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# 1 **Comparative physiology during ripening in tomato rich-anthocyanins**

## 2 **fruits**

3

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15

## 16 **Abstract**

17 *Solanum lycopersicum* (tomato) fruits are important source of nutraceutical compounds  
18 with substantial and growing economic and nutritional impacts. Here we assess the  
19 physiological diversity affecting the ripening process that yields variation in fruit  
20 pigmentation with regard to antocyanins compounds for one nonanthocyanin-  
21 accumulating (Ailsa Craig) and two anthocyanin-accumulating tomato genotypes  
22 (Anthocyanin fruit type, low pigment accumulation, and Sun Black, high pigment  
23 accumulation). Using tomato fruits obtained by traditional breeding we reported a  
24 modified hormone equilibrium during the various ripening stages that can be considered  
25 a consequence of the anthocyanins accumulation in fruits. Moreover, the fruits of the high  
26 pigment accumulation genotype appear more firmness at the commercial stage. Overall,  
27 these results showed the considerable potential of exploiting natural genetic diversity to  
28 obtain tomatoes with higher levels of secondary metabolites like anthocyanins, and  
29 different quality traits such as colour and firmness.

30 **Keywords:** colour; Sun Black tomato; anthocyanins; ripening stage; Ethylene; ABA;  
31 firmness;

32

33

## 35 **Introduction**

36 Red colour is a typical trait of commercially grown tomato fruit (*Solanum lycopersicum*  
37 *L.*) and it is mainly due to the presence of the lycopene pigment. Lycopene belongs to the  
38 wider group of carotenoids and it can be accumulated both in fruit skin and pulp.  
39 Nevertheless, in some wild species of tomato (*S. chilense*, *S. cheesmaniae*, etc.) skin  
40 colour of certain organs, can be also determined by the presence of anthocyanin pigments  
41 which provide a typical purple tone. This feature depends on the presence of specific  
42 genes, which are activated by sunlight exposure during fruit ripening (Gonzali et al.,  
43 2009). Among them genes, the dominant gene “anthocyanin fruit” (*Aft*), is responsible  
44 for anthocyanins accumulation in fruit. This gene is present in the *S. chilense* species, and  
45 when this species is hybridized with a traditional variety it generates a novel tomato  
46 variety ‘*Aft*’ which accumulates low levels of anthocyanins in the skin. Furthermore, from  
47 the hybridization of the wild species *S. chilense* and *S. cheesmanie*, both having the  
48 recessive gene “atroviolacea” (responsible for the accumulation of anthocyanins in the  
49 leaves), derives the novel variety ‘Sun Black’ (SB), characterized by higher levels of  
50 anthocyanins in fruit.

51 In the last decade growing attention is paid to produce fruit rich in health-related bioactive  
52 compounds like anthocyanins considered to offer the best protection against disease either  
53 by conventional breeding methods or genetic engineering (Kong et al., 2003; Butelli et  
54 al., 2008). The chemical structure of anthocyanins is responsible for their activity as  
55 antioxidants and pigments. For these reasons genetic hybridization between traditional  
56 tomato species, with low anthocyanins levels and wild ones with a high attitude to  
57 accumulate pigments represents a promising approach to be adopted by everyone  
58 involved in breeding, growing as well as in the product commercialization to obtain novel  
59 tomato varieties with higher nutraceutical value and different appearance features  
60 compared to traditional ones.

61 The mechanisms involved in ripening cover extraordinarily importance in tomato  
62 economic sector because, fruits go through a remarkable transformation from something  
63 that is uneatable into an attractive, edible fruit. The ripening associated processes include  
64 cell wall modifications, fruit softening, the synthesis of pigments, the conversion of starch  
65 into simple sugars, and the synthesis of volatile compounds that allow the development  
66 of fruit taste and aroma (Leng et al., 2014). All these parameters preponderantly influence

67 the external appearance of tomato fruits including the skin colour and firmness. From a  
68 commercial point of view, colour and firmness are considered key indexes of the global  
69 quality of the product, and are strongly affected by the genetic diversity (variety) and by  
70 the ripening stage of fruit at harvest.

71 Undoubtedly, plant hormones have been extensively studied in the various aspects of fruit  
72 development, being the ethylene and abscisic acid (ABA) the major contributors to the  
73 fruit ripening (McAtee et al., 2013; Kumar et al., 2014). Tomato is a climacteric fruit, and  
74 in this type of fruits the ethylene evolution is the key event signaling for the activation of  
75 the specific features of fruit ripeness (Bleeker and Kende, 2000; Giovannoni 2001).

76 Emerging evidence suggest there may be other ethylene-independent factors involved in  
77 the control of fruit ripening. A central role for ABA as an intermediate regulator in the  
78 perturbation of tomato fruit ripening have been recently proposed (Zhang et al., 2009; Su  
79 et al., 2015).

