



1 **Water uptake patterns of pea and barley responded to drought but not to cropping systems**

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3 **Author list:** Qing Sun<sup>1</sup>, Valentin H. Klaus<sup>1</sup>, Raphaël Wittwer<sup>2</sup>, Yujie Liu<sup>1</sup>, Marcel G.A. van der  
4 Heijden<sup>2,3</sup>, Anna K. Gilgen<sup>1</sup>, Nina Buchmann<sup>1</sup>

5 <sup>1</sup> Institute of Agricultural Sciences, ETH Zurich, 8092 Zurich, Switzerland

6 <sup>2</sup> Department of Agroecology and Environment, Agroscope, Zurich, Switzerland

7 <sup>3</sup> Department of Plant and Microbial Biology, University of Zurich, Zurich, Switzerland

8

9 **Author for correspondence:** Qing Sun

10 Tel: +41 44 632 34 13

11 Email: [qing.sun@usys.ethz.ch](mailto:qing.sun@usys.ethz.ch); [s.qing@outlook.com](mailto:s.qing@outlook.com)

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13 **Highlights**

- 14 • Pea and barley shifted to shallower water uptake depths in response to drought.
- 15 • No niche differentiation found between pea and barley in a mixture under drought.
- 16 • No differences on changes in uptake depths by drought found among cropping systems.
- 17 • Thus, cropping systems did not compensate drought effects on water uptake patterns.



18 **Abstract**

19 Agricultural production is under threat of water scarcity due to increasingly frequent and severe  
20 drought events under climate change. Whether a change in cropping systems can be used as an  
21 effective adaptation strategy against drought is still unclear. We investigated how plant water  
22 uptake patterns of a field-grown pea-barley (*Pisum sativum* L. and *Hordeum vulgare* L.) mixture, an  
23 important fodder crop, responded to experimental drought under four cropping systems, i.e., organic  
24 intensive tillage, conventional intensive tillage, conventional no-tillage, and organic reduced tillage.  
25 Drought was simulated after crop establishment using rain shelters. Proportional contributions to  
26 plant water uptake from different soil layers were estimated based on stable water isotopes using  
27 Bayesian mixing models. Pea plants always took up proportionally more water from shallower  
28 depths than barley plants. Water uptake patterns of neither species were affected by cropping  
29 systems. Both species showed similar responses to the drought simulation and increased their  
30 proportional contributions from shallow soil layer (0-20 cm) in all cropping systems. Our results  
31 highlight the impact of drought on plant water uptake patterns for two important crop species and  
32 suggest that cropping systems might not be as successful as adaptation strategies against drought as  
33 previously thought.

34 **Keywords:** climate change, conservation tillage, FAST, organic farming, stable water isotope,  
35 water uptake depth

36



## 37 **1 Introduction**

38 Due to climate change, drought events may occur more frequently and become more severe, and  
39 hence water scarcity is worsening in many regions of the world ([Schewe et al., 2014](#); [IPCC, 2019](#)).  
40 Thus, agriculture is facing increasing pressure to ensure food security under aggravating conditions  
41 ([FAO, 2018](#); [FAO, 2019](#)). Although crop breeding has large potential to enhance agricultural  
42 productivity, it should certainly not be seen as the only option. Adapted crop management is  
43 discussed as an additional solution to mitigate yield loss under drought, either by sustaining plant  
44 growth or by enhancing soil water availability ([Cochard, 2002](#); [Bot & Benites, 2005](#); [Kundel et al.,](#)  
45 [2020](#)). Therefore, there is a growing interest in organic farming and conservation tillage (i.e., no  
46 tillage or reduced tillage), as these management practices have been shown to be beneficial to soil  
47 health and water holding capacity, ecosystem stability, as well as environmental sustainability (e.g.,  
48 [Seitz et al., 2019](#); [Teasdale et al., 2007](#); [Hobbs et al., 2008](#)). However, an evaluation of different  
49 cropping systems as a means to support arable crops under drought is still urgently needed ([IPCC,](#)  
50 [2019](#)).

51 Understanding plant water relations under drought plays an increasingly important role in  
52 promoting sustainable agriculture to secure food production ([Penna et al., 2020](#)). Plant water uptake  
53 and water use, particularly during critical growing stages, greatly determine physiological  
54 processes, survival, and ultimately crop productivity ([Boyer & Rao, 1984](#); [Wang et al., 2015](#)).  
55 Although many studies reported plant water uptake patterns in response to drought over a broad  
56 range of species and environments (e.g., [Prechsl et al., 2015](#); [Grossiord et al., 2019](#); [Rasmussen et](#)  
57 [al., 2020](#); [Ding et al., 2021](#)), only very few focused on arable agriculture (e.g., [Zegada-Lizarazu et](#)  
58 [al., 2006](#); [Borrell et al., 2014](#); [Wu et al., 2018](#)) and none compared arable cropping systems.  
59 Moreover, these studies found contrasting responses of crop species to changing environments,  
60 illustrating the current gap of knowledge for cropping systems.

61 Plant water uptake mainly depends on soil water availability, root properties and distributions, as  
62 well as soil-plant interactions ([von Freyberg et al., 2020](#)). Soil water availability depends on soil



63 physical characteristics and local climatic conditions. Root systems, including root distribution and  
64 functionality, are affected by soil physical and nutritional conditions as well as plant growth stages  
65 and species genetics. Soil-root interactions include hydrotropism, root damage caused by drying  
66 soil, and soil water redistribution ([Caldwell et al., 1998](#); [Whitmore & Whalley, 2009](#); [Dietrich et](#)  
67 [al., 2017](#)). Furthermore, plant water uptake patterns are highly dynamic and difficult to track. Since  
68 the 1960s, stable water isotopes, i.e. oxygen and hydrogen isotopes, have been used in  
69 ecohydrology studies ([Gonfiantini et al., 1965](#); [Zimmermann et al., 1967](#)), e.g. to assess root water  
70 uptake patterns ([Rothfuss & Javaux, 2017](#)), to detect foliar water uptake ([Berry et al., 2019](#)), as well  
71 as to partition evapotranspiration fluxes ([Wang et al., 2010](#)). Stable water isotopes have since  
72 become a helpful tool to identify plant water uptake sources and quantify source contributions  
73 ([Dawson & Ehleringer, 1991](#); [Penna et al., 2018](#)). However, studies in agroecosystems have often  
74 focussed on grassland species (e.g. [Bachmann et al., 2015](#); [Prechsl et al., 2015](#)), much less on crop  
75 species as reviewed by [Penna et al. \(2020\)](#).

76 Hence, our experimental field study investigated how different cropping systems, namely organic  
77 vs. conventional farming with intensive vs. conservation tillage, affect plant water uptake patterns  
78 under drought using stable water isotopes. We focused on a pea-barley (*Pisum sativum* L. and  
79 *Hordeum vulgare* L.) mixture, an increasingly popular intercrop for fodder production ([Gilliland &](#)  
80 [Johnston, 1992](#)). We aimed at understanding (1) if pea and barley grown in mixture differ in their  
81 water uptake patterns, (2) how drought affects plant water uptake depths, and (3) if cropping  
82 systems affect water uptake depths differently.

## 83 **2 Materials and Methods**

### 84 **2.1 Research site and experimental setup**

85 The research site is in Rümlang near Zurich (47.26° N, 8.31° E), and belongs to the Swiss federal  
86 agricultural research station Agroscope. Long-term average annual precipitation at the site is 994  
87 mm, and mean annual air temperature is 9.7 °C (1988 to 2017; [MeteoSwiss, 2020](#)). The soil at the  
88 research site is a calcareous Cambisol with 23% clay, 34% silt, and 43% sand, and total soil carbon



89 content of 1.6 to 1.8% ([Loaiza Puerta et al., 2018](#)). The plant available soil depth is 50-70 cm, and  
90 no groundwater is accessible for plants ([Kanton Zürich, 2020](#)). Our study used a sub-set of plots in  
91 the Farming Systems and Tillage Experiment which began in 2009 with a six-year crop rotation that  
92 is typical for Swiss cropping systems (for details see [Wittwer et al., 2017](#)). It combines  
93 conventional (C) and organic (O) farming with intensive or soil conservation tillage practices. The  
94 conventional systems are managed according to the “Proof of Ecological Performance” (PEP)  
95 guidelines of the Swiss Federal Office for Agriculture ([Swiss Federal Council, 2021](#)), which allows  
96 synthetic fertiliser and pesticide applications. The organic systems were managed following the  
97 BioSuisse guidelines, prohibiting the use of mineral fertilisers and synthetic plant protection  
98 products. Intensive tillage (IT) with a mouldboard plough to 20 cm depth followed by seedbed  
99 preparation with a rotary harrow to 5 cm depth was applied in both conventional (C-IT) and organic  
100 systems (O-IT). For conservation tillage, direct sowing and no soil management were implemented  
101 in the no tillage conventional plots (C-NT) but glyphosate was sprayed before sowing of the main  
102 crops for weed control. A disc or rotary harrow, which superficially disturbed the soil for weed  
103 control, was used for reduced tillage in organically managed plots (O-RT) to a maximum depth of  
104 10 cm. These four cropping systems were repeated in four blocks following a Latin square design.  
105 Cropping system plots had an area of 6 m × 30 m.

