212745 | Amhara | Enemay | Gojam | 38-11-N | 10-34-E | 2580 |
| Acc 219507 | Amhara | Banja | Gojam | | | |
| Acc 238978 | Amhara | Bahir Dar Zuria | Gojam | 11-38-N | 37-13-E | 1930 |
| Acc 241132 | Amhara | Achefer | Gojam | | | 2030 |
| Acc 36001 | Oromiya | Berehna Aleltu | Shewa | 9-50-N | 39-13-E | 2820 |

Table 1. Cont'd.

| Accession name | Regional state | District | Administrative region | Latitude | Longitude | Altitude |
|----------------|----------------|--------------------|-----------------------|----------|-----------|----------|
| Acc 36003 | Amhara | Moretna Jiru | Shewa | 9-57-N | 39-13-E | 2820 |
| Acc 36006 | Oromiya | Gimgichu | Shewa | 8-57-N | 39-5-E | 2370 |
| Acc 36009 | Oromiya | Ejere | Shewa | 9-2-N | 38-10-E | 2270 |
| Acc 36014 | Oromiya | Wuchalena Jido | Shewa | 09-39-N | 38-49-E | 2695 |
| Acc 36020 | Oromiya | Walisona Goro | Shewa | 8-39-N | 37-54-E | 2260 |
| Acc 36048 | Oromiya | Kembibit | Shewa | 09-19-N | 39-16-E | 2890 |
| Acc 36056 | Oromiya | Ambo | Shewa | | | |
| Acc 229184 | Amhara | Lay Betna Tach Bet | Shewa | | | 2720 |
| Acc 236891 | Oromiya | Girar Jarso | Shewa | 39-42-N | 38-48-E | 2650 |
| Acc 207260 | Tigray | Gulomahda | Tigray | | | |
| Acc 213254 | Tigray | Wukro | Tigray | | | |
| Acc 219953 | Tigray | Laelay Maychew | Tigray | | | |
| Acc 219954 | Tigray | Asegede Tsimbela | Tigray | | | |
| Acc 219957 | Tigray | Adwa | Tigray | 14-09-N | 38-56-E | 2330 |
| Acc 221719 | Tigray | Enderta | Tigray | | | 2500 |
| Acc 223220 | Tigray | Saesi Tsaedaemba | Tigray | 14-15-N | 39-28-E | 2580 |
| Acc 223222 | Tigray | Alaje | Tigray | 22-43-N | 39-32-E | 2600 |
| Acc 223223 | Tigray | Endamehoni | Tigray | 12-42-N | 39-32-E | 2450 |
| Acc 223224 | Tigray | Ganta Afeshum | Tigray | 14-14-N | 39-28-E | 2360 |
| Acc 36084 | Amhara | Guba Lafto | Wello | | | |
| Acc 36097 | Amhara | Dawuntna Delant | Wello | 11-32-N | 39-15-E | 2200 |
| Acc 36101 | Amhara | Wadla | Wello | | | 2830 |
| Acc 36103 | Amhara | Kutaber | Wello | 11-20-E | 39-18-E | 2620 |
| Acc 36104 | Amhara | Tenta | Wello | 11-16-N | 39-15-E | 2900 |
| Acc 36141 | Amhara | Were Ilu | Wello | 10-44-N | 39-28-E | 2660 |
| Acc 36151 | Amhara | Dessie Zuria | Wello | 11-6-N | 39-38-E | 2260 |
| Acc 36162 | Amhara | Legambo | Wello | | | 3230 |
| Acc 36168 | Amhara | Tehuledere | Wello | | | |
| Acc 207309 | Amhara | Ambasel | Wello | | | |

Source: IBC.

(IBC) (Addis Ababa, Ethiopia) and grown at Sinana Agricultural Research Center (Bale Zone, Ethiopia) on station field plot. Planting was done in two replications of 0.62 m² plot size (2 rows of 1.55 m length spaced at 0.2 m) during 'Bona' or 'Meher' season that extends from August to December. All plants used in this study were generated from seeds under natural conditions. Fifteen individual plants were randomly selected from each of the two replications and marked just before flowering. Morphological data were collected from all marked plants.

Phenotypic data

Phenotypic data were recorded on number of days to flowering and maturity, plant height (cm), number of primary and secondary branches, number of pods and seeds, 100-seed weight (g) and

seed yield (g). All data were recorded on individual plant basis and the mean of fifteen plants was used to represent an accession for each replication.

Morphological data analyses

Homogeneity of variance across accessions on phenotypic data was tested using Bartlett's homogeneity test (Snedecor and Cochran, 1989). One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted for all characters according to Gomez and Gomez (1984). Phenotypic coefficient of variation (PCV) was computed according to Burton and de Vane (1953) for each morphological trait. PC analysis was computed from the correlation matrix with SPSS v10.01 (SPSS Inc., 1999) computer software to provide an empirical basis for judging the structure of the morphological traits.

Euclidian distance between the landrace accessions was calculated from the standardized trait mean values (mean of each trait subtracted from the data values and the result divided by the standard deviation of the trait) over each accession using NTSYSpc Version 2.11 (Rohlf, 2004). Similarly, the standardized trait mean values over each accession were used to perform cluster analysis with the same software. To group the accessions based on morphological dissimilarity, cluster analysis was conducted on Euclidian distance matrix with Unweighted Pair Group Method based on Arithmetic Averages (UPGMA) procedure of the Sequential, Agglomerative, Hierarchical and Nested (SAHN) clustering methods (Sneath and Sokal, 1973) using NTSYSpc2.11.

Molecular analyses

DNA extraction

Since the ISSR marker study did not aim to estimate the degree of genetic diversity within accessions, a bulk of 15 plant samples were analyzed in order to represent the genetic variability within each accession. Young leaves were collected separately from randomly selected individual plants of each accession before flowering and dried in silica gel. Approximately equal amounts of the dried leaf samples were bulked for each accession and ground with pestle and mortar. Total genomic DNA was isolated from about 0.2 g of the fine ground leaf sample using a modified cetyltrimethylammoniumbromide (CTAB) extraction technique (Borsch et al., 2003). The isolated DNA samples were visualized using 1% ethidium bromide stained agarose gel under UV light. Determination of the quantity and quality of DNA was done by comparing gel photographs of the first, second and third extracts with one another. Extracts with more intense band are considered to possess high DNA concentration while bands with no or low amount of smear represent high quality DNA extracts. Based on this method of quantification and quality analysis, the second or third extractions were selected for PCR amplification. The selected genomic DNA samples were diluted with sterile distilled water in 1:5 ratio.

