

# 1 **Increasing plant group productivity through latent genetic variation** 2 **for cooperation**

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## 30 **Abstract**

31 Technologies for crop breeding have become increasingly sophisticated, yet it  
32 remains unclear whether these advances are sufficient to meet future demands. A  
33 major challenge with current crop selection regimes is that they are often based on  
34 individual performance. This tends to select for plants with “selfish” traits, which  
35 leads to a yield loss when they compete in high-density stands. In traditional  
36 breeding, this well-known “tragedy of the commons” has been addressed by  
37 anticipating ideotypes with presumably preferential characteristics. However, this  
38 approach is limited to obvious architectural and physiological traits, and it depends  
39 on a mechanistic understanding of how these modulate growth and competition.  
40 Here, we developed a general and simple method for the discovery of alleles  
41 promoting cooperation of plants in stands; it is based on the game-theoretical  
42 premise that alleles increasing cooperation incur a cost to the individual but benefit  
43 the monoculture group. Testing the approach using the model plant *Arabidopsis*  
44 *thaliana*, we found a single major effect locus where the rarer allele was associated  
45 with increased levels of cooperation and superior monoculture productivity. We  
46 show that the allele likely affects a pleiotropic regulator of growth and defense, since  
47 it is also associated with reduced root competition but higher race-specific resistance  
48 against a specialized parasite. Even though cooperation is considered evolutionarily  
49 unstable, conflicting selective forces acting on a pleiotropic gene might thus maintain  
50 latent genetic variation for it in nature. Such variation, once identified in a crop,  
51 could be rapidly leveraged in modern breeding programs and provide efficient routes  
52 to increase yields.

## 53 **Main Text**

### 54 **Introduction**

55 Crop breeding is currently undergoing fundamental transformations. Speed  
56 breeding and genomic prediction can shorten generation times and increase effective  
57 population sizes, leveraging rates of phenotypic change to unprecedented levels (*1*,  
58 *2*). At the same time, large-scale, high-throughput phenotyping platforms have  
59 become available and allow for the simultaneous quantification of multiple traits in  
60 ever larger greenhouse and field trials (*3*). Yet, it remains unclear whether current  
61 rates of yield increase are sufficient to meet the increasing demands driven by human  
62 population growth, in particular in combination with the concomitant demand for  
63 more feed (*4, 5*).

64 Historically, the highest rates in yield increase were achieved in the middle of the  
65 20th century, at the beginning of the “Green Revolution”. Combining breeding with  
66 improved management, yield potentials of major crops, such as wheat and tropical  
67 rice, approximately doubled within only a few plant generations (*6, 7*). In retrospect,  
68 these gains in yield potential appear unusual in several respects. In contrast to most  
69 classical breeding that operates through selection on polygenic variation, they were  
70 largely realized by capitalizing on single genes, notably the introgression of discrete  
71 but pleiotropic dwarfing alleles with major effects on plant form and function (*8, 9*).  
72 This resulted in smaller and less bushy individuals, which diverted less resources to  
73 competition. In other words, breeding of these more “communal” genotypes allowed  
74 increasing crop yield per unit land area rather than per individual by exploiting a  
75 trade-off between individual fitness and group-level performance (*10–14*).

76 The importance of avoiding excessive allocation to competition, i.e. fostering a  
77 form of cooperation between plants, had been recognized by breeders and led to the  
78 anticipation of ideotypes with a suite of presumably desirable traits for a given  
79 environment, e.g. short stature, vertical leaf angles, and a compact root system for a  
80 high-density stand (*11, 12, 15*). However, a practical difficulty with ideotype  
81 breeding is that relevant variation in traits and growth strategies may remain  
82 enigmatic to the human observer. In addition, the nature of cooperation in plants, and  
83 how and under which environmental conditions it evolves, are currently not well

84 understood (16). Interestingly, animal breeding has focused to a much larger extent  
85 on cooperation and social strategies (17), not least because these are often based on  
86 behavioral traits and, thus, more easily recognized by the human observer.

87 Cooperation is not generally an evolutionary stable strategy in nature because  
88 individual-level selection will favor alleles that promote the allocation of resources to  
89 competition and increase the fitness of non-cooperators relative to cooperators.  
90 Therefore, it is expected that a population of cooperators can rapidly be invaded by  
91 non-cooperators (18), and that cooperation only evolves under special circumstances  
92 (16). In breeding, selection at the group level was proposed to address this problem  
93 (19, 20), but in practice such selection regimes are difficult to implement.

94 The research we present here is based on the premise that there likely remains  
95 untapped potential for yield increase through breeding for cooperation in plants (21).  
96 We therefore developed a practical framework within which the recent advances in  
97 technology – including genome-wide association studies (GWAS) and large-scale  
98 phenotyping – can effectively be harnessed to identify alleles and traits that promote  
99 cooperation. We further aimed for such a framework to be as general and unbiased as  
100 possible, in order to detect yield gains that emerge from any type of cooperation,  
101 including for resources unknown to and through specific strategies unrecognized by  
102 the experimenter. We thus designed competition experiments and analytical methods  
103 that allowed us to rank plant genotypes on a scale ranging from competitive and  
104 “selfish” to communal and “cooperative”. Finally, we applied these methods in a  
105 proof-of-concept experiment with a population of *A. thaliana* genotypes and  
106 produced a genetic map of a group vs. individual (G-I) performance trade-off to  
107 identify genomic regions associated with increased levels of cooperation.