106 In 2018, the same pea (*Pisum sativum* L. cv. ‘Alvesta’) and barley (*Hordeum vulgare* L. cv.  
107 ‘Eunova’) mixture was sown in all plots on 26 March and harvested on 12 July. No fertilisation was  
108 applied in any of the treatments because the pea plants were expected to fix dinitrogen from the  
109 atmosphere. Portable, tunnel-shaped rain shelters (metal frames of 3 m × 5 m base area and 2.1 m  
110 height at the highest point) with transparent and ultraviolet light-transmissible plastic foil  
111 (Gewächshausfolie UV5, 200 µm, Folitec Agrarfolien-Vertrieb, Germany) were installed to  
112 simulate a drought period from 22 May to 28 June 2018. Shelters were open at both ends as well as  
113 at both sides and had an opening at the top along the full length. This allowed extensive ventilation  
114 and prevented temperature build-up (for technical details see [Hofer et al., 2016](#)). Rain running



115 down the foil was collected in PVC half pipes and directed away from the plots (about 2 m). During  
116 the drought treatment period, 34% of precipitation during the growing season in 2018 (from sowing  
117 to harvest) was excluded from the drought subplots (Table 1). These drought subplots were  
118 established in each cropping system and located directly next to control subplots which received  
119 natural precipitation inputs, resulting in a split-plot layout. A total of 16 experimental plots (four  
120 cropping systems  $\times$  four replicates) with 32 subplots (16 plots  $\times$  two water availability treatments)  
121 were used in this study.

## 122 **2.2 Climatic data and soil water contents**

123 Precipitation and air temperature data (Table 1; Fig. 1) were obtained from a nearby weather  
124 station, Zürich/Kloten (KLO, 47.48° N, 8.54° E, 4.6 km north of the research site, [MeteoSwiss,](#)  
125 [2020](#)). Soil water content (SWC) was continuously measured and recorded at 10 and 40 cm depths  
126 with two replicates per cropping system (EC-5, Decagon Devices Inc., Pullman, WA, USA; factory-  
127 calibrated). Data were averaged at 10 min intervals by data loggers (CR1000 and CR216, Campbell  
128 Scientific Ltd., Loughborough, UK), then averaged for daily values.

## 129 **2.3 Plant and soil water samples for stable isotope analysis**

130 Plant and soil samples were collected on 7 May, 25 June, and 11 July 2018, i.e., before the drought  
131 treatment (BT), at the end of the treatment (ET), and after the treatment (AT), respectively. Pea was  
132 not sampled AT due to progressed senescence. Root crowns were collected for stable isotope  
133 analysis of plant xylem water as this part best reflects the mixture of water sources taken up from  
134 the soil in herbaceous plants ([Barnard \*et al.\*, 2006](#); [von Freyberg \*et al.\*, 2020](#)). Four to six  
135 individuals were collected and pooled into one sample per species and subplot. Root crowns were  
136 cleaned quickly to remove remaining soil and then immediately sealed in air-tight glass tubes (12-  
137 ml extainer, Labco Ltd., Ceredigion, UK). In parallel to the plant sampling, soil samples were  
138 collected close to the sampled plants with a soil auger (1 cm diameter). The soil cores were  
139 separated into six depth layers – 0-5, 5-10, 10-20, 20-30, 30-40, and 40-60 cm – and then  
140 immediately sealed in glass tubes (18 ml, Schott AG, Mitterteich, Germany). All plant and soil



141 samples for stable water isotope analysis were kept in a cool box in the field and then stored  
142 at -18 °C before extraction with cryogenic vacuum distillation ([Ehleringer & Osmond, 1989](#)).

#### 143 **2.4 Stable water isotope analyses**

144 The oxygen and hydrogen stable isotope ratios ( $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and  $\delta^2\text{H}$ ) of extracted water samples were  
145 analysed with an isotope ratio mass spectrometer (IRMS, DeltaplusXP, Finnigan MAT, Bremen,  
146 Germany) using the methods described by [Werner \*et al.\* \(1999\)](#). All  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and  $\delta^2\text{H}$  values are  
147 expressed relative to the Vienna Standard Mean Ocean Water (VSMOW-SLAP, [Craig & Gordon,](#)  
148 [1965](#); [Gat, 2010](#)) in parts-per-thousand (or "per mil", ‰; eq. 1):

$$\delta^{18}\text{O} \text{ or } \delta^2\text{H} = \frac{R_{\text{SAMPLE}}}{R_{\text{STANDARD}}} - 1 \quad (1)$$

149 where  $R$  is the isotope ratio of the rare isotope to the abundant isotope ( $^{18}\text{O}/^{16}\text{O}$  or  $^2\text{H}/^1\text{H}$ ). The long-  
150 term precision of the quality-control standard *IsoLab 1* over the last four years was 0.22‰ for  $\text{d}^{18}\text{O}$   
151 and 0.59‰ for  $\text{d}^2\text{H}$ .

152 The isotopic composition of precipitation at the global scale shows a linear relationship between the  
153  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and  $\delta^2\text{H}$  of meteoric waters (Global Meteoric Water Line, GMWL; [Craig, 1961](#)), described by  
154 the regression line in a "dual-isotope"  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ - $\delta^2\text{H}$  plot (eq. 2):

$$\text{GMWL: } \delta^2\text{H} = 8.2 \times \delta^{18}\text{O} + 11.7 \quad (2)$$

155 Similarly, the Local Meteoric Water Line (LMWL) describes the isotopic composition in rainfall  
156 for a specific location ([Dansgaard, 1964](#)). We fitted the long-term LMWL (1994 to 2017) with  
157 monthly mean data from the closest GNIP station (Global Network of Isotopes in Precipitation,  
158 Buchs Suhr, 47.37° N, 8.08° E, 34 km from the research site; [IAEA, 2020](#); eq. 3), while the LMWL  
159 of 2018 was fitted with data of precipitation samples collected at the research site (after [Prechsl \*et\*](#)  
160 [al., 2014](#); eq. 4) during the growing season and data of 2018 from GNIP Buchs (Fig. S1):

$$\text{long-term LMWL: } \delta^2\text{H} = 7.9 \times \delta^{18}\text{O} + 6.4 \quad (3)$$



$$2018 \text{ LMWL: } \delta^2\text{H} = 8.3 \times \delta^{18}\text{O} + 12.7 \quad (4)$$

## 161 2.5 Bayesian mixing model for plant water uptake

162 Proportional contributions of soil water to plant water uptake (PC) from different depths were  
163 estimated using mixing models from the R package ‘simmr’ (Parnell, 2020) within a Bayesian  
164 framework based on code by Parnell *et al.* (2013). The  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  or  $\delta^2\text{H}$  signatures of soil water from the  
165 six soil layers were used as sources, and plant xylem water was considered the mixture for  
166 modelling in each subplot at different sampling times, i.e., BT, ET, and AT. Missing replicates of  
167 soil samples due to sampling difficulties ( $n = 5$  in total) were filled with mean values of the other  
168 replicates from the same cropping system and treatment to have balanced model inputs. The model  
169 outputs consisted of 10 000 possible combinations of PC from different soil depths from four  
170 Markov chain Monte Carlo Bayesian models with at least 300 000 iterations, 50 000 burns, and 100  
171 times of thinning for each chain. The median of the model outputs on PC (MPC) from each soil  
172 depth was calculated for each subplot and used for statistical analysis on plant water uptake depths.  
173 Compared to the most frequent value of the model outputs, MPCs of all the sources usually sum up  
174 closer to 1. To increase clarity of presentation, PC was grouped into three layers, namely shallow  
175 (0-20 cm), middle (20-40 cm), and deep (40-60 cm) soil layers for further analyses. The PC values  
176 from shallow and middle layers are the sum of PC from soil depths of 0-5, 5-10, and 10-20 cm, and  
177 the sum of PC from soil depths of 20-30 and 30-40 cm, respectively. As  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and  $\delta^2\text{H}$  yielded  
178 similar results, only the model outputs of  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  are described in detail in this paper.

## 179 2.6 Data analyses

180 For data analyses, the whole growing season was divided into three periods based on the drought  
181 treatment, namely before the drought treatment (BT; 26 March to 21 May), the drought treatment  
182 period itself (22 May to 28 June) which was sampled directly before the removal of shelters on 28  
183 June (termed ET, end of treatment), and after the drought treatment (AT, 29 June to 12 July). All  
184 statistical analyses were carried out using R (v3.6.2; R Core Team, 2020). The effects of cropping  
185 systems, drought treatment, and species were tested with linear mixed models using the function





186 *lmer()* from the R package ‘lmerTest’ ([Kuznetsova et al., 2017](#)). ‘Cropping systems (CS)’, ‘drought  
187 treatment (D)’, and ‘blocks’ were three fixed factors ([Dixon, 2016](#)), interactive effects between  
188 ‘CS’ and ‘D’ with ‘plots’ (accounting for the split-plot design) were considered as random factors.  
189 For variables measured on both pea and barley (i.e., stable isotopes of xylem water and MPC for BT  
190 and ET), ‘plant species’, ‘CS’, ‘D’, and ‘blocks’ were tested as fixed factors considering interactive  
191 effects among ‘plant species’, ‘CS’, and ‘D’ with ‘plots’ and ‘subplots’ as random factors.  
192 Diagnostic plots were checked for normality and homoscedasticity of residuals for model  
193 assumptions. Differences among cropping systems and between treatments or species were tested  
194 by the Tukey HSD (honestly significant difference) test using the function *glht()*, from the R  
195 package ‘multcomp’ ([Hothorn et al., 2008](#)).

