



Smoke-water enhances *in vitro* pollen germination and tube elongation of three species of Amaryllidaceae



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ABSTRACT

Smoke-water prepared from burning plant material and smoke-derived compounds significantly promote seed germination and enhance growth of many plant species. Since large amounts of smoke are generated and released into the air during wildfires, it is possible that angiosperm pollen germination and pollen tube elongation may be affected by plant-derived smoke even when the plants are some distance from the fire. We assessed the effect of smoke on pollen germination and pollen tube elongation for three species of Amaryllidaceae that occur naturally in areas prone to winter fire in South Africa. *In vitro* pollen germination and pollen tube growth of *Clivia gardenii*, *Cyrtanthus mackenii* and *Scadoxus multiflorus* were assessed by preparing hanging drop slides with different concentrations of smoke-water, karrikinolide and 3,4,5-trimethylfuran-2(5H)-one combined with Brewbaker and Kwack's medium and a sucrose and boric acid medium. These slides were incubated for 2 h at 25 °C. Pollen germination and pollen tube lengths were recorded by capturing images with a compound microscope aided by a digital camera. Low concentrations of smoke-water (1:1000 and 1:2000 v:v) significantly increased pollen germination and pollen tube length in the three species, when applied alone or in combination with either Brewbaker and Kwack's medium or sucrose and boric acid medium. Low concentrations of smoke-water significantly increased *in vitro* pollen germination and pollen tube growth even when no additional calcium was added. Consequently, smoke from grassland fires may have favourable implications for the reproductive process of flowering plants.

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1. Introduction

Fire has a great influence on vegetation ecology. Shrub species from fire-prone ecosystems show diverse responses to fire with post-fire regeneration evident in shrublands around the world (Keeley and Zedler, 1978; Kruger, 1977). Smoke generated from burning plant material is now widely recognized as an important germination and seedling growth cue for many plant species (Downes et al., 2013; Kulkarni et al., 2007; Light and Van Staden, 2004). In fire-prone areas, fire-stimulated flowering is also a common phenomenon, especially in herbaceous plants (Gill and Groves, 1981; Rundel, 1981). For example, flowering of *Cyrtanthus ventricosus* (Amaryllidaceae), a fynbos geophyte commonly known as the 'fire-lily', is associated with fire (Le Maitre and Brown, 1992; Olivier and Werner, 1980). Fire also plays a role in mass flowering of *Watsonia borbonica* (Iridaceae) which leads to abundant fruit set (Le Maitre, 1984) and seedling recruitment (Kruger, 1978; Kruger and Bigalke, 1984; Le Maitre, 1984). Greater fruiting has also been observed in the grasstree *Xanthorrhoea preissii*, in summer-burnt populations compared to autumn- and spring-burnt populations (Lamont et al., 2000). Despite numerous reports of fire-stimulated

flowering, no study has been carried out on the effect of smoke on angiosperm pollen.

Smoke-water (SW), prepared by bubbling plant-derived smoke through distilled water, has been used extensively as a "smoke equivalent" in many studies (Adkins and Peters, 2001; Baxter et al., 1994; Doherty and Cohn, 2000; Drewes et al., 1995; Kulkarni et al., 2011). Some of the active principles in smoke have been identified and the activity is still being studied. Karrikinolide (KAR₁), the first biologically active compound isolated from smoke, promotes seed germination in a wide variety of species (Chiwocha et al., 2009; Light et al., 2009). These reviews indicate that smoke-water and the smoke-derived compounds act like plant growth regulators in stimulating seed germination. 3,4,5-Trimethylfuran-2(5H)-one (trimethylbutenolide (TMB)) is also present in plant-derived smoke and inhibits the promotory activity of KAR₁ (Light et al., 2010).

