

1 **IS PISUM SATIVUM A GOOD MODEL SPECIES FOR THE STUDY OF ROOT RESPONSES TO NEIGHBOURS**
2 **AND BARRIERS IN SOIL? A BAYESIAN HIERARCHICAL META-ANALYSIS**

3

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15 **ABSTRACT:** Plant-plant competition is ubiquitous in nature. However, studying below ground behaviour
16 of roots has always posed certain difficulties. Pea (*Pisum sativum* L.) has become a sort of model species
17 for ecological studies about how plant roots respond to neighbouring plant roots and barriers in soil.
18 However, published results point in several different directions. This has sometimes been interpreted as
19 pea having sophisticated context dependent responses that can change in complex ways depending on
20 its surroundings. To explore this further, here, we combine the result of five new experiments with
21 published results to examine 18 unique experiments from 7 different studies for a total of 254
22 replicates. We used a Bayesian hierarchical meta-analysis approach to estimating the likely effect size
23 from the available data, as well as quantify heterogeneity among different experiments, studies and
24 cultivars. The posterior distributions show that, at the coarsest possible scale of total root production, it
25 is unlikely that *P. sativum* root growth is influenced by either neighbours or barriers to root growth
26 imposed by the walls of pots that vary in volume. We suggest that further work should consider
27 repeating experiments that reported finer scale root plasticity in pea at the rhizosphere scale, and also
28 consider alternative model species for the study of plant root responses to external cues.

29

30 **KEYWORDS:** *Pisum sativum*, plant-plant competition, below ground competition, meta-analysis,
31 Bayesian hierarchical analysis.

32 **INTRODUCTION:**

33 Plant-plant competition is ubiquitous in nature, and influences individual plants, populations,
34 communities and ecosystems (Kraft *et al.* 2015; Tilman 1982; Wilson 1988). In addition, roots must
35 navigate through a complex soil matrix that includes neighbours, enemies, mutualists and barriers (De
36 Deyn and Van der Putten 2005; Falik *et al.* 2005). The mechanistic details of root plasticity below
37 ground has always been more difficult to study than above ground for reasons that are somewhat
38 obvious (Casper and Jackson 1997; Casper *et al.* 2003; Schenk 2006). These reasons include the
39 difficulty in getting to roots through opaque soil, the fact that most roots of most species are visually
40 identical (Mommer *et al.* 2011; Taggart *et al.* 2011), and debate about different experimental
41 approaches and controls (Cahill 2002; Chen *et al.* 2015; Chen *et al.* 2020; Chen *et al.* 2021; Gersani *et*
42 *al.* 2001; Hess and de Kroon 2007; Laird and Aarssen 2005; McNickle 2020; Semchenko *et al.* 2010).

43
44 The common pea (*Pisum sativum* L.) has emerged as one of the most used model plants for
45 studying root plasticity in response to varied cues in the environment by ecologists. As far as we can tell
46 this was not a conscious choice by the research community, but rather an organic process as different
47 groups sought to build upon previous results in the literature. Pea is an attractive model species because
48 it has a short life history of only 50-70 days depending on cultivar, reproduces by selfing, and it is
49 relatively small in stature. Indeed, pea has been used to study many questions about root plasticity. For
50 example, pea has a variety of mutants that allow researchers to toggle on and off both nitrogen fixing
51 associations and arbuscular mycorrhizal fungus association and examine the consequences of different
52 below ground mutualisms (Guinel and Geil 2002; McNickle *et al.* 2020). Additionally, it has been shown
53 in one study that pea roots can respond to barriers in soil, turning before contact by using exudates
54 almost like a sonar (Falik *et al.* 2005). Pea roots have also been shown to be capable of discriminating
55 self from non-self and exhibiting differences in root architecture when presented with self-roots or non-

56 self-roots (Falik *et al.* 2003). In a similar study, pea was shown to preferentially proliferate into
57 neighbour free soil volumes compared to regions of soil with more neighbouring plants (Gersani *et al.*
58 1998). Another study that varied nutrient dynamics in time and space concluded that pea was capable of
59 anticipating improving conditions in the future by pre-emptively proliferating roots before the improved
60 conditions arrived (Shemesh *et al.* 2010). At the scale of total root growth, pea has also been shown to
61 sometimes increase total root production in the presence of both a neighbour and larger pot volume
62 compared to alone in a smaller pot (O'Brien *et al.* 2005), and sometimes decrease root production in the
63 same varying neighbour-volume context (Chen *et al.* 2015), or exhibit no response at all (Jacob *et al.*
64 2017; McNickle *et al.* 2020; Meier *et al.* 2013). Combined, these myriad results give the impression that
65 pea has sophisticated context dependent root growth plasticity that allows complex responses to
66 different cues.