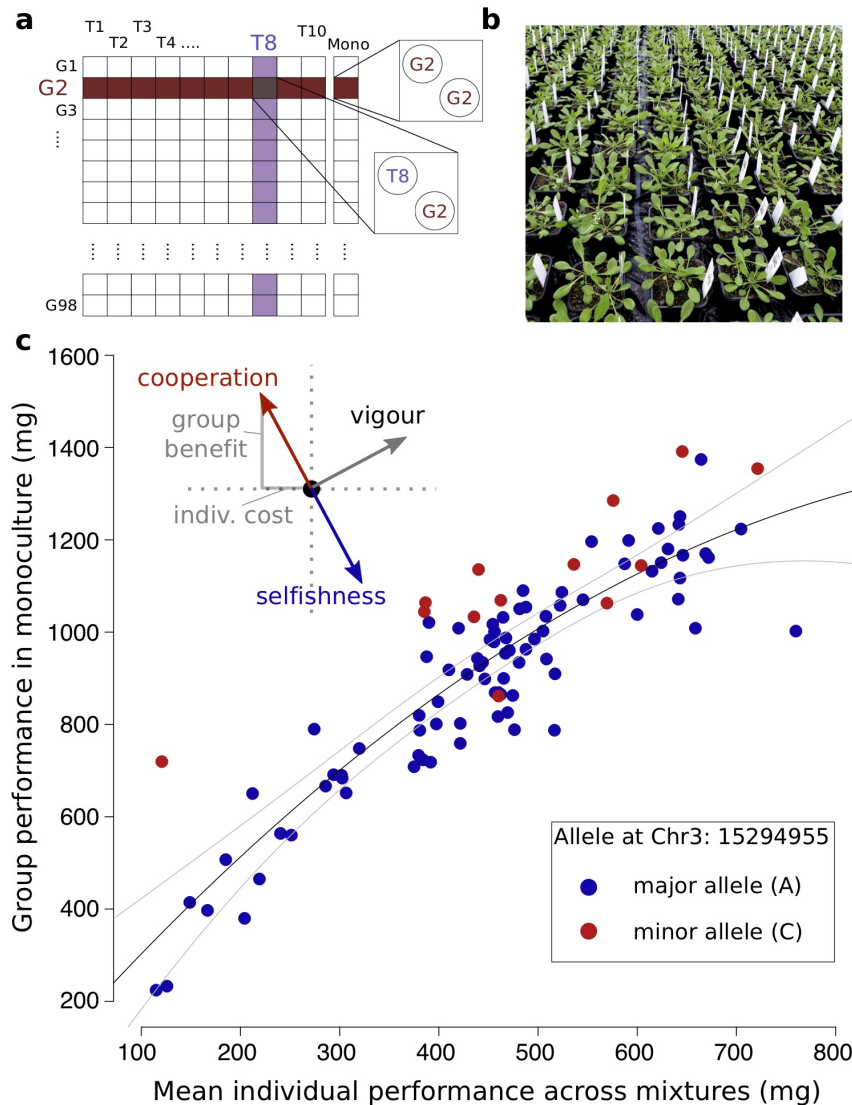
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## 109 **Results and Discussion**

110 We tested the potential of our method using an association panel of 98 natural *A.*  
111 *thaliana* accessions – a subset of the RegMap population (22). Aboveground dry  
112 matter production served as measure of performance. However, the approach we  
113 developed can in principle be applied to other species, in particular crops, and to  
114 other target characteristics such as agricultural yield. Each of the 98 focal genotypes  
115 was grown in a pot that contained two congenotypic individuals (monoculture), and

116 additionally as individuals in ten further pots with one individual from each of ten  
117 tester genotypes (Fig. 1a,b). These tester genotypes were a subset of the original  
118 population of genotypes chosen to span a wide range of competitive abilities (Fig.  
119 1a,b; Supplemental Fig. 1b). However, this is not a methodological requirement and  
120 tester genotypes that are not part of the original panel would have worked equally  
121 well. This design was replicated in two blocks. As expected, competitive interactions  
122 among individuals were strong, with large negative effects of average tester size  
123 (average across all pots) on the shoot biomass of the focal genotypes (ANOVA  $F_{1,960}$   
124 = 88.23;  $P < 0.001$ ). To evaluate a group vs. individual (G-I) performance trade-off  
125 of genotypes, we related the mean individual shoot biomass of the target genotypes'  
126 in monoculture (group performance) to its average biomass when grown in  
127 competition with a tester genotype (individual performance; Fig. 1c). Not  
128 surprisingly, across genotypes, group and individual performance were highly  
129 positively associated, with more vigorous genotypes producing more biomass both in  
130 monoculture groups and as individuals subject to competition with testers. This  
131 relationship was slightly non-linear (second degree polynomial  $F_{1,95}=8.4$ ,  $P=0.005$ ), a  
132 pattern that might originate from predictable ecological interactions (23) or  
133 increasing effects of space limitations with increasing plant sizes. Irrespective of the  
134 nature of this effect, we treated this overall relation as heuristic, and used the  
135 distance from this empirical relationship to locate each genotype on an orthogonal  
136 axis that quantified the G-I trade-off (Methods and Fig 1c). In other words, this  
137 procedure transformed the separate values for group performance in monoculture and  
138 mean individual performance in mixtures into two metrics: the position along the  
139 general relationship reflects general genotypic vigor (e.g. increased productivity due  
140 to better adaptation to the specific growth conditions); and the position perpendicular  
141 to the general relationship reflects a G-I trade-off value that characterizes the  
142 communal properties of the focal genotype (inset Fig 1c). For example, the G-I value  
143 is positive for more cooperative genotypes, which are expected to have relatively  
144 lower individual performances in mixtures (non-cooperative environment) and  
145 higher performance in monocultures (cooperative environment).

