

1 **Foliar S-ABA application in a warm apple production area does not reduce**
2 **sunburn in ‘Granny Smith’**

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14 **Keywords:** peel antioxidant capacity, solar radiation, net carbon assimilation, plant water status

15 **Highlights:**

- 16 • Foliar application of S-ABA had no effect on sunburn in apple under South African
17 conditions.
- 18 • Repeated applications of S-ABA reduced fruit size and TSS.
- 19 • S-ABA had no positive effect on peel antioxidant capacity contrary to previously
20 reported results in Japan.

21 **Abstract**

22 Sunburn is a physiological disorder that affects the visual quality of apple (*Malus Domestica*)
23 fruit. In South Africa, producers estimate yield losses of up to 50% in green cultivars due to
24 sunburn damage. Recent research in Japan has found that foliar application of abscisic acid (S-
25 ABA) reduced sunburn in apples by up to 30%. The aim of this study was to examine the effect
26 of S-ABA application on the occurrence of sunburn and on other fruit quality parameters in

27 'Granny Smith', the apple cultivar that suffers most sunburn under South African conditions.

28 Trials were conducted over three growing seasons from 2010-2011 to 2012-2013 in a 'Granny
29 Smith' orchard in Grabouw, South Africa. S-ABA was applied at concentrations between 250-
30 1000 ppm and various timings during summer (from November until harvest in March/April). A
31 representative scaffold branch on both sides of the tree was strip picked at commercial harvest
32 resulting in samples of at least 100 fruit per tree for sunburn, fruit color, and red blush
33 assessment. A sub-sample of 20 fruit was randomly selected and used to determine average fruit
34 size, fruit firmness, and internal quality. The application of S-ABA did not decrease sunburn
35 incidence and severity under South African growing conditions. Unlike in the Japanese study, S-
36 ABA application decreased the peel concentration of total antioxidants, total phenolics and
37 reduced ascorbic acid whilst increasing oxidized ascorbic acid. These changes suggest that S-
38 ABA either downregulated synthesis of antioxidants or caused increased oxidative stress.
39 Consistent with S-ABA application possibly causing stress, leaf necrosis was observed when S-
40 ABA was applied just prior to periods of high temperature. Consistent with its physiological role
41 in plants, S-ABA application decreased stomatal conductance and thereby also decreased the net
42 carbon assimilation and transpiration rates, while the stem water potential was increased due to
43 reduced water loss. Concomitant with the decrease in carbon assimilation, there was a significant

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44 reduction in fruit size, ~~as well as~~ total soluble solids, and titratable acidity with repeated S-ABA
45 applications. S-ABA did not affect fruit maturity. Our results suggest that application of S-ABA
46 to reduce sunburn is ineffective under South African conditions and therefore not recommended.
47 The divergent response to S-ABA in Japan and South Africa may relate to the higher irradiance
48 in South Africa or to the bagging of fruit after S-ABA- application and re-exposure to sunlight
49 before harvest in Japan.

50 **1. Introduction**

51 Sunburn is a physiological disorder of apples that causes discoloration of the fruit surface
52 thereby affecting fruit visual quality (Felicetti and Schrader, 2009). It is a serious problem in
53 many warm apple-growing regions of the world, located in semi-arid climatic zones such as
54 Washington State (USA), South Africa, Israel, Chile and Australia. These production regions
55 experience high ~~air~~ambient temperatures and solar radiation during the growing season. In South
56 Africa, producers estimate yield losses of up to 50% due to sunburn damage (Wand et al., 2006).
57 High ambient temperatures and excessive ~~ir~~solar radiation ~~on~~ce cause overheating of the fruit
58 surface, leading to the development of sunburn (Chen et al., 2008; Wünsche et al., 2004a). Three
59 types of sunburn have been identified namely, sunburn necrosis, sunburn browning (Schrader et
60 al., 2001) and photo-oxidative sunburn (Felicetti and Schrader, 2008; Schrader et al., 2003).

61 Protection against sunburn includes natural defense mechanisms within the fruit peel and cultural
62 practices adopted by growers. Fruit peel sunburn protection is offered by physiochemical
63 properties of the peel such as homogeneity, thickness and composition of the epicuticular wax
64 layer and the amount of hair on the skin surface, (Wünsche et al., 2004a), heat shock proteins
65 (Ferguson et al., 1998; Ritenour et al., 1998), photoprotective pigments (Felicetti and Schrader,

66 2009) and antioxidant compounds (Yuri et al., 2010). Cultural practices that have been adopted
67 to reduce sunburn include evaporative cooling (Evans, 2004; Gindaba and Wand, 2005), the
68 application of kaolin-based reflective particle films (Gindaba and Wand, 2005; Glenn et al.,
69 2002; Wünsche et al., 2004b) and installation of shade nets above the orchards (Gindaba and
70 Wand, 2005; Iglesias and Alegre, 2006; Smit, 2007). However, the complexity of the underlying
71 physiological mechanisms and environmental processes leading to sunburn has made it difficult
72 to come up with a single solution to the problem (Wünsche et al., 2004a).

73 Abscisic acid (ABA) is a plant growth regulator that is involved in the signaling and regulation
74 of plant responses to water stress (Kim and van Iersel, 2011). ABA is produced in the roots and
75 transported to the shoots via the xylem where it regulates stomatal closure in leaves and fruit
76 thereby controlling ~~transpirational~~ water loss by transpiration from the plant (Zhang and Davies,
77 1987). Due to the high cost of production and chemical instability, ABA has, until recently, had
78 few applications in horticulture (Cao et al., 2013). However, recent advances in methods of
79 production have made it economically feasible to use ABA in horticultural production (Peppi et
80 al., 2006). ABA has been used in horticulture for the prevention of blossom end rot in tomato
81 plants grown under low calcium conditions by improving calcium transport in xylem, resulting in
82 higher tissue calcium concentrations (De Freitas et al., 2011; De Freitas et al., 2014). The
83 increase in xylar water and calcium transport to the fruit seems to be due to decreased xylar
84 water flow to the leaves in response to ABA application (Ref?). ABA has also been used as a
85 physiological antitranspirant to improve shelf life and quality of pot plants by causing a delayed
86 initiation of wilting (Astacio and Van Iersel 2011; Kim and Van Iersel, 2011; Waterland et al.,
87 2010). Another application has been for the maintenance of postharvest quality and improving
88 the color of red grapes by stimulating anthocyanin production (Cantín et al., 2007; Hiratsuka et

89 al., 2001; Peppi et al., 2006), as a fruit thinner in apples and pears (Greene, 2012; Greene et al.,
90 2011) and to prime young apple trees so as to provide dehydration protection under conditions of
91 water stress (Tworkoski et al., 2011). Recent research in Japan has found that the foliar
92 application of S-ABA (biologically active form of abscisic acid or [5-(1-hydroxy-2,6,6-
93 trimethyl-4-oxo-2-cyclohexen-1-yl)-3-methyl-2,4-pentadienoic acid] reduced sunburn incidence
94 in ‘Tsugaru’, ‘Sensyu’, ‘Yataka’ and ‘Fuji’ apples by up to 30% (Iamsub et al., 2009; Iamsub et
95 al., 2008). The S-ABA application was associated with increased antioxidant levels, thereby
96 purportedly alleviating oxidative damage caused by high ambient temperatures and irradiance
97 (Iamsub et al., 2009).

