

Title: Root responses to abiotic stress - a comparative look at root system architecture in maize and sorghum

Running title: Changes in RSA in response to abiotic stress in maize and sorghum

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Date of Submission: 2023-09-15

Number of Tables & Figures:

Tables: 0

Figures: 2

Supplemental Tables: 1

Word Count: 4,631

1 **Highlight**

2 Plant root systems are important for crop productivity. Here we highlight the shared and
3 distinct responses of root systems to environmental stress conditions in maize and
4 sorghum.

5
6 **Abstract**

7 Under all environments, roots are important for plant anchorage and acquiring water
8 and nutrients. However, there is a knowledge gap as to how root architecture
9 contributes to stress-tolerance in a changing climate. Two closely related plant species,
10 maize and sorghum, have distinct root system architectures and different levels of
11 stress-tolerance, making comparative analysis between these two species an ideal
12 approach to resolve this knowledge gap. However, the current research has focused on
13 shared aspects of the root system that are advantageous under abiotic stress conditions
14 as opposed to differences. Here we summarize the current state of knowledge
15 comparing the root system architecture relative to plant performance under water deficit,
16 salt stress, and low phosphorus in maize and sorghum. Under water deficit, steeper root
17 angles and deeper root systems are proposed to be advantageous for both species. In
18 saline soils, a reduction in root length and root number has been described as
19 advantageous, but this work is limited. Under low phosphorus (P), root systems that are
20 shallow and wider are beneficial for topsoil foraging. Future work investigating the
21 differences between these species will be critical for understanding the role of root
22 system architecture in optimizing plant production for a changing global climate.

23
24 **Keywords**

25 abiotic stress, cereal crops, drought, maize, phosphorus, *Poaceae*, root system
26 architecture, salinity, sorghum

27
28 **Introduction**

29 The function of roots remains the same regardless of growing conditions. Roots are
30 responsible for keeping plants upright (anchorage) and acquiring water and nutrients -
31 arguably some of the most important functions for plant survival and productivity. These

32 functional requirements are unchanged under abiotic stressors such as water deficit
33 (drought), salinity stress, and low phosphorus, however the functions may be optimized
34 by targeted changes in the root system architecture.

35

36 Maize (*Zea mays*) and sorghum (*Sorghum bicolor*) are two agriculturally and
37 economically important crops that are closely related. Both rank in the five most
38 important cereal crops worldwide and provide food, fuel, fiber, and fodder (Rooney *et al.*,
39 2007; Erenstein *et al.*, 2022). While sorghum is maize's closest relative (Swigoňová
40 *et al.*, 2004), there are differences in their root systems (Singh *et al.*, 2010).

41 Understanding the shared and distinct responses of maize and sorghum root systems to
42 abiotic stress will aid in the development of stress-tolerant crops, however research has
43 primarily focused on the shared aspects, and we understand little about the distinct
44 responses. This review highlights the current state of knowledge regarding the maize
45 and sorghum root responses to three prevalent abiotic stressors (drought, salt, and low
46 phosphorus).

47

48 **Root system architecture in maize and sorghum**

49 The function of roots (anchorage, water acquisition, and nutrient acquisition) is universal
50 across plants, however the root system architecture (defined as the spatial and
51 temporal distribution of roots (Lynch, 1995)) differs (Hochholdinger *et al.*, 2004a;
52 Atkinson *et al.*, 2014; Blizard and Sparks, 2018). Monocots, like maize and sorghum,
53 have a fibrous root system that is composed of unique root types defined by their
54 developmental origin - seed-borne embryonic roots (primary and seminal roots), and
55 post-embryonic roots (nodal and lateral roots) (Hochholdinger *et al.*, 2004a;
56 Hochholdinger, 2009; Blizard and Sparks, 2018).

