1	Tree growth is better explained by absorptive fine roots than transport fine
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# 34 Abstract

1.	Quantifying plant trait variation yields insights into trade-offs inherent in the
	ecological strategies of plants and is the basis for a trait-based prediction of plant
	performance and ecosystem functioning. Although the interest in root traits has
	increased in recent years, we still have limited knowledge of i) whether functionally
	discrete fine roots-absorptive versus transport roots-have similar trait coordination
	and ii) how they help to explain plant performance, such as growth.
2.	We measured traits of 28 European broadleaved tree species growing in a research
	arboretum to study i) the coordination within absorptive and transport fine root traits
	and ii) the degree of trait-tree growth relationships. To do so, we combined a suite of
	morphological (root diameter, specific root length and root tissue density) and
	anatomical (cortex to stele ratio and mycorrhizal colonization rate) traits for each of
	the absorptive and transport roots.
3.	Despite remarkable differences in average trait values between absorptive and
	transport roots, our study shows that trait coordination within absorptive and transport
	roots is comparable. Our results also show that tree growth is better explained by
	absorptive root traits than by transport roots and is higher in species with a thinner root
	diameter.
4.	Synthesis. The significant relationship between absorptive roots and tree growth and
	the lack of such a relationship for transport highlight that roots mostly involved with
	resource absorption are more important in explaining tree growth than roots involved
	in transport.
<b>Keywo</b> functio	ords: absorptive roots, basal area increment, broadleaved tree species, leaves, plant onal traits, root economic space, transport roots
	<ol> <li>1.</li> <li>2.</li> <li>3.</li> <li>4.</li> <li>Keywe function</li> </ol>

### 66 **1. Introduction**

67 Functional traits of plants are being used to comprehend plant community structure, assembly and functions (Lavorel & Grigulis, 2012; Westoby & Wright, 2006). Plant traits reflect 68 different plant strategies and illustrate how plants respond to the environment (Westoby & 69 70 Wright, 2006); hence, they have the promise to answer how and why plant performance 71 differs among species (Poorter & Bongers, 2006). A suite of associated plant traits known as 72 the leaf economics spectrum (LES) has been established at the leaf level (Reich, 2014; Wright 73 et al., 2004). The LES defines a functional gradient from leaves with conservative resource 74 use to those with an acquisitive strategy, the latter providing a high return on investment, thus 75 being associated with high growth rates. The success of the LES in elucidating variations in 76 leaf traits and predicting plant performance has stimulated researchers to expand the 77 economic theory to 'fine roots', proposing a two-dimensional space of roots known as the root 78 economics space (RES; Bergmann et al., 2020). The first dimension is known as the 79 collaboration gradient, and that ranges from species with high root diameter offering space for 80 arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi to species with greater specific root length (SRL). The second 81 RES dimension, known as the conservation gradient, is equivalent to the classical LES with 82 high root nitrogen representing a fast-growth strategy and low root tissue density (RTD) 83 representing a slow-growth strategy. Importantly, while the classical working definition of 84 fine roots, as roots  $\leq 2$  mm in diameter, has been widely used, it does not well reflect the 85 differences in the functional roles of fine roots. Therefore, fine roots have been recently 86 classified into two functional groups: absorptive and transport roots (McCormack et al., 87 2015). However, it is still poorly understood whether coordination of fine root traits along the 88 RES is the same for absorptive and transport roots, and whether these different root types 89 differ in their contribution to predicting plant functioning such as tree growth.

90 Many ecological studies on root traits define fine roots based on an arbitrary diameter 91 size, and often implicitly assume roots within this size class to be homogenous in their 92 functioning (Pregitzer et al., 2002). However, plant species typically possess hierarchical root 93 systems, so that in reality fine roots are composed of a collection of very heterogeneous 94 orders and branches differing in morphology, architecture, anatomy and longevity (Guo, Li, et 95 al., 2008; Guo, Xia, et al., 2008; McCormack et al., 2015; Pregitzer et al., 2002) as well as in 96 microbial associations (King et al., 2023). Given this, the trait data obtained from different 97 root orders of the same species could be structurally and anatomically different and hence 98 perform different functions (Laliberté, 2017; McCormack et al., 2015). Through this 99 understanding, fine roots have been classified into two distinct groups based on their

