



Review

Why calcium deficiency is not the cause of blossom-end rot in tomato and pepper fruit – a reappraisal



Max C. Saure*

Chamber of Agriculture (retired), Dorfstr. 17, 21647 Moisburg, Germany

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ABSTRACT

From a review of the relevant literature it is concluded that Ca^{2+} deficiency is not the cause but a result of blossom-end rot (BER) in tomato and pepper fruit. Actually, a depletion of the apoplasmic pool of water-soluble Ca^{2+} in fruit has been observed only after the symptoms of BER were already visible, whereas in fruit at the early stages of BER development, the distribution and concentration of Ca^{2+} was still similar to that in healthy fruit. The actual causes of BER are obviously the effects of abiotic stress, e.g. by salinity, drought, high light intensity, heat, and ammonia nutrition, resulting in an increase of reactive oxygen species (ROS), high oxidative stress and finally cell death. Cell death results in a disintegration of the plasma membrane and tonoplast and a breakdown of the endoplasmic reticulum, thus not following but preceding ion leakage, including Ca^{2+} leakage, and loss of turgor. Bioactive gibberellins (GAs) reduce the accumulation of Ca^{2+} but increase the susceptibility to stress and the risk of BER, while abscisic acid (ABA) has the opposite effect. Ca^{2+} stabilizes cell structures and may thus limit cell expansion. It is usually sufficiently available for plant development and therefore Ca^{2+} deficiency is rare in nature. Application of GA biosynthesis inhibitors, such as prohexadione-Ca, and of GA antagonists, such as ABA, may completely inhibit the development of BER even at very low availability of Ca^{2+} . With this approach, a better understanding and a more efficient control of BER in tomato and pepper fruit is envisaged.

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Contents

1. Introduction	151
2. Stress and BER: the causes of cell death	152
3. Phytohormones and BER: the susceptibility to stress	152
3.1. Gibberellins	152
3.2. Abscisic acid	153
4. Conclusions	153
References	153

1. Introduction

Blossom-end rot (BER) in fruit of tomato (*Lycopersicon esculentum* Mill.) and pepper (*Capsicum annuum* L.) is characterized by enhanced permeability and deterioration of cell membranes, with subsequent loss of turgor and leakage of cell liquids. Since Lyon et al. (1942) reported that BER was most prevalent and severe when the contents of Ca^{2+} in the nutrient solution and in the fruit was very low, BER is generally considered a 'calcium-related disorder', resulting from a localized inadequacy of Ca^{2+} due to various

environmental factors (Shear, 1975). Recently, De Freitas and Mitcham (2012) in an extensive review have supported the hypothesis that BER, like bitter pit (BP) in apple, is not only related to but caused by fruit calcium deficiency, i.e. that this disorder "can be triggered by mechanisms that reduce plant Ca^{2+} uptake from the soil, fruit Ca^{2+} uptake from the plant, and Ca^{2+} translocation within the fruit, and also result in abnormal regulation of cellular Ca^{2+} partitioning". However, at the same time De Freitas et al. (2012) also stated that the mechanisms triggering BER are still not well understood after being studied for more than 100 years, and that they are among the most complex and challenging processes in plants.

On the other hand, Nonami et al. (1995) suggested that Ca^{2+} deficiency in the fruit may not be the direct cause of the occurrence of BER in tomato, because fruit that had just started having

* Tel.: +49 4165 6277; fax: +49 4165 216 775.
 E-mail address: msaure@t-online.de

BER had a similar distribution and concentration of Ca^{2+} ions as normal fruit. [Ho and White \(2005\)](#) stated that no absolute, critical fruit Ca^{2+} concentration for the occurrence of BER has been identified, and that BER may occur in fruit with apparently adequate tissue Ca^{2+} concentrations. They agreed that predicting and preventing the occurrence of BER in glasshouse tomatoes based on measurements of their Ca^{2+} status was not always effective.

Because a relationship between Ca^{2+} deficiency and the occurrence of BER is not always obvious ([Petersen and Willumsen, 1992](#); [Nonami et al., 1995](#); [Saure, 2001](#); [Aktas et al., 2005](#)), the function of Ca^{2+} deficiency in the development of BER remains disputed. Therefore, it has been suggested that it may not be the total Ca^{2+} content of the fruit, but an abnormal cellular Ca^{2+} partitioning and distribution that leads to a cellular localized Ca^{2+} deficiency and thus to BER ([Ho and White, 2005](#); [De Freitas and Mitcham, 2012](#)). However, recent research rather indicates a central function of stress in BER development.

2. Stress and BER: the causes of cell death

In an earlier review on the causes of BER ([Saure, 2001](#)), it has been outlined that neither insufficient Ca^{2+} nutrition alone nor the influence of stress alone reliably cause symptoms of BER. Rather, an interaction between increased susceptibility to stress and subsequent stress was supposed to be the prerequisite for an occurrence of BER. However, the mechanism by which various stresses under certain conditions may cause BER, remained obscure. Meanwhile, considerable progress has been achieved. In the last years, several investigations have contributed to a better understanding on how various stress factors, such as salinity, drought, high light intensity, heat, and ammonia nutrition, cause BER and contribute to Ca^{2+} deficiency.

