

Original article

Coordination of leaf function and carbohydrate reserves is associated with cultivar differences in mango (*Mangifera indica*) fruit productivity

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Running title: Leaf function and carbohydrate reserves impact mango yield

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- **Background and Aims** Optimising fruit tree productivity largely depends on physiological traits that regulate carbon acquisition and non-structural carbohydrate (NSC) partitioning. In mango (*Mangifera indica*), the contribution of NSC reserves and leaf functionality to fruit development under intensified orchard systems remains poorly understood. This study provides the first integrated, seasonally resolved comparison of leaf function and NSC dynamics between mango cultivars differing in productivity, identifying physiological traits associated with yield and NSC use efficiency.
- **Methods** ‘Keitt’ (higher yielding) and ‘Yess!’ (lower yielding) trees, previously established under both, lower (208 trees ha⁻¹) and higher (1250 trees ha⁻¹) planting densities, were monitored over two consecutive fruiting seasons. Leaf carbon assimilation associated traits were measured, including stomatal conductance, stomatal morphology, chlorophyll content, stable carbon isotopes ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$), and NSC concentrations. Additionally, NSC reserves in roots and trunks were quantified across key phenological stages to evaluate patterns of reserve replenishment and mobilisation. These physiological metrics were then related to fruit yield and yield efficiency.
- **Key Results** ‘Keitt’ consistently outperformed ‘Yess!’ in yield efficiency, especially under higher planting density. This advantage was associated with differences in leaf physiological traits (higher stomatal conductance, chlorophyll content, and stomatal density) and more dynamic NSC reserve turnover, particularly in trunk tissues. In contrast, ‘Yess!’ maintained

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1 larger NSC pools but mobilised reserves less extensively. NSC reserve dynamics aligned with
2 cultivar-specific patterns in carbon allocation and reproductive output.

- 3 • **Conclusions** These findings demonstrate that genotypic variation in NSC regulation is
4 associated with variation in productivity in mango. Higher productivity in ‘Keitt’ was
5 associated with greater seasonal NSC turnover, suggesting stronger source–sink coupling
6 under intensive orchard systems. By integrating measurements of leaf function and NSC
7 reserve mobilisation, this study highlights coordinated traits associated with productivity
8 differences among mango cultivars and provides insights relevant to cultivar selection and
9 orchard design.

10
11 Key words: *Mangifera Indica*, carbohydrates reserves, leaf physiology, carbon allocation, fruit
12 productivity, planting density, source-sink relationships, orchard intensification.

15 INTRODUCTION

16 Fruit yield in trees is strongly influenced by the availability and partitioning of non-structural
17 carbohydrates (NSCs), particularly their allocation to reproductive structures such as flowers and
18 fruit (Rossouw *et al.*, 2024 *b*). NSC supply arises from both concurrent photosynthetic activity and
19 the mobilisation of stored reserves that buffer temporal imbalances between carbon assimilation
20 and demand. Carbon partitioning is governed by the balance between source and sink strength,
21 with the biomass ratio of canopy leaf area to crop load acting as a key determinant of whether
22 reserve mobilisation is required to sustain fruit development (Sonnewald and Fernie, 2018; Pawar
23 and Rana, 2019).

24
25 Leaf-level carbon assimilation, influenced by stomatal conductance and leaf photosynthetic
26 capacity, plays a central role in supporting reproductive development (Flexas and Medrano, 2002;
27 Lu *et al.*, 2012). Stomatal conductance determines the rate of CO₂ diffusion into leaves, influencing
28 photosynthetic flux, while stomatal density and size affect gas exchange capacity and intrinsic
29 water-use efficiency (Franks and Farquhar, 2007). Chlorophyll content contributes to light capture
30 and can provide an indirect indication of photosynthetic capacity, particularly under conditions

1 where pigment levels reflect nitrogen investment in photosynthetic proteins such as Rubisco, but
2 it does not directly limit assimilation rate (Evans, 1989; Croft *et al.*, 2017). Variability in these
3 traits among genotypes and in response to environment can influence source strength and thus
4 carbon availability for fruit development. However, stomatal behaviour is highly dynamic,
5 responding to microclimatic conditions and phenological stage, which complicates the
6 interpretation of instantaneous gas exchange measurements (Buckley and Mott, 2013; McAusland
7 *et al.*, 2021).

8
9 The stable carbon isotope composition ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$) of plant tissues integrates the relative balance
10 between stomatal conductance and photosynthetic rate over time, and may offer insight into
11 longer-term carbon dynamics (Farquhar *et al.*, 1989; Cernusak *et al.*, 2013). In fruiting species,
12 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ in mature fruit can reflect canopy photosynthetic performance during fruit development
13 (Gaudillère *et al.*, 2002; Bchir *et al.*, 2016). Similarly, leaf $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ can provide insight into cultivar-
14 specific differences in photosynthetic capacity and stomatal regulation. While $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ has been
15 widely studied in non-climacteric species, its potential application in mango to assess cultivar-
16 specific carbon assimilation and NSC dynamics remains largely unexplored.

17
18 NSCs, primarily starch and soluble sugars, are central to tissue growth, plant energy balance,
19 osmotic regulation, metabolic signalling, and buffering of environmental or developmental
20 stresses (Smith and Stitt, 2007; Nawaz *et al.*, 2025). Starch functions as an osmotically inert, long-
21 term storage form mainly located in roots and woody tissues like the trunk and branches, while
22 soluble sugars derived from either photosynthesis or starch reserve hydrolysis are transported to
23 sinks via the phloem (Braun, 2022; Landhüsser and Adams, 2024). These dynamics are especially
24 critical during reproductive development, when carbon demand may exceed concurrent
25 photosynthesis under higher crop loads.

26
27 Despite their importance, relatively few studies have examined how genotype and tree structure in
28 fruiting species interact to shape NSC dynamics and source–sink relationships over seasonal
29 cycles. In orchard systems, increased planting density is a widely adopted strategy for
30 intensification, however, it may alter light interception and distribution, canopy architecture, and
31 internal carbon allocation (Menzel and Le Lagadec, 2017; Haque and Sakimin, 2022). Genotypic

1 differences in vegetative–reproductive balance influence cultivar suitability to such systems (Ibell
2 *et al.*, 2024), yet the underlying physiological mechanisms remain poorly understood. To date, no
3 studies in mango have integrated assessments of leaf functionality, including gas exchange
4 capacity, with NSC dynamics across multiple storage tissues and phenological stages. Such
5 integrative, seasonally resolved assessments remain rare even among other fruit tree species. This
6 type of holistic, temporally resolved approach is essential to understanding how cultivar-specific
7 traits are associated with carbon acquisition, reserve allocation, and yield performance under
8 different orchard configurations. This study therefore addresses an important knowledge gap by
9 examining cultivar differences in leaf physiological function and NSC reserve mobilisation within
10 a unified source–sink framework. The resulting insights improve understanding of carbon-use and
11 yield efficiencies in intensified orchard systems and may help inform cultivar selection.

12
13 This study examined cultivar- and planting density-related differences in leaf function and NSC
14 reserve dynamics in mango, with the aim of identifying physiological mechanisms associated with
15 variation in reproductive performance. Ten-year-old trees of two cultivars differing in yield
16 potential, ‘Keitt’ (higher yielding) and ‘Yess!’ (lower yielding), were compared under lower and
17 higher planting densities across two growing seasons. Specifically, we: (1) measured stomatal
18 conductance, stomatal morphology, chlorophyll content, and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ as indicators of leaf source
19 function; (2) quantified seasonal changes in NSC concentrations in roots and trunks; and (3)
20 evaluated fruit yield and composition in relation to carbon economy. By integrating these traits
21 over time and across tissues, this study provides the first seasonally resolved framework
22 connecting carbon assimilation, reserve turnover, and reproductive output in mango, offering new
23 insight into genotypic adaptation to orchard intensification.

24

25 MATERIALS AND METHODS

26 Experimental design

27 This study was conducted over two consecutive growing seasons (2023–2024 and 2024–2025) at
28 the Queensland Department of Primary Industries’ Walkamin Research Facility (17°06’S,
29 145°25’E). Two mango cultivars were evaluated: ‘Yess!’ (also known as ‘NMBP-1243’; an early-

1 maturing hybrid of ‘Irwin’ × ‘Kensington Pride’) and ‘Keitt’ (late-maturing). Each was grown
2 under two contrasting planting densities: low (208 trees ha⁻¹; 8 × 6 m spacing) (Supplementary
3 Fig. S1) and high (1250 trees ha⁻¹; 4 × 2 m spacing) (Supplementary Fig. S2). All trees were grafted
4 onto ‘Kensington Pride’ rootstock and planted in December 2013.

5
6 Trees were conventionally trained and managed according to standard Australian commercial
7 orchard practices, including fertilisation, irrigation and canopy management (Meurant *et al.*, 1999;
8 Ibell *et al.*, 2024). Pruning was conducted within one month after harvest each year for both
9 cultivars. Six replicate, free-standing trees per cultivar × density combination were selected from
10 the interior of treatment blocks within a larger, long-term split-split-plot planting systems trial
11 (Mahmud *et al.*, 2023; Ibell *et al.*, 2024). A single tree located at the centre of each cultivar sub-
12 plot was used as a replicate for each cultivar and planting density combination. The same
13 individual trees were used across both growing seasons. Tree rows were aligned in a north–south
14 orientation.

16 Tree level fruit productivity and composition

17 Fruit were harvested at physiological maturity (BBCH growth stage 800), based on the BBCH
18 (*Biologische Bundesanstalt, Bundessortenamt und Chemische Industrie*) scale, a standardised
19 system for describing phenological development (Hernández Delgado *et al.*, 2011). Harvest data
20 were collected at the end of the 2022–2023 season (prior to the study period) and at the conclusion
21 of the two subsequent growing seasons (2023–2024 and 2024–2025). Maturity was determined
22 based on external skin colour change and when the fruit flesh dry matter concentration reached at
23 least 12% (de Freitas *et al.*, 2022). Harvest dates for ‘Yess!’ were 22 December 2022, 2 January
24 2024, and 17 December 2024; and for ‘Keitt’, 18 January 2023, 31 January 2024, and 3 February
25 2025. For each tree, total fruit number and weight were recorded. Canopy volume was measured
26 annually in November using a spherical volume approximation based on canopy height and widths
27 (Mahmud *et al.*, 2023), and yield efficiency was calculated as the ratio of total fruit yield to canopy
28 volume (kg fruit m⁻³ canopy).

