

1 **Anatomical tool in the identification of ploids in maize**
2 **seedlings and potential use in initial stage of double haploides**
3 **obtainment process**

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5 Anatomical tool in the identificantion of ploids and potential use of double
6 haploides in maize

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26 **Abstract**

27 Studies that optimize the haploid technique in the removal of maize lines are necessary.
28 Between the stages that mostly requires attention and it is directly related to the success of
29 the technology is the correctly separation of induced haploids and diploids. Morphological
30 markers are commonly used but have strong influence of the environment, and laboratory
31 methods have been developed and may be more efficient. Thus, the objective was to study
32 the use of the anatomical analysis tool, through the analysis of young maize leaf for use as
33 the indirect markers in the identification of ploidy. The hybrids were crossed with the KEMS
34 haploid inducer. The seeds crossed, were selected according to the R-navajo marker and
35 submitted to two different protocols of chromosome duplication. Plants that survived to the
36 duplication protocols were acclimated in greenhouse and then transferred to the field. After
37 the self-pollination of the DH0 plants, the DH1 seeds were taken to the field, divided into
38 treatments according to the parentals and duplication protocols. At the vegetative stage V4 of
39 the plants, leaf tissue samples were collected to the evaluation of the amount of DNA and
40 identification of ploidy and anatomical analysis. The nuclear DNA review of each sample
41 was performed for the comparison in histograms of the position of G1 peak to the G1 peak of
42 the internal or external reference standard. A high accuracy came to validate an anatomical
43 tool, through the variables studied in this work, as a marker in the differentiation of ploidy in
44 maize plants, and it can be used in selection programs. The anatomy made in some letters is
45 a non-destructible technique and, together with a flow cytometry technique, can be used as
46 an indirect method in haploid cutting programs at the initial stage of the identification of
47 seedlings.

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52 Introduction

53 The success of a breeding program that aims at the production of maize commercial
54 hybrids lies in the fact of obtaining elite lines. Among all the steps, this is considered to be
55 the most time-consuming and costly, and the technology of double haploid emerges as a
56 way of reducing time in obtaining these lines [1].

57 The rapid production of homozygotic lines allows a better exploitation of genetic
58 variability and increases the efficiency of selection. Homozygous plants will have the
59 maximum additive variance, the effects of dominance and epistasis, and the advantages in
60 the selection of quantitative, superior characteristics [2]. In addition, the decrease of the
61 costs with labor, use of smaller experimental area and anticipation of profits in commercial
62 programs for maize breeding have made this technique a great success.

63 The production of double- haploid lines involves four main steps: in vivo induction of
64 haploidy, identification of possible haploids, chromosome doubling and the self-fertilization of
65 lines obtained for increment of seeds [3]. However, the success of this methodology is still
66 dependent on the use of inductors with high capacity of induction, a precise system of
67 identification and differentiation of haploid and diploid seeds, as well as efficient and
68 reproducible protocols of chromosome doubling [4].

69 The doubling of the chromosome number spontaneously or induced by the application of
70 mitotic agents e.g., colchicine, retrieves the diploid condition and restores fertility [5]. The
71 action mechanism of colchicine involves the irreversible connection to tubulin dimers,
72 causing a conformational change and preventing the polymerization of mitotic spindle, and
73 as a result, the newly duplicated chromosomes are not separate and the core reorganizes
74 with the number of duplicated chromosomes [6]. However, not all cells of the treated tissue
75 polyploidize, which can lead to the formation of chimeras, i.e., tissues or plants with duplicate
76 sectors and others unduplicated ones [7] called mixoploids. Truly duplicated lines resulting
77 from this process are called duplicate or double haploids (DHs).

78 There are several methods for certification of polyploidization, being flow cytometry the
79 most used one [8]. Flow cytometry is a reliable and fast method, because it allows the
80 analysis of a large number of cells and of different tissues [9]. In experiments with double
81 haploids, flow cytometry allows vigorous seedlings and detected as diploids in the
82 histograms are discarded before the step of field, reducing time and space. In addition, flow
83 cytometry allows the analysis of the efficiency of the protocol of chromosome doubling, since
84 it is not possible to confirm if the response of seedlings to duplication was positive [10–12].

85 Another tool that is being studied as a marker in the differentiation of ploidies in plants is
86 the leaf anatomy, being the leaf considered the component with greater ability to adapt to
87 environmental conditions. Highly flexible, leaf anatomy is influenced by environmental
88 factors, such as, irradiation (leaves of sunlight/shade, [13], nutrients [14], drought [15] and
89 ozone [16,17]. Changes in the leaves characteristics, such as those related to the thickness
90 of the leaf blade, parenchymas, epidermis and number of stomata for example, and that are
91 highly associated with the photosynthetic potential of plants, are used in studies of genetic
92 selection by the use of morphological and anatomical markers. Additionally, they are highly
93 heritable characteristics, i.e., can be passed to their offspring [18].

94 The cytoanatomic characterization is a methodology that allows the identification of
95 haploid and supposed polyploidy in plants subjected to chromosome doubling. The study of
96 measurement and comparison of stomata, based on the principle that the length of the same
97 normally increases with the number of chromosomes, is the most commonly cited in the
98 literature [19].

99 The number of stomata in association with other leaf anatomical characteristics, has
100 already been mapped to different levels of ploidy in studies with coffee plants [20]. For this
101 species, the greater the number of stomata the higher the ploidy. In the case of *Coffea*
102 *canephora*, a reduction in the stomatal density is higher in the tetraploid level for some
103 cultivars [20]. [21], observed in Citrus that the size and density of stomata varied according to
104 ploidy level, where the triploids showed a higher number of stomata when compared to

105 diploid plants. A similar result was observed by [22], who stated to be possible the use of
106 anatomical markers for purposes of selection of citrus with different levels of ploidy.

