1	
2	
3	
4	
5	Ecophysiological adaptations of winter-hardened black spruce (Picea mariana) and tamarack
6	(Larix laricina) seedlings to flooding.
7	
8	M. Anisul Islam, and S. Ellen Macdonald <sup>*</sup>
9	
10	Department of Renewable Resources, 751 General Services Building, University of Alberta,
11	Edmonton, Alberta, T6G 2H1. Canada.
12	
13	* Corresponding Author:
14	Phone: (780) 492-3070
15	Fax: (780) 492-4323
16	E-mail: ellen.macdonald@ualberta.ca
17	
18	
19	
20	

## 1 Abstract

2 Black spruce and tamarack are the predominant tree species in boreal peatlands. The effects of 3 flooding on morphological and physiological responses were investigated in greenhouse grown 4 (18 months old) black spruce (*Picea mariana*) and tamarack (*Larix laricina*) seedlings for 34 5 days. Flooding resulted in reduced root hydraulic conductance, net assimilation rate and stomatal 6 conductance and needle electrolyte leakage in both species. Flooded tamarack seedlings 7 maintained a higher net assimilation rate and stomatal conductance compared to flooded black 8 spruce. Flooded tamarack seedlings were also able to maintain higher root hydraulic conductance 9 compared to flooded black spruce seedlings at a comparable time period of flooding. Root 10 respiration declined in both species under flooding. Sugar concentration in shoots increased 11 while decreased in roots in both species under flooding. Needles of flooded black spruce 12 appeared necrotic and electrolyte leakage increased over time with flooding and remained 13 significantly higher than flooded tamarack seedlings. No visible damage symptoms were 14 observed in flooded tamarack seedlings. Flooded tamarack seedlings developed adventitious 15 roots beginning 14 days after the flooding treatment began. To investigate the possible 16 physiological role of adventitious roots, their hydraulic conductivity was measured and 17 compared with similarly sized flooded roots. Adventitious roots exhibited significantly higher 18 root hydraulic conductivity. Flooded black spruce lacked any such morphological adaptation. 19 These results suggest that tamarack seedlings were better able to adjust both morphologically 20 and physiologically to a prolonged soil flooding than black spruce seedlings.

Key words: carbohydrate content, flooding, gas exchange, root hydraulic conductance, root
respiration.

### 1 Introduction

Low oxygen concentration in the rooting medium due to waterlogging reduces root and
shoot growth of trees by affecting many plant physiological processes, including net
assimilation, transpiration, stomatal conductance (Anderson et al. 1984; Levan and Riha 1986;
Pereira and Kozlowski 1977; Pezeshki and Chambers 1986), carbohydrate metabolism and
respiratory activity (Pezeshki 1994).

7 Flooding triggers ethylene accumulation in plants (Tang and Kozlowski 1984a and b; 8 Blake and Reid 1981). Evidence suggest that in some species morphological responses to 9 flooding, such as hypertrophy of lenticels and formation of adventitious roots are associated with 10 increased production of ethylene (Blake and Reid 1981). The close association of adventitious 11 root formation and stomatal reopening in some species suggests that these aerenchymatous roots 12 may play a key role in the recovery of gas exchange from flooding stress (Tang and Kozlowski 13 1984). In addition, flood-induced adventitious roots increase water absorption by roots (Jackson 14 and Drew 1984; Tsukahara and Kozlowski 1985).

Root respiration has been shown to decline as a result of hypoxia in wheat (Huang and 15 16 Johnson 1995), and aspen (Kamaluddin and Zwiazek 2002). Carbohydrate concentrations may 17 remain the same or increase in roots and shoots under hypoxic conditions (Huang 1995). The rate 18 and extent of increase in sugar content depends on the environmental conditions, species and 19 even on genotypes within the same species (Setter et al. 1987). Soluble carbohydrates such as 20 sucrose, glucose or fructose are of particular importance because of their direct relationship with 21 respiration. Thus, carbohydrate allocation patterns appear to be critical for hypoxia tolerance 22 (Huang and Johnson 1995).

Two conifers, black spruce (*Picea mariana* (Mill.) B. S. P.) and tamarack (*Larix laricina* (Du Roi) K. Koch), form open forest stands on peatlands in Alberta, Canada (Lieffers and Macdonald 1990). These organic sites have very low productivity and are characterized by high water table (Larsen 1982), poor soil aeration (Campbell 1980) and undergo significant variation in depth of water table during the growing season. Oxygen supply to tree roots decreases significantly when the water table rises close to the peat surface (Kozlowski 1984; Mannerkoski 1985).

