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1 The response of weed and crop species to shading: which parameters explain

2 weed impacts on crop production?

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19 Highlights

- 20 Virtual experiments were run for diverse regions, cropping systems and weed floras
- 21 Plant-morphology and shade-response parameters were related to crop production
- 22 The same parameter values promote crop and weed species in mixed canopies
- 23 Successful species reduce leaf thickness and are taller and wider per unit biomass
- 24 There is a trade-off between yield promotion and weed suppression traits

25 Abstract

Crops compete with weeds for light, and choosing competitive crop species contributes to managing 26 27 weeds. The objective was to identify which crop and weed parameters related to competition for light 28 drive weed harmfulness for crop production. In a previous experiment, we measured parameters to 29 characterize species potential plant morphology in unshaded conditions and species response to shading 30 for a range of 60 crop and annual weed species. Here, we integrated the measured parameter values into 31 an existing simulation model that uses an individual-based 3D representation of crop-weed canopies to 32 predict weed dynamics and crop production from pedoclimate and cropping system information. The 33 model, i.e. FLORSYS, was used to run virtual experiments in seven French and Spanish regions, with 34 272 cropping systems varying in terms of crop rotations, herbicide use and tillage intensity etc. A series 35 of statistical methods (RLQ, fourth corner analysis, Principal Component Analysis, Pearson correlation 36 coefficients, analysis of variance) were used to identify the key weed and crop parameters that drive 37 crop yield loss and other weed harmfulness indicators. The weed species that caused the highest yield 38 loss had a large leaf area at emergence. When young, they presented a large specific leaf area and a 39 uniform leaf area distribution along plant height. They were also taller per unit plant biomass and their 40 populations were more homogeneous in terms of plant width. At later stages, harmful weed species 41 presented a smaller interception area to herbicides, with thicker leaves located lower on the plant. When 42 shaded, harmful weed species shifted their leaves upwards and decreased their plant width per unit 43 biomass. Weed-suppressive crop species had a large specific leaf area, wider plants per unit biomass, 44 and a uniform leaf area distribution along plant height. When shaded, they increased their plant height 45 and width per unit biomass. There was a trade-off between parameters driving potential crop production 46 and those minimizing weed-inflicted yield losses.

47

Keywords. Weed damage; trait; photosynthetically active radiation PAR; yield loss; yield gap; ideotype

50 **1 Introduction**

51 When herbicide use is reduced due to environmental and health issues, crops are more often confronted 52 to competition with weeds. In temperate climates with high-input crop management, the main resource 53 for which crops and weed compete is light. As a consequence, choosing light-competitive crop species 54 and varieties is a major lever for non-chemical weed management (Drews et al., 2009; Paynter and Hills, 55 2009; Mhlanga et al., 2016). Once emerged, species competitiveness for light depends on how much 56 light a species intercepts and how little it leaves to competing species. In terms of growth, this translates 57 into three questions: how fast a species occupies empty space, how much space it occupies, and how it 58 avoids shading or reacts to shade.

59 Field trials can investigate the effects of cultural techniques that drive canopy structure (e.g. crop 60 species, cultivar, sowing density and interrow width) on weed biomass and/or crop production 61 (Kristensen et al., 2006; Olsen et al., 2006; Drews et al., 2009; Paynter and Hills, 2009). These 62 experiments though often focus on one or a few crop and/or weed species in a single location, 63 disregarding long-term effects, thus lacking in genericity. Consequently, mechanistic models have been 64 developed to describe processes in detail (e.g. light interception, absorption and transformation) at the 65 scale of crop canopies or single plants within these canopies (Renton and Chauhan, 2017). The earliest 66 of the crop-weed competition models considered bispecific homogeneous crop-weed canopies based on detailed ecophysiological functions driving crop-weed competition for light and other resources 67 68 (Spitters and Aerts, 1983; Wilkerson et al., 1990; Kropff and Spitters, 1992). These were later updated 69 to 3D individual-based bispecific competition models (Brainard and Bellinder, 2004). Conversely, the 70 earliest multiannual weed dynamics model simplified competition processes to include weed seed bank processes and impacts of cultural techniques (Cousens et al., 1986; Ballaré et al., 1987; Debaeke, 1988).
The combination of the two approaches led to individual-based three-dimensional models combining
simplified 3D plant representation with multiannual species dynamics and detailed effects of cultural
techniques. Such models are the best compromise to represent heterogeneous crop-weed canopies and
test contrasting cropping systems with different weed floras and pedoclimatic conditions (Colbach et

76 al., 2014a).

77 The process-based FLORSYS model follows this principle. It simulates multi-specific and multi-cohort 78 weed dynamics and their impact on crop production as a function of cropping systems and pedoclimate, 79 at a daily scale over several years or decades (Gardarin et al., 2012; Munier-Jolain et al., 2013; Colbach 80 et al., 2014b; Munier-Jolain et al., 2014). The 3D multispecies crop-weed canopy consists of individual 81 plants whose leaf area is distributed inside cylinders, predicting light availability in each 3D pixel 82 ("voxel") (Munier-Jolain et al., 2013; Munier-Jolain et al., 2014). In addition to light availability, plant 83 dimensions and leaf area are driven by species parameters determining early growth, potential plant 84 morphology and shading response (Colbach et al., 2014b; Colbach et al., in revision). Shading response 85 is a key process in plant-plant interaction, particularly in multispecies heterogeneous canopies where 86 morphological plasticity allows weeds to avoid shade cast by crops (Cavero et al., 2000). The latter 87 model as well as earlier crop-weed competition models (Kropff et al., 1992) have already been used to 88 identify pertinent weed state variables (e.g. weed biomass) linked to crop yield loss, similarly to what 89 was already attempted in field trials (Regnier and Stoller, 1989; Pike et al., 1990; Cavero et al., 1999). 90 Previous models worked with state variables describing crops, weeds and canopies, which vary with 91 plant stage as well as cultural and pedoclimatic conditions. Conversely, in the present study, we worked 92 with generic universally valid parameters that describe plant properties intrinsic to a species, focusing 93 on those crucial for plant-plant interaction, i.e. those related to plant morphology and shade response. 94 This switch from site-dependent to intrinsic species properties is essential to draw generic conclusions 95 valid in a large range of situations. The objective of the study was to use the FLORSYS model to run a

96 multi-site, multi-annual and multi-species simulation (i.e. a virtual field network) in order to investigate

97 (1) which annual weed species and weed parameters drive crop yield loss due to crop-weed competition

98 for light and other weed impacts on crop production, (2) which crop species parameters reduce this

competition-driven yield loss, and (3) at which plant stages the parameter values are crucial for theoutcome. The final aim was to identify crop ideotypes (i.e. theoretical ideal crop plants that combine all

101 the characteristics required to reach one or several goals in a production situation, Martre et al., 2015)

102 for arable cropping systems in order to promote weed suppression by crop competition.

