

1 **Rethinking root-shoot growth dynamics**

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5

6 **Abstract**

7 Using a simple plant growth model based on the logistic equation I re-evaluate how biomass
8 allocation between roots and shoots articulates dynamically with the rate of whole-plant
9 biomass production. Defined by parameters reflecting lumped physiological properties, the
10 model constrains roots and shoots to grow sigmoidally over time. From those temporal
11 patterns detailed trajectories of allocation and growth rate are reconstructed. Sigmoid growth
12 trajectories of roots and shoots are incompatible with the dominant ‘functional equilibrium’
13 model of adaptive allocation and growth often used to explain plants’ responses to nutrient
14 shortage and defoliation. Anything that changes the differential rates of growth between roots
15 and shoots will automatically change allocation and, unavoidably, change whole-plant growth
16 rate. Biomass allocation and whole-plant growth rate are not independent traits. Allocation
17 and growth rate have no unique relationship to one another but can vary across a wide
18 spectrum of possible relationships. When root-shoot allocation seems to respond to the
19 environment it is likely to be a secondary illusory consequence of other primary responses
20 such as localised root proliferation in soil or leaf expansion within canopy gaps. Changes in
21 root-shoot allocation cannot themselves compensate directly for an impairment of growth rate
22 caused by an external factor such as nutrient shortage or defoliation; therefore, such changes
23 cannot be ‘adaptive’.

24 'The reasons are so simple they often escape notice.' (James 2012, p. 6).

25 **Introduction: Handcuffing an octopus**

26 A doyen of plant growth analysis once told me that trying to understand how a plant's
27 biomass is allocated between roots and shoots while it simultaneously produces more biomass
28 is like 'trying to handcuff an octopus': no sooner do you pin down whole-plant growth rate
29 than allocation slips out of your grasp; nail allocation and you find growth rate has hidden
30 itself under a rock. At first sight it may seem unlikely that this is so, given that the production
31 of biomass and its allocation among different organs are such well-studied phenomena.
32 Nevertheless, some surprisingly simple aspects of how these processes are related have been
33 overlooked or misunderstood.

34 Thinking on this subject is dominated by Brouwer's 'functional equilibrium' concept of plant
35 growth (Brouwer 1962). Admirably reviewed by Poorter & Nagel (2000), Brouwer's theory
36 was encapsulated thus: '...plants shift their allocation towards shoots if the carbon gain of the
37 shoot is impaired by a low level of above-ground resources, such as light and CO₂ [and also if
38 the plant is defoliated: DR]. Similarly, plants shift allocation towards roots at a low level of
39 below-ground resources, such as nutrients and water. These shifts could be seen as adaptive,
40 as they enable the plant to capture more of those resources that most strongly limit plant
41 growth' and later: '...implicit in this model is that a plant allocates its biomass in such a
42 manner that its growth rate is maximal under the given environmental conditions.' This
43 intuitively attractive idea underpins many plant growth models (see Wilson 1988; Thornley
44 1998).

45 The key assumption is that there are optimum allocations of biomass at which the rate of
46 biomass production is maximised. But if the key assumption is true, why has it apparently
47 been impossible for anyone to plot measurements of whole-plant growth rate against some

48 measure of allocation to see the former maximised at a certain value (or values) of the latter?

49 Why is the relationship between allocation and growth rate so enduringly enigmatic?

50 Part of the problem is that few relevant experiments have followed root and shoot growth for

51 long enough and in enough detail to reveal the full dynamics of biomass allocation and its co-

52 variation with biomass production rates. Complex growth models have not revealed, or been

53 used to reveal, just how biomass allocation articulates dynamically with growth rate. Maybe it

54 seems too trivial an issue to attract the firepower of a full-blown simulation model, or the

55 models are just too specific to clarify what is, in my view, a very general and important

56 relationship.

57 Whatever the reasons, we need an alternative approach to resolve how root-shoot allocation

58 and whole-plant growth rate co-vary. That which I propose here takes its cue not from plant

59 physiology, but from population biology, a field dominated by simple phenomenological

60 models rather than mechanistically realistic ones.

61 **Simplifying the complex**

62 *Preamble*

63 The starting point for this re-think is the seemingly trivial observation that root and shoot

64 growth change with time in both absolute terms and relative to one another, and that those

65 changes can to a reasonable approximation be described mathematically without worrying too

66 much about the fine details.

67 Trajectories of root and shoot growth can approximate simple linear or exponential functions

68 of time in young plants (the subjects of almost all the influential experiments on root-shoot

69 allocation) or they can be described with ever increasing statistical precision by whatever

70 polynomial or other curve best fits the data. But the most general temporal pattern of root and
71 shoot growth is a sigmoid trajectory.

72 All plants grow sigmoidally over much of their lives even if, in the short-term and when
73 young, they might seem to grow linearly or exponentially. If they do, then they cannot do so
74 forever. Models using equations describing mechanisms of light interception, nutrient uptake,
75 organ formation and resource allocation (for example, Brown *et al.* 2019) always predict
76 approximately sigmoid trajectories of biomass change. Biomass production eventually
77 reaches a ceiling of one sort or another. That ceiling may be only a transient halt before
78 regrowth or reproduction occurs, or it can be a prelude to senescence and death. The timespan
79 of a sigmoid trajectory will range from days or weeks for a fast-growing short-lived annual
80 species, to decades or centuries for a slow-growing long-lived tree. A sigmoid growth pattern
81 is as close to a universal biological principle as any (West *et al.* 2001).

82 If separate trajectories of roots and shoots are constructed, they can be combined to calculate
83 biomass allocation between roots and shoots along with the growth rate of the whole plant
84 (Robinson & Peterkin 2019). This allows the co-variation between biomass allocation and
85 production to be visualised directly in ways that existing models or experiments have not. If
86 the supposed ‘adaptive’ responses of allocation referred to above are real, then they should
87 appear in such visualisations.

