

Manuscript Number: PLAPHY-D-17-00240R1

Title: Structural changes in cell wall pectins during strawberry fruit development

Article Type: Research Paper

Keywords: Atomic force microscopy; cell wall; *Fragaria × ananassa*; fruit ripening; fruit softening; pectins.

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Abstract: Strawberry (*Fragaria × ananassa* Duch.) is one of the most important soft fruit. Rapid loss of firmness occurs during the ripening process, resulting in a short shelf life and high economic losses. To get insight into the role of pectin matrix in the softening process, cell walls from strawberry fruit at two developmental stages, unripe-green and ripe-red, were extracted and sequentially fractionated with different solvents to obtain fractions enriched in a specific component. The yield of cell wall material as well as the per fresh weight contents of the different fractions decreased in ripe fruit. The largest reduction was observed in the pectic fractions extracted with a chelating agent (trans-1,2-diaminocyclohexane-N,N,N'-tetraacetic acid, CDTA fraction) and those covalently bound to the wall (extracted with Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub>). Uronic acid content of these two fractions also decreased significantly during ripening, but the amount of soluble pectins extracted with phenol:acetic acid:water (PAW) and water increased in ripe fruit. Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy of the different fractions showed that the degree of esterification decreased in CDTA pectins but increased in soluble fractions at ripen stage. The chromatographic analysis of pectin fractions by gel filtration revealed that CDTA, water and, mainly PAW polyuronides were depolymerised in ripe fruit. By contrast, the size of Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> pectins was not modified. The nanostructural characteristics of CDTA and Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> pectins were analysed by atomic force microscopy (AFM). Isolated pectic chains present in the CDTA fractions were significantly longer and more branched in samples from green fruit than those from red fruit. No differences in contour length were observed in Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> strands between samples of both stages. However, the percentage of branched chains decreased from 19.7 % in unripe samples to 3.4 % in ripe fruit. The number of pectin aggregates was higher in green fruit samples of both fractions. These results show that the nanostructural complexity of pectins present in CDTA and Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> fractions diminishes during fruit development, and this correlates with the solubilisation of pectins and the softening of the fruit.



May, 11 2017

Dear Editor

Please find enclosed the revised version of our ms number PLAPHY-D-17-00240 entitled "Structural changes in cell wall pectins during strawberry fruit development" by Paniagua et al.

Changes made in the manuscript are labelled in red.

Looking forward to hearing from you

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1 **Structural changes in cell wall pectins during strawberry fruit**  
2 **development**

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27 **Abstract**

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29 loss of firmness occurs during the ripening process, resulting in a short shelf life and  
30 high economic losses. To get insight into the role of pectin matrix in the softening  
31 process, cell walls from strawberry fruit at two developmental stages, unripe-green and  
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42 stage. The chromatographic analysis of pectin fractions by gel filtration revealed that  
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47 and more branched in samples from green fruit than those from red fruit. No differences  
48 in contour length were observed in Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> strands between samples of both stages.  
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52 present in CDTA and Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> fractions diminishes during fruit development, and this  
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54 **Keywords:** Atomic force microscopy, cell wall, *Fragaria × ananassa*, fruit ripening,  
55 fruit softening, pectins

## 57 1. Introduction

58 Ripening of fleshy fruit is a combination of physiological and biochemical processes  
59 that make edible fruit more attractive to seed dispersal organisms (Gapper et al., 2013).  
60 In soft fruit such as strawberry, the rapid loss of firm texture is one of the most  
61 noticeable changes during ripening, but it poses a major problem to strawberry growers  
62 due to the short postharvest life of this commodity. It is generally accepted that the  
63 modification of the physical and chemical features of parenchyma cell walls and the  
64 loss of intercellular adhesion resulting from the dissolution of the middle lamella are the  
65 major determining factors of fruit softening (Brummell, 2006; Goulao and Oliveira,  
66 2008; Mercado et al., 2011). Nevertheless, the biochemical mechanisms underlying  
67 softening are not completely clear.

68 Strawberry softening is characterised by an increase in pectin solubilisation, i.e. an  
69 increase in the amount of pectins loosely bound to the cell wall, extracted with water  
70 but also with chelating agents such as CDTA in some cultivars (Huber, 1984; Koh and  
71 Melton, 2002; Posé et al., 2011). The **increasing levels of** soluble pectins is paralleled  
72 with a **decrease in** the amount of covalently bound pectins, those supposedly located in  
73 the primary cell wall, mainly extracted with sodium carbonate (Posé et al., 2011).  
74 Several hypotheses about the causes of pectin solubilisation during fruit ripening have  
75 been proposed (Paniagua et al., 2014). One of them relies on the loss of arabinan and  
76 galactan side chains from rhamnogalacturonan I (RGI) (Gross and Sams, 1984;

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77 Redgwell et al., 1997a), weakening the cell wall network. Moreover, the loss of neutral  
78 sugars might also increase the cell wall porosity, which could facilitate the access of  
79 pectinases to their substrates (Smith et al., 2002). In accordance with this, the silencing  
80 of a  $\beta$ -galactosidase gene reduced strawberry fruit softening and this was related to a  
81 lower pectin solubilisation and an increased content of galactose in cell walls (Paniagua  
82 et al., 2016). However, not all the types of fruit show a correlation between the loss of  
83 neutral sugar residues and pectin solubilisation (Redgwell et al., 1997a).

84 As an alternative hypothesis, depolymerisation of chelated and/or covalently bound  
85 pectins as result of the action of pectinases, e.g. polygalacturonase, pectin methyl  
86 esterase or pectate lyase, may facilitate the solubilisation of pectic components not  
87 previously present in the soluble fractions (Redgwell et al., 1997b; Rose et al., 1998;  
88 Vicente et al., 2005). In strawberry, the role of pectin depolymerisation in fruit  
89 softening is **unclear**. Some authors did not find changes in the average molecular weight  
90 of polyuronides during strawberry ripening (Huber, 1984; Redgwell et al., 1997a; Lee et  
91 al., 2011) while others observed a significant depolymerisation of bound pectins,  
92 depending on the cultivar studied (Rosli et al., 2004). Although there is not a general  
93 consensus about the importance of polyuronide depolymerisation, functional analyses of  
94 genes encoding **pectin degrading enzymes** suggest a key role of this process in the  
95 changes in texture taking place during strawberry development. Thus, the down-  
96 regulation of a pectate lyase or a polygalacturonase gene by antisense transformation  
97 increased strawberry fruit firmness at the red stage and improved postharvest shelf life  
98 (Jiménez-Bermúdez et al., 2002; Quesada et al., 2009).

99 Most studies dealing with the role of pectins in strawberry fruit texture analysed  
100 polyuronides by classical techniques such as size exclusion chromatography. Recently,  
101 Posé et al. (2015) used atomic force microscopy (AFM) to characterize the effect of

102 pectate lyase and polygalaturonase genes silencing in pectin nanostructure. They found  
103 that down-regulation of both genes increased pectin chains length and their structural  
104 complexity, the magnitude of these changes being correlated with the increase in fruit  
105 firmness.

106 The main objective of this research was to analyse and compare the cell wall  
107 complexity in green and red strawberry fruit, focusing the structural changes that occurs  
108 in the chelated and covalently bound pectin fractions.

