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Title: Chemical Composition and Water Permeability of Fruit and Leaf Cuticles of *Olea europaea* L.

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1 **ABSTRACT**

2 The plant cuticle, protecting against uncontrolled water loss, covers olive (*Olea europaea*)
3 fruits and leaves. The present study describes the organ-specific chemical composition of the
4 cuticular waxes and the cutin and compares three developmental stages of fruits (green,
5 turning and black) with the leaf surface. Numerous organ-specific differences, such as the
6 total coverage of cutin monomeric components ($1034.4 \mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$ and $630.5 \mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$) and the
7 cuticular waxes ($201.6 \mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$ and $320.4 \mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$) among all three fruit stages and leaves,
8 respectively, were detected. Water permeability as the main cuticular function was five-fold
9 lower in adaxial leaf cuticles ($2.1 \times 10^{-5} \text{ m s}^{-1}$) in comparison to all three fruit stages (9.5×10^{-5}
10 m s^{-1}). The three fruit developmental stages have the same cuticular water permeability. It is
11 hypothesized that a higher weighted average chain length of the acyclic cuticular components
12 leads to a considerably lower permeability of the leaf as compared to the fruit cuticle.

13

14

15 **Key Words:** average chain-length; cuticular transpiration, cutin, fruit, leaf, plant cuticle,
16 triterpenoids, very-long-chain acyclic components, wax

1 INTRODUCTION

2 *Olea europaea* L. (Oleaceae) is an evergreen tree with silvery green, elongated leaves.
3 Producing small non-climacteric drupes, it is one of the predominant fruit tree crops in the
4 Mediterranean area and, thus, is of high economic importance. The total world production of
5 olive fruits has nearly doubled from 8.0 to 15.4 million tons during the past four decades
6 (1974 to 2014; FAOSTAT 2017, <http://www.fao.org/faostat/en/#data/QC>). About 58% of the
7 crop is produced in Europe, mainly Spain, Italy, and Greece. Hundreds of olive cultivars are
8 documented, such as the economically important 'Arbequina' cultivar originating from Spain.
9 Plants growing in Mediterranean-type climates often suffer from various environmental
10 stresses, such as elevated temperatures, high vapor pressure deficits, and limited water
11 availability.¹ The importance of protecting olive leaves and fruits from uncontrolled water
12 loss is given throughout the whole fruit developmental process, which includes fruit set,
13 growth, maturation and oil accumulation in the fruit pulp.² During fruit growth, stomata lose
14 their shape and are covered by cuticular waxes.^{3,4} Trichomes and stomata are mainly
15 occurring on the abaxial leaf surface, very few incompletely degraded trichomes with
16 suberized stalks exist on the adaxial leaf surface.⁵⁻⁷ Thus, the plant cuticle covering fruit and
17 leaf surfaces is the main barrier limiting uncontrolled water loss.
18 The plant cuticle is considered an important structure affecting olive fruit and leaf
19 transpiration, especially under drought conditions. Water deficit induced an increase of fruit
20 cuticle thickness when compared to olive fruits grown under normal irrigation.^{8,9} However,
21 thicker plant cuticles do not provide more effective transpiration barriers.^{10,11} Plant cuticles
22 are lipoid in nature consisting of a cutin matrix, a polyester of C₁₆ and C₁₈ fatty acids and
23 hydroxy fatty acids, often with additional hydroxy, carboxy, epoxy and oxo groups in
24 secondary mostly mid-chain position with cuticular waxes embedded within or deposited onto
25 its surface.^{12,13} The cuticular waxes form the main transport-limiting barrier.^{10,14} However,
26 there is no simple relationship between cuticular wax quantity and transpiration. Also, it was

1 proposed that cutin and the corresponding ester-linkage might play a major role in
2 establishing barrier properties by providing the framework in which the cuticular waxes are
3 arranged.^{15,16}

4 The cuticular waxes from different cultivars and different developmental stages of olive fruits
5 and leaves are dominated by pentacyclic triterpenoids and additionally contain minor amounts
6 of very-long-chain fatty acid derivatives, the very-long-chain acyclic wax compounds.¹⁷⁻²¹ Up
7 to now, most of the information available is about the cuticular wax composition of olive
8 fruits while the leaf waxes have not been investigated to the same degree. Furthermore, there
9 is no study on the composition of the cutin polymer neither of olive fruits nor leaves.

10 During maturation, olive fruits having attained their final size change color turning from
11 green to black with an intermediate red-to-purple stage called the turning stage. The turning
12 stage is considered to be important for the tolerance and/or resistance to biotic and abiotic
13 environmental factors.²¹ However, the contribution of the cuticular components to cuticle
14 functions, particularly the transpiration barrier properties, have not been comprehensively
15 studied.

16 The present study aims at elucidating differential chemical compositions of the plant cuticle,
17 for the first time comparing fruit developmental stages (here green, turning and black stage)
18 with the leaf surface within one plant species. The cuticular waxes and the cutin monomeric
19 composition were used to determine the contribution of cuticular components to the
20 transpiration barrier properties.

1 MATERIALS AND METHODS

2 Plant Material

3 Trees of *Olea europaea* L. cultivar 'Arbequina' (Oleaceae) were grown in El Soleràs, Lleida,
4 Spain (41°24'48.71"N, 0°40'50.05"E). The trees were non-irrigated and only rain-fed. Fruit
5 samples at different development stages (green, turning and black) were harvested during the
6 ripening period in November 2014. Leaves and fruits were collected from the same trees
7 during the same ripening period. For the chemical analysis (monomeric cutin and cuticular
8 wax composition) five replicates were used. The permeability experiments were repeated with
9 12 fruits/leaves, respectively.

