

1 **Morphological plasticity of root growth under mild water stress**
2 **increases water use efficiency without reducing yield in maize**

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23 **Abstract**

24 Large yield gap exists in rain-fed maize (*Zea mays* L.) production in semi-arid
25 regions, mainly caused by frequent droughts halfway the crop growing period due to
26 uneven distribution of rainfall. It is questionable if irrigation systems are
27 economically required in such a region since the total amount of rainfall do generally
28 meet crop requirements. This study aimed to quantitatively determine the effects of
29 water stress during jointing to grain-filling on root and shoot growth and the
30 consequences for maize grain yield, above- and below-ground dry matter, water
31 uptake (WU) and water use efficiency (WUE). Pot experiments were conducted in
32 2014 and 2015 with a mobile rain shelter to achieve conditions of no, mild or severe
33 water stress. Maize yield was not affected by mild water stress across two years, while
34 severe stress reduced yield by 56%. Both water stress levels decreased root biomass
35 slightly but shoot biomass substantially. Mild water stress decreased root length but
36 increased root diameter, resulting in no effect on root surface area. Due to the
37 morphological plasticity in root growth and the increase in root/shoot ratio, WU under
38 water stress was decreased, and overall WUE for both above-ground dry matter and
39 grain yield increased. Our results demonstrate that an irrigation system might be not
40 economically and ecologically necessary because the frequently occurring mild water
41 stress did not reduce crop yield much. The study helps to understand crop responses
42 to water stress during critical water-sensitive period (middle crop growing season)
43 and to mitigate drought risk in dry land agriculture.

44 **Keywords:** root diameter; root length; root surface area; root/shoot ratio; yield
45 components; water utilization

46 **1. Introduction**

47 Maize (*Zea mays* L.) is the most important crop globally, and also a major food
48 crop in northeast China with an average yield around 5.3 t ha⁻¹ (Dong et al., 2017).
49 However, the yield gap to the potential of 10.9 t ha⁻¹ is still large (Liu et al., 2012),
50 mainly due to frequent summer droughts. Due to the increasing probability of extreme
51 climate events (IPCC, 2007), water stress for agricultural production is likely to
52 increase in this region (Song et al., 2014; Yu et al., 2014) which is detrimental for
53 crop photosynthesis and yield (Richards, 2000).

54 Although the averaged total rainfall during crop growing season can meet the
55 requirements of rain-fed maize in the semi-arid northeast of China, the yearly and
56 seasonal variations often cause droughts (mostly mild water stress) during summer,
57 resulting in yield loss. Since quantitative information on the effects of water stress on
58 maize performance is lacking, it can be questioned whether irrigation systems using
59 underground water are economically and ecologically required in this situation.

60 Yield reduction by water stress has been attributed to decreased crop growth
61 (Payero et al., 2006), canopy height (Traore et al., 2000), leaf area index (NeSmith
62 and Ritchie, 1992) and root growth (Gavloski et al., 1992). Crop shoot development
63 and biomass accumulation are greatly reduced by soil water deficit at seeding stage
64 (Kang et al., 2000). Short-duration water deficit during the rapid vegetative growth
65 period causes around 30% loss in final dry matter (Cakir, 2004). The reduction in
66 maize yield by water stress can be observed in all yield components such as ear
67 density, number of kernels per ear and kernel weight (Ge et al., 2012), especially for
68 stress during or before maize silk and pollination period (Claassen and Shaw, 1970).
69 Biomass and harvest index (the ratio of grain yield over total aboveground dry matter)
70 are decreased under water stress during anthesis (Traore et al., 2000).

71 Water use efficiency (WUE, expressed in kg yield obtained per m³ of water) is
72 notably reduced by severe water stress. However, a moderate water stress at V16
73 (with 16 fully expanded leaves) and R1 (silking) stages in maize increased WUE (Ge
74 et al., 2012). Intentional irrigation deficits before the maize tasseling stage are often
75 used for improving WUE in regions with serious water scarcity, e.g. North China
76 Plain (Qiu et al., 2008; Zhang et al., 2017). Under water stress, plant photosynthesis
77 and transpiration decreases due to a decrease in stomatal conductance (Killi et al.,
78 2017) induced by increasing concentration of abscisic acid (ABA) (Beis and Patakas,
79 2015). However, limited knowledge exists on how much the growth and biomass
80 partitioning between shoot and root in maize is affected by water stress during mid
81 and late growing stages, and if changes in root growth and morphology caused by
82 water stress could affect maize yielding and water use efficiency.

83 Since field experiments that aim at quantifying the effects of water stress are
84 difficult to carry out in rain-fed agriculture, a mobile rain shelter is often used in
85 studies to control water stress in the field (NeSmith and Ritchie 1992). The objective
86 of this study was to quantify maize shoot and root growth, grain yield and WUE under
87 different water stress levels during the mid crop growing season with a
88 well-controlled mobile rain shelter, to understand the crop response to water stress.

