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Influence of pre-harvest calcium applications on table olive characteristics during Spanish-style elaboration process

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17 **Abstract**

18 Calcium is largely used in agri-food industry due to its positive effects, such as, preserving  
19 activity or protection against pathogens. An increase in firmness and phenolic content has been  
20 spotted after post-harvest spraying of calcium chloride (CaCl<sub>2</sub>) solutions. The aim of this  
21 research was to investigate the effects of pre-harvest applications of two CaCl<sub>2</sub> concentrations  
22 (Ca 0.5% and Ca 1.0%) during the Spanish-style elaboration process (beginning, middle and  
23 final of fermentation process). In particular, the Ca concentration in the whole fruit and in the  
24 different tissues (pulp, pit and seed), the firmness, the phenolic content, and the antioxidant  
25 activity were analysed in 'Ascolana tenera' table olive. An increase in Ca concentration in the  
26 pulp (20.2% and 55.1%) and in the seed (13.4% and 36.5%) was observed along monitoring  
27 period when 0.5% and 1.0% CaCl<sub>2</sub> concentrations were respectively compared with Ca 0%  
28 (water). No significant Ca increase was found in the pit. The fruit firmness was higher after the  
29 Ca-treatments (22.8% and 68.3%, respectively). The content of Hydroxytyrosol, Tyrosol and  
30 Verbascoside decreased during the elaboration process. The highest content found of these  
31 phenols were at the first date of monitoring for 1.0% CaCl<sub>2</sub> concentration. Hydroxytyrosol,  
32 Oleuropein and PBI showed significant difference at different monitoring dates. During the  
33 fermentation period, the antioxidant activity presented an increase between 63.3 and 87.2%  
34 with respect to Control (Ca 0%). Similar increasing trend was also registered for the phenolic  
35 compounds. Our results are useful for the table olive sector to improve the handling in post-  
36 harvest processing and increase the final quality of the olives.

37 **Keywords:** 'Ascolana tenera'; post-harvest; firmness; phenolic compounds; antioxidant  
38 activity.

39

## 40 **Introduction**

41 Farmers growing olive trees (*Olea europaea* L.) in the Mediterranean basin are improving the  
42 production processes to increase the quality of the table olives on the international markets  
43 (International Olive Council, 2020). At the industrial level, there are different production  
44 methods, and the Spanish-style is one of the most important used all over the world (Rallo et  
45 al., 2018). Olives are debittered with lye solutions and then washed and submitted to lactic  
46 fermentation in brine for several months. Different table olive varieties are processed according  
47 to the Spanish-style such as ‘Manzanilla’, ‘Gordal’, ‘Hojiblanca’, ‘Carrasqueña’ and  
48 ‘Cacereña’ (Cabrera-Bañegil et al., 2018). Also ‘Ascolana tenera’ is processed as the Spanish-  
49 style. This olive variety, grown mainly in the Marche Region in the central Italy under the  
50 Protected Origin Designation “Oliva Ascolana del Piceno”, has a big-size fruit and a high pulp-  
51 to-pit ratio. However, it has a very sensitive pulp and the fruits can be subjected to damages  
52 during harvest, transport and processing, decreasing the final quality and value of the  
53 production (Lodolini et al., 2019; Morales-Sillero et al., 2021).

54 Calcium has an important role in the fruit quality (Conway et al., 2002; Morales-Sillero et al.,  
55 2021) by creating cross-bridges with pectic polymers in the cell wall strengthening it  
56 (Manganaris et al., 2005), and increasing its resistance to hydrolytic enzymes (Miceli et al.,  
57 1999). Calcium is also able to improve the resistance against pathogens, such as Anthracnose  
58 or Botrytis, affecting fruit tissues (Miceli et al., 1999; Langer et al., 2019; Madani et al., 2014).  
59 The decrease in calcium content leads to enzymatic browning of the tissues (Jemrić et al., 2016)  
60 , causing the degradation of the fruit and its quality decline. Ca-treatments has been used in  
61 agri-food industry to improve the quality of many fruits, such as, apples (Holb et al., 2012),  
62 olives (Gouvinhas and Barros, 2021; Tsantili et al., 2008), peaches (Manganaris et al., 2005)  
63 and table grapes (Ciccarese et al., 2013). Pre-harvest treatments applied to olives, using foliar

64 application of calcium, demonstrated that a higher calcium content augmented the phenolic  
65 compounds and increased the fruit firmness, slowing down the degradation of the cell wall  
66 (Morales-Sillero et al., 2021). Post-harvest Ca-treatments may be useful as well to enhance the  
67 firmness and elongate the shelf life of the olive (Rincón and Martínez, 2015). In the same way,  
68 spraying calcium solution to the fruits after harvest may be useful to overcome calcium  
69 deficiencies. The bibliography also reports that fruits, in this case the table olives, tend to form  
70 cracks in the skin surface (membrane breaking) when they are mature, (Harker and Ferguson,  
71 1988). These fractures can act like an easy-way access for the calcium into the fruit. However,  
72 the fruit quality enhancement induced by calcium, as well as its absorption mechanisms,  
73 transport and storing in the fruit itself, is not yet fully understood (Hocking et al., 2016).

