- Utility of root cortical aerenchyma under water limited conditions in tropical maize (Zea
 mays L.)
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- 15 Running title: Root cortical aerenchyma in tropical maize (Zea mays L.)
- 16
- 17 Number of pages: 32
- 18 Number of tables: 7
- 19 Number of figures: 6

20 Abstract

21 It has recently been shown that root cortical aerenchyma (RCA) formation substantially reduces the metabolic costs of soil exploration, thereby improving rooting depth, water capture, and plant 22 23 growth under drought. The objectives of this study were to evaluate phenotypic variation of RCA 24 formation in Malawi maize germplasm and confirm the utility of RCA formation in different agroecologies at field stations and on smallholder farms in Malawi. Forty maize accessions 25 collected across Malawi were grown under rainfed field conditions, and a subset contrasting for 26 27 RCA were grown under well-watered and water stressed conditions at two research stations and 28 under natural drought on farms across two agroecological zones in Malawi. We found substantial 29 variation for RCA in local germplasm ranging from 0 to 37% of root cross sectional area. 30 Suboptimal water availability increased RCA by 54% to 77% across environments. Under water stress high RCA genotypes had 23% to 29% greater leaf relative water content, 67% to 96% 31 32 greater shoot biomass 70 days after planting, and 78% to 143% greater grain yield than low RCA 33 genotypes. Our results are consistent with the hypothesis that RCA improves plant growth under 34 drought by reducing the metabolic costs of soil exploration and improving water acquisition. RCA has value as a selection criterion to improve the performance of maize and possibly other 35

36 cereal crops in water limited environments.

37 Keywords: Zea mays L., root cortical aerenchyma, drought

38 Introduction

39 Suboptimal water availability is a primary global constraint to crop productivity (Barker et al., 40 2004; Campos et al., 2004), and is projected to worsen over the next several decades as the result 41 of global climate change (IPCC, 2014). Although developing crop cultivars with improved adaptation to water stress is an avenue to mitigate drought impact, breeding for drought 42 43 adaptation using yield as a selection criterion is generally not efficient (Lynch, 2007; Wasson et 44 al., 2012; Watt et al., 2013). Yield is an integration of complex mechanisms at different levels of 45 organization affected by many elements of the phenotype and the environment interacting in complex and often unknown ways. An alternative to yield selection is ideotype or trait-based 46 47 breeding that allows identification of useful sources of variation, informed trait integration, and 48 development of novel phenotypes (Araus et al., 2008; Donald, 1968; Lynch, 2007; Richards et 49 al., 2010; Wasson et al., 2012; York et al. 2013).

50 Root phenes ('phene' is to 'phenotype' as 'gene' is to 'genotype') that permit rapid exploitation 51 of deep soil domains can have significant impact on crop productivity under drought (Lynch, 52 2013). For this reason, root architectural phene states that enhance deep soil exploration such as 53 steep root growth angles can improve water acquisition (Manschadi et al., 2006; Lynch, 2013). 54 Root metabolic costs of soil exploration are quite substantial, and can exceed 50% of daily photosynthesis (Lambers et al., 2002), therefore efficient utilization of metabolic resources for 55 soil exploration is a key aspect of plant adaptation to edaphic stresses (Lynch and Ho, 2005; 56 57 Lynch, 2007). This has been demonstrated in the case of limiting nitrogen, phosphorus, 58 potassium, and drought (Nielsen et al., 2001; Lynch and Ho, 2005; Zhu et al., 2010; Postma and 59 Lynch, 2010; Postma and Lynch, 2011; Jaramillo et al., 2013; Saengwilai et al., 2014a).

60 Anatomical phene states that reduce the maintenance requirements of root tissue can reduce the 61 metabolic cost of soil exploration and soil resource acquisition. Maize genotypes with less living 62 tissue in the root cortex had greater root growth, water acquisition, and plant growth under water 63 stress than genetically related lines with more living cortical tissue (Jaramillo et al., 2013). One mechanism to reduce living cortical tissue is the formation of root cortical aerenchyma (RCA), 64 65 which converts living cortical cells into air space through programmed cell death (Evans, 2004). 66 RCA formation is widely known to be induced in response to hypoxia and functions to improve 67 oxygen transport to roots under hypoxic conditions (Jackson and Armstrong, 1999; Mano and 68 Omori, 2007; Mano and Omori, 2013). Increased RCA formation has been reported in response 69 to suboptimal availability of phosphorus (Drew et al., 1989; Fan et al., 2003), nitrogen (Drew et 70 al., 1989; Saengwilai et al., 2014a), sulfur (Bouranis et al., 2003; Bouranis et al., 2006), and 71 water (Zhu et al., 2010). RCA formation is associated with a disproportionate reduction of root 72 respiration in maize (Fan et al., 2003; Saengwilai et al., 2014; Zhu et al., 2010), reduction of 73 phosphorus (Fan et al., 2003) and nitrogen (Saengwilai et al., 2014) content in root tissue on a 74 volume basis, and improved growth in low P (Lynch, 2011) and low N (Saengwilai et al., 2014) 75 soil. Modelling studies using SimRoot suggest that RCA formation improves crop adaptation to suboptimal nutrient availability by reducing the metabolic and nutrient cost of soil exploration 76 77 (Postma and Lynch, 2011a; Postma and Lynch, 2011b). Under water stress in the field maize 78 inbreds with more RCA had 5 times greater biomass and eight times greater yield than inbreds 79 with less RCA (Zhu et al., 2010). These results suggest that RCA has broad utility for improving 80 soil resource acquisition in stressful conditions.

81 Maize is the leading global crop and the dominant food crop in many developing nations 82 including Malawi, where it accounts for about 70% of the total caloric intake of rural people 83 (FAOSTAT, 2010). However, maize yields in Malawi remain low, averaging 1.4 t ha⁻¹, (i.e. onesixth the average yields in the US), which limits farm income and food security (Denning et al., 84 85 2009; FAOSTAT, 2010). Food security and nutritional status of households in Malawi continue 86 to be threatened by recurring droughts which are further exacerbated by climate change (Burke et 87 al., 2009; Lobell et al., 2011; IPCC, 2014). The development of drought-tolerant cultivars is a priority, as the use of drought tolerant cultivars may be the affordable option for improving food 88 89 security for small-scale farmers.

90 Our understanding of the utility of RCA for drought adaptation in maize is based on results from 91 simulations, and from analysis of North American inbred lines grown in controlled environments 92 and at agricultural research stations (Zhu et al., 2010; Postma and Lynch, 2011b; Postma and 93 Lynch, 2011c; Saengwilai et al., 2014a). The overall objective of this study was to evaluate the 94 utility of RCA in African maize germplasm in water-limited agroecosystems of southern Africa. 95 The specific objectives of this study were to i) assess the genetic variation of RCA formation in 96 Malawian maize landraces and regional breeding lines, ii) evaluate the agronomic performance 97 of maize genotypes contrasting for RCA formation under water limited conditions across 98 agroecological zones, and iii) to identify genotypes with high RCA for further use in a pilot 99 breeding program. Our results demonstrate that substantial variation for RCA formation exists in 100 local and regional maize germplasm and that RCA improves maize drought tolerance. In addition 101 to confirming the utility of high RCA under water stress, we also identified genotypes with high 102 RCA for use in the pilot breeding program.

