EXPERT VIEW

Deacclimation after cold acclimation—a crucial, but widely neglected part of plant winter survival

Kora Vyse1, Majken Pagter2, Ellen Zuther1 and Dirk K. Hincha1,*

1 Max Planck Institute of Molecular Plant Physiology, Am Mühlenberg 1, 14476 Potsdam, Germany
2 Department of Chemistry and Bioscience, Aalborg University, Fredrik Bajers Vej 7H, 9220 Aalborg East, Denmark

* Correspondence: hincha@mpimp-golm.mpg.de

Received 22 February 2019; Editorial decision 7 May 2019; Accepted 7 May 2019

Editor: Christine Raines, University of Essex, UK

Abstract

Temperate and boreal plants show natural low temperature acclimation during autumn. This cold acclimation process results in increased freezing tolerance. Global climate change is leading to increasing spring and autumn temperatures that can trigger deacclimation and loss of freezing tolerance, making plants susceptible to both late-autumn and late-spring freezing events. In particular, spring frosts can have devastating effects on whole ecosystems and can significantly reduce the yield of crop plants. Although the timing and speed of deacclimation are clearly of crucial importance for plant winter survival, the molecular basis of this process is still largely unknown. The regulation of deacclimation is, however, not only related to freezing tolerance, but also to the termination of dormancy, and the initiation of growth and development. In this paper, we provide an overview of what is known about deacclimation in both woody and herbaceous plants. We use publicly available transcriptome data to identify a core set of deacclimation-related genes in Arabidopsis thaliana that highlight physiological determinants of deacclimation, and suggest important directions for future research in this area.

Keywords: Arabidopsis thaliana, cold acclimation, cold memory, deacclimation, dormancy, transcriptome analysis, winter survival, woody plants.

Introduction

Plant deacclimation after cold acclimation: why should we care?

Low temperature is a major ecological and evolutionary driver that limits the geographical distribution of plant species (Weiser, 1970; Kreyling et al., 2015). To overcome the constraints of low temperature, plants native to temperate and boreal climates show natural low temperature acclimation during autumn in preparation for winter frost. This process is termed cold acclimation and leads to increased freezing tolerance (Levitt, 1980).

Maximum freezing tolerance is generally reached mid-winter, and upon exposure to warmer temperatures in spring plants lose the freezing tolerance acquired during acclimation by the process of deacclimation, while they resume growth and development (Xin and Browse, 2000). However, deacclimated plants may regain lost freezing tolerance in a process called reacclimation when temperatures drop again (Byun et al., 2014; Kovi et al., 2016). Several interchangeable terms have been used in the literature concerning low-temperature responses of plants. As indicated above, the terms ‘cold acclimation’,
‘deacclimation’, and ‘reacclimation’ will be used here, in preference to the synonymous terms ‘cold hardening’, ‘dehardening’, and ‘rehardening’, which are often found in the horticultural, agronomic, and forestry literature.

While considerable efforts have been directed toward understanding how plants cold acclimate and adapt to low temperature at the physiological and molecular level, research on deacclimation is still limited, although there is increasing evidence that the low-temperature range limits of many plant species are not set by the absolute minimum temperature in winter. Rather, the autumn and spring temperatures that determine cold acclimation and deacclimation, respectively, may be decisive in shaping the cold-range limits (Vitasse et al., 2014; Rapacz et al., 2017; Vitra et al., 2017). The rate and timing of deacclimation are therefore key determinants of survival, in particular during early spring when plants undergo the transition to growth and development. If this transition is made too late, plants lose valuable time during the growth season. A premature transition, on the other hand, involves the danger of freezing damage during a late-season cold spell, unless the plants have the ability to reacclimate rapidly.

Since deacclimation is mainly driven by temperature, the process is strongly influenced by the effects of global climate change (Pagter and Arora, 2013). Global climate models predict an increase in the mean surface air temperature and in the frequency and severity of erratic temperature events (IPCC, 2014). Hence, winters in temperate regions are becoming progressively shorter and milder. For example, maximum spring temperatures increased twice as much from 1975 to 2016 as minimum winter temperatures (Gu et al., 2008; Augspurger, 2009; Hufkens et al., 2012; Menzel et al., 2015; Vitasse et al., 2018), contributing to an increase in the frequency of unreasonable warm spells in spring, leading to more frequent acclimation and deacclimation cycles (Pagter and Arora, 2013; Vitasse et al., 2014). In addition, shifting phenological patterns, such as earlier flowering caused by an earlier start of the growth season (Fitter and Fitter, 2002; Karlsen et al., 2007), increase the risk of tissue damage by subsequent frost. These changing climate patterns have wide-ranging consequences for global ecosystems and crop yield, and erratic weather events are expected to increase in frequency and severity in the future (Gu et al., 2008; Hufkens et al., 2012; Augspurger, 2013; Smith and Katz, 2013; Menzel et al., 2015). Furthermore, different species show different deacclimation responses. For example, some sub-arctic evergreen dwarf shrubs and tree seedlings show much higher mortality during simulated extreme winter warming events than deciduous birch seedlings and grasses (Bokhorst et al., 2018), which could lead to massive shifts in ecosystem composition with global warming.

