

This document is a postprint version of an article published in Scientia Horticulturae © Elsevier after peer review. To access the final edited and published work see https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scienta.2019.108824

Document downloaded from:



1 Biochemical and genetic implications of the slow ripening phenotype in peach fruit

- 2 Jordi Giné-Bordonaba^a, Iban Eduardo^b, Pere Arús^b and Celia M. Cantín*c,d,e
- 3 ^a IRTA XaRTA-Postharvest, Edifici Fruitcentre, Parc Científic i Tecnològic
- 4 Agroalimentari de Lleida, 25003, Lleida, Spain.
- ^b IRTA, Centre de Recerca en Agrigenomica CSIC-IRTA-UAB-UB, Campus UAB,
- 6 Edifici CRAG, Cerdanyola del Vallès (Bellaterra), 08193 Barcelona, Spain.
- ^c Aragon Agency for Research and Development (ARAID), E-50018, Zaragoza, Spain
- 8 d Horticulture Unit, Agrifood Research and Technology Centre of Aragon (CITA),
- 9 Aragon Government, 50059, Zaragoza, Spain.
- 10 ^e Instituto Agroalimentario de Aragón IA2 (CITA-Universidad de Zaragoza), 50013,
- 11 Zaragoza, Spain.
- *corresponding author: cmcantin@cita-aragon.es

13

14 Highlights

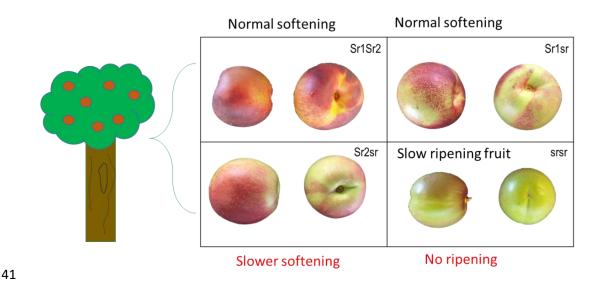
- Different allele combinations of the Sr gene influence peach ripening physiology and
- biochemistry.
- The Sr gene affects ethylene synthesis, and therefore all the ethylene-dependent
- ripening changes.
- Sr2sr hybrids showed a longer harvest window and improved postharvest behaviour
- compared to *Sr1sr* and *Sr1Sr2*.
- Selection of Sr2sr hybrids could be an efficient strategy for improved shelf life in new
- 22 peach cultivars.

23 Abstract

- The peach [*Prunus persica* L. (Batsch)] slow ripening (SR) trait is a mutation preventing
- 25 the normal fruit ripening process. It is determined by a single Mendelian gene (Sr/sr)
- located on linkage group 4, where only homozygous individuals for a recessive allele (sr)
- show the SR phenotype and are generally discarded from breeding programs. Ripening-
- 28 related traits such as fruit weight, firmness loss, ethylene production, ACO activity,
- 29 sugars and organic acids composition, malondialdehyde, antioxidant capacity and total
- 30 phenolic content were evaluated in a segregating population for the SR trait during two

consecutive harvest seasons and at different maturity stages. Although there is no commercial value for the slow ripening (srsr) individuals, our results demonstrate that a heterozygous combination involving sr and another allele at this locus (Sr2) showed interesting traits including a longer harvest window and improved postharvest behaviour if harvested at the appropriate maturity ($I_{AD} \ge 2$). All these traits seem to be linked to a delayed ripening behaviour mediated, in turn, by a lower ethylene production capacity and an altered sugar (mainly sucrose) and organic acid accumulation/utilisation on-tree. The selection of this allelic combination could be an easy and efficient strategy to obtain new peach cultivars with potentially improved shelf life.

Graphical abstract



Keywords

43 Breeding, climacteric, fruit quality, firmness, softening, texture.

Introduction

Peach is a typical climacteric fruit, with a rapid softening and short shelf life after harvest that adversely affect its market value. Fruit maturation is a complex and highly coordinated developmental process that affects colour, firmness, taste and flavour. Fruit ethylene production rate has a clear effect on the firmness loss and senescence of the fruit, and therefore in the fruit storage life (Barry and Giovannoni, 2007; Osorio et al., 2011; Giné-Bordonaba et al., 2016).

Peach fruit showing the slow ripening (SR) phenotype fail to ripen. This character was first described in some breeding populations as fruit that remained firm when mature, with a very slow rate of flesh softening, a reduced CO₂ and C₂H₄ production, poor sensory qualities and a high susceptibility to internal breakdown (Brecht et al., 1984, 1982). The same authors also reported that exogenous C₂H₄ application failed to induce ripening as normally observed in other climacteric fruit.

Some years later (Ramming, 1991; Tataranni et al., 2010), the slow-ripening trait was proposed to be controlled by a single gene (*Sr/sr*), and when the recessive *sr* allele was in homozygosis, it prevented the fruit undergoing normal ripening. More recently, the *sr* gene has been mapped on linkage group 4 (G4) and molecular markers for its selection have been developed (Eduardo et al., 2015; Meneses et al., 2016; Nuñez-Lillo et al., 2015). These markers are based on a large deletion of 26.6 kb containing two NAC transcription factors that could be the causal mutation. In fact, genes of the NAC family have been shown to be involved in the regulation of ethylene-mediated ripening in tomato (Osorio et al., 2011) and banana (Chen et al., 2012). A major gene/QTL for maturity date (Eduardo et al., 2015; Pirona et al., 2013) and a QTL for the chilling injury symptoms of fruit fresh mealiness and bleeding (Martínez-García et al., 2013) have also been identified at the *Sr* genomic region. More recently, Botton et al. (2016) proposed that the peach HEC3-like gene FLESHY may be involved in the SR phenotype, having an important

role in fruit tissue patterning at early fruit development. Information also exists on the relationship between the ripening behaviour and ethylene production of different SR (*srsr*) fruit (Brecht et al., 1982), but no other studies have ever investigated and compared the physiological and biochemical differences occurring during ripening among *Srsr* and *SrSr* genotypes.

Understanding the effect of the *sr* allele on the softening of peach in combination with the above-mentioned and available molecular marker (Eduardo et al., 2015; Meneses et al., 2016; Nuñez-Lillo et al., 2015), would offer breeders the possibility to include this character in their progenies to obtain new cultivars with potentially longer shelf life. For instance, a slower softening would allow a wider harvesting window, as well as an extended postharvest life. In addition, a better understanding on the biochemical mechanisms underlying such regulatory control of ripening would open the possibility to modify certain biochemical pathways aiming to obtain peaches with extended postharvest life.

Accordingly, the objective of this work was to deep insight the effect of each *sr* allele configuration in the peach maturation/ripening physiology. To do so, we analysed a series of traits such as fruit firmness, ethylene production, I_{AD}, weight, biochemical compounds (glucose, sucrose, malic and citric acid) and antioxidant metabolism related molecules (malondialdehyde, antioxidant capacity, and total phenolic content) along ripening in a SR segregating population for two consecutive harvest seasons.

