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1 **Plant exudates improve the mechanical conditions for root penetration**
2 **through compacted soils**

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26 **Abstract**

27 *Background and Aim*

28 Plant exudates greatly affect the physical behaviour of soil, but measurements of the impact
29 of exudates on compression characteristics are missing. Our aim is to provide these data and
30 explore how plant exudates may enhance the restructuring of compacted soils following
31 cycles of wetting and drying.

32 *Methods*

33 Two soils were amended with Chia (*Salvia hispanica*) seed exudate at 5 concentrations,
34 compacted in cores to 200 kPa stress (equivalent to tractor stress), equilibrated to -50 kPa
35 matric potential, and then compacted to 600 kPa (equivalent to axial root stress) followed by
36 3 cycles of wetting and drying and recompression to 600 kPa at -50 kPa matric potential.
37 Penetration resistance (PR), compression index (C_C) and pore characteristics were measured
38 at various steps.

39 *Results*

40 PR decreased and C_C increased with increasing exudate concentration. At 600 kPa
41 compression, 1.85 mg exudate g^{-1} soil increased C_C from 0.37 to 0.43 for sandy loam soil and
42 from 0.50 to 0.54 for clay loam soil. After 3 wetting-drying cycles the clay loam was more
43 resilient than the sandy loam soil, with resilience increasing with greater exudate
44 concentration. Root growth modelled on PR data suggested plant exudates significantly eased
45 root elongation in soil.

46 *Conclusion*

47 Plant exudates improve compression characteristics of soils, easing penetration and
48 enhancing recovery of root induced soil compaction.

49

50 **Key words:** Plant exudates, void ratio, cone penetration resistance, compression index, root
51 growth modelling

52

53 **Introduction**

54 Plant roots penetrate and alter the structure of compacted soils through the combined actions
55 of exerting large radial and axial mechanical stresses, enhanced wetting and drying driven by
56 evapotranspiration, as well as the release and secondary microbial decomposition of exudates
57 (Watt et al., 2006; Hinsinger et al., 2009; Bengough et al., 2011; Gregory *et al.*, 2013). They
58 are so effective at improving soil physical conditions that biological tillage through the action
59 of plant roots is a growing practice that is advocated in sustainable crop rotations. At the
60 root-soil interface, the release of exudates by plant roots into the rhizosphere provides a
61 major food source for microorganisms (Jones et al., 2004), induces a physico-chemical
62 release of nutrients for plant uptake (Malamy, 2005; Marco et al., 2015), and alters soil water
63 retention and flow (Moradi et al. 2012; Zarebanadkouki and Carminati, 2014). Whereas a
64 large number of studies have explored biological and chemical properties of the rhizosphere,
65 most physical investigations are limited to measures of soil stability or pore structure
66 visualisation, as it is difficult to perform measurements at such a small scale (Peng et al.,
67 2011; Czarnes et al., 2000; Morel et al., 1991).

68 A number of studies have adopted an approach of upscaling rhizosphere conditions by
69 mixing plant exudate compounds with soil to form repacked samples that are large enough
70 for measurements (Czarnes et al., 2000; Peng et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2008). These have
71 found a large impact of plant exudates on soil physical behaviour, which varies between plant
72 species, seeds and roots. Naveed et al. (2017b) mixed a range of natural plant exudates with
73 soil and found that exudates from chia seed and maize roots acted as a gel in soil that holds
74 more water, whereas barley root exudates acted as a surfactant in soil that holds less water at

75 a certain matric potential. Exudates are often more viscous and have a lower surface tension
76 than water (Read and Gregory, 1997). This will have a large impact on the capacity of plants
77 to capture water from soils. This was demonstrated by Carminati and Vetterlein (2013) and
78 Carminati et al. (2010) who found that hydraulic conductivity and water uptake were
79 enhanced by exudates after multiple cycles of wetting and drying. One driver is enhanced
80 pore structure, which Reszkowska et al. (2011) found helped to recover hydraulic
81 conductivity of rhizosphere soil in a degraded pasture field under wet conditions. Exudates
82 can therefore decrease plant water stress by regulating water content dynamics and aiding
83 capture of water in the rhizosphere (Kroener et al., 2014 and Ahmed et al., 2014).

84 Most of the studies mentioned above used model root exudates because real root
85 exudates are difficult to extract and preserve in sufficient quantities. The exudates have taken
86 various forms, such as mucilages extracted from the seed coatings of *Salvia sp.* (Chia)
87 (Kroener et al., 2014) or *Capsella sp.* (Deng et al., 2015). Major chemical components of root
88 exudates, such as polygalacturonic acid (Czarnes et al., 2000), or biological exudates like
89 xanthan produced by bacteria or scleroglucan produced by fungi, have also been used (Peng
90 et al., 2011; Carminati and Vetterlein, 2013; Carminati et al., 2010).

91 Physically, plant root growth induces pressure on soil particles (Misra et al; 1986).
92 This pressure is compensated for by a loss in porosity resulting from a mechanical
93 compressed zone of soil in the rhizosphere (Dexter, 1987; Mooney et al. 2012). Plant root
94 exudates influence root growth pressure and the porosity of the surrounding soil. Bengough
95 and McKenzie (1997) described root exudates as a lubricant that decreases resistance arising
96 from frictional contact between root surfaces and soil particles. Although many studies have
97 examined the influence of plant root exudates on soil physical formation, there is a lack of
98 information on how exudates impact compression characteristics of soil, which has a direct
99 impact on root elongation and rhizosphere formation in soil. A large challenge in this

100 research is that the rhizosphere is physically small, so conventional soil compression tests are
101 not feasible. To overcome this challenge we mixed soils of different texture with a range of
102 concentrations of seed exudate from *Salvia hispanica*. Harvesting root exudates for such an
103 experiment would be unfeasible due to the volumes required to form samples of adequate
104 size. The soils were imparted with stresses to simulate vehicle compaction (200 kPa load), a
105 growing plant root (600 kPa load) and recovery following cycles of wetting and drying. At
106 each step of the experiment, porosity, water retention, penetration resistance and compression
107 characteristics were quantified. All of these properties are known to influence hydrological
108 and mechanical conditions for root growth and function. We hypothesised that plant exudates
109 ease deformation by compression of soil, thereby creating a favourable condition for root
110 growth where less energy needs to be exerted and stronger soils can be penetrated. With
111 cycles of wetting and drying, we hypothesised that plant exudates would ease the impact of
112 root induced soil compaction, thereby making the root-soil interface more resilient to this
113 stress..

114

115 **Materials and methods**

116 *Extraction of chia (Salvia hispanica) seed exudate*

117 Chia seed exudate has been widely used in other studies as a model root exudate (Ahmed et
118 al., 2014; Kroener et al., 2014). It was extracted based on Naveed et al. (2017b) and Ahmed
119 et al. (2014) by mixing 100 g distilled water with 10 g chia seeds using a magnetic stirrer for
120 2 min at 50°C, followed by cooling to room temperature (20°C) and four hours standing. The
121 exudate was separated from the seeds by repeatedly pushing the mixture through a 500 µm
122 sieve under pressure using a syringe that was cut at the end. This approach harvested the
123 easily extracted seed exudate, with tightly bound exudate remaining on the seeds even after 5
124 repeated extraction attempts. Of $0.13 \pm 0.03 \text{ g g}^{-1}$ (mean \pm standard error) total exudate on

125 seeds, only $0.10 \pm 0.02 \text{ g g}^{-1}$ of seed exudate was harvested, so the extraction efficiency was
126 $77 \pm 5 \%$. The exudates were freeze-dried so that the dry weight of extracted chia seed
127 exudate was 9.2 mg g^{-1} of the original exudate.

