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1       **A comprehensive study on the main physiological and biochemical**  
2       **changes occurring during growth and on-tree ripening of two apple**  
3       **varieties with different postharvest behaviour**

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28 **Abstract**

29 Apple quality and the storage potential likely depend on a range of physiological and  
30 biochemical events occurring throughout fruit development and ripening. In this study,  
31 we investigated the major physiological (ethylene production and respiration) and  
32 biochemical changes (related to sugar and malic acid content as well as antioxidant  
33 metabolism) occurring during growth and on-tree ripening of two apple varieties  
34 ('Granny Smith' (GS) and 'Early Red One' (ERO)) with known differences in their  
35 postharvest behaviour, mainly firmness loss and susceptibility to superficial scald. Our  
36 results demonstrate that the higher storability and the limited loss of firmness of 'GS'  
37 fruit was associated to a higher acid content, mainly malic acid, that seemed to be  
38 regulated already at fruit set (20 DAFB). The reduced loss of firmness during storage in  
39 'GS' was also associated to the fruit inability to produce ethylene upon harvest resulting  
40 from very low 1-aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylic acid oxidase (ACO) activity. Sugar  
41 accumulation, on the other hand, was similar among both varieties as was also observed  
42 for the rate of fruit growth or the fruit respiration pattern. In addition, the higher  
43 susceptibility of 'GS' if compared to 'ERO' to superficial scald was not associated to  
44 peroxidative damage (malondialdehyde accumulation) nor to higher levels of the  
45 sesquiterpene  $\alpha$ -farnesene but rather mediated by a fruit antioxidant imbalance resulting  
46 from higher H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> levels and lower antioxidant (peroxidase) enzymatic capacity. The  
47 interplay between ethylene, respiration and antioxidants or sugars and organic acids  
48 during apple growth and development is further discussed.

49

50

51 **Keywords:** Antioxidants, ethylene, *Malus domestica* Borkh., oxidative stress and  
52 respiration

## 54 1. INTRODUCTION

55 Apple development takes over 150 days from pollination to fully ripe fruit owning a  
56 typical and well characterised simple sigmoidal growth curve common for most, if not  
57 all, apple varieties (Pratt, 1988). During on-tree ripening numerous physiological and  
58 biochemical changes occur leading to the final fruit quality at harvest as well as to the  
59 fruit postharvest behaviour. Apple cultivars largely vary in their physicochemical  
60 characteristics, in their texture as well as in their storage performance (Johnston et al.,  
61 2009; Singh et al., 2017). For instance, spring or summer cultivars (i.e. ‘Gala’ or  
62 ‘McIntosh’) are characterised by poor postharvest performance, showing fast ripening  
63 and softening, if compared to mid-late season varieties (i.e. ‘Golden Delicious’, ‘Red  
64 Delicious’ or ‘Granny Smith’). Thus said, differences also exist when comparing mid-  
65 late season varieties, such as the ones used in this study, since some cultivars will need  
66 cold storage to initiate ripening or initiate its autocatalytic ethylene production (i.e.  
67 ‘Granny Smith’; Larrigaudière and Vendrell, 1993; Lara and Vendrell, 2003) while most  
68 other cultivars (‘Red Delicious’, ‘Golden Delicious’; Tong et al., 2016) will immediately  
69 do so following harvest. Like ‘Granny Smith’ apples, most cultivated European pear  
70 varieties own varying degrees of resistance to ripening even when harvested at the  
71 appropriate maturity and a postharvest chilling period is often required to induce ripening  
72 (Villalobos-Acuña and Mitcham, 2008).

73 Whether such differences are strictly regulated by ethylene itself (Singh et al., 2017) or  
74 related to specific changes occurring during fruit development, is somehow unclear. The  
75 role that ethylene plays in fruit development and its relationship with the fruit postharvest  
76 behaviour remains to be elucidated. It is generally recognized that the climacteric process  
77 takes place through the consecutive induction of two ethylene-producing systems referred

78 as System 1 and System 2 (El-Sharkawy et al., 2004). System 1 is non-autocatalytic and  
79 operates in immature fruit whereas System 2 operates during ripening to induce  
80 autocatalytic ethylene production and the climacteric burst observed in climacteric fruit  
81 (reviewed in Pech et al., 2012). In apples, as typical climacteric fruit, the increase in  
82 ethylene production at the latest stages of ripening is accompanied by an increase in the  
83 fruit respiratory activity (Busatto et al., 2017). In turn, numerous metabolic processes are  
84 altered by fruit respiration, including chloroplastic, mitochondrial and plasma membrane-  
85 linked electron transport chains leading to the production of reactive oxygen species  
86 (ROS) such as H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> (Apel and Hirt, 2004; Foyer et al., 1994). Under normal  
87 physiological conditions, oxidative damage may be curtailed by antioxidant defences that  
88 scavenge or prevent the generation of ROS, as well as repair or degrade the oxidized  
89 molecules (Jamieson, 1998). Thus said, an inappropriate antioxidant system within the  
90 fruit during on-tree ripening may contribute to the development of oxidative-mediated  
91 postharvest physiological disorders (i.e. superficial scald). In accordance, previous  
92 research have shown that exogenous applications of antioxidants reduce the incidence of  
93 oxidative-stress mediated disorders in apples and pears (Jung and Watkins, 2008;  
94 Mattheis and Rudell, 2008) and other fruit (i.e. green pepper; Purvis, 2002), hence  
95 corroborating the importance of the fruit antioxidant defences to sustain a good storage  
96 potential.

97 To date, no other studies have investigated and compared the growing and  
98 ripening-related events between different apple varieties and its relationship with the final  
99 fruit quality and the postharvest behaviour (softening or susceptibility to superficial  
100 scald). Accordingly, this study aim to determine if the existing differences in quality and  
101 superficial scald incidence between ‘Granny Smith’ and ‘Early Red One’ apples upon

102 storage are triggered by specific biochemical and metabolic changes occurring during on-  
103 tree growth and ripening.

104

## 105 **2. MATERIALS AND METHODS**

### 106 *2.1 Plant material, storage protocol and standard quality evaluations*

107 ‘Early Red One’ (ERO) and ‘Granny Smith’ (GS) apples (30 fruit per replicate and 6  
108 replicates from at least 3 trees per variety) were picked at different developmental stages  
109 from commercial orchards in Torregrossa (Lleida, NE Spain). The stages of fruit  
110 development (S1 to S6; Fig. 4) were based on days after full bloom (DAFB), being full  
111 bloom defined as the time when over 50% of the flowers were fully open. After each  
112 harvest, apples were immediately transported to the laboratory, under acclimatised  
113 conditions (20°C) and reaching the laboratory in less than 30 min. Upon arrival at the  
114 laboratory, 20 fruit per replicate were used for CO<sub>2</sub> and ethylene measurements whereas  
115 the remaining 10 fruit were immediately snap-frozen with liquid nitrogen and kept at -80  
116 °C or immediately used for biochemical measurements. Fruit weight, firmness (Effegi  
117 penetrometer FT 327), diameter, colour (portable spectrophotometer CM-2600d; Konica  
118 Minolta Sensing, Japan) and DA-value (DA-meter; Turoni, Italy) were measured on 20  
119 individual fruit per replicate. Standard quality parameters, including total soluble solids  
120 content (TSS; %) and fruit acidity (g malic 100 g fruit), were measured in the juice  
121 obtained from 5 individual fruit (n= 4 per replicate) as described elsewhere (Giné-  
122 Bordonaba et al., 2016).

123 At commercial harvest, an additional 180 fruit per each variety (30 fruit per replicate)  
124 was harvested and stored at 0.5°C (95% RH) during four months. After this period,  
125 superficial scald incidence and severity was determined on 120 fruit after 0 and 7 days of  
126 storage at 20°C as described elsewhere (Giné-Bordonaba et al., 2013). Quality changes

127 upon removal from cold storage (same parameters as described above) were also  
128 determined after 0, 7 and 10 days of storage at 20°C on 30 individual fruit for each variety.

129

## 130 *2.2 Fruit ethylene production, respiration and ACO activity*

131 Fruit respiration ( $\text{mg CO}_2 \text{ kg}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$  or  $\text{mg CO}_2 \text{ apple}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$ ) and ethylene production ( $\mu\text{L g}^{-1}$   
132  $\text{h}^{-1}$  or  $\mu\text{L apple}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$ ) were measured on a standard weight basis ( $\text{kg}^{-1}$ ) or on a fruit basis  
133 ( $\text{apple}^{-1}$ ) on fruit kept in an acclimatized chamber at 20 °C. After each sampling point,  
134 apples were placed within sealed flasks equipped with a silicon septum for sampling the  
135 gas of the headspace after 2h incubation. Gas samples (1 mL) were taken daily from the  
136 headspace and injected into a gas chromatograph fitted with a FID detector (Agilent  
137 Technologies 6890, Wilmington, Germany) and an alumina column 80/100 (2 m x 3 mm)  
138 (Teknokroma, Barcelona, Spain) as previously described (Giné Bordonaba et al., 2014).  
139 Fruit respiration was determined by quantifying the  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration within the flask  
140 with an  $\text{O}_2/\text{CO}_2$  gas analyser (CheckPoint  $\text{O}_2/\text{CO}_2$ , PBI Dansensor, Ringsted, Denmark).  
141 1-aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylic acid oxidase (ACO) activity was extracted as  
142 described by Chiriboga et al. (2013) and the enzyme activity analysed mixing 400  $\mu\text{l}$   
143 aliquot of the enzyme extract with 50 mM MOPS reaction buffer pH 7.2, 10% glycerol,  
144 5 mM ascorbic acid sodium salt, 20 mM sodium bicarbonate, 0.02 mM iron sulphate, 1  
145 mM ACC and 1 mM DTT. The mixture was aired and incubated for 60 min at 30 °C, after  
146 which a 1 mL headspace gas sample was injected into a gas chromatograph and the results  
147 were expressed as  $\text{nmol C}_2\text{H}_4 \text{ g}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$  or  $\text{nmol C}_2\text{H}_4 \text{ apple}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$ .