Material and Methods

Plant material

A segregating F1 progeny (BbxNl) from the cross between the white peach cultivar 'Belbinette' (Bb) and the yellow nectarine 'Nectalady' (Nl) was used in this study. Trees were planted in the fields at the IRTA Experimental Station in Gimenells (Lleida, Spain) initially on their own roots (2007) and later (2008) grafted on 'Cadaman' rootstock.

For fruit phenotyping, including physiological and biochemical measurements, a subset of 25 individuals plus the parents was selected. Available information about the allelic composition of the parents Belbinette (Sr2sr) and Nectalady (Sr1sr) and offspring from this population (Eduardo et al., 2015; Meneses et al., 2016), was used to select the subset of individuals analyzed. The difference between Sr1 and Sr2 could be established by Eduardo et al. (2015) as they were associated with an ~10-day interval in maturity dates of the parents, earlier for Sr1 and later for Sr2. The selection in the progeny was made in order to have represented all the genotypic classes, and the most variability of maturity dates within each class:

- Slow ripening individuals (*srsr*, N=3)
- Individuals heterozygous for the sr allele: (Sr1sr, N=7) and (Sr2sr, N=7)
- Individuals not carrying the *sr* allele (*Sr1Sr2*, N=8)

- Fruit growth
 - On-tree fruit growth (size) and non-destructive evaluation of the fruit maturity stage (DA-value) both from the parents and two hybrids from each allelic class (srsr, Sr1sr, Sr2sr and Sr1Sr2) was periodically monitored (every 7-10 days) from fruit set to harvest on 10 fruit randomly selected. Fruit size was measured with a digital calliper, as the distance between the suture and the opposite side at the equatorial zone. DA-values, also known as the index of Absorbance difference (I_{AD}), were measured with a commercial equipment

(DA-Meter, TR Turoni, Forli, Italy), which measures non-destructively Vis-spectroscopy according to the I_{AD} index (index of absorbance difference = A670–A720) (Ziosi et al., 2008).

122

123

124

125

126

127

128

129

130

131

132

133

134

135

136

137

138

139

140

141

142

119

120

121

Fruit ripening and ethylene measurements

Forty fruit were harvested from each tree at 3 different maturity stages based on fruit firmness (60-80N (M1), 40-60N (M2), <30N (M3)), I_{AD} values and historical data on their ripening pattern. In the case of sr fruit (srsr), firmness did never reach values <30N, and therefore fruit were harvested at different maturity stages based exclusively in days after full bloom (DAFB). Upon each harvest, fruit were immediately transported to the lab for quality measurements (t0). Fruit was individually weighted in a digital scale. Then, I_{AD} values and firmness were measured on both sides of each fruit using 8 fruits/tree/harvest (total of individuals = 25). I_{AD} values were measured as described above whereas flesh firmness was measured with a digital penetrometer (Model. 53205; Turoni, Forlí, Italy) equipped with an 8-mm diameter plunger tip after the removal of a 1 mm thick slice of skin. Full bloom date for each tree was recorded to calculate days after full bloom (DAFB) at the moment of harvest. In the selected individuals harvest window ranged from early August to mid September. Ethylene production and firmness were evaluated the same day of harvest (t0) and after 1, 3 and 6 days after harvest (t1, t3, t6). Firmness at t1, t3 and t6 was measured as described for t0 using 8 fruits/tree/harvest. Remaining fruit were stored at 20°C (70% RH) for the following evaluation times. Ethylene production (uL kg⁻¹h⁻¹) was measured in an acclimatized chamber at 20°C. The fruit (2 or 3 fruit per replicate, and at least 3 replicates per tree and harvest) were placed in airtight 1.5 L flasks. After 2 h incubation, gas samples

(1 mL) were taken from the headspace of the flasks, using a 1 mL syringe, and injected into a gas chromatograph (GC; Agilent Technologies 6890, Wilmington, Germany) fitted with a FID detector and an alumina column F1 80/100 (2 m × 1/8 × 2.1, Tecknokroma, Barcelona, Spain) following the methodology described elsewhere (Giné-Bordonaba et al., 2017). Samples were taken again from the headspace of the flasks following the same methodology at t1, t3 and t6.

The fruit flesh from each sample (8 fruits/tree) at each maturity stage (M1, M2 and M3) was frozen at the time of harvest and stored at -80°C until being used for biochemical

Biochemical measurements

measurements.

The enzyme 1-Aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylic acid oxidase (ACO) was extracted as described by Lindo-Garcia et al. (2019) with some modifications. The sample (0.5 g of frozen tissue) was homogenized in 1 mL of buffer containing 400 mM MOPS at pH 7.2, 10% glycerol, 30 mM ascorbic acid sodium salt and PVP 40000 2%. The homogenized was slightly shaken for 10 min at 1°C and centrifuged at 17,000 x g for 30 min at 4°C. Subsequently, the supernatant was stored at -80°C until analysis of the enzyme activity using the methodology described by Giné-Bordonaba et al. (2017). Sugars (glucose and sucrose) and organic acids (citric and malic acid) were extracted from frozen tissue as described by Giné-Bordonaba et al. (2019) with some modifications. For sugars determination, 2 g of sample were diluted in 5 mL of 62.5% (v/v) aqueous methanol solvent and placed in a thermostatic bath at 55°C for 15 min, mixing the solution with a vortex every 5 min to prevent layering. Then, the samples were centrifuged at 24,000 x g for 15 min at 20 °C. The supernatants of each sample were recovered and used for enzyme coupled spectrophotometric determination of glucose (hexokinase) and sucrose (β-

fructosidase) using commercial kits (BioSystems S.A., Barcelona, Spain) and following the manufacturer instructions.

Citric and malic acid were extracted by dissolving 2 g of frozen tissue in 5 mL of distillate

centrifuged at 24,000 x g for 7 min at 20°C. The resulting supernatant was recovered and used to determine the concentration of citric (citrate lyase/malate dehydrogenase) and

water. The solution was slightly shaken for 10 min at room temperature and then

malic acid (malate dehydrogenase) using commercial kits (BioSystems S.A., Barcelona,

Spain) and following the manufacturer instructions.

Statistical analysis

All data were subjected to analysis of variance (ANOVA) using JMP® 13.1.0 SAS Institute Inc. Mean comparisons for the interaction genotype * maturity was evaluated using HSD test at a significance level of $p \le 0.05$, while comparisons for specific traits between genotypes along storage time or days after full bloom was done by least significant difference values (LSD; $p \le 0.05$) using critical values of t for two-tailed tests. Correlations between experimental variables were made using Spearman's Rank Correlations and, if required, presented as Spearman's Correlation Coefficient (r) and P value based on a two-tailed test.

