Depth of root placement, root size and carbon reserves determine reproduction success of aspen root fragments

- 3 Julia Wachowski^{a,1}, Simon M. Landhäusser^{a,*}, Victor J. Lieffers^{a,2}
- ^a Centre for Enhanced Forest Management, Department of Renewable Resources, University of
- 5 Alberta, 4-42 Earth Sciences Building, Edmonton, AB T6G 2E3, Canada
- 6 *Corresponding author. Tel.: +1-780-492-6381; e-mail: simon.landhausser@ualberta.ca
- ¹E-mail: jwachows@ualberta.ca
- 8 ² E-mail: vic.lieffers@ualberta.ca
- 9

10 Abstract

11 The vegetative recovery of species capable of resprouting is strongly driven by the disturbance

- 12 type, the resprouting traits of the species, and the resource availability in the surviving tissues.
- 13 Since aspen (*Populus tremuloides*) commonly regenerates from root suckers after disturbance;
- 14 we can take advantage of its ability to sprout by applying salvaged surface soils containing aspen

15 root fragments to reclaim heavily disturbed forest sites where soil surfaces have been displaced

- by resource extraction. In two studies we investigated the role of root size, root carbohydrate
- reserves, and the presence of fine roots on the ability of root fragments to initiate and grow

18 suckers from different soil depths. Roots of different diameters were collected from natural aspen

stands and buried at three different soil depths (5, 20 and 40 cm). Non-structural carbohydrate

20 (NSC) reserves were determined initially and after the experimental period at the end of August.

21 The initiation of suckers was not affected by soil depth, root size, and the presence of fine roots.

22 Suckers, however, did not emerge from the soil if root fragments were buried at a depth of 40

cm. The largest suckers were found on root fragments that were 2.1 to 3 cm in diameter. Sucker

24 performance and root fragment survival increased with the initial NSC reserves stored in the root

25 fragments. Insufficient initial NSC supply for suckering resulted in the death of root fragments

26 indicating that there might be a lower threshold of NSC root reserves. The presence of fine roots

appear to be a liability as overall sucker numbers were three times higher in root fragments, that

had all their fine roots removed compared to root fragments with fine roots attached.

29

30 Keywords: vegetative regeneration, *Populus tremuloides*, leaf area, soil temperature, sucker

- 31 initiation, forest reclamation
- 32

33 **1. Introduction**

The rapid recovery of photosynthetic potential from protected buds (budbank) is a common 34 strategy in plants living in disturbance prone environments. Species capable of resprouting have 35 36 strategies that allow them to translocate resources from surviving organs to the regenerating tissues and organs. The vegetative recovery of these species after disturbance is strongly driven 37 by the disturbance type, the resprouting traits of the species involved, and the associated resource 38 39 availability in the surviving tissues (Chapin et al. 1990; Poorter et al. 2012; Clark et al. 2013). 40 Biomass allocation patterns and the related storage of non-structural carbohydrates (NSC) 41 reserves fundamentally drive the resource availability for resprouting after a severe disturbance, where reserves need to be allocated to the maintenance of the surviving tissues (respiration) and 42 the regeneration and maintenance of new stem, leaf, and root tissues (Lambers et al. 2002). 43 44 These allocation patterns are known to be under the control of environmental variables such as 45 light, temperature and moisture (Poorter et al. 2012). Trembling aspen (*Populus tremuloides* Michx.) regenerates through suckering from its root 46 47 system after disturbances such as fire or logging disturb the above-ground portion of the clone (DesRochers and Lieffers 2001; Farmer 1962; Frey et al. 2003). Vegetative regeneration is dense 48 49 and vigorous when these disturbances create little damage to the root system (Frey et al. 2003; Renkema et al. 2009). In contrast heavy mechanical soil disturbances from trafficking of the 50 51 forest floor during conventional forest harvesting (e.g. log decking areas) or after complete 52 removal of roots during road construction or mineral resource extraction can cause severe reduction in the suckering potential from the fragmented root system (Renkema et al. 2009). In 53 the latter case the surface soils are often salvaged and stored for several months in stockpiles and 54 then placed back onto the disturbed area after operations have ceased ("roll back"), where the 55 root fragments in the roll back material could be available for sprouting and aspen regeneration. 56 The success of sucker initiation after this roll back of soil and root fragments is likely influenced 57 by factors such as the depth a root fragment is placed, the physiological state of the fragment, 58 and its ability to interact with the surrounding soil. Under natural undisturbed soil conditions 59 60 most suckers originate from smaller diameter roots (0.5 - 2.5 cm) (DesRochers and Lieffers 61 2001; Kemperman 1978; Schier and Campbell 1978) and from roots that are located at depths of

62 4 to 15 cm; this is likely a result of the more favourable conditions in these upper soil layers (e.g.

63 warm soil temperature, aeration, and high concentration of nutrients) (Brown and DeByle 1987;

Horton and Maini 1964; Kemperman 1978; Navratil 1991; Schier 1973; Schier and Campbell
1978). There is relatively little information on the vertical distribution of aspen roots in soil
(Strong and LaRoi 1983), but aspen roots can also be found in deeper parts of the soil profile, as
a result of root competition with other woody species (Mundell et al. 2007) or moisture
limitation (Snedden unpublished). However there is little knowledge of the suckering ability of
these deeper roots.

