

1 An ideal free distribution explains the root production of plants that do not engage in a tragedy of
2 the commons game.

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15 Running headline: Plant root growth and the ideal free distribution

16 Summary

17 1. Below-ground competition is intense, and may dramatically reduce plant performance.

18 However, there is still no consensus on the best strategies plants should use to maximize
19 competitive ability in soil. Some suggest plants should grow roots according to nutrient
20 availability, while others suggest plants should grow roots taking into account both
21 nutrients and neighbours. Unambiguously testing between these two alternative
22 hypotheses has been challenging.

23 2. This manuscript had three objectives. First we presented a model of root growth under
24 competition that is based on an ideal free distribution (IFD). Second, we develop the
25 concept of the best response curve as a tool for clearer experimental tests of plant
26 responses to neighbours. Third, we test these ideas by growing fast cycling *Brassica rapa*
27 either alone or with neighbours to examine this species' root growth strategy both alone
28 and under competition.

29 3. We hypothesize that those plants with no direct response to neighbours should grow roots
30 according to an IFD. This means that if plants produce x roots in a soil volume of quality
31 R , they should produce x/n roots in a soil volume of quality R/n . The experimental data
32 were consistent with this prediction. Growing plants with neighbours was statistically
33 identical to growing them with half as many nutrients. Thus, the only effect of neighbours
34 was to reduce nutrient availability.

35 4. This model provides an alternative to previous game theoretic models, and suggests an
36 experimental protocol based on the concept of the best response curve. We hope that
37 testing the game theoretic model with a clear alternative model will guide experiment and
38 debate.

39 5. *Synthesis:* The data in the literature are mixed, with species sometimes responding to
40 nutrients only, and sometimes responding interactively to both nutrients and neighbours.
41 At present we lack a general understanding of the causes or consequences of this
42 diversity of strategies. We suggest that a greater understanding of trade-offs among traits
43 that are important for other biotic interactions (above-ground competition, enemy
44 defence, mutualisms) will lead to a greater understanding of why some species over-
45 proliferate roots when in competition but other species do not.

46

47 **Key-words:** competition, evolutionary game theory, evolutionary stable strategies, ideal free
48 distribution, over-proliferation, plant–plant interactions, self/non-self recognition, tragedy of the
49 commons.

50

51 **Introduction:** Below-ground competition among plants can be both important and
52 intense (Casper and Jackson, 1997, Schenk, 2006, Lamb and Cahill, 2008). In many terrestrial
53 systems, plants are strongly limited by soil nitrogen availability (Vitousek and Howarth, 1991,
54 Robinson, 1994) and competition below-ground can reduce plant growth and performance by
55 several orders of magnitude (Wilson, 1988, Lamb and Cahill, 2008). As a result competitive
56 interactions among plants in soil can have important consequences for the ecology (Casper and
57 Jackson, 1997, Cahill and McNickle, 2011) and evolution (Gersani *et al.*, 2001, Thorpe *et al.*,
58 2011) of plants. Thus, it is logical to ask: what rooting strategies lead to the greatest competitive
59 ability and highest returns on fitness?

60 The majority of plant ecologists have long worked under the assumption that plants have
61 no direct response to below-ground competitors that is independent of their growth response to
62 nutrients (Casper and Jackson, 1997, Gersani *et al.*, 1998, Schenk, 2006, Hess and de Kroon,
63 2007, de Kroon *et al.*, 2012). That is, if competition from neighbours results in reduced access to
64 nutrients, and since less access to nutrients depresses plant growth, then plants have been
65 expected to simply be smaller in every way in the presence of competition from neighbours. It is
66 rarely named as such, but this hypothesis is mathematically equivalent to the expectation that
67 root growth follows an ideal free distribution (IFD) (Fretwell and Lucas, 1969a, Gersani *et al.*,
68 1998, McNickle and Brown, 2012). The IFD is so named because it is assumed that all
69 individuals know the distribution and availability of nutrients, and that they are free to grow
70 roots wherever and however they like (i.e. there is no interference competition). Under an IFD
71 model of plant root growth under competition, plants would grow roots in proportion to nutrient
72 availability at each soil location. Under this hypothesis, competition from below-ground
73 neighbours (intra- or interspecific) may decrease nutrient availability and as a result neighbours

74 might indirectly reduce plant root growth, but plants do not have any direct response to
75 neighbours that is independent of their response to nutrients (Hess and de Kroon, 2007, de Kroon
76 *et al.*, 2009). An important prediction of an IFD model for root production is that competition
77 from neighbours could never increase root production in the presence of neighbour relative to
78 when grown alone, they can only decrease root production by depressing the nutrients available
79 in soil. There is evidence that some plants follow an IFD for root growth in at least some
80 contexts. For example, Gersani *et al.* (1998) grew *Pisum sativum* plants in a split root design,
81 where the roots of a focal plant had access to one pot that was free from competition, and a
82 second pot that had 1, 2, 3, 4 or 5 intra-specific competitors. In this experiment, consistent with
83 an IFD, *P. sativum* increasingly grew roots into the competition free pot as the number of
84 competitors in the second pot increased. Indeed, similar findings have been reported for a
85 diversity of plant species (Gersani *et al.*, 1998, Schenk *et al.*, 1999, Hess and de Kroon, 2007,
86 Semchenko *et al.*, 2007, Cahill and McNickle, 2011). However, although the majority of the data
87 seems to support this type of response, not all plants appear to follow an IFD when growing roots
88 under competition.