88 There are strong arguments that the root-shoot dichotomy is just too simple to capture the
89 reality of plant growth. At least three classes of structures – leaves, stems and roots – are
90 needed to reflect their roles in above- and below-ground resource capture as well as
91 mechanical support of a vegetative plant (Poorter & Nagel 2000; Poorter *et al.* 2015).

92 Biomass allocation in a reproductive angiosperm would also need to account for flowering
93 stalks, sexual organs, flowers, fruit and seed. And distinguishing coarse roots from fine roots

94 reflects more faithfully what those structures contribute to the life of their parent plant (Chen
95 *et al.* 2019). While recognising that it caricatures the behaviour of real plants, I have retained
96 the classical root-shoot division because the loss of realism is offset by gains in clarity and
97 generality.

98 *Producing biomass*

99 Incremental changes in root or shoot biomass between two successive times, t_1 and t_2 , and
100 which form part of a sigmoid trajectory can be described by an equation such as the logistic.
101 A mainstay of population modelling ('probably the simplest nonlinear equation one could
102 write': May 1974a), the logistic equation can be written as:

$$103 \quad Y_{t_2} = Y_{t_1}(t_2 - t_1) \left[1 + r \left(1 - \frac{Y_{t_1}}{Y_{max}} \right) \right] \quad (1)$$

104 where Y is root (R) or shoot (S) biomass (in terms of dry weight) of an individual plant, Y_{max}
105 the asymptotic maximum value of Y , t time, and r the intrinsic growth rate of Y (with units of
106 [time]⁻¹). If the time interval $t_2 - t_1$ is sufficiently short and many such successive intervals are
107 assumed, the difference equation, eqn. (1), approximates a continuous estimate of Y over
108 time. There is nothing special about eqn. (1). Any function that produces a sigmoid trajectory
109 of Y with time could be used for this purpose although the algebraic details will differ.

110 For simplicity, I assume that Y_{max} and r are independent of one another, and root-specific
111 values of Y_{max} and r independent of those for shoots. In real plants, root and shoot growth and
112 other physiological processes are interdependent to some extent, and the activities of one
113 plant part feeds back to influence the activities of another. Roots and shoots are connected by
114 common vascular systems and the continual exchange between them of numerous resources
115 and signals help coordinate their respective activities. Experiments on young seedlings often
116 give the impression that roots and shoots do grow synchronously. It is a mistake, however, to

117 suppose this the norm. One look at the disparity between the above- and belowground
118 phenologies of numerous species dispels the notion of there always being close synchrony
119 between root and shoot growth (Abramoff & Finzi 2015; Makoto *et al.* 2020).

120 Whole-plant biomass (W) at any time is simply the sum of R and S at that time, and its value
121 depends on how eqn. (1) is parameterised separately for roots and shoots in terms of r and
122 Y_{max} values. In addition, when using eqn. (1) in the absence of experimental data to which the
123 curve can be fitted (for example, Robinson & Peterkin 2019), it is necessary to specify initial
124 values of root and shoot mass (R_0 and S_0). It is more likely than not that initial root and shoot
125 masses will differ, so that is what I assume here.

126 The absolute growth rate (AGR, with units of [mass] [time]⁻¹) of root or shoot biomass at any
127 point is the first derivative of eqn. (1) with respect to time, so that $AGR = rY(1 - Y / Y_{max})$
128 where, again, r , Y and Y_{max} are specific for roots and shoots.

129 This definition of AGR says that the instantaneous growth rates of roots and shoots depend on
130 the values of both r and Y_{max} . The influence of r on growth rate is greatest when Y is small
131 compared with Y_{max} , that is, when Y is much smaller than Y_{max} AGR approximates rY .

132 Conversely, when Y is close to its upper limit r can have little influence on growth rate
133 because then AGR is virtually zero whatever the value of r . In other words, the value of r has
134 most influence on young plants and none on old plants. Y_{max} has negligible influence on
135 young plants. Its main influence is to determine how long it takes Y to reach its ultimate
136 value: the bigger Y_{max} , the longer it takes. r and Y_{max} exert their most powerful joint influences
137 on root or shoot growth rate somewhere in the middle of their sigmoid trajectories.

138 The growth rate of a whole plant or of its component parts is usually expressed as its relative
139 (or specific) growth rate (RGR, with units of [time]⁻¹). Once values of R and S have been

140 calculated by eqn. (1) it is straightforward to calculate RGR separately for roots, shoots and
141 for the whole plant between successive time intervals t_1 and t_2 (Hunt 1982, p. 18).

142 Whole-plant RGR is:

$$143 \quad \text{RGR} = \frac{\ln(R_{t_2} + S_{t_2}) - \ln(R_{t_1} + S_{t_1})}{t_2 - t_1} \quad (2)$$

144 where, as before, R and S are root and shoot biomasses, respectively. Root and shoot RGRs
145 are calculated in the same way, leaving out the shoot or root biomasses from eqn. (2), as
146 appropriate. Again, if $t_2 - t_1$ is short and there are many such intervals eqn. (2) approximates a
147 continuous estimate of RGR with respect to time.

148 RGR of the whole plant is also defined instantaneously as AGR/W . From the above definition
149 of AGR, $\text{RGR} = r (1 - Y / Y_{\max})$, where $Y = W = R + S$ as calculated by eqn. (1), $Y_{\max} = W_{\max} =$
150 $R_{\max} + S_{\max}$, and r in this case is the weighted mean of the r values for roots and shoots.
151 Therefore, RGR equals r at zero biomass ($Y = 0$) or, equivalently, at zero time. The maximum
152 possible RGR is r . RGRs of roots and shoots inevitably decline over time as Y gets closer to
153 Y_{\max} , unless that progression is interrupted by, for example, sudden biomass loss in a
154 defoliation event. Because whole-plant RGR is calculated from the combined trajectories of R
155 and S , it is not necessarily true that whole-plant RGR will always decline with time. The
156 temporal trajectory of whole-plant RGR will depend on the values of r and Y_{\max} assumed for
157 roots and shoots.