74 Previous studies highlighted that there may be difference in the Ca concentration required to  
75 increase its content in the fruit based on the tree species or cultivar (Lara, 2013). Tomatoes  
76 increased the firmness when dipped in a  $\text{CaCl}_2$  (2%) solution after harvest (Gharezi and  
77 Gharezi, 2012), as well as papayas when treated with 2.5% concentration (Gao et al., 2020) or  
78 fresh-cut cantaloupe melons when dipped in  $\text{CaCl}_2$  (1-5%) concentration (Luna-Guzmán et al.,  
79 1999). Post-harvest treatments with  $\text{CaCl}_2$  increased the total phenolic content for storage  
80 cherries, along with an improvement of the antioxidant activity (Aghdam et al., 2013). In  
81 previous research studies, post-harvest Ca-treatment effects have been assessed in Californian-  
82 style black and green table olives (Martín-Vertedor et al., 2021, 2020).

83 The effects of pre-harvest application of calcium chloride on the quality of Spanish-style table  
84 olives have not been deeply investigated. The lack of literature about this topic can depend on  
85 several factors, as for example the effective concentration or the frequency of application to be  
86 applied in order to obtain significant changes in the fruit characteristics (Morales-Sillero et al.,  
87 2021). For all the above, the proposed hypothesis states that pre-harvest Ca applications

88 increase table olives quality after the elaboration process. In order to contrast this, the aim of  
89 this study was to deepen the knowledge about the effect of two CaCl<sub>2</sub> concentrations applied in  
90 three different dates of the fruit development (Morales-Sillero et al., 2021), through the quality  
91 of the olives during the Spanish-style fermentation process for table olives.

92

## 93 **Material and Methods**

### 94 **Chemical reagents**

95 To apply the foliar calcium treatments in the olive trees, CaCl<sub>2</sub> 2H<sub>2</sub>O, 99.0% (Labkem,  
96 Barcelona, Spain) and a commercial adjuvant Tween-20, 0.5% (ThermoFisher Scientific, MO,  
97 USA) were used. For the olive elaboration according to the Spanish-style, sodium hydroxide,  
98 acetic acid and sodium chloride were purchased from Sigma Aldrich (Sigma-Aldrich, San Luis,  
99 USA). Commercial grade nitric acid (Sigma-Aldrich, San Luis, USA) solutions were used for  
100 calcium analysis. For phenol profile apigenin-7-O-glucoside, hydroxytyrosol, luteolin,  
101 oleuropein, procyanidin B1 (PB1), and verbascoside were purchased by Extrasynthèse (Genay,  
102 France). Apigenin, epicatechin, luteolin-7-O-glucoside, quercetin-3-rutinoside and tyrosol (p-  
103 HPEA) by Sigma-Aldrich Chemie (Steinheim, Germany). p-coumaric acid by Fluka Chemie  
104 (Steinheim, Germany). Acetonitrile and methanol (HPLC grade) were supplied from Fisher  
105 Scientific (Loughborough, UK), formic acid by PANREAC (Barcelona, Spain), and sodium  
106 fluoride by Sigma-Aldrich Chemie (Steinheim, Germany).

### 107 **Plant material**

108 The study was carried out in 2017 on the cultivar 'Ascolana tenera' in a drip-irrigated olive  
109 orchard planted in 2009 in Montalto delle Marche (Central Italy) with a planting density of 200  
110 trees ha<sup>-1</sup> (7.0 m × 7.0 m) as reported in Morales-Sillero et al. (2021). The cultivar was drip-

111 irrigated orchard ( $\sim 1500 \text{ m}^3 \cdot \text{ha}^{-1}$ ). The mean temperature and total annual rainfall were  $13.4 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$   
112 and  $820 \text{ mm}$ , respectively (Servizio Agrometeo ASSAM, Regione Marche).

113 This variety is characterized by a large size fruit ( $7\text{-}8 \text{ g}$ ), a high pulp-to-pit ratio, and a very soft  
114 flesh. The high sensitivity of 'Ascolana tenera' can lead to the appearance of black spots on the  
115 skin during the harvesting operations and the transport process. The fruit is typically picked at  
116 the pale green ripening stage for small-scale production (local market) of table olives under the  
117 Protected Designation of Origin 'Oliva Ascolana del Piceno' (Lodolini et al., 2019).