128 *Soil sampling, preparation of soil cores and mechanical measurements*

129 Sandy loam and clay loam soils were sampled from the Ap horizon at the top 20 cm of
130 Bullion field located at the James Hutton Institute, Dundee, UK), $56.27\text{N } 3.40\text{W}$. The sandy
131 loam soil is a Dystric Cambisol in arable production planted with barley, cultivated by
132 ploughing to 20 cm depth. The clay loam soil is a Gleyic Cambisol, planted with deciduous
133 trees, and was not mechanically cultivated. After sampling, bulk soils were air-dried, passed
134 through a 2mm sieve and stored in plastic bags at $4 \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ before packing in soil cores. Both of
135 the soils were treated with 0, 0.02, 0.2, 0.92 and 1.85 mg g^{-1} concentrations of chia seed
136 exudates, wetting the soils to 0.20 g g^{-1} gravimetric water content. These treated soils were
137 stored in sealed plastic bags at 4°C for 15 days to allow equilibration of samples with
138 minimal microbial decomposition.

139 The flow chart of the experimental programme is shown in Figure 1. There were three
140 different steps in forming and conditioning the soil samples: (i) 200 kPa loading, (ii) 600 kPa
141 loading and (iii) 600 kPa loading with wetting and drying.

142 **Figure 1**

143 Forty grams of treated soils at 0.20 g g^{-1} gravimetric water content were packed in 0.5 cm
144 layers into plastic cores ($H = 2 \text{ cm}$, $D = 5 \text{ cm}$) with a compression plate to a stress of 2.5 kPa.
145 This produced samples with an initial bulk density of 1.0 g cm^{-3} and produced a flat upper
146 surface to provide accurate displacement measurements during compression testing. Five
147 replicates of each treatment were formed. Soil cores were then equilibrated to -50 kPa water
148 potential and conditioned to simulate vehicle compaction by compressing to 200 kPa with a
149 mechanical test frame (Zwick All Round Z5, Zwick-Roell, Ulm, Germany) fitted with a 5 kN

150 load cell. It took 5 minutes to reach 200 kPa. Data on applied stress and displacement were
151 captured to evaluate compression characteristics. After that, soil cores were saturated for 12
152 hours and dried until water loss ceased (2-3 days) to -50 kPa matric potential using a tension
153 table (EcoTech MeBaystem GmbH, Germany) at 4°C to minimise microbial decomposition.
154 Cone penetration tests and confined compression tests were then performed. Penetration
155 resistance (PR) was measured using a 1 mm diameter, 30° full opening angle miniature
156 penetrometer tip attached to a 5 kN load cell using the mechanical test frame described
157 previously. The cone was inserted to a depth of 4 mm at a speed of 2 mm/min. One cone
158 penetration test was carried out per soil core to minimise damage before confined
159 compression tests. Confined compression tests to 600 kPa were performed on the same soil
160 cores to exert a similar stress to a growing root (Misra et al., 1986). The loading rate to
161 simulate root growth through soil took 20 minutes to reach 600 kPa. Mean values of the
162 maximum axial root growth pressure estimated from the maximum axial root growth force
163 and root diameter are 497, 289, and 238 kPa respectively for pea, cotton and sunflower
164 seedlings (Misra et al., 1986). After this, these compressed soil cores were equilibrated to -50
165 kPa matric potential on a tension table at 4 °C. Three cycles of wetting and drying
166 from saturation to -50 kPa matric potential were then imposed to simulate natural weathering,
167 followed by compression again at 600 kPa and -50 kPa matric potential.

168 *Analysis of data*

169 PR data were expressed as cone penetration resistance (MPa). The confined compression
170 tests data were plotted as Log_{10} stress (kPa) as a function of void ratio ($\text{cm}^3 \text{cm}^{-3}$) and a virgin
171 compression curve was obtained. The slope of the virgin compression curve is commonly
172 called the compression index (C_c), which was calculated as shown in Figure 2. In addition to
173 this, three other parameters i.e. void ratio (total porosity to the volume of soil solids), air ratio

174 (air-filled porosity to the volume of soil solids) and water ratio (volumetric water content to
175 the volume of soil solids) were calculated from soil core weights and volumes.

176 Root growth for maize at -50 kPa matric potential was modelled based on PR data using
177 Dexter's (1987) model given as Eq. 1.

$$178 \quad \frac{R}{R_{\max}} = -\frac{\psi_0}{\psi_w} + e^{-0.6931\left(\frac{Q_P}{Q_{1/2}}\right)} \quad (1)$$

179 where R is rate of root elongation (mm day^{-1}), R_{\max} maximum rate of maize root elongation of
180 26 mm day^{-1} (Mirreh and Ketcheson, 1973), ψ_0 is water potential in MPa, ψ_w is the wilting
181 point water potential i.e. -1.5 MPa, Q_P is the cone penetration in MPa and $Q_{1/2}$ is the cone
182 penetration resistance that reduces relative root elongation rate to one-half (taken as 1.3 MPa
183 for maize).

184

185 **Figure 2**

186 *Statistical analysis*

187 The experiment was setup as a Completely Randomised Design (CRD) with 5 levels of added
188 exudates, 2 soil textures and 5 replicates. Exponential, log or linear models were selected to
189 fit the measured data based on their fitting efficiency i.e. random distribution of model
190 residuals as a function of dependent variable and higher R^2 value. The significant difference
191 between individual exudate treatments was tested using one way analysis of variance
192 (ANOVA). To test the effect of exudate concentration and loading conditions as a whole on
193 compression index, cone penetration resistance and root elongation rate, analysis of
194 covariance (ANCOVA) was carried out using SigmaPlot 13. In ANCOVA, compression
195 index, cone penetration resistance and root elongation rate as response variables, exudate
196 concentration as covariates and different loading conditions as factors were used. Bonferroni
197 t-test was used for all pairwise comparisons at $P < 0.05$. A summary of ANCOVA for
198 exudate concentration and loading condition was provided.

199 **Results**

200 *Exudate and soil properties*

201 The chia seed exudate consisted of 40.7 g 100g⁻¹ carbon, 1.1 g 100g⁻¹ nitrogen and the carbon
202 nitrogen ratio was 37. It had a pH-H₂O of 6.9 at 9.2 mg g⁻¹ concentration. The physical
203 properties of the studied soils are shown in Table 1. The soil texture was sandy loam for the
204 soil sampled from south Bullion and clay loam for the soil sampled from north Bullion. Total
205 carbon content for the sandy loam soil was 2.25 g 100g⁻¹ and for clay loam soil was 2.95 g
206 100g⁻¹. The soil pH_CaCl₂ at 1:5 soil to water was 5.48 for sandy loam soil and 5.15 for the
207 clay loam soil.

208 **Table 1**

209 *Plant exudate impact on soil compression characteristics*

210 The compression index (C_C) measures soil mechanical resistance to compression, with larger
211 values indicating less resistance of soil to compression. C_C for 600 kPa compression
212 increased by 17% for the sandy loam soil and 9% for the clay loam soil between 0 and 1.85
213 mg g⁻¹ exudate amendment (Fig. 3). Three cycles of wetting and drying, followed by
214 recompression to 600 kPa had contrasting effects on C_C between soils. Both soils followed
215 the same trend with increasing exudate concentration as observed for the soils before wetting
216 and drying, but C_C had an overall drop of 5% for the sandy loam soil and increased by 7% for
217 the clay loam soil (P<0.001).