158 *Allocating biomass*

159 Root-shoot biomass allocation at any time is expressed most simply as the plant's root mass
160 fraction (RMF):

$$161 \quad \text{RMF} = R / (R + S) \quad (3)$$

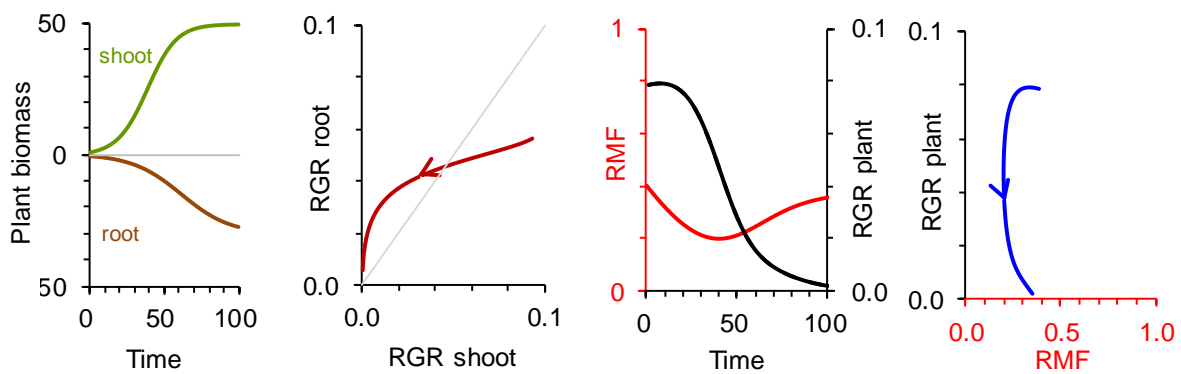
162 where R and S are each calculated separately by eqn. (1). Because, via eqn. (1), both R and S
163 are functions of time, so is RMF. RMF can have any value between 0 and 1, but physiological
164 constraints limit it to somewhere within that range. $\text{RMF} = 0.5$ indicates equal biomass
165 allocation to roots and shoot; greater than 0.5 means more biomass is allocated to roots, and
166 less than 0.5, the opposite. In most plants RMF is typically between 0.1-0.4 with a global
167 median of 0.24 (based on 11217 data from 1208 species in Table S2 of Poorter *et al.* 2015),
168 although the extremities of that database range from an RMF as small as 0.02 in *Manilkara*
169 *bidentata* to one as large as 0.92 in *Picea abies*.

170 For a plant whose growth trajectory follows eqn. (1) to ‘adaptively’ change its root-shoot
171 allocation of biomass it must change the RGRs of its roots, shoots or both (Brouwer 1962).
172 Because $\text{RGR} = r(1 - Y/Y_{\max})$, that means changing r , Y_{\max} or both. If root and shoot RGRs
173 cannot change, allocation cannot deviate from its current trajectory. Of course, ‘changing r
174 and Y_{\max} ’ is just shorthand for the myriad molecular and genetic processes that regulate
175 biomass production, notable recent examples of which include the nitrogen-induced increase
176 in abundance of growth-regulating transcription factors (Swift *et al.* 2020) and the temporal
177 dynamics of multiple QTL associated with RGR (Meyer *et al.* 2020). But for this exercise,
178 such processes and their mechanisms need not be specified – fortunately for us.

179 Another simplification I make is to ignore the many complications thrown up by clonal or
180 parasitic plants, plants that go into long periods of dormancy, interannual variations in the
181 growth of long-lived plants, the influences of symbionts, and competing plants, to list just a
182 few of the reasons why what follows aims ‘not at realism in detail, but rather at providing
183 mathematical metaphors for broad classes of phenomena. Such models can be useful in
184 suggesting interesting experiments or data collecting enterprises, or just in sharpening
185 discussion’ (May 1974b, p. v) – *especially* in sharpening discussion.

186 Starting with some simple sigmoid trajectories

187 Let's start with a simple example to illustrate some basic points. I assume here that our plant
188 grows with certain arbitrary values of r and Y_{max} for its roots and shoots: for roots $r = 0.06$
189 and $Y_{max} = 30$; for shoots $r = 0.1$ and $Y_{max} = 50$. Assume, again arbitrarily, that the initial root
190 mass (R_0) = 0.8 and the initial shoot mass (S_0) = 1.2, so that the initial total plant mass = 2.
191 The resulting growth trajectories are plotted in Fig. 1 over 100 time-steps.



192
193 Fig. 1. Trajectories of root and shoot biomass with time (eqn. (1)), root, shoot and whole-plant RGRs (eqn. (2)),
194 and RMF (eqn. (3)). The curves in the third panel are plotted against each other in the fourth. Throughout, root r
195 = 0.06 and $Y_{max} = 30$, shoot $r = 0.1$ and $Y_{max} = 50$. Initial root mass (R_0) = 0.8 and initial shoot mass (S_0) = 1.2.
196 Arrows indicate temporal direction.

197 The sigmoid progressions of root and shoot masses generate continuously declining RGRs of
198 roots and shoot. Shoot RGR initially exceeds that of roots, but these later reverse and each
199 eventually declines towards zero. Because in this example root and shoot RGRs are always
200 changing it is inevitable that root-shoot biomass allocation, as embodied in the root mass
201 fraction, also changes continually. This change in RMF occurs in the absence of any external
202 driver which makes RMF rise or fall.

203 The temporal trajectory of RMF in Fig. 1 reflects its 'ontogenetic drift' (Wilson 1988) or
204 'apparent plasticity' (McConnaughay & Coleman 1999). Ontogenetic drift in biomass
205 allocation arising from a disparity in growth rate between roots and shoots is possible even if

206 the parameters defining root and shoot growth rates, namely r and Y_{max} , are constant. A
207 phenotype fixed in terms of how eqn. (1) is parameterised can still exhibit plasticity. The
208 prospect of a plant adjusting its growth to maintain something like a steady root-shoot
209 biomass allocation over time seems improbable if RMF is such an intrinsically labile
210 quantity. It is true, however, that small temporal changes in RMF might be barely detectable
211 in practice against the background variation among experimental replicates.

