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Spatial mapping of root systems reveals diverse strategies of soil exploration and resource contest in grassland plants

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1	Spatial mapping of root systems reveals diverse strategies of
2	soil exploration and resource contest in grassland plants
3	
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24 Abstract

When foraging and competing for belowground resources, plants have to coordinate
 the behaviour of thousands of root tips in a manner similar to that of eusocial
 animal colonies. While well described in animals, we know little about the spatial
 behaviour of plants, particularly at the level of individual roots.

29 2. Here, we employed statistical methods previously used to describe animal ranging
30 behaviour to examine root system overlap and the efficiency of root positioning in
31 eight grassland species grown in monocultures and mixtures along a gradient of
32 neighbour densities.

Species varied widely in their ability to distribute roots efficiently, with the majority
 of species showing significant root aggregation at very fine spatial scales. Extensive
 root system overlap was observed in species mixtures, indicating a lack of
 territoriality at the level of whole root systems. However, with increasing density of
 competitors, several species withdrew roots from the periphery of foraging ranges
 and increased intraplant root aggregation in the remaining area, which may indicate
 consolidation of foraging areas under competitive pressure.

40 4. Several species exhibited responses consistent with resource contest in species
41 mixtures where encounters with competitors' roots triggered increased root
42 aggregation at the expense of foraging efficiency. Such responses only occurred in
43 mixtures of species with comparable competitive abilities but were absent in
44 asymmetric species combinations.

5. *Synthesis.* Combining fine-scale measurement of plant root distributions with spatial
statistics yields new insights into plant behavioural strategies with significant
potential to impact resource foraging efficiency and productivity.

- 49 Key words: belowground interactions, competition, foraging efficiency, functional traits,
 50 ideal free distribution, plant behaviour, plant-plant interactions, root spatial
 51 distribution, root system overlap

53 Introduction

Plants produce extensive root systems often comprising kilometres of root length and 54 organised in complex branched structures. Due to a lack of easy tools to quantify and 55 characterise root spatial distributions, our knowledge of how roots are distributed in 56 soil at different spatial scales and how spatial patterns change in response to 57 competitive interactions is limited (Semchenko, John, & Hutchings, 2007b; Cahill et al., 58 59 2010; Yang, Li, Xu, & Kong, 2018). On the other hand, root systems share qualities with certain animals whose foraging and territorial behaviour has been extensively studied, 60 61 offering new ways of exploring and quantifying plant root behaviour (Novoplansky, 2009; McNickle & Brown, 2012; Ljubotina & Cahill, 2019). 62

Root systems may be comparable to eusocial central-place foragers such as bees 63 and ants, with root tips analogous to highly-related individuals serving the purpose of 64 foraging and delivering resources to a central "nest site", i.e. in plants, the rooting point 65 connected to aboveground tissues. In common with animal colonies, root systems are 66 fundamentally constrained by the necessity to initiate all root growth from a single 67 68 rooting point (or a few rooting points in the case of clonal plants). Branching patterns 69 further constrain the spatial positioning of higher order branches (Robinson, Hodge, & Fitter, 2003). In animal systems, a parallel to such constraints may be the use of 70 established paths or tunnels in ant and termite foraging that lead individuals to the most 71 profitable foraging areas (Traniello, 1989; Almeida et al., 2018). Beyond the constraints 72 of shared spatial origin, plant roots are expected to follow the ideal free distribution in 73 74 the absence of competitors, minimising intraplant competition and maximising resource uptake efficiency (McNickle & Brown, 2014). Root system modelling indicates that 75 nutrient uptake efficiency is strongly influenced by root system topology and root 76

77 branching angles (Fitter, Stickland, Harvey, & Wilson, 1991; Ge, Rubio, & Lynch, 2000; 78 Lynch & Brown, 2001; Rubio, 2001; Dunbabin, Rengel, & Diggle, 2004). However, 79 empirical measurements of spatial distributions at the level of individual roots are 80 scarce (Caldwell, Manwaring, & Durham, 1991, 1996). Furthermore, while knowledge 81 about easily measured root morphological traits, and their links with community- and ecosystem level processes, is rapidly accumulating (Bardgett, Mommer, & deVries, 2014; 82 83 Roumet et al., 2016; Kramer-Walter et al., 2016), it is unknown how these traits relate to the efficiency of soil exploration at the level of individual roots. Revealing these 84 85 relationships could significantly improve our mechanistic understanding of fundamental 86 plant strategies.

87 Spatial behaviour is strongly influenced by interactions with neighbouring individuals. Animals typically have an area that is regularly traversed in search of 88 resources (food and/or mates), known as the home range, which may be shared with 89 other groups or individuals (Adams, 2001). Depending on the costs of conflict and the 90 benefits of acquiring resources, different strategies are optimal, and different patterns of 91 home range overlap emerge (Sih & Mateo, 2001; Morrell & Kokko, 2005; Börger, Dalziel, 92 & Fryxell, 2008). When the cost of aggressive contest is very high and population 93 densities relatively low, the strategy of avoiding contest and seeking empty space is 94 95 most successful, leading to largely segregated home ranges (Stamps & Krishnan, 2001; 96 Morrell & Kokko, 2005). In plants, this scenario matches most closely to arid and semi-97 arid ecosystems or communities with low densities of individuals where root system segregation has indeed been recorded (Brisson & Reynolds, 1994; Schenk, Callaway, & 98 99 Mahall, 1999). When the costs of aggression are very low, the boldest and most 100 aggressive strategy is predicted to prevail, as the cost of sharing space is too low to deter 101 individuals from revisiting the same sites (Carpenter, 1987; Morrell & Kokko, 2005).

