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Effect of salt stress in the regulation of anthocyanins and color of *Hibiscus* flowers by

digital image analysis

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2 The effect of salinity stress (200mM NaCl for 28 days) on physiological characteristics of 3 Hibiscus rosa-sinensis such as abscisic acid content, electrolyte leakage, and photochemical 4 efficiency in leaves; and its influence on the biomass production, anthocyanin composition and 5 color expression of flowers was evaluated. Salinity significantly increased electrolyte leakage 6 and ABA content in leaves, and reduced the flower fresh weight. Chlorophyll fluorescence 7 parameters were lower in salt stress condition, compared to control. Moreover, salt stress 8 negatively affected the content of anthocyanins (mainly cyanidin-3-sophoroside), which 9 resulted in a visually perceptible loss of color. The detailed anthocyanin composition 10 monitored by HPLC-DAD-MS and the color variations by digital image analysis due to 11 saline stress showed that the effect was more noticeable at the basal portion of petals. A 12 Forward Stepwise Multiple Regression was performed for predicting the content of anthocyanins from appearance characteristics obtained by Image Analysis, reaching 13 14 *R*–square values up to 0.90.

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Keywords: *Hibiscus rosa-sinensis*, salt stress, anthocyanins, color, image analysis.

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INTRODUCTION

25 Hibiscus genus (Malvaceae) is one of the most popular ornamental plants cultivated in 26 tropical and subtropical regions since it presents several species with varying attractive 27 flower colors¹. Species of the genus *Hibiscus*, as *H. rosa-sinensis*, are particularly 28 appreciated for the color of the flowers with the base of the corolla forming a deep-colored heart and a bright red limb². The main compounds responsible for the characteristic 29 30 heterogeneous color pattern of Hibiscus flowers in red cultivars are anthocyanins, being preferentially accumulate on calvees³. More specifically, the major anthocyanins described 31 32 in *Hibiscus* spp. are delphinidin and cyanidin derivatives glycosylated with various sugar 33 moieties and occasionally acylated with organic acids and other phenolic compounds also 34 present in the flower organs⁴. 35 Anthocyanins are the largest group of water-soluble flavonoids pigments widely spread in 36 vascular plants where imparts the red, purple, and blue colors. As prominent members of the 37 secondary metabolite of plants, anthocyanins have multi-biological functions including 38 visual signal for pollinating insects, protection against different biotic and abiotic stresses, 39 hormone-like activity, etc. Consequently, they are considered very efficient bioactive 40 compounds and one of the most important natural and innocuous pigments in the plant-41 derived food. Thus, despite its undeniable importance as coloring agents, anthocyanins are 42 responsible for the commercial and medicinal value of *Hibiscus* spp. because of their role as antioxidants and the health benefits that have been associated with their presence in the 43 diet^{5,6}. Indeed, based on of their high content on anthocyanin pigments (2.5 g/100 g DW), 44 45 Hibiscus calyces continue attracting much attention for the pharmaceutical and food industry as a functional food or a good source of nutraceutical constituents. In this sense, they are 46 worldwide utilized in the preparation of beverages and color extracts^{1,3}. 47