Available non-structural carbohydrate (NSC) reserves influence suckering performance of aspen 70 roots (Landhäusser and Lieffers 2002; Schier and Zasada 1973). Although NSC concentrations 71 appear not to influence the initiation of suckers, they are important for early sucker shoot 72 expansion and growth (Frey et al. 2003; Landhäusser and Lieffers 2002; Schier and Zasada 73 1973). As a result root NSC concentrations might be pivotal to success of suckers when they 74 75 originate from greater soil depths or are slowed by physical barriers (Landhäusser et al. 2007a, 2007b; Renkema et al. 2009). The role of the content of NSC reserves in aspen roots, however, is 76 77 less clear. If present, plant NSC reserves can readily be mobilized and translocated within the 78 plant to sinks where NSC are needed; however in root fragments the NSC reserves are limited by 79 the size of the of the root fragment and as a result pool size of the fragments might play a larger role. Plant NSC reserves can be expressed as a concentration (tissue status) or content (pool size 80 81 - root size and concentration) (Dirr and Heuser 1987; Ede et al. 1997; Nguyen et al. 1990). Another factor possibly influencing the suckering ability of root fragments in rolled back 82 83 materials could be related to the ability of the root fragments to connect with the surrounding soil and its ability to take up water and nutrients. Nutrient and water uptake occurs largely through 84 85 fine roots and it is not clear if fine roots associated with fragments are a net benefit to the suckering ability of root fragments. 86

87 In two controlled field studies we explored the regeneration potential of aspen from root 88 fragments in relation to (i) soil depth (e.g. depth of root burial), (ii) root tissue non-structural carbohydrate reserve concentration and content, and (iii) the importance of attached fine roots on 89 root fragments for sucker initiation, emergence, and growth performance. We hypothesized that 90 91 root fragment buried at a deeper soil depth will require more reserves to reach the soil surface 92 and might face greater reserve exhaustion. We further hypothesized that root fragments with attached fine roots will have improve soil contact, allowing the regenerating root suckers to 93 94 access water and nutrient resources more easily.

96 **2.** Methods

97 2.1 Research site

98 The experimental site was located at the Crop Diversification Centre North near Edmonton,

Alberta (53°38'N, 113°21'W; 668 m a.s.l.). A level agricultural field was used for the

100 experiment. The soil texture of the soil was a silty loam which was deep and well drained.

101 Precipitation during the study between May 1 and August 30, 2010 amounted to 174.1 mm and

102 no extended drought periods were observed. Mean air temperature over the four months was

103 14°C (Environment Canada 2010) and average soil temperatures were 16.9°C at 5 cm soil depth,

104 16.1° C at 20 cm, and 15.3° C at 40 cm.

105

106 **2.2 Plant material**

107 The root material used in this study was collected in February 2010 near Genesee, Alberta (53°19'N, 114°18'W) from an aspen stand (4 ha) that had been cut and naturally regenerated 9 108 109 years earlier. Trees were up to 7 m tall and stem density was 13000 stems/ha. The roots and soil 110 materials were collected using large scale operational methods where the above-ground portion 111 of the aspen stand was sheared off close to the soil surface under frozen conditions (>20 cm soil 112 depth) using a straight blade mounted on a large bulldozer. Then the top 20 cm of the frozen forest floor and mineral soil containing the aspen roots were pushed into large windrows. On the 113 same day, thirty root fragments (> 65 cm in length) were chosen for each of three diameter size 114 classes (Class 1: 1-2 cm, Class 2: 2.1-3 cm; Class 3: 3.1-4 cm) for a total of 90 roots. All selected 115 116 fragments were straight, had no major lateral roots, and were visibly undamaged. To test the influence of the presence of fine roots attached to fragments an additional 20 undamaged root 117 fragments (0.6 - 1.5 cm in diameter, 18 - 60 cm long) were collected. All of those selected 118 fragments had fine roots (>1 mm diameter) still attached and were collected at the same time. All 119 120 collected roots were wrapped in plastic, and stored at -5°C until the end of April 2010.

121

122 **2.3 Treatments**

123 In late April, fragments were slowly thawed over two days and both ends were re-cut to remove

124 potential pathogens that may have attached during storage. A sample of each root fragment (1 cm

in length) was also taken to determine root non-structural carbohydrate (NSC) reserve

126 concentrations (see below) prior to planting. To explore the impact of fragment size and burial

- depth, all root fragments were trimmed to a total length of 50 cm. To estimate root fragment
- volume, root diameter was measured at both ends of each fragment. Root fragments were planted
- (buried) horizontally at 3 different soil depths (5, 20 and 40 cm) at the research site. The

experiment was designed as a complete block design with 10 blocks (2×3 m), each consisting of

- three plots $(1 \times 1 \text{ m})$, which were randomly assigned to one of the three soil depths and each
- 132 containing one root fragment of each of the three different diameter size classes (class 1: 1-2 cm;
- 133 class 2: 2.1-3 cm; class 3: 3.1-4 cm). HOBO soil temperature data loggers (Onset Computer
- 134 Corporation, Bourne, Mass.) were also placed at the three soil depths (n = 3 at each depth) to
- record soil temperatures over the four summer months.

To test the impact of the presence of fine roots, collected root fragments were slowly thawed 136 under moist conditions. The experiment was a paired design with 10 pairs of root fragments of 137 similar diameter and length, as well as similar in the number and length of attached fine roots. 138 139 Among the pairs, the number of attached fine roots per root fragment ranged from 8 to 19 fine roots. One of the root fragments in each pair had all fine roots removed prior to planting and a 140 141 sample of each root fragment (1 cm) was taken to determine initial NSC reserves of each of the 20 root fragments. Each pair was buried horizontally at a depth of 10 cm. A soil temperature data 142 143 logger was also placed at the same location.

Over the course of the growing season (May 1, 2010 to August 24, 2010) the plots were visited
several times in order to remove weeds and to monitor sucker emergence.

146

147 **2.4 Measurements**

At the end of August, root fragments (and their suckers) were then carefully excavated and the entire clone was kept on ice until brought back to the lab. In the lab all roots and suckers were carefully washed and then separated into dead and live root fragments. Live root fragments were distinguished from dead root fragments by their yellow bark and white phloem, while dead

152 fragments had dark brown bark with black phloem.