57

58 Despite many similarities, some root architectural traits have diverged between maize
59 and sorghum resulting in different development and morphology (**Figure 1**). For both
60 species, the embryonic primary root emerges first. In maize this emergence is followed
61 by embryonic seminal roots, whereas sorghum lacks seminal roots altogether (Singh *et al.*,
62 2010; Hochholdinger *et al.*, 2018). In maize, the transition between the embryonic

63 root system being the dominant root type and post-embryonic root system being the
64 dominant root type occurs by the vegetative leaf 6 (V6) stage (Hochholdinger *et al.*,
65 2004a,b). Due to the lack of seminal roots in sorghum, one might expect that the nodal
66 roots would develop earlier in sorghum to compensate for the function of the seminal
67 roots. Instead, the post-embryonic nodal roots develop much later in sorghum
68 compared to maize (Singh *et al.*, 2010). These differences in root architecture persist
69 throughout maturity with maize developing a denser root system than sorghum (**Figure**
70 **2**), however it is unknown if these differences are due to slower node development or
71 slower root development. Counterintuitively, despite a lower root density (and a longer
72 period of reliance on the primary root), sorghum has greater tolerance to abiotic stress
73 than maize (Pardo and VanBuren 2021). We propose that the differences in root
74 architecture between maize and sorghum are likely to contribute to the differences in
75 abiotic stress tolerance. However, there is currently little data assessing the impact of
76 these differences on stress tolerance – most studies have focused on shared
77 responses.

78
79 The sequential emergence of roots based on their developmental timing likely
80 influences their functional importance. Yet, there have been limited studies that
81 investigate root type specific function across plant growth and development. The few
82 studies that have assessed different root types (Ahmed *et al.* 2016; Ahmed *et al.* 2018),
83 have looked at only water uptake in young maize plants grown in controlled
84 environments. While findings from these studies show that root type matters, there was
85 no temporal aspect to these studies to understand how root function changes over plant
86 growth stages. Thus, more research is needed to elucidate root type specific function
87 across different developmental phases of the plant in both optimal and stressed
88 conditions. It is further unknown how the differences in developmental timing between
89 maize and sorghum root development impacts root function.

90
91 Although the differences between maize and sorghum are likely of critical importance,
92 the shared aspects have been the focus of the literature. For example, recent research
93 has highlighted some shared genetic control of root system architecture between maize

94 and sorghum (Zheng *et al.*, 2020). Using a root excavation and analysis pipeline, the
95 authors identified SNPs associated with root traits of maize and sorghum by Genome
96 Wide Association (GWA) analyses. A comparison of the GWA hits identified seven
97 syntenic genes between maize and sorghum with root trait association (Zheng *et al.*,
98 2020). While this demonstrates a level of strong genetic conservation, each individual
99 species had additional unique gene associations that may be responsible for the
100 differences in root system architecture (Singh *et al.*, 2010; Hochholdinger *et al.*, 2018)
101 and stress tolerance thresholds. However, these divergent gene associations remain to
102 be investigated. The mechanism by which shared and divergent genetic landscapes
103 lead to the differences between sorghum and maize and how these traits correlate to
104 abiotic-stress tolerance remains unclear.

105

106 **Impact of abiotic stress on root system architecture in maize and sorghum**

107 Understanding the root response to different abiotic stresses is challenging. While field
108 experiments are highly applicable, many factors are uncontrollable, making it difficult to
109 quantify the response to individual environmental cues. Adding to the complexity,
110 assessing root system architecture in the field is limited by poor resolution (e.g., mini-
111 rhizotrons) or destructive (e.g., root crown excavation) approaches (Clark *et al.*, 2020).
112 To overcome these challenges, many researchers opt for greenhouse or growth
113 chamber systems. Yet studies show that results from greenhouse studies are not
114 directly interpretable in the field setting (Poorter *et al.* 2016; Rich *et al.* 2020).

115

116 For the purposes of this review, we focus on a subset of prevalent abiotic stresses
117 (water deficit, high salt, and low phosphorus) that are perceived by root systems and
118 summarize the architectural changes that occur in maize and sorghum under these
119 conditions. Most of the published research in this area has been completed in maize,
120 with fewer studies in sorghum and even less work attempting to compare the two
121 species or determine the mechanism for differential stress tolerance mechanisms.