8 Although black spruce and tamarack co-occur on moderately minerotropic peatlands, 9 tamarack tends to dominate on wetter, minerotropic sites (Jeglum and He 1996; Tilton 1977; 10 Kenkel 1987). Black spruce and tamarack possesses contrasting growth habits with the former 11 one being every every with sclerophyllous leaves, while the later is deciduous with sclerophyllous 12 leaves (Tyrell and Boerner 1987). Black spruce exhibits fixed growth i.e., it's growth is 13 determined by the process of bud set in previous fall. Tamarack has determinate growth of short 14 shoots but also possesses long shoots displaying indeterminate growth, thus allows a greater 15 degreeof variation on annual growth in response to conditions during the growing season (Ref).

16 In our previous study (Islam et al. 2002), we have shown that flooded tamarack seedlings 17 were able to maintain higher root hydraulic conductance compared to flooded black spruce 18 seedlings and had no visible flooding damage. However, the possible role of stored carbohydrate 19 and root respiration on root hydraulic conductance was not investigated. Since the seedlings were 20 only six-months old, the differences in response, which could occur from determinate, and 21 indeterminate growth habit in these two species was absent. In this paper, we examined the effect 22 of 34 days of soil flooding on gas exchange, root hydraulic conductance, membrane damage and 23 electrolyte leakage and tried to explore the relationships between these parameters with

carbohydrate metabolism and root respiratory activity in these two species at an age where
 determinate and indeterminate growth is in effect after winter hardening. We hypothesized that
 flood tolerance of tamarack is conferred by its greater morphological and physiological
 adaptation.

5

## 6 Materials and Methods:

7 *Plant material and growing conditions:* 

8 Eighteen-month-old black spruce (Picea mariana (Mill.) B. S. P.) and tamarack (Larix 9 *laricina* (Du Roi) K. Koch) seedlings were used in the flooding experiment. Seeds were obtained 10 from the Alberta Tree Improvement and Seed Center (ATISC acc #4042). Seeds were stratified for three weeks at 4<sup>o</sup>C and then germinated in Petri-dishes. One week after germination, 11 12 seedlings were transplanted to Spencer-Lemaire (300ml) containers (Spencer-Lemaire Industries 13 Ltd. Edmonton, AB. Canada) containing planting medium Pro-Mix BX (1:1:1; 14 peat:moss:vermiculite; Premier Horticulture Inc., Riviere-du-Loup, Que. Canada) and placed in a 15 growth chamber with 21°C/18°C day/night temperature, 65% relative humidity and 16-h photoperiod with photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) of 400  $\mu$ mol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> provided by 16 fluorescent lamps. Seedlings were watered to run off every other day and fertilized once a week 17 with 30-10-10 N-P-K fertilizer (Plant-prod<sup>®</sup>- Plant Products Co. Ltd., ON, Canada). 18 19 After 24 weeks of growth we gradually reduced the growth chamber temperature and 20 photoperiod in order to induce winter hardening. Plants were then placed in a cold room with 10<sup>°</sup>C temperature and 10 h photoperiod for six weeks then in 4<sup>°</sup>C and 8 h photoperiod for four 21 months. After that seedlings were brought back to  $15^{\circ}$ C temperature and 10 h photoperiod for 22

two weeks. Thereafter seedlings were transplanted to 5" pots (with 1:1:1; peat:moss:vermiculite
 growing medium) and returned to the original growing conditions (21°C/18°C day/night
 temperature, 65% relative humidity and 16-h photoperiod) and were grown for 26 weeks.

4

## 5 Treatment application and experimental design:

6 Treatment application commenced when the seedlings flushed and were actively 7 growing. Seedlings from both black spruce and tamarack were randomly placed in buckets where 8 flooding was imposed by submerging the seedlings to root-collar level. Perforated buckets were 9 used for control (non-flooded) seedlings to ensure adequate drainage. There were seven bucket 10 for each treatment and twelve seedlings (six from each species) were randomly assigned in each 11 bucket. Data were collected on day 2, 5, 8, 12, 16, 21, 27 and 34 after treatment imposition. On 12 each measurement day, different physiological parameters were measured on five randomly 13 selected seedlings from each species x treatment combination. A total of 160 seedlings (N) were 14 used in this experiment. The experiment was a split-split-plot design (between subjects: flooding, 15 within-subjects: species and time) and buckets were considered nested within treatments.