In vitro pollen growth studies are largely aimed at determining the growth requirements of pollen from different plant species (Abdelgadir et al., 2012; Bolat and Pirlak, 1999; Brewbaker and Kwack, 1963; Franklin-Tong, 1999; Khatun and Flowers, 1995; Kumari et al., 2009; Lyra et al., 2011; Sato et al., 1998; Tuinstra and Wedel, 2000; Wang et al., 2004). Various plant growth regulators such as auxins, brassinosteroids, cytokinins and gibberellic acid have been found to induce pollen germination and pollen tube growth in several species (Bamzai and Randhawa, 1967; Hewitt et al., 1985; Singh et al.,

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2002; Smith, 1942; Voyiatzis and Paraskevopoulou-Paroussi, 2000). We predict that given the plant growth regulator-like germination inducing effects of smoke, smoke may also have an effect on pollen.

Fire is a common phenomenon in most regions of South Africa with the majority of the flora being exposed to smoke from naturally occurring wildfires. Fire plays an important role as a germination stimulant and assures the reproductive success of many plant species. It is possible that smoke from these fires may affect the reproductive success of plants at the pollen level. In the present study, the effect of smoke-water and two smoke-derived compounds was tested on pollen germination and pollen tube growth of three Amaryllidaceae species, all of which are generally found in fire-prone areas.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Flower and pollen collection

The three Amaryllidaceae species used in this study were *Clivia gardenii* Hook., *Cyrtanthus mackenii* Hook.f. subsp. *mackenii* and *Scadoxus multiflorus* (Martyn) Raf. subsp. *multiflorus*. These species produce hermaphrodite flowers in an umbel arrangement. Flowers were collected from the University of KwaZulu-Natal's botanical garden (Pietermaritzburg, South Africa; S 29° 37.50', E 30° 24.23'). Following anthesis, anthers were collected from flowers between 07:00 and 09:00 in the morning.

2.2. Pollen viability

Three pollen staining methods were used to differentiate between viable and dead pollen. For all three staining methods, a small quantity of pollen grains was transferred to a drop of dye, mixed thoroughly to a homogenous pollen suspension using a pin and covered with a cover slip. Pollen grains were observed with an Olympus AX70 fluorescence microscope (Camera Nikon DS-Ri1, Tokyo, Japan). The number of viable pollen grains was recorded in each field of view out of the total number of pollen grains. Pollen grains were observed in four different fields of view (replicated four times). The dyes used were: (1) Aqueous 2,3,5-triphenyl tetrazolium chloride (TTC, Merck) [pollen grains that turned red under fluorescence were considered viable (Abdelgadir et al., 2012; Hauser and Morrison, 1964; Khatun and Flowers, 1995; Stanley and Linskens, 1974)]. (2) Aniline blue-lactophenol (ANB, Merck) staining solution consisting of 5 mL phenol, 20 mL lactic acid, 40 mL glycerol, and 20 mL distilled water (Kearns and Inouye, 1993) [pollen grains were considered viable if they fluoresced blue (Kearns and Inouye, 1993; Khatun and Flowers, 1995; Wang et al., 2004)]. (3) Fluorescein diacetate (FDA) (Sigma-Aldrich) dissolved in acetone (2 mg mL⁻¹) and used in combination with 10⁻⁶ M sucrose solution was used for the fluorochromatic reaction (FCR) [pollen grains that fluoresced brightly were taken as viable (Heslop-Harrison and Heslop-Harrison, 1970; Heslop-Harrison et al., 1984; Jain and Shivanna, 1988; Kearns and Inouye, 1993; Khatun and Flowers, 1995; Shivanna and Heslop-Harrison, 1981; Wang et al., 2004)]. The microscope slides for all three staining methods were kept in humidity chambers (>90% RH) and placed in the dark for 1 h at 25 °C.