100 functional roles. The first group, absorptive roots (order  $\leq 3$ ), is responsible for soil-based 101 resource uptake and serves as a hotspot for biotic interactions with microbes and mycorrhizal 102 activity (Freschet & Roumet, 2017; McCormack et al., 2015). The second group, transport 103 roots (order > 3), is most important for transport and storage (Freschet & Roumet, 2017; 104 McCormack et al., 2015). Thus, the capacity of resource transportation increases while 105 absorption capacity decreases with increasing root order (McCormack et al., 2015). Moreover, 106 the lifespan and root diameter of root segments are tied to the location within the branching 107 root system, and consistently increase from the distal to the proximal end (Pregitzer, 2002; 108 Pregitzer et al., 2002). Given this, absorptive roots located at the distal end have a smaller 109 diameter and greater SRL compared to transport roots, and exhibit a shorter lifespan 110 (Pregitzer, 2002; Xia et al., 2010). On the other hand, transport roots, characterised by a larger 111 diameter and longer lifespan, emerge later in the developmental process as a consequence of 112 secondary growth, resulting in greater RTD and lower SRL (Pregitzer, 2002; Xia et al., 2010). 113 In addition, in a root system, anatomical changes across root orders occur mainly due to shifts 114 in physiological functions from resource uptake to transport and storage (Gambetta et al., 115 2013; Guo, Xia, et al., 2008). As such, a higher percentage of cortex area, or cortex-to-stele 116 ratio, which is characteristic of absorptive roots, is considered an indication of resource 117 absorption and mycorrhizal colonization (Comas et al., 2012; Kong et al., 2017; Zhou et al., 118 2022). Conversely, a higher stele diameter is known as an indicator of resource transportation 119 in transport roots (Feild & Arens, 2007; Guo, Xia, et al., 2008; Zhou et al., 2022). There is 120 mounting evidence that higher root orders have no cortex due to secondary growth (Endo et 121 al., 2021; Guo, Xia, et al., 2008; Long et al., 2013), thereby reducing mycorrhizal colonization 122 rate (King et al., 2023). Despite this heterogeneity in absorptive and transport root traits, the 123 relative importance of absorptive and transport roots for ecosystem functions such as tree 124 growth is still unexplored.

125 Forest ecosystem functioning directly and indirectly depends on variation in plant 126 functional traits across the globe (Gibert et al., 2016; Paine et al., 2015); thus, studying the 127 link between plant functional traits and ecosystem functioning is important for a mechanistic 128 understanding of forest functioning (Díaz et al., 2016; McGill et al., 2006). Indeed, the 129 effective acquisition and utilization of limited resources are optimized by the functional 130 coordination of roots and leaves and thus their traits (Reich, 2014). Consequently, there has 131 been a lot of interest in identifying the relationship between leaf functional traits and forest 132 functioning (Gibert et al., 2016; Paine et al., 2015; Poorter & Bongers, 2006). For instance, 133 along with the leaf economic spectrum, tree annual growth was positively related to

134 acquisitive traits, characterised by a high specific leaf area (SLA) and stomatal density in 135 subtropical forests (Liu et al., 2015), and a high leaf nitrogen content and SLA in temperate 136 forests (Da et al., 2023). In principle, such relationships have been attributed to higher 137 photosynthetic capacity and a higher potential for a quick return on investment of resources in 138 fast-growing species, leading to a higher growth rate (Reich, 2014; Wright et al., 2004). Even 139 though linking functional traits and plant performance is important, the majority of the studies 140 have reported rather weak links between plant functional traits and plant performance. For 141 example, only 3.1% of variance in tree growth was explained by leaf traits at the global scale 142 in forests (Paine et al., 2015) and 4.8% of variance across functions by leaf and root traits 143 together in grasslands (van der Plas et al., 2020). The reasons for such weak links could be 144 due to the use of species-level mean trait data rather than individual-level trait data and/or 145 using single traits rather than multiple traits, thereby weakening the strength of the 146 relationships between plant functional traits and plant performance. The former might be 147 attributed to the fact that different individuals of the same species respond differently to 148 environmental variables (Siefert et al., 2015); for example, there is some evidence that 149 individual-level trait data improves the degree of trait-growth relationships (Liu et al., 2016; 150 Umaña et al., 2018). Fine roots serve a variety of functions, such as acquiring resources and 151 interacting with soil organisms, all of which influence plant performance (Bardgett et al., 152 2014; Freschet, Roumet, et al., 2021; McCormack et al., 2015; Smith & Read, 2002). 153 However, our understanding of the relative importance of fine root traits for tree growth lags 154 behind that of leaf traits, partly due to the difficulty of sampling and/or measuring root traits 155 (Freschet, Roumet, et al., 2021). A few recent studies have examined the explanatory power 156 of root traits—in combination with leaf traits—on tree growth, in which for fine roots they 157 focused only on the first three root orders (Shen et al., 2022; Weemstra et al., 2021) or the 158 first two root orders (Da et al., 2023). Shen et al. (2022) showed that acquisitive leaf traits had 159 a higher explanatory power than fine root traits for relative growth rates for height across tree 160 species, even though SRL and RTD were significantly correlated with the relative growth 161 rates for height of individuals. By contrast, Da et al. (2023) found that the conservation 162 gradient of absorptive root traits explained forest aboveground carbon storage and woody 163 biomass productivity better than conservation gradients in leaves and absorptive root 164 collaboration gradients. Hence, the question is, why these previous studies found contrasting 165 relationships between fine root traits and tree growth. A possibility, that has so far been 166 unexplored, is that these contrasting relationships are driven by functional differences 167 between absorptive and transport roots, whereby trait coordination, as well as their effects on

168 tree growth, differ between these two root types. Altogether, this highlights the necessity of 169 examining the trait coordination within functionally discrete fine roots—absorptive and 170 transport roots—as well as examining their relative importance for tree growth, either with or 171 without the combination leaf traits.

