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Additional Information

1 **Breeding strategies for improving the performance and fruit quality of**
2 **pepino (*Solanum muricatum*): a model case for the enhancement of**
3 **neglected exotic fruits**

4
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15 **Abstract**

16 Pepino (*Solanum muricatum* Aiton) is a neglected Andean crop that has recalled an
17 increasing interest from exotic fruit markets. Pepino is a highly diverse crop and by
18 using adequate breeding strategies based on the exploitation of diversity it has been
19 possible to develop successful breeding programs for this crop. Here we review the
20 strategies used and advancements made in the genetic improvement of pepino for
21 several traits, including agronomic performance and fruit quality traits. Different
22 strategies, like the use of a wide diversity of genetic resources, exploitation of
23 genotype×environment interaction, use of clonal hybrids, and introgression of genes
24 from wild species have allowed important developments in increasing the commercial
25 exploitation of pepino and in developing new cultivars adapted to new agroclimatic
26 conditions. Agronomic performance of pepino has been improved by the use of genetic
27 parthenocarpy, resistance to *Tomato mosaic virus*, and by developing heterotic hybrids.
28 Improvements of yield resulting from these strategies did not affect negatively fruit
29 quality. Breeding for quality has focused mostly in improvement of sweetness. Despite
30 the limited available intraspecific diversity for sugar content it has been possible to
31 develop materials with improved soluble solids content (SSC) and aroma profile.
32 Further increases in SSC have been obtained by using wild relatives in interspecific
33 breeding programmes. As a result of the breeding efforts performed, several cultivars
34 with improved agronomic performance and fruit quality have been obtained. The use of
35 genomic tools represents an opportunity to use the extensive genomic information in
36 related species, like tomato or potato, for the future improvement and enhancement of
37 pepino. In summary, the results obtained in pepino with limited breeding efforts show
38 that ample opportunities exist for improving the commercial exploitation of neglected
39 exotic fruits by means of breeding programs.

40
41 **Keywords:** breeding, chemical composition, exotic fruits, organoleptic quality, pepino,
42 *Solanum muricatum*

43
44 **1. Introduction**

45
46 The pepino (*Solanum muricatum* Aiton) is an herbaceous crop native to the
47 Andean region grown for its juicy fruits, which are mostly consumed as a refreshing
48 dessert fruit like melon (National Research Council, 1989; Prohens et al., 1996). Pepino
49 fruits can also be used in salads in the same way than cucumber (Prohens et al., 2002),
50 or in juices or milk drinks as other exotic fruits (Cruz et al., 2009; Schwartz et al.,
51 1988). The most prominent features of this exotic fruit are its attractive appearance and
52 the properties derived from its chemical composition. Most common varieties have a
53 golden yellow background covered by purple stripes in the area exposed to the sun,
54 which makes pepino a visually attractive fruit differentiated from other exotic fruits
55 already present in the market. At the composition level, pepino has a high content of
56 water (>92%), is low in calories (0.25 kcal/kg), and contains significant amounts of
57 vitamin C (200-800 mg/kg) and K (>1000 mg/kg) (Pluda et al., 1993a; Redgwell &
58 Turner, 1986; Sánchez et al., 2000). In addition, pepino has been attributed some
59 properties of medicinal interest, like hypotensive, diuretic, and antitumoral properties
60 (Redgwell & Turner, 1986; Ren & Tang, 1999; Sánchez-Vega, 1992), which may
61 increase its demand.

62 Pepino was very important during pre-Columbian times in its region of origin.
63 Thus, there is an abundance of pottery representations and depictions of pepino from the
64 Mochica, Nazca, and other Andean cultures, as well as many references to this fruit by

65 the first Spanish chroniclers (Prohens et al., 1996). However, in post-Columbian times,
66 pepino did not reach the prominence of other American *Solanaceae* like peppers
67 (*Capsicum* spp.), potato (*Solanum tuberosum* L.), tobacco (*Nicotiana tabacum* L.), or
68 tomato (*Solanum lycopersicon*), and it remained as a locally important neglected crop.
69 For that reason, the production of pepino was mostly devoted to local markets in
70 Andean countries like Colombia, Ecuador, Perú, Bolivia, and Chile (National Research
71 Council, 1989; Prohens et al., 1996).

72 After centuries of neglect, there was a rediscovery of pepino for commercial
73 exploitation in the 1970s-80s. This was stimulated by the attempts of introduction of
74 exotic fruits undertaken in New Zealand after the success of kiwifruit (Dawes &
75 Pringle, 1983; Morley-Bunker, 1983; National Research Council, 1989), and several
76 cultivars were released at that time in New Zealand (Dawes & Pringle, 1983). This
77 initiative was subsequently followed by other countries like Spain, France, Italy, The
78 Netherlands, USA, Israel, Korea, or Australia (Prohens et al., 1996). In the last years,
79 other adaptation programs are being developed in other countries, like Turkey and Iran
80 (Cavusoglu et al., 2009; Nemati et al., 2009).

81 An important shortcoming that has hampered the attempts to introduce pepino
82 under new agroclimatic conditions is that the organoleptic quality of the fruit frequently
83 does not reach the expectations of the potential consumers, especially when the intended
84 use is as a dessert fruit. Pepino fruits should exhibit a mixture of melon/pear-like aroma
85 with exotic fruit notes and should have a soluble solids (mostly sugars) content (SSC) of
86 at least 8% to have an acceptable degree of sweetness (El-Zeftawi et al., 1988; National
87 Research Council, 1989). Furthermore, the increasing interest of consumers for health-
88 promoting foods favors the acceptance of new exotic fruits containing high levels of
89 nutraceutical compounds. In consequence, the improvement of fruit quality is a major
90 breeding objective in pepino. However, in order to be commercially successful, new
91 pepino cultivars must combine this improved quality with good yields, and therefore
92 yield must also be taken into account in real breeding programs aimed at improving
93 fruit quality.

