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DETAILED CHARACTERIZATION OF LECTIN GENES IN COMMON BEAN USING BIOINFORMATIC TOOLS

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ABSTRACT. Because of differences in molecular structure, biochemical properties, and carbohydrate binding specificity, lectins are considered a complex and heterogeneous group of proteins found in all organisms. Plant lectins are important proteins in terms of their benefits in cancer treatments, biomedical applications, and many medical uses due to their numerous biological roles such as intercellular interactions, defense mechanisms formation, immunomodulation, and anticarcinogenic activity. Despite the discovery of significant amounts of lectin proteins in different plant species, many questions about their potential biological role remain unanswered in *P. vulgaris* L. In this study, using bioinformatics tools, 52 *Pvul-LEC* genes were identified in the *P. vulgaris* genome and these genes were clustered into three subgroups based on phylogenetic analysis. The majority of *Pvul-LEC* proteins in the same subfamily of phylogenetic tree shared similar motifs and gene structures. Eight pairs of segmental duplications were discovered based on genome wide duplication analysis. *Pvul-LEC* proteins' three-dimensional structure and functions were also predicted. Simultaneously, gene expression levels of *Pvul-LEC* genes against drought and salt stress in leaf tissues were evaluated based on publicly available RNAseq data. As a result, it is anticipated that the data obtained in the current study will be beneficial to literature and following studies related to lectin genes.

1. INTRODUCTION

Lectins are proteins that bind reversibly to carbohydrate epitopes on polysaccharides, glycoproteins and glycolipids. They can be found in animals, plants, fungi, bacteria and viruses [1]. Because of variances in molecular structure, biochemical characteristics and carbohydrate binding selectivity, plant lectins are thought to constitute a complex and heterogeneous group of proteins.

Keywords. Lectin, in-silico analysis, bioinformatics, common bean, RNAseq

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Plants contain lectins in a variety of parts, including seeds, leaves, bark, roots, tubers and fruits [2]. Many plant lectins linked to cell motility, cell-cell interaction, embryogenesis and organ formation have been identified as secretory proteins, meaning they enter the secretory system and accumulate in vacuoles, cell walls, or intercellular spaces [3-6].

Plants use lectins to protect themselves from insects and fungus, as well as to transport and store sugar [7]. To defend themselves against invading diseases, plants have evolved an innate immune system [8]. One of the major hormones regulating the pathogen-induced immune response in plants is salicylic acid (SA). The activation of a local sensitivity reaction that inhibits the biotrophic pathogen's proliferation is typical of this response [9]. According to the previous studies, lectin genes play a crucial role in SA biosynthesis. Using *Pseudomonas syringae* pv. *avirulence* strains on tomato, Armijo et al. (2013) found that increased expression levels of *SAI-LLP* genes triggered cells to avoid leaf death, suggesting that lectin genes are components of SA-mediated defensive pathways [10]. Luo et al. (2017) showed that *LecRK* genes have a role in plant immunological signaling and SA buildup [11]. Furthermore, some lectins are critical for nitrogen fixation in the atmosphere [7]. Lectins operate as immunomodulatory molecules in addition to having antinutritional effects [12-14]. They can adhere to the surface of epithelial cells in the digestive system and generate harmful responses in intestinal permeability because this category of proteins is always resistant to destruction by temperature and digestive enzymes [15, 16].

Plant lectins have also been reported to have biological and medical applications, including the isolation of glycoconjugates from cells, microorganism recognition, monitoring of changes in carbohydrate expression on living cells, mitogenic stimulation, anti-proliferative effects, anti-tumor, and drug targeting to the gastrointestinal tract [17-20]. Lectins are one of the most studied protein groups because to their extraordinary biological roles [18]. They are found in legumes, which are an essential food source for both humans and animals. *Phaseolus vulgaris*, a legume, is grown for direct human consumption in a number of countries. Protein (22-27 percent of seed weight) and carbs (39-47 percent of seed weight) are abundant in *P. vulgaris* L., making it an excellent food. Although lectins have been discovered in large quantities in *P. vulgaris*, many issues about their biological function remain unanswered [21, 22].

Plant lectins, specifically *P. vulgaris* lectins, have been found to inhibit leukemia viruses, acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS) virus, and coronaviruses potently and selectively [23, 24]. As a result, *P. vulgaris* lectins exceptional anti-HIV effectiveness has become a major research topic in recent years. Total parenteral nutrition (TPN) is a valuable medical treatment option that satisfies all of the body's nutritional requirements. Because they can bind to diverse areas of the gastrointestinal tract and induce epithelial proliferation, *P. vulgaris* lectins have recently been proposed as medicines to prevent mucosal atrophy and related

difficulties when patients receive TPN [25]. Furthermore, in recent years, lectin-mediated drug delivery methods have spawned fascinating fields of research in terms of lectin binding to receptor-like structures of the cell membrane and epithelial cells and initiating active transport of medicinal components [26].

Consumption of *P. vulgaris* lectins is critical due to multiple health hazards and major pharmacological effects in humans, however not all of the *Pvul-LEC* genes have been found and characterized so far. For this reason, this study will be used to strategically accompany future studies by discovering *Pvul-LEC* genes utilizing bioinformatics methods.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1. Identification of lectin proteins in *P. vulgaris* genome

P. vulgaris lectin family sequences were obtained from NCBI (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/>) and Pfam databases [27]. Putative *P. vulgaris* lectin proteins were used for query in blastp (NCBI) for characterization of hypothetical proteins. The physicochemical properties of lectin proteins were calculated using ProtParam Tool (<http://web.expasy.org/protparam>) and detection of domains was performed using HMMER (<http://www.ebi.ac.uk/Tools/hmmer/>).

2.2. Structure and physical locations of lectin genes and conserved motifs

'Gene Structure Display Server v2.0' (GSDS, <http://gsds.gao-lab.org>) was used to illustrate the exon–intron structure of *Pvul-LEC* genes [28]. The lectin genes have been mapped on *P. vulgaris* chromosomes using the MapChart program [29]. Multiple Expectation Maximizations for Motif Elicitation tool (EM) was used to categorize additional conserved motifs for *Pvul-LEC* proteins (MEME 4.11.1; <http://meme-suite.org/>) [30].

2.3. Phylogenetic analysis and sequence alignment

The ClustalW was used to align various sequences of lectin proteins [31]. For the creation of phylogenetic trees with a bootstrap value of 1000 replicates (MEGA11), the Neighbor-joining (NJ) method was used, and the tree was constructed using an Interactive Life Tree (iTOL; <http://itol.embl.de/index.shtml>) [32].

2.4. Promoter analysis of lectin genes

The PlantCARE database was used to do a cis element scan on the 5' upstream

regions (2 kb of DNA sequence from each *Pvul-LEC* gene) using the Phytozome database v11 (<http://bioinformatics.psb.ugent.be/webtools/plantcare/html/>).

2.5. In-silico prediction of miRNA targets in lectin genes

MiRBase v21.0. has been used to download all known miRNA plant sequences (<http://www.mirbase.org>). The default miRNA prediction parameters were applied using the psRNA Target Server (<http://plantgrn.noble.org/psRNATarget>) [33]. BLASTX was used to search in-silico predicted miRNA targets against common bean Expressed Sequenced Tags (ESTs) in the NCBI database with a $1e^{-10}$ threshold.

2.6. Detection of gene duplication events and prediction of synonymous and non-synonymous substitution rates

The Plant Genome Duplication Database service (<http://chibba.agtec.uga.edu/duplication/index/locus>) was used to examine duplicated gene pairs with a display range of 2000 kb. The amino acid sequences of duplicated lectin genes were predicted using the CLUSTALW program. To estimate synonymous (Ks) and non-synonymous (Ka) substitution rates, the PAML (PAL2NAL) CODEML program (<http://www.bork.embl.de/pal2nal>) was used [34]. The following formula was used to compute the duplication period (Million Years Ago, Mya) and divergence of each lectin gene: $T = Ks/2\lambda$ ($\lambda=6.56E^{-9}$) [35].

2.7. Identification of expression level of lectin genes through transcriptome data

Illumina RNA-seq data was collected from the Sequence Read Archive (SRA) to measure the *Pvul-LEC* gene expression levels. For this reason, the accession numbers SRR957667 (control leaf) and SRR957668 (salt-treated leaf) were used as defined by Büyük et al. (2016) [36, 37]. The heat maps of hierarchical clustering were eventually built using the CIMMiner algorithm (<http://discover.nci.nih.gov/cimminer>).

2.8. Homology modeling of lectin proteins

BLASTP (with default parameters) was used to search all lectin proteins against the Protein Data Bank (PDB) to identify the best template(s) with identical sequence and three-dimensional structure [38]. The data was loaded into Phyre2 (Protein Homology/AnalogY Recognition Engine; <http://www.sbg.bio.ic.ac.uk/phyre2>), which used homology modeling in 'intense' mode to predict protein structure [39].

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1. Determination of *Pvul-LEC* genes in the genome of *P. vulgaris*

The analyses resulted in the discovery of 52 lectin genes encoded in the *P. vulgaris* genome. The order of chromosome placement was taken into account when naming the genes, and all lectin genes were categorized into two groups based on their domain types: Legume lectin domain (Lectin legB) and L-Type Lectin. According to this, starting from *Pvul-LLEC-1* to *Pvul-LLEC-30*, and starting from *Pvul-BLEC-1* to *Pvul-BLEC-22*, the naming process was carried out using the Latin name of the bean plant (*Phaseolus vulgaris*).

According to the studies, lectin legB plays a critical role in biotic and abiotic stress responses. For example, Jiang et al. (2010) discovered that lectin *legB* genes revealed a wide range of expression profiles, especially under salt, cold and drought stress and that they may operate as a regulator of environmental conditions. With their work on *Arabidopsis*, it was also hypothesized that lectin legB and the kinase domains, a structurally conserved protein domain that carries out the phosphorylation process common to all living things, may have duplicated to protect against stressors during the evolutionary process [40].

L-type lectins are mostly present in the seeds of leguminous plants, and they are delivered to the vacuole where they are condensed by specific vesicles after being generated during seed development a few weeks after blooming. L-type lectins remain stable during the drying process of the seeds and can do so indefinitely until the seeds germinate. They are typically referred to as storage proteins because they are one of several types of proteins that are kept in high concentrations in seeds [41, 42]. L-type lectins, which have structural motifs seen in glycan-binding proteins, are also found in the bark of some legume trees and to a lesser extent in other vegetal tissues of legumes (GBPs). Most of their structures have been determined, and numerous L-type lectins have been reported to be employed in a variety of biological and analytical techniques [43]. L-type lectins also play a part in plant-nitrogen-fixing bacteria symbiosis, such as *Rhizobium-legumes* symbiosis, however the exact role of lectins in this system is unknown. However, investigations demonstrate that the seed lectin is a lipoxygenase with the activity required to start the plant defense pathway [7, 44].

So far, lectin genes have been identified in several plant species. The number of lectin genes (n=52) in *P. vulgaris* in this study is higher than the number identified in *Cucumis sativus* (n=46) [45] however less than the number identified in *Arabidopsis thaliana* (n=72) [46], *Setaria italica* (n=120), *Zea mays* (n=126), *Oryza sativa* (n=153), *Sorghum bicolor* (n=153), *Brachypodium distachyon* (n=204) and *Saccharum spontaneum* (n=429) [47].

Protein length (aa), the isoelectric point (pI), molecular weight (Da), instability index, aliphatic index and GRAVY value were calculated for all identified Pvul-LEC proteins. Accordingly, the lengths of Pvul-LEC proteins ranged from 259 to 699 amino acids. Additionally, 10 Pvul-LEC proteins were found to have basic and 42 Pvul-LEC proteins have acidic properties (Table 1). The molecular weights of Pvul-LEC proteins were between 26.96 to 78.50 kDa and 5 Pvul-LEC proteins were found to be unstable according to instability index scores. The most of the Pvul-LEC proteins were found to be hydrophilic according to the GRAVY values which ranged between -0.294 to 0.229 (Table 1).

The aliphatic index value, defined as the relative volume occupied by the aliphatic side chains (alanine, valine, isoleucine and leucine) can be considered to be a positive factor for enhancing global protein thermostability [48]. These values ranged from 73.71 to 96.06 for Pvul-LECs, suggesting the strong thermostability of these proteins.

All *Pvul-LEC* genes were found to be unevenly distributed on 10 out of 11 chromosomes of *P. vulgaris* with the exception of chromosome 9. Chromosome 1 contained the most *Pvul-LEC* genes (eleven), whereas chromosome 11 contained only one (Figure 1). Surprisingly, chromosome 4 contained only *Pvul-BLEC* genes while chromosome 5 and 6 contained only *Pvul-LLEC* genes. Dang et al. (2016) discovered that the lectin gene was found in all chromosomes (7 chromosomes) of *C. sativus* and at different rates, similar to *Pvul-LEC* genes [49]. In another study on the mungbean plant, Singh et al. (2021) classified lectin genes into three types: G-type, L-type, and C-type, and 59 of 73 *VrLecRLK* were randomly distributed on 11 chromosomes. Furthermore, the remaining *VrLecRLK* genes in the study were discovered to be unattached to any specific chromosome [50].

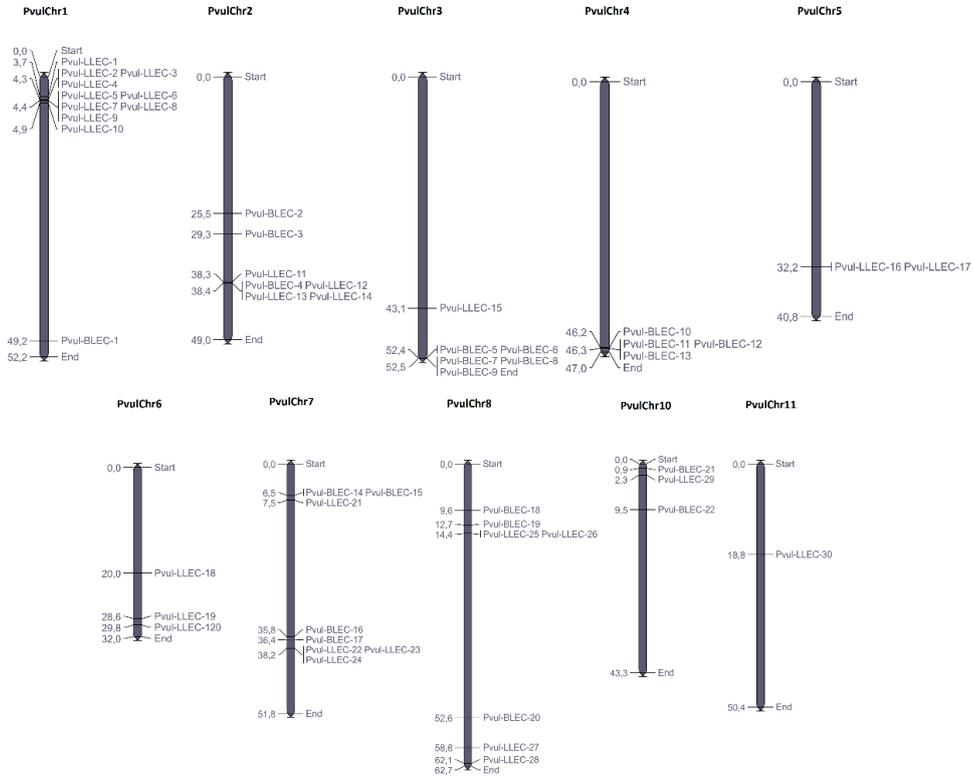


FIGURE 1. Distribution of *PvuI*-LEC genes on *P. vulgaris* chromosomes

TABLE 1. Detailed descriptive information for Pvul-LLEC proteins

| ID | Phaseolus vulgaris Genomic Database Identifier | Physical position on <i>P. vulgaris</i> genome | | | Protein length (aa) | pI | Molecular weight (kDa) | Instability index | Aliphatic index | GRAVY | NCBI Accession No. |
|--------------|--|--|---------------------|-------------------|---------------------|------|------------------------|-------------------|-----------------|--------|--------------------|
| | | Chr. | Start position (bp) | End Position (bp) | | | | | | | |
| Pvul-LLEC-1 | Phvul.001G045400.1.p | 1 | 3.677.580 | 3.680.026 | 667 | 6.04 | 75.27 | 32.38 | 87.06 | -0.176 | XP_007161136.1 |
| Pvul-LLEC-2 | Phvul.001G040800.1.p | 1 | 4.327.634 | 4.329.496 | 620 | 5.68 | 68.75 | 27.71 | 90.05 | -0.085 | XP_007161076.1 |
| Pvul-LLEC-3 | Phvul.001G040700.1.p | 1 | 4.336.106 | 4.338.606 | 672 | 5.77 | 74.99 | 28.89 | 83.11 | -0.189 | XP_007161075.1 |
| Pvul-LLEC-4 | Phvul.001G040600.1.p | 1 | 4.339.156 | 4.340.979 | 607 | 6.01 | 67.9 | 31.81 | 94.43 | -0.064 | XP_007161074.1 |
| Pvul-LLEC-5 | Phvul.001G040500.1.p | 1 | 4.359.201 | 4.361.618 | 661 | 5.73 | 73.92 | 25.07 | 89.05 | -0.14 | XP_007161073.1 |
| Pvul-LLEC-6 | Phvul.001G040400.1.p | 1 | 4.370.066 | 4.372.118 | 636 | 5.62 | 70.87 | 34.63 | 91.89 | -0.142 | XP_007161072.1 |
| Pvul-LLEC-7 | Phvul.001G040300.1.p | 1 | 4.379.952 | 4.382.583 | 664 | 5.63 | 73.98 | 25.57 | 87.91 | -0.161 | XP_007161071.1 |
| Pvul-LLEC-8 | Phvul.001G040100.1.p | 1 | 4.394.207 | 4.396.266 | 636 | 5.62 | 71.1 | 34.65 | 90.66 | -0.154 | XP_007161068.1 |
| Pvul-LLEC-9 | Phvul.001G040000.1.p | 1 | 4.399.520 | 4.401.949 | 666 | 5.83 | 74.15 | 25.7 | 88.11 | -0.129 | XP_007161067.1 |
| Pvul-LLEC-10 | Phvul.001G234200.1.p | 1 | 4.880.986 | 4.881.980 | 664 | 8.68 | 73.85 | 33.83 | 92.3 | -0.104 | XP_007163432.1 |
| Pvul-LLEC-11 | Phvul.002G214900.1.p | 2 | 38.345.248 | 38.347.335 | 695 | 5.85 | 77.3 | 32.79 | 87.8 | -0.128 | XP_007159169.1 |
| Pvul-LLEC-12 | Phvul.002G215200.1.p | 2 | 38.371.310 | 38.373.253 | 647 | 7.31 | 72.85 | 30.71 | 85.09 | -0.229 | XP_007159173.1 |
| Pvul-LLEC-13 | Phvul.002G215300.1.p | 2 | 38.383.003 | 38.384.994 | 663 | 7.32 | 74.17 | 31.47 | 90.89 | -0.201 | XP_007159174.1 |
| Pvul-LLEC-14 | Phvul.002G215400.1.p | 2 | 38.393.780 | 38.395.786 | 668 | 6.75 | 75.53 | 36.9 | 91.44 | -0.147 | XP_007159175.1 |
| Pvul-LLEC-15 | Phvul.003G204500.1.p | 3 | 43.061.296 | 43.063.308 | 670 | 5.11 | 73.7 | 42.72 | 86.1 | -0.074 | XP_007155476.1 |
| Pvul-LLEC-16 | Phvul.005G103200.1.p | 5 | 32.195.113 | 32.197.596 | 691 | 5.99 | 77.7 | 41.04 | 86.43 | -0.115 | XP_007149844.1 |
| Pvul-LLEC-17 | Phvul.005G103300.1.p | 5 | 32.198.665 | 32.200.731 | 688 | 6.34 | 77.07 | 34.86 | 91.89 | -0.078 | XP_007149845.1 |
| Pvul-LLEC-18 | Phvul.006G087700.1.p | 6 | 19.974.245 | 19.976.281 | 678 | 5.75 | 72.71 | 36.68 | 85.27 | -0.04 | XP_007146994.1 |
| Pvul-LLEC-19 | Phvul.006G185000.1.p | 6 | 28.613.191 | 28.616.354 | 692 | 5.51 | 78.5 | 36.34 | 89.22 | -0.143 | XP_007148157.1 |
| Pvul-LLEC-20 | Phvul.006G200800.1.p | 6 | 29.750.251 | 29.752.428 | 639 | 6.96 | 72.04 | 36.62 | 88.17 | -0.155 | XP_007148350.1 |
| Pvul-LLEC-21 | Phvul.007G078200.1.p | 7 | 7.489.146 | 7.491.182 | 678 | 6.24 | 75.42 | 41.56 | 84.1 | -0.087 | XP_007143518.1 |
| Pvul-LLEC-22 | Phvul.007G260300.1.p | 7 | 38.169.156 | 38.172.057 | 670 | 6.25 | 74.86 | 36.79 | 84.51 | -0.263 | XP_007145693.1 |
| Pvul-LLEC-23 | Phvul.007G260400.2.p | 7 | 38.176.633 | 38.178.637 | 450 | 7.61 | 50.66 | 39.48 | 84.6 | -0.294 | XP_007145694.1 |
| Pvul-LLEC-24 | Phvul.007G260500.1.p | 7 | 38.182.876 | 38.185.141 | 657 | 6.43 | 72.94 | 37.51 | 88.23 | -0.212 | XP_007145695.1 |
| Pvul-LLEC-25 | Phvul.008G117700.1.p | 8 | 14.407.039 | 14.409.057 | 672 | 7.01 | 74.2 | 34.28 | 99.33 | -0.066 | XP_007140498.1 |
| Pvul-LLEC-26 | Phvul.008G117800.1.p | 8 | 14.436.075 | 14.438.400 | 668 | 7.32 | 73.97 | 33.83 | 94.03 | -0.115 | XP_007140499.1 |
| Pvul-LLEC-27 | Phvul.008G239600.1.p | 8 | 58.823.983 | 58.826.861 | 699 | 5.59 | 74.93 | 33.42 | 87.78 | -0.018 | XP_007141948.1 |
| Pvul-LLEC-28 | Phvul.008G279300.1.p | 8 | 62.071.477 | 62.073.771 | 662 | 6.64 | 72.8 | 38.34 | 86.56 | -0.003 | XP_007142422.1 |
| Pvul-LLEC-29 | Phvul.010G015800.1.p | 10 | 2.345.298 | 2.347.358 | 686 | 5.74 | 75.22 | 36.4 | 93.76 | -0.068 | XP_007134058.1 |
| Pvul-LLEC-30 | Phvul.011G119200.1.p | 11 | 18.774.057 | 18.775.652 | 531 | 5.98 | 59.06 | 34.97 | 94.11 | -0.007 | XP_007132721.1 |

TABLE 2. Detailed descriptive information for Pvul-BLEC proteins

| ID | <i>Phaseolus vulgaris</i> Genomic Database Identifier | Physical position on <i>P. vulgaris</i> genome | | | Protein length (aa) | pI | Molecular weight (Da) | Instability index | Aliphatic index | GRAVY | NCBI Accession No. |
|---------------------|---|--|---------------------|-------------------|------------------------|------|--------------------------|----------------------|--------------------|--------|-----------------------|
| | | Chr. | Start position (bp) | End Position (bp) | | | | | | | |
| <i>Pvul-BLEC-1</i> | Phvul.001G239200.1.p | 1 | 49.244.673 | 49.246.082 | 345 | 5.28 | 37.51 | 28.22 | 89.77 | -0.126 | XP_007163496.1 |
| <i>Pvul-BLEC-2</i> | Phvul.002G119900.1.p | 2 | 25.542.601 | 25.545.814 | 693 | 6.16 | 76.67 | 33.71 | 90.71 | -0.127 | XP_007158049.1 |
| <i>Pvul-BLEC-3</i> | Phvul.002G144200.1.p | 2 | 29.269.216 | 29.270.007 | 263 | 4.72 | 28.25 | 34.77 | 87.07 | 0.102 | XP_007158339.1 |
| <i>Pvul-BLEC-4</i> | Phvul.002G215000.1.p | 2 | 38.350.955 | 38.353.003 | 664 | 6.01 | 73.69 | 35.44 | 88.09 | -0.133 | XP_007159169.1 |
| <i>Pvul-BLEC-5</i> | Phvul.003G286700.1.p | 3 | 52.442.001 | 52.442.780 | 259 | 4.87 | 27.66 | 32.2 | 88.84 | 0.214 | XP_007156448.1 |
| <i>Pvul-BLEC-6</i> | Phvul.003G286800.1.p | 3 | 52.444.624 | 52.445.439 | 271 | 4.93 | 29.7 | 30.56 | 87.05 | 0.049 | XP_007156449.1 |
| <i>Pvul-BLEC-7</i> | Phvul.003G286900.1.p | 3 | 52.450.066 | 52.450.845 | 259 | 6.21 | 27.85 | 36.21 | 93.4 | 0.223 | XP_007156450.1 |
| <i>Pvul-BLEC-8</i> | Phvul.003G287000.1.p | 3 | 52.452.303 | 52.453.082 | 259 | 4.69 | 27.72 | 32.79 | 88.84 | 0.229 | XP_007156451.1 |
| <i>Pvul-BLEC-9</i> | Phvul.003G287101.1.p | 3 | 52.459.994 | 52.462.334 | 449 | 6.35 | 49.81 | 36.53 | 96.06 | -0.032 | XP_007156452.1 |
| <i>Pvul-BLEC-10</i> | Phvul.004G158000.1.p | 4 | 46.239.426 | 46.240.567 | 277 | 4.73 | 29.97 | 24.31 | 89.03 | -0.02 | XP_007152769.1 |
| <i>Pvul-BLEC-11</i> | Phvul.004G158100.1.p | 4 | 46.258.583 | 46.259.432 | 244 | 5.03 | 26.96 | 33.15 | 83.85 | -0.22 | XP_007152770.1 |
| <i>Pvul-BLEC-12</i> | Phvul.004G158200.1.p | 4 | 46.261.905 | 46.262.865 | 279 | 5.15 | 30.26 | 21.46 | 95.05 | 0.031 | XP_007152771.1 |
| <i>Pvul-BLEC-13</i> | Phvul.004G158300.1.p | 4 | 46.267.391 | 46.268.336 | 272 | 4.92 | 29.55 | 26.45 | 89.56 | -0.041 | XP_007152772.1 |
| <i>Pvul-BLEC-14</i> | Phvul.007G070100.1.p | 7 | 6.474.389 | 6.475.216 | 275 | 5.37 | 30.64 | 31.26 | 73.71 | -0.29 | XP_007143413.1 |
| <i>Pvul-BLEC-15</i> | Phvul.007G070300.1.p | 7 | 6.481.954 | 6.483.109 | 299 | 5.3 | 32.91 | 27.95 | 79.57 | -0.223 | XP_007143415.1 |
| <i>Pvul-BLEC-16</i> | Phvul.007G234400.1.p | 7 | 35.840.909 | 35.843.746 | 643 | 7.96 | 70.63 | 41.18 | 84.07 | -0.189 | XP_007145382.1 |
| <i>Pvul-BLEC-17</i> | Phvul.007G239800.1.p | 7 | 36.355.865 | 36.356.814 | 274 | 5.53 | 29.36 | 34.33 | 91.5 | 0.039 | XP_007145445.1 |
| <i>Pvul-BLEC-18</i> | Phvul.008G094500.1.p | 8 | 9.626.760 | 9.628.781 | 673 | 5.25 | 74.54 | 34.81 | 88.78 | -0.156 | XP_007140223.1 |
| <i>Pvul-BLEC-19</i> | Phvul.008G111500.1.p | 8 | 12.658.909 | 12.659.979 | 356 | 9.28 | 39.36 | 34.84 | 82.33 | 0.057 | XP_007140433.1 |
| <i>Pvul-BLEC-20</i> | Phvul.008G188700.1.p | 8 | 52.631.783 | 52.634.655 | 677 | 7.28 | 75.82 | 38.29 | 85.64 | -0.18 | XP_007141356.1 |
| <i>Pvul-BLEC-21</i> | Phvul.010G006300.1.p | 10 | 923.471 | 924.954 | 348 | 9.2 | 38.09 | 32.36 | 85.34 | 0.063 | XP_007133954.1 |
| <i>Pvul-BLEC-22</i> | Phvul.010G060800.1.p | 10 | 9.503.176 | 9.505.775 | 662 | 5.47 | 73.7 | 45.83 | 89.08 | -0.096 | XP_007134605.1 |

In order to expand and diversify, genes engage in a dynamic replication process which is referred to as gene duplication. Specialized genes or new gene functions can arise as a result of these evolutionary processes. For this reason, the location of *Pvul-LEC* genes on *P. vulgaris* chromosomes was investigated, as well as their duplications. While no tandem duplication events were discovered, 8 pairs of segmental duplication events were detected in *Pvul-LEC* genes. The duplicated genes homologous (Ks) and non-homologous (Ka) exchange rates were calculated (Table 3). Accordingly, the calculated mean Ka/Ks ratios were found to be 0.12 and hence this is a purifying selection since $Ka / Ks < 1$ [51]. In addition, it was determined that the average time of duplications was 76.62 MYA (Table 3).

