

1 Article

2 Phytosterol Composition of *Arachis hypogaea* Seeds 3 from Different Maturity Classes

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14 **Abstract:** The seeds of cultivated peanut, *Arachis hypogaea*, are an agronomically important crop
15 produced for human nutrition, oilseed and feed stock. Peanut seed is the single most expensive
16 variable input cost and thus producers require seed with excellence performance in terms of
17 germination efficiency. During the maturation process, triglycerides are stored in oil bodies as an
18 energy resource during germination and seedling development. The stability of oil body
19 membranes is essential for nutrient mobilization during germination. This study focused on
20 evaluating the phytosterol composition in seed components including the kernel, embryo (heart),
21 and seed coat or skin. Samples of different maturity classes were analyzed for macronutrient and
22 phytosterol content. The three most abundant phytosterols, β -sitosterol, campesterol, and
23 stigmasterol, comprised 82.29%, 86.39%, and 94.25% of seed hearts, kernels, and seed coats,
24 respectively. Stigmasterol concentration was highest in the seed kernel providing an excellent
25 source of this sterol known to have beneficial effects on human health. Peanut hearts contained the
26 highest concentration of sterols by mass potentially providing protection and resources for the
27 developing seedling. The amount of α -tocopherol increases in peanut hearts during the maturation
28 process providing protection from temperature stress and stability required for seedling vigor.
29 These results suggest that phytosterols may play a significant role in the performance of seeds and
30 provides a possible explanation for the poor germination efficiency of immature seeds.

31 **Keywords:** phytosterols; mesocarp; oilseed; maturity; pod-blast; α -tocopherol; oil bodies;
32 campesterol; stigmasterol; β -sitosterol

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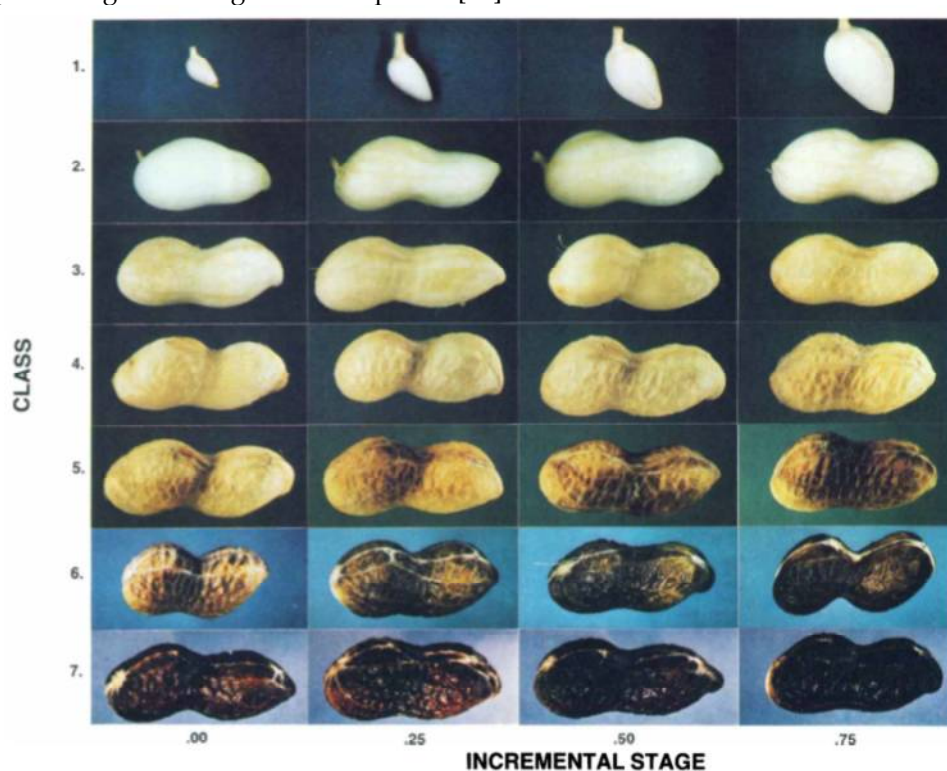
34 1. Introduction

35 The seeds of cultivated peanut, *Arachis hypogaea*, store proteins, lipids, and starch required for
36 energy and growth upon germination. The seed can be harvested to serve as human nutrition, stock
37 feed, and biofuels [1,2,3]. Peanuts and other legumes have the ability to fix nitrogen and thus
38 increase the sustainability of agricultural systems [4]. The pressure for peanut seed as plant-based
39 protein and oilseed source, is increasing with a growing world population. Due to its agronomic
40 importance, improvement of peanut seed performance is necessary to meet the demand.