94 An important fact to be taken into account in breeding programs, is the
95 reproductive biology of the crop. Although most pepino cultivars are sexually fertile
96 and produce viable seeds, in the agricultural practice pepino is vegetatively propagated
97 by stem cuttings, and pepino cultivars do not breed true due to its high level of
98 heterozygosity (National Research Council, 1989; Prohens & Nuez, 1999). Therefore,
99 pepino cultivars are highly heterozygous clones, and sexual propagation is only used for
100 breeding programs.

101 In this work we review the breeding strategies used to develop high quality
102 cultivars of pepino adapted to the Mediterranean climates. The exploitation of genetic
103 diversity, genotype-by-environment interaction, the use of marker assisted selection,
104 and the utilization of wild relatives, among others, have been of great relevance to
105 achieve this objective. The approach followed by us may serve as a model for other
106 breeders interested in adapting exotic fruits to new agroclimatic conditions and
107 improving their quality.

108 109 **2. The genetic resources for pepino breeding**

111 Despite the interest of the introduction of pepino in several regions of the World,
112 many attempts have been unsuccessful. In most cases, a low genotypic diversity, even a
113 single cultivar, was used in the trials, which restricted the possibilities for adaptation to
114 local conditions (Heiser, 1985; National Research Council, 1989; Prohens et al., 1996).

115 The exploitation of the genetic resources is essential in order to develop new
116 materials adapted to new conditions and with improved characteristics. In this respect,
117 pepino is a highly diverse species for many morphological and horticultural traits
118 (Prohens et al., 2004a) (Figure 1), which is matched by a high molecular diversity
119 (Anderson et al., 1996; Blanca et al. 2007) (Table 1). Furthermore, the heterozygous
120 nature of pepino clones can be exploited by breeders to obtain segregating populations
121 by selfing a particular cultivar or by crossing different cultivars. In both ways, breeders
122 can obtain new genotypic combinations, which are susceptible of being selected (clonal
123 selection) and vegetatively propagated for subsequent cycles of evaluation (Prohens &
124 Nuez, 1999).

125 Nevertheless, the available intraspecific variation within the pepino might be
126 insufficient to improve the content in sugars and other fruit quality traits of pepino
127 above certain limits, and wild relatives may serve as sources of variation for such traits.
128 Pepino is a member of section *Basarthurum* of genus *Solanum* and it is phylogenetically
129 related to the species included in this section (Anderson, 1979; Anderson & Jansen,
130 1998; Anderson et al., 1996, 2006). Four wild species of this section, namely *S.*
131 *caripense*, *S. tabanoense*, *S. cochoae*, and *S. basendopogon*, have been successfully
132 crossed with pepino (Anderson, 1979; Anderson & Bernardello, 1991; Anderson &
133 Jansen, 1998), giving fertile offsprings, which facilitates its use for pepino breeding.
134 Among them, *S. caripense* and *S. tabanoense* (Figure 2) are considered the closest
135 relatives of pepino and the ones with the highest probabilities of being its ancestors
136 (Anderson et al., 1996; Anderson & Jansen, 1998; Blanca et al., 2007; Heiser, 1964).
137 Furthermore, both species are edible and sweeter than pepino, which means that they
138 represent sources of variation of great interest for improving pepino fruit quality.
139

140 **3. Breeding for yield and adaptation**

141
142 The successful introduction of an exotic crop requires developing techniques
143 and/or materials that allow obtaining good yields. For that reason, our first efforts in
144 pepino breeding were devoted to the improvement of yield.

145 In the first screenings performed, several cultivars from the Andean region as
146 well as segregating populations raised from seeds of diverse origins were grown under
147 greenhouse. A great diversity for yield was found, with many cultivars and individual
148 genotypes having very low yield, although individuals with good yield were also
149 identified. These screenings also revealed that fruit set and, consequently, yield were
150 affected by high temperatures, which caused low pollen fertility (Ruiz et al., 1996).
151 However, some materials, despite having low pollen fertility, were able to give a high
152 load of fruits due to their facultative parthenocarpic ability. Parthenocarpy has been
153 reported in pepino cultivars since the 19th century (Bailey, 1891), and parthenocarpic
154 clones are more productive than non-parthenocarpic ones due to their ability to
155 circumvent the lack of fertilization and to set fruits in a wider range of conditions
156 (Prohens et al., 1998a). Thus, parthenocarpy provides pepino breeders with an
157 alternative to increase yield stability. We determined that parthenocarpy in pepino was
158 under the control of one dominant gene, which we called *P* (Prohens et al., 1998a), and
159 which is a useful tool for improving yield and stability of pepino production.

160 Greenhouse experiments performed with a comprehensive collection of pepino
161 clones in Mediterranean conditions, showed that cultivation in the autumn-winter
162 growing season gave, in most cases, a higher yield (45% on average) than in the spring-
163 summer growing season (Rodríguez-Burruezo et al., 2000) (Figure 3). This was
164 probably due to the fact that temperature conditions in autumn-winter season are within

165 the optimum range of temperatures for the development of the pepino plant. Yield
166 showed, in both growing seasons, high values for heritability (>0.70), which indicates
167 that response to clonal selection would be efficient for this trait (Rodríguez-Burruezo et
168 al., 2000).

169 Another factor that limited the adaptation of pepino to Mediterranean conditions
170 was the susceptibility to *Tomato mosaic virus* (ToMV), which is the causal agent of the
171 most limiting disease of pepino in our conditions, as it causes severe yield losses
172 (Prohens et al., 1998b). Consequently, studies focused on the search and utilization of
173 sources of resistance were undertaken. The first screenings allowed identifying several
174 sources of hypersensitivity-mediated resistance within both the cultivated pepino and
175 wild relatives. The studies of inheritance confirmed that most alleles for resistance to
176 ToMV were dominant (Pérez-Benlloch et al., 2001), which facilitates the use of these
177 sources of resistance to develop new cultivars.