Results

187 Fruit maturation

As described above, the different maturity stages (M1, M2 and M3) were selected based on both firmness and I_{AD} values and generally comprised fruit harvested from 140 to 188 DAFB yet depending on the genotypic class (Table 1). The fruit weight of all the genetic classes increased progressively in the tree during maturation (Fig. 2). However, fruit weight of the SR individuals (sr/sr) individuals increased very little, reaching very low

weights if compared to the other individuals. In all genotypes, the increase in fruit size seemed to be intimately regulated by the fruit maturity since the increase in fruit size was negatively correlated ($R^2 > 0.85$; Figure 8) to the loss of fruit firmness and the I_{AD} value. The I_{AD}, which indicates the degree of chlorophyll degradation in the fruit, showed a progressive decrease at different maturities for the genetic classes Sr1Sr2, Sr1sr and Sr2sr (Table 1). In the slow ripening fruit (sr/sr), the I_{AD} failed, as expected, to decrease indicating that the chlorophyll levels remained very high and it was not degraded as it occurs in a normal ripening process. Based on the I_{AD} values, the selected maturity classes (M1, M2 and M3) were comparable among the different genotypic classes except for SR individuals that besides not growing (Table 1) did not show a substantial chlorophyll degradation on-tree. Indeed, fruit growth was similar for all the genetic classes from fruit set to approximately 135 days after full bloom (DAFB) (Fig. 3). However, after approximately 145 DAFB the fruit growth of the SR (sr/sr) individuals started to slow down if compared to the rest of individuals, reaching smaller sizes at the end of the fruit development (ca. 190 DAFB). Similarly, the degradation of chlorophyll (I_{AD}) in the SR individuals started to slow down at around 155 DAFB compared to the rest of individuals. It can be also observed that the genetic classes with one copy of the sr allele (Sr1sr and Sr2sr) had a slower degradation of chlorophyll at these last stages of the fruit ripening than the rest of the non-slow

213 Firmness loss and ethylene production

ripening (Sr1Sr2) individuals.

193

194

195

196

197

198

199

200

201

202

203

204

205

206

207

208

209

210

211

212

214

215

216

The flesh firmness of the fruit from genetic class *Sr1Sr2* rapidly began to decrease after 1 day of shelf life (Fig. 4), regardless the initial fruit firmness at harvest (M1, M2 and M3). On the other side, and as expected, the SR genotypes (*sr/sr*) failed to soften during

the shelf life period (6d), and their firmness remained over 60N. The hybrids Sr1sr and Sr2sr showed a different behaviour to the former genetic classes, showing mixed results depending on the fruit maturity at harvest. In detail, these genotypes soften rapidly if harvested at firmness ≤ 60N yet the loss of firmness was prevented if the fruit were harvested at less mature ripening stages (firmness > 60N; $I_{AD} \ge 2$). In the case of the Sr2srindividuals, fruit firmness decreased slightly after one day of shelf life (generally referred as softening), but then it remained stable after 3 days of shelf life (non-melting phase) contrasting with SrIsr individuals, where it kept decreasing and hence experienced both softening and melting. Differences on the on-tree flesh firmness reached by the individuals from the four genetic classes were very clear after 190 DAFB (Fig. 4). As expected, slow ripening individuals (srsr) showed the highest firmness, individuals without the sr allele (Sr1Sr2) showed the lowest, whereas the heterozygous classes (Sr1sr and Sr2sr) showed intermediate values. Fruit from Sr1Sr2 and Sr1sr individuals showed the highest and similar firmness loss (FL) rates (-0.95 and -1.05 N/day, respectively), whereas Sr2sr showed a similar FL rates than sr/sr individuals (-0.76 and -0.62 N/day, respectively). We observed clear differences in the ethylene production rates among the four genetic classes in the BbxNl population (Fig. 5). Ethylene production at harvest for M1 was negligible for all the individuals, independently of their genetic class. However, significant differences were observed in the fruit after some days of shelf life at 20°C. No detectable or negligible levels were found for srsr and Sr2sr individuals during shelf life, whereas fruit from Sr1Sr2 trees produced large amounts of ethylene after 12 days of shelf life at 20°C. Fruit from Sr1sr individuals started to produce some ethylene after 13 days of shelf life. The fruit from Sr2sr individuals did not produce any ethylene during shelf life when harvested at flesh firmness of 60N. However, they were able to produce

217

218

219

220

221

222

223

224

225

226

227

228

229

230

231

232

233

234

235

236

237

238

239

240

ethylene during shelf life when harvested in a more advanced maturity stage (M3, flesh firmness <30N) (results not shown). On the other side, the slow ripening fruit (*sr/sr*) did not produce ethylene during shelf life for any of the three maturity stages investigated herein.

ACC oxidase activity

Similarly to what happened for ethylene production, no ACC oxidase (ACO) activity was observed at harvest for any of the genetic classes when harvested at M1 (Fig. 6). Significant differences were observed at more advanced maturity stages (M2 and M3). At M2, ACO activity was detected in fruit from *Sr1sr* and *Sr1Sr2* individuals, whereas it was almost no detectable for *Sr2sr* and *srsr* individuals. The ACO activity was negligible for any of the maturity stages in the fruit from the SR individuals (*sr/sr*). However, in the case of the *Sr2sr* individuals, the ACO activity significantly increased in the more mature fruit (M3), although reaching much lower levels than *Sr1Sr2* and *Sr1sr* classes at similar maturity stages.

Sugars and organic acids

The pattern of sucrose accumulation in the fruit was significantly different among different genetic classes (Table 1). In general, sucrose increased as fruit ripened on the tree. However, accumulation in fruit from Sr2sr and sr/sr individuals was slower, reaching much lower levels than the rest of fruit, especially in the slow ripening individuals (sr/sr). In contrast, glucose levels decreased throughout maturation in all the genetic classes, except in the sr/sr individuals where it slightly increased (Table 1).

Malic acid increased during maturation on the tree for the four genetic classes (Table 1).

Thus said, final malate content was significantly lower in the *sr/sr* and *Sr2sr* genotypes.

Contrary, citric acid decreased over on-tree maturation in all cases. In this case, Sr2sr and

sr/sr genotypes showed a slower rate of citric acid catabolism, whereas *Sr1Sr2* and *Sr1sr* genotypes showed a rapid drop in the concentration of this acid in the first stages of maturation.

