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# In vitro Pseudomonas putida BTP1-induced systemic resistance in grapevine rootstocks against Phylloxera (Daktulosphaira vitifoliae)

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Key words: B41, grapevine phylloxera, ISR, PGPR, Pseudomonas putida BTP1, Ru140.

Abstract: This study investigates the systemic resistance induced by *Pseudomonas putida* strain BTP1 against phylloxera using an *in vitro* model in Ruggeri (Ru140) and B41 roostocks. Significant differences were found with regard to matured females, fecundity and oviposition period between untreated and bacteria-treated plants in both rootstocks. Treated Ru140 rootstocks were more resistant than treated B41 ones. BTP1 impacted negatively on the ability of phylloxera to develop, indicating an increase in grapevine resistance and tolerance toward this pest in bacteria-treated plants. This is the first known study of biocontrol of phylloxera in grapevine rootstocks by non-pathogenic *P. putida* strain BTP1 *in vitro*.

### 1. Introduction

Grapevine phylloxera (Daktulosphaira vitifoliae) is a tiny aphid-like insect that feeds on grapevine (Vitis vinifera L.) roots and leaves, leading to stunted growth or death. It is considered the most destructive grapevine pest (Vidart et al., 2013). In Syria, there are more than 70,000 ha of grapevine with an estimated 540,000 ton annual production (Statistics of Syrian Agriculture Ministry, 2011). However, phylloxera causes millions of dollars in losses in grapevine production annually. Grapevine phylloxera forms damaging root galls which are metabolically active organs suited to meet the nutritional requirements of phylloxera and support its generation with high reproductive rates, making this pest capable of destroying the root system of *V. vinifera* vines. Root injuries reduce the vines' ability to absorb nutrients and water, causing a decline in vigor and productivity. As a consequence, weakened plants probably become more susceptible to secondary infections by fungal diseases and other insects and are also vulnerable to environmental stresses (Granett et al., 2001).

The use of resistant rootstocks is considered the most common and effective means to control phylloxera in the field. The vast majority of these rootstocks have been durably resistant for a long period. In Syria, the widely used resistant rootstocks are Ru140 (*V. rupestris* x *V. Berlandieri*), R99 (*V. rupestris* x *V. Berlandieri*), and 3309C (*V. riparia Michaux* x *V. rupestris*) and B41 (*V. vinifera* x *V. Berlandieri*) (Makee *et al.*, 2003). It is important to

(1) Corresponding author: ascientific@aec.org.sv Received for publication 16 September 2013 Accepted for publication 10 December 2013 note that some rootstocks are more resistant than others to grapevine phylloxera. However, for yet unknown reasons, some rootstocks may lose their resistance to phylloxera. For example, AXR#1 (*Vitis vinifera X V. rupestris* Scheele hybrid) has failed to resist phylloxera in several parts of the world after many years of use (Granett *et al.*, 1983). Likewise, rootstock B41 has remained resistant in France while it is not resistant in Californian vineyards, therefore farmers have to replant their vineyards with the appropriate resistant rootstocks (Song and Granett, 1990; De Benedictis and Granett, 1993).

Plants have active defense mechanisms against pathogen attacks. A group of microorganisms referred to as plant growth-promoting rhizobacteria (PGPR) are able to reduce disease through the induction of systemic resistance (ISR) that renders the host plant more resistant to further pathogen ingress (Pieterse et al., 2002). This phenomenon can occur in many plant species and was demonstrated to be effective against a broad spectrum of fungal, bacterial and viral diseases beside its effect on insect and nematode pests (Van Loon et al., 1998; Ramamoorthy et al., 2001; Durrant and Dong, 2004; Verhagen et al., 2010; Weller et al., 2012). In addition to eliciting ISR against pathogens, protective effects of PGPR against insects have been noted (Zehnder et al., 1997 a, b; Zehnder et al., 2001; Kloepper et al., 2004; Vijayasamundeeswari et al., 2009; Valenzuela-Soto et al., 2010). However, to our knowledge no studies have been carried out to assess in vitro the effects of PGPR on grapevine phylloxera. In this context, a non-pathogenic Pseudomonas putida BTP1 strain has shown enhancement of the level of resistance in cucumber, bean and tomato against the fungal pathogens Pythium aphanidermatum and Botrytis cinerea, respectively (Ongena et al., 1999; Ongena et al., 2004; Adam et al., 2008). In a previous study performed on fresh roots from local grape variety Helwani (*V. vinifera*), we demonstrated the influence of *P. putida* BTP1 on reproduction and development of grapevine phylloxera (Adam et al., 2012).

Implementation of *in vitro* dual culture assay has been used to evaluate the phylloxera/grapevine interaction (Forneck *et al.*, 1996; Makee *et al.*, 2003; Vidart *et al.*, 2013). This method has several advantages for our designed experiments such as providing optimal conditions for phylloxera infestation, conducting experiments in small space, preventing the spreading of phylloxera and rhizobacteria, as well as reliable results in a relatively short period.

The present work aims to demonstrate the ISR-related protective effect triggered by *P. putida* BTP1 *in vitro* in Ru140 and B41 rootstocks against grapevine phylloxera. The percentage of mature females, fecundity and oviposition period of phylloxera were determined.

### 2. Materials and Methods

Establishment of the phylloxera colony

Grapevine phylloxera was originally collected from field-infested roots of the local grapevine varieties in southern parts of Syria. The phylloxera colony was established following similar procedures to those mentioned by Makee et al. (2003). Fresh and healthy pieces of roots (4-7 mm in diameter and 5-7 cm long) of local grapevine cultivar Helwani (V. vinifera) were taken and washed with tap water. Each piece was wrapped with moist cotton wool around one end, and then 10 to 15 phylloxera eggs were placed on each piece. The infested root pieces were then placed on a wet filter paper disk inside a plastic Petri dish (12 cm diameter). Each dish had three to four root pieces. For ventilation purposes the Petri dish lid was modified with a 1-1.5 cm cloth-screened hole. The edges of the dishes were sealed with parafilm and they were kept in plastic boxes with tightly fitting lids and incubated at 25±1°C, 70±5% RH and 24 h darkness. The root pieces were replaced when they desiccated, rotted or the phylloxera became crowded.

### Microbial strain and inoculum preparation

*P. putida* strain BTP1, isolated from barley roots, was originally selected for its specific features regarding pyoverdine-mediated iron transport (Jacques *et al.*, 1995; Ongena *et al.*, 2002). It was maintained and prepared for use in the ISR assays as previously described by Ongena *et al.* (2002). For the bioassays, BTP1 strain was grown in Erlenmeyer flasks (250 ml) containing 100 ml of Casamino Acids medium (CAA) for 24 h on a rotary shaker (150 r.p.m.) at 28°C. Cells were removed by centrifugation at 16500 g for 15 min at 4°C and washed in sterile NaCl (5 g l<sup>-1</sup>). The final pellet was resuspended in an adequate volume of sterile distilled water to obtain a bacterial suspension at 10<sup>8</sup> CFU ml<sup>-1</sup>.

In vitro culture of grapevine plants

For *in vitro* culture of grapevine plants, we used a protocol described by Makee et al. (2010). Wood cuttings having four to five nodes of Ru140 and B41 rootstocks were collected from the field while the buds were still dormant. All cuttings were washed in water, and then treated with gentamicine sulphate 160 mg l<sup>-1</sup>. Thereafter, they were incubated in 0.5 g l<sup>-1</sup> carbamate fungicide [Methyl-1-(butylcarbamoyl)-2-benzimidazole-Carbamate 50%] (Bell®) for 24 h, and then grown in sterilized water at 25±1°C under 16 h photoperiod (140-150 µmol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>) from daylight fluorescent tubes (Philips TLD 38/54). Shoots were grown in glass jars (1000 ml) when they became about 8 cm long; buds of 4 mm length were taken from the middle of each stem. These buds were dipped in a solution of 70% ethanol for 3 min, 1.5% commercial bleach for 15 min followed by 0.7% commercial bleach for 5 min (Charbaji and Nabulsi, 1999). After sterilization, they were washed three times with sterile water and planted in tubes containing 20 ml DSD1 medium (Da Silva and Doazan, 1995). The DSD1 media contains 100 mg l<sup>-1</sup> NH<sub>4</sub> NO<sub>2</sub>, 1000 mg l<sup>-1</sup> KNO<sub>2</sub>, 180 mg l<sup>-1</sup> MgSO<sub>4</sub>. 7H<sub>2</sub>O, 100 mg l<sup>-1</sup> KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>, 500 mg l<sup>-1</sup> Ca (NH<sub>2</sub>)4H<sub>2</sub>O, 27.5 mg l-1 MnSO<sub>4</sub>.7H2O, 37.5 mg l-1 Na<sub>2</sub> EDTA, 0.025 mg l-1 CuSO<sub>4</sub> 5H<sub>2</sub>O, 0.025 mg l<sup>-1</sup> CaCl<sub>2</sub>.6H<sub>2</sub>O, 1 mg l<sup>-1</sup> H<sub>3</sub>BO<sub>3</sub>, 1 mg l-1 ZnSO<sub>4</sub> 7H<sub>2</sub>O, 27.5 mg l-1 Fe SO<sub>4</sub> 7H2O, 10 mg l-1 Myoinositol, 1 mg 1-1 Acid Nicotinic, 1 mg 1-1 Thiamine, and 1 mg l<sup>-1</sup> Pyrodoxine. The pH of the medium was adjusted to 6.4 before adding agar and it was then autoclaved at 116°C for 25 min. The tubes were closed using cellophane paper and the edge of the tubes was sealed with parafilm to avoid contamination. All tubes were then incubated as described above.

### Experimental design

Six-week-old grapevine plants were used to induced resistance; plantlets with two or three roots were selected. Due to the lack of phylloxera to infest the roots in the medium and to avoid the interaction between phylloxera and BTP,, one root of each plants was pulled out of the medium but kept within the tube while the other root remained in the medium. The second root was treated with 1 ml of bacterial suspension (108 CFU ml<sup>-1</sup>) of *P. putida* BTP1 on the root surface and inside the medium, or by distilled water for the control plantlets. The tubes were closed again as described above and incubated at 25°C under 16 h photoperiod. Seven days later, the second root was infested with sterile eggs of phylloxera according to Makee et al. (2003). Three-day-old eggs were taken from the colony and placed into 1.5 ml Eppendorf tubes for sterilization of the egg cuticle. One ml of formaldehyde (2.5%) was added to the eggs, gently shaken for 10 min, and left for 20 min. The sterilizing solution was then removed with a micro-pipette and the eggs were extracted and placed on sterile filter paper. The sterile eggs were gently transferred and spread on the non-inoculated roots of in vitro cultured plants by using a 10 ml sterile loop (Kendall, USA). For each rootstock, five treated and five untreated plantlets were infested with 25 surface-sterile phylloxera eggs. The tubes were resealed with parafilm to

prevent contamination and to avoid the escape of phylloxera crawlers, and were then incubated at 25±1°C under 16 hr photoperiod (140-150 µmol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>) from daylight fluorescent tubes (Philips TLD 38/54).

### Evaluation procedure

Stereo microscope inspection was carried out daily on treated and untreated plantlets maintained in closed tubes to observe distribution of the eggs. The number of eggs hatched, feeding nymphs and adults were recorded to determine the mean developmental time (egg to egg) for each tested plant. Five random of root-feeding phylloxera females in each tube were inspected to determine the mean of oviposition period and the mean of fecundity (total number of eggs) of phylloxera. Thus, 25 females were examined on each plantlet. All eggs laid by each female were observed daily and counted till the female's death. Egg distribution during oviposition period (number of eggs per day), fecundity (total number of eggs) and female longevity were determined.

### Statistical analysis

All statistical analyses were performed using GraphPad Prism 5 program at 5% level (P= 0.05). Data were subjected to analysis of variance (ANOVA) for the determination of differences in means between tested plants of each treatment. Differences between means were tested for significance using Tukey HSD test.

### 3. Results

Effect of P. putida BTP1 on grapevine resistance against phylloxera

### Percentage of matured females

The result showed significant difference in phylloxera egg numbers that were able to hatch and develop to reach adult stage (matured females) on both rootstocks Ru140 and B41 (F= 79.6; df=3, 16; P<0.001) (Fig. 1). *P. putida* BTP1-treated plants emerged significantly percentage decreased of matured females in both rootstocks comparing to control plants. However, there was no significant difference in the percentage of emerged matured females between treated plants of B41 rootstock and plants of rootstock Ru140 no treated (Fig. 1). The percentage of matured females of phylloxera on treated B41 was significantly greater (33%) than that on treated Ru140 (16%) (Fig. 1).

### **Fecundity**

There was a significant difference in the mean of fecundity between Ru140 and B41 rootstocks (F= 140.8; df=3.96; P<0.001) (Fig. 2), with it resulting greater (19.4 eggs) in Ru140 than in B41 (13.7 eggs). When plants were treated with BTP1, the mean number of eggs laid significantly decreased in both rootstocks, pointing to a significant decrease in the mean of fecundity of phylloxera in both rootstocks. However the decrease in this parameter

was greater in treated Ru140 (5.4 eggs) than treated B41 rootstocks (9.9 eggs) (Fig. 2).

### Oviposition period

A significant difference was observed in the mean oviposition period of phylloxera between Ru140 and

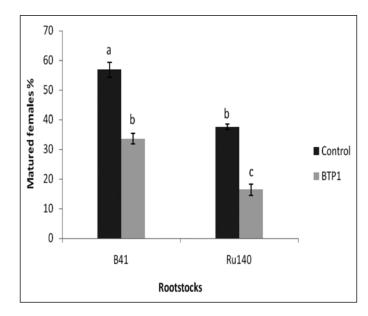


Fig. 1 - Effect of *P. putida* BTP1 on percentage of matured females of phylloxera *in vitro* in B41 and Ru140 rootstocks in comparison with control plants. Each column represents data from 25 samples. Data were subjected to ANOVA analysis and the differences between means were tested for significance using Tukey HSD test (values with different letters are significantly different at P<0.001).

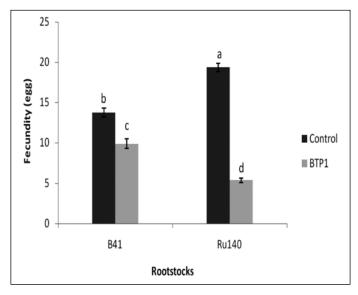


Fig. 2 - Effect of *P. putida* BTP1 on fecundity of phylloxera *in vitro* in B41 and Ru140 rootstocks in comparison with control plants. Each column represent data from 25 samples. Data were subjected to ANOVA analysis and the differences between means were tested for significance using Tukey HSD test (values with different letters are significantly different at P<0.001).

B41 rootstocks (F= 38; df=3.96; P<0.001) (Fig. 3). The oviposition period was 7 and 6 days in Ru140 and B41, respectively. However, when plants were treated with *P. putida* BTP1, the oviposition period decreased in a significant way only in Ru140. No significant differences were observed in the mean oviposition period between treated and untreated B41 plants (Fig. 3). The mean oviposition period of phylloxera on treated B41 was significant: lasting one day longer than treated Ru140 (6 and 5 days respectively) (Fig. 3).

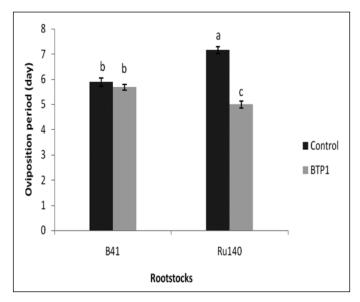


Fig. 3 - Effect of *P. putida* BTP1 on oviposition period of phylloxera *in vitro* in B41 and Ru140 rootstocks in comparison with control plants. Each column represent data from 25 samples. Data were subjected to ANOVA analysis and the differences between means were tested for significance using Tukey HSD test (values with different letters are significantly different at P<0.001).

### 4. Discussion and Conclusions

A recent study carried out on healthy pieces of roots of local grapevine cultivar Helwani showed the influence of non-pathogenic P. putida BTP1 on reproduction and development of grapevine phylloxera (Adam et al., 2012). However, in the present work, the aim was to investigate the ability of this bacteria to induce systemic resistance in two grapevine rootstocks against phylloxera by using *in vitro* cultured plants. For our module this approach provided a strict separation condition between the inducer (bacteria) and the pathogen or pest (phylloxera) to induce systemic resistance (Ongena et al., 2002; Bakker et al., 2007). In agreement with a previous study (Ongena et al., 2002), the bacteria did not migrate through the plants, suggesting the observed decrease in the life cycle of phylloxera was due to induction of systemic resistance in the host plant.

The present study confirmed that *P. putida* BTP1 had a protective effect on Ru140 and B41 rootstocks against phylloxera. The means of fecundity and oviposition period and emerged mature female percentage decreased significantly

in both BTP1-treated rootstocks in comparison with control plants. These results are consistent with similar previous studies that demonstrated the ability of some strains of PGPR to induce systemic resistance in tomato against whitefly, where the percentage of matured females decreased in treated plants (Hanafi *et al.*, 2007; Valenzuela-Soto *et al.*, 2010). In addition, similar results were reported when cucumber beetles and American bollworm fed on PGPR-treated cucumber plants and cotton bolls, respectively (Zehnder *et al.*, 1997) (a, b; Vijayasamundeeswari *et al.*, 2009). Other studies also indicated that changes in the feeding behavior of Leaffolder and decreases in the weight of larvae and pupae were observed in rice plants treated with rhizobacteria (Radjacommare, 2002).

On the other hand, our results showed that there was a significant difference in reproduction and development of grapevine phylloxera between BTP1-treated B41 and Ru140 rootstocks. In comparison, the percentage of matured females and the means of fecundity and oviposition period decreased significantly by up to 50%, 45% and 12% respectively in treated Ru140 rootstock versus treated B41 rootstock (Figs. 1, 2 and 3). This is consistent with results of previous studies indicating the presence of a type of gradient from the resistant plant to sensitive plant (Granett et al., 1983; Makee et al., 2010). These results show that phylloxera laid a large number of eggs on sensitive varieties, more than on resistant varieties. It is believed that poor nutrition or the inability to colonize good locations for feeding could directly affect the number of eggs and ultimately the ratio of hatching. Thus, the resistance of grapevine to phylloxera could be a reflection of the strong relationship between poor nutrition and a decline in the productivity of the insect (Granett et al., 1983). In addition, the mechanism of defense in these rootstocks may be due to toxic effects against phylloxera, such as the accumulation of some phenolic compounds in the cells of resistant plants leading to an increase in the death rate (Omer et al., 1999). Other workers illustrated that there is a positive relationship between resistance/susceptibility characteristics against aphids and flavonoid glycoside content (Quercetin and Isorhamentin) of cowpea lines as these compounds possess a good inhibitory rate for aphid reproduction (Lattanzio et al., 2000). Therefore, the resistance of Ru140 and B41 rootstocks to phylloxera may be attributed to an ability to produce such toxic phenolic compounds.

In conclusion, understanding the mechanisms of defense induced by some strains of PGPR in plants is very important to develop systemic resistance in plants. The current study provides evidence that *P. putida* strain BTP1 has the ability to stimulate a systemic resistance in grape-vine rootstocks against phylloxera. We suggest that *P. putida* BTP1 treatment leads to an alteration in the plant's metabolic pathway eliciting the induction of plant defense compounds. These substances would have a negative influence on phylloxera feeding and development in treated plants. However, more research in the field must be done before implementing this technique on a large scale.

To our knowledge, this work is the first study interested in biocontrol of phylloxera in grapevine by PGPR strains *in vitro*. Furthermore, this investigation supplies important information about the possibility of implementing this strain to stimulate systemic resistance against plant pests. Moreover, this study illustrates the effectiveness of using *in vitro* dual culture in evaluating the phylloxera/grapevine and grapevine/rhizobacteria interactions. In fact, this testing system could be considered a very promising tool to: I) examine the phylloxera resistance of newly developed rootstocks; II) prevent the spread of phylloxera; III) study phylloxera genetic variation, biology and control method; and IV) study the mechanisms of defense induced in plants by rhizobacteria against pests.

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### Application of anatase nanoparticles (TiO<sub>2</sub>) on strawberry seed germination (*Fragaria ananassa* L.)

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Key words: Anatase, germination, nano, strawberry, TiO<sub>2</sub>.

Abstract: Priming enhances germination, establishment and yields in a range of crops in many diverse environments. This experiment evaluated the effects of soaking strawberry seeds in different concentrations (0, 3.5, 5.5, 7.5 and 9.5 percentage) of nano anatase on germination parameters (germination percentage, germination rate index, radicle and plumule length, fresh weight of seedlings and vigor index) using a factorial design with eight replications. Results showed that an increase in the concentration of nano anatase led to significant differences in the percentage of germination, germination rate index, root and shoot length, fresh weight and vigor index of seedlings. The best nano anatase concentration was found to be 7.5%.

### 1. Introduction

Strawberry (*Fragaria x ananassa* Duch.), a small fruit crop and a hybrid of two highly variable octoploid species, has adapted to extremely different environmental conditions (Rieger, 2005). Prerequisites for successful strawberry growing are suitable climate, cultivars, soil and nutrition (Almaliotis *et al.*, 2002). Seed priming enhances seed performance by rapid and uniform germination in normal and vigorous seedlings, leading to faster and better germination in different crops (Cantliffe, 2003). Priming is responsible for the repair of age-related cellular and sub cellular damage of low vigour seeds that may accumulate during seed development. Priming of seed promotes germination by repairing the damaged proteins, RNA and DNA (Koehler *et al.*, 1997).

Several treatments have been used with the aim of improving strawberry achene (seed) germination: humidity (Guttridge and Bright, 1978); exposure to red light (Iyer *et al.*, 1975); and osmotic pre-treatment (Hanke, 1993).