In view of current climate change predictions, deacclimation has received increased attention in recent years. Key topics addressed in the literature in the last two years include metabolic, proteomic, and transcriptomic responses in model species such as Arabidopsis thaliana during deacclimation under controlled conditions and in woody species or crops during seasonal warming in the field, modelling of factors determining freezing damage in trees, and the consequences of deacclimation on plant ecosystems (Box 1). In the following sections, we review recent advances in our understanding of deacclimation mechanisms at the physiological and molecular level in woody and herbaceous plants, and highlight possible future research directions.

### Deacclimation in woody plants

Woody plants in temperate and boreal zones have to adapt to multiple cycles of cold acclimation and deacclimation throughout their lifetime. The process of deacclimation in woody plants was first mentioned as dehardening in a study on black locust trees (Robinia pseudoacacia) (Siminovitch and Briggs, 1953). Unlike studies on herbaceous plants that are mostly conducted under controlled conditions, most studies of woody plants have investigated deacclimation under natural conditions.

In temperate tree species, bud break occurs in spring and depends on the transition of the buds from an endodormant to an ecodormant state (see Cooke et al., 2012, for a review). Regulation of the initiation and progression of bud break is highly complex and depends on both internal and external factors (Vitasse et al., 2014). Many species require a period of cold temperatures, known as the chilling requirement, to transition from endo- to ecodormancy (Dhuli et al., 2014; Andersen et al., 2017; Vitasse et al., 2018) and thereby become competent to react to warm temperatures and increasing day length with bud break. Similarly, release from endodormancy is often a prerequisite for woody perennials to deacclimate and lose freezing tolerance in response to warm temperatures (Poirier et al., 2010; Pagter et al., 2015; Shin et al., 2015; Liu et al., 2017; Vitra et al., 2017; Kuprian et al., 2018).

The rate of deacclimation in woody plants depends on multiple factors. Both increasing day length and ambient temperature in spring lead to faster deacclimation (Poirier et al., 2010; Jönsson and Bärring, 2011; Basler and Körner, 2014; Takeuchi and Kasuga, 2018). In addition, genotype and the type of organ have an effect on the deacclimation kinetics. Species- and genotype-specific responses may be related to differences in timing of dormancy release or temperature/day length requirements. Broader studies will be necessary to properly define these differences. In addition, different tissues in woody species deacclimate at different temperatures and rates. For example, the xylem of birch twigs loses its freezing tolerance at lower temperatures and at higher rates than the bark (Takeuchi and Kasuga, 2018). Similarly, the tissue of the freezing-sensitive grapevine cultivar Chardonnay that responds most strongly to deacclimation is the internode xylem, followed by the phloem and the bud, whereas the more tolerant cultivar Merlot shows no significant differences between tissues (Antivilo et al., 2017).

A metabolite analysis of buds and needles of two coniferous tree species during forced bud break has indicated that major metabolic changes occur faster in buds than needles (Dhuli et al., 2014). Bud break is also associated with a remodelling of the metabolome in blackcurrant, where the content of several amino acids and organic acids is increased (Andersen et al., 2017). In general, the concentration of soluble sugars in different tissues of woody plants rises during
Plant deacclimation after cold acclimation |

autumn/cold acclimation and decreases during spring/deacclimation, while starch content shows the opposite behavior (Pagter et al., 2008, 2015; Poirier et al., 2010; Lee et al., 2012; Dhuli et al., 2014; Shin et al., 2015; Andersen et al., 2017; Liu et al., 2017), indicating the mobilization of soluble sugars from storage carbohydrates to achieve maximum freezing tolerance and re-synthesis of carbohydrate reserves to support flushing buds in spring. According to a study focusing on proteomic changes in bark and xylem of Hydrangea paniculata, deacclimation is characterized by a distinct decrease in the abundance of stress- or defence-related proteins, most of which are known to be associated with increased freezing tolerance, and an increasing abundance of proteins related to renewed growth (Pagter et al. 2014).

The molecular mechanisms and the regulation of deacclimation in woody plants are still only poorly understood. Differential analysis of cDNA libraries of blueberry during cold acclimation and bud break has indicated that genes belonging to the ‘metabolic process’ category are more highly expressed during deacclimation/bud break than during cold acclimation, in agreement with a reactivation of metabolism at this developmental stage (Rowland et al., 2012). On the other hand, genes encoding dehydrins, a class of proteins associated with plant freezing tolerance, show increased expression during winter and decreased expression in spring in blackcurrant (Andersen et al., 2017). It has also been suggested that the interaction of CBF and RGL genes, which code for transcription factors important for cold acclimation and for DELLA proteins that negatively regulate plant growth, respectively, may be important for the balance between deacclimation and growth (Wisniewski et al., 2015).

Although cold acclimation and deacclimation have been described as reversible processes, reacclimation in response to low temperatures in woody plants seems to be limited. Studies in
temperate trees have shown that reacclimation shortly after the beginning of deacclimation is possible and restores full freezing tolerance. However, repeated cycles of deacclimation followed by reacclimation result in decreased freezing tolerance after reacclimation (Shin et al., 2015). In addition, reacclimation of blackcurrant flower buds is no longer possible in late winter, pointing to a critical role of seasonal timing in the capacity to reacclimate (Kjær et al., 2019).

