

1 ***Capsicum pubescens* Ruiz & Pav.: evolutionary history, genetic resources and future**  
2 **opportunities for an overlooked Andean chile**

3 **Authors**

4 Nahuel E. Palombo<sup>1,2</sup>, Marisel A. Scaldaferro<sup>1,2</sup> and Carolina Carrizo García<sup>1,2</sup>

5 1. Universidad Nacional de Córdoba. Facultad de Ciencias Exactas, Físicas y Naturales. Córdoba,  
6 Argentina.

7 2. CONICET. Instituto Multidisciplinario de Biología Vegetal (IMBIV). Córdoba, Argentina.

8 **Corresponding author:** Nahuel E. Palombo, [npalombo@imbiv.unc.edu.ar](mailto:npalombo@imbiv.unc.edu.ar)

9 **Abstract**

10 Growing concerns over food security, agrobiodiversity loss, and climate change are driving renewed  
11 interest in neglected and underutilized crops with high agronomic, nutritional, and adaptive potential.  
12 *Capsicum pubescens* Ruiz & Pav. is one of the five domesticated chile pepper species and a distinctive  
13 crop of Andean agriculture. Adapted to cool mountain environments and characterized by its  
14 conspicuous pubescence, purple flowers, and dark seeds, the species has long played important  
15 culinary, cultural, and economic roles across the Central Andes. Despite its uniqueness, *C. pubescens*  
16 remains comparatively understudied relative to other cultivated chiles. Here, we review current  
17 knowledge on its evolutionary history, diversity, domestication, genetic resources, and prospects for  
18 conservation and crop improvement. Available evidence supports a Central Andean origin and  
19 identifies the inter-Andean valleys of the Bolivian Yungas as the primary center of diversity and the  
20 most plausible center of domestication, although the direct wild progenitor of the species remains  
21 unknown. Recent genomic studies reveal substantial genetic variation, with the highest diversity  
22 concentrated in Bolivia and distinct northern and southern lineages shaped by human-mediated  
23 dispersal across the Americas. We also highlight important gaps in germplasm conservation,  
24 particularly the underrepresentation of Bolivian diversity and the limited *ex situ* coverage of the three  
25 wild relatives of *C. pubescens* in public collections. The growing availability of genomic resources  
26 creates new opportunities for evolutionary research, conservation planning, and crop improvement.  
27 We argue that *C. pubescens* represents a valuable yet overlooked biocultural, agricultural, and genetic  
28 resource deserving greater scientific and conservation attention.

29 **Keywords**

30 agrobiodiversity; Andean crops; crop wild relatives; chile peppers, plant domestication; plant genetic  
31 resources

## 32 **Introduction**

33 Crop domestication has profoundly shaped human societies and terrestrial ecosystems, leading to a  
34 wide variety of cultivated plants that underpin global food systems. However, despite the dominance  
35 of a few major crops in modern agriculture, many domesticated species remain locally important but  
36 globally underrepresented in scientific research. These so-called “neglected”, “overlooked” or  
37 “underutilized” crops often harbor significant genetic variation, unique evolutionary trajectories, and  
38 valuable traits for agricultural sustainability in the face of changing environmental conditions  
39 (Mabhaudhi et al. 2019; Ulian et al. 2020). Understanding their origins, diversity and adaptive  
40 potential is therefore increasingly relevant both for developing effective conservation strategies of  
41 genetic resources and for meeting the increasing global demand for improved yield and food quality  
42 (Ross-Ibarra et al. 2007; Meyer and Purugganan 2013; Khoury et al. 2022; Alavez et al. 2026).

43 Sweet and hot chile peppers (*Capsicum* L., Solanaceae) are among the most culturally and  
44 economically important horticultural crops worldwide. Five species of *Capsicum* have been  
45 independently domesticated in the Americas: *C. annuum* L., *C. baccatum* L., *C. chinense* Jacq., *C.*  
46 *frutescens* L., and *C. pubescens* Ruiz & Pav. (Jarret et al. 2019; Barboza et al. 2022). Together, these  
47 species encompass a remarkable variety of fruit colors, shapes, aromas, pungency, and agricultural  
48 uses, reflecting long histories of human selection under different ecological and cultural contexts.  
49 Among them, *C. pubescens*, commonly known as “rocoto”, remains particularly distinctive and  
50 understudied. Adapted to relatively cool environments where other domesticated chiles fails, the  
51 species is cultivated primarily in mid- to high-elevation regions of Central and South America. It is  
52 further distinguished by conspicuous pubescence, purple flowers and brownish-black seeds, while its  
53 fruits are widely used fresh, cooked, or processed as condiments and remain integral to culinary  
54 traditions across the Central Andes (**Fig. 1**; Bosland and Votava 2012; Barboza et al. 2022).

55 Beyond its biocultural value, *C. pubescens* has gained a renewed economic and nutritional  
56 importance. Its fruits are a significant source of bioactive compounds relevant to human health,  
57 including ascorbic acid (vitamin C), flavonoids, phenolics, carotenoids and a distinctive capsaicinoids  
58 profile, the latter comprising pungency-associated alkaloids that are largely unique to the genus  
59 *Capsicum* (Meckelman et al. 2015; Caballero Gutiérrez et al. 2017; de Sá Mendes et al. 2020). While  
60 its presence is expanding in international markets, production still relies heavily on traditional  
61 landraces with limited agronomic improvement, driving demand for cultivars with enhanced  
62 performance and functional values (Salas-Zeta et al. 2026, and references herein). Recent  
63 explorations of its genetic and morpho-functional diversity have begun to uncover the hidden value  
64 of *C. pubescens* (e.g., Palombo and Carrizo García 2022; Salas-Zeta et al. 2026), highlighting its  
65 significance for both conservation and crop improvement.



66 **Fig. 1** Distribution, morphology, and uses of *Capsicum pubescens*: **a** cultivation range of the species across  
 67 the Americas, outlined in yellow, according to Barboza et al. (2022), **b** adult plants growing in a family garden,  
 68 **c** flower, **d** characteristic pubescence, **e** mature fruit in longitudinal section showing the distinctive brownish-  
 69 black seeds (arrow), **f** diversity of fruit forms and colors, **g** fresh fruits sold in a local market in Bolivia, **h** *C.*  
 70 *pubescens*-based sauces, **i** the traditional dish “rocoto relleno”, **j** dried fruit powders. Scale bar (c-f) = 1 cm.  
 71 Photos by C. Carrizo García and N. Palombo.

72 Despite this growing interest, the evolutionary history of *C. pubescens* remains unusually  
 73 unresolved. No unequivocal wild population or direct progenitor is known, leaving a critical gap in  
 74 our understanding of its origin and the extent of its diversity. Moreover, the species remains  
 75 comparatively underrepresented in global crop research relative to other domesticated chiles. To  
 76 illustrate this neglect, a recent search conducted on Google Scholar revealed that the species accounts

77 for merely 0.62% of the global *Capsicum* literature, yielding only 4,390 *C. pubescens* articles  
78 compared to the 715,000 articles retrieved for the broader genus. Current knowledge on the species  
79 is also fragmented across different disciplines, including taxonomy, ethnobotany, agronomy and  
80 phytochemistry. To date, no comprehensive synthesis has integrated these perspectives into a unified  
81 framework. Here, we review the current state of knowledge on *C. pubescens*, with emphasis on its  
82 biological distinctiveness, diversity patterns, and evolutionary and domestication history. We further  
83 identify major research gaps and propose future directions to advance the understanding and  
84 conservation of this overlooked Andean crop.

## 85 **Biology, distribution and uses**

### 86 Geographic distribution and growth conditions

87 *Capsicum pubescens* is primarily associated with mid- to high elevation regions in the Americas,  
88 where it is grown from (800–)1,200 to 3,500 m, spanning a broad latitudinal range from north-western  
89 Argentina to central Mexico (**Fig. 1a**; Eshbaugh 1979; Tapia and Campos 2016; Aguilar-Meléndez  
90 and Lira Noriega 2018; Barboza et al. 2022). Across this range, it is cultivated under diverse  
91 production systems, from backyard gardens (**Fig. 1b**) and smallholder mixed farms to more intensive  
92 commercial plantings. Its strongest cultural and economic significance is concentrated in the Central  
93 Andes, particularly in Bolivia and Peru, where *C. pubescens* remains deeply embedded in local food  
94 systems and markets (Jäger et al. 2013a, b; Rodríguez et al. 2016; Barboza et al. 2022). In recent  
95 decades, its cultivation and commercial relevance have also expanded in Mexico (Xingú-López et al.  
96 2025). Cultivation of *C. pubescens* outside the Americas remains limited, likely because of specific  
97 environmental constraints combined with the perishability of its fleshy fruits (Eshbaugh 1993).  
98 Nevertheless, successful introductions have been documented; the species has been cultivated in  
99 montane environments of Indonesia for more than a century (Yamamoto et al. 2013, 2016), and  
100 additional records exist from north-western China, the Tibetan mountains (Djian-Caporalino et al.  
101 2006), and in Nagano, Japan (Matsushima et al. 2010).

102 The species occupies a distinctive ecological niche among domesticated chiles, characterized  
103 by its unique adaptation to mid- to high-altitude, cool montane environments, where it thrives under  
104 frost-free conditions and marked thermal amplitudes (Bosland and Votava 2012). Optimal growth  
105 occurs between 16 and 24°C at elevations around 2,400 m, with a sharp decline in physiological  
106 performance above 30°C, and requirement for well-drained soils with annual rainfall ranging from  
107 600 to 1,250 mm, although the species tolerate levels between 500 and 2,000 mm (Villagómez et al.  
108 1999; Tapia and Campos 2016; Aguilar-Meléndez and Lira Noriega 2018; Yapo-Cárdenas and  
109 Pacheco-Lizárraga 2023). Owing to its particular growing conditions, *C. pubescens* has received

110 growing attention as a rootstock for other chile species. High-altitude accessions have demonstrated  
111 superior vigor and cold tolerance compared to commercial rootstocks, offering a promising avenue  
112 for chile pepper production under usually suboptimal temperature regimes (Agnello et al. 2024).

113 The phenology and reproductive biology of *C. pubescens* also presents several distinctive  
114 features. The species is perennial and can remain productive for 10 or more years. Fruit maturation  
115 is notably slow compared to other cultivated chiles, requiring approximately 90 to 120 days from  
116 pollination to full ripeness (Pérez Grajales et al. 2014; Yapo-Cárdenas and Pacheco-Lizárraga 2023).  
117 Although *C. pubescens* is generally regarded as self-compatible, the documentation of varying  
118 degrees of self-incompatibility (Yaqub and Smith 1971; Saborío and Da Costa 1992; Bo et al. 2011;  
119 Bosland and Votava 2012) suggests that natural outcrossing rates may be higher than traditionally  
120 assumed. Furthermore, characterizations of pollen morphology and performance indicate that while  
121 studied individuals were male fertile with high *in vitro* pollen germination rates, significant inter-  
122 individual variation in pollen viability and germinability exists (Bo and Carrizo García 2015). Such  
123 heterogeneity likely carries significant agronomic implications for fruit set under variable field  
124 conditions.