29
30 In the 2023–2024 and 2024–2025 seasons, 50 representative fruit per tree were sampled at harvest
31 to determine dry matter content, with 25 fruit randomly selected from both the eastern and western

1 sides of each tree. For each fruit, flesh was extracted using a 6 cm × 2 cm stainless steel corer,
2 combining tissue from the centre of both the blushed and non-blushed sides where possible.
3 Samples were weighed, dried at 60 °C to constant weight, and reweighed to calculate dry matter
4 percentage (Simmons *et al.*, 1998). Dry yield was calculated by multiplying the fresh yield by the
5 average dry matter percentage per tree. Dry yield efficiency was calculated by multiplying fresh
6 yield efficiency by the corresponding dry matter percentage, providing an estimate of dry fruit
7 production per unit canopy volume. This calculation follows the same principle used to express
8 canopy or yield efficiency (yield per canopy volume) (Rosati *et al.*, 2017; Toft *et al.*, 2019) and
9 was derived to allow comparison of productivity on a dry-matter basis.

10
11 An additional subsample, pooled from 20 fruit per tree and taken from the blushed side, was frozen
12 at –80 °C, ground under liquid nitrogen using an A11 basic analytical mill (IKA, Selangor,
13 Malaysia), freeze-dried using a BK-FD18 freeze dryer (Biobase, Shandong, China), and a
14 subsample homogenised to a fine powder with a TissueLyser II bead mill (Qiagen, Clayton,
15 Australia). These samples were then used for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and NSC analyses.

16
17 In 2023–2024, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ analysis was performed at the Australian National University’s Stable Isotope
18 Laboratory (Canberra, ACT) using an EA-1110 elemental analyser (Carlo Erba, Milan, Italy)
19 coupled to an isotope ratio mass spectrometer (Isoprime, Micromass, Manchester, UK). In 2024–
20 2025, samples were analysed at James Cook University’s Advanced Analytical Centre (Cairns,
21 QLD) using a Flash EA IsoLink™ CN IRMS (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA).
22 Isotope ratios ($^{13}\text{C}/^{12}\text{C}$) were expressed relative to the Vienna Pee Dee Belemnite (VPDB) standard
23 (Farquhar *et al.*, 1989).

24
25 Starch, sucrose, glucose, and fructose concentrations in the finely ground fruit samples were
26 quantified enzymatically using standard kits (K-TSTA and K-SUFRG; Megazyme International,
27 Bray, Ireland) (Smith and Holzzapfel, 2009; Rossouw *et al.*, 2024 *a*). Total soluble sugar
28 (cumulative totals of sucrose, glucose and fructose) and total NSC (total sugars plus starch)
29 concentrations were calculated accordingly. Tree-level NSC content in fruit was estimated by
30 multiplying fruit dry yield per tree and applying concentration values from compositional analyses.

31

1 Leaf functionality

2 Leaf stomatal conductance and chlorophyll content were measured monthly from May to
3 December using ten tagged leaves per tree (five per east and west canopy side). Young leaves were
4 tagged at the shoot apex upon maturation of the latest vegetative flush in May of each season.
5 Stomatal conductance was measured with a LI-600 porometer (LI-COR, Lincoln, NE, USA) under
6 ambient light conditions, and chlorophyll content with a MC-100 chlorophyll meter (Apogee
7 Instruments, Logan, UT, USA), an established non-destructive proxy for leaf chlorophyll
8 concentration rather than a direct quantitative measure (Richardson *et al.*, 2002). Ambient
9 photosynthetic photon flux density recorded by the porometer at the time of each measurement
10 ranged from 8 to 2884 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ across the seasons (mean \pm SD = $744 \pm 670 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$),
11 reflecting natural within-canopy and temporal variation under field conditions across the study
12 period. For each leaf, three chlorophyll readings were taken at three positions across the lamina
13 and averaged to obtain a single value per leaf. Measurements were conducted between 10:30 and
14 12:30 and grouped according to four phenological stages, based on the BBCH scale: vegetative
15 growth (BBCH 319–321; May), flower formation (BBCH 510–514; June and July), panicle growth
16 (BBCH 515–629; August and September), and fruit development (BBCH 701–709; October to
17 December).

18
19 Stomatal density and size were assessed in the 2023–2024 season using abaxial leaf imprints
20 collected in November 2023 (BBCH 703–705) from each of the same tagged leaves used for
21 stomatal conductance and chlorophyll measurements. Clear nail polish was applied to the abaxial
22 surface in the lower left quadrant of the lamina, approximately halfway between the midrib and
23 the leaf margin and at least 5 mm from both, to avoid uneven stomatal distributions that may occur
24 near major veins, the midrib and margins (Kardel *et al.*, 2010; Shi *et al.*, 2023). Impressions were
25 taken about 5 cm above the basal tip of the leaf. The dried impression was peeled off using clear
26 adhesive tape and mounted onto microscope slides. Imprints were examined under a light
27 microscope at 400 \times magnification (Leitz Dialux 20 EB, Leica Microsystems, Wetzlar, Germany)
28 (Grant and Vatnick, 2004). Stomatal density was determined from three 1 mm² areas per imprint.
29 Stomatal size was estimated by measuring the length and width of nine representative stomata per
30 area, defined as the maximum guard cell complex length and width, with area calculated as an
31 ellipse (Zhang *et al.*, 2023).

1
2 Leaf discs were collected during fruit development (BBCH 703–705) on 13 November 2023 and
3 4 November 2024 by sampling five 6 mm discs per tagged leaf (50 discs per tree). Discs were
4 collected between 09:30 and 11:00, stored on ice to minimise respiration after sampling, oven-
5 dried at 60 °C, and ground to a fine powder using a bead mill. NSC concentrations were quantified
6 enzymatically, and leaf $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ was analysed using the same methods as for fruit tissue.
7

8 Carbohydrate reserves

9 Root and trunk tissues were sampled for NSC analysis at five phenological stages in each season:
10 initial vegetative flush maturity following pruning (BBCH 319; 9 March 2023 and 6 March 2024
11 for ‘Yess!’, and 24 March 2023 and 4 April 2025 for ‘Keitt’), reproductive budburst (BBCH 513;
12 20 June 2023 and 27 June 2023 for ‘Yess!’, and 7 July 2023 and 9 July 2024 for ‘Keitt’), full
13 flowering (BBCH 615; 21 August 2023 and 21 August 2024 for ‘Yess!’, and 1 September 2023
14 and 4 September 2024 for ‘Keitt’), early fruit growth post-set (BBCH 701; 30 October 2023 and
15 9 October 2024 for both cultivars), and fruit physiological maturity (BBCH 800; 2 January and 16
16 December 2024 for ‘Yess!’, and 31 January 2024 and 1 February 2025 for ‘Keitt’).
17

18 Roots (3–5 mm diameter) were sampled in an alternating pattern around each tree (north, east,
19 south, and west), within 20 cm of the soil surface. These medium-diameter roots were excavated,
20 washed to remove soil, and trimmed to exclude dead or decomposing tissue. Samples were
21 transported to the laboratory on ice to minimise respiration, then oven-dried at 60 °C to constant
22 weight (Smith and Holzappel, 2009; Rossouw *et al.*, 2024 *a*). Dried roots were ground using a
23 hammer mill (DFH 48, Culatti, Glen Creston, Stanmore, UK) and homogenised to a fine powder
24 using a bead mill.
25

26 Trunk wood was sampled by drilling to a depth of ~5 cm at 5–15 cm above the graft union using a
27 4.8 mm drill bit (Smith and Holzappel, 2009), with two cores taken per tree from orientations
28 matching root sampling. Samples were kept on ice during transport to the laboratory, then oven-
29 dried and ground to a fine powder using a bead mill. NSC concentrations were determined
30 enzymatically, consistent with leaf and fruit analyses.
31

1 Statistical analysis

2 Continuous variables measured at a single phenological stage in a season were analysed using
3 analysis of variance (ANOVA). These included fruit productivity, dry matter, stomatal density and
4 size, leaf NSC, and leaf and fruit $\delta^{13}\text{C}$. For stomatal conductance each phenological stage within a
5 season was also analysed separately and if multiple assessments were made within a stage, the
6 mean tree data was analysed. This stage-specific approach allows treatment differences to be
7 interpreted under comparable environmental conditions, avoiding confounding effects arising
8 from day-to-day environmental variation in factors such as light intensity, leaf temperature, and
9 vapour pressure deficit (Medrano *et al.*, 2002; Buckley, 2005; Urban *et al.*, 2017). The fixed effect
10 in the ANOVA comprised a single factor representing combinations of cultivar and planting density
11 (treatment) and a factor representing replicate was fitted as the random term. Comparisons were
12 also made to investigate the overall main effects of cultivar and planting density. A \log_{10}
13 transformation was required for the analysis of stomatal conductance at the fruit growth stage to
14 satisfy the homogeneity of variance assumption. The number of fruits per tree was assumed to
15 follow a negative binomial distribution and was analysed using a Poisson generalised linear model
16 with a natural log link function. Terms fitted in the model include replicate block and a factor
17 representing the four treatments.

18
19 Differences between phenological stages within each season were investigated by repeated
20 measures linear mixed model for leaf chlorophyll content and root and trunk starch, total sugars,
21 and total NSC concentrations. The fixed effects included treatment nested within phenological
22 stage and terms for replicate block and plot were fitted as the random effects. Data from each
23 season was analysed separately. A \log_{10} transformation was required for the analysis of root starch
24 concentration and root total NSC in 2024-2025 to satisfy the homogeneity of variance assumption.
25 For all ANOVA and linear mixed models, the assumptions were assessed by investigating residual
26 diagnostic plots and transformations applied when required. All significance testing was performed
27 at the 0.05 level and where a significant effect was detected, pairwise comparisons were made
28 using the Bonferroni correction.