## 110 2. Materials and methods

### 111 2.1. Plant material

112 Strawberry (*Fragaria × ananassa* Duch., cv. ‘Chandler’) plants obtained by runner  
113 propagation were grown in 22 cm diameter pots containing a mixture of peat moss, sand  
114 and perlite (6:3:1). These plants were cultured in a greenhouse until fruiting, under  
115 natural photoperiod and temperature conditions. Fruit were collected from March to  
116 June. After harvest, fruit were immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -25 °C  
117 until used. Two developmental stages were selected, green-unripe and red-ripe (Fig.1A).  
118 Fruit from the green stage were about 1 cm in diameter displaying both green receptacle  
119 and green achenes. Ripe red fruit were characterized by its fully red receptacle and soft  
120 texture.

### 122 2.2. Cell wall extraction and fractionation

123 Achenes from frozen fruit were removed and the cell wall from fruit receptacles  
124 was extracted following the method of Redgwell et al. (1992), as modified by Santiago-  
125 Doménech et al. (2008). This procedure yielded cell wall material (CWM) and polymers  
126 soluble in PAW (phenol:acetic acid:water, 2:1:1, w:v:v), solvent used to inactivate

127 enzymes (PAW fraction). The CWM (80 mg) was sequentially extracted following the  
128 procedure of Santiago-Doménech et al. (2008) to obtain fractions enriched in pectins  
129 (water, CDTA and sodium carbonate solubilised fractions) and two hemicellulose  
130 enriched fractions extracted with 1M KOH and 4M KOH. Pectin fractions to be  
131 analysed by AFM were stored until required at -20 °C as aqueous solutions, in order to  
132 avoid possible aggregation induced by freeze-drying.

133 The uronic acid (UA) content in PAW and cell wall fractions was measured by the  
134 carbazol method as reported by Filisetti-Cozzi and Carpita (1991), using GalA as  
135 standard. The total neutral sugar content was determined by the orcinol method  
136 (Rimington, 1931) using glucose as standard. For neutral sugars analysis of CDTA and  
137 Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> fractions, samples were hydrolysed with 72 % (w/w) sulphuric acid. After  
138 neutralization with ammonia, carbohydrates were derivatised to alditol acetates and  
139 analysed by gas chromatography with flame ionization detection (Blakeney et al.,  
140 1983). GC analysis was carried out in triplicate.

### 142 *2.3. Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy*

143 Dried samples were used to capture the infrared spectra with an Attenuated Total  
144 Reflectance (ATR) accessory (MIRacle ATR, PIKE Technologies, USA) coupled to a  
145 Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) spectrometer (FT/IR-4100, JASCO, Spain). The  
146 samples were processed as described by Posé et al. (2012) and the spectra were  
147 collected in the 4000–600 cm<sup>-1</sup> range with a resolution of 4 cm<sup>-1</sup> and averaged over 25  
148 scans per sample.

### 150 *2.4. Size exclusion chromatography*

151 The gel filtration chromatography measurements were performed as described  
152 previously by Santiago-Doménech et al. (2008). Briefly, pectin fractions were loaded  
153 onto a 40 cm height × 10 mm internal diameter column filled with Sepharose (Sigma-  
154 Aldrich Química SA, Spain) CL6B for PAW and water fractions or CL2B for CDTA  
155 and sodium carbonate pectins. Gel medium was equilibrated with 0.2 M acetate buffer,  
156 pH 5, for PAW, water and CDTA fractions, or 0.1 M TRIS-HCl buffer, pH 8.4, for  
157 sodium carbonate samples. Samples, 6-8 mg, were dissolved in the corresponding  
158 equilibration buffer, loaded on the column and eluted at a 14 mL h<sup>-1</sup> flow rate. Blue  
159 dextran standard (2000 kDa) and acetone were used for column calibration. Fractions (1  
160 mL) were collected and assayed for uronic acids (Filisetti-Cozzi and Carpita,1991).

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### 162 *2.5. Atomic force microscopy*

163 The ionically and covalently-bound pectin fractions, corresponding to CDTA and  
164 sodium carbonate soluble polymers, respectively, were analysed by AFM as described  
165 by Posé et al. (2012). Briefly, samples were diluted in water to a concentration of 2-4  
166 mg L<sup>-1</sup>. Then, 3 µL were pipetted onto freshly-cleaved mica and dried over a heating  
167 block at 37 °C. The sample was then inserted into the liquid cell of the AFM microscope  
168 (manufactured by ECS, East Coast Scientific, Cambridge, UK) and visualized under re-  
169 distilled butanol. Butanol was used as an imaging solvent to limit desorption of the  
170 molecules from the substrate and to eliminate capillary condensation effects (Kirby et  
171 al., 1996; Round et al., 2001). Short tip variety AFM probe model contact cantilevers  
172 (Budget Sensors, Bulgaria) were used with a 13 kHz resonance frequency and a 0.4 N  
173 m<sup>-1</sup> force constant. The samples were scanned in contact mode at a frequency of 2 Hz.  
174 More than 30 images with an area 1 µm<sup>2</sup> were collected for each sample.

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176 *2.6. AFM image analysis*

177 The ECS software (SPM 6.01, Cambridge, UK) was used for chain height analysis  
178 (Kirby et al., 1996). The height of the chains was used to differentiate true branch points  
179 from entangled chains. Further analyses were applied offline. Initially, the original  
180 AFM files were converted to TIFF files using Paint Shop Pro v. 5.00 software. Image  
181 contrast and stripe correction were optimized using Gwyddion v2.32 software. Contour  
182 length measurements, defined as total length including backbone and branches, were  
183 analysed by plotting the length of the chains with the freehand tool of ImageJ software  
184 (Adams et al., 2003; Posé et al., 2012). Individual molecules were defined as strands  
185 that were not entangled with, or overlapping other strands, that were long enough to be  
186 exactly visualized, and which lay entirely within the scanned area (Adams et al., 2003).  
187 A minimum of 600 chains were measured per sample and the results represented as  
188 frequency histograms. Number-average ( $L_N$ ) and weight-average ( $L_W$ ) contour lengths,  
189 as well as polydispersity index (PDI) calculated as the ratio  $L_W/L_N$ , were estimated as  
190 described previously (Posé et al., 2012).

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192 *2.7. Statistical analysis*

193 The SPSS software (v.23) was used for statistical analyses. Data were analysed by  
194 ANOVA and mean separation was done by Tukey-HSD. The Levene test for  
195 homogeneity of variances was performed prior to ANOVA. For AFM statistical  
196 analyses, thirty images per sample were collected to obtain representative data of the  
197 pectin samples. The median from the original data distributions were compared with the  
198 non-parametric Kruskal–Wallis test. Differences in the branching of the polymer chains,  
199 presence/absence of side chains, were analysed by Chi-square test. All statistical tests  
200 were performed at  $P = 0.05$ .

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### 202 3. Results

#### 203 3.1 Cell wall yield and fractionation

204 The yield of CWM per weight of tissue on a fresh weight basis was around three times  
205 higher in unripe than ripe fruit, 34 vs 9 g kg<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. No significant differences  
206 were found in the amount of polymers solubilised with PAW between green and red  
207 fruit extracts, yielding a mean PAW value of 0.6 g kg<sup>-1</sup> of fruit. However, the ratio  
208 PAW:CWM increased from 0.017 in the green stage to 0.67 in ripe fruit. CWM was  
209 sequentially extracted with different solvents to obtain cell wall fractions enriched in  
210 specific polymers. The amount of the fractions rich in pectins, i.e. CDTA and Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub>,  
211 decreased significantly in ripe fruit (Fig. 1B). By contrast, the weight of fractions rich in  
212 hemicellulosic material, solubilised by KOH 1 M and 4 M, as well as the water fraction  
213 decreased slightly in red fruit, but these differences were not statistically significant  
214 (Fig. 1B).

