

1 **Effects of breeding history and crop management on the root architecture of wheat**

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15

16 **Glossary**

17 CRN Crown root number

18 CT Conventional tillage

19 NRN Nodal root number

20 RA Root angle

21 RSA Root system architecture

22 SNI Shallow non-inversion tillage

23 SRN Seminal root number

24

25 **Keywords**

26 Root phenotyping, Wheat, Tillage, Conservation Agriculture, Seeding rate, Genetic Diversity, Crop Breeding.

27 **ABSTRACT**

28

29 *Aims*

30 Selection for optimal root system architecture (RSA) is important to ensure genetic gains in the sustainable production  
31 of wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.). Here we examine the idea that past wheat breeding has led to changes in RSA and  
32 that future breeding efforts can focus directly on root traits to improve adaptation to a target environment.

33 *Methods*

34 We conducted three field trials using diverse wheat varieties, including modern and historic UK varieties and non-UK  
35 landraces, tested under contrasting tillage regimes (non-inversion tillage versus conventional ploughing) or different  
36 seeding rates (standard rate versus high rate). We used field excavation, washing and measurement of root crowns  
37 ('shovelomics') to characterise RSA traits, including: numbers of seminal, crown and nodal roots per plant, and crown  
38 root growth angle.

39 *Results*

40 We found large differences among genotypes for all root traits. Modern varieties generally had fewer roots per plant  
41 than historic varieties. There were fewer crown roots and root angles were wider, on average, under shallow non-  
42 inversion tillage compared with conventional ploughing. Crown root numbers per plant also tended to be smaller at a  
43 high seeding rate compared with the standard rate. There were significant genotype-by-year, genotype-by-tillage and  
44 genotype-by-seeding-rate interactions for many root traits.

45 *Conclusions*

46 Smaller root systems is likely to be a result of past selection and may have facilitated historical yield increases by  
47 reducing below-ground competition within the crop. The effects of crop management practices on RSA depend on  
48 genotype, suggesting that future breeding could select for improved RSA traits in resource-efficient farming systems.

49

## 50 1. Introduction

51  
52 Increasing global human population growth, combined with challenges due to climate change and resource depletion,  
53 means that agriculture must become more productive and efficient while also contributing fewer greenhouse gas  
54 emissions (Conijn et al., 2018; Smith et al., 2007). Therefore, crop resource-use efficiency and adaptation to resource-  
55 efficient farming systems are key targets for crop genetic improvement. Wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.) is a particularly  
56 important source of human and animal nutrition across the world (Shiferaw et al., 2013), so genetic improvements in  
57 the sustainable production of wheat would contribute greatly to the emerging challenges in global food security.

58 An underappreciated route to more productive and efficient wheat crops is via genetic improvements in root  
59 system architecture (RSA). Evidence suggests that RSA is integral to crop nutrient uptake, water acquisition and grain  
60 yield (Smith and De Smet, 2012) and that changes in RSA are linked to historical improvements in wheat productivity  
61 (Zhu et al. 2019a). It has been suggested that targeting RSA for crop improvement could lead to a second Green  
62 Revolution, where increased resource capture could further enhance yields and reduce the need for fertiliser (Lynch,  
63 2007). However, plant breeders have largely neglected direct selection for wheat root traits. This is in part due to the  
64 relative inaccessibility of roots, their phenotypic plasticity, and the absence of high-throughput screening methods  
65 (Manschadi et al., 2006). Current root phenotyping methods have mostly focused on root traits in young plants under  
66 controlled environments (Atkinson et al., 2015; Kuijken et al., 2015; Richard et al., 2015; Watt et al., 2013). However,  
67 these techniques do not reflect real soil conditions in the field, and inconsistent results are often found between  
68 methods (Wojciechowski et al., 2009). On the other hand, current RSA phenotyping methods in field conditions are  
69 slow, laborious and prone to excessive variation (Gregory et al., 2009).

70 Improved RSA phenotyping would be particularly useful in field conditions that reflect resource-efficient  
71 farming systems. In developing countries, crop productivity is often limited by soil erosion and by access to inputs  
72 such as fertilisers, whereas in high-input systems, inefficient use of inputs by the crop can result in unused nutrients  
73 (e.g., nitrogen and phosphorus) causing environmental damage (Ascott et al., 2017; Cordell et al., 2009; FAO, 2016).  
74 Low-input agriculture may benefit from the principles of conservation agriculture which include tillage practices that  
75 minimise soil disturbance and provide several environmental benefits (Hobbs, 2007; Mangalassery et al., 2014;  
76 Petersen et al., 2008), promotion of soil microbial activity (Kabir, 2005; Papp et al., 2018), and improved soil structure  
77 which limits soil erosion (Zhang et al., 2007). Relatively high-input agriculture, on the other hand, could benefit from  
78 high-density cropping systems, where crops with higher plant density may collectively make better use of the available  
79 nutrients (Donald, 1968; Marin and Weiner 2014). Plant breeding and evaluation of different crop varieties, however,  
80 are rarely conducted under the conditions of conservation agriculture or high-density cropping.

81 To address these issues, we use a semi-high-throughput, field-based method of phenotyping wheat RSA traits  
82 in the context resource-efficient farming systems. Our approach involves field excavation, washing and measurement  
83 of root crowns ('shovelomics'; Trachsel et al., 2011; BurrIDGE et al., 2016; Colombi et al., 2015; York et al., 2018),  
84 and uses modern and historic UK wheat varieties and non-UK landraces, tested under contrasting tillage regimes (non-  
85 inversion tillage versus conventional ploughing) or different seeding rates (standard rate versus high rate). We  
86 investigate the idea that past wheat breeding has led to consistent changes in RSA and that future breeding efforts can  
87 focus directly on root traits to improve adaptation to a target environment. Specifically, our aims are to examine: (1)  
88 how wheat RSA traits vary with their variety's year of release; and (2) how wheat RSA traits respond to changes in  
89 tillage regime or seeding rate and whether genotypes vary in these responses.

## 90 2. Materials and Methods

91

### 92 2.1. Germplasm

93

94 The genotypes from two panels of wheat cultivars were chosen to represent a wide range of diversity, including  
95 modern, historic and landrace accessions.

96 The WHEALBI panel consisted of 20 UK and non-UK modern and historic wheat genotypes. Ten lines were  
97 a subset of the larger WHEALBI panel (Pont et al. 2019), and ten additional lines were chosen by collaborators at the  
98 Organic Research Centre (Supp. table 1). Seed for UK historic cultivars and non-UK landrace accessions was sourced  
99 from the John Innes Centre Germplasm Resource Unit in the UK (GRU <http://www.jic.ac.uk/germplasm/>). Five non-  
100 UK landrace accessions were chosen from the full Watkins collection, which consists of 826 landrace accessions  
101 originating from a wide range of non-UK backgrounds (Wingen et al., 2014). Hungarian lines were supplied by ATK  
102 (Hungary), and Tiepolo was supplied by SIS (Italy). Seed stocks were multiplied in 1 m<sup>2</sup> nursery plots at NIAB,  
103 Cambridge in 2014/15. Seed from currently grown modern varieties was sourced from seed merchants.

104 The 16 founders of a multi-founder advanced generation inter-cross (MAGIC) population ('NIAB Diverse  
105 MAGIC') were chosen to capture the greatest genetic diversity based on genetic markers from the set of 94 UK and  
106 northern European wheat varieties described in White et al. (2008) (Supp. Table 2). Seed was used from stock  
107 maintained at NIAB but originally sourced from the John Innes Centre Germplasm Resource Unit.

108

### 109 2.2. Field trial sites

110

111 Autumn-sown field trials were carried out at two sites. The WHEALBI panel of 20 accessions was grown over two  
112 trial years (Autumn 2015 to Summer 2016 and Autumn 2016 to summer 2017) at Reading University research farm,  
113 Sonning, Berkshire, UK (Lat: 51.481470, Long: -0.89969873). The 16 NIAB Diverse MAGIC founders were trialled  
114 in one trial year (Autumn 2017 to Summer 2018) at Duxford, Cambridgeshire, UK (Lat: 52.099091, Long:  
115 0.13352841). The soil at the Sonning site was classified as a Luvisol and described as a loam over gravel. The soil  
116 chemistry was measured at drilling and is summarised in Supp. table 3. In each year, the trial was located on a different  
117 field section at the same site. The total precipitation was 535 and 575 mm for the growing seasons in year 1 and 2,  
118 respectively. The soil at the Duxford trial site was a freely draining lime-rich loam and total precipitation for the  
119 season was 359 mm.

120

### 121 2.3. Trial design and management

122

#### 123 2.3.1. Sonning trial site

124

125 The trial site was managed under organic farming practices and the trials were conducted in the first cereal position  
126 in the rotation following a two-year grass ley (comprising cocksfoot, red clover, white clover and black medic). Trials  
127 were conducted using the 20 winter wheat genotypes from the WHEALBI panel in a split plot design, with tillage  
128 treatments as main plots, and cultivar as sub-plots with four replications. Cultivars were randomised within each block.  
129 Transition areas between tillage treatments were sown with discard crop plots to minimise edge effects. Tillage

130 treatments were conventional plough tillage (CT) to a depth of 250 mm and shallow non-inversion tillage (SNI),  
131 performed using a shallow rotovator (50-75 mm depth). In both treatments, seedbeds were prepared with a power  
132 harrow set to 125 mm depth. In the CT treatment, the previous ley was mown before ploughing to a depth of 250 mm,  
133 whilst in SNI, the ley was terminated using a rotovator at a depth of 50-75 mm. A power harrow was used to create a  
134 seedbed in both cultivation systems before sowing seeds using a plot direct drill with front discs. The plots were sown  
135 on 12/10/2015 and 02/11/2016 in years 1 and 2, respectively. Trial plots consisted of 14 rows 15 cm apart so that plot  
136 dimensions were 2.1 m wide and 7.5 m long. Seed rates were adjusted to achieve a target plant population of 500  
137 plants m<sup>-2</sup> taking into account seed weight and germination rate. Plots were rolled to consolidate the seedbed after  
138 drilling. Mechanical weeding was carried out using a spring tine harrow in year 2 as required but this could not be  
139 used in year 1 due to high rainfall. Seeds were treated with 10 g/kg of Tillecur® (yellow mustard powder; Biofa AG,  
140 Germany) plant strengthening seed treatment to control common bunt and other seed-borne diseases.

141

### 142 2.3.2. Duxford trial site

143

144 The Duxford site was managed conventionally. Fertiliser inputs included 110 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> of nitrogen in the form of prilled  
145 ammonium nitrate over three timings in February, April and May. This was at half the field recommended rate to  
146 manage lodging risk in tall varieties. Herbicides were used to control grass and broad-leafed weeds in November and  
147 in May. Fungicides were used to control foliar diseases applied at three timings from April to June and plant growth  
148 regulators were applied in April and May to reduce lodging risk. Insecticide was applied in June to control orange  
149 wheat blossom midge. Seeds were treated with systemic fungicide to control seed-borne diseases. Four plot replicates  
150 of each cultivar from the NIAB Diverse MAGIC founder panel were sown at two sowing rates (300 [a standard rate  
151 of local practice] and 600 plants m<sup>-2</sup>), after adjusting for mean seed weight. Plots were randomised within a larger trial  
152 of 2,380 plots of the full MAGIC population. Plots were sown over two days on the 13/10/2017 and 14/10/2017 and  
153 consisted of 12 rows 14 cm apart so that plot dimensions were 1.54 m wide and 6 m long. The field was ploughed  
154 before cultivations to create a seedbed before sowing.

155

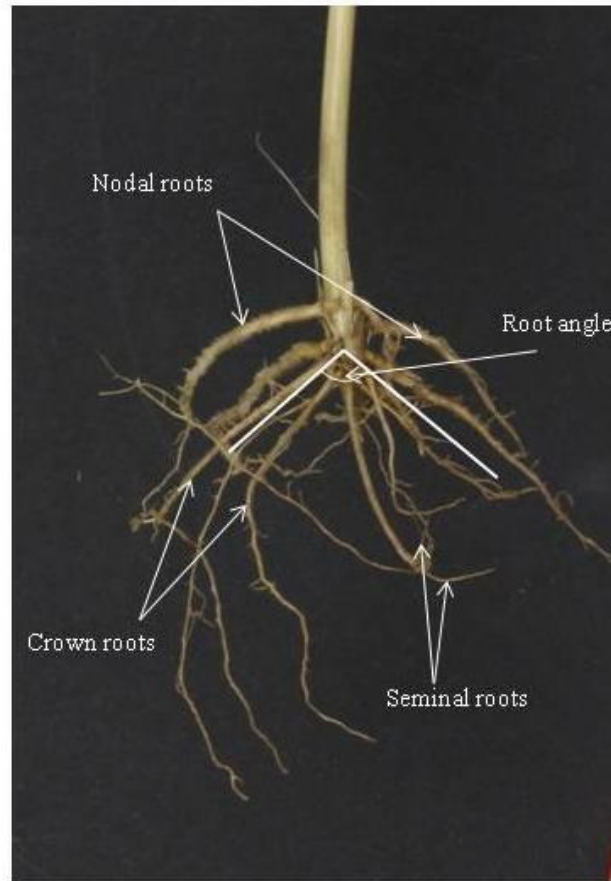
### 156 2.3. Crop assessments

157

158 Root samples were taken on 14/07/2016 and 20/07/2017 in year 1 and year 2, respectively, at Sonning, and on  
159 01/08/2018 at Duxford when the crop was at approximately growth stage GS80 (Zadoks et al., 1974). At both sites,  
160 two samples, including the base of the crop plant, roots and surrounding soil, were taken per plot using a 20 cm wide  
161 and 30 cm deep shovel, bagged and stored before analysis. This method ensured that the position and integrity of the  
162 roots within this volume were not affected while in storage.

163 Root samples were processed by soaking each sample in water with detergent for approximately five minutes  
164 before manually washing the soil from the crop roots and plant base. A randomly chosen single plant was taken per  
165 sample for scoring root traits. Samples from trials at the Sonning site in 2016 and 2017 were imaged and later scored  
166 from a digital image whereas samples from Duxford in 2018 were manually scored *in situ* directly after washing.  
167 Images were taken against a dark background using a Canon EOS 1000 digital camera with F-stop set to f/25, exposure  
168 time at 1/4 second and ISO at 200. Two images were taken per sample changing the orientation by 90° in the second  
169 image. Each sample was then divided into their constituent tillers (including adjoining roots), and each tiller individual

170 was imaged at two 90° orientations. Digital images were subsequently used to visually score root traits. ImageJ2 image  
171 analysis software (Rueden et al., 2017) was used to manipulate images and improve contrast for scoring. The RSA  
172 traits scored were root angle (RA), crown root number (CRN), nodal root number (NRN) and seminal root number  
173 (SRN), as detailed further in Table 2 and illustrated in Figure 1. It was only possible to measure SRN on 88% of the  
174 samples from images in the Sonning dataset due to the coleoptile and seed growing point often being obscured in the  
175 image. Harvest grain yield at the Duxford site was determined using a small plot combine and yields were adjusted  
176 to 15 % moisture content.  
177



178  
179 **Figure 1.** Example image of a wheat root sample obtained using the shovelomics methodology with annotations of  
180 root phenotypes scored.

181

182 **Table 2.** Description of wheat root traits scored from imaged shovelomics samples.

<b>Trait</b>	<b>Abbreviation</b>	<b>Description</b>
Root angle	RA	The angle between two lines originating at the base of the plant at ground level which fits the angle of the majority of the crown roots in a 2D image of the whole plant using the angle tool function within ImageJ (Rueden et al., 2017) analysis software (Figure 1).
Crown root number	CRN	Number of roots originating from the base of the plant at ground level.
Nodal root number	NRN	The number of roots originating from the first node.
Seminal root number	SRN	The number of roots originating from the germinated seed below the coleoptiles.

183 2.4. *Statistical analysis*

184

185 All data analyses were carried out using Genstat (18<sup>th</sup> edition) statistical analysis software (Payne et al., 2009). Plot  
186 data used in these analyses are available in the Supplementary Table 4. Data from each cultivar panel at Duxford and  
187 Sonning were analysed separately. Both trial years at Sonning were combined for the analyses at this site. Data for  
188 RA and SRN were analysed using Linear Mixed Effects Models (LMMs) whilst count data with non-normally  
189 distributed residuals for CRN and NRN were analysed using Generalised Linear Mixed Effects Models (GLMMs),  
190 including Poisson error structure and logarithmic link function with dispersion fixed to one. For both trial years from  
191 Sonning, year, tillage and genotype were considered interacting fixed effect terms in that order, whilst blocks nested  
192 within year and blocks within tillage within year were considered as random effects in both LMMs and GLMMs. For  
193 data from Duxford, genotype and sowing rate were included as interacting fixed effects and main experimental block  
194 was included as a single random effect. For fixed effects, model simplification from the maximal model was performed  
195 based on the Wald test for GLMMs and F statistic for LMMs where non-significant terms ( $p > 0.05$ ) were removed.  
196 Random effect terms were removed when negative variance components were found. Adjusted genotypic predicted  
197 mean values were calculated for each trait as generalised means across fixed effects. Then, where significant  
198 interacting fixed effect terms were found, separate models were run for each interacting term level, and deconstructed  
199 adjusted genotypic mean values were also calculated separately for interacting factor levels when significant effects  
200 of genotype were found ( $p < 0.05$ ). Correlations among generalised varietal adjusted mean phenotypic values, as well  
201 as genotype by year of release were determined using the Pearson correlation coefficient.

202



203 **3. Results**

204

205 *3.1. Genotypic differences and trends in root architecture over time*

206

207 Wheat RSA traits were phenotyped using the shovelomics method using two diverse sets of wheat varieties in multiple  
208 environments. Generalised analysis of these data across both years and fixed effects revealed statistically significant  
209 genotypic differences for all studied root phenotypes examined in the sets of varieties at both the Sonning (Table 3)  
210 and Duxford sites (Table 4). Differences amongst genotypes were significant for RA and highly significant for CRN  
211 and NRN in both datasets. A highly significant genotype effect was found for SRN among the 16 NIAB Diverse  
212 MAGIC founders grown at Duxford and among the 20 WHEALBI accessions grown at Sonning. The consistency of  
213 these traits was also be compared between the two datasets where three varieties ('Steadfast', 'Robigus' and  
214 'Soissons') were in common. The ranking of these three varieties was consistent for CRN and NRN, with 'Steadfast'  
215 having the greatest CRN and NRN. However, rankings for RA and SRN between these three varieties were not  
216 consistent, indicating stronger genotype-by-environment interactions for these traits.

217 Correlations among generalised predicted means across tillage or sowing rate treatments revealed clear trends  
218 in RSA over time (according to year varieties were released) as well as relationships among traits (Table 5). Modern  
219 varieties in both the datasets generally had fewer nodal roots than older cultivars (Figure 2). For example, the UK  
220 landrace variety 'Red Stettin 13' had more than twice as many nodal roots as any modern variety released after 1990  
221 in the Sonning dataset. Only 31 % and 25 % of plants measured for the relatively modern varieties 'Slejpner' and  
222 'Soissons' respectively, had any nodal roots at all in the Duxford dataset. The negative correlation between CRN and  
223 year of release was only significant at Duxford (Fig. 2b). A significant positive correlation between RA and year of  
224 release was observed only at Sonning, based on analysis across both years. This indicates that the spread of crown  
225 roots increased over time, with older varieties tending to have more narrow root systems. The relationship was perhaps  
226 more pronounced in the Sonning dataset because of the presence of old landraces with much narrower root RA than  
227 modern cultivars.

228

229

230  
 231 **Table 3.** Generalised predicted mean values among 20 wheat varieties for all root traits generalised across two tillage  
 232 levels and over two trial years at the Sonning trial site. RA = root angle, CRN = crown root number, NRN = nodal  
 233 root number, SRN = seminal root number. Asterisks indicate significance level: \*\*\* =  $p < 0.001$ , \*\* =  $p < 0.01$ , \* =  
 234  $p < 0.05$ , ns = not significant. d.f. = degrees of freedom.

Variety	Year of release	RA	CRN	NRN	SRN
Red Lammas	1740	98.6	9.9	2.7	5.5
Red Stettin 13	1850	98.0	11.7	3.2	5.1
Red Standard	1905	97.6	11.8	2.6	5.2
Ostka Skomoroska	1920	99.5	9.3	1.8	5.0
Bankuti 1201	1931	108.1	10.0	0.2	4.9
Steadfast	1942	108.2	11.2	2.3	5.6
Cappelle Desprez	1946	99.0	10.1	2.3	5.9
Milns N 59	1951	97.0	10.1	1.5	5.2
Samanta 117	1962	103.0	8.3	1.0	4.2
Maris Widgeon	1964	106.0	10.1	2.0	5.5
Hereward	1991	109.0	10.7	1.3	4.8
Soissons	1995	107.1	10.5	1.0	5.0
JB Diego	2002	108.7	10.7	1.0	5.3
Robigus	2003	112.1	10.6	1.4	5.1
Alchemy	2006	109.9	10.6	1.1	5.3
MV Kolo	2006	106.7	10.6	1.5	5.3
Tiepolo	2009	109.1	11.6	1.5	5.0
KWS Santiago	2011	110.7	11.1	1.2	5.2
WW 502	-	103.0	8.7	1.1	5.4
WW 512	-	104.1	12.2	1.7	4.3

**Standard errors of differences between means**

Average:	5.2	1.1	1.2	0.4
Maximum:	5.4	1.1	1.7	0.5
Minimum:	5.2	1.1	1.1	0.4

Terms	d.f.	F stat	Wald stat/d.f	Wald stat/d.f	F stat
Genotype	19	1.82*	3.14***	8.05***	1.66*
Tillage	1	6.00*	11.19***	4.22*	ns
Year	1	ns	ns	39.05***	7.16*
Tillage x Genotype	19	ns	2.03**	3.16***	ns
Tillage x Year	1	ns	ns	5.34*	ns
Year x Genotype	19	2.14**	ns	2.20**	1.84*
Tillage x Genotype x Year	19	ns	ns	ns	ns

235  
 236  
 237 **Table 4.** Generalised predicted mean values for all root traits across two seeding rate treatments and effects of  
 238 experimental terms on root traits among 16 wheat varieties at the Duxford trial site in 2018. RA = root angle,

239 CRN = crown root number, NRN = nodal root number and SRN = seminal root number. Asterisks indicate  
 240 significance level: \*\*\* = p<0.001, \*\* = p<0.01, \* = p<0.05, ns = not significant. d.f. = degrees of freedom.  
 241

Variety	Year of release	RA	CRN	NRN	SRN	Yield
Holdfast	1935	82.2	15.1	3.0	5.8	6.8
Steadfast	1942	75.7	19.3	5.0	5.9	8.5
Bersee	1951	72.7	11.4	3.1	6.8	7.4
Banco	1956	75.2	12.5	2.6	6.4	6.5
Flamingo	1960	82.8	13.5	2.0	6.6	7.1
Kloka	1965	72.0	10.9	1.8	7.2	7.0
Maris Fundin	1975	68.1	13.2	2.0	6.3	7.0
Copain	1980	73.2	12.8	0.3	6.8	8.4
Stetson	1983	79.1	12.7	2.7	5.1	8.8
Slejpner	1986	92.1	12.9	0.0	6.2	9.6
Brigadier	1993	88.7	11.1	0.7	6.3	9.5
Spark	1993	78.1	11.6	1.6	6.4	8.4
Soissons	1995	78.0	12.7	0.0	6.3	8.8
Robigus	2003	81.8	12.7	1.2	5.7	9.7
Cordiale	2004	73.5	9.9	2.9	5.9	8.7
Gladiator	2004	74.7	10.2	2.2	5.8	9.6

**Standard errors of differences between means**

Average:	3.2	0.1	3.6	0.4	0.2
Maximum:	3.3	0.1	19.3	0.5	0.2
Minimum:	3.1	0.1	0.2	0.4	0.2

Terms	d.f.	F stat	Wald stat/d.f	Wald stat/d.f	F stat	F stat
Genotype	15	2.0*	6.00***	5.69***	2.7***	41.34***
Sowing rate	1	ns	24.3***	ns	ns	16.96***
Sowing rate x Genotype	1	ns	ns	2.96***	ns	ns

242

243

244 **Table 5.** Correlation coefficients among predicted mean values for root traits for the set of 20 wheat varieties at  
245 the Sonning site (a) and the 16 wheat varieties at the Duxford Site (b). Root angle (RA), crown root number  
246 (CRN), nodal root number (NRN), seminal root number (SRN). Asterisks indicate significance level: \*\*\* =  
247  $p < 0.001$ , \*\* =  $p < 0.01$ , \* =  $p < 0.05$ .

248

249 (a) Sonning

	<b>RA</b>	<b>CRN</b>	<b>NRN</b>	<b>SRN</b>
CRN	0.17			
NRN	-0.61**	0.36		
SRN	-0.11	0.00	0.37	
Year of release	0.70**	0.09	-0.65**	-0.19

250

251 (b) Duxford

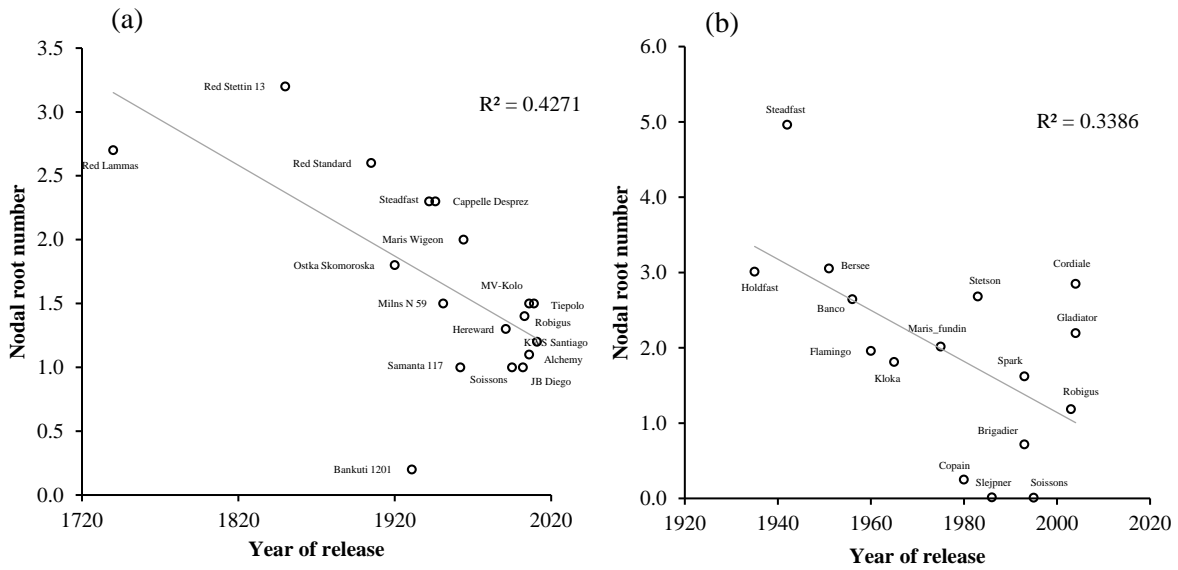
	<b>RA</b>	<b>CRN</b>	<b>NRN</b>	<b>SRN</b>	<b>Yield</b>
CRN	0.09				
NRN	-0.40	0.45			
SRN	-0.25	-0.22	-0.28		
Yield	0.35	-0.14	-0.38	-0.49	
Year of release	0.13	-0.63**	-0.58*	-0.24	0.78***

252

253

254

255 **Figure 2.** The relationship between year of varietal release and nodal root number for the set of 18 wheat varieties  
256 at the Sonning site with release date information (a) and the 16 wheat varieties at the Duxford Site (b).  
257



258 *3.2. Effects of tillage and genotype interactions*

259

260 The dataset at Sonning allowed comparison of effects of contrasting inversion and shallow non-inversion tillage  
261 regimes as well as the variety response to these effects. All traits except SRN were affected by tillage (Table 3):  
262 there were generally more crown and nodal roots in conventional tillage (CT) and roots were at a wider angle than  
263 shallow non-inversion tillage (SNI).

264 RA in CT was on average 106.8° while in SNI the average root angle was 102.8°. As a significant  
265 genotype-by-year interaction was found for RA, further analysis was carried out separately for each year. This  
266 analysis showed the effect of genotype on RA was significant in the first year, where again RA was wider in CT  
267 than in SNI, but not significant in the second year (Table 6) when RA tended to be narrower in SNI (100.3°) than  
268 CT (105.6°) (Table 6). Although the genotype-by-year-by-tillage three-way interaction was not significant, the  
269 genotype-by-tillage interaction on RA was significant in year 1 (Table 6), where genotypic differences in RA  
270 were much more apparent in CT than under SNI (Table 6,7).

271 The number of crown roots per plant was generally higher in CT (11.0) than SNI (10.0) across both years  
272 (Table 8). However, a small but significant genotype-by-tillage interaction was also found (Table 3). When each  
273 tillage system were analysed separately, the genotypic effect was greater in SNI than in CT (Table 7). In addition  
274 to the highly significant main effect of genotype on NRN, interactions of genotype-by-tillage, genotype-by-year  
275 and tillage-by-year were also found to be significant (Table 3). In the two cultivation systems tested, wheat grown  
276 under SNI (1.2) had fewer nodal roots per plant than under CT (1.7). There were more nodal roots per plant in the  
277 second year of trials (2.8) compared with the first year (1.1). When the two years were analysed separately, the  
278 effect of genotype was found to be highly significant in both years (Table 6). However, a significant genotype-  
279 by-tillage interaction was also found in year 2 (Table 6) where there were more crown roots in CT (3.5) than SNI  
280 (2.0). When CT and SNI were analysed separately in year 2, highly significant effects of genotype were found for  
281 NRN in both systems (Table 7).

282 Significant genotype, year and genotype-by-year interaction effects were found for SRN (Table 3), whereas  
283 no significant effects of tillage were found on SRN.

284

285 **Table 6.** Deconstruction of genotype-by-year interactions including effects of experimental terms on root angle  
286 (RA), nodal root number (NRN) and seminal root number (SRN) among 20 wheat varieties at two tillage levels  
287 at the Sonning site analysed separately for the two trial years. Effect values for size of each term include F-statistic  
288 for RA and SRN and Wald statistic/d.f. for NRN. Asterisks indicate significance level: \*\*\* = p<0.001, \*\* =  
289 p<0.01 \*, = p<0.05 and ns” indicates non-significance. d.f. = degrees of freedom.

Trait	Term	d.f.	Year 1	Year 2
RA				
	Tillage	1	ns	5.03*
	Genotype	19	3.36***	ns
	Tillage x Genotype	19	2.05**	ns
NRN				
	Tillage	1	ns	6.4*
	Genotype	19	3.46***	6.77***
	Tillage x Genotype	19	ns	2.95***
SRN				
	Tillage	1	ns	ns
	Genotype	19	ns	2.02*
	Tillage x Genotype	19	ns	ns

290

291

292 **Table 7.** Deconstruction of genotype-by-tillage interactions including effects of experimental terms on root  
293 angle (RA) in year 1, crown root number (CRN) in both years and nodal root number (NRN) in year 2 among 20  
294 wheat varieties at the Sonning site analysed separately for two tillage levels. CT = conventional tillage and SNI  
295 = shallow non-inversion tillage. Effect values for size of each term include F-statistic for RA and Wald  
296 statistic/d.f. for CRN and NRN. Asterisks indicate significance level: \*\*\* =  $p < 0.001$ , \*\* =  $p < 0.01$ , \* =  $p < 0.05$ .  
297 d.f. = degrees of freedom.

Trait	Term	d.f.	CT	SNI
RA in Year 1	Genotype	19	3.65***	1.85*
CRN in both years	Genotype	19	1.93**	3.23***
NRN in Year 2	Genotype	19	4.48***	5.24***

298



299 **Table 8.** Predicted mean values after deconstruction of fixed effect interactions of root angle (RA), crown root number (CRN), nodal root number (NRN) and seminal root  
 300 number (SRN) for 20 wheat varieties at the Sonning site. Means were calculated separately for different year or tillage levels where significant interactions with variety were  
 301 found. Tillage levels include conventional tillage (CT) and shallow non-inversion tillage (SNI).

302

Variety	RA in year 1 in SNI	RA in year 1 in CT	CRN in SNI	CRN in CT	NRN in year 1	NRN in SNI in year 2	NRN in CT in year 2	SRN in year 2
Alchemy	108.3	116.0	9.6	11.7	0.7	1.1	2.5	4.9
Bankuti 1201	122.1	117.6	9.7	10.4	0.1	0.5	2.6	4.5
Cappelle Desprez	92.3	103.0	9.1	11.4	1.4	4.3	3.9	6.0
Hereward	112.5	126.9	9.9	11.6	1.2	0.7	3.2	4.8
JB Diego	110.7	113.1	10.4	11.0	0.4	1.6	3.8	5.9
KWS Santiago	105.5	115.5	10.3	12.1	0.7	1.6	2.8	4.6
Maris Wigeon	119.0	113.7	10.1	10.1	1.0	4.6	3.7	5.1
Milns N 59	101.9	83.1	9.1	11.2	0.8	2.1	3.6	5.1
MV Kolo	100.5	121.3	10.2	11.0	1.6	0.6	2.8	4.7
Ostka Skomoroska	107.0	93.9	8.8	9.8	1.4	1.7	3.7	4.9
Red Lammas	93.1	107.7	8.4	11.7	1.9	2.3	6.0	5.0
Red Standard	87.9	94.1	11.2	12.4	1.7	3.5	4.8	5.4
Red Stettin 13	94.0	89.4	12.1	11.4	1.9	3.3	8.0	5.3
Robigus	99.3	125.8	10.8	10.4	0.7	2.1	3.4	5.1
Samanta 117	98.6	121.4	8.2	8.3	0.9	0.3	2.5	3.8
Soissons	98.1	113.4	8.4	13.1	0.5	1.2	2.7	5.2
Steadfast	112.7	108.1	10.8	11.7	2.0	3.6	2.0	5.5
Tiepolo	118.2	111.3	11.2	12.0	1.1	2.0	2.2	4.3
WW 502	117.2	95.2	8.8	8.7	0.9	1.0	2.0	5.3
WW 512	104.8	89.7	14.2	10.4	1.0	2.6	3.6	4.4
Mean	105.2	108.0	10.0	11.0	1.1	2.0	3.5	5.0
Standard errors of differences between means								
Average	10.24	9.65	1.09	1.09	1.36	1.38	1.26	0.53
Maximum	10.56	10.94	1.10	1.10	2.73	2.04	1.33	0.57
Minimum	10.20	9.42	1.07	1.08	1.22	1.22	1.19	0.53

303 *3.2. Effects of seeding rate and genotype interactions*

304

305 Trials at the Duxford site investigated the effects of increased seeding rate on root phenotypes and genotypic responses  
306 to these effects. There were significantly fewer crown roots per plant at the higher rate (11.5) than standard rate (13.6).  
307 Yield was also greater at the higher seeding rate (8.5 t/ha) than standard rate (8.1 t/ha) (Table 4). However, there was  
308 no effect of sowing rate on RA or SRN. Whilst the main effect of sowing rate on NRN was non-significant, a highly  
309 significant genotype-by-sowing-rate interaction effect on NRN was found (Table 4). When the data for each seeding  
310 rate were analysed separately, highly significant differences were found among genotypes at both standard seeding  
311 rate (Wald statistic/d.f. = 3.69,  $P < 0.001$ ) and high seeding rate (Wald statistic/d.f. = 4.78,  $P < 0.001$ ). When the effect  
312 of sowing rate was analysed separately for each variety, varieties such as ‘Slejpner’ and ‘Flamingo’ had significantly  
313 fewer nodal roots at higher seeding rate ( $P < 0.01$  for both varieties) than standard rate, whereas ‘Robigus’ had  
314 significantly more nodal roots at the higher seeding rate ( $P < 0.05$ ).

315

316

317

## 318 4. Discussion

319

320 There has been increasing interest in investigating crop root phenotypes, especially in relation to resource use  
321 efficiencies and sustainability. We employed the field phenotyping method of shovelomics to characterise wheat root  
322 phenotypes in two sets of diverse wheat accessions, including landraces, historic and modern cultivars, to investigate  
323 changes in wheat root phenotypes due to breeding as well as the effects of crop management practices of tillage and  
324 sowing rate.

325

### 326 4.1. Temporal changes in wheat root traits

327

328 Correlating root traits against the year of variety release in the Duxford dataset revealed that whilst yields have linearly  
329 increased by approximately 0.04 t/ha/year, which is similar to 0.07 t/ha/year trends found by Mackay et al. (2011),  
330 this has been accompanied by a decline in numbers of crown and particularly nodal roots, as well as, to some extent,  
331 a widening of root angles. This trend in the Sonning dataset is particularly strong, where the varieties extended to pre  
332 20<sup>th</sup> century material, and suggests that the effect is due to continuous selection for yield over long periods rather than  
333 the rapid introduction of dwarfing genes in the 1960s. Other studies have found similar changes in root traits over time  
334 (Waines and Ehdaie, 2007). This finding reflects long-term trends in which crop plants have been selected to be less  
335 selfish and competitive as individuals (Denison 2012; Donald 1968). Early crop plants grown in heterogeneous stands  
336 may have had larger root systems due to natural selection for traits that allowed individual plants to usurp resources  
337 from their neighbours. However, continuous selection for crop genotypes that are collectively more productive (a  
338 form of group-level selection) is expected to favour root traits that make individual plants less selfish (Zhu et al.,  
339 2019b). This is supported by recent work finding that higher crop yields of modern wheat varieties are associated with  
340 reduced root numbers (Zhu et al., 2019a).

341 Our study also found that RA increased over time in the set of varieties tested at Sonning. RA has been  
342 identified as an important adaptive trait to water-limited environments, where genotypes with a narrower angle are  
343 able to access water at greater depths (Manschadi et al., 2006). Lynch et al. (2007) also suggested a strategy of selection  
344 of ‘steep, cheap and deep’ roots for improved adaptation of maize to water limited environments. Our results suggest  
345 that whilst a narrower root angle may be beneficial for crop adaptation in water limited environments, this has not  
346 been the direction of breeders’ selection in UK winter wheat where modern elite varieties exhibit a wider angle than  
347 do older UK varieties. This may be because of the complexity of environmental and agronomic factors affecting yield  
348 in the UK (Mackay et al., 2011), and so possibly may have more to do with agronomy than just water availability,  
349 which is likely the case in drier areas.

350 Intensification of agriculture and increased fertiliser use (Glass, 2003) could also explain the reduction in NRN  
351 in modern UK varieties. It has been suggested that lower root densities in the upper soil profile, but which extend to  
352 a greater depth, are required for efficient uptake of nitrate, which is made readily available and mobile in soil due to  
353 synthetic fertiliser application (Lynch, 2013; White et al., 2013). On the other hand, the value of an RSA characterised  
354 by increased root number and at a shallower angle has been found to be particularly important for scavenging and  
355 uptake of phosphorus, which is relatively immobile in soil and more abundant and available in the upper soil profile  
356 (Lynch and Brown, 2001; Péret et al., 2014). Therefore, a trade-off potentially exists for uptake of these two key  
357 nutrients, which differ in spatial and temporal distribution and availability within the soil profile according to

358 production system and soil management regime. For example, in non-inversion tillage systems, soil organic matter  
359 and associated phosphorus is often stratified and concentrated in the topsoil (Poirier, 2009). Manske and Vlek (2002)  
360 advocate a high-input root ideotype characterised by seminal root dominance in contrast to a low-input ideotype based  
361 on a greater number of roots to explore the soil volume. Increasing root number is also thought to increase crop plant  
362 competitive ability against weeds (Richards, 2007) which are particularly problematic in low-input environments  
363 (Hoad et al., 2012). Our results support this, demonstrating that modern elite varieties, which are adapted to high-  
364 input environments, have a smaller number of nodal roots. We suggest that utilisation of historic cultivars as breeding  
365 material would be useful to improve the adaptation of modern varieties adapted to environments where nutrients are  
366 not made readily available through application of inorganic fertilisers, or where reductions in input use is a priority.

367

#### 368 *4.2. Effects of tillage*

369

370 Significant effects of tillage on three of the measured root traits (RA, CRN, NRN) suggests a general sensitivity of  
371 RSA to the growing environment. Numerically, the difference appears small, but small differences in RA can result  
372 in a larger spread of the root system at depth. In addition, significant genotype by tillage interactions for these traits  
373 suggests that this sensitivity is genotype specific. Consistent genotype effects on RA across treatments were only  
374 found in year 1 in the CT system. These interactions underline the importance of understanding and reporting soil  
375 management practices for fields used in root phenotyping experiments. Inversion tillage in the CT system, which  
376 would likely cause smaller soil bulk density in the upper profile than non-inversion tillage (Tebrügge and Düring,  
377 1999), likely provides a better environment for maximising and observing genotypic differences in RA. Genotype by  
378 tillage interactions for CRN and NRN in both years indicate that the production of crown and nodal roots by different  
379 genotypes also depends on soil management. There were fewer nodal roots produced in SNI than CT, and grain yield  
380 was also lower in SNI than CT in both years (personal communication). These results corroborate findings that reduced  
381 yields are often found in SNI practices (Pittelkow et al., 2015). These genotype-by-tillage interactions also suggests  
382 that selection of genotypes in the target environment would be required in order to improve adaptation to conservation  
383 agriculture systems characterised by reduced or non-inversion tillage. This would enable enhanced performance with  
384 reduced tillage, as part of conservation agriculture systems, which are able to make more efficient use of nutrients  
385 (Habbib et al., 2016).

386

#### 387 *4.3. Effects of seeding rate*

388

389 Trials at the Duxford site compared a diverse set of wheat varieties at standard and high seeding rates. This enabled  
390 the investigation of varying genotypic responses in root traits to increased density and within crop competition. Our  
391 results found that higher densities generally decreased CRN, but that the effect on NRN was highly genotype specific  
392 with some varieties responding positively but some negatively. This effect of reduced CRN closely reflects results in  
393 barley reported by Hecht et al. (2019) where root numbers, together with tiller number, declined at higher densities.  
394 However, this is contrary to results of O'Brien et al. (2005) who found an increase in pea root proliferation with  
395 increased competition but with equal nutrient availability per plant. Hecht et al. (2016) also found an increase in root  
396 density from fine root branching as a response to increased density, which suggests independent control of crown root  
397 numbers and root branching. Our results showing reduced CRN suggests that this is a result of limited nutrient

398 availability due to increased competition at higher densities rather than an adaptive response to competitors. The  
399 competitive and compensatory relationships among crop plants and tillers on the same plant are well known (e.g.  
400 Nerson, 1980). As yields were found to be significantly higher at sowing rates well above the standard practice in the  
401 study presented here, adaptation of crop varieties to higher densities would be an opportunity for yield improvement.  
402 However, significant genotype-by-sowing-rate interactions were only found for NRN and not yield in the Duxford  
403 dataset. Therefore, there is no evidence here that varieties which respond differently to density in terms of NRN are  
404 able to yield more at higher densities. It may be hypothesised that the more modern varieties would exhibit a less  
405 competitive response to increased density and produce fewer nodal roots, as outlined above in relation to selection for  
406 decreased intra-crop competitive effects (Zhu et al., 2019b). However, we found no relationship between NRN  
407 response to selection and variety release date, and therefore, the implications of this genotype-by-sowing rate  
408 interaction remain unclear. No effect of seeding rate on RA or SRN was found which may be because of the greater  
409 variability of these traits. However, more vertical root angles in response to competition were found in a study in  
410 maize (Shao et al., 2018), which suggests biological effects exist but were not detected in the present study.

411

#### 412 *4.4. Application of shovelomics*

413

414 Our ability to detect genotypic differences in RSA confirms that shovelomics is an effective method to phenotype  
415 wheat root traits in the field, corroborating a recent study in wheat (York et al., 2018). However, here we also  
416 investigated effects of management practices including contrasting tillage system and increased sowing rate. Whilst  
417 classification of cereal root types are rarely standardised (Zobel and Waisel, 2010) and crown and nodal roots are  
418 often considered together (Manske and Vlek, 2002; York et al., 2018), we were able to differentiate between these  
419 root classes finding clear genotypic differences, particularly in NRN. Although the method only observes roots present  
420 in upper soil layers, the advantage is that roots are sampled *in situ*, in a real field environment, unlike pot- or pipe-  
421 based root phenotyping systems in which expression of root traits are likely affected by the container and the nature  
422 of the rooting medium (Passioura, 2006). Time requirements are an important consideration in root phenotyping. We  
423 found sample collection to take approximately 2 minutes per experimental plot with subsequent washing taking  
424 between 5 to 10 minutes and imaging taking approximately 0.5 to 2 minutes per sample. Up to 20 wheat genotypes  
425 were characterised in each environment under multiple treatments in this study, but greater throughput would be  
426 required for marker discovery using genetic mapping populations or screening lines in a wheat breeding programme.  
427 However, the shovelomics method could be used to identify desirable root phenotypes in novel germplasm that could  
428 be integrated into pre-breeding programmes, or to validate genetic effects found in controlled environment  
429 phenotyping methods. The method does not provide information on root traits in deeper soil layers; for this, soil coring  
430 (e.g. Wasson et al., 2016) or other methods are required.

431

#### 432 *4.5. Conclusions*

433

434 In summary, we found significant genotypic variation for RSA phenotypes, the expression of which differed according  
435 to the tillage regime, sowing rate and growing environment. Our results suggest that selective breeding for yield has  
436 resulted in a reduction in later developing root numbers, in particular nodal roots. The results raise new questions  
437 about the role of tillage regime and sowing density on root traits, but further research is required to understand which

438 combination of root traits are most beneficial for a given environment or soil management scenario. The information  
439 about differences in RSA traits identified here can contribute to improving crop adaptation by matching specific root  
440 traits to specific target environments or crop and soil management practices. In future work, questions should be  
441 addressed such as how tillering capacity and CRN are related and interact with stand density, and the nature of trade-  
442 offs between RA, lodging susceptibility, and growth under varying levels of nitrogen inputs.

443 **5. Acknowledgements**

444

445 The authors acknowledge funding for the trials at the Sonning site from the European Community's Seventh  
446 Framework Programme (FP7/ 2007-2013) under the grant agreement no. FP7- 613556 (WHEALBI); the Nuffield  
447 Foundation for funding work of GE and the Biotechnology and Biological Sciences Research Council (BBSRC) under  
448 grant agreement BB/M011666/1 and BB/M013995/1 for funding trials at the Duxford site. We thank farm staff at the  
449 University of Reading, Sonning farm field trial site; Ambrogio Costanzo and Dominic Amos of The Organic Research  
450 Centre; the Trials Team at NIAB Cambridge for management of field trials; Simon Orford of the John Innes Centre  
451 Germplasm Resource Unit for providing seed. Greg Mellers and Ian Mackay gave invaluable advice on statistical  
452 analysis.

453

454

455 **6. Author contributions**

456

457 EO, HJ, JC, JB and NF conceived the work and provided supervision, GE, HJ, EM, AO and NF performed sample  
458 collection and analysis, NF analysed the data, NF and EM wrote the paper and all authors edited the manuscript.

459

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602 **8. Supplementary Material**

603

604 **Supplementary table 1.** Origins and dates of winter wheat cultivars as part of the WHEALBI panel. Dates of use for  
 605 some genotypes are unavailable. Database ID with prefixes ‘PI’ are from the USDA GRIN database  
 606 (<https://npgsweb.ars-grin.gov/>); ‘GRU’ and ‘WAT’ from the Germplasm Resource Unit and Watkins Collection  
 607 (<https://www.seedstor.ac.uk/>); ‘WW’- are WHEALBI accessions (<http://www.whealbi.eu/>); ‘URGI’ from GnpIS  
 608 (<https://urgi.versailles.inra.fr/gnpis/>).

<b>Genotype name</b>	<b>WHEALBI ID</b>	<b>Database ID</b>	<b>Collection group</b>	<b>Country of origin</b>	<b>Release date or approximate date of use</b>
Alchemy	WW-048	URGI-29921	Modern variety	UK	2006
Bankuti 1201	WW-089	PI-232943	Landrace	Hungary	1931
Cappelle Desprez		GRU- W0385	UK historic	France/UK	1946
Hereward	WW-051	GRU- W9448	Modern variety	UK	1991
JB Diego		URGI-36542	Modern variety	UK	2002
KWS Santiago	WW-030	GRU- W10338	Modern variety	UK	2011
Maris Wigeon		GRU- W4114	UK historic	UK	1964
Milns N 59		GRU- W0505	UK historic	UK	1951
MV Kolo	WW-026	URGI-36434	Modern variety	Hungary	2006
Ostka Skomoroska		PI-285873	Landrace	Poland	1920
Red Lammas		GRU- W0987	UK historic	UK	~1740
Red Standard		GRU- W5623	UK historic	UK	~1905
Red Stettin 13		GRU- W1091	UK historic	Ireland	1850
Robigus	WW-053	GRU- W9999	Modern variety	UK	2003
Samanta 117		PI-278425	Landrace	Romania	<1962
Soissons	WW-054	GRU- W9465	Modern variety	UK	1995
Steadfast		GRU- W0513	UK historic	UK	1942
Tiepolo	WW-021	URGI-38984	Modern variety	Italy	2009

WW 502 (China Sh12)	WW-502	WAT119044	Landrace	China	-
		0			
WW 512 (Italy W8457)	WW-512	WAT119081	Landrace	Italy	-
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609

610 **Supplementary table 2.** Origins and release dates of the 16 wheat varieties that represent the founders of the NIAB

611 Diverse MAGIC population.

<b>Name</b>	<b>Country of origin</b>	<b>Adaptation</b>	<b>Release date</b>
Banco	Sweden	Winter	1956
Bersee	UK/France	Winter	1951
Brigadier	UK	Winter	1993
Copain	France	Winter	1980
Cordiale	UK	Winter	2004
Flamingo	NL/DK	Winter	1960
Gladiator	UK	Winter	2004
Holdfast	UK	Winter	1935
Kloka	Germany	Facultative	1965
Maris Fundin	UK	Winter	1975
Robigus	UK	Winter	2003
Slejpner	Denmark/Sweden	Winter	1986
Soissons	France	Winter	1995
Spark	UK	Winter	1993
Steadfast	UK	Winter	1942
Stetson	UK	Winter	1983

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612

613

614 **Supplementary table 3.** Soil chemistry measurements at the Sonning site in both years.

	<b>Year 1</b>	<b>Year 2</b>
pH	6.2	6.0
NO <sub>3</sub> -N (mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )	4.08	0.98
P (mg l <sup>-1</sup> )	30.6	40.4
P Index	3	3
K (mg l <sup>-1</sup> )	59.6	196.0
K Index	0	2+
Mg (mg l <sup>-1</sup> )	37.6	68.0
Mg Index	1	2
Organic matter (%)	2.6	2.4

615

616

617 **Supplementary table 4.** Raw data per plot used for analysis from both the Duxford and Sonning trials sites.