

1 **Drought effects on root and tuber production: A meta-analysis**

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3 **Stefani Daryanto, Lixin Wang\*, Pierre-Andre Jacinthe**

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5 Department of Earth Sciences, Indiana University Purdue University Indianapolis

6 Indianapolis 46202, USA

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8 \*Corresponding author

9 Email: lxwang@iupui.edu

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24 **Abstract**

25 Roots and tubers such as potatoes and cassava rank within the top six among the world's most  
26 important food crops, yet the extent to which their global production has been adversely affected  
27 by drought remains unclear. Greater uncertainties exist on how drought effects co-vary with: 1)  
28 root and tuber species, 2) soil texture, 3) agro-ecological region, and 4) drought timing. It is often  
29 assumed that potato is drought-sensitive whereas cassava and sweet potato are resistant to  
30 drought. To address these uncertainties, we collected literature data between 1980 and 2015 that  
31 reported monoculture root and tuber yield responses to drought under field conditions, and  
32 analyzed this large data set using meta-analysis techniques. Our results showed that the amount  
33 of water reduction was positively related with yield reduction, but the extent of the impact varied  
34 with root or tuber species and the phenological phase during which drought occurred. In contrast  
35 to common assumptions regarding drought resistance of certain root and tuber crops, we found  
36 that yield reduction was similar between potato and species thought to be drought-resistant such  
37 as cassava and sweet potato. Here we suggest that drought-resistance in cassava and sweet potato  
38 could be more related to survival rather than yield. All roots or tubers crops, however,  
39 experienced greater yield reduction when drought struck during the tuberization period compared  
40 to during their vegetative phase. The effect of soil texture on yield reduction was less obvious,  
41 and similarly we did not find any significant effects of region (and related climatic factors) on  
42 neither yield reduction nor drought sensitivity. Our study provides useful information that could  
43 inform agricultural planning, and influence the direction of research for improving the  
44 productivity and the resilience of these under-utilized crops in the drought-prone regions of the  
45 world.

46

47 Keywords: drought, potato, sweet potato, cassava, root, tuber

48

## 49 **1. Introduction**

50 According to the FAO definition (FAO, 1994), roots and tubers are plants that produce starchy  
51 roots, tubers, rhizomes, corms and stems commonly consumed as human food, animal feed, and  
52 as manufactured food products. There are six major root and/or tuber (i.e., root/tuber) crops:  
53 potato, cassava, sweet potato, yam, taro, and yautia (Table 1), some of them are important cash  
54 and food crops particularly for resource-limited farmers in Asia, Africa, Latin America, and the  
55 Caribbean (Okogbenin et al., 2013). Yam and cassava, for example account for a sizable portion  
56 of the daily calorie intake for people in West Africa (Asiedu and Sartie, 2010).

57

58 Root/tuber crops have much potential in terms of water use efficiency (WUE) and nutrient  
59 content compared to other food crops. Potatoes, for example, produce more dry matter and  
60 protein per hectare than major cereal crops (Birch et al., 2012). They also have higher water  
61 productivity than cereals, and are considered among the most energy productive crops, producing  
62 5,600 kcal per cubic meter of water, compared to 3860 in maize, 2300 in wheat, and 2000 in rice  
63 (Birch et al., 2012; Monneveux et al., 2013). Similarly, sweet potatoes figure among the major  
64 crops that produce the most human-edible energy, as much as  $194 \text{ MJ ha}^{-1} \text{ day}^{-1}$  (Mukhopadhyay  
65 et al., 2011). Other root/tuber crops such as taro (seven known species mostly originated from  
66 Asia), yautia (40 species mostly from the American continent), and yam (600 species of  
67 different origins) (Asiedu and Sartie, 2010; Degras, 1993) also have significant energy values  
68 and variable nutritional properties, including dietary fiber, vitamin C, and carotenoids (Asiedu  
69 and Sartie, 2010; Degras, 1993).

70

71 While drought has been considered a major constraint to root/tuber crop production, research on  
72 drought tolerance in potato only started between 1960 and 1980, compared to cereal crops which  
73 have been extensively studied in that regard since the early 1900's (Monneveux et al., 2013).  
74 Consequently, our knowledge regarding: (i) drought tolerance of roots and tubers, and  
75 underlying physiological mechanisms, as well as (ii) agronomic practices and water-saving  
76 techniques (e.g., mulching, no-till) (Monneveux et al., 2013), is still limited compared to other  
77 staples such as cereals and legumes despite the earlier cultivation of roots and tubers (i.e.,  
78 >10,000 years for taro) (Lebot, 2009). Compared to roots and tubers, there has been two and four  
79 times more studies examining the effects of drought on legumes and cereal production,  
80 respectively. Yet several climate models have predicted a much stronger impact of climate  
81 change on potato production than on cereal production (Monneveux et al., 2013; Tubiello et al.,  
82 2002). Potato production in various low latitude regions, for example, is expected to decrease  
83 between 18-32% without shift in planting date and varieties as opposed to 9-18% if such  
84 mitigation strategies are adopted (Monneveux et al., 2013). Given the significance of root/tuber  
85 crops to food security in various regions of the world and the uncertainties regarding the global  
86 climate, there is a need for greater understanding of the resilience of root/tuber species to water  
87 stress and how different root/tuber species respond to drought (e.g., changes in timing and  
88 intensity of water stress).

89

90 Meta-analysis is a powerful statistical tool that can be used to summarize results from numerous  
91 independent experiments on drought while accounting for variability across experiments (Hedges  
92 et al., 1999). By synthesizing the results of field experiments investigating drought effects on

93 root/tuber production in different regions, this study aims to provide a quantitative summary of  
94 the factors that either amplify or minimize production loss associated with droughts. We aim to  
95 answer the following questions: 1) to what extent factors such as root/tuber species, soil texture,  
96 and climatic region contribute to variations in drought-induced yield reduction, and 2) how can  
97 the information gained from the analysis of these factors be used to minimize the impact of  
98 drought on root/tuber production? Specifically, we are interested in quantitatively assess the  
99 yield reduction of generally assumed drought-resistant root crops (i.e., cassava and sweet potato)  
100 (Onwoume and Charles, 1994) and comparing their response to that of the more drought-  
101 sensitive species (i.e., potato) (Monneveux et al., 2013). While anecdotal evidence suggest that  
102 cassava and sweet potato are widely grown and continue to expand in drought-affected regions,  
103 and can remain profitable in areas with annual rainfall as low as 500 mm (Hahn, 1977;  
104 Onwoume and Charles, 1994), the data that support the extent of yield reduction due to drought  
105 for both of these crops are still lacking. The results of this study could thus lead to the  
106 formulation of better agricultural practices by considering the aforementioned factors to increase  
107 the resilience of roots/tuber production systems in the drought-prone regions of the world.