215 The uronic acid (UA) content in the different cell wall fractions is shown in Fig.  
216 2A. In both fruit stages, the highest amount of UA was observed in the CDTA fraction  
217 followed by the sodium carbonate fraction. As expected, the lowest pectic contents were  
218 obtained in both KOH fractions. Uronic acid content in the water soluble fraction was  
219 significantly higher in red fruit than in green fruit. Conversely, ripe fruit showed  
220 reduced amounts of UA in all the other fractions, especially in CDTA and sodium  
221 carbonate fractions (Fig. 2A). As regards PAW fraction, the amount of UA increased  
222 with ripening from 0.17±0.03 g kg<sup>-1</sup> of fruit to 0.53±0.05 g kg<sup>-1</sup>. The contents of neutral  
223 sugars decreased notably in CDTA, sodium carbonate and 4M KOH fractions in red  
224 fruit but remained at similar levels in both stages in the cases of water and 1M KOH  
225 fractions (Fig. 2B).

226

227 *3.2 ATR-FTIR analysis*

228 The cell wall fractions enriched in pectins from unripe and ripe fruit were analysed by  
229 ATR-FTIR and the spectra obtained are shown in Fig. 3. Main differences between both  
230 developmental stages for some fractions were observed in the region 1200-950  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ , the  
231 typical fingerprint of polysaccharides, and in the ratio 1735/1600  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ , indicative of the  
232 degree of pectin methylesterification. In the PAW fraction from green fruit, the peak at  
233 1735  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  arising from the ester carbonyl stretching band was low and by contrast the  
234 absorption band at around 1600  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  was higher due to the asymmetric and symmetric  
235  $\text{COO}^-$  stretching bands. The peak at 1735  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  increased in ripe fruit suggesting a higher  
236 degree of esterification in the PAW fraction as the fruit ripen. A similar result was  
237 obtained in the water fraction. However, the spectral profiles of CDTA fractions suggest  
238 that the degree of methylation decreased from green to red fruit. As expected, the peak  
239 at 1735  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  in the carbonate fraction disappeared as a result of the elimination of ester  
240 linkages during the alkaline extraction.

241 In the fingerprint region, 1200-950  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ , of both water and CDTA spectral profiles  
242 from green and red fruit, main peaks were observed at 1097 and 1015  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ , absorption  
243 bands typical of polygalacturonic acid. Carbonate profiles also showed the strongest  
244 peak at 1015  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ; however, the band at 1097  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  diminished whereas bands at 1075,  
245 1050 and 953  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  increased. This result suggests a different carbohydrate composition  
246 of the carbonate fraction which is probably enriched in neutral sugars (Kacuráková et  
247 al., 2000). Interestingly, the higher intensity of 1015  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  band in the carbonate  
248 spectrum from red fruit when compared with green fruit suggests a decrease in the  
249 amount of neutral sugars in the carbonate fraction as the fruit ripen. It is noticeable that  
250 the fingerprint region of PAW fraction from red fruit was similar to the one observed in

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251 carbonate fraction at the ripe stage. However, the PAW FTIR spectrum from green fruit  
252 showed a broad peak with a maximum at  $1038\text{ cm}^{-1}$ , but low absorption at 1097, 1015  
253 and  $1143\text{ cm}^{-1}$ , indicating a minor amount of polygalacturonic acid in this fraction at  
254 this stage.

255

### 256 *3.3 Size exclusion chromatography of pectin fractions*

257 Chromatographic profiles of pectic polymers present in the pectin enriched fractions in  
258 unripe and ripe fruit are shown in Fig. 4. In unripe fruit, PAW and water-soluble  
259 polyuronides showed a main peak at the beginning of the profile that eluted at 13 mL,  
260 close to the elution volume of blue dextran but with a lower molecular mass than 2000  
261 kDa. This main peak was followed by a tail of lower molecular mass pectins extending  
262 throughout the separation range of the column. This tail was more complex in the case  
263 of the profile of the water fraction obtained from green fruit which contained a higher  
264 representation of small molecular mass pectins. A clear decrease on the average  
265 molecular mass of PAW soluble polymers was observed in ripe fruit as reflected by the  
266 displacement of the main pectic peak to higher elution volumes, and the enrichment of  
267 the profile with middle size pectins, eluting between 15 and 25 mL. Similarly, the main  
268 peak eluting at 13 mL in water fraction from unripe fruit was displaced to the right in  
269 ripe fruit and the lower molecular mass peaks disappeared, suggesting a  
270 depolymerisation of these polyuronides during fruit development.

271 Polymers present in the CDTA fraction eluted throughout the fractionation range of  
272 the column. In unripe fruit, three main peaks at 17, 19 and 22.5 mL elution volumes  
273 were observed (Fig. 4). These main peaks were displaced towards lower molecular mass  
274 in ripe fruit. As regards sodium carbonate soluble pectins, a similar displacement was  
275 observed in the first peak, which eluted at 11.5 mL vs 12.5 mL in samples from green

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276 and red fruit, respectively. A second broader peak of polymers, eluting between 20 and  
277 27 mL, was observed at both developmental stages with minor differences between both  
278 type of fruit.

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#### 280 *3.4. Neutral sugar composition of CDTA and sodium carbonate pectin fractions*

281 Composition of neutral sugars in CDTA and sodium carbonate fractions in unripe and  
282 ripe fruit is shown in Fig. 5. Arabinose and galactose were the most abundant  
283 carbohydrates in both pectin fractions, accounting for more than 85 % of neutral sugars.  
284 The proportion of Ara decreased notably as the fruit ripen, especially in the sodium  
285 carbonate fraction. By contrast, the percentage of Gal was not modified in CDTA  
286 fraction and increased in the carbonate fraction during ripening. Considering both  
287 carbohydrates, the mol % of Ara plus Gal decreased by 21 % and 14 % in CDTA and  
288 sodium carbonate fractions, respectively.

289

#### 290 *3.5. AFM analysis of CDTA and sodium carbonate pectin fractions*

291 CDTA and sodium carbonate soluble polymers were analysed at the nanostructural level  
292 by AFM since these two fractions contained the highest amount of pectins.  
293 Representative topographical AFM images of CDTA pectins from unripe and ripe fruit  
294 are shown in Fig.6. **Zoomed images of the different structures visualized in AFM  
295 samples are shown in Fig.6A-F.** Linear filamentous chains with few side chains were  
296 mainly present in CDTA samples at both developmental stages. Apparently, the isolated  
297 pectic chains were longer in unripe fruit samples. In addition, polymer aggregates with  
298 micellar-like appearance were more frequent in unripe fruit samples. Contrary to CDTA  
299 pectins, topographical AFM images from sodium carbonate soluble polymers did not  
300 show significant differences in the contour length of isolated pectic chains from unripe

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301 and ripe fruit samples. However, branched chains and aggregate structures were more  
302 frequently observed in unripe samples.