178 Finally, further experiments showed that irrigation with moderately saline water,
179 a condition very frequent in Mediterranean areas, reduced yield, but this effect was
180 lower in heterotic hybrids. In fact, hybrids under saline conditions had higher yields
181 than their corresponding parents under non-saline conditions, which was probably due
182 to heterosis, hybrid homeostasis, or both (Prohens et al., 1999). Such findings reinforced
183 the utility of developing heterotic hybrid clones for cultivation under Mediterranean
184 conditions.

185 186 **4. Does breeding for yield and adaptation affect pepino quality?**

187
188 Improvement of yield may result in a lower quality of fleshy fruits, due to the
189 so-called “nutrient dilution” effect caused by the counter-balance between yield and
190 concentration of sugars and other nutrients (Davis, 2009). When studying the effects of
191 improvement of yield in pepino fruit quality, a preliminary experiment did not show any
192 negative genotypic correlation between yield and fruit quality traits (Prohens & Nuez,
193 1999), suggesting that the selection of pepino clones for high yields might not be at the
194 expense of fruit quality. A subsequent experiment encompassing a representative
195 collection of pepino clones confirmed this fact, showing that, with the only exception of
196 SSC in the spring-summer season, no negative genotypic correlations were found
197 between yield and several quality traits like fruit weight and size, SSC, titratable acidity
198 (TA), or ascorbic acid content (AAC) (Rodríguez-Burruezo et al., 2002). In addition,
199 other experiments conducted with F₂ and BC₂ populations segregating for gene *P*
200 (Prohens & Nuez, 2001) showed that the use of genetic parthenocarpy on pepino to
201 improve yield does not have undesirable effects on fruit weight or SSC (Table 2).

202 Regarding the effects of improvement of yield in ToMV resistant materials
203 under conditions of infection, it was found that, given that ToMV infection affects
204 negatively the quality of pepino fruits, up to the point that in the most susceptible
205 cultivars infected plants may have no marketable fruits (Pérez-Benlloch et al., 2001),
206 resistance to ToMV resulted in an improvement of fruit quality under conditions of
207 infection (Table 2). Therefore, the use of ToMV resistant cultivars would be useful not
208 only to avoid yield losses, but also to keep the commercial quality of fruits.

209 Finally, we also found that irrigation with moderately saline water, although it
210 resulted in a reduction in yield, it was compensated by an increase in the SSC and TA
211 (Table 2), and also improved fruit flavour and earliness (Prohens et al., 1999). These
212 results were in agreement with the findings reported by other authors for the effect of
213 salinity on pepino SSC (Pluda et al., 1993a).

214

215 **5. Breeding for quality**

216

217 High fruit quality is of paramount importance to make the pepino fruit attractive

218 to consumers (Welles, 1992). When taking into account composition traits related to

219 fruit quality in pepino, total sugars, SSC, maturity index (SSC/TA), and AAC increase

220 during the ripening process of pepino, while TA, decreases (Sánchez et al., 2000).

221 Sucrose is the predominant sugar in fully ripe fruits and its concentration, as well as the

222 total sugars content, is highly correlated with SSC, indicating that SSC readings might

223 be utilized by breeders as a rapid and accurate alternative to other time-consuming

224 methodologies, like HPLC, to evaluate the soluble sugars content of pepino. This high

225 correlation between SSC and soluble sugars was also confirmed in subsequent studies

226 (Prohens et al., 2005a). Therefore, indirect selection for sweetness can be made by

227 selecting for high SSC.

228 The study of available diversity is of great relevance to improve the fruit quality

229 of pepino. Although some reports on pepino fruit composition existed at the beginning

230 of our breeding program (Esquivel & Hammer, 1991; Heyes et al., 1994; Redgwell &

231 Turner, 1986; Shiota et al., 1988), these studies did not provide much information on

232 the variation available in the crop, and therefore were very limited to assess the

233 opportunities for improving the organoleptic and nutritional quality of this fruit.

234 Therefore, we studied the intraspecific and interspecific diversity of fruit quality for

235 pepino breeding and used it to improve the fruit quality of this crop.

236

237 *5.1. Intraspecific variation*

238

239 The evaluation of a collection of pepino clones grown in different seasons

240 (autumn-winter and spring-summer), showed that SSC and AAC were higher and TA

241 slightly lower under the autumn-winter conditions (Rodríguez-Burruezo et al., 2002)

242 (Figure 4). This study also revealed the existence of an important

243 genotype×environment (G×E) interaction, suggesting that separate breeding programs

244 should be made for each growing season. It also showed that heritability values for SSC

245 (0.17-0.39), TA (0.18-0.43), and AAC (0.54-0.57) were moderate. This experiment also

246 revealed that the coefficient of genotypic variation was low for SSC and TA, while it

247 was moderate for AAC, indicating that genetic advances for SSC and TA would be low

248 or moderate if only intraspecific variation were used.

249 Considering the results obtained, we concluded that future efforts for adaptation

250 and quality improvement of pepino should be focused on the autumn-winter growing

251 season, as it allows higher yields and better fruit quality. Nevertheless, a higher

252 genotypic variation would be necessary for obtaining relevant improvements in the

253 SSC, which might be achieved by obtaining new genotypic combinations by crossing

254 different clones or by exploiting the variation present in the wild related species.

255 Aroma is also a highly relevant trait for the organoleptic quality of pepino. Thus,

256 the aroma volatile constituents of pepino and its inheritance in pepino clones with

257 complementary aroma profiles (from intense fruity/exotic to intense

258 vegetable/cucumber-like) and hybrid clones from crossings among these parents were

259 studied (Rodríguez-Burruezo et al., 2004a). We found that aroma differences between

260 pepino clones could be explained on the basis of 17 odor contributing volatiles (OCVs).

261 Fruits with fruity/exotic aromas were characterized by a predominance of esters,

262 complemented by the exotic notes of several minor compounds like β -damascenone,

263 lactones or mesifurane. By contrast, the intense vegetable/cucumber-like aromas of

264 other cultivars was due to very high levels of aldehydes like hexanal, (E)-hex-2-enal,

265 and several nonenals which have been described as relevant for the aroma of melons
266 and cucumbers. We also found that total content on OCVs of hybrids was highly
267 correlated (0.91) with the mean value of the corresponding parent clones. Furthermore,
268 we observed that by means of complementary crossings it is possible to obtain hybrid
269 clones showing intermediate, or even transgressive, levels of most OCVs (Figure 5),
270 which had either a more intense fruity or a more herbaceous aroma. Therefore, this
271 strategy could lead to the selection and development of hybrid clones with improved
272 aroma.