98 According to Racsko and Schrader (2012), further research is needed to determine whether
99 S-ABA will also reduce sunburn in climatically harsher regions (such as South Africa) that
100 experience higher summer temperatures and higher levels of irradiance. Therefore, the aim of
101 this research was to examine the effect of S-ABA application on the incidence of sunburn in
102 ‘Granny Smith’ apples under South African conditions. ‘Granny Smith’ is the cultivar that
103 shows the most sunburn in South Africa because of its green peel color???. Considering the
104 various effects of ABA on plant physiology and eco-physiology, which may prove beneficial or
105 detrimental in a commercial apple production setup, other fruit quality parameters were also
106 assessed. Gas exchange and plant water status were assessed to confirm S-ABA responses in
107 ‘Granny Smith’ apple while peel chemical composition was analyzed to determine the previously
108 observed effects of S-ABA on apple pigmentation and antioxidant capacity (Iamsub et al., 2009).

109 **2. Materials and Methods**

110 **2.1 Study site and plant material**

111 Trials were conducted over three growing seasons from 2010-2011 to 2012-2013 in a ‘Granny
112 Smith’ orchard at Disseldraai farm in Grabouw, South Africa (Latitude: 34°16’S; Longitude:
113 19°03’E, Alt 266 m). The region has a Mediterranean-type climate receiving most of its rainfall
114 in winter (June-August). Summers (October-March) tend to be hot and ~~d~~with high daily
115 maximum temperatures ~~s~~ in excess of 35 °C are common. ~~M~~and most summer days are ~~y~~
116 cloudless ~~days~~ with high irradiance levels which exceed 30 MJ/m²/d at times during the growing
117 season (Figure 1, 2 and 3). Tsukuba, Japan, where the original research was done (Iamsub et al.,
118 2009), has a warm temperate climate with significant cloud cover, lower irradiance levels and
119 lower maximum temperatures during the growing season (Figures 2 and 3). The Disseldraai
120 orchard was planted in 1993 on M793 rootstock at a spacing of 4.5 x 2.0 m in an east - west row
121 orientation. The tree rows forms a continuous fruiting wall with an average height of 4 m and a
122 canopy width of about 3 m. Normal commercial cultural practices of irrigation, pest
123 management and fertilization were followed. ‘Granny Smith’ is the second most cultivated apple
124 cultivar in South Africa, making up 18.4 % of the total area planted (Hortgro, 2014) and it is
125 highly susceptible to sunburn (Fouché et al., 2010). Therefore, considering the substantial
126 economic losses due to sunburn, it is an important cultivar to conduct sunburn research on.

127 Include a statement of where the weather was obtained. Also what variables were measured?

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129 **2.2 Treatments and experimental design**

130 ~~Four~~The treatments were established in the 2010-2011 growing season ~~consisted each with 10~~
131 ~~single tree replicates with buffer trees between treatment plots and buffer rows between~~
132 ~~treatment rows in a randomized complete block design. The treatments comprised of~~ an
133 untreated control, while 250 ppm S-ABA (Valent BioSciences, Libertyville, IL, USA), 500 ppm
134 S-ABA₂ and 1000 ppm S-ABA were applied monthly on 13 Jan. 2011 (92 days after full bloom -
135 DAFB, 11 Feb. 2011 (121 DAFB)₂ and 11 Mar. 2011 (149 DAFB). In the 2011-2012 growing
136 season, treatments consisted of an untreated control, and 1000 ppm S-ABA applied at full bloom
137 (FB, 17 Oct. 2011), monthly on 04 Dec. 2011 (48 DAFB), 05 Jan. 2012 (80 DAFB), 03 Feb.
138 2012 (109 DAFB) and 03 Mar. 2012 (140 DAFB) or whenever ambient temperature was
139 forecasted to exceed 32 °C on 19 Jan. 2012 (94 DAFB), 13 Feb. 2012 (119 DAFB) and 09
140 March 2012 (144 DAFB) with a minimum gap of two weeks between applications. The arbitrary
141 32°C threshold for application was chosen considering the daily temperatures typically
142 experienced during summer in this region and based on fruit peel temperature measurements
143 done by ~~WJ Steyn (pers. comm.)~~ in previous seasons. The aim was to set a threshold that would
144 balance the need for sunburn control with logistic and practical considerations of application and
145 cost. Treatments in 2012-2013 consisted of an untreated control, and 400 ppm S-ABA applied 40
146 DAFB on 24 Nov. 2012 or 80 DAFB on 03 Jan. 2013. All treatments were applied during early
147 mornings and slow-drying conditions using a motorized knapsack sprayer at a rate of 2 L tree⁻¹
148 (2 222 L ha⁻¹) as a full cover spray. ~~In all three seasons, ten single tree replicates per treatment~~
149 ~~were used with buffer trees between treatment plots and buffer rows between treatment rows in a~~
150 ~~randomized complete block design.~~ Different trees were used in each season. Gas exchange

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151 measurements (~~Section 2.6.1 methodology reported below~~) indicated that S-ABA application
152 affected tree physiology and can thus be assumed to have been taken up effectively.

153 The treatments during the first year (2010-2011) were adapted from Iamsb et al. (2008) and
154 Iamsb et al. (2009), who originally reported the reduction of sunburn incidence after application
155 of S-ABA. For the second season (2011-2012), the early application at full bloom was done to
156 potentially increase xylem water supply to the fruit as reported by De Freitas et al. (2014) in
157 tomato. The treatment before the heat wave was done with the aim to increase the antioxidant
158 capacity in the fruit peel just before photothermal stress – upregulation of antioxidant capacity
159 was the mechanism reported for sunburn reduction by Iamsb et al. (2008) and Iamsb et al.
160 (2009). For the 2012-2013 growing season treatments were imposed after full bloom and at
161 lower concentration to avoid the negative effects observed in the 2011-2012 growing season on
162 fruit size when sprayed at 1 000 ppm at FB.

163 **2.3 Sunburn and red blush assessment**

164 A representative scaffold branch on both the north and south facing sides of trees was strip
165 picked at commercial harvest resulting in samples of at least 100 fruit per tree. Sunburn
166 incidence and severity was assessed using the Schrader and McFerson scale (Schrader et al.,
167 2003) where 0 represented no sunburn, 1 to 4 refer to increasing levels of sunburn browning, and
168 5 signifies sunburn necrosis. Samples were assessed for occurrence of red blush using a color
169 chart (Set A 32, Deciduous Fruit Board, South Africa).

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170 **2.4 Fruit quality**

171 A sub-sample of 20 fruit was randomly selected and used to determine average fruit size
172 (equatorial diam?). Fruit firmness was measured using a fruit texture analyzer at the equatorial
173 region on opposite sides of the fruit (Güs, GS 20, Strand, South Africa). Percentage starch
174 conversion was measured using the iodine test and starch conversion chart (Unifruco Research
175 Services, Bellville, South Africa). Sub-sample fruit were pooled for juice extraction. A hand-held
176 refractometer (Model N1, Atago, Tokyo, Japan) was used to measure total soluble solids
177 concentration (TSS). Titratable acidity (TA) was determined by titrating 5 g of juice with 0.1 M
178 NaOH with an automated titrator (Model 719 S, Metrohm AG, Hersiau, Switzerland) and
179 expressed as percentage of malic acid.