212 Towards the end of the time-course when neither root nor shoot biomass changes much
213 (because each is close to its Y_{max}) RMF approaches a steady value. Only if root and shoot
214 RGRs are equal and constant will allocation stay constant over time. That will be a rare
215 occurrence.

216 The corresponding whole-plant RGR in this example does not decline continually, unlike the
217 RGRs of its component root and shoot masses. It initially increases slightly, reaching its
218 maximum at $t = 7$, before then declining towards zero as roots and shoot approach their upper
219 limits.

220 Plotting whole-plant RGR against RMF produces a co-trajectory that I doubt many of us
221 would have predicted from existing theoretical knowledge or empirical evidence. As far as I
222 know such a trajectory has yet to be discovered by any experiment, although by plotting
223 partial RGR-RMF trajectories derived by fitting eqn. (1) to biomass measurements of 11
224 herbaceous species Robinson & Peterkin (2019) hinted at what Fig. 1 shows in full.

225 Perhaps the most important feature of the RGR-RMF relationship in Fig. 1 is that although in
226 this case there does happen to be an optimum RMF (RMF = 0.34) associated with a maximal
227 RGR (RGR = 0.0793) at $t = 7$, that is simply a transient point generated by the particular
228 values assumed for the variables. There is no possibility of the plant somehow adjusting its
229 RMF to maximise its RGR by returning to those coordinates while preserving the sigmoid

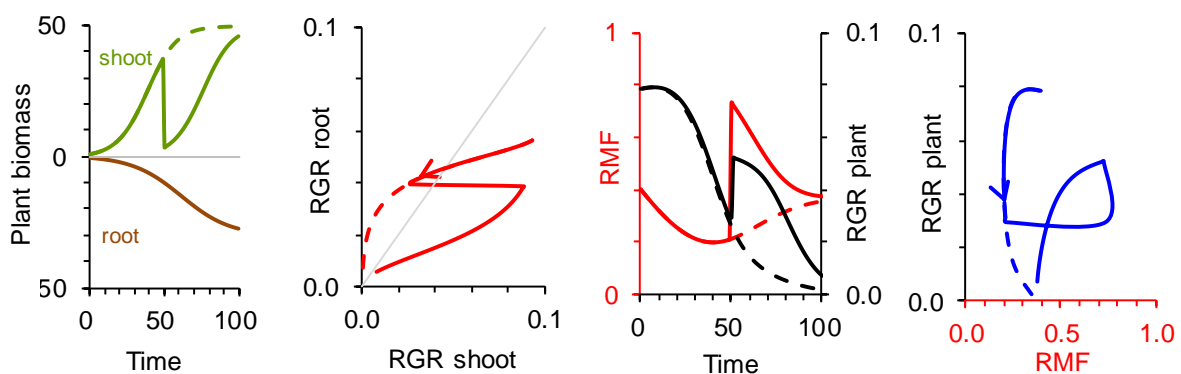
230 trajectories of roots and shoots; it is not an equilibrium towards which a growth trajectory
231 could converge in any apparently goal-seeking way (Thornley 1998).

232 In the long run the RGR of an individual must decline, although, as Fig. 1 suggests and
233 experimental evidence (Hunt 1982, pp. 20, 192; Hunt & Lloyd 1987) proves, RGR can
234 initially increase from zero (or even from negative values) to a maximum before falling
235 gradually. The cause of this pattern is probably nothing more than a difference in growth rate
236 between roots and shoots during post-germination development.

237 The full richness of the how RGR and RMF co-vary can be explored by plugging into eqn.
238 (1) different values of r and Y_{max} , but I will defer that until later, after first considering what
239 happens to a plant when part of it gets eaten.

240 **Taking a big bite of biomass**

241 If the plant whose growth is shown in Fig. 1 is defoliated by allowing a well-trained rabbit to
242 instantly eat nine-tenths of its shoot biomass at $t = 50$, the result is as shown in Fig. 2. Until t
243 $= 50$, of course, everything proceeds as before. Afterwards, nothing is the same.



244 Fig. 2. As for Fig.1 but at $t = 50$, 90% of shoot biomass is removed in a defoliation event. r and Y_{max} values are
245 the same throughout, as in Fig. 1. For comparison, the trajectories of the undefoliated plant in Fig. 1 are included
246 here as broken lines.

247 Obviously, when defoliated the plant's RMF shoots upwards from its previously smooth
248 progression. Eventually, RMF declines back towards where it would have been had the plant
249 remained intact. Interestingly, so does RGR. For the remainder of the time-course, the RGR
250 of the defoliated plant comfortably exceeds that of its unmolested counterpart. The latter plant
251 is, of course, bigger than the former, but it grows more slowly. So, there is a possibility here
252 for an increase in RMF following defoliation being associated with a temporarily faster RGR
253 compared with an undefoliated plant. That effect has been seen in some clipping experiments
254 (for example, van Staalduinen & Anten 2005) but it is not universal, any effect in real plants
255 depending strongly on context, that is, species, clipping regime and environmental conditions
256 (Hilbert *et al.* 1981; Coughenour 1991).

257 Conventional physiological wisdom might interpret the post-defoliation increase in RMF in
258 Fig. 2 as an 'adaptive response' giving a compensatory boost to whole-plant RGR, and the
259 restoration of an equilibrium implied by the eventual return of root and shoot trajectories
260 close to where they would have reached anyway. But that interpretation would be wrong.

261 The faster post-defoliation RGR in Fig. 2 is a direct, if temporary, artefact of whole-plant
262 biomass being smaller after defoliation than before. Because $RGR = r(1 - Y/Y_{max})$, a smaller
263 Y (whole-plant biomass in this case) produces a faster RGR after $t = 50$ even if r and Y_{max}
264 remain constant. Both r and Y_{max} are the same before defoliation and after. In that sense, the
265 plant's growth cannot be said to have 'responded' physiologically to part of it being eaten.
266 No physiological mechanisms of compensation are needed to explain the plant's growth
267 dynamics after defoliation.