Previous investigations have reported that the content and composition of pigments in plants
is conditioned by genetic and agronomic factors associated with biosynthetic changes ⁷ .
Among them, salt stress is one of the most important problems for many species, especially
in the Mediterranean areas where water resource is the main limiting factor ^{8,9} . Under salt
stress conditions, plants response with several physiological disorders affecting the osmotic
potential, photosynthetic rate and hormone synthesis (among others), which can determine
changes on phenological characteristics such as the root/shoot ratio, size and turn-over of
flowers or the pigment accumulation in plant tissues ^{7,10} . These eco-physiological responses
are usually visible through biomass reduction, leaf necrosis, chlorophyll loss or flower
discoloration, which are quality attributes markedly relevant from an ornamental and
phytochemical perspective.
Surprisingly, few studies have been carried out on ornamental pot plants and little have been
published regarding the response of these plants to saline fertirrigation, probably because
they have been generally irrigated with high-quality water. Those studies reported that the
saline fertirrigation had a negative effect on yield and decreased the flower quality 11,12.
However, the positive or negative effects of saline stress will depend on the degree of
tolerance of plants and stress saline conditions; so the mechanisms of salt stress action are
not yet completely clear, especially the impact on the pigment composition and color
expression of the flower organ.
Thus, the aim of this study was to assess the effect of salinity stress on various
physiological characteristics (flowers biomass production, ABA content, ion leakage and
leaf photochemical efficiency) of Hibiscus rosa-sinensis, which has been described as
moderately salt tolerant specie ¹³ . More deeply, the anthocyanin composition and content of
Hibiscus petals was also studied to evaluate the influence of stress saline conditions on the
color expression of the flower organ, objectively measure by digital image analysis

73	Recent advances in image acquisition technology offer the possibility of using technically
74	sophisticated apparatus available at relatively low cost, and the ability to evaluate areas in
75	terms of millions of pixels. In this way, more detailed evaluations of objects with
76	heterogeneous color as plant tissues is possible, since every different color present in the
77	image can be accounted for one or more pixels. Thus, Image Analysis arises as a good
78	option for satisfying the need of measuring color in this kind of samples. In addition,
79	possible color-anthocyanin composition relationships were studied by applying multivariate
80	statistical analysis.

81 MATERIAL AND METHODS

82 Chemicals and standards

- 83 Folin Ciocalteau reagent, gallic acid and quercetin standards were purchased from Sigma
- 84 (St. Louis, Mo., U.S.A). Cyanidin-3-glucoside was purchased from Extrasynthese (Genay,
- France). The solvents used in chromatography were HPLC-grade and purchased from Merck
- 86 (Darmstadt, Germany). All other chemicals were analytical grade and supplied by Panreac
- 87 Química (Barcelona, Spain).

88 Plant material, growing technique and treatments

- 89 Hibiscus rosa-sinensis L. (cv. Porto) plants were grown in a greenhouse located in Pisa
- 90 (latitude 43°43'N; longitude 10°23'E; Italy), under natural environmental conditions (22-26
- 91 °C). The plants were grown in pots containing soil:pumice mixture (3:1, v/v) and were
- 92 irrigated twice a day with a drip irrigation. Drip irrigation was carried out using a standard
- nutrient solution (120 g per plant) with an electrical conductivity (EC) of 2.6 dS m⁻¹ and pH
- 94 6.5. The composition of the standard nutrient solution was as follows (concentrations are
- 95 expressed in mol m⁻³): 11 N-NO₃ h, 1.3 P-PO, 6.2 K⁺, 3.1 Ca^{2+} , 1.2 Mg^{2+} , 9 Na^{+} , and 1.7 S-
- 96 SO₄². Micronutrients were added at Hoagland's concentration (in mmol m⁻³: B 25, 88 Fe, 1
- 97 Cu, 5 Zn, and 10 Mn).

When experiment started, 40 plants were subjected to salt-stress fertirrigation with NaCl at 200 mM, and the others 40 to standard fertirrigation (as control plants). This saline condition was selected to achieve a clearly marked discoloration of the petals to be related with the qualitative and quantitative modification of flower pigments. Plants were daily irrigated during 28 days. Fresh leaves and flowers samples with no apparent physical, insect or microbial damage were collected from control and treated *Hibiscus* plants, during or at the end of the experiment, and carefully transported to the laboratory for the downstream analysis.

Flowers fresh weight

Ten fresh flowers per treatment were collected to determine the fresh weight biomass production, expressed in g flower⁻¹. Flowers were sampled from different *Hibiscus* plants just at the end of the experiment (after 28 days) and directly analyzed.

110 Abscisic acid content determination, electrolyte leakage and chlorophyll a fluorescence

measurements

Leaves, petals, style-stigma plus stamens, and ovary samples (100 mg fresh weight, FW)
were collected, weighed, frozen in liquid nitrogen, and then stored at –80 °C until analysis.