180 **2.5 Peel chemical composition**

181 Peel chemical composition analysis was done in the 2012-2013 growing season on fruit collected
182 10 and 20 days after spraying (DAS) following both application dates. Ten fruit representative of
183 those on tagged branches were randomly selected per tree replicate and fruit peel tissue separated
184 from the flesh. The collected peel tissue samples were flash frozen in liquid nitrogen before
185 being finely milled. Milled samples from each tree replicate were pooled together and then
186 stored in a freezer at -80 °C.

187 **2.5.1 Ascorbic acid and glutathione**

188 High-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) was used for ascorbic acid and glutathione
189 analysis. The analysis was done in three phases according to the method by Jooste (2012) with
190 some minor modifications. Firstly, in the extraction phase, 10 ml of extraction buffer was added

191 to 2.0 g of fresh frozen sample in a centrifuge tube. The extraction buffer was made up of 3%
192 metaphosphoric acid (MPA), 1.0 mM ethylenediaminetetracetic acid (EDTA) and 2% insoluble
193 polyvinylpolypyrrolidone (PVPP). The mixture was vortexed and left to stand for 15 min, after
194 which 1.8 ml was pipetted into a 2.0 ml eppendorf tube and then centrifuged at 20 000 x g for 15
195 min. Secondly, the analysis phase was done in two steps. The first step involved direct analysis
196 of clean supernatant to identify the reduced forms of ascorbic acid and glutathione. The second
197 step involved reducing ascorbic acid and glutathione from oxidized forms using 20 µl of 400
198 mM DL-dithiothreitol (DTT) to measure the total ascorbic acid and glutathione in each sample.
199 Oxidized ascorbic acid and glutathione were determined by subtracting reduced values from the
200 total. HPLC analysis was done on Agilent Series 1100 HPLC system (Agilent Technologies,
201 Inc., Waldbronn, Germany) using a photodiode array detector and C₁₈ 5-µm stationary phase
202 column protected by a 4.6 mm x 12.5 mm guard cartridge (Zorbax SB-C18, Agilent, USA). A
203 known concentration of ascorbic acid and glutathione was used to identify retention peaks. The
204 final phase involved quantification of ascorbic acid and glutathione and this was done using
205 Chemstation for LC 3D systems software (Rev. B.10.03 (2004), Agilent Technologies, Inc.,
206 Waldbronn, Germany). Results were expressed as micrograms per gram fresh weight (µg.g⁻¹
207 FW).

208 **2.5.2 Total antioxidant capacity**

209 Total antioxidant analysis was done using the 2,2-diphenyl-1-picryl hydrazyl (DPPH) radical
210 scavenging assay according to the method by Karioti et al. (2004) with some modifications. The
211 method involved the addition of 40 mL distilled water to 0.5 g fresh frozen sample. The mixture
212 was vortexed at 10 000 rpm for 10 min. In triplicates, 15 µl of clean sample was added into
213 eppendorf tubes together with 735 µl of methanol and 750 µl of 0.1 mM DPPH. The tubes were

214 covered in aluminum foil and incubated at room temperature for 30 min. Absorbance was
215 measured at 517 nm on the spectrophotometer (Cary 50 Bio, Varian, Australia (PTY) Ltd,
216 Melbourne, Australia). The spectrophotometer was blanked with 100% methanol and a standard
217 curve of ascorbic acid from 0 to 2.0 mM was constructed. Total antioxidant activity was
218 expressed as milligrams per gram fresh weight (mg.g⁻¹ FW).

219 **2.5.3 Total phenolics**

220 Total phenolics were measured by the Folin Ciocalteu's (FC) phenol colourimetric method. The
221 method involved the addition of 5 mL of 80% ethanol to 1.0 g fresh frozen sample in a 50 ml
222 centrifuge tube. The mixture was then ground finely with Ultra Turrax. A magnetic rod was
223 added to the mixture and the tubes were placed in a fridge at 4 °C where they were constantly
224 stirred using a magnetic stirrer. In triplicates, 10 µl of the sample, 40 µl of 80% ethanol and 450
225 µl of 0.1M FC reagent were added to plastic cuvettes. After 5 min 500 µl of 5.6% Na₂CO₃ was
226 added to the cuvette and the mixture vortexed after which it was left to stand for 90 min before
227 readings were taken. The spectrophotometer was blanked with 80% ethanol and a standard curve
228 of Gallic acid (mg/L) from 0 to 2.0 was constructed. Total phenolic concentration was expressed
229 as Gallic acid equivalent (GAE) in milligrams per gram fresh weight (mg.g⁻¹ FW).

230 **2.6 Tree eco-physiological status**

231 Tree eco-physiological measurements were taken in the 2010-2011 season to confirm S-ABA
232 uptake by leaves and again in 2012-2013 to assess the duration of the effect of S-ABA. Tree eco-
233 physiological measurements were done on cloud free days, 7 DAS at 123 DAFB for the
234 2010-2011 growing season to determine whether the S-ABA application had an effect on tree
235 physiology and could therefore be expected to have been taken up by the plant. Since these

236 measurements indicated that S-ABA had physiological effects, no measurements were done in
237 the 2011-2012 growing season. In the 2012-2013 growing season, it was decided to do
238 measurements at 10 and 20 DAS₂ at 40 and 80 DAFB₂ to determine the duration of the S-ABA
239 effects.

240 2.6.1 Gas exchange

241 Gas exchange measurements (net CO₂ assimilation rate, ~~stomatal conductance~~, transpiration rate)
242 ~~and the stomatal conductance~~ were taken using an infrared gas analyzer, (Model LI-6400;
243 ~~Li-Cor~~, Lincoln, Nebraska, USA). Flow rate was set at 500 μmol s⁻¹, reference carbon dioxide
244 concentration at 380 ppm, leaf temperature at 25 °C and ~~the~~ photosynthetic photon flux density
245 at 1500 μmol m⁻² s⁻¹. Measurements were taken on sun-exposed leaves on the northern side of
246 the tree. Two fully expanded leaves of the same age, size and health were used per treatment
247 replication. Leaves were sampled from shoulder height and all readings were taken between
248 08:00 and 11:30.

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249 2.6.2 Plant water status

250 The effect of S-ABA on ~~plant water status~~tree water stress was assessed by measuring the
251 midday stem/xylem water potential using a pressure bomb (Model 600;₅ PMS Instrument Co,
252 USA). For each tree replicate, two mature and healthy leaves of the same age, size and proximity
253 to the stem, from inside the canopy were bagged for at least one hour in silver reflective bags to
254 equilibrate the leaf and the stem's xylem water potential before readings were taken. Leaves
255 were sampled from shoulder height and all readings were taken between 12:00 and 13:30.

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256 **2.6.3 Fruit surface temperature**

257 Fruit surface temperature was measured using a hand-held infrared thermometer (Raynger MX4,
258 Raytek Corporation, Santa Cruz, USA) between 14:00 and 14:30 on the sun-exposed part of the
259 fruit. Five fruit per treatment replication were tagged for measurements.

260 **2.8 Statistical analysis**

261 Data were analyzed using the General Linear Models (GLM) procedure of SAS Enterprise Guide
262 3.0 (SAS Institute Inc., 2004, Cary, NC, USA). Where significant differences occurred ($p \leq 0.05$),
263 means were separated by the Least Significant Difference (LSD). Linear contrasts were fitted
264 where applicable.