With the rapid growth of nanotechnology, there are increasing concerns about the potential adverse impact of engineered nanoparticles (ENPs) in the environment. However, our understanding of how ENPs may affect organisms within natural ecosystems lags far behind our rapidly increasing ability to engineer novel nanomaterials (Bernhardt *et al.*, 2010). On the other hand, Lin and Xing (2007) studied the positive effects of suspensions of nanoparticles on seed germination and root growth

of six different crop species [radish (*Raphanus sativus*), rape (*Brassica napus*), rye grass (*Lolium perenne*), lettuce (*Lactuca sativa*), corn (*Zea mays*) and cucumber (*Cucumis sativus*)]. Also, the effects of nano-TiO<sub>2</sub> (rutile) and non-nano-TiO<sub>2</sub> on the germination and growth of naturally aged spinach seeds were studied and an increase of these factors was observed at 0.25-4‰ nano-TiO<sub>2</sub> treatment (Zheng *et al.*, 2005). Feizi *et al.* (2011) reported that nano-TiO<sub>2</sub> at suitable concentration could promote the seed germination of wheat in comparison to bulk TiO<sub>2</sub> while at high concentrations it had an inhibitory or no effect on the crop.

Limited studies have been done on the effects of nanoparticles on crops and thus, we decided to investigate the phytotoxicity or positive effects of different concentrations of nano-TiO<sub>2</sub> on seed germination and seedling growth of strawberry.

### 2. Materials and Methods

In order to evaluate the effect of nano priming on the quality of seedling production during germination in strawberry (*Fragaria ananassa* L.), this experiment was conducted in 2013 at Shahid Chamran University Ahvaz in Iran using a factorial design with eight replications. Seeds of strawberry (*Fragaria ananassa* cv. Queen Eliza) were from the Gene Bank of Iran, at Seed and Plant Improvement Institute, Tehran (Karaj). The factors studied included different concentrations of TiO<sub>2</sub> (Control, 3.5, 5.5, 7.5 and 9.55%) and time (24 and 48 h). In order to prepare nano anatase solutions a stock solution with the highest

concentration (9.5%) was fixed and then with dilution of this stock solution, various concentrations of nano anatase were obtained. Strawberry seeds were sterilized using sodium hypochlorite solution (1%) for 10 min, then washed several times with distilled water, and soaked in nano-TiO<sub>2</sub> solutions at different concentrations. Seeds were placed in disinfected Petri dishes, each dish contained 100 seeds. All of the Petri dishes were irrigated using distilled water. Seeds were allowed to germinate at 25±3°C for 14 days. Every day the number of seeds with visible radicle were counted and recorded as sprouted seeds; the length of seedling shoot and root were also measured.

Germination rate [Eq. (1)] and germination percentage [Eq. (2)] were calculated using the following formula (Hosseini *et al.*, 2013):

$$GR = \frac{\sum n}{\sum dn}$$
 (1)

Where GR is the germination rate,  $\Sigma n$  is the number of seeds germinated on the day, and  $\Sigma dn$  is the number of days from the start of experiment.

$$GP = \frac{\sum n}{N} \times 100 \tag{2}$$

Where GP is the germination percent,  $\Sigma n$  is the number of seeds germinated until the last day of experiments, and N is the total number of seeds.

Seed vigor indices [Eq. (3)] were calculated according to the following formula (Hosseini *et al.*, 2013):

$$VI = (RL + PL) \times GP \tag{3}$$

Where VI is the Seed Vigor Index, RLis radicle length, PL is the plume length, and GP the germination percentage.

Statistical analysis

The data were analyzed using SAS 9.1 software. The significant levels of difference for all measured traits were calculated, and the means were compared by the multiplerange Duncan test at 1% level.

### 3. Results and Discussion

Analysis of variance showed that treatment of nano anatase led to significant differences in germination percentage, germination rate, root and shoot length, allometric index and vigor index of the seedlings. Time treatment was not significant for root, shoot, seedling length and seedling allometric coefficient. Interaction of anatase nanoparticles and time treatment was not significant for root and shoot length and seedling allometric coefficient (Table 1-3).

The interaction of anatase nanoparticles and time showed the lowest percentage of germination in the treat-

Table 1 Analysis of variance of strawberry seed germination indices affected by nano anatase

Sources of variation	df	Percentage of germination	Germination rate	Shoot length	Root length	Seedling length	Allometric	VI
Nano-TiO <sub>2</sub>	4	2260.6 *	0.184 *	11.077 *	15.366 *	0.525 *	3.33 *	103028.5 *
Time	1	136.9 *	1.089 *	0.196 ns	0.016 ns	0.0022  ns	0.049 ns	5712.1 *
Nano*time	4	76.9 *	0.078 *	0.179 ns	0.0053  ns	0.001  ns	0.087  ns	3868.1 *
Error	30	13.7	0.180	0.148	0.145	0.004	0.069	578.23

<sup>\*=</sup> significant at 1% level.

NS= non-significant.

Table 2 - Effect of nano anatase on seed germination of strawberry after 24 hours

Concentration	Germination (%)	Germination rate	Shoot length (cm)	Root length (cm)	Fresh weight (g)
0 %	10.97 e	0.60 d	1.78 e	2.0 d	0.012 d
3.5 %	40.10 d	0.60 c	8.50 d	4.5 c	0.021 c
5.5 %	68.80 ab	0.67 b	9.10 c	4.4 c	0.029 b
7.5 %	92.46 a	1.20 a	12.24 a	6.0 a	0.034 a
9.5 %	74.64 b	1.00 ab	10.00 b	4.8 b	0.030 b

Means with different letters at each column are statistically different at 1% level.

Table 3 - Effect of nano anatase on seed germination of strawberry after 48 hours

Concentration	Germination (%)	Germination rate	Shoot length (cm)	Root length (cm)	Fresh weight (g)
0 %	0 e	0 e	0 e	0 d	0 d
3.5 %	23.2 d	0.17 d	3.5 d	2.5 c	0.011 c
5.5 %	40.6 b	0.26 b	5.3 c	2.9 c	0.017 b
7.5 %	87.6 a	0.56 a	10.3 a	5 a	0.030 a
9.5 %	46.3 bc	0.35ab	7.1 b	3.3 b	0.025 b

Means with different letters at each column are statistically different at 1% level.

ment without nanoparticles and the highest at a concentration of 7.5% of nanoparticles for 48 h (Fig. 1).

Zheng et al. (2007) reported that the significant effect of nano-sized TiO<sub>2</sub> on germination is probably due to the small particle size which allows penetration into the seed during the treatment period, exerting its enhancing functions during growth.

Results showed that the lowest germination rate resulted from treatment without nanoparticles while the highest rates were obtained at a concentration of 7.5% of nanoparticles in 24 and 48 h. The key to increase seed geermination is the penetration of nanomaterial into the seed (Hashemi and Mousavi, 2013) (Fig. 2).

Khodakovskaya *et al.* (2009) mentioned that the carbon nanotubes can effectively penetrate through the seed coat, thus influencing seed germination. Exposure of tomato seeds to carbon nanotubes (CNTs) resulted in enhanced seed germination and growth rate.

Among the different nanoparticle  ${\rm TiO}_2$  concentrations, 7.5% for both times tested (24 and 48 h) showed the maximum seedling vigor index while the control showed the lowest (Fig. 3).

Effects positive of nano anatase are reported that nano-TiO<sub>2</sub> (anatase) improved plant growth by enhanced nitrogen metabolism (Yang, 2006) that promotes the absorption of nitrate in spinach and, accelerating conversion of inorganic nitrogen into organic nitrogen, thereby increasing the fresh weights and dry weights. Studies also showed the effects of nitrogen photoreduction on the improved growth of treated spinach plant (Yang, 2007). Effects of nano-TiO<sub>2</sub> (anatase) on the content of light harvesting complex II (LHC II) on thylakoid membranes of spinach was studied and it showed an increase in LHC II content (Mingyu, 2007 a). These promote energy transfer and oxygen evolution in photosystem II (PS II) of spinach (Hong, 2005).

It has also been found that nano anatase TiO<sub>2</sub> promoted antioxidant stress by decreasing the accumulation of superoxide radicals, hydrogen peroxide, malonyldialdehyde content and enhance the activities of superoxide dismutase, catalase, ascorbate peroxidase, guaiacol peroxidase and thereby increase the evolution oxygen rate in spinach chloroplasts under UVB radiation (Mingyu, 2007 b).

The results indicated that nano sized TiO<sub>2</sub> in an appropriate concentration could promote the seed germination and seedling growth of strawberry.

The results show that with increasing concentration of nano anatase to 7.5% increased germination parameters. The seedlings grown with nano anatase increased length when compare to the control seedlings. Effect of nano anatase on root, shoot and seedling strawberry may be due to early emergence induced by nano anatase treatment as compared to control seeds. Rapid embryo growth resulted when the obstacle to germination was removed.

Although the concentration of 9.5% caused lower germination parameters toward concentration of 7.5%, showed more desirable effects of the concentration of 5.5% nano anatase and control.

In all treatments, the better result was obtained in time of 48 hour.

In order to understand the possible benefits of applying nanomaterials in agriculture, it is important to analyze penetration and transport of nanoparticles in the plants.

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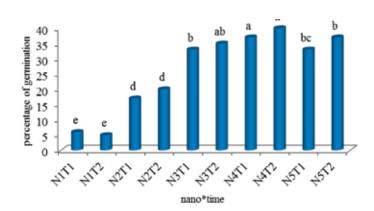


Fig. 1 - Effect of interaction nano anatase and time on germination percentage of strawberry seeds.

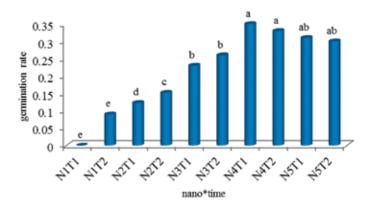


Fig. 2 - Effect of interaction nano anatase and time on germination rate of strawberry seeds.

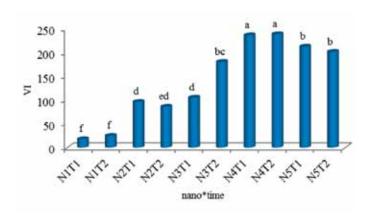


Fig. 3 - Effect of interaction nano anatase and time on vigor index of strawberry seeds.

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# Impact of integrated nutrient management on growth, yield and quality of strawberry (*Fragaria* x annanassa Duch.) cultivation in India

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Key words: inorganic fertilizers, integrated nutrient management, organic fertilizers, strawberry.

Abstract: Modern agricultural practices are mostly directed toward high application of commercial fertilizers to achieve high yield. It is widely recognized that application of fertilizer (especially nitrogen) can cause ground water pollution by nitrate leaching through the soil profile. A new approach to farming is often referred to as sustainable agriculture and it seeks to introduce friendlier agricultural practices to the environment and maintains the long term ecological balance of the soil ecosystem. Hence investigations were carried out to develop nutrient management for strawberry cultivar Sweet Charley subjected to various treatment combinations of organic and inorganic fertilizers. Traits such as plant growth characteristics (leaves/plant and plant spread), yield characteristics (flower buds, fruits per plant and fruit yield tons/ha) and quality characteristics (juice content, total sugar content, vitamin C and specific gravity) were observed. The runners of strawberry cv. Sweet Charley were planted in the first week of November with a spacing of 30 x 60 cm. The investigation was laid out in a randomized block design with five treatment combinations replicated thrice. The data regarding the different growth parameters observed at 30, 45, 60, 90, 105, 120, yield parameters at 45, 60, 90, 120, 135, 150 days after planting and their quality parameters clearly indicate that the application of integrated sources of nutrients significantly affect the vegetative, reproductive and yield characteristics of the strawberry plant. However the manure fertilizer combination under treatment  $T_4$  (75% Organic Fertilizers + 25% inorganic Fertilizers) was found to be the best treatment with regard to integrated and combined application of nutrient resources for strawberry cultivation in India.

### 1. Introduction

The Strawberry (*Fragaria X annanassa* Duch.), a member of the rose family, is not really a berry but a false fruit and consists of many tiny individual fruits embedded in a fleshy scarlet receptacle. The brownish or whitish specks, commonly considered seeds, are the true fruits known as achenes. Strawberries are an excellent source of vitamin C, a good source of folate and potassium, and are relatively low in calories. Strawberry is one of the most widely appreciated fruits and it has attained a premier position in the fresh fruit market and processing industries of the world (Sharma and Sharma, 2003). Initially grown in temperate zones of India, its cultivation has now become possible in the sub-tropical zones as well with the introduction of day neutral cultivars (Asrey and Singh, 2004). Strawberry offers quicker returns on

capital outlay than any other fruit crop since under special methods of cultivation a crop can be picked as early as the first summer after planting. The fruit is the first of the home-grown supplies to reach the market. Strawberry is one of the most important high value cash crops around the world. In India, it is cultivated commercially in Hamachal Pradesh, Utter Pradesh, Maharashtra, West Bengal, Nilgiri Hills, Delhi, Haryana, Punjab, Rajasthan and Jammu and Kashmir. Its cultivation can be extended successfully to other suitable areas of the world where irrigation and transportation facilities can be assured. Strawberry is an attractive, luscious, tasty and nutritious fruit with a distinct and pleasant aroma and flavor. It has a unique place among cultivated berry fruits in world. Rich in vitamin C and iron, the principal demand for cultivated strawberry is from the processing and baking industries around the world as suggested by Childs (1937) that the strawberry is a delectable fruit that is highly prized by almost everyone.

Among the various factors which contribute towards the growth, yield and quality of strawberry, nutrition is the most important and it has direct bearing on crop production (Umar et al., 2008). Integrated nutrient management includes the use of inorganic and organic sources of nutrients to ensure balanced nutrient proportions by enhancing nutrient response efficiency and maximizing crop productivity of desired quality. It also helps to minimize the existing gap between nutrient removal through continuous use of chemical fertilizers and supply through slow release of fertilizers. It is widely reported that the extensive use of chemical fertilizers adversely affects soil health and results in decreased crop productivity and quality (Macit et al., 2007). Even with the application of recommended doses, yield potential of strawberry cropping systems has reduced to a plateau because soil health has deteriorated drastically and especially its organic matter content has depleted significantly. As intensive agriculture is becoming more and more necessary to meet the needs of the population, the soil nutrient balance is becoming increasingly negative and thus requiring appropriate supplement through integrated nutrient management. The use of organic and inorganic nutrient sources not only helps to increase crop yields but also helps to storehouse nutrients for successive crops in addition to improving the physical condition of the soil. Bioorganic nutrition also improves the yield and quality of product. Organically produced fruit fetches higher prices compared to products grown using inorganic fertilization. The practical approach will be organic farming to the most responsive fruit crops and to encourage integrated nutrient supply for tapping the potential yield of crops. As reported by Hennion et al. (1999), "strawberry cultivation is highly nutrition responsive" and therefore the present experiment was undertaken to manage the growth, yield and quality of strawberry through an integrated approach.

### 2. Materials and Methods

The present investigation was carried out at experimental fields of the horticulture department SHIATS, Allahabad during spring season 2009-10. The experimental field is located at an elevation of 78 m above sea level and latitude 81.15° E and longitude 28.87° N. The soil of the experimental field was sandy loam in texture, poor in nitrogen (0.24%), comparatively richer in potassium (0.57%) and phosphorus (0.62%) and slightly acidic (pH=6.60) in nature.

The strawberry (cv. Sweet Charley) was procured from Wimco seedling Ltd, Baghwale Rudrapur (U.S.N) Uttar Pradesh, India. The experiment was comprised of the following five treatment combinations:

- 1. 100% recommended dose of inorganic fertilizers +0% recommended dose of manures (T<sub>1</sub>);
- 2. 5% recommended dose of inorganic fertilizers + 25% recommended dose of manures ( $T_2$ );

- 3. 50% recommended dose of inorganic fertilizers + 50% recommended dose of manures (T<sub>2</sub>);
- 4. 25% recommended dose of inorganic fertilizers +75% recommended dose of manures (T<sub>4</sub>);
- 5. 0% Recommended dose of inorganic fertilizers + 100% recommended dose of manures ( $T_s$ ).

The manures used in this experiment were farmyard manure and forest litter. The experiment was laid out in a Randomized Block Design with four replications. The observations recorded were on growth parameters (leaves/plant and plant spread), yield characteristics (flower buds, fruits per plant and fruit yield tons/ha) and quality characteristics (juice content, total sugar content, total soluble solids, vitamin C, pH and specific gravity).

### 3. Results and Discussion

All the treatments in the present investigation had significant impact for all observed traits. However, treatments differed significantly from one another at various time intervals (Tables 1 and 2; figures 1-8). The highest vegetative growth (15.25 mean leaves/plant and 21.50 cm mean plant spread) was recorded for treatment T<sub>4</sub>. Observations revealed that plant spread and leaves/plant coincided with peak flower buds/plant, which within one month produced the highest fruits/plant. Afterwards production declined drastically and fewer fruits/plant were produced towards the lag end of growth (i.e. mid April).

Overall, treatment T<sub>4</sub> which contained a greater amount of organic manures and less inorganic fertilizers was judged superior to the other treatments. This treatment showed 45.61% superiority over treatments  $T_5$  and  $T_1$ (control) in average leaves/plant and 61.53% superiority over T<sub>1</sub> in average plant spread/plant. Recently it was revealed that available NPK and micronutrients increased significantly with organic sources of nutrients either alone or in combination with inorganic fertilizers over inorganic fertilizers used alone, thus improving vegetative growth. Similar results were also reported by Klaas (2000), Funt and Blerman (2000), Prasad et al. (2002), Gajbhiye et al. (2003), Arancon et al. (2004) and Singh and Dwivedi (2011). Hence, taking these findings as reference, strawberry cv. Sweet Charley responded positively to the manure and fertilizer combination applied in treatment T<sub>4</sub>.

Eight pickings were carried out starting from 60 days after planting to 150 days after planting (i.e. from end of December to mid April). Treatment  $T_4$  produced 2.5 mean flower buds/plant more than  $T_1$  (control) whereas in the number of fruits/plant, treatment  $T_4$  produced 5.75 average number of fruits more than treatment  $T_1$  with greater length/diameter ratio of 1.43, compared to 1.25 for treatment  $T_1$ . Thus, treatment  $T_4$  showed 61.53%, 80.95% and 14.4% superiority over treatment  $T_1$  in average flower buds/plant, average number of fruits per plant and length/diameter ratio of fruits, respectively. Also fruit yield per plant was highest (482.6 g/plant=26.81 tons/ha) with treatment  $T_4$  and lowest with treatment  $T_5$  (351.5 g/plant=19.55

Table 1 - Impact of integrated nutrient management on growth and development of strawberry cv. Sweet Charley in India

Treatments	A	Averag	ge leaf	size/p	olant	I	Average plant spread (cm)		Av	Average flower buds per plant			Av	Average fruits per plant						
	D	ays af	ter tra	nspla	nting		Days a	fter trar	nsplanti	ng	Da	ys aft	er tran	splant	ing	Da	ays aft	er trans	splant	ing
	30	45	60	90	120	30	45	60	90	105	45	60	90	120	135	60	90	120	135	150
T <sub>1</sub>	3.25	3.50	4.25	6.75	10.75	9.25	11.25	11.75	14.75	14.25	1.0	2.00	2.25	3.25	3.25	1.25	3.00	3.75	4.5	5.25
$T_2$	3.75	4.25	4.50	7.25	11.25	9.5	11.25	12.00	15.25	15.00	0.75	2.00	2.50	4.00	4.0	1.00	3.50	4.50	5.25	5.75
$T_3$	4.25	4.50	5.00	7.50	11.75	10.0	11.75	12.50	15.75	15.50	1.0	2.00	2.00	4.50	4.5	1.00	3.75	5.25	5.75	6.50
$T_4$	5.75	6.00	7.75	11.25	515.25	11.0	13.0	16.25	21.50	20.75	1.25	3.00	3.75	5.25	5.25	1.75	4.00	8.00	9.0	9.50
$T_5$	3	3.50	4.00	6.50	10.75	9.0	11.25	11.50	14.75	14.50	1.0	2.25	1.75	3.75	3.75	0.50	3.25	3.75	4.0	6.25
SE±	0.97	0.91	1.36	1.73	1.69	0.70	0.67	1.89	2.57	2.41	0.37	0.40	0.69	0.55	0.68	0.63	0.35	1.57	1.75	1.48
C.D at 5%	0.66	0.39	0.78	0.55	0.55	0.48	0.77	0.50	0.57	0.57	0.55	0.55	0.10	1.52	0.71	0.67	0.98	1.14	2.43	2.15

Table 2 - Impact of integrated nutrient management on yield and quality characteristics of strawberry cv. Sweet Charley in India

Treatments	Length/ diameter ratio of fruits	Total fruits/ plant	Fruit yield tonnes /ha	Juice content (%)	Acidity content (%)	TSS °B	Total sugar (%)	Ascorbic acid content (mg/100 g)	pН	Specific gravity
$T_1$	1.25	23.75	21.13	82.10	0.16	9.00	13.50	35.55	3.01	0.80
$T_2$	1.30	25.25	22.53	84.50	0.15	10.00	14.25	38.56	2.96	1.00
$T_3$	1.35	27.75	24.93	89.10	0.14	11.00	14.95	42.74	2.91	1.10
$T_4$	1.43	29.50	26.81	93.20	0.12	13.00	15.00	49.78	2.87	1.30
$T_5$	1.26	24.50	19.55	91.40	0.11	14.00	15.25	53.60	2.81	0.90
SE±	0.06	2.14	2.60	4.16	0.019	1.85	0.63	6.75	0.06	0.17
C.D at 5%	1.17	5.55	9.08	19.54	0.48	7.40	4.09	7.32	1.01	0.84

tons/ha); treatment  $T_4$  showed 37.14% superiority over treatment  $T_5$  in fruit yield tons/ha. Kopanski and Kawecki (1994), Gajbhiye *et al.* (2003), Asrey and Singh (2004), Umar *et al.* (2008), Singh and Singh (2009), Singh *et al.* (2010) and Yadav *et al.* (2010) all reported the superiority of organic manures compared to NPK inorganic fertilizers in producing higher yields. The superiority of treatment  $T_4$  in producing a maximum number of fruits/plant may

be due to a greater growth and reproductive capacity of plants as influenced by a mixture of manures and inorganic fertilizers applied in treatment. As far as fruit quality parameters are concerned, treatment  $T_4$  showed overall significant superiority to treatments  $T_1$  and  $T_5$ . The juice content of fruits increased with increasing manure content and decreasing NPK inorganic fertilizer content although reduced slightly when manures were used alone (Table 2;

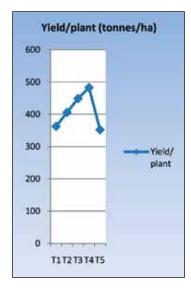


Fig. 1 - Effect of different integrated nutrient management on yield (tons/ha) of strawberry cv. Sweet Charley in India.

