

1 **Variation in morphological and chemical traits of Mediterranean tree**
2 **roots: linkage with leaf traits and soil conditions**

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16 **Author contribution statement**

17 TM conceived the study, TM, CMNF and MTD conducted fieldwork, CMNF and PM
18 measured morphological and chemical traits, TM, CMNF and MGM analysed the data, TM
19 wrote the first draft, TM, CMNF, MGM, MTD, PM and RV participated in the interpretation,
20 discussion and preparation of the final version.

21

22 **Abstract**

23 *Aims:* Root functions are multiple and essential for the growth and survival of terrestrial
24 plants. The aim of this work was to analyse the main trends in the variation of root traits, their
25 coordination with leaf traits and their relationships with soil conditions.

26 *Methods:* We measured the variation of 27 fine root traits (five morphological, 20 chemical
27 and two isotopic signatures) in trees of seven species of a mixed plantation in a metal-
28 contaminated and remediated site of Southern Spain.

29 *Results:* We found evidences supporting the existence of a root economics spectrum (RES).
30 However, other dimensions were identified as being independent of the main RES: mainly the
31 variation in the carbon concentration, the accumulation of trace elements associated with
32 tolerance of metal-rich soils, and the fractionation of $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ as a time-integrated trait of
33 mycorrhizal-mediated nutrition. In general, roots and leaves were functionally coordinated,
34 although most of the trace elements showed strong root-leaf discordance. The soil conditions
35 interacted with the fine root traits in feedback processes. The ability of tree roots to
36 accumulate trace elements and to reduce their translocation to leaves is a desirable trait for the
37 phytoremediation of metal-contaminated soils.

38 *Conclusions:* Roots are multifunctional. Understanding the variations in the root traits of trees
39 will help us to predict both the responses of forests to global changes, including soil
40 contamination, and the provision of soil-based ecosystem services.

41

42 **Keywords**

43 Root traits, Root economics spectrum, Root-leaf coordination, Trace-element contamination,
44 Root multifunctionality

45

46 **Introduction**

47 Advances in trait-based plant ecology are focused on the analysis of functional traits
48 across individuals and species, to predict emergent properties of communities and ecosystems
49 (Garnier et al. 2016; Laliberté 2017). There are evolutionary and biophysical constraints
50 limiting the existing spectrum of plant traits (Reich 2014). In a global view of the functional
51 diversity of vascular plants on Earth (analysis of key traits for more than 46,000 plant
52 species), most of the trait variation was concentrated in a two-dimensional spectrum of plant
53 form and function: plant size and leaf economics spectrum (LES) (Díaz et al. 2016). The LES
54 reflects the trade-off between resource acquisition and resource conservation. At one end of
55 the spectrum, there are species with high photosynthetic and respiration rates, high nitrogen
56 (N) and phosphorus (P) concentrations, low leaf mass per area (LMA) and low leaf longevity.
57 At the other end of the spectrum, there are species with the opposite traits (Wright et al.
58 2004).

59 Although roots are essential organs for terrestrial plants, no root traits were considered
60 in the global study of Díaz et al. (2016). Root functions are multiple and essential for plant
61 growth and survival: they include nutrient and water acquisition, anchorage, resource storage
62 and support of symbiotic soil microbes. At the ecosystem level, they contribute to soil
63 structure and to the carbon and nutrient cycles (Erktan et al. 2018). Therefore, an
64 understanding of how root traits vary is fundamental to the comprehension of plant functional
65 ecology.

66 Some studies support the existence of a “root economics spectrum” (RES), analogous
67 to the LES, with a trade-off between resource acquisition and conservation (Reich 2014;
68 Roumet et al. 2016; de la Riva et al. 2018a). Thus, plants growing in favourable environments
69 would develop lighter roots with a lower dry matter content and higher specific root length to
70 maximize resource acquisition. By contrast, plants growing in adverse or limiting
71 environments would exhibit a resource conservation strategy, developing denser roots with a

72 higher dry matter content and lower specific root length. However, the RES hypothesis was
73 challenged by Weemstra et al. (2016) who argued that root traits are constrained not only by
74 resource uptake, but also by other drivers (like soil texture and chemistry), and that the RES
75 hypothesis does not incorporate soil heterogeneity and mycorrhizal symbiosis. Moreover,
76 several studies (Kramer-Walter et al. 2016; Kong et al. 2019) have found that high SRL roots
77 can be constructed with any density, indicating exceptions in the RES.

78 Resource acquisition is coupled and linked among plant organs. Thus, fast acquisition
79 and processing of water and nutrients by roots would require fast acquisition and processing
80 of carbon (C) by leaves (Reich 2014). A strong coordination between root morphology and
81 aboveground traits was found for a set of 80 woody species (de la Riva et al. 2018a). Root
82 traits that achieve nutrient conservation favour tissue longevity and slower growth rates, and
83 in consequence diminish nutrient requirements and amortization of the construction costs
84 (Poorter and Villar 1997; Villar et al. 2006; de la Riva et al. 2016b, 2018a). However, other
85 studies did not find correlations between leaf and root traits, suggesting that trade-offs in
86 different organs operate independently and that the leaf-root coordination may depend on
87 specific limiting factors in each habitat (Tjoelker et al. 2005; Kembel and Cahill 2011;
88 Fortunel et al. 2012).

89 Contrasting leaf habits in trees - that is, evergreen versus deciduous - are usually
90 associated with different functional traits. For example, deciduous species are characterised
91 by acquisitive traits such as lower LMA, higher rates of photosynthesis and respiration, and
92 higher nutrient concentrations, in comparison to evergreen species, which tend to exhibit
93 more-conservative traits (Wright et al. 2004; Villar et al. 2006; de la Riva et al. 2018b).
94 However, few studies have investigated the differences in root traits between evergreen and
95 deciduous trees; for example, Martinez et al. (2002) did not find differences in root C or N
96 concentrations between deciduous and evergreen species of *Quercus*.

97 Most tree roots are intimately associated with mycorrhizal fungi in a symbiosis that is
98 crucial for nutrient acquisition and tolerance of diverse stresses (drought, heavy metals or
99 pathogens), while the fungus obtains carbon compounds from the plant (Smith and Read
100 2008). In fact, that combination of root and fungus (mycorrhiza) can be considered as the
101 functional absorptive trait, in which fungal tissues may represent up to 54% of the “root” N
102 concentration (Ouimette et al. 2013). The degree of root colonisation by mycorrhizal fungi
103 has proved to be a useful plant trait to understand ecosystem processes (Soudzilovskaia et al.
104 2015; Navarro-Fernández et al. 2016; Laliberté 2017). Fungal traits, like the type of hyphal
105 exploration, add more complexity to the soil-fungus-plant relationships and resource
106 acquisition strategies (Chagnon et al. 2013; Gil-Martínez et al. 2018; López-García et al.
107 2018).

108 Besides unravelling the RES, another research challenge is to understand how
109 different drivers of global change impact a suite of root traits, and to predict their cascading
110 effects on soil-based ecosystem processes (Bardgett et al. 2014). Root traits are plastic and
111 respond to physical soil limitations, the heterogeneous distribution of soil water and nutrients
112 and biotic interactions (Bardgett et al. 2014). For example, soil compaction limits the
113 formation and penetration of thin roots, inducing a lower specific root length (SRL) in tree
114 seedlings (Alameda and Villar 2012). Under dry soil conditions, plants tend to develop
115 thinner roots, with greater SRL and increased root hair density, to improve water acquisition
116 (Comas et al. 2013; Olmo et al. 2014). Nitrogen deposition decreases fine root biomass, C:N
117 ratio and fungal colonization, while increasing root respiration (Li et al. 2015).

118 As a global change driver, soil pollution may also promote the adjustment of root
119 traits in plants. For instance, a high concentration of trace elements in soil often reduces root
120 elongation and alters root architecture (Kahle 1993). Although, at a global scale, soil pollution
121 is one of the main threats to soils and the ecosystems services provided by them (Rodríguez-

122 Eugenio et al. 2018), its effects on plant functional traits have not been fully addressed.
123 Among the different soil pollutants, heavy metals are relevant stressors, altering the plant-soil
124 interactions (Krumins et al. 2015).

125 In this study we analysed the variation in morphological and chemical root traits in
126 seven Mediterranean tree species, and explored the linkages with aboveground traits and soil
127 conditions in a heterogeneously-polluted environment (Guadamar Green Corridor, in SW
128 Spain). This area is a large-scale example of the phytoremediation of land contaminated by a
129 mine-spill, with high concentrations of metals. A mixed plantation of native trees and shrubs
130 was set up after cleaning and remediating the soil (Domínguez et al. 2008; Madejón et al.
131 2018a, b). This large-scale experiment is an opportunity to explore how the soil conditions (in
132 this case, the concentration of heavy metals) affect the root traits of different tree species
133 coexisting in a similar environment. We addressed the following hypotheses:

- 134 1) Roots of different tree species differ in their functional traits in accordance with the
135 root economics spectrum (RES). However, there are other root dimensions
136 (independent of RES) that reflect root multifunctionality (Weemstra et al. 2016).
- 137 2) Root and leaf traits are coordinated in accordance with the plant economics spectrum.
138 Fast plant growth depends on the coordination of roots and leaves, with roots ensuring
139 a water and nutrient supply sufficient to maintain acquisitive leaves with high
140 photosynthetic rates and high evaporative demand (Reich 2014).
- 141 3) Soil conditions and metal contamination affect root traits. Root traits are plastic and
142 respond to physical soil limitations, the heterogeneous distribution of soil water and
143 nutrients, biotic interactions (Bardgett et al. 2014) and soil pollution (Kahle 1993).

144

145 **Material and methods**

146 **Study area**

147 The study area is the Guadiamar Green Corridor (Seville, Spain). The climate is
148 Mediterranean with mild, rainy winters and hot, dry summers. The average annual rainfall is
149 450 mm and the mean annual temperature is 17 °C, with a maximum of 33 °C (in July) and a
150 minimum of 5 °C (in January). For more details, see the area description in Domínguez et al.
151 (2008) and Madejón et al. (2018a).

152 The study area was affected by a mine-spill (in April 1998) that polluted the soil with
153 trace elements. After the spill, the soil was cleaned up, remediated and afforested with native
154 species of shrubs and trees in mixed patterns to simulate a diverse forest (Madejón et al.
155 2018b). In a plot of about 14 ha (37° 23.165' N, 6° 13.668' W) within the remediated area we
156 randomly selected five replicates of seven tree species (35 tree samples in total), with an
157 average distance of more than 100 metres between replicates of the same species, resembling
158 a “common-garden experiment”. The area was afforested in 2000, using seedlings (1-2 years
159 old) grown in a nearby nursery. The tree species were selected for this study according to
160 their contrasting leaf habits: deciduous species (*Populus alba* L., *Celtis australis* L. and
161 *Fraxinus angustifolia* Vahl) and evergreen species (*Quercus ilex* subsp. *ballota* (Desf.)
162 Samp., *Olea europaea* subsp. *europaea* var. *sylvestris* (Mill.) Lehr, *Ceratonia siliqua* L. and
163 *Pinus pinea* L.); hereafter we use only the genus name for simplicity.

164 The soil in the plot is of the Fluvisol type, being acidic (pH below 5) and nutrient-
165 poor, with a loamy texture (about 20% sand). In the spill-affected and remediated soils the
166 residual contamination by trace elements such as As, Cd, Cu, Pb and Zn was still high during
167 the study (16 years after the spill). However, there was a low transfer rate of trace elements to
168 the aboveground parts of the woody plants (Domínguez et al. 2008; Madejón et al. 2018a,
169 2018b).

170

171 **Trait measurements**

172 Roots were sampled (in late autumn, December 2014) at the individual tree level, by
173 excavating the first 20–30 cm of the soil adjacent to the tree trunk base. We selected the fine
174 roots (< 2 mm in diameter) for the trait analysis. Although fine roots are composed by
175 absorptive and transport roots (McCormack et al. 2015), we assume that, given the small
176 diameter of the selected roots (range from 0.35 to 0.53 mm), most of them should be
177 absorptive.