89 Increasingly, studies have revealed evidence of interactive effects between nutrients and
90 neighbours where some plants increase their root production in the presence of competition from
91 neighbours (Dudley and File, 2007, Murphy and Dudley, 2007, Cahill *et al.*, 2010, Mommer *et*
92 *al.*, 2010, Semchenko *et al.*, 2010, Padilla *et al.*, 2013). Such increases in root production are
93 independent of the effect of neighbours on nutrient levels, which is impossible under IFD for
94 root growth which assumes that the resource environment is the only variable that influences root
95 production. Instead, over-production of roots in the presence of neighbours is better predicted by
96 game theoretic models of over-proliferation root growth that allows plants to respond to the way

97 that the competitive environment changes the return on investment into roots in terms of nutrient
98 uptake (Gersani *et al.*, 2001, O'Brien *et al.*, 2007, O'Brien and Brown, 2008, McNickle and
99 Brown, 2012). Specifically, for those plants that respond to neighbours independently of
100 nutrients, the presence of neighbours increases the value of each unit of root growth by
101 simultaneously enhancing nutrient uptake and competitive ability. For example, Cahill *et al.*
102 (2010) grew plants either alone or with intraspecific neighbours in homogeneous or
103 heterogeneous soil. Plants dramatically reduced their exploration of soil leading to segregation of
104 neighbours in the presence of neighbours in poor quality patch-free soil, but dramatically
105 increased root growth leading to overlap of root systems in the presence of neighbours in soils
106 containing a high quality nutrient patch. Similarly, Padilla *et al.* (2013) and Mommer *et al.*
107 (2010) grew plants either in mixtures of species or in monocultures. Both studies found that
108 some species dramatically increased their root production in mixtures relative to monocultures,
109 while some species dramatically reduced root production. Again, increases in root production are
110 impossible under an IFD model because neighbours depress the nutrient availability which
111 should lead to decreased and not increased root production under an IFD.

112 The experiments described in the preceding paragraph generated unambiguous evidence
113 for direct responses by plants to neighbours, but many more studies that have sought to test for
114 such direct plant-plant responses have been plagued by methodological problems (e.g. Gersani *et*
115 *al.*, 2001, O'Brien *et al.*, 2005). It has been remarkably difficult to unambiguously test whether
116 plants have direct responses to neighbours that are independent of their response to nutrients
117 (Laird and Aarssen, 2005, Hess and de Kroon, 2007, Semchenko *et al.*, 2007, O'Brien and
118 Brown, 2008). We suggest that part of this problem is that the majority of predictive
119 mathematical models produced to date are of the game theoretic form (Gersani *et al.*, 2001,

120 Craine *et al.*, 2005, Craine, 2006, O'Brien *et al.*, 2007, O'Brien and Brown, 2008, Dybzinski *et*
121 *al.*, 2011, McNickle and Brown, 2012, Farrow *et al.*, 2013), while proponents of the IFD model
122 of plant growth have largely produced only verbal (e.g. Hess and de Kroon, 2007, de Kroon *et*
123 *al.*, 2012) or graphical models (Gersani *et al.*, 1998). This has meant that there is a lack of
124 mathematical models available to directly compare to game theoretic models, and to develop
125 quantitative predictions for experimental tests of plant responses to neighbours and nutrients.
126 Ideally, we would have models derived from similar equations and assumptions that could be
127 examined as a game, or as an IFD.

128 In this paper, we have three objectives. First, we propose a non-game theoretic model for
129 plants that do not respond to neighbours, but instead grow roots according to an IFD. This model
130 is derived from our previous game theoretic models (O'Brien *et al.*, 2007, McNickle and Brown,
131 2012), but is not game theoretic. Second, we propose an experimental protocol that we think is
132 capable of unambiguously testing for the presence of independent responses of plants to nutrients
133 and neighbours. This involves growing pairs of plants either alone or with neighbours, and two
134 tests, one for the potential confounding effects of nutrient availability and pot volume and
135 another to test for neighbour effects. Third, to test the IFD model of root production under
136 competition we performed an experiment using fast cycling *Brassica rapa* (L., var Wisconsin
137 Fast Plants®, Carolina Biological Supply Company, Burlington, NC, USA) that asked; How
138 does *B. rapa* grow roots when grown alone or when grown with neighbours and how do these
139 root allocation strategies influence reproductive output? Based on our experience with this plant
140 (GGM Personal Observation), we did not expect this plant to be capable of engaging in a tragedy
141 of the commons game. We think that this combination of modeling and experimental design can

142 move the study of plant responses to neighbours in soil forward by permitting stronger
143 experimental tests and quantitative predictions.

144

145 **Materials and methods:** *An IFD model of root growth under competition:*

146 There are many models of optimal root production, dating back to the 1960s (e.g.
147 Gleeson and Fry, 1997, McNickle and Cahill, 2009). However, these generally have not included
148 competition as a factor that can influence optimal root growth. This has limited the ability to use
149 previous models as alternatives to recent game theoretic models of root production. Here we
150 develop a model of root growth for plants that respond only to nutrients, but still face
151 competition. These plants can still experience competitive effects due to depletion of the
152 resource environment by neighbours, but in this model plants do not take into account the
153 competitive strategies of their neighbours when allocating to root biomass. Instead, the plants in
154 this model employ a resource matching strategy and do not play a game (Hereafter we refer to
155 such plants as game-off). However, neighbours still depress the nutrient environment and these
156 “game-off” plants simply perceive the environment as becoming worse, and produce fewer roots
157 in the presence of a neighbour compared to alone. This model is derived from, and directly
158 comparable to our previously published game theoretic models (Gersani *et al.*, 2001, O'Brien *et*
159 *al.*, 2007, O'Brien and Brown, 2008, McNickle and Brown, 2012), but the model presented here
160 is not game theoretic and instead allows plants to grow roots according to an IFD. The advantage
161 of this approach is that it lets us directly compare the best root strategy for game-on and game-
162 off plants under competition without the confounding problem of using two drastically different
163 models. Our hope is that this can further develop future understanding of plant strategies for
164 below-ground competition.

