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# **Review** Paper

# Senescence and Postharvest Studies of Cut Flowers: A Critical Review

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#### ABSTRACT

Flower senescence is the terminal phase of developmental processes that leads to the end of its life span. Since a number of developing countries are attracted to this global fresh flower trade for commercial purpose, this phenomenon is major obstacle for all the floricultural industries. Therefore, research related to postharvest changes was carried out to mitigate this problem. The post-harvest events in floricultural crops reflecting petal senescence are being reviewed in this paper, whereby various physiological and biochemical studies having data regarding lipid peroxidation, loss of membrane integrity and protein degradation central to petal senescence are included. Ultrastructural changes involving change in various cell organelles viz. rupturing of vacuole, tonoplast membrane invagination, chloroplast degradation in mesophyll cells, as well as change in mitochondria ultrastructure have also been recited. This review also pays attention to the issues related to carbohydrate metabolism and change in anthocyanin pigmentation during postharvest life. Various enzymatic activities, supporting petal senescence and current status of postharvest technology applied to cut flowers to enhance their vase life especially by using preservatives in the form of energy source like sucrose and other sugars, biocides, mineral ions, growth regulators or various metabolic inhibitors, providing practice solution to global cut flower market, are cited.

Keywords: Cut flowers, postharvest, ultrastructural changes, senescence, biochemical changes, growth regulators

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#### **INTRODUCTION**

Owing to a steady increase in demand of flowers, floriculture has become one of the important commercial trades in agriculture. Floriculture is now seen as a high growth

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industry from export angle and is therefore a lucrative business. The production and export of floriculture crops from developing countries provide trade and currency. Investments in floriculture in developing countries can serve to decrease many social ills including poverty, terrorism, and illegal drug trafficking. Global exports over the last few years have grown by more than 10% annually, and at this growth rate, the world exports are expected to reach US\$ 25 billion by 2012. In order to meet this growing and changing demand, production has continued to move from countries that have traditionally been consumers and growers, such as the Netherlands, to other relatively new producing countries such as Israel, Colombia, Ecuador, Kenya, and Ethiopia. The research provides valuable knowledge about the execution of senescence in plants or plant parts like leaf, petal or sepal and how senescence is influenced by biotic and abiotic factors like environmental stresses and what physiological and biochemical changes occur during this process. This information will be used to increase the shelf life of flowering plants, which will reduce postproduction shrink and increase the profitability of floriculture producers. Therefore, since from past few years, postharvest physiology of flower has been gaining much attention to study this phenomenon of senescence and various techniques are being designed to slow down this process.

Flowers play a vital role in angiosperm reproduction; they are often pigmented and or perfumed to attract pollinators. However, despite its irreplaceable ecological role, the flowers are energetically expensive to maintain beyond their useful life, and therefore have a limited life-span that is usually taken away after pollination; causing senescence syndrome. Senescence of flower is a complex process, so often researchers mainly concentrate on changes occurring during petal senescence. Petals provide an excellent model system for the study of fundamental aspects of senescence (Rogers, 2006; Desai et al., 2012). Senescence is a highly regulated final event of flower development that bears hallmarks of programmed cell death (PCD), resulting in colour changes, petal wilting, abscission of whole flower and flower parts with various physiological, biochemical and ultrastructural changes (Voleti et al., 2000; Wagstaff et al., 2003; Jones et al., 2005; Tripathi & Tuteja, 2007; Seo et al., 2009; Ichimura, 2010; Shahri, 2011). Recent studies evidenced that flower senescence includes controlled disassembly of cells of corolla probably by a mechanism homologous with apoptosis, vacuolar and necrotic PCD (Van Doorn, 2011), and transport of nutrient to other parts of inflorescence. The most important barriers in the marketing and commercialization of many cut flowers are their short vase life and their inability to withstand stresses during storage or transit (Halevy & Mayak, 1981; Nowak & Rudnicki, 1990; Zamani et al., 2011). A great deal of research dealing with best post-harvest care of cut flowers has been carried out in recent years but our understanding of cut flower physiology is

still quite rudimentary, despite development of techniques that have enabled us to maintain good cut flower quality, longer than ever before. Petals are the main floral organs which primarily determine the commercial longevity of flowers and as a consequence, it becomes necessary to study the physiological, biochemical and genetic processes that occur during petal senescence (Chakrabarty et al., 2009) and how it can be slowed down through designing inexpensive postharvest technologies that ultimately extend the postharvest life of cut flowers (Wani et al., 2012). This review is expected to give an update of literature on postharvest behaviour of cut flowers and some of the recent technologies contributing to their postharvest life which is major priority for growth of such a global floriculture industry. It also comprehends metabolic changes regarding protein degradation, lipid peroxidation, alteration in sugar levels in phloem exudates, activity of various enzymes and colour change central to petal senescence during post-harvest life of cut flowers to know exact the mechanism of senescence during post-harvest life and also entails the use of various preservatives or holding solutions like sugars, biocides, mineral ions, growth hormones and metabolic inhibitors, etc. to mitigate the problem of short post-harvest life and how they serve to retard the petal senescence. There are some other practices are not discussed here.

# POST-HARVEST CHANGES ASSOCIATED WITH SENESCENCE

Ultrastructural Changes

There is a three-stage theory of senescence in case of flowers like those in leaf. First is the initiation of senescence followed by degradation and disassembly which lead to third stage of death (Yoshida, 2003), which is due to decline in rate of anabolic processes and increase in rate of certain catabolic processes (Galston & Davies, 1970). Characteristics of the last phase involve ultrastructural disorganization of tissues or cells and increased fluid filled extra spaces which lead to halted down of all metabolic activities in all tissues or organs of plant. But, some organelles are still slightly visible (Smith et al., 1992). Delicacy of petal cells and their rapid collapse during senescence are a challenge to study ultrastructural changes during senescence and showed dramatic changes in ultrastructure (Van Doorn et al., 2003). Ultrastructural events during senescence include increase in vacuolar size, loss of organelles, eventual collapse of tonoplast (Van Doorn & Woltering, 2004) and nuclear fragmentation (Yao et al., 2004; Yamada et al., 2006; Battelli et al., 2011). Wiemken et al. (1976) used Iris as a model system to study ultrastructural, biochemical and molecular changes during senescence. One of the earliest changes in ultrastructure of Iris petals is closure of plasmodesmata. Plasmodesmata if open allow transfer of small molecules like sugars, hormones and RNA molecules between adjacent cells. If plasmodesmata are closed, transport

gets halted. Ultrastructural work in Iris, Sandersonia, senescing corolla of Lycoris longituba Y.C. Hsu & G.J. Fan and Lilium longiflorum also showed complete degradation of wall of mesophyll cells prior to visible senescence due to closure of plasmodesmata whereas epidermal cells remain intact (Wagstaff et al., 2003; Van Doorn et al., 2003, O'Donoghue et al., 2005; Lei et al., 2009; Battelli et al., 2011). Other ultrastructural events involve invagination in tonoplast and presence of numerous vesicles in vacuole which is main site of organelle degradation (Matile & Winkenbach, 1971; Smith et al., 1992). As senescence proceeds, all cytoplasmic content get lost in carnation (Smith et al., 1992) and Iris (Van Doorn et al., 2003). The increases in the number of small vacuoles and size of vacuole have also been evidenced in carnation (Smith et al., 1992), Iris (Van Doorn et al., 2003) and Hemerocallis (Stead & Van Doorn, 1994). Meanwhile, disappearance of free ribosomes and clusters attached to endoplasmic reticulum during maturation and senescence followed by reduction in the number of mitochondria, golgi bodies followed by other organelles, was also recited (Butler & Simon, 1971; Smith et al., 1992; Van Doorn et al., 2003). Most noticeable changes during development and senescence take place in plastids show invaginations in plastid membrane. Changes in the structure of tissue containing chromoplasts have also been observed in cucumber petals (Smith & Butler, 1971) and amyloplasts in Lycoris longituba Y.C. Hsu & G.J. Fan (Lei et al.,

2009). With reference to the chloroplast ultrastructure, a higher level of thylakoid disorganization (especially of granal membranes) is observed during senescence (Spundova et al., 2003). The loss of noncellulosic natural sugar and the increase in soluble pectin, uronic acid and cellulose (De Vetten & Huber, 1990; Smith et al., 1992) lead to alternation in cell wall and initiation and increase in the loss of membrane integrity resulting in phase changes due to decrease in membrane fluidity and increased permeability (Thompson et al., 1982; Knowles et al., 2001). The event related to the loss of RNA and DNA present in nucleus, mitochondria, chloroplast and plastids is also associated with senescence (Rubinstein, 2000; Aleksandrushkina et al., 2008; Lei et al., 2009) before or after vacuolar collapse. More detailed analysis should be carried out at cell and organelle levels to determine exactly what is happening inside the petal during senescence and how we can retard this syndrome of senescence.

