

1 **Title:** Plant functional groups and root traits are linked to exudation rates of mature temperate trees.

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14 allocation, rhizosphere carbon flux

15 **Abstract.**

16 While root exudation has the potential to affect soil biogeochemistry profoundly, the process is  
17 rarely quantified in mature, field-grown trees. We measured rates of carbon (C) exudation in 11  
18 trees species that exhibit divergent root traits, including gymnosperms and angiosperms that  
19 associate with either arbuscular mycorrhizal (AM) or ectomycorrhizal (EcM) fungi. Our goal was  
20 to explore how tree species, plant functional groups and root traits collectively influence exudation  
21 patterns. Intraspecific variation in exudation rates was larger than interspecific variation, and  
22 neither functional groups nor morphological traits alone could sufficiently explain variation in this  
23 flux. EcM-associated gymnosperms exuded 2.4 times more C than EcM angiosperms and 1.5 times  
24 more than AM gymnosperms. Exudation rates correlated positively with specific root length (SRL)  
25 and specific root area (SRA), and were correlated with root tissue density and root diameter in  
26 EcM-associated species. Mixed-effect models revealed that exudation rates were best determined  
27 by a combination of phylogenetic group, tree-mycorrhizal type and SRA, though a large portion  
28 of unexplained variation suggests that contemporary environmental and local edaphic conditions  
29 are likely important. Collectively, our results reveal that exudation is a complex physiological  
30 process governed by multiple factors and cannot be fully explained by functional groups or root  
31 traits alone. Instead, a combined consideration of these factors and new experimental approaches  
32 may be needed before exudation patterns can be linked to plant trait frameworks and incorporated  
33 into large-scale models.

35 **Introduction**

36

37 Global environmental changes are altering plant community composition, with poorly understood  
38 impacts on belowground processes and biogeochemical cycling (Fei et al., 2017; Jo et al., 2019).  
39 Root carbon (C) exudation is a physiological process that links aboveground-belowground  
40 interactions (Bardgett, 2014; McCormack et al., 2017; Weemstra et al., 2022; Wen et al., 2022)  
41 and, in many cases, mediates ecosystem responses to global change (Norby et al., 2024; Phillips  
42 et al., 2011). Root exudates represent 5–20% of photosynthetically-fixed C (Chari et al., 2024),  
43 and much of this C fuels rhizosphere microbes that, in turn, determine soil organic matter dynamics  
44 (Chari & Taylor, 2022) and nutrient availability (Brzostek et al., 2014; Finzi et al., 2015; Meier et  
45 al., 2017; Yin et al., 2014). In this way, exudation rates affect ecosystem C balance through their  
46 effects on both nutrient uptake/primary production and microbial decomposition. Given this role,  
47 a deeper understanding of factors that mediate exudate fluxes should enhance our understanding  
48 of the ecosystem effects of plant community change (Freschet et al., 2021; Jo et al., 2019;  
49 McCormack et al., 2017).

50

51 Root traits impact many ecosystem processes (Bardgett, 2014), yet there is little consensus about  
52 which traits, if any, align with exudation rates. Exudation rates have been reported to be associated  
53 positively with both specific root length (SRL; Meier et al., 2020; Tückmantel et al., 2017; Wang  
54 et al., 2021) and negatively with root tissue density (RTD; Sun et al., 2017, 2021) - traits that  
55 capture different dimensions of root economic space (RES; Bergmann et al., 2020; McCormack &  
56 Iversen, 2019; Weemstra et al., 2016; Weigelt et al., 2021). In the RES, RTD and root N represent  
57 a ‘conservation’ gradient (e.g., ‘fast’ vs. ‘slow’), whereby long-lived, tissue-dense roots (high RTD)  
58 slowly provision N to hosts relative to fast-growing acquisitive roots with low RTD and high root  
59 N (Bergmann et al., 2020; Weigelt et al., 2021). Orthogonal to this axis is the ‘collaboration’  
60 gradient (e.g., ‘outsourcing’ vs. ‘do-it-yourself’) defined by SRL and root diameter (Bergmann et  
61 al., 2020; McCormack & Iversen, 2019; Weemstra et al., 2016; Weigelt et al., 2021; Wen et al.,  
62 2022; Yaffar et al., 2022). Here, large diameter roots with low SRL are colonized by mycorrhizal  
63 fungi to a greater extent than thin, high SRL roots (Bergmann et al., 2020; Weigelt et al., 2021).  
64 However, links between exudation and both axes of the RES remain unclear, indicating that the  
65 relationship may depend on site factors (climate, soils and nutrient availability) and the traits of

66 the species under consideration. As such, investigations of multiple tree species (with divergent  
67 traits) growing in a common soil may help resolve this apparent paradox.

68

69 Tree species also exhibit varying degrees of plasticity in terms of their root traits (Weemstra &  
70 Valverde-Barrantes, 2022), which could influence exudation dynamics. Traits like SRL and  
71 branching intensity (BI) are associated with nutrient acquisition (Comas & Eissenstat, 2009), and  
72 tend to be more plastic than traits linked to structural stability and longevity, such as RTD and root  
73 diameter (Comas et al., 2012, 2014; Comas & Eissenstat, 2009; Sun et al., 2021). Whether  
74 exudation rates display greater intraspecific variation than morphological root traits remains  
75 unresolved (Sun et al., 2021), posing a key challenge for detecting the exudation-trait relationships.

76

77 Many root traits show a strong phylogenetic signal (Brundrett, 2002; Comas et al., 2012, 2014)  
78 suggesting that exudation rates may differ among tree species with divergent evolutionary histories  
79 (e.g., angiosperms vs. gymnosperms) and distinct mycorrhizal associations (e.g., arbuscular vs.  
80 ectomycorrhizal associations; AM vs. EcM). Moreover, if exudation patterns evolved as a means  
81 for dealing with nutrient limitations, links between tree species' evolutionary history, root traits  
82 and exudation might be expected. Early gymnosperms had thick, dense, long-lived roots that  
83 associated with 'ancestral' AM fungi (Brundrett, 2002; Comas et al., 2012). As greater water and  
84 nutrient limitations emerged and selected for gymnosperms with highly-branched roots colonized  
85 by fungi derived from saprotrophs (i.e., EcM fungi), high exudation rates may have represented  
86 an additional strategy for nutrient acquisition (Brundrett, 2002; Read & Perez-Moreno, 2003).  
87 When angiosperms arose in the early Cretaceous, some species evolved thin diameter, highly  
88 proliferative roots (Brundrett, 2002; Comas et al., 2012; Guo et al., 2008) whereas others - often  
89 in nutrient-poor soils - developed EcM associations (Comas et al., 2012; Read & Perez-Moreno,  
90 2003). Whether exudation rates relate to tree species' belowground C allocation and nutrient  
91 acquisition strategies is unknown, yet there are reasons to suspect that the evolutionary processes  
92 that shape root trait syndromes and tree-mycorrhizal associations also affect exudation.

93

94 There has been little consensus over whether exudation rates differ among tree species from  
95 different functional groups (Brzostek et al., 2013; Liese et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2021). Exudation  
96 could be greater in EcM trees (relative to AM trees) if exudation is a reflection of the C sink

97 strength of roots, which is typically greater in EcM root systems (Hobbie, 2006). Alternatively, if  
98 exudation rates reflect C allocation tradeoffs within the root system (e.g., C exuded by roots comes  
99 at a cost to C used to support mycorrhizal fungi; Wen et al., 2019), one might expect higher  
100 exudation in AM trees where the C costs of supporting AM hyphae are low relative to EcM  
101 mycelium (Hawkins et al., 2023). To date, support for both hypotheses is apparent. In temperate  
102 forests, EcM trees have been shown to exude more C than AM trees (Brzostek et al., 2013; Phillips  
103 & Fahey, 2006; Yin et al., 2014), though this effect is not apparent in young trees (Liese et al.,  
104 2018) and the opposite pattern has been reported in sub-tropical forests ([Sun et al., 2021](#)). Likewise,  
105 deciduous trees have been shown to have higher exudation rates than evergreen trees in some  
106 temperate forests (Sun, et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2021) but not others (Brzostek et al. 2013). In a  
107 recent synthesis of dozens of studies, Chari et al. (2024) found no evidence of exudation  
108 differences between angiosperms and gymnosperms or between AM and EcM trees. These mixed  
109 findings highlight the need to investigate tree functional group effects on exudation at a common  
110 site where other factors (climate, tree age, soil characteristics, etc.) can be controlled for.