89

90 **2. Materials and methods**

91 **2.1. Experimental design**

92 The experiments were conducted at Shenyang (41°48'N, 123°23'E), Liaoning
93 province, northeast China in 2014 and 2015. The experimental site is 45 m above sea
94 level. On average from 1965 to 2015, annual potential evaporation is 1445 mm, with a
95 total precipitation 720 mm, and mean air temperature 8 °C. The frost-free period is

96 150-170 days. Average relative humidity is 63 %. Annual mean wind speed is 3.1 m
97 s⁻¹. The climate is a typical continental monsoon climate with four distinct seasons,
98 characterized by a hot summer and cold winter. The annual mean air temperature was
99 9.5 °C in 2014 and 9.1 °C in 2015. The mean air temperature during crop growing
100 season (May to September) was 20.2 °C in 2014 and 19.4 °C in 2015 (Fig. 1).

101 Maize plants were grown in pots in three treatments: (1) no water stress; (2) mild
102 water stress and (3) severe water stress (Table 1). The levels of water stress were
103 based on historical rainfall frequency analysis. The water supply was controlled by a
104 mobile rain shelter with steel frame and transparent PVC cover. The mobile rain
105 shelter is built on a mechanical movement track equipping with an electricity motor to
106 move the shelter with a remote control. The shelter was moved away from the
107 experimental plots in no rain days and covered before a rain came, therefore the effect
108 of shelter on incoming radiation could be ignored. The mobile rain shelter is 9 m in
109 width, 30 m in length and 4.5 m in height. The top and both sides of the shelter have
110 PVC transparent boards to prevent outside rainfall. There is a water gutter at out side
111 of movement track to drain the rain water. Therefore the rain water intrusion can be
112 avoided. Water treatments began from maize jointing (V6, with 6 fully expended
113 leaves) to filling stages (R3, milk) (Abendroth et al., 2011). Water treatments were
114 conducted by supplying irrigations once per 5 days before starting water treatments
115 with same amount for all pots, and once per 3 days during the period of water
116 treatments. The detail amount of water supplied to each treatment was listed in Table
117 1. The experiments entailed a completely randomized block design with three
118 replicates. Each treatment consisted of 12 pots (one plant per pot) and divided into 3
119 replicates (4 pots each). At each sampling (4 samplings in total at an interval of
120 approximately 30 days), one pot was used.

121 Each pot was 40 cm in diameter and 50 cm in height, filled with 40 kg naturally
122 dried soil with a bulk density of 1.31 g cm^{-3} . Large size of pots in the experiments
123 effectively avoided space effect for growing good maize. The soil was sandy loam
124 with a pH of 6.15, total N of 1.46 g kg^{-1} , total of P 0.46 g kg^{-1} and total K of 12.96 g
125 kg^{-1} . 46.5 g compound fertilizer (N 15 %, P_2O_5 15 % and K_2O 15 %) and 15.5 g
126 diammonium phosphate (N 18 % and P_2O_5 46 %) were applied to each pot before
127 sowing. There was no other fertilizer applied during maize growing season. Maize
128 cultivar used in both years was Liaodan 565, a locally common used drought-resistant
129 cultivar. One plant was grown in each pot. Maize was sown on 13 May and harvested
130 on 30 Sept in both 2014 and 2015.

131

132 **2.2 Dry matter and grain yield measurements**

133 To determine maize dry matter, four plants were harvested on 49 (V6, jointing),
134 77 (VT, tasseling), 113 (R3, milk) and 141 (R5, dent) days after sowing (DAS) in
135 2014, and one sampling was done on 132 DAS in 2015. The samples were separated
136 into root and shoot and oven-dried at $80 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ for 48 hours until reaching a constant
137 weight. The shoot/root ratio was calculated using measured organ-specific dry
138 matters.

139 Grain yield was measured by harvesting all cobs in a pot in maize harvesting
140 time. The grain was sundried to a water content of 15%. Yield components i.e. ear
141 (cob) numbers per plant, kernel numbers per ear and thousand kernel weight were
142 measured for each plot.

143

144 **2.3 Root measurements**

145 Root growth and morphological traits (root length, diameter and surface area)

146 were measured four times during crop growing season on 49, 77, 113, 141 DAS in
147 2014. The whole roots were collected per pot at the time of dry matter measurements.
148 Root samples were carefully washed with tap water to remove soil. The cleaned roots
149 were placed on a glass plate of a root system scanner. Scanned root images were
150 analyzed by a plant root image analyzer WinRHIZO PRO 2009 (Regent Instruments
151 Inc., Canada) to quantify total root length (m), diameter (mm) and surface area (m²)
152 per plant (pot).

