Received: 10 January 2017,

Revised: 28 March 2017,

Published online in Wiley Online Library

(wileyonlinelibrary.com) DOI 10.1002/pca.2692

Untargeted Metabolomic Analysis of *Capsicum* spp. by GC–MS

Bianca Camargo Aranha,^a Jessica Fernanda Hoffmann,^a Rosa Lia Barbieri,^b Cesar Valmor Rombaldi^a and Fábio Clasen Chaves^a* ^(D)

ABSTRACT:

Introduction – In order to conserve the biodiversity of *Capsicum* species and find genotypes with potential to be utilised commercially, Embrapa Clima Temperado maintains an active germplasm collection (AGC) that requires characterisation, enabling genotype selection and support for breeding programmes.

Objective – The objective of this study was to characterise pepper accessions from the Embrapa Clima Temperado AGC and differentiate species based on their metabolic profile using an untargeted metabolomics approach.

Material and Methods – Cold (-20°C) methanol extraction residue of freeze-dried fruit samples was partitioned into water/methanol (A) and chloroform (B) fractions. The polar fraction (A) was derivatised and both fractions (A and B) were analysed by gas chromatography coupled to mass spectrometry (GC–MS). Data from each fraction was analysed using a multivariate principal component analysis (PCA) with XCMS software.

Results – Amino acids, sugars, organic acids, capsaicinoids, and hydrocarbons were identified. Outlying accessions including P116 (*C. chinense*), P46, and P76 (*C. annuum*) were observed in a PCA plot mainly due to their high sucrose and fructose contents. PCA also indicated a separation of P221 (*C. annuum*) and P200 (*C. chinense*), because of their high dihydrocapsaicin content.

Conclusions – Although the metabolic profiling did not allow for grouping by species, it permitted the simultaneous identification and quantification of several compounds complementing and expanding the metabolic database of the studied *Capsicum* spp. in the AGC. Copyright © 2017 John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.

Keywords: Metabolic profiling; organic acids, capsaicinoids; sugars; amino acids

Introduction

The genus Capsicum is native to humid tropical zones of Central and South America, belongs to the Solanaceae family, and encompasses more than 30 perennial species, five of which are domesticated: C. annuum, C. frutescens, C. chinense, C. pubescens, and C. baccatum (Heiser and Pickersgill, 1969). Since the original proposition by Linnaeus of two species (C. annuum and C. frutescens), many studies have dealt with speciation at different levels (genetic, chemical, molecular) and the current classification is primarily based on morphological characteristics. These species bear fruit varying in shape, colour, size, and degree of pungency (Smith and Heiser, 1951). Capsicum fruit are a source of many health beneficial compounds, such as ascorbic acid (vitamin C), carotenoids (provitamin A), tocopherols (vitamin E), flavonoids, and capsaicinoids (Howard and Wildman, 2006). The presence and content of these compounds can vary depending on biotic and abiotic factors including species, climate, and soil conditions. Metabolomic analysis of a complex matrix allows for the characterisation and quantification of the majority of the compounds present in an extract (De Vos et al., 2007; Hoffmann et al., 2017).

Metabolomic analysis emerged as an important tool for identification and comparison of a large number of compounds in biological systems. However, plants are particularly complex as they are composed of a wide variety of metabolites, which makes it impossible for any analytical method to simultaneously extract and detect all of the compounds present in the matrix (De Vos *et al.*, 2007). Targeted or untargeted metabolomics has been used to obtain information on metabolic variability of germplasm, both to compare species within a genus and to establish the origin of different individuals (Hoffmann et al., 2017). Evidence of an effect of geographic environment on pungency within species has been demonstrated (Tewksbury et al., 2006). In addition, the capsaicinoid profile has been ruled out as a chemotaxonomic indicator for Capsicum species (Zewdie and Bosland, 2001). A group of accessions of different Capsicum species from various locations were analysed by a targeted approach, and results indicated that the metabolic variation was independent of species and geographical location (Wahyuni et al., 2011). This collection consisted of 32 accessions and when later analysed for their volatile profile, the profile also did not provide chemotaxonomic separation by species (Wahyuni et al., 2013). However, when the same 32 genotypes were further investigated using an untargeted metabolomics approach by liquid chromatography coupled to mass spectrometry (LC-MS), the investigators proposed they

^b Embrapa Clima Temperado, Caixa Postal 403, CEP, 96001-970, Pelotas, Brazil

^{*} Correspondence to: Fábio Clasen Chaves, Graduate Programme in Food Science and Technology, Department of Agroindustrial Science and Technology, Faculty of Agronomy Eliseu Maciel, Federal University of Pelotas, Caixa Postal 354, CEP 96010-900, Pelotas, Brazil. Email: fabio.chaves@ufpel.edu.br

^a Graduate Programme in Food Science and Technology, Department of Agroindustrial Science and Technology, Faculty of Agronomy Eliseu Maciel, Federal University of Pelotas, Caixa Postal 354, CEP, 96010-900, Pelotas, Brazil

arouped by species according to their semi-polar profile which did not include capsaicinoid but did include phenolics, flavonoids, and capsianosides (Wahyuni et al., 2013). Chromatography is a separation technique that becomes increasingly more powerful when coupled to MS, for it can also provide structural information and metabolite identification. While LC-MS usually employs a more accurate mass analyser with higher mass resolution and milder ionisation steps, gas chromatography coupled to mass spectrometry (GC–MS) is applicable to volatile and thermally stable compounds and derivatisation reactions may make some compounds more amenable to GC conditions. GC-MS commonly utilises electron ionisation (EI) with constant energy to create reproducible fragmentation patterns, facilitating compound identification (Lisec et al., 2006; De Vos et al., 2007). In this context, untargeted metabolomics using GC-MS were used in the current study to determine the metabolic profile of different Capsicum species in order to explore the metabolic potential of accessions of the active germplasm collection and to establish whether species can be distinguished based on their metabolic profile.