102 This scenario fits observations from mesic grasslands and forests where root systems 103 tend to overlap extensively (Fitter, 1987; Mamolos, Elisseou, & Veresoglou, 1995; Lang, 104 Dolynska, Finkeldey, & Polle, 2010; Mommer et al., 2010; Laclau et al., 2013, McNickle & 105 Brown, 2014). Furthermore, the degree of asymmetry among individuals in their 106 capacity to inflict damage (e.g. due to difference in size or resource uptake efficiency) is 107 expected to affect the outcome of interactions, leading to escalation or stalemate 108 between individuals of similar ability but unidirectional attack and escape when individuals have asymmetric abilities (e.g. interspecific competition; Stamps & Krishnan, 109 110 2001; McNickle & Brown, 2012). The applicability of this theory to plants remains to be 111 tested.

112 Both theoretical predictions as well as empirical observations of plant root systems have primarily focused on estimating total root production and root system 113 overlap at large spatial scales (Brisson & Reynolds, 1994; reviewed in Schenk et al., 114 1999; Gersani, Brown, O'Brien, Maina, & Abramsky, 2001; Maina, Brown, & Gersani, 115 2002; Holzapfel & Alpert, 2003; O'Brien, Brown, & Moll 2007; Semchenko, Hutchings, & 116 117 John, 2007a; Cahill et al., 2010; McNickle & Brown, 2014). Spatial positioning of individual roots has rarely been measured (Mahall & Callaway, 1991, 1992; Caldwell et 118 al., 1991, 1996; Semchenko et al., 2007b) but could significantly improve our 119 120 understanding of resource foraging efficiency in plants and provide a new perspective on plant behavioural strategies such as resource contest and conflict avoidance. In this 121 122 study, we revisited the technique of freezing intact soil and mapping root spatial 123 locations (Caldwell et al., 1991, 1996) and combined it with georeferencing software 124 and statistical methods used to describe animal foraging and home range behaviour. 125 Using these tools, we explored root spatial distributions in a range of temperate grassland species that were subjected to varying densities of conspecific and 126

127 heterospecific competitors. We expected that roots belonging to the same individual 128 would be aggregated at small spatial scales, indicating low efficiency of soil exploration, 129 due to the intrinsic constraints of central-place foraging, but the degree of root 130 aggregation would vary among species as a function of architecture (Fitter et al., 1991; 131 Dunbabin et al., 2004; Ge et al., 2000; Lynch & Brown, 2001; Rubio, 2001) and root 132 system size, with larger root systems less efficient at space exploration (Berntson, 1994; 133 Pagès, 2011). At larger spatial scales, we expected root systems to be more flexible and therefore more likely to occupy space evenly (Gersani, Abramsky & Falik, 1998; 134 135 McNickle & Brown, 2014; Yang et al., 2018).

We also expected root spatial distribution to vary as a function of species 136 137 competitive ability. It has been predicted that combinations of individuals with contrasting competitive abilities should produce lower root biomass compared with 138 139 mixtures comprising similar competitors (e.g. conspecifics), where escalating 140 overproliferation is likely (McNickle & Brown, 2012). However, no predictions have 141 been made regarding the efficiency of root placement. We suggest that escalating resource contest among species with similar competitive abilities (reflected in the 142 similar biomass of competitors) may be manifested at fine spatial scales as aggregation 143 of competitors' roots and hence low efficiency of soil exploration. On the other hand, 144 145 interactions between species with contrasting competitive abilities may increase 146 intraplant root aggregation in competitively inferior species as a means of defending 147 their limited home ranges. Root positioning was recorded at two soil depths, to assess 148 the consistency of patterns along the soil profile, and at a range of neighbour densities to 149 explore how interactions changed with increasing competitive pressure. Lastly, we 150 related root spatial distribution and home range patterns to root morphological traits in order to integrate root spatial behaviour with traits commonly used to describe plant 151

152 belowground strategies. We predicted that species with root traits reflecting a competitive strategy, such as high specific root length and low tissue density (Wang, 153 154 Stieglitz, Zhou, & Cahill, 2010; Ravenek et al., 2016; Semchenko, Lepik, Abakumova, & 155 Zobel, 2018), would engage in resource contest by aggregating roots in the vicinity of 156 competitors. On the other hand, species with traits reflecting alternative resource 157 acquisition strategies, such as association with mycorrhizal fungi (e.g. reduced root 158 branching and large root diameter; Semchenko et al., 2018; Bergmann et al., 2020), were predicted to exhibit efficient root placement and avoid neighbours' roots. 159