273

274 5.2. Interspecific variation

275

276 The limited genotypic variation found within *S. muricatum* for quality traits,
277 particularly SSC, led us to evaluate the potential of *S. caripense* and *S. tabanoense* as
278 sources of variation for this trait (Prohens et al., 2003). Both species showed the highest
279 fruit weight among wild pepino relatives, particularly *S. tabanoense*, and the yield of
280 selected interspecific hybrids was comparatively high (30-40 t/ha), while their fruit
281 weight, though intermediate (40-60 g), was considerably higher than those of the
282 corresponding wild parents. Finally, most accessions of both wild species showed a
283 high SSC (10-14%) and very high TA (70-150 mmol/kg citric acid), with values of TA
284 of up to 15-fold higher than those of the cultivated pepino (9-15 mmol/kg) (Figure 6).
285 Although these high TA values are undesirable, increases in SSC must be accompanied
286 by comparatively equivalent increases in TA in order to maintain the balance between
287 sugars and acids. Furthermore, some wild accessions showed AAC values two-fold
288 higher than those of pepino clones.

289

290 On the basis of those findings we developed interspecific families from each of
291 the crosses *S. muricatum*×*S. caripense* and *S. muricatum*×*S. tabanoense*, to study the
292 inheritance of SSC and TA in these materials (Rodríguez-Burruezo et al., 2003a). An
293 important genetic effect was found for differences of SSC and TA between wild parents
294 and cultivated pepino, confirming the suitability of both species in the improvement of
295 these traits. Contrarily to what occurred for SSC and TA when using only interspecific
296 variation, heritability estimates for these traits were intermediate (0.4-0.5) and would
297 allow high genetic advances with moderately low selection pressures of 5-10%.
298 Generation mean analyses revealed that for both families, the additive effect was the
299 only significant effect controlling the inheritance in SSC. By contrast, genetic effects
300 associated with additivity and dominance were detected in both families for TA. For
301 this latter trait, alleles from the wild species are recessive to those of the cultivated *S.*
302 *muricatum*. This explained that, despite having wild parents with very high TA values,
303 TA in the F1 generation was closer to those of the cultivated species than to those of the
304 wild species (Figure 6). In addition, fruit weight in the first backcross to the cultivated
305 parent was high and in some individuals it was close to the values of *S. muricatum*,
306 particularly in *S. muricatum*×*S. tabanoense* family. All these results suggested that a
307 successful breeding program should include several backcross generations towards the
308 cultivated pepino for a fast recovering of fruit weight, including selection of those
309 individuals with the highest fruit weight, SSC, and TA. After this, the selected
310 backcrossing individuals should be selfed to obtain individuals in which the favorable
311 alleles for SSC from the wild species are fixed in homozygosis. As a result of applying
312 this approach we have been able to improve the fruit quality of pepino.

312

313 6. Development of new cultivars and improved materials

314

315 A relatively simple program of clonal selection among segregating generations
316 of materials from Chile resulted in the first pepino cultivars adapted to Mediterranean
317 climates, 'Sweet Long' and 'Sweet Round', which were released in 1997 (Ruiz et al.,
318 1997). 'Sweet Long' and 'Sweet Round', have moderate yield and levels of SSC, but
319 represented the first materials specifically selected for Mediterranean climates (Ruiz et
320 al., 1997). Subsequently, parthenocarpy was exploited for the development of cultivar
321 'Puzol' (Prohens et al., 2002). 'Puzol' is a facultatively parthenocarpic hybrid obtained
322 in 1994 as a result of clonal selection in a cross between 9-2, a homozygous clone for
323 gene *P* (Prohens et al., 1998a), and 6-21, an experimental clone which is a full sib of
324 'Sweet Round'. Thanks to its parthenocarpic *Pp* genotype, 'Puzol' has a remarkably
325 higher yield than either 'Sweet Long' or 'Sweet Round' (Table 3). However, in this
326 cultivar, SSC values are low and AAC values are moderate-low for this species. All
327 these properties make it suitable for use in salads but not for dessert fruit.

328 The lack of a good combination of high yield and quality encouraged us to plan
329 an intraspecific breeding program which tried to combine high yields and fruit quality,
330 and adapted to the autumn-winter season under greenhouse cultivation. In order to
331 achieve this objective, we performed a hybridization program taking into account: i)
332 exploiting hybrid vigour for yield resulting from crossing nonrelated parents; ii) using
333 parents complementary for traits of interest, particularly those with monogenic
334 dominant nature (parthenocarpy, ToMV tolerance), but also polygenic traits (e.g. SSC,
335 TA, AAC); and iii) selecting among the segregating hybrid populations within each
336 crossing, which would allow clonal selection of those individuals with the best
337 combinations of yields and fruit quality. After complementary crossings were made, a
338 high degree of segregation was found within each hybrid population, and transgressive
339 individuals were identified in many traits. Thus, mean values of 25% of the best
340 individuals within the hybrid populations were 35-66 t/ha for yield, 250-430 g for fruit
341 weight, and 9.4-10.7% of SSC (Rodríguez-Burruezo et al., 2003b). Such level of
342 diversity offered the opportunity for selecting many individuals with satisfactory
343 combinations of yield and fruit quality. In addition, we found that heterosis was highly
344 correlated with genetic distance (estimated with AFLP molecular markers) between
345 parents. This indicates that marker assisted selection can be used to improve yield by
346 obtaining hybrids from parents situated at high genetic distance.