265 **3. Results**

266 **3.1 Sunburn incidence**

267 The application of S-ABA at different concentrations and timings did not decrease the incidence
268 and severity of the different sunburn types in 'Granny Smith' under South African growing
269 conditions in any of the three growing seasons (1). In fact, in the 2011/12 growing season, the
270 application of 1000 ppm S-ABA at full bloom (FB) and preceding ambient temperature
271 exceeding 32 °C increased sunburn necrosis compared to the control (Table 1). Sunburn
272 incidence was also increased by the application of 1000 ppm S-ABA at FB (Table 1). Only in the
273 2011-2012 season, was there a significant (P value?) contrast between S-ABA applications and
274 control, with S-ABA application resulting in higher sunburn necrosis compared to the control
275 (Table 1).

276 3.2 Fruit quality

277 There were no significant differences (P values?) in fruit weight and diameter between the
278 treatments in the 2010-2011 growing season (Table 2). Repeated applications of S-ABA caused
279 a reduction in fruit size compared to the control in the 2011-2012 growing season (Table 2).
280 Fruit size was not affected by S-ABA applications in the 2012-2013 growing season (Table 2).
281 S-ABA application did not affect the incidence of red blush and fruit firmness in any of the
282 seasons (Table 2).

283

284 Repeated applications of S-ABA reduced TSS in the 2010-2011 and 2011-2012 (Table 3). TSS
285 decreased linearly with increasing S-ABA concentration in the 2010-2011 growing season
286 (Table 3). Single applications of S-ABA had no effect on TSS in the 2011-2012 and 2012-2013
287 growing seasons (Table 3). A similar trend was observed for TA with repeated applications of
288 S-ABA at high concentration (1 000 ppm) causing a significant reduction in TA in the
289 2010-2011 and 2011-2012 seasons (Table 3). However, repeated applications at lower
290 concentrations (250 and 500 ppm) and single applications of S-ABA had no effect on TA in any
291 of the seasons (Tables 3). There was a linear decrease in TA with increasing S-ABA
292 concentration (Table 3).

293 3.3 Peel chemical composition

294 The application of S-ABA at 40 DAFB did not affect oxidized and total ascorbic acid or
295 oxidized, reduced and total glutathione concentrations in the fruit peel at both 10 and 20 DAS
296 (Table 4). Reduced ascorbic acid was significantly lower in the treated peel compared to the
297 control at 10 DAS, but there was no difference in reduced ascorbic acid concentration between

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298 the treatments and control at 20 DAS (Table 4). At 80 DAFB, total ascorbic acid and oxidized
299 ascorbic acid concentrations were significantly higher in the treated peel compared to the control
300 at 10 DAS, but there was no difference at 20 DAS (Table 5). There were no significant
301 differences in oxidized, reduced and total glutathione concentrations, and reduced ascorbic acid
302 concentration between the S-ABA and control in the fruit peel at both 10 and 20 DAS (Table 5).
303 When sprayed at 40 DAFB, S-ABA significantly reduced the concentration of total antioxidants
304 and total phenolics when measured 10 DAS, but not at 20 DAS (Table 6). There were no
305 significant differences in concentration of total antioxidants and phenolics when S-ABA was
306 applied at 80 DAFB, measured at both 10 and 20 DAS (Table 6).

307 **3.4 Tree eco-physiological status**

308 Net carbon assimilation rate, stomatal conductance and leaf transpiration rate were significantly
309 reduced by S-ABA application compared to the control in the 2010-2011 growing season (Table
310 7). The application of S-ABA at 40 DAFB in 2012-2013 had no effect on net carbon assimilation
311 rate, stomatal conductance or leaf transpiration rate when measured at 10 and 20 DAS (Table 8).

312 Net carbon assimilation rate, stomatal conductance, and leaf transpiration rate were significantly
313 reduced compared to the control by S-ABA application at 80 DAFB when measured at 10 DAS,
314 but not at 20 DAS (Table 8). There were no significant differences in fruit surface temperature
315 between the treatments in any of the seasons (Tables 7, 8). Stem water potential was significantly
316 higher for the 500 ppm S-ABA treatment when measured 7 DAS during the 2010-2011 growing
317 season (Table 7). During the 2012-2013 growing season, stem water potential was significantly
318 higher at 10 DAS for both 40 and 80 DAFB sprays, but not different compared to the control
319 when measured at 20 DAS (Table 8). Leaf necrosis occurred when S-ABA was applied at 1 000
320 ppm preceding a heat wave (data not shown).

321 4. Discussion

322 Exogenous applications of S-ABA have been reported to decrease sunburn in ‘Tsugaru’,
323 ‘Sensyu’, ‘Yataka’ and ‘Fuji’ apples by up to 30% at rates of 100 ppm to 800 ppm in Japan
324 (Iamsb et al., 2008; Iamsb et al., 2009). In contrast to the Japanese studies, the application of
325 S-ABA did not reduce sunburn incidence and severity in ‘Granny Smith’ under the
326 Mediterranean-type growing conditions in South African conditions. Significant effects of S-
327 ABA application on carbon assimilation, plant water status, and fruit size rule out that the lack of
328 effect on sunburn could be due to inadequate absorption of S-ABA. Although these leaf
329 parameters do not imply that S-ABA was taken up or exported to the fruit, the effects observed
330 on antioxidants in the apple peel (Tables 4-6) ~~do~~ suggest that the fruit did take took up or
331 received S-ABA through the vascular system. Net carbon assimilation rate, stomatal
332 conductance, and leaf transpiration were significantly reduced by S-ABA application when
333 measured 7 and 10 DAS. Similar results have been reported in vivo with potato leaves (Baricevic
334 and Stopar, 1994). The reduction in net carbon assimilation rate, stomatal conductance, and leaf
335 transpiration rate can be explained by the stomatal closure induced by S-ABA application. The
336 response did not extend beyond 10 DAS and no significant differences remained at 20 DAS.
337 Baricevic and Stopar (1994) similarly reported that net gas exchange returned to normal 8-16
338 days after applications. Plant water status represented by the midday stem water potential was
339 significantly improved immediately after application due to reduced tree water loss and the effect
340 diminished over time. Plant water status also returned to normal at 20 DAS, suggesting that the
341 effect on plant water status was temporary. Improved plant water status with S-ABA application
342 has also been reported in young apple trees (Tworkoski et al., 2011).

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343 Iamsub et al. (2009) ascribed the decrease in sunburn to the higher levels of antioxidants
344 observed in the peel of treated apples. S-ABA did not increase the levels of antioxidants in
345 'Granny Smith' peel but rather reduced total antioxidant capacity, total phenolics, and reduced
346 ascorbic acid whilst increasing oxidized ascorbic acid. Sunburn incidence in the Japanese study
347 was very high at around 70% but no information was provided on how sunburn was graded.
348 Sunburn incidence in the control of our study was ca. 45%, 31% and 39% in the 2010-2011,
349 2011-2012 and 2012-2013 growing seasons, respectively, measured on the Schrader and
350 McFerson scale (Schrader et al., 2003). Careful reading of the Materials and Methods section of
351 Iamsub et al. (2009) indicate that fruit of all treatments were enclosed in white bags after S-ABA
352 treatment. Bagging of fruit is used in Japan to provide protection against pests but also to obtain
353 improved fruit finish (Sharma et al., 2014). The fruit become etiolated within the bags and upon
354 re-exposure to light shortly before harvest, show a considerable spike in anthocyanin
355 accumulation (Ju, 1998). The authors did not indicate whether the bags were removed shortly
356 before harvest for the fruit to develop red color, but it seems likely judging from the good red
357 color of the fruit (Iamsub et al., 2009). This re-exposure of shaded fruit may explain the high
358 incidence of sunburn despite the considerably lower irradiance levels typically measured at
359 Tsukuba, Japan compared to Grabouw, South Africa (Figure 3).