122

123 **Drought**

124 Water deficit, often referred to as drought, affects plant growth, development, and
125 productivity. Drought is one of the leading causes of yield loss worldwide, making this
126 abiotic stressor a major concern for the growing population (Lamaoui *et al.*, 2018; Iqbal
127 *et al.*, 2020). Since water availability is not always readily solved through management
128 practices (i.e., irrigation), there has been a significant focus on developing new drought-
129 tolerant plant varieties. The development of drought-tolerant varieties, with a focus on
130 optimizing roots for water use efficiency, would be an ideal approach since roots are the
131 first organ to sense, signal, and respond to water deficits. However, most of the
132 research has focused on improving drought tolerance via aboveground phenotypes. In
133 this section, we review what is known about the constitutive and inducible traits of maize
134 and sorghum root systems in response to drought.

135

136 In the absence of rain or irrigation, water can be found in deep soil layers, thus deeper
137 root systems are proposed to be advantageous for plants under drought because they
138 are able to access this water (Lynch, 2007, 2013; Lynch *et al.*, 2014; Lynch and
139 Wojciechowski, 2015). The concept of deeper rooting has played a big role in the
140 development of the “steep, cheap, and deep” model that was first described in maize
141 (Lynch, 2013). Root systems that have increased growth of nodal roots (e.g., crown
142 roots) (Saengwilai *et al.*, 2014) or steeper angles of the primary root (Trachsel *et al.*,
143 2011; Burton *et al.*, 2014; Schneider *et al.*, 2020) enable plants to reduce the metabolic
144 cost of soil exploration (e.g., through low-cost root cortical aerenchyma formation) while
145 increasing water extraction from deep soil layers (Lynch 2013; Zhan *et al.* 2015).
146 Notably, a single-gene associated with steeper root angles, DEEPER ROOTING 1
147 (DRO1), was first identified in rice to promote steeper root angles and increase plant
148 performance under drought (Uga *et al.*, 2013). This gene has conserved function across
149 species such as *Arabidopsis thaliana*, *Prunus* species, and even maize (Guseman *et*
150 *al.*, 2017; Feng *et al.*, 2022). For maize, the expression of DRO1 under an ABA-
151 inducible promoter led to changes in root angle and increased drought tolerance (Feng
152 *et al.*, 2022). A meta-analysis of quantitative trait loci (QTL) associated with root-related
153 drought stress adaptation across species, identified syntenic regions for DRO1 in

154 wheat, barley, maize, and sorghum (Siddiqui *et al.*, 2021). This conservation is
155 consistent with the shared genetic basis of maize and sorghum root architecture
156 identified in Zheng *et al.* (2020). Collectively, these studies demonstrate the power of
157 cross-species analysis and show promise that there are some pathways that provide
158 universal control of root architecture that can be used to develop drought tolerant
159 varieties. However, there are likely additional genes that can fine-tune this response in
160 different species, which remain to be identified.

161
162 The premise of steeper root angles and increased drought tolerance is built upon the
163 idea of a constitutive type of root architecture; however root systems are plastic and
164 responsive to their environment (Schneider and Lynch 2020; Lynch 2007). Maize shows
165 a decrease in crown root number in response to water deficit in both greenhouse and
166 field studies (Gao and Lynch 2016; Sebastian *et al.* 2016). In fact, Sebastian *et al.*
167 (2016) show that this suppression of crown roots post-emergence in response to water
168 deficit occurs not only in maize, but also other members of *Poaceae* like *Setaria viridis*,
169 sorghum, *Brachypodium distachyon*, and *Panicum virgatum*. This means that if drought
170 occurs at early stages, root growth will be suppressed, and a steeper growth angle
171 would not help even with the right genetics (unless alleles favoring crown root growth
172 under water deficit are identified). Another example of root system plasticity in response
173 to drought that has been broadly attributed to several plant species is a reduction in the
174 number and growth of lateral roots (Xiong *et al.*, 2006). While this has been confirmed in
175 maize (Zhan *et al.*, 2015), there is no published study assessing the lateral root
176 response to drought in sorghum. Again, these studies have focused on the shared
177 responses, and differences remain to be defined.