104 **2 Material and methods**

105 2.1 The "virtual-field" model FLORSYS

106 2.1.1 Weed and crop life cycle

FLORSYS is a virtual field on which cropping systems can be experimented with a large range of virtual
measurements of crop, weed and environmental state variables. The structure of FLORSYS is presented
in detail in previous papers (Gardarin et al., 2012; Munier-Jolain et al., 2013; Colbach et al., 2014b;
Munier-Jolain et al., 2014; Mézière et al., 2015).

111 The input variables of FLORSYS consist of (1) a description of the simulated field (daily weather, latitude 112 and soil characteristics); (2) all the crops and management operations in the field, with dates, tools and options; and (3) the initial weed seed bank, which is either measured on soil samples or estimated from 113 114 regional flora assessments (Colbach et al., 2016). These input variables influence the annual life cycle 115 of annual weeds and crops, with a daily time-step. Pre-emergence stages (surviving, dormant and 116 germinating seeds, emerging seedlings) are driven by soil structure, temperature and water potential. 117 Post-emergence processes (e.g. photosynthesis, respiration, growth, shade response) are driven by light availability and air temperature. At plant maturity, weed seeds are added to the soil seed bank; crop 118 119 seeds are harvested to determine crop yield. Crop-weed competition was considered for light only in the present FLORSYS version. The model is currently parameterized for 25 frequent and contrasting annual 120 121 weed species, 11 cash crop species (sold for profit) and 15 cover and forage crop species (grown for 122 services and not for sale), including several varieties of wheat, field bean and pea (section A.2 of the 123 supplementary material online).

124 **2.1.2** The parameters driving morphology and shading response

125 Early post-emergence growth, potential plant morphology and response to shading by neighbours are 126 key processes that drive crop-weed competition and that determine how fast plants occupy space once 127 they emerge, how much space they occupy and how they try to capture light when surrounded by 128 neighbour plants. In FLORSYS (which considers water and nutrient conditions to be non-limiting), these 129 processes are driven by temperature and light. Species strategies are described by 145 parameters measured either in field trials (Munier-Jolain et al., 2014) or in garden plot experiments (Colbach et al., 130 131 in revision). Early post-emergence plant growth in the absence of shading is driven by two parameters 132 per species, i.e. leaf area at emergence and plant relative growth rate, which determine how fast a species occupies the field after emergence (Table 1, and section B online). Potential plant morphology in 133 134 unshaded conditions depends on eight parameters per species and stage for 11 plant stages. These 135 parameters determine plant dimensions, its leaf area and leaf area distribution along plant height. A 136 further five parameters per species and stage drive species response to shading, determining whether 137 shaded plants invest more into plant height versus width or into leaf versus stem biomass, and whether 138 they shift their leaves upwards or downwards.

140 **2.1.3 Effect of cultural techniques**

Life-cycle processes depend on the dates, options and tools of management techniques (tillage, sowing, herbicides, mechanical weeding, mowing, harvesting), in interaction with weather and soil conditions on the day the operations are carried out (section A.3 online). For instance, weed plant survival probabilities are calculated deterministically depending on management operations, biophysical environment as well as weed morphology and stage; the actual survival of each plant is determined stochastically by comparing this probability to a random probability.

147

148 **2.1.4 Indicators of weed impact on crop production**

149 FLORSYS simulates crop yield as well as a set of indicators assessing weed impacts on crop production 150 (Mézière et al., 2015) (see section A.4 online). Here, we investigated (1) crop grain yield loss which is 151 the difference in yield in weed-including vs weed-free simulations relative to yield in weed-free 152 simulations, (2) harvest pollution by weed seeds and debris resulting from weed biomass and seeds 153 harvested with the crop grain, and (3) field infestation by weed biomass during crop growth. In addition, 154 (4) annual weed seed production in crops was examined, as a proxy for the risk of future weed 155 infestations. Finally, (5) potential crop yield was analysed, predicted by the weed-free simulations. To 156 make yields of different crop species comparable, yield in MJ/ha (instead of t/ha) was preferred, 157 multiplying the grain yield in t/ha by its energy content (see details in Lechenet et al., 2014).

158

159 2.1.5 Domain of validity

FLORSYS was previously evaluated with independent field data on weed short and long-term dynamics 160 161 at French national scale, over a large range of existing arable cropping systems. It showed that crop vields, daily weed species densities and, particularly, densities averaged over the years were generally 162 163 well predicted and ranked as long as a corrective function was added to keep weeds from flowering 164 during winter at more southern latitudes (Colbach et al., 2016). A further critical analysis of yield loss was carried out in a previous simulation study covering the same regions as and cropping systems that 165 were used here (Colbach and Cordeau, 2018). They concluded that the model's prediction quality was 166 167 adequate for the model's purpose, i.e. to predict orders of magnitude and to rank situations in terms of 168 cropping systems and crop species. Higher crop yield losses than those reported in previous field studies 169 mostly resulted from the simulation plan. This does not adapt practices to simulated weed floras and 170 interannual weather variability (as farmers or trial managers would do), in order to discriminate the 171 effect of crop species and management practices on weeds from the effect of weeds on the choice of 172 crops and practices (Colbach and Cordeau, 2018).