153

154 **2.4 Measuring soil moisture content, water uptake and water use efficiency**

155 Soil moisture contents were measured by a soil auger at sowing and harvesting
156 times for each plot (3 replicates per treatment). Soil cores were taken from the mid pot
157 for each 10 cm soil layer. After measuring fresh soil weight, soil samples were
158 oven-dried at 105 °C for approximately 48 hours until a constant weight was reached.
159 The gravimetric soil moisture contents (% g g⁻¹) measured by soil auger were
160 calculated into volumetric soil moisture content (% m³ m⁻³) by multiplying with soil
161 bulk density.

162 Water uptake (WU) of maize was calculated using a simplified soil water balance
163 equation (Kang et al., 2002). Because the experiments were sheltered, rainfall,
164 drainage and capillary rise of water did not occur in this situation and therefore were
165 not taken into account in the calculation:

$$166 \quad WU = I + \Delta S \quad (1)$$

167 where WU (mm) is crop water uptake (mm) during whole crop growing season, I is
168 the amount of water supplied to each pot (mm). ΔS is the change of total soil water
169 between sowing and harvesting dates.

170 Water use efficiency (WUE) was calculated by measured final yield or

171 above-ground dry matter and total WU during crop growing season (Zhang et al.,
172 2007).

$$173 \quad \text{WUE} = Y/WU \quad (2)$$

174 where WUE ($\text{g m}^{-2} \text{mm}^{-1}$ or kg m^{-3}) is water use efficiency expressed in grain yield
175 WUE_Y or dry matter WUE_{DM} . Y (g m^{-2}) is grain yield or dry matter.

176

177 **2.5. Statistical analysis**

178 Analysis of variance on yield, WU, WUE, and dry matter for shoot and root were
179 performed using General Linear Model of SPSS 20 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, USA). The
180 differences between means were evaluated through LSD multiple comparison tests at
181 a significant level of 0.05.

182

183 **3. Results**

184 **3.1 Variation and frequency distribution of rainfall**

185 The average rainfall during maize growing season (May to September) at
186 experimental site from 1965 to 2015 was 531 mm with a standard deviation of 134
187 mm (Fig. 2 a). Rainfall in the experimental years was much less than in a normal year,
188 296 mm in 2014 and 379 mm in 2015. The frequency of years with rainfall above 500
189 mm was 68.6 % during past 51 years. For years with mild drought stress (350-450
190 mm), this was 27.5 % and with severe drought stress (200-300 mm) it was 3.9 % (Fig.
191 2 b), indicating that the maize growing in this region mainly suffered mild water
192 stress.

193

194 **3.2 Yield and yield components**

195 Maize yield under mild water stress across two years was not significantly

196 different, while in severe stress yield was 55.6 % lower than no water stress control
197 (Table 2). The decrease of maize yield in severe water treatment was due to the
198 decreases in ear and kernel numbers as well as harvest index (HI). However, water
199 stress did not affect kernel weight, while other yield components were decreased. Year
200 effect was only significant for HI, which was likely caused by the variation in air
201 temperature: the cooler weather in 2015 during maize growing season decreased HI
202 comparing with a warmer year in 2014. There were no interactions between year and
203 treatment.

204

205 **3.3 Above- and below-ground dry matters**

206 Mild water stress did not reduce root dry matter (Fig. 3 a, b), but greatly reduced
207 shoot dry matter, especially at grain-filling stage (113 DAS) (Fig. 3 c, d). The severe
208 water stress decreased both root and shoot dry matter compared with no stress control,
209 but the magnitude of the decrease in shoot was much larger than in root. At maize
210 tasseling stage (77 DAS), as taproots reached their maximum size, root dry matter
211 under severe water stress was much lower than mild and no water stress treatments.
212 However, it became less different later in the season, which indicated a strong
213 complementarily growth of root system under water stress. Due to the different
214 responses of shoot and root to water stress, the root/shoot ratios under water stress
215 increased (Fig. 3 e, f), especially during crop rapid growing period (77 to 113 DAS).

216

217 **3.4 Root length, diameter and total surface area affected by water stresses**

218 Root length per plant was much lower under severe water stress than the control,
219 especially at tasseling stage (77 DAS). The decrease of root length under mild water
220 stress during maize mid growing season was much smaller than under severe stress

221 (Fig. 4 a). Root diameters under both mild and severe water stress treatments were
222 much higher than under no water stress control (Fig. 4 b), especially during late
223 growing season. Total root surface area was less changed (Fig. 4 c), especially during
224 maize reproductive growth period (113 DAS).

225

226 **3.5 Water uptake and use efficiency**

227 Total water uptake (WU) reduced by 28.9 % under mild water stress and by 54.6
228 % under severe stress compared with no stress control (588 mm) (Fig. 5). Water use
229 efficiency for maize above-ground dry matter (WUE_{DM}) under both water stress
230 treatments across all years increased 31.2 % compared with no stress control (Fig. 5
231 b). The WUE_{DM} in severe water stress was the highest (14.4 kg m^{-3}), which was 42.2
232 % higher than the control, while that in mild stress increased 20.2 %. However, WUE
233 for grain yield under severe water stress (3.51 kg m^{-3}) was not significantly different
234 with that in the control (3.38 kg m^{-3}), while WUE_Y in mild water stress across two
235 years increased 17.3 % (Fig. 5 c). The difference between WUEs in dry matter and
236 grain yield was due to the extent of decreasing HI under the levels of water stress
237 (Table 2).