148

## 149 *2.3 Determination of fruit malate and sugar content*

150 Extracts for malate determination were prepared as described in Giné-Bordonaba and  
151 Terry (2010) with some modifications. Briefly, fresh frozen fruit tissue (2g) was added

152 to 5 mL of HPLC-grade water. Samples were kept at room temperature (25 °C) for 10  
153 min and then centrifuged at 24,000 x g for 7 min at 20 °C. Glucose and fructose were  
154 extracted from fresh-frozen material as described elsewhere (Terry et al., 2007). Briefly,  
155 2g of sample were dissolved in 5 mL of 62.5% (v/v) aqueous methanol solvent and placed  
156 in a thermostatic bath at 55 °C for 15 min, mixing the solution with a vortex every 5 min  
157 to prevent layering. Then, samples were centrifuged as described above. The supernatant  
158 from each extraction was recovered and used for enzyme-coupled spectrophotometric  
159 determination of malate (L-malate dehydrogenase) and glucose and fructose  
160 (hexokinase/phosphoglucose isomerase) as described by Giné-Bordonaba et al. (2017)  
161 using commercial kits (BioSystems S.A., Barcelona, Spain) and following the  
162 manufacturer instructions.

163

#### 164 *2.4 Determination of malondialdehyde and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> content*

165 Malondialdehyde (MDA) was quantified in fruit as an index of lipid peroxidation using  
166 the thiobarbituric acid reactive substrates (TBARS) assay as described elsewhere  
167 (Martínez-Solano et al., 2005). Briefly, frozen fruit tissue (0.5g) was homogenized in 4  
168 mL of 0.1% trichloroacetic acid (TCA) solution. The homogenate was then centrifuged  
169 at 18,800 x g for 20 min and 0.5 mL of the supernatant was added to 1.5 mL 0.5%  
170 thiobarbituric acid (TBA) in 20% TCA. A second aliquot (0.5 mL) of the supernatant was  
171 added to a mixture containing only 20% TCA as a control. The mixture was incubated at  
172 90 °C for 30 min until stopped by placing the reaction tubes in an ice-water bath. Samples  
173 were then centrifuged at 18,800 x g for 10 min at 4 °C, and the absorbance of the  
174 supernatant was read at 532 nm. The value for non-specific absorption at 600 nm was  
175 subtracted. The amount of MDA-TBA complex (red pigment) was calculated using the



176 extinction coefficient  $155 \text{ mM}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$  and the results expressed as  $\text{nmol g}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$  or  $\text{nmol}$   
177  $\text{apple}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$ .

178 To determine  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  levels, 2.5 g of fresh frozen fruit tissue were homogenized in 10 mL  
179 of 5% trichloroacetic acid, filtered through two layers of Miracloth (Textil Planas  
180 Oliverassa, Manresa, Spain) and centrifuged at  $20,000 \times g$  for 15 min at  $4 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ .  
181 Quantification of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  was determined using the Bioxytech  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ -560 (OXIS  
182 International Inc., Portland, OR USA) colorimetric assay following the manufacturer's  
183 instructions as described elsewhere (Giné-Bordonaba et al., 2017).

184

### 185 *2.5 Fruit antioxidant capacity, total phenolic content and enzymatic antioxidants*

186 Total phenolic concentrations and antioxidant capacity of the apples through development  
187 were quantified from freeze-dried material as described earlier (Giné Bordonaba and  
188 Terry, 2008) by mixing 50 mg of freeze-dried fruit sample with 1.5 mL of 79.5% (v/v)  
189 methanol and 0.5% (v/v) HCl in HPLC-grade water. Sample extraction was held at  $25 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$   
190 with constant shaking for 2h and mixing the samples every 15 min (Giné Bordonaba and  
191 Terry, 2016). From the same extract, total phenolic compounds (mg gallic acid  
192 equivalents (GAE)  $\text{g}^{-1}$  FW or  $\text{mg GAE apple}^{-1}$ ) were measured by means of the Folin-  
193 Ciocalteu method and total antioxidant capacity ( $\text{mg Fe}^{2+}$  per  $\text{g}^{-1}$  FW or  $\text{apple}^{-1}$ ) measured  
194 by the Ferric Reducing Antioxidant Power (FRAP) assay as described in recent works  
195 (Giné Bordonaba and Terry, 2016).

196 Total peroxidase (POX, EC 1.11.1.7) extractions were carried out as described in Giné-  
197 Bordonaba et al. (2017) based on the protocols previously reported by Lurie et al. (1997)  
198 and Vilaplana et al. (2006) and using fresh-frozen fruit.

199

### 200 *2.6 Determination of cell wall-modifying enzyme activities*

201 Pectin methyl esterase (PME; EC 3.1.1.11) enzyme was extracted using the method  
202 described by Plaza et al. (2003). PME was extracted by homogenisation of 2 g of frozen  
203 ground sample with 6 mL of an extraction solution (1 M NaCl in 0.2 M sodium  
204 phosphate buffer pH 7.5). The resulting mixture was shaken for 10 min at 4 °C,  
205 centrifuged at 16,000 x g for 20 min at 4 °C and then the supernatant filtered through  
206 six cheesecloth layers. Finally, PME activity from the resulting extract was quantified  
207 by titration as described elsewhere (Yeom et al., 2000). The PME activity unit (AU)  
208 was expressed as the amount of enzyme necessary to release 1  $\mu\text{mol}$  galacturonic acid  
209  $\text{min}^{-1} \text{g}^{-1}$  fresh weight.

210

211 Polygalacturonase (exo-PG; EC 3.2.1.67 and endo-PG; EC 3.2.1.15) extraction and  
212 determination was conducted by following the methods described by Van Linden et al.  
213 (2008) with some modifications. PG activity unit (AU) was calculated as the release of  
214 reducing groups per unit of time and per fresh weight ( $\mu\text{mol min}^{-1} \text{g}^{-1} \text{FW}$ ) based on the  
215 two reaction periods as described in Giné-Bordonaba et al. (2017).

216

## 217 *2.7 Data analysis*

218 All data, except that referring to antioxidant enzymes activity, is presented both in  
219 terms of standard concentrations (i.e. mg of the analyte  $\text{g}^{-1}$ ) and per fruit basis (i.e. mg of  
220 the analyte  $\text{apple}^{-1}$ ) aiming to understand the net assimilation of the target compounds  
221 without considering the increase in fruit volume occurring during fruit growth. In all  
222 cases, data were subjected to analysis of variance (ANOVA) tests using JMP 8.0.1 SAS  
223 Institute Inc. Least significant difference values (LSD;  $P \leq 0.05$ ) were calculated for mean  
224 separation using critical values of t for two-tailed tests. Correlations between  
225 experimental variables were made using Spearman's Rank Correlations and, if required,

226 presented as Spearman's Correlation Coefficient ( $r$ ) and P value based on a two-tailed  
227 test. Unless otherwise stated, significant differences were  $P \leq 0.05$ .

228

229

### 230 **3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

#### 231 *3.1 Quality characteristics at harvest and postharvest behaviour*

232 Fruit firmness along with total soluble solid and the starch content are among the  
233 main quality parameters used by apple growers to determine the optimum harvest date.  
234 In this work, fruit firmness at the time of commercial harvest was similar for both apple  
235 varieties being slightly higher in 'GS' (59.8 N) than in 'ERO' (51.2 N) fruit (Fig. 1). The  
236 higher firmness observed in 'GS' at the time of harvest was accompanied by lower TSS  
237 (1.14-fold) and higher acidity (2.2-fold) if compared to 'ERO'. The starch content,  
238 determined by the iodine staining method, and which may be a good indicator for the fruit  
239 physiological maturity stage, was also similar for both varieties ( $6.1 \pm 1.12$  in 'GS' and  
240  $7.45 \pm 1.9$  in 'ERO'; data not shown). Overall, quality parameters for both varieties at the  
241 time of harvest were within the standards used by growers in the region of Lleida (Lara  
242 and Vendrell, 2003; Villatoro et al., 2008) and show that both cultivars were harvested at  
243 similar physiological maturity stages.

