

Letters

Community recommendations on terminology and procedures used in flooding and low oxygen stress research

Introduction

Apart from playing a key role in important biochemical reactions, molecular oxygen (O₂) and its by-products also have crucial signaling roles in shaping plant developmental programs and environmental responses. Even under normal conditions, sharp O₂ gradients can occur within the plant when cellular O₂ demand exceeds supply, especially in dense organs such as tubers, seeds and fruits. Spatial and temporal variations in O₂ concentrations are important cues for plants to modulate development (van Dongen & Licausi, 2015; Considine *et al.*, 2016). Environmental conditions can also expand the low O₂ regions within the plant. For example, excessive rainfall can lead to partial or complete plant submergence resulting in O₂ deficiency in the root or the entire plant (Voesenek & Bailey-Serres, 2015). Climate change-associated increases in precipitation events have made flooding a major abiotic stress threatening crop production and food sustainability. This increased flooding and associated crop losses highlight the urgency of understanding plant flooding responses and tolerance mechanisms.

Timely manifestation of physiological and morphological changes triggering developmental adjustments or flooding survival strategies requires accurate sensing of O₂ levels. Despite progress in understanding how plants sense and respond to changes in intracellular O₂ concentrations (van Dongen & Licausi, 2015), several questions remain unanswered due to a lack of high resolution tools to accurately and noninvasively monitor (sub)cellular O₂ concentrations. In the absence of such tools, it is therefore critical for researchers in the field to be aware of how experimental conditions can influence plant O₂ levels, and thus on the importance of accurately reporting specific experimental details. This also requires a consensus on the definition of frequently used terms.

At the 15th New Phytologist Workshop on Flooding stress (Voesenek *et al.*, 2016), community members discussed and agreed on unified nomenclature and standard norms for low O₂ and flooding stress research. This consensus on terminology and experimental guidelines is presented here. We expect that these norms will facilitate more effective interpretation, comparison and reproducibility of research in this field. We also highlight the

current challenges in noninvasively monitoring and measuring O₂ concentrations in plant cells, outlining the technologies currently available, their strengths and drawbacks, and their suitability for use in flooding and low O₂ research.

Terminology

The inconsistent and sometimes inaccurate usage of flooding and low O₂ stress-related terms together with incomplete details regarding experimental conditions have hindered the interpretation, reproducibility and comparison of independent studies in the field. Here, we define and clarify commonly used terms used in flooding and low-O₂ related experimental conditions.

Flooding

A general term referring to excessively wet conditions, that is where excess water replaces gas-spaces surrounding roots and/or shoots. Flooding encompasses the following terms that describe natural events or experiments.

- *Waterlogging or soil flooding*: only the root-zone is flooded (excessive water in the soil or other rooting media).
- *Partial waterlogging or soil flooding*: partial flooding of the root-zone. Details regarding depth and extent of soil flooding should be specified.
- *Submergence*: the entire plant (root and shoot) is under water.
- *Partial submergence*: the entire root system and part of above-ground organs are under water. Details regarding the submergence depth in relation to plant height or distance from soil surface should be specified.

Anaerobiosis

Literally means 'life without molecular O₂'. Plants can only survive for a limited time without molecular O₂. The term anaerobiosis frequently refers to the status of plants/organs exposed to a lack of O₂ for a short time, during which acclimation occurs through altered gene expression and metabolism.

Anaerobic metabolism

Describes cellular energy production from carbohydrates *without* the benefit of oxidative phosphorylation and engagement of cytochrome *c* oxidase as the final electron acceptor. Anaerobic metabolism occurs when O₂ is absent and is usually associated with (but not limited to) ethanolic and/or lactate fermentation. In plants, it is also associated with accumulation of alanine and gamma-aminobutyric acid due to altered metabolite fluxes involving the tricarboxylic acid cycle among others (Narsai *et al.*, 2011; van Dongen & Licausi, 2015; Voesenek & Bailey-Serres, 2015).