165 Let R be the initial resource abundance in the soil, let u_f be the root production of the
166 focal plant, u_n be the root production of the neighbour plant and let r be the sum total amount of
167 roots of all competing plants ($r = u_f + u_n$). Further, let, c be the per-unit cost of root production
168 for all plants. We assume that there is no shoot competition and that plants are not light limited.
169 In the simplest possible terms, the net harvest (π_f) of an annual plant at senescence is given by
170 benefits minus costs. Competition adds the complication that available benefits might be
171 influenced by the activities of competitors. Thus, net harvest under competition can be
172 represented from the combination of three functions: (i) a function describing the focal plant's
173 share of the nutrient harvest based on their root production (u_f), relative to the root production of
174 all competitors (r), given by $f(u_f, r)$; (ii) a function describing the nutrients harvested, by roots
175 given by $H(r)$ and, (iii) a function describing the costs of root production to the focal plant, given
176 by $c(u_f)$ (Gersani *et al.*, 2001). Thus, a basic benefits minus costs equation for the focal plant
177 under competition is given by,

$$178 \quad \pi_f = f(u_f, \mathbf{u}) H(r) - c(u_f) \quad (\text{Eqn 1a})$$

179 Here we select simple analytically tractable functional forms for the three functions in
180 equation (1a). Specifically, we assume that nutrients are divided up proportionally to relative
181 root production (i.e. $f(u_f, \mathbf{u}) = u_f/r$), that nutrients are depleted over time according to a negative
182 exponential trajectory leading to diminishing returns to root production (i.e. $H(r) = R - Re^{-r}$,
183 O'Brien *et al.*, 2007, McNickle and Brown, 2012), and that costs scale linearly with root
184 production (i.e. $c(u_f) = c\mu_f$). Other equations could be used, and as long as all three equations are
185 monotonically increasing with u_f , and as long as $H(r)$ has diminishing returns to root production,
186 the qualitative predictions of equation 1b will not change (Gersani *et al.*, 2001, McNickle and
187 Brown, 2012). Under the assumptions described above, we can expand equation 1a;

188
$$\pi_f = (u_f/r)R(1-e^{-r}) - c u_f \quad (\text{Eqn 1b})$$

189 We write this for the focal plant only, but an identical equation exists for the neighbour
190 plant with the subscripts reversed. This formulation recognizes that competing plants will only
191 acquire a fraction of the available nutrients because neighbours also deplete the environment
192 with their root production. Plants that play a plastic tragedy of the commons game (hereafter we
193 refer to these as game-on plants) will choose a root production strategy, u_f^* , that satisfies

194
$$\partial \pi_f / \partial u_f = (1/r - u_f/r^2)[R(1-e^{-r})] + (u_f/r)[R(e^{-r})] - c_f = 0. \quad (1c)$$

195 We present the game theoretic version of this model here purely as a point of comparison
196 with the non-game theoretic version (derived below). However, we do not analyze it in detail; it
197 is described and analyzed in detail in McNickle and Brown (2012). For plants that do not play a
198 plastic tragedy of the commons game we need an alternative optimization criterion which is not
199 game theoretic (Anten and During, 2011). We hypothesise that these “game-off” plants should
200 be blind to the strategy of neighbours (or at least ignore it) and as a result these plants should not
201 base their root production strategy on their expected share of the nutrients. Such plants should
202 assess the initial environment, but ignore the net return on their investment in roots, and as a
203 result ignore the effects of competition that cause depletion in the environment. As a result, we
204 propose that such game off plants should ignore the term u_f/r in equation 1a, and focus only on
205 the resource environment, any depletion trajectories (caused by self or non-self) and their own
206 costs associated with root production. Thus, we define an expected payoff for these game-off
207 plants, P_f , based on eqn 1a that omits this term,

208
$$P_f = R(1-e^{-r}) - c_f u_f \quad (\text{Eqn 2a})$$

209 This is not the plant’s actual payoff, but it is the payoff that a plant that ignores the net
210 return on their investment into root production will expect since it does not revise its strategy

211 based on the returns they acquire from root production. Note that these “game-off” plants will
212 still experience reduced performance due to depletion that is caused by neighbours, however they
213 are incapable of distinguishing between resource depletion caused by their own roots or the roots
214 of neighbours. Thus, the optimal root production strategy, u_f^* , of a plant that cannot detect
215 neighbours should satisfy,

$$216 \quad \partial P_f / \partial u_f = R e^{-r} - c_f = 0 \quad (\text{Eqn 2b})$$

217 Solving equation (2b) for u_f^* gives the optimal root production strategy of plant f , and a
218 version of equation (2b) must be simultaneously solved for plant n . However, though these
219 game-off plants expect the payoff given in equation (2a), they still must compete with
220 neighbours and their actual payoff is still given by equation (1a) and not by equation (2a).

221

222 *Using the model: Best response curves*

223 McNickle and Brown (2012) introduced the concept of a best response curve that plots
224 one plant’s root production strategy, against the root production strategy of its neighbour and we
225 use this as one diagnostic criterion to test whether plants are playing a game. From our model
226 (Equation 1, 2) this would plot the points u_f^* vs u_n for the focal plant’s best response to any
227 possible strategy of the neighbour, and u_f vs u_n^* where u_n and u_f are continuous vectors of all
228 possible root production strategies either plant might choose. This set of best responses can be
229 thought of as a competitive “play book” for each plant: if the neighbour produces y roots, the
230 best response of the focal plant is to produce x roots and *vice versa*. Comparing the game
231 theoretic, and non-game theoretic version of this nutrient competition model, the best response
232 curves from each model are quite different and this can be a useful diagnostic tool for
233 experimentally comparing game on or game off plants. It requires growing plants in pairs (paired

234 pots for the alone treatment, and the two competitors are pairs in the competition treatment), and
235 it requires manipulation of the available nutrients.

236

237 *Experiment: What is the proper control?*

238 To test the model we grew *B. rapa* plants either alone or with neighbours. Plants were
239 grown in three treatments based on the goal of parameterizing a best response curve (Figure 2),
240 and based on criticisms of previous experiments that did not test for volume effects (Laird and
241 Aarssen, 2005, Schenk, 2006, Hess and de Kroon, 2007, Semchenko *et al.*, 2007). Early
242 experiments testing for responses to neighbours, and attempted to estimate root growth based
243 upon resource availability. To achieve this, these experiments attempted to control resource
244 supply per-plant (R) but they did so by manipulating pot volume (V). For example, plants with
245 neighbours were grown in pots of volume V containing R resources, and plants were grown alone
246 in pots of volume $V/2$ containing $R/2$ resources (e.g. Gersani *et al.*, 2001, O'Brien *et al.*, 2005).
247 This design was based on the hypothesis that plants which do not respond to neighbours should
248 respond only to nutrient availability (e.g. equation 1b vs 2b) and thus it was critical to control
249 nutrient availability per-plant to test whether plants respond only to nutrient availability or to
250 both nutrient availability and neighbours (Gersani *et al.*, 2001, McNickle and Brown, 2012).
251 However, though this design controls resource availability at the per-plant level, it confounds
252 neighbour addition with pot volume manipulation.

