

## PLANT SENESCENCE

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### Summary

Senescence is a terminal stage of plant development. It often, but not invariably, ends in the death of cells, tissues, organs or the whole plant. At the cell level there are a number of different senescence pathways, most of which are autolytic, that is, the genetic and biochemical events originate within the senescing cell itself. Nucleus, vacuole, plastids and mitochondria interact during cell senescence. Up to the point where organelle integrity is lost, some kinds of senescence may be halted, extended or even reversed by various treatments, but beyond this threshold there is a rapid decline in viability leading to death. Developmental cell senescence and death occur during differentiation of xylem, floral tissues, embryos and seeds. Leaves, fruits and some flowers lose chlorophyll during senescence as chloroplasts differentiate into pigmented plastids. The products of chlorophyll breakdown are deposited in the cell vacuole. Proteins and nucleic acids are hydrolysed and the nitrogen and phosphorus liberated are exported from the leaf to sink tissues. Fruit ripening shares a number of regulatory and biochemical features with leaf and flower senescence. Senescence contributes to root turnover, an important factor in global carbon balance. Plants and their parts often must attain maturity before they are able to respond to signals that induce senescence. Floral induction and seed formation stimulate senescence. In monocarpic species the entire plant undergoes reproductive death. Polycarpic plants flower repeatedly during their lifetimes, and show no clear relationship between senescence and longevity. Senescence is a strategic and tactical response to seasonal and unpredictable stresses, including changing daylength, flooding, drought, excessive light, darkness, nutrient limitation and disease. The timing of senescence in relation to carbon capture and nutrient remobilization is a major determinant of crop yield. Senescence and related processes account for significant postharvest losses and food wastage.

## 1. What is Plant Senescence?

### 1.1. Terminology

#### 1.1.1. Senescence

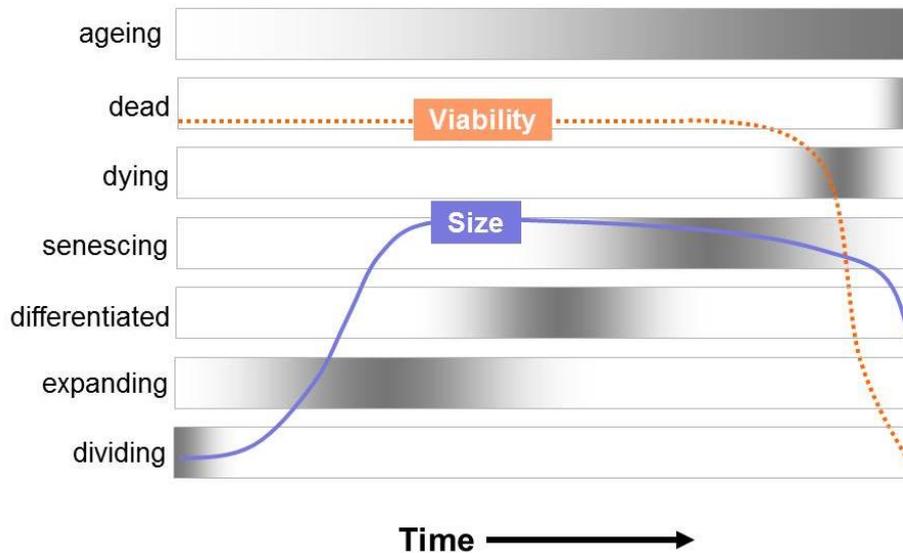


Figure 1. Senescence and related events in the life-history of a plant and its parts. The sequence of events is reiterated at all levels in the hierarchy of plant organization, from cells, tissues, and organs through to individual plants, communities, and even whole floras. Note that ageing includes, but is not limited or defined by, terminal senescence and death phases.

Senescence, which is part of a cloud of terms referring generally to the process or condition of growing old, has a specialized meaning in plant biology (Figure 1). A *Thesaurus* search for ‘senescence’ reveals words for maturity, ripeness, seniority and longevity, but the dominant associations are with notions of decay, decline, gerontology, morbidity and mortality. This reflects the etymological origin of the word (from Latin *senescere* to grow old) and its association with senility and the medical problems of human ageing.

Current physiological understanding of the senescence condition and its positive roles in plant growth, differentiation, adaptation, survival and reproduction, supports a definition that acknowledges senescence to be a phase of development that follows the completion of growth, is absolutely dependent on cell viability and which may or may not be succeeded by death.

#### 1.1.2. Ageing

Ageing (sometimes also spelled ‘aging’) is another term, like senescence, that has become associated with deterioration. In the general biological context, however, it should be considered to refer to changes that occur with time, and therefore to embrace

the time-based processes of growth and differentiation as well as maturity and senescence.