360 Free radical formation in response to ABA application seems to serve as triggers for plants to
361 develop tolerance of various stresses (Jiang and Zhang, 2001). In work on maize seedlings,
362 Jiang and Zhang (2001) found that treatment with low ABA concentrations (10 to 100 μ M)
363 upregulated the antioxidative defense response, but at 1 mM, excessive free radical generation
364 led to oxidative damage. Oxidative stress and the excessive production of free radicals have been
365 implicated in the development of sunburn in apple (Racsko and Schrader, 2012). Under less

366 stressful conditions (lower irradiance and lower vapor pressure deficits - VPD), such as those
367 experienced at Tsukuba, Japan (Figures 2 and 3), increased concentrations of antioxidants after
368 application of S-ABA may have led to the reduction in sunburn as reported. The bagging of
369 apple fruit after S-ABA application in the experiment of Iamsub et al. (2008) may have
370 prevented excessive free radical formation by lowering light incident on the fruit peel.
371 Conversely, application of S-ABA on a day preceding a heat wave increased the incidence of
372 sunburn at harvest. Evidently, a spike in free radical production in response to S-ABA
373 application, may upregulate antioxidant capacity and thereby provide protection against
374 oxidative damage in the fruit peel. However, under more stressful conditions or at higher S-ABA
375 concentrations, excessive free radical formation can exacerbate oxidative damage.

376 The increase in sunburn when applied at FB may be due to increased sensitivity of young fruit to
377 S-ABA sprays. S-ABA application at full bloom as a thinning agent caused quite severe leaf
378 yellowing in 'McIntosh' apple (Greene et al., 2011). The yellowing increased in severity from
379 50 to 1000 ppm S-ABA. Leaf necrosis was observed when 1 000 ppm S-ABA was applied
380 during periods of high temperatures. Under stress conditions caused by high temperatures, high
381 concentrations of S-ABA can cause phytotoxicity leading to leaf damage (Ibrahim and Jaafar,
382 2013; Waterland et al., 2010). Also, S-ABA application has been shown to result in increased
383 leaf temperatures due to the reduction in transpiration, which may lead to leaf necrosis
384 (O'Donoghue et al., 2011). No defoliation (although not assessed) was observed in response to
385 S-ABA application. Greene et al. (2011) also did not mention the occurrence of leaf drop despite
386 the severe yellowing of leaves. Therefore, increased exposure of fruitlets to sola radiation~~unlight~~
387 was probably not the cause of the increase in sunburn after S-ABA application at FB. Also, at
388 this point in the growing season, ambient temperatures were still low and fruit surface

Commented [S12]: Consistency!

389 temperature rarely reached~~s~~ the threshold for sunburn development. The sunburn sensitivity of
390 apples increases during fruit development (Racsko and Schrader, 2012). This may relate to the
391 finding that the sensitivity of ‘Rosemarie’ pear peel to photothermal stress increased during fruit
392 development (Steyn et al., 2009).

393 Repeated applications of S-ABA caused a reduction in fruit size. Fruit size also decreased with
394 increasing concentration of S-ABA applied. The reduction in fruit size in our work can be
395 explained by the fact that the application of S-ABA causes stomatal closure resulting in a
396 reduction of CO₂ assimilation rate, consistent with the observations by (Greene, (2012) and
397 Waterland et al., (2010). During the 2012-2013 growing season, no effect on stomatal closure
398 was observed at 40 DAFB. At 80 DAFB, the application of S-ABA caused stomatal closure until
399 10 DAS, but not observed at 20 DAS. Therefore, the effect on stomatal conductance was not
400 lasting and inconsistent in our study. An increase in fruit size has been reported from single
401 applications of S-ABA when used as a fruit thinner at petal drop (Greene, 2012). However, this
402 fruit size increase in fruit size is due to the thinning effect of S-ABA at petal drop which leaves
403 fewer fruit to compete for photoassimilates.

404 The application of S-ABA did not affect fruit maturity judging from fruit firmness and starch
405 conversion data. This is in agreement with previous research (Greene et al., 2011), although an
406 improvement in firmness when S-ABA was applied at petal drop has been observed (Greene,
407 2012). While single applications of S-ABA had no effect on TSS and TA in this study and as
408 reported by Greene et al., (2011), we found that repeated applications of S-ABA reduced TSS
409 and TA. The S-ABA-induced closure of stomata may decrease photosynthesis and this may
410 result in lower levels of photoassimilates in the fruit, hence lower TSS and TA (Waterland et al.,
411 2010). In contrast, the application of S-ABA at petal drop, which had a thinning effect has been

412 found to increase TSS (Greene, 2012). Fewer fruit were left on the tree after thinning, therefore
413 more photoassimilates are available to the remaining fruit.

414 **5. Conclusion**

415 This research, done over three seasons, showed that foliar S-ABA application at different timings
416 and application rates did not decrease sunburn incidence and severity in ‘Granny Smith’ apple
417 under South African conditions. In fact, the application of high concentrations of S-ABA at FB
418 and before hot days increased sunburn incidence and severity, possibly by inducing excessive
419 free radical formation with resultant oxidative damage. The positive effect on antioxidant levels
420 observed in Japan was not obtained in our study. However, in Japan, apple fruit were enclosed in
421 white bags immediately after S-ABA application, which may have decreased the extent of free
422 radical formation and facilitated the upregulation of antioxidant defense systems. Further studies
423 on the effect of S-ABA and water stress on the formation of free radicals, oxidative damage and
424 expression of antioxidative enzymes at different irradiance levels and a range of temperatures
425 may provide more insight into how these factors relate to sunburn in apple peel.

426 The effects of S-ABA at high concentration on stomatal aperture caused a transient decrease in
427 gas exchange that led to a reduction in fruit size and negative effects on internal fruit quality.
428 However, there was a positive effect on tree water status in terms of stem water potential due to
429 stomatal closure and the reduction in transpiration. Based on our results, the application of
430 S-ABA to reduce sunburn is not recommended in regions similar to South Africa such as
431 Washington State USA, Israel, Chile and Australia that experience high temperature and high
432 irradiance.

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544

545 **Table 1.** The effect of S-ABA application on sunburn incidence (SI) , percentage of fruit
 546 showing sunburn browning (SB) or necrosis (SN), and sunburn severity of sunburnt ‘Granny
 547 Smith’ apples (SVB) at Disseldraai, Grabouw, during the 2010-2011, 2011-2012 and 2012-2013
 548 seasons.

