1	
2	
3	
4	
5	Responses of black spruce (Picea mariana) and tamarack (Larix laricina) to flooding and
6	ethylene treatments.
7	
8	M. ANISUL ISLAM, S. ELLEN MACDONALD <sup>1</sup> and JANUSZ J. ZWIAZEK
9	Department of Renewable Resources, University of Alberta, Edmonton, Alberta, T6G 2E3.
10	Canada.
11	
12	<sup>1</sup> Corresponding Author:
13	
14	Phone: (780) 492-3070
15	Fax: (780) 492-4323
16	E-mail: ellen.macdonald@ualberta.ca
17	
18	Running head: Flooding tolerance of black spruce and tamarack
19	
20	
21	
22	
23	
24	

## 1 Summary

Black spruce (*Picea mariana* (Mill.) B. S. P.) and tamarack (*Larix laricina* (Du Roi) K. Koch) 2 are the predominant tree species in boreal peatlands of Alberta, Canada where low nutrient 3 availability, low soil temperature and high water table limit their growth. Effects of flooding for 4 28 days on morphological and physiological responses were investigated in greenhouse grown 5 6 black spruce and tamarack seedlings in a growth chamber. Flooding reduced root hydraulic conductance, net assimilation rates and stomatal conductance and increased water use efficiency 7 (WUE) and needle electrolyte leakage in both species. Flooded black spruce seedlings 8 9 maintained higher net assimilation rates, stomatal conductance and WUE compared to flooded tamarack. However, flooded tamarack seedlings were able to maintain higher root hydraulic 10 conductance compared to flooded black spruce seedlings. Needles of flooded black spruce 11 developed tip necrosis and electrolyte leakage after 14 days of flooding and these symptoms 12 were subsequently more prominent than in flooded tamarack seedlings. No visible injury 13 symptoms were observed in flooded tamarack seedlings. Flooded tamarack seedlings also 14 developed hypertrophied lenticels at their stem base. Application of exogenous ethylene resulted 15 in a significant reduction of net assimilation, stomatal conductance, and root respiration only in 16 black spruce while root hydraulic conductivity increased in both species. These results suggest 17 that, although flooded black spruce seedlings maintained a higher rate of net assimilation and 18 stomatal conductance than tamarack, black spruce failed to cope with the deleterious effects of 19 20 prolonged soil flooding and exogenous ethylene as well as tamarack.

21

*Keywords: electrolyte leakage, net assimilation, root hydraulic conductance, root respiration, stomatal conductance.*

### 1 Introduction

Black spruce (*Picea mariana* (Mill.) B. S. P.) and tamarack (*Larix laricina* (Du Roi) K. 2 Koch) are the dominant tree species in the boreal peatlands in Alberta, Canada. Natural stands of 3 these species have very low productivity (Lieffers and Macdonald 1990). These organic sites are 4 characterized by shallow water table and cold substrate temperatures (Van Cleve et al. 1983) and 5 undergo significant variation in depth of water table during the growing season. The growth of 6 roots of these species is generally confined to surface layers above the average water table depth, 7 with deeper roots being pruned off by anaerobic conditions (Boggie and Miller 1976, 8 9 Mannerkoski 1985, Lieffers and Rothwell 1986). Oxygen supply to tree roots decreases significantly when the water table rises close to the peat surface (Kozlowski 1984, Mannerkoski 10 1985). 11

Low oxygen (hypoxia-inducing) conditions, characteristic of flooded soils, result in a 12 rapid reduction in transpiration, stomatal conductance and photosynthesis of many woody plants 13 (Anderson et al. 1984, Levan and Riha 1986, Pereira and Kozlowski 1977, Pezeshki and 14 Chambers 1986) resulting in decreased tree productivity. As an evergreen with sclerophyllous 15 leaves, black spruce is considered a bog-adapted plant. Tamarack also has sclerophyllous leaves 16 but is deciduous (Tyrell and Boerner 1987). Although black spruce and tamarack co-occur on 17 moderately minerotropic peatlands, tamarack tends to dominate on wetter, minerotropic sites 18 (Jeglum and He 1996, Tilton 1977, Kenkel 1987). A correlation between relative dominance and 19 height growth along hydrologic and nutrient gradients suggests that performance differences 20 underlie these species' distributions among microsites within peatlands (Montague and Givnish 21 1996). Still the dominance of tamarack over black spruce on wetter sites is not well understood. 22

1	The ability of tamarack to transport oxygen to its roots and sustain limited respiration under
2	anaerobic conditions (Conlin and Lieffers 1993) may play a role.
3	Flooding triggers ethylene accumulation in plants (Tang and Kozlowski 1984a and b,
4	Blake and Reid 1981) and plant physiological processes such as net assimilation, transpiration,
5	and stomatal conductance are inhibited by elevated levels of ethylene (Govindarajan and
6	Poovaiah 1982, Kays and Pallas 1980, Pallas and Kays 1982). Ethylene produced during
7	flooding (Kawase 1976) was the likely factor responsible for promoting the outgrowth of
8	adventitious roots in tamarack (Hahn et al. 1920). Flood tolerance and emergence of adventitious
9	root often occur simultaneously (Clemens et al. 1978, Sena Gomez and Kozlowski 1980a,
10	1980b).
11	Although there have been several studies conducted to examine flooding tolerance of
12	black spruce, no studies have compared flooding tolerance of black spruce and tamarack. In this
13	paper, we examined the effect of four weeks of soil flooding on gas exchange, root hydraulic
14	conductance, ethylene evolution and membrane damage in black spruce and tamarack.
15	Subsequently, we examined the effect of exogenous ethylene on these physiological processes.
16	We hypothesized that flood tolerance of tamarack is conferred by its greater tolerance to ethylene
17	accumulation.
18	
19	Materials and Methods:

20 Plant material and treatment application:

Six-month-old black spruce (*Picea mariana* (Mill.) B. S. P.) and tamarack (*Larix laricina*(Du Roi) K. Koch) seedlings were used in the flooding experiment. Seeds were obtained from
the Alberta Tree Improvement and Seed Center (ATISC acc #4042). Seeds were stratified for

1	three weeks at 4 <sup>0</sup> C and seeds were germinated in Petri-dishes. One week after germination,
2	seedlings were transplanted to Spencer-Lemaire (300ml) containers (Spencer-Lemaire Industries
3	Ltd. Edmonton, AB. Canada) containing (1:1:1; peat:moss:vermiculite) planting medium Pro-
4	Mix BX (Premier Horticulture Inc., Riviere-du-Loup, Que. Canada) and placed in the
5	greenhouse under $21 \pm 3^{\circ}$ C temperature and 16-h photoperiod. Seedlings were watered to run off
6	every other day and fertilized once a week with 30-10-10 N-P-K fertilizer (Plant-prod <sup>®</sup> - Plant
7	Products Co. Ltd., ON, Canada). Seedlings were transferred to 5" pots when they were three
8	months old.
9	One week prior to the start of the experiment, seedlings were transferred to a controlled
10	growth chamber with 21°C/18°C day/night temperature, 65% relative humidity and 16-h
11	photoperiod with photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) of 400 $\mu$ mol m <sup>-2</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> provided by
12	fluorescent and incandescent lamps.
13	
14	Treatment application and experimental design:
15	Seedlings from both black spruce and tamarack were randomly placed in buckets where
16	flooding was imposed by submerging the seedlings to a root-collar level. Perforated buckets
17	were used for control (non-flooded) seedlings to ensure adequate drainage. Data were collected
18	on day 2, 5, 8, 11, 14, 18, 22 and 28 after treatment imposition. On each measurement day, the
19	various physiological parameters were measured on five randomly selected seedlings from each
20	species x treatment combination. Only one seedling of a species was withdrawn from a given
21	bucket on a given measurement day. A total of 160 seedlings (N) were used in this experiment.
22	The experiment was a split-split-plot design (between subjects: flooding, within-subjects: species

and time) and buckets were considered nested within treatments.

1	The statistical model is as following:
2	$Y_{ijklm} = \mu + F_i + B_{j(i)} + S_k + FS_{ik} + B_{j(ik)} + T_l + TF_{il} + TS_{kl} + TFS_{ikl} + E_{ijkhm}$
3	Where, $Y_{ijklm}$ = dependent variable (physiological parameter e.g., net assimilation, stomatal
4	conductance, electrolyte leakage etc.), $\mu$ = overall mean, F = flooding treatment (i = 1,2), B =
5	bucket within flooding treatment (j = 1,2,14); S = species (k = 1,2); T = time (l = 1,2,8);
6	E = error term (m = 1, 2, 160). Flooding, species and time were considered fixed effects, bucket
7	within treatment was a random effect.
8	Data were analyzed using analysis of variance (using version 8.1; SAS Institute Inc.,
9	Cary, NC. 1996) to determine the main and interactive effects of flooding, time and species.
10	Means were compared for significant differences at $P < 0.05$ using Tukey's test.
11	
12	a) Flooding experiment:
13	Measurements of net assimilation (NA), stomatal conductance $(g_s)$ & water use efficiency (WUE)

Net assimilation (NA), Stomatal conductance  $(g_s)$  and water use efficiency (WUE; net 14 carbon assimilation rate divided by transpiration rate) of the flooded and non-flooded black 15 spruce and tamarack seedlings were measured using an open-system infrared gas analyzer 16 (IRGA) (LCA-3: Analytical Development Company Ltd. Hoddesdon, U.K.) equipped with a 17 conifer cuvette (Macdonald and Lieffers 1990). Net assimilation and stomatal conductance rate 18 were calculated as described by Caemmerer and Farquhar (1981) and expressed on a leaf area 19 basis. An artificial light source was used to supplement the PAR to 1000  $\mu$ mol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>. The 20 uppermost shoots of a randomly selected seedling from each species and treatment combination 21 were placed in the cuvette for gas exchange measurements. Gas exchange and all other 22 physiological measurements were taken on days 2, 5, 8, 11, 14, 18, 22, and 28 after flooding 23

imposition and expressed on a leaf area basis. Needles were carefully detached from the stem
and their surface areas were measured after computer scanning (Sigma Scan 3.0, Jandel
Scientific, San Rafael, CA, USA).