## 196 **3 Results**

### 197 **3.1 Environmental conditions in drought and control subplots**

198 Air temperatures in 2018 were very high compared to the long-term mean, in particular in May and  
199 June, with a daily average air temperature of 15.8 and 18.8 °C, respectively, while the long-term  
200 (1988 to 2017) mean air temperatures in these two months were 13.9 and 17.2 °C, respectively  
201 (Table 1; Fig. 1). Annual precipitation was relatively low (Table 1), with no precipitation between  
202 14 June and 2 July 2018, and an even more pronounced drought period in July (Fig. 1). Thus,  
203 average daily soil water contents (SWC) in the control subplots ranged from 16% to 29% at 10 cm  
204 depth and slightly higher, from 22% to 29%, at 40 cm depth, prior to the rain event on 3 July 2018.  
205 After this rain event, SWC increased in all cropping systems at both depths (Fig. 2a, b). Variations  
206 in SWC among cropping systems were small, particularly during the natural drought in June.  
207 SWC in drought subplots of all cropping systems decreased continuously during the drought  
208 treatment (22 May to 28 June 2018), averaging to 13% at 10 cm and to 19% at 40 cm soil depth  
209 (Fig. 2 c, d). SWC at 10 cm did not show any pronounced differences among cropping systems,  
210 while SWC at 40 cm tended to be slightly higher in cropping systems with conservation tillage (O-  
211 RT and C-NT) compared to systems with intensive tillage (O-IT and C-IT; Fig. 2b, d).



### 212 3.2 Stable isotopes in soil water and plant xylem water

213 In the dual-isotope space, stable oxygen and hydrogen isotope ratios of soil and plant xylem waters  
214 were strongly related with each other ( $R^2 = 0.89$  and  $0.85$ , respectively; Fig. S1) and generally fell  
215 below the local meteoric water line (LMWL) of 2018, representing evaporation. Stable isotope  
216 signatures of xylem water were lower than the LMWL but higher than those of soil water,  
217 indicating that xylem water isotope signatures were mixtures of the original source precipitation and  
218 the pool of soil water, affected by different degrees of fractionation.

219 The stable water isotope profiles of soil water showed a characteristic pattern at all times, for all  
220 cropping systems and both treatments, with most enriched values in the uppermost soil and  
221 increasingly depleted values with increasing soil depth (Table S1; Fig. 3 for  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ ; Fig. S2 for  $\delta^2\text{H}$ ).

222 The drought treatment showed no significant effects before the treatment (BT) for  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  nor  $\delta^2\text{H}$   
223 (except for  $\delta^2\text{H}$  at 20-30 cm; Table 2). In contrast, at the end of the drought treatment (ET), soil  
224 water  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values from 20-60 cm (20-30, 30-40, and 40-60 cm) as well as  $\delta^2\text{H}$  values from all  
225 depths were strongly affected by the drought treatment (all  $P < 0.05$ ; Table 2), with more depleted  
226 signatures in the drought than in control subplots due to the exclusion of more enriched summer  
227 precipitation. Even after the shelters were removed and the treatment had been finished (AT), the  
228 drought treatment still significantly affected both  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and  $\delta^2\text{H}$  of soil water, albeit only in deeper  
229 soil depths (30-40 and 40-60 cm for  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and 40-60 cm for  $\delta^2\text{H}$ ; all  $P < 0.05$ ; Table 2). Overall,  
230 cropping systems did not significantly affect the stable isotopic signatures in soil water at any time  
231 (Table 2).

232 Pea xylem water was always significantly more enriched in  $^{18}\text{O}$  and  $^2\text{H}$  compared to barley (all  $P <$   
233  $0.001$ ; Table S2). The  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values in xylem water for pea ranged between  $-8.8\text{‰}$  and  $-5.7\text{‰}$ , and  
234 significantly lower between  $-10.1\text{‰}$  and  $-5.8\text{‰}$  for barley (averages per cropping system, treatment,  
235 and time; Table 3; Table S2). Similarly, the  $\delta^2\text{H}$  values in xylem water for pea ranged  
236 between  $-65.6\text{‰}$  and  $-52.1\text{‰}$ , and significantly lower between  $-74\text{‰}$  and  $-47.1\text{‰}$  for barley (Table  
237 3; Table S2). Overall, isotopic signatures in xylem water became more enriched in  $^{18}\text{O}$  and  $^2\text{H}$



238 during the growing season for both pea and barley (Fig. 3, Table S2, Fig. S2). On average, the  
239 xylem  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  for pea was  $-8.5\text{‰}$  before the treatment (BT) and  $-7.2\text{‰}$  at the end of the treatment  
240 (ET), compared to  $-9.8\text{‰}$  (BT),  $-8.8\text{‰}$  (ET), and  $-6.3\text{‰}$  after the treatment (AT) for barley. While  
241 average  $\delta^2\text{H}$  values for pea were  $-64.1\text{‰}$  (BT) and  $-57.6\text{‰}$  (ET),  $\delta^2\text{H}$  values averaged  $-72.2\text{‰}$   
242 (BT),  $-68.6\text{‰}$  (ET), and  $-50.8\text{‰}$  (AT) for barley (Fig. 3; Table S1; Fig. S2). Since there was a  
243 strong relationship between  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and  $\delta^2\text{H}$  in xylem water (Fig. S1;  $R^2 = 0.85$ ), our analyses are  
244 mainly focused on  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  in the text (but see Table 3, Table S2, and Fig. S2 for analyses on  $\delta^2\text{H}$ ).  
245 For pea, cropping systems did not significantly affect  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  nor  $\delta^2\text{H}$  in xylem water at either time  
246 (BT and ET; Table S2), while the drought treatment significantly affected the isotopic signatures of  
247  $^{18}\text{O}$  only at the end of treatment (ET:  $P = 0.022$ ; no interactions between cropping systems and  
248 drought treatment:  $P = 0.085$ ; Table S2).  $^{18}\text{O}$  in pea xylem water were significantly more enriched  
249 in the drought than in the control subplots (on average,  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  of  $-6.9\text{‰}$  and  $-7.7\text{‰}$ , respectively).  
250 In contrast to pea, cropping systems significantly affected  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  in barley xylem water (ET:  $P =$   
251  $0.035$ ; Table S2). The drought treatment significantly affected the isotope signatures of both  $^{18}\text{O}$   
252 and  $^2\text{H}$  at the end of treatment (ET: both  $P < 0.01$ ; no interactions between cropping systems and  
253 drought treatment; Table S2). However, unlike pea, the xylem water of barley showed significantly  
254 lower  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values in drought than in control subplots for all cropping systems (on average,  $-9.0\text{‰}$   
255 and  $-8.6\text{‰}$ , respectively), although the difference was small (Table S2). A similar pattern was also  
256 observed for  $\delta^2\text{H}$  at the end of treatment (ET), with significantly lower values on average in drought  
257 than in control subplots (ET:  $-71.8\text{‰}$  and  $-65.4\text{‰}$ , respectively).

### 258 3.3 Modelled plant water uptake depths

259 The outputs of the Bayesian mixing model on the proportional contribution to total plant water  
260 uptake (PC) showed highly significantly different behaviours of pea and barley, mirroring some of  
261 the differences seen in the xylem water isotopic signatures of these two species (Fig. 4; Fig. 5).  
262 Since frequency density distributions provide not only one estimate per soil depth, but a full  
263 frequency distribution, the medians were calculated for each soil depth to assist in the analyses



264 (Table S3 for results from  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ ; Table S4 for results from  $\delta^2\text{H}$ ). As both stable isotope signatures  
265 showed similar results, we here focus on results derived from  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  only. In addition, we grouped  
266 the uptake depths into shallow (0-20 cm as sum of 0-5, 5-10, and 10-20 cm), middle (20-40 cm as  
267 sum of 20-30 and 30-40 cm), and deep (the original 40-60 cm) soil layers (Table 4; Table 5).  
268 Overall, both species took up water from the entire soil profile studied (0 to 60 cm soil depth), albeit  
269 with different proportions depending on species, time (i.e., BT, ET, and AT) and treatment (i.e.,  
270 control vs. drought; Table 4; Table 5).

271 For pea, soil water contributions to total plant water uptake decreased with increasing soil depth in  
272 both control and drought subplots before (BT) and at the end of the treatment (ET) for all cropping  
273 systems (Fig. 4). The median of PC values (MPC) differed significantly among shallow (0-20 cm),  
274 middle (20-40 cm), and deep (40-60 cm) layers, averaging 47%, 33%, and 16%, respectively, for  
275 both treatments and all cropping systems (BT; Table 5; Fig. 4a, c). At ET, pea plants subjected to  
276 drought significantly shifted their water uptake to even higher contributions from the shallow layer  
277 (67%) and less uptake from middle (22%) and deep (8%) soil layers compared to BT (Table 5; Fig.  
278 4d; Table S5). Pea plants in control subplots did not display such a significant shift, but remained  
279 with average MPC from shallow, middle, and deep soil layers of 52%, 31%, and 14%, respectively  
280 (Table 5; Fig. 4b; Table S5). Cropping systems did not significantly affect MPC before (BT) or at  
281 the end of (ET) treatment (also no interactions between cropping systems and drought, Table 5; Fig.  
282 4d).