160

161 Materials and methods

162 Experimental design and measurements

163 The seeds of eight plant species (Antennaria dioica (L.) Gaertn., Carlina vulgaris L., 164 Filipendula vulgaris Moench., Galium verum L., Lotus corniculatus L., Pilosella officinarum Vaill., Pimpinella saxifraga L., Sesleria caerulea (L.) Ard.) were collected in 2008 from a 165 semi-natural, calcareous (alvar) grassland in Estonia (58°38'31"N, 23°30'55"E). The site 166 167 is characterised by high species richness and rendzic leptosol soil type, with an average of 18 cm of humus layer over limestone shingle parent material (Pärtel, Kalamees, Zobel, 168 & Rosen, 1999; Nettan, Thetloff, Lepik, Semchenko, & Zobel, 2019). The seeds were air-169 dried and stored at 4°C. The following spring, seeds were germinated on moist sand, and 170 similar-sized seedlings were transplanted into 3.5 l pots (17.1 cm diameter, 15 cm deep) 171 172 filled with a mixture of commercial potting compost (pH 6, water-soluble N 100 mg/l, P 173 80 mg/l, K 400 mg/l), sand and limestone powder. The germination of seeds from 174 different species was timed such that seedlings were available for transplantation at the same time. The soil mixture was prepared to match the pH and N content of the soil at 175

176 the seed collection site as closely as possible. To provide plants with natural soil biota, 177 soil from the site of seed collection was also added to the mixture. Each species was grown surrounded by either conspecific or heterospecific neighbours (species 178 179 monoculture and mixture treatments, respectively). Distributing experimental 180 replicates along a continuous gradient of environmental treatment with little or no 181 replication per treatment level can provide a more powerful approach for identifying 182 responses to environmental variation than examining fewer replicated levels of an environmental treatment (Kreyling et al., 2018). Therefore, rather than employing the 183 184 frequently used approach of growing plants alone and at an arbitrary neighbour density, we exposed plants to a gradient of seven neighbour densities (no neighbours, 1, 2, 3, 4, 6 185 186 or 8 neighbours) to obtain robust estimates of root spatial patterns and their responses to neighbour density. The focal plant was planted at the centre of each pot and 187 188 neighbouring individuals were planted in a circle, equidistant from each other and at 5.7 cm distance from the focal plant (corresponding to 2/3 of the pot radius). Each focal 189 species was grown in the mixture treatment with a species that it frequently encounters 190 as its nearest neighbour in the field (Semchenko, Abakumova, Lepik, & Zobel, 2013). 191 192 Each focal species × neighbour density (1-8) combination was replicated twice and focal plants grown in the absence of neighbours were replicated four times (224 pots in total; 193 194 212 measured at harvest due to seedling mortality).

Pots were placed randomly in a common garden at the end of May 2009 and rerandomised twice during the experiment. Plants received natural precipitation and additional watering during dry spells and were harvested after 14 weeks of growth. Aboveground biomass was removed and dried at 70°C for 48 h and weighed. The roots were left intact in the soil, which was then frozen at -18°C. The frozen pots were sliced horizontally at depths of 5 cm and 10 cm below the soil surface. Roots were mapped at

201 two depths to determine if patterns of variation in root spatial distributions were 202 similar across different depths. The surfaces of defrosted soil slices were gently cleared 203 with water, to expose roots that had been sliced through, and scanned (Epson perfection 204 V700 PHOTO, Long Beach, CA, USA). The locations of all root intersections visible within 205 the central area of the scanned image, corresponding to 2/3 of the pot radius (Figs. 1 206 and S1 in Supporting Information), were recorded using ArcGiS software (version 10.0, 207 ESRI, Aylesbury, UK). The species examined in the mixture treatment had different root colours, allowing focal and neighbouring plant roots to be visually distinguished; in the 208 209 species monoculture treatment, focal and neighbouring plant roots were not distinguished. Hence, analysis of spatial patterns in monocultures was performed across 210 211 all plants in the pot while analysis of mixture data was performed for focal individuals 212 and neighbours separately.

213 To relate root spatial patterns to root morphology and architecture, we used root 214 trait data presented in Semchenko et al., 2018. These data were collected from the same experiment, following the scanning of the soil slices by carefully washing roots out from 215 the top soil slices (0-5 cm depth) and separating the roots of focal and neighbouring 216 plants. From each focal plant and its neighbours, two representative root axes were 217 selected randomly for root morphological analysis. Roots were scanned (Epson 218 219 perfection V700 PHOTO, Long Beach, CA, USA), dried at 70°C for 48 h along with all of the remaining roots and weighed. Root diameter, root length, root volume, and the 220 221 number of root tips were calculated using the program WinRhizo 2008a (Regent 222 Instruments Inc., Quebec, Canada). Using these measurements, root tissue density (dry 223 root mass/root volume), specific root length (root length/dry root mass), and root 224 branching frequency (number of root tips/root length) were calculated.