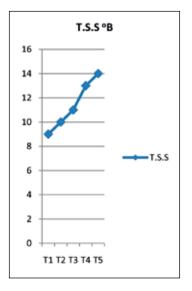


Fig. 2 - Effect of different integrated nutrient management on T.S.S. (°B) of strawberry cv. Sweet Charley in India.

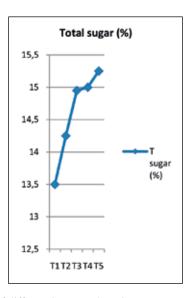


Fig. 3 - Effect of different integrated nutrient management on total sugar (%) of strawberry cv. Sweet Charley in India.

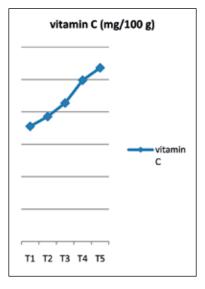


Fig. 4 - Effect of different integrated nutrient management on vitamin C (mg/100~g) of strawberry cv. Sweet Charley in India.

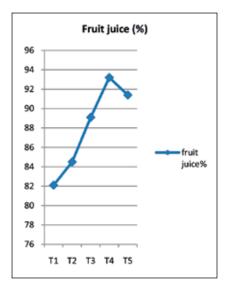


Fig. 5 - Effect of different integrated nutrient management on fruit juice (%) of strawberry cv. Sweet Charley in India.

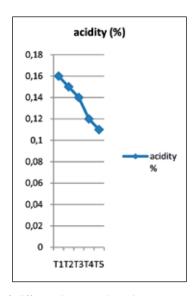


Fig. 6 - Effect of different integrated nutrient management on acidity (%) of strawberry cv. Sweet Charley in India.

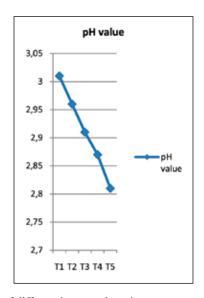


Fig. 7 - Effect of different integrated nutrient management on pH value of strawberry cv. Sweet Charley in India.

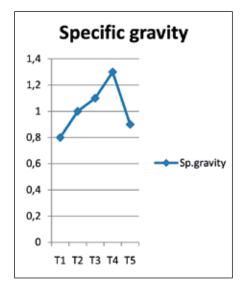


Fig. 8 - Effect of different integrated nutrient management on specific gravity of strawberry cv. Sweet Charley in India.

Figs. 1 and 5). The maximum juice content (93.2%) was recorded for treatment  $T_4$  and the minimum (82.10%) for treatment  $T_1$ . The increase in juice content may be due to an interactional effect of mixture of manures and inorganic NPK applied through treatment  $T_4$  which might have improved cell elongation, cell thickening and fruit development, resulting in better ripening with more succulent fruits. Several reports have indicated that manure and fertilizer combinations in strawberry have led to the production of softer fruits (Neuweiler, 1997; Ghaderi and Talaie, 2008; Singh and Singh, 2009).

The maximum TSS (14%) was found in treatment  $T_5$  and the minimum (9%) in treatment  $T_1$ , likewise total sugar and vitamin C content was highest in treatment  $T_5$  and lowest in treatment  $T_1$  (Table 2 and figure 2, 3, 4). On the other hand, both acidity (%) and pH were highest in treatment  $T_1$  and lowest in treatment  $T_5$  while treatment  $T_4$  exhibited the highest specific gravity of fruits and treatment  $T_1$  the lowest, as shown in Table 2 and figures 6, 7 and 8. Thus strawberry cv. Sweet Charley responded negatively to NPK inorganic fertilizers and positively to higher manure levels under the experimental conditions of this study. Present findings are in close conformity with the results presented by Dradi and Faedi (1995), Bergamaschi *et al.* (1995), Prasad *et al.* (2002), Nazir *et al.* (2006) and Singh and Dwivedi (2011).

### 4. Conclusions

It can be concluded from the present study that an integrated nutrient management combination such as treatment  $T_4$  (25% recommended dose of inorganic fertilizers +75% recommended dose of manures) is advisable for maximum returns from strawberry.

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### Postharvest treatments for preserving quality of 'Kinnow' fruit under different storage conditions

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Key words: edible coating, Kinnow, quality, shelf-life, zero energy cool chamber.

Abstract: 'Kinnow' mandarin is an attractive and nutritious fruit available only for a short period due to its poor shelf life. The effect of different postharvest treatments and storage conditions on the postharvest quality of 'Kinnow' up to 60 days was examined. With progression of the storage period, TSS and total sugars tended to increase whereas acidity, ascorbic acid, juice content, and overall acceptability decreased. Fruits stored at low temperature (4±1°C, RH 85-95%) and Zero Energy Cool Chamber (ZECC) (12-22°C, RH 85-95%) showed a slower rate of physico-chemical changes compared to ambient conditions (18-32°C, RH 45-65%). Both waxing and PE-packaging maintained the external appearance of fruits irrespective of storage systems. However, off-flavour development was noticed in PE-packed fruits after 15 days at room temperature and 40 days in cold storage and ZECC. Waxing of 'Kinnow' mandarin with undiluted Sta-fresh 960 along with low temperature and low cost storage (ZECC) may be recommended to extend the availability of fruits.

### 1. Introduction

'Kinnow' mandarin occupies a prime position amongst the citrus fruits grown in India. It can be used for processing into a variety of beverages, as well as industrial and medicinal uses due to its attractive colour, distinctive flavour and rich source of vitamin 'C', vitamin 'B', β-carotene, calcium and phosphorous (Sogi and Singh, 2001). Despite its attributes and commercial importance, 'Kinnow' cannot be enjoyed for long periods due to its poor shelf life. The aggregate post-harvest losses from orchards to consumers in 'Kinnow' range from 15 to 22% (Gangwar et al., 2007). Storage at low temperature is one of the potential options to extend the avaibility of many fruits and vegetables (Lei et al., 2012). However refrigeration facilities are not generally within the reach of a majority of growers and pathological disease occurrence in 'Kinnow' is very high in cold storage (Singh and Jain, 2004). Edible coatings are promising postharvest treatments to extend the self-life of many fruits as reported in mango (Abbasi et al., 2011; Singh et al., 2012), strawberry (Del Valle et al., 2005), custards apple (El-Monem and El-Mayeed, 2003) and sweet orange (Shahid and Abbasi, 2011). Both Semperfresh <sup>TM</sup> and Sta-Fresh 960 are commercial edible coating materials, the former is a sucrose-fatty acid ester-based wax while the later is a paraf-

fin polyethylene-based wax. Another important technology used for extending shelf-life of fresh fruits and vegetables is Modified Atmosphere Packaging (MAP) (Ladaniya, 2001; Wasker and Gaikward, 2005; Sharma et al., 2012). Also in 'kinnow' various postharvest treatments such as waxing (Ahmad et al., 2005), MAP packaging (Ahmad et al., 2005; Jawandha et al., 2012), Bavistin dip (Sonkar et al., 2008) and a combination of these treatments are reported to extend the shelf-life during storage and transportation. However, there are few works on edible coating, MAP packaging and low cost storage systems such as Zero Energy Cool Chamber (ZECC) for 'kinnow' fruits and the subject calls for further investigation. Other workers have reported that ZECC may be an alternative low cost storage system (Roy and Khurdiya, 1986; Pal et al., 1997) however the treatments must be hazard free and eco-friendly (Siddiqui and Dhua, 2010). Considering these factors, in the present study 'kinnow' fruits were treated with different coating materials to evaluate their performance under ambient, ZECC and cold storage conditions.

### 2. Materials and Methods

Raw material and treatments

Mature 'kinnow' fruits were procured from the Regional Horticulture Research Station, Dhaulakuan (HP) and brought to the Postharvest Technology Laboratory, UHF, Nauni, Solan immediately after harvest. Sound and unblemished fruits were treated with different waxing

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materials as follows:  $T_1$ = Semperfresh (0.5%),  $T_2$ = Semperfresh (1.0%),  $T_3$ = Semperfresh (1.5%),  $T_4$ = Sta Fresh 960 (100%),  $T_5$ = Sta Fresh 960 (50%),  $T_6$ = Rice Starch (3%)+Bavistin (0.05%),  $T_7$ = Rice Starch (6%)+Bavistin (0.05%),  $T_8$ = Rice Starch (3%)+Bavistin (0.05%)+Guar gum (2%),  $T_9$ = Rice Starch (6%)+Bavistin (0.05%)+Guar gum (2%),  $T_{10}$ = Bavistin (0.05%)+ packing of four fruits in a 150 gauze Polyethylene film,  $T_{11}$ = Control.

### Storage conditions

Treated and air-dried fruits from all treatments with their replications were divided into three lots and stored in plastic crates with paper moulded trays under ambient (18-32°C, RH 45-65%), Zero Energy Cool Chamber (12-22°C, 80-95% RH) and Cold store (CS, 4±1°C, 80-90% RH) conditions.

### Chemical analysis

Different biochemical parameters of the juice were analyzed at fortnightly intervals. Total soluble solids (TSS) were estimated by hand refractometer (0-32°B). The readings obtained were calibrated against a standard temperature at 20°C as per the International Temperature Correction Table and expressed as °Brix. Acidity and ascorbic acid were determined by standard method (AOAC, 1990) and results were expressed as percentage citric acid and mg/100 ml of juice respectively. Total sugars were estimated by the Lane and Eynon volumetric methods (AOAC, 1990).

### Physical analysis

The juice was extracted with the help of an electrically operated citrus juice extractor. The fruits were first weighed and then cut into halves and the cut portion of each half was placed on the revolving ridge knob of the extractor till only the skin part remained and all the segments were crushed and pressed; the juice was collected in the bottom of the juice extractor.

### Sensory evaluation

Sensory evaluation of samples was conducted by a panel of judges (consisting of teachers, students, and staff) at periodic intervals of storage. The judges were given coded samples consisting of whole and cut fruits for evaluation regarding overall acceptability of the fruits on the basis of appearance, color, taste and defects if any. The evaluation consisted of a 9-point hedonic scale for each attribute (Wills *et al.*, 1980).

### Statistical analysis

Interactions among treatments, storage conditions and biochemical attributes were assessed by Completely Randomized Design whereas, sensory attributes were assessed by the Randomized Block Designed using the STATISTI-CA v. 8.0 (Stat Soft, Tulsa, OK, USA) package.

### 3. Results and Discussion

### Total soluble solids (TSS)

It was observed that TSS in general increased as the storage period progressed under all treatments and storage conditions (Table 1). Among the fruits kept at ambient temperature, the highest mean TSS contents (14.04°B) were recorded in  $T_{11}$  (control), whereas the lowest mean TSS contents (12.84°B) were found in treatment  $T_4$  (100% Sta-Fresh 960), which was closely followed by  $T_{10}$  and  $T_5$ , respectively. The control fruits also exhibited the maximum increase of TSS under ZECC and cold storage conditions, whereas it was usually minimum in response to  $T_4$  followed by  $T_{10}$ .

Table 1 - Effect of postharvest treatments on Total soluble solids\* (B) of 'Kinnow' fruits under different storage systems during 60 days of storage

Storage systems (S)         Treatments (T)         15         30         45         60         Mean           Room temperature temperature (18-32°C, RH 45-65%)         T <sub>2</sub> 11.84         2.59         13.57         14.10         13.02           RH 45-65%)         T <sub>3</sub> 11.84         2.59         13.57         14.10         13.02           RH 45-65%)         T <sub>3</sub> 11.84         2.36         13.11         14.45         13.01           RH 45-65%)         T <sub>4</sub> 11.76         12.31         13.22         14.09         12.84           T <sub>6</sub> 12.04         12.87         14.18         15.81         13.72           T <sub>6</sub> 12.02         12.84         14.09         15.37         13.58           T <sub>8</sub> 12.00         12.79         14.05         15.50         13.88           T <sub>9</sub> 11.98         12.73         14.92         15.33         13.49           T <sub>1</sub> 11.12         13.46         14.15         12.65         13.1         14.14         14.15         12.61         13.1         14.14         14.14         14.14         14.14         14.14         14.14         14.14         14.14         14.14         14.									
Room temperature (18-32°C, RH 45-65%)									
temperature (18-32°C, RH 45-65%)  T <sub>3</sub> 11.84 12.59 13.57 14.10 13.02 14.45 13.01 15.4 14.5 15.65%)  T <sub>4</sub> 11.76 12.31 13.22 14.09 12.84 15.65%)  T <sub>6</sub> 12.04 12.87 14.18 15.81 13.72 12.02 12.84 14.09 15.37 13.58 15.6 12.00 12.79 14.05 15.50 13.58 15.6 15.6 15.6 13.70 15.5 13.58 15.6 15.6 15.6 13.70 15.5 13.58 15.6 15.6 15.6 15.6 13.70 15.5 15.5 13.58 15.6 15.6 15.6 15.6 15.6 15.6 15.6 15.6									
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RH 85-95%) $\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	•					12.30			
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$egin{array}{llllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllll$			11.54	11.89	12.47	12.47	12.01		
$T_9$ 11.51 11.77 12.32 12.32 11.91 $T_{10}$ 11.42 11.58 11.93 11.93 11.67 $T_{11}$ 11.65 11.96 12.62 12.62 12.13		$T_7$	11.53	11.80	12.41		11.96		
T <sub>10</sub> 11.42 11.58 11.93 11.93 11.67 T <sub>11</sub> 11.65 11.96 12.62 12.62 12.13		$T_8$		11.78	12.35	12.35	11.92		
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		$T_{10}$		11.58		11.93	11.67		
Mean 11.50 11.73 11.98 12.23		T <sub>11</sub>	11.65	11.96	12.62	12.62	12.13		
		Mean	11.50	11.73	11.98	12.23			

CD  $_{0.05}$  Storage systems (S)- 0.10, SxT- 0.33, SxI- 0.19, SxTxI- 0.66. \*Initial Total Soluble Solids (TSS) of 'Kinnow' = 11.35°B.

The TSS content increased due to hydrolysis of insoluble polysaccharides into sugars at a faster rate at high temperature (ambient) and at a slower rate at lower temperatures, i.e. in cold storage and in ZECC (Siddiqui, 2008; Siddiqui et al., 2011; Jawandha et al., 2012). The higher value of TSS in control fruit might be due to a higher concentration of sugars because of higher transpiration losses as these fruits were not covered, which could impede the movement of water out of the fruits. On the other hand, waxing and PE-packing might have reduced moisture losses to a maximum extent as the combination offers excellent moisture barrier properties (Ben-Yehoshua, 1985). Waxing treatments can act as an additional barrier to moisture loss but are less effective because waxes are more permeable to moisture and gases. However, it is a well established fact that wax materials are capable of delaying ripening process by maintaining slow degradation of polysaccharides as observed in mango (Abbasi et al., 2011) and Kinnow mandarin (Chaudhary et al., 2004). Shahid and Abbasi (2011) also reported less change compared to control in TSS in stored sweet orange fruits treated with bee's wax and paraffin wax coatings throughout the storage period. Manzano and Diaz (2001) and Hayat et al. (2005) found the similar results in apple after PE-packing and waxing treatments.

### Titratable acidity

A gradual decline in titratable acidity contents (Table 2) was observed with an increase in storage duration under all three storage conditions during the entire 60-day storage period. 100% Sta-Fresh 960 ( $T_4$ ) retained the highest mean TA (0.93%) under ambient conditions whereas  $T_4$  and  $T_3$  presented the maximum values under ZECC (1.02%) and CS followed by  $T_{10}$ . At the same time, the control treatment ( $T_{11}$ ) had the lowest mean titratable acidity (0.64, 0.91, and 0.93%) under ambient, ZECC and CS conditions, respectively.

The faster rate of decline in acidity at room temperature could be due to faster metabolic reactions leading to earlier senescence at higher temperature. Among metabolic reactions in fruits, respiration is an important process which may utilize organic acids as substrate for the production of energy resulting in a decrease in acidity during prolonged storage (Sharma et al., 2012). The organic acids involved in the respiratory process are not oxidized at a faster rate at lower temperature, and therefore their levels remained high. Furthermore, polyethylene and wax materials slow down the metabolism of fruits and vegetables as these have been reported to maintain higher Co, and lower O, inside the coated/PE-packed fruits (Kader et al., 1989): this might explain the higher acid levels in waxed and PE-packed fruits. These findings are further supported by the findings of Bisen and Pandey (2008) and Siddiqui (2008) in guava and mango, respectively.

### Total sugars

Total sugar increased significantly (Table 3) throughout the storage period with the increase being faster under ambient storage and slower under cold storage. Under ambient conditions,  $T_4$  (100% Sta-Fresh 960) proved to be the most

effective in delaying the increase in total sugars up to 60 days, whereas, under the other two storage conditions  $T_{10}$  proved to be the best during the same period. At the end of the study period, the mean maximum total sugar contents (7.74%) was found in treatment  $T_{11}$  (control) whereas the minimum average sugar contents were recorded for treatments  $T_4$  and  $T_{10}$  (6.93% and 6.96%, respectively).

Table 2 - Effect of postharvest treatments on titratable acidity\* (as % citric acid) of 'Kinnow' fruits under different storage systems during 60 days of storage

			Ctornes	intomiol	a (daya)	
Storage systems (S)	Treatments (T)	15	Storage	45	60	
			30			Mean
Room temperature	T <sub>1</sub>	1.00	0.86	0.79	0.63	0.82
(18-32°C,	$T_2$	1.00	0.96	0.84	0.68	0.84
RH 45-65%)	$T_3$	1.01	0.95	0.88	0.67	0.88
	$T_4$	1.03	0.98	0.93	0.76	0.93
	$T_5$	1.00	0.95	0.90	0.70	0.89
	$T_6$	0.96	0.87	0.74	0.74	0.83
	$T_7$	0.98	0.88	0.53	0.53	0.78
	T <sub>8</sub>	1.00	0.87	0.54	0.54	0.79
	T <sub>9</sub>	1.00	0.89	0.54	0.54	0.81
	T <sub>10</sub>	1.01	0.96	0.72	0.72	0.89
	T <sub>11</sub>	0.80	0.64	0.60	0.52	0.64
_	Mean	0.98	0.89	0.80	0.64	0.82
Zero energy cool chamber	T <sub>1</sub>	1.04	1.02	0.99	0.96	1.01
(12-22°C,	T <sub>2</sub>	1.04	1.02	1.00	0.97	1.01
RH 80-95%)	T <sub>3</sub>	1.04	1.03	1.01	0.98	1.02
KH 60-93%)	$T_4$	1.04	1.03	1.01	0.96	1.02
	$T_5$	1.02	1.02	1.01	0.98	1.00
	$\frac{T_6}{T_6}$	1.02	0.96	0.91	0.85	0.94
	T <sub>7</sub>	1.02	0.99	0.95	0.90	0.92
	$T_8$	1.03	1.00	0.97	0.93	0.98
	$T_9$	1.03	1.00	0.98	0.94	0.98
	$T_{10}$	1.04	1.02	1.01	0.98	1.01
	$T_{11}$	1.00	0.94	0.87	0.82	0.91
	Mean	1.03	1.00	0.95	0.93	0.98
Cold storage	T1	1.04	1.02	1.00	0.97	1.01
(4±1°C, RH 85-95%)	T2	1.04	1.02	1.01	0.99	1.02
	T3	1.04	1.03	1.02	1.00	1.03
	T4	1.04	1.03	1.02	1.01	1.03
	T5	1.03	1.03	1.02	1.00	1.02
	T6	1.02	0.98	0.95	0.91	0.97
	T7	1.02	1.00	0.97	0.93	0.98
	Т8	1.03	1.01	0.99	0.96	0.99
	T9	1.04	1.02	1.00	0.97	1.00
	T10	1.04	1.03	1.02	1.01	1.02
	T11	1.01	0.96	0.91	0.85	0.93
	Mean	1.03	1.01	0.99	0.96	1.00

CD  $_{0.05}$ , Storage systems (S) 0.007, SxT- 0.02, SxI- 0.01, SxTxI- 0.05. \*Initial Titratable acidity (%) of 'Kinnow' = 1.05%.