10 Chemicals

11 For cuticle isolation pectinase (Trenolin, Erbslöh, Geisenheim, Germany), cellulase
12 (Celluclast, NCBE, University of Reading, UK), citric acid monohydrate (Applichem,
13 Darmstadt, Germany) and sodium azide (Sigma-Aldrich, Steinheim, Germany) were used.

14 For extraction and analysis chloroform ($\geq 99.8\%$), pyridine, sodium chloride and sodium
15 sulfate were purchased from Roth (Karlsruhe, Germany). Boron trifluoride in methanol (1.3
16 M) was obtained from Fluka (Neu-Ulm, Germany). *N*-tetracosane and *n*-dotriacontane were
17 provided by Sigma-Aldrich (Steinheim, Germany). *N,O*-bis(trimethylsilyl) trifluoroacetamide
18 was from Macherey-Nagel (Düren, Germany).

19 Authentic standards of β -amyrin, erythrodiol, ursolic acid and betulinic acid were purchased
20 from Roth (Karlsruhe, Germany), oleanolic acid from Sigma-Aldrich (Steinheim, Germany).

21 Cutin Depolymerization for Chemical Analysis

22 Cuticular membranes from both fruits and adaxial leaf surfaces were isolated enzymatically in
23 citric acid buffer containing pectinase (1%), cellulase (1%) and 1 mM sodium azide to avoid
24 growth of microorganism.²²

25 For the cutin analysis, the air-dried isolated cuticular membranes were immersed in
26 chloroform to remove the cuticular waxes. The wax-free polymer matrix was depolymerized

1 with boron trifluoride in methanol (1.3 M) at 70°C for 16 h. *N*-dotriacontane as an internal
2 standard was added. Subsequently, a saturated aqueous sodium chloride solution was added.
3 The mixture was extracted three times with chloroform. The collected extracts were dried
4 over sodium sulfate, and the organic solvent was gently evaporated under a continuous flow
5 of nitrogen.

6 **Cuticular Wax Extraction for Chemical Analysis**

7 To extract the cuticular waxes from the fruit surface, whole fruits were dipped in chloroform.
8 To avoid contact of the solvent with the pedicel, approximately 90% of the fruit was vertically
9 dipped into chloroform for 60 s. The cuticular wax from the adaxial leaf surface was extracted
10 by dipping the enzymatically isolated adaxial cuticle two subsequent times in chloroform.
11 Each fruit sample was extracted three times consecutively. *N*-tetracosane was added to the
12 extracts as an internal standard. The solvent was evaporated under a gentle stream of nitrogen
13 gas until dryness.

14 **Chemical Analysis of Cuticular Components**

15 Prior to the gas chromatographic analysis, the cuticular wax and cutin samples were
16 derivatized with *N,O*-bis(trimethylsilyl) trifluoroacetamide in pyridine for 30 min at 70°C.
17 For the quantitation of the compounds, a capillary gas chromatograph with flame ionization
18 detector (6850N, GC-System; Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, California) and on-column
19 injection with a capillary column (30 m × 0.32 mm, DB-1 ms, 0.1 μm film; J&W Scientific,
20 Agilent Technologies) was used. For separation of the cuticular wax compounds, the samples
21 were injected at 50°C followed by 2 min at 50°C, temperature raised by 40°C min⁻¹ to 200°C,
22 held for 2 min at 200°C, raised by 3°C min⁻¹ to 320°C and held for 30 min at 320°C. For
23 separation of the cutin monomers, samples were injected at 50°C, followed by 1 min at 50°C,
24 temperature raised by 10°C min⁻¹ to 150°C, held for 2 min at 150°C, raised by 3°C min⁻¹ to
25 320°C and held for 30 min at 320°C.

1 Qualitative analysis was carried out with a gas chromatograph (6890N, Agilent Technologies)
2 equipped with a mass spectrometric detector (m/z 50-750, MSD 5973; Agilent Technologies)
3 under the same gas chromatographic conditions except that helium was used as carrier gas.
4 Identification of the compounds was carried out by their mass spectra using authentic
5 standards, the Wiley 10th/NIST 2014 mass spectral library (W10N14; John Wiley & Sons,
6 Hoboken, New Jersey) or by interpretation of the spectra, by their retention times and/or by
7 comparison with literature data. Based on the coverage of very-long-chain acyclic wax
8 compounds and their carbon chain length distribution, the weighted average chain length
9 (ACL) of very-long-chain acyclic wax components was calculated. ACL is the weight-
10 averaged number of carbon atoms, defined as:

$$11 \quad \text{ACL} = \frac{\sum(C_n \times n)}{\sum C_n} \quad (1)$$

12 with C_n being the coverage of each very-long-chain acyclic wax compound with n carbon
13 atoms.