225

226 Estimation of root spatial patterns

227 Intraspecific root spatial distribution

The degree of root spatial aggregation or segregation was calculated for each pot and 228 229 soil depth using the L function, which is derived by comparing Ripley's K function to the pattern expected under complete spatial randomness (Ripley, 1976; Rowlingson & 230 231 Diggle, 2017). Ripley's K function (K(t)) is defined as the expected number of additional points within a distance *t* of an arbitrary point within the study area, divided by the 232 overall density of points and corrected for edge effects. The L function was calculated as: 233 $L(t) = sqrt(K(t)/\pi) - t$. The value of the function is zero if points are distributed 234 randomly in space (suggesting no response to the presence of neighbouring roots), 235 negative if points are overdispersed (indicative of root segregation and high efficiency of 236 237 space exploration), and positive if points are spatially aggregated (indicative of low 238 efficiency of soil exploration; Fig. 1). The L-function was calculated across all plants for 239 species monocultures and at the level of individual focal plants (i.e. reflecting intra-plant 240 spatial patterns) and neighbours for species mixtures. In this analysis, points 241 represented the locations of root intersections. Since the density of roots from a single 242 individual declines with distance from the rooting point and pots contained multiple individuals, root density varied strongly across the pot, violating the assumption of 243 homogeneity that underpins the standard Ripley's K calculation (i.e. that the mean 244 245 intensity of the point pattern is constant across the observation area). To account for 246 variation in rooting densities across the pot, we used a generalisation of the L function 247 for inhomogeneous point patterns, which estimates the local intensity of the point pattern using "leave one out" kernel smoothing (standard deviation of the Gaussian 248 249 kernel estimated based on the size of the observation area), with "translation" edge correction, (function *Linhom* from R package *spatstat*, Baddeley, Rubak, & Turner, 2015). 250

To determine the scale of root architectural constraints and selective pressures on the uptake efficiency of resources with different mobility, root spatial aggregation (Lfunction) was calculated at two scales: t = 2 mm and t = 1 cm (Fig. S1), corresponding respectively to the spatial scales of root depletion zones for less mobile (e.g. phosphate) and more mobile (e.g. nitrate) ions (de Kroon, Mommer, & Nishiwaki, 2003).

256

257 Interspecific root spatial distribution

258 To assess how the roots of two species in mixtures were positioned in relation to each other, bivariate L functions (L_{bv}) were calculated at two spatial scales (2 mm and 1 cm), 259 260 where the bivariate K function is the expected number of roots belonging to species 1 within a distance *t* of an arbitrary root belonging to species 2, divided by the overall root 261 density of species 1 and corrected for edge effects. To account for variable root densities 262 across the observation area, the inhomogeneous version of the bivariate L function was 263 calculated as described above (function *Ldot.inhom* in R package *spatstat*). L_{bv} is zero if 264 the roots of the two species are distributed randomly in relation to each other, negative 265 266 if roots are segregated, and positive if roots of one species aggregate with roots of the 267 other species (Fig. 1).

268

269 *Home range size and overlap*

Three metrics were calculated to describe the spatial extent of whole root systems and overlap between the root systems of focal and neighbouring plants (Fig. 1). Minimum convex polygon (MCP) area was used to describe the home range, i.e. the total area encompassed by roots. The core foraging area was defined as the 50% kernel area based on the bivariate normal kernel method (Worton, 1989), where a two-dimensional probability density function describes the probability of finding roots in a given area within a home range. Home range overlap in species mixtures was calculated as the total
kernel volume overlap (expressed as a proportion, with the maximum of 1 in case of
complete overlap). Ranges were calculated using package *adehabitatHR* in R (Calenge,
2006).

280

281 Statistical analysis

Linear mixed models were used to estimate the effects of focal species (or species pair 282 identity in analyses of species mixtures; fixed factor, eight levels), neighbour density 283 (fixed factor, continuous variable), soil depth (fixed factor, two levels) and their 284 285 interactions on root spatial patterns. Pot identity was included as a random factor in all 286 models (as each pot was measured at two soil depths). The following spatial characteristics were examined as response variables: a) L function in species 287 288 monocultures or species mixtures (focal plants and neighbours separately); and in 289 species mixtures b) bivariate L function (L_{bv}); c) MCP range of the focal plant; d) core 290 foraging area of the focal plant; and e) kernel volume overlap between focal and 291 neighbour plants. For L functions, separate models were performed for each spatial 292 scale (2 mm and 1 cm). Models were performed using package *lme4* in R (Bates, 293 Mächler, Bolker, & Walker, 2015).

To illustrate the results of linear mixed models, linear models were performed for each species, treatment (species monoculture or mixture) and soil depth combination with neighbour density as a continuous predictor and one of the spatial characteristics described above as a response variable. In the absence of significant interactions between species identity and neighbour density, predicted values at mean neighbour density (four neighbours) were used to illustrate interspecific differences in spatial

patterns; otherwise, the estimated slope of the relationship between a spatial
characteristic and neighbour density was used to illustrate the effect of neighbour
density on each focal species.