29
30 To assess functional linkages in leaf functionality, NSC reserve mobilisation, and reproductive
31 output, Spearman rank correlation analyses were performed on leaf traits (including stomatal

1 conductance, chlorophyll content, NSC status, and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, all measured during the fruit growth
2 period), root and trunk NSC depletion metrics during reproductive development (post-flowering
3 and during fruit growth), and yield and yield efficiency across the two seasons. As stomatal
4 morphology was assessed only in 2024-2025, the correlation analysis incorporating size and
5 density was conducted for that season only. All analyses were performed in Genstat 24th edition
6 statistical software (VSN International, Hemel Hempstead, UK).

7

8 RESULTS

9 Fruit productivity and composition (2022–2023 to 2024–2025)

10 Mean fruit number and yield per tree were greater under low compared to high planting density
11 for all seasons (Table 1). At high density, ‘Keitt’ produced substantially higher yields than ‘Yess!’,
12 with on average, approximately twice as many fruits and total yield per tree across the three
13 harvests. Mean fruit weight varied by season and cultivar but showed no consistent trend (Table
14 1).

15

16 Mean canopy volume was greater under low density for both cultivars (Table 1). ‘Yess!’ had larger
17 canopy volumes than ‘Keitt’ at low density, whereas canopy volume was similar between cultivars
18 at high density. Mean yield efficiency (kg fruit m^{-3} canopy volume) was greater under high density
19 and consistently higher for ‘Keitt’ compared with ‘Yess!’ (Table 1). Mean fruit dry matter content
20 did not differ significantly among cultivar \times density combinations within seasons (Table 1).
21 Consequently, dry yield and dry yield efficiency followed similar patterns to fresh yield and yield
22 efficiency (Table 1). Yield and yield efficiency were significantly negatively correlated across the
23 two seasons assessed ($r = -0.428$; $P = 0.002$; Fig. 1).

24

25 Means for fruit total starch, soluble sugar, and NSC content per tree were significantly greater
26 under low density for both cultivars (Table 1), with ‘Keitt’ accumulating more fruit starch than
27 ‘Yess!’ at both densities in both seasons assessed. At high density ‘Keitt’ had higher mean sugar
28 content than ‘Yess!’ at both harvests assessed. Within each planting density, total fruit NSC per
29 tree was generally higher in ‘Keitt’, with the difference most pronounced under high density.

1

2 Leaf functionality (2023–2024 and 2024–2025)

3 Stomatal conductance:

4 Stomatal conductance was analysed among cultivar × planting density combinations at each
5 phenological stage separately to account for short-term variability of this trait (Fig. 2). Across the
6 full dataset, stomatal conductance was not significantly correlated with ambient photosynthetic
7 photon flux density recorded at the time of measurement ($R^2 = 0.006$; Supplementary Fig. S3),
8 indicating that the variation in light exposure during the study was unlikely to confound cultivar
9 or planting density comparisons.

10

11 In the 2023–2024 season, stomatal conductance differed little among cultivar × density
12 combinations within phenological stages, except during fruit growth (Fig. 2). During this stage,
13 ‘Keitt’ generally exhibited higher mean conductance than ‘Yess!’ (cultivar main effect, $P = 0.005$).
14 Low density trees also showed higher conductance during vegetative growth ($P = 0.022$) and fruit
15 growth ($P < 0.001$) across cultivars. In the 2024–2025 season, overall mean stomatal conductance
16 was significantly higher in ‘Keitt’ than in ‘Yess!’ during vegetative growth ($P < 0.001$), fruit
17 formation ($P = 0.001$), and fruit growth ($P = 0.001$). Planting density effects varied by stage, with
18 higher conductance at high density during vegetative growth ($P = 0.004$) but higher conductance
19 at low density during panicle growth ($P < 0.001$).

20

21 Chlorophyll content:

22 In the 2023–2024 season, mean chlorophyll content differed significantly among phenological
23 stage × treatment combinations ($P < 0.001$; Fig. 3). From flower formation, mean chlorophyll
24 levels were generally higher in ‘Keitt’ within a planting density, although these differences were
25 not always statistically significant. The contrast among cultivar × density combinations was most
26 pronounced during panicle growth, when ‘Keitt’ under low density showed the highest values and
27 ‘Yess!’ under high density the lowest. In the 2024–2025 season, the stage × treatment effect
28 remained significant ($P < 0.001$). ‘Keitt’ consistently showed significantly higher chlorophyll
29 content than ‘Yess!’.

30

1 Stomatal density and size:

2 Stomatal density and size were only assessed in the 2023–2024 season (Fig. 4). Stomatal density
3 was significantly higher for ‘Keitt’ under low planting density compared to ‘Yess!’ ($P < 0.001$).
4 As a main effect, ‘Yess!’ trees exhibited lower stomatal density than ‘Keitt’ trees ($P < 0.001$), with
5 the relative mean increase for ‘Keitt’ being 7%. For stomatal size, ‘Yess!’ exhibited larger stomata
6 than ‘Keitt’ regardless of planting density ($P < 0.001$), by approximately 13% on average.

8 Leaf NSCs:

9 Leaf NSC concentrations were assessed during the fruit growth stage in both seasons (Table 2). In
10 2023–2024, mean leaf starch concentration was significantly higher in ‘Keitt’ than in ‘Yess!’ across
11 both planting densities. While total sugars and total NSC concentrations did not differ significantly
12 among cultivar \times planting density combinations, the main cultivar effect indicated higher mean
13 total NSC concentration in ‘Keitt’ than in ‘Yess!’ ($P = 0.015$). In 2024–2025, ‘Keitt’ exhibited
14 significantly higher overall mean leaf starch, soluble sugar, and total NSC concentrations than
15 ‘Yess!’ when both planting densities were combined ($P < 0.001$).

17 Carbon isotopes:

18 In the 2023–2024 season, ‘Keitt’ exhibited less negative mean $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values overall than ‘Yess!’ in
19 leaves ($P = 0.009$), while in fruit, the opposite was observed ($P = 0.003$) (Table 2). For both leaves
20 and fruit, high density trees had more negative mean values than those from low density trees (P
21 $= 0.006$ and $P = 0.040$, respectively). In the 2024–2025 season, mean $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values in both leaves
22 and fruit did not differ significantly among cultivar \times planting density combinations, nor between
23 cultivars.

25 Several leaf attributes were significantly positively correlated across the two growing seasons (Fig.
26 1). Stomatal conductance showed relationships with chlorophyll content, leaf $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ($r = 0.615$ and
27 $r = 0.586$, respectively; $P < 0.001$, both), leaf NSC concentration ($r = 0.464$; $P = 0.001$), and fruit
28 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ($r = 0.315$; $P = 0.029$). A more negative or less negative leaf $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ tended to correspond with
29 lower or higher stomatal conductance, respectively. Chlorophyll was also correlated with leaf NSC
30 concentration ($r = 0.748$; $P < 0.001$) and leaf $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ($r = 0.402$; $P = 0.005$). Leaf NSC concentration

1 was also correlated with leaf $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ($r = 0.434$; $P = 0.002$), and leaf $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ was correlated with fruit
2 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ($r = 0.495$; $P < 0.001$). Stomatal density and size were significantly correlated with stomatal
3 conductance, positively ($r = 0.594$; $P = 0.002$) and negatively ($r = -0.577$; $P = 0.003$), respectively,
4 and showed the opposite pattern with fruit $\delta^{13}\text{C}$, with density negatively ($r = -0.440$; $P = 0.031$)
5 and size positively ($r = 0.628$; $P = 0.001$) associated with $\delta^{13}\text{C}$. Stomatal density and size were also
6 significantly negatively related to each other ($r = -0.636$; $P = 0.001$).

8 NSC reserves (2023–2024 and 2024–2025)

9 NSC concentrations in roots and trunks were assessed across five phenological stages: post-
10 pruning vegetative flushing, panicle emergence (reproductive budburst), full flowering, early fruit
11 growth, and harvest, during both seasons (Fig. 5 and 6). Statistical comparisons were conducted
12 across cultivar \times planting density combinations and phenological stages within each season.
13 However, for visual clarity, post-hoc lettering in the figures highlights treatment differences within
14 each stage.

16 Roots:

17 Mean root starch concentrations varied significantly across phenological stages and treatments in
18 both seasons (stage \times treatment interaction, $P < 0.001$; Fig. 5A, B). Concentrations were generally
19 lower at vegetative flushing, increased toward flowering or early fruit growth, and declined again
20 toward harvest. Peak starch concentrations were generally higher under low planting density.
21 Across both seasons, ‘Keitt’ tended to reach lower starch concentrations at harvest. During
22 vegetative flushing in 2023–2024, ‘Keitt’ exhibited lower starch concentrations than ‘Yess!’,
23 whereas concentrations were generally similar between cultivars by flowering across both seasons.

25 Mean root soluble sugars also showed a significant stage \times treatment interaction in both seasons
26 ($P < 0.001$ in 2023–2024; $P = 0.022$ in 2024–2025; Fig. 5C, D). During vegetative flushing in
27 2023–2024, ‘Keitt’ tended to have higher sugar levels than ‘Yess!’, especially under low density,
28 and this trend persisted toward panicle emergence. By flowering, cultivar differences had largely
29 diminished, and during early fruit growth, ‘Keitt’ under low density exhibited the highest sugar
30 concentrations. In 2024–2025, ‘Keitt’ generally showed higher sugar concentrations at panicle

1 emergence regardless of planting density. Across both seasons, sugar concentrations declined
2 during fruit growth.

3
4 Mean total root NSC concentrations were largely driven by starch and showed a significant stage
5 × treatment interaction in both seasons ($P < 0.001$ in 2023–2024; $P = 0.004$ in 2024–2025;
6 Supplementary Fig. S4). Accordingly, temporal patterns largely mirrored those of starch, with
7 higher concentrations around panicle emergence and flowering, particularly under low planting
8 density, followed by a decline toward harvest. At harvest, ‘Yess!’ generally exhibited greater total
9 NSC concentrations than ‘Keitt’.