125 Uses, value chains and socioeconomic importance

126 Although formally described in the late 18th century by Hipólito Ruiz and José Pavón after their  
127 botanical expeditions to Peru (Ruiz and Pavón 1799), *C. pubescens* remained comparatively  
128 overlooked in the scientific literature until the mid-20th century. Landmark studies of Heiser and  
129 Smith (1948) and Rick (1950) finally brought broader attention to its distinctive ecology,  
130 morphology, and ethnobotanical significance. However, the cultural importance of *C. pubescens* in  
131 the Central Andes predates European contact. Historical sources suggest it was among the most  
132 significant plants utilized by pre-Columbian societies in Peru (Yacovleff and Herrera 1934). Its  
133 common names also reflect deep linguistic roots. The name “rocoto” derives from the Quechua *rukutu*  
134 as is mostly known in Peru and Ecuador, whereas “locoto” originates from the Aymara *luqutu* and is  
135 widely used in Bolivia and also in Argentina and Chile (Barboza et al. 2022). In Mesoamerica, where  
136 the species arrived in the early 20th century, it is known by Spanish descriptive names such as “chile  
137 manzano”, “perón”, “canario”, “caballo”, “morrón”, or “siete caldos”, referencing fruit shape, color,  
138 pungency, or culinary use (Long Towell 2009; Aguilar-Meléndez et al. 2023).

139 The species remains central to modern Andean gastronomy, holding a foundational role in the  
140 everyday culinary traditions of the region. Household surveys indicate that *C. pubescens* is consumed  
141 on a daily basis by 67% of families in Bolivia and 62% in Peru (Jäger et al. 2013a, b), either fresh,  
142 cooked, or processed into a variety of traditional dishes (**Fig. 1g-j**). The fruits are the primary

143 ingredient in “llajwa”, the emblematic spicy sauce of the Southern-Central Andes. Their thick and  
144 fleshy pericarp also makes them suitable for stuffed preparations such as “rocoto relleno”, one of the  
145 signature dishes of Peruvian cuisine (Jäger et al. 2013c). Both immature and mature fruits are also  
146 used as vegetables and spices in Indonesia (Yamamoto et al. 2013). Beyond culinary use, the fruits  
147 are highly valued for their distinctive phytochemical profile, dominated by dihydrocapsaicin and high  
148 concentrations of ascorbic acid and flavonoids (Salas-Zeta et al. 2026). These compounds underpin  
149 traditional ethnomedical applications documented (Barboza et al. 2022), and experimental studies  
150 also suggest anti-inflammatory, antioxidant and gastroprotective properties (Obloh and Rocha 2008;  
151 Castañeda and Salazar 2014; Rivas et al. 2014), highlighting the potential of this Andean crop for the  
152 functional food and nutraceutical industries (de Sá Mendes et al. 2020).

153 The species is commercialized commonly as fresh fruit and, to a lesser extent, processed  
154 products such as sauces, pastes or powders. Commercialization occurs mainly through local and  
155 wholesale markets, from which fruits are distributed to lower-elevation regions and exported to other  
156 countries (Jäger et al. 2013a, b; Rodríguez Pastor 2016). In Argentina, for example, although minor  
157 local cultivation exists in the northwest, the domestic market is largely supplied by imports from  
158 neighboring Bolivia (Pochettino et al. 2012; Petrucci et al. 2022). Demand has also increased in  
159 Europe and North America, driven by migrant communities, the internalization of Andean cuisine,  
160 and growing interest in distinctive Chile products (Jäger et al. 2013c).

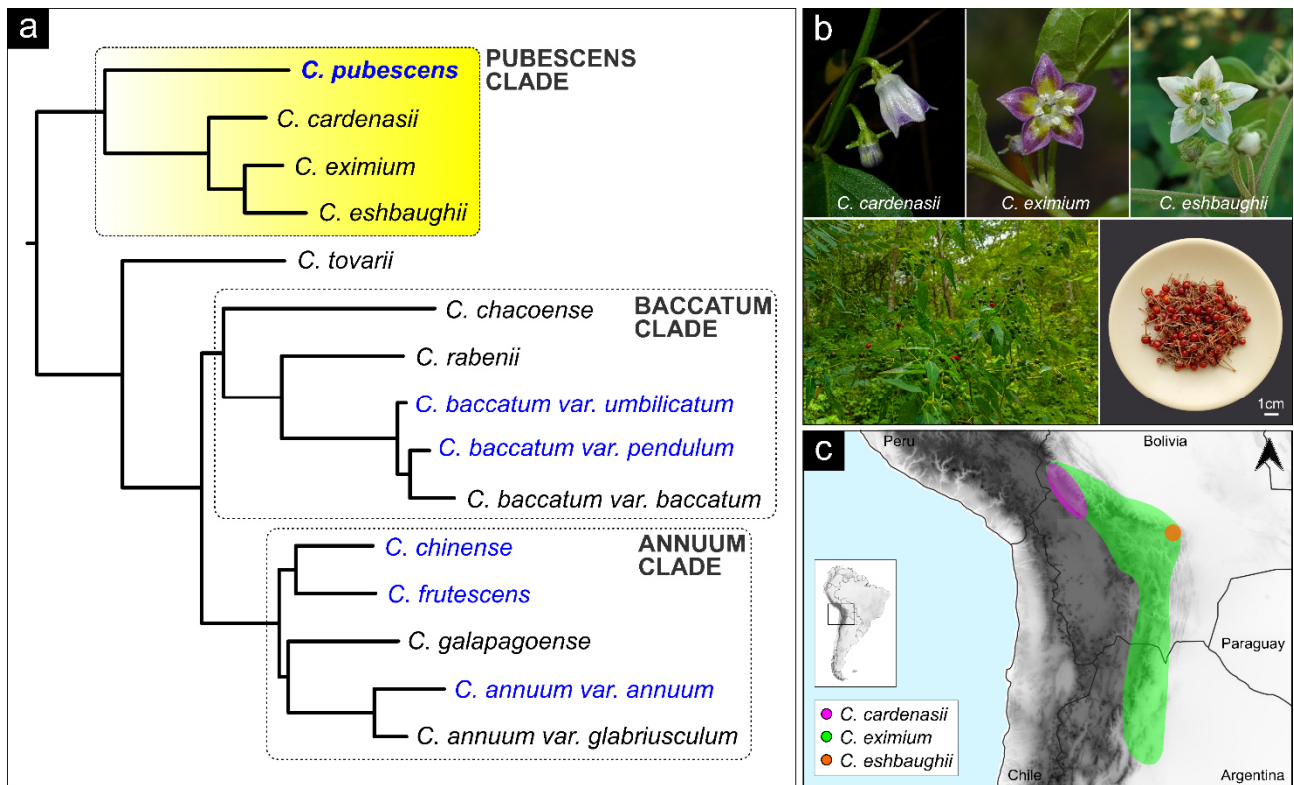
## 161 **Systematics and closest wild relatives**

### 162 Phylogenetic relationships and genomic divergence

163 *Capsicum pubescens* is a member of the genus *Capsicum*, which currently encompasses 43 species  
164 distributed across tropical to temperate regions of the Americas, from central Argentina to southern  
165 United States (Barboza et al. 2022). The most comprehensive phylogenetic framework for the genus  
166 to date, based on genome-wide SNP data, has provided a robust basis for understanding interspecific  
167 relationships (Carrizo García et al. 2022). Within this framework, two main lineages can be  
168 distinguished in the genus: an early-diverging Andean clade comprising species from Central  
169 America to north-western South America, and a second lineage encompassing the remaining species,  
170 where domesticated taxa and their closest wild relatives are grouped into three well-supported clades:  
171 Annum, Baccatum and Pubescens (**Fig. 2a**; Carrizo García et al. 2022).

172 The Pubescens clade comprises *C. pubescens* and a sister lineage formed by *C. cardenasii*  
173 Heiser & P.G.Sm., *C. eximium* Hunz. and *C. eshbaughii* Barboza, which represent its closest wild  
174 relatives but not its direct ancestors (**Fig. 2b**; Carrizo García et al. 2022). The clade is phylogenetically  
175 distinct from the other domesticated chiles due to its earlier divergence (Carrizo García et al. 2022).

176 While absolute dating of these evolutionary events varies depending on genomic datasets and  
 177 molecular clock calibrations used, all current evidence points to a prolonged period of isolation. For  
 178 instance, whole-genome analyses estimate the divergence between *C. pubescens* and the other  
 179 domesticated chiles around 1.8 Ma (Zhang et al. 2025), whereas comprehensive genome-wide SNP  
 180 phylogenies propose an even older divergence around 4 Ma (Carrizo García et al. 2022). This  
 181 prolonged period of evolutionary isolation from the other domesticated chiles has likely facilitated  
 182 the strong genomic differentiation and unique morphological attributes observed in *C. pubescens*.



183 **Fig. 2** Interspecific relationships and wild relatives of *Capsicum pubescens*: **a** simplified phylogeny of  
 184 *Capsicum* based on Carrizo García et al. (2022), showing the phylogenetic placement of *C. pubescens* within  
 185 the Pubescens clade. Domesticated taxa are colored in blue, and *C. pubescens* is shown in bold, **b** representative  
 186 photos of the closest wild relatives of *C. pubescens* (*C. cardenasii*, *C. eximium*, *C. eshbaughii*), **c** native  
 187 geographic ranges of these species according to Barboza et al. (2022); South America is depicted in the inset.  
 188 Photos by C. Carrizo García and N. Palombo.

189 Cytogenetic evidence further supports the Pubescens clade: all four species share the same  
 190 chromosome number ( $2n = 2x = 24$ ) and similar karyotype formulas, while genome size estimates  
 191 available for *C. cardenasii*, *C. eximium*, and *C. pubescens* indicate comparable values among these  
 192 taxa (Scaldeferro and Moscone 2019). This circumscription is also consistent with the traditional  
 193 grouping of these four species as the “purple-flowered group” or “Pubescens complex”, a hypothesis  
 194 historically sustained by morphological, chemical, and crossing data (Heiser and Smith 1958; Ballard

195 et al. 1970; Eshbaugh and Smith 1971; Eshbaugh 1975; Jensen et al. 1979).