ABA was measured after extraction in distilled water (water:tissue ratio=10:1 v/w)
overnight at 4 °C. Then ABA was determined by an indirect enzyme linked immunosorbent
assay (ELISA) based on the use of DBPA1 monoclonal antibody, raised against S(+)-ABA¹⁴
as described previously¹⁵.

For the electrolyte leakage, the leaves were sampled every 7 days until the end of the experiment. Ten leaves discs were incubated by shaking in 5 mL of distilled water for 4 h at room temperature. After the incubation, the conductivity in the solution was determined by H18733 conductivity meter (Hanna Instruments). Then, the samples were autoclaved, cooled and the conductivity was read again in the solutions. Ion leakage was expressed as a

123	percentage of the total conductivity after autoclaving 16. Chlorophyll a fluorescence
124	transients were determined on dark-adapted leaves kept for 30 min at room temperature,
125	using a portable Handy PEA (Hansatech, UK). Leaf fluorescence detection was measured by
126	fast-response PIN photodiode with RG9 longpass filter and an excitation light intensity
127	(ultrabright red LEDs with a peak at 650 nm) of 3000 μ mol m ⁻² s ⁻¹ (600W m ⁻²) (Hansatech,
128	technical manual). The parameters measured were Fo, Fm, and Fv/Fm. JIP analysis was
129	performed to determine the performance index (PI).
130	The chlorophyll fluorescence in plants adapted under ambient light conditions was measured
131	using FMS2 portable chlorophyll fluorometer (Hansatech, UK). The light was measured
132	using a PAR sensor and the parameters measured were the efficiency of the photosystem II
133	(FPSII), maximum fluorescence under light conditions (Fm'), electron transport rate (ETR).
134	Anthocyanin extracts from Hibiscus petals
135	Anthocyanin extracts were obtained from red petals of Hibiscus flowers. Nine petals per
136	treatment were carefully taken from fresh flowers just at the end of the experiment (after 28
137	days) and samples were frozen at -20 °C until the analysis
138	The extraction of anthocyanin compounds was carried out as follows. Petals were manually
139	divided in two pieces: the base (narrow basal portion) and the limb (cup-shaped upper
140	portion). Each part was individually analyzed (petal bases n=18; petal limbs n=18). Samples
141	were freeze-dried for 24 h (lyophilizer CRYODOS -80, Telstar® Varian DS 102). The total
142	amount of each homogeneous lyophilized powder obtained was separately extracted with
143	methanol containing 5% of concentrated hydrochloric acid, for 12 h, with occasional
144	agitation and sonication, in darkness at room temperature (18-20 °C). Then, supernatants
145	were centrifuged (4190 g, 10 min) and all the methanolic extracts were evaporated to
146	dryness in a rotary evaporator at temperature below 30 °C. The residues were dissolved in
147	500-1000 μL of distilled water and centrifuged at 4190 g for 3 min.