244 Both apple varieties experienced little or no firmness loss during cold storage (up to 4  
245 months) yet differences between varieties appeared upon removal from cold storage and  
246 ripening at 20°C. In this case, firmness loss gradually decreased in 'ERO' fruit (-1.3  
247 N/day) while it remained fairly constant in 'GS'. In this later variety the lack of firmness  
248 loss during cold storage or shelf-life was mimicked by no significant changes in the  $I_{AD}$   
249 values for the same period (changing from 1.78 to 1.65) and thereby indicating a better  
250 storage potential of this variety in terms of limited softening and ripening. In contrast, the

251 decrease in  $I_{AD}$  values in 'ERO' indicated that this variety, albeit not losing firmness,  
252 ripens to some extent during cold storage (1.7-fold lower values upon removal from cold  
253 storage than at harvest) as was also observed during the last stages of on-tree development  
254 (Fig.1).

255 While fruit quality (firmness and acid content) was better maintained in 'GS' than in  
256 'ERO' during cold storage and further shelf-life at 20°C, a very high incidence of  
257 superficial scald was observed in 'GS' fruit (98%) if compared to 'ERO' (12% incidence;  
258 Figure 1). This result is not surprising since 'GS' fruit are generally referred as very  
259 susceptible to this physiological disorder (Giné-Bordonaba et al., 2013). Thus said,  $\alpha$ -  
260 farnesene content at or prior to harvest, a compound intimately related to superficial scald  
261 development (Giné-Bordonaba et al., 2013), was greater in 'ERO' than in 'GS' fruit  
262 (Supplementary Figure 1).

263 After harvest, a typical climacteric ethylene production pattern was observed in 'ERO'  
264 fruit, with a peak in ethylene production ( $62 \mu\text{L Kg}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$ ) occurring after 6 days of storage  
265 at 20°C and slightly declining thereafter. In contrast, no ethylene peak and basal levels of  
266 this hormone were observed in 'GS' fruit stored at 20°C following harvest (Fig. 2). In  
267 agreement with these results, it is well documented that 'GS' fruit, if compared to other  
268 apple varieties (Tong et al., 2016), and similarly to many European pear varieties  
269 (Villalobos-Acuña et al., 2008), requires cold storage to initiate its autocatalytic ethylene  
270 production (Larrigaudière and Vendrell, 1993; Lara and Vendrell, 2003). This specific  
271 behaviour of 'GS' apples is not strictly related to the fruit maturity stage at the time of  
272 harvest since fruit harvested at starch indexes close to 8 also fail to produce ethylene when  
273 placed at 20°C immediately following harvest (Giné Bordonaba and Larrigaudière,  
274 unpublished).

275 Upon removal, differences in the ethylene production pattern between both varieties  
276 remained noticeable, highlighting a typical climacteric behaviour (increase in ethylene  
277 production) in 'GS' and a post-climacteric behaviour (no increase and even slight  
278 decrease) in 'ERO' fruit. This result further confirm the data from the  $I_{AD}$  values and  
279 clearly reflect that 'ERO' apples ripen during cold storage.

280 Overall, our results demonstrate that quality traits at harvest but mainly during  
281 postharvest storage and further shelf-life were clearly distinct among the studied varieties.  
282 Whether such differences are related to the specific growth pattern or some physiological  
283 events occurring during the fruit development of each variety, is analysed in the following  
284 sections.

285

### 286 ***3.2 Morphological and quality changes during fruit growth***

287 Notwithstanding the observed differences in fruit quality at the time of harvest or the  
288 different postharvest behaviour, both apple varieties showed a similar growth pattern  
289 (typical sigmoidal growth curve) and hence in agreement with that reported in earlier  
290 studies (Pratt, 1988; Whale and Singh, 2007). In both apple varieties the period of  
291 maximal growth rate was from 90 to 120 DAFB ( $2.3 \text{ g day}^{-1}$ ; Fig. 3). Other authors have  
292 described apple growth either as curvilinear in the initial stages (up to 35 DAFB) followed  
293 by a steady linear increase until the time of harvest (Assaf et al., 1982) or expoliniar  
294 (Lakso et al., 1995), depending on the cultivar or the agro-climatic conditions being  
295 tested. In any case, our data confirm for both apple varieties three clearly differentiated  
296 growth phases being: (I) a period of limited growth (up to 40-50 DAFB) likely attributed  
297 to a period of rapid cell division, (II) a period of fast growth rate generally referred to the  
298 period of cell elongation and enlargement (Austin et al., 1999; from 50 to 150 DAFB),  
299 and (III) a short period of fruit maturation where fruit growth does no longer occur (from

300 150 to 175 DAFB). In other apple cultivars (i.e. the summer cultivar ‘Gala’), fruit growth  
301 was arrested much earlier, at 90-100 DAFB, hence up to 40 days prior to commercial  
302 harvest (Goulao et al., 2007).

303 For both varieties, fruit firmness was maximal at 90 DAFB, when the fruit had reached  
304 only 25-30% of its final fruit size (Fig. 3) and declined thereafter thereby in contrast to  
305 other fruit such as plums, peaches, dates or loquats where the loss of fruit firmness is  
306 initiated at later developmental stages and generally when the fruit is no longer growing  
307 (Serrano et al., 2001; Amorós et al., 2003; Zuzunaga et al., 2001). The loss of firmness  
308 during the last stages of apple development and ripening have been associated with the  
309 solubilisation of pectins through a complex and coordinated action of several cell wall  
310 modifying enzymes (Goulao et al., 2007). Our data on PG or PME activities, either in  
311 absolute concentrations or on a fruit basis (Supplementary Figure 2), did not support this  
312 idea since the loss of firmness from 90 DAFB onwards was not consistently paralleled by  
313 higher enzyme activities in any of the varieties investigated.

314 The fruit acid content ( $\text{g malic g}^{-1}$ ) steadily declined for both varieties from 60 DAFB to  
315 harvest, whereas total soluble solids (TSS) content remained fairly unchanged until 120  
316 DAFB and increased later on (Fig. 3). The increase in TSS was especially noticeable in  
317 ‘ERO’ fruit (1.35-fold higher at 160 DAFB than at 120 DAFB) if compared to ‘GS’ (1.19-  
318 fold) and agrees with that reported for several apple varieties (Villatoro et al., 2008;  
319 Molina-Delgado et al., 2009; Ortiz et al., 2011). It is important to remark the sound  
320 differences in the acid content between both varieties being consistently 2.5-fold higher  
321 in ‘GS’ than in ‘ERO’ throughout development. The involvement of the fruit acidity on  
322 the storage potential of different apples was already discussed in an old paper (Plagge and  
323 Gerhardt, 1930), yet it was never since addressed in detail. Data from earlier studies  
324 suggest a strong negative correlation between the rate of firmness loss observed during

325 cold storage and the acid content of ‘GS’ apples from seven different orchards ( $R^2= 0.67$ ;  
326  $P<0.05$ ; Giné Bordonaba and Larrigaudière, unpublished). Therefore, it is likely that the  
327 higher acid content observed in ‘GS’ may account, in part, for the good storage  
328 performance, in terms of firmness maintenance, of this apple variety (aside the high  
329 superficial scald susceptibility). However, future studies are encouraged to confirm this  
330 relationship in other apple cultivars.

### 331 ***3.3 Respiration pattern and ethylene production during fruit growth***

332 Fruit respiration, as determined by the amount of  $\text{CO}_2$  released per  $\text{Kg}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$ , of both  
333 varieties was maximal at 20 DAFB and decreased up to 110 DAFB with little changes  
334 thereafter (Fig. 4). As observed in plums (Famiani et al., 2012) or peaches (Famiani et  
335 al., 2016), it is probable that this decrease results from the higher ratio of the vacuole to  
336 the cytoplasm of the pericarp cells during growth since the vacuole is the actual site of  
337  $\text{CO}_2$  release during respiration (Famiani et al., 2016). The changes in the amount of  $\text{CO}_2$   
338 released on a fruit basis ( $\mu\text{L per fruit}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$ ), were, however, completely different, showing  
339 an initial peak of  $\text{CO}_2$  released per fruit around 40 and 80 DAFB for ‘ERO’ and ‘GS’,  
340 respectively, followed by a sudden decline and then a second peak occurring close to the  
341 time of commercial fruit harvest. The pattern of  $\text{CO}_2$  released on a fruit basis was similar  
342 between the two varieties but different to that shown in other fruit such as peaches  
343 (Famiani et al., 2016), cherries (Giné-Bordonaba et al., 2017) or grapes (Famiani et al.,  
344 2014) where  $\text{CO}_2$  production tend to constantly increase during fruit ripening.