41 Lipid (oil) is the predominate macro component and generally increases as the peanut seed
42 matures [5]. For mature peanuts, average total oil was reported to average about 50% on a fresh
43 weight basis [6]. Oilseeds, such as peanuts, store most of their lipids in small, intracellular organelles
44 commonly called oil bodies [7,8]. Triglycerides comprise the majority of these oil bodies, and the
45 interior triglycerides are encapsulated by a phospholipid bilayer and embedded oleosin protein. The
46 oil bodies provide a stable energy reserve that can be accessed upon germination [9].

47 Phytosterols are a special class of structural lipids that provide stability and fluidity in cell
48 membranes including specialized encapsulation of lipids, such as oil bodies [10]. The primary
49 function of phytosterols are membrane reinforcers and precursors for brassinosteroids, an important
50 phytohormone in plants. Unlike animal and fungi counterparts with cholesterol and ergosterol as
51 the dominant sterol, the plant usually synthesizes an array of sterols with different alkyl group
52 substitutions at the sterol side chain. In addition to the primary function, the correct sterol
53 composition is necessary for many aspects to plant biology such as embryonic pattern formation, cell
54 division, cell elongation, cell polarity, cellulose accumulation, and interactions with other signaling
55 pathways [11].

56 Physiological maturity impacts seed quality through a variety of mechanisms including
57 desiccation tolerance, preparation of storage reserves and establishment of dormancy [12]. Thus, the
58 impact of seed maturity on germination efficiency is of primary importance to peanut producers. To
59 best assess physiological maturation, a method of classification based on color and morphological
60 differences of the mesocarp was described for determining the developmental stages of fresh peanut
61 (Figure 1) [13]. Maturity determination by this method requires removal of a portion of the exocarp
62 to expose the pod mesocarp. The characteristic darkening of the pericarp is part of a progressive
63 change in colors resulting in mesocarp colors from white (immature) to black (mature) [14]. The
64 outer layer of the pod can be removed, and seeds sorted by maturity class (white, yellow, orange,
65 brown or black) in a non-destructive manner allowing for physiological and chemical studies
66 pertaining to the stage of development [12].



67 **Figure 1.**
68 Florunner mesocarps (exocarp removed) of seven maturity classes subdivided into incremental stages.
69
70

71 Seed maturity proceeds with the thickening of cell walls and addition of oil bodies [15]. For
72 mature peanuts of the highest classification (black mesocarp), the cytoplasm of the parenchyma cells
73 is essentially full of oil bodies. The specific aim of the project seeks to clarify the role of phytosterols
74 in the formation of oil bodies as the seed matures. To accomplish this aim, seeds were organized into
75 different maturity classes and the phytosterols extracted and identified. It is hypothesized that
76 establishment of a critical mass of phytosterols provides the membrane stability for proliferation of
77 oil bodies during maturation.

78 2. Results

79 2.1 Stage of peanut maturity and macronutrient composition in different maturity classes

80 Peanut seed development can be classified into 7 classes with 4 incremental stages in each class
 81 (Figure 1) [13]. Based on the color of the mesocarp, the last three classes are described and named as
 82 "orange", "brown", or "black", respectively. Pooled samples from each maturity classes were
 83 analyzed to determine macronutrient percentages and results summarized in Table 1. Generally, fat
 84 % increased from 50.95% to 51.96% when immature samples (orange mesocarp class) were
 85 compared to mature seeds (black mesocarp class). Protein % decreased and sugar % increased when
 86 comparing immature and mature seed samples. These results are consistent with observed trends in
 87 peanut crop analysis conducted by the Biochemistry Research Laboratory at Lubbock Christian
 88 University during the 2011-2017 CYs. The USDA National Nutrient Database for Standard Reference
 89 (Release 27, Basic Report 16087) reports macronutrient composition as 49.2% fat, 25.8% protein, and
 90 4.7% sugars. The reported results are significantly different as compared to the standard values with
 91 respect to total fat and protein percentages but could be attributed to a specific variety versus
 92 average trends across all market types of cultivated peanut.