Discussion

270

271

272

273

274

275

276

277

278

279

280

281

282

283

284

285

286

287

288

289

290

269

266

267

268

Peach ripening involves dramatic changes in the colour, firmness, texture, aroma, sugars and organic acids composition. As for other climacteric fruit, these changes are triggered by rapid changes in the rate of C₂H₄ production (Tonutti et al., 1991; Alexander, 2002; Baró-Muntel et al., unpublished). However, SR peach fruit show a failure to ripen and hence do not undergo such dramatic changes (Brecht et al., 1984; Ramming, 1991). This behaviour may be caused by the inability to synthesize ethylene as in anti-sense tomato (Picton, 1993) and melon mutants (Ayub et al., 1996), or due to problems in the ethylene perception as in the Nr tomato mutant (Wilkinson et al., 1995). Non-climacteric phenotypes may be also due to alterations upstream the ripening cascade as in rin, nor and Cnr tomato mutants (Giovannoni, 2001). SR fruit do not respond to exogenous ethylene treatment, as it occurs with Nr tomato and PI 161375 melon mutants (Wilkinson et al., 1995; Périn et al., 2002), which demonstrates that SR mutation blocks not only ethylene synthesis but also ethylene perception (Supplementary Fig. 1). In this study, the effect of some alleles of the Sr gene in the ripening physiology and biochemistry as well as in the fruit postharvest behaviour, even when present in heterozygosis, have been investigated. Whereas Sr1Sr2 and Sr1sr allelic combinations resulted in fruit undergoing a normal ripening process, both on- and off-tree, we observed changes in several ripening related parameters in offspring with the Sr2sr genotype. Individuals carrying the sr allele as Sr1sr, Sr2sr and srsr produced little or no ethylene when harvested at $I_{AD} \ge 2$. The results observed at the firmness loss and ethylene production rate in the individuals carrying the sr allele, and especially in Sr2sr individuals, indicate changes at the biochemical or physiological level resulting in inhibition of normal ripening. Such differences at the fruit ethylene production capacity were not explained by ACO activity since all individuals at M1 (when most of the differences on the postharvest ripening occurred among individuals) showed minimal enzyme activity (Fig. 6). Thus said, our results clearly indicate that the Sr gene undoubtedly affected ethylene synthesis (Fig. 5 and 6), and therefore altered all the ethylene-dependent ripening changes. Such results are in agreement with Brecht et al. (1984) who reported that SR fruit harvested and stored at 20°C, showed delayed and reduced climacteric peaks of respiration and ethylene production if compared to non-SR 'Fantasia' fruit. As reported by other authors (Botton et al., 2016), SR fruit maintained typical immaturity traits throughout development. However, these authors suggested a disturbance at the level of fruit patterning as the cause for SR phenotype. Previous work by Eduardo et al., (2015) mapped the sr gene in the same region of linkage group 4 (G4), where a NAC transcription factor candidate gene (ppa008301m) is located. This gene has been proposed as a candidate gene for the maturity date (MD) trait (Pirona et al., 2013). Genes from the NAC family have been shown to be involved in the regulation of ethylene mediated ripening in tomato (Osorio et al., 2011) and banana (Shan et al., 2014, 2012). Rapid softening occurring at late ripening stages of peach requires significant levels of ethylene (Hayama et al., 2006, 2003), and therefore decreases in the ethylene production rates as observed in Sr2sr fruit had a direct effect on the fruit softening rate. Recently, several candidate genes for MD and mealiness (M) traits have been identified in the same region of G4 (Nuñez-Lillo et al., 2015), which would explain the high susceptibility to internal breakdown found in the SR fruit. Accordingly, Giné-

291

292

293

294

295

296

297

298

299

300

301

302

303

304

305

306

307

308

309

310

311

312

313

Bordonaba et al. (2016) also reported that a greater capacity of the fruit to produce 315 ethylene after cold storage was associated to lower mealiness incidence in peach fruit. 316 317 Fruit from srsr individuals failed to develop normal ripening traits such as fruit size, color, 318 aroma and flavour. Whether other loci are also responsible for the altered fruit weight in 319 SR individuals is still unknown, what is clear is that the SR locus clearly altered this fruit 320 attribute. In the peach ripening model (Lü et al., 2018), ethylene-activated NAC 321 transcription factor binds to the promoter of key fruit ripening genes such as those 322 involved in pigment accumulation, volatile secondary metabolite production, cell wall softening and sugar accumulation. Therefore, the srsr allelic combination in the SR fruit 323 324 would disrupt the activation cascade triggered by the NAC transcription factor in some way. Both the peach and melon NAC loci are located in quantitative trait loci that are 325 associated with late ripening phenotypes (Perin, 2002; Pirona et al., 2013). However, we 326 could not discard the contribution of other transcription factors or regulatory mechanisms 327 328 such as post-translational regulations in the ripening inhibition in the SR fruit. Indeed, 329 Sr2sr fruit, contrary to what occurs in sr/sr fruit, developed normal fruit size, normal fruit colour, aroma and flavour, which would demonstrate a normal function of the 330 transcriptional ripening feedback circuit, although with certain delay likely attributed to 331 332 a blockage of the auxin-ethylene hormonal crosstalk (Botton et al., 2016). This delay 333 could be an interesting trait in a new peach cultivar since it would extend the shelf life of 334 the fruit and the harvest window as detailed herein (Figure 3). 335 Ethylene is synthesized from S-adenosyl-Lmethionine (SAM) via the intermediate 1aminocyclopropane-1-carboxylic acid (ACC). The conversion of SAM to ACC is 336 337 catalysed by ACC synthase, and the subsequent oxidation of ACC to ethylene is catalysed by ACC oxidase (ACO) (Ververidis and John, 1991; Yang and Hoffman, 1984). The 338 direct effect of ethylene production in ACO activity has been proven previously by the 339

strong depression of ACO expression by the treatment with 1-MCP, and its induction by ethephon (Zhang et al., 2012). It has been demonstrated that ACO is one of the proteins with the largest change in relative abundance during the fruit transition from the preclimacteric ("unripe") to the climacteric ("ripe") phase (Prinsi et al., 2011). The small increase of ACO in the Sr2sr genotypes observed in this work demonstrated an altered pattern of ripening, althoug those individuals did not show the SR phenotype. In the peach ripening model (Lü et al., 2018), ethylene transcription factor EIN3 activates the NAC transcription factor, which binds to the ACO and ACS promoters to activate the ethylene synthesis. Therefore, the lower ACO activity observed in the Sr2sr individuals could also explain their lower ethylene levels. The same effect of a delayed ripening due to a reduction in the ethylene production has been reported by the expression of the tomato ACO in the antisense orientation in transgenic plants (Ayub et al., 1996; Hamilton et al., 1990). RNA gel blot analyses in normal ripening fruit demonstrated that ACO transcripts greatly increased at late stages of fruit development (Callahan et al., 2004). Glucose and sucrose contents observed in the NlxBb progeny are similar to those reported in the flesh of other peach cultivars (Moing et al., 1998; Genard et al., 1999; Famiani et al., 2016; Baró-Montel et al., unpublished). As observed in our work, glucose content has been reported to decrease during peach ripening as a result, among others, of the large increase in the fruit volume and therefore, the dilution of the glucose content within the fruit (Famiani et al., 2016). The larger increase in the glucose concentration observed in the slow ripening individuals (*sr/sr*; Table 1) through ripening could be explained by the scarce increase in flesh volume as well as by the lower utilization of sugars as respiratory substrates since ethylene production and respiration are largely depleted in these individuals. In certain fruit species, evidence suggests that sucrose accumulation is linked to the initiation of the ripening process on-tree (i.e. pears; Lindo-García et al., 2019). The