#### Colour Fading and Change in Pigmentation

Chlorophyll is the most prominent photosynthetic pigment in higher plants and the decreasing trend in photosynthetic rate and pigment level is generally due to the involvement of oxygen radicals and singlet oxygen (Prochazkova *et al.*, 2001; Dertinger *et al.*, 2003). Chlorophyll breakdown becomes a mandatory phenomenon for the remobilization of nitrogen from chlorophyll-binding proteins to proceed during senescence (Hortensteiner, 2006). Louda *et al.* (2002) and Spundova *et al.*  (2003) found that most chlorophyll species were broken down during senescence. However, considerable delay in degradation of chlorophyll compared with control and copper sulphate was found by keeping the flower in aluminium sulphate and ethanol by slowing down the rate of transpiration and deterioration (Hajizadeh *et al.*, 2012).

Colour fading and discoloration are major reasons for termination of vase life in many cut flowers and important factors in determining display quality of cut flowers. Major three types of pigments contributing to the colour of flowers are anthocyanins, carotenoids, and betalains. Anthocyanins are the largest and most diverse group of plant pigments derived from the phenylpropanoid pathway, ranging in colour from red to violet and blue. Anthocyanins give red colour under low pH and blue colour under high and neutral pH, reflecting a phenomenon termed as 'blueing' where a shift from red to blue occurs with ageing (Wills et al., 1998; Avila-Rostant et al., 2010). Ultimate flower colour of a species is determined not only by the pigment present but also by various other factors like pH (Harborne, 1988; Yoshida et al., 2003; Katsumoto et al., 2007), temperature (Shvarts et al., 1997; Dela et al., 2003), light (Weiss, 2000; Meng & Wang, 2004; Irani & Grotewold, 2005), and mineral ions (Shoji et al., 2007). Griesbach (2005) observed that although flavonols and an appropriate pH are important in obtaining blue orchids, the more important of the two factors was vacuolar pH. In morning glory, the colours of flower vary from reddish purple in buds to blue in flowers with an increase in vacuolar pH from 6.6 to 7.7, a change believed to be driven by a Na<sup>+</sup>(K<sup>+</sup>)/H<sup>+</sup> exchanger (Yamaguchi et al., 2001; Yoshida et al., 2005). Collette et al. (2004) and Elibox and Umaharan (2008) investigated the relationship between epidermal vacuolar pH and a number of plant factors in anthurium with the intention of creating colours in the blue range by characterizing the genetics and biochemistry of the anthurium flavonoid biosynthetic pathway. In flowers, degradation of anthocyanins during senescence is possibly related to oxidative process. A significant increase in antioxidant activity is correlated with the rate of anthocyanin degradation (Mazza, 2007). Reducing agents such as glutathione can inhibit the degradation of anthocyanins (Vaknin et al., 2005). In morning glory (Ipomoea tricolor) petals, the vacuolar pH is relatively low when the flower bud opens, resulting in a red colour but upon further maturation, the vacuolar pH increases and the petals acquire a strong blue colour, but in mutants, colour change does not occur and remains purple (Yoshida et al., 1995).

Rose flowers produced under cooler environment have higher anthocyanin content especially during summer (Plaut *et al.*, 1979). High temperature applied at different stages of flower development reduces anthocyanin content in petals (Dela *et al.*, 2003). High temperature and low light conditions have also been reported to reduce pigment content in petals. This is due to the breakdown and down regulation of genes encoding enzyme involved in biosynthesis of anthocyanins (Gonzalez, 2009).

Low light intensity plants develop pale flowers with a low level of anthocyanins (Biran & Halevy, 1974; Griesbach, 1992). In Eustoma grandiflorum Shinn., low light conditions result in reduced anthocyanin content in petals of developing florets both in cut flowers and potted plants measured by the expression pattern of six genes encoding enzymes for anthocyanin biosynthetic pathway in developing petals concluded that light intensity regulates a master transcription factor common for all these anthocyanin biosynthesis genes (Meir et al., 2009). Low light intensity affects petal pigmentation through reduced photosynthesis in the leaves or stems, which in turn reduces the soluble sugar content of petals and leads to a repression of the genes that encode enzymes of anthocyanin biosynthetic pathway in Eustoma grandiflorum (Kawabata et al., 1995). Therefore, increased sucrose concentration has been found to enhance petal growth and pigmentation in detached flowers of Eustoma grandiflorum and rose (Kuiper et al., 1991; Sankhla et al., 2005). The influence of sucrose and light intensity on lightness, chroma and petal colour of flower has also been reported through change in anthocyanin pigmentation in lilianthus cultivars (Uddin et al., 2001). The induction of anthocyanin synthesis and anthocyanin biosynthetic gene expression in detached petunia (Petunia hybrida) corollas by gibberellic acid (GA<sub>3</sub>) requires sucrose for activation of anthocyanin biosynthetic gene (Moalum-Beno et al., 1997).

Carotenoids like anthocyanins are also widely distributed in angiosperms whereas betalains are only found in some plants in the order Caryophyllales in some higher fungi such as Amanita muscaria. Betalains have functions analogous to those of anthocyanins as pigments. The majority of carotenoids in the petals of sandersonia (Sandersonia aurantiaca) are  $\beta$ ,  $\beta$ -carotenoids such as  $\beta$ -cryptoxanthin, zeaxanthin and  $\beta$ -carotene (Nielsen *et al.*, 2003). On the other hand, more than 90% of the carotenoids in the petals of (Tagetes sp.) marigold (Moehs et al., 2001) and chrysanthemum (Kishimoto et al., 2004) are lutein and/ or lutein derivatives. There are many carotenoids whose biosynthesis has not been characterized.

Taken together, it is concluded that anthocyanins, carotenoids and betalains constitute the majority of the flower pigments which can be affected by various factors like pH, light, temperature, etc. Some preservatives like sugar and growth hormones like GA<sub>3</sub> might prove to be best in delaying degradation of pigments like anthocyanins. At present, biosynthetic pathway of these pigments and their regulation are well known. However, the mechanisms of transport and sequestration of these pigments inside the vacuole which petals show variable colour is not known. Molecular approach may prove to be beneficial to know the mechanism of transport and their sequestration.

# *Lipid Peroxidation and Loss of Membrane Integrity*

Lipid peroxidation generates a range of reactive oxygen species, including singlet oxygen ( $^{1}O_{2}$ ), the alkoxy radical (RO<sup>•</sup>),

hydroxyl radical (OH·) and hydroperoxyl radical (HO<sup>2</sup> ··), and the peroxy radical (ROO<sup>•</sup>) which amplify the lipid peroxidation with further degradation of released fatty acids affecting membrane permeability (Van Doorn & Woltering, 2008; Rogers, 2012). All these can oxidize a range of macromolecules with varying specificity, although the hydroxyl radical is the most reactive and least specific (Dat et al., 2000). Bieleski and Reid (1992) found evidence for rapid cessation of overall phospholipids synthesis during petal senescence in Hemerocallis. All the enzymes required for phospholipid degradation are apparently present in membranes, even in those of young cells (Brown et al., 1990). Microsomal membranes from the petals of senescing carnation (Dianthus caryophyllus L.) flowers contain phosphatidylcholine, phosphatidylethanolamine, phosphatidylglycerol a n d phosphatidylinositol. These phospholipid classes decline essentially together during natural senescence of the flower (Brown et al., 1991; Chakrabarty et al., 2009; Lei et al., 2009). The decrease in levels of various lipids is associated with plant senescence. During petunia (Petunia hybrida Vilm.) flower senescence, there is a senescence-related increase in the content of diacylglycerol, one of the products of phospholipids metabolism in plasma membranes (Borochov et al., 1997).

The main phospholipid degrading enzymes, including (i) Phospholipase D (ii) Phospholipase C (iii) Lipolytic acyl hydrolase and (iv) Lipooxygenase, which degrade fatty acids were reported to be upregulated during petal senescence. Degradation of free fatty acids mainly occurs by  $\beta$ -oxidation (Pistelli *et al.*, 1992), end product of which is fed into glyoxylate cycle and converted to sugars in cytosol (Chen et al., 2000; Cornah et al., 2004) or used in synthesis of amino acids. Acyl-CoA oxidase isozymes catalyse the first step in peroxisomal fatty acid  $\beta$ -oxidation. The transcript abundance of a gene encoding an acyl-CoA synthase increased during senescence making plasma membrane permeable prior to vacuolar collapse due to phospholipid degradation inside membrane (Hopkins et al., 2007). Freeze-fracture electron microscopy of senescing carnation petals indicated the presence of gel phase lipid in plasma membrane, ER and tonoplast showing senescence syndrome (Hopkins et al., 2007). The ratio of saturated/unsaturated fatty acids was also found to increase due to extensive degradation of phospholipids and galactolipids during flower senescence (Leverentz et al., 2002).