118 During our study, full bloom and harvest occurred on May 30<sup>th</sup> and September 14<sup>th</sup> 2017,  
119 respectively. Olives were harvested at yellowish-green skin/pulp colour stage of maturation and  
120 presented morphological characteristics as indicated in Morales-Sillero et al. (2021). The fruit  
121 mass of 'Ascolana tenera' variety in all the experimental treatments was  $5 \text{ g}$ .

122

### 123 **Experimental Design**

124 Two different calcium concentrations, Ca 0.5% and Ca 1.0%, were administered in the morning  
125 by foliar applications with a commercial adjuvant (Tween-20;  $100 \text{ mL} \cdot 100 \text{ L}^{-1}$ ). The treatments  
126 were repeated three times during the fruit development: i) at the end of fruit set; ii) at the end  
127 of pit hardening; and iii) two weeks before harvesting. Water was used as Control (Ca 0%) and  
128 sprayed the same days when calcium was applied. Each calcium concentration was applied to  
129 three replicates of five homogeneous trees in a randomized block design with guard trees around  
130 the trees, as reported in Morales-Sillero et al. (2021).

### 131 **Spanish-style elaboration process**

132 Immediately after harvest, the olives were kept separated according to the Ca-treatment,  
133 transported to the processing facility and separately elaborated according to the Spanish-style  
134 (Schaide et al., 2019). Each replicate of fermented fruits consisted of three 225L-fermentors

135 (olives of 5 trees) for ~110 kg of olives per replica. Thus, olives were treated with NaOH  
136 solution (2.5%, w/v at 25 °C) for debittering until 2/3 of the flesh was reached. Then the alkaline  
137 solution was removed and clean water was flown for 12 hours for the washing stage. Finally,  
138 to allow the fermentation process, olives were placed into NaCl brine solution at 10%, w/v that  
139 was stabilized with olives at 6% of NaCl. The total chloride concentration present in the brine  
140 was also monitored and controlled. The pH of the brine was continuously adjusted a 3.8 point  
141 in all the trials by adding lactic acid, in order to maintain adequate chemical condition in each  
142 fermenter. A spontaneous fermentation occurred between October 2017 and March 2018 (160  
143 days). The final of the fermentation process was also determined by evaluating olive color by  
144 the tasting panel. According to official protocol of the Protected Designation of Origin 'Oliva  
145 Ascolana del Piceno', after the elaboration process and during the conservation period, NaCl  
146 concentration was maintained around 8% and the pH below 4.5. No enterobacteria, coliforms,  
147 *Bacillus*, and *Pseudomonas* were detected during the elaboration process. The elaboration  
148 process was done in three replicates for each treatment.

149 Fruit samples were collected at different dates of the fermentation process: 1) beginning of  
150 fermentation process; 2) middle of fermentation process; and 3) final of fermentation process.

151 The analysis for the calcium content, firmness, phenol profile and antioxidant activity were  
152 performed.

### 153 **Calcium analysis**

154 Fifty fruits per replicate were washed three times in distilled water and dried using a filtering  
155 paper. The olive pulp was removed from the pit with a manual stoner. The seeds were also  
156 separated by the pit with a commercial hammer. The vegetal material was crushed with a  
157 thermobeater and 2 g was dried at 100 °C for 24 hours and ashed in a muffle furnace at 550 °C  
158 (1° C min<sup>-1</sup>). The ashes were dissolved in 20 mL of 4% HNO<sub>3</sub>. The calcium content was



159 determined using an ICP-OES Perkin-Elmer 5300 DV spectrophotometer at 317.933 nm in a  
160 radial mode, with a concentric nebulizer and a cyclonic nebulization chamber. Results were  
161 expressed as mg kg<sup>-1</sup> on dry weight (d.w.).

### 162 **Sensory analysis of the fruits**

163 Sensory analysis was performed by eight panellists trained according to the standardized norm  
164 of the International Olive Council [32]. The sensory properties of table olive, including  
165 abnormal fermentation, other defects, salty, bitterness, acidity hardness, fibrousness and  
166 crunchiness were assessed by the trained panel.