Experimental

Chemicals

All the reagents and solvents used in this study were HPLC grade purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (St Louis, MO, USA).

Samples

Sixty accessions from four different *Capsicum* species [*C. baccatum* (34), *C. chinense* (12), *C. annuum* (13), and *C. frutescens* (1)] from the Embrapa Clima Temperado active germplasm collection (AGC) with high genetic variability originally collected from different regions in Brazil were used. Ripe fruit were collected at 9 a.m., frozen in liquid nitrogen, chopped, freeze-dried (Liobras, L101; Liobras, Brazil), and macerated in a ball mill (Marconi, MA350; Marconi, Brazil). Tissue was stored at -80°C until analysed.

Extract preparation

Capsicum fruit were extracted following the methodology proposed by Lisec et al. (2006). Therefore, 30 mg of lyophilised sample was extracted with 1.4 mL pre-cooled methanol (-20°C). Then 60 µL of ribitol (0.2 mg/ mL in ultrapure water) and 10 μ L of anthrone (1 mg/mL in chloroform) were added and vortexed for 10 s. The mixture was incubated in a thermomixer (Eppendorf thermomixer 5436, Eppendorf, Germany) for 10 min at 70°C and 900 rpm. Samples were centrifuged for 10 min at 11000×g and the supernatant was mixed with 1.5 mL of ultrapure water (cooled to 4°C) and 0.75 mL chloroform (-20°C) and vortexed for 10 s. The sample was centrifuged (Sorvall, RC5C, DuPont, USA) for 15 min at 22000×g and 150 µL of the upper phase (fraction A) was saved for a later derivatisation step. Thus, 650 µL of the bottom layer (fraction B) was placed in GC vials for injection. Subsequently, fraction A (150 μL) was concentrated to dryness by applying nitrogen gas and 40 μL of methoximation reagent (20 mg/mL methoxyamine hydrochloride in pyridine) was added and the mixture was stirred for 2 h at 37°C in a thermomixer. Then 70 µL of MSTFA [N-methyl-N-(trimethylsilyl) trifluoroacetamide] was added and the sample was stirred for 30 min at 37°C. The reaction was transferred to GC vials with 250 uL inserts and immediately injected into the GC.

GC-MS parameters for metabolic profiling

A Shimadzu GCMS QP2010 Ultra (Shimadzu, Japan) equipped with auto injector AOC-20i and NIST 2011 mass spectrum library was used. Chromatography and MS parameters followed the protocol proposed by Lisec *et al.* (2006). Samples were injected (1 μ L) with the injector

temperature set at 230°C, in either a split mode (1:50) for fraction A or a splitless mode for fraction B, using helium as the carrier gas at 2 mL/min flow and linear velocity as flow control mode. The capillary column used was an Rtx-5MS (30 m \times 0.25 mm \times 0.25 μ m) with temperature programming set at 80°C for 2 min, and a ramp temperature of 15°C per minute until 320°C, then maintained for 6 min. MS parameters were: ion source and interface set at 250°C, mass range 70–600 m/z scanned at 0.2 scans per second. Fatty acid methyl esters (FAMEs C8–24) were used to determine a retention time index calculated automatically by the Shimadzu software.

Principal component analysis

Principal component analysis (PCA) was performed using free online software – XCMS Online (access link: https://xcmsonline.scripps.edu/). A multi group job was created selecting databases preloaded in the software in mzXML format. Databases for each species were created and three replicates of each accession belonging to each species were included. No database was selected for the QC Dataset option. Instrumental parameters were GC/single quadrupole, GC-EI-MS of single quadrupole, retention time in minutes, positive polarity, and subsequent submission for parametric analysis of variance (ANOVA).

Statistical analyses

Means and standard deviations were calculated for each parameter by accession. ANOVA and means comparisons by Fisher's least significant difference (LSD) test ($p \le 0.05$) were performed with Statistical Analysis System (SAS) program.

Results and discussion

Untargeted metabolomic analysis of 60 Capsicum spp. accessions was performed on the partitioned fractions, water/methanol (fraction A) and chloroform (fraction B), derived from the resuspended residue of a cold methanol extraction of freeze-dried pepper fruit. PCA revealed the distribution of 60 Capsicum accessions based on metabolic profiling of fractions A and B [Figs 1(a) and (b)]. Figure 1(a) shows the PCA score for principal components one (PC1) and two (PC2). The first and second components of the PCA model explained 52% of the total variance in metabolite content among Capsicum accessions, where PC1 and PC2 represented 42% and 10%, respectively, of the total variability in the data set. Outlying accessions included P116 (C. chinense), P46 (C. annuum), and P76 (C. annuum). P116 did not group with the majority of accessions because of its elevated sucrose content. Meanwhile, fructose was the metabolite present in high titers in P46 and P76 that influenced their separation from the rest of the accessions.