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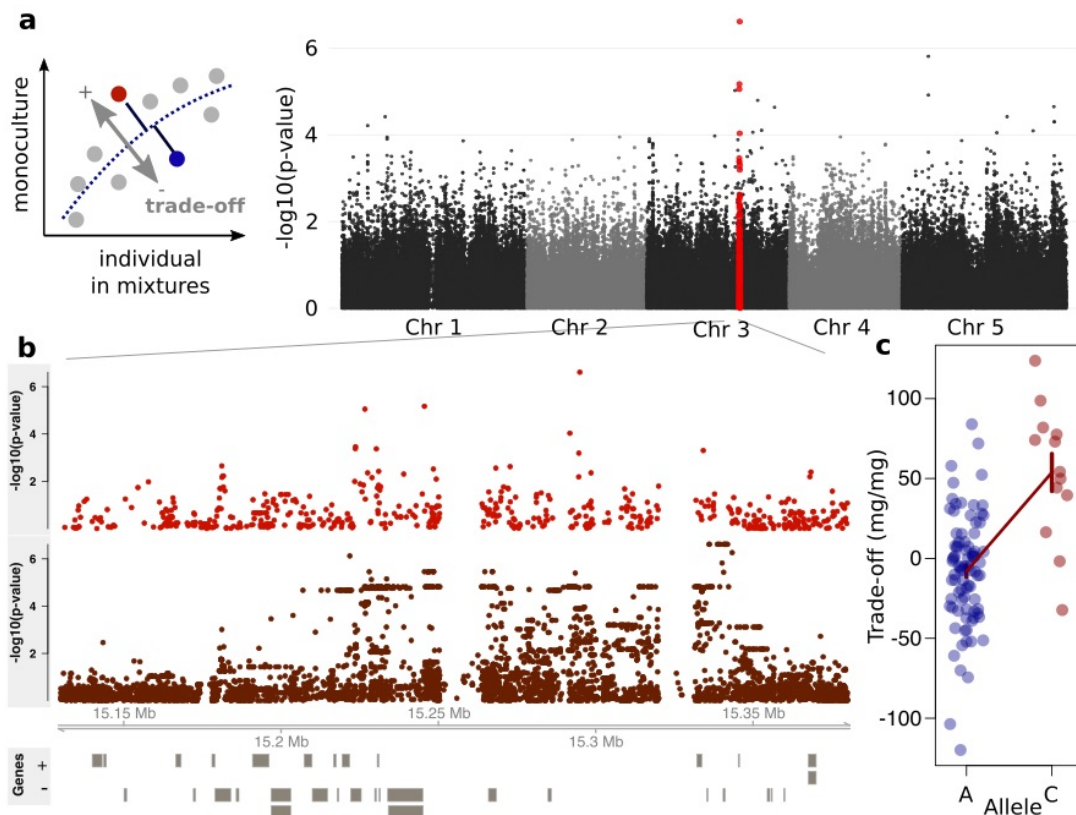
147 **Figure 1: A general framework for the genetic dissection of the G-I trade-off. a.**  
 148 Experimental design of the competition experiment. G1, G2, ... G98: focal genotypes 1-98;  
 149 natural *A. thaliana* accessions sampled from the RegMap panel. T1, T2, ... T10: one of ten  
 150 tester genotypes, chosen to represent different plant sizes to capture a large portion of the  
 151 genetic variation present within *A. thaliana*. **b.** Experimental setup **c.** Relationship between a  
 152 genotype's mean performance as an individual across all mixtures with tester genotypes and  
 153 its group performance in monoculture. The inset outlines three genetic effects a hypothetical  
 154 allele could have on a genotype's strategy. Red and blue dots show genotypes carrying  
 155 different alleles at position 15'294'955 on chromosome 3 (see below).

156

157 Next we performed genome-wide association tests for the genotypic G-I trade-off  
 158 value. Genome-wide polymorphism data of our population were available through



159 the RegMap panel (22) and single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) information was  
160 available for 214,000 sites. The G-I trade-off value was significantly associated with  
161 a major effect locus on chromosome three (Fig. 2a,b). The rarer allele was found in  
162 18% of the RegMap population and was associated with lower individual/higher  
163 group performance, i.e. with increased cooperation (Fig. 1c). The SNP with the  
164 strongest association resides in the center of a transposon-rich region and explained  
165 approximately 25% of the variation in the genotypic G-I trade-off values (Fig. 2c).  
166 Direct mapping of untransformed data, i.e. of variation in either individual or  
167 monoculture group biomass alone, did not reveal any significant associations  
168 (Supplemental Fig. 2a,b) because this fails to separate general vigor from the trade-  
169 off value that measures group suitability. A more detailed genomic analysis based on  
170 a subset of 68 genotypes and genome-wide re-sequencing data (24) revealed  
171 association signals across many polymorphisms in a region of approximately 150 kb  
172 around the identified RegMap SNP, all in high linkage disequilibrium (LD) (Fig. 2b).



173 **Figure 2: Allelic variation at a major effect locus affects the G-I trade-off in *A.***  
174 ***thaliana*.** **a.** Manhattan plots of genome-wide association tests for variation in the G-I trade-  
175 off, based on the 250k SNP chip data. The genotypic G-I trade-off value is the distance from

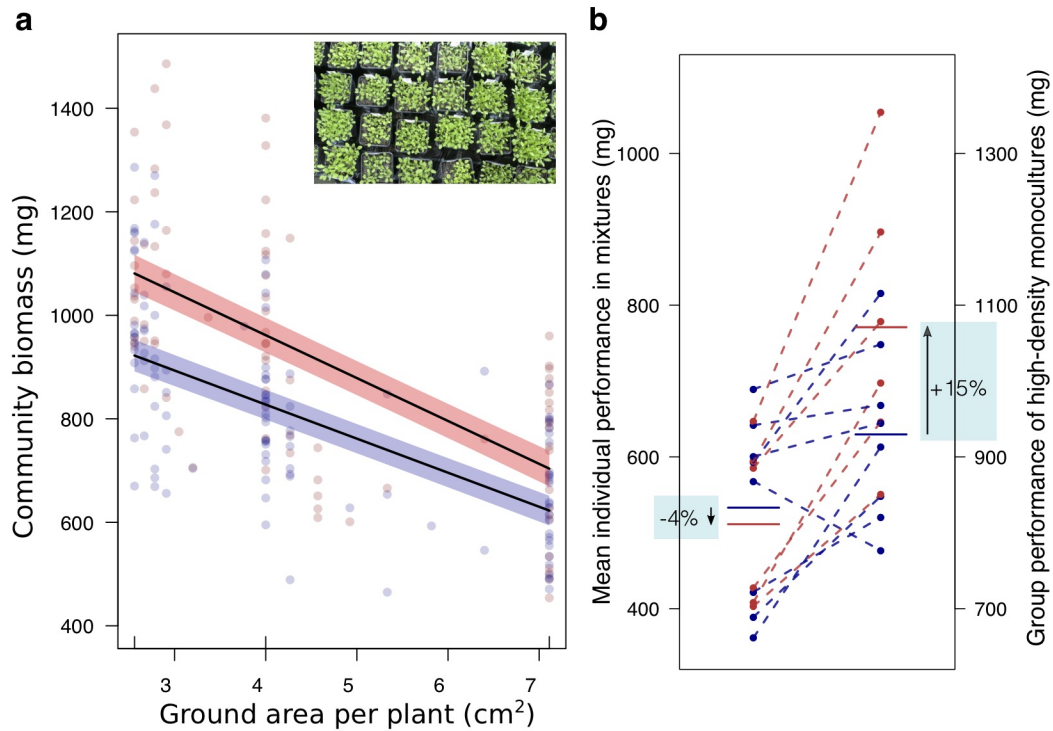
176 the overall trend between group and individual performance in monoculture and mixtures,  
177 respectively (inset). **b.** Zoom in on a segment of chromosome 3, showing Manhattan plots of  
178 either an association analysis using SNP chip polymorphisms (top), or, for a subset of 68  
179 genotypes, genome-wide re-sequencing polymorphisms (bottom). Models of protein-coding  
180 genes are drawn as boxes below, on either + (upper) or – (lower) strand. **c.** Association of  
181 variation at SNP 15'294'955 and the G-I trade-off. Error bars denote means  $\pm$  s.e.m.