4

5 *Root hydraulic conductance:* 

Root hydraulic conductance ( $K_r$ ) is defined as water flow rate (kg s<sup>-1</sup>) per unit pressure 6 drop (MPa) driving flow through the entire root system whereas root hydraulic conductivity  $(L_p)$ 7 is obtained by dividing the  $K_r$  value by root volume (measured by the water displacement 8 method) and expressed in kg MPa<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> cm<sup>-3</sup> root volume. Root hydraulic conductance ( $K_r$ ) was 9 measured in intact roots of the same seedlings used for the gas exchange measurements, using a 10 High Pressure Flow Meter [HPFM] (Dynamax, Houston, TX, USA) as described by Tyree et al. 11 (1995). The use of HPFM allows for measurements of intact roots since the water is applied 12 under increasing pressure through an excised stem (around the root collar level) into the root 13 system (Tyree et al. 1995). In this experiment, the stems of both species were cut at 2 cm above 14 the root collar and flow rates of all the seedlings were measured at same temperature over a 15 range of pressure from 0 to 2.75 MPa to obtain a linear pressure – flow relationship Tyree et al. 16 (1995). Root hydraulic conductance of five root systems (from the same seedlings where all 17 other gas exchange measurements were done) was measured from each species x treatment 18 combination on each measurement day and was expressed in kg MPa  $^{-1}$ s $^{-1}$ . 19

20

21 Electrolyte leakage:

Following measurements of hydraulic conductance electrolyte leakage, a measure of the cell integrity and of the loss of cell membrane leakiness, was measured on the same seedlings

using a conductivity meter HI 8733 (Hanna Instruments Inc., Woonsocket, RI, USA) as 1 described by Zwiazek and Blake (1990) and Renault et al. (1998). Needles (approximately 0.5 g) 2 were taken from five seedlings per treatment combination (black spruce and tamarack, flooded 3 and non-flooded), washed with deionized water three times and placed in separate tubes, each 4 containing 20-ml of deionized water. After 5 hours of incubation on an orbital shaker at 50 rpm, 5 initial measurements were taken for electrical conductivity of the solution. Total electrolytes of 6 the samples were obtained by autoclaving the samples at 121°C for 15 minutes followed by 7 freezing overnight at  $-85^{\circ}$ C. The samples were thawed by placing them in a water bath at room 8 temperature for about 5 hours. Total electrolytes of the sample solution were then measured and 9 electrolyte leakage was calculated as a percentage of the total electrolytes. 10 *Ethylene evolution:* 11

Finally, ethylene evolution was determined for the same seedlings using a Hewlett Packard 5890 Series II gas chromatograph (Hewlett Packard, Missisauga, ON, Canada) equipped with a flame ionization detector (FID) and an electronic integrator. The separation was carried out on a 30-m-long, 0.31-mm internal diameter GS-Q column (J & W Scientific, Folson, CA, USA) under the following conditions: oven temperature 60<sup>o</sup>C, injector and detector temperatures 150<sup>o</sup>C. The carrier gas was helium with linear flow rate of 30 cm s<sup>-1</sup>. This GS-Q column is capable of distinguishing between ethylene and ethane.

To measure ethylene evolution from both flooded and non-flooded black spruce and tamarack seedlings, root samples and needles were enclosed in 9-ml septum vials and incubated for 10h at room temperature ( $22\pm2^{\circ}$ C) (modified after Tang and Kozlowski 1984*b*). A 0.025ml sample of the ethylene-containing air was injected into the gas chromatograph column. The

1 concentration of ethylene was determined by comparing the peak area with pure ethylene

standards. Released-ethylene was expressed as nL (g needle dry weight<sup>-1</sup>  $h^{-1}$ .

3

#### 4 **b) Ethylene experiment:**

## 5 *Treatment application and Experimental design:*

Six-month-old black spruce and tamarack seedlings, grown as described above, were 6 used in the experiment. Roots of an intact seedling were placed in 500-ml brown non-reactive 7 plastic containers with half of the volume filled with half-strength Hoagland's solution 8 (Kamaluddin and Zwiazek 2002). Seedling root systems were supplied with 20  $\mu$ L L<sup>-1</sup> of 9 10 ethylene into the plastic container from a pure ethylene gas cylinder through a 1-mm diameter 11 tube. The tube attached and was stretched to the bottom of the container and then it was tightly 12 closed. Control seedlings were not given any ethylene but were kept in sealed containers. Root systems were treated with entrapped ethylene for 12 hour. A syringe was used to withdraw a 13 14 sampled of the entrapped ethylene for determination of its concentration by means of gas chromatography; the peak area of the sample was compared with that produced by standard 15 (PRAXAIR, Danbury, CT, USA) pure ethylene. A 2X2 factorial design was used in the ethylene 16 experiment with species (black spruce and tamarack) and ethylene addition (with or without) as 17 main (fixed) effects. Twelve hours after application of the ethylene gas exchange, root hydraulic 18 conductivity and needle electrolyte leakage were measured as described above. Data were 19 20 analyzed using analysis of variance using SAS version 8.1 (SAS Institute Inc. 1987).