303 Contour lengths of isolated polymer chains at both developmental stages were  
304 recorded. The length distributions in CDTA fraction were in the range 25 to 533 nm and  
305 18 to 277 nm, in unripe and ripe fruit samples, respectively (Fig. 7). Conversely, the  
306 length distribution of Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> pectin samples ranged between 9 and 305 nm in unripe  
307 samples and 10 to 255 nm in ripe fruit (Fig. 7). In both fractions, the range of length  
308 distribution was wider for green fruit samples, including pectic isolated chains longer  
309 than 300 nm in CDTA fraction and 275 nm in sodium carbonate fraction. These longer  
310 chains were not present in the samples of the ripe stage. Furthermore, CDTA samples  
311 from unripe fruit showed a higher proportion of middle-sizes chains within the classes  
312 ranged from 75 to 150 nm; however, in samples from red fruit the frequencies of chains  
313 within this range decreased and an evident increase of the frequencies of chain in  
314 classes 50 and 75 nm was observed.

315 The number-average ( $L_N$ ), weight-average ( $L_W$ ) and polydispersity indexes (PDI)  
316 for the shape of contour length distributions are shown in Table 1. The median, as a  
317 more appropriate average for asymmetrical distributions, was used to compare length  
318 distributions statistically. As fruit ripen,  $L_N$  and  $L_W$  values from CDTA pectins  
319 significantly decreased from 103 nm for green fruit to 75 nm for the red ones. However,  
320  $L_N$  and  $L_W$  values in Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> fraction were similar at both developmental stages despite  
321 the presence at low frequency of longer pectin chains in the contour length distribution  
322 of unripe fruit samples.

323 Branched pectic chains were observed in both pectin fractions from either unripe or  
324 ripe fruit; however, its frequency decreased significantly during ripening (Table 2).  $L_N$

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325 and  $L_W$  values of branches were not significantly affected by fruit development, being  
326 also similar in pectins from CDTA and sodium carbonate fractions.

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#### 328 **4. Discussion**

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##### 330 *4.1. The amount of soluble pectins increases during fruit development*

331 The amount of cell walls per fruit decreased significantly during strawberry  
332 development, as previously observed in other studies (Redgwell et al., 1997b; Koh and  
333 Melton, 2002; Rosli et al., 2004). Similarly, the yield of all cell wall fractions  
334 diminished in ripe fruit when compared with unripe fruit, being the largest **decrease**  
335 observed in the pectin-enriched fractions, i.e. CDTA and sodium carbonate.  
336 Interestingly, KOH 4 M fraction, which is enriched in hemicellulosic material, showed  
337 the smaller decrease in fraction yield as the fruit ripen. Contrary to the cell wall, the  
338 yield of PAW solubilised polymers was similar in both developmental stages. However,  
339 taking into account that the CWM amount was much lower in red fruit, this similar  
340 PAW yield in a per fruit base indicates a higher solubilisation of the CWM in this  
341 developmental stage.

342 Previous studies found that the amount of soluble pectins, those extracted with  
343 PAW or water, increased during strawberry fruit development (Woodward, 1972;  
344 Redgwell et al., 1997b; Koh and Melton, 2002). Redgwell et al. (1997b) observed that  
345 unripe strawberries contained 35-40 % less PAW soluble pectins than ripe fruit. In  
346 addition, the suppression of a polygalacturonase gene, *FaPG1*, reduced the amount of  
347 PAW soluble pectins in red fruit while increasing the amount of bound pectins (Posé et  
348 al., 2013). PAW fraction represents polymers solubilised by in vivo processes  
349 (Redgwell et al., 1992). Our results indicate a solubilisation of pectins during fruit

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350 development. The **increase** in the polyuronide content in PAW soluble fraction,  
351 calculated as the difference in pectin content between unripe and ripe fruit, was 0.37 g  
352 kg<sup>-1</sup> fruit, a similar value to that reported by Redgwell et al. (1997b) for cv. ‘Pajaro’,  
353 0.62 g kg<sup>-1</sup> fruit. The amount of pectins soluble in water also increased in ripe fruit. The  
354 higher amounts of pectins in PAW and water was paralleled to a decrease in ionically  
355 and covalently-bound pectins, suggesting that pectins tightly bound to the cell wall are  
356 the main sources of naturally solubilized pectins.

#### 358 *4.2 Several factors contribute to the solubilisation of pectins*

359 Several hypotheses have been formulated to explain the process of pectin solubilisation  
360 during fruit ripening, i.e., the loss of arabinan and galactan side chains from RGI, the  
361 depolymerisation of chelated or covalently bound pectins, a progressive  
362 demethylesterification of HG, or the synthesis of new pectins more soluble (Paniagua et  
363 al., 2014).

364 In this study, the ATR-FTIR profiles of Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> fraction suggest that the amount of  
365 neutral sugars decreased as the fruit ripen. The analysis of neutral sugar composition by  
366 gas chromatography confirmed that Ara and Gal were the two major components in  
367 Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub>, as well as CDTA fractions, and that Ara decreased notably in ripe fruit. The  
368 amount of arabinose was particularly high in the Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> fraction at the unripe stage,  
369 suggesting the presence of highly branched arabinans. Koh and Melton (2002) also  
370 described a decrease in the Ara content in both pectin fractions during strawberry  
371 ripening. The expression of  $\alpha$ -L-Arabinofuranosidase and  $\beta$ -Galactosidase genes has  
372 been related to the loss of neutral sugars during strawberry ripening (Rosli et al., 2009;  
373 Trainotti et al., 2001) and, recently, it has been found that the down-regulation of one of

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374 these  $\beta$ -galactosidase genes increased cell wall galactose content in ripe fruit and  
375 reduced strawberry softening (Paniagua et al., 2016).

376 **In regard to** pectin depolymerisation, the chromatographic profiles of pectin fractions  
377 indicated a reduction in the average molecular weight of polyuronides present in soluble  
378 fractions, PAW and water, and in both bound fraction as the fruit ripen. Although the  
379 changes in the profiles of the sodium carbonate fractions were smaller and only affected  
380 the first peak. Previous size exclusion chromatography analyses of strawberry pectins  
381 during ripening yielded contradictory results. Redgwell et al. (1997b) observed a slight  
382 depolymerisation of PAW polymers during ripening of strawberry fruit, cv. 'Pajaro',  
383 but **no** change in the CDTA fraction. Figueroa et al. (2010) did not observe any  
384 modification in the chromatographic profiles of water soluble polymers from green and  
385 ripe fruit, cv. 'Chandler', but they found a depolymerisation of covalently bound pectins  
386 extracted with HCl. A similar result was found by Rosli et al. (2004) in 'Toyonaka'  
387 fruit, although no depolymerisation of HCl pectins was observed during the ripening of  
388 either 'Camarosa' or 'Pajaro' fruit. Despite these **contradictory** results, a strong support  
389 for the role of pectin depolymerisation in the cell wall disassembly process during  
390 strawberry fruit ripening has been obtained through the transgenic manipulation of  
391 pectinase genes. The silencing of ripening-specific polygalaturonase or pectate lyase  
392 genes reduced fruit softening and in the case of bound pectins, this was associated with  
393 a higher molecular mass of some population of polymers resolved by size exclusion  
394 chromatography and, in general, with longer chains observed by AFM (Santiago-  
395 Doménech et al., 2008; Posé et al., 2015).