80 The importance of tomato as an agricultural product have yielded numerous spontaneous  
81 and induced mutations, including many that affect fruit development and ripening  
82 (Giovannoni 2004). The aim of the present study was to physiologically characterise the  
83 ripening of tomato fruits from sunblack genotype, homozygous for both *Aft* and *atv* alleles  
84 with altered ability to synthesize anthocyanins, showing an acute black-purple fruit  
85 pigmentation. Moreover, using chromametry we assessed the correspondence between  
86 hormonal balance, color, firmness and anthocyanin levels.

87

## 88 **Materials and Methods**

### 89 **Plant materials**

90 The study was conducted on three tomato (*Solanum lycopersicum*. L.) varieties: Ailsa  
91 Craig (AC) characterized by the complete lack in anthocyanins accumulation, and two  
92 varieties, obtained by genetic hybridization, Anthocyanin Fruit Type (*Aft*) and Sun Black  
93 (SB), showing a low and a high attitude to accumulate anthocyanins, respectively.

94 The plants were hydroponically grown in a temperature-controlled glasshouse located in  
95 Pisa (latitude 43°430'N; longitude 10°230'E; Italy) during the spring/early summer  
96 season. Seedlings were transplanted 50 days after sowing into 1 m long rockwool slabs.

97 The tomato plants were grown vertically with a single stem at a density of three plants  
98 m<sup>2</sup>. Drip irrigation was carried out using a nutrient solution with an electrical conductivity  
99 (EC) of 3.5 dS m<sup>-1</sup> and pH 6.5. Exhaust nutrient solution was discharged after three weeks

100 or whenever the EC was higher than 6 dS m<sup>-1</sup>. The composition of the nutrient solution  
101 was as follows (concentrations are expressed in mol m<sup>-3</sup>): 12 N-NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, 1.3 P-PO<sub>4</sub><sup>3-</sup>, 8K<sup>+</sup>,  
102 4 Ca<sup>2+</sup>, 1.2 Mg<sup>2+</sup>, 9 Na<sup>+</sup>, and 1.5 S-SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>. Micronutrients were added at Hoagland's  
103 concentration (in mmol m<sup>-3</sup>: B 40, 40 Fe, 1 Cu, 5 Zn, and 10 Mn).

104 All plants were grown hydroponically in an experimental greenhouse under the same  
105 controlled growing conditions. Tomato fruit samples were collected at three ripening  
106 stages: mature green (MG) (n=5 for each variety), at turning point (TP) (N=5 for each  
107 variety), and mature red (MR) (AC n=13, AFT n=5, SB n=16).

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### 109 **Determination of endogenous ABA**

110 ABA was determined by an indirect enzyme linked immuno-sorbent assay (ELISA) based  
111 on the use of DBPA1 monoclonal antibody, raised against S(+)-ABA (Vernieri et al.,  
112 1989). The ELISA was performed according to the method described by Trivellini et al.  
113 (2011), with minor modifications. Flesh and peel samples (100 mg FW) were collected,  
114 weighed, frozen in liquid nitrogen, and then stored at -80 °C until analysis. ABA was  
115 measured after extraction in distilled water (water:tissue ratio = 10:1 v:w) overnight at 4  
116 °C. Plates were coated with 200 µl per well ABA-4'-BSA conjugate and incubated  
117 overnight at 4 °C, then washed three times with 75 mM PBS buffer, pH 7.0, containing 1  
118 g L<sup>-1</sup> BSA and 1 ml L<sup>-1</sup> Tween 20, keeping the third washing solution for 30 min at 37  
119 °C. Next a 100 µl ABA standard solution or sample and, subsequently, 100 µl DBPA1  
120 solution (lyophilized cell culture medium diluted in PBS buffer containing 10 g L<sup>-1</sup> BSA  
121 and 0.5 ml L<sup>-1</sup> Tween 20, at a final concentration of 50 µg/ml) were added to each well,  
122 and competition was allowed to occur at 37 °C for 30 min. Plates were then washed again  
123 as described above and 200 µl per well of secondary antibody (Alkaline phosphatase-  
124 conjugated rabbit anti-mouse; Sigma, Italy) in PBS buffer containing 10 g L<sup>-1</sup> BSA and  
125 0.5 ml L<sup>-1</sup> Tween 20, at a final dilution of 1:2,000) was added and incubated for 30 min  
126 at 37 °C. Plates were washed again and 200 µl per well p-Nitrophenyl phosphate were  
127 added and incubated for 30 min at 37 °C. Absorbance readings at 415 nm were obtained  
128 using a MDL 680 Perkin-Elmer microplate reader.

129129

### 130 **Determination of ethylene production**

131 Ethylene production was measured by enclosing tomato fruits in 1000 ml air-tight  
132 containers. Two ml gas samples were taken from the headspace of the containers after 1  
133 h incubation at 22 ± 2°C. The ethylene concentration in the sample was measured by a

134 gas chromatograph (HP5890, Hewlett-Packard, Menlo Park, CA) using a flame ionization  
135 detector (FID), a stainless steel column (150 x 0,4 cm  $\phi$  packed with Hysep T), column  
136 and detector temperatures of 70 and 350°C, respectively, and a nitrogen carrier gas at a  
137 flow rate of 30 ml min<sup>-1</sup>. Quantification was performed against an external standard and  
138 results were expressed on a fresh weight basis (pl h<sup>-1</sup> g<sup>-1</sup> FW).