218 **Figure 3**

219 *Pore characteristics*

220 After 200 kPa compression, there was no relationship between exudate concentration and
221 void ratio for either soil (Fig. 3), although for the clay loam soil there was an increase in void
222 ratio for any of the exudate amendment levels compared to the control (P<0.05). Further
223 compression to 600 kPa stress resulted in a drop in void ratio of at least 0.30 m³ m⁻³ for the

224 sandy loam soil and $0.50 \text{ m}^3 \text{ m}^{-3}$ for the clay loam soil, with both soils rebounding in void
225 ratio by about $0.05 \text{ m}^3 \text{ m}^{-3}$ after the compression stress was removed. Under 600 kPa
226 compression and rebound, any exudate amendment level had greater void ratio than the
227 control ($P < 0.05$) for both soils, with a significant relationship between exudate concentration
228 and void ratio found only for the sandy loam soil (Fig. 4).

229 There was a marked recovery in void ratio of the 600 kPa compressed soils after 3
230 wetting-drying cycles, but no influence of exudate amendment apart from greater recovery of
231 the 0 mg g^{-1} exudate control for the sandy loam soil (Fig. 4). ANCOVA analysis found
232 recovery was close to the initial conditions before the 600 kPa stress had been applied
233 ($P > 0.05$). Moreover, re-compression characteristics were also similar to the initial 600 kPa
234 loading, with exudate concentration having a positive correlation with void ratio under
235 loading and unloading conditions only for the sandy loam soil.

236 **Figure 4**

237 Void ratio consists of a water and air phase, which are expressed as air and water
238 ratios in Figures 5 and 6, respectively. The data illustrate the expected trend of increasing air
239 ratio with decreasing water ratio, and vice versa. In the sandy loam soil, there was no effect
240 of exudate concentration on either air or water ratio after 200 kPa compression, but following
241 600 kPa compression and 3 cycles of wetting and drying, increasing exudate concentration
242 decreased air ratio and increased water ratio. The sandy loam samples after 600 kPa
243 compression and 3 cycles of wetting and drying had more air and less water, which was the
244 opposite of the clay loam soil and verified with ANCOVA analysis ($P < 0.05$). The only
245 relationship found for the clay loam soil was increasing air ratio with increasing exudate
246 concentration. There were minimal, but statistically significant differences between pairs of
247 exudate concentrations, but the trends were erratic for the other measurements.

248 **Figure 5**

249

Figure 6

250 *Penetration Resistance and Modelled Root Growth*

251 The two different stages of PR measurements illustrated in Figure 7 are for conditions
252 immediately after compression by a 200 kPa stress to simulate vehicle traffic, and after 600
253 kPa with three cycles of gentle wetting and drying, to simulate a compressed region of soil
254 around a root after weathering. For 200 kPa compression, increasing the amount of exudate
255 from 0 to 1.85 mg g⁻¹ decreased PR by 77% for the sandy loam soil and 36% for the clay
256 loam soil, demonstrating that exudates ease penetration into compacted soils. In the simulated
257 root zone, with 600 kPa stress and 3 cycles of wetting and drying, the same exudate
258 amendment had less of an effect on the sandy loam soil, with only a 10% decrease, whereas it
259 was 32% for the clay loam soil. ANCOVA showed that PR between the 200 kPa and 600 kPa
260 with wetting and drying treatments increased for the sandy loam soil and decreased for the
261 clay loam soil (P<0.001).

262

Figure 7

263 Based on Dexter's (1987) root growth model, which uses penetration resistance to describe
264 the mechanical condition of the soil, we calculated that the root elongation rate (mm day⁻¹)
265 increased markedly with increasing exudate concentration (Fig. 8). For the sandy loam soil,
266 the increase was over 30%, but subsequent cycles of wetting and drying diminished the
267 positive impact of the exudates. Root elongation rate in the clay loam only increased by about
268 5%, with cycles of wetting and drying causing a further increase.

269

Figure 8

270 **Discussion**

271 Plant exudates obtained from *Salvia hispanica* seed coatings were found to greatly improve
272 mechanical conditions for root growth, quantified from compression characteristics and
273 penetration resistance. The decrease in penetration resistance of both sandy loam and clay

274 loam soils with increasing exudate concentration (Fig. 7) demonstrates that exudates decrease
275 soil resistance to local deformation. Similarly, an increase in compression index for both
276 sandy loam and clay loam soils with increasing exudate concentration (Fig. 3) means the
277 exudate used eased soil compression. We have not found any study in the literature reporting
278 compressibility of soil treated with plant exudates. There are several studies reporting the
279 impact of organic matter on soil compressibility that are useful to interpreting our results.
280 Ekwue et al., (2014) reported a considerable decrease in shear strength and cone penetration
281 resistance for loam and clay soils with increasing organic matter contents. Stock et al. (2008)
282 found a decrease in cone penetration resistance with increasing soil organic matter and water
283 content of a glacial till. Similarly Zhang et al., (2005) measured increased soil compressibility
284 with added particulate organic matter amendment, which is consistent with our hypothesis.

285

286 In addition to easing mechanical conditions for root growth, exudates also enhanced
287 the resilience of soil to a 600 kPa compression used to simulate axial root growth stresses.
288 After 3 cycles of wetting and drying, increasing exudate concentration decreased the
289 penetration resistance and increased the compression index (Figs 7 & 3). For a growing root
290 that is transpiring water from soil, this improved resilience in the presence of exudates
291 indicates potential structural re-arrangement of rhizosphere soil over time, creating better
292 physical conditions for root elongation. Field based evidence of the capacity of plant roots to
293 enhance mechanical resilience of soil was provided by Gregory *et al.* (2007), who found
294 penetration resistance of a compacted soil to decrease far more in the presence of roots than
295 in fallow soil in a sandy loam soil. The capacity of plant roots to restructure compacted soils
296 is well reported (Uteau *et al.*, 2013; Bodner *et al.*, 2014), driven by a combination of roots
297 fracturing soil, enhancing cycles of wetting and drying, producing biopores and secreting
298 exudates (Gregory *et al.*, 2013; Materechera *et al.*, 1992).

299 The possible mechanisms driving the changes in compression behaviour of soil as a
300 result of exudation could be the amount of water retained by the exudates (Carminati *et al.*,
301 2011) and hence effective stress, a lubricating effect of exudates that may decrease
302 interparticle friction (Bengough *et al.*, 2011) and the role of exudates in the dispersion,
303 aggregation and hence pore structure development of soil (Deng *et al.*, 2013). A more porous
304 soil would be expected to be more compressible, but pore structure interactions with soil
305 mechanical behaviour were not found for the sandy loam soil that we studied. After 600 kPa
306 stress, none of void ratio, air ratio or water ratio for the sandy loam soil were correlated with
307 penetration resistance or compression index. However, the clay loam soil after 600 kPa stress
308 had a positive correlation between void ratio and compression index, and a negative
309 correlation between void ratio penetration resistance. In this soil a more open pore structure
310 therefore had the expected impact of decreased mechanical resistance. As pore structure did
311 not influence the compression characteristics of the sandy loam soil, a lubricating effect of
312 exudates was possibly the major driver.