For fraction B [Fig. 1(b)], the first two principal components represented 46% of the total variation. PC1 had the highest accumulated variation and represented 34% of the total variability in the data set. P221 (*C. annuum*) and P200 (*C. chinense*) diverged from the main cluster, and the compound responsible was dihydrocapsaicin.

Multivariate analysis of compounds including general and specialised metabolites present in each fraction studied did not show separation by species; however, outliers rich in specific compounds were identified. These findings are in agreement with Zewdie and Bosland (2001) and Wahyuni *et al.* (2013), who could not differentiate among species based on their metabolic profile. *Capsicum* taxonomy is primarily based on morphological characteristics and the outcrossing capabilities among species lead to genotype variability. Therefore, the general and specialised



Figure 1. Plotting scores of the principal component analysis (PCA) of polar fraction A – water/methanol (a) and polar fraction B – chloroform fraction from the methanol extraction (b) of four *Capsicum* spp. (*C. annuum, C. baccatum, C. chinense*, and *C. frutescens*) of the Embrapa Clima Temperado active germplasm collection, Pelotas, RS, Brazil. PC1, principal component one; PC2, principal component two. [Colour figure can be viewed at wileyonlinelibrary.com]

metabolic contents also tend to be variable and not species specific.

Genetic and environmental factors influence the metabolic responses of plants and may be associated with compositional variation among individuals within the same species. Thus, it is ideal to evaluate the maximum possible number of genotypes to better elucidate the characteristics of the species and genus of interest. There are many reports on the capsaicinoid profile of pepper fruit determined by various methodologies (Zewdie and Bosland, 2001). However, few studies both focus on the metabolic profile of pepper extracts of different polarities and include a large sample set.

In this study, several compounds (Tables 1 and 2) were identified in methanolic extracts partitioned into two fractions, methanol/water (fraction A) and chloroform (fraction B). Six classes of compounds were pooled together and quantified: amino acids, sugars, organic acids, hydrocarbons, esters, and capsaicinoids (Figs 2 and 3). Aizat *et al.* (2014) accessed differentially abundant compounds involved in the regulation of non-climacteric fruit

ripening via a metabolomics analysis of *Capsicum* by GC–MS and identified sugars, amino acids, organic acids.

Figure 2 shows the quantification of total amino acids, sugars, and organic acids for each genotype as result of the metabolic profile of fraction A. Asparagine was the predominant amino acid in 76% of the studied accessions. It represented on average 27% of the total amino acid content, and varied from 0.7 to 6.17 mg/ g. Norvaline was the predominant amino acid in: C. baccatum accessions P219 (1.09 mg/g), P274 (1.29 mg/g), P280 (1.03 mg/g), P287 (1.44 mg/g), and P294 (1.78 mg/g); C. chinense accessions P236 (0.61 mg/g) and P247 (1.06 mg/g); C. annuum accessions P136 (1.16 mg/g) and P189 (1.88 mg/g); and C. frutescens accession P82 (1.14 mg/g). In C. baccatum accessions P14 and P108 and C. annuum accessions P46 and P290, the predominant amino acids were isoleucine (2.25 mg/g), serine (0.76 mg/g and 1.63 mg/g), and proline (1.78 mg/g), respectively. Other amino acids identified included: alanine, valine, tyrosine, glutamine, phenylalanine, threonine, lysine, cysteine, glycine, aspartic acid, and glutamic acid (Table 1). The average content of total amino acids for the studied