345 Ethylene production, on a concentration basis ( $\mu\text{L kg}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$ ), was also higher at earlier fruit  
346 developmental stages showing a steady decrease in both varieties until 90 or 110 DAFB  
347 (basal ethylene levels values) followed by a sharp increase thereafter. The peak in  
348 ethylene production at later developmental stages for both species occurred later than the  
349 observed changes in firmness loss (Fig. 4); thereby indicating that non-ethylene

350 dependent fruit softening occurs already during on-tree apple ripening. As pointed out  
351 earlier, the observed on-tree fruit softening was neither mediated by the activity of PG or  
352 PME (Supplementary Figure 2). A similar ethylene production pattern during  
353 development of different apple and pear varieties has already been reported (Walsh and  
354 Solomos, 1987; Dal Cin et al., 2007; Whale et al., 2007) demonstrating that ethylene  
355 production is greater at the development stages of cell division (up to 50 DAFB) and later  
356 on prior to commercial harvest. Such increase in the ethylene production towards the time  
357 of commercial harvest was especially noticeable in 'ERO' fruit being 11-fold greater than  
358 in 'GS' apples. The higher ethylene production in 'ERO' was, in turn, coupled to a drastic  
359 activation of 1-aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylic acid oxidase (ACO), the enzyme  
360 responsible for the synthesis of ethylene from ACC. In contrast, in 'GS' apples ACO  
361 activity remained unchanged from 50 DAFB to the time of harvest.

362 On a fruit basis ( $\mu\text{L fruit}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$ ), ethylene production remained very low for both varieties  
363 during the whole growing period and peaked just prior to the time of harvest. The burst  
364 in ethylene production in 'ERO' fruit prior to harvest agrees with earlier studies in that  
365 anthocyanin accumulation during apple ripening is triggered by ethylene (Faragher and  
366 Brohier, 1984). Indeed, anthocyanin accumulation during apple growth owns two well-  
367 differentiated peaks; the first occurring in young fruitlets during cell expansion and the  
368 second one during ripening prior to commercial harvest (Saure, 1990), both peaks  
369 coinciding with periods of high ethylene production (Fig. 4).

370 Generally, our results demonstrate that ethylene and respiratory metabolism was  
371 similar during the growth and development of both varieties except at the time of fruit  
372 ripening. The burst in ethylene production and the higher activation of ACO observed in  
373 'ERO' fruit if compared to 'GS' clearly explain the different ethylene production capacity  
374 and ripening behaviour (changes in  $I_{AD}$  and softening) upon harvest (Fig. 2). Our results



375 also point out that other hormones (i.e. ABA, gibberillins) or its crosstalk are likely  
376 responsible for the ethylene inhibition via inactivation of ACO observed in ‘GS’ fruit  
377 prior to harvest. In addition, the lack of ethylene at the time of harvest in ‘GS’ also  
378 explains the lower  $\alpha$ -farnesene content (Supplementary Figure 1) in this variety since  
379 ethylene promotes the enzymatic synthesis of this compound via AFS1 ( $\alpha$ -farnesene  
380 synthase 1; Tsantili et al., 2007). Indeed, in the later study the authors found that changes  
381 in the expression patterns of the  $\alpha$ -farnesene synthase gene MdAFS1, the ethylene  
382 receptor gene MdERS1, and the ethylene biosynthetic genes MdACS1 and MdACO1  
383 were highly related to the observed patterns of  $\alpha$ -farnesene accumulation and ethylene  
384 production.

### 385 ***3.4 Changes in sugar and organic acid content during fruit growth***

386 In most cultivated apple varieties, sucrose and fructose are the predominant sugars  
387 followed closely by glucose and other minor sugars such as sorbitol (Doerflinger et al.,  
388 2015; Ma et al., 2015; Jing et al., 2016). Sugar accumulation during the growth and  
389 ripening of both cultivars (Fig. 5) followed similar kinetics both on a concentration (mg  
390  $g^{-1}$ ) or fruit basis and with values slightly higher in ‘ERO’ than in ‘GS’ fruit. The  
391 concentration of monosaccharides (glucose + fructose; Fig. 5) increased mainly during  
392 the periods of slower growth rate from 20 to 90 DAFB, and then from 140 DAFB to  
393 harvest, whereas sucrose concentration (Fig. 5) remained relatively unchanged until 120  
394 DAFB and sharply increased thereafter showing a positive and strong correlation  
395 ( $r^2=0.83$ ;  $P<0.01$ ) with the changes observed in the fruit TSS content (Fig. 3). On a fruit  
396 basis, changes in monosaccharides and sucrose were well correlated ( $r^2 =0.98$ ;  $P<0.01$ )  
397 and maximal sugar accumulation within the fruit occurred during the period of maximum  
398 fruit growth, hence suggesting that the faster fruit growth was accompanied by a faster  
399 mobilization of assimilates from source to sink tissues. For both apple varieties strong

400 negative correlations were observed between the fruit respiration pattern and the content  
401 of monosaccharides (glucose + fructose) and sucrose (Fig. S3) highlighting the role of  
402 these compounds as important respiratory substrates in apple.

403 Malic acid is by far the main organic acid present in ripe apple fruit (Sun et al., 2000;  
404 Jing et al., 2016) and its concentration is known to drastically vary among different apple  
405 cultivars (Sun et al., 2000). Malic acid, as well as most organic acids present in the apple  
406 flesh, are not imported but rather synthesised from imported sugars (Famiani et al., 2012).  
407 Accordingly, in ‘GS’ but not in ‘ERO’, negative correlations were found between malic  
408 acid and sugar content throughout fruit development (Fig. S3). The concentration ( $\text{mg g}^{-1}$ )  
409 of this compound remained relatively unchanged during the growth of ‘ERO’ fruit (24-  
410 36  $\text{mg g}^{-1}$ ) whereas a peak at 50 DAFB was observed in ‘GS’ apples (*ca.* 145  $\text{mg g}^{-1}$ )  
411 declining to constant levels (*ca.* 70  $\text{mg g}^{-1}$ ) thereafter and until the time of harvest. These  
412 results are in agreement with those reported for other apple varieties (i.e. ‘Golden  
413 Delicious’; Jing et al., 2016) in which malic acid remained relatively unchanged from 90  
414 DAFB to fully ripe fruit. On a fruit basis ( $\text{mg apple}^{-1}$ ), however, the content of malate  
415 steadily increased during growth and ripening of both varieties being always 2 to 3-fold  
416 higher in ‘GS’ than in ‘ERO’ fruit (Fig. 5). In grapes, malic acid is thought to be an  
417 important respiratory substrate (Famiani et al., 2014) and postharvest studies on apples  
418 also pointed out the importance of this compound in fruit respiration (Liu et al., 2016). In  
419 accordance to that recently reported in peaches (Famiani et al., 2016) and cherries (Giné-  
420 Bordonaba et al., 2017), our results indicate that the amount of malate accumulated during  
421 fruit growth, may contribute little or nothing to the net substrate requirements of apple  
422 metabolism since this compound was constantly synthesized rather than degraded  
423 throughout fruit development and on-tree ripening.

### 424 ***3.5 Changes in oxidative stress markers and antioxidants during fruit ripening***

425 It is generally recognized that H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> at low concentrations may act as a messenger  
426 molecule involved in adaptive responses whereas higher concentrations of this compound  
427 may lead to programmed cell death. In this work, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> concentrations differently  
428 changed during the fruit growth of both cultivars. In 'ERO', H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> concentration (nmol g<sup>-1</sup>  
429 FW) remained fairly constant throughout development (ca. 80 nmol g<sup>-1</sup> FW) whereas  
430 two clear peaks from 40 to 80 DAFB and prior to commercial harvest were observed in  
431 'GS' fruit. Theoretically, the higher H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> levels observed in 'GS' together with higher  
432 amounts of malate might point out a higher mitochondrial function for this apple variety.  
433 Thus said, fruit respiration in 'GS' was not substantially different to that of 'ERO' and  
434 hence it is unlikely that the burst of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> is related to an overfunctioning of the  
435 mitochondrial machinery but rather to the inability of the fruit to scavenge this compound.  
436 Indeed, when analysed on a fruit basis, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> content (nmol apple<sup>-1</sup>) constantly increased  
437 during fruit development and ripening especially in 'GS' fruit, a result that was consistent  
438 with the significant inhibition of POX activity observed in this cultivar during all the  
439 growing phase (Fig. 6).

440 Whether the higher levels of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> detected in 'GS' may be associated to  
441 superficial scald susceptibility (Fig. 1) is still debatable but it is widely accepted that  
442 increased H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> levels create oxidative stress leading to a diversity of physiological  
443 damages (Wang and Jiao, 2001). Indeed, higher activity of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-scavenging enzymes  
444 (POX), as those reported herein (Fig. 6), together with lower H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> values were reported  
445 by Rao et al. (1998) in superficial scald resistant seedlings. Moreover, application of  
446 exogenous H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> to harvested 'GS' fruit leads to a fast development of superficial scald  
447 symptoms (Giné-Bordonaba and Larrigaudière, unpublished). Collectively these results  
448 indicate that the continuous higher H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> levels observed during growth in 'GS' may  
449 contribute, at least in part, to the higher sensitivity of this cultivar to superficial scald.