14 **Determination of Cuticular Transpiration**

15 The transpiration from whole fruits and leaves was determined gravimetrically by measuring
16 the water loss over time. Before measurement, the attachment site of the fruit pedicel and the
17 leaf petioles were sealed with paraffin wax (melting point 65°C; Roth, Karlsruhe, Germany).
18 The abaxial leaf surface was sealed with paraffin wax to ensure that the water transpiration
19 occurs only via the stomata-free adaxial leaf surface. The fruit and leaf samples were placed
20 in boxes over silica gel (Applichem, Darmstadt, Germany) to reduce the relative humidity to
21 nearly zero. The boxes were placed in an incubator (IPP 110, Memmert, Schwabach,
22 Germany) to control the surrounding temperature (25°C). The amount of water transpired
23 from whole fruit and adaxial leaf surfaces versus time (five to six data points per individual
24 sample) was measured using an analytic electronic balance with a precision of 0.1 mg (MC-1
25 AC210S, Sartorius, Göttingen, Germany). The temperature in the incubator was controlled

1 with a digital thermometer (Testoterm 6010, Lenzkirch, Germany), and the actual temperature
2 of fruit and leaf surfaces was measured by an infrared laser thermometer (Harbor Freight
3 Tools, Calabasas, California). The transpiration rate (flux of water vapor; J in $\text{g m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) was
4 obtained from the change of the fresh weight of the samples (ΔW in g) over time (Δt in s) and
5 surface area (A in m^2):

$$6 \quad J = \frac{\Delta W}{\Delta t \cdot A} \quad (2)$$

7 The form of the fruit of the olive cultivar used in this study deviates only slightly from a
8 perfect sphere. So the fruit surface area (A_{fruit}) was calculated for a sphere with a radius
9 calculated as the mean of the polar and equatorial radii of the fruit. The leaf surface area (A_{leaf})
10 of the adaxial surface was obtained by scanning the leaf surface. The permeance (P in m s^{-1})
11 was calculated from the transpiration rate (J) divided by the driving force:

$$12 \quad P = \frac{J}{c_{\text{wv}}^* (a_{\text{fruit/leaf}} - a_{\text{air}})} \quad (3)$$

13 The water vapor saturation concentration at the actual fruit or leaf temperature (water vapor
14 content of air at saturation; c_{wv}^*) was obtained from tabulated values.²³ Air water activity (a_{air})
15 over silica gel was close to zero. The water activity in the fruit or leaf ($a_{\text{fruit/leaf}}$) was assumed
16 to be unity.²⁴

17 **Statistical Analysis**

18 Statistical analyses were performed using SigmaPlot 13 (Systat Software GmbH, Erkrath,
19 Germany). The total amount of cutin monomers, total wax amount, surface area and cuticular
20 permeance were checked for normal distribution by the Shapiro-Wilk normality test (p-value
21 to reject 0.05). Normally distributed data are given as means with the corresponding standard
22 deviations. Comparisons between leaf parameters and black-stage fruit parameters were tested
23 for significance with Student's t-test (level of significance $p < 0.05$) and, when comparing the
24 different fruit stages, Kruskal-Wallis one way analysis of variance (ANOVA).

1 RESULTS

2 Composition of the Cutin Polymer of *Olea europaea* Fruits and Leaves

3 During fruit development, the quantity, as well as the quality of the cutin matrix covering
4 olive fruits, changed. The amount of cutin monomers was 969 $\mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$, 1005 $\mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$ and
5 1129 $\mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$ in green, turning and black fruits, respectively, with no significant differences
6 among these values (Table 1; Figure 1A). This trend during fruit development resulted mainly
7 from an accumulation of fatty acids, ω -hydroxy fatty acids and ω -hydroxy fatty acids with
8 mid-chain hydroxy groups.

9 In comparison to fruits, the total amount of cutin monomers of the fully expanded, adaxial
10 leaf surface was 35% to 44% lower (631 $\mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$). In the fruit cutin matrix, the predominant
11 cutin monomers were ω -hydroxy fatty acids with mid-chain hydroxy groups (72% to 77% of
12 the total cutin). The main cutin compounds were 9/10,16-dihydroxyhexadecanoic acid (33%
13 to 35%), 9,10,18-trihydroxyoctadecenoic acid (14% to 26%) and 9,10,18-
14 trihydroxyoctadecanoic acid (13% to 17%). Similarly, the major cutin monomers on the
15 adaxial leaf surface were ω -hydroxy fatty acids with mid-chain hydroxy groups (43% of the
16 total cutin) dominated by 9/10,16-dihydroxyhexadecanoic acid (26%) and 9,10,18-
17 trihydroxyoctadecanoic acid (16%). The ω -hydroxy fatty acid with a mid-chain epoxy group
18 (9,10-epoxy-18-hydroxyoctadecanoic acid, 39% of the total cutin) was only detected in the
19 leaf cutin matrix. Small amounts of unsubstituted fatty acids with even-numbered carbon
20 chain lengths from C₁₆ to C₂₈ (2% to 3% of the total cutin), ω -hydroxy fatty acids (2% to 9%),
21 α,ω -dicarboxylic fatty acids with mid-chain epoxy group (1%) and phenolic compounds (< 1%
22 to 5%) were also found in the cutin matrix of fruit and leaf surfaces. ω -Hydroxy fatty acids
23 with a mid-chain oxo group (1%) and α,ω -dicarboxylic fatty acids (< 1%) were identified
24 exclusively in the fruit cutin matrix.

25 The degree of unsaturation of the cutin polymer was 18% to 32% in green, turning, and black
26 fruits, and 2% in the leaf but the degree of epoxidation was higher for the leaf (40%) as

1 compared to the fruit cutin (1%). Furthermore, the ratio of the main cutin monomers with a
2 carbon chain length of C₁₆ and C₁₈ shifted from 1.0 to 0.8 in green, turning and black fruits,
3 and amounted to 0.5 in the leaf cutin matrix (Table 3).