253 In pot experiments, volume can affect plant growth if plants become pot-bound during
254 the course of the experiment. Thus, many authors have been critical of this method for
255 controlling nutrient availability and argue that it is more important to control pot volume than to
256 control nutrient availability (Schenk, 2006, Hess and de Kroon, 2007). However, controlling

257 only pot volume is also potentially problematic because it produces a design where plants grown
258 alone have access to pots of volume V and R nutrient resources, while plants grown with
259 neighbours have access to pots of volume V but only $R/2$ resources. In this more common design
260 nutrient availability is confounded with neighbour addition even though pot volume is
261 controlled. Indeed, plants grown alone are almost always significantly larger than plants grown
262 with neighbours because they have been given access to twice as many nutrients making it
263 difficult to compare plants grown alone to plants grown with neighbours. The reality is that
264 either the volume or the nutrient experimental control in isolation is problematic. The traditional
265 method of holding volume constant confounds neighbour addition with nutrient availability,
266 while the method of Gersani *et al.* (2001) confounds neighbour addition with pot volume.

267 In reality, we suggest that the best approach is to employ both controls and here, we used
268 both a volume and a nutrient availability control. Plants were grown with neighbours in pots of
269 volume V ($V=1\text{L}$, $10\times 10\times 10\text{cm}$), and plants grown alone were either grown in pots of volume V
270 or $V/2$ (Figure 1). This let us parameterize a best response curve using three treatments: (i) plants
271 were grown alone in pots of volume V (R soil nutrients per plant). This estimates the growth of
272 plants alone (white circle, Figure 2); (ii) two plants were grown with neighbours in pots of
273 volume V (i.e. $R/2$ resources per plant). This estimates the root growth with neighbours (black
274 circle, Figure 2) and; (iii) plants grown alone in pots of volume V ($R/2$ soil nutrients per plant).
275 This estimates the how the plants should grow if they have no direct responses to neighbours,
276 and only respond to nutrient levels ('X', Figure 2).

277 There are two tests embedded in this experimental design. To test for confounding effects
278 of pot volume, plants grown alone in pots of volume $V/2$ should produce half as many roots, and
279 reproductive output as plants grown alone in pots of volume V . If this hypothesis is rejected, it

280 suggests that volume is producing a confounding effect which is independent from resource
281 availability (Schenk, 2006, Hess and de Kroon, 2007), and further tests must stop. However, if
282 the hypothesis is accepted then we may proceed with the second test, which compares plants
283 grown with neighbours in pots of volume V , to plants grown alone in pots of volume $V/2$. If root
284 production and reproductive output in the presence of neighbours is statistically indistinguishable
285 from plants grown in pots of volume $V/2$ then we accept the IFD model and reject the tragedy of
286 the commons game. If root production is significantly higher than plants grown alone, and
287 reproductive output is significantly lower, then we must reject the IFD model and accept the
288 tragedy of the commons model of over-proliferation of roots. This design permits a test for
289 volume affects that was absent from previous studies, while also permitting a simple control for
290 nutrient availability.

291

292 *Growing conditions*

293 Soil was a 1:3 mixture of potting soil (Miracle-Gro® Moisture Control® Potting Mix,
294 The Scotts Company LLC, Marysville, OH, USA) to washed sand (Quickrete, Atlanta, GA,
295 USA) which were each pre-sieved through a 2mm screen to facilitate root extraction at harvest.
296 Soils were amended with 19-6-12 (N-P-K) slow release fertilizer pellets on the surface of the soil
297 (Osmocote, The Scotts Company LLC, Marysville, OH, USA). Fertilizer was supplied based on
298 an equal supply per- plant (and per volume of soil), such that full sized pots (alone full pot, and
299 with neighbours treatments) each were given 1.2 grams of fertilizer while half sized pots were
300 given 0.6 grams. Plants were grown in a controlled growth chamber with continuous fluorescent
301 lighting. Plants were spaced at least 15 cm apart on the bench, and opaque screens were erected
302 between competing plant so they did not interact above-ground in any treatments. This forced all

303 competitive interactions to occur below-ground, in order to satisfy the assumption of the model
304 that there was no shoot competition. Additionally, plants in each treatment were grown in pairs
305 (with neighbours or alone) where each plant was *a priori* designated as either focal or neighbour
306 which produced pairs of plants that experienced the same conditions on the bench. Thus, each
307 replicate (n=25) of each treatment contained two plants (focal and neighbour, 50 plants per
308 treatment), which were paired to be plotted on the best response curve. Plants were watered daily
309 using an automatic drip irrigation system that supplied ~126 mL of water per day to pots of
310 volume V , and ~63mL of water per day to pots of volume $V/2$. Because we were trying to
311 generate best response curves of each plants (see below), each alone treatment included 25 pairs
312 of plants, and the ‘with neighbours’ treatment included 50 pairs of plants (total of 100 focal
313 plants, and 100 neighbour plants).