2.3. In vitro pollen germination and pollen tube elongation

All test solutions were evaluated for activity individually and in combination with either Brewbaker and Kwack's (BWK) medium and sucrose or boric acid (SB) medium. The BWK medium was prepared by making a 10% sucrose solution to which 100 mg L⁻¹ boric acid, 300 mg L⁻¹ calcium nitrate, 100 mg L⁻¹ potassium nitrate and 200 mg L⁻¹ magnesium sulphate were added (Brewbaker and Kwack, 1963; Shivanna and Rangaswamy, 1992). The SB medium consisted of a 10% sucrose solution with 100 mg L⁻¹ boric acid (Kumari et al., 2009; Linskens, 1967; Shivanna and Rangaswamy, 1992). Smoke-water (SW) was prepared by burning 5 kg dry *Themeda triandra*

(Poaceae) leaf material in a 20 L metal drum and bubbling the smoke through 500 mL distilled water for 45 min. The SW solutions, 1:500 (v:v), 1:1000 (v:v) and 1:2000 (v:v), were prepared by diluting 1 part SW in 500, 1000 and 2000 parts distilled water. Karrikinolide and 3,4,5-trimethylfuran-2(5H)-one [trimethylbutenolide (TMB)] were isolated from SW as described in Van Staden et al. (2004), and Light et al. (2010), respectively. The different liquid media used were as follows: (1) distilled water; (2) BWK; (3) SB; (4) gibberellic acid, GA₃ (10⁻⁴ M); (5) GA₃ (10⁻⁵ M); (6) SW (1:500); (7) SW (1:1000); (8) SW (1:2000); (9) BWK + SW (1:500); (10) BWK + SW (1:1000); (11) BWK + SW (1:2000); (12) SB + SW (1:500); (13) SB + SW (1:1000); (14) SB + SW (1:2000); (15) karrikinolide, KAR₁ (10⁻⁶ M); (16) KAR₁ (10⁻⁷ M); (17) KAR₁ (10⁻⁸ M); (18) BWK + KAR₁ (10⁻⁶ M); (19) SB + KAR₁ (10⁻⁶ M); (20) TMB (10⁻³ M); (21) BWK + TMB (10⁻³ M) and (22) SB + TMB (10⁻³ M). Since the 10⁻⁶ M concentration of KAR₁ gave the best results in the absence of the sucrose media, this concentration was used in combination with the two sucrose media. Similarly, the 10⁻³ M TMB solution gave the best results, and no other concentrations were therefore included. All chemicals that are not otherwise specified were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich.

Six hanging drop slides were prepared for each test solution (replicated four times). A thin film of petroleum jelly was applied to the rim of the cavity of each cavity slide to prevent evaporation of the test solutions. A consistent amount of pollen grains were transferred from the anthers to each hanging drop slide and mixed into a homogenous pollen suspension using a pin. Preparation of the slides was scheduled in a manner that allowed for the images to be captured exactly 2 h following incubation at 25 °C. Images were taken using a compound microscope (Olympus AX70; Camera Nikon DS-Ri1, Tokyo, Japan). Pollen grains were considered germinated when an intact tube had emerged from them. The percentage of germinated pollen grains was calculated by counting the number of germinated pollen grains out of the total number of pollen grains per field of view. Pollen tube lengths were determined by analysing the images captured using the on-board NIS elements BR4.00.016 software. Mean pollen tube length was calculated as the average length of 20 pollen tubes per replicate (replicated three times).

2.4. Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis of the data was conducted using a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) (GenStat®, Edition 14). Significant differences were determined using the Duncan's multiple range test ($P < 0.05$).

3. Results

3.1. Pollen viability

The three staining methods, TTC, ANB and FCR successfully stained and indicated viable pollen grains. Viability ranged between 92.2%–94.2%, 76.9%–90.1% and 75.0%–91.0% for *C. gardenii*, *C. mackenii* and *S. multiflorus*, respectively (Fig. 1). No significant differences were found between the three staining methods.