Treatment	SI (%)	SB (%) ^y	SN (%) ^x	SVB ^w
2010-2011				
1. Control	45.2 ns	28.5 ns	16.7 ns	2.99 ns
2. 250 ppm S-ABA	44.3	29.4	14.9	2.86
3. 500 ppm S-ABA	43.7	28.9	14.8	2.97
4. 1000 ppm S-ABA	35.9	23.4	12.5	2.96
<i>Pr>F</i>	0.1519	0.2165	0.5020	0.8852
S-ABA vs Control	0.2888	0.6316	0.2410	0.6813
S-ABA linear	0.0661	0.0664	0.3865	0.6345
2011-2012				
1. Control	30.7 b	29.4 ab ^z	1.31 b	1.87 ns
2. 1000 ppm S-ABA at FB	38.4 a	35.4 a	3.11 a	1.88
3. 1000 ppm S-ABA monthly	29.9 b	27.3 b	2.60 ab	2.00
4. 1000 ppm S-ABA (>32 °C)	31.0 b	27.5 b	3.54 a	2.11
<i>Pr>F</i>	0.0384	0.0481	0.0373	0.4701
S-ABA vs Control	0.3466	0.7850	0.0080	0.3695
2012-2013				
1. Control	39.0 ns	37.5 ns	1.50 ns	1.68 ns
2. 400 ppm S-ABA, 40 DAFB	43.7	42.2	1.51	1.70
3. 400 ppm S-ABA, 80 DAFB	39.5	37.0	2.55	1.71
<i>Pr>F</i>	0.2090	0.1999	0.4548	0.9581
S-ABA vs Control	0.2930	0.4423	0.5228	0.7835

549 ^zMeans with a different letter differ significantly at the 5% level (LSD), ns - Not significant,
 550 ^y1-4 score, (Schrader and McFerson sunburn chart), ^x5 score, (Schrader and McFerson sunburn
 551 chart), ^w1-5 score, with 1 having least sunburn and 5 the most severe (Schrader and McFerson
 552 sunburn chart).

553 **Table 2.** The effect of S-ABA application on fruit size, flesh firmness and red blush of ‘Granny
 554 Smith’ apples at Disseldraai, Grabouw, during the 2010-2011, 2011-2012 and 2012-2013
 555 seasons.

Treatment	Fruit weight (g)	Fruit diameter (mm)	Fruit firmness (kg)	Red blush ^y
2010-2011				
1. Control	137.8 ns	67.5 ns	8.31 ns	15.2 ns
2. 250 ppm S-ABA	138.8	68.0	8.29	17.6
3. 500 ppm S-ABA	135.4	67.2	8.28	15.5
4. 1000 ppm S-ABA	129.0	66.0	8.27	13.6
<i>Pr>F</i>	0.0857	0.1628	0.9770	0.5360
S-ABA vs Control	0.3052	0.5523	0.6981	0.8690
S-ABA linear	0.0189	0.0315	0.8372	0.1592
2011-2012				
1. Control	164.8 a ^z	71.1 a	8.66 ns	0.93 ns
2. 1000 ppm S-ABA at FB	163.0 a	71.6 a	8.77	0.62
3. 1000 ppm S-ABA monthly	143.6 b	67.2 b	8.63	0.51
4. 1000 ppm S-ABA (>32 °C)	152.5 b	70.1 a	8.60	0.67
<i>Pr>F</i>	0.0008	0.0001	0.4930	0.2583
S-ABA vs Control	0.0082	0.0299	0.8973	0.0699
2012-2013				
1. Control	139.8 ns	68.5 ns	8.01 ns	0.88 ns
2. 400 ppm S-ABA ≈ 40 DAFB	146.2	69.5	8.05	0.70
3. 400 ppm S-ABA ≈ 80 DAFB	143.9	69.4	7.90	0.92
<i>Pr>F</i>	0.7549	0.7237	0.4659	0.2687
S-ABA vs Control	0.4885	0.4287	0.7517	0.5896

556 ^zMeans with a different letter differ significantly at the 5% level (LSD).

557 ns-Not significant.

558 ^y1-12 score, with 1 having no blush and 12 the most blush (A32 chart).

559

560 **Table 3.** The effect of S-ABA application on internal quality of ‘Granny Smith’ apples at
 561 Disseldraai, Grabouw, during the 2010-2011, 2011-2012 and 2012-2013 seasons.

Treatment	TSS (°Brix)	TA (%)	Starch conversion (%)
2010-2011			
1. Control	11.1 a ^z	0.66 ab	22.8 ns
2. 250 ppm S-ABA	11.0 b	0.67 a	19.9
3. 500 ppm S-ABA	10.7 bc	0.63 bc	22.5
4. 1000 ppm S-ABA	10.6 c	0.62 c	23.7
<i>Pr>F</i>	0.0060	0.0390	0.3223
S-ABA vs Control	0.0085	0.1515	0.6570
S-ABA linear	0.0150	0.0180	0.0985
2011-2012			
1. Control	11.8 a ^z	0.96 a	19.2 ns
2. 1000 ppm S-ABA at FB	11.8 a	0.93 a	19.7
3. 1000 ppm S-ABA monthly	10.8 b	0.80 b	20.1
4. 1000 ppm S-ABA (>32 °C)	11.0 b	0.84 b	21.6
<i>Pr>F</i>	0.0001	0.0003	0.2097
S-ABA vs Control	0.0002	0.0015	0.1782
2012-2013			
1. Control	11.8 ns	0.79ns	17.0 ns
2. 400 ppm S-ABA ≈ 40 DAFB	11.7	0.84	19.1
3. 400 ppm S-ABA ≈ 80 DAFB	11.6	0.85	18.6
<i>Pr>F</i>	0.4119	0.4065	0.5252
S-ABA vs Control	0.2555	0.1891	0.2746

562 ^zMeans with a different letter differ significantly at the 5% level (LSD).

563 ns - Not significant.

564

565 **Table 4.** The effect of S-ABA application at 40 DAFB on the concentration of total ascorbic acid, total glutathione, oxidized ascorbic
 566 acid, oxidized glutathione, reduced ascorbic acid and reduced glutathione in the peel of ‘Granny Smith’ apples at Disseldraai,
 567 Grabouw, during the 2012-2013 season.

Treatment	Total ascorbic acid ($\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ FW)	Total glutathione ($\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ FW)	Oxidized ascorbic acid ($\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ FW)	Oxidized glutathione ($\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ FW)	Reduced ascorbic acid ($\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ FW)	Reduced glutathione ($\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ FW)
10 DAS						
1. Control	1070.3 ns	65.3 ns	325.2 ns	15.9 ns	745.1 a ^z	49.4 ns
2. 400 ppm S-ABA, 40 DAFB	841.0	58.6	288.3	15.5	552.7 b	43.1
<i>Pr>F</i>	0.2044	0.1404	0.7814	0.7673	0.0095	0.0999
20 DAS						
1. Control	912.8 ns	75.7 ns	207.1 ns	12.4 ns	705.6 ns	63.3 ns
2. 400 ppm S-ABA, 40 DAFB	947.7	74.0	230.8	13.3	716.9	60.7
<i>Pr>F</i>	0.4716	0.9368	0.3618	0.2725	0.6120	0.8003

568 ^zMeans with a different letter differ significantly at the 5% level (LSD).

569 ns - Not significant.

570

571 **Table 5.** Effect of S-ABA application at 80 DAFB on the concentration of total ascorbic acid, total glutathione, oxidized ascorbic
 572 acid, oxidized glutathione, reduced ascorbic acid and reduced glutathione in the peel of ‘Granny Smith’ apples at Disseldraai,
 573 Grabouw, during the 2012-2013 season.

Treatment	Total ascorbic acid ($\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ FW)	Total glutathione ($\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ FW)	Oxidized ascorbic acid ($\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ FW)	Oxidized glutathione ($\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ FW)	Reduced ascorbic acid ($\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ FW)	Reduced glutathione ($\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{g}^{-1}$ FW)
10 DAS						
1. Control	750.9 b ^z	92.1 ns	189.3 b	17.6 ns	561.6 ns	74.5 ns
2. 400 ppm S-ABA, 80 DAFB	842.9 a	90.8	316.4 a	24.4	526.5	66.4
<i>Pr>F</i>	0.0491	0.8974	0.0499	0.2334	0.6001	0.3137
20 DAS						
1. Control	717.4 ns	83.2 ns	194.4 ns	15.7 ns	523.0 ns	67.5 ns
2. 400 ppm S-ABA, 80 DAFB	675.8	83.4	162.4	15.7	513.4	67.7
<i>Pr>F</i>	0.7006	0.7669	0.9631	0.5330	0.6996	0.8173

574 ^zMeans with a different letter differ significantly at the 5% level (LSD).