182

183 High LD impedes the identification of the causal genetic variant(s) but might  
184 become relevant to test evolutionary hypotheses about selective pressures affecting  
185 genetic variation at this locus. However, since we were primarily interested in the  
186 usefulness of our molecular-ecological framework for predicting plant group  
187 properties, we next tested the hypothesis that the benefit of cooperation increases  
188 with increasing inter-individual competition, e.g. along a planting density gradient  
189 (14, 25). For this, we performed a stratified sampling of genotypes differing in size  
190 and carrying different alleles at the identified locus. We then assessed the  
191 productivity of these genotypes in monocultures sown at different individual  
192 densities. Despite slightly lower individual performances across mixtures in the  
193 competition experiment, genotypes carrying the cooperation-associated allele  
194 exhibited superior productivity (+15% biomass at the highest sown density, average  
195 across all genotypes; Figure 3a,b; ANOVA  $F_{1,10,6}=7.5$ ,  $P=0.02$ ). As anticipated, they  
196 also showed a lower degree of self-inhibition along the density gradient, i.e. gains  
197 were more pronounced at higher but less pronounced at lower densities (Figure 3a;  
198 ANOVA  $F_{1,14,9} = 7.0$ ,  $P = 0.019$  for allele  $\times$  ground area per individual). These results  
199 demonstrate that the molecular framework presented here is able to predict group-  
200 level features that cannot be deduced from individual-level properties, and that these  
201 allow improving monoculture stand productivity.

202



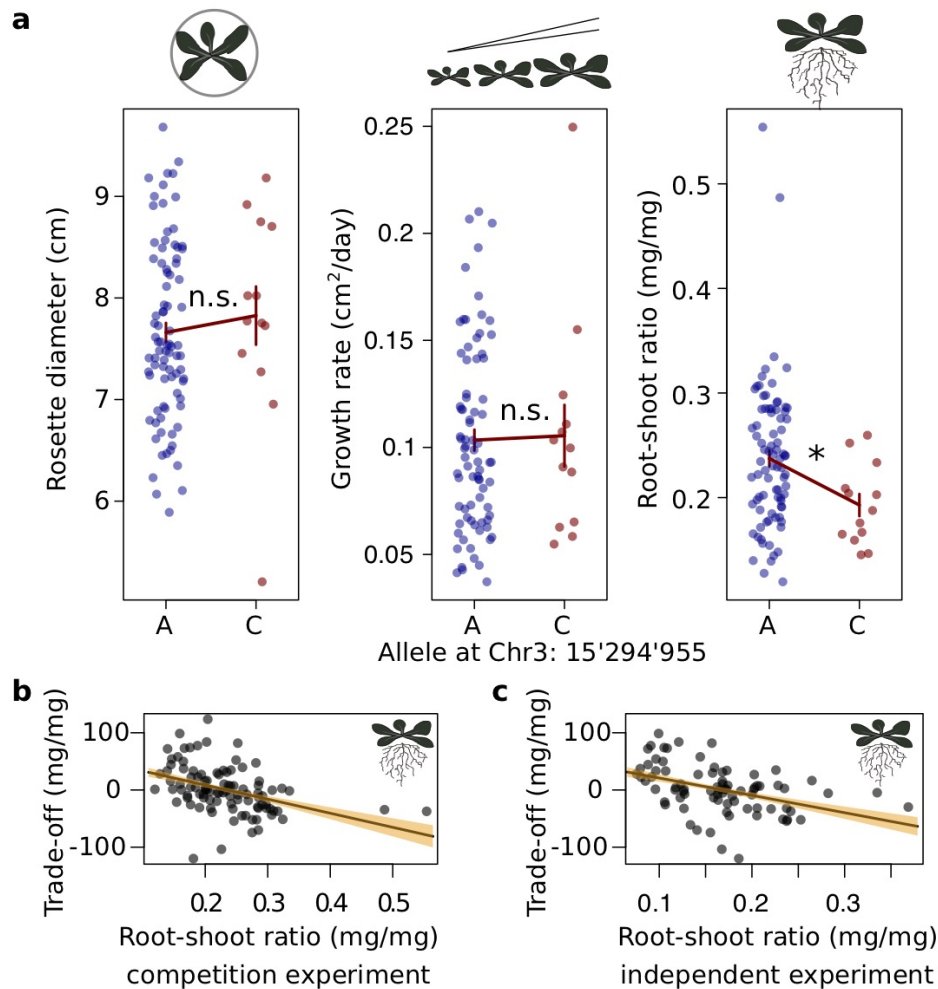


204 **Figure 3: Genotypes carrying the cooperator-associated allele exhibit superior**  
205 **monoculture performances in high-density groups.** **a.** Monoculture biomass changes of  
206 genotypes carrying either the cooperation-associated allele (red) or the alternative allele  
207 (blue) across a realized planting density gradient. Lines show linear regression estimates  $\pm$   
208 s.e.m. Upward x-axis ticks show per plant areas at the sown target densities. **b.** Comparison  
209 of genotype's mean individual shoot biomass in mixtures versus monoculture biomass at  
210 densities of 25 plants per pot. Horizontal lines: mean values across all genotypes carrying  
211 either allele. Red and blue: cooperation-associated and alternative allele at SNP Chr 3  
212 15'294'955. Note the different scales of the left and the right y-axes.

213

214 To study different functional traits that may have enhanced cooperation in our  
215 experiments, we quantified two traits that characterize growth and competitive  
216 strategies of genotypes in our experiment. We chose rosette diameter as indicator of  
217 investment into aboveground competition, and monoculture root-to-shoot ratio as  
218 indicator of relative investment into root competition (Methods). On top of that, we  
219 further included two publicly available phenotypic traits into our analysis (26),  
220 namely flowering time in the field and vegetative growth rate. Genotypes that carried  
221 the cooperation-associated allele did not differ from the other genotypes in rosette

