

Fruit calcium accumulation coupled and uncoupled from its transpiration in kiwifruit

Giuseppe Montanaro, Bartolomeo Dichio, Alexander Lang, Alba N. Mininni and Cristos Xiloyannis

Abstract

Accumulation of Ca in several fleshy fruit is often supposed to depend, among others, by climatic variables driving fruit transpiration. This study tests the whole causal chain hypothesis: $VPD \rightarrow \text{fruit transpiration} \rightarrow \text{Ca accumulation}$. Also there are evidences that relationship between fruit transpiration and Ca content is not always clear, hence the hypothesis that low VPD reduces the fraction of xylemic water destined to transpiration was tested by examining the water budget of fruit.

Attached fruits of *Actinidia deliciosa* were subjected to Low (L) and High (H) VPD . Their transpiration was measured from early after fruit-set to day 157 after full bloom (DAFB). Fruits were picked at 70, 130 and 157 DAFB for Ca and K determinations and for water budget analysis.

Cumulative transpired water was ~ 70 g and ~ 16 g $\text{H}_2\text{O f}^{-1}$ in H_{VPD} and L_{VPD} , respectively. Calcium accumulated linearly ($R^2 = 0.71$) with cumulative transpiration when VPD was high, while correlation was weaker ($R^2 = 0.24$) under L_{VPD} . Under low VPD the fraction of xylem stream destined to transpiration declined to 40-50%.

Results suggest that Ca accumulation is coupled to cumulative transpiration under high VPD because under that condition cumulative transpiration equals xylem stream (which carry the nutrient). At L_{VPD} , Ca gain by fruit is uncoupled from transpiration because $\sim 60\%$ of the xylemic water is needed to sustain fruit growth. Results will apply to most fruits (apples, tomatoes, capsicum, grapes etc) since most suffer Ca deficiency disorders and grow in changing environments with variable VPD , also they could be supportive for the implementation of fruit quality models accounting also for mineral compositions and for a reinterpretation of certain field practices aimed at naturally improve fruit Ca content.

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44 compositions and for a reinterpretation of certain field practices aimed at naturally
45 improve fruit Ca content.

46 **Keywords:** fruit water budget, nutrient transport, microenvironment, phloem, VPD ,
47 water loss, xylem.

48 **Abbreviations:** DAFB, day after full bloom; E, daily transpiration rate; G, fruit growth;
49 H_{VPD} , high vapour pressure deficit; L_{VPD} , low vapour pressure deficit; P, phloem water
50 inflow; T, cumulative transpiration; X, xylem water inflow.

51 **Introduction**

52 Many fleshy fruits (e.g. apple, avocado, tomato, grape) including kiwifruit suffers
53 physiological disorders during storage and, sometimes, also pre-harvest. Such disorders
54 can be associated with low calcium (Ca) content (Saure, 1996; Ferguson and Watkins,
55 1989; Cutting and Bower, 1989; Witney et al., 1990; Ho and White, 2005; Thorp et al.,
56 2003; Ferguson et al., 2003, Ciccarese et al., 2013). Optimal Ca content of fruit and
57 vegetables at harvest is generally found to improve their storability, probably because of
58 its role in maintaining tissue mechanical strength (Hirschi, 2004). Improved storage is
59 associated with reduced costs along the supply chain and therefore application of Ca-
60 based foliar spray (field) or adoption of specific preconditioning protocol (packhouse)
61 are common in fruit industry (Crisosto et al., 1997; Alcaraz-Lopez et al., 2003;
62 Gerasopoulos and Drogoudi 2005), even though natural friendly increased Ca is highly
63 desirable.

64 Internal and external factors affecting the accumulation of Ca in fleshy fruit have been
65 reported by Saure (2005). More recently, a review examined the factors (and their
66 interactions) operating along the soil-to-fruit pathway in kiwifruit (Montanaro et al.,
67 2014). In the light of the causal chain hypothesis: *weather* → *fruit transpiration* → *Ca*
68 *accumulation* (Montanaro et al., 2012), among the external factors affecting fruit Ca
69 accumulation in kiwifruit are the meteorological variables affecting fruit transpiration.
70 Predominantly, these are those contributing to atmospheric vapour pressure deficit
71 (*VPD*) - namely temperature and humidity.

72 Vapour pressure deficit may also affect fruit mineral nutrition indirectly through its
73 effect on leaf transpiration (Lang and Volz, 1998). For example, studies have shown
74 that reducing leaf transpiration by reducing *VPD* can also reduce the import of Ca by
75 leaves. Assuming a constant uptake rate of Ca by the plant from the soil, a reduced leaf
76 import, may favour an increased fruit import (Guichard et al., 2005; De Freitas et al.,
77 2011).

78 The period of early fruit developmental is the most critical for Ca accumulation in most
79 fleshy fruit including in kiwifruit. Principally, this seems to be because Ca is xylem
80 mobile but phloem immobile (Bukovac and Wittwer, 1957), so it is the xylem sap
81 inflow rate to the fruit, that determines the Ca import rate. In most fleshy fruits, the
82 inflows of xylem sap and phloem sap are fairly similar in the early season (Lang 1990),

83 whereas the total sap inflow in the late season is strongly dominated by the phloem,
84 with xylem sap inflow being negligible because of strongly reduction of transpiration
85 (Saure, 2005; Montanaro et al. 2014). Thus, during the early stages of kiwifruit
86 development (roughly from day 10 to day 50 after fruit set) a reduction in atmospheric
87 *VPD*, reduces fruit transpiration, fruit xylem sap inflow, and supposedly Ca import
88 (Morandi et al., 2012).

89 It appears that concurrent measurements of fruit transpiration and of fruit Ca
90 accumulation along a relatively wide range of water loss have not been made.
91 Therefore, this paper tests the hypothesis that if the *VPD* is the principle driver of fruit
92 transpiration (Montanaro et al., 2012) and if fruit transpiration is the principle
93 determinant of fruit Ca import, then fruit Ca import will be increased by rises in the
94 cumulative fruits' transpiration as driven by increased *VPD*. Meanwhile, the xylem- and
95 phloem-mobile nutrient potassium (K) will be much less affected by the increased *VPD*.
96 To test this hypothesis, fruit transpiration, and the imports of Ca and K were assessed in
97 fruit grown under high (H_{VPD}) and low *VPD* (L_{VPD}) conditions.

98 Although for transpiring organs, their transpiration probably remains the main driver for
99 Ca accumulation, within-plant transport and partitioning of Ca and other minerals are
100 also known to be affected by “transpiration-independent” factors. For example, calcium
101 demand by an organ and the physicochemical features of the conducting tissues (e.g. ion
102 adsorption and desorption occurring at exchange sites along the walls of the xylem
103 pathway) are likely to influence the metabolic movement of Ca (McLaughlin and
104 Wimmer, 1999). Also the action of specialised transfer cells and the higher expression
105 of Ca transporters and Ca binding proteins may promote accumulation of Ca into fruit
106 independently of its transpiration (Pate and Gunning 1972; Park et al., 2005).

107 This anticipates that Ca accumulation could be uncoupled from transpiration and
108 encourages a slight reinterpretation of the *transpiration* → *Ca accumulation* element of
109 the earlier causal chain relationship, at least for low-transpiring organs such as fruit.
110 Here, to explain uncoupled Ca we would evoke the water budget (*sensu* Lang 1990) of
111 fruit as possibly modulated by *VPD*.