575 ns - Not significant.

576

577 **Table 6.** The effect of S-ABA application at 40 DAFB on the concentration of total antioxidants
 578 and total phenolics in the peel of ‘Granny Smith’ apples at Disseldraai, Grabouw, during the
 579 2012-2013 season.

Treatment	40 DAFB		80 DAFB	
	Total antioxidants (mg.g ⁻¹ FW)	Total phenolics (mg.g ⁻¹ FW)	Total antioxidants (mg.g ⁻¹ FW)	Total phenolics (mg.g ⁻¹ FW)
10 DAS				
1. Control	16.3 a ^z	385.8 a	19.0 ns	306.5 ns
2. 400 ppm S-ABA	13.6 b	342.5 b	16.0	313.1
<i>Pr>F</i>	0.0131	0.0032	0.1449	0.8066
20 DAS				
1. Control	15.5 ns	309.5 ns	14.6 ns	228.8 ns
2. 400 ppm S-ABA	11.8	312.4	12.8	172.2
<i>Pr>F</i>	0.0995	0.8629	0.4396	0.0846

580

581 ^zMeans with a different letter differ significantly at the 5% level (LSD).

582 ns - Not significant.

583

584 **Table 7.** The effect of S-ABA application at 123 DAFB on net carbon assimilation rate (*A*),
 585 stomatal conductance(g_s), transpiration rate (*E*), fruit surface temperature and stem water
 586 potential of ‘Granny Smith’ apples at Disseldraai, Grabouw, during the 2010-2011 season.

Treatment	<i>A</i> ($\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$)	g_s ($\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$)	<i>E</i> ($\text{mmol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$)	FST ($^{\circ}\text{C}$)	SWP (MPa)
1. Control	16.7 a ^z	0.38 a	6.3 a	36.8 ns	-1.59 b
2. 250 ppm S-ABA	13.8 b	0.23 b	4.4 b	37.3	-1.61 b
3. 500 ppm S-ABA	12.4 b	0.19 b	3.7 b	35.6	-1.28 a
4. 1000 ppm S-ABA	13.7 b	0.19 b	4.2 b	37.2	-1.42 ab
<i>Pr>F</i>	0.0188	0.0001	0.0002	0.1127	0.0470
S-ABA vs Control	0.0033	0.0001	0.0001	0.1902	0.1752
S-ABA linear	0.8955	0.2813	0.7673	0.8554	0.1299

587 ^zMeans with a different letter differ significantly at the 5% level (LSD).

588 ns-Not significant.

589

590

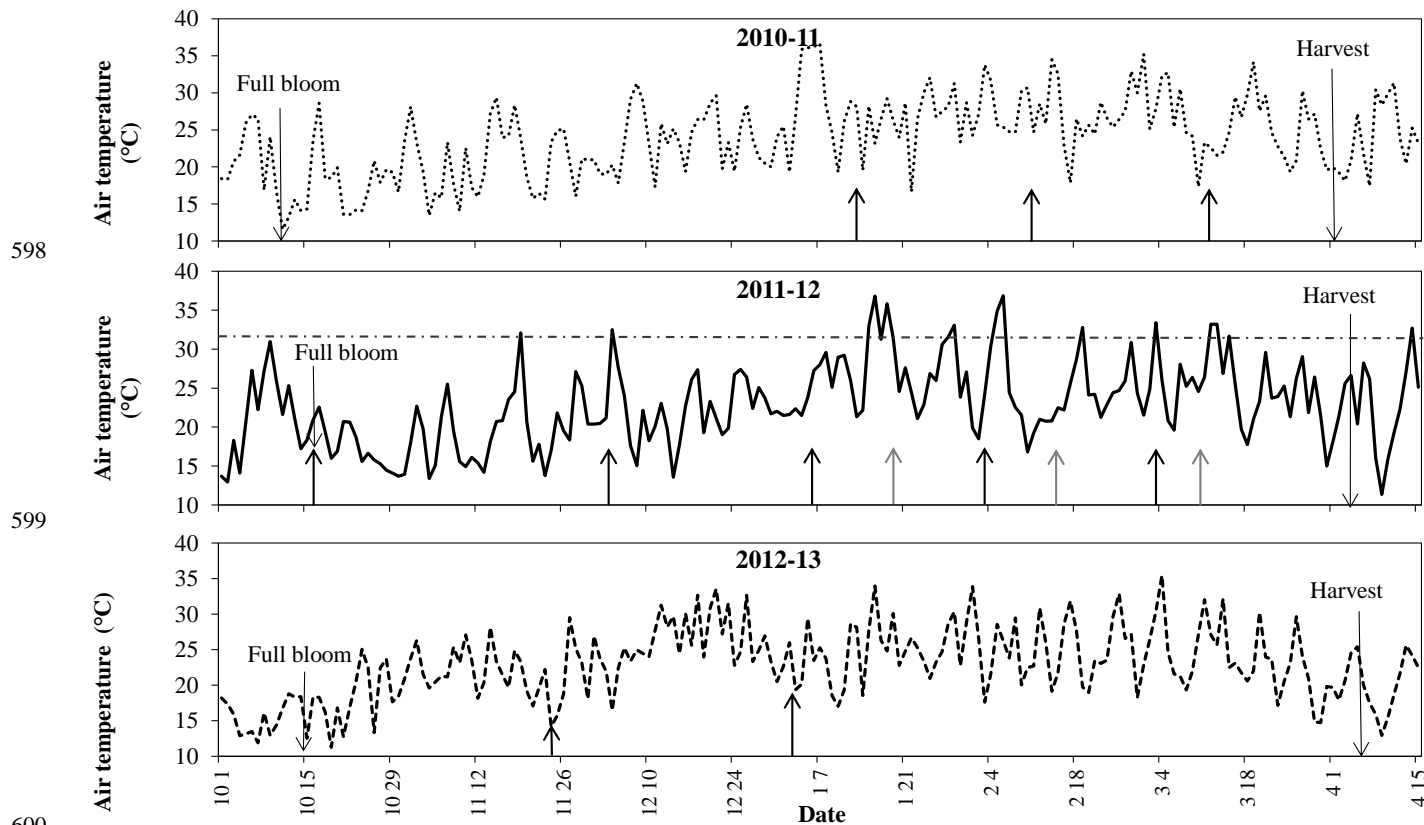
591 **Table 8.** The effect of S-ABA application 10 and 20 days after spraying (DAS) at 40 and 80
 592 days after full bloom (DAFB) on net carbon assimilation rate (*A*), stomatal conductance (g_s),
 593 transpiration rate (*E*), fruit surface temperature (FST) and stem water potential (SWP) of
 594 ‘Granny Smith’ apples at Disseldraai, Grabouw, during the 2012-2013 season.