Modelling approaches are increasingly being used to predict the effects of climate change on dormancy, cold acclimation, deacclimation, and freezing tolerance. Although there are still several problems associated with, for example, dormancy modelling (Blümel and Chmielewski, 2012; Chmielewski and Götz, 2016), developmental responses to air temperature have been identified as critical traits determining the risk of frost damage during warm spells in winter and early spring in boreal forest trees (Hänninen, 2006). In addition, a robust model has been developed based on freezing-tolerance data for dormant buds from autumn to spring of three grapevine genotypes over 22 years (Ferguson et al., 2011), and indicates that deacclimation rates are dependent on the cultivar and dormancy state. Recent dynamic models accurately predict the freezing tolerance of dormant walnut trees based on climatic data and also taking carbohydrate dynamics into account (Charrier et al., 2018a, b). This indicates that including metabolomic data may lead to more accurate models to predict the effects of climate change on winter survival and freezing tolerance of woody plants.

**Molecular responses during deacclimation in herbaceous plants**

The timing and extent of deacclimation in herbaceous plants depend on factors such as temperature, genotype, and photoperiod (Pagter and Arora, 2013). Deacclimation may also be linked to vernalization, as shown for two Festuca pratensis populations with high and low vernalization requirements (Ergon et al., 2016). The rate of deacclimation may depend on the degree of cold-acclimated freezing tolerance, as shown for different accessions of Arabidopsis (Zuther et al., 2015) and annual bluegrass (Hoffman et al., 2014), while such a dependence is not found in cereals (Rapacz et al., 2017). In Arabidopsis, natural variation in deacclimation rate is linked to the plastid antioxidant system, where a lower expression of the corresponding genes under cold conditions in freezing-sensitive accessions results in an extended maintenance of H$_2$O$_2$ levels during deacclimation. This has been suggested as an adaptive strategy to prevent rapid reversion of cold-acclimation responses (Juszczak et al., 2016).

The majority of studies on deacclimation in herbaceous plants have focused on physiological responses and have only investigated small numbers of genes, proteins, or metabolites, and no genetic studies (QTL mapping, GWAS, mutant screens) to elucidate the molecular basis of deacclimation have been published yet. We therefore focus this review on studies using transcriptomic, proteomic, and metabolomic methods to elucidate the molecular basis of deacclimation, mainly in Arabidopsis. However, it should be stressed that it is often difficult to directly compare the results of different studies, as they differ widely in their experimental conditions for both cold acclimation and deacclimation. For example, for both treatments, times ranging from a few hours to several days have been used (Table 1). It has been shown that the kinetics of deacclimation are very rapid, with most changes already taking place during the first 24 h, with the transcriptome responding faster to the increase in temperature than the metabolome (Pagter et al., 2017). After 24 h, the levels of several primary metabolites are still significantly different from the pre-acclimation state (Kaplan et al., 2004; Pagter et al., 2017) and these higher metabolite levels persist for up to three (Zuther et al., 2015) to seven days (Zuther et al., 2019), making comparisons across time-points difficult. In addition, freezing-sensitive accessions of Arabidopsis show a faster reduction of sugar levels than more freezing-tolerant accessions (Zuther et al., 2015). The reduced levels of primary metabolites may not only be related to freezing tolerance, but also to the increased need for carbon sources due to the resumption of growth and development at the elevated temperature, including increased respiration (Pagter and Arora, 2013). This is in agreement with an increased expression of

**Table 1. Gene expression studies on cold acclimation and deacclimation in Arabidopsis thaliana, showing the different experimental conditions used.**

| Citation         | Plant age (weeks) | Growth medium | Temperature (°C) | Time |
|------------------|-------------------|---------------|------------------|------|
| Oono et al. (2006) | 3                 | MS plates, 2% sucrose | 22 | 4 | 22 | 24 h, 1 h, 2 h, 5 h, 10 h, MA |
| Byun et al. (2014)| 3                 | Soil          | 23 | 0 | 23 | 0 | 24 h, 3 d |
| Nakaminami et al. (2014) | 2            | MS plates, 1% sucrose | 22 | 2 | 22 | 0 | 7 d, 6 h, 12 h, 24 h |
| Firtzlaff et al. (2016) | 7              | Soil          | 20 | 4 | 20 | 4 | 5 d, 24 h |
| Pagter et al. (2017) | 4              | Soil          | 20 | 4 | 20 | 0 | 3 d, 2 h, 4 h, 6 h, 12 h, 24 h |
| Zuther et al. (2019) | 4              | Soil          | 20 | 4 | 20 | 4 | 3 d, 7 d, 3 d |

C, control; Acc, cold acclimation; Deacc, deacclimation; Reacc, reacclimation; MA, microarray; RNA-seq, RNA sequencing. The data sets highlighted in bold were used for a meta-analysis to identify a core set of transcripts with changed abundance after 24 h of deacclimation compared to cold acclimation (see Box 2 and Table 2).
development-related genes such as *PIF4* and several genes related to hormone metabolism during the first 24 h of deacclimation (Pagter et al., 2017).

There are currently only two published proteomic studies that investigate the effects of deacclimation. One is focused on plasma membrane proteins and it shows that proteins that increase or decrease during cold acclimation generally show the opposite behavior during deacclimation. In particular, abiotic stress-responsive proteins and protein kinases/phosphatases decrease in abundance during deacclimation, while proteins related to metabolic processes increase (Miki et al., 2019), in agreement with the onset of growth and development considered above. A combined analysis of mRNA and protein abundances during cold acclimation and deacclimation in Arabidopsis revealed sets of mRNAs that are transcribed under cold conditions, but are stored and masked to be translated later upon deacclimation. These mainly ribosomal proteins are rapidly accumulated during deacclimation as they do not require transcription, thereby ensuring a rapid resumption of growth and development (Nakaminami et al., 2014).

