

1 **Evaluating a generic drought index as a predictive tool for aflatoxin**
2 **contamination of corn: from plot to regional level**

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ABSTRACT

26
27 Corn (*Zea mays* L.) kernel infection by *Aspergillus flavus* and subsequent aflatoxin
28 accumulation in grain can have a deleterious effect on both humans and animals that consume
29 contaminated grain. Predicting the aflatoxin risk is challenging due to complex interactions of
30 biotic and abiotic stress factors that govern and exacerbate the phenomenon. The goal of this
31 study was to determine whether a drought index could be used to predict the risk for pre-harvest
32 aflatoxin contamination in corn. Risk assessment was approached at: 1) field (plot) level with
33 data obtained from an in-field controlled experiment (Mississippi study), and 2) state level,
34 where corn fields were sampled at a county level (Georgia study). The data used for this study
35 consisted of historical records on aflatoxin contamination collected over thirteen growing
36 seasons from 2000 to 2011, 2013, and 2014 at Mississippi State, Mississippi (1), and from
37 random corn fields in 53 counties across Georgia between 1977 and 2004 (2). A controlled
38 experiment was conducted at Mississippi with two soil types (a Leeper silty clay loam and a
39 Myatt loam), and three commercial hybrids characterized by different susceptibility levels to
40 aflatoxin contamination. The Agricultural Reference Index for Drought (ARID), a generic
41 drought index for calculating drought on daily basis was evaluated as an aflatoxin risk prediction
42 tool. Mid-silk day was selected to split each growing season into two time periods, which were
43 further divided into positive and negative weeks representing weeks after and before mid-silk,
44 respectively. Weekly ARID factors were calculated for all periods to evaluate the in-season
45 alterations in aflatoxin risk. In both studies, multiple logistic regression models were used to
46 predict aflatoxin risk as a function of the weekly ARID values. In Mississippi, risk level changes
47 were additionally tested according to soil type and corn hybrid aflatoxin susceptibility. The
48 United States Food and Drug Administration restricts corn grain consumption by humans and
49 young animals if the contamination level is above 20 µg/kg; thus, this threshold (20 µg/kg) was

50 selected to develop a binary dependent variable for the logistic model from the raw aflatoxin
51 data. The results revealed that ARID might be used as a predictive tool to assess aflatoxin risk,
52 soil type and hybrid susceptibility to aflatoxin contamination were statistically significant
53 independent factors, and there are critical week windows during the growing season when
54 changes in drought conditions affect the likelihood for aflatoxin contamination. These findings
55 can be used to minimize risk by adapting site-specific management strategies such as triggering
56 irrigation during critical risk weeks, selecting the most appropriate hybrid for a given
57 site/location based on soil type, and determining optimum harvest date.

58

59 Keywords: *Aspergillus flavus*; infection; logistic regression; modeling; risk assessment; maize

60 1. Introduction

61 Aflatoxin contamination in corn is a worldwide issue since the toxins have adverse health
62 effects on humans and domestic animals (Damianidis et al., 2015; Robens and Cardwell, 2003).
63 Moreover, aflatoxin contamination raises food-safety concerns and impacts the trade of corn
64 grain and its byproducts, and thus, results in significant economic losses (Abbas et al., 2012;
65 Blandino et al., 2008; CAST, 2003). Aflatoxins are difuro-cumarins biosynthesized secondary
66 metabolites through a polyketide pathway (Fountain et al., 2014; Mishra and Das, 2003; Probst
67 and Cotty, 2012) produced by several fungul species belonging to *Aspergillus* section *Flavi*
68 (CAST, 2003) with *A. flavus* and *A. parasiticus* being the most common and of major concern
69 (CAST, 2003; Diener et al., 1987; Klich, 2007). The most prevalent naturally occurring forms of
70 aflatoxins include the toxins B₁, B₂, G₁, and G₂, with types B and G being usually synthesized by
71 *A. parasiticus* and *A. nomius*, while *A. flavus* mainly produces B₁ and B₂ aflatoxins (Klich,
72 2007).

73 Despite aflatoxins discovery followed an outbreak of Turkey “X” disease in England in 1960
74 (Austwick and Ayerst, 1963; Bayman and Cotty, 1990; Blount, 1961; Richard, 2008; Sargeant et
75 al., 1961; Spensley, 1963), in many countries, the extent of aflatoxin contamination is not well
76 known since there is a reluctance to report the problem (Payne and Widstrom, 1992). Aflatoxins
77 are considered carcinogenic, mutagenic, teratogenic, and hepatotoxic compounds for both
78 humans and animals (Blandino et al., 2008; Blaney et al., 2008; CAST, 2003; Fountain et al.,
79 2014; Molina and Giannuzzi, 2002). Therefore, 48 countries have established regulatory actions
80 and are monitoring aflatoxin contamination in food, with 21 countries establishing tolerance
81 levels in feedstuffs (Dohlman, 2003; Hawkins et al., 2008; Mishra and Das, 2003). The United
82 States Food and Drug Administration (U.S. FDA) restricts consumption of corn grain by humans

83 and young animals if contamination levels exceed 20 µg of aflatoxin/kg of grain (U.S. Food and
84 Drug Administration, 2000).

85 Aflatoxin synthesis is more likely to occur in areas with tropical and subtropical climates
86 (Streit et al., 2012). In recent decades, severe aflatoxicosis outbreaks have been reported in
87 Kenya, India, and Malaysia (Lewis et al., 2005; Shephard, 2008). Recently, significant pre-
88 harvest corn contamination was reported in Northern Italy (Battilani et al., 2008a; Giorni et al.,
89 2007; Piva et al., 2006) and in Australia (Blaney et al., 2008). In the United States, corn infection
90 and subsequent contamination is a chronic economic and health concern in the South (Davis et
91 al., 1986; Diener et al., 1987; Payne and Widstrom, 1992). Given favorable weather patterns, in-
92 field contamination may also occur in Midwest as well (Payne and Widstrom, 1992; Wallin and
93 Minor, 1986; Zuber and Lillehoj, 1979).

94 Aflatoxin contamination occurs both pre-harvest and post-harvest. One tactic to mitigate
95 contamination problems is to reduce the risk of infection prior to harvest. (Chauhan et al., 2015).
96 This should reduce residual inoculum in harvested corn grain which is a source of further
97 contamination under poor storage conditions. The in-field contamination is highly variable both
98 within a field and among geographic areas and seasons (Battilani et al., 2008a; Hawkins et al.,
99 2008), reflecting the effect weather conditions have on *A. flavus* incidence (Cotty and Jaime-
100 Garcia, 2007) and plant predisposition to infection/contamination (Fountain et al., 2014).

101 Aflatoxin contamination is exacerbated in seasons characterized by higher temperatures and
102 lower than normal rainfall that may expose corn plants to drought stress from silking and through
103 grain fill (Diener et al., 1987; Payne and Widstrom, 1992; Windham et al., 2009). Agricultural
104 drought occurs when plant available water in the soil does not meet the atmospheric demand for
105 evapotranspiration (Woli et al., 2012). Critical time windows when the risk for corn aflatoxin

106 contamination changes were identified in numerous studies (Battilani et al., 2008a; Damianidis et
107 al., 2015; Hawkins et al., 2008; Widstrom et al., 1990; Windham et al., 2009). This includes: 1) a
108 window extending between days 65 and 85 following planting when heat stress may result in
109 increased contamination (Hawkins et al., 2008), and 2) the decadal intervals from late June to
110 late August when drought, as quantified by an aridity index, were significantly correlated with
111 aflatoxin contamination (Battilani et al., 2008a). Conclusively, drought stress around silking and
112 during kernel development are the key risk factor for elevated *Aspergillus* infection and aflatoxin
113 contamination in corn at the end of the season (Damianidis et al., 2015; Diener et al., 1987; Luo
114 et al., 2010; Payne et al., 1986; Windham et al., 2009).

115 Models have been used to answer questions related to research, crop management,
116 policymaking, and to assess the risk associated with human and animal health (Garcia et al.,
117 2009; Prandini et al., 2009). If aflatoxin risk could be predicted, then human/animal health
118 concerns, and the subsequent economic losses, could be minimized. Numerous *in vitro* studies
119 had reported modeling efforts to predict aflatoxin contamination based on variables such as
120 temperature, water activity, and pH (Abdel-Hadi et al., 2012; Garcia et al., 2013; Molina and
121 Giannuzzi, 2002; Pitt, 1993). Although those models could predict contamination, they have not
122 been evaluated under field conditions (Chauhan et al., 2008; 2015).

123 Several attempts to predict the in-field aflatoxin corn contamination based on environmental
124 conditions have been recently reported by using empirical or mechanistic models (Battilani et al.,
125 2008a; 2013; Chauhan et al., 2008; 2015). However, development of mechanistic models might
126 require data or assumptions based on data coming from *in vitro* studies (e.g. sporulation,
127 dispersal, germination, infection, fungal growth, and toxin production rates) that may not be
128 always readily available. Additionally, aflatoxin production is strain and media specific (Luchese

129 and Harrigan, 1993; Sweeney and Dobson, 1998), making for challenging model development
130 and application. Moreover, contamination levels from *in vitro* studies do not always correlate
131 well with *in vivo* observations (Probst and Cotty, 2012). Therefore, models developed with data
132 generated from artificial media (*in vitro*) should be used with caution for in-field corn aflatoxin
133 contamination assessment (Chauhan et al., 2015).