178 In the selected fine roots we measured the following morphological traits: specific root
179 length (SRL, root length per unit of root dry mass, m g^{-1}), root mass per area (RMA, root
180 mass per unit of root area, g m^{-2}), root mean diameter (RDI, mm), root dry matter content
181 (RDMC, root dry mass per unit of water-saturated fresh mass, mg g^{-1}) and root tissue mass
182 density (RTD, root dry mass per unit of root volume, mg cm^{-3}). We followed methods in
183 Pérez-Harguindeguy et al. (2013) and de la Riva et al. (2016a) to characterise these variables.
184 However, in this study, we adopted the trait RMA as an analogue of leaf LMA, being the key
185 functional trait for roots (see the arguments in favour of using LMA in Poorter et al. 2009 and
186 de la Riva et al. 2018b). The roots were scanned with an EPSON Perfection V700 photo
187 scanner at 1200 dpi. The length, diameter, area and volume of the roots were obtained by
188 analysing the scanned root samples with WinRHIZO 2009 software (Regent Instruments Inc.,
189 Quebec, Canada). The mycorrhizal type associated with each tree species was assigned
190 according to several sources (Maremmani et al. 2003; Manaut et al. 2015; Navarro-Fernández
191 et al. 2016). We assigned the “ectomycorrhizal type” (ECM) to those tree species (*Pinus*,
192 *Populus* and *Quercus*) that form symbiotic associations predominantly with ECM fungi,
193 although they can also associate with arbuscular mycorrhizal (AM) fungi. In contrast, trees of
194 the “arbuscular mycorrhizal type” (AM) are exclusively associated with AM fungi (see Table
195 S1).

196 In the selected trees, morphological traits of fully-expanded leaves were recorded
197 following the methods of Pérez-Harguindeguy et al. (2013). Young, fully expanded leaves
198 still attached to a portion of stem of the previous year were collected from each individual
199 tree. These stems with leaves were stored in plastic bags to prevent water loss and transported
200 to the laboratory, where they were maintained with the basal portion of the stem submerged in
201 water at 10 °C for 24 h, in darkness, to allow complete re-hydration (de la Riva et al. 2016a).
202 They were sampled in early autumn (October 2014), when we expect them to have their
203 maximum concentrations of chemical elements (Madejón et al. 2004, 2006; Domínguez et al.
204 2008). We measured the leaf mass per area (LMA, leaf dry mass per unit of area, g m^{-2}) and
205 leaf dry matter content (LDMC, dry mass per unit of water-saturated fresh mass; mg g^{-1}). We
206 also measured the stem dry matter content (SDMC, dry mass per unit of water-saturated fresh
207 mass; mg g^{-1}) and stem wood density (SWD, dry mass divided by the stem fresh volume; mg
208 cm^{-3} ; based on the Archimedes principle, measuring the volume of water displaced by
209 immersion of the stem) in the sampled branches and twigs. One of the *Fraxinus* trees suffered
210 summer defoliation and only had young leaves; therefore, it was excluded from the leaf traits
211 dataset (n=34).

212 A subsample of the roots and leaves collected from each tree was dried and then
213 ground using a stainless steel mill, for chemical analyses. The N and C concentrations and the
214 isotopic ratios of nitrogen ($\delta^{15}\text{N}$) and carbon ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$) were determined, in leaf and root samples
215 combusted at 1020 °C, using a continuous flow isotope-ratio mass spectrometry system. This
216 involved a Flash HT Plus elemental analyser coupled to a Delta-V Advantage isotope-ratio
217 mass spectrometer via a CONFLO IV interface (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Bremen,
218 Germany); the analytical measurement errors were $\pm 0.2\%$ for $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\pm 0.1\%$ for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$. The
219 concentrations of macro- (P, K, Ca, Mg, S) and micronutrients (B, Co, Cu, Fe, Mn, Na, Ni,
220 Zn), as well as non-essential elements (As, Ba, Cd, Pb, Sr), were determined after wet

221 oxidation with concentrated HNO₃ in a Digiprep MS block digester (SPS Science) equipped
222 with a temperature-time programmable controller and polypropylene digestion tubes. They
223 were measured by inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectroscopy (ICP-OES)
224 Varian ICP 720-ES. We assessed the quality of the analyses using the reference sample
225 INCT-OBTL-5 (tobacco leaves), and acceptable recovery rates (between 88 and 105%) were
226 obtained for all the elements discussed here. The exception was Fe, with 77% recovery, but it
227 was kept in the dataset due to its importance as an essential micronutrient for plants, in
228 photosynthetic electron transport and other metabolic functions (Lambers et al. 2008; Tripathi
229 et al. 2018).

230 We also measured some whole-tree traits: height (HEIG, with a Nikon Forestry Pro
231 hypsometer; m), crown projection area (CRP, estimated from two perpendicular axes of an
232 ellipse; m²) and accumulated leaf litter (LITT, estimated by averaging the litter biomass
233 collected inside three 25×25 cm quadrats around each tree trunk and extrapolating to the tree
234 crown projection; kg).

235

236 **Soil conditions**

237 Soil was sampled at 0-10 cm depth using a gouge auger of 2.5 cm diameter. Under
238 each tree canopy, three random points were selected and the cores obtained were mixed to
239 make one composite sample per tree. In addition, soil was sampled in adjacent open sites with
240 grassland (<100 m far from each group of sampled trees; five replicates) to have a treeless
241 reference.

242 The soil samples were air-dried and sieved (< 2 mm). Soil pH was determined, using a
243 CRISON micro pH 2002 probe and meter, in a 1:2.5 soil-1 M potassium chloride suspension.
244 Organic C was determined following dichromate oxidation of samples and titration with
245 ferrous ammonium sulphate (Walkley and Black method). The total N concentration was

246 measured in a Leco TruSpec CN elemental analyser. The isotopic ratios of nitrogen ($\delta^{15}\text{N}$)
247 and carbon ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$) were measured using the method indicated above for leaves and roots.
248 Available P was estimated by the Bray 1 method. The available potassium (K), calcium (Ca)
249 and magnesium (Mg) were extracted with 1 M ammonium acetate and determined by atomic
250 absorption spectrophotometry. The available concentrations of trace elements were
251 determined, after extraction in 0.01 M CaCl_2 at a 1:10 soil-solution ratio, by ICP-OES (Houba
252 et al. 2000).

253

254 **Data analysis**

255 The relative variation of the root and leaf traits among individual trees was measured
256 as the coefficient of variation (CV, $(100 \times \text{sd})/\text{mean}$). The variation due to the tree species was
257 tested by analysis of variance (one-way ANOVA) for each morphological and chemical trait
258 in roots and leaves, as well as for the properties of the soil underneath each tree species.
259 Multiple comparisons of tree species means were performed with *post-hoc* Tukey tests.
260 Previously, the data were tested for normality (Shapiro–Wilk test) and homoscedasticity
261 (Levene test), and were Box-Cox transformed when necessary. Alternatively, a non-
262 parametric Kruskal–Wallis test was applied, when the assumptions for the parametric tests
263 were not fulfilled.

264 We explored the multidimensionality of the root traits by applying principal
265 component analysis (PCA). The first PCA was performed to investigate if the root variation
266 followed the root economics spectrum (RES); therefore, we analysed - for individual trees -
267 the variation in six key traits: the five morphological traits included in de la Riva et al.
268 (2018a) plus the root N concentration, as a key trait associated with the net soil resource
269 acquisition rate. The second PCA was performed to study if the root morphological variation
270 was associated with root chemical traits; therefore, we analysed the variation in all 27 root

271 traits (5 morphological, 20 chemical and 2 isotopes) in the 35 trees. To interpret the
272 covariation trends observed in the second PCA, we analysed the bivariate correlations across
273 the 27 root traits; we produced correlograms using the R *corrplot* package and ordered the
274 traits by hierarchical clustering of correlation coefficients.

275 The main variation trends in the 29 aboveground traits (4 morphological, 20 chemical,
276 2 isotopes and 3 whole tree) were analysed separately by another PCA. Then, we selected 24
277 analogous root-leaf traits to explore the coordination of root and leaf traits; we carried out
278 separate PCAs for the roots and leaves, and explored the correlations between the respective
279 first axes (main variation trends) of each PCA. We also tested the differences in root traits
280 between the evergreen and deciduous tree species.

281 To evaluate the relationships between root traits and soil variables, we performed
282 Pearson's correlation tests. We used R software v3.5.1 (R Development Core Team, 2018) for
283 the PCAs, in the *stats* and *ggplot2* packages, and SPSS 20.0 software for Windows (SPSS
284 Inc., USA) for the ANOVA and correlation analyses.

285

286 **Results**

287 **Multidimensional root traits**

288 There were significant differences among the tree species for 25 out of the 27 root
289 traits (Table S1 and Fig. S1). In particular, the value of the RMA key trait was lowest for
290 *Fraxinus* and highest for *Quercus*, with differences between deciduous and evergreen trees
291 (Fig. 1).

292 Root mass per area explained most of the root trait variation, having the highest
293 loading factor (0.97) in the first axis of the six-trait PCA (Table S2 and Fig. S2). The variation
294 trend of this axis, which accounted for 57% of the variance, supports the root economics
295 spectrum hypothesis, with acquisitive traits such as high SRL and N concentration on the

296 negative side and conservative traits such as high RMA and RDMC on the positive side. The
297 second axis (explaining 23% of the variance) contrasted RDI versus RTD (Fig. S2).

298 In the all-traits PCA, the first axis (accounting for 38% of the variance) was defined
299 by the concentrations of Mg, sulphur (S) and some trace elements (Fe, Pb, As and Cu), which
300 were related to the roots of *Celtis* and *Fraxinus* trees. Moreover, there was a high correlation
301 among almost all the trace elements (except Cd and B) and they grouped together on the left
302 side of PC1. On the positive side of the first axis, the C content and RMA were significantly
303 explicative and were related to the roots of *Quercus* and *Pinus* trees (Fig. 2 and Table S2). A
304 secondary variation trend (second PCA axis, accounting for 18% of the variance) separated
305 root samples with higher RDMC and RMA, associated with *Quercus* and *Pinus* trees, from
306 samples with higher concentrations of K and B, associated with *Fraxinus* and *Populus* roots.
307 Another trend (third PCA axis, accounting for 11% of the variance) discriminated root
308 samples accumulating Cd (positive scores) from those rich in Ca and Sr (negative scores)
309 (Table S2).

310 Root mass per area was correlated positively with other morphological traits
311 (excepting SRL) and negatively with SRL, and the concentrations of nine nutrient elements
312 and three non-essential elements (Fig. 3). In contrast, SRL was correlated negatively with
313 most morphological traits (excepting RTD) and positively with seven chemical elements.
314 More details about the correlations among root traits can be consulted in Appendix A and Fig.
315 3.

316

317 **Coordination between root and leaf traits**

318 The leaf traits varied significantly among the tree species (Table S3) and the main
319 trend in their variation followed the leaf economics spectrum - LES (Fig. S3 and Appendix
320 A).

321 Differences in leaf habit (deciduous versus evergreen) will be mirrored by root traits
322 variation, if there is coordination between plant organs. Effectively, deciduous trees presented
323 significantly higher values of the acquisitive root trait SRL, and lower values of the
324 conservative RMA, RDMC and RDI, compared to evergreen species. The concentrations of
325 nutrients (K, P, Ca, Mg and S) were higher in the roots of deciduous trees than in those of
326 evergreen trees; although, there was no significant difference for C or N. The accumulation of
327 some essential (Fe, B and Zn) and non-essential (As, Pb and Sr) trace elements was also
328 higher in the roots of deciduous trees (Table S4). By contrast, there was no difference
329 between the leaf habit types in the root concentrations of the other trace elements or for the
330 two isotope ratios.

331 The relative coordination between the root and leaf traits was also reflected by the
332 positive correlations between some of the 24 analogous traits (Table 1), and by the significant
333 linear correlation between the scores of the first axes of their respective PCAs (Fig. 4). In
334 particular, the analogous morpho-functional traits RMA and LMA were highly correlated
335 ($r=0.55$, $p=0.001$). Among the chemical elements, the root-leaf correlation was significant for
336 C, the nutrients P, Ca and Mg, the trace elements Ba and Sr, and the isotope $\delta^{13}\text{C}$.

337 There was no significant root-leaf correlation for the concentrations of the other 14
338 elements and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$. For N, the root-leaf correlation was significant for samples of *Pinus* and
339 *Populus*, but not for the other species. Some examples of the root-leaf discordance were due
340 to the species-specific patterns of some traits, such as the accumulation of certain elements in
341 leaves but not in roots: Cd in *Populus* and Mn in *Quercus* (Fig. S4).

342

343 **Relationships between soil conditions and root traits**

344 The spatial variation of soil properties was relatively homogeneous, in comparison
345 with that of plant traits. There were significant differences among the tree species for only

346 seven of the 21 variables tested in the soil underneath the trees: soil pH and available
347 concentrations of S and some trace elements (B, Mn, Ba and Co) (Table S5).

348 The soil pH was correlated significantly and negatively with RMA, RDMC and RTD,
349 and positively with SRL; no correlation was found with RDI. The soil organic C and available
350 K were correlated significantly and negatively with RDMC and RTD. The soil Mg and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$
351 were correlated negatively with RMA and RTD. A significant and positive correlation with
352 RDMC was also found for soil Mn, Ni and Cd (Table S6).

353 Of the 17 elements tested, the uptake and accumulation by roots were correlated with
354 the availability in topsoil for only six of them: the macronutrient K, the micronutrients Co,
355 Mn, Na and Zn and the non-essential Sr. A significant correlation between root and soil was
356 also found for $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ (Table 1). Those tree-soil correlations would be affected by the difficulty
357 of sampling the whole soil volume explored by the tree roots.