111

112 In this study, we assessed the effects of tree species, functional groups, and root traits on exudation  
113 rates in mature trees grown in monodominant plots in a common soil. Importantly, to disentangle  
114 the effects of functional groups (e.g., AM and EcM vs. angiosperms and gymnosperms) from root  
115 traits across the RES, we selected tree species from each functional group that spanned a range of  
116 root trait space. Our objectives were to (1) characterize the extent to which exudation rates vary  
117 among tree species and across functional groups, (2) determine which root traits in the RES, if any,  
118 are closely related to exudation rates, and (3) build a framework for predicting exudation using  
119 readily-measurable root traits and tree functional groups. We hypothesized that exudation rates  
120 would differ among tree species and functional groups due to differences in root traits, leading to  
121 the prediction that considering both root traits and functional groups would better predict exudation  
122 rates (H1). Additionally, we hypothesized that exudation is linked to one or more axes of the RES  
123 (H2): (a) congruent to the collaboration gradient (leading to the prediction that exudation correlates  
124 positively with SRL or SRA) or (b) congruent to the conservation gradient (leading to the  
125 prediction that exudation correlates negatively to RTD).

126

127 **Materials and methods**

128

129 ***Site description***

130 This study was conducted in monoculture plots at the Morton Arboretum, Lisle, Illinois (41.81N,  
131 88.05W). The plots were established between 1922 and 1948 to test and study “all the timber trees  
132 of the world which might come under consideration for reforestation purposes in this part of the  
133 country” (Morton Arboretum Staff, 1929). Soils in the plots are poorly drained Alfisols that form  
134 from a thin layer of loess (0.31 m) underlain by glacial till and Mollisols that formed from alluvium  
135 (Soil Survey Staff, NRCS, USDA, 2024). The soil series in the plots are primarily Ozaukee silt  
136 loams and Sawmill silty clay loam (Midgley & Sims, 2020). The area has a continental climate  
137 with temperatures ranging from -6°C in January to 22°C in July and 800-1,000 mm mean annual  
138 precipitation.

139

140 Eleven tree species were selected to capture the heterogeneity in root traits among species from  
141 distinct functional groups: phylogenetic group (angiosperm *vs.* gymnosperm), tree-mycorrhizal  
142 association (AM *vs.* EcM), and leaf habit (deciduous *vs.* evergreen). Within each group, species  
143 were chosen based on mean SRL and root tissue N concentration (root N) - the traits that were  
144 found to correlate positively with exudation rates in previous studies (Meier et al., 2020; Sun et  
145 al., 2021; Wang et al., 2021). As such, selected eleven species spanned a wide range of SRL and  
146 root N for each group, ensuring that all selected species captured diverse trait space (Table 1). This  
147 allowed for minimizing phylogenetic covariations among traits while maximizing species trait  
148 dissimilarities. Out of the eight combinations, only two combinations were absent: evergreen-AM-  
149 angiosperms and evergreen-EcM-angiosperms (Table 1).

150

151 ***Root exudation rates***

152 Fine-root exudates were collected during the growing season of 2022 (i.e., from May to July 2022)  
153 using an *in-situ* culture-based cuvette system (Phillips et al., 2008). To mitigate the impact of  
154 variable weather, sampling campaigns were conducted under sunny and clear conditions, to the  
155 extent possible, and each plot was visited twice: once in late May/early June to collect exudates  
156 from three individuals and once in late June/early July to collect exudates from 3-4 additional  
157 individuals. The terminal roots were excavated carefully from the mineral topsoil below the  
158 organic layer. The excavated root segments were examined to ensure that the fine-root system

159 consisted of the first three branching orders with an intact absorptive function. Organic matter and  
160 soil particles adhering to the root system were removed with DDI water with extreme caution while  
161 keeping the roots moist with wet paper towels. In cases where the distal fine roots were damaged  
162 or broken off, samples were discarded, and a new sample was prepared. The intact root systems  
163 were placed in cuvettes (30mL syringe) filled with sterile, C-free glass beads (>1mm diameter).  
164 The root systems with glass beads were flushed three times with C-free nutrient solution (0.5 mM  
165 NH<sub>4</sub>NO<sub>3</sub>, 0.1 mM KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>, 0.2 mM K<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>, 0.15 mM MgSO<sub>4</sub>, 0.3 mM CaCl<sub>2</sub>) to ensure the root  
166 segments and glass beads were well-mixed and to remove any C adhering to the root surface. To  
167 ensure the same amount of solution was added to the cuvettes, we added 15mL of nutrient trap  
168 solution in the field using a bottle-top dispenser. The cuvette was covered in aluminum foil to  
169 allow the root system to equilibrate with the cuvette environment. The same procedure was applied  
170 to the control (i.e., no root) cuvette with the same glass beads and nutrient solution. The cuvettes  
171 were placed at the exact excavated area and covered with soils and organic matter and incubated  
172 for approximately 24 hrs.

173

174 After the one-day incubation period, the sampled roots with the cuvette were clipped with care and  
175 brought to the laboratory for analysis. Within one hour of clipping, each cuvette was flushed with  
176 15mL of the working nutrient solution three times to remove accumulated exudates in the cuvette.  
177 All solutions were filtered immediately through a sterile 0.22  $\mu$ m syringe filter (Millex-GV 0.22 $\mu$ m  
178 PVDF 33mm Gamma Sterilized 50/Pk, Millipore Co., Billerica, MA) and refrigerated at 4°C until  
179 analyses (<24 h). All samples were analyzed for non-particulate organic C on a TOC analyzer  
180 (Shimadzu Scientific Instruments, Columbia, MD) within a day of sample collection. The total  
181 mass-specific exudation rate was calculated with the total C captured from the trap solution minus  
182 the total C flushed from the root-free control cuvettes divided by the dry root biomass and day (mg  
183 C \* g<sub>root</sub><sup>-1</sup> \* day<sup>-1</sup>).

184

### 185 ***Root morphological and chemical traits***

186 Roots originally placed in the cuvette were carefully collected from the cuvette, washed, and stored  
187 at 4°C until processing. Fine-root morphology was analyzed for all the fine roots with a transparent  
188 flat-bed scanner and the WinRHIZO program (Regent Instruments, Quebec, QC, Canada). Scans  
189 were collected at a resolution of 600 dpi. All root samples were dried at 65°C for at least 48 h, and

190 the dried root biomass was used for root trait calculations. Specific root length (SRL, in  $\text{m g}^{-1}$  : the  
191 length of the fine roots divided by the corresponding root dry weight), specific root area (SRA, in  
192  $\text{cm}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$  : the area of the fine roots divided by the corresponding root dry weight), root tissue density  
193 (RTD, in  $\text{g cm}^{-3}$  : root dry weight divided by root volume), root branching intensity (BI, in the  
194 number of tips per total fine-root length), and root diameter (diameter, in cm) were calculated from  
195 WinRHIZO. Root N concentration (per dry weight) was measured independently in the lab using  
196 an elemental combustion system (Costech Analytical Technologies).

197

### 198 ***Statistical analyses***

199 We used an analysis of variance (ANOVA), mixed linear models, and variance partitioning to  
200 characterize the extent to which root exudation rates vary among tree species and across functional  
201 groups. To test for differences in exudation rates among tree species, we conducted pairwise  
202 comparisons after an ANOVA using a Tukey's Honest Significant Difference (HSD) test. To test  
203 for differences in exudation rates among tree functional groups, we built a mixed linear model with  
204 mycorrhizal type, phylogeny, and their interaction as fixed effects and species-plot as a random  
205 effect using restricted maximum likelihood ('lme4::lmer' via REML). To evaluate the significance  
206 of each nested group in the model after accounting for all other groups, Type III ANOVA with  
207 Satterthwaite's Method using the 'lme4::anova' was performed to summarize the results of each  
208 model. To control the likelihood of false positives in all linear mixed effects models, adjusted p-  
209 values from BH Correction (Benjamini-Hochberg) test were performed using the p.adjust function.  
210 To quantify the contributions of inter- vs. intraspecific variation to exudation rates in mixed effects  
211 models, a variation partitioning analysis was performed using the 'VEGAN::varpart'. To show co-  
212 variations among root traits, a pairwise trait relationships between exudation rates and root traits  
213 were also performed using Pearson's correlations at the individual tree level using 'corr.test'  
214 function. Root traits and exudation rates were natural-log-transformed prior to analyses to meet  
215 model assumptions of residual normality and homogeneity of variance.

216

217 To assess how and the extent to which root exudation rates are associated with root trait  
218 coordination, we used principal components analysis (PCA) (Weigelt et al., 2023) and Redundancy  
219 Analysis (RDA). To examine how exudation rates aligns with major dimensions in the PCA, we  
220 created an ordination of RTD, root N, SRL, Diameter, SRA, and BI along with exudation rates

221 using princomp () with standardized PCA. To examine the significance of linear relationships  
222 between exudation rates and the first four axes, we created a PCA without exudation rates and  
223 preformed Pearson's product-moment correlation test between PCs and exudation using cor.test  
224 function. To select the best predicting root trait or subset of predictors, we built a PCA with four  
225 core variables (RTD, root N, SRL, and Diameter) and evaluated the relationship between root  
226 exudation rates as a trait and the traits that comprise the PCA. We used RDA models for PCs to  
227 explain exudation using 'VEGAN::rda' and selected the best predicting trait using  
228 'VEGAN::ordistep' with both forward and backward stepwise model selection.