134 Ideally, an early predictive system should be simple in its approach, easy to implement, and
135 should provide satisfactory predictive accuracies. Logistic regression is a multivariate technique
136 that satisfies those criteria and has been used in human (Fei et al., 2017; Tu et al., 1994) and
137 plant epidemiology to assess risk and guide disease management decisions (Battilani et al.,
138 2008a; Paul and Munkvold, 2004). It has been used previously to assess the in-field risk of 1)
139 gray leaf spot of corn, caused by *Cercospora zea-maydis* (Paul and Munkvold, 2004), and 2)
140 fumonisin contamination in corn (Battilani et al., 2008b). Battilani et al. (2008a) extended this
141 approach to predict aflatoxin contamination in corn in Northern Italy by using as independent
142 variable an aridity index. However, in their approach Battilani et al. (2008a) did not take into
143 consideration the relationship between soil plant available water and the evapotranspiration
144 demand during the growing season which may lead to drought; a prerequisite for aflatoxin
145 contamination in corn (Diener et al., 1987; Payne and Widstrom, 1992). The Agricultural
146 Reference Index for Drought (ARID), a generic and simple to use drought index, takes into
147 account plant available water and daily evapotranspiration (Woli et al., 2012; Woli et al., 2013).
148 ARID might be used to quantify agricultural drought and estimate its effects on crop yields
149 (Woli et al., 2012; Woli et al., 2013). However, assessing in-season aflatoxin contamination in
150 corn with a generic drought index in the Southeastern United States has yet to be done. The
151 hypothesis driving this study was that changes in spatial and in-season drought lead to changes in

152 the risk for aflatoxin contamination of corn. Therefore, the objectives of this study were to: 1)
153 determine whether a drought index could be used to predict the risk for aflatoxin contamination
154 in corn, 2) assess in-season risk differences among soil types and among hybrids, and 3) explore
155 the applicability to predict the risk at regional level when minimum data are available.

156 **2. Materials and Methods**

157 Two aflatoxin datasets were used in the study including aflatoxin contamination data
158 collected from field experiments in Mississippi State, Mississippi (MS), USA; and data on
159 aflatoxin contamination from corn samples collected from randomly surveyed fields across 53
160 counties in South Georgia (GA), USA.

161 *2.1 Mississippi dataset*

162 Field experiments were conducted from 2000 to 2011, 2013, and 2014 at the R. R. Foil Plant
163 Science Research Center located at Mississippi State, Mississippi (Windham et al., 2009). The
164 experimental design was a split plot design with corn hybrids assigned to the main plots, while
165 inoculation methods (natural infection, side needle, and spray silks) were allotted to sub-plots
166 (Windham et al., 2009). Hybrids were selected and classified into three categories based on their
167 susceptibility to infection by *Aspergillus flavus* and subsequent aflatoxin contamination. Two of
168 the cultivars were characterized as moderately susceptible (indicated hereafter as hybrid 1 and
169 hybrid 2) and a third (hybrid 3) as highly susceptible to aflatoxin contamination. Starting in 2000
170 and up to 2005 the experiment was conducted for two soil types, a Leeper silty clay loam (Fine,
171 smectitic, nonacid, thermic Vertic Epiaquepts) and a Myatt loam (Fine-loamy, siliceous, active,
172 thermic Typic Endoaquults). The water-holding capacity at field capacity of the Leeper silty clay
173 loam and the Myatt loam was 28% and 21%, respectively. From 2006 and after, the study was

174 conducted only for the heavier soil type (Leeper silty clay loam). Corn ear samples were
175 harvested from each plot, processed, and analyzed for aflatoxin contamination ($\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$) as
176 described by Windham et al. (2009). Contamination data related to natural infection by *A. flavus*
177 were only considered for the analysis herein. This comprehensive database contained 240
178 aflatoxin contamination observations and was divided into a model development dataset and a
179 model evaluation dataset. Twenty percent of the data were randomly selected to create an
180 evaluation dataset, while the rest of the data (80%) were used for model development.

181 2.2 *Georgia dataset*

182 A total of 818 corn samples were collected from random farm fields located in 53 counties in
183 Georgia from 1977 to 2004. Up to the late 1990's, aflatoxin contamination and identification was
184 determined by Thin Layer Chromatography (Brown et al., 1993; Guo et al., 1995), and thereafter
185 (from 2000 to 2004), the VICAM AflaTest[®] (VICAM, Watertown, Massachusetts) analytical
186 method was used. The database was unbalanced, since fields were not sampled from all counties
187 every season. Samples were assigned to Georgia counties where the sampled corn field was
188 located. The comprehensive survey database was randomly separated into a model development
189 dataset (80% of the data) and evaluation (20% of the data) dataset.

190 2.3 *Quantifying seasonal drought*

191 The Agricultural Reference Index for Drought (ARID) is a simple drought index used to
192 monitor, predict, and estimate the effect of drought timing and degree on crop yields (Woli et al.,
193 2012). ARID reflects seasonal in-field drought conditions, requires a minimal number of site
194 specific weather parameters, and is calculated on a daily basis. ARID values range from 0 to 1; 0
195 indicates no water deficit, and 1 signifies maximum water deficit.

196 Ideally, weather parameters required to calculate ARID include daily maximum, minimum,
197 and dew point temperatures along with precipitation, wind speed, potential evapotranspiration
198 (ET_o), and solar radiation. However, ARID calculations could be completed even when weather
199 parameters are missing (e.g. daily maximum temperature, minimum temperature, and rainfall
200 will suffice) (Woli et al., 2012). For the Mississippi data, ARID calculations were based on
201 weather data provided by the Mississippi Agricultural and Forestry Experimental Station, while
202 meteorological data for Georgia analysis were retrieved from: 1) DAYMET database covering
203 the timespan from 1980 – 2004 (Thornton et al., 2014), and 2) CRONOS database for seasons
204 1977 to 1979 (State Climate Office of North Carolina, 2016). For Mississippi data, ET_o was
205 estimated by FAO Penman-Monteith method (Allen et al., 2006); for Georgia, where wind speed
206 and dew temperature data were not available for the seasons studied, ET_o was alternatively
207 estimated by Hargreaves equation as described by Allen et al. (2006). Whenever the Hargreaves
208 equation is used for ET_o estimation in a region, comparison with ET_o estimates by the FAO
209 Penman-Monteith model is suggested (Allen et al., 2006). Univariate regression analysis
210 indicated that for the study area in Georgia the two methods were comparable (R^2 ranged from
211 0.9360 to 0.9807; for the eight locations tested).

212 2.4 *Logistic regression – concepts*

213 Logistic regression requires the dependent variable to be formulated as a binary factor, and it
214 can be used to estimate the probabilities for an event to occur based on preselected independent
215 predictors. The logistic regression model can be described by the equation:

$$P(Event) = \frac{e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1\chi_1 + \beta_2\chi_2 + \dots + \beta_n}}{1 + e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1\chi_1 + \beta_2\chi_2 + \dots + \beta_n}} \quad (1)$$

216

217 where e is the exponential constant, β_0 , β_1 , β_2 , and β_n are the estimated coefficients, and x_1 , x_2 ,
218 and x_n are the independent variables. $P(\text{Event})$ is the probability for an event to occur; in this
219 study to have a contaminated sample.

220 In binary response models (e.g. logistic models), model assessment can be accomplished by
221 generating the Receiver Operating Characteristic (ROC) curve and calculating the area under the
222 ROC curve (AUC) (Damianidis et al., 2015; SAS, 2015). The AUCs of the developed and the
223 evaluated models are then compared for equality at a preselected level of significance with the
224 ROC curve of a model predicting by chance (model with only intercept).

225 The AUC provides a graphical summary to assess the predictive power of a binary model
226 (Allison, 2012). It does not depend on an arbitrary cutpoint value needed for the construction of a
227 classification table, which inherently has an influence on the classification of test results as
228 events or non-events (Allison, 2012). The area under the ROC curve takes values from 0 to 1;
229 larger values correspond to stronger associations between predicted and observed values. A
230 value of 0.5000 corresponds to a model with an intercept only, and thus, with no predictive
231 power. The more the ROC curve departs from the forty five degree line the more accurate the
232 model predicts.

233 2.5 Database development for both studies

234 Prior to conducting the logistic analysis the aflatoxin contamination data were transformed to
235 a binary variable. The created binary variable was assigned a value of 1 (contaminated) and 0
236 (not contaminated) when the aflatoxin levels of the corn samples were greater and smaller than

237 20 µg/kg, respectively; the limit set by U.S. FDA to restrict corn consumption by humans and
238 young animals.

239 Because the risk of aflatoxin contamination will be predicted based on in-season changes in
240 drought conditions, weekly ARID values were calculated for two time intervals surrounding
241 mid-silk day. Thus, each season was divided into positive weeks and negative weeks indicating
242 time periods before and after mid-silk, respectively. The calculated weekly ARID values were
243 used as independent predictors in the logistic models to assess in-season risk changes in aflatoxin
244 contamination. Mid-silk was selected as a reference day for two reasons: 1) to remove the
245 portion of the variability related to the different growing seasons, since plant growth and
246 development depends greatly on weather conditions that are particular for each year and do not
247 coincide with calendar days, and 2) as indicated in the literature, the likelihood for infection and
248 contamination is greater around corn silking (Hawkins et al., 2008; Windham et al., 2009).

249 *2.6 Predicting aflatoxin risk with logistic regression at field (plot) level – Mississippi study*

250 For the current analysis, ARID was evaluated as a predictive tool for pre-harvest aflatoxin
251 contamination. Multiple logistic regression was used to predict aflatoxin risk as a function of
252 weekly ARID values, soil type, and hybrid susceptibility to infection and contamination.
253 Additionally, risk level changes were studied in their association to soil type and corn hybrids.
254 Statistical analyses were carried on with PROC logistic procedure in SAS version 9.3.