172 By using 28 European broadleaved tree species growing in a research arboretum in 173 Germany, this study aims to quantify the coordination within absorptive and transport fine 174 roots and determine their explanatory power for tree growth, either with or without the 175 combination of leaf traits. More specifically, this study tests the following three hypotheses: 176 First, due to differences in the morphology and anatomical structures of the absorptive and 177 transport roots (Guo, Xia, et al., 2008; McCormack et al., 2015; Pregitzer et al., 2002), we 178 hypothesized (H1) that absorptive and transport roots do not necessarily demonstrate similar 179 trait covariation patterns. Second, given the distinct functions of absorptive and transport 180 roots in below-ground processes and functioning (King et al., 2023; McCormack et al., 2015), 181 we hypothesized (H2) that absorptive root traits have a more substantial influence on tree 182 growth due to their key role in resource uptake. Third, considering that tree growth relies on 183 concurrent acquisition of above- and below-ground resources, which can be provided through 184 both leaves and roots (Bardgett et al., 2014; Wright et al., 2004), we hypothesized (H3) that 185 incorporation of leaf traits would increase the explanatory power of estimating tree growth.

#### 186 **2. Materials and Methods**

### 187 **2.1. Study area and experimental design**

188 This study was carried out in the research arboretum ARBOfun located near Leipzig, 189 Germany (51°16'N, 12°30'E; 150 m a.s.l.). The arboretum was established between 2012 and 190 2014 and is designed for 100 tree species belonging to 39 families planted 5.8 m apart. The 191 2.5 ha of the arboretum is subdivided into five blocks, with each block containing one 192 individual of each species. The mean annual precipitation is approximately 534.3 mm, and the 193 mean annual temperature is 9.4 °C (Deutscher Wetterdienst (DWD), 2024). The soil type of 194 the arboretum, which was previously used as a managed arable field, is Luvisol, and it has a 195 pH of 5.7 (Ferlian et al., 2017).

## 196 **2.2. Root sampling and measurement**

In 2018 and 2019, roots of three individuals per species were sampled. First, the soil aroundthe targeted tree was loosened using a digging fork, and then roots were uncovered carefully

199 by hand and with smaller gardening tools. If a root of higher order was found, it was traced

200 towards the main stem of the target tree to confirm its identity. Then intact root branches 201 containing at least the first five root orders, with the most distal root tip as the first root order, 202 were collected. The root samples, including adherent soil, were wrapped in moist paper, 203 sealed in a plastic bag and stored in a cooling box before being transported to the laboratory. 204 After washing root samples, the sample of each individual tree was divided into two portions: 205 one small portion for examining anatomical traits and another for examining morphological 206 traits. Each subsample comprised fine roots spanning the first to fifth root orders. Finer 207 cleaning was conducted using tweezers under the stereo microscope. After cleaning, the 208 different root orders of the fine root samples were identified and then dissected for trait 209 examination, with each root order being analysed separately. Dissection of root orders was 210 done under a stereo microscope with a scalpel, starting with the root tips as the first root order 211 and categorizing higher root orders towards the stem. From each root sample, 60 root pieces 212 of the first and second root orders, 20 root pieces of the third root order and 10 root pieces of 213 the fourth and fifth root orders were dissected and stored separately in 1.5 ml Eppendorf tubes 214 with water until further processing. The samples of each root order were scanned using a 215 flatbed scanner (Epson Expression 11000XL, UK) at a resolution of 600 dpi, then root pieces 216 were collected, oven-dried at 60°C for over 48 h and weighed to obtain the root dry weight.

All morphological root traits by root orders at individual tree level were quantified using root scans, which were analysed in a batch using the RhizoVision Explorer (Seethepalli et al., 2021). Using the provided data in RhizoVisison—mainly the total root length and volume —alongside the root dry weight data, RTD (root dry weight/root volume) and SRL (total root length/root dry weight) were calculated.

222 For the measurement of anatomical root traits, root subsamples were cleaned similarly 223 as above, separated by root orders, and placed in scintillation vails containing fixing solution 224 Roti®-Histofix 4% formaldehyde. The samples were left at room temperature for two hours 225 and then refrigerated overnight. The next day, root samples were dehydrated with a series of 226 ethanol with steps of 10%, 30%, 50% and 70%, in which the root samples rested for one hour 227 each to gradually remove the water remained in the root tissue (Zadworny et al., 2016). 228 Samples were kept in the refrigerator in another 70% ethanol solution until further processing. 229 We used an automated tissue processing system (Donatello, Diapath) with (i) 45 min each at 230 38°C: twice 80% ethanol and twice 96% ethanol, (ii) 60 min each at 38°C and at 40°C xylol 231 and (iii) 80 min each at 62°C three times paraffin, followed by manual embedding of root 232 fragments using a paraffin embedding center (TES 99, Medite). Embedded samples were

233 cross-cut to 1-3 µm with a sledge microtome (DDMP, Medim), put on a slide, processed 234 twice for 10 min in xylol, followed by each 5 min 96%, 80% and 70% ethanol, and finally 235 distilled water before staining for 2 min in 0.01% toluidine blue solution (Aldrich). Slides 236 were permanently fixed with a Tissue Tek system (Sakura). Then, the images of cross-237 sections per root order were recorded with a microscope (Axiostar plus, Zeiss, Germany) and 238 microscope camera companied with the program AxioVision (Zeiss, Oberkochen, Germany). 239 We ensured that the entire cross-section as well as a representative section of higher 240 resolution was depicted in the cross-section image. Analysis of the images for measuring root 241 area, stele area (SA), cortex area (CA) and cortex area to stele area ratio (C:S ratio) was done 242 with ImageJ (Schneider et al., 2012).