314 On day zero, multiple seeds were sown per planting location, and these were thinned to
315 one plant per location within one day of germination. Plants were grown for 40 days under
316 continuous lighting conditions which is recommended for fast cycling *B. rapa* (Carolina
317 Biological Supply Company, Burlington, NC, USA). Location on the bench of each pair of
318 plants was re-randomized every five days, but paired plants always remained together. A
319 randomized block design is a preferable approach for statistically controlling for bench effects
320 compared to re-randomization, however this was not feasible in this experiment. These data
321 represent the first generation of a multi-generation selection experiment, we could not allow
322 block effects to contribute selection pressure to the experiment and it was absolutely necessary to
323 re-randomize to average out selective pressures of any bench effects on plant growth. Given the
324 relatively small error associated with our estimated means, our relatively large sample size
325 (n=25), and that the observed patterns were consistent with our hypotheses, we do not think that

326 this experimental approach had a large effect on the outcome of the experiment, however the
327 limitations of a randomized design should be recognized. *B. rapa* is self-incompatible, and fruit
328 takes approximately 20 days to mature. All flowers produced up to day 20 were hand pollinated
329 using cotton swabs. After 20 days pollination was discontinued and fruit were permitted to
330 mature for 20 more days. Mates were haphazardly chosen each day, so each plant had a new
331 mating partner on each day of pollination. After 40 days of growth plants had begun senescence
332 and fruits, leaves and stems were harvested. Roots were washed on a 2mm sieve, and the root
333 systems of neighbouring plants were carefully separated by floating them in water and gently
334 shaking them to separate. We had no difficulty carefully separating the roots of each plant grown
335 in competition by marking the stem of each plant, and gently shaking the root system in water
336 until they separated. Subsequently, biomass was dried at 60°C to constant mass, and weighed.
337 Fruits were dried at room temperature, counted and weighed. Fruits were then opened and seeds
338 were counted and weighed.

339 Seed yield and root production were analyzed with separate one-way ANOVAs with
340 competition treatments (Alone, Alone-half, with-neighbours) as factors. A Tukey's test was used
341 for post-hoc comparisons among treatments. All statistical models were run in the R statistical
342 environment (R-Development-Core-Team, 2009).

343

344 **Results:** *Model results, and best response curves*

345 The model shows how a plant that produces roots according to an ideal free distribution
346 should grow (Fretwell and Lucas, 1969b, Gersani *et al.*, 1998). This means that if a soil volume
347 of quality R contains x roots, then a soil volume of quality R/n will contain x/n roots. Similarly, if
348 a plant grown alone in a soil volume of quality R produces x roots, then a plant grown with N

349 neighbours in a soil volume of quality R should produce x/N roots. The best response curve of
350 intraspecific competition among game-off annual plants is shown in Fig 2b. It is a straight line
351 connecting the root production strategy of each plant when grown alone. Applied to our
352 experimental treatments, the model predicts that each plant should produce half as many roots
353 when grown with neighbours in pots of volume $V/2$ as when grown alone in pots of volume V
354 when there are no independent effects of volume. Additionally, plants grown with neighbours in
355 pots of volume V should each produce a statistically indistinguishable amount of roots as plants
356 grown alone in pots of volume $V/2$.

357 As a point of comparison, game-on plants theoretically choose a root production strategy
358 based on both the resource environment, and the strategy used by neighbours (equation 1b). This
359 causes game-on plants to over-proliferate roots in an attempt to pre-empt the resource supply of
360 neighbours, and several versions of these game theoretic models have been described and
361 analyzed in detail elsewhere (Gersani *et al.*, 2001, Craine *et al.*, 2005, O'Brien *et al.*, 2007,
362 O'Brien and Brown, 2008, Dybzinski *et al.*, 2011) including an analysis and discussion of best
363 response curves (McNickle and Brown, 2012). An example best response curve of intraspecific
364 competition among game-on annual plants is shown in Fig 1c (McNickle and Brown, 2012).
365 Here, curved lines bow-out from the origin because of the strategy of over-proliferation causes
366 plants to produce more roots in the presence of neighbours compared to when they grow alone
367 (McNickle and Brown, 2012). In the context of our experiment, a game theoretic model would
368 predict that, plants grown with one neighbour in pots of volume V should produce significantly
369 more than half the roots of a plant grown alone in a pot of volume V , and significantly more roots
370 than plants grown alone in pots of volume $V/2$. However, the control of plants grown alone in

371 pots of volume V , is absolutely critical to estimate the intercepts of the best response curve to test
372 between the game-on and game-off model.

373

374 *Experimental results*

375 In this study, *B. rapa* root growth was game-off and followed an IFD (Figure 3). A one
376 way ANOVA revealed that plants grown with neighbours had a statistically indistinguishable
377 seed yield and root biomass as plants grown in half volume pots, and half of the seed yield
378 ($F_{2,147}=29.69, P<0.0001$) and root biomass ($F_{2,147}=49.01, P<0.0001$) as plants grown in full
379 volume pots (Figure 3a, b). Volume did not produce a confounding effect in this study, as root
380 production and seed yield in pots of volume $V/2$ was statistically indistinguishable from half of
381 root production or seed yield in pots of volume V (Figure 3). Patterns of leaf, stem and fruit
382 production followed the same pattern as Figure 3a and Figure 3b, and are not shown. When
383 plotted as best responses, the observed root production strategies of *B. rapa* fall on the ideal free
384 distribution line which reject the game theoretic model and support the simpler game-off model
385 for this species (Figure 3c,d).

386

387 **Discussion** Tests for direct responses of plants to neighbours that are independent from their
388 responses to nutrients have been limited by a number of problems. Part of the problem has been
389 that many models of optimal root production which are non-game theoretic, do not explicitly
390 include depletion by competing neighbours and so may not be appropriate for generating
391 predictions about game-off competition. Here we derived a game-off model from previous game-
392 theoretic models (O'Brien *et al.*, 2007, McNickle and Brown, 2012) to permit the generation of
393 game-off predictions for plants who do not play a tragedy of the commons game, but still face

394 competition. The model predicts root growth should follow an IFD, and shows how the concept
395 of best response curves can be used to potentially develop a more rigorous experimental test of
396 plant responses to neighbours (Figure 2). Specifically, experimental tests of plant responses to
397 neighbours have sometimes confounded pot volume and neighbour addition (Schenk, 2006, Hess
398 and de Kroon, 2007, Semchenko *et al.*, 2007), and sometimes confounded resource availability
399 and neighbour addition (E.g. Cahill *et al.*, 2010). Adjusting soil volume is the simplest way to
400 manipulate nutrient availability, but volume can have effects of its own sometimes and this must
401 be experimentally tested. We presented an experimental protocol based on the concept of a best
402 response curve that requires: (i) a test to ensure there are no confounding effects of pot volume.
403 Only if there are no detectable confounding effects of manipulating pot volume may we then (ii)
404 test whether plants grown with neighbours over-proliferated roots relative to plants grown alone.
405 This requires choosing pot volumes which are sufficient to minimize the negative effects of
406 plants becoming pot-bound. We tested this approach using *B. rapa*, which we did not expect to
407 play a tragedy of the commons game. Indeed, the test found no significant influence of pot
408 volume independent from the effect of nutrients (Figure 2a,b), and that *B. rapa* grows roots
409 according to the ideal free distribution (Figure 2c,d). This result is quite different from the
410 volume based analysis of Hess and de Kroon (2007), which would have predicted the plants with
411 neighbours in pots of volume V , produced the same amount of roots as the plants grown alone in
412 volume V . We suggest that testing this volume hypothesis independent of the neighbours
413 hypothesis (Figure 1) will be critical to advancing our understanding of the effects of pot
414 volume, nutrients and neighbours.