139139

#### 140 **Anthocyanins composition**

141 Skin anthocyanins levels were measured from fruits at turning point and mature red  
142 ripening stages. Around 5 g of tissue were extracted in 10 mL MeOH/4 M HCl, shaken  
143 for 1 hour following the method from Mes et al. (2008). The extracts were analyzed by  
144 HPLC and the results obtained are presented as  $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$  of dry weight.

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#### 146 **Colour**

147 Colour skin measurement was performed by using a Lutron RGB-1002 (Lutron Electronic  
148 Enterprise Co., Taiwan) colourimeter, which is able to detect a dynamic range of 10 bits  
149 (1024 values). Determinations were performed on fruit surface (3 measures were taken in  
150 the equatorial region of each fruit, every 120 °). The RGB values were then converted to  
151 CIELAB parameters ( $L^*$ ,  $a^*$ ,  $b^*$ ,  $C^*_{ab}$ ,  $h_{ab}$ ).

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#### 153 **Firmness**

154 Fruit firmness was measured by using a penetrometer FT327 (QA Supplies, LLC., USA),  
155 data from triplicate measurements are expressed as Kgf.

156156

#### 157 **Statistical analyses**

158 For each experiment, the means from at least five independent biological samples (ABA  
159 and ethylene measurements) analyzed with two technical replicates were calculated.  
160 Statistical differences among mean values ( $p < 0.05$ ) were determined using two-way  
161 ANOVA followed by Bonferroni's multiple comparison test to compare the effects of  
162 each treatment with the relative hormonal level of the control. hormonal level of the  
163 control. The statistical analyses were carried out using GraphPad Prism 5 for Windows  
164 v8.0 (GraphPad Software, San Diego, CA, USA) and Statistica® 8.0 (StatSoft Inc., 2007)

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166166

## 168 Results

169 The results were subjected to statistical analysis and showed significant differences  
170 ( $p < 0.05$ ) in skin colour parameters and anthocyanin levels among the considered varieties  
171 at each ripening stage (Table 1).

172 For all the considered varieties it was observed that at the end of the ripening (MR stage),  
173 fruit skin presented the lower values of lightness ( $L^*$ ) but higher values of chroma ( $C^*_{ab}$ )  
174 compared to the initial stage (MG). The evolution of the quantitative colour attributes ( $L^*$   
175 and  $C^*_{ab}$ ) indicates that tomato fruit skin tended to get darker and with more intense  
176 coloration during the ripening progress. This colour variation was more evident between  
177 the TP and the MG stages, when fruits are characterized by a higher rate of *de novo*  
178 biosynthesis and accumulation of pigments in the fruit. In case of the variety AC the  
179 colour change could be related to a higher accumulation of carotenoids, while, in case of  
180 AFT and SB, it could be related to the simultaneous effect of carotenoids and  
181 anthocyanins accumulation. With respect to the qualitative attribute of colour (hue,  $h_{ab}$ ),  
182 a progressive decrease of hue values was observed during the ripening, being the effect  
183 more marked for SB variety (from  $115^\circ$  to values close to  $0^\circ$  or even negative).

184 Fig. 1 shows the location of the tomato samples in the CIELAB colour space ( $a^*b^*$ )-plane  
185 and lightness ( $L^*$ ) for each variety at different ripening stages. Independently of the  
186 tomato variety, a shift of samples from the second to the first and four quadrants was  
187 observed during the ripening, that means an evolution of skin tomato color from green to  
188 red-orange-blue hues. This colour variation reflects the natural evolution of the pigments  
189 in tomato fruits, which is characterised by high levels of chlorophylls in not matured fruits  
190 (green colour) and increasing levels of carotenoids and anthocyanins at the end of  
191 ripening period (red-orange-blue colour). This is the case of AC and AFT varieties  
192 (characterised by low or no anthocyanin accumulation), in which some shades of orange  
193 hues due mainly to carotenoids was observed ( $h_{ab}$  values around  $10^\circ$ , red-orange region  
194 in the ( $a^*b^*$ )-plane, Fig. 1a and b). In particular, the SB variety (Fig. 1c) was characterized  
195 by an intense red-blue colour ( $h_{ab}$  values around  $-10^\circ$ , red-blue region in the ( $a^*b^*$ )-plane,  
196 Fig. 1c), which is consistent with the more intense accumulation of anthocyanin pigments.  
197 Based on the dispersion of samples in the ( $a^*b^*$ )-plane, it could be observed that CIELAB  
198 colorimetric data allowed a clear differentiation of the different ripening points for AC  
199 and AFT varieties (higher dispersion between MG, TP, and MR stages). On the other

200 hand, SB variety (which was a richer source anthocyanin pigments) showed a minor  
201 dispersion of data. This could be due to the high rate of anthocyanin biosynthesis and  
202 accumulation from the earlier ripening stages. In this variety, the higher levels of  
203 anthocyanin pigments in skin masked the red-orange color of carotenoids, which is  
204 typical of the intermediate ripening stages of traditional tomato varieties.

