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Rhizospheres for sustainable soils

Highlights

Root hairs and rhizodeposits are rhizosphere forming root traits that vary between plant species and crop genotypes.

Targeting these traits may benefit both plants and soil, improving food and environmental security at the same time. Soils may store more carbon (greenhouse gas mitigation), trap more water (drought tolerance) and nutrients, and resist erosion.

From limited research, rhizosphere size has been maintained or improved in modern crop varieties, but potential exists to increase it further. Whether this will lead to improved yield or soil properties, however, requires greater field testing to verify.

Laboratory and glasshouse research using root trait ideotypes has found marked impacts on rhizosphere size and stability. Rhizodeposits vary in behaviour between species from hydrogels to surfactants, and as soil dispersers (miners) or aggregators (builders).

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Rhizospheres for sustainable soils

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Abstract

Yield is the primary aim of crop breeding, but by focussing on soils by improving the rhizosphere, food and environmental security may be tackled together. The rhizosphere forms by roots ‘building’ a soil environment that traps more carbon and resources, holds greater biodiversity and resists climate stresses. Rhizodeposition and root hairs are the main traits that drive rhizosphere formation, but open questions remain on altering these traits to improve soils while not affecting yield. From emerging evidence rhizodeposition can act as a disperser, aggregator and/or hydrogel in soil, and root hairs can expand rhizosphere size. Exploring how these traits influence soils needs to extend from current glasshouse research with model plants to diverse commercial genotypes tested in the field.

Rhizospheres for sustainable soils

Manipulating the rhizosphere to improve soil sustainability

Ask not what the rhizosphere can do for plants, but what the rhizosphere can do for soils. By reversing our thinking of how rhizospheres form and function, there is considerable opportunity to restore degraded soils [1], mitigate greenhouse gases [2] and enhance biodiversity [3]. These are some of the grandest challenges facing humanity [4], which by focussing on rhizosphere traits, plant breeding may help address while also underpinning another grand challenge - food security. Breeding crop varieties with the target of improving soil health and reducing soil degradation will produce better conditions for crop growth through more efficient resource utilisation and stress tolerance, so a win-win is possible where both yield and soil are improved.

Whilst considerable research has explored root exudation and the rhizosphere microbiome [3,5-7], the lack of integrated research with other disciplines has failed to capture wider benefits of the rhizosphere on soils. If soils are improved by optimising rhizosphere formation and function, then plants may benefit from both direct and indirect impacts. Direct impacts have been studied extensively, focussed primarily on the suppression of pathogens [3,8] and the capacity of plants to capture resources from soil, such as through manipulation of nutrient cycling by microorganisms [9]. This Opinion Piece focusses on indirect impacts that are less well studied, specifically on the capacity of roots to restructure soil. By targeting soil structure building root traits, abiotic stress resistance of both plants and soils could increase through better drainage to counter water-logging, microbial habitat formation to improve nutrient cycling, stabilisation of soil against erosion and a greater capacity of soil to absorb and store water [10]. Better soil structure driven by plants improves carbon storage and may mitigate against soil compaction damage that prevents deep-rooting cultivars penetrating through hard layers of soil and capturing otherwise lost resources. Plants are known to have a huge impact on soil evolution, but these processes are generally ignored in plant breeding, where the primary focus is yield. With the shift towards reduced tillage and smaller inputs of agrochemicals, a plant's capacity to alter soil structure [11] and promote a healthy microbiome [3] will become increasingly important.

Plants as architects of soil

The capacity of plants to manipulate soils has been long appreciated, forming the basis of good rotation design and biological tillage [12]. A considerable body of research has shown plant roots to be a major driver of the soil microbiome [5,6] and soil physical structure [13]. The mechanisms used by plant roots to navigate and modify structurally heterogeneous soil were discussed by Jin et al. [14], who also argued that optimising root-soil interactions could improve food and soil sustainability. Starting at the root tip, compression of soil by an elongating and expanding root can be eased by sloughed off cells [15] and exuded mucilage [16] (Figure 1). Extending along the root, primarily to the elongation zone, exudates are released that enhance nutrient capture [17]. All of these compounds secreted by roots provide a major burst of substrate, producing a ‘hot spot’ or ‘hot moment’ at the root soil interface [18]; this has profound effects on the diversity and functioning of the surrounding microbiome [7].

A hot opportunity may exist to manipulate mucilages and exudates from roots to improve soil properties at the root-soil interface, producing a unique biophysical environment and niche for microbes and their functions. These compounds interact with microbial by-products and the physical action of the expanding, drying and wetting root to form the rhizosphere [11]. Rhizosphere size is difficult to define and varies rapidly over time, but it can have chemical influences extending 3 mm and physical influences extending over 10 mm into the soil. A volume of soil under cereals has been estimated to be 2% roots and about 50% rhizosphere [19], but there is scope through breeding to extend this further. Properties of the rhizosphere can vary markedly to the surrounding soil, with a range of benefits to plant productivity and the environment (Box 1). It forms the interface of all materials captured by the plant from soil and the habitat where microorganisms interact to cycle plant nutrients and compete against pathogens and is therefore a critical zone of global significance.