### **1.1.3. Death**

Death is a condition or state and is the culmination of, and separate from, the process of dying. The philosopher Ludwig Wittgenstein wrote “Death is not an event in life”. Application of the term ‘cell death’ to the physiology of senescence, though widespread, seems inappropriate. By definition, changes that occur in dead cells are post-mortem and non-biological. Biologists studying terminal events in development need to distinguish between the regulated activity of viable biological structures and the pathological outcomes of organic collapse.

### **1.1.4. Program**

The expressions ‘senescence program’ and ‘programmed cell death’ are extensively used. The idea of a program as applied to living systems has been taken from computer science. The purposeful nature of a particular biological process, such as senescence, is conceived to be the consequence of control by the equivalent of an executable machine routine: hormones and other signal molecules, kinases and transcription factors are activated in sequence, leading to physiological change. Senescence, like many events in the plant lifecycle, proceeds according to a timetable determined by developmental and environmental factors and mediated by a genetic program.

## **1.2. Relationship between Senescence and Development**

Development is the general term for the changes in form brought about through growth and differentiation. Because post-mitotic expansion processes in plants are largely driven by water, growth is not necessarily associated with increase in dry mass. Differentiation is the change in structure and function that results in cell, tissue and organ specialization. The capacity to reverse the process of differentiation is a characteristic of the plastic nature of plant development. Senescence and development interact at different levels. Senescence is part of the program that specifies cell fate. It is triggered differentially in tissues and organs, resulting in complex anatomies and morphologies that change and adapt over time. It is the means by which resources are recycled from obsolete body parts to new developing structures. Finally variations on the senescence program theme have been shaped by evolution to give rise to a diversity of structures within the angiosperm lifecycle.

## **1.3. Relationship between Senescence and Ageing**

As discussed in Section 1.1.2, the changes with time that fall under the general term ageing are not necessarily deteriorative, although in the long run errors will accumulate and living tissues will show signs of wear and tear. According to some proposed models, senescence is an accelerated form of ageing. Senescing organs, tissues and cells are built either to fail quickly or to be deficient in the mechanisms that otherwise defend against physiological decline. A related view is that, since ageing and eventual death are thermodynamically unavoidable, senescence has evolved as a developmental strategy

that pre-empts the inevitable, enabling the individual plant to control its own viability and integrity over the course of the lifecycle. This is sometimes called the Samurai Law of Biology ('it is better to die than to be wrong'). Such is the current state of knowledge that it is difficult to resolve the interconnections between ageing and senescence mechanisms, and they will continue to be fascinating areas of research and speculation.

#### 1.4. Relationship between Senescence and Death

Senescence and death differ fundamentally: by definition, senescing tissue is viable, dead tissue is not. There is a transitional condition between the two states during which metabolism modulates into abiotic chemistry. This terminal period is often rapid and always irreversible. The preceding senescence phase is usually comparatively extended. Cell membranes and organelles remain intact, and organs stay turgid. In some cases, notably the senescence of green (mesophyll) cells in leaves, this phase is reversible until almost all of the cells' macromolecules have been recycled and exported to the rest of the plant. Cells within the same organ can be at different stages in the progression from senescence to death. For example there is a gradient of cell age from leaf base to tip in grass species such as maize (*Zea mays*; Figure 2). Senescence proceeds from the tip downward, and towards the veins from interveinal regions of the lamina. This heterogeneity within a single structure can make it difficult to disentangle senescence-phase, terminal and post-mortem events.

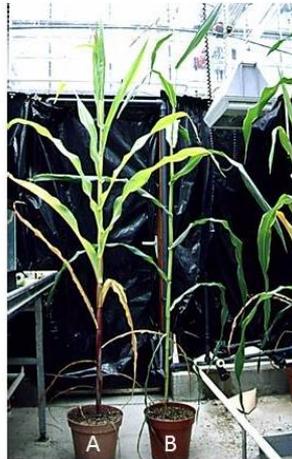


Figure 2. Leaf senescence in maize (*Zea mays*). The plant on the left (A) is growing on low levels of nitrogen fertilizer and shows the typical gradient of yellowing within and between leaves. The plant on the right (B) has been genetically modified to reduce expression of a gene encoding an enzyme of nitrogen mobilization in senescence.