205 Considering the fruit colour at the commercial ripening stage (MR) (Fig. 2), it was  
206 possible to clearly distinguish between the varieties studied. In the genotypes AC and  
207 AFT, in which carotenoids were predominant, a more vivid color (higher  $C^*_{ab}$  values)  
208 and a red/orange hue ( $h_{ab}$  between 0 and 10 °) were observed. By contrast, fruits from the  
209 variety SB, showing higher predominance of anthocyanins, had less intense but darker  
210 bluish colour (samples were closer to the origin of axes into the color diagram and showed  
211 lower values of  $L^*$ ).

212 The firmness of the fruits of three varieties were monitored during development (Fig. 3).  
213 The softening pattern of AC and AFT with a similar reduction rate in firmness. The SB  
214 fruits had a similar firmness loss until the TP development stage, but at MR stage showed  
215 higher values compared with the other varieties, 2.5 Kgf. Along with the progression of  
216 ripening it is possible to observe a progressive softening of the fruit and values decrease  
217 from 4.0 and 5.5 Kgf of the initial ripening stage, to 1.0 and 3.0 Kgf when the full  
218 maturation is reached. Firmness is a phenotypic trait which appears to be genetically  
219 determined. In fact, despite the stage of ripening, the two varieties able to synthesize  
220 anthocyanins (AFT and SB), showed fruits more firm compared to the traditional variety  
221 AC, which completely lack in anthocyanin pigments.

222 Ethylene biosynthesis was monitored during development. At the MG stage the ethylene  
223 was similar and very low (1-2 nL g<sup>-1</sup> h<sup>-1</sup>) in all varieties. At the TP stage the higher  
224 ethylene production was observed in the AC varieties, while no difference was observed  
225 between SB and AFT varieties that showed ethylene levels comprised from 15 to 22 nL  
226 g<sup>-1</sup> h<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. 4). At the MR stage the ethylene evolution was the same in all varieties and  
227 was 20 nL g<sup>-1</sup> h<sup>-1</sup> in average.

228 The ABA content was determined in the flesh and peel in the three development stages  
229 (Fig. 5A-B). The higher amount of ABA was found in the peel in all varieties. At MG  
230 stage, the higher values were observed in AC variety with 300 ng g<sup>-1</sup> in the pulp and 1000  
231 ng g<sup>-1</sup> in the peel. In the pulp the ABA was constant during development and values were  
232 similar at TP and MR. In the peel the ABA of AC variety declined at TP and increased at  
233 MR stages. In the SB fruits the ABA increased at TP stage and declined in the MR stage.



234 The highest ABA content was found in the TP stages in both pulp and peel. In the AFT  
235 the ABA showed higher ABA values in the MR stage. In the pulp the ABA was constant  
236 in the MG and TP stages with values of 200 ng g<sup>-1</sup>, while in the MR stage the ABA  
237 increased up to 300 ng g<sup>-1</sup>. The ABA content in the AFT peel fruits slightly increased but  
238 the differences were not statistical significant.

239239

## 240 **Discussion**

241 The anthocyanin content affects the overall tomato quality since influence the visual  
242 appearance and hence the consumer's appeal. The accumulation of these bioactive  
243 compounds can have direct influence on fruits ripening and postharvest performance.  
244 Results obtained confirm the importance of the genotype in influencing the levels of  
245 pigments accumulated in the fruit during the ripening process. The genetic background  
246 determined significant differences in the external appearance of fruit at commercial  
247 ripening stage in terms of both firmness and colour parameters. These evidences were  
248 observed in different fruits such as blueberry and strawberry (Cocetta et al., 2015; Kosar  
249 et al., 2004). Anthocynins are antioxidant compounds able to counteract or modulate the  
250 senescence processes in different plant organs such as leaves, flowers and fruits (Ferrante  
251 et al., 2006; Cao et al., 2011; Wen et al., 2015). The delay of senescence is associated  
252 with reduction of softening. Texture is an important quality parameter for avoiding  
253 mechanical damage during postharvest handling and extend the shelf life of the fruits  
254 (Verheul et al., 2015) and it is also an important quality parameter for the consumer.

255 Ethylene is one of the most important regulator of ripening and senescence of tomato  
256 fruits. It is involved in a wide range of network of enzymes activation and leads to many  
257 physiological and biochemical changes, including softening and aroma production  
258 (Hoeberichts et al., 2002; Alexander and Grierson, 2002). Tomato is a climacteric fruit  
259 and shows an ethylene peak during ripening. In our study, it seems that the higher  
260 anthocyanins content delayed the ethylene climacteric peak in Aft and SB tomatoes. In  
261 AC tomatoes, the ethylene increase was observed at the TP stage, while in AFT and SB  
262 the ethylene was still increasing at the MR stage. SB tomatoes seem to produce less  
263 amount of ethylene and it may explain the retention of firmness.