Cellular membranes are selective, dynamic barriers, structural integrity of which is necessary for critical membrane functions such as maintaining the cell's osmotic balance in petals. The rupture of cellular membrane is likely to be deleterious to plant function since regulation of metabolites and signal exchange between neighbouring cells will also be lost. Membrane damage may occur early or later in the process of senescence. The accumulation of peroxidized lipids and products derived from them in senescing membranes appears to cause extensive destabilization of the membrane bilayer

structure and loss of membrane function. Thompson (1988) also observed a strong correlation between membrane leakiness and phospholipid breakdown in senescent flowers, rendering the membrane more susceptible to lipid degrading enzymes such as lipooxygenase that leads to broken down of cell membrane (Hildebrand & Hymowitz, 1982; Fobel et al., 1987; Lei et al., 2009). Electrical conductivity of the petal diffusates reached maximum at full bloom, with significantly higher values in Rosa damascene (Sood et al., 2006). Membrane permeability of sepal tissues estimated as electrical conductivity of ion leachates was also observed to increase as the development proceeded through various stages in Ranunculus asiaticus L. and Consolida ajacis L. cv. 'Violet Blue' (Shahri & Tahir, 2011a, b). Fukuchi-Mizutani et al. (2000) noticed increased activity of lipooxygenase (LOX) with senescence of cut flowers stimulating deterioration of membrane. Deterioration of cellular membranes causes increased membrane permeability, loss of ionic gradients and decreased function of key membrane proteins (e.g., ion pumps). Nevertheless, it is pertinent to note that loss of membrane function in Alstroemeria has been shown to occur without increased activity of lipooxygenase suggesting that the loss of membrane integrity can be achieved in a number of ways (Leverentz et al., 2000). Membrane breakdown in lupin (Hernandez-Jimenez et al., 2002), carnation (Bartoli et al., 1995), day lily (Rubinstein, 2000), rose (Sood et al., 2006) and gladiolus

(Hossain et al., 2006) is evidenced by positive role of lipooxygenase in promoting senescence. With loss of the integrity of cellular membrane structure in cells undergoing senescence, hydrolytic enzymes being normally compartmentalized in these cells are released and could cause massive breakdown of various cellular components. There are various changes related to membrane in plant tissue. In some cases, lipid pentadienyl, peroxyl free radicals may also be generated by LOX action (Roy et al., 1994). The result obtained by Brown et al. (1987) evidenced the microsomal membrane from carnation produced increased quantity of O<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> during senescence. According to the authors,  $O_2^-$  is produced by membrane bound oxidase. Lipid peroxidation not only threatens membrane proteins and functioning and integrity of membrane but also produces a variety of toxic aldehyde and ketones (Wilhelmova et al., 2006). A marked deterioration of the plasma membrane and loss of water are associated with lipid peroxidation with the senescence of chrysanthemum and Hemerocallis petals (Bartoli et al., 1995; Bartoli et al., 1997; Chakrabarty et al., 2009). Therefore, membrane degradation may be a central step in the process of senescence that leads to mass lipid degradation during senescence and collapse of the tonoplast which results in executing the death sentence. The main controversy is about the main site of phospholipid degradation and to what extent this phospholipid degradation takes place inside the vacuoles and autophagosomes and to what extent inside the membrane.

#### Loss of Cellular Protein

Proteins are the key molecules that play important roles in various structural and functional aspects of plants. Senescence in tepals, stamens and carpels results in an increase in total protease activity and a decrease in total protein content. In many species of plants, protein degradation and remobilization are mediated through protein ubiquitination and the action of specific proteases (Wagstaff et al., 2002; Pak & Van Doorn, 2005; Batelli et al., 2011) transferring various amino acids to phloem. The soluble proteins registered a consistent decrease with the simultaneous increase in specific protease activity and  $\alpha$ -amino acid content during different stages of flower development and senescence in Ranunculus asiaticus L. and Consolida ajacis cv. Violet Blue (Shahri & Tahir, 2011a, b). In many species of other flowers like Petunia and rose, a drastic decrease was found in protein level prior to visible senescence symptoms (Jones et al., 2005; Sood et al., 2006). An increase in amino acid content in phloem exudates from flower opening to petal wilting in Ipomoea, Hemerocallis and Sandersonia petals was observed due to protein degradation. Asparagine, lysine, glutamine and hydroxyproline were main transport amino acids (Wiemken et al., 1976; Bieleski, 1995; Eason et al., 2002). Several genes like DEAD/DEAH domain helicase related to protein synthesis are differentially expressed during petal senescence, both in daffodil (Hunter et al., 2002) and in Alstroemeria (Breeze et al., 2004). These genes are homology to the

eIF-4A. Actinomycin D, an inhibitor of transcription, if given 4 h prior to opening, suppressed the onset of visible senescence, which occurred at about 9 h after flower opening by downregulation of senescence associated genes in petals of morning glory (Yamada et al., 2007). SDS-PAGE of protein extract from sepal tissues of Helleborus orientalis suggested a decrease in the expression of high molecular weight proteins and an increase in low molecular weight proteins during flower development and senescence. At present, it is not known whether the polypeptides that increased during senescence play an important role in the senescence of Helleborus orientalis flowers but these polypeptides may be linked to longevity (Shahri et al., 2011).

In proteasomes dependent degradation, proteasome system involved in degradation of specific proteins was apparently upregulated during petal senescence in (Hemerocallis) day lily (Müller et al., 2004) and daffodil (Hunter et al., 2002). In carnation, the abundance of mRNA increased three genes encoding subunits of the 19S regulatory particle, one of two large complexes of the 26S proteasome (Hoeberichts et al., 2007). A significant delay in the time to visible senescence was observed through feeding the isolated Iris petals with Z-Leu-Leu-Nva-H, an inhibitor of proteasome activity (Pak & Van Doorn, 2005). Ubiquitinated proteins involved in the degradation of many petal proteins during floral development and senescence increased in intensity as the flowers senesced. Several monomers of ubiquitin (a 76 amino acid polypeptide) become attached to protein targeted for degradation in the proteosomes having involvement of three enzymes referred to as E1, E2 and E3. Silencing of RING domain of E3 protein delayed visible senescence symptoms in *Petunia* (Xu *et al.*, 2008). Expression of a homologous gene encoding a RING zinc finger ankyrin repeat protein (MjXB3), a putative E3 ubiquitin ligase, in petals of senescing four o'clock (*Mirabilis jalapa*) flowers highly increased during the onset of visible senescence like that in *Petunia* (Xu *et al.*, 2007). Silencing of this gene also resulted in extension of flower life.

Proteasome-independent protease activity increases prior to visible senescence (Stephenson & Rubinstein, 1998; Pak & Van Doorn, 2005). The proteases are often divided into exo- and endoproteases, indicating position of the target protein from where the cleavage takes place. Endoproteases include cystiene-, serine-, aspartic-, and metalloproteases, named after the amino acid residues or the metals that are required for cleavage reaction. In gladiolus, of the total protease activity, serine proteases account for about 67-70% while cysteine proteases account for only 23-25% (Azeez et al., 2007). E-64 and antipain, these are specific inhibitors used for assessing the activities of proteases, both affected cysteine proteases. Total protease activity was reduced in petals of Hemerocallis (Stephenson and Rubinstein, 1998) and Gladiolus (Arora & Singh, 2004) and in Petunia (Jones et al., 2005) by using E-64 in vitro. Antipain reduced

protease activity of *Sandersonia* petals by 30% (Eason et al., 2002). Feeding Iris petals with a membrane permeable form of E-64 also indicated that about half of the peak protease activity was due to cysteine proteases (Pak & Van Doorn, 2005). In carnation petals, a gene encoding a cystiene inhibitor, abundant at the time of flower opening, became gradually down regulated. Its mRNA had disappeared by the time of the increase in cysteine protease expression and petal wilting (Sugawara et al., 2002). The cysteine protease inhibitor 2, 2-dipyridyl delayed the time to wilting in Sandersonia petals and prevented the senescenceassociated rise in endoproteases activity (Eason et al., 2002). Thus, petal senescence is accompanied by bulk non-proteasomal protein degradation, mainly in vacuoles. This process of protein degradation shows accumulation of considerable amount of amino acids during senescence. Many genes which encode protein for the proteases have also been discovered to retard this process. To some extent, this molecular approach has been proved to be involved in regulation and inhibition of proteases. Further work is also needed to prevent degradation of protein at gene level or using some cultural practices like using preservatives or inhibitors to slow down the activity of proteases.