283 In contrast to pea, barley plants showed very different water uptake patterns before the treatment  
284 (BT), with significantly lower PC from the shallow soil layer compared to the middle and deep  
285 layers. For barley, MPC values averaged 19%, 44%, and 35% for shallow, middle, and deep soil  
286 layers, respectively, for both treatments and all cropping systems (Fig. 5a, d). However, at the end  
287 of the treatment (ET), barley plants significantly increased the contributions from the shallow layer  
288 in drought subplots, similar to pea (Table 5; Fig. 5e; Table S5), resulting in MPC values of 38%,  
289 41%, and 18% from shallow, middle, and deep soil layers, respectively. The MPC further shifted



290 after the treatment (AT) to values of 62%, 27%, and 10% from shallow, middle, and deep layers,  
291 respectively (Fig. 5f). Also in control subplots, barley plants showed the same significant shift from  
292 BT to ET, with MPC values at ET of 35%, 34%, and 29% from shallow, middle, and deep layers,  
293 respectively (Table 5; Fig. 5b; Table S5), and from ET to AT with MPC values AT of 59%, 29%,  
294 and 12% from shallow, middle, and deep layers, respectively (Table 5; Fig. 5c; Table S5). Similar  
295 to pea, barley water uptake patterns were not significantly affected by cropping systems (Table 5).

296 Overall, MPC values from shallow and deep layers for pea and barley were positively correlated ( $r$   
297 = 0.64 and 0.55, respectively; Fig. S3). This means when barley took up more water from the  
298 shallow layer, so did pea.

299 Organic as well as reduced/no tillage cropping systems are discussed as adaptation strategies under  
300 climate change conditions to ensure arable crop production. Thus, we analysed plant water uptake  
301 depths in drought subplots at the end of treatment (ET) more in detail, although cropping systems  
302 showed no significant effects on water uptake depths for either species and no interactions occurred  
303 between cropping systems and drought treatment (Table 5). Pea plants in both intensive systems (C-  
304 IT and O-IT) showed significantly higher (O-IT: 77%) or similar (C-IT: 65%) contributions to total  
305 water uptake (as MPC) from the shallow layer (0-20 cm) compared to conservation tillage systems  
306 (64% in both C-NT and O-RT; Table 5; Fig. 4d). Conversely, contributions from the middle layer  
307 (20-40 cm) for pea at the end of treatment (ET) were only 15% in O-IT compared to 24% in the  
308 other three cropping systems (O-RT, C-IT, and C-NT). Differences among cropping systems under  
309 drought were even smaller for barley than for pea (Table 5; Fig. 5e). MPC values of barley for  
310 uptake from the shallow layer were 47% (C-IT), 39% (O-RT), 31% (O-IT), and 32% (C-NT).  
311 Conversely, contributions from the middle layer were the largest in C-NT (47%), followed by O-IT  
312 (44%) and O-RT (41%), and lowest in C-IT (34%).

#### 313 **4 Discussion**

314 Root water uptake patterns are often discussed for their important role in plant water relations, but  
315 only few studies considered arable crop species ([Penna et al., 2020](#)). In addition, most studies on



316 responses of crop root water uptake patterns to drought took place in pots or under controlled  
317 conditions (e.g., [Zegada-Lizarazu & Iijima, 2004](#); [Araki & Iijima, 2005](#)), so that information on  
318 field conditions is particularly scarce, except maize ([Ma & Song, 2016](#)), wheat ([Ma & Song, 2018](#)),  
319 oilseed rape, and barley in monoculture ([Wu et al., 2016](#)). Furthermore, studies comparing the role  
320 of different cropping systems for crop water uptake are completely lacking. Here, we showed for  
321 the first time that root water uptake patterns of field-grown pea and barley in mixture responded to  
322 drought but not to different cropping systems. Subjected to a pronounced drought period (37 d  
323 without precipitation), both crop species shifted to relying more on shallow soil layer (0-20 cm) for  
324 water uptake. This drought response was independent of the cropping system, i.e. organic vs.  
325 conventional farming or intensive vs. conservation tillage.

326 Previous research on root water uptake patterns in crop as well as grassland species showed  
327 ambiguous responses to drought. For some species, root water uptake depth was dependent on root  
328 distribution during wet periods, but on soil water availability during dry periods ([Sprenger et al.,](#)  
329 [2016](#)). Therefore, utilising more water from deep than from shallow soil layer is typically the  
330 anticipated drought response, such as barley in monoculture ([Wu et al., 2018](#)), maize ([Ma & Song,](#)  
331 [2016](#)), wheat, rice, soybean ([Zegada-Lizarazu & Iijima, 2004](#)), or chickpea ([Purushothaman et al.,](#)  
332 [2017](#)). However, other studies reported that crop and grassland species do not take up water from  
333 deeper depths under drought but even absorb more water from shallow soil layer (e.g., barley in  
334 monoculture, maize, pigeon pea, cowpea; [Zegada-Lizarazu & Iijima, 2004](#)), or grassland species  
335 ([Hoekstra et al., 2014](#); [Prechsl et al., 2015](#); [Wu et al., 2016](#)). This is in accordance with our results  
336 in which both pea and barley increased their proportional water uptake from shallow layer (0-20  
337 cm) at the end of treatment (ET) in the drought subplots. Although soil water contents (SWC) were  
338 still higher at 40 cm than at 10 cm at the end of the treatment (ET; Fig. 2c, d), SWC at 40 cm and 10  
339 cm depths were both very low. Thus, the whole soil profile showed very low water availability at  
340 the end of the treatment (ET), and fine root distributions most likely dominated plant water uptake  
341 patterns.



342 Rooting profiles for legumes with increased proportions of deeper roots under drought, e.g., below  
343 23-30 cm, have been reported ([Benjamin & Nielsen, 2006](#); [Purushothaman et al., 2017](#)), although  
344 different responses in root growth to drought were found among different varieties ([Kashiwagi et](#)  
345 [al., 2006](#); [Kumar et al., 2012](#); [Purushothaman et al., 2017](#)). The architecture of legume root systems  
346 is strongly affected by rhizobia, which typically find better living conditions in terms of oxygen and  
347 nitrogen concentrations higher up in the soil profile than at greater depths ([Concha & Doerner,](#)  
348 [2020](#)), also in dry soils. Moreover, barley grown under drought conditions has been reported to  
349 develop proportionally more shallow roots (0-20 cm depth) relative to deeper soil depths ([Carvalho](#)  
350 [et al., 2014](#)). Also, studies on grassland plants (both legume and grass species) found increasing  
351 root biomass production in shallow soil depths (0-15 cm) in response to drought (e.g., [Prechsl et al.,](#)  
352 [2015](#)). Moreover, shifting to shallower water uptake depths during drought might actually be  
353 beneficial for nutrient acquisition ([Querejeta et al., 2021](#)), since not only concentrations of soil  
354 water and atmospheric N<sub>2</sub> are higher in the top soil than in the deeper soil, but also litter inputs for  
355 N mineralisation. Although we did not investigate root distributions for either crop species, they  
356 most likely follow such evolutionary strategies as well, in addition to recent crop breeding efforts  
357 leading to less deep root systems in general ([Canadell et al., 1996](#); [Thorup-Kristensen et al., 2020](#)).  
358 Thus, besides the low soil moisture within the entire soil profiles, root systems biology clearly  
359 contributed to the shift towards shallower water uptake depths under drought for both pea and  
360 barley in this study.

361 The year 2018 was characterised by low precipitation during our experimental period, which  
362 affected pea and barley plants in our control subplots differently (Fig. 6a, b). While pea did not shift  
363 its water uptake pattern (Fig. 6a; Table S5), barley grown in the control subplots reacted very  
364 similar to the natural 11-d dry period (before the ET sampling, 14 to 25 June; Fig. 2) as barley  
365 subjected to our drought treatment, namely with a clear shift from deep (40-60 cm) to shallow (0-20  
366 cm) soil layer (Fig. 6b, d; Table S5). However, barley still relied more on water uptake from the  
367 deep soil layer during this natural dry period than under the experimental drought ( $P = 0.017$ ; Table



368 5). Hence, these different reactions of the two species to the dry period clearly indicated that barley  
369 was more susceptible than pea even to a mild water stress. This observation is fully in line with  
370 measurements of stem hydraulic traits (i.e., loss of xylem conductance) from the same experiment  
371 ([Sun et al., 2021](#)). Barley plants lost xylem conductance much earlier than pea plants when xylem  
372 water potentials decreased. In addition, legumes like pea can maintain low stomatal conductance to  
373 avoid water stress without compromising photosynthesis when growing under conditions with  
374 limiting water supply, due to their high foliar N concentrations ([Adams et al., 2018](#)). This adds to  
375 the hydraulic trait benefits of pea and explains why pea was less affected by the natural dry period.  
376 Nevertheless, as shown in our study, if severities and frequencies of droughts increase in the future,  
377 one can expect negative consequences not only on the performance of barley, but also of pea  
378 ([Martin & Jamieson, 1996](#)).

