1	NMR metabolomics and metabolic pathways analysis of
2	cassava genotypes at different harvesting times and cooking
3	characteristics
4	
5	Elenilson G. Alves Filho ^a , Lorena Mara A. Silva ^b ; Robson M. Martins ^c , Willyane J.D.J.
6	Oliveira ^c , Cristine V. Soares ^c , Luciana A. de Oliveira ^d , Edy S. de Brito ^b *
7	
8	^a Universidade Federal do Ceará, Departamento de Engenharia de Alimentos, Bloco
9	858, Campus do Pici, 60440-900, Fortaleza - CE, Brazil.
10	^b Embrapa Agroindústria Tropical, Rua Dra. Sara Mesquita, 2270, Pici, 60511-110,
11	Fortaleza - CE, Brazil.
12	^c Universidade Federal do Ceará, Departamento de Química, Bloco 940, Campus do
13	Pici, 60440-900, Fortaleza - CE, Brazil
14	^d Embrapa Mandioca e Fruticultura, 44380-000, Cruz das Almas, BA, Brazil.
15	
16	
17	
18	
19	
20	
21	
22	
23	
24	

- 25 * Corresponding author
- 26 E-mail: edy.brito@embrapa.br
- 27 Abstract

28 Cassava is an important staple food for low income countries. However, its 29 cooking characteristics are especially affected by genotype. In this study, two groups 30 of genotypes, namely hard to cook (HTC) and easy to cook (ETC), harvested at 31 different times (9 and 15 months) were evaluated by ¹H NMR and chemometrics. 32 Additionally, the lignin of these materials was studied by ¹H-¹³C HSQC. The 33 carbohydrates were the most important class of compounds to differentiate the cassava 34 genotypes. The correlation of NMR with cooking time and starch content showed that 35 the higher content of primary metabolites, mostly glucose, can be associated to longer 36 cooking times and reduction of starch corroborating the metabolic pathways analysis. 37 Furthermore, it was observed that the lignin from cell wall did not differentiate the 38 cooking performance of the genotypes.

39

40 *Keywords*: cassava; lignin; *Manihot esculenta* Crantz; multivariate analysis; NMR,
41 pathway analysis

44 Cassava (Manihot esculenta Crantz) is a starchy root that provides calories and 45 nutrition for more than half a billion people (Siebers, Catarino, & Agusti, 2017). It is 46 the world's sixth vital crop (Zainuddin, Fathoni, Sudarmonowati, Beeching, Gruissem, 47 & Vanderschuren, 2018) because it can be cultivated on marginal soils in several 48 conditions as severe drought and high temperatures (Bredeson, Lyons, Prochnik, Wu, 49 Ha, Edsinger-Gonzales, et al., 2016; Siebers, Catarino, & Agusti, 2017). The roots are 50 used as raw, after boiled or processed for human and animal nutrition and they are also 51 used as source for energy production (El-Sharkawy, 2003). The genetic diversity of 52 cassava (Bredeson, et al., 2016) represents a broad genomic base for crop breeding 53 programs, which focus on increasing resistance to pests and diseases, adaptation to 54 edaphoclimatic conditions, as well as on the reduction of constrains that limit the yields 55 and quality of cassava.

56 Cassava roots can be harvested anytime from 8 to 24 months after planting 57 (Bellotti & Arias, 2001), and they are an important source of starch, which accounts 58 from 20 to 40% of its weight (Lima, Rocha Viana, Sousa Sabino, Silva, Silva, & Sousa, 59 2017). In Africa, long-term harvested and bitter cassava are often used for processing, 60 whereas short-term harvested and sweet types are direct boil-and-eat (Ngeve, 2003). 61 During the cooking process, starch undergoes modifications as gelatinization, water 62 absorption, and volume increase of the granulates, resulting in a product with important 63 characteristics for consumer acceptability (Butarelo, Beleia, Fonseca, & Ito, 2004). 64 Efforts have been focused on breeding programs with the aims of conferring disease 65 tolerance and increasing yield of the root. However, the development of cultivars that 66 present important characteristics for consumers as cooking time is also relevant.

67 Emerging metabolomics evaluation by means of nuclear magnetic resonance 68 (NMR) spectroscopy allows obtaining comprehensive profiles of the primary 69 metabolism during plant physiological activities (Filho, Braga, Silva, Miranda, Silva, 70 Canuto, et al., 2018). NMR also enables partial characterization of several matrices as 71 lignin that is a hydrophobic, three-dimensional and highly branched natural biopolymer 72 of phenolic monomers (Inkrod, Raita, Champreda, & Laosiripojana, 2018). Therefore, 73 the aim of this work was to evaluate hard to cook (HTC) and easy to cook (ETC) 74 cassava genotypes by metabolomics-based discrimination through ¹H NMR (nuclear 75 magnetic resonance) and chemometrics in order to point metabolites associated to the 76 cooking time. In addition, we also evaluate the lignin portion of the root through ¹H-77 ¹³C HSQC (heteronuclear single quantum correlation) NMR to evaluate the influence 78 of the cell wall material in the cooking time.

