

1 **The evolution of root hydraulic traits in wheat over 100 years of** 2 **breeding**

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24 **Short title:** Wheat root traits over 100 years of breeding

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29 **Abstract**

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31 Wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.) plays a vital role in global food security, and understanding its
32 root traits is essential for improving water uptake under varying environmental conditions.
33 This study investigates how breeding over a century has influenced root morphological and
34 hydraulic properties in six German winter wheat cultivars released between 1895 and 2002.
35 Field and hydroponic experiments were used to measure root diameter, root number,
36 branching density, and whole root system hydraulic conductance (K_{rs}). Results showed a
37 significant decline in root axes number and K_{rs} over time, while root diameter remained
38 stable across cultivars. Additionally, dynamic functional-structural modeling using the
39 whole-plant model CPlantBox was employed to simulate the development of K_{rs} with root
40 system growth, revealing that older cultivars consistently had higher hydraulic conductance
41 than modern ones. The combined approach of field phenotyping and modeling provided a
42 comprehensive view of the changes in root traits with breeding. These findings suggest that
43 breeding may have unintentionally favored cultivars with smaller root systems and more
44 conservative water uptake strategies, under the high-input, high-density conditions of modern
45 agriculture. The lessons from this study may inform future breeding efforts aimed at
46 optimizing wheat root systems, helping to develop cultivars with water uptake better tailored
47 to locally changing environmental conditions.

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49 **key words:** wheat (*Triticum aestivum*), breeding, root hydraulic traits, root phenotyping,
50 plant modelling, whole root system conductance, root system development

51

52 Introduction

53 Wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.) is one of the world's most important staple crops, occupying
54 the largest share of cultivated land and supplying approximately one-fifth of food calories
55 and proteins globally (Erenstein et al., 2022). Wheat yields increased considerably during the
56 20th century as a result of breeding programs and modern agricultural management practices,
57 but a tendency towards yield stagnation has been observed across Europe in recent decades
58 (Le Gouis et al., 2020). With global demand expected to increase by 50% by 2050 (FAO,
59 2017), the pressure on agricultural systems to support this demand will intensify. This
60 challenge will be further exacerbated by the effects of climate change, particularly rising
61 global temperatures and changing rainfall patterns, which threaten to destabilize wheat
62 production across regions (Challinor et al., 2014). Understanding the evolution of root traits
63 through breeding could provide valuable insights into potential avenues for yield
64 improvement, as roots play a central role in water and nutrient uptake.

65 It has been suggested that targeting for root traits in breeding could lead to significant gains
66 in wheat productivity and potentially herald a 'second Green Revolution' (Lynch, 2007). In
67 particular, root architecture and root hydraulic traits are crucial to crop functioning and
68 productivity (Torres-Ruiz et al., 2024). Historically, however, wheat breeding programs have
69 focused primarily on selecting for yield and aboveground traits, often overlooking root traits
70 (Waines and Ehdaie, 2007). This is partly due to the technical difficulties of root
71 phenotyping, which is more challenging than analyzing aboveground organs (Atkinson et al.,
72 2019), as well as the complex plasticity of root traits in response to environmental cues
73 (Schneider and Lynch, 2018). Despite this, recent studies have shown that plant breeding has
74 inadvertently affected wheat root system architecture traits such as root system size, number
75 of roots, or root angles (Fradgley et al., 2020; McGrail and McNear, 2021). However, a
76 detailed analysis of the effects of breeding on root diameter—a plastic trait that responds to
77 factors such as water and nutrient availability, soil structure or temperature (Hodge, 2010;
78 Rich and Watt, 2013) and plays a key role in root water uptake (Awad et al., 2018; Heymans,
79 2022)—is still lacking, particularly regarding differences between root types. Even less is
80 known about how breeding has influenced whole root system conductance (K_{rs}), a key plant
81 trait that determines the capacity of the root system to take up water, at a specific evaporative
82 demand. K_{rs} integrates the root system architecture and radial and axial water flows within the
83 root system (Baca Cabrera et al., 2024), providing insights into potential adaptations in root
84 water uptake under changing environmental conditions. While an increase in K_{rs} during the

85 domestication process from wild to modern cultivated wheat has been reported (Zhao et al.,
86 2005), it remains unclear whether—and to what extent— K_{rs} differs between old and modern
87 wheat cultivars.

88 One possible reason why the effect of breeding on K_{rs} has not been (at least to our
89 knowledge) investigated thus far is the inherent technical challenges associated with its
90 measurement. While phenotyping methods for root architecture traits are well established for
91 field experiments and are relatively straightforward (York, 2018), the most common K_{rs}
92 measurement methods are laboratory-based and labor-intensive (Boursiac et al., 2022b).
93 Alternatively, mechanistic root water uptake modeling offers a promising approach to bridge
94 these complementary methods, facilitating the identification of root hydraulic phenotypes
95 across crop species and growth environments (Cai et al., 2022). Crucially, functional-
96 structural modeling also allows for a detailed analysis of plant growth and K_{rs} development
97 (Baca Cabrera et al., 2024), shedding light on their potential interactions and how these
98 dynamics may be influenced by breeding. Such an approach, combining field and lab
99 measurements with dynamic modelling, would provide a more comprehensive understanding
100 of how breeding may have impacted root structure and function over time.

101 In this context, this work focused on the effect of breeding on the morphological traits of
102 seminal, crown, and lateral roots, as well as the hydraulic conductance of whole root systems
103 in wheat. We differentiated root traits of crown, seminal and lateral roots, as they are
104 considered to be morphologically and functionally different (Gregory et al., 1978;
105 Nakhforoosh et al., 2014). For this, six German winter wheat varieties were selected, released
106 between 1895 and 2002 and which were previously grown in the long-term experiment
107 Dikopshof, in Germany (Schellberg and Hüging, 1997), with approximately 20-year intervals
108 between each variety and under increasing fertilizer input and nutrient availability (Ahrends
109 et al., 2018; Rueda-Ayala et al., 2018). These conditions may have favored cultivars that are
110 less selfish and competitive as individuals, making them better suited to high-input, high-
111 density agricultural systems (Fradgley et al., 2020). Additionally, greater nutrient availability
112 may have reduced the need for large root systems, allowing more resources to be directed
113 toward increasing yield. This development may have also indirectly reduced the root water
114 uptake capacity of wheat cultivars. Whether—and to what extent—this has actually been the
115 case, remains poorly understood.

116 We hypothesize that breeding for yield in high-input agricultural environments may have
117 inadvertently altered root hydraulic properties of wheat, favoring plants with low root system

118 hydraulic conductance. To address this hypothesis, we specifically investigated the effect of
119 breeding on (i) root diameter, root axes number and lateral branching density of wheat plants
120 grown in the field; and (ii) whole root system conductance (K_{rs}) and its interactions with root
121 system development. For this, we used a pipeline integrating field-based phenotyping with
122 detailed laboratory measurements and state-of-the-art whole plant modeling (CPlantBox,
123 Giraud et al., 2023). This pipeline provided a comprehensive view of the development of K_{rs}
124 across different wheat varieties, highlighting how over a century of breeding may have
125 affected root hydraulic properties and led to shifts in root water uptake strategies. These
126 findings have important implications for future water use and drought resilience in wheat
127 agriculture, especially in the context of a changing climate.