222 diameter, flowering time in the field, or vegetative growth rate (Fig. 4a;  
223 Supplemental Fig. 3), but they showed significantly lower root-to-shoot ratios  
224 (ANOVA  $F_{1,95}=5.13$ ,  $P=0.026$ ). Also, the measured G-I trade-off value was not  
225 statistically significantly associated with rosette diameter, flowering time in the field,  
226 or vegetative growth rate (not shown), but exhibited a statistically significant  
227 negative relationship with root-to-shoot ratio (ANOVA  $F_{1,95}=18.4$ ,  $P<0.001$ ; Fig. 4a).  
228 We confirmed this pattern of higher root mass fraction in less cooperative genotypes  
229 in a separate, independent experiment for trait measurements, in both monocultures  
230 and isolated individual plants and on a different soil type (Fig. 4c, and  
231 Supplementary Fig. 3). Overall, our analyses therefore indicate that altered root  
232 allocation is part of a genetically fixed strategy associated with enhanced  
233 cooperation. Model analyses and field experiments in two of the globally most  
234 important crops, soybean and wheat, are in line with our findings: despite a long  
235 breeding history, soybean and wheat plants divert amounts of resources to root (and  
236 shoot) competition that are detrimental to agricultural yield. In soybean, a G-I trade-  
237 off was observed in both an elegant experimental manipulation of belowground  
238 competition (27) and a field-scale experimental reduction of leaf area (28), both of  
239 which affected yield. For wheat, the analysis of breeding records indicates that yield  
240 improvements of the past decades were associated with reduced root allocation (25,  
241 29, 30) suggesting that a reduction in belowground competition resulted from  
242 inadvertent selection for higher yields over the last decades.  
243

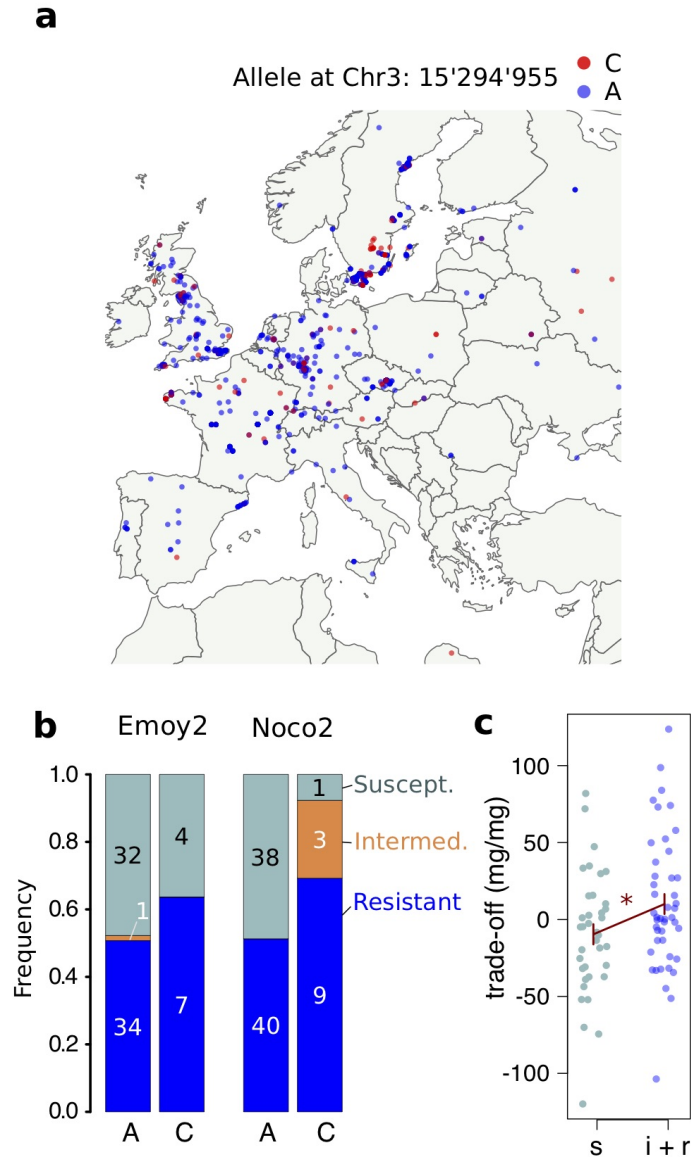


245 **Figure 4: Altered allocation to roots but not growth or life history is associated**  
246 **with increased levels of cooperation.** **a** Association of allelic variation at SNP  
247 Chr3:15'294'955 with variation in traits related to different plant strategies. **b. and c.**  
248 Relationship between the individual-vs-group performance trade-off and plant root-to-shoot  
249 ratio in monocultures of the competition experiment (**b**) or monocultures of an independent  
250 experiment (**c**; Methods and Suppl. Fig. S3). Bars and regression lines show means  $\pm$  s.e.m. \*  
251 ANOVA  $P < 0.05$ ; n.s.: not significant.

252

253 Evolutionary theory predicts that an allele which promotes cooperation will be  
254 selected against in a natural population, except under special circumstances (18). We  
255 were thus surprised that the cooperation-associated allele we identified is found over  
256 a wide geographic range and at a rather remarkably high frequency (Fig. 5a). Since  
257 genes often have multiple functions, we reasoned that conflicting selective forces  
258 acting on such pleiotropic genes (or genes in tight linkage) might underlie the

259 persistence of alleles underlying cooperation in natural populations (31). Examining  
260 genes in the identified genomic region, we found *AtMIN7*, a documented regulator of  
261 both growth and defense. The *AtMIN7* protein targets pathogen effectors that  
262 suppress the plant immune response (32); furthermore, mutants are affected in auxin  
263 transport pathways (33) and growth (34). Importantly, variation at the *AtMIN7* gene  
264 has been associated with race-specific resistance against *Hyaloperonospora*  
265 *arabidopsidis*, an obligate pathogen of *A. thaliana* (35). Plants homozygous for the  
266 loss-of-function allele *min7-2* exhibited a more compact morphology with a lower  
267 root-to-shoot ratio than co-segregants (Supplemental Fig. 4a); however, these  
268 mutants were much less productive and did not exhibit significant differences in self-  
269 inhibition along the plant density gradient described above (Supplemental Fig. 4b).  
270 Therefore, it appears unlikely that the natural accessions we tested exhibit a  
271 substantial reduction of *AtMIN7* function. However, analyzing published data on *A.*  
272 *thaliana* resistance against *H. arabidopsidis* (35), we detected a statistically  
273 significant relation of the cooperation-associated allele with partial or full resistance  
274 against strain Noco2 (Figure 5b, Fisher's exact test;  $P < 0.001$ ). Additionally, the  
275 resistance level against Noco2 explained significant amounts of variation in the G-I  
276 trade-off value of our genotypes (ANOVA  $F_{2,79}=3.57$ ,  $p=0.03$ , Figure 5c). Therefore,  
277 we refer to this naturally occurring genetic variation as latent variation for  
278 cooperation, since contributions to pathogen resistance rather than cooperation might  
279 have maintained the minor allele in the population.  
280



281 **Figure 5: The cooperation-associated allele exhibits a wide geographic distribution**  
 282 **and is correlated with increased race-specific pathogen resistance.** **a.** Occurrence of  
 283 natural *A. thaliana* accessions carrying the cooperation-associated allele (red) or the  
 284 alternative allele (blue) across sampling sites in Europe. **b.** Association of Chr 3 SNP  
 285 15'294'955 with resistance against two strains of *H. arabidopsidis*, Emoy2 and Noco2,  
 286 based on published data (34). Numbers indicate genotype counts. **c.** Association of Noco2  
 287 resistance levels with the G-I trade-off. s = susceptible, i+r = intermediately and fully  
 288 resistant.