There are currently six published studies that report transcriptomic analyses of the deacclimation process in Arabidopsis (Table 1). Five of these studies have employed different forms of microarrays, while the most recent used an RNA-seq approach. Here, we use these published data to search for common transcriptional deacclimation responses in Arabidopsis. As noted above, such a meta-analysis is hampered by the widely diverging experimental protocols used in the different studies. To allow for a meaningful comparison, we therefore selected the three studies that employed the same acclimation temperature (4 °C) and a common deacclimation time-point of 24 h (Oono et al., 2006; Firtzlaff et al., 2016; Pagter et al., 2017). From these studies we extracted lists of genes identified as changed in expression after 24 h of deacclimation compared to cold-acclimated samples. The number of such genes varies from 612 selected from 7k cDNA microarrays (Oono et al., 2006) to 2353 identified from Affymetrix whole-genome microarrays (Pagter et al., 2017), and 5732 identified from Agilent whole-genome microarrays (Firtzlaff et al., 2016). There is an overlap of 25 up-regulated and 23 down-regulated genes among the three studies (Box 2), and these are listed in Table 2. We consider these 48 genes to be a core set that is regulated during deacclimation independently of experimental conditions and array technology. Of course, we acknowledge that this is only a momentary snapshot and that with more transcriptome data becoming available, in particular more RNA-seq data, this set of core genes will probably expand.

Core genes down-regulated during deacclimation include many that are cold-induced, such as genes from the CBF regulon and genes encoding enzymes involved in the accumulation of compatible solutes such as sugars (Pagter et al., 2017). Several genes in our set (e.g. sucrose synthase 1, galactinol synthase 3, *COR47*, *COR15a*, *COR15b*, KIN1, KIN2) are in this group and the encoded proteins are either known (*COR15a*, KOR15b; Thalhammer et al., 2014) or assumed to play a functional role in freezing tolerance.

Genes up-regulated during deacclimation include those encoding transcription factors regulating development and growth. Likewise, genes related to the metabolism of auxin, gibberellins, brassinosteroids, jasmonate, and ethylene are
up-regulated under these conditions, indicating that the loss of freezing tolerance and the initiation of growth are transcriptionally interrelated even though there are no phenotypic changes visible after 24 h of deacclimation (Pagter et al., 2017). The core set of up-regulated genes that we have identified here (Table 2) contains genes encoding the aquaporin proteins PIP2C, PIP1A, and gamma tonoplast intrinsic protein, indicating the importance of balancing cell water status during

| ID          | Log₂FC (P) | Log₂FC (F) | Log₂FC (O) | Function                                      |
|-------------|------------|------------|------------|-----------------------------------------------|
| AT1G09350   | -5.3110    | -4.7459    | -3.2452    | Galactinol synthase 3                         |
| AT1G0410    | -3.4000    | -2.7623    | -1.2619    | CW14 protein (DUF1336)                        |
| AT1G6850    | -3.3930    | -5.0506    | -2.3219    | Transmembrane protein                          |
| AT1G20440   | -1.2930    | -3.2441    | -2.1539    | Cold-regulated 47                              |
| AT1G83130   | -1.3540    | -1.9394    | -2.3004    | Tetratricopeptide repeat (TPR)-like superfamily |
| AT2G21620   | -1.0160    | -1.8011    | -1.2921    | Adenine nucleotide α-hydrolases-like superfamily |
| AT2G36390   | -1.1480    | -2.5084    | -1.5353    | Starch branching enzyme 2                       |
| AT2G42530   | -2.2960    | -3.7778    | -2.0893    | Cold regulated 15b                             |
| AT2G42540   | -1.4440    | -3.7451    | -4.1712    | Cold-regulated 15a                             |
| AT3G55580   | -3.4330    | -3.2975    | -1.2723    | Regulator of chromosome condensation (RCC1) family protein, TCF1 |
| AT4G03400   | -1.7670    | -1.1224    | -1.3585    | Auxin-responsive GH3 family protein            |
| AT4G04330   | -1.1050    | -2.7443    | -1.6666    | Chaperonin-like RbcX protein                    |
| AT4G12470   | -5.3270    | -8.8845    | -3.4112    | Azelaic acid induced 1                          |
| AT4G19120   | -1.3280    | -1.0304    | -1.3219    | SAM-dependent methyltransferases superfamily protein |
| AT4G30650   | -3.3420    | -5.0506    | -2.3219    | Low temperature and salt responsive protein     |
| AT4G38580   | -2.7600    | -1.9848    | -1.3884    | Farnesylated protein 6                         |
| AT5G15960   | -2.1620    | -1.2979    | -1.3535    | Reversibly glycosylated polypeptide 2           |
| AT5G15970   | -1.0010    | -2.4748    | -1.3621    | Stress-induced protein (KIN1)                   |
| AT5G20830   | -1.0010    | -2.4748    | -1.3621    | Stress-induced protein (KIN2)                   |
| AT5G25110   | -1.4000    | -2.4748    | -1.3621    | Sucrose synthase 1                             |
| AT5G25420   | -1.1900    | -2.4748    | -1.3621    | B-cell receptor-associated 31-like protein      |
| AT5G61380   | -1.0900    | -2.4748    | -1.3621    | CCT motif -containing protein, TOC1             |