268 No such mechanism could explain in any case the RGR-RMF co-trajectory shown in Fig. 2.
269 As bizarre it seems, that trajectory originates directly from the continued unfolding of
270 sigmoid growth of roots and shoots even when determined by fixed parameter values, and not

271 from any special response to defoliation and certainly not a response that converges towards
272 anything identifiable as an optimum.

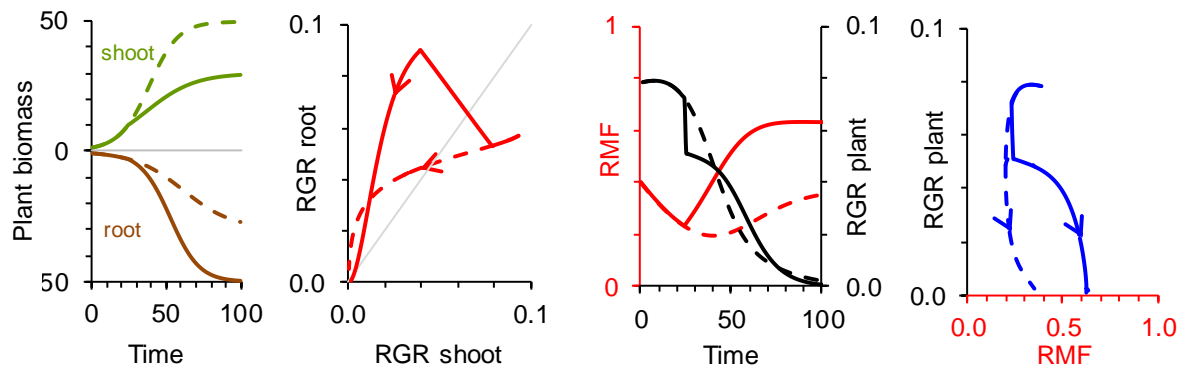
273 However, a real plant well might alter its r or Y_{max} values by triggering specific physiological
274 mechanisms in response to rabbit attack. For example, defoliation can slow root growth
275 (Wilson 1988), an effect not included in the simulation in Fig. 2 where constant root r and
276 Y_{max} are assumed. Slower root growth in a defoliated plant implies, in terms of the sigmoid
277 growth model, a reduction in root r or Y_{max} specifically in response to defoliation. If that
278 happened the effects on whole-plant RGR illustrated in Fig. 2 could be amplified or
279 dampened. Fig. 2 shows that specific response mechanisms are not necessary to accelerate
280 growth post-defoliation, but such responses might occur. How could you tell if they did?

281 One way would be to compare eqn. (1) (or whatever is your preferred model) to plant growth
282 data with and without defoliation, to test if it is necessary to adjust the equation's parameter
283 values – that is, of r and Y_{max} – to get the best statistical fit. If adjustments in parameter values
284 are necessary, that would be evidence for a genuine physiological response; if not, not.

285 **Responding to reduced nitrogen (or phosphorus, potassium, sulphur...) availability**

286 When an essential nutrient such as nitrogen suffers a reduced availability, the classical theory
287 says that root growth increases and shoot growth decreases in response. If we simulate this,
288 what happens?

289 Taking the plant in Fig. 1, at $t = 25$ flip its root and shoot r and Y_{max} values as if its nitrogen
290 supply was decreased at that time. After $t = 25$, root $r = 0.1$ and $Y_{max} = 50$, and shoot $r = 0.06$
291 and $Y_{max} = 30$, for the purposes of illustration. The result is in Fig. 3 with, again, the
292 trajectories shown originally in Fig. 1 included for comparison.



293 Fig. 3. As for Fig.1 but after $t = 25$, root $r = 0.1$ and $Y_{max} = 50$, and shoot $r = 0.06$ and $Y_{max} = 30$ to simulate the
294 possible effects of a reduction at $t = 25$ in the availability of an essential nutrient. For comparison, the
295 trajectories of the plant in Fig. 1 are shown here as broken lines.

296 By changing the values of root and shoot r and Y_{max} in this way, the balance of biomass
297 production after $t = 25$ shifts from shoot to root, as the classical theory says it should. In a real
298 plant the larger root system would then be available to mop up the scarce soil nitrogen to
299 satisfy the relatively smaller metabolic demands imposed by the shoot. This is the
300 physiological rationale for of the potential compensatory effect of such a biomass allocation
301 response to scarcities of nitrogen and other nutrients.

302 Even though the changes in r and Y_{max} are instantaneous when in a real plant they would
303 probably have occurred more gradually, the resulting change in RMF after $t = 25$ proceeds
304 smoothly, progressively increasing biomass allocation to the roots. What does this do to
305 RGR?

306 At $t = 25$ there is the immediate reduction in RGR that nitrogen deprivation would likely
307 cause in a real plant. But then RGR rebounds later to exceed, albeit only slightly in this
308 example, the RGR of the phenotype with fixed r and Y_{max} values. Does the dramatic change in
309 RMF after $t = 25$ allow RGR to eventually maintain a faster rate than it could otherwise have
310 done, as expected from the functional equilibrium concept? No, I don't think it does, for the
311 following reason.