- 153 For each clone (root fragment), the total number of suckers initiated were counted and divided
- into emerged suckers (suckers that had made it above the soil surface) and non-emerged suckers.
- 155 The total extension length of emerged and non-emerged suckers (below-ground plus above-
- 156 ground length) and the above-ground height were recorded. A root tissue sample (1 cm long) was

taken from the center of each root fragment to determine non-structural carbohydrate (NSC)

reserve concentrations at the end of the study. As there were no new roots initiated directly on

the root fragments, only the number and mass of new lateral roots initiated on the below-ground

160 portion of the suckers (adventitious roots) were measured. All roots and suckers, as well as the

161 root fragment NSC samples were oven dried at 68°C until constant weight. Dry mass of sucker

stems and leaves were determined.

163 For NSC analyses, root fragment tissue samples were ground to pass 40-mesh (0.4 mm) using a

164 Wiley mill (Thomas Scientific, Swedesboro, New Jersey). Soluble sugars were extracted from

ground tissue by boiling samples three times in 80% ethanol at 95°C. Phenol-sulfuric acid assay

166 was used to determine colourimetrically total soluble sugar concentrations. The residue was

analyzed for starch by enzymatic digestion with a mixture of α -amylase and amyloglucosidase

168 for 20 h, followed by the colourimetric measurement of glucose hydrolyzate with a peroxidase–

169 glucose oxidase-o-dianisidine reagent (Chow and Landhäusser 2004).

170 Growing season degree-days were calculated by taking the average daily soil temperature minus

the base temperature of 8°C and summing the number of day above the threshold during the

experimental period. A base temperature of 8°C was chosen based upon Fraser (2002), who

found that 8°C is the a soil temperature at which aspen starts to initiate suckers.

174

175 **2.5 Data analysis**

176 The root diameter and soil depth experiment was a complete block design with ten blocks

177 consisting of three plots each, which were randomly assigned to one of the three depths and

178 containing one root fragment each of the three different diameter size classes. Data of the non-

emerged sucker variables were analyzed as a randomized 3×3 factorial design with three soil

180 depths and three size classes as non-emerged suckers were present at all three depths and root

181 diameter size classes.

182 The design of the fine root study was a paired design with ten replicate pairs of root fragments183 with and without attached fine roots. This study was analyzed as a paired one-way ANOVA.

184 Tested variables for both studies included number of emerged suckers, number and length of fine

roots associated with new suckers, leaf dry mass, total sucker dry mass and the number of non-

186 emerged suckers, their heights and dry mass.

For both studies, the number of new roots, length of new roots, and number of non-emerged 187 suckers did not meet the assumption of homogeneity of variances and therefore were log 188 189 transformed. However, no response variables related to the whole root data set met the 190 assumption of normality (using the Shapiro-Wilk test), as a result the variables were analyzed using both the non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis k-sample test and ANOVA. Since the 191 interpretations were the same between both tests, only the results of the ANOVAs are presented. 192 193 Emerged sucker numbers and their height growth over the course of the growing season (3 measurements) were analyzed using the repeated measures ANOVA. For this analysis only the 194 data from root fragments buried at 5 and 20 cm depth were used, as suckers emerged only at 195 196 these two depths. A reduced data set, which included only those root fragments that produced emerged suckers, was used in the analyses of differences in emerged sucker numbers per root 197 198 fragment between treatments and of relationships between (1) sucker leaf dry mass and the number of new fine roots associated with emerged suckers, (2) the leaf mass and NSC content in 199 200 the root fragment, and (3) initial May starch content and total sucker dry mass. To explore the impact of initial and final NSC content and concentration of root fragments on 201 202 sucker production and root fragment mortality, data were analyzed as a one-way ANOVA. Relationships between total sucker length and initial starch concentration of root fragments and 203 204 between sucker leaf dry mass and root fragment starch concentration at the end of the experiment were analyzed using simple linear regression. The NSC data set included the root fragments of 205 206 all three diameter size classes, soil depth 5 and 20 cm, and root fragments without fine roots attached of the fine root study. Since root mortality data were categorical, the influence of soil 207 208 depth, root diameter size, roots with fine roots, roots without fine roots and presence of suckers on root fragment mortality was analyzed using the proc catmod procedure in SAS. A 209 210 significance level of $\alpha = 0.05$ was used for all analyses.

211

212 **3. Results**

213 Soil depth

Average daily growing season soil temperatures (May to August 2010) decreased with soil depth

from 16.8°C at 5 cm, 16.1°C at 20 cm to 15.3°C at 40 cm depth with the soil temperature at 5 cm

depth being higher than at 40 cm depth (p = 0.034). Earlier research indicated that 60 degree-

217 days (at a base temperature of 8° C) were generally needed for the sucker initiation on root

- fragments (Fraser et al. 2002). Our root fragments reached these heat sums on May 19th at a soil
- depth of 5 cm, on May 20th at a soil depth of 20 cm, and on May 29th, 2010 at a soil depth of 40
 cm.
- There was no significant interaction between soil depth and root diameter size for any of the
 measured response variables, as a result only main effects are presented. Mortality of fragments
- was 80% at 5 and 40 cm soil depth compared to 50% at 20 cm (p = 0.045; Table 1). All live root fragments had produced suckers; however, three of the root fragments that were dead at the end of the growing season had produced live suckers. These live suckers were all supported by new lateral roots originating from the below-ground portion of the sucker.
- 227 Of the 90 planted root fragments, 27 (30%) had produced suckers (emerged and/or non-emerged
- suckers (NES)). The total number of suckers initiated averaged 1.7 suckers root⁻¹ and was not
- affected by soil depth (p = 0.407). Although root fragments buried at 40 cm depth had a similar
- total number of suckers per fragment than fragments buried at 5 and 20 cm, none of these
- suckers had emerged above the soil surface (p = 0.011). However, in fragments buried at 5 and
- 232 20 cm, the number of emerged suckers was not impacted by soil depth (average 0.55 emerged
- suckers root⁻¹; Table 1). As can be expected, non-emerged sucker height was impacted by soil

depth with the taller NES at the deeper soil depths (p = 0.005; Table 1).