ISSR analyses

A total of 12 ISSR primers (UBC primer set # 9, Vancouver, BC, Canada) were selected based on published results in lentil (Ford and Taylor, 2003; Kahraman et al., 2004) and related legume species such as common bean (de la Cruz et al., 2004; González et al., 2005), Ammopiptanthus (Ammopiptanthus is known by various common names such as milk-vetch, locoweed and goat's-thorn, etc.) (Ge et al., 2005) and chickpea (Flandez-Galvanez et al., 2003). These primers were screened for the amplification of unambiguously visible and polymorphic ISSR bands on seven representative landrace accessions, which were expected to represent a high level of genetic diversity due to difference in collection sites and morphological traits. Finally, ISSR primers UBC 812 [(GA)₈A], UBC 818 [(CA)₈G], UBC 835 [(AG)₈YC] and UBC 881 [(G₃TG)₃], which produced unambiguously visible and polymorphic bands across the seven accessions were chosen for further analyses.

Optimization of PCR reaction components for ISSR genotyping was done using DNA extracted from seven representative accessions used for screening primers. The optimum reaction components were 16.7 $\propto\!\!$ I dH $_2$ O, 250 $\propto\!\!$ M of each dATP, dGTP, dCTP and dTTP, 2.6 $\propto\!\!$ I of 10X Taq buffer, 1 U Taq polymerase,

0.23 \propto M primer and 1 \propto I template DNA. The final reaction volume per sample was 26 \propto I. PCR amplification conditions were set as: Initial denaturing at 94°C for 4 min followed by 40 cycles of 94°C for15 s, 45/48°C for 1 min, and 72°C for 1½ min and ended with extension phase of 72°C for 7 min. The lid temperature was held at

105°C. The amplified PCR products were stored at 4°C until the time of electrophoresis. PCR amplification was performed with Biometra T3 thermorecycler.

The ISSR-PCR product was resolved on 1.7% agarose gel in 1X TBE buffer. Genomic DNA of 9 ∞ l was loaded with 2 ∞ l of 6X loading dye and 100 bp DNA ladder (PEQLAB Biotechnologie GmbH) was used on each side of the gel as a marker. Electrophoresis was conducted at 100 V for about 2:00 hours in 1X TBE buffer. The resultant gel was visualized by ethidium bromide staining under UV light and photographed with Biodoc Analyzer (035 - 300).

ISSR bands were scored manually for each individual accession from the gel photograph. Unambiguously scored bands were recorded as discrete characters, presence '1' or absence '0'. Matrix of binary data was constructed with rows accessions and columns, respectively, representing marker data.

ISSR data analyses

Genetic diversity measured by the percentage of polymorphic bands (P) (the ratio of the number of polymorphic bands to the total number of bands surveyed), Shannon information index (I)

(Lewontin, 1972) and Nei's standard genetic distance (D) (Nei, 1972) were computed with POPGENE ver 1.32 (Yeh et al., 2000). The haploid option of the software was used for analysis in accordance with the assumption of Ferguson et al. (1998) that each individual of a highly inbreeding species, such as Lens species, is homozygous. Since ISSRs are dominant markers, only the presence or absence of an allele can be determined and, therefore, each band position corresponds to a locus with two alleles represented by the presence or absence of a band (Powell et al., 1996).

Cluster analysis of the ISSR data was conducted based on the standard genetic distance matrix using UPGMA procedure of the SAHN clustering methods with NTSYSpc2.1. The goodness of fit of clustering to the data set was tested by comparing the co-phenetic matrix generated from the UPGMA tree with the dissimilarity matrix using the two-way test method (Mantel, 1967) of the software.

RESULTS

Morphological variability

Bartlett's chi-square test revealed non-significant (p < 0.05) difference among accessions for their variance in all traits, indicating homogeneity of variance between accessions for the measured traits. Analyses of variance showed highly significant (p < 0.01) difference among accessions for all traits justifying the appropriateness of further analysis. Number of primary and secondary branches, pods and seeds, and seed yield showed high phenotypic coefficient of variation (PCV). On the other hand, plant height, hundred seed weight, days to flowering and maturity revealed low PCV with days to flowering showing the least PCV (Table 2).

Compared to the overall average phenotypic performance, accessions from Gojam and Tigray were late in maturity, short in stature, and low in number of primary and secondary branches, pods and seeds, but with high seed weight and low yield. Similarly, accessions from Gonder and Wello represented tall and late flowering

Table 2. Analyses of variance and PCV for the agro-morphological traits measured in 70 Ethiopian lentil landrace accessions.

| Morphological traits | Source of variation | Degrees of freedom | Sum of squares | Mean square | CV % | PCV |
|------------------------------|---------------------|--------------------|----------------|-------------|-------|-------|
| | Between accessions | 69 | 1091.94 | 15.83** | | |
| Days to flowering | Within accessions | 70 | 433.10 | 6.19 | 3.81 | 6.09 |
| | Total | 139 | 1525.04 | | | |
| David to maturity | Between accessions | 69 | 486.77 | 7.06** | | |
| Days to maturity | Within accessions | 70 | 260.10 | 3.73 | 1.75 | 2.41 |
| | Total | 139 | 747.77 | | | |
| Discoult state (cos) | Between accessions | 69 | 1003.65 | 14.55** | | |
| Plant height (cm) | Within accessions | 70 | 558.17 | 7.97 | 9.61 | 12.98 |
| | Total | 139 | 1561.81 | | | |
| Number of primary | Between accessions | 69 | 302.66 | 4.39** | | |
| branch | Within accessions | 70 | 125.70 | 1.80 | 17.31 | 26.93 |
| | Total | 139 | 428.35 | | | |
| Number of secondary | Between accessions | 69 | 2210.94 | 32.04** | | |
| branch | Within accessions | 70 | 472.88 | 6.76 | 27.65 | 61.67 |
| | Total | 139 | 2683.81 | | | |
| No week a start of the start | Between accessions | 69 | 260329.28 | 3772.89** | | |
| Number of pods | Within accessions | 70 | 10953.07 | 156.47 | 10.26 | 50.40 |
| | Total | 139 | 271282.35 | | | |
| November of seads | Between accessions | 69 | 756072.00 | 10957.57** | | |
| Number of seeds | Within accessions | 70 | 32388.35 | 462.69 | 12.09 | 58.86 |
| | Total | 139 | 788460.36 | | | |
| 400 | Between accessions | 69 | 6.69 | 0.10** | | |
| 100 seed weight (g) | Within accessions | 70 | 3.79 | 0.05 | 9.44 | 12.82 |
| | Total | 139 | 10.48 | | | |
| 01.:11(.) | Between accessions | 69 | 283.91 | 4.12** | | |
| Seed yield (g) | Within accessions | 70 | 85.034 | 1.22 | 26.49 | 50.38 |
| | Total | 139 | 368.945 | | | |