79

80 2. Materials and methods

81

82 2.1. Sampling

83 The cassava (Manihot esculenta) genotypes HTC (2009 02-13, 2009 02-16, 84 2009 09-05 and 2009 12-20) and ETC (BRS Brasil, BRS Dourada, Eucalipto and 85 Saracura) were grown at Embrapa Mandioca e Fruticultura (Cruz das Almas-BA, 86 Brazil). The experiment was carried out with plants arranged in a completely 87 randomized 8×4 design, with four replications. It was used a spacing of $1.0 \text{ m} \times 0.7 \text{ m}$ 88 fertilized with P₂O₅. The experiment was conducted from May-2016 (planting) to 89 February-2017 and August-2017 (harvesting). After the harvesting, the material was 90 cleaned, peeled, chopped, grinded and freeze-dried. The dried samples were used for 91 the subsequent steps.

94 An amount of 30 mg of dried cassava was soaked in a mixture of 600 μ L of D₂O 95 and 1 mM of TMSP-d₄ (sodium-3-trimethylsilylpropionate-2,2,3,3-d₄). The solutions 96 were mixed for 2 min at room temperature and centrifuged at 804.6 g for 2 min. The 97 supernatants were transferred to 5 mm NMR tubes. The ¹H NMR spectra were acquired 98 in triplicate under quantitative parameters (Freitas, Alves Filho, Silva, Zocolo, de Brito, 99 & Gramosa, 2018). The PRESAT pulse sequence was applied for non-deuterated water 100 suppression, and the spectra were acquired under controlled temperature (299.1 K) with 101 24 scans using 48,000 of time domain points for a spectral window of 16.0 ppm. The 102 RF pulse was calibrated to 90° (7.75 µs pulse length at 58 dB of power), acquired with 103 acquisition time of 5.0 s and recycling delay of 25.0 s (determined by the inversion-104 recovery pulse sequence). The ¹H NMR spectra processing was performed by applying 105 exponential Lorentzian broadening of 0.3 Hz and zero filling to 16k points before the 106 Fourier transformation. The phase correction was performed manually, and the 107 automatic baseline correction was applied over the entire spectral range. The spectra 108 were referenced to chemical shift at δ 0.0 from TMSP-d₄ ((trimethylsilyl)propionic-109 $2,2,3,3-d_4$ acid sodium salt) simplet signal.

110 Two-dimensional (2D) NMR experiments were acquired using the standard 111 spectrometer library pulse sequences. The ¹H-¹H gradient correlation spectroscopy 112 (gCOSY) experiments were obtained with spectral width of 9,615.4 Hz in both 113 dimensions; 1442×200 data matrix; 16 scans per t1 increment and relaxation delay of 114 1.0 s. The ¹H-¹³C gHSQC experiments were acquired with an evolution delay of 3.425 115 ms (transfer delay) for a coupling constant one-bond proton-carbon [¹J(C,H)] of 146 116 Hz; 1442×200 data matrix; 48 scans per t1 increment; spectral widths of 9,615.4 Hz in f2 and 30,154.5 Hz in f1, and relaxation delay of 1.0 s. The ¹H-¹³C gHMBC (gradient heteronuclear multiple bond correlation) experiments were recorded with an evolution delay of 62.5 ms for coupling constant ^{LR}J(C,H) of 8 Hz; 1442 × 200 data matrix; 96 scans per t1 increment; spectral widths of 9,615.4 Hz in f2 and 36,182.7 Hz in f1, and relaxation delay of 1.0 s.

122

123 2.3. Multivariate analysis of the ¹H NMR dataset

A total data of 135 ¹H NMR spectra (chemical shifts between δ 0.7 and 9.2) 124 125 from biological triplicate of 8 different cassava genotypes under two different harvest 126 times (9 and 15 months) were converted to American Standard Code for Information Interchange (ASCII) files and imported by OriginTM 9.4 program for numerical matrix 127 128 construction. The resultant matrix was imported by the PLS-Toolbox package (version 8.6.2 - Eigenvector Research Inc., Manson, WA USA) under the Matlab™ 129 130 programming language (R2019a; The MathWorks Inc., Natick, MA) to perform the 131 unsupervised chemometric method by Principal Component Analysis (PCA), as well 132 as supervised analysis by Partial Least Squares (PLS) and Partial Least Squares 133 Discriminant Analysis (PLS-DA) under confidence level of 95%. Initially, a general 134 evaluation was developed using the total number of spectra, which resulted in a numerical matrix with dimensionality of 1,127,598 data points: 138 cassava samples \times 135 136 8,171 variables from each spectrum. In order to detail the cassava discrimination 137 according to the species, additional PCA were developed considering each harvest time 138 separately, which resulted in two numerical matrices with dimensionality of 563,799 139 data points: 69 cassava samples \times 8,171 variables.

Algorithms for baseline correction and normalization were applied over the
variables, as well as the variables alignment using COW (Correlation Optimized

142 Warping) with segment of 50 data points and a slack of 5 data points (Sousa, Magalhães, & Ferreira, 2013). The samples data were mean-centered and the Singular 143 144 Value Decomposition (SVD) algorithm was applied to decompose the matrices. For 145 PLS and PLS-DA, the Simplified PLS (SIMPLS) algorithm was applied to modeling 146 classification analysis. The number of Latent Variables (LV) was chosen based on the 147 following statistical parameters: RMSEC (Root Mean Squared Error of Calibration); 148 RMSECV (Root Mean Squared Error of Cross Validation); and similarity index 149 (RMSEC / RMSECV) higher than 0.75 (Ballabio & Consonni, 2013; Freitas, Alves 150 Filho, Silva, Zocolo, de Brito, & Gramosa, 2018).