340

341

342

343

344

345

346

347

348

349

350

351

352

353

354

355

356

357

358

359

360

361

362

363

lower sucrose content and accumulation during on-tree ripening for sr/sr or Sr2sr 365 366 individuals agrees with the results from Botton et al. (2016) and further suggests a putative role of this compound on triggering on-tree ripening also for peach fruit. 367 368 Malate together with citrate accounts for a large proportion of the organic acid content of 369 peach flesh (Chapman and Horvat, 1990; Byrne et al., 1991; Moing et al., 1998; Baró-370 Montel et al., unpublished). As reported for other peach cultivars (Chapman and Horvat, 371 1990; Byrne et al., 1991; Moing et al., 1998; Famiani et al., 2016; Baró-Muntel et al., 372 unpublished), the concentration of malate in the NlxBb population increased throughout ripening, whereas, that of citrate decreased. On the other hand, while sugars can be 373 374 synthesized both in fruit and leaves, acids are exclusively synthesized in leaves and then translocated to sink (fruit). Alterations not only at the ethylene level but also in the 375 translocation pathways of these compounds, likely mediated by auxins (Daie et al., 1986) 376 may explain the lower levels of malic acid in sr/sr and Sr2sr individuals' fruit. 377 378 Accordingly, our results also support previous findings from Famiani et al. (2016) who 379 pointed out that malate and citrate account only for negligible amounts of the respiratory 380 substrates during peach ripening since no association was found between these compounds and the fruit respiration pattern throughout on-tree ripening (data not shown). 381 Some other authors have reported an anomalous accumulation pattern of phenolic 382 383 compounds at the flesh of SR fruit, more typical of lignifying endocarp (Masia et al., 1992). Our results do not support such findings and rather reveal that the fruit antioxidant 384 385 capacity was similar among individuals. Although there is not commercial value for the slow ripening (*sr/sr*) individuals, the *Sr2sr* hybrids could be interesting due to their longer 386 387 shelf life and slower rate of firmness loss. Postharvest losses are not only a current 388 problem in developing countries but also in modern supply chains. Therefore, extending shelf life of peach fruit without compromising flavour and texture quality attributes is a 389

desired feature in peach industry and could be accomplished by the selection of *Sr2sr* allelic combination. Selection of this allelic combination through the already available molecular markers (Meneses et al., 2016) could be an easy and efficient strategy to obtain new peach cultivars with potentially improved shelf life. However, our results should be confirmed in other populations with a different genetic background.

The presence of SR phenotypes in the progenies of commercial breeding programs is frequent. Based on the data of Meneses et al. (2016) on a sample of 27 peach cultivars we estimated that the frequency of the sr allele is 0.33. While this is probably an overestimation of its real value because the sample of cultivars chosen included some known to carry sr in heterozygosis, this indicates that the presence of this allele in the peach elite breeding pool is very high, particularly considering that SR individuals are systematically selected against. This scenario was already pointed out by Eduardo et al. (2015) that proposed that the favourable selection of certain heterozygous combinations of sr with other alleles at this locus could counteract the directional selection against sr, leading to the maintenance of this allele at intermediate frequencies.

Acknowledgements

The financial support from the CERCA programme (Generalitat de Catalunya) and from the Spanish Ministry of Economy and Competitiveness (MINECO/FEDER projects AGL2015-68329-R and RTA2015-00050-00-00, Severo Ochoa Program for Centres of Excellence in R&D 201-2019 SEV-2015-0533) is gratefully acknowledged. Thanks are also given to Kaja Jensterle, Christian Fontich, Elisabet Duaigües and Dolors Ubach for their technical assistance.

References

- 413 Alexander, L., 2002. Ethylene biosynthesis and action in tomato: a model for climacteric
- 414 fruit ripening. J. Exp. Bot. 53 (377), 2039–2055. https://doi.org/10.1093/jxb/erf072

- 415 Ayub, R., Guis, M., Amor, M. Ben, Gillot, L., Roustan, J.P., Latché, A., Bouzayen, M.,
- 416 Pech, J.C., 1996. Expression of Selection of this allelic combination through the already
- 417 available molecular markers acc oxidase antisense gene inhibits ripening of cantaloupe
- 418 melon fruits. Nat. Biotechnol. 14, 862-866. https://doi.org/10.1038/nbt0796-862
- Barry, C.S., Giovannoni, J.J., 2007. Ethylene and Fruit Ripening. J. Plant Growth Regul.
- 420 26, 143–159. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00344-007-9002-y
- Botton, A., Rasori, A., Ziliotto, F., Moing, A., Maucourt, M., Bernillon, S., Deborde, C.,
- Petterle, A., Varotto, S., Bonghi, C., 2016. The peach HECATE3-like gene FLESHY
- 423 plays a double role during fruit development. Plant Mol. Biol. 91, 97-114.
- 424 https://doi.org/10.1007/s11103-016-0445-z
- Brecht, J., Kader, A., Ramming, C., 1982. Postharvest physiology of non-ripening
- 426 nectarine selections. HortScience 17, 490.
- Brecht, J., Kader, A., Ramming, D., 1984. Description and postharvest physiology of
- some slow-ripening nectarine genotypes. J. Amer. Soc. Hort. Sci 109, 596–600.
- 429 Callahan, A.M., Scorza, R., Bassett, C., Nickerson, M., Abeles, F.B., 2004. Deletions in
- an endopolygalacturonase gene cluster correlate with non-melting flesh texture in peach.
- 431 Funct. Plant Biol. 31, 159–168. https://doi.org/10.1071/FP03131
- Chen, J., Chen, J. ye, Wang, J. ning, Kuang, J. fei, Shan, W., Lu, W. jin, 2012. Molecular
- characterization and expression profiles of MaCOL1, a CONSTANS-like gene in banana
- 434 fruit. Gene 496 (2), 110-117. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gene.2012.01.008
- Daie, J., Watts, M., Aloni, B., Wyse, R.E., 1986. In vitro and in vivo modification of
- sugar transport and translocation in celery by phytohormones. Plant Sci. 46 (1), 35-41.
- 437 https://doi.org/10.1016/0168-9452(86)90129-9
- Eduardo, I., Picañol, R., Rojas, E., Batlle, I., Howad, W., Aranzana, M.J., Arús, P., 2015.
- Mapping of a major gene for the slow ripening character in peach: co-location with the
- 440 maturity date gene and development of a candidate gene-based diagnostic marker for its
- selection. Euphytica 205, 627–636. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10681-015-1445-9
- 442 Giné-Bordonaba, J., Cantín, C.M., Echeverría, G., Ubach, D., Larrigaudière, C., 2016.
- The effect of chilling injury-inducing storage conditions on quality and consumer
- acceptance of different Prunus persica cultivars. Postharvest Biol. Technol. 115, 38–47.
- 445 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.postharvbio.2015.12.006
- 446 Giné-Bordonaba, J., Echeverria, G., Ubach, D., Aguiló-Aguayo, I., López, M.L.,
- Larrigaudière, C., 2017. Biochemical and physiological changes during fruit development
- and ripening of two sweet cherry varieties with different levels of cracking tolerance.
- 449 Plant Physiol. Biochem. 111, 216-225. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.plaphy.2016.12.002
- 450 Hamilton, A.J., Lycett, G.W., Grierson, D., 1990. Antisense gene that inhibits synthesis
- 451 of the hormone ethylene in transgenic plants. Nature 346, 284–287.
- 452 https://doi.org/10.1038/346284a0