- Of the 27 root fragments that had suckered, 18 root fragments produced emerged suckers (only at
- depths 5 and 20 cm), with more emerged suckers at a soil depth of 5 cm (2.7 emerged suckers
- root⁻¹) compared with 20 cm (1.3 emerged suckers root⁻¹) (p = 0.026). At 5 cm depth, suckers
- reached the soil surface 10 days earlier than at 20 cm depth (p = 0.008; Fig. 1a). The total length
- of emerged suckers (i.e. the length below-ground plus above-ground) was also affected by soil
- 240 depth (p = 0.029); however, once the suckers were above-ground, growth and leaf dry mass was
- not different between the two soil depths (both p > 0.471; Table 1; Fig. 1b).
- 242 While the buried root fragments themselves did not produce any new roots, emerged suckers
- produced similar numbers of new adventitious roots on the below-ground portions of the sucker
- 244 (3.1 new roots per root fragment; p = 0.646); however, the total length of those roots was higher
- at suckers from fragments buried at a soil depth of 5 cm (p = 0.003) (Table 1).
- 246

248 Root fragment diameter had no impact on fragment mortality (p = 0.608). The number of nonemerged suckers increased with root fragment diameter (p = 0.011); however, it did not affect 249 250 the total number of suckers (sum of emerged and NES) produced by a fragment (p = 0.378; Table 2). Although fragment diameter did not affect the number of emerged suckers (p = 0.629), 251 252 diameter class 2 root fragments had the greatest total sucker length (sum of below- and aboveground) (p = 0.001) and above-ground height (p = 0.002; Table 2). Accordingly, emerged 253 254 suckers from class 2 root fragments had more leaf and total sucker dry mass per root fragment (Table 2). Suckers emerging from the two larger fragment diameters had on average 3 new 255 adventitious roots sucker⁻¹ compared to only 0.3 new roots sucker⁻¹ when originating from the 256 class 1 root fragment diameter (p < 0.005; Table 2). There was also an increase in growth of 257 these adventitious roots with an increase in fragment diameter (p < 0.005); however, we could 258 not detect a relationship between leaf dry mass and the number and length of new fine roots (p = 259 0.982). 260

Initial non-structural carbohydrate (NSC) content and concentrations in the root fragments varied 261 with fragment diameter (Table 2). While NSC content increased with increasing diameter, NSC 262 263 concentrations decreased; however, these relationships did not persist after the growing season, where root fragment death and/or suckering success likely impacted the reserves status of the 264 root fragments. At the end of the experiment, live root fragments that had produced emerged 265 suckers had on average 8.5 g NSC content root⁻¹ (8.7% NSC of dry mass) while live root 266 fragments with no emerged suckers had 5.4 g root⁻¹ (4.5%) NSC and dead root fragments had an 267 average NSC content of only 2.9 g root⁻¹ (2.4%) (both content and concentration p < 0.005; Fig. 268 269 2). Dead root fragments had very little starch reserves (at the detection limit), while fragments with emerged suckers had higher tissue starch concentration (1.7%) compared to the initial 270 271 measurement (0.5%) (p = 0.003) (Fig. 2). Root fragments that died during the experiment started with lower initial NSC content (approx.. 272

40%) and concentrations (approx. 25% lower) compared to root fragments that stayed alive (both

p < 0.01; Fig. 3). Initial starch content and concentration were also lower in root fragments that

were dead at the end of the experiment than in live fragments (both p < 0.001; Fig. 3).

276 There was a positive linear relationship between the initial NSC and starch concentration of root

fragments and the above-ground height of suckers (p=0.033; $R^2=0.348$; Fig 4A; NSC not

shown), while initial NSC and starch content of root fragments was not related to sucker growth

(p=0.913). Further, starch concentration in root fragments at the end of the study was positively related to sucker leaf dry mass (p = 0.008; R^2 =0.517; Fig. 4B).

281 Importance of fine roots

Whether or not fine roots were attached to root fragments had no impact on fragment mortality (55%) (p = 0.185). However, there were more suckers (emerged and NES) initiated on fragments without fine roots (1.8 suckers root⁻¹) than on fragments with fine roots attached (0.6 suckers root⁻¹; p = 0.032; Table 3), but this effect was not detectable for emerged suckers only (p =0.545; Table 3). However, there were more and longer new adventitious roots attached to emerged suckers when associated with root fragments without fine roots attached compared to emerged suckers on fragments with fine roots attached (both p < 0.005, Table 3).

289

290 4. Discussion

291 Soil depth had a considerable impact on the ability of suckers to emerge above the soil surface. Suckers originating from root fragments that were buried at a depth of 40 cm were unsuccessful 292 293 in reaching the soil surface in one growing season, indicating that the required resources contained in the root fragments (fragment size and initial NSC concentration) were not sufficient 294 295 to allow suckers to emerge above the soil surface from a depth of 40 cm. This is a plausible explanation as soil conditions (deep agricultural soil with silty loam soil texture) had no obvious 296 297 restrictions to sucker expansion. There is strong evidence that sucker growth was dependent on 298 the reserve status (starch concentration) of the fragment (Figure 4A). Suckers in our study 299 emerged above-ground only successfully from fragments at a soil depth of 20 cm or less. Interestingly the failure to reach the surface was not influenced by fragment diameter, which 300 301 indicates that fragment reserve content did not play a critical role in the suckering success of 302 fragments.