151

152 2.4. Metabolic pathway analysis

153 In order to evaluate the metabolic pathways associated to different harvesting 154 times (9 and 15 months) and the cooking characteristics (hard and easy to cook) of the aforementioned cassava species, the pair wise comparison was performed to both 155 156 characteristics by classification model using orthogonal partial least squares discriminant analysis (OPLS-DA) algorithm in the PLS Toolbox[™] program. the 157 158 loadings and coefficient plots were analyzed and the variables important for projection 159 (VIP) with value higher than 1 were quantified and used as input for metabolic pathway 160 analysis using MetaboAnalyst 4.0 (http://www. metaboanalyst.ca) (Chen, Wu, Li, Liu, 161 Zhao, & Yang, 2019; Liu, Wu, Lim, Aggarwal, Yang, & Wang, 2017; Liu, Wu, Lim, 162 Lai, Lee, & Yang, 2018; Xia, Psychogios, Young, & Wishart, 2009).

163

164 2.5. Determination of starch (fresh and dry weight), cooking time, and °Brix value

165 The starch analysis was performed according to the methodology described by 166 Holm et al (1986) in the dry samples. The starches were hydrolyzed by the action of the enzymes α-amylose and amyloglucosidase; and the glucose content quantifiedspectrophotometrically.

169 The cooking time was determined using the modified Mattson apparatus. The 170 apparatus consisted of a support formed by two parallel plates with 12 holes, and each 171 supporting 12 cylindrical aluminum connecting rods of 90 g contained in the needle tip. 172 Ten plants per plot were harvested and 10 roots were selected, washed, cut into pieces 173 of 6 cm (cylinders) and peeled. The cylinders were washed, drained and 12 cylinders were weighed and thermally treated in boiling, distilled water (1 kg L⁻¹). The cooking 174 175 time was recorded after 2 cm penetration of needle tips in the 10 cylinders. Softening 176 time was evaluated in two replicates.

For °Brix value 100 mg of the dried sample were mixed with 0.9 mL of water,
stirred in ultrasound bath for 2 min and centrifuged for 2 min. The sample supernatant
was collected, and a drop was placed onto a digital refractometer (Atago, model Pocket
PAL-3, Tokyo, Japan) for measurement at 25 °C.

181

182 2.6. Lignin extraction

183 The lignin extraction was performed by pressurized liquid extraction (Dionex 184 ASE 350, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Massachusetts, EUA). The biological replicates 185 were unified to give rise to one representative genotype sample. Therefore, the lignin 186 was extracted twice for ETC (BRS Brasil, Saracura, BRS Dourada, Eucalipto) and HTC 187 (2009 02-13, 2009 02-16, 2009 09-05 and 2009 12-20) genotypes. Dried cassava (5.7 188 g) was mixed with 1.7 g diatomaceous earth and placed in stainless steel extraction cells 189 of 34 mL. The extractions were performed with 60% ethanol/water (v/v), acidified with 190 30 mM H₂SO₄, at 190 °C for 75 min. All the extractions were performed in triplicate. 191 The resultant dissolved lignin extract (organosolv liquor) was evaporated and

192 precipitated upon dilution with water (10:1 w/w dilution ratio H₂O: organosolv liquor, 193 at 27 °C for 48 h). The lignin was recovered by vacuum filtration using qualitative filter 194 paper of 80G. The paper with the lignin were dried at 60 °C and weighted to obtain the 195 lignin yield. Lignin (50 mg) was mixed with 600 µL of DMSO-d₆, inserted in 5 mm 196 NMR tubes, and dipped into an ultrasonic bath for 24 h. The ¹H-¹³C HSQC were acquired with spectral widths of 30165.9 Hz and 9615.4 for ¹³C and ¹H dimensions, 197 198 respectively. In addition, it was recorded as 962 complex points with a recycle delay of 199 0.5 s for ¹H dimension. It was obtained 64 transients, with 256 complex points for ¹³C 200 dimension with one-bond ${}^{1}JX$ -H coupling constant of 146 Hz. The data were processed 201 by means of VNMRJTM, using standard parameters. The characteristic signals of the 202 lignin components were assigned in accordance with previously reported data (Bai, 203 Xiao, Shi, & Sun, 2013; Mansfield, Kim, Lu, & Ralph, 2012; Pinheiro, Soares, 204 Santaella, Silva, Canuto, Cáceres, et al., 2017). A relative quantitative method along with the integrated areas of the HSQC cross peaks from syringyl and guaiacyl was used 205 206 to determine the proportion of the aforementioned compounds.

207

208 3. Results and discussion

209

210 3.1. NMR characterization

The identification of the main organic compounds in different genotypes of cassava was performed. Figures 1Sa and 1Sb present the ¹H NMR spectra of the ETC cassava genotype (Dourada harvested after 9 months) and HTC genotype (2009_1220 harvested after 9 months), respectively. In addition, the Table 1S describes the structures, ¹H and ¹³C chemical shifts (δ), multiplicity, correlations and constant coupling (*J* in HZ) of the correspondent compounds identified. Therefore, cassava 217 comprises high levels of sugars, amino acids, and short chain organic acids, regardless218 the genotypes.