128 **Results**

129 **Root diameter and root axes number variation with breeding**

130 In order to investigate the effect of breeding on root morphological traits of wheat, we
131 conducted a field experiment over two growing seasons (2022-2024) under conventional
132 agricultural management practices, using six German winter wheat cultivars that represent
133 over 100 years of breeding history: (1) S. Dickkopf – 1895, (2) SG v. Stocken – 1920, (3)
134 Heines II – 1940, (4) Jubilar – 1961, (5) Okapi – 1978, and (6) Tommi – 2002. At the end of
135 the tillering phase, roots samples were obtained with the ‘shovelomics’ method (York, 2018)
136 and analyzed to determine the evolution of root diameter, root axes number and lateral
137 branching density over time.

138 Root diameters showed clear differences among root types (crown, seminal and lateral), but
139 not among cultivars (Fig. 1 and 2a, Table 1). Average diameters varied in a very narrow range
140 for all root types: crown roots = 0.58–0.62 mm, seminal roots = 0.27–0.30 mm and lateral
141 roots = 0.17–0.18 mm. Only in two cases, significant differences were observed between
142 cultivars, according to Tukey post-hoc test: between cultivars SG. V Stocken and Okapi for
143 crown roots ($p < 0.01$) and between Jubilar and Okapi for seminal roots ($p < 0.05$) (Table S1).
144 Accordingly, there was no significant trend over time (according to the year of release of the
145 different cultivars) in crown and seminal root diameters (Fig. 2a and Table 2). For lateral
146 roots, a significant decrease in root diameter over time was observed (Fig. 2a; $p < 0.05$).
147 However, the decrease was very small, with an average decrease of 0.00007 mm year⁻¹,
148 which approximated to a 3.9% decrease in 100 years (taking the oldest cultivar as the
149 reference, Table 2).

150 On the contrary, a highly significant decrease in root axes number over time was observed for
151 crown, seminal and total axile roots (Fig. 2b and Table 2, $p < 0.001$). Crown root number
152 decreased in average from 15.8 to 12.3 (22.2%) and seminal root number from 7.8 to 5.4
153 (30.8%) between the oldest (S. Dickkopf – 1895) and the most modern cultivar (Tommi –
154 2002). Additionally, there was a highly significant linear relationship between crown root
155 number and tiller number across cultivars (Fig. S1, $p < 0.001$), as tiller number also decreased
156 highly significantly over time (Table 2, $p < 0.001$). This was not the case for the branching
157 density of lateral roots, which was constant across all cultivars (Table 1 and 2) and had an
158 overall average value of 1.1 lateral roots cm^{-1} .

159 **Whole root system conductance variation with breeding**

160 The same cultivars used in the field experiment were grown in a hydroponic medium in the
161 laboratory to measure the hydraulic conductance of whole root systems (K_{rs}) in young plants
162 (10–12 days old, with no crown roots), using the pressure chamber technique. K_{rs} showed a
163 range of variation from 1.3×10^{-10} (the oldest cultivar) to $0.7 \times 10^{-10} \text{ m}^3 \text{ MPa}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ (the most
164 modern cultivar), which corresponded to a highly significant decrease over time (Table 1 and
165 2, Fig. 3a, $p < 0.01$). According to the regression slope, K_{rs} decreased $0.0006 \text{ m}^3 \text{ MPa}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ per
166 year, or 46.2% in a 100-year period, taking the oldest cultivar as a reference. A similar
167 significant negative trend with time was observed for K_{rs} normalized by root system surface
168 area (K_{rs_area}) or total length (K_{rs_length} , Fig. S2), but those trends were less pronounced (35.3%
169 and 31.6% decrease in 100-year period, respectively).

170 To complement these early-stage measurements, the development of K_{rs} with plant growth
171 was modeled using the whole-plant model CPlantBox (Giraud et al., 2023), including the
172 dynamics of tillering and crown root growth. The model was parametrized for the two most
173 contrasting cultivars (oldest vs. newest) based on our measurements of root morphological
174 traits and K_{rs} (Table S2). For both cultivars, a non-linear relationship between age and K_{rs} was
175 observed, with a very steep increase of K_{rs} during the first 20–30 days and a flattening out of
176 the curve until the end of the simulation (Fig. 3b). For both cultivars, K_{rs} increased ≈ 3 orders
177 of magnitude throughout the simulated growing period, which was mostly attributed to a very
178 large increase in total root length (Fig. S3). Cultivar Tommi showed a consistently lower K_{rs}
179 than cultivar S. Dickkopf, which was in line with the chamber pressure measurements. K_{rs} of
180 Tommi was between ca. 35–60% lower than of S. Dickkopf (average difference 50.8%) and
181 the difference between cultivars was most pronounced at the end of the simulation period
182 (Fig. 3b). The model was also capable of capturing differences between cultivars in terms of

183 K_{rs_area} and K_{rs_length} . For both parameters, the model showed approximately 25% lower values
184 for Tommi compared to S. Dickkopf, at the time when the pressure chamber measurements
185 were taken (10–12 day-old plants).

186 **Discussion**

187 **Root axes number declined, but diameter classes were unaffected by breeding**

188 This study analyzed the variation of root morphological and hydraulic traits among six
189 German wheat cultivars spanning over 100 years of breeding history. A key finding of our
190 research was the significant decline in root axes (crown, seminal and total axile roots) over
191 time, consistent with trends in wheat cultivars from the US (McGrail and McNear, 2021), the
192 UK and Northern Europe (Fradgley et al., 2020) and China (Zhu et al., 2019). This decline
193 may be a result of unconscious breeding for smaller root systems, which would reduce
194 below-ground competition, improving resource use. As selection probably occurred under
195 high-input management (which is typical of agroecosystems, particularly in Germany),
196 phenotypes with fewer axes may have been prioritized. Notably, the oldest cultivar had
197 significantly more crown and seminal roots than all others ($p < 0.05$, Table S1), with reduced
198 variation in root axes after 1920, pointing to homogenization among cultivars. Similar
199 patterns were found in US cultivars classified as either old (<1935), intermediate (1970–
200 1989) or modern, where large differences in root traits were observed between the old
201 cultivars and the intermediate and modern ones, but not between the last two groups
202 (McGrail and McNear, 2021). Limited phenotypic diversity in modern cultivars may explain
203 this, as they originated from just two ancestral wheat groups, maintaining haplotype integrity
204 (Cheng et al., 2024). Also, as there are only a handful of genes involved in crown root
205 formation in wheat (Xu et al., 2021), they may have been involuntarily counter-selected early
206 in breeding programs.

207 Moreover, our data revealed a highly significant positive relationship between crown root
208 number and tiller number, for all cultivars ($p < 0.001$, Fig. S1), suggesting that crown root
209 number variation was linked to size rather than to changes in node number per tiller. Modern
210 cultivars typically have smaller root systems (Waines and Ehdaie, 2007) and less tillers (Fang
211 et al., 2011) than older ones, which possibly indicates adaptation to high-density planting.
212 Zhu *et al.* (2019) found that newer cultivars produce higher yields only at higher sowing
213 densities, suggesting changes in competitive behavior. Our findings point in that direction, as

214 modern cultivars with fewer root axes are better suited for reducing intra-crop competition
215 and maximizing yield.

216 On the contrary, root diameter classes showed negligible variation among cultivars. Distinct
217 average diameters for crown (0.58–0.62mm), seminal (0.27–0.30mm), and lateral roots
218 (0.17–0.18mm) were observed, which was consistent with previous studies showing
219 systematically bigger diameters in crown roots than in seminal roots across wheat accessions
220 (Xu et al., 2021). However, there were no significant trends in root diameters over time,
221 except for a small decrease in lateral root diameter ($0.00007\text{mm year}^{-1}$ or 3.9% over a
222 century), though this variation was likely not physiologically significant. For instance, taking
223 the oldest cultivar as a reference, a 0.1 mm decrease in lateral root diameter would result in
224 less than a 0.1% variation in K_{rs} or root system volume, according to CPlantBox simulations.

225 Our results indicated high stability over time in root diameter classes, suggesting reduced
226 genetic diversity due to domestication and modern breeding (Cheng et al., 2024). A study
227 with 196 wheat accessions (Xu et al., 2021) similarly found that the coefficient of variation of
228 root diameter was the lowest among multiple root traits, both for seminal and crown roots.
229 Likewise, Peng *et al.* (2019) observed no variation in average root diameter among ten US
230 varieties but noted effects of field site and irrigation. In contrast, Awad *et al.* (2018) reported
231 significant differences in average root diameter among cultivar lines from Colorado.
232 Interestingly, though, this experiment was performed under drought stress only (no well-
233 watered treatment). This highlights the importance of investigating the interactions between
234 breeding and environmental stress, as growth conditions significantly influence root
235 development and morphology. Our study, conducted under non-stress conditions (common
236 nutrient application and crop protection practices and precipitation above the long-term
237 average in both growing seasons, Materials & Methods), showed stability in root diameter
238 classes. Whether breeding has affected cultivars' stress responses requires further
239 investigation.

240 **Whole root system conductance decreased with breeding**

241 Our study revealed a significant decrease in the conductance of whole root systems (K_{rs}) with
242 breeding over the past century. This trend was observed both in absolute terms (46.2%
243 decrease over 100 years) and when K_{rs} was normalized by the root system surface area
244 (K_{rs_area}) or total root length (K_{rs_length}), though the normalized values exhibited a less
245 pronounced decline (35.3% and 31.6% decrease over 100 years, respectively). It is important

246 to note that the pressure chamber measurements were performed on young plants (10–12 d)
247 consisting of seminal and first order lateral roots, only (no crown roots). To complement
248 these early-stage measurements, we utilized the CPlantBox model to simulate the changes in
249 root system architecture and K_{rs} with plant development, including the dynamics of tillering
250 and crown root growth, for the two most contrasting cultivars (i.e., oldest and most modern
251 ones). Consistent with the pressure chamber measurements, the model showed that K_{rs} in the
252 most modern cultivar (Tommi) was 37.5% lower compared to the oldest cultivar (S.
253 Dickkopf) at plant age 10–12 d. This pattern also applied to the modeled K_{rs_area} and K_{rs_length} ,
254 with both showing approximately 25% lower values in Tommi than in S. Dickkopf at that
255 age. Additionally, the modeled K_{rs} remained systematically higher in S. Dickkopf than in
256 Tommi throughout the entire simulation period, with the differences becoming more
257 pronounced in the later stages (Fig. 3b). Moreover, the model indicated a non-linear increase
258 in K_{rs} with age for both cultivars, with a very steep rise during the first 20–30 days, followed
259 by a flattening out. This non-linear pattern has been reported for various crops and is
260 associated with the counteracting effects of root growth, which adds more conductances to
261 the hydraulic network—thus increasing the total conductance—and the increment in the
262 proportion of less conductive root segments with age, causing hydraulic limitations at later
263 stages of development (Baca Cabrera et al., 2024).

264 This is the first study, to our knowledge, that has investigated the effect of breeding on K_{rs} ,
265 limiting direct comparisons with previous literature. Thus, to better contextualize the extent
266 of the observed decrease in K_{rs} and K_{rs_area} , we compared our results with published data on
267 wheat, for non-stressed conditions. The decrease in K_{rs_area} with breeding (from $1.7 \cdot 10^{-7}$ to
268 $1.1 \cdot 10^{-7}$ m MPa⁻¹ s⁻¹) fell well within the range of variation reported in the literature, which
269 was of more than one order of magnitude ($1.5 \cdot 10^{-8}$ – $5.9 \cdot 10^{-7}$ m MPa⁻¹ s⁻¹, Fig. 4a). As K_{rs_area}
270 already accounts for possible differences in root system size, the large range of variation in
271 the literature must have been associated with contrasting experimental designs. This
272 signalizes that the breeding effect on K_{rs_area} detected in our study could potentially be even
273 higher in less controlled environments than the one we used (hydroponics, with no nutrient
274 limitation). Interestingly, our measurements were on the higher end of reported values and
275 were only clearly lower than one study involving plants grown in hydroponics (Zhao et al.,
276 2005). In most of the remaining studies, the plants were grown in soil, so that the large range
277 of variation could reflect differences in the growth medium, as has been pointed out
278 previously (Garthwaite et al., 2006). Moreover, the K_{rs} development with age observed in our

279 model aligned closely with a fitted curve based on literature data (Fig. 4b), underscoring that
280 our findings were within a reasonable range for wheat, not only for point measurements, but
281 likewise regarding the dynamics of K_{rs} and root system development.

282 **K_{rs} and root axes number decrease with breeding indicate unconscious selection for**
283 **more conservative root water uptake**

284 The present work showed that root diameter classes have remained constant, but there was a
285 significant decrease in root axes number and K_{rs} with breeding. As our cultivars have been
286 bred under the high-input, high-density agricultural systems typical of Germany, this trend
287 was likely related to unconscious selection for less selfish phenotypes, as has been proposed
288 elsewhere (Waines and Ehdaie, 2007; Aziz et al., 2017; Fradgley et al., 2020). This suggests
289 that breeding has favored smaller root systems because, with high inputs of fertilizers, large
290 root systems were less necessary for efficient nutrient uptake. Notably, it was shown for
291 Australian wheat cultivars that selection for yield reduced total root length, while increasing
292 nitrogen uptake per unit root length, indicating a trend towards smaller, more efficient root
293 systems with breeding (Aziz et al., 2017). Such a reduction in root system size would also
294 lead to a decrease in K_{rs} in modern cultivars. Consequently, breeding for yield may have
295 indirectly favored genotypes with more conservative characteristics regarding their root water
296 uptake capacity.

297 In rainfed agricultural systems, like the one where our experiment was conducted and which
298 is common for wheat cultivation in Germany, low K_{rs} could be advantageous, especially with
299 drought events becoming more common in the future. Plants with low root hydraulic
300 conductance can potentially conserve water during early growth, allowing for more efficient
301 use at later developmental stages (Passioura, 1972). In fact, low axial conductance has been
302 identified as a key trait for supporting sustainable grain yield under drought conditions in
303 wheat (Richards and Passioura, 1989). However, the advantage of low K_{rs} in terms of water-
304 use efficiency also depends on above ground canopy development—a factor we did not
305 analyze here—, as the water demand imposed by large leaf area could revert water savings. In
306 this regard, the relationship between root system conductance, water use, canopy
307 development and yield with breeding should be addressed in more detail in future studies,
308 particularly under drought conditions.

309 As previously mentioned, this study was performed under non-stress conditions.
310 Nevertheless, the decrease in K_{rs_area} we observed during a 100-year breeding period (35.3%)

311 closely mirrored the difference between an elite drought-tolerant and a drought-sensitive
312 cultivar from Australia, under well-watered conditions (ca. 40% difference, Schoppach et al.,
313 2013). This reinforces the idea of unconscious selection of root traits associated with more
314 conservative water uptake. Interestingly, our results showed not only a decrease for total K_{rs} ,
315 but also when normalized by either total root surface area or root length (K_{rs_area} and K_{rs_length}).
316 This suggests that the decline in root system conductance with breeding was not solely due to
317 a size effect (i.e., modern cultivars having smaller root systems), but also due to a reduced
318 water transport capacity per unit root. While our study evidenced a size effect (i.e., a decrease
319 with breeding in the total number of root axes and root surface area before tillering, Tables 1
320 and 2), the mechanisms behind the decrease in conductance per unit root could not be
321 assessed. More detailed measurements at the individual root or root segment scale would be
322 necessary, but that lay beyond the scope of this study.

323 Furthermore, a key finding in our study is that K_{rs} and K_{rs_area} decreased with breeding, even
324 though root diameter classes and branching density were constant among cultivars. Root
325 diameter has been proposed as a good proxy for root conductance (Heymans, 2022), but we
326 did not see this relationship across the selected cultivars. Similarly, Schoppach et al. (2013)
327 found significant differences in K_{rs_area} between two wheat cultivars with contrasting drought
328 sensitivity despite no differences in root diameter. This might be related with the fact that
329 radial conductance—often considered the more limiting component of K_{rs} (Frensch and
330 Steudle, 1989)—is proportional to the root cross-sectional area to water flow, but also
331 inversely proportional to the path length from the root-soil interface to the xylem vessels
332 (Bramley et al., 2009). While the former depends mostly on root diameter, the latter is
333 affected by various anatomical features (e.g. formation of apoplastic barriers and
334 aerenchyma, cortex width, stele diameter, root cortical senescence; Schneider and Lynch,
335 2018; Heymans et al., 2021). Similarly, axial conductance of roots can vary based on the
336 number and diameter of xylem vessels, independent of root diameter (Schoppach et al.,
337 2013). Additional factors, such as aquaporin (AQP) expression and axial flow limitations,
338 also significantly impact root water transport. In wheat, conductance reductions of up to 50%
339 in both individual roots and entire systems following AQP inhibition have been observed
340 (Bramley et al., 2009). Moreover, as the axial conductivity of xylem vessels can become
341 limiting with increasing length (Boursiac et al., 2022a; Bauget et al., 2023), a decrease in
342 whole root system conductance can occur without changes in root diameter. This decrease
343 would result from the presence of longer roots with conductive segments farther from the

344 base, connected by greater resistance due to increased xylem length. Clearly, there is a need
345 for complementing our findings with anatomical data for the same (or similar) cultivars that
346 the ones we used in our experiment, to better understand the mechanisms behind the decrease
347 in K_{rs} over 100 years of breeding.

348 **Conclusions and future perspectives**

349 Our study revealed that breeding has significantly reduced the whole root system hydraulic
350 conductance (K_{rs}) of wheat over time, as a result of both a decrease in root axes number and
351 of K_{rs} per unit root area (K_{rs_area}), suggesting that breeding has indirectly selected for root
352 systems which are less selfish and exhibit more conservative water uptake strategies. These
353 findings underscore the importance of applying methods that can simultaneously explore
354 changes in root morphological and hydraulic traits, such as we did with the combination of
355 root sampling and pressure chamber phenotyping. By developing a pipeline that integrated
356 the measurements with the whole-plant model CPlantBox, we could not only determine
357 differences among cultivars at the specific growth stage when the plants were sampled, but
358 also capture the dynamics of K_{rs} and root system development.

359 To our knowledge, this is the first time that the evolution of K_{rs} with breeding has been
360 investigated in wheat. Despite its large economic and agricultural importance, there is a
361 surprising scarcity of studies focused on K_{rs} in wheat (fewer than 10, see Fig. 4a and b), likely
362 due to the technical complexity of K_{rs} measurements in tillering grass species with fibrous
363 root systems. The phenotyping pipeline applied here could be replicated in future studies to
364 improve our knowledge of how breeding has affected root hydraulic properties under
365 different environmental stress conditions (e.g. drought, nutrient limitation, salt stress).
366 Moreover, this research framework could be applied not only to wheat but also to other
367 tillering grass species of economic importance such as barley or rice. Also, further
368 investigation into the effects of breeding on wheat root anatomy is essential to uncover the
369 mechanisms driving the evolution of root hydraulic traits presented here. In particular, a
370 promising area for future exploration involves breaking down whole root system conductance
371 into its axial and radial components, as has been done with *Arabidopsis* (Boursiac et al.,
372 2022a) and maize (Bauget et al., 2023). This would provide a clearer understanding of how
373 each component has been affected by breeding, allowing us to disentangle their contributions
374 to the long-term decrease in K_{rs} of wheat cultivars. Finally, the insights from our study could
375 serve as a foundation for future breeding efforts aimed at optimizing wheat root systems. By

376 focusing on root hydraulic traits, breeders may be able to develop cultivars with more
377 conservative water uptake strategies and enhanced adaptability to changing environmental
378 conditions. Incorporating root traits into breeding programs could help meet the challenges
379 posed by climate change, ensuring that wheat cultivars are better equipped to thrive under
380 increasing stress and locally changing environmental conditions.

381 **Materials and Methods**

382 **Field experiment description**

383 A rainfed field experiment with winter wheat (*Triticum aestivum L.*) was conducted during
384 two growing seasons between the years 2022-2024 at the research station Campus Klein-
385 Altendorf, near Bonn, Germany (50°37' N, 6°59' E). Campus Klein-Altendorf is located
386 within the temperate oceanic climate zone according to Peel et al. (2007). Long term weather
387 data for the years between 1956 and 2014 showed a yearly precipitation of 603 mm, a yearly
388 mean temperature of 9.4°C and a growing season between 165 and 170 days. Each
389 experiment comprised an entire growing season: October 25, 2022 – July 19, 2023, and
390 October 23, 2023 – July 31, 2024, respectively. During the experimental years, the yearly
391 mean temperature was 11.6 °C and the yearly precipitation sum was 602.5 mm (Figure 5).
392 The soil is characterized as a Haplic Luvisol, developed on loess, which is known to be very
393 homogenous (Table 3).

394 The experiment has been assembled as a complete randomized block design with six cultivars
395 and four field repetitions. Six German winter wheat cultivars, spanning a range of breeding
396 history of over 100 years, were selected. The grown cultivars, sorted by their release year
397 were: (1) S. Dickkopf – 1895, (2) SG v. Stocken – 1920, (3) Heines II – 1940, (4) Jubilar –
398 1961, (5) Okapi – 1978, (6) Tommi – 2002. Cultivars were chosen as they were common
399 varieties in Germany during their release time, released with a gap of approximately 20 years,
400 and were previously grown on the long-term fertilization experiment Dikopshof (Schellberg
401 and Hüging, 1997). All cultivars were sown with the target density of 320 plants m⁻². The
402 experimental field was managed conventionally with a mineral fertilizer application of 170
403 kg of N ha⁻¹ and year (60 kg before sampling) and herbicide application at early growth
404 stages before sampling. Yield features of the cultivars with regards to nutrient use efficiencies
405 were recently investigated by Ahrends *et al.* (2018), Rueda-Ayala *et al.* (2018) and
406 Hernández-Ochoa *et al.* (2023).

407 **Root sampling**

408 We used a slightly modified ‘shovelomics’ method for wheat (York, 2018) to phenotype
409 several root traits from the field experiment. During the end of the tillering phase (BBCH <
410 30), we excavated a representative area of the plots, with a diameter and depth of 20–30 cm
411 in the topsoil. Given the high planting density, each individual sample contained around 5–10
412 plants. The sample bags with entire excavated plants were transported to the laboratory and
413 stored at 5°C until root washing. In the laboratory, the samples were soaked in water and then
414 gently washed with a hose and nozzle to remove the soil, without damaging the roots. The
415 root crowns were then severed from the shoots close to the base (with ca. 3 cm of the tillers
416 attached) and then stored again at 5°C in a water (37.5%)-ethanol (37.5%)-glycol (25%)
417 solution. 3–4 plants per sample were preserved for further analysis.

418 Images of seminal and crown roots were taken for a total of 27–32 plants per cultivar (3–4
419 plants per plot and year). For each sample, the tillers were separated from the roots by cutting
420 directly above the mesocotyl and then manually counted. Subsequently, seminal and crown
421 roots were carefully separated and placed on root scanning trays filled with distilled water
422 and scanned at 600 dpi (Epson Expression 12000XL, Epson, Japan). The scanned images
423 were analyzed using SmartRoot (Lobet et al., 2011) to determine the following traits: number
424 of crown and seminal roots and total axes number; crown, seminal and lateral root diameter;
425 and inter-branching density of lateral roots on crown and seminal roots.

426 **Root hydraulic conductance measurements**

427 The same cultivars used in the field experiment were grown in the laboratory in a hydroponic
428 medium to perform root hydraulic conductance measurements. The growing protocol has
429 been described previously for maize plants (Bauget et al., 2023). In brief, seeds were surface
430 sterilized with 1.5% (v/v) bleach mixed with one drop ($\approx 50 \mu\text{L}$) of Tween-20 for 5 to 8 min
431 and then treated with 35% (v/v) H_2O_2 for 2 min, rinsed with 70% (v/v) ethanol, and washed
432 six times with sterilized water. Seeds were then germinated for 4 d in plastic boxes filled with
433 wet clay aggregates (Agrex 3-8, Agrex Co., Portugal) and covered with a transparent plastic
434 foil. The plastic boxes were placed in a growth chamber at 65% relative humidity, with 22
435 °C/20 °C and 16 h/8 h light/dark cycles ($250 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ photosynthetic photon flux
436 density). At 5 days after sowing (DAS), the plants were transferred to a hydroponic container
437 placed in the same growth chamber and filled with hydroponic solution with the following
438 composition: 1.25 mM KNO_3 , 0.1 mM CaCl_2 , 1.5 mM $\text{Ca}(\text{NO}_3)_2$, 0.5 mM KH_2PO_4 , 0.75 mM
439 MgSO_4 , 0.1 mM Na_2SiO_3 , 0.05 mM FeEDTA , 0.05 mM H_3BO_3 , 0.012 mM MnSO_4 , 0.001
440 mM ZnSO_4 , 0.0007 mM CuSO_4 , 0.00024 mM Na_2MoO_4 , 0.00001 mM CoCl_2 , and 1 mM

441 MES. Air was continuously injected into the containers with a bubbling system to ensure
442 adequate solution mixing and sufficient oxygen.

443 At 10–12 DAS root water transport was measured on de-topped plants using a set of pressure
444 chambers, as described in Boursiac et al. (2022a) for Arabidopsis, with slight modifications.
445 The entire root system, consisting of 3–6 seminal roots and their laterals, was excised directly
446 below the seed and carefully inserted into an adapter sealed with silicon (Coltene Whaledent,
447 France), threaded through the seal of the pressure chamber lid and placed in the pressure
448 chamber filled with nutrient solution. The adapter was connected to a high-accuracy
449 flowmeter (Bronkhorst, France) to record the sap flow (J_v , $\text{m}^3 \text{s}^{-1}$) from the root system. The
450 root system was subjected to various pressures (P, MPa) applied using nitrogen gas, and the
451 resulting sap flow was recorded. The measurement protocol included a pre-pressurization
452 phase of > 5 min at 0.32 MPa, to achieve stability in the system, followed by measurements
453 at pressures of 0.16, 0.24, 0.1, 0.32 and 0.24 MPa. The resulting slope of the $J_v(P)$ linear
454 relationship was used to deduce the whole root system conductance (K_{rs} , $\text{m}^3 \text{MPa}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$) of the
455 wheat cultivars. Measurements that did not show a linear $J_v(P)$ relationship were excluded
456 from the analysis. A total of 8–12 measurements were obtained per cultivar.

457 After the measurements, the roots were placed in a tray with distilled water and scanned at
458 600 dpi with a desktop scanner. The images were analyzed with SmartRoot to obtain the
459 diameter of seminal and lateral roots and the total length and surface area of the root system.
460 To account for size effects on possible K_{rs} variation among cultivars, K_{rs} was normalized by
461 either total root length (K_{rs_length} , $\text{m}^3 \text{MPa}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1} \text{m}^{-1}$) or root surface area (K_{rs_area} , $\text{m}^3 \text{MPa}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$).
462 Outliers were determined using the interquartile range ($1.5 \times \text{IQR}$) method and confirmed
463 with the Grubbs' test. Samples were identified as outliers when the values of K_{rs} , K_{rs_length} and
464 K_{rs_area} were outside the interquartile range.

465 **Modelling of K_{rs} development with age**

466 The pressure chamber measurements delivered accurate information on K_{rs} at a very young
467 plant age (10–12 d). However, K_{rs} is not a static value, as it shows a non-linear increase with
468 root system age (Baca Cabrera et al., 2024). Additionally, at measurement age the plants had
469 still not developed crown roots, which are major contributors to total water uptake in grasses
470 (Ahmed et al., 2018). To widen our analysis, we modelled the development of the root system
471 and K_{rs} with age, using the 3D whole-plant model CPlantBox (Giraud et al., 2023).
472 Simulations were performed for the oldest (S. Dickkopf) and the most modern (Tommi)

473 cultivars for 70 d, which corresponded to plant development until the end of the tillering
474 phase. CPlantBox simulates the development of the whole plant architecture, which is
475 represented as a series of segments corresponding to different plant organs (e.g. leaves, crown
476 and seminal roots, pseudo-stems). Plant development occurs via the elongation of previously
477 existing segments or the creation of new ones. Water flow from the soil-root interfaces to
478 xylem vessels at the plant collar and K_{rs} are dynamically simulated at each time step using the
479 analytical solution of water flow within infinitesimal subsegments (Meunier et al., 2017), as
480 implemented in CPlantBox (Giraud et al., 2023; Bauer et al., 2024).

481 For the parametrization of the whole-plant architecture in CPlantBox, we used an existing
482 XML-input parameter file for wheat (Giraud et al., 2023) and modified it based on the root
483 sampling data (Table S2). Segment-scale root hydraulic properties (radial conductivity k_r and
484 axial conductance k_x) needed for the simulation of K_{rs} were parametrized according to the
485 pressure chamber measurements and published data for wheat, extracted from a root
486 hydraulic properties database (Baca Cabrera et al., 2024) (Table S2). The age dependency of
487 k_r and k_x was modelled using linear piecewise functions, analogously to (Meunier et al.,
488 2018) for maize. Parameterization uncertainty was addressed through a sensitivity analysis,
489 as in Baca Cabrera et al. (2024).

490 **Statistical analysis**

491 All statistical analyses were conducted in R v.4.4.1 (R Core Team, 2024). Linear mixed
492 models were performed to test the effect of breeding (expressed as year of cultivar release) on
493 the following traits obtained from root sampling: number of seminal and crown roots, total
494 number of axes (i.e. the sum of seminal and crown roots), average diameters and branching
495 density. As the field experiment was repeated in two consecutive growing seasons, the
496 experimental year was included as the random factor in the models. For the K_{rs}
497 measurements, the effect of breeding was tested using ordinary least-squares linear
498 regressions. Additionally, differences among cultivars (defined as categorical variables) were
499 tested applying ANOVA and Tukey post-hoc. In all cases, we used plant averages for the
500 statistical analyses ($n = 27-30$ for shovelomics traits and $n = 8-12$ for K_{rs} measurements).
501 The R packages nlme (Pinheiro et al., 2023) and ggplot2 (Wickham, 2016) were used for
502 fitting linear mixed models and data plotting, respectively.

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514 **Author contributions**

515 J.C.B.C., D.B., T.G., G.L., and J.V. designed the research; J.C.B.C. and Y.B. performed the
516 hydroponics experiment; D.B. performed the field experiment, with the assistance of T.H.N.;
517 D.B. provided the seed material; Y.B. provided the resources for the hydroponics experiment;
518 J.C.B.C. analyzed the data, performed the modelling and wrote the manuscript. All authors
519 contributed to the revision of the manuscript

520 **Conflict of interest statement**

521 The authors declare no conflict of interest
522

523 **Data availability**

524 Data supporting the findings of this study are available within the paper, within its
525 Supplementary data or on request.

526 **Tables**

527 **Table 1.** Root morphological and hydraulic traits for six different cultivars of winter wheat
 528 (*T. aestivum*). Plants were grown in the field in dense canopies (a) or as individual plants in
 529 hydroponic medium in the laboratory (b). Root traits of field-grown plants were determined
 530 during the tillering phase using shovelomics ($n = 27-32$). Root hydraulic traits were
 531 measured with a pressure chamber in 10–12 day-old plants ($n = 8-12$) in the lab. Values
 532 correspond to the mean \pm SE.

Parameter	Cultivar name (year of release)					
	S. Dickkopf (1895)	SG v. Stocken (1920)	Heines IV (1940)	Jubilar (1961)	Okapi (1978)	Tommi (2002)
(a) crown root diameter (mm)	0.62 \pm 0.009	0.58 \pm 0.008	0.61 \pm 0.009	0.61 \pm 0.007	0.63 \pm 0.011	0.6 \pm 0.01
seminal root diameter (mm)	0.28 \pm 0.009	0.28 \pm 0.008	0.29 \pm 0.009	0.27 \pm 0.005	0.3 \pm 0.009	0.27 \pm 0.007
lateral root diameter (mm)	0.18 \pm 0.001	0.18 \pm 0.002	0.18 \pm 0.002	0.17 \pm 0.002	0.18 \pm 0.002	0.17 \pm 0.002
crown root number	15.8 \pm 0.9	12.8 \pm 0.7	13.1 \pm 0.6	13.0 \pm 0.7	12.6 \pm 0.6	12.3 \pm 0.6
seminal root number	7.8 \pm 0.5	6.2 \pm 0.3	5.6 \pm 0.2	5.1 \pm 0.2	6.2 \pm 0.3	5.4 \pm 0.3
tiller number	6.6 \pm 0.2	4.8 \pm 0.1	4.2 \pm 0.1	5.6 \pm 0.2	4.9 \pm 0.2	4.1 \pm 0.2
branching density (cm ⁻¹)	1.1 \pm 0.05	1.16 \pm 0.15	1.1 \pm 0.05	0.98 \pm 0.06	0.91 \pm 0.04	1.12 \pm 0.07
(b) root surface area (cm ²)	7.8 \pm 0.5	7.6 \pm 0.9	7.4 \pm 0.5	7.4 \pm 0.9	7.8 \pm 0.6	6.4 \pm 0.6
total root length (cm)	71.5 \pm 4.7	69.2 \pm 9.1	69.5 \pm 6.2	66.4 \pm 8.3	70.4 \pm 6.0	57.9 \pm 6.1
K_{rs} (m ³ MPa ⁻¹ s ⁻¹ $\times 10^{-10}$)	1.3 \pm 0.2	1.1 \pm 0.2	1.3 \pm 0.2	1.2 \pm 0.2	0.9 \pm 0.1	0.7 \pm 0.1
K_{rs_area} (m MPa ⁻¹ s ⁻¹ \times 10^{-7})	1.7 \pm 0.2	1.5 \pm 0.2	1.7 \pm 0.2	1.6 \pm 0.1	1.2 \pm 0.1	1.1 \pm 0.1
K_{rs_length} (m ³ MPa ⁻¹ s ⁻¹ m ⁻¹ $\times 10^{-10}$)	1.9 \pm 0.2	1.6 \pm 0.1	1.8 \pm 0.3	1.8 \pm 0.1	1.3 \pm 0.2	1.2 \pm 0.1

533

534 **Table 2.** Effect significance (p -value) and regression slope of the relationship between year of
 535 cultivar release and root morphological and hydraulic traits of winter wheat (*T. aestivum*).
 536 Significant effects are given in bold type. The % change in 100 years was calculated using the
 537 regression slope and the oldest cultivar (S. Dickkopf – 1895) as the reference.

Parameter	Effect of year of release			
	regression slope year ⁻¹ ± SE	% change in 100 years	p -value	n
crown root diameter (mm)	0.00003 ± 0.0001	+0.5%	0.75	27 – 32
seminal root diameter (mm)	-0.00003 ± 0.0001	-1.1%	0.74	26 – 32
lateral root diameter (mm)	-0.00007 ± 0.00002	-3.9%	< 0.05	26 – 32
crown root number	-0.027 ± 0.007	-17.1%	< 0.001	27 – 32
seminal root number	-0.018 ± 0.004	-23.1%	< 0.001	26 – 32
tiller number	-0.015 ± 0.003	-22.7%	< 0.001	26 – 32
branching density (cm ⁻¹)	-0.001 ± 0.001	-9.1%	0.26	26 – 32
root surface area (cm ²)	-0.0097 ± 0.0077	-12.4%	0.21	8 – 12
total root length (cm)	-0.098 ± 0.077	-13.7%	0.21	8 – 12
K_{rs} (m ³ MPa ⁻¹ s ⁻¹ × 10 ⁻¹⁰)	-0.006 ± 0.002	-46.2%	< 0.01	8 – 12
K_{rs_area} (m MPa ⁻¹ s ⁻¹ × 10 ⁻⁷)	-0.006 ± 0.002	-35.3%	< 0.01	8 – 12
K_{rs_length} (m ³ MPa ⁻¹ s ⁻¹ m ⁻¹ × 10 ⁻¹⁰)	-0.006 ± 0.002	-31.6%	< 0.01	8 – 12

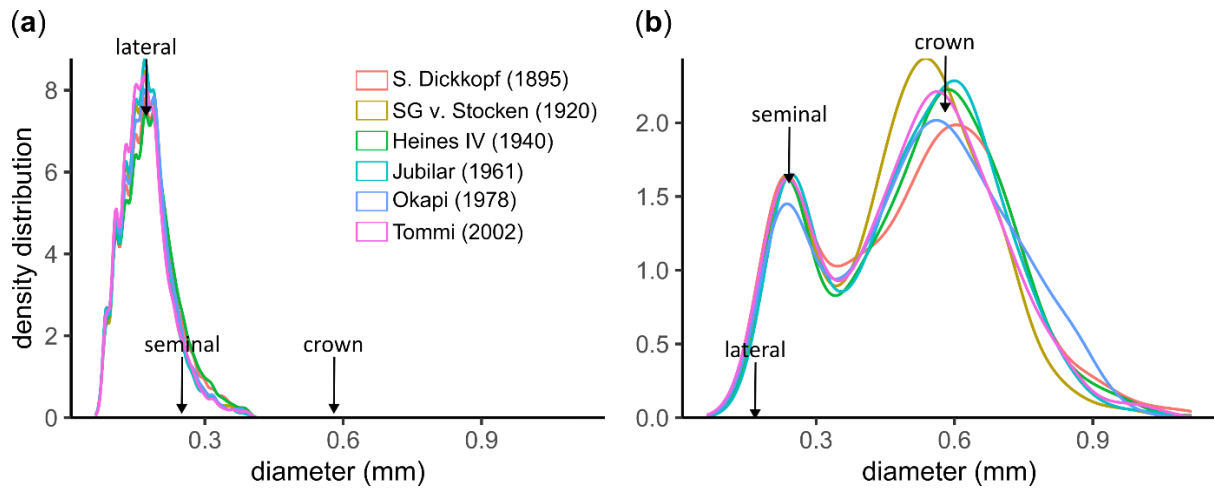
538

539 **Table 3.** Soil characteristics of a Haplic Luvisol from Campus Klein-Altendorf, Germany.
540 Values are means of four soil profiles (a more detailed description can be found at Vetterlein
541 *et al.* (2013)).

Depth	Silt (%)	Sand (%)	Clay (%)	Texture	pH	Bulk density (g cm ⁻¹)	C _{org} (%)
0-15 cm	75.8	7.2	17.8	SiL	5.93	1.42	0.92
15-45 cm	70.3	5.1	25	SiL	6.03	1.57	0.48
45-60 cm	64.3	4.4	31.5	SiCL	5.63	1.55	0.56
60-75 cm	63.8	4.5	31.8	SiCL	5.88	1.59	0.43
75-90 cm	66.3	3.9	29.8	SiCL	6.35	1.58	0.48

542

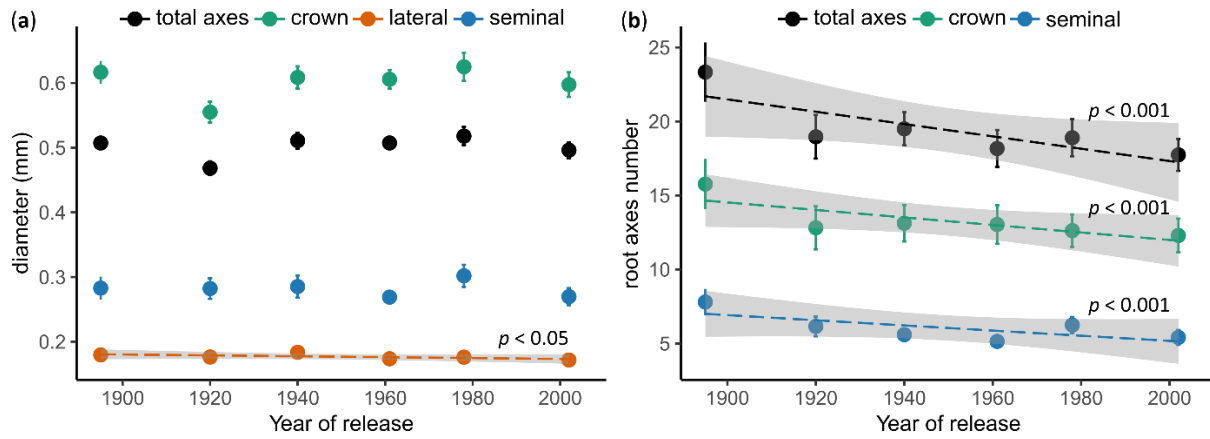
543 **Figures**



544

545 **Figure 1.** Root diameter density distribution for six different cultivars of winter wheat (*T.*
546 *aestivum*). Data corresponds to lateral (a) and axile (b) roots obtained from the field with the
547 shovelomics technique, for two experimental years ($n = 27-32$). Density plots of lateral and
548 axile roots were separated for visualization purposes. The arrows are a reference of the
549 median value, for the different root types.

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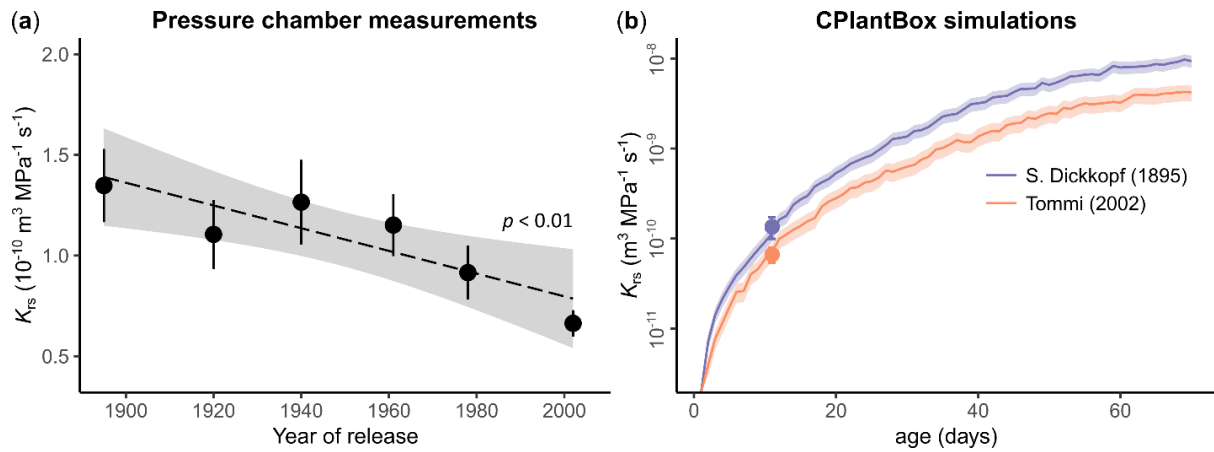


551

552 **Figure 2.** Relationships between year of cultivar release and root diameter classes (a) and
553 number of root axes (b) in winter wheat plants (*T. aestivum*) grown in the field. Data points
554 and error bars represent the mean \pm SE, of two years ($n = 27-32$). The dashed lines and the
555 shaded areas represent the regression line \pm CI95% (only shown if significant, $p < 0.05$)

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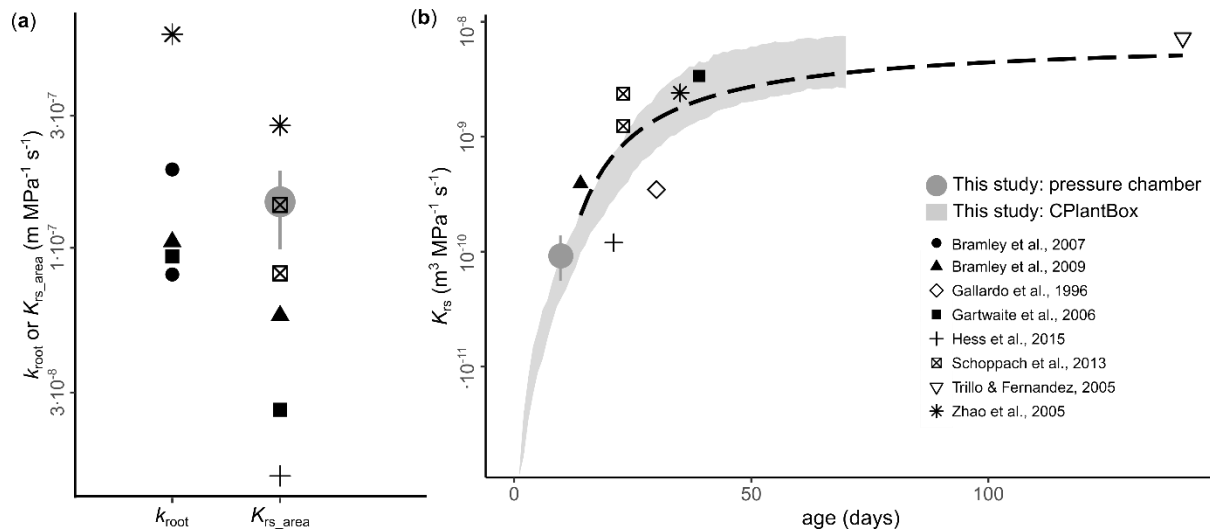


558

559 **Figure 3.** Relationships between year of cultivar release and measured whole root system
560 conductance (K_{rs}) (a) and between plant age and simulated K_{rs} (b) for different cultivars of
561 winter wheat (*T. aestivum*). Data points and error bars correspond to pressure chamber
562 measurements in 10–12 day-old plants and represent the mean \pm SE ($n = 8–12$). The dashed
563 line and the shaded area in (a) represent the regression line \pm CI95%. The lines and the
564 shaded area in (b) correspond to K_{rs} simulations (mean \pm SE), using the whole-plant model
565 CPlantBox. Notice the log-scale in plot (b).

566

567

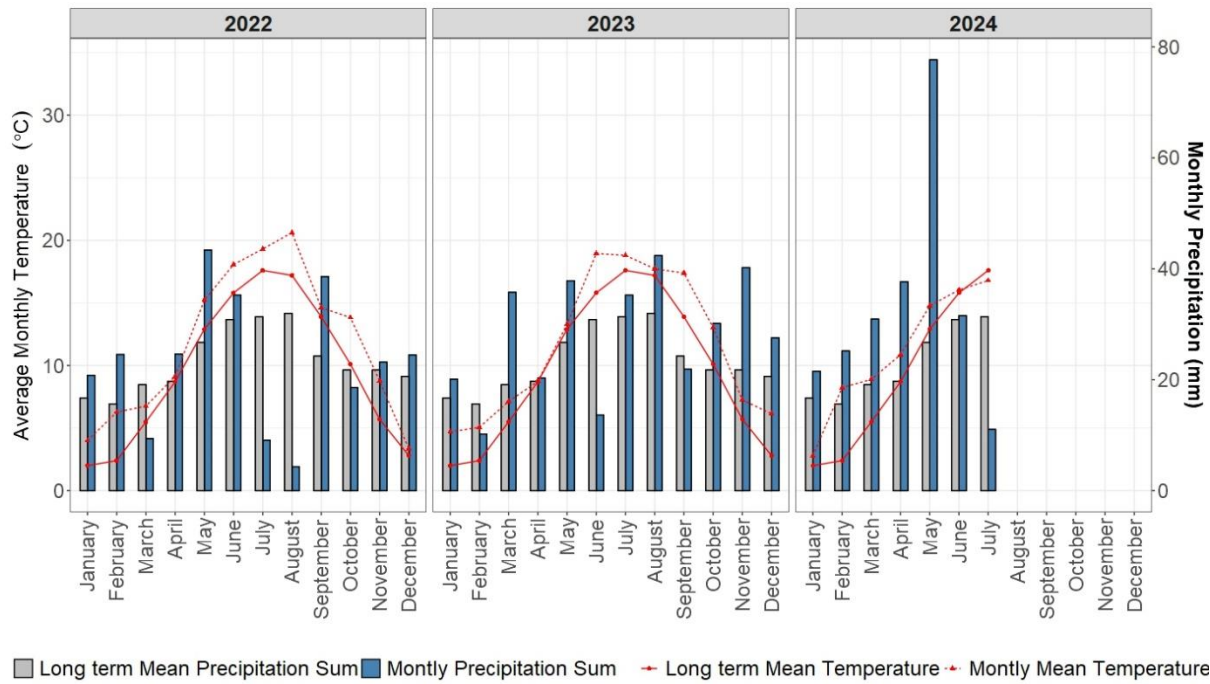


568

569 **Figure 4.** Comparison between root hydraulic properties of wheat (*T. aestivum*) obtained
 570 from the literature and this study for: (a) area-normalized conductance of individual roots
 571 (k_{root}) or whole root systems (K_{rs_area}); and (b) whole root system conductance (K_{rs})
 572 development with age. Black symbols represent literature values measured using a
 573 hydrostatic driving force under non-stress conditions (data extracted from a root hydraulic
 574 properties database, Baca Cabrera et al., 2024). The gray filled circles in (a) and (b) represent
 575 the mean and range of variation of pressure chamber measurements across six cultivars in this
 576 study. The gray shadowed area in (b) represents modelled K_{rs} with CPlantBox and its range
 577 of variation, as presented in Fig. 3. The dashed black line in (b) represents a fitted
 578 exponential model for the literature data.

579

580



581 Long term Mean Precipitation Sum Monthly Precipitation Sum Long term Mean Temperature Monthly Mean Temperature

582 **Figure 5.** Monthly average temperature and monthly total precipitation profiles at Campus
583 Klein-Altendorf, Germany. The blue bars and the dashed red line represent the measured
584 values during the years 2022, 2023 and 2024. For comparison, the long-term means (gray
585 bars and continuous red line) are also presented.

586

587 **Supplementary data**

588

589 **Supplementary Table S1.** *p*-values of Tukey post-hoc comparisons between cultivars, for
590 different parameters

591 **Supplementary Table S2.** List of modified input parameters for K_{rs} simulation with
592 CPlantBox

593 **Supplementary Figure S1.** Relationship between tiller number and crown root number,
594 across cultivars

595 **Supplementary Figure S2.** Relationship between year of cultivar release and normalized
596 whole root system conductance

597 **Supplementary Figure S3.** Relationship between plant age and whole root system
598 conductance, and root system length

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