It can occur in cells within an 'anoxic core' in tissues/organs (e.g. vascular tissues of roots; Berry & Norris, 1949; Thomson & Greenway, 1991) even under externally aerobic conditions and in densely packed tissues or organs with a low surface to volume ratio (e.g. developing fruits, tubers, seeds, meristems; Geigenberger *et al.*, 2000; Gibbs & Greenway, 2003; van Dongen & Licausi, 2015).

Defining -oxic conditions

The terms hypoxia and anoxia are often used interchangeably, which limits experimental reproducibility and can lead to misunderstanding of associated physiological, biochemical and molecular processes. When accurate quantification of the O₂ status of biological samples or their environment is not possible, use of -oxic terms is valid, but care should be taken when inferring conclusions about O₂ availability from these experiments. As a guideline, we describe common -oxic words, highlighting their limitations.

- *Anoxia*: describes complete absence of O₂ in a system. This is not the same as an O₂ concentration that is too small to measure because such a condition can be maintained when the diffusive flux of O₂ into the tissue is equal to the O₂ metabolism. True anoxic conditions are unlikely to occur in plant tissues where photosynthesis and respiration are key metabolic processes (Smith & Dukes, 2013). Thus, this term should be limited to describing the *atmosphere* applied to biological samples or the environment under investigation. Most cases applying anoxic conditions involve replacing the natural atmosphere with an inert gas such as argon or nitrogen (e.g. Loreti *et al.*, 2005; Branco-Price *et al.*, 2008). Some artificial flooding treatments have also been defined as anoxic, when water was degassed before submergence (Baud *et al.*, 2004). In this case, however, the degassed water will not remain O₂ free unless subsequently placed in an O₂-free environment. Finally, true anoxic conditions require darkness, since the photosynthetic light reaction generates molecular O₂.

- *Normoxia*: the reference normoxic condition is often the O₂ availability in air at sea level on today's Earth, that is 20.95%. However, O₂ concentrations within plant organs can be lower or higher under normoxic conditions (van Dongen & Licausi, 2015; Pedersen *et al.*, 2016). Therefore, internal (organ/tissue/cellular) O₂ concentrations could deviate from the 'normoxic environment'. Under external normoxia, cells may be O₂-limited due to high metabolic activity, as in meristems (Greve *et al.*, 2003), vascular tissues of roots (Armstrong & Beckett, 1987) or due to limited diffusion in bulky tissues (Pedersen *et al.*, 2006), or tubers (Geigenberger *et al.*, 2000). The O₂ levels measured in these tissues over time in the experimental system is desirable.

- *Hypoxia*: describes O₂ concentrations below normoxic without necessarily implying any impact (i.e. hypoxic treatment refers to experiments in which a plant is exposed to lower O₂ conditions than air). Hypoxia is preferably used to selectively describe O₂ concentrations below which a specific process is affected (e.g. below the critical O₂ pressure (Armstrong *et al.*, 2009) for respiration) or a response is activated. This may imply the need for additional terms to indicate ranges of O₂ concentrations (e.g. in the field of

microbiology, micro-oxic often describes 0.5–5% O₂; Pessi *et al.*, 2013). When authors use hypoxia or alternative terms to describe reduced O₂ availability, provision of precise O₂ tensions or ranges are valuable. This can include flow rates or turbulence, medium composition and temperatures for the external medium and the bulkiness, respiration rate and density of experimental tissue(s).

- *Hyperoxia/superoxia*: describe O₂ concentrations above normoxia. Hyperoxia/superoxia can result from, for instance, underwater photosynthesis and reduced outwards diffusion rate of O₂ from photosynthetic organs to the environment (Rich *et al.*, 2013; Pedersen *et al.*, 2016), or from water bodies to the atmosphere (Nikinmaa, 2014).

Although it is advisable that O₂ concentrations be described for each experimental system, authors may prefer to use -oxic conditions best suited to the study, as long as the description enables experimental replication. Detailed description of the O₂ levels assessed externally or internally (within the plant), or physical parameters that affect its availability, will improve the reproducibility of observations and help the design of models and meta-analyses.