255 Inclusion of all the weekly ARID values as predictive variables in the model resulted in high
256 multicollinearity. Multicollinearity makes the estimated coefficients more unstable, and one way
257 to mitigate the issue is by dropping collinear variables (Allison, 2012). Thus, all potential
258 predictors (weekly ARID values) of aflatoxin risk were initially tested at the univariable level for

259 significance (p-value = 0.05). The Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) of the retained predictors was
260 < 5, indicating that multicollinearity was alleviated and more robust estimates could be obtained.
261 Logistic model development followed by including only significant weekly ARID independent
262 variables as identified in the first step, and their association to the outcome at the multivariable
263 level was also tested. The logistic model used for the Mississippi data set analysis is given by the
264 following equation:

$$P(\text{Aflatoxin}) = \frac{e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Soil} + \beta_2 \text{Hybrid} + \beta_{x_1} \text{Week}_{x_1} + \dots + \beta_{x_n} \text{Week}_{x_n}}}{1 + e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Soil} + \beta_2 \text{Hybrid} + \beta_{x_1} \text{Week}_{x_1} + \dots + \beta_{x_n} \text{Week}_{x_n}}} \quad (2)$$

265
266 where P(Aflatoxin) is the probability to have aflatoxin contamination above the selected
267 threshold (20 µg/kg), e is the base of natural logarithm, $\beta_0, \beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_{x_1}, \dots, \beta_{x_n}$ are the estimated
268 coefficients, and Soil, Hybrid, $\text{Week}_{x_1}, \dots, \text{Week}_{x_n}$ are the independent variables that were entered
269 into the model. Stepwise selection with entry and exit criteria levels equal to 0.10 and 0.20,
270 respectively, was employed to define significant independent predictors during the model
271 development phase.

272 The predictive power of the developed model was assessed by external evaluation using the
273 independent evaluation dataset (SAS, 2015). The estimated AUC for the developed model along
274 with the ROC curve computed when the fitted model was applied to the independent dataset
275 (external evaluation) were compared for equality at level of significance $\alpha = 0.05$ with the
276 uninformative model (a model predicting by chance; AUC = 0.5000).

277 2.7 Predicting aflatoxin risk with logistic regression at regional level – Georgia study

278 The data from Georgia were utilized to determine if ARID can be used as a tool to predict
279 aflatoxin risk at a regional scale. Briefly, the comprehensive survey database was randomly

280 separated into a model development and evaluation datasets, and a binary response variable was
281 constructed from the original aflatoxin contamination data as previously described.

282 Missing data of planting dates and mid-silk day from the Georgia dataset forced several
283 assumptions in order to retrieve that information from other sources. Planting dates from the
284 state variety trials conducted by the University of Georgia at the experimental field research units
285 in the Coastal Plain Region of Georgia in Tifton, Plains, and Midville, and the Wiregrass
286 Research and Extension Center in Headland, Alabama were available from 1977 to 2004
287 (Alabama Cooperative Extension System et al., 2016; The University of Georgia CAES, 2016).
288 For each season, the four planting dates retrieved from the aforementioned corn trial studies,
289 were averaged, and thus, a potential planting date for each year was calculated. In a given year,
290 all the Georgia counties with aflatoxin contamination data were assigned the calculated averaged
291 planting date as the actual planting date. Starting from this calculated planting date, mid-silk
292 days were estimated based on growth degree units (GDU), calculated as [(daily maximum
293 temperature + daily minimum temperature/2) - 10°C]. Estimated mid-silk stage, which occurred
294 when 1250 – 1300 GDU were accumulated (Lee, 2016, personal communication) was used to
295 split the growing season into weekly intervals following (positive) or preceding (negative) that
296 day and weekly ARID values were calculated.

297 Multicollinearity as indicated by $VIF < 5$ for independent model parameters was not an issue
298 in this analysis. Thus, weekly ARID values starting at week nine before mid-silk and up to week
299 nine after mid-silk were used as predictor variables for model development. Model development
300 and model evaluation were done as described in the previous section. The logistic model was
301 represented by:

$$P(\text{Aflatoxin}) = \frac{e^{\beta_0 + \beta_{x1} \text{Week}_{x1} + \dots + \beta_{xn} \text{Week}_{xn}}}{1 + e^{\beta_0 + \beta_{x1} \text{Week}_{x1} + \dots + \beta_{xn} \text{Week}_{xn}}} \quad (3)$$

302

303 where P(Aflatoxin) is the probability for aflatoxin contamination above the selected threshold

304 (20 µg/kg), e is the base of natural logarithm, $\beta_0, \beta_{x1}, \dots, \beta_{xn}$ are the estimated coefficients,

305 $\text{Week}_{x1}, \dots, \text{Week}_{xn}$ are the independent weekly ARID values entered into the model. Significant

306 independent predictors were identified by stepwise selection having entry and exit criteria levels

307 equal to 0.05.

308 **3. Results and Discussion**

309 *3.1 Predicting the risk at a field (plot) level*

310 Significant predictors (p-value < 0.10) for aflatoxin contamination risk in corn in Mississippi

311 were soil type, hybrid, and drought levels represented by weekly-ARID values before and after

312 mid-silk. Odds ratio estimates indicated an increased aflatoxin risk for the highly susceptible

313 hybrid (hybrid 3) when compared to hybrids 1 and 2, which were characterized as moderately

314 susceptible (Table 1). Additionally, corn grown in the heavier soil type (Leeper silty clay loam)

315 showed a lower likelihood for aflatoxin contamination above the selected threshold of 20 µg/kg

316 than corn grown in the Myatt loam. This agrees with observations from other studies indicating

317 higher pre-harvest contamination levels for corn grown in coarse sandy soils than corn grown in

318 finer textured soils (Davis et al., 1986; Jones et al., 1981). Due to the lower water holding

319 capacities of the coarser textured soils, potentially, the plants are more prone to water stress

320 through the growing season than when grown in heavier soil types.

321

322 Table 1: Odds ratio estimates and profile-likelihood confidence intervals for statistically
 323 significant independent variables for Mississippi data analysis as determined from the logistic
 324 regression model via stepwise selection with entry and exit values set to $\alpha = 0.10$ and $\alpha = 0.20$,
 325 respectively.

Effect	Unit	Odds Ratio Estimates	90% Confidence Limits	
Moderately resistant 1 vs susceptible	1	0.127	0.057	0.285
Moderately resistant 2 vs susceptible	1	0.195	0.091	0.418
Silty clay loam vs loam	1	0.198	0.095	0.411
Week 4 before mid-silk	0.1	1.226	1.044	1.440
Week 1 before mid-silk	0.1	1.325	1.151	1.525
Week 4 after mid-silk	0.1	1.224	1.079	1.390
Week 8 after mid-silk	0.1	0.853	0.758	0.960

326 Moderately resistant 1 & Moderately resistant 2 are moderately susceptible hybrids.
 327 Susceptible is highly susceptible hybrid.
 328 Silty clay loam = Leeper silt clay loam.
 329 Loam = Myatt loam
 330

331 The critical growing season periods when changes in in-field drought conditions influence
 332 the risk for aflatoxin contamination, included weeks four and one before mid-silk and weeks four
 333 and eight after mid-silk day (Table 1). Moreover, a 0.1 increase in in-field drought, as quantified
 334 by ARID, during weeks four and one before mid-silk and week four after mid-silk, revealed that
 335 the predicted odds for contamination to be above the preselected threshold of 20 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$ was 22.6,
 336 32.5, and 22.4% higher than the odds of not having contamination, respectively. Battilani et al.
 337 (2008a) had shown that drought had an influence on aflatoxin contamination in corn in Northern
 338 Italy, and defined as critical for contamination the timespan starting the last decade (10 days) of
 339 June and the first and last decade of August. Additionally, aflatoxin occurrence have usually
 340 been associated with higher than normal temperatures and low rainfalls around
 341 silking/pollination and grain filling period (20 – 60 days after flowering), both conditions that
 342 may increase drought stress (Diener et al., 1987; Payne and Widstrom, 1992; Widstrom et al.,
 343 1990; Windham et al., 2009).

344 Interestingly, in this study the predicted odds to have an event (contaminated sample) were
345 14.7% smaller than the odds to not have contamination for every 0.1 drought increase, as
346 indicated by ARID index, during week eight after mid-silk (a near to harvest window) (Table 1).
347 Rewetting events late in the season coinciding with the timespan just prior or during harvest
348 delayed corn drying, favor unremitting aflatoxin synthesis, and thus, may increase toxin
349 accumulation, particularly in years conducive for infection and contamination (Cotty and Jaime-
350 Garcia, 2007; Jaime-Garcia and Cotty, 2003; Jones et al., 1981).

351 The relative risk for corn aflatoxin contamination above the threshold of 20 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$ was higher
352 for all three hybrids when cultivated in the lighter soil type (Myatt loam) compared to the heavier
353 soil type (Leeper silty clay loam) (Figure 1 and Figure 2). Increase in drought conditions during
354 week four following mid-silk, other things equal, resulted in an increased contamination risk, as
355 well, for all the scenarios shown in Figure 1.