303 We used data on plant shoot and root biomass, root tissue density, root branching 304 frequency, root diameter and specific root length from Semchenko et al. (2018) to 305 examine relationships between root spatial patterns and the size and morphological 306 traits of focal plants, as well as trait differences between focal and neighbouring plants, which may reflect differences in competitive abilities or resource acquisition strategies. 307 308 For each focal species trait, predicted values at the mean neighbour density (four 309 neighbours) were extracted from a linear model with the trait as a response variable 310 and neighbour density as a continuous predictor. In addition, absolute differences between focal and neighbour trait values were calculated for each pot in species 311 mixtures, and predicted absolute trait differences at the mean neighbour density were 312 extracted from linear models as described above. For shoot and root biomass, the 313 absolute difference between the focal plant mass and the total mass of all neighbours in 314 a pot was calculated. 315

In species monocultures, Pearson's correlations were examined between predicted trait values and L function estimates. In the species mixtures, correlations were examined between predicted trait values of the focal plant and range size (MCP and core), and focal plant L function estimates. Lastly, correlations between absolute trait differences (between the two species in the mixture) and home range overlap, and bivariate L function (L_{bv}), were examined.

All data analyses were performed in R 3.6.3 (R Core Team, 2020).

323

324 **Results**

325 *Root spatial patterns in species monocultures*

326 Patterns of root spatial distribution varied significantly as a function of species identity, soil depth and neighbour density and were dependent on the spatial scale of 327 328 observations (Table 1). At the finest (2 mm) spatial scale, roots were generally significantly aggregated at the mean neighbour density (four neighbours) but varied 329 330 widely between species, and the monoculture of Lotus corniculatus exhibited random 331 spatial distribution (Fig. 2a). At the scale of 1 cm, roots were overall less aggregated than at the 2 mm scale (Fig. 2b). Spatial aggregation patterns were consistent across soil 332 depths except for *Sesleria caerulea*, which showed significantly less root aggregation at 333 10 cm than 5 cm depth (depth by species interaction in Table 1, Fig. 2a). Root 334 aggregation generally declined with increasing neighbour density at the scale of 2mm 335 336 Fig. 3a, Fig. S2a), but no significant effect of neighbour density was detected at the scale 337 of 1 cm (Table 1).

338

339 *Root spatial patterns, range size and overlap in species mixtures*

Spatial aggregation of roots in species mixtures varied strongly between species pairs, with *S. caerulea* showing most aggregated patterns and *L. corniculatus* nearly random root distribution at mean neighbour density (Table 1, Fig. 2c-d). Contrary to species monocultures, focal plants in species mixtures exhibited increased root aggregation with neighbour density at 2mm spatial scale (Table 1, Figs. 3b and S2).

Intraspecific aggregation in neighbouring plants also varied significantly between species mixtures (Table 1, Fig. 2e-f). Small-scale root aggregation in *S. caerulea*, which was used as the neighbouring species in five species mixtures, differed significantly between mixtures, with aggregation being significantly lower when grown in mixture with *Carlina vulgaris* and *Pimpinella saxifraga* than when grown with the other three
focal species (Fig. 2e). Neighbours' roots became less aggregated with soil depth and
increasing neighbour density (Figs. 2e and 3c), though these effects varied among
species, particularly at the 1cm spatial scale (Table 1, Figs. 2f and S2).

353 Analysis of bivariate spatial patterns revealed that the roots of several species 354 were strongly aggregated in relation to each other at the 2 mm spatial scale (Fig. 2g). At 355 mean neighbour density, strong aggregation was observed in four species mixtures, while three species combinations showed weaker aggregation or nearly random 356 357 distribution (Fig. 2g). Aggregation slightly declined with neighbour density (Table 1, Fig. 358 3d). At the larger spatial scale, interspecific root aggregation was reduced and roots in 359 the mixture of *F. vulgaris* and *S. caerulea* became significantly segregated (Fig. 2h). 360 Aggregation patterns were consistent across soil depths (Fig. 2g-h).

Focal plant core areas did not significantly shrink with increasing neighbour density, while MCP ranges declined in *Antennaria dioica* and *S. caerulea* but not other species (significant species by density interaction for MCP range in Table 2, Fig. 4a-b and S3). These two focal species experienced a slight decline in home range overlap with increasing neighbour density, while the other focal species showed increased overlap (Fig. 4c and S3). Core area size and the extent of home range overlap generally increased with soil depth (Table 2, Fig. S3).

368

369 Relationship between root spatial patterns and plant traits

In species monocultures, root spatial aggregation was not significantly related to the total density of roots in soil but was significantly negatively correlated with root diameter at both spatial scales (Fig. 5a, Table S1). In species mixtures, focal plant roots were less aggregated at 2 mm spatial scale and occupied a larger range if the focal plant attained high shoot and root biomass and high root density (Table S1, Fig. 5b-d).
Interspecific root aggregation (based on bivariate L-function) was negatively correlated
with the absolute difference in shoot mass between focal and neighbour plants (Table
S1, Fig. 5e). Range volume overlap was positively correlated with the absolute difference
between biomass and root density of focal and neighbour plants (Table S1, Fig. 5f).