The genes constitute the overlap of the results from three publicly available data sets as shown in Box 2 and Table 1. The log₂FC values are taken from Pagter et al. (2017) (P), Firtzlaff et al. (2016) (F), and Oono et al. (2006) (O). Genes are ordered by AGI code. Genes in bold represent the overlap with ecologically significant temperature-responsive genes identified in Arabidopsis halleri (Nagano et al., 2019).
deacclimation, when cellular osmolyte concentrations (sugars, amino acids) are drastically reduced. This is also in agreement with the increase in transcript levels of the gene drought-repressed 4, which shows reduced expression under drought (Gosti et al., 2019). Unfortunately, to the best of our knowledge, this gene has not been functionally characterized. Similarly, the β-xylosidase 1 gene has been found to be up-regulated during rehydration after drought stress (Oono et al., 2006). Other core up-regulated genes are related to recovery and repair processes, such as the genes encoding a chaperone DnaJ-domain superfamily protein and the PYK10 binding protein, which is part of a β-glucosidase complex involved in repair, for example after wounding (Yamada et al., 2011).

A recent study using the perennial species Arabidopsis halleri, a close relative of A. thaliana, determined transcriptome dynamics over 2 years under natural environmental conditions using RNA-seq (Nagano et al., 2019). From these expression profiles, 228 genes were identified as specifically associated with seasonal temperature variation. The overlap between this set of ecologically significant temperature-responsive genes and our core set of 48 deacclimation-related genes comprises 13 genes, nine among the down-regulated and four among the up-regulated genes (highlighted in bold in Table 2). Among the down-regulated genes, we find some of the cold-repressed genes described above (galactinol synthase 3, sucrose synthase 1, COR15a, COR15b, KIN2), but also TCF1 (tolerant to chilling and freezing 1), encoding a CBF-independent chromatin-based regulator of cold-responsive genes (Ji et al., 2015), RGP2 (reversibly glycosylated polypeptide 2), encoding a UDP-arabinose mutase essential for cell wall formation (Rautengarten et al., 2011), and TOC1, a gene of the central oscillator of the circadian clock, which is strongly dampened in its expression by low temperature (Bieniawska et al., 2008). With the exception of the gamma tonoplast intrinsic protein referred to above, the up-regulated genes are only poorly characterized. However, the cinnamyl alcohol dehydrogenase is involved in green leaf volatile emission (Tanaka et al., 2018), but it is presently unclear how that may be related to plant freezing tolerance. Nevertheless, these genes are interesting candidates to search for upstream regulators such as transcription factors that may then allow us to identify deacclimation regulons with a functional role in this process.

Reacclimation after deacclimation and cold memory

During sudden cold spells in spring or warm spells in autumn, deacclimation is followed directly by reacclimation. In this sequence, the first cold stress may prime plants for a future stress, leading to increased freezing tolerance due to a cold memory (Hilker et al., 2016; Baier et al., 2019). However, increased tolerance was not found for canola or wheat, which only showed 100% and 39% recovery of acclimated freezing tolerance after reacclimation, respectively (Trischuk et al., 2014). In Arabidopsis, on the other hand, cold memory has recently been demonstrated, as indicated by a higher freezing tolerance after the second compared to the first cold treatment (Zuther et al., 2019). After a 7-d deacclimation phase, no cold-induced changes in lipid content are detectable compared to non-acclimated plants, while some primary metabolites still show increased levels (Zuther et al., 2019). This lack of full reversion of metabolite pools to non-stressed levels could be a sign of metabolic imprinting during cold acclimation (Schwachtje et al., 2019). Similarly, some cold-induced plasma membrane proteins in Arabidopsis remain at elevated levels during deacclimation (Miki et al., 2019). In addition, the chloroplast antioxidant capacity plays an important role in the formation of a cold memory (Baier et al., 2019). RNA-seq analysis reveals specific gene expression patterns associated with reacclimation (Zuther et al., 2019) and further studies will be necessary to establish the functional role of these genes in cold priming and memory.

Conclusions and future directions

As we have outlined above, deacclimation after cold acclimation is a crucial factor in plant winter survival that will increase in importance as global climate change proceeds. However, unlike cold acclimation, deacclimation has attracted comparatively little research interest and therefore its molecular basis is largely—and in the case of woody plants—completely unexplored (see Box 3 for a schematic summary of current knowledge for herbaceous plants). In particular, while a limited number of metabolomic, proteomic, and transcriptomic data sets are available now, no large-scale genetic studies such as QTL or GWA mapping have been performed that could point to interesting novel regulators of this process. Likewise, the screening of mutant populations (chemical or T-DNA insertion mutants) could potentially lead to the identification of important components of deacclimation. Our meta-analysis of a small number of available microarray studies clearly indicates that it should be possible, with a larger number of more comprehensive transcriptomic data sets, to define a core set of deacclimation-related genes that could be prioritized for functional analysis. In addition, similar studies are lacking in woody plants, where just recently the first transcriptional regulators of bud break have been identified in aspen (Maurya et al., 2018; Singh et al., 2018); however, their possible involvement in deacclimation has so far not been explored. Candidate genes for the regulation of deacclimation in herbaceous plants could be interesting starting points to unravel similar gene regulatory networks in woody plants, but also to define specific deacclimation mechanisms in the two groups. In the long term, respective mutants or gene-edited plants could be used to investigate how different levels or speed of deacclimation influence plant fitness under (simulated) global climate change conditions.