238

239 **4. Discussion**

240 Mild water stress from maize jointing (V6) to filling stages (R3) did not
241 significantly reduce maize grain yield. It is different with previous report that maize
242 yield is much more affected by water stress during flowering stage than other stages
243 (Doorenbos et al., 1979). Our result differed with a previous study, which showed
244 mild water stress seriously reduced crop production (Kang et al., 2000). This is likely
245 due to our choice of a drought-resistant variety (Zhengdan 565) and the difference in

246 ecological zones. Genotype-dependent relationships between yield and crop growth
247 rate would be stronger under water stress than under no stress condition (Lake and
248 Sadras, 2016).

249 Mild water stress during mid crop growing period can maintain maize yield but
250 substantially reduces the water consumption at the same time in our study. Thus, the
251 water use efficiency was increased (Liu et al., 2016). Mild water stress reduced total
252 water uptake, resulting a 20.2 % higher WUE in dry matter and 17.3 % in yield. The
253 increase in WUE under mild water stress was benefit from the morphological
254 responses of shoot and root growth to water stress, as an increase in root/shoot ratio.
255 The water stress reduced root length; however, this reduction was compensated by an
256 increase in root diameter. The maintenance of crop growth under water deficit was
257 limited by the severity of the stress. Under severe water stress, maize growth fails to
258 be compensated by plant plasticity.

259 Severe water stress greatly reduced both shoot and root biomass. Large decrease
260 in shoot growth, i.e. less biomass and leaf area, reduces the light interception and
261 transpiration (Monteith, 1981). Under mild water stress during vegetative and
262 tasselling stages, the shoot growth was not significantly reduced in this study but did
263 in previous report, e.g. plant height and leaf area (Cakir, 2004). Mild soil water deficit
264 may also reduce water loss of plants through physiological regulation (Davies and
265 Zhang, 1991). A moderate soil drying at the vegetative stage encourages root growth
266 and distributing in deep soil (Jupp and Newman, 1987; Zhang and Davies, 1989),
267 which is consistent with our findings. Large root system with deep distribution is
268 beneficial for water-limited agriculture (McIntyre et al., 1995). These mechanisms
269 explained why maize yield under mild water stress was not decreased in our study.

270 We found an increase in root diameter under water stresses. This result indicated

271 that the lateral roots under water stress were probably less than under no water stress.
272 That may limit water absorption since the lateral roots is younger and more active in
273 uptake function (Lynch, 1995). Average root diameters in all treatments decreased
274 from 77 to 113 DAS, which was caused by highly emerged lateral roots after the
275 taproot reached its maximum (VT stage). The higher root diameter under water stress
276 than in no water stress control at 141 DAS was probably due to a fast senescence of
277 late developed lateral roots.

278 Our results on root morphological plasticity under mild water deficit provided
279 another evidence for the explanation of enhancing WUE and maintaining yielding in
280 relation to crop-water response. However, the mechanism that determines crop
281 response to water stress may also involve other processes, e.g. intercellular CO₂,
282 stomatal conductance, photosynthetic rate, oxidative stress, sugar signaling,
283 membrane stability and root chemical signals (Xue et al., 2006; Dodd, 2009). The
284 relationship between carbon assimilation and water stress have been widely explored
285 to understand the physiological mechanism for improving WUE (Ennahli and Earl,
286 2005; Xue et al., 2006; Zhang et al., 2013). The abscisic acid (ABA)-based drought
287 stress chemical signals regulates crop vegetative and reproductive development and
288 contributes to crop drought adaptation (Killi et al., 2017). Increased concentration of
289 ABA in the root induced by soil drying may maintain root growth and increase root
290 hydraulic conductivity, thus alleviates water deficit in the shoot (Liu et al., 2005). The
291 increase of ABA can also induce stomatal closure and reduces crop transpiration
292 (Haworth et al. 2016), net photosynthesis and crop growth (Killi et al., 2017).

293 The maize yield in 2015 was much lower than in 2014 independent of water
294 stress. That might be caused by a higher maximum air temperature in 2015 (32.0 °C)
295 than in 2014 (29.1 °C) during flowering period. High air temperature reduces maize

296 pollination (Muller and Rieu, 2016) and directly affects yield formation and HI.