379

380 **Discussion**

381 In this study, we obtained fine-scale measurements of root spatial distributions in a 382 range of grassland species and employed analytical approaches used in animal behavioural studies to describe the foraging efficiency and home range behaviour of 383 384 plant roots. We found that plant species varied widely in their ability to secure a large 385 belowground home range and position their roots efficiently in space, representing new axes of variation in plant strategies that can have important consequences for species 386 387 competitive ability, co-existence and efficiency of nutrient uptake. We also demonstrate that roots belonging to different species often aggregated in each other's vicinity at very 388 fine spatial scales, which may represent resource contest at the expense of foraging 389 efficiency. In agreement with theoretical models of animal behaviour (Stamps & 390 Krishnan, 2001; Morrell & Kokko, 2005), such contests were more prevalent in 391 interactions between species of similar size while species pairs with asymmetric sizes 392 showed reduced confrontation. These findings suggest that complex evolutionary 393 models of behaviour are applicable to plants and should be considered as mechanisms 394 that can contribute to the effects of biodiversity on resource use efficiency and 395 396 productivity.

397 This study used a pot experiment to demonstrate a new approach to studying 398 plant root behaviour. However, the technique is amenable to other contexts and could 399 be combined with additional measurements to further explore the complexity of the 400 phenomenon. First, the species used in this study originate from calcareous grasslands 401 on thin soil and are characterised by slow growth and frequent experience of root 402 growth restriction in stony substrate. As such, they were well suited for a pot 403 experiment, where pot walls may restrict root growth. Pot walls may nonetheless have affected the maximum extent of root systems, particularly for plants grown in the 404 405 absence of competitors. As a result, the response of focal root systems to neighbour density may have been underestimated. Root morphology may also be affected by 406 407 interactions with pot walls (Semchenko et al., 2007a, Semchenko, Zobel, Heinemeyer, & Hutchings, 2008). We therefore restricted our observations to the central area of the pot 408 409 and left areas adjacent to the pot walls as buffer zones. However, it is also conceivable 410 that roots that were not in direct contact with the pot walls were also affected. Such effects might be particularly problematic for many species of larger size and those that 411 412 occupy more productive soils. It may therefore be critical to record root spatial positioning under natural, field conditions. Second, in this study, all roots were included 413 in the assessment of spatial patterns. However, roots are likely to vary widely in their 414 415 physiological activity and may serve the function of nutrient uptake or transport. More detailed knowledge of the costs and benefits of root positioning could be obtained if root 416 417 positioning were recorded in a time series, preferably over several growth seasons, and 418 combined with a technique enabling the estimation of physiological activity, e.g. 419 enzymatic activity (Razavi, Zarebanadkouki, Blagodatskaya, & Kuzyakov, 2016).

420

421 Root spatial patterns in species monocultures

422 The roots of most species were aggregated at fine spatial scales, likely reflecting 423 fundamental constraints on root architecture. Aggregation declined with increasing 424 spatial scale suggesting that plant root systems are less developmentally constrained 425 and able to occupy space more evenly at larger spatial scales. Wide variation in the 426 levels of aggregation was observed between species. Contrary to modelling studies 427 predicting that large root systems should be less efficient in root spatial positioning 428 (Berntson, 1994; Pagès, 2011), variation observed in this study could not be explained by total root density. We found that species exhibiting lower levels of root aggregation 429 430 were characterised by larger root diameters. Large root diameter may reflect high root construction costs as well as strong dependence on mycorrhizal associations, as a 431 432 thicker cortex layer offers space for fungal colonisation (Cortois, Schroder-Georgi, Weigelt, van der Putten, & De Devn, 2016; Kong et al., 2019; Bergmann et al., 2020). 433 434 Therefore, it may be that species with more costly roots experience stronger selective 435 pressure to position their roots efficiently in soil, even if such roots primarily play the 436 role of transport and nutrient exchange with fungal partners. However, this relationship is only correlative and based on eight species, and hence requires further exploration 437 438 across a wider range of species and environmental conditions.

We found that root spatial aggregation in species monocultures (as well as 439 440 interspecific aggregation in species mixtures) tended to decline with increasing 441 neighbour density. This indicates that having more individuals per unit soil surface area 442 could be an important driver of efficient soil exploration, and ecological processes that 443 reduce plant mortality may significantly modify plant community functioning and resource use efficiency. For example, niche complementarity or dilution of natural 444 445 enemy pressure in more diverse plant communities could support higher densities of 446 individuals (Peters, 2003; Marquard et al., 2009), which in turn could improve nutrient

447 foraging and transport efficiency, with potential positive effects on community448 productivity.