313 After 600 kPa compaction stress followed by 3 cycles of wetting and drying, the
314 relationships of void ratio, water ratio or air ratio with compression index or penetration
315 resistance were more erratic. Penetration resistance was not correlated with any of these pore
316 properties for either soil. The correlation between water ratio and the compression index of
317 the sandy loam soil suggests exudate driven retention of pore water to influence mechanical
318 behaviour. However, the same trend was not observed for the clay loam soil, probably due to
319 clay dominating over exudates in water retention (Fig. 6). Compression index tends to
320 increase for soils with greater clay content due to greater plasticity and void ratios (Gregory
321 *et al.*, 2016). Moreover, the clay loam soil had greater resilience to compression (Figs. 4-8)
322 due to the shrink-swell nature of clays and possibly the slightly greater organic carbon
323 content compared to the sandy loam soil (Gregory *et al.* 2007). This mechanical resilience is

324 reflected in the penetration resistance (Fig. 7) and modelled root elongation rate (Fig. 8),
325 where 3 cycles of wetting and drying can weaken a soil compressed to 600 kPa to less than it
326 was at 200 kPa loading. Interestingly, few of the measures of pore structure in either the
327 sandy loam or clay loam soil were responsive to exudate amendment, but the mechanical
328 measurements were very responsive (Figs. 3 and 7). The mechanical conditions of structured
329 soils are driven by a myriad of processes, so simple relationships with bulk pore structure or
330 water retention should not be expected (Keller *et al.*, 2013), even for a model system that
331 begins with homogenised soils, simple biological amendments and controlled drying and
332 wetting.

333 Although exudation clearly represents a significant carbon cost to the plant, exudates
334 are involved in engineering the rhizosphere by dispersion and gelling of soil (Naveed *et al.*,
335 2017a; Barré and Hallett, 2009; Tarchitzky and Chen, 2002; Deng *et al.*, 2015), modulation
336 of water and nutrient availabilities (Wang *et al.*, 2008; Ahmed *et al.*, 2014; Deng *et al.*, 2015),
337 and attraction of rhizobacteria (Bais *et al.*, 2006). To our knowledge this is the first time that
338 plant exudates have been demonstrated to ease soil compression and thus offer the potential
339 for increased root elongation in soil. This could have remarkable effects on overall plant
340 growth as it will influence the capacity of roots to access deep and disperse water and
341 nutrients resources in soil. In structured soils roots prefer to follow pathways of least
342 resistance (Landl *et al.*, 2017), with evidence of attraction of roots towards macropores where
343 mechanical impedance will be much smaller (Colombi *et al.*, 2017). However, macropore
344 networks are discontinuous so roots need to penetrate bulk soil to reach them. Good root:soil
345 contact is also required for resource capture (Schmidt *et al.*, 2012), which is poorer in
346 macropores and could be enhanced by localised changes in mechanical conditions of
347 surrounding soil by root exudates.

348 We appreciate that using chia seed exudate as a model root exudate has limitations. A

349 recent study by Naveed et al., (2017a) found that chia seed exudate has a greater amount of
350 polysaccharide sugars and less organic acids than barley and maize root exudates, with
351 differing impacts on soil rheology and water retention. Given the scale of samples required
352 for compression experiments, however, harvesting real root exudates in sufficient quantities
353 would be a formidable task. Whilst future research could explore impacts of real root
354 exudates, model root exudate compounds formed from mixes of sugars and amino acids (e.g.
355 Paterson *et al.*, 2007) would allow for the impact of specific chemical characteristics to be
356 disentangled. Such information will be useful in selecting plant species or in identifying root
357 exudate biochemical traits in breeding that could have positive physical impacts on soil.

358

359 **Conclusions**

360 Plant exudates eased soil compression and improved the mechanical resilience of compacted
361 soils; the latter possibly having a large positive impact on rhizosphere physical conditions.
362 The modelled increases in root elongation rate in soil, which was 40% faster in the sandy
363 loam than the clay loam, are likely to impact on the capacity of roots to explore deep and
364 disperse soil regions for resources. The physically quantified data generated from this study
365 will be useful for models of how plant exudates may influence root growth and impact soil
366 pore structure. Future research with model root exudates that vary in chemistry, real root
367 exudates and plants with contrasting exudation properties could identify favourable exudate
368 characteristics that improve the capacity of roots to grow in and restructure degraded soils.
369 Such understanding would benefit practical applications of biological tillage by plants,
370 selecting species in crop rotations to improve soil physical conditions and in crop breeding to
371 improve the capacity of roots to grow through and restructure soils.

372

373

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379

380

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544 **Table 1** Characteristics of the soils. Mean \pm s.e.m. of 3 replicates.

Location	Clay	Silt	Sand	Carbon (g. 100g ⁻¹)	Nitrogen	Soil pH_CaCl ₂	Texture class
South Bullion	16	24	60	2.25 \pm 0.14	0.16 \pm 0.03	5.48 \pm 0.07	Sandy loam
North Bullion	26	30	44	2.95 \pm 0.12	0.23 \pm 0.02	5.15 \pm 0.04	Clay loam

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Table 2 Summary of analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) for different parameters.

Source	<i>df</i>	<i>SS</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>
Compression index, Sandy loam					
Exudate concentration	1	0.003	0.003	19.99	0.003
Loading condition	1	0.0004	0.0004	2.98	0.128
Residual	7	0.001	0.0002		
Total	9	0.0043	0.0005		
Compression index, Clay loam					
Exudate concentration	1	0.002	0.002	51.3	<0.001
Loading condition	1	0.004	0.004	27.7	0.001
Residual	7	0.0006	0.0001		
Total	9	0.007	0.0008		
Cone penetration resistance, Sandy loam					
Exudate concentration	1	0.116	0.116	6.09	0.043
Loading condition	1	0.11	0.11	5.76	0.047
Residual	7	0.133	0.019		
Total	9	0.359	0.039		
Cone penetration resistance, Clay loam					
Exudate concentration	1	0.006	0.006	7.72	0.027
Loading condition	1	0.028	0.028	36.7	<0.001
Residual	7	0.0054	0.001		
Total	9	0.039	0.004		
Root elongation rate, Sandy loam					
Exudate concentration	1	14.47	14.47	6.52	0.038
Loading condition	1	14.45	14.45	6.51	0.038
Residual	7	15.53	2.22		
Total	9	44.45	4.94		
Root elongation rate, Clay loam					
Exudate concentration	1	1.03	1.03	8.13	0.025
Loading condition	1	4.89	4.89	38.67	<0.001
Residual	7	0.89	0.13		
Total	9	6.81	0.76		

568 *df* = degree of freedom, *SS* = sum of squares, *MS* = mean squares

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575 **Figure captions**

576 **Fig. 1** Flow chart of the experimental programme; 200 kPa stress was simulated as vehicle
577 traffic, 600 kPa compression stress was simulated as stress induced by a growing root in the
578 soil and 3 wetting-drying cycles were simulated as natural weathering at the root-soil interface.

579 **Fig. 2** Interpretation of confined compression tests showing loading for the soil from (X) to
580 (Y), followed by unloading from (Y) to (Z). Data are plotted as void ratio as a function of
581 \log_{10} stress, with compression index (C_c) calculated as the slope of the virgin compression
582 curve.

583 **Fig. 3** Compression index at -50 kPa matric potential plotted as a function of exudate
584 concentration for sandy loam and clay loam soils for (i) 200 kPa loading, (ii) 600 kPa loading
585 and (iii) 600 kPa loading with wetting and drying. Error bars represent ± 1 s.e.m. ($n = 5$).
586 Different lowercase letters show a significant difference ($P < 0.05$) between either exudate
587 concentration or stages of the compression cycle.

588 **Fig. 4** Void ratio relationship to exudate concentration for sandy loam and clay loam soils for
589 (i) 200 kPa loading, (ii) 600 kPa loading and (iii) 600 kPa loading with wetting and drying.
590 Error bars represent ± 1 s.e.m. ($n = 5$). Different lowercase letters show a significant
591 difference ($P < 0.05$) between either exudate concentration or stages of the compression cycle.