The influence of stress on the occurrence of BER in pepper and tomato fruit is based in part on an increased activity of NAD(P)H oxidase – an oxygen radicals generating enzyme – and on increased production of reactive oxygen species (ROS), such as superoxide radicals, hydroxyl radicals and singlet oxygen (O_2) in the fruit apoplast, i.e. in the free diffusional space outside the plasma membrane ([Aktas et al., 2003, 2005](#); [Turhan et al., 2006](#); [Mestre et al., 2012](#)). This happens especially in the most sensitive developmental stage at the beginning of rapid fruit growth and development, and mainly in the fruit placental tissue close to the fruit tip in non-affected fruit ([Aloni and Karni, 2001](#)). ROS are known to trigger cell death, which is characterized by a progressive loss of membrane integrity, resulting in swelling of the cytoplasm and release of cellular constituents ([Van Breusegem and Dat, 2006](#)). This agrees with morphological changes in tomato fruit being affected by BER, as described by [Suzuki et al. \(2000, 2003\)](#): Inside the cells, these changes consist of a disruption of the plasma membrane and tonoplast, a wavy-shaped cell wall, breakdown of endoplasmic reticulum and swollen plastids, leading to a rapid vacuolation of parenchyma cells, epidermal cells and sub-epidermal parenchyma cells in the pericarp of the fruit, and consequently to high electrolyte leakage. This includes the loss of Ca^{2+} ions, which may explain the lower Ca^{2+} concentrations mainly in the apoplast ([De Freitas et al., 2012](#)).

3. Phytohormones and BER: the susceptibility to stress

A certain amount of stress, caused by either a single or an interaction of several environmental factors, does not always result in a corresponding degree of BER ([Saure, 2001](#)). Rather, a sequence of luxuriant growth, promoting high susceptibility to BER, and subsequent severe stress appears to be required in order to

trigger cell death. Mainly two kinds of phytohormones appear to interfere specifically with stress, in opposite directions: Bioactive gibberellins (GAs) and abscisic acid (ABA).

3.1. Gibberellins

For the promotion of vigorous growth, an important factor is high availability of bioactive GAs; either endogenously produced as a result, e.g. of excessive nitrogen supply, disturbed root/shoot balance, or poor yield, or being externally applied. In the tomato pericarp, the physiologically most important bioactive GAs are presumably GA_1 and GA_{20} ([Bohner et al., 1988](#)). The concentration of GA_1 in tomato pericarp is highest early during fruit development. At this time, fruit growth by cell expansion is rapid, especially at the blossom-end. This is the phase of greatest risk of BER. Whereas GA concentrations are highest, the concentration of Ca^{2+} is strictly reduced in this period ([Goodwin, 1978](#)); plants have developed mechanisms for restricting the transport of Ca^{2+} to fruits to allow for rapid cell expansion and high membrane permeability ([Marschner, 1995](#)). However, [Marschner \(1995\)](#) warned that high growth rates may increase the risk that the tissue content of Ca^{2+} falls below the critical level required for cell wall stabilization and membrane integrity. In this case, spraying with Ca^{2+} -salts onto the fruits may help to reduce the incidence of BER, as observed by several authors (cf [Saure, 2001](#); [Ho and White, 2005](#)). Yet, obviously the main cause of BER remains the increased level of physiological active GAs together with severe stress, but not Ca^{2+} -deficiency: [Chiu and Bould \(1976\)](#) reported that at low Ca^{2+} supply BER did not occur when plants were growing slowly.

An antagonism between Ca^{2+} and vegetative growth had already been observed by [Lyon et al. \(1942\)](#): Low Ca^{2+} in the nutrient medium resulted in the most extensive root systems and the most succulent vines, indicating high GA activity. In this case, low supply of Ca^{2+} may have caused the high incidence of BER more indirectly via increased GA activity.

A promotion of BER incidence in tomato by application of GAs has been stated first by [Bangerth \(1973\)](#) and confirmed by [Castro and Malavolta \(1977\)](#). An intensive investigation over 2 years has been carried out by [De Freitas et al. \(2012\)](#): Weekly treatments with GA_{4+7} increased the membrane permeability of fruit tissue and reduced apoplastic water-soluble Ca^{2+} content in pericarp tissue. However, total water-soluble Ca^{2+} content did not differ among treatments in these experiments. The incidence of BER in fruit treated with GA_{4+7} reached nearly 100%, as compared to 20–40% after control treatments with water. In contrary, treatments with prohexadione-Ca (Apogee), a GA biosynthesis inhibitor, resulted in 0% BER, even at very low Ca^{2+} content in the substrate.

GAs may promote BER, and cell death in general, by various mechanisms, e.g.

- by down-regulating ROS-scavenging enzymes (enzymatic antioxidants), such as superoxide dismutase, catalase, and ascorbate peroxidase, thus rendering these cells sensitive to oxidative damage and cell death ([Kwak et al., 2006](#));
- by stimulating the destruction of the growth-inhibiting DELLA proteins, which normally cause ROS levels to remain low under environmental stress and in this way delay cell death and promote stress tolerance ([Achar et al., 2008](#)).

However, detailed information on the mechanisms by which less GA-signaling contributes to enhanced stress tolerance, is still scarce ([Colebrook et al., 2014](#)). From a practical point of view, the fact is important that GA-signaling can be reduced, e.g. by root restriction ([Bar-Tal and Pressman, 1996](#); [Karni et al., 2000](#)), by application of the growth-retarding triazoles paclobutrazol

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