449

450 Root spatial patterns and range overlap in species mixtures

451 We found that several species mixtures exhibited high levels of interspecific aggregation 452 at very fine spatial scales. Positioning roots very close to a competitor's roots may reduce resource uptake efficiency but may intensify competition and thus represent a 453 454 contest of resources. Theoretical models of behaviour predict that interactions between players with symmetric competitive abilities are likely to lead to escalated fights while 455 asymmetric interactions lead to reduced contest (Stamps & Krishnan, 2001; 456 Novoplansky, 2009). In line with these predictions, we found that interspecific root 457 aggregation was particularly pronounced in mixtures of species with similar biomass, 458 459 indicating similar competitive abilities (Keddy, Nielsen, Weiher, & Lawson, 2002; Wang et al., 2010; Semchenko et al., 2018). In mixtures composed of species with very 460 461 different sizes, the home range of the larger competitor encompassed most of the range 462 of the inferior competitor. However, low levels of interspecific root aggregation were 463 observed despite the clear opportunity for contest. This observation is consistent with an evolutionary model of root biomass production where in combinations of 464 competitors with contrasting competitive abilities it becomes obsolete for the superior 465 competitor to "harass" the weaker neighbour by producing extra roots, and the weaker 466 competitor curtails its root production in the face of a contest that could not be won 467 (McNickle & Brown, 2012). 468

469 Species mixtures differed significantly in how the roots of different species were470 positioned in relation to each other but also how roots belonging to the same species

471 (intraspecific aggregation) were affected by the presence of other species. Aggregation 472 within individual focal root systems tended to increase with the increasing density of 473 heterospecific competitors. Such a response to increasing competitive pressure may 474 represent a strategy of consolidating occupied space and preventing further intrusion by 475 heterospecific roots, even if it comes at the cost of increased intraplant competition. It 476 could be achieved by switching from shallow rooting angles (most effective for avoiding 477 intraplant competition) to deeper angles that reduce root system overlap between neighbours (Ge et al., 2000; Rubio, 2001). In line with this interpretation, we found that 478 479 home ranges declined in some species, while core area size remained stable, with increasing neighbour density, suggesting that plants held on to their core foraging areas 480 481 but ceded space at the limits of their ranges with increasing competitive pressure.

Besides the density of competitors, the species identity of competitors also 482 significantly modified root placement. In our study, we created species mixtures by 483 coupling focal plants with neighbours that they encountered most frequently in the field. 484 485 This resulted in using one of the dominant grass species as the neighbouring species in 486 five mixtures. The root placement of this species was highly responsive to the identity of 487 the focal species. The grass showed highly aggregated root placement when combined 488 with three species but intraspecific root aggregation was much lower in other two mixtures (levels similar to those observed in monoculture conditions). These 489 490 observations indicate that the efficiency of root placement differs significantly between species but is also highly plastic within species in response to the density and identity of 491 492 competitors.

493 *Conclusions*

494 Fine-scale root spatial mapping can be combined with different statistical approaches to gain new insights into plant belowground strategies and test the applicability to plants 495 496 of animal-based behavioural theories. The majority of game-theoretic models of plant 497 behaviour to date have focussed on predicting root biomass production over large 498 spatial scales. Here we go beyond assessing root biomass production and highlight the 499 importance of considering the spatial distribution of individual roots. Our study 500 uncovered a diverse range of ways plants deploy their roots in space. New modelling approaches are now needed to explore which spatial strategies are evolutionarily stable 501 502 in the presence of competitors with different characteristics and why. We found that the efficiency of root placement depended on the density and species identity of interacting 503 504 plants as well as their relative size. Therefore, community processes that determine 505 plant mortality and species richness and composition may play an important role in 506 regulating plant behavioural responses and associated efficiency of soil exploitation. 507 Finally, there were no clear links between spatial patterns and commonly measured root morphological traits, indicating that root placement strategies may represent a distinct 508 trait axis that can significantly expand our understanding of plant belowground 509 strategies. 510

511

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696 TABLES AND FIGURES

698	Table 1. Results of linear mixed models examining the effects of species or species pair
699	identity, neighbour density and soil depth on root spatial distribution (L-function) in
700	species monocultures, intraspecific root distribution of focal (focal L-function) and
701	neighbouring plants (neigh L-function) and interspecific root association in species
702	mixtures (bivariate L-function). Rooting patterns were examined at two spatial scales (2
703	mm and 1 cm). F-values and their significance are shown. $P < 0.1$; * $P < 0.05$; ** $P < 0.05$
704	0.01; *** $P < 0.001$. df – degrees of freedom. Residual degrees of freedom are based on
705	Kenward-Roger approximations.

	Monoculture L-function			Mixture focal L-function		Mixture neigh L-function		Bivariate L-function	
	df	2mm	1cm	2mm	1cm	2mm	1cm	2mm	1cm
Species (S)	7	15.43 ***	4.50 ***	22.30 ***	6.29 ***	28.55 ***	5.54 ***	30.32 ***	3.21 **
Neighbour density (N)	1	12.23 ***	0.18	4.35 *	2.29	4.23 *	0.37	4.28 *	0.01
Depth (D)	1	0.11	1.82	2.30	0.65	5.30 *	1.17	3.50 \$	0.02
S:N	7	1.35	1.95 \$	1.02	0.76	0.56	1.72	0.44	0.43
S:D	7	3.07 **	3.24 **	1.25	1.90 \$	0.22	3.03 **	1.73	0.67
N:D	1	0.04	0.04	<0.01	0.01	<0.01	0.10	<0.01	< 0.01
S:N:D	7	0.36	1.53	0.97	0.55	1.51	2.22 *	0.60	0.90
Res df		106		100		71		71	