67

68 Indeed, precisely because of these wide-ranging and interesting results in the literature we
69 sought to further develop pea as a model for hypothesis testing about root growth plasticity and
70 proliferation. We performed five different experiments between 2013 and 2018 where we varied
71 different aspects of the experiment that we thought would allow us to more closely repeat some of
72 these previous findings noted above. These used the same basic experimental design as was most
73 common in the literature where total nutrients per plant, and nutrient concentration were controlled
74 across plants grown alone or with neighbours (Chen *et al.* 2015; Jacob *et al.* 2017; McNickle *et al.* 2020;
75 Meier *et al.* 2013; O'Brien *et al.* 2005). However, our experiments were not exact replications. Rather
76 we continually fine-tuned experimental conditions in ways that we hypothesized were more similar to
77 the conditions reported by previous authors because our prior expectation was that the published
78 results were correct, and that we were somehow in error.

79

80 Here, we combine our five experiments with five from the literature that used the same basic
81 experimental approach and used a hierarchical Bayesian meta-analysis approach to synthesize the
82 results. We ask what is the average response to the barriers of pot walls imposed by changing pot
83 volume and to the presence of neighbouring plant roots across these many experiments. We conclude
84 that pea probably has no responses to either factor at the coarse scale of an entire root system.

85

86 **METHODS**

87 *Studies included in the meta-analysis*

88 We sought experiments in the published literature that grew pea plants with neighbours in pots
89 of volume V , and compared it to plants grown alone in pots of volume $V/2$. This design controls total
90 nutrients per plant, and soil nutrient concentration across the neighbour addition experiments, but has
91 been criticised because it simultaneously manipulates pot volume and neighbours. Thus, one cannot
92 conclude whether the barriers imposed by restricting pot volume or neighbours were the cause of any
93 significant results (Chen *et al.* 2015; Hess and de Kroon 2007). We do not dispute this, but in the special
94 case of no treatment effect of any kind, one can actually rule out both causes simultaneously. We
95 identified five different studies in the literature that used this neighbour-volume experimental
96 manipulation in pea (Chen *et al.* 2015; Jacob *et al.* 2017; McNickle *et al.* 2020; Meier *et al.* 2013;
97 O'Brien *et al.* 2005). From these five studies we extracted the mean root and pod production within
98 each treatment, and their standard deviations. We also recorded the cultivar used, and the pot volume
99 used to define V in the neighbour-volume manipulation. In addition to the neighbour-volume
100 manipulation, some studies imposed additional factorial treatments. These additional treatments were
101 not replicated among studies, and so we treated these as additional treatments as separate experiments
102 performed within study and included them as a second level of random effects in a hierarchical random
103 effect model. These means are recorded separately resulting in multiple data points for the following

104 studies: (i) O'Brien *et al.* (2005) crossed the neighbour addition treatment with low and high nutrient
105 addition; (ii) Chen *et al.* (2015) included three levels of soil nutrient concentration (McNickle 2020) and;
106 (iii) McNickle *et al.* (2020) grew plants with and without mycorrhizae. Two studies only collected root
107 data and did not have pod data (Jacob *et al.* 2017; Meier *et al.* 2013) and one of these also did not
108 report any estimates of variation (Jacob *et al.* 2017).

109

110 In addition, we performed five new supplementary experiments using the same basic
111 neighbour-volume treatment as the rest of the studies. Since these are similar to the five published
112 results, we detail the experiments in the Supplementary information. Briefly, one of our experiments
113 implemented the basic neighbour-volume treatment where V was 1L. When this did not allow us to
114 repeat previous findings, we hypothesized that a larger rooting volume might be necessary to allow root
115 responses. In addition, based on different approaches to allowing or preventing shoot interactions
116 above ground by different groups (Chen *et al.* 2015; McNickle *et al.* 2020; O'Brien *et al.* 2005) we also
117 hypothesized that shoot interactions might influence root interactions. Thus, the next four of our new
118 experiments crossed the neighbour-volume treatment with the presence or absence of above ground
119 shoot competition and increased the value of V that defined pot volumes to 6.2L. As above, we treated
120 the presence or absence of shoot competition as separate studies nested within experiment as a
121 hierarchical random effect and so there are actually 8 data points from these four experiments. In these
122 four experiments, we also explored different potting media in each case (Table S1-3, Figures S1-S4).

