

# Evidence of a plant genetic basis for maize roots impacting soil organic matter mineralization

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1	Evidence of a plant genetic basis for maize roots impacting soil organic matter mineralization
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18	Abstract
19	
20	Maize root traits associated with soil organic matter (SOM) mineralization were demonstrated to have a
21	heritable genetic basis. We show root length, root diameter and cumulative root-derived C mineralization
22	to be strong predictors of SOM-C mineralization and identify two candidate genes associated with
23	enhanced SOM-C mineralization rates. There is potential to target these genes to enhance release of
24	nutrients from SOM to support crop nutrition within sustainable maize cropping systems.
25	
26	Keywords: maize breeding; soil organic matter mineralization; root traits; genome-wide association
27	study (GWAS)
28	The main visible and is such Ocheman $A(r) = (OOA)$ is a manufacture $(OOA)$ (see the second state $OOAO$ )
29	The maize yield gap in sub-Sanaran Africa (SSA) is approximately 60-80% (van ittersum et al. 2016).
30	To achieve self-sufficiency by 2050, without expanding current maize area, the yield gap must be
31	reduced to 20% (van ittersum et al. 2016). Drought stress regularly affects maize production in SSA
32	(Carris and Prasanna, 2018). Low remilizer use (<17 kg na ') is another major factor contributing to this
33	yield gap (Thierfelder et al. 2018), particularly in female-managed plots (Farnworth et al. 2017) and is

exacerbated by low and variable economic returns on investment in the use of fertilizers (Jayne et al.
2018). Release of nutrients from positive priming of SOM (Kuzyakov et al. 2000) can supplement crop

36 nutrition and increase the return on investment in fertilizer use. Breeding for maize varieties that are

able to source and utilize nutrients from SOM for their nutrition will ensure more sustainable production
where practices are applied that replenish SOM, such as from stover addition.

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40 The importance of root trait diversity in shaping plant-associated microbiome composition and nutrient cycling, including SOM mineralization, is increasingly recognized (e.g. Mwafulirwa et al. 2016; Han et 41 42 al. 2020; Zai et al. 2021). Genotypic information can be used to identify genomic regions associated with these traits and narrow the selection of candidates prior to phenotype-screening (Cooper et al. 43 2014). Identification of potential candidate genes for traits influencing rhizosphere processes paves the 44 way for breeding to achieve more resilient and sustainable maize production. Here we investigate the 45 genetic basis of root traits associated with differential SOM mineralization and identify potential 46 47 candidate genes.

#### 48

49 A set of 97 elite maize lines from a drought-tolerant maize for Africa (DTMA) panel and 8 commercial hybrids were selected for screening. Genotypes were grown (29 days) under controlled environment 50 51 conditions in a granitic sandy soil from Domboshawa, Zimbabwe (-17.6091 Lat, 31.13374 Long). All the aenotypes were replicated two times. In addition, some of the genotypes were randomly selected and 52 53 replicated a few more times (Table S5). The experimental design was a sequential randomized block design, and included unplanted controls. Exposure to <sup>13</sup>C-enriched CO<sub>2</sub> (20 atom% <sup>13</sup>C) throughout the 54 55 growth period enabled quantification of root- and SOM-derived CO<sub>2</sub>-efflux rates at 16, 23 and 29 days after planting and cumulative C mineralization over the three weeks period of CO<sub>2</sub> measurement, 56 57 following the approach of Mwafulirwa et al. (2016). The nine traits measured in this study were 58 cumulative SOM-C mineralized (SOMC, µg C g<sup>-1</sup> soil), cumulative root-derived C mineralized (CRM, µg C g<sup>-1</sup> soil), average root diameter (ARD, mm), root length (RL, mm), root biomass (RBM, g), shoot 59 60 biomass (SBM, g), total plant biomass (Stover, g), specific root length (SRL) and root-to-shoot biomass ratio (BM-RS). SBM and RBM were determined based on harvest dry weight (V3 growth stage) at 29 61 days after planting (shoots were cut at the soil surface and roots were carefully removed from the soil 62 and washed in deionized water). Fresh roots were scanned, and root length and average root diameter 63 measured using WINrhizo (Mwafulirwa et al. 2021). To explore the plant traits that could significantly 64 explain the variation in SOM-C mineralization, correlation and stepwise multiple linear regression 65 (SMLR) analyses were conducted for all genotypes (lines and hybrids) and for lines or hybrids 66 separately. Further details of plant growth conditions, <sup>13</sup>C-CO<sub>2</sub> labelling, measurements and phenotypic 67 data are provided in Mwafulirwa et al. (2021) and supplementary materials. Details of genotyping of 68 materials and methodology of genome-wide association study (GWAS) and genomic selection (GS) are 69 70 provided in the supplementary materials.