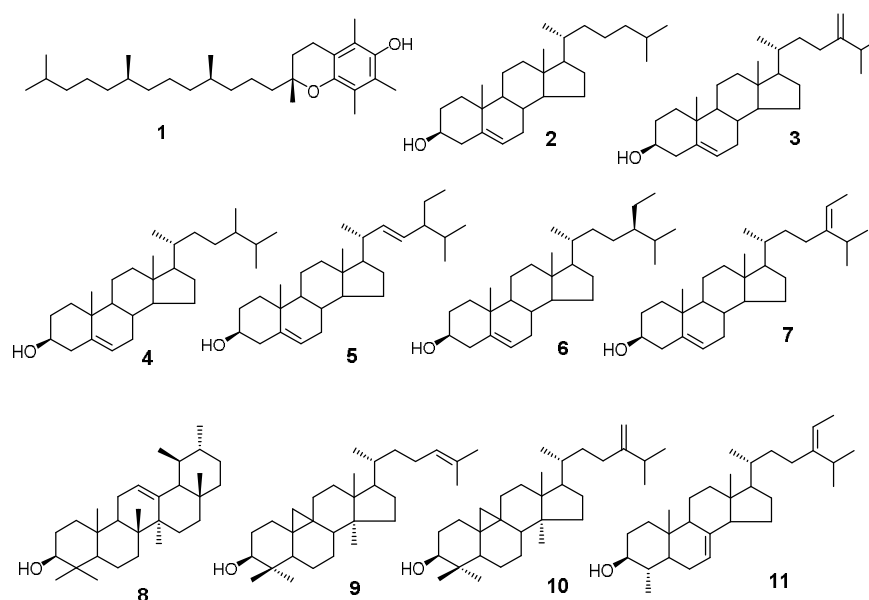
93 **Table 1.** Macronutrient Composition of *Arachis hypogaea* Seeds of Different Maturation Classes.

| Pod Color | Fat (%) | Protein (%) | Sugar (%) |
|-----------|---------|-------------|-----------|
| Orange | 50.95 | 20.90 | 3.43 |
| Brown | 51.49 | 19.90 | 3.63 |
| Black | 51.96 | 18.00 | 4.42 |

94 Method error $\pm 0.33\%$ fat, 0.648-0.798% protein, and -0.33-0.52% sugar.

95 2.2 Isoprenoids and phytosterol composition in different tissues

96 Using GC/MS, we analyzed three classes of peanut samples for their isoprenoid and sterol
 97 composition. We have positively identified 11 compounds (Figure 2) based on the mass spectra and
 98 retention time relative to the authentic standards.



99 **Figure 2.** Structures of compounds identified by GC/MS.

101 We found that of the three seed component classes analyzed, the kernel and seed coat generally
 102 contained the same percentage of α -tocopherol (0.63% and 0.64%, respectively), decreasing slight
 103 with maturity in brown versus black mesocarp classes, 0.69% to 0.63% kernel composition and 0.71%
 104 to 0.64% seed coat composition (Table 2). In contrast, the hearts contained significantly less

105 tocopherol by percentage (Table 2) as compared to the kernel and seed coat. Also, the amount of
 106 α -tocopherol increased from 0.09% in the orange mesocarp class, to 0.19% in the brown mesocarp
 107 class, and 0.24% in the black mesocarp class. Vitamin E is comprised of eight structurally related
 108 molecules including four forms of tocopherols. Peanuts, like many other oilseeds, contain
 109 tocopherols [16]. Within plants, these molecules are found in cell membranes and possess
 110 antioxidant activity which protects organelles from reactive oxygen species (ROS) [17]. Like
 111 phytosterols, tocopherols contribute to maintaining membrane fluidity [17].