- Hayama, H., Ito, A., Moriguchi, T., Kashimura, Y., 2003. Identification of a new expansin
- gene closely associated with peach fruit softening. Postharvest Biol. Technol. 29(1):1-10.
- 455 https://doi.org/10.1016/S0925-5214(02)00216-8
- Hayama, H., Tatsuki, M., Ito, A., Kashimura, Y., 2006. Ethylene and fruit softening in
- 457 the stony hard mutation in peach. Postharvest Biol. Technol. 41, 16–21.
- 458 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.postharvbio.2006.03.006
- 459 Lü, P., Yu, S., Zhu, N., Chen, Y.R., Zhou, B., Pan, Y., Tzeng, D., Fabi, J.P., Argyris, J.,
- 460 Garcia-Mas, J., Ye, N., Zhang, J., Grierson, D., Xiang, J., Fei, Z., Giovannoni, J., Zhong,
- S., 2018. Genome encode analyses reveal the basis of convergent evolution of fleshy fruit
- 462 ripening. Nat. Plants. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41477-018-0249-z
- 463 Martínez-García, P.J., Parfitt, D.E., Bostock, R.M., Fresnedo-Ramírez, J., Vazquez-
- Lobo, A., Ogundiwin, E.A., Gradziel, T.M., Crisosto, C.H., 2013. Application of genomic
- and quantitative genetic tools to identify candidate resistance genes for brown rot
- resistance in peach. PLoS One 8. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0078634
- 467 Masia, A., Zanchin, A., Rascio, N., Ramina, A., 1992. Some Biochemical and
- 468 Ultrastructural Aspects of Peach Fruit Development. J. Am. Soc. Hortic. Sci. 117: 808–
- 469 815.
- 470 Meneses, C., Ulloa-Zepeda, L., Cifuentes-Esquivel, A., Infante, R., Cantin, C.M., Batlle,
- I., Arús, P., Eduardo, I., 2016. A codominant diagnostic marker for the slow ripening trait
- in peach. Mol. Breed. 36. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11032-016-0506-7
- Nuñez-Lillo, G., Cifuentes-Esquivel, A., Troggio, M., Micheletti, D., Infante, R.,
- 474 Campos-Vargas, R., Orellana, A., Blanco-Herrera, F., Meneses, C., Blanco-Herrera
- 475 mblanco, F., 2015. Identification of candidate genes associated with mealiness and
- 476 maturity date in peach [Prunus persica (L.) Batsch] using QTL analysis and deep
- 477 sequencing. Tree Genet. Genomes 11, 86. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11295-015-0911-9
- 478 Osorio, S., Alba, R., Damasceno, C.M.B., Lopez-Casado, G., Lohse, M., Zanor, M.I.,
- Tohge, T., Usadel, B., Rose, J.K.C., Fei, Z., Giovannoni, J.J., Fernie, A.R., 2011. Systems
- 480 Biology of Tomato Fruit Development: Combined Transcript, Protein, and Metabolite
- 481 Analysis of Tomato Transcription Factor (nor, rin) and Ethylene Receptor (Nr) Mutants
- 482 Reveals Novel Regulatory Interactions. Plant Physiol. 157(1):405-25.
- 483 https://doi.org/10.1104/pp.111.175463
- 484 Perin, C., 2002. Molecular and Genetic Characterization of a Non-Climacteric Phenotype
- in Melon Reveals Two Loci Conferring Altered Ethylene Response in Fruit. Plant
- 486 Physiol. 129(1): 300–309. https://doi.org/10.1104/pp.010613
- 487 Pirona, R., Eduardo, I., Pacheco, I., Da Silva Linge, C., Miculan, M., Verde, I., Tartarini,
- 488 S., Dondini, L., Pea, G., Bassi, D., Rossini, L., 2013. Fine mapping and identification of
- a candidate gene for a major locus controlling maturity date in peach. BMC Plant Biol.
- 490 13, 1. https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2229-13-166
- 491 Prinsi, B., Negri, A.S., Fedeli, C., Morgutti, S., Negrini, N., Cocucci, M., Espen, L., 2011.
- 492 Peach fruit ripening: A proteomic comparative analysis of the mesocarp of two cultivars

- 493 with different flesh firmness at two ripening stages. Phytochemistry 72, 1251–1262.
- 494 https://doi.org/10.1016/J.PHYTOCHEM.2011.01.012
- Ramming, D.W., 1991. Genetic control of SR fruit trait. Can. J. Plant Sci. 71, 601–603.
- 496 Shan, W., Kuang, J.F., Chen, L., Xie, H., Peng, H.H., Xiao, Y.Y., Li, X.P., Chen, W.X.,
- 497 He, Q.G., Chen, J.Y., Lu, W.J., 2012. Molecular characterization of banana NAC
- 498 transcription factors and their interactions with ethylene signalling component EIL during
- 499 fruit ripening. J. Exp. Bot. https://doi.org/10.1093/jxb/ers178
- 500 Shan, W., Kuang, J.F., Lu, W.J., Chen, J.Y., 2014. Banana fruit NAC transcription factor
- MaNAC1 is a direct target of MaICE1 and involved in cold stress through interacting
- 502 with MaCBF1. Plant, Cell Environ. 37(9). https://doi.org/10.1111/pce.12303
- Tataranni, G., Spada, A., Fuzz, C., Bassi, D., 2010. AFLP-based bulk segregant analysis
- for tagging the slow-ripening trait in peach [Prunus persica (L.) Batsch]. J. Hortic. Sci.
- 505 Biotechnol. 85, 78–82. https://doi.org/10.1080/14620316.2010.11512634
- 506 Tonutti, P., Casson, P., Ramina, A., 1991. Ethylene Biosynthesis during Peach Fruit
- 507 Development. J. Am. Soc. Hortic. Sci. 79 (4): 315–326.
- Ververidis, P., John, P., 1991. Complete recovery in vitro of ethylene-forming enzyme
- activity. Phytochemistry 30 (3), 725-727. https://doi.org/10.1016/0031-9422(91)85241-
- 510 Q
- Yang, S.F., Hoffman, N.E., 1984. Ethylene Biosynthesis and its Regulation in Higher
- 512 Plants. Annu. Rev. Plant Physiol. 35, 155-189.
- 513 https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.pp.35.060184.001103
- 514 Zhang, L., Jiang, L., Shi, Y., Luo, H., Kang, R., Yu, Z., 2012. Post-harvest 1-
- methylcyclopropene and ethephon treatments differently modify protein profiles of peach
- 516 fruit during ripening. Food Res. Int. 48, 609–619.
- 517 https://doi.org/10.1016/J.FOODRES.2012.05.022