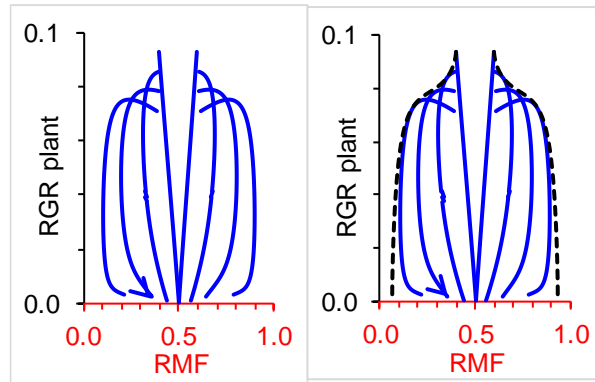
312 The rebound in RGR is explained again by that plant's biomass being smaller than it would
313 have been without having its root and shoot r and Y_{max} values switched. The faster RGR in the
314 nitrogen-deprived plant after about $t = 40$ is an artefact of how that quantity is calculated
315 (eqn. (2)). But what is revealing is that similar whole-plant RGRs can be associated with such
316 very different RMFs. This suggests that RGR is only weakly dependent on the value of RMF,
317 contrary to the notion that an optimum biomass allocation is decisive in determining the
318 whole-plant's growth rate. Why might that be?

319 To answer this question, we need to explore the wider landscape within which RGR and RMF
320 can co-vary.

321 **Filling phenotypic space with plastic plants**

322 How much of the RGR-RMF 'phenotypic space' (Pigliucci 2007), 'phenotypic landscape'
323 (Williams *et al.* 2013) or 'viable trait space' (McCormack & Iversen 2019) can be occupied?
324 Do RGR and RMF co-vary in similar ways across that space? And are certain combinations
325 of RGR and RMF off-limits for a plant whose growth follows a sigmoid trajectory, or are
326 virtually any combinations of RGR and RMF feasible?

327 To tackle these questions, I varied root and shoot r and Y_{max} values as described in the legend
328 to Fig. 4, keeping them constant throughout, so assuming no malign influences of herbivore
329 or environment during growth. In other words, by assuming a wider range of r and Y_{max}
330 values the RGR-RMF co-trajectory shown already in Fig. 1 is joined by others to see where
331 and how they occur. The left-hand panel of Fig. 4 shows the result.



332

333 Fig. 4. Co-trajectories of whole-plant RGR and RMF generated by varying values of r and Y_{max} that remain
 334 constant over time. From left to right in the first panel: root $r = 0.04$, $Y_{max} = 20$, shoot $r = 0.1$, $Y_{max} = 50$; root $r =$
 335 0.06 , $Y_{max} = 30$, shoot $r = 0.1$, $Y_{max} = 50$ (this, arrowed, is the RGR-RMF co-trajectory shown previously in Fig.
 336 1); root $r = 0.08$, $Y_{max} = 40$, shoot $r = 0.1$, $Y_{max} = 50$; root $r = 0.1$, $Y_{max} = 50$, shoot $r = 0.1$, $Y_{max} = 50$ (this is the
 337 fourth plot from the left, the linear trajectory generated because r and Y_{max} values are the same for roots and
 338 shoots, which is why it converges eventually on $RMF = 0.5$). Initial root and shoot masses are $R_0 = 0.8$ and $S_0 =$
 339 1.2 for all four trajectories. The other four trajectories in the left-hand panel are for plants with initial root and
 340 shoot masses reversed, $R_0 = 1.2$ and $S_0 = 0.8$, and with r and Y_{max} values that mirror those of the first four,
 341 namely, from left to right: root $r = 0.1$, $Y_{max} = 50$, shoot $r = 0.1$, $Y_{max} = 50$; root $r = 0.1$, $Y_{max} = 50$, shoot $r = 0.08$,
 342 $Y_{max} = 40$; root $r = 0.1$, $Y_{max} = 50$, shoot $r = 0.06$, $Y_{max} = 30$; root $r = 0.1$, $Y_{max} = 50$, shoot $r = 0.04$, $Y_{max} = 20$.

343 The second panel shows the same eight RGR-RMF co-trajectories as those in the first but superimposed on them
 344 are two other curves (broken lines) that approximately maximise RGR for a given RMF. The left-hand broken
 345 curve was generated by fixing shoot $r = 0.1$ and $Y_{max} = 200$ throughout, while making root $Y_{max} = 50$ but root r
 346 vary at each time step according to $r_{t+1} = r_t^{1.01}$. The right-hand broken curve mirrors the first one since it was
 347 generated by fixing root $r = 0.1$ and $Y_{max} = 200$ throughout, while making shoot $Y_{max} = 50$ but shoot r vary
 348 according to $r_{t+1} = r_t^{1.01}$.

349 I was surprised to see so much of the RGR-RMF space in Fig. 4 occupied (and, with a
 350 pleasing resonance, occupied in a vaguely octopodal way). It seems that only fast RGRs
 351 combined with extreme RMFs are out of bounds. Depending on how the equations are
 352 parameterised, RGR can vary positively, negatively or hardly at all with RMF.

353 So, it is unsurprising that the relationship between a plant's production and allocation of
354 biomass has remained so enigmatic, and that experiments yield results difficult to reconcile
355 with a functional equilibrium. Fig. 4 shows that the same whole-plant RGRs occur in plants
356 with very different biomass allocations. There is no evidence that certain ranges in RMF are
357 intrinsically more conducive to promoting faster RGRs than others. If that's true, there can be
358 no equilibrium or optimum allocations towards which a plant can grow to maximise its
359 overall growth rate while maintaining a sigmoid growth pattern whatever its r and Y_{max} values
360 might be. This questions the key assumption of the functional equilibrium concept.

361 It is interesting that RGR-RMF trajectories in Fig. 4 cross-over one another in the early stages
362 of growth. This means that some phenotypes, as defined by fixed r and Y_{max} values, could
363 temporarily out-grow others. But could another phenotype outgrow all the fixed phenotypes
364 by, for example, varying its r or Y_{max} values continually as it grows? At least one phenotype
365 could.