Treatment	<i>A</i> ($\mu\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$)	g_s ($\text{mol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$)	<i>E</i> ($\text{mmol}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$)	FST (°C)	SWP (MPa)
40 DAFB, 10 DAS					
1. Control	16.2 ns	0.14 ns	3.47 ns	31.8 ns	-1.74 b ^z
2. 400 ppm S-ABA	12.9	0.14	3.96	31.4	-1.28 a
<i>Pr>F</i>	0.1624	0.8346	0.3607	0.4704	0.0182
40 DAFB, 20 DAS					
1. Control	14.5 ns	0.38 ns	4.77 ns	35.3 ns	-0.78 ns
2. 400 ppm S-ABA	11.1	0.20	3.59	35.0	-0.77
<i>Pr>F</i>	0.1666	0.0940	0.0948	0.9579	0.7804
80 DAFB, 10 DAS					
1. Control	19.1 a ^z	0.41 a	4.97 a	39.8 ns	-1.88 b
2. 400 ppm S-ABA	15.2 b	0.25 b	3.82 b	39.3	-1.50 a
<i>Pr>F</i>	0.002	0.0136	0.0069	0.7123	0.0001
80 DAFB, 20 DAS					
1. Control	16.8 ns	0.35 ns	4.81 ns	40.2 ns	-1.79 ns
2. 400 ppm S-ABA	14.6	0.24	3.90	39.6	-1.64
<i>Pr>F</i>	0.1440	0.0619	0.1793	0.4555	0.1068

595 ^zMeans with a different letter differ significantly at the 5% level (LSD).

596 ns-Not significant.

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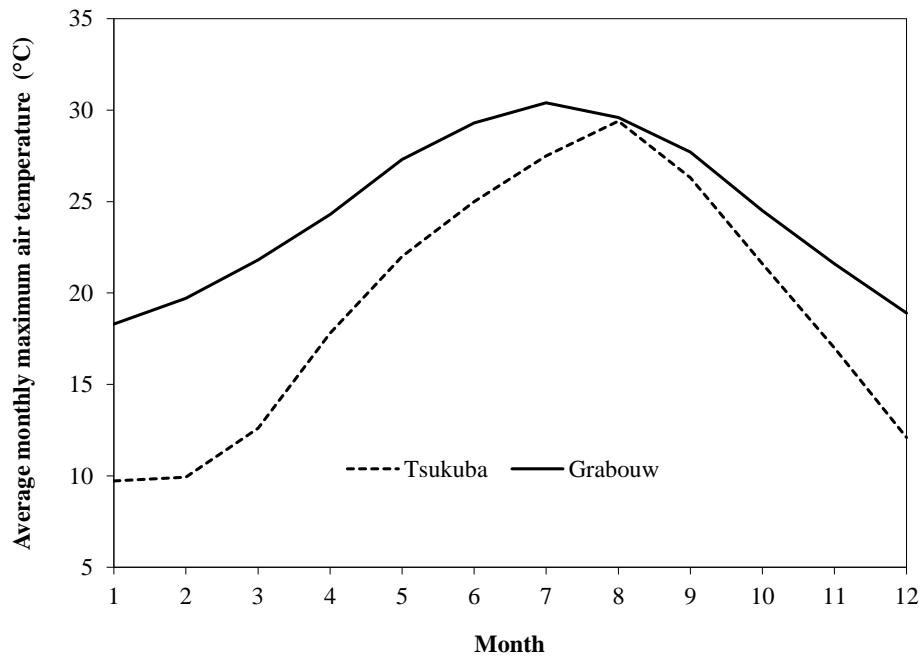
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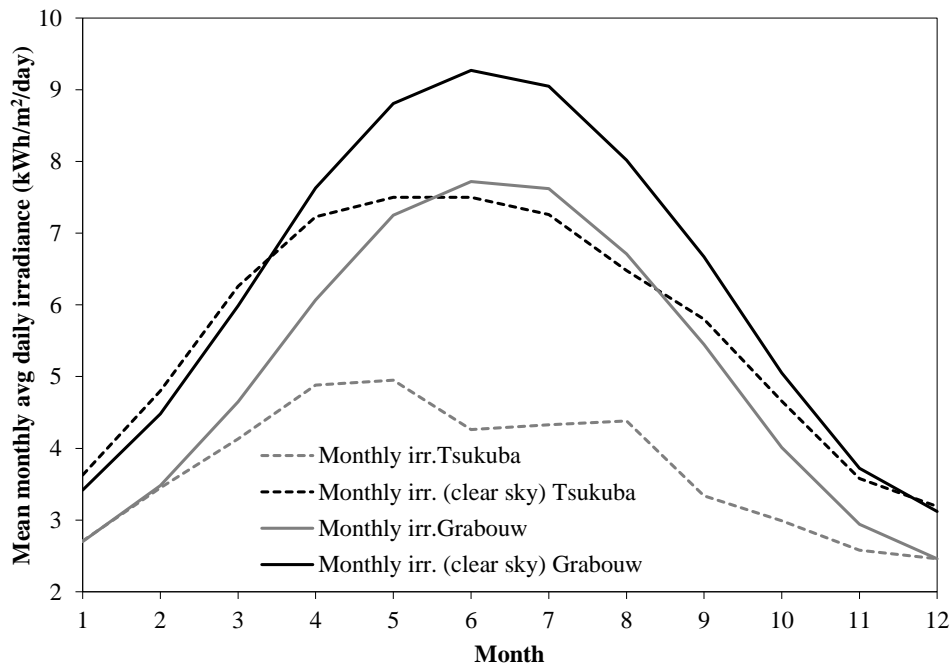
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Figure 1. Daily maximum air temperatures recorded at Oak Valley Estate in Grabouw, South Africa (Latitude: 34°15'S; Longitude: 19°07'E, Alt 375 m) in close proximity to Disseldraai, Grabouw during the 2010-11, 2011-12 and 2012-13 seasons. Grey arrows indicate treatments prior to the arbitrary 32°C sunburn threshold for treatment prior to heat waves in 2011-12. Other treatments are indicated by black arrows.



605
 606 **Figure 2.** Historical average monthly maximum air temperature (Jan 1983-Dec 2004) for
 607 Tsukuba Japan, where Iamsb et al. (2009) conducted their study on the effect of S-ABA
 608 application on sunburn in apple at the University of Tsukuba (36°10' N, 140°10' E) and
 609 Disseldraai, Grabouw, South Africa (34°15'S; 19°07'E) used in the current study
 610 (<https://eosweb.larc.nasa.gov/cgi-bin/sse/grid.cgi?email=skip@larc.nasa.gov>). The data from
 611 Grabouw has been shifted by six months so that summer months for both hemispheres overlap.



Commented [S13]: The usual units for daily radiation are MJ/m²/d. Use the conversion that 1 kWh = 3.6 MJ

612
 613 **Figure 3.** Historical monthly average amount of the total solar radiation (Jul 1983-Jun 2005) for
 614 all days and for clear days (<10% cloud cover) for Tsukuba Japan, where Iamsb et al. (2009)
 615 conducted their study on the effect of S-ABA application on sunburn in apple at the University
 616 of Tsukuba (36°10' N, 140°10' E) and Disseldraai, Grabouw, South Africa (34°15'S; 19°07'E)
 617 used in the current study ([https://eosweb.larc.nasa.gov/cgi-](https://eosweb.larc.nasa.gov/cgi-bin/sse/grid.cgi?email=skip@larc.nasa.gov)
 618 [bin/sse/grid.cgi?email=skip@larc.nasa.gov](https://eosweb.larc.nasa.gov/cgi-bin/sse/grid.cgi?email=skip@larc.nasa.gov)). The data from Grabouw has been shifted by six
 619 months so that summer months for both hemispheres overlap.