4 **Composition of the Cuticular Wax of *Olea europaea* Fruits and Leaves**

5 The cuticular wax compositions and amounts of olive fruits at different developmental stages
6 and the adaxial leaf surface was determined. The total cuticular wax coverage did not change
7 significantly from green to turning to black fruits (195, 202 and 209 $\mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$, respectively;
8 Table 2; Figure 1B). Compared to the fruit waxes, the wax coverage of the adaxial leaf
9 surface was significantly higher (320 $\mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$).

10 Significant amounts of pentacyclic triterpenoids were present in the cuticular waxes of fruits,
11 which did not change significantly over the three developmental stages investigated (Table 3).
12 At the same time, the very-long-chain acyclic coverage significantly increased from 39 (green)
13 to 62 $\mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$ (black; Table 3) leading to a decrease in the relative contribution of
14 triterpenoids to the total wax from 74% (green), 67% (turning) to 62% black. The leaf
15 cuticular waxes consisted to an even higher degree of triterpenoids (83%) with a coverage of
16 266 $\mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$; Table 3). The cyclic wax fraction consists of the triterpenoid acids oleanolic acid,
17 maslinic acid, ursolic acid, betulinic acid, and the triterpenoid alcohols β -amyrin, erythrodiol,
18 and uvaol. The major triterpenoid was oleanolic acid (35% to 37% in fruits, 60% in leaves).
19 Additionally, an oleanolic acid derivative (11% to 20%) and maslinic acid (10% to 14%) were
20 found to be highly abundant in the cuticular fruit waxes. In comparison to fruits, higher
21 amounts of erythrodiol (6%), uvaol (7%) and ursolic acid (9%) were found on the adaxial leaf
22 surface (Table 2). Ursolic acid was not identified in olive fruits and the oleanolic acid
23 derivative and betulinic acid not in olive leaves.

24 Compared to the high amounts of pentacyclic triterpenoids, smaller proportions of very-long-
25 chain acyclic wax compounds were detected (Table 3). The main component classes were
26 fatty acids (8% to 9%) and primary alcohols (9% to 11%) in fruit cuticular waxes, most

1 prominently hexacosanoic acid (C₂₆) and hexacosanol (C₂₆). In leaf cuticular waxes, fatty
2 acids (1%) and *n*-alkanes (3%) were dominated by octacosanoic acid (C₂₈), *n*-hentriacontane
3 (C₃₁) and *n*-tritriacontane (C₃₃). Minor proportions of aldehydes, *n*-alkanes, alkyl esters,
4 methyl esters, phenyl methyl esters, diacylglycerols, and sterols were also found in the fruit
5 cuticular wax mixture (< 1% to 4%). Aldehydes, alkyl esters, methyl esters, phenyl methyl
6 esters, diacylglycerols, and sterols were not identified in cuticular waxes of the adaxial leaf
7 surface. Only small amounts of primary alcohols (< 1%) were found.

8 The homologous series of fatty acids, primary alcohols, aldehydes, alkyl esters, methyl esters
9 and phenyl methyl esters showed a very pronounced even-numbered carbon chain length
10 distribution, while odd-numbered homologs dominated the distributions of *n*-alkanes and
11 diacylglycerols. The carbon chain length distribution of both fatty acids and primary alcohols
12 ranged from C₂₀ to C₃₀ in all three fruit developmental stages. Aldehydes were identified from
13 C₂₂ to C₃₀ in fruit cuticular waxes. These compound classes made up 92% of the total very-
14 long-chain acyclic wax fraction in green, 83% in turning and 74% in black fruits. In contrast
15 to fruit waxes, *n*-alkanes with odd-numbered carbon chain lengths primarily from C₂₇ to C₃₃
16 were the main very-long-chain acyclic wax compounds of the total very-long-chain acyclic
17 wax fraction on the adaxial leaf surface (78%). Fatty acids in adaxial leaf waxes ranged from
18 C₂₀ to C₂₈, while the fraction of the primary alcohols contained only small amounts of
19 hexacosanol (C₂₆) and octacosanol (C₂₈). The average chain length (ACL) of very-long-chain
20 acyclic wax compounds was 25.8 for green, 26.6 for turning and 27.3 for black fruits and 30.1
21 for the adaxial leaf surface (Table 3). The ratios of cuticular wax and cutin coverages were in
22 the range of 0.2 for all three developmental stages of fruits and 0.52 for leaves (Table 3).

23 **Cuticular Water Permeability of *Olea europaea* Fruits and Leaves**

24 The fruit surface area was determined for relating the water loss to the transpiring area. It
25 increased significantly by 28% from 4.6 cm² in green to 6.1 cm² in turning and 6.4 cm² in
26 black fruits (Figure 2A). The cuticular transpiration of astomatous fruit and adaxial leaf

1 surfaces was determined gravimetrically. For both fruits and leaf, the cuticular water loss
2 followed a linear time course. The cuticular water loss of fruits at the three considered
3 developmental stages (green, turning and black) showed no significant differences but it was
4 considerably higher than the water loss rate across the adaxial leaf surface. Based on the
5 driving force, the cuticular water permeance was calculated. The cuticular water permeances
6 of green, turning and black fruits exhibited no significant differences and were on the average
7 $9.5 \times 10^{-5} \text{ m s}^{-1}$ (Figure 2B). The cuticular water permeance of the adaxial leaf surface was 2.1
8 $\times 10^{-5} \text{ m s}^{-1}$ and, thus, was significantly lower by a factor of five than that of the fruits.