Tables

Table 1. Main organic acids (malic and citric acid), sugars (glucose and sucrose) and malonaldehyde (MDA) content of peach fruit at harvest from the different genetic classes in the parents and progeny from the 'Belbinette x Nectalady' F1 population. Fruit harvested at different maturity stages according to flesh firmness and DA-values (M1, M2 and M3) expressed in days after full bloom (DAFB). Data shown are means \pm Standard deviation.

Genotype	Maturity	DAFB	I _{AD}	Malic acid	Citric acid	Glucose	Sucrose	MDA	AC
				$mg g^{-1}$	mg g ⁻¹	$mg g^{-1}$	mg g ⁻¹	nmol g ⁻¹	$AU g^{-1}$
Sr1Sr2	M1	140.4±6.80	$1.9 \pm 0.43 ab$	2.4±0.65 bcd	2.0±0.81 ab	8.1±0.03 ab	33.6±4.19 cdef	8.6±2.23	1.9±0.09
	M2	155.4 ± 10.13	1.2±0.44cd	$4.0\pm0.87~ab$	0.5±0.12 c	7.1±1.32 bc	48.2±6.67 bc	11.5±1.40	1.7 ± 0.09
	M3	169.8±10.52	0.7±0.32d	3.9±0.51 abc	0.6±0.16 c	5.9±0.59 bc	52.3±11.08 b	15.0±1.88	1.3±0.10
Sr1sr	M1	145.1 ± 7.82	1.8 ± 0.23 ab	2.2±0.57 bcd	2.1±0.59 a	8.7±0.55 ab	35.5±5.62 cde	10.6±2.12	1.5 ± 0.08
	M2	162.7 ± 10.42	1.0 ± 0.46 cd	5.2±1.12 a	0.7 ± 0.17 c	$7.6\pm0.13~abc$	72.5±5.86 a	12.6 ± 3.63	1.4 ± 0.40
	M3	181.3±8.54	0.3±0.19d	5.1±1.57 a	0.6±0.22 c	6.1±0.38 bc	53.22±4.29 b	15.7±2.24	1.2±0.20
Sr2sr	M1	143.1±5.81	2.0 ± 0.18 ab	1.5±0.52 cd	1.4±0.18 abc	8.7±0.45 ab	22.1±1.27 efg	5.2 ± 2.11	1.6 ± 0.06
	M2	162.6 ± 8.04	1.3 ± 0.47 cd	3.3±0.73 abcd	1.4±0.25 abc	7.2±0.43 bc	35.5±1.39 cde	8.9 ± 1.56	1.2 ± 0.09
	M3	188.0 ± 6.26	0.6±0.41d	2.6±0.12 bcd	$0.9\pm0.28~{ m bc}$	5.2±0.74 c	43.7±2.55 bcd	10.2 ± 0.07	0.7 ± 0.05
srsr	M1	146.0 ± 0.00	$2.0\pm0.03a$	1.0±0.37 d	1.1±0.44 abc	8.9±0.19 ab	14.5±4.96 g	6.2 ± 0.68	1.6 ± 0.15
	M2	169.0 ± 0.00	$1.9\pm0.04b$	1.7±0.55 bcd	1.3±0.42 abc	10.2±0.62 a	18.3±1.82 fg	6.2 ± 1.25	1.4 ± 0.14
	M3	188.0 ± 0.00	$1.7\pm0.06c$	1.8±0.55 bcd	0.7 ± 0.41 c	10.4±0.36 a	30.4±6.46 defg	7.1 ± 0.70	1.2 ± 0.03
p (genotype)	x maturity)	-	< 0.0001	< 0.0001	0.0005	< 0.001	0.0002	ns	ns

Figures



Figure 1. Visual appearance of peach fruit from the different genetic classes in the progeny from the 'Belbinette x Nectalady' F1 population at the maturity stage 2 (M2).

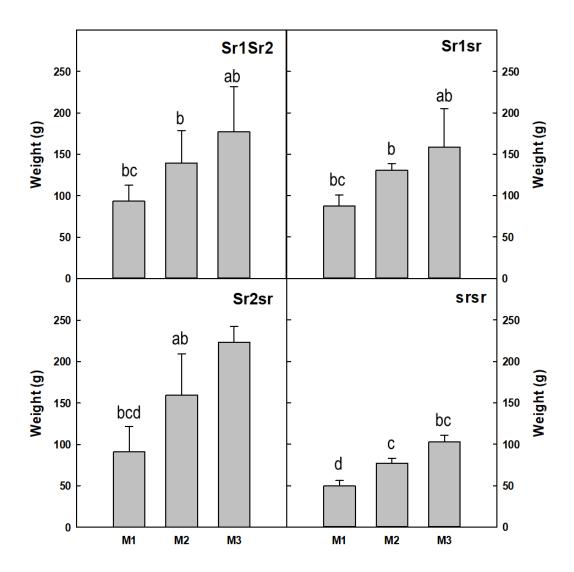


Figure 2. Fruit weight (g), at different maturity stages (M1, M2 and M3), of peach fruit from the different genetic classes in the progeny from the 'Belbinette x Nectalady' F1 population. Data shown are means \pm Std. dev. Means with the same letter are not significantly different according to analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Tukey's HSD test (p < 0.05).