366 I found this plastic phenotype by trial-and-error. By making shoot Y_{max} a fixed value of 200
367 and reducing root r at each time step from an initial value of 0.1 according to a power
368 function $r_{t+1} = r_t^{1.01}$ or, by making root $Y_{max} = 200$ and reducing shoot r at each time step
369 using the same function, the resulting phenotype (the broken curves in Fig. 4) outgrows any
370 of the fixed phenotypes for any RMF attained by them. The RGR of the plastic phenotype
371 still declines over time but not as rapidly as in the other phenotypes. (The idea of changing r
372 continually to simulate plant growth via logistic models was used previously by Wallach &
373 Gutman (1976). They modelled, with mixed success, biomass production by communities of
374 winter annuals in arid environments by varying r not as a direct function of time, but as
375 arbitrary functions of soil moisture, radiation and temperature.)

376 I use the arbitrary function $r_{t+1} = r_t^{1.01}$ only to demonstrate that at least one continually plastic
377 phenotype is possible within this framework that is able to afford some temporary advantage
378 – in terms of attaining a faster RGR for a given RMF – compared with a fixed phenotype; no
379 doubt there are other plastic phenotypes described by other functions, but I have not explored
380 what they might be.

381 Whether that plastic phenotype is physiologically possible is another matter. The extent to
382 which I had to contrive it into existence on my spreadsheet suggests it's unlikely to be
383 realistic. But such an improbably plastic phenotype is what would be needed for genuinely
384 'adaptive' allocation responses to exist in the landscape of opportunity defined by eqns. (1)-
385 (3). Even so, the possibility of a phenotype capable of continually changing its root and shoot
386 growth trajectories should not be dismissed entirely when analysing experimental data.

387 **Discussion**

388 If the trajectories presented here are valid mathematical metaphors for real plants,
389 adjustments in root-shoot allocation cannot themselves compensate whole-plant growth rate
390 for nutrient shortages or defoliation. The possible co-variations between allocation and
391 growth rate are incompatible with the classical functional equilibrium model.

392 A mistake many of us have made is to think of root-shoot biomass allocation and biomass
393 production rate as if they are independent traits. We have tried and largely failed to
394 understand them in those terms. But they are not independent traits. Just as you can't change
395 the area of a circle without automatically changing its diameter, biomass allocation can't
396 change without also changing biomass production rate to a greater or lesser extent. This
397 fundamental misunderstanding is why the metaphorical octopus has taken so long to
398 handcuff. In some ways this parallels the better-known error of attributing allometric changes
399 in root and shoot size as genuine allocation responses to the environment (Reich 2002).

400 In plant physiology we are used to thinking of our measured variables changing in
401 approximately deterministic ways regulated by well-characterised mechanisms. We
402 understand why the rate of CO₂ fixation varies with irradiance as it does because we can
403 interpret data with linear models of the essential biochemical and biophysical mechanisms.
404 We can write a simple linear equation describing concentration-dependent ion uptake rate by
405 a root. But we can't write a simple linear equation describing how a plant's biomass
406 production rate depends on how it allocates biomass between roots and shoot because there is
407 no independent variable in that relationship. The wide spectrum of possible variation between
408 RGR and RMF in Fig. 4 illustrates this co-dependence, presuming the trajectories in Fig. 4 to
409 be valid, of course. And the way to test their validity is to do appropriate experiments and
410 apply eqns. (1)-(3) to the data. This isn't the only example in plant physiology of two
411 important variables having no unique relationship with one another. A comparable co-
412 dependency exists between simultaneous rates of CO₂ assimilation and water evaporation via
413 stomata (Cowan & Farquhar 1977).

414 So, how does plant growth respond to the environment if not primarily by alterations in root-
415 shoot allocation?

416 A plant's environment is never uniform in space or time. Different sets of meristems of the
417 same plant can experience different external cues and conditions. Some growth responses to
418 such an environment do have the potential to be genuinely 'adaptive' in terms of
419 compensating for resources distributed non-uniformly and perhaps unpredictably in space and
420 time, or for the partial destruction of biomass. These include localised root proliferation in
421 transiently nutrient-rich soil (Robinson 1994) and leaf and stem expansion into better
422 illuminated parts of the canopy (Küppers 1994). As they occur and as they help the plant to
423 capture scarce resources such responses will almost certainly change differential root or shoot

424 growth rates. If that happens, simultaneous alterations in root-shoot biomass allocation and
425 whole-plant growth rate will be inevitable if the growth of a real plant is caricatured faithfully
426 by eqn. (1).

427 The changes in root-shoot allocation will appear as if *they* are the primary responses to the
428 environment. They, however, are likely to be only secondary consequences of localised,
429 temporary, and to some extent independent growth responses of roots and shoots to nutrients,
430 light, herbivory and so on. It is *those* potentially ‘adaptive’ responses that cause root and
431 shoot growth rates to differ and whole-plant growth rate to change; that’s the illusion that has
432 been fooling us for so long.

433 But such changes will occur whenever anything – cold, warmth, hard soil, loose soil, anoxia,
434 toxins, pests, pathogens, trampling, UV radiation, fungicides, and so on – differentially
435 changes root and shoot growth rates. It is more useful to interpret these changes not so much
436 as specific responses to those factors, but as unavoidable consequences for the whole plant of
437 certain of its meristems encountering them. Thinking of a plant not as an entity comprising
438 two juxtaposed centres of growth (‘roots’ and ‘shoots’), but as populations of dispersed,
439 multiple meristems that happen to be connected to one another, subsets of which can
440 experience and respond separately to different local environmental conditions, removes the
441 need for a functional equilibrium model – or any other model – of ‘adaptive’ root-shoot
442 behaviour, at least insofar as the relationship between allocation and whole-plant growth is
443 concerned.

444 It is time to move on from using the functional equilibrium model to explain what changes in
445 root-shoot allocation mean because (a) it doesn’t really explain much and (b) it’s wrong
446 anyway. As a metaphor to fill the gaps where experimental data should have been it
447 stimulated us to think critically about our understanding of allocation and growth, but it has

448 proved a dead-end for advancing that understanding any further. I offer no superior theory to
449 replace it because none is needed.