10

11 **Trunks:**

12 Mean trunk starch concentrations varied significantly across phenological stages and treatments in
13 both seasons (stage × treatment interaction, $P < 0.001$; Fig. 6A, B). ‘Yess!’ had consistently higher
14 starch concentrations than ‘Keitt’, irrespective of planting density. Temporal patterns were similar
15 between seasons, with starch concentrations increasing from the first post-harvest vegetative flush
16 to flowering or early fruit growth, and subsequently declining toward harvest.

17

18 Mean trunk soluble sugars also showed a significant stage × treatment interaction in both seasons
19 ($P < 0.001$; Fig. 6C, D). At several stages, ‘Keitt’ tended to exhibit higher sugar concentrations
20 than ‘Yess!’. Across all treatments, sugar concentrations tended to increase during fruit growth,
21 reaching a peak at harvest, when ‘Keitt’ generally exceeded ‘Yess!’.

22

23 Mean trunk total NSC concentrations were primarily driven by starch and showed a significant
24 stage × treatment interaction in both seasons ($P < 0.001$; Supplementary Fig. S5). Temporal
25 patterns mirrored those of starch, with concentrations increasing from vegetative flushing to peak
26 around flowering before declining during fruit growth. ‘Yess!’ consistently maintained higher total
27 NSC concentrations than ‘Keitt’. However, as with starch, the magnitude of change differed
28 between cultivars, with ‘Keitt’ exhibiting greater increases during early development and more
29 pronounced declines toward harvest than ‘Yess!’. For example, in 2023–2024 under low planting
30 density, ‘Keitt’ showed a 3.5-fold increase in NSC concentrations from vegetative flushing to early
31 fruit growth, followed by a 2.7-fold decline by harvest. ‘Yess!’ exhibited only a 1.5-fold increase

1 and a 1.6-fold decline over the same period. A similar pattern was observed in the second season.
2 Total NSC depletion dynamics during both the post-flowering period and fruit growth were not
3 significantly correlated between roots and trunks ($r = -0.052$; $P = 0.767$ and $r = 0.219$; $P = 0.135$,
4 respectively; Fig. 1).

6 *Productivity in relation to leaf functionality and NSC reserves*

7 Noteworthy relationships between leaf traits and NSC mobilisation dynamics and either yield or
8 yield efficiency were identified across the two seasons (Fig. 1). For yield efficiency, significantly
9 positive associations were found with leaf NSC concentration and trunk NSC depletion during the
10 post-flowering period ($r = 0.476$ and $r = 0.450$, respectively; $P = 0.001$, both). For yield per tree,
11 significantly positive associations were found with leaf stomatal conductance and chlorophyll
12 content during fruit growth ($r = 0.651$ and $r = 0.499$, respectively; $P < 0.001$, both), with leaf $\delta^{13}\text{C}$
13 ($r = 0.382$; $P = 0.007$), and root NSC depletion during the post-flowering period ($r = 0.434$; $P =$
14 0.002). Leaf stomatal conductance ($r = 0.298$; $P = 0.040$), chlorophyll content ($r = 0.367$; $P =$
15 0.010), and leaf $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ ($r = 0.330$; $P = 0.022$) were also significantly positively associated with root
16 NSC depletion during fruit growth. Leaf chlorophyll content showed a significant positive
17 association with trunk NSC depletion during fruit growth ($r = 0.285$; $P = 0.049$).

19 DISCUSSION

20 This study integrates leaf functionality, carbohydrate reserve dynamics, and yield efficiency within
21 a seasonally resolved framework to understand fruit productivity in mango. This novel approach
22 provides insight into how cultivar-level differences in carbon regulation are associated with yield
23 performance. Fruit productivity was shaped by cultivar-specific traits, with planting density acting
24 as a modifying factor. ‘Keitt’ consistently outperformed ‘Yess!’ in reproductive output.

25
26 Although greater yields under low planting density reflected larger canopies, ‘Keitt’ maintained
27 superior yield efficiency, especially under high density. ‘Keitt’ therefore appears more effective at
28 allocating assimilates toward reproductive sinks relative to canopy size, indicating stronger
29 source–sink coordination under spatial constraints (Corelli-Grappadelli and Lakso, 2004;
30 Robinson, 2007). This likely supports key reproductive processes, including flowering, fruit set,

1 retention, and growth, and reflects physiological and architectural traits that stabilise reproductive
2 output despite vegetative competition (Capelli *et al.*, 2016; Ryan *et al.*, 2018; Falchi *et al.*, 2020;
3 Jones *et al.*, 2026). The enhanced dry yield metrics for ‘Keitt’ further support cultivar-level
4 differences in carbon partitioning during reproductive development (Génard *et al.* 2008).

5
6 The larger canopies and lower yield efficiency observed in ‘Yess!’ align with its reported
7 vegetative growth bias relative to ‘Keitt’ (Ibell *et al.*, 2024), potentially limiting its suitability for
8 high density orchard systems. Variation in productivity was primarily driven by fruit number rather
9 than size, a pattern that aligns with findings in other tree crops, such as apple (*Malus domestica*)
10 and citrus (*Citrus spp.*) (Corelli-Grappadelli and Lakso, 2004; Goldschmidt and Sadka, 2021).
11 ‘Keitt’ trees generally accumulated more NSCs in fruit, further indicating greater carbon
12 investment in reproductive sinks (MacNeill *et al.*, 2017; Rossouw *et al.*, 2024 b).

13
14 ‘Keitt’ generally exhibited higher leaf stomatal conductance than ‘Yess!’, particularly during the
15 second season and during reproductive development. This pattern is consistent with a greater
16 capacity to sustain gas exchange under strong carbon sink demand and is likely associated with
17 greater photosynthetic potential and more effective assimilate supply to developing fruit (Urban *et*
18 *al.*, 2004; Lu *et al.*, 2012; Roche, 2015). The influence of planting density on stomatal conductance
19 varied, likely reflecting climatic variation across the study period, including changes in solar
20 exposure, leaf temperature, vapour pressure deficit, and water availability as conditions
21 transitioned between the wet and dry season (Medrano *et al.*, 2002; Buckley, 2005; Urban *et al.*,
22 2017; Supplementary Figs. S6–S8).

23
24 These findings align with previous reports of mango genotypic differences in stomatal behaviour
25 and photosynthetic capacity (Lu *et al.*, 2012), supporting the view that cultivar-specific traits are
26 associated with carbon assimilation dynamics during reproductive development. While stomatal
27 conductance is closely linked to photosynthetic capacity, it does not directly quantify carbon
28 assimilation, as photosynthesis is also influenced by biochemical limitations including Rubisco
29 activity, electron transport capacity, and internal CO₂ diffusion (Farquhar and Sharkey, 1982;
30 Prywes *et al.*, 2023). Nevertheless, a strong relationship between net carbon assimilation and
31 stomatal conductance has been demonstrated in mango (Urban *et al.*, 2002; Lu *et al.*, 2012). The

1 positive associations found between stomatal conductance during fruit growth, leaf NSC
2 concentration, and final fruit yield further support a functional link between stomatal regulation,
3 carbon assimilation, and fruit production.

4
5 ‘Keitt’ leaves generally exhibited higher chlorophyll content than ‘Yess!’, this pattern was
6 particularly strong in 2024–2025, suggesting a genotypic difference in maintaining leaf pigment
7 levels under varying canopy conditions. Although chlorophyll content does not directly determine
8 photosynthetic capacity, it is closely associated with foliar nitrogen status (Evans, 1989).
9 Photosynthetic capacity is often primarily influenced by stomatal limitations and biochemical
10 factors such as Rubisco activity (Prywes *et al.*, 2023; Scafaro *et al.*, 2023), and therefore
11 chlorophyll content alone should be interpreted cautiously as an indicator of photosynthetic
12 performance. That said, the positive relationships between leaf chlorophyll content and other leaf
13 traits, including stomatal conductance and NSC concentration, suggest that multiple factors
14 associated with photosynthesis were stronger in ‘Keitt’ relative to ‘Yess!’. Furthermore, in mango,
15 leaf nitrogen concentration tends to influence biochemical photosynthetic capacity, showing a
16 positive non-linear relationship with maximum assimilation parameters such as carboxylation,
17 electron transport capacity, and triose phosphate utilisation (Urban *et al.*, 2003). The higher
18 chlorophyll content observed in ‘Keitt’ during the second season may reflect improved nitrogen
19 uptake or seasonal environmental conditions that favoured nitrogen availability or assimilation
20 (Croft *et al.*, 2014).

21
22 ‘Keitt’ having higher stomatal density and smaller stomata relative to ‘Yess!’ suggests a genotypic
23 influence on stomatal development (Cai *et al.*, 2024). A denser population of smaller stomata may
24 contribute to greater potential gas exchange capacity, which aligns with ‘Keitt’s higher stomatal
25 conductance. However, the magnitude of cultivar differences was modest, with on average an
26 increase in 7% for ‘Keitt’. Studies in other species directly linking stomatal density shifts to gas-
27 exchange responses have generally involved much larger changes than those observed here. For
28 example, in sorghum (*Sorghum bicolor*), reductions in stomatal density of 45% and 69% were
29 associated with 18% and 32% reductions in stomatal conductance, respectively, with only the
30 stronger reduction increasing stomatal limitation to photosynthesis (Ferguson *et al.*, 2024).
31 Accordingly, the functional significance of the smaller stomatal differences observed remains

1 uncertain. The positive association between stomatal density and conductance suggests a
2 functional link between density and gas exchange, although further research is needed to assess its
3 relationship with net carbon assimilation in mango.