Even on the physiological side, many open questions remain. For instance, it will be important to investigate the kinetics of both deacclimation and reacclimation at different temperatures in widely differing plant types, such as annual and perennial herbaceous plants (including grasses), trees, and woody shrubs, as a baseline to define the influence of...
developmental stage and dormancy level, and also to investigate external factors related to climate change, such as CO₂ concentration. This would also allow us to make predictions about the effects of further spring warming and erratic spring freezing events on the species composition in different ecosystems. In particular for crop plants, knowledge about the genetic diversity present in cultivars of different species will be crucial to allow breeding of new varieties that are better adapted to the challenges of a rapidly changing climate and thus to ensure sufficient food for an ever-increasing human population.

Acknowledgements

We are grateful to Dr Vivian Lortzing (Free University Berlin, Germany) for providing the log₂FC data from Firtzlaff et al. (2016) for our meta-analysis. Our work at the Max Planck Institute of Molecular Plant Physiology is supported by the German Science Foundation (DFG) through the Collaborative Research Center SFB973, Project A3 to DKH and by the Max Planck Society.

References

Andersen UB, Kjaer KH, Erban A, Alpers J, Hincha DK, Kopka J, Zuther E, Pagter M. 2017. Impact of seasonal warming on overwintering and spring phenology of blackcurrant. Environmental & Experimental Botany 140, 96–109.

Antivilo FG, Paz RC, Keller M, Borgo R, Tognetti J, Juñent FR. 2017. Macro- and microclimate conditions may alter grapevine deacclimation: variation in thermal amplitude in two contrasting wine regions from North and South America. International Journal of Biometeorology 61, 2033–2045.

Augspurger CK. 2009. Spring 2007 warmth and frost: phenology, damage and refoliation in a temperate deciduous forest. Functional Ecology 23, 1031–1039.

Augspurger CK. 2013. Reconstructing patterns of temperature, phenology, and frost damage over 124 years: spring damage risk is increasing. Ecology 94, 41–50.

Baier M, Bittner A, Prescher A, van Buer J. 2019. Preparing plants for improved cold tolerance by priming. Plant, Cell & Environment 42, 782–800.

Basler D, Körner C. 2014. Photoperiod and temperature responses of bud swelling and bud burst in four temperate forest tree species. Tree Physiology 34, 377–388.

Bieniawska Z, Espinoza C, Schlereth A, Sulipce R, Hincha DK, Hannah MA. 2008. Disruption of the Arabidopsis circadian clock is responsible for extensive variation in the cold-responsive transcriptome. Plant Physiology 147, 263–279.
Blümel K, Chmielewski F-M. 2012. Shortcomings of classical phenological modeling forces and a way to overcome them. Agricultural & Forest Meteorology 164, 10–19.

Bokhorst S, Jaskola L, Karppinen K, Edwinsen GK, Maehre HK, Bjerkø J.W. 2018. Contrasting survival and physiological responses of sub-Arctic plant types to extreme winter warming and nitrogen. Planta 247, 635–648.

Byun YJ, Koo MY, Joo HJ, Ha-Lee YM, Lee DH. 2014. Comparative analysis of gene expression under cold acclimation, deacclimation and reacclimation in Arabidopsis. Physiologia Plantarum 152, 256–274.

Charrier G, Chuiue I, Bonhomme M, Améglio T. 2018a. Assessing frost damages using dynamic models in walnut trees: exposure rather than vulnerability controls frost risks. Plant Cell & Environment 41, 1008–1021.

Charrier G, Lacointe A, Améglio T. 2018b. Dynamic modeling of carbon metabolism during the dormant period accurately predicts the changes in frost hardiness in walnut trees Juglans regia L. Frontiers in Plant Science 9, 1746.

Chmielewski F-M, Götz K-P. 2016. Performance of models for the beginning of sweet cherry blossom under current and changed climate conditions. Agricultural & Forest Meteorology 218–219, 85–91.

Cooke JE, Eriksson ME, Junttila O. 2012. The dynamic nature of bud dormancy in trees: environmental control and molecular mechanisms. Plant, Cell & Environment 35, 1707–1728.

Dhuli P, Rohloff J, Strimbeck GR. 2014. Metabolite changes in conifer buds and needles during forced bud break in Norway spruce (Picea abies) and European silver fir (Abies alba). Frontiers in Plant Science 5, 706.

Ergon Å, Melby TI, Höglind M, Rognli OA. 2016. Vernalization requirement and the chromosomal VRN1-region can affect freezing tolerance and expression of cold-regulated genes in Festuca pratensis. Frontiers in Plant Science 7, 2077.

Ferguson JC, Tarara JM, Mills LJ, Grove GG, Keller M. 2011. Dynamic thermal time model of cold hardness for dormant grapevine buds. Annals of Botany 107, 389–396.

Firtzlaff V, Obergärd T, Geiselhardt S, Hilker M, Kunze R. 2016. Priming and memory of stress responses in organisms lacking a nervous system. Biological Reviews 91, 706.

Fitter AH, Fitter RS. 2002. Rapid changes in flowering time in British plants. Science 296, 1689–1691.

Gosti F, Bertauchec N, Vartanian N, Giraudet J. 1995. Abscisic acid-dependent and -independent regulation of gene expression by progressive drought in Arabidopsis thaliana. Molecular & General Genetics 246, 10–18.