Table 3 - Effect of postharvest treatments on Total sugar\* (%) of 'Kinnow' fruits under different storage systems during 60 days of storage

Storage	Treatments		Storage	interval	s (days)	)
systems (S)	(T)	15	30	45	60	Mean
Room	T <sub>1</sub>	6.81	7.37	8.27	9.87	8.08
temperature	$T_2$	7.10	7.25	7.95	9.25	7.88
(18-32°C, RH 45-65%)	$T_3$	6.71	7.11	7.71	8.70	7.55
	$T_4$	6.76	7.07	7.49	8.19	7.37
	$T_5$	6.69	7.17	7.84	8.85	7.63
	$T_6$	6.90	7.81	9.07	10.65	8.60
	$T_7$	6.87	7.80	8.91	10.35	8.48
	$T_8$	6.84	7.75	8.75	10.35	8.42
	$T_9$	6.81	7.71	8.75	10.45	8.43
	$T_{10}$	6.72	7.17	7.67	8.40	7.49
	T <sub>11</sub>	7.00	8.30	10.49	11.60	9.34
	Mean	6.83	7.50	8.44	9.69	8.11
Zero energy	$T_{_1}$	6.68	6.75	6.82	6.97	6.80
Cool Chamber (12-22°C,	$T_2$	6.67	6.72	6.80	6.93	6.78
(12-22 C, RH 80-95%)	$T_3$	6.66	6.71	6.78	6.86	6.75
KII 00-73 /0)	$T_4$	6.66	6.72	6.75	6.82	6.73
	$T_5$	6.65	6.68	6.76	6.84	6.73
	$T_6$	6.69	6.85	6.95	7.09	6.89
	$T_7$	6.71	6.81	6.93	7.06	6.87
	$T_8$	6.70	6.80	6.92	7.04	6.86
	$T_9$	6.68	6.76	6.90	7.02	6.84
	$T_{10}$	6.64	6.68	6.74	6.81	6.71
	$T_{11}$	6.73	6.86	7.03	7.21	6.95
	Mean	6.67	6.76	6.81	6.90	6.77
Cold storage	$T_{_1}$	6.66	6.73	6.80	6.90	6.77
(4±1°C, RH 85-95%)	$T_2$	6.64	6.70	6.78	6.86	6.74
141 05 75 76)	$T_3$	6.65	6.69	6.74	6.80	6.72
	$T_4$	6.64	6.67	6.71	6.75	6.69
	$T_5$	6.64	6.68	6.74	6.80	6.71
	$T_6$	6.70	6.80	6.91	7.03	6.86
	$T_7$	6.70	6.79	6.85	7.00	6.83
	$T_8$	6.46	6.68	6.88	6.98	6.75
	$T_9$	6.68	6.76	6.86	6.96	6.81
	$T_{10}$	6.63	6.66	6.70	6.75	6.68
	$T_{11}$	6.72	6.84	6.99	7.15	6.92
	Mean	6.64	6.72	6.81	6.90	6.77

CD  $_{0.05}$ , Storage systems (S)- 0.01, SxT- 0.06, SxI- 0.03, SxTxI- 0.12. \*initial Total sugar content of the fruit = 6.51%.

The greater increase in sugar contents under ambient conditions may be due to rapid hydrolysis of insoluble polysaccharides into sugars (Siddiqui *et al.*, 2011; Jawandha *et al.*, 2012). The great content of sugars in control fruit might be due to greater transpiration losses. PE-packing and waxing have been reported as excellent moisture barriers which reduced moisture losses in fruits. Moreover, both PE-packing and waxing can produce modified atmosphere by increasing CO<sub>2</sub> and decreasing O<sub>2</sub> concentration.

### Ascorbic acid

The ascorbic acid content showed a general declining trend in all treatments and storage conditions. However, the decrease was more pronounced under ambient conditions as compared to the other two storage systems (Table 4). The slow degradation rate and consequently higher retention of ascorbic acid under cold storage condition

Table 4 - Effect of postharvest treatments on Ascorbic acid contents (mg/100 ml juice) of 'Kinnow' fruits under different storage systems during 60 days of storage

Systems (S)	Storage	Treatments		Storage	Interval	s (days)	)
temperature (18-32°C, RH 45-65%)  T <sub>2</sub> 24.79 24.33 23.84 23.35 24.08   T <sub>3</sub> 24.81 24.37 23.93 23.49 24.15   T <sub>4</sub> 24.84 24.33 24.02 23.61 24.23   T <sub>5</sub> 24.80 24.35 23.90 23.45 24.12   T <sub>6</sub> 24.65 24.05 23.45 22.82 23.74   T <sub>7</sub> 24.69 24.13 23.57 23.04 23.86   T <sub>8</sub> 24.66 24.07 23.48 22.88 23.77   T <sub>9</sub> 24.65 24.05 23.45 22.85 23.75   T <sub>10</sub> 24.85 24.45 23.72 23.65 24.17   T <sub>11</sub> 24.64 24.03 23.42 22.78 23.75   Mean 24.74 24.23 23.69 23.21 23.96   Zero energy cool chamber (12-22°C, RH 80-95%)  T <sub>4</sub> 25.10 24.82 24.59 24.35 24.71   T <sub>6</sub> 25.01 24.82 24.59 24.35 24.71   T <sub>6</sub> 25.01 24.66 24.35 24.03 24.51   T <sub>7</sub> 25.05 24.71 24.38 24.07 24.55   T <sub>9</sub> 25.03 24.71 24.38 24.07 24.55   T <sub>10</sub> 25.10 24.69 24.40 24.11 24.56   T <sub>11</sub> 25.02 24.64 24.29 24.94 24.76   Mean 25.08 24.77 24.51 24.55 24.81   T <sub>11</sub> 25.02 24.64 24.29 24.94 24.76   Mean 25.08 24.77 24.51 24.55 24.81   T <sub>11</sub> 25.10 24.86 24.65 24.43 24.76   Cold storage (4±1°C, RH 85-95%)  T <sub>3</sub> 25.11 24.86 24.65 24.43 24.76   T <sub>4</sub> 25.15 24.90 24.71 24.51 24.51   Cold storage (4±1°C, RH 85-95%)  T <sub>3</sub> 25.12 24.80 24.71 24.51 24.51   T <sub>4</sub> 25.16 24.94 24.77 24.51 24.51   Cold storage (4±1°C, RH 85-95%)  T <sub>3</sub> 25.12 24.86 24.65 24.43 24.76   T <sub>4</sub> 25.16 24.99 24.71 24.51 24.81   T <sub>5</sub> 25.11 24.86 24.65 24.43 24.76   Cold storage (4±1°C, RH 85-95%)  T <sub>3</sub> 25.12 24.80 24.71 24.51 24.81   T <sub>4</sub> 25.16 24.94 24.77 24.51 24.81   T <sub>5</sub> 25.18 24.90 24.71 24.51 24.81   T <sub>4</sub> 25.16 24.98 24.83 24.67 24.91   T <sub>5</sub> 25.18 24.90 24.71 24.51 24.81   T <sub>6</sub> 25.16 24.98 24.83 24.67 24.91   T <sub>7</sub> 25.10 24.86 24.65 24.43 24.76   24.91 24.91 24.91 24.91 24.91 24.91   T <sub>5</sub> 25.18 24.90 24.71 24.51 24.82   T <sub>6</sub> 25.16 24.98 24.83 24.67 24.91   T <sub>7</sub> 25.10 24.86 24.65 24.43 24.76   24.91 24.91 24.91 24.91 24.91   T <sub>8</sub> 25.12 24.90 24.71 24.51 24.81   T <sub>9</sub> 25.11 24.80 24.60 24.99 24.71 24.51 24.81   T <sub>9</sub> 25.11 24.80 24.60 24.99 24.71 24.91 24.91   T <sub>10</sub> 25.10 24.86 24.65 24.43 24.76   24.91 24.	systems (S)	(T)	15	30	45	60	Mean
(18-32°C, RH 45-65%)  T <sub>3</sub>		$T_{_1}$	24.78	24.31	23.84	23.35	24.07
RH 45-65%)       T3       24.81       24.37       23.93       23.49       24.15         T4       24.84       24.43       24.02       23.61       24.23         T5       24.80       24.35       23.90       23.45       24.12         T6       24.65       24.05       23.45       22.82       23.74         T7       24.69       24.13       23.57       23.04       23.86         T8       24.66       24.07       23.48       22.88       23.77         T9       24.65       24.05       23.45       22.85       23.72         Mean       24.74       24.23       23.69       23.21       23.96         Zero energy cool chamber (12-22°C, RH 80-95%)       T3       25.10       24.79       24.55       24.30       24.52       24.53       24.71       24.66         12-22°C, RH 80-95%)       T3       25.10       24.79       24.55       24.30       24.68         T4       25.15       24.91       24.74       24.55       24.84         T5       25.11       24.84       24.62       24.39       24.71         T6       25.01       24.66       24.35       24.03       24.51		$T_2$	24.79	24.33	23.84	23.35	24.08
$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		$T_3$	24.81	24.37	23.93	23.49	24.15
$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		$T_4$	24.84	24.43	24.02	23.61	24.23
$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		$T_5$	24.80	24.35	23.90	23.45	24.12
$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		$T_6$	24.65	24.05	23.45	22.82	23.74
$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		$T_7$	24.69	24.13	23.57	23.04	23.86
$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		$T_8$	24.66	24.07	23.48	22.88	23.77
$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		$T_9$	24.65	24.05	23.45	22.85	23.75
$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		$T_{10}$	24.85	24.45	23.72	23.65	24.17
$ \begin{array}{c} {\rm Zero\ energy} \\ {\rm cool\ chamber} \\ {\rm (12-22^{\circ}C,} \\ {\rm RH\ 80-95\%}) \end{array} \begin{array}{c} {\rm T_1} \\ {\rm T_2} \\ {\rm 25.10} \end{array} \begin{array}{c} 24.78 \\ 24.55 \\ 24.30 \end{array} \begin{array}{c} 24.66 \\ 24.30 \\ 24.68 \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} 24.68 \\ 24.79 \\ 24.55 \\ 24.30 \\ 24.35 \\ 24.71 \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} 24.35 \\ 24.71 \\ 24.35 \\ 24.84 \\ 24.55 \\ 24.84 \\ 24.55 \\ 24.84 \\ 24.62 \\ 24.39 \\ 24.74 \\ 24.55 \\ 24.84 \\ 24.62 \\ 24.39 \\ 24.74 \\ 24.55 \\ 24.84 \\ 24.62 \\ 24.39 \\ 24.74 \\ 24.55 \\ 24.84 \\ 24.62 \\ 24.39 \\ 24.74 \\ 24.55 \\ 24.85 \\ 24.59 \\ 24.70 \\ 24.25 \\ 24.86 \\ 24.20 \\ 24.40 \\ 24.11 \\ 24.56 \\ 24.85 \\ 24.67 \\ 24.85 \\ 24.67 \\ 24.85 \\ 24.67 \\ 24.85 \\ 24.67 \\ 24.85 \\ 24.67 \\ 24.86 \\ 24.67 \\ 24.86 \\ 24.67 \\ 24.86 \\ 24.67 \\ 24.86 \\ 24.67 \\ 24.81 \\ 24.86 \\ 24.67 \\ 24.81 \\ 24.86 \\ 24.67 \\ 24.81 \\ 24.86 \\ 24.67 \\ 24.81 \\ 24.86 \\ 24.67 \\ 24.81 \\ 24.86 \\ 24.82 \\ 24.83 \\ 24.67 \\ 24.91 \\ 24.86 \\ 24.85 \\ 24.85 \\ 24.86 \\ 24.85 \\ 24.85 \\ 24.86 \\ 24.85 \\ 24.86 \\ 24.85 \\ 24.86$		$T_{11}$	24.64	24.03	23.42	22.78	23.72
$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		Mean	24.74	24.23	23.69	23.21	23.96
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	<i>-</i>	$T_{_1}$	25.08	24.78	24.53	24.27	24.66
$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		$T_2$	25.10	24.79	24.55	24.30	24.68
$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		$T_3$	25.10	24.82	24.59	24.35	24.71
$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		$T_4$	25.15	24.91	24.74	24.55	24.84
$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		$T_5$	25.11	24.84	24.62	24.39	24.74
$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		$T_6$	25.01	24.66	24.35	24.03	24.51
$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		$T_7$	25.05	24.72	24.44	24.15	24.59
$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		$T_8$	25.03	24.71	24.38	24.07	24.55
$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		$T_9$	25.03	24.69	24.40	24.11	24.56
$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		$T_{10}$	25.16	24.94	24.76	24.56	24.85
$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		$T_{11}$	25.02	24.64	24.29	24.94	24.47
$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		Mean	25.08	24.77	24.51	24.25	24.52
RH 85-95%) $ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		$T_{1}$	25.12	24.86	24.65	24.43	24.76
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		$T_2$	25.12	24.90	24.71	24.51	24.81
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	141 00 70 70	$T_3$	25.14	24.94	24.77	24.54	24.86
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		$T_4$	25.16	24.98	24.83	24.67	24.91
$egin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		$T_5$	25.18	24.90	24.71	24.51	24.82
$T_8$ 25.12 24.84 24.62 24.39 24.74 $T_9$ 25.11 24.80 24.56 24.31 24.69 $T_{10}$ 25.09 25.00 24.86 24.71 24.94 $T_{11}$ 25.19 24.76 24.49 24.21 24.63		$T_6$	25.16	24.82	24.59	24.35	24.71
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		$T_7$	25.10	24.86	24.65	24.43	24.76
T <sub>10</sub> 25.09 25.00 24.86 24.71 24.94 T <sub>11</sub> 25.19 24.76 24.49 24.21 24.63		$T_8$	25.12	24.84	24.62	24.39	24.74
T <sub>11</sub> 25.19 24.76 24.49 24.21 24.63		$T_9$	25.11	24.80	24.56	24.31	24.69
11		$T_{10}$	25.09	25.00	24.86	24.71	24.94
Mean 25.07 24.88 24.68 24.46 24.78		$T_{11}$	25.19	24.76	24.49	24.21	24.63
		Mean	25.07	24.88	24.68	24.46	24.78

CD  $_{0.05}$ , Storage systems (S)- 0.01, SxT- 0.06, SxI- 0.03, SxTxI- 0.12. \*initial Ascorbic acid content of the fruit = 25.25 mg/100 ml.

and in cool chamber might be due to a reduced metabolic rate at lower temperature. Greater ascorbic acid content under low temperature might be due to a reduced rate of fruit metabolic activities, mainly respiration. These results are in accordance with the findings of Wills *et al.* (2007) and Worawaran *et al.* (2013). Among the treatments, PEpacked fruits ( $T_{10}$ ) and undiluted Sta-Fresh 960 ( $T_4$ ) had the highest average ascorbic acid during the 60-day storage. The better retention of ascorbic acid in fruits of both the treatments might be due to modifications in the atmosphere immediately surrounding the fruits. PE packing and waxing have been reported to retain higher ascorbic acid (Bayindirli *et al.*, 1995; Kaushal and Thakur, 1996).

### Juice content

The juice content of 'Kinnow' fruit was highest in ZECC (Table 5) followed by CS; the lowest juice content was found in fruits kept under ambient conditions. In the present study it was also observed that the juice content (initially 40.18%) increased under all treatments and storage conditions at the early sampling dates and then declined as the storage period progressed. Maximum juice contents (43.51%) were recorded in treatment  $T_{10}$  followed by  $T_{5}$  and  $T_{4}$ , in comparison to the control fruits which yielded only 40.05 percent at 60 days storage.

These findings might be due to a greater moisture loss at higher temperature coupled with the lower humidity conditions under ambient conditions than ZECC and CS. Among the treatments, higher juice recovery was recorded in PE-packed fruits ( $T_{10}$ ) followed by the fruits with 100% Sta-Fresh 960 ( $T_4$ ). This might be due to less water loss in PE-packaging and waxing treatments as the combination acts as a barrier to moisture loss. Similar results were also obtained by Chaudhary *et al.* (2004) in Kinnow mandarin and Bisen and Pandey (2008) in Kagzi lime.

### Sensory quality

A perusal of data in Table 6 indicates that the storage temperature had a profound influence on the overall acceptability of the fruits. Cold-stored fruits were the most acceptable after 60 days storage, followed by fruits from ZECC while those stored at ambient conditions were the least acceptable. Up to 60 days storage, fruits from  $T_4$  outscored all other treatments under all three storage conditions, followed by 50% Sta-Fresh 960 ( $T_5$ ) fruits. At the end of the storage period (60-days), the maximum acceptability (8.01, 7.90 and 6.70) was observed in response to  $T_4$  followed by  $T_5$  (7.85, 7.65 and 6.50),  $T_3$  (7.85, 7.65 and 6.05),  $T_2$  (7.70, 7.45 and 5.90 ) and  $T_{10}$  (7.67, 7.35 and 5.82) in cold store, ZECC and under room temperature respectively.

Better acceptability of cold-stored fruits is understandable as low temperature storage of 'Kinnow' fruit helps maintain storage quality, thereby increasing acceptability. PE packing and waxing creates beneficial effects and these conditions are more effective in retaining fruit quality at higher temperature (Kader *et al.*, 1989; Ladaniya and Sonkar, 1997; Ladaniya, 2007). The fruits treated with Sta-Fresh 960 (T<sub>4</sub>) registered overall good acceptability

at the end of 60 days. The present results show similarity with the findings of Ladaniya (2001) who demonstrated that taste scores were highest in 'Musambi' sweet orange (*Citrus sinensis*) fruits treated with Sta-fresh 451 wax, and Wang *et al.* (2004) who revealed that due to the waxing, eating quality was good without an unpleasant taste in fruits of Jincheng orange variety. Similar results were also reported by Mahajan *et al.* (2005) in 'Kinnow' fruits.

Table 5 - Effect of postharvest treatments on juice content\* (%) of 'Kinnow' fruits under different storage systems during 60 days of storage

storage	,						
Storage	Treatments	Storage intervals (days)					
systems (S)	(T)	15	30	45	60	Mean	
Room	$\mathbf{T}_{_{1}}$	44.68	46.02	39.54	35.59	41.47	
temperature (18-32°C,	$T_2$	43.01	43.01	40.17	36.17	40.59	
RH 45-65%)	$T_3$	43.78	41.76	40.11	36.11	40.44	
	$T_4$	40.44	44.20	44.30	43.01	42.98	
	$T_5$	42.88	44.47	42.82	38.82	42.24	
	$T_6$	44.45	45.24	37.12	33.12	39.98	
	$T_7$	42.95	42.17	39.75	35.72	40.14	
	$\mathrm{T_8}$	40.41	45.43	36.77	32.94	38.89	
	$T_9$	43.24	43.17	35.78	32.94	38.78	
	$T_{10}$	40.92	42.16	46.70	42.70	43.12	
	$T_{11}$	40.73	39.16	35.43	29.76	36.27	
	Mean	42.68	43.34	38.96	36.08	40.44	
Zero energy	$T_{_1}$	41.45	43.76	44.02	44.79	43.50	
cool chamber (12-22°C,	$T_2$	41.38	41.78	43.69	44.14	42.74	
(12-22 C, RH 80-95%)	$T_3$	40.98	40.07	44.07	48.11	43.31	
,	$T_4$	40.35	42.00	44.50	44.45	42.85	
	$T_5$	40.75	43.20	45.00	48.82	44.44	
	$T_6$	42.08	47.12	46.05	43.12	44.59	
	$T_7$	40.18	42.15	42.17	43.75	42.06	
	$T_8$	42.90	41.75	43.75	40.94	42.33	
	$T_9$	40.05	43.75	45.55	41.76	42.78	
	$T_{10}$	40.28	43.15	45.15	46.68	43.82	
	$T_{11}$	40.30	44.75	42.15	40.76	41.99	
	Mean	40.97	43.04	43.39	44.30	43.08	
Cold storage	$T_{_1}$	41.75	43.22	40.75	44.75	42.62	
(4±1°C, RH 85-95%)	$T_2$	42.48	41.78	41.78	49.70	43.93	
KII 63-93 /6)	$T_3$	40.35	41.20	40.80	49.43	42.94	
	$T_4$	41.78	41.83	42.65	44.45	42.68	
	$T_5$	41.08	41.35	43.33	48.30	43.52	
	$T_6$	40.47	42.35	41.25	44.10	42.04	
	$T_7$	40.70	40.80	42.80	44.80	42.27	
	$T_8$	41.25	42.15	43.25	48.55	43.80	
	$T_9$	40.25	41.19	42.25	45.50	42.45	
	$T_{10}$	41.20	42.45	44.35	46.48	43.63	
	T <sub>11</sub>	40.75	40.35	42.25	44.25	41.90	
	Mean	41.09	41.69	42.12	46.14	42.88	

CD  $_{0.05}$ , Storage systems (S)- 0.37, SxT-1.23, SxI- 0.74, SxTxI- 2.47. \* Initial juice content of fruit = 40.18%.

Table 6 - Effect of postharvest treatments on overall acceptability\* of 'Kinnow' fruits under different storage systems during 60 days of storage

Storage	Treatments		Storage intervals (days)				
systems (S)	(T)	15	30	45	60	Mean	
Room	T <sub>1</sub>	6.80	5.80	5.40	3.80	5.45	
temperature (18-32°C, RH 45-65%)	$T_2$	7.20	6.20	5.60	4.60	5.90	
	$T_3$	7.20	6.40	6.00	4.60	6.05	
	$T_4$	7.60	7.20	6.80	5.20	6.70	
	$T_5$	7.40	6.80	6.40	5.40	6.50	
	$T_6$	7.80	5.00	3.80	2.80	4.60	
	$T_7$	7.20	5.60	4.60	4.00	5.35	
	$T_8$	7.00	5.40	4.20	3.40	5.00	
	$T_9$	6.80	5.00	3.80	2.40	4.50	
	$T_{10}$	8.00	6.40	5.70	3.20	5.82	
	T <sub>11</sub>	6.00	4.80	3.00	1.80	3.90	
	Mean	7.18	5.87	5.03	3.75	5.43	
Zero energy cool chamber (12-22°C, RH 80-95%)	$T_{_1}$	8.20	7.60	7.20	6.60	7.40	
	$T_2$	7.80	7.80	7.40	6.80	7.45	
	$T_3$	8.00	7.80	7.60	7.20	7.65	
	$T_4$	8.20	8.00	7.80	7.60	7.90	
	$T_5$	8.00	7.80	7.60	7.20	7.65	
	$T_6$	7.80	7.60	7.00	6.40	7.20	
	$T_7$	7.80	7.80	7.20	6.60	7.35	
	$T_8$	7.80	7.60	7.00	6.60	7.25	
	$T_9$	7.60	7.00	5.80	5.60	6.50	
	$T_{10}$	8.60	8.40	6.80	5.60	7.35	
	$T_{11}$	7.60	6.40	5.80	5.40	6.30	
	Mean	7.95	7.62	7.02	6.51	7.27	
Cold storage	$T_{_1}$	8.20	8.00	7.80	7.20	7.80	
(4±1°C, RH 85-95%)	$T_2$	8.20	7.80	7.60	7.20	7.70	
	$T_3$	8.20	8.00	7.80	7.40	7.85	
	$T_4$	8.40	8.20	8.00	7.80	8.10	
	$T_5$	8.20	8.00	7.80	7.40	7.85	
	$T_6$	8.00	8.00	7.60	7.00	7.65	
	$T_7$	8.00	7.80	7.40	6.80	7.50	
	$T_8$	7.80	7.80	7.20	7.00	7.45	
	$T_9$	7.80	7.40	6.80	6.40	7.10	
	$T_{10}$	8.80	8.60	7.10	6.20	7.67	
	$T_{11}$	7.80	7.40	7.00	6.40	7.15	
	Mean	8.12	7.90	7.46	6.98	7.62	

CD  $_{0.05}$ , Storage systems (S)- 0.09, SxT- 0.31, SxI- 0.18, SxTxI- 0.62. \*Initial score for overall acceptability = 8.60.