103 Materials and Methods

104 Maize agroecology in Malawi and experimental sites

105 Malawi is a sub-tropical country in southeastern Africa with a sub-humid climate. The country in 106 divided into three main agroecologies based on climatic conditions and differences in altitude: 107 the mid-altitude or plateau areas (900-1200 meters above sea level), the lakeshore, and the shire valley. Most of Malawi receives an average precipitation of 500 - 1000 mm per annum with 108 109 intermittent dry spells. Lakeshore areas are important agriculture areas and particularly 110 vulnerable to drought. Experiments were conducted in two agroecological zones (AEZs): 111 Lilongwe (mid-altitude plain) and Salima (Lakeshore). Combined, these two AEZs account for 112 more than 30% of all area planted to maize in Malawi per annum (Ministry of Agriculture and Food Security 2014). In 2011 and 2012, field station trials were conducted at two locations: 113 114 Bunda Research farm of the Lilongwe University of Agriculture and Natural Resources in 115 Lilongwe, Malawi and the Chitala Agriculture Research Station in Salima, Malawi. On-farm 116 trials were conducted in 2013 at two locations: Mkwinda Extension Planning Area (EPA), 117 Lilongwe, Malawi and Chipoka EPA, Salima, Malawi. Salima AEZ was chosen because it is 118 located in the lake shore and more vulnerable to drought. Details of annual average rainfall 119 (Appendix 1) and soil type of these sites are shown in Table 1.

120 Measurements common to all experiments

121 Root crown evaluation and root cortical aerenchyma determination

122 Roots were evaluated 70 days after planting in all trials. To accomplish this, shoots of three 123 representative plants in each plot were cut just above the soil level. Root crowns were excavated 124 using the 'shovelomics' method (Trachsel et al., 2011). In brief, roots were excavated by removing a soil cylinder of 30-40 cm diameter with the shoot at its center and a depth of 20-30 125 126 cm. Excavation was carried out using shovels and hand-held hoes. The excavated root crowns were shaken briefly to remove a large fraction of the soil adhering to the root crown. The root 127 128 crowns were immersed in soapy water for 5-10 minutes in order to facilitate removal of the 129 remaining soil. The maize root system is characterized by four root types: the embryonic primary 130 root, seminal roots, shoot-borne crown roots, and shoot-borne brace roots (Hochholdinger, 131 2009). Three 8 cm root segments were collected 10-20 cm from the base of a representative 132 second whorl crown root of each plant for anatomical analysis as previously described (Burton et 133 al., 2012a). These segments were shipped to the Pennsylvania State University where they were 134 sectioned and analyzed for RCA. Root segments were sectioned using laser ablation tomography 135 (LAT) (Hall et al., unpublished) to obtain images for anatomical analysis. In brief, LAT uses a Q 136 switched pulsed UV laser (Avia 7000, 355 nm pulsed laser) to vaporize root tissue at the camera 137 focal plane ahead of an imaging stage. The sample is incremented, vaporized, and imaged 138 simultaneously. The cross-section images were taken using a Canon T3i camera (Canon Inc. 139 Tokyo, Japan) with 5X micro lens (MP-E 65 mm) focused on the laser-illuminated surface. Root 140 images were analyzed using RootScan, an image analysis tool developed for analyzing root 141 anatomy (Burton et al., 2012b). RCA was expressed as percentage of the root cortical area.

142 Experiment 1: screening local maize germplasm for RCA formation

143 Forty local maize landraces were screened under rainfed conditions for phenotypic variation of RCA formation at Bunda College Research Farm in 2012 (Appendix 2). Local maize landraces 144 145 were obtained from Malawi Plant Resources Genetic Centre (MPRGC) at Chitedze Agriculture 146 Research Station, Lilongwe, Malawi and represented collections from all traditional maize 147 growing areas/ecotypes of Malawi (Appendix 1 & 2). The experiments were arranged as a 148 randomized complete block design (RCBD) with three replications. Each plot consisted of a 149 single 6 m long row with 0.75 m inter-row spacing and 0.25 m in-row spacing. Fertilizer was applied to all plots at the rate of 60 kg N and 44 kg P ha⁻¹ at planting. An additional 40 kg N ha⁻¹ 150 151 was top dressed 14 days after planting. The trial was kept free of weeds by manual cultivation. 152 Root crowns were excavated and RCA samples collected as described above. Genotypes 153 contrasting for RCA were selected from this data for subsequent experiment (Experiment 2 & 3).

Experiment 2: field station evaluation of 20 local maize accessions contrasting for RCA across two agroecologies

156 A subset of 17 prescreened local maize accessions contrasting for RCA plus three open pollinated varieties (OPVs: ZM523, SC403, and SC513) check lines were evaluated under well 157 watered and water stressed conditions at Bunda College research farm and Chitala agriculture 158 159 research station. These OPVs are currently used in the Farm Input Subsidy Program (Denning et 160 al., 2009; Holden and Mangisoni, 2013). This program helps resource-poor smallholder farmers 161 in Malawi to access fertilizer and improved maize varieties, which therefore are grown 162 throughout Malawi. The soils at both the sites are typical red soils classified as Oxic Rhodustalf 163 and are the most productive soils in Malawi (Table 1). The experiment was laid out as split-plot design with two moisture regimes as the main plot factor and 20 genotypes as the subplot factor 164 replicated four times at both sites. The experiments were hand-planted on 3rd and 4th September 165 2012 at Bunda and Chitala respectively. Trials were planted in single row plots with 0.75 m 166 inter-row spacing and 0.25 m in-row spacing to give a plant population of 53000 plants ha⁻¹. 167 168 Drought stress was imposed by withdrawing irrigation water from 40 days after planting (DAP) 169 until maturity to simulate terminal drought. During the first four weeks of growth, the plots were 170 irrigated twice each week. For the rest of the experiment, the well-watered plants were irrigated regularly to maintain soil water content near field capacity. Fertilizer was applied to all plots at 171 the rate of 60 kg N and 44 kg P ha⁻¹ at planting. An additional 40 kg N ha⁻¹ was top dressed 14 172 days after planting. The trial was kept weed free by hand weeding. Soil water content for both 173 174 well watered and water stressed treatments was monitored regularly during the experiment (Fig 175 1). Soil water content was monitored gravimetrically at two depths (25 and 50 cm). Midday leaf relative water content (RWC) was used as a physiological indicator of plant water status. To 176 measure leaf RWC, fresh leaf discs (3 cm in diameter) were collected from the third fully 177 178 expanded leaf for three representative plants per plot at 60 days after planting and weighed 179 immediately to determine fresh weight (FW). Then the discs were immediately hydrated to full 180 turgidity (6 h) by soaking them distilled water, blotted dry and again weighed to determine turgid 181 weight (TW). Discs were then oven dried at 70°C for 72 h, and dry weight (DW) was 182 determined. Leaf RWC was calculated according to the equation: RWC = 100[(FW - DW)/183 (TW - DW)]. Root crowns were excavated and RCA samples collected as described above.

184 Experiment 3: on farm evaluation of 10 genotypes contrasting for RCA across two agroecologies

185 Researcher-designed on farm trials were conducted in the 2013 growing season in the Mkwinda Extension Planning Area and the Chipoka Extension Planning Area. A subset of 10 inbred lines 186 187 (AR716, M70-29-3, CML344, MANICA4, E21, M73-18, AR239, CML321, SW19, and 188 CML247) contrasting for RCA (Appendix 3) obtained from the Malawi Maize Breeding 189 Program at Chitedze Agriculture Research Station in Lilongwe, Malawi were planted. These 190 genotypes were selected based on previous screening in the field in Malawi (unpublished data). 191 The experiments were conducted in 14 farmers' fields within each EPA. A randomized complete 192 block design was used with each farmer as a replicate. Each replicate contained 10 genotypes 193 contrasting in RCA and plots consisted of three 4 m long rows with between-row spacing of 0.75 m. Distance between plants within the row was 0.25 m in all trials. The experiments were hand-194 planted on 23rd and 24th January 2013 in Mkwinda EPA and Chipoka EPA respectively. Plants 195 196 were managed according to standard cultural practices used by farmers in the area, which is 197 completely un-mechanized, in order to assess the utility of RCA and plant overall performance 198 within the farmers' representative environment in these low input agroecosystems. Rainfall data 199 (in millimeters) was collected from each site using rain gauges mounted at each of the EPA 200 premises.