196 Diversity and conservation status of the wild relatives

197 The wild sister taxa of *C. pubescens* are commonly known as “ulupicas”. Their highly pungent fruits  
198 are widely used as spices or in pickles in Bolivia and Argentina, where the species are native; they  
199 are traditionally harvested from the wild or cultivated in home gardens and small farms for family  
200 consumption and local trade (Hilgert 1999; Jäger et al. 2013a; Barboza et al. 2022; Morandini et al.  
201 2024). The distribution of ulupicas extends from central-western Bolivia to north-western Argentina  
202 across diverse environmental conditions (**Fig. 2c**; Eshbaugh 1982; Barboza et al. 2022), partially  
203 overlapping with the native cultivation range of *C. pubescens*.

204 The conservation status of the ulupicas is of particular concern. *Capsicum cardenasii* is a  
205 narrowly endemic species restricted to the dry valleys of Luribay (Loayza Prov., La Paz Dept.,  
206 Bolivia) at 2,400–3,000 m elevation and is currently classified as Endangered due to its limited extent  
207 of occurrence and few known localities where it is found (Barboza et al. 2022). Similarly, *C.*  
208 *eshbaughii* is endemic to central Bolivia (Florida Prov., Santa Cruz Dept.), where it inhabits mid  
209 elevation dry deciduous and marginal forests, and also is considered as Endangered due to its highly  
210 restricted distribution and ongoing habitat degradation. In contrast, *C. eximium* is the most widespread  
211 and variable ulupica, with an eco-geographical range extending from the Yungas of northern  
212 Argentina and Bolivia to the dry valleys of central Bolivia (8,00–2,600 m). While currently classified  
213 as Least Concern (LC), its substantial phenotype and genetic variation has not been comprehensively  
214 analyzed (Eshbaugh 1982; Carrizo García et al. 2020; Barboza et al. 2022). Given its extensive  
215 geographical distribution across contrasting ecosystems, this broad range may harbor distinct lineages  
216 that would require local-level assessment.

217 Collectively, these three wild species constitute the primary gene pool of *C. pubescens* (van  
218 Zonneveld et al. 2015), as they exhibit high reproductive compatibility and the ability to produce  
219 fertile hybrids under controlled conditions (Eshbaugh and Smith 1971; Eshbaugh 1975; Tong and  
220 Bosland 1999; Onus and Pickersgill 2004), making them valuable genetic resources for crop  
221 improvement. In breeding contexts, artificial hybrids between *C. pubescens* and either *C. cardenasii*  
222 or *C. eximium* are colloquially termed “rocopica” (rocoto + ulupica). Putative natural hybrids have  
223 been documented in areas of sympatry where rocoto and cultivated or wild ulupica individuals co-  
224 occur (Eshbaugh 1979, 1982; Barboza et al. 2022; Palombo et al. 2024). A notable example is found  
225 under the name *C. arachnoideum* (M. Nee unpublished), long associated with specimens that may  
226 represent natural hybrids between *C. pubescens* and *C. eshbaughii* in central Bolivia (Palombo pers.  
227 obs.).

## 228 **Intraspecific diversity in *Capsicum pubescens***

229 Phenotypic variation and local landraces

230 *Capsicum pubescens* is readily distinguishable from other domesticated *Capsicum* species by a  
231 combination of vegetative and reproductive characters: dense general pubescence, purple violet  
232 flowers and large brownish-black seeds (**Fig. 1c-e**; Barboza et al. 2022). Floral morphology is  
233 relatively conserved, with rotate, 5–8-merous corollas ranging from deep purple to pale lilac tones  
234 (Eshbaugh 1979; Barboza et al. 2022), although white-flowered mutants have also been registered  
235 (e.g., Yamamoto et al. 2013; Xingú-López et al. 2025). As the primary product of agronomic interest  
236 and the main target of artificial selection, the greatest phenotype variation is found in fruit  
237 characteristics. These fleshy, pungent berries show a broad range of size, shape (round, oblong or  
238 elongated), and glossy mature colors, spanning red, orange and yellow (**Fig. 1f**; Barboza et al. 2022).  
239 Early studies documented the extent of this variation across the species cultivation range. Rick (1950)  
240 recorded up to 14 distinct fruit types in markets from Ecuador and Peru, while Eshbaugh (1979),  
241 examining material from southern Bolivia to Colombia, found that larger fruits predominated in  
242 Colombia and Ecuador, greater color diversity was concentrated in Bolivia and Peru, and the smallest  
243 fruits were restricted to Bolivia.

244 Until recently, no varieties or cultivars had been formally described for this species, yet a rich  
245 diversity of landraces and ecotypes have been recognized across its range (Villagómez et al. 1999;  
246 Bosland and Votava 2012; Xingú-López et al. 2025). In Peru, farmers and traders distinguish two  
247 broad ecotypes: forest rocoto (“rocoto de selva” or “de monte”), growing in the central forest,  
248 characterized by larger fruits and commonly used for stuffed preparations, and orchard rocoto  
249 (“rocoto de huerta” o “serrano”), cultivated across Andean valleys, with smallest, more pungent fruits  
250 predominantly used for sauces (Jäger et al. 2013c; Hernández-Amasifuen et al. 2021). Systematic  
251 characterizations of Peruvian germplasm have catalogued over two hundred accessions from the  
252 highland departments of Arequipa and Huánuco alone (García-Serquén et al. 2022). Similarly,  
253 morpho-agronomic studies in Mexico have consistently identified fruit traits as the most informative  
254 characters for differentiation among local races (Leyva-Ovalle et al. 2018; Escalera-Ordaz et al.  
255 2019).

256 Building upon this diversity, recent breeding efforts have led to the official description and  
257 registration of the first formal Mexican cultivars, including 'Mayito' and 'Reynolito' (Hernández-  
258 Hernández et al. 2024, 2025). At the same time, a variety of genotypes is currently exchanged or  
259 commercialized by chile pepper enthusiasts worldwide (e.g., Samuels 2014) though the geographic  
260 origin, breeding history, and genetic identity of most of these materials remain unknown. Whether

261 any correspondence exists between the morphological and genetic variation of the species remains an  
262 open question, as the latter has only recently begun to be characterized.

### 263 Geographical patterns of genetic diversity

264 The intraspecific genetic diversity of *C. pubescens* has remained largely unexplored until recently.  
265 Early phylogenetic studies using plastid and nuclear markers provided virtually no resolution at the  
266 intraspecific level, as the markers employed and the number of accessions analyzed proved nearly  
267 invariant within the species (e.g., Ince et al. 2010; Ibarra-Torres et al. 2015; Carrizo García et al.  
268 2016; Grabiele et al. 2021). The first molecular insights into its genetic structure came from two  
269 studies based on a limited set of DNA markers: amplified fragment length polymorphisms (AFLPs;  
270 Ibiza et al. 2012) and simple sequence repeats (SSRs; Silvar and García González 2016). Both studies  
271 identified a geographic pattern of genetic differentiation associated with country of origin, primarily  
272 across germplasm from Bolivia, Peru and Ecuador. However, the scope of these studies was  
273 insufficient to evaluate the evolutionary significance of the inferred clusters nor to characterize  
274 genetic diversity across the entire American cultivation range.

275 The first genomic-scale assessment of genetic diversity was achieved through RAD-seq  
276 applied to 67 geographically representative accessions (Palombo and Carrizo García 2022). These  
277 data revealed three major genetic groups with high levels of admixture and reticulation, alongside a  
278 significant south-to-north gradient of decreasing genetic diversity. Although the drivers of these  
279 reticulate patterns remain to be formally evaluated, they are consistent with the decentralized  
280 cultivation and farmer-managed seed exchange systems that characterize much of the species'  
281 production range. The highest levels of diversity are concentrated in central-western Bolivian  
282 accessions and the lowest in those from Central America and Mexico. These findings provided the  
283 first genetic evidence supporting central-western Bolivia as a primary center of diversity for the  
284 species, consistent with earlier morphological observations (Eshbaugh 1979), and established a  
285 baseline for interpreting the domestication history of *C. pubescens*. Nevertheless, the identified  
286 genetic groups warrant further investigation to assess their ecological correlates and relevance for  
287 agronomic use, especially regarding the germplasm maintained by smallholder farmers across Peru  
288 and Bolivia, which remains insufficiently sampled.

### 289 Linking phenotypic and genomic variation

290 Recent phenomics and nutraceutical characterizations are finally linking morphological traits with  
291 genomic population structure, directly addressing a longstanding question of morpho-genetic  
292 correspondence. Hierarchical clustering of Peruvian germplasm has distinguished three primary  
293 morpho-functional clusters with weak geographic structure, as accessions from disparate regions

294 intermingle within the same phenotypic groups (Salas-Zeta et al. 2026). This lack of strict  
295 provenance-based partitioning aligns with the high admixture and moderate population differentiation  
296 previously observed (Palombo and Carrizo García 2022). From a breeding perspective, the fact that  
297 desirable traits (e.g., high fruit size, high phytochemical content, attractive colors) are not confined  
298 to specific regions suggests that diverse geographic source populations can contribute equally  
299 superior alleles for crop improvement (Salas-Zeta et al. 2026).

