KWAME NKRUMAH UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY KUMASI, GHANA.

ETHNO-BOTANY, MORPHOLOGICAL AND MOLECULAR CHARACTERIZATION OF THE PONA YAMS IN THE DIOSCOREA ROTUNDATA-CAYENENSIS (POIR) COMPLEX IN GHANA.

A THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE DEPARTMENT OF CROP AND SOIL SCIENCES, COLLEGE OF AGRICULTURE AND NATURAL RESOURCES, KWAME NKRUMAH UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY, KUMASI, GHANA IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN PLANT BREEDING AND GENETICS

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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that, except for references cited in relation to other peoples' work for which due acknowledgement has been made, this submission is my own work towards the PhD degree and that, to the best of my knowledge, it neither contains material previously published by another person nor material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree elsewhere.

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ABSTRACT

Ethno-botanical, morphological and molecular characterization approaches were used to determine the genetic relationship among 91 accessions assembled as *Pona* in the *Dioscorea rotundata-cayenensis* complex in Ghana. Ethno-botanical classification categorized the *Pona* complex into four groups: true *pona, kulunku, laribako-la* and *laribako-nya*. Ordination analysis using morphological data showed a wide dispersion among the accessions. Clustering using one hundred and eleven (111) characters revealed 5 morphotypes in the *Pona* complex and positively identified the check variety *Dente*. They are true *Pona, Laribako, Muchumudu, Kulunku, Fuseini,* and *Numbo*. Subsequent study of DNA variation among accessions using 13 polymorphic Simple Sequence Repeats (SSRs) revealed 3 morph-types and two sets of hybrids as well as the check, *Dente*. Combination of ethno-botany, morphological and molecular analysis besides identifying the check *Dente* and *CRI-Kukrupa* also revealed 6 morphotypes of the *Pona* complex as authentic *Pona, Laribako, Muchumudu Kulunku, Fuseini and Numbo*.

TABLE OF CONTENTS	PAGE
DECLARATION	II
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	
	111
ABSTRACT	IV
TABLE OF CONTENTS	v
LIST OF TABLES KNUST	VIII
LIST OF FIGURES.	
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS.	
CHAPTER 1	
INTRODUCTION	
2 0 PEVIEW OF LITTER AND A	6
2.0 REVIEW OF LITERATURE	6
2.2 Cenatic Diversity Courts	6
2.2 Genetic Diversity Studies	7
2.2.1 Describing Diversity	8
2.2.1.1 Farmers' perceptions and Ethno-botany Classification	8
2.2.1.3. Molecular Characterization	10
2.2.1.3.1 Protein markers	
2.2.1.3.2. Biochemical characterization	
2.2.1.3.3. DNA markers	13
2.2.1.3.3.1 Amplified fragment length polymorphism (AFLP)	15
2.2.1.3.3.2 Random amplified polymorphic DNA (RAPD)	16
2.2.1.3.3.3 Restriction fragment length polymorphism (RFLP)	
2.2.1.3.3.4 Simple sequence repeats	18
2.2.2. Quantifying genetic diversity: measuring intra-population genetic diversity	18

2.2.2.1 Intra-population genetic diversity on the basis of number of variants	21
2.2.2.1.1 Polymorphism or rate of polymorphism (Pj)	21
2.2.2.1.2 Proportion of polymorphic loci	21
2.2.2.1.3 Richness of allelic variants (A)	22
2.2.2.1.4 Average number of alleles per locus	22
2.2.2.2. Intra-population genetic diversity on the basis of the frequency of variants	23
2.2.2.2.1 Effective number of alleles (Ae)	23
2.2.2.2. Calculating intra-population distance, using microsatellites	24
2.2.3. Expression of relationships between results obtained from different sets of	characters
(classification or clustering)	25
2.2.3.1 Clustering Method	25
2.2.3.1.1 Hierarchical Clustering.	
2.2.3.1.2. Non-hierarchical clustering	
2.2.3.1.3. Overlapping clustering	29
2.2.3.2. Ordination	
2.3. Analysis of Molecular Marker Data	31
2.4. Concept of Core Collection	1
CARLINES -	33
CHAPTER 3	25
3.0 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY	
3.1 Study Areas	35
3.2 Germplasm Collection	25
3.3 Evaluation	
3.3.1 Ethno-botany or Folk Taxonomy	46
3.3.2. Morphological Characterization	
3.3.2.1. Data analysis	48
3.3:3 Molecular Analysis	49
3.3.3.1. DNA Extraction	49
3.3.3.2. DNA Quality Testing and Quantification	50
3.3.3.3. Molecular Markers and Polymerase Chain Reactions	51
3.3.3.4 DNA Fragment Analysis	52
3.3.3.4.2. Size matching, binning, allele size calling and verification	55
3.3,3.4.2 Data Analysis	57
3.4. Core collection determination.	58
CHAPTER 4	50
4.0 RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS	
TO STATE OF THE PROPERTY OF TH	59

	4.1 Folk Taxonomy and Classification Based on Indigenous Expertise	50
	4.2 Morphological characterization	6
	4.3 Diversity Assessment	69
	4.4 Phenetic Analysis Based on Morphological Data	77
	4.5 Molecular Characterization	o-
	4.5.1 DNA quantification and quality testing	82
	4.7 Combined Morphological and Molecular Characterization	92
	4.8 Core collection determination	100
СНА	5.0 CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	
REF	ERENCES	108
APPE	ENDICES	121

LIST OF TABLES	PAGE
Table 1: Original List of Pona-Laribako accessions collected and used	
for the study.	38
Table 2: Reclassification of accessions based on expert farmer knowledge.	41
Table 3: Set of Yam Microsatellite markers (SSR) used in fingerprinting.	53
Table 4: Optimized grid for yam PCR: Volume of reagents for a total volume	
of 20µl per reaction.	54
Table 5: Summary of farmers' criteria for classifying Pona and Laribako.	61
Table 6: Range of morphological variability in Pona complex in Ghana.	65
Table 7: Phenotypic diversity and Shannon diversity index of quantitative trait	s
of Pona Complex in Ghana.	70
Table 8: Phenotypic diversity and Shannon diversity index of qualitative traits	
of Pona Complex in Ghana.	71
Table 9: Eigen values of morphological data and per cent variation accounted	
of the first three principal component axes of the ordination of Pona	
complex accessions.	76
Table 10: Range of sizes and number of alleles detected using the 13 SSRs	
primers Pona Complex accessions.	83
Table 11: Summary statistics of allele frequency analysis of SSRs of	
Pona Complex in Ghana.	85
Table 12: Principal Coordinates Analysis of Molecular data.	87
Γable 13: Structure of the cultivar groups	102
Γable 14: Characteristics of the 6 groupings of yams identified within Pona	
Complex	103

LIST OF FIGURES	PAGI
Fig. 1: Yam production map of Ghana showing where Pona accessions	
were collected.	36
Fig. 2: In-situ characterization at Kwamang - Pepease, Ashanti Region.	47
Fig. 3: Sample of SSR profiles obtained for three yam accessions with marker	
Dab2E09	56
Fig. 4: Schematic representation of folk taxonomic classification of the	
Pona complex KNUST	60
Fig. 5: Range of leaf shape of the <i>Pona</i> complex	66
Fig. 6: Range of vine characteristics of <i>Pona</i> complex	66
Fig. 7: Varying tuber shape of <i>Pona</i> complex:	67
Fig. 8: Varying tuber flesh of <i>Pona</i> complex	67
Fig. 9: Varying head colouration of <i>Pona</i> complex seedyam	68
Fig.10: 2D representation of genetic relationship between 91 accessions of yam revealed by morphological data	77
Fig.11: Genetic diversity tree of 91 <i>Pona</i> complex accessions based on Jaccard's index genetic similarity among morphotypes.	80
Fig. 12: Schematic representation of Pona complex based on morphological analysis.	81
Fig. 13: PCoA1 versus PCoA 2 of SSR allelic data for Pong complex in Ghana	88

Fig. 14: Plot of PCoA2 against PCoA3 of SSR allelic data for Pona complex	
in Ghana.	89
Fig.15: Genetic diversity tree of 72 accessions plus 4 IITA checks based on	
SSR data using unweighted neighbour-joining analysis	91
Fig. 16: Configuration of the combined morphological and molecular	
similarity data using DARwin, v. 5.0.153.	93
Fig. 17: Genetic diversity tree of <i>Pona</i> complex based on combined	
morphological and molecular data.	94
Fig. 18: Sample of pona tubers showing digitations.	95
Fig. 19: Close up view of head region of Pona and its 'look-alikes' showing	
position of crowns on tuber.	96
Fig. 20: Varying shape of tail of tuber <i>Pona</i> and its 'look-alikes'.	97
Fig. 21: The varying 'size of head in relation to tail' and tail shape of <i>Pona</i> and	
its 'look-alikes'.	98
Fig. 22. External tuber characteristics of authentic Pona	100
The state of the s	
Z S	

LIST OF APPENDICES	PAGE
Appendix I: List of descriptors	121
Appendix II: Similarity matrix of morphological data	126
Appendix III: Similarity matrix of molecular data	128
Appendix IV: Similarity matrix of combined morphological and molecular	
data	130
Appendix V: Detailed Results of Allelic frequency analysis of <i>Pona</i> Complex in Ghana using SSR allelic data Appendix VI: Principal Coordinates (Metric Dimensional	133
Scaling) Scores	138

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

KNUST

AFLP - Amplified Fragment Length Polymorphism

CA - Correspondence Analysis

DNA - Deoxyribonucleic Acid

FAO - Food and Agriculture Organization

IITA - International Institute of Tropical Agriculture

NMDS - Non-metric Multi-Dimensionality

PCA - Principal Component Analysis

PCoA - Principal Coordinates Analysis

PCR - Polymerase Chain Reaction

RAPD - Random amplified polymorphic DNA

RFLP - Restricted Fragment Length Polymorphism

SSR - Simple Sequence Repeats

STMS - Sequence-Tagged Microsatellites

STR - Short Tandem Repeats

CHAPTER 1

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Yam (*Dioscorea* spp.) is a tuber crop, a polyploid and multi-species. The cultivated species are generally vegetatively propagated and the wild species sexually propagated. Ninety-six per cent (96%) of the world yam production occurs in the yam belt of West and Central Africa. Of this figure Nigeria (67.0%), Cote d'Ivoire (12.0%), Ghana (6.5%) and Benin (4.5%) account for 90% of the production (FAO, 2007). Yam is a staple food crop of over 300 million people in tropics and subtropics. It is the food of choice at festive occasions, and the only crop that is celebrated.

Yam is grown for their starchy tubers (both cultivated and wild). It contains aromatic substances that act as appetizers. It is also known to have medicinal properties and can improve fecundity. Yam's good potassium-sodium balance ensures protection against osteoporosis and heart disease. Yam products have a lower glycemic index than potato products; protecting against obesity and diabetes. The cooked yam has about 2% protein which is equal to that of potatoes but two times that of cassava.

Yam however is a crop that has suffered a lot from institutional neglect. Yam producing countries of the world are in the tropics and have poor economies that support little or inadequate agricultural research (IITA, 1995). Yams thus belong to a group of crops labeled "orphaned crops", which have not received research attention for a long period of time and very little improvement, has been made to the crop (Otoo, 2007). In Ghana, until May 2005, there had not been any formal release of any yam variety. Farmers grow what they perceive to be "good", selecting against "bad" crop, thus leading to the depletion of the genetic base of the crop. There are as many yam varieties as there are ethnic groups which care to name them (Otoo, 2001; Asemota et al., 1996; Dansi et al., 1999). Again, breeding and selection of yam cultivars with novel

not been adequately characterized (Asiedu et al., 1998). This makes reference to varieties ambiguous, unreliable and impossible to determine the true genetic variation in yams. Some elite cultivars of the *D. rotundata-cayenensis* complex, such as *Pona* and *Laribako* have sweet, floury and fragrant tuber flesh and are the most preferred cultivars by consumers in Ghana, yet there is no easy means of identifying such yams morphologically. This seriously affects the reliable identification of cultivars for germplasm management and improvement. Folklore from the Guinea Savannah agroecology surrounding the name *Laribako* however suggests that it is a "feminine" or "smaller" type of *Pona*.

Knowledge of genetic variation and relationships between accessions or genotypes is important to understand the genetic variability available and its potential use in breeding programs, estimate any possible loss of genetic diversity, offer evidence of the evolutionary forces shaping the genotypic diversities, and to choose the genotypes to be given priority for conservation (Thormann *et al.*, 1994). Systems of classification and identification based on morphological characters (Dansi *et al.*, 1998, 1999, 2000), soluble tuber protein profiles (Ikediobi and Igboanusi, 1983) or isozyme patterns (Dansi *et al.*, 2000; Mignouna *et al.*, 2003a) have been used to characterize yam germplasm.

Characterization of genetic resource collections has thus been greatly facilitated by the availability of a number of molecular marker systems (Beyene et al., 2005). Morphological traits were among the first markers used in germplasm management, but they have a number of limitations, including low polymorphism, late expression, and vulnerability to environmental influences (Smith and Smith, 1992). Yam genotypes classified in the same cultivar group based on morphology were often genetically different, emphasizing the need for molecular fingerprinting in yam germplasm

characterization (Mignouna et al., 1998). On the other hand, DNA markers, though expensive to detect, do not have such limitations. They can be used to detect variation and have proven to be effective tools for distinguishing between closely related genotypes. Different types of molecular markers have been used to assess the genetic diversity in crop species, but no single technique is universally ideal (Mignouna et al., 2003a). Therefore, the choice of the technique depends on the objective of the study, financial constraints, skills and facilities available. However, recent work done by Mignouna et al. (2003b) indicated that amplified fragment length polymorphisms (AFLPs) showed the highest efficiency in detecting polymorphism and revealed genetic relationships that most closely reflected morphological classification and could be done at a reasonable cost. AFLP is a multilocus marker technique developed by Vos et al. (1995). AFLP markers are genomic fragments detected after selective PCR amplification which provides a number of appealing features in the fingerprinting of genomes of different complexity (Vos et al., 1995). This technique has been used to identify markers for disease resistance loci (Recker et al., 1995) to fingerprint DNAs (Vos et al., 1995) and to assess relationships between molecular polymorphism and hybrid performance in maize (Ajmone-Marsan et al., 1998) and germplasm characterization in yams (Mignouna et al., 2003c). It has high multiplex ratio, offering it a unique advantage when genome coverage is a major issue due to the presence of linkage disequilibrium, such as in inbred lines and breeding materials (Pejic et al., 1998). It can also be automated, making it more preferable to RFLP.

Generally, AFLPs (Vos et al., 1995) and microsatellites, or simple sequence repeats (SSRs) (Tautz, 1989) are the most frequently used molecular markers in the analysis of genetic resources, because they can be automated and so have great potential in large-scale genetic diversity studies. Simple Sequence Repeats (SSRs), also known as microsatellites or short tandem repeats (STRs), have proven to be a most

important resource for polymorphic markers and have been used very successfully in both mammalian and plant genome mapping studies (Pejic et al., 1998).

SSR refers to the observed interspersion of eukaryotic genomes with tandem repeats of short DNA sequences. SSR polymorphisms have been extensively used as genetic markers in mammals (Tautz, 1989); they occur frequently also in plant genome, showing an extensive variation in different individuals and accessions (Akkaya et al., 1992; Pejic et al., 1998). SSR and AFLP profiling technologies are good candidates for replacing RFLP markers in genetic similarity estimates and variety description, and that they have comparable accuracy in grouping inbred lines selected by pedigree (Pejic et al., 1998). They are generally much simpler to apply and more sensitive to morphological and biochemical methods or the RFLP-based fingerprinting techniques; yet they provide results correlated with those from RFLP analyses (Pejic et al., 1998). SSR loci are co-dominant markers and are more informative than RAPDs and RFLPs (Antonio et al., 2004). The major strength of microsatellites therefore lies in the expected high polymorphism, co-dominant inheritance, high abundance and an even distribution across the genome (Mignouna et al., 2003c).

The chromosomal locations of SSR markers are frequently known, thus providing additional information in genetic diversity studies. Powell et al., (1996) examined the utility of AFLP, RAPD, and SSR markers for soybean germplasm analysis by evaluating information content (expected heterozygosity), number of loci simultaneously analyzed per experiment (multiplex ratio) and effectiveness in assessing relationships between accessions. In their study SSR markers had the highest expected heterozygosity, while AFLP markers had the highest effective multiplex ratio.

The *Pona* yams of Ghana are a class of yam that belongs to the *Dioscorea* rotundata-cayenensis complex. The authentic *Pona* has unique rheological properties including aroma and taste. These yams are the choicest on both local and foreign

markets. The problem facing consumers and researchers is that the authentic *Pona* is not easily discernible by morphological characters. The authentic *Pona* is only known after cooking because of its peculiar aroma and taste. They are given the premium value wherever they are sold. Market women and farmers have different opinions about the true *Pona*, hence they tend to deceive buyers with any *D. rotundata* variety as the *Pona*, in order to sell at higher prices. The problem is that both sellers and consumers are not very certain of the true nature of the *Pona* yam.

If Ghana is to maintain her position as the leading exporter of the crop, it must ensure purity of its varieties that will instill confidence in the markets. Furthermore, the informal nature of the yam trade and exchange of planting materials among farmers, have led to duplication of planting materials whose ethnic or local names have changed in different localities. Thus, the same material may be called differently in another region.

The general objective of this study therefore was to use ethno-botany, morphological and molecular techniques (SSRs) to determine the true *Pona*. The specific objectives of the study were to:

- (i) Investigate genetic diversity and relationships among 91 supposed *Pona* yam accessions using ethno-botany, morphological, and SSR markers.
- (ii) Assess the correlation between genetic distance estimates of *Pona* complex based on morphological traits and molecular markers.
- (iii) Identify the authentic Pona using morphological, molecular, rheological data and farmers' opinion.
- (iv) Identify distinct genotypes and eliminate obvious duplicates from the germplasm, and
 - (vi) Select core collection of Pona accessions for conservation and future work.

CHAPTER 2

2.0. REVIEW OF LITERATURE.

2.1. Yam Diversity

Yams (Dioscorea *spp.*) constitute an economically important staple food for millions of people in the tropics and subtropics (Mignouna *et al.*, 2003b). Its production has therefore been important to the survival and welfare of many generations of people in the tropics and continues to be very important for ensuring sustainable food security and income generation.

Botanically, yam belongs to the genus Dioscorea in the family Dioscoreaceae and Order Dioscoreales. The family Dioscoreaceae now contain four distinct genera, Dioscorea. Stenomeris, Tacca (previously in Taccaceae), and Trichopus (Caddick et al., 2002). And the dioecious Dioscoreaceae genera, Borderea, Epipetrum, Nanarepenta, Rajania, Tamus, and Testudinaria, are nested within Dioscorea in phylogenetic analyses (Caddick et al., 2002). Dioscorea is an economically important, annual or perennial tuber-bearing, dioecious, climbing, tropical genus of monocots that looks like a dicots. The occurrence of a vestigial element of a second cotyledon in a number of species, the shape and venation of the leaves, and the nature of the inflorescence provide strong evidence that Dioscorea spp. or their ancestors are closely related to the dicotyledons. Again, yams exhibit distinct changes in shoot apical meristem (SAM) structure and phyllotaxy during phase transition from juvenile to adult, also a feature of dicots.

In West Africa, there exists a species complex, *D. rotundata* Poir. and *D. cayenensis* Lam. Phenotypically *D. rotundata* (white-fleshed tubers and 6-8 months growth period), and *D. cayenensis* (yellow-fleshed tubers and 8-12 months growth period) can easily be distinguished from each other, however, there exist many intermediate forms. Domestication is on-going (Vernier, 2003). There is an intensive

vegetative propagation of the collected plants from forest areas (which could be wild or inter-specific hybrids). Over time, tubers with new genetic characteristics emerge resulting in potential polyclonality of a given variety even at field level. Since there has been institutional neglect, and the genetics and genomics of this crop is least understood due to several biological constraints and research negligence. Several grey areas exist with respect to identification of the varieties.

Dioscorea rotundata-cayenensis complexes are indigenous to West Africa and have been cultivated from time immemorial in Ghana with little improvement to the crop from the formal sector (Qtoo, 2007). Of about 600 known yam species, only about six are important as staples in the tropics, namely: D. rotundata, D. cayenensis, D. alata, D. dumetorium, D. bulbifera and D. esculenta (Coursey, 1969). Together they account for 90% of all yams grown in the tropics (Hahn et al., 1987). All the edible yams species mentioned above are grown in Ghana (Akwaag et al., 1996). Even though farmers have been selecting genotypes they perceive to be "good" and selected against "bad" genotypes (Otoo, 2001b), there is still a great deal of diversity within species and such diversity could easily be seen on individual farmer fields or farming village. For instance, in a study conducted by Akwaag et al., 1996 in Brong Ahafo Region of Ghana, 26 yam cultivars were documented as being grown in just four villages.

Yam is also an open-pollinated crop and flowers profusely especially in the wild form. The fruits are allowed to fall freely and may germinate to produce new yam varieties which may be harvested later by farmers. This will add to the diversity within species existing within a farming setup.

2.2 Genetic Diversity Studies

Genetic diversity studies and analysis involve three basic steps: (i). description of variation within and between populations, regions, or area; (ii). assessment of

relationships individuals, populations, regions, area; and (iii). expression of relationships between results obtained from different sets of characters.

Describing the diversity may be done within a population or between populations and may also extend to larger units such as areas and regions (Hoogendijk and Williams, 2001). Calculating the distances (geometric or genetic) among all pairs of subjects of study can be used to assess the relationships between individuals, populations, regions or areas. Using any classification and /or ordination methods, the relationships among individuals, regions or areas can then be established. The results of genetic diversity studies using different approaches can be used to propose scientifically based recommendations for strategies and future actions that best promote the conservation and use of unique crop genetic resources (Hoogendijk and Williams, 2001).

2.2.1 Describing Diversity

There are four methods for measuring genetic diversity, namely farmers' perceptions and folk classification, morphological characterization, biochemical characterization and molecular characterization (Hoogendijk and Williams, 2001).

2.2.1.1 Farmers' perceptions and Ethno-botany Classification

An ethno-botany classification is a vernacular naming system, and can be contrasted with scientific taxonomy. Names are often derived from particular characteristics of the material, such as distinctive morphological or agronomic traits, place of origin or special uses (Hoogendijk and Williams, 2001). These names may also form part of informal but structured classification schemes or 'ethno-botany'/ 'folk taxonomy' reflecting or providing some insight into what may be relationships among varieties.

Folk taxonomies are therefore generated from social knowledge and are used in everyday language. They are distinguished from scientific taxonomies that claim to be disembedded from social relations and thus objective and universal. Anthropologists have observed that taxonomies are generally embedded in local cultural and social systems, and serve various social functions (Mekbib, 2007).

Folk taxonomy is not only the historical root of modern biological classification but it is also crucially important to modern research scientists, who often rely on traditional knowledge when investigating native species (Rosenberger, 2006). This is especially true as they examine biodiversity in complex tropical environments, where local people are apt to recognize a vast number of organisms (Rosenberger, 2006).

It is important to explore and document farmers' perceptions of diversity because it provides an entry point into the body of detailed knowledge held by farmers, who probably know more than anyone else, about the material to be studied (Hoogendijk and Williams, 2001). Other benefits identified by Hoogendijk and Williams (2001) to be derived by using folk taxonomy are:

- 1. Documentation of the farmer's perception of a local variety because that is the only unit of diversity that the farmer recognize, manage and conserve;
- 2. Providing clues for genetic affinities and distance;
- 3. Revealing with respect to uses, cultural value, nutritional qualities, and culinary importance of the different varieties; and
- It also provides valuable indications for selecting an appropriate, more in-depth characterization method.

However, the following weaknesses can however been cited for folk taxonomy:

a) The use of different names for genetically similar material or the use of same name for genetically different material, and

b) Repeatability of research results due to inconsistencies in data collection and analysis.

2.2.1.2. Morphological characterization

The use of molecular techniques for analysis of genetic diversity and the structure of germplasm, the first conceptual step in marker-assisted breeding, has been fruitful for many species (Naylor et al., 2007). However, before the advent of molecular markers morphological descriptors were employed for germplasm management. Morphological descriptions can provide unique identification of cultivated varieties. The application of morphological descriptor lists is the simplest of the formal, standardized, repeatable methods of measuring crop genetic diversity (Hoogendijk and Williams, 2001). Morphological traits were among the earliest markers used in germplasm management, but they have a number of limitations, including low polymorphism, low heritability, late expression, and vulnerability to environmental influences (Smith and Smith, 1992).

The main advantages of conducting morphological characterization are that published descriptor lists are readily available for most major crop species, it can be carried out *in situ* (on-farm), it is relatively inexpensive, and it is relatively easy to carry out (Hoogendijk and Williams, 2001).

Morphological characterization is therefore a highly recommended first step that should be made before more in-depth biochemical or molecular studies are attempted. Principal Components Analysis (PCA) of the characterization results can identify a few key or 'minimum' descriptors that effectively account for the majority of the diversity observed, saving time and effort for future characterization efforts. This

approach has been used successfully for characterizing sapote (*Pouteria sapota*) in Guatemala and Cuba (Hoogendijk and Williams, 2001). A large number of polymorphic markers are required to measure genetic relationships and genetic diversity in a reliable manner (Tatineni *et al.*, 1996). This limits the use of morphological characters and isozymes, which are few or lack adequate levels of polymorphism in yams (Hoogendijk and Williams, 2001).

Smith and Smith (1992) identified the following weaknesses as some of the limiting factors hindering the use of morphological characterization for diversity studies:

- a) Difficulty in taking environmental influences into account in the case of quantitative characters;
- b) Unavailability of descriptor lists for many neglected and underutilized crops; and
- c) For most morphological traits, the genetic control is unknown, although it is known that multiple genotypes can give phenotypes of similar outward appearance.

2.2.1.3. Molecular Characterization

Molecular genetic markers have developed into powerful tools for analyzing genetic relationships and genetic diversity (Tatineni et al., 1996). They can detect variation directly at the DNA level. Molecular marker data therefore can assist in taxonomic evaluation, particularly the accurate identification of germplasm (REF????). These methods are therefore being adopted rapidly by crop improvement researchers globally as an effective and appropriate tool for basic and applied studies addressing biological components in agricultural production systems (Hash and Bramel-Cox, 2000). There are several groups of techniques currently available. The most frequently

employed include RFLP, RAPD, AFLP, STMS (sequence-tagged microsatellites), and sequencing. Each technique has its own particular advantages and drawbacks in terms of their applicability for different research objectives. When choosing an appropriate technique, there are aspects that should be taken into account, such as the degree of comparability between experiments, the cost and availability of reagents and equipment, the availability of crop-specific protocols and technical expertise (Hoogendijk and Williams, 2001).

Depending on the research questions, another consideration may be whether it is of importance to detect co-dominance. Some techniques, such as RAPD and AFLP, do not detect co-dominance and therefore cannot measure allelic frequency. While AFLP and RAPD are both suitable for some diversity studies, it should be noted that the results obtained with RAPD are not always comparable between laboratories and sometimes even between experiments. RFLP is an excellent non-random technique, but rather expensive. Microsatellites, also known as SSRs, require specific primers that can be costly, and are not yet available for many species, particularly neglected and underutilized crops (Scotti et al., 1999). Gene sequencing is a wonderfully detailed characterization of the DNA molecule, base pair by base pair, but the excessive investment of time and resources required to conduct such work remains far beyond the capacity of most national programmes. Generally, the molecular markers can be grouped into two: protein and DNA markers.

2.2.1.3.1 Protein markers

Protein markers were among the first group of molecular markers exploited for genetic diversity assessment and genetic linkage map development (Harsh and Bramel-Cox, 2000). They are the basis for a newly emerging research area called proteomics. They also provide some of the most cost-effective tools for data point generation;

especially when iso-electric focussing equipment is used to precisely distinguish between very similar versions of proteins. Harsh and Bramel-Cox (2000) listed the following major limitations of these markers as:

- a) Much of the genome (including much of the polymorphic portions of it that are less subject to evolutionary restrictions) does not code for genes,
- Different biochemical procedures are required to visualize allelic differences for enzymes having different functions, and
- c) Many several post-transcriptional steps removed from underlying DNA sequence polymorphism and thus can mask variation present at that level. For example, differences in tri-nucleotide sequences coding for the same amino acid, intron sequences that are post-transcriptionally removed from the mRNA, and post-translational modification can all contribute to reduced polymorphism expression at the protein level compared to that at the DNA level.

2.2.1.3.2. Biochemical characterization

This technique involves separation of functionally equivalent enzyme molecules according to their differing electrostatic charges, sizes, and molecular conformations, followed by their staining (Gillet, 1999). Inheritance analysis of the resulting banding patterns enables inference of their mode of inheritance and, consequently, allows them to be used as genetic markers (REF???). Biochemical characterization, most frequently, involves conducting gel electrophoresis on easily extracted proteins, such as isozymes, seed storage proteins, flavonoids, and others (Hoogendijk and Williams, 2001).

Isoenzymes, the electrophoretically separable variants of one enzyme system (Bergmann *et al.*, 1989), are coded by genes at one or often several loci. Variants that are coded by alleles at the same locus are called allozymes (REF???). Multilocus

analysis considers the results for various loci belonging to one or, more commonly, a large number of enzyme systems. In fact, isoenzymes are still widely used as genetic markers because they are inexpensive compared to DNA markers, the laboratory protocols are well-established in numerous tree species, they are products of structural genes whose roles in metabolism are known in most cases, and, most importantly, their typical levels of variation makes them suitable markers for a number of purposes.

The usefulness of a marker completely depends on its characteristics. Enzyme molecules are direct products of gencs, and thus of DNA, and play essential roles in the primary and secondary metabolism of organisms (Gillet, 1999). Enzyme molecules are composed of chains of amino acids as determined by the DNA sequences of the coding genes. Differences in the total electrostatic charges of their amino acid sequences indicate the existence of differences in the DNA sequences (Gillet, 1999). Allozymes almost always differ due to single nucleotide substitutions at the locus that cause the substitution of single amino acids of different charges; as a rule, isoenzymes coded by different loci differ in size. Size differences result from insertions or deletions of nucleotides that lead to a longer or shorter amino acid sequence.

Even though biochemical analyses are sometimes more expensive than morphological characterization, such studies are relatively simple to conduct, relatively inexpensive with regard to extraction, reagents and laboratory equipment required in comparison to molecular methods, and the results obtained have excellent comparability and repeatability (Hoogendijk and Williams, 2001).

One of the major advantages of biochemical characterization methods is that they are capable of detecting different alleles. Co-dominant markers such as isozymes, enable the researcher to determine allelic frequencies and thereby directly measure genetic diversity. Allelic frequency is extremely important information for population

genetics studies, for example, to determine the effective population size (Cervus, 2007). In case appropriate protocols are not available for the species investigated, existing protocols for related or similar species may be adapted.

Weaknesses of biochemical characterization include the fact that limited detection systems are available and they detect relatively few polymorphic loci and therefore are not very useful, particularly peanut (*Arachis hypogaea*) (Hoogendijk and Williams, 2001).

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2.2.1.3.3. DNA markers

DNA markers are highly reliable selection tools as they as stable, not influenced by environmental conditions and relatively easy to score in an experienced laboratory (Peleman and van der Voort, 2003). DNA-based fingerprinting technologies have proven useful in genetic similarity studies (Pejic et al., 1998). The DNA markers differ in their technique for polymorphism detection. They may be hybridisation-based (e.g., RFLP), or polymerase chain reaction (PCR)-based (e.g., RAPD and AFLP); they may detect single locus, oligo-locus, or multiple locus differences; and the markers detected may be inherited in a presence/ absence, or co-dominant manner (Mignouna et. al., 2004).

Most points on molecular marker-based genetic linkage map are anonymous DNA polymorphisms (e.g., restriction fragment length polymorphism (RFLP), random amplified polymorphic DNA (RAPD), amplified fragment length polymorphism (AFLP), and microsatellite markers) and do not correspond to any known function, with the exception of few molecular markers including coding DNA (Hash and Bramel-Cox, 2000).

The general limitation of DNA markers therefore is that the anonymous DNA markers generated by a great variety of techniques, results in great diversity in

reliability (repeatability and robustness) of the system. Coupled with its difficulty, expense, and the nature of the polymorphism they detect makes the use of DNA markers unpopular. However, recent studies by Pejic et al., (1998), has shown that apart from RAPD, the other DNA markers provide consistent information for germplasm identification and pedigree validation.

The DNA markers which have gained global acceptance and usage are AFLP, RFLP, RAPD and SSR. Apart from morphological traits (Dansi et al., 1998, 1999), isozymic techniques (Dansi et al., 2000), molecular techniques provide opportunities to obtain high amplification of genetic traits for the development of genetic maps, variety identification and for the analysis of important morphological and agronomic traits (Dansi et al., 2000; Tostain et al., 2002; Tostain et al., 2003). Molecular markers showing a high level of polymorphism on plant materials include microsatellites (Sonnante et al., 1994; Akkaya et al., 1995), RAPDs (Williams et al., 1990; Williams et al., 1993; Dansi et al., 2000) and AFLP (Vos et al., 1995; Tostain et al., 2002; Tostain et al., 2003; Kiambi et al., 2005). RAPD markers have been shown to be useful in assessing intra-specific or inter-specific genetic variability in many crop plant species (Liu and Fumier, 1993; Haley et al., 1994; Katsiotis et al., 2003; Ravi et al., 2003).

2.2.1.3.3.1 Amplified fragment length polymorphism (AFLP)

AFLP is a PCR-based genetic fingerprinting technique. It uses restriction enzymes to cut genomic DNA, followed by ligation of complementary double stranded adaptors to the ends of the restriction fragments. A subset of the restriction fragments are then amplified using 2 primers complementary to the adaptor and restriction site fragments.

The fragments are visualized on denaturing polyacrylamide gels through either autoradiographic or fluorescence methodologies.

2.2.1.3.3.2. Random amplified polymorphic DNA (RAPD)

The technique of random amplification of polymorphic DNA (RAPD), which is simply PCR amplification of genomic DNA by a single short oligonucleotide primer, produces complex patterns of anonymous polymorphic DNA fragments (Clark and Lanigan, 1993). The information provided by these banding patterns has proved to be of great utility (Clark and Lanigan, 1993).

RAPD by the PCR is a means of rapidly detecting polymorphisms for genetic mapping and strain identification (Welsh and McClelland, 1990; Williams et al., 1990). It is a very useful technique to evaluate taxonomic identity and kinship (Hadrys et al., 1992). They are technically simpler than other DNA-based markers (e.g. RFLPs), facilitate studies of large numbers of loci, and are expected to provide a far more random sample of genomic than do allozymes (Aagaard et al., 1998). This method applies the PCR with a single short of of of of primer to randomly amplified short fragments of genomic DNA, which are size-fractionated by agarose gel electrophoresis.

RAPDs survey numerous loci in the genome making the method particularly attractive for analysis of genetic distance and phylogeny reconstruction. Polymorphism is detected as band presence versus absence and may be caused either by failure to prime a site in some individuals because of nucleotide sequence differences or by insertions or deletions in the fragment between two conserved primer sites (Clark and Lanigan, 1993). The RAPD method therefore is only useful in genetic analysis if variation in banding patterns represents allelic segregation at independent loci. True

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allelic segregation can also be confused with intermittent PCR artefacts (Riedy et al., 1992). They are also quick (Welsh and McClelland, 1990) and well adapted for the efficient non-radioactive DNA fingerprinting of genotypes (dos Santos et al., 1994). Its usage is however limited by the fact that its amplification and data scoring are not reproducible (Demeke et al., 1997; Karp et al., 1997).

2.2.1.3.3.3 Restriction fragment length polymorphism (RFLP)

The discrimination power of restriction fragment length polymorphisms (RLFPs) has been extensively studied in maize, as has their use in establishing relationships with yield and heterosis (Melchinger, 1990). There are however several drawbacks to RLFPs. Amongst them are that large quantities of DNA are required, is costly, the technique is difficult to automate, it requires sizeable laboratories and specialized equipment (Pejic et al., 1998), and the use of radioactive probes makes it hazardous.

2.2.1.3.3.4. Simple Sequence Repeats (SSR)

The microsatellites (SSRs, or Simple Sequence Repeats) have proven to be very useful for the purpose of unveiling genetic diversity in many plants (Scotti et al., 1999).

The variability at microsatellite loci is due to the differences in the number of repeat units. It is therefore easily detectable as variation in length of a DNA fragment obtained through PCR amplification from the whole genome (Scotti et al., 1999). SSRs have been applied to several problems in which the fingerprinting of genetic diversity and differentiation is needed (Scotti et al., 2000).

SSRs are codominant in character, making it possible to distinguish between plants that are homozygous and heterozygous at a gene locus (Powell et. al., 1996). The microsatellites have advantages in among-population differentiation studies as well (Gillet, 1999). Yams generally display a low level of among-population divergence.

This is confirmed by analyses carried out by Dansi et al., (1998), leading to classification of Laribako and Pona as one variety.

Data from SSR markers can be used either as single loci (if they are unlinked) or as haplotypes-if they are linked, as is the case with plastidial markers, (Scotti et al., 2000). Microsatellites also convey an extra amount of information, compared to other classes of markers, thanks to the underlying mutational model (Stepwise Mutation Model), and that they often carry high numbers of alleles at very low frequencies or "private" alleles, that is, alleles present in only one or few populations (Scotti et. al., 2000). This greatly contributes to the assessment of the genetic relationships among populations and among individual crops (Gillet, 1999). For instance in a survey on natural populations of Norway spruce (*Picea abies* Karst), only two loci with no allele had a frequency higher than 0.10 over a sample of more than 1300 individuals (Scotti et al., 2000).

Solutions have been found for most of the often cited drawbacks in the interpretation of SSR amplification patterns: (A). Stutter bands can appear along with the band corresponding to the expected fragment. This will cause (i) uncertainty in the estimation of the allele size and (ii) the possibility of mistaking a heterozygote for a homozygote, if the two bands are so close on the gel that the ladders produced by the two alleles overlap. The former problem can be easily overcome by running an internal standard (an allele of known size), plus a molecular size marker, along with the test samples. The standard will help to identify the "true" band among those amplified in the PCR. Generally speaking, the introduction of internal size standards is a very efficient strategy in microsatellite gel runs, because they can help in all cases in which the scoring of fragment sizes is uncertain (Scotti et al., 2000).

(B). The presence of *null* alleles. These alleles are not amplified and therefore are not scored at all on the gels. They can therefore lead to underestimates of heterozygosity. This problem has no direct troubleshooting, since there is no direct way to turn these (partially) dominant loci into codominant, and can have consistent effects (Scotti *et al.*, 2000).

In this study, SSR markers were used because of the following attributes: (a). In terms of equipment and costs, only basic molecular biology equipment is needed- a PCR thermal cycler, an electrophoresis cell for vertical acrylamide gels and the equipment for film/gel development.

- (b). In terms of PCR efficiency, SSR PCR is a rather robust one and in general does not require highly purified DNA.
- (c). In terms of technical skills and background necessary to perform SSRs, basic knowledge in molecular biology is all that is required to set up an experiment involving the use of SSRs. The only techniques involved are PCR and gel run.
- (d). PCR reaction can be scaled down, saving money on the reagents and allowing to get a strong signal on the gel even with very small amounts of template genomic DNA -down to 1.5 ng (Scotti et al., 2003).

2.2.2. Quantifying genetic diversity: measuring intra-population genetic diversity

There are two bases for measuring intra-population genetic diversity- on the number of variants and frequency of variants.

2.2.2.1 Intra-population genetic diversity on the basis of number of variants On the basis of number of variants: one can assess polymorphism or rate of

polymorphism, proportion of polymorphic loci, richness of allelic variants (A) and

average number of alleles per locus.

2.2.2.1.1 Polymorphism or rate of polymorphism (Pj)

This measure provides criteria to demonstrate that a gene is showing variation. A gene is said to be polymorphic if the frequency of one of its alleles is less than or equal to 0.95 or 0.99 (Cornell University, 2003)

$$Pj = q \le 0.95 \text{ or } Pj = q \le 0.99.$$

where,

Pj = rate of polymorphism; q = allele frequency

Its calculation is through direct observation of whether the definition is fulfilled and can be used with codominant markers and, very restrictively, with dominant markers (Cornell University, 2003). This is because the estimate based on dominant markers would be biased below the real number.

A polymorphic gene is usually one for which the most common allele has a frequency of less than 0.95. Rare alleles are defined as those with frequencies of less than 0.005 (Cornell University, 2003). The limit of allele frequency, which is set at 0.95 (or 0.99) is arbitrary, its objective being to help identify those genes in which allelic variation is common (Cavalli–Sforza and Bodmer, 1981).

2.2.2.1.2 Proportion of polymorphic loci

This measure expresses the percentage of variable loci in a population. Its calculation is based on directly counting polymorphic and total loci and can be used with codominant markers and, very restrictively, with dominant markers (Cornell

University, 2003). This is the number of polymorphic loci divided by the total number of loci (polymorphic and monomorphic), that is:

$$P = n_{pj}/n_{total}$$

where.

P = proportion of polymorphic loci; n_{pj} = number of polymorphic loci and n_{total} = total number of loci

2.2.2.1.3 Richness of allelic variants (A)

This measure refers to the number of variants in a sample. The measure of diversity is (A - 1) variants because, within a monomorphic population, the degree of diversity is zero (A - 1 = 0). For a given gene in a sample, this measure tells how many allelic variants can be found. It is however sensitive to sample size and even though the distribution of alleles does not matter, the maximum number of alleles does (Cornell University, 2003). However, it can only be applied to co-dominant markers such as SSRs (Cornell University, 2003).

2.2.2.1.4 Average number of alleles per locus

Another measure of intra-population genetic diversity is the average number of alleles per locus. It is the sum of all detected alleles in all loci, divided by the total number of loci,

$$\mathbf{n} = (1/\mathbf{K}) \sum_{i=1}^{\mathbf{K}} \mathbf{n}_i$$

where,

K = the number of loci; ni = the number of alleles detected per locus.

This measure provides complementary information to that of polymorphism, and requires only counting the number of alleles per locus and then calculating the average.

It is best applied with codominant markers such as SSRs, because dominant markers do not permit the detection of all alleles (Cornell University, 2003).

2.2.2.2. Intra-population genetic diversity on the basis of the frequency of variants

On the basis of the frequency of variants the intra-population genetic diversity can be measured by assessing the effective number of alleles (Ae), and average expected heterozygosity (He; Nei's genetic diversity)

2.2.2.2.1 Effective number of alleles (Ae)

This measure tells about the number of alleles that would be expected in a locus in each population. It is defined as the number of alleles that can be present in a population.

$$A_e = 1/(1 - h) = 1/\Sigma p_i^2$$

where,

pi = frequency of the ith allele in a locus; $h = 1 - \Sigma pi$ and 2 = heterozygosity in a locus Effective number of alleles (Ae) is calculated by inverting the measure of homozygosity in a locus. It can also be used with codominant markers such as SSRs. Its calculation is however sampling size dependent.

This measure of diversity may also be informative for establishing collecting strategies.

For example, we estimate it in a given sample. We then verify it in a different sample or the entire collection. If the figure obtained the second time is less than the first estimated number, this could mean that our collecting strategy needs revising.

Another measure of intra-population genetic diversity is the Average expected heterozygosity (He) (Nei's genetic diversity [D]). This is the probability that, at a single locus, any two alleles, chosen at random from the population, are different to each other

There are three calculations that are possible:

- A locus with two alleles: $h_i = 1 p^2 q^2$
- A locus j with i alleles: $h_j = 1 \Sigma pi^2$
- Average for several loci: $H = \sum_{j}^{L} h_{j}/L$

Where,

hj = heterozygosity per locus; p and q = allele frequencies; H = average heterozygosity for several loci and L = total number of loci

The average expected heterozygosity is calculated by subtracting from 1 the expected frequencies of homozygotes in a locus. The operation is repeated for all loci and the average then performed. It can be applied to all markers, both codominants and dominants. The estimated value may be affected by those alleles present at higher frequencies. It ranges from 0 to 1, and it is maximized when there are many alleles at equal frequencies. A minimum of 30 loci in 20 individuals per population should be analyzed to reduce the risk of statistical bias (Cornell University, 2003).

The average H_E over all loci is an estimate of the extent of genetic variability in the population.

2.2.2.2.2. Calculating intra-population distance, using microsatellites

Intra-population distance is the average of the sum of squares of the differences in the number of repeats between alleles.

$$S_{wi} = \frac{2}{2n(2n-1)} \sum_{i \in i'} (a_{ii} - a_{i'i'})^2$$

The average intra-population distance may be calculated for all analyzed loci (ds).

$$S_w = (1/d_s) \sum_j S_{w_j}$$

Where,

aij = size of the allele of the i^{th} copy (i = 1, 2, ..., 2n) in the j^{th} population (j = 1, 2, ..., ds); n = number of individuals in the sample

There are two considerations:

The calculation of distance between two alleles is a transformation of the number of repeats. One difficulty in using SSRs to estimate genetic distances is their high rate of mutation.

2.2.3. Expression of relationships between results obtained from different sets of characters (classification or clustering)

There are two main methods for expressing relationships between results obtained from different sets of characters: clustering and ordination.

2.2.3.1 Clustering Method

Cluster analysis, also called segmentation analysis or taxonomy analysis is a group of multivariate techniques used to group objects (subjects, respondents, products, etc.) based on the characteristics they possess. Each object within the cluster will be similar to every other object, and different from objects in other clusters. In other words, homogeneity is maximized within clusters and heterogeneity is maximized between them. Cluster analysis is an exploratory data analysis tool for solving classification problems. Each cluster thus describes, in terms of the data collected, the class to which its members belong; and this description may be abstracted through use from the particular to the general class or type. It is therefore a multivariate procedure for

detecting natural groupings in data. This is the process of grouping (or clustering) objects in categories or classes based on their common attributes or relationships. Cluster analysis is therefore very useful because it allows one to visualize similarities among taxa by the levels at which they are grouped together (Crawford, 1990).

To measure distance among clusters a number of methods is available and varies according to the way in which 'closest' is defined at each stage of merging groups. The following possibilities are available.

- Single Link (Nearest neighbour) defines the similarity between two clusters as the maximum similarity between any two samples in those clusters.
- Complete Link ('farthest neighbour') defines the similarity between two clusters as the minimum similarity between any two samples in those clusters (Aldenderfer et. al., 1984).
- Average Link (UPGMA- unweighted pair-group method using the arithmetic average') defines the similarity between a cluster and two merging clusters as the average of the similarities with each of the original clusters. It therefore replaces two merging clusters by their mean, unweighted by cluster size (Kumar et. al., 1994).
- Group Average an average is taken over all the samples in the two merging clusters.
 Thus, the original clusters are replaced by their mean, weighted by cluster size (Gower, 1967)
- Median Sorting can be thought of in terms of clusters being represented by points in a
 multidimensional space; when two clusters join, the new cluster is represented by the
 midpoint of the original cluster points (Gower, 1967).

Other methods available for measuring distances among data points are:

 Unweighted pair-group method using the centroid (UPGMC). It is based on the distance between the mean values for each group (Kumar et.al., 1994).

- Weighted pair-group method using the centroid (WPGMC). It takes the Observable Taxonomic Units (OTUs) median value in the groups (Gower, 1967).
- Ward. It works with the sum of the squared distances for pairs of OTUs. It is also
 known as the method of minimal variance because, while taking the squared values, it
 becomes a very sensitive method (different OTUs will look more dissimilar and similar
 OTUs will look even closer). It may be used with Euclidian distances and molecular
 data when a high number of DNA bands are available.

Most data sets may be thought of as a matrix of n units (rows) by p variables (columns). The first step in cluster analysis is the establishment of the similarity or distance matrix (Aldenderfer and Blashfield, 1984). Here a matrix of n rows by n columns in which the element a_{ij} describes the association between the ith and the jth unit. This matrix is a table in which both the rows and columns are the units of analysis and the cell entries are a measure of similarity or distance for any pair of cases. The more matches there are between two groups, the more similar they are. Statistical clustering methods use similarity measures to partition objects (Anderberg 1973, Jain and Dubes 1988) whereas conceptual clustering methods cluster objects according to the concepts objects carry (Michalski and Stepp, 1983, Fisher 1987). Therefore there are three ways that the groupings can be made; hierarchical, non-hierarchical or overlapping (Garcia et al., 1995).

2.2.3.1.1 Hierarchical Clustering

Hierarchical clustering is a way to investigate grouping in one's data, simultaneously over a variety of scales, by creating a cluster tree. The tree is not a single set of clusters, but rather a multilevel hierarchy, where clusters at one level are joined to clusters at the next higher level. This allows one to decide what level or scale of clustering is most appropriate in an application (Hastie et. al., 2009).

There are two ways of classifying hierarchical clustering – agglomerative and divisive. The agglomerative hierarchical methods operate on a matrix of similarities for a set of units. The divisive hierarchical method is a clustering procedure whereby all objects begin in a single cluster, then the subsequent steps, each cluster is divided into two clusters containing objects that are the most dissimilar. This is the opposite of agglomerative methods. It is often found that using this method provides a more acceptable classification into a small number of major groups – the groupings obtained are also more robust to any aberrant similarities between individual pairs of units.

In agglomeratic clustering, the procedure begins with each object in a separate cluster. In each subsequent step, the two object clusters that are the most similar are combined into a new cluster. This is repeated until all objects are combined into a single cluster. This method is however criticized for concentrating initial attention on individual units and small groups since important groupings could be influenced by the chance merging of two units at an early stage of clustering.

2.2.3.1.2. Non-hierarchical clustering

These methods generally operate on units by variates matrix and seek to partition the units into a specified number of groups to optimize some criterion. The most common criterion used is maximizing the between groups sum of squares, which is equivalent to minimizing the within-groups sum of squares. This method assigns each individual to a unique group by comparing it with the initial classes so that its positioning is the most appropriate.

Clustering starts with some initial classification and using an iterative procedure, units are moved between groups until no move gives an improvement in the criterion. This is taken as the optimum grouping.

There are three main objectives for clustering data; to find natural groupings as in taxonomy, to simplify data (data reduction) and to understand the data better than producing a distribution as a whole (relationship identification).

For a data set made up of m objects, there are m (m-1)/2 pairs in the data set. The result of this computation is commonly known as a distance or dissimilarity matrix.

2.2.3.1.3. Overlapping clustering

In this method, unlike the non-hierarchical clustering where individuals are assigned to a unique grouping, individuals may belong to more than one group.

Associations may also be expressed as similarities or distances. Similarities are usually constrained to lie in the range [0, 1] with 'self-similarities' taking the value 1. Distances or dissimilarities are complementary to similarities—they are usually nonnegative with self-distance zero. Similarities can easily be converted to distances and vice-versa.

Three types of data commonly encountered in practice are binary, qualitative (with more than two states) and quantitative (Kaufman et. al., 1990).

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Binary Data: Data is in a form of presence (1) and absence (0). Similarity coefficient is calculated by either simple matching or Jaccard's method. In the simple matching method,

Similarity coefficient = similar/ (similar + dissimilar):

and Jaccard's suggests that if a scoring in neither accession do not contribute to intersite similarity then, Similarity coefficient = only positive similar/ (similar + dissimilar).

Qualitative Data: Qualitative data is extremely varied in nature. It includes virtually any information that can be captured that is not numerical in nature. These refer to characters or qualities, and are either binary or categorical: binary, taking only two values: present (1) or absent (0); categorical, taking a value among many possibilities, and are either ordinal or nominal: Ordinal: categories that have an order and Nominal: categories that are unrelated (Aldenderfer et. al., 1984).

For characters such as colour and shape there are often more than two states of the character, and coded values are used for estimation of similarity indices. When zero pairs are available, data is adjusted as binary data.

Quantitative Data: Distances rather than similarities are considered when dealing with quantitative data. The common measure is the Euclidean distance. The general formula for the (squared) Euclidean distance between units I and j, based on p quantitative variables xk (k = 1...p) is

$$d_{ij} = (1/p)\Sigma(x_{ik} - x_{jk})^2 r_k^2$$
(Summation from k = 1 to k = p).

In the formula, the distance between units for the kth variable is divided by rk to allow for differing scales of measurement. When included, the value of r is usually set to either the standard deviation or the range of the variable, ensuring that distances do not exceed 1.

Euclidean distance is sensitive to unusually large differences between units for a single variable. A more robust alternative is the City-block or Manhattan distance measure:

$$d_{ij} = (1/p)\Sigma(x_{ik} - x_{jk})r_k$$

(Summation from k = 1 to k = p).

2.2.3.2. Ordination

Ordination is the arrangement or 'ordering' of sample units along coordinate systems. The purpose of ordination, as well as classification methods, is to interpret patterns in the composition of samples. This is a multivariate method that complements clustering, and is usually considered to be an approach that is closer to biological reality. With ordination methods, we want to represent the relationships of samples in a simple way by reducing the real situation to a 'low dimensional space' (Gauch, 1982).

In principle, ordination is both an exploratory and hypothesis-testing tool.

Numerical taxonomic techniques have been successfully used by many workers to classify variation patterns at both intra and interspecific levels (Sneath and Sokal, 1973; Chheda and Fatokun, 1982; Ariyo, 1991).

Principal component analysis (PCA) is a descriptive technique which reveals the pattern of character variation among individual accession. It further reduces multivariate data into units or component thereby accounting for a meaningful amount of variation in a population. It is however not suitable for molecular data (IPGRI and Cornell University, 2003)

2.3. Analysis of Molecular Marker Data

For molecular marker data, there are three methods for displaying relationships: principal coordinates analysis (PCoA), nonmetric multi-dimensional scaling (NMDS) and Correspondence analysis (CA).

Principal Coordinates Analysis (PCoA) also known as Multidimensional Scaling (MDS), is a more general projection method than PCA. This is because PCoA can use any distance matrix. However, because PCoA uses a distance matrix all information about the original variables is lost and the analysis relates only to the cases. Principal coordinates analysis therefore attempts to represent distances between

samples and may accommodate matrices from different dissimilarity measures. It maximizes the linear correlation between sample distances. When used with Euclidean distances, the results are identical to PCA. If the distance matrix uses Euclidean distances a PCoA and a PCA analysis would produce identical projections of the cases, even though with some possible reflections or translations.

The differences between PCoA and PCA can be are summarized as:

- PCA searches for patterns in the variables, whereas PCoA searches for similarities between cases.
- 2. PCA reduces variable dimensionality by an eigen analysis of a correlation or covariance matrix, whereas PCoA analyses a distance matrix. Many different distance matrices can be used as long as they metric, in particular they must obey the 'triangle' rule.
- 3. The result of a PCoA is a set of coordinates on a number of derived axes such that similar cases are close together. It is not possible to associate these axes with any variables. PCA however generates axes which can be associated with variables.

Nonmetric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) on the other hand works by maximizing the rank order correlation and attempting to find the best shape to accommodate the data. This technique uncovers the basic configuration from the dissimilarity sample matrix. With NMDS, only the pattern of points is relevant, not the origin, and the representation may be rotated.

Correspondence analysis (CA) repeats the averages of sample scores and finds spots where all samples falling in the same spot are as similar as possible and, simultaneously, samples at different spots are as different as possible.

2.4 Concept of Core Collection

Core collections were first defined as a limited set of accessions which represents, with a minimum of repetitiveness, the genetic diversity of a crop species and its wild relatives (Frankel, 1984). This was later modified as "a limited set of accessions derived from an existing germplasm collection, chosen to represent the genetic spectrum in the whole collection, and including as much as possible of its genetic diversity" (Brown, 1994). It is also defined as "a germplasm collection optimally representing specific genetic diversity", implying that size, type and origin of a core collection depends on the requirements of the compiler (van Hintum, 1990).

A core collection can be based on a single existing collection or on several existing collections, but it can also be a newly created entity. It can represent the diversity in a complete genus, including wild species, or the diversity in a small part of the genepool. It can contain as much diversity as possible, but can also give higher priority to a certain type of material, reducing the total amount of diversity captured (van Hintum, 1990).

Numerous examples of the establishment of core collections that have been published including a core collection representing the complete US germplasm collection of peanut (Holbrook et al., 1993), cultivated Brassica oleracea in European collections (Boukema and Hintum, 1994), lentil accessions from Chile, Greece and Turkey (Erskine and Muehlbauer, 1991), the entire genepool of Hordeum (Hintum et al., 1990), local maize populations with a good combining ability (Radovic and Jelovac, 1994) and Pisum sativum germplasm with disease resistance (Matthews and Ambrose, 1994).

Numerous approaches have been adopted in an effort to select a representative sample of a collection-from random selection (random core), to sequential set selection

and equidistant core (selection of accessions with accession numbers ending with a five or zero).

The general procedure for creating a core collection can be divided in four steps:

- Define the material that should be represented, i.e. the domain of the core collection. This can be a crop and its wild relatives, but can also be a small part of the diversity of a crop such as material with specific traits or from a specific origin region.
- 2. Divide the domain in types, which should be genetically as distinct as possible.
- Choose the number of entries in the core, and allocate them over the types based on the relative importance of, and diversity in the type.
- Select the entries from each type that are to be included in the core. This selection
 can be made randomly, or if additional data are available, on the basis of these data.

The objective should be to best represent the diversity in the group. Also practical considerations can play a role in this choice, such as the availability of the seeds and the reliability and quantity of the data on the accession, since it is desirable to have readily available, authentic and well documented material in the core.

A major problem of the management of ex situ plant genetic resources (PGR) is the low accessibility of the collections (van Hintum, 1990). These core collections were invented to increase the accessibility of germplasm collections; low accessibility implies low utilization and difficult management. A core collection therefore offers a good starting point for searches for new traits, and can be used for in-depth evaluation increasing the knowledge of the entire collection (van Hintum, 1990).

All in all the concept of core collection is relevant in germplasm management as it was first proposed.



3.0 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Study Areas

The accessions were collected from four yam growing agroecological zones in Ghana: Coastal Savannah (Bodwease, Mankrong and Bontrase), Forest (Fumesua and Ejisu), Forest-Savannah Transition Zone (Ejura, Wenchi, Techiman, and Kintampo), and Guinea Savannah (East Gonja, Tolon/Kubungu, Nanumba North and Nanumba South) (Fig. 1). These study areas were selected because; the crop has co-existed with the people in these locations from time immemorial and rich in farmers' *Pona* varieties and *Pona* look-alikes. Hence they would be suitable for characterization and classification of the *Pona* collection.

3.2 Germplasm Collection

The general approach to the *Pona* diversity studies was to combine ethno-botany (indigenous or folk) taxonomy, morphological and molecular characterization methods. Ethno-botany classification was employed at the following stages of evaluation: at time of collection of accessions, vegetative and harvesting stages of the accessions. A total of 66 *Pona-Laribako* tubers or seedyams including *Laribako*-la and *Laribako*-nya (supposed male and female respectively) and 1 *Muchumudu* accession were collected from the study areas.

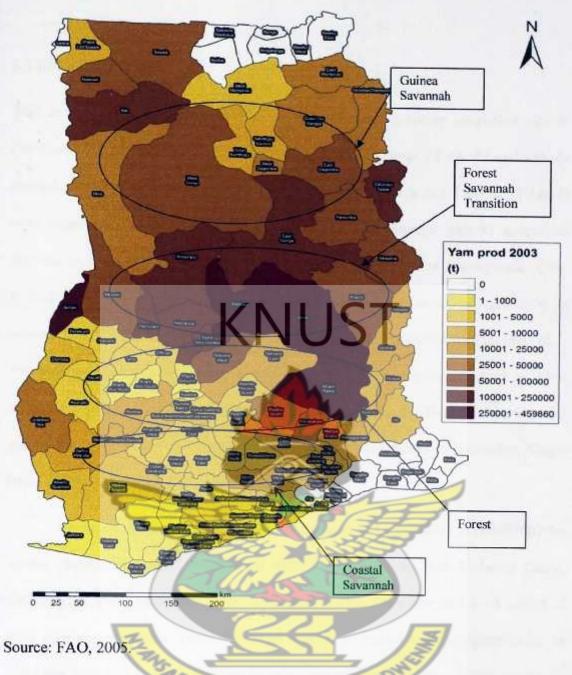


Fig. 1.Yam production map of Ghana showing where Pona accessions were collected.

3.3 Evaluation

This activity was conducted at CSIR-Crops Research Institute on-station site at Fumesua, Kumasi, Ghana and some farmer fields. A total of 66 *Pona-Laribako* accessions including 3 released *Pona* varieties, 1 *Muchumudu* and 1 *Dente* (Table 1) were planted in April 2006 and reclassified by expert farmers' into 91 accessions consisting of 43 *Laribako*, 40 true *Pona*, 5 *Kulunku* and 1 each of *Muchumudu*, 'CRI-Kukrupa', and *Dente* (Table 2). Tuber setts (300-400g) were planted in April 2006 on mounds at a spacing of 1.5m x 1.5m. Yam mounds was singly staked with bamboo of 2-3m high to enhance good canopy expression. Weeding was manually done as when necessary. No chemical amendments were applied to the soils. The aerial parts of the plant were assessed through May – August, the harvested tubers in December. Single harvesting was conducted in December 2006.

The study was repeated in 2007 by planting the 91 accessions in April 2007 for further characterization in Augmented RCBD with 3 blocks and 3 checks Dente, CRIKukrupa and MankrongPona as replicated checks. Each row had 8-10 clones of each accession, 5 plants were selected at random to record morphological traits. In 2007, the field was laid to reflect the order given by the dendogram of 2006 results, so that similar morphotypes could be grown close to each other and compared more accurately. These morphological descriptions were repeated over two years to verify the accuracy of the rated morphological traits.

Table 1: Original List of Pona-Laribako accessions collected and used for the study.

TINGOLI TINGOLI O9-22.514N;001°00.580W KINTAMPO TINGOLI BODWEASE WENCHI BINDA BINDA BINDA TECHIMAN TECHIMAN TECHIMAN TECHIMAN BINDA O9-22.514N;001°00.580W O9-22.514N;001°00.580W O9-22.514N;001°00.580W O9-22.514N;001°00.580W O7-34.842N;001°00.580W O7-34.842N;001°00.580W TECHIMAN O7-34.842N;001°56.846W TECHIMAN O7-34.842N;001°56.846W TECHIMAN O7-34.842N;001°56.846W TECHIMAN O7-34.842N;001°56.846W TECHIMAN O9-22.514N;001°00.580W TECHIMAN O7-34.842N;001°56.846W TROGOLI O9-22.514N;001°00.580W TROGOLI O9-22.514N;001°00.580W TROGOLI O9-22.514N;001°00.580W TROGOLI O9-22.514N;001°00.580W TROGOLI O9-22.514N;001°00.580W TROGOLI O9-22.514N;001°00.580W	SNO	NO	CODE FOR ACCESSION		ACCESSION NAME	DISTRICT	VILLAGE	COORDINATES	ELEVATIONA
Pona		101			Laribako	TOLON/KUBUNGU	TINGOLI	09°22.514N;001°00,580W	162
Pona		102			Laribako	TOLON/KUBUNGU	TINGOLI	09-22.514N:001-00.580W	291
Larfoako		103			Pona	KINTAMPO	KINTAMPO		! .
Formation		104			Lambako	TOLON/KUBUNGU	TINGOLI	09°22.514N:001°00.580W	(31
Pons WINNEBA BODWEASE 05-35'W KULILKU WENCHI WENCHI 07-44'N 2"7W KULILKU NANUMBA SOUTH BINDA 08-55.083N;000-02.9.084W S-087 KULUKU NANUMBA NORTH KALANDE 08-56.083N;000-02.9.084W S-087 KULUKU NANUMBA NORTH BINDA 08-56.083N;000-02.9.084W Lanbako NANUMBA NORTH BINBILLA 08-56.083N;000-02.9.084W Lanbako NANUMBA NORTH BINBILLA 08-56.083N;001-00.580W Pona TECHIMAN TECHIMAN 07-34.842N;001-00.580W Pona TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 07-34.842N;001-06.580W Lanbako TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 09-22.514N;001-00.580W Lanbako TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 09-22.514N;001-00.580W LARBRAKO-LAA NANUMBA SOUTH BINDA 08-56.083N;000-00.53E		105			Laribako	KINTAMPO	KINTAMPO		7
KULRUPA WENCHI WENCHI WENCHI KULUKU NANUMBA SOUTH BINDA 08°55.083N;000°00.053E S-087 KULUKU NANUMBA NORTH KALANDE 08°55.083N;000°02.9084W S-087 KULUKU NANUMBA SOUTH BINDA 08°55.083N;000°02.9084W Laribako NANUMBA NORTH TINGOLI 09°52.514N;001°00.580W Laribako TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 09°22.514N;001°00.580W Pona TECHIMAN TECHIMAN 07°34.842N;001°56.846W Pona TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 09°22.514N;001°00.580W Laribako TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 09°22.514N;001°00.580W Pona TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 09°22.514N;001°00.580W Pona TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 09°22.514N;001°00.580W Pona TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 09°22.514N;001°00.580W (Pona) NANUMBA SOUTH BINDA 08°56.083N;000°00.033E		106			Pons	WINNEBA	BODWEASE	05°35'N 0°35'W	,
KULLEKU NANUMBA NORTH KALANDE 08e56.083N;000e00.053E		107	CRI KUKRUPA	Z	KUKRUPA	WENCHI	WENCHI	W.7°2 N.74-00	
Fond Figure Fig		108		W	KULUKU	NANUMBA SOUTH	BINDA	08o56.083N:000o00 053F	761
5-087 KULUKU NANTMBA SOUTH BINDA 08-56.083N,000°-00.653E Pona TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 08-56.083N,000°-00.53E Laribako TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 08-53.669N,000°-04.793E Pona TECHIMAN TECHIMAN TECHIMAN Pona TOLON/KUBUNGU TECHIMAN 07-34.842N,001°-56.846W Pona TOLON/KUBUNGU TECHIMAN 07-34.842N,001°-56.846W Laribako TOLON/KUBUNGU KPALISOGU 09-22.514N,001°-05.80W Pona TOLON/KUBUNGU KPALISOGU 09-22.514N,001°-00.580W LARBRAKO-LAA NANUMBA SOUTH BINDA 08-26.083N,000°-00.53E		109		3	Laribako	NANUMBA NORTH	KALANDE	08°35.985N:000°29.084W	174
Ponta TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 09°22.514N;001°00.580W Laribako NANUMBA NOKTH BIMBILLA 08°53.669N;000°04.793E Ponta TECHIMAN TECHIMAN TECHIMAN Ponta TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 09°22.514N;001°00.580W Laribako TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 09°22.514N;001°00.580W Laribako TOLON/KUBUNGU KPALISOGU 09°22.514N;001°00.580W Ponta TOLON/KUBUNGU KPALISOGU 09°22.514N;001°00.580W Ponta TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 09°22.514N;001°00.580W Ponta TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 09°22.514N;001°00.580W Ponta TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 09°22.514N;001°00.580W Ponta TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 09°22.514N;001°00.580W		110		SA	KULUKU	NANUMBA SOUTH	BINDA	08°56.083N:000°00.053E	196
Laribako NANUMBA NOKTH BIMBILLA 08*53.669N;000°04.793E Laribako TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 09°22.514N;001°00.580W Pona TECHIMAN TECHIMAN 07°34.842N;001°56.846W Pona TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 09°22.514N;001°00.580W Laribako TOLON/KUBUNGU TECHIMAN 09°22.514N;001°00.580W Pona TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 09°22.513N;001°00.580W LARBRAKO-LAA NANUMBA SOUTH BINDA 08°56.083N;000°00.53F		111	EOZT/06/155-164	NE	Pona	TOLON/KUBUNGU	TINGOLI	09°22.514N;001°00.580W	162
Laribako TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 09°22.514N;001°00.580W Pona TECHIMAN TECHIMAN TECHIMAN O7°34.842N;001°56.846W Pona TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 09°22.514N;001°05.580W Laribako TOLON/KUBUNGU TRCHIMAN 07°34.842N;001°05.580W Pona TOLON/KUBUNGU KPALISOGU 09°22.514N;001°00.580W Pona TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 09°22.514N;001°00.580W Pona TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 09°22.514N;001°00.580W Pona NANUMBA SOUTH BINDA 08°56.083N:000°00.053F		112		N	Laribako	NANUMBANORTH	BIMBILLA	08°53.669N:000°04.793E	186
Pona TECHIMAN TECHIMAN TECHIMAN TECHIMAN TECHIMAN 07°34.842N;001°56.846W Pona TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 09°22.514N;001°00.56.846W Laribako TOLON/KUBUNGU TECHIMAN 07°34.842N;001°00.580W Pona TOLON/KUBUNGU KPALISOGU 09°22.514N;001°00.580W LARBRAKO-LAA TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 09°22.514N;001°00.580W (Pona) NANUMBA SOUTH BINDA 08°56.083N;000°00.053E		113		0	Laribako	TOLON/KUBUNGU	TINGOLI	09°22.514N:001°00.580W	291
Pona TECHIMAN TECHIMAN TECHIMAN 07°34.842N;001°56.846W Pona TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 09°22.514N;001°00.580W Laribako TOLON/KUBUNGU KPALISOGU 09°22.513N;001°00.580W Pona TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 09°22.514N;001°00.580W LARBRAKO-LAA NANUMBA SOUTH BINDA 08°56.083N;000°00.053F		114		>	Pons	TECHIMAN	TECHIMAN	07°34.842N,001°56.846W	392
Pona TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 09°22.514N;001°00.580W Laribako TECHIMAN TECHIMAN 07°34.842N;001°00.580W Laribako TOLON/KUBUNGU KPALISOGU 09°22.513N;001°00560W Pona TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 09°22.514N;001°00.580W LARBRAKO-LAA NANUMBA SOUTH BINDA 08°56.083N:000°00.053F		1115			Pona	TECHIMAN	TECHIMAN	07°34.842N:001°56.846W	392
Laribako TECHIMAN TECHIMAN 07°34.842N,001°56.846W Laribako TOLON/KUBUNGU KPALISOGU 09°22.513N,001°00560W Pona TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 09°22.514N,001°00.580W LARBRAKO-LAA NANUMBA SOUTH BINDA 08°56.083N.000°00.053F		116			Pona	TOLONYKUBUNGU	TINGOLI	09°22.514N:001°00.580W	691
Laribako TOLON/KUBUNGU KPALISOGU 09°22.513N;001°00560W Pona TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 09°22.514N;001°00.580W LARBRAKO-LAA INANUMBA SOUTH BINDA 08°56.083N:000°00.053F		117			Laribako	TECHIMAN	TECHIMAN	07°34.842N:001°56.846W	392
Pona TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 09°22.514N;001°00.580W LARBRAKO-LAA (Pona) NANUMBA SOUTH BINDA 08°56.083N:000°00.053F		118			Laribako	TOLON/KUBUNGU	KPALISOGU	09°22.513N:001°00560W	162
(Pona) NANUMBA SOUTH BINDA 08°56.083N:000°00.053F		1119			Pona	TOLON/KUBUNGU	TINGOLI	W082 00:100 14N-00:00 580W	591
		120	EOZW/06/043-046		LARBRAKO-LAA (Pona)	NANUMBA SOUTH	BINDA	08°56.083N.000°00.053E	y61

	174	162	162	174	162	202	174	162	174	174	174		158	162	186	163	162	392	156	158	163	186	162
	08°35.985N;000°29.084W	09°22.514N;001°00.580W	09°22.514N;001°00.580W	08°35.985N;000°29.084W	09°22.514N;001°00.580W	08°56.085N,000°00.053E	08°35.985N,000°29.084W	09°22.514N;001°00.580W	08°35.988N;000°29.085W	08°35.985N;000°29.084W	08°35.988N;000°29.085W	05°35'N 0°35'W	08°33.060N;000°31.198W	09°22.514N;001°00.580W	08°53.669N;000°04.793E	08°56.083N;000°00,53E	09°22.514N;001°00.580W	07°34.842N;001°56.846W	09-23.930N;001-00.744W	08°33.060N;000°31.198W	08°56.083N;000°00.53E	08°53.776N;000°02.536W	09-22.514N;001-00.580W
	KALANDE	TINGOLI	TINGOLI	KALANDE	TINGOLI	DAMON NA YILI	KALANDE	TINGOLI	KALANDE	KALANDE	KALANDE	BODWEASE	SALAGA	TINGOLI	BIMBILLA	NAKPAYIII	TINGOLI	TECHIMAN	KPALISOGU	SALAGA	NAKPAYILI	BIMBILLA	TINGOLI
	NANUMBA NORTH	TOLON/KUBUNGU	TOLON/KUBUNGU	NANUMBA NORTH	TOLON/KUBUNGU	NANUMBA NORTH	NANUMBA NORTH	TOLON/KUBUNGU	NANUMBA NORTH	NANUMBA NORTH	NANUMBA NORTH	WINNEBA	EAST GONJA	TOLON/KUBUNGU	NANUMBANORTH	NANUMBA SOUTH	TOLON/KUBUNGU	TECHIMAN	TOLON/KUBUNGU	EAST GONJA	NANUMBA SOUTH	NANUMBA NORTH	TOLON/KUBUNGU
	Pona	Pona	Pona	Pona	Laribako	Pona	Ропа	Pona	Pona	Laribako	Laribako	y Dente	Laribako	Pona P	Forma A	Pona	Laribako	Laribako	Popa	Pona	KULUKU	Laribako	Pona
	7	4	4	6	82	6	/ 15	4	2	33	3		4	4	1		63	33	4			-	4
ned.	EOZK/06/145-154	EOZT/06/175-184	EOZT/06/225-234	EOZK/06/113-119	EOYT/06/184-193	EOZB/06/030-039	EOZK/06/127-131	EOZT/06/205-214	EOZS/06/103-112	EOYK/06/124-133	EOYS/06/109-113	ASA	EOYE/06/001-004	EOZT/06/185-194	EOZB/06/002-011	EOZ/06/035-044	EOYT/06/204-213	EOYT/06/284-293	EOZT/06/265-274	EOZ/06/013-119	EOYW/06/064	EOYS/06/154-161	EOZT/06/235-244
Table I continued.	121	122	123	124	125	176	127	128	179	130	131	132	133	134	135	136	137	138	139	140	141	142	143
Table	21	22	23	24	25	26	23	28	23	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	36	40	4	42	8

	186	162	196	162	196	209	174	209	174	163	392	162	156	174	202	162	162			ii.	156		
	08°53.776N;000°02.536W	09°22.514N;001°00,580W	08°45.974N,000°03.329E	09°22.514N;001°00.580W	08°45.974N;000°03.329E	08°55.539N,000°.872W	08°35.985N;000°29.084W	06°41N, 1°28'W	08°35,985N;000°29.084W	08°56.083N,000°00.53E	07°34.842N;001°56.846W	09°22.514N;001°00.580W	09°23.930N;001°00.744W	08°35.985N;000°29.084W	08°56.085N,000°00.053E	09°22.514N;001°00.580W	09°22.514N,001°00.580W	08°35.985N;000°29.084W	09°22.514N;001°00.580W	09°22.514N;001°00.580W	09°23.930N;001°00.744W	.0	09°22.513N;001°00560W
	BIMBILLA	TINGOLI	NASAMBA	TINGOLI	NASAMBA	PUSUGA	KALANDE	FUMESUA	KALANDE	NAKPAYILI	TECHIMAN	TINGOLI	KPALISOGU	KALANDE	DAMON NA YILI	TINGOLI	TINGOLI	KALANDE	TINGOLI	TINGOLI	KPALISOGU		KPALISOGU
	NANUMBA NORTH	TOLON/KUBUNGU	NANUMBA SOUTH	TOLON/KUBUNGU	NANUMBA SOUTH	NANUMBA NORTH	NANUMBA NORTH	EJISU	NANUMBA NORTH	NANUMBA SOUTH	TECHIMAN	TOTON/KUBUNGU	TOLON/KUBUNGU	NANUMBA NORTH	NANUMBA NORTH	TOLON/KUBUNGU	TOLON/KUBUNGU	NANUMBA NORTH	TOLON/KUBUNGU	TOLON/KUBUNGU	TOLON/KURINGU	74	TOLON/KUBUNGU
	Pona	Pona	LARBRAKO-LAA	Laribako	LARBRAKO-NYA	Laribako	Laribako	Pona	Poda	KDLUKU	Pona	y Pona	Laribako	Pona P	Laribako	Laribako	Laribako	Laribako	Laribako	Laribako	Ропа	HYBRID	Pona
ned.	EOZKP/06/134-139	EOZT/06/245-254	EOYW/06/098-102	EOYT/06/234-243	EOYW/06/103-108	EOYB/06/004-011	EOYK/06/144-153	CRIPona	EOZS/06/155-160	EOYW/06/055-063	EOZT/06/285-294	EOZT/06/165-174	EOYT/06/264-273	EOZK/06/140-144	EOYB/06/045-054	EOYT/06/194-203	EOYT/06/244-253	EOY/06/014-033	EOYK.06/144-123	EOYT/06/214-223	EOZ/06/255-264	MANKRONG Pona	EOZB/06/020-029
Table 1 continued.	# 41	45 145	46 146	47 147	48 148	49 149	50 150	151 15	52 152	53 153	54 154	55 155	95 156	22 157	58 158	59 159	091 09	61 161	62 162	63 163	64 164	92 165	991 99

Table 2. Reclassification of accessions based on expert farmer knowledge.

101 EOVT/06/224-238 Laribako TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 09-22.514/001-00.580W 162 102 EOVT/06/164-173 Laribako TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 09-22.514/001-00.580W 162 104 EOYT/06/164-173 Laribako TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 09-22.514/001-00.580W 162 104 EOYT/06/164-173 Laribako KINTAMPO KINTAMPO KINTAMPO 162 106 EOYT/06/164-173 Laribako KINTAMPO KINTAMPO 162 162 106 EOYT/06/164-103 Para MINTAMPO KINTAMPO 162 162 107 CRI KUKRUPA KULIKRUPA MINTAMPO MINTAMPO 162-41/12/27/W 162 107 CRI KUKRUPA KULIKRUPA MINTAMPO MINTAMPO 162-41/12/27/W 174 108 EOYW/06/088-097 KULIKKU NANUMBA NORTH BINDA 168-53-58/NO00-00-038 196 109 EOYW/06/08-18-188 Laribako NANUMBA NORTH BINDA 178-50-10-10-10-10-10-10-10-10-10-10-10-10-10	PEG NO.	CODE FOR ACCESSION	ACCESSION N NAME	DISTRICT	VILLAGE	COORDINATES	ELEVATION/M
EOYT/06/164-173 Laribako TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 09*22514N;001-00.580W EOYT/06/164-173 Laribako TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 09*22514N;001-00.580W EOYT/06/154-1(63 Laribako TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 09*22514N;001-00.580W EOZE/W06/120-126 Laribako KINTAMPO KINTAMPO KINTAMPO EOZE/W06/120-126 Laribako WINNEBA BODWEASE 05*35 N 0-35 W EOZE/W06/047-043 KULKKUPA WENCHI WENCHI 07*44 N 25 W CRI KUKRUPA KULLKU WENCHI WENCHI 07*44 N 25 W CRI KUKRUPA KULLKU NANUMBA SOUTH MENCHI 07*44 N 25 W EOYW/06/088-097 Laribako NANUMBA SOUTH BINDA 08*56.0830,000-00.53E 1 EOYK/06/134-138 Laribako TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 09*22.5140,001-00.580W 1 EOYT/06/155-164 Roas TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 09*22.5140,001-00.580W 1 EOYT/06/17-08/14-183 Laribako TECHIMAN TECHIMAN 07*34.8420001-00.580W	10		Laribako	TOLON/KUBUNGU	TINGOLI	09°22.514N:001°00.580W	163
EOZYTO6/25-284 Pona KINTAMPO KINTAMPO	10.		Laribako	TOLON/KUBUNGU	TINGOLI	09-22 514N-001-00 580W	7 J.
EOYT/06/154-163 Jarpkako TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 09-22.514N;001-00.580W EOZKIP/06/120-126 Azribako KINTAMPO KINTAMPO KINTAMPO KINTAMPO EOZW/06/054-063 Pona WINNEBA BODWEASE 05-551 N 0-35 W EOZW/06/054-069 KUKRUPA WENCHI WENCHI 07-44 N 2-7W CRI KUKRUPA KULIKUPA WENCHI 07-44 N 2-7W CRI KUKRUPA KULIKUPA WENCHI 07-44 N 2-7W EOYW/06/081-097 RULIKUPA NANUMBA SOUTH BINDA 06-55 083N;000-00 053E EOYW/06/093-097 Pona TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 09-22.514N;001-00.58E EOYW/06/093-097 RULIKU NANUMBA SOUTH BINDA 06-55 083N;000-00.053E EOYW/06/094-093 Laribako NANUMBA NORTH BINDA 08-35 083N;000-00.053E EOYT/06/124-183 Laribako TECHIMAN TECHIMAN 07-34 842N;001-90.580W EOYT/06/125-164 Pona TECHIMAN TECHIMAN 07-34 842N;001-90.580W EOYT/06/275-284 Pona TECHIMAN	100		Pona	KINTAMPO	KINTAMPO		701
EOZEWP06/120-126 Estabako KINTAMPO KINTAMPO KINTAMPO KINTAMPO EOZEWP06/120-128 Pariatako WINNEBA BODWEASE OS-35'N 0-35'W EOZEW/06/047-083 Pariatako WINNEBA BODWEASE OS-35'N 0-35'W EOZEW/06/054-099 Laritako WENCHH WENCHH OF-44'N 2*'W CRI KUKRUPA KULIKUPA WENCHH WENCHH OF-44'N 2*'W EOYW/06/093-097 Paria NANUMBA SOUTH BINDA O6-56 083N;000-00 053E 1 EOYW/06/093-097 Paria TOLON/KUBA SOUTH BINDA O6-56 083N;000-00 053E 1 EOYW/06/095-097 RULIKU NANUMBA NORTH BINDA O6-56 083N;000-00 053E 1 EOYT/06/155-164 Paria TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI O9-22 514N;001-00.580W 1 EOYT/06/155-164 Paria TECHIMAN TECHIMAN TECHIMAN O7-34 842N;001-00.586W 3 EOYT/06/295-301 Pariatoko TECHIMAN TECHIMAN TECHIMAN TECHIMAN O7-34 842N;001-00.586WW 3	100		Lambako	TOLON/KUBUNGU	TINGOLI	09°27 514N-001000 58000	621
EOZW/06/047-033 Pons WINNESA BODWEASE 05/35 N 0-35 W EOZW/06/054-099 Laffako WINNESA BODWEASE 05/35 N 0-35 W CRI KUKRUPA KUKRUPA WENCHI WENCHI 07/44 N 20 W CRI KUKRUPA KULUKU WENCHI WENCHI 07/44 N 20 W COYW/06/088-097 KULUKU NANUMBA SOUTH BINDA 08/56 083N;000c00.053E EOYW/06/093-097 Pons NANUMBA NORTH BINDA 08/56 083N;000c00.053E EOYW/06/093-097 AULUKU NANUMBA NORTH BINDA 08/55 083N;000c00.053E EOYW/06/094-013 Laribako NANUMBA NORTH BINDA 08/55 083N;000c00.053E EOYZ/06/155-164 Pons TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 09/22 514N;001-00.580W EOYZ/06/275-284 Pons TECHIMAN TECHIMAN 07/34 84ZN;001-65.846W EOZZ/06/275-284 Pons TECHIMAN TECHIMAN 07/34 84ZN;001-65.846W EOZZ/06/275-224 Pons TECHIMAN TECHIMAN 07/34 84ZN;001-65.846W EOZZ/06/275-224 Pons TE	10		Lanibako	KINTAMPO	KINTAMPO	W000000 100% 110000	707
EOZW/06/054-099 Laricako WINNEBA BODWEASE 05-35 N 0-35 W CRI KUKRUPA KUKRUPA WENCHI WENCHI 07-44 N 2-7 W CRI KUKRUPA KUKRUPA WENCHI 07-44 N 2-7 W EOYW/06/08-097 KULUKU NANUMBA SOUTH BINDA 08-35 083N;000000.033E EOYW/06/08-097 Fona NANUMBA NORTH RALANDE 08-35 083N;000-00.033E EOYW/06/08-087 KULUKU NANUMBA NORTH BINDA 08-35 083N;000-00.033E EOYU-06/06-03-087 KULUKU NANUMBA NORTH BINDA 08-35 083N;000-02.084W EOYU-06/06-13-164 Pona TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 09-22 514N;001-00.580W EOYU-06/174-183 Laribako TECHIMAN TECHIMAN 07-34 842N;001-05.5846W EOZI/06/275-284 Pona TECHIMAN TECHIMAN 07-34 842N;001-05.5846W EOZI/06/275-284 Pona TOLON/KUBUNGU TECHIMAN 07-34 842N;001-05.5846W EOZI/06/275-284 Pona TOLON/KUBUNGU TECHIMAN 07-34 842N;001-05.5846W EOXI/06/274-278 Laribako	10		Pons	WINNEBA	BODWEASE	05°35'W 0°35'W	
CRI KUKRUPA KUKRUPA WENCHI WENCHI OPA41N 297W CRI KUKRUPA KUKRUPA WENCHI WENCHI OPA41N 297W EOYW/06/088-097 KULUKU NANUMBA SOUTH BINDA 08656.083N;000c00.053E EOYW/06/088-097 Pona NANUMBA SOUTH BINDA 08656.083N;000c00.053E EOYW/06/088-097 Larbako NANUMBA SOUTH BINDA 08656.083N;000c00.053E EOYL/06/134-138 Larbako NANUMBA SOUTH BINDA 08656.083N;000c00.053E EOYL/06/135-164 Pena TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 0922.514N;00100.580W EOYL/06/14-183 Larbako TECHIMAN TECHIMAN TECHIMAN EOYL/06/205-284 Pona TECHIMAN TECHIMAN 07-34.842N;001-56.846W EOZI/06/205-304 Pona TECHIMAN TECHIMAN 07-34.842N;001-56.846W EOXI/06/205-224 Pona TECHIMAN TECHIMAN 09-34.842N;001-56.846W EOXI/06/205-224 Pona TECHIMAN TECHIMAN 09-34.842N;001-56.846W EOXI/06/205-224 Pona TE	106		Laribako	WINNEBA	BODWEASE	05°35'N 0°35'W	
CRI KUKRUPA KUKRUPA WENCHI WENCHI WENCHI EOYW/06/088-097 KULLIKU NANUMBA SOUTH BINDA 08-55.083N;000-00.053E EOYW/06/093-097 Pona NANUMBA NORTH BINDA 08-55.083N;000-00.053E EOYW/06/093-097 Pona NANUMBA NORTH BINDA URS-56.083N;000-00.053E EOYUK/06/155-164 Pona TOLONKUBA NORTH BINDA URS-56.083N;000-00.053E EOYUK/06/155-164 Pona TOLONKUBA NORTH BINBILLA 09-22.514N;001-00.580W EOYT/06/155-164 Pona TECHIMAN TECHIMAN 07-34.842N;001-95.84W EOYT/06/275-284 Pona TECHIMAN TECHIMAN 07-34.842N;001-95.846W EOZT/06/295-301 Pona TECHIMAN TECHIMAN 07-34.842N;001-95.846W EOZT/06/215-224 Pona TECHIMAN TECHIMAN 07-34.842N;001-95.884W EOYT/06/275-224 Pona TECHIMAN TECHIMAN 07-34.842N;001-90.580W	10,		MO	WENCHI	WENCHI	W-7-64 N 267-W	
EOYW/06/088-097 KULLUKU NANUMBA SOUTH BINDA 086-56.083N;000-00.053E EOYW/06/093-097 Pona NANUMBA NORTH RALANDE 086-56.083N;000-00.053E EOYK/06/134-138 Laribako NANUMBA NORTH KALANDE 088-35.985N;000-029.084W EOXT/06/155-164 Pona TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 099-25.14N;001-00.280W EOXT/06/155-164 Pona TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 099-25.14N;001-00.580W EOXT/06/104-138 Laribako TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 099-25.514N;001-00.580W EOXT/06/275-284 Pona TECHIMAN TECHIMAN TECHIMAN 07-94.842N;001-56.846W EOZT/06/275-284 Pona TECHIMAN TECHIMAN TECHIMAN 07-94.842N;001-56.846W EOZT/06/275-224 Pona TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 09-22.514N;001-00.580W EOXT/06/275-224 Pona TECHIMAN TECHIMAN 07-94.842N;001-56.846W EOXT/06/275-224 Pona TECHIMAN TECHIMAN 07-94.842N;001-56.846W	107		0.000	WENCHI	WENCHI	W.755 V-3450	
EOYW/06/093-097 Pona NANUMBA SOUTH BINDA 08656.083N;000-00.053E EOYK/06/134-138 Laribako NANUMBA NORTH KALANDE D8°35.98SN;000-00.053E EOYK/UKU/06/065-087 KULUKU NANUMBA NORTH BINDA 08°55.083N;000-00.053E EOXT/06/155-164 Pona TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 09°22.514N;001:00.580W EOXT/06/155-164 Pona TECHIMAN TECHIMAN 07°34.842N;001:96.846W EOXT/06/275-284 Pona TECHIMAN TECHIMAN 07°34.842N;001:96.846W EOZT/06/215-224 Pona TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 09°22.514N;001:96.846W EOZT/06/215-224 Pona TECHIMAN TECHIMAN 07°34.842N;001:96.846W EOZT/06/215-224 Pona TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 09°22.514N;001:90.56.846W EOXT/06/215-224 Pona TECHIMAN TECHIMAN 07°34.842N;001:90.56.846W	108		KULUKU	NANUMBA SOUTH	BINDA	08.56 083N:00000 053E	707
EOYK/06/134-138 Laribako NANUMBA NORTH KALANDE D8-35.985N;000-29.084W EOXULUKU/06/065-087 KULUKU NANUMBA NORTH BINDA 08922.514N;001-00.580W EOXT/06/155-164 Pona TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 09922.514N;001-00.580W EOYT/06/174-183 Laribako TECHIMAN TECHIMAN TECHIMAN 07-34.842N;001-56.846W EOZT/06/275-284 Pona TECHIMAN TECHIMAN TECHIMAN 07-34.842N;001-56.846W EOZT/06/275-224 Pona TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 09-22.514N;001-56.846W EOZT/06/215-224 Pona TECHIMAN TECHIMAN 07-34.842N;001-56.846W EOZT/06/274-278 Laribako TECHIMAN TECHIMAN 09-34.842N;001-56.846W	108		Pona	NANTUMBA SOUTH	BINDA	08o56.083N:000o00.053E	196
EOKULUKU/06/065-087 KULUKU NANUNIBA SOUTH BINDA 08°55.083N;000~00.53E FOZT/06/155-164 Pona TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 09°22.514N;001°00.580W EOYT/06/174-183 Laribako TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 08°52.69N;000°04.793E EOYT/06/174-183 Laribako TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 09°22.514N;001°00.580W EOZT/06/275-284 Pona TECHIMAN TECHIMAN 07°34.842N;001°56.846W EOZT/06/295-301 Laribako TECHIMAN TECHIMAN 07°34.842N;001°56.846W EOZT/06/215-224 Pona TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 09°22.514N;001°00.580W EOZT/06/215-224 Laribako TECHIMAN TECHIMAN 07°34.842N;001°05.58.946W	10		Laribako	NANTIMBA NORTH	KALANDE	WASO 0000 NS80 25:080	174
EOZT/06/155-164 Pona TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 09922 514N;001:00.580W EOYT/06/155-164 Laribako NANUMBA NORTH BIMBILLA 08°53.669N;000:04.793E EOYT/06/174-183 Laribako TECHIMAN TECHIMAN 07°34.842N;001:56.846W EOZT/06/275-284 Pona TECHIMAN TECHIMAN 07°34.842N;001:56.846W EOZT/06/302-304 Laribako TECHIMAN TECHIMAN 07°34.842N;001:56.846W EOZT/06/215-224 Pona TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 09°22.514N;001:00.580W EOYT/06/215-224 Pona TECHIMAN TECHIMAN 07°34.842N;001:56.846W EOYT/06/215-224 Laribako TECHIMAN TECHIMAN 09°22.514N;001:00.56.846W	11		NO	NANUMBA SOUTH	BINDA	08°56 083N 00000 053F	106
EOYT/06/174-183 Laribako NANUMBA NORTH BIMBILLA 08°53.669N;000°04.793E EOYT/06/174-183 Laribako TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 09°22.514N;001°00.580W EOZT/06/295-301 Pona TECHIMAN TECHIMAN TECHIMAN 07°34.842N;001°56.846W EOZT/06/295-304 Laribako TECHIMAN TECHIMAN O7°34.842N;001°56.846W EOZT/06/215-224 Pona TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 09°22.514N;001°00.580W EOYT/06/274-278 Laribako TECHIMAN TECHIMAN TECHIMAN O7°34.842N;001°56.846W	Ξ		Pona	TOLON/KUBUNGU	TINGOLI	09922 514N:001:00 580W	571
EOYT/06/174-183 Laribako TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 09°22.514N;001•00.580W EOZT/06/275-284 Pona TECHIMAN TECHIMAN TECHIMAN 07°34.842N;001•56.846W EOZT/06/295-304 Laribako TECHIMAN TECHIMAN 07°34.842N;001•56.846W EOZT/06/215-224 Pona TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 09°22.514N;001•00.580W EOYT/06/274-278 Laribako TECHIMAN TECHIMAN 07°34.842N;001•56.846W	11		Laribako	NANUMBA NORTH	BIMBILLA	08°53 669N:000004 793F	781
EOZT/06/275-284 Pona TECHIMAN TECHIMAN TECHIMAN 07°34.842N;001°56.846W EOZT/06/295-301 Pona TECHIMAN TECHIMAN 07°34.842N;001°56.846W EOZT/06/302-304 Laribako TECHIMAN TECHIMAN 07°34.842N;001°56.846W EOZT/06/215-224 Pona TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 09°22.514N;001°00.580W EOYT/06/274-278 Laribako TECHIMAN TECHIMAN 07°34.842N;001°56.846W	113		Laribako	TOLON/KUBUNGU	TINGOLI	09°22 514N:001°00 580W	691
EOZT/06/295-301 Pona TECHIMAN TECHIMAN 07°34.842N;001°56.846W EOZT/06/302-304 Laribako TECHIMAN TINGOLI 07°34.842N;001°56.846W EOZT/06/215-224 Pona TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 09°22.514N;001°00.580W EOYT/06/274-278 Laribako TECHIMAN TECHIMAN 07°34.842N;001°56.846W	117		Pona	TECHIMAN	TECHIMAN	07°34 842N:001°56 846W	7 DE
EOZT/06/302-304 Laribako TECHIMAN TECHIMAN 07°34.842N;001°56.846W EOZT/06/215-224 Pona TOLON/RUBUNGU TINGOLI 09°22.514N;001°00.580W EOYT/06/274-278 Laribako TECHIMAN TECHIMAN 07°34.842N;001°56.846W	111		Pona	TECHIMAN	TECHIMAN	07°34 842N:001°56 846W	300
EOZT/06/215-224	115		Laribako	TECHIMAN	TECHIMAN	02°34 842N:001°56 846W	303
EOYT/06/274-278 Laribako TECHIMAN TECHIMAN 07°34.842N,001°56.846W	116		Pona	TOLON/KUBUNGU	TINGOLI	09-22 514N-001-00 580W	352
	113		Laribako	TECHIMAN	TECHIMAN	07°34.842N.001°56.846W	392

07°34.842N:001°56.846W	09°22.513N,001°00560W	09-22.514N;001-00.580W	08°56.083N,000°00.053E	08°35.985N;000°29.084W	09°22.514N;001°00,580W	09°22.514N;001°00.580W	08°35.985N,000°29.084W	09/22.514N;001-00,580W	08/56.085N;000·00.053E	08°56.085N;000°00.053E	08º35.985N;000°29.084W	09°22.514N:001°00,580W	09°22,514N:001°00,580W	08935.988N;000°29.085W	08°35.985N;000°29.084W	08°35.988N;000°29.085W	08:35.988N;000°29.085W	05-35'N 0-35'W	05°35'N 0°35'W	08°33.060N;000°31.198W
TECHIMAN	KPALISOGU	TINGOLI	BINDA	KALANDE	TINGOLI	TINGOLI	KALANDE	TINGOLI	DAMON NA YILI	DAMON NA YILI	KALANDE	TINGOLI	TINGOLI	KALANDE	KALANDE	KALANDE	KALANDE	BODWEASE	BODWEASE	SALAGA
TECHIMAN	TOLON/KUBUNGU	TOLON/KUBUNGU	NANUMBA SOUTH	NANUMBA NORTH	TOLON/KUBUNGU	TOLON/KUBUNGU	NANUMBA NORTH	TOLON/KUBUNGU	NANUMBA NOKTH	NANUMBA NORTH	NANUMBA NORTH	TOLON/KUBUNGU	TOLONKUBUNGU	NANUMBA NORTH	NANUMBA NORTH	NANUMBA NORTH	NANUMBA NORTH	WINNEBA	WINNEBA	EAST GONJA
Laribako	Laribako	Pona LARRBAKO-LAA	(Pona)	Pona	Pona	Pona	Pona	Larrbako	Pona	Laribako	Pona	Pona	Laribako	Pona	Laribako	Laribako	Pons	Dente	Muchumudu	Laribako
								/	2	SA	IN	210-214	Z/V							
EOYT/06/279-283	EOYT/06/254-263	EOZT/06/195-204	EOZW/06/043-046	EOZK/06/145-154	EOZT/06/175-184	EOZT/06/225-23#	EOZK/06/113-119	EOYT/06/184-193	EOZB/06/030-034	EOZB/06/035-039	EOZK/06/127-131	EOZT/06/205,206,210-214	EOZT/06/207-209	EOZS/06/103-112	EOYK/06/124-133	EOYS/06/109-111	EOYS/06/112-113	ASA	ASAOUT	EOYE/06/001-004
+/11	118	119	120	121	122	123	124	125	126	126*	127	128	128*	129	130	131	131*	132	132*	133
22	23	24	22	26	22	28	59	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	Ŧ	4

163	167	186	27	691	707	302	392	156	156	158	158	163		981	186	162	162	186	186	91	196
09-22.514N:001-00.580W	09°22.514N;001°00.580W	08°53.669N:000°04.793E	08°56 083N:000°00 53F	09-22 514N:001-00 580W	09-22 514N 001-00 580W	07°34.842N:001°56.846W	07°34.842N;001°56.846W	09°23.930N;001°00.744W	09-23.930N;001-00.744W	08°33.060N;000°31.198W	W893.060N:000-31.198W	08°56.083N,000°00.53E	08°56.083N;000°00.53E	08/53.776N;000-02.536W	08s53.776N;000*02.536W	09*22.514N;001*00.580W	09-22.514N,001-00,580W	08°53.776N;000°02.536W	08°53.776N.000°02.536W	09-22.514N.001-00.580W	08°45.974N;000°03,329E
TINGOLI	TINGOLI	BIMBILLA	NAKPAYILI	TINGOLI	TINGOLI	TECHIMAN	TECHIMAN	KPALISOGU	KPAEISOGU	SALAGA	SALAGA	NAKPAYILI	NAKPAYILI	BIMBILLA	BIMBILLA	TINGOLI	TINGOLI	BIMBILLA	BIMBILLA	TINGOLI	NASAMBA
TOLON/KUBUNGU	TOLON/KUBUNGU	NANUMBA NORTH	NANUMBA SOUTH	TOLON/KUBUNGU	TOLON/KUBUNGU	TECHTMAN	TECHTMAN	TOLON/KUBUNGU	TOLONKUBUNGU	EAST GONJA	EAST GONJA	NANUMBA SOUTH	NANUMBA SOUTH	NANUMBA NORTH	NANUMBA NORTH	TOLON/KUBUNGU	TOLON/KUBUNGU	NANUMBA NORTH	NANUMBA NORTH	TOLON/KUBUNGU	NANUMBA SOUTH
Pona	Laribako	Pona	Pona	Laribaka	Pona	Laribako	Laribako	Pons	Pona	Pona	Laribsko	KULUKU	KULUKU	Laribako	Laribako	Pona	Laribako	Pona	Laribako	Pona	LARBRAKO-LAA
EOZT/06/185-193	EOZT/06/194	EOZB/06/002-011	EOZ/06/035-044	EOYT/06/204-211,213	EOYT/06/212 \	EOYT/06/284-288	EOYT/06/289-298	EOZT,06/265,271-273	EOZI/06/266,269,270,274	EOZ/06/013-119	EOZ/06/014,019, 020	EOYW/06/064-068	EOYW/06/069-073	EOYS/06/154,157,158,160,161	EOYS/06/155,156,159	EOZT/06/235-244	EOZT/06/240-242	EOZKP/06/134-140	EOZP/06/141-144	EOZT/06/245-254	EOYW/06/098-106
134	134*	135	136	137	137*	138	138*	139	130*	140	140*	1	* 4	142	142*	143	143*	1	144*	145	146
43	#	45	99	4	48	49	20	51	52	53	54	55	99	27	58	65	09	19	. 62	63	25

196	162	167	961	961	200	208	174	209	174	163	392	162	162	156	156	174	202	162	162		
08~45.974N,000-03.329E	09°22.514N.001°00.580W	09°22.514N;001°00.580W	08°45.974N:000-03.329E	08°45.974N:000°03.329F	08°55.539N,000°.872W	08°55.539N,000°.872W	08°35.985N;000°29.084W	06"41'N, 1°28'W	08°35.985N,000°29.084W	08-56.083N,000-00.53E	07°34.842N;001°56,846W	09-22.514N;001°00.580W	09°22.514N;001-00.580W	09-23.930N;001-00.744W	09~23.930N;001°00.744W	08°35.985N;000°29.084W	08°56.085N;000°00.053E	09-22.514N;001-00.580W	09°22.514N;001°00.580W	08°35.985N,000°29.084W	09-22.514N;001°00.580W
NASAMBA	TINGOLI	TINGOLI	NASAMBA	NASAMBA	PUSUGA	PUSUGA	KALANDE	FUMESUA	KALANDE	NAKPAYILI	TECHIMAN	TINGOLI	TINGOLI	KPALISOGU	KPALISOGU	KALANDE	DAMON NA YILI	TINGOLI	TINGOLI	KALANDE	TINGOLI
NANUMBA SOUTH	TOLON/KUBUNGU	TOLON/KUBUNGU	NANUMBA SOUTH	NANUMBA SOUTH	NANUMBA NORTH	NANUMBA NORTH	NANDMBA NORTH	Elisu	NANUMBA NORTH	NANUMBA SOUTH	TECHIMAN	TOLON/RUBUNGU	TOLONKUBUNGU	TOLON/KUBUNGU	TOLONKUBUNGU	NANTIMBA NORTH	NANUMBA NORTH	TOLON/KUBUNGU	TOLON/KUBUNGU	NANUMBA NORTH	TOLON/KUBUNGU
Pons	Laribako	Laribako	LARBRAKO-NYA	Pona	Laribako	Lanbako	Laribako	Pona	Pona	KULUKU	Pona /	Pona	Laribako	Laribako	Pona	Pona	Laribako	Laribako	Laribako	Laribako	Laribako
EOYW/06/103-104	EOYT/06/234-243	EOYT/06/234-243	EOYW/06/103-108	EOYW/06/109-114	EOYB/06/004-008	EOYB/06/009-011	EOYK/06/144-158	CRIPons	EOZS/06/155-160	EOYW/06/055-063	EOZT/06/285-294	EOZT/06/165-170	EOZT/06/171-174	EOYT/06/265-273	EOYT/06/264	EOZK/06/140-144	EOYB/06/045-054	EOYT/06/194-203	EOYT/06/244-253	EOY/06/014-033	EOYK/06/147-123
146*	147 I	147*	148 I	148* E	149	149*	150 E	151 (152 I	153	154	155 E	155* I	156	156* E	157 E	158 E	159 I	160 B	161 E	162 E
99	99	19	89	69	70	71	72	73	74	7.5	9/	1	78	62	80	81	82	83	84	82	98

TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 09°22.514N;001-00,580W	TOLON/KUBUNGU TINGOLI 09°22.514N,001°00.580W	TOLON/KUBUNGU KPALISOGU 09°23 930N-001°00 744W		TOLON/KUBINGH KPALISOGH 10002 SIZMAMAGONI
Pons	Laribako	Pona	Pona	Pona
EOYK/06/144-146	EOYT/06/214-223	EOZ/06/255-264	MANKRONG Pona	EOZB/06/020-029
162*	163	164	165	166
87	88	68	06	91

Table 2 continued.

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3.3.1 Ethno-botany or Folk Taxonomy

Various research methods were used in order to have a clear picture of *Pona* classification. Focus group interviews (287 farmers), community-based Participatory Rural Appraisals (PRA) in 9 districts and direct participatory on-farm assessment (20 farmers). Key informants interviews involving 50 farmers and 30 agricultural extension agents and yam sellers were done. Semi-structured interviews with 200 farmers were carried out to quantify the indigenous taxonomy.

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3.3.2. Morphological Characterization

Morphological characterization was conducted by combining *in-situ* characterization in farmers' fields at Kwamang Pepease –Forest zone and Bodwease (Coastal Savannah) and *ex-situ* characterization under controlled the controlled conditions at Crops Research Institute Experimental Station at Fumesua in 2006 and 2007. The *ex-situ* characterization was carried out to mop up some accessions that the researcher missed at collection time because farmers had planted already.

The assessment of the accessions at Crops Research Institute was conducted with active participation of 7 expert *Pona* farmers including, the Ashanti Regional Best Yam Farmer (2006) and farmers with not less than 15 years of *Pona* cultivation experience.

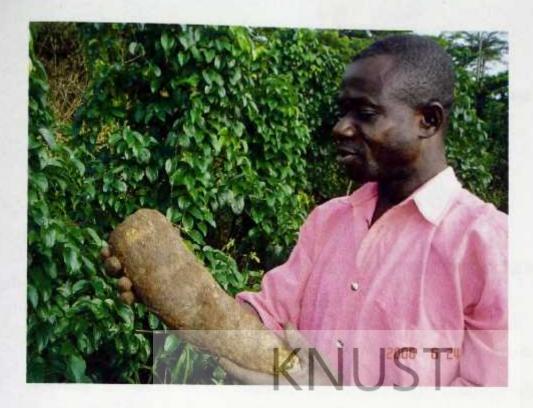


Fig. 2: In-situ characterization at Kwamang -Pepease, Ashanti Region.

The descriptors used for morphological characterization (Appendix 1) consisted mainly of descriptors selected by Hamon (1987) as the most pertinent for identification and description of cultivated yams in West Africa and those recommended by Martin and Rhodes (1978) and IPGRI/IITA (1997) as cited by Dansi et al. (1999) and modified to suit the study. Additional farmers' descriptors such as tuber striping or streaking, presence of specific Fig., presence of colour bands (Dansi et al., 1999) were also incorporated. A total of 111 characters (Appendix 1) were scored on binary basis for differentiating the accessions.

Two farmer field days were organized each year at vegetative, flowering and harvesting stages to incorporate farmer knowledge of true *Pona* characteristics. Harvested yam tubers were cooked and its rheological properties (aroma, texture and taste) assessed.

After assessment for year one, the expert yam farmers confirm and declassified some of

the accessions leading to reclassification of the collected accessions to 91 accessions (Table 2).

3.3.2.1. Data analysis

All data were converted to binary form using ALS Binary and clustering according to the Darwin 5.1.531 neighbour-joining approach.

A measure of diversity which takes into account proportional abundance and evenness of categories, the Shannon diversity index (H) (Shannon and Weaver, 1949), which assesses the diversity of each trait in the *Pona* yam collection, was assessed using the formula:

$$H = -\Sigma pi \ln pi$$

where:

H is the diversity index; In is the natural logarithm; i is an index number for each trait present in a sample; pi is the number of individuals with the trait (ni) divided by the total number of individuals (N) present in the entire sample.

The means and standard errors of 26 quantitative traits were calculated for each trait. Principal Component analysis (PCA) was used to assess the range of genotypic variability in the population. In PCA analysis, the eigen values were correlation coefficient between original variable, (morphological or molecular data) with respective principal component (PC). Variation-percentage expressed by each PC and accumulated variability percentage were also generated. A two-dimensional scatter diagram of the PCs with

variability >10% was then plotted to observe the dispersion of the accessions on the two PCs.

Cluster analysis was used to estimate pair-wise genetic similarity values among accessions using Jaccard's similarity coefficient. The similarity matrix was then used to construct a phenogram.

3.3.3 Molecular Analysis

3.3.3.1. DNA Extraction

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Some accessions were lost (failure to germinate) before the molecular analysis, hence total genomic DNA was extracted from young freshly harvested leaves of 72 yam accessions from the experimental fields of the Crops Research Institute, Fumesua, Ghana using Qiagen DNeasy Plant Mini Protocol (Qiagen, 2006).

Hundred milligram (100mg) fresh weight of sample material was grinded in a mortar and pestle. This was followed by the addition of 400μl and 4μl of Buffer AP1 and RNase respectively. It was then vortexed and incubated in a preheated water bath at 65°C for 10 min during which the tube was inverted 3 times. Buffer AP2 was added to the tube, thoroughly mixed and incubated on ice for 5 minutes. The lysate was centrifuged for 5 min at 14,000 rpm. The lysate was pipetted into QlAshredder Mini spin column in a 2 ml collection tube and centrifuged at 14,000 rpm for 2 min. The flow-through fraction was transferred into a new tube, and 1.5 volumes of Buffer AP3/E added and mixed by pipetting. 650 μl of the mixture was transferred into a DNeasy Mini spin column in a 2ml collection tube and centrifuged at 8,000 rpm for 1 min and the flow-through discarded. Another 500 μl Buffer AW was added and centrifuged for 2 min at 14,000 rpm. The spin column was transferred to a new 2 ml microcentrifuge tube and 100 μl of Buffer AE added

for elution. The sample was then incubated at room temperature for 5 min, and centrifuged for 1 min at 8000 rpm.

3.3.3.2. DNA Quality Testing and Quantification

DNA extracts of 72 accessions were transferred to IITA in Nigeria for the molecular analysis. DNA quantity and quality was determined at the Biotechnology laboratory of the International Institute of Tropical Agriculture (IITA) using spectrophotometer (Beckman Coulter DU530) and the absorbance read at 260nm and 280nm (A_{260} and A_{280} respectively) levels. Each DNA sample was diluted ten times (2 μ l DNA+ 18 μ l Nuclease-free milli-Q water). The milli-Q water was used as a reference sample to set the spectrophotometer at 260 nm wavelength (blanking). A 10 μ l volume of the diluted DNA sample was loaded to the curvette of the spectrophotometer for estimation of the concentration.

The quality of DNA was assessed using the absorbance ratio at 260 and 280 wavelengths (A_{260}/A_{280}). A DNeasy purified DNA has an A_{260}/A_{280} ratio of 1.7-1.9. An A_{260}/A_{280} ratio equal to 1.8 is generally considered to be pure (Qiagen, 2006). On the other hand an A_{260}/A_{280} value lower than 1.8 indicates the presence of impurities. The DNA concentration of the samples was determined using the double-stranded DNA standard of 1 $A_{260} = 50 \,\mu\text{g/}\mu\text{l}$ of DNA. The working concentration of $2.5\mu\text{g/}\mu\text{l}$ DNA was prepared based on the estimated concentration obtained from the spectrophotometer reading. The volume of sample needed to be diluted for the working sample concentration was calculated based on the formula

 $V_1 = C_2 V_2 / C_1$

where C_1 = initial concentration of the sample; C_2 = required concentration of the sample; V_2 = required volume of the sample; and V_1 = volume of the initial concentration needed to be diluted to the required volume.

For samples with very weak concentration which required V_1 of greater or equal to 100 μ l no further dilution was done. For samples requiring V_1 of <100 μ l, the volume was taken and topped up to a final volume of 100 μ l.

3.3.3. Molecular Markers and Polymerase Chain Reactions

Amplifications were carried out in an automated thermal cycler (Peltier Thermal Cycler 200). The PCR conditions described by Kawchuk *et al.* (1996) were used with some modifications (Mignouna *et al.*, 2003). Twenty-one (21) SSR primer pairs were used for this study (Table 3). Amplification reactions were carried out in 20 µl reaction volumes each containing 5µl of master mix DNA, buffer (ammonium sulphate), deoxynucleoside triphosphates (dNTP), 1.7 mM MgC1₂, 0.4 mM each of forward and reverse SSR primer, and two units of Taq DNA polymerase (Promega) (Table 4.).

Reactions were conducted in a Thermal Cycler of Promega programmed for the following procedures- initial denaturing at 94°C for 4 min for one cycle, followed by 35 cycles of 94°C for 30 sec, 53.1°C for 1 min (annealing temperature depending on marker) and 72°C for 1 min. After the 35 cycles, that is the primer extension stage, the samples were held at 72°C for 7 min followed by 60°C for 30 min and then stored at 4°C. PCR optimization was performed for all markers and best performing conditions identified. The optimization PCR reactions were carried out in 5 μl.

3.3.3.4 DNA Fragment Analysis

Capillary electrophoresis was performed using a semi-automated system of ABI 3100 Genetic Analyzer in a 36 cm capillary array using POP 4 (Performance Optimized Polymer) matrix to separate amplified PCR products. Genotyping was done using Liz + formamide at a ratio of 1: 94 per reaction as a size standard. Four negative controls (W1-W4) and four already genotyped yam genotypes were deliberately added to the 72 accessions to test the extent to which the GeneMapper procedures could classify the accessions.



Table 3: Set of Yam Microsatellite markers (SSR) used in fingerprinting

SNo	Marker name	Primer sequence (5'-3') ^a	David
530	Control Control	TTCCCTAATTGTTCCTCTTGTTG (F)	Dye*
1	YM-13	GTCCTCGTTTTCCCTCTGTGT (R)	
		AATTCGTGACATCGGTTTCTCC (F)	
2	YM-26	ACTCCCTGCCCACTCTGCT (R)	PET
		ATAGGAAGGCAATCAGG (F)	FEI
3	Dpr3D06	ACCCATCGTCTTACCC (R)	VIC
	US LIBERTA NEWSTAY	AATGCTTCGTAATCCAAC (F)	770
4	Da1F08	CTATAAGGAATTGGTGCC (R)	PET
		TACGGCCTCACTCCAAACACTA (F)	
5	YM-15	AAAATGGCCACGTCTAATCCTA (R)	vic
		AACATATAAAGAGAGATCA (F)	720
6	Dab2E09	ATAACCCTTAACTCCA (R)	PET
		GATGCTATGAACACAACTAA (F)	
7	DalD08	TTTGACAGTGAGAATGGA (R)	6-FAM
		TATAATCGGCCAGAGG (F)	1000
8	DalA01	TGTTGGAAGCATAGAGAA (R)	VIC
		AGACTCTTGCTCATGT (F)	
9	Dpr3F04	GCCTTGTTACTTTATTC (R)	PET
		TGTAAGATGCCCACATT (F)	100
10	Dab2D06	TCTCAGGCTTCAGGG (R)	VIC
		CCCATGCTTGTAGTTGT (F)	
11	Dah2C05	TGCTCACCTCTTTACTTG (R)	PET
	D-1013	GCCTTTGTGCGTATCT (F)	
12	Da1C12	AATCGGCTACACTCATCT (R)	NED
		TCAAAGGAATGTTGGG (F)	60-00-
13	Dpr3F10	ACGCACATAGGGATTG (R)	VIC
		CATCAATCTTTCTCTGCTT (F)	
14	Dpr3B12	CCATCACACAATCCATC (R)	NED
		TCCCCATAGAAACAAAGT (F)	1,122
15	Dpr3F12	TCAAGCAAGAGAAGGTG (R)	NED
		ACAAGAGAACCGACATAGT (F)	DESCRIPTION
16	Dab2D08	GATTTGCTTTGAGTCCTT (R)	6-FAM
	Z	AATGAAGAAACGGGTGAGGAAGT (F)	
17	YM-5	CAGCCCAGTAGTTAGCCCATCT (R)	6-FAM
		GGAGTGCGGGGAGAGGAG (F)	
18	YM-28	CGGCGTGAGCTATTGGTGTGT(R)	VIC
		TTGTCAGCGAAATAAGCAGAGA (F)	
19	YM-I	CAACAGACGCAGCCCAACT (R)	6-FAM
		CCACCCTCTACCTCAAGT (F)	
20	YM-19	GAGGETTCTCCCACTAAGT (R)	NED
		TTGAACCTTGACTTTGGT (F)	all the same
21	Dab2E07	GAGTTCCTGTCCTTGGT (R)	PET

NB: Italicized primers were polymorphic and vice versa.

^aF, forward primer; R, reverse primer.

Table 4: Optimized grid for yam PCR: Volume of reagents for a total volume of 20µl per reaction.

Number Marker	T°C	WATER	10X BUFFER (NH,)	MgCl ₂ 25mM	dNTP 2mM	F 10uM	R 10.1M	TAQ	DNA Small
YM-13	47.4	12.7	2	2.2	1		0.5	1	I I
YM26	55.3	12.7	2	2.2	1		0.5		, ,
Dpr3D06	42	12	2	1.2	2		0.75		, ,
DalF08	47.4	12.7	2	2.2	1		300		1
YM-15	53	12.1	2	13	15		0.0		,
Dab2E09	42	12.7	S NAME OF	2.2	7		0.0		7
Dalbas	476	12.7	100	4 (,		0.0		7
207170	17.0	12.7	100	7.7	1		0.5		I
DalADI	1./4	12.7 M	2	2.2	1		0.5		7
Dpr3F04	41.9	11.6	2 2	A.77	I		0.75		2
Dab2D06	48	12.1	7 2 2	1.2	1.5		50		,
Dab2C05	6+	12.7	MA S EN	2.2	1	. I	0.5		4 -
DaIC12	20	12.7		2.2			20		, ,
Dpr3F10	45.9	12.7	A2 W X	3	0	di.	5.0		,
Dpr3B12	47.4	9.6	2	200			0.0		- '
Dpr3F12	47.7	12.78	A 1 4 1 50	1 8	4 2	J.	, ,		7
Dab2D08	47.4	12.7	2 48	,,		0.5	0.0	0.1	1
VM-5	56.5	12.7	2	2.2	, ,	0.0	0.0	0.1	1
YM-28	09	9.5	No.	2.5	, (7.0	0.7	0.7	, ,
YM-1	54.3	12.1	Chu, 2	1 2		, 0	50	0.0	4 6
YM-19	53.1	12.1	2	12	2 -	0.5	0.0	7.0	4 6
Dab2E07	48.8	9.5	2	22		-	1	7.0	4 6

3.3.3.4.2. Size matching, binning, allele size calling and verification

The GeneMapperTM version 3.7 software (Applied Biosystems Inc., Foster City, CA 94404, USA) was used to generate genotype plots. Size matching/calling was based on Local Southern Method algorithm with reference to a defined standard range, GS75-500(-250) Liz base pairs. To reduce bin sizes and increase inter-bin distances to enhance efficient automated binning, Ghosh et al. (1997) external adjustments was used to verify and augment the internal GS75-500(-250) Liz size standards. For each marker, alleles for the data set was sorted according to size and "tolerance level" of 0.4 base pairs selected as the minimum allowable distance between adjacent bins in base pairs. When the difference between two sequentially sized alleles is greater than the set tolerance level a new bin is created. This procedure was conducted for each marker until all alleles were binned with the smallest and largest sized alleles for any marker representing the start of the first bin and the end of the last bin. Afler grouping the alleles, the mean and ranges were calculated for all bins. The bin labels, which represent the mean sizes rounded up to the nearest whole number was assigned to each group. This data was then submitted manually to the GeneMapperTM software to adjust the bins. Figure 3 is a representative SSR profile obtained for three yam accessions with marker Dab2E07, as analyzed using genotyping GeneMapperTM v.3.7 (Applied Biosystems, USA). WASANE

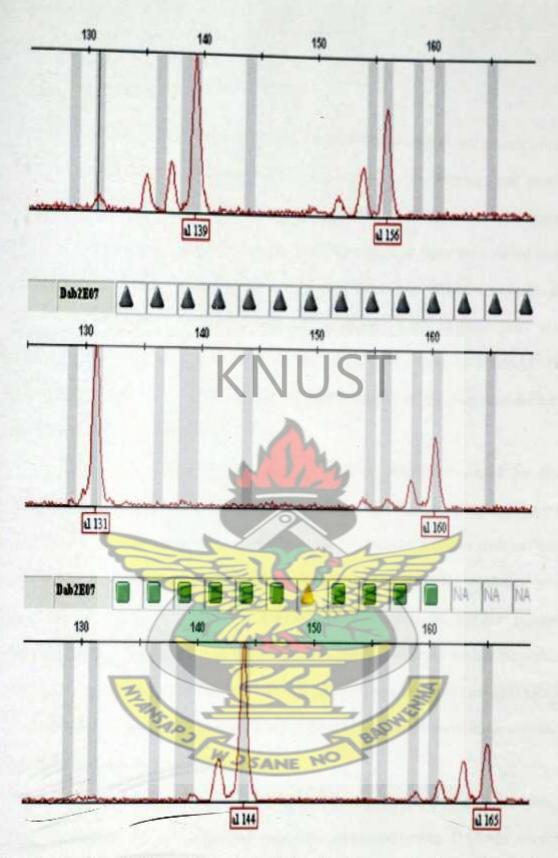


Fig. 3: Sample of SSR profiles obtained for three yam accessions with marker Dab2E07 and analysed using genotyping GeneMapperTM v. 3.7 (Applied Biosystems, USA)

3.3.3.4.2 Data Analysis

The polymorphic 13 SSR markers (Table 3) and 72 *Pona* complex accessions plus 4 checks from IITA yam collections were subjected to gene diversity and genetic differentiation analysis with 4.0% missing data over all loci and accessions. Observed allelic data were binned into discrete units and SSR fragment sizes were called using GeneMapperTM software v.3.7 (Figure 4). For the following statistical analysis, the fragment sizes generated by GeneMapperTM software v.3.7 in base pairs were converted to binary data using the software "ALS Binary" developed by ICRISAT. The use of binary format was determined by polyploid nature of the crop and different ploidy levels of studied accessions.

The presence (1) or absence (0) of individual allele was scored for each genotype across all SSR markers used for the study. Missing data accounted for less than 5% (i.e. marker × genotype) of the entire data set. Pairwise distance matrices were computed using the Jaccard similarity coefficient. The resulting matrices were subjected to unweighted Neighbour-Joining method (Saitou and Nei, 1987) to generate structured tree (dendogram). The structure of the genetic diversity within population was further analysed by factor analysis (PCA). Analysis was performed using DARwin 5.0.153 software (developed by CIRAD) and SAS v 9.1. Neighbour-joining approach was employed in classifying the accessions.

Factorial analysis of correspondence was also conducted using DARwin version 5.0.153 to determine the genetic relationships among individuals. To determine the similarity among the individuals, a neighbour-joining tree (Saitou and Nei, 1987) was constructed based on the shared allele distance (D_{AS}) between individuals using the DARwin version 5.0.153 computer software. Cophenetic correlation values were calculated to evaluate the robustness of the resulting tree topologies.

3.4 Core Collection Determination

The core collection was defined as *Pona* complex core collection and its size 10% of the whole accession. Based on the ethno-botany, morphological and molecular data this domain was further categorized based on the six classes identified: authentic *Pona*, *Laribako*, *Pona* hybrids (*Numbo*), *Laribako* hybrids (*Fuseini*), *muchumudu* and *kulunku*. The core collection size was assigned as 10% each for the stated categories.



CHAPTER 4

4.0 RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

4.1 Folk Taxonomy and Classification Based on Indigenous Expertise

Most named yam landraces are morphologically distinct (Tamuri et al., 2008). Farmers over the years have also identified the nutritional, medicinal and other values of each folk species (Mekbib, 2007). The Dioscorea rotundata-cayenensis complex is indigenous to West Africa. Yam farmers in this region including Ghana have therefore grown the crop from time immemorial and therefore are in a unique position to contribute positively to plant breeding in general and yam breeding in particular (Otoo, 2001). The benefits that are implicit from folk names or taxonomy are the reflection of associated values of each folk species (Mekbib, 2007).

Generally, there were two schools of thought among the farmers from whom the yams were collected. Some farmers (60%; N= 287) claimed *Pona* was a big group comprising *Pona*, *Laribako*-nya and *Laribako*-la, others (40%; N= 287) claimed *Laribako* was rather the main group with *Pona*, laribriko-nya (female *Laribako*) and *Laribako*-la (male *Laribako*) as sub-groups; hence both accessions of *Laribako* and *Pona* represent the *Pona* complex (Table 5). In both instances, therefore, farmers claimed that *Laribako* and *Pona* are closely linked, agreeing with Dansi *et al.*, (1999) grouping of *Pona* and *Laribako* as cultivars of *Pona* group. Another group of yams *Kulunku* (Gonja language meaning fast-fast), which farmers claim belong to *Pona* group but matures faster (3 months) than *Pona* (4-6 months) and produces a characteristic one tuber even though several sprouts will emerge from a seedyam planted, was also included in the *Pona* complex. Farmers' classification of the *Pona* complex can therefore be-schematically represented as in Fig.4.

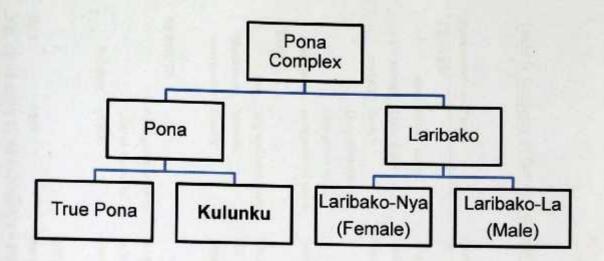


Fig. 4: Schematic representation of folk taxonomic classification of the Pona complex.

A total of 27 characters were listed by farmers whom the yams were collected from and the expert farmers as basis for classification of *Pona* complex (Table 5). These characteristics ranged from leaves through vines and fresh tuber to seedyam differences. In each agro-ecology, farmers generally agreed in most of the characteristics listed with a few exceptions, such as shade of leaf colour, and colour of tuber flesh. This was understandable due to differences in individual perception of colour. There were complete agreement with regard to the external characteristics such as tuber shape, presence of cracks on tuber, and characteristics of cooked tuber.

From the results of indigenous taxonomy and knowledge it can be concluded that the term *Pona* is a complex and refers to a distinct group of *D. rotundata* variety with great morphological diversity. This concept is similar to the assertion regarding complexity of Guinea yam in general (Dansi *et al.*, 2000). Different authors consider Guinea yam to be represented by one species, two species, or even a species complex (Martin and Rhodes, 1978; Onyilagha and Lowe, 1985; Hamon and Toure, 1990; Hamon *et al.*, 1992; Asemota *et al.*, 1996).

Table 5: Summary of farmers' criteria for classifying Pona and Laribako CS Parameter Pona Laribako (N=40) LEAVES size Broad leaves small and narrow leaves 100	eria for cla
stre Broad leaves our Light green face Rough	small and narrow leaves Dark green Smooth and shiny leaves
Long after sprout emergence and elongation of vines	Emerge with sprouts
VINES size Big and long vines Slei	Slender and long vines
thorniness Sporadic Nil	K
SPROUTS	
Pona gives as many No	No matter the no of sprouts,
	larbrako will always give just
	ako will always give jus er

Table 5 continued.

FRESH

NB: CS = CO.	Position	Size	Crown	Shape	Surface	Maturity	Flesh colour	Number and	texture	size	SKIN
STAL SAVANNAH;	of tuber	Big Inserted in the head	Hard	to the tail	grooves Big head and tapers	months) Rough and deep	White -yellow Late maturing (7-8	Few but big tubers	e Rough	e Thick r Dark	
NB: CS = COASTAL SAVANNAH; F = FOREST; FST = FOREST SAVANNAH TRANSITION; GS = GUINEA SAVANNAH; N = POPULATION SIZE	Attached to the head of tuber	Small	Soft	Wide head with narrow crown	Smooth and shallow grooves	Early matering (6-7 months)	White	Several small tubers	Smooth	Light	
AVANNAH TI	70	100	60	100	100	100	/8°9		100	100	3
RANSITION; C	90	100	100	100	100	100			100	100	
S = GUINEA SAVAN	80	100	100	NISO	1603	100 VX	SANI	S N	5	100	WALL OF THE PARTY
NAH; N = POI	80	100	100	100	- 10 0	100	100		100	100	
LATION S											
77	100	100	100	100	Ioo	100	100		100	100	

Table 5 continued.



The results also lend credence to the folklore from the Guinea Savannah agroecology surrounding the name Laribako which suggests that it is a "feminine" or "smaller" type of Pona. There are two schools of thoughts explaining the name Laribako. One school of thought explained that a yam farmer in the Guinea Savannah who had a daughter "Lariba" whom he reserved the most beautiful and small tubers for. He will often call his daughter and ask her in Gonja language "ko" meaning take; hence Laribako. The second school explained that the yams were as beautiful as the farmer's daughter, Lariba, hence Laribako meaning "Laribako's own".

4.2 Morphological characterization

Morphological analysis based on aerial and underground organs has shown significant diversity within the cultivated yams of the *D. cayenensis/D. rotundata* complex (Dansi *et al.*, 1999). Generally, the *Pona* complex is in *D. rotundata* group and as such their vines are characteristically wingless and stems climbed clockwise. Results of the morphological analysis also confirmed the great morphological diversity among the *Pona* accessions as suggested by indigenous taxonomy (Table 6).

Some of the accessions that farmers classified as *Laribako* were morphologically identical to *Pona* and therefore clustered together, and vice versa.

Table 6: Range of morphological variability in Pona complex accessions in Ghana.

	R	ange of variability
Parameter	Laribako	True Pona
Leaves	Small and saggitate (Fig 5a) light green shiny smooth surface already formed at emergence of sprout	Large and cordate (Fig. 5b) deep green rough and dull develops long after emergence of sprout
Vines	Spineless	vary from long slender to long big, with or without spines (Figs. 6a and 6b)
Sprout	sole sprouting	sole sprouting (true <i>Pona</i>) to multiple sprouting (<i>Kulunku</i>)
Tuber Shape	Cylindrical (Fig. 7)	oval-oblong (Fig. 7).
Tuber flesh colour	White	white with yellowish tint (Fig. 8)
Seedyam crown colour	White (Fig 9)	Purple (Fig 9)
Cooked tuber	very soft and very mealy	soft and mealy



Fig. 5: Range of leaf shape of the Pona complex

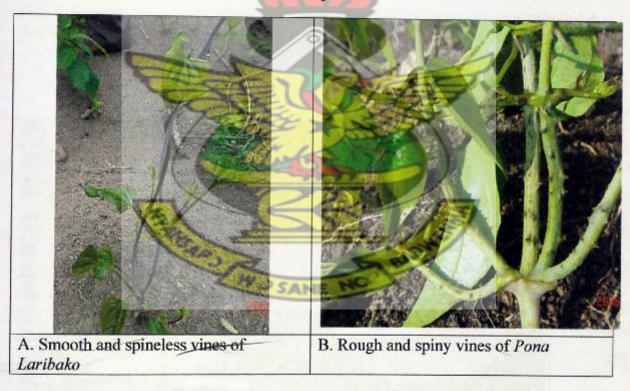


Fig. 6: Range of vine characteristics of Pona complex



Fig. 7: Varying tuber shape of *Pona* complex: characteristic oval-oblong shape (big-head and tapering tail) of *Pona* (below), and cylindrical shape of *Laribako* (above).



Fig. 8: Varying tuber flesh characteristics of Pona complex



Fig. 9: Varying head colouration of Pona complex seedyam: purple of Pona and white of Laribako.

4.3 Diversity Assessment

The diversity of the collection was also assessed using Shannon's diversity index. This index provides a measurement of both allelic richness and evenness. The Shannon's diversity values (H) can range from 0 to 1; with a value near 0 indicating that the trait was same for all accessions. Conversely, a value near 1 indicates that the trait was very diverse among the accessions. Hence, the higher the value of Shannon's diversity index, the greater the genetic diversity within the population. There was a wide polymorphism range in quantitative the descriptors recorded (Table 7).

Results from Shannon's diversity index analysis show that there were wide genetic diversity between number of internodes to first branching, stem diameter, spine length,

stem length, internode length, female flower length, male flower length, internode number, tuber length and tuber width, suggesting that the accession can be classified based on the aforementioned parameters.

Again, wide polymorphism was recorded for several of the qualitative morphological characteristics which reflected in their Shannon's Diversity Index values (Table 8). Wide range of polymorphism was observed in the following qualitative characteristics such as stem length, , stem diameter, internode number internode length, branching, presence of waxiness/ pruinose, first leaf emergence, number of leaves, maturity (tubers) after emergence in months, tuber size, corm position on tuber, tuber shape, tendency of tuber to branch, hardness of tubers, skin colour at the head of the tuber, total number of tubers harvested, total weight of harvested tubers, ease of peeling, cooking time to softness, texture of cooked tuber and overall assessment of the cooked tuber.

Days to emergence for instance, had wide range of polymorphism (6 classes; SDI= 1.00). Kulunku accessions emerged first (mean =7 DAP) followed by Laribako (mean =10 DAP.), Pona (Mean =12 DAP.), MankrongPona (Mean = 13.7DAP), Muchumudu (Mean =14 DAP) and Dente (Mean =16 DAP) in decreasing order of emergence.

Again, accessions with more internodes had larger stems than the accessions with fewer internodes. The *Muchumudu* accessions, for instance, had larger stems with few internodes as compared with other accessions and also had a characteristic striation across the cross-section.

All the *Pona* and *Laribako* accessions, all the accessions that exhibited their sexuality were males. All *Pona* and *Laribako* accessions including *Laribako*-nya (which) farmers claimed were female did not show their sexuality. This could be explained that this

group of accessions may be the female *Pona-Laribako* accessions which failed to exhibit their sexuality because of unfavourable environmental conditions.

Table 7: Phenotypic diversity and Shannon diversity index of quantitative traits of *Pona* Complex in Ghana

Sno	Quantitative traits	Mean	SE	No of Classes	Shannon's DI
1	Number of sprouts/seedyam	1.1	0.6	6	0.82
2	Number of internodes to first branching	1.9	0.4	3	1.00
3	Number of surviving plants at 4WAP	6.3	2.6	8	0.67
	Number of leaves (30 days after	91			0.07
4	emergence) Number of veins per leaf	53.5	4.8	6	0.36
5	Stem diameter at 15 cm from the	6.9	0.2	10	0.50
6	base(cm)	4.8	0.5	3	1.00
7	Terminal leaflet length (cm)	11.7	0.1	6	0.51
8	Terminal leaflet width (cm)	8.6	0.2	6	0.64
9	Number of branches	17.4	4.7	15	0.57
10	Spine length (cm)	11	0.3	3	1.00
11	Stem length (cm)	110.1	5.8	3	1.00
12	Internode length (cm)	10.7	1,3	5	1.00
13	Female flower length (mm)	5.1	0.1	3	1.00
14	Female flower diameter (cm)	0.5	0.1	3	0.39
15	Male flower length (cm)	4.5	135	4	1.00
16	Male flower diameter (mm)	0.7	0.1	3	0.61
17	Internode number	Br	3.1	8	1.00
18	Days to flowering from emergence	72.6	1.7	6	0.61
19	Number of inflorescence per plant	1.5	0.7	3	1.00
20	Average length of inflorescence (cm)	1.3	0.5	-3	0.44
21	Number of tubers per hill	1.3	0.48	3	0.64
22	Tuber length (cm)	40.8	0.86	4	1.00
23	Tuber width (cm)	27.5	0.56	4	1.00

Table 8: Phenotypic diversity and Shannon diversity index of qualitative traits of *Pona* Complex in Ghana

Descriptor No.	Descriptor	Number of Classes	Shannon's Diversity
	Stem length [cm]. Assessed at 20 days after	Ciasses	Index
7.1.2	emergence. Mean of 10 plants	3	1.00
7.1.3	Internode number [number]	9	1.00
7.1.4	Stem colour	3	0.69
7.1.5	Absence/presence of waxiness	2	0.69
7.1.8	Absence/presence of hairs	1	0.54
7.1.9	Absence/presence of spines	2	0.03
7.1.10	Absence/presence of coloured spot at spine base	2	0.03
7.1.11	Absence/presence of barky patches	2	0.01
7.1.12	Plant type	1	0.03
7.1.13	Vigour	3	1.00
7.1.14	Twining habit	1	0.00
7.1.15	Twining direction	1	0.00
7.1.16	Stem height	3	1.00
7.1.17	Number of stems per plant	3	1.00
7.1.18	Stem colour	3	0.61
7.1.19	Number of internodes to first branching	3	1.10
7.1.20	Branching (2.4.4) Stem diameter [cm] (recorded at 15 cm from the	12	0.42
7.1.21	base of the plant	6	1.00
7.1.22	Stem cross-section shape at base Internode length [cm] (Recorded at 1m height.	1	0.70
7.1.23	Average of 5 plants).	4	1.00
7.1.24	Absence/presence of waxiness	2	1.00
7.1.34	Spines on stem base (2.4.6, 2.4.7)	3	1.00
7.1.35	Spines on stem above base	3	0.03
7.1.36	Spine position	4	0.02
7.1.37	Spine shape	4	1.00
7.1.38	Spine length	4	0.01
7.1.39	Absence/presence of coalescent spines	4	0.02
7.1.40	Colour of spot at spine base	4	0.02
Mature leav	es		
7.2.1	First leaf emergence	3	1.00
7.2.2	Number of leaves	7	0.00

Table 8 continued.

7.2.3	Leaf colour	THE E	
7.2.4	Leaf margin colour	4	0.01
7.2.5	Vein colour	1	0.00
7.2.6	Petiole colour	1	0.02
7.2.7	Petiole wing colour	3	0.01
7.2.9	Position of leaves	3	0.01
7.2.10	Leaf density	1	0.00
7.2.11	Internode number to fully expanded leaf [number]	4	0.02
7.2.12	Leaf type (2.5.3)	3	0.00
7.2.12.1	Leaf margin / NII CT		0.70
7.2.12.2	Leaf lobation	1	0.70
7.2.14	Leatheriness	2	1.00
7.2.15	Leaf colour	4	0.70
7.2.16	Leaf vein colour (upper surface)	2	1.00
7.2.17	Leaf vein colour (lower surface)	2	1.00
7.2.18	Leaf margin colour	2	0.04
7.2.19	Hairiness of upper surface (2.5.6)		0.70
7.2.20	Hairiness of lower surface (2.5.7)	2	0.00
7.2.21	Waxiness of upper/lower surface (2.5.8, 2.5.9)	2	0.00
7.2.22	Leaf shape (2.5.5)	2 2	0.00
7.2.23	Leaf apex shape	1	0.69
7.2.24	Undulation of leaf	2	0.70
7.2.25	Distance between lobes	2	0.87
7.2.26	Upward folding of leaf along main vein	1	0.54
7.2.27	Downward arching of leaf along main vein	1	0.42
7.2.28	Upward folding of leaf lobes to form a cup	2	0.56
7.2.29		2	1.00
1.2.29	Downward arching of leaf lobes Leaf measurement [em] (2.5.4) Observed on 20	1	0.68
7.2.30	adult leaves	3	1.00
7.2.31	Position of the widest part of the leaf	3	0.74
7.2.32	Tip length (2.6.5)	3	0.65
7.2.33	Tip colour	2	0.12
7.2.34	Petiole length	3	0.11
7.2.35	Petiole length in correlation to leaf blade	3	0.14
7.2.36	Hairiness of petiole	1	0.00

Table 8 continued.

7.2.37	Petiole colour	3	0.09
7.2.38	Petiole wing colour	2	0.03
7.2.39	Spininess of petiole (2.5.13)	1	0.00
7.2.40	Absence/presence of stipules (2.6.1)	1	0.70
- 7.3.2	Days to flowering after emergence [d]	2	0.70
7.3.3	Sex (2.7.2)	2	0.63
7.3.4	Inflorescence position	1	0.63
7.3.5	Number of inflorescences per plant (2.7.4)	3	1.00
7.3.6	Inflorescence smell	1	0.63
7.3.7	Inflorescence type	3	0.68
7.3.8	Average length of inflorescence (2.7.3)	2	1.00
7.3.9	Number of inflorescences per internode	1	1.00
72.10	Number of female flowers per inflorescence	3 33	1.00
7.3.10	(2.7.5)	1	1.00
7.3.11	Flower colour (2.7.6)	2	0.03
7.3.12	Female flower length (2.7.7)	1 2	1.00
7.3.13	Female flower diameter [mm]	2	0.00
7.3.14	Male flower diameter (2.7.8)	3	0.69
7.3.15	Male flower length [cm]	8	1.00
7.4.1	Fruit formation (2.8.1)	2	0.18
Adult Plants	Maturity (tubers) after emergence in months;		
7.6.2	≤6=0; >6=1	3	0.61
7.6.4	Number of tubers per hill; 0-1=1; 2-5=1	2	0.64
7.6.5	Relationship of tubers; 1-2=0;3=1	3	0.26
7.6.6	Absence/presence of corms; 1=0; 2=1	1	0.39
7.6.7	Corm size (In relation to tuber size); 3-5 =0, 7 =1 Corm ability to be separated from tuber; NO =0,	3	1.00
7.6.8	YES = I	2	0.26
7.6.9	Corm type; 1 =0, 2 =1	2	1.00
7.6.10	Absence/presence of rhizome	1	0.00
7.6.11	Spininess of roots; 3=0; 7=1	2	1.00
7.6.12	Absence/presence of anchor roots	2	0.50

Table 8 continued.

7612			
7.6.13	Sprouting at harvest; no=0; yes= 1	1	0.00
7.6.14	Tuber shape; 2-3=0; 4=1	4	1.00
7.6.15	Tendency of tuber to branch; $3 = 0$, $5-7 = 1$	3	0.32
7.6.16	Place where tuber branches; 1=0, 2=1	3	0.55
7.6.19	Roots on the tuber surface; $3 = 0, 7 = 1$	3	0.26
7.6.19.1	Spiny roots on the tuber surface; 3=0, 7=1	1	0.00
7.6.20	Place of roots on the tuber; $1 = 0, 2 = 1$	3	1.00
7.6.21	Prickly appearance of the tuber; $NO = 0$, $YES = 1$	1	1.00
7.6.22	Wrinkles on tuber surface; 3 =0, 7=1	2	1.00
7.6.23	Absence/presence of blisters on tuber surface	3	3.00
7.6.24	Absence/presence of cracks on the tuber surface	2	1.00
7.6.25	Tuber skin thickness; <1mm=0, ≥1 mm	2	0.60
7.6.26	Tuber skin colour (beneath the bark); 1=0, 2=1	3	0.00
7.6.27	Sprouting [%] <80=0; ≥80=1	2	1.00
7.6.27.1	Number of months	3	1.00
1220000	Hardness of tuber; (When cut with a knife) 1=0,		1.00
7.6.28	2=1	2	1.00
7.6.29	Skin colour at head of the tuber; white=0; purple=1	2	1.00
VI VEUTE:	Flesh colour at central transverse cross-section; 1-	4	1.00
7.6.30	0; 2-3 =1	3	0.69
7.6.31	Flesh colour of lower part of tuber; 1=0;2-3=1	3	0.69
7.6.32	Uniformity of flesh colour in cross-section; (From		0.60
	cortex to centre), no=0; yes=1	2	0.69
7.6.33	Texture of flesh; 1=0;2-3=1	3	0.69
7.6.34	Time for flesh oxidation after cutting; 1=0;2-3=1	3	0.69
7.6.35	Flesh oxidation colour; 1=0;2-3=1	1	0.69
7.6.36	Amount of gum released by cut tuber; 3=0, 5-7= 1	3	0.48
7.6.37	Ability of cut tuber to irritate human skin (When tuber is rubbed on the arm). 3=0, 7=1	2	1.00
8.1.1	Total number of harvested tubers; ≤10 =0, >10 =1	2	1.00
*****	Total weight of harvested tubers [kg]; <25=0,		*****
8.1.2	≥25 =1	2	1.00
8.3.1	Ease of peeling; 1=0, 2=1	2	0.89
8.3.2	Preferred cooking method; 1=0, 2=1	1	0.33
8.3.2.1	Poundability of boiled tuber; 1=0, 2=1	1	0.44
8.3.3	Cooking time to softness [min]; $<30=0, \ge 30=1$	2	1.00
8.3.4	Discolouration of cooking water; 1=0;2-3=1	2	0.69

Table 8 Continued.

8.3.5	Appearance of tuber after cooking; 3-5 =0, 7=1	2	1.00
8.3.6	Colour of tuber after cooking; $1=0, 2=1$	2	1.00
8.3.7	Attractiveness of cooked tuber; 3-5 =0, 7=1	2	0.69
8.3.8		2	0.69
A PROPERTY OF THE PARTY OF THE	Erosion of tuber upon cooking; no=0; yes= 1	2	0.69
8.3.9	Texture of cooked tuber; 1 =0, 2-3 =1	3	0.00
8.3.10	Stickiness of cooked tuber; 1= 0, 2=1	2	0.69
8.3.11	Flavour of cooked tuber; 0=0, 1-2 =1 Absence/presence of moisture on cooked tuber;	2	0.69
8.3.14	no=0; yes= 1	2	0.69
8.3.15	Overall assessment of cooked tuber; 3-5 =0, 7=1	2	0.69

The information obtained from scoring the 111 morphological traits was translated into qualitative data with different character states being present or absence (Table 2). In multivariate analysis, the diversity of a dataset can be represented using factorial analysis and tree methods. The factorial analyses aim mainly to give an overall representation of diversity and not in the individual effects. On the other had, tree methods tend to represent individual relations faithfully and may be less accurate for the global structure. Thus, two different ways of viewing the data and must be considered complementary rather than concurrent (Perrier et al., 2003). Hence, ordination method was combined with clustering procedure.

Factorial analysis using the principal component analysis showed that out of the 82 Principal Component Axes only 30 accounted for all the variation and only 8 had Eigen values greater than 1.00 accounting for 92.44%. The scree test, however, revealed first 3 PCAs were the most important accounting for 81.35% of variation (Table 10). Hence assessment was based on the first three principal component axes.

Table 9: Eigen values of morphological data and per cent variation accounted for by the first three principal component axes of the ordination of accessions.

PC	Eigenvalue	Difference	% of variance	Accumulated variability (%)
1	36.21	11.34	42.12	42.12
2	24.88	16.01	28.93	71.04
3	8.87	5.74	10.31	81.35

In yams, general appearances of the plant and the tuber are of great importance in identification of cultivars (Dansi et al., 1999). Tuber characteristics- tuber shape, presence of wrinkles on tuber, presence of cracks on tuber surface, tuber skin colour, tuber flesh colour, tuber flesh texture, skin thickness, tuber hardness and maturity period accounted for the variation of PCA1. Spine characteristics - presence of spines, spine length, position and size accounted for variation observed in PCA2. Leaf characteristics - leaf colour, leaf vein colour (upper and lower surface) and other parameters such as stem colour sex, sprouts, seedyam head colour, number of tuber per hill including other tuber external morphological characteristics such as forking and forking positions accounted for variation in PCA3.

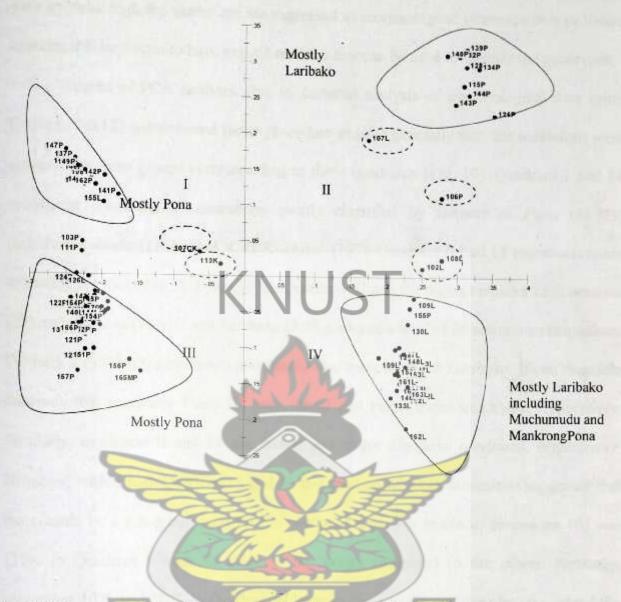


Fig. 10: 2D representation of genetic relationship among 91 accessions of yam revealed by morphological data

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4.4 Phenetic Analysis Based on Morphological Data

Germplasm collection of vegetatively propagated species, such as *D. rotundata-cayenensis* often contains accessions which, although morphologically similar have different genetic origins and vice versa (Lebot *et al.*, 1998).. Identical cultivars may have different names in different collections and areas due to the numerous vernacular names. Hence putative duplicates and cultivar misclassification were identified and removed. The majority of cultivars were most likely clones of a common source. Since agronomically desirable traits

such as yield, high dry matter are not expressed as morphological characteristics or linked to them, it is important to have genetic markers that can be used to identify the genotypes.

Results of PCA analysis, that is, factorial analysis of morphological data using DARwin 5.0.153 software and factor procedure showed generally that, the accessions were grouped into four groups corresponding to the 4 quadrants (Fig. 10). Quadrant 1 had 18 accessions consisting of accessions mostly classified by farmers as Pona (88.8%) including Kulunku (110K) and 'CRI-Kukrupa' (107). Quadrant II had 13 accessions made of mainly Laribako (92.3%) plus 107D. Quadrant III had the highest number of accessions (29) mainly Pona (96.6%) and Laribako (3.4%). Out of a total of 26 accessions in quadrant IV, only 2 (7.7 %) (Muchumudu and MankrongPona) were not Laribako. It can therefore conclude that quadrants I and III were minor and major Pona quadrants, respectively. Similarly, quadrants II and IV are minor and major Laribako quadrants, respectively. However, within both Quadrants I and II, the position of some accessions suggested that there could be a sub-group each for the two quadrants. For instance, accessions 107 and 110K in Quadrant I were so close to the origin compared to the others. Similarly, accessions 102L and 107L in Quadrant II were so close to the positive abscissa, whilst the rest of the accessions in the quadrant were all further away. Not all the agroecologies were represented in the four quadrants suggesting that agroecology had effect on the spread of the Pona complex accessions. Unlike in Benin where Kponan group had two cultivars with distinct distributions: Kponan in the north and Laribako in the south of the country, in Ghana, Pona are widely distributed from the Coastal Savannah, Forest through Forest-Savannah Transition to Guinea Savannah in the north, with Laribako however, limited to the north.

Further clustering of the morphological data with the Tree analysis concept using the DARwin 5.0.153 software and tree construction procedure with the neighbour-joining approach gave 4 main clusters *Labariko* (39 accessions), *Pona* (46 accessions) with two 110K (*Kulunku*-very early variety) and 107 *Dente* and 'CRI-Kukrupa' –late maturing variety, as outliers (Fig.11). *Muchumudu* clustered with other *Laribako* accessions. Similarly, CRI*Pona* and Mankrong*Pona* clustered with other *Pona* accessions.

Assessment of the morphological analysis fit for factorial and tree data, fit criterion for tree had edge length sum of 5.0316; Mean error of 0.011; Mean absolute error of 0.037; Maximum absolute error of 0.2561; Mean square error: of 0.0026 and Cophenetic r: 0.9794. A cophenetic value of 0.9 shows that the phenogram truly represents the genetic structure of the population and no errors was generated by the methodology used.



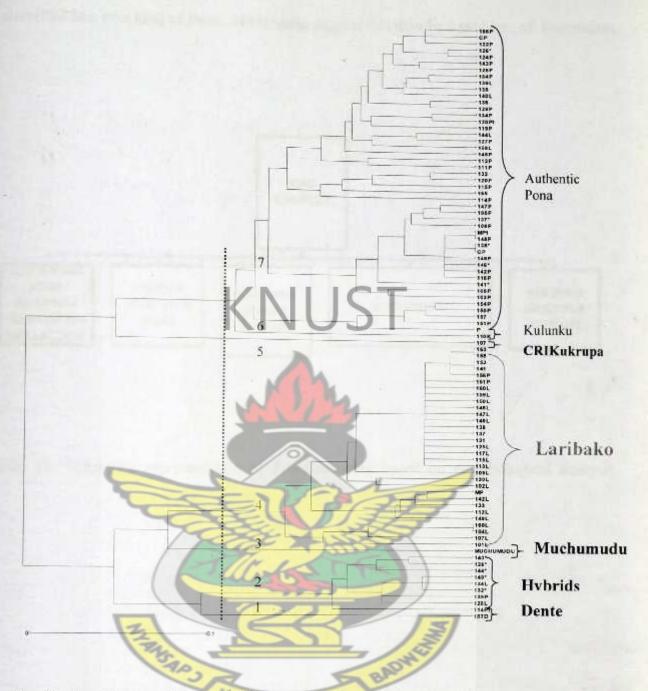


Fig. 11: Genetic diversity tree of 91 pona complex accessions based on Jaccard's index genetic similarity among morphotypes. Similarity matrix is based on presence or absence of 111 morphological traits.

Based on the morphological characterization, *Pona* complex can be schematically represented as (Fig.12). The difference between the folk taxonomic classification and

morphological characterization is that *Kulunku* which seems to be a *Laribako* was classified as a new kind of *Pona*. This results suggest this may be a problem of linguistics.

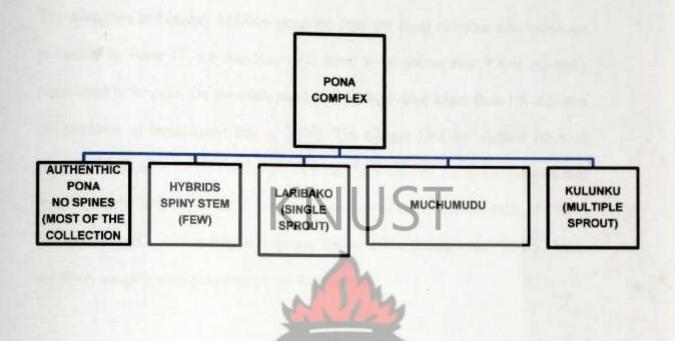


Fig. 12: Schematic representation of Pona complex based on morphological analysis.



4.5 Molecular Characterization

4.5.1 DNA Quantification and Quality Testing.

The quantities and quality of DNA extracted from the *Pona* complex accessions are presented in Table 11. An A₂₅₀/A₂₈₀ ratio equal to or greater than 1.8 is generally considered to be pure. On the other hand an A₂₆₀/A₂₈₀ value lesser than 1.8 indicates the presence of impurities (Qiagen, 2006). The Qiagen DNEasy yielded DNA of A₂₆₀/A₂₈₀ ratio of 1.7-1.9. The results obtained indicate that the DNA samples had A₂₆₀/A₂₈₀ ratio ranged of 1.02 -1.4. It must however be noted that the PCR of SSR is very robust and can even handle relatively impure DNA (Scotti *et al.*, 2003). Hence the DNA samples were pure enough for the analysis.

4.5.2 Allele Frequency Analysis

An electrophenogram of some accessions studied with microsatellite markers is pasted at Figure 3. The number of peaks corresponds to the number of alleles at each locus. A total of 27 loci were detected from the 13 markers used in this study with an average of 4.26 alleles per locus ranging from 2 to 15 alleles per locus for Dab2E09 and Dpr3D06, respectively (Table 11). The mean allelic richness ranged from 2 alleles per locus to 12 with an average of 5.23 per locus, indicating there were many allelic variants per locus.

The allele frequency analysis calculates two common measures of variation for each locus: expected heterozygosity and polymorphic information content (PIC) for each locus. Expected heterozygosity is calculated using an unbiased formula from allele frequencies assuming Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium (Nei 1987). This is a useful measure of informativeness of a locus: loci with expected heterozygosity of 0.5 or less are in general, not very useful for large-scale parentage analysis.

Table 10: Range of sizes and number of alleles detected using the 13 SSRs primers

Pona Complex accessions.

SSR Marker Name	Min size detected (bp)	Max size detected (bp)	Number of alleles detected	Allele sizes identified
Da1F08	166	179	5	166, 170, 172, 175, 179
Dab2C05	178	193	3	178, 190, 193
Dab2D06	165	186	4	165, 171, 176, 186
Dab2E09	117	197	3	117, 120, 197
Dpr3D06	125	170	12	125, 127, 131, 133, 137, 139, 143, 145, 148, 150, 160, 170
Dpr3F04	81	131	11/9	81, 88, 95, 97, 99, 103, 118, 121, 124, 127, 131
DalA01	212	225	3	212, 214, 225
YM13	175	227	4	175, 212, 214, 225
YM15	170	293	8	170, 172, 186,197, 211, 223, 228, 293
YM26	102	174	5	102, 107, 172, 175, 179
Da1D08	223	337	SANE	223 , 2 29, 300, 304, 3 08 , 321 , 337
Da1C12	140	160	3	140, 158, 160
Dpr3F10	102	173	12	102, 107, 111, 127, 129, 133, 136, 142, 149, 155, 168, 173

Genetic diversity indicated by expected heterozygosity (H_E) ranged from 0.514 for Dab2E09 to 1.00 for Dpr3D06, Da1C12, YM15 and YM26 with a mean of 0.6279. Generally the expected heterozygosity of the loci was greater than 0.5, except in DA1A01 indicating that a good parentage analysis can be obtained from the molecular analysis. This is the probability that, at a single locus, any two alleles, chosen at random from the population are different from each other. The average HE over all loci therefore estimates the extent of genetic variability in the population. At most loci the observed heterozygosity (Ho) was higher than the expected heterozygosity (HE). The mean HE value of 0.63 meant that there was some degree of genetic variation among the population. Mean proportion of individuals typed was 0.20; Mean expected heterozygosity was 0.63 and Mean polymorphic information content (PIC) was 0.46 (Table 12). Mean polymorphic information content (PIC) values for all markers used was 0.53 and ranged from 0.00 to 0.89. Polymorphic information content (PIC) is a measure of informativeness related to expected heterozygosity and likewise is calculated from allele frequencies (Botstein et al. 1980; Hearne et al. 1992). It is commonly used in linkage mapping.

Deviations from Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium at many or all loci are an indicator of population substructure. The population might be divided into a series of closely related or inbred family groups or there may be hybridisation between genetically differentiated species, subspecies or races (i.e. a mix of two or more populations).

Table 11: Summary statistics of allele frequency analysis of SSRs of Pona Complex in Ghana.

Marker	Count	Heterozygotes Homozy	Homozygotes	HObs	HObs HExp PIC		H-W*	Chi- Square ^b	Dr	Chi- Square Df P-value	NFd
YM13	89	99 \	-	0.971	0.628	50	* *	18.1147	-		-0 2494
YM26	124	124	0	1.0000	0.5693	0.469	**	46.8500	-	<0.0000001	-0 2944
Dpr3D06	148	145	0	1.0000	0.8560	0.8309	* *	18.1112	-	2E-07	-0.881
YM15	99	99	N.O.	1,0000	0.8859	0.8454	* *	20.221	-	<0.0000001	-0.0799
Dab2E09	76	9/ /	00	1.0000	0.5953	0.5018	* *	29.1068	-	<0.0000001	-0.2873
Da1A01	9/	9/ \ 76	0.44	0	0	0	ND				QN
Da1D08	48	48	MC/1	1,0000	0.7167	0.6116	* *	10.5612	-	<0.0000001	-0.122
Dpr3F04	48	48	0/4	1.0000	1.0000	0.375	ND				2
Dab2D06	116	104	9	1	0.5354	0.4088	* * *	17.1685	-	3E-05	-0.3201
Da1C12	120	120	0	1		0.375	N			,	CN
Dpr3F10	157	155	>	4	0.8174	0,7804	ND	1			Q
Dab2C05	36	30	3	0.8333	0.5619	0,4482	QN	ļ	-	,	-0.2127
Da1F08	74	74	0 7	1.0000	0.5709	0.4670	**	26.3008	-	3E-07	-0.2938

Count: Number of occurrences of the allele in the genetype file: Ho: Observed heterozygosity: H_E: Expected heterozygosity; PIC: Polymorphic information content. HW*: Significance of deviation from Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium. Key: NS = not significant at the 5% level, ** = significant at the 1% level, ** = significant at the 0.1% level, ND - not done. These significance levels include a Bonferroni correction

Chi-Square the chi-square value and the number of degrees of Treedom to calculate the significance of any deviation from Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium.

Df: The number of degrees of freedom is equal to ½ n(n-1), where n is the number of allelic classes remaining after rare alleles have been combined. Yates' correction for continuity (subtracting 0.5 from the absolute value of the difference between observed and expected frequencies) is applied when there is only one degree of freedom.

NF*: Null allele frequency- Estimates the null allele frequency; the frequency of the allele taking account of any null allele present. They are meaningless if the if the estimated null allele frequency is negative. Deviations from Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium (HWE) were assessed using a chisquare goodness-of-fit test, which compares observed genotype frequencies with expected genotype frequencies that are calculated from allele frequencies assuming Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium (Nei, 1987).

From this study, deviation from HWE was highly significant (p<0.001) for primers YM13, YM26, Dpr3D06, YM15, Dab2E09, Da1D08, Dab2D06 and Da1F08. The relatively high number of loci that significantly deviated from the H-W equilibrium confirms that the *Pona* complex population had substructures and that the population is made up of closely related types such as *Pona*, larbako, *Kulunku* and *Muchumudu* which can easily be mistaken for *Pona*. It could also be attributed the occurrence of hybridization between species or sub-species or isolate breaking effect (mixing of two or more previously isolated populations).

A null allele is any allele that cannot be detected by the assay used to genotype individuals at a particular locus. Null alleles are a common cause of apparent deviations from Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium at microsatellite loci (Pemberton et al. 1995), particularly where only a single locus shows a deviation. With microsatellite loci, a null allele most often occurs because of mutations in one or both primer binding sites, sufficient to prevent effective amplification of the microsatellite allele. This problem is particularly common when the microsatellite locus is cloned in one species and typed in a different species using the same microsatellite primers (Cervus, 2007).

The Null allele frequency also estimates frequency of the allele taking account of any null allele present. They are meaningless if the estimated null allele frequency is negative. From our study the null allele had no effect on the analysis since all the

estimates were negative, except for a few which had low population numbers and, as such, could not be determined.

A gene is said to be polymorphic if the frequency of one of its alleles is less than or equal to 0.95 or 0.99. Results obtained from allelic frequency analysis showed that all the 13 primers were polymorphic (Appendix V). No rare allele (alleles with allelic frequencies of less than 0.005) was obtained; this could be attributed to the genetic relatedness of the accessions being studied. The proportion of polymorphic loci (the number of polymorphic loci divided by the total number of loci) was 0.71. All the loci except YM13_212, Dpr3D06_127, Da1D08_337 and Dpr3F10_107 were heterozygotes.

4.5. 3. Ordination Analysis

Principal Coordinates analysis of the molecular data showed that the first three coordinates were important (Table 12). PCoA axes 1, 2 and 3 accounted for 40.51% of observed variation. The genetic distances generated using PCO software (Appendix V) was used in generating the PCoA plots.

Table 12: Principal Coordinates Analysis of Molecular data.

Principal	Percentage of variation explained	
Coordinates	Individual	Cumulative
Axis 1	18.05%	18.05%
Axis 2	11.80%	29.85%
Axis 3	10.66%	40.51%

The plots of PCoA1 versus PCoA2 using PCO software showed a wide dispersion of accessions along the four quadrants (Fig. 13). *Pona* and *Laribako* accessions could be found in all four quadrants suggesting that some of *Pona* accessions clustered with the

Laribako accessions and vice versa. Quadrants I had 19 accessions of mostly Laribako with 161P as the most distinct member of this group. Quadrant II had a few (7 accessions) with 2 IITA checks (TDr1929 and TDr2689) grouped with 3 Pona and 9 Laribako accessions respectively. TDr1929 was the most distinct accession. Mankrong Pona, a hybrid from IITA released as a new variety in Ghana (circled) was on the horizontal line separating Quadrants I and II. Quandrant III had the most (26) accessions which was a mixture of Pona, Laribako, Muchumudu (115M) among others. All the 15 accessions grouped in Quadrant IV were Pona.

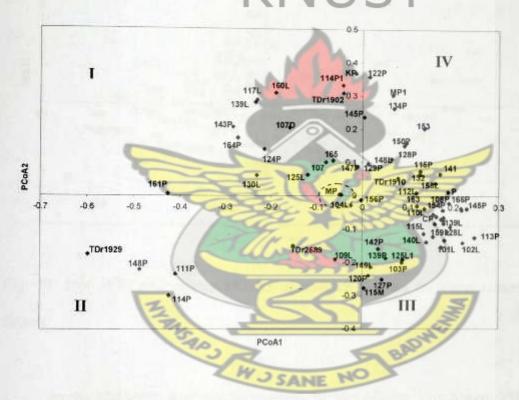


Fig. 13: PCoA1 versus PCoA 2 of SSR allelic data for Pona complex in Ghana.

A similar trend was obtained when PCoA 2 was plotted against PCoA3 (Fig. 14) except that 4 accessions occupied the midpoint between Quadrants I and II. Again TDr1929 was the most distinct accession.

Tree analysis of the molecular data using the DARwin 5.0.153 software and tree construction procedure with the neighbour-joining approach showed large number of inter- and intra-specific polymorphisms that enabled reliable discrimination between the samples (Figure 15). Again, some of the *Laribako* accessions clustered with *Pona* and vice versa.

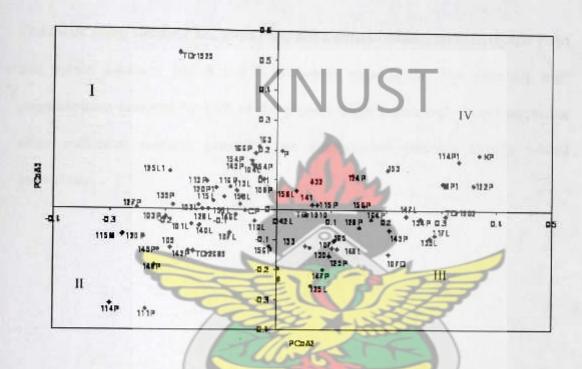


Fig. 14: Plot of PCoA2 against PCoA3 of SSR allelic data for *Pona* complex in Ghana.

In the Molecular Analysis Fit criterion for tree of edge length sum: 2570.40; Mean error: -1.28; Mean absolute error: 7.77; Maximum absolute error: 50.60; Mean square error: 107.40 and cophenetic r: 0.94. The phenogram truly represents the genetic structure of the population and no errors were generated by the methodology as indicated by the cophenetic value of 0.9. Hence the groupings of the accessions are a true reflection of the relationships.

Four main groups and two small ones were identified from the allelic data: authenthic *Pona*, *Laribako*, *Muchumudu*, and *Dente*, and the minor groups were Hybrid *Pona* and Hybrid *Laribako* (Fig. 15). All the IITA checks clustered with the authenthic *Pona*. The *Muchumudu* group had 5 *Laribako* accessions in it. The *Laribako* group also had some *Pona* accessions in it and vice versa.

The Dente group similarly had some Pona and Laribako accessions in it. Hybrid Pona and hybrid Laribako had 8 and 7 accessions respectively. The generally high polymorphism revealed by each of the primers taken separatively is not surprising since molecular markers generally can distinguished between closely related individuals.



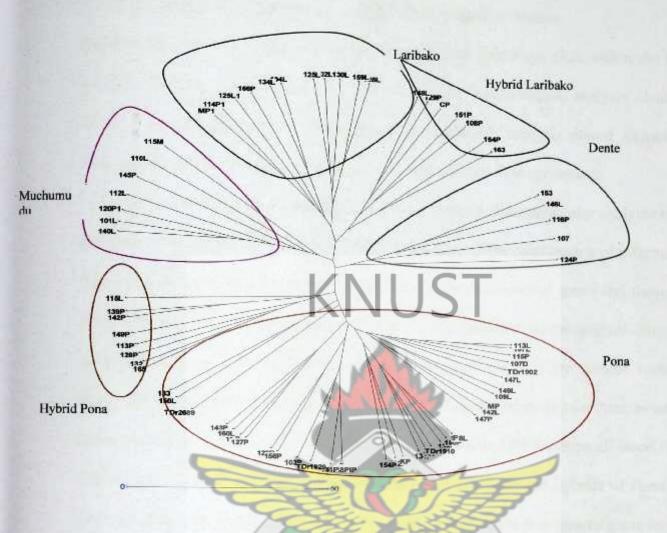


Fig.15: Genetic diversity tree of 72 accessions plus 4 IITA checks based on SSR data using unweighted neighbour-joining analysis

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4. 6. Comparison of morphological and molecular characterization

Morphological and molecular analysis identified 4 main groupings each within the *Pona* complex and two minor groupings. However, whilst morphological analysis identified *Pona*, *Laribako*, *Dente*, and *Kulunku* groupings; molecular analysis placed *Kulunku* in *Pona* group and placed more accessions in *Muchumudu* and *Dente* groupings.

In instances where morphological analysis differed from molecular analysis in the grouping of accessions, there are two options available: (1) the combination of information from different types of markers-that is, those that refer to functional genes and those that show polymorphism in the genomic regions or (2) combine morphological data and molecular data, to give the best approximation to knowledge on the genetic variation (Schneider et al., 2000). Combination of the morphological and molecular data, however, led to formation of 6 clusters: Dente, Muchumudu, Kulunku, CRI Kukrupa all stood alone and the rest of the accessions grouped into Pona and Laribako and hybrids of Pona and Laribako (Fig. 16). The resultant 6 groupings truly represent the true genetic groupings of the Pona complex since all available relationships have been captured by the data generated.

A characterization only based on morphological or agronomic traits is known to mask important genetic information (Zannou et al., 2006). The importance of employing novel and improved technologies such as molecular approaches in combination to morphological analysis cannot therefore be over-emphasized.

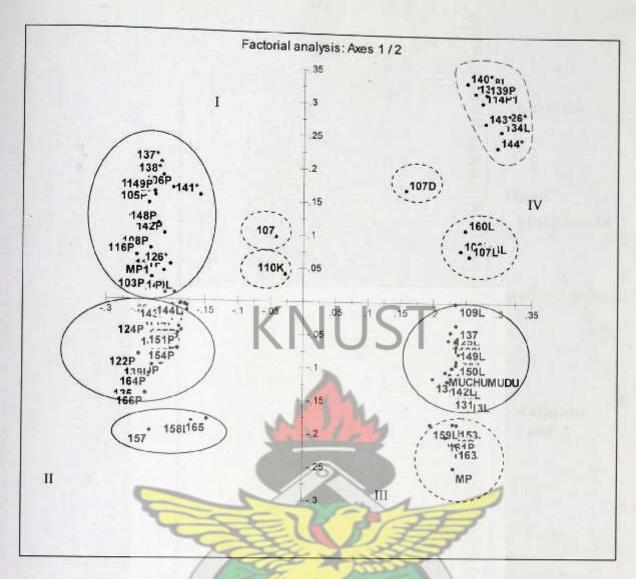


Fig. 16: Configuration of the combined morphological and molecular similarity data using DARwin, v. 5.0.153.

Morphological analysis of the accessions of the *Pona* complex germplasm resulted in 4 main morphotypes (cultivars groups): *Pona*, *Laribako*, *Dente*, and *Kulunku* groups (Fig. 17). The identity of these groupings is presented in Table 14. A group as defined by Dansi et al., (1999) is "a very particular cultivar or set of morphologically similar cultivars such that the intra-group variability is lower than the inter-group variability". In terms of maturity, all the accessions were early maturing except *Muchumudu* and *Dente* which was not part of the *Pona* complex but a check).

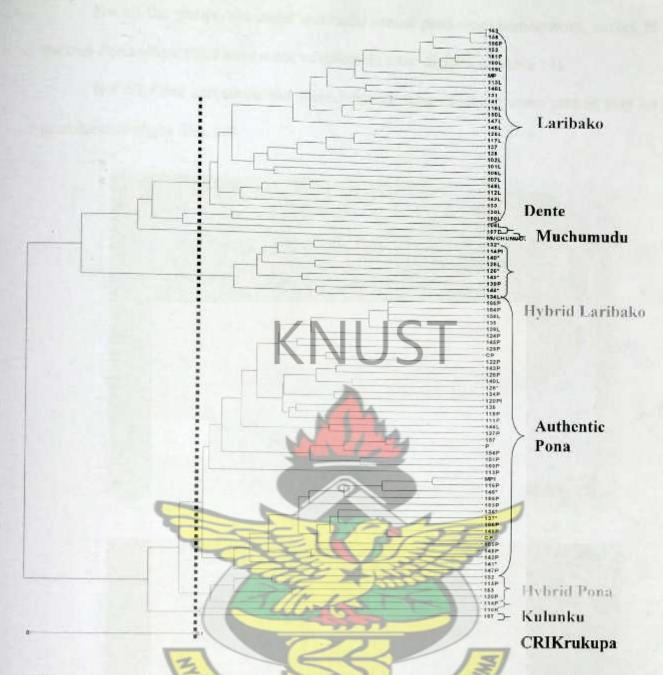


Fig. 17: Genetic diversity tree of pona complex based on combined morphological and molecular data.

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For all the groups, the aerial and underground parts were homogenous, except in the true *Pona* where there were some variations in tuber digitation (Table 14).

Not all *Pona* accessions had forked/digitate tuber. Forking when present may be prominent or slight (Fig. 18).



Fig. 18: Sample of pona tubers showing digitations; digitate (A) to no digitation (B).

In terms of tuber shape, the true *Pona* and its 'look-alikes' differed principally in terms of crown position on tuber, shape of tail and size of head in relation to tail.



Fig. 19: Close up view of head region of *Pona* and its 'look-alikes' showing position of crowns on tuber.

The true *Pona* differ from its 'look-alikes' in having its crown well inserted into the head of the tuber, as oppose to the crown standing on the head of the tuber (Fig. 19).

The tail region also differed significantly among Pona and its 'look-alikes' (Fig. 20).



Fig. 20: Varying shape of tail of tuber Pona and its 'look-alikes'.

Muchumudu tubers have evenly shaped big tail (Fig. 20). Numbo tubers have characteristic conical-shaped tail. Kulunku tubers have digitate tail. The tail region of Fuseini looks like human foot. The tubers of the true Pona, on the other hand, are sagitate.

Fig. 21 shows the 'size of head in relation to tail' variation between *Pona* and its 'look-alikes'. The true *Pona* has characteristics big head and tapers to the tail region.

Muchumudu on the other hand has big head which continues to the tail. Fuseini and Laribako all have medium head which continues to the tail. In contrast Numbo has small head compared to broad tail. Kunluku also has small head and broad.

Flowering was also profuse when they occurred. The *Muchumudu* group had similar vegetative characteristics as the true *Pona* but differed in terms of tuber quality in having more watery flesh of freshly harvested tubers than the true *Pona*.

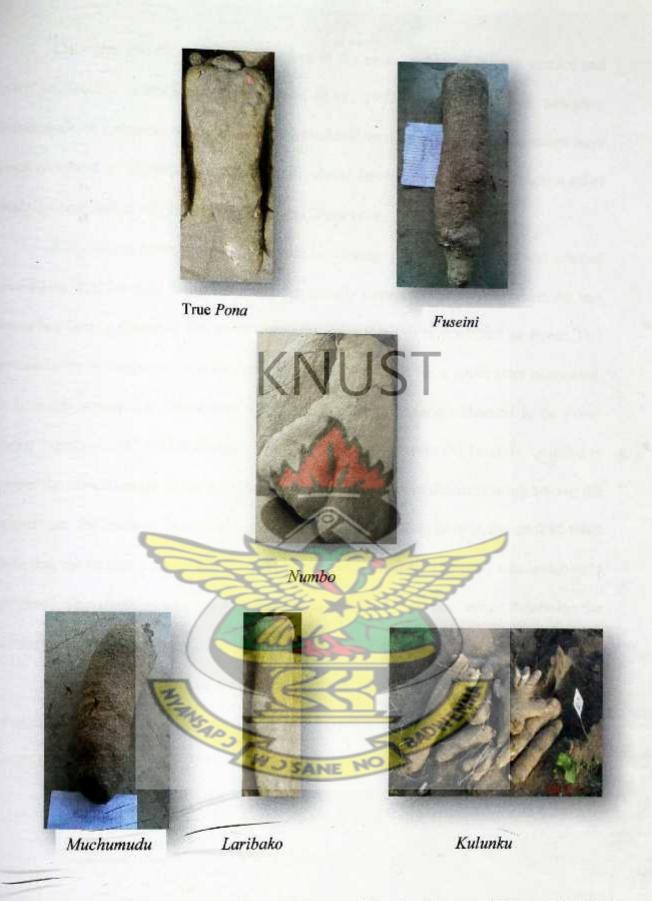


Fig. 21: The varying 'size of head in relation to tail' and tail shape of *Pona* and its 'look-alikes'.

They also had characteristic striations in the cross-section of the cut surface and were similar to "Ahimon" in Benin (Dansi et al., 1999). Its flowering was complex: either male or female or monoecious. An intraclonal variation in sex determination have been observed in "Ahimon" where two individuals derived from the same original tuber had flowered differently as male and female (Dansi et al., 1999).

After losing some water content after harvesting, *Muchumudu* tasted and smelled like *Pona*. *Muchumudu* being late maturing usually comes to the market when the true *Pona* has been exhausted, due to its similarity with *Pona*, it is marketed as *Pona*. This accounts for its usage as *Pona* by yam sellers after storing it for a while after harvesting. It is worth noting that *Dente* was not part of accessions farmers claimed to be *Pona*. *Dente* together with 'CRI-Kukrupa' (late maturing variety) were deliberately included to assess the effectiveness of the morphological characteristics in discriminating among the accessions; the analysis identified these unique accessions. It is only in the cooked tuber state that the unique taste and flavour (a culinary characteristic of *Pona*) was undeniably observed. This explains why most farmers in the market, where one cannot determine the culinary characteristics, pass off most yam varieties as *Pona*.

Externally, the tubers of the true *Pona* can be identified by looking at the insertion of crown in the tuber, tail shape, presence of grooves on the tuber surface and the size of head in relation to tail (Fig. 22).



Fig. 22. External tuber characteristics of authentic *Pona* (A) Inserted crown; (B) relatively big head compare to tail (C); and (D) characteristic grooves on tuber surface.

4.7 Combined Morphological and Molecular Characterization

The combination of morphological and molecular data (Appendix III) and their subsequent ordination and clustering is presented in Fig. 16 and Fig. 17 respectively. The ordination analysis of the combined morphological and molecular data (Fig. 16) showed that there were subgroups within each quadrant. For instance in Quadrant I, there was a main Pona group consisting of 16 accessions and 2 stand alone groups of 'CRI-Kukrupa' (107) and Kulunku (110K). Similarly, 2 groups were observed in Quadrant II, with a major group of about 13 Pona accessions and a smaller group of 3 accessions of Pona. Quadrant III had one main Laribako and minor group of Pona. A distinct Dente (107D) group, a 4-member Laribako group and a major Laribako group were found in Quadrant IV.