229

230 To identify the functional groups and root traits that collectively best predict exudation rates, we  
231 used a stepwise model selection approach using linear mixed-effects models by 'lme4::lmer' via  
232 REML. The fixed effects included six root traits (RTD, root N, SRL, Diameter, SRA, and BI) along  
233 with mycorrhizal type or phylogenetic group. Monodominant plot identity (i.e., species-plot) was  
234 treated as a random effect. Model selection was based on improvements in Akaike Information  
235 Criterion (AIC) and likelihood ratio tests comparing full and reduced models. Building on the best-  
236 performing model, we further tested interactions between traits and functional groups (e.g.,  
237 Exudation ~ Trait  $\times$  Functional Group). We examined the explanatory power of each model by  
238 calculating marginal ( $R^2_m$ ) and conditional ( $R^2_c$ ) R-squared values, where  $R^2_m$  represents variance  
239 explained by fixed effects and  $R^2_c$  includes both fixed and random effects (Nakagawa & Schielzeth,  
240 2013). Model assumptions for selected models were verified via checks for residual normality,  
241 homoscedasticity, and unbiasedness. All statistical analyses were performed using R v.3.5.3 (R  
242 Core Team, 2017).

243

## 244 Results

245

### 246 Hypothesis 1: Exudation differences among species and functional groups

247

#### 248 Variation in exudation rates among tree species and functional groups

249 We found partial support for H1, as species explained 22% of the total variation in exudation rates  
250 in our model (Adj.  $R^2 = 0.22$ ;  $p = 0.01$ ). While not all species differed in their exudation rates  
251 (ANOVA using Tukey's HSD test), *Larix gmelinii* exhibited significantly higher rates of root

252 exudation compared to *Chamaecyparis pisifera* ( $p=0.03$ ) and *Carya ovata* ( $p<0.01$ ) (Fig. 1a; Table  
253 2). The mean exudation rate of *L. gmelinii* ( $3.82 \text{ mgC g}_{\text{root}}^{-1} * \text{day}^{-1}$ ) was more than twice that of  
254 the second-highest species, *Picea abies* ( $1.52 \text{ mgC g}_{\text{root}}^{-1} * \text{day}^{-1}$ ) (Fig. 1a; Table 2).

255

256 We also found a significant interaction between mycorrhizal type and phylogenetic group in  
257 exudation rates ( $\text{Chisq} = 9.27$ , Adj.  $p < 0.01$ ; Table 3). On average, EcM gymnosperms exuded 2.4  
258 times more C than EcM angiosperms and 1.5 times more C than AM gymnosperms (Fig. 1b).  
259 Despite these notable differences, tree mycorrhizal type, phylogenetic group, and leaf habit alone  
260 did not significantly explain variation in exudation ( $\text{Chisq} \leq 0.98$ , Adj.  $p \geq 0.48$ ; Table 3).  
261 Additionally, we did not detect a significant interaction between mycorrhizal association and leaf  
262 habit ( $\text{Chisq} = 1.90$ , Adj.  $p = 0.34$ ; Table 3).

263

264 Exudation rates exhibited over twice the variability of most root traits with a coefficient of  
265 variation (CV%) of 119% compared to lower variability across root traits (Table S1). This higher  
266 CV% corresponded to a high intraspecific variation (i.e., 77%) (Fig. S9; Table S3). Most root traits  
267 had CV% $s$  below 40%, except for BI at 44% (Table S1), suggesting morphological traits are  
268 generally more conservative (i.e., less plastic) than exudation. High interspecific variation was  
269 observed in most root traits (RTD, root N, root diameter, and BI), whereas ‘composite’ and  
270 ‘acquisitive’ root traits such as SRL and SRA showed high intraspecific variability (>50%) and  
271 intermediate CV% $s$  (38% and 30%, respectively) (Fig S9; Table S3). Together, unlike most root  
272 traits, exudation rates in our study can only be partially explained by species.

273

## 274 **Hypothesis 2: Exudation and the root economic space (RES)**

275

276 The first two principal axes of the PCA generated with seven core root traits (RTD, root N, SRL,  
277 Diameter, SRA, BI, and exudation rates) explained 73% of the total variation in root traits (Fig.  
278 2a; Table S5). The axis generated by RTD-root N was closely mapped onto PC1 reflecting the  
279 conservation gradient, while the axis generated by SRL-Diameter was loaded closely onto PC2  
280 representing the collaboration gradient (Bergmann et al., 2020; Fig. 2a). The first five PCs  
281 demonstrated eigenvalues exceeding those predicted by random chance (as determined by Broken  
282 Stick analysis; Fig. S6), indicating that these axes accounted for more variance than would be

283 expected under random conditions. In addition, the first three PCs showed eigenvalues greater than  
284 1.0, indicating the significant contribution of three PCs to the ordination (Table S5; Tabachnik &  
285 Fidell, 1996).

286  
287 Redundancy analysis (RDA) with permutation tests indicated that exudation rates were not  
288 significantly associated with variation along PC1 and PC2, which were generated with six root  
289 traits excluding exudation rates ( $p>0.15$ ; Fig. S7). However, exudation rates were significantly  
290 correlated with PC3 ( $R^2 = 0.08$ ,  $p=0.03$ ) and PC4 ( $R^2 = 0.10$ ,  $p=0.02$ ), while the two PCs accounted  
291 for 10% and 6% of the total variation, respectively (Fig. S7). PC3 and PC4 together explained a  
292 greater proportion of variance in exudation (exudation  $\sim$  PC3 + PC4;  $R^2 = 0.18$ ,  $p=0.004$ ). Notably,  
293 stepwise model selection based on RDA of the PCA derived from four core root traits (SRL–  
294 Diameter, RTD–Root N; Fig. S4) identified RTD as the only significant predictor of exudation  
295 (AIC = 3.56, F = 5.05,  $p=0.015$ ). These results suggest that exudation likely correlates with the  
296 conservation gradient, but also suggest that root exudation is more strongly associated with trait  
297 variation captured by more than just the first two principal components in the RES.

298  
299 **The effects of tree functional groups on trait-exudation relationships**

300  
301 ***Mixed-effect model predictions***  
302 Consistent with the prediction derived from the first hypothesis, incorporating both root traits and  
303 tree functional groups enhanced model predictions of exudation. As such, the best-performing  
304 mixed-effects model included SRA and the interaction term between the phylogenetic group and  
305 mycorrhizal types (exudation  $\sim$  SRA + mycorrhizal-type:phylogeny + (1|species);  $R^2c = 0.36$ ;  
306  $p<0.01$ ; Fig. 3; Table 4). That is, tree species with higher SRA - indicative of more acquisitive root  
307 strategies - exhibited significantly higher exudation rates ( $Std \beta = 1.13 \pm 0.39$ , Adj.  $p=0.013$ ; Fig.  
308 3; Table 4). However, the interaction between mycorrhizal-type and phylogeny modified this  
309 relationship: compared to the baseline group (EcM-Gymnosperms), all other combinations (AM-  
310 Angiosperms, EcM-Angiosperms, and AM-Gymnosperms) showed significantly lower exudation  
311 rates (Adj.  $p=0.01$ ; Fig. 1b). A larger model that additionally included root N also significantly  
312 predicted exudation rates ( $p<0.01$ ; Table S4), albeit with a slightly reduced fit. These results

313 supported our second hypothesis, suggesting that exudation rates might be influenced by both  
314 acquisitive and conservative root traits, as captured by variation in SRA and root N.

315

### 316 ***Exudation-trait correlations in mixed effects models***

317 Linear mixed effects models that included significant effects of mycorrhizal association on  
318 exudation provide partial support for exudation as both an acquisitive resource exploitation  
319 strategy and a physiological process governed by C allocation tradeoffs. Across all species,  
320 variation in SRL, and SRA, and partly in root diameter, significantly accounted for variation in  
321 root exudation (Fig. 4; Table 4). The negative relationship of exudation with RTD and positive  
322 relationship with root diameter were modulated by mycorrhizal association (Fig. 4; Table 4), while  
323 phylogenetic group showed little effects on trait-exudation relationships (Table S2).

324

325 Specifically, high SRL and SRA were positively correlated with exudation rates across species  
326 (SRL: Std  $\beta$  = 1.5, Adj.  $p$ <0.001; SRA: Std  $\beta$  = 1.8, Adj.  $p$ =0.03; Table 4). Unlike SRA, this  
327 positive relationship between exudation and SRL appeared stronger among AM trees, as indicated  
328 by a marginally significant linear relationship in a simple linear model nested in mycorrhizal  
329 association ( $R^2$  = 0.13,  $p$ =0.051; Fig 4b). The marginally significant interaction term (SRL  $\times$   
330 Mycorrhizal Type, Std  $\beta$  = -1.09, Adj.  $p$ =0.11; Table 4) suggests that EcM association may  
331 modulate this relationship, potentially exhibiting a weaker or even negative association between  
332 SRL and exudation compared to AM trees. However, further study is needed to confirm these  
333 effects, especially since the relationship was not detected in the bi-variate analysis (Pearson's  
334 correlation 'r'; Fig S1).