379 Moreover, the two species growing together in the pea-barley mixture showed distinct niches for  
380 root water uptake before drought, with pea relying more on water from shallow (0-20 cm) and  
381 barley from deep (40-60 cm) soil layers, in accordance with resource partitioning in the absence of  
382 water limitation as observed in intercrops, e.g., pearl millet and cowpea ([Zegada-Lizarazu et al.,](#)  
383 [2006](#)) and in mixed-species grasslands (e.g., [Hoekstra et al., 2014](#)). However, the niches became  
384 more similar under drought conditions, contradicting ecological theory which postulates more  
385 pronounced niche differentiation and less niche overlap under stressful conditions, such as during a  
386 drought (see [Nippert & Knapp, 2007](#); [Silvertown et al., 2015](#); [Guderle et al., 2018](#)). However, our  
387 results were in line with results from biodiversity studies in temperate grasslands ([Bachmann et al.,](#)  
388 [2015](#); [Barry et al., 2020](#); [Hoekstra et al., 2014](#)) which also did not show niche differentiation in  
389 response to increased competition or drought [ENREF 5](#). Thus, further detailed knowledge on the  
390 dynamics of intercrop water uptake patterns is needed to solve this contradiction and to decrease the  
391 uncertainty for arable crop production now and under future climate conditions.

392 As global agriculture has already been considerably compromised by and become increasingly  
393 sensitive to climate change ([Ortiz-Bobea et al., 2021](#)), farming practices such as organic





394 management and conservation tillage are being discussed widely. They have been shown to  
395 improve general soil conditions compared to conventional management and intensive tillage,  
396 particularly under drought ([Bot & Benites, 2005](#); [Gomiero \*et al.\*, 2011](#); [Choudhary \*et al.\*, 2016](#)). For  
397 instance, organic management and conservation tillage can increase soil water holding capacity,  
398 therefore providing higher water availability than conventional management and intensive tillage  
399 (e.g., [Colombi \*et al.\*, 2019](#); [Kundel \*et al.\*, 2020](#)). In this study, the systems with conservation tillage  
400 (C-NT and O-RT) indeed showed slightly higher SWC than systems with intensive tillage (C-IT  
401 and O-IT) at 40 cm (Fig. 2d). However, this did not result in any benefit for root water uptake  
402 patterns of pea and barley against drought. Water uptake of both species shifted to the shallow layer  
403 (0-20 cm) in all cropping systems under drought, without cropping system effects or interactive  
404 effects between cropping systems and drought treatment. The relatively short period that annual  
405 crop species are growing under these conditions might limit the potential benefits from improved  
406 soil conditions present in those systems (e.g., [Dennert \*et al.\*, 2018](#); [Loaiza Puerta \*et al.\*, 2018](#);  
407 [Schluter \*et al.\*, 2018](#)). Although it remains to be seen if the observed behaviour of a pea-barley  
408 mixture also holds true for other crop species, our results clearly challenge the potential of cropping  
409 management under temperate climate as a tool to adapt arable agriculture to climate change.

## 410 **5 Conclusions**

411 Water uptake patterns of pea and barley both shifted under drought in all cropping systems and both  
412 species relied more on water from the shallow soil layer (0-20 cm) than on water from deeper in the  
413 soil profile. This was also the case for organic and reduced/no tillage cropping systems, which are  
414 often discussed as beneficial for crop performance, particular under water-limited conditions, and  
415 are thus suggested as adapted cropping management practices under a future climate. However, in  
416 this study, we showed for the first time that cropping systems could not counteract the drought  
417 effects on plant water uptake patterns for pea and barley grown in mixture. It remains to be seen if  
418 this observation also holds true for other, major crops grown under water-limited conditions.



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429 **Author Contribution**

430 NB, AKG, RW, and MH designed the study; QS analysed the data; QS, AKG, and NB wrote the  
431 first drafts of the manuscript; all authors discussed the results, revised, and agreed on the final  
432 version of the manuscript.

433 **Conflict of Interest**

434 None declared.

435 **Supporting Information**

436 Additional supporting information can be found in the online version of this article.

437 Table S1 Stable water isotope values ( $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and  $\delta^2\text{H}$ , ‰) of soil in control and drought subplots  
438 under different cropping systems.

439 Table S2 Effects of cropping systems, drought treatment and the interaction on stable isotope data  
440 ( $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and  $\delta^2\text{H}$ , ‰) of pea and barley as well as mean  $\pm$  1 SE for each species in control and drought  
441 subplots under different cropping systems.



- 442 Table S3 Effects of cropping systems, drought treatment and the interaction on the median  
443 proportional contributions from different soil depths to water uptake of pea and barley as well as  
444 mean  $\pm$  1 SE of MPC using  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  data.
- 445 Table S4 Effects of cropping systems, drought treatment and the interaction on the median  
446 proportional contributions from different soil depths to water uptake of pea and barley as well as  
447 mean  $\pm$  1 SE MPC using  $\delta^2\text{H}$  data.
- 448 Table S5 Effects of cropping systems, sampling times and the interaction on the proportional  
449 contributions from different soil depths to water uptake of pea and barley simulated from  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  data  
450 in control and drought subplots.
- 451 Fig. S1 Dual isotope plot of soil and plant samples from control and drought subplots.
- 452 Fig. S2  $\delta^2\text{H}$  values of soil water from different depths and plant xylem water in each cropping  
453 system in 2018.
- 454 Fig. S3 Relationships of median proportional contributions to plant water uptake from the shallow  
455 and deep soil layers of pea vs. barley.
- 456 **Data Availability Statement**
- 457 The data that support the findings of this study will be openly available in the ETH Zurich  
458 Repository at <https://www.research-collection.ethz.ch/>.



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646 composition of the water. *Isotopes in hydrology. Proceedings of a symposium.*
- 647



648 Table 1 Precipitation and air temperature data from a nearby weather station, Zürich/Kloten (KLO,  
649 47.48° N, 8.54° E, 4.6 km north of the research site, [MeteoSwiss, 2020](#)) as well as dates for the  
650 growing season (from sowing to harvest) and treatment periods in 2018.

	Date	Total precipitation (mm)	Mean air temperature (°C)
Long-term annual (1988-2017)	1 January to 31 December	994	9.7
Annual (2018)	1 January to 31 December	856	11.2
Long-term May (1988-2017)	1 to 31 May	105	13.9
May 2018	1 to 31 May	102	15.8
Long-term June (1988-2017)	1 to 30 June	102	17.2
June 2018	1 to 30 June	40	18.8
Growing season 2018	26 March to 12 July	231	15.7
Before drought treatment	26 March to 21 May	108	12.7
End of drought treatment	22 May to 28 June	79 (34% of the growing season)	18.7
After drought treatment	29 June to 12 July	44	20.0

651



652 Table 2 Effects of cropping systems (CS,  $df = 3$ ), drought treatment (D,  $df = 1$ ) and the interaction  
 653 (CS  $\times$  D,  $df = 3$ ) on stable water isotopes ( $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  and  $\delta^2\text{H}$ ) in different soil depths before the drought  
 654 treatment on 7 May, at the end of treatment on 25 June, and after the treatment on 11 July (in 2018  
 655 tested by linear mixed models).

Isotope	Depth (cm)	CS	D	CS $\times$ D	Blocks
Before drought treatment					
$\delta^{18}\text{O}$	0-5	0.580	0.555	0.458	0.788
	5-10	0.119	0.276	0.073	0.367
	10-20	0.489	0.836	0.516	0.459
	20-30	0.201	0.164	0.128	0.069
	30-40	0.135	0.437	0.882	0.311
	40-60	0.960	0.898	0.845	0.404
$\delta^2\text{H}$	0-5	0.831	0.120	0.423	0.982
	5-10	0.158	0.118	0.056	0.516
	10-20	0.467	0.416	0.574	0.571
	20-30	0.105	<b>0.026</b>	0.064	0.181
	30-40	0.089	0.125	0.959	0.308
	40-60	0.560	0.291	0.853	0.436
End of drought treatment					
$\delta^{18}\text{O}$	0-5	0.316	0.835	0.253	0.367
	5-10	0.189	0.247	0.766	0.168
	10-20	0.080	0.603	0.920	0.673
	20-30	0.898	<b>&lt;0.001</b>	0.852	0.94
	30-40	0.437	<b>&lt;0.001</b>	0.651	0.954
	40-60	0.073	<b>0.008</b>	0.616	0.594
$\delta^2\text{H}$	0-5	0.295	<b>&lt;0.001</b>	0.168	0.479
	5-10	0.330	<b>0.005</b>	0.859	0.215
	10-20	0.091	<b>0.029</b>	0.700	0.659
	20-30	0.889	<b>&lt;0.001</b>	0.863	0.820
	30-40	0.388	<b>&lt;0.001</b>	0.551	0.970
	40-60	0.136	<b>0.006</b>	0.469	0.809
After drought treatment					
$\delta^{18}\text{O}$	0-5	0.393	0.059	0.848	0.291
	5-10	0.730	0.672	0.111	<b>0.031</b>
	10-20	0.538	0.612	0.734	0.993
	20-30	0.933	0.136	0.936	0.944
	30-40	0.881	<b>0.048</b>	0.979	0.772
	40-60	0.751	<b>0.001</b>	0.560	0.380
$\delta^2\text{H}$	0-5	0.776	0.056	0.667	0.421
	5-10	0.117	0.958	0.649	0.636
	10-20	0.228	0.887	0.926	0.815
	20-30	0.710	0.104	0.888	0.705
	30-40	0.877	0.050	0.919	0.699
	40-60	0.841	<b>&lt;0.001</b>	0.493	0.484

656 CS and D were tested as two fixed effect factors for all subplots ( $P$  values are given). Significant  
 657 differences are shown in bold ( $P < 0.05$ ).