108

## 109 **2. Materials and methods**

110 The database for this study was collected from peer-reviewed journal articles published in  
111 English from 1980 to 2015 based on Google Scholar search using the following two sets of  
112 keywords: (i) root or tuber species common name, water, stress, yield, and field, or (ii) root or  
113 tuber species common name, irrigation, deficit, yield, and field. The list of articles and  
114 geographical distribution of the study locations are provided in the Supplementary Material S1  
115 and Supplementary Fig. S1. Only articles that meet the following criteria were included in the

116 database: (i) plants that experienced drought under field conditions (excluding pot studies), (ii)  
117 the effect of water deficit was considered in comparison with well-watered condition and not in  
118 combination with other treatments (e.g., addition of fertilizers or growth hormones, modification  
119 of temperature or CO<sub>2</sub>), (iii) the reported plants were monoculture roots or tubers of potato  
120 (*Solanum tuberosum*), cassava (*Manihot* spp.), sweet potato (*Ipomoea batatas*), taro (*Colocasia*  
121 *esculenta*), yautia (*Xanthosoma* spp.), and yam (*Dioscorea* spp.), (iv) the articles reported crop  
122 response as yield per unit area. To minimize the impact of other agronomic factors (e.g., pests,  
123 nutrients, diseases) that might affect yield, we only included studies that examined the single  
124 effect of water reduction as these other factors were controlled during the water treatment  
125 experiments (Daryanto et al., 2015, in review).

126  
127 The magnitude of yield responses was examined based on the following categorical variables: (i)  
128 root/tuber species, (ii) agro-ecosystem types (dryland and non-dryland), (iii) soil texture (fine,  
129 medium, or coarse), and (iv) drought timing (i.e., early season, mid-season, late season, mid- and  
130 late-season, and throughout season). For the purposes of meta-analysis, we established discrete  
131 levels for each variable and coded each observation accordingly. Unlike grain crops in which  
132 drought timing can be categorized based on distinct vegetative and reproductive phases  
133 (Daryanto et al., 2015, in review), for some root crops, photo-assimilates are partitioned  
134 continuously between different organs (Lebot, 2009). We therefore used the following  
135 development phases of the storage root organ to differentiate drought timing: before tuber  
136 initiation as early-season, during tuber initiation as mid-season, during tuber bulking as late-  
137 season, during the whole tuberization period as mid- and late-season, and during the entire  
138 growing period as throughout-season drought. Since we focused our analysis on the amount of

139 water available and yield, we differentiated agro-ecosystem types based on aridity indices, which  
140 showed significant correlation with yield ([Bannayan et al., 2010](#)). We considered other  
141 environmental factors (e.g., temperature, light intensity) as the same between control and  
142 droughted condition since we only used paired study sites. Similarly, we divided soil texture into  
143 three categories (i.e., fine, medium and coarse) as each category had different water-related  
144 properties (i.e., field capacity, wilting point and water holding capacity) ([Keulen and Stol, 1995](#)).  
145 We considered clay, sandy-clay and silty-clay soils as fine texture, silt, silt-loam, silty-clay-loam,  
146 loam, sandy clay-loam and clay-loam soils as medium texture, and sand, loamy-sand, and sandy-  
147 loam soils as coarse texture ([Keulen and Stol, 1995](#)). .

148  
149 The total data points before averaging were 981 from 85 studies. We averaged responses across  
150 cultivars under the same drought treatment since we were only interested in evaluating the effect  
151 of drought on crop performance at the species level (for potato, sweet potato, and taro). For  
152 cassava, yam, and yautia, we did not differentiate among species, but grouped them  
153 based on their genus name due to limited number of data. Edible yam, for example, consisted of  
154 at least nine species of *Dioscorea* sp, which were native to different regions. *D. rotundata* and *D.*  
155 *cayanensis* were indigenous to West Africa, while *D. alata* and *D. trifida* were Asian and  
156 American origin, respectively ([Asiedu and Sartie, 2010](#)). If the same treatment was repeated over  
157 several years or locations, the data were only averaged across the years or places if there was no  
158 significant year or location effect. After averaging, the total data points used in the meta-analysis  
159 were 352, except for soil texture which was not always mentioned in all studies. We did not  
160 differentiate among irrigation types and only recorded the amount of water applied since there  
161 have been many studies showing that the type of irrigation was not significant in comparison to

162 the amount of water in determining yield, even in semi-arid (dryland) regions (Erdem et al.,  
163 2006; [Onder et al., 2005](#); [Sammis, 1980](#); [Shalhevet et al., 1983](#); [Ünlü et al., 2006](#)). If a study  
164 reported more than one timing of drought or levels of water reduction, all observations were  
165 considered independent and included in the database. Since limited data were available for taro  
166 and yautia production, we used either single amount of water reduction or other quantitative  
167 indicators of water availability (e.g., soil moisture) reported in the corresponding article as proxy  
168 for observed water reduction (Supplementary Fig. S2).

169

170 We calculated the observed water availability ratio (i.e., the ratio between water during drought  
171 and during well-watered condition) for each categorical variable as a proxy to describe drought  
172 intensity. Water availability ratio might or might not include rainfall (i.e., depending on the  
173 study), but the inclusion or exclusion was consistent for each ratio. We did not use the widely-  
174 accepted drought intensity indices (e.g., Palmer index which is more effective in determining  
175 long-term naturally occurring drought) since most of the studies were controlled experiments  
176 (i.e., comparing certain amount of irrigated conditions and irrigation reduction instead of  
177 observing natural rainfall deficiency). While we used the highest water level as control (i.e.,  
178 well-watered condition), some exceptions applied where we did not incorporate water levels  
179 higher than the maximum evapotranspiration (ET) demand (if this information is provided in the  
180 paper). We took this precaution to minimize the effects of overestimating the water requirement  
181 since yield might saturate at water supply lower than the observed maximum supply (Grassini et  
182 al., 2009). This observed water reduction was then compared among categorical variable using  
183 one-way ANOVA and used to calculate drought sensitivity. We defined drought sensitivity as  
184 the relationship between observed yield reduction (i.e., the ratio between yield during drought



185 and during well-watered condition) and observed water reduction. Since not all studies recorded  
186 the amount of water reduction, we used the subset of data that recorded both yield reduction and  
187 water reduction to construct the relationship. The exact numbers of data points ( $n$ ) were shown in  
188 the corresponding figures. Ratio was used rather than the actual yield or amount of water to  
189 make a more robust comparison among categorical variables since some species might have  
190 lower or higher yield potential or water demand than others. Confidence interval and prediction  
191 band for each drought sensitivity relationship was calculated at the 95% confidence level using  
192 Sigmaplot 12.0 (Systat Software) when more than 20 observational data points were available  
193 and the  $R^2$  value was greater than 0.1.