112 The various components of the fruit water budget (xylem, phloem, transpiration and
113 growth) have been analysed in detail (Lang and Thorpe, 1989; Fishman and Genard,

114 1998) also in relation to the functionality of the vasculature (Clearwater et al., 2012)
115 and, interestingly, to the *VPD* of the surrounding environment even if with contrasting
116 conclusions. For example, in tomato increased *VPD* reduced fruit xylem inflows while
117 phloem flow was almost unaffected, similarly, in young kiwifruit, increased *VPD*
118 increased xylem and transpiration, but does not affect phloem imports (Guichard et al.,
119 2005; Morandi et al., 2012). In peach fruit, both phloem and xylem fluxes were reduced
120 under low *VPD* (Morandi et al., 2010b). Unfortunately, the physiological significance
121 in terms of Ca accumulation of that *VPD*-induced variations on water budget was not
122 explored.

123 Considering that (i) Ca is carried by the water sourced by xylem which is then
124 evaporated (transpiration) or alternatively stored to allow fruit growth, and (ii) that the
125 partitioning amidst transpiration and growth may change under different *VPD*, it is
126 proposed that assessing the components of fruit water budget under different *VPD* may
127 help to explain the non-linearity existing between Ca and transpiration. There is a
128 general consensus that growth of fruit integrates fluxes *in* and *out* of fruit (Lang and
129 Thorpe 1989) and that reduced *VPD* doesn't impact neither fruit growth nor phloem
130 inflow (Guichard et al. 2005; Morandi et al., 2012). Therefore, it was hypothesised that
131 under reduced *VPD* to adequately sustain fruit growth, the fraction of xylem flux
132 destined to transpiration is reduced causing Ca accumulation to be uncoupled from
133 transpiration.

134 To test this hypothesis, sources (xylem, phloem) and destiny (transpiration, growth) of
135 the components of fruit water balance were analysed in fruit grown under H_{VPD} and
136 L_{VPD} conditions.

137

138 **Materials and Methods**

139 *Study site and plant material*

140 The experiment was carried out during the 2011 season in southern Italy (N 40° 25'
141 19.24''; E 16° 44' 3.03'') on mature, own-rooted Hayward kiwifruit vines (*Actinidia*
142 *deliciosa* var. *deliciosa*, C.F. Liang et A. R. Ferguson) planted at 625 plants ha⁻¹ and
143 trained to a pergola. The orchard was managed to local commercial practice. Nitrogen

144 was supplied through fertigation approximately every 20-30 days from April to July to
145 reach a total of about 50 kg ha⁻¹ N, additional 50 kg ha⁻¹ N are supplied through organic
146 fertiliser distributed in winter. No phosphorous, potassium or calcium were applied
147 because the soil was already sufficient in these elements. The plants were regularly drip-
148 irrigated (2 drippers per plant, 10 L h⁻¹ each) during the season on an approximately
149 weekly basis. Bloom occurred during the last week of May (full bloom on May 24,
150 2011) and natural bee pollination ensured normal fruit-set.

151

152 *Differentiating VPD*

153 On day 7 after full-bloom (DAFB), when fruit had a length (\pm SE) of about 13 \pm 0.3 mm,
154 100 attached fruit were enclosed with a closable (Ziploc[®]) transparent polyester bag
155 (80 \times 120 mm, 0.06 mm thick, CarloErba Reagents, Italy), an additional clip was used to
156 ensure bag closure (see Fig. 1). Fruit were selected on 50 terminating fruiting canes
157 from 15 randomly chosen vines.

158 To create two levels of *VPD*, half of the bagged fruit were loaded with 5 silica-gel
159 sachets (Carlo Erba, cod. 345702, 93 \times 37 mm) each containing 5 g of desiccant. Silica
160 gel can absorb up to 30% of its weight of water while maintaining the relative humidity
161 of the atmosphere well below 80%, hence this treatment was labelled High-*VPD* (H_{VPD}).
162 In bagged fruit without silica gel, the relative humidity of the air surrounding the fruit
163 was near saturation (Montanaro et al., 2010), therefore that treatment was labelled Low-
164 *VPD* (L_{VPD}). To minimise shoot-to-shoot variability, pairs of L_{VPD} and H_{VPD} fruit were
165 selected on the same fruiting shoots. Figure 1 reports the bag treatment design.

166 Temperature and relative humidity inside the bags (\times 2 per treatment) were measured
167 through a digital probe (mod. CS215, Campbell Scientific Inc., Utah, USA) connected
168 to a datalogger (CR10X, Campbell Scientific Inc., Utah, USA), which was
169 programmed to record at 60 s intervals and to compute and store averages at 15 min
170 intervals. To avoid possible direct contact of the probe with droplets of condensed water
171 vapour, the probe was shielded within a plastic tube open at the bottom. The *VPD* was
172 calculated from air temperature and relative humidity values according to Goudriaan
173 and van Laar (1994).

174

175 *Fruit transpiration*

176 During the first 80 DAFB, the fruit transpiration was measured every 4-7 days, two
177 additional measurements were made late in the season. The bags were weighed (w_1)
178 (with or without silica gel) just before installation in the field (t_1). After a short time (t_2)
179 (4-7 days), these were replaced by “new” pre-weighed bags. The removed “old” bags
180 were promptly transferred in lab and weighed (w_2). This not only maintained the
181 treatment effect (lowered RH in the bags with silica gel, before the silica gel become
182 water-saturated), but it also allowed the ‘old’ bags to be weighed (w_2) so providing an
183 integrated measurement of fruit transpiration over the previous interval time t period (t_2 -
184 t_1) by the bag weight difference. All bag exchanges were carried out between 10 and
185 11am and weighings employed a 3-point (1 mg sensitivity) balance (Sartorius, Expert
186 Series ED 323S, Göttingen, Germany). Daily fruit transpiration rate was calculated as
187 follow:

188
$$E = \frac{w_2 - w_1}{t_2 - t_1} - k \quad (\text{g f}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1})$$

189 where w_1 is the bag weight (g) (including 5 dry silica gel sachets for the H_{VPD} treatment)
190 just before field installation at time t_1 and w_2 is the weigh (g) of bag measured at t_2 i.e.
191 at the end of the standing period in the field ($t_2 - t_1$ days) and the average E values were
192 referred to the mid-point of that period. The coefficient k accounts for moisture
193 absorption by the PVC bags (Vogt et al., 2003). The values of k were determined by
194 means of 4-5 bags of each treatment hanging within the canopy without fruit inside for
195 4-7 days in three occasions through the experiment; their weight variation per day was
196 then calculated. Values were averaged separately for the bags of each treatment and
197 values of 0.11 (L_{VPD}) and 0.14 (H_{VPD}) $\text{g f}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$ were used. In both treatment the
198 cumulative transpiration (T) (g f^{-1}) was calculated by the summation of consecutive
199 daily transpiration values.

200

201

202 *Fruit water budget*

203 Fruit water budget was modelled at days 70, 130 and 157 after full bloom on the same
204 fruit collected for minerals determinations (see below) on fruit grown under H_{VPD} and
205 L_{VPD} according to Lang (1990). This method allows to quantify the magnitude of the
206 three pathways for water uptake and loss assuming fruit growth (G) as the result of the
207 algebraic sum of phloem (P), xylem (X) and transpiration (T) flows:

$$208 \quad G = X - T + P \quad (\text{g f}^{-1}).$$

209 According to Montanaro et al. (2006) and Clark and Smith (1988), values of G (g f^{-1})
210 were obtained as the difference between fresh and dry weight measured just after fruit
211 have been collected (see Chemical analysis section), values of T (g f^{-1}) were calculated
212 by the summation of daily transpiration (E), and P (g f^{-1}) values were calculated from
213 the fruit carbon budget considering the flow required to support fruit respiration and
214 growth. Briefly, this carbon budget assumes that approx. 48% of total carbon (C)
215 received by fruit remains in fruit dry matter (DM) (g) and that part of C is lost by fruit
216 respiration (C_r) at a daily rate decreasing from 1.4 to 0.1 $\text{mmol CO}_2 \text{g}^{-1} \text{DM}$ per day,
217 following an exponential decay pattern throughout the season:

$$218 \quad C = \text{DM} (0.48 + C_r) \quad (\text{g f}^{-1})$$

219 then the amount of P was calculated adopting a mean phloem carbon concentration C_p
220 of $85 \text{ mg C g}^{-1} \text{H}_2\text{O}$.

$$221 \quad P = C / C_p \quad (\text{g f}^{-1})$$

222 Values of xylem fruit water inflow (X) were then calculated as:

$$223 \quad X = G + T - P \quad (\text{g f}^{-1}).$$

224 Finally, the fraction (%) of the xylem fruit water inflow destined to transpiration was
225 calculated as $T/X \times 100$.