TABLE 3. Information regarding segmental duplication events between *Pvul-LEC* genes (Ka: non-synonymous divergence value; Ks: synonymous divergence value; Ka/Ks: rate of change; MYA: Million years ago)

| Gene IDs | Gene IDs | Ka | Ks | Ka/Ks | MYA |
|---------------------|---------------------|---------|--------|--------|--------|
| <i>Pvul-BLEC-3</i> | <i>Pvul-BLEC-5</i> | 46.1974 | 0.4735 | 0.0102 | 355,36 |
| <i>Pvul-LLEC-10</i> | <i>Pvul-LLEC-25</i> | 4.0418 | 0.2910 | 0.0720 | 31,09 |
| <i>Pvul-LLEC-16</i> | <i>Pvul-LLEC-19</i> | 3.0242 | 0.3787 | 0.1252 | 23,26 |
| <i>Pvul-LLEC-16</i> | <i>Pvul-LLEC-30</i> | 2.6967 | 0.3044 | 0.1129 | 20,74 |
| <i>Pvul-BLEC-18</i> | <i>Pvul-LLEC-29</i> | 11.3547 | 0.6572 | 0.0579 | 87,34 |
| <i>Pvul-LLEC-18</i> | <i>Pvul-LLEC-27</i> | 1.1548 | 0.1411 | 0.1222 | 88,83 |
| <i>Pvul-BLEC-19</i> | <i>Pvul-BLEC-21</i> | 0.7361 | 0.2274 | 0.3089 | 5,66 |
| <i>Pvul-LLEC-25</i> | <i>Pvul-LLEC-29</i> | 0.6383 | 0.1574 | 0.2465 | 4,91 |

A comparison was made between the 52 *Pvul-LEC* genes identified in the *P. vulgaris* genome and the lectin genes of *A. thaliana* and *G. max*. (Supplementary Table 1). As a result, 11 orthologous gene pairs were found to be shared between *Phaseolus vulgaris* and *Arabidopsis thaliana*, and 8 orthologous pairs were shared between *Phaseolus vulgaris* and *Glycine max*. The average Ka/Ks ratios were 0.07 and 0.028, respectively (Supplementary table 1).

When orthologous lectin genes between *P. vulgaris* and *G. max* were analyzed, it was discovered that approximately 88% of them were *Pvul-BLEC* genes. This situation has increased the possibility that the lectin *legB* genes were duplicated in the evolutionary process in parallel with the findings of Jiang et al. (2010) [40]. The number of *Pvul-LLEC* genes was compared to the total number of protein-coding genes in different genomes. Accordingly, *G. max*, *A. thaliana*, *T. aestivum* and *O. sativa* had rates of 60/56044 (0.107%), 42/27416 (0.153%), 84/99386 (0.085%), and 72/22273 (0.323%), respectively. In this study, the

number of protein-coding genes in *P. vulgaris* was determined to be 85,167, while the number of L-type genes was discovered to be 30, yielding a 30/85167 (0.035%) ratio. Various *LLEC* gene growth rates in different genomes, as well as changes in genome size, could explain differences in *Pvul-LLEC* gene copy counts. Furthermore, it was discovered that only *A. thaliana*, which included *Pvul-LLEC* genes, increased the L-type genes to a larger extent than the other types (55-57).

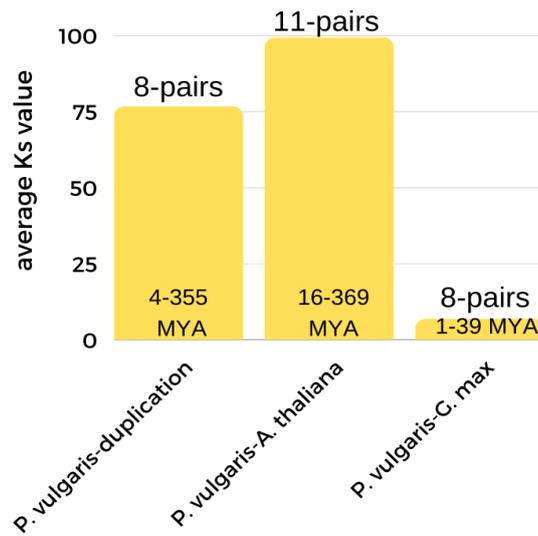


FIGURE 2. Time of duplication and divergence (MYA) based on synonymous substitution rate (Ks).

3.2. Structure of *Pvul-LLEC* genes, phylogenetic tree analysis, determination of preserved motifs, homology modeling and promoter analysis

The structure of *Pvul-LLEC* genes was investigated using exon and intron regions. Exon and intron regions play a significant role in modulating gene expression and regulating genes differently [52, 53]. There were no introns discovered in 42 of the *Pvul-LLEC* genes. The *Pvul-BLEC-16* gene was discovered to be the only one with multiple intron regions among all the genes examined. Furthermore, this gene has been found to have the most recent orthologous relationship with Glyma.20G072500, a *Glycine max LEC* gene (MYA=1.66). In a study on *Vigna radiata* (mung bean) [50], Singh et al. (2021) discovered that 27 *VrLecRLK* genes (out of 73 total) do not have introns. In soybean, Liu et al. (2018) discovered that nearly 70% of 60 L-type *GmLec* genes do not have intron regions [54]. The presence or lack of introns in many genomes has evolutionary

advantages for a gene's protein output by changing numerous characteristics, such as reverse transcriptase activity or mRNA stability [55].

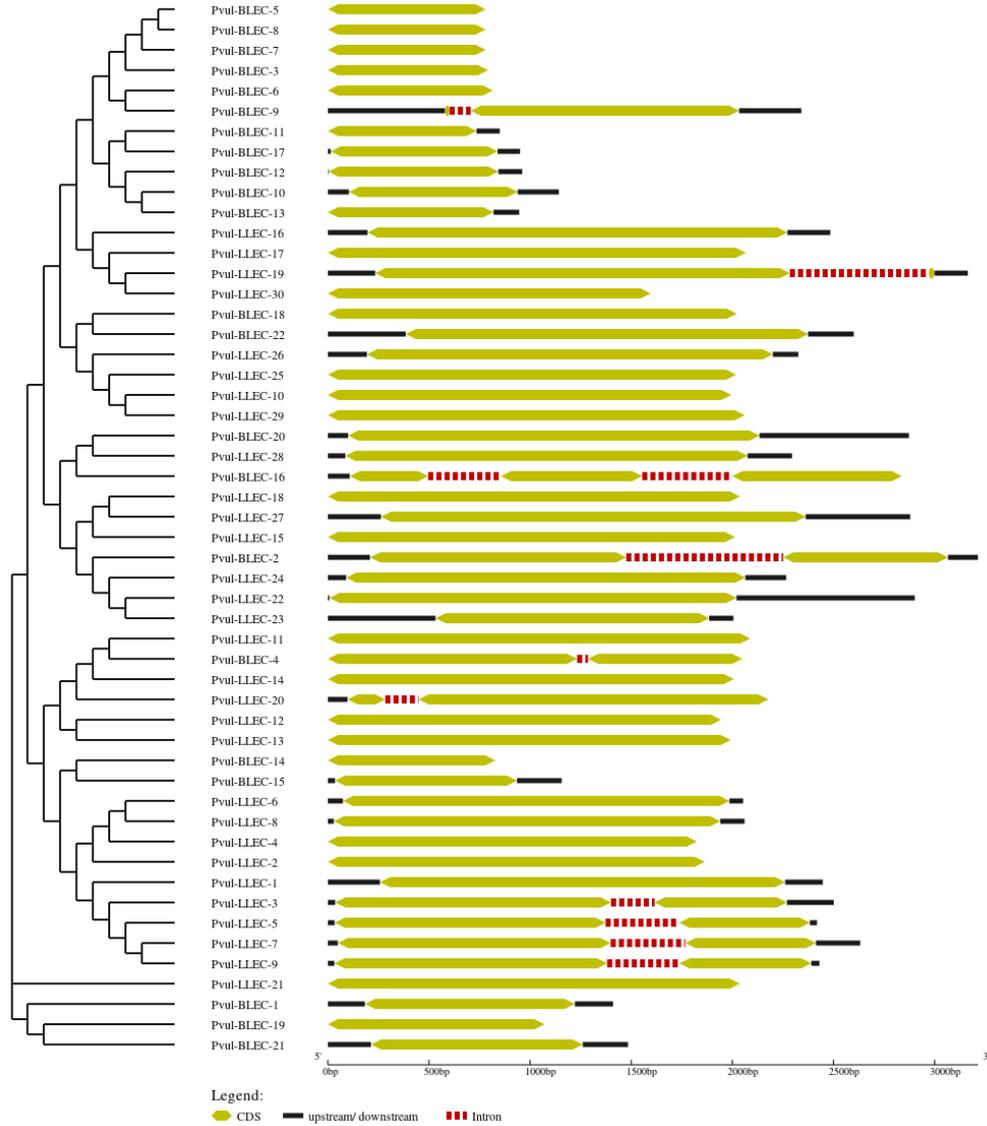


FIGURE 3. Gene structures of lectin family members from *P. vulgaris* with clustering based on NJ phylogenetic tree. Introns are presented by lines. UTR and CDS are indicated by filled black and green boxes, respectively.

A phylogenetic tree was drawn using the neighbor joining method using the evolutionary processes of different organisms (*P. vulgaris*, *A. thaliana* and *G. max*) to examine the kinship for lectin genes. The examined phylogenetic tree with 196 members was found to be divided into three major groups.

In genome investigations, the detection of conserved motifs is critical for protein identification and categorization, as well as the identification of functional areas and particular binding sites [56]. In this context, we evaluated the conserved motif structures of lectin proteins in the *P. vulgaris* genome, and the results were reported in Supplementary Table 2. Accordingly, twenty conserved motif patterns were found in 52 Pvul-LEC proteins. As a result, all *Pvul-LLEC* genes were found to contain Motifs 1, 2, 3, 5, and 9, while all *Pvul-BLEC* genes contained Motif 14.

In this study, homology was determined using modeling of Pvul-LEC proteins with a confidence level of 90% or higher in order to obtain information about the protein structures. As a result, all of the proteins were found to be 90% or more reliable belong to the Pvul-BLEC family. Legume lectin loops have a jelly roll subtopology, also known as a superfold [57]. This fold is thought to have had multiple evolutionary origins rather than a single common ancestor [58]. The fact that approximately 88 percent of the existing orthologous genes located between *Pvul-LEC* and *G. max* are *Pvul-BLEC* genes supports the findings.

The hydrogen bond pattern between adjacent strands is broken in two places, resulting in the formation of two four-stranded sheets. Because adjacent strips appear in different layers, both layers are completely anti-parallel, with the exception of the fourth and fifth strands, which appear in the same layer. This results in a structure with a single hairpin and arched - junctions [59]. When Pvul-BLEC proteins were examined, anti-parallel – structures could be found in all of them. In addition to these structures, almost all Pvul-BLEC proteins had alpha structures (Figure 5).

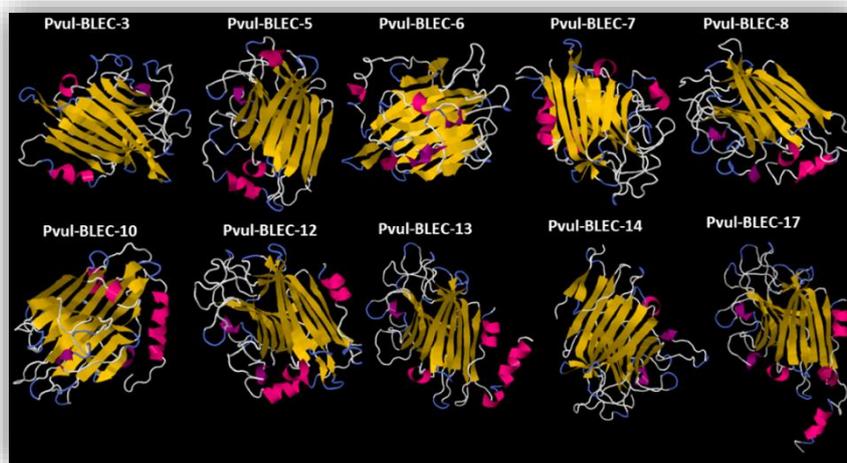


FIGURE 5. Predicted 3D models of common bean Pvul-BLEC proteins. Models were generated by using Phyre2 server. The secondary structure elements: α -helices (pink), β -sheets (yellow), and coils (blue-white) are indicated for the predicted 3D structures of Pvul-BLECs.

Cis-acting regulatory sequence elements are involved in the transcriptional regulation of gene activities, which control many biological processes, particularly abiotic stress responses, hormones, and development [60]. In this study, *in silico* promoter analysis was done in order to better understand the regulatory mechanisms of *Pvul-LEC* genes. The discovered cis-acting elements were classified into following eight categories: development, environmental stress, hormone, light, promoter, site binding, biotic stress, and others (Supplementary Table 3).

Plants require a variety of signaling chemicals, including SA (Salicylic acid), JA (Jasmonic acid), ABA (Abscisic acid), and ET (Ethylene) to respond to stress. MYCs, which are the major regulators of the JA signaling pathway and are categorized in the environmental stress category, are found in roughly 55% (29 genes) of *Pvul-LEC* genes. MYB, which is categorized in the biotic stress category and is known to have a role in the regulation of auxins as well as drought, salt, and abscisic acid, was discovered to be present in around 53% of *Pvul-LEC* genes (28 genes). In the promoters of 20, 19, and 11 *Pvul-LEC* genes, ABA-sensitive elements (ABREs), MeJA-responsive elements (CGTCA-pattern), and SA-responsive elements (TCA-elements) were found respectively. Additionally, *Pvul-LLEC-12* and *Pvul-BLEC-6* genes, which both have ABRE, CGTCA motif, TCA-element and WUN-motifs, were found to reveal almost same expression patterns according to the heatmaps drawn in this study (Figure 6 and 7).

3.3. Detection of miRNAs targeting *Pvul-LEC* genes

Plants exposed to abiotic stress factors develop response mechanisms at the transcriptome level. MiRNAs, in addition to TF in restoring metabolism, are involved in the regulation of gene expression [61, 62]. Under abiotic stress conditions, plants can increase or decrease the efficiency of miRNAs or synthesize new miRNAs [62]. MiRNAs and associated *Pvul-LEC* genes were identified in this study (Supplementary Table 4). A total of 8226 targets were examined, and it was discovered that the most targeted gene was *Pvul-LLEC-14* among all *Pvul-LLEC* genes, and the most targeted gene was *Pvul-BLEC-4* among all *Pvul-BLEC* genes. It was worth noting that both genes were clustered together in the phylogenetic tree's group C (Figure 4).

MiRNAs targeting *Pvul-LLEC-14* gene, which was most targeted *Pvul-LLEC* gene, were studied based on the targeting frequency. Among these, miR169 is a miRNA which involves in early flowering. Additionally, in a study to grow resistant tobacco varieties, Jianyu et al. (2019) discovered that miRNA169 played a role in response to low temperature stress. In the same study, LTR elements were detected in the promoter region of the genes targeted by miR169 in tobacco [63]. Similarly, an LTR element was also found in the promoter region of the *Pvul-LLEC-14* gene. Based on this information, it is believed that the

miR169 and LTR element may interact to reveal stress response in *P. vulgaris* under stress conditions.

MiR395, is an another miRNA targeted *Pvul-LLEC-14* gene, has been identified as a regulatory component of the sulfate assimilation network [64]. The expression of miR395 was also found to change in response to environmental stimuli [65]. MiR5241 was found to be significantly increased in a study by Cao et al (2018) that examined the responses of miRNAs to salt and alkali stress in *Medicago truncatula* [66].

At the same time, the frequency of miRNA targeting of the *Pvul-BLEC-4* gene was investigated. Plants have a set of defensive responses to prevent pathogen invasion. Some of these defense mechanisms are built into the plant, while others can be triggered by pathogen detection. According to our findings, miR160 is involved in the local defense mechanism, and Natarjan et al. (2018) discovered an increased susceptibility to infection in potato associated with miR160 regulation [67].

We hypothesize that the interaction of *Pvul-BLEC-4* - miR160 - SA may have an antagonistic effect against infections because lectin genes are known to play a central role in SA biosynthesis. According to the literature, miR172 confers plant tolerance, particularly against salt stress and water deficiency, but increases ABA sensitivity. In a study on Arabidopsis, it was discovered that overexpression of miR172 kept the plant alive [68].

3.4. Tissue-specific mRNA levels of the *Pvul-LEC* genes

The expression data of *Pvul-LEC* genes in various tissues (flower buds, flowers, leaves, stem 10, young pods, stem 19, young trifoliats, root 10, root 19, green mature pods and nodules) was obtained from the Phytosome v12 database and a heat map was plotted (Figure 6). Accordingly, *Pvul-BLEC-1*, *Pvul-LLEC-15*, *Pvul-LLEC-16*, *Pvul-LLEC-18* and *Pvul-LLEC-27* genes were found to be highly expressed in all tissues in comparison to the other *Pvul-LEC* genes (Figure 6). Genes with similar expression levels were surprisingly found to be located in the same phylogenetic groups (Figure 4 and Figure 6). For example, *Pvul-LLEC-15*, *Pvul-LLEC-16*, *Pvul-LLEC-18* and *Pvul-LLEC-27* genes with similar expression levels were found to be located in D1-D2 groups according to the phylogenetic tree.

3.5. Responses of *Pvul-LEC* genes to salt stress and drought stress through RNAseq analysis

Plants are grown best in environments that are ideal for them. Exposure to an unexpected condition may result in diseases or physiological changes that affect the development and survival of the organism [69]. The leading environmental factors threatening agricultural production are salinity and drought [70]. In this regard, it is critical to understand plant defense mechanisms against these stress conditions. Accordingly, the heat map analysis was done in order to examine the responses of *Pvul-LEC* genes against salt and drought stress using RNAseq data obtained from GenBank (Figure 7). Upon salt stress treatment, the expression levels of *Pvul-BLEC-9*, *Pvul-LLEC-9*, *Pvul-LLEC-19*, *Pvul-LLEC-22*, and *Pvul-LLEC-29* were decreased, whereas *Pvul-BLEC-12*, *Pvul-BLEC-15*, and *Pvul-LLEC-23* expression levels were found to be increased in leaves. On the other hand, the expression levels of *Pvul-BLEC-1*, *Pvul-BLEC-3*, *Pvul-LLEC-9*, *Pvul-LLEC-17*, *Pvul-LLEC-18*, *Pvul-LLEC-19*, *Pvul-LLEC-27* and *Pvul-LLEC-28* genes were found to be increased whereas *Pvul-BLEC-11* expression level was decreased under drought stress conditions.

4. CONCLUSIONS

The lectin gene family encoded in the *P. vulgaris* genome was identified and characterized for the first time in this study. Bioinformatics analyses were used to determine the properties of 52 newly identified *Pvul-LEC* genes. RNAseq data was also used to assess the expression levels of *Pvul-LEC* genes under salt and drought stress conditions. Since *LEC* genes were first discovered in *P. vulgaris*, we believe that our findings will open up new avenues for future research on *LEC* genes in other plant species.

Author Contribution Statements AO- data collection, management and manuscript writing. SA- project development, manuscript editing. IB- project development, data analysis, manuscript writing and manuscript editing. All authors have read and approved the manuscript.

Declaration of Competing Interests The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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ANTIOXIDANT ACTIVITIES OF TURKISH EXTRA VIRGIN OLIVE OILS

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ABSTRACT. Extra virgin olive oil is the highest grade of virgin olive oil derived by cold mechanical extraction without the use of solvents or refining methods. These olive oils are known for their composition in phenolic compounds that have antioxidant properties. This study aims to determine the total phenolic and flavonoid compounds and antioxidant activities of four Turkish extra virgin olive oil samples: Kilis yağlık, İzmir sofralık, Ayvalık, and Tavşan yüreği. The highest sample concentration used for the experiments was 4 mg/ml while 1 mg/mL was used for ABTS radical scavenging assay. The lowest total phenolic and flavonoid content was observed in Tavşan yüreği sample. All extra virgin olive oil samples showed scavenging activity against DPPH and ABTS free radicals. Extra virgin olive oil samples with high phenolic and flavonoid content presented more effective radical scavenging activity with low IC₅₀ values. This study provides information about the phenolic content and antioxidant activities of four important Turkish olive oil samples.

1. INTRODUCTION

Initially consumed in particular by Mediterranean populations, olive oil is increasingly gaining ground on the world market because of its beneficial effects on health. These beneficial effects on health mean that outside of Mediterranean countries, olive oil is also consumed in other regions of the world [1]. Mediterranean countries represent 65% of world olive oil production and 43% of world consumption [2]. Turkey occupies a significant place among the world's major

Keywords: Extra virgin olive oil, total phenolic content, total flavonoid, antioxidant activity

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producers. Turkey is the fifth-largest olive oil producer in the world after Spain, Italy, Greece, and Tunisia [3]. In 2018, olive oil production in Turkey amounted to 206,300 tonnes [4]. Turkey is very rich in olive oil diversity. Most of Turkey's olive oil varieties are found in the Aegean region, which is responsible for around 80% of production [5]. Ayvalık and Memecik varieties, which are of great economic importance, are also found in this region.

Olive oil is recognized for its composition rich in bioactive substances such as phenolic compounds. This richness in phenolic compounds and unsaturated fatty acids distinguishes it from other oils and gives it beneficial effects for health [6]. It has been determined that various polyphenolic compounds in virgin oil are responsible for the beneficial effects. These compounds are phenolic alcohols (hydroxytyrosol and tyrosol), phenolic acids (vanillic acid and p-cumaric acid), secoiridoids (oleuropein aglycones, ligstroside aglycone, and oleanolic acid, etc), and flavonoids (luteolin and apigenin), and other minor compounds [7-8]. Extra virgin olive oil is also rich in oleic acid, linoleic acid, and palmitoleic acid, which are believed to be associated with the prevention of cardiovascular disease and various types of cancer. The most important of these monounsaturated fatty acids is oleic acid, its content varies between 68 and 82% of the fatty acids contained in olive oil [9-10]. Oleic acid plays also a significant role in the biological effects of olive oil.

The phenolic compounds in extra virgin oil have antioxidant properties. Antioxidants prevent the oxidation of macromolecules (DNA, RNA, proteins, and lipids) that play an important role in cell metabolism. The phenolic compounds and fatty acids contained in extra virgin olive oil can modulate the secretion of pro-inflammatory cytokines and certain markers of inflammation [11-12]. Extra virgin olive oil due to its composition rich in antioxidant compounds may prevent the occurrence of various types of cancers such as intestinal cancer, prostate cancer, breast cancer, and various neurological disorders as well as cardiovascular diseases [13-14-15-16].

The composition of extra virgin oil can be influenced by various factors such as geographic location, soil types, climate, rainfall, extraction method but also storage [17-18-19]. The stage of ripening is also another factor, which can affect extra virgin olive oil composition. Olive oil extracted from immature and moderately mature fruits contains more phenolic compounds than oil obtained from ripe fruits [20-21]. During the ripening, a large proportion of fatty acids depends on the degree of hydrolysis of triacylglycerol. The ripening of the fruits causes a decrease in the level

of hydroxytyrosol, total phenolic compounds and flavonoids, and the rate of rutin thus influencing the biological activities of extra virgin olive oil [22].

To our knowledge, there is not enough data on Turkish extra virgin olive oil's chemical characterization and antioxidant properties. Sarı Hasebi, Gemlik, and Halhali olive oils, which are cultivated in the Mediterranean region of Turkey have been studied and showed that the type of variety has a significant effect on the composition of fatty acids, sterols, and total phenolics [23]. Therefore, this study aims to determine the total phenolics and flavonoids content and the antioxidant activities of Izmir sofralık, Ayvalık, Tavşan yüreği and Kilis yağlık extra virgin olive oil.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1. Extra virgin olive oil samples

Extra virgin olive oil samples were obtained from different regions of Turkey. The Ayvalık sample was obtained from Buta Assos (Ayvalık), Izmir sofralık from Hedef Ziraat (Izmir), Kilis yağlık from Fersis (Kilis) and Tavşan yüreği from Zeytin Akademi (Antalya).

2.2. Extraction of phenolic fraction

The extraction of phenolic fractions was obtained following the procedure of Reboredo-Rodríguez et al. [24]. Briefly, 10 g of each olive oil sample was weighed into a 15 ml tube, and 5 mL of MeOH : H₂O (80:20, v/v) was added and shaken vigorously for 3 minutes. Finally, the tube was centrifuged at 4800 rpm for 25 minutes, and the MeOH: H₂O phase was collected. This process was repeated three times for each sample. Then three methanolic phases were collected and evaporated using a rotary evaporator. The dry extracts obtained after evaporation were weighed and dissolved in methanol. The resulting stock concentrations were stored at -20 °C until later use.