658 Table 3 Effects of species (df = 1), cropping systems (CS, df = 3), drought treatment (D, df = 1) and  
 659 the interaction (species × CS, df = 3; species × D, df = 1; CS × D, df = 3; species × CS × D, df = 3)  
 660 on stable water isotopes ( $\delta^2\text{H}$  and  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$ ) of pea and barley before the drought treatment on 7 May  
 661 and at the end of treatment on 25 June in 2018 tested by linear mixed models.

Factor	Before drought treatment		End of drought treatment	
	$\delta^{18}\text{O}$	$\delta^2\text{H}$	$\delta^{18}\text{O}$	$\delta^2\text{H}$
Species	< <b>0.001</b>	< <b>0.001</b>	< <b>0.001</b>	< <b>0.001</b>
CS	0.251	0.382	<b>0.038</b>	0.055
D	0.106	< <b>0.001</b>	0.143	<b>0.001</b>
Species × CS	0.184	<b>0.023</b>	0.312	0.348
Species × D	0.796	0.486	<b>0.004</b>	<b>0.016</b>
CS × D	0.190	0.117	0.051	0.081
Species × CS × D	0.290	<b>0.045</b>	0.120	0.070
Blocks	0.485	0.599	<b>0.004</b>	0.162

662

663 CS and D were tested as two fixed effect factors for all subplots ( $P$  values are given). Significant  
 664 differences are shown in bold ( $P < 0.05$ ).



665 Table 4 Effects of species (df = 1), cropping systems (CS, df = 3), drought treatment (D, df = 1) and  
666 the interaction (species × CS, df = 3; species × D, df = 1; CS × D, df = 3; species × CS × D, df = 3)  
667 on the median proportional contributions from different soil depths to water uptake (MPC) of pea  
668 and barley before the drought treatment on 7 May and the end of treatment on 25 June in 2018  
669 tested by linear mixed models.

Factor	Before drought treatment			End of drought treatment		
	0-20 cm	20-40 cm	40-60 cm	0-20 cm	20-40 cm	40-60 cm
Species	<b>&lt;0.001</b>	<b>0.036</b>	<b>&lt;0.001</b>	<b>&lt;0.001</b>	<b>&lt;0.001</b>	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
CS	0.506	0.555	0.992	0.374	0.440	0.252
D	0.849	0.775	0.629	<b>0.003</b>	0.546	<b>0.004</b>
Species × CS	0.255	0.865	0.702	0.303	0.799	0.180
Species × D	0.424	0.619	0.336	<b>0.009</b>	<b>0.001</b>	0.359
CS × D	0.454	0.293	0.098	0.278	0.811	0.141
Species × CS × D	0.404	0.064	0.079	0.201	0.315	0.495
Blocks	0.360	0.667	0.534	<b>0.008</b>	0.115	<b>0.016</b>

670

671 MPC was derived from 10 000 simulations by mixing models using  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  data. Proportional  
672 contribution from 0-20 cm is the sum from 0-5, 5-10, and 10-20 cm, and 20-40 cm is the sum from  
673 20-30 and 30-40 cm. CS and D were tested as two fixed effect factors for all subplots (*P* values are  
674 given). Significant differences are shown in bold (*P* < 0.05).

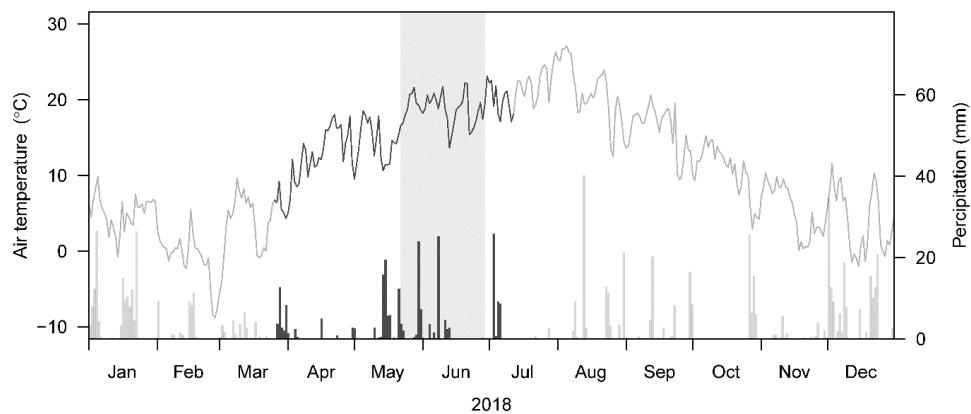


675 Table 5 Effects of cropping systems (CS,  $df = 3$ ), drought treatment (D,  $df = 1$ ) and the interaction  
 676 (CS  $\times$  D,  $df = 3$ ) as well as the median proportional contributions from different soil depths to water  
 677 uptake (MPC) of pea and barley before the drought treatment on 7 May, at the end of treatment on  
 678 25 June, and after the drought treatment on 11 July in 2018 tested by linear mixed models.

Species	Depth (cm)	<i>P</i> value from linear mixed models				Mean $\pm$ 1 SE								
		CS	D	CS $\times$ D	Blocks	Control				Drought				
						C-IT	C-NT	O-IT	O-RT	C-IT	C-NT	O-IT	O-RT	
Before drought treatment														
Pea	0-20	0.823	0.818	0.313	0.780	45 $\pm$ 8	46 $\pm$ 9	50 $\pm$ 6	48 $\pm$ 5	47 $\pm$ 9	AB 54 $\pm$ 7	B 34 $\pm$ 9	A 50 $\pm$ 4	AB
	20-40	0.557	0.834	0.913	0.656	37 $\pm$ 6	29 $\pm$ 3	32 $\pm$ 4	36 $\pm$ 3	35 $\pm$ 7	27 $\pm$ 3	36 $\pm$ 8	33 $\pm$ 3	
	40-60	0.746	0.665	0.216	0.545	16 $\pm$ 3	20 $\pm$ 8	12 $\pm$ 2	13 $\pm$ 2	14 $\pm$ 3	14 $\pm$ 4	26 $\pm$ 11	13 $\pm$ 1	
Barley	0-20	0.302	0.475	0.535	0.058	10 $\pm$ 3	26 $\pm$ 12	17 $\pm$ 9	14 $\pm$ 5	25 $\pm$ 11	AB 30 $\pm$ 11	B 11 $\pm$ 7	A 14 $\pm$ 6	AB
	20-40	0.736	0.707	0.156	0.785	41 $\pm$ 16	ab 39 $\pm$ 9	ab 65 $\pm$ 16	b 22 $\pm$ 11	a 55 $\pm$ 15	AB 29 $\pm$ 10	A 37 $\pm$ 21	AB 63 $\pm$ 13	B
	40-60	0.940	0.467	0.100	0.634	49 $\pm$ 19	ab 31 $\pm$ 12	ab 15 $\pm$ 7	a 63 $\pm$ 17	b 18 $\pm$ 6	38 $\pm$ 19	49 $\pm$ 24	20 $\pm$ 8	
End of drought treatment														
Pea	0-20	0.416	<b>0.001</b>	0.17	<b>0.010</b>	63 $\pm$ 6	b 46 $\pm$ 13	a 48 $\pm$ 9	ab 51 $\pm$ 4	ab 65 $\pm$ 4	AB 64 $\pm$ 14	A 77 $\pm$ 12	B 64 $\pm$ 7	A
	20-40	0.416	<b>0.003</b>	0.703	<b>0.021</b>	27 $\pm$ 5	a 36 $\pm$ 9	b 31 $\pm$ 3	ab 31 $\pm$ 1	ab 23 $\pm$ 2	AB 24 $\pm$ 9	B 15 $\pm$ 8	A 24 $\pm$ 5	B
	40-60	0.398	<b>0.008</b>	0.272	<b>0.027</b>	8 $\pm$ 1	a 16 $\pm$ 4	ab 18 $\pm$ 6	b 14 $\pm$ 5	ab 9 $\pm$ 1	AB 10 $\pm$ 4	B 6 $\pm$ 3	A 8 $\pm$ 1	AB
Barley	0-20	0.214	0.459	0.488	<b>0.034</b>	43 $\pm$ 2	38 $\pm$ 11	28 $\pm$ 6	30 $\pm$ 8	47 $\pm$ 7	B 32 $\pm$ 5	A 31 $\pm$ 9	AB 39 $\pm$ 7	AB
	20-40	0.669	0.065	0.339	0.963	39 $\pm$ 3	36 $\pm$ 4	32 $\pm$ 8	29 $\pm$ 6	34 $\pm$ 4	A 47 $\pm$ 4	B 44 $\pm$ 5	AB 41 $\pm$ 4	AB
	40-60	0.207	<b>0.017</b>	0.213	<b>0.028</b>	15 $\pm$ 1	a 23 $\pm$ 9	ab 40 $\pm$ 13	b 38 $\pm$ 13	b 15 $\pm$ 2	19 $\pm$ 3	24 $\pm$ 8	17 $\pm$ 3	
After drought treatment														
Barley	0-20	0.696	0.546	0.436	<b>0.001</b>	61 $\pm$ 9	62 $\pm$ 8	56 $\pm$ 8	56 $\pm$ 8	64 $\pm$ 13	55 $\pm$ 13	71 $\pm$ 8	57 $\pm$ 5	
	20-40	0.664	0.604	0.508	<b>0.004</b>	28 $\pm$ 6	25 $\pm$ 5	30 $\pm$ 5	31 $\pm$ 5	25 $\pm$ 9	31 $\pm$ 9	20 $\pm$ 6	31 $\pm$ 4	
	40-60	0.852	0.401	0.225	<b>&lt;0.001</b>	10 $\pm$ 2	11 $\pm$ 3	13 $\pm$ 4	12 $\pm$ 3	11 $\pm$ 4	13 $\pm$ 4	7 $\pm$ 2	10 $\pm$ 1	

679  
 680 MPC was derived from 10 000 simulations by mixing models using  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  data. Pea plants were  
 681 already senesced in early July therefore no stable water isotope data are available after the  
 682 treatment. Proportional contribution from 0-20 cm is the sum from 0-5, 5-10, and 10-20 cm, and 20-  
 683 40 cm is the sum from 20-30 and 30-40 cm. CS and D were tested as two fixed effect factors for all  
 684 subplots (*P* values are given). Significant differences are shown in bold ( $P < 0.05$ ). Mean  $\pm$  1 SE for  
 685 MPC (%) are given for different cropping systems (C-IT for Conventional intensive tillage, C-NT  
 686 for Conventional no tillage, O-IT for Organic intensive tillage, and O-RT for Organic reduced  
 687 tillage). Different small and capital letters indicate significant differences among cropping systems  
 688 in control and drought subplots, respectively, tested with Tukey HSD (honestly significant  
 689 difference,  $P < 0.05$ ).