Plant Breeding and the Rhizosphere

Modern agriculture has degraded soils through depleting soil carbon, acidification, increasing salinity (irrigation and removal of trees), mining of elements, enhancing erosion

and decreasing microbial diversity [4]. To some extent, these threats can be mitigated by improved agronomy, but perhaps plant breeding exacerbated soil degradation by focussing on yield and resource capture? If more carbon is allocated to the edible portion of crops that are removed from land, less carbon is left to replenish soils. Many studies have reported that modern crop cultivars have root systems that are smaller, steeper and reach deeper than older varieties, so they would be expected to return less carbon to soils. However, even when root system biomass has decreased over time with cultivar development, net effects on rhizodeposition may be minimal and therefore the long-term impact on soil carbon is uncertain [20]. Furthermore, under less ideal conditions of drought [21] or compaction [22], modern varieties may be more responsive at reaching deeper soil [23] where rhizodeposits decompose more slowly, resulting in more effective carbon storage [24]. In a study of over 100 wheat genotypes, Mathew et al. [25] concluded that root biomass could be selected along with grain yield to satisfy both soil carbon sequestration and food security.

By growing deeper in soil, root architecture offers exciting opportunities to improve crop resistance to stress and soil carbon storage at the same time [23], but a few recent studies suggest the impacts could be enhanced even more by also targeting the rhizosphere. What is uncertain is whether modern breeding has degraded the rhizosphere environment because of the metabolic costs of root exudation and producing root hairs. As the rhizosphere is difficult to define and separate from soil, a simple high-throughput approach that measures soil that adheres to roots to form a rhizosheath [11] has been developed. From the little data that exists comparing landraces to different eras in modern crop breeding, it appears that rhizosheath size has been maintained or improved over time (Table 1).

The size of the rhizosheath differs considerably between species [26] and also between genotypes of the same species. But would targeting rhizosheath size in breeding lead to a yield reduction? A comparison of rhizosheath size to yield finds little impact (Figure 2), and one of the few field studies on root hair impacts on rhizosheath size found a positive impact on yield in dry years [27]. Potential therefore exists to target genotypes with a greater ability to physically manipulate soils, possibly with improved crop productivity too.

Could this offer a new tool in a plant breeders' arsenal? Quantitative trait loci (QTLs) related to rhizosphere size have been found and the genetic controls may be relatively simple [28]. Between 144 elite genotypes of *Hordeum vulgare* grown in soil mesocosms, rhizosphere size was found to vary by over 500%, with the upper quartile varying by about 175% [29]. However, it is not only the genotype but also the environment that affects rhizosphere size. Poor soil phosphorus availability and root-soil contact tends to create larger rhizospheres [30], so selecting crops for rhizosphere size could infer greater abiotic stress resistance with plasticity from responsiveness in degraded soils. Drought can increase rhizosphere size and its ability to store and transmit water, particularly in drought tolerant genotypes [13]. Investment in the rhizosphere or rhizosphere may give a direct pay off to the plant through improved resource acquisition to counteract stress [5,13,31,32], but it may also indirectly pay off by improving soil structure. It is interesting to note that the species which were first noted for having rhizospheres were desert grasses that survived in extremely poor soils low in organic matter content [33]. Plants appear to be investing in improving their soil conditions in the rhizosphere and buffering themselves against hostile environments.

The recent surge in understanding of how specific root traits manipulate the rhizosphere has been enabled by a range of new technologies. From milligram samples of precisely extracted rhizosphere soil, molecular approaches have unravelled contrasting microbiomes between plant species and genotypes [6,8]. Rhizosphere properties can be measured in intact soil samples using high resolution physical and chemical measurements [34], including 3D visualisation of how root traits impact soil pore structure [35]. By combining the technologies enabling shoot-root phenotyping [36] with molecular biology of plants and soil microorganisms[6], studies of the rhizosphere offer a great opportunity to understand below-ground interactions and their genetic drivers that could be harnessed to improve soil conditions at a spatially and temporally meaningful scale.

Root traits for sustainable rhizospheres

The emerging understanding of root traits that affect the rhizosphere demonstrates the great capacity of plants to manipulate the soil environment and has potential to inform new crop genotypes. Bigger and more stable rhizospheres are produced mainly by root hairs and rhizodeposits (Figure 1) that work together to affect the environment surrounding the root,

producing the equivalent of intestinal villi and secretions to enhance nutrient capture and support a microbiome. Jethro Tull's [37] assertion 250 years ago that 'roots are but as guts inverted... that spew out what is superfluous' captures these processes eloquently, although mucilages and exudates are certainly not superfluous.