347 From these hybrid segregating populations, individuals were selected for their
348 combination of yield and fruit quality, and clonally replicated for subsequent
349 evaluations. After several trials in different locations, two new improved hybrid clones,
350 'Valencia' and 'Turia' were developed (Table 3). 'Valencia' is currently the best pepino
351 cultivar for dessert fruit adapted to Mediterranean conditions (Rodríguez-Burruezo et
352 al., 2004b). It was developed from the crossing between 'Sweet Long' (moderate yield,
353 medium-high SSC) and clone Sm-26 (ToMV resistant and high SSC). It represents a
354 considerable improvement over previous dessert cultivars like 'Sweet Long' and 'Sweet
355 Round', with higher yield, SSC, and AAC (Table 3). Furthermore, it has a balanced TA,
356 and exotic fruity aroma, resembling in this trait to its 'Sweet Long' parent (mostly due
357 to esters like butyl, 3-methyl-2-buten-yl, and 3-methyl-3-buten-yl acetates, as well as β -
358 damascenone, mesifurane, and lactones) (Rodríguez-Burruezo et al., 2004b).

359 Apart from 'Valencia', we also released cultivar 'Turia', which is specifically
360 adapted to be used for salad use (Rodríguez-Burruezo et al., 2004c). 'Turia' is a clonal
361 selection from a crossing between 'Puzol' (salad use, high yield, parthenocarpic) and
362 the clone Sm-4 (androsterile, medium-high SSC, ToMV tolerance). 'Turia' represents
363 an improvement over 'Puzol', with higher yield, SSC, and AAC (Table 3). It also shows
364 balanced TA values (7 mmol/kg citric acid) and fruits with firm flesh and intense

365 vegetable/cucumber-like aroma (mostly due to a high content of aldehydes hexanal and
366 nonenals and a low contribution of esters and other “fruity” volatiles) (Rodríguez-
367 Burruezo et al., 2004c). All these characteristics make ‘Turia’ the best pepino cultivar
368 currently available for salad use and specifically adapted to Mediterranean climates.

369 In parallel, and in order to further improve the organoleptic quality of pepino,
370 particularly by increasing SSC, an interspecific program was started from the *S.*
371 *muricatum*×*S. caripense* and *S. muricatum*×*S. tabanoense* materials. Thus, several
372 individuals of the first backcross towards *S. muricatum* (BC₁) were selected for high
373 SSC (>9%; selected individuals: 9.2-11.7%), yield (>20 t/ha; selected individuals: 23-
374 121 t/ha), and fruit weight (>50 g; selected individuals: 65-262 g), as well as balanced
375 TA. These BC₁ selected individuals were selfed in order to accumulate favorable alleles
376 from the wild species for SSC in homozygosity in the segregating offspring (BC₁∅). A
377 preliminary clonal selection was then performed in these BC₁∅ populations and clones
378 were propagated and subsequently evaluated. These evaluations allowed us to select the
379 best BC₁∅ clones, which were then utilized to perform a second backcross towards *S.*
380 *muricatum* (P₁×BC₁∅). In order to avoid inbreeding depression, pepino clones not
381 related to the original P₁ parent were used as recurrent materials to develop these BC₂s
382 (Figure 7) Again, clonal selection was performed for yield, fruit weight, and SSC.
383 Clonal propagation of the selected BC₂ clones and subsequent evaluations allowed us
384 selecting six clones characterized by high yields (38-82 t/ha), commercial fruit weights
385 (200-300 g), and high SSC (8.4-11.2%) (Prohens et al., 2005a). Most of them were
386 developed from the *S. muricatum*×*S. tabanoense* crossings, because, as expected, the
387 proportion of individuals at this BC level with commercial fruit size was higher in this
388 family than in the *S. muricatum*×*S. caripense* family. These selected clones from the
389 interspecific program have been evaluated at a higher scale and some materials have
390 entered into the phase of extensive evaluation to be released as new cultivars

391 392 **7. Further prospects in pepino breeding** 393

394 Despite being in the era of genomics, few molecular works have been performed
395 in pepino, and it is obvious that pepino breeding may benefit from these new available
396 tools. In this respect, the only applications of molecular markers used in pepino up to
397 now have been for establishing the phylogenetic relations of pepino (Anderson et al.,
398 1996; Anderson & Jansen, 1998; Blanca et al., 2007) and for marker assisted selection
399 by selecting parents situated at high genetic distances to obtain highly heterotic hybrids
400 (Rodríguez-Burruezo et al., 2003b). Although a very preliminary genetic map has been
401 made in the wild relative *S. caripense* (Nakitandwe et al., 2006), a genetic map is not
402 yet available for pepino.

403 The pepino is phylogenetically close to other economically important Solanaceae,
404 like tomato or potato (Lester, 1991; Spooner et al., 1993), for which a wide array of
405 molecular tools are available for breeding programs. This opens the door to to perform
406 synteny studies and localization of genes in pepino from information of the tomato and
407 potato genomes. In this respect, the use of conserved orthologous sequence (COS and
408 COSII) markers may help to produce a pepino genetic map which can be anchored to
409 the tomato or potato genomes and help in the identification of genes and genomic
410 regions of interest in the genetic improvement of pepino. Also, the development of co-
411 dominant markers, like SSRs and SNPs would also be helpful to study some
412 characteristics of relevance for pepino breeding, like the degree of heterozygosity of the
413 materials, and would provide new types of markers for marker assisted selection. For
414 example, it is known that pepino is variable for the type of respiratory activity, with

415 some materials behaving as climacteric and others as non-climacteric (Martínez-
416 Romero et al., 2003). Evaluation of materials and identification of genes involved in the
417 regulation of the respiratory performance could lead to the selection of pepino clones
418 with extended postharvest life and improved quality.

419 Pepino is amenable to genetic transformation with *Agrobacterium*, and efficient
420 protocols for genetic transformation exist (Atkinson & Gardner, 1991). This opens the
421 way to the improvement of many fruit quality traits. However, given the difficulties in
422 introducing genetically modified organisms into the market, it seems that no
423 commercial transgenic pepinos will be found in the market in the short term.