#### Enzymatic Activities

An unavoidable consequence of aerobic metabolism is production of reactive oxygen species (ROS) which may be beneficial or deleterious depending upon the concentration of ROS. A high concentration

leads to damage of biomolecules and low concentration act as second messenger that mediate several responses in plants. When concentration of ROS becomes high, antioxidant system comprising of enzymatic (ascorbate peroxidase (APX), catalase (CAT), superoxide dismutase (SOD), glutathione reductase (GR) and guaiacol peroxidase (GPX) and nonenzymatic components (Ascorbate, glutathione, tocopherols, carotenoids and phenolic compounds) is there in plants to scavenge these ROS. Here, the main emphasis is given on enzymatic components like ascorbate peroxidase (APX), catalase (CAT), superoxide dismutase (SOD), glutathione reductase (GR) and guaiacol peroxidase (GPX), etc., which show antioxidant behaviour with progressive senescence. Peroxidases are one of the important enzymes found in plant material which bleaches chlorophyll in presence of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (Matile, 1980; Ponmeni & Mukherjee, 1997). Peroxidase activity was found to be much higher in senescent than in the young stage of leaves (Mukherjee & Rao, 1993). Enhanced peroxidase activity was associated with an increase in the level of peroxides and free radicals which react with cellular constituents (Brennan & Frenkel, 1977; Sood et al., 2006). A decline in APX activity, progressive increase in SOD activity, changes in GR activity and increase in endogenous H2O2 were observed in Hemerocallis over the senescence period (Chakrabarty et al., 2009). H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> is reduced by ascorbate peroxidase (APX) with the consequent oxidation of ascorbate to

dehydroascorbate while catalase converts  $H_2O_2$  into  $H_2O$  and  $O_2$ . The increase in SOD activity over the senescing period could be due to the over-expression of genes induced by H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> accumulation (Hossain et al., 2006). In Gladiolus petals, the decrease in APX activity was assumed to be the prerequisite for flower senescence resulting in an increase of the endogenous H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> level. In Iris, APX and SOD activity decreased by the time when the tepals showed wilting, while CAT activity increased and GR activity exhibited no change (Bailly et al., 2001). In daylily, the decline in APX and CAT activity along with LOX action resulted in high H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> endogenous levels during senescence (Barber & Thompson, 1980; Fukuchi-Mizutani et al., 2000; Sood et al., 2006).

Lipoxygenase also mediated the oxidation of polyunsaturated fatty acids and production of free radicals (Hildebrand & Hymowitz, 1982). However, the welldefined enzymatic antioxidant defense system (superoxide dismutase, SOD; ascorbate peroxidase, APX; glutathione reductase, GR) protect them against these deleterious effects by scavenging ROS. As senescence advanced, the membrane lipid peroxidation caused membrane leakage (Barber & Thompson, 1980; Fukuchi-Mizutani *et al.*, 2000; Sood *et al.*, 2006; Chakrabarty *et al.*, 2009) by the action of LOX and release free radicals.

The elevation in protease activity is among the important changes associated with the sepal senescence of *Consolida ajacis* flowers (Shahri & Tahir, 2011b). Proteolytic enzymes have been divided

into several different groups depending on specific site at which they cleave target protein. Most common are cysteine proteases. Cpase are closest functional homologue to caspases in senescent plant tissue and commonly functional during petal senescence (Wagstaff et al., 2002). Cpase was upregulated during petal senescence in daylily flowers (Guerrero et al., 1998). Proteases are mainly classified into two categories- exo and endoproteases depending upon the cleavage site in protein. Endoproteases include cystiene-, serine- and aspartic- named after amino acid cleavage site in protein. As many as nine cysteine proteases have been isolated from senescing Petunia petals. In transgenic Petunia petals, expression of 4 cysteine proteases genes was delayed resulting in delay of petal wilting (Jones et al., 2005).

The upregulation of various nucleases such as RNases and DNases also increases during senescence in many cut flowers (Winkenbach, 1970; Lesham et al., 1986; Panavas et al., 2000; Canetti et al., 2002; Lers et al., 2006). The bifunctional nucleases which are able to degrade both RNA and DNA have also been identified. Their activities and the levels of mRNA encode those increases during plant senescence (Canetti et al., 2002; Perez-Amador et al., 2000). Degraded nuclear DNA indicated laddering of DNA when fragments of DNA were placed on a gel found in a number of flowers like Alstroemeria and gladiolus (Wagstaff et al., 2003; Yamada et al., 2003). The mRNA abundance of DNase genes was also observed during senescence in petals

of *Hemerocallis* (Panavas *et al.*, 1999), *Narcissus* (Hunter *et al.*, 2004) and *Petunia* (Langston *et al.*, 2005). This part showed the formation of reactive oxygen species during stress conditions and upregulation or downregulation of various enzymes to regulate the senescence processes. Reports have confirmed that data are much less conclusive on the actual role of oxidative stress and the protective enzymatic systems with their corresponding isoenzymes in relation to progression of flower senescence in plants. However, more detailed work is needed to address this theme.

### ETHYLENE

Ethylene is the major promoter of flower senescence in ethylene sensitive flowers, coordinating senescence pathways and floral abscission (Woltering & Van Doorn, 1988; Trobacher, 2009). A visible sign of senescence in ethylene sensitive flower is accompanied by sudden, transient increase in respiration resulting in burst of endogenously produced ethylene, coordinating the senescence pathways and upregulation of genes for enzymes required for senescence (Kende, 1993; Jones et al., 2005; Narumi et al., 2006; Ichimura et al., 2009). The genes for enzymes include S-adenosylmethionine synthase,  $\beta$ -glucosidase,  $\beta$ -galactosidase, aspartic proteases, nucleases, asparagine synthetase etc. (Woodson et al., 1992; Eason et al., 2000; Wagstaff et al., 2002; Narumi et al., 2006). Ethylene biosynthesis pathway starts with conversion of S-adenosylmethionine (SAM) to ACC by upregulation of SAM synthase,

ACC synthase and ACC oxidase during ethylene sensitive petal senescence (Bufler et al., 1980; Jones, 2004; Hoeberichts et al., 2007). Antisense techniques prolonged life of cut carnation flowers by inhibiting the conversion of ACC to ethylene by decreasing level of ACC oxidase mRNA (Savin et al., 1995; Kosugi et al., 2002). In flowers of several species such as Petunia, carnation and orchids, senescence is mediated by pollination with evolution of ethylene following contact between pollen and stigmatic surface. Ethylene produced from pollinated stigma has been shown to be translocated via style and ovary to carnation petals triggering ethylene synthetic genes contributing to senescence (ten Have & Woltering, 1997; Shibuya et al., 2000; Nukui et al., 2004; Satoh et al., 2005). Strong evidence for an important role for the gynoecium in carnation petal senescence was observed after gynoecium removal by hand by delaying senescence as petal ethylene unable to reach to normal ethylene level in absence of gynoecium. In unpollinated ethylene sensitive petal senescence, cells become more sensitive to their basal ethylene production, which might be related to decrease in cytokinnin activity in petals. Exposure to ethylene at 0.5  $\mu$ L L<sup>-1</sup> or higher concentrations for 24 h markedly accelerated flower senescence, indicating that Gentiana scabra flowers are highly sensitive to ethylene (Shimizu-Yumoto & Ichimura, 2012). Ethylene is also known to be involved in the abscission of flower parts in plants such as Delphinium (Van Doorn, 2002; Ichimura et al., 2009). Overexpression

of gene encoding isopentenyltransferase (ipt) results in high level of cytokinins extending life of petals in transgenic Petunia flowers. When these *ipt*-overexpressing flowers were treated with ethylene, mRNA abundance of cysteine protease gene remained low for a considerable period of time (Chang et al., 2003). Treatments with 1-aminocyclopropane- 1-carboxylic acid (ACC), a precursor of ethylene biosynthesis, enhanced senescence of Hibiscus rosasinensis L. flowers (Trivellini et al., 2011). Eisinger (1977) and Van Staden (1995) observed cytokinin treatment delayed rise in ethylene production through decrease in ethylene sensitivity in carnation petals. Application of indole-3-acetic acid (IAA) hastened rise in ethylene production and petal wilting while it can reduce ethylene in some tissues like abscission zone (Van Staden, 1995). Abscisic acid (ABA) was also observed to enhance ethylene production and hastened petal wilting (Mayak & Dilley, 1976). If gynoecia are removed, however, induction of ethylene no longer occurs and wilting has been reported. Therefore, it is concluded that ABA acts as an inducer of ethylene only through gynoecium (Shibuya et al., 2000; Nukui et al., 2004). Application of GA<sub>3</sub> delayed rise in ethylene production and postponed petal wilting. In ethylene insensitive petal senescence, signal might be endogenous, from petal cells or may not require hormones as intermediate signals. ABA treatment in Hemerocallis hastened time of visible senescence (Panavas et al., 1998). Treatment of GA<sub>3</sub> as a vase solution increased petal life span in cut daffodil

flowers (Hunter et al., 2004). Depression of enzyme activities and gene expression of ACC synthase and ACC oxidase were observed in cut carnation flowers under hightemperature conditions (Yangkhamman et al., 2007). Exogenous ethylene influences flower opening of cut roses (Rosa hybrida) by regulating the genes encoding ethylene biosynthesis enzymes (Nan et al., 2005) and increases water loss, anthocyanin degradation, ethylene production and decreases vase life in Dendrobium orchids depending on cultivars (Almasi et al., 2012). Petunia x hybrida over-expressing the antisense BoACS1 gene (ACC synthase) or the antisense BoACO1 gene (ACC oxidase) from broccoli showed reduced ethylene biosynthesis and delay of flower senescence (Huang et al., 2007). These evidences have supported involvement of both ethylene dependent and independent pathways that lead to senescence of floral parts especially of the petals. Regarding the pattern of senescence in ethylene insensitive flowers, the data so far accumulated is scanty and more elaborate work are required to understand the ethylene independent pathway and its execution.