21

22 Root Respiration:

1	Root respiration of the whole root system was also measured by recording oxygen uptake
2	with a Clark-type electrode (Yellow Springs Instruments, Yellow Springs, OH, USA). Root
3	systems of the ethylene-treated and un-treated black spruce and tamarack seedlings $(n = 5)$ were
4	placed in an airtight cylinder containing half-strength Hoagland's solution. Oxygen uptake rates
5	were recorded every two minutes for 20 minutes. Respiration rate was expressed as average of
6	oxygen uptake over time expressed in mg $L^{-1}$ .
7	
8	Results:
9	a) Flooding experiment:

Visible damage of roots was observed in flooded seedlings of both species. Flooding reduced the root mass in both flooded black spruce and tamarack seedlings compared to their non-flooded controls (not quantified, easily visible). No adventitious roots were observed in any flooded seedlings while stem hypertrophy (swelling at the flood-water line) was observed in flooded tamarack seedlings.

16 *Physiological responses:* 

*Root morphology:* 

10

Flooding significantly reduced net assimilation, stomatal conductance and root hydraulic conductance while increasing water use efficiency and needle electrolyte leakage in both species. A significant (P < 0.0001) reduction in net assimilation (NA) rate was observed in both black spruce and tamarack seedlings under flooding compared to their non-flooded controls (Figure 1A, Table 1a). Non-flooded black spruce seedlings maintained a higher net assimilation rate per unit leaf area than non-flooded tamarack seedlings throughout the experiment. The same trend was observed in flooded seedlings until 14 days of flooding after which net assimilation rate of

1	black spruce declined sharply. There were no significant effects of bucket within flooding
2	treatment on the measured response variables.
3	A significant ( $P < 0.0001$ ) reduction in stomatal conductance was also observed from 2 d
4	under flooded conditions when compared to non-flooded seedlings of both species (Figure 1B,
5	Table 1a). No significant species differences were observed in stomatal conductance under
6	flooding. Flooding significantly ( $P < 0.0083$ ) increased the water use efficiency in flooded
7	seedlings of both species compared to their non-flooded controls (Figure. 1C, Table 1a). Flooded
8	tamarack seedlings had significantly higher WUE on day 2, 5, and 18) WUE when compared
9	with flooded black spruce seedlings.
10	Flooding significantly ( $P < 0.0001$ ) reduced root hydraulic conductance in both black
11	spruce and tamarack seedlings compared to their non-flooded controls (Figure 1D, Table 1a).
12	However, on day 14, flooded tamarack seedlings were able to maintain a higher root hydraulic
13	conductance compared with flooded black spruce seedlings.
14	Flooding also significantly increased ( $P < 0.0001$ ) electrolyte leakage in the foliage of
15	both black spruce and tamarack seedlings (after 14 days of flooding) compared to their non-
16	flooded controls (Figure 1E, Table 1a). However, on day 22, electrolyte leakage was
17	significantly higher in flooded black spruce seedlings compared to flooded tamarack seedlings.
18	Flooded black spruce seedlings appeared to develop needle necrosis on day 14 and continued to
19	increase over time and about 40% of the total needles showed signs of necrosis in flooded black
20	spruce seedlings by the end of the experiment. On the contrary, no necrosis was observed in
21	flooded tamarack seedlings. The severity of needle necrosis was consistent with the degree of
22	electrolyte leakage over time.

Both flooded black spruce and tamarack seedlings (root and needle samples) produced
 ethylene. However, no significant trends in relation to species or flooding treatment were
 observed.

4

## 5 **b) Ethylene treatment:**

Application of exogenous ethylene resulted in a significant reduction in net assimilation 6 (P < 0.0021) in black spruce seedlings while there were no significant effects on tamarack 7 (Figure 2A, Table 1b). Stomatal conductance significantly (P<0.0004) declined in both species 8 after ethylene treatment (Figure 2B, Table 1b). Ethylene treatment also resulted in a significant 9 reduction in root respiration (P < 0.0001) in both species (Figure 3A, Table 1b). However, the 10 magnitude of these reductions was higher in black spruce than in tamarack (Figures 2B and 3A). 11 Root hydraulic conductivity increased significantly (P < 0.0005) in tamarack after treatment with 12 ethylene but there was no significant effect for black spruce (Figure 3B, Table 1b). Although 13 electrolyte leakage increased with ethylene treatment for both species, it was statistically not 14 significant. 15

16

### 17 **Discussion:**

Although the general patterns of response were similar for both species there were some key differences in timing and magnitude of responses. Overall, our results suggest that tamarack seedlings were more resistant to four weeks of flooding than black spruce. Flooding reduced net assimilation and stomatal conductance from day two through day 28 for both species. Stomata began to close within two days of flooding (Figure1B). The functional significance of stomatal closure seems to be to restrict water loss from the shoots during the time of lowered root hydraulic conductance (*K*<sub>r</sub>), an effect observed simultaneously in both black spruce and tamarack
 from day two of flooding imposition (Figure 1D).