289

290 Yield advances attained through traditional breeding are currently slowing (4, 7),  
 291 shifting hopes to novel approaches that might help avert future crop shortages. In the

292 long term, biotechnological improvements of basic cellular functions including  
293 photosynthesis might pave the way to large productivity gains (36), but it is still  
294 unclear when and how such endeavors will materialize in improved yields of major  
295 crops (but see (37, 38)). Others have proposed to re-evaluate whether breeding  
296 strategies of the Green Revolution, in particular the exploitation of G-I trade-offs,  
297 could be adopted for crops other than the graminoids wheat, rice, and barley, which  
298 so far have received most attention (21, 23, 39). There may also be less evident  
299 trade-offs that have not found their way into common ideotypes. The framework we  
300 developed here appears particularly well suited to support this goal. It is general and  
301 simple and integrates genome-wide association and trait-based approaches. It could  
302 be used in combination with genomic prediction on breeding populations, or  
303 alternatively to identify highly cooperative genotypes that can be used in pre-  
304 breeding. As a particular advantage, our method is unbiased by mechanistic  
305 expectations. In our model study, it led to the discovery of a cooperation-associated  
306 allele that had substantial consequences on productivity in monoculture groups. It is  
307 thus conceivable that a larger-scale systematic search will reveal alleles with  
308 comparable effects in crops. Once identified, such latent variation in cooperation  
309 could rapidly be co-opted in marker-assisted breeding programs. At a more  
310 fundamental level, the finding that large-effect genetic variants for cooperation are  
311 maintained in a natural population leads to the intriguing thought that social traits can  
312 arise as evolutionary exaptations, i.e. by co-option of an existing trait unrelated to  
313 cooperation (40).

314

## 315 **Materials and Methods**

### 316 Plant material

317 The natural *A. thaliana* accessions used (Supplementary Dataset S1) are a subset  
318 of the RegMap population(22) for which a comprehensive list of traits has been  
319 collected (26). The *AtMIN7* loss-of-function allele was represented by the T-DNA  
320 insertion present in line SALK\_013761 (i.e. the *min7-2* allele, obtained from the  
321 Nottingham Arabidopsis Stock Center; N513761). In this line, the wild type allele  
322 was confirmed by PCR using primers *min7-2* LP = 5'-  
323 TGGAAAGTGAAATTGGTGAGC-3' and *min7-2* RP = 5'-  
324 CAAGGATTCTTCTCTGCATGG-3', and the mutant allele using primer *min7-2* LP  
325 and SALK\_LB = 5'-CTTTGACGTTGGAGTCCAC-3'. A co-segregant line  
326 confirmed to be homozygous for the wild-type allele was used in comparison with  
327 the *min7-2* loss-of-function mutant.

328

### 329 Experimental Design

330 Competition experiment: Pairs of individual plants were grown in small pots in a  
331 factorial design in which the 97 genotypes of the panel were each grown together  
332 with one of ten tester genotypes, the latter of which were a subset of the panel. Each  
333 genotype was further grown in a monoculture of two individuals. Each genotype  
334 composition was replicated twice, in separate blocks. In the second block, however,  
335 insufficient seeds for one line (LP-2-6) were available, and this accession was  
336 replaced in the second block by Kn-0, effectively resulting in 98 genotypes grown  
337 across the ten tester accessions. This resulted in 2134 pots containing two plants  
338 each. Each tester line was also grown as individual plant, once per block. Pots  
339 containing single plants (including pots in which one plant died at the seedling stage)  
340 were, however, removed from subsequent analyses.

341 Density gradient: In order to test for decreased self-inhibition of genotypes along  
342 a plant density gradient, six genotypes (Bor-4, Est-1, Mt-0, Ra-0, Sav-0, Wa-1) that  
343 varied in their average individual performances across mixtures, but carried all the  
344 cooperation-associated allele, were paired with seven genotypes (An-1, Br-0, Can-0,  
345 Kondara, Nfa-10, Shahdara, St-0) of similar average individual performances but  
346 carrying the alternative allele. In addition, the co-segregant (Col-0 background) wild-



347 type and the *min7-2* loss-of-function lines were used. This genotype selection  
348 controlled for size-dependency of the self-inhibition effect, i.e. enabled a meaningful  
349 comparison of larger (e.g. co-segregant) and smaller (e.g. *min7-2*) genotypes.

350

### 351 Plants and growth conditions

352 Competition experiment: Seeds of all accessions were sown directly onto soil  
353 (four parts Einheitserde ED73, Gebrüder Patzer, Germany; one part quartz sand) in  
354 February 2016. Pots of a given block were randomly placed into trays covered with  
355 plastic lids for germination. In order to ensure the growth of two plants per pot,  
356 multiple seeds were sown (approx. 5-20 seeds) per position in a pot, and the two  
357 genotypes (and all monocultures) were sown at a distance of approximately 3-4 cm  
358 apart. Once seeds had germinated, surplus seedlings were removed, such that only  
359 one (two for monocultures) healthy seedling remained per genotype per pot. Block 1  
360 was sown on February 17<sup>th</sup> and block 2 on February 18<sup>th</sup> 2016, and pots were placed  
361 in trays in a greenhouse compartment. Additional light was provided if necessary,  
362 achieving a photoperiod of 14 hours. Day-time and night-time temperatures were  
363 maintained around 20–25 °C and 16–20 °C, respectively. Seedlings were thinned  
364 continuously until a single, healthy seedling remained per position. Trays were  
365 randomly re-arranged within the greenhouse every 3-5 days. After 5-5.5 weeks, pots  
366 were transferred from trays onto three tables with automated watering and randomly  
367 re-arranged every week. Flowering shoots of individual plants were tied to wooden  
368 sticks as they grew taller than approx. 10 cm. All plants were harvested on April 14<sup>th</sup>  
369 (Block 1) and April 15<sup>th</sup> (Block 2) 2016, i.e. approx. eight weeks after sowing. Each  
370 plant was cut below the rosette and individually dried at 65°C for 4-5 days and then  
371 stored at room temperature until weighing. Roots from a pot were isolated by  
372 thoroughly rinsing off the soil through a metal sieve, and total root mass determined  
373 after drying at 65°C for four days. Flowering time during the experiment was  
374 determined every 2–3 days by scoring all individuals that had a flowering bolt of  
375 >0.5 cm.