The challenge of monitoring oxygen levels in plants

Flooding is a compound stress imposing changes in O₂ availability (and thus respiratory ATP production), CO₂, light, ethylene, mineral nutrients and reactive oxygen species (ROS; Voesenek & Sasidharan, 2013; Voesenek & Bailey-Serres, 2015). The severity of the stress and the response elicited depends upon genotype, developmental age of the plant, organ, tissue, and other factors including flooding depth and duration, light availability, temperature, humidity and the amount of carbohydrate storage (such as sugars, starch, lipids, protein) in cells and tissues.

It is not easy to predict what physiological changes occur in a spatial and dynamic fashion during flooding at the cellular level, especially with respect to O₂ concentration. The way in which a flooding treatment is performed will strongly influence how fast plant tissues experience low O₂ stress. Different factors, including light levels in the water, the temperature and the volume of the water used to submerge the plants, microbial activity in the submerged soil, and O₂ concentration of the water at the beginning of the experiment, will all influence how the O₂ availability to the plant changes during the treatment. Therefore, careful monitoring and reporting of the O₂ concentration around submerged plant tissue is required. Polarographic electrodes (such as the Clark-type electrode) are still most widely used for this. However, fiber-optic based sensor methods have become more popular during recent years (Rolletschek *et al.*, 2009; Ast *et al.*, 2012), since these are fast and selective. Moreover, optical sensors have the advantage that the same sensor can be used to measure molecular O₂ concentrations in solution as well as in air, and the baseline of the measurement is more stable as compared with polarographic methods, which makes optical sensing more suited for long-term (days to weeks) measurements.

To avoid technical difficulties in controlling the O₂ concentration around a plant by submergence, many studies use a chamber filled with O₂-free or O₂-poor air. This has the advantage that O₂

concentrations can be changed much faster as compared to a submergence treatment, and that the actual external concentration can be controlled precisely. One should be aware, however, that a treatment with air containing little O₂ does not mimic submergence, but only changes one out of many parameters that are affected by submergence.

Apart from the importance of controlling the environmental O₂ concentration during experimental treatments, there is a strong need to obtain precise information about the plant internal-O₂ concentration as well. To date, measurements of plant internal O₂ have only been accomplished via invasive means (Ast *et al.*, 2012; Ast & Draaijer, 2014; van Dongen & Licausi, 2015). Most commonly, a small sensor needle is inserted into a plant organ and O₂ concentrations are measured at the tip of the needle. The smallest needle-type sensors that currently exist are based on the Clark-type sensor system (Revsbech, 1989) and commercially available sensors have a diameter of *c.* 4 µm. These sensors are extremely fragile. More robust glass-fiber-based optical sensors typically have a diameter of *c.* 50 µm. A disadvantage of needle-type sensors is that the tissue will be damaged upon insertion, which can lead to local changes in the rate of respiratory O₂ consumption. Moreover, external O₂ is likely to diffuse through the insertion wound into the interior of the tissue, which could lead to an overestimation of the actual *in planta* O₂ concentration.

An alternative invasive method to determine local differences or changes in O₂ concentration is by using O₂-sensitive reporter foil (Tschiersch *et al.*, 2012). Here, a special camera is used to determine O₂ concentration-dependent light emission from a special coated sensor foil that is placed on the surface of the plant tissue (Jensen *et al.*, 2005). This method has been used to describe local differences in O₂ concentration of plant organs, such as stems and seeds, that were cut in order to access the interior tissues with the sensor foil. By doing so, these measurements allowed detection of differential O₂-consumption patterns within the plant organ (Tschiersch *et al.*, 2012). More recently, nano particles coated with a fluorescent dye have been successfully used in rhizosphere studies (Koren *et al.*, 2015). These nano particles are possible future candidates for O₂ studies at the cell level when working with large, transparent model cells such as cells of *Chara*.