Table 1. Derivatised metabolites identified in 60 Capsicum spp. accessions by GC–MS analysis							
No.	Compound	Class	R _t	Derivatised MW	Reference ions ^a	Retention index ^b	
1	Alanine	Amino acid	4.557	233	73 (46); 116 (100); 117 (12); 147 (15); M ^{+.} 233 (<1)	780	
2	Valine	Amino acid	5.802	261	73 (57); 144 (100); 145 (12); 218 (18); M ^{+.} 261 (<1)	901	
3	Leucine	Amino acid	6.370	275	73 (38); 102 (10); 158 (100); 159 (14); M ^{+.} 275 (<1)	956	
4	Isoleucine	Amino acid	6.591	275	73 (53); 158 (100); 159 (14); 218 (19); M ⁺ 275(<1)	977	
5	Proline	Amino acid	6.627	259	73 (40); 142 (100); 143 (13); 147 (6); M ^{+.} 259 (<1)	981	
6	Glycine	Amino acid	6.717	291	73 (48); 86 (21); 147 (26); 174 (100); M ⁺ 291 (<1)	989	
/	Serine	Amino acid	7.236	321	73 (94); 100 (25); 204 (100); 218 (61); M ⁺ 321 (<1)	1046	
8	Inreonine	Amino acid	7.491	335	/3 (100); 11/ (44); 218 (51); 219 (44); M ⁺ 335 (<1)	1075	
9 10	Norvaine Putapodiois asid	Amino acid	7.914	2/3	/3 (21); 82 (80); 1/2 (100); 1/3 (15); W 2/3 (<1) 72 (100); 147 (49); 222 (17); 245 (0); M ⁺ : 250 (<1)	1123	
10	Aspartic acid	Amino acid	0.507 8.637	340	73 (100), 147 (46), 233 (17), 243 (9), $M = 530 (<1)$ 73 (92), 100 (21), 232 (100), 233 (21), M^+ : 240 (<1)	11/4	
12	Proline	Amino acid	8 667	273	$73(55)\cdot 147(15)\cdot 156(100)\cdot 157(12)\cdot M^{+} 273(<1)$	1202	
13	Butanoic acid	Organic acid	8 704	319	73 (51): 147 (37): 174 (100): 304 (28): M ⁺ 319 (<1)	1205	
14	Glutamic acid	Amino acid	9.419	363	73 (69): 128 (39): 147 (22): 246 (100): M ^{+.} 363 (3)	1305	
15	Phenylalanine	Amino acid	9.506	309	73 (100): 100 (292): 192 (69): 218 (94): M ⁺ · 309 (<1)	1317	
16	D-(-)-Xylose	Sugar	9.793	463	73 (100); 103 (86); 217 (55); 307 (26); M ⁺ 463 (<1)	1353	
17	Asparagine	Amino acid	9.838	348	73 (100); 116 (70); 132 (31); 231 (34); M ⁺ 348 (<1)	1359	
18	Xylitol	Sugar	10.306	512	73 (100); 103 (45); 147 (44); 73 (100); M ^{+.} 512 (<1)	1421	
19	Glutamine	Amino acid	10.581	362	73 (94); 155 (38); 156 (100); 245 (23); M ^{+.} 362 (1)	1460	
20	1-Cyclohexene- 1-carboxylic acid	Organic acid	10.834	462	73 (67); 147 (21); 204 (100); 205 (20); M ^{+.} 462 (1)	1496	
21	Fructose (isomer 1)	Sugar	10.882	540	73 (100); 147 (23); 217 (69); 437 (18); M ^{+.} 540 (<1)	1503	
22	Citric acid	Organic acid	10.951	480	73 (100); 147 (56); 273 (94); 347 (20); M ^{+.} 480 (<1)	1513	
23	Fructose (isomer 2)	Sugar	11.002	540	73 (100); 147 (30); 204 (73); 217 (26); M ^{+.} 540 (<1)	1521	
24	Fructose (isomer 3)	Sugar	11.380	569	73 (100); 103 (98); 217 (70); 307 (42); M ^{+.} 569 (<1)	1574	
25	Fructose (isomer 4)	Sugar	11.448	569	73 (100); 103 (87); 217 (70); 307 (42); M ⁺ 569 (<1)	1584	
26	D-Allose (isomer 1)	Sugar	11.519	569	73 (100); 147 (40); 205 (49); 319 (51); M ⁺ · 569 (<1)	1594	
27	Talose (isomer 1)	Sugar	11.565	569	73 (100); 147 (48); 205 (59); 319 (64); M ⁺ 569 (<1)	1600	
28	Talose (isomer 2)	Sugar	11.689	569	/3 (100); 14/ (38); 205 (44); 319 (52); M ⁺⁺ 569 (<1)	1620	
29	I yrosine	Amino acids	11./44	397	/3 (42); 218 (100); 219 (17); 280 (13); M 397 (<1)	1629	
20 21	s-a-mannopiose	Sugar	12.067	540	73(100); 147(21); 217(00); 301(24); WI 918(<1) 72(100); 101(40); 204(05); 217(24); M ⁺ : 540(<1)	1679	
22	D-Glucose (isomer)	Sugar	12.007	540	73 (100), 191 (40), 204 (93), 217 (34), 101 340 (<1) 73 (99), 204 (100), 205 (23), 220 (22), M^{+} , 540 (<1)	1078	
32	D-Allose (isomer 2)	Sugar	12.595	627	$73 (100) \cdot 147 (40) \cdot 205 (51) \cdot 319 (81) \cdot M^{+} \cdot 627 (<1)$	1844	
34	D-(+)-Mannose	Sugar	13.022	627	73 (100): 103 (36): 205 (38): 319 (58): M ^{+.} 627 (<1)	1849	
35	D-Glucuronic acid	Organic acid	14.415	554	73 (100): 147 (31): 204 (60): 217 (64): M ^{+.} 554 (<1)	2075	
36	Sucrose	Sugar	15.871	918	73 (60); 217 (31); 661 (100); 662 (33); M ^{+.} 918 (<1)	2357	
37	Lactose (isomer 1)	Sugar	16.427	918	73 (68); 204 (100); 205 (20); 217 (17); M ⁺ 918 (<1)	2469	
38	Galactinol	Sugar	17.553	990	73 (44); 191 (24); 204 (100); 217 (30); M ^{+.} 990 (<1)	2695	
39	Melibiose	Sugar	16.718	918	73 (74); 204 (100); 205 (22); 217 (46); M ^{+.} 918 (<1)	2527	
40	β-Gentiobiose	Sugar	16.760	947	73 (69); 204 (100); 205 (21); 361 (39); M ⁺ 947 (<1)	2536	
41	Lactose (isomer 2)	Sugar	16.770	918	73 (67); 204 (100); 205 (20); 217 (15); M ^{+.} 918 (<1)	2538	
Note: <i>R</i> _t , retention time; MW, molecular weight.							