297

298 **5. Conclusions**

299 This study clearly demonstrates that the maize yield under mild water stress
300 during summer does not decrease but the water use efficiency increases due to
301 changes in root and shoot growth. A higher root/shoot ratio under mild water stress
302 allows plant efficiently use limited soil water. In studied region (Liaoning province),
303 maize mainly grows in rain-fed condition (2.4 million ha), covering 73 % of total area
304 for grain crops. To reduce the possible effect of drought on maize production, the
305 wells system piping ground-water to irrigate crop is planned recently. The wells need
306 to be 60 to 70 m deep with an average cost of 12,000 Yuan for each. Each well can
307 only irrigate 9 to 10 ha of maize. According to our results, only severe water stress
308 significantly reduces maize yield by 55.6 % across two experimental years (Table 2),
309 which occurs only 3.9 % during 1965 to 2015. Mild water stress occurs much
310 frequently (27.5 % of years), however, it does not affect maize yield significantly. Our
311 study suggested that the well system in this region might not be economically and
312 ecologically necessary. Other agronomy practices such as intercropping maize with
313 crops requiring less water (e.g. peanut), cultivar selection, adjusting sowing windows
314 (Liu et al., 2013; Lu et al., 2017) and ridge-furrow with covering plastic film (Dong et
315 al., 2017) are likely more applicable in optimizing crop yield and regional
316 sustainability. Our study provides more evidences to understand crop responses to
317 water stress, especially in relation to root morphological plasticity in a drought
318 environment. The results can be further applied combining with crop model (Mao et
319 al., 2015) to mitigate climate risk in dry land agriculture.

320

321 **Author contribution**

322 Z. Sun, Y. Zhang, J. Zheng and Q. Cai conceived and designed the experiments.
323 Q. Cai, W. Bai, Y Zhang, Y. Liu, L. Feng, C. Feng, Z. Zhang and N. Yang performed
324 the experiments. L. Zhang, Q. Cai and J.B. Evers analyzed the data and wrote the
325 paper.

326

327 **Competing interests**

328 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

329

330 **Special issue statement**

331 Special issue: Ecosystem processes and functioning across current and future
332 dryness gradients in arid and semi-arid lands.

333

334 **Acknowledgements**

335 This research was supported by the National key research and development
336 program of China (2016YFD0300204) , the International Cooperation and Exchange
337 (31461143025) and the Youth Fund (31501269) of the National Science Foundation
338 of China, Liaoning BaiQianWan Talent Program (201746), Outstanding Young
339 Scholars of National High-level Talent Special Support Program of China.

340

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453 **Table 1** Water treatments during crop growing seasons in 2014 to 2015.

Year	Water treatment	Initial volumetric soil moisture content (%)	Actual water supply at three growing periods (mm)			Total
			Early (16-29 DAS ¹)	Middle (30-102 DAS)	Late (103-121 DAS)	
2014	No stress	24.4	11.9	478	56	545
	Mild stress	24.8	11.9	299	56	366
	Severe stress	24.9	11.9	122	56	190
2015	No stress	25.3	11.9	510	32	553
	Mild stress	25.3	11.9	334	32	378
	Severe stress	24.4	11.9	159	32	203

¹DAS refers days after maize sowing.

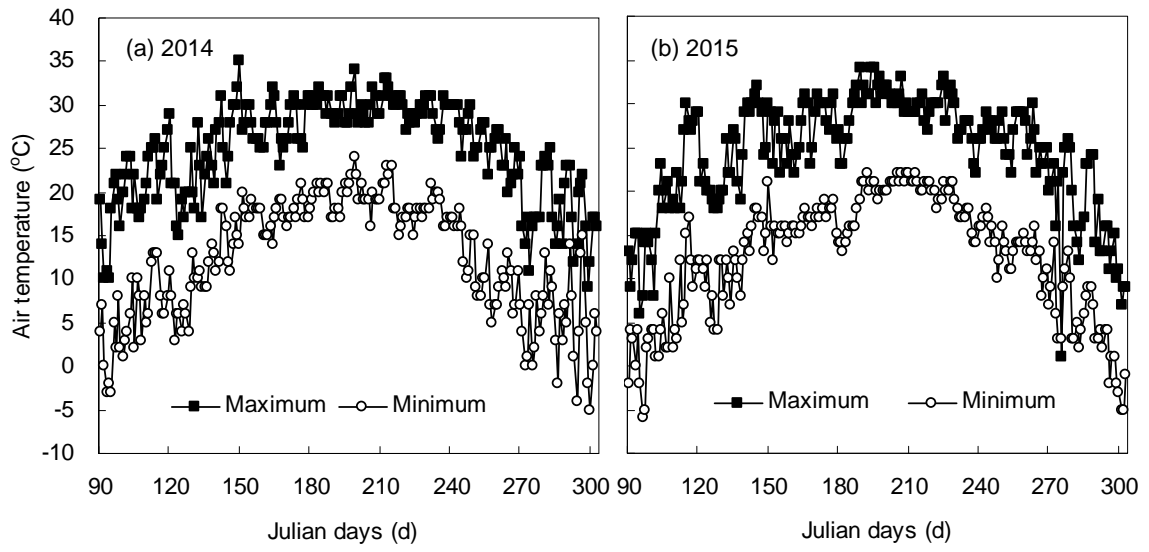
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455 **Table 2** Yield and yield components affected by different water stresses from 2014 to
 456 2015