194

195 To compare the differences in observed yield reduction between each categorical variable, meta-  
196 analysis was used to construct the confidence intervals. In order to include those studies that did  
197 not adequately report sample size or standard deviation, we performed an unweighted analysis  
198 using the log response ratio (lnR) to calculate bootstrapped confidence limits using the statistical  
199 software MetaWin 2.0 (Rosenberg et al., 2000). The response ratio is the ratio between the  
200 outcome of experimental group (i.e., drought) to that of the control group (i.e., well-watered  
201 condition). To improve the reliability of lnR in estimating the effect size, a simple diagnostic test  
202 using the following formula was performed:

$$203 \quad \bar{x}/SD (4N^{3/2}/(1+4N)) \geq 3$$

204 where  $\bar{x}$  is the mean, SD is the standard deviation and N is the sample size (Lajeunesse, 2015).

205 Bootstrapping was then iterated 9999 times to improve the probability that confidence interval  
206 was calculated around the cumulative mean effect size for each categorical variable. The sample  
207 size ( $n$ ) of each bootstrapping which reported the amount of water reduction was shown in its

208 corresponding figure. The difference is considered significant if the bootstrap confidence interval  
209 did not overlap with each other. A statistical significance level of  $P < 0.05$  was used.

210

### 211 **3. Results and Discussion**

#### 212 **3.1 Species effects**

213 Our results showed no difference in yield reduction among the three major root/tuber crops -  
214 potato, cassava, and sweet potato - in response to drought (Fig. 1). These results were surprising  
215 given the considerable differences in agronomic characteristics that exist between these species  
216 (Table 2), including drought resistance and water requirements ([Adeleye et al., 2010](#); Horton,  
217 1988; [Lebot, 2009](#); Talwana et al., 2009). The lack of yield difference also ran contrary to the  
218 traditional belief that potato is drought-sensitive but that cassava is drought-resistant, capable of  
219 producing under drought conditions (Onwoume and Charles, 1994). The global average yield of  
220 cassava represents only 12.5% of the crop's yield potential (Okogbenin et al., 2013) in  
221 comparison to rice yield which is almost 80% of its potential (Cassman, 1999). These facts  
222 suggest that the high production potential of cassava has not been achieved, most likely due to  
223 the sub-optimum agro-climatic conditions in which cassava is typically grown. Since cassava's  
224 root and shoot grew simultaneously (i.e., competing to each other) throughout the growing  
225 season, lower carbon (C) partitioning to the storage organ could occur as an indirect response of  
226 reduced radiation energy interception resulting from lower leaf area index (LAI) of droughted  
227 plants depending on when drought happened (El-Sharkawy, 2003; Haimeirong and Kubota,  
228 2003). Similarly, the timing and duration of drought could change the morphology of the young  
229 root system (Pardales Jr and Esquisel, 1996), for example by developing thinner roots (i.e.,  
230 increasing the ratio between root length and root weight), presumably to improve water uptake.

231 The number of adventitious roots also decreased during early season drought, and if such  
232 condition prolonged, it would reduce the number of adventitious roots that would differentiate  
233 into storage roots (Pardales Jr and Esquisel, 1996). It can therefore be suggested that cassava  
234 might be resistant to drought in terms of its survival, rather than in terms of its capacity to  
235 maintain high yield.

236

237 Among the anatomical characteristics that allow survival during drought is the ability of cassava  
238 plants to develop deep roots (>2 m), enabling them to extract subsoil water despite their sparse  
239 fine root system (Okogbenin et al., 2013). The stomata of cassava are particularly sensitive to  
240 vapor pressure difference; they close even before signs of water stress develop within the plant  
241 (Onwoume and Charles, 1994). At the same time, water-stressed cassava plants minimize carbon  
242 cost through cessation of osmolytes production during drought (Alves and Setter, 2004), a  
243 strategy that enables faster recovery once water becomes available. Cassava plants also form  
244 symbiotic associations with mycorrhiza, which may contribute to their ability to survive a  
245 prolonged period of drought (i.e., up to five months) (Horton, 1988). Cassava plants can also  
246 synthesize and accumulate abscisic acid during the early phase of water deficit, and this in turn  
247 results in: (i) low leaf area through limited formation of new leaves, (ii) the formation of small  
248 leaves, and (iii) leaves shedding (Alves and Setter, 2000). It has been shown that abscisic acid  
249 levels in water-stressed cassava can quickly return to normal within as little as one day after  
250 watering, resuming normal growth (Lebot, 2009). When drought lasts over an extended period,  
251 however, low leaf area will eventually lead to yield reduction (Okogbenin et al., 2013).

252

253 Our results also showed that sweet potato was more sensitive to drought compared to potato (Fig.  
254 2), contradicting the common assumption that sweet potato is drought-resistant (Onwoume and  
255 Charles, 1994; [Woolfe, 1992](#)). We suggest that higher level of genetic development in potato  
256 compared to sweet potato could be responsible for the decrease in drought sensitivity of the  
257 former. In addition, better agricultural practices are generally adopted where potato is grown  
258 compared to sweet potato. The number of studies dedicated to a crop species can be taken as a  
259 proxy of such practices. For example Web of Science search of articles in English published  
260 between 1985 and 2015 using keywords “drip irrigation and “sweet potato” only resulted in 10  
261 articles, but it resulted in 196 articles when replacing “sweet potato” to “potato”. The results  
262 were similar for sprinkler irrigation with one versus 96 articles found for “sweet potato” and  
263 “potato”, respectively. These factors may have contributed to the superior performance of this  
264 species (i.e., potato) that has previously been considered drought-sensitive. We acknowledge,  
265 however, that there could be some uncertainties in our determination of drought sensitivity since  
266 the amount of water required by each species cannot be confidently defined. While sweet potato  
267 might be resistant to drought in terms of its survival, it might be sensitive in terms of yield.  
268 Similar to cassava, sweet potatoes have a relative deep rooting system (0.75-0.9 m; compared to  
269 only 0.3 m for potato), which enable them to survive during drought through uptake of  
270 subsurface water pools not available to most vegetables (Mukhopadhyay et al., 2011).  
271 Supplementary irrigation for sweet potatoes, however, is highly recommended if available soil  
272 moisture is below 20% (Ravi and Indira, 1999). Irrigation at 60% moisture depletion level, for  
273 example, could increase root yield by 24% over non-irrigated sweet potatoes (Mukhopadhyay et  
274 al., 2011). The tradeoff between yield and survival is also related to the physiological and  
275 biochemical changes in the leaves. Under water deficit, stomatal resistance tends to increase to

276 preserve leaf water content and prevent leaf senescence. Increasing stomatal resistance, however,  
277 also decrease CO<sub>2</sub> exchange, net photosynthetic rate and eventually yield. If droughts occur  
278 during tuber initiation and tuber bulking, these physiological processes could considerably  
279 reduce yield (Mukhopadhyay et al., 2011), explaining the yield sensitivity of sweet potato to  
280 drought. It has been further demonstrated that some drought-sensitive sweet potato cultivars did  
281 not produce yield, but were capable of surviving prolonged drought periods (Ravi and Indira,  
282 1999).