9

10 DISCUSSION

11 The predominant cutin monomers of olive fruits in all three developmental stages are C_{16} and
12 C_{18} type monomers, which were dominated by 9/10, ω -dihydroxyhexadecanoic acid similarly
13 as in many other fruit crops such as *Prunus avium* L. (drupe)²⁵, *Rubus chamaemorus* L.
14 (aggregate fruit with drupelets)²⁶, *Capsicum annuum* L. (berry)²⁷ and *Solanum lycopersicum* L.
15 (berry).²⁸ Overall, the amounts of cutin monomers from the green to the turning and black
16 stage did not change significantly. A shift to a higher amount of C_{18} type monomers e.g.
17 octadecenoic acid, ω -hydroxyoctadecenoic acid and 9,10, ω -trihydroxyoctadecenoic acid,
18 resulting in an alteration of the C_{16}/C_{18} ratio from 1.1 to 0.8 during fruit development, was
19 detected. Kosma et al.²⁹ showed an increase in total cutin monomers for *Solanum*
20 *lycopersicum* L. during fruit development. In contrast, a decrease of total cutin was detected
21 during the final ripening of *Prunus avium* L. fruits.²⁵

22 In comparison to the black-stage fruit, the adaxial leaf surface had a significantly smaller
23 amount of cutin monomers. The prominent 9,10-epoxy- ω -hydroxyoctadecanoic acid found in
24 the olive leaf cutin had also been detected in leaves of *Agave americana* L., *Clivia miniata*
25 (Lindl.) Bosse, *Ilex aquifolium* L., *Nerium oleander* L. and *Sansevieria trifasciata* Prain
26 (evergreen leaves)^{30,31} and was not present in the olive fruits. Furthermore, the phenolic cutin

1 fraction exclusively consisting of coumaric acid and derivatives was distinctly reduced in the
2 cutin matrix of olive leaves. The ratio between the long-chain acyclic and the phenolic cutin
3 proportions was 23.7 for black fruits but 215.4 for fully expanded leaves.

4 The ratio of C₁₆/C₁₈ cutin monomers was 0.5 for the leaf cutin and 0.8 for the black fruit cutin.
5 The leaf and fruit cutin of olive displayed a mixed C₁₆ and C₁₈ type, which is very common in
6 plants, e.g. in *Ilex aquifolium* L..³² The fruit cutin matrix was also characterized by a
7 substantial proportion of unsaturated cutin monomers. The compositional differences between
8 fruit and leaf cutin of olive (carbon chain lengths, the degree of unsaturation, and the extent of
9 epoxidation) may lead to unique polymeric structures in both organs.

10 The cuticular waxes from the olive fruit surface of three developmental stages were
11 dominated by pentacyclic triterpenoids. Triterpenoid coverage did not significantly change
12 during fruit development. A decrease of triterpenoids in developing fruits was reported for
13 *Prunus avium* L..²⁵ The very-long-chain acyclic components, mainly fatty acids and primary
14 alcohols, constituted the smaller portion of cuticular waxes. An increase of the very-long-
15 chain acyclic fraction during fruit development was primarily due to a higher accumulation of
16 alkyl esters and primary alcohols. Bianchi et al.¹⁷ compared the green and black
17 developmental stages of fruits of the 'Coratina' cultivar. Similarly as found for the cultivar
18 'Arbequina,' the black-stage fruits exhibit a higher percentage of very-long-chain acyclic
19 components compared to the green-stage fruit. Also in the case of the 'Coratina' cultivar, the
20 fraction of pentacyclic triterpenoids decreased from the green to the black stage.

21 Overall, the total amount of cuticular waxes covering olive fruits was more or less constant at
22 the green, turning and black stages, which comprise the late fruit expansion phase. For
23 *Solanum lycopersicum* L. and *Prunus avium* L., a slight decrease of the cuticular wax quantity
24 during the later fruit developmental stages was shown.^{25,28} This reduction of cuticular waxes
25 was described as not a mere dilution effect, which could be due to the surface area expansion,
26 but resulted from specific changes of individual constituents.²⁵

1 Oleanolic acid was the major cuticular wax component in olive fruits over all three
2 developmental stages. As for olive fruits, this triterpene acid was also found as the main
3 triterpenoid in other fruit crops, e.g., *Prunus domestica* L. (drupe)³³, *Vaccinium myrtillus* L.
4 (berry)³⁴ and *Vitis vinifera* L. (berry).³⁵⁻³⁷ Fatty acids and primary alcohols with carbon chain
5 lengths between C₂₀ and C₃₀ were the most pronounced very-long-chain acyclic wax
6 compound classes in olive fruits. The very-long-chain acyclic wax fraction showed a
7 continuous increase in the average chain length (ACL), which describes the average number
8 of carbon atoms of very-long-chain acyclic components³⁸, from 25.8 to 27.3 over the three
9 developmental stages. The ACL value is widely accepted as a proxy indicator for the cuticular
10 wax quality in plants.