## 2. Senescence of Cells and Tissues

### 2.1. Mechanisms of Cell Senescence

#### 2.1.1. The Growth Curve

Senescence of tissues, organs and individuals is an expression of processes going on at the cell level. In terms of comparative biology, a cell is a cell is a cell and senescence

may be expected to figure amongst the common features of structure and physiology. The basic characteristics of cell growth and proliferation are shared across the taxa. Senescence is properly recognized as a normal and even essential feature of the post-mitotic phase of the cell life-cycle and is immediately preceded by (and sometimes partially overlaps with) the growth period (Figure 1). Typically the pattern of growth in biological systems is density-dependent, beginning slowly when cell mass is small, reaching a maximal rate when density is optimal with respect to metabolic and environmental constraints, declining as limiting external and internal factors become increasingly influential, and finally approaching maximal size asymptotically. Such sigmoidal behavior is usually described mathematically by some variation of the logistic equation. The generalized, archetypal logistic-type function is:

$$G = \alpha + \beta y^t$$

where mass or size,  $G$ , is related to time  $t$  by three coefficients or groups of coefficients.  $y$  is always  $e^{-c}$  and represents exponential growth with a rate constant  $c$ .  $\alpha$  is the value of  $G$  at the asymptote, or a transformation of it, and  $\beta$  refers to the initial value or state of the system. To fit this kind of function is virtually impossible without computers, and even then it took until the late sixties to solve the problem of fitting the generalized logistic with statistical rigor. Nowadays anyone can do it with absolute confidence that the error estimates all conform to the laws of non-linear estimation.

### 2.1.2. Senescence as a Normal Phase of Cell Lifespan

Growth curves are of interest in the study of senescence because a cell population in the period of decline between the point of maximal growth rate and the stationary phase is sometimes regarded as ageing. The relationship between ageing and senescence is discussed in Section 1.3. It is characteristic of plants that the logistic-type pattern seen in cell cultures is observed at progressively higher levels of organization up to organ, individual and even beyond (Figure 1). It is reasonable to conjecture that intrinsic sigmoidicity, expressing the interplay between the potential for growth and the progressive imposition of limitations, is an important factor in triggering the senescence syndrome. It follows that the template for the development of any and every plant cell, from any and every tissue and organ, has a built-in senescence module attuned to the growth curve. The curves themselves will vary in their proportions, the onset and rate characteristics of their ageing phases will differ accordingly and so will the senescence response. For example cells of vascular tissue achieve full size and morphological maturity comparatively quickly, and programmed senescence followed by death of cell contents is completed soon after the growth asymptote is reached. On the other hand, there is evidence that the stomatal guard cells of some species do not initiate a recognisable senescence program until long after structural and functional maturity and may remain in the pre-senescent state when the leaf as a whole is senescent and shed.

### 2.1.3 Autolysis during Cell Senescence

Genetically programmed cell senescence is a form of suicide. Although there are instances of plant cells being killed by their neighbors, and a severe external stress can cause fatal trauma, in most cases the senescence process is autolytic; that is, cytoplasm

is both the source and the location of the degradative activities that ultimately bring about its own death (Figure 3). During autolysis, macromolecules are cleaved by lytic enzymes into oligomeric fragments and ultimately into monomers. As the location of peptidases, nucleases, peroxidases and other hydrolytic and oxidative enzymes, the vacuole has an essential function in most kinds of autolytic cell senescence. Macromolecules are either engulfed by, or transported across, the tonoplast (the bounding membrane of the vacuole) and degraded in the vacuolar space, or else the tonoplast ruptures, flooding the cytosol with lytic enzymes and rapidly killing the cell. Autolysis in plants takes a number of different forms, some of which are listed in Table 1.