226

227

228 *Chemical analyses*

229 At days 70, 130 and 157 after full bloom, 20 fruits per treatment (10 at 157 DAFB)
230 were collected for Ca and K determination. Fruits were promptly transferred to the
231 laboratory, weighed (fresh weight), sliced and separately dried to constant weight in a
232 ventilated oven at 110°C for a minimum of 72 h. Each dried entire fruit except for the
233 fruit stalk and the floral residues (the desiccated sepals, anthers and styles) was milled
234 to a fine powder in a grinder with steel blades. A sample (~1 g) was removed from the
235 well-mixed powder, weighed, ashed in a muffle furnace (550°C for 18 h) and dissolved
236 in 10 mL HCl 1 M and adjusted to 50 mL with distilled water and the mineral content
237 determined through the inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectrometry
238 analysis (ICP-OES, Thermo Fisher Corporation, iCAP 6000 Series, Cambridge, UK).

239

240 *Statistical analysis*

241 Comparison between treatments were carried out by Student's *t*-test at the 0.05 or 0.001
242 probability levels using Microsoft® Office Excel 2003; data processing and curve
243 fitting were by OriginPro 9.1.0 (OriginLab Corporation, Northampton, MA 01060
244 USA).

245

246 **Results**

247 Air temperature and humidity (*RH*) inside the bag showed the expected day/night
248 oscillations in both H_{VPD} and L_{VPD} treatments, with the presence or absence of the silica
249 gel sachets effectively creating distinctly different microclimates inside the bags with
250 respect to *RH*, while the temperature values were similar (see inset of Fig. 2). After the
251 installation of the H_{VPD} bags, the silica gel gradually saturated as it absorbed transpired
252 water, so that *RH* increased to ~70% after about 4 d then it fell rapidly to a base value
253 when the sachets were replaced, by contrast under the L_{VPD} treatment, *RH* was roughly
254 constant at 95-100% (see inset of Fig. 2) and *VPD* very low, ranging between 0.1 and

255 0.5 kPa (over the whole season), in contrast *VPD* ranged between 0.2 and 4.8 kPa in the
256 H_{VPD} treatment (Fig. 2).

257 At the beginning of the trial, a considerable increase in daily fruit transpiration rate was
258 recorded in both high and low *VPD* treatments (Fig. 3A). Within the early period (to 25
259 DAFB) daily transpiration per fruit (*f*) reached ~ 0.3 and ~ 1.3 g H₂O f⁻¹ d⁻¹ under L and
260 H_{VPD} , respectively (Fig. 3A). Transpiration under H_{VPD} conditions peaked at 1.7 ± 0.04
261 (\pm SE) g H₂O f⁻¹ d⁻¹ at 28 DAFB. During the following four weeks, transpiration was
262 fairly stable under both H_{VPD} and L_{VPD} conditions, but it declined thereafter toward a
263 minimum value recorded at 114 DAFB approaching 0.06 and 0.16 g H₂O f⁻¹ d⁻¹ under
264 L_{VPD} and H_{VPD} conditions, respectively (Fig. 3A). Cumulative fruit transpiration
265 increased progressively under both conditions reaching ~ 16 (L_{VPD}) and ~ 70 (H_{VPD}) g
266 H₂O f⁻¹ d⁻¹ at approx. 60 and 80 DAFB, respectively, thereafter transpiration was fairly
267 stable till the end of the experimental period (Fig. 3B).

268 Concentrations of Ca and K are shown in Fig. 4. Calcium in the H_{VPD} fruit was
269 significantly higher (Student's *t*-test, $P=0.05$) than in the L_{VPD} ones on each of the three
270 sampling dates, while K concentrations were not significantly different, except for the
271 sample at 130 DAFB. Fruit dry weight was similar between the *VPD* treatments at 70
272 DAFB, 6.1 ± 0.23 (\pm SE) g, but by 130 DAFB it had risen to 12.07 ± 0.59 g (H_{VPD}) and
273 9.16 ± 1.13 g (L_{VPD}). By the last sampling on 157 DAFB, fruit dry weight had risen to
274 16.28 ± 1.04 g and 14.98 ± 1.12 g, under H_{VPD} and L_{VPD} , conditions, respectively (Fig. 4).

275 Correlations between cumulative fruit transpiration and cumulative import of Ca and K
276 (mass per fruit) are presented in Fig. 5. For the high transpiring fruit in the high *VPD*
277 treatment, a reasonably good relationship (R^2 up to 0.74) were found over the range of
278 45-95 g of transpired water per fruit. The correlation was weaker in the low *VPD*
279 treatment over the range 5-32 g H₂O per fruit (Fig. 5). However, cumulative import of
280 K at low *VPD* was better correlated with cumulative fruit transpiration than Ca.

281 The analysis of the fruit water budget reveals that different *VPD* did not differentiated
282 the overall phloem fluxes neither after 70 nor 130 DAFB being ~ 35 and ~ 65 g f⁻¹ in
283 both H and L_{VPD} fruit (Fig. 6). Later, at 157 DAFB phloem flow was close to 95 (H_{VPD})
284 and 80 (L_{VPD}) g f⁻¹ (Fig. 6). Similarly, amount of water that grow fruit (*G*) did not
285 differed between treatments, it increased from approx. 60 at the earlier analysis up to

286 100 g f⁻¹ at 157 DAFB. Transpiration was 3-4-fold higher in H_{VPD} than L_{VPD} and xylem
287 flux was on average 2-fold higher in fruit under H_{VPD} than that of L_{VPD} (Fig. 6).

288

289 **Discussion**

290 The effects of weather variables on fruit transpiration have been the subject of much
291 recent interest in several fruit species even though its physiological impact on nutrient
292 transport was not adequately explored (Montanaro et al., 2010 and 2012; Morandi et al.,
293 2010b; Léchaudela et al., 2013). The present study extends that findings to the
294 physiology of Ca transport in fruit through testing the whole causal chain hypothesis:
295 *weather* →(i)→ *fruit transpiration* →(ii)→ *fruit calcium*. Results show that fruit
296 transpiration couples Ca accumulation (the second step →(ii)→ in that hypothesis), at
297 least for higher values of cumulative transpired water. Nevertheless the idea is difficult
298 to discuss against a literature background as there is limited information on this, and
299 especially so for fruit. Most researchers have examined the model *VPD* and/or
300 *irradiance*→*transpiration* (Leonardi et al., 2000, Montanaro et al., 2006), where the
301 balance between irradiance and *VPD* depends not only on the organ being considered
302 (i.e. isolated organ or closed canopy) (Jarvis 1985). Meanwhile others have examined
303 the model *VPD* and/or *irradiance*→*Ca*, which contains the embedded assumption that
304 fruit Ca accumulation might be driven mainly by transpiration (de Freitas et al., 2010).
305 In an earlier study we have already established through a mechanistic model that *VPD*
306 (not irradiance) is the dominant driver of transpiration for a developing kiwifruit
307 (Montanaro et al., 2012), so this paper integrates previous knowledge examining both
308 links in the causal chain *VPD*→*transpiration*→*Ca*.