174 **2.2 The simulated field network**

175 A virtual field network was simulated combining (1) a large number of contrasting cropping systems 176 from several regions, (2) different weather series, and (3) presence or absence of weeds. Several sources 177 were used to gather data on contrasting cropping systems from six French regions (Burgundy, Paris 178 region, Aquitaine, Poitou-Charentes, Lorraine, Picardie) and one Spanish region (Catalonia). These 179 systems were all already used in previous simulation studies (find the detailed list of sources and 180 references in Colbach and Cordeau, 2018) and were reused here, focusing on different factors and 181 impacts, to tackle our new research questions. In total, 272 arable cropping systems were simulated with 182 FLORSYS (section C online). They included both conventional and organic systems, with a tillage 183 intensity varying from no-till to annual mouldboard ploughing. Rotations were mainly based on cereals 184 (wheat, barley, maize) and oilseed rape, with occasional legume crops (lucerne, faba bean etc), non-185 legume broadleaved crops (sunflower, flax etc) and temporary grassland, with proportions and crop 186 species depending on regions.

187 Two series of simulations were run. The first simulated the cropping systems starting with a typical 188 regional weed seed bank consisting of the 25 annual weed species currently included in FLORSYS 189 (section A.2 online). The second series ran without an initial weed seed bank. Comparing series 1 and 2

190 gave the weed impact on crop production and led to calculating a crop yield loss due to weeds.

- In each series, each cropping system was simulated over 27 years (running from summer to summer), repeating the basic rotational pattern (e.g. oilseed rape/wheat/barley) over time. For each region, a typical soil (texture etc.) was based on soil analyses from locations inside the simulated regions (section C.2 online). Daily weather variables were recorded by INRA weather stations in the different regions (INRA Climatik platform) and by the experimental station La Tallada in Catalonia. Each system was repeated 10 times with 10 different weather series consisting of 28 randomly chosen weather (calendar) years from its region of origin, using the same 10 series for each system of a given region.
- 198

199 2.3 Statistics

200 First, we analysed which weed parameters drive crop yield loss and other indicators of weed harmfulness 201 for crop production. RLQ analyses were used to identify significant relationships between weed-impact 202 indicators and weed species parameters, using the library ade4 (Chessel et al., 2004) of R (R Core Team, 203 2016). The RLQ analysis was initially developed to analyse correlations between cultural techniques (R 204 matrix) and species traits (Q matrix) via weed species densities (L matrix). Here, we used annual 205 indicator values of yield loss, harvest pollution and field infestation from the 27 simulated years and 10 206 weather repetitions for the R matrix. The Q matrix consisted of the 145 parameters of Table 1 for the 25 207 weed species in FLORSYS. These parameters discriminate species for their ability to compete for light. 208 The L matrix comprised the plant density of each weed species for each of the 27 years and the 10 209 repetitions, using the maximums of the daily weed species densities between crop sowing and harvest.

210 Only parameter-indicator relationships significant at p=0.05 after a 4th corner analysis were considered,

211 using the fourthcorner() function of R. This analysis tests whether species are distributed independently

212 of their effect on indicators and of their traits, retaining for each indicator \times trait combination the highest

213 p values of models permuting either indicators or traits. To check whether weed species could be

aggregated into functional groups in terms of impact on crop production related to plant morphology

- and shading response, species were grouped based on a Ward ascendant hierarchy classification using
- 216 the hclust() function of R according to the Euclidian distances separating coordinates of species in the
- 217 RLQ multidimensional space.
- Then, we analysed which crop parameters reduce weed-caused crop yield loss and other weed harmfulness indicators. A Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was carried out on annual yield potential (i.e. yield from weed-free simulations), crop yield loss (relative yield difference in weed-free vs. weed-infested simulations) and annual weed seed production as a proxy for the risk of future weed harmfulness. Among the 145 parameters of Table 1, those most correlated to the PCA axes were projected onto the PCA correlation circle. Analyses were carried out with the FactoMineR package of R.
- Finally, to evaluate the relative contribution of crop species and cropping systems on weed harmfulness, crop yield loss and weed seed production were both analysed with linear models as a function of crop species, cropping system, region, weather repetition, time since simulation onset as well as interactions between factors, using PROC GLM of SAS. Cropping systems and weather repetitions were nested within regions. Mean crop yield loss and weed seed production were compared per crop, with a leastsignificant difference test.

231 3 Results

232 3.1 Weed harmfulness

233 **3.1.1** Which weed species drive weed harmfulness

234 At the annual scale, the three actual immediate weed harmfulness indicators, i.e. crop grain yield loss, 235 harvest pollution and field infestation, were correlated (Pearson correlation coefficients ranging from 236 0.65 to 0.73, p<0.0001, section D.1 online). Conversely, there was no correlation at all between actual 237 immediate and potential future harmfulness, i.e. weed seed production (Pearson correlations ranging 238 from 0.04 to 0.06, p<0.0001). When focusing on actual immediate weed harmfulness, it appeared that 239 weed species were the most discriminated by harvest pollution (longest arrow on Figure 1.A) and the 240 least by yield loss (shortest arrow) though all three harmfulness indicators were orientated into the same 241 direction, along the left-hand side of axis 1. This axis explained almost all of the variance of the indicator 242 values (97.7%, section D.2.2 online), a large part of the trait-value variance (61.6%) and nearly the entire 243 cross-variance between the traits and the indicators (98.0% of axis 1 in Figure 1). 244 Weed species could be clustered into several groups, depending on their contribution to weed

harmfulness averaged over all cropping systems, crops, years and weather repetitions (Figure 1.B). The

246 most harmful ones were Galium aparine (GALAP) and Avena fatua (AVEFA). The second most 247 harmful group, especially in terms of yield loss and harvest pollution, consisted of six species including Alopecurus myosuroides (ALOMY), Chenopodium album (CHEAL), Echinochloa crus-galli 248 249 (ECHCG), Geranium dissectum (GERDI), Panicum milleaceum (PANMI), and Stellaria media 250 (STEME). Three other clusters included the species that were the least harmful in terms of harvest pollution (Senecio vulgaris, SENVU; Sonchus asper, SONAS; Veronica persica, VERPE), crop yield 251 252 loss (Abutilon theophrasti, ABUTH; Ambrosia artemisiifolia, AMBEL; Poa annua, POAAN) and field 253 infestation (Mercuralis annua, MERAN, Fallopia convolvulus, POLCO, Polygonum persicaria, 254 POLPE), respectively. The remaining seven species located at the centre of the graph presented an 255 intermediate harmfulness.