107 Ploidy is well studied from the point of view of genetics and genomic perspective, but the
108 morphological and anatomical aspects related to these differences in the amount of DNA,
109 remain poorly studied in maize plants. Analyzing the anatomical characteristics of young
110 leaves of maize, capable of discriminating the different ploidies and extrapolate these results
111 in diploid and haploid discrimination on the optimization of the process of obtaining double
112 haploid is of extreme importance.

113 Thus, the objective of this work was to study the use of anatomical tool, through the
114 analysis of the characteristics of young leaves of maize for use as indirect markers in the
115 identification of ploidies, and through future studies, to extrapolate the use of this marker in
116 the identification of haploids in the initial stage of the process of obtaining double haploids.

117

118 **Material and methods**

119 The seeds used in this work were obtained from an experiment previously developed by
120 [23] through the cross between four simple hybrids (DKB393, GNS 3225, GNS 3264, GNS
121 3032) with the haploid inducer KEMS, used as male parental. Seeds from these crosses
122 were separated by staining of the embryo and endosperm and selected as possible haploids
123 according with the marker R-navajo [24].

124 The authors submitted the haploid seeds to two chromosome duplication protocols, and
125 the plants that survived the field, called DH0, that produced pollen and had stigma style in
126 synchronism, were self-fertilized, resulting in DH1 generation.

127 Thus, in this present work, in order to evaluate the maintenance of DH in future
128 generations, the DH1 ears were harvested and the seeds threshed and dried at room
129 temperature up to 12% moisture level at the point of physiological maturity. The seeds were
130 then mixed and divided into treatments as shown in Table 1. These seeds were then stored
131 in a cold chamber at 10 ° C until the following experiments were carried out.

132 **Table 1.** Treatments taken for the field in the harvest season 2014/2015, established in
133 accordance with the parental and the protocols of chromosome doubling.

Materials Identification		
Treatments	Hybrids	Protocols
1	DKB393	1
2	DKB393	2
3	GNS3225	1
4	GNS3225	2
5	GNS3264	1
6	GNS3264	2
7	GNS3032	1
8	GNS3032	2

134

135 In the harvest season 2014/2015, the total number of seeds DH1 for each treatment,
136 was taken to the field and the experimental design was a randomized complete blocks with
137 eight treatments with four replications. Each block was composed by lines of 10 meters of
138 length, with spacing of 80 cm between rows and among plants of 25 cm, and sowing of a
139 seed per hole. The collection of leaf material occurred in young stage of the plant maize, with
140 4 replicates collected at random within each treatment.

141 In the case of leaf anatomy, 5 replicates were performed for each repetition in the
142 laboratory, five blades of 10 sections each, were made, and the top five fields were
143 photographed and subsequently measured. The following were measured: thickness of the
144 leaf blade (ELF), thickness of the parenchyma (PAR), thickness of the upper epidermis
145 (EES) and lower epidermis (EEI), polar diameter of the stomata in the upper face (DPS) and
146 lower (DPI), equatorial diameter of the stomata of superior face (DES) and lower face (DEI)
147 and stomatal density on the upper surface (DS) and lower (DI). For that, in the vegetative

148 stage V4 which corresponds to the development of four leaves, leaf tissue samples were
149 collected.

150 For that, in the vegetative stage V4 which corresponds to the development of four
151 leaves, leaf tissue samples were collected.

152 For both evaluations, the medial portion of the young leaves fully developed, was cut
153 into segments of approximately 3 cm in length and wrapped in aluminum paper duly
154 identified per plant. Aluminum papers remained in a polystyrene box containing recyclable
155 crushed ice, until the time of transportation to the laboratory of tissue culture of plants of the
156 Department of Agriculture of UFLA.

157 At the opening of each envelope of aluminum, part of the samples of leaf tissue was
158 used for the quantification of DNA and part to the anatomical analysis. Therefore, young leaf
159 tissue samples of maize were crushed under ice, in Petri plates containing 1 mL of cold
160 buffer LB01, to obtain nuclear suspension [25], which was added 2,5µL RNase and stained
161 with 25 µL of propidium iodide (1 mg mL⁻¹). The species *Vicia faba* (quantity of DNA of 26.9
162 pg/2C) was used as an external standard of reference and for each sample at least 10
163 thousand cores were analyzed. Each suspension was analyzed in flow cytometry
164 FacsCalibur (Becton Dickinson). The histograms obtained were evaluated by the WinMDI
165 software 2.8 (2009) for the evaluation of the peaks of DNA. The estimate of the nuclear DNA
166 content (pg) of each sample was performed by comparing the position of the peak G1 with
167 the peak G1 of the internal standard or external reference.

168 For this comparison the following expression was used:

169

$$170 \quad Q = \left(\frac{E}{S}\right) \times R \quad (1)$$

171

172 Where:

173 Q is the quantity of DNA of the evaluated sample (pg/2C).

174 E is the position of the G1 peak of the sample.

175 S is the position of the peak G1 reference standard and

176 R is the quantity of DNA of the standard sample (26.9 pg/2C).

177 By the quantity of DNA it was possible to make inferences about the ploidy level of the
178 evaluated genotypes.

179 As mentioned, the other part of the samples of leaf tissue was immediately fixed in
180 FAA₅₀, (formaldehyde: acetic acid: ethanol, 5:5:90) for 48 h. Then, the samples were
181 removed from the fixative solution, rinsed and stored in 70% ethanol solution [26]. At this
182 moment the samples were transported to the Laboratory of Anatomy and morphogenesis of
183 Plant Biology Department of the Federal University of Viçosa, where permanent slides were
184 made using portions of the leaf that were dehydrated in ethyl series included in historresin
185 (methacrylate), according to the manufacturer's recommendations. Transverse sections of
186 leaf were sectioned in automatic advance rotary microtome (model RM2155, Leica
187 Microsystems Inc., Deerfield, USA) with 5 µm thick, arranged on histological slides and
188 stained with toluidine blue [27], to the limbal micro morphometry.