309 *Microclimatic condition and transpiration*

310 As predicted by Ohm's law *sensu* Nobel (2005), fruit water loss will be significantly
311 affected by changes in the *VPD* of the surrounding air. The *VPD* over the whole
312 experimental period for L_{VPD} fruit was ~10% of that of H_{VPD} one, and in turn daily fruit
313 transpiration was as low as ~25% of that of H_{VPD} fruit (Fig. 2, 3A). The effect of
314 bagging treatment in reducing transpiration is similar to observations in peach fruit
315 enclosed in plastic bag (Morandi et al., 2010b). Interestingly, daily fruit transpiration (g
316 H₂O f⁻¹ d⁻¹) measured here by bag weight for H_{VPD} is comparable to that obtained

317 previously in kiwifruit using a gas exchange method (Montanaro et al., 2006) and a
318 mass balance approach (Morandi et al., 2012).

319 The increase of fruit transpiration rate early in the growing season (Fig. 3A) reflects the
320 fruit enlargement due to cell division occurring at this stage (Hopping et al., 1976),
321 while its decline toward a minimum value detected after 7-8 weeks after full bloom
322 could be associated with changes in certain anatomical and functional traits of fruit such
323 as increased hydraulic resistance of the xylem and the development of a suberized
324 periderm (see Montanaro et al., 2014 for review). Consequently, cumulative
325 transpiration asymptoted to a maximum at around 80 DAFB (H_{VPD}) or ~3 weeks earlier
326 (L_{VPD}) according to what reported for attached fruit (Fig. 3B) (Montanaro et al., 2006).
327 The low-transpiring fruit lost ~16 g H₂O over the whole experiment, even though they
328 were subjected to near saturating conditions. This could be explained considering
329 mainly the persistent (even minimal) *VPD*. In addition the not-insignificant permeability
330 of the PVC Ziploc[®] bags and the water evolved during the respiration of sugars may
331 have partly contributed to that transpiration (Clark and Smith 1988; Ulutan and Balköse,
332 1996).

333 For a long time, manipulation of the fruit microenvironment through bagging treatments
334 have been used in research as well as in commercial fruit production to obtain certain
335 physiological responses in terms of colour, blemishes, cracking, mineral composition,
336 size, etc. (Hofman et al., 1997; Amarante et al., 2002 and references therein; Montanaro
337 et al., 2010; Morandi et al., 2010b). However, the effects of bagging on the key
338 microclimatic variables (including temperature and relative humidity) of the air
339 surrounding the fruit have not been examined in much detail - often they've been
340 merely assumed. The present study, therefore, represents a significant design
341 improvement on these issues, in that the micrometeorological variables most affecting
342 air *VPD* were recorded. In addition, the use of in-bag, silica gel sachets further allowed
343 a *VPD* treatment to be imposed (by drying the air), while not at the same time creating a
344 number of other, confounding, micrometeorological differences experienced between a
345 bagged and an un-bagged fruit – differences in temperature, insolation and air flow (to
346 name the dominant ones likely to affect fruit).

347

348 *Dry weight, potassium and calcium accumulation*

349 Microclimatic condition (e.g. light, temperature, *VPD*) may affect functional and
350 metabolic parameters/processes of fruit including antioxidant content, enzyme activities,
351 transpiration and mineral composition (Montanaro et al., 2006; Léchaudela et al., 2013).
352 However, with respect to the effect of *VPD* on nutrients accumulation it would
353 ultimately depend on the within-plant mobility of the nutrients. For example, K is
354 primarily a phloem mobile, with K^+ being the dominant cation in phloem sap in most
355 plants, contributing to phloem sap osmolarity about equally with sucrose (Patrick,
356 1997). Thus any putative reduction in K delivery to the fruit in the xylem sap as a result
357 of *VPD*-induced reduced transpiration (and thus reduced xylem influx) would be
358 masked by the delivery of K in the phloem sap. This would explain the minor effects of
359 low *VPD* on fruit K compare to Ca (phloem immobile) (Fig. 5) as already documented
360 for apple fruit (Tromp and Van Vuure, 1993).

361 Over time different transpiration affected fruit dry weight accumulation which was in
362 L_{VPD} treatment significantly 8% lower than that of H_{VPD} treatment (see older fruit in Fig.
363 4). Similar reduction is reported for low-transpiring apricot and peach fruit (Montanaro
364 et al., 2010; Morandi et al., 2010b). In the present study, differences in dry matter
365 content could not be attributable to temperature-induced increased respiration (Walton
366 and De Jong, 1990) because temperature was similar in both treatments (see inset of
367 Fig. 2). To explain low dry matter content in low-transpiring peach fruit, it has been
368 evoked the reduction of fruit sink for carbohydrates which in turn limited net
369 photosynthesis of leaves surrounding the fruit (Li et al., 2001). That reduced sink
370 strength was associated to the reduced enzymes activity due to the plastic-induced
371 increased temperature of the fruit (Li et al., 2001). This would not be the case with the
372 present experiment since both H_{VPD} and L_{VPD} were bagged and, again, temperature was
373 not affected by treatment. The mass balance model may be useful to track phloem
374 unload and in turn dry matter accumulation. The model reveals that although a tenuous
375 greater phloem fraction in H_{VPD} fruit could be envisaged in older fruit (Fig. 6), phloem
376 unload was substantially unaffected by different *VPD* which fits with fluxes measured
377 in kiwifruit and tomato (Guichard et al., 2005; Morandi et al., 2012). To explain
378 differences in dry matter accumulation both bulk and passive phloem unload (*sensu*
379 Patrick 1997) would be evoked. Considering that fruit transpiration is proportional to

380 fruit surface conductance and to a driving force (e.g. difference between water vapour
381 inside the fruit and the surrounding air) (Montanaro et al., 2012), assuming that changed
382 *VPD* did not affect fruit conductance, the higher fruit transpiration (Fig. 3) conceivably
383 induced a lower turgor and more negative water potential in H_{VPD} fruit which may have
384 increased bulk phloem unload and in turn assimilates partitioning (Lang and Thorpe
385 1986). The higher dry matter content in highly transpiring fruit (Fig. 6) could be also
386 attributable to increased phloem sap sugar concentration to help to maintain the water
387 potential gradient and turgor in sieve tube (Cernusak et al., 2003), however further
388 efforts are required to test it.

389 The general plausibility of the idea that Ca import by a transpiring organ might be
390 proportional to its transpiration suggests that the more xylem water passes into an
391 organ, the more Ca will be left behind as it evaporates. The partitioning of fruit fluxes
392 of high-transpiring fruit over a relatively long time period (i.e. 70-157 days) shows a
393 close correspondence between transpiration and xylem stream (Fig. 6) as reported for
394 daily flows in fruit of similar age (Morandi et al., 2012). Accordingly, Ca accumulation
395 rises roughly linearly (R^2 0.71) with increasing fruit transpiration behind ~60 g H₂O per
396 fruit, however, transpiration seems to be ineffective in driving Ca at a lower range
397 namely 5-60 g H₂O (Fig. 5). In that lower range, Ca did not increased with increasing
398 transpiration and its variability (from 6 to 30 mg H₂O f⁻¹) remained within that observed
399 at field scale (Ferguson et al., 2003). This observation is in line with White and
400 Broadley (2003) who stress that there is a close positive relationship between
401 transpiration and Ca delivery to a transpiring organ when transpiration is high.

402 *Fruit water budget and uncoupled Ca*

403 The uncertainty of the effect of *VPD* and in turn of transpiration on Ca level in fruit was
404 highlighted in apple by Tromp and Van Vuure (1992 and reference therein) who
405 postulated the “*absence of any clear humidity effect on Ca influx into fruits*” because of
406 opposing results. Pooled data covering a relative wide range of cumulative transpiration
407 (from ~5 up to 95 g) confirms that Ca accumulation does not bear a simple linear
408 relationship to cumulative transpired water (Fig. 7). That distribution shows an initial
409 lag phase during which increasing fruit transpiration does not proportionally increase Ca
410 content. A similar result was previously documented by Dichio et al. (2007) focusing
411 the effect of windspeed on Ca accumulation in kiwifruit. In that study fruit Ca remained

412 almost constant despite an increased windspeeds (and presumably transpiration) till a
413 certain threshold, Ca rose in response to wind only when windspeeds blow $>1.5 \text{ m s}^{-1}$.