72 We observed significant clustering of genotypes into six groups based on their phenotypic performance 73 (Fig. 1; Table S1), with the maize lines clustering distinctly from the hybrid varieties (Fig. 1). For inbred 74 lines, root diameter and root-derived soil CO<sub>2</sub> efflux (from root respiration and microbial mineralization 75 of rhizodeposits) were positively correlated (r = 0.39 and 0.24 respectively; P < 0.05) with SOM 76 mineralization rates (Fig. S1). SMLR indicated that root length, diameter, and root-derived CO<sub>2</sub> efflux 77 together explained 47% of variation in SOM mineralization (P < 0.001; Table S2) across inbred lines. However, for hybrids, none of these traits were significantly correlated with SOM mineralization (Fig. 78 79 S1). This variation within tropical germplasm for maize root traits that correlate with SOM mineralization rates suggests that exploration of the genetic basis of inbred lines can serve as a viable option for 80 targeted maize breeding for sustainable intensification. 81

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Variation in SOM mineralization rates under plants is usually attributed to rhizosphere priming effects. 83 84 where the exudation of organic compounds and root turnover affects microbial activity and use of SOM as substrate (Kuzyakov et al. 2000). While factors such as root physical impacts on soil structure, 85 86 nutrient and water availabilities may also affect microbial activity, our results are consistent with differential priming impacts among inbred lines (Mwafulirwa et al. 2021). Increasing root diameter is 87 88 commonly associated with increased rates of exudation, resulting from greater photo assimilate supply 89 to thicker roots (Han et al. 2020; Zai et al. 2021). In turn, the magnitude of rhizosphere priming effects 90 has been found to be proportional to the substrate supply to rhizosphere microbial communities 91 (Paterson and Sim, 2013), suggesting the magnitude of rhizodeposition may be a key discriminating factor between inbred lines. This interpretation is also supported by the strong improvement to the 92 93 variance explained when root-derived CO<sub>2</sub> efflux (partly from microbial use of rhizodeposits) is included in the SMLR with SOM mineralization (Table S2). 94

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96 Genotypic variances were significant for all traits that correlated with SOM mineralization, and broadsense heritability ranged from 0.18 to 0.65 (Table S3). Importantly, all traits showed normal distribution 97 of best linear unbiased predictions (BLUPs) which supports their quantitative inheritance (Fig. 2A). DNA 98 markers (199,755 markers) used for GWAS well represented the maize genome (Fig. S2A). The 99 principal components (Fig. S2B) and kinship heatmap (Fig. S3) indicated low levels of relatedness 100 among most pairs of inbred lines. GWAS for nine traits revealed 84 significant SNPs ( $P < 5 \times 10^{-5}$ ; Fig. 101 2B; Table S4). Association analyses revealed 6, 25, 3, 7, 24, 13, 8, 3 and 7 SNPs significantly associated 102 with SOMC, CRM, SBM, RBM, RL, ARD, SRL, BM-RS and stover, respectively (Fig. 2B; Table S4). The 103 distribution of significant SNPs across chromosomes varied between 4 in chromosome 8, to 15 in 104 105 chromosome 5 (Table S3). The allelic effect (difference in mean performance for trait value between 106 lines with the major or minor allele) for significant SNPs ranged from -1.27 to 1.43 for SOM 107 mineralization.