264 The ABA is another important ripening regulators and its levels change according with  
265 fruit development stages. The lack of ABA in fruit during ripening alter the normal  
266 ripening pathway. In tomatoes fruits, the expression of the key enzyme involved in the

267 ABA biosynthesis, NCED, increased in the breaker stages and the ABA peak was found  
268 at the turning stages (Zhang et al., 2009). These findings were in accordance with the SB  
269 ABA content. The ABA and ethylene are the most important factors of fruit ripening and  
270 their interaction is crucial for the fruit development and postharvest senescence (Sun et  
271 al., 2010). Moreover, ABA is directly involved in fruit pigmentation and accumulation of  
272 nutraceutical compounds (Li et al., 2015).

273 In conclusion, the data obtained show that SB tomatoes have a modified hormone  
274 equilibrium during the various ripening stages that can be considered a consequence of  
275 the anthocyanins accumulation in fruits. SB tomatoes beside the higher concentration of  
276 bioactive compounds have also a good quality traits for the postharvest distribution chain  
277 such as a hardness texture at the commercial stages.

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280280

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1 **Table 1.** Mean values of the colorimetric CIELAB parameters and the Total Anthocyanin  
 2 content (TA,  $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$  DW) in tomato skin for each variety at different ripening stages.

	Ripening stage	AC	AFT	SB
<i>Colour data</i>				
$L^*$	MG	45.6 $\pm$ 1.4 <sub>a</sub>	49.5 $\pm$ 1.0 <sub>b</sub>	35.9 $\pm$ 3.4 <sub>ab</sub>
	TP	53.4 $\pm$ 3.6 <sub>a</sub>	57.5 $\pm$ 6.2 <sub>a</sub>	34.8 $\pm$ 3.9 <sub>b</sub>
	MR	38.7 $\pm$ 2.1 <sub>a</sub>	40.0 $\pm$ 3.1 <sub>a</sub>	32.7 $\pm$ 3.7 <sub>b</sub>
$C^*_{ab}$	MG	35.9 $\pm$ 1.9 <sub>a</sub>	22.2 $\pm$ 2.7 <sub>b</sub>	5.2 $\pm$ 1.9 <sub>c</sub>
	TP	31.1 $\pm$ 11.3 <sub>a</sub>	23.1 $\pm$ 2.6 <sub>a</sub>	10.7 $\pm$ 12.7 <sub>a</sub>
	MR	54.4 $\pm$ 5.9 <sub>a</sub>	62.7 $\pm$ 6.7 <sub>ab</sub>	15.6 $\pm$ 19.3 <sub>c</sub>
$h_{ab}$	MG	135.0 $\pm$ 3.1 <sub>a</sub>	112.6 $\pm$ 3.2 <sub>b</sub>	115.4 $\pm$ 0.1 <sub>b</sub>
	TP	39.3 $\pm$ 17.7 <sub>ab</sub>	58.7 $\pm$ 36.3 <sub>a</sub>	13.7 $\pm$ 4.2 <sub>b</sub>
	MR	6.5 $\pm$ 1.9 <sub>a</sub>	7.2 $\pm$ 2.6 <sub>a</sub>	-8.3 $\pm$ 9.6 <sub>b</sub>
<i>Anthocyanin Content</i>				
TA	MG	-	-	-
	TP	0.00 $\pm$ 0.00 <sub>a</sub>	0.13 $\pm$ 0.01 <sub>a</sub>	29.78 $\pm$ 1.9 <sub>b</sub>
	MR	0.00 $\pm$ 0.00 <sub>a</sub>	4.67 $\pm$ 0.03 <sub>b</sub>	31.26 $\pm$ 0.9 <sub>b</sub>

3 *Different letters in each column indicates significant statistical differences ( $p < 0.05$ ).*

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#### 5 **Figure legend**

6 **Figure 1.** Location of the tomato samples in the CIELAB colour space ( $a^*b^*$ )-plane and  
 7 lightness ( $L^*$ ) for each variety at different ripening stages: a) Ailsa Craig (AC), b) Anthocyanin  
 8 fruit type (AFT), and c) Sun Black (SB).

9 **Figure 2.** Location of the tomato samples in the CIELAB colour space ( $a^*b^*$ )-plane and  
 10 lightness ( $L^*$ ) for each variety at the matured red stage (MR, commercial ripeness grade).

11 **Figure 3.** Evolution of fruit firmness (Kgf) during ripening of the three considered tomato  
 12 varieties. (SB, AFT, AC).

13 **Figure 4.** Changes in the rate of ethylene production in AC, AFT and SB fruits. Tomato fruits  
 14 were harvested at mature green (MG), turning point (TP) and mature red (MR) development  
 15 stages. Data were subjected to a two-way analysis of variance and differences between  
 16 developmental stages were analysed by a Bonferroni posttest. Different letters denote  
 17 significant differences at  $P < 0.5$ . Values are means of at least five independent biological  
 18 samples.