4
5 This size-density trade-off where ‘Yess!’ exhibiting larger but fewer stomata supports a well-
6 recognised balance between maximising pore number and ensuring sufficient aperture size (Dow
7 *et al.*, 2014). Although larger stomata can support greater conductance per individual pore, a lower
8 density may constrain maximum gas exchange capacity (Drake *et al.*, 2013). In contrast, relative
9 to ‘Yess!’, the stomatal profile of ‘Keitt’ suggests a higher potential maximum conductance
10 (Franks and Beerling, 2009; Harrison *et al.*, 2020). That said, the extent to which these relatively
11 small differences contribute meaningfully to cultivar differences in leaf gas exchange remains
12 unclear.

13
14 Although measured at a single time point during fruit growth each season, the elevated leaf NSC
15 status for ‘Keitt’ suggests a greater photosynthetic surplus and short-term carbon storage capacity
16 relative to ‘Yess!’ (MacNeill *et al.*, 2017). Higher starch concentrations in particular suggest
17 greater assimilate storage during the day that could be used at night to sustain sink demand (Smith
18 and Stitt, 2007). The positive relationship between leaf NSC concentration and fruit yield
19 efficiency further supports the view that leaf source function contributes to reproductive output
20 relative to tree size.

21
22 The utility of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ as an integrative indicator of leaf gas exchange was season dependent. In the
23 first season, it somewhat differentiated between cultivar \times planting density combinations in both
24 leaves and fruit, whereas in the second season, it did not show clear differences. This inconsistency
25 may reflect differences in environmental and physiological context between seasons. $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ is
26 sensitive to evaporative demand and associated stomatal responses, which influence intercellular
27 CO_2 concentration and isotopic discrimination (Tieszen, 1991; Seibt *et al.*, 2008). $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ integrates
28 multiple processes beyond stomatal conductance, including mesophyll conductance and
29 biochemical limitations to photosynthesis such as Rubisco carboxylation capacity, which can vary
30 independently of gas exchange patterns (Farquhar and Sharkey, 1982; Seibt *et al.*, 2008). In
31 addition, $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ in fruit tissue may reflect the contribution of stored carbohydrate reserves from

1 woody tissues, whereby remobilised reserves can contribute to fruit carbon pools, decoupling
2 isotopic signatures from concurrent leaf gas exchange (Badeck *et al.*, 2005; Génard *et al.*, 2008).

3
4 As a result, these factors can reduce the sensitivity of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ measurements to detect moderate
5 treatment differences under certain seasonal conditions. This highlights a key limitation in
6 applying $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ as an integrative proxy for gas exchange in mango and underscores the need for
7 further work to define the environmental and physiological conditions under which it reliably
8 reflects carbon assimilation dynamics. Nevertheless, the generally less negative leaf $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values
9 in ‘Keitt’ compared with ‘Yess!’ in 2023–2024 suggest reduced discrimination against ^{13}C during
10 photosynthesis. This pattern typically reflects either lower stomatal conductance or higher
11 photosynthetic activity relative to stomatal aperture (Farquhar *et al.*, 1989; Cernusak *et al.*, 2013).
12 Given the observed stomatal conductance patterns during the corresponding phenological growth
13 stage, together with the positive association between leaf $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and stomatal conductance, the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$
14 signal in ‘Keitt’ appears consistent with stronger drawdown of intercellular CO_2 through higher
15 assimilation. Reduced stomatal opening is therefore unlikely to explain this pattern. Fruit $\delta^{13}\text{C}$
16 values showed the opposite trend, tending to be more negative in ‘Keitt’ than in ‘Yess!’, which is
17 consistent with sustained stomatal openness or greater cumulative carbon availability during fruit
18 development (Grant *et al.*, 2012). These variable patterns between tissues likely reflect the
19 temporal integration of carbon signals, with leaf $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ representing shorter-term assimilation and
20 fruit $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ reflecting cumulative carbon input during fruit growth (Bchir *et al.*, 2016).

21
22 Root NSC dynamics varied modestly between cultivars and across stages, with overall patterns
23 largely shaped by phenology. At some stages across both seasons, ‘Yess!’ exhibited higher root
24 starch concentrations than ‘Keitt’, most clearly at harvest. ‘Keitt’ typically exhibited more
25 pronounced starch depletion during fruit growth, suggesting stronger remobilisation of reserves to
26 support reproductive demand (Sala *et al.*, 2012; Pawar and Rana, 2019). However, because crop
27 load and reserve dynamics may influence one another bidirectionally through source-sink
28 feedbacks, the greater reserve depletion observed in ‘Keitt’ may reflect its higher reproductive
29 demand rather than indicating that reserve mobilisation alone drives higher productivity (Ryan *et*
30 *al.*, 2018).

31

1 Across both cultivars, root starch concentrations generally peaked at or before flowering and
2 declined thereafter, a pattern consistent with mobilisation during increasing carbon demand
3 associated with fruit growth (Rossouw *et al.*, 2024 *b*). However, the magnitude and timing of these
4 changes varied with cultivar, planting density, and season, highlighting that root reserve turnover
5 is sensitive to both phenological drivers and environmental conditions (Loescher *et al.*, 1990). The
6 positive association between the extent of root total NSC depletion from flowering to harvest and
7 final yield per tree further supports the view that root reserve mobilisation and reproductive
8 demand are associated. In contrast, the lack of a similar link between NSC depletion during fruit
9 growth and yield suggests that root reserve mobilisation during earlier reproductive stages may
10 interact with eventual tree-level productivity. As all trees were grafted onto a common ‘Kensington
11 Pride’ rootstock, the observed dynamics in root NSC dynamics is most consistent with scion-driven
12 physiological control. Interactions between cultivar traits, canopy size, and crop load were likely
13 associated with differences in root reserve turnover, particularly under high sink demand (Rossouw
14 *et al.*, 2017; Tixier *et al.*, 2020).

15
16 Cultivar-level differences in reserve accumulation and remobilisation were more pronounced in
17 the trunk. Trunk NSC concentrations were generally rebuilt by flowering and subsequently
18 mobilised to support reproductive demand. The positive association between NSC depletion from
19 flowering to harvest and fruit yield efficiency suggests that the extent of trunk reserve mobilisation
20 during reproductive development is linked to fruit productivity relative to canopy size. ‘Keitt’
21 consistently exhibited greater starch rebuilding and depletion dynamics, suggesting a more active
22 mobilisation of reserves during reproductive development (Ferguson *et al.*, 2021). In contrast,
23 ‘Yess!’ maintained higher overall starch levels, with comparatively smaller shifts between peaks
24 and troughs, indicative of a more storage-oriented strategy (Loescher *et al.*, 1990). These
25 differences may partly reflect genotypic variation in starch storage capacity, potentially
26 underpinned by anatomical traits such as higher parenchyma density or plastid-rich storage tissues
27 in ‘Yess!’ (Plavcová and Jansen, 2015), and may help explain the cultivar-specific starch storage
28 profiles observed here. However, further investigation is needed to confirm whether such cellular
29 differences exist between mango genotypes.

30

1 'Keitt' generally maintained higher trunk sugar levels than 'Yess!' during reproductive
2 development, suggesting sustained or late-season mobilisation of a readily translocatable carbon
3 source (Smith and Stitt, 2007). Overall, these patterns suggest that 'Keitt' operates under a more
4 flexible and responsive reserve management strategy, dynamically reallocating stored carbon in
5 line with sink demand. Conversely, 'Yess!' appears to follow a more conservative approach,
6 maintaining larger reserve pools but mobilising them less extensively. These differences may also
7 partly reflect reproductive demand, with reserve depletion responding to crop load rather than
8 solely determining productivity.

9
10 The temporal sequence of reserve use, with root depletion tending to precede trunks, supports
11 earlier suggestions that mango trees draw on below-ground reserves early in the season before
12 shifting to above-ground stores (Davie and Stassen, 1997). This sequence suggests that trunk
13 reserves play an important role in sustaining late-stage reproductive development when
14 photosynthetic supply may be insufficient relative to crop load. Moreover, the correlation analyses
15 show that root NSC depletion was associated with total yield per tree, whereas trunk NSC depletion
16 was more associated with yield efficiency. This suggests that root reserve mobilisation may be
17 aligned with overall sink strength and crop load (Sonnewald and Fernie, 2018), while trunk
18 reserves may play a more compensatory role in maintaining productivity relative to canopy size,
19 buffering carbon supply during periods of high sink demand (Rossouw *et al.*, 2024 *b*).

21 Conclusions

22 This study demonstrates that cultivar-level differences in carbon regulation are associated with
23 variation in mango productivity under contrasting planting densities. Across two seasons, 'Keitt'
24 consistently outperformed 'Yess!' in yield efficiency, particularly under high density conditions,
25 reflecting more effective coordination between carbon assimilation, allocation, and reserve use.
26 Greater reproductive output was associated with differences in leaf function, including higher
27 stomatal conductance in 'Keitt', indicating greater gas exchange capacity and the ability to sustain
28 carbon supply under reproductive demand. These traits were complemented by more dynamic
29 starch reserve turnover in 'Keitt', particularly in trunk tissues, consistent with a more responsive
30 mobilisation of stored carbon to support fruit development. By integrating leaf physiology and
31 non-structural carbohydrate reserve dynamics across developmental stages, this study provides a

1 novel system-level framework linking carbon regulation with fruit productivity in mango. These
2 findings highlight the potential for using physiological traits to guide cultivar selection and support
3 the use of ‘Keitt’-like phenotypes in intensified orchard systems. However, validation across a
4 broader range of cultivars and environments is required to determine the generality of these
5 relationships.
6

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14

15 **CONFLICT OF INTEREST**

16 We have no conflicts of interest to declare.
17

18 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

19 GCR conceptualised the work, designed the experiment and methodology, supervised fieldwork,
20 collected the samples and data, and wrote the original draft. BRT collected the samples and data,
21 conducted sample analyses, and contributed to experimental and methodological ideas. CW
22 supported experimental design, conducted the statistical analyses, and guided interpretation of
23 statistical findings. RO and GD provided input on experimental details and broader project
24 administration. All authors reviewed and contributed to the final manuscript.
25

AI ASSISTANCE

AI was used for minor text improvements and proof-reading.