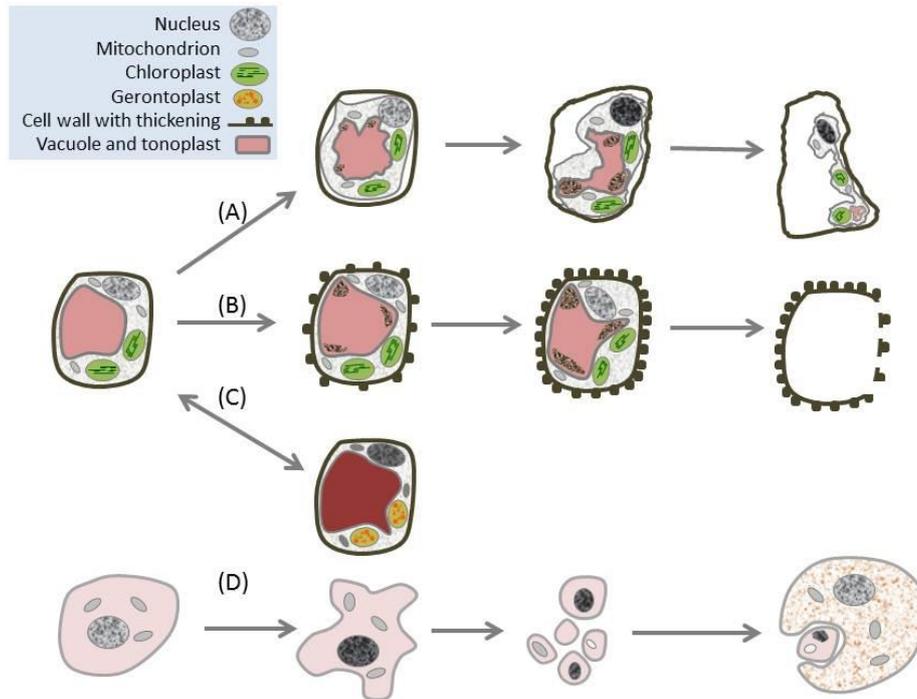


Figure 3. Cytological features of three modes of programmed senescence of plant cells compared with the apoptotic pathway of animal cell death. (A) Hypersensitive cell death, a resistance response to pathogen attack. Condensation and cleavage of DNA in the nucleus precedes vacuole disruption and blebbing of tonoplast and plasma membranes; the process ends with destruction of organelles, plasma membrane collapse and leakage of the dead cell's contents. (B) Tracheary element differentiation, an example of developmental cell senescence and death. Swelling and rupture of the vacuole happens as the cell walls undergo secondary thickening and restructuring. Nuclear DNA fragmentation occurs in the later stages, after vacuolar collapse. Finally autolysis eliminates the remaining cytoplasm, leaving an empty cell enclosed by a thickened wall. (C) Mesophyll cell senescence, an example of transdifferentiation in which the change in plastid structure reflects the functional transition from provision of assimilated carbon to source of salvaged nitrogen and phosphorus. The senescence process is distinct from cell death and in some cases is reversible. (D) Apoptosis in animal cells. Chromatin condensation and fragmentation are early morphological events. The plasma membrane is disrupted and cell contents are repackaged into apoptotic bodies, which are finally engulfed by neighboring macrophage cells.

Type Of Cell Senescence	Characteristics	Discussed Further
Autophagy	A form of cell senescence characterized by the regulated assembly of specific lytic structures that break down cytoplasm under the control of signal cascades and differential gene expression.	Autophagy also occurs in animals and is distinct from apoptosis. The mechanism is discussed in Section 2.1.5.
Transdifferentiation	Remodelling of structure and function of cytoplasmic organelles in post-mitotic cells. Only in the final stages is there loss of integrity and viability as lytic processes take control.	Senescence of green cells of leaves or pigmented tissues of fruits. See Sections 3.1, 3.3.
Hypersensitivity	A kind of cauterization or containment reaction to attempted infection by a pathogen.	Related to some kinds of spontaneous lesion formation in mutants. Hypersensitivity is discussed in further detail in Section 5.3.
Lysigeny	The formation of glands, channels and secretory ducts by the disintegration of cytoplasm.	Section 2.2. Air spaces formed in roots in response to low oxygen stress are lysigenous in origin.
Schizogeny	Senescence of schizogenous cells is a process of cell separation during which the middle lamella of the cell wall breaks down.	Section 2.2.
Altruism	Self-sacrificial elimination of cells for the benefit of the whole plant.	An example is corolla cell autolysis in fertilized flowers, which reduces competition with unfertilized blooms for the attention of pollinating insects. Section 3.2.
Types of Animal Cell Death		
Apoptosis	Type of programmed cell death characterized by blebbing, cell shrinkage, nuclear fragmentation, chromatin condensation DNA fragmentation.	Section 2.1.4.
Necrosis	Traumatic cell death resulting from acute cellular injury.	Non-physiological mortality of plant cells in response to trauma resembles necrosis in animals

Table 1. Modes of autolytic cell senescence in plants. Apoptosis and necrosis, the two principal forms of cell death in animals, are listed for comparison.

Nucleases catalyse the hydrolysis of nucleic acids. They may be specific for RNA (ribonuclease, RNase) or for DNA (DNase) or they may be bifunctional, able to use either nucleic acid as a substrate. Exonucleases remove nucleotide monomers sequentially from the ends of the substrate molecule; endonucleases hydrolyse linkages between monomers within the polynucleotide chain. Proteins are hydrolyzed by peptidases (also called proteases or proteinases). Endopeptidases, which cleave internal peptide bonds in their protein substrates, are particularly important in cell senescence. Cysteine endopeptidases, so-called because each has a reactive cysteine residue in its catalytic centre, are active during plant senescence and animal cell death (apoptosis). Caspases, the cysteine proteases responsible for apoptosis, have little or no structural similarity to the functionally equivalent proteases of senescing plant cells. The latter are sometimes referred to as metacaspases and include a class of cysteine endopeptidase referred to as vacuolar processing enzymes (VPEs). Among other types of protease with roles in plant cell senescence are serine proteases, metalloproteases, ATP-dependent proteases and components of the ubiquitin/proteasome system (UbPS).

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### **Biographical sketch**

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