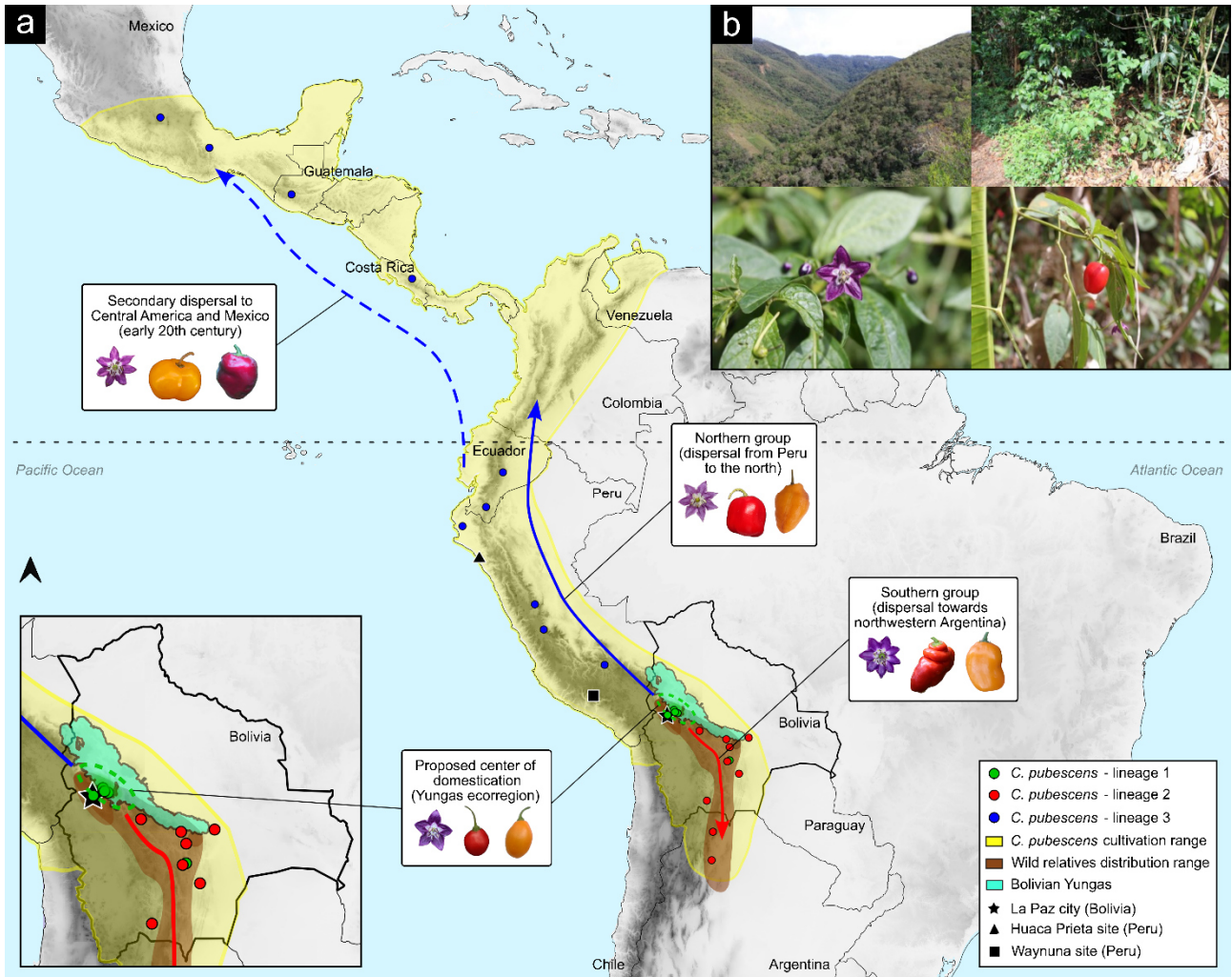
## 300 **The unresolved origin and domestication history**

### 301 Archaeobotanical evidence

302 The species is widely considered to have originated and undergone domestication in the Central  
303 Andes, specifically within present-day Bolivia and Peru (**Fig. 3**; Barboza et al. 2022). It has been  
304 proposed that its domestication occurred in this region approximately 6,000 years ago (DeWitt and  
305 Bosland 2009), followed by human-mediated dispersal across the continent; however, direct  
306 archaeobotanical evidence supporting this timeline remains elusive. Unlike other domesticated  
307 *Capsicum* species recovered from the arid Peruvian coast or dry Mexican caves (Chiou et al. 2014;  
308 Kraft et al. 2014), the presumed center of diversity of *C. pubescens* lies mainly within humid inter-  
309 Andean valleys where taphonomic conditions may be substantially less favorable for long-term  
310 preservation of plant remains. Furthermore, the fruits of *C. pubescens* possess an unusually thick and  
311 fleshy pericarp with high moisture content, attributes that may promote rapid decay rather than the  
312 desiccation or carbonization process required for archaeobotanical persistence. Consequently,  
313 although *Capsicum* macro-remains (seeds) dated between 7,600 and 6,000 BP have been recovered  
314 from coastal sites such as Huaca Prieta and Paredones in northeastern Peru (**Fig. 3a**; Dillehay et al.  
315 2017), these materials cannot be assigned unequivocally to *C. pubescens*. Microfossil analyses have  
316 provided more promising, though still limited, evidence. Perry et al. (2007) identified starch granules  
317 resembling those of *C. pubescens* on archaeological tools from the Waynuna site in southeast Peru  
318 (**Fig. 3a**), dated to approximately 4,000 BP. Their study demonstrated that starch granules of *C.*  
319 *pubescens* can be distinguished from those of other domesticated chiles. Nevertheless, species-level  
320 identification remains challenging because diagnostic morphotypes occur at low frequency and may  
321 partially overlap morphometrically with those of *C. baccatum*. Notably, to our knowledge, no  
322 confirmed archaeological remains attributable to *C. pubescens* have yet been identified in Bolivia,  
323 leaving a major geographical gap that necessitates the integration of historical, phenotypic and  
324 molecular evidence to reconstruct its domestication history.

### 325 Hypothesis on domestication and the missing progenitor

326 The evolutionary history of *C. pubescens* has been investigated through a variety of approaches over  
 327 several decades (e.g., Eshbaugh 1979; McLeod et al. 1983; Perry et al. 2007; Moscone et al. 2007;  
 328 Carrizo García et al. 2016, 2022), yet both geographic origin of the species and the specific location  
 329 of its domestication center(s) remain incompletely resolved. The central challenge lies in the fact that  
 330 *C. pubescens* is not known from the wild: no unambiguous wild populations have been documented,  
 331 and the identity of its direct wild progenitor has not been conclusively established.



332 **Fig. 3** Integrative hypothesis of the origin, domestication, and dispersal history of *Capsicum pubescens*: **a**  
 333 geographic synthesis of current evidence supporting a putative center of diversity and domestication in the  
 334 inter-Andean valleys of the Bolivian Yungas (dashed green oval) and subsequent human-mediated dispersal  
 335 throughout the Americas (arrows). Colored circles represent the main genomic lineages identified by RAD-  
 336 seq analyses (Palombo et al., 2024). The inset highlights the proposed center of diversity and domestication in  
 337 central-western Bolivia, **b** representative habitat and morphology of individuals from the surroundings of Apa  
 338 Apa (Bolivia). Photos by C. Carrizo García and N. Palombo.

339 Traditionally, *C. pubescens* has been considered a species native to the Central Andes, with  
 340 its origin rooted in the territories of present-day Bolivia and Peru (Bosland and Votava 2012; Barboza

341 et al. 2022). Although robust archaeological evidence still remains elusive, the central highlands of  
342 Bolivia were identified as the most plausible domestication center on three grounds: the distributions  
343 of *C. cardenasii* and *C. eximium* overlap with the Bolivian cultivation range of *C. pubescens*; the  
344 three species are interfertile; and the greatest morphological diversity of *C. pubescens* (including the  
345 smallest fruits, interpreted as a more ancestral character state) was documented in Bolivian material  
346 (**Fig. 3a**). Based on morphological, chemical and crossing data (Heiser and Smith 1958; Ballard et al.  
347 1970; Eshbaugh and Smith 1971; Eshbaugh 1975; Jensen et al. 1979), it was early proposed that *C.*  
348 *cardenasii* and/or *C. eximium* were the wild progenitors of *C. pubescens*, a hypothesis widely  
349 accepted despite lacking rigorous testing.

350 The introduction of molecular markers brought new data to bear these questions, but also  
351 generated discordant hypotheses (Ince et al. 2010; Ibiza et al. 2012; Silvar and García González 2016;  
352 Walsh and Hoot 2001; Carrizo García et al. 2016). A decisive advance came with the application of  
353 genome-wide SNP data, which firmly circumscribed the Pubescens clade as a well-supported lineage  
354 comprising *C. pubescens* as sister to a clade formed by *C. cardenasii*, *C. eximium*, and *C. eshbaughii*  
355 (Carrizo García et al. 2022). This phylogenomic framework established that none of the three wild  
356 species is the direct ancestor of *C. pubescens* and revealed a striking temporal gap between the origin  
357 of the domesticated lineage and the diversification of its extant wild sister clade, estimated at  
358 approximately 1.5 Ma. This deep divergence reinforces the notion that *C. pubescens* did not originate  
359 directly from any currently known wild relative (Carrizo García et al. 2022). The species likely  
360 represents an ancient, independent lineage whose direct wild progenitor may have gone extinct or  
361 been genetically eroded through millennia of domestication. Since the cultivation of *C. pubescens* is  
362 primarily limited to specific environmental conditions, Rick (1950) suggested that the original wild  
363 populations might have occupied narrow niches subsequently overtaken by human cultivation,  
364 facilitating hybridization that progressively blurred the distinction between wild and domesticated  
365 forms.

### 366 Genomic insights into geographic origin, domestication and dispersal

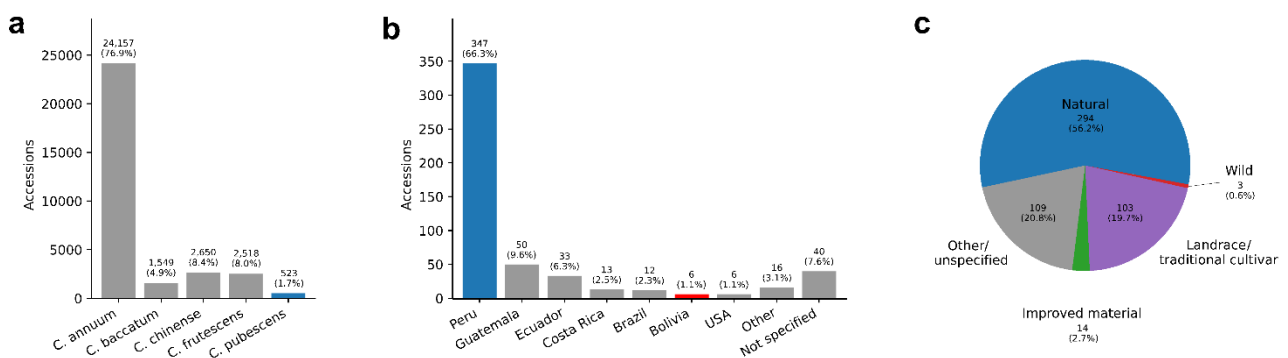
367 Recent extended genomic assessments using RAD-seq data have pinpointed central-western Bolivia  
368 as the primary center of diversity and origin of *C. pubescens* (**Fig. 3a**; Palombo and Carrizo García  
369 2022; Palombo et al. 2024). This region, specifically the inter-Andean valleys of the Bolivian Yungas  
370 near La Paz, hosts the highest levels of genetic diversity and early-diverging lineages within the  
371 species. Significantly, individuals collected *in situ* in this area (e.g., surroundings of Apa Apa,  
372 Huancané, and Coroico) exhibits a “semi-domesticated” syndrome: sparse pubescence, smaller and  
373 mostly pentamerous flowers and small, globose, but persistent fruits (**Fig. 3b**). These features suggest

374 that these populations represent less-domesticated landraces, feral forms, or the closest extant link to  
 375 the ancestral gene pool. From this core, the species appears to have diversified via human-mediated  
 376 dispersal into two main geographic lineages: a southern group reaching Argentina and a northern  
 377 group extending through Peru into Mesoamerica (Palombo et al. 2024). Consistent with the historical  
 378 records (Bukasov 1965; Heiser and Smith 1953), the introduction into Central America and Mexico  
 379 likely represents secondary dispersal bottleneck (*sensu* Louwaars 2018) occurring in the early 20th  
 380 century, an interpretation supported by the significant reduced genetic diversity and the lack of  
 381 indigenous names for the crop in the region.