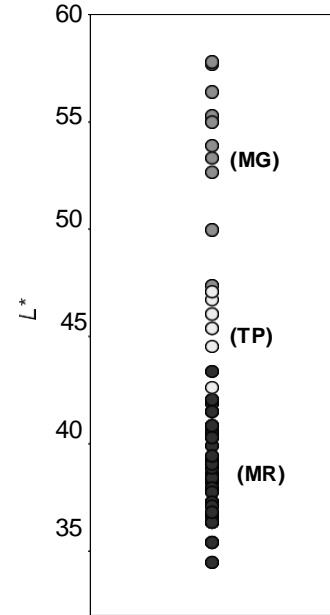
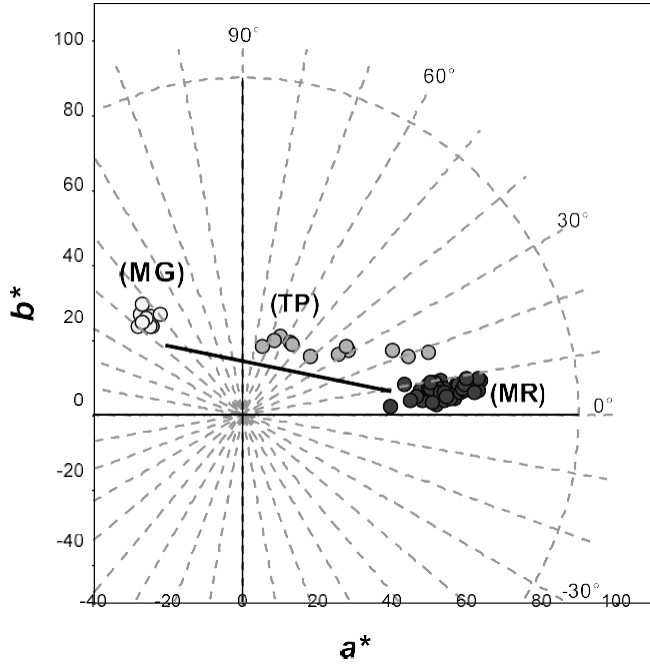
19 **Figure 5.** Endogenous ABA content in two fruit tissues (A, flesh tissue; B peel tissue) of  
 20 tomato at three development stages (mature green MG, turning point TP, and mature red  
 21 MR). Data were subjected to a two-way analysis of variance. Different letters denote  
 22 significant differences (Bonferroni post test,  $P < 0.05$ ) of ABA content. Values are means of  
 23 at least five independent biological samples with two technical replications for each sample

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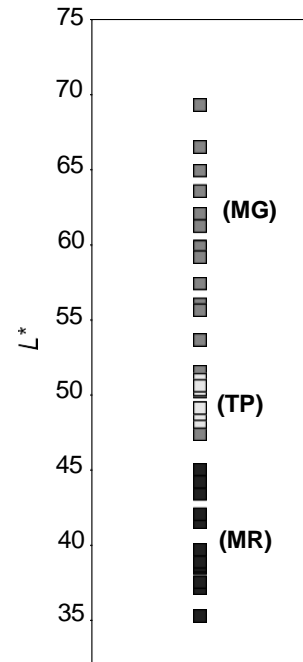
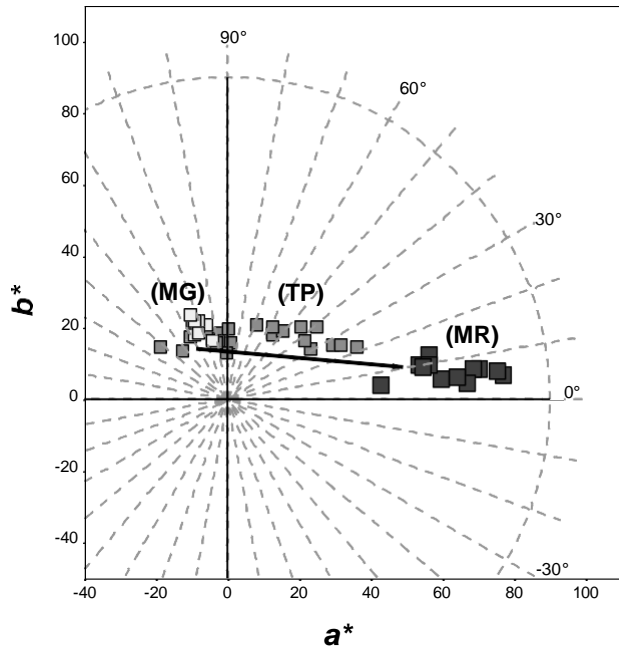
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26 **Fig. 1**