Early stomatal closure during flooding can occur with and without leaf dehydration 3 (Kramer and Jackson 1954, Pereira and Kozlowski 1977). Several experiments have shown that 4 a reduction in soil oxygen can also induce stomatal closure without a change in leaf water 5 potential (Sojka and Stolzy 1980, Stolzy et al. 1961). However, Else et al. (2001) reported that 6 stomatal closure and slower leaf expansion in flooded *Ricinus communis* were due to a decrease 7 in root hydraulic conductivity that reduced leaf water potential. Stomatal control mechanisms in 8 9 flooded plants may vary with duration of flooding, condition of the root system, and growth stage (Coutts 1981). Stomata of Picea sitchensis seedlings closed gradually as shoots dehydrated 10 over a period of flooding (Coutts 1981). We saw a similar trend of gradual stomatal closure 11 coupled with a reduction in root hydraulic conductance presumably due to the impact of oxygen 12 deficits on membranes in black spruce and tamarack in this study. Our results contrast with those 13 of Reece and Riha (1991) in which root hydraulic conductance of tamarack and white spruce 14 appeared to be unaffected after 10 days of flooding. 15

Although root hydraulic conductance and stomatal conductance were significantly 16 reduced in flooded seedlings, there was an increase in WUE on day 14 of flooding. This increase 17 in WUE corresponds to a gradual decline in stomatal conductance, which is likely attributable to 18 the fact that the flow of water vapor through the stomata is more sensitive to partial closure than 19 20 is the flow of carbon dioxide. An increase in electrolyte leakages in flooded black spruce seedlings is likely a consequence of membrane damage. As a consequence of membrane damage, 21 the net assimilation rate declined in flooded black spruce seedlings. Although flooded black 22 23 spruce seedlings were able to maintain higher net assimilation and stomatal conductance

compared with flooded tamarack seedlings during the initial phase of flooding, they showed 1 reduced root hydraulic conductance. Black spruce needles exhibited discoloration and necrosis, 2 which could possibly be explained by high membrane damage. In flooding stress, ultra-structural 3 symptoms appeared to be related to the development of nutrient imbalance in needles of Norway 4 spruce and Scots pine (Palomaki et al. 1994). In contrast to black spruce, flooded tamarack 5 seedlings had reduced net assimilation and stomatal conductance but were able to maintain 6 higher root hydraulic conductance. Consequently flooded tamarack had a lesser degree of 7 membrane damage and showed no visual symptoms of damage. 8

9 It is interesting to note that while flooded black spruce seedlings failed to demonstrate any morphological acclimation to flooding, tamarack showed stem hypertrophy (swelling at the 10 flood-water line). Stem hypertrophy has been reported to facilitate the aeration of submerged 11 roots (Vartapetian and Jackson 1997). Blake and Reid (1981) reported that hypertrophy, 12 especially the production of spongy aerenchyma tissue above the water level, may allow the 13 plant to eliminate ethylene as well as aerate the roots, therefore, this mechanism could be helpful 14 with avoiding flooding stress. In our study, no adventitious roots were observed in any flooded 15 seedlings. 16

In terms of morphological responses, tamarack had a higher root mass with many new roots, than black spruce seedlings and maintained that even during flooding. This is of particular importance since young roots and root tips have the highest respiration rate per unit volume of tissue (Nilsen and Orcutt 1996). It has been already reported that tamarack can sustain root respiration during anaerobiosis (Conlin and Lieffers 1993). It should also be noted that during flooding soil nitrogen is dominated by ammonium ions while nitrate decreases (Armstrong et al.

1	1994). Uptake of ammonium requires root respiration (Chapin et al. 1987). This might also
2	contribute to tamarack's ability to withstand prolonged flooding.
3	Increased ethylene synthesis has been shown to be associated in many plant species with
4	oxygen deficiency and flooding (Kawase 1976, Wample and Reid 1979, Drew et al. 1981,
5	Metraux and Kende 1983, Raskin and Kende 1984). Ethylene concentration in shoots is often
6	higher when roots are submerged in water with low oxygen content (Kawase 1972, Jackson and
7	Campbell 1976). Membrane damage and leaf epinasty in stressed seedlings are often attributed to
8	increased ethylene production in plants during stress (Blake and Reid 1981). In our study,
9	electrolyte leakage increased significantly in flooded seedlings of both black spruce and
10	tamarack (Figure 1E). However, we did not observe a consistent trend in ethylene accumulation
11	in flooded black spruce and tamarack seedlings.
12	Since exogenous ethylene produces symptoms typical of flooding in plants (e.g.,
13	formation of adventitious roots, leaf epinasty, and stem hypertrophy Kawase 1972, Wample and
14	Reid 1979), seedlings of both black spruce and tamarack were treated with exogenous ethylene
15	in another experiment. Since root containers were kept sealed during the ethylene treatment the
16	observed response may be due to the combined effect of ethylene, reduced oxygen and high
17	carbon dioxide.
18	Reductions in net assimilation and stomatal conductance as a result of exogenous
19	ethylene treatment in this study were consistent with earlier findings (Govindrajan and Poovaiah
20	1982, Pallas and Kays 1980). There is variability between species in their response to ethylene.