256

3.1.2 Which weed parameters drive weed harmfulness?

257 The parameters determining the potential morphology and shading response of the most harmful weed 258 species are shown in Figure 1.C. The most harmful weed species irrespective of crops, cropping systems, 259 years and weather repetitions had a high initial leaf area at emergence (LA0 at the left-hand side of 260 Figure 1.C); in unshaded conditions, they presented a high specific leaf area at early stages (SLA0 and 261 SLA1), and they were taller per unit plant biomass from the end of vegetative stage onwards (HM7, 262 HM8, HM9, HM10). In the most harmless weed species, plant width increased with plant biomass 263 (b WM9, b WM10 on the right-hand side of Figure 1.C). Harmless species also had a larger 264 interception area per unit leaf biomass at later stages, with a high specific leaf area from flowering onwards (SLA8, SLA9, SLA10), with leaves mostly located at the top of the plant (RLH6, RLH7). 265 266 When shaded, harmful species shifted their leaves upwards in mature plants (mu RLH10 at the left) 267 whereas species that increased their plant width per unit biomass (mu_WM8, mu_WM9, mu_WM10 on 268 the right) were harmless.

- There were few differences between the weed parameters driving the three types of investigated weed harmfulness. Generally, harvest pollution was the most driven by parameters increasing plant height (HM7, HM8, HM9, HM10 at the left top quadrant) and placing leaves above the combine cutting, i.e. shifting leaves upwards in shaded mature plants (mu_RLH10). Yield loss was the most driven by parameters that ensured a large light interception and shading area very early via a large leaf area both in absolute value and per unit of leaf biomass (LA0, SLA0, SLA1 on the left-hand side of the first axis). Finally, weeds with a larger interception area per unit leaf biomass, with a high specific leaf area (SLA8,
- 275 Thiany, weeds while a larger interception area per unit tour broniass, while a mgh specific rear area (51276,
- 276 SLA9, SLA10 in the upper right quadrant) and increased plant width per unit biomass when shaded
- 277 (mu_WM8, mu_WM9, mu_WM10) contributed the least to field infestation.
- 278 Conversely, only one parameter relevant for weed seed production could be identified. This proxy for
- 279 future weed harmfulness was the highest in species that increased their plant width per unit biomass
- 280 when shaded, particularly at early stages (mu_WM2, Pearson correlation coefficient identified by
- fourth-corner analysis = 0.24, section D.2.1 online).

Though many indicator-trait correlations were identified by the RLQ analyses, the correlation coefficients were generally low (below 0.30, section D.2.1 online). This, together with the relative low variance of the trait values accounted for by the two RLQ axes (a total of 58.5%, compared to 99.9% for indicator values, section D.2.2 online), shows that trait combinations rather than single trait values drive weed species impact.

3.2 Which crop parameters reduce weed harmfulness?

288 Crops differed more in terms of potential yield than weed suppression. The Principal Component Analysis (PCA) showed that the situations (cropping system x year x weather repetition) that maximised 289 290 potential yield were generally not those that minimized weed harmfulness as the two categories were 291 perpendicular on the PCA variable graph (Figure 2.A). But, this also means that there were situations 292 that reconciled both high vield potential and low vield loss due to weeds. Moreover, the two harmfulness 293 indicators, i.e. yield loss and weed seed production, were also perpendicular when switching PCA axes 294 (Figure 2.C), indicating that the situations with a low yield loss did not necessarily present a low weed 295 seed production.

- 296 Crop species and varieties were roughly ranked along the second axis of the PCA (Figure 2.B) which 297 was driven almost entirely by potential yield (Figure 2.A). Averaged over all cropping systems, years 298 and weather repetitions, wheat (TRZAX) was potentially the most productive crop (toward the top of 299 the second PCA axis), followed by sunflower (HELAN) and maize (ZEAMX). The species with the 300 lowest potential yield (toward the bottom of the second axis) were flax (LIUUT), winter barley (HORVX 301 and soybean (GLXMA). The difference between species was greater than the difference among cultivars 302 of a given species. The middle group consisted of field bean (VICFX), sorghum (SORVU), pea (PIBSX) 303 and oilseed rape (BRSNN).
- 304 The crop species differed much less in terms of weed suppression, here illustrated by weed-related crop 305 yield loss and annual weed seed production (as a proxy for future weed-borne crop yield loss). Indeed, 306 species were roughly at the centre of the first PCA axis which was driven by the two weed-harmfulness 307 indicators (Figure 2.A and B). Plotting the third vs the first PCA axis made it a bit easier to see crop 308 differences, as the third axis allowed to separate the two harmfulness indicators (Figure 2.C). This graph 309 showed that crops differed a little bit more in terms of yield loss than weed seed production as the crops 310 were distributed along the y=-x line (i.e. the direction of the yield loss arrow) with little variability along 311 the y=x line (i.e. the direction of the weed seed production arrow) (Figure 2.D). Averaged over all 312 cropping systems, years and weather repetitions, maize (ZEAMX) and oilseed rape (BRSNN) were the 313 crops with the lowest crop yield loss (left upper quadrant). Conversely, flax (LIUUT), spring pea (PIBSX) and barley (HORVX) presented the highest yield loss (lower right quadrant). 314
- 315