To date, no method exists that enables noninvasive analysis of plant internal-O₂ concentrations. The best alternative that is currently being applied makes use of reporter proteins (such as GUS, GFP or Luciferase) that are expressed under the control of low O₂-induced promoter sequences (Gasch *et al.*, 2016). Interpretation of the expression pattern of the reporter protein allows conclusions about relative variation in the O₂ concentration between regions, or through time. It will not provide, however, an exact value for the actual local concentration of O₂. Moreover, the reaction time of such reporter systems is relatively long, making it difficult to investigate rapid changes. Several other suggestions are being discussed to design alternative noninvasive molecular O₂-reporter systems. Fluorescent resonance energy transfer (FRET)-based methods, in which the FRET efficiency is affected by O₂-dependent protein maturation, have already been applied successfully in bacterial cell cultures (Potzkei *et al.*, 2012), but there are no reports yet of the successful application of such O₂ sensors in plants.

In medical research, various noninvasive O₂ monitoring techniques are being used, including positron emission tomography (PET) and nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) technology (Roussakis *et al.*, 2015). In plants, such methods have not yet been reported to determine O₂ gradients, because of the poor resolution, and because homogenous application of the required radioisotopes or contrast agents (such as Fluorine-19 (¹⁹F)-based probes) appears difficult in plants. Further research to develop methods to determine plant internal-O₂ concentrations will remain of utmost importance for the research field to advance further.

Experimental systems

It is extremely important that researchers carefully detail the experimental imposition of flooding or low O₂ stress. We suggest that, in addition to details essential to any methods description, the following details specific to low O₂ and flooding studies are necessary:

Stress conditions

- Type of flooding (waterlogging, partial or complete submergence) should include depth relative to shoot height. Investigators are encouraged to define terms used in their system, for example stagnant flooding. If hydroponics are used, information on aeration, O₂ status, light and medium composition are needed.
- Flooding in a natural or artificial environment should include information on light, flow, turbidity, pH, inorganic carbon concentration and temperature of the water. It is beneficial to record the rate of decline of O₂ in the soil, air and water. Soil flooding can also be documented from soil redox potential.
- Hypoxia experiments should provide details regarding the system used to achieve low O₂ conditions (and state the O₂ concentrations), including time taken to achieve the condition. Further information can include: chamber size, flow rate through the system, and details of application. The gas used to lower O₂ levels must be stated.
- In experimental setups, determining O₂ flux into roots from O₂ containing bathing media, experimenters should be aware that when roots are attached to shoots, fluxes to the root can come not just from the media but also internally from the shoot (Armstrong & Armstrong, 2014).
- Recovery conditions (post-submergence or post-hypoxia) should be described, including light levels, temperature, humidity, and watering regime post-drainage. Rate of soil drainage (changes in soil water content) and changes in soil redox potential are also valuable.
- Zeitgeber time (hours after dawn) and illumination when experiments start and terminate should be mentioned.
- Plant density and orientation of growth on medium should be included.

Scoring survival

A recovery period following the removal of flooding/hypoxia/anoxia stress is essential for scoring survival (Striker, 2012). Plants should be photographed immediately before and after the treatment and at the

end of the recovery period. When scoring damage, quantitative rather than qualitative data are more reproducible and can be analyzed statistically (e.g. chlorophyll levels, biomass, green leaf area).

Conclusions

Careful descriptions of growth and treatment conditions, especially factors that can influence both plant external- and internal-O₂ concentrations are essential for clarity, reproducibility and progress in research on plant responses to flooding and low O₂. Reporting on O₂ concentrations, whenever possible, using the most suitable, currently available methods is recommended. Ultimately, the challenge is also to achieve an understanding of the spatial and temporal dynamics of the major flooding signals, O₂, ethylene, nitric oxide, ROS and low-energy, their interactions, and how signaling modulates response from the subcellular to the whole-plant level. Furthermore, the focus of many studies has been on short-term molecular signatures, often under severe conditions, whereas responses associated with long-term, less severe and more chronic O₂ limitations that influence developmental plasticity, deserve greater attention.

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