243 The rate of arbuscular mycorrhizal colonization (MCR) was investigated using the 244 magnified intersection method (McGonigle et al., 1990). Root pieces were bleached in 10% 245 potassium hydroxide for 18 h. Next, roots were rinsed using DI water and stained in a 10% 246 ink-vinegar solution (Vierheilig et al., 1998) for 15 min at 90 °C in a water bath. Stained root 247 samples were stored in lactoglycerol until processing. MCR of root pieces was quantified by 248 examining hyphae, arbuscules, hyphal coils, vesicles, and arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi 249 according to the magnified intersection method (McGonigle et al., 1990) with a microscope 250 slide at a magnification of 200x.

251 We assigned the mycorrhizal type, i.e., arbuscular mycorrhizal (AM) and 252 ectomycorrhizal (EM) fungi, to each species based on the recent symbiotic guild assignments 253 (Steidinger et al., 2019). As a result, of the 28 tree species, 13 are AM species and 15 are EM 254 species (Table S1). In this study, we used functional fine root role classification, where the 255 first three root orders are defined as absorptive roots, while the fourth to fifth root orders are 256 defined as transport roots (McCormack et al., 2015). We acknowledge that the transition from 257 absorptive to transport is species-specific, and that transition might occur gradually, so it is 258 difficult to fix the function of different root orders. More specifically, the third-order fine 259 roots are classified as transport roots in some species, and they might be a transitionary root 260 type in some species. Thus, we ran an additional analysis with the average of the first and 261 second root orders as absorptive roots and the average of the fourth and fifth root orders as 262 transport roots. The results of these additional analyses are presented in supplementary 263 information (Figures S6 and S7), where our main findings and conclusion remain the same. 264 Potential causes of variation in root order function might be due to plant phylogenetic clades, age and environmental conditions (McCormack et al., 2015; Li et al., 2022), which are not 265

relevant in our study due to the experimental design and the selected broadleaved species.
Finally, we used the average of the first three root-order traits to represent absorptive roots
and the average of the fourth to fifth root-order traits to represent transport roots for further
analyses.

#### 270 2.3. Leaf sampling and measurement

271 13 fully expanded and intact sun-exposed leaves were randomly selected and collected from 272 each individual tree species between 2018 and 2022, following the standard protocol 273 (Cornelissen et al., 2003). Of the 13 leaves, five were scanned at 600 dpi with flatbed 274 Expression 11000XL, and the images were analysed using WinFolia (Regent Instrument, 275 Canada) to get the fresh leaf area. After scanning, the lamina and petiole were separated, blot-276 dried, and weighed to get their fresh weights. Then the samples were oven-dried at 60°C for 277 five days and weighed. The leaf mass per area (LMA) was computed by dividing the dry mass 278 of the five leaves (including both lamina and petiole) by their total fresh area. The leaf dry 279 matter content (LDMC) was determined by dividing the mean leaf dry weight to the mean leaf 280 fresh lamina weight. We measured force to punch using a motorised vertical test stand along 281 with a Sauter FH50 with dynamometer combined with a flat-sided needle on three positions 282 of three leaves per species. Additionally, three leaves per species were manually crosscut 283 using a blade to obtain thin sections in the central area of the leaf. The resulting cross sections 284 were then placed in a drop of water on an object slide and examined under a microscope. 285 Then, the mean leaf thickness was determined using the Axiocam (Zeiss, Germany) and the 286 software ZEN 2 core. We then calculated the leaf toughness for each leaf by dividing force to 287 punch of the leaf by the leaf thickness and then computed the individual mean leaf toughness 288 (Westbrook et al., 2011).

#### 289 **2.4. Quantification of tree growth**

In February 2023, we measured the diameter at breast height (DBH) of each tree individual using a caliper. We then calculated basal area increment as a proxy for tree growth using the sum of DBH data for individual tree species. As such, we calculated the average absolute basal area increment by dividing the 2022 basal area data of each individual tree by its age since planting. Hence, the average basal area increment was calculated according to the following equation:

296 Average basal area increment = 
$$ln\left(\frac{\sum_{j=1}^{n}\left(\frac{\pi}{4} * DBH_{j(2022)}^{2}\right)}{\text{tree age since planting}}\right)$$

where DBH is the diameter at breath height measured at the 1.3-meter height of an individual,

*j* is an index for the *n* stems of the individual, and 2022 is the year when DBH of the

individual tree was measured, which overlap the years (2018-2022) during which the trait

300 measurements were done.