450 In contrast to that observed in other fruit species (i.e. cherries; Giné-Bordonaba et al.,  
451 2017), the increase in H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> levels observed in ‘GS’ was not paralleled with higher MDA  
452 content. In ‘ERO’ fruit, MDA constantly increased during growth but remained partly  
453 unchanged in ‘GS’. A positive and strong correlation was found between MDA content  
454 and ethylene production in ‘ERO’ ( $r^2=0.695$ ;  $P<0.05$ ) but not in ‘GS’ fruit (Fig. S3).  
455 Furthermore, the lower membrane lipid peroxidation in ‘GS’ could not be explained by a  
456 higher content in fruit antioxidants (Fig. 6). On a concentration basis, both the fruit  
457 antioxidant capacity and the total phenolic composition steadily declined during fruit  
458 growth in both varieties while the opposite trend was observed if considering the results  
459 on a fruit basis (Fig. 6).

460 Collectively, these results may indicate that the accumulation of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> and the lower  
461 enzymatic antioxidant capacity observed in ‘GS’ fruit during growth and ripening may  
462 play an important role in determining the sensitivity of this cultivar to superficial scald.

463

#### 464 **4 CONCLUSIONS**

465 The results from this study demonstrate that differences in quality traits or storage  
466 performance at the time of harvest, understood as the capacity of the fruit to soften or to  
467 suffer some physiological disorders, may partially be explained by a range of  
468 physiological and biochemical changes occurring during apple fruit growth and on-tree  
469 ripening. The limited firmness loss experienced by ‘GS’ apples, if compared to other  
470 varieties, may be related to a higher acid content, which based on malic acid  
471 accumulation seemed to be regulated already at fruit set (20 DAFB) as well as to its  
472 inability to produce ethylene at the time of harvest, which was in turn associated to  
473 reduced ACO activity. Thus said, the precise mechanisms or substances accounting for

474 such ethylene inhibition at the time of harvest in this apple variety are still unknown and  
475 warrant further investigation.

476 In addition, the higher susceptibility of 'GS' if compared to 'ERO' to superficial scald,  
477 was not associated to peroxidative damage (malondialdehyde accumulation) or higher  
478 levels of  $\alpha$ -farnesene during growth, but rather to a fruit antioxidant imbalance resulting  
479 from higher H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> levels and lower peroxidase activity. A greater knowledge on the major  
480 physiological and biochemical events occurring during the growth and on-tree ripening  
481 of apple fruit may ultimately lead to better postharvest management strategies for each  
482 variety.

483

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654

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#### 664 **AUTHOR’S CONTRIBUTION**

665

666 JGB and CL conceived and designed the experiment. JGB and GE analyzed all the  
667 data. ED and GB performed the biochemical and physiological measurements. JG wrote  
668 the article and all authors contributed in improving and revising the manuscript.

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688 ***LIST OF FIGURES:***

689 **Figure 1:** Fruit firmness (A) and DA-value (B) at harvest (optimal harvest date), 15  
690 days earlier and during postharvest ripening of ‘Granny Smith; GS’ and ‘Early Red One;

691 ERO' fruit after 4 months of cold storage. (C) Superficial scald incidence and severity in  
692 'GS' and 'ERO' fruit after 4 months of cold storage.

693 **Figure 2:** Ethylene production ( $\mu\text{L Kg}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$ ) of two different apple (Granny Smith  
694 (GS:  $\circ$ ) and Early Red One (ERO:  $\bullet$ )) varieties during storage at 20°C immediately after  
695 harvest (A) or after 4 months of cold storage (0.5°C; 95% RH; B). Values represent the  
696 mean  $\pm$  stdev (n =3).

697 **Figure 3:** Morphological (fruit weight; A) and quality changes (B: Fruit firmness; C:  
698 Titratable acidity; D: Total soluble solids) during growth and ripening of two different  
699 apple (Granny Smith (GS:  $\circ$ ) and Early Red One (ERO:  $\bullet$ )) varieties. Values represent  
700 the mean  $\pm$  stdev (n =6). LSD values (P<0.05) for the interaction cultivar\*sampling point  
701 in figures A, B, C and D were 11.50, 3.18, 0.14 and 1.39, respectively. (E) Image of the  
702 different phenological stages corresponding to each sampling point (Days after full bloom  
703 (DAFB) are given for 'Early Red One; ERO' and 'Granny Smith; GS', respectively).

704 **Figure 4:** Dynamics changes in fruit respiration (A), ethylene production (B) and 1-  
705 Aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylic acid oxidase (ACO; C) during growth and ripening of  
706 two different apple (Granny Smith (GS:  $\circ$ ) and Early Red One (ERO:  $\bullet$ )) varieties.  
707 Values represent the mean  $\pm$  stdev (n =6). Inserts in each graph show the results on a fruit  
708 basis. LSD values (P<0.05) for the interaction cultivar\*sampling point in figures A, B  
709 and C were 7.451, 0.218 and 0.512, respectively.

710 **Figure 5:** Changes in the concentration ( $\text{mg g}^{-1} \text{FW}$ ) of malate (A), glucose + fructose  
711 (B) and sucrose (C) during growth and ripening of two different apple (Granny Smith  
712 (GS:  $\circ$ ) and Early Red One (ERO:  $\bullet$ )) varieties. Values represent the mean  $\pm$  stdev (n  
713 =6). Inserts in each graph depict the temporal changes of each parameter on a fruit basis.  
714 LSD values (P<0.05) for the interaction cultivar\*sampling point in figures A, B and C  
715 were 2.506, 6.704 and 3.284, respectively.

716        **Figure 6:** Changes in the concentration oxidative stress markers ( $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  (A) and MDA  
717 (C) ( $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1}$ ), total antioxidant capacity (B;  $\text{mg Fe}^{3+} \text{g}^{-1}$ ) and total phenolic compounds  
718 (D;  $\text{mg GAE g}^{-1}$ ) and peroxidase (POX; E) enzyme activity during growth and ripening  
719 of two different apple (Granny Smith (GS:  $\circ$ ) and Early Red One (ERO:  $\bullet$ )) varieties.  
720 Values represent the mean  $\pm$  stdev (n =6). Inserts in each graph depict the temporal  
721 changes of each parameter on a fruit basis. LSD values ( $P < 0.05$ ) for the interaction  
722 cultivar\* sampling point in figures A, B, C, D and E were 32.002, 18.347, 0.005, 16.409,  
723 and 57.950, respectively.