3.2. In vitro pollen germination

In vitro pollen germination was initiated within the first 30 min with BWK and SB media. Optimum pollen germination was achieved with BWK medium. In the absence of the media (BWK medium and SB medium), low concentrations of SW (1:1000 and 1:2000) significantly increased germination in all three species (Table 1). Gibberellic acid (10⁻⁴ and 10⁻⁵ M) also produced significantly higher germination compared to the water control (Table 1). In the presence of both media, low concentrations of SW (1:1000 and 1:2000) significantly increased germination in *C. gardenii* and *S. multiflorus* (Fig. 2A and C). Karrikinolide (10⁻⁶ M) showed significantly greater pollen germination

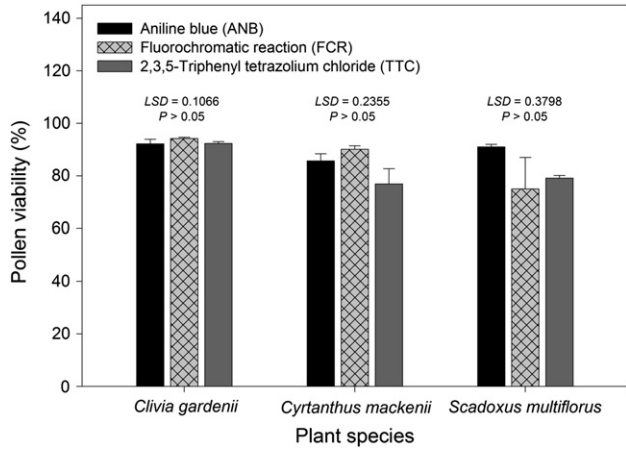


Fig. 1. Pollen viability of *Clivia gardenii*, *Cyrtanthus mackenii* and *Scadoxus multiflorus* as determined by three fluorescent staining methods ($n = 16$).

in all three species compared to the controls in the absence of media (Table 1) and produced significantly higher germination in *C. gardenii* when incubated with both media (Fig. 2A). Trimethylbutenolide showed significantly higher pollen germination percentages for *S. multiflorus* and *C. gardenii* compared to their respective controls in the absence of media (Table 1) but had no significant effect on germination of any species when combined with BWK or SB medium (Fig. 2).

3.3. In vitro pollen tube elongation

In the absence of media, low concentrations of SW (1:1000 and 1:2000) significantly increased pollen tube length compared to the other treatments in all three species (Table 1). Gibberellic acid (10^{-4} and 10^{-5} M) produced significantly longer pollen tubes compared to the water control in *C. mackenii* (Table 1). Smoke-water (1:1000 and 1:2000) used in combination with BWK and SB produced significantly longer pollen tubes compared to their respective controls in all three species (Fig. 3). In one instance, KAR_1 (10^{-6} M) significantly increased *C. gardenii* pollen tube length compared to the other treatments in the absence of media (Table 1) and produced significantly longer pollen tubes in *S. multiflorus* in the presence of both media (Fig. 3E and F). Trimethylbutenolide produced significantly longer pollen tubes in *S. multiflorus* compared to the control in the absence of media (Table 1). This compound also produced significantly longer pollen tubes in *C. mackenii* and *S. multiflorus* when combined with both media (Fig. 3C, D, E and F).