### 301 **2.5. Statistical analyses**

302 To assess the variation and coordination of the absorptive and transport root traits, we 303 performed principal component analyses (PCAs) using stepwise inclusion of traits. To do so, 304 the first set of PCAs were performed on morphological root traits, including specific root 305 length (SRL), root tissue density (RTD) and root diameter for absorptive and transport roots 306 separately. Hence, in this first step we focused on those morphological traits that were also 307 analysed in recent studies investigating root trait coordination (Bergmann et al., 2020; 308 Weigelt et al., 2021). The second set of PCA were extended to the whole set of root traits, 309 adding root anatomical (cortex to stele ratio; C:S and mycorrhizal colonization rate; MCR) 310 traits on top of root morphological traits for absorptive and transport roots separately. A third 311 set of PCAs were performed on the whole set of root traits as well as leaf traits (LDMC, LMA 312 and LT). The PCAs were performed using the prcomp function of the 'stats' package on 313 scaled trait data and without axis rotation. To aid interpretation, we inverted the PCA axis of 314 the transport root traits by multiplying by minus one whenever required. We further examined 315 the effect of the mycorrhizal type (AM vs. EM) on the position of tree individual within root trait space by employing a permutational multivariate analysis of variance (PERMANOVA) 316 317 with root trait space constructed based on Euclidean trait distances using the *adonis2* function 318 of the 'vegan' package (Oksanen et al., 2021). Next, as the first two PCA axes captured most 319 of the variance, we extracted the loading scores of traits on first and second PCA axes and 320 used them as continuous variables to explain variation in tree growth estimation. Specifically, 321 we performed linear regression to quantify the relationships between average basal area 322 increment (as a dependent variable) and the first and second PCA axes scores (as the 323 explanatory variables) of each PCA coordination using the *lm* function of the 'stats' package. 324 We used a dependent t-test to compare root traits between absorptive and transport roots. To 325 complement the results of PCAs on traits, we subsequently explored the pairwise correlations 326 by performing Pearson's correlations between absorptive or transport root traits and leaf traits 327 using the ggraph function of the 'ggraph' package (Pedersen, 2022). To assess each single 328 root and leaf trait as an explanatory predictor for tree growth, we further performed bivariate 329 linear regression separately across absorptive or transport root and leaf traits. To meet the

- 330 linear regression assumptions, all traits were log-transformed before the regression analysis.
- All analyses were done using the R v.4.1.3 platform (R Core Team, 2022).

#### 332 **3. Results**

## 333 **3.1.** Covariation in absorptive and transport root traits

334 The PCA of absorptive root morphological traits showed that the first two axes together 335 captured 91% of the variability (Figure 1a, Table S2). The first principal component (PCA1) 336 axis is positively associated with root diameter, and the second principal component (PCA2) 337 axis is positively and negatively related to SRL and RTD, respectively (Figure 1a, Table S2). 338 The first two PCA axes of transport root morphological traits together explained 87% of the 339 variability (Figure 1d, Table S2). The PCA1 axis of the transport root morphological traits 340 was also negatively associated with root diameter, but unlike with absorptive root 341 morphological traits, was in addition negatively associated with SRL (root collaboration 342 gradient), while the PCA2 axis was positively related to RTD as a part of the root 343 conservation gradient (Figure 1d, Table S2). For absorptive roots, a PCA based on a 344 combination of morphological and anatomical (C:S and MCR) traits showed that the first two 345 PCA axes explained 70% of variation in root traits, in which root diameter and MCR tended 346 to load positively on the PCA1, while RTD and SRL tended to load negatively and positively 347 on the PCA2, respectively (Figure 1b, Table S2). For transport roots, a PCA based on the 348 combination of morphological and anatomical traits showed that the PCA1 and PCA2 axes 349 together explained 63% of variation, in which MCR, C:S and root diameter loaded positively 350 on PCA1, and SRL loaded positively on PCA2 (Figure 1e, Table S2). The results of the PCA 351 based on the whole set of absorptive root and leaf traits showed that PCA1 and PCA2 352 accounted for 55% of variation (Figure 1e, Table S2): PCA1 was positively related to the root 353 diameter and MCR while negatively related to LDMC and PCA2 was mainly positively 354 related to SRL (Figure 1c, Table S2). The results based on the whole set of transport root and 355 leaf traits showed that PCA1 and PCA2 accounted for 49% of variation. PCA1 was negatively 356 related to MCR, while it was positively associated with LDMC and LMA (Figure 1f, Table 357 S2) and PCA2 was positively associated with SRL, while being negatively related to root 358 diameter (Figure 1f, Table S2). While the mean trait values significantly differ between 359 absorptive and transport roots (Figure S1), except for MCR, the trait coordination of the 360 absorptive and transport roots remains similar. However, when root and leaf traits were pooled, more specifically, root diameter shifted to the second PCA axis in transport roots 361 362 (Figure 1e,f). In addition, pairwise correlations show a much stronger negative correlation

between root diameter with RTD and LDMC and also between MCR and SRL in absorptive
roots, and a much stronger positive correlation between root diameter and MCR in absorptive
roots (Figure S2).

366 While mycorrhizal-type separation was much clearer in absorptive root morphological 367 traits compared to transport root morphological traits, incorporation of C:S and MCR led to 368 better mycorrhizal-type separation even in transport roots (Figure 1). In line with these results, 369 the per-MANOVA test revealed significant differences between AM vs. EM species across all 370 trait combinations (P < 0.001; Figure 1a,b,c,e,f), except for transport root morphological traits 371 (P = 0.605; Figure 1d). More specifically, AM species were associated with higher root 372 diameter, C:S and MCR, while EM species were associated with higher RTD, LDMC and 373 LMA (Figure 1).

Considering only leaf traits, the PCA showed that the first two axes together captured 88% of leaf trait variation (Figure S4a). PCA1 axis is negatively associated with LDMC, and PCA2 was positively associated with LT while being negatively related to LMA (Figure S4a).

