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- 1 **Title:** The ability of maize roots to grow through compacted soil is not dependent on
- 2 the amount of roots formed

3	Authors:					
4	Dorien J. Vanhees ^{a,b}					
5	Kenneth W. Loades ^b					
6	A. Glyn Bengough ^{b,c}					
7	Sacha J. Mooney ^a					
8	Jonathan P. Lynch ^a (*)					
9 10	^a Division of Agricultural and Environment Sciences, School of Biosciences, University of Nottingham, Sutton Bonington Campus, Leicestershire, LE12 5RD, UK					
11	^b The James Hutton Institute, Errol Road Invergowrie, DD2 5DA, UK					
12 13	^c School of Science and Engineering, The University of Dundee, Dundee, DD1 4HUK	ΙN,				
14 15 16 17 18	Author email addresses: dorien.vanhees@nottingham.ac.uk Kenneth.Loads@hutton.ac.uk a.bengough@dundee.ac.uk sacha.mooney@nottingham.ac.uk jpl4@psu.edu					
19 20	(*) corresponding author. E-mail: jpl4@psu.edu Telephone: (+1) 814-863-2256					

21 Abstract

22 Highlights:

- Soil compaction influenced the proportion of coarse roots (i.e. > 1 mm diameter)
 of maize in a genotype-dependent manner
- Rooting depth was reduced and root distribution within the soil profile changed
 when grown in compacted soil
- Rooting depth and total root length, total coarse root length and total fine root
 length were not correlated with each other in compacted soil
- The ability of roots of different genotypes to reach a certain depth was not
 related to the amount of roots formed

31 Keywords

32 Impedance; compaction; root length; root distribution; compensatory growth

34 Abstract

Mechanical impedance is a primary constraint to root growth and hence the capture 35 of soil resources. To investigate whether rooting depth and root length under 36 mechanical impedance caused by compaction are correlated we evaluated 12 maize 37 38 lines at two field sites. To distinguish between lateral and nodal roots, roots were 39 sorted into different diameter classes. Coarse roots had diameters >1 mm and represent nodal root axes. Greater proportions of coarse roots on compacted plots 40 were found at both field sites however results were driven by genotypic variation. Soil 41 compaction reduced total rooting depth (in all diameter classes) and coarse rooting 42 depth at both sites compared to non-compacted plots. Root distribution was influenced 43 by compaction with greater root length densities closer to the soil surface. Root length 44 and root depth were not related to each other under impeded conditions. Coarse roots 45 46 of some genotypes became obstructed on the compacted plots, while other genotypes were capable of growing through the impeding soil and reached deeper soil strata 47 resulting in differential distribution of roots through the soil profile. On compacted plots 48 we observed genotypes with similar root depths but with contrasting coarse root 49 50 lengths. The ability of roots to grow through compacted soils is therefore not 51 dependent solely on the coarse root length formed by the root system.

52 **1.** Introduction

53 The ability of plants to acquire nutrients and water is dependent on soil exploration. 54 Mechanical impedance can lead to reduced total root length and/or a redistribution of root length within the soil profile (Pfeifer et al., 2014a; Shierlaw and Alston, 1984), 55 which could affect the acquisition of water and nutrients. As soils get denser and 56 57 stronger with depth, due to overburden pressure (Gao et al., 2012, 2016), mechanical 58 impedance will often restrict deeper rooting root phenotypes more than topsoil foraging root phenotypes. Periodic droughts are common in many ecosystems and drier soils 59 are generally harder (Gao et al., 2012; To and Kay, 2005; Vaz et al., 2011; Whalley et 60 al., 2005; Suralta et al., 2018). However, plants with root systems that grow deeper 61 62 are in general better adapted to drought (Chimungu et al., 2014a; Lilley and 63 Kirkegaard, 2016; Lynch, 2013; Zhan et al., 2015). Certain soils offer very large mechanical impedance to roots, for example hard-setting soils in Australia (Mullins et 64 65 al., 1987) or rainfed lowland rice cultivation systems (Suralta et al., 2018). Different agricultural management approaches can also introduce compaction and plough pans 66 by wheeled traffic or trampling (Batey, 2009; Hamza and Anderson, 2005). Depending 67 on the soil textural characteristics, suboptimal soil conditions during trafficking (such 68 as high moisture contents) will exacerbate compaction (Horn et al., 1995; Raper, 69 2005). Roots can become confined to surface soil strata when not capable of 70 71 penetrating through a hard soil layer such as a plough pan (Barraclough and Weir, 1988; Ehlers et al., 1983). Root systems are able to compensate root growth by 72 73 exploiting the lesser impeded regions of the soil, as illustrated by split pot experiments 74 (Bingham and Bengough, 2003; Pfeifer et al., 2014a) or layered pot systems (Shierlaw 75 and Alston, 1984). Roots of maize (Chimungu et al., 2015), rice (Chandra Babu et al.,

2001; Clark *et al.*, 2000, 2002; Yu *et al.*, 1995), wheat (Botwright Acuña and Wade,
2005; Kubo *et al.*, 2006) and common bean (Rivera *et al.*, 2019) show substantial
genotypic variability for penetrating strong wax layers simulating mechanical
impedance.

Root systems consist of distinct root classes which vary by taxa, for example many
dicot taxa have a dominant taproot, while monocots, such as cereals, form nodal roots
from shoot nodes (Hochholdinger *et al.*, 2004; Lynch and Brown, 2012; Rich and Watt,
2013). Adult maize root systems consist of primary, seminal, crown (belowground
nodal) and brace (aboveground nodal) roots, all these classes form lateral roots. For
monocotyledons, nodal roots are the main parent axes of lateral roots present at depth
as these laterals proliferate from nodal roots (Cairns *et al.*, 2004; Nagel *et al.*, 2012).

87 Genotypic variation for lateral root phenotypes has functional consequences in maize (Postma et al., 2014; Zhan et al., 2015; Zhan and Lynch, 2015; Jia et al., 2018). Root 88 classes have different elongation rates that vary greatly as a function of time. For 89 maize, lateral roots have been found to elongate at 2.2 cm day⁻¹ for 2.5 days, while 90 nodal roots elongated at a rate of 3 cm day⁻¹ over a 5 week period (Cahn et al., 1989). 91 92 Under non-impeded conditions primary roots of maize elongated at 4.8 cm day⁻¹, while seminals only elongated at 3.2 cm day⁻¹ (Veen and Boone, 1990). Differences in 93 elongation rates between root types can lead to soils being differentially explored with 94 time by each root type and could affect the volume and depth of bulk soil that can be 95 96 explored within a certain time by different root types. Biomechanical properties also vary according to root class, with seminal roots being stronger than lateral roots 97 98 (Loades et al., 2013). Whether this translates to specific penetration ability under impeded soil conditions according to root class remains to be investigated. It has been 99 hypothesised that the contrasting phenotypes of distinct root classes adds to a plants' 100 plasticity and flexibility when interacting with different environments (Chochois et al., 101 2015; Wu et al., 2016) but the functional implications of the differential effects of 102 mechanical impedance on distinct root classes are poorly understood. 103

104 Root system size differs among genotypes and different soil conditions (Gao and 105 Lynch, 2016; Nakhforoosh et al., 2014). Root system size, expressed as total root length or root length density, can be split between coarse and fine roots (Cahn et al., 106 107 1989; Steinemann et al., 2015; Varney et al., 1991). Small grain cereals such as wheat or barley are characterised by fine axial roots, maize has thicker axial roots, while 108 109 dicots and perennials have very coarse axial roots. But for all these species, a distinction between a main root axes and smaller diameter lateral roots can be made. 110 Coarser roots are needed in order to deploy finer roots within the soil profile. Studies 111 on wheat suggest that wheat genotypes with more root axes had greater penetration 112 of wax layers (Whalley et al., 2013). 113

Mechanical impedance not only affects root growth, it also has an impact on shoot growth. Root to shoot ratios can decrease under compaction (Andrade *et al.,* 1993; Hoffmann and Jungh, 1995; Pfeifer *et al.,* 2014a). Aboveground plant growth is impacted as leaf elongation rates can be reduced (Andrade *et al.,* 1993; Young *et al.,* 118 1997) and the rate of leaf appearance decreases (Beemster and Masle, 1996) when 119 roots experience mechanical impedance. The reduction of shoot and root growth due 120 to mechanical impedance can result in decreasing yield (Kirkegaard *et al.*, 1992 121 ;Tuzzin de Moraes *et al.*, 2020).

Better root growth under mechanical impedance can be attributed to different traits. 122 For instance, the frictional component of mechanical impedance is reduced when roots 123 produce mucilage or border cell sloughing (lijima et al. 2000, 2004; Bengough and 124 McKenzie, 1997). Smaller root tip radius to length ratios are linked to greater 125 126 elongation rates under mechanical impedance (Colombi et al., 2017b). Another beneficial trait is the presence of root hairs which can provide anchorage for roots to 127 cross from loose to harder soil layers (Bengough et al., 2011; Haling et al., 2013). Root 128 129 hairs also maintain water uptake when soils dry (Carminati et al., 2017). Root 130 anatomical traits such as greater cortical cell diameter have been linked to reduced energy costs under impeded conditions (Colombi et al., 2019). It has been suggested 131 132 that smaller outer cortical cells prevent buckling, which facilitate penetration of harder layers (Chimungu et al., 2015). 133

Genotypes can adjust their root distribution with depth in response to compaction (Barraclough and Weir, 1988) however few studies have compared different genotypes and their redistribution of roots under compaction. Little is known about root system size for those root systems that do manage to grow deeper in compacted soils. The hypothesis that rooting depth and root length are not related to each other on compacted plots was tested for deeper rooting genotypes.

140 2. Material and Methods

141 **2.1.** Plant material and growth conditions

142 Twelve maize (Zea mays L.) recombinant inbred lines from a study by Chimungu et al. (2015) were selected for different levels of root penetrability of a wax layer. These 143 144 genotypes were planted in a split-plot design in order to study their root growth in 145 compacted conditions at two field sites. Seeds were obtained from Dr. Shawn Kaeppler (University of Wisconsin, Madison WI, USA – Genetics Cooperations Stock 146 147 Center, Urbana, IL, USA). Genotypes were grown at the Apache Root Biology Centre (ARBC), Willcox Arizona, USA (32º01'N, 109º41'W), planted on June 16, 2016, and 148 149 the Russell E. Larson Agricultural Research Center in Rock Springs (further referred to as PSU), Pennsylvania, USA (40°42'N, 77°57'W), planted on July 10, 2017. Field 150 sites differed in soil texture, the ARBC site has a soil classified as a Grabe series 151 (coarse-loamy, mixed, superactive, calcareous thermic Torrifluvent) and has a clay 152 153 loam texture, while the PSU site is classified as a Hagerstown series (silt-loam, fine, mixed, semiactive, mesic Typic Hapludalf) and has a silt-loam texture. Compaction 154 155 was introduced by passing over the treated plots with heavy machinery. At ARBC a 4 wheel tractor (4 tonnes with 8 passes) and at PSU a 3-axle truck (20 tonnes with 4 156 157 passes) were used. Penetration resistance (Figure 1) as well as an increase of dry 158 bulk density were measured over the soil profile in order to verify increased soil

159 strength and soil density. A FieldScout SC900 Compaction Meter (Spectrum 160 Technologies Inc., Aurora, IL, USA) fitted with a 1/2 inch cone was used to measure the penetration resistance. Dry bulk density was calculated as the mass of oven dried 161 soil per unit soil sample volume (Blake and Hartge, 1986). Soil was oven dried at 162 163 105°C until a constant weight was achieved. Irrigation was managed on the basis of 164 soil moisture content to avoid water deficit stress (PR2/6-tubes at ARBC (Delta-T Devices Ltd, Cambridge UK) and multiplexed TDR-100 probes at PSU (Campbell 165 Scientific Inc., Logan, UT, USA). PR2/6-tubes were installed on both the compacted 166 and non-compacted plots at ARBC, while TDR-100 probes were installed at a nearby 167 field site on non-compacted conditions to determine if irrigation was needed (Figure 168 S1: gravimetric water contents were calculated from volumetric water contents and 169 soil dry bulk density). As the ARBC field site was based in the desert, the plots were 170 171 heavily irrigated, while PSU plots did not require any supplemental irrigation. Nutrients 172 and pesticides were applied based on standard agronomic practices (Table S1).

173 2.2. Root sampling

174 When all genotypes were tasselling (55 and 51 days after planting for ARBC (coarse-175 loam) and PSU (silt-loam) respectively) one soil core was taken from each subplot. 176 Coring tubes (60 cm deep, 5.1 cm diameter) fitted with a plastic sleeve (4.5 cm diameter) were driven into the soil between 2 plants in a row (Trachsel et al., 2013). 177 Cores were stored at 4° C until root washing could be carried out, up to a maximum of 178 2 weeks. Cores were divided into six 10 cm increments and roots were washed out of 179 the soil over a 850 µm sieve for each depth profile. Roots were temporarily stored in 180 181 75% ethanol in water (v/v). Root length per section was measured by scanning roots on a flatbed scanner (Epson Perfection V700 photo, Epson America, Inc., Long Beach, 182 USA) and analysis was carried out with WinRHIZO Pro 2013e system (Regent 183 184 Systems Inc., Quebec, Canada). Each core increment was captured by images taken 185 at a resolution of 400 dpi (15.75 pxls/mm), speed priority setting off and dust removal on high. Axial roots (nodal, primary, seminals) and lateral roots have been identified 186 as having a diameter >0.6 cm and <1.0 cm for maize respectively (Cahn et al., 1989; 187 188 Varney et al. 1991, Hund et al. 2009) and are therefore used instead of the Böhm classification (Böhm, 1979). Using root diameter classes 0 - 0.5, 0.5 - 1.0, 1 - 1.5, 189 1.5 - 2.0, 2.0 - 2.5, 2.5 - 3.0, 3.0 - 3.5, 3.5 - 4.0, >4 mm permitted discrimination of 190 coarse (> 1 mm diameter) and fine (< 1 mm diameter) roots and attributed coarse roots 191 to nodal root classes from the third node and upward. However individual nodal root 192 classes could not be distinguished from cores as there is no reference to root crown 193 194 position. Root length measurements (total, coarse and fine) and proportions (coarse and fine) were made for the entire soil core. Root distributions were compared on the 195 196 basis of root length densities measurements within 10 cm increments. D₉₅ and D₇₅ are 197 the rooting depth above which 95 and 75% of the total root length within a core were located. These rooting depth measurements were calculated by linear interpolation 198 (Schenk and Jackson, 2002). When applied to the coarse root fraction in the core, in 199 200 order to calculate the coarse rooting depth, these measurements are indicated as D_{95c},

D_{75c}. An overview of the different measurements directly measured or calculated from
 the winRHIZO scans and their definition can be found in Table 1.

203 2.3. Plant sampling

204 Two plants per subplot (4 replicate subplots per compaction treatment) were sampled 205 at tasselling using the 'shovelomics' method (Trachsel et al., 2011). Subsequent measurements per subplot were obtained by averaging between the two harvested 206 207 plants per subplot. Root crowns were carefully washed and removed from the stem 208 above the brace roots, brace roots not reaching the soil were clipped off at the base 209 of the stem to expose the crown roots. Root crowns were then imaged to obtain 210 information about the root angle in order to establish that root angle did not affect rooting depth (Figure S2). We used a Nikon D70s camera with a sigma DC 18-50mm 211 lens which produced 4000 x 6000 pxl images. Illumination was achieved by white 212 213 fluorescent indoor lighting with a white cloth cover for light diffusion. Root angle from the horizontal was manually measured in ImageJ (Schneider et al., 2012). Above 214 ground plant parts were dried at 60° C for 3 days and dry weight of the biomass 215 216 recorded (Figure S3).

217 2.4. Statistical Analysis

Genotypes were planted in a completely randomised split-plot design with compaction 218 treatment at the whole-plot level (167.26 m²) and twelve genotypes as subplots, 219 220 replicated four times in each field site. Each subplot was 3.05 m x 4.57 m and ordering of genotypes (subplots) was randomised within each whole-plot. Every subplot was 221 then planted with 4 rows of the appropriate genotype, with 23 cm within row spacing 222 223 and 76 cm between row spacing reaching a planting density of approximately 57500 plants per hectare. This planting density is sparser than standard agronomic practices 224 which reduced intra-plant competition and aided sampling. All root distribution 225 226 variables derived from coring (1 soil core per subplot) were transformed using a Box-227 Cox transformation to achieve normality before analysing the data in a split plot 228 ANOVA. Total root length per genotype was plotted against averaged penetration resistance across both field sites. Root proportions per genotype were plotted per field 229 site and post-hoc comparisons between compacted and non-compacted treatments 230 231 were carried out using a Tukey HSD test. The same was done for coarse and total rooting depth, where additionally a linear regression was tested between these 232 233 measurements. A generalised linear model was applied to assess the effect of field 234 site, compaction and genotype and coarse and total root lengths on rooting depth. Relationships between variables were first assessed by correlation plots on pooled 235 236 data across all genotypes. For the relationship between D₇₅ and D_{75c} an analysis of 237 covariance (ANCOVA) was performed, followed by linear regression. As genotypic effects were identified by the split plot analysis on certain variables, individual linear 238 239 regressions were made on the averaged genotypic values. Rooting depth data (coarse 240 and total) and total root length averaged per genotype were normally distributed within 241 impedance level and field site datasets. Root proportional data was analysed by using 242 a beta regression (Cribari-Neto and Zeileis, 2015). To further analyse the variable

243 relationships among each other, a principal component analysis (PCA) was conducted within field site - compaction treatment combinations. Principal components were 244 245 retained based on eigenvalues greater than 1. In order to investigate different types of root distributions under compacted conditions rooting depth data was plotted against 246 247 total root length data and genotypes with either similar root length and contrasting 248 depth or with similar depth and contrasting root length were identified. An ANOVA was used to test the effect of genotype, compaction, total rooting depth (D₇₅), total coarse 249 rooting depth (D_{75c}), total root length (TRL) and total fine root length (TRL_f) on 250 aboveground biomass. Graphpad Prism (Graphpad Software, 2017) was used for 251 252 visualising data and R version 3.5.0 (R Core Team, 2018) was used for data analysis.

253 **3. Results**

254 3.1. Decrease in root length on compacted soil depends on field site

Total root length (TRL) from ARBC (coarse-loam) soil cores was greater than the total 255 root length in PSU (silt-loam) cores in both compacted and non-compacted plots 256 (Figure 2, S4). On coarse-loam (ARBC) total root length was reduced by 47.4% on 257 average across all genotypes when grown on the compacted plots and total root length 258 259 was clearly reduced for each genotype (Figure 2, Table 2). As total coarse root length represents only a small part of the total root length (Figure 2), total root length 260 reduction on coarse-loam (ARBC) is mainly due to reduced total fine root length 261 262 (Figure 2, Table 2). In contrast, on silt-loam (PSU), compaction did not significantly 263 alter total root length (Table 2), possibly due to greater penetration resistance on both compacted and non-compacted plots in comparison with the coarse-loam (ARBC) 264 265 plots (Figure S4).

Total coarse root length (TRL_c) was differentially affected by the compaction treatment 266 at both field sites (Figure 2, Table 2). A compaction x genotype interaction was present 267 on coarse-loam (ARBC), but not on silt-loam (PSU) (Table 2). The overall average of 268 total coarse root length decreased from $48.9 \text{ cm} \pm 3.4$ (se) to $39.0 \text{ cm} \pm 3.3$ (se) under 269 270 compaction on coarse-loam (ARBC), while it increased from 16.3 cm \pm 2.2 (se) to 23.7 271 cm ± 3.3 (se) under compaction on silt-loam (PSU). Total fine root length (TRLf) was negatively affected by the compaction treatment on coarse-loam (ARBC) (decreasing 272 273 from 1755.9 cm \pm 77.9 (se) to 809.1 cm \pm 37.3 (se)), but was not affected on silt-loam (PSU) (Table 2). At both field sites no genotypic differences were present for total fine 274 root length (Table 2). A positive effect of compaction was noted on overall coarse root 275 proportion (P_c) at ARBC (coarse-loam) with an increase from 2.8% to 4.4% under 276 277 compacted soil conditions (Table 2, Figure 3). At PSU (silt-loam) we observed an increase from 3.4% to 4.4% for Pc, (Figure 3) although no compaction treatment effect 278 279 was noted (Table 2). Genotype had significant effect on the proportion of coarse roots (P_c) and fine roots (P_f) at both field sites and for coarse-loam (ARBC) there was an 280 interaction between compaction treatment and genotype present (Table 2). 281 Compaction increased the proportion of coarse roots for most genotypes (Figure 3). 282 The only genotype that had greater Pc under impeded conditions at both field sites 283 284 was IBM051. Other genotypes manifesting increased Pc under impeded conditions

were OhW122, OhW119, NyH126, IBM146 and IBM059 at ARBC (coarse-loam), but these did not show increased P_c in silt-loam (PSU). In silt-loam (PSU) other genotypes such as OhW128 and IBM284 increased their P_c , while they did not in coarse-loam (ARBC). A genotype that did not have greater coarse root proportions in response to compaction in either location was IBM086, this genotype had similar coarse root proportions in coarse-loam (ARBC), while in silt-loam (PSU) the coarse root proportions appeared smaller under compaction.

3.2. Total rooting depth versus coarse rooting depth

293 Absolute and relative measures of root length density per depth increment provided insight into how roots were growing within the soil profile and how root distributions 294 change in response to compaction (Figure 4). Root distribution changes became 295 clearer when relative root length density measures were considered (Figure 4B-D). 296 297 Distributions of coarse root length density and root length density differed (Figure 4) 298 illustrated by differences in values of D₉₅ and D₇₅ (rooting depth considering all roots 299 diameter classes) versus D_{95c} and D_{75c} (rooting depth considering coarse roots) (D₇₅ 300 and D_{75c} shown in figure 4, 5). Total rooting depth and coarse rooting depth measurements were correlated (Figure 5F). D₇₅ and D_{75c} were significantly reduced 301 by compaction at both locations, while D₉₅ and D_{95c} were only reduced at ARBC 302 303 (coarse-loam) (Table 2). A genotypic effect on rooting depth was present in coarseloam (ARBC), but absent in silt-loam (PSU) (Table 2). On coarse-loam (ARBC) some 304 305 genotypes had significantly shallower total and coarse rooting depths under impeded 306 conditions (IBM014, IBM059, IBM146, OhW119, OhW122) (Figure 5A-C). Other genotypes such as OHW128 had shallower total root length under impeded conditions, 307 308 but coarse rooting depth was not significantly reduced (Figure 6C). In contrast, IBM323, IBM178, IBM284 and IBM086 had shallower coarse rooting depth under 309 310 compaction, but total rooting depth was not reduced (Figure 5A-C). On silt-loam (PSU) an effect of compaction was present on D75c and D75 (Table 1), however only 311 genotype, IBM059, showed significantly shallower coarse root distributions (Figure 312 5B). 313

314 **3.3.** Relationships between root distribution variables

Relationships between the different variables can be further explored through the 315 correlation plot across all genotypes (Figure S5, S6, S7) as well as the PCA plots per 316 317 field site with treatment combination (Figure S8). Individual linear regressions between root distribution variables depicting the different genotypes can be found in Figures 6, 318 S6 and S7. Across all field sites and levels of compaction rooting depth variables (D₉₅, 319 D₇₅, D_{95c} and D_{75c}) positively correlated to each other (Figure S8). Likewise root length 320 321 variables total root length (TRL), total fine root length (TRLf) and total coarse root 322 length (TRL_c) correlated strongly with each other (Figure S8). Relationships between rooting depth and the other root distribution variables are discussed below. 323

324 3.3.1. The relationship between total rooting depth and other root distribution 325 variables

326 A negative relationship between total root length and total rooting depth was found 327 under ARBC (coarse-loam) non-compacted conditions at a probability of 0.10 (Figure 6A, S5). General linear modelling indicated integrative effects of field site and 328 compaction on the relationship between total root length and total rooting depth (Table 329 330 3). As total root length mainly consists of fine roots, a relationship persists between 331 total fine root length and total rooting depth (Figures S6). No such relationship was seen on silt-loam (PSU) or under compaction (Figures 6B, S6). No relationship was 332 333 found for total rooting depth and total coarse root length (Figure S6C-D) and coarse root proportion (Figure S6E-F) under any scenario. 334

335 3.3.2. The relationship between coarse rooting depth and other root distribution 336 variables

A positive relationship between coarse root proportion and coarse rooting depth (D75_c) was present under non-compacted conditions at the coarse loam (ARBC) field site (Figure 6C). This correlation was not observed under compacted conditions, nor at the other field site (Figure 6C-D). Coarse rooting depth was also not correlated with total root length, total coarse root length or total fine root length under any of the field site with compaction treatment combinations (Figures 6E-F, S7). This could also be deduced from the general linear model (Table 3).

344 3.4. Root length density distributions show field-site dependent genotypic 345 adjustments to compacted conditions

Genotype had an effect on coarse rooting depth on coarse-loam (ARBC) but on silt-346 loam (PSU) (Table 2). Coarse (Figure 7) and total (Figure S9) root length distributions 347 over the soil profile at PSU (silt-loam) had smaller root length densities than on coarse-348 loam (ARBC). Distribution differences with depth between genotypes were less 349 evident on silt-loam (PSU) (Figure 7), no significant statistical effect of genotype alone 350 351 was noted on D₇₅ or D_{75c} (Table 2), which could be attributed to larger standard errors 352 at PSU (Figure 5D) and generally less roots found. The general linear model (Table 353 3) shows that genotype in combination with other factors did have a significant effect 354 on D75c.Different genotypes were found from each field site that showed similar coarse root length but contrasted in root depth or showed similar coarse root depth 355 356 but contrasted in total root length. (Figure S10). For these measurements we observed genotypes with similar total coarse root length, but different rooting depths 357 358 representing shallow and deeper root systems with similar root system sizes (IBM284 359 versus IBM323 for coarse loam (ARBC) and IBM051 and OhW122 for silt-loam (PSU)) (Figure 8A). A similar analysis was carried out based on total root length and depth 360 361 (Figure S11, S12).

362 3.5. Relationship between root distribution variables and aboveground 363 biomass

Compaction influenced aboveground biomass significantly (Figure 9, S2) but could also be related to other root measurements derived from coring. For both coarse-loam (ARBC) and silt-loam (PSU) soils, plant biomass was higher when coarse roots were able to grow deeper due to being less impeded (Figure 9). In coarse-loam (ARBC)
 however TRL_f also played a role, while in silt-loam (PSU) greater plant biomass was
 reached on non-compacted plots without TRL_f having a role.

370 **4. Discussion**

In this study, on two different soils with compacted and non-compacted plots, we found 371 total root length reduction due to compaction f was field site dependent (Figures 2, 372 373 Table 2). Coarse root proportions were influenced by genotype at both field sites (Figure 4, Table 2). Rooting depth of coarse and total roots were strongly correlated 374 (Figure 5). Root length and rooting depth variables were not correlated when plants 375 376 were grown on compacted plots (Figures 6, S5, S6, S7, S8). Our results support the hypothesis that the ability of roots to grow to depth through compacted soils is not 377 dependent on the amount of roots formed by the root system. Furthermore, we 378 379 propose that root length density distributions are either characterised by avoidance or by adaptive strategies for different genotypes when grown in compaction. 380

381 **4.1.** Root phenotypes show high levels of plasticity

382 **4.1.1. Field site effects on root systems**

Total root lengths (TRL), total fine root lengths (TRL_f) and total coarse root lengths 383 (TRL_c) were greater on coarse-loam (ARBC) than on silt-loam (PSU) (Figures 2, S6). 384 385 The significant reduction of the fine root length due to compaction on coarse-loam (ARBC) could influence the proportions of fine and coarse roots. Greater changes in 386 coarse root proportions were observed at ARBC (coarse-loam) versus PSU (silt-loam) 387 (Figure 3), which could potentially be driven by a disproportionally greater reduction of 388 total fine root length versus that of total coarse root length (causing a shift towards 389 greater proportion of coarse roots). Rooting depths D75 and D75c were different at the 390 two field sites (Figures 5, S6, S7, Table 3). Differences between field sites for 391 observations considering root length, root proportions and root depth could be related 392 393 to differences in soil parameters. Maize seedlings had significantly longer seminal 394 roots in a sandy loam versus a sandy clay loam (Panayiotopoulos et al., 1994) while rooting depths of grapevines were deeper in coarse textured soils than fine textured 395 soils (Nagarajah, 1987). Greater root length was possibly attained on coarse-loam 396 (ARBC) because of the greater sand fraction in the soil versus silt-loam (PSU). 397 398 Another possible explanation for the root length differences between coarse- and silt-399 loam could be a difference in root-soil contact between the field sites. On the noncompacted plots of PSU (silt-loam), smaller dry bulk densities could mean reduced 400 401 levels of root-soil contact, which in turn reduces water and nutrient uptake (Veen et 402 al., 1992). The coarse-loam field site (ARBC) consisted of a more uniform, less structured soil, while the silt-loam field site (PSU) had more pronounced soil structure 403 404 in terms of aggregation observed in the field. Roots can take advantage of cracks or bio-pores from earthworms or old root channels present to bypass compacted layers 405 406 (Atwell, 1993; Hatano et al., 1988; Stirzaker et al., 1996). Cracks and pores will impose 407 lower axial pressures on roots than bulk soil (Jin et al., 2013). It is likely that the 408 presence of such low-resistance channels in the soil structure at PSU (in silt-loam)
 409 could have permitted deeper rooting than at ARBC (coarse-loam).

410 **4.1.2.** Compaction influences root system distribution

411 Compaction influenced root growth at both field sites, but more significantly at ARBC 412 (coarse-loam), where all rooting variables were significantly affected (Table 2). At both field sites the compaction treatment influenced the average total coarse root length 413 414 across genotypes in different ways (Figure 3, Table 2). Total coarse root length decreased on coarse-loam (ARBC), which could be due to the effect compaction had 415 on root system size in general. Total and fine root length were more significantly 416 reduced than total coarse root length under compaction (Table 2, Figure 2). 417 Reductions in root length in compacted soil has been reported for different species 418 including maize (Grzesiak, 2009; lijima and Kono, 1991). At PSU (silt-loam) total and 419 420 fine root length were not significantly affected by compaction (Table 2) and total coarse root length increased (Figure 3, Table 2). Increased total coarse root length could 421 potentially be caused by radial expansion as roots generally increase in diameter when 422 423 experiencing mechanical impedance. Elongation is slowed compared to elongation 424 rates at lower levels of mechanical impedance, which in turn decreases root length 425 (Bengough et al., 2006; Bengough and Mullins, 1991; Bengough and Young, 1993). While all root length measures decreased on coarse-loam (ARBC), these observations 426 427 on root length were different on silt-loam (PSU) where fine and coarse roots were differentially affected by the compaction treatment. Coarser roots such as seminal or 428 nodal root axes were more impeded than lateral roots possibly reflecting the fewer 429 430 macropores present under compacted conditions. Such effects have been found in barley growing in glass ballotini of different sizes, with larger pores only restricting 431 seminal growth and smaller pores restricting both laterals and seminal growth of barley 432 433 (Goss, 1977). Laterals capable of growing in pores larger than their own diameters 434 would encounter less impedance than those laterals forced to grow through bulk soil 435 or smaller pores (lijima and Kono, 1991).

436 Under compaction both rooting depth (D₇₅) and rooting depth of coarse roots (D_{75c}) 437 decreased at both field sites (Tables 1, 2; Figures 5, 6, S6, S7). Reduction of D75c due to compaction could be linked to reduced aboveground biomass (Figure 9). Shallower 438 439 rooting depths probably reflect slower root elongation rates, so it will take longer for a root to reach deep soil strata. Smaller differences in rooting depth of compacted and 440 non-compacted plots at PSU (silt-loam) (Figure 5) could be due to the smaller 441 differences in penetration resistance with increasing depth versus ARBC (coarse-442 loam) (Figure 1). Roots at the PSU field site (silt-loam) would initially experience 443 greater levels of mechanical impedance, but once they pass this zone should be able 444 445 to elongate more normally. The reduction in rooting depth under compaction is in agreement with observations with wheat (Barraclough and Weir, 1988; Chen et al., 446 447 2014). Compaction altered root distribution, generally shifting root distribution to 448 shallower strata (Figures 4, 5, 7, S9). Multiple studies have described similar 449 redistributions of roots under impeded field conditions for various crops (Barraclough

450 and Weir, 1988; Brereton et al., 1986; Chen and Weil, 2011; Chen et al., 2014). For 451 maize specifically, roots of 2-3 week old plants were confined to surface layers under compaction (Veen and Boone, 1990). A similar observation was made during a 4 week 452 growing period for maize grown in root boxes (lijima et al., 1991) and in the field up to 453 454 tasselling (Laboski et al., 1998). Soil compaction reduces soil porosity, hydraulic 455 conductivity and air permeability and this increases the risk of hypoxia (Laboski et al., 1998; Kuncuro et al., 2014; Xiong et al., 2020). In this set-up of compacting entire field 456 457 sites, the stress caused by impedance and hypoxia cannot be mutually excluded. Therefore hypoxia might also have played a role in reducing growth of the root system. 458 459 A recent studies by Xiong et al. (2020) illustrates that higher moisture contents 460 negatively influenced root growth in compacted soils.

461 **4.1.3. Compaction influenced genotypes differently**

Under compaction at both field sites most genotypes had a greater proportion of 462 coarse roots (Figure 3) and genotypes differed in this response (Table 3). An 463 increased proportion of coarse roots could either be attributed to (1) the reduction of 464 465 the fine root proportion, (2) the increase in diameter of roots grown under impeded 466 conditions due to thickening or (3) a combination of the two. On coarse-loam (ARBC), 467 total fine root length was significantly reduced (Table 3, Figure 2), which in turn would influence root proportions. However, as there was no such reduction of total fine root 468 length on silt-loam (PSU), root thickening, which is the increase in radial diameter of 469 the roots, is probably the main cause of a shift in root proportions on silt-loam. 470

Genotypic differences were found for total and coarse rooting depth variables (Figures 471 5, 7, 8, S6, S7, Tables 2, 3). No relationship between root length variables existed 472 (with the exception of negative relationship between total root length and total rooting 473 474 depth under non-compacted conditions at ARBC (coarse-loam)). Deeper rooting was not associated with root system size. Root phenes that have been found to contribute 475 476 to overcoming impedance include anatomical traits such as reduced cell file number 477 and increased levels of aerenchyma (Lynch and Wojciechowski, 2015; Vanhees et al., 478 2020) and is thought to be linked to reduction of metabolic costs, reduced energy 479 and/or facilitating O₂ diffusion (Hanbury and Atwell, 2005; Lynch, 2015; Colombi et al.,2019). It has also been suggested that anatomical traits such as smaller outer 480 481 cortical region cells will stabilize a root during the penetration of a harder soil layers (Chimungu et al. 2015). Other phenes are sharper root tip shape, the presence of root 482 hairs, the production of mucilage, root cap sloughing and steeper growth angles 483 (Bengough et al., 2011; Colombi et al., 2017b; Haling et al., 2013; Iijima et al., 2000, 484 2004; Jin et al., 2013, Lynch and Wojciechowski, 2015). How all these phenes can 485 synergistically work together is worthy of further investigation. Other studies have 486 487 shown that plasticity could play a role, for instance for rice it was observed that upon rewetting after drought differences in nodal root elongation through a hardpan were 488 489 present between genotypes (Suralta et al., 2018).

490 4.2. The relationship between root length and root depth varies among491 genotypes

492 Root length and rooting depth are not related under impeded conditions (Figures 6, 493 S6, S7, S8). Coarse rooting depth, representing nodal roots, responded differently to 494 compaction among genotypes. Genotypes such as IBM059 or IBM323 at ARBC (coarse-loam) or IBM086 at PSU (silt-loam) grew deeper under non-compacted 495 496 conditions but reduced their coarse root length under compaction (Figure 5A-B). 497 IBM178 grew intermediately deep in coarse-loam (at ARBC), and deep in silt-loam (at 498 PSU) but did not reduce its coarse rooting depth to the same extent as the 499 aforementioned genotypes (Figure 5A-B). This suggests that coarse roots of some genotypes were obstructed by the compaction treatment while coarse roots of other 500 501 genotypes were capable of growing through.

We found genotypes with similar root system size that reached different rooting depths 502 503 (Figure 8A, S12) as well as genotypes with similar deeper coarse rooting depth but with different total coarse root length (Figure 8B, S12). Coarse rooting depths can thus 504 505 be reached in different ways as the root system with smaller values for coarse root 506 length densities were able to grow as deep as the root systems that have greater 507 coarse root length density at depth. Shoots can be sustained by different root system 508 sizes and rooting depths as long as water and nutrients are available. Therefore 509 rooting depth under compaction is not simply related to the amount of roots formed. In 510 the following section we discuss how each type of root distribution with depth could sustain plant growth. 511

512 **4.2.1.** Root systems with equal coarse root length reach different depths

Coarse roots of some genotypes were obstructed, while others managed to grow 513 through impeded soil domains and reached deeper strata (Figure 8A). If nodal roots 514 515 are sufficiently impeded, these and any laterals roots emerging from them will 516 automatically be located within the upper soil strata. However laterals may grow 517 downwards from a shallow starting point when they experience less impedance than 518 nodal roots by, for instance, making use of smaller pores (Goss, 1977). Increased lateral branching has been observed in the non-impeded parts of the soil (Montagu et 519 520 al., 2001) and will enable a plant to extract water and nutrients when root length is 521 maintained and sufficient soil resources are available in the unimpeded soil (Barraclough and Weir, 1988). Compensatory root growth introduces more roots in the 522 523 less impeded domains, often in the upper soil strata (Barraclough and Weir, 1988; Materechera et al., 1993; Nosalewicz and Lipiec, 2014; Pfeifer et al., 2014a). A similar 524 525 redistribution can be seen in the compacted plots (Figures 7, S9). Compensatory 526 mechanisms may influence nutrient and water acquisition.

Rooting depth has been linked to water acquisition, especially under drought conditions where deeper rooting increases yield (Gao and Lynch, 2016; Hund *et al.*, 2009; Lynch, 2013, 2018; Chimungu *et al.*, 2014a, 2014b; Lynch *et al.* 2014; Zhan *et al.*, 2015). Our study did not employ a water deficit, but it has been shown that compaction can make water deficit stress more severe (Grzesiak *et al.*, 2014): even without the presence of water deficit stress, increased water uptake from the topsoil can be present on compacted soils. This in turn will increase the penetration resistance

534 within the topsoil and further limit access to the deeper soil layers (Colombi et al., 535 2018). A root system that is limited to shallow soil strata will thus be more at risk for water deficit both in terms of reduced access, as well as increased water depletion in 536 its local soil environment. It is likely that in the coarse soil (ARBC) compacted 537 538 treatment the air-filled porosity was often <10% in the surface 20cm, but generally 539 >10% in the other treatments. The root system might therefore have been influenced by poor oxygen availability (hypoxia) however this can be seen as common feature of 540 541 compacted soils in the field where porosity is reduced. Clear shifts in root distribution occurred in our field sites, we observed changes in root proportion, changes in rooting 542 depth, and changes in root distribution (Figures 3, 5, 7, S9). How these shifts influence 543 544 resource acquisition under impeded field conditions merits further investigation.

545 Stresses such as waterlogging have been found to have a more severe impact in 546 impeded soils (Grzesiak et al., 2014). Environmental effects such as temperature 547 fluctuations or soil drying by direct evaporation pose additional threats to more shallow 548 root systems (Lynch, 2018). Overall compensatory root growth can be seen as a stress avoidance strategy as plants come less into direct contact with the impeded soil 549 550 regions and grow where impedance is lower. This can be considered as an indirect 551 adaptation or response to the impeding conditions. As soils are a typically 552 heterogeneous, roots could take advantage of cracks or pores present to bypass 553 compacted layers (Hatano et al., 1988; Atwell, 1993; Stirzaker et al., 1996) which 554 would be another avoidance strategy. Rasse and Smucker (1998) showed that maize 555 can make use of root-induced macropores from a previous alfalfa crop. Preferential growth towards artificial pores has been observed in compacted soils (Stirzaker et al., 556 557 1996; Pfeifer et al., 2014b; Colombi et al., 2017a; Atkinson et al., 2020) but whether this is due to oxytropism or locally reduced penetration rates is still under debate, 558 559 although promising attempts have been made to model the process (Landl et al., 560 2017). Roots adapted to impedance are characterised by traits that help them overcome impedance, enabling them to grow better in harder soils. Those genotypes 561 capable of rooting deeper and of overcoming impedance stress are at less at risk of 562 563 nutrient deficiencies, of lack of access to water and of other environmental stresses.

564 **4.2.2. Equal depths can be reached by root systems of different sizes**

565 We observed genotypes that contrasted in root system size (measured as total coarse root length) were able to reach similar depths on compacted plots (Figure 8B, S12). 566 Greater amounts of coarse roots (measured as greater TRL_c) would be found when a 567 maize plant forms more root axes per nodal position, additionally greater amounts of 568 coarse roots may also be caused by root thickening. We found that no rooting depth 569 measure correlated with TRLc (Figures 6E-F, S6A-D, S7). The ability of a root system 570 571 to grow deeper in compacted soils is therefore not dependent on the amount of roots formed as both large and parsimonious root systems can reach similar depths on 572 573 compacted plots at both field sites. This is in contrast with observations on wheat, 574 where penetrability of a harder wax layer was related to amount of root axis formed 575 (Whalley et al., 2013), or that denser root systems of lupin are deeper rooting (Chen

et al., 2014). On the other hand, comparisons between species show that species with a larger number of roots in the top layers of a layered medium did not automatically have greater penetration rates through the compacted layer (Materechera *et al.*, 1993). A field study with two rice varieties showed that varieties with a greater root density were able to root deeper under control conditions, but under greater penetrometer resistances became more strongly affected than others with lower rooting densities (Cairns *et al.*, 2004).

The formation of more roots can have benefits such as increased foraging for water 583 584 and nutrients or reduced risk of root loss due to pests and diseases (Lynch, 2003, 2018, 2019). Increased root formation can however come at a substantial costs (York 585 et al., 2013, Lynch, 2003). Greater elongation rate, greater root diameter, increased 586 587 branching or greater formation of axial roots increase the metabolic cost of the root 588 system (York et al., 2013, Lynch, 2018). Second, the formation of too many roots will 589 introduce competition for internal and external resources (Lynch, 2018). Excessive root formation not only induces intraplant competition for resources, it also increases 590 root maintenance and formation costs. Other traits, such as increased aerenchyma 591 592 formation, large cortical cell size, reduced cortical cell file number or reduced crown 593 root number bring costs down (Lynch, 2003, 2018) which would enable these plants 594 to allocate resources elsewhere. For instance, it has been shown that maize with fewer crown roots are able to allocate roots deeper (Saengwilai et al., 2014; Gao and Lynch, 595 596 2016, Lynch 2018). Recent experiments by Guo and York (2019) showed excising 597 nodal roots stimulated greater shoot biomass and root length at depth under low N conditions as biomass was reallocated to lateral and early nodal roots. Under impeded 598 599 conditions, metabolic cost reduction might be significant. A recent study by Colombi 600 (2019) found energy costs were linked to cortical cell diameters, with greater cell 601 diameters reducing the metabolic cost under impeded conditions. As both large as 602 well as parsimonious root systems were able to reach similar coarse root depth 603 (Figures 8B, S12B) we suggest that parsimonious phenotypes could potentially 604 allocate more resources to shoot growth. This effect could be apparent under high 605 input systems, where improved conversion of soil resources to yield would be greater 606 for parsiminous phenotypes (Lynch and Brown, 2012; Lynch, 2018).

607 **Conclusions**

608 Rooting depth and root length were not correlated under impeded conditions. Different 609 coarse rooting depths were reached by genotypes characterised by similar root 610 system sizes. We suggest genotypes better adapted to impedance (and therefore rooting deeper) are less at risk of additional stresses such as nutrient deficiency, soil 611 drying, lack of access to water and other environmental conditions. We hypothesise 612 613 that excessive root formation will introduce greater competition for internal and external resources, furthermore larger root systems have greater metabolic costs 614 615 associated with them. We also suggest that parsimonious phenotypes will be able to 616 steer resource allocation to shoot growth and improved yields. We found that the

- amount of roots formed by the root system does not determine the ability of those roots
- 618 to grow deeper under impeded conditions.

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1017 Artwork

1018 Figures



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Figure 1 – Average penetrometer resistances \pm SE for compacted (red) and noncompacted (blue) treatments at (A) the ARBC field site (coarse-loam) and (B) the PSU field site (silt-loam) before planting. Mean soil moisture content (v/v) was measured for each 10 cm increment, together with soil dry bulk density, both written on graph within relevant depth ranges. Figure adopted from Vanhees *et al.* (2020).



1027Figure 2 - Average total root length (cm) \pm SE split into coarse (dark blue, dark red)1028and fine (light blue and light red) root length (cm) for maize genotypes tested at1029acoarse-loam (ARBC) versus silt-loam (PSU) field site. Coarse roots are defined as1030having diameters larger than 1 mm, while fine roots are those with diameter smaller1031than 1 mm. Compacted measurements in red, non-compacted measurement in blue.1032Error bars represent standard deviations. If differences between the field sites (***, p1033 \leq 0.001), treatments (A/B, p \leq 0.05) and genotypes (a/ab/b, p \leq 0.05) were present.





Figure 3 – Proportions of coarse (>1.0 mm diameter) root length (%) ± SE found in cores of different genotypes in two field sites. Non-compacted data in blue, compacted data in red. IBM059 (coarse-loam at ARBC) and OHW128 (silt loam at PSU) have such small standard errors they could not be visualised. Post-hoc Tukey comparisons within field site indicate when treatment effect was significant for each genotype at significance level ° P ≤ 0.10, * P ≤ 0.05-0.01, ** P ≤ 0.01-0.001, *** P ≤ 0.001.





Figure 4 – Illustration of difference between absolute versus relative root length 1044 density distributions for genotype IBM014 considering total root length and coarse root 1045 1046 length at the coarse-loam field site (ARBC). (A) + (C) Absolute distributions of root 1047 length densities, (B) + (D) Relative distributions of root length densities. Compacted data in red and non-compacted data in blue. Error bars represent standard errors. The 1048 rooting depth (cm) \pm SE where 75% of the total root length (D₇₅) or coarse root length 1049 (D_{75c}) was visualised by the striped line, coloured region represents SE for the depth 1050 measurements. No error bars shown when standard error was too small to visualise. 1051



1054 Figure 5 – Coarse and total rooting depth and their correlation for both field sites under 1055 compaction (red) and non-compacted (blue) conditions.. (A) + (B) Average coarse rooting depth (D_{75c}), (C) + (D) Average total rooting depth, (E) + (F) Correlation 1056 between D₇₅ and D_{75c}. Error bars represent standard errors. (A) + (C) + (E): ARBC 1057 field site (coarse-loam) and (B) + (D) + (F): PSU field site (silt-loam). Post hoc Tukey 1058 comparisons between compaction and noncompaction within each field site for each 1059 genotype were carried out on rooting depth data (panels A-D). Coarse and total rooting 1060 depth are correlated (E-F) Levels of significance ⁺ P ≤ 0.10, ^{*} P ≤ 0.05, ^{**} P ≤ 0.01, ^{***} 1061 Ρ 1062 \leq 0.001.





Figure 6 – Linear regressions between root distribution variables at the two different field sites. Field site ARBC (coarse-loam) visualised in A, C, E and field site PSU (siltloam) visualised in B, D, F. Compacted data (red) and non-compacted data (blue). Each datapoint represents the averaged value across the replicates for each genotype tested. Normal linear regression was used for A–B and E-F, and a betaregression was used for C-D as data was proportional. When a significant relationship was found this was at a level of significance of ⁺ P ≤ 0.10 or ^{*} P ≤ 0.05.





Figure 7 - Genotypic variation in the coarse root length density (cm cm⁻³) per depth increment across two field sites and two compaction treatments. Non-compacted data in blue and compacted data in red. The ARBC field site (coarse-loam) and PSU field site (silt-loam) had different soil textures. The striped lines are the averages across all genotypes, lighter coloured lines are the average for individual genotypes tested. Similar plots for total root length density distributions can be found in Figure S9.





Figure 8 – Coarse root length densities (cm cm⁻³) \pm SE distributions with soil depth on 1080 compacted plots comparing (A) two genotypes per field site (coarse loam at ARBC 1081 and silt-loam at PSU) with similar total coarse root length but with different associated 1082 rooting depths and (B) two genotypes with similar rooting depths but with different total 1083 coarse root lengths. For (A) striped lines stands for the deeper rooting genotype and 1084 associated D_{75c}, while the solid line stands for the shallower rooting genotypes and 1085 associated D_{75c}. For (B), the solid line is used for the genotype that produces less 1086 1087 roots but reaches equally deep as the genotype that produces more roots (striped lines). No error bars shown when standard error was too small to visualise. Selection 1088 comparison can be found in Figure S10. Similar plots for total root length density 1089 1090 distributions can be found in Figure S12. 1091

		ARBC: Biomass ~ Genotype + D75 $_{c}$ + D75 + TRL _f + TRL _c + Compaction						ompaction		
					F-valu	ue	p-val	ue		
			Geno	type		1.144	ns			
				D75 _c	1	.40.93	***			
				D75		0.231	ns			
				TRL _f	3	7.629	***			
				TRL _c		2.287	ns			
			Compac	tion		5.83	*			
		PSU: Bio	omass ~ Ge	notype +	D75 $_{\rm c}$	+ D75 +	⊦ TRL _f	+ TRL _c + Cor	mpaction	
					F-valu	ue	p-val	ue		
			Geno	type		0.649	ns			
				D75 _c	1	4.491	**			
				D75		5.244	ns			
				TRL _f		0.083	ns			
				TRL _c		3.75	ns			
			Compac	tion		9.713	*			
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	Average	fine roc	ot length p	er geno	type (cm)		Average I	D _{75c} (cm)	



Figure 9 – Relationships between average biomass and root distribution values and are visualised in the accompanied plots where squares are data from the ARBC (coarse-loam) field site while circles are data from the PSU (silt-loam) field site. Compacted data in red, non-compacted data in blue. Level of significance in the ANOVA analysis are *** p < 0.001, ** p < 0.01 and * p < 0.05.

Tables

Table 1 – Definitions of the different measurements obtained after WinRHIZO analysis of the soil cores.

Measurement	Abbreviation	Definition		
Total root length	TRL	The summation of all individual root sections per 10 cm increment of the entire soil core	cm	
Total coarse root length	TRLc	The summation of all individual root sections per 10 cm increment with a diameter greater than 1 mm over the entire soil core	cm	
Total fine root length	TRLf	The summation of all individual root sections per 10 cm increment with a diameter smaller than 1 mm over the entire soil core	cm	
Coarse root proportion	Pc	The ratio of total coarse root length versus total root length	%	
Fine root proportion	P _f	The ratio of total fine root length versus total root length	%	
Root length density	-	The root length found in the soil volume of a 10 cm increment of the soil core and this including all root diameter classes	cm cm ⁻³	
Coarse root length density	-	The total coarse root length found in the soil volume of a 10 cm increment of the soil core	cm cm ⁻³	
Relative root length density	-	The ratio of total root length density of a single 10 cm increment versus the sum of the total root length density found over the entire core	%	
Relative coarse root length density	-	The ratio of coarse root length density of a single 10 cm increment versus the sum of the coarse root length density found over the entire core	%	
Pooting donth	D ₉₅	The rooting depth above which 95% of the total root length is located	cm	
	D ₇₅	The rooting depth above which 75% of the total root length is located	cm	
Coorce recting dopth	D _{95c}	The rooting depth above which 95% of the total coarse root length is located	cm	
	D _{75c}	The rooting depth above which 75% of the total coarse root length is located	cm	

Table 2 F-values for split plot analysis results of the different root distribution variables at the two field sites. P-values tested at the following levels of significance: $p \le 0.10$, $p \le 0.05$, $p \le 0.01$, $p \le 0.001$. Subscript c stands for coarse and f stands for fine when measurements are made on a separate root class. TRL stands for total root length, P stands for proportion of coarse or fine roots. D75 and D95 stand for rooting depth at which 75 and 95 percent of the total root length can be found.

		ARBC	PSU
	0		(silt-loam)
	Compaction	77.12	1.37
IRL	Genotype	0.67	0.54
	Compaction x Genotype	0.87	0.85
	Compaction	4.59 ′	3.61 ′
TRLc	Genotype	1.58	1.12
	Compaction x Genotype	2.11 *	1.35
	Compaction	78.81 ***	1.25
TRLf	Genotype	0.67	0.56
	Compaction x Genotype	0.81	0.83
	Compaction	18.29 **	3.43
Pc	Genotype	2.60 **	1.97 *
	Compaction x Genotype	2.12 *	1.34
	Compaction	18.62 **	2.63
Pf	Genotype	2.46 *	1.77 +
	Compaction x Genotype	1.93 [†]	1.30
	Compaction	76.53 ***	4.65
D75c	Genotype	3.15 **	1.67
	Compaction x Genotype	0.71	0.55
	Compaction	42.29 ***	0.78
D _{95c}	Genotype	3.86 ***	0.65
	Compaction x Genotype	1.33	0.60
	Compaction	17.31 **	6.78 *
D75	Genotype	2.74 **	1.08
	Compaction x Genotype	0.87	0.36
	Compaction	25.02 ***	1.56
D ₉₅	Genotype	2.70 **	1.11
	Compaction x Genotype	1.33	0.33

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- **Table 3** Summary of general linear model results for the linear regression of total or coarse rooting depth (D_{75} or D_{75c}) with total root length (TRL) or total coarse root length (TRL_c). P-values tested at the following levels of significance: [†] p ≤ 0.10, ^{*} p ≤ 0.05, ^{**}
- 1113 $p \le 0.01$ and *** $p \le 0.001$.

		1114
D ₇₅ ~ TRL + Field site + Con	npaction + G	enotype
	F-value	p-value
Field site	57.36	***
Compaction	12.21	*
Genotype	1.22	
Total root length	3.09	+

D₇₅ ~ TRL_c + Field site + Compaction + Genotype

	F-value	p-value
Field site	106.37	***
Compaction	10.2	*
Genotype	1.17	
Total root length	0.34	

D_{75c} ~ TRL + Field site + Compaction + Genotype

	F-value	p-value
Field site	35.83	***
Compaction	25.51	***
Genotype	2.12	*
Total root length	2.73	

D_{75c} ~ TRL_c + Field site + Compaction + Genotype

	F-value	p-value
Field site	41.39	***
Compaction	34.77	***
Genotype	1.99	*
Total root length	1.39	

1115 Appendices

1116 Supplementary data



Figure S1 – Volumetric water content was used to steer irrigation (ARBC, coarse-loam field site) or to decide if irrigation was needed (PSU, silt-loam field site). On coarseloam PR2-tubes were installed while on silt-loam TDR-probes were used to measure volumetric water content; gravimetric water content was calculated from this and the dry bulk density. Compacted site (red), non-compacted (blue).



Figure S2 – Relationship between crown root angle and coarse rooting depth for ARBC (coarse-loam) and PSU (silt-loam) field sites. Figures adjusted from supplementary Figure 1 from Vanhees *et al.* (2020). Compacted site (red), noncompacted (blue).



Figure S3 – Biomass \pm SE at both field sites under compacted (red) and noncompacted (blue) conditions for each genotype. The ARBC field site has a coarseloam soil while the PSU field site has a silt loam soil texture. Figure adjusted from supplementary Figure 3 from Vanhees *et al.* (2020).





Figure S4 – Total root length of each genotype plotted at the averaged penetrometer resistance of the 2 field trial compaction treatment combinations.



Figure S5 – Correlation plots between tested variables averaged over all genotypes across field sites (ARBC (coarse-loam) or PSU (silt-loam)) and compacted (C) or noncompacted plots (NC) combinations. The correlation coefficient is visualised by the scale bar, negative correlations are orange and positive correlations are blue. A cross represents a non-significant correlation at significance $p \le 0.05$.



Figure S6 – Relationships between total rooting depth (D₇₅) and other root distribution variables across field sites and compaction treatments. Linear regression was used for A-D and beta-regression for E-F due to proportional data. Panels A,C and E represent field site ARBC (coarse-loam) and panels B, D and F represent field site PSU (siltloam). Non-compacted data in blue, compacted data in red. One significant

- relationship was detected at significance level $^+$ p \leq 0.10, other relationships were non-
- 1154 significant (ns).





Figure S7 – Relationships between total rooting depth (D_{75c}) and other root distribution variables across field sites and compaction treatments. Panels A and C represent field site ARBC (coarse-loam) and panels B and D field site PSU (silt-loam). Noncompacted data in blue, compacted data in red. No significant (ns) linear relationships were detected.



Figure S8 – Principle component analysis per field site (ARBC (coarse-loam) or PSU (silt-loam)) – compaction treatment (C – compacted; NC – non-compacted) combination illustrating relationships between root distribution variables within respective environmental conditions.



Figure S9 – Genotypic variation in total root length density (cm cm⁻³) per depth increment across two field sites and two compaction treatments. The ARBC field site has a coarse-loam soil texture and the PSU field site has a silt-loam soil texture. Noncompacted data in blue and compacted data in red. The striped line are the averages across all genotypes, lighter coloured lines are the average for individual genotypes tested.





Figure S10 – Selection of genotypes to be compared based on their coarse rooting depth and coarse total root length. Genotypes indicated with an arrow were selected on the bases of similar coarse root length but different coarse rooting depths (shallow versus deep) and genotypes indicated with a triangle were selected on the basis of similar coarse rooting depth but are different according to total coarse root length (few versus many roots for deeper rooting genotypes). The ARBC field site has a coarseloam soil texture and the PSU field site has a silt-loam soil texture.



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Figure S11 – Selection of genotypes to be compared based on their total rooting depth and total root length. Genotypes indicated with an arrow were selected on the bases of similar coarse root length but different coarse rooting depths (shallow versus deep) and genotypes indicated with a triangle were selected on the basis of similar coarse rooting depth but are different according to total coarse root length (few versus many roots for deeper rooting genotypes). The ARBC field site has a coarse-loam soil texture and the PSU field site has a silt-loam soil texture.



Figure S12 - Total root length densities (cm cm⁻³) \pm SE distributions with soil depth on 1195 1196 compacted plots comparing (A) two genotypes per field sites with similar total coarse 1197 root length but with different associated rooting depths under compaction and (B) two 1198 genotypes with similar rooting depths but with different total coarse root lengths under 1199 compaction. For (A) solid lines stands for the deeper rooting genotype and associated 1200 D₇₅, while the striped line stands for the shallower rooting genotypes and associated 1201 D₇₅. For (B), the solid line is used for the genotype that produces less roots but reaches equally deep then the genotype that produces more roots (striped lines). . The ARBC 1202 field site has a coarse-loam soil texture and the PSU field site has a silt-loam soil 1203 texture. 1204

	Field applications						
	Irrigation		Fertilizers		Pesticides		
	18/06/2016	0.94 mm	04/06/2016	ProSol (15 gallons/acre)	17/06/2016	Atrazine and S-metolachlor	
	21/06/2016	0.60 mm	14/06/2016	ProSol (12.5 gallons/acre)	14/06/2016	Copper, Azoxystrobin and Chlorantraniliprole	
	22/06/2016	1.20 mm	15/06/2016	UAN (38.3 lbs/acre)	23/06/2016	Chlorantraniliprole	
	23/06/2016	0.32 mm	16/06/2016	ProSol (12.5 gallons/acre)			
	25/06/2016	1.60 mm					
۶	28/06/2016	0.30 mm					
loar	04/07/2016	0.24 mm					
se-	06/07/2016	0.20 mm					
oar	08/07/2016	0.50 mm					
0	10/07/2016	0.72 mm					
	17/07/2016	0.75 mm					
	20/07/2016	0.50 mm					
	24/07/2016	0.50 mm					
	27/07/2016	0.50 mm					
	09/08/2016	0.50 mm					
silt-loam	No irrigation applied as moisture content remained high enough during growing season		urea Nitroger planting	n (200 lbs/acre) applied prior to	No pesticide:	s were applied	

Table S1 – Field applications during the field season. Table adjusted from supplementary Table 1 from Vanhees *et al.* (2020).

1207 References in supplementary

1208 Vanhees D.J., Loades, K.W., Bengough, A.G., Mooney, S.J., Lynch, J.P., 2020. Root

- anatomical traits contribute to deeper rooting of maize under compacted field conditions.
- 1210 J.Exp.Bot 71, 4243-4257. doi: 10.1093/jxb/eraa16