^{**} Significant at p < 0.01.

plants with high seed weight and yield. However, accessions from Arsi and Bale were early in maturity, and with high number of primary and secondary branches, pods and seeds, low seed weight and high yield. On the other hand, accessions from Shewa were late in flowering and maturity, short plants with low number of primary and secondary branches, pods and seeds, but with high seed weight and low yield (Table 3).

In principal component analysis, as stated by Chatfield and Collins (1980), components with an Eigen value of less than one (1) should be eliminated so that fewer computations are dealt with. In the present study, the first three PCs which accounted for 79.7% of the variation in the original phenotypic data satisfied this requirement. However, the associated communalities showed that

higher proportion (52.7%) of the variance due to number of primary branch was not properly described by the three principal components. For this reason, the fourth principal component in which 91.8% of the total variance due to number of primary branch was described and taken into consideration (Table 4). When the fourth PC is considered, all the communalities were larger than 0.7 and, therefore, it can be assumed that all the variables were described to an acceptable level. The first four PCs accounted for 86.3% of the total phenotypic variation. In the first PC, which explained 41.7% of the total variation, the most important traits were number of seeds, number of pods, seed yield and number of secondary branch per plant. In the second PC which explained 18.1% of the total variation, predominant traits were days to flowering

Table 3. Administrative Region (AR) -based average performance and overall summary statistics of the agromorphological traits measured in 70 Ethiopian lentil landrace accessions.

| ADa | Average morphological performance | | | | | | | | |
|--------------------|-----------------------------------|-----------|-------|-------|-------|--------|--------|------|------|
| ARs | DTF | DTM | PH | NPB | NSB | NP | NS | HSW | SY |
| Arsi | 66.01 | 110.83 | 28.52 | 8.64 | 10.93 | 135.65 | 205.79 | 2.27 | 4.21 |
| Bale | 64.78 | 109.20 | 30.02 | 8.87 | 11.77 | 154.35 | 232.24 | 2.33 | 4.99 |
| Gojam | 66.03 | 111.60 | 28.67 | 7.26 | 6.99 | 96.63 | 131.01 | 2.49 | 3.36 |
| Gonder | 65.35 | 110.30 | 29.55 | 7.61 | 9.34 | 128.08 | 189.95 | 2.59 | 4.64 |
| Shewa | 64.45 | 109.40 | 28.07 | 7.12 | 7.43 | 100.02 | 143.64 | 2.48 | 3.70 |
| Tgray | 64.98 | 110.30 | 28.35 | 6.53 | 6.53 | 81.88 | 110.74 | 2.59 | 2.93 |
| Wello | 65.49 | 109.64 | 32.53 | 8.18 | 12.90 | 156.76 | 231.65 | 2.52 | 5.28 |
| Summary statistics | over all a | ccessions | | | | | | | |
| Minimum | 54.90 | 104.00 | 22.50 | 4.70 | 2.80 | 59.60 | 77.30 | 2.00 | 2.10 |
| Maximum | 70.80 | 115.50 | 37.60 | 15.20 | 27.40 | 299.40 | 446.90 | 3.10 | 9.50 |
| Range | 15.90 | 11.50 | 15.10 | 10.50 | 24.60 | 239.80 | 369.60 | 1.10 | 7.40 |
| Average | 65.30 | 110.18 | 29.39 | 7.78 | 9.19 | 121.87 | 177.83 | 2.47 | 4.03 |
| Standard deviation | 2.81 | 1.88 | 2.69 | 1.63 | 4.55 | 43.39 | 74.04 | 0.23 | 1.43 |

In this table, DTF, DTM, PH, NPB, NSB, NP, NS, HSW and SY, respectively represent number of days to flowering, number of days to maturity, plant height (cm) number of primary branch, number of secondary branch, number of pods per plant, number of seeds per plant, hundred seed weight (g) and seed yield per plant (g).

Table 4. Initial Eigen vectors, Eigen values, communalities, individual and cumulative percentage of variation explained by the first four principal components (PC) derived from morphological traits in Ethiopian lentil landrace accessions.

| Marphalogical traits | | Communalities | | | |
|--------------------------|--------|---------------|----------|--------|--------------|
| Morphological traits | PC1 | PC2 | PC3 | PC4 | Communanties |
| NS | 0.973 | 0.026 | 0.030 | -0.090 | 0.832 |
| NP | 0.960 | 0.013 | 0.002 | -0.077 | 0.804 |
| SY | 0.913 | 0.100 | 0.250 | -0.114 | 0.748 |
| NSB | 0.849 | -0.064 | -0.168 | -0.071 | 0.981 |
| DTM | -0.236 | 0.850 | -0.146 | 0.074 | 0.758 |
| DTF | -0.049 | 0.792 | -0.431 | -0.127 | 0.927 |
| HSW | -0.282 | 0.221 | 0.796 | 0.278 | 0.957 |
| PH | 0.473 | 0.464 | 0.555 | -0.047 | 0.838 |
| NPB | 0.649 | 0.013 | -0.325 | 0.674 | 0.918 |
| | | Eige | n values | | |
| Total | 4.203 | 1.629 | 1.345 | 0.587 | |
| Individual % of Variance | 46.705 | 18.097 | 14.942 | 6.517 | |
| Cumulative % of variance | 46.705 | 64.802 | 79.744 | 86.262 | |