201 Data analysis

202 Data were analyzed using the R statistical package version 3.1.0 (R Development Core Team, 203 2014). The effect of soil moisture regime, genotype and their interaction on %RCA, relative 204 water content, shoot biomass, and grain yield was tested by analysis of variance using the linear 205 mixed effects model in *lme4* package in R (Bates et al., 2014). For on-farm data the effect of 206 'farmer' was considered as a random effect since the farmers were randomly selected from a 207 wider population of farmers in each EPA, while genotypes were considered to be fixed effects. 208 Comparison of genotypic means was carried out using the Tukey's HSD (honest significant 209 difference) test at 5% level of significance. Separate stability analyses were performed in order 210 to identify stable high-yielding accessions. Kang's (1993) selection index (YSi) was calculated 211 from the grain yield data using the *agricolae* package in R (de Mendiburu, 2014). Y_{S_i} 212 incorporates both mean yield and stability in a single criterion. The stability function in 213 *agricolae* calculates YS_i by (i) determining the contribution of each genotype to GE interaction 214 by calculating variance (σ^2); (ii) then assigning ranks to genotypes from highest to lowest; (iii) calculating the protected LSD for mean yield comparisons; (iv) adjusting yield rank according to 215 LSD; (v) determining significance of σ^2 , using an approximate F-test; (vi) assigning the stability 216 rating (S); (vii) summing adjusted yield rank and stability rating for each genotype to determine 217 218 the YSi statistic; and (viii) calculating mean YSi and identifying selected genotypes as having YSi 219 > mean YSi (Kang, 1993). The YSi statistic provides insight into a genotype's yield and yield 220 stability rating allowing for simultaneous selection for both criteria. Chi-square tests were 221 conducted to determine whether RCA phenotype grouping would affect the grain yield stability 222 for a genotype.

223 Results

224 Substantial genotypic variation for RCA exists in Malawian maize (Experiment 1)

225 Substantial variation was found for RCA formation among local maize accessions evaluated 70 226 days after planting in the field (Table 2). Accessions were grouped into three categories based on 227 percent of the root cross sectional area occupied by RCA: low RCA (%RCA < 2.4), intermediate (2.4 < % RCA < 12.1), and high RCA (% RCA > 12.1) (Table 2). Based on this phenotype 228 229 classification, a subset of 17 accessions with contrasting %RCA but otherwise similar root 230 phenotypes were selected (high RCA lines: accessions 139, 145, 148, 1992, 203, 250, 260, 403, 736, 787, and low RCA lines: accessions 172, 1875, 2012, 243, 297, 303, 539) to evaluate the 231 232 agronomic performance of maize genotypes contrasting for RCA under water limited conditions 233 across agroecologies.

- High RCA was associated with greater leaf water status, greater shoot biomass and grain yield
 under drought in field station trials across two environments (Experiment 2)
- 236 Both genotype and soil moisture regime significantly (p < 0.05) affected RCA formation (Table 237 3). RCA was increased by suboptimal water availability in high RCA genotypes by an average of 238 54% (Bunda) and 77% (Chitala) while the increase in low RCA genotypes was not significant 239 (Fig. 2 A,B, Table 3). In addition, the interaction of genotype×soil moisture regime was highly 240 significant (p < 0.05) for RCA formation (Table 3). Genotypes responded differently to water 241 stress in terms of RCA formation. Water stress reduced leaf relative water content by 18% 242 (Bunda) and 25% (Chitala) (Fig. 2 C,D, Table 4), shoot biomass at anthesis by 43% (Bunda) and 59% (Chitala) (Fig. 3 A,B and Table 4), and grain yield by 48% (Bunda) and 56% (Chitala) (Fig. 243 244 3 C,D and Table 4) relative to well watered conditions. Under water stress high RCA genotypes 245 had 29% (Chitala) and 23% (Bunda) greater leaf relative water content (Fig. 2 C,D), 96% 246 (Bunda) and 67% (Chitala) greater shoot biomass 70 days after planting, and 78% (Bunda) and 247 143% (Chitala) greater yield (Fig. 3, A,B,C,D) than low RCA genotypes. RCA expression was 248 well correlated with grain yield under water stress (Fig. 4). RCA phenotype did not affect leaf 249 relative water content, shoot biomass, or grain yield under well-watered conditions (Figs. 2-3).
- 250 Genotype x environment interaction and stability analysis for grain yield

251 The combined ANOVA across environments indicated that grain yields were significantly 252 affected by environment, which explained 67% of the total (G + E + GxE) variation, while 253 genotype and GxE explained 9% and 12% of observed variation, respectively. Yield 254 performance data across environments is presented in Table 5. The variability of genotype 255 performance from one environment to the other shows the existence of possible crossover G x E 256 interaction. In order to understand the nature of highly significant genotype by environment 257 interaction, stability analysis was used to identify stable high-yielding genotypes (Table 6). 258 Based on yield stability index (*Ysi*) value of more than 3.6, 10 genotypes (139, 145, 148, 203, 259 260, 403, 736, SC403, SC513, and ZM523) were identified as stable and high yielding (Table 6). Interestingly all 10 of these lines were classified as high RCA. The chi-square test ($\chi^2 = 12.8$, p =260 0.0003) demonstrated that RCA phenotype had a highly significant effect on grain yield stability. 261

262 High RCA lines profited most in drier agroecologies on farm

263 On-farm trials were conducted under rainfed conditions. The distribution of rainfall during the 264 experimental period is presented in Figure 5. The effective rainfall started in November at all 265 sites and tapered off in March in Chipoka and April in Mkwinda, subjecting plants in Chipoka to 266 terminal drought. Under drought, high RCA genotypes had 70% (Mkwinda) and 88% (Chipoka) 267 greater shoot biomass at 70 days after planting, and 40% (Mkwinda) and 147% (Chipoka) 268 greater yield than low RCA genotypes (Fig. 6 and Table 7).

269 **Discussion**

270 Using inbred maize lines grown in greenhouse mesocosms and field rainout shelters in the USA, Zhu et al. (2010) showed that RCA reduces the metabolic costs of soil exploration, thereby 271 substantially improving rooting depth, water acquisition, plant growth, and yield under drought. 272 273 The main objective of the present study was to validate and extend these observations to maize 274 lines used by smallholder farmers in naturally occurring drought environments in Malawi. Our 275 results support the hypothesis that RCA improves maize drought tolerance. We observed 276 substantial variation for RCA formation in maize germplasm currently in use in Malawi, and 277 found that high RCA lines had greater leaf relative water content, plant biomass, and yield across 278 drought environments in trials on field stations as well as on smallholder farms (Figs. 2-6).