16 The statistical model is was following:

$$17 \qquad Y_{ijklm} = \mu + F_i + B_{j(i)} + S_k + FS_{ik} + B_{j(ik)} + T_l + TF_{il} + TS_{kl} + TFS_{ikl} + E_{ijklm}$$

- 18 Where, Y<sub>ijklm</sub> = Physiological parameters (e.g., net assimilation, stomatal conductance,
- 19 electrolyte leakage etc.),  $\mu$  = overall mean, F = flooding treatment (i = 1,2), B = bucket within
- 20 treatment (j = 1,2,....14); S = species (k = 1,2); T = time (l = 1,2,...8); E = error term (m =  $\frac{1}{2}$
- 21 1,2,...160).

1 Data were analyzed using analysis of variance (using SAS version 8.1; SAS Institute Inc., 2 Cary, NC. 1996) to determine the main and interactive effects of flooding, time and species. 3 Means were compared for significant differences at P < 0.05 using Tukey's test. 4 5 *Measurements:* 6 *Gas exchange:* 7 Net assimilation (NA), Stomatal conductance  $(g_s)$  and water use efficiency (WUE; net 8 carbon assimilation rate divided by transpiration rate) of the flooded and non-flooded black 9 spruce and tamarack seedlings were measured using an infrared gas analyzer (CIRAS 1: PP 10 Systems, Haverhill, MA, USA) equipped with a automatic conifer cuvette (PLC(C), PP Systems Inc.). Leaf temperature was maintained at  $20^{\circ}$ C and relative humidity at 40%. The flow rate was 11 250 ml min<sup>-1</sup> and light level was maintained at 1050  $\mu$ mol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>. Net assimilation and stomatal 12 13 conductance rate were expressed on a leaf area basis. The uppermost shoots of a randomly 14 selected seedling from each species and treatment combination were placed in the cuvette for gas 15 exchange measurements. Gas exchange and all other physiological measurements (except root 16 respiration and carbohydrate concentration) were taken on days 2, 5, 8, 12, 16, 21, 27, and 34 17 after flooding imposition. Needles were carefully detached from the stem and their surface areas 18 were measured after computer scanning (Sigma Scan 3.0, Jandel Scientific, San Rafael, CA, 19 USA).

- 20
- 21
- 22

#### *Root hydraulic conductance:*

Root hydraulic conductance ( $K_r$ ) is defined as water flow rate (kg s<sup>-1</sup>) per unit pressure 2 3 drop (MPa) driving flow through the entire root system whereas root hydraulic conductivity  $(L_p)$ is obtained by dividing the  $K_r$  value by root volume and expressed in kg MPa<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> cm<sup>-3</sup> root 4 5 volume. Root hydraulic conductance  $(K_r)$  was measured in intact roots using a High Pressure 6 Flow Meter [HPFM] (Dynamax, Houston, TX, USA) as described by Tyree et al. (1995). The 7 use of HPFM allows for measurements of intact roots since the water is applied under increasing 8 pressure through an excised stem (around the root collar level) into the root system (Tyree et al. 9 1995). In this experiment, stems of seedlings were cut following gas exchange measurements 10 two cm above the rot collar and flow rates were measured over a range of pressures from 0 to 11 2.75 MPa to obtain a linear pressure – flow relationship Tyree et al. (1995). Root hydraulic 12 conductance of five root systems was measured from each species x treatment combination on each measurement day and was expressed in kg MPa<sup>-1</sup>s<sup>-1</sup>. Root hydraulic conductivity of 13 14 adventitious roots and similarly sized flooded tamarack roots were also measured. Individual 15 root volume was calculated by determining the radius and length of the roots.

16

#### 17 *Electrolyte leakage:*

Electrolyte leakage, a measure of cell integrity and of cell membrane leakiness was measured using a conductivity meter (HI 8733 Hanna Instruments Inc., Woonsocket, RI, USA) as described by Zwiazek and Blake (1990) and Renault et al. (1998). Needles (approximately 0.5 g) were taken from five seedlings per species x treatment combination (after gas exchange and root hydraulic conductance measurements), washed with deionized water three times and placed in separate tubes, each containing 20-ml of deionized water. After 5 hours of incubation on an orbital shaker at 50 rpm, initial measurements were taken for electrical conductivity of the
solution. Total electrolytes of the samples were obtained by autoclaving the samples at 121°C for
15 minutes followed by freezing overnight at -85°C. The samples were thawed by placing them
in a water bath at room temperature for about 5 hours. Total electrolytes of the sample solution
were then measured and electrolyte leakage was calculated as a percentage of the total
electrolytes.