## 377 **3.2.** The relationships between fine root and leaf traits and tree growth

378 Our results of linear regressions between PCA1 and average basal tree area increment reveal 379 that absorptive root morphological traits were negatively associated with tree growth ( $R^2$  = 380 0.13, P < 0.01; Figure 2a), showing a higher growth for trees with thinner absorptive roots 381 (lower root diameter), while no relationship was found for morphological transport roots 382 (Figure 2d). Morphological combined with anatomical traits of absorptive roots showed an even higher explanatory power for tree growth ( $R^2 = 0.18$ , P < 0.001; Figure 2b), where trees 383 384 with lower root diameter, and MCR showed higher growth rates (Figure 1; Table S2). In 385 contrast, there were no significant relationship between tree growth and morphological 386 combined with anatomical transport roots (Figure 2d). Finally, absorptive root and leaf traits together explained even more variance in tree growth ( $R^2 = 0.20$ , P < 0.001; Figure 2c), where 387 trees with higher root diameter and MCR but with lower LDMC showed lower growth 388 389 (Figure 1; Table S2). The combination of transport root traits and leaf traits also revealed a significant relationship with tree growth ( $R^2 = 0.09$ , P < 0.05; Figure 2f), where trees with 390 391 lower MCR but with higher LDMC and LMA showed higher growth (Figure 1; Table S2). 392 The explanatory power of absorptive root and leaf traits on tree growth was stronger (Figure 393 2c) than transport root and leaf traits (Figure 2f). Surprisingly, none of the PCA2 axes showed 394 a significant relationship with tree growth (Figure S3), despite their high loadings of 18% to 395 38%. In line with the PCA results on multiple traits, single root and leaf traits were also

396 correlated with tree growth (Figure S5). As such, absorptive root traits were significantly 397 negatively correlated with tree growth (P < 0.01; Figure 5c,d,e), while SRL was marginally 398 positively correlated with tree growth (P = 0.09; Figure S5b). For transport roots, only MCR 399 was significantly negatively associated with tree growth (P < 0.01; Figure S5j).

400 The linear regressions between PCA1 of leaf traits and average basal tree area

401 increment show that leaf traits were related to tree growth ( $R^2 = 0.10$ , P < 0.01; Figure S4b),

402 showing a higher growth for trees with higher LDMC. Single leaf traits, i.e., LMA and LT,

403 but not LDMC, were significantly positively related to tree growth (P < 0.05 to P < 0.01;

404 Figure S51,m).

#### 405 **4. Discussion**

By functionally separating fine roots into absorptive and transport roots and also by stepwise inclusion of root traits in PCA, we explored the coordination within absorptive and transport fine roots, which, based on our knowledge, has not been tested so far. Overall, we found that trait coordination within absorptive and transport roots is comparable. Specifically,

410 mycorrhizal colonization, root diameter, and cortex-to-stele ratio were the key traits loading

411 on the first PCA axis, where the two mycorrhizal types clearly separated. Furthermore, tree

412 growth is better explained by absorptive root traits than by transport roots and was higher in

413 species with thinner root diameter that were less colonized by arbuscular mycorrhizae,

414 highlighting the role of efficient and independent exploration of soil resources.

## 415 **4.1.** Covariation in absorptive and transport root traits

416 Despite significant differences between absorptive and transport root traits (Figure S1), we

417 found that, contrary to our first hypothesis (H1), coordination within absorptive and transport

418 root traits was quite similar to each other and similar to the collaboration gradient published

419 previously; whereby species with higher root diameter were highly related to mycorrhizal

420 association (Bergmann et al., 2020). In partial disagreement with our results, in another study

421 different economic strategies were observed for thin (<247  $\mu$ m) and thick (>247  $\mu$ m) fine

422 roots, where thin roots followed the resource acquisition-conservation strategy but thick roots

- 423 did not (Kong et al., 2016). It must be mentioned that Kong et al. (2016) applied univariate
- 424 regression analysis between root traits, not PCA for the trait coordination. The specific fine
- 425 root diameter cutoff, limited number of species, and/or including root nitrogen concentration,
- 426 which we did not measure, can contribute to the different observed patterns. This again
- 427 highlights the importance of trait selection for the outcome of studies on trait coordination
- 428 patterns (Weigelt et al., 2023).

429 Against our expectation, there was no significant difference in mycorrhizal 430 colonization between absorptive and transport roots (Figure S1), which is contrary to the 431 generally acknowledged notion that higher root orders (or transport roots) are not or less 432 colonized by mycorrhizae (King et al., 2023; McCormack et al., 2015). Indeed, transport roots 433 possess lower potential for mycorrhizal colonization due to their thinner cortex (or presence 434 of periderm), providing smaller space for mycorrhizal colonization (Eissenstat et al., 2015; 435 Kong et al., 2017; McCormack et al., 2015). Our inconsistent results might be partly 436 attributed to topological root order classification, in which a higher proportion of thinner roots 437 (absorptive roots) are classified as having higher root orders (transport roots); therefore, the 438 percentage of transport roots is higher than in the morphometric root order classification 439 method (Freschet, Pagès, et al., 2021). Moreover, species-specific differences in mycorrhizal 440 dependence might affect the overall colonization of the roots with mycorrhizae (Zhou et al., 441 2022). There is some evidence that, for example, Fraxinus rhynchophylla Hance. has 442 mycorrhizal colonization in fourth order roots and Acacia auriculiformis A.Cunn. ex Benth. is 443 colonized even in fifth order roots, meaning that some species are more colonized by 444 mycorrhizae than others even in higher root orders (Guo, Xia, et al., 2008; Long et al., 2013). 445 This is because plant species differ in the secondary growth development, and mycorrhizal 446 colonization in higher root orders also confirms a higher dependency of those species on 447 mycorrhizae for nutrient uptake (Zhou et al., 2022). This was the case in our mycorrhizal 448 colonization data. As such, order-based root mycorrhizal colonization data showed that for the 449 majority of species, mycorrhizal colonization was greater in the lower root orders or remained 450 on the same level in the higher root orders. Yet, in some species, like Fraxinus excelsior L., 451 Euonymus europaeus L. and Frangula alnus L. mycorrhizal colonization slightly increased 452 with increasing root orders. Altogether, this might lessen the overall mycorrhizal colonization 453 rate differences between absorptive and transport roots.