^aMass spectrometry library NIST 2011. M^{+.} molecular ion.

^bFatty acid methyl esters (FAMEs) C8–C24.

species was 6.7 mg/g in *C. baccatum*, 8.2 mg/g in *C. chinense*, 8.1 mg/g in *C. annuum* and 4.1 mg/g in *C. frutescens*. Amino acids are precursors of essential metabolites and are involved in response to stress. Studies evaluating the profile in Italian sweet pepper by HRMAS-NMR spectroscopy showed the presence of the amino acids alanine (Ala), arginine (Arg), asparagine (Asn), γ -amino butyrate acid (GABA), glutamate (Glu), glutamine (Gln), isoleucine (Ile), leucine (Leu), phenylalanine (Phe), threonine (Thr),

tryptophan (Trp), tyrosine (Tyr), and valine (Val) (Ritota *et al.*, 2010). A similar amino acid profile was observed in this study (Table 1).

In an evaluation of the amino acid profile of *C. chinense*, Ananthan *et al.* (2016) reported the predominance of aspartic acid and glutamic acid (185 and 195 mg/100 g of protein), while in this study asparagine and norvaline predominated for the same species. Proline was the predominant amino acid in accession

Table 2. Non-derivatised metabolites identified in 60 Capsicum spp. accessions by GC-MS analysis

N°	Compound	Class	R _t	MW	Reference ions ^a	Retention index ^b	
1	Pentadecane	Hydrocarbon	6.428	212	70 (16); 71 (100); 85 (65); 99 (14); M ^{+.} 212 (34)	956	
2	Decanoic acid	Fatty acid	6.933	172	71 (43); 73 (100); 87 (24); 129 (62); M ^{+.} 172 (<1)	1009	
3	Heneicosane	Hydrocarbon	8.731	296	71 (100); 85 (77); 99 (23); 113 (16); M ^{+.} 296 (<1)	1216	
4	Methyl tetradecanoate	Ester	10.150	242	71 (32); 74 (100); 85 (18); 87 (61); M ^{+.} 242 (3)	1398	
5	Tetradecanoic acid	Fatty acid	10.397	228	71 (35); 73 (100); 129 (52); 85 (27); M ^{+.} 228 (10)	1433	
6	Octadecane	Hydrocarbon	10.675	254	71 (100); 83 (14); 85 (71); 99 (22); M ^{+.} 254 (3)	1473	
7	2-hydroxy-Cyclopentadecanone	Hydrocarbon	10.785	240	81 (65); 83 (91); 84 (66); 97 (100); M ^{+.} 240 (8)	1489	
8	Pentadecanoic acid	Fatty acid	10.895	242	71 (53); 73 (100); 83 (35); 129 (47); M ^{+.} 242 (11)	1504	
9	Nonadecane	Hydrocarbon	11.370	268	71 (100); 85 (69); 99 (24); 113 (17); M ^{+.} 268 (1)	1572	
10	Methyl palmitoleate	Ester	11.429	268	74 (96); 83 (100); 84 (80); 87 (72); M ^{+.} 268 (4)	1581	
11	Methyl hexadecanoate	Ester	11.552	270	71 (20); 74 (100); 75 (19); 87 (70); M ^{+.} 270 (5)	1598	
12	Palmitoleic acid	Fatty acid	11.664	254	70 (56); 83 (100); 84 (70); 97 (74); M ^{+.} 254 (4)	1615	
13	n-Hexadecanoic acid	Fatty acid	11.792	256	71 (46); 73 (100); 85 (32); 129 (48); M ^{+.} 256 (17)	1636	
14	9,10-Anthracenedione	Anthraquinone	12.102	208	76 (47); 151 (33); 152 (66); 180 (85); M ^{+.} 208 (100)	1685	
15	Methyl linoleate	Ester	12.660	294	81 (100); 82 (58); 95 (62); 96 (38); M ^{+.} 294 (6)	1772	
16	Methyl oleate	Ester	12.688	296	74 (100); 83 (98); 84 (89); 97 (81); M ^{+.} 296 (4)	1777	
17	Oleic acid	Fatty acid	12.989	282	81 (84); 82 (67); 83 (100); 97 (73); M ^{+.} 282 (2)	1826	
18	Ethyl oleate	Ester	13.077	310	83 (90); 84 (87); 88 (100); 97 (91); M ^{+.} 310 (4)	1841	
19	Ethyl linolenate	Ester	13.127	306	79 (100); 81 (43); 93 (47); 95 (52); M ^{+.} 306 (2)	1849	
20	2-Hydroxyethyl hexadecanoate	Ester	13.509	300	84 (45); 98 (91); 104 (100); 117 (65); M ^{+.} 300 (1)	1915	
21	1-Heneicosanol	Alcohol	13.778	312	82 (43); 83 (100); 97 (90); 111 (47); M ^{+.} 312 (<1)	1960	
22	bis(2-ethylhexyl) hexanedioate	Ester	14.402	370	70 (34); 71 (29); 112 (25); 129 (100); M ^{+.} 370 (<1)	2073	
23	2-hydroxyethyl octadecanoate	Ester	14.640	328	86 (41); 98 (93); 104 (100); 117 (64); M ^{+.} 328 (1)	2117	
24	1,3-dihydroxypropan-2-yl	Ester	15.016	330	74 (74); 84 (73); 98 (100); 239 (57); M ^{+.} 330 (<1)	2187	
	hexadecanoate						
25	Nonivamide	Capsaicinoid	15.137	293	137 (100); 138 (12); 151 (16); 195 (14); M ^{+.} 293 (19)	2210	
26	Capsaicin	Capsaicinoid	15.360	305	122 (7); 137 (100); 138 (12); 152 (11); M ^{+.} 305 (7)	2255	
27	Dihydrocapsaicin	Capsaicinoid	15.473	307	137 (100); 138 (14); 151 (16); 195 (15); M ^{+.} 307 (17)	2278	
28	Homocapsaicin	Capsaicinoid	15.930	319	71 (15); 137 (100); 138 (13); 152 (10); M ^{+.} 319 (5)	2369	
29	Homodihydrocapsaicin	Capsaicinoid	16.083	321	137 (100); 138 (14); 151 (19); 195 (15); M ^{+.} 321 (14)	2400	
30	γ-Tocopherol	Phytosterol	17.657	416	150 (23); 151 (100); 191 (23); 417 (25); M ^{+.} 416 (81)	2716	
31	DL-α-Tocopherol	Phytosterol	18.013	430	164 (39); 165 (100); 205 (11); 431 (25); M ^{+.} 430 (76)	2787	
32	Ergost-5-en-3-ol	Phytosterol	18.592	400	81 (94); 95 (92); 105 (88); 107 (97); M ^{+.} 400 (100)	2903	
33	Stigmasterol	Phytosterol	18.744	412	81 (81); 83 (100); 97 (53); 133 (54); M ^{+.} 412 (50)	2934	
34	γ-Sitosterol	Phytosterol	19.052	414	81 (97); 95 (90); 105 (82); 107 (100); M ^{+.} 414 (97)	2996	
Note: <i>R</i> _t , retention time; MW, molecular weight. ^a Mass spectrometry library NIST 2011. M ^{+.} molecular ion. ^b Fatty acid methyl esters (FAMEs) C8–C24.							