358

359 **Discussion**

360 **Multidimensional root traits**

361 The main trend in variation observed for the root traits of this study supports the root
362 economics spectrum (RES) hypothesis. Trees with lighter roots, lower RMA and richer in N,
363 K and P (like those of the deciduous *Fraxinus* and *Celtis* species) would maximise soil
364 resource acquisition. Contrastingly, trees with denser roots, higher RDMC and lower
365 concentrations of nutrients (like evergreen *Pinus* and *Quercus* species) would exhibit a
366 resource conservation strategy. These results support the existence of a suite of correlated
367 plant (roots and leaves) traits associated with the trade-off between resource conservation and
368 fast growth, known as the “plant economics spectrum” (Freschet et al. 2010; Reich 2014; de
369 la Riva et al. 2018a). However, not always root diameter, root tissue density and specific root
370 length are correlated following the RES. For example, Zadworny et al. (2017) found in *Pinus*

371 *sylvestris* that thicker roots have low densities due to a thicker cortex, thus making them less
372 costly to construct and more suitable to association with mycorrhizal fungi, and enhancing
373 nutrient acquisition. Also, Kong et al. (2019) found nonlinear root trait relationships between
374 RDI, RTD and SRL, which can explain why SRL does not necessarily conform to the RTD-
375 related plant economics spectrum in woody species.

376 The key morphological traits RMA and SRL, which are indicators of the root uptake
377 potential, correlated with other morphological traits and with some major nutrients (P, K, Ca
378 and Mg), which supports the uptake function of these traits. Phosphorus and K reach the roots
379 mainly by diffusion from the bulk soil to the root surface (Lambers et al. 2008), and therefore
380 a negative correlation between their uptake and RMA (but a positive one with SRL) would be
381 expected. The correlation between RMA and root nutrients (other than N) has been
382 overlooked previously, and this study is a relevant contribution to support the RES. Despite
383 the fact that there are contradictory results concerning the SRL – root N relationship (see
384 reviews in Reich 2014 and Weemstra et al. 2016), based on our data we can concur with
385 Reich (2014) that the RES exists, although not as uniformly and strongly coordinated as the
386 LES.

387 This evidence supporting the RES as a main root dimension does not preclude the
388 existence of other root dimensions representing the multifunctionality of roots (Weemstra et
389 al. 2016; Laliberté 2017).

390 Firstly, in this study, root C concentration was not correlated with the morphological
391 root traits, but it was negatively correlated with the concentration of root N and 12 other
392 chemical elements. Root C concentration, together with root branching traits (not measured
393 here), defined the second dimension in the PCA of 14 root traits of 96 woody species from
394 subtropical forests in China (Kong et al. 2014).

395 Secondly, soil resources are multiple (water and nutrients) and plant roots differ in
396 their uptake strategies, such as mycorrhizas, N₂-fixing symbioses, and P-absorbing cluster
397 roots (Lambers et al. 2008). The micronutrients Cu, Mn and Ni and the non-essential element
398 Pb exhibited a trend that was orthogonal of that of the RES (Fig. 2). In particular, the Pb
399 concentration in roots was correlated negatively with RMA and root C, but positively with 13
400 other elements. Among the root traits which confer improved tolerance to elevated metal
401 concentrations in soils is the ability to bind trace elements to root cell walls and accumulate
402 them belowground; in this way, roots may be barriers impeding the uptake of potentially toxic
403 elements and their translocation to the leaves (Lambers et al. 2008, Zhao et al. 2016). This
404 additional root dimension that confers metal tolerance may be very important for plant fitness
405 in metal-rich environments, like the study site.

406 Thirdly, the N isotope composition ($\delta^{15}\text{N}$) has been used to infer symbiotic uptake of
407 N by mycorrhizal fungi and its transfer to plants, due to the discrimination against heavier ¹⁵N
408 in these processes (Hobbie and Hobbie 2008; Hobbie and Högberg 2012). In this study, root
409 $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ was a relatively-independent trait; it was correlated negatively with the root C
410 concentration and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ but there was no relationship with morphological or chemical traits
411 (with the exception of root Co and Mn). Recently, Laliberté (2017) has suggested the use of
412 the N isotope composition in plants as a time-integrated trait showing the mycorrhizal
413 influence on N acquisition. Thus, we would expect lower $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values in the roots of trees
414 associated with ECM fungi, which discriminate against ¹⁵N and preferentially transfer ¹⁴N to
415 their host plants; while no or only slight depletion of ¹⁵N is expected for AM plants (Hobbie
416 and Högberg 2012; Craine et al. 2015). However, we found that the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values in roots of
417 ECM trees (mean=1.61, n=15) were not different from those in AM type trees (mean=1.40,
418 n=20). The natural abundance of ¹⁵N in plants is not easy to interpret because it is a single

419 response variable with multiple drivers (i.e. climate, mycorrhizal fungi, and microbial
420 processing; Craine et al. 2015).

421

422 **Coordination of root and leaf traits**

423 Fast plant growth depends on the coordination of roots and leaves, with the former
424 providing enough water and nutrients supply to maintain acquisitive leaves with high
425 photosynthetic rates and high evaporative demand (Reich 2014). In general, we found that the
426 main root variation trend (PCA axis 1) was significantly correlated with the corresponding
427 leaf variation trend (Fig. 4), supporting the existence of a plant economics spectrum (Pérez-
428 Ramos et al. 2012, de la Riva et al. 2016b, 2018a).

429 In particular, we found significant correlations between morphological root traits
430 (RMA and RDMC) and the analogous leaf traits (LMA and LMDC), supporting such root-
431 leaf coordination, as reported in other studies (Holdaway et al. 2011; de la Riva et al. 2018a).
432 However, there are exceptions: for instance, *Larix decidua* trees display acquisitive leaf traits,
433 typical of deciduous trees, but conservative root traits, typical of conifers (Withington et al.
434 2006; Weemstra et al. 2016).

435 In this study, the C concentrations in roots and leaves were positively correlated.
436 Villar et al. (2006) also found a positive correlation between root and leaf C in 16 woody
437 species. The C concentration is normally high for species with strong structural defences
438 (such as lignin or cellulose) (Poorter and Villar 1997) and, therefore, with a conservative
439 strategy (de la Riva et al. 2016b). On the other hand, there was not a significant relationship
440 between RMA and the root C concentration, although RMA was positively correlated with the
441 C:N ratio ($r=0.55$, $p=0.001$). The C:N ratio reflects the relative investments in structure
442 (mainly carbon) respect to cell metabolism (indicated by nitrogen). Thus, plant organs with a

443 higher C:N ratio represent a conservative strategy (Villar et al. 2006; de la Riva et al. 2016c,
444 2018b).

445 Our results do not fit the previously-reported global trend of root and leaf N
446 concentrations, which are highly correlated in woody species ($n=89$, $r=0.58$, $p<0.001$;
447 Valverde-Barrantes et al. 2017). Trees with N-rich leaves and high photosynthetic rates are
448 expected to have N-rich and exploitative fine roots (Reich 2014). However, this trend can be
449 influenced by the specific symbiosis (type of mycorrhiza) present. In this study, we found a
450 significant correlation only when analysing the subset of ECM tree species ($r=0.72$, $p=0.002$).
451 However, tree species in a symbiosis with AM fungi did not show this root-leaf N
452 relationship. The two types of mycorrhizal trees have different nutrient economies: ECM trees
453 are able to acquire N from the soil organic matter due to the greater enzymatic capabilities of
454 ECM fungi, while AM trees depend mostly on inorganic N (Phillips et al. 2013). In the N-
455 limiting conditions of the study site, we expect ECM trees to be more efficient at taking up
456 soil N, through the root-fungi symbiosis, and translocating it to their leaves. Kong et al.
457 (2019) also found different relationships of root traits depending of mycorrhizal types (ECM
458 versus AM). Thus, for ECM species, thin roots were related with higher root N concentration,
459 but the contrary for AM species. This could explain the positive relationship found in our
460 study between root N and leaf N only for ECM species.

461 The C isotope composition in leaf tissues is widely used as a functional trait
462 representing the time-integrated measurement of water-use efficiency. It is based on the
463 discrimination by photosynthetic enzymes against the heavier isotope ^{13}C during
464 photosynthesis, and depends on the ratio between the internal and air CO_2 concentrations, in
465 turn regulated by stomatal opening (Seibdt et al. 2008, Pérez-Harguindeguy et al. 2013). The
466 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values in roots should reflect the isotopic signature of the carbohydrates synthesised in
467 the leaves, although during the leaf-root translocation some ^{13}C enrichment in roots (relative

468 to leaves) has been observed (Cernusak et al. 2009). In this study, the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values in roots and
469 leaves were positively correlated (Table 1), indicating root-leaf coordination. In general, long-
470 lived tissues are associated with a more-conservative use of resources and a higher efficiency
471 in water-use, usually reflected in their higher $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values (Reich 2014, de la Riva et al.
472 2016b). However, in this case, the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values in roots of deciduous and evergreen trees were
473 not different (Table S4).

474 The plant N isotope composition reflects mainly the soil source of N, and also any
475 isotope fractionation and N pool mixing (Robinson 2001). Although the root values for $\delta^{15}\text{N}$
476 did not show significant differences among species, when analysing the intra-plant
477 fractionation (i.e. $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{root}} - \delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{leaf}}$) there were significant differences among species and
478 mycorrhizal types (Fig. S5). The depletion of ^{15}N in ECM trees may be related to the
479 preferential retention of ^{15}N by the ECM fungal biomass (but not by that of AM fungi) and
480 the consequent transfer of ^{15}N -depleted N to the host trees (Craine et al. 2015).

481 Nutritional differences among tree species result from the functional diversity in
482 mechanisms of nutrient uptake from soil, nutrient requirements and long-term nutrient use
483 efficiency (Lambers et al. 2008). The coordinated variability in P, Ca and Mg concentrations
484 between roots and leaves indicates that these nutrients are under biological control, due to
485 their importance for plant growth (Newman and Hart 2006; Geng et al. 2014; Zhao et al.
486 2016).

487 In contrast, most of the trace elements had a strong discordance between their
488 concentrations in roots and leaves. The excess uptake of non-limiting elements seems poorly
489 regulated by plants, and therefore they exhibit high variability (Ladanai et al. 2010). Plants
490 tend to accumulate trace elements in roots, binding them to cell walls as a detoxification
491 mechanism (Domínguez et al. 2009; Kabata-Pendias 2011; Zhao et al. 2016). However, some
492 tree species have a selective uptake and transport of certain trace elements, accumulating

493 them in leaf tissues. Notable examples are the accumulation of Cd and Zn in *Populus* leaves
494 (Madejón et al. 2004) and the accumulation of Mn in *Quercus* leaves (Madejón et al. 2006),
495 but not in their roots (Fig. S4). In soils contaminated by trace elements, the adequate selection
496 of plant species for phytostabilisation is essential. One of the main criteria is that the selected
497 tree species control the mobility of the trace elements, keeping their root to shoot
498 translocation factors as low as possible, to avoid toxicity risks in the trophic web (Mendez and
499 Maier 2008; Bolan et al. 2011; Madejón et al. 2018b).

500

501 **Root traits and soil conditions**

502 There are reciprocal interactions and feedbacks between roots and soil. The soil
503 conditions influence root traits and plasticity (Bardgett et al. 2014). In turn, roots modify the
504 rhizospheric soil; for example through root exudates to increase nutrient uptake (Dakora and
505 Phillips 2002). Here, soil pH was significantly related to the root morphological traits. On the
506 one hand, this indicates that roots with traits indicative of lower exploration (higher RMA or
507 lower SRL, as in *Pinus* and *Quercus*) could compensate with higher production of acid
508 exudates to promote nutrient uptake, decreasing the soil pH (Dakora and Phillips 2002). On
509 the other hand, this relationship between soil acidity and a conservative root strategy could be
510 linked to the effects of the litter compounds of these species (with a high C:N ratio and high
511 LMA) on soil. The accumulation of litter with a high C:N ratio, such as that of coniferous
512 species, tends to have an acidifying effect on soil (Augusto et al. 1998; Sariyildiz et al. 2005;
513 Alameda et al. 2012). As a consequence, soil pH usually decreases after the afforestation of
514 grasslands or former agricultural lands with coniferous species (Jug et al. 1999; Sauer et al.
515 2007; Berthrong et al. 2012). The analysis of the amount and quality of root exudates would
516 be needed to elucidate the causes behind the observed relationship between soil pH and RMA,
517 besides the indirect effects of litter traits on soil chemistry. In any case, as suggested by

518 Laliberté (2017), it would be worth including root exudation as a physiological trait to
519 advance in trait-based plant ecology.