**a)**



**b)**

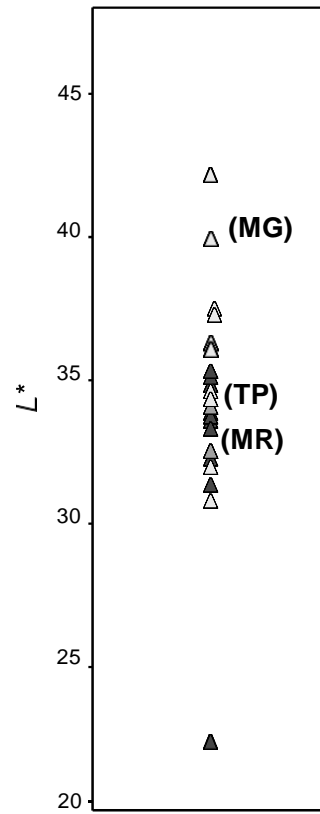
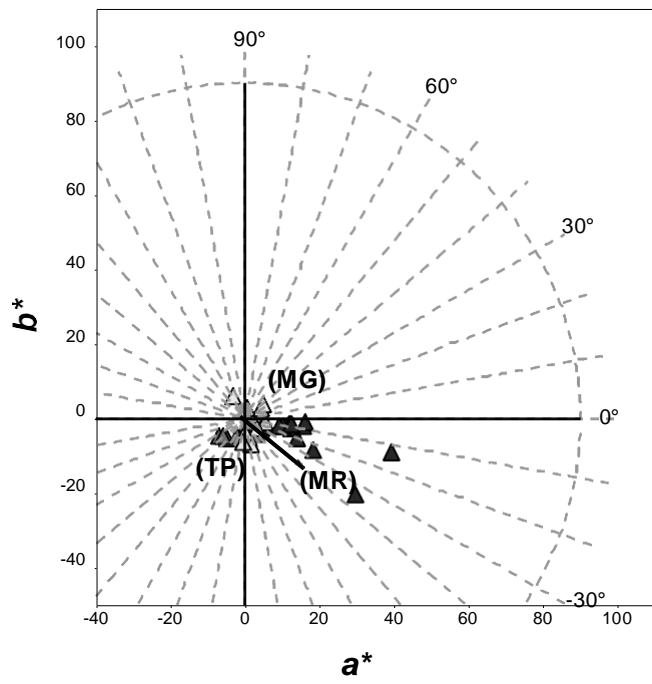


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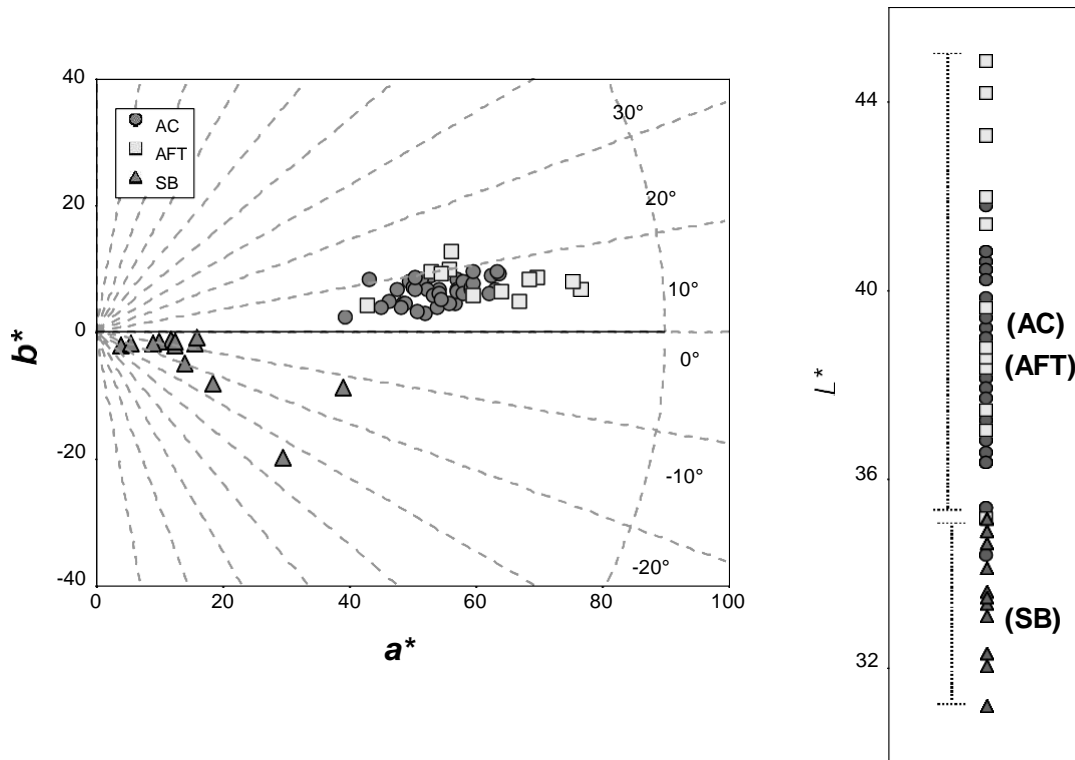
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c)