414 Explanations for that non-linear dependency have been indirectly proposed in several
415 fruit species evoking so called non-transpirational (or transpiration-independent) Ca
416 transport mechanisms. For example, the ‘metabolic Ca demand’ and the chemical
417 aspects of the conductive tissues (e.g. adsorption and desorption along the walls of the
418 xylem pathway) and the mutual relationship between polar basipetal auxin transport and
419 acropetal Ca transport (Stahly and Benson, 1970; Bangerth, 1976 and 1979; Banuelos et
420 al. 1987; Cutting and Bower, 1989; Pomper and Grusak, 1997; McLaughlin and
421 Wimmer, 1999). Also the action of specialised transfer cells and the higher expression
422 of Ca transporters and Ca binding proteins may promote accumulation of Ca into fruit
423 independently of its transpiration (Pate and Gunning 1972; Park et al., 2005).

424 The present study was not design to ascertain any of these transpiration-independent
425 mechanisms, however the mechanistic approach sitting behind the fruit water budget
426 analysis used to track the destiny of xylem stream (i.e. transpiration or growth) may
427 help to explain that poor Ca:transpiration relationship. That is, at unrestricted
428 transpiration the evaporative destiny of xylem stream was close to 80-100% (Fig. 6)
429 allowing the transpiration to be coupled to Ca accumulation as the roughly good linear
430 relationship documents ($R^2 = 0.71$) (Fig. 5). According to the initial hypothesis, under
431 reduced *VPD* the destiny of the xylem flow would change in favour of fruit growth
432 leading to the reduction of the evaporative fraction. Indeed, the water budget analysis
433 show that the fraction of water sourced by xylem and lost through transpiration in low-
434 transpiring fruit declined to approx. 40-55% (Fig. 6). A similar 50% reduction of the
435 evaporative destiny of the daily water entering the fruit upon reduced *VPD* has been
436 observed in low-transpiring tomato fruit (Leonardi et al., 2000; Guichard et al., 2005)
437 who changed *VPD* through misting technique. Reduction of the evaporative destiny at
438 lowered *VPD* agreed with previous observation in kiwifruit (Morandi et al., 2010a).
439 Clearwater et al. (2012) compared over a 30-day period the effect of microclimate (dry
440 or humid) of the growing environment on water budget in a ripening fruit of a closely
441 related species (*A. chinensis*) showing that at the wetter environment transpirational
442 water losses were a less dominant feature of the water balance. It is unfortunate that in
443 these papers the physiological implication of changed water budget on fruit Ca

444 accumulation was not examined. The present study was designed to test the whole
445 causal chain $VPD \rightarrow \text{transpiration} \rightarrow Ca$, and results gained allow the conclusion that at
446 low transpiration the slow movement of xylem sap into the fruit mainly sustains fruit
447 growth rather than the evaporative flux, this *de facto* makes transpiration uncoupled to
448 Ca accumulation.

449 The main fruit quality traits focussed by carbon and water balance models relate to size,
450 dry matter and sugars content, and fraction of edible tissue sometimes under
451 contrasting environmental (temperature, air vapour pressure deficit) and plant
452 conditions (fruit load and fruit position) (Lescourret and Génard 2005, Liu et al., 2007;
453 Clearwater et al., 2012). In that context, the importance of water potential, osmotic
454 potential and turgor pressure of fruit and environmental conditions as driving force of
455 water import have been emphasized along with variations of hydraulic resistance of fruit
456 and stalk and skin conductance (Génard et al., 2007; Montanaro et al., 2012; Mazzeo et
457 al., 2013). However, modelling of water transport and transpiration remains highly
458 desirable because of its significance on mineral composition (Génard et al., 2007). The
459 present study enhances our understanding of the physiology of Ca accumulation by fruit
460 in relation to its transpiration focussing a variable destiny of the xylem stream
461 depending on the level of transpiration. The evidence that in low-transpiring fruit
462 increasing cumulative transpiration did not induced any significant increase in Ca
463 accumulation (Fig. 7) -which remained within the vine-to-vine variability- reveals Ca
464 accumulation to be uncoupled to transpiration. While in high transpiring fruit Ca
465 accumulation became proportional to fruit water loss because amount of xylem stream
466 and its evaporative destiny tend to converge. This information could be supportive for
467 the implementation of virtual fruit models accounting also for mineral compositions.

468 Within the frame of fruit mineral transport in responses to environmental variables,
469 results gained in this paper will apply to most fruits (apples, tomatoes, capsicum,
470 grapes, avocado etc.) since most suffer Ca deficiency disorders (Cutting and Bower,
471 1989; Ferguson, 1989; Witney et al., 1990; Saure, 1996; Ho and White, 2005) and grow
472 in changing environments with variable VPD . Results could open up the reinterpretation
473 of certain techniques suggested at field scale to improve fruit quality. For example,
474 summer pruning is aimed at naturally increase Ca content through increased fruit
475 transpiration (Gerasopoulos and Drogoudi, 2005; Montanaro et al., 2014), however it

476 could be envisaged that such practice would be less effective in higher humidity
477 environment having low *VPD* where Ca accumulation is expected to be uncoupled from
478 transpiration.

479

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484

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633 **Figure legends**

634 **Fig. 1.** Schematic and photograph of the bag treatment. The temperature and relative
635 humidity probe was shielded by a plastic tube open at the bottom (dashed cylinder).
636 Note that the silica gel sachets were loaded only into the high *VPD* treatment bags.

637 **Fig. 2.** Vapour pressure deficit (*VPD*, kPa) of the air surrounding fruit under (A) High
638 and (B) Low *VPD* conditions throughout the experiment. In the inset (panel B) are the
639 daily pattern of relative humidity (RH, %) and temperature (°C) of the air surrounding
640 bagged fruit under high and low *VPD* conditions over an arbitrary five-day period (grey
641 strip), bag replacement occurred at times indicated by the arrows.

642 **Fig. 3.** Variation of (A) daily fruit transpiration ($\text{g H}_2\text{O f}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$) and (B) cumulative fruit
643 transpiration ($\text{g H}_2\text{O f}^{-1} \text{d}^{-1}$) measured (bag weight gain) for bagged fruit grown under
644 low (\circ) and high (\bullet) *VPD* conditions. Each point is the mean (\pm SE) recorded for 50 (10-
645 67 DAFB), 30 (68-130 DAFB) and 10 (157 DAFB) fruits. Comparing values for high
646 and low *VPD* over the same period * indicates significant differences (Student's *t*-test,
647 $P=0.001$).

648 **Fig. 4.** Concentration of (A) Ca and (B) K (%DW), and (C) dry weight (g f^{-1}) measured
649 in fruit grown under low and high *VPD* conditions at three times during the season. Bars
650 are SE, DAFB = day after full bloom; comparison of treatments at the same time (*)
651 indicates significant differences (Student's *t*-test, $P = 0.05$).

652 **Fig. 5.** Relationships between cumulative transpiration ($\text{g H}_2\text{O f}^{-1}$) and (A) K and (B)
653 Ca content (mg f^{-1}) under low (\circ) and high *VPD* (\bullet) conditions.

654 **Fig. 6.** Water budget (g f^{-1}) partitioning in fruit grown under low and high *VPD*
655 identifying source (X=xylem, P= phloem) and destiny (G=growth, T=transpiration) of
656 water fluxes. The inset shows the transpiration as % of xylem (\pm SE). Comparison of
657 treatments at the same time and for the same water pattern * indicates significant
658 differences, n.s. not significant (Student's *t*-test, $P = 0.05$).