396 Pectins are secreted into the wall as highly methylesterified and later processed by  
397 pectin methyl esterases (**PME**), which catalyze their demethylesterification releasing  
398 acidic pectins. PME is important in cell wall loosening since polygalacturonase activity

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399 needs blocks of at least four de-esterified galacturonic acid residues (Chen and Mort,  
400 1996). According to Draye and Van Cutsem (2008), the level of methylesterification in  
401 strawberry fruit, as well as PME, decreased from the green to the ripe stage. Our results  
402 also indicate a decrease in the methylesterification of CDTA pectins during ripening,  
403 but the degree of esterification increased in soluble pectins, PAW and water fractions,  
404 as the fruit ripen. This result could be explained by the solubilization of ionically bound  
405 pectins into more soluble polyuronides during fruit ripening.

#### 407 *4.3. Nanostructural changes in bound pectins during the ripening process*

408 AFM has been used to explore the modifications of pectin structure during ripening of  
409 several fruit (Yang et al., 2009; Zareie et al., 2003). Pectins are usually visualized in  
410 AFM images as linear chains and micellar aggregates. It has been proposed that strands,  
411 backbone and branches, are mainly formed by polygalacturonic acid while micellar  
412 aggregates are complex structures formed by HG and RGI (Round et al., 2001; Round  
413 et al., 2010; Paniagua et al., 2017). CDTA linear chains were longer than those observed  
414 in the carbonate fraction samples at both developmental stages, as previously observed  
415 in ripe strawberry (Posé et al., 2012) and peach (Yang et al., 2009) or unripe tomato  
416 (Kirby et al., 2008). The analysis of AFM images from CDTA samples revealed that  
417 linear chains from unripe fruit were significantly longer than those from ripe fruit. The  
418 percentage of CDTA branched chains also decreased significantly in ripe fruit. By  
419 contrast, the median values of the pectic chains present in carbonate fraction samples  
420 were similar at both developmental stages, suggesting that these pectins are not  
421 depolymerised during fruit development. **Although  $L_N$  and  $L_W$  values were similar in**  
422 **unripe and ripe carbonate pectins, contour length distributions were slightly different;**  
423 **the unripe samples showed a small proportion of long pectic chains, higher than 300 nm**

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424 length, that were not present in samples from red fruit. However, the most noticeable  
425 change detected by AFM in carbonate fraction was the decrease in the percentage of  
426 branched chains, from 19 to 3 % in unripe and ripe samples, respectively, and the  
427 reduction in the number of micellar aggregates. Altogether, AFM results show that the  
428 structural complexity of ionically and covalently bound pectins is substantially reduced  
429 as the fruit ripen. The degradation of the pectin matrix continues after harvest during  
430 fruit storage; Chen et al. (2011) observed that pectin chain widths and lengths decreased  
431 during strawberry storage at 4 °C for 15 d, contributing to the loss of fruit firmness.  
432 Pectinase enzymes such as polygalacturonase and pectate lyase should be involved in  
433 the disassembly of bound pectins, since the structural features of pectins in transgenic  
434 ripe fruit with low expression levels of these genes, reported by Posé et al. (2015),  
435 resemble the characteristics here described for unripe fruit.

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#### 437 *4.4. Conclusions*

438 The increase in soluble pectins at the expense of ionically (CDTA fraction) and  
439 covalently (Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> fraction) bound polyuronides is the main cell wall change taking  
440 place during the transition from green-unripe to red-ripe strawberry fruit. The  
441 chromatographic analysis of pectin fractions indicates that CDTA pectins were  
442 depolymerised in ripe fruit, but not Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> polyuronides. Additionally, the amount of  
443 Ara was notably reduced in both fractions at the ripe stage. The nanostructure of bound  
444 pectins has been analysed by AFM. The results obtained suggest a reduction of the  
445 structural complexity of pectins during fruit development. Thus, pectic chains displayed  
446 a lower number of branches and the number of pectin aggregates was reduced in the  
447 samples of red fruit. This set of chemical, biochemical and nanostructural changes of  
448 the pectin matrix during ripening could contribute to the pectin solubilisation process

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449 and to the modification of the cell wall physical properties, probably reducing its  
450 mechanical strength and, finally, leading to a reduction in fruit firmness.

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#### 452 **Acknowledgements**

453 This work was supported by the Ministerio de Economía y Competitividad of Spain and  
454 FEDER EU Funds (grant reference AGL2014-55784-C2-1-R) and by a Ramón y Cajal  
455 project RYC-2011-08839 awarded to AJM. The use of AFM was supported by the  
456 Biotechnology and Biological Science Research Council (BBSRC) through its core  
457 strategic grant to IFR. Authors thank Dr. K.W. Waldron (Institute of Food Research,  
458 UK) for his help in the neutral sugar analysis.

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589 Table 1. Descriptors of contour length distribution of CDTA and sodium carbonate  
590 pectins extracted from unripe and ripe strawberry fruit obtained from AFM images. ME  
591 correspond to the median of the original data. For each pectin fraction, ME values with  
592 different letters indicate significant differences by Kruskal-Wallis non-parametric  
593 median test at P=0.05.

	Unripe	Ripe
CDTA		
L <sub>N</sub> (nm)	116.3	90.9
L <sub>W</sub> (nm)	148.5	113.6
PDI	1.3	1.2
ME (nm)	102.9a	75.5b
Sodium carbonate		
L <sub>N</sub> (nm)	79.8	78.7
L <sub>W</sub> (nm)	104.1	102.0
PDI	1.3	1.3
ME (nm)	69.8a	69.2a

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595 Table 2: Percentages of linear chains with branches and descriptors of contour length  
 596 distribution of the branches from CDTA and sodium carbonate soluble pectins extracted  
 597 from unripe and ripe strawberry fruit. Data obtained from AFM images. Branching  
 598 percentages differences were statistically analyzed by Chi-squared test at P=0.05

	Unripe	Ripe
CDTA		
Branching (%)	12.9a	3.2b
L <sub>N</sub> (nm)	35.7	41.1
L <sub>W</sub> (nm)	51.1	47.3
PDI	1.4	1.2
Sodium carbonate		
Branching (%)	19.7a	3.4b
L <sub>N</sub> (nm)	35.9	28.6
L <sub>W</sub> (nm)	48.0	39.8
PDI	1.3	1.4

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601 **Figure legends**

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2 602 Figure 1: (A) A representative image of the two developmental stages analyzed, unripe-  
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4 603 green and ripe-red fruit. Bar corresponds to 1 cm. (B) Amount of the different fractions  
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7 604 obtained after sequential extraction of CWM from unripe and ripe fruit. Data  
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9 605 correspond to mean  $\pm$  SD. Within each fraction, columns with different letters are  
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11 606 significantly different by the Tukey-HSD test at P=0.05.

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16 608 Figure 2: Amount of uronic acids (A) and neutral sugars (B) in the cell wall fractions  
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19 609 extracted from unripe and ripe fruit. Data correspond to mean  $\pm$  SD. Within each  
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21 610 fraction, columns with different letters are significantly different by the Tukey-HSD test  
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24 611 at P=0.05.