178
179 In addition to the DRO1 studies highlighted above, there are other association studies
180 that have attempted to link root traits with plant performance under drought stress. Most
181 of these studies have focused on aboveground phenotypes as a measure of plant
182 performance under drought stress. One of these phenotypes is the stay-green trait,
183 which is when plant leaves continue to photosynthesize and remain green during the
184 grain filling period providing an advantage under drought conditions (Borrell *et al.* 1999;

185 Borrell et al. 2014; Borrell et al. 2022). In sorghum, a bi-parental QTL for nodal root
186 angle overlaps with QTL for stay-green (Mace *et al.*, 2012). This finding is supported by
187 other studies that found that sorghum with steeper root angles were also more drought
188 tolerant (Singh *et al.*, 2011; Lopez *et al.*, 2017). A similar QTL analysis was performed
189 in maize and showed that QTL for root traits overlapped with QTL for shoot traits (Li *et*
190 *al.*, 2018). Collectively, these data highlight the potential for cross-species analyses to
191 provide insight into shared physiological constraints that impact plant performance
192 under abiotic stress.

193
194 In optimizing root systems for drought tolerance, both constitutive and plastic responses
195 should be considered. While a steeper growth angle and deeper root systems are likely
196 to be advantageous for water acquisition under drought, the emergence of roots is
197 equally important for other root functions. Current research points to a shared
198 optimization mechanism between maize and sorghum, however there is limited work in
199 this area and more research is needed. It is unknown how the differences in constitutive
200 root architecture and different stress tolerance thresholds contribute to drought-
201 tolerance in maize and sorghum.

202 203 **Salinity**

204 Soil salinization is another prevalent abiotic stress that negatively impacts crops. Soil
205 salinity is a complex problem arising from both natural and human factors, and in
206 agriculture soil salinization typically worsens because of irrigation (Smedema and Shiati,
207 2002). With salinity stress, roots must be able to take up enough water to support the
208 demands of the plant (osmotic stress tolerance) while also excluding salt ions (ionic
209 stress tolerance). For some plant species, and even varieties within a species, osmotic
210 stress is more detrimental to plant productivity than ionic stress and for other plants the
211 opposite is true (Munns and Tester 2008). The different perception of stresses (osmotic
212 vs ionic) imposed by high salinity can impact the optimal root system architecture to be
213 targeted for salinity tolerance. Thus, understanding root system responses is important
214 for identifying candidate genes and traits to incorporate into breeding programs.

215

216 Between the two crops discussed here, sorghum is considered a salt tolerant crop
217 (Igartua *et al.*, 1995; Huang, 2018), whereas maize is considered a salt sensitive crop
218 (Maas and Hoffman, 1977; Maas *et al.*, 1983; Rodriguez *et al.*, 1997; Chinnusamy *et al.*,
219 2005; Munns and Tester, 2008; Shelden and Munns, 2023). In most species, including
220 maize and sorghum, the shoot growth is negatively impacted to a greater extent than
221 the root growth under salinity stress, resulting in a reduced shoot-to-root ratio
222 (Weimberg *et al.*, 1984; Munns and Termaat, 1986; Wang *et al.*, 2020; Shelden and
223 Munns, 2023). In both sorghum and maize, the primary root length decreases, with a
224 greater reduction occurring at higher salt concentrations and extended durations of salt
225 exposure (Kandil *et al.*, 2012; Rajabi Dehnavi *et al.*, 2020; Wang *et al.*, 2020; Li *et al.*,
226 2021*b*). For both species, the roots of the salt tolerant genotypes were able to maintain
227 primary root growth under salinity more than the salt sensitive genotypes (Rajabi
228 Dehnavi *et al.*, 2020; Wang *et al.*, 2020).

229
230 Beyond the primary root, the response of other root types has been limited to studies in
231 maize. In maize, the primary root length is more tolerant to salt stress than other root
232 types (Rodriguez *et al.*, 1997; Zhang *et al.*, 2015; Wang *et al.*, 2020; Li *et al.*, 2021*a*).
233 Specifically, there is up to a 60% reduction in seminal root lengths (Rodriguez *et al.*,
234 1997; Zhang *et al.*, 2015) and up to a 70% reduction in crown root lengths compared to
235 less than a 10% reduction in primary root lengths (Zhang *et al.*, 2015). There is also up
236 to a 54% reduction in nodal root numbers under salinity stress (Wang *et al.*, 2020).
237 While these data suggest a root-type specific response to salinity stress, the
238 experimental design or timing of stress may impact this interpretation (Shavrukov,
239 2013). Some studies introduced high concentrations of salts in a single dose (Zhang *et al.*
240 *et al.*, 2015; Li *et al.*, 2021*b,a*) while others gradually increased salts to the desired
241 concentration, and no single study has reported a comprehensive root-type comparison
242 under different salinity stress conditions.