2.3. Total phenolic content

The total phenolic content (TPC) of the olive oil extracts was determined using the Folin-Ciocalteu method [25]. Briefly, 100 µL of extra virgin olive oil sample was added to 100 µL of Folin-Ciocalteu reagent, the mixture was vortexed for 3 minutes. Then 500 µl of 6% (v/v) sodium carbonate was added. After 5 minutes, the reaction mixture was stirred and diluted to 2 ml with distilled water. The absorbance of the mixture was measured after 2 hours of incubation at 725 nm. Total phenolic compounds found in extra virgin olive oil samples were determined using the

calibration curve of standard gallic acid. The results obtained are expressed as mg gallic acid equivalent per gram (mg GAE/g).

2.4. Total flavonoid content

The total flavonoid content (TFC) was determined according to the method described by Huang et al. [22]. Briefly, 100 μ L of NaNO₂ (5%) and 100 μ L of AlCl₃ (10%) were added to the 100 μ L of virgin olive oil sample or quercetin standard at different concentrations. After 10 minutes of incubation, 2 mL of NaOH (4%) was added to the mixture. The solution was mixed and absorbance was measured at 415 nm against the prepared blank reagent. Total flavonoid contents are expressed as mg quercetin equivalent per gram of dry extract (mg QE/g).

2.5. DPPH radical scavenging activity

The radical scavenging activity of extra virgin olive oil was determined using the 1,1-diphenyl-2-picrylhydrazil (DPPH) radical scavenging assay method [26]. The DPPH stock solution was diluted with ethanol to an absorbance of 1.400 at 517 nm before analysis. In each test tube, 100 μ L of different concentrations of the sample or gallic acid standard solution were mixed with 1.4 mL of DPPH and shaken for 1 minute. After 30 minutes of incubation, the absorbance of each solution was measured at 517 nm. The experiments were repeated three times. The radical scavenging activity (RSA) was calculated according to the following formula.

$$\% \text{ RSA} = [(A_{\text{control}} - A_{\text{sample}}) / A_{\text{control}}] * 100$$

2.6. ABTS radical scavenging activity

ABTS radical scavenging activity was determined according to the method described by Wu et al. [27]. ABTS was mixed with ammonium persulfate solution in a 1:1 volume ratio and incubated at room temperature for 12~16 hours in the dark to form a radical cation stock solution (ABTS +). ABTS + stock solution was diluted with ethanol to 0.700 (\pm 0.020) absorbance at 734 nm before analysis. Next, 20 μ L of extra virgin olive oil sample of different concentrations was mixed with 980 μ L of ABTS + stock solution, and absorbance at 734 nm will be recorded after 10 minutes. Trolox was used as standard. The experiments were repeated three times. The radical scavenging activity (RSA) was calculated according to the following formula.

$$\% \text{ RSA} = [(A_{\text{control}} - A_{\text{sample}}) / A_{\text{control}}] * 100$$

2.7. Statistical analysis

All the results were expressed as mean \pm standard deviation (SD). The data were analyzed by one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Tukey tests were performed to compare mean values ($p < 0.05$). Each experiment was repeated at least three times ($n \geq 3$). Statistical analyzes were conducted using GraphPad Prism 8.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1. Total phenolic and flavonoids content

Phenolic compounds are known to be a major part of vegetable oils after fatty acids components. The type of olive oil variety or the stage of ripening can influence the total phenolic content [21]. These phenolic compounds apart from their antioxidant properties are responsible for the flavor of olive oils. The determination of total phenolic compounds from olive oil samples revealed a significant difference between varieties. The differences observed in the composition in total phenolic compounds of the different varieties of extra virgin olive oil can be due to the genetic profile of the variety of extra olive oil and to agro-environmental factors [28-29]. Other factors such as the stage of ripening and method of extraction can affect total phenolic content in extra virgin olive oil [30]. Moreover, other studies have shown that phenolic compounds are a real index in the discrimination of olive oil varieties obtained from different regions. Turkish olive oil varieties are generally rich in phenolic compounds. A study taken out on Arbequina, a variety of olive oil native to the Aegean region showed that the Turkish variety is richer in phenolic compounds than the Arbequina variety grown in Tunisia, Italy, and Spain [31]. Thus, the same variety cultivated under different agronomic conditions may present differences in terms of phenolic compounds. In our study, the highest values of total phenolic compounds were observed in Kilis yağlık and Izmir sofralık samples, while Ayvalık and Tavşan yüreği contain relatively low levels of total phenolics (Table 1). TPC were calculated as 180.12 and 157.76 mg GAE/g for Kilis yağlık and Izmir sofralık, respectively. Ayvalık and Tavşan yüreği were found to contain fewer phenolic compounds than the other two samples. The Izmir sofralık and Ayvalık extra virgin olive oil samples originate from the Aegean region. However, Izmir sofralık contains more total phenolic compounds than the Ayvalık, which originates from the north side of the Aegean region. According to a study carried out on the Ayvalık olive oil, the ripening period and the altitude can influence the chemical composition of this variety in particular its content of total phenolic compounds [32]. Therefore, within the same region factors such as the nature of the soil, precipitation can influence the composition of extra virgin olive oil. The Tavşan yüreği originating

from the Mediterranean region showed the lowest values in terms of total phenolic and flavonoid content. The stage of maturation strongly influences the content of phenolic or flavonoids. In fact, within the same variety, the content of phenolic and flavonoid compounds can differ depending on the stage of maturation [33]. A previous study carried out on the Cobrançosa and Picual olive oil cultivars showed that the green olives, presented total phenolic values of 50.1 and 43.5 mg/kg respectively, for the semi-mature of 35.3 and 28.8 mg/kg and mature fruits values of 34.6 and 31.4 mg/kg [34].

The flavonoid content can also be affected by factors such as temperature, precipitation, but also by the stage of maturity. It has been reported that the flavonoid content is found to be high in olive oil obtained from ripe fruits [35]. The content of individual flavonoids such as apigenin and luteolin increases with the degree of maturity [36-37]. It has also been shown that the highest flavonoid content is usually obtained from olives in regions with high rainfall [35]. Our results showed that the total flavonoid content of the extra virgin olive oil samples were also different from each other (Table 1). The observed differences are due to the type of olive oil variety and agro-ecological conditions [38]. Kilis yağlık showed the highest flavonoid content with 273.06 mg QE/g. Tavşan yüreği variety contains the lowest total flavonoid content. Izmir sofralık showed a good result in terms of total phenolic content than Ayvalık, while the contrary is observed in the result of total flavonoid content. This could be due to the advanced stage of maturity of the Ayvalık extra virgin olive sample resulting in a decrease in the content of total phenolic compounds and an increase in its content of flavonoids. According to other studies, the content of phenolic compounds may depend on the level of glucosides and the activity of β -glucosidase in olive fruits. This enzyme is believed to be responsible for the hydrolysis of phenolic glucosides and the oxidation of phenolic compounds [39-40].

TABLE 1. Total phenolic and flavonoid contents of extra virgin olive oils samples

| Olive oil | Total phenolic content (mg GAE/g) | Total flavonoid content (mg QE/g) |
|----------------|--------------------------------------|---|
| Ayvalık | 39.60 ± 1.10 | 176.82 ± 10.14 |
| Izmir sofralık | 180.12 ± 1.04 | 128.29 ± 6.64 |
| Tavşan yüreği | 33.13 ± 5.88 | 45.44 ± 5.02 |
| Kilis yağlık | 157.76 ± 1.3 | 273.06 ± 5.22 |

TPC was calculated using linear regression of gallic acid ($R^2 = 0.9998$) and expressed as gallic acid equivalent in milligram per gram of dry sample weight (mg GAE/g of dry sample weight). TFC was calculated using linear regression of quercetin ($R^2 =$

0.9978) and expressed as quercetin equivalent in milligram per gram of dry sample weight (mg QE/g of dry sample weight).

3.2. Radical scavenging activities of extra virgin olive oils

Extra virgin olive oil is known for its richness in phenolic compounds and it is credited with many virtues, in particular its antioxidant properties. DPPH and ABTS radical reducing activity is a widely used method to assess the antioxidant activity of foods. These methods were used to evaluate the antioxidant capacity of the extra virgin olive oil samples. All four extra virgin olive oil samples showed effective DPPH and ABTS radical scavenging activity. At the maximum concentration of 4 mg/mL, the samples Kilis yağlık, Izmir sofralık, Ayvalık, and Tavşan yüreği showed percentages of inhibition of the DPPH radical respectively of 94%, 92%, 91%, and 28% while the standard gallic acid solution showed 93% (Figure 1). It was observed that the radical scavenging activity of extra virgin olive oils samples is dose-dependent. Tavşan yüreği extra virgin olive oil sample showed very low antioxidant activity compared to the others. The antioxidant activity of olive oils depends on the type of variety, location, or degree of ripening [41]. As shown in table 2, Kilis yağlık showed a good DPPH and ABTS radicals scavenging activity compared to the three other samples. At maximum concentration, the ABTS radical scavenging activity was 81%, 68%, 50% and 36% respectively for Kilis yağlık, Izmir sofralık, Tavşan yüreği and Ayvalık samples (Figure 2). Taken together, Tavşan yüreği showed the weakest DPPH radical scavenging activity among extra virgin olive oil samples while on the ABTS radical scavenging activity the lowest value was obtained with Ayvalık sample. On the other hand, a small concentration range (0.125-1 mg/mL) is sufficient to scavenge the ABTS radical, while it is necessary to use a higher concentration range (0.25-4 mg/mL) for the DPPH radical. This implies that the ABTS radical is more sensitive and easily reducible by the antioxidant compounds contained in different extra virgin olive oils. At identical concentration, the values of ABTS radical scavenging is higher than those of the DPPH radical. Similar results have been obtained in studies on Halhali ve Nizip yağlık olive oils [20-42]. In addition, all varieties having exhibited high content of phenolic compounds and total flavonoids showed high scavenging radical activities, therefore, there is a correlation between the antioxidant activities and the content of phenolic compounds [20-41-43].

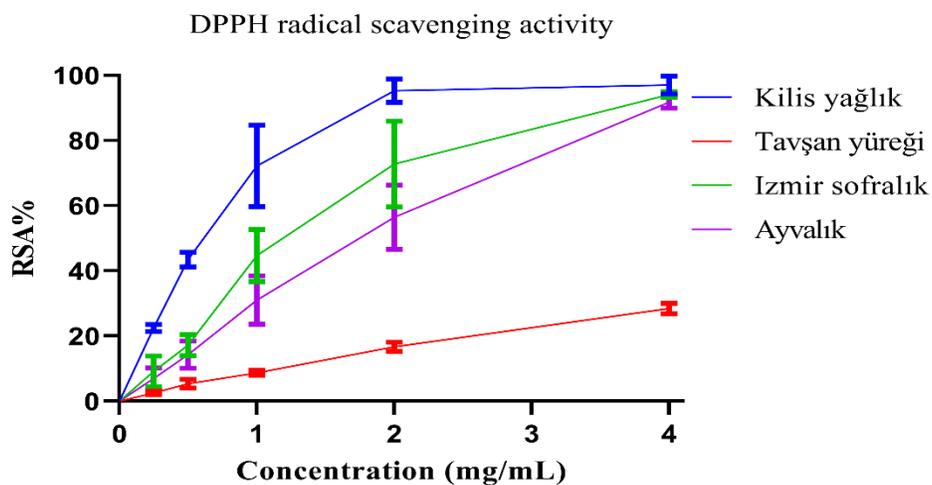


FIGURE 1. DPPH free radical scavenging activity of extra virgin olive oil samples.

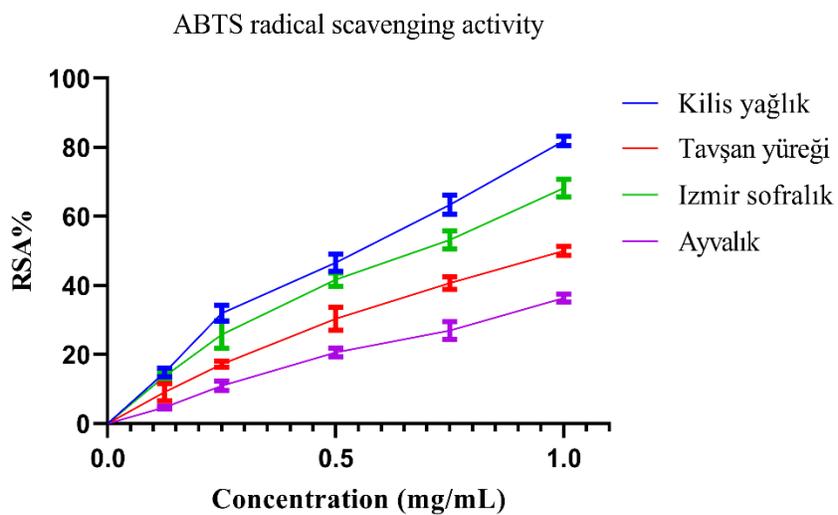


FIGURE 2. ABTS free radical scavenging activity of extra virgin olive oil samples.

TABLE 2. IC₅₀ (mg/ml) values of DPPH and ABTS radical scavenging activity of extra virgin olive oil samples

| | Kilis yağlık | Tavşan yüreği | Izmir sofralık | Ayvalık | Gallic acid | Trolox |
|-------------|---------------------|----------------------|-----------------------|----------------|--------------------|---------------|
| DPPH | 0.82 ± 0.03 | 7.07 ± 0.41 | 1.20 ± 0.08 | 1.83 ± 0.04 | 0.009 ± 0.06 | - |
| ABTS | 0.56 ± 0.01 | 0.94 ± 0.01 | 0.69 ± 0.03 | 1.40 ± 0.05 | - | 0.002 ± 0.01 |

4. CONCLUSION

This study focused on the determination of the total phenolic and flavonoid content as well as the antioxidant activities of extra virgin olive oils from Turkey. There is a significant difference between the total phenolic and flavonoid content of the extra virgin olive oil samples. Kilis yağlık sample, which was rich in total phenolic and flavonoid content (157.76 mg GAE/g and 273.06 mg QE/g respectively), also showed the highest DPPH and ABTS radical scavenging activity (94% and 81% respectively). Therefore, the type or the location of extra virgin olive oil affects their phenolic content and antioxidant activity. Our study provided preliminary information on the phenolic content and antioxidant properties of these different extra virgin olive oils. Further studies including the determination of phenolic composition using chromatographic methods and the stage of maturity could help to better understand the variation of phenolic compounds and the antioxidant properties of these four extra virgin olive oils.

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Declaration of Competing Interests The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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AN INVESTIGATION OF RABIES VIRUS EXISTENCE ON RODENTS BY USING NEW PCR PRIMER PAIRS

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ABSTRACT. Zoonotic diseases are the infections to be carried between human and other vertebrates. Rhabdoviruses belong to a virus family which could infect a wide range of host organism. It is important to find new molecular diagnostic tools and primers for the identification of the viruses to be able to make the molecular identification process faster and reveal new forms of the virus. Rodents are the primary mammals group that can uncontrollably go in and out from quarantine regions. Therefore, in this study, 242 *Apodemus* spp. (wood mouse) and *Myodes glareolus* (bank vole) specimens collected from 16 localities in province Zonguldak, Çaycuma district were used to scan brain tissues to determine RABV using hemi-nested PCR. Also, to determine RABV a new primer pairs were designed using already published sequences. According to results, eight specimens were showed positive bands for RABV. Those eight sequences blasted. But the sequences did not match according to the Blast result. The designed primer pairs provide positive bands on electrophoresis for positive control so that the primer pairs are new and can be used for following studies. With this study it was also tested whether rodents are the potential carriers for RABV since they are primarily prey source for carnivores, and domestic animals.

1. INTRODUCTION

Zoonotic diseases are naturally transmitted infections and diseases between humans and other vertebrates. The reservoir host animal acts as a source of infection because it carries the pathogen virus. Important zoonotic diseases include, Crimean-Congo Hemorrhagic Fever, Hantavirus infections, Rabies and Tularemia diseases [1]. There

Keyword and phrases. Rodents, rabies, heminested PCR, sequence analysis, Apodemus, Myodes, Turkey

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are many animal groups with zoonotic agents including rodents. Rodents are extremely important in terms of zoonotic diseases because of their frequent contact with people and having the highest number of groups in mammals. For this reason, knowing the spread areas, the viruses they carry, the relationships with the living things around them and the diseases they spread are the primary topics for understanding of human infectious diseases.

Rhabdoviruses (Figure 1) are a large family of viruses that can infect a wide range of hosts [2,3,4]. More than 160 Rhabdovirus species have been isolated from plants, invertebrates and vertebrates to date with the discovery of new species [3,5,6,7]. Vesiculovirus, Lyssavirus and Ephemerovirus species of rhabdoviruses cause various diseases in humans and animals [3,8]. Rabies is a disease with a history of 5000 years [4,9] showing a widespread distribution worldwide except Australia and some island countries [1,10]. Despite significant scientific developments, it still exists as a global disease [11]. There are two epidemiological forms of the disease, usually the urban form seen in domestic animals and the sylvatic form seen in wildlife [12]. It has been reported that 54% of animal rabies are caused by dogs, 42% by terrestrial wild animals and 4% by bats [13].

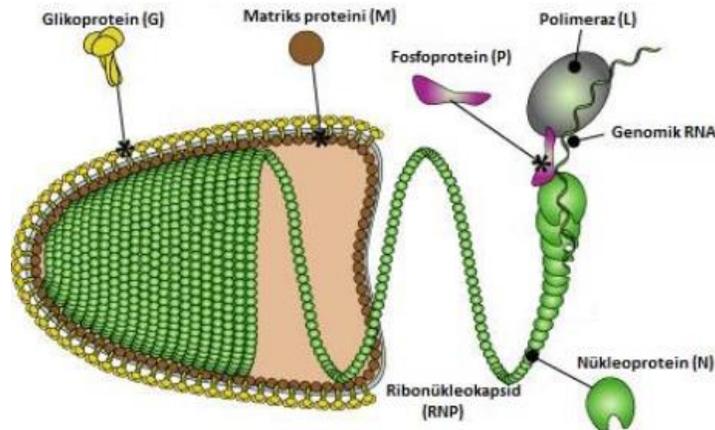


FIGURE 1. Schematic diagram of a Rhabdovirus (©ViralZone 2008, Swiss Institute of Bioinformatics).

The screening and detection of viruses by molecular tools has been accepted and highly differentiated. Similarly, detection of rabies viruses can be done in different ways [14]. Each one has differences from the other. One of the most used is the real time PCR technique. In addition, considering that the endemic forms are quite high,

each primer designed for the diagnosis made by Real Time PCR will be important. Although this technique is reduced the time and the one of the most sensitive methods, false positives can also be observed due to the possibility of mixing with the genome of the host [14]. Serological assays are not suitable for routine testing used as identification. The test may lack sensitivity and specificity, and the interpretation of the test results may be difficult as the host response to infection varies substantially between individuals. As such, the negative predictive value of serological tests for rabies diagnosis is considered poor [14].

Small rodents, such as squirrels and mice, are rarely known to be natural reservoirs or vectors that cause human rabies [13,15]. Although rabies does not have a single host, the virus is spreading rapidly from one infected animal to another by inter-species interaction. Most mammalian species can be infected with rabies virus. According to Rabies surveillance data of the USA and Puerto Rico for the period 2005–2010 [16], 6,153 cases of rabies in animals and 2 in humans were reported [17,18]. Wild animals accounted for 92 % of reported cases in this study. Racoons were the most frequently reported rabid wildlife species (2,246 raccoons, 36.5 % of all rabid animals during 2010), followed by 1,448 skunks (23.5 %), 1,430 bats (23.2 %), 429 foxes (6.9 %), 303 cats (4.9 %), 71 cattle (1.1 %), and 69 dogs (1.1 %). Other wild animals included rodents and lagomorphs (1.8 %) [17]. Small rodents (squirrels, hamsters, guinea pigs, gerbils, chipmunks, rats, and mice) and lagomorphs (rabbits and hares) are rarely infected with rabies [16].

In another study, only one of the 57 *Apodemus agrarius* samples collected from the Zhejiang region of China was found positive for rabies [19] In addition, Özsoy et al. [20] with the suspicious animal bite Refik Saydam Hygiene Center of the rabies vaccination station, 92 (6%) of the patients reported to have applied to this unit [20].

A number of rabies cases have been seen with a high frequency in many villages in the province of Zonguldak Çaycuma district and they are originated from wild animals according to data from Zonguldak Provincial Directorate of Health. The Directorate have decided to take this region under quarantine several times and carnivores such as wolves and jackals were given as a source of rabies in the quarantine area. However, uncontrolled rodents' group in quarantine areas may have higher potential to be the bearer of many viruses due to their ease of travel between areas and also, they are primary food sources for carnivores. The existence of this uncontrolled group/animal might cause management studies fail.

The aim of this study is to prove that the rodents are the host for rabies and they should not be ignored during quarantine times, by screening for rabies virus on rodents and design new primer pairs to detect rabies in a host.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

In this study, a total of 242 rodent specimens (197 *Apodemus* sp, 45 *Myodes* sp.) were collected from Çaycuma, Zonguldak province (Figure 2, Table 1). The individuals were anesthetized with ether. The research permission was taken from General Directorate of Nature Conservation and National Parks (01/12/2011- 83-703). After they were knocked out, they were killed quickly by breaking neck. For viral RNA study, the whole brain tissue of each animal is carefully removed from the foramen magnum with a pasteur pipette without damaging the skull [21]. Brain tissues were taken into the RNA preservation solution and stored at -80 ° C. RNA extraction was performed with Acide-guanidium-phenol-chloroform method [22].

TABLE 1. Distribution of species by locality.

| Locality | Species | | |
|----------------------|-------------------------|---------------------|-------|
| | <i>Myodes glareolus</i> | <i>Apodemus</i> sp. | Total |
| Akpınar | 2 | 17 | 19 |
| Temenler | 13 | 7 | 20 |
| Türkali | - | 12 | 12 |
| Derecikören | 7 | 14 | 21 |
| Çömlekçi | 7 | 6 | 13 |
| Yeşilköy | 2 | 6 | 8 |
| Çomranlı | - | 1 | 1 |
| Yeşilyayla | - | 4 | 4 |
| Y. İhsaniye | 3 | 9 | 12 |
| A. İhsaniye | 1 | 5 | 6 |
| Sazköy | 2 | 18 | 20 |
| Sarmaşık | - | 27 | 27 |
| Sarmasık countryside | 6 | 29 | 35 |
| Olukyanı Village | - | 11 | 11 |
| Filyos | 2 | 31 | 33 |
| Total | 45 | 197 | 242 |

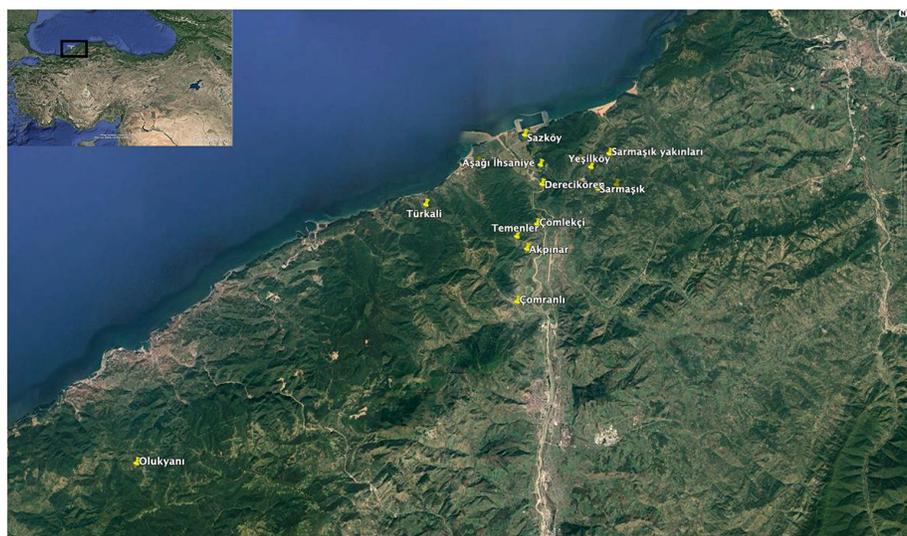


FIGURE 2. Sample collected localities.

Two forward primers were designed, and Heaton et al. [23] reference primers were used (Table 2).

TABLE 2. Rabies (RABV) and rabies like viruses primers for (RRV) hnRT-PCR [23].

| Primer | Sequence | Sense | Positon |
|-------------|--------------------------------|-------|---------|
| JW12 | ATGTAACACC(C/T)CTACAATTG | M | 55-73 |
| JW6 (DPL) | CAATTCGCACACATTTTGTG | G | 660-641 |
| JW6 (E) | CAGTTGGCACACATCTTGTG | G | 660-641 |
| JW6 (M) | CAGTTAGCGCACATCTTATG | G | 660-641 |
| JW10 (DLE2) | GTCATCAAAGTGTG(A/G)TGCTC | G | 636-617 |
| JW10 (ME1) | GTCATCAATGTGTG(A/G)TGTTTC | G | 636-617 |
| JW10 (P) | GTCATTAGAGTATGGTGTTC | G | 636-617 |
| SB1 | GATCA(A/G)TATGAGTACAAGTACCCTGC | M | 140-165 |
| SB2 | GATCAATATGAATATAAATATCCCGC | M | 140-165 |

Already published RABV sequences that derived from different taxon were downloaded from Genebank (Suppl. Table 8). The sequences were aligned by MEGA v.5.2.1 [24].

The forward and reverse primers were selected from the conserved region of the whole genome, the N gene, to be replicated to 300 nucleotide regions. To determine the suitability of the selected primers, we uploaded to the web page of Integrated DNA Technologies (<http://eu.idtdna.com/>) to review the melting temperature, GC percentage, self-dimer and hair-pin states of the primers, as well as BLAST (<http://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi>). The software was used to check sequence and organism matches.

2.1. cDNA Synthesis

In order to replicate the DNA of RABV RNA virus by PCR, first of all, cDNA synthesis was performed. cDNA synthesis was performed according to the recommendations of the manufacturer (Fermentas #EP0352) Details were provided in the additional file.

2.2. PCR optimization with designed primers for RABV

In the optimization process of the designed primers, the sensitivity of the polymerase chain reaction was maximized and the lowest amount of RNA found in the tissue was targeted (Table 3). For this reason, positive control dilutions with a known initial amount (10⁴ copies/ml) were used.

Reaction mixture concentrations, loops, and annealing temperatures were determined with Hemi-nested and Touchdown PCR. The most appropriate PCR mixtures and reaction conditions are given in the additional files to search the samples for both designed and reference primers.

TABLE 3. In this study the designed primers for the N gene of RABV for PCR.

| Primer | Sequence | Polarity | Position | Number of Nucleotide | %GC | Tm | Hairpin Tm | Self-dimer (kcal/mole) |
|---------|--|-----------|-------------|----------------------|-----------|------------|------------|------------------------|
| RABV-F | 5'- ATGGATGCG AYAAGATTG-3' | Sense | 1-19 | 19 | % 42.1 | 50.0 °C | - | - |
| RABV-R1 | 5'-GTC ART TCC AWG CCT CCT G-3' Reverse: 5'- CAG GAG GCW TGG AAY TGA C -3' | Antisense | 368- 386 | 19 | % 55.3 | 54.6 °C | - | - |
| RABV-R2 | 5'- ACG YTT TAT BTC YAC CAG AGA -3' Reverse: 5'- TCT CTG GTR GAV ATA AAR CGT -3' | Antisense | 319- 339 | 21 | % 41.3 | 52.5 °C | - | - |

2.3. Agarose Gel Electrophoresis

Agarose gel electrophoresis was performed to view the PCR products. 2 µL of 10xDNA loading buffer was mixed into 10 µL of PCR product and loaded into wells drilled in the gel. A "ladder" was loaded in one of the wells. The electrophoresis power supply was set to 120V and the gel was run for 40 minutes. The gel was visualized in medium-wave UV (280-340nm) in a transilluminator and photographed with the (Vilber Lourmat Infinity-1000/26MX) device. The displayed band sizes were compared with the "ladder".