316 **3.2.1** Crop species is not the main driver of yield loss

317 The analysis of variance confirmed that crop species was not the main driver of crop yield loss in this 318 simulation study (Table 2.A). Yield loss mostly depended on cropping system (partial R^2 = 319 0.49=0.27+0.05+0.17 out of total R² of 0.68), albeit in interaction with weather (partial R² = 0.17) and 320 crop species (partial $R^2 = 0.05$). Crop species explained three times less variability than cropping system 321 (partial $R^2 = 0.16 = 0.10 + 0.05 + 0.01$), and part of this depended on cropping system (partial $R^2 = 0.05$). 322 Using a method that accounted for the main driver of weed harmfulness (i.e. cropping systems) allowed 323 to better discriminate crops in terms of yield loss and, particularly, weed seed production (Table 2.B). 324 The general ranking was the same as the one observed in the PCA of Figure 2.D. Among the species 325 with enough situations, the crops with the highest yield loss due to weeds were legumes, i.e. pea and 326 soybean. Conversely, early-sown broadleaved crops (oilseed rape) and summer crops (maize and 327 sunflower) presented the lowest yield loss. Autumn-sown cereals (wheat, triticale) were intermediate, 328 except for the Caphorn wheat cultivar, which presented a very high yield loss. 329 The crop ranking for weed seed production as a proxy for the risk of future yield loss was very different

330 (Table 2.B). The crops with the lowest weed seed production were early-sown crops, i.e. wheat and 331 oilseed rape, those with the highest weed seed production were late-sown crops, i.e. sunflower and 332 soybean. Interestingly, the crops and varieties with the highest yield loss presented very low (wheat cv 333 Caphorn) or moderate weed seed production (pea).

334

335

3.2.2 Which crop parameters drive potential yield and weed harmfulness?

336 The projection of the crop parameters driving potential plant morphology and shading response onto the 337 PCA axes allowed to identify the key parameters driving yield potential (along the first PCA axis, Figure 338 2.A), crop yield loss (along the y=-x line, Figure 2.C) and, to a lesser degree, weed seed production 339 (along the y=x line in Figure 2.C). In the absence of shading, the crops with the highest potential yield 340 invested in leaf biomass to the detriment of stem biomass, particularly at earlier stages (LBR0-LBR4 at 341 the top of second PCA axis, Figure 2.A), with an uneven leaf distribution along plant height (b RLH8-342 b_RLH10 at the top of second axis). High-potential crop species were more homogeneous in terms of 343 plant height which depended less on plant biomass, particularly at late stages (b_HM8-b_HM10 at the 344 bottom of second axis). When shaded, the high-potential crops were able to etiolate, producing taller 345 plants per unit biomass, particularly during the vegetative stage (mu HM5-mu HM8), but they kept a 346 uniform leaf area distribution along plant height, particularly at early stages (mu_RLH0-mu_RLH5 at 347 the bottom of second axis).

The optimal crop morphology and shading response for limiting yield loss was different. When unshaded, crops with the lowest yield loss were those with thinner leaves, maximising their leaf area per unit leaf biomass, particularly at early stages (SLA0-SLA4 in the left upper quadrant of Figure 2.C), with wider plants per unit biomass during vegetative stages (WM4-WM7), particularly for plants with a lower biomass (b_WM6-b_WM7 in the right lower quadrant), and a uniform leaf area distribution along plant height (b_RLH5-b_RLH7). When shaded, the crops with the lowest yield loss were able to occupy even more space, by increasing their plant width per unit biomass at early stages (mu_WM2mu_WM4 in the left upper quadrant) and, even more importantly, their plant height per unit biomass, both at early (mu_HM3-mu_HM4 in the left upper quadrant) and late stages (mu_HM8-mu_HM9 in the left upper quadrant). It was impossible to identify individual key crop parameters related to weed seed production (Figure 2.C).

359

360 3.3 Crop ideotypes and weed "harmtypes"

The most relevant crop parameters could be combined into crop ideotypes, i.e. the optimal combination of parameter values to maximise yield in weed-free (i.e. potential yield) or weed-infestation situations (i.e. actual yield) (Figure 3). Except for the shade response resulting in increased height per unit biomass (mu_HM), the parameters that maximise one or the other type of yield were not the same or even contrary (leaf area distribution b_RLH). In both situations, though, the relevant parameters aimed at two effects, i.e. occupying the field space before any other plant and reacting to shade once neighbour plants start to compete for space and light.

368 Early space occupation was also the main success of the generalist weed species that were harmful in 369 all crops, cropping systems and regions (Figure 4). Even more interesting, several parameters that made 370 species successful in multispecies canopies were the same for both crops and weeds (SLA, b_WM, 371 b RLH). However, later in the weed life-cycle (at the time when foliar herbicides were sprayed in the 372 simulations), inconspicuous weeds with a lower leaf area per unit leaf biomass (smaller SLA) and plant 373 width per unit biomass (smaller mu_WM), were more harmful. Harvest pollution was very much related 374 to weed morphology at harvest itself, which explains why weed species contributed more to this 375 pollution when their leaf area was concentrated at the top of the plant. Conversely, no generalized 376 parameter profile could be identified for weed seed production, which is a proxy for weed harmfulness 377 for future crops, indicating that this function depends much more on cropping system and regional 378 conditions.

379

380 4 Discussion

381 **4.1** A novel approach to determine crop ideotypes and weed "harmtypes"

The present simulation-based approach allowed us to determine crop ideotypes maximising yield potential and minimizing weed-caused crop yield loss as well as weed "harmtypes" most harmful for crop production in large range of contrasting cropping systems and regions. The study also demonstrated that the crop parameters driving the yield potential were not those driving yield-loss reduction and that none of the investigated crop species answered to all requirements of the crop ideotypes. Both for crop ideotypes and weed "harmtypes", it was all about early field occupation and later shade response though 388 the exact features depended on the goal (i.e. yield potential vs weed suppression, current or future 389 harmfulness). Weed "harmtypes" also included characteristics that would allow the plants to avoid late-390 season herbicides.

391 The novelty of our approach consisted in combining detailed measurements on plant morphology and 392 shading response carried out on individual plants in controlled conditions (Colbach et al., in revision) 393 with a simulation study to test the different species and cultivars in a multi-annual and multi-site virtual 394 farm field network. Tardy et al. (2015; 2017) similarly used detailed individual-plant measurements but 395 combined them with expert knowledge to define the characteristics of the ideotypes for weed-396 suppressive cover crop species in banana cropping systems. They then identified the best species within 397 the panel of experimented cover crop species as the one with characteristics the closest to those of the 398 ideotype.