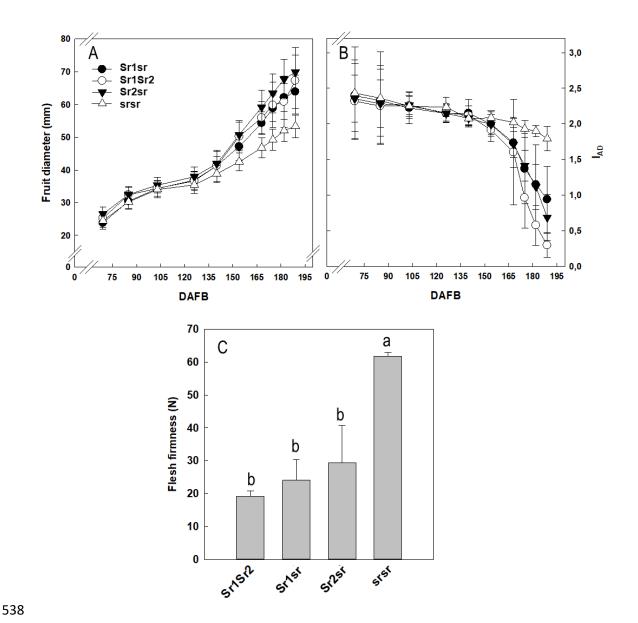


Figure 3. Changes in fruit diameter (mm; A) and I_{AD} values (B) from fruit set to harvest in the four genetic classes of the progeny from the 'Belbinette x Nectalady' F1 population. Data shown are means \pm Std. dev. LSD values for the interaction genetic class x DAFB are 10.1 and 0.69 for (A) and (B), respectively. (C) Flesh firmness at 190 days after full bloom (DAFB) for the four genetic classes of the progeny from the 'Belbinette x Nectalady' F1 population. Values represent the mean mean \pm Std. dev and means with the same letter are not significantly different according to analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Tukey's HSD test (p < 0.05).

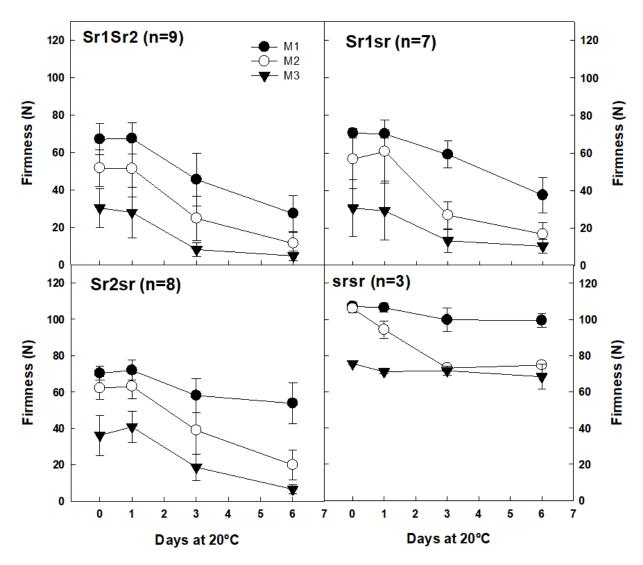


Figure 4. Changes in flesh firmness of peach fruit from the different genetic classes in the progeny from the 'Belbinette x Nectalady' F1 population, and harvested at different maturity stages (M1, M2 and M3), during shelf life at 20°C (70% RH). Data represents the mean \pm Std. dev.

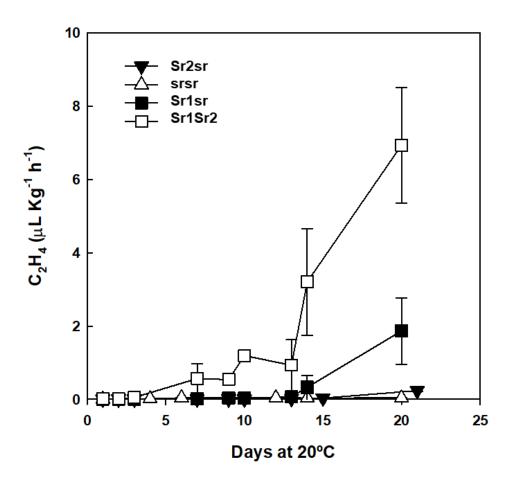


Figure 5. Ethylene production of early harvested peach fruit (M1) from the different genetic classes in the progeny from the 'Belbinette x Nectalady' F1 population during shelf life. Data represents the mean \pm Std. dev. LSD value for the interaction genotype x days at 20°C is 0.87.

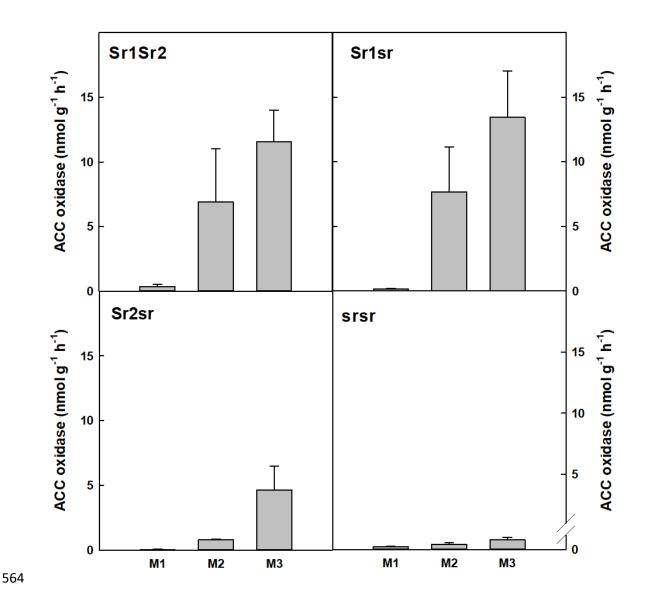


Figure 6. ACC oxidase activity, at different maturity stages (M1, M2 and M3), of peach fruit from the different genetic classes in the progeny from the 'Belbinette x Nectalady' F1 population. Data shown are means \pm Std. dev. Means with the same letter are not significantly different according to analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Tukey's HSD test (p < 0.05).

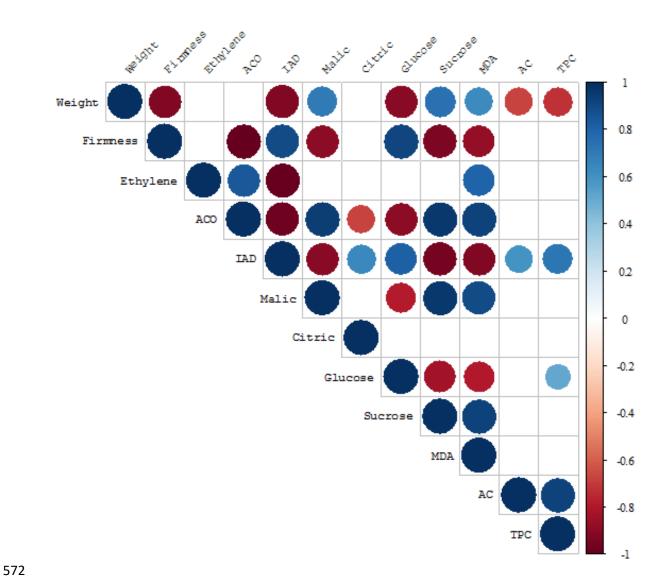


Figure 7. Visualization of Spearman's rank correlation matrix (significance level p<0.05) between the different biochemical and quality traits analysed in the progeny from the 'Belbinette x Nectalady' F1 population.