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29 613 Figure 3: ATR-FTIR spectra of the different pectin fractions extracted from unripe and  
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31 614 ripe fruit in the region 2000-800  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ .

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36 616 Figure 4: Chromatographic elution profiles of the different pectin fractions extracted  
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39 617 from unripe and ripe fruit. Profiles were obtained by size exclusion chromatography on  
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41 618 Sepharose CL-6B (PAW and water fractions) or CL-2B (CDTA and  $\text{Na}_2\text{CO}_3$  fractions).  
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43 619 Fractions were assayed for uronic acid and expressed as relative optical density (OD) at  
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46 620 515 nm. Arrows indicate the elution volume for the blue dextran standard (2000 kDa).

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51 622 Figure 5: Neutral sugar composition in mol % of CDTA and sodium carbonate pectin  
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53 623 fractions isolated from unripe and ripe strawberry fruit. Bars represent mean $\pm$ SD of  
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56 624 three independent measurements.

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626 Figure 6: Representative topographical AFM images of CDTA and sodium carbonate  
627 soluble pectins extracted from cell walls of green-unripe and red-ripe fruit. The scale  
628 bars correspond to 100 nm. A-F: Detailed images of linear unbranched chains (A, B),  
629 branched chains (C, D) and micellar aggregates (E, F).  
630

631 Figure 7: Contour length distributions of CDTA and sodium carbonate soluble samples  
632 isolated from fruit cell walls of unripe and ripe fruit. Bars represent relative frequencies  
633 of the observed data.

**Contribution**

CP and NS-D were responsible for conducting the cell wall analyses

ARK, APG and VM contributed to the experiments of AFM

MAQ, AJM and JAM designed the experiments and wrote the manuscript

Figure 1  
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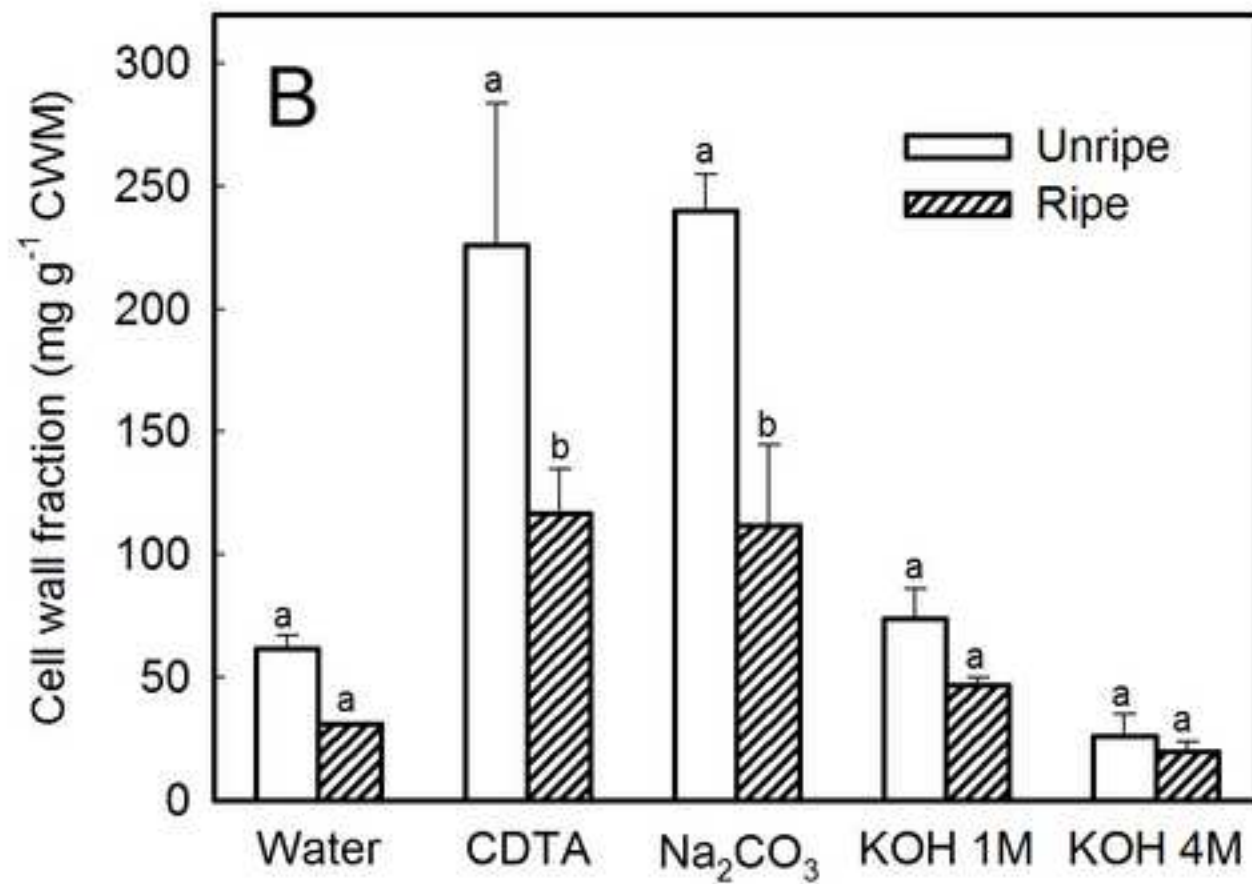