Compared to the study of the gastrointestinal tract, however, the presence of soil creates a major challenge to the study of root traits. Gut biology is complicated, but the 3D dynamic pore structure, diverse chemistry and vast biodiversity of soil produces a much more complex system. Just as in gut biology, rhizosphere research focuses on the microbiome [6], but unlike gut biology where habitat is fixed by organ structure, the rhizosphere microbiome interacts with soil particles, the growing root, root hairs and rhizodeposits to continuously produce new habitat over time and space. With emerging evidence of the underlying processes that drive this habitat creation comes growing confidence that crop genotypes or species can be selected for their ability to physically manipulate soils. One impact is decreased abiotic stress from drought through rhizodeposits restructuring soil to trap more water [14] and easing deep root penetration through compacted soil [16]. Water stress alters rhizodeposit chemistry thus influencing microbial diversity [5] and function such as exopolysaccharide production by roots and microbes improving water retention [38].

However, the understanding of the physical processes underpinning rhizosphere formation and its impacts on plants is only just emerging and is constrained by the challenge of direct sampling of rhizodeposits from soil [17]. An alternative is to harvest exudates and other rhizodeposits in soil-free systems such as hydroponics [39], sterile and inert matrices to simulate soil [40], or directly from exuding brace roots or seedling root tips [41,42].

Measurements of directly harvested rhizodeposits have helped to unravel processes that lead to the development and functioning of the rhizosphere. Building on research exploring the chemistry of root mucilage, Read & Gregory [43] found that these compounds were highly surface active and viscous. By being surface active, root mucilage can decrease the surface tension of water by over 30%, with an expected easing of water capture from surrounding soil [44]. Viscous rhizodeposits, on the other hand, are more resistant to drainage. This may aid water uptake [45] and produce microhydrological niches that could buffer roots and microorganisms from the wetting and drying stresses of surrounding soil [46]. Viscous rhizodeposits may also help fill gaps that emerge between drying roots and

soil [47], further enabling greater water uptake [46], but potentially leading to the development of a hydrophobic rhizosphere that rewets poorly following drought [48]. The surface activity of other rhizodeposits can help mitigate hydrophobicity, producing greater rewetting rates [32]. Experimental evidence using model rhizodeposits has suggested that they may also decrease water movement rates in dry soil [49], although much of this has been limited to sandy soils where this impact is exacerbated [44].

So, it is not just the chemical composition of rhizodeposits that improve root-soil interactions, but also their physical properties and this needs to be considered when exploring root traits. The viscosity and surface activity of rhizodeposits varies between plant species [43,44] resulting in different impacts to soil [50]. *Hordeum vulgare* has a greater proportion of organic acids to sugars in its rhizodeposits compared to *Zea mays*, resulting in a lower viscosity and greater surface activity [39]. This suggests that when these rhizodeposits are added to soil, *Hordeum vulgare* eases water extraction by its exudates acting as a surfactant whereas *Zea mays* exudates improve water storage by acting as a hydrogel [50]. Mechanical measurements of soils amended with these rhizodeposits found *Hordeum vulgare* to weaken and disperse soil particle bonds, which has been speculated to improve nutrient release, ease root growth and catalyse rhizosphere development [39]. *Zea mays* rhizodeposits have the opposite effect of strengthening and gelling soil particle bonds. Rapid microbial degradation of rhizodeposits produces secondary compounds [17,38], so their physical impacts may change quickly. Microbes have been found to change *Hordeum vulgare* rhizodeposits from dispersing into gelling compounds [39] with diminished surface activity [50] that aggregate soil to create more favourable habitats for microbes and plants.

The different properties of *Zea mays* and *Hordeum vulgare* rhizodeposits could reflect the environments where they evolved. It is fascinating to think that environmental variability may have played out in subtle changes to exudate quality that lead to opposing strategies to cope with a deficit of water or nutrients, giving us a range of rhizosphere strategies to challenge the problems posed by drought and soil degradation. Likewise, desert plants are being used to inform QTLs controlling rhizosheath formation [33,38], which could be extended to common crop species as more evidence of contrasting rhizodeposit properties emerges. Harvesting of rhizodeposits and performing quick measurements of their physical behaviour augmented by modelling approaches of root-water uptake could provide a high-