243
244 In mapping the genetic basis of salt-tolerance for both maize and sorghum, results show
245 an overlap in salt-tolerance QTL with root trait QTL (Luo *et al.*, 2019; Hostetler *et al.*,
246 2021*a*). Additionally, there are overlaps in the response of root system architecture to

247 drought stress and salt stress (**Figure 1**). Since salt stress has both an osmotic and
248 ionic stress phase, the impacts of osmotic stress are expected to phenocopy drought
249 stress, which is an osmotic stress. Yet, it remains unclear how roots distinguish
250 between the osmotic and ionic stresses imposed by salinity (Munns and Tester, 2008;
251 Sheldon and Munns, 2023), and how this impacts root architectural responses. It is
252 further unclear how this leads to salt sensitivity in maize and salt-tolerance in sorghum.

253

254 **Phosphorus**

255 In addition to water and salt, roots are also faced with nutrient stresses. Nutrient
256 stresses have been mostly alleviated by the copious use of fertilizer; however, this
257 approach is unsustainable and there is a move toward more nutrient-use efficient crops.
258 The major nutrients required for plant growth are nitrogen (N) and phosphorus (P).
259 There have been extensive reviews written on the root responses to N (Lynch, 2013; Yu
260 *et al.*, 2014, 2019; Sun *et al.*, 2020), but less on P. Thus, we elected to focus on the
261 current state of knowledge for maize and sorghum root responses to P deficiency.

262

263 Although soil P availability mediates the below ground P-acquisition strategies of root
264 systems, the responses are complex and not uniform (spatially and temporally) (Wen *et al.*,
265 2019). P deficiency compromises plant growth in the early developmental stages,
266 while only moderately impacting growth during mature stages (Colomb *et al.*, 2000).
267 The severity of P deficiency has differential effects on root system architecture in plants,
268 with moderate P deficiency stimulating root growth and more severe P deficiency
269 impairing root growth entirely (Wissuwa and Ae, 2001; Liu *et al.*, 2004; Rose *et al.*,
270 2013). Under low P, uptake is restricted by the size of the root system, thus small
271 increases in the uptake of P will stimulate root growth and consequently elevate P
272 uptake (Wissuwa, 2003). The distribution of roots close to the nutrient-rich zone favors
273 P uptake and the establishment of plants. Under low P, a shallow root system, which
274 involves changes in seminal and lateral root growth (Zhu & Lynch, 2004; Zhu *et al.*,
275 2005; Zhu *et al.*, 2006; Bayuelo-Jiménez *et al.*, 2011; de Sousa *et al.*, 2012; Postma *et al.*,
276 2014; Azevedo *et al.*, 2015; Xucun *et al.*, 2018; Perkins & Lynch, 2021; Alden *et al.*,
277 2021; Zhang & Ning, 2023; Ribeiro *et al.*, 2023) and crown root angle (Baoru *et al.*,

278 2018; Parra-Londono *et al.*, 2018; Campolino *et al.*, 2023), in addition to enhanced
279 proliferation of root hairs, provide potential adaptation to P scarcity through topsoil
280 foraging (Ho *et al.*, 2005; Lynch, 2011; López-Arredondo *et al.*, 2014). Maize and
281 sorghum, genotypes with higher grain yield have wider crown root angle (Campolino *et al.*, 2023).
282 Despite these similarities, maize and sorghum have differences in their
283 mining strategies, presumably with different costs (e.g., resources and energy) and
284 benefits. Maize plants present microorganism diversity and foraging traits (more
285 compact, bushy and shallow root system) and wider root angle than sorghum
286 (Campolino *et al.*, 2023)(**Figure 2**).