Figure 2

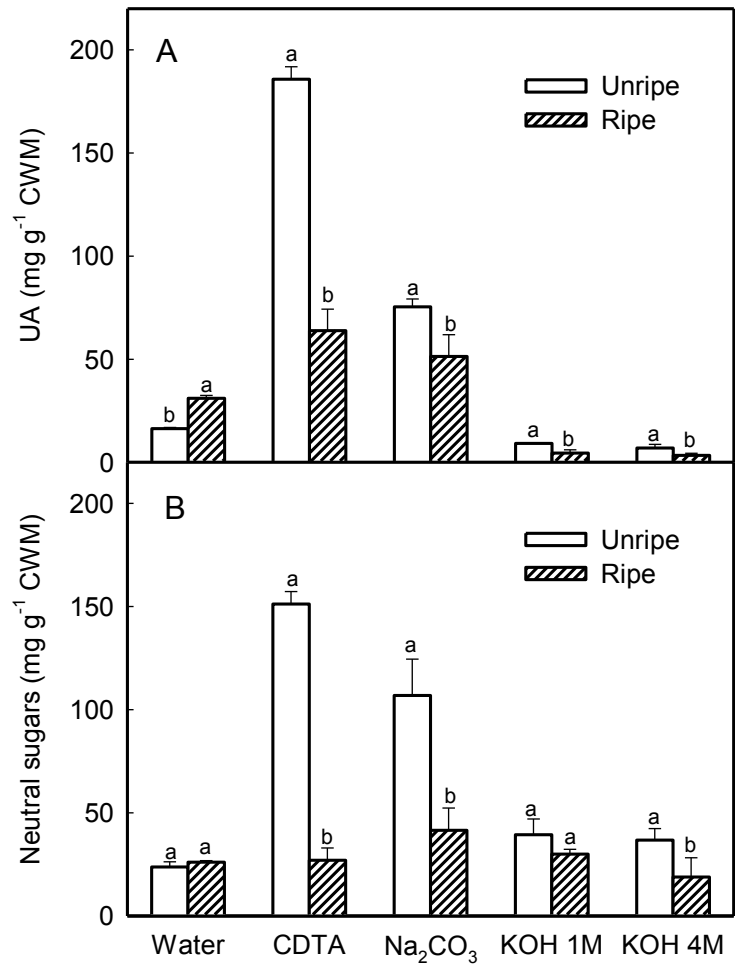


Figure 3

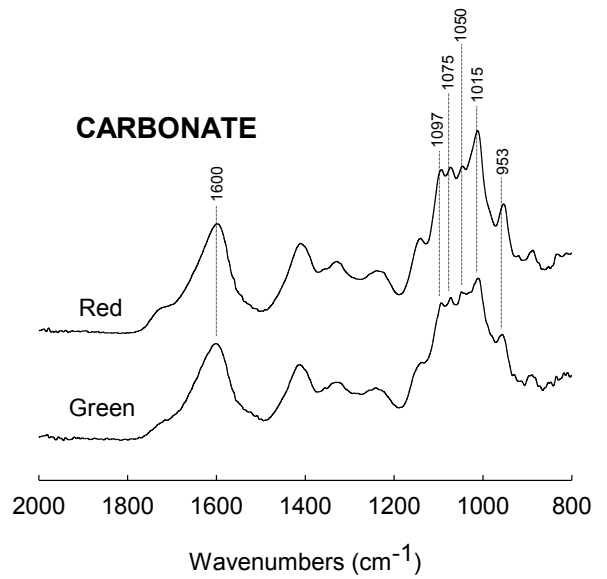
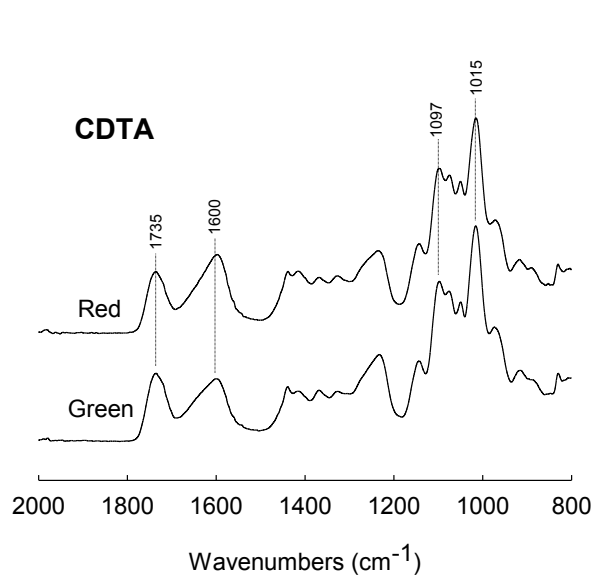
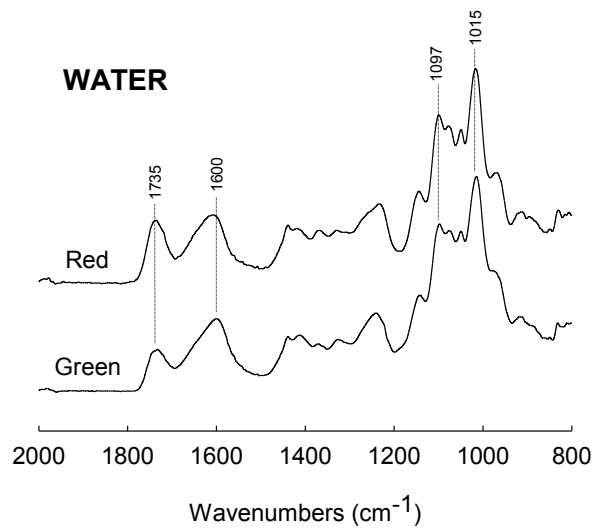
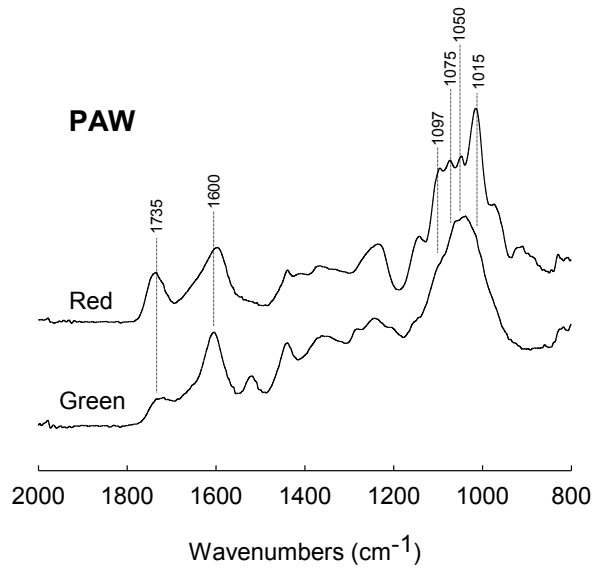