399 Most authors usually worked with canopy or weed state variables such as early ground cover or canopy 400 closure, plant height, leaf area index, weed density or leaf area, either in fields (Regnier and Stoller, 401 1989; Pike et al., 1990; Cavero et al., 1999; Paynter and Hills, 2009; Reiss et al., 2018) or in simulations 402 (Kropff et al., 1992). These variables are specific to cropping systems and pedoclimate, which makes it 403 more difficult to draw generic conclusions, particularly as these studies worked with a single crop 404 species and a very limited number of species (three or less). Conversely, we worked here with 405 parameters that described species-intrinsic performances and were closer to processes driving 406 competition for light, which allowed us to identify pertinent parameters and to go further in 407 understanding crop-weed competition. For instance, most studies report that taller cultivars are more 408 weed-suppressive than shorter cultivars (section 4.2). Here, we demonstrated that crop plant width per 409 unit plant biomass is the key morphological trait in unshaded conditions and that plant height per unit 410 plant biomass is an efficient response strategy when shaded (i.e. in the presence of weeds). The drawback 411 is that these parameters are difficult to measure and not among those that are routinely measured by 412 plant breeders (Zhao et al., 2006).

Experimental studies also have trouble to measure the attainable yield as it is notoriously difficult to achieve a continuously totally weed-free situation in fields, particularly when monitoring many fields at a time (Colbach et al., submitted). As in our study, yield-gap analyses thus often estimate the attainable yield from simulations (Grassini et al., 2015). In contrast to these studies, we used simulations to both estimate attainable yield and actual yield. This ensured that any difference between these two yields was due to the limiting factors that we aimed to investigate, i.e. weeds, and not due to errors in field observations used for simulation inputs on one hand, actual yield on the other hand.

420 **4.2** Simulation results consistent with field observations

421 Our results are conditional on the prediction quality of FLORSYS which was shown to be adequate in a 422 previous study (section 2.1.5). This evaluation concluded that FLORSYS correctly predicted and ranked 423 weed species densities but could not assess the harmfulness of individual weed species for crop 424 production. Coverage by the literature on this topic is scant. Some establish harmfulness thresholds for 425 different weed species in a single crop (e.g. see review by Caussanel, (1989) or link weed densities 426 observed in field communities to yield loss in different crop types (Milberg and Hallgren, 2004). 427 Extension services establish harmfulness scores based on expert opinion, usually also for a given crop 428 (CETIOM, 2008) or aggregate qualitative knowledge (http://www.infloweb.fr). Among the weed 429 species present both in literature and here, A. fatua and G. aparine were among the most harmful species, A. myosuroides and S. media among the second most harmful species, F. convulvus, V. persica and V. 430 431 hederifolia among the least harmful ones (Caussanel, 1989; Wilson and Wright, 1990). Other authors 432 though found different results. For instance, G. aparine was deemed rather harmless in Sweden (Milberg 433 and Hallgren, 2004) but that was on spring cereals whereas we established a crop-independent 434 harmfulness ranking. Indeed, the impact of a given weed species also depends on the identity of the 435 infested crops (Fried et al., 2017), the weed floras and, of course, on which resource crops and weeds 436 compete for (Zimdahl, 2004). The above-cited field studies did not discriminate between competition 437 causes whereas we exclusively focused on competition for light and our simulations ensured that there 438 were no other abiotic or biotic stresses. Moreover, our weed species ranking was established over many 439 contrasting cropping systems, crops, weed floras and pedoclimates. Conversely, yield-loss field studies 440 either investigate one weed species in one crop species in bi-specific trials (Caussanel, 1989), which is 441 an unrealistic situation disregarding weed-weed interference, or the impact of multispecific weed floras 442 without discriminating individual species (Keller et al., 2014), which is consistent with farming 443 situations but does not allow to draw conclusions on individual species.

444 Though many simulation and field studies analysed canopy and weed state variables related to yield loss 445 (see Introduction), few studies investigate correlations between weed species parameters and weed 446 harmfulness for crop production as we did here. The few exceptions confirmed our findings on which 447 weed parameters drive harmfulness, such as the importance of early space occupation (Spitters and 448 Aerts, 1983), plant height surpassing crop canopy (Spitters and Aerts, 1983; Fried et al., 2017), a high 449 stem elongation rate, particularly in shaded conditions (Weinig, 2000) (consistent with our higher plant 450 height per unit biomass, particularly at later stages when shading is more likely), or a large specific leaf 451 area (SLA) at early stages and a small one at later stages (Storkey, 2004; Storkey, 2005) (which is 452 identical to our results). The harmfulness of a small SLA late in the weed life-cycle seems surprising at 453 first, but such plants are less likely to be affected by foliar herbicides, which may be applied later in the 454 cropping season and enter via weed leaves.

Reports on crop parameters relevant for yield potential and weed suppressiveness are more common but they usually compare different cultivars rather than species, as we did here. Again, our results are mostly consistent with previous experimental studies. The most frequent reported feature of weed-suppressive species and cultivars is plant height (Ford and Pleasant, 1994; Christensen, 1995; Lemerle et al., 1996; Mennan and Zandstra, 2005; Østergård et al., 2008; Drews et al., 2009; Fried et al., 2017; Jha et al., 2017) which is consistent with our height efficiency. A large leaf area, leaf area index or light interception area also increase weed suppression (Ford and Pleasant, 1994; Christensen, 1995; Lindquist 462 and Mortensen, 1998; Drews et al., 2009) which is consistent with our large specific leaf area and wider 463 plants per unit plant biomass. Some parameters reported in literature required a more detailed plant 464 description than we used here, such as leaf inclination (Drews et al., 2009). Conversely, other features 465 used in literature are not actual parameters but the result of several processes such as rapidly shading 466 canopies or high ground cover (Holt, 1995; Drews et al., 2009). Both are though consistent with our 467 results demonstrating the need of an early space occupation by crops.