#### ABSCISIC ACID (ABA)

Another important plant hormone involved in flower senescence is ABA which accelerates senescence processes in many cut flowers (Wei *et al.*, 2003; Hunter *et al.*, 2004). ABA participates in endogenous regulation of senescence processes in rose flowers (Halevy & Mayak, 1981; Panavas *et al.*, 1998; Hunter *et al.*, 2004), and this may be due to conversion of carotenoids to ABA. ABA accelerates senescence of cut roses by promoting petal growth and respiration, thus decreasing the carbohydrate level in the petals and triggering the chain of metabolic processes leading to aging in rose flowers (Borochov et al., 1976). ABA content decreased during bud development and increased during senescence. Several fold increase in ABA concentration was observed during the later stages of senescence which was found to be associated with a drastic reduction of flower water potential and water uptake (Kumar et al., 2008a; Arrom & Munne-Bosch, 2012b). The ABA content during flower development has a welldefined trend that is common in many plant species such as squash, four o'clock, daylily and daffodil (Panavas et al., 1998; Hunter et al., 2004). ABA may act by increasing ethylene sensitivity as observed by exogenous application in Hibiscus flowers (Trivellini et al., 2007, 2011), suggesting that both hormones are involved in flower senescence. A direct relation between petal ABA concentration and longevity was also observed; the higher the ABA concentration at harvest, the shorter the subsequent vase life (Muller et al., 1999). In perianth of daffodils, exogenously applied ABA enhanced the premature accumulation of senescence associated transcripts in petals indicating that ABA induced the transcripts independent of ethylene which was reduced by adding GA<sub>3</sub> in vase solution (Hunter et al., 2004). In daylily, exogenously applied ABA causes a loss of differential membrane permeability and increase in lipid

peroxidation and ion leakage (Woltering & Van Doorn, 1988).

ABA-accelerated senescence appears to be mediated through induction of ethylene synthesis, since it is not seen in flowers pretreated with ethylene (Mayak & Dilley, 1976; Ronen & Mayak, 1981; Müller et al., 1999). This is because daylily flowers are ethylene-insensitive (Lay-Yee et al., 1992), ABA presumably induces flower senescence independently of ethylene (Panavas et al., 1998). During senescence of daffodil flowers, however, Hunter et al. (2002) reported that although ABA accumulated in the tepals as they senesced, it did not appear to play a signaling role in natural senescence. The increase in ABA concentrations in the tepals occurred after the induction of senescence-associated genes. They concluded that the increase in ABA content was most likely a consequence of the cellular stresses that occurred during senescence and suggested that the hormone does not trigger senescence but may help drive the process to completion. It is clear that ABA is considered as most promising growth regulator which promotes senescence and also inducer of ethylene in ethylene insensitive species but proper mechanism is not known how it induces ethylene. Involvement of ABA in both ethylenesensitive and ethylene-insensitive flower senescence regulates distinct mechanisms which have not been fully elucidated as yet.

# APPROACHES TO ENHANCE POSTHARVEST LIFE OF CUT FLOWERS

Various pre-harvest, harvest and postharvest factors also influence the postharvest quality and longevity of cut flowers (Halevy & Mayak, 1979). The important pre-harvest factors include; cultivar, light, temperature and mineral nutrients in soils. Physical damage due to pests, diseases besides and certain physiological disorders can markedly reduce the cut flower quality. Time of harvest also influences the postharvest life of cut flowers. Flowers harvested in the afternoon retain higher amount of storage and last longer than those harvested in the morning. Harvesting of flowers is done at immature stage when they are transported at long distance and for local markets, harvested at mature stage (Bhattacharjee & De, 2003). Several postharvest factors such as temperature, relative humidity, light and ethylene, CO<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>2</sub> concentration in the environment also influence longevity of cut flowers (Salunkhe et al., 1990). Therefore, post-harvest quality of ornamental plants is a crucial aspect to be considered for successful commercialization. The knowledge obtained through the study of petal PCD may be applied to the objective of producing flowers with a longer vase life (Zhou et al., 2005). This goal may be achieved by preserving flower freshness during their transport, by designing new holding solutions of sugars (sucrose, glucose, trehalose, etc.) hormones, bactericides, ethanol, mineral ions and metabolic inhibitors or their combinations and by genetically modifying the flowers through the introduction of useful genes inducing longest postharvest life. Controlled atmospheres (CA) or modified atmospheres (MAP) are the recent technologies for perishable horticultural products. MAP is an inexpensive technique involving the use of polymeric films to create a low oxygen and high carbon dioxide atmosphere within the package in order to reduce physiological changes and quality loss. It works on the same principle as controlled atmosphere while controlled atmosphere (CA) require precise control on atmospheric gases and more costly in use. But these technologies of MAP and CA are not in much practice for the ornamentals.

# Carbohydrate Metabolism and Effect of Exogenous Sugars

Metabolites play a crucial role in the regulation of developmental processes as well as in response to biotic and abiotic stresses in plants (Wingler & Roitsch, 2008). Sugar provides not only energy source but also molecules controlling metabolism, development and gene expression in prokaryotes and eukaryotes (Kumar et al., 2008b). The reduction in sugar status is among the important changes associated with the sepal senescence of Consolida ajacis L. flowers. Therefore, post-harvest life is strongly dependent on the carbohydrate status and acceptable amount of metabolic sugars that affect rate of senescence (Ho & Nichols, 1977). Senescence causes loss of complex carbohydrate and transient accumulation of soluble sugars (Buchanan-Wollaston et al., 2003; Sood et al.,

2006). Some petals contain starch and fructan. In Chrysanthemum petals, both polysaccharides were degraded during petal expansion (Trusty & Miller, 1991). Young petals that reported to contain high starch concentration include Tradescantia reflexa (Horie, 1961); Lilium (Bieleski et al., 2000). Waithaka et al. (2001) reported transfer of carbohydrate from senescent lower florets to those developed acropetally during development of inflorescence. The content of sugars in the petal tissues increased during the flower opening period and then declined during senescence in Ranunculus asiaticus L. (Shahri & Tahir, 2011a). Tirosh and Mayak (1988) reported that  $\alpha$ -amylase plays an important role in mechanism of petal opening and regulates the appearance of senescence syndrome. Glucose derived from starch granules are hydrolysed via  $\beta$ -amylase to maltose which is exported from chloroplast, as substrate for transglucosylation reaction, producing glucose and glucosylated acceptor molecule (Smith et al., 2005). Starch is present in form of granules composed of branched polymers; most of these are amylopectinan  $\alpha$ -1, 4,  $\alpha$ -1, 6 linked polymer (Zeeman et al., 2002). The level and translocation of carbohydrates are considered as main factor affecting the development of rose flower and also as a factor affecting postharvest life of cut flowers (Khayat & Zieslin, 1989). SPS (Sucrose phosphate synthase) also plays a key role in conversion of triose phosphate to sucrose in source leaves or may be subjected to coarse control by demand of sink tissues that cause sucrose accumulation and observed highest level of SPS gene expression in *Oncidium goldiana* flowers (Li *et al.*, 2003).