209 throughput approach to screen large numbers of genotypes to identify favourable traits.
 210 This would complement emerging understanding of chemical components of rhizodeposits
 211 [51] and rapid screens to assess their adhesive properties that aggregate soil [52].
 212 These direct physical measurements of the capacity of rhizodeposits to disperse and
 213 aggregate soils were visually apparent in decades old scanning electron micrographs of the
 214 rhizosphere [53]. With the emergence of noninvasive 3D imaging of root-soil interactions,
 215 coupled with increased computing power, leaps in understanding should eventually inform
 216 crop breeding [13,36]. For example, synchrotron imaging at sub-micron resolution has
 217 visualised the tortuous pathways through soil pores that root hairs penetrate to increase
 218 the zone of influence of the root and its capacity to capture resources [35,54]. Such
 219 technology is unravelling how traits such as increased root hair length lead to greater P
 220 capture [30] and yield under limited conditions (Figure 3) [55]. Sophisticated numerical
 221 models can use synchrotron imaging of the sub-micron scale 3D structure of root hairs [56]
 222 and their interaction with soil pores [35] to predict resource capture. Other models begin to
 223 explore how microbial traits interact with the physical, chemical and biological properties at
 224 these pore scales [57]. The combined experimental knowledge and modelling approaches
 225 will deepen our understanding of rhizosphere behaviour, potentially offering an exciting
 226 new tool to simulate optimum root trait ideotypes.
 227 High resolution 3D imaging has also revealed that root hairs can restructure rhizosphere soil
 228 to counteract compaction from roots expanding radially and axially as they grow [35]. This
 229 early work visualising how root hairs and soil structure interact has been limited to seedlings
 230 of *Hordeum vulgare* and *Triticum aestivum* [56] and different water stresses. Findings have
 231 been contradictory [35,54], likely due to soil properties, and different genotypes have yet to
 232 be explored, so considerable potential exists for follow-on research. Direct visualisation of
 233 root hairs in soil has also questioned the value of measuring root hairs in artificial conditions
 234 as there may be limited similarity to abundance and length when grown in soil [58].
 235 Processes leading to greater resource capture by root hairs also require greater
 236 investigation. In an elegant study using a root pressure chamber [59], root hairs were found
 237 to buffer the drying gradient (water potential flux) at the root-soil interface, enabling
 238 greater transpiration rates from drying soil [60]. This led to questioning of accepted
 239 concepts of plant hydraulics, where stomatal closure under water stress has been argued to

be driven by soil hydraulic properties at the root-soil interface rather than xylem vulnerability [61]. Expanding the zone of soil influenced by roots through root hairs may therefore offer another plant trait to improve drought tolerance.

Root hairs also improve anchorage between roots and surrounding soil [62]. This has been observed to increase pull-out resistance, potentially decreasing root lodging by wind, uplifting by grazing animals and improved establishment of seedlings upon soil disruption [52,63,64]. Another role of root hairs is bracing the root against soil, improving penetration into compacted soils [65]. From the perspective of the plant, root hairs improve nutrient and water capture, anchorage and penetration, but from perspective of soil there are further potential positive impacts summarised in Box 1.

Rhizosphere traits for sustainable soils

The over-arching impact of root hairs and rhizodeposition traits on soil is carbon, which underpins a broad range of environmental processes that feed back to plant productivity, stress tolerance. It has been estimated that 2.4x more carbon is contributed by roots than shoots to soils [24]. Between different genotypes of the same crop, rhizodeposition chemistry and its knock-on impact to soil carbon storage can vary markedly [66]. Just as dabbing paint with a brush allows it to penetrate into nooks and crannies on surfaces, root hairs can aid the influence of plant roots by penetrating into soil pores that are too small for roots and distributing rhizodeposits into a greater volume of soil [24]. This creates the adhered soil that makes up the rhizosheath [67], which is postulated to be a major process that aggregates carbon and makes it more recalcitrant to decomposition by microorganisms [24].

The studies discussed thus far provide convincing arguments of the potential to select rhizosphere traits for sustainable soils. However, it is less clear if they result in meaningful impacts in the field. Even in a laboratory study, hairless root mutants of *Hordeum vulgare* had a similar capacity to stabilise soil against erosion as their wildtype parent, but root system architecture confounded interpretation [68]. As in this work, many other studies have used hairless mutants to disentangle mechanisms, but meaningful data for crop breeders needs to contrast commercially viable varieties with differing root hairs and

rhizodeposition [69]. One of the few field studies exploring root hairs compared two commercial *Hordeum vulgare* varieties with a range of root hair mutants of one of the varieties [27]. Longer root hairs were correlated with bigger rhizosheaths, but the commercial varieties did not differ enough to provide a contrast. Further field experiments using a broader range of contrasting rhizosphere trait genotypes of different crops are needed to verify that postulated impacts from laboratory studies have meaningful impact. These experiments need to consider longer-term impacts to soil, particularly carbon dynamics, physical structure and microbial populations that are the cornerstone of soil health.

Concluding Remarks and Future Perspectives

Modern varieties and crop breeding lines can have vastly different root hair and rhizodeposit properties that need to be scrutinised more closely for their combined impacts on plants and soils (see Outstanding Questions). Studies on the microbiology, chemistry and physical properties of the rhizosphere have shown large plasticity caused by stresses from drought, soil compaction or nutrient availability. A genotype's capacity to engineer a favourable rhizosphere could enhance its fitness under variable field conditions.