219

220 3.2. Metabolomic and metabolic pathway analysis of cassava harvesting time

221 In general, slights differences among the compounds from cassava with 222 different cooking characteristics were observed, which depended on the genotype. 223 Therefore, due to the number of identified compounds within the cassava genotypes, as 224 well as the inherent similarity among the samples composition, unsupervised 225 multivariate evaluation by PCA was applied to investigate the composition variability 226 according to the cassava genotypes under different harvesting time. Figure 1 presents 227 the PCA results, with the cassava genotypes harvested after 9 months of planting in red 228 and 15 months in blue. In addition, the HTC genotypes are illustrated with stars, and 229 the ETC in circles.

- 230
- 231

Figure 1

232

The PC1 was the main responsible for the cassava separation mainly according to the harvest time, with cassava harvested after 9 months of planting at positive scores, and those harvested after 15 months of planting at negative scores. It is also observed that the genotypes harvested after 15 months presented higher chemical variation, since those samples were more disperse at the PC2 axis. The loadings graph showed the root harvested after 15 months with higher content of glucose, arginine, succinic acid, while roots harvested after 9 months of planting manly presented higher content of sucrose.

In order to observe the chemical variation among the HTC and ETC samples, it was performed distinct PCA for genotypes harvested after 9 and 15 months. Figures 2a and 2b presents the scores and loadings for genotypes harvested after 9 months respectively; and Figures 2c and 2d those harvested after 15 months. The HTC genotypes are illustrated in red and the ETC in blue.

- 248
- 249

Figure 2

250

251 For genotypes harvested after 9 months (Fig. 2a and 2b), the PC2 was the main 252 axis for cassava genotypes chemical distinction according to the cooking performance. 253 For genotypes harvested after 15 months (Fig. 2c and 2d) the PC1 was the relevant axis. 254 In general, the loadings graph (Fig. 2b and 2d) for both harvesting periods shows that 255 ETC cassava genotypes presented higher amounts of sucrose than the HTC genotypes. 256 On the other hand, the HTC genotypes presented higher amounts of glucose. In 257 addition, for ETC roots harvested after 9 months, it was observed a higher content of 258 amino acids arginine, glutamine, threonine, tryptophan and tyrosine. For roots 259 harvested after 15 months, the discrepancy in amino acids content was reduced; and 260 tryptophan and tyrosine also increased in ETC samples.

For a comprehensive analysis of cassava harvested with different cooking characteristics, the data from supervised OPLS-DA (Izquierdo-García, Villa, Kyriazis, del Puerto-Nevado, Pérez-Rial, Rodriguez, et al., 2011) was used as input for metabolic pathway analysis using MetaboAnalyst (Chen, Wu, Li, Liu, Zhao, & Yang, 2019; Liu, Wu, Lim, Aggarwal, Yang, & Wang, 2017; Liu, Wu, Lim, Lai, Lee, & Yang, 2018; 266 Xia, Psychogios, Young, & Wishart, 2009). Figure 3a shows the pathways associated with the cooking characteristics for cassava harvested at 9 months, and Figure 3b shows 267 268 the pathway at 15 months. The metabolites colored from deep red to yellow indicate an 269 increased concentration of metabolites and the size indicates the impact on pathway (-270 log(p)). The most significant metabolic pathways with a false discovery rate (FDR) lower than 6.9×10^{-8} and 2.33×10^{-4} , for 9 and 15 months respectively, and with 271 272 metabolites with impact at the route higher then 0.03 were considered for both 273 harvesting periods.

- 274
- 275

Figure 3

276

277 The different pathways associated to cooking characteristics of the roots were 278 similar regardless harvesting time. The lower content of succinic acid in ETC roots 279 might induce the down regulation of citrate cycle (TCA cycle) (1) and sulfur 280 metabolism (2). The TCA cycle provides carbon skeleton for biosynthesis of several 281 compounds (Vega-Mas, Cukier, Coleto, González-Murua, Limami, González-Moro, et 282 al., 2019) and the sulfur metabolism is essential for plant growth, development, and 283 response to environmental changes. Therefore, the suppression of both pathways might 284 affect aerial plant growth (van der Merwe, Osorio, Araújo, Balbo, Nunes-Nesi, 285 Maximova, et al., 2010). The lower content of α and β -glucose in ETC roots also might 286 induce the down regulation of galactose metabolism (3). This metabolism is linked to 287 the synthesis of raffinose family oligosaccharides (RFOs) (Zhang, Song, & Bartels, 288 2016). The RFOs protect plant cells from oxidative damage caused by various types of 289 stress conditions (Nishizawa, Yabuta, & Shigeoka, 2008; Peshev, Vergauwen, Moglia, 290 Hideg, & Van den Ende, 2013) and as carbon transport and storage (Turgeon & Wolf,

2009). which also might affect plant development. Finally, it is observed the upper
regulation of sucrose in ETC roots. Sucrose metabolism is linked to starch and sucrose
metabolism (4) changing properties of starch in grains (Chang, Liu, Lin, Li, Wang,
Chien, et al., 2017) and the upper regulation might induce the accumulation of starch
in the root.

296 The free sugars were the more important components to differentiate the 297 genotypes and their cooking performance. Therefore, in order to observe the correlation 298 of the carbohydrates (observed at NMR spectrum as main components, Fig. 1SI) with 299 the cooking performance and starch content, it was employed a PLS regression 300 modeling using cooking time and percentage of starch (fresh and dry weight). The regression modeling was developed for genotypes from the different harvesting periods 301 302 (9 and 15 months) separately, in order to maximize the covariance between the 303 independent variables (¹H NMR dataset i.e. X matrix) and the dependent variables -304 cooking time and percentage of starch.