454 Our results further corroborate previous studies that AM species are thought to have 455 thicker roots with a thicker cortex, supporting higher rates of mycorrhizal colonization 456 compared to EM species (Laliberté, 2017). In contrast, EM species possess thinner, higher 457 branching intensity and longer roots, allowing them to independently explore a larger volume 458 of below-ground resources without relying on the root cortex (Cheng et al., 2016; Yan et al., 459 2022). Segregation of AM and EM species across trait coordination shows their strong 460 differences in root traits, distinctions in life-history strategy and distinct nutrient sources in 461 the root economics space (Averill et al., 2019; Yan et al., 2022).

By incorporating leaf traits into PCAs with absorptive and transport roots, trait coordination showed that conservative leaf traits were closely aligned with conservative root traits, reaffirming that the conservation gradients of both leaf economic spectrum and root economic space are correlated (Reich, 2014). Similar results have been reported when leaf and root traits were pooled, indicating the same trade-offs between the fast–slow conservation gradient in root and leaf traits (Kramer-Walter et al., 2016; Weigelt et al., 2021).

468 4.2. Absorptive root traits better explain tree growth than transport root traits

469 Past attempts at exploring the contribution of fine root traits to plant performance have 470 considered fine roots as a homogenous pool without regard to their distinct functional roles 471 (Orwin et al., 2018; van der Plas et al., 2020). Thus far, our understanding of how fine roots 472 contribute to tree growth stems from studies testing either the first two or three root orders 473 (Da et al., 2023; Shen et al., 2022; Weemstra et al., 2021), but there is no study testing the 474 effects of functionally discrete fine roots on tree growth. By separating fine roots into 475 absorptive and transport roots, we found that absorptive fine root traits are highly correlated 476 with tree growth, consistent with our second hypothesis (H2). The greater contribution of 477 absorptive root traits to tree growth compared to transport root traits can be attributed to the 478 functioning role of absorptive roots within the plant system (Freschet & Roumet, 2017; 479 McCormack et al., 2015). Within the plant, absorptive roots are mainly involved in soil-based 480 resource acquisition (e.g., nutrients and water), which is directly linked to tree growth. More 481 specifically, the absorptive root traits loaded on the PCA1 (MCR, root diameter and C:S ratio) 482 were the key traits associated with tree growth, highlighting the importance of root anatomical 483 and mycorrhizal associations for tree growth (Lynch et al., 2021). Indeed, the positive 484 associations among mycorrhizal colonization, root diameter and cortex-to-stele ratio are 485 characteristic of absorptive roots (Smith & Read, 2002), and we observed that those traits 486 have stronger correlations in absorptive roots (Figure S2). More precisely, our results showed 487 that species with thicker roots that are more colonised by mycorrhizal fungi (Comas et al., 488 2012; Eissenstat et al., 2015) were negatively correlated with tree growth. Indeed, plants with 489 thicker roots tend to have a longer lifespan and a smaller surface area, resulting in a smaller 490 volume of below-ground resources explored and thus a high dependence on mycorrhizal 491 colonization (McCormack & Iversen, 2019; Pregitzer et al., 2002). In contrast, SRL, as a part 492 of root collaboration gradient in root economic space, was positively correlated with tree 493 growth, meaning that species with the ability to independently explore soil for resources 494 efficiently produce higher growth. Similar results were obtained based on single-trait bivariate

relationships, where mycorrhizal colonization, root diameter, and cortex-to-stele ratio are 495 496 significantly and negatively correlated with tree growth, while SRL is marginally positively 497 correlated with tree growth (Figure S5). In addition, tree species in Leipzig are experiencing 498 drought from 2018 to 2020 (Schnabel et al., 2022), so it seems that thinner and smaller root 499 diameters, i.e., potentially reaching smaller pores of soil, are more beneficial, particularly 500 during dry years (Comas et al., 2013), thereby enabling the acquisition of higher nutrients and 501 water with low investment. A higher SRL and smaller root diameter are associated with 502 higher hydraulic conductivity, which reflects drought tolerance capacity (Comas et al., 2012, 503 2013; Hernández et al., 2010).

504 Contrary to our expectations, we found a higher average growth increment over time 505 in EM species than AM species, which might be explained by their differences in carbon 506 balance between return and investment over time. Specifically, EM species are more likely to 507 show a slow-growth strategy, while AM species are known to have a fast-growth strategy 508 (Averill et al., 2019; Phillips et al., 2013), thus suggesting a higher growth rate. In partial 509 agreement with our results, in a more recent study, Dietrich et al. (2023) reported an increase 510 in growth increment over time for EM species, while AM species tend to decrease growth 511 increment over time, and they argued that it might be attributable to their distinct nutrient 512 resources and soil mutualistic relationships. More precisely, compared to AM species, EM 513 species tend to grow more slowly in the beginning, but then their growth increments increase 514 over time (Dietrich et al., 2023). Another possible explanation could be a higher SRL for EM 515 species (Figures 1 and S5), which again highlights efficiently exploring a substantial soil 516 volume, resulting in greater resource uptake (Comas et al., 2012; Ostonen et al., 2007). In the 517 same direction, mycelium of the EM species efficiently penetrates the capillary pores and 518 explores water-depleted zones around the root, resulting in the utilization of soil water 519 reservoirs (Boczoń et al., 2021).