### 4. Conclusions

The result of this investigation showed that using ecofriendly edible coating along with Zero Energy Cool Chamber, the shelf life of 'Kinnow' fruits can be increased substantially. Among the treatments, waxing with undiluted Sta-fresh 960 along with low temperature storage and ZECC has been found the best and may be recommended to extend the availability of fruits.

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## Pre and post-harvest management affects functional quality of peach (*Prunus persica* L.) cv. Flavorcrest

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Abstract: The effect of rootstock, fertilization and post-harvest heat treatments on the antioxidant capacity and total phenolic content in fruits of peach cultivar Flavorcrest was studied. `Flavorcrest' grafted on `MrS. 2/5' and `Flordaguard' rootstocks produced fruits with the highest antioxidant capacity while the activity in the fruit skin was around ten times higher than in the flesh. Treatment without fertilization produced the highest antioxidant capacity in fruit flesh while the fruit skin showed no significant differences between treatments. A moderate heat shock (34 and 42°C), evaluated at 24 h post-harvest, improved the antioxidant capacity of fruits but after keep them for 72 h at 20°C, the values were similar to those observed in untreated fruit. Pre-harvest (rootstocks and fertilization) and post-harvest (heat shock) treatments influenced the functional quality of 'Flavorcrest' peach cultivar fruits.

### 1. Introduction

In recent years, consumers have paid increasing attention to the health and nutritional aspects (vitamins contents, mineral elements and antioxidants) of horticultural products (Scalzo *et al.*, 2005). And fruits are generally beneficial to human health, conferring not only nutritive value but also physiological and biochemical benefits. They are also excellent functional foods, contributing to the prevention of degenerative diseases. These beneficial properties have been associated to the presence of bioactive compounds such as phenolics, carotenoids, tocopherols and ascorbic acid (Soobrattee *et al.*, 2005).

Fruit phenolic compounds are relevant in terms of quality, as they have a role in visual appearance (pigmentation and browning), taste (astringency), and health-promoting properties (free-radical scavengers) (Tomás-Barberán and Robins, 1997). The flavonoids are a large group of phenolic compounds ubiquitously distributed in the plant kingdom, and they exhibit diverse biological activities (Erlund, 2004; Spencer *et al.*, 2004). Many of these biological functions have been attributed to their radical scavenging and antioxidant activity (Soobrattee *et al.*, 2005) because they are highly reactive as hydrogen or electron donors (Amić *et al.*, 2003).

The phenolic content in plants varies among genotypes (Tomás-Barberán *et al.*, 2001), environmental conditions,

Received for publication 9 January 2014 Accepted for publication 20 February 2014 nutrient availability, agricultural practices, and postharvest conditions (Giorgi *et al.*, 2005; Chludil *et al.*, 2008). In fruits, the phenolic composition varies greatly among cultivars and, generally, skin fruit tissues contain larger amounts of phenolics, anthocyanins and flavonols than flesh tissue (Wang *et al.*, 1996). Due to chemical structure, these compounds are able to react with many active substances in the human body, showing high antioxidant activity (Amić *et al.*, 2003).

Peach is one of the most popular fruits in the world due to its high nutrient level and pleasant flavor. In addition to vitamins and carotenoids (Gil *et al.*, 2002) peach contains important phytonutrients such as phenolic acids and flavonoids (Prior and Cao, 2000; Tomás-Barberán *et al.*, 2001; Remorini *et al.*, 2008).

It is known that the antioxidant activity of peach fruit is dependent on rootstock/genotype combination, ripening time and post-harvest preservation (Di Vaio *et al.*, 2001; Scalzo *et al.*, 2005). Worldwide, peaches are still principally produced by grafting selected varieties onto rootstocks. In addition to conferring resistance to diseases and tolerance to stressed soil conditions, rootstocks differentially influence tree physiology resulting in differences in growth and vigor (Layne, 1994). Moreover, the effects of rootstock type on the mineral composition and sugar and organic acid content of the fruit have been reported (Di Vaio *et al.*, 2001). Nevertheless, present knowledge of rootstock effects on peach fruit quality, and particularly

on nutritional attributes of the fruit, is generally limited (Giorgi *et al.*, 2005).

Stresses such as drought, extreme temperatures, low soil quality, nutrient levels and/or the presence of herbicides and pathogens have direct consequences in the proportion of secondary metabolites produced by plants. Often, plants growing in poor nutrient habitats or under stressful soil conditions contain a greater proportion of secondary metabolites (Tang *et al.*, 1995) but there is scarce information about the effects of fertilizers on the production of phenolic compounds by plants.

Peaches ripen and deteriorate quickly at ambient temperature. Cold storage has always been used as the main method to slow these processes as well as the development of decay (Wang *et al.*, 2006). On the other hand, heat treatments have been used in postharvest fruit technology for insect disinfestations, decay control, ripening delay and modification of fruit responses to other stresses (Lurie, 1998; Paull and Chen, 2000). High-temperature stress induces biosynthesis of phenolic compounds such as flavonoids and phenylpropanoids (Wahid *et al.*, 2007).

'Flavorcrest' is a common yellow-flesh mid season peach variety, widely cultivated in Argentina. The aim of this study was to determine the effect of rootstock, fertilization and post-harvest heat treatments on the antioxidant capacity and total phenolic contents of fruits of this cultivar.

### 2. Materials and Methods

### Chemicals

2, 2-Diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl (DPPH), ascorbic acid, Folin-Ciocalteu reactive and anhydrous sodium carbonate was obtained from Sigma-Aldrich (Argentina); chlorogenic acid from Fluka (Argentina).

### Fruits

Samples (fruit) were obtained from plants grown in controlled experimental plots at the INTA San Pedro Agricultural Experimental Station (San Pedro, Buenos Aires, 33° 44′ 34.7′ S, 59° 47′ 34.4′′ W). The number of replicates is described in each different experiment. After harvest, fruits were immediately transported to the laboratory.

### Pre-harvest assays

Cultivar/Rootstock assay. The influence of genotype/rootstock combination was evaluated on fruits of the 'Flavorcrest' cultivar grafted on a) 'Mr. S 2/5' (natural hybrid of *Prunus cerasifera*); b) 'Flordaguard' (a sixth generation descendant from the cross 'Chico 11' x *Prunus davidiana* (Carr.) Franch, C-26712. 'Chico 11' was a seedling of 'Shau Thai', PI 65821) (Sherman *et al.*, 1991); and c) 'Cuaresmillo' (a selection of *Prunus persica* (L.) Batsch, from seedlings of a population grown in mountainous regions of western Argentina) (Valentini *et al.*, 2003).

A randomized block design was used for the experiment, with five replications per treatment and three trees per replication.

Twenty fruits per cultivar/rootstock combination were harvested at commercial maturity stage. Ten fruits were selected for chemical evaluation.

Fertilization assay. Evaluation of the fertilization effects was carried out on fruit harvested from trees growing on soils belonging to the order of Mollisols, great group Argiudoles, sub-group Vertico (Ramallo series). Soils of this series are fertile, lightly acidic in the surface, with a good content of organic matter and silty clay loam texture. The transition to the B2t horizon is gradual. The study was carried out on trees planted in June of 2005.

The experiment was comprised of a randomized block design with 12 plants, three plants per block. The assay consisted of four treatments: N, NK, NP, and NPK. Peach trees without fertilizer were used as control (C). Phosphorus, as calcium triple superphosphate (46-48% P<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>), 60 g/plant, and potassium, as potassium chloride (60% K<sub>2</sub>O), 100 g/plant were applied after planting. Nitrogen, as calcium nitrate (15.5% N), 20 g/plant, was applied after planting in four different moments: November and December 2005, and September and October 2006. The data regarding tree vigor (trunk diameter and cumulative weight of pruned wood) have been published previously by González and Del Pardo (2011).

### Post-harvest assay

Heat shock assay. Heat treatments were applied inside an adapted walk-in cooler (Frutitec, Río Negro, Argentina) provided with refrigeration, heating and humidification systems. The fruit was heated to 20, 34, and 42°C (±1°C), 90% RH, and kept at these conditions for 24 h. Another batch of fruit was cooled to 0°C±0.5°C and kept in cold storage for 24 h. A pool of fruit without treatment was used as control (C). The fruit was evaluated after 24 h and then kept at 20°C for 72 h.

### Fruit quality parameters

Flesh firmness (FF) was measured on two opposite sides in the equatorial zone of individual fruits with an Effegi 327 Fruit Pressure Tester (Milano, Italy) and expressed as kg/cm². Total soluble solids (TSS) were determined in juice from the longitudinal side opposite the suture, with an N1 Atago hand refractometer (Osaka, Japan) and reported as °Brix. Color determination was performed with a Minolta Chroma Meter CR-300 (Osaka, Japan). Results were expressed as  $L^*$ ,  $C^*$  [ $(a^2 + b^2)^{\frac{1}{2}}$ ] and  $h^o$  (tan¹ b/a) color units calculated from  $a^*$  (green chromaticity) and  $b^*$  (yellow chromaticity).

### Sample extractions

Extractions were carried out using 3 g of fresh fruit skin or flesh homogenized in 15 ml of 7% acetic acid in methanol. Tubes were stored for 24 h at 4°C. They were then centrifuged (10 min at 2000 g), filtered and stored at 4°C in darkness until use. Ten fruits per treatment were processed for chemical analyses.

### Fruit functional quality

Assay of DPPH radical scavenging activity. The DPPH method was adapted from Brand-Williams *et al.* (1995). A total of 20 μl of peel extract or 200 μl of flesh extract were diluted to 1 ml with methanol. The diluted sample reacted with 2 ml of DPPH <sup>+</sup> (150 μM in methanol) at 30°C. Decrease in absorbance was measured at 517 nm after 30 min. Results were expressed as μmols of ascorbic acid equivalents/g of fresh weight (μmol AEAC/g FW).

Total phenolic content. Total phenolic content (TPC) was determined by the Folin-Ciocalteu method (Swain and Hillis, 1959) using chlorogenic acid as standard for the calibration curve. Results were expressed as μmols of chlorogenic acid equivalent/g of fresh weight (CAE/g FW). The sample (20 μl of peel extract or 200 μl of flesh extract) or standard (0, 50, 100, 200, 300, 400, 500 μl of 0.4 g/l chlorogenic acid) were diluted with water to a final volume of 4.45 ml. 50 μl of Folin-Ciocalteu reagent (2 N) were added. After 3 min sodium carbonate (0.1 N) was added. Results were read at 725 nm after 1 h.

### Statistical analyses

Data were submitted to analysis of variance and Duncan tests were conducted to identify differences among means. Pearson Correlation test was used to determine the correlations among means. Statistical significance was declared at p<0.05.

### 3. Results and Discussion

Fruit quality parameters

Cultivar/Rootstock assay. Rootstock influence was found to not be significant for firmness (6.8-7.5 kg/cm²) and soluble solid content (10.9-11.3°Brix). While fruit skin lightness (L\*) and hue angle (h°) values were significantly higher in 'Flavorcrest' fruits grafted on 'Mr.S 2/5' and 'Flordaguard' rootstock, while chroma values (C\*) were not significantly affected by rootstock (Table 1).

Fertilization assay. Fruit from NP and NPK treatments presented the greatest firmness with no significant differences in comparison to control. Although fertilizer affected soluble solid content, it did not have pronounced effects. Fruit skin color characteristics, lightness  $(L^*)$ , hue angle  $(h^o)$  and chroma  $(C^*)$  values showed no significant differences with fertilizer treatments (Table 1).

*Heat shock assay.* In general, fruit firmness decreased after storage at 20°C for 72 h. Flesh lightness (L\*) and hue angle (*h*°) were not modified by treatments. Chroma (C\*) values decreased with 34 °C treatments (24 h) with respect to control (Table 1).

Table 1 - Firmness (FF), total soluble solids (TSS) and color (LCH system) of 'Flavorcrest' peach fruit grafted on 'Mr.S 2/5', 'Flordaguard' and 'Cuaresmillo' rootstocks included in fertilization and heat shock assays

Treatment	FF	TSS	L	С	Н		
	-		Peel color characteristics				
Rootstock							
Mr. S 2/5	6.81 a	11.31 a	69.03 a	46.64 a	85.63 a		
Flordaguard	7.41 a	11.20 a	66.86 a	45.85 a	79.44 a		
Cuaresmillo	7.21 a	10.88 a	62.34 b	44.86 a	71.18 b		
Fertilization							
C	5.95 a	12.16 a	55.67 a	43.55 a	61.48 a		
N	4.77 b	11.13 b	59.38 a	45.44 a	63.95 a		
NP	5.77 a	11.96 ab	57.81 a	45.58 a	61.14 a		
NK	3.93 c	11.40 ab	56.84 a	45.17 a	59.95 a		
NPK	5.16 ab	11.97 b	55.15 a	45.23 a	58.04 a		
Heat Shock				Flesh color characteristics			
Control	7.87 a	11.02 ab	73.94 a	49.64 a	99.80 a		
0°C	7.84 a	10.96 ab	74.16 a	46.88 ab	98.92 a		
20°C	7.42 a	10.70 b	73.63 a	46.35 ab	98.43 a		
34°C	7.70 a	11.20 ab	74.57 a	44.13 b	99.49 a		
42°C	8.12 a	12.45 a	75.15 a	45.94 ab	97.55 a		
Control + 3D	5.92 a	11.44 a	73.83 a	48.72 a	96.49 a		
0°C + 3D	5.88 a	11.20 a	71.44 a	46.67 a	96.87 a		
20°C + 3D	2.79 b	11.28 a	72.99 a	46.56 a	95.99 a		
34°C + 3D	4.47 ab	11.58 a	72.33 a	45.25 a	94.86 a		
42°C + 3D	2.01 b	12.05 a	70.96 a	47.45 a	92.72 a		

Values are the mean of 30 replications. Means followed by the same letters are not significantly different (p=0.05).

### Fruit functional quality

Cultivar/Rootstock assay. Total antioxidant capacity was determined in fruit flesh and skin. The fruit flesh of 'Flavorcrest' grafted on 'Flordaguard' and 'Mr. S 2/5', both middle vigor rootstocks, presented the highest AEAC/g FW values, with 1.77 and 1.65 µmols of ascorbic acid equivalents/g of fresh weight, respectively (Fig. 1). Previous studies have shown that total antioxidant capacity changes as a function of the rootstock. Remorini et al. (2008) demonstrated that 'Mr.S 2/5' produced fruits with the highest total antioxidant capacity, attributing this to low-vigor properties. Despite these results, they did not find a link between rootstock vigor and total antioxidant capacity. On the other hand, Scalzo et al. (2005) observed higher antioxidant capacity values with vigorous rootstock. Light has been reported to be one of the major environmental factors that affect phenolic production (Par and Bolwell, 2000). Fruits of dense foliage trees receive less light and this could affect the phenolic content. Phenolics are the major antioxidant compounds in peach fruits (Tomás-Barberan et al., 2001).

Fruit skin total antioxidant capacity was approximately five times higher (8.8-10.6  $\mu$ mols AEAC/g FW) than that of flesh and showed no significant differences between rootstocks (Fig. 1).

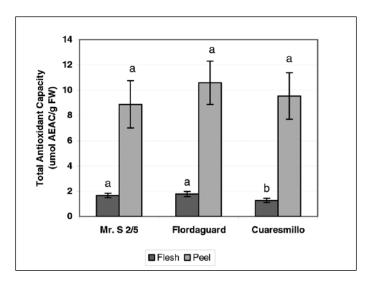
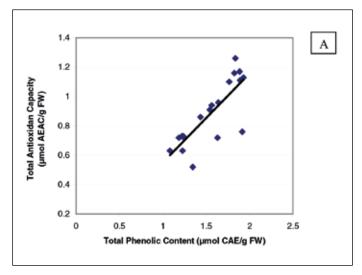


Fig. 1 - Total antioxidant capacity determined by DPPH assay in flesh and peel of fruits of Flavorcrest cultivar grafted on 'Mr.S 2/5', 'Flordaguard' and 'Cuaresmillo' rootstocks. Values are means ( $\pm$  s.e.) of 10 replicates. Inside each group (flesh or peel), means followed by the same letters are not significantly different (p= 0.05).

The effect of rootstock on flesh total phenolic content was significantly different. 'Flavorcrest' grafted on 'Flordaguard' (1.14  $\mu$ mol CAE/g FW) and 'Mr.S 2/5' (1.02 CAE/g FW) showed the highest values. Fruit skin TPC was higher (ten times) than that of flesh and no differences were observed between rootstocks. Other authors also found a higher phenolic content in fruit skin com-

pared to flesh (Tomás-Barberán *et al.*, 2001; Remorini *et al.*, 2008), reporting values two to four times higher.

Total antioxidant capacity and total phenolic content were positively correlated in flesh (r= 0.8052) and peel (r= 0.8190), which suggests that phenolic compounds greatly contribute to the total antioxidant capacity (Fig. 2).



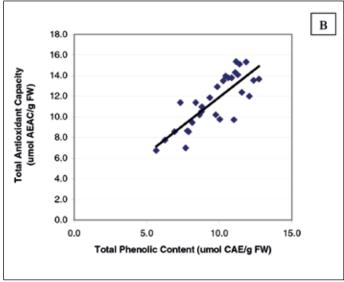


Fig. 2 - Correlation between total phenolic content (μmol CA/g FW) and total antioxidant capacity (μmol AEAC/g FW) of flesh A) and B) fruit skin of Flavorcrest cultivar, grafted on 'Mr.S 2/5', 'Flordaguard' and, 'Cuaresmillo' rootstocks.

### **Fertilization**

Flesh from control fruits (without fertilization) had the highest antioxidant capacity (2.2  $\mu$ mols AEAC/g FW), whereas the antioxidant capacity decreased (with respect to control) when N (1.55  $\mu$ mols AEAC/g FW), NP (1.75  $\mu$ mols AEAC/g FW) and NPK (1.79  $\mu$ mols AEAC/g FW) treatments were applied, and even more so with NK (1.32  $\mu$ mols AEAC/g FW). Fruit skin showed no significant differences (Fig. 3).

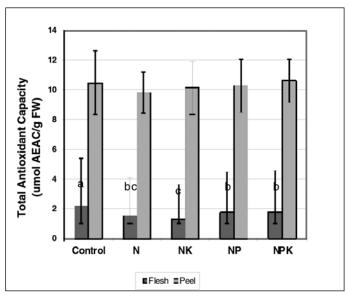


Fig. 3 - Total antioxidant capacity determined by DPPH assay in flesh and fruit skin of Flavorcrest cultivar under fertilizer N, NK, NP and NPK. Values are means ( $\pm$ s.E.) of 10 replicates. In bars corresponding to flesh values, means followed by the same letters are not significantly different (p= 0.05).

According to the 'C/N balance theory', when N is readily available, plants will primarily synthesize compounds with high N content (e.g. protein to growth). Instead when N availability is limited, metabolism changes towards carbon-containing compounds such as starch, cellulose, and non N-containing secondary metabolites such as phenolics and terpenoides (Haukioja *et al.*, 1998). In plants, it has been shown that competition between protein and phenolic synthesis exists for the common precursor L-phenylalanine (Riipi *et al.*, 2002). The relative differences in the release of nutrients from various fertilizers could lead to different C/N ratios in plants and this in turn leads to a difference in the production of secondary metabolites (Brandt and Molgaard, 2001).

Fertilization treatments were found to not significantly affect the vegetative variables (trunk cross sectional area and pruned wood) (González and Del Pardo, 2011). Environmental stresses including nutrient deficiency are known to activate the biosynthesis of phenylpropanoid compounds (Dixon and Paiva, 1995), which could explain why the highest antioxidant activity was found without fertilizer treatment.

The highest total phenolic content in flesh (3.37  $\mu$ mol CAE/g FW) and fruit skin (13.34  $\mu$ mol CAE/g FW) was obtained in plants without fertilization (C), which differed significantly from the rest of the treatments (Fig. 4). Flesh total phenolic content showed a low correlation with antioxidant capacity (r= 0.48).

### Heat shock treatments

In this assay, the effect of post-harvest temperature on the functional quality of fruit flesh was evaluated. Total antioxidant capacity was significantly different between fruit flesh evaluated at 24 h and fruit held at 20°C for 72 h. The

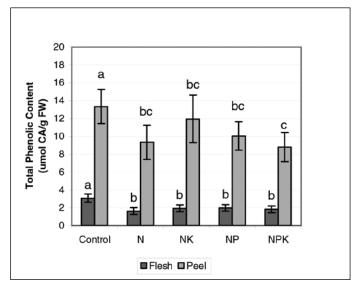


Fig. 4 - Total phenolic content determined by Folin-Ciocalteau assay in flesh and fruit skin of Flavorcrest cultivar under fertilizer N, NK, NP and NPK. Values are means (±s.E.) of 10 replicates.

moderate heat shock treatments (34°C and 42°C) at 24 h improved the antioxidant capacity (0.76  $\mu mols$  and 0.84  $\mu mols$  AEAC/g FW, respectively) in comparison to control (0.48  $\mu mols$  AEAC/g FW), 0°C (0.49  $\mu mols$  AEAC/g FW) and 20°C (0.52  $\mu mols$  AEAC/g FW). AEAC ( $\mu mol/g$  FW) showed no significant differences between treatments after keeping fruits for 72 h at 20°C. Comparing fruits evaluated at 24 and 72 h, the total antioxidant capacity was significantly increased in control, 0°C and 20°C treatments and significantly decreased in 34°C and 42°C treatments (Fig. 5).