Year	Water treatment	Ear number	Kernel number	Thousand kernel weight	Yield per plant	Harvest index
		ears plant ⁻¹	kernels ear ⁻¹	g	g plant ⁻¹	g g ⁻¹
2014	No stress	2.0±0.0a	354±32a	440±6.8a	301±33a	0.36±0.01a
	Mild stress	2.0±0.0a	350±16a	416±1.2b	276±14a	0.37±0.01a
	Severe stress	2.0±0.0a	245±35b	412±3.7b	166±25b	0.27±0.02b
2015	No stress	2.0±0.0a	341±67a	426±12a	240±60a	0.29±0.04a
	Mild stress	2.0±0.0a	244±53a	427±22a	168±42ab	0.25±0.03a
	Severe stress	1.3±0.3b	172±46a	412±16a	81±22b	0.17±0.04a
mean	No stress	2.0±0.2a	347±38a	432±7.5a	266±36a	0.32±0.03a
	Mild stress	2.0±0.0a	289±36ab	422±12a	214±32a	0.30±0.03ab
	Severe stress	1.6±0.0b	203±31b	412±8.5a	118±23b	0.21±0.03b
<i>P</i>	Treatment	0.021	0.003	0.556	0.005	0.013
	Year	0.184	0.514	0.889	0.237	0.039
	Treat×Year	0.111	0.664	0.555	0.835	0.758

Same small letters indicate no significant difference between water treatment within same year at $\alpha=0.05$.

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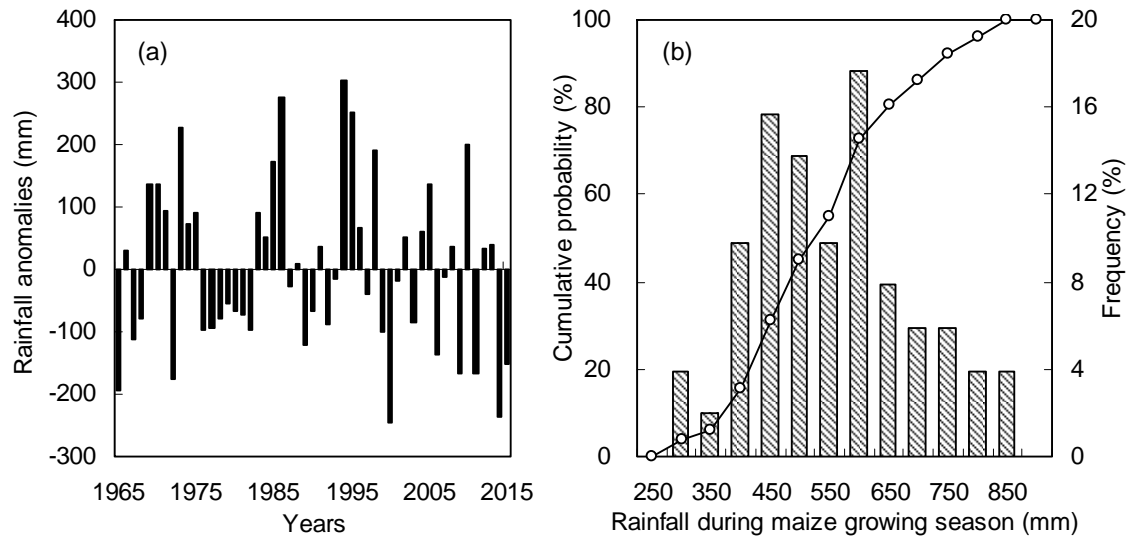


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460 **Fig. 1** Daily maximum and minimum air temperatures in 2014 and 2015 in