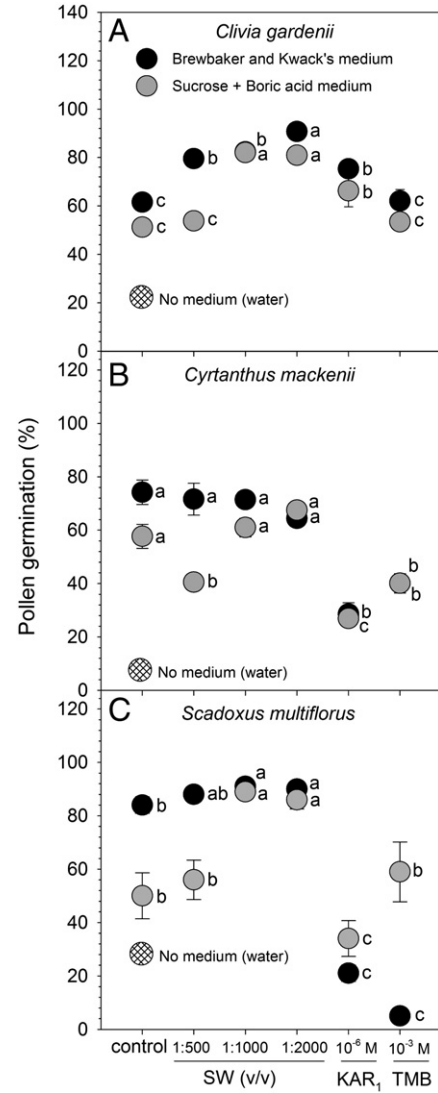


Fig. 2. The effect of different concentrations of smoke-water (SW), karrikinolide (KAR_1) and trimethylbutenolide (TMB) on pollen germination of three Amaryllidaceae species applied in combination with two sucrose media. Symbols (\pm SE) of each species and medium with a different letter are significantly different according to Duncan's multiple range test ($P < 0.05$) ($n = 24$).

Table 1

The effect of gibberellic acid (GA_3), smoke-water (SW), karrikinolide (KAR_1) and trimethylbutenolide (TMB) on pollen germination ($n = 24$) and pollen tube length ($n = 60$) of three Amaryllidaceae species in the absence of media.

Treatments	Species		<i>Cyrtanthus mackenii</i>		<i>Scadoxus multiflorus</i>			
	<i>Clivia gardenii</i>		Germination (%)	Tube length (μ m)	Germination (%)	Tube length (μ m)	Germination (%)	Tube length (μ m)
Water (control)	24.1 \pm 2.5 fg	29.5 \pm 1.6 e	7.5 \pm 2.2 d	49.5 \pm 4.8 c	26.0 \pm 6.4 e	90.7 \pm 13.6 de		
GA_3 (10^{-4} M)	59.9 \pm 5.1 bc	45.7 \pm 4.2 de	30.1 \pm 2.0 b	101.3 \pm 8.9 b	82.8 \pm 1.2 ab	58.0 \pm 4.6 e		
GA_3 (10^{-5} M)	57.4 \pm 3.5 c	55.0 \pm 2.5 d	25.8 \pm 1.5 b	105.3 \pm 8.9 b	75.2 \pm 2.2 ab	60.7 \pm 5.0 e		
SW (1:500 v:v)	59.8 \pm 2.1 bc	42.1 \pm 2.3 de	21.1 \pm 1.2 bc	78.5 \pm 9.6 bc	36.1 \pm 3.6 de	213.5 \pm 7.1 a		
SW (1:1000 v:v)	70.3 \pm 1.8 ab	170.5 \pm 9.5 b	40.6 \pm 3.7 a	166.3 \pm 16.7 a	84.2 \pm 2.5 a	188.7 \pm 35.9 ab		
SW (1:2000 v:v)	71.6 \pm 4.7 a	111.6 \pm 4.5 c	40.6 \pm 6.9 a	172.8 \pm 17.2 a	78.8 \pm 1.3 ab	222.2 \pm 7.6 a		
KAR_1 (10^{-6} M)	50.6 \pm 3.1 cd	241.6 \pm 10.8 a	25.6 \pm 2.5 b	67.2 \pm 7.8 c	69.3 \pm 3.0 cd	128.7 \pm 8.5 cd		
KAR_1 (10^{-7} M)	32.7 \pm 4.9 ef	43.7 \pm 6.6 de	10.5 \pm 3.6 cd	46.4 \pm 6.1 c	66.4 \pm 6.1 abc	141.8 \pm 5.2 c		
KAR_1 (10^{-8} M)	17.3 \pm 1.6 g	29.9 \pm 3.1 e	10.9 \pm 1.2 cd	62.2 \pm 8.3 c	67.2 \pm 1.7 abc	75.5 \pm 6.3 e		
TMB (10^{-3} M)	44.4 \pm 3.5 de	28.4 \pm 2.1 e	8.4 \pm 1.5 d	56.2 \pm 5.3 c	72.8 \pm 1.4 abc	153 \pm 21.4 bc		