P290 (*C. annuum*). Proline accumulation has been observed in plants under stress conditions and attenuates the redox potential of free radicals and serves as an energy reserve and a nitrogen source during salt stress, drought, and temperature stresses (Verbruggen and Hermans, 2008). Another relevant amino acid found in the genus *Capsicum* is phenylalanine, which is a precursor of capsaicinoids. Studies have shown that phenylalanine ammonia lyase activity peaks and phenylalanine accumulation is channelled for capsaicinoid biosynthesis during fruit development (Castro-Concha *et al.*, 2016).

Fructose was the most abundant sugar in all species tested, representing on average 49% of the total sugar content in *C. baccatum* (fructose content ranged from 55.8 to 85.4 mg/g), 55% in *C. chinense* (fructose content ranged from 40.0 to 93.3 mg/g), 53% in *C. annuum* (fructose content ranged from 28.6 to 84.9 mg/g), and 44% in *C. frutescens* (27.8 mg/g). Sucrose

comprised on average 1 to 7% of the total sugar content, except for accession P116 (C. chinense) which contained 18% sucrose. Capsicum baccatum accessions showed the highest total sugar content (136.1 mg/g) followed by C. chinense (126.7 mg/g), C. annuum (100.4 mg/g), and C. frutescens (64.2 mg/g) (Fig. 2). Studies report that as Capsicum fruit matured, sucrose levels decreased to undetectable levels (Navarro et al., 2006). The current study determined the metabolic profiles of 60 genotypes, and examined only fully ripe fruit. Therefore, a low concentration of sucrose was expected. Sucrose represented between 1 and 7% of total sugar content with the exception of C. chinense P116, with 18%. A previous study showed that sucrose content in C. chinense fruit averaged 0.18 mg/g fresh weight (FW) and ranged from below detection limits to 1.50 mg/g FW, and that glucose or fructose concentrations were always greater than sucrose, as was observed in the present study (Jarret et al., 2009). Derivatisation reactions



Figure 2. Graphic representation of metabolite content (in mg/g dry weight) of 60 pepper (*Capsicum* spp.) accession Embrapa Clima Temperado active germplasm collection, Pelotas, RS, Brazil. Results are mean ± standard error. (a) Total amino acid, (b) total sugars, and (c) total organic acids. LSD, least significant difference.

such as silylation provide thermal stability to compounds by the addition of a trimethylsilyl radical to hydroxyl, amine, and thiol groups. Derivatisation by oximation is one way to avoid the formation of isomers of sugars and consequent formation of more than one peak for each compound. Typically, up to four sugar isomers are formed in aqueous solution (Halket and Zaikin, 2003). Although an oximation derivatisation step was used in this study, sugar isomers were formed.