21 Changes in stomatal conductance generally exceed that of net assimilation although for some

species the ethylene-induced changes in stomatal conductance and net assimilation are not

necessarily well coupled (Taylor and Gunderson 1986). In our study black spruce and tamarack
 differed in their responses to ethylene application.

Root hydraulic conductivity was measured to take into account the variability of root 3 volume in different seedlings since the duration of the ethylene treatment was short. Increased 4 hydraulic conductivity in ethylene treated seedlings of both black spruce and tamarack might be 5 explained by the increased activity of aquaporins. In plants, aquaporins are thought to regulate 6 the water flow through membranes during growth, development and stress responses (Cheng et 7 al. 1997). Evidence suggests that ethylene enhances protein phosphorylation (Raz and Fluhr 8 9 1993), which in turn enhances aquaporin activity and increased hydraulic conductance. Exogenous ethylene also increased root hydraulic conductivity in hypoxic aspen (Kamaluddin 10 and Zwiazek 2002). Increased root hydraulic conductance appeared to be a key factor in the 11 better growth performance and higher net photosynthesis of *Coffea canephora* plants under 12 conditions of water excess (Fahl et al. 2001). 13 Continued water uptake by roots is oxygen dependent because both the active ion uptake 14 needed to maintain an osmotic gradient across the root (Rowe and Beardsell 1973) as well as 15 membrane hydraulic conductivity (Glinka and Reinhold 1962) are known to require oxygen. 16 Although root respiration was reduced with ethylene treatment in both species, the magnitude of 17

19 conductivity.

18

In conclusion, our study demonstrated that tamarack exhibits greater flooding resistance compared with black spruce. Black spruce was more responsive to exogenous ethylene. We suggest that morphological acclimations, maintaining high rates of root hydraulic conductance

reduction was greater in black spruce possibly explaining the resulting lower root hydraulic

1	and the ability to withstand ethylene induced by flooding are the key factors conferring greater
2	flooding tolerance in tamarack than black spruce.
3	
4	Acknowledgements
5	This work was supported by a Research Grant from the Natural Sciences and Engineering
6	Research Council of Canada (NSERC) to SEM. MAI gratefully acknowledges funding in the
7	form of Graduate Assistantship and Graduate Intern Tuition Supplement from Department of
8	Renewable Resources, University of Alberta. We thank Kim Ozeroff for laboratory assistance.
9	
10	
11	
12	
13	
14	References
15	Anderson, P.C., P.B. Lombard, and M.N. Westwood. 1984. Leaf conductance, growth, and
16	survival of willow and deciduous fruit tree species under flooded soil conditions. J. Am.
17	Soc. Hortic. Sci. 109:132-138.
18	Armstrong, W., R. Brandle and M.B. Jackson. 1994. Mechanisms of flood tolerance in plants.
19	Acts. Bot. Neerl. 43:307-358.
20	Blake, T.J., and D.M. Reid. 1981. Ethylene, water relations and tolerance to waterlogging of
21	three Eucalyptus species. Aust. J. Plant Physiol. 8:497-505.
22	Boggie, R. and H.G. Miller. 1976. Growth of Pinus contorta at different water levels in deep
23	blanket peat. Forestry (Oxf.) 49:123-131.

1	Caemmerer, S.V. and G.D. Farquhar. 1981. Some relationship between biochemistry of
2	photosynthesis and the gas exchange of leaves. Planta 153:376-387.
3	Chapin, F.S.III, A.J. Bloom, C.B. Field and R.H. Waring. 1987. Plant responses to multiple
4	environmental stresses. BioScience 37:49-56.
5	Cheng, A., A.N. van Hoek, M. Yeager, A.S. Verkman and A.K. Mitra. 1997. Three-dimensional
6	organization of a human water channel. Nature 387:627-630.
7	Clemens, J., A.M. Kirk and P.D. Mills. 1978. The resistance to waterlogging of three Eucalyptus
8	species, effect of flooding and of ethylene-releasing growth substances on E. robusta, E.
9	grandis, and E. saligna. Oecologia 34:125-131.
10	Conlin, T.S.S., and V.J. Lieffers. 1993. Anaerobic and aerobic efflux rates from boreal forest
11	conifer roots at low temperature. Can. J. For. Res. 23:767-771.
12	Coutts, M. P.1981. Effects of waterlogging on water relations of actively growing and dormant
13	sitka spruce seedlings. Ann. Bot. 47:747-753.
14	Drew, M.C., M.B. Jackson, S.C. Giffard and R. Campbell. 1981. Inhibition by silver ions of gas
15	space (aerenchyma) formation in adventitious roots of Zea mays L. subjected to exogenous
16	ethylene or to oxygen deficiency. Planta 153:217-224.
17	Else, M.A., D. Coupland, L. Dutton and M.B. Jackson. 2001. Decreased root hydraulic
18	conductivity reduces leaf water potential, initiates stomatal closure and slows leaf
19	expansion in flooded plants of castor oil (Ricinus communis) despite diminished delivery of
20	ABA from the roots to shoots in xylem sap. Physiol. Plant. 111:46-54.
21	Fahl, J.I., M.L.C. Carelli, H.C. Menezes, P.B. Gallo and P.C.O. Trivelin. 2001. Gas exchange,
22	growth, yield and beverage quality of Coffea arabica cultivars grafted on the C. canephora
23	and C. congensis. Exp. Agric. 37:241:252.