7

## Root Respiration:

8 Root respiration of the whole root system was measured by recording oxygen uptake with 9 a Clark-type electrode (Yellow Springs Instruments, Yellow Springs, OH). Root respiration was 10 measured 2, 8, 16 and 27 days after flooding treatment was imposed. Root systems of the black 11 spruce and tamarack seedlings (n = 5 per species x treatment combination) were placed in an 12 airtight cylinder containing half-strength Hoagland's solution (Kamaluddin and Zwiazek 2002). 13 Oxygen uptake rates were recorded every two minutes for 20 minutes. Respiration rate was 14 expressed as average of oxygen uptake over time expressed in mmol  $L^{-1}$ .

15

## Carbohydrate analysis:

16 Carbohydrates were extracted from shoots and roots three times with hot 85% ethanol at 17 95<sup>°</sup>C. Carbohydrate concentrations were measured from both flooded and non-flooded black 18 spruce and tamarack seedlings 2, 8,16 and 27 days after the treatment application. Soluble 19 carbohydrate (sugar) concentrations were determined colorimetrically using phenolsulfuric acid 20 as described by Smith et al. (1964). Starch was extracted from the same plant samples with 21 NaOH and hydrolyzed by an enzyme mixture containing alpha-amylase (EC 3.2.1.1, ICN 22 190151, from *Bacillus licheniformis*) and amyloglucosidase (EC 3.2.1.3, Sigma A3514, from 23 Aspergillus niger) and incubated for 41 h before colorimetric measurements with the glucose-

1 oxidase/peroxidase-o-dianisidine reagent (Sigma Glucose Diagnostic Kit 510A) (Haisig and 2 Dickson 1979). Absorbance readings were determined with an Ultrascope III spectrophotometer 3 (Pharmacia LKB, UK) and sugar and starch concentration were calculated on a dry weight basis. 4 5 **Results:** 6 Morphological responses: 7 Visible damage of roots was observed in flooded seedlings of both species. Flooding 8 reduced the root mass in both black spruce and tamarack seedlings compared to their non-9 flooded controls (not quantified, easily visible). Flooded tamarack seedlings developed 10 adventitious roots beginning 16 days after the flooding treatment began. After this point in time, 11 86% of the flooded tamarack seedlings had adventitious roots (13 adventitious roots per seedling 12 with an average length of 15 mm). Flooded black spruce lacked any such morphological 13 adaptation. Needle chlorosis and necrotic needle tips were observed only in flooded black spruce 14 seedlings. 15 16 *Physiological responses:* 

Flooding significantly reduced net assimilation, stomatal conductance, root hydraulic conductance and root respiration while increasing needle electrolyte leakage in both species. Flooding also increased sugar concentration in the shoot while reducing it in the roots 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). There were no significant effects of buckets within treatments. Flooded tamarack seedlings maintained significantly (P <0.0001) higher NA than flooded black seedlings on day 8,</li>
 12, 16, 27 and 34 during the experiment.

3	Similarly, a significant (P < 0.0001) reduction in stomatal conductance was observed in
4	both species under flooded conditions compared to their non-flooded seedlings (Figure 1b).
5	Stomatal conductance declined from day 2 in flooded black spruce and tamarack seedlings.
6	However, the magnitude of reduction was higher in flooded black spruce seedlings. Flooded
7	tamarack seedlings maintained significantly (P < 0.0001) higher stomatal conductance than
8	flooded black seedlings throughout the experiment.
9	Flooding increased WUE in tamarack but decreased it in black spruce as compared to
10	non-flooded seedlings (Figure 1c). Flooding significantly (P < 0.0263) reduced root hydraulic
11	conductance in both black spruce and tamarack seedlings compared to their non-flooded controls
12	(Figure 2a). Although there was significant species (P < $0.0001$ ) and time (P < $0.0209$ ) effect, the
13	interaction effect of treatment*species*time was not significant. However, flooded tamarack had
14	significantly (P <0.0080) higher root hydraulic conductance than flooded black spruce seedlings
15	on day 27 and 34. Mean root hydraulic conductivity of adventitious roots was significantly
16	higher than the conductivity in similarly sized flooded tamarack roots (Figure 2b).
17	Electrolyte leakage increased significantly (P < 0.0001) in both flooded black spruce and
18	tamarack seedlings (Figure 3a). There was no significant species effect. Flooded black spruce
19	had significantly higher leakage than flooded tamarack on day 16 and 34.
20	Root respiration rate was significantly reduced (P < 0.0001) in both species under
21	flooding (Figure 3b). However, flooded tamarack maintained higher root respiration than flooded
22	black seedlings throughout the experiment.