189 For the stomata evaluations, fragments of the central part of the leaf blade were
190 sectioned from material stored in alcohol 70%. The samples were clarified by means of the
191 technique of Diaphanization, described by [28] and modified for the species, having been
192 clarified in methanol for 48 hours and then in lactic acid for 6 hours in water bath for 98 °C
193 and assembled into lactic acid. After the staining procedure, the samples were immersed in
194 ethanol 80, 70 and 50%, and later were rinsed in distilled water. The histological slides with
195 leaf fragments were mounted on glycerol-jelly Images of the slides of cross cuts and
196 diaphanization were obtained under a light microscope (model AX-70 TRF, Olympus Optical,
197 Tokyo, Japan) coupled to a digital camera (model Zeiss AxioCam HRc, Göttinger, Germany)
198 and a microcomputer with the program to capture images Axion Vision, having been digitized
199 and stored in a microcomputer. For the analysis, 10 distinct fields of each sample were
200 measured by means of Image-Pro® Plus software (version 4.1, Media Cybernetics, Inc.,
201 Silver Spring, USA).

202 The analyzes were performed for all characters with the estimation of variance
203 components and the prediction of random effects using the approach of mixed models, the
204 method of restricted maximum likelihood/best linear unbiased prediction (REML/BLUP) [29].
205 For this, the following statistical model was used:

206

$$207 \quad y = Xr + Za + Wp + e \quad (2)$$

208

209 Where:

210 y : vector of data;

211 R : vector of the effects of repetition (assumed as fixed) added to the overall average;

212 A : vector of genotypic effects among treatments (random), being $a \sim \text{NMV}(0, I\sigma_g^2)$. σ_g^2
213 is the variance associated with genotypic among treatments;

214 p : vector of genotypic effects among treatments (random), being $p \sim \text{NMV}(0, I\sigma_p^2)$. σ_p^2

215 is the variance associated with the parcels effects;

216 e : vector of random errors, and $\sim \text{NMV}(0, I\sigma_e^2)$. σ_e^2 is the variance associated with
217 the residual effects;

218 X , Z and W : incidence matrices for r , and p , respectively.

219 The heritability in the average of treatments (h_m^2) and accuracy were estimated, and
220 the significance of the random effects as the genotypic variance among treatments (σ_g^2) were
221 tested by the *Likelihood Ratio Tests* (LRT) where the analyses of deviance were obtained for
222 each character evaluated [30].

223 These statistical analyzes were performed using the software SELEGEN-
224 REML/BLUP [29].

225

226 Results

227 For all the evaluated characteristics the accuracy was classified as very high [31],
228 with values above 87.0%. On average, the heritability (h_m^2) of the characteristics was also
229 high with values above 84.0%, what indicates good reliability of data (Table 2). The
230 heritabilities of treatments ranged from 76.0% (EES) to 98.0% (DEI) among the evaluated
231 characteristics, which demonstrates that in the anatomic evaluation in this experiment, the
232 largest part of the variation observed is due to genetic causes to the detriment of
233 environmental variations [32].

234 The genotypic variance was highly significant by the LRT test and likelihood ratio for
235 the characters related to the thickness of the leaf blade (ELF), stomatal density of both the
236 upper surface (DS), as well as the lower surface (DI), thickness of the parenchyma (PAR),
237 thickness of the upper epidermis (EES) and lower epidermis (EEI), polar and equatorial
238 diameter of upper epidermis (DES and DPS) and lower (DEI and DPI), according to LRT (P
239 < 0.01), characterizing these characteristics as good candidates to be inserted in a breeding
240 program as markers. It was possible to realize that the characteristics related to the
241 thickness of the lamina and those related to the stomata were the ones that showed higher
242 heritability, followed by the thickness of the parenchyma. The thickness of the epidermis,
243 even with high heritability, were lower (Table 2).

244 **Table 2. Summary of ANADEV and estimates of genetic parameters in the evaluation of maize hybrids for traits.** Thickness of the leaf
 245 blade (ELF), thickness of the upper epidermis (ESS), thickness of the parenchyma (PAR), thickness of the lower epidermis (EEI), equatorial
 246 diameter of the stomata in the upper face (DES), polar diameter of the stomata in the upper face (DPS), Equatorial surface of the stomata in the
 247 lower face (DEI), polar diameter of the stomata of the lower phase (DPI) and stomata densities of upper surfaces (DS) and lower (DI) of the
 248 leaf.

Parameters	ELF	EES	PAR	EEI	DES	DPS	DEI	DPI	DS	DI
$VG_{\text{between}} (\hat{\sigma}_g^2)$	0.000235*	0.000011*	0.000092*	0.000007*	0.000013*		0.000024*	0.000011*	44.539206*	286.20*
LRT among treatments	*	*	*	*	*	0.00001**	*	*	*	*
$VG_{\text{within}} (\hat{\sigma}_p^2)$	82.36	14.84	60.19	28.25	134.79	125.70	200.61	189.59	20.36	67.65
LRT within treatment	0.000002	0.000001	0.000001	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.000000	0.8338 ^{ns}	1.2856
	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
$h^2_{\text{mg}} (\%)$	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.07	0.00	0.01	0.00
$AC_{\text{gen}} (\%)$	93.2**	76.2**	91.0**	84.2**	96.8**	96.2**	98.1**	97.3**	84.8**	94.9**
	96.6	87.3	95.4	91.8	98.4	98.1	99.0	98.7	92.1	97.4

249 ** Significant and ^{ns} Non significant by the likelihood ratio test (LTR), with 1% of probability.

250

251 The anatomical differences observed were obtained through anatomical cuts
 252 and diaphanization of samples. It was possible to observe a difference in leaf blade as
 253 the thickness (Fig 1) and quantity and size of the stomata (Fig 2).

254

255 **Fig 1. Cross-sectional cuts of maze leaves collected after a process of**
 256 **chromosome doubling with use of colchicine.** Haploid material (A), diploid (B),
 257 Double haploid (C), triploid (D) and tetraploid (E). ELF= thickness of leaf blade, PAR=
 258 thickness of parenchyma, EP=epidermis and ES= stomata. The bars represent 50 μ m.
 259

260 **Fig 2. Adaxial surface (A to E) and abaxial (F through J) of maze leaves collected**
 261 **after a process of chromosome doubling with use of colchicine.** Haploid material
 262 (A and F), diploid (B and G), Double haploid (C and H), triploid (D and I) and
 263 tetraploid (E and J). The bars represent 50 μ m and arrows indicate stomata.
 264

265 In Table 3, it is observed that the treatment 7 presented the highest values of
 266 ELF, ESS, EEI and held until the third position in the ranking for PR, DEI, DS. While
 267 the treatment 6 occupied until the second position to ELF, ESS, PR, DPS and DPI. The
 268 treatments 1 and 5 occupied the last two positions to ELF, EES, PR, EEI, DES, DPS,
 269 DEI and DPI.

270

271 **Table 3. Genotypic averages and ranking of treatments for the anatomical**
 272 **characteristics related to leaf blade.** Leaf blade thickness (ELF), thickness of the
 273 upper epidermis (ESS), thickness of the parenchyma (PAR), thickness of the lower
 274 epidermis (EEI), equatorial diameter of the stomata in the upper face (DES), polar
 275 diameter of the stomata in the upper face (DPS), polar and equatorial diameter of the
 276 stomata in the lower face (DEI) and (DPI), stomatal density of the upper surfaces (DS)
 277 and lower (DI) of maze leaves collected after a process of chromosome doubling with
 278 use of colchicine.
 279

ELF		EES		PAR		EEI		DES	
Treat.	\bar{X} BLUP	Treat.	\bar{X} BLUP	Treat.	\bar{X} BLUP	Treat.	\bar{X} BLUP	Treat.	\bar{X} BLUP
7	0.1375	7	0.0305	6	0.0858	7	0.0234	8	0.0378
6	0.1334	6	0.0284	7	0.0843	3	0.0215	3	0.0075
3	0.1237	2	0.0284	3	0.0761	8	0.0208	1	0.0075
8	0.1211	3	0.0284	8	0.0760	6	0.0189	4	0.0075
2	0.1112	8	0.0261	4	0.0664	2	0.0188	2	0.0075
4	0.1062	4	0.0249	2	0.0654	4	0.0173	7	0.0075
1	0.0957	5	0.0238	1	0.0621	1	0.0160	6	0.0075
5	0.0932	1	0.0218	5	0.0586	5	0.0155	5	0.0075
Mean	0.1152	-	0.0266	-	0.0719	-	0.0190	-	0.0113
DPS		DEI		DPI		DS		DI	
Treat.	\bar{X} BLUP	Treat.	\bar{X} BLUP	Treat.	\bar{X} BLUP	Treat.	\bar{X} BLUP	Treat.	\bar{X} BLUP
8	0.0315	8	0.0433	8	0.0325	5	60.5125	5	110.2138

6	0.0270	3	0.0369	6	0.0284	1	51.5084	1	93.7531
3	0.0260	7	0.0326	3	0.0277	7	51.4221	4	93.4814
5	0.0238	6	0.0320	2	0.0240	6	51.2206	7	82.2563
7	0.0233	1	0.0300	5	0.0235	4	49.0210	6	78.8012
4	0.0233	2	0.0291	4	0.0235	3	46.3618	2	73.8440
2	0.0230	5	0.0288	7	0.0236	2	43.5809	3	70.7177
1	0.0213	4	0.0286	1	0.0214	8	37.8325	8	51.1355
Mean	0.0249	-	0.0326	-	0.0255	-	48.9325	-	81.7754

280

281 The importance or contribution of each analyzed variable as a possible marker
 282 in the separation of the tested plants, demonstrates greater relevance of the thickness
 283 of the leaf blade and the stomata, while the thickness of epidermis little contributed to
 284 the separation of plants. (Fig 3).

285

286 **Fig 3. The relative importance of the characteristics evaluated in the separation**
 287 **of the valuated materials.**

288

289 In parallel to the anatomical analyzes and with the aim of inferring the real
 290 ploidies observed in the tested materials, the DNA quantification was performed by flow
 291 cytometry technique in 32 selected plants (Table 4). The histograms obtained by this
 292 method allows for the identification of the ploidy level of the individuals tested through
 293 the location of the G1 peak of the sample on the axis of the relative intensity of
 294 fluorescence (Fig 4). The dominant peaks generated in the histograms are relative to
 295 the quantity of DNA of the cores in the G1 phase of the cell cycle. The estimate of the
 296 ploidy level is done by comparing the G1 peaks of the histogram of a sample with the
 297 peak of a plant-standard with known ploidy [25].

298 Maize diploids have the peak G1, located in the region of relative intensity of
 299 fluorescence, soon after the mark of 10^2 (Fig 4A). The haploids have lower relative
 300 intensity of fluorescence and the peak G1 is located to the left of the mark of 10^2 , i.e.,
 301 dislocated in the direction of the x axis (Fig 4B). Whereas the triploids and the
 302 tetraploids have still greater intensity than the diploids, locating at the right of the mark
 303 of 10^2 and with higher peaks (fig not shown). Whereas the Double haploid plants, are
 304 those that have ploidies haploid/diploid type (Fig 4C).

305 Usually, an association of the histogram obtained with a histogram of a
 306 standard plan is performed, for example, *Vicia faba*, used by [10,11,33]. The use of
 307 standard allows to obtain the quantity of DNA contained in the sample.

308

309 **Fig 4. Histograms of ploidies detected by flow cytometry in maize plants**
 310 **collected after a process of chromosome doubling with use of colchicine. A.**
 311 **Diploid Plant B. Haploid Plant. C. Double haploid Plant.** Vertical axis = number of
 312 read cores; horizontal axis = relative intensity of fluorescence. The arrows show the
 313 peaks G1 and G2 and the external standard of reference.
 314

315 **Table 4. Identification of the ploidy level in agreement with the analysis of flow**
 316 **cytometry and flow of 32 plants evaluated divided by treatment.**

317

Treatments	Ploidies found
1	Haploid Haploid Haploid Double haploid
2	Haploid Diploid Diploid Diploid
3	Diploid Diploid Haploid Diploid
4	Haploid Diploid Diploid Haploid
5	Haploid Haploid Haploid Haploid
6	Diploid Diploid Diploid Diploid
7	Diploid Diploid Diploid Diploid
8	Triploid Triploid Diploid

318

319

320 **Discussion**

321 It was possible through the analysis of mixed model to verify the existence of
322 variability in the anatomical characteristics, i.e., there is a difference among the tested
323 materials ($P < 0.01$) (Table 1). In addition, these variables showed a quality required for
324 insertion in a breeding program, with the aim of separation of evaluated materials [34].
325 The heritability and accuracy obtained were high in accordance with the classification
326 made by [31] (Table 1). The fact of the evaluated anatomical characteristics have
327 potential for use in selection programs is of extreme importance, since these
328 characteristics may be associated with the photosynthetic potential of plants, i.e., the
329 productive capacity of plant material, leaves, roots and seeds.

330 The thickness of the leaf blade (ELF), has a crucial role not only in the capacity
331 of carbon fixation by the chloroplasts of the palisade parenchyma, but also by the
332 internal storage of CO_2 by sponge parenchyma [35]. While the stomata are the
333 channels of influence of CO and the flow of water vapor. For the plants to be effective,
334 they must balance the gaseous exchanges carried out through these structures to
335 maximize the absorption of CO_2 for photosynthesis and minimize the loss of water
336 through transpiration. Thus increasing the efficiency of the use of the water and
337 consequently the plasticity of the plant in the face of environmental changes. A
338 program that aims at obtaining hybrids with greater adaptive capacity, seems a major
339 bottleneck of agriculture through the global climate changes [36].

340 The stomata behavior, therefore, controls the volume of CO_2 in the intercellular
341 spaces of the leaf for photosynthesis. Even if the maze as plant of C_4 metabolism is
342 able through the mechanisms of CO_2 concentration, to maintain an adequate quantity
343 of C for photosynthesis [37], the stomatal density and the size of the stomata are

344 important characteristics to maximize efficiency. Once that, in spite of the area of the
345 pores of the stomata represent less than 3% of the total area of the leaf, about 98% of
346 all the absorbed CO₂ and water lost occurs by these pores [38].

347 The anatomical characteristics of the stomata define the stomatal conductance
348 (*gs*), theoretical maximum [39], i.e., the functionality of the same and also influence the
349 speed of response. The *maximum gs* relates to the size and density of stomata, which
350 can be influenced by the environment of growth [40,41]. However, as in this study, all
351 the plants were grown in the same environment, we can consider that the density and
352 the pattern of size, influenced by the atmospheric concentration of CO₂, water
353 availability [42] and light [43], varied according to the genetic characteristics of each
354 tested hybrid. This reinforces the importance of the anatomical characters as early
355 markers of separation of hybrids used in this study.

356 Experimental evidences showed that the density of stomata is negatively
357 correlated with the stomata size [40,41]. The interaction/correlation among stomata
358 size and density, and the impact on stomatal function has received much attention,
359 particularly with reference to the evolution of the performance and plasticity in plants
360 [41]. Evidence from several studies have also suggested that smaller stomata respond
361 faster than larger stomata, an observation that has been explained in the context of
362 relations surface-volume and the requirement for ck to boost the movement [44].

363 The selection of plants grown with changes in the density of stomata to increase
364 the performance of plants has been widely exploited [38,45], with limited success. The
365 increase of the stomatal density can increase the *gs* and the photosynthetic rate can
366 become 30% greater in conditions of high brightness [46].

367 The increase of photosynthesis can encourage the increase in weight, as
368 already mentioned. Increase in the weight of seed has also been associated with
369 induced polyploidy [47]. What can potentiate the vigor and germination of seeds,
370 favoring the formation of a more homogeneous stand. However, the manipulation of

371 functional stomate responses is clearly more complicated, requiring a thorough
372 understanding of the metabolism of the manipulated plant.

373 The use of these anatomical characteristics of the leaf is widely used for
374 identifying the levels of ploidy in many species of plants, such as alfalfa [48],
375 *Gossypium* [49], *Dactylis* [50], ryegrass [51], wheat [52] and *Bromus inermis* [53,54]. In
376 coffee the density of stomata decreased while its size increased with an increase in the
377 ploidy level, with the lower density found in the tetraploids and higher in the diploids
378 [20]. Genotypic differences in stomatal frequency and length of the guard cells were
379 also observed in barley [55], soybean [56] Triticale [57,58]. These studies demonstrate
380 the possibility of the use of anatomical markers with mechanism for identification of
381 ploidy.

382 In the present, it is verified the contribution of the ten variables evaluated in
383 separate studied plants and coincides with what is reported in the literature in relation
384 to the great importance of the stomata. Carefully observing the relative contribution of
385 each trait, it is verified that the variables associated to the stomata represent,
386 altogether, approximately 50% of the contribution of separation (Fig 3).

387 The high contribution of leaf blade is due to its constitution. The leaf blade is
388 composed by parenchyma, in which chloroplasts and spaces for CO₂ storage are
389 located, in addition of course, all the other components of the leaf. Therefore its
390 relevance is easily understandable and the importance of variables related to the
391 stomata is also evident, reinforcing what is already described in several academic
392 articles.

393 In addition it is possible to suggest that the anatomic variables, as possible
394 markers were efficient on grouping even partially the hybrids (Tables 2 and 3).
395 Behavior that reinforces what has been described above, where the traits were efficient
396 anatomical markers for various crops. The treatments that showed higher averages for
397 the analyzed variables were classified as diploids (Table 3), in general with averages
398 exceeding the haploids (Table 2).

399 The increase in ploidy level may be the main driving force to facilitate the plants
400 breeding, as it provides important phenotypic effects, such as increasing the size of the
401 cells and organs, and sometimes a larger force and biomass, and additional molecular
402 and phenotypic variation that may arise soon after the formation of the polyploids. This
403 behavior can be attributed to the effect "gigantism", in which plants with higher ploidy
404 may have increased the size of their structures [19]. The treatments 6 and 7 (diploids),
405 for the characteristics related to leaf blade (ELF and PAR), showed higher averages to
406 the haploids (Table 2). However the effect "gigas" was not observed to hybrids tri and
407 tetraploids, as reported in *bulbophyllum ipanemense* [59].

408 Significant effects on the ploidy level, and the anatomical and morphological
409 characteristics, such as leaf dry mass and thickness of the epidermis, have already
410 been reported in Brassicas [60] and characteristics such as leaf thickness and
411 photosynthetic rate, for rice [61]. The increase in the leaves thickness and total mass of
412 plants may result in greater energy expenditure, however, as the maize is a plant of
413 Kranz anatomy, there is not so much spent on histodifferentiation of juxtaposed layers
414 of palisade parenchyma, since these cells are found around the cells of the sheath of
415 the beam. Therefore the gain in leaf thickness would contribute not only to the increase
416 of the total mass of the leaf, but also to the increase of empty spaces. These spaces
417 play an important role in the CO₂ reserve for photosynthesis and because it does not
418 require energy to histodifferentiation, being less costly in terms of energy.

419 The size of the cells and the thickness of the components were positively
420 correlated with the ploidy level also in potatoes [62]. With the increase of the genome,
421 the gigantism in cells and organs is widely observed and associated with the
422 increments in the photosynthetic rate [63]. The increase of photosynthesis is attributed
423 to the increase of the tissues, increased capacity for storage of CO₂, and increase of
424 *gs*. The size of the epidermal cells, cells, can also be associated with the ploidy level of
425 the material under observation [47]. In addition to the increase in the activity of multiple
426 enzymes such as hydrolases and expansins [64].

427 The effect "giga" was also related in previous studies with modifications of cell
428 wall through a loosening, which enables a higher rate of growth of plants and
429 phenotypic changes. This loosening is assigned to a higher expression of genes of
430 expansin enzyme in rice [65,66], tobacco [67,68] and Arabidopsis [69,70]. The role of
431 expansins would be to induce the extent of cell wall, generating larger cells, higher
432 plants and longer roots. So in these cases, the cell expansion associated with the
433 ploidy is related to the increase of molecular signaling for synthesis of genes of
434 expansin and may lead to an increase in weight of structures, as in tomato [71].

435

436 **Conclusions**

437 The thickness of the leaf blade and the size of the stomata are highly heritable
438 traits in maize.

439 The obtained high accuracy validates the anatomical tool through the variables
440 studied in the present work, as a marker in the differentiation of ploidies in maize
441 plants, which may be employed in programs for selection of hybrids.

442 The anatomy made in young leaves of maze is a non-destructible technique
443 and in conjunction with the technique of flow cytometry, can be used as indirect method
444 in programs to obtain double haploids, in the initial stage of identification of seedlings.

445

446 **Conflicts of interest**

447 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

448

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451 **Author Contributions**

452 **Conceptualization:** RMOP HOS EVRVP

453 **Formal analysis:** RMOP GAS

454 **Funding acquisition:** EVRVP

455 **Investigation:** RMOP GAS DRV RCCV

456 **Writing:** RMOP DRV RCCV

457

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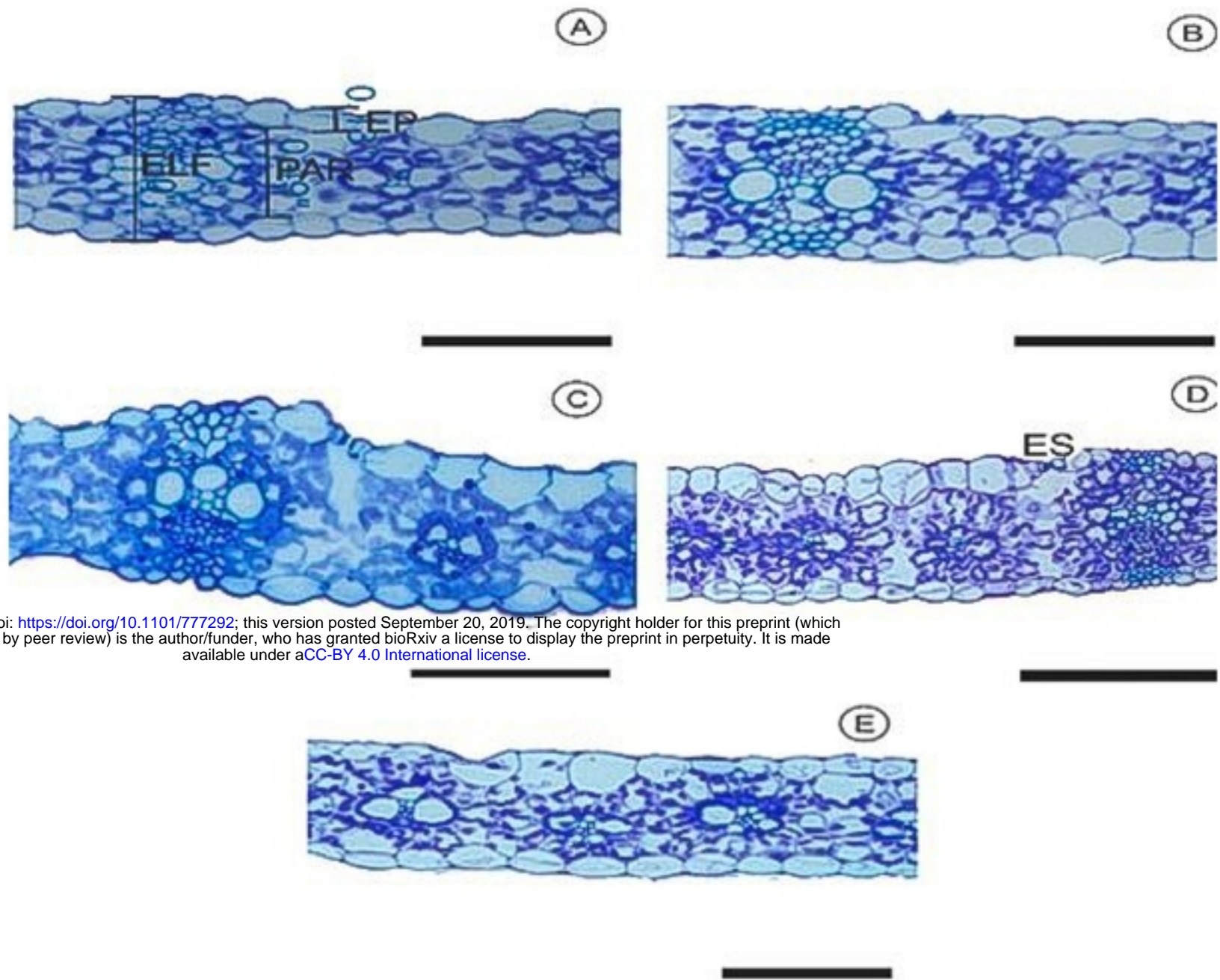
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Fig 1. Cross-sectional cuts of maze leaves collected after a process of chromosome doubling with use of colchicine. Haploid material (A), diploid (B), Double haploid (C), triploid (D) and tetraploid (E). ELF= thickness of leaf blade, PAR= thickness of parenchyma, EP=epidermis and ES= stomata. The bars represent 50 μm.

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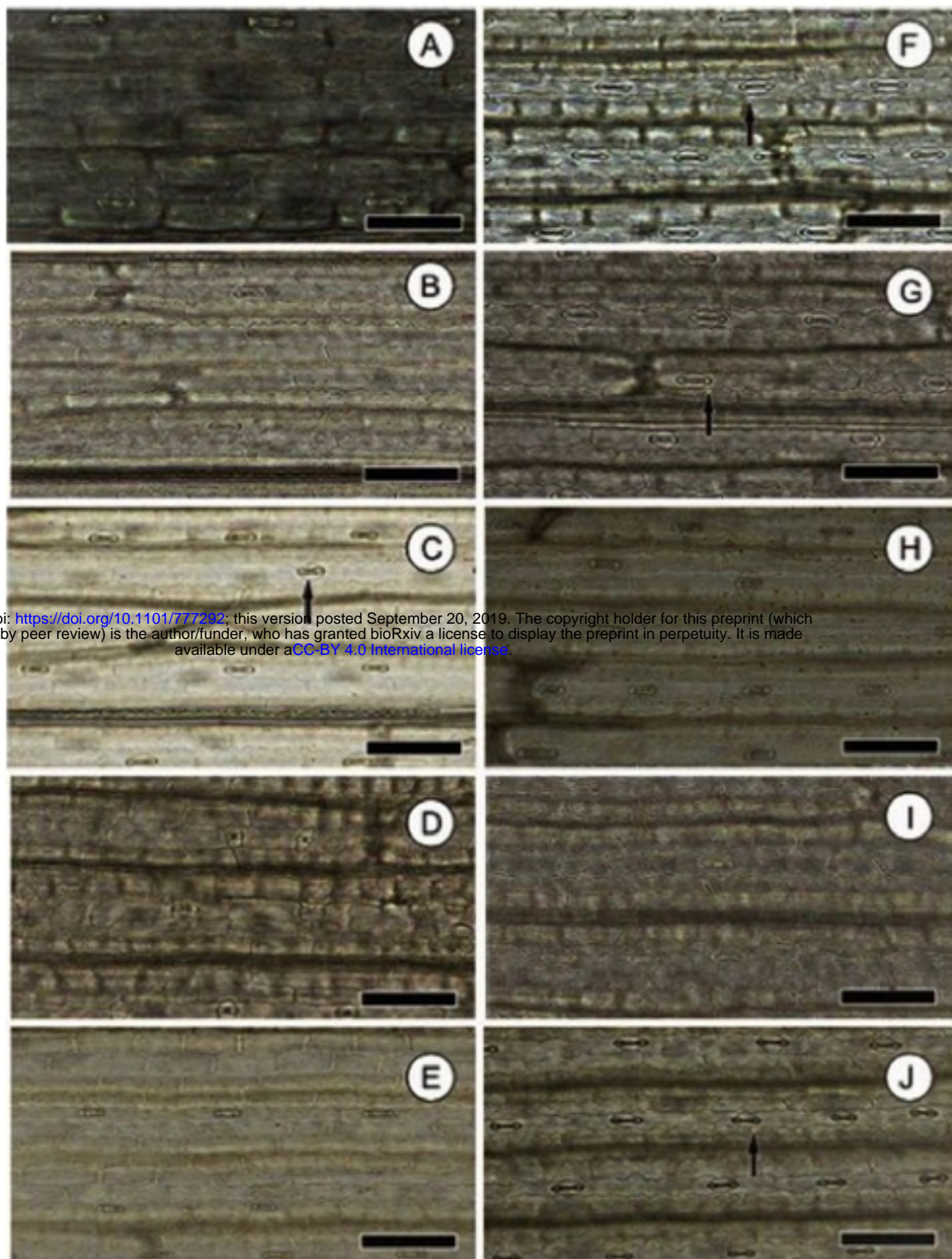
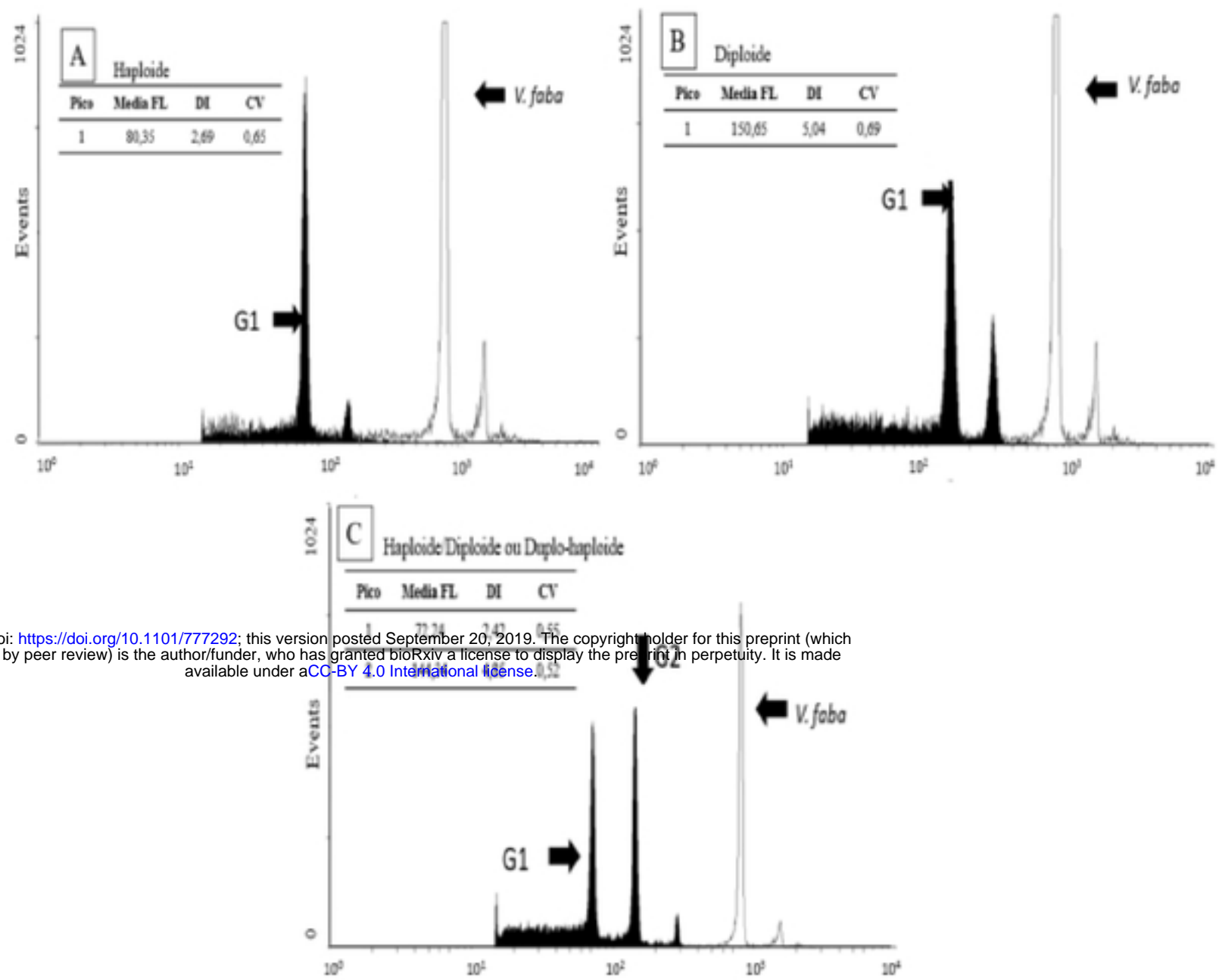


Fig 2. Adaxial surface (A to E) and abaxial (F through J) of maze leaves collected after a process of chromosome doubling with use of colchicine. Haploid material (A and F), diploid (B and G), Double haploid (C and H), triploid (D and I) and tetraploid (E and J). The bars represent 50 μ m and arrows indicate stomata.



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Fig 3. The relative importance of the characteristics evaluated in the separation of the valuated materials.