11 Comparing the black-stage fruit with the adaxial leaf surface, the total cuticular wax amount
12 was significantly higher for the leaf surface than for the fruit surface. The leaf cuticular waxes
13 were mainly composed of pentacyclic triterpenoids and a smaller fraction of very-long-chain
14 acyclic components. Like in fruits, oleanolic acid was the major cuticular wax compound in
15 leaves, which is not common for leaf cuticular waxes.³⁹ In leaves of *Ligustrum vulgare* L.,
16 also a member of the Oleaceae plant family, ursolic acid dominated the cuticular wax
17 mixture.⁴⁰

18 Fruits and leaves of olive were characterized by an organ-specific pattern of triterpenoid
19 composition, which might indicate differences in the triterpenoid biosynthesis in both organs.
20 Cuticular waxes of olive contained mainly pentacyclic triterpenoids from the oleanane type:
21 predominantly oleanolic acid and maslinic acid in fruits and oleanolic acid and erythrodiol in
22 leaves. With the exception of the deposition on the olive fruit surface, maslinic acid has been
23 very rarely detected in fruits, e.g. in *Ziziphus jujuba* Mill. (drupe)⁴¹, *Rubus chingii* Hu
24 (aggregate fruit with drupelets)⁴² and *Malus pumila* Mill. (pome)⁴³. Additionally, cuticular
25 waxes of olive leaves exhibited a high amount of ursolic acid and uvaol that belong to the

1 ursane type of triterpenoids, whereas only fruit cuticular waxes had betulinic acid of the
2 lupane type.⁴⁴

3 The ratio between the very-long-chain acyclic and the cyclic wax proportions was 0.5 for
4 black fruits and only 0.04 for fully expanded leaves. The very-long-chain acyclic wax fraction
5 of olive leaves exhibited a considerably higher average chain length (ACL) value of 30.1. *N*-
6 alkanes and fatty acids with carbon chain lengths between C₂₆ and C₃₃ as well as C₂₀ and C₃₀
7 were the prominent very-long-chain acyclic wax compound classes in the cuticular waxes of
8 olive leaves. Bianchi et al.¹⁸ analyzed the leaf cuticular waxes of the olive cultivars
9 'Cipressino' and 'Coratina'. They also found that the main proportion were triterpenoids, and
10 that the very-long-chain acyclic fraction was mainly composed of *n*-alkanes and fatty acids.
11 Similar very-long-chain acyclic component classes were detected for the 'Arbequina' cultivar,
12 but the percentage of individual component classes might be cultivar-specific.

13 Olive fruits and leaves were characterized by a high amount of cuticular waxes but significant
14 organ-specific modifications in both the very-long-chain acyclic wax compound classes and
15 triterpene types, which might have a major influence on the barrier properties of the olive leaf
16 and fruit surface. The total amounts and composition of the cuticles of olive fruits and leaves
17 were different, also showing a different ratio between cuticular waxes and cutin monomers
18 (0.2 for black fruits and 0.5 for fully expanded leaves), which may have an impact on the
19 cuticular functions.

20 The cuticular water permeability of the three developmental fruit stages was not significantly
21 different and was on the average $9.5 \times 10^{-5} \text{ m s}^{-1}$. The increasing coverage of very-long-chain
22 acyclic compounds from 39 (green) to 62 $\mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$ (black) did not lead to changes in cuticular
23 permeability.

24 The adaxial leaf surface of the 'Arbequina' cultivar had a cuticular permeance of $2.1 \times 10^{-5} \text{ m}$
25 s^{-1} which is significantly lower by a factor of five than the water permeability of the black-
26 stage fruits. Cuticular water permeances of leaves within the Oleaceae reported so far ranged

1 from $1.5 \times 10^{-5} \text{ m s}^{-1}$ to $1.9 \times 10^{-5} \text{ m s}^{-1}$ measured for *Ligustrum vulgare* L., *Forsythia*
2 *suspensa* (Thunb.) Vahl and *Syringa vulgaris* L..^{45,46} Schreiber and Riederer⁴⁵ determined a
3 value of $5.5 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m s}^{-1}$ for isolated leaf cuticles from an unspecified olive cultivar, which
4 was distinctly lower than that found for the 'Arbequina' cultivar in this study. A study
5 comparing leaves and fruits of several species showed that fruits generally had higher
6 cuticular permeabilities than leaves.⁴⁵ Up to now, there was no study directly comparing the
7 cuticular permeability of fruits and leaves of the same species.

8 Alterations in cuticle composition are commonly proposed to affect the cuticular transport
9 barrier. Within the plant cuticle, the cuticular waxes establish the main transport-limiting
10 barrier. Differences in the cutin polymer composition and the corresponding primary and
11 secondary ester linkages have also been proposed to influence the barrier properties.^{15,16,47}

12 The transpiration barrier properties of the cuticular waxes are associated with the very-long-
13 chain acyclic wax components rather than with the cyclic wax compounds.^{28,48,49} A model of
14 the physical arrangement of the wax constituents suggests that very-long-chain acyclic
15 components are arranged in impermeable crystalline domains and amorphous zones in
16 between which may also contain cyclic components.^{14,50} Water diffusion is assumed to occur
17 only in the amorphous zone following a very tortuous pathway around the crystalline flakes.

18 Therefore, it has been proposed that the physical properties derived from wax composition
19 and not wax quantity determine the efficacy of the transpiration barrier.^{10,14} In analogy to
20 polyethylene, which is a semi-crystalline long-chain acyclic material comparable to cuticular
21 waxes, the degree of crystallinity should determine the barrier properties of cuticular waxes.
22 The higher the crystallinity is, the longer is the effective pathway, and consequently, the lower
23 is the effective diffusion coefficient of water molecules across this barrier.⁵¹ The average
24 chain length (ACL) of the very-long-chain acyclic wax components is one of several
25 parameters influencing crystallinity.