We have shown evidence that selecting genotypes for favourable rhizosphere properties can also improve yield despite the potential metabolic cost. There is potential through crop rotation, for the rhizospheres of preceding crops to benefit follow-on crops. Moreover, longer-term improvements to soil could result, that benefit both the crop and the environment. The impact of plant roots on soils has been appreciated for centuries, but it is only now that new technologies are emerging that are unravelling the mechanistic processes of how plant root traits form the rhizosphere and impact both plants and soils. We are only at the beginning of understanding whether rhizodeposition and root hairs could be selected for more sustainable soils, but the emerging evidence is positive and compelling.

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Table 1. Rhizosheath size of landraces and released varieties of four crop species, along with the data source. Rhizosheaths are expressed as gram per metre of root, including weights of both the fresh root and the moist soil. **Era I:** landraces; **Era II:** earlier varieties of *Zea mays* (1983-1998), *Hordeum vulgare* (1951-1986), *Triticum aestivum* (1932-1972) and *Panicum virgatum* (1963); **Era III:** later varieties of *Zea mays* (2006-2013), *Hordeum vulgare* (1996-2013), *Triticum aestivum* (1993-2006) and *Panicum virgatum* (1973-1978).

Species	Rhizosheath size (g m ⁻¹)			Reference
	Era I	Era II	Era III	
<i>Zea mays</i>	2.38	2.58	2.09	Adu et al. [70]
<i>Hordeum vulgare</i>	4.37	4.54	4.37	McDonald et al. [71]
<i>Triticum aestivum</i>	-	4.60	3.86	Delhaize et al. [72,73]
<i>Triticum aestivum</i>	1.69		1.13-2.54	Okano et al. [74]
<i>Panicum virgatum</i>	-	0.80	2.40	Liu et al. [75]

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Figure 1. Formation of the physical environment in the rhizosphere through the combined impacts of root hairs, root tip mucilage (blue) and root exudates (yellow). Bacteria (red dots) and arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (green lines) populations increase along the root and produce secondary compounds from rhizodeposits that have further physical impacts.

Figure 2. Relationship between rhizosheath size and yield of *Hordeum vulgare*, including 20 varieties from McDonald et al. [71] (black circles) and 4 genotypes differing in root hair length of cv Optic from Brown et al. [76] (white circles). Each genotype under P-limited conditions is represented as a percentage of achievable yield for the same genotype under unlimited P conditions.

Figure 3. Relationship between root hair length and P uptake (A), yield (B) for 11 cultivars of *Hordeum vulgare* under P-limited conditions, from Gahoonia and Nielsen [55]. Each cultivar under P-limited conditions is represented as a percentage of achievable P uptake/yield for the same cultivar under unlimited P conditions.

Box 1 – Rhizosphere traits that benefit plants and soils

Plant roots are ecosystem engineers that are highly responsive to the soil environment [14]. Through rhizodeposition, roots produce a thin zone at their interface with soil that is expanded by root hairs. A rhizosphere emerges that is teeming with microbial life in mutualistic, symbiotic and parasitic interactions with plants [3]. Everything a plant captures from soil passes through the rhizosphere, which also serves as a store that captures and releases water and nutrients better than the surrounding soil [61].

The benefits to the plant from the rhizosphere also benefit the soil. Carbon is the primary driver, which provides substrate for microbial activity that underpins nutrient cycling and particle aggregation [6]. A range of root and microbial derived compounds aggregate soil, capture water as hydrogels and ease water extraction by their surface activity. Root hairs further bind the soil together, improving anchorage of roots and possibly soil resistance to erosion.

Between different genotypes of the same crop, rhizodeposition and root hair properties differ and the QTLs driving these traits are being identified [29]. Rhizodeposition and root hairs also adapt to the soil environment, increasing plant resistance to drought [5] and nutrient capture when fertility is poor [26]. Targeting root traits that form the rhizosphere could therefore make both soils and food production more sustainable.

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550

551

552 **Glossary**

553

554 **Biological tillage**

555 fragmentation and aggregation of soil through the action of plant roots, soil fauna
556 and microorganisms.

557

558 **Exudate**

559 a mix of sugars, amino acids, and organic acids secreted by plant roots.

560

561 **Microhydrological niches**

562 discrete spatial regions in soil where biological compounds alter water holding and
563 transport properties.

564

565 **Mucilage**

566 polysaccharide rich compounds secreted at the root tip that are viscous.

567

568 **Quantitative trait loci (qtls)**

569 genes that influence specific traits.

570

571 **Rhizodeposits**

572 collective term for exudates and mucilages secreted by plant roots.