2.4. Sequence Analysis

Samples with positive bands were sent to Macrogen company for sequence analysis. After a second PCR of the purified PCR products was performed, the sequences were created with the ABI device. The Sequences are controlled with Seqscape and Bioedit programs and aligned with MEGA and Bioedit programs; aligned sequences were blast-analyzed with sequences in GenBank.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In this study, RABV screening was performed with Hemi-nested and Touchdown PCR methods in 242 samples collected from 16 localities in Çaycuma district of Zonguldak province (Figure 3, Table 4).

TABLE 4. Positive samples and information.

| Sample no | Species | Locality |
|-----------|-------------------------|-----------------|
| 6511 | <i>Apodemus</i> sp. | Filyos |
| 6517 | <i>Apodemus</i> sp. | Türkali |
| 6536 | <i>Myodes glareolus</i> | Çömlekçi |
| 6810 | <i>Myodes glareolus</i> | Filyos |
| 6686 | <i>Apodemus</i> sp. | Yukarı İhsaniye |
| 6867 | <i>Apodemus</i> sp. | Olukyanı |
| 6582 | <i>Myodes glareolus</i> | Temenler |
| 6677 | <i>Myodes glareolus</i> | Yeşilköy |



FIGURE 3. The distribution of Positive samples.

It was observed that the band size of the R + control was the same as expected (Figure 4). RNA extraction from the brain tissue of the specimens and PCR screening performed as a result of cDNA synthesis revealed a positive RABV in 8 samples of 8 localities. The result of PCR scanning with the reference primers is shown in Figure 5. Table 4 shows the information about the localities and samples where the positively identified samples were collected.

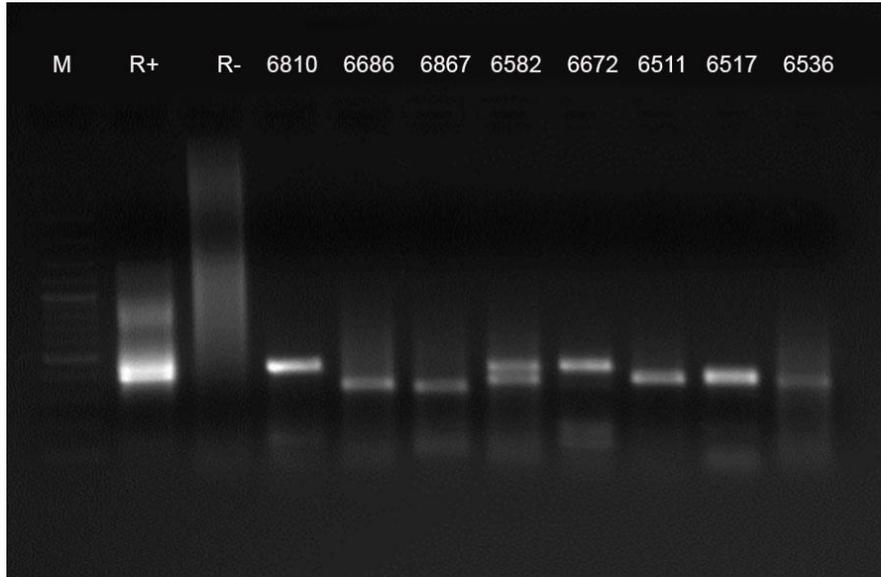


FIGURE 4. Gel images of positive samples from PCR results of the designed primers.

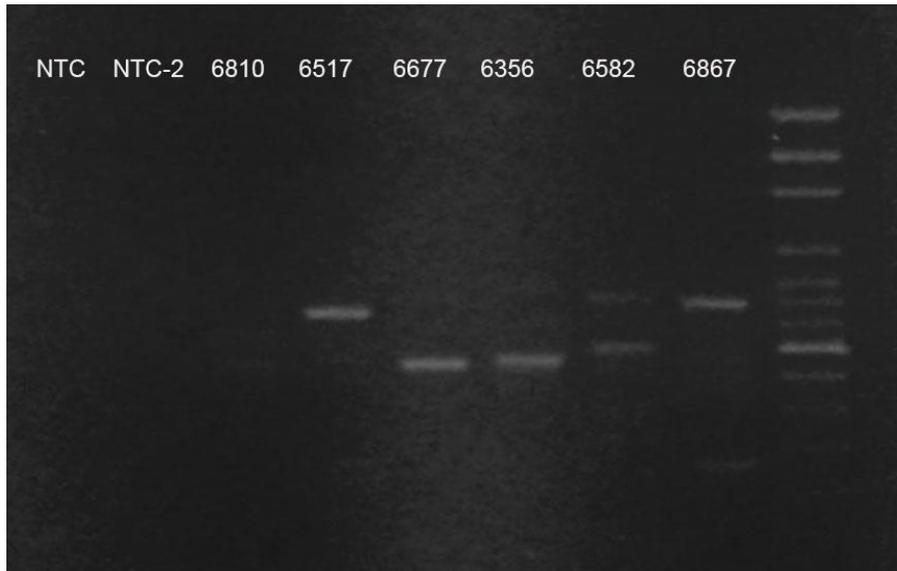


FIGURE 5. Gel image of the PCR result performed as a service delivery with the reference primers.

However, since these findings need to be verified at a higher DNA sequence level, PCR products of positive samples were sent to Macrogen for DNA sequence analysis. Sequences were obtained from 8 samples with an average of 340 bp. However, in blast analyzes, it was found that only two samples showed a low degree of similarity with the sequences of published Rabies viruses.

Because rabies has not a single host, the virus rapidly spreads from one infected animal to another by inter-species interaction. The existence of rabies in a host or in a specific area should be double check by investing among prey species that move faster, quicker than their predators. In the diets of carnivores, rodents have been assumed as an important member of their diets [25]. Due to ecological niches, rodents were the first place in the investigation of presence of rabies. In developed countries, rabies was a disease usually seen in wild animals and transmitted from these hosts to pets and humans [11, 26]. Human rabies suspected animal bites and rabies was still an important health problem in Turkey [27] and as seen as intense in these cases where the quarantine zone was formed. When we look at the study area, the distribution of the carnivores in the area was fragmented due to the fragmentation of the settlements and it was uncertain that they might spread throughout the area. From this point of view, it was likely that rodents might be a source that spread the rabies virus. Lei et al. [19] showed the presence of rabies virus in *Apodemus agrarius* and emphasized that they could play a role in human rabies. Winkler, Schneider & Jennings [27] described rabies rodent specimens at 31 out of 50 states in the United States between 1953-1970. It was also reported that rodent rabies were as common as other species [27]. Nel & Markotter [28] stated that rodents could be considered as carriers of rabies virus. However, in the Middle East, only squirrels were found among the rodents as carriers of the rabies [28]. Mukherjee et al [25] stated that rodents constitute a significant amount of carnivores and feline nutrients. In this study, positive band was obtained from 8 samples among 242 samples when the sequence results were examined, with a 23 bp similarity was found with the rabies virus in the sequences of only two out of the eight samples. According to these results, it can be stated that rodents in the study area were likely to carry rabies among fragmented habitats since carnivores could not travel among the habitats.

As a result of the rabies protection and control guidelines issued by the Ministry of Health in 2005, vaccination was applied as a result of contact with any species that was likely to be exposed to rabies [29]. However, as stated in the directive, no vaccination was performed for those who was bitten and contacted by other small rodents such as mice [27]. Lei et al. [19] reported that one of 57 *Apodemus agrarius* specimens collected from the Zhejiang region of China was positive for rabies. In addition, according to Özsoy et al. [20], 92 (6 %) patients who came to Refik Saydam Hifzısıhha Center Rabies Vaccine Station with a suspicious animal bite applied to

this unit due to rat bites. However, we also suggest a final test to check each specimen using recent molecular diagnostic tool listed in Duong et al. [30].

In order to obtain a host of information about missing data for the study of rabies in Turkey, our study is based on investigating the presence of rabies virus in rodents in a quarantine zone was the first study. Even the study might be considered as a preliminary study We discovered some clue that rodents could carry the virus among fragmented area since carnivores couldn't travel among habitats so that during fighting back an epidemic disease, the screening of rabies virus on rodents might be examined by a bigger sampling. Our secondary finding was new primer pairs for detecting rodents. To design new primer pairs against a group which has highly mutational genome and capability to do would be crucial for further studies. Recent molecular diagnostic tools have a potential to give interesting results especially in quarantine site.

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Declaration of Competing Interests The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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DETERMINATION OF CHEMICAL CONTENT OF *LEMNA MINOR* L. BY GC-MS AND INVESTIGATION OF ANTIOXIDANT ACTIVITY

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ABSTRACT. *Lemna minor* L. has been traditionally used for a long time for its analgesic, antipyretic, vitamin C supplement, astringent, antipruritic effects. Although there are many heavy metal removals using *L. minor*, unfortunately, biological activity studies are very limited. In this study, the chemical content and total phenol content, DPPH removal, metal chelation (Fe²⁺) and β -Carotene-lycopene methods of the *L. minor* macrophyte we obtained from Turkey were determined by GC-MS. The results of the study showed that our plant contains 25 different essential oils and has a high phenol content. In addition, 72% DPPH removal of *L.minor* was determined when it had 71% iron chelating ability. As a result of our study, it has been revealed that the *L. minor* we use is an effective antioxidant. It is thought that its usability in the fields of food and medicine can be investigated with further studies.

1. INTRODUCTION

Free radicals are high-energy, unstable molecules that carry one or more unpaired electrons in their final orbitals. These unpaired electrons give free radicals great reactivity, causing them to damage many biological materials such as proteins, lipids, DNA and coenzymes. Under normal conditions, there is a balance between free radicals and antioxidant defense system in our body. However, an increase in reactive oxygen species and/or a deficiency in the defense systems cause the antioxidant balance in the body to deteriorate and "oxidative stress" conditions occur. Recent studies have shown that this oxidative damage caused by free radicals can be the cause

Keywords. Lemna minor, antioxidants, DPPH, total phenol, GC-MS

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of many important diseases such as diabetes [1], cancer [2], atherosclerosis [3], immune system [4] and cardiovascular diseases [3-4-5]. Antioxidants are natural or synthetic substances that play an important role in preventing cancer formation by neutralizing free radicals, which are toxic by-products of normal cell metabolism [6-7-8].

Plants have a high antioxidant activity due to the secondary metabolites they contain, and due to these properties, they have been used both in folk medicine and in the pharmaceutical industry for years. Flavonoids, cinnamic acid derivatives, coumarins, tocopherols and phenolic acids are the most common herbal antioxidants. Studies have shown that plants increase antioxidant enzyme activity and reduce lipid oxidation thanks to these phenolics they have [6-9-10].

Lemna minor (Duckweed) belongs to the Lemnaceae family and is a perennial, simple, small plant that can be found floating or submerged in fresh waters. Although there are limited scientific studies, *L. minor* is a herb that has been used frequently in traditional medicine and homeopathy for many years. It is known that it is used externally as an antipyretic, diuretic, anti-inflammatory in upper respiratory tract and chronic rheumatic diseases, as well as in eczema, acne, wound healing and insect bites [11]. There are many commercial drugs prepared with *L. minor* extract for use in allergic asthma, rhinitis and nasal congestion problems. The fact that Lemna species contain phenolic compounds such as gallic acid, tannins, flavonoids, anthocyanins, quercetin, and compounds such as thiol and terpene known as steroids suggest that they may have antimicrobial, antioxidant and even anticarcinogenic properties. Studies have shown that they have antimicrobial activity against the pathogens *Bacillus subtilis*, *B. cereus*, *Staphylococcus aureus*, *S. saprophyticus*, *S. warneri*, *Proteus vulgaris*, *Citrobacter freundii*, *C. koseri*, *Neisseria lactamica*, *Micrococcus luteus* and *Streptococcus pneumoniae* [12-13]. Gülçin et al. showed that the *Lemna minor* has antibacterial, anticandidal and antioxidant effects in their study with ethanol and water extracts [13]. In the studies by Popov et al., it has been shown that lemnan isolated from *Lemna minor* macrophyte has safety and tolerability in cellular and humoral immunity, as well as ease of formulation and can be used as an adjuvant in vaccines developed for various infections [14].

Within the scope of our study, the chemical content, total phenol amount, DPPH scavenging activity, iron chelating activity and β -carotene/lycopene content of *L. minor* was determined and its usability in medicine, pharmacy and food fields was investigated.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1. Extraction of *L. minor*

L. minor used in the study was developed in the aquarium of Hydrobiology Laboratory from Ankara University. The collected plants were washed twice with distilled water and left to dry at room temperature. The dried plants were crushed to powder and stored in room conditions, out of the sun until the study was carried out.

Microwave assisted extraction method was used for extraction. Microwave extraction method is a frequently used method for obtaining plant extract in recent years. It has advantages such as less solvent consumption, shorter time and no evaporation phase compared to the classical soxhlet method. The dried and powdered plant samples were prepared in proportion to 1g/20ml volume and extracted in 60% ethanol using microwave at 850 Watt, 90 seconds conditions. The obtained extracts were centrifuged at 2500 rpm for 20 minutes, the supernatant was passed through filter paper and dried in a lyophilizer (Christ, Alpha 1-2 LD). The samples were stored at +4°C until the study was carried out [15].

2.2. Determination of Chemical Contents by GC-MS

Gas Chromatography/Mass Spectrometer (GC-MS) method was used to identify the volatile components obtained by microdistillation, and Gas Chromatography method was used to determine their relative percentages. System was used Agilent 7890B GC 5977B Mass Selective System that consisted of Agilent HP-Innowax. The sample taken into the hexane phase was injected into the system as 1 microliter with a 10:1 split ratio. definitions were made with the help of the Wiley-9 Nist 11 Mass Spectral database (Anadolu University Plant, Medicine and Scientific Research Application and Research Center, AUBIBAM).

2.3. Determination of Total Phenolic Content

The total amount of phenolic compounds was determined spectrophotometrically by adapting the Folin-Ciocalteu method of Barros et al. to 96-well plates. 0.02 ml (concentration 1 mg / ml) was taken from the extracts, mixed with 40 µl of Folin-Ciocalteus reagent:water (50:50) and 0.2 ml of 2% sodium carbonate, and incubated for 90 minutes at room temperature. After incubation, absorbances were read at 760 nm wavelength (Epoch, BioTek) and calculations were made according to the Gallic acid standard [16].

2.4. Investigation of DPPH Scavenging

The scavenging capacity of 1,1-diphenyl-2-picrylhydrazil (DPPH) free radical was determined by spectrophotometric method. 0.004% DPPH solution was added to the determined concentrations (25-400 µg/ml) of the extracts and incubated for 30 minutes in the dark. At the end of the incubation, the free radical scavenging effect was determined according to the following formula (2.1) by measuring spectrophotometrically (Epoch microplate reader, BioTek) at a wavelength of 517 nm [17].

$$\% \text{ Scavenging} = [(A_{\text{Control}} - A_{\text{Sample}}) / A_{\text{Control}}] \times 100 \quad (2.1)$$

2.5. Investigation of Iron (Fe⁺²) Ion Chelating Activity

Iron ion chelating activity was determined by making some changes in Decker and Welch's method. By adding 0.05 ml 2 mM FeCl₂ and 0.1 ml 5 mM ferrosine to the concentrations of the extracts (25-400 µg/ml), the samples were left for incubation at room temperature for 15 minutes. After incubation, the absorbance was measured at 562 nm wavelength and the calculation was made according to the following equation (2.2)[18].

$$\% \text{ Chelating} = [(A_{\text{Control}} - A_{\text{Sample}}) / A_{\text{Control}}] \times 100 \quad (2.2)$$

2.6. Determination of β-Carotene and Lycopene Contents

100 mg of dry extract was completely dissolved in 10 ml of acetone:hexane (6:4) mixture and passed through a 0.45 µm filter. The absorbances at 453, 505, 645 and 663 nm wavelengths were measured and calculated according to the following formulas (2.3) [19].

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Lycopene (mg/100 ml)} &= -0.0458 A_{663} + 0.204 A_{645} + 0.372 A_{505} - 0.0806 A_{453} \\ \beta\text{-Carotene (mg/100 ml)} &= 0.216 A_{663} - 1.22 A_{645} - 0.304 A_{505} + 0.452 A_{453} \end{aligned} \quad (2.3)$$

3. RESULTS

3.1. Determination of Chemical Contents of *L. minor*

It was determined that the *L. minor* methanol extract we used in our study contained 25 different volatile compounds, and the compound with the highest rate was phytol (19,8 %) (Table 1). Phytol is an acyclic diterpene alcohol that can be used as a precursor in the production of synthetic forms of vitamin E and vitamin K. Many studies with Phytol have shown that this molecule has antimicrobial, antidiabetic, antidiuretic, anti-inflammatory and anticarcinogenic properties [20]. Moraes et al. reported that phytol, which is widely used as a food additive and in medical fields, is effective against parasites (antiscistosomal) in vitro and in vivo studies with mice [21]. Other compounds in *L. minor* were found to be hexanal (5.6 %), 2,4-Di-tert-butylphenol (2.2 %), 5-Tetradecene (5.0 %), cetene (4.5 %). 2,4-Di-tert-butylphenol is known to have antifungal and antioxidant properties. The 2,4 DTBP compound obtained from the bacterium (*Lactococcus* sp.) can be an antifungal and antimicrobial food additive that can improve food safety and also contribute positively to health [22]. Hexanal, also called hexanaldehyde or caproaldehyde, is used as a food additive due to its shelf life extension and flavoring properties. Tacheva et al., in their similar study, they stated that *L. minor* extract has 12 different antioxidant compounds (phytol, campesterol, loliolide, dihydroactinidiolide, ascorbic acid, vanillic acid, 2,3-dihydroxybenzoic acid, caffeic acid, chlorogenic acid, esculetin, esculin and fraxetin) [23]. Their content analysis is similar to our study. When the chemical contents of 0.5% relative ratio are analyzed using GC-MS, it is seen that *L. minor* contains antimicrobial and antioxidant compounds.

3.2. Determination of Total Phenolic Content

It is known that phenolic content and antioxidant capacity are parallel. Therefore, the *L. minor* total phenol content was calculated in the next step. Plants with high phenolic content show higher antioxidant and anticarcinogenic activity. As a result of our study, it was determined that the *L. minor* extract we studied contained 20.44 mg GAE/100g total phenol. There are very few antioxidant activity studies with *L. minor*. However, the total phenol results found in the study of Gülcin et al. are similar to our study. They were reported that water (WELM) and ethanol (EELM) extracts had phenolic substances between 22.0 ± 0.8 and 16.7 ± 0.0 μg GAE.

TABLE 1. Volatile compound content of *Lemna minor*.

| No | Compound | % |
|---------------|---|-------------|
| 1 | Pentanal \$\$ n-Pentanal \$\$ n-Valeraldehyde \$\$ Valeral | 5.0 |
| 2 | Hexanal \$\$ n-Hexanal \$\$ Hexaldehyde \$\$ Caproaldehyde \$\$ Capronaldehyde | 5.6 |
| 3 | 2-Pentylfuranm (2-Amylfuran) | 3.8 |
| 4 | 1-Dodecene | 2.2 |
| 5 | <i>p</i> -Cymene | 4.4 |
| 6 | Isopropyl pentyl ketone (2-Methyl-3-octanone) | 1.8 |
| 7 | [#] Spektrum-1 | 1.0 |
| 8 | 6-Methyl-5-hepten-2-one | 1.5 |
| 9 | Nonanal (CAS) \$\$ n-Nonanal \$\$ n-Nonylaldehyde \$\$ Nonaldehyde \$\$ n-Nonaldehyde | 1.8 |
| 10 | (<i>E</i>)-5-Tetradecene | 5.0 |
| 11 | Cetene (1-Hexadecene) | 4.5 |
| 12 | Heptadecane | 4.4 |
| 13 | 1-Octadecene | 2.0 |
| 14 | [#] Spektrum-2 ((<i>E</i>)-Geranylacetone) | 2.3 |
| 15 | Neophytadiene | 2.1 |
| 16 | (<i>E</i>)-beta.-Ionone | 2.6 |
| 17 | [#] Spektrum-3 Neophytadiene isomer I: II | 7.1 |
| 18 | Pentadecanal- \$\$ 1-Pentadecanal \$\$ n-Pentadecanal | 5.3 |
| 19 | Hexahydrofarnesyl acetone | 1.6 |
| 20 | [#] Spektrum-4 | 4.3 |
| 21 | Thymol | 1.3 |
| 22 | [#] Spektrum-5 | 5.8 |
| 23 | 2,4-Di-tert-butylphenol | 2.2 |
| 24 | Farnesyl acetone | 1.6 |
| 25 | Phytol | 19.8 |
| Toplam | | 99.0 |

* ≥ % 0.5

Gülçin et al., in their study with *Lemna minor*, reported that water (WELM) and ethanol (EELM) extracts had phenolic substances between 22.0 ± 0.8 and 16.7 ± 0.0 µg GAE [13].

3.3. DPPH Scavenging Activity

It was observed that the DPPH scavenging effect increased in a dose-dependent manner. Although *L. minor* methanol extract had activity (18-72 %) at all concentrations studied, it showed the highest efficiency at 400 µg /ml with 72% removal (Figure 1).

L. minor is a fast growing plant with high protein content and is an important food source for aquatic animals. It is also known for its antipyretic and analgesic properties. Based on these properties, Kim et al., in their study, claiming that the substances in the environment will affect the metabolite content, the total phenol amount and indirectly the antioxidant activity, and when they added 3% sucrose and 0.5 mM proline, they found the DPPH scavenging effect to be 69.1% [24]. In our study, *L. minor* showed a similar effect and swept the DPPH radical in the environment by 62%. Antioxidant studies are among the subjects of much research today, and now more comprehensive and advanced methods are tried to increase the effectiveness of plants whose effectiveness is known. Saying that *L. minor* macrophyte contains high protein and is a good source of bioactive peptides, Tran et al. investigated the antioxidant activity of hydrolyzed proteins obtained from lean *L. minor*. It was observed that *L. minor* samples hydrolyzed with flavourzyme and alcalase removed 28.91-54.15% DPPH. The results showed that protein recovery, hydrolysis degree values and antioxidant activities were found increased with increasing enzyme concentration and hydrolysis time. They said that under the same enzymatic hydrolysis condition, samples hydrolyzed with flavourzyme had a higher inhibitory effect on ABTS and DPPH radical scavenging than samples hydrolyzed by alcalase and alkaline treatment [25]. Saritha and Saraswathi, on the other hand, studied another popular topic, nanoparticles, and looked at the DPPH scavenging effect of gold nanoparticles they synthesized using *L. minor*. As a result of their study, it was determined that the *L. minor* extract had a DPPH scavenging effect, however, they found that the DPPH scavenging activity of the gold nanoparticles synthesized with *L. minor* was higher. *L. minor* is an important food source for living creatures in the aquatic environment. In addition to its rich nutritional content and known pharmacological properties, its rapid vegetation period and easy development have attracted the attention of researchers [26]. *L. minor*, which is considered to have antioxidant properties because it contains high amounts of vitamin E, carotenoids and flavonoids, is also used as a feed and feed additive due to its high nutritional content. Iskandar et al. found the DPPH scavenging ability of *L. minor* extract, which they plan to use as a fish feed additive, as IC_{50} ; 54.517 ppm. In the next stage of the study, they looked at the effect of antioxidant effect on growth and immunity in Nile tilapia fish, which they fed with ready-to-feed + 25,50,75% and 100 IC_{50} extract. As a result of the study, it was found that the group fed with 25% IC_{50} *L. minor* extract increased the daily growth rate, vitality and immune system [27].

When all these studies are examined, we can say that the *L. minor* macrophyte we use has high DPPH removal, thus it has the potential to be used as an antioxidant in many fields such as food, cosmetics, feed additives, and the pharmaceutical industry.

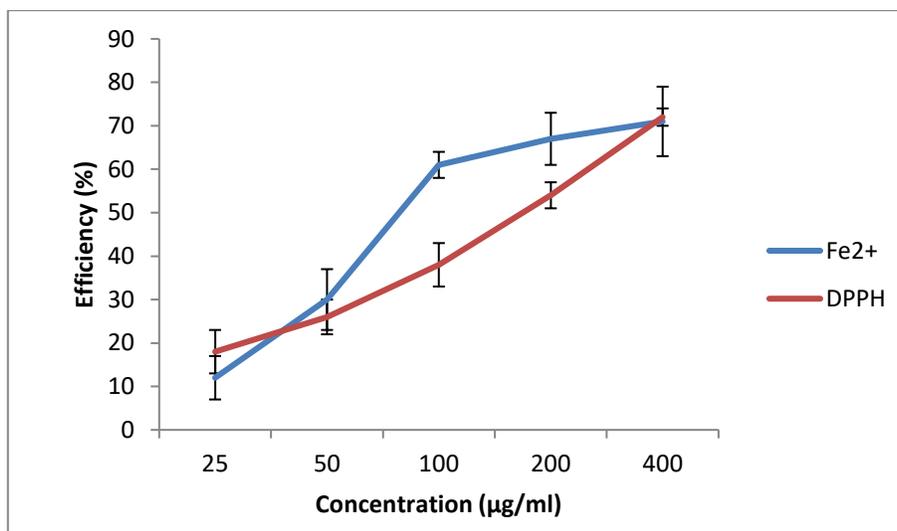


FIGURE 1. DPPH scavenging and Fe²⁺ chelating activity (%).

3.4. Determination of Metal chelating activity on ferrous ions (Fe²⁺)

Among the transition metals, iron is known as the most important pro-oxidant in lipid oxidation due to its high reactivity. At the same time, iron ions play a role in the occurrence of Fenton reactions and cause the formation of hydroxyl radicals. It is known that the hydroxyl radical, the amount of which increases in the environment, damages DNA and causes genetic mutations and cancer in advanced processes. Secondary antioxidants that come into play in this process can prevent this process, which progresses to cancer formation, by forming chelate with metal ions and inhibiting the Fenton reactions as in the equation $\text{Fe}^{2+} + \text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \rightarrow \text{Fe}^{3+} + \cdot\text{OH} + \text{OH}^-$. Our study results showed that the *L. minor* we analyzed was effective at every concentration studied. The chelating efficiency increased in a dose-dependent manner (Figure 1). Our macrophyte, which has a chelating effect of 12-71%, showed the highest efficiency at a concentration of 400 µg /ml. There are a limited number of studies showing that *L. minor* have antioxidant effects and iron chelating activity. Gülçin et al., in their study with *L. minor*, stated that ethanol extract (EELM) was 61%, water extract (WELM) 63%, and the chelating effect was BHA > WELM > EELM > BHT > trolox > atocopherol, respectively [13]. When we compare these results, we can say that *L. minor* in our study has higher activity.