Fragment survival was highest at the 20 cm depth, perhaps because at the 5 cm depth there may have been intermittent periods of water stress, while at the 40 cm depth no suckers made it to the surface not allowing a replenishment of root reserves. However at a depth of 5 cm, root fragments produced more emerged suckers than root fragments at a depth of 20 cm. We believe that the shorter distance to the soil surface enabled more suckers at the shallower depths to reach the surface before apical dominance started to suppress sucker initiation and growth (Eliasson 1971; Farmer 1962; Schier 1972; Steneker 1974; Wan et al. 2006). In turn, limited root reserves
and the longer distance needed to reach the surface may have been the reason why root
fragments buried at a depth of 20 cm were able to support only very few dominant suckers until
they started photosynthesizing. This assumption is also supported by the fact that depth had a
significant effect on emerged total sucker height as root fragments buried at depth 20 had to
produce the tallest suckers to reach the surface, but their subsequent height growth above the
surface was not different between soil depth treatments.

The initiation of suckers (total number of suckers) on root fragments was not affected by soil 316 depth, root diameter size (within our tested range), and the presence of fine roots in our study. 317 This is not too surprising, as it is known that the initiation of suckers is mainly driven by the 318 absence of apical dominance, which is primarily mediated by growth regulators such as auxin 319 and cytokinin (Eliasson 1971; Farmer 1962; Schier 1972; Steneker 1974). However, suckers 320 initiated on fragments that were buried at 40 cm did not grow taller than 20 cm below-ground, 321 and many of the root fragments were dead after the growing season, indicating that there were 322 323 restrictions in resource availability from the fragment, as soil temperatures during the growing 324 season were only marginally lower at 40 cm than at 5 or 20 cm depth and were well above the threshold for suckering at 8 °C. This might suggest that independent of soil temperature, soil 325 326 depth also plays a role in the emergence of suckers from aspen root systems. In natural conditions suckers typically emerge from roots located within 8 cm of the surface (Brown and 327 328 DeByle 1987; Navratil 1991; Schier and Campbell 1978) but in natural conditions this is also where most roots are found. Root size, as controlled by diameter, did not influence emerged 329 330 sucker numbers, which conforms to the results of several other studies which report that suckers mostly sprout from lateral roots with diameters between 0.5 - 2.5 cm (DesRochers and Lieffers 331 332 2001; Peterson and Peterson 1992; Schier 1973). Further, the diameter of small root cuttings (2 -10 mm) of hybrid aspen (P. tremula L. × P. tremuloides Michx.) (Stenvall et al. 2006) and aspen 333 (Schier 1978; Starr 1971) did not affect their suckering efficiency. 334

The presence of fine roots on root fragments was negatively related to the number of suckers that were initiated; indeed, when fine roots were attached to the fragment there were only 60% fewer suckers as when fine roots were removed. The mechanism for this inhibition are not clear but fine roots have much higher respiration costs which can be more than 10-times greater in fine roots than in coarse roots for a the root fragment (DesRochers et al. 2002) and given that fine 340 roots are more likely to be injured during extraction, significant C resources may have also gone into the repair of these fine roots. Further, growth regulators (hormones) produced from 341 342 wounded fine roots may also have inhibited sucker initiation (Frey et al. 2003). However, emerged suckers grew just as well whether the root fragments had fine roots attached or not. The 343 shallow burial depth of these fragments in this study at only 10 cm may have also allowed 344 suckers to quickly reach the soil surface. Also the similar growth of the suckers was not 345 anticipated, as it is known that fine roots play an important role in the supply of trees with soil 346 resources of water and nutrients (Charlton 1996). 347

Similar to natural conditions, where suckers will replenish carbohydrate reserves of the parent 348 root system (DesRochers and Lieffers 2001, Landhäusser and Lieffers 2002), root fragments of 349 our study were provided with NSC from the emerged suckers. The connection of the emerged 350 351 suckers to the root fragment appear to be functional, as NSC reserves were higher in fragments with emerged suckers than in live fragments with no emerged suckers regardless of soil depth 352 353 (Figure 2). This might indicate that root fragments might still be used as a reserve storage organ 354 (we had only 3 root dead fragments with suckers that were alive after the growing season). This 355 is further supported by our observation that an increase in sucker leaf dry mass also resulted in higher starch reserve levels in the root fragments at the end of the growing season (Figure 4B). 356 357 The initiation and growth of new adventitious fine roots on the belowground portion of the suckers was only associated with emerged suckers. The initiation of new roots is thought to be 358 359 controlled by the successful emergence of suckers, where the supply of newly fixed 360 carbohydrates from the leaves promotes root initiation (Eliasson 1968). This is further supported 361 by work from Stenvall et al. (2006) who found that the initiation of new roots on root fragments took twice as long as the initiation of suckers and that root fragments with the best suckering 362 363 produced also the highest number of new roots.