### 167 **Firmness of the fruits**

168 The method followed to determine the olive firmness was described by Morales-Sillero et al.  
169 (2020). Forty fruits per replicate were used for firmness determination using a TA-TX2 texture  
170 analysers (Stable Micro Systems, Godalming, UK) connected to a computer and fitted with a  
171 30kg load cell. Each olive fruit was placed between a flat steel plate mounted on the machine.  
172 Olive firmness was measured by compression test, applying a force (N) to crush the olive  
173 through a 20 mm diameter probe to achieve a 6% deformation of the fruit diameter. The test  
174 speed and the trigger force were 0.5 mm·s<sup>-1</sup> and 0.04903 N, respectively. Values were expressed  
175 as breaking force in Newton (N).

### 176 **Determination of phenolic compounds**

177 The phenolic profile analysis was carried out in 40 fruits per block with an Agilent 1100 model  
178 HPLC system (Hewlett-Packard, Waldbronn, Germany) following the method described by  
179 (Cabrera-Bañegil et al., 2017). 2g of homogenized samples was extracted in ultrasonic bath (P-  
180 Selecta ultrasonic bath, mod 516, Barcelona, Spain) with 10 mL of methanol, containing NaF  
181 2 mM, during 30 min. After centrifuged (Thermo Scientific Sorvall Legend XT/XF centrifuge,  
182 with a F13-14x50c carbon fiber rotor, Thermo Fischer Scientific, USA) at 1677g at 4 °C during

183 10 min, the extracts were filtered prior the injection into the HPLC system. Stock standard  
184 solutions of the phenols studied were accurately prepared and dissolved in methanol.

185

## 186 **Statistical analysis**

187 One-way ANOVA and Tukey's test were performed to determine significant differences  
188 between treatments. SPSS 18.0 software (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL, USA) was used to perform  
189 ANOVA analysis. Outcomes were expressed as mean values and corresponded to the calcium  
190 treatments applied in each experiment. Statistical significance was accepted at the level of  $p <$   
191 0.05. Data were expressed as mean  $\pm$  standard deviation.

192

## 193 **Results**

### 194 **Calcium content**

195 During table olives Spanish-style elaboration process, olives were spontaneously fermented in  
196 their corresponding fermentation tanks at the same chemical conditions. No lactic acid bacteria,  
197 enterobacteria, coliforms, Bacillus, and Pseudomonas were detected in the fermented olives for  
198 each calcium treatments (data not shown). Furthermore, the calcium content in the pulp, the pit,  
199 the seed and the whole fruit was monitored during the fermentation process. The pulp calcium  
200 content increased with the Ca-treatments (Figure 1a). A significant difference was found  
201 between tested concentrations. The increase of calcium content was 55.1% and 20.2% for Ca  
202 1.0% and Ca 0.5% concentrations, respectively. The pit showed a higher calcium content than  
203 the pulp when Ca 0% was applied (Figure 1b). Nonetheless, this tendency changed when the  
204 calcium was used but without significant differences between calcium treatments within each  
205 sampling date. The content of calcium in the seed (Figure 1c) was significantly higher than in  
206 other tissues of the fruit (three times compared to the pulp and pit). Nevertheless, the

207 contribution of the seed is not significant compared with the whole fruit due to its low weight  
208 and the seed high calcium content was not reflected on the total calcium content. The calcium  
209 content resulted significantly higher when the Calcium treatments were applied but no  
210 significant differences were found between the tested Ca concentrations. A statistical difference  
211 between Ca-treatments and Ca 0% was also registered in the whole fruit (Figure 1d). The  
212 calcium content of the fruit increased of the 13.4% and 36.5% compared to Ca 0%, with Ca  
213 0.5% and Ca 1.0% concentrations, respectively.

214 Regarding the evolution of the Ca content during the elaboration process, no significant  
215 differences were found between sampling dates when the pulp, the pit, the seed or the entire  
216 fruit were considered. This result indicates that the calcium applied during the fruit growth  
217 development was not removed during the whole elaboration process.

#### 218 **Sensory analysis**

219 A triangular test was carried out to verify if the tasters were able to differentiate not-treated  
220 Spanish-style table olives with those treated with pre-harvest calcium applications (Table 1). It  
221 can be said that the different samples were correctly identified in the different trials carried out.  
222 Thus, it could be statistically affirmed that tasters were able to differentiate between Ca-treated  
223 olives (0.5% and Ca 1%) and those without calcium addition. This is a very interesting result  
224 since tasters are able to discriminate samples based on their olfactory-gustative senses.  
225 However, it should be noted that the percentage of success for differentiation of the samples  
226 subjected to calcium treatments in the triangle test was less than the 66%. Results of the sensory  
227 analysis are shown in Table 2. Some significant differences were observed for each sensory  
228 attribute. The highest differences were found for bitter, hardness, and crunchiness. Values  
229 ranged from 2.1 to 3.5 for bitter and from 3.6 to 6.4 for hardness. Crunchiness also showed  
230 slight significant differences. For these sensory attributes, table olives subjected to calcium

231 applications recorded the highest values. Nevertheless, the attributes related to negative  
232 sensations (i.e. salty, acidity, fibrousness, and color) did not show differences when Spanish-  
233 style table olives were compared to those subjected to pre-harvest calcium treatments.