424 Finally, given the increasingly reduced costs of DNA sequencing we can foresee
425 that in the coming years the full sequence of the pepino genome will be available, which
426 will further contribute to the identification of genes and will provide tools that will
427 increase the efficiency of breeding programs aimed at improving the fruit quality and
428 other attributes of the pepino crop, as well as to face the challenges posed by the
429 climatic change on crop physiology and fruit quality (DaMatta et al., 2010).

430

431 **7. Conclusions**

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433 Pepino is an exotic fruit with ample potential for introduction in different
434 agroclimatic conditions. Here we have shown that with a limited breeding effort based
435 on the utilization of the genetic resources and in establishing appropriate breeding
436 strategies it is possible to obtain new cultivars adapted to Mediterranean climates.
437 Improvement of quality, mostly sweetness, which is a main limitation for the
438 acceptance of pepino has been achieved by developing intraspecific and interespecific
439 breeding programs, which have resulted in new cultivars and improved materials.
440 Further efforts in pepino breeding probably will result in new cultivars with better
441 characteristics that will contribute to adding the pepino to the list of important exotic
442 fruits already available in the markets. The approach used here for pepino may be
443 successfully applied to improve other neglected vegetatively propagated exotic fruit
444 crops.

445

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- 613

614 **Table 1**

615 Estimates of genetic diversity in pepino, tomato and eggplant obtained with AFLP
 616 markers using three combinations of primers (adapted from Nuez et al. (2004), Prohens
 617 et al. (2005b) and Blanca et al. (2007)).

Crop	Number of accessions	Number of loci screened	Number of polymorphic loci (%)	Total gene diversity (H_T) ^a
Pepino	27	298	204 (68.5)	0.190
Tomato & close relatives ^b	38	242	99 (0.41)	0.091
Eggplant	32	339	65 (0.19)	0.046

618 ^aTotal gene diversity according to Nei (1973).

619 ^bIncludes the cultivated tomato (*L. esculentum*) and the closely related *L.*
 620 *pimpinellifolium* and *L. cheesmanii*.

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624 **Table 2**
 625 Changes (in percentage) over controls induced by parthenocarpy (in a BC2 and F2
 626 segregating generations), ToMV infection (in two susceptible clones), and salinity
 627 (increase of 5 dS/m in the electrical conductivity of the irrigation water in four parents
 628 and two hybrids among them) for yield, fruit weight, soluble solids content (SSC),
 629 titratable acidity (TA), and ascorbic acid content (AAC) of pepino fruits (adapted from
 630 Prohens et al. (1999), Pérez-Benlloch et al. (2001), and Prohens and Nuez (2001).

Trait	Effect					
	Parthenocarpy		ToMV infection		Salinity	
	BC2	F2	Clone 1	Clone 2	Parents	Hybrids
Yield	+47**	+67**	-95***	-100***	-40**	-24*
Fruit weight	+19 ^{ns}	-17 ^{ns}	-26***	+5 ^{ns}	-28**	-17*
SSC	-3 ^{ns}	-6 ^{ns}	+9 ^{ns}	-16**	+23***	+22***
TA	--	--	--	--	+12 ^{ns}	+9 ^{ns}
AAC	--	--	--	--	-26**	-27**

631 ^{ns}, *, **, *** indicate non significant, or significant at P<0.05, P<0.01, and P<0.001,
 632 respectively.

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655 **Table 3**
 656 Comparative results of yield, SSC, and AAC for the pepino cultivars released in the
 657 breeding program grouped for their year of release (adapted from Rodríguez-Burruezo
 658 et al., 2004b, 2004c).

Cultivar (main use)	Yield (t/ha)	SSC (%)	AAC (mg/kg)
1997			
Sweet Long (dessert)	19-30	6.7-8.3	283-349
Sweet Round (dessert)	22-33	7.1-8.2	260-410
2001			
Puzol (salad)	40-60	5.1-7.0	235-328
2004			
Valencia (dessert)	27-47	8.8-10.0	405-574
Turia (salad)	49-72	7.2-8.0	260-340

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Fi. 1. Diversity for fruit size, shape and colour in cultivated pepino.



Fig. 2. Fruits of *S. caripense* (left) and *S. tabanoense* (right), the two wild species most closely related to pepino, and which represent a source of variation for improving fruit composition.