123

124 *Meta-analysis test statistic*

125 To compare plants in the two neighbour volume treatments, we used Hedges g (Hedges 1981)
126 as our test statistic calculated according to:

$$g = \frac{\bar{X}_{n,V} - \bar{X}_{a,V/2}}{SD_{pooled}} c(n), \quad \text{Eqn 1}$$

127 where $\bar{X}_{n,V}$ is the mean response variable in the presence of a neighbour and in a pot of volume V
128 (hereafter, neighbour-full); $\bar{X}_{a,V/2}$ is the mean response variable when grown alone in a pot of volume
129 $V/2$ (hereafter, alone-half); n was the sample size of the study and $c(n)$ is a correction factor for small
130 sample size in a balanced design. The correction factor derived by Hedges (1981) for a balanced
131 experimental design is given by:

$$c(n) = \frac{\Gamma(n-1)}{\Gamma\left(n-\frac{1}{2}\right)\sqrt{n-1}}, \quad \text{Eqn 2}$$

132 where $\Gamma(x)$ is a gamma function of the form:

$$\Gamma(x) = (x-1)!. \quad \text{Eqn 3}$$

133 By constructing g with $\bar{X}_{n,V} - \bar{X}_{a,V/2}$ as the numerator, it will be negative in the case of reduced root
134 growth in the neighbour-full treatment, positive in the case of increased root growth in the neighbour-
135 full treatment, and zero in the case of no effect of either neighbours or doubling/halving pot volume.
136 Since all studies used a balanced design, the pooled standard deviation was calculated as:

$$SD_{pooled} = \sqrt{\frac{SD_{n,V}^2 + SD_{a,V/2}^2}{2}}, \quad \text{Eqn 4}$$

137 where $SD_{n,V}$, and $SD_{a,V/2}$ are the standard deviation associated with the means of the same subscript.
138 We calculated g for individual root biomass, and also for lifetime seed yield and analysed these two
139 tissues independently.

140

141 *Hierarchical Bayesian linear mixed effects model*

142 A hierarchical Bayesian linear mixed effects approach was implemented with brms (Bürkner
143 2017; Bürkner 2018) in the R statistical environment (v 4.1.1 R-Core-Team 2021). To control for
144 heterogeneity among studies, individual experiment was nested within study as a random effect. This

145 allowed us to account for differences among both individual experiments (i.e. total nutrients (O'Brien *et al.* 2005), nutrient concentration (Chen *et al.* 2015; McNickle 2020), with and without mycorrhizae
146 (McNickle *et al.* 2020), with and without shoot competition (Fig S1)), and individual research groups (E.g.
147 soil media, fertilizer type, watering schedules, timing, and so on). Since studies also did not always use
148 the same cultivar, and since cultivars represent a separate form of biologically interesting heterogeneity
149 among studies in the form of genetic differences, we also included pea cultivar as another random
150 effect. Finally, we included the pot volume used by each study as a continuous fixed effect to explicitly
151 identify the effect of the value of V in the neighbour-volume response. We present both the posterior
152 mean for each study independent of value of V , and the linear relationship among studies accounting
153 for the value of V as a covariate. The posteriors were generated using four Markov chain Monte Carlo
154 (MCMC) chains, 2500 burn-ins, 5,000 iterations per chain, resulting in 10,000 estimates for each
155 posterior distribution. No thinning was used as thinning has been shown to have no detectable effects
156 on MCMC simulation other than increased computing time (Link and Eaton 2012). To remain as
157 unbiased as possible our priors assumed any value of g or standard deviation was equally likely.
158

159

160 **RESULTS**

161 *Root responses*

162 The meta-analysis included 18 unique experiments from 7 different studies for a total of 254
163 replicate alone-half and with neighbour-full pairs of plants. Additionally, 6 different cultivars of pea were
164 used across the literature. The value of V used by studies ranged from 50mL (Meier *et al.* 2013) to 6.2 L
165 (Fig S1).

166

167 The influence of pot volume on effect size for roots was 0.00 (95%CI: -0.12, 0.11) with an
168 intercept of -0.03 (95% CI: -0.61, 0.58; Fig 1a). Thus, the posterior average effect size across studies was

169 -0.03 (Table 1; Fig 2a). Unlike a frequentist approach that assigns a p -value to either accept or reject one
170 hypothesis, the Bayesian framework allowed us use the posterior distributions to assign probabilities
171 that any given outcome might be observed in a future study with peas. Here, the logical hypothesis to
172 examine was the probability that the effect size is greater than zero (increased roots in the neighbour-
173 full treatment) or less than zero (decreased roots in the neighbour-full treatment). Using the posterior
174 distribution, there was a probability of 0.44 that the effect size for peas would be greater than zero, and
175 thus a probability of 0.56 that the effect size was less than zero.