Sucrose supplementation to cut flowers maintained their ATP levels and the movement ability for a longer time than in those kept in water (Azad et al., 2008). Keeping the flower in vase solution containing sucrose has been shown to extend their vase life (Ho & Nichols, 1977; Kuiper et al., 1995). Inclusion of other sugars as trehalose, mannitol and inositol in vase solution also delayed senescence in tulips (Iwaya-Inoue & Nonami, 2003; Ranwala & Miller, 2009), Alstroemeria (Asil & Roein, 2012) and Gladiolus (Otsubo & Iwaya-Inoue, 2000; Yamada et al., 2003; Arora & Singh, 2006). Post-harvest application of sucrose has been reported to increase longevity of some important horticultural crops such as carnation (Verlinden & Garcia, 2004). Preservative for consumers include sugars and antimicrobial compounds that inhibit vascular occlusion (Ichimura et al., 2006). At least part of sugar effect could be explained by abundance of EIL3 mRNA, which is a transcription factor that translates ethylene signals (Hoeberichts et al., 2007) and by lower levels of EIL3 protein. The presence of high sugar level was observed to promote proteasomal degradation of EIN3 (Yanagisawa et al., 2003). Pun and Ichimura (2003) observed delay in ethylene biosynthesis and decreased insensitivity to ethylene. Sugars can also delay senescence in ethylene sensitive petals. In Sandersonia, the effect of exogenous sugar on senescence was accompanied by a delay in expression of genes involved in fatty acid and protein

remobilization (Eason et al., 2002). Sucrose treatment showed varied responses in different flowers of same family. Sucrose at 0.05 and 0.2 M significantly enhanced vase life of spikes of Aquilegia vulgaris L. and Consolida ajacis L. respectively, while it is found ineffective in enhancing vase life in Ranunculus asiaticus (Shahri et al., 2010). Sucrose addition to the vase solution exerts an effect on flower opening and senescence in cut lily flowers by altering the hormonal balance of several floral tissues among other factors (Arrom & Munne-Bosch, 2012a). Sugar was also found to have stimulatory effect in cut sweet pea flowers (Ichimura & Suto, 1999), Eustoma (Cho et al., 2001) and roses (Hayat et al., 2012) in delaying senescence. Hence, sugar metabolism plays its role actively during senescence stages, transporting mainly sucrose through the phloem. It is clear that exogenous sugars delay time of wilting symptoms during senescence; however, it is often not clear to what extent applied sugars serve to improve petal water relations by increasing the level of osmotic solutes or to delay cell death. Measurements about considerable quantities of sugars present at the time of petal wilting may also have not been detailed due to the following reasons: (a) various tissues in a petal are at different stages of senescence, (b) the cytoplasm and the vacuole may have different sugar levels, and (c) sugars are again formed at some stages during senescence. Furthermore, research is needed in this aspect of breakdown and synthesis of sugar at cellular or tissue as well as at molecular level.

#### Biocides

Pure water used in flower containers soon becomes contaminated with bacteria and fungi which multiply on plant tissue or debris. Microorganisms in water can cause physical plugging of cut stem and release toxic metabolites. They can evolve damaging levels of ethylene and induce hypersensitive response resulting in PCD (Alvarez, 2000). The organism responsible for production of substances such as tannins can block the conducting vessels of the stem. Some chemical substances (known as biocides) have been found helpful in keeping post-harvest life of cut flowers. 8-hydroxyquinoline (8-HQ) and 8-hydroxyquinolinecitrate (8-HQC) are commonly used biocides. They lower the pH of holding solution preventing vascular blockade of many cut flowers including cut roses (Van Doorn & Perik, 1990). 8-HQ has been known to possess strong antimicrobial properties that eliminate vascular blockage and enhance water uptake so as to maintain water balance by reducing transpiration from flower tissue (Rogers, 1973; Jowker, 2005). Other commonly used disinfectants include STS (silver thiosulphate), dichlorphen, hypochlorite and quaternary ammonium compounds (Ueyama & Ichimura, 1998; Muriithi & Ouma, 2011). A solution containing 8-HQC and sucrose is routinely used to prolong vase life in cut flowers (Lukaszewska & Skutnik, 2003). The maximum vase life and flower diameter was recorded when the cut spikes were immersed in a solution containing sucrose 2% + 8 HQC - 200 ppm + AgNO<sub>3</sub> 50 ppm

in all the tuberose cvs. Vaibhav, Mexican Single, Shringar, Suvasini and Prajwal (Sudagar et al., 2010). Knee (2000) observed that various concentrations of biocides in a solution containing 0.2 g L<sup>-1</sup> citric acid and 10 g L <sup>-1</sup> glucose were found effective on cut roses (Rosa hybrida L., 'Classy'), Alstroemeria pelegrina L. and carnation (Dianthus caryophyllus L.). Elgimabi and Ahmed (2009) and Tsegaw et al. (2011) also reported the best result in enhancing vase life in cut roses and carnation (Edrisi et al., 2012) using biocides as preservatives. Pulse treatment with HQS plus sucrose for 12 h is the most effective for improving pigmentation and use as a commercial cut flower preservative solution to delay flower senescence, enhance quality, and prolong the vase life of sweet pea (Elhindi, 2012). From this part, it is concluded that biocides or disinfectants are the important preservative to prevent growth of bacteria which results in plugging of conducting vessels for proper aeration and water uptake for better postharvest performance of cut flowers. Some disinfectants based on cetrimide and chlorhexidine are phytotoxic. Therefore, freely available, cheaper and safe materials for use to plant like sodium and calcium hypochlorite can be used. Some fungicides may also be used but there effect on vase life is found to be negative. Public concern over health and environmental issues associated materials and non-chemical methods such as use of citric acid may prove to be best for better vase life of cut flowers.

#### Role of Plant Growth Regulators

Auxins are needed for the initiation of floral primordia. Modifications in the auxin levels may cause abortion or different flower forms (Cheng & Zhao, 2007; McSteen, 2010). Auxins have been found to delay the senescence of cut flowers like carnation and Petunia (Halevy & Mayak, 1981). In addition, treatment with the synthetic auxin such as 1-naphthaleneacetic acid (NAA) is useful to reduce abscission of flower buds in roses (Halevy & Kofranek, 1976) and drop of flower-bracts in bougainvillea (Chang & Chen, 2001) and enhance postharvest life and chlorophyll b in cut Alstroemeria hybrida (Bagheri et al., 2013). In Theobroma cacao flowers, a single application of NAA at anthesis, anticipates petal wilting but prevents flower abscission (Aneja et al., 1999; Hasenstein & Zavada, 2001). Application of IAA is also found to hasten the rise in ethylene production and petal wilting in cut carnation flowers (Van Staden, 1995). In carnation petals, a transient increase was observed in the mRNA abundance of an Aux/IAA gene (Hoeberichts et al., 2007). In potted bougainvillea postproduction, auxins delay bract and flower abscission (Meir et al., 2007; Gago & Monteiro, 2011). The combination of NAA and AVG (Aminoethoxyvinylglycine, an ethylene inhibitor) extended the inflorescence vase life and longevity of opened flowers more than AVG or NAA alone. The combination also increased the number of open flowers and kept the relative fresh weight of flower stems high. Therefore, application of NAA with AVG is a highly effective treatment

for improving the postharvest life of cut *Eustoma* flowers (Yumoto & Ichimura, 2010). The auxins such as IAA and NAA strongly promoted elongation and opening. An inhibitor of auxin transport (2, 3, 5-triiodobenzoic acid, TIBA) and an inhibitor of auxin effects [ $\alpha$ -(p-chlorophenoxy)-isobutyric acid; PCIB] inhibited elongation and opening, suggesting that endogenous auxins are among the regulators of the pedicel and ovary elongation and thus of flower opening in *Iris* (Van Doorn *et al.*, 2013).

Gibberellins are mostly used and proven growth regulators in horticulture. Most commonly used one is GA<sub>3</sub>. Kohl and Kofraneck (1957) were among the first to investigate the possible use of gibberellins in floricultural crops. According to Eason (2002), treatment of gibberellic acid, a component of certain preservative solutions has been found to delay the onset of tepal fading and wilting in Sandersonia aurantiaca flowers and enhanced the longevity, chlorophyll content and superoxide dismutase activities in leaf and flower samples in Alstroemeria (Nouri et al., 2012). The use of Accel (BA+ $GA_{4+7}$ ) at 25 mg L<sup>-1</sup> BA has been reported to improve flower opening in Alstroemeria (Muthui et al., 2001). Brackmann et al. (2005) evaluated the effects of GA<sub>3</sub> on three varieties of chrysanthemums and noted the promotion of senescence of both leaves and flowers. The application of GA<sub>3</sub> in the field did not reduce or retard the senescence process in chrysanthemum 'Faroe' (Vieira et al., 2010). This author also

studied the biochemical changes in postharvest chrysanthemum 'Faroe' submitted to different concentrations of GA<sub>3</sub> applied in the field and observed increase in the level of polyamines. A concentration of 10 mg L<sup>-1</sup> GA<sub>4+7</sub> can be used to prolong vase life, delay leaf senescence and enhance postharvest quality of Alstroemeria cut flowers during their transport to market (Muthui et al., 2006). Gerbera cut flowers held in GA<sub>3</sub> at concentration of 2.5, 5 or 7.5 mg L<sup>-1</sup> had significantly higher water content in flower heads and stems, hence maintaining flower turgidity, reduction in bent neck and flower senescence and increased flower quality after 14 days of holding compared with control (Emongor, 2004). Post-harvest application of GA<sub>3</sub> (50 ml L<sup>-1</sup>) with sucrose (50 g L<sup>-1</sup>) reported to improve the fresh weight, concentration of petal sugar, activities of SOD and decreased LOX activity which delayed petal senescence and enhanced vase life of gladioli (Singh et al., 2008). According to Kim and Miller (2009), spray containing GA<sub>4+7</sub> plus BA might be of commercial value in enhancing postharvest quality of tulip flowers. But concentration over 50mg L<sup>-1</sup> can lead to unwanted early senescence of mature cut tulip flowers, below this concentration would be most useful for achieving maximum delay in tepal senescence. Abadi (2010) studied the effects of different concentrations of GA3 on growth and flowering of rose (Rosa hybrida cv. Poison) and found that 200 mg L<sup>-1</sup> GA<sub>3</sub> at pre-harvest stage improved stalk length, fresh weight and yield in rose.