520 It was not surprising that incorporation of leaf traits to the whole set of absorptive 521 roots improved the strength of relationships between tree growth and traits, in support of our 522 third hypothesis (H3). It is certain that leaves play crucial roles in plants by converting 523 sunlight energy and carbon dioxide and water into organic carbon through photosynthesis 524 (Reich, 2014; Schulze, 2006; Wright et al., 2004), thereby influencing growth. Our results 525 corroborate previous studies showing the importance of leaf traits and their contribution to 526 forest functioning (Cornelissen et al., 1996; Poorter & Bongers, 2006). Our results showed 527 that thinner roots that are less colonized with mycorrhiza were related to high tree growth, but

528 this was the case only for species with higher LDMC and LMA. More specifically, species 529 with a slow-growing strategy (higher LDMC and LMA) tend to have higher growth, 530 indicating a decoupled root and leaf trait strategy explaining tree growth. The opposite pattern 531 has been reported where species with high root diameter but a lower specific leaf area enhanced tree growth (Weemstra et al., 2021). Taken together, these findings confirm that 532 533 traits more directly related to resource uptake above- and below-ground are important 534 indicators of tree growth (Weemstra et al., 2021; Weigelt et al., 2021). In addition, 535 incorporation of leaf traits to transport root traits significantly explained tree growth estimation. Based on the trait loading on the PCA axes (Table S2), we believe that this 536 537 contribution arises from leaf traits rather than transport root traits, as LDMC and LMA are 538 primarily loaded on the first PCA axis, however mycorrhizal colonization rate was the only 539 absorptive root trait loaded on the first PCA axis (Figure 1f, Table S2). This is also supported 540 by the fact that leaf traits alone explain tree growth equally well as, if not better than, leaf and 541 transport roots together (Figure S4). This is not surprising and confirms that transport roots 542 are mainly involved in the transport and storage of resources and also play crucial roles in 543 protecting plants against pathogens and from dehydration (Enstone et al., 2002; Lynch et al., 544 2021) rather than resource acquisitions that are directly related to growth (McCormack et al., 545 2015).

546 By functionally separating fine roots into absorptive and transport roots, our results 547 show a strong association between absorptive fine roots and broadleaved tree growth in a 548 research arboretum. A higher contribution of absorptive root traits to predicting tree growth 549 suggests that variation in absorptive root traits, rather than transport root traits, better explains 550 tree growth variation via presumably providing soil-based resources, e.g., nutrients and water, 551 directly influencing overall tree growth. We argue that by considering fine roots ( $\leq 2 \text{ mm in}$ 552 diameter) as a homogenous pool, the variance of root traits along root orders might be 553 underestimated and might not clearly show root functioning signals. We also acknowledge 554 that further research assessing the role of root and leaf nutrient concentrations as well as 555 considering transport root-related functions may be particularly illuminating.

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## 563 Conflict of Interest Statement

564 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

## 565 Author Contributions

- 566 A.W., C.W. and A.S. conceived the ideas and developed the concept of the study. F.v.d.P.,
- 567 H.C., S.D., S.E., A.K., J.M., J.S. and A.W. contributed to data collection. A.S. analysed the
- 568 data and led the writing of the manuscript. F.v.d.P., H.C., R.R., J.H., C.W. and A.W.
- 569 contributed to the writing in several manuscript interactions. All authors contributed critically
- 570 to the drafts and gave final approval for publication.

# 571 Data Availability Statement

572 We will store the dataset in the public repository once the paper is accepted.

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#### 876 Figure captions

- **Figure 1.** Principal component analyses (PCA) of individual-levels of (a,d) morphological
- root traits (b,e) morphological and anatomical root traits, (c,f) and all root and leaf traits (d,e)
- for both absorptive and transport root traits. Abbreviations for traits are as follows: RD, root
- diameter; RTD, root tissue density; SRL, specific root length; C:S, cortex to stele ratio; MCR,
- 881 mycorrhizal colonization rate; LMA, leaf mass per area; LT, leaf toughness; LDMC, leaf dry
- 882 matter content; AM, arbuscular mycorrhizal species; and EM, ectomycorrhizal species. The
- second PCA axis of absorptive morphological traits (d) and the first PCA axis of the whole set
- of transport root and leaf traits (f) are flipped.
- **Figure 2.** Relationships between the first axis of the PCA and average basal area increment
- across stepwise inclusion of root and leaf traits for absorptive roots (a–c) and transport roots
- (d-f). Shown are the  $R^2$  and P-values of the linear regressions. Significant relationships
- between basal area increment and PCA axes are denoted by \* (P < 0.05), \*\* (P < 0.01) and
- 889 \*\*\* (P < 0.001). The x-axis of the whole set of transport root and leaf traits (f) is flipped.
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# **Figure 1.**



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# 923 Figure 2.



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