690

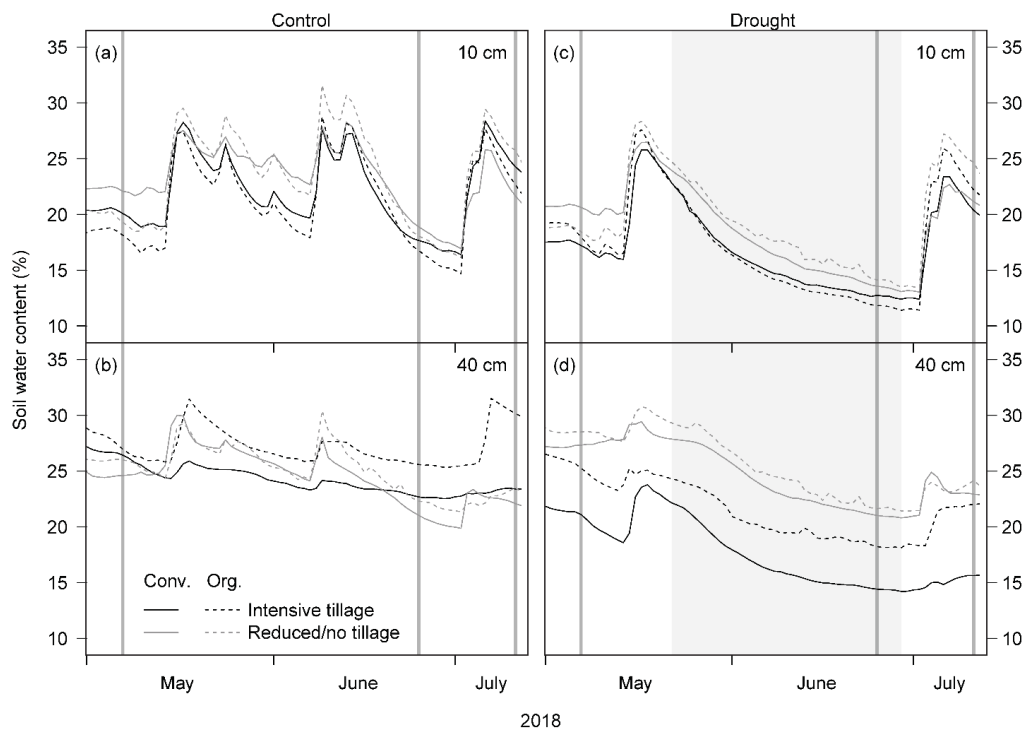


691

692 Fig. 1 Daily air temperature and precipitation in 2018. Dark line segments and bars depict the crop  
693 growing season from 26 March to 12 July 2018. The shaded area indicates the drought treatment  
694 from 22 May to 28 June 2018. Data from the MeteoSwiss station Zürich/Kloten (KLO, 47.48° N,  
695 8.54° E, 4.6 km north of the research site, [MeteoSwiss, 2020](#)) are given.

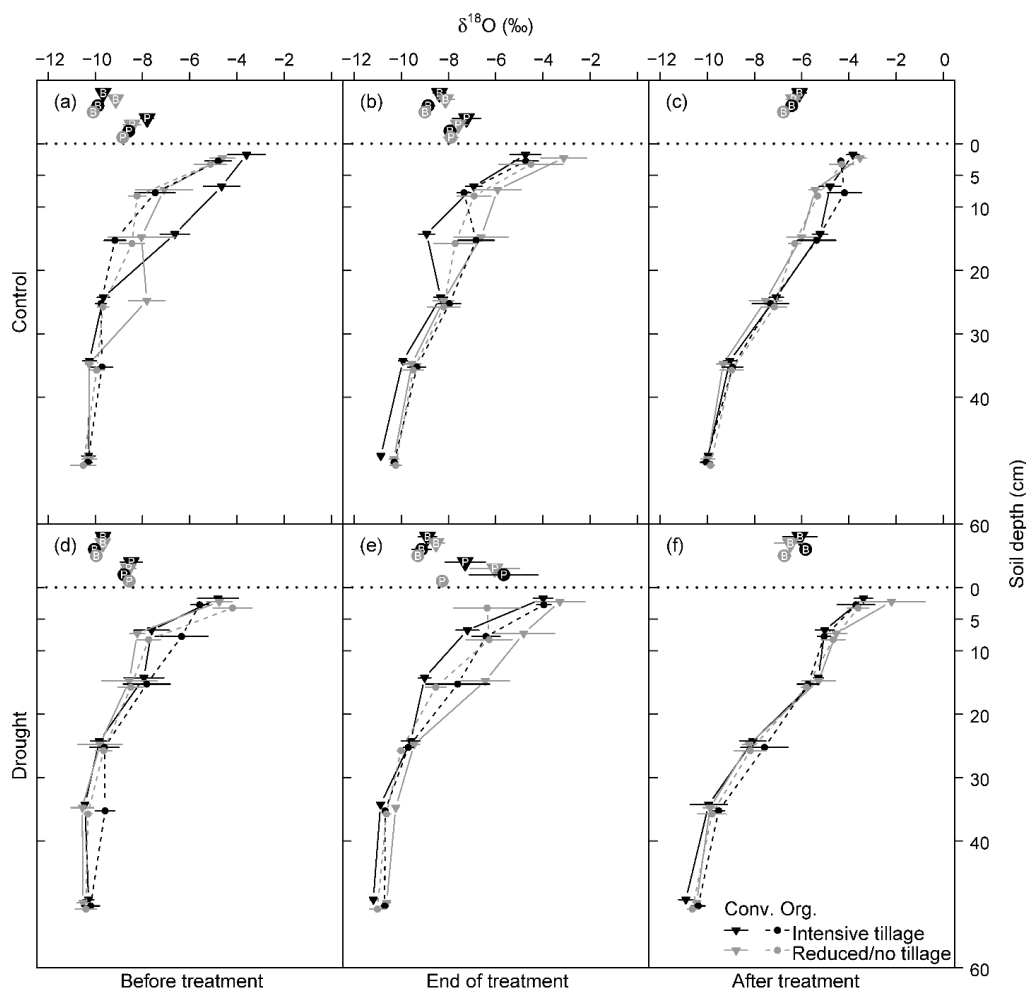
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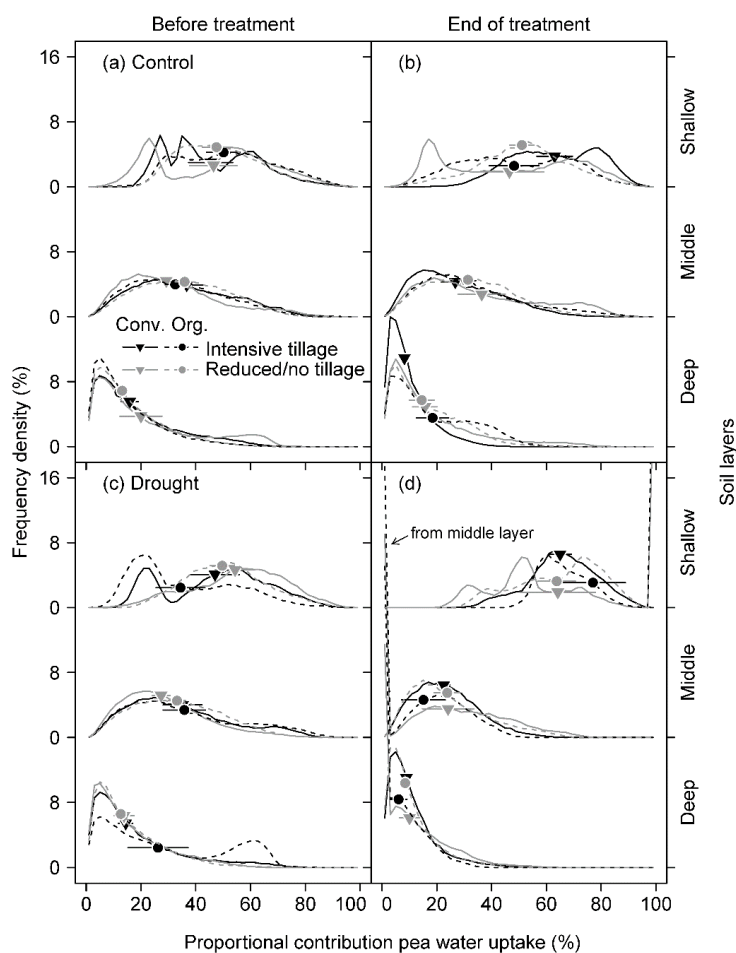


697

698 Fig. 2 Daily mean soil water contents at 10 and 40 cm depth in (a, b) control and (c, d) drought  
699 subplots under different cropping systems (n = 2 each; Conv. for conventional, Org. for organic).  
700 Vertical lines indicate sampling dates for stable water isotopes on 7 May, 25 June, and 11 July  
701 2018. Shaded areas in (c) and (d) represent the drought treatment period from 22 May to 28 June  
702 2018.