415 The idea that root growth of plants might follow an IFD as an alternative to over-
416 proliferation has been discussed before, though it is rarely named as such. For example, several

417 authors have discussed the basic idea of growing roots according nutrient availability and not
418 according to neighbours and developed verbal models (E.g. de Kroon *et al.*, 2009, Mommer *et*
419 *al.*, 2010, de Kroon *et al.*, 2012, Padilla *et al.*, 2013). These verbal models do not reference or
420 name the IFD specifically, but the predictions are the same. Gersani *et al.* (1998) presented a
421 graphical model explicitly based on Fretwell's (1972) fitness density model that used nutrient
422 uptake per unit root to estimate root allocation of plants via density dependent. The quantitative
423 model presented here takes this one step further, and should permit further investigation of the
424 IFD strategy versus the over-proliferation strategy for below-ground competition.

425 The data in the literature show that a mixture of these two strategies exists. Indeed, there
426 are examples that support the game-off IFD model (Figure 3, Litav and Harper, 1967, Gersani *et*
427 *al.*, 1998, Cahill *et al.*, 2010) and examples that support a game-on over-proliferation model
428 (Cahill *et al.*, 2010, Mommer *et al.*, 2010, Semchenko *et al.*, 2010, Padilla *et al.*, 2013). How are
429 we to integrate these apparently contradictory lines of evidence? We suggest that there are two
430 lessons here: First, the world need not be 100% game-on or 100% game-off. Given the language
431 of hypothesis testing, this seems to have been the expectation of some authors (e.g. Semchenko
432 *et al.*, 2007), but we suggest that the current evidence supports the idea that the world appears to
433 contain a mixture of both types of species (e.g. Mommer *et al.*, 2010, Semchenko *et al.*, 2010,
434 Padilla *et al.*, 2013). Second, any particular species need not be 100% game-on or 100% game-
435 off in all contexts, again there seems to be evidence that species sometimes behave one way and
436 sometimes behave another way. For example, Cahill *et al.* (2010) showed that *Abutilon*
437 *theophrasti* exhibited increased overlap of root systems of neighbours in a nutrient rich patchy
438 environment, but avoidance of neighbour roots in a nutrient poor patch-free environment. *P.*
439 *sativum* has also been shown to sometimes exhibit game-off behaviour (Gersani *et al.*, 1998) and

440 sometimes exhibit game-on behaviour (Falik *et al.*, 2003). Currently we lack sufficient
441 understanding to determine what contexts cause species like *P. sativum* or *A. theophrasti* to
442 switch strategies, or to describe possible evolutionary pressures or life history trade-offs might
443 produce game-on vs game-off species.

444 We suggest that one path forward might be to develop models and experimental
445 investigations that examine trade-offs among ecologically important processes. For example,
446 most models of root growth – including the one presented here - employ the simplifying
447 assumption that competition below-ground is the only important process for plant fitness and this
448 assumption is only met in the most controlled of glasshouse experiments (E.g. Figure 1).
449 Similarly, the majority of experiments isolate one ecological process like competition or
450 mutualism or enemy attack and investigate them in isolation. This is a good first step. Yet, the
451 evolutionary history of plants requires trade-offs between traits associated with root and shoot
452 competition, investment into mutualisms, defence against enemy attack and a myriad of
453 biophysical and environmental pressures (De Deyn and Van der Putten, 2005, McNickle and
454 Dybzinski, 2013). For example, when should a plant invest in above-ground competitive ability
455 instead of below-ground competitive ability (but see Dybzinski *et al.*, 2011)? When should a
456 plant invest in enemy defence instead of below-ground competitive ability? When should a plant
457 invest in mutualisms instead of enemy defence? At present we lack a general understanding of
458 how plants make trade-offs between investments in each biotic interaction, and how investment
459 in one biotic interaction shifts investment into other biotic interactions. However, one hypothesis
460 is that those plants which do not engage in a tragedy of the commons game for root competition,
461 might be adapted to focus more strongly on other interactions which are important in plant
462 ecology. This could include above-ground competitive ability, defence from enemy attack or

463 investment into mutualistic associations (Oksanen, 1990, Falster and Westoby, 2003, Archetti *et*
464 *al.*, 2011, McNickle and Dybzinski, 2013). We suggest that understanding why some plant
465 species are adapted to be capable engaging in a below-ground tragedy of the commons game
466 while other plant species do not engage in such games, will be an important question to move
467 this debate on what strategies maximize plant competitive ability below-ground forward.

468 Finally, the signal that game-on plants use as a cue for the strategy of responding to
469 neighbours remains unknown. Thus, a key objective for future work should be to investigate the
470 signal used by game-on plants to respond to neighbours. There are several hypotheses in the
471 literature, the two most common are: (i) plants recognize and respond to the root exudates of
472 neighbours (Falik *et al.*, 2003, Semchenko *et al.*, 2007, Novoplansky, 2009) and; (ii) plants
473 simply respond to their own physiological nutrient returns which might be influenced by
474 neighbours (O'Brien and Brown, 2008, McNickle and Brown, 2012). There is limited evidence
475 for either of these right now. The first hypothesis, that plants recognize the exudates of
476 neighbours has been the most commonly investigated mechanism to date (Falik *et al.*, 2003,
477 Falik *et al.*, 2005, Semchenko *et al.*, 2007, Novoplansky, 2009). However, exudates are
478 notoriously difficult to manipulate independently from neighbours without also changing
479 resource availability, which calls some of the results of these studies into question (Lau *et al.*,
480 2008). The ability to sense exudates is also a very complex signal neighbour recognition. It
481 implies that plants possess a large array of receptors for a diversity of chemical exudates from a
482 diversity of neighbours requiring shared evolutionary histories and a relatively complex set of
483 cellular machinery. The second hypothesis, that plants simply recognize their own internal
484 nutrient returns (O'Brien and Brown, 2008, McNickle and Brown, 2012) has received very little
485 attention. Indeed, for plants to respond to neighbours, they need only be capable of assessing the