^{*}Traits corresponding to underlined numbers are the most significant (p < 0.05) ones that contributed much of the variation in each PC. In this table, DTF, DTM, PH, NPB, NSB, NP, NS, HSW and SY, respectively represent number of days to flowering, number of days to maturity, plant height (cm) number of primary branch, number of secondary branch, number of pods per plant, number of seeds per plant, hundred seed weight (g) and seed yield per plant (g).

and maturity. The third PC which accounted for 14.9% of the total variation was dominated by hundred seed weight, while number of primary branch was the dominant trait in the fourth PC which accounted for 6.5% of the total variation. These traits were significant (p <

0.05) according to Hair et al. (1998).

Clustering analysis based on morphological data revealed two major and four minor clusters at an average dissimilarity value of 3.80. Clusters I, II, III, and IV were minor clusters and together consisted twelve accessions

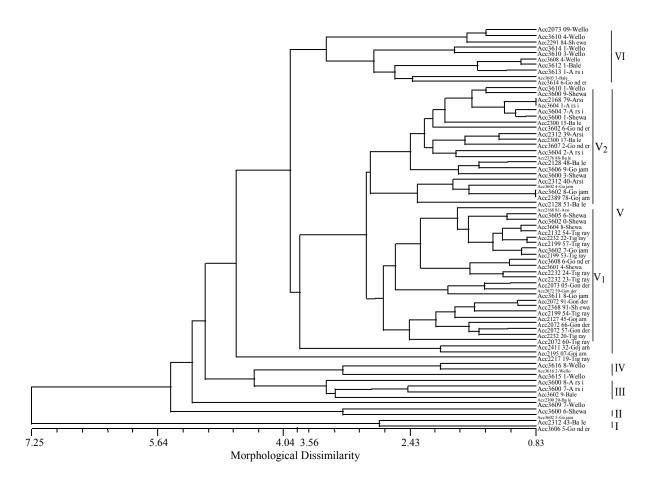


Figure 1. Dendrogram of 70 Ethiopian lentil landrace accessions derived by UPGMA from the Euclidian dissimilarity matrix of the standardized morphological traits.

from Wello, Bale, Gojam and Arsi. The largest major cluster (V), consisted forty-seven accessions mainly from Tigray, Gojam, Gonder, Arsi, Shewa and Bale. This cluster is further subdivided into two sub-clusters. Subcluster V_1 consisted many accessions from Tigray, Gonder, and Shewa, and some from Gojam, while many accessions from Arsi and Bale, and some from Gojam, Shewa and Gonder were grouped in sub-cluster V_2 . Most of the accessions from Wello constituted the other major cluster (VI) (Figure 1). The correlation between the cophenetic matrix and Euclidian distance matrix (R = 0.812) showed good fit to the data set, validating the observed clusters as interpreted according to Rohlf (2004).

Molecular diversity

A total of 47 bands were amplified in the landrace accessions using the four ISSR primers. The size of ISSR fragments ranged from 280 - 3500 bp. Of the total band, 28 (p = 59.57%) were polymorphic. On the average, each primer amplified 11.75 bands of which 7 were polymorphic. The highest percentage of

polymorphic loci (P) was obtained for Gonder (34.04%), Wello (34.04%) and Shewa (31.91%) accessions, while Arsi and Tigray accessions showed low P (21.28%). Shannon information index (I) values were high for accessions of Gonder, Shewa and Wello, which represented 0.203, 0.174 and 0.1620, respectively. On the other hand, accessions from Gojam, Tigray, Bale and Arsi showed low I, which represented 0.136, 0.114, 0.115 and 0.107, respectively. The average and overall diversity index values for Ethiopian lentil landraces were 0.145 and 0.264, respectively (Table 5).

Cluster analysis using the ISSR data classified the accessions into three major and two minor groups at an average dissimilarity value of 0.10. The first major cluster (I) consisted many accessions from Shewa, Tigray and Gojam. The second major cluster (V) was constituted mainly by accessions from Bale and Arsi, and some from Gonder and Wello. The smallest major cluster (IV) mainly consisted accessions from Wello. The minor clusters (II and III) consisted few accessions from Gonder and Bale (Figure 2). The correlation of cophenetic value and morphological dissimilarity matrix (R = 0.809) showed

Table 5. Number and percentage of polymorphic loci (P), and Shannon's information index (I) values in 7 AR (administrative region) -based Ethiopian lentil landrace populations.

| Accessions | Number of polymorphic loci | P | I ± St. dev. |
|--------------|----------------------------|-------|-------------------|
| Arsi | 10 | 21.28 | 0.107 ± 0.218 |
| Bale | 11 | 23.40 | 0.115 ± 0.218 |
| Gojam | 13 | 27.66 | 0.136 ± 0.234 |
| Gonder | 16 | 34.04 | 0.203 ± 0.291 |
| Shewa | 15 | 31.91 | 0.174 ± 0.262 |
| Tigray | 10 | 21.28 | 0.114 ± 0.232 |
| Wello | 16 | 34.04 | 0.162 ± 0.241 |
| Average | 13 | 27.66 | 0.145 ± 0.242 |
| Over all ARs | 28 | 59.57 | 0.264 ± 0.280 |

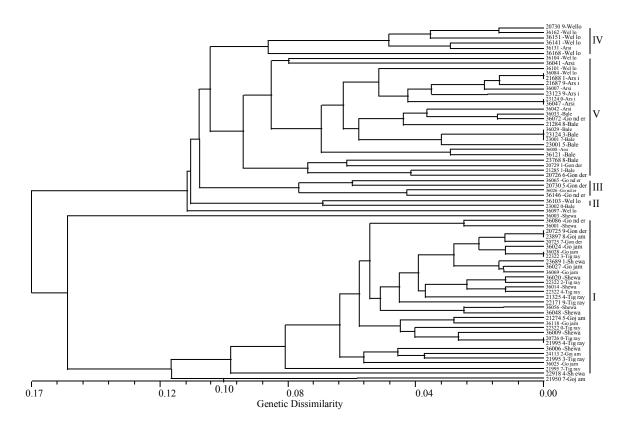


Figure 2. A dendrogram of 70 Ethiopian lentil landrace accessions derived by UPGMA from Nei's (1972) standard genetic distance based on data generated using four ISSR primers.

good fit to the data set, and hence validated the observed clusters as interpreted according to Rohlf (2004).