287
288 Several mapping strategies have been applied to dissect the genetic complexity of root
289 morphology and architecture related to P deficiency in maize (Cai *et al.*, 2012; Kumar *et al.*,
290 2014; Burton *et al.*, 2014; Pace *et al.*, 2015; Zurek *et al.*, 2015; Azevedo *et al.*, 2015;
291 Song *et al.*, 2016; Ren *et al.*, 2022; Ribeiro *et al.*, 2023) and sorghum (Hufnagel *et al.*,
292 2014; Parra-Londono *et al.*, 2018; Bernardino *et al.*, 2019, 2021). One example in maize
293 suggests that different root plasticity mechanisms exist for adaptation to low P
294 conditions, with greater lateral root length and root surface (de Sousa *et al.*, 2012;
295 Azevedo *et al.*, 2015; Zhang & Ning, 2023) being significantly impacted as a result of P
296 level in all three genetic groups (Ribeiro *et al.*, 2023). In sorghum, a GWA study
297 revealed significant QTL associated with several root traits, indicating hotspots
298 controlling root system development (Parra-Londono *et al.*, 2018). At low P, the extent
299 of the root system was larger, likely due to more lateral roots and greater root length,
300 whereas at high P levels, roots were thicker. Interestingly, when looking at root system
301 architecture by cluster analysis, (Parra-Londono *et al.*, 2018) identified three distinct
302 rooting types (small, exploratory, and compact and bushy), which would each be
303 favorable in different environmental conditions. These results further show that root
304 systems are plastic and that there is a lot of phenotypic and genetic variability in root
305 system architecture, which is important for breeding P-tolerant lines.

306
307 Nevertheless, there are not many genes directly linked to root system architecture and
308 P acquisition, particularly in crop species cultivated in soils with low P availability.

309 However, one example in rice was identified as being a key player in P-deficiency
310 tolerance (Wissuwa *et al.*, 2002). Rice lines overexpressing Phosphorus-starvation
311 tolerance 1 (PSTOL1), a receptor-like cytoplasmic kinase, were shown to have greater
312 total root length and surface area, P uptake, and grain yield under low P conditions
313 compared to the control (Wissuwa *et al.*, 2002; Gamuyao *et al.*, 2012). In sorghum,
314 multiple homologs of OsPSTOL1 have been shown to modify root system architecture
315 leading to increase in grain yield and biomass accumulation (Hufnagel *et al.*, 2014;
316 Bernardino *et al.*, 2019, 2021). Specifically, greater P uptake in low P environments was
317 associated with greater root length (primary and crown roots), smaller root diameter. In
318 maize, homologs of OsPSTOL1 that were preferentially expressed in roots and co-
319 localized with QTLs associated with root morphology and P acquisition traits (Azevedo
320 *et al.*, 2015), mapped in the same region of QTLs for grain yield in a low P soil (Mendes
321 *et al.*, 2014). Collectively this data shows that PSTOL1 is important in modulating total
322 root length (primary, seminal, and crown) and surface area in P-deficient environments
323 across species.

324
325 Another gene associated with root morphology is the maize transcription factor
326 ROOTLESS CONCERNING CROWN AND SEMINAL ROOTS (RTCS), which contains
327 a Lateral Organ Boundaries (LOB) domain. RTCS is responsible for the initiation of
328 embryonic seminal and postembryonic shoot-borne roots (Hetz *et al.*, 1996; Taramino *et al.*
329 *et al.*, 2007; Xu *et al.*, 2015). RTCS is highly expressed in a P efficient maize genotype
330 under low P conditions when compared to a P inefficient genotype (de Sousa *et al.*,
331 2012), indicating that it is modulated under low P and again emphasizing the
332 importance of root system size for P acquisition.

333
334 In contrast to drought and salt, the root system architecture that is advantageous for low
335 P is topsoil foraging, which requires shallow root systems and wider root angles (**Figure**
336 **2**). However, there is little knowledge about the root-type specific responses of maize
337 and sorghum to low P. This knowledge will be critical for future crop improvement aimed
338 at optimizing crops for multiple abiotic stressors.