98	when experiment started, 40 plants were subjected to sait-stress fertirrigation with NaCl at
99	200 mM, and the others 40 to standard fertirrigation (as control plants). This saline condition
150	to 9 replicates per 2 treatments and 2 petal zones, as follows: 9 petal bases from control
151	plants; 9 petal limbs from control plants; 9 petal bases from salt-stress plants, and 9 petal
152	limbs from salt-stress plants. Moreover, each sample was analyzed in triplicate.
153	Total anthocyanin, flavonols and phenolic content
154	The spectrophotometric determination of total anthocyanin, flavonols and phenolic content
155	were performed with a Hewlett-Packard UV-vis HP8452 spectrophotometer (Palo Alto,
156	CA, USA), using 10 mm path length glass cells and distilled water as reference.
157	Total anthocyanin content was determined by the pH differential method ¹⁷ . Samples were
158	diluted with aqueous pH 1.0 and 4.5 buffers (Potassium chloride solution, 0.025 M, pH 1;
159	sodium acetate buffer, 0.4 M, pH 4.5) and left standing for 10 min, after which the
160	absorbance measurements were taken at 520 and 700 nm. The method assumes that
161	anthocyanin pigments show zero absorbance at pH 4.5. The molar extinction coefficient of
162	cyanidin-3-glucoside was 26 900 and its molecular weight was 449.2 Da. Results were
163	expressed in mg of anthocyanins (as cyanidin-3-glucoside equivalent) per 100 g petal dry
164	weight (DW).
165	Total flavonols content was determined using a modification of the Glories method ^{18,19} ,
166	originally for wine phenols. Samples were diluted 1:10 with 10% ethanol. The method
167	consisted of placing 0.25 mL of sample or standard in a test tube and adding 0.25 mL of
168	0.1% HCl in 95% ethanol and 4.55 mL of 2% HCl. The solution was mixed and allowed to
169	sit for approximately 15 min before reading the absorbance at 360 nm. Standard used was
170	quercetin in 95% ethanol and the results were expressed as mg of flavonols (expressed as
171	quercetin equivalents) per 100 g petal dry weight (DW).

173	Total phenolic content (TPC) was determined using a modification of the Folin-Ciocalteau
174	method ²⁰ . Absorbance was measured at 765 nm and the results were expressed as mg of
175	polyphenol (expressed as gallic acid equivalents) per 100 g petal dry weight (DW).
176	HPLC-DAD-ESI/MS analysis
177	HPLC-DAD analysis was performed in a Hewlett-Packard 1200 series liquid chromatograph
178	(Palo Alto, CA), equipped with a quaternary pump, column heater, an UV-Vis diode-array
179	detector, an automatic injector, and the ChemStation software. A Zorbax SB C18 column
180	(4.6 mm x 250 mm, 4.6 μm particle size) thermostated at 35 °C was used. All analyses were
181	made in triplicate by direct injection of the samples, previously filtered through a $0.45\mu m$
182	Nylon filter (E0034, ANALISIS VINICOS, Spain).
183	Chromatographic analysis was carried out following a modification of the method described
184	in Quijada-Morin et al.21. The solvents used were: (A) an aqueous solution (0.1%) of
185	trifluoroacetic acid (TFA), and (B) 100% HPLC-grade acetonitrile.
186	The elution profile was as follows: isocratic 10% B for 3.25 min, from 10 to 15% B for
187	12.37 min, isocratic 15% B for 5.21 min, from 15 to 18% B for 5.21 min, from 18 to 30% B
188	for 20.84 min and from 30 to 35% B for 5.20 min. The flow-rate was 0.8 mL min^{-1} and the
189	injection volume was 50 $\mu L.$ The UV-vis spectra were recorded from 220 to 600 nm with ϵ
190	bandwidth of 2.0 nm. Detection was carried out at 520 nm as the preferred wavelength.
191	For the anthocyanin identification, the mass spectrometer was connected to HPLC system
192	via the DAD cell outlet. MS detection was performed in a API 3200 Qtrap (Applied
193	Biosystems, Darmstadt, Germany) equipped with an ESI source and a triple quadrupole-ion
194	trap mass analyzer that was controlled by Analyst 5.1 software. Zero grade air served as
195	nebulizer gas (GS1) and turbo gas (GS2) for solvent drying. Nitrogen served as curtain
196	(CUR) and collision gas (CAD). MS analysis was carried out in positive mode (ESI+).
197	Setting used was optimized by direct infusion of a malvidin 3-O-glucoside solution:

198	declustering potential (DP) 41 V, entrance potential (EP) 7.5V, ion spray voltage (IS)
199	5000V, GS1 40 psi, GS2 50 psi (600 °C), CUR 20 psi, and CAD was set as "High". Both
200	quadrupoles were set at unit resolution. Mass method consisted of three mass experiments:
201	full mass analysis (EMS mode, collision energy (CE) 10V), MS2 analysis (EPI mode, CE
202	25V) and MS3 analysis (CE 30V, excitation energy (AF2) 50V). Spectra were recorded
203	between m/z 150 and 1100.
204	Anthocyanin compounds were identified by comparison of their retention time, UV-vis
205	spectra, and mass spectra features with data reported in literature. Quantification of
206	anthocyanins was calculated from the peak areas recorded at 520 nm using a calibration
207	curve purchase standard of cyanidin-3-glucoside. Results were expressed as mg/100 g of
208	petal dry weight (DW).
209	Color analysis of <i>Hibiscus</i> petals by Digital Image Analysis
210	Previous to the frozen treatment, the same fresh petals considered for the anthocyanin
211	determination (n=9 per treatment) were used to analyze the color of <i>Hibiscus</i> flowers by
212	digital images analysis.
213	The image acquisition was performed with a DigiEye imaging system ²² consisting of a
214	calibrated digital camera connected to a controlled illumination cabinet and a computer with
215	appropriate software (DigiPix). The digital camera used for image acquisition was a 10.2-
216	megapixel Nikon® D80 with Nikkor® 35 mm f/2D objective. It was connected via USB to a
217	computer with Pentium IV processor at 3.00 GHz. The cabinet (VeriVide DigiEye®
218	Leicester, UK) was equipped with two fluorescent tubes that emulate the standard illuminant
219	D65 and offer stable lighting conditions. Lamps were switched on at least ten minutes before
220	being used, according to manufacturer indications, to stabilize them. The camera was
221	calibrated with the Gretag Macbeth Colour Checker DC Chart in order to characterize its
222	response by relating the RGB signals to CIE specifications under the fixed lightning

.23	conditions in the cabinet. For the color measurements, fresh petal samples were
224	appropriately placed into the cabinet using a white background that ensures an adequate
225	segmentation of sample image.
226	For each image, a 625×625 pixel fixed area was taken and CIELAB color parameters data
227	$(L^*,a^*,b^*,C^*_{ab},andh_{ab})$ were estimated according to Rodríguez-Pulido et al. ²³ , with the
228	software Matlab $\ensuremath{\mathbb{R}}^{24}$. The color data obtained were averages of three measurements. In
229	addition, the Euclidean distance between two points in the three-dimensional space define
230	by L*, a*, and b* were used to calculate the color difference between control and saline
231	samples as follows: $\Delta E^*_{ab} = [(\Delta L^*)^2 + (\Delta a^*)^2 + (\Delta b^*)^2]^{1/2}$.
232	Statistical analysis
233	All statistical analyses were performed using software Statistica v.8.0 ²⁵ . Univariate analysis
234	of variance (ANOVA) was applied, using the general linear model procedure (GLM), to
235	establish whether mean values of the phenological and physicochemical data obtained
236	differed significantly as a function of the salinity treatment applied. The means values were
237	compared by t-test, Bonferroni test, or Tukey test at a significance level of $p < 0.05$.
238	Correlations between color parameters and anthocyanin content were studied by Forward
239	Stepwise Multiple Regression at a significance level of $p < 0.05$.
240	RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
241	Effect of salinity stress on abscisic acid content, ion leakage and photochemical
242	efficiency
243	The application of salinity stress for a prolonged period influenced the morphology and the
244	physiology of <i>H. rosa-sinensis</i> plants.
245	In our conditions, the saline irrigation caused a significant decrease in flower fresh mass,
246	which was about 60% after 28 days of treatment. The biomass reduction due to salt stress
247	may either be determined by the decreased availability of water or to the NaCl toxicity ²⁶ .