461 Shengyang, Liaoning, China

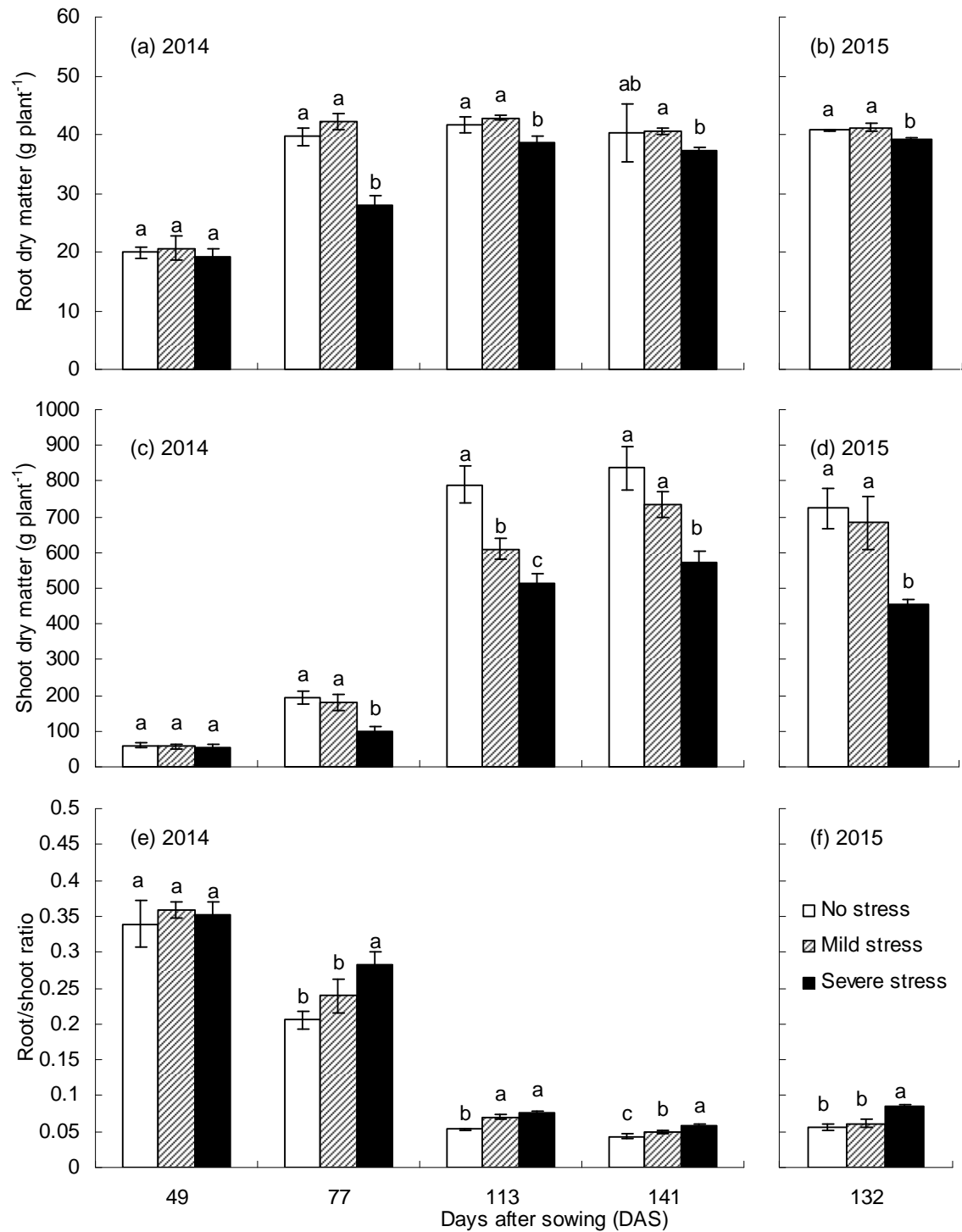
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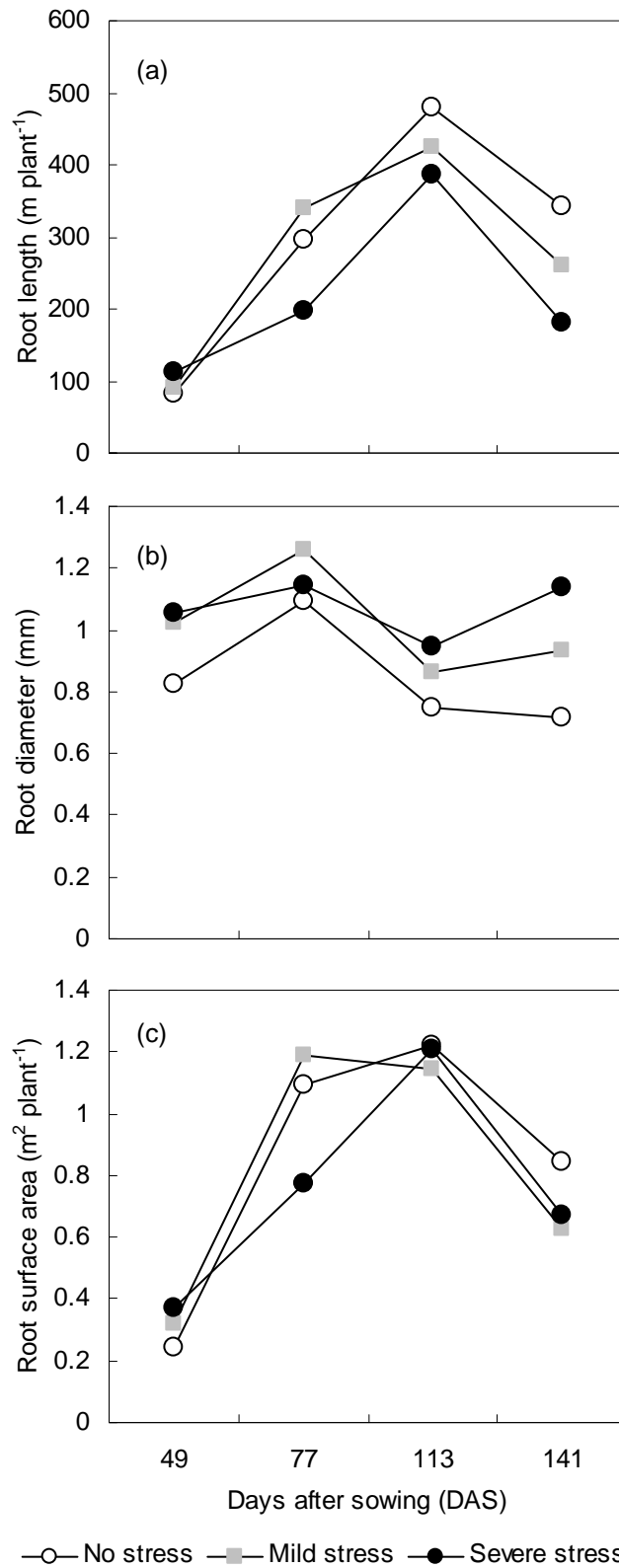
464 **Fig. 2** Anomalies and cumulative frequency of rainfall during maize growing season