3.3. Determination of β -Carotene and Lycopene Contents

β -Carotene and Lycopene are the main hydrocarbon carotenoids with apolar properties. Carotenoids are secondary plant pigments that give yellow, orange and red colors and can be synthesized by plants and some bacteria, algae and fungi. Studies have shown that β -Carotene and lycopene are powerful antioxidants and that their dietary intake is very beneficial for health. As a result of our analysis, it was determined that *Lemna minor* extract contained 0.116 mg/100 ml of β -carotene. It is known that β -carotene has antioxidant activity due to its free radical scavenging ability. In addition, β -carotene is the precursor of vitamin A, which has skin rejuvenation, visual functions, reproduction, an immune-enhancing effects. Lycopene is not a vitamin A precursor, but is the strongest antioxidant in the carotenoids. In addition, in many scientific studies, it has been reported that lycopene induces apoptosis on many cancer cell lines such as prostate, lung, colon, and also has an effect on cardiovascular diseases, bone, skin and eye health. It was determined that the *L. minor* extract we studied contains 0.091 mg/ 100ml lycopene. As a result of the study, it was observed that the methanol extract of *L. minor* had high carotene and lycopene [28].

TABLE 1. Contents of total phenols, β -carotene, lycopene and IC₅₀ (μ g /ml) values of DPPH and Fe⁺² in the methanolic extract.

| Species | Total Phenol (mg/GAE g) | DPPH IC ₅₀ | Fe ⁺² IC ₅₀ | β -carotene mg/100 ml | Lycopene mg/ 100ml |
|-----------------|-------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------|--------------------|
| <i>L. minor</i> | 20,44±1,03 | 159,08±5,14 | 103,76±3,26 | 0.116±0,03 | 0.091±0,01 |

4. CONCLUSION

Within the scope of this study, the chemical content and antioxidant properties of *Lemna minor* macrophyte obtained from inland waters of Turkey were investigated. The results of the study showed that the *L. minor* extract has high phenolic content and these results were also confirmed by GC-MS analysis. At the same time, it was determined that our extract had high DPPH scavenging and iron chelating efficiency in parallel with its phenol content. Considering these results, it is thought that our *L.*

minor extract is a strong natural antioxidant and its usability in food and pharmacy areas can be investigated.

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Within the scope of this study, the chemical content and antioxidant properties of *Lemna minor* macrophyte obtained from inland waters of Turkey were investigated.

Author Contribution Statements MBE- Collection, identification and development of *Lemna minor*. SA- project development, manuscript editing. SYD- data analysis, manuscript writing and manuscript editing. All authors have read and approved the manuscript.

Declaration of Competing Interests The authors declare no conflict of interest

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CONTRIBUTIONS TO THE FLORA OF BEYAĞAÇ (DENİZLİ)

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ABSTRACT. In this study, in order to determine the flora of Beyağaç (Denizli), 767 plant samples were collected and observed from 74 different localities by the field studies carried out in Beyağaç and its close surroundings in the years 2017 and 2018. The results of examination of the collected plant samples and evaluation of the observed plants, it was determined 362 species and totally 363 plant taxa, belonging to 63 families and 228 genera. Of 363 vascular plant taxa, 3 taxa belong to Pteridophyta division, 360 taxa to Magnoliophyta division. Of the Magnoliophyta division, 4 taxa belong to Gymnospermae subdivision and 356 taxa to Angiospermae subdivision. Of the Angiospermae subdivision, 312 taxa belong to Dicotyledonae classis and 44 taxa to Monocotyledonae classis. The phytogeographical spectrum of the flora of Beyağaç (Denizli) as follows: Mediterranean elements 115 taxa (31.6%), Irano-Turanian elements 13 taxa (3.6%), Euro-Siberian elements 20 taxa (5.5%) and multi-regional or unknown origin 216 taxa (59.3%). The largest ten families in flora of Beyağaç (Denizli) as follows: Fabaceae 43 taxa (11.8%), Asteraceae 42 taxa (11.5%), Lamiaceae 28 taxa (7.7%), Caryophyllaceae 27 taxa (7.4%), Brassicaceae 24 taxa (6.6%), Poaceae 16 taxa (4.4%), Boraginaceae 14 taxa (3.8%), Apiaceae 13 taxa (3.6%), Asparagaceae 11 taxa (3.0%), and Plantaginaceae 10 taxa (2.7%). The largest ten families constitute 64% of the flora of Beyağaç (Denizli). The largest ten genera in the flora of Beyağaç (Denizli) as follows: *Alyssum* L. 8 taxa (2.2%), *Silene* L. 7 taxa (1.9%), *Medicago* L. 6 taxa (1.6%), *Salvia* L. 6 taxa (1.6%), *Cerastium* L. 5 taxa (1.4%), *Euphorbia* L. 5 taxa (1.4%), *Muscari* Mill. 5 taxa (1.4%), *Teucrium* L. 5 taxa (1.4%), *Veronica* L. 5 taxa (1.4%), and *Vicia* L. 5 taxa (1.4%). The number of endemic taxa in the flora of Beyağaç (Denizli) are 39 (10.7%). Their threat categories were given according to "Red Data Book of Turkish Plants". It is found 21 taxa in LC category, 4 taxa in NT category, 5 taxa in VU category, 6 taxa in EN category and 2 taxa in CR category.

Keyword and phrases. Systematics, Sandras Mountain, threat category, Denizli

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1. INTRODUCTION

Turkey is located in the temperate Mediterranean climate zone and the intersection point of Iran-Turanian, Euro-Siberian and Mediterranean phytogeographic regions [1]. With 9222 species, the flora of Turkey is one of the richest in region [2]. Among the main reasons for this rich plant species diversity in Turkey are climatic changes, topographical and geological diversity, different ecological environments, and the existence of several large mountain ranges in Anatolia that create effective barriers to the geographical spread of species [3,4].

The first work written on the flora of Turkey is "Flora Orientalis" [5]. Secondly, it is "Flora of Turkey and the East Aegean Islands", which was shown as one of the best and most comprehensive flora in the world at the time it was published [6]. In the following years, 10. and 11. volumes were published as the supplementary to the main work [1,2]. Finally, "Plant List of Turkey" including also taxa added after the completion of the main flora has been published [7]. According to the "Plant List of Turkey" [7], it is found 11707 taxa, 3649 (31.82%) of which are endemic to Turkey. Turkish endemic plants are seen intensively, especially in the Mediterranean region and around the Anatolian diagonal. In addition, Munzur Mountains, Van-Bitlis-Hakkari environs, Kazdağları, Uludağ and Ilgaz Mountains are among our regions that are very rich in terms of endemic plant diversity. However, some endemic species are faced with threats such as industrialization, urbanization, expansion of agricultural areas, overgrazing, collection for traditional usage, reclamation of barren areas and fires [8].

Beyağaç located in the western end of Sandras Mountain, Gölge (Bozdağ) Mountains and Taurus Mountains is an edge district of Denizli province. It takes place in the square of C2 according to "Davis' squaring system" and also in the Mediterranean phytogeographic region. The study area, which is mostly composed of serpentine rocks and partly limestone and sandstone rocks, has a unique vegetation. The region mainly contains the vegetation types such as maquis, forest and alpine steppe. The alpine steppes are also rich in herbaceous vegetation and many endemic plants, which are unique to medium and high lands [9].

It is known that the soils formed on the serpentine bedrock are generally composed of limeless, brown forest soils or terra rossa soils [10]. Serpentine soils are known to be quite challenging habitats for plants. Although the ecology of serpentine systems and the adaptive morphology of serpentine-specific plants are quite interesting, serpentine communities have a unique structure [11]. These plants, which grow on serpentine soils, have developed various adaptations specific to this soil structure,

such as sclerophyll structure, microphilia, and spiny stem structure [12]. Sandras Mountain is very rich in terms of endemic plants. The highest peak of Sandras Mountain, which reaches a height of 2295 m, is known as Çiçekbaba Hill. Due to its height reaching 2295 m, it is one of the highest mountains of Southwest Anatolia [13].

This study presents contributions to the flora of Beyağaç (Denizli), which has the high endemism ratio.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

The field studies were carried out in Beyağaç (Denizli) district and its close surroundings in the flowering and the fruiting times of plants in the years 2017 and 2018. During the field studies, the plant samples were collected for identification, and also their natural appearance was photographed. A list is given in the Appendix 1 of the plant sampling localities as numbered. It was also recorded the GPS coordinates of the plant collection localities (Figure 1). The plant specimens collected were turned into herbarium material and identified under the Leica S8 Apo stereo microscope by using “Flora of Turkey and the East Aegean Islands” [1,2,6]. The voucher specimens are kept in the M. Çiçek herbarium (PAU).

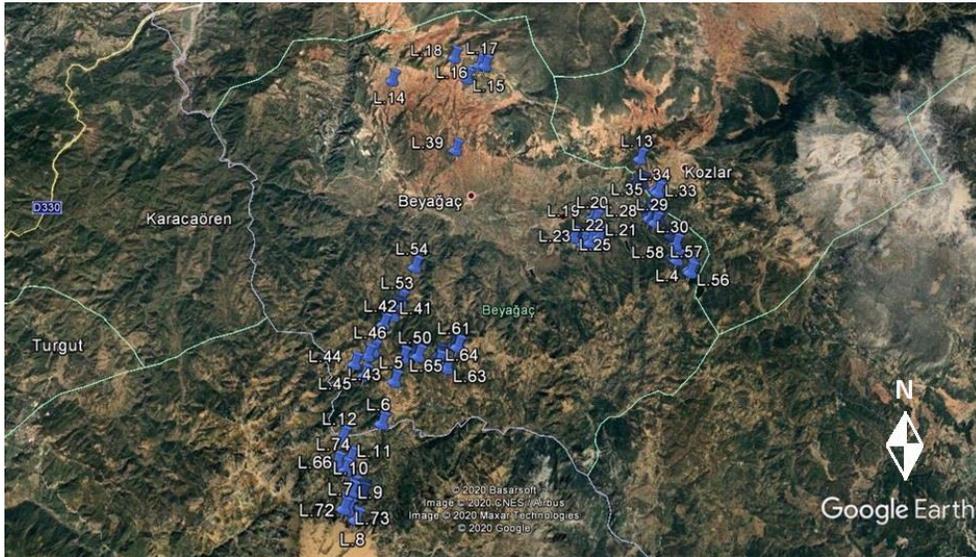


FIGURE 1. A map showing the plant sampling localities in the flora of Beyağaç (Denizli).

Taxon names were checked using “Türkiye Bitkileri Listesi (Damarlı Bitkiler)” and the online databases named “International Plant Names Index”, “The Plant List”, and “Bizim Bitkiler”, and their current taxonomic statuses were given [7,14,15,16]. The threat categories of the endemic taxa were given according to the data of “Red Data Book of Turkish Plants” [8].

3. RESULTS

In totally, 767 plant samples were collected and observed from 74 different locations by the field studies (Figure 1, Appendix 1). As a result of examination of these samples, 363 vascular plant taxa were identified, of which 39 were endemic, belonging to 63 families and 228 genera. A list is given in the Appendix 2 of the taxa determined.

Of the identified vascular plant taxa, 3 taxa belong to Pteridophyta and 360 to Magnoliophyta. In the Pteridophyta, there are 3 taxa under 3 genera belonging to 3 families. It is found 4 taxa under 2 genera belonging to 2 families in the Gymnospermae subdivision of Spermatophyta; In the Angiospermae subdivision of Spermatophyta, there are 356 taxa under 223 genera belonging to 58 families. It is found 312 taxa under 194 genera belonging to 47 families in the class Dicotyledonae, and 44 taxa under 29 genera belonging to 11 families in the class Monocotyledonae (Table 1).

TABLE 1. Distribution in the upper taxonomic categories of taxa determined in the flora of Beyağaç (Denizli) in terms of the numbers of family, genus, species and total taxa.

| The upper taxonomic categories | The number of family | The number of genus | The number of species | The total number of taxa |
|--------------------------------|----------------------|---------------------|-----------------------|--------------------------|
| Phanerogamae | 63 | 228 | 362 | 363 |
| Pteridophyta | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| Magnoliophyta | 60 | 225 | 359 | 360 |
| Gymnospermae | 2 | 2 | 4 | 4 |
| Angiospermae | 58 | 223 | 355 | 356 |
| Dicotyledonae | 47 | 194 | 311 | 312 |
| Monocotyledonae | 11 | 29 | 44 | 44 |

39 of the 363 taxa identified herein are endemic to Turkey, and constituted 10.7% of the flora of Beyağaç (Denizli). The number of other non-endemic taxa is 324 (89.3%) (Figure 2). The threat categories of endemic taxa are given according to the Red Book of Plants of Turkey [19] (Table 2). It is found 21 taxa in LC (Least Concern) category, 4 taxa in NT (Near Threatened) category, 5 taxa in VU (Vulnerable)

category, 6 taxa in EN (Endangered) category and 2 taxa in CR (Critically Endangered) category. The threat category of 1 taxon could not be evaluated.

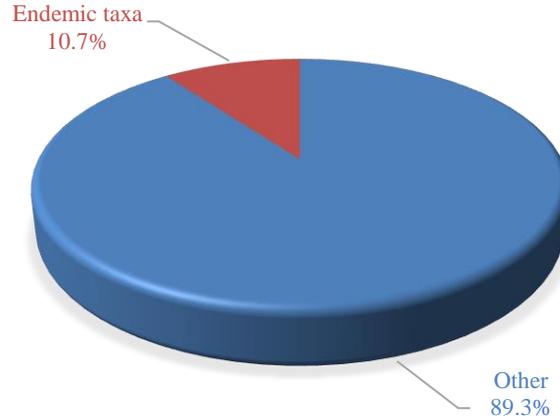


FIGURE 2. Endemism in the flora of Beyağaç (Denizli).

TABLE 2. Threat categories of the endemic taxa in the flora of Beyağaç (Denizli).

Abbreviations of threat categories: LC: Least Concern, NT: Near Threatened, VU: Vulnerable, EN: Endangered, CR: Critically Endangered

| No | Family | Taxon name | Threat category |
|----|-----------------|---|-----------------|
| 1 | Plumbaginaceae | <i>Acantholimon ulicinum</i> (Willd. ex Schult.) Boiss. var. <i>purpurascens</i> (Bokhari) Bokhari & J.R.Edm. | LC |
| 2 | Brassicaceae | <i>Alyssum caricum</i> T.R.Dudley & Hub.-Mor. | EN |
| 3 | Brassicaceae | <i>Alyssum hirsutum</i> M.Bieb. subsp. <i>caespitosum</i> (T.R.Dudley) Ančev, Kožuharov & Kuzmanov | NT |
| 4 | Brassicaceae | <i>Alyssum masmenaeum</i> Boiss. | LC |
| 5 | Brassicaceae | <i>Alyssum propinquum</i> Baumg. | LC |
| 6 | Fabaceae | <i>Astragalus tmoleus</i> Boiss. var. <i>tmoleus</i> | LC |
| 7 | Caryophyllaceae | <i>Bolanthus frankenioides</i> (Boiss.) Barkoudah var. <i>fasciculatus</i> (Boiss. & Heldr.) Barkoudah | LC |
| 8 | Caryophyllaceae | <i>Bolanthus thymoides</i> Hub.-Mor. | LC |
| 9 | Asteraceae | <i>Centaurea ensiformis</i> P.H.Davis | VU |
| 10 | Caprifoliaceae | <i>Cephalaria lycica</i> V.A.Matthews | NT |
| 11 | Lamiaceae | <i>Clinopodium troodi</i> (Post) Govaerts subsp. <i>vardaranum</i> (Leblebici) Govaerts | EN |
| 12 | Primulaceae | <i>Cyclamen alpinum</i> Dammann ex Spreng. | LC |
| 13 | Caryophyllaceae | <i>Dianthus eretmopetalus</i> Stapf | VU |

TABLE 2 (CONTINUED).

| No | Family | Taxon name | Threat category |
|----|------------------|--|-----------------|
| 14 | Fabaceae | <i>Ebenus pisidica</i> Hub.-Mor. & Reese | CR |
| 15 | Apiaceae | <i>Eryngium thorifolium</i> Boiss. | LC |
| 16 | Brassicaceae | <i>Erysimum serpentanicum</i> Polatschek | CR |
| 17 | Euphorbiaceae | <i>Euphorbia anacampseros</i> Boiss. var. <i>anacampseros</i> | LC |
| 18 | Euphorbiaceae | <i>Euphorbia austroanatolica</i> Hub.-Mor. & M.S.Khan | LC |
| 19 | Apiaceae | <i>Ferulago sandrasica</i> Peşmen & Quézel | EN |
| 20 | Fabaceae | <i>Genista sandrasica</i> Hartvig & Strid | EN |
| 21 | Hypericaceae | <i>Hypericum aviculariifolium</i> Jaub. & Spach | LC |
| 22 | Plantaginaceae | <i>Linaria corifolia</i> Desf. | LC |
| 23 | Caryophyllaceae | <i>Minuartia recurva</i> (All.) Schinz & Thell. subsp. <i>carica</i> McNeill | VU |
| 24 | Asparagaceae | <i>Muscari racemosum</i> Mill. | VU |
| 25 | Asparagaceae | <i>Muscari sandrasicum</i> Karlén | EN |
| 26 | Lamiaceae | <i>Nepeta cadmea</i> Boiss. | LC |
| 27 | Brassicaceae | <i>Noccaea cariensis</i> (Carlström) Parolly, Nordt & Aytac | EN |
| 28 | Lamiaceae | <i>Origanum hypericifolium</i> O.Schwarz & P.H.Davis | LC |
| 29 | Asparagaceae | <i>Ornithogalum alpigenum</i> Stapf | NT |
| 30 | Crassulaceae | <i>Prometheum serpentanicum</i> (Werderm.) t Hart var. <i>serpentanicum</i> | LC |
| 31 | Caprifoliaceae | <i>Scabiosa polykratis</i> Rech.f. | LC |
| 32 | Crassulaceae | <i>Sedum lydium</i> Boiss. | LC |
| 33 | Asteraceae | <i>Senecio sandrasicus</i> P.H.Davis | LC |
| 34 | Caryophyllaceae | <i>Silene echinospermoides</i> Hub.-Mor. | LC |
| 35 | Lamiaceae | <i>Teucrium alyssifolium</i> Stapf | LC |
| 36 | Lamiaceae | <i>Teucrium sandrasicum</i> O. Schwarz | LC |
| 37 | Scrophulariaceae | <i>Verbascum cariense</i> Hub.-Mor. | NT |
| 38 | Scrophulariaceae | <i>Verbascum trapifolium</i> (Stapf) Hub.-Mor. | VU |
| 39 | Violaceae | <i>Viola heldreichiana</i> Boiss. | - |

The phytogeographical spectrum of the flora of Beyağaç (Denizli) is as follows: Mediterranean elements 115 taxa (31.6%), Irano-Turanian elements 13 taxa (3.6%), Euro-Siberian elements 20 taxa (5.5%) and multi-regional and/or unknown origin 215 taxa (59.3%) (Figure 3).

The largest ten families in the flora of Beyağaç (Denizli) are as follows: Fabaceae 43 taxa (11.8%), Asteraceae 42 taxa (11.5%), Lamiaceae 28 taxa (7.7%), Caryophyllaceae 27 taxa (7.4%), Brassicaceae 24 taxa (6.6%), Poaceae 16 taxa (4.4%), Boraginaceae 14 taxa (3.8%), Apiaceae 13 taxa (3.6%), Asparagaceae 11 taxa (3.0%), and Plantaginaceae 10 taxa (2.7%). The largest ten families constitute 62.6% of the flora of Beyağaç (Denizli) (Figure 4).

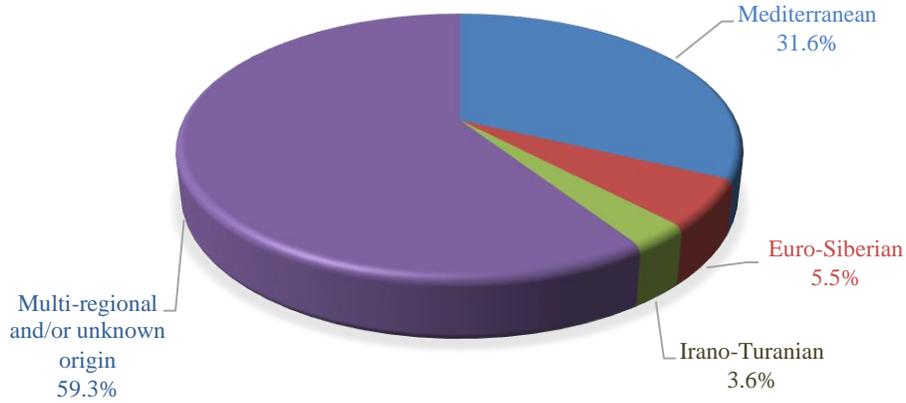


FIGURE 3. Phylogeographical spectrum for the flora of Beyağaç (Denizli).

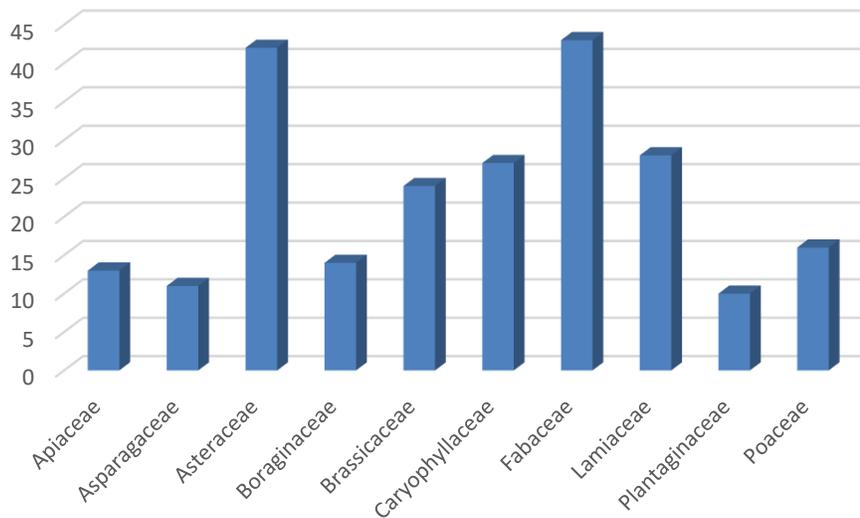


FIGURE 4. The largest ten families in the flora of Beyağaç (Denizli).

The largest ten genera in the flora of Beyağaç (Denizli) are as follows: *Alyssum* L. 8 taxa (2.2%), *Silene* L. 7 taxa (1.9%), *Medicago* L. 6 taxa (1.6%), *Salvia* L. 6 taxa (1.6%), *Cerastium* L. 5 taxa (1.4%), *Euphorbia* L. 5 taxa (1.4%), *Muscari* Mill. 5

taxa (1.4%), *Teucrium* L. 5 taxa (1.4%), *Veronica* L. 5 taxa (1.4%), and *Vicia* L. 5 taxa (1.4%) (Figure 5).

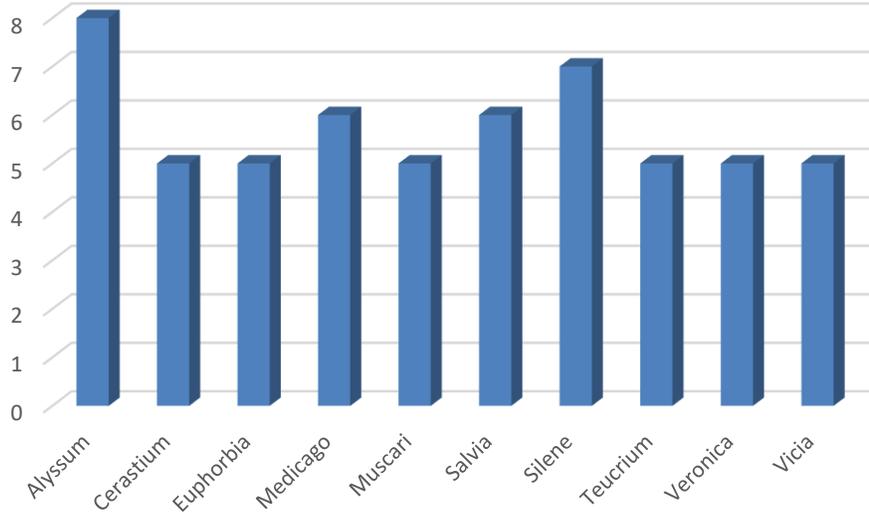


FIGURE 5. The largest ten genera in the flora of Beyağaç (Denizli).

4. DISCUSSION

The results of study revealed that compared to some other studies carried out in the region, the flora of Beyağaç (Denizli) have fewer plant diversity. Babadağ (Denizli) [17], Honaz Mountain (Denizli) [18,19,20] and Boncuk Mountains (Burdur-Muğla) [21] are the richest first three floras in the region, respectively (Table 3). Due to their having huge mass, big size, very different ecological conditions and habitat diversity, this is an expected situation that they contain more taxa. The flora of Beyağaç (Denizli) is in the tenth order.

TABLE 3. A comparison of the flora of Beyağaç (Denizli) with some other studies carried out in the region in terms of the numbers of family, genus, species and total taxa.

Abbreviations of studies: Studies: 1: Flora of Beyağaç (Denizli) (Results of this study), 2: Flora of Mt Aydoğdu (Denizli/Turkey) [22], 3: Babadağ (Denizli)'ın Flora ve Vejetasyonu [17], 4: Bencik Dağı (Yatağan-Muğla) Florası [23], 5: Flora of Boncuk Mountains (Burdur-Muğla, Turkey) [21], 6: Denizli Acıpayam Bozdağ'ın Flora ve Vejetasyonu [24], 7: Flora of Çökelez Mountain (Denizli-Turkey) and its environs [25], 8: Honaz Dağı'nın Bitkileri I (The Flora of Honaz Dağı I) [18], Honaz Dağı'nın Bitkileri II (The Flora of Honaz Dağı II) [19], A Supplementary List to the Flora of Honaz Dağı [20], 9: Flora of Kurukümes Mountain (Milas-Muğla/Turkey) [26], 10: Sandras Dağı'nın (Muğla) Bitkisel Örtüsü ve Bazı Endemik Türleri Üzerinde Palinolojik, Sitolojik Araştırmalar [27], 11: Yılanlı Dağı (Muğla)'nın Florası [28], *Number not specified in the study.

| Taxonomic categories | Research areas | | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------|----------------|------------|-------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 |
| Family | 63 | 82 | 94 | 65 | 83 | * | 76 | * | 73 | 86 | 48 |
| Genus | 228 | 314 | 430 | 264 | 340 | * | 316 | * | 275 | 319 | 181 |
| Species | 362 | * | * | 407 | * | * | * | * | 522 | * | 338 |
| Total Taxa | 363 | 586 | 1066 | 421 | 858 | 572 | 587 | 985 | 555 | 664 | 343 |

Compared the phytogeographical spectrum of the flora of Beyağaç (Denizli) with those of some other studies carried out in the region, in all studies in the region, the Mediterranean phytogeographic region is in the first order, the Iran-Turanian phytogeographic region in the second order (except for the present study and Flora of Kurukümes Mountain [26]), and the Euro-Siberian phytogeographic region in the third order (Table 4). Since the study area is under the effect of the Mediterranean climate and is located within the borders of the Mediterranean phytogeographic region, it is an expected situation for the Mediterranean elements to be the first order in the phytogeographical spectrum. Secondly, considering all compared study areas to be close to the Irano-Turanian phytogeographic region, it is most likely for Iran-Turanian elements to be the second order.