356

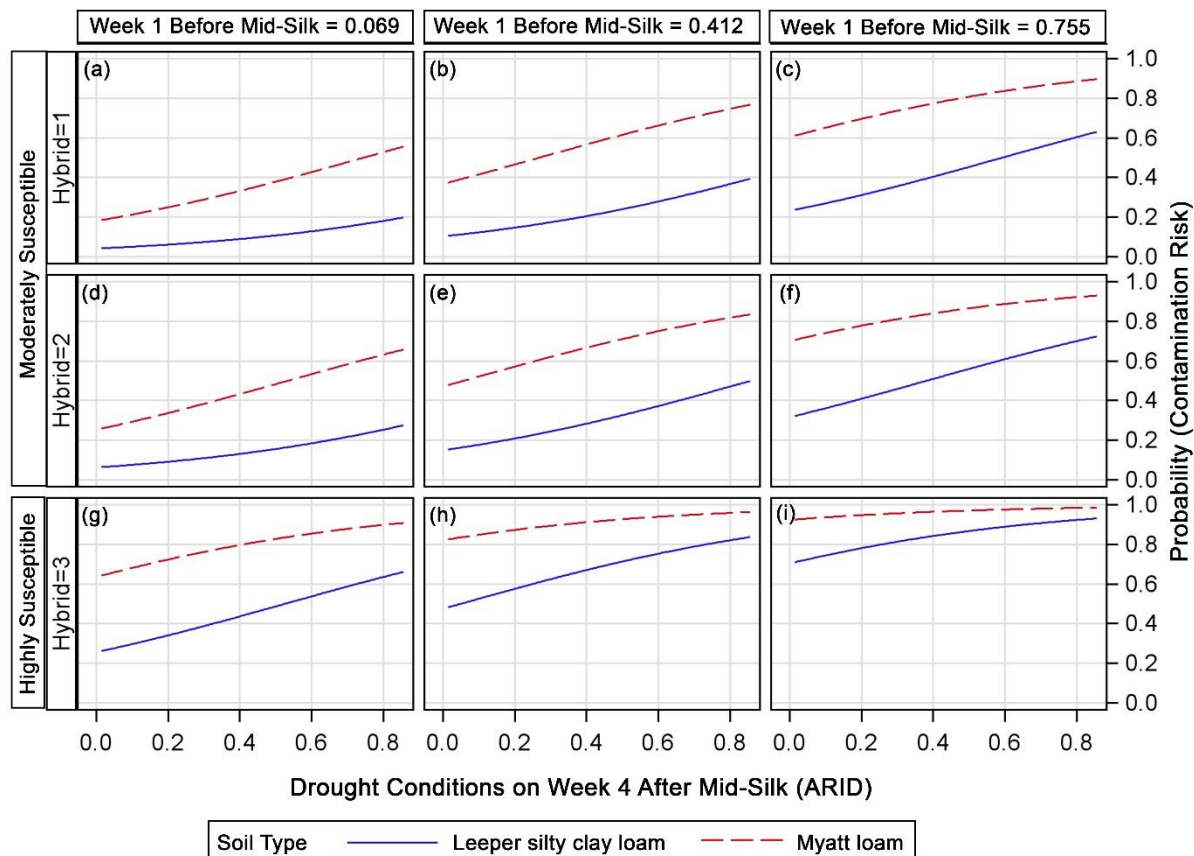


Figure 1: Predicted probabilities (Mississippi analysis) for having aflatoxin contamination above the threshold of 20 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$ with changes in drought conditions on the fourth week after mid-silk, given that moderately (Hybrids 1 & 2) and highly (Hybrid 3) susceptible hybrids are cultivated under Leeper silty clay loam (solid line) and Myatt loam (dashed line). Three scenarios (columns) are presented herein for each hybrid (rows): 1) low (ARID=0.069), 2) medium (ARID=0.412) and 3) severe (ARID=0.755) drought conditions for the week prior mid-silk. Week four before mid-silk and week eight after mid-silk were set fixed to their respective mean values.

357

358 For example, we found that the predicted probabilities for contamination above the threshold of

359 20 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$ were greater than 50% (y-axis), when a highly susceptible hybrid (hybrid 3) was

360 exposed to moderate (ARID = 0.412) or extreme drought (ARID = 0.755) during the week prior

361 to mid-silk, even when no or low drought (e.g. ARID < 0.200, x-axis) occurred on week four

362 after mid-silk, regardless of soil type (Figure 1h and Figure 1i). In contrast, if the moderately

363 susceptible hybrids (hybrid 1 and 2) were cultivated in the Leeper silty clay loam, the likelihood
364 for contamination above the legal limit (20 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$) was less than 50% (y-axis) even when the
365 crops were exposed to extreme drought conditions ($\text{ARID} > 0.800$, x-axis) on week four
366 following mid-silk (Figure 1a-b, Figure 1d-e). This holds when the crop cultivated in the Leeper
367 silty clay loam was exposed to low stress ($\text{ARID} = 0.069$, Figure 1a and Figure 1d) or moderate
368 stress ($\text{ARID} = 0.412$, Figure 1b and Figure 1e) the week preceding mid-silk.

369 Our study indicates that drought conditions close to corn harvest in Mississippi reduce
370 aflatoxin contamination levels when compared with the earlier vegetative and reproductive crop
371 stages. The impact of reduced drought late in the season on aflatoxin accumulation in corn grain
372 was indicated in all scenarios presented in Figure 2.

373

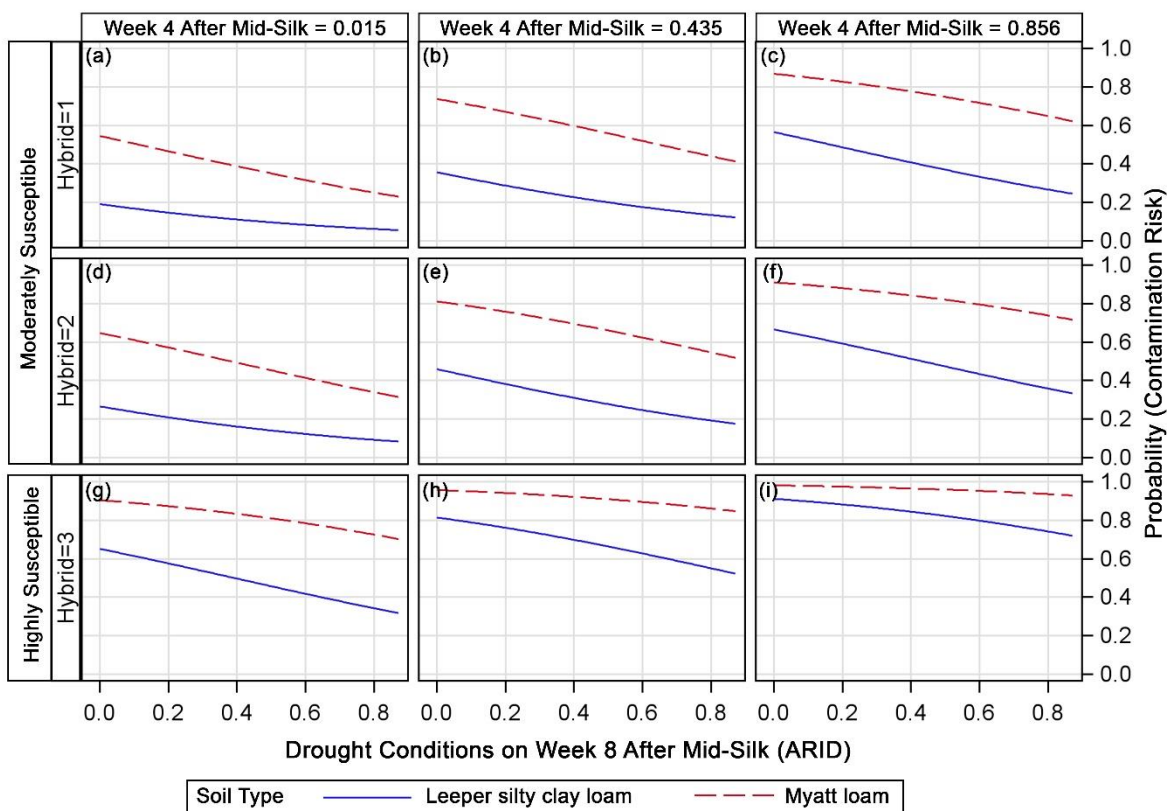


Figure 2: Predicted probabilities (Mississippi analysis) for having aflatoxin contamination above the threshold of 20 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$ with changes in drought conditions on the eighth week after mid-silk, given that moderately (Hybrids 1 & 2) and highly (Hybrid 3) susceptible hybrids are cultivated under Leeper silty clay loam (solid line) and Myatt loam (dashed line). Three scenarios (columns) are presented herein for each hybrid (rows): 1) low (ARID=0.015), 2) medium (ARID=0.435) and 3) severe (ARID=0.856) drought conditions for the week four after mid-silk. Week four and one before mid-silk were set fixed to their respective mean values.

374

375 For all the scenarios studied, late in-season drought (week eight after mid-silk) decreased the

376 relative risk for grain contamination for both soil types, regardless of hybrid type (Figure 2).