305 Table 1 describes the respective statistical parameters of the regressions. In 306 general, the models possess high correlation coefficients of calibration (above 0.9) and 307 validation (above 0.8); very low bias values from the modeling; relative low calibration 308 and validation errors; and relative high similarity criterion (proximity) between the 309 calibration and validation modeling (Ballabio & Consonni, 2013; Freitas, Alves Filho, 310 Silva, Zocolo, de Brito, & Gramosa, 2018). Despite the satisfactory figures of merit, 311 the cooking parameter could be better since the cooking procedure was interrupted at 312 50 min (standard time for cooking essay) and consequently the genotypes with longer 313 cooking times might have this parameter under estimated.

314

Table 1

315 In general, statistical parameters presented elevate the correlation between the 316 cooking time variations for cassava genotypes at different harvesting time (9 and 15 317 months). The compositional variability of the entire ¹H NMR spectra showed a close 318 correlation among the composition and cooking characteristics of the root. Since starch 319 and sucrose metabolism pathways was trigged, the study of the correlation of NMR and 320 the starch accumulation at the roots is important. The model shows that there is a 321 correlation between NMR spectrum and starch content at the root. For both variables 322 (percentage of starch at fresh and dry weight) the model for 9 months was better 323 adjusted. The PCA shows that cassava harvested after 15 months presents higher 324 content α and β -glucose while roots harvested at 9 months mainly presents higher 325 content of sucrose. The free sugars accumulation in cassava were previously correlated 326 with disruption in starch synthesis pathway by enzyme activity (Carvalho, Souza, Cascardo, Junior, & Campos, 2004). On this behalf, glucose was found to be the major 327 328 free sugar in cassava with low starch content and reduced levels of amylose as well 329 (Carvalho, Souza, Cascardo, Junior, & Campos, 2004).

330 In starch biosynthesis, the enzyme granule-bound starch synthase I (GBSSI) 331 (Denyer, Johnson, Zeeman, & Smith, 2001) polymerizes amylose from the donor 332 substrate ADP-glucose. The inhibition of this enzyme produce amylose-free starches 333 (Raemakers, Schreuder, Suurs, Furrer-Verhorst, Vincken, de Vetten, et al., 2005) which 334 melts at higher temperature and leads to weaker gels (Raemakers, et al., 2005). 335 Therefore, the lower content of α and β -glucose along with higher content of sucrose in 336 ETC roots might be correlated to higher content of starch in this roots that possess better 337 cooking characteristics. In addition, these data shows that the roots harvested at 9 338 months might possess higher content of starch and better cooking characteristics.

340 *3.4. Lignin characterization of different genotypes of cassava*

In order to evaluate the influence of the cell wall material on the cooking time,
lignin of genotypes with different cooking characteristics was analyzed. The Figure 4a
shows the representative spectrum from BRS Dourada (ETC) lignin and the Figure 4b
shows the hybrid 2009 12-20 (HTC) lignin.

345

Figure 4

346 It was observed the presence of the main compounds of lignin as syringyl and 347 guaiacyl. It was also noticed the oxidized syringyl, p-coumarate, cinnamic aldehyde, 348 and the polysaccharides residues as aryl ether linkage as α -O-4, β -O-4, and the 349 anomeric signal, highlighted with the square in the Figure 4a and 4b. The ratio of syringyl/guaiacyl was also evaluated for the genotypes with different cooking 350 351 characteristics. The information about the ratio of syringyl and guaiacyl is an important 352 parameter for matrix understanding. Lignin with higher amount of syringyl is more 353 easily removed during the delignification process (Gutiérrez, Rodríguez, & del Río, 354 2006) since the less-reactivity of the C5 aromatic carbon from syringyl implies in a less 355 condensed structure which increase the lignin solubility (Sette, Wechselberger, & 356 Crestini, 2011). Therefore, our hypothesis is that the high content of guaiacyl might 357 impose a greater constrain in the matrix inducing a stiffening of the system. The Table 2 displays the S/G ratio of the lignin obtained from the different genotypes. 358

359

Table 2

The Table 2 shows that the S/G ratio did not changed with respect to the cooking characteristics or genotype of cassava. Therefore, the cooking performance of the root might be more associated to the disruption in the starch synthesis pathway than to the cell wall adhesive characteristics (lignin).

366 The choice of harvesting time and genotypes plays important role on cooking 367 performance and, consequently, final destination of cassava roots. The root harvested 368 at 15 months presents higher content of glucose, arginine, succinic acid, while roots 369 harvested at 9 months of planting mainly presents higher content of sucrose. In general, 370 regardless the harvesting time, the ETC cassava genotypes presented higher amounts 371 of sucrose and lower amount of glucose than HTC. Those metabolites were associated 372 to important pathways as galactose, sucrose and starch metabolism. Roots with higher 373 content of glucose presents reduced content of starch and higher cooking time. Starch 374 is a gelatinization agent and its low content can be associated to longer cooking times 375 as corroborated with the trigged pathways and the multivariate regression of NMR data, 376 and percentage of starch. Therefore, clones harvested after 9 months and the ones 377 pointed as ETC (Saracura, Dourada, Eucalipto and Brasil) might possess better cooking 378 characteristics. In addition, the syringyl/guaiacyl ratio in lignin did not correlate to the 379 cooking performance of the genotypes. This works contributes to the understanding of 380 the biosynthetic mechanism that lead to the different cooking characteristics of cassava.