AVAILABILITY OF DATA AND MATERIALS

Data are available at the discretion of the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

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1 TABLE 1. *Fruit yield, fruit number, average fruit weight, canopy volume, and yield efficiency for*
 2 *four cultivar × planting density combinations across three growing seasons (2022–2023 to 2024–*
 3 *2025). Dry matter content, dry yield, dry yield efficiency, and fruit non-structural carbohydrate*
 4 *(NSC) contents (starch, sugars, and total NSC per tree) were additionally assessed in the 2023–*
 5 *2024 and 2024–2025 seasons. Values are means. Standard errors (SE) and P-values are provided*
 6 *for each parameter within each season. For fruit number, SE are reported separately for each*
 7 *cultivar × planting density combination, in line with the statistical analysis. Within each row,*
 8 *means without a letter in common indicate significant differences ($P < 0.05$).*

	'Yess!'		'Keitt'		(SE)	P
	Low density	High density	Low density	High density		
<i>2022–2023</i>						
Yield (kg tree ⁻¹)	82.7 b	26.8 c	132.3 a	64.2 b	(6.5)	< 0.001
Fruits per tree	146.9 b	49.6 c	280.1 a	143.2 b		< 0.001
(SE)	(13.1)	(5.4)	(23.6)	(12.9)		
Fruit weight (g fruit ⁻¹)	563.8 a	551.3 b	473.4 ab	449.4 b	(25.3)	0.013
Canopy volume (m ³ tree ⁻¹)	28.2 a	6.1 c	17.3 b	5.2 c	(1.1)	< 0.001
Yield efficiency (kg m ⁻³)	2.9 c	4.4 c	7.9 b	12.5 a	(0.6)	< 0.001
<i>2023–2024</i>						
Yield (kg tree ⁻¹)	104.1 a	33.8 d	116.5 a	57.6 c	(4.0)	< 0.001
Fruits per tree	310.0 a	101.4 c	356.3 a	155.2 b		< 0.001
(SE)	(20.1)	(7.8)	(22.8)	(11.0)		
Fruit weight (g fruit ⁻¹)	336.1	337.0	330.7	375.7	(13.4)	0.108
Canopy volume (m ³ tree ⁻¹)	26.6 a	3.4 c	16.2 b	3.1 c	(1.7)	< 0.001
Yield efficiency (kg m ⁻³)	4.2 c	10.1 b	7.3 c	19.0 a	(0.7)	< 0.001
Dry matter (%)	12.20	11.9	11.8	12.2	(0.2)	0.606
Dry yield (kg tree ⁻¹)	12.7 a	4.0 c	13.8 a	7.0 b	(0.5)	< 0.001
Dry yield efficiency (kg m ⁻³)	0.5 c	1.2 b	0.9 bc	2.3 a	(0.1)	< 0.001
Fruit starch content (kg tree ⁻¹)	3.4 b	1.1 d	4.6 a	2.3 c	(0.2)	< 0.001
Fruit sugar content (kg tree ⁻¹)	4.1 a	1.2 b	3.4 a	1.8 b	(0.2)	< 0.001
Fruit NSC content (kg tree ⁻¹)	7.5 a	2.3 c	8.0 a	4.2 b	(0.3)	< 0.001
<i>2024–2025</i>						
Yield (kg tree ⁻¹)	102.3 a	28.5 c	116.8 a	59.8 b	(4.3)	< 0.001
Fruits per tree	260.1 a	72.8 c	244.8 a	131.1 b		< 0.001
(SE)	(20.7)	(6.9)	(19.6)	(11.3)		
Fruit weight (g fruit ⁻¹)	397.2 b	402.2 ab	494.2 a	459.2 ab	(22.0)	0.019
Canopy volume (m ³ tree ⁻¹)	26.3 a	3.0 c	13.8 b	2.3 c	(1.8)	< 0.001
Yield efficiency (kg m ⁻³)	4.1 b	9.7 b	9.1 b	26.2 a	(1.3)	< 0.001
Dry matter (%)	12.6	12.9	12.8	12.8	(0.2)	0.723
Dry yield (kg tree ⁻¹)	12.9 b	3.7 d	14.9 a	7.7 c	(0.4)	< 0.001
Dry yield efficiency (kg m ⁻³)	0.5 c	1.3 b	1.2 c	3.3 a	(0.2)	< 0.001
Fruit starch content (kg tree ⁻¹)	4.2 b	1.2 d	6.7 a	3.3 c	(0.2)	< 0.001
Fruit sugar content (kg tree ⁻¹)	4.1 b	1.2 d	5.2 a	2.7 c	(0.2)	< 0.001
Fruit NSC content (kg tree ⁻¹)	8.2 b	2.4 d	11.9 a	6.0 c	(0.3)	< 0.001

1 TABLE 2. Leaf starch, sugars and total non-structural carbohydrate (NSC) concentrations and
 2 stable carbon isotope composition ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$) in leaves and fruit of ‘Yess!’ and ‘Keitt’ mango trees at
 3 low and high planting densities during the 2023–2024 and 2024–2025 growing seasons. Values
 4 are means. Standard errors (SE) and P-values are provided for each parameter within each season.
 5 Within each row, means without a letter in common indicate significant differences ($P < 0.05$).

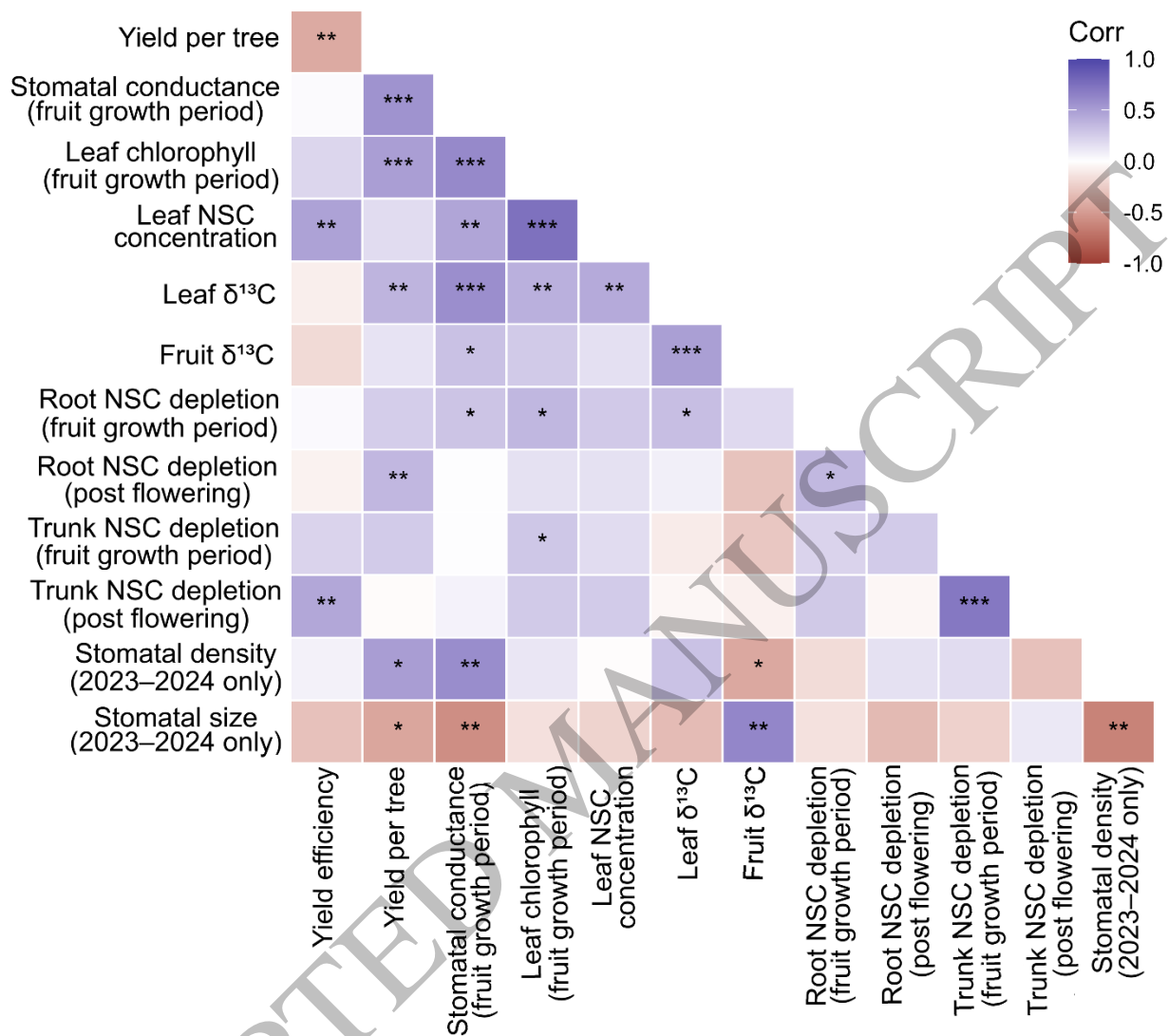
	‘Yess!’		‘Keitt’		(SE)	P
	Low density	High density	Low density	High density		
<i>2023–2024</i>						
Leaf starch concentration (%)	0.41 b	0.37 b	0.86 a	1.17 a	(0.08)	< 0.001
Leaf sugars concentration (%)	7.62	7.43	7.59	7.51	(0.22)	0.930
Leaf NSC concentration (%)	8.03	7.80	8.45	8.68	(0.24)	0.076
Leaf carbon isotopes ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$)	-29.62 ab	-30.14 b	-28.74 a	-29.67 ab	(0.23)	0.004
Fruit carbon isotopes ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$)	-27.27 a	-27.62 ab	-27.87 ab	-28.41 b	(0.20)	0.008
<i>2024–2025</i>						
Leaf starch concentration (%)	0.33 b	0.35 b	1.60 ab	2.42 a	(0.34)	0.001
Leaf sugars concentration (%)	7.28 b	7.39 b	8.61 ab	9.19 a	(0.33)	0.002
Leaf NSC concentration (%)	7.61 b	7.74 b	10.21 a	11.61 a	(0.40)	< 0.001
Leaf carbon isotopes ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$)	-28.60	-28.80	-28.51	-28.79	(0.15)	0.466
Fruit carbon isotopes ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$)	-26.64	-27.08	-26.91	-27.08	(0.15)	0.176