176

177 With any meta-analysis there is obviously differences among studies, and here quantifying that
178 heterogeneity was major motivation for our analysis. At its core, Bayesian statistics examine how many
179 different ways the observed data could have been sampled, and then combines these resampled
180 outcomes into a posterior distribution. Thus, the hierarchical Bayesian mixed effects analysis is based on
181 the assumption that each level of the random effect (experiment within study, study and cultivar) has its
182 own effect size which emerged from resampling and are averaged to get the global result (Fig 2).
183 Accordingly, the Bayesian approach models each of these as a standard deviation around the random
184 intercept. Furthermore, since each random effect was modelled with its own prior distribution we can
185 estimate this heterogeneity directly as standard deviations that also have 95% CIs (Table 1). Cultivar
186 differences introduced an estimated standard deviation of 0.28 (95% CI: 0.01, 0.97) around the
187 intercept, differences among studies produced an estimated standard deviation of 0.28 (95% CI: 0.01,
188 1.00) and differences among experiments but within a study had a standard deviation of 0.35 (95% CI:
189 0.2, 0.6). These should be interpreted as standard deviations around the random intercept of the model.
190 So, since the intercept was -0.03 we can use these standard deviations to identify sources of variation
191 that were directly associated with experimental differences, study differences and cultivar differences.

192 The magnitude of all of these sources of error highlights that a breadth of results might be possible with
193 a small sample size.

194

195 *Pod responses*

196 The estimated slope of relationship between pod mass and pot volume was weakly positive at
197 0.04 (95% CI: -0.10, 0.19) and the intercept was 0.05 (95% CI: -0.96, 1.07; Fig 1b). Thus, pot volume
198 increased the expected neighbour-volume effect size by 0.04 standard deviations L^{-1} of pot volume. For
199 example, a 1L pot would have an estimated effect size of 0.09, a 2L pot would have an estimated effect
200 size of 0.13 and so on. The average posterior effect size for most studies was also slightly positive,
201 indicating more pod mass in the neighbour-full treatment compared to the alone-half treatment (Fig
202 2b). As above, we can use the posterior distributions to assign probabilities to a given outcome in pea.
203 Here, the average posterior distribution shows that there is a probability of 0.68 that the effect size
204 could be greater than zero, and thus a probability of 0.32 that the effect size could be less than zero in a
205 subsequent experiment.

206

207 As above, we estimated heterogeneity in the meta-analysis directly as standard deviations
208 around the random intercept in the model with 95% CIs (Table 1). With pods, cultivar had an estimated
209 standard deviation of 0.51 (95% CI: 0.02, 1.85), study had a standard deviation of 0.49 (95% CI: 0.02,
210 1.85), and differences among experiments but within a study had a standard deviation of 0.37 (95% CI:
211 0.19, 0.70). Thus, there is significant uncertainty that comes along with differences in experimental
212 design, study and cultivar used.

213

214 **DISCUSSION**

215 Among ecologists, pea has become a sort of model species for the study of root plasticity in
216 response to different external cues. This probably happened organically, as pea is an attractive model
217 system, and because a number of studies had reported a variety of interesting and complex root
218 behaviours (Chen *et al.* 2015; Chen *et al.* 2020; Falik *et al.* 2003; Falik *et al.* 2005; Gersani *et al.* 1998;
219 Guinel and Geil 2002; Jacob *et al.* 2017; McNickle 2020; McNickle *et al.* 2020; Meier *et al.* 2013;
220 O'Brien *et al.* 2005; Shemesh *et al.* 2010). After failing to reproduce previous findings in five of our own
221 experiments (Supplementary information), we combined our results with those from experiments that
222 used the same treatments to gain a more holistic picture of pea root behaviour that ultimately included
223 254 replicate pairs of plants grown in alone-half and neighbour full treatments. Since the literature is
224 mostly populated by significant p-values, here we examined them in a Bayesian hierarchical meta-
225 analysis that estimated the average posterior effect size of pea neighbour-volume effects as well as
226 heterogeneity among studies and our priors assumed any result was equally likely. An absolute effect
227 size of $0 < |g| < 0.2$ is considered small, and it corresponds to just 50-58% of the treatment group
228 being larger or smaller than the control and such a small effect would not be visually obvious. By this
229 convention, for both roots and pods the average effect size across studies was small (-0.03 and 0.13
230 respectively; Fig 2). Furthermore, the 95% credible intervals around estimates was so large that – as we
231 already knew from the literature – effectively any result might be found for root responses in any given
232 experiment (Fig 2, Table 1). These Bayesian posterior distributions suggest that if researchers take a
233 frequentist approach to hypothesis testing with a relatively small sample size, then whether one finds a
234 neighbour-volume root response in pea is essentially the same as flipping a coin (Fig 2a), and only
235 slightly better than flipping a coin that a positive pod response would occur (Fig 2b). Our original
236 interpretation of the different results in the literature was that pea might have sophisticated context
237 dependent responses to many cues in the rhizosphere and we sought to use this model system to
238 explore these responses. However, based on this meta-analysis, we conclude that in general pea has

239 neither strong neighbour root responses, nor strong responses to barriers imposed by halving pot
240 volume when the treatments compared are two neighbour plants grown in a volume of V , and one plant
241 grown in a pot of volume $V/2$.