659 **Fig. 7.** Relationship between Ca and cumulative fruit transpiration highlighting the
660 dominance of filling or evaporative destiny of xylem flow; data are redrawn from Fig.
661 5-B.

Figure 1 revised B/W

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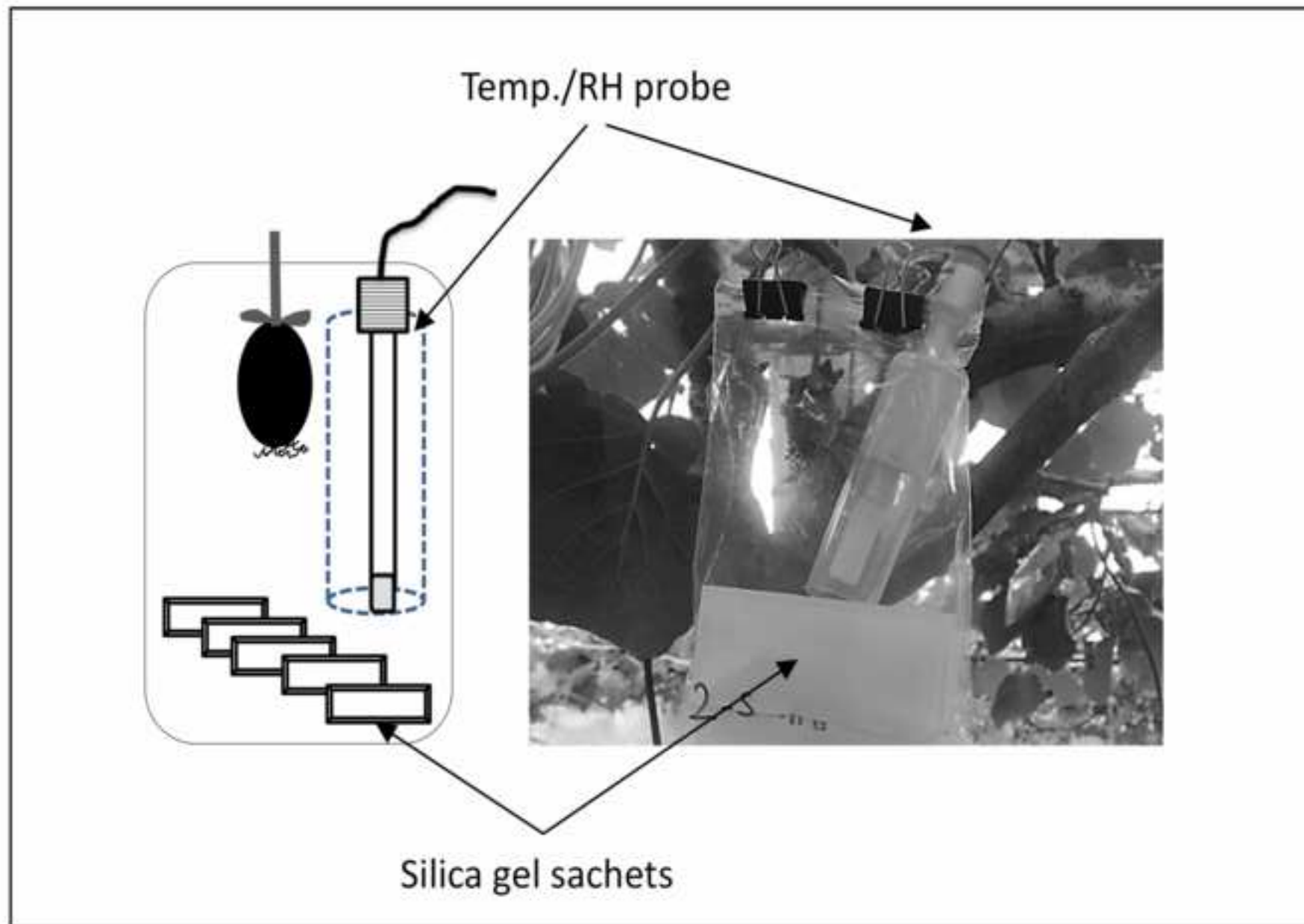


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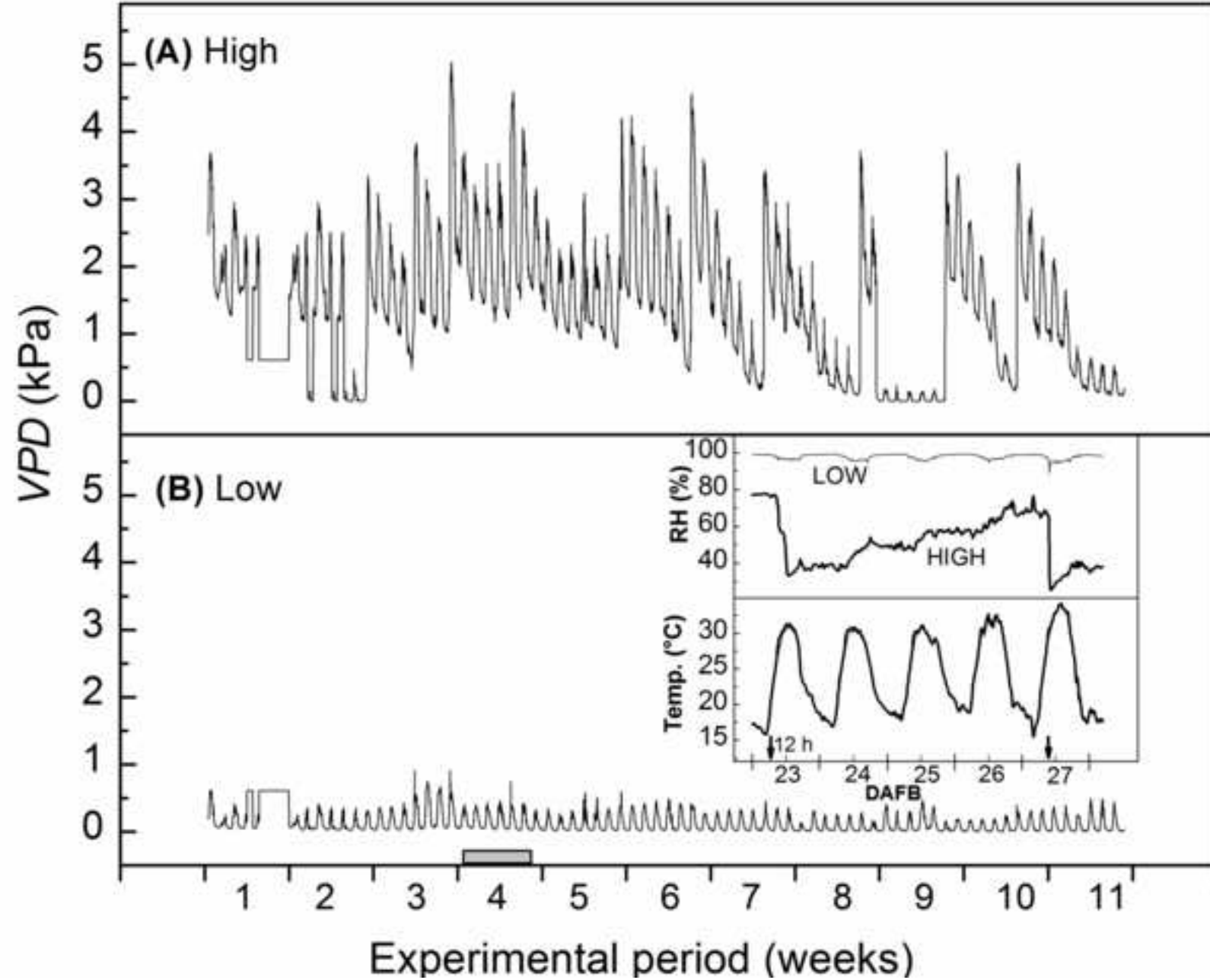