## 382 Genetic resources and conservation gaps

### 383 *Ex situ* conservation status and geographical representation

384 Access to broad genetic variability is essential for the long-term conservation and improvement of *C.*  
 385 *pubescens*, particularly for traits related to fruit quality, nutraceutical value, and cold-climate  
 386 adaptation (Barchenger and Khoury 2022). A recent search in the Genesys plant genetic resources  
 387 portal (Global Crop Diversity Trust 2026) revealed that although *Capsicum* germplasm is conserved  
 388 in several international and national repositories, collections of *C. pubescens* are notably modest  
 389 relative to those of *C. annuum* and other globally dominant chiles (**Fig. 4a**). The current 523 publicly  
 390 accessible *C. pubescens* accessions are concentrated in a limited number of international and national  
 391 germplasm banks, with major collections held at the National Agricultural Innovation Institute (Peru)  
 392 and the USDA Plant Genetic Resources Conservation Unit (USA).



393 **Fig. 4** *Ex situ* conservation status of *Capsicum pubescens* on publicly accessible germplasm repositories  
 394 according to the Genesys Plant Genetic Resources Portal (Global Crop Diversity Trust, 2026): **a** representation  
 395 of *C. pubescens* collections relative to the other four *Capsicum* domesticated species **b** country of origin of  
 396 conserved *C. pubescens* germplasm, highlighting the predominance of Peruvian accessions (blue) and the  
 397 limited representation of Bolivian material (red) **c** biological status of *C. pubescens* accessions as recorded in  
 398 passport data. Data retrieved in June 2026.

399           These holdings are heavily biased towards Peruvian material (**Fig. 4b**) and suggest that they  
400 capture only a fraction of the species' known diversity. This underrepresentation is particularly  
401 striking for Bolivia (the primary center of diversity) as farmer-maintained landraces and locally  
402 adapted populations from Bolivian agroecosystems are largely absent from public *ex situ* collections,  
403 leaving much of this biocultural and genetic diversity inaccessible for global research and at risk of  
404 erosion (Barchenger and Khoury 2022). However, the active collection maintained by the Bolivian  
405 National Institute of Agricultural and Forestry Innovation safeguards hundreds of local accessions  
406 (van Zonneveld et al. 2015), although this invaluable germplasm remains largely siloed from global  
407 integrated platforms. Wild relatives of the Pubescens clade are even more poorly represented. While  
408 *C. cardenasii* has comparatively better *ex situ* coverage, it is still classified as high priority due to  
409 limited representation; *C. eximium* and especially the endemic *C. eshbaughii* have been designated  
410 as requiring urgent conservation efforts (Khoury et al. 2020).

#### 411 Documentation challenges and collection priorities

412 In addition to geographic gaps, many *C. pubescens* accessions remain incompletely passported or  
413 ambiguously characterized, although important advances have recently been made in the phenotypic  
414 documentation of Peruvian germplasm (Barchenger and Khoury 2022; García-Serquén et al. 2022).  
415 Current global gene bank databases also classify accessions according to standardized biological  
416 categories, such as “natural/wild” or “advanced/improved cultivars” (**Fig. 4c**). However, the  
417 application of this framework to *C. pubescens* is conceptually problematic, as no unequivocal wild  
418 or weedy populations are currently known and formal advanced breeding materials remain scarce.  
419 Consequently, many accessions are difficult to place within conventional domestication categories.  
420 This discrepancy highlights a broader knowledge gap and underscores the need to systematically re-  
421 evaluate, standardize, and curate existing passport data.

422           A systematic gap analysis evaluating the extent to which existing collections capture the  
423 genetic and morpho-functional diversity documented in recent studies (Palombo et al. 2024; Salas-  
424 Zeta et al. 2026) remains lacking and represents a critical next step. Such an analysis would provide  
425 a quantitative baseline for targeted collection missions and help maximize the conservation value of  
426 new accessions. Addressing these gaps will require coordinated efforts to document, collect, and  
427 conserve Pubescens clade diversity through complementary *ex situ*, on-farm, and participatory  
428 approaches, ensuring that these invaluable genetic resources are safeguarded and remain accessible  
429 for future research and crop improvement.

#### 430 **Future research prospects**

431 Despite growing attention in *C. pubescens* during the last decades, major gaps remain in our  
432 understanding of its origin, diversification, genetic resources, and improvement potential. The  
433 expanding availability of genomic resources and renewed interest in underutilized, climate-resilient  
434 crops create new avenues for advancing both basic and applied research. The priorities outlined below  
435 prioritize an integrative framework to address the gaps identified in this review and harness the  
436 opportunities opened by recent scientific advances.

#### 437 Origin and domestication history

438 One of the most important priorities concerns reconstructing the domestication trajectory of the  
439 species through expanded geographic and genomic sampling. Current datasets, while informative,  
440 still rely on geographically incomplete sampling of cultivated materials. Intensive surveys in Bolivia  
441 and Peru should be prioritized; specifically, the humid inter-Andean valleys of central-western  
442 Bolivia remain particularly unexplored and may harbor populations with a reduced domestication  
443 syndrome or transitional phenotypes that could illuminate the early stages of domestication. Intensive  
444 field surveys integrating population genomics, demographic modelling, archaeobotanical  
445 investigations, and morpho-functional characterization could help rigorously test alternative  
446 domestication scenarios. Simultaneously, the wild species of the Pubescens clade (i.e., *C. cardenasii*,  
447 *C. eximium*, and especially the geographically restricted *C. eshbaughii*) constitute an additional  
448 priority. Their diversity, population structure, ecological distribution and conservation status remain  
449 incompletely documented. Expanded fieldwork and genomic analyses are needed to assess patterns  
450 of diversification and natural hybridization within the clade. This represents the most promising  
451 avenue for finally addressing the unresolved question of the wild progenitor of *C. pubescens*.

#### 452 Intraspecific diversity and domestication genomics

453 Improved characterization of local landraces and farmer-recognized ecotypes represents another  
454 major opportunity. Much of the evolutionary and phenotypic diversity of *C. pubescens* has been  
455 maintained not by formal breeding institutions, but by generations of Andean farmers through seed  
456 exchange and continuous cultivation in heterogeneous mountain agroecosystems. Integrating  
457 genomics with ecological information would improve our understanding of local selection and  
458 diversification across these complex landscapes. Furthermore, genomic characterization alongside  
459 standardized morpho-agronomic evaluations, following the approach of Salas-Zeta et al. (2026),  
460 should be extended across the full cultivation range to establish whether the morpho-functional  
461 clusters identified in Peruvian germplasm replicate at a continental scale.

462 Identifying the genomic regions subjected to selection during domestication is another major  
463 unaddressed frontier. While pangenomic approaches and selection sweep analyses have identified

464 candidate loci associated with fruit traits, pungency, and adaptation in the Annum and Baccatum  
465 clades (e.g., Ou et al. 2018; Cao et al. 2022; Lee et al. 2022), equivalent analyses in *C. pubescens*  
466 have lagged. The recent publication of the *C. pubescens* reference genome (Liu et al. 2023) and  
467 population-level genomic data (Palombo and Carrizo García 2022; Palombo et al. 2024) provide a  
468 solid foundation. Comparing the genome of *C. pubescens* with those of its wild relatives, alongside  
469 selective sweep analyses contrasting the less-domesticated Bolivian material with fully domesticated  
470 accessions, would allow identification of candidate genes underlying the domestication syndrome  
471 and shed light on the genomic basis of the species' distinctive traits.

#### 472 Functional genomics and molecular breeding

473 Modern genomics offers unprecedented opportunities to accelerate crop improvement. Genome-wide  
474 association studies (GWAS) linking morpho-functional variation to specific genomic regions  
475 represent a natural next step toward marker-assisted selection in *C. pubescens*. The multivariate  
476 architecture of phenotypic variation suggests that targeted improvement of fruit quality, nutritional  
477 composition, and agronomic performance may be feasible without major trade-offs. The interfertility  
478 of *C. pubescens* with its closest relatives further expands the possibilities for crop improvement. Wild  
479 taxa may harbor genetic variation associated with disease resistance, abiotic stress tolerance, and  
480 other adaptive traits that have yet to be systematically evaluated (e.g., Silvar and García González  
481 2020; Parisi et al. 2020). Genomics-assisted introgression and pre-breeding programs could therefore  
482 facilitate the incorporation of valuable alleles from these largely underexplored resources.

483 Multi-omics approaches incorporating transcriptomics, metabolomics, and comparative  
484 genomic data could substantially advance our understanding of the molecular mechanisms underlying  
485 the species' distinctive features. In particular, *C. pubescens* constitutes an attractive model for  
486 investigating adaptation to cool montane environments. Identifying the genes and regulatory  
487 pathways associated with cold tolerance and growth under suboptimal temperatures could provide  
488 valuable targets for breeding climate-resilient cultivars. Functional genomics may also support the  
489 enhancement of traits associated with nutritional and nutraceutical quality. Integrating genomic and  
490 metabolomic analyses could help identify the genetic determinants of bioactive compounds, enabling  
491 the development of cultivars with improved nutritional profiles and greater value for functional food  
492 markets.

#### 493 Value addition, agrobiodiversity and cultural heritage

494 Beyond crop improvement, *C. pubescens* possesses considerable potential for value addition and rural  
495 development. Its adaptation to cool montane environments, high nutritional value, and strong culinary  
496 identity position the crop as a promising component of diversified mountain agriculture under

497 changing climatic conditions. Recent evidence also suggests that *C. pubescens* may contribute to  
498 more sustainable production systems: a life-cycle assessment showed that cultivation systems  
499 incorporating biochar can simultaneously reduce environmental impacts and maintain high fruit  
500 quality, highlighting opportunities to integrate productivity, nutraceutical value, and sustainability  
501 value chains (Salgado et al. 2026). Opportunities exist for the development of differentiated products  
502 and locally based value chains linked to regional food traditions.

503 Ultimately, the future of *C. pubescens* research lies in bridging biological and cultural  
504 perspectives. Because much of the species' diversity persists within farmer-managed seed systems,  
505 future initiatives should recognize the central role of local communities in maintaining and generating  
506 genetic resources. Understanding how human management, seed systems, culinary traditions, and  
507 environmental heterogeneity have shaped the diversity of this crop will be essential for ensuring its  
508 conservation and sustainable use. As global interest in resilient, nutritious, and culturally significant  
509 crops continues to grow, this overlooked Andean chile represents an exceptional model for integrating  
510 crop evolution, agrobiodiversity conservation, and sustainable food-system development.