520 In metal-rich soils low pH usually leads to a higher solubility of these elements and
521 therefore to a high availability to roots. In this trace-element polluted site, we observed some
522 significant relationships between soil metal content and some root traits; in particular, RDMC
523 was positively correlated to the soil content of Mn, Ni and Cd. One of the first symptoms of
524 plant toxicity to soil metals is the inhibition of root elongation (Kahle 1993; Wisniewski and
525 Dickinson 2003). Other responses to metal toxicity are: collapsing of root hairs, increments of
526 suberification and lignification, decrease of vessel diameter and structural alterations of
527 hypodermis and endodermis (Arduini et al. 1994; Barceló and Poschenrieder 2004).
528 Experimental exposure of *Quercus ilex* roots to Cd resulted in a decline in fine root
529 production and in a reduction in the length of taproots (Domínguez et al. 2009), linked to a
530 high capacity to retain Cd at the root level, likely by binding Cd to cell wall pectins. Thus, the
531 links between pH, soil metal content, and RDMC observed in this study could also indicate a
532 trend towards a more conservative strategy at the root level to promote the immobilization of
533 these metals in the rhizosphere, avoiding their translocation to the aboveground biomass.

534 The root chemical traits were related to the availability in the soil for some nutrients
535 (K, Mn, Na and Zn), as expected. However, the concentrations of many other elements in the
536 roots were relatively independent of the soil conditions; this weak coupling between the soil
537 and plant concentrations of chemical elements has been found in other studies (Ladanai et al.
538 2010; Zhao et al. 2016). The uptake and accumulation of nutrients in roots is a complex
539 process which depends on numerous factors - such as the relative allocation within the plant,
540 the developmental stage, the plant species and the environmental conditions (Lambers et al.
541 2008). More research is needed to understand how those factors affect the transfer of trace
542 elements from the soil to the roots.

543 A particularly-interesting root physiological trait is the potential to reduce metal
544 availability in soil, by several mechanisms like precipitation of metals, their complexation
545 with organic products, their sorption onto root surfaces or their accumulation inside root
546 tissues (Mendez and Maier 2008). The planting of tree species with higher phytostabilisation
547 potential would improve and remediate metal-contaminated soils (Madejón et al. 2018b). In
548 fact, one of the criteria used to select the best-suited tree species is to have a high
549 bioconcentration factor (root:soil ratio) for different metals, in particular for those with
550 harmful effects (i.e. Cd and Pb) (Madejón et al. 2018b).

551

552 **Conclusion**

553 There is increasing interest in advancing our knowledge about root traits because of their
554 often-overlooked but essential contribution to plant functional ecology. Our results reinforce
555 the existence of a root economics spectrum (RES) as the main determinant of fine root traits
556 in Mediterranean trees, even in soil contaminated by heavy metals. However, this study also
557 supports the idea of root multifunctionality and the importance of fine root dimensions
558 independent of the RES; namely, root carbon concentration, fractionation of nitrogen isotopes
559 as a time-integrated trait of mycorrhizal-mediated nutrition, and the ability to bind trace
560 elements in root cells (associated with tolerance of high levels of metals in soils). We found
561 that roots and leaves were functionally coordinated; however, most of trace elements showed
562 strong root-leaf discordance. We also found links between soil pH, soil metal content, and
563 root traits (RDMC) promoting the immobilization of metals in the rhizosphere. In summary,
564 the rhizosphere is a complex environment where soil, roots and microorganisms interact in
565 feedback processes. An understanding of the multifunctionality of root traits would help us to
566 predict the forest responses to global changes and the provision of soil-based ecosystem
567 services.

568

569 **Acknowledgements**

570 This work was financially supported by the European Union Seventh Framework
571 Programme (FP7/2007–2013) (Grant No. 603498- RECARE), the Spanish Ministry of
572 Science, Innovation and Universities (Grants No. CGL2014-52858-R-RESTECO, CGL2017-
573 82254-R-INTARSU, and CGL2014-53236-R- ECO-MEDIT), and European FEDER funds.
574 MG-M was supported by the Spanish Ministry of Economy and Competitiveness (Grant No.
575 BES-2015-073882), and MTD by the Universidad de Sevilla (Contrato de Acceso, V Plan
576 Propio de Investigación). We thank J. M. Murillo and J.M. Alegre for their help in the field
577 work, the IRNAS Analytical Service for multielement analyses of plants and soil, and the
578 EBD-CSIC Laboratory of Stable Isotopes for determinations of $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ and $\delta^{13}\text{C}$.

579

580 **Conflict of interest**

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

582

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Table 1. Correlations between root traits and analogous leaf traits (n=34), and between root chemical traits and soil availability of elements (n=35). Soil availability (CaCl₂ extracted) of As and Pb were below detectable limits. Pearson's test coefficient *r* and *p* values are indicated; significant values (*p*<0.05) are in bold. RMA: root mass per area; LMA: leaf mass per area; LDMC: leaf dry matter content; RDMC: root dry matter content.

Trait	Root-leaf		Root-soil	
	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>
RMA/LMA	0.548	0.001	-	-
LDMC/RDMC	0.371	0.031	-	-
C	0.553	0.001	-0.110	0.528
N	0.018	0.920	-0.020	0.910
P	0.486	0.004	-0.111	0.526
K	0.289	0.098	0.379	0.025
Ca	0.826	<0.001	0.166	0.340
Mg	0.393	0.021	0.163	0.348
B	0.075	0.675	0.025	0.887
Co	-0.250	0.154	0.380	0.024
Cu	0.087	0.623	-0.002	0.990
Fe	0.131	0.461	-0.073	0.678
Mn	-0.023	0.897	0.357	0.035
Na	0.051	0.775	0.596	<0.001
Ni	-0.070	0.695	-0.031	0.861
S	0.023	0.899	0.134	0.441
Zn	-0.093	0.602	0.346	0.042
As	-0.001	0.998	-	-
Ba	0.516	0.002	-0.028	0.872
Cd	0.019	0.914	0.071	0.686
Pb	0.331	0.056	-	-
Sr	0.774	<0.001	0.381	0.024
δ ¹³ C	0.391	0.022	-0.174	0.317
δ ¹⁵ N	0.165	0.351	0.437	0.009

Figure legends

Figure 1. Variation among tree species in root mass per area (RMA, g m⁻²). Mean and SE (n=5) bars are shown; letters indicate significant differences between the tree species (Tukey's post-hoc test). Deciduous species are marked in grey and evergreen species in black.

Figure 2. Results of the principal component analysis of 27 root traits of seven tree species (n=35). Scores of trait variables and tree samples are represented in the plane defined by first (PC1) and second (PC2) axes. Abbreviations of root traits are: RMA: root mass per area; RDMC: root dry matter content, RDI: root mean diameter; RTD: root tissue density; SRL: specific root length; and for tree species names are: C.a.: *Celtis australis*; C.s.: *Ceratonia siliqua*; F.a.: *Fraxinus angustifolia*; O.e.: *Olea europaea*; P.a.: *Populus alba*; P.p.: *Pinus pinea*; Q.i.: *Quercus ilex*. Symbol fills are in grey for deciduous and in black for evergreen species.

Figure 3. Correlogram across morphological and chemical root traits, ordered according to their correlation coefficients. The strength and direction of the correlations are indicated by the circle size and the colour, shown in the right side scale. RTD: root tissue density; RDMC: root dry matter content; RMA: root mass per area; RDI: root mean diameter; SRL: specific root length.

Figure 4. Correlation analysis between the main variation trends (PCA axis 1 scores) in leaf and root, comparing 24 analogous traits ($r=0.59$, $p=0.0003$). Abbreviations of tree species names are: C.a.: *Celtis australis*; C.s.: *Ceratonia siliqua*; F.a.: *Fraxinus angustifolia*; O.e.: *Olea europaea*; P.a.: *Populus alba*; P.p.: *Pinus pinea*; Q.i.: *Quercus ilex*. Symbol fills are in grey for deciduous and in black for evergreen species.