1 Sugar content in shoots remained same until day 16, then increased significantly in both 2 species compared to the non-flooded controls while the reverse was observed in roots (Figure 4a 3 and b). Starch content in shoots of flooded black spruce remained the same until day 8 and then 4 increased exponentially compared to their non-flooded controls while no such trend was 5 observed in flooded tamarack seedlings (Figure 5a). However, root starch content declined in 6 both species (Figure 5b).

7

## 8 **Discussion:**

9 The results of our study suggest that tamarack was relatively more tolerant to flooding 10 than black spruce, in agreement with the results of our previous study (Islam et al. 2002). Net 11 assimilation and stomatal conductance were reduced in flooded seedlings of both species. 12 However, the magnitude of reduction was much less for both species than for six-month old 13 seedlings subjected to flooding (Islam et al. 2002). Net assimilation in non-flooded (10.58-14.29  $\mu$ molm<sup>-2</sup>s<sup>-1</sup>) and flooded tamarack (5.86-11.24  $\mu$ molm<sup>-2</sup>s<sup>-1</sup>) was also higher compared to non-14 15 flooded and flooded black spruce seedlings in present study compared to those found when they 16 were six-months old (Islam et al. 2002).

The early reduction in the rate of photosynthesis of flooded plants is correlated with
stomatal closure, resulting in decreased CO<sub>2</sub> absorption by leaves (Pezeshki et al. 1996).
Subsequently, photosynthetic processes may be adversely affected by the metabolic
consequences of prolonged hypoxia (Bradford 1983a, 1983b). Flooding can also reduce net
photosynthesis by reducing the amount or activity of carboxylation enzymes (Vu and Yelenosky
1992), by disruption of photosynthate transport, alteration in source-sink relationships, or
reduced sink demand (Wample and Thornton 1984, Drew 1990). Stomatal conductance was also

reduced in conjunction with reduced carbon assimilation in flooded highbush blueberry plants
 (Davies and Flore 1986), and in *Quercus falcata* and *Q. lyrata* under low soil redox conditions
 (Pezeshki et al. 1996). However, a reduction in root hydraulic conductivity coupled with reduced
 leaf water potential was the key factor for stomatal closure and slower leaf expansion in flooded
 *Ricinus communis* (Else et al. 2001).

6 Likewise in our previous study (Islam et al. 2002), we observed a gradual reduction in 7 stomatal closure as well as root hydraulic conductance in both species presumably due to oxygen 8 deficit on membranes in present study. Similar reductions in  $g_s$  and  $K_r$  were observed in flooded 9 Pyrus species (Anderson et al. 1984) and Vaccinium corymbosum (Davies and Flore 1986). Wan 10 et al (1999) have also shown strong positive correlation between root hydraulic conductance and 11 stomatal conductance and transpiration rates. However, our results (with 18 month old seedlings) 12 contrast with those of Reece and Riha (1991) in which root hydraulic conductance of tamarack 13 and white spruce (2 year old) appeared to be unaffected after 10 days of flooding.

14 Although there was a gradual decline in stomatal conductance in flooded tamarack 15 seedlings, there were apparent increases in root hydraulic conductance and WUE after 16 days in 16 those seedlings whereas, both root hydraulic conductance and WUE were significantly lower in 17 flooded black spruce seedlings. The increase of root hydraulic conductance in flooded tamarack 18 seedlings coincided with the emergence of adventitious roots in those seedlings 16 days after 19 flooding treatment began. Flooded black spruce seedlings did not have any adventitious roots. 20 Morphological adaptations such as production of hypertrophied lenticels, aerenchyma tissue and 21 adventitious roots have been attributed to the high nutrient-uptake efficiency of flood-tolerant 22 species (Kozlowski 1997). It is reported that flood-induced adventitious roots increased water 23 absorption by roots (Hook and Scholtens 1978, Jackson and Drew 1984, Tsukahara and

Kozlowski 1985). Our results suggest that adventitious roots increased total root hydraulic
 conductance as a result of their increased conductivity. Flooded tamarack seedlings were only
 able to develop hypertrophied lenticels but lacked the emergence of adventitious roots in six month old seedlings (Islam et al. 2002).