The mean total organic acid content for the species studied here was 10.8 mg/g in both *C. frutescens* and *C. annuum*, 10.5 mg/g in *C. chinense*, and 10.0 mg/g in *C. baccatum*. Analysis of peppers from the same Embrapa Clima Temperado AGC showed total acidity to be on average 20.7 mg/g dry weight (DW) in *C. annuum*, 16.4 mg/g DW in *C. baccatum*, 13.6 mg/g DW in *C. chinense*, and 30 mg/g DW in *C. frutescens* determined by titration and expressed as citric acid equivalents (Acunha *et al.*, 2017).

Citric acid was the predominant organic acid in *C. chinense* and *C. annuum*. In *C. chinense* its concentration varied from 3.65 to 8.31 mg/g and represented on average 56% of the total organic acid content, while in *C. annuum* citric acid content varied from

4.38 to 11.32 mg/g representing on average 66% of total organic acids. P82, the only C. frutescens accession tested, had 8.3 mg/g of succinic acid (butanedioic acid), which represented 77% of its total organic acid content. Capsicum baccatum accessions P27 (2.41 mg/g), P71 (2.85 mg/g), P108 (1.93 mg/g), and P197 (1.59 mg/g) also had succinic acid as the predominant organic acid. The remaining C. baccatum accessions had citric acid as the primary organic acid, with a maximum content of 10.18 mg/g (P280) [Fig. 2(c)]. Jarret et al. (2009) reported that among organic acids, C. chinense had higher concentrations of citric acid (2.44 mg/g FW), followed by malic (0.69 mg/g FW), fumaric (0.49 mg/g FW), and succinic acids (0.24 mg/g FW) at lower concentrations. In our study, citric acid was highlighted in accessions of C. chinense and C. annuum; however, the C. frutescens accession and some accessions of C. baccatum presented succinic acid as a major organic acid.

Photosynthesis is the most vital activity of a plant and leads to the formation of sugars and carbon backbones. In plants, these general metabolites act as structural components, intermediates, or storage compounds. Specialised metabolites, however, play a



Figure 3. Graphic representation of metabolite content (in mg/g dry weight) of 60 pepper (*Capsicum* spp.) accession Embrapa Clima Temperado active germplasm collection, Pelotas, RS, Brazil. Results are mean ± standard error. (a) Hydrocarbons, (b) esters, and (c) capsaicinoids. LSD, least significant difference.

role in ecological interactions of specific groups of organisms contributing to their fitness under adverse environmental conditions. In the accessions tested, hydrocarbon content varied from 0.2 to 14.6 mg/g. *Capsicum baccatum* accessions P49, P108, P169, P270, and P274 and *C. annuum* accession P290 had more than 6 mg/g [Fig. 3(a)]. Total ester content in fraction B of the 60 accessions tested ranged from 0.4 to 32.8 mg/g, with a mean of 6.3 mg/g. Generally, the most abundant compound was 1,3-dihydroxypropan-2-yl hexadecanoate, which represented on average 30% of the total ester content. Its content varied from 0.32 mg/g (P134) to 6.57 mg/g (P116) (Fig. 3).

Capsaicin was the predominant capsaicinoid in most pepper accessions tested, and represented on average 59% of the total capsaicinoid content. Together capsaicin and dihydrocapsaicin represented 89% of the total capsaicinoid content of the studied accessions. Capsaicin content (when present above quantitation limits) varied from 0.17 mg/g in accession P116 (*C. chinense*) to 140.40 mg/g in accession P236 (*C. chinense*). Dihydrocapsaicin content (when present above quantitation limits) varied from 0.06 mg/g in accession P116 to 31.80 mg/g in accession P236

[Fig. 3(c)]. Among the four species tested, the greatest mean total capsaicinoid content was observed in *C. chinense* (66.1 mg/g), followed by *C. annuum* (31.9 mg/g), and *C. baccatum* (13.6 mg/g). The only *C. frutescens* accession surveyed had 54.4 mg/g. *Capsicum baccatum* accessions P14, P108, and P97, *C. chinense* accessions P116, P242, and P272, and *C. annuum* accession P76 had less than 1 mg/g of total capsaicinoid content. For *C. baccatum* accessions P27 and P179, *C. chinense* accession P135, and *C. annuum* accession P46, capsaicinoids, if present, were below the detection limit.

Capsaicinoids are the compounds responsible for the pungency of *Capsicum* fruit and capsaicin is usually the predominant capsaicinoid. These alkaloids are synthesised from the gene encoding Pun1 enzyme controlling the biosynthetic pathway of capsaicin. This acyltransferase is responsible for transferring an acyl radical to vanillin forming a vanillin amide, which is then joined to a fatty acid (Mazourek *et al.*, 2009). Mutations and loss of function of *Pun1* result in the production of capsaicinoids at levels below perception or the complete absence of pungent capsaicinoids, which is the case in most sweet peppers (Wahyuni *et al.*, 2013; Mazourek et al., 2009). Extraction of capsaicinoids by Soxhlet followed by GC-MS analysis found 0.15 to 5.93 mg capsaicin/g and 0.10 to 1.33 mg dihydrocapsaicin/g in cultivars Cascabel (C. annuum) and Chilpaya (Capsicum sp.), respectively (Peña-Alvarez et al., 2009). Capsaicin has been shown to represent 50% of the total capsaicinoid content in cultivars Jalapeño and Serrano (C. annuum), and 83% in Golden and Chocolate Habanero peppers (C. chinense) (Giuffrida et al., 2013). The same cultivars possessed approximately 39% and 13% of dihydrocapsaicin, respectively. In this study, two C. baccatum genotypes had higher levels of dihydrocapsaicin than capsaicin. Accessions P270 and P284 had 2.6 and 1.13 mg/g DW more dihydrocapsaicin than capsaicin, respectively. Similar results were reported by Peña-Alvarez et al. (2009), who observed a higher dihydrocapsaicin content (0.82 mg/g) than capsaicin content (0.71 mg/g) in the variety Canica (Capsicum sp.). Zewdie and Bosland (2001) found variation in the predominance of individual capsaicinoids in different Capsicum genotypes. In C. pubescens, for example, dihydrocapsaicin was the predominant capsaicinoid (Zewdie and Bosland, 2001). More than 10 capsaicinoids have been identified in the Capsicum spp. (Mazourek et al., 2009). In this, study eight capsaicinoids were identified (Fig. 3, Table 2).