Eisinger (1977) proposed that cytokinins are natural anti-senescence factors and their declining levels account for triggering increased ethylene production. Feeding carnation flowers with 6-methyl purine, an inhibitor of cytokinin oxidase/ dehydrogenase, resulted in increased life span of petals suggesting that ethylene promotes inactivation of cytokinins and facilitates the senescence process (Taverner et al., 2000). Chang et al. (2003) confirmed the role of cytokinins in flower senescence using transgenic approach. The transgenic plants over expressing IPT gene under the SAG12 promoter was found to exhibit significant delay in flower senescence and corresponding increase in the cytokinin content and less sensitivity to ethylene suggesting that the regulation of flower senescence involves the interactive operation of cytokinins and ethylene. Hoeberichts et al. (2007) have reported the increase in mRNA abundance of two genes encoding cytokinin oxidase/dehydrogenase during carnation petal senescence which was found to accelerate cytokinin breakdown and promote corolla senescence. Cytokinin action in plant tissue is dependent upon the type of cytokinin; one type of cytokinin occurs naturally in plants and includes zeatin, dihydrozeatin and isopentenyl adenine. Similarly, BA supplied in vase solutions extended vase life in Grevillea 'Sylvia' inflorescences (Setyadjit et al., 2004) and in Gerbera jamesonii Bolus ex. Hook cv. Yanara (Jabeen et al., 2008). Application of 25 and 50 mg L<sup>-1</sup> BA reduced

the weight loss, chlorosis and anthocyanin degradation in Eustoma flowers (Asil & Karimi, 2010). Thidiazuron (TDZ), a phenylurea compound with cytokinin like activity has been found to improve Iris flower opening and longevity (Macnish et al., 2010). BA effectively delayed leaf vellowing and also tepal senescence in tulips (Van Doorn et al., 2011). However, BA produced browning of lower stem end. This was prevented by inclusion of Ca<sup>2+</sup> in solution. Taken together, it is concluded that commercial regulation of plant growth and development relies heavily on the use of synthetic plant growth regulators (PGR). Concern over the impact of these chemicals on human health and the environment has already limited their use and may limit their availability in the future. Another novel approach to modulate the action of phytohormones is by manipulation at the molecular level. Antisence ACC synthase genes blocking ACC production, or with a gene encoding an enzyme that enhance ACC breakdown, has been reported recently in tomatoes transformed plants which resulted in much reduced ethylene production and delayed fruit ripening. Similar technologies will certainly be used in the future to modify production, transport, degradation and activity of PGR.

## Ethanol

Alcohols from methanol to hexanol have been tested but only ethanol has been reported to have positive response in enhancing vase life in many cut flowers. Ethanol reduces or inhibits ethylene production by preventing activity of ACC oxidase to convert ACC to ethylene. Mechanism of action depends upon the concentration of ethanol. At low concentration, ethanol is converted in to acetaldehyde that inhibits formation of ethylene. But at high concentration, it showed negative effects on cell membrane by disrupting cell permeability. Thus, it is proposed that ethanol prevents action of ethylene and penetrating into cell membrane by binding at ethylene binding sites. Ethanol has been found to be effective in increasing vase life of carnation flowers by inhibiting ethylene biosynthesis (Heins & Blakely, 1980; Wu et al., 1992). Exogenous application of ethanol has been shown to delay senescence in tomatoes (Kelly & Saltveit, 1988) and oat (Avena sativa) leaves (Salter & Thimann, 1980). Ethanol prevented climacteric ethylene, inhibited conversion of ACC to ethylene, interfered with the action of ACC-synthase and inhibited formation of ACC (Heins, 1980; Wu et al., 1992). In Chrysanthemum flowers, ethanol treatment delayed the senescence of flowers and improved the quality of vase life of bluebonnet racemes (Petridou et al., 2001). Pun et al. (1999) reported that ethanol increased the vase life of carnation flowers and cultivars showed varied responses to ethanol treatment with regard to vase life increment. Ethanol (2%), along with 2.5% sucrose, delayed senescence in Lisianthus flowers (Farokhzad et al., 2005). Continuous treatment with 8% ethanol doubled vase life of 'White Sim' carnation (Dianthus caryophyllus) flowers (Wu et al., 1992). In addition, 8% and 10% ethanol were also found to be effective in delaying senescence in bougainvillea flower (Hossain et al., 2007). Podd and Staden (2004) stated that ethanol, when applied at low concentration as holding solution extended vase life of cut carnation flowers. They also mentioned that low concentration of either ethanol or acetaldehyde apparently decreased the formation of ethylene by inhibiting action of ACC synthase. Treatment with ethanol delayed petal senescence of flowers, possibly through reduced sensitivity to ethylene in cut Tweedia caerulea (Pun et al., 2013) and in carnation (Adugna et al., 2012). Ethanol and aluminium sulphate treatments had the most important role in the extending longevity as well as water uptake in Rosa hybrida cv. Black Magic (Hajizadeh et al., 2012). In Rosa hybrida, longest vase life and minimum ethylene production were obtained by using ethanol at 6% concentration (Imani et al., 2013). Ethanol (2%) has also been reported to delay senescence in Matricaria parthenium L. (Kaur & Mukherjee, 2012) and Calendula officinalis L. (Kaur & Mukherjee, 2013)

by lowering activity of  $\alpha$ -amylase, starch degradation, lipid peroxidation and peroxidase activity.

#### Mineral Ions

Ions like aluminium, boron, cobalt, calcium, copper, nickel, zinc and silver in the form of various salts at appropriate concentrations have been used to improve postharvest performance of various cut flowers (Halevy & Mayak, 1981). Calcium has been used to prolong vase life of many cut bulb flowers such as tulips and to improve the quality of carnation, roses and Petunia (Halevy & Mayak, 1981; Torre et al., 1999; Asfanani et al., 2008). It delays rose petal senescence by protecting membrane proteins and phospholipids from degradation by reducing ethylene production and maintaining solute transport (Halevy et al., 2000). Cytokinin and  $CaCl_2$  decreased the senescence percentage of petals in rose cut flowers separately and this reduction was highest at higher concentration of these substances (Mortazavi et al., 2007). Combined effect of Ca as a flow resistance reducer and HQS as



Fig.1: *Calendula officinalis* flowers treated with (A) methanol 2%; (B) methanol 4%; (C) methanol 6%; (D) n-butanol 2%; (E) n-butanol 4%; (F) n-butanol 6%; (G) ethanol 2%; (H) ethanol 4%; (I) ethanol 6% and (J) control (DDW) [Courtesy of Kaur & Mukherjee, 2013].

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a germicidal agent contributed to improved vase life in rose (Cortes *et al.*, 2011). Calcium acting as a second messenger in the signalling pathway leading to the induction of SOD, CAT and APX, thereby, increasing the capacity of these antioxidant enzymes to scavenge more free radicals produced in the course of senescence, leading to decrease in lipid peroxidation and increasing membrane stability, being a component of cell membranes and wall, it may also strengthen both the structures and thus delays membrane deterioration and senescence in gladiolus (Sairam *et al.*, 2011).

Aluminium as AlCl<sub>3</sub> and Al<sub>2</sub>(SO<sub>4</sub>)<sub>3</sub> in the holding solution has been shown to enhance the quality and longevity of cut flowers such as roses, chrysanthemum and tuberose due to effect of Al<sup>3+</sup> to reduce pH of petal cells and stabilizing the anthocyanins (Gowda & Gowda, 1990). Aluminium sulphate is reported to acidify the holding solution, keep it free of microorganisms and also help in better opening of flower buds, thereby maintaining the freshness of cut roses (Liao et al., 2001; Singh et al., 2004). Ichimura et al. (2006) developed and tested a formulation composed of sugar, germicides and aluminium sulphate that is effective in extending the vase life of cut rose flowers.