Needle chlorosis and development of necrotic needle tips in flooded black spruce
seedlings were possibly due to significantly higher membrane damage (i.e., increased needle
electrolyte leakage). Needle chlorosis in black spruce might have been caused by a reduced
supply of nutrients, which has also been observed in some flooded woody plants (Larson et al.
1992; Smith and Bourne 1989). Higher membrane damage could also explain the drastic
reduction in NA in flooded black spruce seedlings. On the contrary, flooded tamarack seedlings
showed less membrane damage and no visual symptoms of flooding damage.

12 Root respiration rates were reduced for both species under flooding, with a greater 13 reduction for black spruce over the entire experiment. A reduction in root respiration was also 14 observed in hypoxia sensitive Triticum aesivum cultivar 'Coker 9835' (Huang and Johnson 15 1995). Although it has been suggested that a low oxygen consumption rate can contribute to 16 greater tolerance of hypoxia (Huang and Johnson 1995), our results contrast with that. Continued 17 water uptake by roots is oxygen dependent because both the active ion uptake needed to maintain 18 an osmotic gradient across the root (Rowe and Beardsell 1973) as well as membrane hydraulic 19 conductivity (Glinka and Reinhold 1962) are known to require oxygen. Although flooded black 20 spruce maintained low oxygen consumption in present study, it failed to maintain higher root 21 hydraulic conductance, as did flooded tamarack.

Carbohydrates are the primary energy storage compounds in plants and their allocation
 pattern and translocation rate appear to be critical for hypoxia tolerance (Huang and Johnson

1 1995). Oxygen deficient conditions inhibit root elongation due to low carbohydrate reserves in 2 the root tips (Webb and Armstrong 1983). The high accumulation of carbohydrates in shoots, 3 compared to roots, in our study suggests that sufficient carbohydrates were available for 4 metabolic activities but root zone hypoxia prevented their export to roots. Higher accumulation 5 of carbohydrates was also observed in shoots of Atriplex amnicola (Galloway and Davidson 6 1993). A reduction in the translocation of assimilates in hypoxic plants (Schumacher et al. 1985) 7 leads to low carbohydrate availability in roots (Webb and Armstrong 1983). Barclay and 8 Crawford (1983) have shown that tolerance of plants to flooding is dependent on the available 9 carbohydrates reserves in the roots. In our study, although root sugars declined in both species, 10 tamarack maintained higher sugar content throughout the experiment. Moreover, higher root 11 respiration and root sugar content might have contributed to the higher root hydraulic 12 conductivity in flooded tamarack seedlings. Root respiration has also been found to be dependent 13 on stored carbon in soybean (Hansen et al. 1992). In conclusion, our study demonstrated that tamarack exhibits greater flooding tolerance 14

In conclusion, our study demonstrated that tamarack exhibits greater flooding tolerance
than black spruce seedlings. We suggest that membrane function and respiration dependent
processes were responsible for the reduction in root hydraulic conductance in flooded plants.
However, emergence of adventitious roots in flooded tamarack improved root water uptake.
Morphological acclimations, maintaining high rates of root hydraulic conductance and
respiration are likely the key processes that enable tamarack to withstand flooding effects better
than black spruce.

# 1 Acknowledgements:

2	This work was supported by a Research Grant from Natural Sciences and Engineering
3	Research Council of Canada (NSERC) to SEM. MAI gratefully acknowledges funding in the
4	form of Graduate Assistantship and Graduate Intern Tuition Supplement from Department of
5	Renewable Resources, University of Alberta. We thank Pak Chow and Chung Nguyen for their
6	help in carbohydrate analysis.
7	
8	References:
9	Anderson, PC, Lombard PB, Westwood MN (1984) Effect of root anaerobiosis on the water
10	relations of several Pyrus species. Physiol Plant 62: 245-252
11	Barclay AM, Crawford RMM (1983) The effect of anaerobiosis on carbohydrate levels in
12	storage tissue of wetland plants. Ann Bot 51: 255-259
13	Blake TJ, Reid DM (1981) Ethylene, water relations and tolerance to waterlogging of three
14	Eucalyptus species. Aust J Plant Physiol 8: 497-505
15	Bradford KJ (1983a) Effects of soil flooding on leaf gas exchange of tomato plants. Plant Physiol
16	73: 475-479
17	Bradford KJ (1983b) Involvement of plant growth substances in the alteration of leaf gas
18	exchange of flooded tomato plants. Plant Physiol 73: 480-483
19	Campbell TA (1980) Oxygen flux measurements in organic soils. Can J Soil Sci 60: 641-650
20	Davies FS, Flore JA (1986) Flooding, gas exchange and hydraulic root conductivity of highbush
21	blueberry. Physiol Plant 67: 545-551