In summary, while soil depth did not influence root sucker initiation, it strongly affected the ability of suckers to reach the soil surface; therefore, suckers originating from root fragments buried deeper than 20 cm are unlikely to emerge above the soil. The amount of initial carbohydrate reserves stored in root fragments rather than the presence of fine roots played an essential role in sucker emergence and performance and root fragment survival. In this study the NSC reserves of roots were higher than what has been previously observed in healthy but mature aspen stands (Landhäusser and Lieffers 2003); this is likely the result of our donor roots 371 originating from a 9-year-old stand with a stem density of 13000 stems per hectare. The 372 importance of sufficient carbohydrate supply for sucker growth was underlined by the fact that 373 root fragments, that were dead by the end of the experiment started out with lower initial reserves of NSC indicating that there might be a lower threshold of NSC root reserves (but above 374 the complete exhaustion of root NSC reserves), below which aspen roots have difficulty to 375 regenerate vegetatively. Regardless, these results highlight the importance of minimizing the 376 377 handling and storage of roots to prevent excessive loss of NSC reserves prior to roll back. Therefore prolonged storage of roots during warm soil conditions should be avoided. Minimizing 378 the loss of fine roots associated with fragments is likely not a priority in salvage as the benefit of 379 not having to produce new adventitious roots on emerged suckers was countered by the reduction 380 of suckers on fragments that had fine roots attached. 381

382

383 Acknowledgements

The authors would like to thank Eckehart Marenholtz, Stefan Stängle, Ryan Sherritt, and Jordana Fair for their field and laboratory assistance as well as Pak Chow for his help in the carbohydrate analysis. Further, we wish to acknowledge Cam Stevenson of the Crop Diversification Centre North. Funding was generously provided by the Natural Sciences and Engineering Research Council of Canada (NSERC) and the Environmental Reclamation Research Group (ERRG) of the Canadian Oil Sands Network for Research and Development (CONRAD), with sponsorship from Capital Power, Shell Canada, Suncor Energy Inc. and Syncrude Canada.

392 **References**

- Brown, J.K., DeByle, N.V., 1987. Fire damage, mortality, and suckering in aspen. Can. J. For.
 Res. 17, 1100-1109.
- Chapin, F.S., Schulze, E.D., Mooney, H.A., 1990. The ecology and economics of storage in
- 396 plants. Ann. Rev. Ecol. Syst. 21, 423-447.
- Charlton, W. A., 1996. Lateral root initiation, in: Waisel, Y., Eshel, A., Kafkafi, U. (Eds.), Plant
 Roots, the hidden half. Second edition. Dekker, New York, New York, pp. 149-173.
- Chow, P.S., Landhäusser, S.M., 2004. A method for routine measurements of total sugar and
 starch content in woody plant tissues. Tree Physiol. 24, 1129–1136.
- 401 Clarke, P.J., Lawes, M.J., Midgley, J.J., Lamont, B.B., Ojeda, F., Burrows, G.E., Enright, N.J.
- and Knox K.J.E., 2013. Resprouting as a key functional trait: how buds, protection and resources
 drive persistence after fire. New Phytol. 197, 19–35.
- 404 DesRochers, A., Lieffers, V.J., 2001. Root biomass of regenerating aspen (*Populus tremuloides*)
 405 stands of different densities in Alberta. Can. J. For. Res. 31, 1012-1018.
- 406 DesRochers, A., Landhäusser, S.M., Lieffers, V.J., 2002. Coarse and fine root respiration in 407 aspen (*Populus tremuloides*). Tree Physiol. 22, 725-732.
- 408 Dirr, M.A., Heuser Jr., C.W., 1987. The Reference Manual of Woody Plant Propagation: From
 409 Seed to Tissue Culture. Varsity Press Inc., Athens.
- Ede, F.J., Auger, M., Green, G.A., 1997. Optimizing root cutting success in Paulownia spp. J.
 Hortic. Sci. 72, 179–185.
- Elassion, L., 1968. Dependence of root growth on photosynthesis of *Populus tremula*. Physiol.
 Planta. 21, 806-810.
- Eliasson, L., 1971. Growth regulators in *Populus tremula* III. Variation of auxin and inhibitor level in roots in relation to sucker formation. Physiol. Planta. 25, 118-121.
- 416 Environment Canada, 2010. National Climate Data and Information Archive [online].
- 417 Government of Canada, Ottawa. Available from
- 418 http://climate.weatheroffice.gc.ca/advanceSearch/searchHistoricData_e.html?Prov=AB&StationI
- 419 D=9999&Year=2012&Month=11&Day=22&timeframe=1 [accessed12 October 2010]
- 420 Farmer, R.E., 1962. Aspen root sucker formation and apical dominance. For. Sci. 8, 403-410.
- Frey, B.R., Lieffers, V.J., Landhäusser, S.M., Comeau, P.G., Greenway, K.J., 2003. An analysis
 of sucker regeneration of trembling aspen. Can. J. For. Res. 33, 1169-1179.
- Horton, K.W., Maini, J.S., 1964. Aspen reproduction: its characteristics and control. Can. Dep.
 For., For. Res. Branch, Ottawa, Ontario. Monogr. 64-0-12.
- 425 Kemperman, J.A., 1978. Sucker root relationships in aspen. Ontario Ministry of Natural
- 426 Resources, Forest Research Note No. 12.
- 427 Lambers, H., Atkin, O.K., Millenaar, F.F., 2002. Respiratory patterns in roots in relation to their
- 428 functioning. in: Waisel, Y., Eshel, A., Kafkafi, U. (Eds.), Plant roots, the hidden half. 3rd Edn.
- 429 New York, NY, USA, pp. 521–552.