Correlation between morphological and molecular dissimilarity matrices

The Euclidian distance generated from the standardized morphological data revealed that accessions from Wello (3.882) followed by those from Gonder (3.436) showed

the highest average interaccession morphological dissimilarity. Similarly, accessions from Gonder showed the largest range of Euclidian distance (1.477 - 10.369) while those from Tigray showed the least (0.937 - 4.340). The overall range of interaccession Euclidian distance was 0.825 - 11.018 (Table 6).

On the other hand, genetic dissimilarity matrix generated from the ISSR data using Nei's standard genetic distance revealed that accessions from Gonder (0.104) showed the highest interaccession genetic dissimilarity

| Table 6. Mean, range and standard deviation of Nei's genetic dissimilarity (calculated using ISSR marker) and |
|---|
| Euclidian distance (calculated using morphological traits) in Ethiopian lentil landrace accessions. |

| Accessions | М | orphological dissin | nilarity | | ISSRs dissimilarity | | |
|------------|-------|---------------------|----------|-------|---------------------|----------|--|
| | Mean | Range | St. dev. | Mean | Range | St. dev. | |
| Arsi | 3.246 | 0.825 - 6.306 | 1.214 | 0.055 | 0.000 - 0.110 | 0.026 | |
| Bale | 3.271 | 1.827 - 7.082 | 1.859 | 0.063 | 0.000 - 0.111 | 0.029 | |
| Gojam | 3.240 | 0.837 - 8.507 | 2.246 | 0.064 | 0.012 - 0.146 | 0.035 | |
| Gonder | 3.436 | 1.477 - 10.369 | 2.636 | 0.104 | 0.012 - 0.194 | 0.036 | |
| Shewa | 2.271 | 1.196 - 4.469 | 1.247 | 0.083 | 0.026 - 0.180 | 0.042 | |
| Tigray | 2.187 | 0.937 - 4.340 | 1.256 | 0.051 | 0.000 - 0.098 | 0.025 | |
| Wello | 3.882 | 1.462 - 7.089 | 1.279 | 0.087 | 0.015 - 0.189 | 0.034 | |
| Mean | 3.076 | 1.223 - 6.880 | 1.677 | 0.072 | 0.009 - 0.147 | 0.032 | |
| Overall | 3.921 | 0.825 - 11.018 | 1.622 | 0.125 | 0.000 - 0.340 | 0.058 | |

(D), while those from Tigray (0.051) showed the least. Similarly, accessions from Gonder showed the largest range of interaccession genetic distance (0.012 - 0.194), while those from Tigray showed the least (0.000 - 0.098). The overall range of interaccession genetic distance was 0.000 - 0.340 (Table 6).

In order to compare the extent of agreement between dendrograms derived from morphology and ISSR markers, a distance matrix was constructed for each assay and compared using the Mantel (1967) matrix correspondence test. Accordingly, the correlation (R) between morphological and ISSR dissimilarity matrices of all accessions was positive (0.28) and highly significant (p < 0.001, 1000 random permutations). The overall average Euclidian distance from the standardized morphological data (3.921) was greater than the average ISSR-based genetic dissimilarity (0.125) (Table 6).

DISCUSSION

Morphological variation and implications for improvement

In the present study, seventy lentil landrace accessions collected from seven different administrative regions of Ethiopia were used to assess morphological variation. The presence of highly significant morphological variation between the landrace accessions indicates the existence of high degree of phenotypic diversity implying great potential of the landraces in improvement programs. This was evidenced by high phenotypic coefficient of variation (PCV) for traits such as number of primary and secondary branches, pods and seeds, and seed yield, which indicates a wide phenotypic variation. Similar results were reported by Jain et al. (1995) and Chakrabotry and Haque (2000) in other lentils. However, plant height, hundred seed weight, days to flowering and maturity revealed low PCV, indicating narrow phenotypic variation and hence very low opportunity to improve

these traits through inter-accession improvement activities. This result agrees with the report of Thakur and Banjpai (1993) for days to maturity, Singh and Singh (1991) for days to flowering and plant height in other lentil materials.

PC analysis, on the other hand, showed that the first four PCs could be considered significant. In the present study, the most significant variables in the components represented by high loadings were taken into consideration in evaluating each PC. In addition to this, there exists a difference between the components, where those with larger variances are more desirable since they give more information about the data. The most important traits in PC1 were the most interrelated variables of all, and hence could preferably be represented by seed yield. The first PC, therefore, could be identified as yield related variables. The most significant variables of the second PC, showed higher interrelationship to one another and could be identified as maturity variables. Interestingly enough, seed weight and number of primary branch did not show a significant (p < 0.05) interrelationship with the dominant variables of PC1 other than forming their own PCs. Similar findings were reported by Toklu et al. (2009) for the first two PCs. The overall PC analysis of the present study suggests that seed yield, days to maturity, seed weight and number of primary branch could suffice as parameters for data collection in further studies since they represent much of the variability in each PC.

From the analyses of variance, all traits showed significant variation among accessions. Nevertheless, unlike other traits, plant height did not show significant contribution in PC analysis. Thus, ANOVA does not provide insight onto the underlying dimensions of variability, nor does it provide guidance for the selection of variables suitable for emphasis in further studies. PCV values and PC analysis, on the other hand, produced comparable results for the most important traits in PC1, but with differences in their order. However, traits such as days to flowering and maturity, and hundred seed weight showed low PCV, but were the most important in PC2.

This could be explained by their interdependence with other traits.