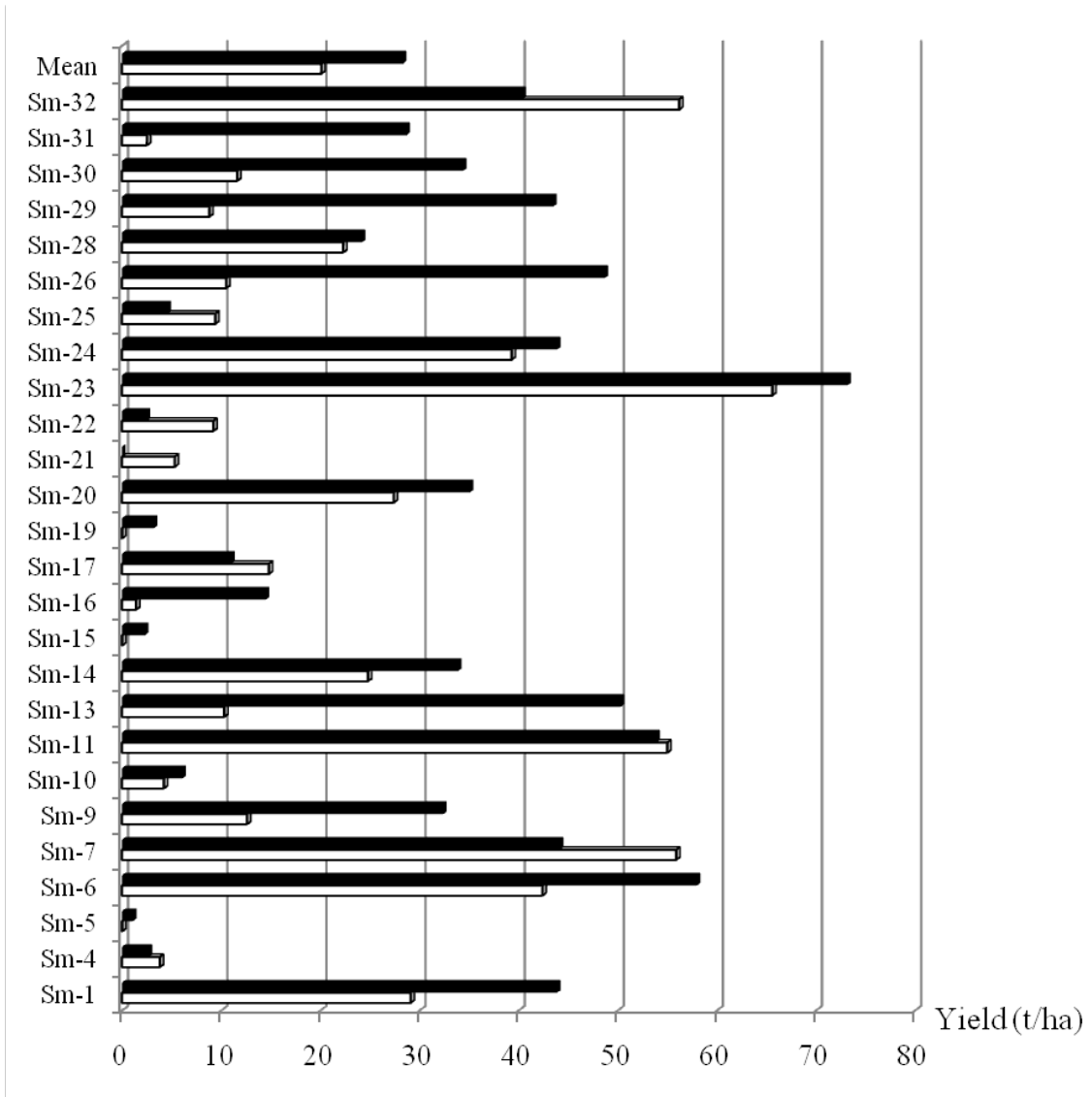


Fig. 3. Effect of cultivation under autumn-winter (black bars) and spring-summer (white bars) growing cycles on yield (t/ha) in a collection of 26 pepino clones (adapted from Rodríguez-Burruezo et al., 2000).

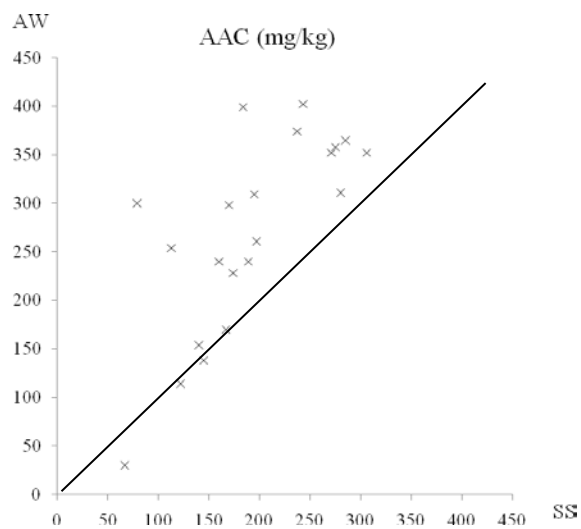
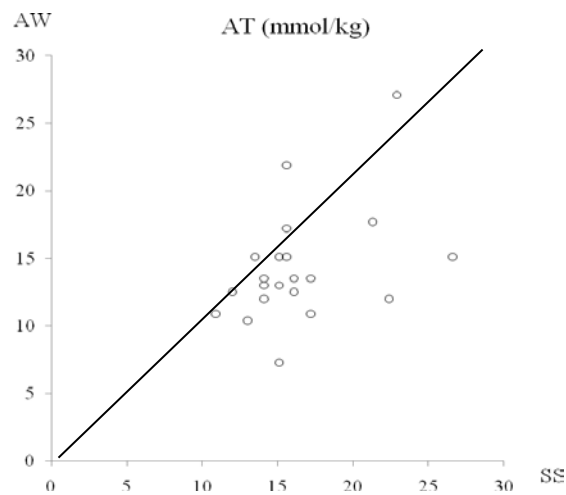
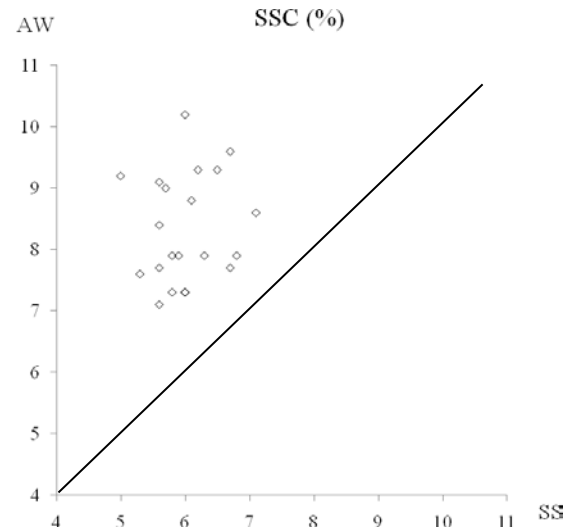


Fig. 4. Comparison of soluble solids content (SSC), titratable acidity (TA), and ascorbic acid content (AAC) between autumn-winter (AW) and spring-summer (SS) growing seasons in a collection of 21 pepino clones (adapted from Rodríguez-Burruezo et al., 2002). The solid line indicates a $\beta=1$ slope.