381

382 CRediT authorship contribution statement

Elenilson G. Alves Filho: Methodology, Formal analysis, Visualization, Investigation,
Writing - original draft. Lorena M. A. Silva: Conceptualization, Methodology, Formal
analysis, Visualization, Investigation, Supervision, Writing - original draft, Writing –
review & editing. Robson M. Martins: Formal analysis, Writing - original draft.
Willyane J.D.J. Oliveira: Formal analysis, Writing - original draft. Cristine V.
Soares: Formal analysis Writing - original draft. Luciana A. de Oliveira: Project
administration, Conceptualization, Investigation, Funding acquisition Writing -

390	original draft. Edy S. de Brito: Project administration, Conceptualization,
391	Investigation, Writing – review & editing.
392	
393	Declaration of Competing Interest
394	The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal
395	relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.
396	Acknowledgements
397	This work is financially supported by Embrapa (03.15.01.002.00.00). The
398	author EAF thank CNPq and FUNCAP for a scholarship (314737/2018-9).
399	
400	References
401	
402	Bai, YY., Xiao, LP., Shi, ZJ., & Sun, RC. (2013). Structural variation of
403	bamboo lignin before and after ethanol organosolv pretreatment. International
404	journal of molecular sciences, 14(11), 21394-21413.
405	https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms141121394.
406	Ballabio, D., & Consonni, V. (2013). Classification tools in chemistry. Part 1: linear
407	models. PLS-DA. Analytical Methods, 5(16), 3790-3798.
408	https://doi.org/10.1039/C3AY40582F.
409	Bellotti, A. C., & Arias, B. (2001). Host plant resistance to whiteflies with emphasis
410	on cassava as a case study. Crop Protection, 20(9), 813-823.
411	https://doi.org/10.1016/S0261-2194(01)00113-2.
412	Bredeson, J. V., Lyons, J. B., Prochnik, S. E., Wu, G. A., Ha, C. M., Edsinger-
413	Gonzales, E., Grimwood, J., Schmutz, J., Rabbi, I. Y., Egesi, C., Nauluvula,
414	P., Lebot, V., Ndunguru, J., Mkamilo, G., Bart, R. S., Setter, T. L., Gleadow,

415	R. M., Kulakow, P., Ferguson, M. E., Rounsley, S., & Rokhsar, D. S. (2016).
416	Sequencing wild and cultivated cassava and related species reveals extensive
417	interspecific hybridization and genetic diversity. Nature Biotechnology, 34,
418	562. https://doi.org/10.1038/nbt.3535.
419	Butarelo, S. S., Beleia, A., Fonseca, I. C. d. B., & Ito, K. C. (2004). Hydration of
420	cassava tissues and starch gelatinization during the cooking process. Food
421	Science and Technology, 24, 311-315. https://doi.org/10.1590/S0101-
422	20612004000300001.
423	Carvalho, L. J. C. B., Souza, C. R. B., Cascardo, J. C. M., Junior, C. B., & Campos,
424	L. (2004). Identification and characterization of a novel cassava (Manihot
425	esculenta Crantz) clone with high free sugar content and novel starch. Plant
426	Molecular Biology, 56(4), 643-659. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11103-004-4873-
427	9.
428	Chang, T. S., Liu, C. W., Lin, Y. L., Li, C. Y., Wang, A. Z., Chien, M. W., Wang, C.
429	S., & Lai, C. C. (2017). Mapping and comparative proteomic analysis of the
430	starch biosynthetic pathway in rice by 2D PAGE/MS. Plant Molecular
431	Biology, 95(4-5), 333-343. 10.1007/s11103-017-0652-2.
432	Chen, L., Wu, J. E., Li, Z., Liu, Q., Zhao, X., & Yang, H. (2019). Metabolomic
433	analysis of energy regulated germination and sprouting of organic mung bean
434	(Vigna radiata) using NMR spectroscopy. Food Chemistry, 286, 87-97.
435	https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2019.01.183.
436	Denyer, K. A. Y., Johnson, P., Zeeman, S., & Smith, A. M. (2001). The control of
437	amylose synthesis. Journal of Plant Physiology, 158(4), 479-487.
438	https://doi.org/10.1078/0176-1617-00360.

- El-Sharkawy, M. A. (2003). Cassava biology and physiology. *Plant Molecular Biology*, *53*(5), 621-641.
- 441 https://doi.org/10.1023/B:PLAN.0000019109.01740.c6.
- 442 Filho, E. G. A., Braga, L. N., Silva, L. M. A., Miranda, F. R., Silva, E. O., Canuto, K.
- M., Miranda, M. R., de Brito, E. S., & Zocolo, G. J. (2018). Physiological
 changes for drought resistance in different species of Phyllanthus. *Scientific Reports*, 8(1), 15141. 10.1038/s41598-018-33496-7.
- 446 Freitas, J. V. B., Alves Filho, E. G., Silva, L. M. A., Zocolo, G. J., de Brito, E. S., &
- Gramosa, N. V. (2018). Chemometric analysis of NMR and GC datasets for
 chemotype characterization of essential oils from different species of
- 449 Ocimum. *Talanta*, 180, 329-336. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.talanta.2017.12.053.
- 450 Gutiérrez, A., Rodríguez, I. M., & del Río, J. C. (2006). Chemical characterization of
- 451 lignin and lipid fractions in industrial hemp bast fibers used for manufacturing
- 452 high-quality paper pulps. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*, 54(6),
- 453 2138-2144. https://doi.org/10.1021/jf052935a.
- 454 Holm, J., Björck, I., Drews, A. and Asp, N.-G. (1986), A Rapid method for the
- 455 analysis of starch. Starch/Stärke, 38: 224-226. doi:<u>10.1002/star.19860380704</u>
- 456 Inkrod, C., Raita, M., Champreda, V., & Laosiripojana, N. (2018). Characteristics of
- 457 lignin extracted from different lignocellulosic materials via organosolv
- 458 fractionation. *BioEnergy Research*, 11(2), 277-290.
- 459 https://doi.org/10.1007/s12155-018-9895-2.
- 460 Izquierdo-García, J. L., Villa, P., Kyriazis, A., del Puerto-Nevado, L., Pérez-Rial, S.,
- 461 Rodriguez, I., Hernandez, N., & Ruiz-Cabello, J. (2011). Descriptive review
- 462 of current NMR-based metabolomic data analysis packages. *Progress in*