486 net return from investing in additional roots (i.e. their own internal nutrient status), they need not
487 “know” anything about what is changing the net returns, and they need not directly sense the
488 roots of neighbours. Plants should simply produce roots until marginal benefits balance marginal
489 costs, the point is that the balancing of benefits with costs is different under an IDF (equation 2b)
490 compared to under a game theoretic model (equation 1c). The behavior predicted by either model
491 does not actually require the direct sensing of neighbours or exudates, only the ability to assess
492 benefits and costs of root production. This is a significantly simpler mechanism which has
493 received almost no attention, despite the fact that the necessary mechanisms of sensing internal
494 nutrient status and coordinating root growth based on nutrient demands are already quite well
495 understood and described (Zhang and Forde, 1998, Zhang *et al.*, 1999, Zhang and Forde, 2000,
496 Hardtke, 2006, Osmont *et al.*, 2007, de Kroon *et al.*, 2009, Forde and Walch-Liu, 2009). The fact
497 that there is evidence for neighbour recognition from intraspecific competition (Cahill *et al.*,
498 2010), and even genetically identical clones (Gruntman and Novoplansky, 2004) suggests that
499 the exudate recognition hypothesis is unlikely. How could genetically identical clones, with
500 chemically identical exudates tell the difference between self and non-self if exudates were the
501 cue? We suggest that tests of this physiologically based form of neighbour response mechanism
502 could make use of mutant lines that are deficient in their ability to sense nitrogen in the
503 environment, and/or deficient in hormones like auxin that allow coordination of root and shoot
504 growth based on nutrient status (e.g. Cahill *et al.*, 2005, Forsum *et al.*, 2008, Forde and Walch-
505 Liu, 2009). Understanding the mechanism that permits responses to neighbours would go a long
506 way towards pre-screening for game-on and game-off behaviour and to developing a much richer
507 understanding of these two alternative plant strategies.

508

509 **Conclusions**

510 We had three objectives in this paper. First we presented a game-off version of past
511 game theoretic models that was based on an ideal free distribution. This allows for the generation
512 of hypotheses concerning game-off plants that are directly comparable to predictions from game-
513 on models. From the model, we developed the concept of the best response curve as one tool for
514 examining plant responses to nutrients and neighbours. Second, based on the best response
515 curve, we suggested an experimental design that parameterizes the best response curve, and
516 explicitly tests for the potential confounding effects of volume and nutrients, as well as for direct
517 responses to neighbours which are independent from responses to nutrient availability. Third, we
518 tested the IFD model using *B. rapa*, and presented empirically derived best response curves. *B.*
519 *rapa* root production followed an IFD. The literature contains evidence that some species are
520 game-on while others are game-off. Future work should seek to understand the factors that
521 produce either game-on and game-off plants, and investigate simpler mechanisms of neighbour
522 recognition that are based on a physiological mechanism of internally estimating returns on
523 investing in more root growth. We think that the IDF model paired with the game theoretic
524 models, permits a more holistic set of tools for interpreting the diversity of experimental results
525 associated with plant responses to neighbours.