Geletu et al. (1996) reported consistent regional differences among Ethiopian lentil landraces for time to flower and maturity, 100-seed weight, number of seeds/pod and plant height. Furthermore, they reported lentil of the west highlands as early maturing with short stature, that of the north highlands as large-seeded, and lentils from the central highlands as the least distinctive group. Results of the present study also confirmed their finding that lentils of the north highlands (Tigray, Gojam, Gonder and Wello) were large seeded.

Clustering analysis from the standardized morphological data revealed two major and three minor groups of the lentil landraces under consideration. The largest major cluster (V) accessions from all the administrative regions, except those from Wello. One of the subclusters (V₁) of this major cluster constituted accessions from north, northwest and central part of Ethiopia, while the other subcluster (V2) constituted accessions from southeastern parts Ethiopia. The other major cluster was constituted by accessions from Wello, indicating that these accessions tended to form a distinct cluster. However, few accessions from Wello and Gojam were dispersed all over the tree indicating that some accessions of these ARs have a close resemblance with those of other ARs for the variables under consideration. Generally, however, the dendrogram showed a tendency of grouping the accessions in accordance with their geographical regions of origin.

Molecular diversity and its implications for improvement and genetic conservation

ISSR markers are important to study intraspecific variations in plant species, as they are effective in detecting very low levels of genetic variation (Zietkiewicz et al., 1994). In lentil, RAPDs and microsatellite-primed PCR markers detected a low level of useful polymorphic bands, while ISSRs revealed a higher degree of variation (Sonnante and Pignone, 2001). In the present study, ISSR markers were used to assess the molecular diversity of Ethiopian lentil landrace accessions based on bulked leaf sample analysis of fifteen plants per accession. Bulk sample analysis is useful to handle large sample sizes cost effectively (Gilbert et al., 1999; Edossa et al., 2007).

The present study revealed moderate diversity index (I=0.264) value for the landraces under examination as compared to gene diversity index (I=0.376) reported by Sonnante and Pignone (2007) using ISSR markers in Italian landraces of lentil. Accessions from Gonder followed by those from Shewa and Wello were found to be of high diversity as opposed to those from Gojam, Tigray, Bale and Arsi. The existence of moderate level of diversity within the total landrace population and in some

ARs has a good implication for improvement programs. The result also suggests that high priority should be given to areas with high genetic diversity for further collection activities in an approach in which areas of high genetic diversity contribute more accessions than those with a low diversity. On the other hand, the maximum interaccession genetic distance in the present study (0.34) is comparable to that reported by Ford et al. (1997) (0.36) in 16 accessions and cultivars of lentil using RAPD marker. Three major and two minor clusters were obtained at 0.10 average genetic dissimilarity. Few accessions from Gonder and Wello were distributed all over the tree, while some of the accessions tended to form their own cluster.

This could be explained by gene flow from one administrative region to the other due to various factors. For instance, from the year 1632 - 1855 when Gonder was a capital city of Ethiopia (Bahru, 2002), seeds of some lentil germplasm might have been transported to and from Gonder for social, economic and political purposes. On the other hand, all accessions of Shewa, Tigray and Gojam appeared together in the same cluster, which may suggest the presence of network(s) of genetic exchange which probably converged this genetic base. The major reason for such genetic mix-up could probably be the fact that seeds of various crops, including lentil, are shipped to and from Addis Ababa (the capital of Ethiopia since 1886 (Getahun, 2000)). This result confirms the report of Edossa et al. (2007) that stated the existence of an intermediate level of gene flow among administrative region-based populations of Ethiopian lentil landraces. Accessions from Arsi and Bale constituted cluster V and this may be attributed to the ease of seed movement between the two ARs because of geographical and cultural factors.

Correlation of phenotypic and ISSR-based molecular distances

The correlation between morphological and molecular dissimilarity matrices of the present study was positive and significant (r = 0.279, p < 0.001). Piergiovanni and Taranto (2004) reported that the result from SDS-PAGE analysis agrees with that of the previous agronomic studies in lentil. Although no additional reports comparing the extent of agreement between morphological and any of the molecular markers in lentil were obtained, few similar works were conducted on some other crops.

Yoseph et al. (2005) working on sixty-two Ethiopian traditional maize accessions reported a correlation value (r) of 0.43 and 0.39 between fifteen morphological characters and SSR and AFLP, respectively. Furthermore, Roldan-Ruiz et al. (2001) working with sixteen rye grass varieties reported a correlation value of r = -0.06 between AFLP and fifteen morphological characters. In addition, Bolaric et al. (2005) working on twelve phenotypic characters of twenty-two perennial

rye grasses reported a correlation value of r = 0.10between morphological and molecular (RAPD) marker. Therefore, in comparison with the ryegrasses, Ethiopian lentil landraces appear to be more stable as suggested by the higher agreement between phenotypic and ISSR based molecular distances and indicates that the observed phenotypic variation was at least partly caused by genetic factors. However, when compared to the traditional Ethiopian maize accessions, Ethiopian lentil landrace accessions seem to be less stable. In any case, the positive and significant correlation obtained between the two distance matrices indicate that they likely reflect the same pattern of genetic diversity and validate the use of the data to calculate the different diversity statistics for the lentils. Nevertheless, the genetic relationship observed using molecular markers may provide information on the history and biology of cultivars, but it does not necessarily reflect what may be observed with respect to agronomic traits (Métais et al., 2000).

Conclusion

In conclusion, the present study showed that Ethiopian lentil landrace accessions possess a wide range of phenotypic and genetic diversity. This is an important landmark both for improvement and conservation programs. However, due to some drawbacks of the landraces, such as small seededness and low yielding potential as compared to the exotic ones, breeders did not focus on improving the landraces. Yet, they have good average performance and wider variability for some characters. Furthermore, the wider phenotypic and molecular variability observed represents a good indication for the importance of lentil landraces in breeding programs. This is an encouraging result for further collection activities so as to capture more variability from other agroecologies of the country. In addition, the congruence between morphological and molecular methods of diversity study suggests that both marker systems are applicable for genetic diversity study in lentil landraces and, hence, provide complementary information.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The first author is thankful to: The Agricultural Research and Training Project of Ethiopian Institute of Agricultural Research and Addis Ababa University for funding the research; Institute of Biodiversity Conservation (Addis Ababa, Ethiopia) for kindly providing seeds and passport data of the landrace accessions; Sinana Agricultural Research Center for provision of physical resources; and, Mr. Tamiru Oljira and the staff of Pulse and Oil Crops Breeding and Genetics Section of Sinana Agricultural Research Center for their respective support. All the

authors specially thank Dr. Thomas Borsch and Dr. Tadesse Weldemariam for their valuable assistance.