283

284 The yield response of the other minor root/tuber species (i.e., taro, yam, and yautia) to drought is  
285 less well characterized as very few studies have examined the effects of drought on these crops.  
286 While our results showed that taro yield reduction did not differ from the major root/tuber crops,  
287 yautia showed a significantly higher yield reduction compared to potato in response to drought.  
288 Research has shown that potassium addition can improve taro and possibly yautia performance  
289 during drought by inducing better stomatal control and improving water use efficiency (Sivan et  
290 al., 1996) as both taro and yautia generally experience a decrease in stomatal conductance during  
291 drought (Mabhaudhi and Modi, 2015). While some wild relatives of taro exhibited drought  
292 tolerance characteristics, irrigation remains essential for these crops if they are grown during dry  
293 seasons or in areas with low annual rainfall (Bussell and Bonin, 1998). Irrigation water  
294 application rates higher (i.e., 150%) than the daily ET requirement is even recommended to  
295 maximize taro yield (Uyeda et al., 2011).

296

297 We were also unable to analyze the difference in drought sensitivity of yam, taro, and yautia due  
298 to the limited data available in the literature. As noted before, studies examining the effects of

299 drought on root/tuber crops, already low in absolute number, have primarily focused on potato,  
300 sweet potato, and cassava with only scant information on other tubers such as yam and taro.  
301 Thus, as a group, root/tuber crops are insufficiently studied or under exploited despite their often  
302 so-called “potentials”. Some of these potentials include their ability to produce yield under  
303 suboptimal conditions (e.g., drought; Cock, 1982) or their nutritional values. Taro, for example,  
304 has comparable nutritional value to potato (Talwana et al., 2009). Similarly, sweet potato  
305 outranks most “energy food” in terms of the vitamins, minerals, dietary fiber, and protein that it  
306 also provides (Mukhopadhyay et al., 2011). Along the same line, one may also note the case of  
307 yam. Although the extent of drought sensitivity and yield reduction of yams is unknown due to a  
308 paucity of experimental data, yam may exhibit considerable drought tolerance given some of the  
309 xerophytic features observed in the young plants, traits that are rarely found in other crops. After  
310 surviving a dry period, the new yam plants emerge with considerable vine length expansion  
311 (sometimes exceeding two meters) without forming new leaves. These vines, which initially  
312 obtain moisture and nutrients from the parent tuber, are also covered with a waxy bloom that  
313 reduces moisture loss as the plant continues to develop (Asiedu and Sartie, 2010).

314

### 315 **3.2 Phenological effects**

316 Similar to the findings reported in previous studies (Monneveux et al., 2013; Okogbenin et al.,  
317 2013; Onwoume and Charles, 1994), our results indicated that root/tuber crops generally  
318 experienced greater yield loss when droughts occur during tuber initiation (mid-season drought)  
319 and during tuber enlargement or bulking (late-season drought) than during their vegetative  
320 growth (early-season drought) (Fig. 3). Water stress for up to two months during the vegetative  
321 growth only delays normal growth in cassava, and the plant can resume growth once water

322 becomes available ([Lebot, 2009](#)). Significant differences exist, however, between sweet potato  
323 and potato with regard to the leaf-level response of these crops to water stress. Sweet potato  
324 leaves wilt permanently at a much lower water potential (-1.3 MPa; [Ravi and Indira, 1999](#)) than  
325 potato leaves (-0.6 and -1.0 MPa in young and mature leaves, respectively; [Levy et al., 2013](#)) .  
326 Subsequent water stress during tuber bulking leads to malformation of tubers in potatoes, as well  
327 as to reduction in the number and size of the tubers ([Monneveux et al., 2013](#)). Both cassava and  
328 sweet potato are particularly sensitive to drought during storage root initiation, a period that  
329 typically occurs after the first three months of growth for cassava ([Okogbenin et al., 2013](#)), and  
330 between 4-7 weeks after planting for sweet potato ([Onwoume and Charles, 1994](#)). Since very  
331 little initiation of storage roots occurs after seven weeks, the final number of tubers is virtually  
332 determined by this critical period ([Onwoume and Charles, 1994](#)). With the remaining period  
333 after tuber initiation is devoted to tuber enlargement, it is unsurprising that we did not find any  
334 difference in sensitivity between mid- and late-season droughts (Fig. 4). Water stress during late-  
335 season drought usually induces lignification of storage roots in sweet potato which later impede  
336 their growth ([Ravi and Indira, 1999](#)).

337

338 Although potatoes, sweet potatoes, and taros are highly sensitive to water deficit after planting  
339 ([Lebot, 2009](#); [Monneveux et al., 2013](#)), our analysis did not capture this response since, in most  
340 studies, good emergence and early growth are typically allowed in order to study the effect of  
341 drought treatments in subsequent physiological phases. Yam is probably the only species within  
342 the root/tuber group with reported high drought-tolerance shortly after planting. As the young  
343 plant is devoid of leaves (and therefore has very low transpiration), it can tap most of its early  
344 moisture needs from the ‘mother’ tuber ([Lebot, 2009](#)). If moisture stress continues, however,

345 tuberization can be delayed, negatively impacting yield (Lebot, 2009). While yams can survive  
346 in areas with low annual rainfall (i.e., between 500-700 mm), higher amount of water  
347 (approximately 1500 mm) during the total growth cycle is required to ensure high yield (Lebot,  
348 2009).