Figure 1

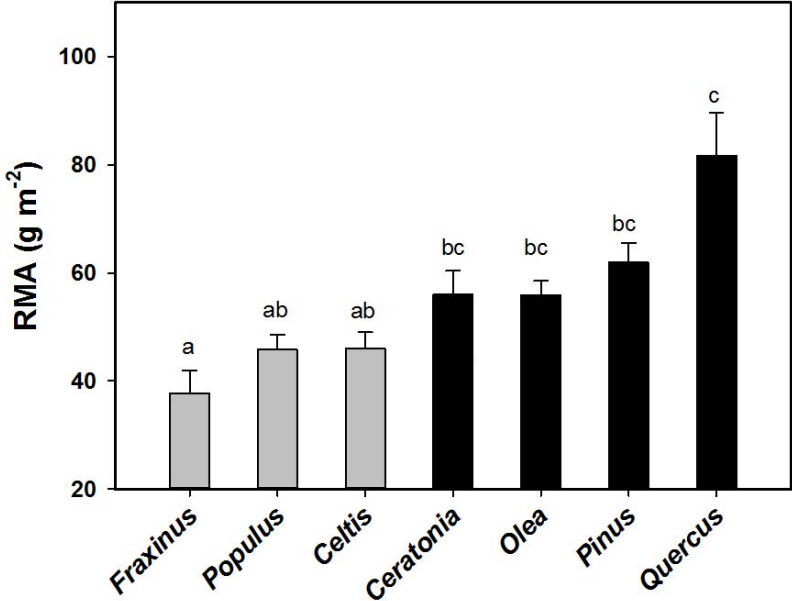


Figure 2

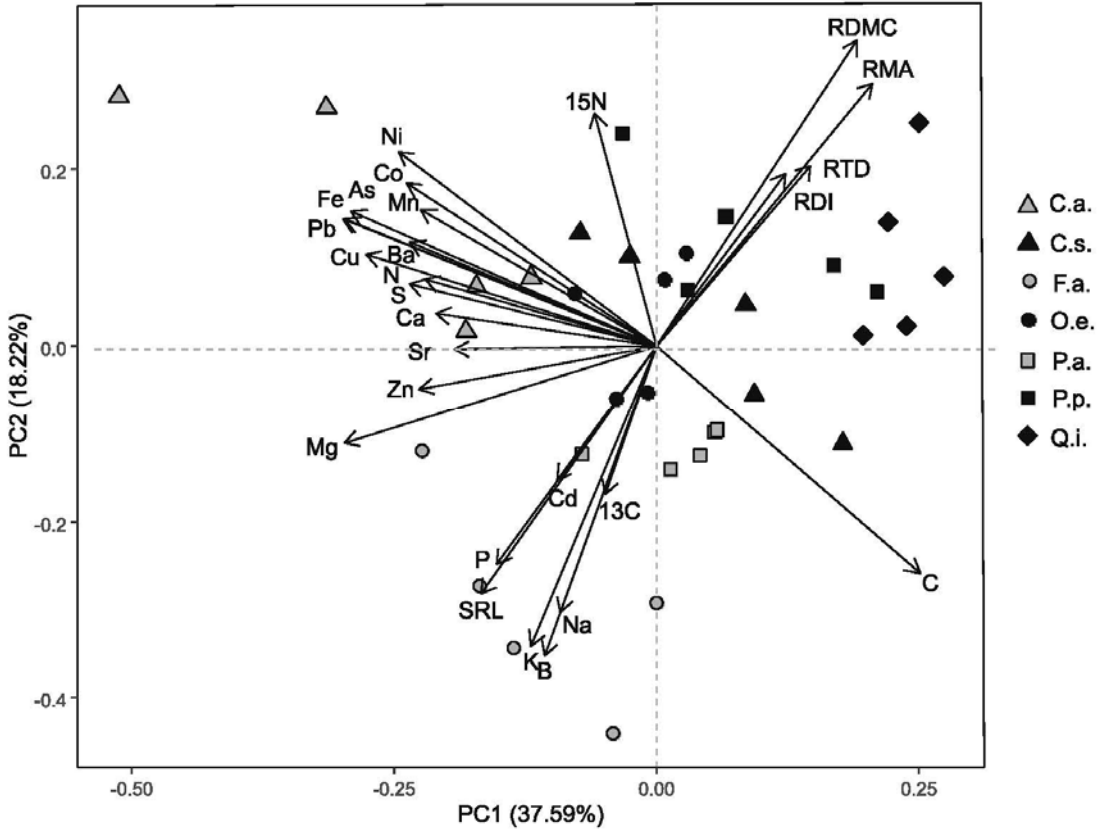


Figure 3

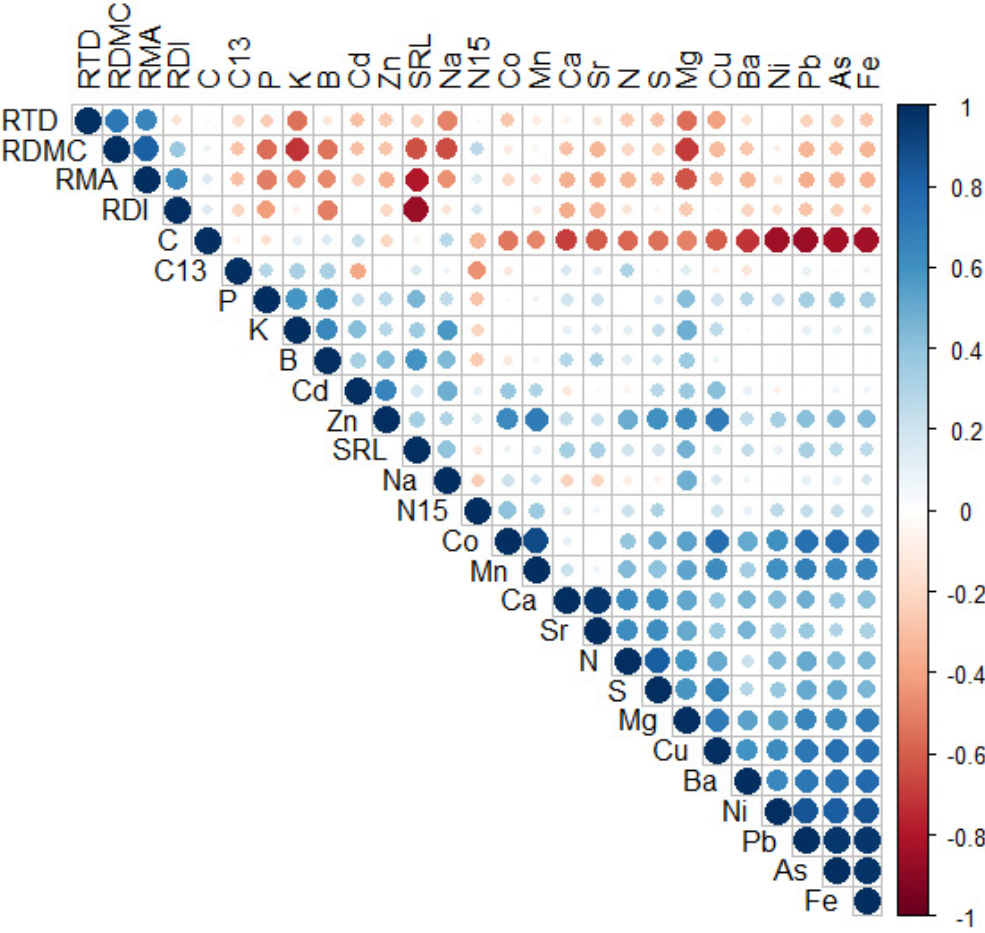
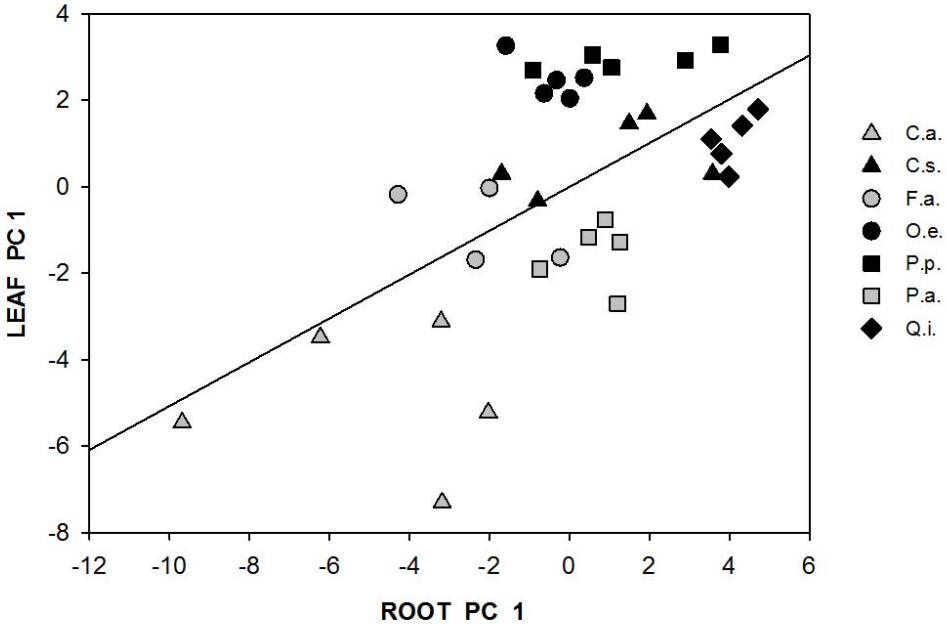


Figure 4



Electronic Supplemental Material (ESM)

Variation in morphological and chemical traits of Mediterranean tree roots: linkage with leaf traits and soil conditions

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Appendix A

Descriptive overview of root and leaf traits of seven tree species in the Guadiamar Green Corridor, SW Spain

Variation patterns and correlations among root traits

The variation in morphological root traits among individual trees (measured by CV) ranged from 21.1% (for RTD) up to 51.1% (SRL); whereas the CV of chemical traits ranged from 3.7% (for $\delta^{13}\text{C}$) up to 94.2% (As) (Fig. S1). There were significant differences among tree species for 26 out of the 27 root traits, with the exception of $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ (Table S1). For example, RMA trait showed extreme values for *Fraxinus* (mean of 38, with minimum of 26 g m⁻²) and *Quercus* (mean of 82, with maximum of 109 g m⁻²), and intermediate for the other species.

Root mass per area was a key root trait, positively correlated with other morphological traits (i. e. RDMC, RTD and RDI) but negatively correlated with SRL. There was also a significant and negative correlation between RMA and the concentration of major nutrients (N, Ca, Mg, K and P), some micronutrients (B, Fe, Na and Zn) and even with some non-essential elements (As, Pb and Sr). On the contrary, RMA was not correlated with the root concentration of carbon nor sulphur, neither with other trace elements (Cd, Co, Cu, Mn, Ni and S) nor with $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$.

Specific root length, another key root trait widely used, was negatively correlated with all morphological traits (except with RTD), and positively correlated with seven elements (B, P, Mg, Na, Pb, Ca and Sr). Interestingly, SRL was correlated neither with root carbon nor with nitrogen.

The concentrations of carbon and nitrogen in roots were negatively correlated between them. Carbon was negatively correlated with most of the chemical elements, in special with Fe, Pb, As and Ni, while nitrogen was positively correlated with Ca, S, Mg and Cu. Magnesium

concentration in roots was correlated with all other chemical elements; in contrast, root potassium and phosphorus correlated only with some chemical elements.

Isotopic composition of carbon ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$) in roots was negatively correlated with isotopic composition of nitrogen ($\delta^{15}\text{N}$) and Cd concentration. Root $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ was negatively correlated with carbon and positively with Mn and Co concentrations.

Root traits showed a strong variation among individual trees and differed significantly among tree species (Fig. S1 and Table S1). In general, root macronutrients were less variable than micronutrients; this difference may be related to nutrients limitation and internal regulation. Chemical elements under biological control, like carbon, nitrogen and phosphorus, showed lower variability. In contrast, non-essential trace elements (i.e. As and Pb) were highly variable; the reason may be that plants take up non-limiting elements in concentrations exceeding physiological needs and they tend to be highly variable (Ladanai et al. 2010). According to the hypothesis of stability of limiting elements, those elements most required for plant growth (macronutrients) would be less variable and would present a lower sensitivity to environmental variation (Zhao et al. 2016).

Carbon isotope ratio ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$) was the less variable root trait but still presented significant differences among tree species. Root $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ is mostly influenced by the isotope signature of photosynthate transported from leaves, and by some fractionation during that transport. Ouimette et al. (2013) found small enrichment in ^{13}C with decreasing root order, expected because their higher distance from foliage, although acknowledging also the importance of stored carbon reserves in the root construction. On the other hand, nitrogen isotope ratio ($\delta^{15}\text{N}$) in roots was much more variable among trees than $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (Fig. S1), but the differences among tree species were not significant, probably due to the high individual variability. The variation of root $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ is mostly influenced by the isotope signature of surrounding soil and the discrimination of associated mycorrhizal fungi (Hobbie and Högberg 2012, Ouimette et al.

2013). We found a depletion of ^{15}N from root to leaf in ectomycorrhizal trees that could be related to the preferential retention of ^{15}N by the fungal biomass (Craine et al. 2015).

There was a general consistency in the correlations across root traits. The key morphological traits RMA and SRL, which are indicators of the root uptake potential, correlated with other morphological traits (i. e. RDMC, RTD and RDI). A correlation was also found of RMA and SRL with most of the root chemical elements, including major nutrients (N, P, K, Ca and Mg) which support these traits absorption function. In the case of phosphorus and potassium, both nutrients enter the roots mainly by diffusion from the bulk soil to the root surface (although the diffusion coefficient is relatively large for potassium and very low for phosphorus; Lambers et al. 2008); therefore a negative correlation between their uptake and RMA (but positive with SRL) would be expected.

Variations in aboveground traits

There were significant differences among tree species for all aboveground traits, with the exception of $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (Table S3). The main variation trend (first PCA axis, accounting for 27% of variance) ordered the aboveground traits according to the leaf economics spectrum, separating LMA and leaf carbon, from Ca, Fe and other elements (Sr, Ba, Na) (Fig. S3). This first axis of leaf traits clearly separated deciduous and evergreen tree species. The secondary trend (second PCA axis, accounting for 18% of variance) was explained by tree size (HEIG) and leaf Cd and Zn concentrations, clearly separating *Populus* trees (the tallest tree species and the highest Cd and Zn accumulators) from the rest of species. On the opposite side, slower-growth *Quercus* and *Olea* species were associated with higher LMA and LDMC, and higher leaf Mn concentrations.

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Table S1. Mean values \pm SE (n=5) of **root traits** of the studied tree species. *F*-statistics from one-way ANOVA test or *Chi-square-value* from Kruskal Wallis test (marked with ^Ksuperscript) are indicated, depending on data normality and homoscedasticity. Significant level is $p < 0.05$ (in bold). The type of colonization with ectomycorrhizal (ECM) and arbuscular mycorrhizal (AM) fungi that the different species can form is also indicated. RDI: root mean diameter; RDMC: root dry matter content; RTD: root tissue density; SRA: specific root area; SRL: specific root length.