279 This study employed landraces that were created through a combination of natural selection and 280 selection by farmers across Malawi (Table 2, Appendix 1). Landraces usually have broader 281 intraspecific genetic diversity than modern cultivars; therefore, they are a valuable resource for 282 crop improvement (Ceccarelli, 1996). The diversity of landraces is a result of selection under 283 different soil and climatic conditions and is also strongly influenced by local practices and 284 specific demands for product quality and other characters. Genetic variation for RCA formation 285 has been reported in maize and related Zea species (Mano et al., 2006; Zhu et al., 2010; Burton et 286 al., 2013). In the current study we observed substantial variation for RCA formation among local 287 maize landraces collected across Malawi (Table 2, Appendix 1). The range for RCA observed 288 among maize germplasm accessions in this study is in agreement with previous reports in maize 289 (Zhu et al., 2010; Burton et al., 2013). However, average annual rainfall distribution as defined 290 in this study is not an indicator for RCA phenotype. Although the genotypes were originally 291 collected from areas with different average annual rainfall (Appendix 1), most of the accessions 292 were grouped in different clusters irrespective of rainfall distribution (Table 2). On the other 293 hand, this could be attributed to seed systems as practiced in Malawi whereby seeds can be 294 exchanged among farmers from different areas, which blurs differences that could have been 295 attributed to local adaptation.

296 A number of environmental stresses induce RCA formation, including suboptimal availability of 297 oxygen, water, nitrogen, phosphorus, and sulfur (Deacon et al., 1986; Drew et al., 2000; 298 Bouranis et al., 2003; Fan et al., 2003; Evans, 2004; Mano et al., 2006; Zhu et al., 2010; Mano 299 and Omori, 2013). Our study confirms the observation by Zhu et al (2010) that water stress 300 increases aerenchyma formation (Fig 3), although the magnitude of increase varied among 301 genotypes. Although drought induced RCA formation, accessions maintained their phenotypic 302 grouping consistently across soil moisture regimes and environments. These results are 303 consistent with other studies under drought (Zhu et al., 2010) and low N (Saengwilai, 2013).

However, some accessions were consistent across soil moisture regimes, while others had a strong interaction with water regimes (Tables 3 & 4). RCA plasticity may be valuable in avoiding negative tradeoffs to RCA formation under less stressful conditions, while genotypes with stable RCA phenotypes may have value in breeding programs for stressful environments such as those in Malawi and other developing regions. Collectively, these findings suggest that breeders could select for genotypes with consistently high, low or plastic (i.e. induced by stress) RCA formation.

311 Genotypes capable of supporting greater root biomass are able to develop the extensive deep root 312 systems required to fully utilize the soil moisture available in deeper soil domains (Ludlow and 313 Muchow, 1990; Ho et al., 2005; Hammer et al., 2009). Although it was not possible to quantify 314 root depth in this study, the maintenance of improved leaf water status under drought for high 315 RCA genotypes across drought environments (Fig 2 C,D) could be indicative of deeper rooting 316 that allows high RCA lines to utilize water in deeper soil strata. Increased water capture due to 317 RCA formation could have an autocatalytic effect on subsequent root growth by improving shoot 318 C gain, which in turn would permit greater root growth, increased water capture, etc. Zhu et al 319 (2010) reported that RCA formation increased mid-day leaf relative water content under water 320 stress, and this was attributed to improved access to moisture located deeper in the soil profile. 321 Saengwilai, (2013) working with recombinant inbred lines of maize in the field in South Africa, found that RCA formation increased rooting depth and acquisition of ¹⁵N-labeled nitrate from the 322 subsoil. Maize genotypes with more RCA had greater shoot biomass and 58% greater yield than 323 genotypes with less RCA under low N conditions (Saengwilai, 2013). The utility of RCA under 324 325 suboptimal N is highly relevant in the present context since nitrate leaching results in the 326 accumulation of N in deep soil strata over time. This is analogous to water capture under drought 327 in the sense that in both cases the limiting soil resource is primarily available in deeper soil strata 328 (Lynch 2013).

329 RCA formation has been associated with reduction of root respiration (Fan et al., 2003; Zhu et 330 al., 2010; Saengwilai et al., 2014a). In general respiration can be divided into three major 331 categories: growth respiration which is considered as a one-time cost, maintenance respiration 332 for existing tissue, and ion uptake and transport into the xylem (van der Werf et al., 1988; 333 Lambers et al., 2002; Lynch and Ho, 2005). Simulation studies with maize showed that root 334 maintenance respiration reduced plant growth under nutrient limiting conditions by up to 72% in 335 comparison with plants with no root maintenance respiration (Postma and Lynch, 2011a; Postma 336 and Lynch, 2011b). In addition to reducing the carbon cost of soil exploration, RCA formation 337 reduces N and P content of root tissue, permitting internal reallocation of nutrients to growing 338 root tissue, which is particularly beneficial under conditions of low N and P availability (Postma 339 and Lynch, 2011a). The utility of RCA was greater for N capture in high leaching environments 340 with course textured soil and high precipitation, since leaching results in the accumulation of N 341 in deep soil domains over time. This is important since in many drought environments the topsoil 342 dries before the subsoil, and as drought progresses, roots must exploit increasingly deeper soil 343 strata to acquire water. These simulation results are supported by empirical studies in which 344 RCA formation was closely correlated with the ability of maize genotypes to maintain root 345 growth under suboptimal N (Saengwilai, 2013) and P stress (Fan et al., 2003).

RCA is not the only anatomical phene to influence root metabolic costs. A recent study has shown that living cortical area (LCA: total transversal root cortical area minus RCA area) is a 348 better predictor of root respiration than RCA alone (Jaramillo et al., 2013). In that study a 3.5-349 fold reduction in LCA was associated with a 2.5-fold improvement in plant growth under drought. LCA is determined by cortical cell file number (CCFN; number cell files from the 350 351 epidermis to endodermis) and cortical cell size. Lynch (2013) proposed that large cortical cells 352 and reduced CCFN may also substantially reduce root metabolic cost of soil exploration and 353 thereby influence water acquisition from drying soil. This hypothesis has been tested empirically 354 in greenhouse mesocosms, field rainout shelters, and in the field in Malawi. Reduced CCFN and 355 large cortical cell size are associated with substantial reduction of root respiration, greater 356 rooting depth, greater water acquisition from deeper soil layer, and greater grain yield of maize 357 under drought (Chimungu et al., 2014a & b). Collectively, these findings strengthen the 358 hypothesis that reducing root metabolic costs increase water capture from drying soil.

359 Several root architectural and anatomical phene states have been identified as effective strategies 360 for improving crop adaptation under abiotic stress (Lynch, 2013; Lynch et al., 2014). Root architectural phenes determine the deployment of roots in specific soil domains in time and space 361 for resource foraging (Lynch, 1995). Anatomical phenes such as RCA are important in affecting 362 363 the metabolic efficiency of soil exploration, which is a key aspect of plant fitness under abiotic 364 stress (Lynch and Ho, 2005; Lynch, 2013; Lynch et al., 2014). The utility of a phene may depend 365 on the expression of other phenes in the plant phenotype (York et al., 2013). Such interactions may be synergistic, neutral, or antagonistic. For example, greater lateral root development in 366 367 deep soil layers could improve nitrogen and water acquisition. However, increased lateral 368 branching adds metabolic costs which could influence the growth of other root classes (Walk et 369 al., 2006). This tradeoff could be alleviated by reducing the metabolic burden of root tissue via 370 RCA formation. Postma and Lynch, (2011a) using the structural-functional plant model SimRoot showed that there is synergism between RCA and lateral root branching density in maize under 371 372 low P conditions. Recently, York et al. (2013) reported synergistic effects of root crown root 373 number and RCA on plant growth. Under low N conditions, total root length was greatest for 374 plants with intermediate numbers of crown roots, and increased formation of root cortical 375 aerenchyma increased total root length in these plants. In addition, Saengwilai et al., (2014b) 376 reported that reduced crown root number enhances nitrogen acquisition under low N conditions. 377 These results suggest synergism between root architectural and anatomical phenes. The utility of 378 an integrated phenotype should be greatest when phenes that reduce the cost of soil exploration 379 (such as formation of RCA) co-occur with phenes that increase soil exploration, such as steep 380 root growth angle and few but long root branches, which may synergistically improve resource 381 acquisition under abiotic stress (Lynch, 2013; Lynch et al., 2014).