1 In olive, the coverage of very-long-chain acyclic components in the cuticular waxes is almost
2 6-fold lower in leaves than in black-stage fruits. At the same time leaves have a two-fold
3 higher coverage of cyclic components. So, at first sight, one might expect that the fruits
4 should have a lower cuticular permeability since it has been shown in the past that the very-
5 long-chain acyclic components primarily make up the transpiration barrier while the
6 contribution of the cyclic components to the barrier is small or absent. Therefore, the reason
7 for the observed higher efficacy of the leaf transpiration barrier might be caused by
8 differences in the molecular properties of the very-long-chain fraction. We hypothesize that
9 the higher ACL in leaves as compared to fruits might be a prominent factor leading to the
10 considerably lower permeability of the leaf cuticle. Additional factors like cutin polymer
11 structure and cutin/wax interactions may also contribute to the organ-specific differences in
12 cuticular permeability observed in this study.

13

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18

19 **ASSOCIATED CONTENT**

20 **Supporting Information**

21 **Table S1.** Detailed chemical composition of the cutin polymer of *Olea europaea* L. cultivar
22 'Arbequina' fruits in green, turning and black stages and the fully expanded, adaxial leaf
23 surface. Data were given as means \pm standard deviation in $\mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$ ($n = 5$).

24 **Table S2.** Detailed chemical composition of the cuticular waxes of *Olea europaea* L. cultivar
25 'Arbequina' fruits in green, turning and black stages and the fully expanded adaxial leaf
26 surface. Data were given as means \pm standard deviation in $\mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$ ($n = 5$).

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Figure Legends

Figure 1. The total amount of cutin monomers (a) and the total amount of cuticular waxes (b) for the three developmental stages of *Olea europaea* L. cultivar 'Arbequina' fruits (green, turning and black) and the adaxial leaf surface (n = 5).

There were no statistical differences between the three fruit stages ($p = 0.074$ and $p = 0.565$ for cutin and wax respectively). The leaf cutin monomer amount was significantly lower ($p < 0.001$) and the leaf total cuticular wax amount was significantly higher ($p < 0.001$) in comparison to the fruit (black stage).

Figure 2. Surface area (a) and the permeance for water (b) of *Olea europaea* L. cultivar 'Arbequina' fruits (green, turning and black) and the adaxial leaf surface of fully expanded leaves (n = 12).

The surface area of the three fruit stages differed significantly ($p < 0.001$, green and turning $p < 0.001$, green and black $p < 0.001$, turning and black $p = 0.051$). The water permeances of the fruit stages did not differ significantly ($p = 0.187$). The water permeance of the adaxial leaf surface was significantly lower than the water permeance of the black-stage fruits ($p < 0.01$).

Table 1. Composition of the cutin polymer of *Olea europaea* L. cultivar 'Arbequina' fruits in green, turning and black stages and the fully expanded, adaxial leaf surface. Data were given as means \pm standard deviations ($\mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$; n = 5).

compound classes	fruit						leaf	
	green stage		turning stage		black stage		adaxial surface	
fatty acids	17.92	\pm 2.47	19.21	\pm 1.99	32.06	\pm 11.34	11.68	\pm 3.93
ω -hydroxy fatty acids	46.09	\pm 11.91	49.56	\pm 9.34	96.30	\pm 31.42	13.56	\pm 2.26
ω -hydroxy fatty acids with mid-chain hydroxy group	698.90	\pm 43.17	742.11	\pm 60.68	864.72	\pm 143.71	273.03	\pm 39.28
ω -hydroxy fatty acids with mid-chain epoxy group	-		-		-		247.36	\pm 40.68
ω -hydroxy fatty acids with mid-chain oxo group	11.09	\pm 9.74	5.60	\pm 2.93	5.85	\pm 2.53	-	
α,ω -dicarboxylic fatty acids	1.38	\pm 0.25	2.91	\pm 2.10	1.70	\pm 0.28	-	
α,ω -dicarboxylic fatty acids with mid-chain epoxy group	9.61	\pm 3.69	7.26	\pm 4.53	5.81	\pm 2.47	3.66	\pm 0.60
phenolic compounds	46.61	\pm 5.14	44.19	\pm 5.54	42.39	\pm 4.53	2.55	\pm 0.58
not identified	137.68	\pm 13.96	134.10	\pm 16.08	106.29	\pm 13.12	78.62	\pm 11.12
total cutin	969.29	\pm 54.10	1004.94	\pm 71.42	1129.05	\pm 151.04	630.46	\pm 88.57

Table 2. Composition of the cuticular waxes of *Olea europaea* L. cultivar 'Arbequina' fruits in green, turning and black stages and the fully expanded adaxial leaf surface. Data were given as means \pm standard deviations ($\mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$; n = 5).

compound classes	fruit						leaf	
	green stage		turning stage		black stage		adaxial surface	
fatty acids	15.23	\pm 2.50	18.60	\pm 2.48	18.62	\pm 1.60	2.14	\pm 0.64
primary alcohols	17.86	\pm 2.16	21.43	\pm 2.07	23.4	\pm 2.27	0.25	\pm 0.05
aldehydes	3.19	\pm 0.79	4.67	\pm 0.66	4.55	\pm 0.94	-	
<i>n</i> -alkanes	1.12	\pm 0.22	2.27	\pm 0.68	3.23	\pm 0.84	8.47	\pm 3.09
alkyl esters	0.53	\pm 0.13	3.77	\pm 1.32	8.60	\pm 3.00	-	
methyl esters	0.10	\pm 0.02	0.20	\pm 0.03	0.17	\pm 0.09	-	
phenyl methyl esters	0.55	\pm 0.23	1.24	\pm 0.28	1.41	\pm 0.50	-	
diacylglycerols	0.82	\pm 0.26	1.71	\pm 0.48	2.98	\pm 0.62	-	
triterpenoids	144.45	\pm 19.43	135.82	\pm 12.97	129.19	\pm 12.18	266.36	\pm 38.97
sterols	0.08	\pm 0.04	0.06	\pm 0.03	0.08	\pm 0.03	-	
not identified	10.69	\pm 3.82	11.84	\pm 2.97	16.41	\pm 1.92	43.19	\pm 13.71
total wax	194.61	\pm 22.84	201.61	\pm 19.65	208.64	\pm 17.94	320.41	\pm 39.54