248	Previous research on other ornamental flowers showed that quality parameter like flower
249	weight was unfavorably affected by salinity ²⁷ . In fact, plants subjected to saline irrigation
250	require additional energy on plant cells. This extra metabolic energy is likely to be
251	consumed in processes related to osmotic adjustment within the cells and hence less carbon
252	is available for growth ²⁸ . This is particularly relevant for plant visual quality, because the
253	most decorative elements for ornamental plants are usually the flowers.
254	As reviewed by Ashraf and Harris ²⁹ , the salt sensitive species, showed an increase in
255	electrolyte leakage in the leaves under saline conditions. Electrolyte leakage is an indicator
256	for the extent of membrane damage under salinity stress and was determined in the fully
257	expanded leaves of salt-stressed H. rosa-sinensis. Low values of electrolyte leakage were
258	recorded in the controls (0 mM). The presence of NaCl in the rooting medium induced a
259	significant increase in electrolyte leakage in the leaves (Figure 1) and was greater as
260	exposure time to saline treatment increased reaching the maximum values after 28 days.
261	The hormone ABA is well known as a mediator in plant responses for both biotic and
262	abiotic stresses. Endogenous ABA concentrations fluctuate in response to environmental
263	conditions 30 , allowing plants to survive under adverse conditions, such as salt stress. In H .
264	rosa-sinensis plants, salinity increased ABA content in leaves (Figure 2). This is consistent
265	with other plant species that increase ABA production in response to salinity ³¹ . Moreover,
266	ABA levels varied among the flower tissues examined, and as showed in Figure 2, its
267	content enhanced in the style stigma plus stamens whereas in petals and ovary tissues
268	decreased. A possible relationship among the differential tissue-rate of growth under salinity
269	could explain the divergent trend of ABA levels in floral organs and needs to be further
270	explored.
271	To better characterize the physiology of Hibiscus, the chlorophyll a fluorescence was
272	measured. In dark adapted leaves the PI declined drastically after 28 days of saline

273	treatment, being 8.4 units in the control leaves whereas in the treated plants was 3.9 units. PI
274	is an overall index that combines different fluorescence parameters and has been frequently
275	employed to understand the responses of the photosynthetic apparatus to different
276	physiological and environmental conditions 10,32. Our results confirmed PI as a sensitive
277	indicator of salt stress. Also the chlorophyll a fluorescence measured from the light adapted
278	leaves subjected to saline irrigation, revealed a statistically relevant reduction in the relative
279	quantum yield of PSII (0.7 in the control plants versus 0.4 under saline treatment) and these
280	results are in agreement with the literature ³³ .
281	To summarize, salinity promoted several physiological and biochemical changes in <i>Hibiscus</i>
282	plant tissues including reduction of flower biomass and parameters associated with the
283	functioning of the photosynthetic apparatus as well as fluctuation of ABA levels, and
284	increase electrolyte leakage.
285	Effect of salinity stress on the anthocyanin composition and color
286	Considering the heterogeneous color pattern of <i>H. rosa-sinensis</i> flowers with two red zones
287	visually discernible, the base and the limb of petals were analyzed as separate groups to
288	determinate possible differences regarding their anthocyanin composition and content; as
289	well as to evaluate the influence of saline stress in each zone.
290	Results showed that the base and limb of flowers presented the same anthocyanin profile.
291	The chromatographic analysis of the extracts, registered at 520 nm, shows the presence of
292	five anthocyanins (Figure 3.A), all of them identified as cyanidin derivatives according to
293	their chromatographic and spectrometric features obtained in the HPLC-DAD-MS analysis
294	(Table 1).
295	The major anthocyanin found in Hibiscus rosa-sinensis flowers was identified as cyanidin-
296	3-sophoroside (peak 1), which accounted for 80% of total peak area. The mass spectrum of
297	peak 1 (Figure 3.B) obtained in the ESI positive mode exhibited an ion at m/z 611. MS/MS