Total phenolic content in the flesh, evaluated 24 h after treatment applications, was significantly higher at 34°C (0.41 CAE/g FW) and 42°C (0.49 CAE/g FW) than control

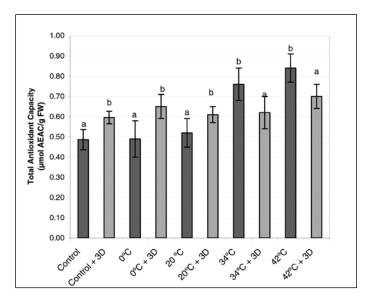


Fig. 5 Total antioxidant capacity determined by DPPH assay in flesh of Flavorcrest cultivar submitted to different temperature treatments: 0, 20, 34, and 42°C. Fruit was evaluated at 24 h (dark grey bars) and after 72 h (light grey bars) from treatment application. Each bar indicates the mean (±s.E.) of 5 replications.

(0.30 CAE/g FW), 0°C (0.30 CAE/g FW) and 20°C (0.34 CAE/g FW), following the same behavior as antioxidant capacity. After 72 h at 20°C, all treatments differenced of control. When treatments for the two evaluation periods (24 and 72 h) were compared, the only heat treatment that showed a significant difference was 42°C (Fig. 6). There was a positive correlation between total antioxidant capacity and total phenolic content (r=0.67) (Fig. 7).

Heat treatment affects several aspects of fruit ripening such as ethylene production and cell wall degradation (Lurie, 1998). Thermal stress enhances activities of oxidative stress

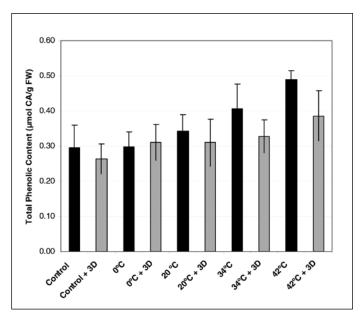


Fig. 6 - Total phenolic content determined by Folin-Ciocalteau assay in flesh of Flavorcrest cultivar subjected to different temperature treatments: 0, 20, 34, and 42°C (± 1°C). Fruit was evaluated at 24 h (Black bars) and after 72 h (gray bars) from treatment application. Each bar indicates the mean (± s.e.) of 5 replications.

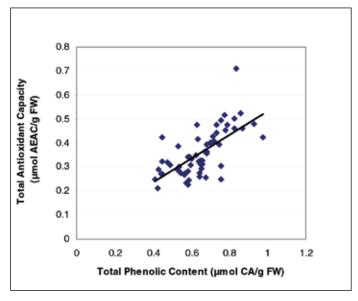


Fig. 7 - Correlation between total phenolic content ( $\mu$ mol CA/g FW) and total antioxidant capacity ( $\mu$ mol AEAC/g FW) of fruit flesh in the heat treatment assay.

enzymes and induces the accumulation of phenolic compounds like flavonoids and phenylpropanoids (Wahid *et al.*, 2007). A previous study on peach cultivars showed that heat treatments promoted the development of red color in the fruit flesh (Budde *et al.*, 2002) which could link these phenomena to an increased synthesis of phenolic compounds.

### 4. Conclusions

The results of this study show that pre-harvest (root-stocks and fertilization) and post-harvest (heat shock) treatments influence the functional quality of 'Flavorcrest' peach fruits. 'MrS. 2/5' and 'Flordaguard' rootstocks produced fruits with the highest antioxidant capacity and phenolic content, whereas 'Cuaresmillo', the most commonly used peach rootstock in our peach growing area, showed the lowest. Although these results could be attributed to vigor it is not possible to determine a general behavior; assays with other rootstocks could be useful.

It has been reported that soluble phenolics are the principal contributors to the total antioxidant capacity. The accelerated plant growth induced by fertilization may cause a reduction in concentrations of phenylpropanoids (Haukioja *et al.*, 1998), resulting in the lowest antioxidant capacity observed in fertilized treatments.

Heat stress causes accumulation of secondary metabolites of a multifarious nature in plants (Wahid *et al.*, 2007). While higher antioxidant capacity was observed in heat-treated fruit at 24 h, the total antioxidant capacity values were similar to those observed in non heat-treated fruit after they were held for 72 h at 20°C.

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### Agronomic performance and essential oil composition of Ocimum basilicum L.: Effect of genotype and date of harvest

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Key words: green basil, purple basil, soilless culture, volatile oils, yield.

Abstract: An experiment was conducted to assess the agronomic performance and essential oil composition of *Ocimum basilicum* L. (basil) with two genotypes during autumn-winter cycle, in a hydroponic system in greenhouse. Genotypes (i.e. green and purple) were provided to study productive parameters. Two harvest dates and both genotypes formed treatments to investigate oil composition and its stability. One pruning was made before the last harvests. Results of fresh and dry weight (g. plant¹), absolute growth rate (g. day¹) and relative growth (g. g¹.day¹) and yield (g. plant¹) showed great differences in comparison with the optimal growing season values. Although pruning encourages new growth, it was strongly reduced in purple basil. Essential oil composition varied for both genotypes and between harvest dates. Linalool prevailed at the first harvest date whereas methyl-eugenol increased towards the second harvest date, and significantly in purple basil. Radiation and temperature data showed a downward trend during the cycle which influenced biomass production and essential oil composition. Green basil had better productive behavior than the purple variety. Essential oil stability between harvest dates varied for both genotypes. Pruning strongly affected purple basil growth which altered essential oil composition. The findings presented in this study confirm that it is possible to grow basil in autumn-winter season in greenhouse. Although yield slightly decreases in comparison with optimal growing season, high quality aromatic plants can be obtained.

### 1. Introduction

Sweet Basil (Ocimum basilicum L.) is an annual herbaceous crop cultivated mainly for culinary purposes. There is a significant demand by consumers seeking fresh and high quality herbs all year round. The volatile oils in basil are responsible for its characteristic aroma (Fischer et al., 2011) and flavor as a condiment, which along with color and freshness determine its commercial value. Essential oil aromatic compounds and productive behavior are affected by the environment, genotype and agronomic techniques. Some chemotypes from different geographic origins have been classified based on the aroma profiles of essential oil (Suppakul et al., 2003). Another classification of O. basilicum cultivars has been made according to morphology, height, leaf color, dimension and flower color (Darrah, 1980). Yield and essential oil composition are remarkably variable between purple and green genotypes (Marotti et al., 1996; Sajjadi, 2006) which also differ in biomass yield

(1) Corresponding author: avazquez@agro.uba.ar Received for publication 13 September 2013 Accepted for publication 21 January 2014 (Hochmuth and Leon, 1999). Basil is cultivated under a range of conditions but temperate climates are the most suitable for the crop. Chang et al. (2005) stated that the maximum dry matter content was obtained with temperatures of 30°C. Putievsky (1983) reported that increasing daytime temperatures between 21°C and 30°C enhanced plant height. Light influences essential oil composition and productive behavior. When the irradiance level decreases the methyl-eugenol content increases, plants are smaller, have thinner leaves, less dry and fresh weight, sprouts and foliar area, whereas with high irradiance levels, linalool, eugenol and the total content of essential oil rise and photosynthesis and growth rate increase. Under high irradiance conditions, more photosynthates are biosynthesized and a greater amount of secondary metabolites accumulate (Chang et al., 2008). Although this aromatic crop is grown in open field and greenhouse conditions, hydroponic basil cultivation in a protected environment is an efficient commercial alternative, most importantly for those areas with limited agricultural soils and dependant on irrigation (Hassanpouraghdam et al., 2010). The benefits of this system include high quality plants, rapid growth, off-season and

all-year-round production, maximizing the benefits for producers. On the other hand, in a pure hydroponic system the nutritive solution is recycled, reducing the environmental impact and with minimal groundwater contamination (Resh, 2001). Nutritive solution management is important to obtain plants with high yield and good quality.

Studies regarding electrical conductivity demonstrated that the highest fresh weight (g.plant<sup>-1</sup>) was obtained with 1.5 ds.m<sup>-1</sup> and it did not affect essential oil concentration (Carrasco and Izquierdo, 1996), while values above 3 ds.m<sup>-1</sup> affected plant growth. Considering environmental conditions, the production system and the different varieties of *Ocimum basilicum* L., the aim of this work was to evaluate the agronomic performance and essential oil composition of green and purple genotypes during the autumn-winter cycle.

#### 2. Materials and Methods

The trials were carried out in the experimental fields of the Horticultural Department of Agriculture College of the University of Buenos Aires, in a polyethylene-metallic greenhouse. Seeds of two varieties of basil, purple and green (Ocimum basilicum var. Violeto and Ocimum basilicum var. Genovese) were obtained from Zorzi, di Hortus sementi SRL. Seeds were sown, at the beginning of autumn to finish the crop cycle in winter, in expanded polystyrene growing trays on a soilless media mix (vermiculite, peat moss, perlite and fertilizer NPK with micro elements 1.3 g l<sup>-1</sup>, pH 5.5-6.5, with fine structure). The trays were located in a hydroponic floating system until the seedlings had two to three pairs of unfolded leaves. Plants were transplanted into a closed hydroponic NFT (Nutrient Film Technique) system. A low polyamide tunnel was built to avoid frost damage and it was used from late afternoon to early morning each day. The nutrient solution was composed of Ammonium Nitrate 5.625 g, Potassium Nitrate 75 g, Calcium Nitrate 93.75 g, Mono Potassium Phosphate 28.13 g, Magnesium Sulphate 33.75 g and micro elements 18.75 c.c. Crop density was 25 pl. m<sup>-2</sup>. Electrical conductivity and pH of the nutrient solution were measured three times a week. Environmental temperature (°C), radiation (W.m<sup>-2</sup>), relative humidity and nutrient solution temperature (°C) were measured using a data logger (Hobo). Thermal time was calculated using base temperature for basil (T  $_{base} = 10.9$ °C),

#### A. Plant growth

Fresh and dry, aerial and root plant weight (g.plant<sup>-1</sup>), number of leaves, root density (g.cm<sup>-3</sup>), plant height (cm), absolute growth rate (AGR g.d<sup>-1</sup>), relative growth rate (RGR g.g<sup>-1</sup>.d<sup>-1</sup>) and yield (g. m<sup>-2</sup>) were measured throughout the cycle.

# B. Identification and quantification of volatile oils

Oil extraction. Essential oil analysis was carried out with leaves harvested on two harvest dates with an interval of 37 days between them for both genotypes. Basil samples were collected during a period of 92 days in the

autumn-winter season and two harvests were made with a pruning between them: sample 1 (5 days after transplant), sample 2 (13 days after transplant), sample 3 (21 days after transplant), sample 4 (29 days after transplant), sample 5 (first harvest and 50 days after transplant), pruning, sample 6 (second harvest and 92 days after transplant).

Fresh leaf material (250 g per sample) was subjected to a 2-h water distillation using a Clevenger type apparatus where material and distilled water where located. A refrigerant attached to the distillation balloon allowed accumulation and separation of the essential oil from the condensed mixture. The oils obtained were dried over anhydrous sodium sulfate.

Identification of volatile oils. The essential oils were analyzed by CG-FID-MS, with Perkin Elmer GC equipment model Clarus 500. Chromatograph operating conditions with CG-FID-MS were: Helium as a carrier gas at a constant flow rate of 1.87 ml/min, and an auto sampler connected to an injector split (Split rate: 1:100) in turn connected to a flux divisor of two fused silica capillary column (polar and no polar). The temperature parameters were T. initial: 90°C; ramp (3°C /min); T. final: 225°C (15 min); T. injector: 255°C; T. detector: 275°C; final run time 70 min; mass range scanned 40-400 m/z. The injected samples consisted of 0.2 µl in a dilution of 10% ethanol.

The components of the essential oil were identified by comparing their retention times obtained from the two columns of different polarity with those of authentic samples and/or data in the literature, and comparison with the mass spectra in the database of the Pharmacognosy Department of the University of Buenos Aires and other commercial sources. The relative percentage amounts of the volatile oil constituents were evaluated from total peak area (TIC).

Statistical analysis. The experiment was conducted in a complete randomized block design repeated over time, with three replications. The treatments for growth stage were green genotype and purple genotype. The treatments for essential oil analysis were according to harvest date (first and second) and genotype: green genotype, 92 days after transplant (DAT); purple genotype, 92 DAT; green genotype, 50 DAT; purple genotype, 50 DAT. Data was analyzed by ANOVA and means were compared by Tukey test at the 0.05 probability level.

## 3. Results and Discussion

Plant growth

Fresh and dry aerial weight. The aerial fresh weight was significantly different between genotypes (p<0.0001) and harvest dates (p<0.0001). On the third sample date, the differences between genotypes began to be greater. On the fifth sample date the difference for green genotype climbed up to a 47%, a result that coincided with other authors who obtained 91% more biomass for green genotypes than purple (Neikin and Schuch, 2010).

The data from the present study contrast with a crop

grown in optimum season, as reported by some authors for green basil with values between 64.44 and 110.33 g.plant<sup>-1</sup> (Benito and Chiesa, 2000; Carrasco *et al.*, 2007) and fresh weights of 57.84 g.plant<sup>-1</sup> and 41.50 g.plant<sup>-1</sup> for purple basil (Krizaj, 2010). Differences in aerial dry weight between genotypes (p<0.0001) and date of harvest (p<0.0001) were significant. Aerial dry weight followed the same trend as aerial fresh weight (Fig. 1). The values recorded for 50 DAT (Table 1) were lower than those registered in the same productive system in optimum season, with 10% fewer days of cycle; green and purple genotype with 6.72 g.plant<sup>-1</sup> and 4.26 g. plant<sup>-1</sup> (Krizaj, 2010) respectively. An increase of 92% and 184% compared to values reported in this experiment.

Fresh and dry root weight. There were statistical dif-

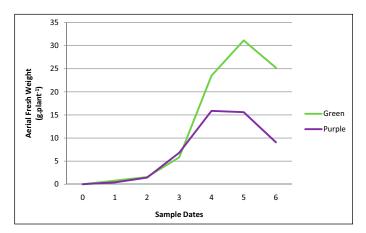


Fig. 1 - Fresh aerial weight (g.plant<sup>-1</sup>) over the whole growth cycle (5<sup>th</sup> sample date = first harvest; 6<sup>th</sup> sample date = second harvest) for both genotypes.

Table 1 - Growth parameters for both genotypes 50 days after transplant. Average values and standard error

Crowth recomptant (a plant)	Genotype				
Growth parameters (g.plant <sup>-1</sup> )	Green	Purple			
Aerial fresh weight	31.14±0.23	16.5±2.18			
Root fresh weight	18.13±0.23	6.5±1.80			
Aerial dry weight	3.5±0.01	1.5±0.10			
Root dry weight	0.7±0.02	0.43±0.12			

ferences in fresh and dry root weight (Table 1) between genotypes ( $p_{fresh}$ = 0.0007 and  $p_{dry}$  = 0.0024) and date of harvest ( $p_{fresh}$ <0.0001 and  $p_{dry}$ <0.0001).

#### Aerial and root dry matter

Aerial dry matter differed significantly between genotypes (p=0.0339) and sample dates (p=0.0169). The difference increased greatly for green basil at the third sample date. At the first harvest (50 DAT), dry matter percentage for purple basil was 19% lower than the green basil value (Table 2). The data obtained was similar to other authors'

results, in protected environments and soilless systems, for green (11.67%) and purple basil (9.85%) (Cenóz and Burgos, 2010). These authors also concluded that dry matter (%) was effectively reduced in protected environment systems compared with other systems (Cenóz and Burgos, 2010). However, other experiments did not show significant differences in dry matter between genotypes in optimum season for NFT system (Krizaj, 2010). The present study was carried out in autumn-winter and both genotypes performed differently which would suggest a noticeably genotypic effect when the season is not optimal. Root dry weight was not significantly different between dates of harvest and genotypes.

Table 2 - Aerial and root dry matter values 50 days after transplant for both genotypes. Mean values and standard error

Genotype	Areal dry matter (%)	Root dry matter (%)
Green	11.24±0.1	3.86±0.05
Purple	9.26±1.92	7.33±3.68

Root density, plant height, leaf number and leaf apparition rate

Root density was significantly different between genotypes (p<0.0001) and sample dates (p<0.0001). Root density was markedly higher in purple basil at all sample dates except sample date 2, however root weight (dry and fresh) were not higher due to the high content of water and the lower percentage of dry matter. Significant differences were detected for plant height values between sample dates (p<0.0001) and genotypes (p<0.0115). From the third sample date, plant height was markedly higher for green basil until the end of the study. In optimal season studies (Benito and Chiesa, 2000) with similar growing cycle duration, taller plants were obtained with 133% more height in 56 days (79.8 cm). Leaf number also showed significant differences between sample dates (p<0.0001), however this difference was not significant between genotypes. In a shorter cycle (10% fewer days) in optimum season, 124% more leaves were obtained (120 leaves.plant<sup>-1</sup>)(Krizaj, 2010); 208% more leaves.plant<sup>-1</sup> in NFT in greenhouse (Carrasco et al., 2007). Parameter values are presented in Table 3. Leaf apparition rate 50 DAT was 1.074 leaves.day<sup>-1</sup> for green and 21% lower for purple basil (0.84 leaves.day<sup>-1</sup>).

## Absolute and relative growth rates

Green basil maintained a higher absolute growth rate (AGR) over almost all the cycle period, and reached the maximum (1.86 g.day<sup>-1</sup>) on the fourth sample date (29 DAT) as did purple basil (0.74 g.day<sup>-1</sup>). On the contrary, the highest relative growth rate (RGR) for both genotypes was reached with the first sample date (0.2 g.g<sup>-1</sup>.d<sup>-1</sup>). Both genotypes presented a downward trend over the study pe-

Table 3 - Growth parameters at each sample date for both genotypes. Mean values and standard error

Parameter	Genotype	1	2	3	4	5
Root density (g.cm <sup>-3</sup> )	Green	3.7±0.6	3.1±1.7	1.1±1	1.1±5	1.2±1.1
	Purple	$4.4 \pm 0.0$	2.9±1.3	1.2±4.3	1.3±0.01	1.2±1
Height (cm)	Green	10.6±0.4	7.7±1.5	13.7±3.5	25.6±3.8	34.3±1.2
	Purple	10.1±1.6	9.8±1	15.7±2.5	22.5±0.5	23.3±0.5
Leaves Number	Green	4±0.5	11±3.6	25±4.7	44±10.9	54±1.5
	Purple	5±1.1	10±3.7	21±11.9	43±1.5	42±1.7

riod (Figs. 2 and 3). Results obtained 50 DAT were notably low, supporting another author's findings (Krizaj, 2010). As expected, plant response to decreasing radiation and temperature was translated into lower parameter values in comparison with those of an optimal season. In general, until the fourth sample date, temperature and radiation allowed moderate photosynthesis and growth. From the beginning of the study, radiation declined 50% (from 406 W.m<sup>-2</sup> to 197 W.m<sup>-2</sup>).

Pruning between the first and second harvest stressed plants, however it caused a different effect in purple basil, which had a slower regrowth compared with the green variety. Purple genotype showed a lower leaf apparition rate

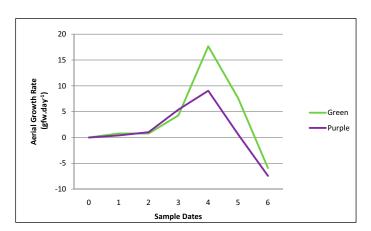


Fig. 2 - Absolute growth rate (AGR) for aerial fresh weight (g fw.day<sup>-1</sup>) for both genotypes during the cycle. Values represent the mean.

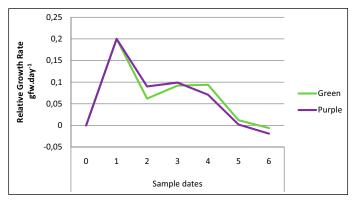


Fig. 3 - Relative growth rate (RGR) for aerial fresh weight (g fw.g<sup>-1</sup>. day<sup>-1</sup>) for both genotypes during the cycle. Values represent the mean.

than the green genotype during the cycle. This was added to the adverse environmental conditions after pruning, which led to a slower recovery. Average temperature during the study was inferior to optimal for the species and showed a downward trend, furthermore it was outside the range for maximum dry matter accumulation. The data revealed a genotypic effect in growth response in the autumn-winter season that does not occur in an optimal season (Krizaj, 2010). The contrast in behavior between genotypes was noted when environmental conditions began to be adverse. Relative humidity, nutritive solution temperature, electrical conductivity and nutritive solution pH did not show great variations that could influence growth parameters. Although thermal time 50 DAT was 50% lower than thermal time achieved in optimal season for the same duration and crop conditions (Krizaj, 2010), it was possible to grow basil under protection in the autumn-winter season.

#### Biomass yield: descriptive analyses

Biomass yield for green basil, 50 DAT, was 778.5 g.m<sup>-2</sup> and 412.5 g.m<sup>-2</sup> for purple basil. In contrast, greater values were obtained in an optimal season in open field, with yields between 1000 and 1500 g.m<sup>-2</sup> for green genotype (Gill and Randhawa, 1996), 29% and 92% more respectively than found in the present investigation. Also, in greenhouse and NFT system and in optimal season, 86% and 151% more biomass yield was obtained for green and purple basil respectively (Krizaj, 2010). At the fifth sample date (first harvest) fresh weight yield per square meter was 778.5 g.m<sup>-2</sup> for green basil and 47% lower (412.5 g.m<sup>-2</sup>) for purple basil. At the second harvest date, after pruning, green and purple genotype yielded 630.5 g.m<sup>-2</sup> and 227 g.m<sup>-2</sup> respectively.

## Volatile oil analysis

Essential oil composition and genotype effect. GC-MS analyses identified 32 aromatic compounds in green and 30 aromatic compounds in purple basil. In both cases the identified compounds account for 94% of the total. The composition is expressed relative to 100%, as each peak has an area and the total of areas is 100%. The essential oils from *O. basilicum* show significant differences between genotypes: linalool (p= 0.0001), eugenol (p=0.0457), methyl- eugenol (p=0.0001), alpha transbergamotene (p= 0.0251), 1.8 cineol (p= 0.0113) and tau cadinol (p= 0.0253). The other components were not consid-

ered in the statistical analyses as they were only detected in some samples and with extremely low values. Values for the main compounds are shown in Figure 4.