- Landhäusser, S.M., Lieffers, V.J., 2002. Leaf area renewal, root retention and carbohydrate
 reserves in a clonal tree species following above-ground disturbance. J. Ecol. 90, 658-665.
- Landhäusser, S.M., Lieffers, V.J., 2003. Seasonal changes in carbohydrate reserves in mature
- anorthern *Populus tremuloides* clones. Trees 17, 471-476.
- Landhäusser, S.M., Mulak, T., Lieffers, V.J., 2007a. The effect of roots and litter of
- *Calamagrostis canadensis* on root sucker regeneration of *Populus tremuloides*. Forestry 80, 481488.
- Landhäusser, S.M., Lieffers, V.J., Chow, P., 2007b. Impact of chipping residues and its leachate
 on the initiation and growth of aspen root suckers. Canadian Journal of Soil Science 87, 361-367.
- Mundell, T.L., Landhäusser, S.M., Lieffers, V.J., 2007. Effects of *Corylus cornuta* stem density
 on root suckering and rooting depth of *Populus tremuloides*. Can. J. Bot. 85, 1041-1045.
- 441 Navratil, S., 1991. Regeneration challenges, in: Navratil, S., Chapman, P.B. (Eds.), Aspen
- 442 management for the 21st century. Proceedings of a Symposium in conjunction with the 12th
- annual meeting of the Poplar Council of Canada, Edmonton, AB, 20-21 November, 1990. For.
- 444 Can., Northwest Reg. North. For. Cent. And Poplar Counc. Can., Edmonton, AB, pp. 15-27.
- 445 Nguyen, P.V., Dickmann, D.I., Pregitzer, K.S., Henrick, R., 1990. Late-season changes in
- allocation of starch and sugar to shoots, coarse roots, and fine roots in two hybrid poplar clones.
- 447 Tree Physiol. 7, 95–105.
- Peterson, E.B., Peterson, N.M., 1992. Ecology, Management, and Use of Aspen and Balsam
 Poplar in the Prairie Provinces. Forestry Canada, Northern Forestry Center, Edmonton, Alberta.
- 450 Poorter, H., Niklas, K.J., Reich, P.B., Oleksyn, J., Poot, P., Mommer, L., 2012. Biomass
- 451 allocation to leaves, stems and roots: meta-analyses of interspecific variation and environmental
 452 control. New Phytol. 193, 30–50.
- 453 Renkema, K.N., Landhäusser, S.M., Lieffers, V.J., 2009. Response of aspen to traffic-induced-454 root wounding and the barrier-effect of log storage. For. Ecol. Manage. 258, 2083-2089.
- 455 Schier, G.A., 1972. Apical dominance in multishoot cultures from aspen roots. For. Sci. 18, 147-456 149.
- 457 Schier, G.A., 1973. Effects of gibberellic acid and an inhibitor of gibberellins action on 458 suckering from aspen root cuttings. Can. J. For. Res. 3, 39-44.
- Schier, G.A., 1978. Variation in suckering capacity among and within lateral roots of an aspenclone. USDA Forest Service, Research Notes INT-241.
- Schier, G.A., Campbell, R.B., 1978. Aspen sucker regeneration following burning and
 clearcutting on two sites in the Rocky Mountains. For. Sci. 24, 303-308.
- 463 Schier, G.A., Zasada, J.C., 1973. Role of carbohydrate reserves in the development of root 464 suckers in *Populus tremuloides*. Can. J. For. Res. 3, 243-250.
- 465 Starr, G.H., 1971. Propagation of aspen trees from lateral roots. J. For. 12, 866-867.
- 466 Steneker, G.A., 1974. Factors affecting the suckering of trembling aspen. For. Chron. 50, 32-34.
- Stenvall, N., Haapala, T., Pulkkinen, P., 2006. The role of a root cutting's diameter and location
 on the regeneration ability of hybrid aspen. For. Ecol. Manag. 237, 150-155.

- 469 Strong, W.L., LaRoi, G.H., 1983. Root-system morphology of common boreal forest trees in
- 470 Alberta, Canada. Can. J. For. Res. 13, 1164-1173.
- 471 Wan, X., Landhäusser, S.M., Lieffers, V.J., Zwiazek, J.J., 2006. Signals controlling root
- suckering and adventitious shoot formation in aspen (*Populus tremuloides*). Tree Physiol. 26,
- 473 681-687.
- 474

475 Tables

476 **Table 1**

477 Impact of soil depth on suckering response and mortality after one growing season (mean ± SE; n

- 478 = 10). Means sharing the same letter are not significantly different ($\alpha = 0.05$; LSD means
- 479 comparison test) across treatments.

Response variable	Soil depth (cm)		
	5	20	40
Total number of suckers per root fragment	$1.2 \pm 0.5 a$	2.5 ± 0.8 a	1.3 ± 0.9 a
Number of emerged suckers per root fragment	0.6 ± 0.2 a	$0.5\pm0.1~a$	0 b
Emerged sucker total length (below- + above-ground) (cm)	$23.0\pm1.7\ b$	$39.8\pm5.4~a$	N/A
Emerged sucker height above-ground (cm)	$18.0\pm1.7~\mathrm{a}$	$19.8\pm5.4~a$	N/A
Leaf dry mass per root fragment (g)	0.5 ± 0.2 a	0.8 ± 0.3 a	N/A
Emerged sucker dry mass per root fragment (g)	0.4 ± 0.1 a	0.8 ± 0.3 a	N/A
Number of new roots per emerged sucker	5.0 ± 3.3 a	1.2 ± 0.7 a	N/A
Length of new roots (cm)	$58.7\pm23.4~a$	$12.2\pm3.2\ b$	N/A
Number of non-emerged suckers per root fragment	$0.6\pm0.2\;b$	$2.0\pm0.7~a$	$1.3 \pm 0.9 \text{ ab}$
Non-emerged sucker length (cm)	$2.2\pm0.3\ b$	$5.3\pm0.6\ a$	8.5 ± 1.4 a
Non-emerged sucker dry mass per root fragment (g)	$0.06\pm0.03~b$	0.4 ± 0.1 a	0.2 ± 0.1 a
Root fragment mortality (%)	80 ± 7.0 a	$50\pm7.0\;b$	80 ± 7.0 a

480

482 **Table 2**

483 Impact of root fragment diameter (class 1: 1-2 cm; class 2: 2.1-3 cm; class 3: 3.1-4 cm) on

484 suckering response and mortality after one growing season (mean \pm SE; n = 10). Means sharing 485 the same letter are not significantly different ($\alpha = 0.05$; LSD means comparison test) across

486 treatments.

