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1 **Proof of concept: Nitrogen use efficiency of contrasting spring wheat**
2 **varieties grown in greenhouse and field**

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20 **Keywords:** drought, field experiment, genotype × environment interaction, greenhouse experiment,
21 nutrient use efficiency, *Triticum aestivum* L.

22

23 Abstract

24 *Aims* Major aims were to test and evaluate a new concept for assessment of nitrogen use
25 efficiency (NUE) of crops by growing six spring wheat varieties in greenhouse and field
26 environments. NUE was calculated with a plant based concept integrating the entire crop life
27 history and separating plant characteristics from environmental factors affecting NUE.

28 Specific hypotheses were tested related to the varieties' drought and nutrient fertilisation
29 responses for NUE components, and coherence of those responses in field and greenhouse.

30 *Methods* The wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.) cultivated varieties 'Diskett', 'Granary', 'Quarna',
31 'Stilett', 'Vinjett', and a Swedish landrace ('Dala') were grown in field and greenhouse
32 environments in Central Sweden. Two fertilisation treatments were included in a field and
33 greenhouse experiment, and in the greenhouse also drought. The NUE components N uptake
34 efficiency (U_N), grain-specific N efficiency ($E_{N,g}$) and grain N concentration ($C_{N,g}$) were
35 assessed.

36 *Results* Drought reduced yield and NUE through $E_{N,g}$, and more so when drought occurred
37 prior to anthesis than after anthesis. Effect of fertilisation treatment on NUE components was
38 similar in the two set-ups, but there were fewer variety x fertilisation interactions in the field.
39 U_N was higher in the field and $E_{N,g}$ was higher in the greenhouse, while $C_{N,g}$ and overall NUE
40 were similar in the two environments. Ranking of varieties regarding NUE and U_N was
41 similar in the greenhouse and field, but different regarding $E_{N,g}$ and $C_{N,g}$.

42 *Conclusions* The NUE concept is a useful tool to describe and integrate important NUE
43 components for crops grown in different treatments (nutrient fertilisation, drought) and
44 experimental set-ups, i.e. greenhouse and field. Similar variety ranking in overall NUE across
45 experimental set-ups indicates stable results in different environments.

46 **Abbreviations**

47 N Nitrogen

48 NUE Nitrogen use efficiency

49 **Introduction**

50 Agricultural crops are often fertilised with nutrients to increase yields. However, the use of
51 fertilisers also has negative consequences, e.g. emissions of the potent greenhouse gas N₂O
52 and increased nutrient leaching to the environment causing eutrophication (Canfield et al.
53 2010). At the same time, use of fertilisers, especially nitrogen, is driven by economic pressure
54 on farmers to maintain high crop yield and quality, and a demand for secure food supplies for
55 the world's population. The importance of in particular nitrogen (N) for production in
56 conjunction with the possible negative environmental consequences of its use make N use
57 efficiency (NUE) important in the development of sustainable food production.

58 Many methods have been used to assess NUE. In research on cereals the concept presented by
59 Moll et al. (1982) is often used. It is defined as the grain yield per unit available N in the soil
60 and is hereafter referred to as NUE_{Moll} . It can be divided into uptake efficiency (units of plant
61 N per unit of soil N) and utilisation efficiency (units of grain yield produced per unit plant N).
62 These two components have often been compared between varieties and fertilisation levels in
63 order to determine which component is more important for overall NUE_{Moll} , but the results are
64 inconsistent (Le Gouis et al. 2000; Moll et al. 1982). The approach by Moll et al. (1982)
65 considers only the crop N and grain biomass at harvest, which is the *outcome* of growth and
66 development processes occurring over a long period in which N not always is the most
67 limiting factor for growth. However, N use efficiency is most relevant during the major
68 growth period when N is limiting for growth. In this study we used an approach that considers
69 aspects from grain sowing to harvested product, which is presented in detail by Weih et al.

70 (2011) and referred to as NUE_{Weih} . The NUE components in this approach address similar
71 processes to the Moll et al. (1982) definition, but an additional component is added and two
72 are redefined to include N retranslocation and N use during the major growth period. The
73 components are (1) N uptake efficiency (U_N) based on initial plant N, (2) grain-specific N
74 efficiency ($E_{N,g}$), which is the efficiency of converting plant N to grain biomass, and (3) grain
75 N concentration ($C_{N,g}$) which is related to N retranslocation (Table 1). In this approach, the
76 possible significance of seed N resources for early growth is recognized, and the plant's
77 ability to multiply the N available in seeds is compared and evaluated in detail by means of
78 the three NUE components. Environmental factors are assumed to affect the NUE and its
79 components, but are not an intrinsic part of the equation. This means that increased external
80 resource supply like added nutrient supply may increase NUE_{Weih} , while it would typically
81 decrease NUE_{Moll} . The clear separation of plant characteristics and environmental factors
82 affecting NUE facilitates identification of desirable crop traits for improved NUE by variety
83 selection (e.g. variety ranking) and plant breeding.