376 Density gradient: Monocultures were sown in pots of 9×9×10 cm (inner pot  
377 diameter ~ 8×8 cm) at densities of either 9, 16 or 25 plants per pot, on the same soil  
378 and under the same conditions as used above and for 54 days. Because some seedling

379 mortality was observed early in the experiment, realized planting density was re-  
380 evaluated using photographs taken 27 days after sowing, i.e. at a time where only  
381 limited competition was apparent. Above-ground biomass was then harvested, dried,  
382 and weighed as described.

383 Independent biomass allocation measurements: For an independent assessment of  
384 root-to-shoot biomass ratios in the studied natural accessions, 80 genotypes that were  
385 used in the main competition experiment were grown for 43 days either as single  
386 plants or as monoculture (consisting of four plants per pot) and in pots of 7×7×8cm  
387 size on a mixture of one part ED73 and four parts quartz sand. The measurements  
388 were performed as described above. Measurements of root-to-shoot ratios of *AtMIN7*  
389 co-segregants and *min7-2* loss-of-function mutants were performed independently,  
390 under the same conditions and at 50 days after sowing.

391

#### 392 Statistical analyses

393 All statistical analyses were performed using the statistical software R version  
394 3.4.1 (41). Average individual performance of genotypes across mixtures or  
395 monocultures were estimated using least square means from a model including just  
396 block and genotype. Monoculture biomass per individual (i.e. total average  
397 monoculture biomass divided by two) was then fitted as function of linear and  
398 quadratic forms of individual biomass, using the R-function `lm`. The G-I trade-off  
399 value was determined as orthogonal distance by determining the point in the  
400 quadratic heuristic that was closest to the respective point by non-linear minimization  
401 using the R-function `nlm`. The GWAS analyses were performed with easyGWAS  
402 (<https://easygwas.ethz.ch>) (42), using the EMMAX algorithm (43) and using SNPs  
403 from the 250k SNP chip (<http://bergelson.uchicago.edu/>) or the 1001 genomes  
404 project (<http://1001genomes.org/>). SNPs with a minor allele frequency below 5%  
405 were removed. For the density gradient experiment, productivity was modelled in  
406 dependence of the fixed terms `area_per_individual`, `allele`, plus their interaction. The  
407 corresponding random terms were `accession`, and the interaction between `accession`  
408 and `area_per_individual`. The realized densities deviated from sown densities  
409 because of a relatively high initial mortality. Therefore, we instead used densities  
410 determined from photographs of each pot that were made mid-way through the

411 experiment. Two pots were removed from the analysis because realized densities  
412 were much higher than planted densities, probably because they accidentally had not  
413 been thinned to the intended densities.

414

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416

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428

#### 429 **Author contributions:**

430

431 SEW, NDP and PAN designed the research, SEW performed the experiments  
432 with help from NDP and SL. SEW and PAN performed the analyses and wrote the  
433 manuscript with input from JM, FV, and UG. NDP, JM, FV, and UG also  
434 contributed technical resources and data. All authors revised and approved the final  
435 version of the manuscript.

436

#### 437 **Data availability**

438 The datasets described and a basic analysis script are available through the  
439 Zenodo data repository (DOI:10.5281/zenodo.2659735). More extensive analysis  
440 scripts are available from the authors upon request.

441

#### 442 **Competing interests**

443 The authors declare no competing financial interests.

444

445 **References**

446

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544



545 **Supplemental Material**

546

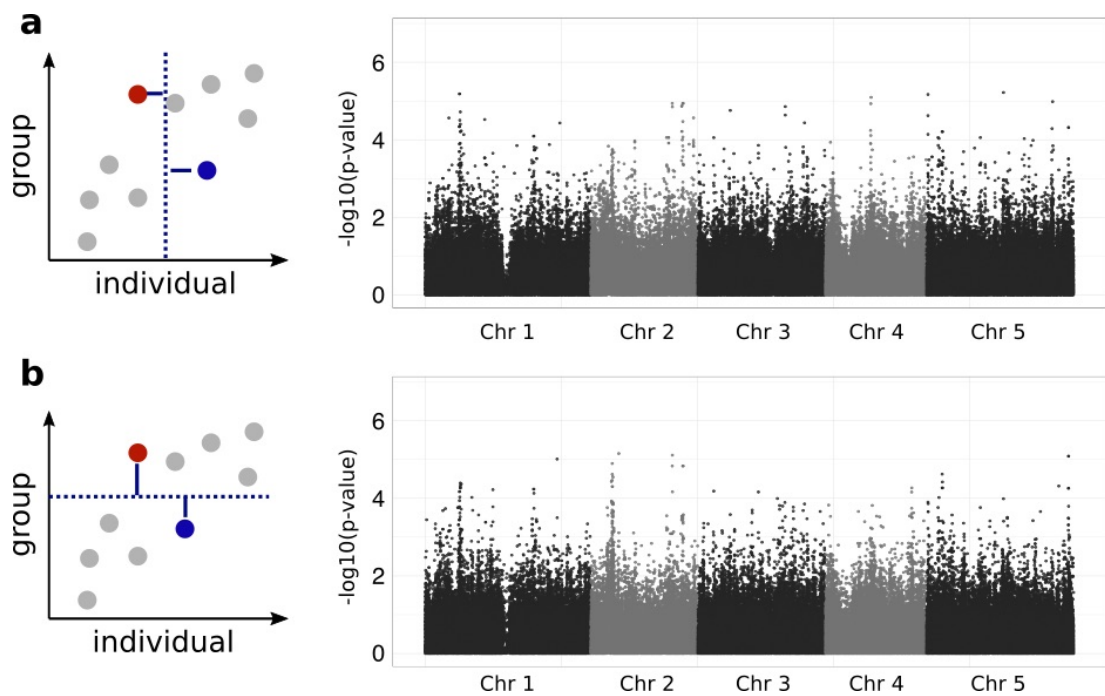


548 **Supplemental Figure S1: Experimental setup of the competition experiment.**