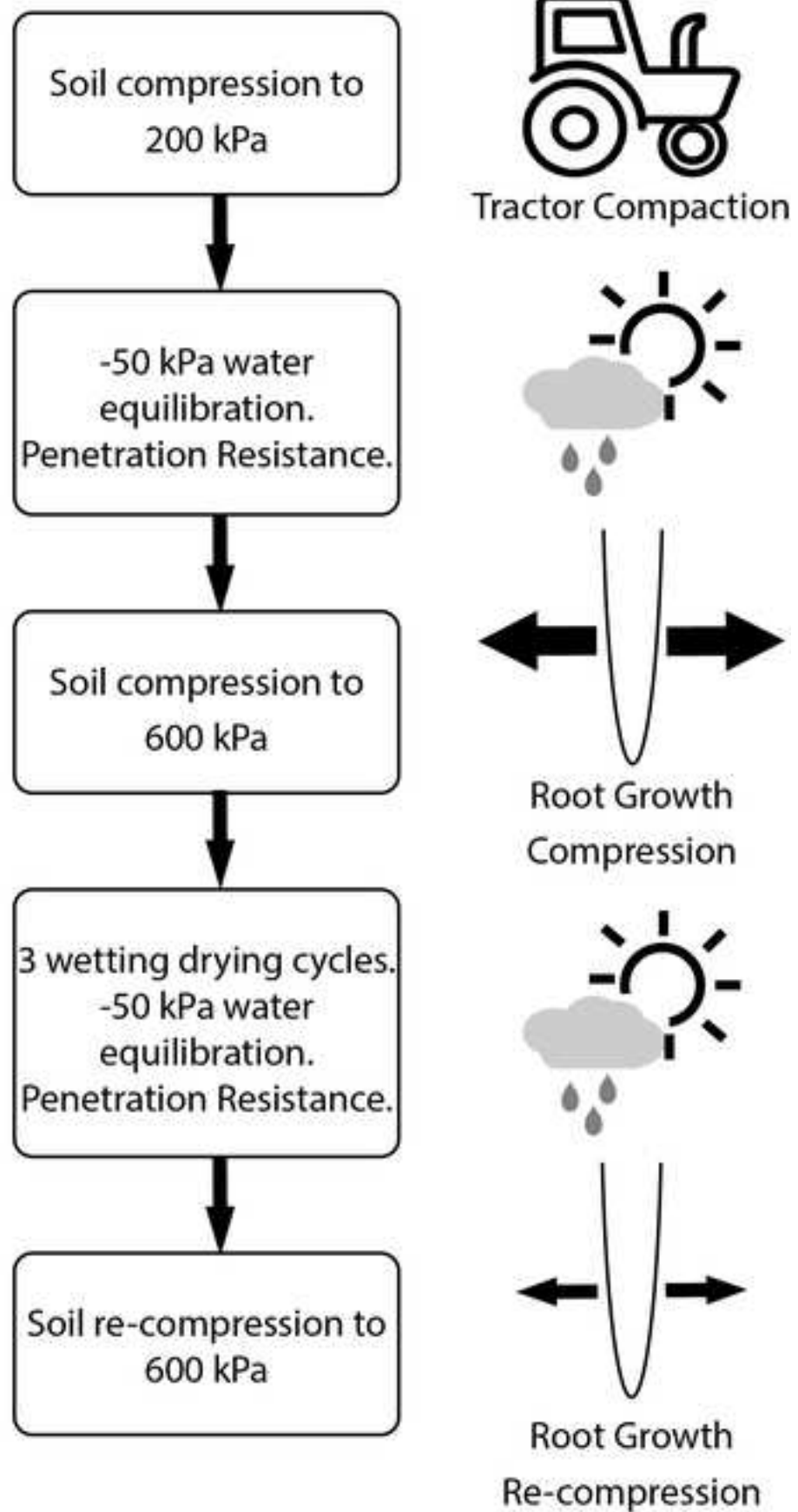
592 **Fig. 5** Air ratio relationship to exudate concentration for sandy loam and clay loam soils for
593 (i) 200 kPa loading, (ii) 600 kPa loading and (iii) 600 kPa loading with wetting and drying.
594 Error bars represent ± 1 s.e.m. ($n = 5$). Different lowercase letters show a significant
595 difference ($P < 0.05$) between either exudate concentration or stages of the compression cycle.

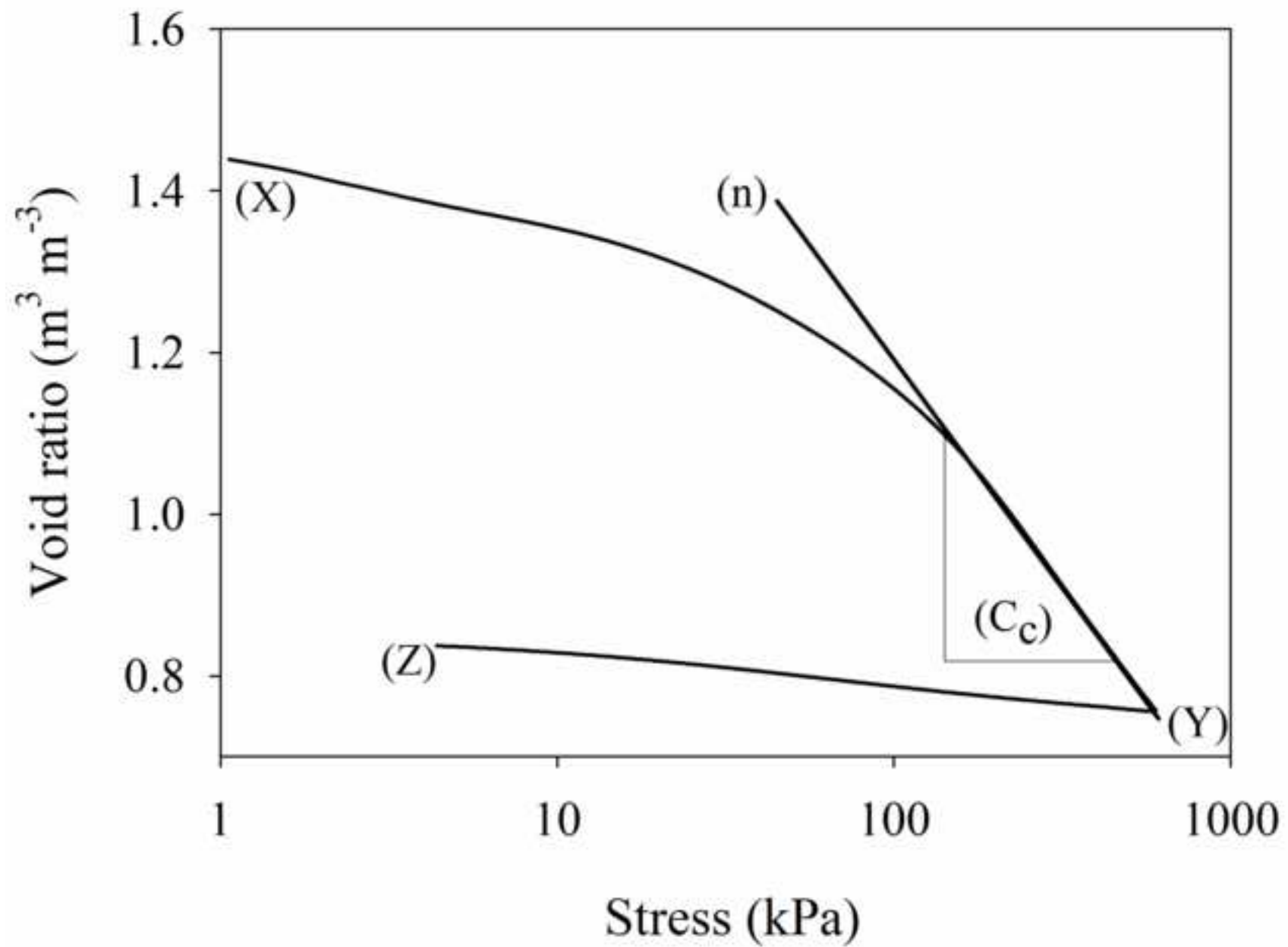
596 **Fig. 6** Water ratio relationship to exudate concentration for sandy loam and clay loam soils
597 for (i) 200 kPa loading, (ii) 600 kPa loading and (iii) 600 kPa loading with wetting and
598 drying. Error bars represent ± 1 s.e.m. ($n = 5$). Different lowercase letters show a significant
599 difference ($P < 0.05$) between either exudate concentration or stages of the compression cycle.

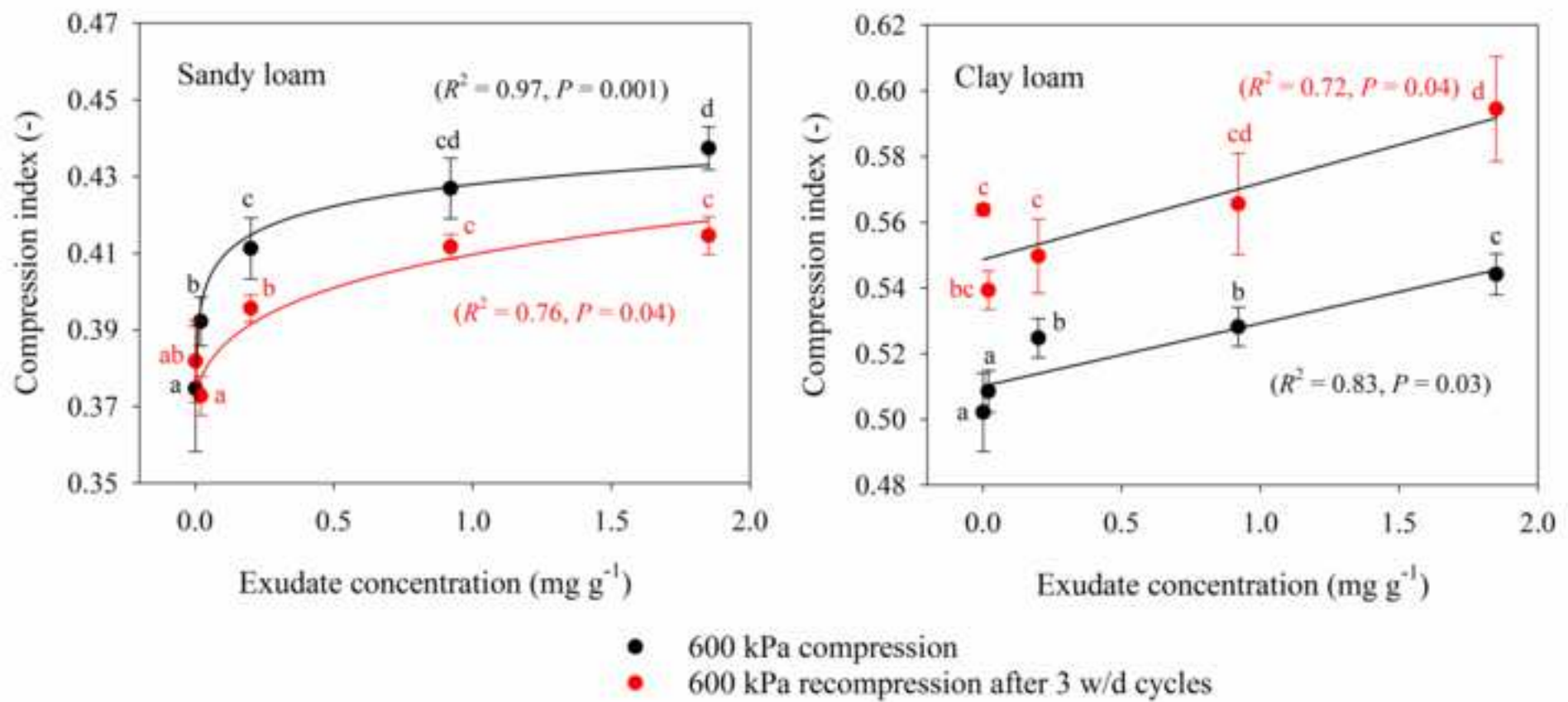
600 **Fig. 7** Cone penetration resistance at -50 kPa matric potential relationship to exudate
601 concentration for sandy loam and clay loam soils for (i) 200 kPa loading, (ii) 600 kPa loading
602 and (iii) 600 kPa loading with wetting and drying. Error bars represent ± 1 s.e.m. (n = 5).
603 Different lowercase letters show a significant difference ($P < 0.05$) between either exudate
604 concentration or stages of the compression cycle.

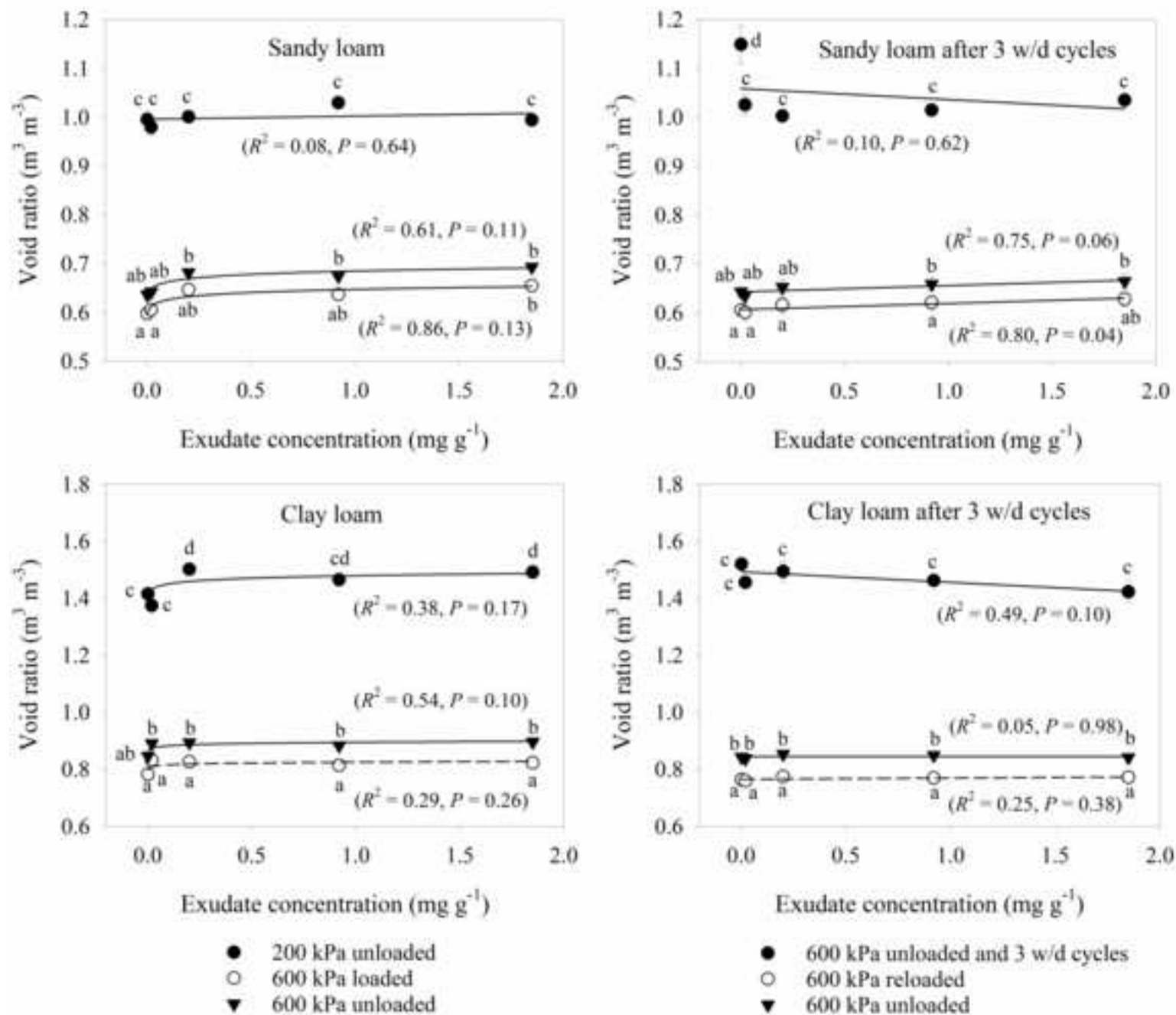
605 **Fig. 8** Modelled root elongation rate using Dexter's (1987) model at -50 kPa matric potential
606 for sandy loam and clay loam soils for (i) 200 kPa loading, (ii) 600 kPa loading and (iii) 600
607 kPa loading with wetting and drying. Error bars represent ± 1 s.e.m. (n = 5). Different
608 lowercase letters show a significant difference ($P < 0.05$) between either exudate concentration
609 or stages of the compression cycle.

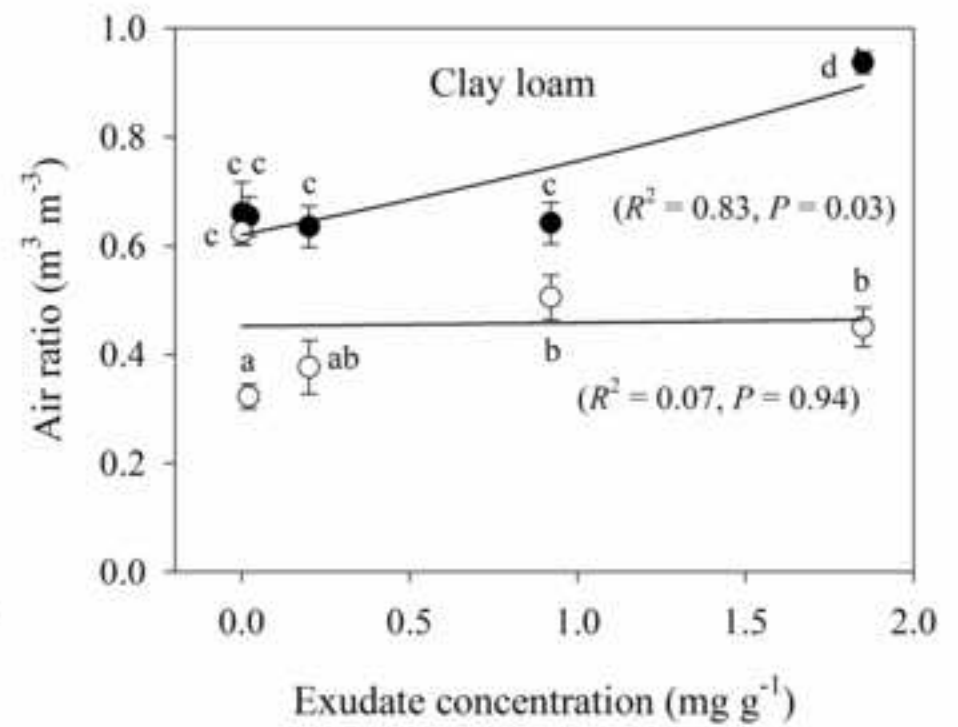
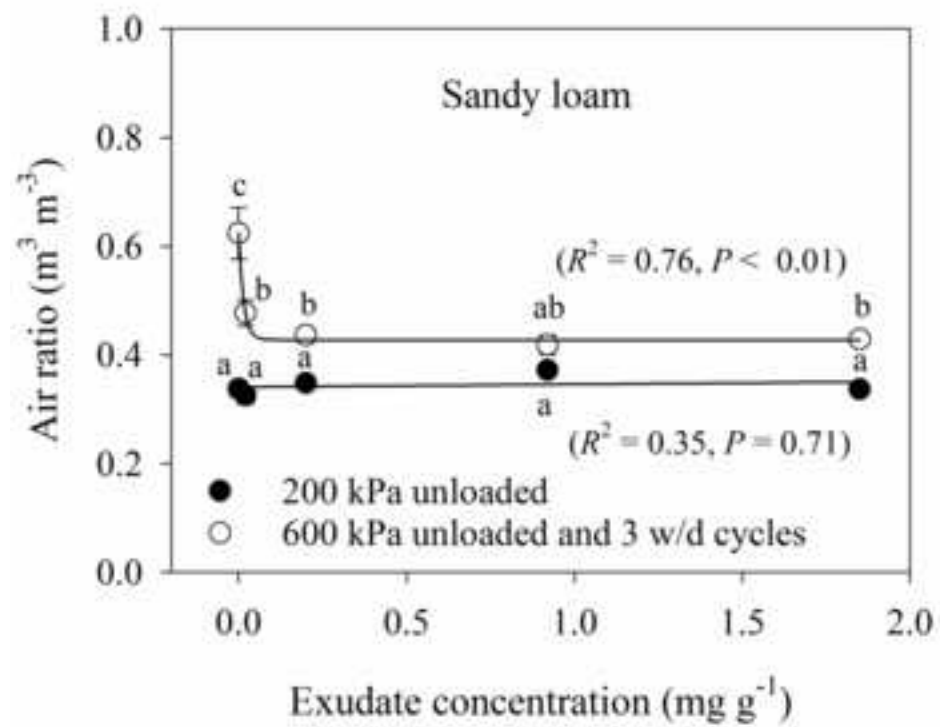
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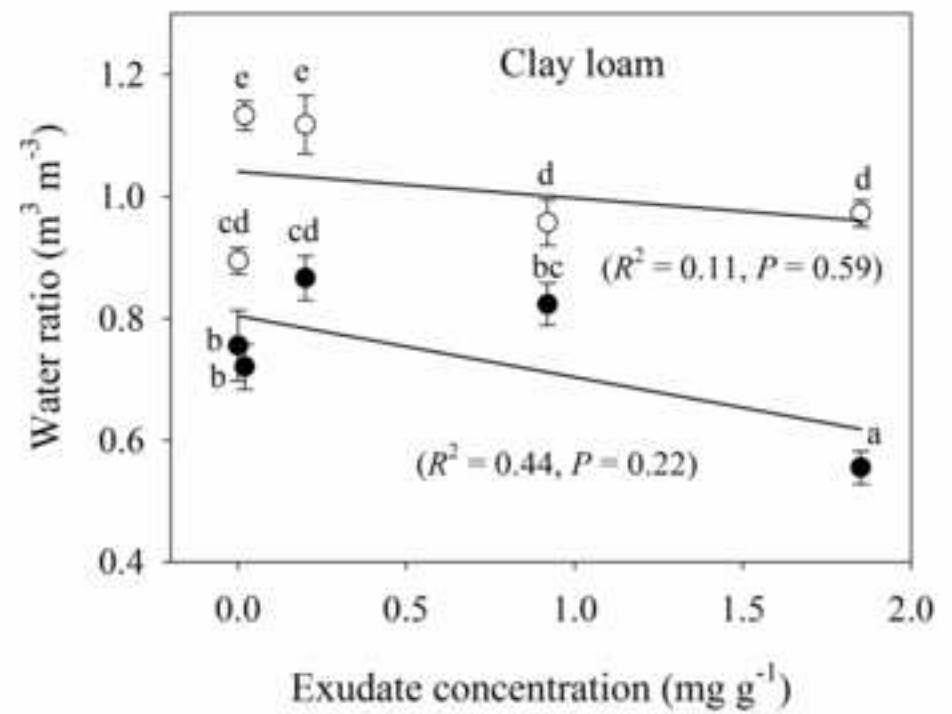
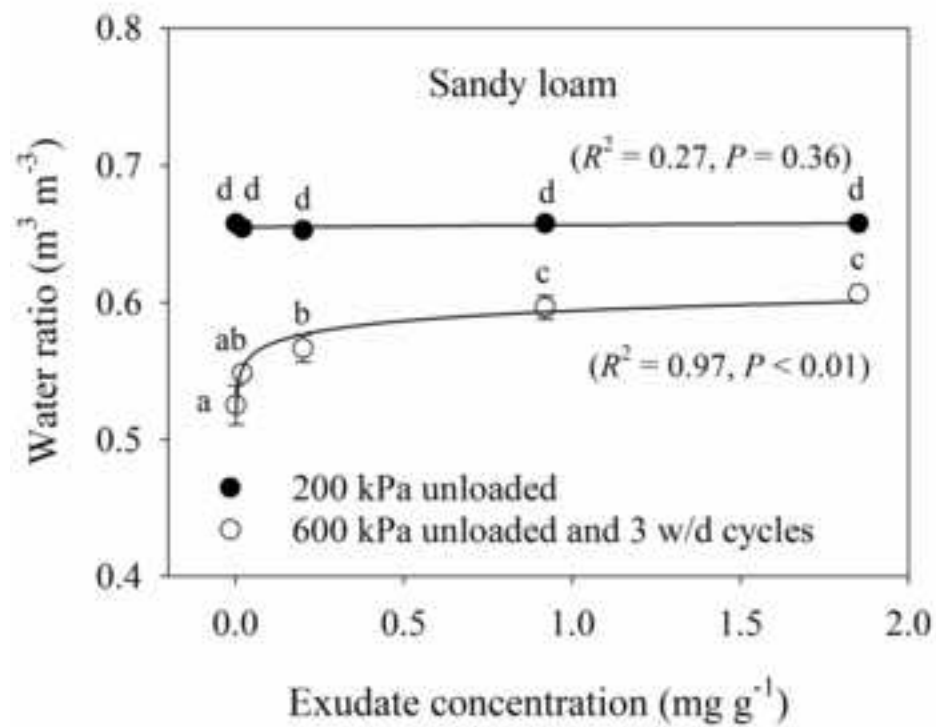