339

340 **Functional trade-offs**

341 Optimizing root system function is necessary to support plant growth, development, and
342 productivity in a changing environment. Throughout this review, we have focused on the
343 impact of abiotic stress on root system architecture primarily in the context of water and
344 nutrient acquisition, however, the impact of these changes on plant anchorage was not
345 discussed and is often overlooked. A failure of plant anchorage, called root lodging, has
346 significant detrimental impacts on crop yield (Carter and Hudelson, 1988; Rajkumara,
347 2008; Tirado *et al.*, 2021). Plant anchorage is a complex trait defined by the strength of
348 the roots, the spatial and temporal distribution of the roots within the soil (root system
349 architecture), the strength of the root-soil adhesions, and the presence of microbial
350 communities (Ennos and Pellerin 2000). Of these, the root system architecture is
351 thought to be the most important for root anchorage. In maize, genotypes that have
352 greater root anchorage and are considered root lodging resistant, also have wider brace
353 root angles (Hostetler *et al.* 2022). However, a GWA analysis showed that root system
354 architecture only explains a portion of the root lodging characteristics (Zheng *et al.*,
355 2023). Thus, understanding the complexities of root anchorage is important for future
356 root optimization.

357
358 It's also interesting to consider how optimizing for different functions may influence other
359 functions. For example, studies in maize have shown that deeper and steeper root
360 systems are important for accessing water from deep soil layers (Lynch 2013), but other
361 results suggest that steep growth angles would compromise anchorage (Hostetler *et al.*
362 2022). Given the complex nature of root anchorage, more research is needed to
363 determine if anchorage could be improved without compromising other root functions
364 (e.g., water and nutrient uptake).

365
366 Most studies highlighted in this review have focused on primary roots, nodal roots, or
367 not distinguished the root type. Of note, there is a little focus on the unique
368 aboveground roots (brace roots) that are found in maize and sorghum (Hostetler *et al.*,
369 2021*b*). While these roots are important for anchorage (Reneau *et al.*, 2020; Obayes *et al.*
370 *et al.*, 2022; Hostetler *et al.*, 2022), there is limited information on how they respond to

371 stresses. Thus, brace roots may be a critical way to overcome these tradeoffs by
372 providing anchorage, while enabling the belowground root system to respond
373 advantageously to abiotic stresses.

374

375 **Conclusion**

376 The spatial and temporal arrangement of roots is important for optimizing root function
377 while also minimizing the negative effects of abiotic stresses. In this review, we discuss
378 the constitutive and plastic responses of root system architecture in maize and sorghum
379 in response to drought, salt stress and low phosphorus. Under drought, there is little
380 known about how different root types respond and the potential for alleles that are
381 advantageous. However, constitutively steeper root angles and deeper root systems are
382 proposed to be important for drought tolerance in both maize and sorghum. In contrast,
383 there is no constitutive root system architecture proposed to optimize for high soil
384 salinity. This is likely because salt stress is a dual stress, which has both an osmotic
385 and ionic component. It is possible that the osmotic stress can be mitigated through
386 similar responses as drought stress, however more research is needed. In regard to
387 low P, a constitutive root system architecture proposed to be advantageous to tolerant
388 genotypes includes root systems that are wide and shallow to promote P acquisition via
389 topsoil foraging. Yet none of the work to-date allows us to link different root system
390 architectures with the differential stress tolerance of maize and sorghum. We propose
391 that comparative work focus not just on shared aspects, but also divergent aspects that
392 could elucidate different mechanisms of stress tolerance.

393

394 When considering the root system architecture that is advantageous under each of
395 these stressors, it is important to consider that there are both overlapping and distinct
396 features. However, each of these stresses has been studied in the absence of others,
397 and in a changing global climate there is a need to understand how to optimize plants
398 for multifaceted stressors. Moreover, root system architecture optimization is primarily
399 focused on nutrient and water acquisition, yet by only focusing on one root function,
400 other root functions such as anchorage could be compromised. Given that anchorage
401 is partially determined by root system architecture, there is an opportunity to

402 compensate for any compromised anchorage by targeting specific root traits. Overall,
403 more research is needed to understand the functional trade-offs associated with
404 breeding for abiotic-tolerant crops, especially in important cereal crops like maize and
405 sorghum.

406

407 **Acknowledgements**

408 We thank Dr. Lindsay Erndwein of Illustrations by LindZeaMays for illustrating Figure 1
409 from this article. We thank members of the Sparks Lab, Eva Birtell, Teclেমariam
410 Weldekidan, Irene Ibiwari Ikiriko, Thanduanlung Kamei, and Dave Griffin, for providing
411 comments and suggestions on this manuscript. We also thank two anonymous
412 reviewers and the associate editor for their suggestions.