335

336 While no trend between exudation and RTD across species was detectable, RTD and exudation  
337 showed a significant interaction (Std  $\beta$  = -2.0, Adj.  $p$ =0.001, Table 4), showing that in ECM trees,  
338 increasing RTD was associated with a large decrease in exudation rates (Fig. 4d), with this  
339 relationship being more pronounced in gymnosperms (Table 3; Fig 1b). Exudation generally  
340 decreased with root diameter across species with marginal significance (Std  $\beta$  = -1.5, Adj.  $p$ =0.06;  
341 Fig. 4a; Table 4). Notably, EcM trees exhibited higher exudation rates than AM trees after  
342 controlling for diameter (Std  $\beta$  = 2.9, adjusted  $p$ =0.01; Fig 4a; Table 4), leading to a significant  
343 interaction between tree mycorrhizal association and diameter. Together, exploitative root traits

344 such as SRA and SRL associated positively with exudation across species while EcM association  
345 significantly influenced the relationships of exudation with RTD, SRA and root diameter.

346

### 347 **Discussion**

348

349 Our study aimed to identify key drivers of mass-specific root exudation in mature field-grown  
350 trees. We hypothesized that exudation rates would differ among tree species and functional groups  
351 (H1). Further, we hypothesized that exudation rates would be associated with at least one of the  
352 axes of the RES (H2): along the collaboration gradient of the RES owing to exudation's functional  
353 role as a nutrient acquisition strategy and/or along the conservation gradient of the RES owing to  
354 exudation's role as a competing sink for C (e.g., root tissue construction costs). We found partial  
355 support for H1, as exudation rates varied partly among tree species, and EcM gymnosperms  
356 exhibited greater exudation rates than other tree functional groups. In partial support of our second  
357 hypothesis, exudation rates correlated positively with SRL and SRA (across all species) and in  
358 EcM trees, correlated with conserved traits such as root diameter and RTD. However, while  
359 exudation rates were loaded weakly onto the 'fast' side of the conservative gradient in the RES,  
360 exudation was not correlated with the first two axes. Rather, exudation was better predicted by  
361 independent third and fourth (i.e., non-RES) axes. Finally, we found that the best model to predict  
362 exudation rates across all 11 species contained SRA (with a significant correlation with SRL)  
363 coupled with a strong influence from mycorrhizal type on phylogeny. Collectively, our study  
364 indicates that root exudation is a complex physiological process and cannot be fully explained by  
365 species identity or root traits alone. Instead, a combined consideration of these factors offers a  
366 more accurate prediction of fine-root physiological functioning.

367

#### 368 ***Tree functional groups partially account for variation in exudation***

369 EcM gymnosperms generally had the highest exudation rates (two-fold higher than other groups),  
370 though the reasons remain elusive. High exudation rates have been reported for other EcM  
371 gymnosperms in temperate forests (Abramoff & Finzi, 2016; Brunn et al., 2022; Jiang et al., 2021;  
372 Yang et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2016) and under controlled conditions (Sell et al., 2022; Yin et al.,  
373 2013). One of the highest exuders in our study, *Larix gmelinii*, has been reported to have elevated  
374 exudation rates in a boreal forest as well (Yin et al., 2023). Although the influence of EcM

375 associations on root traits is well documented, their differential impacts on root traits and exudation  
376 between angiosperms and gymnosperms remain unclear.

377

378 Three potential mechanisms driving this pattern include tradeoffs between C allocation to EcM  
379 fungi and root exudates, leakiness of highly colonized gymnosperm roots, and high exudation rates  
380 of EcM fungi themselves. First, EcM gymnosperms might allocate more C to the rhizosphere and  
381 lesser to their mycorrhizal partners. For instance, a global synthesis by Hawkins et al. (2023)  
382 reported that C allocation to EcM mycelium biomass was ~2.5 times greater in broad-leaved trees  
383 (mostly angiosperms) than needle-leaf trees (mostly gymnosperms). However, the Hawkins et al.  
384 (2023) synthesis did not account for biome differences, suggesting that reports of lesser C  
385 allocation to mycelium in EcM gymnosperms may have been confounded by climate (e.g., if boreal  
386 forest needle-leaf trees were compared to temperate/tropical forest broad-leaved trees). In fact,  
387 some of the most striking examples of prodigious EcM mycelium come from studies of EcM  
388 gymnosperms like *Pinus spp.* (Anderson & Cairney, 2007), and EcM gymnosperms tend to possess  
389 short, thick roots (Fig S8) that are well-colonized by mycorrhizal fungi (Cheng et al., 2016; Comas  
390 & Eissenstat, 2009; Ma et al., 2018). As such, a second factor that could explain greater exudation  
391 in EcM gymnosperms is mycorrhizal-root leakiness. Little is known about whether the mycorrhizal  
392 roots of EcM gymnosperms differ from those of EcM angiosperms in leakiness (Farrar et al., 2003).  
393 If the magnitude of leakiness is determined by the strength of the C sink - as described by the “hole  
394 in the pipe model” for nitrous oxide gas in Firestone and Davidson (1989) - greater exudation in  
395 EcM gymnosperms would result from greater C allocation to mycelium. Finally, while EcM fungi  
396 are a sink for plant-derived C (Prescott et al., 2020), they too can exude organic C (e.g., oxalic  
397 acid), resulting in an additional source of C in the cuvettes (Ahonen-Jonnarth et al., 2000; Sun et  
398 al., 1999; Van Schöll et al., 2008). Further studies are required to elucidate the mechanisms that  
399 drive high exudation rates of EcM gymnosperms.

400

#### 401 ***The relationships between exudation and root traits that comprise the RES***

402 Exudation rates were aligned weakly with the fast side of the ‘conservation’ gradient defined by  
403 RTD and root N in the RES while also showing a strong association with SRA (Sun et al., 2021).  
404 These results suggest that exudation may be linked to acquisitive root traits (e.g., high SRA and  
405 root N) to optimize soil resource uptake (Hypothesis 2a; Eissenstat, 1991; Eissenstat & Yanai,

406 1997; Lv et al., 2023; Weemstra et al., 2016). These patterns may also reflect a crucial root-soil  
407 process where rapid exudation increases soil N availability (Meier et al., 2017), thereby enhancing  
408 root metabolic activity characterized by low RTD and high root N (Sun et al., 2021; Wen et al.,  
409 2022). We also found that RTD was the single significant predictor for exudation in the RES,  
410 partially supporting the prediction that exudation could correlate with root traits related to the  
411 conservation gradient reflecting structural stability, longevity, and metabolic activity such as RTD  
412 and root N (Hypothesis 2b). The observed significant relationships of exudation with RTD (from  
413 RDA analysis) and SRA (from mixed-effects models) likely result from the interplay of root area,  
414 tissue permeability, and diffusion strength - all of which can influence exudation rates (Akatsuki  
415 & Makita, 2020; Farrar et al., 2003; Jones et al., 2009; Lv et al., 2023; Sun et al., 2021). Since  
416 higher RTD often is association with reduced root leakiness and metabolic activity (Farrar et al.,  
417 2003), roots with less dense tissues, high root N, and larger surface areas are more likely to exude  
418 C. Consistent with our findings, recent studies in cool-temperate and subtropical forests have also  
419 reported significant relationships of exudation rates with RTD (-), root N (+), and SRA (+), but not  
420 SRL (Akatsuki & Makita, 2020; Sun et al., 2021).

421  
422 The alignment of exudation within the RES suggests that exudation may function as an alternative  
423 soil resource exploitation strategy (Sun et al., 2021; Wen et al., 2022), modulated by the interplay  
424 between mycorrhizal associations (Brzostek et al., 2013) and root traits under phylogenetic  
425 constraints (Williams et al., 2022). However, exudation rates were not associated with the first two  
426 PC axes, and additional PC axes (PC3 and PC4; Fig. 2b) were needed to explain variation in  
427 exudation. This suggests that exudation may be more strongly associated with traits not considered  
428 or other factors. The RES simplifies trait space by collapsing trait variation into ‘collaboration’  
429 and ‘conservation’ gradients (Bergmann et al., 2020), yet other dimensions of plant trait variation  
430 (e.g., plant height and rooting depth) were found to exist (Weigelt et al., 2021). Whether exudation  
431 aligns with this third axis of plant variation is unknown (Freschet et al., 2021; McCormack et al.,  
432 2017; Weemstra et al., 2022) or links to other unmeasured processes (e.g., C assimilation and  
433 allocation) is not well-understood, but this would be a fruitful line of inquiry in future studies.

434

435 ***Trait-to-exudation relationships constrained by functional group interactions***

436 Exudation rates were significantly linked to acquisitive root traits such as high SRA, high SRL,  
437 low RTD, while their variability was strongly influenced by EcM association, root morphology,  
438 and C construction costs. Notably, the model that included the interaction between mycorrhizal  
439 association and phylogenetic lineage in predicting exudation–SRA relationships outperformed all  
440 others (Table 4). These findings collectively suggest that exudation may be linked to acquisitive  
441 strategies (e.g., high SRL and SRA, narrow diameters, and low RTD) that favor foraging efficiency  
442 under the control of both mycorrhizal association and evolutionary history (Hypothesis 2a;  
443 Eissenstat, 1991; Eissenstat & Yanai, 1997; Lv et al., 2023; Weemstra et al., 2016).