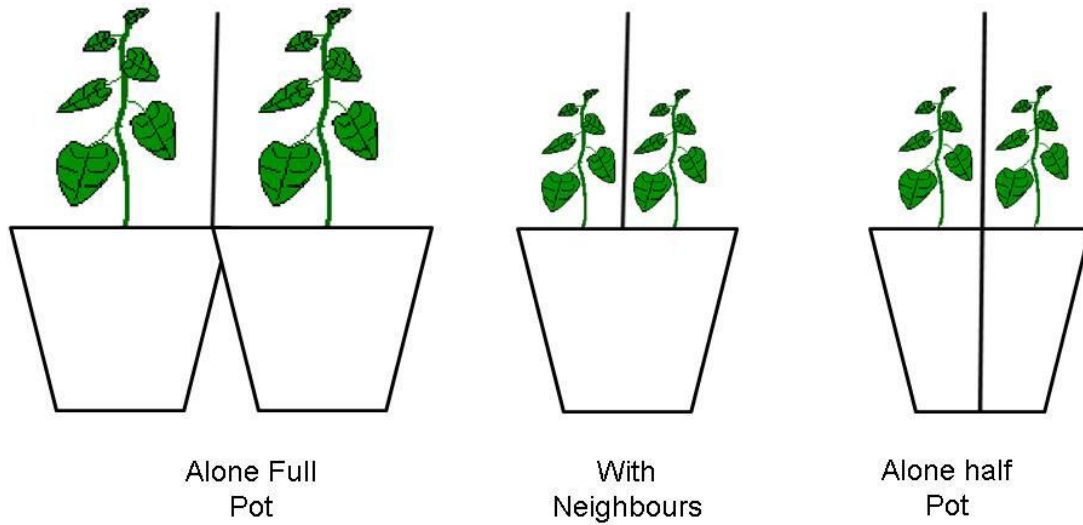
526

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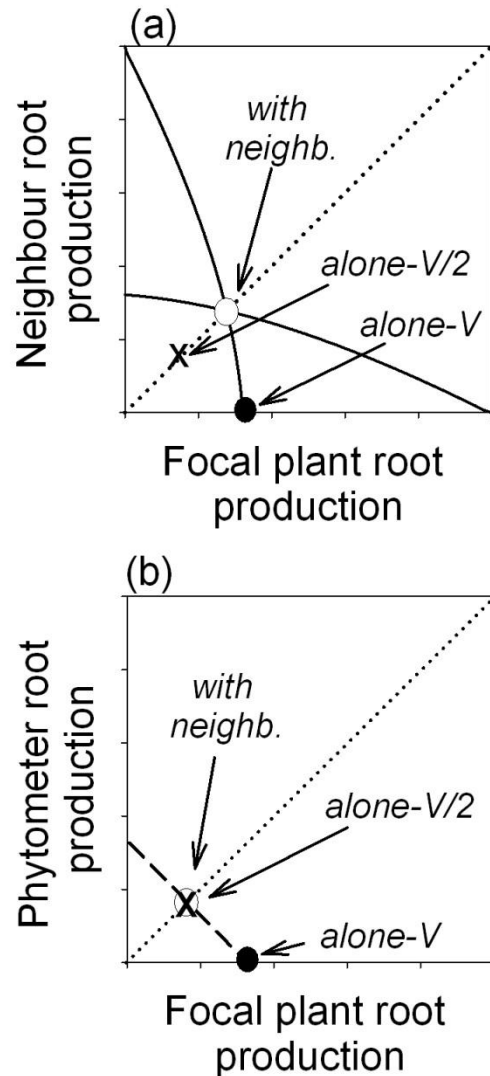


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536 **Fig 1:** Schematic of experimental design. Pairs of plants were either grown in three treatments;
537 (i) alone in full sized pots of volume $V=1L$ (with R , soil resources per plant), (ii) with neighbours
538 in pots of volume V (with $R/2$, soil resources per plant), or (iii) alone in pots of volume $V/2$ (with
539 $R/2$, soil resources per plant). Opaque screens were erected between paired plants so that they did
540 not compete or interact above-ground.

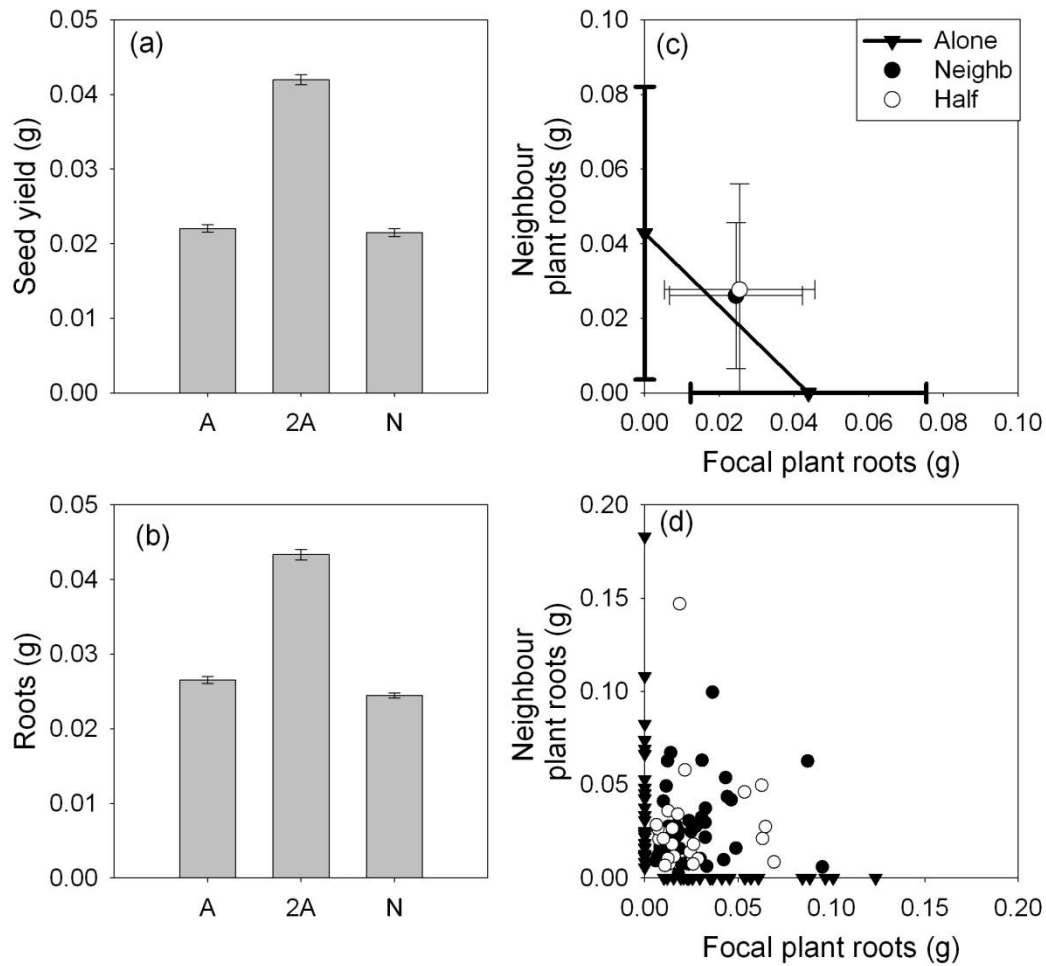
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542

543 **Fig 2:** Examples of best response curves for game on plants (a) or game off plants (b). In either
544 case, there are three points of interest that correspond to three experimental treatments (Fig 1).
545 The closed circle represents expected root biomass when grown alone in pots of volume V . The
546 x represents expected root biomass when grown alone in pots of volume $V/2$ assuming no
547 confounding effects of volume. The open circle represents the expected root growth when grown
548 with neighbours. Game-on plants over-proliferate roots in response to neighbours causing the
549 best response curve to bow up and out from the origin (panel a). For plants that do not engage in
550 a tragedy of the commons game the model predicts a linear best response curve that obeys an
551 ideal free distribution of roots relative to soil nutrient concentrations (b). Game off plants will
552 never produce more roots when neighbours are present compared to alone.

553



554

555 **Fig 3:** Mean seed yield (a) and root mass (b) of focal plants grown either alone in pots of volume
556 V/2 (A), alone in pots of volume V/2 (A/2) or with neighbours (N). These data are also plotted as
557 best response curves (c-d). Mean responses of plants grown with neighbours or alone in half pots
558 are compared to the expected best response curve (c). Raw data are shown in panel (d). Error
559 bars are ± 1 SD.

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