## 511 **Conclusions**

512 This work synthesizes current knowledge and critical gaps regarding the domesticated chile *C.*  
513 *pubescens*. Over the last decade, scientific advances have delivered a first population-genomic base  
514 (Palombo and Carrizo García 2022; Palombo et al. 2024), a reference genome (Liu et al. 2023), and  
515 the first comprehensive morpho-functional characterization of Peruvian germplasm (Salas-Zeta et al.  
516 2026). In contrast, major conservation and agronomic gaps persist: the primary center of diversity in  
517 central-western Bolivia remains undersampled in global germplasm banks, wild relatives of the  
518 *Pubescens* clade are highly underrepresented in *ex situ* collections, and advanced breeding programs  
519 have yet to exploit the functional diversity maintained by Andean smallholders. Ultimately, the  
520 *Pubescens* clade as a whole represents a singular evolutionary and biocultural asset that warrants  
521 comprehensive exploration. This synthesis offers a baseline to guide future research, conservation,  
522 and breeding efforts centered on these singular Andean genetic resources.

## 523 **Acknowledgements**

524 N.E.P. acknowledges financial support from the Consejo Nacional de Investigaciones Científicas y  
525 Técnicas (CONICET, Argentina).

## 526 **Author contributions**

527 All authors developed the conceptual framework of the study. N.E.P. conducted the research and

528 wrote the first draft of the manuscript. C.C.G. and M.A.S. commented on previous versions of the  
529 manuscript. All authors reviewed and approved the final manuscript.

### 530 **Funding**

531 This research was supported by the Agencia Nacional de Promoción Científica y Tecnológica (Grant  
532 PICT-2017-0320; FONCyT, Argentina).

### 533 **Literature cited**

534 Agnello M, Mauro RP, Cannata C, Puglisi I, Giuffrida F (2024) High-altitude accessions of *Capsicum*  
535 *baccatum* and *C. pubescens* as rootstocks to enhance suboptimal-temperature tolerance of  
536 pepper. *Sci Hortic* 329:113008. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scienta.2024.113008>

537 Aguilar-Meléndez A, Lira Noriega A (2018) ¿Dónde crecen los chiles en México? In: Aguilar-  
538 Meléndez A, Vásquez-Dávila E, Katz E, Hernández Colorado MR (coords) Los chiles que le dan  
539 sabor al mundo. IRD Éditions, Marseille, pp 75–92  
540 <https://doi.org/10.4000/books.irdeditions.30931>

541 Aguilar-Meléndez A, Katz E, Vásquez-Dávila MA, Barboza GE (2023) *Capsicum annuum* L. var.  
542 *annuum*, *Capsicum annuum* L. var. *glabriusculum* (Dunal) Heiser & Pickersgill, *Capsicum*  
543 *chinense* Jacq., *Capsicum frutescens* L., *Capsicum lanceolatum* (Greenm.) C.V.Morton &  
544 Standl., *Capsicum pubescens* Ruiz & Pav., *Capsicum rhomboideum* (Dunal) Kuntze  
545 (Solanaceae). In: Casas A, Blancas Vázquez JJ (eds) Ethnobotany of the Mountain Regions of  
546 Mexico. *Ethnobotany of Mountain Regions*. Springer, Cham, pp 1179–1195.  
547 [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-99357-3\\_32](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-99357-3_32)

548 Alavez V, Acevedo F, Casas A, Wegier A (2026) Evolutionary processes shaping wild-to-  
549 domesticated plant complexes: insights toward the conservation of agrobiodiversity. *Genet*  
550 *Resour Crop Evol* 73(4):146. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10722-026-02769-w>

551 Ballard RE, McClure JW, Eshbaugh WH, Wilson KG (1970) A chemosystematic study of selected  
552 taxa of *Capsicum*. *Am J Bot* 57(2):225–233. [https://doi.org/10.1002/j.1537-](https://doi.org/10.1002/j.1537-2197.1970.tb09811.x)  
553 [2197.1970.tb09811.x](https://doi.org/10.1002/j.1537-2197.1970.tb09811.x)

554 Barboza GE, Carrizo García C, de Bem Bianchetti L, Romero MV, Scaldaferrero M (2022) Monograph  
555 of wild and cultivated chili peppers (*Capsicum* L., Solanaceae). *PhytoKeys* 200:1–423.  
556 <https://doi.org/10.3897/phytokeys.200.71667>

557 Barchenger DW, Khoury CK (2022) A global strategy for the conservation and use of *Capsicum*  
558 genetic resources. *Global Crop Diversity Trust*, Bonn.  
559 <https://worldveg.tind.io/record/75774/?v=pdf>

- 560 Bo ML, Cosa MT, Carrizo García C (2011) Autoincompatibilidad y funciones sexuales en *Capsicum*  
561 *pubescens*. Bol Soc Argen Bot 46(Suppl.): 34
- 562 Bo ML, Carrizo García C (2015) Pollen phenotyping and performance in rocoto chili (*Capsicum*  
563 *pubescens* Ruiz et Pav., Solanaceae). Grana 54(1):37–44.  
564 <https://doi.org/10.1080/00173134.2014.985606>
- 565 Bosland PW, Votava EJ (2012) Peppers: vegetable and spice capsicums. CABI, Wallingford.  
566 <https://www.cabidigitallibrary.org/doi/10.1079/9781845938253.0000>
- 567 Bukasov SM (1965) Las plantas cultivadas de México, Guatemala y Colombia. Instituto  
568 Interamericano de Ciencias Agrícolas, Turrialba. (Translated by J León; original work published  
569 1930). <https://hdl.handle.net/11324/12865>
- 570 Caballero Gutiérrez BL, Márquez Cardozo CJ, Rojano BA (2017) Efecto de la liofilización sobre las  
571 propiedades funcionales del ají rocoto (*Capsicum pubescens*). Revista UDCA Actualidad &  
572 Divulgación Científica 20(1):111–119. <https://doi.org/10.31910/rudca.v20.n1.2017.68>
- 573 Cao Y, Zhang K, Yu H, Chen S, Xu D, Zhao H, Zhang Z, Yang Y, Gu X, Liu X, Wang H, Jing Y,  
574 Mei Y, Wang X, Lefebvre V, Zhang W, Jin Y, An D, Wang R, Bosland P, Li X, Paran I, Zhang  
575 B, Giuliano G, Wang L, Cheng F (2022) Pepper variome reveals the history and key loci  
576 associated with fruit domestication and diversification. Mol Plant 15(11):1744–1758.  
577 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.molp.2022.09.021>
- 578 Carrizo García C, Barboza GE, Palombo NE, Weiss-Schneeweiss H (2022) Diversification of chiles  
579 (*Capsicum*, Solanaceae) through time and space: new insights from genome-wide RAD-seq data.  
580 Front Genet 13:1030536. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fgene.2022.1030536>
- 581 Carrizo García C, Barfuss MHJ, Sehr EM, Barboza GE, Samuel R, Moscone EA, Ehrendorfer F  
582 (2016) Phylogenetic relationships, diversification and expansion of chili peppers (*Capsicum*,  
583 Solanaceae). Ann Bot 118(1):35–51. <https://doi.org/10.1093/aob/mcw079>
- 584 Carrizo García C, Fernández L, Kapetanovic V, Reyes X (2020) Bolivian wild chile *Capsicum*  
585 *eshbaughii* (Solanaceae) located again: open ending on its identity and conservation. Plant Syst  
586 Evol 306(5):85. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00606-020-01712-5>
- 587 Castañeda BC, Salazar AG (2014) Estudio fitoquímico, toxicidad aguda y efectos antiulceroso y  
588 antitumoral de los extractos acuoso, etanólico y metanólico de *Capsicum pubescens* “Rocoto”.  
589 Cultura 28:319–343. <https://hdl.handle.net/20.500.12727/1504>
- 590 Chiou KL, Hastorf CA, Bonavia D, Dillehay TD (2014) Documenting cultural selection pressure  
591 changes on chile pepper (*Capsicum baccatum* L.) seed size through time in coastal Peru (7,600  
592 BP–present). Econ Bot 68:190–202. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12231-014-9270-y>
- 593 de Sá Mendes N, Coimbra PP, Santos MC, Cameron LC, Ferreira MS, Buera MDP, Gonçalves ÉC

594 (2020) *Capsicum pubescens* as a functional ingredient: microencapsulation and phenolic  
595 profiling by UPLC-MSE. *Food Res Int* 135:109292.  
596 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodres.2020.109292>

597 DeWitt D, Bosland PW (2009) *The complete chile pepper book: a gardener's guide to choosing,*  
598 *growing, preserving, and cooking.* Timber Press, Portland

599 Djian-Caporalino C, Lefebvre V, Sage-Daubèze AM, Palloix A (2006) *Capsicum*. In: Singh RJ (ed)  
600 Genetic resources, chromosome engineering, and crop improvement. *Vegetable crops*, vol 3.  
601 Taylor and Francis, Boca Raton, pp 185–235. <https://doi.org/10.1201/9781420009569>

602 Dillehay TD, Goodbred S, Pino M, Vásquez Sánchez VF, Rosales Tham T, Adovasio J, Collins MB,  
603 Netherly PJ, Hastorf CA, Chiou KL, Piperno D, Rey I, Velchoff N (2017) Simple technologies  
604 and diverse food strategies of the Late Pleistocene and Early Holocene at Huaca Prieta, Coastal  
605 Peru. *Sci Adv* 3(5):e1602778. <https://doi.org/10.1126/sciadv.1602778>

606 Escalera-Ordaz AK, Guillén-Andrade H, Lara-Chávez MBN, Lemus-Flores C, Rodríguez-Carpena  
607 JG, Valdivia-Bernal R (2019) Caracterización de variedades cultivadas de *Capsicum pubescens*  
608 en Michoacán, México. *Rev Mex Cienc Agríc* 10:239–251.  
609 <https://doi.org/10.29312/remexca.v0i23.2024>

610 Eshbaugh WH (1975) Genetic and biochemical systematic studies of chili peppers (*Capsicum-*  
611 *Solanaceae*). *Bull Torrey Bot Club* 102:396–403. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2484766>

612 Eshbaugh WH (1979) Biosystematic and evolutionary study of the *Capsicum pubescens* complex.  
613 *Natl Geogr Soc Res Rep* 1970:143–162

614 Eshbaugh WH (1982) Variation and evolution in *Capsicum eximium* Hunz. *Baileya* 21:193–198

615 Eshbaugh WH (1993) Peppers: history and exploitation of a serendipitous new crop discovery. In:  
616 Janick J, Simon JE (eds) *New crops*. Wiley, New York, pp 132–139