Figure 4

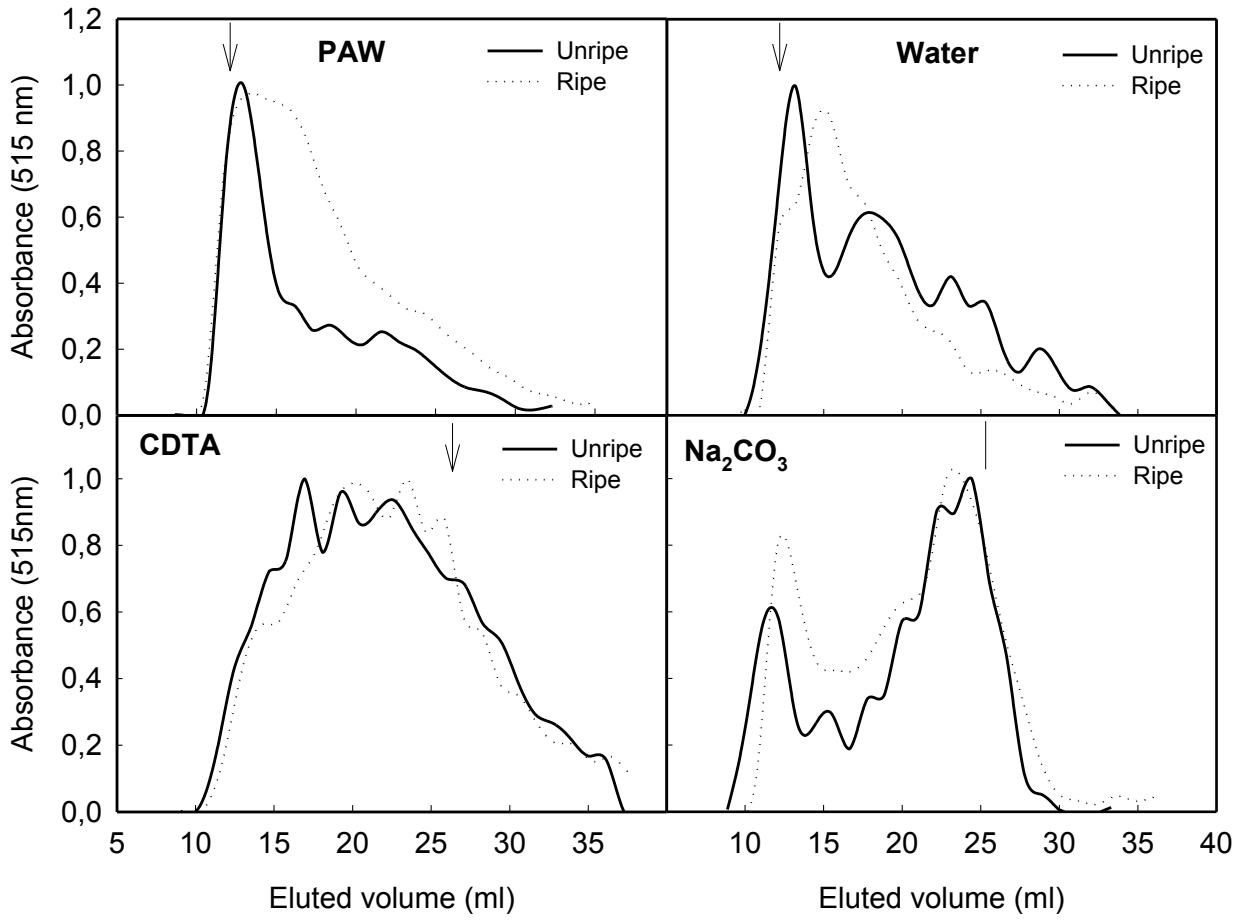


Figure 5

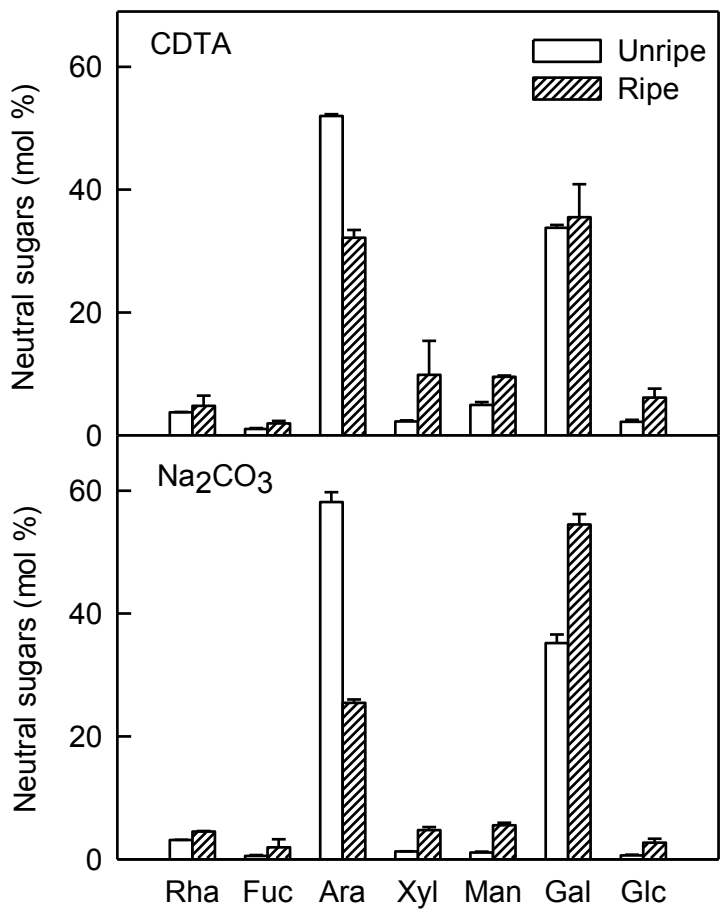


Figure 6  
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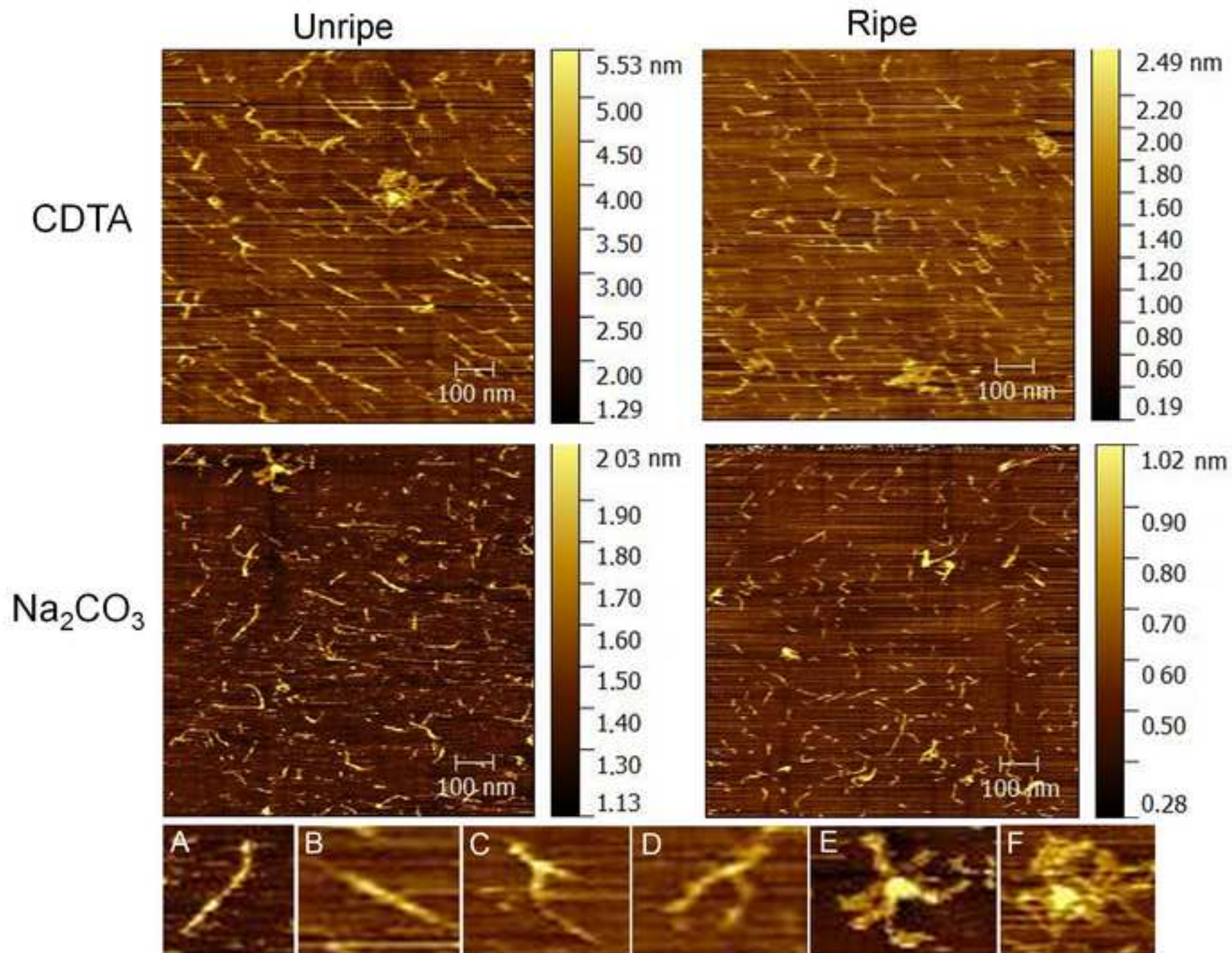


Figure 7