573

574 **Rhizosphere**

575 soil that remains adhered to plant roots following gentle shaking. It provides a rapid
576 and easy approach to sample soil affected by plant roots.

577

578 **Rhizosphere**

579 soil at the interface of plant roots that has been influenced by rhizodeposits. All
580 resources captured by a plant from soil enter through the rhizosphere. It generally
581 has greater carbon, biological activity and stability than surrounding soil.

582

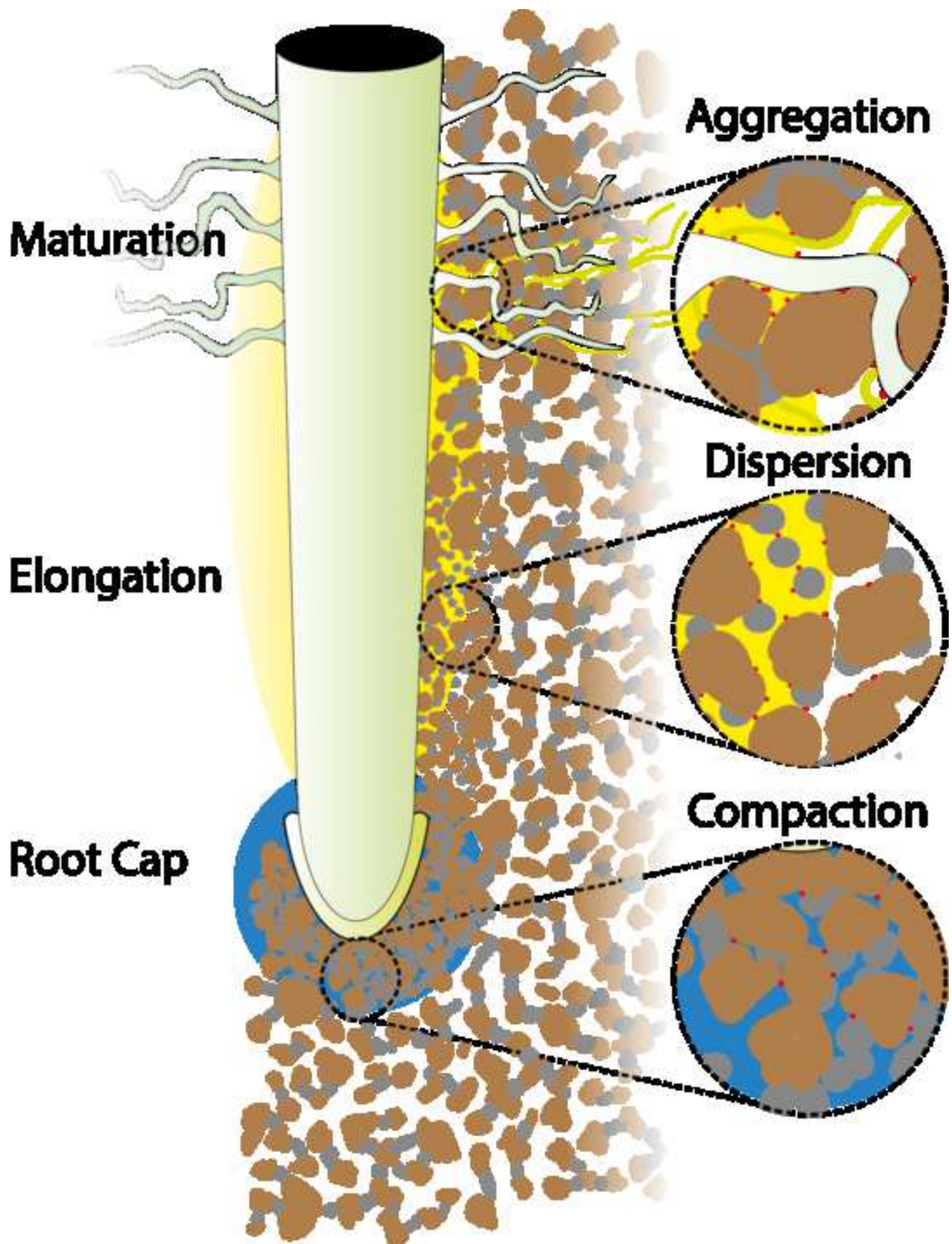
583 **Root hairs**

584 single cell outgrowths from the root epidermis that increase root surface area and
585 soil exploration.