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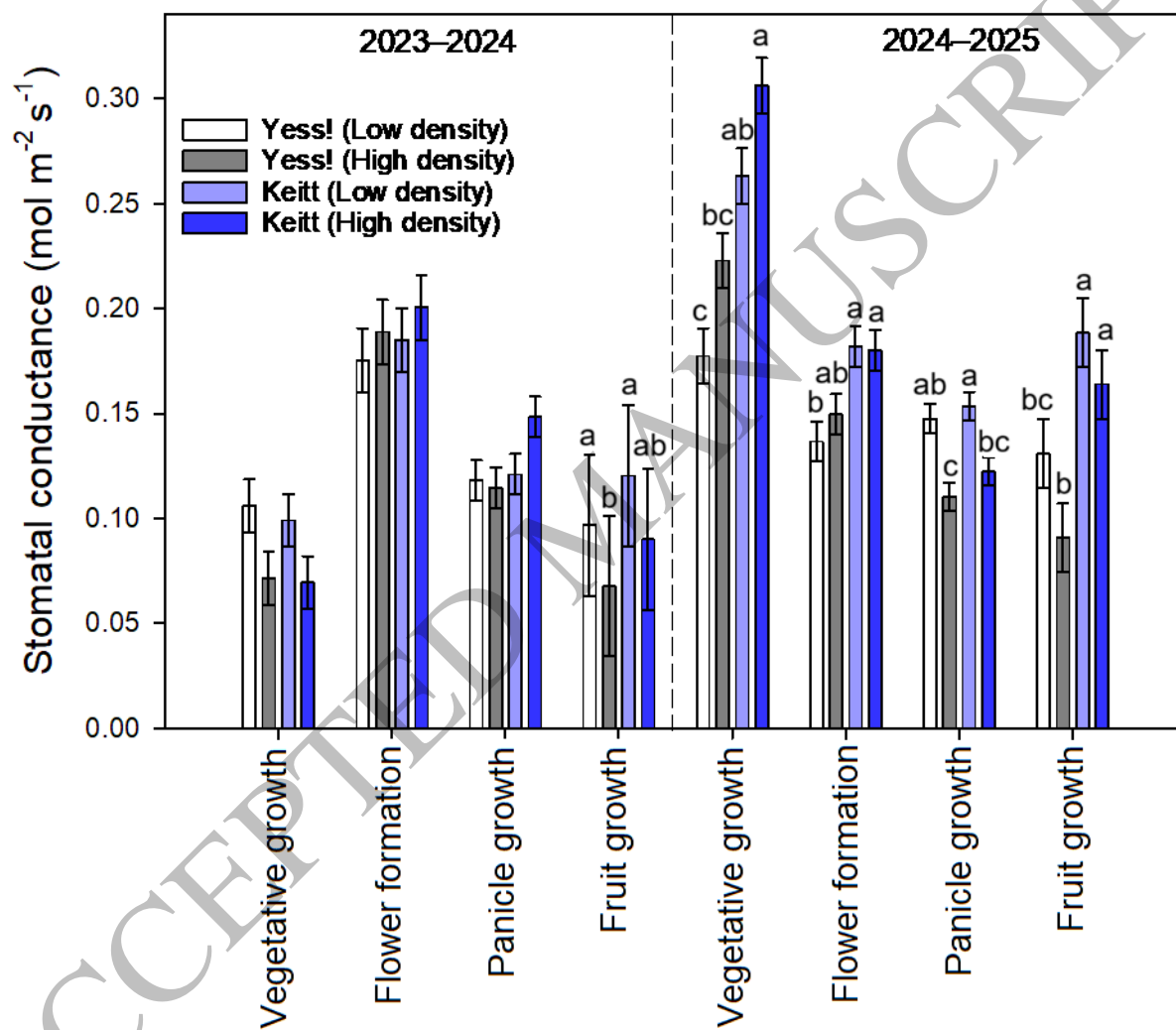
8 Figures captions:

9 FIG. 1. Spearman rank correlations among reproductive performance (yield per tree and yield
 10 efficiency), leaf traits [stomatal conductance, chlorophyll content, NSC concentration, stable
 11 carbon isotope composition ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$), and fruit $\delta^{13}\text{C}$], and root and trunk total NSC depletion during
 12 the post-flowering period and fruit growth. Additional leaf traits (stomatal density and size) were
 13 assessed only in the 2023–2024 season; correlations involving these traits therefore reflect that
 14 season only, whereas correlations for all other traits are based on combined data from the 2023–
 15 2024 and 2024–2025 seasons. Colour intensity represents the strength and direction of correlations
 16 (blue = positive, red = negative). Asterisks denote significance levels (* $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$, ***
 17 $P < 0.001$).