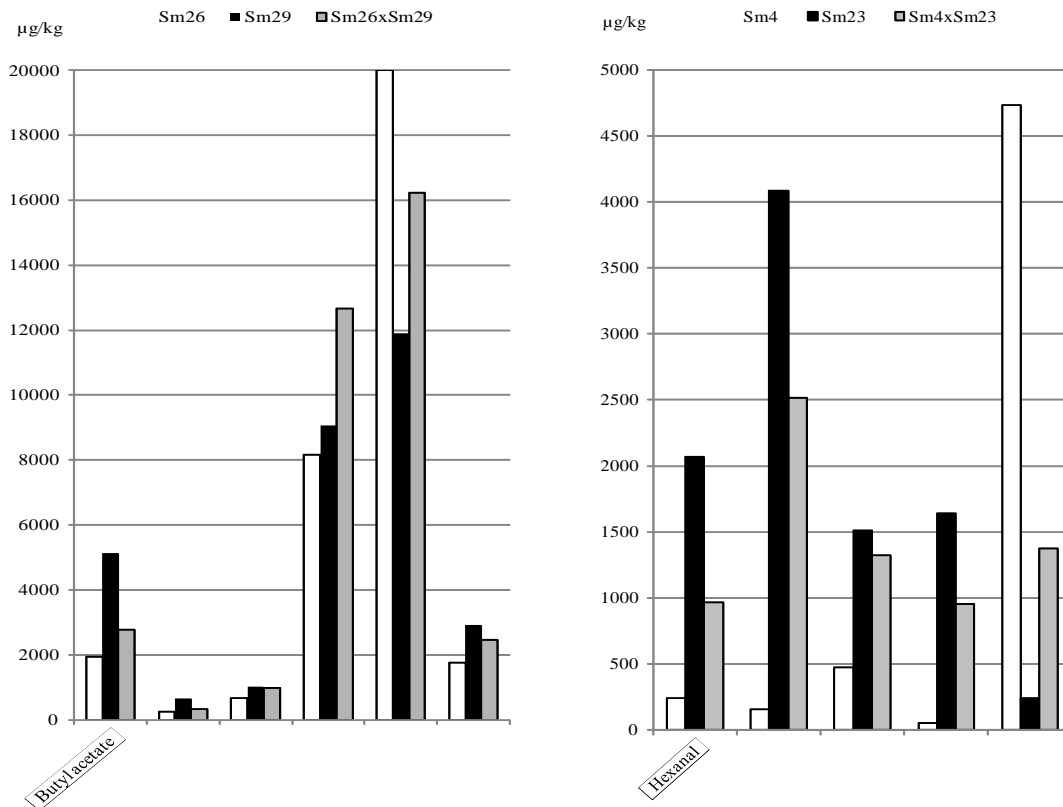


Fig. 5. Patterns of odor contributing volatiles in parent clones and their hybrids. Left: crossing involving parents (Sm26 and Sm29) with predominant fruity aroma (pattern based on esters and alcohols) and its hybrid (Sm26×Sm29). Right: crossing involving parents (Sm4 and Sm23) with predominant green/vegetable aroma (pattern based on aldehydes) and its hybrid (Sm4×Sm23) (adapted from Rodríguez-Burruezo et al., 2004a).

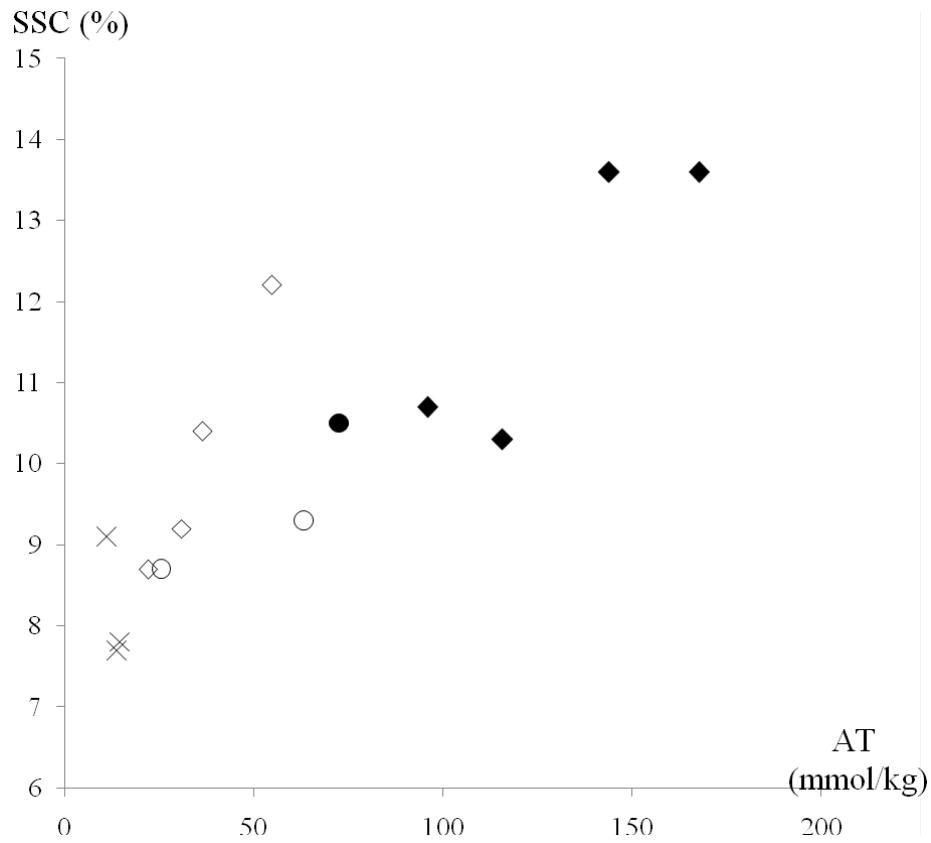


Fig. 6. Comparison of soluble solids content (SSC) and titratable acidity (TA) between clones of cultivated pepino (*S. muricatum*, ×), wild relatives (*S. caripense*, ♦; *S. tabanoense*, ●), and interspecific hybrids (*S. muricatum*×*S. caripense*, ◇; *S. muricatum*×*S. tabanoense*, ○) (adapted from Prohens et al., 2003).



Fig. 7. Example of BC2 segregating generations (before clonal selection) derived from *S. muricatum*×*S. caripense* and *S. muricatum*×*S. tabanoense* crossings (left) and comparison of fruit size and appearance to cv. Turia (right).