Gu L, Hanson PJ, Post WM, Kaiser DP, Yang B, Nemani R, Pallardy SG, Meyers T. 2008. The 2007 Eastern US spring freeze: increased cold damage in a warming world? BioScience 58, 253–262.

Hänninen H. 2006. Climate warming and the risk of frost damage to boreal forest trees: Identification of critical ecophysiological traits. Tree Physiology 26, 899–908.

Heinonen R, Schachtje J, Baier M, et al. 2016. Priming and memory of stress responses in organisms lacking a nervous system. Biological Reviews of the Cambridge Philosophical Society 91, 1118–1133.

Hoffman L, DaCosta M, Bertrand A, Castonguay Y, Ebdon JS. 2014. Metabolite changes in conifer leaf material during the dormant period accurately predicts the changes in frost hardiness in walnut trees Juglans regia L. Frontiers in Plant Science 9, 1746.

Jönsson AM, Bärring L. 2011. Ensemble analysis of frost damage on vegetation caused by spring backlashes in a warmer Europe. Natural Hazards & Earth System Science 11, 401–418.

Juszczał M, Cvetkovic J, Zuther E, Hincha DK, Baier M. 2016. Natural variation of cold deacclimation correlates with variation of cold-acclimation of the plastid antioxidant system in Arabidopsis thaliana accessions. Frontiers in Plant Science 7, 306.

Kaplan F, Kopka J, Haskell DW, Zhao W, Schiller KC, Gatzeke N, Sung DY, Guy CL. 2004. Exploring the temperature-stress metabolome of Arabidopsis. Plant Physiology 136, 4159–4168.

Karsen SR, Solheim I, Beck PS, Hogda KA, Wielgolaski FE, Tommervik H. 2007. Variability of the start of the growing season in Fennoscandia, 1982–2002. International Journal of Biometeorology 51, 513–524.

Kjaer KH, Winde J, Petersen KK, Yde CC, Pagter M. 2019. Cold deacclimation mechanisms and reacclimation potential in flower buds of blackcurrant (Ribes nigrum). Physiologia Plantarum. In press. doi:10.1111/plp.12873.

Kovi MR, Ergon Å, Rognli OA. 2016. Freezing tolerance revisited-effects of variable temperatures on gene regulation in temperate grasses and legumes. Current Opinion in Plant Biology 33, 140–146.

Kreyling J, Schmid S, Aas G. 2015. Cold tolerance of tree species is related to the climate of their native ranges. Journal of Biogeography 42, 156–166.

Kuprian E, Koch S, Munkler G, Resnyak A, Buchner O, Oberhammer M, Neuner G. 2018. Does winter desiccation account for seasonal increases in supercooling capacity of Norway spruce bud primordia? Tree Physiology 38, 591–601.

Lee JH, Yu DJ, Kim SJ, Choi D, Lee HJ. 2012. Intraspecies differences in cold hardness, carbohydrate content and β-amylase gene expression of Vaccinium corymbosum during cold acclimation and deacclimation. Tree Physiology 32, 1533–1540.

Levitt J. 1980. Responses of plants to environmental stresses. Volume 1. Chilling, freezing, and high temperature stresses. In: Kozlowski TT, ed. Physiological ecology. New York: Academic Press, 497.

Liu B, Zhou H, Cao S, Xia Y-P, Arora R. 2017. Comparative physiology of natural deacclimation in ten Azalea cultivars. HortScience 52, 1451–1457.

Maurya JP, Triozzi PM, Bhalerao RP, Perales M. 2018. Environmentally sensitive molecular switches drive poplar phenology. Frontiers in Plant Science 9, 1873.

Menzel A, Helm R, Zang C. 2015. Patterns of late spring frost leaf damage and recovery in a European beech (Fagus sylvatica L) stand in south-eastern Germany based on repeated digital photographs. Frontiers in Plant Science 6, 110.

Miki Y, Takahashi D, Kawamura Y, Umura M. 2019. Temporal proteomics of Arabidopsis plasma membrane during cold- and de-acclimation. Journal of Proteomecs 197, 71–81.

Nagano AJ, Kawagoe T, Sugisaka J, Honjo MN, Iwayama K, Kudoh H. 2019. Annual transcriptome dynamics in natural environments reveals plant cold acclimation adaptation. Nature Plants 5, 74–83.

Nakamimami K, Matsui A, Nakagami H, et al. 2014. Analysis of differential expression patterns of mRNAs and protein during cold-acclimation and de-acclimation in Arabidopsis. Molecular & Cellular Proteomics 13, 3602–3611.

Oono Y, Seki M, Satou M, Iida K, Akiyama K, Sakurai T, Fujita M, Yamaguchi-Shinozaki K, Shinozaki K. 2006. Monitoring expression profiles of Arabidopsis genes during cold acclimation and deacclimation using DNA microarrays. Functional & Integrative Genomics 6, 212–234.

Pagter M, Alpers J, Erban A, Kopka J, Zuther E, Hincha DK. 2017. Rapid transcriptional and metabolic regulation of the deacclimation process in cold acclimated Arabidopsis thaliana. BMC Genomics 18, 731.

Pagter M, Andersen UB, Andersen L. 2015. Winter warming delays dormancy release, advances budburst, alters carbohydrate metabolism and reduces yield in a temperate shrub. AoB PLANTS 7, plv024.

Pagter M, Arora R. 2013. Winter survival and deacclimation of perennials under warming climate: physiological perspectives. Physiologia Plantarum 147, 75–87.