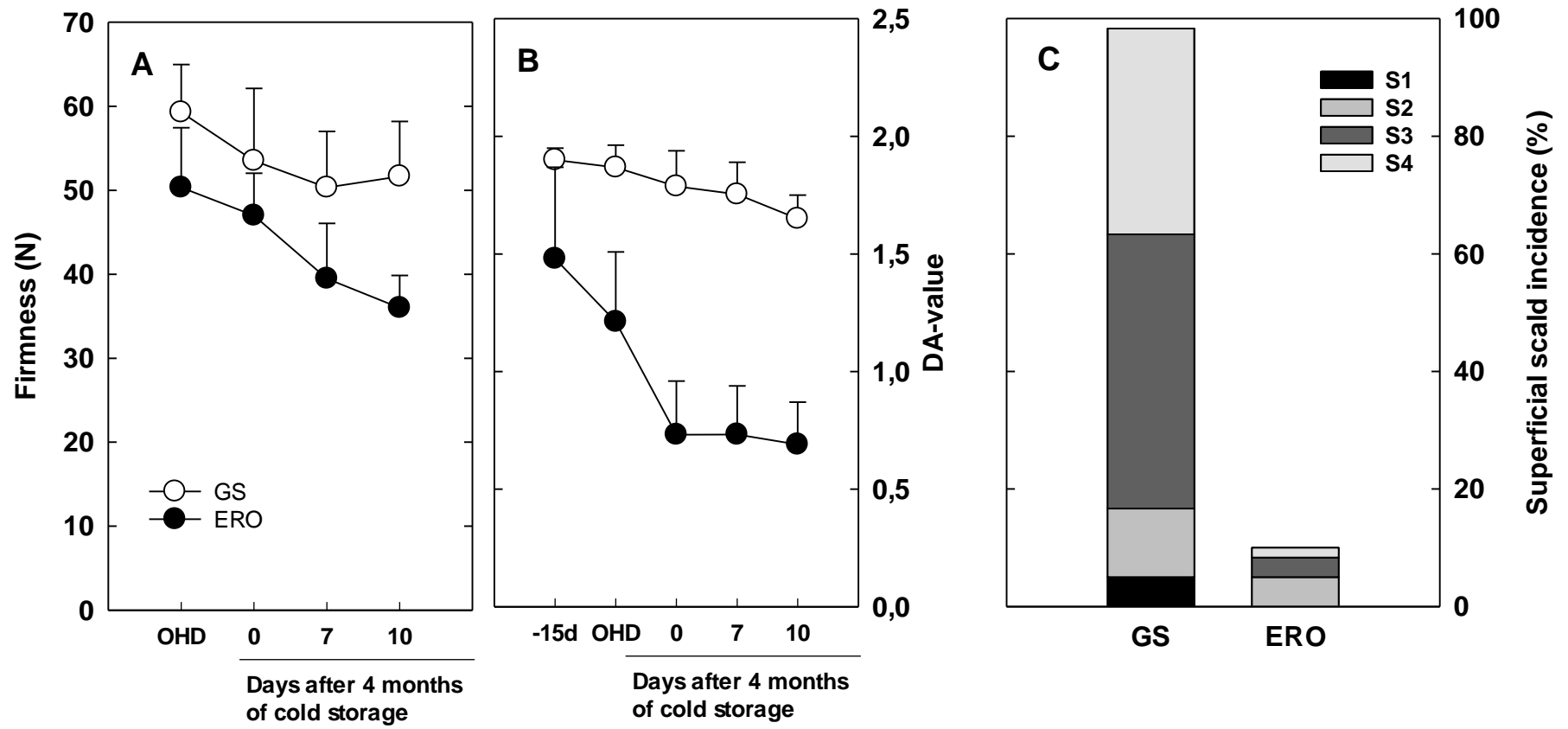
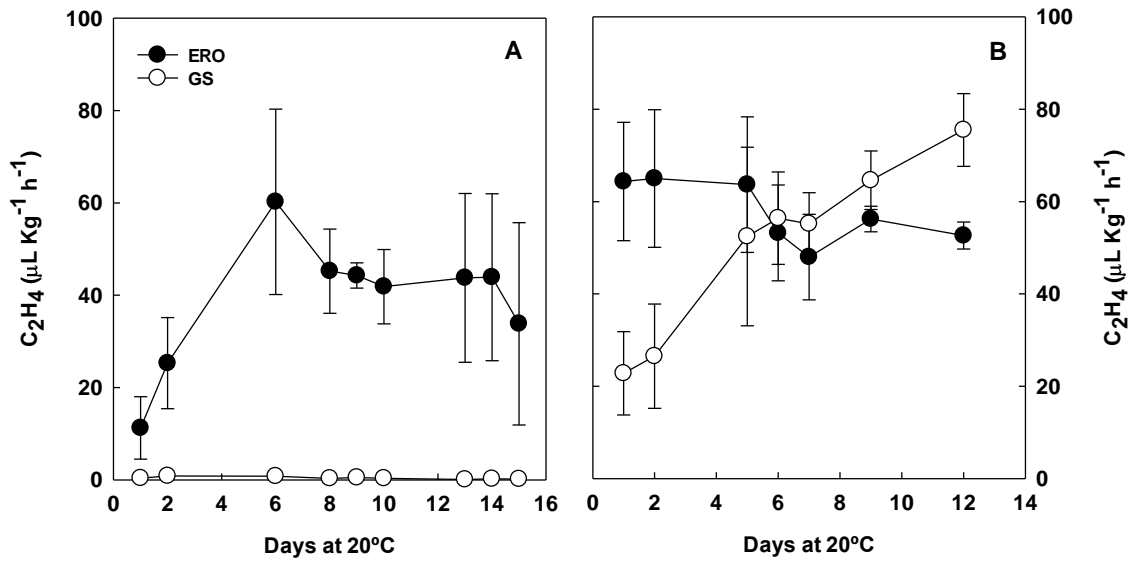
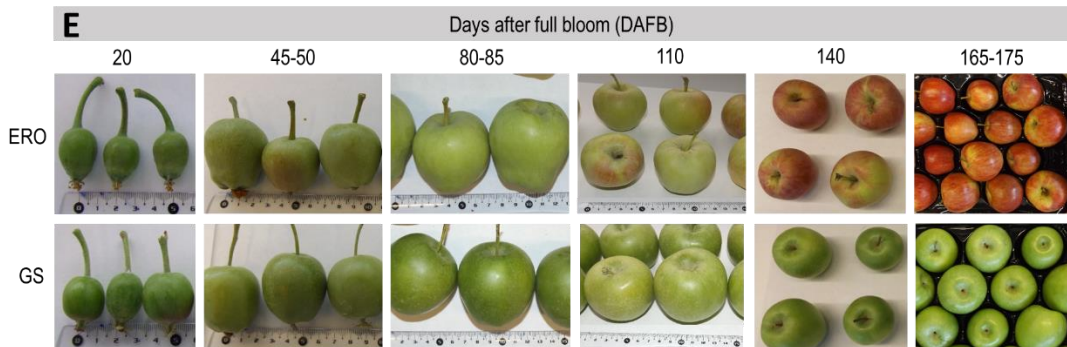
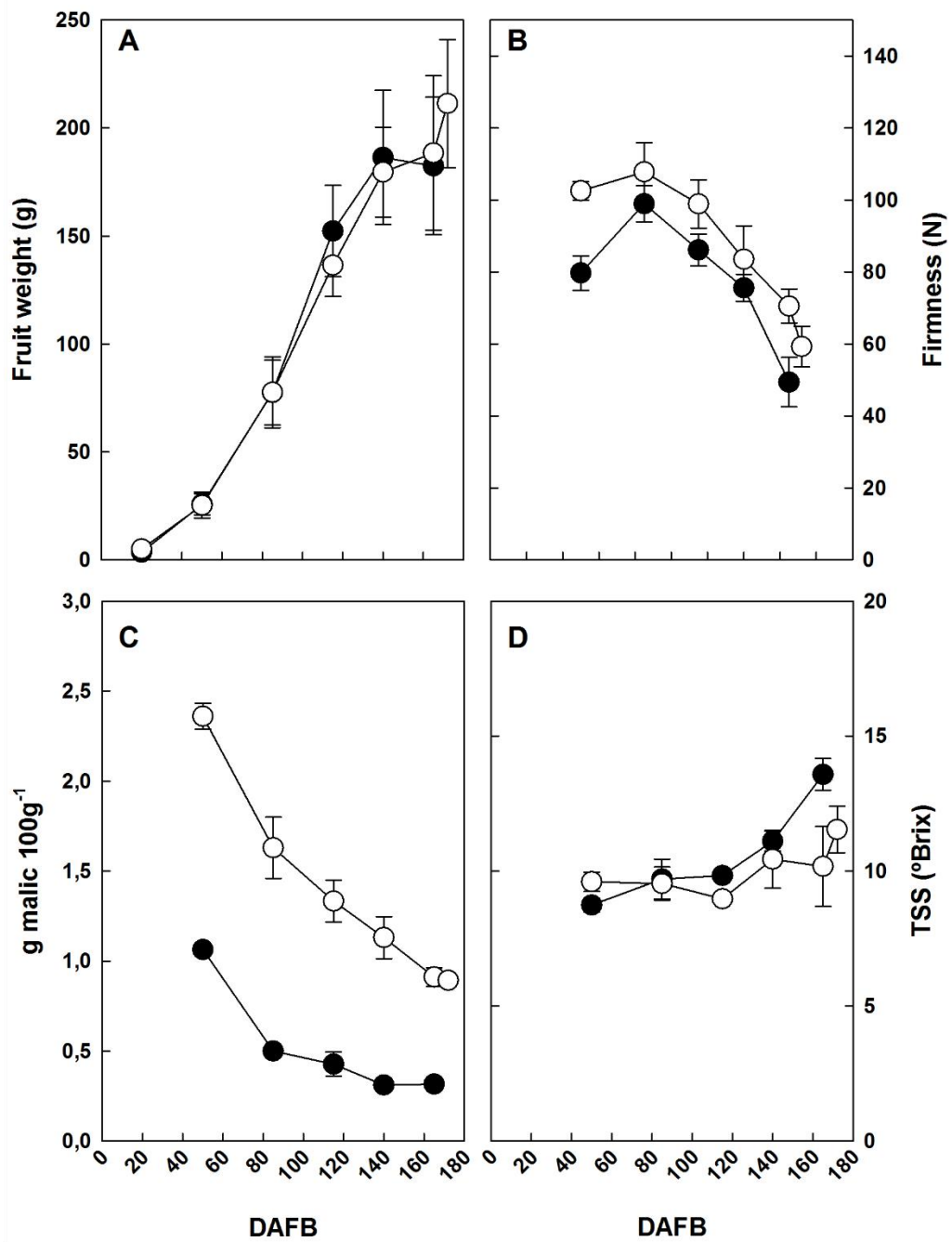


Figure 1:





**Figure 2:**



**Figure 3:**

Figure 4:

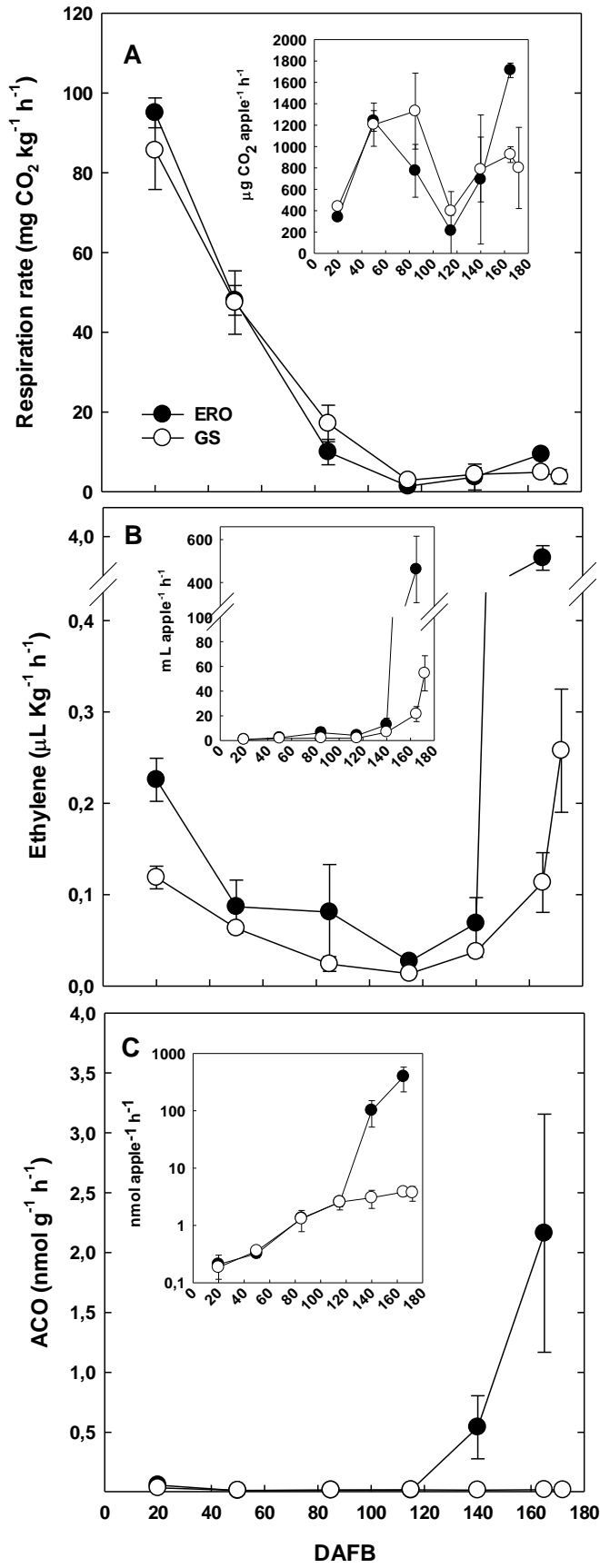
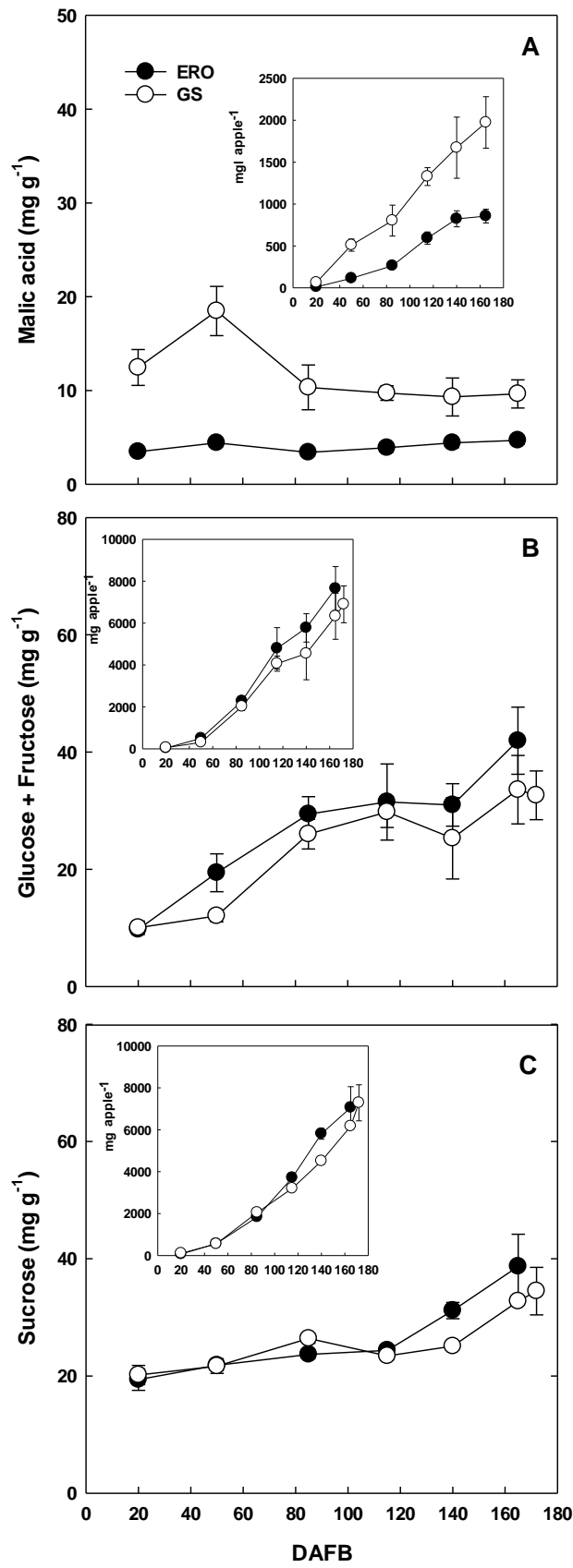


Figure 5:



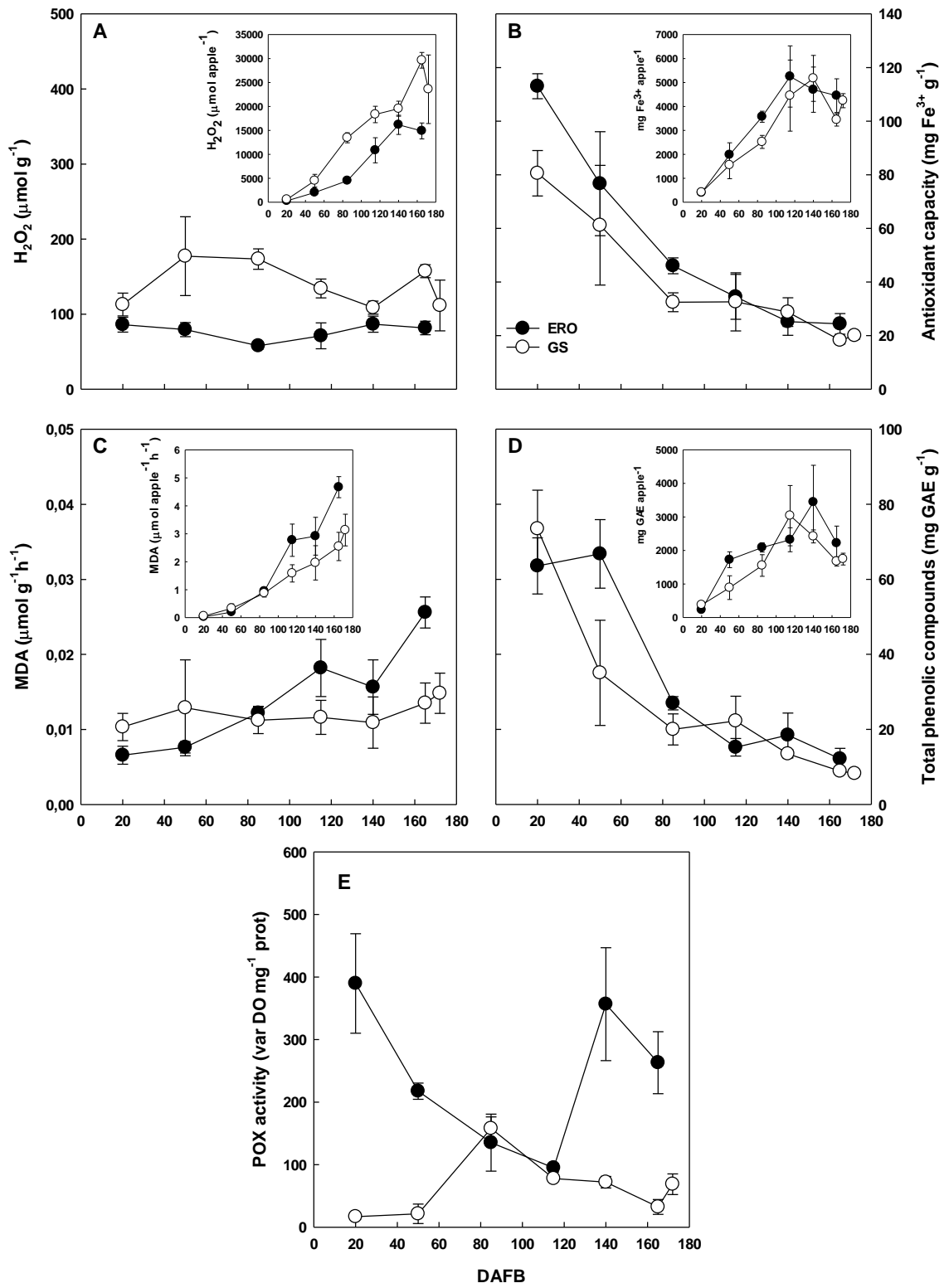
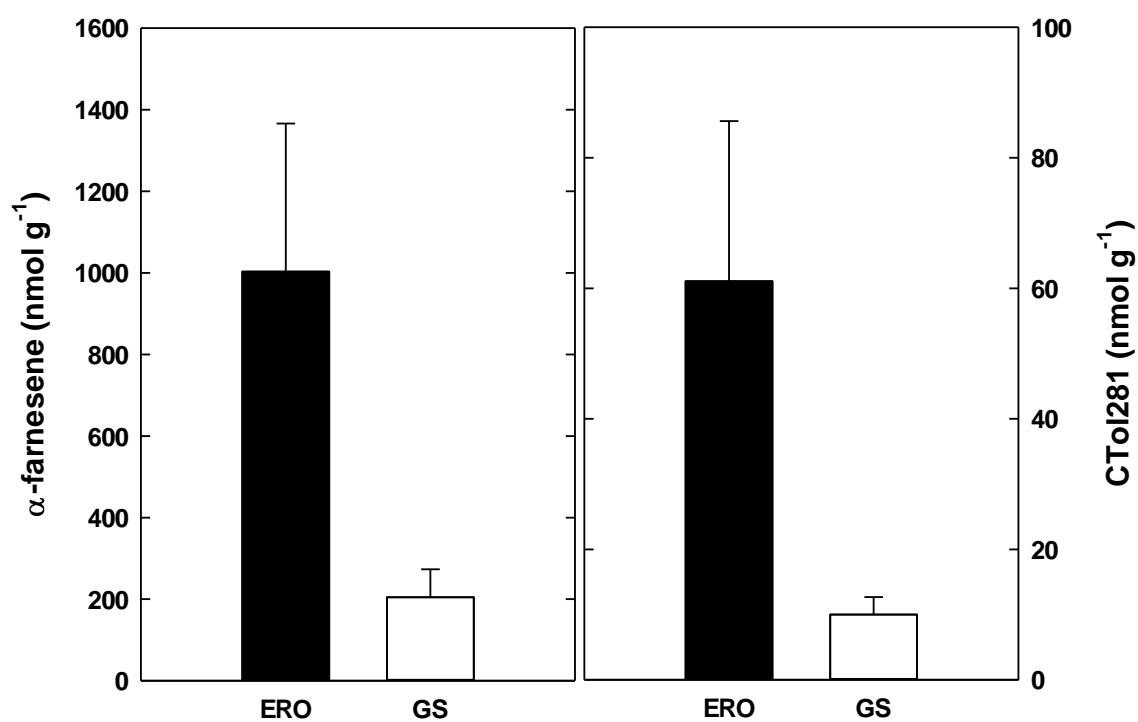
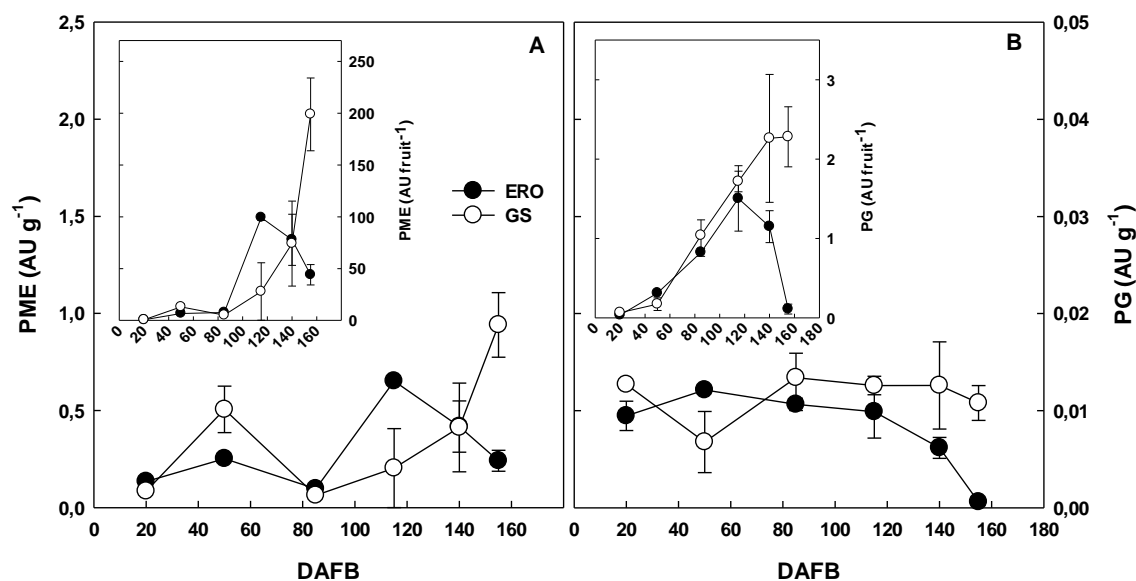