234

### 235 **Fruit firmness**

236 The compression force (firmness) applied to the fruits significantly decreased during the  
237 elaboration process in Ca 0% and Ca 1.0%, while did not show variation in Ca 0.5% (Figure  
238 2). Nevertheless, Ca-treatments increased the compression force in the fruit when compared  
239 with Ca 0% samples. On the first date of monitoring, a 22.8% and 43.8% increase of the  
240 compression force was registered for Ca 0.5% and Ca 1.0% concentrations, respectively. On  
241 the second date, the increase for Ca-treatments was 42.8% for Ca 0.5% and 68.5% for Ca 1.0%.  
242 For the third date, the tendency seen in the previous sampling dates changed: no significant  
243 differences were found between Ca concentrations recording an increase of 68.3% compared  
244 to Control.

245 The results showed that the compression force needed did not change significantly during the  
246 whole elaboration process for Ca 0.5% (Figure 2). However, the firmness decreased  
247 significantly at the second date for Ca 1.0% during the elaboration process. In addition,  
248 comparing the firmness of Ca-treatments on the second and third date, no significant difference  
249 on compression force were observed.

250

### 251 **Phenol composition**

252 During the elaboration process of table olives, the phenol composition was determined (Table  
253 3). The most representative phenolic compounds were Hydroxytyrosol and Oleuropein,  
254 whereas phenols that showed the lowest concentration were Apigenin and Apigenin-7-O-

255 glucoside. Phenol profile tended to decrease during the elaboration for some compounds, such  
256 as Hydroxytyrosol, Tyrosol, Oleuropein, PB1 and Verbascoside decreased, whereas the  
257 composition during the whole elaboration process did not change for others like Luteolin-7-O-  
258 glucoside, Luteolin, Epicatechin, p-coumaric acid, Quercetin-3-rutinoside, Apigenin and  
259 Apigenin-7-O-glucoside. This information was applicable to Ca 0% samples and also to the Ca-  
260 treated ones (Table 1).

261 The content of phenol composition decreased during the elaboration process. The results  
262 showed that there were significant differences between Control and Ca-treatments within each  
263 sampling date for all analysed phenols. The first date of monitoring showed that the  
264 concentrations of Hydroxytyrosol, Tyrosol and Verbascoside were included between 16.5%  
265 and 65.7%, higher for the Ca treated table olives compared to Ca 0% ones. Ca-treatments  
266 showed higher concentrations than Control samples for the second and third date (between  
267 16.0% and 64.1% and between 23.6% and 80.8%, respectively). The highest contents for these  
268 phenolic components were found at the first sampling date for Ca 1.0% concentration: 331.4,  
269 41.6 and 82.0 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> for Hydroxytyrosol, Tyrosol and Verbascoside, respectively.

270 For Oleuropein and PB1, significant differences were found between the applied Ca  
271 concentrations and between Ca-treated fruits and Ca 0%. Thus, table olives submitted to Ca  
272 0.5% and Ca 1.0% presented higher Oleuropein and PB1 concentrations than Control table  
273 olives (Table 3). At the first sampling date, the content of Oleuropein and PB1 was 29.8% and  
274 12.7% higher than Ca 0% for Ca 0.5% treatment and 48.9% and 26.2% higher for Ca 1.0%  
275 treatment. At the second sampling date, the content of the same phenols was between 12.6%  
276 and 29.8% and between 26.1% and 49.0% higher than Ca 0% for Ca 0.5% and Ca 1.0%  
277 concentration, respectively. At the third sampling date the content was between 12.5% and  
278 22.9% and between 26.3% and 37.7% higher than Ca 0% for 0.5 % and 1.0% Ca-treatments,

279 respectively. The highest content of Oleuropein and PB1 was registered for Ca 1.0% treatment  
280 at the first sampling date (287.7 and 82.1 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>, respectively).

281 The content of Luteolin-7-O-glucoside also decreased during the elaboration process. In  
282 particular, at the first sampling date, no significant differences were found between Ca 0% and  
283 the Ca 0.5%, whereas significant differences were seen for Ca 1.0% (the content was 31.1%  
284 higher than Ca 0%). For Ca 0.5% and Ca 1.0% treatments, the Luteolin-7-O-glucoside  
285 concentration at the second sampling date was 10.4% and 42.9% higher than Ca 0%,  
286 respectively. At the third sampling date, no significant differences were found between the Ca  
287 0% and the Ca 0.5% treatment, whereas significant differences were seen for Ca 1.0% (the  
288 content was 43.0% higher compared to the Ca 0%). The highest concentration of Luteolin-7-  
289 O-glucoside was registered for Ca 1.0% treatment at the first sampling date (39.1 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>).