Pagter M, Jensen CR, Petersen KK, Liu F, Arora R. 2008. Changes in carbohydrates, ABA and bark proteins during seasonal cold acclimation and deacclimation in Hymenaea species differing in cold hardness. Physiologia Plantarum 134, 473–485.

Pagter M, Sergeant K, Moller SM, Bertram HC, Renault J. 2014. Changes in the proteome and water state in bark and xylem of Hymenaea paniculata during loss of freezing tolerance. Environmental & Experimental Botany 106, 99–111.
Poirier M, Lacointe A, Améglio T. 2010. A semi-physiological model of cold hardening and dehardening in walnut stem. Tree Physiology 30, 1555–1569.

Rapacz M, Jurczyk B, Sasal M. 2017. Deacclimation may be crucial for winter survival of cereals under warming climate. Plant Science 256, 5–15.

Rautengarten C, Ebert B, Herter T, Petzold CJ, Ishii T, Mukhopadhyay A, Usadel B, Scheller HV. 2011. The interconversion of UDP-arabinopyranose and UDP-arabinofuranose is indispensable for plant development in Arabidopsis. The Plant Cell 23, 1373–1390.

Rowland LJ, Alkharouf N, Darwish O, Ogden EL, Polashock JJ, Bassil NV, Main D. 2012. Generation and analysis of blueberry transcriptome sequences from leaves, developing fruit, and flower buds from cold acclimation through deacclimation. BMC Plant Biology 12, 46.

Schwachtje J, Whitcomb SJ, Firmino AAP, Zuther E, Hincha DK, Kopka J. 2019. Induced, imprinted, and primed responses to changing environments: does metabolism store and process information? Frontiers in Plant Science 10, 106.

Shin H, Oh Y, Kim D. 2015. Differences in cold hardiness, carbohydrates, dehydrins and related gene expressions under an experimental deacclimation and reacclimation in Prunus persica. Physiologia Plantarum 154, 485–499.

Siminovitch D, Briggs DR. 1953. Studies on the chemistry of the living bark of the black locust tree in relation to frost hardiness. IV. Effects of ringing on translocation, protein synthesis and the development of hardiness. Plant Physiology 28, 177–200.

Singh RK, Maurya JP, Azeez A, Miskolczi P, Tylewicz S, Stojković K, Delhomme N, Busov V, Bhalerao RP. 2018. A genetic network mediating the control of bud break in hybrid aspen. Nature Communications 9, 4173.

Smith AB, Katz RW. 2013. US billion-dollar weather and climate disasters: data sources, trends, accuracy and biases. Natural Hazards 67, 387–410.

Takeuchi M, Kasuga J. 2018. Bark cells and xylem cells in Japanese white birch twigs initiate deacclimation at different temperatures. Cryobiology 80, 96–100.

Tanaka T, Ikeda A, Shiojiri K, et al. 2018. Identification of a hexenal reductase that modulates the composition of green leaf volatiles. Plant Physiology 178, 552–564.

Thalhammer A, Bryant G, Sulpice R, Hincha DK. 2014. Disordered cold regulated15 proteins protect chloroplast membranes during freezing through binding and folding, but do not stabilize chloroplast enzymes in vivo. Plant Physiology 166, 190–201.

Trischuk RG, Schilling BS, Low NH, Gray GR, Gusta LV. 2014. Cold acclimation, de-acclimation and re-acclimation of spring canola, winter canola and winter wheat: the role of carbohydrates, cold-induced stress proteins and vernalization. Environmental & Experimental Botany 106, 156–163.

Vitasse Y, Lenz A, Körner C. 2014. The interaction between freezing tolerance and phenology in temperate deciduous trees. Frontiers in Plant Science 5, 541.

Vitasse Y, Schneider L, Rixen C, Christen D, Rebetez M. 2018. Increase in the risk of exposure of forest and fruit trees to spring frosts at higher elevations in Switzerland over the last four decades. Agricultural & Forest Meteorology 248, 60–69.

Vitra A, Lenz A, Vitasse Y. 2017. Frost hardening and dehardening potential in temperate trees from winter to budburst. New Phytologist 216, 113–123.

Weiser CJ. 1970. Cold resistance and injury in woody plants: knowledge of hardy plant adaptations to freezing stress may help us to reduce winter damage. Science 169, 1269–1278.

Wisniewski M, Norelli J, Artlip T. 2015. Overexpression of a peach CBF gene in apple: a model for understanding the integration of growth, dormancy, and cold hardness in woody plants. Frontiers in Plant Science 6, 85.

Xin Z, Browse J. 2000. Cold comfort farm: the acclimation of plants to freezing temperatures. Plant & Cell Environment 23, 893–902.

Yamada K, Hara-Nishimura I, Nishimura M. 2011. Unique defense strategy by the endoplasmic reticulum body in plants. Plant & Cell Physiology 52, 2039–2049.

Zuther E, Juszczak I, Lee YP, Baier M, Hincha DK. 2015. Time-dependent deacclimation after cold acclimation in Arabidopsis thaliana accessions. Scientific Reports 5, 12199.

Zuther E, Schaarschmidt S, Fischer A, Erban A, Pagter M, Mubeen U, Giavalisco P, Kopka J, Sprenger H, Hincha DK. 2019. Molecular signatures associated with increased freezing tolerance due to low temperature memory in Arabidopsis. Plant, Cell & Environment 42, 854–873.