TABLE 4. A comparison of the flora of Beyağaç (Denizli) with some other studies carried out in the region in terms of the phytogeographical spectrum.

| Phytogeographic regions | Research areas | | | | | | | | | | |
|------------------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|---|----------------|----------------|---|----------------|----------------|----------------|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 |
| Mediterranean | 115 (31.6%) | 180 (30.7%) | 253 (23.7%) | 171 (40.6%) | * | 148 (25.8%) | 153 (26.1%) | * | 216 (38.9%) | 175 (27.0%) | 132 (38.4%) |
| Euro-Siberian | 20 (5.5%) | 24 (4.0%) | 38 (3.6%) | 8 (1.9%) | * | 24 (4.1%) | 30 (5.1%) | * | 24 (4.3%) | 7 (1.0%) | 8 (2.3%) |
| Irano-Turanian | 13 (3.6%) | 43 (7.3%) | 56 (5.3%) | 18 (4.2%) | * | 54 (9.4%) | 46 (7.8%) | * | 9 (1.6%) | 21 (3.2%) | 36 (10.5%) |
| Multiregional and/or unknown | 215 (59.3%) | 339 (58.0%) | 719 (67.4%) | 212 (50.3%) | * | 346 (60.7%) | 358 (61.0%) | * | 306 (55.1%) | 461 (68.8%) | 167 (48.8%) |

When we compared the flora of Beyağaç (Denizli) with some other studies carried out in the region in terms of endemism ratio (%), Boncuk Mountains (Burdur-Muğla) with 20.9% [21], Yılanlı Mountain (Muğla) with 18.6% [28] and Denizli Acıpayam Bozdağ [24] with 18.5% are in the first three order. Babadağ (Denizli) [17], Honaz Mountain (Denizli) [18,19,20] and Sandras Mountain (Muğla) [27] are in fourth, fifth and sixth order, respectively. The flora of Beyağaç (Denizli) is in seventh order with 10.7%. Aydoğdu Mountain (Denizli) [22] with 9.7%, Bencik Mountain (Muğla) [23] with 9.0%, Kurukümes Mountain (Muğla) [26] with 8.4% and Çökelez Mountain (Denizli) [25] with 5.6% are in eighth, ninth, tenth and eleventh order, respectively. The first three flora containing the largest number of endemic taxa; Boncuk Mountains (Burdur-Muğla) with 180 endemic taxa, Babadağ (Denizli) with 164 endemic taxa and Honaz Mountain (Denizli) with 135 endemic taxa. Denizli Acıpayam Bozdağ with 106 endemic taxa, Sandras Mountain (Muğla) with 76 endemic taxa, Yılanlı Mountain (Muğla) with 64 endemic taxa, Aydoğdu Mountain (Denizli) with 57 endemic taxa, Kurukümes Mountain (Muğla) with 47 endemic taxa, Beyağaç (Denizli) with 39 endemic taxa, Bencik Mountain (Muğla) with 38 endemic taxa, and Çökelez Mountain (Denizli) with 33 endemic taxa are in fourth, fifth, sixth, seventh, eighth, ninth, tenth and eleventh order, respectively (Table 5).

TABLE 5. A comparison of the flora of Beyağaç (Denizli) with some other studies carried out in the region in terms of the numbers of total taxa and endemic taxa.

| Endemism | Research areas | | | | | | | | | | |
|--------------------------------|----------------|--------------|----------------|--------------|----------------|----------------|--------------|----------------|--------------|---------------|---------------|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 |
| The total number of taxa | 363 | 586 | 1066 | 421 | 858 | 572 | 587 | 985 | 555 | 664 | 343 |
| The number of endemic taxa (%) | 39 (10.7%) | 57 (9.7%) | 164 (15.3%) | 38 (9.0%) | 180 (20.9%) | 106 (18.5%) | 33 (5.6%) | 135 (13.7%) | 47 (8.4%) | 76 (11.4%) | 64 (18.6%) |

Compared the flora of Beyağaç (Denizli) with some other studies carried out in the region in terms of the largest ten families (Table 6), the family Fabaceae is in the first order in the floras of Beyağaç (Denizli), Babadağ (Denizli), Boncuk Mountains (Burdur-Muğla), Denizli Acıpayam Bozdağ, Honaz Mountain (Denizli) and Yılanlı Mountain (Muğla). It is in the second order in the floras of Aydoğdu Mountain (Denizli), Bencik Mountain (Muğla), Çökelez Mountain (Denizli) and Kurukümes Mountain (Muğla). The family Asteraceae is in the first order in floras of Aydoğdu Mountain (Denizli), Bencik Mountain (Muğla), Çökelez Mountain (Denizli), Kurukümes Mountain (Muğla) and Sandras Mountain (Muğla); in the second order in the floras of Babadağ (Denizli), Denizli Acıpayam Bozdağ, Honaz Mountain (Denizli) and Boncuk Mountains (Burdur-Muğla); in the third order in the flora of

Yılanlı Mountain (Muğla). The family Lamiaceae is in the third order in the flora of Beyağaç (Denizli), Bencik Mountain (Muğla), Denizli Acıpayam Bozdağ, Sandras Mountain (Muğla) and Kurukümes Mountain (Muğla). The family Poaceae is in the second order in the flora of Boncuk Mountains (Burdur-Muğla) and in the third order in the floras of Babadağ (Denizli) and Çökelez Mountain (Denizli). The family Brassicaceae is in the third order in the floras of Aydoğdu Mountain (Denizli) and Honaz Mountain (Denizli). The family Caryophyllaceae is in the second order in the flora of Sandras Mountain (Muğla). Except for the floras of Sandras Mountain (Muğla) (Asteraceae only, in the first order) and Yılanlı Mountain (Muğla) (Fabaceae only, in the first order), Asteraceae and Fabaceae families are in the first two order in all floras compared. Indeed, it is an expected situation that the families Asteraceae and Fabaceae are in the first two order in the all floras, because of them to be the largest families of the Flora of Turkey in terms of the number of taxa. Depending on the family Lamiaceae including many taxa of mesophytic and Mediterranean origin, because the compared floras are also mostly located in the Mediterranean region, it can also be considered as a possible situation that Lamiaceae comes the first rank in the floras of Beyağaç (Denizli), Bencik Mountain (Muğla), Denizli Acıpayam Bozdağ and Kurukümes Mountain (Muğla). Because of Poaceae to be one of the largest families in the flora of Turkey, it is a possible situation that it is in the first three order in the floras of Boncuk Mountains (Burdur-Muğla), Babadağ (Denizli), Çökelez Mountain (Denizli) and Yılanlı Mountain (Muğla).

TABLE 6. A comparison of the flora of Beyağaç (Denizli) with some other studies carried out in the region in terms of the largest ten families.

| Families | Research areas | | | | | | | | | | |
|-----------------|----------------|---------------|----------------|---------------|----------------|---------------|---------------|----------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 |
| Apiaceae | 13 (3.6%) | 23 (3.9%) | 38 (3.6%) | 17 (4.0%) | 35 (4.0%) | - | 20 (3.4%) | 44 (4.4%) | 17 (3.0%) | 25 (3.7%) | - |
| Asparagaceae | 11 (3.0%) | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| Asteraceae | 42 (11.5%) | 76 (12.9%) | 123 (11.5%) | 57 (13.5%) | 80 (9.3%) | 64 (11.1%) | 87 (14.8%) | 106 (10.7%) | 73 (13.1%) | 73 (10.9%) | 33 (9.6%) |
| Boraginaceae | 14 (3.8%) | - | 30 (2.8%) | - | 26 (3.0%) | 21 (3.6%) | 19 (3.2%) | 36 (3.6%) | - | - | 18 (5.2%) |
| Brassicaceae | 24 (6.6%) | 43 (7.3%) | 64 (6.0%) | 22 (5.2%) | 58 (6. % 7) | 35 (6.1%) | 26 (4.4%) | 70 (7.1%) | 33 (5.9%) | 36 (5.4%) | 10 (2.9%) |
| Caryophyllaceae | 27 (7.4%) | 24 (4.0%) | 71 (6.7%) | 17 (4.0%) | 55 (6.4%) | 32 (5.5%) | 21 (3.5%) | 60 (6.0%) | 21 (3.7%) | 48 (7.2%) | 13 (3.7%) |
| Euphorbiaceae | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 16 (2.4%) | - |
| Fabaceae | 43 (11.8%) | 65 (11.0%) | 137 (12.9%) | 39 (9.2%) | 99 (11.5%) | 70 (12.2%) | 70 (11.9%) | 109 (11.0%) | 60 (10.8%) | 39 (5.8%) | 44 (12.8%) |

TABLE 6 (CONTINUED).

| Families | Research areas | | | | | | | | | | |
|------------------|----------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|---------------|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 |
| Lamiaceae | 28 (7.7%) | 28 (4.7%) | 71 (6.7%) | 37 (8.7%) | 74 (8.6%) | 49 (8.5%) | 32 (5.4%) | 55 (5.5%) | 41 (7.3%) | 47 (7.0%) | 37 (10.7%) |
| Liliaceae | - | 27 (4.6%) | 49 (4.6%) | 23 (5.4%) | 32 (3.7%) | 23 (4.0%) | 18 (3.0%) | 31 (3.1%) | 26 (4.6%) | 45 (6.7%) | 22 (6.4%) |
| Orchidaceae | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 18 (3.2%) | 16 (2.4%) | - |
| Plantaginaceae | 10 (2.7%) | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| Poaceae | 16 (4.4%) | 41 (6.9%) | 79 (7.4%) | 27 (6.4%) | 81 (9.4%) | 30 (5.2%) | 47 (8.0%) | 53 (5.3%) | 34 (6.1%) | - | 26 (7.5%) |
| Ranunculaceae | - | - | 23 (2.2%) | - | 16 (1.8%) | - | - | 25 (2.5%) | - | - | - |
| Rosaceae | - | 23 (3.9%) | 42 (3.9%) | 13 (3.0%) | 23 (2.6%) | 19 (3.3%) | 19 (3.2%) | 21 (2.1%) | - | - | 17 (4.9%) |
| Scrophulariaceae | - | - | 10 (0.9%) | 11 (2.6%) | 29 (3.3%) | 19 (3.3%) | - | 42 (4.2%) | 17 (3.0%) | 32 (4.8%) | 10 (2.9%) |

Compared the flora of Beyağaç (Denizli) with some other studies carried out in the region in terms of the largest ten genera (Table 7), *Allium* L. in Sandras Mountain (Muğla); *Alyssum* L. in Beyağaç (Denizli), Denizli Acıpayam Bozdağ and Honaz Mountain (Denizli); *Anthemis* L. in Çökelez Mountain (Denizli); *Astragalus* L. in Babadağ (Denizli), Boncuk Mountains (Burdur-Muğla), Denizli Acıpayam Bozdağ and Honaz Mountain (Denizli); *Bromus* L. in Çökelez Mountain (Denizli); *Centaurea* L. in Bencik Mountain (Muğla) and Yılanlı Mountain (Muğla); *Euphorbia* L. in Sandras Mountain (Muğla); *Galium* L. in Babadağ (Denizli), Boncuk Mountains (Burdur-Muğla) and Denizli Acıpayam Bozdağ; *Lathyrus* L. in Çökelez Mountain (Denizli); *Medicago* L. in Beyağaç (Denizli) and Çökelez Mountain (Denizli); *Ornithogalum* L. in Aydoğdu Mountain (Denizli); *Salvia* L. in Beyağaç (Denizli); *Scorzonera* L. in Yılanlı Mountain (Muğla); *Silene* L. in Beyağaç (Denizli), Bencik Mountain (Muğla), Boncuk Mountains (Burdur-Muğla), Kurukümes Mountain (Muğla) and Sandras Mountain (Muğla); *Trifolium* L. in Aydoğdu Mountain (Denizli), Babadağ (Denizli), Bencik Mountain (Muğla), Denizli Acıpayam Bozdağ, Çökelez Mountain (Denizli), Honaz Mountain (Denizli), Kurukümes Mountain (Muğla) and Yılanlı Mountain (Muğla); *Trigonella* L. in Yılanlı Mountain (Muğla); *Veronica* L. in Aydoğdu Mountain (Denizli) and *Vicia* L. in Bencik Mountain (Muğla) and Kurukümes Mountain (Muğla) are among the largest three genera. *Trifolium* L. is in the first order in the floras of Aydoğdu Mountain (Denizli), Bencik Mountain (Muğla), Çökelez Mountain (Denizli), Honaz Mountain (Denizli), Kurukümes Mountain (Muğla) and Yılanlı Mountain (Muğla), but *Alyssum* L. in the first order in Beyağaç (Denizli). *Allium* L. is in the first order in the flora of Sandras Mountain (Muğla), whereas *Astragalus* L. is in the first order

in the floras of Babadağ (Denizli), Boncuk Mountains (Burdur-Muğla) and Denizli Acıpayam Bozdağ.

TABLE 7. A comparison of the flora of Beyağaç (Denizli) with some other studies carried out in the region in terms of the largest ten genera.

| Genera | Research areas | | | | | | | | | | |
|------------------------|----------------|-------------|--------------|-------------|--------------|--------------|-------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|-------------|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 |
| <i>Allium</i> L. | - | - | 17 (1.5%) | - | 7 (0.8%) | - | - | - | - | 18 (2.7%) | - |
| <i>Alyssum</i> L. | 8 (2.2%) | 7 (1.1%) | 13 (1.2%) | - | 15 (1.7%) | 8 (1.3%) | - | 19 (1.9%) | - | 11 (1.6%) | - |
| <i>Anthemis</i> L. | - | 7 (1.1%) | 12 (1.1%) | - | 6 (0.6%) | - | 9 (1.5%) | - | 8 (1.4%) | - | - |
| <i>Astragalus</i> L. | - | 6 (1.0%) | 21 (1.9%) | - | 28 (3.2%) | 15 (2.6%) | - | 19 (1.9%) | - | - | - |
| <i>Bromus</i> L. | - | - | - | 5 (1.1%) | - | - | 9 (1.5%) | - | - | - | - |
| <i>Centaurea</i> L. | - | 8 (1.3%) | 13 (1.2%) | 6 (1.4%) | 12 (1.3%) | - | 7 (1.2%) | 13 (1.3%) | - | 10 (1.5%) | 6 (1.7%) |
| <i>Cerastium</i> L. | 5 (1.4%) | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| <i>Crepis</i> L. | - | - | - | - | - | - | 6 (1.0%) | - | - | - | - |
| <i>Euphorbia</i> L. | 5 (1.4%) | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 16 (2.4%) | - |
| <i>Galium</i> L. | - | 7 (1.1%) | 20 (1.8%) | - | 16 (1.8%) | 9 (1.5%) | 6 (1.0%) | 13 (1.3%) | - | - | - |
| <i>Geranium</i> L. | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 7 (1.2%) | - | - |
| <i>Lathyrus</i> L. | - | - | - | - | - | - | 9 (1.5%) | - | - | - | - |
| <i>Medicago</i> L. | 6 (1.6%) | 6 (1.0%) | - | - | - | - | 9 (1.5%) | - | 7 (1.2%) | - | - |
| <i>Muscari</i> Mill. | 5 (1.4%) | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| <i>Orchis</i> L. | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 7 (1.2%) | - | - |
| <i>Ornithogalum</i> L. | - | 9 (1.5%) | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 8 (1.2%) | - |
| <i>Ranunculus</i> L. | - | 7 (1.1%) | 13 (1.2%) | 5 (1.1%) | 8 (0.9%) | - | - | 14 (1.4%) | 8 (1.4%) | 11 (1.6%) | - |
| <i>Rumex</i> L. | - | - | - | - | - | - | 7 (1.2%) | - | - | - | - |
| <i>Salvia</i> L. | 6 (1.6%) | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| <i>Scorzonera</i> L. | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 6 (1.7%) |
| <i>Sedum</i> L. | - | - | 9 (0.8%) | - | 10 (1.1%) | 7 (1.2%) | - | 10 (1.0%) | - | - | - |
| <i>Silene</i> L. | 7 (1.9%) | 8 (1.3%) | 14 (1.3%) | 6 (1.4%) | 16 (1.8%) | 7 (1.2%) | - | 18 (1.8%) | 12 (2.1%) | 14 (2.1%) | 5 (1.4%) |

TABLE 7 (CONTINUED).

| Genera | Research areas | | | | | | | | | | |
|----------------------|----------------|--------------|--------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 |
| <i>Teucrium</i> L. | 5 (1.4%) | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - |
| <i>Trifolium</i> L. | - | 13 (2.2%) | 18 (1.6%) | 8 (1.9%) | 9 (1.0%) | 8 (1.3%) | 13 (2.2%) | 20 (2.0%) | 18 (3.2%) | 7 (1.0%) | 10 (2.9%) |
| <i>Trigonella</i> L. | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | - | 6 (1.7%) |
| <i>Verbascum</i> L. | - | 7 (1.1%) | - | - | - | - | - | - | 7 (1.2%) | 11 (1.6%) | - |
| <i>Veronica</i> L. | 5 (1.4%) | 9 (1.5%) | - | - | - | - | 6 (1.0%) | - | - | 8 (1.2%) | - |
| <i>Vicia</i> L. | 5 (1.4%) | - | - | 6 (1.4%) | - | - | - | - | 11 (1.9%) | - | - |

5. CONCLUSION

Consequently, it would be said that the research area has an important plant diversity. The area is home to many endemic and rare plant species. The endemic species *Ebenus pisidica* and *Erysimum serpentanicum* with "Critically Endangered" (CR) category have a narrow population in this area. The data obtained in this study will contribute to future multidisciplinary studies.

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Author Contribution Statement MÇ-specimen collection and identification, data analysis and manuscript writing. OÇ-data analysis and manuscript writing.

Declaration of Competing Interests The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1. A list of the plant sampling localities in the flora of Beyağaç (Denizli)

| Locality no | Locality | Altitude (m) | Date |
|-------------|--|--------------|------------|
| 1 | C2 Denizli: Beyağaç | - | 2017 |
| 2 | C2 Denizli: Beyağaç, from Kozlar towards the chrome quarry, near the chrome quarry | 795 | 13.07.2017 |
| 3 | C2 Denizli: Beyağaç, above the chrome quarry, towards Eşen Pond | 939 | 13.07.2017 |
| 4 | C2 Denizli: Beyağaç, Eşen Pond, the edges of the pond | 1013 | 13.07.2017 |
| 5 | C2 Denizli: Beyağaç, Sandras Mountain, Kartal Lake road | 1333 | 13.07.2017 |
| 6 | C2 Muğla: Köyceğiz, Sandras Mountain, Kartal Lake road | 1351 | 13.07.2017 |
| 7 | C2 Muğla: Köyceğiz, near Kartal Lake | 1888 | 13.07.2017 |
| 8 | C2 Muğla: Köyceğiz, Kartal Lake, the areas around the lake where the water is withdrawn and the stream sides | 1900 | 13.07.2017 |
| 9 | C2 Muğla: Köyceğiz, Sandras Mountain, Kartal Lake road | 1797 | 13.07.2017 |
| 10 | C2 Muğla: Köyceğiz, Sandras Mountain, Kartal Lake road | 1756 | 13.07.2017 |
| 11 | C2 Muğla: Köyceğiz, Sandras Mountain, Kartal Lake road | 1617 | 13.07.2017 |
| 12 | C2 Muğla: Köyceğiz, Sandras Mountain, Kartal Lake road | 1415 | 16.09.2017 |
| 13 | C2 Denizli: 9 km from Denizli to Beyağaç, under the <i>Pinus brutia</i> forest | 933 | 08.04.2018 |
| 14 | C2 Denizli: Beyağaç, Sazak entrance, field edges | 902 | 08.04.2018 |
| 15 | C2 Denizli: Beyağaç, Kapuz entrance | 961 | 08.04.2018 |
| 16 | C2 Denizli: Beyağaç, Serverler entrance | 1114 | 08.04.2018 |
| 17 | C2 Denizli: Beyağaç, Serverler entrance | 1130 | 08.04.2018 |
| 18 | C2 Denizli: Beyağaç, Kocabaşlar | 1095 | 08.04.2018 |
| 19 | C2 Denizli: Beyağaç, in the forest | 757 | 08.04.2018 |
| 20 | C2 Denizli: Beyağaç, in the forest | 763 | 08.04.2018 |

| | | | |
|----|---|------|------------|
| 21 | C2 Denizli: Beyağaç, in the forest | 763 | 08.04.2018 |
| 22 | C2 Denizli: Beyağaç, in the forest | 755 | 08.04.2018 |
| 23 | C2 Denizli: Beyağaç, in the forest | 754 | 08.04.2018 |
| 24 | C2 Denizli: Beyağaç, in the forest | 748 | 08.04.2018 |
| 25 | C2 Denizli: Beyağaç, in the forest | 742 | 08.04.2018 |
| 26 | C2 Denizli: Beyağaç, above the chrome quarry, towards Eşen Pond | 854 | 08.04.2018 |
| 27 | C2 Denizli: Beyağaç, above the chrome quarry, towards Eşen Pond | 882 | 08.04.2018 |
| 28 | C2 Denizli: Beyağaç, above the chrome quarry, towards Eşen Pond | 895 | 08.04.2018 |
| 29 | C2 Denizli: Beyağaç, above the chrome quarry, towards Eşen Pond | 925 | 08.04.2018 |
| 30 | C2 Denizli: Beyağaç, between the chrome quarry and Eşen Pond | 994 | 08.04.2018 |
| 31 | C2 Denizli: Beyağaç, near Eşen Pond | 998 | 08.04.2018 |
| 32 | C2 Denizli: Beyağaç, near Eşen Pond | 996 | 08.04.2018 |
| 33 | C2 Denizli: Beyağaç, from Kozlar towards the chrome quarry, near the chrome quarry | 840 | 21.04.2018 |
| 34 | C2 Denizli: Beyağaç, from Kozlar towards the chrome quarry, near the chrome quarry | 820 | 21.04.2018 |
| 35 | C2 Denizli: Beyağaç, from Kozlar towards the chrome quarry, near the chrome quarry | 852 | 21.04.2018 |
| 36 | C2 Denizli: Beyağaç, from Kozlar towards the chrome quarry, near the chrome quarry | 820 | 21.04.2018 |
| 37 | C2 Denizli: Beyağaç, from Kozlar towards the chrome quarry, near the chrome quarry | 790 | 21.04.2018 |
| 38 | C2 Denizli: Beyağaç, in the forest | 765 | 21.04.2018 |
| 39 | C2 Denizli: Beyağaç, between Kızılcaağaç and Beyağaç | 747 | 21.04.2018 |
| 40 | C2 Denizli: Beyağaç, above Beyağaç, Sandras Mountain, Kartal Lake road | 1195 | 21.04.2018 |
| 41 | C2 Denizli: Beyağaç, above Beyağaç, Sandras Mountain, Kartal Lake road | 1234 | 21.04.2018 |
| 42 | C2 Denizli: Beyağaç, above Beyağaç, Sandras Mountain, Kartal Lake road | 1267 | 21.04.2018 |
| 43 | C2 Denizli: Beyağaç, Sandras Mountain, the right sides of the road before Kartal Lake-Karagöl junction | 1237 | 21.04.2018 |
| 44 | C2 Denizli: Beyağaç, Sandras Mountain, the right sides of the road before Kartal Lake-Karagöl junction | 1199 | 21.04.2018 |
| 45 | C2 Denizli: Beyağaç, Sandras Mountain, the right sides of the road before Kartal Lake-Karagöl junction | 1148 | 21.04.2018 |
| 46 | C2 Denizli: Beyağaç, Sandras Mountain, the right sides of the road before Kartal Lake-Karagöl junction | 1245 | 21.04.2018 |
| 47 | C2 Denizli: Beyağaç, Karagöl surroundings | 1346 | 21.04.2018 |
| 48 | C2 Denizli: Beyağaç, Karagöl, lakeside | 1332 | 21.04.2018 |
| 49 | C2 Denizli: Beyağaç, Karagöl, lakeside | 1332 | 21.04.2018 |
| 50 | C2 Denizli: Beyağaç, from Kartal Lake-Karagöl junction towards Karagöl | 1398 | 21.04.2018 |
| 51 | C2 Denizli: Beyağaç, from Kartal Lake-Karagöl junction towards Karagöl | 1381 | 21.04.2018 |
| 52 | C2 Denizli: Beyağaç, above Beyağaç, Sandras Mountain, Kartal Lake road | 1197 | 21.04.2018 |
| 53 | C2 Denizli: Beyağaç, above Beyağaç, Sandras Mountain, Kartal Lake road | 1168 | 21.04.2018 |
| 54 | C2 Denizli: Beyağaç, above Beyağaç, Sandras Mountain, Kartal Lake road | 1020 | 21.04.2018 |

| | | | |
|----|--|------|------------|
| 55 | C2 Denizli: Beyağaç | - | 18.05.2018 |
| 56 | C2 Denizli: Beyağaç, Eşen Pond, the in-water and the areas around the pond where the water is drawn | 1005 | 11.08.2018 |
| 57 | C2 Denizli: Beyağaç, Eşen Pond, the in-water and the areas around the pond where the water is drawn | 1006 | 11.08.2018 |
| 58 | C2 Denizli: Beyağaç, near Eşen Pond, pastures | 996 | 11.08.2018 |
| 59 | C2 Denizli: Beyağaç, between the chrome quarry and Eşen Pond | 970 | 11.08.2018 |
| 60 | C2 Denizli: Beyağaç, the tops of the chrome quarry towards the Eşen Pond | 915 | 11.08.2018 |
| 61 | C2 Denizli: Beyağaç, Karagöl, the areas around the lake where the water is withdrawn | 1329 | 11.08.2018 |
| 62 | C2 Denizli: Beyağaç, Karagöl, the areas around the lake where the water is withdrawn | 1328 | 11.08.2018 |
| 63 | C2 Denizli: Beyağaç, Karagöl surroundings | 1341 | 11.08.2018 |
| 64 | C2 Denizli: Beyağaç, Karagöl surroundings | 1375 | 11.08.2018 |
| 65 | C2 Denizli: Beyağaç, Kartal Lake-Karagöl road junction | 1337 | 11.08.2018 |
| 66 | C2 Muğla: Köyceğiz, Sandras Mountain, Kartal Lake road | 1572 | 11.08.2018 |
| 67 | C2 Muğla: Köyceğiz, Sandras Mountain, Kartal Lake road | 1743 | 11.08.2018 |
| 68 | C2 Muğla: Köyceğiz, Sandras Mountain, Kartal Lake road | 1746 | 11.08.2018 |
| 69 | C2 Muğla: Köyceğiz, Sandras Mountain, Kartal Lake road | 1749 | 11.08.2018 |
| 70 | C2 Muğla: Köyceğiz, Sandras Mountain, Kartal Lake road | 1746 | 11.08.2018 |
| 71 | C2 Muğla: Köyceğiz, Kartal Lake, the edges of the lake | 1910 | 11.08.2018 |
| 72 | C2 Muğla: Köyceğiz, Kartal Lake surroundings | 1866 | 11.08.2018 |
| 73 | C2 Muğla: Köyceğiz, Kartal Lake surroundings | 1867 | 11.08.2018 |
| 74 | C2 Muğla: Köyceğiz, Sandras Mountain, Kartal Lake road | 1544 | 11.08.2018 |