617 Eshbaugh WH, Smith PG (1971) A new variety of chili pepper, *Capsicum eximium* var. *tomentosum*  
618 (*Solanaceae*). *Baileya* 18:13–16

619 García-Serquén A, Amasifuen C, Valdez I, Quispe F, Medina C, Hinostroza L, Vilchez D, García P,  
620 Pacheco G, Medina J (2022) Catálogo de rocoto del Banco de Germoplasma del INIA. Instituto  
621 Nacional de Innovación Agraria, Lima. <https://hdl.handle.net/20.500.12955/1672>

622 Global Crop Diversity Trust (2026) Genesys global portal of plant genetic resources for food and  
623 agriculture. <https://www.genesys-pgr.org/> Accessed 17 June 2026

624 Grabiele M, Aguilera PM, Ducasse DA, Debat HJ (2021) Molecular characterization of the 5S rDNA  
625 non-transcribed spacer and reconstruction of phylogenetic relationships in *Capsicum*.  
626 *Rodriguésia* 72, e02062019. <https://doi.org/10.1590/2175-7860202172071>

627 Heiser CB, Smith PG (1948) Observations on another species of cultivated pepper, *Capsicum*

628 *pubescens* R and P. Proc Am Soc Hortic Sci 52:331–335

629 Hernández-Amasifuen A, Argüelles-Curaca A, Cortez-Lázaro AA, Díaz-Pillasca, HB (2021)

630 Inducción *in vitro* de callos a partir de explantes foliares en rocoto (*Capsicum pubescens* Ruiz &

631 Pav.). La Granja: Revista de Ciencias de la Vida 34(2):131–140.

632 <http://doi.org/10.17163/lgr.n34.2021.09>

633 Hernández-Hernández I, Pérez-Grajales M, Rodríguez-Pérez JE, Peña-Lomelí A (2024) Mayito:

634 nueva variedad de chile manzano. Rev Fitotec Mex 47:321–323.

635 <https://doi.org/10.35196/rfm.2024.3.321>

636 Hernández-Hernández I, Pérez-Grajales M, Rodríguez-Pérez JE, Peña-Lomelí A (2025) Reynolito:

637 nueva variedad de chile manzano. Rev Fitotec Mex 48:93–95.

638 <https://doi.org/10.35196/rfm.2025.1.93>

639 Ibarra-Torres P, Valadez-Moctezuma E, Pérez-Grajales M, Rodríguez-Campos J, Jaramillo-Flores

640 ME (2015) Inter- and intraspecific differentiation of *Capsicum annuum* and *Capsicum pubescens*

641 using ISSR and SSR markers. Sci Hortic 181:137–146.

642 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scienta.2014.10.054>

643 Ibiza VP, Blanca J, Cañizares J, Nuez F (2012) Taxonomy and genetic diversity of domesticated

644 *Capsicum* species in the Andean region. Genet Resour Crop Evol 59:1077–1088.

645 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10722-011-9744-z>

646 Ince AG, Karaca M, Onus AN (2010) Genetic relationships within and between *Capsicum* species.

647 Biochem Genet 48:83–95. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10528-009-9297-4>

648 Jäger M, Jiménez A, Amaya K (2013) Las cadenas de valor de los ajíes nativos de Bolivia. Bioversity

649 International, Cali. <https://hdl.handle.net/10568/68930>

650 Jäger M, Jiménez A, Amaya K (2013) Las cadenas de valor de los ajíes nativos de Perú. Bioversity

651 International, Cali. <https://hdl.handle.net/10568/68929>

652 Jäger M, Jiménez A, Amaya K (2013) Guía de oportunidades de mercado para los ajíes nativos de

653 Perú. Bioversity International, Cali. <https://hdl.handle.net/10568/104576>

654 Jarret RL, Barboza GE, Costa Batista FR, Berke T, Chou Y, Hulse-Kemp A, Ochoa-Alejo N, Tripodi

655 P, Veres A, Carrizo García C, Csillery G, Huang Y, Kiss E, Kovacs Z, Kondrak M, Arce-

656 Rodríguez ML, Scaldaferrero MA, Szoke A (2019) *Capsicum*—an abbreviated compendium. J Am

657 Soc Hortic Sci 144:3–22. <https://doi.org/10.21273/JASHS04446-18>

658 Jensen RJ, McLeod MJ, Eshbaugh WH, Guttman SI (1979) Numerical taxonomic analyses of

659 allozymic variation in *Capsicum* (Solanaceae). Taxon 28:315–327.

660 <https://doi.org/10.2307/1219739>

661 Khoury CK, Brush S, Costich DE, Curry HA, Engels JMM, Guarino L, Hoban S, Mercer KL, Miller

662 AJ, Nabhan GP, Perales HR, Richards C, Riggins C, Thormann I (2022) Crop genetic erosion:  
663 understanding and responding to loss of crop diversity. *New Phytol* 233:84–118.  
664 <https://doi.org/10.1111/nph.17733>

665 Khoury CK, Carver D, Barchenger DW, Barboza GE, van Zonneveld M, Jarret R, Bohs L, Kantar M,  
666 Uchanski M, Mercer K, Nabhan GP, Bosland PW, Greene SL (2020) Modelled distributions and  
667 conservation status of the wild relatives of chile peppers (*Capsicum* L.). *Divers Distrib* 26:209–  
668 225. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ddi.13008>

669 Kraft KH, Brown CH, Nabhan GP, Luedeling E, Luna Ruiz JD, Hijmans RJ, Coppens  
670 d’Eeckenbrugge G, Gepts P (2014) Multiple lines of evidence for the origin of domesticated chili  
671 pepper, *Capsicum annuum*, in Mexico. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 111:6165–6170.  
672 <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1308933111>

673 Leyva-Ovalle OR, Andrés-Meza P, Del Valle-Hernández D, Meneses-Márquez I, Murguía-González  
674 J, Galindo-Tovar ME, López-Sánchez H, Serna-Lagunes R, Del Rosario-Arellano L, Lee-  
675 Espinoza HE, Sierra-Macías M, Espinosa-Calderón A (2018) Morphological characterization of  
676 manzano hot pepper (*Capsicum pubescens* Ruiz & Pav.) landraces in the central region of  
677 Veracruz state, Mexico. *Revista Bio Ciencias* 5, e388. <https://doi.org/10.15741/revbio.05.e388>

678 Lee, J.-H., Venkatesh, J., Jo, J. et al. (2022). High-quality chromosome-scale genomes facilitate  
679 effective identification of large structural variations in hot and sweet peppers. *Hortic Res*, 9,  
680 uhac210. <https://doi.org/10.1093/hr/uhac210>

681 Liu F, Zhao J, Sun H, Xiong C, Sun X, Wang X, Wang Z, Jarret R, Wang J, Tang B, Xu H, Hu B,  
682 Suo H, Yang B, Ou L, Li X, Zhou S, Yang S, Liu Z, Yuan F, Pei Z, Ma Y, Dai X, Wu S, Fei Z,  
683 Zou X (2023) Genomes of cultivated and wild *Capsicum* species provide insights into pepper  
684 domestication and population differentiation. *Nat Commun* 14:5487.  
685 <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-023-41251-4>

686 Louwaars NP (2018) Plant breeding and diversity: a troubled relationship? *Euphytica* 214:114.  
687 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10681-018-2192-5>

688 Mabhaudhi T, Chimonyo VGP, Hlahla S, Massawe F, Mayes S, Nhamo L, Modi AT (2019) Prospects  
689 of orphan crops in climate change. *Planta* 250:695–708. [https://doi.org/10.1007/s00425-019-](https://doi.org/10.1007/s00425-019-03129-y)  
690 [03129-y](https://doi.org/10.1007/s00425-019-03129-y)

691 Matsushima K, Saritnum O, Hamazu Y, Adachi R, Harada K, Minami M, Nemoto K (2010)  
692 Evaluation of the functional properties of chili pepper varieties ‘rocoto’ (*Capsicum pubescens*  
693 Ruiz & Pav.) and ‘botankoshou’ (*C. annuum* L.), which are suitable for growing in cool areas.  
694 *Hort Res (Japan)* 9:243–248. <https://doi.org/10.2503/hrj.9.243>

695 McLeod MJ, Guttman SI, Eshbaugh WH, Rayle, RE (1983) An electrophoretic study of evolution in

696 *Capsicum* (Solanaceae). *Evolution* 37(3): 562–574. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2408269>

697 Meckelmann SW, Jansen C, Riegel DW, van Zonneveld M, Ríos L, Peña K, Mueller-Seitz E, Petz M  
698 (2015) Phytochemicals in native Peruvian *Capsicum pubescens* (rocoto). *Eur Food Res Technol*  
699 241:817–825. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00217-015-2506-y>

700 Meyer RS, Purugganan MD (2013) Evolution of crop species: genetics of domestication and  
701 diversification. *Nat Rev Genet* 14:840–852. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nrg3605>

702 Morandini N, Urtasun M, Lamas C, Cornejo I, Giaminola E (2024) Las plantas alimenticias en un  
703 sector de las yungas de Salta y Jujuy. In: Sharry SE, Suárez GD (coords) *Uso sostenible de la*  
704 *biodiversidad en bosques nativos de Argentina*. Editorial de la Universidad Nacional de La Plata,  
705 La Plata, pp 232–249. <https://doi.org/10.35537/10915/170376>

706 Moscone EA, Scaldaferrero MA, Grabile M, Cecchini NM, Sánchez García Y, Jarret R, Daviña JR,  
707 Ducasse DA, Barboza GE, Ehrendorfer F (2007) The evolution of chili peppers (*Capsicum*–  
708 *Solanaceae*): a cytogenetic perspective. *Acta Horti* 745:137–169.  
709 <https://doi.org/10.17660/ActaHortic.2007.745.5>

710 Oboh G, Rocha JBT (2007) Distribution and antioxidant activity of polyphenols in ripe and unripe  
711 tree pepper (*Capsicum pubescens*). *J Food Biochem* 31:456–473. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1745-4514.2007.00123.x>

712

713 Onus AN, Pickersgill B (2004) Unilateral incompatibility in *Capsicum* (Solanaceae): occurrence and  
714 taxonomic distribution. *Ann Bot* 94:289–295. <https://doi.org/10.1093/aob/mch139>

715 Ou L, Li D, Lv J, Chen W, Zhang Z, Li X, Yang B, Zhou S, Yang S, Li W, Gao H, Zeng Q, Yu H,  
716 Ouyang B, Li F, Liu F, Zheng J, Liu Y, Wang J, Wang B, Dai X, Ma Y, Zou X (2018) Pan-  
717 genome of cultivated pepper (*Capsicum*) and its use in gene presence–absence variation analyses.  
718 *New Phytol* 220:360–363. <https://doi.org/10.1111/nph.15413>