- 463 *Nuclear Magnetic Resonance Spectroscopy*, *59*(3), 263-270.
- 464 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pnmrs.2011.02.001.
- 465 Lima, A. C. S., Rocha Viana, J. D., Sousa Sabino, L. B., Silva, L. M. R., Silva, N. K.
- 466 V., & Sousa, P. H. M. (2017). Processing of three different cooking methods
- 467 of cassava: Effects on in vitro bioaccessibility of phenolic compounds and
- 468 antioxidant activity. *LWT Food Science and Technology*, 76, 253-258.
- 469 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lwt.2016.07.023.
- 470 Liu, Q., Wu, J. E., Lim, Z. Y., Aggarwal, A., Yang, H., & Wang, S. (2017).
- 471 Evaluation of the metabolic response of *Escherichia coli* to electrolysed water
- 472 by 1H NMR spectroscopy. *LWT Food Science and Technology*, *79*, 428-436.
- 473 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lwt.2017.01.066.
- 474 Liu, Q., Wu, J. E., Lim, Z. Y., Lai, S., Lee, N., & Yang, H. (2018). Metabolite
- 475 profiling of *Listeria innocua* for unravelling the inactivation mechanism of
- 476 electrolysed water by nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy. *International*
- 477 *Journal of Food Microbiology*, 271, 24-32.
- 478 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijfoodmicro.2018.02.014.
- 479 Mansfield, S. D., Kim, H., Lu, F., & Ralph, J. (2012). Whole plant cell wall
- 480 characterization using solution-state 2D NMR. *Nature Protocols*, 7, 1579.
- 481 10.1038/nprot.2012.064.
- 482 Ngeve, J. M. (2003). Cassava root yields and culinary qualities as affected by harvest
 483 age and test environment. *Journal of the Science of Food and Agriculture,*
- 484 83(4), 249-257. https://doi.org/10.1002/jsfa.1307.
- 485 Nishizawa, A., Yabuta, Y., & Shigeoka, S. (2008). Galactinol and raffinose constitute
- 486 a novel function to protect plants from oxidative damage. *Plant Physiology*,
- 487 *147*(3), 1251-1263. 10.1104/pp.108.122465.

488	Peshev, D., Vergauwen, R., Moglia, A., Hideg, E., & Van den Ende, W. (2013).
489	Towards understanding vacuolar antioxidant mechanisms: a role for fructans?
490	Journal of Experimental Botany, 64(4), 1025-1038. 10.1093/jxb/ers377.
491	Pinheiro, F. G. C., Soares, A. K. L., Santaella, S. T., Silva, L. M. A. e., Canuto, K.
492	M., Cáceres, C. A., Rosa, M. d. F., Feitosa, J. P. d. A., & Leitão, R. C. (2017).
493	Optimization of the acetosolv extraction of lignin from sugarcane bagasse for
494	phenolic resin production. Industrial Crops and Products, 96, 80-90.
495	https://doi.org/10.1016/j.indcrop.2016.11.029.
496	Raemakers, K., Schreuder, M., Suurs, L., Furrer-Verhorst, H., Vincken, JP., de
497	Vetten, N., Jacobsen, E., & Visser, R. G. F. (2005). Improved Cassava Starch
498	by Antisense Inhibition of Granule-bound Starch Synthase I. Molecular
499	Breeding, 16(2), 163-172. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11032-005-7874-8.
500	Sette, M., Wechselberger, R., & Crestini, C. (2011). Elucidation of Lignin Structure
501	by Quantitative 2D NMR. Chemistry – A European Journal, 17(34), 9529-
502	9535. https://doi.org/10.1002/chem.201003045.
503	Siebers, T., Catarino, B., & Agusti, J. (2017). Identification and expression analyses
504	of new potential regulators of xylem development and cambium activity in
505	cassava (Manihot esculenta). Planta, 245(3), 539-548. 10.1007/s00425-016-
506	2623-2.
507	Sousa, S., Magalhães, A., & Ferreira, M. M. C. (2013). Optimized bucketing for
508	NMR spectra: Three case studies. Chemometrics and Intelligent Laboratory
509	Systems, 122, 93-102. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemolab.2013.01.006.
510	Turgeon, R., & Wolf, S. (2009). Phloem Transport: Cellular pathways and molecular
511	trafficking. Annual Review of Plant Biology, 60(1), 207-221.
512	10.1146/annurev.arplant.043008.092045.