242

243 However, in addition to the basic neighbour-full and alone-half comparison made within study,
244 we could compare the pot volumes used among studies. The volume of the pot that peas were grown in
245 varied from $V = 50$ mL (Meier *et al.* 2013) to $V = 6.2$ L (this study; Supplementary information)
246 resulting in a wide range of potential barriers to root growth. However, for roots, the estimated
247 posterior slope of this pot volume effect was 0.00 (95% CI: -0.12, 0.11; Table 1; Fig 1A). This means that
248 one can expect the same effect size for roots whether or not plants are grown in 50mL pots or 6.2L pots.
249 This is not the same as saying that plants did not have a growth response to pot volume (See Fig S5),
250 only that the difference between plants in the two treatments (i.e. effect size) is zero standard
251 deviations on average no matter the pot size that defines V . The influence of pot volume used in a study
252 on the effect size for pods on the other hand was weakly positive at 0.04 (95% CI: -0.10, 0.19; Table 1;
253 Fig 1b). This means that the effect size ranged from 0.05 in a 50mL pot to 0.30 in a 6.2L pot for pods.
254 Thus, we conclude that the neighbour-volume manipulation does begin to have a larger effect on pod
255 production in a positive direction, even while the treatments seem to have no effect on total root
256 biomass. Since these experiments confound neighbour addition and pot volume it is impossible to
257 determine which factor caused the increasing difference in pod production in neighbour-full pots
258 relative to alone-half pots. For example, one could argue that pots of volume V have more nutrients and
259 space and that this lead to the increase in pod production relative to pots of volume $V/2$ and that
260 neighbours had nothing to do with this (e.g. Hess and de Kroon 2007). One could also argue that
261 perhaps some kind of facilitation occurred between the two plants and that pot volume had nothing to
262 do with the results (Callaway and Walker 1997; Thorpe *et al.* 2011). One could also argue that both

263 neighbour and volume effects simultaneously occurred, since there is no reason to think those two ideas
264 are mutually exclusive. These experiments cannot determine the precise cause.

265

266 However, this weakly positive slope for the effect size on pod mass (Fig 1b, Fig 2b) should also
267 be considered in the context of the heterogeneity among experiments, studies and cultivars (Table 1).
268 The Bayesian approach assumes that each individual experiment within study, combined with cultivar
269 differences have their own effect size that was sampled from the global population of possible effect
270 sizes. Therefore, these random effects produce standard deviations with their own posterior
271 distributions that should be interpreted as standard deviations around the intercept or mean effect.
272 Interpreting these standard deviations is easiest when considering the posterior distribution of possible
273 effect sizes for each study (Fig 2). For example, the tails of the posterior distribution for each study
274 include 1 and -1 for both roots and pods and thus, though the mean is centred on 0 and 0.14
275 respectively, there is a wide degree of uncertainty in these average estimates. For roots and pods, the
276 uncertainty for cultivar was large which could indicate a genetic basis for the responses (Table 1). The
277 differences among experiment performed within study indicate that other manipulations such as total
278 nutrients (O'Brien *et al.* 2005), nutrient concentration (Chen *et al.* 2015; McNickle 2020), manipulation
279 of mycorrhizae (McNickle *et al.* 2020), manipulation of shoot competition (Supplemental information)
280 also influence the results, and none of this is surprising. We would direct interested readers to each
281 study to interpret the influence of these other treatments.

282

283 Importantly, we only studied the neighbour-volume response of pea roots at the coarsest
284 possible scale: total root biomass. Pea might have other finer scale plastic root growth in space in
285 relation to either neighbours or barriers such as pot walls (Cabal *et al.* 2020; Falik *et al.* 2003; Falik *et al.*
286 2005; O'Brien *et al.* 2007). These fine-scale behaviours of individual root tips as they navigate the

287 rhizosphere are obviously not captured by studies of total root system size. For example, Falik *et al.*
288 (2005) found that individual root tips of pea were able to adjust growth near barriers as small as 0.8mm
289 diameter nylon string. Such small scale behaviours would be unlikely to be detectable at the coarse scale
290 of a total root system mass, but might still have important influences on lifetime survival and
291 reproduction. Thus, it is still possible that finer scale root navigation was responsible for the slight
292 differences in pod mass we observed (Fig 1b, Fig 2b). O'Brien *et al.* (2007) presented a model for finer-
293 scale root responses to neighbours that might occur in regions of root system overlap relative to regions
294 of soil where one plant is alone which could aide hypothesis development in future studies. Cabal *et al.*
295 (2020) recently presented a very similar model which also makes spatially explicit predictions about
296 intermingled root systems. If researchers want to continue to study pea responses to neighbours, we
297 suggest that future experiments should attempt reproduce these finer scale root responses at the scale
298 of the rhizosphere and compare them with similar approaches on other species (E.g. Belter and Cahill
299 2015; Downie *et al.* 2015).