444

445 Interestingly, we observed that EcM association influenced the relationship between exudation and  
446 diameter, where exudation rates increased with root diameter. This trend was predominantly driven  
447 by EcM gymnosperms, which exhibited short, thick roots (Fig. S8) and high exudation rates (Fig.  
448 1b) - highlighting their reliance on symbiotic partners for nutrient acquisition. However, a previous  
449 study measuring exudation rates of EcM gymnosperms (*Pinus* and *Larix spp.*) found a significant  
450 negative relationship between exudation rates and root diameter (Akatsuki & Makita, 2020). These  
451 divergent results suggest that while the associations with EcM do broadly affect plant exudation  
452 rates, the direction of those relationships likely depends on several factors, including species  
453 identity, trait variations and methodological differences (Williams et al., 2021). For example,  
454 Akatsuki & Makita (2020) used a glass-fiber filter method that targeted smaller root segments (<  
455 3rd order), potentially capturing higher mass-specific exudation rates than the cuvette-base  
456 methods of Phillips et al. (2008). This suggests that EcM gymnosperms exude root carbon mostly  
457 from lower-order roots and that our cuvette-base methods may underestimate mass-specific  
458 exudation rates owing to inclusion of larger root segments (Akatsuki & Makita, 2020). Together,  
459 this highlights the complexity of trait-to-exudation relationships and the need for further studies to  
460 uncover generalizable patterns across diverse ecosystems.

461

462 Unlike EcM trees, which exhibit differences in some root traits across phylogenies, AM association  
463 did not significantly predict most root traits and trait-exudation relationships in our study (Fig. S8)  
464 (Akatsuki & Makita, 2020). Instead, AM angiosperms demonstrated greater within-group  
465 variability, including exudation rates (Fig. S8), suggesting a flexible, ‘do-it-yourself’ resource  
466 acquisition strategy with high plasticity (Bergmann et al., 2020). Together, these findings indicate

467 that elevated exudation rates can result from (1) the interplay of EcM-associated root traits and  
468 phylogenetic constraints or (2) enhanced intraspecific variability in acquisitive root traits, allowing  
469 for efficient soil resource exploitation with moderate exudation rates.

470

#### 471 ***Challenges and opportunities***

472 Exudation rates for mature, field-grown trees are rare, as all methods used to measure exudation  
473 introduce some artifacts; our study is no exception. While the root cuvette method of Phillips et al.  
474 (2008) has been used in dozens of forest studies (Chari et al., 2024), important methodological  
475 questions remain about how to minimize damage to root systems before placement into cuvettes,  
476 how to normalize the rates measured in different scales, the chemistry and sterility of the trapping  
477 solution, the duration of the equilibrium period, the duration of the collection period, and the  
478 contribution of mycorrhizal fungi to the total exudates (Oburger & Jones, 2018). Moreover, the  
479 high degree of spatio-temporal variation in exudation (Jacoby et al., 2017; Jiang et al., 2021; Yang  
480 et al., 2020) affects how many samples are needed to draw inferences about species-specific  
481 patterns and trait-exudation correlations. While we attempted to minimize variability by selecting  
482 tree species grown in a common soil, applying the same methodology to all trees, etc., the  
483 substantial amount of variability in exudation within species suggests that this flux may be better  
484 linked to dynamic physiological processes such as C assimilation and allocation than to (relatively)  
485 static morphological traits.

486

#### 487 **Conclusion**

488

489 We revealed that root exudation was positively associated with acquisitive root traits (SRL and  
490 SRA), while exudation-trait relationships were modulated by mycorrhizal association and  
491 phylogenetic lineage. EcM trees appeared to influence trait-exudation relationships, especially for  
492 RTD and root diameter, with these effects being more pronounced in gymnosperms. As such,  
493 constraining trait-exudation relationships with tree functional groups did improve model  
494 predictability. Importantly, we demonstrate that root exudation may be a complex physiological  
495 process that cannot be explained by species identity, functional groups or individual root traits  
496 alone. High intraspecific variation in root exudation (unlike stable morphological traits) likely  
497 contributed to the weaker alignment of exudation with the RES. Instead, exudation was linked to

498 additional functional axes beyond the first two axes in the RES. Given the emerging interest in  
499 including root physiological traits into the RES (which is based mostly on morphological and  
500 chemical traits), our findings suggest that incorporating such dynamic processes into the RES may  
501 pose significant challenges and require to identify additional drivers of such dynamics other than  
502 root traits. As more mechanistic studies are developed (e.g. tracking exudate responses to tree  
503 girdling or nutrient solution culture alterations) and methods for capturing exudates are improved,  
504 our ability to understand the role and function of exudates in the environment should come into  
505 greater focus.

506

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513

## 514 **Competing interests**

515 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

516

## 517 **Author contributions**

518 M.G.M., K.V.B., M.L.M., Y.E.O. and R.P.P. designed the study; M.G.M., K.V.B., M.L.M.,  
519 Y.E.O., M.M., R.K.B., and S.H. performed the research; M.G.M., M.M., and Y.E.O. analyzed the  
520 data; Y.E.O., M.G.M. and R.P.P. wrote the paper with input from all authors.

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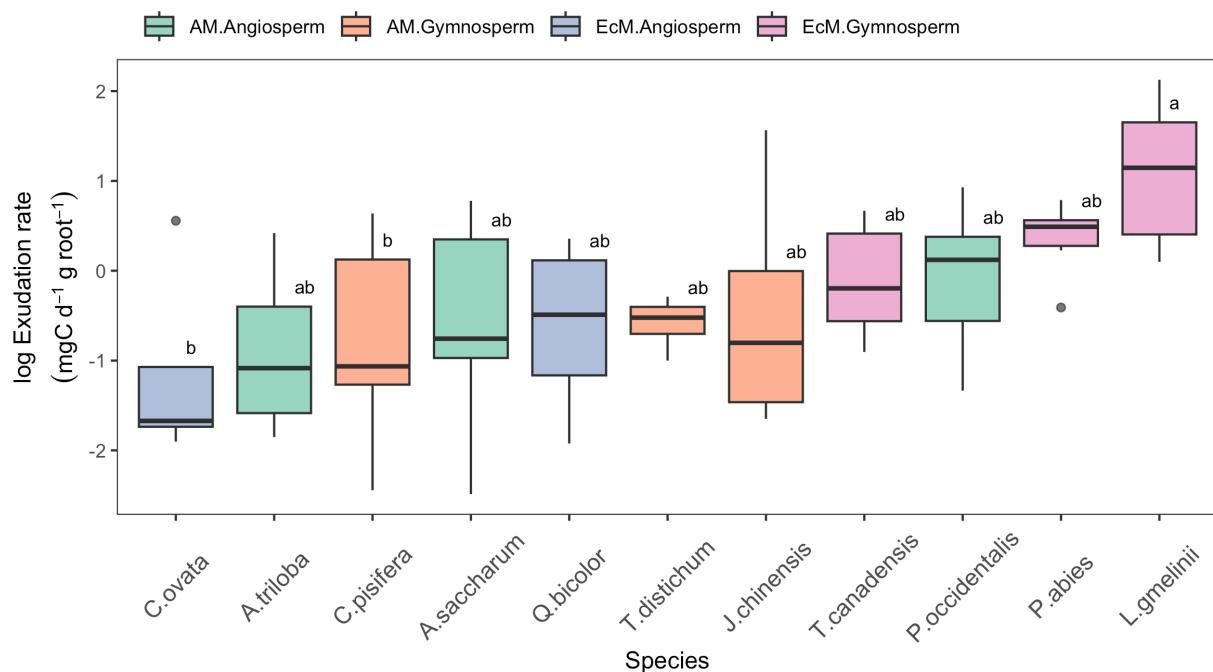
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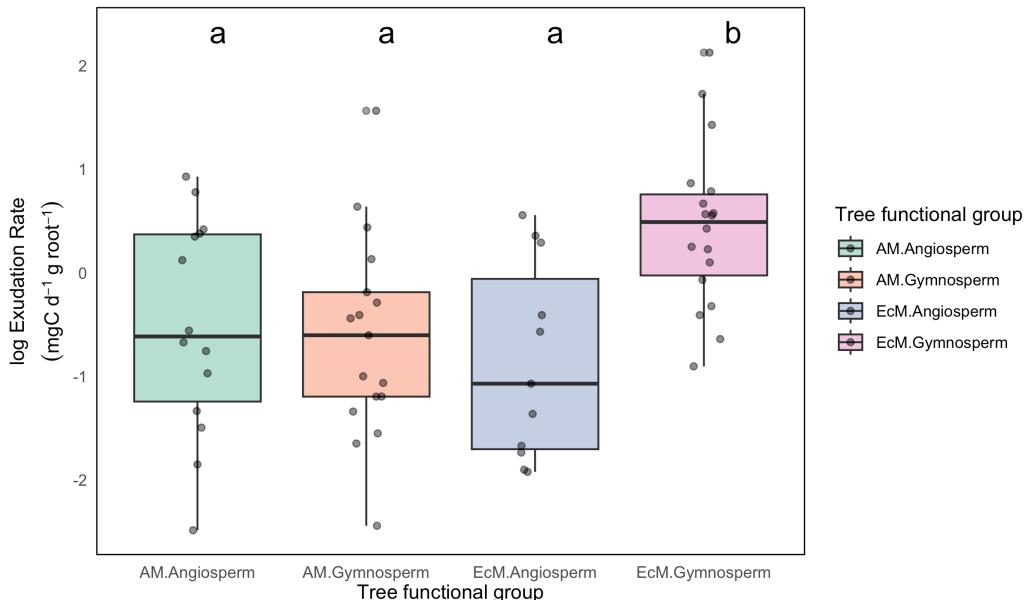
770 **Figures and tables**