382 RCA formation improves crop productivity by improving root metabolic efficiency under abiotic 383 stress. However, it may have subtle effects on other root functions. For example it has been 384 reported that aerenchyma formation impedes the radial movement of water (Yang et al., 2012) 385 and nutrients (Hu et al., 2014). Another potential tradeoff as suggested by Lynch et al., (2014) is 386 that RCA may affect mycorrhiza colonization or susceptibility to root pathogens. Roots 387 commonly suffer mechanical stress during their lifespan (Bennie, 1996). Depending on soil type 388 and condition, such stresses can be a result of swelling-shrinkage due to repeated wetting-drying 389 cycles or mechanical impedance. In this study trials were conducted in sandy clay loam to sandy 390 loam soils with little capacity for swelling-shrinking due to fluctuations in soil moisture. Soil 391 shrinkage can cause roots to collapse, therefore hindering water and nutrient acquisition 392 (Bengough et al., 2006). However, in many maize agroecosystems, root systems could be

exposed to the combination of antagonistic stress factors such as drought and soil compaction. In this context, RCA formation could reduce the mechanical strength of the roots, which helps them resist root compression due subsequent soil shrinkage associated with drying as drought progresses especially in clay soil. Although potential tradeoffs to RCA formation are poorly understood, our finding that RCA is beneficial in multiple stressful field environments indicates that such tradeoffs are not common or obvious.

399 In low-input systems drought and low soil fertility are primary constraints to crop production. 400 The development, deployment and cultivation of drought tolerant and nutrient efficient maize 401 varieties represents an important opportunity to improve food security in developing countries, 402 where abiotic stress is among the principal factors limiting crop productivity (Lynch, 2007). 403 Selection for root phenes that increase crop productivity under abiotic stress, such as greater 404 RCA formation, should be a priority of breeding programs in developing countries (Lynch, 405 2014). Deployment of higher RCA in crop improvement programs will result in the development 406 of crop cultivars with enhanced soil resource acquisition efficiency, benefiting resource-poor 407 farmers in developing countries. Trait-based breeding, targeting the improvement of specific 408 phenes known to improve stress tolerance, has proved useful in deploying root phenes such as 409 basal root angle, basal root whorl number, root hair length and density which confers P-410 efficiency in bean breeding programs in Central America and Mozambique (Lynch, 2007). Given the utility of RCA under several edaphic stresses, RCA could be deployed using the same 411 412 strategy.

In conclusion, high RCA genotypes had greater shoot biomass and yield both in field station and on-farm trials. Under natural drought, the benefits of RCA were greater in the drier on-farm location. Environments used in this study include variation in soil properties such as soil biota which may interact with phenes such as RCA. The fact that our results are in agreement with results of (Zhu et al., 2010) in controlled environments and in rainout shelters in the USA validates the utility of RCA under water limited conditions. These results collectively support the

419 value of RCA as a breeding target for improved maize adaptation to nutrient and drought stress.

420 Acknowledgements

421 We thank Larry York for critical reading of the manuscript and Robert Snyder, Eric Nord,

422 Hastings Manase and Andrew Mkopoliwa for technical assistance in the course of this study.

423 This research was supported by the National Science Foundation/Basic Research to Enhance

424 Agricultural Development (grant number: 4184–UM–NSF–5380).

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563

Tables

 Table 1. General agro-climatic characteristics of the experimental sites used to evaluate maize genotypes in Malawi

Agroecological	Site	Location		Altitude	Annual rainfall (mm)	Soil type	
zone		Latitude	Longitude	(m.a.s.l)			
Lilongwe	Bunda	14°10'S 33°4	33°48'E	1080	1031	Oxic Rhodustalfs, Lilongwe series, medium-textured sandy loam	
Salima	Chitala	13°28'S	33°59'E	600	967	Oxic Rhodustalfs, Chitala series, Sandy clay loam	
Lilongwe	Mkwinda	14°24'S	33°76'E	1032	1031	Oxic Rhodustalfs, Lilongwe series, medium-textured sandy loam	
Salima	Chipoka	13°99'S	34°51'E	483	786	Calciustepts, Salima series, medium-textured sandy clay loam	

*m.a.s.l is meters above sea level

Table 2. Passport data of 40 Malawi maize landrace accessions used in this study, showing accession code, accession number, and geographic origin, percent root cortical aerenchyma (%RCA), and classification group for RCA: %RCA < 2.4 as low RCA, 2.4 <%RCA < 12.1 as intermediate (Int) RCA, and %RCA > 12.1 as high RCA.

Code	Accession	*Agroecology	Origin	Latitude	Longitude	% RCA	Group	by
							phenotype	
1	386	Shire valley	Nsanje	-17.1	35.1	21.2	High RCA	
2	403		Nsanje	-16.3	35.2	2.0	Low RCA	
3	699	Machinga	Zomba	-15.4	35.5	6.7	Int RCA	
4	696		Zomba	-15.3	35.2	21.9	High RCA	
5	3411		Zomba	-15.2	35.3	0.2	Low RCA	
6	750		Machinga	-15.1	34.5	17.5	High RCA	
7	741		Machinga	-15.1	34.8	0	Low RCA	
8	752		Machinga	-15	35	0.7	Low RCA	
9	736		Machinga	-14.6	35	23.7	High RCA	
10	787		Machinga	-14.5	35.3	2.4	Low RCA	
11	811		Mangochi	-14.4	35.3	3.9	Int RCA	
12	1772	Lilongwe	Ntcheu	-15	34.7	0.7	Low RCA	
13	1992		Dedza	-14.2	34.3	6.6	Int RCA	
14	2012		Lilongwe	-14.1	33.6	14.6	High RCA	
15	2027		Lilongwe	-14	34	19.0	High RCA	
16	1786		Dedza	-14.2	34.1	7.7	Int RCA	
17	1857	Kasungu	Dowa	-13.3	33.7	1.9	Low RCA	
18	1915	-	Kasungu	-12.5	33.8	0	Low RCA	
19	250	Mzuzu	Mzimba	-12.1	33.9	14.7	High RCA	
20	249		Mzimba	-12.1	33.9	0.1	Low RAC	
21	243		Mzimba	-12.1	33.7	22.2	High RCA	
22	193		Mzimba	-11.5	33.4	15.6	High RCA	
23	3244		Mzimba	-11.5	33.4	1.3	Low RCA	
24	3243		Mzimba	-11.5	32.9	0.2	Low RCA	
25	218		Mzimba	-11.5	33.9	14.9	High RCA	
26	203		Mzimba	-11.5	33.3	10.3	Int RCA	
27	163		Nkhata bay	-11.4	33.6	22.1	High RCA	
28	172		Nkhata bay	-11.4	34	30.4	High RCA	
29	164		Nkhata bay	-11.4	34.1	0.4	Low RCA	
30	145		Mzimba	-11.3	33.5	3.2	Int RCA	
31	148		Mzimba	-11.2	34.4	6.6	Int RCA	
32	303		Rumphi	-10.5	33.7	2.1	Low RCA	
33	260	Karonga	Chitipa	-10.2	33.8	12.2	Int RCA	
34	2862	C	Karonga	-10.1	34	0.3	Low RCA	
35	297		Karonga	-10	33.6	17.1	High RCA	
36	139	Salima	Salima	-14	34.5	8.0	Int RCA	
37	569	Blantyre	Chiradzulu	-15.6	35.2	1.0	Low RCA	
38	637	2	Thyolo	-16.2	35.2	22.9	High RCA	
39	539		Mulanje	-15.4	35.4	1.3	Low RCA	
40	629		Thyolo	-15.1	35.32	18.4	High RCA	

*The country is subdivided into agroecologies based on various ecological factors by Malawi Plant Genetic Resources Centre (MPGRC) of Department of Agriculture Research and Services (DARS) of the Ministry of Agriculture and Food Security, Lilongwe, Malawi.