290 The remaining analysed phenolic compounds did not show any significant differences between  
291 Ca 0% and the applied calcium treatments within each sampling date or between sampling dates  
292 within the same treatment. However, the highest contents were found at the first sampling date  
293 for Ca 1.0% concentration excepted for p-coumaric acid that showed the highest value for Ca  
294 0.5% treatment. For some of the phenols, such as Hydroxytyrosol, Oleuropein and PB1 the  
295 results showed a significant difference between the phenolic content at different monitoring  
296 dates. The highest content appeared at the first date and decreased gradually. Tyrosol showed  
297 a significant difference with the first date and the second and third date, this last two did not  
298 present significant differences. The first date showed higher concentrations of Tyrosol.  
299 Verbascoside, did not show significant difference between the first date and the second one, but  
300 both dates showed a significant difference with the third one. This last monitoring date showed  
301 the lowest concentration out of the three. For the rest of the phenols mentioned before, not

302 significant differences were recorded for the concentration between the different dates of  
303 monitoring.

304

## 305 **Discussion**

306 Table olives pre-harvest Ca-treatments implies an assimilation of this macronutrient in pulp, pit  
307 and seed. This absorption is beneficial in terms of firmness, bioactive compounds synthesis and  
308 antioxidant capability. Agreeing with other researchers, calcium is an important macronutrient  
309 that can be used at different stages of the elaboration process of table olives or in pre-harvest  
310 treatments in different cultivars. Previous studies (García-Serrano et al., 2020; Gouvinhas and  
311 Barros, 2021; Tsantili et al., 2008) reported pre-harvest foliar applications of an organic calcium  
312 compound to three different cultivars. The application in different moments of the fruit  
313 development enhanced the final Ca content, similarly to the data obtained in our research. Other  
314 studies indicated this enhancement of calcium content in the pulp of several fruits after Ca-  
315 treatments. For example, Manganaris et al. (2005) observed this increase for peach when Ca  
316 sprays were applied once a week during 10 or 6 weeks before harvest until commercial ripening  
317 of the fruit. In olive, Tsantili et al. (2008) reported an accumulation of calcium after spraying  
318 three times a CaCl<sub>2</sub> solution (0.65% w/v) throughout the month previous to harvest. More  
319 recently, (Morales-Sillero et al., 2021) demonstrated that foliar applications of Ca were also  
320 effective when applied during fruit development, at three different stages and suggested a  
321 potential positive influence along the Spanish-style elaboration process to be demonstrated with  
322 further analysis.

323 The results of our study showed a significant increase of calcium content in the pulp and the  
324 seed of the fruit when three Ca foliar applications were applied during the fruit development.

325 Other studies also found an enrichment in calcium content in the seed of fruits after Ca-

326 treatments. Ciccarese et al. (2013) observed an increase in berries when  $\text{CaCl}_2$  was sprayed  
327 twice, from fruit set to veraison and from veraison to harvest. Our study showed that the calcium  
328 content on the seed did not change during the different stages of the elaboration process as table  
329 olives. Our results also highlighted a significant difference of Ca content between the seed and  
330 the other tissues of the fruit, showing values that were quite the double comparing the seed with  
331 the pulp. Ciccarese et al. (2013) concluded that the difference could be due to the translocation  
332 of the calcium from the skin to the seed, even though this was not confirmed, and further  
333 investigations are required. Harker & Ferguson (1988) explained that Ca-treatments are highly  
334 successful in the fruit, being this sink able to absorb  $\text{Ca}^{+2}$  better than the other portions of the  
335 tree with a later re-translocation of calcium. This study also mentioned that in mature fruits the  
336 absorption of calcium takes place because of the cuticle cracking due to the growth of the fruit.  
337 According to this, cracking makes easier the absorption of  $\text{Ca}^{+2}$ , but to increase the fruit content,  
338 Ca-treatments should be applied.