	<i>Celtis australis</i>		<i>Ceratonia siliqua</i>		<i>Fraxinus angustifolia</i>		<i>Olea europaea</i>		<i>Pinus pinea</i>		<i>Populus alba</i>		<i>Quercus ilex</i>		Effect of tree species	
	Mean	SE	Mean	SE	Mean	SE	Mean	SE	Mean	SE	Mean	SE	Mean	SE	Statistic	<i>p</i>
Structural																
RDI (mm)	0.35	0.01	0.53	0.04	0.40	0.05	0.50	0.01	0.49	0.02	0.36	0.04	0.49	0.03	15.9 ^K	0.01
RDMC (mg g ⁻¹)	306.4	26.3	314.1	12.7	198.1	16.6	304.4	17.5	368.0	10.2	297.3	11.4	431.8	12.4	25.6 ^K	<0.01
RMA (g m ⁻²)	46.0	3.0	56.0	4.5	37.8	4.2	55.9	2.6	61.9	3.7	45.8	2.9	81.7	7.9	10.4	<0.01
RTD (mg cm ⁻³)	520.2	23.9	426.8	22.0	383.6	36.1	446.7	18.5	513.5	35.0	519.3	41.7	659.0	31.0	8.4	<0.01
SRL (m g ⁻¹)	20.1	1.7	11.6	1.8	24.2	4.9	11.5	0.8	10.9	0.9	21.0	3.9	8.5	1.2	7.5	<0.01
Root chemistry																
C (%)	37.8	2.0	43.9	0.8	46.2	0.6	43.6	0.5	45.3	0.8	44.6	0.3	45.8	0.1	19.9 ^K	<0.01
N (%)	1.83	0.23	1.35	0.19	0.99	0.05	1.18	0.05	0.59	0.04	0.78	0.03	0.53	0.04	29.6	<0.01
P (mg kg ⁻¹)	900.7	109.4	633.0	63.1	1142.0	76.2	808.4	45.6	560.7	44.9	1120.2	54.7	720.1	54.5	11.4	<0.01
K (mg kg ⁻¹)	6326.2	689.1	7490.7	542.5	12784.5	619.7	6156.2	906.3	4374.8	219.5	6640.5	619.5	5911.5	653.4	12.8	<0.01
Ca (mg kg ⁻¹)	29278.5	4358.8	15495.0	3665.3	9448.2	434.5	7138.8	614.9	3278.3	130.4	16260.8	1453.0	4542.9	554.3	28.8 ^K	<0.01
Mg (mg kg ⁻¹)	2060.1	132.7	1373.5	150.2	2005.5	109.9	1798.9	215.0	1193.5	61.2	1440.7	126.0	532.2	19.7	42.5	<0.01
S (mg kg ⁻¹)	3180.1	510.5	2646.5	762.8	2097.9	232.9	1718.6	173.7	1342.3	160.3	1981.7	241.8	904.2	121.0	6.4	<0.01
As (mg kg ⁻¹)	22.2	7.2	5.2	0.9	10.7	2.2	11.6	1.4	7.8	2.8	6.5	1.6	1.9	0.4	8.8	<0.01
B (mg kg ⁻¹)	16.8	1.5	11.7	1.1	24.4	2.5	12.3	1.3	9.2	0.3	19.4	1.2	13.9	0.8	26.5 ^K	<0.01
Ba (mg kg ⁻¹)	16.7	3.8	10.1	1.5	10.6	1.1	13.0	1.4	11.8	1.6	13.4	1.8	5.9	1.5	2.9	0.03
Cd (mg kg ⁻¹)	0.80	0.17	1.13	0.36	2.36	0.46	0.95	0.15	1.90	0.16	1.49	0.17	0.67	0.10	6.5	<0.01
Co (mg kg ⁻¹)	3.54	0.83	1.25	0.36	2.45	0.55	2.57	0.18	3.07	0.59	1.05	0.16	1.07	0.23	4.6	<0.01
Cu (mg kg ⁻¹)	138.7	26.1	98.1	34.9	120.2	18.5	114.8	7.6	85.2	25.8	77.6	10.5	45.0	10.1	12.0 ^K	0.06
Fe (mg kg ⁻¹)	6070.2	1530.1	1729.7	270.8	3324.1	585.3	3924.8	277.2	2527.4	775.1	1825.0	292.6	652.3	133.0	10.9	<0.01
Mn (mg kg ⁻¹)	157.6	14.5	42.8	9.1	105.4	25.3	96.4	9.5	107.0	20.3	45.5	4.2	67.0	10.8	7.3	<0.01
Na (mg kg ⁻¹)	350.0	43.8	241.0	23.4	1644.9	170.6	912.1	208.4	809.3	36.5	364.6	72.0	119.6	14.0	30.3 ^K	<0.01
Ni (mg kg ⁻¹)	17.2	4.6	4.1	0.9	6.1	1.3	7.3	0.6	6.2	1.7	4.0	0.5	4.3	0.5	16.9 ^K	0.01
Pb (mg kg ⁻¹)	74.9	17.0	15.3	2.7	35.2	7.8	36.0	5.4	22.7	7.6	16.7	2.8	6.4	1.4	11.5	<0.01
Sr (mg kg ⁻¹)	48.3	6.8	34.4	7.6	18.8	1.2	13.8	1.6	6.1	0.3	35.3	4.4	6.9	0.6	32.9	<0.01
Zn (mg kg ⁻¹)	172.9	22.7	107.5	30.7	187.0	42.7	138.0	12.4	118.2	9.7	130.3	18.8	76.8	11.9	13.5 ^K	0.04
Root isotopes																
$\delta^{13}\text{C}$ (‰)	-25.9	0.2	-26.3	0.6	-26.0	0.4	-25.9	0.3	-27.9	0.3	-26.8	0.3	-26.2	0.3	15.7 ^K	0.02
$\delta^{15}\text{N}$ (‰)	2.14	0.31	1.48	0.77	1.06	0.45	0.90	0.42	2.13	0.30	1.01	0.19	1.69	0.08	1.6	0.19
Mycorrhizal type																
AM	Yes		Yes		Yes		Yes		Yes		Yes		Yes			
ECM	No		No		No		No		Yes		Yes		Yes			

Table S2. Results of the principal component analyses (PCA) for the six key root traits (see ordination in Figure S2) and for all 27 traits (see Figure 2), indicating variance explained by the three main axes and standardized factor loading of each root trait. The highest scores (in absolute value) for each axis are marked in bold. See main text for abbreviations of trait names.

<i>Traits</i>	<i>6 key traits PCA</i>			<i>All-traits PCA</i>		
	<i>Axis 1</i> (57.3%)	<i>Axis 2</i> (23.4%)	<i>Axis 3</i> (14.7%)	<i>Axis 1</i> (37.6%)	<i>Axis 2</i> (18.2%)	<i>Axis 3</i> (11.0%)
RMA	0.97	-0.06	0.05	0.61	0.61	0.13
SRL	-0.87	-0.42	-0.04	-0.49	-0.58	-0.23
RDMC	0.87	-0.28	0.23	0.56	0.71	-0.01
RTD	0.60	-0.76	0.16	0.43	0.42	-0.31
RDI	0.68	0.71	-0.06	0.36	0.40	0.45
N	-0.38	0.25	0.89	-0.65	0.15	-0.26
C				0.74	-0.53	0.34
Ca				-0.62	0.07	-0.62
Mg				-0.88	-0.23	0.09
K				-0.35	-0.70	0.17
S				-0.70	0.14	-0.05
P				-0.45	-0.51	-0.11
As				-0.86	0.31	0.04
B				-0.31	-0.72	-0.12
Ba				-0.69	0.24	-0.09
Cd				-0.28	-0.31	0.69
Co				-0.70	0.38	0.50
Cu				-0.82	0.21	0.30
Fe				-0.88	0.29	0.06
Mn				-0.66	0.32	0.37
Na				-0.27	-0.62	0.51
Ni				-0.73	0.45	-0.08
Pb				-0.88	0.29	-0.04
Sr				-0.57	-0.01	-0.61
Zn				-0.67	-0.10	0.40
δ¹³C				-0.14	-0.35	-0.41
δ¹⁵N				-0.17	0.54	0.21

Table S3. Mean values and SE (n=5) of **aboveground traits** of the studied tree species (except n=4 for leaf traits of *Fraxinus*). *F*-statistics from one-way ANOVA test or *Chi-square-value* from Kruskal Wallis test (marked with ^Ksuperscript) are shown, depending on data normality and homoscedasticity. Significant level is *p* < 0.05 (in bold). LDMC: leaf dry matter content; LMA: leaf mass per area; RDI: root mean diameter; SRL: specific root length; SDMC: stem dry matter content; SWD: stem wood density; HEI: tree height; CRP: crown projection area; LITT: litter accumulation on soil surface.

	<i>Celtis australis</i>		<i>Ceratonia siliqua</i>		<i>Fraxinus angustifolia</i>		<i>Olea europaea</i>		<i>Pinus pinea</i>		<i>Populus alba</i>		<i>Quercus ilex</i>		Effect of tree species	
	Mean	SE	Mean	SE	Mean	SE	Mean	SE	Mean	SE	Mean	SE	Mean	SE	Statistic	<i>p</i>
Structural																
LDMC (mg g ⁻¹)	501.2	8.7	398.3	14.0	409.9	34.1	510.0	15.4	397.1	18.9	466.6	8.0	548.1	12.4	14.0	<0.01
LMA (g m ⁻²)	153.1	12.1	157.4	13.1	107.8	6.7	237.4	19.2	310.8	17.0	111.4	6.8	229.0	11.0	30.3 ^K	<0.01
SDMC (mg g ⁻¹)	571.4	9.5	381.9	17.5	551.7	21.9	478.2	30.0	357.4	6.4	492.7	13.0	526.7	4.9	26.0	<0.01
SWD (mg cm ⁻³)	796.3	37.9	829.2	85.7	861.1	30.8	878.6	60.8	520.8	29.4	780.0	57.2	909.6	80.4	5.0	<0.01
Leaf chemistry																
C (%)	41.5	0.5	50.3	0.5	46.5	0.8	50.1	0.7	49.8	0.1	46.6	0.4	48.8	0.2	42.8	<0.01
N (%)	1.33	0.10	1.53	0.11	1.91	0.22	1.28	0.09	1.28	0.07	1.57	0.08	1.31	0.02	4.6	<0.01
P (mg kg ⁻¹)	671.3	56.6	759.9	81.3	1584.7	275.7	815.5	71.0	630.4	67.8	1103.6	103.4	911.2	55.5	9.9	<0.01
K (mg kg ⁻¹)	6605.2	371.3	7324.1	767.7	8514.2	845.6	9744.1	553.6	5076.9	265.0	7241.5	354.2	5392.1	250.1	11.1	<0.01
Ca (mg kg ⁻¹)	57421.4	5032.2	19745.1	3081.3	27183.0	3898.4	10313.9	723.2	3615.3	51.3	23154.7	1677.0	6755.1	554.5	31.1 ^K	<0.01
Mg (mg kg ⁻¹)	3238.2	242.6	2228.6	162.1	3361.0	684.1	836.2	122.2	2472.4	80.9	3698.3	482.5	1079.2	58.1	14.1	<0.01
S (mg kg ⁻¹)	556.2	52.1	1826.1	202.5	7070.7	1375.6	1633.8	122.3	822.6	38.3	2532.2	521.9	668.1	77.0	51.0	<0.01
As (mg kg ⁻¹)	0.22	0.10	0.07	0.05	0.67	0.03	0.62	0.04	0.71	0.14	0.62	0.11	0.43	0.06	21.9 ^K	<0.01
B (mg kg ⁻¹)	87.8	10.4	53.1	6.3	18.7	1.1	13.3	0.9	35.2	2.1	77.7	8.2	79.0	7.2	81.5	<0.01
Ba (mg kg ⁻¹)	17.9	4.1	5.7	0.8	6.4	1.1	2.3	0.8	0.3	0.0	8.9	1.2	6.1	1.1	51.9	<0.01
Cd (mg kg ⁻¹)	0.18	0.03	0.27	0.07	0.06	0.02	0.05	0.00	0.09	0.01	2.86	0.90	0.14	0.03	24.7 ^K	<0.01
Co (mg kg ⁻¹)	0.19	0.04	0.23	0.03	0.32	0.05	0.35	0.04	0.82	0.05	1.37	0.20	0.41	0.02	32.4	<0.01
Cu (mg kg ⁻¹)	11.5	3.6	3.4	0.4	10.2	1.8	7.1	0.7	2.5	0.2	8.9	0.7	6.5	0.3	25.6 ^K	<0.01
Fe (mg kg ⁻¹)	157.2	17.3	72.9	10.1	111.9	18.4	58.7	2.3	66.6	4.7	102.1	13.3	116.8	16.0	7.9	<0.01
Mn (mg kg ⁻¹)	150.6	27.1	53.3	11.2	27.3	4.9	24.8	1.6	151.1	20.3	87.6	16.6	526.4	93.8	32.2	<0.01
Na (mg kg ⁻¹)	715.9	49.0	227.5	30.5	493.1	91.6	159.1	28.7	89.9	24.5	325.1	36.0	131.3	19.4	31.4	<0.01
Ni (mg kg ⁻¹)	0.52	0.07	0.69	0.09	1.84	0.36	2.19	0.67	0.97	0.18	1.48	0.28	0.63	0.12	6.0	<0.01
Pb (mg kg ⁻¹)	1.54	0.52	0.28	0.11	0.61	0.10	0.64	0.11	0.56	0.09	0.76	0.11	0.88	0.21	14.5 ^K	0.03
Sr (mg kg ⁻¹)	106.4	10.0	38.3	6.4	43.6	8.9	14.3	2.2	2.7	0.2	58.2	5.4	7.4	0.5	117.3	<0.01
Zn (mg kg ⁻¹)	57.0	17.0	36.8	9.2	13.9	2.7	40.2	8.1	52.3	4.8	524.6	66.7	60.1	12.9	32.7	<0.01
Leaf isotopes																
δ ¹³ C (‰)	-27.2	0.2	-26.9	1.0	-27.2	0.3	-26.5	0.3	-27.4	0.2	-28.3	0.5	-27.8	0.3	1.7	0.17
δ ¹⁵ N (‰)	4.30	0.61	3.95	0.56	1.59	0.42	1.49	0.46	1.09	0.38	0.69	0.22	0.97	0.27	12.1	<0.01
Whole tree																
HEIG (m)	6.1	0.5	7.2	0.4	6.6	0.3	4.2	0.3	9.0	0.4	11.7	1.3	3.9	0.2	33.4	<0.01
CRP (m ²)	79.0	9.3	64.3	10.4	53.8	5.3	42.0	6.5	97.3	14.0	176.7	44.5	22.2	4.5	14.1	<0.01
LITT (Kg)	35.4	4.6	84.9	21.6	10.9	3.0	14.0	1.9	95.4	13.1	63.7	21.9	12.9	3.8	25.3 ^K	<0.01

Table S4. Comparison between root traits of trees, according to their leaf habit (deciduous or evergreen); trait units are like in Table S1. They have been ranked by the significance level (ANOVA's *F* and *p*) marking the difference between leaf habits. Significant level is *p* < 0.05 (in bold). SRL: specific root length; RDI: root mean diameter; RMA: root mass area; RDMC: root dry matter content; RTD: root tissue density.