300

301 Pea is an attractive model species for experimental studies of root plasticity since it is relatively
302 small, and completes its lifecycle in 50-70 days. Our findings that pea lacks coarse scale responses does
303 not mean that every plant on earth is expected to behave like pea. This raises the question; if one is still
304 interested responses to neighbours and barriers in soil, then what plants might be better model species
305 for studying root responses to neighbours?

306

307 One obvious model would be the workhorse *Arabidopsis thaliana* since there is an enormous
308 amount of pre-existing literature, and significant genetic resources that would aide in further
309 understanding of the neighbour-volume response (Kaul *et al.* 2000). Indeed, there is a pre-existing body
310 of work on plant-plant competition in *Arabidopsis thaliana* (e.g. Cahill *et al.* 2005; Pantazopoulou *et al.*

311 2017). Another appealing option is Soybean (*Glycine max* (L.)) which also has significant genetic
312 resources (Grant *et al.* 2009; Schmutz *et al.* 2010), and it is an economically important food crop. For
313 such a globally important crop, even a small effect size in root or pod growth like the one detected here
314 (Fig 1, 2) could have compounding economic implications at the scale of global agriculture and thus are
315 worth investigating. However, as with pea there are variable results in the literature with one study
316 finding a significant positive effect size (Gersani *et al.* 2001) and another finding an effect size of zero
317 (Chen *et al.* 2021). These two studies used different cultivars, and so it remains to be seen if these are
318 genetic differences, or simply the consequence of random sampling error (e.g. Fig 2). *Medicago trunata*
319 is another common model annual plant species with significant genetic resources (Frugoli and Harris
320 2001) that could be considered to examine neighbour responses. Yang *et al.* (2013) found that alfalfa
321 (*M. sativa* (L.)), a perennial congener to *M. trunata*, exhibited a root response to neighbours and so *M.*
322 *trunata* might share some of these genes. However, legumes might not be the best model species for
323 root competition studies since they form mutualisms with nitrogen fixing bacteria which might mean
324 they have atypical root growth plasticity. Wheat (*Triticum aestivum* (L.)) might be another attractive
325 model species with variable responses across contexts (McNickle and Evans 2018; Weiner *et al.* 2017;
326 Zhu *et al.* 2019), significant genetic resources (Brenchley *et al.* 2012; Kidane *et al.* 2019), and economic
327 importance as a food crop. Many other clear root responses to neighbours have been reported in
328 herbaceous perennial plants which could be explored as new models for the neighbour response (e.g.
329 Belter and Cahill 2015; McNickle *et al.* 2016; Padilla *et al.* 2013; Semchenko *et al.* 2010; Semchenko *et*
330 *al.* 2014). However, most models include paired predictions of root growth and lifetime fitness (e.g.
331 Gersani *et al.* 2001; McNickle and Brown 2012; McNickle and Brown 2014; O'Brien and Brown 2008;
332 O'Brien *et al.* 2007), and so perennials might not be the best model species to test these model
333 predictions. However, as with all scientific problems these questions will be addressed by continued
334 experimentation over time.

335

336 *Conclusion*

337 Common pea has been studied by ecologists in the same basic neighbour-volume manipulation
338 across 18 unique experiments from 7 different studies for a total of 254 replicate alone-half and with
339 neighbour-full pairs of plants. Positive, negative and neutral results have all been published and the
340 interpretation of these results has been debated in the literature for more than a decade (Chen *et al.*
341 2015; Chen *et al.* 2020; Hess and de Kroon 2007; Laird and Aarssen 2005; McNickle 2020). Here, we
342 used a hierarchical Bayesian meta-analysis to generate posterior distributions from the published
343 literature. We find that whatever the effect of the neighbour-volume manipulation in other plant
344 species, pea likely has no responses to a neighbour-volume manipulation at any pot volume ranging
345 from 50mL to 6300 mL. We suggest that it might be valuable to attempt to replicate some of the finer
346 scale results reported for pea (e.g. Falik *et al.* 2003; Falik *et al.* 2005), but for coarser scale questions it
347 might be worth considering a new model species such as *Arabidopsis*, soybean, *Medicago*, or wheat.

348

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351 The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

352

353 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

354 GGM and MM designed the experiments. GGM performed supplemental experiment 1. MM performed
355 supplemental experiments 2,3 and 5 and frequentist statistical analyses. AK performed supplemental
356 experiment 4, and frequentist statistical analyses. GGM performed the Bayesian meta-analysis. MM
357 drafted the initial manuscript, and all authors contributed to revisions.