1	Drew MC (1990) Sensing soil oxygen. Plant Cell Environ 13: 681-693
2	Else MA, Coupland D, Dutton L, Jackson MB (2001) Decreased root hydraulic conductivity
3	reduces leaf water potential, initiates stomatal closure and slows leaf expansion in
4	flooded plants of castor oil (Ricinus communis) despite diminished delivery of ABA from
5	the roots to shoots in xylem sap. Physiol Plant 111: 46-54
6	Galloway R, Davidson NJ (1993) The response of Atriplex amnicola to the interactive effects of
7	salinity and hypoxia. J Exp Bot 44: 653-663
8	Glinka Z, Reinhold L (1962) Rapid changes in permeability of cell membranes to water brought
9	about by carbon dioxide and oxygen. Plant Physiol 37: 481-486
10	Haissig BE, Dickson RE (1979) Starch measurement in plant tissue using enzymatic hydrolysis.
11	Physiol Plant 47: 151-157
12	Hansen AP, Yoneyama T, Kouchi H (1992) Short-term nitrate effects on hydroponically-grown
13	soybean cv. Bragg and its supernodulating mutant. II. Distribution and respiration of
14	recently-fixed 13C-labelled photosynthate. J Exp Bot 43: 9-14
15	Hook DD, Scholtens JR (1978) Adaptation and flood tolerance of tree species. In: Hook DD,
16	Crawford RMM (eds) Plant life in anaerobic environments. Ann Arbor Science Publ,
17	Ann Arbor, MI, pp 299-331
18	Huang B (1995) Waterlogging responses and interaction with temperature, salinity, and
19	nutrients. In: Wilkinson RE (ed) Plant-Environment Interactions. Second Edition, Marcel
20	Dekker, Inc. New York, pp 264-282
21	Huang B, Johnson JW (1995) Root respiration and carbohydrate status of two wheat genotypes
22	in response to hypoxia. Ann Bot 75: 427-432

1	Islam MA, Macdonald SE, Zwiazek JJ (2002) Responses of black spruce (Picea mariana) and
2	tamarack (Larix laricina) to flooding and ethylene treatments. Tree Physiol (in press).
3	Jackson MB, Drew MC (1984) Effects of flooding on growth and metabolism of herbaceous
4	plants. In: Kozlowski TT (ed) Flooding and plant growth, Academic Press, New York, pp
5	47-128
6	Jeglum JK, He FL (1996) Pattern and vegetation – environment relationships in a boreal forest:
7	Temporal and spatial patterns. Can J Bot 73: 629-637
8	Kamaluddin M, Zwiazek JJ (2002) Ethylene enhances water transport in hypoxic aspen. Plant
9	Physiol 120: 962-969
10	Kenkel NC (1987) Trends and interrelationships in boreal wetlands vegetation. Can J Bot 65: 12-
11	22
12	Kozlowski TT (1984) Plant responses to flooding of soil. BioScience 34: 162-169
13	Kozlowski TT (1997) Responses of woody plants to flooding and salinity. Tree Physiology
14	Monograph No. 1, Heron Publishing, Victoria, Canada. pp 1-29
15	
16	Larsen JA (1982) Ecology of the northern lowland bogs and conifer forests. Academic Press,
17	New York
18	Larson KD, Schaffer B, Davies FS, Sanchez CA (1992) Flooding, mineral nutrition and gas
19	exchange of mango trees. Sci Hortic 52: 113-124
20	Levan MA, Riha SJ (1986) Response of root systems of northern conifer transplants to flooding.
21	Can J For Res 16: 42-46