112 **Table 2.** Phytosterol and Isoprenoid Composition of *Arachis hypogaea* Seed Components of Different Classes.

| Sterols and Isoprenoids ¹ | Heart | | | Kernel | | | Seed Coat | | |
|---|-------------|-------------|--------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| | Black | Brown | Orange | Black | Brown | Orange | Black | Brown | Orange |
| 1 Alpha-Tocopherol | 0.24 | 0.19 | 0.09 | 0.63 | 0.69 | 0.57 | 0.64 | 0.71 | 0.66 |
| 2 Cholesterol | 0.19 | 0.17 | 0.19 | 0.21 | 0.22 | 0.18 | 0.54 | 0.57 | 0.46 |
| 3 24-Methylenecholesterol | 0.85 | 0.86 | 0.92 | 0.27 | 0.86 | 0.22 | 0.13 | 0.12 | 0.12 |
| 4 Campesterol | 17.42 | 16.65 | 16.78 | 12.14 | 11.12 | 11.25 | 14.71 | 14.71 | 15.11 |
| 5 Stigmasterol | 2.91 | 2.87 | 2.63 | 11.63 | 11.61 | 10.70 | 3.76 | 3.95 | 4.57 |
| 6 Sitosterol | 61.99 | 62.03 | 62.33 | 62.61 | 58.70 | 63.92 | 75.78 | 76.45 | 75.19 |
| 7 Iofucosterol | 9.75 | 10.20 | 11.01 | 10.70 | 14.32 | 11.99 | 2.67 | 2.09 | 2.18 |
| 8 alpha-Amyrin | 0.38 | 0.38 | 0.36 | 0.61 | 0.65 | 0.38 | 0.99 | 1.05 | 0.89 |
| 9 Cycloartenol | 2.35 | 2.45 | 1.95 | 0.70 | 0.44 | 0.37 | 0.73 | 0.24 | 0.74 |
| 10 24-Methylenecycloartanol | 1.95 | 2.10 | 1.65 | 0.33 | 1.18 | 0.21 | 0.01 | 0.04 | 0.00 |
| 11 Citrostadienol | 1.97 | 2.12 | 2.10 | 0.17 | 0.21 | 0.21 | 0.06 | 0.08 | 0.06 |
| Total ($\mu\text{g}/\text{mg}$) | 8.68 | 8.47 | 10.25 | 1.04 | 0.93 | 0.91 | 5.40 | 5.51 | 5.71 |

113 ¹ Sterols and Isoprenoids content is AVE %.

114 Many phytosterols are present in nature [18]. In peanuts, the three predominant phytosterols
 115 are β -sitosterol, campesterol and stigmasterol. In 2004, it was reported that these three sterols
 116 comprise approximately 95% of total peanut sterols [18]. Our analysis confirmed that these sterols
 117 are the major components of total peanut sterols in each component, 82.29% of hearts, 86.39% of
 118 kernels, and 94.25% seed coats (Table 2) but at lower percentages as compared to the 2004 reported
 119 values. Other minor component phytosterols were detected (Table 2) including those not previously
 120 identified most likely due to advances in technology. Some variation may also be due to varietal
 121 differences as these samples were isolated from Runner type peanuts as compared to Spanish,
 122 Valencia, and Virginia market types.

123 When comparing sterol composition in the different seed components, the relative percentage
 124 of stigmasterol should be noted (Table 2), heart 2.80%, kernel 11.31%, and seed coat 4.09%. This
 125 result differs from the reported value of stigmasterol in Runner peanuts as 11.0% [18]. However, the
 126 kernel is the largest component of the seed by mass and as a result, would more closely reflect data
 127 on the entire seed.

128 2.3 Isoprenoid and phytosterol composition in different maturity classes

129 It is critical for farmers to harvest peanut at the optimized maturity to maximize the crop value
 130 and a suitable biomarker could help farmers to harvest at the right time. We compared the profiles of
 131 the sterols and isoprenoids from the three stages and there are no statistically significant differences
 132 among the major sterols. However, we found that α -tocopherol in the peanut hearts changed
 133 dramatically crossing the maturation stages. The absolute amount of this important metabolite was
 134 increased correspondingly from 0.92 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mg}$ in orange to 1.61 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mg}$ in brown and peaked at 2.08
 135 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mg}$ in black. Given the fact that Vitamin E is a very important metabolite to plant biology and a
 136 valuable compound to human health, we think that the content of Vitamin E could be used as a

137 biomarker for peanut harvesting. We plan to develop a user-friendly and portable method to
138 determine Vitamin E content, which may have important practical value to peanut farmers.