413

414 **Author Contributions**

415 All authors contributed to the writing and editing of the manuscript.

416

417 **Conflict of Interest**

418 No Conflict of Interest has been declared.

419

420 **Funding**

421 This work was supported by a United States Department of Agriculture (USDA) National
422 Institute of Food and Agriculture (NIFA) Postdoctoral Fellowship awarded to ANH (grant
423 no. 2022-67012-36840); Empresa Brasileira de Pesquisa Agropecuária - Embrapa
424 (grant no. 20.20.03.024.00.00) awarded to SMDST; and Fundação de Amparo à
425 Pesquisa do Estado de Minas Gerais - Fapemig (grant no. APQ-00606-21) awarded to
426 SMDST.

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Figure Legends

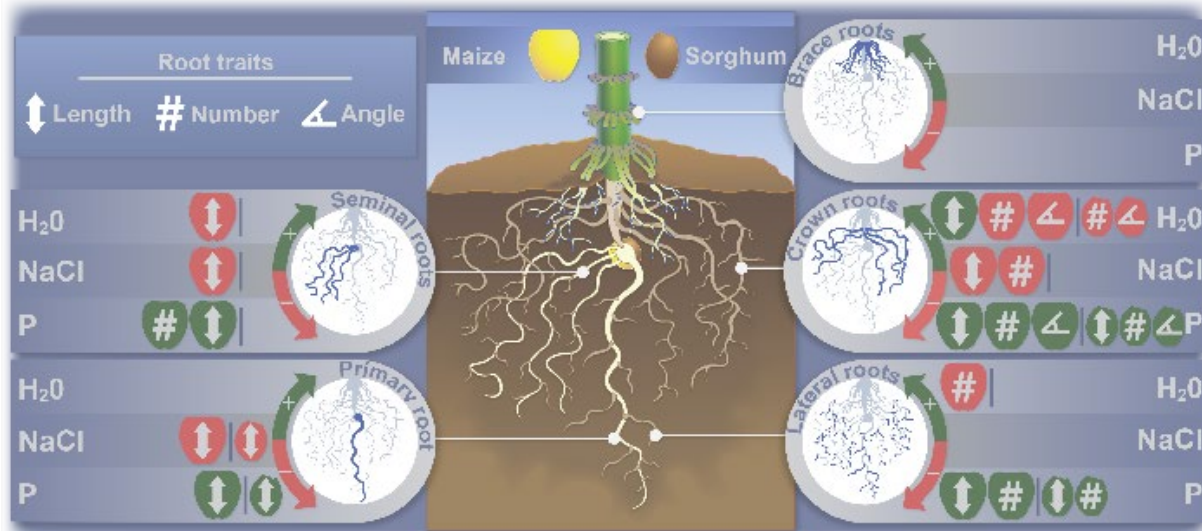


Figure 1 Changes in root system architecture of maize and sorghum plants in response to drought, salt, and low phosphorus. The maize and sorghum root systems are comprised of embryonic and post-embryonic root types. In maize, the embryonic root system includes both primary and seminal roots, whereas in sorghum, the embryonic root system lacks seminal roots. Both the sorghum and maize post-embryonic root systems consist of nodal and lateral roots. Nodal roots can be further divided into roots that emerge from nodes below the soil, called crown roots, and roots that emerge from nodes above the soil, called brace roots. For each of the root types (primary, seminal, crown, brace, and lateral), changes in root traits (root length, root number, and root angle) were described as increasing (green icons) or decreasing (red icons) in response to drought, salt, and low phosphorus. For each root type, changes in maize root traits are illustrated to the left of the line with a larger maize seed icon. Changes in sorghum root traits are illustrated to the right of the line with a smaller sorghum seed icon. When interpreting changes in root angle, we considered the ground as 90-deg, therefore a steeper root angle would be considered a decrease. See

Supplemental Table S1 for more information regarding references used for the generation of Figure 1.



Figure 2 The maize and sorghum root systems are distinct. The maize root system is denser with wider root angles compared to the sorghum root system. Images are from field grown plants collected via shovelomics at 60-70 days after planting. Sorghum genotype -1G100 (Pioneer); Maize genotype - 1M1752 (Embrapa Maize and Sorghum)