377 Drought is commonly associated with higher than normal surface temperatures, prolonged

378 periods of no or minimal precipitation (McNab and Karl, 1991), and drier air than usual

379 (Baldwin, 1957; McNab and Karl, 1991; Potter, 1958). Thus, our results are in agreement with

380 Cotty (2001) who suggested that aflatoxin contamination of a mature cotton seed is promoted by

381 warm temperature, high relative humidity (above 85%) or wetting events at or after ball opening.
382 Similarly, our findings agree with Jaime-Garcia and Cotty (2003) who showed that increased
383 rainfall late in the season was associated with increased seed contamination levels in cotton in
384 Texas. A drought increase late in the season might be associated with drier air than usual, and
385 thus, less than normal dew formation, which could explain the reduced aflatoxin contamination
386 risk with drought increase on week eight after mid-silk. This agrees with McMillian et al. (1985)
387 who found that when corn ears were water sprayed from the third to sixth week after full silk
388 they had higher levels of contamination than non-sprayed ears. It was suggested that heavy
389 morning dews may promote preharvest corn contamination in the Southeast US (McMillian et
390 al., 1985). Likewise, an increase in drought is usually associated with higher air temperatures.
391 August average minimum temperature was negatively associated with aflatoxin incidence and
392 severity in corn studies over nine locations in USA (Sisson, 1986). The eighth week after mid-
393 silk in our study corresponds to a week before harvest, and depending on the season, ranged from
394 the first calendar week of August to the first calendar week of September. It was suggested by
395 Sisson (1986) that higher night temperatures could hasten corn maturation and reduce incidence
396 of dew formation, a factor that could be related to fungal development and aflatoxin synthesis,
397 and could explain the findings of our work on week eight after mid-silk. Battilani et al. (2008a),
398 showed that in Northern Italy, aflatoxin contamination risk was higher when drought increased
399 on the last ten day window of June, and the first and last ten day windows of August. In the
400 Mississippi study, the contamination probability was increased by increasing ARID values on
401 weeks four and one before mid-silk, and on week four after mid-silk that correspond to late
402 vegetative and early reproductive corn stages, respectively. However, our data showed that the

403 risk for aflatoxin contamination was reduced by increasing drought on week eight after mid-silk
404 (a week prior to harvest).

405 The variability in drought conditions during the periods found in this study impact the extent
406 of preharvest aflatoxin contamination in corn. Timing and the degree of drought, along with soil
407 type and hybrid resistance on infection and subsequent toxin accumulation can significantly
408 change the likelihood for aflatoxin contamination. Seasonal fluctuations drive the dynamic
409 relationships in the micro-organismal community, change the fungal community structure along
410 with the quantity of both aflatoxigenic producers and the available primary and/or secondary
411 inoculum in the field (Cotty and Jaime-Garcia, 2007). Plant exposure to different drought stress
412 levels when crops are grown in different soil types with variable soil plant available water may
413 predispose corn to *A. flavus* infection and subsequent aflatoxin contamination. Different
414 genotypes respond to environmental stresses in different ways. For example, in most of the
415 genotypes tested greater levels of contamination were observed for corn crops indicating the
416 highest physiological responses to drought and heat stresses, thus revealing a relationship
417 between aflatoxin accumulation and those stresses (Kebede et al., 2012). In the same study, an
418 aflatoxin resistant genotype had the lowest contamination levels despite being one of the most
419 stressed crops; this suggested that the resistance mechanism for this genotype might be more
420 complex. The findings indicate that soil type and genotype are likely to influence the final toxin
421 accumulation in the grain, and may explain contradictory reports among different studies.

422 3.2 Model evaluation – Mississippi analysis

423 Binary response models, including logistic regression models, can be assessed by calculating
424 the AUC. The AUC for the developed model was equal to 0.8233, and was forecasting
425 significantly better than a model predicting by chance (AUC = 0.5000; p-value < 0.0001) (Figure

426 3).

427

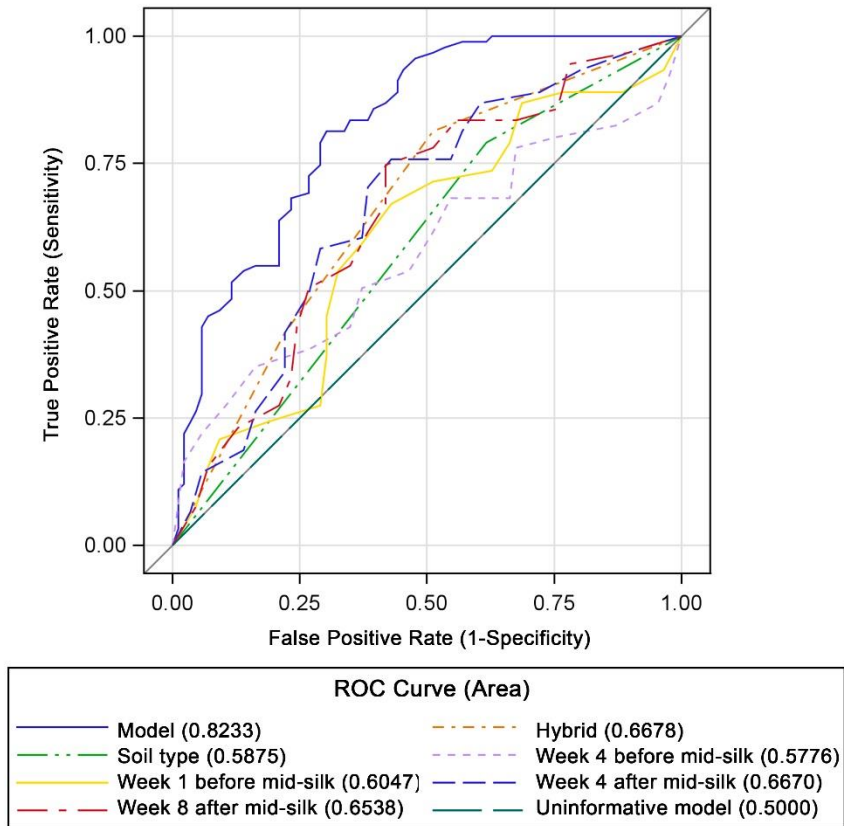


Figure 3: Receiver Operating Characteristic curves for the fitted model (Model), and for each significant variable as identified in the logistic model, indicating the relative weight of each predictor variable on the studied association (Aflatoxin predicted probabilities vs. predictor variates). Uninformative is the model with no predictive power (predicting by chance). Values in parentheses correspond to area under the curve (AUC) calculated for each particular model tested; Mississippi analysis.

428

429 Applying the fitted model to the evaluation dataset resulted in a negligible decrease in the
430 predictive power (AUC = 0.8092) (Figure 4). A significant contrast test (p-value < 0.0001)
431 indicated that the developed model was better than the uninformative model (AUC = 0.5000)
432 when applied to the evaluation dataset. Therefore, the proposed predictive model could correctly
433 predict the risk in nearly 82% of the cases. Thus, ROC curve analysis showed that the developed
434 model proposed herein could identify true positives and minimize false negatives at acceptable

435 levels of accuracy.

436

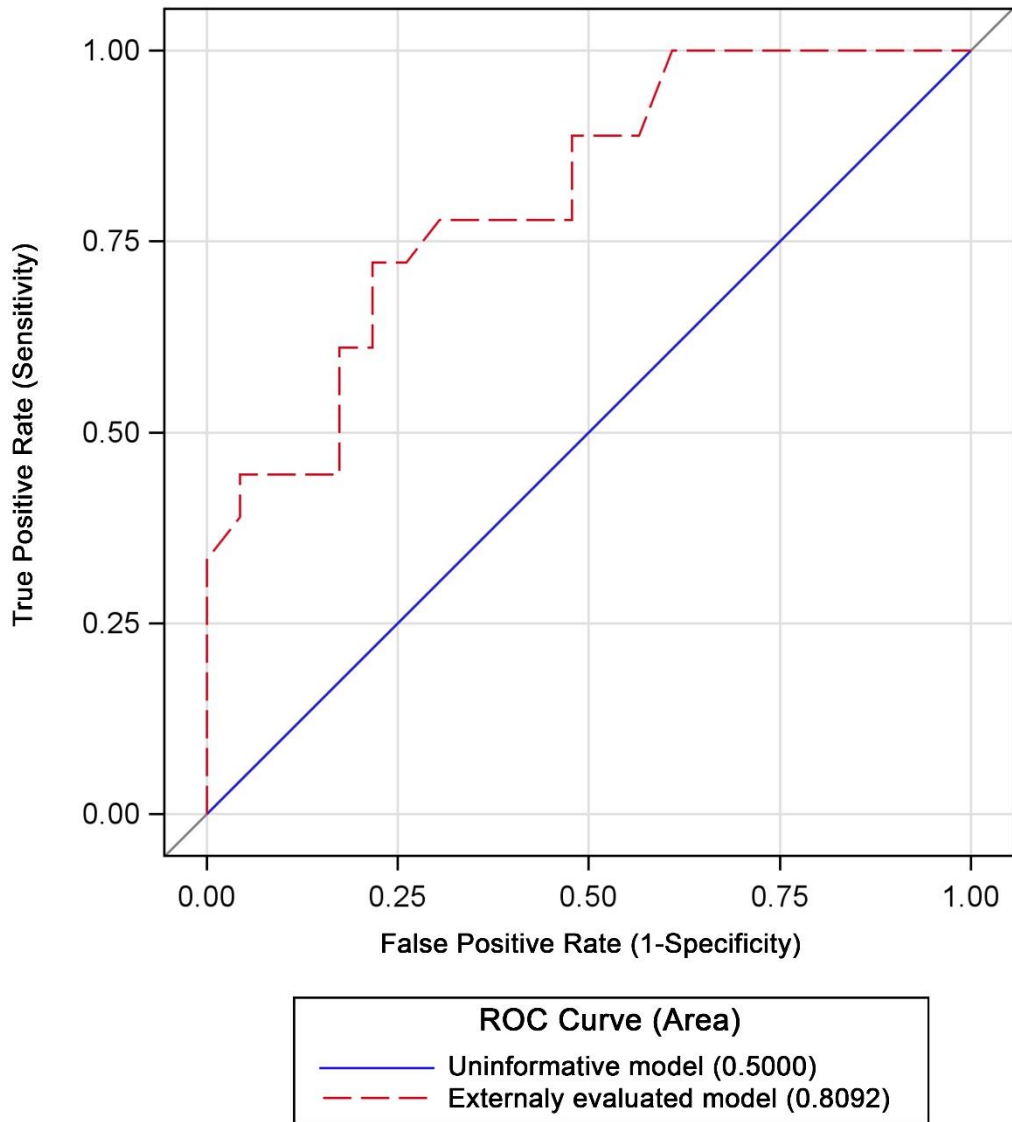


Figure 4: Receiver Operating Characteristic curve from applying the fitted model (Externally evaluated model) to the evaluation dataset, compared to the AUC (Area Under the Curve) of the uninformative model (Model). Values in parentheses correspond to calculated AUC; Mississippi analysis.

437

438 As indicated by their respective ROC curves, when weekly ARID values four and eight after

439 mid-silk along with hybrid resistance to infection and subsequent contamination were considered

440 as individual predictors, they had the highest relative impact on the measured associations
441 (Figure 3). In contrast, sub-models with only soil type or week four before mid-silk as
442 independent factors alone had the lowest AUC's equal to 0.5841 and 0.5673, respectively
443 (Figure 3). All the single independent variable sub-models (Figure 3) had a significantly reduced
444 predictive power when compared to the overall model (p -value < 0.0001). However, when the
445 sub-models were compared to the uninformative model (AUC = 0.5000), their discriminative
446 power between events and non-events was statistically significant (p -value < 0.0151) for all but
447 the sub-model having week four before mid-silk alone as an independent variable (p -value =
448 0.0732).

449 3.3 *Predicting the risk at a regional level*

450 The logistic regression model showed that significant predictors (p -value ≤ 0.05) for
451 aflatoxin contamination in Georgia were the calculated drought levels during weeks eight, seven,
452 and three before mid-silk, along with weeks two, four, and nine following mid-silk (Table 2).
453 The effect of drought on the likelihood of corn aflatoxin contamination changed both in
454 magnitude and direction (positive and negative) through the season. For example, a 0.1 increase
455 in drought conditions during week four and nine after mid-silk was estimated to increase the
456 odds of having contamination above the 20 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$ legal limit by 71.8 and 77.0%, respectively.
457 Interestingly, if the average weekly ARID value for weeks eight and three before mid-silk was
458 increased by a value of 0.1, then the predicted odds for contamination were 3.4 and 1.3 lower
459 than the odds of non-events (contamination below 20 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$). Similarly, the model showed that a
460 reduced drought on week two after mid-silk resulted in an increased risk. In contrast, an
461 increased early drought stress (week 7 before mid-silk) significantly increased the likelihood for
462 aflatoxin accumulation above the action limit (20 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$) in the grain at the end of the season.

463 Table 2: Odds ratio estimates and profile-likelihood confidence intervals for statistically
 464 significant independent variables for Georgia data analysis as determined from the logistic
 465 regression model via stepwise selection with entry and exit values set to $\alpha = 0.05$.

Effect	Unit	Odds Ratio Estimate	95% Confidence Limits	
Week 8 before mid-silk	0.1	0.295	0.182	0.430
Week 7 before mid-silk	0.1	3.167	1.978	5.884
Week 3 before mid-silk	0.1	0.749	0.576	0.955
Week 2 after mid-silk	0.1	0.729	0.574	0.907
Week 4 after mid-silk	0.1	1.718	1.360	2.245
Week 9 after mid-silk	0.1	1.77	1.403	2.308

466

467 This study showed that the risk for aflatoxin accumulation changes over the growing season.
 468 Drought conditions at particular weekly intervals relative to mid-silk, had influenced the
 469 likelihood for contamination above the legal limit (20 μ g/kg) set by U.S. FDA. Moreover, the
 470 estimated probability for aflatoxin contamination to exceed 20 μ g/kg was defined by the level of
 471 dry/wet cycles in the preceding critical timespans. For example, if the plant was exposed to low
 472 to moderate drought on week seven (ARID < 0.492) before mid-silk, then the risk remained well
 473 below 20%, even if extreme drought occurred on week four after mid-silk (ARID = 1.000)
 474 (Figure 5a-c). However, if the ARID value on week four following mid-silk was ≥ 0.6 , reflecting
 475 a moderate in-field drought situation, then the probability for contamination above the legal limit
 476 exceeded 40% (Figure 5e).

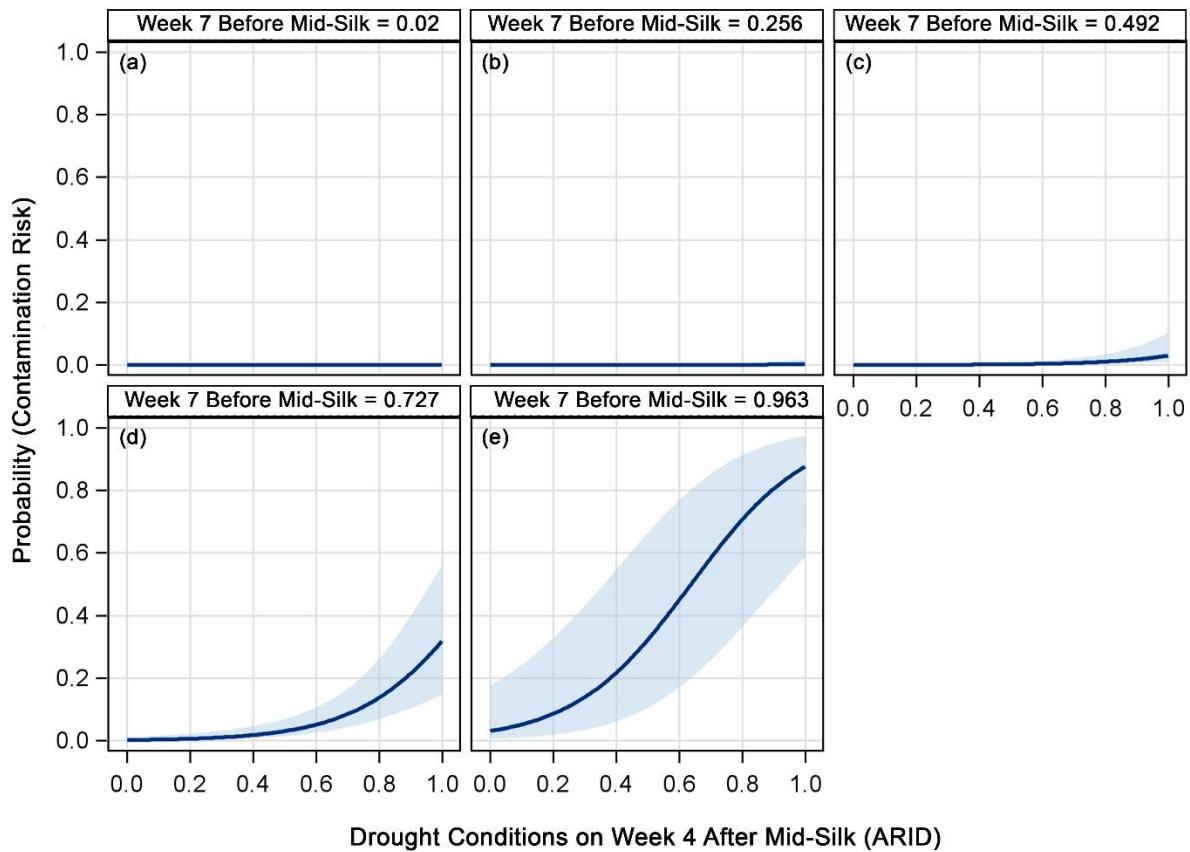


Figure 5: Predicted probabilities (Georgia analysis) plot panel indicating aflatoxin risk change when drought conditions are changing on week four after mid-silk for five different aridity scenarios early in the seasons (week 7 before mid-silk). ARID values for the rest of the weeks were set equal to their mean. Shaded band represent confidence limits at $\alpha = 0.1$.

477

478 Under extreme drought conditions on week nine (ARID > 0.800) and week four (ARID = 0.998)

479 after mid-silk, other things being equal, the likelihood for aflatoxin contamination above the

480 action level (20 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$) approached 40% (Figure 6e). Those observations may reflect not only the

481 complex interactions that take place between biotic and abiotic factors impacting fungal growth,

482 sporulation, inoculum dissemination, infection, toxin synthesis, and accumulation, they also

483 indicate the interconnectivity and the interdependence of process, that constantly change during

484 the growing season and occur at the host plant level, fungal level, and each particular

485 environment.

486

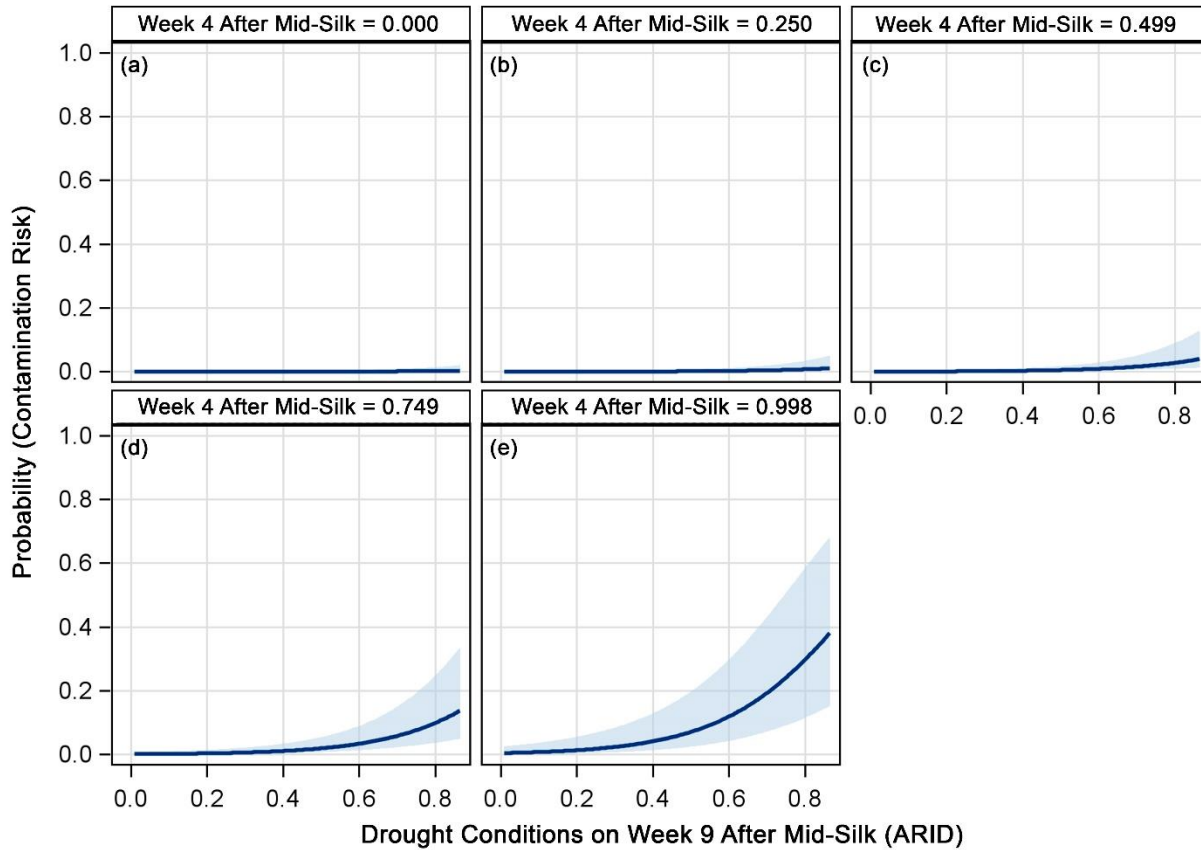


Figure 6: Predicted probabilities (Georgia analysis) plot panel indicating aflatoxin risk change when drought conditions are changing on week nine after mid-silk for five different aridity scenarios for week four following mid-silk. ARID values for the rest of the weeks were set equal to their mean. Shaded band represent confidence limits at $\alpha = 0.1$.

487

488 As shown in this study, predicting aflatoxin risk at field (plot) level based on soil type,
489 hybrid, and drought conditions is promising. Predicting the likelihood of contamination at a
490 regional level might be more challenging due to multiple soil types, the very different weather
491 conditions encountered across a region and their effect on the fungus, the host, and their
492 interactions. Consequently, questions have been raised about the feasibility of the methodology
493 proposed herein. Lack of data (e.g. planting date, crop growth stage, soil types, hybrids) added to

494 the overall uncertainty, and required informative assumptions (i.e. determination of potential
495 planting dates for a given area and season) and estimations (e.g. forecasting mid-silk day by
496 calculating GDU). In regional studies, due to data limitations, meteorology might be the only
497 driving factor available to assess risk, and thus, a simple predictive system might be more
498 desirable and applicable. For all these reasons, our approach to assess the likelihood of corn
499 contamination above the legal limit at county level was based only on minimum weather data
500 (maximum temperature, minimum temperature, and rainfall).

501 *3.4 Model evaluation – Georgia analysis*

502 Contaminated and non-contaminated samples used for model development equaled to 620
503 (93.37%) and 44 (6.63%) samples, correspondingly. The evaluation dataset contained 154
504 samples, 91.56 and 8.44% were classified as non-events (had aflatoxin contamination below the
505 20 µg/kg threshold) and events, respectively. The AUC for the developed model was 0.9744 (p-
506 value < 0.0001) and was predicting significantly better than the model predicting by chance
507 (AUC = 0.5000) (Figure 7).

508

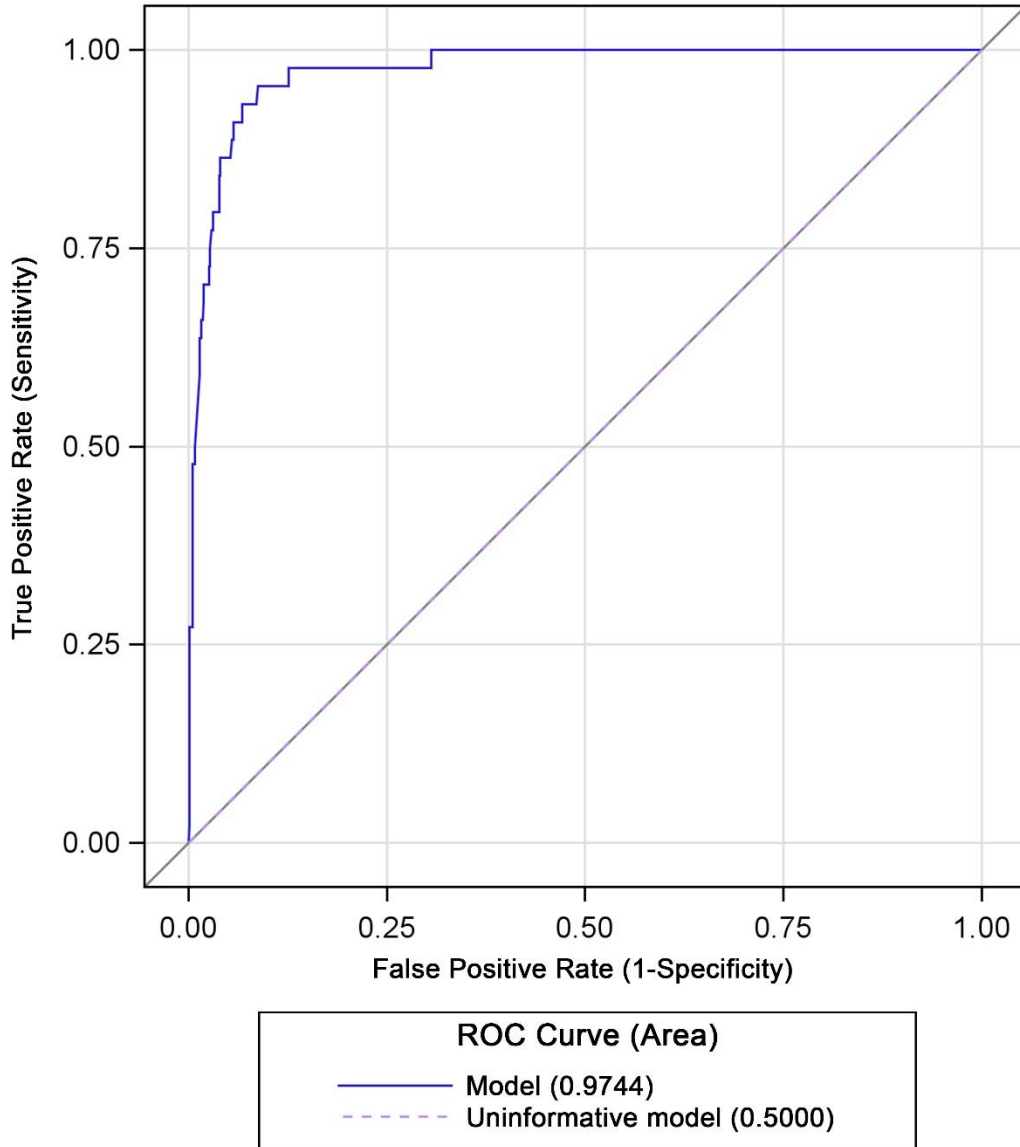


Figure 7: Receiver Operating Characteristic curve for the fitted model (Model). Uninformative is the model with no predictive power (predicting by chance). Values in parentheses correspond to calculated area under the curve (AUC); Georgia analysis.

509

510 When the developed model was applied to the evaluation dataset, the ROC curve dropped to
 511 0.9177 (Figure 8). Despite that, the ROC contrast test was significant (p -value < 0.0001),
 512 indicating that the developed model was more accurate in predicting contaminated from non-
 513 contaminated samples when compared to the uninformative model (AUC = 0.5000).