349

### 350 **3.3 Effects of agro-ecological region**

351 We found that yield responses and sensitivities to drought were similar across eco-regions (i.e.,  
352 dryland vs non-dryland) (Figs. 5 & 6). The lack of significant differences between the yield of  
353 tubers in the dryland and the non-dryland region is intriguing given the low relative humidity and  
354 high temperature of dryland regions which increase the potential evapotranspiration demand.  
355 While the underlying mechanisms could be complex, a recent study by Vicente-Serrano et al.  
356 (2013) suggested that the sensitivity of land biomes to drought was likely to be determined by  
357 the persistence of the water deficit (i.e., the drought time-scale). Research at the global biome  
358 level indicated that plants of humid regions, while having low tolerance to drought, also had fast  
359 recovery to water stress (Vicente-Serrano et al., 2013). Since our study focused on examining  
360 short-term drought experiments, we suggested that plant recovery could contribute to root/tuber  
361 crop resilience to drought. The center of origin of potato, sweet potato, and cassava were thought  
362 to be around Central and South America (Bradshaw and Ramsay, 2009; Nassar et al., 2007;  
363 Srisuwan et al., 2006) and rapid plant recovery could contribute, to some extent, to the  
364 robustness of yield across contrasting agro-climatic regions. At cellular level, the ability of  
365 potatoes to increase their WUE with partial closure of stomata (Liu et al., 2005), for example,  
366 could be responsible for their relative production resilience. At mild water deficit, photosynthesis  
367 decreases less rapidly than stomatal conductance (Liu et al., 2005), enabling potato to maintain



368 the flow of assimilates to storage organs at lower evapotranspiration rate. Identifying the  
369 mechanisms of plant response to drought, including improving WUE in other root/tuber crops,  
370 opens the possibility of using water saving techniques to optimize the use of irrigation water.  
371 This opportunity is also available for other species (e.g., yam) in which cultivars with varying  
372 degree of drought tolerance have been identified in Asia and Africa (Lebot, 2009). In African  
373 drylands, yams are deliberately planted during the beginning of the dry season due to their  
374 resistance to drought (Lebot, 2009). Yams can survive in areas with annual rainfall as low as 500  
375 mm (e.g., in south Madagascar) although yield potentials are low in these regions (Lebot, 2009).

376

### 377 **3.4 Effects of soil texture**

378 Greater yield reduction has been observed for roots and tubers planted on coarse soils compared  
379 to those planted on medium-textured soils under similar levels of water reduction (Figs. 7 & 8).  
380 Differences in soil texture usually correspond to their potential production capacity, including  
381 soil water-holding capacity. Medium- and fine-textured soils usually have higher water holding  
382 capacity than coarse-textured soils and, when available water is sufficient to produce yield,  
383 plants tend to become less responsive to any reduction in irrigation. We suggest that the presence  
384 of soil water reserve might be responsible for the lack of yield difference between crops planted  
385 on fine- and medium-textured soils, but not on the coarse-textured soil. An earlier examination of  
386 the effects of soil texture on potato yield also indicated that residual soil water provided most of  
387 the required water, and that irrigation larger than 40% ET had no beneficial effect on yield on  
388 medium-textured soils, but resulted in a significant yield increase in coarse-textured soils (Martin  
389 and Miller, 1983). This trend, however, is different from legumes which generally experience  
390 greater drought-induced yield loss in medium-textured soils ([Daryanto et al., 2015](#)). While the

391 reason for this discrepancy is unknown, differences in root structure and density might account  
392 for these observations. When water is a limiting factor, most plants usually allocate more  
393 biomass to the roots. Interestingly, a negative correlation between root biomass and tuber yield  
394 was reported for potato ([Tourneux et al., 2003](#)). Additionally, continuous potato root growth  
395 which has been observed until early senescence (Gregory and Simmonds, 1992) might also  
396 contribute to the lack of drought sensitivity. As for other root crops (e.g., cassava and sweet  
397 potato), they are able to extract water from deeper soil layers and therefore less likely to be  
398 affected by soil texture. Indeed, extensive and deep rooting systems have been shown to increase  
399 the resilience of cereal yield to drought across a range of soil texture (Daryanto et al., in review).

400

#### 401 **4. Conclusions**

402 Contrasting with the common belief that cassava and sweet potato are resistant to drought, our  
403 results indicated that, under similar water shortage conditions, these crops experienced yield  
404 reduction comparable to drought-sensitive species. Sweet potato even showed higher sensitivity  
405 to drought compared to potato. All root/tuber species were particularly sensitive to drought  
406 during the tuberization period, and this drought sensitivity was observed across contrasting agro-  
407 eco-regions and soil texture.

408

409 Roots and tubers have so far been regarded as inferior and neglected food crops even in areas  
410 where they are staples (Horton, 1988). For several decades, studies have examined the problems  
411 and potentials of root/tuber crops production, but limited progress has been made in improving  
412 the productivity of most of these crops under drought conditions. There are numerous challenges  
413 to the development of tuber and root crops, but an intensification of research (e.g., germplasm

414 conservation, improved cultivation methods) is a critical step toward that goal. Among the  
415 dominant root/tuber crops, yam has probably the greatest potential for development and genetic  
416 improvement in part due to its xerophytic characteristics, its ability to survive in areas with low  
417 annual rainfall, its long dormancy period, and its high nutritional content. As reviewed  
418 elsewhere for cassava ([Lebot, 2009](#); [Okogbenin et al., 2013](#); [Prochnik et al., 2012](#)), sweet potato  
419 ([Lebot, 2009](#); [Mukhopadhyay et al., 2011](#)), yam ([Asiedu and Sartie, 2010](#); [Lebot, 2009](#)), taro and  
420 yautia ([Lebot, 2009](#); [Onwoume and Charles, 1994](#)), available technologies (e.g., genetic  
421 modification, improvement of cultivation and irrigation methods) could help maintain the  
422 productivity of tuber crops in the face of a changing climate, and improve food security in the  
423 drought-prone regions of the world.

424

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428 software package.