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For all nine traits, a total of 23 potential candidate genes were identified (Table S4). Root-derived C mineralization was negatively correlated with SRL and associated with candidate gene *GRMZM2G141456* with functions for proteolysis, hydrolase activity and metallo-peptidase activity. Genomic prediction correlations were -0.19 and -0.08 for SOMC and CRM, respectively (Fig. 2C). Similar prediction correlations have been reported for less related populations or complex traits in maize (Riedelsheimer et al. 2013), although not for SOM mineralization. Moderate prediction correlations for other traits suggests genomic prediction can be used to improve these traits within a breeding program.

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117 The genetic basis of variation in root exudation (amount and guality) is not well understood. In this context, we have identified two candidate genes associated with enhanced SOM mineralization rates: 118 GRMZM2G114362 with functions for proteolysis and peptidase activity, and GRMZM2G170962 for 119 proton-transporting ATP synthase and ATP synthesis, which are associated with the regulation and 120 121 active release of root exudates into the rhizosphere. This suggests the potential for targeting these 122 genes to promote root exudate release and to stimulate the microbial community to release nutrients from SOM for crop nutrition. This therefore holds great promise for enhancing sustainable production in 123 124 systems managed to enhance SOM, for example through return of stover to soil which is common in 125 conservation agriculture (Thierfelder et al. 2015), thereby promoting a more closed nutrient cycle, that 126 increases the return on investment in inputs. Root traits associated with SOM mineralization cannot 127 logistically be incorporated into maize breeding in SSA as this would require accurate phenotyping of thousands of lines each year. However, our results suggest the potential of molecular breeding 128 129 approaches to enrich populations for markers linked with key traits associated with SOM mineralization 130 prior to field phenotyping.

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#### 199 Figure captions

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201 Figure 1. Cluster plot showing six major groups (Ward linkage, squared Euclidean distance) of maize 202 genotypes based on the measured traits: Cumulative SOM-C mineralized (SOMC), cumulative rootderived C mineralized (CRM), average root diameter (ARD), root length (RL), root biomass (RBM), shoot 203 biomass (SBM), specific root length (SRL) and root-to-shoot biomass ratio (BM-RS) for 105 maize 204 205 genotypes grown in granitic sandy soil (pH<sub>H20</sub> 4.79; CEC 1.01 meg 100g<sup>-1</sup>; total C 2.98 mg g<sup>-1</sup>; total N 0.24 mg g<sup>-1</sup>; sand 83.7%, silt + clay 16.3%) in controlled environment microcosms (22.5 x 5.5cm diam; 206 207 65% water holding capacity; soil bulk density 1.44g cm<sup>-3</sup>) (Mwafulirwa et al. 2021). C mineralization was 208 determined by continuous labelling with <sup>13</sup>C-enriched CO<sub>2</sub> (20 atom% <sup>13</sup>C) through a growth chamber (<10 µl L<sup>-1</sup> CO<sub>2</sub> outlet airflow; 12-hour daily photoperiod, 512µmol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> PAR). Soil CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes at 16, 209 23 and 29 days after planting were partitioned to SOM- and root-derived C based on their  $\delta^{13}$ C 210 211 signatures, following Mwafulirwa et al. (2016). Clustering formed six main groups, with lines mostly 212 distributed in first five groups, whereas six hybrids (SC633, PGS61, Pristine 601, 30G19, PAN53 and ZAP55 in blue) are grouped together as group VI. Traits contributing high mean performance for clusters 213 were specified on the figure. Pedigrees associated with the genotype codes can be found in Wen et al. 214 (2011). 215

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Figure 2. Phenotypic distribution of best linear unbiased predictions (BLUPs) for each trait (A), GWAS based Manhattan plots (B) and genomic prediction correlations (C) for nine traits from DTMA association panel. In the Manhattan plots each color represents different chromosome and the horizontal lines show the threshold p value at P < 5x10<sup>-5</sup>. SOM-C Cumulative soil organic matter C mineralized (µg C g soil<sup>-1</sup>), CRM Cumulative root-derived C mineralized (µg C g soil<sup>-1</sup>), SBM shoot biomass (g), RBM root biomass (g), RL root length (m), ARD average root diameter (mm), SRL specific root length, BM\_RS root-to-shoot biomass ratio and Stover (total plant biomass, g).

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232 Figure 1.





235236 Figure 2.