468 4.3 Can weed-suppressive crop ideotypes contribute to weed 469 management

470 Choosing crop species and cultivars that tolerate or suppress weeds is expected to be a major lever for 471 integrated crop protection (see introduction). The present study identified the features that make species 472 and cultivars "generalist winners", i.e. that produce a high yield in weed-free situations or that are weed-473 suppressive, regardless of the cropping system and pedoclimate. But, even if some of the crop species 474 studied here were better than others, none of them combined all the parameter values minimizing weed 475 impacts on crop production, far less those reconciling low weed impact with high potential production. 476 This frequently reported antagonisms (Sardana et al., 2017) may correspond to the theoretical trade-off 477 between community performance and competitiveness (Denison et al., 2003): crop plants with traits that 478 maximize their competition towards weeds compete among themselves in the absence of weeds, 479 reducing their overall performance in resource capture and biomass production. However, Denison et al 480 (2003) concluded that "there is no reason to expect the structure of natural ecosystems [...] to be a reliable blueprint for agricultural ecosystems". The antagonism between yield potential and weed 481 482 suppression is thus not inevitable as shown by recent varietal improvement (section Error! Reference 483 source not found.).

Even when focusing on the sole weed suppression aspect, there was a trade-off between crop species that minimize weed-caused crop yield loss and those that limit weed seed production, i.e. the risk of future yield loss. For instance, pea presented a high weed-caused crop yield loss but a low weed seed production, which partially explains, in addition to the use of different herbicides and the absence of mineral nitrogen fertilization, why pea is a very interesting diversification crop in winter rotations resulting in an impressive reduction of weed infestation (Chauvel et al., 2001). This again demonstrates the necessity to combine crop/cultivar choice with all other cropping-system components.

The present study focused on parameters driving crop-weed competition for light, albeit in a large range of crops and cropping systems. But, as the lower-input crop management and weed management strategies required by new farming policies must be robust to hazards resulting from climate change, it will be necessary to similarly consider crop and weed parameters related to competition for nitrogen and water or those to frost damage. Indeed, other parameter-based studies have shown the importance of, e.g., photosynthesis response to temperature or photosynthetic pathway (Spitters and Aerts, 1983). The same applies to parameters that drive crop and weed phenology and, for weeds, seed persistence. This

- 498 is essential when aiming to tailor advice to particular crops and cropping systems as the most successful
- 499 weeds were shown to be those mimicking crops in terms of emergence and maturity dates (Fried et al.,
- 500 2008; Fried et al., 2009).
- 501 Down-scaling the present approach to investigate intra-species variability in crop robustness to weeds
- 502 is a promising avenue. The goal is not only to assist the choice of the best varieties to sow, but also to
- 503 identify key selection criteria to focus on, in order to create new high-yielding crop varieties that are
- robust to weed impacts (Martre et al., 2015; Rotter et al., 2015). Recent studies suggested that, at least
- 505 in rice, high yield potential and improved weed-suppressive ability are compatible (Mahajan *et al.*, 2014;
- 506 Mahajan *et al.*, 2015).

507 **5 Conclusion**

508 The present study identified generic rules on which species parameters make annual weeds harmful for 509 crop production and crops tolerant to crop-weed competition for light, across a large range of arable 510 cropping systems and pedoclimates. Crop and weed species that were successful in mixed canopies were 511 shown to be similar in terms of potential plant morphology and shading response. These rules can be 512 used as pointers for selecting crops in agroecological cropping systems aiming to regulate weeds by 513 biological interactions. The study also demonstrated a trade-off between crop traits that promoted 514 potential yield and those that made crops tolerate or suppress weeds. Further research is thus needed to 515 resolve this trade-off and identify combinations of crop species traits that reconcile high potential yield 516 and low yield loss.

517

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524 7 References

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679 8 Tables

680

- Table 1. Species parameters for characterizing initial growth, potential plant morphology and response to shading (based on Colbach et al., in revision). For
- 682 each species, there are 11 values for each potential-morphology and shading-response parameter, corresponding to 11 BBCH^{\$} stages ranging from emergence
- 683 (0) to death (10). Ranges of variation correspond to the 25 weed species and 33 crop species investigated by Colbach et al.

Parameter						
name	Relative advance of growth stage at the time of parameter measurement	Unit	Median [min,max] [§]			
A. Initial g	A. Initial growth (without neighbour shading or self-shading)					
RGR	Relative growth rate	cm ² ·cm ⁻² .°Cday ⁻¹	0.0172 [0.0055, 0.0461]			
LA0	Leaf area at emergence	cm ²	0.179 [0.01, 3.10]			
B. Potentia	l morphology (morphology variables in unshaded conditions)					
SLA	Specific Leaf Area (total leaf area vs total leaf biomass ^{&}) - Leaf area efficiency	cm ² ·g ⁻¹	153 [10, 1204]			
LBR	Leaf biomass ratio (leaf biomass vs total above-ground biomass) - Leafiness	none	0.75 [0, 1]			
HM	Specific (allometric) plant height – <i>Height efficiency</i> (height vs. total above-ground biomass ratio)	cm·g ⁻¹	20 [1.2, 838]			
b_HM	Shape parameter b for specific plant height – Height efficiency of heavy vs light plant	none	0.27 [0.0005, 0.99]			
WM	Specific (allometric) plant width - Width efficiency (width vs. total above-ground biomass ratio)	cm·g ⁻¹	22 [0.82, 3464]			
b_WM	Shape parameter b for specific plant width – Width efficiency of heavy vs light plant	none	0.37 [0.02, 1.70]			
RLH	Median relative leaf height (relative plant height below which 50% of leaf area are located)	cm cm ⁻¹	0.48 [0.20, 0.81]			
b_RLH	Shape parameter for leaf distribution along plant height – Unevenness of leaf distribution	none	2.7 [0.24, 58]			
C. Response to shading (variation in morphology variables with shading intensity)						
mu_SLA	Response of specific leaf area to shading	none	0.48 [-0.56, 1.72]			
mu_LBR	Response of leaf biomass ratio to shading	none	-0.01 [-0.66, 1.02]			
mu_HM	Response of specific height to shading	none	0.43 [-0.53, 2.27]			
mu_WM	Response of specific width to shading	none	0.27 [-1.53, 1.87]			
mu_RLH	Response of median relative leaf height to shading	none	0.01 [-1.00, 1.39]			