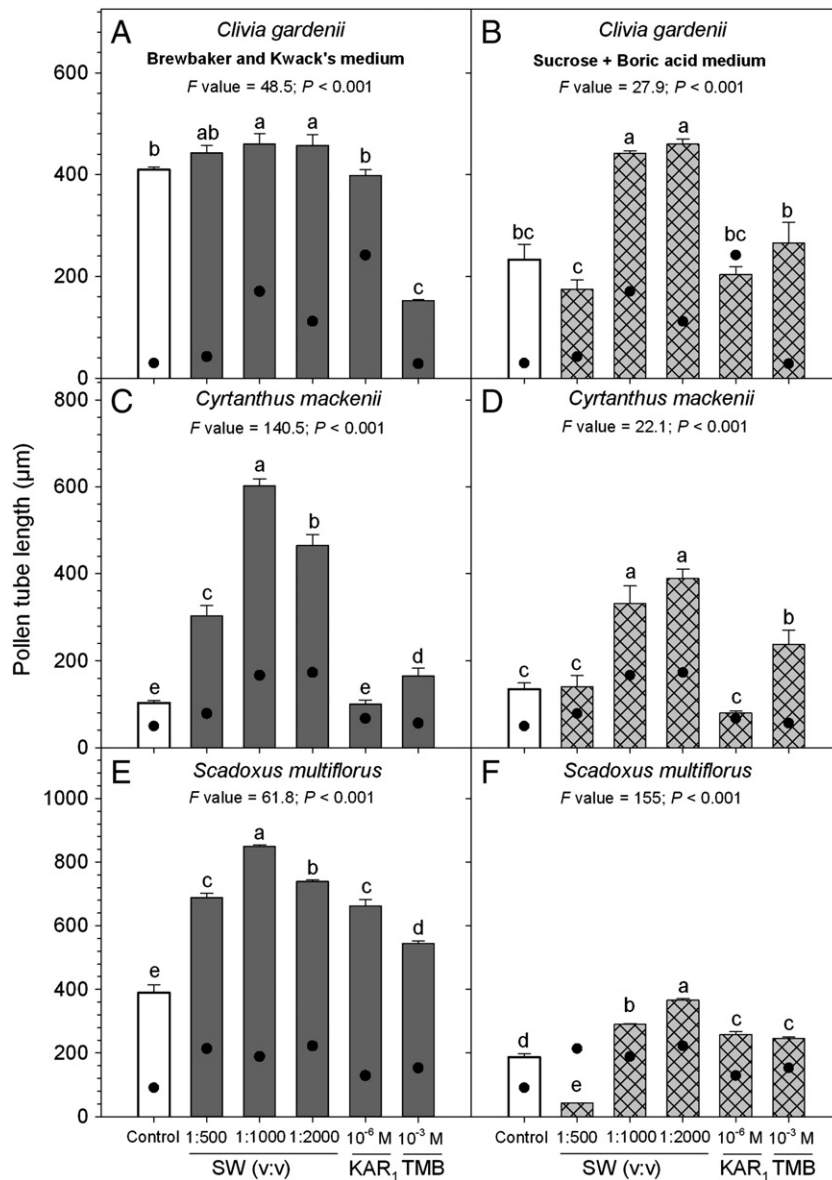


Fig. 3. The effect of different concentrations of smoke-water (SW), karrikinolide (KAR₁) and trimethylbutenolide (TMB) on pollen tube length of three Amoryllidaceae species. Bars (\pm SE) of each species and medium with different letters are significantly different according to Duncan's multiple range test ($P < 0.05$). Dark symbols on the bars indicate mean pollen tube length without media ($n = 60$).