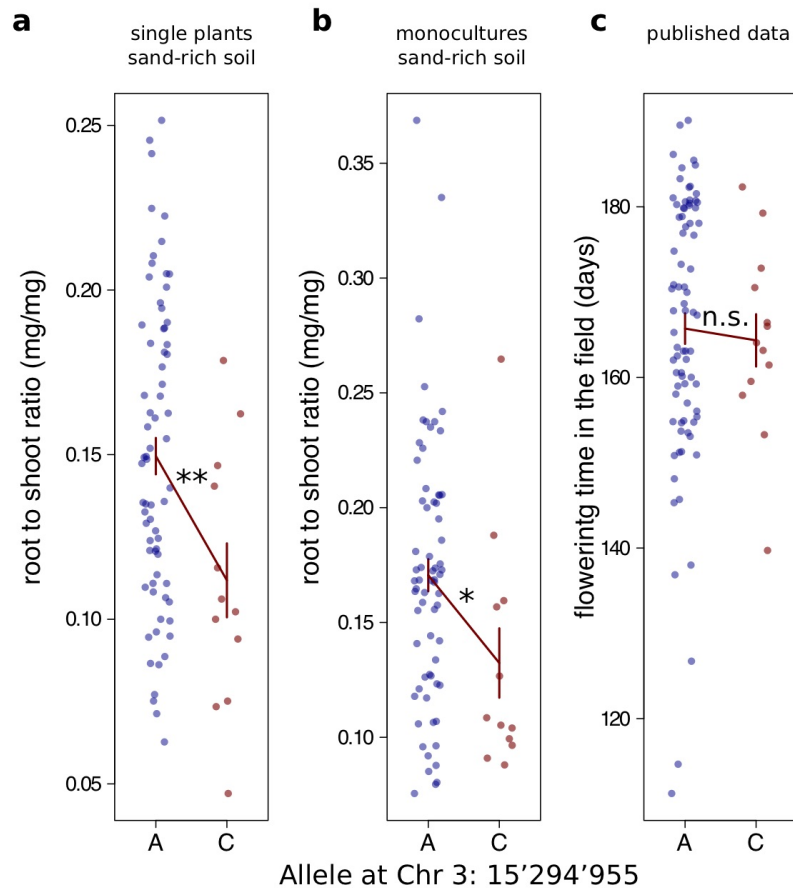
549 **a. - c.** Photos show the experiment at sowing (a), midway through the experiment (b)  
550 and at harvest day (c).

551

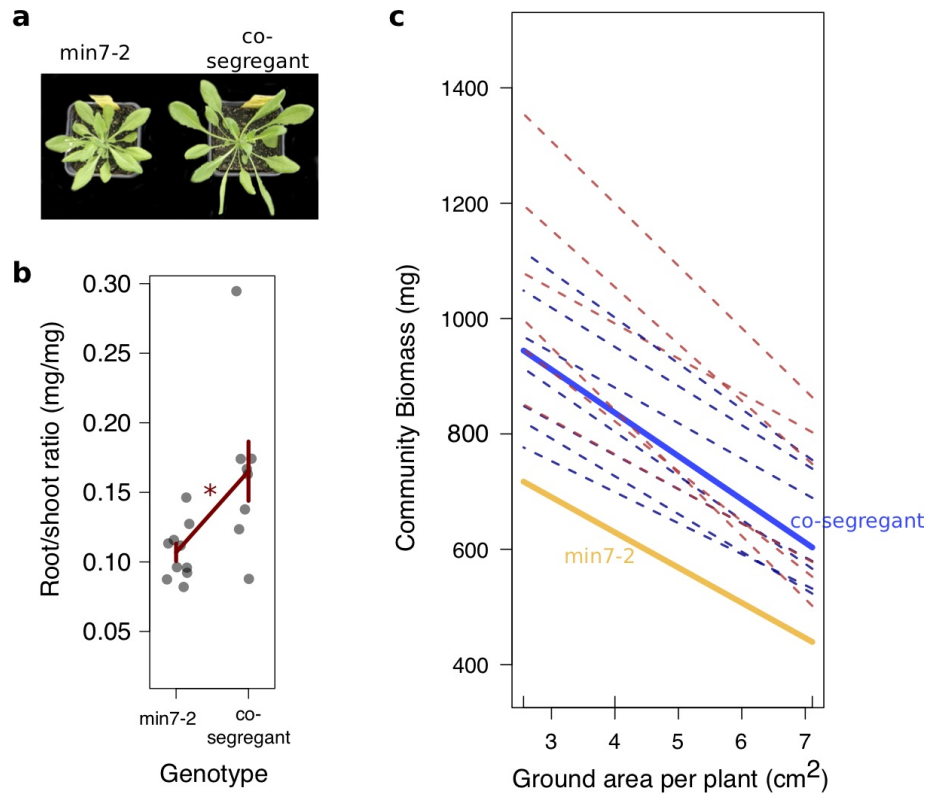
552



553 **Supplemental Figure S2. Association tests for variation in average individual**  
554 **performance across mixtures (a) or average monoculture performance (b).**



556 **Supplemental Figure S3. Associations of SNP Chr3:15'294'955 with**  
557 **phenotypic variation in traits related to plant strategies. a. and b.** Shoot-to-root  
558 ratios for genotypes grown in monocultures (a) or as individual plants (b) in an  
559 independent experiment and on sand-rich soil are shown, as well as published data of  
560 genotypic means in flowering time in the field (26) (c). Bars show mean  $\pm$  s.e. \*\* =  
561 ANOVA  $p < 0.01$ ; \* = ANOVA  $p < 0.05$ ; n.s. not significant.  
562



564 **Supplemental Figure S4: Altered growth and root-allocation in *min7-2***  
565 **mutant plants, but no difference in self-inhibition along a planting density**  
566 **gradient. a. and b. Differences in rosette habit (a) and shoot-to-root ratio (b) in**  
567 ***min7-2* homozygous and wild-type co-segregant lines. \* = ANOVA P-value < 0.05 c.**  
568 **Decrease of self-inhibition of different genotypes along a planting density gradient.**  
569 **Red/blue dashed lines represent reaction norms or genotypes carrying different**  
570 **alleles at Chr 3 SNP 15'294'955, the yellow solid line represents the reaction norm**  
571 **of the *min7-2* loss-of-function mutant, and the blue solid line the reaction norm of the**  
572 **co-segregant (Col-0 background) genotype.**

573

574

575 **Supplemental Dataset S1: List of *A. thaliana* accessions used in the study, their**  
576 **estimated productivities across mixtures and monocultures, and measured trait**  
577 **values.**