513	van der Merwe, M. J., Osorio, S., Araújo, W. L., Balbo, I., Nunes-Nesi, A.,
514	Maximova, E., Carrari, F., Bunik, V. I., Persson, S., & Fernie, A. R. (2010).
515	Tricarboxylic acid cycle activity regulates tomato root growth via effects on
516	secondary cell wall production. Plant Physiology, 153(2), 611-621.
517	10.1104/pp.109.149047.
518	Vega-Mas, I., Cukier, C., Coleto, I., González-Murua, C., Limami, A. M., González-
519	Moro, M. B., & Marino, D. (2019). Isotopic labelling reveals the efficient
520	adaptation of wheat root TCA cycle flux modes to match carbon demand
521	under ammonium nutrition. Scientific Reports, 9(1), 8925. 10.1038/s41598-
522	019-45393-8.
523	Xia, J., Psychogios, N., Young, N., & Wishart, D. S. (2009). MetaboAnalyst: a web
524	server for metabolomic data analysis and interpretation. Nucleic Acids
525	Research, 37(Web Server issue), W652-W660.
526	https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gkp356.
527	Zainuddin, I. M., Fathoni, A., Sudarmonowati, E., Beeching, J. R., Gruissem, W., &
528	Vanderschuren, H. (2018). Cassava post-harvest physiological deterioration:
529	From triggers to symptoms. Postharvest Biology and Technology, 142, 115-
530	123. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.postharvbio.2017.09.004.
531	Zhang, Q., Song, X., Bartels, D. (2016). Enzymes and metabolites in carbohydrate
532	metabolism of desiccation tolerant plants. Proteomes. 4, 40. doi:
533	10.3390/proteomes4040040.
534	
535	
536	
537	



Figure 1 – PC1 × PC2 scores coordinate system (a) and respective loadings (b) of
different genotypes of cassava. Legend: cassava genotypes harvested after 9 months of
planting in red and 15 months of planting in blue; HTC genotypes are illustrated as stars
and the ETC as circles.





Figure 2 – Scores coordinate system (PC1 × PC2) from cassava genotypes harvested
after 9 months of planting (a) and after 15 months of planting (c). Relevant loadings
from cassava genotypes harvested after 9 months (b) and 15 months (d) plotted in lines
in the same intensity.



Figure 3 – Pathways associated with the metabolism response for HTC and ETC cassava over a) 9 months and b) 15 months of harvesting time. Legend: 1- Citrate cycle (TCA cycle); 2 - Sulfur metabolism; 3 - Galactose metabolism; 4 - Starch and sucrose metabolism.

571 Table 1 – Statistical parameters of the multivariate regression from PLS modeling of

572 the cooking time according to the cassava aging.

Cooking characteristics							
Model	5 LV ^a	Bias ^b	r^2	<i>RMSEC^d</i>	r^2	RMSECVf	RMSEC /
	(%)	Dias	cal ^c		val ^e		<i>RMSEV</i> ^g
9 months	88.35	-1.4×10^{-14}	0.91	3.31	0.86	4.00	0.83
15 months	74.17	-7.1×10^{-15}	0.91	3.42	0.88	4.10	0.83
Percentage of starch at fresh root							
Model	8 LV ^a	Bias ^b	r^2	RMSEC ^d	r^2	RMSECV	RMSEC /
	(%)		cal ^c		val ^e		<i>RMSEV</i> ^g
9 months	86.74	-3.5×10^{-15}	0.96	0.70	0.88	1.27	0.55
15 months	84.95	0	0.98	0.57	0.96	0.92	0.62
Starch at dried base							
Model	8 LV ^a	Bias ^b	r^2	<i>RMSEC^d</i>	r^2	RMSECV	RMSEC /
	(%)		cal ^c		val ^e		<i>RMSEV</i> ^g
9 months	87.33	-2.8×10^{-14}	0.96	1.17	0.88	2.06	0.57
15 months	82.80	-2.8×10^{-14}	0.98	1.20	0.94	1.92	0.62
^a The total variance percent in the X matrix refers to the first five I start Variable (I V):							

Cooking characteristic

^a The total variance percent in the X matrix refers to the first five Latent Variable (LV);

^b Influenced modeling;

⁶ Coefficient of correlation between the real times to cook and those predicted during
 the calibration;

^d Root Mean Square Error of Calibration;

⁶ Coefficient of correlation between the real times to cook and those predicted during
 the validation;

580 ^f Root Mean Square Error of the Cross Validation;

581 ^g Similarity criterion.

582





Figure 4 – ¹H-¹³C HSQC of the lignin from cassava extracted in a) genotype BRS Dourada (ETC); b) hybrid 2009 12-20 (HTC). Legend: S: syringyl; S': oxidized syringyl; G: guaiacyl; OMe: methoxyl groups; PC: p-coumarate; C: cinnamic aldehyde; A: aryl ether with A– α : α –O–4 and A– β : β –O–4; FA: fatty acids bounded to lignin; square region: polysaccharides bounded to lignin.

Genotype	S/G
Saracura	0,6255
BRS Dourada	0,8385
Eucalipto	0,8655
BRS Brasil	0,79321
2009 02-13	0,8395
2009 02-16	0,8513
2009 09-05	0,7965
2009 12-20	0,8320

598 Table 2 – Ratio of syringyl/guaiacil (S/G) from the different cassava genotypes.