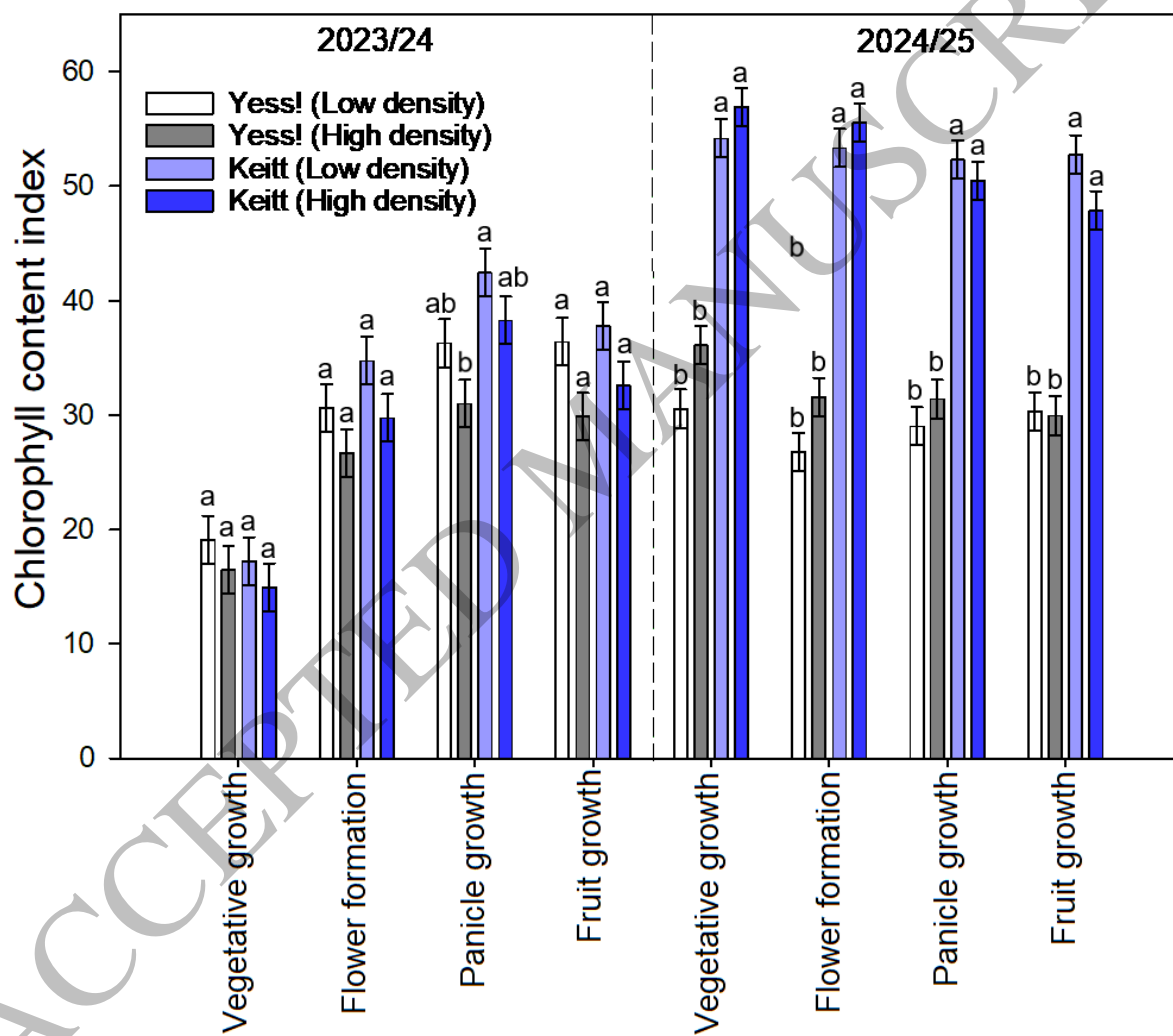
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1 FIG. 2. Leaf stomatal conductance for individual growth stages (vegetative growth, flower
 2 formation, panicle growth, and fruit growth) for four cultivar × planting density combinations
 3 during the 2023–2024 and 2024–2025 seasons. Values are means ± standard error. Where different
 4 letters appear, significant differences are present within a growth stage ($P < 0.05$).
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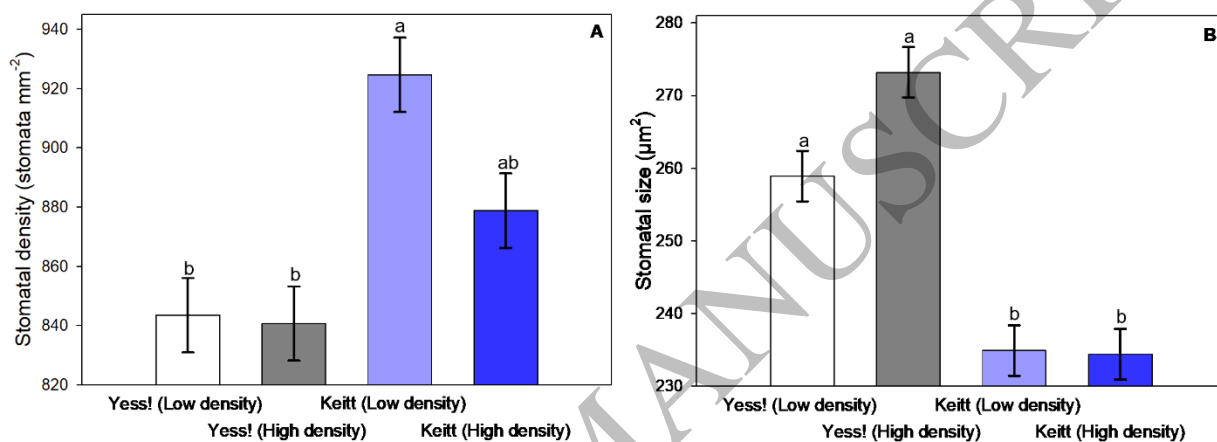
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1 FIG. 3. Leaf chlorophyll content index for individual growth stages (vegetative growth, flower
 2 formation, panicle growth, and fruit growth) for four cultivar × planting density combinations
 3 during the 2023–2024 and 2024–2025 seasons. Values are means ± standard error. Where different
 4 letters appear, significant differences are present within a growth stage ($P < 0.05$).
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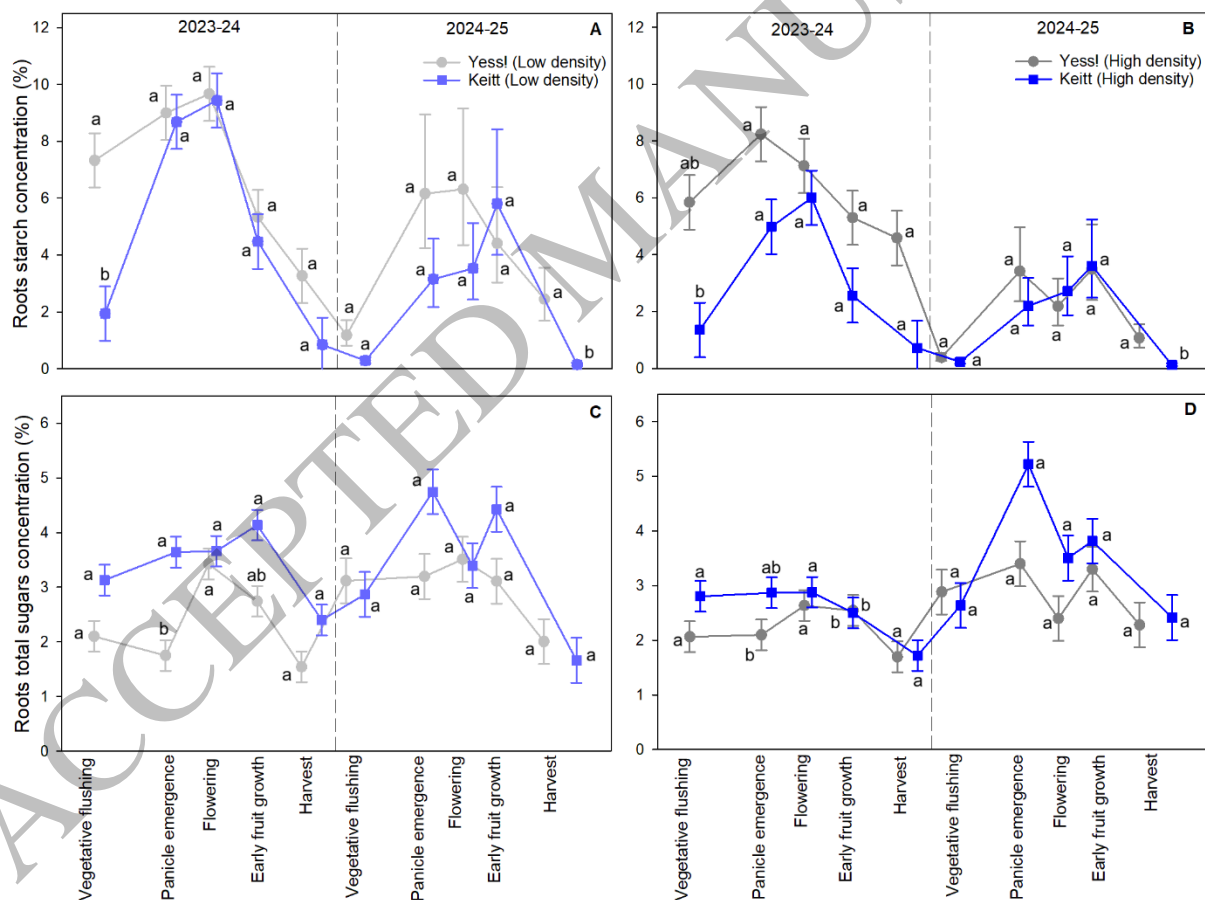
1 FIG. 4. Stomatal density (A) and stomatal size (B) in leaves of ‘Yess!’ and ‘Keitt’ mango trees at
2 low and high planting densities during the 2023–2024 season. Values are means \pm standard error.
3 Different letters indicate significant differences among cultivar \times planting density combinations
4 ($P < 0.05$). Stomatal size refers to the calculated area of the stomatal complex, derived from guard
5 cell length and width.
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1 FIG. 5. Seasonal changes in root starch (A, B) and total sugar concentrations (C, D) for ‘Keitt’ and
 2 ‘Yess!’ mango trees at low and high planting densities during the 2023–2024 and 2024–2025
 3 seasons. The left-hand panels (A, C) show low density trees; the right-hand panels (B, D) show
 4 high density trees. Concentrations are presented across five phenological stages: vegetative flush,
 5 panicle emergence, flowering, early fruit growth, and harvest. Values are means \pm standard error.
 6 Different lowercase letters indicate statistically significant differences ($P < 0.05$) between cultivar
 7 \times planting density combinations within each stage and within each season. Statistical comparisons
 8 were conducted across treatments and stages within each season, however for clarity, lettering was
 9 adjusted to highlight treatment differences within each stage.

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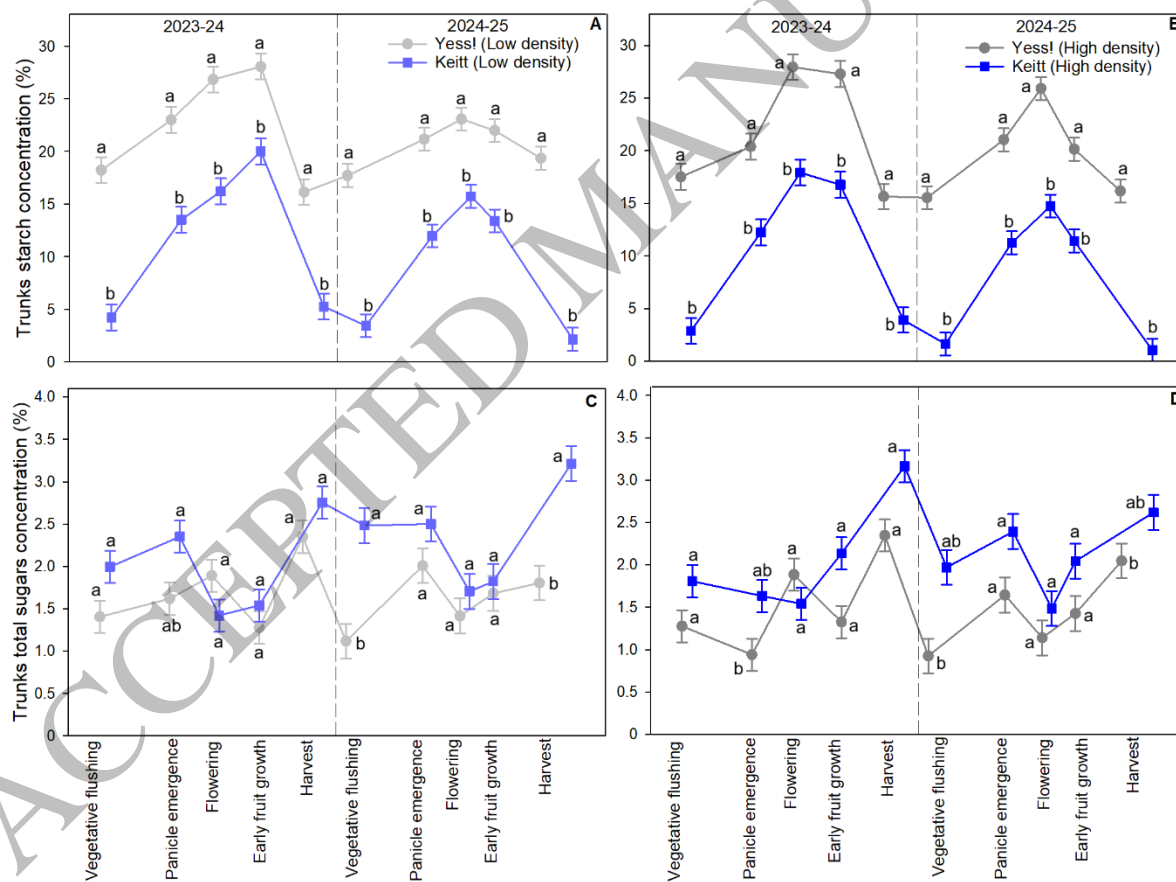


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1 FIG. 6. Seasonal changes in trunk starch (A, B) and total sugar concentrations (C, D) for ‘Keitt’
 2 and ‘Yess!’ mango trees at low and high planting densities during the 2023–2024 and 2024–2025
 3 seasons. The left-hand panels (A, C) show low density trees; the right-hand panels (B, D) show
 4 high density trees. Concentrations are presented across five phenological stages: vegetative flush,
 5 panicle emergence, flowering, early fruit growth, and harvest. Values are means \pm standard error.
 6 Different lowercase letters indicate statistically significant differences ($P < 0.05$) between cultivar
 7 \times planting density combinations within each stage and within each season. Statistical comparisons
 8 were conducted across treatments and stages within each season, however for clarity, lettering was
 9 adjusted to highlight treatment differences within each stage.

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