429

430

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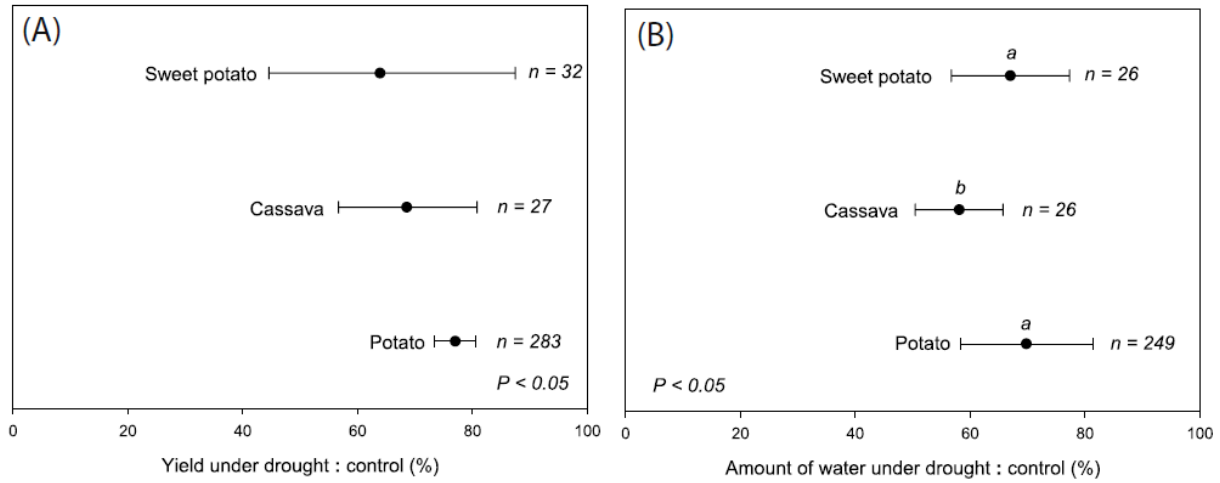
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549



550 **Figure Captions**



551

552 Fig. 1. Observed confidence intervals of drought-induced yield reduction for different root/tuber

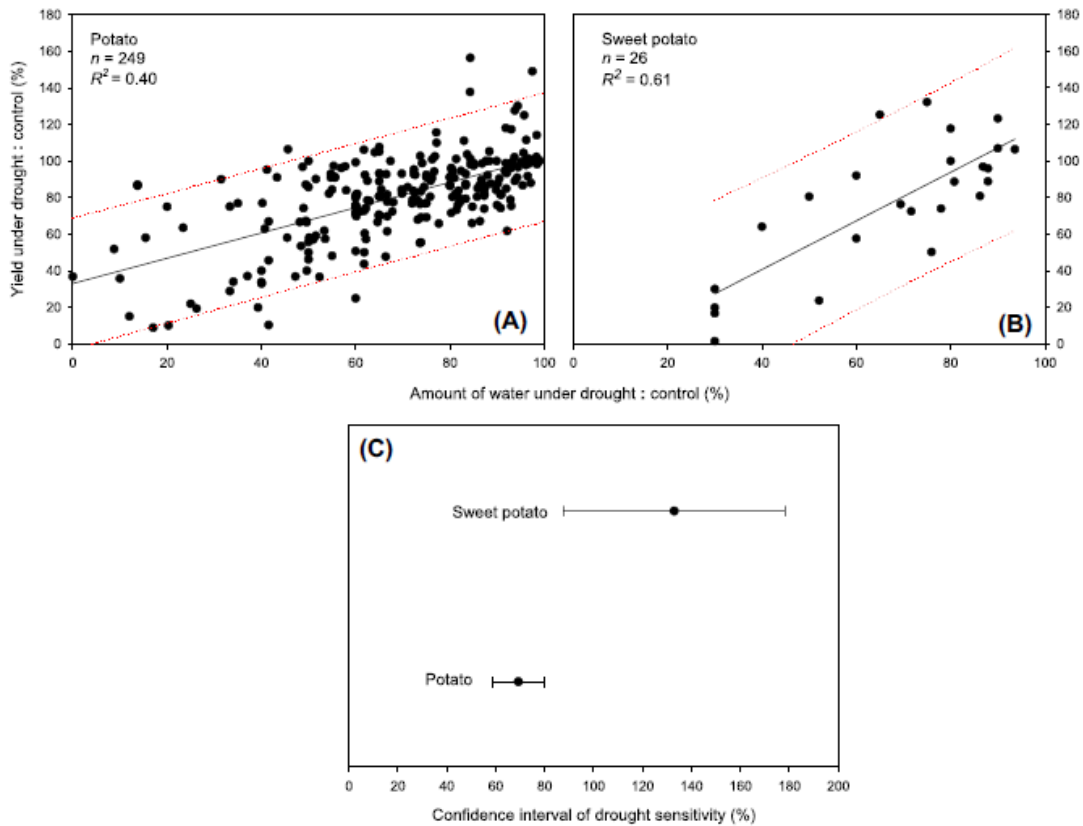
553 crops as determined by meta-analysis (A) and the corresponding water reduction for each species

554 (B). The yield reduction is the same if the species confidence intervals overlap with each other

555 (A). Letters *a* and *b* indicate significant difference between observed water reduction level (B).