Root trait	Deciduous (n=15)		Evergreen (n=20)		ANOVA statistics	
	Mean	SE	Mean	SE	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
B	20.21	1.29	11.77	0.58	42.4	<0.001
P	1054.3	53.2	680.5	32.2	40.0	<0.001
SRL	21.76	2.05	10.62	0.65	33.7	<0.001
RDI	0.37	0.02	0.50	0.01	27.9	<0.001
RMA	43.20	2.08	63.89	3.34	23.2	<0.001
RDMC	267.3	16.6	354.6	13.2	17.4	<0.001
Ca	18329.2	2619.7	7613.8	1391.3	14.9	<0.001
Mg	1835.4	99.7	1224.5	121.6	13.7	<0.001
Sr	34.15	4.10	15.29	3.17	13.7	<0.001
K	8583.7	865.9	5983.3	384.9	8.9	0.005
Zn	163.4	17.3	110.1	9.80	8.1	0.008
Pb	42.28	8.72	20.10	3.36	6.9	0.013
As	13.15	2.97	6.62	1.10	5.2	0.029
S	2419.9	237.4	1652.9	236.7	5.0	0.032
Fe	3739.8	696.0	2208.6	339.8	4.6	0.040
Ba	13.57	1.50	10.17	0.92	4.1	0.051
Ni	9.11	2.14	5.49	0.57	3.4	0.073
N	1.20	0.14	0.92	0.09	3.0	0.092
C	42.9	1.17	44.6	0.36	2.7	0.111
Cu	112.2	12.4	85.8	11.9	2.3	0.141
Mn	102.8	15.3	78.3	8.4	2.2	0.143
Cd	1.55	0.23	1.16	0.14	2.2	0.148
Na	786.5	172.5	520.5	93.0	2.1	0.157
RTD	474.3	25.3	511.5	24.4	1.1	0.305
δ¹³C	-26.2	0.19	-26.6	0.25	1.0	0.314
Co	2.35	0.4	1.99	0.5	0.6	0.444
δ¹⁵N	1.40	0.2	1.55	0.2	0.2	0.664

Table S5. Mean values and SE (n=5) of **topsoil parameters** (0-10cm depth) associated to the studied tree species, and adjacent open sites, for comparison; pH, organic C, total N, available concentrations of nutrients and trace elements, and C and N isotope ratios. *F*-statistics from one-way ANOVA test or *Chi-square-value* from Kruskal Wallis test (marked with ^Ksuperscript) are indicated, depending on data normality and homoscedasticity (only soil samples under trees were compared). Significant level is $p < 0.05$ (in bold).

	<i>Celtis australis</i>		<i>Ceratonia siliqua</i>		<i>Fraxinus angustifolia</i>		<i>Olea europaea</i>		<i>Pinus pinea</i>		<i>Populus alba</i>		<i>Quercus ilex</i>		Without tree		Effect of tree species	
	Mean	SE	Mean	SE	Mean	SE	Mean	SE	Mean	SE	Mean	SE	Mean	SE	Mean	SE	Statistic	<i>p</i>
Soil chemistry																		
pH	4.2	0.5	4.7	0.4	4.9	0.4	3.9	0.2	3.2	0.2	4.7	0.4	3.6	0.2	4.0	0.3	3.3	0.01
Org. C (%)	1.62	0.13	1.90	0.25	1.79	0.27	1.76	0.15	1.14	0.11	1.57	0.31	1.45	0.18	1.35	0.09	1.6	0.18
N (%)	0.12	0.01	0.14	0.01	0.17	0.03	0.16	0.01	0.12	0.01	0.15	0.02	0.14	0.02	0.11	0.01	7.6 ^K	0.27
P (mg kg ⁻¹)	14.9	5.0	13.0	1.7	13.4	2.7	9.3	1.1	15.9	2.6	13.3	1.6	10.9	0.8	13.4	3.6	5.3 ^K	0.51
K (mg kg ⁻¹)	89.8	32.3	223.2	46.2	210.6	36.9	190.4	35.4	124.4	20.5	189.6	28.5	131.0	27.4	151.8	23.7	2.3	0.07
Ca (mg kg ⁻¹)	2196.0	289.7	1988.0	271.8	1964.0	314.7	1360.2	233.0	1870.0	393.2	1674.0	220.5	1482.8	327.5	1310.0	92.8	1.0	0.44
Mg (mg kg ⁻¹)	125.5	27.0	138.8	25.2	126.2	14.1	95.1	10.6	99.1	19.3	131.7	24.5	70.3	6.8	92.8	9.4	10.0 ^K	0.12
S (mg kg ⁻¹)	1228.5	939.0	35.3	17.4	227.7	175.6	187.0	170.7	1318.3	448.3	196.9	153.4	612.9	330.5	337.7	320.5	14.8 ^K	0.02
As (mg kg ⁻¹)	<0.01	-	<0.01	-	<0.01	-	<0.01	-	<0.01	-	<0.01	-	<0.01	-	<0.01	-	-	-
B (mg kg ⁻¹)	0.83	0.19	0.78	0.16	0.40	0.03	0.32	0.02	0.34	0.08	0.63	0.09	0.42	0.05	0.35	0.03	5.5 ^K	<0.01
Ba (mg kg ⁻¹)	0.40	0.15	1.73	0.34	0.88	0.16	1.32	0.23	0.66	0.12	0.68	0.14	1.28	0.62	1.90	0.37	13.5 ^K	0.04
Cd (mg kg ⁻¹)	0.15	0.08	0.09	0.03	0.12	0.06	0.16	0.02	0.19	0.04	0.06	0.04	0.17	0.03	0.12	0.03	1.0	0.44
Co (mg kg ⁻¹)	0.42	0.34	0.08	0.03	0.17	0.11	0.29	0.09	0.70	0.21	0.08	0.07	0.29	0.10	0.23	0.18	14.5 ^K	0.03
Cu (mg kg ⁻¹)	5.97	5.11	0.56	0.15	0.71	0.26	1.54	0.48	5.83	2.08	1.34	1.15	2.63	0.91	1.68	1.45	11.1 ^K	0.08
Fe (mg kg ⁻¹)	21.0	19.2	1.6	0.4	1.5	0.3	2.1	0.4	4.6	1.6	1.8	0.3	2.3	0.5	2.4	1.2	1.7	0.15
Mn (mg kg ⁻¹)	18.6	10.8	9.2	2.7	12.1	6.3	17.8	3.2	31.2	7.6	8.2	3.2	23.6	4.0	20.6	7.4	14.4 ^K	0.03
Na (mg kg ⁻¹)	43.8	2.6	50.3	1.2	54.9	4.9	55.4	2.3	49.7	1.4	41.8	2.5	42.3	1.7	45.3	5.1	4.8	0.02
Ni (mg kg ⁻¹)	0.32	0.22	0.15	0.06	0.19	0.09	0.32	0.06	0.54	0.14	0.15	0.07	0.44	0.09	0.43	0.09	12.2 ^K	0.06
Pb (mg kg ⁻¹)	<0.01	-	<0.01	-	<0.01	-	<0.01	-	0.02	0.01	0.11	0.02	0.15	0.03	0.09	0.06	-	-
Sr (mg kg ⁻¹)	3.11	0.20	3.91	0.34	3.26	0.32	2.94	0.31	2.47	0.27	3.25	0.36	2.69	0.22	3.58	0.29	2.5	0.05
Zn (mg kg ⁻¹)	26.8	20.9	7.1	3.3	10.4	6.7	15.7	3.3	28.1	8.9	5.3	3.8	15.7	2.3	12.5	5.1	10.8 ^K	0.10
Soil isotopes																		
δ ¹³ C (‰)	-27.3	0.2	-27.3	0.3	-27.3	0.2	-27.1	0.2	-26.6	0.3	-26.6	0.4	-27.0	0.2	-26.7	0.5	1.2	0.34
δ ¹⁵ N (‰)	2.97	0.29	2.46	0.71	2.23	0.45	2.20	0.26	2.05	0.27	1.80	0.43	1.37	0.64	0.69	0.34	1.2	0.35

Table S6. Correlations of root morphological traits with soil chemical variables (pH, organic C, total N, available concentrations of nutrients and trace elements, and C and N isotope ratios). Significant values ($p < 0.05$) are in bold. RMA: root mass per area; SRL: specific root length; RDI: root mean diameter; RDMC: root dry matter content; RTD: root tissue density.

Soil property	Morphofunctional root trait									
	RMA		SRL		RDI		RDMC		RTD	
	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>
pH	-0.51	0.002	0.35	0.040	-0.26	0.130	-0.57	<0.001	-0.42	0.013
C	-0.33	0.052	0.22	0.210	-0.07	0.690	-0.35	0.040	-0.35	0.041
N	-0.27	0.114	0.22	0.205	-0.07	0.704	-0.32	0.059	-0.30	0.076
P	-0.16	0.361	0.18	0.303	-0.22	0.194	0.09	0.597	0.03	0.856
K	-0.28	0.101	0.12	0.490	0.01	0.954	-0.41	0.014	-0.35	0.037
Ca	-0.32	0.061	0.32	0.061	-0.24	0.161	-0.20	0.252	-0.20	0.253
Mg	-0.40	0.016	0.27	0.123	-0.12	0.494	-0.29	0.095	-0.37	0.027
S	0.08	0.637	0.05	0.782	-0.14	0.420	0.32	0.058	0.25	0.142
B	-0.21	0.235	0.11	0.537	-0.13	0.473	-0.12	0.484	-0.09	0.600
Ba	0.13	0.451	-0.22	0.197	0.25	0.147	0.12	0.485	-0.04	0.834
Cd	0.26	0.127	-0.11	0.519	0.07	0.691	0.36	0.036	0.30	0.081
Co	0.13	0.459	-0.04	0.799	0.003	0.985	0.32	0.061	0.17	0.325
Cu	0.04	0.814	0.06	0.727	-0.10	0.552	0.33	0.052	0.16	0.354
Fe	-0.11	0.526	0.15	0.384	-0.22	0.211	0.19	0.261	0.08	0.632
Mn	0.28	0.100	-0.15	0.396	0.09	0.600	0.43	0.009	0.29	0.090
Na	-0.17	0.337	-0.01	0.987	0.16	0.359	-0.41	0.015	-0.38	0.026
Ni	0.32	0.060	-0.15	0.389	0.10	0.587	0.45	0.006	0.32	0.057
Sr	-0.38	0.023	0.23	0.178	-0.15	0.379	-0.36	0.036	-0.33	0.056
Zn	0.08	0.661	0.01	0.934	-0.07	0.683	0.31	0.067	0.19	0.271
$\delta^{13}\text{C}$	0.07	0.688	-0.04	0.825	-0.004	0.982	0.21	0.235	0.06	0.749
$\delta^{15}\text{N}$	-0.39	0.020	0.20	0.262	-0.11	0.545	-0.19	0.271	-0.37	0.027

Figure S1. Rank of relative variation in root traits and their analogue leaf traits, measured as coefficient of variation (CV in %), of seven species (n=35). R/LDMC: root or leaf dry matter content; R/LMA: root or leaf mass per area; ^{13}C : $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ and ^{15}N : $\delta^{15}\text{N}$.

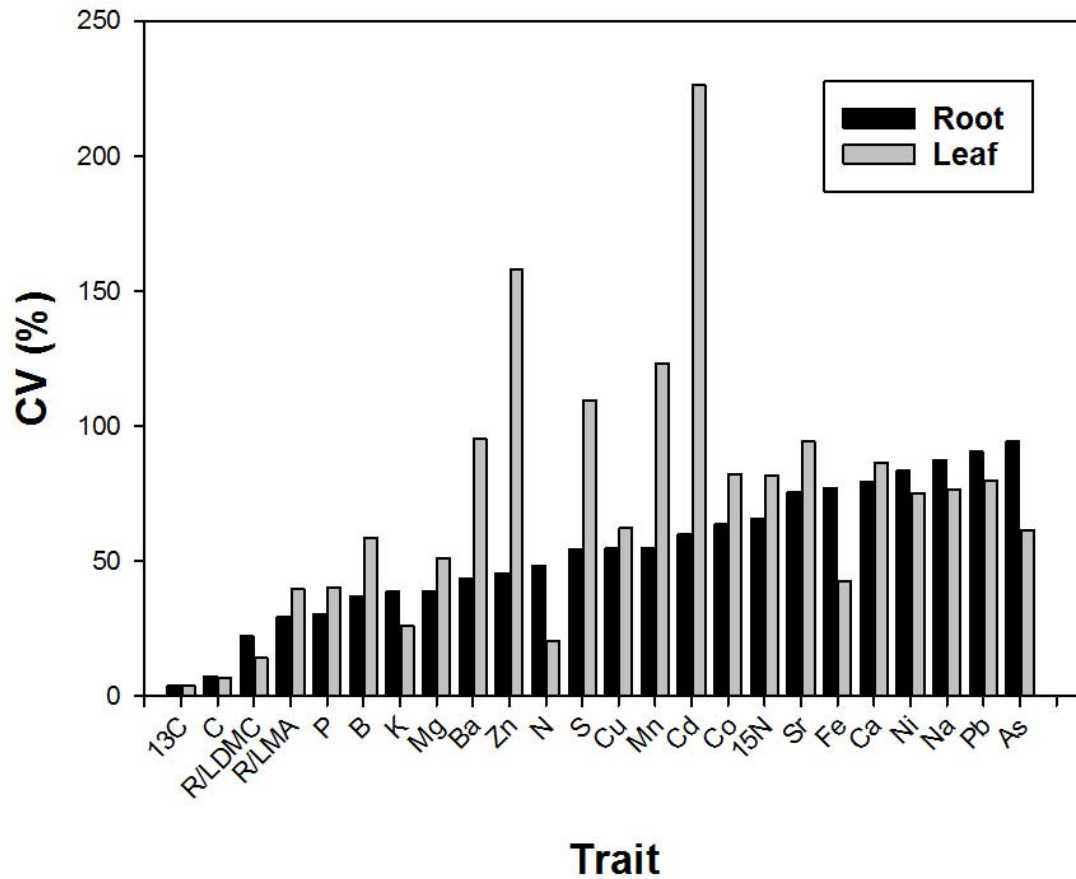


Figure S2. Results of the principal component analysis of six key root traits in trees of seven species (n=35). Abbreviations of root traits are: RDI: root mean diameter; RMA: root mass per area; RDMC: root dry matter content; RTD: root tissue density; and SRL: specific root length; species names are: C.a.: *Celtis australis*; C.s.: *Ceratonia siliqua*; F.a.: *Fraxinus angustifolia*; O.e.: *Olea europaea*; P.a.: *Populus alba*; P.p.: *Pinus pinea*; Q.i.: *Quercus ilex*.