139 3. Discussion

140 Peanuts are a nutrient rich plant-based protein source that contain vitamins, minerals,
141 antioxidants, and bioactive phytochemicals leading to the perception that peanuts are a “super
142 food” [19]. Peanut phytosterols have been shown to help lower LDL cholesterol by competing in the
143 digestive tract with cholesterol and preventing absorption [20]. One of the major phytosterols,
144 stigmasterol, has been investigated for its pharmacological importance as an
145 antihypercholesterolemic, anti-inflammatory, antioxidant, hypoglycemic and antitumor effector
146 [21,22]. In this study, it is reported that the kernel contains a higher percentage of stigmasterol as
147 compared to the heart and seed coat. Different manufacturing processes may remove the seed coat
148 or heart, so it is beneficial to the health of the consumer that the kernel possess relatively high
149 concentrations of stigmasterol.

150 In addition to potential health benefits, stigmasterol is thought to play a role in temperature
151 stress tolerance in plants [23]. Drought and extreme heat in the growing season can increase the
152 sensitivity of the plant to opportunistic organisms [24]. Accumulation of critical phytosterols, such
153 as stigmasterol, during pod development may set the foundation for physiological maturation
154 processes and resistance to stress.

155 Tocopherol content can vary with environmental stress and growing location in addition to
156 other factors [25]. In this study, hearts contained the lowest percentage of α -tocopherol as compared
157 to the other seed components, but the amount increased during maturation. During germination, the
158 stability of the peanut heart, or embryo, is critically important to the development of the seedling
159 and stand establishment under adverse environmental conditions [17]. Alpha-tocopherol
160 deactivates ROS generated during photosynthesis and is upregulated during stressful events [17].
161 Immature peanut seed is less resistant to stress and as a results, is more likely to be adversely
162 affected during germination. The results suggest that the synthesis and accumulation of
163 α -tocopherol in developing peanut hearts may be vitally important to seedling vigor upon
164 germination.

165 4. Materials and Methods

166 4.1 Materials and reagents

167 Epicoprostanol 5 β -Cholestan-3 α -ol, heptane (99%), anhydride pyridine (99.9%), and
168 N,O-Bis(trimethylsilyl)trifluoroacetamide (BSTFA) (99.9%) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (St.
169 Louis, MO, USA). HPLC grade n-Hexane, HPLC grade methanol, potassium hydroxide (85%)
170 (KOH), acetone, and HPLC grade dichloromethane, were purchased from Thermo Fisher (Waltham,
171 MA, USA).

172 4.2 Pod blasting

173 Freshly harvested pods, 2017 Crop Year (CY), from one specific genotype of Runner peanuts
174 grown under conventional cultural practices were obtained. Pods were removed from the plant
175 material, and ‘pod blasted’ to reveal the mesocarp. Pod blasting is a process by which in-shell peanut
176 pods are placed in a wire basket and a residential style pressure washer is used to spray the shell
177 exterior with high pressure water, removing the outer portion of the peanut hull and exposing the
178 colored mesocarp layer underneath. The blasted pods were separated by color into three different
179 maturity classes, orange, brown, and black. After separation, the remainder of the pod outer layer
180 was removed, and the seeds segregated for additional chemical analyses.

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184 4.3 Isolation of peanut seed components

185 For each maturity class, 10-50g of redskin kernels were weighed and dried in a forced air oven
186 at 130°C for 45 minutes. After cooling to ambient temperature, the kernels were manually separated
187 by removing the skin, breaking open the kernel, and removing the heart to subdivide the samples
188 into three subsections consisting of seed coats, hearts, and kernels. The subsections were scaled at a
189 specific mass for 5 replicates. Each replicate of the heart and kernel contained 50mg while the seed
190 coat replicates contained 20mg. Each scaled replicate was placed in a 2mL microcentrifuge tube with
191 locking lid.