298	fragmentation of m/z 611 produced a daughter ion at m/z 287 which was indicative of the
299	cyanidin moiety, as previously found in literature ³⁴ .
300	Peak 2, was identified as cyanidin-3-sambubidoside based on its characteristic molecular ion
301	at m/z 581 and a major fragment in MS ² at m/z 287, which has been described as one of the
302	most common anthocyanin in diverse Hisbiscus spp¹. However, in our H. rosa-sinensis
303	extracts, it was only detected in trace levels.
304	Peak 3 represented the second predominant anthocyanin in the analyzed extracts accounting
305	for nearly 12% of total anthocyanins. Its fragmentation pattern showed a molecular ion at
306	m/z 639 which produced two MS ² daughter ions at m/z 449 (M+-190) which corresponds to
307	cyanidin-hexose moiety; and m/z ratio at 287 (M+-190-162) which corresponds to cyanidin-
308	aglycone moiety were found (Figure 3.C). Despite MS^2 fragmentation pattern could not be
309	confirmed with reported data, it indicated the sequential losses of an unidentified substituent
310	(190 amu) and one hexose residue (162 amu, i.e. glucose as abundant sugar in plants) from
311	aglycone. According to the literature, the glycoside moieties of anthocyanins are usually
312	esterified with different organic or phenolic acids. Among them, the hibiscus acid has been
313	described as a common compound of Hibiscus species showing a characteristic loss of 190
314	amu ³⁵ , when it appears as an esterification substituent. Moreover, the acylated nature of this
315	compound is consistent with their relative retention time in the HPLC analysis, eluting
316	before the corresponding 3-glycosides derivatives. Thus, peak 3 would tentatively
317	correspond to a cyanidin-3-glucoside esterified by an hibiscus acid moiety.
318	In addition to the abovementioned compounds, other two minor pigments were also detected
319	(peaks 4 and 5) although their absorption or mass spectra were insufficient to allow
320	speculation about their identity. Their structures still need to be elucidated by comparison of
321	MS data with reference standards or using other spectroscopic techniques such as NMR.

322	The concentration of the different anthocyanins detected by HPLC-DAD-MS together with
323	the total content of anthocyanins, flavonols and polyphenols assessed by rapid
324	spectrophometric methods are shown in Table 2, where the effect of saline fertirrigation can
325	be observed.
326	Although there were five anthocyanins detected, quantitative differences for all the
327	individual compounds were observed among the two distinct areas of the petals. Generally,
328	the petal limb contained more anthocyanins and other phenolics than the base, which
329	support the heterogeneous color pattern exhibited by <i>H. rosa-sinensis</i> flowers. For the
330	control sample, the average values of Total anthocyanins, flavonols and polyphenolic
331	content in the petal limb were found to be 821.5±37.3, 23.0±0.9 and 2252.4±129.4 mg/100g
332	DW, whereas the global levels in the petal base were 228.0±48.9, 12.9±1.2 and 1077.9±98.5
333	mg/100g DW, respectively.
334	As can be observed, the saline treatment significant ($p < 0.05$) affected the anthocyanin
335	composition of <i>Hibiscus</i> flowers reducing its content (Figure 3.A), but the magnitude of the
336	effect was different in each zone of the petal (Table 2). The increase in the salinity of the
337	nutrient solution was accompanied by a stronger decrease of the Total anthocyanin content
338	in the base than in the limb (30% versus 20%, approximately), which is mainly due to the
339	cyanidin-3-sophoroside reduction in both cases. In particular, some of the individual
340	anthocyanin compounds present in the limb were not affected by the saline treatment, which
341	could explain the lower loss of pigments in this zone of the flower. As reported by other
342	authors ³ , differences between the glycosyl units and acyl groups attached to the aglycone,
343	and the site of their bonding, have a significant influence on the stability and reactivity of
344	the anthocyanin molecule.
345	Furthermore, the saline fertirrigation caused a negative impact in the accumulation of other
346	phenolic compounds since their total content was lower in flowers from plants grown with