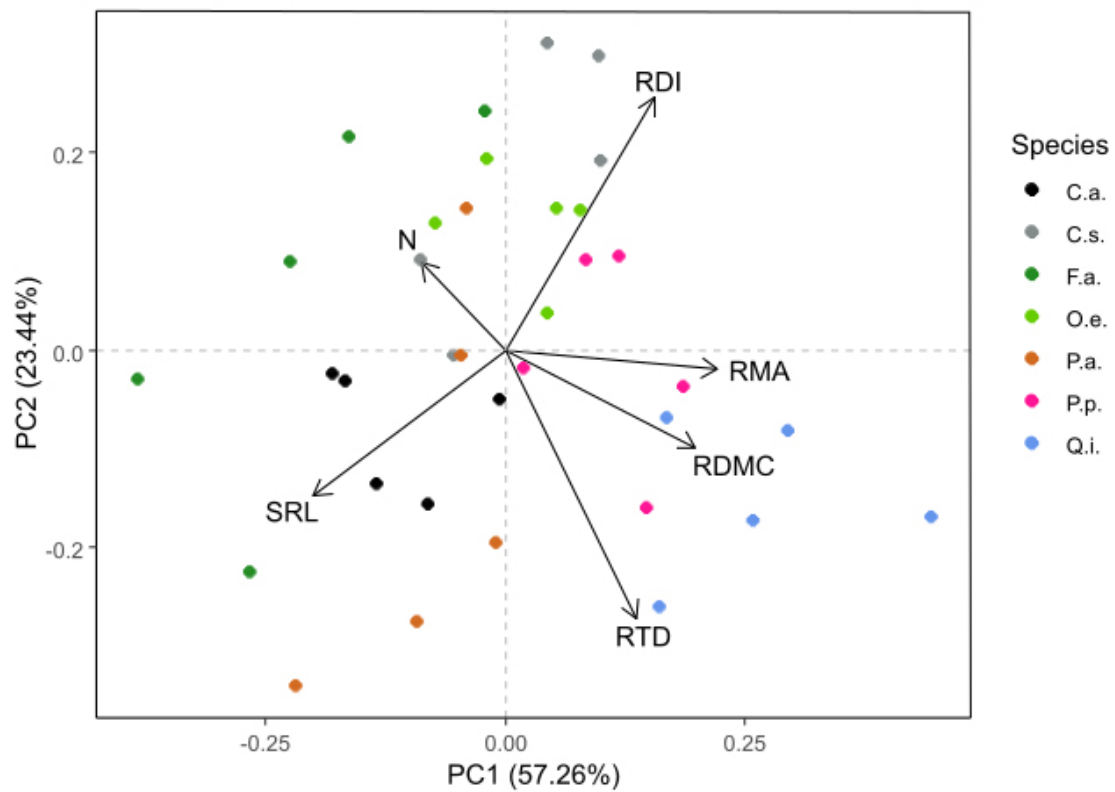


Figure S3. Results of the principal component analysis of 29 aboveground traits in trees of seven species (n=34). Traits and trees are ordered in the plane defined by PCA first and second axes. Abbreviation names for tree species are: C.a.: *Celtis australis*; C.s.: *Ceratonia siliqua*; F.a.: *Fraxinus angustifolia*; O.e.: *Olea europaea*; P.a.: *Populus alba*; P.p.: *Pinus pinea*; Q.i.: *Quercus ilex*.

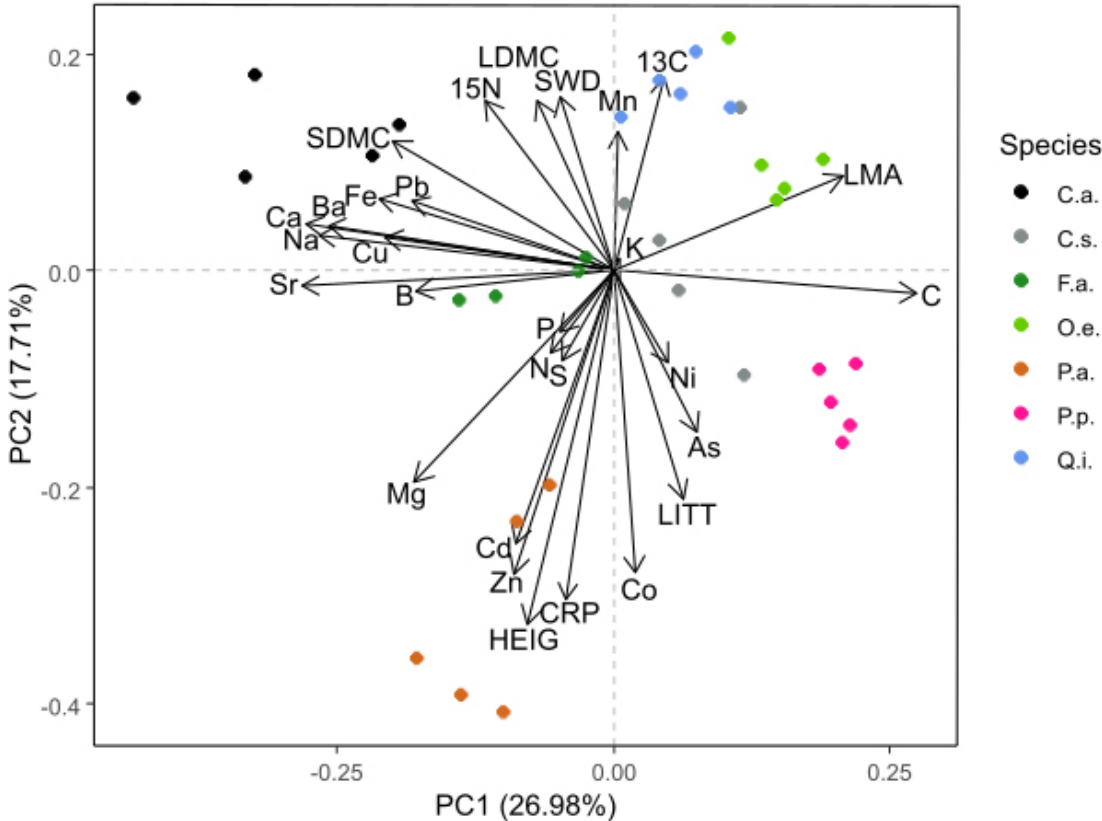


Figure S4. Coordination between root and leaf traits in the three figures of left column, compared with discordant traits in the right column (n=34). Correlations between N in roots and in leaves are significant for *Pinus* (red diamond and solid line, n=5) and *Populus* (blue triangles and dashed line, n=5) but not for the other species and for all data (black circles). Species-specific accumulation of Cd in leaves for *Populus* (blue triangles) and Mn in *Quercus* (green squares) are shown. The values of correlation coefficient and significance are shown in Table 1. LMA: leaf mass per area; RMA: root mass per area.

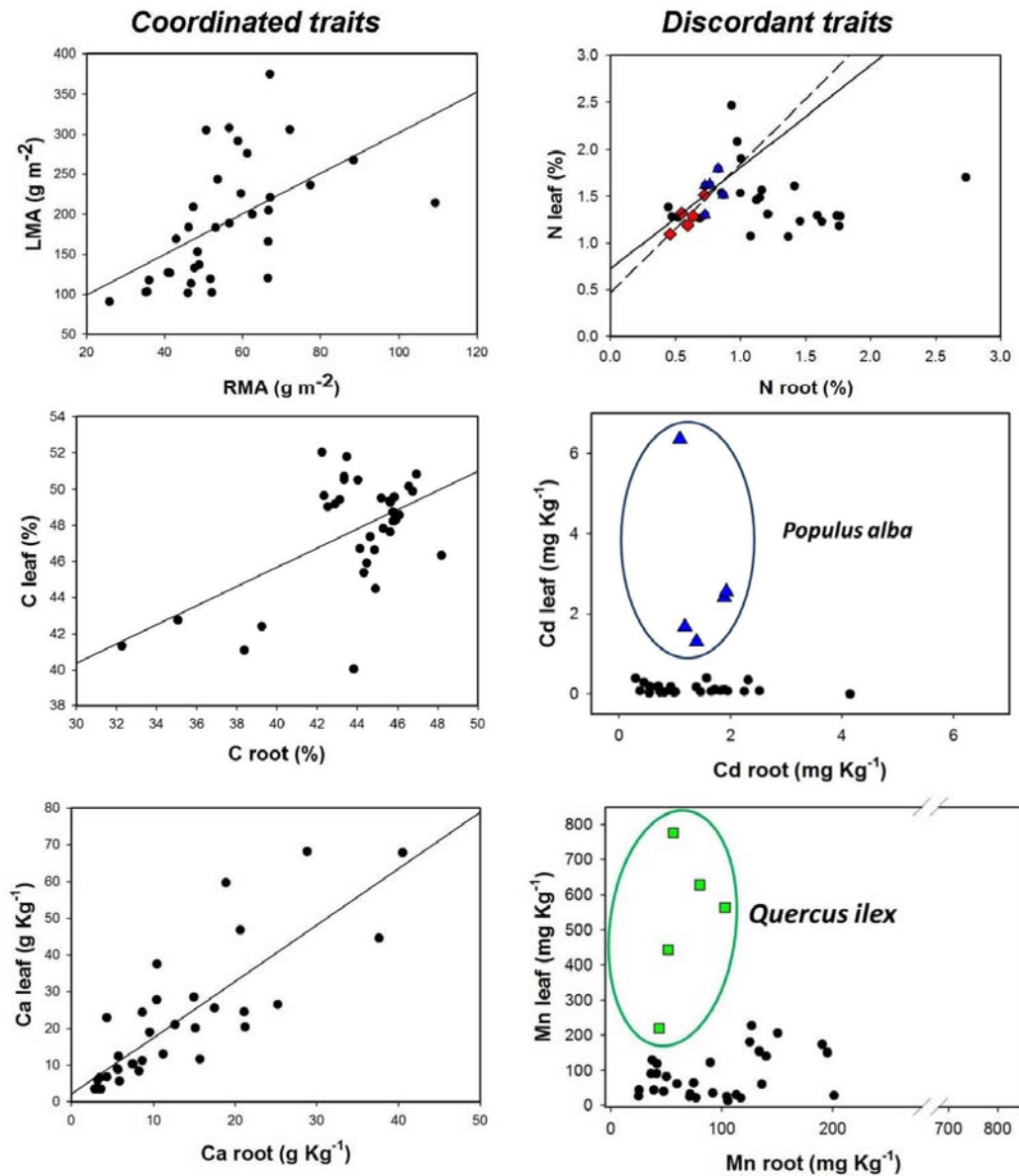


Figure S5. Intra-plant fractionation of N isotope (difference between $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{root}}$ and $\delta^{15}\text{N}_{\text{leaf}}$, in ‰), separating ectomycorrhizal (white) and arbuscular mycorrhizal (grey) tree species. Mean and SE (n=5, with the exception of *Fraxinus* n=4) are shown; different letters mean significant difference between species by post-hoc Tukey test. There are significant differences between mycorrhizal types, $t=-4.4$, $p<0.0001$.