## Date of harvest effect

The mean percentages of linalool (p=0.0001) and methyl-eugenol present significant differences between dates of harvest (p=0.0019) whereas eugenol, alpha transbergamotene, 1.8 cineol and tau cadinol values did not show significant variation between dates.

The mean contents for linalool and methyl eugenol for both genotypes varied as follows: linalool from 41.8% at the first harvest date to 25.7% at the second; methyl-eugenol from 5.78% at the first harvest date to 18.78% at the second. Linalool significantly decreased at the second harvest while methyl eugenol increased, however the content was lower than linalool as seen in figures 5 and 6.

Different radiation led to essential oil variations. It could be that the highest radiation level before the first harvest led to higher rates of linalool. Radiation decreased over the period of the experiment: at the second harvest date lower levels of methyl- eugenol were found. This might be explained by the fact that in this moment radiation was lower. Unlike other authors' findings (Chang et al., 2008), in this study no differences in eugenol values between dates of harvest were found. Temperature influences aromatic compounds and metabolic activity of plants. The effect of temperature at 25°C, in which the highest contents of linalool, 1.8 cineol and eugenol are obtained, was reported (Chang et al., 2005). Although is known that geranial pyrophosphate is precursor of both linalool and 1.8 cineol, and the enzymes linalool synthetase and 1.8 cineol synthetase were identified, the environmental effects on the enzymes activity is not clear at the moment. (Chang et al., 2005). In this study, linalool percentages in the two successive harvests (36.6% and 22.7%) were higher than values reported by other authors in hydroponic systems (Fernandes et al., 2004). Higher radiation and moderate temperatures before the first harvest date might explain the higher content of linalool for both genotypes.

Eugenol is metilated to methyl- eugenol by the enzyme eugenol-O-methyl-transferase (Lewinsohn *et al.*, 2000;

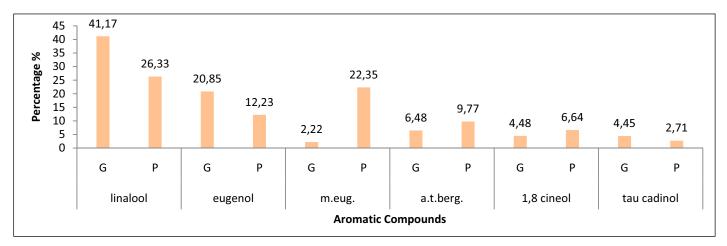


Fig. 4 - Percentage composition of the main aromatic compounds of basil essential oil for both genotypes (G= green, P= purple). Mean value of the two harvest dates (Methyl eugenol= m.eug, Alpha-trans-bergamotene= a.t.berg.).

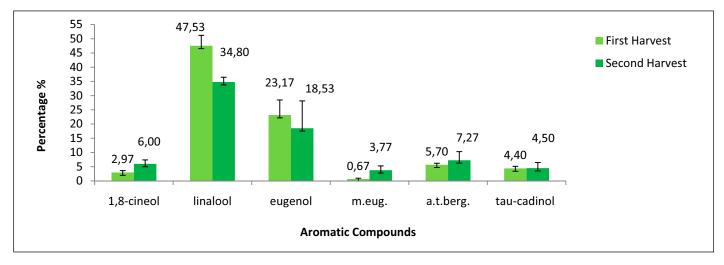


Fig. 5 - Percentages (relative to total in essential oil= 100%) of the main aromatic compounds of basil essential oil for green genotype at first and second harvest. Mean values ± standard error (Methyl eugenol= m.eug, Alpha-trans-bergamotene= a.t.berg.).

Robison and Barr, 2006). Methyl- eugenol is in the group of the alikobenzenes together with iso-eugenol, eugenol, estragol and safrol, which are considered carcinogenic following the tested effects on rats and mice after intake of high doses. The effect in human beings generates certain concern, however the doses at which humans are exposed through diet (mainly via intake) are very low (Robison and Barr, 2006).

Methyl- eugenol content is related to vegetal tissue age. Greater enzyme activity in young leaves was reported (Lewinsohn et al., 2000). This supports other authors who state that enzyme activity is significantly greater in young and developmental leaves than in mature leaves, because as the leaf develops it produces glandular trichomes with high levels of this enzyme (Gang et al., 2002). In young leaves there are more trichomes per unit area before cell expansion (Gang et al., 2001) but when glands reach maturity, enzyme levels decrease. In totally mature plants of O. basilicum var. Genovese methyl- eugenol was not found (Marotti et al., 1996). In mature hydroponic plants in greenhouse a percentage similar to this study was found for O. basilicum var. Genovese (0, 6% methyl-eugenol in leaves) (Hassangpouraghdam et al., 2010).

In the present investigation, agronomic techniques (pruning) and environmental conditions may have influenced the content of this compound. Pruning after the first harvest decreased sinks, caused regrowth and the development of abundant young tissue, which might have influenced the rise in glandular trichome density, and as a consequence, the higher amount and activity of the eugenol-O-methyl-transferase

At the sixth sample date (second harvest), methyl-eugenol content increased in the essential oil of both genotypes. The increase was remarkably higher in purple basil (33.80%). This result could be due to the slower regrowth of this variety, with a lower foliar apparition rate throughout the cycle (at sixth sample date foliar apparition rate was 1.01 leaves.day<sup>-1</sup> in purple basil and 1.52 leaves.day<sup>-1</sup> in green basil) which led to a greater amount of young and

developmental leaves with elevated density of trichomes and eugenol-O-methyl-transferase enzyme activity.

#### 4. Conclusions

The agronomic performance of green basil was greater throughout the growing cycle. This genotype showed greater fresh and dry weight (aerial and root), dry matter percentage, number of leaves, plant height and total biomass yield than purple basil. The environment could have influenced agronomic performance and volatile oils composition. Hence, it can be concluded that variations in aromatic compounds and the productive behavior were affected by temperature and radiation.

Differences in volatile oils between dates of harvest and genotypes was clear. At the fifth sample date (first harvest) linalool prevailed in green and purple basil, but in green basil it was significantly higher. At the sixth sample date (second harvest) methyl- eugenol content increased in both genotypes but the increase was markedly higher in purple basil. Pruning after the first harvest might have promoted sprouts, but in purple basil it also might have decreased yield because regrowth after the cut is more difficult for this variety. This difficulty was also enhanced by the environmental conditions (sub-optimal radiation and temperatures). It is also concluded that this agronomic technique could have altered the methyl- eugenol content.

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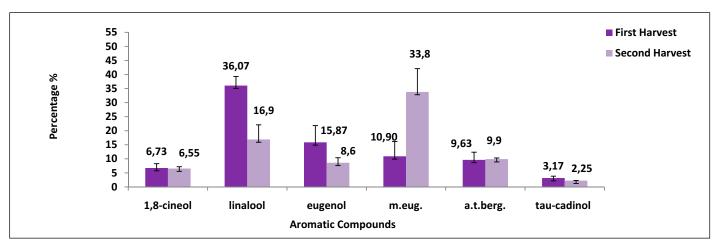


Fig. 6 - Percentages (relative to total in essential oil= 100%) of the main aromatic compounds of basil essential oil for purple genotype at first and second harvest. Mean values ± standard error (Methyl eugenol= m.eug, Alpha-trans-bergamotene= a.t.berg.).

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# Post-storage quality and physiological responses of tomato fruits treated with polyamines

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Key words: chilling injury, electrolyte leakage, fruit quality, vitamin C.

Abstract: Two greenhouse F1 tomato cultivars, M19 and M79, were grown hydroponically and the mature green fruits were harvested and subjected to eight polyamine (PA) treatments including 1 and 2 mM putrescine (Put), spermidine (Spd) and their combination before being placed at 3°C for 15 and 25 days. Electrolyte leakage, weight loss, fruit firmness, decay percentage, chilling injury index, titratable acidity, total soluble solid content and ascorbic acid content were then measured after keeping at 20°C for 3 days and compared to control. The Put:Spd (2:2 mM) treatment decreased electrolyte leakage (over 50%), chilling injury index and fruit decay percentage. Combinations of PAs caused greater total soluble solids and greater effect on decreasing weight loss during storage when compared to their sole PA application. PAs caused a net increase in fruit firmness during post-harvest life. Titratable acidity increased with increasing duration of low temperature storage for all treatments. Ascorbic acid in fruits stored at low temperature for 25 days was greater than those stored for 15 days. The effects of exogenous PAs on reducing chilling-related disorders decreased with time. Correlations among weight loss, electrolyte leakage, chilling injury, decay percentage and fruit firmness during low temperature storage were positive and significant, but they were non-significant or significantly negative when compared against ascorbic acid, titratable acidity and TSS.

#### 1. Introduction

Tomato as a plant indigenous to tropical regions is susceptible to chilling injury when subjected to low temperature storage (Saltveit, 2001). Chilling injury limits tomato storage life and leads to significant degradation of fruit quality and decreases the market value. It can increase membrane permeability, and a resultant increase in leakage of ions from cell membrane, surface pitting, susceptibility to decay and diseases, weight losses, abnormal ripening, change in respiration, ethylene production and senescence. Chilling injury symptoms mainly develop during shelf life following cold storage (Candan *et al.*, 2007).

Numerous attempts, such as breeding for increased chilling tolerance, genetic engineering, modifying crop management practices and application of chemicals, have been made to increase chilling tolerance and avoid chilling injury (Baninasab, 2009). Chilling alleviation in fruits and vegetables has been attributed to several factors including accumulation of polyamines, nitric oxide and proline (Aghdam and Bodbodak, 2013).

Over the years, studies have shown the involvement of polyamines (PAs) in a wide array of processes in plants, ranging from triggering organogenesis to protecting against stress (Walden *et al.*, 1997). PA accumulation

It has been reported that exogenous PA application leads to an inhibition of ethylene emission rate in the climacteric fruits (Valero *et al.*, 2002) and delays ripening and fruit abscission (Paksasorn *et al.*, 1995). On the other hand, PAs are precursors of many important secondary metabolites and changes in PA biosynthesis appear to have a reciprocal effect on ethylene biosynthesis (Walden *et al.*, 1997). Accumulation of Put in tissues seems to be a general response of plants to chilling temperatures (Faust and Wang, 1992). Accordingly, we hypothesized that exogenous application of PAs may have effects on the postharvest physiology of

fruits, especially on chilling tolerance. An experiment was arranged to study the effects of exogenous PA application

occurs under abiotic stresses including drought, salinity, extreme temperatures, UV-B, heavy metals, mechanical wounding and herbicide treatment (Hussain *et al.*, 2011).

Amongst different kind of PAs, the diamine putrescine

(Put), triamine spermidine (Spd), and tetramine spermine (Spm) are the most common PAs in plant cells, while oth-

ers are of more limited occurrence (Galston and Sawhney, 1990; Valero et al., 2002). Distribution of these biogenic

amines differs between species with Put and Spd being

particularly abundant and Spm the least abundant in plant cells. These amines are important for cell viability and

their intracellular levels are tightly regulated, making it

difficult to characterize individual effects of Put, Spd and

Spm on plant growth and developmental processes (Mat-

too et al., 2010).

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on the level of chilling injury, ripening, shelf life and some quality factors of tomato fruit (as a model plant) after a period of low temperature storage. Another goal of the study was to determine which polyamine, concentration and/or their combination is more effective. Two greenhouse tomato cultivars were selected to evaluate whether PAs play the same role in different cultivars or not.

## 2. Materials and Methods

Plant material and polyamine treatments

F1 hybrid seeds of tomato (Solanum lycopersicom L.) cultivars M19 and M79 (Tropica Seeds, IndoSem Ltd. India) were sown in  $30 \times 30 \times 60$  mm/cell plastic plug trays filled with peat and perlite (1:1 v:v). Seedlings were grown for five weeks in a polycarbonate greenhouse (25/21°C and 60-70% relative humidity). Plugs were then transplanted into 12-1 pots filled with a peat:perlite (60:40 v/v) mixture. Pots were kept in the same greenhouse with an average 60% relative humidity and 25±5°C temperature until the end of the experiment. Cultural practices consisting of standard recommendations for growing tomato seedlings and plants in a hydroponic system were according to Papadopoulos (1991). Fruits for study were harvested at mature green stage based on the "Color Classification Requirement in United States Standards for Grades of Fresh Tomatoes" chart, published by the USDA.

Eight polyamine treatments consisted of immersing same-sized, selected mature green fruits in 1 and 2 mM putrescine (Put), spermidine (Spd) and their combination for 4 min as indicated by Mirdehghan *et al.* (2007 a). Immersion in distilled water for the same period was taken as control (Table 3). Fruits were then held at 3°C in a temperature-controlled chamber in darkness with relative humidity of 90%. After 15 and 25 days, five fruits from each treatment replicate were sampled and stored at 20°C for 3 days. Electrolyte leakage, weight loss, fruit firmness, decay percentage, chilling injury index, titratable acidity, total soluble solid content (TSS) and ascorbic acid content of fruits were measured as described below.

# Electrolyte leakage

Electrolyte leakage was used to assess membrane permeability. The procedure was based on Lutts *et al.* (1996) with slight modification. Briefly, five tomato fruit pericarp discs (10 mm diameter) per replicate from randomly chosen fruits were taken and placed in test tubes containing 10 mL of distilled water followed by three washes with distilled water to remove surface contamination. Samples were incubated at room temperature on a shaker for 24 h. Electrical conductivity (EC) of the bathing solution (EC1) was read after incubation. The samples were then placed in a boiling water bath for 20 min and the second reading (EC 2) was determined after cooling the solution to room temperature. The electrolyte leakage was calculated using EC1/EC2 and expressed as a percentage. All leakage data were expressed as a percentage of the total electrolyte readings.

Weight loss

Weight loss during postharvest storage of individual replicates was determined by subtracting sample weights on sampling dates (day 15 or 25 of low temperature storage) from their initial weight on day 0 and presented as percent of weight loss compared to initial weight.

## Fruit firmness

Fruit firmness was determined according to Ben-Yehoshua *et al.* (1983). A compression tester using a 1 kg weight centered over a locule on the equatorial region of each tomato fruit was used. Full deformation was measured 30 s after exerting the force on the fruit, then the weight was removed and residual deformation was measured 15 s later. Lower readings denoted firmer fruit. Five fruits were measured for each treatment replicate. Firmness was expressed as mm deformation.

## Chilling injury index

Chilling injury (CI) was evaluated according to Ding et al. (2002) at 20°C for 3 days, following 15- and 25-day low temperature storage period. Briefly, tomato fruit surface pitting was considered as CI symptom. The severity of CI symptoms was assessed visually according to a four-stage scale: 0= no pitting; 1= a few scattered pits; 2= pitting covering up to 5% of the fruit surface; 3= extensive pitting covering 5-25% of the fruit surface, and 4= extensive pitting covering more than 25% of the fruit surface. The average extent of CI damage was expressed as a CI index and calculated using the following formula:

 $CI index = \frac{\sum (\text{injury classification level x number of fruit at that level})}{\text{total number of friut at the treatment}}$ 

## Decay percentage

Extent of decay was assessed according to González-Aguilar *et al.* (2000), based on the area of decay and the surface area with microorganisms growing on it. Decay was rated for each replicate of treatments at the end of the 15-and 25-day cold storage periods after an additional 3 days at 20°C. The values were expressed as decay percentage.

Total soluble solids, titratable acidity and ascorbic acid content

Total soluble solids concentrations (TSS) of fruit juice were determined using a digital refractometer (Pal-3, ATAGO Co., Ltd. Tokyo, Japan) at 20°C and presented as °Brix. Fruit juice titratable acidity (TA) was determined by titration of 1 mL juice in 25 mL distilled water with 0.1N NaOH until the pH reached 8.1, according to El Ghaouth *et al.* (1992). Results were expressed as gram of citric acid equivalent per 100 g fresh weight (g CAE/100 g fw).

Fruit ascorbic acid content was determined according to the method described by the AOAC (1984).

#### Statistical analysis

The experiment was arranged in a completely random-

ized design. Each polyamine treatment consisted of three replicates; each replicate consisted of 10 plants. Data were analyzed separately for tomato cultivars and days of low temperature incubation using one-way analysis of variance. Means for each low temperature storage duration and cultivar were compared separately using the least significant differences (LSD) test at p≤0.01. All data analyses including correlation analysis were performed using SPSS21 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL) computer software for Windows.

## 3. Result and Discussions

One-way analysis of variance showed significant differences for all measured characteristics in both cultivars except for ascorbic acid content in cv. M79 after 15 days of low temperature storage (Table 1 a, b, and Table 2 a, b).

## Electrolyte leakage

Application of PAs decreased electrolyte leakage of low-temperature incubated tomato fruits. The highest

Table 1 a - One way analysis of variance for characteristics of polyamine-treated tomato cultivar M19 after 15 and 25 days storage at 3°C

		Mean Squares							
SOV df	Electrolyte leakage		Weig	Weight loss		Fruit firmness		Chilling injury	
		15	25	15	25	15	25	15	25
Polyamines	8	88.692**	163.37**	5.193**	3.055**	0.755**	0.87**	114.593**	65.167**
Error	18	3.751	3.731	0.161	0.283	0.051	0.047	3.625	16.759
Total	26	29.887	52.848	1.709	1.136	0.268	0.3	37.767	31.654

NS, \*, \*\* non-significant and significant at 0.05 and 0.01, respectively.

Table 1 b - One-way analysis of variance for characteristics of polyamine-treated tomato cultivar M19 after 15 and 25 days storage at 3°C

SOV df	Decay percentage		T	TSS		Titratable acidity		Ascorbic acid	
		15	25	15	25	15	25	15	25
Polyamines	8	370.37 **	902.759 **	0.832 **	0.592 **	0.028 **	0.033 **	1.697 **	15.319 **
Error	18	37.037	65.852	0.167	0.079	0.002	0.003	0.185	0.999
Total	26	139.601	323.362	0.369	0.236	0.01	0.012	0.650	5.406

NS, \*, \*\* non-significant and significant at 0.05 and 0.01, respectively.

Table 2 a - One-way analysis of variance for characteristics of polyamine-treated tomato cultivar M79 after 15 and 25 days storage at 3°C

		Mean Squares							
SOV df	Electrolyte leakage		Weig	Weight loss		Fruit firmness		Chilling injury	
		15	25	15	25	15	25	15	25
Polyamines	8	48.792**	101.07**	4.593**	4.708**	0.564**	0.749**	80.624**	135.995**
Error	18	0.948	0.673	0.034	0.087	0.017	0.046	5.701	10.417
Total	26	15.669	31.564	1.437	1.509	0.185	0.262	28.754	49.056

NS, \*, \*\* non-significant and significant at 0.05 and 0.01, respectively.

Table 2 b - One-way analysis of variance for characteristics of polyamine-treated tomato cultivar M79 after 15 and 25 days storage at 3°C

		Mean Squares							
SOV df	df	Decay percentage		T	TSS		le acidity	Ascorbic acid	
		15	25	15	25	15	25	15	25
Polyamines	8	193.667**	424.833**	0.431**	0.951**	0.021**	0.029**	1.043ns	3.987**
Error	18	13.852	29.667	0.026	0.029	0.003	0.002	0.989	0.822
Total	26	69.179	151.256	0.150	0.313	0.009	0.01	1.005	1.795

NS, \*, \*\* non-significant and significant at 0.05 and 0.01, respectively.

electrolyte leakage was observed in control treatments as almost 100% greater than those treated with the highest PA concentrations in combined treatments on both cultivars (Table 3). Pretreatment of cucumber plants with PAs diminished the increased electrolyte leakage caused by chilling in the leaves (Gill and Tuteja, 2010). The exogenous application of polyamines on pomegranate (Punica granatum L.) protected the membrane lipid from being converted from liquid crystalline to a solid-gel state (induced by chilling) through preventing lipid peroxidation (Mirdehghan et al., 2007 b). Previously, Put has been reported to act as protective toward cold stress in tomato plants, since reduced cold-induced electrolyte leakage in leaves due to its application was observed (Kim et al., 2002). In addition, PA application induced cold acclimation through maintenance of membrane fluidity at low temperatures and reduced electrolyte leakage, skin browning, and thus the severity of CI symptoms (Mirdehghan et al., 2007 a).

In general, the effect of Spd on decreasing electrolyte leakage was significantly greater than Put but the differences were not significant when they were applied in combinations (Table 3). In agreement with our results, Gill and Tuteja (2010) found different patterns of Put and Spd action in different cucumber cultivars. Accordingly, it seems the mode of action of PAs may differ within species.

A large amount of evidence showed that exogenous application of PAs plays a role in stabilizing plant cell membranes and protecting them from damage under stress conditions (Liu et al., 2007; He et al., 2008; Gill and Tuteja, 2010). PAs in their free forms have been described as anti-senescence agents (Valero et al., 2002) due to their capacity to preserve membrane stability, which is crucial in plant adaptation to temperature stresses (Oufir et al., 2008). Their attachment to membranes by way of phospholipids results in altered patterns of solute permeation through those membranes and decreased fluidity of membrane components (Galston and Sawhney,

1990). They are involved in the regulation of many basic cellular processes, including cellular cation-anion balance and membrane stability (Gill and Tuteja, 2010). In the present experiment, tomato cv. M19 showed greater electrolyte leakage for all PA and low temperature storage treatments compared to cv. M79 (Table 3). Possibly the PAs pattern of action in the studied tomato cultivars was at different rates, as previously found for cucumber cultivars (Gill and Tuteja, 2010).

Increasing the duration of low temperature storage from 15 to 25 days increased electrolyte leakage in both cultivars (Table 3). This could be an indicator that the effects of exogenous PAs on lowering electrolyte leakage decrease with time.

## Weight loss

It has been reported that tomatoes at room temperature showed greater weight loss than those stored in cold storage (Javanmardi and Kubota, 2006). At least 50% greater weight loss was found in control treatments compared to those with PA applied in both cultivars and low temperature durations (Table 3). Transpiration has been considered the main cause of weight loss during tomato storage (Javanmardi and Kubota, 2006). Reduction in weight loss and respiration rate due to Put and Spd application in mango has been reported (Malik and Singh, 2005).