450 Instead, to understand the dynamics of root-shoot biomass allocation and whole-plant growth
451 rate it is better simply to measure root and shoot growth repeatedly and frequently (and not
452 rely on potentially misleading ‘final harvest’ measurements), apply defined environmental
453 treatments during growth for comparison with an untreated control so that deviations in
454 growth or allocation between the two can be followed unambiguously (see Robinson &
455 Peterkin 2019), and analyse temporal dynamics of allocation, growth and ideally resource
456 capture (Trinder *et al.* 2013) using a suitable model (not necessarily the logistic but whatever
457 is most appropriate) to help distinguish genuine responses from consequential changes in
458 allocation and growth.

459 It is often true in science that ‘The basic problem...is the very common one of the easily
460 measured variables not being the theoretically important ones’ (Williams 1966, p. 106). Here,
461 however, the easily measured variables – root and shoot biomasses – *are* the theoretically
462 important ones. They are measured so easily compared with many others that the potential
463 richness of the information they contain has remained hidden and their importance
464 overlooked. Such basic data have been analysed in too restrictive a way to realise their full
465 explanatory value.

466 The production and allocation of biomass aren’t everything, of course (Kong & Fridley
467 2019). What really matters is what a plant does with that biomass once produced. How, and
468 how quickly, leaves and roots take up and use raw materials, how cells metabolise
469 assimilates, how a plant changes shape as it develops, and how it executes numerous other
470 processes, are what a real plant does. And in a real plant feedback between roots and shoot
471 occurs continually, not least in the upward and downward flows of vascular fluids and their

472 contents, the activities of one plant compartment influencing those of the other. Root and
473 shoot activities are limited also by structural and stoichiometric constraints. What effects
474 might all these have on my conclusions? My guess is that the net effect of including them
475 explicitly will be to restrict the occupiable RGR-RMF space in Fig. 4 to a narrower range, but
476 not to fundamentally alter the general picture. After all, roots and shoots of real plants with all
477 their feedback mechanisms and constraints still grow sigmoidally, on average, and that's what
478 the imaginary plants in Fig. 4 are doing, too.

479 All of that applies to understanding the dynamics of allocation and growth in individual
480 plants as they go through their lives. What about comparisons among species? It is a
481 biological and mathematical inevitability that no plant's RGR is constant and highly unlikely
482 that its RMF is either. Even so, in in multi-species screening experiments and meta-analyses
483 RGR and RMF are averaged over many days or weeks to provide valuable but 'static' indices
484 of comparative performance. Interspecific comparisons between such indices can produce
485 puzzling or contradictory correlations between RGR and root-shoot allocation that vary in
486 both sign and strength (Hunt & Cornelissen 1987). The explanation for this prompted by Fig.
487 4 is that it depends where different plants happen to be on their dynamic trajectories within
488 the RGR-RMF landscape at the time(s) of measurement. That whereabouts is usually
489 unknown and will always be unknown if meta-analyses don't include temporally detailed
490 data.

491 Is it true that a plant should always maximise its instantaneous growth rate anyway? That
492 principle is often used as a goal when growth and allocation are modelled whether as isolated
493 individuals (Thornley 1998) or as competing populations (Vincent & Vincent 1996). Most
494 plants usually grow faster if allowed and are physiologically able. Whether that behaviour
495 leads eventually to any fitness benefits in terms of greater seed production or vegetative

496 spread compared with the plant's competitors depends on many factors beyond the horizon of
497 this paper. Any demographic advantage accruing from individuals maximising their growth
498 rates is highly context-dependent. It seems reasonable that a faster individual growth rate
499 relative to a competitor's should be advantageous in the short-term, but there is no direct
500 evidence for such an advantage. In contrast there is ample evidence for strong long-term
501 selection against inherently fast growth in hostile habitats. There, plants typically have
502 evolved primarily to maximise their chances of conserving resources, deterring predators and
503 pathogens, and protecting meristems inside durable tissues, traits physiologically and
504 developmentally incompatible with sustained fast growth (Grime 2001, p. 89).

505 **Concluding comments and coda**

- 506 • Sigmoid growth trajectories of roots and shoots, and how these translate into dynamic
507 changes in biomass allocation and production rates, are incompatible with a functional
508 equilibrium model.
- 509 • Changes in allocation are caused by differential growth rates between roots and
510 shoots. Anything that changes root or shoot growth rate will change root-shoot
511 allocation and will lead unavoidably to a change in whole-plant growth rate.
- 512 • It will often seem as though root-shoot allocation is the primary response to the
513 environment and so likely 'adaptive', but that is an illusion.
- 514 • Stronger candidates for primary, potentially 'adaptive' growth responses are the
515 localised and transient productions of roots and leaves in more favourable microsites
516 within the plant's immediate environment. Those responses entail changes in growth
517 rate of roots or shoots and that leads automatically to unavoidable changes in root-
518 shoot allocation and whole-plant growth rate. The latter are secondary consequences
519 of the primary responses.

- 520 • Biomass allocation and whole-plant growth rate are indivisible processes. They are
521 not independent traits.
- 522 • Biomass allocation and production rate have no unique relationship to one another but
523 can vary across a wide spectrum of possible relationships.
- 524 • Changes in root-shoot allocation cannot of themselves compensate directly for an
525 impairment of growth rate caused by an external factor such as nitrogen shortage;
526 such changes cannot be ‘adaptive’.

527 I hope by now you are thinking that the examples I used to develop my arguments are
528 interesting as far as they go but are also asking if my focusing on just those few cases is
529 entirely legitimate. What about all the others that I haven’t considered? Could they tell a
530 different story? Rather than present a bestiary of all possible growth and allocation
531 trajectories here, can I encourage you instead to open a spreadsheet or write some code to
532 explore first-hand the sometimes surprising dynamics of biomass production and allocation
533 via eqn. (1) along with eqns. (2) and (3)? (After writing that I remembered that May (1976)
534 had also urged his readers to play around with eqn. (1) to best appreciate its rich counter-
535 intuitive dynamics. It was a good suggestion then, and it is now.) Then, suitably inspired, do
536 the experiments.

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