358

359 **CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT**

360 The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

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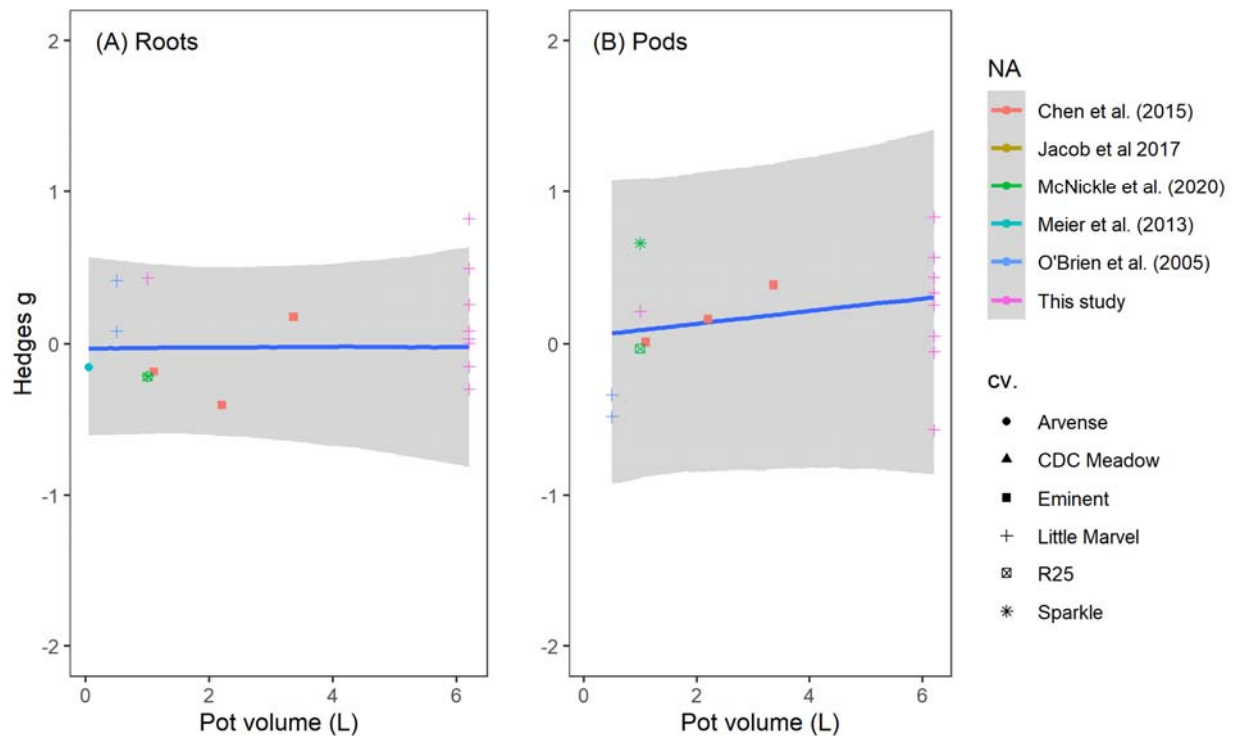
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482 **TABLE 1:** Bayesian estimators, their error and associated 95% credible intervals (CI) from the hierarchical
483 Bayesian mixed effects model for roots and pods in the meta-analysis. Cultivar, study and individual
484 experiment nested within study were included as random effects. ‘Standard deviation’ is abbreviated as
485 ‘StDev’.

Tissue	Factor	Statistic	Estimate	Error	95% CI
Roots	Mean effect size	Intercept	-0.03	0.28	(-0.61, 0.58)
	Pot volume	Slope	0.00	0.06	(-0.12, 0.11)
	Cultivar	StDev	0.28	0.26	(0.01, 0.97)
	Study	StDev	0.28	0.26	(0.01, 1.00)
	Study/Experiment	StDev	0.35	0.11	(0.2, 0.6)
Pods	Mean effect size	Intercept	0.05	0.49	(-0.96, 1.07)
	Pot volume	Slope	0.04	0.07	(-0.10, 0.19)
	Cultivar	StDev	0.51	0.49	(0.02, 1.85)
	Study	StDev	0.49	0.52	(0.01, 1.00)
	Study/Experiment	StDev	0.37	0.13	(0.19, 0.70)