(a) Mass-specific exudation rate for 11 species



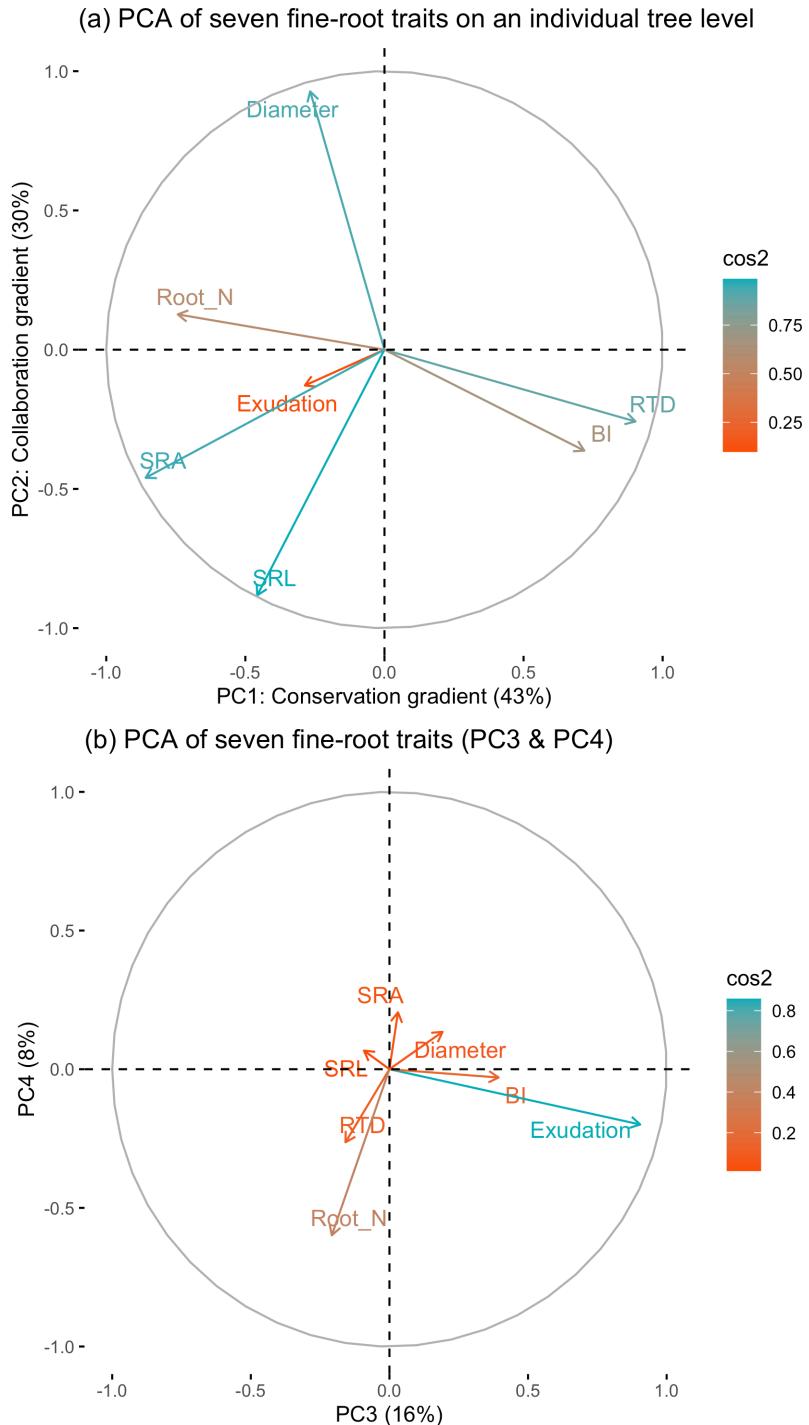
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(b) Mass-specific exudation rate: Myco+Phylo

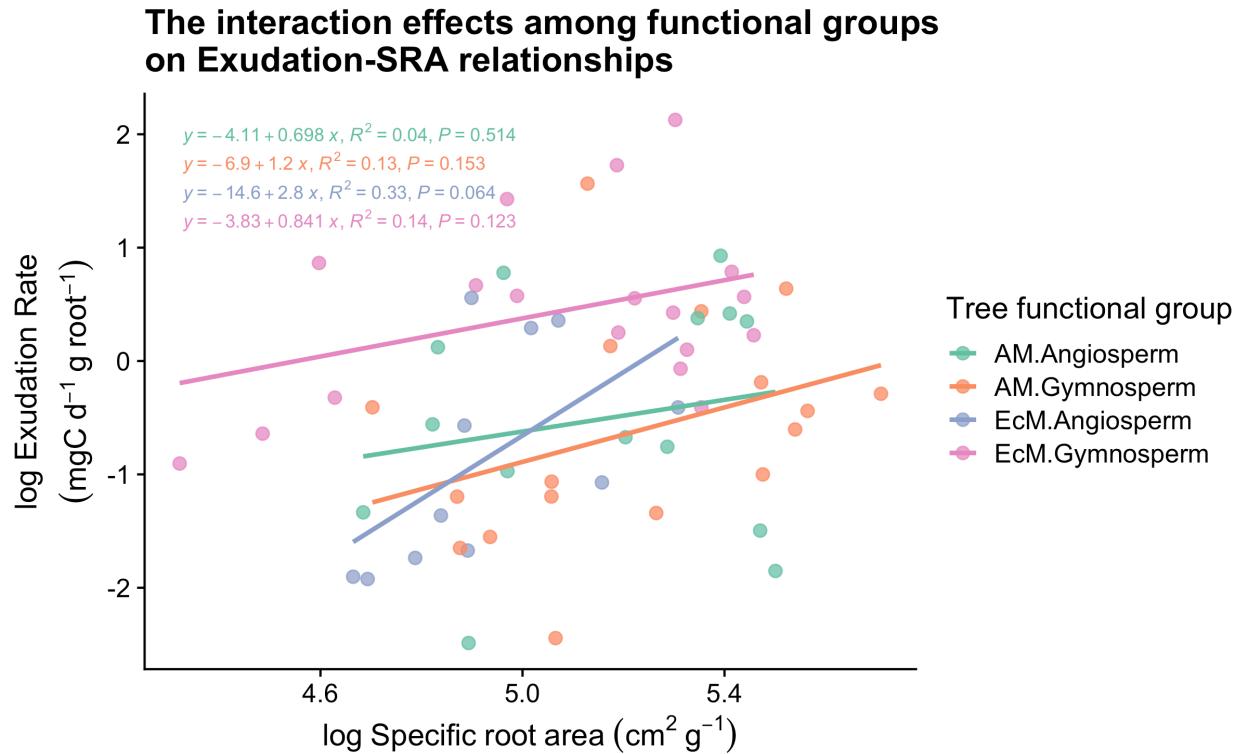


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773 Fig 1) Boxplot of root exudation variation among: (a) 11 tree species and (b) combinations of mycorrhizal  
 774 type (AM vs. EcM) and phylogenetic group (Angiosperm vs. gymnosperm) at The Morton Arboretum,  
 775 Lisle, IL, USA. The central box in each boxplot represents the median and the interquartile range. The  
 776 whiskers extend to the minimum and maximum value. In (a), different lowercase letters denote significant  
 777 differences, as determined by a post hoc TukeyHSD test. In (b), different lowercase letters denote  
 778 significant differences (Linear mixed model fit by REML; Std  $\beta$  = 9.6,  $p=0.03$ ). Closed circles denote  
 779 outliers.