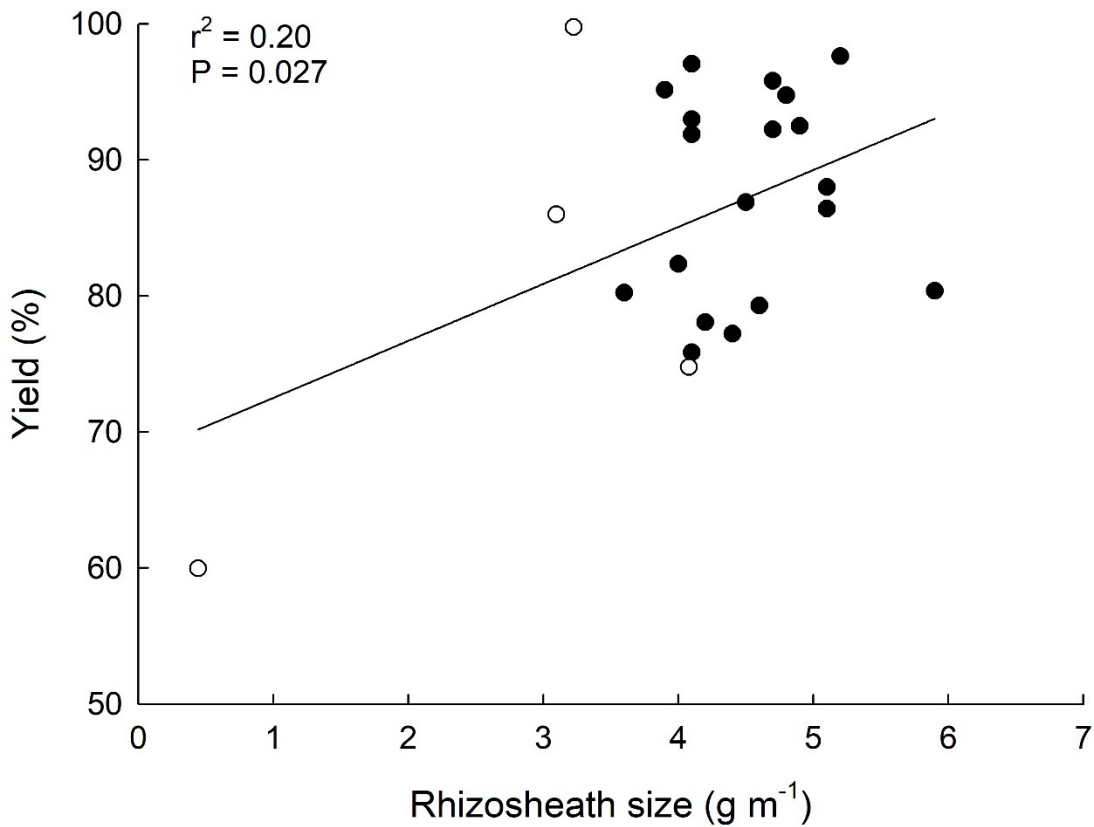
586

587 **Soil structure**

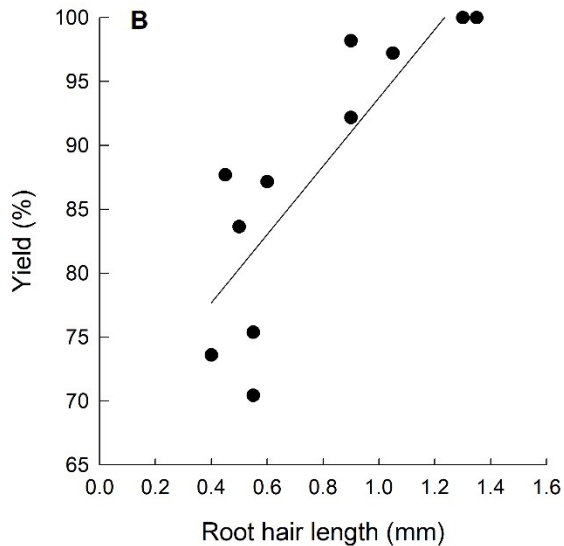
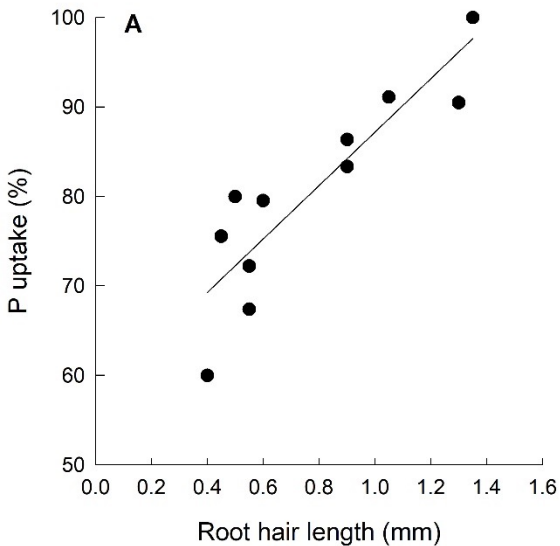
588 the spatial arrangement of soil particles and pores, driven primarily by aggregation
589 and dispersion from roots and soil biology.