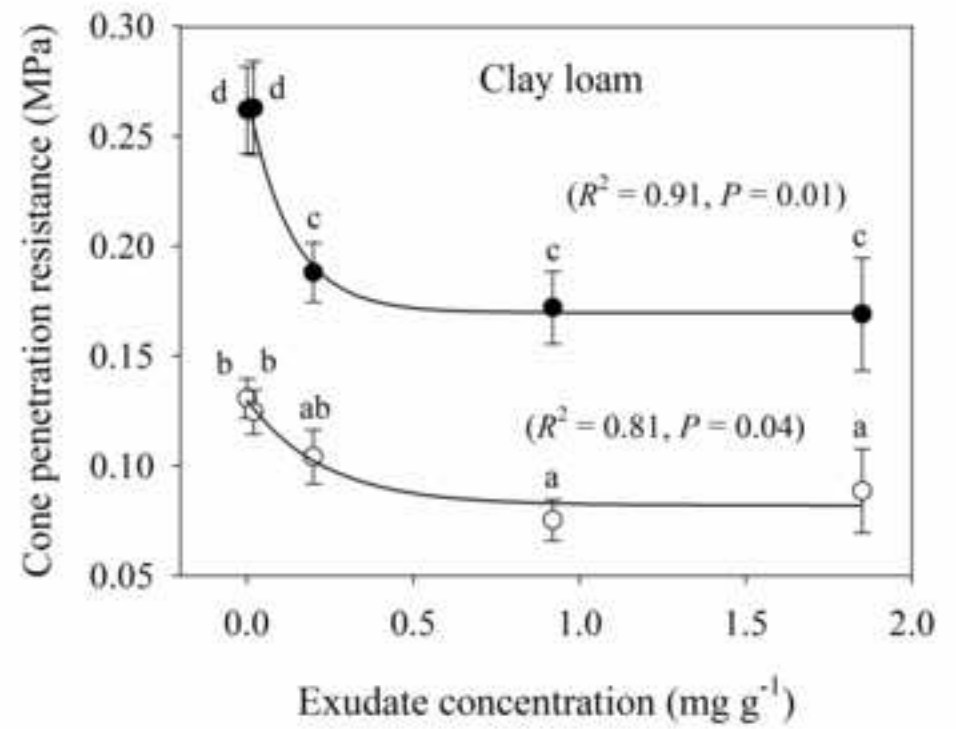
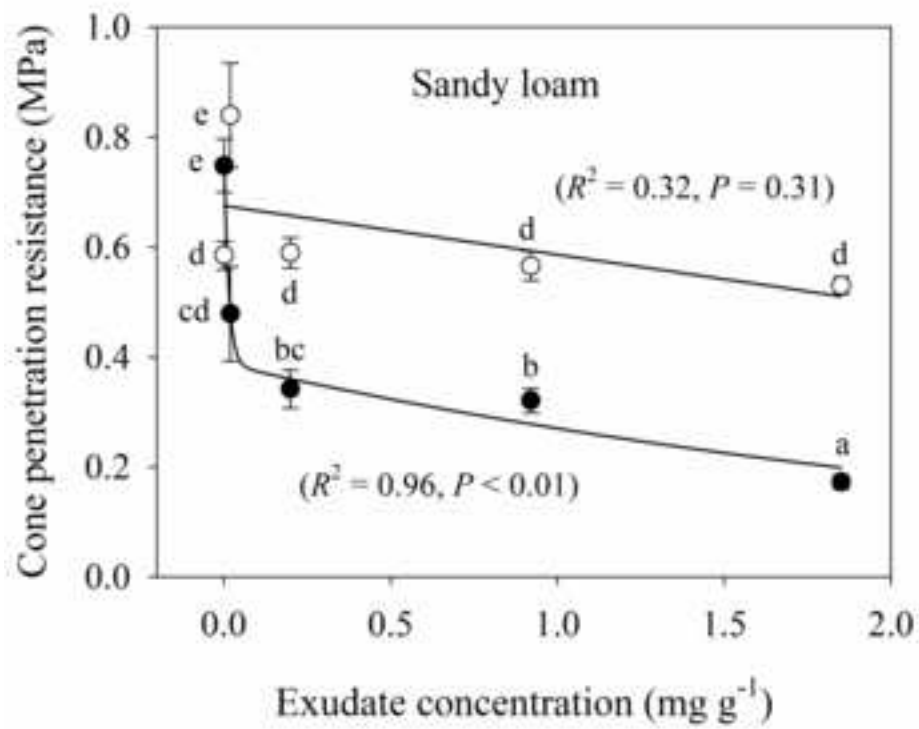












- 200 kPa loaded
- 600 kPa loaded and 3 w/d cycles