703  
704 Fig. 3  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  values of soil water from different depths and plant xylem water in each cropping  
705 system (a, d) before the drought treatment on 7 May, (b, e) at the end of the drought treatment on 25  
706 June, and (c, f) after treatment on 11 July in 2018 (Conv. for conventional, Org. for organic).  
707 Horizontal dotted lines separate isotopic composition of soil and plant samples (P for pea, B for  
708 barley). Pea plants were already senesced in early July, therefore no stable water isotope data are  
709 available after the drought treatment. Means and 1 SE (horizontal bars) are given for each cropping  
710 system ( $n = 3-4$ ).

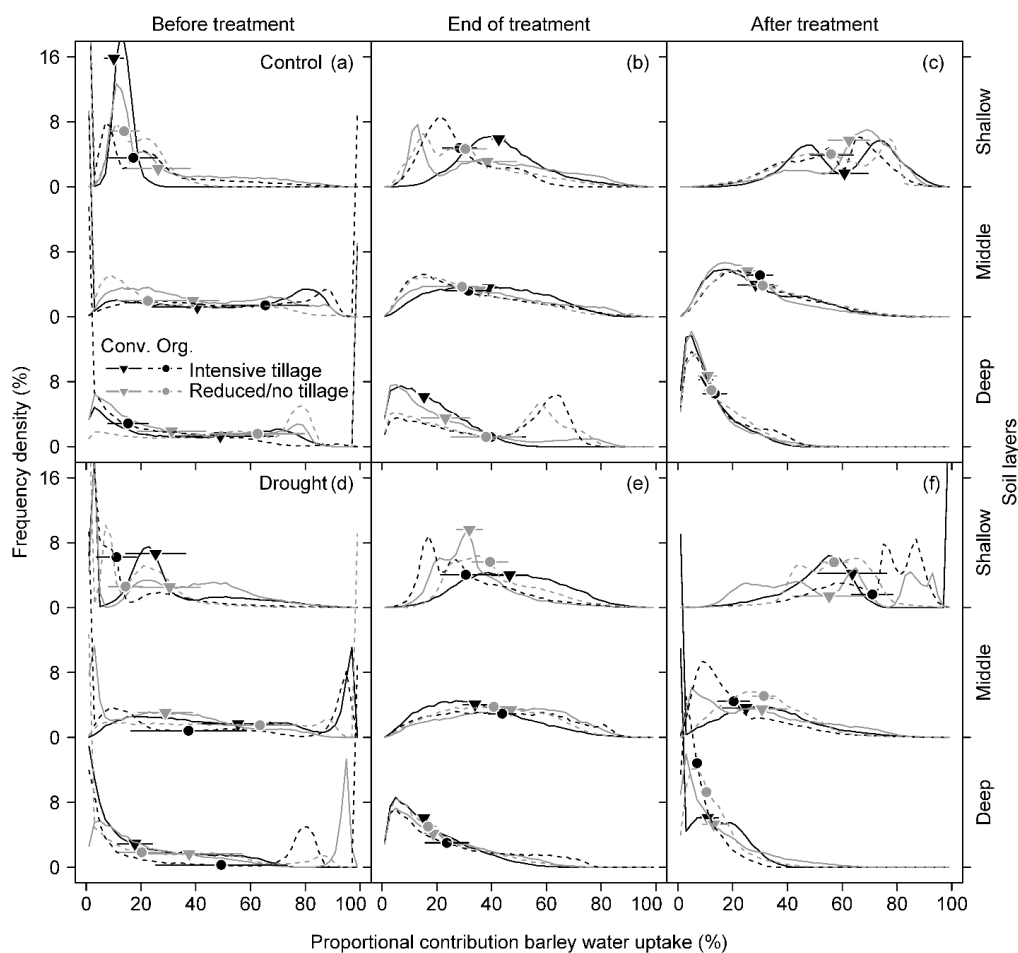


711

712 Fig. 4 Frequency density distribution of model outputs on the proportional contribution of soil water  
713 to pea water uptake from shallow (0-20 cm, sum of 0-5, 5-10, and 10-20 cm), middle (20-40 cm,  
714 sum of 20-30 and 30-40 cm), and deep (40-60 cm) soil layers under different cropping systems (a,  
715 b) before the drought treatment on 7 May and (c, d) at the end of treatment on 25 June in 2018.

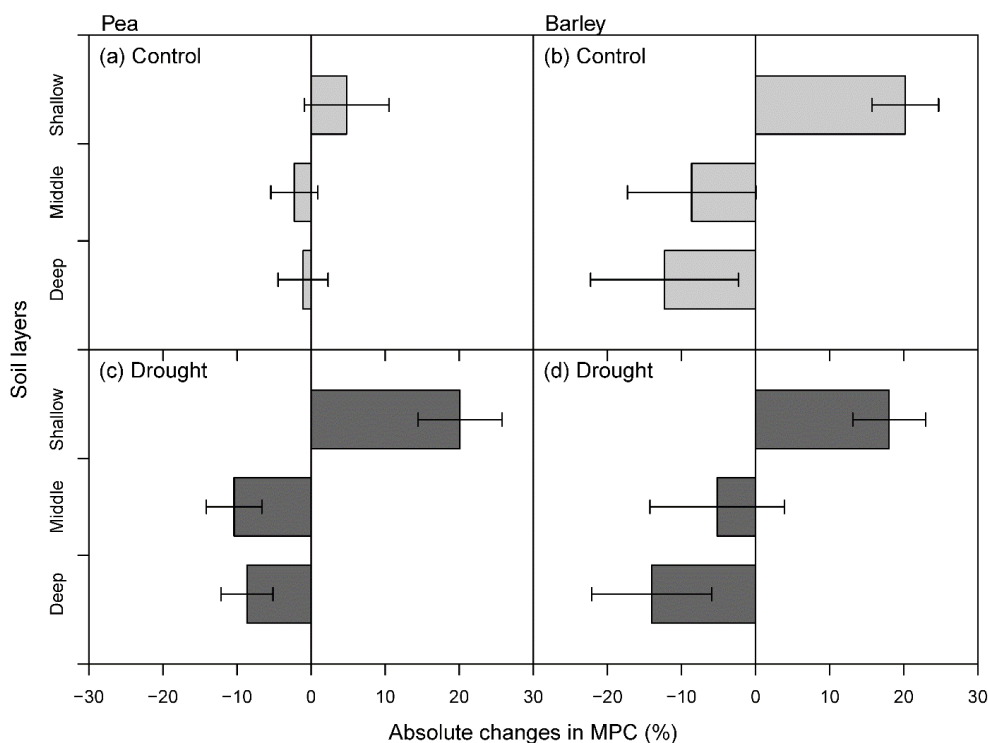
716 Frequency density was derived from 10 000 simulations at 2% increment of mixing models using  
717  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  for each subplot (Conv. for conventional, Org. for organic). Data were pooled for all subplots  
718 in each cropping system. Symbols on the curves indicate the median of the model outputs for each  
719 soil layer. Means and 1 SE (horizontal bars) of each cropping system are given (n = 3-4).

720



721  
722 Fig. 5 Frequency density distribution of model outputs on the proportional contribution of soil water  
723 to barley water uptake from shallow (0-20 cm, sum of 0-5, 5-10, and 10-20 cm), middle (20-40 cm,  
724 sum of 20-30 and 30-40 cm), and deep (40-60 cm) soil layers under different cropping systems (a,  
725 b) before the drought treatment on 7 May, (c, d) at the end of treatment on 25 June, and (e, f) after  
726 treatment on 11 July in 2018. Frequency density was derived from 10 000 simulations at 2%  
727 increment of mixing models using  $\delta^{18}\text{O}$  for each subplot (Conv. for conventional, Org. for organic).  
728 Data were pooled for all subplots in each cropping system. Symbols on the curves indicate the  
729 median of the model outputs for each soil layer. Means and 1 SE (horizontal bars) of each cropping  
730 system are given (n = 3-4).

731



732

733 Fig. 6 Absolute changes in median proportional contributions to plant water uptake (MPC) of pea  
734 (a, c) and barley (b, d), calculated as the difference of MPC at the end (25 June; ET) and before the  
735 drought treatment (7 May; BT), from three soil layers in control (a, b) and drought (c, d) subplots.  
736 MPC was derived from 10 000 simulations of mixing models using stable water isotope data.  
737 Proportional contribution from the shallow layer is the sum of 0-5, 5-10, and 10-20 cm depths, the  
738 middle layer is the sum of 20-30 and 30-40 cm depths, and the deep layer represents 40-60 cm.  
739 Means and 1 SE (horizontal lines) are given (n = 14-16).

740