Table 3. Mean percent root cortical aerenchyma for 20 selected maize accessions 70 days after planting in the field both in well-watered (WW) and water stressed (WS) conditions at Bunda and Chitala. Root segments were collected 10-20 cm from the base of the second whorl crown roots. Data shown are means of 4 replicates each genotype for each environment (soil moisture by location): BUWS (Bunda well watered), BUWW (Bunda water stress), CHWW (Chitala well watered), and CHWS (Chitala water stress).

Accession	Group by phenotype	BUWW	BUWS	CHWW	CHWS
139	High RCA	7.7 ± 1.4	12.9 ± 1.3	11.8 ± 2.6	16.9 ± 1.7
145	High RCA	7.3 ± 2.5	13.9 ± 1.6	7.4 ± 1.2	15.5 ± 1.3
148	High RCA	8.1 ± 1.2	15.1 ± 1.4	6.1 ± 1.2	26.8 ± 1.4
203	High RCA	11.4 ± 2.0	17.3 ± 1.9	9.1 ±2.2	21.4 ± 1.8
250	High RCA	12.6 ± 2.4	14.3 ± 0.9	15.7 ± 0.9	20.0 ± 1.3
260	High RCA	12.0 ± 1.6	14.5 ± 0.6	11.5 ± 3.7	23.3 ± 2.4
403	High RCA	9.1 ±1.6	14.8 ± 1.3	13.7 ± 1.6	31.6 ± 2.2
736	High RCA	23.6 ± 1.3	27.3 ± 0.8	12.7 ± 6.1	20.1 ± 2.7
SC403	High RCA	15.8 ± 2.5	18.3 ± 2.3	13.9 ± 2.3	16.9 ± 2.4
SC513	High RCA	13.9 ± 2.1	16.7 ± 1.9	14.9 ± 1.8	16.2 ± 1.5
ZM523	High RCA	9.2 ± 0.7	$22.0\pm\!\!0.9$	14.8 ± 1.0	22.2 ± 3.6
172	Low RCA	3.1 ± 0.9	3.8 ± 1.4	3.6 ± 1.5	6.2 ± 1.4
243	Low RCA	0.3 ± 0.2	3.6 ± 1.5	1.2 ± 0.6	4.5 ± 1.1
297	Low RCA	4.9 ± 2.9	0.4 ± 0.3	2.7 ± 1.8	4.5 ± 1.1
303	Low RCA	3.3 ±2.1	2.5 ± 0.8	6.5 ± 1.9	5.8 ± 0.9
539	Low RCA	3.4 ± 1.9	7.5 ± 1.1	5.8 ± 2.0	7.5 ± 2.1
787	Low RCA	2.3 ± 2.1	2.9 ± 1.2	8.2 ± 1.5	6.7 ± 1.5
1857	Low RCA	1.2 ± 1.2	1.9 ± 0.9	1.6 ± 0.8	7.4 ± 1.5
1992	Low RCA	0.7 ± 0.5	5.6 ± 2.2	8.9 ± 0.4	16.4 ± 1.9
2012	Low RCA	3.2 ± 1.1	4.8 ± 1.8	16.2 ± 2.9	22.6 ± 5.2
		*mse	P-value	ms	P-value
	Treatment	654.8	0.015	1308.3	0.020
	Genotype	303.5	0.020	254.9	0.001
	Treatment x Genotype	58.2	0.003	64.8	0.023

*mean square error

Table 4. Summary of linear models for irrigation, genotype, and genotype \times irrigation interaction for leaf relative water content (RWC), shoot biomass and grain yield in twenty maize genotypes examined across two environments: Bunda and Chitala.

	Bunda					Chitala		
		RWC	Biomass	Yield		RWC	Biomass	Yield
Effect	d.f	F value	F value	F value	d.f	F value	F value	F value
Irrigation	1	75.1***	123.8***	676.3***	1	455.1***	341.1***	1120.2***
Genotype	19	1.8*	3.7***	6.8***	19	5.3***	3.9**	15.5***
Genotype x Irrigation	19	2.6**	1.8**	4.7***	19	4.0***	3.3**	8.1***
Residuals	106				81			

P<0 '***',P<0.001 '**',P< 0.01 '*'

Genotype	Group by phenotype	BUWW	CHWW	BUWS	CHWS
139	High RCA	132.0 ± 5.6	131.7 ±9.3	88.7 ± 3.4	86.2 ±2.9
145	High RCA	106.1 ± 1.8	117.2 ± 5	88.2 ± 2.4	86.6 ± 4.1
148	High RCA	141.5 ± 13.7	121.4 ± 6.5	78.4 ± 2.8	87.9 ± 3.2
203	High RCA	125.7 ±9.3	150.0 ± 9.7	80.2 ± 2.4	74.4 ± 4.6
250	High RCA	106.9 ± 2.0	117.4 ± 10.4	75.6 ± 4.5	69.0 ± 5.8
260	High RCA	135.0 ± 7.3	113.2 ± 8.1	85.9 ± 3.8	66.5 ± 1.4
403	High RCA		114.5 ± 5.4		58.3 ± 3.1
736	High RCA	130.6 ± 30.3		72.1 ±2.2	
SC403	High RCA	127.3 ±9.1	110.9 ±6	79.1 ±4.0	61.1 ±2.1
SC513	High RCA	124.3 ±4.9	115.7 ± 5.8	82.2 ± 3.9	81.9 ± 2.7
ZM523	High RCA	128.6 ± 3.1	137.9 ± 4.9	75.4 ± 6.2	86.7 ± 1.7
172	Low RCA	102.3 ± 2.6	110.3 ± 6.1	40.8 ± 1.8	27.5 ± 3.2
243	Low RCA	107.5 ± 6.8		32.5 ± 1.4	
297	Low RCA	130.0 ± 7.1	115.5 ± 6	41.4 ± 3.0	31.5 ± 3.1
303	Low RCA	119.4 ± 10.2	114.9 ± 3.8	42.8 ± 0.8	32.3 ± 2.8
539	Low RCA	115.7 ±6.7	112.8 ± 3.2	48.5 ± 2.4	34.1 ±4.4
787	Low RCA	134.6 ± 10.8	140.8 ± 4.7	40.2 ± 3.6	30.3 ± 3.7
1857	Low RCA	113.0 ± 8.7	134.6 ± 11.6	39.7 ± 3.5	23.1 ± 8.3
1992	Low RCA	111.4 ± 11.4	120.7 ± 4.1	77.4 ± 9.7	57.6 ± 0.1
2012	Low RCA	142.0 ± 4.2	109.4 ± 3.4	43.6 ± 2.5	54.8 ± 2.1
Mean high RCA		125.8±3.5	122.9±4.3	80.5±5.6	75.8±3.6
Mean low RCA		119.5±4.4	119.5±4.5	45.2±4.3	36.4±4.6

Table 5. Mean grain yield (g plant⁻¹) for 20 genotypes across four environments (soil moisture by location): BUWS (Bunda water stress), BUWW (Bunda well watered), CHWS (Chitala water stress), and CHWW (Chitala well watered). Values shown are means of four replicates \pm SE.