Scoville (1912) developed the first methodology for quantification of pungency levels in *Capsicum* using sensory

analysis. By this method, pungency is expressed in Scoville Heat Units (SHUs) and represents the number of times an extract is diluted until pungency is no longer perceived. The pungency levels expressed on the Scoville scale of the 60 Capsicum pepper accessions tested are presented in Table 3. SHUs were estimated based on capsaicin and dihydrocapsaicin contents according to Todd et al. (1977). Cultivar Naga King (C. chinense) has been reported to have highly pungent fruit, with more than one million SHUs (Ananthan et al., 2016). Studies evaluating the pungency of different cultivars of C. chinense observed that the variety Trinidad Moruga Scorpion presented fruit pungency levels higher than two million SHUs (Bosland et al., 2012). These results are in accordance with the findings of the present study that showed accessions of C. chinense that stood out for their high levels of pungency. For example, P236 (C. chinense) had 2772533.5 SHUs (Table 3).

This untargeted metabolomics analysis performed by GC–MS in polar fractions A and B demonstrated the variability among genotypes of *Capsicum* species. These results further expanded the Embrapa Clima Temperado AGC metabolite database not previously surveyed for amino acid, sugars, organic acids, hydrocarbons, and esters, and provided further evidence of the limited application of metabolic profiling for species differentiation in *Capsicum*.

Table 3. Pungency of 60 Capsicum accessions of the active germplasm collection of Embrapa Clima Temperado, Pelotas, Brazil							
Accession	Species	SHU ^a	Accession	Species	SHU ^a		
P14	C. baccatum	3656.4	P283	C. baccatum	380419.7		
P25	C. baccatum	107683.8	P284	C. baccatum	140879.1		
P27	C. baccatum	ND	P287	C. baccatum	445121.4		
P34	C. baccatum	30468.8	P294	C. baccatum	94760.1		
P49	C. baccatum	99651.1	P116	C. chinense	4454.5		
P50	C. baccatum	22247.4	P135	C. chinense	ND		
P59	C. baccatum	312916.9	P171	C. chinense	1528963.3		
P61	C. baccatum	281398.2	P191	C. chinense	1569433.0		
P71	C. baccatum	233642.6	P200	C. chinense	1427024.7		
P79	C. baccatum	112034.1	P228	C. chinense	257989.4		
P87	C. baccatum	184829.0	P236	C. chinense	2772533.5		
P89	C. baccatum	18178.9	P242	C. chinense	1497.8		
P92	C. baccatum	278783.7	P245	C. chinense	1512695.7		
P101	C. baccatum	121248.4	P246	C. chinense	1145864.2		
P102	C. baccatum	53906.0	P247	C. chinense	841602.5		
P103	C. baccatum	186764.1	P272	C. chinense	4062.2		
P108	C. baccatum	11170.5	P46	C. annuum	ND		
P117	C. baccatum	369022.3	P76	C. annuum	8818.3		
P120	C. baccatum	530937.1	P100	C. annuum	265563.0		
P169	C. baccatum	249347.2	P122	C. annuum	411088.1		
P179	C. baccatum	ND	P134	C. annuum	675927.7		
P197	C. baccatum	2409.2	P136	C. annuum	299327.4		
P213	C. baccatum	275067.2	P137	C. annuum	163006.8		
P219	C. baccatum	504567.7	P189	C. annuum	458080.9		
P239	C. baccatum	245245.2	P203	C. annuum	382423.1		
P241	C. baccatum	95094.5	P221	C. annuum	591443.6		
P270	C. baccatum	367186.5	P258	C. annuum	366316.4		
P274	C. baccatum	70916.1	P259	C. annuum	412225.3		
P278	C. baccatum	45985.2	P290	C. annuum	870679.6		
P280	C. baccatum	112505.6	P82	C. frutescens	755282.7		
^a Scoville Heat Ur	nit (SHU) (Scoville, 1912); N	ID, not detected.					

Acknowledgements

The authors would like to acknowledge Secretaria de Desenvolvimento Econômico, Ciência e Tecnologia do Governo do Estado do RS (Programa de Apoio aos Polos Tecnológicos), Conselho Nacional de Desenvolvimento Científico e Tecnológico (CNPq), and Coordenação de Aperfeiçoamento de Pessoal de Nível Superior (CAPES) for financial support for research.

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