Treatment with silver has widely used as preservative measures for cut flowers (Whitehead & De Swart, 1980). Silver is a specific inhibitor of ethylene action and has been found to inhibit ethylene induced ethylene production and respiration (Halevy & Mayak, 1981; Rodriguez et al., 1999; Binder et al., 2007; Strader et al., 2009). Silver thiosulphate (STS) has been used as an efficient ethylene antagonist and has been shown to increase longevity in tuberose (Abbasi & Asil, 2011). The holding solution containing nano silver and sucrose resulted in the longest vase life, best water content of the leaves and flower buds and highest fresh weight gain in roses (Hesham & Kader, 2012). Silicon and nickel also increased postharvest life by decreasing malondialdehyde conent and ACC oxidase activity in cut rose flowers (Kazemi et al., 2012). Maintenance of elevated carbohydrate contents and reduced level of hydrolyzing enzymes exhibited by the flowers under mineral salts and sucrose treatments can be correlated with the delay in senescence and increase in postharvest vase life of Gerbera flowers (Wani et al., 2012). It has been proved to some extent that mineral salts of most of metals are found to be beneficial for enhancing longevity of cut flowers but the mechanism how they delay senescence is not known. Molecular approach may prove to be beneficial to understand this mechanism. Some metal salts like silver salts are highly toxic therefore, keeping public concern over health and environmental issues in mind, use of these should be avoided and nontoxic, freely available, cheaper and safe to use materials should be taken into consideration.

#### Metabolic Inhibitors

Ethylene is one of the factors involved in causing senescence and short vase life of

many cut flowers (Ichimura et al., 2002) especially in ethylene sensitive flowers. Molecules block ethylene receptors such as cyclopropene (CP), 1-methylcyclopropene (1-MCP) and 3,3-dimethylcyclopropene (3, 3-DMCP) and that block ethylene biosynthesis  $\alpha$ -(2-aminooxyvinyl Glycine) (AVG) and aminooxyacetic acid (AOA) have been used to prolong the vase life of ethylenesensitive flowers (Rattanawisalanona et al., 2003; Sisler & Serek, 1997; Cook et al., 1985; Fujino et al., 1981). A volatile compound, 1-methylcyclopropene (1-MCP), is an inhibitor of ethylene action and appears to be non-toxic. It has been reported that the vase life of various cut flowers such as carnation, Matthiola, Consolida, Chrysanthemum, Anthirrinum and Delphinium, can be extended by exposure to 1-MCP. Treatment with 1-MCP markedly extended the vase life of cut sweet pea as did that with STS (Ichimura et al., 2002). The effect of 1-MCP has been reported to prolong the postharvest life of flowers of Geranium and Gentiana (Jones et al., 2001; Ferrante et al., 2006; Shimizu-Yumoto & Ichimura, 2012). Treatment with 60 nL L<sup>-1</sup> 1-MCP for 3 h with 16.47 days vase life, 2.57 mL g<sup>-1</sup> fresh weight, 2.41 mL g<sup>-1</sup> water uptake and 2.667 loss of chlorophyll index was better than other treatments (Abadi et al., 2009). 1-MCP and STS extended the vase life of roses (Chamoni et al., 2005) and florets and spikes of cut Freesia 'Cordula' (Zencirkiran, 2010). 1-MCP had a strong effect of preventing the abscission of floral buds and open flowers in mini Phalaenopsis cultivars (Sun et al., 2009). Treatment with

2-aminoethoxyvinylglycine (AVG), an inhibitor of ACC synthase, slightly delayed flower senescence in *Hibiscus syriacus* L. and *Gentiana scabra* (Seo *et al.*, 2009; Shimizu-Yumoto & Ichimura, 2012).

Cycloheximide (CHI) is an inhibitor of de novo protein synthesis in plant tissue (Ap Rees and Bryant, 1971). It is a translational inhibitor that increased vase life of daylily (Hemerocallis) by inhibiting petal wilting (Lay-Yee et al., 1992). CHI delays loss of proteins in Ipomoea by inhibiting synthesis of some specific proteases responsible for protein degradation (Sultan et al., 2002). Pretreatment of Ranunculus asiaticus flowers with 0.05 mM CHI for 1h can be used as an effective treatment to improve postharvest longevity in this flower system (Shahri & Tahir, 2010). Aminooxyacetic acid (AOA), and fluridone, an ethylene and an ABA inhibitor, respectively, extended flower longevity (Trivellini et al., 2011).

Polyamines (PA's) have been reported as effective anti-senescence agents that have ability to retard chlorophyll loss, membrane deterioration and increase in RNase and protease activities which help to slow the senescence process (Evans & Malmberg, 1989). The major polyamines comprise putrescine, spermidine and spermine, which either occurs naturally or as free bases or bound to phenolics or other low molecular weight compounds (Galston & Kaur-Sawhney, 1990). Exogenous application of spermidine has been found to transiently delay senescence of Dianthus caryophyllus and Petunia hybrida flowers which has been implicated to be due to the ability of free

spermidine to bind to the main intracellular constitutive molecules such as DNA and stabilizing their structures (Gul et al., 2005; Tassoni et al., 2006). On the other way, methyl-jasmonates have been found to accelerate senescence in Petunia hybrida, Dendrobium and Phalaenopsis (Porat et al., 1993, 1995), but in Petunia inflata, only an earlier colour change has been reported without any promotion of petal wilting after treatment with methyl-jasmonate (Xu et al., 2006). Genes encoding enzymes of the jasmonate biosynthetic pathway have been shown to be specifically expressed in floral organs (ovaries, petals and sepals) and involved in reproductive processes include maturation of anthers and release of mature pollen grains (Avanci et al., 2010). The known fact that pollination triggers senescence in various flower systems and these jasmonates promote pollen maturation and release which might prove to be a mechanism for role of jasmonates in flower senescence. The role of jasmonates in the senescence of ethylene-sensitive flower systems is not clear as yet. However, more elaborate work is needed to confirm it. It is well proven that almost all metabolic inhibitors delay senescence by blocking the pathway causing senescence. Among them, some of the inhibitors like 1-MCP and AOA are very expensive that these cannot be used by floricultural industries frequently. As both are non-toxic and very expensive, they have therefore limited applications in the developing countries. Lime and potassium permanganate, which are low-cost materials, can be used to remove carbon dioxide

and ethylene, respectively in packages. These absorbers can be incorporated in sachets, labels or closure liners, or can be impregnated into the MAP film.

# CONCLUSION AND FUTURE RESEARCH

Floriculture has become one of the important high value agricultural industries in many countries. However, one major obstacle for floricultural industries is an early senescence of flowers. Physiological, biochemical and morphological studies provide guidance to understand the mechanism involved during abrupt changes that occur during natural flower senescence and how it can be overwhelmed. Role of reactive oxygen species and the expression of various enzymes affecting postharvest life of cut flowers must also be well understood to control senescence of cut flowers. Adoption of inexpensive and eco-friendly products as better innovative preservation proved better in long lasting quality and decelerating all senescence promoting events with reference to the flower senescence. Biotechnological tools also contributed to raise superior postharvest traits in case of many varieties of flowers. More research work in this field is needed to make flower senescence phenomenon clear with vast scope of floriculture and use of intensive techniques to maintain them for longer period. The present review has a number of important points that are missing in research from initial to end point: (1) In ultrastructural changes, the role of the tonoplast in cell death, and the cause of its rupture, is one of the challenges

for further research on petal senescence. More detailed studies are needed at cellular or tissue level regarding this aspect; (2) Mechanism of transport and sequestration of pigments like are anthocyanins, carotenoids, and betalains inside the vacuole. Genetic studies may prove to be best tool in producing mutant variety ineffective to environment conditions; (3) Main site of phospholipid degradation and to what extent this phospholipid degradation takes place inside the vacuoles and autophagosomes and to what extent inside the membrane still has become a controversy; (4) Genes involved in degradation of macromolecule and organelle has been identified in screens but comparatively little is known about the genes whose product facilitates nutrient remobilization by degrading all these structures; (5) Less conclusive data are available on the actual role of oxidative stress and role of reactive oxygen species and how the protective enzymatic systems with their corresponding isoenzymes play its role in relation to progression of flower senescence in plants as all the enzymes act collectively; (6) Regarding the pattern of senescence in ethylene insensitive flowers, the data so far accumulated is scanty and more elaborate work is required to understand the ethylene independent pathway and its execution. (7) Use of various preservatives like sugars, biocides, mineral ions, growth hormones and metabolic inhibitors has advantages but related to public concern over health and environmental issues; they are harmful to some extent. Therefore, novel technology by manipulating role of phytohormones at molecular level may solve this problem.

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