339 Our study confirmed that the calcium content does not decrease through the elaboration process  
340 of table olives when Ca was applied to developing fruits on the tree (pre-harvest), so that no  
341 further applications were required in post-harvest. This positive effect can be attributed to the  
342 accumulation of calcium in the lamella region of the cell wall with the following stabilization  
343 (Tobias et al., 1992). Calcium is a phloem immobile nutrient; it only can be transported with  
344 normal water flow for its accumulation on the fruit. The cell wall permeability to water can be  
345 modified by calcium, so it can decide its own transport (Hocking et al., 2016). Calcium connects  
346 to the cell walls of the fruit once it is applied to the fruits in the field. During the elaboration  
347 process, the Ca included inside the fruit cell increases the rigidity of the membrane, strongly  
348 reducing the diffusion of calcium to the brine and immobilizing it through stable bonds,  
349 although this inhibitory effect depends on the pH of the brine solution during Spanish-style



350 fermentation process (Brenes et al., 1994). In our study, the physico-chemical parameters have  
351 been artificially controlled to maintain all the experimental treatments under the same chemical  
352 conditions during the fermentation process. This was confirmed by our results: average Ca  
353 content in the pulp did not decrease during the elaboration process for table olives (Figure 1).  
354 Same trend was observed for the Ca content in the pit and in the seed. The high calcium content  
355 of the olives subjected to pre-harvest calcium treatments did not affect the microbial  
356 development and activity during the fermentation process, excluding a possible toxic effect of  
357 the Ca studied concentrations.

358 The sensory profile of the olives subjected to pre-harvest calcium applications showed  
359 appreciable differences between them (Table 1 and Table 2). It is known that the post-harvest  
360 calcium applied during Spanish-style table olives can contribute to a higher bitter taste in the  
361 final product (Martín-Vertedor et al., 2020; 2021). In fact, pre-harvest calcium application  
362 doses should not be excessively high as this could affect the sensory quality of the processed  
363 table olives. However, with the concentrations applied in this study, it can be concluded that  
364 the bitterness values were included in the normal range for this kind of olive processing protocol  
365 (Schaide et al., 2019). The application of Ca-treatments helped to maintain the fruit firmness  
366 even after the alkaline stage of the elaboration process, contributing to increase the quality of  
367 the olive by improving the fruit texture (Table 2; Figure 2). This aspect, together with the  
368 crunchiness, was also positively evaluated by the tasters in the olives subjected to pre-harvest  
369 calcium applications. Such result can provide an extra-quality value to this type of olives,  
370 indicating a potential market for pre-harvest Ca-treated Spanish-style table olives. Schaide et  
371 al. (2019) reported no bitterness and high acceptability of table olives elaborated with olive leaf  
372 extract according to the Spanish-style. The firmness of the fruit is also important to contrast  
373 disease attacks and prevent physiological disorders as reported by Rincón and Martínez (2015).

374 Calcium is the second most important mineral involved in the cell walls in plants and its main  
375 role is to maintain the structure of the wall (Jemrić et al., 2016). Tobias et al. (1992) indicated  
376 that the extra rigidity on the cell walls could be because the creation of calcium cross-linkage  
377 between pectic polymers. This study also mentioned that the calcium penetrating in the fruit  
378 was accumulated in the middle of the lamella region of the cell wall and then stabilized. This  
379 stabilization was caused by the formation of ionic bridges between pectic polysaccharides.

380 The effect of the Ca-treatments could be detected since the first date of sampling with the higher  
381 breaking force values registered for the Ca-treated fruits. Tsantili et al. (2008) also found an  
382 increase in firmness for table grapes after Ca-treatments were applied. Rincón & Martínez  
383 (2015) also addressed the importance of the quality preservation of fruits for the  
384 commercialization, characteristic that improved with the increased firmness after the  
385 application of Ca-treatments.

386 Despite the Ca content in the pulp did not decrease, during the elaboration process a rigidity  
387 decrease was observed. This could be because the elaboration process of Spanish-style uses  
388 lactic bacteria and other microorganism that can metabolise and break the vegetable fibres  
389 causing a decrease of the rigidity (Lanza, 2013). As said before, firmness decreased during the  
390 elaboration process for table olives. Thus, olives went through an alkaline treatment that  
391 modified the composition of the cell wall causing the olive softening. With the softening of the  
392 fruit, the quality of the olive decreases (García-Serrano et al., 2020). Therefore, there is a need  
393 of studying different strategies to avoid this process that cause a loss of rigidity in olives for  
394 ensure high quality products.