1	Lieffers VJ, Macdonald SE (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 20:
3	805-809
4	Mannerkoski H (1985) Effect of water table fluctuation on the ecology of peat soil. Publication
5	from the Deaprtment of Peatland Forestry, University of Helsinki 7, Helsinki
6	Pereira JS, Kozlowski TT (1977) Variations among woody angiosperms in response to flooding.
7	Physiol. Plant 41:184-192
8	Pezeshki SR (1994) Response of baldcypress (Taxodium distichum) seedlings to hypoxia: leaf
9	protein content, ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase activity and
10	photosynthesis. Photosynthetica 28: 423-430
11	Pezeshki SR, Chambers JL (1986) Effect of soil salinity on stomatal conductance and
12	photosynthesis of green ash (Fraxinus pennsylvanica). Can J For Res 16:569-573
13	Pezeshki SR, Pardue JH, DeLaune RD (1996) Leaf gas exchange and growth of flood-tolerant
14	and flood-sensitive tree species under low soil redox conditions. Tree Physiol 16: 453-
15	458
16	Reece CF, Riha SJ (1991). Role of root systems of eastern larch and white spruce in response to
17	flooding. Plant Cell and Environ 14: 229-234
18	Renault S, Lait C, Zwiazek JJ, MacKinnon M (1998) Effect of high salinity tailings waters
19	produced from gypsum treatment of oil sands tailings on plants of the boreal forest.
20	Environ Pollut 102: 177-178
21	Rowe RN, Beardsell DV (1973) Waterlogging of fruit trees. Hort Abstr 43: 533-548

1	Schumacher TE, Smucker AJM (1985) Carbon transport and root respiration of split root
2	systems of Phaseolus vulgaris subjected to short term localized anoxia. Plant Physiol 78:
3	359-364
4	Setter TL, Waters I, Atwell BJ, Kupkanchanakul T, Greenway H (1987) Carbohydrate status of
5	terrestrial plants during flooding. In: Crawford RMM (ed) Plant life in aquatic and
6	amphibious habitats. Oxford: Blackwell Scientific, pp 411-443
7	Smith P, Paulsen GM, Raguse CA (1964) Extraction of total available carbohydrate from grass
8	and legume tissue. Plant Physiol 39: 960-962
9	
10	Smith MW, Bourne RD (1989) Seasonal effects of flooding on greenhouse-grown seedling
11	pecan trees. Hortscience 24: 81-83
12	Tang ZC, Kozlowski TT (1984a) Water relations, ethylene production, and morphological
13	adaptation of Fraxinus pennsylvanica seedlings to flooding. Plant and Soil 77: 183-192
14	Tang ZC, Kozlowski TT (1984b) Ethylene production and morphological adaptation of woody
15	plants to flooding. Can J Bot 62: 1659-1664
16	Tilton DL (1977) Seasonal growth and nutrients of Larix laricina in three wetland ecosystems.
17	Can J Bot 55: 1291-1298
18	Tsukahara H, Kozlowski TT (1985) Importance of adventitious roots to growth of flooded
19	Platanus occidentalis seedlings. Plant Soil 88: 123-132
20	Tyree MT, Patino S, Bennink J, Alexander J (1995) Dynamic measurements of root hydraulic
21	conductance using a high-pressure flowmeter in the laboratory and field. J Exp Bot 46:
22	83-94

1	Tyrell LE, Boerner RE (1987) Larix laricina and Picea mariana: relationships among leaf life-
2	span, foliar nutrient patterns, nutrient conversions, and growth efficiency. Can J Bot 65:
3	1570-1577
4	Vu JCV, Yelenoshy G (1991) Photosynthetic responses of citrus trees to soil flooding. Physiol
5	Plant 81: 7-14
6	Vu JCV, Yelenoshy G (1992) Photosynthetic response of rough lemon and sour orange to soil
7	flooding, chilling, and short-term temperature fluctuations during growth. Environ Exp
8	Bot 32: 471-477
9	Wample RL, Thornton RK (1984) Differences in the response of sunflower (Helanthus annuus)
10	subjected to flooding and drought stress. Physiol Plant 61: 611-616
11	Wan Z, Landhausser S, Zwiazek JJ, Lieffers VJ (1999) Root water flow and growth of aspen
12	(Populus tremuloides) at low soil temperatures. Tree Physiol 19: 879-884
13	Webb T, Armstrong W (1983) The effects of anoxia and carbohydrate on the growth and
14	viability of rice, pea and pumpkin root. J Exp Bot 34: 579-603
15	Zwiazek JJ, Blake TJ (1990) Effects of preconditioning on electrolyte leakage and lipid
16	composition in black spruce (Picea mariana) stressed with polyethylene glycol. Physiol
17	Plant 79: 71-77
18	
19	









Effect of flooding on root respiration