Table 3. Amount of cyclic and very-long-chain acyclic wax fractions ($\mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$), weighted average chain length (ACL) of the very-long-chain acyclic wax fraction, ratio of cuticular waxes and cutin, ratio of main cutin monomers of C_{16} and C_{18} of *Olea europaea* L. cultivar 'Arbequina' fruits in green, turning and black stages and the fully expanded adaxial leaf surface. Data were given as means \pm standard deviations ($n = 5$).

organ		cyclic fraction	very-long-chain acyclic fraction	ACL	wax/cutin	$\text{C}_{16}/\text{C}_{18}$
fruit	green stage	145.07 \pm 19.31	38.85 \pm 5.26	25.80 \pm 0.11	0.20 \pm 0.03	1.10 \pm 0.11
	turning stage	137.12 \pm 13.07	52.65 \pm 6.18	26.55 \pm 0.19	0.20 \pm 0.03	1.06 \pm 0.12
	black stage	130.68 \pm 12.09	61.55 \pm 5.94	27.27 \pm 0.26	0.19 \pm 0.03	0.78 \pm 0.17
leaf	leaf adaxial	266.36 \pm 38.97	10.86 \pm 3.51	30.06 \pm 0.27	0.52 \pm 0.07	0.45 \pm 0.02

Figure 1.

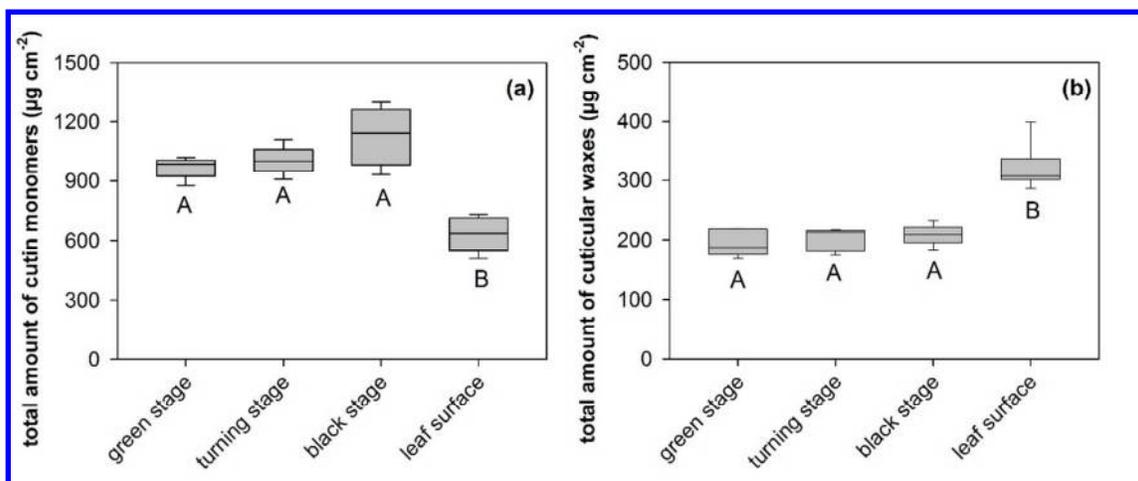
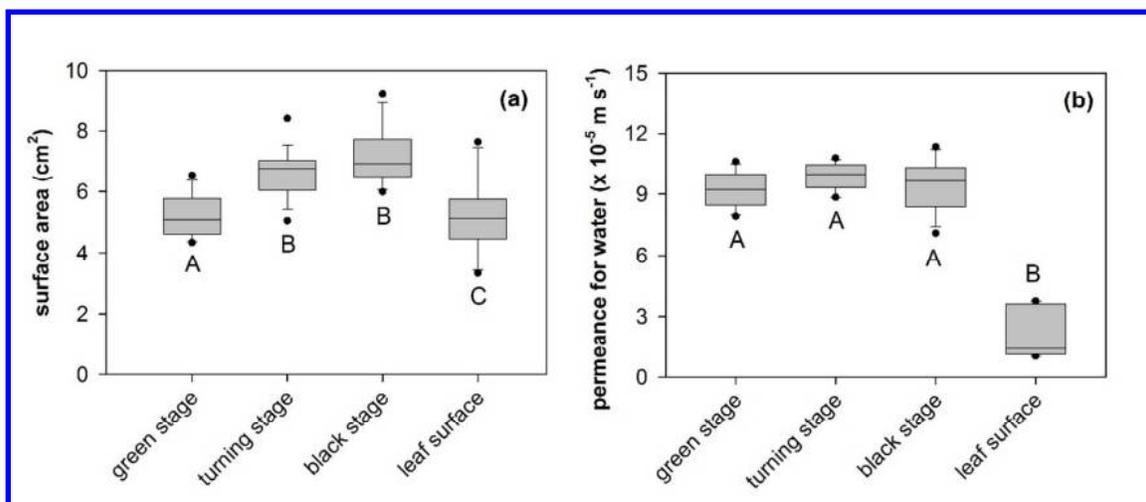


Figure 2.



TOC graphic