192 4.4 Fat, protein and sugar analysis

193 To analyze the seed sample for total fat by organic solvent extraction, the exact mass of 10g
194 ±0.1g sample is recorded and the sample pre-dried in a forced air oven at 130°C for 45 minutes to
195 remove moisture. After cooling to ambient temperature, the dried sample is quantitatively
196 transferred to an explosion-proof blender jar. 60mL Dichloromethane (DCM) is added and the
197 mixture blended at high speed for 1 minute. After allowing the blender jar to cool for 30 seconds
198 before opening, remove the blender lid and wash down the sides of the blender with DCM in a wash
199 bottle. Replace lid and blend at high speed for an additional 1 minute. Allow blender jar to cool for
200 30 seconds before opening and wash down sides of blender with DCM a second time to remove all
201 residue. Carefully pour blender contents into a Büchner funnel vacuum filter apparatus with a
202 Toxicity Characteristics Leaching Procedure (TCLP) glass fiber filter, rinsing the blender jar residue
203 with DCM into the funnel until all residue is removed. Filter the mixture, and transfer the filtrate
204 from the vacuum flask to a tared stainless beaker, rinsing the vacuum flask with DCM into the
205 stainless beaker to ensure all residue is transferred. Evaporate the solvent in the stainless flask over a
206 steam bath until all solvent has been removed. Monitor evaporation and weigh beaker/remaining oil
207 as needed by removing the beaker from the steam bath and allowing it to come to ambient
208 temperature. Evaporation is complete when the mass of the oil remaining in the stainless beaker
209 stabilizes (≤0.03g change in mass over a 30-minute span on the steam bath). Record the final weight
210 of the beaker and oil and calculate the percent oil using the following formula:

$$211 \quad \% \text{ Oil} = \frac{\text{Weight of Beaker with Oil} - \text{Empty Beaker Weight}}{\text{Sample Weight}} \times 100$$

214 The protein analysis (reference methods AOAC 992.15; AACC 46-30) was conducted by
215 Medallion Labs (Minneapolis, MN, USA) and the sugar analysis (Sugar by HPLC) was conducted by
216 North Carolina Extension/North Carolina State University (Raleigh, NC, USA).

217 4.5 Preparation of nonsaponifiable fraction (NSF)

218 Prepare 10% KOH/methanolic solution by dissolving 50g KOH in 50mL deionized water and
219 bringing to volume of 500mL with methanol. Prepare internal standard by mixing the
220 epicoprostanol 5β-Cholestan-3α-ol with heptane to a final concentration of 1mg/mL. After adding
221 25μL of internal standard solution and 1mL 6N methanolic KOH to each tube, the samples were
222 saponified at 80°C for 2 hours using a Thermomixer (Eppendorf, Hamburg, Germany) with constant
223 shaking at 500rpm. Once cooled to ambient temperature, the nonsaponifiable fraction (NSF)
224 containing free sterols was extracted with 1mL of n-hexane. The hexane was pooled in a 1.5mL
225 microcentrifuge tube and the hexane was removed by evaporation in a fume hood overnight. To the
226 residual, 20μL of acetone was added to dissolve the sterols.

227 4.6 GC-MS analysis

228 2μL of acetone solution was injected into an Agilent GC-MS (Agilent 6890 BC coupled with
229 5973 mass selective detector (MSD)) (Agilent, Santa Clara, CA, USA). The GC was equipped with an
230 Agilent DB-5Ms+DG narrow bore capillary column (30m x 0.25mm x 0.25μm with 10m Duraguard).
231 The injection mode was splitless, with helium carrier gas at a constant flow of 1.2mL/minute. The GC

232 oven was initiated at 170°C, held for 1 minute, the temperature was ramped to 280°C at 40°C/minute
233 and held at 280°C for 25 minutes. The MSD was in electron ionization (EI) mode, scan range was
234 from 50-550amu, temperature of the ion source was 230°C, the quadrupole temperature was 150°C,
235 and the interface was 280°C.

236 The GC-MS data was processed with ChemStation software (Agilent, Santa Clara, CA, USA)
237 and Automated Mass Spectral Deconvolution & Identification System (AMDIS) (National Institute
238 of Standards and Technology, United States Department of Commerce, Washington, DC, USA). The
239 sterol peaks were deconvoluted using AMDIS after baseline correction and identified by their
240 relative retention time to cholesterol and comparison to the mass spectra from commercial mass
241 database (NIST08 mass spectral library). The GC peak representing the sterol amount generated
242 from total ion current (TIC) was integrated using the software default parameters.

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244 methodology, W-x.Z., W.B., L.G., and J.M.; formal analysis, W-x.Z., L.G., and J.M.; resources, W.B. and L.G.;
245 data curation, W-x.Z. and L.G.; writing-original draft preparation, W-x.Z., L.G., and J.M.; writing-review and
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