Response variable	Root diameter class (cm)		
	1 - 2	2.1 - 3	3.1 - 4
Total number of suckers per root fragment	0.9 ± 0.4 a	1.7 ± 0.6 a	2.4 ± 1.1 a
Number of emerged suckers per root fragment	0.3 ± 0.1 a	$0.4\pm0.2\ a$	0.3 ± 0.1 a
Emerged sucker total length (below- + above-ground) (cm)	$24.2\pm1.1~\text{b}$	42.3 ± 3.4 a	$26.9\pm2.7~b$
Emerged sucker height above-ground (cm)	$9.1\pm1.7~b$	28.3 ± 2.9 a	$12.5\pm2.1~b$
Leaf dry mass per root fragment (g)	$0.2\pm0.01\;b$	$1.4\pm0.2~a$	$0.3\pm0.04~b$
Emerged sucker dry mass per root fragment (g)	$0.2\pm0.1\;b$	0.7 ± 0.3 a	$0.2\pm0.1\;b$
Number of new roots per emerged sucker	$0.3\pm0.2\ b$	3.8 ± 2.5 a	2.1 ± 1.5 a
Length of new roots (cm)	$4.7\pm1.0\ c$	$28.3\pm9.1~\text{b}$	147.1 ± 54.9 a
Number of non-emerged suckers per root fragment	$0.6\pm0.3\ b$	1.3 ± 0.4 ab	$2.1 \pm 1.0 \text{ a}$
Non-emerged sucker height (cm)	5.1 ± 0.9 a	$4.4 \pm 0.5 \ a$	6.9 ± 1.4 a
Non-emerged sucker dry mass per root fragment (g)	0.1 ± 0.03 a	0.2 ± 0.07 a	$0.3 \pm 0.1 a$
Root fragment mortality (%)	70 ± 9.0 a	70 ± 10.0 a	80 ± 7.0 a
Initial non-structural carbohydrate content per root fragment (g)	$9.4\pm0.7\;c$	16.1 ± 1.1 b	20.4 ± 1.3 a
Initial non-structural carbohydrate concentration per root fragment (%)	15 ± 0.8 a	$12.9\pm0.9~b$	10.7 ± 0.4 c

488 489

487

Table 3

Role of fine roots in the suckering response and mortality of root fragments after one growing season (mean \pm SE; n = 10). Means sharing the same letter are not significantly different (α = 0.05; LSD means comparison test) across treatments.

Bernanse veriebles	Treatment		
Response variables	With fine roots	No fine roots	
Total number of suckers per root fragment	$0.6\pm0.3~\text{b}$	1.8 ± 0.6 a	
Number of emerged suckers per root fragment	$0.6\pm0.3\ a$	0.9 ± 0.3 a	
Emerged sucker total length (below- + above-ground) (cm)	41.1 ± 9.4 a	$37.1\pm5.7~a$	
Emerged sucker height above-ground (cm)	31.1 ± 9.4 a	$27.1\pm5.7~a$	
Leaf dry mass per root fragment (g)	$2.0\pm0.6\;a$	$1.6 \pm 0.4 \ a$	
Emerged sucker dry mass per root fragment (g)	4.2 ± 1.4 a	3.3 ± 0.8 a	
Number of new roots per emerged sucker	$1.5\pm1.5~\text{b}$	9.6 ± 4.2 a	
Length of new roots (cm)	$9.6\pm5.3\ b$	108.3 ± 44.8 a	
Number of non-emerged suckers per root fragment	0 b	0.9 ± 0.5 a	
Non-emerged sucker height (cm)	N/A	$3.6 \pm 0.5 \ a$	
Non-emerged sucker dry mass per root fragment (g)	N/A	$0.6\pm0.02\;a$	
Root fragment mortality (%)	70 ± 15.0 a	$40 \pm 16.0 a$	



499

Fig. 1. Emerged sucker numbers (a) and height of suckers above the soil surface (b) sprouting from root fragments buried at 5 and 20 cm, over the 2010 growing season. Error bars indicate one standard error of the mean (n = 10).



Fig. 2. NSC content (a) and concentration (b) and starch content (c) and concentration (d) of root fragments prior to burial (initial) and at the end of the first growing season (root fragments that produced emerged suckers (live with ES), live root fragments that did not produce emerged suckers (live without ES), and dead root fragments without suckers (dead) (n = 10). Data set for initial measurements includes all root fragments used in the diameter and depth study and fine root study. Data set of post experiment measurements only includes root fragments from both

512 experiments buried at a depth \leq 20 cm. Error bars indicate one standard error of the mean.

504



515 Fig. 3. NSC content (a) and concentration (b) and starch content (c) and concentration (d) of

alive root fragments at the beginning of the experiment (live-initial) and at the end of the

517 experiment (live-final) and of dead root fragments at the beginning (dead-initial) and at the end

of the experiment (dead-final) (n = 10). Initial measurements were taken in late April and final

519 measurements in late August. Data set for initial measurements includes all root fragments of the

520 diameter and depth study and fine root study, regardless of emerged, non-emerged or no suckers.

521 Data set of post experiment measurements only includes root fragments from both experiments

buried at a depth ≤ 20 cm. Error bars indicate one standard error of the mean.

523

514



Fig. 4. Relationship between total sucker length and initial starch concentration of root fragments (A) and between sucker leaf dry mass and root fragment starch concentration at the end of the experiment (B) in aspen root fragments that had produced emerged suckers and were buried at 5 and 20 cm depth (n=12).