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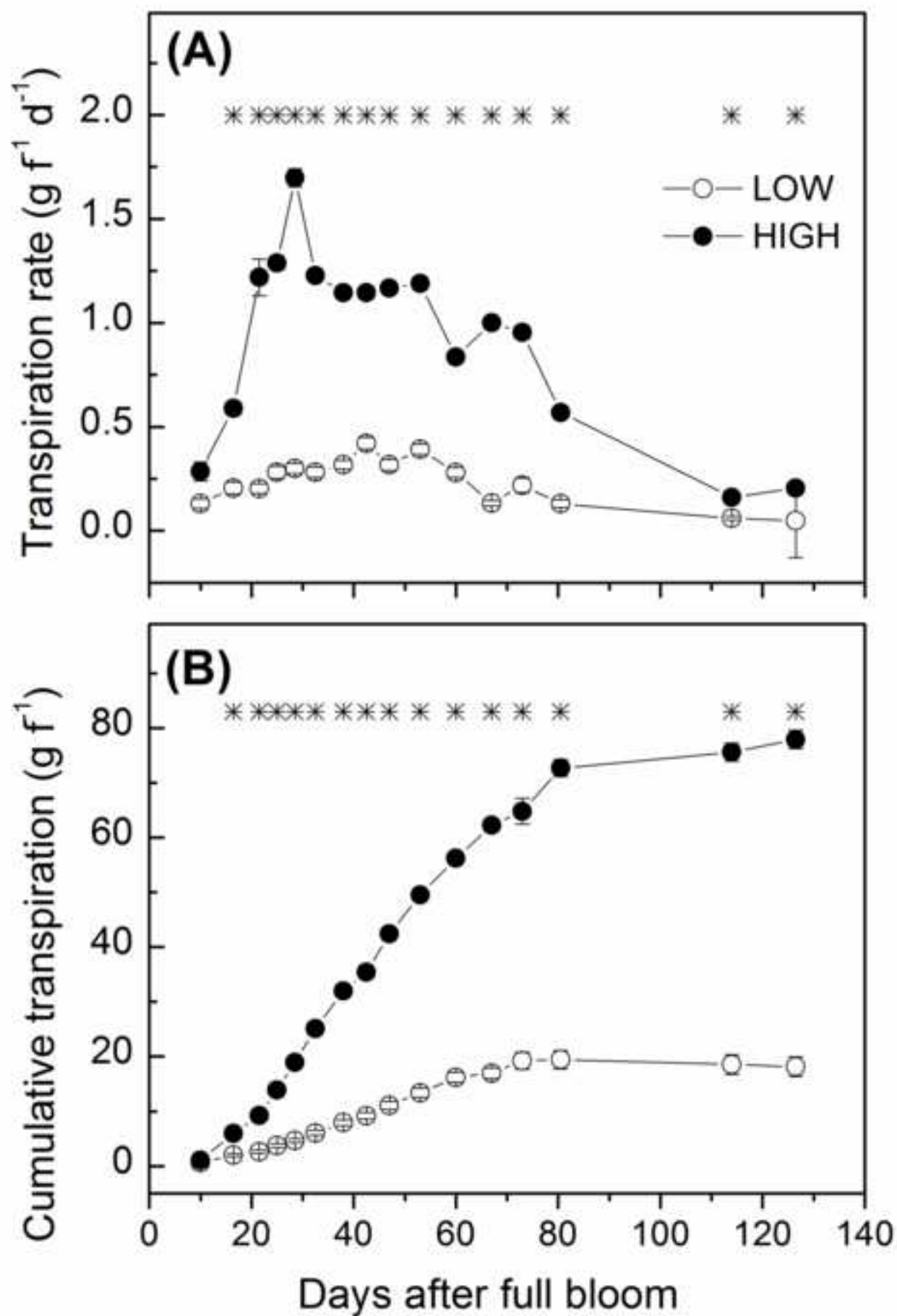


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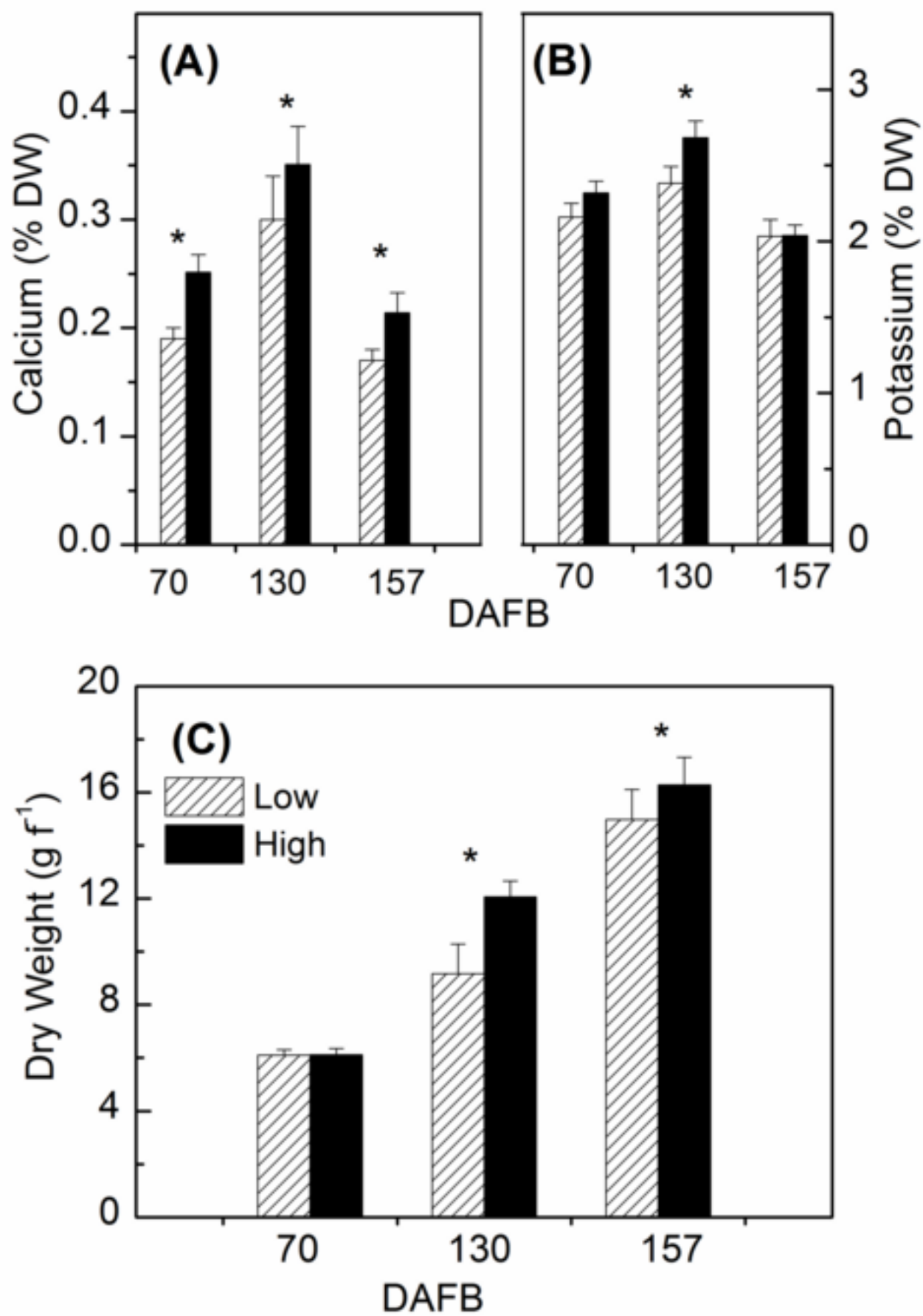