1	Glinka, Z. and L. Reinhold. 1962. Rapid changes in permeability of cell membranes to water
2	brought about by carbon dioxide and oxygen. Plant Physiol. 37:481-486.
3	Govindarajan, A.G., and B.W. Poovaiah. 1982. Effect of root zone carbon dioxide enrichment on
4	ethylene inhibition of carbon assimilation in potato plants. Physiol. Plant 55:465-469.
5	Hahn, G.G., C. Hartley and A.S. Rhoads. 1920. Hypertrophied lenticels on roots of conifers and
6	their relation to moisture and aeration. J. Agric. Res. 20:253-265.
7	Jackson, M.B. and D.J. Campbell. 1976. Waterlogging and petiol epinasty in tomato: The role of
8	ethylene and low oxygen. New Phytol. 76:21-29.
9	Jeglum, J.K. and F.L. He. 1996. Pattern and vegetation – environment relationships in a boreal
10	forest: Temporal and spatial patterns. Can. J. Bot. 73:629-637.
11	Kamaluddin, M. and J.J. Zwiazek. 2002. Ethylene enhances water transport in hypoxic aspen.
12	Plant Physiol. 120:962-969.
13	Kawase, M. 1972. Effect of flooding on ethylene concentration in horticultural plants. J. Am.
14	Soc. Hortic. Sci. 97:584-588.
15	Kawase, M. 1976. Ethylene accumulation in flooded plants. Physiol. Plant. 36:236-241.
16	Kays, S.J. and J.E. Jr. Pallas. 1980. Inhibition of photosynthesis by ethylene. Nature 285:56-57.
17	Kenkel, N.C. 1987. Trends and interrelationships in boreal wetlands vegetation. Can. J. Bot.
18	65:12-22.
19	Kozlowski, T.T. 1984. Plant responses to flooding to soil. BioScience 34:162-169.
20	Kramer, P.J. and W.T. Jackson. 1954. Causes of injury to flooded tobacco plants. Plant Physiol.
21	29:241-245.
22	Levan, M.A. and S.J. Riha. 1986. Response of root systems of northern conifer transplants to
23	flooding. Can. J. For. Res. 16:42-46.

1	Lieffers, V.J. and S.E. Macdonald. 1990. Growth and foliar nutrient status of black spruce and
2	tamarack in relation to depth of water table in some Alberta peatlands. Can. J. For. Res.
3	20:805-809.
4	Lieffers, V,J. and R.L. Rothwell. 1986. Rooting of peatland black spruce and tamarack in
5	relation to depth of water table. Can. J. Bot. 65:817-821.
6	Macdonald, S.E. and V.J. Lieffers. 1990. Photosynthesis, water relations, and foliar nitrogen
7	Picea mariana and Larix laricina from drained and undrained peatlands. Can. J. For. Res.
8	20:995-1000.
9	Mannerkoski, H. 1985. Effect of water table fluctuation on the ecology of peat soil. Publication
10	from the Department of Peatland Forestry, University of Helsinki 7, Helsinki.
11	Metraux, J.P. and H. Kende. 1983. The role of ethylene in the growth response of submerged
12	deepwater rice. Plant Physiol. 72:441-446.
13	Montague, T.G. and T.J. Givnish. 1996. Distribution of black spruce versus eastern larch along
14	peatland gradients: relationship to relative stature, growth rate, and shade tolerance. Can. J.
15	Bot. 74:1514-1532.
16	Nilsen, E.T. and D.M. Orcutt. 1996. The physiology of plants under stress. Abiotic Factors. John
17	Wiley & Sons, Inc. NY, USA. pp. 369-378.
18	Palomaki, V., J.K. Holopainen and T. Holopainen. 1994. Effects of drought and waterlogging on
19	ultrasturcture of Scots pine and Norway spruce needles. Trees 9:98-105.
20	Pallas, J.E. Jr. and S.J. Kays. 1982. Inhibition of photosynthesis by ethylene – a stomatal effect.
21	Plant Physiol. 70:598-601.
22	Pereira, J.S. and T.T. Kozlowski. 1977. Variation among woody angiosperms in response to
23	flooding. Physiol. Planta. 41:184-192.