Accession	Group by phenotype	Yield (g plant ⁻¹)	Rank	YSi
250	High RCA	92.2	10	3
403	High RCA	94.6	11	6 +
145	High RCA	99.5	13	8 +
SC513	High RCA	99.6	14	17 +
260	High RCA	100.1	15	10 +
SC403	High RCA	101	16	11 +
148	High RCA	107.3	17	12 +
203	High RCA	107.5	18	13 +
139	High RCA	109.6	19	14 +
736	High RCA	99	12	15 +
ZM523	High RCA	114.7	20	15 +
243	Low RCA	67.4	1	-10
172	Low RCA	70.2	2	-9
1857	Low RCA	76.4	3	-8
303	Low RCA	77.3	4	-7
539	Low RCA	77.7	5	-6
297	Low RCA	79.6	6	-5
787	Low RCA	86.5	7	-4
2012	Low RCA	87.4	8	-3
1992	Low RCA	91.7	9	0

Table 6. Simultaneous selection of genotypes based on yield and stability (Kang, 1993). Genotypes with yield-stability index (*YSi*) greater than 3.6 (i.e. the mean of *YSi*) were selected as high yielding and stable across environments.

*+ selected genotypes

Table 7. Mean shoot biomass (g plant⁻¹) and grain yield (g plant⁻¹) for ten maize genotypes examined in two field environments: Mkwinda and Chipoka on farm contrasting for RCA and classification group for RCA: $\$ RCA < 10 as low RCA, and $\$ RCA > 20 as high RCA. Values shown are means of ten replicates \pm SE.

	Mkwinda EPA							
Genotype	Group by phenotype	% RCA	Shoot biomass	Grain yield				
AR239	High RCA	27.3 ±2.6abc	151.8 ±8.8a	104.8 ±2.4a				
AR716	High RCA	28.1 ±5.3ab	146.7 ±7.7ab	104.2 ±1.9a				
CML344	High RCA	34.8 ±3.8a	147.5 ±11.4a	104.6 ±3.2a				
E21	High RCA	28.0 ±3ab	137.5 ±13.4ab	96.5 ±4.4ab				
CML247	Low RCA	8.1 ±1.6d	85.7 ±4.1d	$60.2 \pm 4.6d$				
CML321	Low RCA	$6.3 \pm 0.9 d$	95.4 ±6cd	73.5 ± 5.4 cd				
M70-29-3	Low RCA	$10.9 \pm 2.2d$	$106.9 \pm 8.2 bcd$	69.3 ± 3.1 cd				
M73-18	Low RCA	6.8 ±2d	126.5 ±10.6abc	$78.9 \pm 5.5 bc$				
MANICA4	Low RCA	$7.9 \pm 5bcd$	130.6 ± 14.2 abc	95.3 ±3.8ab				
SW19	Low RCA	4.1 ± 2.6 cd	77.1 ±3.8d	$60.6 \pm 4.9 d$				
Mean high RCA		27.1±1.8	132.7±5.4	101.1±1.5				
Mean low RCA		7.5±0.9	9.2±4.1	77.7±2.3				
	Chipoka E	PA						
Genotype	Group by phenotype	% RCA	Shoot biomass	Grain yield				
AR239	High RCA	36.4 ±2.1a	141.4 ±8.2ab	91.5 ±3.2a				
AR716	High RCA	30.6 ±2.1ab	157.4 ±10.9a	96.2 ±5.8a				
CML344	High RCA	26.1 ±3b	141.2 ±9.7ab	88.4 ±4.2ab				
E21	High RCA	27.6 ±1.9b	150.9 ±7.9a	91.3 ±4.7a				
CML247	Low RCA	$6.3 \pm 2.3c$	61.3 ±7.3d	$32.1 \pm 2.8c$				
CML321	Low RCA	$3.2 \pm 0.9c$	70.8 ±8.2d	$33.9 \pm 3.5c$				
M70-29-3	Low RCA	$3.6 \pm 1c$	69.0 ±6.2d	33.1 ±2.5c				
M73-18	Low RCA	$6.2 \pm 1.4c$	79.4 ±9.2cd	39.1 ±3.9c				
MANICA4	Low RCA	$10.1 \pm 2.7c$	107.9 ±13.5bc	71.4 ±4.9b				
SW19	Low RCA	$5.8 \pm 1.1c$	61.1 ±6.9d	$38.6 \pm 5c$				
Mean high RCA		26.1±1.6	132.3±5.7	87.8±2.3				
Mean low RCA		4.9±0.6	70.3±5.4	35.4±1.6				

Means followed by the different letter for each trait (grain yield and shoot biomass) are significantly different as determined by Tukey HSD (P<0.05).



Figure 1. Soil water content under well watered (WW) and water stressed (WS) conditions in Bunda (A) and Chitala (B) at 25 and 50 cm.

Figures



Figure 2. The proportion of root cortical aerenchyma and leaf relative water content for 10 high RCA and 10 low RCA maize genotypes under water stress (WS) and well watered (WW) conditions at 70 days after planting in two field environments: **(A,C)** Bunda and **(B,D)** Chitala. The data shown are means of 4 replicates \pm SE of the mean. Different letters represent significant differences (p<0.05).



Figure 3. Shoot biomass and grain yield for 10 high RCA and 10 low RCA maize genotypes under water stress (WS) and well watered (WW) conditions at 70 days after planting in two field environments: **(A,C)** Bunda and **(B,D)** Chitala. The data shown are means of 4 replicates \pm SE of the mean. Different letters represent significant differences (p<0.05).



Figure 4. Correlation between yield and percentage of root cortical aerenchyma (% of cortical cross sectional area) under water stress condition in two field environments: **(A)** Bunda and **(B)** Chitala.



Figure 5. Rainfall distribution at on-farm experimental sites in Mkwinda EPA and Chipoka EPA during the 2012/13 growing season



Figure 6. Grain yield for four high RCA and six low RCA maize genotypes on-farm across in two field environments: **(A)** Mkwinda and **(B)** Chipoka. The data shown are means of 10 replicates \pm SE of the mean. Different letters represent significant differences (p<0.05).

Appendices

Appendix 1. Map of Malawi showing average annual rainfall distribution and geographical distribution of maize landraces evaluated in the study. Numbers correspond to accession codes in Table 2. (Source: <u>www.metmalawi.com</u>, accessed 10th September 2014).