The differences between combined PA treatments were not significant in the studied cultivars for the two low temperature durations, however they showed less weight loss when PAs were applied singularly (Table 3).

It has been reported that chilled fruits had a greater weight loss rate than non-chilled fruits after transfer to non-chilling conditions. This is due to the development of microscopic cracks in peel tissue (Cohen *et al.*, 1994), cellular breakdown and loss of membrane integrity which have an important role in water exchange through the rind (González-Aguilar *et al.*, 2000). Storage conditions or treatments that reduce fruit water loss have been shown

Table 3 - Effect of polyamine application and duration (15 and 25 days) of low-temperature (3°C) storage on electrolyte leakage and fruit weight loss in tomato cultivars M19 and M79

		Electroly	te leakage			Weight	loss	
Treatment	M	19	M	79	M	19	M 79	
	15	25	15	25	15	25	15	25
Control	30.06 a	42.43 a	24.40 a	35.64 a	5.48 a	5.22 a	5.27 a	5.87 a
Put 1 mM	19.55 b	24.96 b	15.43 b	20.13 b	3.13 b	3.27 b	2.52 b	3.22 b
Put 2 mM	18.50 b	22.77 bc	14.20 b	19.78 b	2.54 bc	2.90 bcd	2.40 b	2.86 bc
Spd 1 mM	16.43 bc	22.98 bc	14.20 b	19.47 bc	2.40 cd	3.17 bc	2.14 bc	2.96 b
Spd 2 mM	14.93 bc	21.83 bc	13.91 b	17.73 bc	1.92 cde	2.48 bcd	1.90 cd	2.40 cd
Put 1 mM + Spd 1 mM	15.56 bc	21.31 bc	13.13 bc	18.81 bc	1.69 de	2.23 cd	1.59 de	2.20 de
Put 1 mM + Spd 2 mM	14.98 bc	21.99 bc	12.97 bc	17.74 bc	1.61 de	2.13 d	1.61 de	2.00 de
Put 2 mM + Spd 1 mM	11.45 c	18.19 c	10.32 c	17.31 c	1.19 e	2.17 cd	1.19 e	1.93 de
Put 2 mM + Spd 2 mM	13.01 c	18.05 c	11.41 c	17.30 c	1.40 e	1.97 d	1.27 e	1.79 e
LSD value 0.01	4.55	4.54	2.29	1.92	0.94	1.25	0.43	0.69

Means in columns followed by the same letter are not significantly different,  $P \le 0.05$ , LSD test. Means for each column were compared separately.

to alleviate CI (Wang, 1993). In our experiment, PA application resulted in less membrane permeability (less electrolyte leakage) and therefore less water loss than control fruits. Also storage duration affected weight loss: the longer fruits remained in low-temperature storage, the greater their weight loss.

## Fruit firmness

Fruit firmness was affected by PA application (Table 4). All PA-treated fruits (except for Put 1 mM after 15 days of storage in M19) showed firmer fruit (less compression) than control fruits (Table 4). The differences between combined PA treatments in each low temperature storage duration were not significant. However, when compared to the control they showed at least 43 and 69% greater firmness in M19 tomato, and 80 and 45% in M79 tomato for 15 and 25 days storage, respectively. It has been shown that fruits and vegetables infiltrated with PAs had a net increase in firmness during post-harvest life. This effect of PAs on fruit firmness has been attributed to the cross linking to the COO group of the pectic substance and changes in polygalacturonic acids in the cell wall (Valero et al., 2002). Retarded fruit softening due to Put and Spd application in mango has been reported (Malik and Singh, 2005). Although it is believed that the overall softening process results from a number of changes in turgor pressure, cell wall and membrane composition and degradation, but cell wall modifications have been implicated to be the major determinant of fruit softening (Smith et al., 2002). Put and Spd have anti-senescence properties (Saftner and Baldi, 1990), and are able to retard the maturation process (including softening) in a wide range of climacteric and non-climacteric fruits (Valero et al., 2002). The ethylene production in tomato fruits, enhances softening, but its effect may decrease due to increased polyamine level (Tiecher et al., 2013). Increased duration of low temperature storage decreased fruit firmness for all treatments. Fruit firmness of control plants M19 and M79 showed 52 and 56% decrease, respectively, when 15 days of low temperature storage values were compared width 25 days. The values obtained from 2.2 mM, Put:Spd tratment were 108 and 148% for M19 and M79, respectively (Table 4). PAs with higher number of available cations have greater effect on fruit firmness, as Spm+4>Spd+3>Put+2 (Valero *et al.*, 2002). According to our results, the PA concentration would also affect the fruit firmness.

## Chilling injury index

Chilling injury index drastically increased with time of low temperature storage in both cultivars (Table 4). The increased percentages of 25 days compared to 15 days of low temperature storage for the control treatment were 64 and 102% in M19 and M79, respectively. The combined PA treatments resulted in greater CI index (but less than control) after 25 days of low temperature storage than 15 days, especially when 2:2 mM Put:Spd was used (Table 4). The effects of PA on 15 days low temperature stored tomatoes showed significant decrease in CI index, but its impact for a longer period (25 days) was not significant, except for 1 mM Put (Table 4). The lowest CI index after 15 days of low temperature storage was found in Put:Spm (2:2 mM) treated tomatoes in both cultivars (Table 4). It is possible that the impact of PAs on lowering CI index in tomato are time as well as species dependent. Pre-storage application of PAs improved shelf-life of pomegranate (Punica granatum L.) stored at chilling temperature by increasing endogenous polyamine levels (Mirdehghan et al., 2007 a). Although increased endogenous Put in tomato due to low temperature storage is considered to act as protective toward cold stress, the reported mechanism is unclear (Gonzalez-Aguilar et al., 1998). The involvement of polyamines in reducing chilling injury has been related to reducing oxidative damage via increases of antioxidant or reducing the activity of oxidative enzyme (Oufir et al., 2008).

Table 4 - Effect of polyamine application and duration (15 and 25 days) of low-temperature (3°C) storage on fruit firmness and chilling injury index in tomato cultivars M19 and M79

	Fı	ruit firmness (	mm deformati	on)		Chilling inju	ıry index (%)	
Treatment	M 19		M	M 79		19	M 79	
	15	25	15	25	15	25	15	25
Control	2.41 a	3.67 a	2.19 a	3.43 a	19.17 a	31.50 a	16.42 a	33.33 a
Put 1 mM	2.04 ab	2.95 b	1.69 b	2.85 b	16.67 ab	25.67 ab	13.33 ab	20.00 b
Put 2 mM	1.82 b	2.48 c	1.45 c	2.52 bc	15.50 b	24.17 abc	9.17 bc	16.67 bcd
Spd 1 mM	1.88 b	2.49 c	1.54 bc	2.79 b	9.17 c	21.67 bc	10.00 bc	17.50 bcd
Spd 2 mM	1.68bc	2.24 cd	1.40 c	2.37 cd	5.83 c	19.18 bc	7.67 cd	14.17 bcd
Put 1 mM + Spd 1 mM	1.68bc	2.16 cd	1.21 d	2.35 cd	6.67 c	22.50 bc	4.17 def	15.00 bcd
Put 1 mM + Spd 2 mM	1.16 c	1.94 d	1.03 d	2.04 de	1.75 d	15.83 с	2.50 ef	11.67 cd
Put 2 mM + Spd 1 mM	1.18c	1.99 d	1.04 d	2.19 cde	0.75 d	21.33 bc	6.67 cde	14.17 bcd
Put 2 mM + Spd 2 mM	0.92 c	1.92 d	0.78 d	1.94 e	0.42 d	17.67 bc	0.0f	10.83 d
LSD value 0.01	0.53	0.49	0.31	0.37	4.47	9.62	5.61	7.85

Means in columns followed by the same letter are not significantly different, P ≤ 0.05, LSD test. Means for each column were compared separately

#### Decay percentage

Decay incidence in all control treatments was significantly greater than in PA-treated fruits (Table 5). Prolonging low temperature storage from 15 to 25 days resulted in greater decay incidence. Although the differences between PA-treated fruits were not significant, the combined PA treatments could be considered more effective since 0% decay decreases possible further contamination and decay. As a susceptible crop to chilling injury, tomato shows increased susceptibility to decay when stored at low temperatures after harvest (Ding et al., 2002). In the present study, treatment with Put:Spd (2:2 mM) was very effective in alleviating chilling injury and decreasing the incidence of decay in tomato fruits (Tables 4, 5). This result suggest that PA application enhances the natural resistance of the fruits to chilling injury and decaying agents. Taken together, results obtained in this study indicate that the higher levels of PAs reduce CI and decay of tomato fruit. The reduction in CI symptoms by PAs has been related to their capacity to preserve membrane integrity, both by lowering the membrane phase-transition temperature fluidity and by retarding lipid peroxidation, resulting in increased cell viability (González-Aguilar et al., 2000).

# Total soluble solids and titratable acidity

In all cases the highest values for TSS were observed in Put:Spd (2:2 mM), however the differences among other PA combinations were also not significant (Table 5). The differences in TSS between 15 and 25 days of low temperature storage were not significant in the two cultivars (data not shown). The earlier experiment showed no significant changes in TSS between room temperature and low temperature stored tomatoes (Javanmardi and Kubota, 2006). It has been reported that TSS remains unchanged after chilling and reconditioning (Luengwilai and Beckles,

2010), however it is possible that individual sugars and the sugar-acid balance may be adversely affected (Beckles, 2012). Harvesting riper fruit (i.e. those with already well-developed sugar profiles) would reduce the harm caused by chilling injury due to lower temperature (Beckles, 2012).

Titratable acidity in combined PA treatments for fruits stored 15 days at low temperature were significantly greater than other treatments in both cultivars. Treated fruits with Put:Spd (2:2 mM) showed the highest titratable acidity after 25 days of storage (Table 6). Titratable acidity increased with increasing duration of low temperature storage for all treatments (Table 6).

It is reported that increased endogenous Pas, spermine and spermidine, through transgenic manipulation of tomato showed similar levels of juice TSS, pH and titratable acidity in transgenic, azygous, and wild-type fruits (Mehta *et al.*, 2002). Application of Put and Spd on apricot did not affect TSS and TA (Koushesh Saba *et al.*, 2012).

#### Ascorbic acid content

All treated fruits showed greater ascorbic acid in fruits stored for 25 days than 15-day low temperature storage group (Table 6). The pattern of changing ascorbic acid level in tomato fruit varies with the physiological ripening stages as it increases slowly reaching a maximum and then declines slowly coinciding with the initiation of ripening, as indicated by color change, and an increase in the activity of ascorbate oxidase (Yahia *et al.*, 2001). In this experiment the mature green fruits treated and stored at low temperature showed the same increasing pattern until 25 days of storage. At that time the color had not started to change. Most likely PA application does not change the ascorbic acid pathway at least until ripening symptoms (color change) appear. It is reported that during the ripening process, the levels of Spd and Spm decline

Table 5 - Effect of polyamine application and duration (15 and 25 days) of low-temperature (3°C) storage on fruit decay percentage and total soluble solid content in tomato cultivars M19 and M79

		Decay po	ercentage		To	otal soluble sol	id content (°Br	ix)
Treatment	M 19		M	M 79		19	M 79	
	15	25	15	25	15	25	15	25
Control	33.33 a	60.00 a	25.00 a	40.00 a	4.01 b	4.28 b	4.80 b	4.13 c
Put 1 mM	13.33 b	16.33 b	9.67 b	9.67 b	4.50 b	4.85 ab	5.18 ab	4.73 bc
Put 2 mM	6.67 b	11.37 b	3.33 b	4.00 b	5.43 ab	5.13 ab	5.43 ab	5.20 b
Spd 1 mM	3.33 b	12.33 b	3.33 b	6.33 b	5.35 ab	5.08 ab	5.25 ab	5.00 bc
Spd 2 mM	0.00 b	10.00 b	2.33 b	5.00 b	5.55 a	5.25 ab	5.33 ab	5.55 ab
Put 1 mM + Spd 1 mM	0.00 b	6.00 b	0.00 b	3.33 b	5.35 ab	5.30 a	5.35 ab	5.50 ab
Put 1 mM + Spd 2 mM	0.00 b	5.00 b	0.00 b	1.67 b	5.60 a	5.50 a	5.73 a	5.63 ab
Put 2 mM + Spd 1 mM	0.00 b	6.67 b	0.00 b	6.67 b	5.28 ab	5.48 a	5.68 a	5.60 ab
Put 2 mM + Spd 2 mM	0.00 b	5.67 b	0.00 b	3.33 b	5.75 a	5.68 a	5.88 a	5.85 a
LSD value 0.01	14.3	19.07	8.74	12.78	0.96	0.66	0.38	0.40

Means in columns followed by the same letter are not significantly different, P≤ 0.05, LSD test. Means for each column were compared separately.

in fruits (Mattoo and Handa, 2008). The ripening process has been shown to be delayed in tomato fruits by infusing them with Put (Saftner and Baldi, 1990). Polyamines and ethylene are known to have opposite effects in relation to fruit ripening and senescence (Saftner and Baldi, 1990). Free polyamines inhibit ethylene production in a variety of tissues (Suttle, 1981) and the elevated level of free polyamines may be responsible for the reduction in both ethylene production and ripening processes of tomato fruits (Saftner and Baldi, 1990). Elevated levels of polyamines help maintain cellular vitality and longer life of ripening

tomato (Mattoo et al., 2010).

## Correlations among fruit characteristics

The correlations among weight loss, electrolyte leakage, chilling injury, decay percentage and fruit firmness for 15 and 25 days of low temperature storage in both cultivars were positive and significant, but they were either non-significant or significantly negative when analyzed against ascorbic acid, titratable acidity and TSS (Tables 7-10). The greatest impact of electrolyte leakage was found on weight loss and decay percentage for the studied

Table 6 - Effect of polyamine application and duration (15 and 25 days) of low-temperature (3°C) storage on fruit juice acidity and ascorbic acid content in tomato cultivars M19 and M79

	Ti	ratable acidit	ty (g CAE/100 g	g fw)		Ascorbic ac	id (mg/100ml)	
Treatment	M 19		M '	M 79		M 19		Л 79
	15	25	15	25	15	25	15	25
Control	0.34 b	0.43 с	0.37 bc	0.47 b	9.09 b	11.01 c	11.88 a	12.07 c
Put 1 mM	0.35 b	0.41 c	0.31 c	0.37 c	9.74 b	11.97 bc	10.53 a	12.12 c
Put 2 mM	0.41 b	0.44 c	0.31 c	0.42 c	9.81 b	11.02 c	11.35 a	13.19 bc
Spd 1 mM	0.37 b	0.43 c	0.36 bc	0.39 с	9.60 b	11.97 bc	11.25 a	12.25 c
Spd 2 mM	0.39 b	0.50 b	0.40 bc	0.44 bc	11.01 a	12.44 bc	10.63 a	13.07 bc
Put 1 mM + Spd 1 mM	0.52 a	0.56 b	0.48 ab	0.53 b	10.40 a	13.47 b	11.39 a	15.00 a
Put 1 mM + Spd 2 mM	0.57 a	0.63 a	0.43 abc	0.69 a	11.32 a	17.91 a	12.40 a	15.60 a
Put 2 mM + Spd 1 mM	0.54 a	0.60 a	0.46 ab	0.54 b	11.05 a	12.06 bc	11.88 a	13.62 abc
Put 2 mM + Spd 2 mM	0.58 a	0.70 a	0.56 a	0.65 a	11.80 a	13.60 b	12.15 a	14.03 ab
LSD value 0.01	0.11	0.13	0.13	0.10	1.01	2.35	2.29	2.13

Means in columns followed by the same letter are not significantly different,  $P \le 0.05$ , LSD test. Means for each column were compared separately.

Table 7 - Correlation analysis between fruit characteristics of tomato cv. M19 treated with different polyamines after 15 days storage at 3°C

	Weight loss	Electrolyte leakage	Chilling injury	Decay percentage	Fruit firmness	Ascorbic acid	Titratable acidity
Electrolyte leakage	0.927 **						
Chilling injury	0.745 **	0.623 **					
Decay percentage	0.769 **	0.803 **	0.694 **				
Firmness	0.753 **	0.761 **	0.741 **	0.699 **			
Ascorbic acid	-0.332 ns	-0.367 NS	-0.258 ns	-0.340 ns	-0.380 ns		
Titratable acidity	-0.679 **	-0.629 **	-0.680 **	-0.555 **	-0.726 **	0.377 ns	
TSS	-0.701 **	-0.719 **	-0.642 **	-0.701 **	-0.618 **	0.083 ns	0.421 **

NS, \*, \*\* non-significant, significant at 0.05 and 0.01, respectively.

Table 8 - Correlation analysis between fruit characteristics of tomato cv. M79 treated with different polyamines after 15 days storage at 3°C

	Weight loss	Electrolyte leakage	Chilling injury	Decay percentage	Fruit firmness	Ascorbic acid	Titratable acidity
Electrolyte leakage	0.950 **						
Chilling injury	0.716 **	0.737 **					
Decay percentage	0.894 **	0.909 **	0.735 **				
Firmness	0.861 **	0.825 **	0.806 **	0.815 **			
Ascorbic acid	-0.018 NS	0.023 NS	-0.162 NS	0.003 NS	-0.166 NS		
Titratable acidity	-0.353 NS	-0.378 NS	-0.664 **	-0.314 NS	-0.617 **	0.291 NS	
TSS	-0.642 **	-0.633 **	-0.632 **	-0.624 **	-0.806 **	0.415 *	0.548 **

NS, \*, \*\* non-significant, significant at 0.05 and 0.01, respectively.

Table 9 - Correlation analysis between fruit characteristics of tomato cv. M19 treated with different polyamines after 25 days storage at 3°C

	Weight loss	Electrolyte leakage	Chilling injury	Decay percentage	Fruit firmness	Ascorbic acid	Titratable acidity
Electrolyte leakage	0.954 **						
Chilling injury	0.625 **	0.714 **					
Decay percentage	0.912 **	0.859 **	0.536 **				
Firmness	0.849 **	0.845 **	0.721 **	0.731 **			
Ascorbic acid	-0.346 ns	-0.287 ns	-0.539 **	-0.400 *	-0.576 **		
Titratable acidity	-0.485 *	-0.532 **	-0.600 **	-0.464 *	-0.664 **	0.545 **	
TSS	-0.837 **	-0.806 **	-0.624 **	-0.710 **	-0.821 **	0.428 *	0.583 **

NS, \*, \*\* non-significant, significant at 0.05 and 0.01, respectively.

Table 10 - Correlation analysis between fruit characteristics of tomato cv. M79 treated with different polyamines after 25 days storage at 3°C

	Weight loss	Electrolyte leakage	Chilling injury	Decay percentage	Fruit firmness	Ascorbic acid	Titratable acidity
Electrolyte leakage	0.946 **						
Chilling injury	0.884 **	0.884 **					
Decay percentage	0.860 **	0.912 **	0.764 **				
Firmness	0.839 **	0.787 **	0.793 **	0.752 **			
Ascorbic acid	-0.429 *	-0.433 *	-0.518 **	-0.415 *	-0.636 **		
Titratable acidity	-0.331 ns	-0.232 ns	-0.344 ns	-0.237 ns	-0.604 **	-0.549 **	
TSS	-0.846 **	-0.795 **	-0.807 **	-0.717 **	-0.862 **	0.651 **	0.605 **

NS, \*, \*\* non-significant, significant at 0.05 and 0.01, respectively.

cultivars and low temperature durations.

#### 4. Conclusions

The results of this experiment indicate that exogenous Put and Spd application on tomato fruit could maintain or even improve fruit quality during low temperature storage. The combined application of Put with Spd (2:2 mM) could be recommended for low temperature and long duration storage of tomato fruits.

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# **BOOK REVIEWS**



LA CURA DEI GIARDINI STORICI. TEORIA E PRASSI. *Michael Rohde*. Edizione italiana a cura di Massimo de Vico Fallani. Giardini e paesaggio, vol. 31. Leo S. Olschki, Firenze (Italy), 2012. pp. XIII + 569. ISBN 978-88-222-6149-6. € 58.00.

The author of this interesting volume has, for some time, worked with historic gardens in Germany and has asked the important question of how to define professional, sustainable and lasting care of historic gardens and how to put it into practice. Michael Rohde, director of the garden of the Prussion Castles and Parks of Berlin-Brandenburg Foundation, together with a team of four other authors, has created an important base not only for understanding historic gardens but also for future research about caring for and preserving them. This 570-page book is the result of two research projects undertaken at the Department of Landscape Architecture at the University of Hannover.

The first part of the book is dedicated to the past: the theory of the art and design, and the care for trees, flowers, paths and waterworks are documented in detail, crossing over all stylistic periods. In the first part, the various members of the working group describe

the techniques adopted in the various periods considered. Barbara Vogt reports about studies on flowers, flowerbed ornamentation and provides a list of flowers used and certification of their origin from Renaissance up to the XX century. The chapter by Andreas von Hoeren documents changes in the use of irrigation and hydraulic systems from the Renaissance to the 20th century.

The second part of the volume is dedicated to the care and restoration of historic gardens. Some well-known parks are taken as example and interventions undertaken and recommended for trees, shrubs, blossoms, paths and waterworks are described, with precise instructions for their care. There are numerous color illustrations of historic plans, engravings, drawings and inventories, adding valuing to the theoretical and practical parts of the work.

The volume concludes with results and recommendations to care for historic gardens properly.

As Massimo De Vico Fallani points out in the Presentation, "reading this book will, for some, be a surprise because it reveals a well-structured reality toward the mastery of curative nature which is not always known, at least not in present times, by those working in Italy, and draws attention to maintanence, which is often overlooked."

This book enriches the considerable literature available on historic gardens from historic and cultural and scientific and technical points of view, offering the reader meaning and knowledge about his topic which plays a leading role in the image of our country.

Francesco Ferrini

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