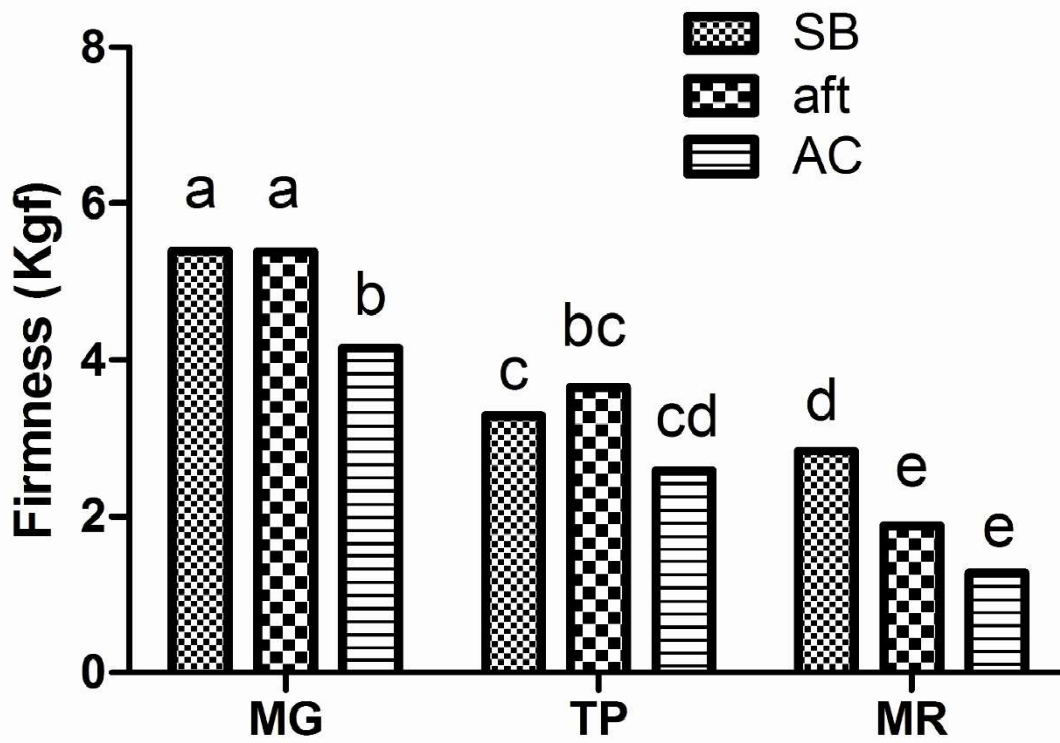
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**Fig. 2**



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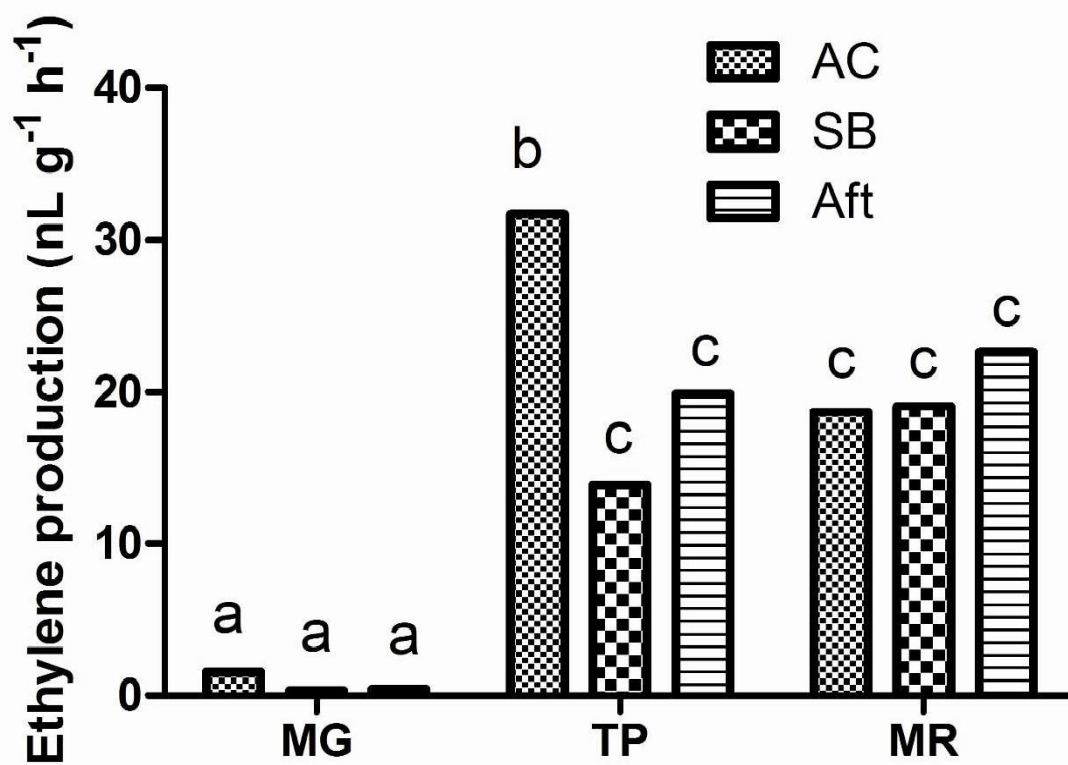
46 Fig. 3



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48 Fig. 4





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Fig. 5