556 Letter *n* indicates the number of samples for each categorical variable.

557

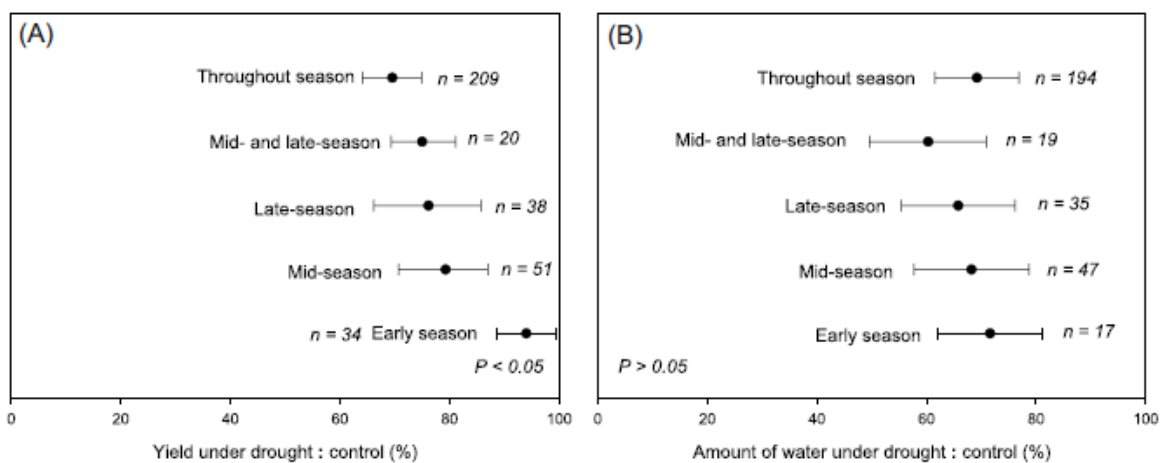


558

559 Fig. 2. Drought sensitivity (above) and confidence interval (below) of potato and sweet potato.

560 Dotted lines indicate 95% confidence band.

561



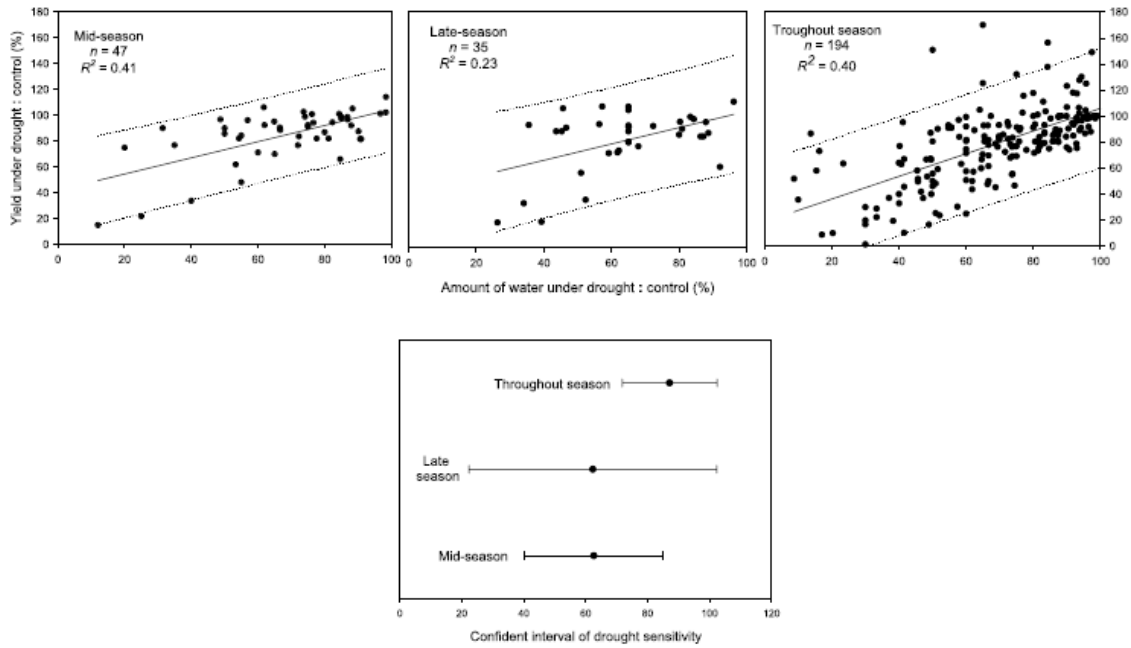
562

563 Fig. 3. Observed confidence intervals of drought-induced yield reduction of root/tuber crops as

564 determined by meta-analysis (A) and their corresponding water reduction during different

565 phenological phases (B). The yield reduction is the same if the confidence intervals overlap with  
 566 each other (A). Letter *n* indicates the number of samples for each category variable.

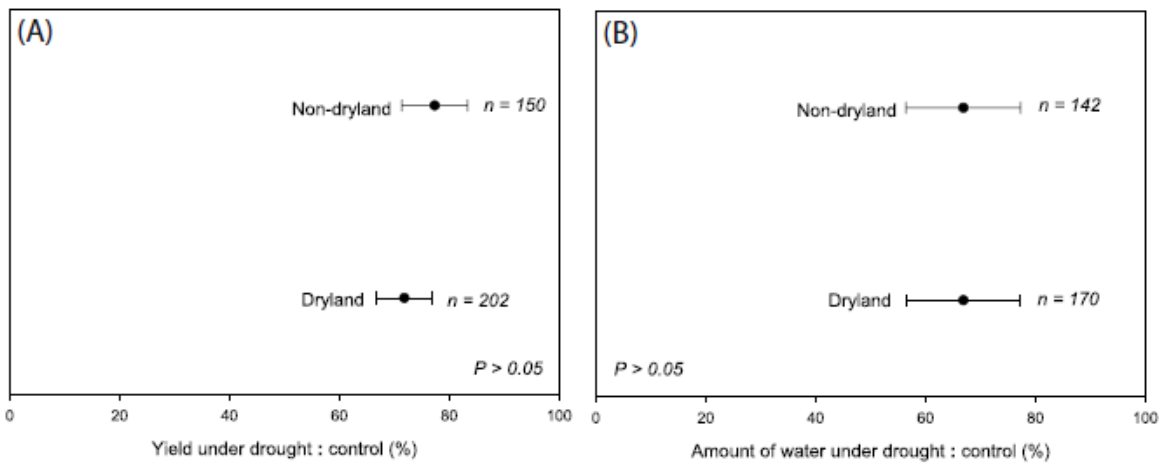
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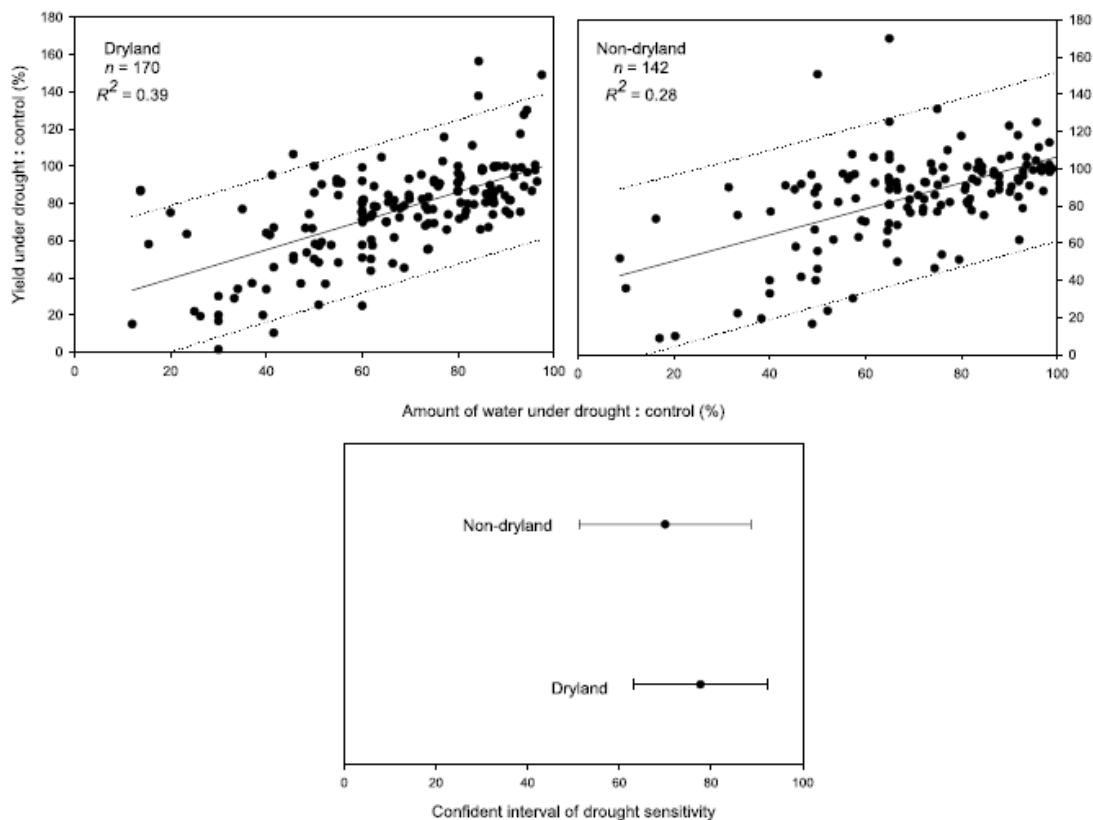
569 Fig. 4. Drought sensitivity (above) and confidence interval (below) of root/tuber crops during  
 570 different phenological phases. Dotted lines indicate 95% prediction band.