REFERENCES

- Bahru Z (2002). A history of modern Ethiopia, 1855-1991, 2nd edn. Addis Ababa University Printing Press, Addis Ababa. pp 145-160.
- Borsch T, Hilu KW, Quandt D, Wilde V, Neinhuis C, Barthlott W (2003). Noncoding plastid *trnT-trnF* sequences reveal a well resolved phylogeny of basal angiosperms. Evol. Biol., 16: 558-576.
- Burton GW, de Vane EH (1953). Estimating heritability in tall fescue (*Festuca arundinacea*) from replicated clonal material. Agron. J. 45: 481-487
- Chakrabotry M, Haque MF (2000). Genetic variability and component analysis in lentil (*Les culinaris* Medik.). J. Res. 25 (1/2): 3-6.
- Chatfield C, Collins AJ (1980). Introduction to Multivariate Analysis. Chapman and Hall, New York, USA. pp 382-423.
- de la Cruz EP, Gepts P, GarciaMartin PC, Villareal DZ (2004). Spatial distribution of genetic diversity in wild populations of *Phaseolus vulgaris* L. from Guanajuato and Machaocán, Mexico. Genet. Resour. Crop Evol. 00: 1-11.
- Edossa F, Kassahun T, Endashaw B (2007). Genetic diversity and population structure of Ethiopian lentil (*Lens Culinaris* Medikus) landraces as revealed by ISSR marker. Afr. J. Biotech. 6(12): 1460-1468
- Edossa F, Tadele T, Tiegist D (2006) Disease reaction and seed yield stability of advanced lentil genotypes in Bale Highlands. Pest Mgt. J. Eth. 10: 33-40.
- Erskine W (1985). Perspectives in lentil breeding. In: Saxena MC, Varma S (eds) Faba Beans, Kabuli Chickpeas and Lentils in the 1980s: Proceedings of an International Workshop, 16-20 May 1983, ICARDA, Aleppo, Syria.
- Esselman EJ, Jianqiang J, Croford DJ, Windus JL, Wolf AD (1999). Clonal diversity in the rare *Calamagrostis porteri ssp. insperata* (Poaceae): comparative results for allozymes and random amplified polymorphic DNA (RAPD) and intersimple sequence repeat (ISSR) markers. Mol. Ecol. 8(3): 443-451.
- FAO (Food and Agriculture Organization of the UN) Statistical Year Book (2009). Statistical Bulletin (Available online at: http://www.fao.org/economic/ess/publications-studies/statistical-yearbook/fao-statistical-yearbook-2009/b-agricultural-production/en/).
- Ferguson ME, Ford-Lloyd BV, Robertson LD, Maxted N, Newbury HJ (1998). Mapping the geographical distribution of genetic variation in the genus *Lens* for the enhanced conservation of plant genetic diversity. Mol. Ecol. 7: 1743-1755.
- Fernández ME, Figueiras AM, Benito C (2002). The use of ISSR and RAPD markers for detecting DNA polymorphism, genotype identification and genetic diversity among barley cultivars with known origin. Ther. Appl. Genet., 104: 845-851.
- Flandez-Galvanez H, Ford R, Pang ECK, Taylor PWJ (2003). An intraspecific linkage map of the chickpea (*Cicer arietinum* L.) genome based on sequence tagged microsatellite site and resistance gene analogue markers. Theor. Appl. Genet., 106: 1447-1456.
- Ford R, Pang ECK, Taylor PWJ (1997). Diversity analysis and species identification in *Lens* using PCR generated markers. Euphytica 96(2): 247-255.
- Ford RR, Taylor PWJ (2003). Construction of an intraspecific linkage map of lentil (*L. culinaris* ssp. *culinaris*). Theor. Appl. Genet., 107: 910-916.
- Frankel OH, Brown AHD, Burdon JJ (1995). The conservation of plant biodiversity. Cambridge Univ. Press, Cambridge. pp 235-256.
- Ge X-J, Yu Y, Yuan Y-M, Huang H-W, Yan C (2005). Genetic diversity and geographic differentiation in endangered *Ammopiptanthus* (Legumnosae) populations in desert regions of Northwest China as revealed by ISSR analysis. Annals Bot., 95: 843-851.
- Geletu B, Seyifu T, Abebe T, Erskine W (1996). Quantitative evaluation of Ethiopian landraces of lentil (*Lens culinaris*). Genet. Resour. Crop Evol., 43: 293-301.
- Geletu B, Yadeta A (1994). Genetics and breeding research in lentil. In: Asfaw T, Geletu B, Saxena MC, Solh MB (eds.) Cool-Season Food

- Legumes of Ethiopia: Proceedings of the First National Cool-Season Food Legumes Review Conference, 16-20 December 1993, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. pp. 162-182.
- Getahun B (2000). A History of Addis Ababa from Its Foundation in 1886 to 1910. Northeast Afr. Stud., 7(2):143-145.
- Gilbert JE, Lewis RV, Wilkinson MJ, Kaligari PDS (1999). Developing an appropriate strategy to assess genetic variability in plant germplasm collections. Theor. Appl. Genet., 98: 1125-1131.
- Gomez KA, Gomez AA (1984). Statistical procedures for agricultural research, 2nd edn. John Willey and Sons, New York. pp 347-396.
- González A, Wong A, Delgado-Salina A, Papa R, Gepts P (2005). Assessment of intersimple sequnce repeat markers to differentiate sympatric wild and domesticated populations of common bean. Crop Sci. 45: 606-615.
- Hair JF, Anderson RE, Tatham RL, Black WC (1998). Multivariate data analysis. 5th edn. Printice Hall, New Jersey.
- Jain SK, Madaria SK, Rao SK, Nigam PK (1995). Analysis of yield factors in lentil. Indian J. Agric. Res., 29(4): 173-180.
- Kahraman A, Kusmenoglu I, Aydin N, Aydogan A, Erskine W, Muehlbauer FJ (2004). QTL mapping of winter hardiness genes in lentil. Crop Sci., 44:13-22.
- Lewontin RC (1972). The apportionment of human diversity. Evol. Biol., 6: 381-398.
- Mantel N (1967). The detection of disease clustering and a generalized regression approach. Cancer Res., 27: 209-220.
- McGuire S (2000). Farmers' management of sorghum diversity in eastern Ethiopia, In: C Almekinders, W de Boef (eds.) Encouraging Diversity: the conservation and development of plant genetic resources, London, Intermediate Technology Publications, pp. 211-247.
- Meekins JF, Ballard HE, McCarty BC (2001). Genetic variation and molecular biogeography of a North American invasive plant species (*Alliaria petiolata*, Brassicaceae). Int. J. Plant Sci., 162(1): 161-169.
- Métais I, Aubry A, Hamon B, Jaluozot R (2000). Description and analysis of genetic diversity between commercial bean lines (*Phaseolus vulgaris* L.). Theor. Appl. Genet., 101: 1207-1214.
- Muthusamy S, Kanagarajan S, Ponnusamy S (2008). Efficiency of RAPD and ISSR markers system in accessing genetic variation of rice bean (*Vigna umbellata*) landraces. Electronic J. Biotech., 11(3): 1-10.
- Nei M (1972). Genetic distance between populations. Am. Natur., 106: 283-292
- Piergiovanni AR, Taranto G (2004). Assessment of the genetic variation in Italian lentil populations by electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE) of seed storage proteins. PGR Newsletter 141: 33-38.
- Powell W, Morgante M, Andre C, Hanafey M, Vogel J, Tingey SS, Rafalski JA (1996). The comparison of RFLP, RAPD, AFLP and SSR (microsatellite) markers for germplasm analysis. Mol. Breed, 2: 225-238.
- Qualset CO, Damania AB, Zanatta ACA, Brush SB (1997). Locally based crop plant conservation. In: Maxted N, Ford-Lloyd BV, Hawkes JG (eds) Plant genetic conservation: the *in situ* approach, Chapman and Hall, London. pp 160-175.
- Rohlf FJ (2004). NTSYS-pc (Numerical taxonomy and multivariate analysis system) version 2.11T. Exter Software, Setauket, New York.
- Singh KB, Singh S (1991). Evaluation of exotic germplasm in lentil. J. Agri. Res., 6(2): 304-306.

- Singh SP, Gutiérrez JA, Molina A, Gepts P (1991). Genetic diversity in cultivated common bean: II. Marker-based analysis of morphological and agronomic traits. Crop Sci., 31: 23-29.
- Smith JSC, Smith OS (1992). Fingerprinting crop varieties. Adv. Agron., 47: 85-140.
- Sneath PHA, Sokal RR (1973). Numerical taxonomy. Freeman, Sanfrancisco. pp. 264-293.
- Snedecor GW, Cochran, W.G. (1989). Statistical methods, 8th edn. Iowa State University Press, pp. 308-359.
- Soleri D, Smith SE (1995). Morphological and phonological comparisons of two hopi maize varieties conserved *in situ* and *ex situ*. Econ. Bot., 49: 56-77.
- Sonnante G, Pignone D (2001). Assessment of genetic variation in a collection of lentil using molecular tools. Euphytica 120: 301-307.
- Sonnante G, Pignone D (2007). The major Italian lentil landraces of lentil (*Lens culinaris* Medik.): their molecular diversity and possible origin. Genet Resour. Crop Evol., 54: 1023-1031.
- SPSS Inc. (1999). SPSS 10.0 for windows. SPSS Inc. Chicago. Stanton MA, Stewart JM, Percival AE, Wandel JF (1994). Morphological diversity and relationships in A-genome cottons, *Gossypium arboreum* and *Gossypium herbaceum*. Crop Sci., 34: 519-527.
- Tanto T, Demissie A (2000). A comparative study of genetic diversity of four major crops managed of Ethiopia. Institute of Biodiversity Conservation and Research, Addis Ababa (Available online at www.unu.edu/env/plec/cbd/Montreal/papers/Tanto.pdf).
- Thakur HK, Banjpai R (1993). Characterization of lentil germplasm for phonological and yield characters. Indian J. Pulse Res. 6(1): 89-91.
- Thormann CE, Ferreira ME, Camargo LEA, Tivanga JG, Osborn TC (1994). Comparison of RFLP and RAPD markers to estimating genetic relationships within and among cruciferous species. Theor. Appl. Genet., 88: 973-980.
- Toklu F, Biçer BT, Karaköy T (2009) Agro-morphological characterization of the Turkish lentil landraces. Afr. J. Biotech., 8(17): 4121-4127.
- Vavilov NI (1956). The origin, variation, immunity, and breeding of cultivated plants. *In*: Selected writings of NI Vavilov, Chronica Botanica. 13: 1-16.
- Weising K, Nybom H, Wolff K, Kahl G (2005). DNA Fingerprinting in Plants: Principles, Methods, and Applications, 2nd edn. CRC Press, Taylor and Francis Group, Boca Raton, Florida. pp 284-293.
- Wolf AD, Liston A (1998). Contributions of PCR-Based Methods to Plant Systematics and Evolutionary Biology. In: Soltis DE, Soltis P and Doyl JJ (eds) Plant molecular systematics, 2nd edn. Kluwer Academic Publishers, Boston. pp 364-421.
- Yeh FC, Yang R-C, Boyle TBJ, Ye Z-H, Mao JX (2000). POPGENE ver. 1.32, the user-friendly shareware for population genetic analysis. Molecular Biology and Biotechnology Centre, University of Alberta, Canada.
- Yoseph B (2005). Genetic analysis of traditional Ethiopian highland maize (*Zea mays* L.) using molecular markers and morphological traits: implication for breeding and conservation. Dissertation, University of Pretoria.
- Zietkiewicz E, Rafalski A, Labuda D (1994). Genome fingerprint by simple sequence repeat (SSR) -anchored polymerase chain reaction amplification. Genomics 20: 176-183.