Appendix 2: List of genotypes selected from Malawi maize breeding program populations and root anatomical phenes; RD, root diameter, TCA, total cortical area, CT, cortical thickness, SD,

Soil moisture	RIL	RD	TCA	СТ	SD	CCFN	CCS	RGA
WS	139	1.9±0.1	2±0.1	0.5±0.1	1 ± 0.1	12.7±0.4	264±4	46.9±5.8
WS	145	1.8 ± 0.1	1.9±0.1	0.5 ± 0.1	$0.9{\pm}0.1$	9±0.5	343±24	54.8±6.7
WS	148	1.7±0.1	1.6±0.2	0.5 ± 0.1	0.8 ± 0.1	12.9±1.4	352±24	51.9±9.4
WS	172	1.8 ± 0.1	1.8 ± 0.1	0.5 ± 0.1	$0.9{\pm}0.1$	14.7±1.4	403±45	49.1±4.9
WS	203	1.5±0.1	1.5±0.2	0.5 ± 0.1	0.6 ± 0.1	10 ± 0.7	348±47	43.9±5.1
WS	250	1.8 ± 0.2	1.8 ± 0.2	$0.4{\pm}0.1$	0.9 ± 0.1	11.3±0.7	341±29	45.2±3.9
WS	260	1.7 ± 0.1	1.7±0.2	0.5 ± 0.1	0.8 ± 0.1	11.9±0.9	304±46	50.9 ± 4.8
WS	297	1.7 ± 0.1	1.5 ± 0.1	$0.4{\pm}0.1$	$0.9{\pm}0.1$	12.6±1.1	355±33	48.3±4.1
WS	303	1.5 ± 0.1	1.4 ± 0.2	$0.4{\pm}0.1$	$0.7{\pm}0.1$	13.9 ± 2.1	298±37	46.5 ± 5.3
WS	403	1.4 ± 0.1	1.3±0.1	$0.4{\pm}0.1$	0.7 ± 0.1	10 ± 0	387±13	38.8 ± 5.1
WS	539	1.6 ± 0.1	1.6±0.1	$0.4{\pm}0.1$	0.8 ± 0.1	14.4 ± 0.5	291±8	39.9±4.5
WS	736	1.6 ± 0.1	1.6±0.1	0.5 ± 0	0.7 ± 0.1	12.4±0.7	423±18	40.1±3.3
WS	787	1.7 ± 0.1	1.8 ± 0.1	0.5 ± 0.1	0.9 ± 0.1	14.9±0.6	351±19	41.3±6.9
WS	1857	1.5 ± 0.1	1.3±0.1	$0.4{\pm}0.1$	0.7 ± 0.1	12±0.5	267±10	42.4±7.2
WS	1992	1.8 ± 0.1	2.1±0.3	0.5 ± 0.1	$0.9{\pm}0.1$	15±1.1	284±15	45.1±7.0
WS	2012	1.4 ± 0.1	1.2 ± 0.2	$0.4{\pm}0.1$	0.8 ± 0.1	10.8 ± 0.9	302±19	42.4±6.2
WW	139	1.5 ± 0.1	1.3±0.1	$0.4{\pm}0.1$	0.8 ± 0.1	11.1±0.7	390±46	49.6±5.3
WW	145	1.8 ± 0.1	1.9 ± 0.1	0.5 ± 0.1	0.9 ± 0.1	12.4±0.9	391±25	50.5±4.2
WW	148	1.6 ± 0.1	1.5 ± 0.2	$0.4{\pm}0.1$	0.8 ± 0.1	12.4±0.8	254±24	41.2 ± 5.6
WW	172	1.6 ± 0.2	1.6 ± 0.2	$0.4{\pm}0.1$	0.8 ± 0.1	12.4±1.2	362±45	46.8 ± 4.1
WW	203	1.7 ± 0.1	1.7 ± 0.2	0.5 ± 0.1	0.9 ± 0.1	12.3±1.4	368±23	47.7±3.8
WW	250	1.6 ± 0.1	1.6 ± 0.1	0.5 ± 0.1	0.8 ± 0.1	9.4±0.4	531±10	43.8 ± 2.9
WW	260	1.5 ± 0.1	1.3 ± 0.2	$0.4{\pm}0.1$	0.8 ± 0.1	11±1	238±16	57.1±5.9
WW	297	1.7 ± 0.1	1.7 ± 0.1	0.5 ± 0.1	0.8 ± 0.1	12.8 ± 0.8	320±38	51.8±4.3
WW	303	2 ± 0.2	2.3±0.4	0.5 ± 0.1	1±0.2	14.9 ± 0.8	302±7	49.1±3.5
WW	403	1.7 ± 0.1	1.7 ± 0.1	$0.4{\pm}0.1$	0.9 ± 0.1	13±0.5	248±22	48.3 ± 5.2
WW	539	1.6 ± 0.1	1.5 ± 0.1	$0.4{\pm}0.1$	0.8 ± 0.1	11±0.5	282±41	56.1±5.5
WW	736	1.4 ± 0.1	1.1 ± 0.1	$0.4{\pm}0.1$	0.7 ± 0.1	10.3±1	277±14	54.2 ± 5.0
WW	787	1.7 ± 0.1	1.7 ± 0.2	0.4 ± 0.1	0.9 ± 0.1	10.4 ± 0.4	398±25	64.3±4.5
WW	1857	1.7 ± 0.1	1.7 ± 0.1	0.5 ± 0.1	0.8 ± 0.1	12.9±0.8	309±15	40.5 ± 4.7
WW	1992	1.7 ± 0.1	1.8 ± 0.1	0.5 ± 0.1	0.9 ± 0.1	13.1±0.6	385±39	48.7±4.9
WW	2012	1.8 ± 0.1	1.9±0.1	0.5±0.1	0.9±0.1	12.1±0.4	310±29	40.8±4.3

stele diameter, CCFN, cortical cell file number, CCS, cortical cell size, and RGA, root growth angle. The data shown are means of 8 replicates \pm SE of the mean

Appendix 3: List of genotypes selected from Malawi maize breeding program populations and root anatomical phenes; RD, root diameter, TCA, total cortical area, CT, cortical thickness, SD,

Genotype	RD	TCA	СТ	SD	CCFN	CCS	RGA
AR239	1.9±0.1	2.2±0.2	0.7 ± 0.2	1.3±0.2	11.7±9.2	380.3±32.6	50.3±3.2
AR716	2.7±0.5	3.3±0.7	0.7±0.2	1.3±0.3	11.5±0.3	353.9±82.9	55.9±5.8
CML247	2.7±0.6	3.4 ± 0.8	0.7 ± 0.2	1.4±0.3	12±0.3	324.6±46.7	54.1±6.9
CML321	2.7±0.5	3.2±0.7	0.7 ± 0.2	1.4±0.3	13.9 ± 1.7	308.8±94.3	45.9±5.7
CML344	2.4±0.4	2.7±0.4	0.7±0.2	1.4±0.3	11.7±0.2	351.5±40.7	48.9±6.9
E21	2.6±0.5	2.5±0.3	0.7±0.2	1.3±0.3	12±2.1	339.9±98.2	41.0±4.8
M70-29-3	2.5±0.5	2.8 ± 0.6	0.7 ± 0.2	1.2 ± 0.2	11.9 ± 0.4	335.1±21.6	43.5±6.9
M73-18	2.6±0.5	3±0.6	0.6 ± 0.2	1.4±0.3	12.1±0.3	385.4±88.3	45.9±4.4
MANICA4	2.6±0.5	3±0.7	0.7 ± 0.2	1.3±0.3	11.7±0.3	330.1±45.4	56.7±5.6
SW19	2.7±0.5	3.3±0.7	0.7 ± 0.2	1.4±0.3	12.1±0.3	357.1±56.7	45.8±4.1

stele diameter, CCFN, cortical cell file number, CCS, cortical cell size and RGA, root growth angle. The data shown are means of 4 replicates \pm SE of the mean