4. Discussion

Many studies have reported on the growth requirements and viability of pollen of certain groups of plant species (Abdelgadir et al., 2012; Bolat and Pirlak, 1999; Brewbaker and Kwack, 1963; Franklin-Tong, 1999; Khatun and Flowers, 1995; Kumari et al., 2009; Lyra et al., 2011; Sato et al., 1998; Tuinstra and Wedel, 2000; Wang et al., 2004). Addicott (1943) showed that certain vitamins and growth substances have the potential to increase pollen germination and elongation under *in vitro* conditions. The addition of growth regulators such as auxins, brassinosteroids, cytokinins and gibberellic acid stimulate pollen germination and pollen tube growth in several species (Bamzai and Randhawa, 1967; Hewitt et al., 1985; Singh et al., 2002; Smith, 1942; Voyiatzis and Paraskevopoulou-Paroussi, 2000). These studies indicated that pollen growth can be manipulated in *in vitro* systems and that plant growth regulators play a role in the normal germination and growth of pollen.

This is the first report on the use of SW and smoke-derived compounds to promote pollen germination and pollen tube growth. In the absence of sucrose containing media, low concentrations of SW (1:1000 and 1:2000) significantly increased pollen germination and pollen tube elongation in all three species, respectively (Table 1). These results were significantly different to the GA₃ treatments. This is an important result since these solutions contained no added sucrose, calcium (Ca) and boron which are known to be prerequisites for successful *in vitro* pollen germination and pollen tube elongation (Brewbaker and Kwack, 1963). This indicates that SW has the ability to stimulate pollen germination and pollen tube growth even when the precise medium requirements are not met. If SW stimulates pollen growth in a wide variety of species then it could be a useful tool in breeding studies.

Maximal pollen germination and pollen tube lengths were found when the pollen grains were treated with low concentrations of SW in the presence of BWK medium. Although the BWK medium supplied

the necessary sucrose and Ca, SW (1:1000) still resulted in significantly higher pollen germination percentages (Fig. 2) and longer pollen tubes in all three studied species (Fig. 3). This result indicates that there might be other compounds present in SW that stimulate pollen growth. This idea is supported by the SB + SW (1:2000) results (Fig. 3), which showed that pollen tube length was doubled compared to the respective SB control in all three tested species. Considering that the SB medium contained no added Ca, these results indicate that SW has the ability to alleviate the Ca requirement for germination and tube growth of *in vitro* germinated pollen.

The seed germination stimulating effect documented for KAR₁ (Chiwocha et al., 2009; Light et al., 2009) and the inhibitory effects of TMB (Light et al., 2010) were not analogues to the effects when applied to *in vitro* germinated pollen. Thus, compared with a promotory effect of KAR₁ on seed germination, this compound reduced pollen germination for *C. mackenii* and *S. multiflorus* and only stimulated germination in *C. gardenii* (Fig. 2). Similarly, TMB reduced pollen germination in *C. mackenii* and *S. multiflorus* compared to the respective controls but had no effect on *C. gardenii* pollen (Fig. 2). Nonetheless the inhibitory activity of this compound on pollen germination was much less than the effect it has on seed germination (Light et al., 2010). Although KAR₁ and TMB showed some promotory activity in terms of pollen tube growth (Fig. 3), these treatments were not as consistent as the SW treatments. Since there is no cell division during pollen tube elongation, SW could function in stimulating the mobilisation of the sucrose rich reserves in the pollen grains. The inconsistent activities of KAR₁ and TMB on pollen germination could be a consequence of their ability to stimulate cell division rather than reserve mobilisation.

Flowers produced by the Amaryllidaceae family have great potential for hybridization and commercialization (Niederwieser et al., 2002). However, the main constraints are irregular flowering and difficulty in manipulating flowering. Since low concentrations of SW (1:1000 and 1:2000) consistently showed significantly higher pollen germination percentages and longer pollen tubes in this study, such treatments have potential to increase the reproductive success of species in the Amaryllidaceae. It is, however, also important to determine whether SW has a similar effect on species from other plant families. The findings of this study are crucial for investigating post-fire flowering of smoke-responsive and non-responsive plant species.

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