Further analysis of the molecular data with the Tree analysis of the molecular data using the DARwin 5.0.153 software and tree construction procedure with the neighbour-joining approach showed large number of inter- and intra-specific polymorphisms that reliably discriminate between the samples (Figure 17). Again, some of the *Laribako* accessions clustered with *Pona* and vice versa indicating the close relationship between the two varieties.

The local checks *Dente* (107D), and *CRI-Kukrupa* (107) were separated from the rest and so was *Muchumudu* and *Kulunku*. A small group of 4 accessions including Mankrong *Pona* were named Hybrid *Laribako* due to their closeness to the main *Laribako* group. Similarly, a minor group consisting of 4 accessions were also named Hybrid *Pona* due to their closeness to the main authentic *Pona*. It has been suggested that hybridization between congeneric diploid taxa (often species) followed by selection for one or more recombinant types can lead to the formation of new species (Grant, 1981). This might have accounted for the emergence of "hybrids" of pona and Laribako. The structure and reproductive biology of these groups are presented in Table 13. The characteristics of the groupings are also presented in Table 14.

Table 13: Structure of the cultivar groups.

Cultivar	Intragroup variability	ability	Cultivar	Ea	TT	LW	TS			
Group	aerial part	Tuber	names		СШ	СШ	cm	sex	Flowering	Fruit
1. True Pona	Homogenous	heterogenous	Pona	B	13	9.2	100	M	Profuse	1
2. Hybrid Pona	Heterogenous	heterogenous	HPona	E	12	7.8	06	M	Profuse	None
3. <i>Laribako</i> 4. Hybrid	Homogenous	heterogenous	Laribako	Е	13	9.2	99	M/F?	Profuse	None
Laribako	Heterogenous	helerogenous	HLaribako	H	Ξ	75	70	M/F?	Profuse	None
5. Kunlunku	Homogenous	homogenous	Kulunku	田	12	6.1	09	•		,
6. Dente 7. 'CRI-	Homogenous	heterogenous	Dente	L	=	K	70	II.	Profuse	Yes
Kukrupa*	Homogenous	homogenous	Kukrupa'	Δ	10.9	5.6	62	Σ	Profise	None

NB: Ea = Earliness; E = Early; L = Late; LL= Leaf Length; LW = Leaf Width (average of 20 observations); TS= Tuber Size (average of 3 tubers);

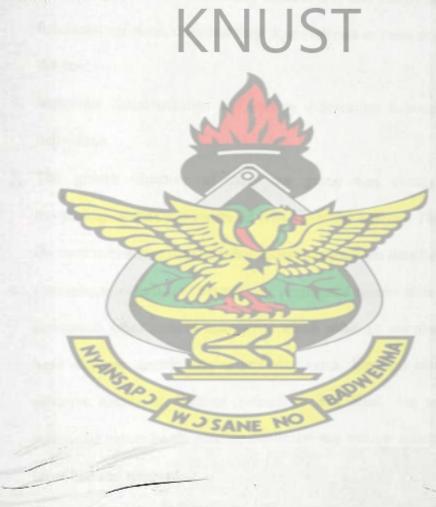
Table 14: Characteristics of the 6 groupings of yams identified within *Pona* complex.

Cultivar Groups	Major morphological characteristics
Pona	oval-oblong; roots unarmed; vines emerge long before leaf emergence; Mealy tuber; aromatic; thick tuber skin relative to <i>Laribako</i> ; White-yellowish tuber flesh colour. Crown of seed yam is red in colour.
Laribako	Stem smooth and unarmed. Leaf green and cordiform. Tuber long and cylindrical; roots unarmed; vines emerge with leaves; thin tuber skin; Very mealy cooked tuber and aromatic. Crown of seedyam is white in colour.
Muchumudu	Stem smooth but armed. Leaf light green with smooth border. Leaf cordiform; Late maturing; Tuber yellowish and finely striated. Tuber big and unbranched;
Kunlunku	Numerous vines (12-14) yet single tuber per mound. Stem smooth and unarmed. Leaf green and cordiform. Tuber long and cylindrical; roots unarmed; vines emerge with leaves. Thin tuber skin; Cooked tuber mealy, aromatic.
Dente	Stem rough and armed. Brown thorn; Leaf light green sagittate leaf. Tuber short with big head. Thick tuber skin; mealy cooked tuber; grainy texture and non-aromatic
'CRI- Kukrupa'	Stem rough and armed. Brown thorn; Leaf light green sagittate leaf. Tuber short with big head. Thick tuber skin; mealy cooked tuber; grainy texture and aromatic. Multiple tubering

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4.9. Core Collection Determination

Based on the morphological and molecular data, a core *Pona* collection was made consisting of 5 accessions each for Laribako (1021, 101L, 108L, 107L and 149L) and *Pona* (128P, 134P, 114P and 111P). Accessions 124L, 115P, 110K and *Muchumudu* were also selected to represent *Laribako* hybrid, *Pona* hybrid, *Kulunku* and *Muchumudu* respectively. These materials would be conserved under slow growth in vitro (tissue culture) systems to ensure that they do not become extinct under field genebank conditions.



CHAPTER 5

5.0 CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

From this study the following conclusions can be drawn:

- 1. There is only one true Pona.
- Pona complex is made up of six cultivars- Pona, Laribako, Kulunku, 'Fuseini',
 'Numbo' and Muchumudu due to their close similarity with respect to their
 culinary attributes.
- Morphological and folk taxonomy because they rely mostly on phenotypic and functional variation, classified these four cultivars as *Pona* at different times of the year.
- Molecular characterization was able to differentiate between closely related individuals.
- 5. The genetic structure of this yam group was clearly defined when morphological data was combined with molecular analysis. This study confirms the need to combine both morphological and molecular data for such analysis.
- 6. Germplasm collection of vegetatively propagated species such as D. rotundatacayenensis often contains accessions which although morphologically similar have different genetic origins and vice versa. Identical cultivars may have different names in different collections and areas due to the numerous vernacular names hence putative duplicates and cultivar misclassification were identified and removed.
- 7. The true Pona has the following characteristics: smooth and unarmed stem; green and cordiform leaf; unarmed roots; at sprouting, vines emerge long before leaf emergence; long and cylindrical tuber; thick tuber skin relative to Laribako; cooked tuber is mealy and aromatic; tuber flesh is white with yellowish tint; the

- crown of the seedyam of authentic *Pona* is purple; and the crown of the tuber is also well inserted in the tuber.
- A total of 13 DNA markers facilitated the identification of the authentic *Pona*.
 They are Da1F08, Dab2C05, Dab2D06, Dab2E09, Dpr3D06, Dpr3F04, Da1A01, YM13, YM15, YM26, Da1D08, Da1C12, and Dpr3F10.
- A core collection of *Pona* collection was determined consisting of 5 accessions
 each for Laribako (1021, 101L, 108L, 107L and 149L) and *Pona* (128P, 134P,
 114P and 111P). Accessions 124L, 115P, 110K and *Muchumudu* for were
 selected to represent *Laribako* hybrid, *Pona* hybrid, *Kulunku* and *Muchumudu*respectively.



RECOMMENDATIONS

- The true Pona having been identified must be multiplied and disseminated to farmers.
- 2. If Ghana is to maintain its place as the leading exporter of yams, it must ensure the purity of the varieties. In this regard, this findings will be made available to the Ghana Standards Board to facilitate the yam export trade with respect to varietal identification and ultimately to ensure purity of our varieties.
- A regulatory body equivalent to Ghana Grains Development Board must be set up to regulate the trade in planting materials of root and tuber crops in general and yams in particular.
- Some selected farmers and traders must also be trained in maintenance of varietal purity and certified to produce such tubers.
- 5. A factsheet and poster of *Pona* and its look-alikes will be developed and made available to all yam stakeholders.

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Appendix 1: List of descriptors used for the study

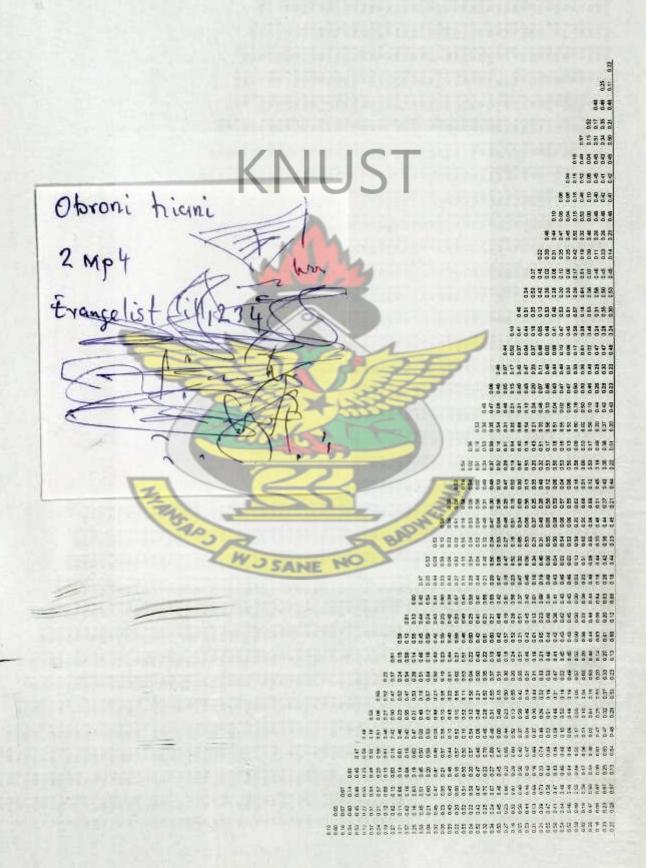
1 71.1 2 71.17 3 71.18 4 71.19 5 71.24 6 71.24 7 71.34 8 71.35 9 71.36 10 7.1.37 11 7.1.39 13 7.1.40 14 7.1.5 15 7.1.7 16 72.10 18 72.10	TO THE PERSON NAMED AND A PARTY OF THE PARTY	*
	TANKS AS ASSESSED OF THE PARTY	
	Days to emergence [u], 14-EARLI -0, 214-EARLI	: 1
	No of sprouts/seedyam min; <5=0, ≥5=1	8
	Stem colour; green= 0, non-green=1	ပ
	Number of internodes to first branching; <3 =0, >3=1	D
	Stem length [cm]; >120 =0, <120=1	ш
	Absence/presence of waxiness; absence =0, present =1	T.
	Spines on stem base, Few =0, Many =1	9
	Spines on stem above base; Few =0, Many =1	Н
	Spine position; wing =0, else =1	-
	Spine shape; straight =0, clse= 1	k
	Spine length, short =0, long =1	*
	Absence/presence of coalescent spines; absence =0, present =1	N
	Colour of spot at spine base; Red =0, else =1	M
	Absence or presence of waxiness; absence =0, present =1	
	Wing colour; green =0, non-green =1	9
	First leaf emergence (after sprouting in days); 1 (early) =0, >1(late)=1	2
18 7.2.12	Leaf density; low = 0, high = 1	0-
	Leaf type; simple = 0, compound =1	T
19 7.2.12.1	Leaf margin; entire ≠ 0, serrate =1	ו מ
20 7.2.12.2	Leaf lobation; shallowly lobed = 0 , deeply lobed = 1	- :
21 7.2.14	Leatheriness; No =0, Yes=1	o ;
22 7.2.15	Leaf colour, yellowish = 0, non-yellowish = 1	> :
23 7.2.16	Leaf vein colour (upper surface); yellowish = 0 , non-yellowish = 1	≥×
71 27 17	Leaf vein colour (lower surface); vellowish = 0, non-yellowish = 1	

									K		1			J.	S		Г									
I eaf margin colour: oreen = 0 non-oreen = 1	Number of leaves (30 days after emergence); <60 = 0,>60=1	Leaf shape; ovate $= 0$, non-ovate $= 1$	Undulation of leaf; fcw = 0, many = 1	Distance between lobes; none = 0 , some = 1	Downward arching of leaf along main vein; no = 0, yes = 1	Upward folding of leaf lobes to form a cup; no = 0, yes = 1	Downward arching of leaf lobes; no = 0 , yes = 1	Leaf colour; light green = 0, other =1	Position of the widest part of the leaf; third upper = 0, other = 1	Tip length; <2mm = 0, ≥2mm = 1	Tip colour; light green = 0, other = 1	Petiole length; ≤5cm = 0, >5cm =1	Petiole length in correlation to leaf blade; <2mm = 0, 22mm = 1	Mature Petiole colour; all green with purplish base =0, other = 1	Petiole wing colour; green = 0, non-green = 1	Absence/presence of stipules: Absence = 0 , present = 1	Vein colour; yellowish =0. Non-yellowish=1	Young Petiole colour; all green with purplish base =0, other = 1	Petiole wing colour; green = 0, non-green = 1	Flowering: none =0, flowered=1	Number of female flowers per inflorescence; $\leq 10 = 0, > 10 = 1$	Flower colour; yellowish =0; light green =1)	Female flower length; ≤2.5cm = 0, >2.5cm =1	Female flower diameter [mm]; <2.0mm = 0, >2.0mm =1	Male flower diameter; ≤2.0mm = 0, >2.0mm =1	
7218	7.2.2	7.2.22	7.2.24	7.2.25	7.2.27	7.2.28	7.2.29	7.2.3	7.2.30	7.2.32	7.2.33	7.2.34	7.2.35	7.2.37	7.2.38	7.2.40	7.2.5	7.2.6	7.2.7	7.3.1	7.3.10	7.3.11	7.3.12	7.3.13	7.3.14	
35	56	27	28	59	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	4	45	46	47	48	46	20	

Sex; female=0;male=1 Inflorescence position; 0=up, 1=down Inflorescence smell; absence = 0, pre Average length of inflorescence; ≤5c Number of inflorescences per internoral formation; No = 0, Ycs = 1 Absence/presence of rhizome; absences printing at harvest; no=0; yes=1 Tuber shape; round = 0, else = 1 Tuber shape; round = 0, else = 1 Tuber shape; round = 0, else = 1 Tuber width [cm], <8 = 0, >20cm = 1 Tuber width [cm], <8 = 0, >20cm = 1 Tuber width [cm], <8 = 0, >20cm = 0, round	Days to flowering after emergence [d]; <50 =0, >50	BC
Inflorescence position; 0=up, 1=down 1.3.6 Inflorescence snell; absence = 0, present = 1 7.3.6 Average length of inflorescence; ≤5cm = 0, >5cm = 1 7.3.9 Number of inflorescences per internode; <4=0;≥4=1 7.4.1 Fruit formation; No = 0, Ycs = 1 7.6.10 Absence/presence of rhizome; absence = 0, present = 1 7.6.11 Spiningss of roots; sparse = 0, dense = 1 7.6.12 Absence/presence of anchor roots; absence = 0, presence = 1 7.6.13 Sprouting at harvest; no=0; yes=1 7.6.14 Tuber shape; round=0, else=1 7.6.15 Tuber length; ≤20cm = 0, >20cm = 1 7.6.16 Place where tuber branches; upper third = 0, other=1 7.6.17 Tuber length; ≤20cm = 0, >20cm = 1 7.6.18 Tuber width [cm], <8=0, ≥8=1 7.6.19 Roots on the tuber surface; few = 0, many=1 7.6.19 Place of roots on the tuber; lower = 0, other=1 7.6.19 Prickly appearance of the tuber; lower = 0, other=1 7.6.21 Absence/presence of blisters on tuber surface; absence = 0, present = 1 7.6.22 Absence/presence of cracks on the tuber surface; absence = 0, present = 1 7.6.23 Absence/presence of cracks on the tuber surface; absence = 0, present = 1 7.6.24 Absence/presence of cracks on the tuber surface; absence = 0, present = 1 7.6.25 Absence/presence of present = 1 7.6.27 Absence/presence of cracks on the tuber surface; absence = 0, present = 1 7.6.24 Absence/presence of cracks on the tuber surface; absence = 0, present = 1 7.6.25 Absence/presence of cracks on the tuber surface; absence = 0, present = 1 7.6.24 Absence/presence of cracks on the tuber surface; absence = 0, present = 1 7.6.25 Absence/presence of cracks on tuber surface; absence = 0, present = 1 7.6.24 Absence/presence of cracks on the tuber surface; absence = 0, present = 1		BD
	0	BE
	cent = 1	BF
	n = 0, >5cm = 1	BG
	le; <4=0;≥4=1	BH
-	1	BI
	e = 0, present =1	BJ
-		BK
	sence = 0, presence = 1	BL
-		BM
-		BN
-	nched = 0, branched = 1	BO
-	13	
-	S	BQ
-	12	N-7/
-		BS
	=0, many=1	BT
	nonths; <6=0; >6=1	BU
\$	other=1	BV
72 72 4	: 0, YES =1	B
>2° 4	any=1	BX
	surface; absence = 0, present = 1	B
	per surface; absence = 0, present = 1	l BZ
7.6.25 Tuber skin thickness; <1mm=0, ≥1 mm	=	CA

101	8.3.14	Absence/presence of moisture on cooked tuber; absence = 0; present= 1	CZ
102	8.3.15	Overall assessment of cooked tuber; low = 0, high = 1	DA
103	8.3.2	Preferred cooking method; boiled = 0, other=1	DB
104	8.3.2.1	Poundability of boiled tuber; poor $= 0$, $good = 1$	DC
105	8.3.3	Cooking time to softness [min]; $\langle 20 = 0, \geq 20 = 1$	DD
901	8.3.4	Discolouration of cooking water; low = 0; high =1	DE
107	8.3.5	Appearance of tuber after cooking; poor = 0, good =1	DF
108	8.3.6	coloured=1	DG
601	8.3.7	Attractiveness of cooked tuber; non-attractive = 0, attractive =1	DH
110	8.3.8	Erosion of tuber upon cooking; no=0; yes= 1	ō
111	111 8.3.9	Texture of cooked tuber; smooth = 0, grainy =1	D

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3.8

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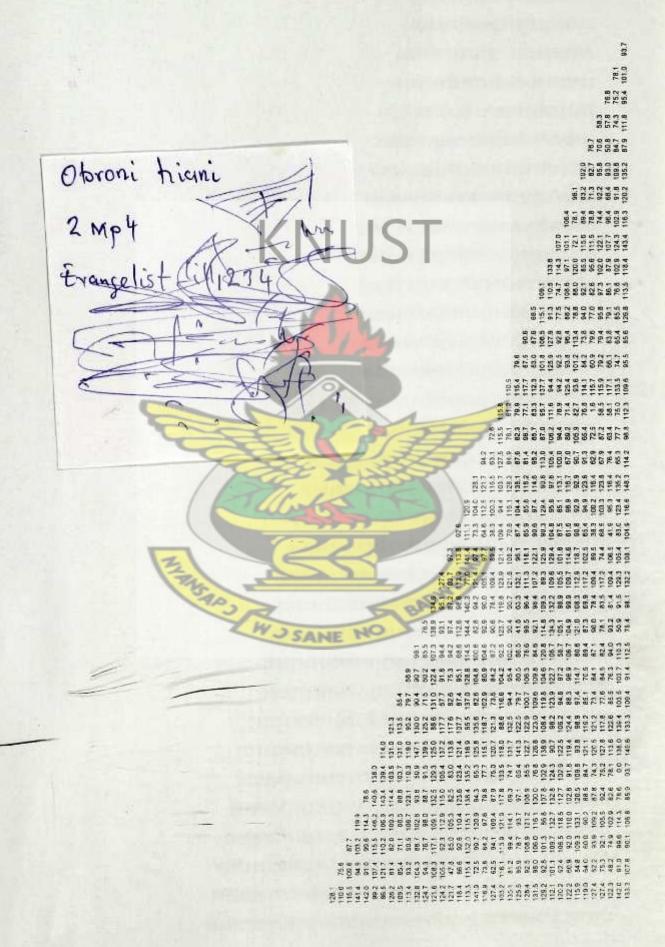
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Appendix V: Detailed Results of Allelic frequency analysis of Pona Complex in Ghana using SSR allelic data

YM13	175		4750000	Zy	zygotes	Freq	HObs	HExp	PIC	W.	Square	DL	value	Na
K.M26	175						0.971	0.628	0.545	*	18.1147	44		-0.2494
(M26	212	1 2		2	0	0.0294								
(M26	The state of the s	31		29	-	0.4559								
/M26	220	30		30	0	0.4412	-							
M26	227	3	1	to.	0	0.0441								
M26	230	2	STO.	2	0	0.0294								
	_		14	1	6	5	1.0000	0.5693	0.469	* * *	46.8500	-	<0.0000001	-0.2944
	101	4	2	4	0	0.03252								
	101	150	N. T.	_	0	0	1		ŀ	1				
	127	17	2	4		0.00813		7	<	,				
	133	56		. 99	0 2	0.45528	-	1		I				
	135	A7	_	2	6	0.01626		1	1					
	141	54		25	0	0.43902	2							
	162	1	1		0	0.00813	1	h						
	174	(3	5	2	0	0.04065		6	J.	14				
Dpr3D06		-	-		F	N. P.	1,0000	0.8560	0.8309		18.1112	7	0.00000002	-0.881
	125	18	80	18	0	0.1217)					
	127	1	O'N	-		0.0068				-				
	131	0.	3	2	9	0.0338								
	133	9	/	9	0	0.0406								
	137	7		-	0	0.0473								
	143	7	22	4	0	0.0270								
	145	2		7	0	0.0135								
	148	13		10	0	0.0879								
	150	11		Ξ	0	0.0744								
	160	3		3	0	0.0203								

						YMIS										Dab2E09				Da1A01			
991	170	175/1	179	161		_	170	186	197	211	223	228	230	240	293		1117	120	~		212	214	225
4	36	35	-	2	,	1	2 / 2		9	9	Ā	10	72	8	7	10	38	38			38	19	19
4	36	35	_	7	N.	-	2 6	4	9	10	4	91		2	12		38	38	7		38	19	61
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0.0270	0.2434	0.2366	8900.0	0.0135	Q	1000	0.0357	0.0714	0.1071	0.1786	0.0714	0.1786	0.0714	0.0357	0.2143	2	0.5000	0.5000	7	S ROBERT	0.5	0.2	0.2
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						0.8454			K		1			19	5	0.5018 ***				O ND			
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						<0.00000001										1 <0.0000001				,			
					1	-0.0799										-0.2873				ND			

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APPENDIX VI: PRINCIPAL COORDINATES (METRIC -DIMENSIONAL SCALING) SCORES

e		pal Coordina	
Sample	0.17254	2	2 2 1 1 2
1	0.17354	-0.1537	-0.0489
2	0.22102	-0.141	0.01514
3	0.08705	-0.2006	-0.025
4	-0.0249	-0.0289	0.11045
5	-0.1585	0.20379	-0.1474
6	0.15963	-0.084	-0.0782
7	-0.0795	0.10069	-0.127
8	0.19089	-0,0222	0.1015
9	-0.0586	-0.1912	-0.1274
10	0.13649	-0.0385	-0.0374
11	-0.4096	-0.2351	-0.33
12	0.11868	0.00876	-0.038
13	0.17311	-0.0707	0.06340
14	0.24697	-0.1254	0.0947
15	-0.0426	0.33125	0.1645
16	-0.4235	-0.2994	-0.312
17	0.13484	-0.1136	0.0289
18	0.00432	-0.2778	-0.082
19	0.12711	0.07398	0.0175
20	0.17908	-0.0832	0.0760
21	-0.2306	0.28777	-0.082
22/	-0.5973	-0.1753	0.520
23	0.18676	-0.1077	0.0726
24	0.01402	-0.24	-0.090
25	0.0154	0.35727	0.0844
26	-0.2143	0.13846	0.1155
27	0.08851	-0.1925	0.1265
28	-0.1191	0.06226	-0.253
29	0.04324	-0.252	0.0050
30	0.18096	-0.1331	0.0009
31_	0.09228	0.15014	-0.058
32	0.01256	0.09614	-0.155
33	-0.2307	0.06067	-0.125
34	0.1259	0.06432	0.0917
35	0.07841	0.05264	-0.120
36	0.19363	-0.0938	0.0430
37	0.06921	0.26197	-0.028
38	-0.2342	0.27875	-0.094
39	0.0517	-0.1877	0.0155
39	0.14085	-0.139	-0.052

APPENDIX VI: CONTINUED

41	0.17097	0.06569	0.01714
42	-0.0497	0.00378	-0.2343
43	0.03519	-0.1597	-0.1367
44	-0.2837	0.20508	-0.0666
45	-0.5973	-0.1753	0.5209
46	0.2297	-0.0386	0.14364
47	0.17741	-0.0732	-0.0167
48	0.00372	0.23589	-0.02
49	-0.0126	0.08427	-0.1985
50	0.06368	0.11043	-0.1311
51	-0.4865	-0.2212	-0.1847
52	0.01833	-0.2142	-0.1314
53	0.21849	-0.0427	0.15248
54	0.16279	-0.0623	0.04461
55	0.09708	0.15879	0.01285
56	0.17885	-0.0654	0.01807
57	0.13583	0.20247	0.13465
58	0.1774	-0.0436	0.16447
- 59	-0.0029	-0.0132	-0.1232
60	0.16098	0.03676	0.06377
61	0.15551	-0.1222	0.00221
62	-0.189	0.30778	-0.0189
63	-0.4269	0.0055	-0.2271
64	0.12018	-0.0308	0.21085
65	-0.273	0.17222	-0.0322
66	-0.0642	0.10507	-0.1031
67	0.21761	-0.0376	0.18897
68	0.15591	-0.0558	-0.0025
69	-0.0147	0.36758	0.18627
70	0.06669	0.3019	0.08906
71	-0.0465	0.00327	-0.197
72	0.18842	0.01106	0.197
73	-0.0419	0.30829	-0.0201
74	0.07891	0.0529	-0.018
75	-0.5973	-0.1753	0.5209
76	-0.1502	-0.1501	-0.1379