APPENDIX 2. A list of the plant taxa determined in the flora of Beyağaç (Denizli)

Abbreviations: Obs.: Observation; Medit.: Mediterranean; Ir.-Tur.: Irano-Turanian; Euro-Sib.: Euro-Siberian; Phy. reg.: Phytogeographic region *: **Endemic**

| No | Taxon name | Locality no | Collector no | Phy. reg. |
|------------------------|---|-------------|---------------------|-----------|
| PHANEROGAMAE | | | | |
| PTERIDOPHYTA | | | | |
| ASPLENIACEAE | | | | |
| 1 | <i>Asplenium ceterach</i> L. | 5; 46 | Obs.; Obs. | |
| DRYOPTERIDACEAE | | | | |
| 2 | <i>Dryopteris filix-mas</i> (L.) Schott | 1 | 2017-39, 2017-84 | |
| EQUISETACEAE | | | | |
| 3 | <i>Equisetum fluviatile</i> L. | 33 | 2018-211 | |
| MAGNOLIOPHYTA | | | | |
| GYMNOSPERMAE | | | | |
| CUPRESSACEAE | | | | |
| 4 | <i>Juniperus excelsa</i> M.Bieb. subsp. <i>excelsa</i> | 16; 57 | Obs.; Obs. | |
| 5 | <i>Juniperus oxycedrus</i> L. subsp. <i>oxycedrus</i> var. <i>oxycedrus</i> | 1; 16; 46 | 2017-46; Obs.; Obs. | |
| PINACEAE | | | | |

| | | | | |
|----------------------|---|--|--|-----------|
| 6 | <i>Pinus brutia</i> Ten. var. <i>brutia</i> | 4; 13; 19; 25; 26; 27; 33; 36; 37; 39; 57 | Obs. | Medit. |
| 7 | <i>Pinus nigra</i> J.F.Arnold subsp. <i>pallasiana</i> (Lamb.) Holmboe var. <i>pallasiana</i> | 8; 42; 44; 63; 66; 69 | Obs. | |
| ANGIOSPERMAE | | | | |
| DICOTYLEDONAE | | | | |
| ACANTHACEAE | | | | |
| 8 | <i>Acanthus hirsutus</i> Boiss. subsp. <i>hirsutus</i> | 1 | 2017-109 | |
| AMARANTHACEAE | | | | |
| 9 | <i>Chenopodium album</i> L. subsp. <i>album</i> var. <i>album</i> | 4 | 2017-274 | |
| APIACEAE | | | | |
| 10 | <i>Anethum graveolens</i> L. | 2 | Obs. | |
| 11 | <i>Apium nodiflorum</i> (L.) Lag. | 33 | Obs. | |
| 12 | <i>Bifora testiculata</i> (L.) Spreng. | 34 | Obs. | |
| 13 | <i>Bupleurum rotundifolium</i> L. | 34 | 2018-261 | |
| 14 | <i>Eryngium campestre</i> L. var. <i>campestre</i> | 2 | 2017-247 | |
| 15 | * <i>Eryngium thorifolium</i> Boiss. | 1; 3; 13; 29 | 2017-55; 2017-269; Obs.; Obs. | Medit. |
| 16 | * <i>Ferulago sandrasica</i> Peşmen & Quézel | 1; 6; 9; 50; 63 | 2017-51; 2017-293; Obs.; 2018-323; Obs. | Medit. |
| 17 | <i>Foeniculum vulgare</i> Mill. | 2 | 2017-251 | |
| 18 | <i>Pastinaca sativa</i> L. subsp. <i>urens</i> (Req. ex Gren. & Godr.) Celak. | 14 | 2018-97, 2018-109 | |
| 19 | <i>Pimpinella tragium</i> Vill. subsp. <i>lithophila</i> (Schischk.) Tutin | 67 | 2018-547 | |
| 20 | <i>Scandix pecten-veneris</i> L. | 14 | 2018-92 | |
| 21 | <i>Torilis arvensis</i> (Huds.) Link subsp. <i>arvensis</i> | 55 | 2018-386, 2018-423 | |
| 22 | <i>Turgenia latifolia</i> (L.) Hoffm. | 1 | 2017-118 | |
| APOCYNACEAE | | | | |
| 23 | <i>Vinca herbacea</i> Waldst. & Kit. | 41; 43 | 2018-289; 2018-296 | |
| ARALIACEAE | | | | |
| 24 | <i>Hedera helix</i> L. | 15 | 2018-129 | |
| ASTERACEAE | | | | |
| 25 | <i>Anthemis arvensis</i> L. | 1; 37 | 2017-37; 2018-274 2018-72; 2018-142; 2018-158; 2018-168; 2018-238, 2018-240; 2018-284; 2018-292; 2018-301 | Euro-Sib. |
| 26 | <i>Anthemis cretica</i> L. subsp. <i>tenuiloba</i> (DC.) Grierson | 13; 15; 17; 18; 34; 40; 42; 44 | 2018-205; Obs.; 2018- 224 | Euro-Sib. |
| 27 | <i>Bellis perennis</i> L. | 31; 32; 34 | 2018-205; Obs.; 2018- 224 | Euro-Sib. |
| 28 | <i>Carduus pycnocephalus</i> L. subsp. <i>arabicus</i> (Jacq. ex Murray) Nyman | 15 | Obs. | Medit. |
| 29 | <i>Carthamus dentatus</i> (Forssk.) Vahl | 59 | 2018-538 | |
| 30 | <i>Carthamus lanatus</i> L. | 2 | Obs. | |

| | | | | |
|----|--|------------------|--|-----------|
| 31 | <i>*Centaurea ensiformis</i> P.H.Davis | 1; 7; 8; 9; 73 | 2017-81; Obs.; Obs.; 2017-327; Obs. | |
| 32 | <i>Centaurea solstitialis</i> L. subsp. <i>solstitialis</i> | 2; 58 | Obs.; Obs. | |
| 33 | <i>Centaurea urvillei</i> DC. subsp. <i>urvillei</i> | 1; 27; 50; 55 | 2017-60, 2017-116; Obs.; 2018-326; 2018-406 | Medit. |
| 34 | <i>Centaurea virgata</i> Lam. | 1; 5; 9; 66 | 2017-41; 2017-283; Obs.; Obs. | Ir.-Tur. |
| 35 | <i>Chondrilla juncea</i> L. | 64 | Obs. | |
| 36 | <i>Cichorium intybus</i> L. | 1; 2; 58 | 2017-82; 2017-233; 2018-533 | |
| 37 | <i>Cirsium vulgare</i> (Savi) Ten. | 1; 6; 58 | 2017-45; Obs.; 2018-534 | |
| 38 | <i>Cnicus benedictus</i> L. | 2 | 2017-254 | |
| 39 | <i>Crepis capillaris</i> (L.) Wallr. | 19 | 2018-176 | |
| 40 | <i>Crepis foetida</i> L. subsp. <i>foetida</i> | 2; 14; 34; 55 | 2017-241; 2018-87; 2018-248; 2018-404, 2018-405 | |
| 41 | <i>Crepis sancta</i> (L.) Bornm. subsp. <i>nemausensis</i> (P.Fourn.) Bab. | 23 | 2018-188 | |
| 42 | <i>Cyanus segetum</i> Hill | 55 | 2018-378 | |
| 43 | <i>Cyanus thirkei</i> (Sch.Bip.) Holub | 1; 9; 17; 43; 46 | 2017-49, 2017-78; 2017-326; 2018-161; Obs.; 2018-312 | Medit. |
| 44 | <i>Cyanus triumfettii</i> (All.) Dostál ex Á.Löve & D.Löve subsp. <i>triumfettii</i> | 23; 34; 46 | 2018-187; 2018-258; 2018-307 | |
| 45 | <i>Doronicum orientale</i> Hoffm. | 22 | 2018-184 | |
| 46 | <i>Echinops sphaerocephalus</i> L. subsp. <i>sphaerocephalus</i> | 59; 63 | Obs.; Obs. | Euro-Sib. |
| 47 | <i>Echinops spinosissimus</i> Turra subsp. <i>spinosissimus</i> | 2 | 2017-243 | Medit. |
| 48 | <i>Filago pyramidata</i> L. | 37; 54 | 2018-277; 2018-339 | |
| 49 | <i>Helichrysum plicatum</i> DC. subsp. <i>plicatum</i> | 7; 8 | 2017-310; Obs. | |
| 50 | <i>Inula anatolica</i> Boiss. | 3 | 2017-270 | |
| 51 | <i>Jurinea mollis</i> (L.) Rchb. | 1 | 2017-112 | Medit. |
| 52 | <i>Lactuca serriola</i> L. | 2 | Obs. | |
| 53 | <i>Leontodon asperrimus</i> (Willd.) Endl. | 73 | 2018-563 | Ir.-Tur. |
| 54 | <i>Leontodon hispidus</i> L. subsp. <i>hispidus</i> | 58 | 2018-528 | Euro-Sib. |
| 55 | <i>Matricaria chamomilla</i> L. var. <i>chamomilla</i> | 1; 33; 55 | 2017-125; Obs.; 2018-402 | |
| 56 | <i>Onopordum illyricum</i> L. | 1 | 2017-137 | Medit. |
| 57 | <i>Picnemon acarna</i> (L.) Cass. | 1; 2; 58 | 2017-139; 2017-256; Obs. | Medit. |
| 58 | <i>Pilosella piloselloides</i> (Vill.) Soják subsp. <i>piloselloides</i> | 1; 23; 55; 63 | 2017-59, 2017-73; 2018-190; 2018-412; Obs. | |
| 59 | <i>Pulicaria vulgaris</i> (L.) Gaertn. | 2 | 2017-264 | Euro-Sib. |

| | | | | |
|----------------------|---|------------------------------|---|-----------|
| 60 | <i>Scorzonera mollis</i> M.Bieb. subsp. <i>szowitzii</i> (DC.) D.F.Chamb. | 68 | 2018-549 | Ir.-Tur. |
| 61 | * <i>Senecio sandrasicus</i> P.H.Davis | 74 | 2018-564 | Medit. |
| 62 | <i>Senecio vernalis</i> Waldst. & Kit. | 1; 18; 19; 26; 27; 29; 34 | 2017-57; 2018-166; 2018-175; 2018-198; 2018-200; Obs.; Obs. | |
| 63 | <i>Sonchus asper</i> (L.) Hill subsp. <i>asper</i> | 14; 15; 34 | 2018-94; Obs.; 2018-255 | |
| 64 | <i>Taraxacum aleppicum</i> Dahlst. | 17 | Obs. | Medit. |
| 65 | <i>Taraxacum assemanii</i> Blanche ex Boiss. | 8; 58 | 2017-324; 2018-535 | Ir.-Tur. |
| 66 | <i>Tragopogon porrifolius</i> L. subsp. <i>longirostris</i> (Sch.Bip.) Greuter | 1; 6; 15; 34; 35; 37 | 2017-102, 2017-103; 2017-295; 2018-147; 2018-230; 2018-266; 2018-272 | |
| BERBERIDACEAE | | | | |
| 67 | <i>Berberis cretica</i> L. | 1; 8 | 2017-43, 2017-72; 2017-318 | Medit. |
| BORAGINACEAE | | | | |
| 68 | <i>Alkanna tubulosa</i> Boiss. | 13; 35; 46; 55 | 2018-83; 2018-265; 2018-306; 2018-393 | Medit. |
| 69 | <i>Anchusa azurea</i> Mill. var. <i>azurea</i> | 34 | 2018-244 | |
| 70 | <i>Anchusa hybrida</i> Ten. | 15; 18; 55 | 2018-140; Obs.; 2018-394 | Medit. |
| 71 | <i>Anchusa officinalis</i> L. | 1; 55 | 2017-106; 2018-370 | Euro-Sib. |
| 72 | <i>Buglossoides arvensis</i> (L.) I. M. Johnst subsp. <i>sibthorpiana</i> (Griseb.) R.Fern. | 14 | 2018-100 | |
| 73 | <i>Cynoglossum creticum</i> Mill. | 34 | 2018-246, 2018-253 | |
| 74 | <i>Echium italicum</i> L. | 1 | 2017-100 | Medit. |
| 75 | <i>Heliotropium hirsutissimum</i> Grauer | 4; 57; 61; 62 | 2017-281; 2018-522; 2018-541; Obs. | Medit. |
| 76 | <i>Myosotis lithospermifolia</i> Hornem. | 46 | 2018-305 | |
| 77 | <i>Myosotis ramosissima</i> Rochel | 15; 19; 55 | 2018-122; 2018-173; 2018-387 | |
| 78 | <i>Nonea echioides</i> (L.) Roem. & Schult. | 14 | 2018-111 | Medit. |
| 79 | <i>Onosma frutescens</i> Lam. | 15 | 2018-118 | Medit. |
| 80 | <i>Onosma taurica</i> Willd. var. <i>taurica</i> | 51 | 2018-328 | |
| 81 | <i>Paracaryum lithospermifolium</i> (Lam.) Grande subsp. <i>cariense</i> (Boiss.) R.R.Mill var. <i>cariense</i> | 1 | 2017-69, 2017-124 | Medit. |
| BRASSICACEAE | | | | |
| 82 | <i>Aethionema arabicum</i> (L.) Andr. ex DC. | 13; 39 | 2018-75; 2018-280 | |
| 83 | <i>Alyssum alyssoides</i> (L.) L. | 13; 16; 17 | 2018-74; Obs.; 2018-164 | |
| 84 | * <i>Alyssum caricum</i> T.R.Dudley & Hub.-Mor. | 3; 4; 57; 64 | Obs.; 2017-277; 2018-523, 2018-524; Obs. | Medit. |
| 85 | <i>Alyssum corsicum</i> Duby | 33; 58; 64 | 2018-221; 2018-531, 2018-532; Obs. | |
| 86 | <i>Alyssum desertorum</i> Stapf. | 15 | 2018-116, 2018-123 | |

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| 87 | <i>*Alyssum hirsutum</i> M.Bieb. subsp. <i>caespitosum</i> (T.R.Dudley) Ančev, Kožuharov & Kuzmanov | 23; 50 | 2018-185; 2018-327 | Ir.-Tur. |
| 88 | <i>*Alyssum masmenaeum</i> Boiss. | 2; 5; 7; 63; 66; 69; 70 | 2017-239; Obs.; 2017-307; Obs.; Obs.; 2018-551; 2018-557 | |
| 89 | <i>Alyssum murale</i> Waldst. & Kit. subsp. <i>murale</i> var. <i>murale</i> | 4; 15; 21; 53 | Obs.; 2018-144; 2018-183; 2018-334 | |
| 90 | <i>*Alyssum propinquum</i> Baumg. | 43 | 2018-295 | |
| 91 | <i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i> (L.) Heynh. | 47 | 2018-313 | |
| 92 | <i>Arabis verna</i> (L.) R.Br. | 15; 16; 17 | 2018-126; Obs.; 2018-162 | Medit. |
| 93 | <i>Barbarea verna</i> (Mill.) Aschers. | 49 | 2018-318 | |
| 94 | <i>Capsella bursa-pastoris</i> (L.) Medik. | 14; 34 | 2018-88; 2018-242 | |
| 95 | <i>Clypeola jonthlaspi</i> L. | 15; 16 | Obs.; 2018-153 | |
| 96 | <i>Draba verna</i> L. | 15; 16; 21; 42; 48 | 2018-117; Obs.; Obs.; Obs.; 2018-316 | |
| 97 | <i>Eruca vesicaria</i> (L.) Cav. | 15 | 2018-113 | |
| 98 | <i>*Erysimum serpentanicum</i> Polatschek | 44 | 2018-300 | Medit. |
| 99 | <i>Hirschfeldia incana</i> (L.) Lagr.-Foss. | 1 | 2017-98 | |
| 100 | <i>Iberis carnosa</i> Willd. | 8 | Obs. | Medit. |
| 101 | <i>Isatis tinctoria</i> L. subsp. <i>corymbosa</i> (Boiss.) P.H.Davis | 55 | 2018-373 | |
| 102 | <i>Microthlaspi perfoliatum</i> (L.) F.K.Mey. | 14; 17 | 2018-105; 2018-163 | |
| 103 | <i>*Noccaea cariensis</i> (Carlström) Parolly, Nordt & Aytac | 1; 41; 43 | 2017-42; 2018-288; 2018-299 | Medit. |
| 104 | <i>Sinapis arvensis</i> L. | 13; 14; 15 | 2018-82, 2018-85; 2018-102; Obs. | |
| 105 | <i>Sisymbrium irio</i> L. | 1; 15 | 2017-36, 2017-44; 2018-133 | |
| CAMPANULACEAE | | | | |
| 106 | <i>Campanula erinus</i> L. | 15 | 2018-148 | |
| 107 | <i>Campanula glomerata</i> L. subsp. <i>hispida</i> (Witasek) Hayek | 6 | 2017-294 | Euro-Sib. |
| 108 | <i>Campanula lyrata</i> Lam. subsp. <i>lyrata</i> | 1 | 2017-68 | |
| 109 | <i>Campanula stricta</i> L. var. <i>libanotica</i> (A.DC.) Boiss. | 7; 8; 9; 69; 73 | 2017-314; Obs.; 2017-328; 2018-554; Obs. | |
| 110 | <i>Legousia pentagonia</i> (L.) Thell. | 1; 55 | 2017-120; 2018-396, 2018-420 | Medit. |
| CAPRIFOLIACEAE | | | | |
| 111 | <i>*Cephalaria lycica</i> V.A.Matthews | 10; 68; 69 | Obs.; 2018-550; Obs. | Medit. |
| 112 | <i>Pteroccephalus plumosus</i> (L.) Coulter | 15; 55 | 2018-114; 2018-372 | |
| 113 | <i>Scabiosa columbaria</i> L. | 2 | 2017-234 | |
| 114 | <i>*Scabiosa polykratis</i> Rech.f. | 7; 69; 72 | 2017-313; 2018-555; 2018-559 | Medit. |
| 115 | <i>Valerianella coronata</i> (L.) DC. | 21; 23 | Obs.; 2018-189 | |

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| 116 | <i>Valerianella vesicaria</i> (L.) Moench | 1; 34; 54; 55 | 2017-123; 2018-227, 2018-259; Obs.; 2018- 383 | |
| 117 | <i>Valeriana officinalis</i> L. | 2; 21; 26; 29; 40 | 2017-265; 2018-181; 2018-195; Obs.; Obs. | |
| CARYOPHYLLACEAE | | | | |
| 118 | <i>Arenaria serpyllifolia</i> L. subsp. <i>serpyllifolia</i> | 14 | 2018-99 | |
| 119 | <i>*Bolanthus frankenioides</i> (Boiss.) Barkoudah var. <i>fasciculatus</i> (Boiss. & Heldr.) Barkoudah | 7 | 2017-305 | Medit. |
| 120 | <i>*Bolanthus thymoides</i> Hub.-Mor. | 5 | 2017-287 | Ir.-Tur. |
| 121 | <i>Bufonia tenuifolia</i> L. | 64 | Obs. | |
| 122 | <i>Cerastium arvense</i> L. | 16; 24; 25; 26 | 2018-150; 2018-191; Obs.; 2018-194 | |
| 123 | <i>Cerastium brachypetalum</i> Pers. subsp. <i>roeseri</i> (Boiss. & Heldr.) Nyman | 15; 19 | 2018-135; 2018-172 | Medit. |
| 124 | <i>Cerastium dichotomum</i> L. subsp. <i>dichotomum</i> | 34 | Obs. | |
| 125 | <i>Cerastium glomeratum</i> Thuill. | 34 | 2018-235 | |
| 126 | <i>Cerastium ligusticum</i> Viv. | 40; 43; 50; 51; 64 | 2018-282; 2018-297; Obs.; 2018-331; Obs. | Medit. |
| 127 | <i>*Dianthus eretmopetalus</i> Stapf | 7; 8; 70; 73 | 2017-302; Obs.; 2018- 556; 2018-562 | Medit. |
| 128 | <i>Dianthus zonatus</i> Fenzl var. <i>zonatus</i> | 1; 3; 6; 55; 59; 66; 67 | 2017-34, 2017-53, 2017-113; 2017-271; 2017-297; 2018-413; Obs.; Obs.; 2018-548 | |
| 129 | <i>Holosteum umbellatum</i> L. var. <i>umbellatum</i> | 17 | 2018-157 | |
| 130 | <i>Minuartia hybrida</i> (Vill.) Schischk. subsp. <i>hybrida</i> | 20 | 2018-177 | |
| 131 | <i>Minuartia mesogitana</i> (Boiss.) Hand.-Mazz. subsp. <i>mesogitana</i> | 46; 50 | 2018-310; 2018-322 | Medit. |
| 132 | <i>*Minuartia recurva</i> (All.) Schinz & Thell. subsp. <i>carica</i> McNeill | 7 | 2017-304 | Medit. |
| 133 | <i>Moenchia mantica</i> (L.) Bartl. | 19; 20; 42 | Obs.; 2018-179; 2018- 291 | |
| 134 | <i>Polycarpon tetraphyllum</i> (L.) L. | 62 | Obs. | |
| 135 | <i>Saponaria calabrica</i> Guss. | 13; 27; 40 | 2018-76; 2018-201; 2018-283 | Medit. |
| 136 | <i>Silene bupleuroides</i> L. subsp. <i>bupleuroides</i> | 10 | 2017-331 | |
| 137 | <i>Silene conica</i> L. | 34 | 2018-237, 2018-239 | |
| 138 | <i>*Silene echinospermoides</i> Hub.- Mor. | 5 | 2017-282 | Medit. |
| 139 | <i>Silene italica</i> (L.) Pers. subsp. <i>italica</i> | 34 | 2018-231 | Medit. |
| 140 | <i>Silene macrodonta</i> Boiss. | 59 | Obs. | |
| 141 | <i>Silene supina</i> M.Bieb. subsp. <i>pruinosa</i> (Boiss.) Chowdhuri | 8 | 2017-317, 2017-321 | |
| 142 | <i>Silene vulgaris</i> (Moench) Garcke | 1 | 2017-117 | |

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| 143 | <i>Stellaria holostea</i> L. | 15 | 2018-127 | |
| 144 | <i>Vaccaria hispanica</i> (Mill.) Rauschert | 1 | 2017-132 | |
| CISTACEAE | | | | |
| 145 | <i>Cistus creticus</i> L. | 1; 19; 54 | 2017-92; Obs.; 2018-335 | Medit. |
| 146 | <i>Cistus laurifolius</i> L. | 1 | 2017-35 | Medit. |
| 147 | <i>Fumana aciphylla</i> Boiss. | 5 | 2017-290 | Ir.-Tur. |
| 148 | <i>Fumana arabica</i> (L.) Spach | 5; 39 | Obs.; Obs. | |
| 149 | <i>Fumana procumbens</i> (Dunal) Gren. & Godr. | 33 | 2018-209 | |
| 150 | <i>Helianthemum salicifolium</i> (L.) Mill. | 16 | 2018-155 | |
| CLEOMACEAE | | | | |
| 151 | <i>Cleome iberica</i> DC. | 2 | 2017-267 | Medit. |
| CONVOLVULACEAE | | | | |
| 152 | <i>Convolvulus arvensis</i> L. | 1; 34; 55 | 2017-105; 2018-254; 2018-422 | |
| 153 | <i>Convolvulus compactus</i> Boiss. | 5; 55 | 2017-292; 2018-399 | |
| CRASSULACEAE | | | | |
| 154 | <i>*Prometheum serpenticum</i> (Werderm.) t Hart var. <i>serpenticum</i> | 9 | 2017-329 | Medit. |
| 155 | <i>Sedum album</i> L. | 16 | Obs. | |
| 156 | <i>*Sedum lydium</i> Boiss. | 69 | 2018-552 | Medit. |
| 157 | <i>Sedum pallidum</i> M.Bieb. | 4 | 2017-276 | Euro-Sib. |
| 158 | <i>Umbilicus rupestris</i> (Salisb.) Dandy | 15 | Obs. | |
| ERICACEAE | | | | |
| 159 | <i>Arbutus andrachne</i> L. | 54 | 2018-337 | |
| 160 | <i>Erica manipuliflora</i> Salisb. | 6; 45; 46 | 2017-298; 2018-302; Obs. | Medit. |
| EUPHORBIACEAE | | | | |
| 161 | <i>*Euphorbia anacamperos</i> Boiss. var. <i>anacamperos</i> | 9; 46; 50 | Obs.; 2018-304; 2018-324 | |
| 162 | <i>*Euphorbia austroanatolica</i> Hub.- Mor. & M.S.Khan | 25; 43; 46 | Obs.; Obs.; 2018-309 | Medit. |
| 163 | <i>Euphorbia exigua</i> L. subsp. <i>exigua</i> | 15; 34 | 2018-124, 2018-137; 2018-257 | |
| 164 | <i>Euphorbia falcata</i> L. subsp. <i>falcata</i> var. <i>galilaea</i> | 34 | Obs. | |
| 165 | <i>Euphorbia helioscopia</i> L. subsp. <i>helioscopia</i> | 14 | 2018-96 | |
| FABACEAE | | | | |
| 166 | <i>Anagyris foetida</i> L. | 15 | 2018-128 | Medit. |
| 167 | <i>Anthyllis vulneraria</i> L. subsp. <i>boissieri</i> (Sagorski) Bornm. | 35; 55 | 2018-267; 2018-410, 2018-426 | |
| 168 | <i>Astragalus angustifolius</i> Lam. subsp. <i>pungens</i> (Willd.) Hayek | 7; 8 | Obs.; 2017-316 | |
| 169 | <i>Astragalus anthylloides</i> Lam. | 55 | 2018-411 | Ir.-Tur. |
| 170 | <i>*Astragalus tmoleus</i> Boiss. var. <i>tmoleus</i> | 2 | 2017-245 | Medit. |