347	salinity stress conditions (25% and 15% lower for Total flavonols, and 29% and 10% lower
348	for Total polyphenols; in the base and limb respectively). There is considerable controversy
349	in the literature concerning the positive and negative effects of salt stress on the phenolic
350	composition of many plant species. Some authors have shown that the application of
351	moderate salt stress stimulates the anthocyanin synthesis ⁷ . However, our results are in
352	agreement with those reported by Li et al. ³⁶ , which observed that the anthocyanin content in
353	grapes was negatively affected by high saline conditions (100-150 mM NaCl).
354	Regarding the color characteristics of <i>H. rosa-sinensis</i> flowers, Figure 4 shows the three-
355	dimensional colorimetric representation of a petal sample (control plant) obtained by Digital
356	Image analysis. It presents the L^* , C^*_{ab} , and h_{ab} CIELAB values assigned to each pixel of
357	the petal image grouped regarding the petal zone (base and limb; n=100 pixel/petal zone),
358	which provide a full characterization of the color variability of samples ³⁷ . As can be seen,
359	the color of the base could be easily distinguishable from the limb. Color points
360	corresponding to the limb area appeared more disperse than those of the base, and showed
361	higher values of lightness (L* ranging from 23 to 42 versus 26 to 37 CIELAB u.,
362	respectively), chroma (C* $_{ab}$ from 31 to 47 versus 29 to 35 CIELAB u.) and hue (h $_{ab}$ from 35
363	to 53 $^{\circ}$ versus 30 to 41 $^{\circ}$). This meant that the petal limb exhibits more vivid color with red-
364	orange hues, which is consistent with the higher accumulation of red-orange forms of
365	anthocyanins (cyanidin derivatives) in this flower zone ³⁸ . On the contrary, the base of the
366	petal corresponds to a more homogeneous redness area with darker and less saturated color,
367	due to their lower concentration in cyanidin derivative pigments. Apart from the different
368	amounts in pigments, the differences observed for the total content of flavonols and
369	polyphenols in each petal zone (Table 2) may also account for the natural color variability of
370	Hibiscus flowers since colorless phenolics are usually implied in the color expression of
371	anthocyanins by means of copigmentation reactions contributing with color changes ³⁹ .

322	The concentration of the different anthocyanins detected by HPLC-DAD-MS together with
373	the fertirrigation treatment are summarized in Table 2, where p-values for comparison
374	among control and saline samples are shown. Results indicate that the color of Hibiscus
375	flowers was significantly (p <0.05) affected by salt treatment, which was in accordance with
376	the effect induced in the pigment composition. The addition of 200 mM of NaCl into
377	nutrient solution resulted in quantitative (L* and C* $_{ab}$) and qualitative (h $_{ab}$) color variations
378	both in the base and the limb of <i>Hibiscus</i> petals (Figures 5.A and 5.B). Specifically, salt
379	stress resulted in a general loss of color, as can be seen in Table 2. In each zone, L^{\ast} and h_{ab}
380	values increased while C^*_{ab} values decreased (L* by 21% and 11%; h_{ab} by 20% and 5%,
381	C* _{ab} by 12% and 3%, in the base and the limb respectively), so <i>Hibiscus</i> flowers exhibited
382	clearer and less vivid red color when they were fertirrigated under saline stress conditions,
383	being the effect more marked in the base of the petals.
384	These results were also confirmed through the quantitative mean color difference (ΔE^*_{ab})
385	calculated among control and saline samples in each petal zone, which were 4.1 and 9.6
386	CIELAB u. for the petal limb and base, respectively. Taking into account that ΔE^*_{ab} of up to
387	three CIELAB units indicates color differences appreciable to the human eyes ⁴⁰ , it was
388	confirmed that more important and hence more easily perceptible color loss was caused in
389	the base of the <i>Hibiscus</i> petal, which is consistent with the higher reduction of the pigment
390	concentration in this flower zone.
391	Apart from the assessment of color itself, the objective measurement of color can be
392	harnessed for the rapid determination of pigments. In this regard, color measurements offer a
393	series of advantages for this purpose, like rapidity, non destructiveness and simplicity,
394	among others. A Forward Stepwise Multiple Regression was performed for predicting the
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