719 Palombo NE, Carrizo García C (2022) Geographical patterns of genetic variation in locoto chile  
720 (*Capsicum pubescens*) in the Americas inferred by genome-wide data analysis. *Plants*  
721 11(21):2911. <https://doi.org/10.3390/plants11212911>

722 Palombo NE, Weiss-Schneeweiss H, Carrizo García C (2024) Evolutionary relationships,  
723 hybridization and diversification under domestication of the locoto chile (*Capsicum pubescens*)  
724 and its wild relatives. *Front Plant Sci* 15:1353991. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpls.2024.1353991>

725 Parisi M, Alioto D, Tripodi P (2020) Overview of biotic stresses in pepper (*Capsicum* spp.): sources  
726 of genetic resistance, molecular breeding and genomics. *Int J Mol Sci* 21(7):2587.  
727 <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms21072587>

728 Pérez-Grajales M, González-Hernández VA, Mendoza-Castillo MC, Peña-Valdivia C, Peña-Lomelí  
729 A, Sahagún-Castellanos J (2004) Physiological characterization of manzano hot pepper

730 (*Capsicum pubescens* R & P) landraces. J Am Soc Hortic Sci 129:88–92.  
731 <https://doi.org/10.21273/JASHS.129.1.88>

732 Perry L, Dickau R, Zarrillo S, Holst I, Pearsall DM, Piperno DR, Berman MJ, Cooke RG, Rademaker  
733 K, Ranere AJ, Raymond JS, Sandweiss DH, Scaramelli F, Tarble K, Zeidler JA (2007) Starch  
734 fossils and the domestication and dispersal of chili peppers (*Capsicum* spp.) in the Americas.  
735 Science 315:986–988. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1136914>

736 Petrucci N, Acosta ME, Lambaré DA, Pochettino ML, Hilgert NI (2022) La relación del turismo  
737 gastronómico y la agrodiversidad en Humahuaca (Jujuy, Argentina): una visión desde la  
738 etnobotánica. Bol Soc Argent Bot 57:131–151.  
739 <https://doi.org/10.31055/1851.2372.v57.n1.32684>

740 Pickersgill B (1971) Relationships between weedy and cultivated forms in some species of chili  
741 peppers (genus *Capsicum*). Evolution 25:683–691. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2406949>

742 Pochettino ML, Puentes JP, Buet Costantino F, Arenas PM, Ulibarri EA, Hurrell JA (2012)  
743 Functional foods and nutraceuticals in a market of Bolivian immigrants in Buenos Aires  
744 (Argentina). Evid Based Complementary Altern Med 2012:320193.  
745 <https://doi.org/10.1155/2012/320193>

746 Rick CM (1950) *Capsicum pubescens*, a little-known pungent pepper from Latin America. Missouri  
747 Bot Gard Bull 38:36–42.

748 Rivas M, Vignale D, Ordoñez RM, Zampini IC, Alberto MR, Sayago JE, Isla MI (2014) Nutraceutical  
749 properties and toxicity studies of flour obtained from *Capsicum pubescens* fruits and its  
750 comparison with “Locoto” commercial powder. Food Nutr Sci 5:715–724.  
751 <http://dx.doi.org/10.4236/fns.2014.58081>

752 Rodríguez Pastor HR (2016) El rocoto en tiempos de la globalización. Investigaciones Sociales  
753 20:89–100. <https://doi.org/10.15381/is.v20i37.13428>

754 Ross-Ibarra J, Morrell PL, Gaut BS (2007) Plant domestication, a unique opportunity to identify the  
755 genetic basis of adaptation. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 104(Suppl 1):8641–8648.  
756 <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0700643104>

757 Ruiz H, Pavón J (1799) Flora Peruviana et Chilensis, Tomus II. Typis Gabrielis de Sancha, Madrid.  
758 <https://bibdigital.rjb.csic.es/idurl/1/9773>

759 Salas-Zeta EL, Bernal-Canales KL, Delgado-Lazo A, Pacheco-Lizárraga G, Hermoza-Gutiérrez M,  
760 Cántaro-Segura H, Fernández-Huaytalla E, Gutiérrez-Reynoso DL, Quispe-Jacobo F, Ccapa-  
761 Ramirez K (2026) Comprehensive morpho-functional profiling of Peruvian Andean *Capsicum*  
762 *pubescens* germplasm reveals promising accessions with high agronomic and nutraceutical  
763 value. Plants 15(2):288. <https://doi.org/10.3390/plants15020288>

- 764 Saborío M, Da Costa C (1992) Autoincompatibilidad en *Capsicum pubescens*. *Agronomía*  
765 *Costarricense* 16(2):279–286
- 766 Salgado N, Jurado-Eraza DK, Galvis-Nieto JD, Narváez JM, Franco G, López WR, Cardona CA,  
767 Orrego CE (2026) Environmental impact of rocoto chili pepper production: integrated  
768 assessment of yield, bioactive composition, and environmental footprint. *Int J Life Cycle Assess*  
769 31(5):73. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11367-026-02631-2>
- 770 Scaldaferrero MA (2019) Molecular cytogenetic evidence of hybridization in the “purple corolla clade  
771 of the genus *Capsicum*” (*C. eximium* × *C. cardenasii*). *Plant Biosyst* 154(5):685–691.  
772 <https://doi.org/10.1080/11263504.2019.1674403>
- 773 Scaldaferrero MA, Moscone EA (2019) Cytology and DNA content variation of *Capsicum* genomes.  
774 In: Ramchiary N, Kole C (eds) *The Capsicum Genome*. Springer, Cham, pp 57–84.  
775 [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-97217-6\\_4](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-97217-6_4)
- 776 Silvar C, García-González CA (2016) Deciphering genetic diversity in the origins of pepper  
777 (*Capsicum* spp.) and comparison with worldwide variability. *Crop Sci* 56: 3100–3111.  
778 <https://doi.org/10.2135/cropsci2016.02.0128>
- 779 Silvar C, García-González CA (2020) Phytochemical assessment of native Ecuadorian peppers  
780 (*Capsicum* spp.) and correlation analysis to fruit phenomics. *Plants* 9(8):986.  
781 <https://doi.org/10.3390/plants9080986>
- 782 Tapia FF, Campos MA (2016) Tumbo y locoto en la región de Arica y Parinacota. *Boletín INIA No.*  
783 *329*. Instituto de Investigaciones Agropecuarias, Santiago.  
784 <http://biblioteca.inia.cl/medios/biblioteca/boletines/NR40488.pdf>
- 785 Tong N, Bosland PW (1999) *Capsicum tovarii*, a new member of the *Capsicum baccatum* complex.  
786 *Euphytica* 109:71–77. <https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1003421217077>
- 787 Long Towell J (2009) Los senderos prehispánicos del *Capsicum*. In: Long Towell J, Lecón AA  
788 (coords) *Caminos y mercados de México*. Instituto de Investigaciones Históricas, Universidad  
789 Nacional Autónoma de México, Ciudad de México, pp 79–106  
790 <http://www.historicas.unam.mx/publicaciones/publicadigital/libros/caminosymercados/mercados.html>  
791 [os.html](http://www.historicas.unam.mx/publicaciones/publicadigital/libros/caminosymercados/mercados.html)
- 792 Ulian T, Diazgranados M, Pironon S, Padulosi S, Liu U, Davies L, Howes JR, Borrell JS, Ondo I,  
793 Pérez-Escobar OA, Sharrock S, Ryan P, Hunter D, Lee MA, Barstow C, Łuczaj Ł, Pieroni A,  
794 Cámara-Leret R, Noorani A, Mba C, Womdim RM, Muminjanov H, Antonelli A, Pritchard HW,  
795 Mattana E (2020) Unlocking plant resources to support food security and promote sustainable  
796 agriculture. *Plants People Planet* 2(5):421–445. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ppp3.10145>
- 797 van Zonneveld M, Ramirez M, Williams DE, Petz M, Meckelmann S, Avila T, Bejarano C, Ríos LL,

- 798 Peña K, Jäger M, Libreros D, Amaya K, Scheldeman X (2015) Screening genetic resources of  
799 *Capsicum* peppers in their primary center of diversity in Bolivia and Peru. PLoS One 10(9).  
800 <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0134663>
- 801 Villagómez J, Martínez B, González E (1999) Manejo del cultivo del locoto. PROBIOMA, Santa  
802 Cruz
- 803 Walsh BM, Hoot SB (2001) Phylogenetic relationships of *Capsicum* (Solanaceae) using DNA  
804 sequences from two noncoding regions: the chloroplast *atpB-rbcL* spacer region and nuclear  
805 *waxy* introns. Int J Plant Sci 162(6):1409–1418. <https://doi.org/10.1086/323273>
- 806 Xingú-López A, Espinoza-Gutierrez D, Miranda-Gómez JM, Cruz-Gutierrez J, Pérez-González CK  
807 (2025) *Capsicum pubescens*: situación actual y tendencias futuras en el Estado de México. Padi  
808 Boletín Científico de Ciencias Básicas e Ingenierías del ICBI 13:115–121.  
809 <https://doi.org/10.29057/icbi.v13iEspecial2.14636>
- 810 Yacovleff E, Herrera F (1934) El mundo vegetal de los antiguos peruanos. Revista del Museo  
811 Nacional 3:241–322
- 812 Yamamoto S, Djarwaningsih T, Wiriadinata H (2013) *Capsicum pubescens* (Solanaceae) in  
813 Indonesia: its history, taxonomy, and distribution. Econ Bot 67(2):161–170.  
814 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12231-013-9230-y>
- 815 Yamamoto S, Djarwaningsih T, Wiriadinata H (2016) Distribution and cultivation practices of  
816 *Capsicum pubescens* on the islands of Java, Sumatra, and Sulawesi, Indonesia. The Journal of  
817 Island Studies 17(1):67–87. <https://doi.org/10.5995/jis.17.1.67>
- 818 Yapo-Cárdenas FM, Pacheco-Lizárraga, GA (2023) Manual de manejo agronómico de rocoto.  
819 Instituto Nacional de Innovación Agraria, Lima. <https://hdl.handle.net/20.500.12955/2069>
- 820 Yaqub C, Smith PG (1971) Nature and inheritance of self-incompatibility in *Capsicum pubescens*  
821 and *C. cardenasii*. Hilgardia 40(12):459–470. <https://doi.org/10.3733/hilg.v40n12p459>
- 822 Zhang K, Yu H, Zhang L. et al. (2025) Transposon proliferation drives genome architecture and  
823 regulatory evolution in wild and domesticated peppers. Nat Plants 11:359–375.  
824 <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41477-025-01905-1>