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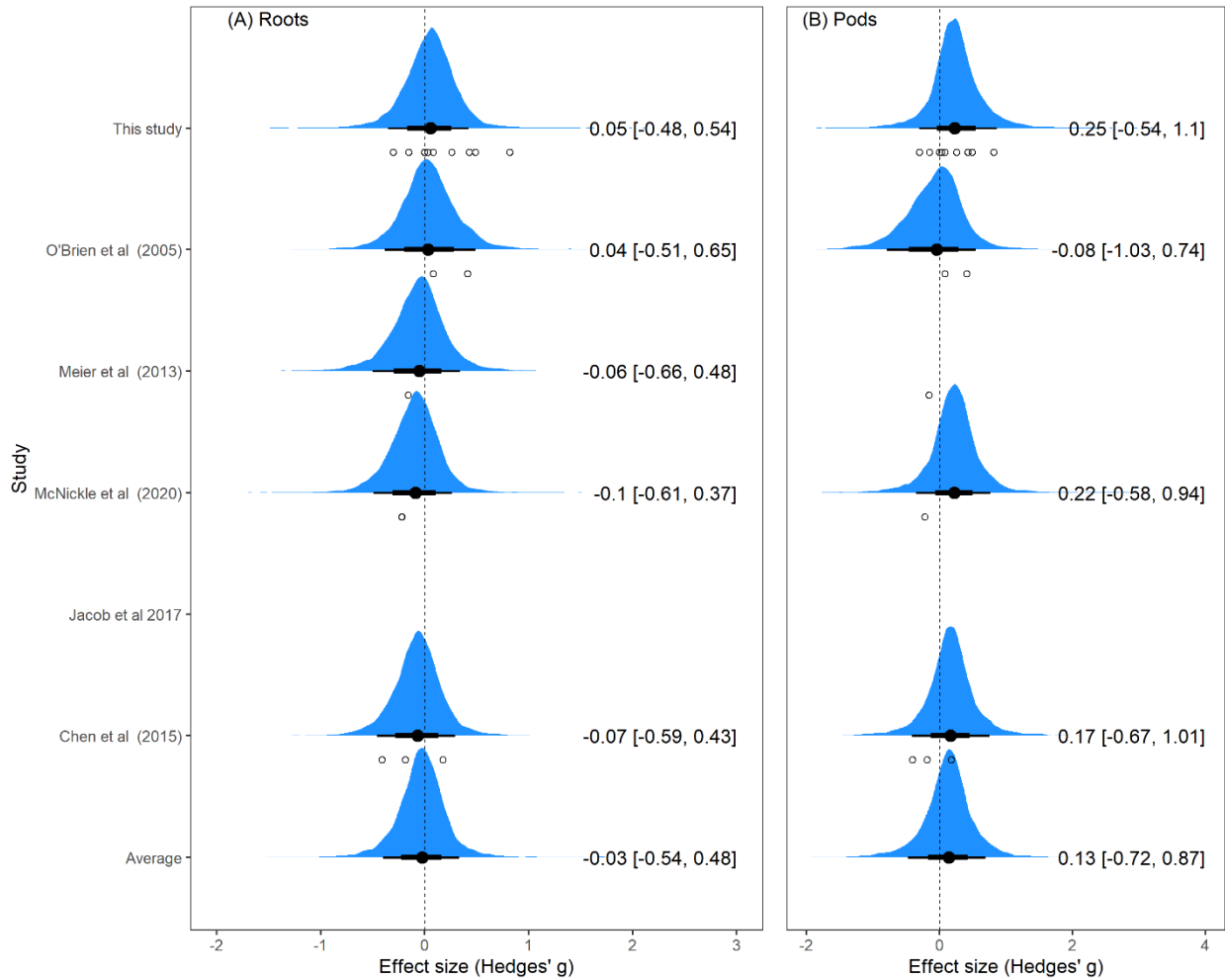
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489 **FIGURE 1:** Global relationship between effect size and pot volume. Points show the observed mean
490 effects of pot volume on log response ratio for (A) roots and (B) pods across all studies in the meta-
491 analysis and their standard deviations. Solid lines represent the Bayesian regression line, and grey
492 shading represents the 95% credible interval around the regression line. Cultivar, study and individual
493 experiment within study were treated as multi-level random effects, and the heterogeneity in results
494 introduced by these factors on the random intercept of these relationships are shown in Table 1.

495



496

497 **FIGURE 2:** Forest plots showing the posterior distribution of effect sizes (blue) for each study and the
498 average of all studies for (A) roots and (B) pods for each study individually (top six rows), and averaged
499 among all studies (bottom row). Black points and lines represent posterior means with 89% (thick) and
500 67% (thin) credible intervals. The posterior mean and its 95% credible interval are written to the right of
501 each distribution. White points are the observed prior effect sizes from each study. Note: since Jacob et
502 al. 2017 did not report any estimate of error, and Meier et al. (2013) did not report error for pod mass,
503 we cannot estimate a posterior distribution for those studies.