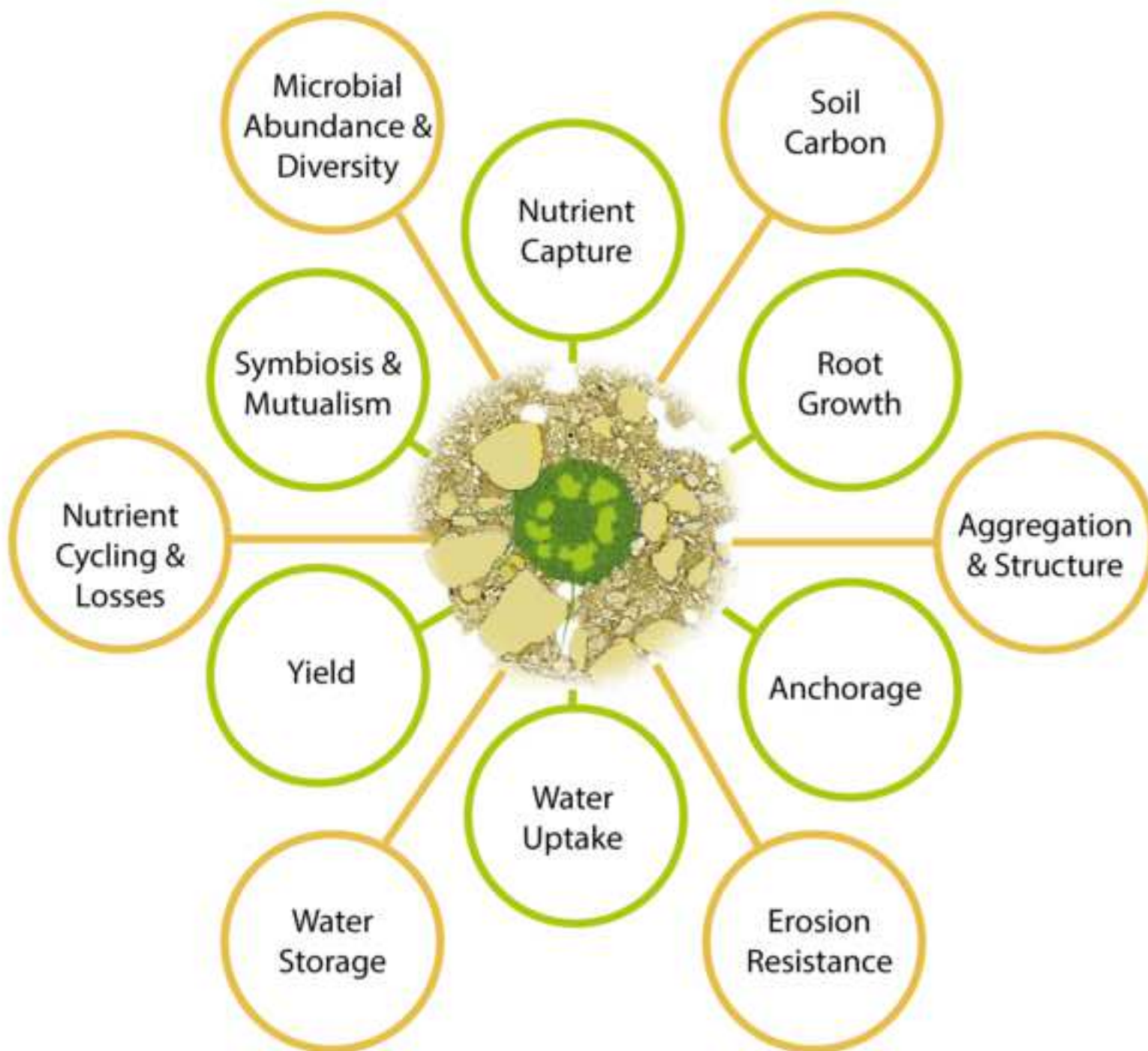


Figure



Figure





Rhizospheres for sustainable soils

Outstanding Questions

Do modern crops have degraded or improved rhizospheres compared to landraces?

What are the fundamental processes driving the biophysical formation of the rhizosphere and how are they influenced by root traits?

Can we improve the rhizosphere for crops by learning from the rhizosphere of wild plants that have evolved in contrasting environments?

Are there specific QTLs to link crop genotypic and rhizosphere phenotypic properties that can benefit breeding programmes?

Can we integrate the complex information on rhizospheres, plant physiology and the soil environment to develop models to identify traits that benefit both plants and soils?

How much do biophysical properties of the rhizosphere contribute to plant performance, particularly across environments causing differing stresses?

How does the plasticity of root hair growth, rhizodeposition and the rhizosphere microbiome to environmental stress alter the biophysical properties of soil?

How do root traits and rhizospheres impact soils and ecosystem services such as water, nutrient and carbon storage over the long-term?