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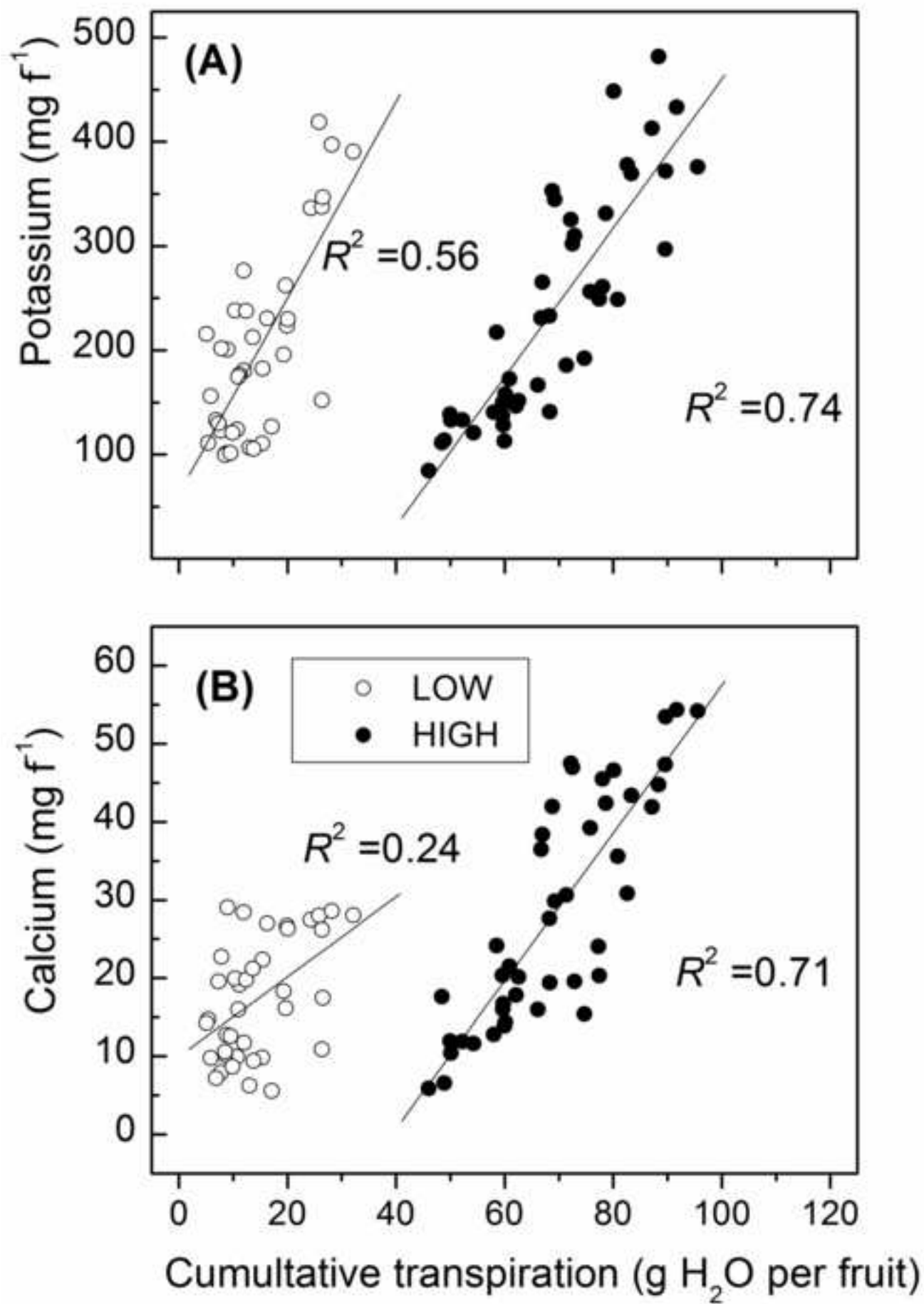


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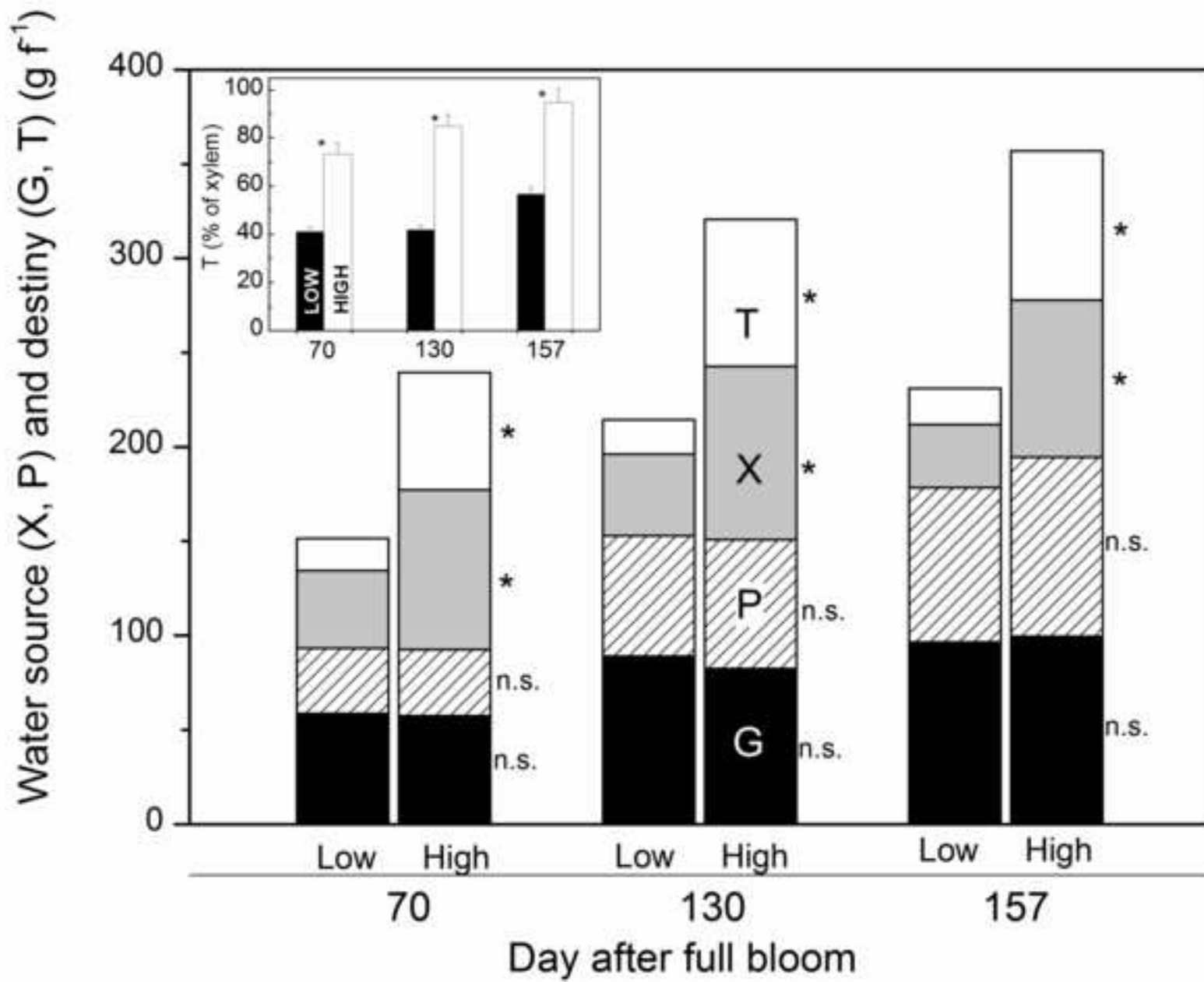


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