1	Pezeshki, S.R. and J.L. Chambers. 1986. Variation in flood-induced stomatal and photosynthetic
2	responses of three bottomland tree species. For. Sci. 4:914-923.
3	Raskin, I., and H. Kende. 1984. Regulation of growth in stem sections of deepwater rice. Planta
4	160:66-172.
5	Raz, V. and R. Fluhr. 1993. Ethylene signal is transduced via protein phosphorylation events in
6	plants. Plant Cell 5:523-530.
7	Reece, C.F. and S.J. Riha. 1991. Role of root systems of eastern larch and white spruce in
8	response to flooding. Plant Cell and Environment 14:229-234.
9	Renault, S., C. Lait, J.J. Zwiazek and M. MacKinnon. 1998. Effect of high salinity tailings
10	waters produced from gypsum treatment of oil sands tailings on plants of the boreal forest.
11	Environ. Pollut. 102:177-178.
12	Rowe, R.N. and D.V. Beardsell. 1973. Waterlogging of fruit trees. Hort. Abstr. 43:533-548.
13	Sena Gomez, A.R. and T.T. Kozlowski. 1980a. Responses of Melaleuca quinquenervia seedlings
14	to flooding. Physiol. Plant. 49:373-377.
15	Sena Gomez, A.R. and T.T. Kozlowski. 1980b. Effects of flooding on growth of Eucalyptus
16	camaldulensis and E. globules seedlings to flooding. Physiol. Plant. 49:373-377.
17	Sojka, R.E. and L.H. Stolzy. 1980. Soil oxygen effects on stomatal response. Soil Sci. 130:350-
18	358.
19	Stolzy, L.H., O.C. Taylor, J. Letey and T.E. Szuskiewicz. 1961. Influence of soil-oxygen
20	diffusion rates on susceptibility of tomato plants to air-borne oxidants. Soil Sci. 91:151-
21	155.
22	Tang, Z.C. and T.T. Kozlowski. 1984a. Water relations, ethylene production, and morphological
23	adaptation of Fraxinus pennsylvanica seedlings to flooding. Plant and Soil 77:183-192.

1	Tang, Z.C. and T.T. Kozlowski. 1984b. Ethylene production and morphological adaptations of
2	woody plants to flooding. Can. J. Bot. 62:1659-1664.
3	Taylor, G.E. Jr. and C.A. Gunderson. 1986. The responses of foliar gas exchange to exogenously
4	applied ethylene. Plant Physiol. 82:653-657.
5	Tilton, D.L. 1977. Seasonal growth and nutrients of Larix laricina in three wetland ecosystems.
6	Can. J. Bot. 55:1291-1298.
7	Tyree, M.T., S. Patino, J. Bennink and J. Alexander. 1995. Dynamic measurements of root
8	hydraulic conductance using a high-pressure flowmeter in the laboratory and field. J. Exp.
9	Bot. 46:83-94.
10	Tyrell, L.E. and R.E. Boerner. 1987. Larix laricina and Picea mariana: relationships among leaf
11	life-span, foliar nutrient patterns, nutrient conversions, and growth efficiency. Can. J. Bot.
12	65:1570-1577.
13	Van Cleve, K., L.K. Oliver, R. Schlentner, L.A. Viereck and C.T. Dyrness. 1983. Productivity
14	and nutrient cycling in taiga forest ecosystems. Can. J. For. Res. 13:747-766.
15	Vartapetian, B.B. and M.B. Jackson. 1997. Plant adaptation to anaerobic stress. Ann. Bot. 79:3-
16	20.
17	Wample, R.L. and D.M. Reid. 1979. The role of endogenous auxins and ethylene in the
18	formation of adventitious roots and hypocotyls hypertrophy in flooded sunflower plants
19	(Helianthus annuus L.). Physiol. Plant. 45:219-226.
20	Zwiazek, J.J. and T.J. Blake. 1990. Effects of preconditioning on electrolyte leakage and lipid
21	composition in black spruce (Picea mariana) stressed with polyethylene glycol. Physiol.
22	Plant. 79:71-77.

- 1 Table 1. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) results for different dependant variables in response to
- 2 flooding showing the levels of significance (*P*) for the main fixed effect flooding, flooding x
- 3 time and flooding x species (a), and for the main effect of ethylene and ethylene x species (b).
- 4
- (a) Flooding treatment:

Variables	Flooding	Flooding x Time	Flooding x Species
	8		
Net assimilation	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001
Stomatal conductance	0.0001	0.0001	0.3300
Water use efficiency	0.0075	0.3677	0.7026
Root hydraulic conductance	0.0001	0.3893	0.0014
Electrolyte leakage	0.0001	0.0001	0.7431

5

6

## (b) Ethylene treatment:

Variables	Ethylene	Ethylene x Species
Net assimilation	0.0021	0.0645
Stomatal conductance	0.0004	0.8098
Root respiration	<0.0001	0.0221
Root hydraulic conductivity	0.0005	0.0507

7

8

9

10

2	Λ
4	-

1	Figure	captions:
2	1.	Effects of flooding for 28 days on net assimilation (A), stomatal conductance (B), water
3		use efficiency (C), root hydraulic conductance (D), and electrolyte leakage (E) in black
4		spruce and tamarack seedlings. Vertical bars indicate S.E.M. (n=5).
5	2.	Effect of exogenous ethylene on net assimilation (A), and stomatal conductance (B) in
6		black spruce and tamarack seedlings. Vertical bars indicate S.E.M. (n=5). Bars with the
7		same letter are not significantly different at $P < 0.05$ .
8	3.	Effect of exogenous ethylene on root respiration (A), and root hydraulic conductivity (B)
9		in black spruce and tamarack seedlings. Vertical bars indicate S.E.M. (n=5). Bars with
10		the same letter are not significantly different at $P < 0.05$ .
11		
12		
13		
14		
15		
16		
17		
18		
19		
20		