395 The application of pre-harvest Ca-treatments also increased the content of some phenolic  
396 compounds during Spanish-style elaboration process (Table 3). The highest content was  
397 achieved with the highest Ca concentration. The obtained results are consistent with previous

398 studies where an increase of phenolic compounds was registered for sweet cherry fruits when  
399 trees were sprayed with calcium solution once a week from flowering until two weeks before  
400 harvest (Vangdal et al., 2008). As said before, Ca-treatments increased the concentration of  
401 calcium in the olives stimulating the synthesis of the phenolic compounds (Miceli et al., 1999),  
402 being this the possible explanation for our results. Charoenprasert & Mitchell (2014) reported  
403 that several factors may have a huge effect on the increment of phenolic compounds in olive  
404 fruits, existing differences between olive cultivars. The Ca content in the fruit can directly  
405 contribute to the phenol concentration along the elaboration process. Since this macronutrient  
406 gives rigidity and permeability to the sample, it is likely that phenols, that are functional water-  
407 soluble compounds, do not diffuse as easily to the brine when calcium is present in high  
408 concentration in the matrix. The increase in firmness due to an industrial scale application of  
409  $\text{CaCl}_2$  can lead to an increase on hydrophilic molecules concentration in black olives, as  
410 reported by Martín-Vertedor et al. (2021). This was seen also for green olives but with less  
411 intensity (Martín-Vertedor et al., 2020). Both reported studies underlined the importance of  
412 controlling the addition of  $\text{CaCl}_2$  to regulate the increase of acrylamide and protect consumer's  
413 health.

414 As said before, the increase in phenol compounds in Ca-treated olives was higher even after  
415 fermentation in brine, resulting in a healthier functional food for the consumer. In our study,  
416 Hydroxytyrosol and Tyrosol were found as the main phenolic compounds. Hydroxytyrosol has  
417 a wide range of health benefits, such as, cardioprotective, anticancer, neuroprotective,  
418 antimicrobial, and other effects. Tyrosol is an effective cellular antioxidant but is also effective  
419 against hypertension, atherosclerosis, coronary heart disease, chronic heart failure, insulin  
420 resistance and obesity (Marković et al., 2019). According to these findings, the consumption of  
421 Ca-treated table olives should result more beneficial than not-treated ones.

422 Moreover, the content of phenolic compounds increased with increasing Ca applied  
423 concentration treatments and consequently the antioxidant activity, being the factors highly  
424 correlated. Other studies also confirmed this correlation Giménez et al. (2014) in sweet cherries  
425 after the application of acetylsalicylic acid. Ozturk et al. (2014) indicated the increasing of  
426 antioxidant activity in plum fruits by applying calcium treatments. These authors indicated that  
427 this fact contributes to provided anti-mutagenic and anti-carcinogenic benefits for humans.  
428 Other researchers (Martínez-Esplá et al., 2014) related the increase of antioxidant activity with  
429 the activity of certain enzymes such as superoxide dismutase, catalase, peroxidase, ascorbate  
430 peroxidase, and polyphenol oxidase. When these enzymes and the phenols are together, they  
431 are able to collect free radicals and reactive oxygen species that provoke the increasing of the  
432 antioxidant activity. The increase in antioxidant activity caused by the increase in phenol profile  
433 due to pre-harvest Ca-treated provides a final product with a health benefit for human. This fact  
434 also provides the possibility of having a final product on the market with longer shelf-life or by  
435 reducing the degradation process of the table olives, especially when they are marketed with  
436 some quality mark, such as organic farming.

437

### 438 **Conclusion**

439 The application of Ca-treatments during the fruit development (pre-harvest) by spraying 0.5%  
440 and 1.0% CaCl<sub>2</sub> concentrations enhanced the quality of the Spanish-style table olives by  
441 increasing the Ca content on the fruit, the firmness and the phenolic content. The fermentation  
442 process of the olives subjected to pre-harvest calcium treatments occurred regularly, without  
443 registering toxic effects of the calcium (no inhibition of the microorganisms responsible of the  
444 fermentation process). Further and deep studies about the effect of pre-harvest calcium  
445 treatments on the inhibition of spoilage bacteria are required.

446 An important result highlighted in our study was that pre-harvest Ca-treatments provided a  
447 better firmness to the olives throughout the fermentation process. This aspect is particularly  
448 important for those varieties, as ‘Ascolana tenera’, that are characterized by a soft pulp and are  
449 particularly sensible to damages during harvest or post-harvest manipulation. An increased pulp  
450 firmness could allow the mechanization of the fruit handling during harvest and post-harvest.  
451 Moreover, the effect of additional post-harvest Ca applications should be studied to verify if an  
452 improvement of the organoleptic characteristics (hardness and crunchiness) of the fruit is  
453 possible in order to give a better sensory experience to the consumers. Our results also  
454 demonstrated that fruit quality parameters can be increased by Ca-treatments during the fruit  
455 development. In fact, the accumulation of phenolic compounds was stimulated and their content  
456 did not decrease during the elaboration process. This result has an important consequence  
457 resulting the table olives with higher phenols and antioxidant activity an outstanding functional  
458 food for the consumers.

459

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466

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468

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