514

515

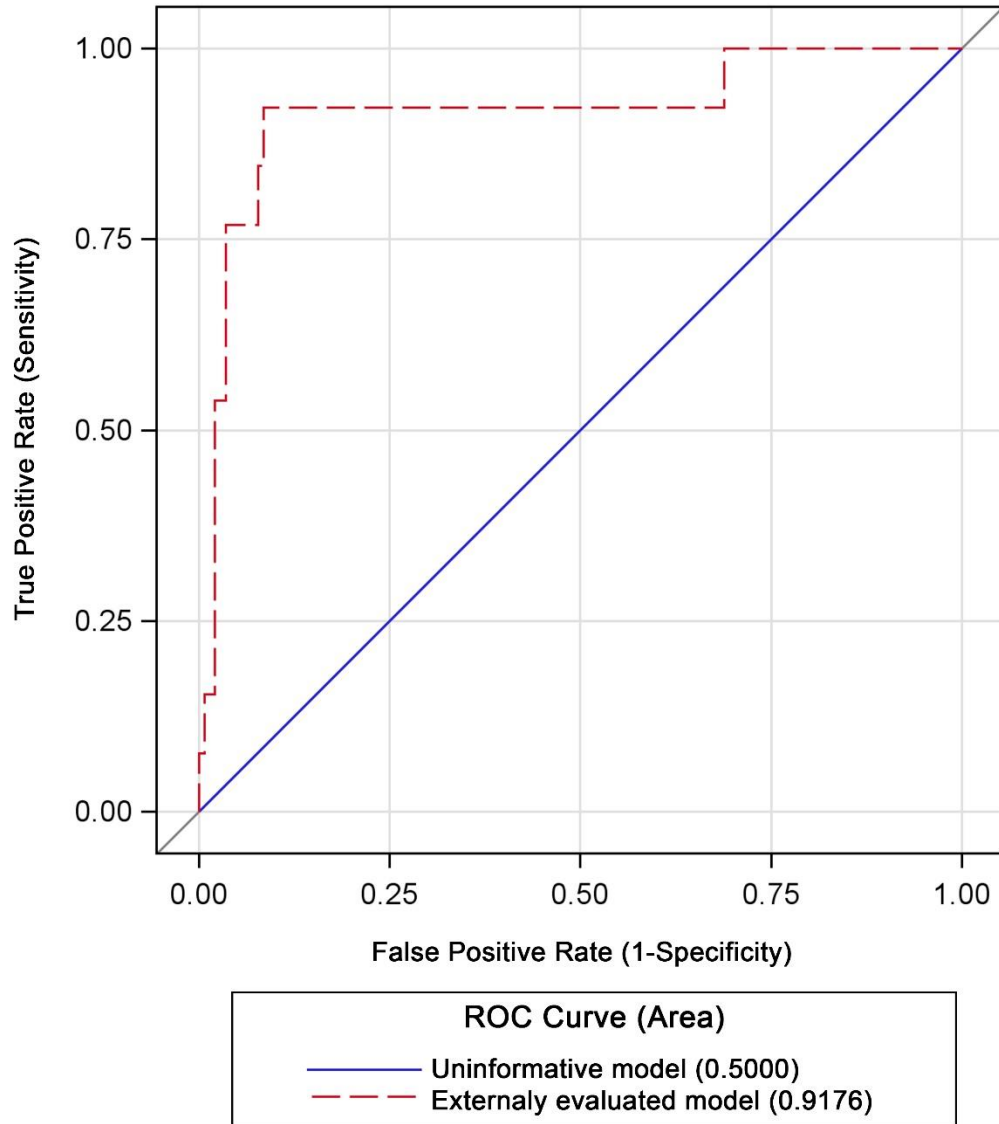


Figure 8: Receiver Operating Characteristic curve from applying the fitted model (Externally evaluated model) to the evaluation dataset, compared to the AUC of the uninformative model (Model). Values in parentheses correspond to calculated AUC; Georgia analysis.

516

517 3.5 Comparing the results – field (plot) versus regional

518 Analyses using both Mississippi dataset and Georgia dataset indicated that drought, as
519 quantified by weekly ARID values, is a significant driving factor that influences the risk for
520 contamination. However, the timespans (weeks) indicated as significant varied between the
521 Mississippi and Georgia data sets (Table 1 and Table 2). Only week four after mid-silk was
522 identified as significant by both models. Additionally, both studies are reflective of what has
523 been observed by other researchers (Hawkins et al., 2008; Windham et al., 2009), as well;
524 infection and subsequent aflatoxin contamination are likely influenced by environmental stresses
525 (e.g. drought, temperature, and moisture stresses) occurring prior to silking. Perhaps more
526 attention and studies under controlled environments (greenhouse) considering corn vegetative
527 growth stages might be needed to determine if those early stresses provoke physiological
528 responses/processes at the plant and/or fungal level on the variability in toxin accumulation
529 observed at the end of the season.

530 The differences on the results from both studies may be related to the assumptions made on
531 the Georgia data. The planting dates and mid-silk stages were estimated, and corn samples were
532 collected from fields within a county but there is not information on the specific location. These
533 issues may have reduced the power of the model especially because weekly ARID calculations
534 rely on that information. From experience, it is known that weather, and particularly rainfall
535 amount and distribution, can be highly variable even over relatively short distances. Therefore,
536 interpretation of odds estimates from the regional model has to be approached with extreme
537 caution. For example, the odds estimates for week three prior to mid-silk and week two after
538 mid-silk derived from the Georgia analysis suggest that increase in drought results in lower risk
539 (Table 2). This contradicts other studies that have shown that extended aflatoxin levels in corn

540 are commonly encountered in seasons or at field locations associated with drought stress (Abbas
541 et al., 2002; 2004; Davis et al., 1986; Diener et al., 1987; Windham et al., 1999). Abbas et al.
542 (2004) had shown that the incidence of *A. flavus* propagules recovered from corn grains was
543 greater in a field site that had received supplemental water compared to other field sites. The
544 opposite trend was observed for aflatoxin contamination levels; moreover, no association
545 between aflatoxin contamination and colonization levels was detected. Thus we may conclude
546 that the odds ratios for week three prior to mid-silk and week two following mid-silk, as
547 suggested by the Georgia model, are likely erroneous.

548 We consider the model from the Mississippi study more robust, since the data obtained were
549 derived from a controlled in-field experiment. Hence, potential strategies to mitigate aflatoxin
550 contamination should rely more on the information derived from the controlled (Mississippi)
551 experiment which is in agreement with the principle knowledge of the phenomenon. Therefore,
552 the Georgia results should be rather considered as a preliminary work illuminating the potential
553 of the proposed methodology to assess the risk over a larger regional area; however, a more
554 detailed georeferenced database will be necessary to address the limitations and contradictions
555 observed herein. Additionally, agronomic information such as hybrid type, growth stages (at
556 least planting dates and/or mid-silk) may add to the robustness of a future regional model.

557 *3.6 Potential strategies to mitigate pre-harvest contamination*

558 Site-specific management strategies could be adapted at the beginning or through the season
559 to minimize host plant stress, which may reduce aflatoxin risk. Use of irrigation during critical
560 risk weeks may reduce the risk (Fortnum and Manwiller, 1985; Jones et al., 1981; Payne et al.,
561 1986); but irrigation amount and timing should be based on crop needs, atmospheric conditions,
562 and soil water holding capacity. Planting date adjustment, within-field planting density and/or

563 selection of hybrids with suitable relative maturities to reduce plant exposure to drought stress
564 during critical growth timespans should be considered as well (Abbas et al., 2007; Bruns and
565 Abbas, 2006; Alvarado-Carrillo, et al.; 2010; Payne and Widstrom, 1992). A grower could
566 consider selecting of the most appropriate hybrid for a given site/region based on soil type and
567 drought risk assessment in a particular locality. Separation of the field into management zones
568 based on risk stratification criteria (e.g. soil texture, plant available water holding capacity,
569 electrical conductivity, and/or soil organic matter content) could be considered as well.
570 Separation of the field into management zones will allow to: 1) plant appropriate hybrid type per
571 zone, 2) segregate harvest if necessary, and 3) apply variable rate irrigation/fertigation at
572 different zones as needed. Determination of best harvest timing may be based on the predicted
573 contamination risk for a particular season and location (Battilani et al., 2013). Therefore,
574 decisions for early harvest, subsequent grain drying, and proper grain storage aiming to
575 reduce/cease further infection and toxin accumulation, might be an option (Hell and Mutegi,
576 2011); but the additional associated cost needs to be accounted for. Grain storage segregation
577 based on risk prediction for different harvested lots is an option (Ni, et al., 2011).

578 In addition, risk maps (Battilani et al., 2016) by county or by regions within a single state or
579 regional risk maps could be generated using ARID data. Those regional aflatoxin risk maps
580 might be useful for adaption or implementation of risk mitigation strategies including: 1)
581 selection of drought tolerant corn hybrids in high risk areas, 2) cultivating cover crops for soil
582 moisture conservation on high risk areas, 3) shifting in planting dates, and 4) applying variable
583 rate irrigation and seed to minimize plant water stress. Moreover, the logistic model used herein
584 to predict aflatoxin risk in corn, could be incorporated into decision support systems (Chauhan et
585 al., 2015) and develop on-line tools to predict the risk earlier in season based on changes in

586 drought conditions during corn growth and development. This may allow for more informative,
587 effective, and efficient crop management decisions by the producers and the agri-business
588 sectors (Battilani et al., 2013; Chauhan et al., 2015; Cotty and Jaime-Garcia, 2007).

589 **4. Conclusions**

590 Results from the control experiment (Mississippi) analysis indicated that ARID could be used
591 as a predictive tool for aflatoxin risk assessment. Hybrid susceptibility to
592 infection/contamination, along with soil type contributed significant to predicting aflatoxin
593 occurrence. Additionally, this work identified significant weeks during the growing season when
594 changes in drought had an influence on the likelihood of aflatoxin contamination. This study
595 illuminated that the critical timespan for infection and subsequent contamination extend both
596 prior and beyond mid-silk. Time windows, as indicated by the Mississippi study when changes in
597 drought have the greatest influence on aflatoxin risk, included weeks four prior and after mid-
598 silk, among others. Additionally, the highly susceptible hybrid grown in lighter soil showed a
599 higher risk for aflatoxin contamination with changes in drought conditions during critical week
600 windows compared to the moderately susceptible hybrids grown in the heavier soil. The
601 proposed methodology was extended from field (plot) level to a regional scale (Georgia study),
602 and the results are presented here in as well. Both predictive models were externally assessed on
603 independent datasets and showed high accuracy in classifying samples as contaminated above or
604 below the preselected threshold (20 $\mu\text{g}/\text{kg}$). Identifying critical weeks influencing the risk for
605 contamination early in the season may allow farmers, researchers, and extension specialists to
606 monitor changes of aflatoxin risk with in-season drought changes, and thus, make more
607 informative management decision in an effort to mitigate the problem (Battilani et al., 2013;
608 Chauhan et al., 2015; Cotty and Jaime-Garcia, 2007). This is true particularly during years

609 characterized by conducive to toxin accumulation conditions. Finally, this work emphasizes the
610 effect drought timing and drought severity has on pre-harvest corn aflatoxin risk alterations
611 during the season and further illuminates the impact drought has on contamination levels under
612 different environments.

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618 Scully at USDA-ARS in Tifton, GA.

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