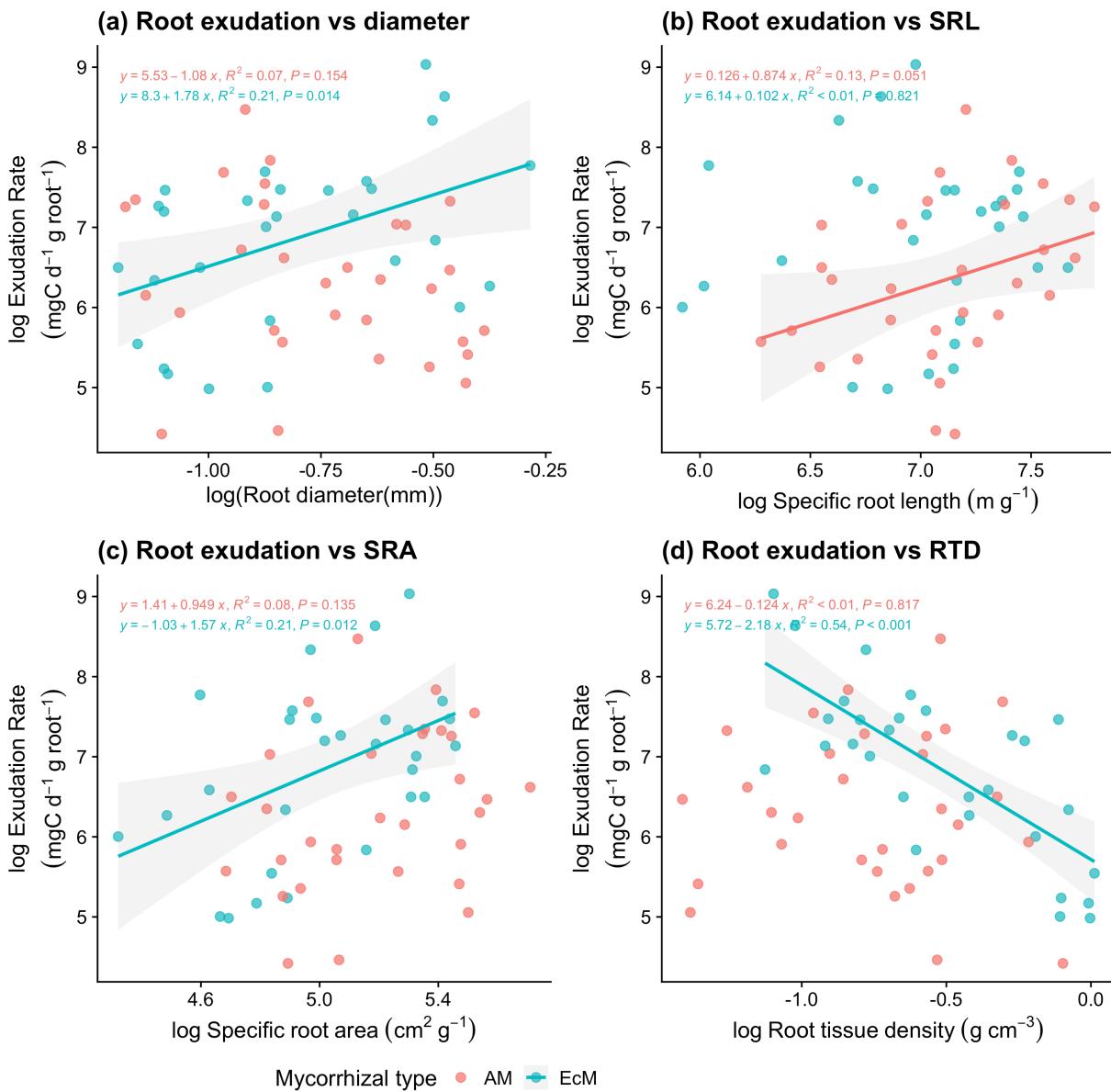


782 Fig 2) Standardized principal components analysis (PCA) of six fine-root functional traits and exudation  
783 rates on an individual tree level. 'cos2' values indicate that the quality of the representation of the variable  
784 on that principal component as a cos2 value close to 1 indicates that the variable is very well represented  
785 by the PC(s) in question. (a) PCA generated by six core root functional traits. PC1 and PC2 likely  
786 correspond to conservation and collaboration gradient respectively (Bergmann et al., 2020). (b) Two  
787 additional axes (PC 3 & 4) from the PCA.



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789 Fig 3) Interaction effects of tree functional groups on the relationship between log-transformed specific  
790 root area (SRA) and mass-specific exudation rates. The model depicts the interaction effects described in  
791 the best-predicting model selected by a stepwise model selection approach: Exudation ~ SRA +  
792 myco.type:phylogeny + (1|species) (Table 4). Linear regression lines are shown for each group  
793 combination defined by mycorrhizal association (AM or EcM) and phylogeny (Angiosperm or  
794 Gymnosperm). Each equation displays the linear fit,  $R^2$ , and  $p$ -value. Among groups, EcM Angiosperms  
795 showed the steepest positive relationship between SRA and exudation rates ( $R^2 = 0.33, P = 0.064$ ), while  
796 other groups exhibited weaker or non-significant trends. This interaction reflects differential trait-based  
797 exudation patterns across mycorrhizal and phylogenetic strategies.

Correlation of root exudation with four root Traits



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Fig 4) Linear relationships of log-transformed root exudation with (a) root diameter, (b) SRL, (c) SRA, and (d) RTD measured at The Morton Arboretum, Lisle, IL, USA. The fitted lines indicate statistically significant relationships of root exudation with root traits ( $p < 0.1$ ) that are nested with AM and EcM mycorrhizal association.

**Table 1) List of eleven tree species in monodominant forestry plots at The Morton Arboretum (Lisle, IL, USA); All species are  $\geq 70$  years old except *Asimina triloba***

Species	Soil series	Soil order	Mycorrhizal type	Phylogenetic group	Leaf habit	Clade
<i>Acer saccharum</i>	Ozaukee	Alfisol	AM	Angiosperm	Deciduous	Rosids
<i>Asimina triloba</i>	Ozaukee	Alfisol	AM	Angiosperm	Deciduous	Magnoliids
<i>Platanus occidentalis</i>	Ashkum	Mollisol	AM	Angiosperm	Deciduous	Eudicots
<i>Chamaecyparis pisifera</i>	Ozaukee	Alfisol	AM	Gymnosperm	Evergreen	Gymnosperms
<i>Juniperus chinensis</i>	Ozaukee	Alfisol	AM	Gymnosperm	Evergreen	Gymnosperms
<i>Taxodium distichum</i>	Sawmill	Mollisol	AM	Gymnosperm	Deciduous	Gymnosperms
<i>Carya ovata</i>	Ozaukee	Alfisol	EcM	Angiosperm	Deciduous	Rosids
<i>Quercus bicolor</i>	Sawmill	Mollisol	EcM	Angiosperm	Deciduous	Rosids
<i>Larix gmelinii</i>	Ozaukee	Alfisol	EcM	Gymnosperm	Deciduous	Gymnosperms
<i>Picea abies</i>	Ozaukee	Alfisol	EcM	Gymnosperm	Evergreen	Gymnosperms
<i>Tsuga canadensis</i>	Ozaukee	Alfisol	EcM	Gymnosperm	Evergreen	Gymnosperms

Note: AM, arbuscular mycorrhizal type; EcM, ectomycorrhizal type

**Table 2) The species-specific means  $\pm$  SDs of six core root traits at The Morton Arboretum, Lisle, IL, USA. n denotes the number of tree individuals sampled. Exudation: mass-specific exudation rate.**