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| 171 | <i>Cercis siliquastrum</i> L. subsp. <i>siliquastrum</i> | 37 | 2018-269 | Medit. |
| 172 | <i>Colutea melanocalyx</i> Boiss. & Heldr. subsp. <i>davisiana</i> (Browicz) D.F.Chamb. | 33 | 2018-210 | Medit. |
| 173 | <i>Cytisopsis dorycniifolia</i> Jaub. & Spach | 1; 7; 13; 23; 36; 39; 44; 46 | 2017-50; 2017-303; 2018-80; Obs.; Obs.; Obs.; Obs.; Obs. | |
| 174 | <i>Cytisus eriocarpus</i> Boiss. | 13 | 2018-73 | Medit. |
| 175 | <i>Cytisus hirsutus</i> L. | 18; 34; 37 | Obs.; 2018-228; 2018-271 | |
| 176 | <i>Dorycnium pentaphyllum</i> Scop. subsp. <i>anatolicum</i> (Boiss.) Gams | 55 | 2018-418 | |
| 177 | <i>*Ebenus pisidica</i> Hub.-Mor. & Reese | 1; 8 | 2017-70; 2017-319 | Medit. |
| 178 | <i>Genista acanthoclada</i> DC. | 3; 4; 13; 33; 35; 39; 55 | Obs.; 2017-279; Obs.; 2018-220; 2018-264; Obs.; 2018-414 | Medit. |
| 179 | <i>Genista januensis</i> Viv. subsp. <i>januensis</i> | 16 | 2018-151 | Medit. |
| 180 | <i>*Genista sandrasica</i> Hartvig & Strid | 7 | 2017-301 | Medit. |
| 181 | <i>Hippocrepis emerus</i> (L.) Lassen subsp. <i>emeroides</i> (Boiss. & Spruner) Lassen | 13; 26 | 2018-71; 2018-193 | |
| 182 | <i>Hymenocarpus circinnatus</i> (L.) Savi | 34 | 2018-234 | |
| 183 | <i>Lathyrus cicera</i> L. | 15; 18; 37; 50 | 2018-146; Obs.; 2018-270; 2018-320 | Medit. |
| 184 | <i>Lathyrus setifolius</i> L. | 14 | 2018-101 | Medit. |
| 185 | <i>Lotus corniculatus</i> L. var. <i>corniculatus</i> | 2; 7; 58; 61; 63 | 2017-242, 2017-259; 2017-300; 2018-536; 2018-542; Obs. | |
| 186 | <i>Medicago lupulina</i> L. | 15 | 2018-132 | |
| 187 | <i>Medicago minima</i> (L.) Bartal. var. <i>minima</i> | 19 | 2018-171 | |
| 188 | <i>Medicago monspeliaca</i> (L.) Trautv. | 33 | 2018-219 | Medit. |
| 189 | <i>Medicago rigidula</i> (L.) All. var. <i>rigidula</i> | 15 | 2018-134 | |
| 190 | <i>Medicago sativa</i> L. subsp. <i>sativa</i> | 2 | 2017-250 | |
| 191 | <i>Medicago truncatula</i> Gaertn. var. <i>truncatula</i> | 15 | 2018-119, 2018-120 | Medit. |
| 192 | <i>Melilotus indicus</i> (L.) All. | 35 | 2018-268 | |
| 193 | <i>Onobrychis aequidentata</i> (Sibth. & Sm.) d Urv. | 55 | 2018-416 | Medit. |
| 194 | <i>Onobrychis viciifolia</i> Scop. | 55 | 2018-382, 2018-415 | |
| 195 | <i>Ononis spinosa</i> L. subsp. <i>leiosperma</i> (Boiss.) Sirj. | 1; 2; 58 | 2017-87; 2017-236; 2018-530 | |
| 196 | <i>Ononis viscosa</i> L. subsp. <i>breviflora</i> (DC.) Nyman | 1 | 2017-91 | Medit. |
| 197 | <i>Pisum sativum</i> L. subsp. <i>elatius</i> (M.Bieb.) Aschers. & Graebn. var. <i>elatius</i> | 14; 15 | Obs.; 2018-145 | Medit. |

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| 198 | <i>Robinia pseudoacacia</i> L. | 58; 59 | Obs.; Obs. | |
| 199 | <i>Spartium junceum</i> L. | 1; 55 | 2017-115; 2018-391 | Medit. |
| 200 | <i>Trifolium campestre</i> Schreb. subsp. <i>campestre</i> var. <i>campestre</i> | 55 | 2018-425 | |
| 201 | <i>Trifolium hirtum</i> All. | 34 | 2018-229 | Medit. |
| 202 | <i>Trifolium stellatum</i> L. var. <i>stellatum</i> | 55 | 2018-424 | |
| 203 | <i>Trigonella corniculata</i> L. | 55 | 2018-397 | |
| 204 | <i>Vicia narbonensis</i> L. var. <i>narbonensis</i> | 18 | Obs. | |
| 205 | <i>Vicia sativa</i> L. subsp. <i>incisa</i> (M.Bieb.) Arc. var. <i>incisa</i> | 14; 19 | 2018-91; 2018-174 | |
| 206 | <i>Vicia sativa</i> L. subsp. <i>sativa</i> | 15 | 2018-138 | |
| 207 | <i>Vicia tetrasperma</i> (L.) Schreb. | 33 | 2018-215 | |
| 208 | <i>Vicia villosa</i> Roth subsp. <i>eriocarpa</i> (Hausskn.) P.W.Ball | 39 | 2018-281 | |
| FAGACEAE | | | | |
| 209 | <i>Quercus coccifera</i> L. | 1; 4; 13; 15; 16; 37; 46 | 2017-89; Obs.; Obs.; Obs.; Obs.; Obs.; Obs. | Medit. |
| 210 | <i>Quercus infectoria</i> Oliv. subsp. <i>infectoria</i> | 43; 44; 46 | Obs.; Obs.; 2018-308 | Euro-Sib. |
| 211 | <i>Quercus pubescens</i> Willd. subsp. <i>pubescens</i> | 1 | 2017-88 | |
| GENTIANACEAE | | | | |
| 212 | <i>Centaurium tenuiflorum</i> (Hoffmanns. & Link) Fritsch subsp. <i>tenuiflorum</i> | 2 | 2017-263 | |
| GERANIACEAE | | | | |
| 213 | <i>Erodium acaule</i> (L.) Becherer & Thell. | 33; 55 | Obs.; 2018-380 | Medit. |
| 214 | <i>Erodium ciconium</i> (L.) L Her. | 13 | 2018-79 | |
| 215 | <i>Erodium cicutarium</i> (L.) L Hér. subsp. <i>cutarium</i> | 14; 15; 17; 34 | Obs.; Obs.; Obs.; 2018-250 | |
| 216 | <i>Geranium dissectum</i> L. | 14; 15 | 2018-107; 2018-125 | |
| 217 | <i>Geranium rotundifolium</i> L. | 14; 15; 33 | 2018-98; 2018-103; 2018-121; 2018-223 | |
| 218 | <i>Geranium tuberosum</i> L. | 25; 37 | 2018-192; 2018-273 | Ir.-Tur. |
| 219 | <i>Pelargonium endlicherianum</i> Fenzl | 5 | 2017-284 | |
| HYPERICACEAE | | | | |
| 220 | * <i>Hypericum aviculariifolium</i> Jaub. & Spach | 70 | 2018-558 | Medit. |
| 221 | <i>Hypericum perforatum</i> L. subsp. <i>perforatum</i> | 2; 55 | 2017-249; 2018-401 | |
| LAMIACEAE | | | | |
| 222 | <i>Ajuga chamaepitys</i> (L.) Schreb. subsp. <i>palaestina</i> (Boiss.) Bornm. | 1; 2; 13; 15; 34 | 2017-122; 2017-133; 2017-268; 2018-77; 2018-139; 2018-245 | Medit. |
| 223 | <i>Clinopodium acinos</i> (L.) Kuntze | 54 | 2018-338 | Euro-Sib. |
| 224 | * <i>Clinopodium troodi</i> (Post) Govaerts subsp. <i>vardaranum</i> (Leblebici) Govaerts | 1; 9; 69; 70 | 2017-61; 2017-75; 2017-138; 2017-330; 2018-553; Obs. | Medit. |

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| 225 | <i>Cyclotrichium origanifolium</i> (Labill.) Manden & Scheng. | 2 | Obs. | Medit. |
| 226 | <i>Lamium amplexicaule</i> L. var. <i>amplexicaule</i> | 14 | 2018-106 | |
| 227 | <i>Mentha spicata</i> L. subsp. <i>spicata</i> | 2 | 2017-261 | |
| 228 | * <i>Nepeta cadmea</i> Boiss. | 15 | Obs. | Medit. |
| 229 | * <i>Origanum hypericifolium</i> O.Schwarz & P.H.Davis | 12; 63 | 2017-479; Obs. | Medit. |
| 230 | <i>Origanum onites</i> L. | 1; 18 | 2017-111, 2017-114; Obs. | |
| 231 | <i>Phlomis armeniaca</i> Willd. | 7; 8 | Obs.; 2017-320 | Ir.-Tur. |
| 232 | <i>Salvia argentea</i> L. | 68 | Obs. | Medit. |
| 233 | <i>Salvia candidissima</i> Vahl subsp. <i>occidentalis</i> Hedge | 55 | 2018-409 | |
| 234 | <i>Salvia sclarea</i> L. | 1; 53; 55 | 2017-129; 2018-333; 2018-398 | |
| 235 | <i>Salvia tomentosa</i> Mill. | 1 | 2017-94 | Medit. |
| 236 | <i>Salvia verbenaca</i> L. | 2; 15 | 2017-240; Obs. | Medit. |
| 237 | <i>Salvia virgata</i> Jacq. | 1 | 2017-52, 2017-79 | Ir.-Tur. |
| 238 | <i>Scutellaria orientalis</i> L. subsp. <i>pinnatifida</i> J.R.Edm. | 2; 13; 16; 21; 30; 33; 34; 39; 46; 50 | 2017-260; Obs.; Obs.; Obs.; Obs.; 2018-222; 2018-260; 2018-279; Obs.; Obs. | |
| 239 | <i>Sideritis libanotica</i> Labill. subsp. <i>linearis</i> (Benth.) Bornm. | 8; 60 | 2017-322; Obs. | Medit. |
| 240 | <i>Stachys annua</i> (L.) L. subsp. <i>annua</i> var. <i>annua</i> | 1; 55 | 2017-121; 2018-381 | |
| 241 | <i>Stachys cretica</i> L. subsp. <i>cretica</i> | 1; 2; 55 | 2017-101, 2017-140; 2017-235; 2018-389 | |
| 242 | <i>Stachys germanica</i> L. subsp. <i>heldreichii</i> (Boiss.) Hayek | 2 | Obs. | Medit. |
| 243 | * <i>Teucrium alyssifolium</i> Stapf | 1; 6; 66 | 2017-58, 2017-77; 2017-296; Obs. | Medit. |
| 244 | <i>Teucrium chamaedrys</i> L. subsp. <i>chamaedrys</i> | 1 | 2017-93 | |
| 245 | <i>Teucrium polium</i> L. subsp. <i>polium</i> | 1; 3; 5; 65; 72 | 2017-47; 2017-272; 2017-288; Obs.; 2018-560 | |
| 246 | * <i>Teucrium sandrasicum</i> O. Schwarz | 11; 13; 64 | 2017-332; Obs.; Obs. | Medit. |
| 247 | <i>Teucrium scordium</i> L. subsp. <i>scordium</i> | 57 | 2018-525 | Euro-Sib. |
| 248 | <i>Thymus zygoides</i> Griseb. | 5; 7; 55 | 2017-285; 2017-306; 2018-384, 2018-417 | Medit. |
| 249 | <i>Ziziphora capitata</i> L. | 55 | 2018-379 | |
| LENTIBULARIACEAE | | | | |
| 250 | <i>Pinguicula crystallina</i> Sm. | 1; 8 | 2017-71; 2017-323 | Medit. |
| LINACEAE | | | | |
| 251 | <i>Linum bienne</i> Mill. | 1 | 2017-110 | |
| 252 | <i>Linum usitatissimum</i> L. | 55 | 2018-419 | |
| LYTHRACEAE | | | | |

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|-----------------------|---|---------------|--|-----------|
| 253 | <i>Lythrum tribracteatum</i> Salzm. ex Ten. | 56 | 2018-519 | |
| MALVACEAE | | | | |
| 254 | <i>Malva sylvestris</i> L. | 55 | 2018-403 | |
| OLEACEAE | | | | |
| 255 | <i>Phillyrea latifolia</i> L. | 5 | 2017-286 | Medit. |
| OROBANCHACEAE | | | | |
| 256 | <i>Orobanche lutea</i> Baumg. | 1; 43; 55 | 2017-136; 2018-298; 2018-390, 2018-421 | |
| 257 | <i>Orobanche ramosa</i> L. | 1; 14; 34 | 2017-80; 2018-93; 2018-256 | |
| 258 | <i>Parentucellia latifolia</i> (L.) Caruel subsp. <i>latifolia</i> | 42 | 2018-290 | Medit. |
| PAPAVERACEAE | | | | |
| 259 | <i>Fumaria parviflora</i> Lam. | 15; 55 | 2018-112; 2018-395 | |
| 260 | <i>Fumaria vaillantii</i> Loisel. | 14 | 2018-89 | |
| 261 | <i>Glaucium flavum</i> Crantz | 1; 55 | 2017-135; 2018-376, 2018-392 | |
| 262 | <i>Hypocoum pendulum</i> L. | 55 | 2018-385 | |
| 263 | <i>Papaver argemone</i> L. subsp. <i>argemone</i> | 1; 13; 37 | 2017-104; 2018-78; Obs. | |
| 264 | <i>Papaver dubium</i> L. subsp. <i>laevigatum</i> (M.Bieb.) Kadereit | 2 | 2017-253 | |
| 265 | <i>Papaver rhoeas</i> L. | 1; 14; 34; 55 | 2017-107, 2017-131, 2017-134; 2018-90; 2018-233, 2018-241, 2018-249; 2018-407 | |
| 266 | <i>Papaver virchowii</i> Asch. & Sint. ex Boiss. | 1 | 2017-130 | |
| PLANTAGINACEAE | | | | |
| 267 | <i>Linaria chalepensis</i> (L.) Mill. var. <i>chalepensis</i> | 34 | 2018-236, 2018-262 | Medit. |
| 268 | * <i>Linaria corifolia</i> Desf. | 55 | 2018-374 | Ir.-Tur. |
| 269 | <i>Linaria genistifolia</i> (L.) Mill. subsp. <i>linifolia</i> (Boiss.) P.H.Davis | 13 | Obs. | |
| 270 | <i>Plantago albicans</i> L. | 7 | 2017-309 | Medit. |
| 271 | <i>Plantago lanceolata</i> L. | 1; 14; 34; 62 | 2017-99; 2018-108; 2018-251; 2018-545 | |
| 272 | <i>Veronica arvensis</i> L. | 16 | 2018-156 | Euro-Sib. |
| 273 | <i>Veronica chamaedrys</i> L. | 48 | 2018-314 | Euro-Sib. |
| 274 | <i>Veronica hederifolia</i> L. | 16 | 2018-154 | |
| 275 | <i>Veronica praecox</i> All. | 16 | 2018-149 | |
| 276 | <i>Veronica serpyllifolia</i> L. | 1; 56 | 2017-66; 2018-520 | |
| PLATANACEAE | | | | |
| 277 | <i>Platanus orientalis</i> L. | 37 | Obs. | |
| PLUMBAGINACEAE | | | | |
| 278 | * <i>Acantholimon ulicinum</i> (Willd. ex Schult.) Boiss. var. <i>purpurascens</i> (Bokhari) Bokhari & J.R.Edm. | 7 | 2017-308 | Medit. |
| POLYGALACEAE | | | | |

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|----------------------|---|--------------------------|---|-----------|
| 279 | <i>Polygala anatolica</i> Boiss. & Heldr. | 36; 50 | Obs.; 2018-319, 2018-321 | |
| 280 | <i>Polygala supina</i> Schreb. subsp. <i>supina</i> | 8 | 2017-315 | |
| POLYGONACEAE | | | | |
| 281 | <i>Polygonum salebrosum</i> Coode & Cullen | 5; 7; 62 | 2017-289; 2017-312; 2018-546 | Medit. |
| 282 | <i>Rumex crispus</i> L. | 4 | 2017-280 | |
| PRIMULACEAE | | | | |
| 283 | <i>Anagallis arvensis</i> L. var. <i>caerulea</i> (L.) Gouan | 58 | Obs. | |
| 284 | * <i>Cyclamen alpinum</i> Dammann ex Spreng. | 16 | Obs. | Medit. |
| RANUNCULACEAE | | | | |
| 285 | <i>Adonis aestivalis</i> L. subsp. <i>aestivalis</i> | 34 | 2018-243 | |
| 286 | <i>Adonis flammea</i> Jacq. | 1 | 2017-108 | |
| 287 | <i>Anemone ranunculoides</i> L. subsp. <i>ranunculoides</i> | 43; 46 | 2018-293; Obs. | Euro-Sib. |
| 288 | <i>Ceratocephala falcata</i> (L.) Pers. | 17 | 2018-159 | |
| 289 | <i>Delphinium peregrinum</i> L. | 2 | 2017-237 | Medit. |
| 290 | <i>Nigella arvensis</i> L. var. <i>involuta</i> Boiss. | 59 | 2018-539 | |
| 291 | <i>Ranunculus arvensis</i> L. | 14; 34 | 2018-95; 2018-232 | |
| 292 | <i>Ranunculus repens</i> L. | 33 | 2018-216 | |
| 293 | <i>Ranunculus trichophyllus</i> Chaix ex Vill. | 32; 56 | 2018-206; Obs. | |
| RESEDACEAE | | | | |
| 294 | <i>Reseda lutea</i> L. var. <i>nutans</i> Boiss. | 1; 18 | 2017-126; 2018-167 | |
| ROSACEAE | | | | |
| 295 | <i>Crataegus monogyna</i> Jacq. var. <i>monogyna</i> | 1; 15; 33 | 2017-86; 2018-131; 2018-217 | |
| 296 | <i>Pyrus elaeagnifolia</i> Pall. subsp. <i>elaeagnifolia</i> | 18; 58 | Obs.; 2018-527 | |
| 297 | <i>Rosa canina</i> L. | 1; 8; 18; 55 | 2017-95; 2017-325; Obs.; 2018-377 | |
| 298 | <i>Rubus sanctus</i> Schreb. | 2 | 2017-255 | |
| 299 | <i>Sanguisorba minor</i> L. subsp. <i>lasiocarpa</i> (Boiss. & Hausskn.) Nordborg | 1; 33; 34; 62 | 2017-56; Obs.; 2018-247; Obs. | |
| RUBIACEAE | | | | |
| 300 | <i>Asperula stricta</i> Boiss. subsp. <i>stricta</i> | 7 | 2017-311 | Medit. |
| 301 | <i>Crucianella latifolia</i> L. | 2; 15 | 2017-246; Obs. | Medit. |
| 302 | <i>Cruciata taurica</i> (Pall. ex Willd.) Ehrend. | 1; 3; 18; 26; 40; 41; 51 | 2017-48; 2017-273; 2018-169; 2018-196; 2018-285; Obs.; 2018-329 | Ir.-Tur. |
| 303 | <i>Galium album</i> Mill. subsp. <i>amani</i> Ehrend. & Schönb.-Tem. | 13; 15 | 2018-84; 2018-136 | |
| 304 | <i>Galium aparine</i> L. | 1; 13; 14; 18 | 2017-83; 2018-86; Obs.; 2018-165 | |

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|-------------------------|--|----------------------|---|-----------|
| 305 | <i>Galium odoratum</i> (L.) Scop. | 15 | 2018-130 | Euro-Sib. |
| 306 | <i>Galium verum</i> L. subsp. <i>verum</i> | 2 | 2017-244 | Euro-Sib. |
| 307 | <i>Rubia tenuifolia</i> d'Urv. subsp. <i>tenuifolia</i> | 74 | 2018-565 | Medit. |
| 308 | <i>Sherardia arvensis</i> L. | 34 | 2018-226 | Medit. |
| SANTALACEAE | | | | |
| 309 | <i>Thesium bergeri</i> Zucc. | 1; 33; 34 | 2017-38; 2018-218; 2018-225 | Medit. |
| SAXIFRAGACEAE | | | | |
| 310 | <i>Saxifraga cymbalaria</i> L. | 26; 29 | 2018-197; Obs. | |
| SCROPHULARIACEAE | | | | |
| 311 | <i>Scrophularia canina</i> L. subsp. <i>bicolor</i> (Sm.) Greuter | 15; 37 | 2018-143; 2018-276 | Medit. |
| 312 | * <i>Verbascum cariense</i> Hub.-Mor. | 1; 36; 51; 52 | 2017-67, 2017-74; Obs.; 2018-332; Obs. | Medit. |
| 313 | <i>Verbascum lasianthum</i> Boiss. ex Benth. | 1; 4 | 2017-64; 2017-278 | |
| 314 | <i>Verbascum sinuatum</i> L. subsp. <i>sinuatum</i> var. <i>sinuatum</i> | 59 | 2018-537 | Medit. |
| 315 | * <i>Verbascum trapifolium</i> (Stapf) Hub.-Mor. | 74 | 2018-566 | Medit. |
| TAMARICACEAE | | | | |
| 316 | <i>Tamarix parviflora</i> DC. | 1; 4; 56 | 2017-65; 2017-275; 2018-518 | Medit. |
| THYMELAEACEAE | | | | |
| 317 | <i>Daphne sericea</i> Vahl subsp. <i>sericea</i> | 15; 16; 54 | 2018-141; Obs.; 2018-336 | Medit. |
| VIOLACEAE | | | | |
| 318 | * <i>Viola heldreichiana</i> Boiss. | 21; 30 | 2018-180; Obs. | Medit. |
| 319 | <i>Viola kitaibeliana</i> Roem. & Schult. | 46; 50 | Obs.; 2018-325 | |
| MONOCOTYLEDONAE | | | | |
| AMARYLLIDACEAE | | | | |
| 320 | <i>Allium hirtovaginatatum</i> Kunth | 73 | 2018-561 | Medit. |
| 321 | <i>Allium scorodoprasum</i> L. subsp. <i>rotundum</i> (L.) Stearn | 2 | 2017-238 | |
| 322 | <i>Allium stamineum</i> Boiss. | 2 | 2017-252 | Medit. |
| ARACEAE | | | | |
| 323 | <i>Dracunculus vulgaris</i> Schott | 14; 18 | Obs.; Obs. | Medit. |
| ASPARAGACEAE | | | | |
| 324 | <i>Asparagus aphyllus</i> L. subsp. <i>aphyllus</i> | 1 | 2017-90 | |
| 325 | <i>Muscari armeniacum</i> Leichtlin ex Baker | 23 | Obs. | |
| 326 | <i>Muscari comosum</i> (L.) Mill. | 1; 40 | 2017-63; 2018-287 | Medit. |
| 327 | <i>Muscari neglectum</i> Guss. ex Ten. | 15; 21 | 2018-115; Obs. | |
| 328 | * <i>Muscari racemosum</i> Mill. | 1; 5; 13; 26; 27; 29 | 2017-40, 2017-76; 2017-291; 2018-81; Obs.; 2018-199; 2018-203 | Medit. |
| 329 | * <i>Muscari sandrasicum</i> Karlén | 16; 48; 49 | Obs.; 2018-315; Obs. | Medit. |

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|--------------------|--|--------------------|--|-----------|
| 330 | <i>*Ornithogalum alpigenum</i> Stapf | 46 | 2018-311 | Medit. |
| 331 | <i>Ornithogalum narbonense</i> L. | 55 | 2018-375 | Medit. |
| 332 | <i>Ornithogalum nutans</i> L. | 17 | 2018-160 | Medit. |
| 333 | <i>Ornithogalum umbellatum</i> L. | 1; 7 | 2017-62; 2017-299 | |
| 334 | <i>Prospero autumnale</i> (L.) Speta | 61; 62 | 2018-544; Obs. | Medit. |
| CYPERACEAE | | | | |
| 335 | <i>Carex hirta</i> L. | 33 | 2018-214 | Euro-Sib. |
| 336 | <i>Eleocharis palustris</i> (L.) Roem. & Schult. subsp. <i>palustris</i> | 1; 61; 71 | 2017-85; Obs.; Obs. | |
| 337 | <i>Scirpoides holoschoenus</i> (L.) Soják subsp. <i>holoschoenus</i> | 2; 57; 61 | 2017-262; 2018-521; 2018-543 | |
| IRIDACEAE | | | | |
| 338 | <i>Gladiolus illyricus</i> W.D.J.Koch | 1; 55 | 2017-54; 2018-408 | Medit. |
| JUNCACEAE | | | | |
| 339 | <i>Juncus effusus</i> L. subsp. <i>effusus</i> | 33 | 2018-212 | |
| LILIACEAE | | | | |
| 340 | <i>Tulipa armena</i> Boiss. | 23 | 2018-186 | |
| 341 | <i>Tulipa sylvestris</i> L. var. <i>sylvestris</i> | 23; 28; 43; 49; 51 | Obs.; 2018-202; 2018-294; 2018-317; 2018-330 | |
| ORCHIDACEAE | | | | |
| 342 | <i>Cephalanthera epipactoides</i> Fisch. & C.A.Mey. | 19; 20; 33; 38 | Obs.; 2018-178; 2018-208; 2018-278 | Medit. |
| 343 | <i>Cephalanthera rubra</i> (L.) Rich. | 33 | 2018-207 | |
| 344 | <i>Limodorum abortivum</i> (L.) Sw. var. <i>abortivum</i> | 19; 35 | Obs.; 2018-263 | |
| 345 | <i>Orchis anatolica</i> Boiss. | 16; 20; 28; 30 | 2018-152; Obs.; Obs.; 2018-204 | Medit. |
| POACEAE | | | | |
| 346 | <i>Aegilops geniculata</i> Roth | 1; 2 | 2017-128; Obs. | Medit. |
| 347 | <i>Aegilops triuncialis</i> L. subsp. <i>triuncialis</i> | 55 | 2018-371 | |
| 348 | <i>Avena barbata</i> Pott ex Link subsp. <i>barbata</i> | 1 | 2017-96 | Medit. |
| 349 | <i>Bromus racemosus</i> L. | 2 | 2017-257 | Euro-Sib. |
| 350 | <i>Bromus sterilis</i> L. | 14 | 2018-110 | |
| 351 | <i>Bromus tectorum</i> L. | 1; 34 | 2017-127; 2018-252 | |
| 352 | <i>Calamagrostis epigeios</i> (L.) Roth | 2 | 2017-258 | Euro-Sib. |
| 353 | <i>Crypsis alopecuroides</i> (Piller & Mitterp.) Schrad. | 61 | 2018-540 | |
| 354 | <i>Cynodon dactylon</i> (L.) Pers. var. <i>dactylon</i> | 58 | 2018-529 | |
| 355 | <i>Echinaria capitata</i> (L.) Desf. | 1; 37 | 2017-119; 2018-275 | |
| 356 | <i>Hordeum murinum</i> L. subsp. <i>murinum</i> | 1 | 2017-97 | |
| 357 | <i>Micropyrum tenellum</i> (L.) Link | 33 | 2018-213 | Medit. |
| 358 | <i>Phragmites australis</i> (Cav.) Trin. ex Steud. | 57 | Obs. | Euro-Sib. |
| 359 | <i>Poa bulbosa</i> L. | 19; 40 | 2018-170; 2018-286 | |
| 360 | <i>Poa pratensis</i> L. | 14 | 2018-104 | |

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|-------------------------|---|----|----------|
| 361 | <i>Setaria viridis</i> (L.) P.Beauv. | 59 | Obs. |
| POTAMOGETONACEAE | | | |
| 362 | <i>Zannichellia palustris</i> L. subsp. <i>palustris</i> | 56 | 2018-517 |
| TYPHACEAE | | | |
| 363 | <i>Typha angustifolia</i> L. | 2 | 2017-266 |

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