571

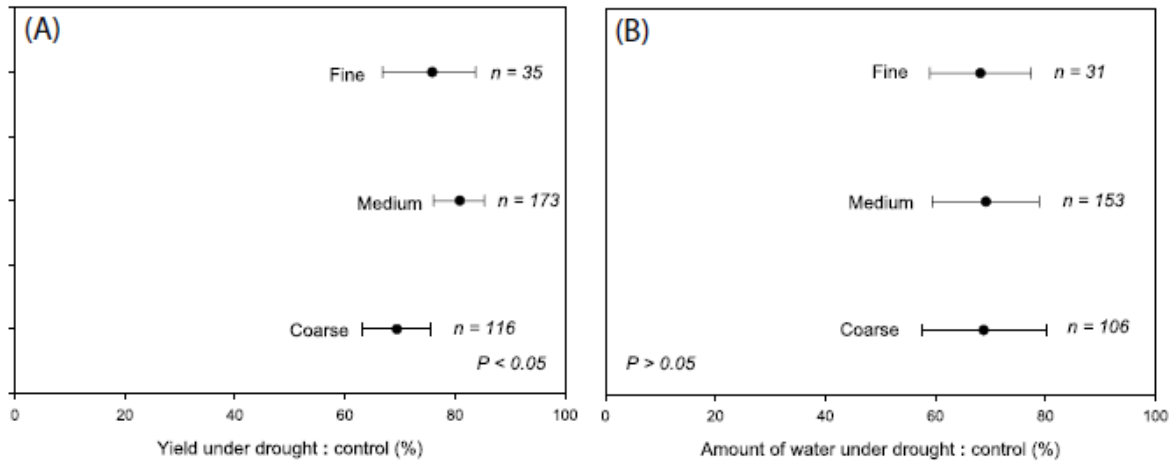


572

573 Fig. 5. Observed confidence interval of drought-induced yield reduction for root/tuber crops as  
 574 determined by meta-analysis (A) and their corresponding water reduction in dryland and non-  
 575 dryland regions (B). The yield reduction is the same if the confidence intervals overlap with each  
 576 other (A). Letter *n* indicates the number of samples for each categorical variable.  
 577



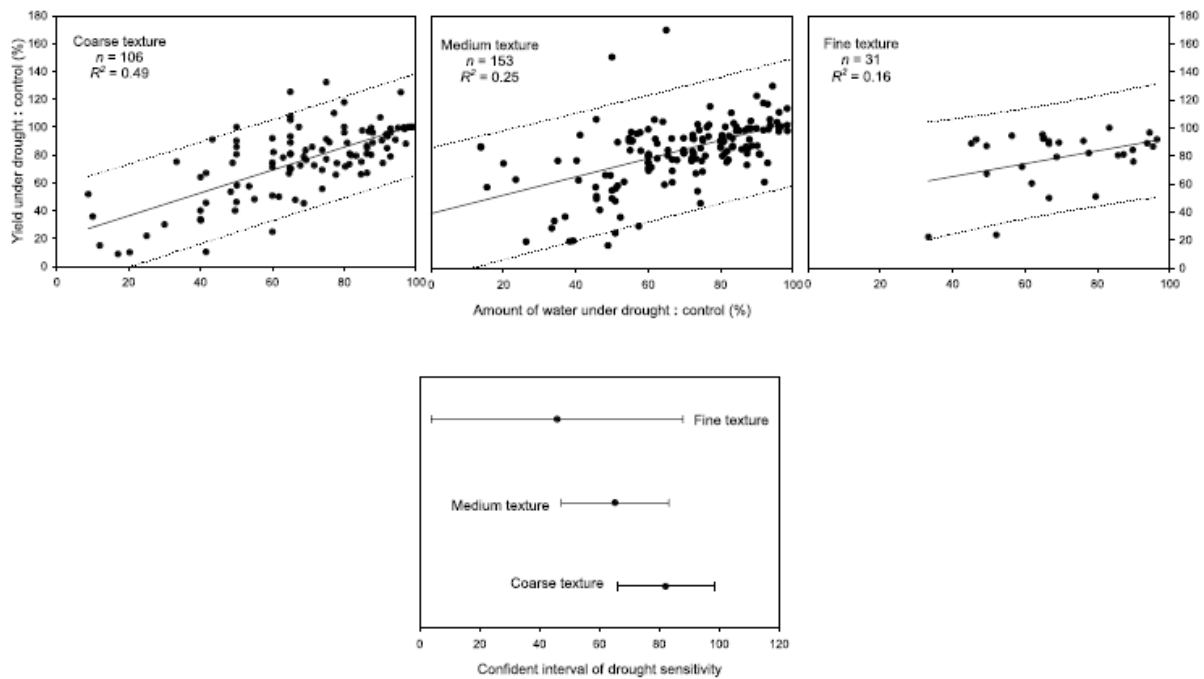
578  
 579 Fig. 6. Drought sensitivity (above) and confidence interval (below) of root/tuber crops in dryland  
 580 and non-dryland regions. Dotted lines indicate 95% prediction band.  
 581



582

583 Fig. 7. Observed confidence interval of drought-induced yield reduction for root/tuber crops  
 584 grown on soils of different texture as determined by meta-analysis (A) and their corresponding  
 585 water reduction (B). The yield reduction is the same if the confidence intervals overlap with each  
 586 other (A). Letter *n* indicates the number of samples for each categorical variable.

587



588

589 Fig. 8. Drought sensitivity (above) and confidence interval (below) of root/tuber crops grown on  
590 soils of different texture. Dotted lines indicate 95% prediction band.