707 Table 2. Results of linear mixed models examining the effects of species pair identity, 708 neighbour density and soil depth on the size of focal plant foraging ranges in species 709 mixtures (expressed as minimum convex polygon, MCP or 50% kernel core area) and 710 home range overlap between focal and neighbour plants in species mixtures (expressed as the overlap between total kernel volumes). F-values and their significance are shown. 711 \$ P < 0.1; * P < 0.05; ** P < 0.01; *** P < 0.001. df – degrees of freedom. Residual degrees 712 of freedom were 103 for range size models and 73 for range overlap models (based on 713 Kenward-Roger approximations). 714

		Rang	Range	
	df	МСР	Core area	volume overlap
Species (S)	7	40.4 ***	30.6 ***	3.2 **
Neighbour density (N)	1	8.2 **	0.03	27.6 ***
Depth (D)	1	0.07	7.2 **	6.0 *
S:N	7	2.5 *	0.53	3.5 **
S:D	7	1.2	1.8	2.1 \$
N:D	1	4.5 *	1.1	1.2
S:N:D	7	1.2	0.71	1.4
S:N S:D N:D S:N:D	7 7 1 7	2.5 * 1.2 4.5 * 1.2	0.53 1.8 1.1 0.71	

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Figure 1. Examples of root spatial distributions in species mixtures with a focal plant located in the centre and four neighbours located at 2/3 of the pot radius from the centre. Yellow colours indicated the highest and dark blue the lowest root densities. Root locations are shown with grey dots; the solid rings indicate the central area of pots, where root locations were recorded (2/3 of the pot radius); the dashed lines show minimum convex polygon (MCP) home ranges; and dotted lines shows the 50% kernel

core areas. Roots are less spatially aggregated (as indicated by lower values of the Lfunctions) and home range overlap is smaller in the mixture of *Filipendula vulgaris* and *Sesleria caerulea* than in the mixture of *Pilosella officinarum* and *Sesleria caerulea*. L_f, L_n
and L_{bv} refer to L-functions for intraspecific root distribution of the focal plant and
neighbours and bivariate L-function for interspecific distribution, respectively.



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Figure 2. Root spatial distribution (L-function) in eight species monocultures (a-b) and 730 731 mixtures (c-h) at two soil depths (5 cm and 10cm) and two spatial scales (2 mm and 1 732 cm). Intraspecific root distributions of the focal plant (c-d), neighbouring plants (e-f) and interspecific root associations (g-h) calculated as a bivariate L-function are shown. 733 Predicted values ± SE at the density of four neighbours are shown. Positive values 734 735 indicate root spatial aggregation and negative values indicate spatial segregation. The names of focal species are shown in full, followed by the abbreviations of neighbouring 736 species in parentheses (Lc – Lotus corniculatus; Sc – Sesleria caerulea; Fv – Filipendula 737 vulgaris, Po – Pilosella officinarum). 738



Figure 3. Overall effect of neighbour density on root spatial distributions (L-functions) at 2 mm spatial scale. Intraspecific root distributions of all plants in species monocultures (a), the focal plant (b) and neighbouring plants (c) in species mixtures, and interspecific root associations calculated as a bivariate L-function (d), are shown. Regression lines and 95% confidence intervals obtained from linear mixed models, with species identity and pot included as random factors, are shown.





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Figure 4. Changes in focal plant home range size and overlap with increasing neighbour 748 749 density in eight species mixtures at two soil depths (5 cm and 10cm). Home ranges were 750 calculated as an area inside a minimum convex polygon (a) or 50% kernel core area (b). 751 Home range overlap was calculated based on total kernel volume, with the value of 1 752 indicating full overlap (c). Slopes ± SE from a regression of home range against 753 neighbour density are shown. Positive values indiciate an increase and negative value a decrease in range size or overlap with increasing neighbour density. The names of focal 754 species are shown in full, followed by the abbreviations of neighbouring species in 755 parentheses (Lc – Lotus corniculatus; Sc – Sesleria caerulea; Fv – Filipendula vulgaris, Po 756 – Pilosella officinarum). 757



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Figure 5. Correlations between root spatial patterns and plant traits. a) Root 760 761 aggregation at 2mm spatial scale in species monocultures and root diameter; b) focal 762 plant's root aggregation at 2mm spatial scale and root mass in species mixtures; c) 763 minimum convex polygon home range and total number of roots recorded for the focal 764 plant in species mixtures; d) 50% kernel core area and shoot mass of focal plants in species mixtures; absolute difference in shoot mass between focal plant and neighbours 765 in species mixtures and e) interspecific root aggregation at 2 mm spatial scale, 766 calculated as bivariate L-function, and f) total kernel volume overlap. All values 767 represent predicted means at mean neighbour density (four neighbours) at soil depth of 768 5cm. Focal species names are indicated with initial letters for genus and species names. 769 Pearson correlation coefficients and their significance are shown (\$P < 0.1, *P < 0.05, 770 *** *P* < 0.001). 771