⁶⁸⁴ ^{\$} The BBCH-scale is a generic scale applying to both mono and dicotyledonous weed species to identify their <u>growth</u> stages (Hess et al., 1997)

[§]Median, minimum and maximum values over all crop and weed species. For B and C, these are over all stages

686 [&] All biomass-based units refer to dry plant or leaf biomass

- 687 Table 2. Which factors influence crop yield loss the most?
- 688 A. Analysis of variance of yield loss as a function of simulation factors with PROC GLM of SAS.
- 689 Cropping systems and weather repetitions were nested within regions. All factors were significant at
- 690 p=0.0001

	Partial R ²				
Factors	Crop grain	Weed seed			
	yield loss	production			
Years since simulation onset (log10-transformed)	0.03	0.00			
Crop species	0.10	0.01			
Region	0.04	0.01			
Cropping system (within region)	0.27	0.27			
Weather repetition (within region)	0.01	0.00			
Crop species x cropping system (within region)	0.05	0.09			
Crop species x weather repetition (within region)	0.01	0.00			
Cropping system x weather repetition (within region)	0.17	0.05			
TOTAL	0.68	0.44			

691

B. Comparison of means. Variation in yield loss relative to mean loss. Numbers followed by the same

693 letter are not significantly different at p=0.05. Crops between brackets are based on a too small number

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694	of situations a	nd reflect th	ne ettect of	cronning	system and	region	rather tha	n the croi	n snecies
074	or situations a	nu reneet u		cropping	system and	region	rather tha	ii uic cio	b species

Crop species		Variation in				
		N	Crop grain yield loss (%) [§]		Weed seed production (seeds/m ²)	
Maize	ZEAMX	17342	-31.4	a	5682	d
Oilseed rape	BRSNN	10452	-26.8	b	-26853	b
(Field bean)	(VICFX cv Gladice)	210	-15.8	c	-26365	abc
Sunflower	HELAN	3127	-1.7	d	43898	f
Spring barley	HORVX	1421	-0.6	de	-1540	d
Wheat	TRZAX cv Cézanne	18187	0.4	e	-12321	c
Triticale	TTLSS	655	0.5	e	8209	de
Wheat	TRZAX cv Orvantis	3939	0.9	e	-33635	a
Soybean	GLXMA	689	4.3	f	61057	g
Pea	PIBSX cv Enduro	446	7.7	fgh	-2250	cd
(Sorghum)	(SORVU)	241	7.8	fgh	32872	f
(Flax)	(LIUUT)	258	8.2	fgh	-21315	bc
Barley	HORVX	6901	8.6	g	17	d
Wheat	TRZAX cv Caphorn	3028	11	h	-40991	a
Spring pea	PIBSX	4340	26.9	i	13537	e

 $^{\$}$ Yield loss is 100 (yield in weed-free – yield in weed-infested simulation)/(yield in weed-free simulation)

698 9 Figure captions

699 Figure 1. The weed species (shown with EPPO codes) and species traits that explain weed harmfulness 700 for crop production, irrespective of crops and cropping systems. Synthetic representation of the RLQ 701 results with weed-impact indicators and weed plant density in simulated fields as matrix R and L, 702 respectively, and parameters driving morphology and shading as matrix Q. A. Weed-impact indicators 703 with correlation circle, B. Weed species, clustered into groups, following a Ward ascendant hierarchy 704 classification, C. species parameters, with those positively or negatively correlated to weed harmfulness 705 for crop production in respectively red and green; parameters in gray are not significantly correlated to 706 weed harmfulness based on fourth-corner analysis (LA0 is hidden behind SLa0, mu_RLH6 and 7 behind 707 mu_RLH10). For the meaning of species parameters, see Table 1. (Nathalie Colbach © 2018)

708

Figure 2. Annual crop performance in terms of weed-caused crop yield loss (100 t/t), weed seed production (seeds/m²) and potential yield (MJ/ha), and the correlation with crop parameters driving potential plant morphology and shading response. Principal Component Analysis (PCA) on annual performance indicators. A and C: arrows show performance variables, with a projection of the most correlated crop parameters. B and D: dots show annual performance of 272 cropping systems x 27 years x 10 weather repetitions as symbols and crop species (EPPO codes) at the center of 95% ellipses. For the meaning of the crop parameters, see Table 1. (Nathalie Colbach © 2018)

716

717 Figure 3. Schematic representation of crop ideotypes in terms of potential plant morphology and shade 718 response for maximising potential yield and limiting weed-caused yield loss across a large range of 719 contrasting cropping systems and pedoclimates. Based on crop parameters shown to increase potential 720 yield in weed-free simulations (A) and decrease yield loss (B) by Principal Component Analysis of 721 Figure 2. Parameters describing plant morphology in unshaded conditions drive space occupation before 722 other plants (top); parameters describing shade response drive the reaction to neighbour plants (bottom) 723 in monospecies (A) and multispecies canopies (B). For the names of the crop parameters, see Table 1. 724 (Nathalie Colbach © 2018)

725

726 Figure 4. Schematic representation of weed "harmtypes" in terms of potential plant morphology and 727 shade response that drive immediate harmfulness for the current crop irrespective of cropping system 728 and pedoclimate. Based on weed parameters shown to increase yield loss, field infestation, harvest 729 pollution (A), only yield loss and field infestation (B), only harvest pollution (C) by RLQ analysis of 730 Figure 1. Parameters describing plant morphology in unshaded conditions drive space occupation before 731 other plants (top); parameters describing shade response drive the reaction to neighbour plants in 732 multispecies canopies (bottom). For the names of the crop parameters, see Table 1. (Nathalie Colbach 733 © 2018)









Dim1 (39.6%)



React to neighbours