465 (May to September) from 1965 to 2015 at Shengyang, Liaoning.



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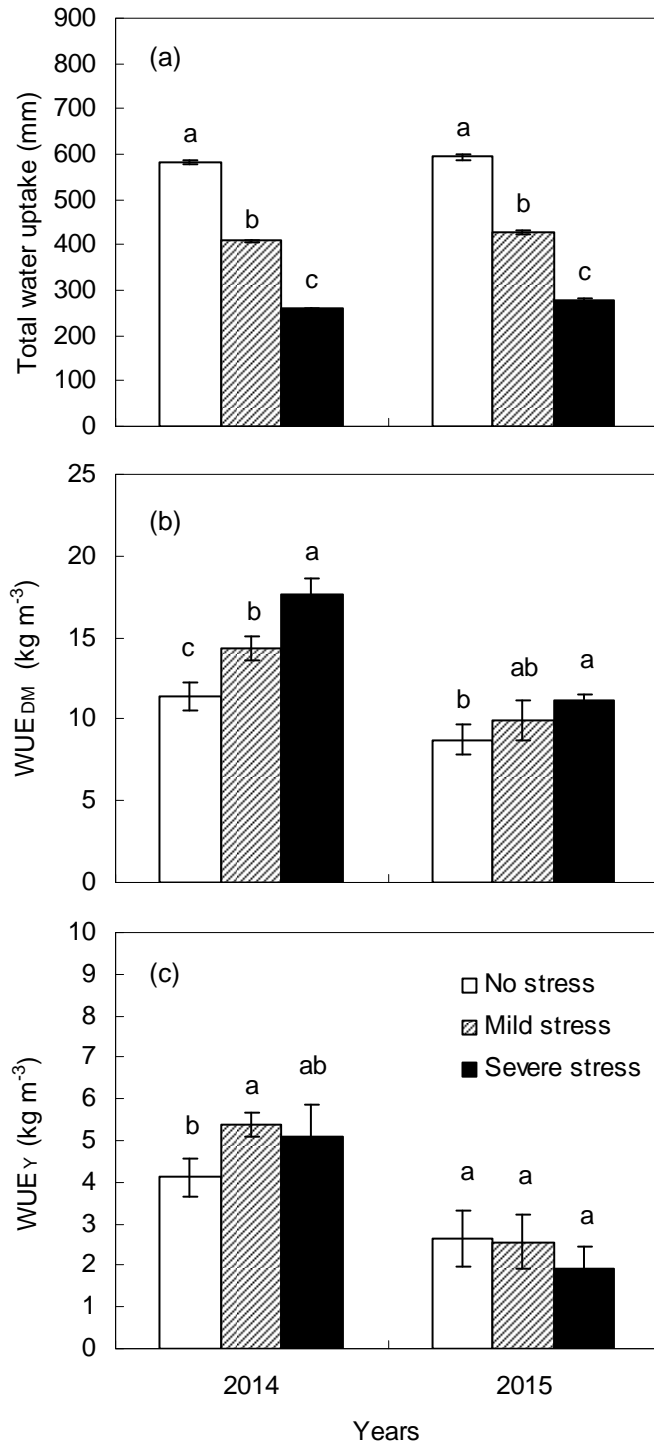
467 **Fig. 3** Root and shoot dry matters of maize under water stress at different growing
 468 stages in 2014-2015.



469

470 **Fig. 4** Total root length, average diameter and total surface area per plant affected by

471 water stress in 2014



472

473 **Fig. 5** Total water uptake (WU) during crop growing season and water use efficiency

474 for above-ground dry matter (WUE_{DM}) and grain yield (WUE_Y) under water stress in

475 2014-2015

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