Species (plot)	n	Exudation rate (mg C g <sub>root</sub> <sup>-1</sup> * day <sup>-1</sup> )	Specific root length (SRL (cm g <sup>-1</sup> ))	Root diameter (Diameter (mm))	Root tissue density (RTD (g cm <sup>-3</sup> ))	N concentration (root N (%))	Specific root area (SRA (cm <sup>2</sup> g <sup>-1</sup> ))	Branching intensity (BI (Tips cm <sup>-1</sup> ))	
<i>Acer saccharum</i>	5	0.91 $\pm$ 0.87	1636.36 $\pm$ 529.41	0.34 $\pm$ 0.03	0.73 $\pm$ 0.14	1.23 $\pm$ 0.09	169.90 $\pm$ 42.69	3.19 $\pm$ 0.50	
<i>Asimina triloba</i>	4	0.60 $\pm$ 0.63	1110.21 $\pm$ 104.32	0.64 $\pm$ 0.02	0.29 $\pm$ 0.05	2.91 $\pm$ 0.23	222.05 $\pm$ 28.12	0.72 $\pm$ 0.06	
<i>Platanus occidentalis</i>	5	1.19 $\pm$ 0.88	1045.53 $\pm$ 540.38	0.52 $\pm$ 0.10	0.52 $\pm$ 0.07	1.74 $\pm$ 0.23	157.53 $\pm$ 52.86	2.95 $\pm$ 0.53	
<i>Chamaecyparis pisifera</i>	7	0.75 $\pm$ 0.71	1528.93 $\pm$ 460.45	0.42 $\pm$ 0.06	0.51 $\pm$ 0.09	1.87 $\pm$ 0.18	195.13 $\pm$ 39.51	2.18 $\pm$ 0.56	
<i>Juniperus chinensis</i>	6	1.22 $\pm$ 1.78	863.63 $\pm$ 273.33	0.55 $\pm$ 0.09	0.54 $\pm$ 0.11	1.39 $\pm$ 0.11	142.73 $\pm$ 25.23	2.40 $\pm$ 0.90	
<i>Taxodium distichum</i>	4	0.58 $\pm$ 0.16	1696.22 $\pm$ 374.94	0.51 $\pm$ 0.08	0.31 $\pm$ 0.04	1.89 $\pm$ 0.26	264.06 $\pm$ 26.82	2.02 $\pm$ 0.42	
<i>Carya ovata</i>	5	0.52 $\pm$ 0.69	1160.74 $\pm$ 209.51	0.37 $\pm$ 0.05	0.85 $\pm$ 0.17	1.25 $\pm$ 0.26	133.43 $\pm$ 25.23	5.32 $\pm$ 1.15	
<i>Quercus bicolor</i>	6	0.73 $\pm$ 0.54	1439.00 $\pm$ 397.30	0.33 $\pm$ 0.02	0.86 $\pm$ 0.14	1.29 $\pm$ 0.14	146.67 $\pm$ 32.44	5.63 $\pm$ 0.48	
<i>Larix gmelinii</i>	6	3.82 $\pm$ 2.83	975.76 $\pm$ 384.57	0.58 $\pm$ 0.11	0.43 $\pm$ 0.07	1.48 $\pm$ 0.12	167.97 $\pm$ 40.13	3.68 $\pm$ 0.60	
<i>Picea abies</i>	6	1.52 $\pm$ 0.52	1639.29 $\pm$ 220.22	0.42 $\pm$ 0.04	0.45 $\pm$ 0.05	2.01 $\pm$ 0.13	214.35 $\pm$ 19.09	4.44 $\pm$ 0.66	
<b>805</b>	<b><i>Tsuga canadensis</i></b>	<b>6</b>	<b>1.05 <math>\pm</math> 0.66</b>	<b>689.36 <math>\pm</math> 276.65</b>	<b>0.59 <math>\pm</math> 0.07</b>	<b>0.60 <math>\pm</math> 0.17</b>	<b>1.24 <math>\pm</math> 0.42</b>	<b>125.24 <math>\pm</math> 46.82</b>	<b>4.16 <math>\pm</math> 0.63</b>

Table 3) Type III Analysis of Variance Table for predicting root traits of 11 tree species in The Morton Arboretum (n =60) using a linear mixed model (dependent variables~myco x phylo x leaf + (1|species)). The species were nested in mycorrhizal types, phylogenetic groups and leaf habit. p-values (P<0.1) are highlighted in bold. The significance of fixed effects in the model was tested by Type III ANOVA with Wald chisquare tests. All measurements were log-transformed to ensure normality and improve homogeneity of variance.

Fixed Effect	Mass-specific Exudation rate			Root diameter (mm)			Specific root length (m g <sup>-1</sup> )			Specific root area (cm <sup>2</sup> g <sup>-1</sup> )		
	Chisq	Pr(>Chisq)	Adjusted p	Chisq	Pr(>Chisq)	Adjusted p	Chisq	Pr(>Chisq)	Adjusted p	Chisq	Pr(>Chisq)	Adjusted p
Mycorrhizal type (myco)	0.98	0.32	0.48	4.37	<b>0.04</b>	0.11	0.08	0.77	0.77	2.44	0.12	0.16
Phylogenetic group (phylo)	0.02	0.88	0.92	0.08	0.78	0.78	1.15	0.28	0.34	3.92	<b>0.048</b>	<b>0.10</b>
Leaf habit (leaf)	0.01	0.92	0.92	0.09	0.77	0.78	1.45	0.23	0.34	4.83	<b>0.028</b>	<b>0.08</b>
myco:phylo	9.27	<b>0.002</b>	<b>0.007</b>	2.58	0.11	0.22	2.22	0.14	0.34	0.66	0.42	0.42
myco:leaf	1.90	0.169	0.337	0.09	0.77	0.78	1.27	0.26	0.34	2.26	0.13	0.16
% of the total variance explained by random effect (Species plot)	> 0.1%			<b>55.2%</b> (p<0.001)			<b>33.3%</b> (p<0.001)			<b>26%</b> (p<0.01)		

Fixed Effect	Root tissue density (g cm <sup>-3</sup> )			Root N concentration (%)			Branching intensity (cm <sup>-1</sup> )		
	Chisq	Pr(>Chisq)	Adjusted p	Chisq	Pr(>Chisq)	Adjusted p	Chisq	Pr(>Chisq)	Adjusted p
Mycorrhizal type (myco)	9.42	<b>0.0021</b>	<b>0.006</b>	3.23	<b>0.072</b>	0.22	10.82	<b>0.0010</b>	<b>0.0057</b>
Phylogenetic group (phylo)	3.69	<b>0.055</b>	<b>0.082</b>	0.01	0.91	0.91	0.02	0.89	0.92
Leaf habit (leaf)	4.52	<b>0.034</b>	<b>0.067</b>	0.30	0.58	0.87	0.05	0.82	0.92
myco:phylo	0.42	0.52	0.52	0.13	0.72	0.87	0.59	0.442	0.88
myco:leaf	1.05	0.30	0.37	0.20	0.65	0.87	0.01	0.922	0.92
% of the total variance explained by random effect (Species plot)	<b>45.5%</b> (p<0.001)			<b>55.4%</b> (p<0.001)			<b>74%</b> (p<0.001)		

Note. Numerator Degrees of Freedom = 1; Denominator Degrees of Freedom =60. Mass-specific exudation rate (mgC\*d<sup>-1</sup>\*g root<sup>-1</sup>)

**Table 4)** Mixed effects models for the effects of mycorrhizal type on exudation-to-trait relationships. The model considered root traits  $\times$  mycorrhizal type + (1|species.plot) to predict exudation rates. 'species.plot' represents species-specific monodominant plots at The Morton Arboretum, Lisle, IL. The best model (exudation  $\sim$  SRA + Mycorrhizal type:Phylogeny) is selected via a stepwise reduction approach using mixed models. The other models are ordered from the lowest AIC values. The numbers in the table represent coefficients estimate (Std  $\beta$ ) and standard error (Std SE) in brackets. Adjusted p-values were calculated using the Benjamini-Hochberg (BH) correction for multiple testing. Bold value indicates statistical significance of Adjusted p-values less than 0.05. Significance levels of Adjusted p-values: \* $p<0.05$ ; \*\* $p<0.01$ ; \*\*\* $p<0.001$ . The comprehensive table for the effects of phylogeny on trait-exudation relationships is in Table S2.

Model to predict exudation rates - AIC values	Significant Fixed effect term - $R^2_m$ & $R^2_c$	Std $\beta$ (Std SE)	Adjusted p
SRA + Mycorrhizal type : Phylogeny - AIC = 164.8	(Intercept)	-5.2936 (1.99)*	<b>0.013</b>
Best model selected with AIC = 164.8	SRA	1.13 (0.39)**	<b>0.013</b>
	AM : Angiosperm	-1.05 (0.33)*	<b>0.013</b>
	EcM : Angiosperm	-1.13 (0.35)*	<b>0.013</b>
	AM : Gymnosperm	-1.23 (0.33)**	<b>0.013</b>
	$- R^2_m = 0.34; R^2_c = 0.36$		
RTD * Mycorrhizal type - AIC=163.2	RTD : EcM	-2.05 (0.64)**	<b>0.008</b>
	$- R^2_m = 0.24; R^2_c = 0.44$		
SRA * Mycorrhizal type - AIC=169.3	SRA	1.76 (0.64)*	<b>0.023</b>
	$- R^2_m = 0.33; R^2_c = 0.33$		
SRL * Mycorrhizal type - AIC=170.7	SRL	1.54 (0.45)**	<b>0.005</b>
	$- R^2_m = 0.19; R^2_c = 0.43$		
Diameter (mm) * Mycorrhizal type - AIC=173.0	ECM	2.91 (0.90)*	<b>0.016</b>
	Diameter : ECM	3.09 (1.09)*	<b>0.027</b>
	$- R^2_m = 0.10; R^2_c = 0.27$		

Note) Insignificant models (i.e., Root N \* Mycorrhizal type; BI \* Mycorrhizal type) and fixed effect terms are not reported in this table. See Table S2 for comprehensive results that include the effects from phylogeny on trait-exudation relationships. All measured variables were log-transformed to ensure normality of data. (Intercept) represents baseline exudation rate (AM reference).  $R^2_m$ , Marginal  $R^2$ ;  $R^2_c$ , Conditional  $R^2$ , RTD.  $R^2_m$  represents variance explained by fixed effects only, whereas  $R^2_c$  indicates variance explained by both fixed and random effects. Root Tissue Density ( $\text{g}/\text{cm}^3$ ); SRA, Specific Root Area ( $\text{m}^2/\text{g}$ ); Specific Root Length ( $\text{cm}/\text{g}$ ); Diameter, root mean diameter (mm); Root N, Root N Concentration (%); BI, Branching Intensity ( $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ).