## Czech University of Life Sciences Prague

Faculty of Tropical AgriSciences





# Molecular Characterization of Plukenetia volubilis L. and Analysis of Seed Storage Protein Pattern and Protein Fractions

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### Declaration

I, Martin Ocelák, declare that this thesis, submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Ph.D., in the Faculty of Tropical AgriSciences of the Czech University of Life Sciences Prague, is wholly my own work unless otherwise referenced or acknowledged.

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#### Abstract

Plukenetia volubilis is a higly nutritious oilcrop from the Southern America. This study aimed to assess the diversity and genetic relations in 173 sacha inchi samples from 10 locations in San Martín region in Peruvian Amazon. Genetic analysis was elaborated using ISSR markers, and the total protein and protein fractions content in its seeds were measured using Osborne´s and Kjeldahl´s methods. Results of Kjeldahl method were used for calibration model of FT NIRS. Eight primers showed variability in tested samples. ISSR fragments ranged from 200 to 2,500 bp. The obtained level of genetic variability was 36% among tested populations and 64% within populations. The mean of Nei's genetic diversity index H was 0.18, the mean of Shannon's information index was 0.28, the Nei's gene differentiation index  $G_{st}$  was calculated to be 0.290 and gene flow index  $N_m$  estimated at 1.227. That is why the cluster analysis well revealed eight clusters containing mainly samples belonging to individual populations. PCoA clearly distinguished Chumbaquihui, Pucallpa, Dos de Mayo, and Aguas de Oro populations, the others were intermixed, and there were nine clearly distigished clusters in the NJ dendrogram. The obtained results indicated the level of genetic diversity is present in this location of Peru although it is influenced by anthropological aspects and independent on the geographical distances. The crude protein content of seeds in sacha inchi populations was detected at a range between 15.95% and 23.83% by the Kjeldahl method with mean at 20.61%. The protein fractions estimated by modified Osborne's method ranged between 10.2 and 18.4% for albumins-globulins; 0.1 and 0.5% for gliadins; and 3.6% and 8% for glutenins. The calibration model for FT NIRS had  $R^2 = 0.88$  and RMSEP = 0.46%. Protein bands of total seed protein were detected in the wide range of molecular weight 10-75 kDa with seven bands detected on polyacrylamide gel. This study mapped current genetic diversity in selected populations in San Martín region of Peruvian Amazon. The significant differences were discovered both in genetic and protein contents. FT NIRS was successfully tested for protein content prediction.

Keywords: FT NIRS; genetic diversity; Plukenetia volubilis; oil crop, protein content; protein fractions content; Sacha inchi, SDS-PAGE

#### Abstrakt

Plukenetia volubilis je vysoce nutriční olejnina z Jižní Ameriky. Tato studie se zaměřila na zjištění genetické diverzity mezi 173 genotypy sacha inchi celkem z 10 lokalit v regionu San Martín v Peruánske Amazónii. K tomu bylo využito ISSR markerů a obsah bílkovin a bílkovinných frakcí v jejich semenech byl zjištěn Osbornovou a Kjeldahlovou metodou. Výsledky Kjeldahlovy metody byly využity pro sestavení kalibračního modelu spektroskopie v blízké infračervené oblasti. 8 ISSR primerů amplifikovalo jasné a reprodukovatelné polymorfní bandy. Amplifikované fragmenty měly délky v rozmezí od 200 do 2500 pb. Zjištěná míra genetické variability byla rozdělena na 36% mezi populacemi a 64% uvnitř populací. Průměrná hodnota indexu Neiovy genetické diverzity H byla 0,18, průměr Shannonova informačního indexu I 0,28. Neiův diferenciační index Gst nabyl hodnoty 0,290 a index genetického toku  $N_m$  1,227. Díky tomu byla detekována jasná genetická struktura, díky níž PCoA jasně odlišila populace Chumbaquihui, Pucallpa, Dos de Mayo a Aguas de Oro, ale ostatní populace nebylo možné odlišit, zatímco v dendrogramu bylo zřetelně diferenciováno 9 klastrů převážně s jedinci té které populace. Zjištěné hodnoty naznačují, že genetická diverzita, ačkoli je ovlivněna antropologickými aspekty, zde existuje, a je nezávislá na geografické vzdálenosti. V těchto populacích byl v rámci této studie stanoven i průměrný obsah bílkovin 20,61%, s rozmezím 15,95% až 23,83% Kjeldahlovou metodou. Bílkovinové frakce byly stanoveny modifikovanou Osbornovou metodou mezi 10,2% a 18,4% pro albuminoglobulinovou frakci; 0,1 and 0,5% pro gliadiny; a gluteninů mezi 3,6% a 8%. Kalibrační model FT NIRS operoval s hodnotami koeficientu determinace  $R^2 = 0.88$  a RMSEP = 0,46%, což jsou hodnoty odpovídající kvalitnímu modelu. Celkem 7 bandů celkových bílkovin detekovaných na polyakrylamidovém gelu se pohybovalo mezi 10 – 75 kDa molekulární hmotnosti. Tato studie zmapovala současnou genetickou diverzitu ve vybraných populacích regionu San Martín v peruánské Amazonii. Statisticky významné rozdíly byly mezi populacemi detekovány jak v oblasti genetiky, tak v oblasti obsahů bílkovin. Využití metody FT NIRS bylo úspěšně otestováno pro predikci obsahu celkových bílkovin.

Klíčová slova: FT NIRS; genetická diverzita; Plukenetia volubilis; obsah bílkovin; obsah bílkovinových frakcí; olejnina, Sacha inchi; SDS-PAGE

#### Resumen

Plukenetia volubis es una planta muy nutritiva de Sudamérica. El presente trabajo estudió la variabilidad genética de 173 muestras de sacha inchi de 10 localidades en la Región San Martín en la Amazonía peruana. La variabilidad genética fue analisada con marcadores ISSR y el contenido de las proteínas y sus facciones en sus semillas col el métodos de Osborne y Kjeldahl. Los resultados de la análisis de Kjeldahl fueron utilizados para compilar el modelo de calibración de la espectroscopía infraroja cercana. 8 marcadores ISSR amplificarón claras y reproducibles bandas polimorfas. Fragmentos amplificados fueron de la longitud entre 200 y 2500 pares de bases. La cantidad de la varibilidad genética detectada fue dividida a 36% entre las poblaciones y 64% dentro de las poblaciones. El promedio del índice de diversidad genética de Nei I fue 0.18, el promedio del índice de información de Shannon H fue 0.28. El índice de diferenciación de Nei G<sub>st</sub> fue 0.290 y el índice de flujo genético N<sub>m</sub> fue 1.228. Gracias a estas valores la estructuralización genética fue detectada claramente, por eso PcoA podría distinguir claramente las poblaciones Chumbaquihui, Pucallpa, Dos de Mayo y Aguas de Oro y la dendrograma de NJ contenió 9 racimos con mayormente individualidades de las mismas poblaciones. Los valores calculados indican que la diversidad genética, aunque afectada con aspectos antropológicos, existe en la area de investigación y es independiente de la distancia geográfica. En estas poblaciones hemos investigado el contenido de proteínas a ser 20.61% en promedio entre mínimo 15.95% y máximo 23.83% con el método de Kjeldahl. Las facciones fueran investigadas con el método de Osborne cuál encontró albúminas-globulinas a ser entre 10.2% y 18.4%; gliadinas entre 0.1 y 0.5%; y gluteninas entre 3.6% y 8%. Modelo de calibración de FT NIRS trabajó con coeficiente de determinación  $R^2 = 0.88$  y RMSEP = 0,46%, cuáles son los valores apropiadas para el modelo de la alta calidad. En total 7 bandas de proteínas detectadas en gel de polyacrylamida osciló entre 10 – 75 kDa de peso molecular. Este estudio ha investigado la diversidad genética recien en poblaciones selectadas en la Región San Martín en la Amazonía peruana. Las diferencias importantes entre las poblaciones fueran detectadas ambos en la genetica y los contenidos de proteínas. Uso del método de FT NIRS fue probado con éxito para la predicción del contenido de protínas crudas.

Palabras clave: contenido de proteínas; contenido de facciones de proteínas; diversidad genética; FT NIRS; oleaginosa; Plukenetia volubilis; Sacha inchi, SDS-PAGE

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#### 1. Introduction

It has been claimed that plant breeding reduces genetic diversity in elite germplasm, which could seriously jeopardize the continued ability to improve crops (Reif et al. 2005). The genetic diversity is a key component for evolution and adaptation. It also plays an important role in the population fitness. The loss of genetic diversity is related to inbreeding, and inbreeding reduces reproductive fitness (Reed and Frankham, 2003). That is why we need to maintain populations with high genetic diversity, mainly of cultivated crops, as it provides possibilities for plant improvements.

The loss of genetic diversity was encountered in many cultivated crops. However in crops, whose breeding is just at the beginning, we can avoid the loss by preserving their natural and diverse populations. Such crop may also be Plukenetia volubilis L., a highly nutritious traditional food crop of the Peruvian Amazon. It has gained world's attention since the oil derived from it's seeds won the gold medal at the "World Edible Oil" competition in Paris in 2004 (Agroindustrias Amazónicas, 2006). Since then, it became subject of research in various institutions. This "peanut of the Incas", or sacha inchi is a native plant whose origins lays in the Peruvian Amazon and its potential revenue from cultivation could aid poor indigenous and mestizo communities to move out of poverty and improve the diets in the same time (Hamaker et al., 1992; Hofmeijer, 2010). Sacha inchi was noticed already in 1992 by Hamaker (1992), who described its nutritional properties.

Sacha inchi has seeds of a lenticular shape, which are rich in oil and proteins and contain heat-labile substances with a bitter taste, which can be removed by roasting. It has traditionally been consumed by the Indians of Peru. It was probably cultivated by the pre-Incas and the Incas because representations of this plant and of its fruits have been found in vessels in Inca tombs; although it has been in danger of extinction, projects are now underway-developed by several universities, industries, local institutions and farmers – to recover its cultivation (Guillén et al. 2003). Recently, the cultivation of this crop spreads not just across Peru, but abroad too. It is now cultivated in Cambodia, Thailand or China. The Amazon natives obtain flour and oil from sacha inchi seeds. These products are used in the preparation of various meals and beverages; roasted seeds either mixed with corn meal and peppers or alone, and cooked tender leaves are also consumed. However, this plant has rarely been studied, and its importance from the nutritional and functional point of view is still a subject of research (Guillén et al. 2003; Sathe et al., 2002).

Sacha inchi is not valued only for its importance in alimentation, culture or history, but also in its economical rentability. It is a potential economically efficient crop with great possibilities of industrialization and is going to be grown intensively but a very high genetic, morphological and phytochemical variation was observed (Arévalo, 1995), which may lead to need of further investigations. At this moment, agronomy assessment is in progress and genetic improvement is just at the beginning. Only a few publications about sacha inchi's genetics is available today (Corazon-Guivin et al., 2008; Corazon-Guivin et al., 2009; Rodríguez et al., 2010; Křivánková et al., 2012; Rodrigues et al., 2013 – Table 5) Therefore this study attempts to provide some additional knowledge about existing genetic diversity of P. volubilis in the country of its origin - Peru, because the knowledge of genetic relationship and variability is a useful tool to improve selection of appropriate genotypes for breeding.

The aim of this thesis was to assess the genetic variability and to analyse seed protein patterns and fractions in selected populations of P. volubilis, a species for which few genetic experiments were elaborated, in Peruvian Amazon, the genetic centre of that species. Mapping of genetic diversity and description protein polymorphism can help to recover the genetic relationship and variability important for future researches and improvements.

#### 2. Literature review

#### 2.1 Genus Plukenetia's origin, distribution and taxonomy

The tribe *Plukenetieae* belongs to the subfamily *Acalyphoideae*, the largest and the least understood of the five euphorbiaceous subfamilies. It includes 13 genera distributed worldwide in the tropical and warm temperate regions. Plukenetia species in tropical America varies from 7 to 12 (Standley and Steyemark, 1949; Hutchinson, 1969) and to recent date there were reported 12 in Americas, 3 in Africa, 3 in Madagascar and 1 in Asia (Gillespie, 1993; Gillespie 2007). The non-american species belonging to genus *Plukenetia* are *P. africana* Sond., *P.* conophora Müll. Arg. and P. procumbens Prain. from Africa, P. corniculata Sm., from Southern Asia, P. decidua L.J.Gillespie, P. ankaranensis L.J.Gillespie and P. madagascarariensis Leandri. from Madagascar (Gillespie, 2007; Bisby et al., 2010). Many species are twining vines or lianas, which are unusual habits in the family, other species are erect herbs, shrubs, or rarely small trees. Although flowers are small and apetalous, floral morphology is diverse, particularly the style and adroecium. Another uncommon feature is the presence of stinting hairs in many species. Gillespie (1993) in her synopsis compared eleven Neotropical species, such as P. serrata (Vell.) L.J.Gillespie, P. lehmanniana (Pax & K.Hoffm.) Huft & Gillespie, P. polyadenia Müll. Arg., P. brachybotrya Müll. Arg., P. multiglandulosa Jabl., P. loretensis Ule, P. penninervia Müll. Arg., P. verrucosa Sm., P. volubilis L. and newly described P. supraglandulosa L.J.Gillespie and P. stipellata L.J.Gillespie. There were some new Neotropical species distinguished recently, such as Plukenetia carolis-vegae (Bussman et al., 2013) and Plukenetia huayllabambana Bussmann, C.Téllez & A.Glenn which has very large seeds with a high content of fatty acids (Bussman et al. 2009). Jiménez (2000) identified P. carabiasiae J.Jiménez Ram. endemic to Oaxaca, Mexico. Based on ISSR analysis, Rodríguez et al. (2010) suggested a new species originally identified as P. volubilis. This suggestion may be supported by Gillespie (1993) who pointed on P. volubilis accession from Cuzco at elevation 1600 – 2000 m.a.s.l. not matching entirely any other Plukenetia species.

Full taxonomic classification of Plukenetia volubilis according to nomenclature database of Missouri Botanical Garden and Macbride (1990) is following:

Kingdom: Plantae Phyllum: Magnoliophyta Class: Magnoliopsida Order: Euphorbiales Family: Euphorbiaceae Subfamily: Acalyphoideae Tribe: Plukenetieae Genus: Plukenetia Species: Plukenetia volubilis L.

 The presence of Plukenetia volubilis in America was recorded in Bolivia, Brazil, Colombia, Costa Rica, Ecuador, French Guiana, Mexico, Panama, Peru, Suriname, Venezuela, Lesser Antilles and in West Indies (Macbride, 1951; Correa y Bernal 1992; Gillespie, 1993) as indicated in Figure 1.



Figure 1. Distribution of Plukenetia volubilis in Southern America (Křivánková, 2012)

Its growth within Peru was recorded in Regions San Martín, Ucayali, Huanuco, Cuzco, Amazonas, Loreto y Madre de Dios (Figure 2). In San Martín it was recorded in nearly entire basin of river Huallaga, in the province of Lamas, Valle de Sisa, Alto Mayo and Bajo Mayo. It grows in elevations between 100 and 2 000 m. a.s. l. (Manco, 2006).



Figure 2. Map of regions of Peru, where sacha inchi is cultivated (Netmaps, 2016)

#### 2.2Botanical description of P. volubilis species

Sacha inchi is a vigorous semiwoody liana of indefinite length (Manco, 2006). Leaves are alternate with petiole 2.5-7.5 cm long. Blade is mebraneous, triangularovate 9-16 cm long and 6-9 cm wide. Apex is long-acuminate and base truncate to cordate, glabrescent below, 3-veined at base. The plant is basically monoecious twining vine (as can be seen in Figure 3 and 4) or slender liana with stems up to 5m long (Gillespie, 1993).



Figure 3. Plukenetia volubilis L. plant - its habit and fruits. (picture taken by the author of thesis)



Figure 4. Plukenetia volubilis is a liana which under cultivation needs support to avoid putrefaction of fruits. Plantations are usually intercropped (Musa, Zea mays, Ananas comosus, Erythrina spp., etc.) (picture taken by the author of thesis)

Inflorescence is axillary or terminal on short shoot, racemous 5-18 cm long. Female flowers are 1 or rarely 2 at base; male flowers are white, numerous in condensed cymes above (Gillespie, 1994). There are approximately 200 flower buds/male inflorescence, 23 anthers/flower bud, 4 nests/anther and 8 grains of pollen/nests. The polen grains have elongated shapes, rounded at the extremes, with a medial cross section that extends from extreme to extreme, turning from transparent color to crystalline (Noriega et al. 2010). Sacha inchi is a dichogamous plant. According to its flowers, it can be considered as pollinated by wind, but is visited by insects too (Cachique, 2006). P. volubilis differs from other species by a single glandular knob at the petiole apex, longer stylar column is the longest of any species of Plukenetia and may attain a length of 3 cm  $(15 - 30 \text{ mm})$  and staminate flowers with short  $(0.8 \text{ m})$ mm) slender-conical filaments and four sepals (Gillespie, 1993) (Figure 5). Cachique (2006) estimated allogamy is the most effective way of pollination in sacha inchi, but autogamy may occur too and it never forms fruit without pollination. The female flowers once mature open at 5 – 5:30 a.m. and keep open for 35 – 48 hours. It may be flowering for approximately 46 days if not pollinated sooner. Once pollinated the fruit needs approximately 105 days for maturation.

The principal defining synapomorphies of tribe *Plukenetia* are the four-carpellate ovaries and the associated character of four pistillate sepals (Gillespie, 1993). P. volubilis produces a tetralobular 3.5-4.5 cm large, glabrous, initially fleshy, becoming woody and dehiscent capsule with loculi that contain one seed each each with white cotyledons and a hard, nutlike seed coat (Hamaker et al., 1992), however several collections have unusually large capsules with five or six carpels, which Gillespie (1993) attributes to individuals under cultivation. Seeds are lenticular, broadly oblong in outline 1.3-2.1 cm in diameter, brown with course dark brown markings.



Figure 5. Plukenetia volubilis (Mouré, 1967): A – habit (ca x  $\frac{1}{2}$ ); B – male flower (ca x 8); c  $=$  female flower (ca x 2)

#### 2.3 Nutritional properties of P. volubilis and its uses

The seeds collected in wild have long been a component of diets of the Chancas Indians and other tribal groups in the region. It is eaten either roasted or ground and mixed with maize meal and peppers. The protein content ranges between 24.7% and 27% (Gutiérez et al., 2011; Hamaker et al., 1992). The protein content of the defatted flour is about 53%. The sacha inchi protein, if completely digested, is deficient only in leucine and lysine. The amino acid profile was comparable to, and in some respect better than that of other oilseed in Andean region, such as peanut, soybean or cottonseed. The content of methionine, cysteine, tyrosine, threonine and tryptophan was higher; leucine and lysine was lower than other oilseed (Hamaker et al., 1992). Further amino acids comparison is available in Table 1. A water soluble storage albumin protein from sacha inchi seed accounted for 25% (w/w) of defatted seed flour weight, representing 31% of the total seed protein. The albumin fraction is mainly composed of a single storage protein that accounted for a substantial portion of total seed proteins. Sacha inchi seed has an estimated saccharide content of 4.8%  $\pm$ 0.92% (n=6). IPA (Inca Peanut Albumin) is a basic protein (p/ of 9.4) and contains all of the essential aminoacids in adequate amounts when compared to the FAO/WHO recommended pattern for a human adult. The trypthophan content of IPA is

unusually high (44 mg/g of protein), whereas the phenylalanine content is low (9 mg/g of protein). IPA is a highly digestible protein in vitro (Sathe et al. 2002).The comparison of individual oil crops in the mean of amino acids content can be seen in Table 1.



Table 1. Amino acid profile of sacha inchi compared to protein<sup>a,b</sup> of other oilcrops cultivated in Southern America (Hamaker et al., 1992)

<sup>a</sup> Values for soybean, peanut, cottonseed and sunflower were taken from Bodwell and Hopkins (1985).

<sup>b</sup> Values shown are miligrams/gram of protein, unless otherwise noted (N  $\times$  6.25).

<sup>c</sup> Recommended level for children of preschool age  $(2 - 5$  years), alhough recently recommended for evaluation of dietary protein quality for all age groups except infants (Joint FAO/WHO Expert Consultation (1990).

<sup>d</sup> TEAA = Total Essential Amino Acids

 $e^{c}$  TAA = Total Amino Acids

The nut has a high lipid content (48.5%), while the shell contains only 1.2% of lipids (Pereira de Souza et al., 2013). The lipid fractionation of the sacha inchi oil yielded mainly neutral lipids (97.2%), and lower amounts of free fatty acids (1.2%) and phospholipids (0.8%). The physicochemical properties of the oil include: saponification number 185.2; iodine value 193.1; density 0.9187 g/cm3, refractive index 1.4791 and viscosity of 35.4 mPa.s<sup>-1</sup> (Guttiérez et al., 2011). Sacha inchi nut is an excellent source of essential fatty acids, it contains high amounts of tocopherols and presents anti-atherogenic, anti-thrombogenic and hypocholesterolenic effects (Pereira de Souza et al., 2013). The main minerals present in sacha inchi seeds were potassium (5563.5 ppm), magnesium (3210 ppm) and calcium (2406 ppm). A fatty acid analysis revealed that  $\alpha$ -linolenic (50.8%) and linoleic (33.4%) acids were the main fatty acids in sacha inchi oil (Guttiérez et al., 2011). Mineral content and oil features are summarized in Table 2.

Component	Value		
Seeds			
Moisture $(\% )$	$3.3 \pm 0.3$		
Fat $(\% )$	$42.0 \pm 1.1$		
Protein $(\% )$	$24.7 \pm 0.5$		
Ash $(\% )$	$4.0 \pm 0.7$		
Total carbohydrate (%)	$30.9 \pm 0.6$		
Potassium $(mg/kg)$	$5,563.5 \pm 6.4$		
Magnesium $(mg/kg)$	$3,210.0 \pm 21.2$		
Calcium $(mg/kg)$	$2,406.0 \pm 7.1$		
Iron $(mg/kg)$	$103.5 \pm 8.9$		
$\text{Zinc}$ (mg/kg)	$49.0 \pm 1.1$		
Sodium $(mg/kg)$	$15.4 \pm 0.5$		
Copper $(mg/kg)$	$12.9 \pm 0.3$		
Crude Oil			
Iodine value (g $12/100$ g)	$193.1 \pm 1.0$		
Saponification value (mg $KOH/g$ )	$185.2 \pm 0.5$		
Refractive index at 25°C	$1.4791 \pm 0.0009$		
Density at $25^{\circ}$ C (g/cm)	$0.9187 \pm 0.02$		
Viscosity at $20^{\circ}$ C (mPa×s)	$35.4 \pm 0.4$		

Table 2. Chemical composition of the sacha inchi seeds and physiochemical properties of their crude oil (Gutiérrez et al., 2011).

Values are means  $\pm$  standard deviations of triplicate determinations

The oil obtained from sacha inchi seeds was studied by means of FTIR and 1H NMR (Fourier Transform Infrared Spectroscopy, and Proton nuclear magnetic resonance). It was found that sacha inchi oil has a high degree of unsaturation (Table 3). The same fact is deduced from the ratio between the absorbance of the bands due to the stretching vibrations of the cis olefinic CH double bonds at  $3015.5 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  and to the methylene symmetrical stretching vibrations at 2855.1 cm-1 (Guillén et al. 2003).

<b>Fatty Acid</b>	Sacha Inchi			Soybean Peanut Cottonseed	<b>Sunflower</b>
Total Oil	54.0	19.0	45.0	16.0	48.0
Saturated					
$C_{14:0}$ , Myristic	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
$C_{16:10}$ , Palmitic	4.5	10.5	12.0	18.7	7.5
$C_{18:0}$ , Stearic	3.2	3.2	2.2	2.4	5.3
Unsaturated					
$C_{16:0}$ , Palmitoleic	0.0	0.0	0.3	0.6	0.0
$C_{18:0}$ , Oleic	9.6	22.3	41.3	18.7	29.3
$C_{18:2}$ , Linoleic	36.8	54.5	36.8	57.5	57.9
$C_{18:3}$ , Linolenic	45.2	8.3	0.0	0.5	0.0
$C_{20:1}$ , Gadoleic	0.0	0.0	1.1	0.0	0.0

Table 3. Fatty Acid profile of sacha inchi in comparison with other oil crops cultivated in Southern America (Hamaker et al., 1992).

\* All values are shown in percents. Values for soybean, peanut, cottonseed and sunflower are taken from Bodwell and Hopkins (1985).

#### 2.4 Cultivation of Plukenetia volubilis

The germination takes  $11 - 14$  days. The first true leaf appears after  $16 - 20$  days from sowing. Flowering starts after  $86 - 139$  days. The fruit appear in  $119 - 182$  days and the first harvest can be done in 202 – 249 days after planting. In can be cultivated on soils varying between loams and sandy soils and it tolerates acid soils. Sacha inchi can be sown directly to the soil or can be grown in the nursery. The best time for transplanting is within the rainy season between January and March. The major way of propagation is through seeds (Manco, 2006) but vegetative propagation is also possible (Cachique, 2006). Pesticide treatment of the seeds is recommended.

For one hectare plantation establishment the amount of  $1 - 1.5$  kg of seeds is suggested amount, recommended spacing is 3 m between the plants and  $2.5 - 3$  m between the rows (1,111)  $-1,333$  plants per hectare). Only one seed is sown to one hole and recommended depth is  $2 - 1$ 3 cm. When growing in the nurseries, transplanting should be done after two months from sowing, which should be done between during the rainy season. Since sacha inchi is a vine, the supporting constructions should be constructed prior to sowing within the land preparation in order to avoid molting of the fruits later (Manco, 2006).

Since the spacing is wide, erosion may occur, to avoid it, intercropping with cover crops, such as *Indigofera* spp., *Arachis* spp. or *Desmodium* spp. can be beneficial, sacha inchi is sometimes also intercropped with cotton, bean, maize, manioc or peanuts (Manco, 2006). Also trees can be implemented instead of buttresses. Traditional tree for this purpose is Erythrina spp. (Cachique, 2006).

Sacha inchi is susceptible to diseases like Fusarium spp. or pests like Meloidogyne spp. the risk can be reduced by pruning, which is also very beneficial in terms of aeration of the growth, increasing the amount of light reaching the leaves and giving the plants shape making harvesting easier. However also fungicides against *Fusarium* and nematicides against Meloidogyne are recommended (Manco, 2006).

The plantations are the most productive until their ages reach 10 years, however they may be maintained for 20 years. The harvest is carried out manually every  $15 - 30$  days once the plants started tu fruit. The yield can reach  $0.7 - 2t$  tha after the first year. Harvested fruits should be dried and are usually stored in jute bags in dry environments (Manco, 2006).

#### 2.5Genetic diversity

In 1992 the first molecular marker method was used in the Euphorbiaceae family for estimation of genetic diversity by Lefévre and Charrier. According to the Table 5 the most investigated genera within Euphorbiaceae are Jatropha and Manihot. Cassava, as crop cultivated for human consumption, is understandable to have such broad number of investigation, however physic nut is not just edible, it is toxic for humans. Nevertheless, it may serve as source of biodiesel, which may explain the numerous papers. But *Jatropha* and Ricinus have similar pollination system as *Plukenetia*, can be both allogamous and autogamous, are monoecious but with unisexual flowers (Meinders and Jones, 1950; Brigham, 1967; Jubera et al., 2009). Even the rubber tree has less genetic studies than physic nut. The first known investigation of genetic diversity in Plukenetia comes from 2008. Based on current literature sources, the most used methods witin Euphorbiaceae family according to our findings, are SSR (48 studies), RAPD (37 studies), AFLP (30 studies), ISSR (21 studies), SNP (15 studies), and Isozymes (10 studies). The methods were combined in some studies (Table 5).

The greatest degree of (morphological) variation in P. *volubilis* was found in collections from the eastern slopes of the Andes bordering the Amazon basin in Peru (Gillespie, 1993). Until now, the genetic diversity was not broadly studied. Some natural populations were studied by Corazon-Guivin et al. (2008) using DALP (Direct Amplification of Length Polymorphism)

markers in San Martín Region in Peruvian Amazon. They found the populations were structuralized and they attribute this fact to natural barriers disabling pollination (either through wind or insects) in greater distances. Corazon-Guivin et al. (2009) also studies accessions in National Germplasm Bank in INIA (National Institute of the Agrarian Inovations) using the informative markers discovered in the previous study and they found the highest diversity among the accessions from region San Martín, which was also a reason why we have chosen this area for the collection of samples. In 2010, Rodríguez et al. applied ISSR markers on a few species of Plukenetia and suggested a new species originally considered as P. volubilis. Křivánková et al. (2012) in her study had compared several cultivated populations in region Ucayali, Peru using ISSR markers and suggested P. volubilis to be an allogamous species based on their findings compared to other authors. Rodrigues (2013) had used AFLP to estimate genetic diversity in 60 accessions in Brazil and also found that individuals formed groups with other individuals of the same origin.

Since P. volubilis is not a major crop, it was neglected by the science for a long time (Křivánková et al., 2007) and the breeding was not documented. However, some attempts have occurred. Local farmers always sow the biggest seeds coming from the biggest fruits and eliminate the seedling which appeared independently (Danter Cachique, personal communication), which can be considered as breeding (positive selection). Gillespie (1993) noticed if the P. volubilis fruit were more than tetra-lobular, they were always coming from populations recorded as under cultivation. Since the flowers of sacha inchi are mostly pollinated by wind (Cachique, 2006), all fruits on the maternal plant do not need to have a common paternal plant. That is why the selection, local farmers do, does not always matter.

Molecular markers provide valuable data on diversity through their ability to detect variation at the DNA level (Somasundaram and Kalaiselvam, 2011). They offer numerous advantages over conventional phenotype-based alternatives as they are stable and detectable in all tissues regardless of growth, differentiation, development, or defense status of the cell, they are not confounded by the environment, or by pleiotropic and epistatic effects (Agarwal et al., 2008). For estimation of species diversity, it is essential that individuals can be classified accurately (Somasundaram and Kalaiselvam, 2011), however different markers have different suitability in studying genetic diversity (Abdel-Mawgood, 2012). Thus, the choice of a marker system is a compromise between the properties of the marker system and its availability. Further, marker choice must be based on the hypothesis that is being tested, the properties of the marker system, and the resources that are available for the research program (Lowe et al.,

2004). The DNA based marker systems, which are commonly used in genetic diversity are summarized in Table 4. We decided to use a dominant marker method - ISSR because this method possess many benefits. It is suitable for use in genetic diversity determination and populations differentiation. It does not require prior knowledge of the genome, is relatively cheap, is not very complex and has a high reproducibility. Also Křivánková et al. (2012) considered ISSR markers as suitable and adequately sensitive for polymorphism detection for this species.

	<b>RFLP</b>	<b>RAPD</b>	AFLP	<b>ISSR</b>	<b>SSR</b>
Abundance	Medium	Very high	Very high	Very high	High
<b>DNA</b> Quality	High	Medium	High	Medium	Medium
<b>DNA</b> Sequence					
Information	Not required	Not required	Not required	Not required	Required
Level of Polymorphism	Medium	High	High	High	High
Inheritance	Co-dominance	Dominance	Dominance	Dominance	Co-dominance
Reproducibility	High	Low	Medium	High	High
<b>Technical Complexity</b>	High	Low	Medium	Low	Low
Development Costs	High	Low (none)	Low	Low	High
Major Applications	Genetic	Fingerptinting,	Fingerprinting,	Genetic	Individual
	diversity,	genetic	genetic	diversity,	genotyping,
	polyploidy,	diversity,	diversity,	individual	gene flow,
	hybridization,	polyploidy,	population	genotyping,	Population
	phylogeny,	hybridization,	differentiation	population	differentiation
	mating system	phylogeny		differentiation	

Table 4. Comparison of some molecular marker systems using for plant genome analysis (modified from Farooq and Azam, 2002; Harris, 2003; Semagn et al., 2006; Park et al., 2009; Abdel-Mawgood, 2012) in thesis by Dvořáková (2014).

Genus	Molecular marker method	Reference	Year
Macaranga	<b>AFLP</b>	Bänfer et al.	2004
Fontainea	cpDNA, nrDNA, RAPD	Rossetto et al.	2000
<b>Mercurialis</b>	Isozymes	Holderegger and Stehlik	1999
	<b>ITS</b>	Krähenbühl, et al.	2002
Excoecaria	<b>ISSR</b>	Zhang et al.	2005
	<b>ISSR, RAPD</b>	Das et al.	2011
Phyllanthus	<b>ISSR</b>	Upadhyay et al.	2015
	<b>RAPD</b>	Chaurasia et al.	2009
Chamaesyce	ITS, RAPD	Morden and Gregoritza	2006
Triadica	<b>SSR</b>	de Walt et al.	2011
Vernicia	<b>SSR</b>	Zhang et al.	2015
Hevea	AFLP, RFLP, SSR, isozymes	Lespinasse et al.	2000
	cpDNA, mDNA	Luo et al.	1995
	ILP	Li et al.	2013
	<b>RAPD</b>	Lam et al.	2009
	<b>RAPD</b>	Venkatachalam et al.	2004
	<b>RFLP</b>	Besse et al.	1994
	<b>SSR</b>	Mantello et al.	2012
		Le Guen et al.	2009
		Souza et al.	2009
	morphology	Bombonato de Oliveira et al.	2015
Jatropha	454 pyrosequencing, SNP, EST-SSR	Laosatit et al.	2015
	<b>AFLP</b>	Sinha et al.	2016
		Pioto et al.	2015
		Shen et al.	2012
	AFLP, RAPD, SSR	Mastan et al.	2012
	AFLP, SSR	Sinha et al.	2015
	cp SSR, ISSR, RAPD	Basha and Sujatha	2009
	cpDNA, genome sequencing	Shrikant et al.	2010
	EST-SSR	Kumari et al.	2013
	<b>EST-SSR</b>	Hemant et al.	2011
	EST-SSR, genomic SSR	Mingfu et al.	2010
	EST-SSR, ILP	Saisug and Ukoskit	2013
	genome sequencing	Sato et al.	2011
	<b>ISSR</b>	Mavuso et al.	2015
		Maghuly et al.	2011
		Grativol et al.	2011
		Tanya et al.	2011
		Vijayanand et al.	2009
		Kumar et al.	2009

Table 5. Molecular markers used in Euphorbiaceae family

Table 5 continues

Genus	Molecular marker method	Reference	Year
	<b>MS-AFLP</b>	Kanchanaketu et al.	2012
	nrDNA ITS	Pamidimarri et al.	2009a
	nrDNA ITS, cpDNA	Guo et al.	2016
	<b>RAPD</b>	Dhakshanamoorthy et al.	2013
	<b>RAPD</b>	Rafii et al.	2012
	<b>RAPD</b>	Danquah et al.	2012
	<b>RAPD</b>	Kumar et al.	2009
	<b>RAPD</b>	Ram et al.	2008
	RAPD, AFLP	Pamidimarri et al.	2010 b
	RAPD, AFLP	Pamidimarri et al.	2009c
	RAPD, AFLP, nrDNA-ITS	Pamidimarri and Reddy	2014
	RAPD, AFLP, SSR	Pamidimarri et al.	2009d
	RAPF, ISSR, SCAR	Basha and Sujatha	2007
	RBIP, FISH	Alipour et al.	2013
	<b>SNP</b>	Gupta et al.	2012
	SNP, SSR	Ricci et al.	2012
	<b>SSR</b>	Siju et al.	2015
		Maurya et al.	2015
		Raposo et al.	2014
		Ouattara et al.	2014
		Bressan et al.	2013
		Na-ek et al.	2011
		Phumichai et al.	2011
		Pamidimarri et al.	2010 e
		Sirithunya and Ukoskit	2010
		Sudheer et al.	2010
	SSR, TRAP, AFLP	Montes Osorio et al.	2014
	morphology	Tripathi et al.	2013
Manihot	454-sequencing, EST-SNP, SSR	Prochnik et al.	2012
	<b>AFLP</b>	Fregene et. al.	2000
	<b>AFLP</b>	Wong et al.	1999
	<b>AFLP</b>	Roa et al.	1997
	cDNA	Chacón et al.	2008
	cDNA, SNP	Lopez et al.	2005
	cpDNA, rDNA	Fregene et. al.	1994
	<b>DArT</b>	Xia et al.	2005
	<b>ESTs</b>	Fregene at. al.	2001
	genome sequencing	Daniell et al.	2008
	<b>IRTAP</b>	Oliveira-Silva et al.	2014
	Isozymes	Zaldivar et al.	2004

Genus	Molercular marker method	Reference	Year
		Sumarani et al.	2004
		Montarroyos et al.	2003
		Resende et al.	2000
		Brondani	1996
		Lefévre and Charrier	1992
	nDNA	Olsen	2002
	<b>QTL</b>	Cortés et al.	2002
	<b>RAPD</b>	Asante and Offei	2003
	<b>RAPD</b>	Marmey et al.	1993
	RAPD, SSR	Castelo Branco Carvalho and Schaal	2001
	RFLP, RAPD	Fregene et. al.	1997
	<b>SNP</b>	Soto et al.	2015
		de Oliveira et al.	2014
	SNP, SSR	Kawuki et al.	2009
	SNP, SSR	Olsen	2004
	<b>SSR</b>	Moura et al.	2016
		Carrasco et al.	2016
		Alves-Pereira et al.	2011
		de Bang et al.	2011
		Siqueira et al.	2010
		Kizito et al.	2007
		Peroni et al.	2007
		Lokko et al.	2006
		Okogbenin et al.	2006
		Elias et al.	2004
		Fregene at. al.	2003
		Mba et al.	2001
		Chavarriaga-Aguirre et al.	1998
	SSR, Isozymes, AFLP	Chavarriaga-Aguirre et al.	1999
	<b>TRAP</b>	Carmo et al.	2015
	morphology	Agre et al.	2015
		Manu-Aduening et al.	2013
		Kombo et al.	2012
Plukenetia	cDNA	Wang et al.	2012
	<b>DALP</b>	Corazon-Guivin et al.	2009
	<b>DALP</b>	Corazon-Guivin et al.	2008
	<b>ISSR</b>	Křivánková et al.	2012
		Rodríguez et al.	2010
	<b>AFLP</b>	Rodrigues et al.	2013
Ricinus	<b>SSR</b>	Meilian el. al.	2014
		Kyoung-In et al.	2011
		Bajay et al.	2009

Table 5 continues

Table 5 continues

Genus	Molercular marker method	Reference	Year
	cDNA, mtDNA	Rivarola et al.	2011
	<b>SNP</b>	Foster et al.	2010

#### 3. Hypotheses and objectives

Taking into consideration that PCR-based markers have already revealed close relationships within many plant species with exact similarity specification, there is a hypothesis that ISSR markers could reveal the differences among individual locations of P. volubilis growths. It can be expected that the variability among individual locations may be high as Peruvian Amazon is believed to be the place of origin of P. *volubilis*. Taking into account that the locations are sort of isolated there is a hypothesis that samples from individual location would be similar and therefore would tend to group together. The hypotheses are:

- A) There is a high genetic diversity in its region of origin, mainly within the populations;
- B) The genetic distance will be related to the geographical one;
- C) Populations differing genetically will differ also in the proteins contents.

The main aims of this thesis are presented in the following paragraphs:

- I) Assessment of genetic diversity within and among populations of Plukenetia volubilis L. using ISSR markers
	- a. Optimization of DNA extraction through CTAB method for sacha inchi
	- b. Optimization of ISSR protocol for sacha inchi
- II) Determination of total seed protein content and content of protein fractions in collected samples of Plukenetia volubilis L.
	- a) Analysis of total protein and protein fractions content in seeds using Kjeldahl's and Osbornes's methods
	- b) Evaluate the potential of FT NIRS for estimation of protein content in sacha inchi seeds
	- c) Analysis of seed storage protein pattern in sacha inchi using SDS-PAGE method

#### 4. Materials and methods

#### 4.1 Study area

The plant material analysed in this study was collected from individual plants growing in different regions of Peruvian Amazon. In cooperation with Instituto de las Investigaciones de la Amazonía Peruana (Peruvian Amazon Research Institute - IIAP) we have selected 10 locations from the provinces of San Martín, Lamas and Dorado in region San Martín, which are located in northern part of Peruvian Amazon (Figure 6), which were the locations of interest for IIAP. Location Santa Lucia (SLU) is located close to Tingo María (Huánaco Region) and is not indicated in the map. These locations' management ranged from semi wild growth to intensive plantation.



Figure 6. The map of Peru pointing San Martín Region (Perry-Castañeda Library, 2016)



Figure 7. The samples collection sites in San Martín Region, Peru.(Google Earth, 2015)

#### 4.2Plant material collection

The plants from these provenances (Figure 7) were randomly selected for the sample collection of the total 173 individual plants (Table 6). Between 2 and 23 individuals (according to the availability) plants were selected, leaves and seed samples taken from each location. Collected leafy material of each individual plant in size of approximately  $3 \text{ cm}^2$  was immediately stored in plastic tubes with 6 ml of silica gel (Carl Roth GmbH, Germany), in order to dry and preserve the samples. The meristematic vigorous tops with young leaves were selected and taken. Samples were then transported to Czech University of Life Sciences Prague (CULS) for further DNA analysis. Simultaneously with the leafy material, approximately 20 seeds from every plant were collected for protein and protein fractions analyses. The capsules were crushed in order to prevent the fungal attack during storage and the seeds were photographed with a linear scale to register the size. Unfortunatelly, not all of the selected plants in Ramón Castillo had mature fruits and seeds in the time of the collection, therefore samples RAC05 and RAC06 lacked the seeds. The leafy samples were done in two specimens, one was taken to CULS Prague, and the other remained in IIAP's office in Tarapoto, Peru.





#### 4.3DNA analysis

#### 4.3.1 DNA extraction

The DNA was extracted using CTAB method (Doyle and Doyle, 1987) with minor modifications according to Williams et al. (1992). From every sample, approximately 100 mg of dried leaves were put into individual 1.5 ml micro tubes (Eppendorf, Germany) and ground by plastic micro pestles until smooth powder was made. To every tube, 495 µl of 2% CTAB and 5 µl of 1% mercaptoethanol was added. The microtubes were shaked manually and placed into heating nest for 45 min, and were shaked three times (every 12 min) while heated to 65 °C. Samples were then centrifuged for 10 min at room temperature at 12,000 rpm. The supernatants were transferred to new 1.5 ml micro tubes, 500 µl of solution of chloroform and isoamyl alcohol (24:1) was added and shaked together for 10 min, then centrifuged for 5 min at room temperature at 12,000 rpm. There were three phases visible at this moment. The watery top one, where DNA was located, was transferred to the new 1.5 ml micro tubes and mixed together with 100 µl of 5% CTAB solution. Remaining two phases of undesired substances were discarded. After that, 500  $\mu$ l of chloroform and isoamyl alcohol solution (24:1) was added and shaked together for 10 min, after shaking, the samples were centrifuged for 5 min at room temperature at 12,000 rpm. The top watery phase was transferred to new 1.5 ml mico tubes, 200 µl of ice cold isopropanol was added and the tubes were slowly overturned three times and put into the freezer (-20 °C) overnight. The other day, the centrifuge was cooled to 4 °C and the samples were centrifuged there for 5 min at 12,000 rpm. At this phase, the supernatants were removed and 300 µl of 1% TE buffer and 30 µl of sodium acetate were added to the pellets in order to dissolve them while shaking for 60 min at 37 °C. After shaking, 600 µl of ice cold 96% ethanol was added to the micro tubes which then were overturned three times and put to the freezer for 2 hours at -20 °C. Once again the centrifuge was cooled to 4 °C where the samples were then centrifuged for 10 min at 12,000 rpm. The supernatant was removed and 1000 µl of 70% ethanol was added instead, shaked gently and centrifuged at 4 °C for 2 min at 12,000 rpm. This step was repeated twice. Then the supernatant was removed and the pellets were left to dry in the heating nest at 45 °C for 20 min. Once dried, 100  $\mu$ l of sterile and distilled H<sub>2</sub>O was added and the pellet left to dissolve in the room temperature. The DNA quality was determined by 0.8% agarose gel electrophoresis and using a Nanodrop Spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific, USA). The final concentration of half of the amount of isolated DNA of all samples was adjusted to 50 ng. $\mu l^{-1}$  for PCR, and stored at -20°C. The other half of isolated DNA was stored in the freezer as a backup.
#### 4.3.2 ISSR analysis

A set of 30 ISSR primers (University of British Columbia, Vancouver, Canada) was used for screening (Table 7). PCR amplification reactions were carried out in a total volume of 20 µl containing 0.5 µl of each primer, 10 µl PPP Master Mix (Top-Bio, Czech Republic), 0.2 µl of BSA - Bovine Serum Albumine (Thermo Scientific, Lithuania), 7.3 µl PCR Water (Top-Bio, Czech Republic) and 2.0 µl of individual samples. PCR amplification was performed in T100TM Thermal Cycler (Bio-Rad Laboratories, USA). The annealing temperatures in PCR were optimized for each primer (Table 7) using samples from ADO population as model. The cycling conditions were as follows: initial denaturation for 5 min at 94°C, followed by 40 cycles of denaturation for 1 min at 95°C, 1 min at specific annealing temperature in a range from 48°C to 55°C (according to primer), 2 min at 72°C (extension), these 40 cycles were afterwards followed by a final extension step for 10 min at 72°C. The PCR products were resolved in 2% agarose gels in 1xTBE buffer (Carl Roth GmbH, Germany) using the following programme: 180 minutes at 55 V and 120 mA. The gels were stained with ethidium bromide staining (Carl Roth GmbH, Germany) and the bands were visualized and acquired under UV light (Cleaver Scientific, UK). The size of the amplified products was estimated using 100 bp Plus DNA ladder (Thermo Scientific, Lithuania).

Prior to testing all samples, a population ADO (Aguas de Oro) was used as the model for annealing temperatures optimization, and for determination, which primers were polymorphic. The optimal annealing temperatures are listed in Table 7. Once the electrophoresis was completed, the gel was photographed using UV camera. The visible bands were recorded as presence (1) or absence (0) of the amplified fragments and entered in this way into excel (Microsoft Corporation, USA) version 2013. The matrix where every column was one sample and every line was one position on the gel, was created.

Primer			Annealing
		Sequence 5'-3'	temperature $(^{\circ}C)$
$\mathbf{1}$	<b>UCB 807</b>	$(AG) \times 8 + T$	48
$\overline{2}$	<b>UCB 809</b>	$(AG) \times 8 + G$	50
$\overline{3}$	<b>UCB 810</b>	$(GA) \times 8 + T$	49
4	<b>UCB 812</b>	$(GA) \times 8 + A$	50
5	<b>UCB 813</b>	$(CT) \times 8 + T$	50
6	<b>UCB 814</b>	$(CT) \times 8 + A$	50
$7\overline{ }$	<b>UCB 823</b>	$(TC) \times 8 + C$	54
8	<b>UCB 824</b>	$(AG) \times 8 + \text{YT}$	55
9	<b>UCB 826</b>	$(AC) \times 8 + C$	48
10	<b>UCB 828</b>	$(TG) \times 8 + A$	48
11	<b>UCB 829</b>	$(TG) \times 8 + C$	50
	12 UCB 834	$(AG) \times 8 + \text{YT}$	50
	13 UCB 835	$(AG) \times 8 + YC$	51
14	<b>UCB 836</b>	$(AG) \times 8 + YA$	48
15	<b>UCB 840</b>	$(GA) \times 8 + \text{YT}$	52
	16 UCB 841	$(GA) \times 8 + YCY$	48
	17 UCB 843	$(CT) \times 8 + RA$	48
18	<b>UCB 844</b>	$(CT) \times 8 + RC$	52
	19 UCB 845	$(CT) \times 8 + RG$	54
	20 UCB 846	$(CA) \times 8 + RT$	48
21	<b>UCB 847</b>	$(CA) \times 8 + RC$	54
	22 UCB 848	$(CA) \times 8 + RG$	48
	23 UCB 851	$(GT) \times 8 + CT$ G	52
	24 UCB 854	$(TC) \times 8 + RG$	52
	25 UCB 855	$(AC) \times 8 + \text{YT}$	54
	26 UCB 856	$(AC) \times 8 + YA$	49
27	<b>UCB 859</b>	$(TG) \times 8 + RC$	50
28	<b>UCB 866</b>	$(CTC) \times 6$	50
29	<b>UCB 873</b>	$(GACA) \times 4$	48
	30 UCB 876	<b>GATA GATA GACA</b> <b>GACA</b>	50

Table 7. ISSR primers selected for optimization of ISSR screening

Y=pyrimidines: cytosine or thymine; R=purines: adenine or guanine (Zietkiewicz et al., 1994), primers marked with bold letter were polymorphic

#### 4.3.3 Statistical analysis of ISSR analysis

All fragments obtained from ISSR analysis were scored for presence (1) or absence (0) of homologous bands. A final binary matrix was created by assembling all resulting bands for each accession. Values obtained from scoring the ISSR data were used for the construction of a dissimilarity matrix by applying Dice's coefficient (Dice, 1945). Following formula was employed:  $d_{ij} = (b+c)/2a+(b+c)$ , where a represents number of variables where  $x_i$  is present and  $x_i$  is present; b stands for variables where  $x_i$  is present and  $x_i$  in absent; and finally c is the number of variables where  $x_i$  is absent and  $x_j$  is present. The  $d_{ij}$  means the dissimilarity between units *i* and *j*. Final dendrogram was constructed using a hierarchical clustering by Neighbour Joining (NJ). Data analysis was performed using DARwin5 software (Perrier and Jacquemoud-Collet, 2006). Shannon's index (I, LogBase=e) was estimated by FAMD 1.25 software for all accessions according to Hutchenson (1970) and normalised according to Ramezani (2012) (Equation 1). The percentage of polymorphic bands (PPB) and Nei's genetic distance (Nei, 1972 and 1979) matrix were calculated using FAMD software, version 1.25 (Schlüter and Harris, 2006). Equation 1: Shannon's diversity index. *I* is the Shannon's index,  $_{pi}$  is the frequency of band presences in locus i, s is the number of loci and ln is the natural logarithms.

$$
I \approx -\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{S} p_i \ln p_i}{\ln(s)}
$$

The Principal Coordinates Analysis (PCoA) was performed by software DARwin 5.0.160 (Perrier and Jacquemoud-Collet, 2006) applying the Data obtained while calculating Dice's coefficient.

# 4.4 Protein and protein fractions analysis

### 4.4.1 Total protein analyses – Kjeldahl method and FT NIRS

#### Sample preparation

In average, eight seeds (10g) from every collected individual plant were crushed in a grinding mill (IKA A11 basic, IKA® Werke GMBH & Co.KG, Germany) to coarseness 0.8 mm. Similarly, ten seeds from each genotype (population) were selected randomly and then crushed and mixed together to form bulked samples (= laboratory test sample that is representative of all the specimens, each of at least 1 g, that are required).

#### Kjeldahl analysis

The dry matter content of seed samples (5 g of sacha inchi flour) was further dried in an electric hot-air drier at 133°C for 4h according to the standard method CSN EN ISO 662 (Czech State Norm, 2001). . the mineralized samples were ready for the proper estimation of total nitrogen on automatic analyser Kjeltec 2300 (Foss Analytical, Denmark) and calculated with conversion factor 6.25(Czech State Norm, 2012; FAO, 2002).

#### FT-NIR analysis

The results of Kjeldahl method were used for calibration of the device FT-NIR spectrophotometer (Antaris II, ThermoElectron Corporation, Madison, USA) in which approximately 1g of flour of each sample was analyzed according to methodology by Míka et al., 2008).

# 4.4.2 Protein fractions analyses – Osborne's method

# Osborne fractionation

Seed flour from individual plant and /or bulked samples was defatted by washing 1 g of flour with 2.5 ml of hexane at 25°C overnight. The hexane fraction was discarded and the flour was lyophilized in aliquots and stored in a cold (4°C), dark, place. The defatted samples were subjected to Osborne fractionationed and/or SDS-PAGE.

The protein fractions were estimated using Osborne's method (1924) optimized for wheat (Triticum aestivum L.) by Dvořáček et al. (2001).

In this analysis, 1g of the flour of each sample was put into the 15 ml tube. Every sample was done in three specimens. The albumin-globulin fraction was being extracted for 15 min at 4°C in 5ml of 0.5M NaCl and then by centrifugation at 6,500 rpm for 15 min. Consequently, the specimens were "washed" with the same amount of the same extractant and centrifuged at 6,500 rpm for 5 min. The supernatants were merged together into the new 15 ml tube and stored in the refrigerator.

The gliadin fraction was obtained by 4 hours long extraction with 5ml of 60% ethanol at laboratory room temperature. This period was followed by 15 minutes of centrifugation at 6,500 rpm, two "washes" with 5 ml of 60% ethanol and final centrifugation at 6,500 rpm for 5 minutes.

Tubes containing protein fraction extracts and seeds pellets (glutelins) were freezed and lyophilized in a freeze dryer (Christ, Germany) for 24 h at 58°C and 0.018 mBar and stored in 4°C until analysis by SDS-PAGE was carried out.

The glutenin fraction was estimated by calculation. It was calculated as the difference between the total protein content and the amount of the two extracted fractions.

#### 4.4.3 Statistical analysis of total proteins and protein fractions contents

From the laboratory measurements according to chapters 4.4.1 and 4.4.2 the primary data were obtained: measured values of nitrogen subsances in the dry matter (%) and contents of albumin-globulin fraction, gliadin fraction and glutenin fraction (by recalculation) – percentual share in the dry matter of the ground seeds of P. volubilis (all data available in Annex 1). One way ANOVA was used for total protein and glutenin contents, Kruskal-Walis test was used for albumins+globulins and gliadin contents. The set contains 169 variables from a total amount of 9 groups (populations) of different sizes. The number of individuals in the protein analyses is lower than in molecular analysis, because not all of the collected plants had mature fruits and seeds in the time of the collection (RAC05 and RAC06) Samples from Santa Lucia were not included in the statistics as they were only two from that location. There are two types of variables in this method – the dependent variable and independent variable. In this case, the independent variable is the location/population and the dependent variable (depending on the location) is the measured value (total protein, albumin-globulin fraction, gliadin fraction and glutenin fraction).

### 4.4.4 Protein solubilization

The lyophilized solid samples were mixed with 100 ml of extraction solution (0.0625M TrisHCl pH 8.8, 5% (w/v) 2-mercaptoethanol, 2% (w/v) SDS, 10% (w/v) glycerol, 0.01% (w/v) bromphenolblue) by vortexing several times in 1.5 ml tubes. The tubes were let stand at 4°C for 3 h. After this extraction time, the tubes were centrifuged at 12,000 g for 15 min and the supernatants were heated in boiling water for 2 min.

### 4.4.5 Protein separation by SDS-PAGE

The electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE) was carried out according to Laemmli (1970) with some minor changes and performed with the Hoefer SE 600 vertical unit (Hoefer, USA). The polyacrylamide gel preparation (180x160x0.75 mm, 10% (w/v) resolving gel, 4% (w/v) stacking gel; electrode Tris-glycine-SDS buffer of pH 8.3). The run was carried out at 45 mA per gel until the bromphenolblue moved to the bottom of the gel (about 3 h). The gels were stained with a solution of 0.1% (w/v) Coomasie Brilliant Blue (CBB) R250, 50% (w/v) methanol, 10% (w/v) acetic acid, 0.02% (w/v) bromphenol blue salt. Destaining was performed with a solution of 25% (w/v) denatured alcohol and 3.5% (w/v) acetic acid. The gels were soaked in a solution of: 45% (w/v) denatured alcohol and 3% (w/v) glycerol then dried and stored between cellophane sheets.

# 5. Results

# 5.1Molecular analysis

# 5.1.1 ISSR profile and analysis

In this study, a total amount of 30 ISSR primers were used for the screening of Sacha inchi populations. Eight of these ISSR markers showed clear and reproducible polymorphic bands. These 8 primers were then used to analyse the genetic diversity of all 173 accessions. A total amount of 97 fragments, ranging from 250 to 2500 bp, were amplified with a mean of 12.1 bands per primer, of which 90 (91.4%) were polymorphic (Table 8). Absolute polymorphism was observed at primers UBC836, UBC844, UBC845, and UBC847, while the lowest polymorphism was observed at primer UBC809 (69.2%). The highest number of polymorphic bands (18) was amplified by the primer UBC824, while the lowest number of polymorphic bands (5) was detected at the primer UBC826. The highest Nei's gene diversity (0.34) and Shannon information index (0.513) was exhibited by primer 844. In contrast, primer 809 showed the lowest Nei's diversity and Shannon information index with 0.081 and 0.147 values, respectively. The mean Nei's gene diversity and Shannon information index for all primers were 0.260 and 0.405, respectively. Gene diversity ranged from 0.103 for Santa Lucia to 0.238 for Santa Cruz with a mean of 0.18, and the same pattern was observed for the Shannon information index which ranged from 0.15 for Santa Lucia (SLU) to 0.357 for Santa Cruz (SCR) with mean of 0.280. The populations of Aucaloma (AUC), Pucallpa (PUC), Pacchilla (PAC), and Aguas de Oro (ADO) had gene diversity close to the mean of 0.18.

			<b>Scored Bands</b>		ັ	<b>Diversity</b>		
	Primer	Sequence 5'-3'	<b>Band Size</b> (bp)	Total <b>Bands</b>	<b>NPB</b>	PPB $(\% )$	$h + SD$	$I + SD$
	<b>UBC809</b>	(AG)8G	220-2,000	13	9	69.2	$0.081 \pm 0.106$	$0.147 \pm 0.168$
2	<b>UBC824</b>	$(AG)8$ YT	200-2,000	18	18	100	$0.329 \pm 0.127$	$0.499 \pm 0.159$
3	<b>UBC826</b>	(AC)8C	700-2,000	7	5	71.4	$0.102 \pm 0.120$	$0.181 \pm 0.183$
4	<b>UBC836</b>	$(AG)8$ YA	300-1,500	9	9	100	$0.250 \pm 0.148$	$0.400 \pm 0.190$
5.	<b>UBC844</b>	$(CT)8$ RC	300-2,500	11	11	100	$0.340 \pm 0.129$	$0.513 \pm 0.153$
6	<b>UBC845</b>	(CT)8RG	300-1,500	13	13	100	$0.234 \pm 0.080$	$0.391 \pm 0.107$
7	<b>UBC847</b>	(CA)8 RC	400-2,000	15	15	100	$0.335 \pm 0.134$	$0.506 \pm 0.161$
8	<b>UBC859</b>	$(TG)8$ RC	500-2,500	11	10	90.9	$0.312 \pm 0.155$	$0.471 \pm 0.204$
	<b>Total</b>		200-2,500	97	90			
	Mean			12.125	11.3	91.4	$0.260 \pm 0.158$	$0.405 \pm 0.313$

Table 8. Results for ISSR markers used for screening of Plukenetia volubilis

h Nei's gene diversity, I Shannon's information index, NPB number of polymorphic bands, PPB percentage of polymorphic bands

Data for Nei´s genetic diversity (H) values ranged from 0.103 to 0.231 with a mean 0.180 and the Shannon´s information index (I) ranged from 0.150 to 0.357 with mean value 0.280. Analysis of molecular variance (AMOVA) indicated a total of 64% within population and 36% among population variation. The Nei's gene differentiation,  $G_{st}$  was calculated to be 0.290 (Table 8) with gene flow Nm estimated at 1.227 (Table 9).

Population	<b>NPB</b>	<b>PPB</b>	$h + SD$	$I + SD$	$Gst*$	$Nm^*$
Dos de Mayo (2DM)	70	77.78	$0.173 \pm 0.157$	$0.280 \pm 0.228$		
Aucaloma (AUC)	65	72.22	$0.174 \pm 0.162$	$0.278 \pm 0.237$		
Santa Lucia (SLU)	24	26.67	$0.103 \pm 0.180$	$0.150 \pm 0.262$		
Pucallpa (PUC)	59	65.56	$0.181 \pm 0.190$	$0.277 \pm 0.271$		
Ramón Castillo (RAC)	45	50.00	$0.131 \pm 0.167$	$0.207 \pm 0.247$		
Mishquiyacu (MIS)	65	72.22	$0.213 \pm 0.196$	$0.322 \pm 0.276$		
Santa Cruz (SCR)	69	76.67	$0.238 \pm 0.201$	$0.357 \pm 0.279$		
Pacchilla (PAC)	69	76.67	$0.184 \pm 0.174$	$0.292 \pm 0.246$		
Chumbaquihui (CHU)	69	76.67	$0.212 \pm 0.178$	$0.329 \pm 0.253$		
Aguas de Oro (ADO)	67	74.44	$0.188 \pm 0.170$	$0.297 \pm 0.245$		
Mean	60.2	66.89	$0.180 \pm 0.178$	$0.280 \pm 0.254$	0.290	1.227

Table 9. Measures of genetic diversity in the 10 populations of P. volubilis.

\* Nm estimate of gene flow from  $G_{st}$ . Nm = 0.5(1- $G_{st}$ )/ $G_{st}$ , h Nei's gene diversity, I Shannon's information index, SD Standard deviation, NPB number of polymorphic bands, PPB percentage of polymorphic bands

A Jaccard distance coefficient that ranged from 0.183 to 0.524 was obtained. The pairwise comparison of Jaccard value showed that Mishquiyacu (MIS) and Santa Cruz (SCR) as well as Aucaloma (AUC) and Santa Lucia (SLU) were the closest populations with Jaccard´s distance coefficient 0.183 and 0.197, respectively. Pucallpa (PUC) and Ramón Castillo (RAC) were the most distantly related populations with 0.524 distance coefficient (Table 10).

Table 10. Genetic distances among investigated populations

	2DM	<b>AUC</b>	<b>SLU</b>	<b>PUC</b>	<b>RAC</b>	<b>MIS</b>	<b>SCR</b>	<b>PAC</b>	<b>CHU</b>	<b>ADO</b>
2DM	$\boldsymbol{0}$									
<b>AUC</b>	0.242	$\boldsymbol{0}$								
<b>SLU</b>	0.231	0.197	$\mathbf{0}$							
<b>PUC</b>	0.405	0.268	0.366	$\boldsymbol{0}$						
<b>RAC</b>	0.426	0.438	0.258	0.524	$\mathbf{0}$					
<b>MIS</b>	0.287	0.224	0.245	0.390	0.352	$\boldsymbol{0}$				
<b>SCR</b>	0.273	0.229	0.273	0.374	0.379	0.183	$\mathbf{0}$			
<b>PAC</b>	0.465	0.387	0.434	0.394	0.474	0.417	0.335	$\mathbf{0}$		
<b>CHU</b>	0.332	0.348	0.229	0.356	0.419	0.327	0.303	0.472	$\theta$	
<b>ADO</b>	0.422	0.334	0.264	0.442	0.362	0.349	0.342	0.397	0.375	$\mathbf{0}$

Coefficient: Standard Jaccard. Distance Transformation: d=1-s

#### 5.1.2 Cluster analyses based on the ISSR genotyping profile

The NJ dendrogram of genetic distance among 10 populations clearly showed eight main clusters segregated according the localities where the samples were collected (Figure 8). Cluster 4 branched into two visible sub-clusters 4-A and 4-B, while Cluster 2 and Cluster 8 contained only four and eight individuals, respectively. In the analysis each cluster was dominated by samples belonging to a specific population with some intermixing with samples from other populations. Cluster 1 contained nearly the entire Chumbaquihui (CHU) population, with only samples 15 and 19 located in different clusters. Along with the CHU population, Cluster 1 contained three samples (2DM04, 2DM06 and 2DM08) from the Dos de Mayo (2DM) population. Cluster 2 was formed by only four individuals (CHU19, AUC14, AUC15 and AUC18). Cluster 3 contained samples mainly from the Dos de Mayo (2DM) and Aucaloma (AUC) populations but also two samples from Santa Lucía (SLU) and MIS01, PUC09, PUC12, CHU15 and SCR22 samples. Sub cluster 4A contained the sample PAC19 and all Pucallpa samples except PUC09 and PUC12, which were included in cluster 3. Sub cluster 4B contained the whole Pacchilla population, except PAC19, along with sample AUC19 from the Aucaloma (AUC) population. Cluster 5 was formed of 21 out of 23 samples from the Santa Cruz (SCR) population along with samples from the MIS03, AUC07, AUC08 and 2DM17 populations. Cluster 6 was formed exclusively by Mishquiyacu (MIS) samples, with the missing samples scattered among other clusters. Cluster 7 consisted of all twenty Aquas de Oro (ADO) samples. Finally Cluster 8 was composed of all six Ramón Castillo (RAC) samples and three samples from different locations MIS02, 2DM14 and SCR23. The dendrogram showed a clear differentiation of the five populations (CHU, SRC, MIS, ADO and RAC). The population collected in Pacchilla (PAC), which was the only location included to the study, where sacha inchi was cultivated on a commercial plantation, was closely related to the population from the Puccalpa (PUC) location. On the other hand samples from the most distant populations of Dos de Mayo (2DM) and Santa Lucía (SLU) were merged together with samples from the Aucloma (AUC) location. Neither cluster analysis nor principal coordinate analysis revealed any relation between the level of genetic diversity and geographical distance in studied populations. The Ramón Castillo (RAC) population from the abandoned field created a separate cluster and exhibited great divergence from the populations of Pucallpa (PUC), Dos de Mayo (2DM), and Cumbaquihui (CHU).



Figure 8. Neighbor-joining (NJ) based analysis of 173 individuals of P. volubilis using Jaccard's dissimilarity coefficient

# 5.1.3 Principal coordinate analysis

The results of three dimensional PCoA analysis indicated relatively clear differentiation of sacha inchi individuals from four localities Chumbaquihui (CHU), Pucallpa (PUC), Dos de Mayo (2DM) and Aguas de Oro (ADO) (Figure 9). On the other hand PCoA revealed the tendency of samples from other localities Mishquiacu (MIS), Pachilla (PAC), Ramón Castillo (RAC), Aucloma (AUC), Santa Lucía (SLU) and some admixed individuals from remaining localities to cluster together.



Figure 9. Three-dimensional principal coordinate analysis (PCoA) of the genetic data based on Nei's genetic coefficients for tested 173 individuals of Plukenetia volubilis marking four distinguished compact populations

# 5.2 Protein and protein fractions analysis

This chapter describes the results of total protein and protein fractions contents analyses carried out by Kjeldahl's and Osborne's method, respectively. The homogenity of variances for all variants of total protein content albumins and globulins, gliadin, and glutenins was calculated using Cochran, Hartley, Bartlett test (Table 11). If the calculated level of significance is higher than the selected one  $p > \alpha = 0.05$ , the variances are conclusively different (homogennous). The result of analysis of variance is not burdened by the error, which would be caused by the nonhomogenity of the variances, and therefore ANOVA could be used, that applied for the total protein content and glutenins. In case the calculated level of significance was lower than the selected one  $p < \alpha = 0.05$  the variances are therefore statistically different (nonhomogenous), the premise for using ANOVA is not fulfilled, and the analysis of variances therefore must be calculated using Kruskal-Wallis test, that applied for Albumins + Globulins and Gliadins.

Table 11. Cochran, Hartley, Bartlett test of the homogeneity of variances for total protein content, albumins and globulins, gliadin, and glutenins

	Hartley. F- max	Cochran C.	Bartlett $\chi^2$	DF	p
Total protein content	3.654825	0.218733	9.400961	8	0.309608
Albumins $+$ Globulins	7.503356	0.342191	15.87049	8	0.044272
Gliadins	7.380707	0.28065	32.84318	8	0.000066
Glutenins	4.083699	0.165622	10.20412	8	0.250991

DF = Degree of freedom

The total protein content and glutenin content could be evaluated by ANOVA, albumin + globulin content and gliadin content were evaluated by Kruskal-Wallis. For more detailed evaluation of the analysis of variances the Scheffé's test was selected for albumin + globulin and gliadin fractions contents, it is more appropriate for diverse groups, meanwhile Tukey's test is better for groups of the same sizes and that was employed for total protein content and glutenin content, in order to find, which means (populations) significantly differ from each other.

Population	<b>Total Protein</b> Content	Albumins $+$ Globulins	Gliadins	Glutenins
<b>PUC</b>	$18.07 \pm 1.10^d$	$13.29 \pm 1.11$ <sup>d</sup>	$0.32 \pm 0.05^{ab}$	$4.46 \pm 1.28$ <sup>bc</sup>
<b>AUC</b>	$19.49 \pm 0.96^b$	$14.07 \pm 0.83$ <sup>ad</sup>	$0.27 \pm 0.12^{\text{ac}}$	$5.16 \pm 0.77$ <sup>abc</sup>
2DM	$20.28 \pm 1.35^{ab}$	$14.53 \pm 1.06^{\circ}$	$0.29 \pm 0.05^{\rm abc}$	$5.46 \pm 1.21^{ab}$
<b>PAC</b>	$20.77 \pm 0.88$ <sup>ab</sup>	$16.32 \pm 0.91^{\circ}$	$0.26 \pm 0.06^{\text{ac}}$	$4.20 \pm 1.41$ °
<b>CHU</b>	$20.86 \pm 1.30^{ab}$	$15.95 \pm 1.32$ <sup>bc</sup>	$0.22 \pm 0.10^{\text{ac}}$	$4.69 \pm 1.53$ <sup>bc</sup>
<b>RAC</b>	$20.99 \pm 1.60^{\text{abc}}$	$13.74 \pm 2.27$ <sup>ad</sup>	$0.38 \pm 0.04^{ab}$	$6.87 \pm 1.18^a$
<b>SCR</b>	$21.26 \pm 1.01$ <sup>ac</sup>	$14.93 \pm 0.89$ <sup>ab</sup>	$0.33 \pm 0.09^{ab}$	$5.99 \pm 1.23^{\text{a}}$
<b>MIS</b>	$21.63 \pm 1.03$ <sup>ac</sup>	$15.19 \pm 1.36^{\text{abc}}$	$0.36 \pm 0.07^b$	$6.08 \pm 1.14^a$
<b>ADO</b>	$22.43 \pm 0.84^c$	$15.91 \pm 1.29$ <sup>bc</sup>	$0.31 \pm 0.04^{ab}$	$6.20 \pm 1.56^a$
Mean	$20.64 \pm 1.12$	$14.88 \pm 1.27$	$0.25 \pm 0.07$	$5.46 \pm 1.26$

Table 12. Overall results of the protein and protein fractions analysis (%).

Values with different superscript within a row are significantly different

### 5.2.1 Total protein content analysis

The seeds of sacha inchi contained 20.64% of proteins in average. The means of the populations were ranging between 18.07% and 22.43% (Table 12). The statistical evaluation detected 4 groups of means for the total protein content. The significantly different least content of proteins was detected in population Pucallpa (18.07%). The highest content of total proteins was detected in population Aguas de Oro (22.43%) which was in group together with populations Mishquiyacu (21.63%), Santa Cruz (21.26%) and Ramón Castillo (20.99%). Population RAC was contained in 3 groups. The largest group contains populations Dos de Mayo (20.28%), Pacchilla (20.77%), Chumbaquihui (20.86%), Ramón Castillo (20.99%), Santa Cruz (21.26%) and Mishquiyacu (21.63%). The group "b" contains populations Ramón Castillo (20.99%), Chumbaquihui (20.86%), Pacchilla (20.77%), Dos de Mayo (20.28%) and Aucaloma (19.49%) which was only in this group.

# 5.2.2 Albumins-globulins fraction analysis

The albumin and globulin fraction contents were ranging between 13.29% and 16.32%. The lowest content of albumin and globulin fraction was detected in population Pucallpa (13.29%), followed by populations Ramón Castillo (13.74%) and Aucaloma (14.07%), forming one group of means. The highest content of albumin and globulin fraction was detected in populations Mishquiyacu (15.19%), Chumbaquihui (15.95%), Aguas de Oro (15.91%), and Pacchilla (16.32%).

#### 5.2.3 Gliadin fraction analysis

The content ranged between 0.22% and 0.38%. Three groups on means were distinguished by the statistics. The group presenting the lowest contents of gliadin fraction contains populations Chumbaquihui (0.22%), Pacchilla (0.26%), Aucaloma (0.27%), and Dos de Mayo (0.29%). The highest contents are assembled in group consisted of Dos de Mayo (0.29%), Aguas de Oro (0.31%), Pucallpa (0.32%), Santa Cruz (0.33%), Mishquiyacu (0.36%), and Ramón Castillo (0.38%).

#### 5.2.4 Glutenin fraction analysis

The content of glutenins estimated by ANOVA ranged between 4.20% and 6.87%. The statistics distinguished 3 groups. The lowest contents assembled in group consisted of populations Pacchilla (4.20%), Pucallpa (4.46%), Chumbaquihui (4.69%), and Aucaloma (5.16%). The group of the highest contents of glutenins contains populations Aucaloma (5.16%), Dos de Mayo (5.46%), Santa Cruz (5.99%), Mishquiyacu (6.08%), Aguas de Oro (6.20%), and Ramón Castillo (6.87).

#### 5.3 Near Infrared Spectroscopy

The potential of near-infrared reflectance spectroscopy (NIRS) to detect within-plant differences for crude protein content in Plukenetia seeds was approved. The qualitative evaluation of new PLS calibration model for prediction protein content in Plukenetia seeds is shown in Table 13. The error of the group of prediction ( $RMSEP = 0.46$ ) was very close to the error of calibration group (RMSEC =  $0.47$ ) and both can be considered low. This calibration model presented good correlation between reference values and the NIR predicted ones. The coefficient of determination  $(R^2)$  value 0.88 is considered as applicable in common agricultural practice. Standard error predictionStandard error of cross-validation value 0.53 is relatively high.

<b>Parameter of calibration model</b>	<b>Symbols</b>	values
correlation coefficient of calibration	R	0.95
standard error correlation of calibration	<b>RMSEC</b>	0.47
<b>Parameter of validation</b>		
correlation coefficient of cross validation	$R_{\rm cv}$	0.94
standard error of cross-validation	<b>RMSECV</b>	0.53
standard error prediction	<b>RMSEP</b>	0.46
residual predictive deviation	<b>RPD</b>	0.66
coefficient of determination	$R^2 = (R_{cv})^2$	0.88

Table 13. Quality evaluation of calibration model

Figure 10 indicates that the calibrating model was not well balanced for estimated lower values of crude protein (for the range between 16-18%) because of lower incidence of standard samples in this region Prediction of protein content in samples with lower value will be influenced by major error. Figure 11 shows predicted value by NIRS against the values measured by standard Kjeldahl mineralization method for crude protein content.



Figure 10. Distribution of crude protein content in sample set.



Figure 11. PLS calibration model for prediction protein content in collection of sacha inchi seeds

# 5.4 SDS PAGE analysis

In the study storage seed proteins and two protein fractions – albumins+globulins and prolamins in single seeds and bulked seed samples were characterized. Protein patterns were evaluated by the classical SDS-PAGE method. Protein bands of total seed protein were detected in the wide range of molecular weight 10-75 kDa (Figure 12) with detected seven bands in followed positions 8.29, 11.14, 16.45, 18.03, 29.70, 40.23 and 59.57 kDa. In the obtained spectra differences in intensity of protein bands (marked with red arrow) were detected, but the polymorphism in band position has generally been found low among all tested samples. In order to fit into the picture, the abreviations of individual populations were modified as follows: Dos de Mayo (2DM => D), Aucaloma (AUC => AU), Santa Lucia (SLU => L), Pucallpa (PUC => P), Ramón Castillo (RAC => R), Mishquiyacu (MIS => M), Santa Cruz (SCR => S), Pacchilla (PAC => PA), Chumbaquihui (CHU => C), Aguas de Oro (ADO => A)



Figure 12. Electroforeograms of classical sodium dodecyl sulphate – polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis patterns of total seed protein (bulked samples) extracted from sacha inchi seeds

A large portion of sacha inchi protein was formed by albumins and globulins (Figure 13), abundant patterns were detected in position from 46.87to 59.14 kDa and 17.12, 18.88 and 18.17 kDa.



Figure 13. Electroforeograms of classical sodium dodecyl sulphate – polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis patterns of albumins+globulins (bulked samples) extracted from sacha inchi seeds

P. volubilis samples were very low in prolamin fraction (Figure 14). Seeds can be considered as a gluten-free due to low content of prolamin fraction. On the gel three prolamin subunits were found out with molecular weight from 19.43, 21.06 and 24.58 kDa.



Figure 14. Electroforeograms of classical sodium dodecyl sulphate – polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis patterns of prolamins (bulked samples) extracted from sacha inchi seeds

Of the total soluble proteins, true albumin+globulin and glutelin were the major fractions in the seed flour soluble proteins with prolamin contributing in a small proportion. Typically, majority of the seed flour proteins could be solubilized by the aqueous solvents used for protein fractionation. The seed flour proteins were mainly composed of two types of polypeptides with estimated molecular weights in the range 17 – 19 kDa.

# 6. Discussion

# 6.1Genetic analysis

This study uncovered a level of genetic diversity within 10 populations of P. volubilis collected in different locations of the region of San Martín, Peruvian Amazon. The estimation of genetic diversity is essential for choosing an adequate breeding programme and strategy for diversity conservation. As the estimation of the genetic diversity based on morphological and biochemical parameters, due to the influence of different environmental conditions, has limitations, the application of molecular biology method is desirable. According to the obtained results the application of ISSR DNA finger printing method was efficient and successful for disclosing the diversity among 173 samples of sacha inchi, scoring a range from 5 to 18 polymorphic bands. In total eight ISSR primers generated 90 polymorphic bands.

Our result differ noticeably from results by Křivánková et al. (2012) who used the same set of ISSR primers on samples from Ucayali region in the Peruvian Amazon, but found different primers to be polymorphic. In her study, primers 807, 810, 814, 824, 826, 834, 835, 845, 846, 847, 848 and 851 were found as polymorphic, meanwhile or study found polymorphic primers 809, 824, 826, 836, 844, 845, 847, and 859, therefore only three polymorphic primers were common for both studies. However, primer 824 which was polymorphic in both studies, had simultaneously the highest number of polymorphic bands, 16 in the study of Křivánková et al. (2012) and 18 in our study and can therefore be considered as informative for this species. The average percentage of polymorphic bands in her study was 70% and 67% in our study. Křivánková et al. (2012) were investigating sacha inchi in various agroforestry systems in region Ucayali, which is neighbouring with San Martín, but both areas are a few hundreds kilometres distant, besides, the origin of Ucayali's P. volubilis germplasm is unknown, most likely not original in this area, therefore the differences may be really caused by the unrelated genetic materials.

The obtained level of genetic variability, 36% among tested localities, can be considered as lower diversity among the samples. In addition, P. volubilis estimated level of genetic diversity among populations was observed lower than genetic diversity within populations. This result coresponds with fact that long-living, out-crossing species, such as P. volubilis, retain most of their diversity within populations. The lower genetic variability among populations than in populations were dicovered also in other study on P. volubilis (Corazon-Guivin et al.,

2008) and in other allogamous plants like Thymus spp. (Hadian et al., 2014), Jatropha curcas (Basha and Sujatha, 2007), where the diversity within population was also 64%.

Corazón-Guivin et al. (2008) studied the intravarietal and intervarietal level of genetic diversity in four populations of P. *volubilis* from the region of San Martín in the Peruvian Amazon by using DALP primers and noticed strong differentiation among four natural populations attributed by gene flow restriction due to several factors such as a presence of natural barriers, geographical distance and mixed system of pollination. Also, the effect of deforestation can cause isolation and fragmentation of tested populations with consequence of their strong genetic differentiation. In the case of using dominant ISSR markers in this study  $G<sub>st</sub>$  was employed for measuring genetic differentiation among populations (Nybon, 2004).  $G<sub>st</sub>$ was estimated as 0.29 with gene flow value  $N_m=1.227$ . Hartl and Clarc (2007) considered the values of  $N<sub>m</sub>$  smaller than 2.0 presenting considerable opportunity for genetic divergence among populations. Obtained statistical data showed genetic diversity with adequate gene flow supported the consideration than the populations are genetically different but not as strong as described by Corazón-Guivin et al. (2008). According to obtained  $G_{st}$  (0.29) among sacha inchi populations from San Martin region there exists exchange of alleles (migration), which corresponded with  $G_{st}$  values published by Fisher et al. (2000).  $G_{st}$  for perennial plants was calculated to be 22% and  $G_{st}$  in outcrossing species was reported 19% with an employment of RAPD markers. The visible result of this value is the dendrogram, which has shown a nice differenciation of the locations indicating relations between some of them. The above discussed results of study by Corazón-Guivin et al. (2008) were probably influenced by the type of used methods. The use of DALP technique with only three polymorphic primers may be responsible for the inaccuracy of obtained results. Other reason result discrepancy could be caused by type of sampling. In our study samples of sacha inchi were collected on substantially larger area region of San Martin and we consider that obtained results reflects more realistic situation in genetic diversity of this species. Also Rodrigues et al. (2013) studied the genetic diversity in 37 Plukenetia volubilis samples from four localities, provided by the gene bank of Embrapa Amazônia Ocidental, using the AFLP technique. Their range of Jaccard´s dissimilarity coefficients among the tested samples ranged between 0.338 and 0.900. The results of our study revealed somehow lower level of genetic variability among all of the samples tested with the Jaccard´s dissimilarity coefficients, ranging between 0.183 and 0.524. The studied samples collected from the forests, home gardens and one plantation seem to be genetically more related together compared to those studied by Rodrigues et al. (2013) stored in gene bank and collected

at two different localities of Brazil. This may be influenced by relatively short distances among our sample locations, unlike the study from Brazil, where samples provided by the gene bank might have origins more distant to each other. On the other hand, Cai et al (2010) considered genetic variation in their set of samples of Jatropha curcas as relatively high when they calculated Shannon information index to be 0.292 and Nei's gene diversity 0.19, which is comparable with this study's finding: Shannon information index was 0.28 and Nei's gene diversity 0.18.

Cluster analysis in this study distinguished 10 groups and PCoA distinguished four populations. The most distant population Santa Lucia found in deep forest showed the lowest genetic diversity probably due to the small size of population which is mentioned by Dostálek et al. (2014). On the other hand in the dendrogram individuals of Santa Lucía population (SLU) were clustered to the same cluster with individuals Dos de Mayo (2DM) and Aucaloma (AUC) population. All three populations were cultivated on a large distance and were cultivated under very extensive conditions (slopes and intercropped), moreover size of seeds collected in Dos de Mayo location was significantly smaller. On the other hand samples from Pucallpa (PUC) and Pacchilla (PAC) populations were placed in proximity to each other in cluster analysis, when population PAC characterized by farmers as a new plantations with the bigger seed size and used in plantations, probably after selection by farmers. Also samples from Aguas de Oro (ADO) were comprised together in one cluster with Ramón Castillo (RAC), both localities were small and isolated. This is evidence that genetic diversity is presented in this region of Peruvian Amazon especially among extensively and intensively cultivated plants. PCoA and NJ showed the strong clustering in the most of individuals however in some clusters the admixed individuals were revealed as a possible consequence of gene flow through pollen or seed, migration of people from place to place, short and long distance marketing of seeds or as a consequence of fragmentation of the habitat. Rodrigues et al. (2013) found out in tested sacha inchi samples some degree of genetic similarity which may be attributed to the long cultivation history of this crop in the region. Aliyu and Awopetu (2007) described the situation in cashew nut and explained that during the pre-research era, exchange of planting materials must have taken place among farmers and this could be the reason why samples from different geographical regions were closely related then the samples from the samples from neighbouring locations. Rao et al. (2012) attributed the loss of genetic diversity in Solanum pimpinellifolium to the migration of the species from Peru to Ecuador resulting in selection towards autogamy. Heywood and Iriondo (2003) considered anthropological influence as crucial for biodiversity conservation. In our study, both cluster analysis and principal coordinate analysis did not reflect any relation between level of genetic diversity and geographical distances in studied populations. Also Beebee and Rowe (2008), Rodrigues et al. (2013), Shilpha et al. (2013) and Bekele et al. (2014) did not find any clear pattern of clustering according their geographical locations.

Result of both cluster analysis and PCoA successfully identified diversity among samples from different locations. The study revealed difference among samples from abandoned or older cultivations places and new plantations independently on the geographical distance. It is possible to presume that anthropological effect have the strong influence on genetic diversity and dissimilarity. The distribution of such diversity is connected with human activities such as migration of people from place to place (such as for Aguas de Oro in our study), short and long distance marketing of seeds (Bekele et al., 2014).

# 6.2Protein and protein fraction analysis

Mean value of the crude protein content reached 20.6% with range between 16% and 23.8%. ADO population was observed as the population with the highest content of crude protein content (mean value 22.43%), on the other side PUC population demonstrated the lowest content of crude protein (mean value 18.07%). These findings are comparable with results of Gutiérrez et al. (2011), on the other hand it differs from results obtained by Sathe et al. (2013) and Hamaker et al. (1992) that reported the total protein content in sacha inchi to be as much as 24.7% and 27%, respectively. Hamaker et al (1992) collected seeds of plants from a collection of the National University of San Martín, probably more same as in our study and yet they obtained higher contents of crude protein. However, it is unknown if it was a collection of random plants or of the best representatives found in the growths cultivated by the farmers or plants found in he wild. The farmers performed some selection of plants they want to grow. They basically use the largest seeds from fruit with as many lobes as possible, while the protein content remains unknown. It is possible that those plants really had higher content of protein. It might also be caused by the lab methodology used, as they performed the analyses more than 20 years ago.

Sathe et al. (2012) in P. volubilis found that the albumin, globulin and glutenin were the major fractions in the seed flour with prolamin contributing in a small proportion. In his earlier study, Sathe (2002) detected the total protein content in the seeds to be 20.64% and the albuminglobulin fraction to be 14.95%. Sathe did not mention whether the seeds in their study were

shelled or not, however, we analysed unsheld seeds. But these findings correspond with ours. The content of crude protein was found to be lower compared with soybean protein content ranging between 30.3 and 41.2% (Lee et al., 2013). Similar protein content was observed in almond kernel - 20.6%, gingerbread plum (Parinari curatellifolia) kernel - 20.4% (Amza et al., 2014), cashew kernel - 21.2% (Fetuga et al., 1974) and peanuts – 24.5% (Khalil and Chughtai, 1983). These seeds also have similar oil content 47.5%, 47.3%, 48.1% and 49.5%, respectively, compared to 54% reported in sacha inchi (Hamaker et al. 1992). That makes sacha inchi a beneficial alternative to those nuts.

In comparison, Alireza (2014) reported albumins to be 38.33% and globulins 39.04% of the total seed protein in sunflower, while it represents 35% of the seed meals. Further fractions were glutenin (17.09%) and prolamins (5.54%). In the gingerbread plum kernel had the largest fraction was glutenin with 40.6% of total seed protein, followed by albumin (27.6%), globulin (25.8%) and prolamin (6.48%) using the same method of fractionation (Amza et al., 2013).

All authors above mentioned isolation also of prolamins, but they probably were not necessary to be extracted in our study as Sathe et al. (2012) pointed them to contribute in a very small amount, which was consequently confirmed within the SDS-PAGE analysis.

Pucallpa population differed from other populations by statistically significantly lower detected content of protein (18.07%). If we compare it with results by Hamaker et al (1992), the difference would be as much as 9% of total protein content. Most of the samples were collected in somehow protected areas, such as valleys. Populations Pucallpa, Pacchilla and Aucaloma were collected on the hill ridge. These populations performed lower values of total protein content, while Pucallpa was the lowest one. It seems that the protein content can also be affected by the environmental conditions. The soil in Pucallpa was of a lower quality too as it was stony, the plants' growths were shrubbier which also may indicate the plants are used to adverse conditions. It would also be interesting to compare the oil contents, since Shi et al (2010) detected negative correlation between oil and protein content in soybean.

If we confront the protein contents with genetic relations, we can see the Pucallpa population, which performed the lowest content of total proteins, was one of the best distinguished populations by PCoA analysis. On the other side, PCoA also clearly distinguished population Aguas de Oro, which performed the highest protein content. Based on our analysis, we can say, the protein content might be affected affected genetically. The statistical methods attributed the populations to several groups based on the total protein content therefore a diversity was detected from this point o view as well, besides went out supported by the genetics.

NIR spectroscopy has been used to predict the protein content of single seeds of wheat and soybean (Abe et al., 1995) and rapeseeds (Velasco and Möllers, 2002) and it is considered as a nondestructive fast technique. In case of sacha inchi seeds it was necessary to use milled seeds because of their big lenticular and compressed seed size (the diameter of seeds was approximately one centimeter) in comparison with other crops. For more precise results of developed calibration model the smaller particles of measured samples were preferred. Similarly in soybean there were used milled samples for FT-NIR (Ferreira et al., 2013) and Raman spectroscopy (Hoonsoo et al., 2013). The calibration model in this study presented high coefficient of determination  $R^2 = 0.88$ , which is considered as applicable in common agricultural practice, values above 0.90 are considered excellent (Dvořáček et al., 2014) and low prediction error RMSEP =  $0.46\%$ , as Ferreira et al. (2013) considered their RMSEP = 1.61% low after comparison with further studies. Value of  $RDP = 0.66$  is appropriate, because according to Williams (2001) a value of  $RPD > 2.4$  is desirable to an appropriate model, while Williams and Sobering (1995) indicate that the value of 3 or more is the recommended value. This result depends on the errors of the prediction (RMSEP) which must be lower than the standard deviation of the data group. That makes our model appropriate, since our RMSEP  $=$ 0.46% and the standard deviation of the group is 1.63.

SDS–PAGE method was intended for genetic diversity assessment, as it was already used for detection of genetic variability (Akbar et al., 2012; Khurshid and Rabbani, 2012), however, no visible differences were observed with this method. This may be caused by using the bulked samples instead of individual sampling and the differences among the populations on this level might not be detected. However, this method did not reveal high level of genetic diversity in other studies either (Akbar et al., 2012; Ghafoor et al., 2002), and it is generally not a sufficiently powerful technique to distinguish a specific cultivar (Liang et al., 2006) anyway, therefore we did not intend to run such an extensive analysis on all of the samples individually as the method is quite time and money consuming. The populational diversity was evaluated by ISSR analysis and protein contents differences only.

Obtained result of protein bands of total seed protein were detected in the wide range of molecular weight 10-75 kDa corresponds to findings of Sathe et al. (2012) who detected sacha inchi seed soluble protein in range of  $10 - 70$  kDa. Our results, however, differ in the major molecular species. Meanwhile Sathe et al. (2012) informed their soluble seed flour proteins are mainly composed of two molecular species  $(32-35 \text{ kDa}$  and  $\sim 60-62 \text{ kDa}$ ), and Sathe et al. (2002) informed about albumins being composed mainly of glycosylated polypeptides with estimated molecular weight of 32.8 – 34.8 kDa, we in this study detected the major portion

between 15 – 20 kDa. In their study, Sathe et al. (2012) compared the profiles of albumins and globulins next to each other and the albumins were really consisting mainly of 32 kDa proteins meanwhile the globulins consisted rather of the 20 kDa proteins which were detected in our study. Considering fact that in our study we evaluated albumins and globulin together (they were not separated) and they only formed one major portion of polypeptides of molecular weight 15 – 20 kDa, it is after a comparison with the previous studies by Sathe et al. (2002 and 2012) possible to say, that the albumins are in lower proportions in our samples and the major part of proteins consists of globulins.

# 7. Conclusion

So far, a few genetic studies about P. *volubilis* using any of molecular markers have been published in scientific journals. Thus our recent research aimed to increase available information about P. volubilis focusing on the genetic analysis in order to describe current genetic structure of selected populations and obtain information useful for conservation strategies and future breeding programmes. The method of ISSR markers, used in this study, provided segregation of tested individuals to appropriate clusters with attribution to place of their distribution in the field and with independence to their geographical distance. It therefore proved to be an appropriate tool for genetic diversity assessment. The relatively high genetic diversity found in the populations of sacha inchi might be caused by isolation of populations and limited but still existing gene flow. Also the present level of some similarities among populations was detected, caused by possible historic long term use and seed transmission by people.

The protein contents were rather lower in comparison with other studies, which might have been affected by different methodology used for analysis, but also by genetic differences and selection. Nevertheless, estimated protein content usually higher than 20% still makes sacha inchi an interesting source of protein for human consumption.

The detection and knowledge of the current genetic diversity could help to improve breeding and domestication of this plant, that could bebeneficial for human consumption in other areas. Mapping of useful genetic resources could help preserving the variability essential for improvements. The cultivation has already been spread to China, Cambodia and other countries in Southeast Asia. The future work on this species should be directed to the comparison of samples originating in other countries of South America and the employment other methods of molecular biology with aim to discover genetic diversity. As this plant's cultivation is still increasing and there is still lack of studies on its genetic diversity, more studies should be carried out for further breeding programmes focused either on higher protein content or resistance to pests and diseases. The propagation system is sort of complicated and more genetic studies are desireable. This study might help in mapping of appropriate cultivars in Peruvian Amazon.

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## 9. Annexes



Annex 1. The primary data from the laboratory measurements of the total protein and protein fractions contents in the dry matter of the seeds.









## 10. List of author's publications

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