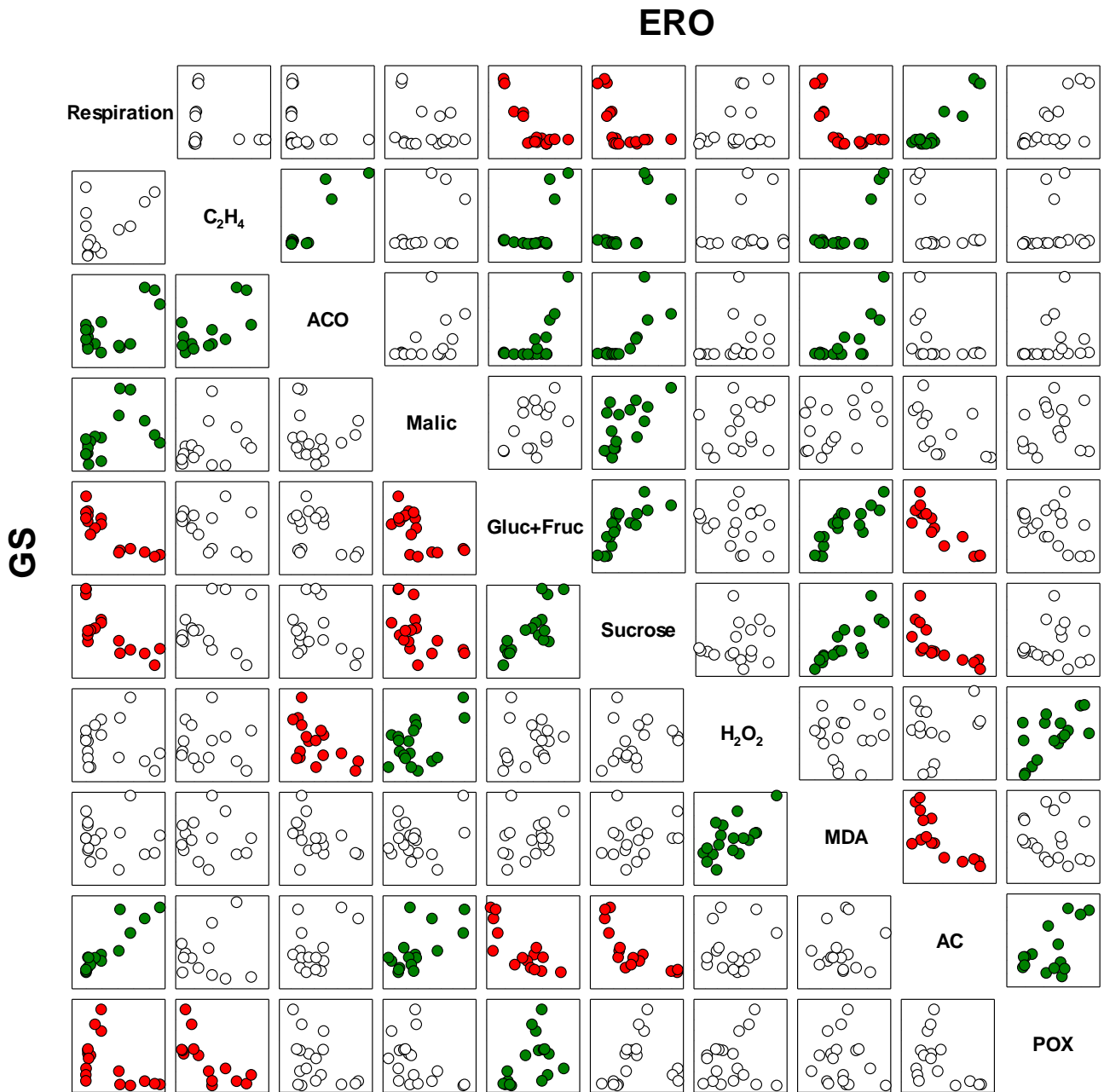
Figure 6:



**Figure S1:** Levels of  $\alpha$ -farnesene and CTol 281 in Granny Smith (GS) and Early Red One (ERO) apples at the time of harvest. Extraction and quantification of both analytes was done as described in Giné-Bordonaba et al. (2013). Error bars indicate the standard deviation for n=6.



**Figure S2:** Changes in the activity of cell wall modifying enzymes (Pectin methylesterase; PME (A) and Polygalacturonase; PG (B)) during growth and ripening of two different apple (Granny Smith (GS: ○) and Early Red One (ERO: ●)) varieties. Values represent the mean  $\pm$  stdev (n =6). Inserts in each graph depict the temporal changes of each parameter on a fruit basis.



**Figure S3:** Pearson's correlation scatter matrix for ERO (scatter plots above the diagonal)

and GS apples (scatter plots below the diagonal) for the different variables investigated.

Coloured scatter plots depict significant correlations for  $P < 0.05$