84 In general, efficiency of nutrient use has been studied independently in different kinds of
85 experiments (here referred to as experimental set-ups), like in the greenhouse or field.
86 However, to the best of our knowledge there are only few reports of studies in which
87 efficiency of nutrient use is investigated with the same plant material grown in greenhouse
88 and field set-ups. For example, twenty-five winter wheat cultivars had different phosphorous
89 use efficiency in the greenhouse compared to field (Gunes et al. 2006) while 40 bread and
90 durum wheat cultivars responded similarly to Zn fertilisation in the greenhouse and field in
91 another study (Kalayci et al. 1999). Greenhouse experiments offer several advantages
92 compared to field experiments: The conditions are often easier to control and to repeat,
93 resulting in reduced uncontrolled variation and thereby increased possibilities of detecting
94 significant differences between treatments. Furthermore, experimental treatments are often

95 easier to apply in the greenhouse and costs are often lower. It is often more feasible to include
96 extreme conditions in a greenhouse experiment, making it easier to find genotype
97 environment interactions. There are however drawbacks regarding how the results can be
98 interpreted in their proper context in the field. Some of these drawbacks are related to the pot
99 environment. Pots are often saturated with water at least in the bottom, leading to hypoxia.
100 Pot soil also often has a higher temperature than both the greenhouse air and normal field soil
101 temperatures, due to the sun shining on the (often black) surface of the pot (Passioura 2006).
102 Growth in (small) pots generally reduces plant biomass (Poorter et al. 2012). There could also
103 be effects related to the aboveground conditions, which may differ between a plant located in
a dense crop stand under full natural radiation in a field and a plant in a greenhouse with
artificial lighting and often less shading from neighbouring plants. A comparison of nutrient
use efficiencies especially regarding N (i.e. NUE) using contrasting genotypes grown under
differing conditions, such as in the greenhouse and field, could improve our understanding of
plant – soil – environment interactions and facilitate interpretation of results deriving from
different experimental set-ups.

Table 1
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110 The availability of water for agricultural production will decrease in many parts of the world
111 according to future scenarios on the effects of climate change on agriculture. For example,
112 large parts of Sweden are predicted to face more severe summer droughts in the future
113 (Swedish Commission on Climate and Vulnerability 2007). The impact of drought on wheat
114 production depends on the timing of the drought event. Early-season drought reduces the
115 formation of flower structures and grain number, and differs from the Mediterranean-type
116 terminal drought affecting grain filling and reducing grain size (Ferris et al. 1998; Ji et al.
117 2010). The effect of drought on grain number occurring around flowering is often considered
118 the main contributor to yield losses under drought (Ji et al. 2010). In terms of NUE, those
119 yield losses are expected to affect especially the efficiency of converting plant N to grain

120 biomass (i.e. the grain-specific N efficiency, $E_{N,g}$ in the terminology by Weih et al. 2011).
121 Apart from timing of the drought event, the performance of wheat under drought compared
122 with irrigation is affected by genotype and genotype \times drought interactions (Fischer and
123 Maurer 1978). Also the effect of nutrient fertilisation is dependent on the genotype (i.e.,
124 genotype \times fertilisation interaction) (Górny and Garczynski 2008). In addition, crop water and
125 N use are interrelated but few studies deal with NUE in different varieties exposed to various
126 combinations of fertiliser and drought treatments (Cabrera-Bosquet et al. 2007; Giuliani et al.
127 2011).

128 Apart from concept (Weih et al. 2011) test and evaluation, the specific objectives of this study
129 were to evaluate the effects of genotype and environment on different NUE components
130 across a set of spring wheat varieties grown in different experimental set-ups. We tested the
131 hypotheses that (i) early drought (before and at anthesis) reduces grain yield, grain-specific N
132 efficiency and NUE more than late drought (after anthesis); (ii) the effects of drought and
133 fertilisation treatments on NUE and its components vary between different varieties (i.e. G \times
134 E interaction); and (iii) ranking in NUE aspects of different varieties is similar in different
135 experimental set-ups. We tested these hypotheses with six varieties of spring wheat grown in
136 a field experiment with two fertilisation treatments and in a greenhouse pot experiment with
137 two fertilisation and three drought treatments.

138

139 **Materials and methods**

140 **Plant material**

141 The spring wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.) cultivated varieties ‘Diskett’, ‘Granary’, ‘Quarna’,
142 ‘Stilett’, ‘Vinjett’, and a natural variety (landrace) from Dalecarlia, here called ‘Dala’ were
143 used. The varieties represented the span of variation in grain yield, grain protein content, grain
144 size, plant height and maturation time recorded in the 2008 Swedish variety trials (Larsson et
145 al. 2008), or experience in the case of Dala. Our aim in selection was to ensure that the
146 varieties included were dissimilar, but still well adapted to the growth conditions in Sweden.
147 Granary is a high-yielding late maturing variety, Quarna has high grain protein concentration
148 and early maturity and Stilett is a short variety with low grain weight. Vinjett is used for
149 comparisons in Swedish spring wheat variety trials, and is a relatively tall variety. The traits
150 of Diskett are intermediate. The Dala landrace is very tall and low yielding, with heavy grains
151 and high protein concentration, and had been grown in the area of the field experiment for 10
152 generations. Diskett, Granary, Stilett and Vinjett seeds were treated with bitertanol and
153 fuberidazole, while Quarna seeds were treated with guazatine. The seeds of the Dala landrace
154 were untreated.

155 **Experimental design**

156 The field experiment was designed as a complete block split-plot with four replications. Main
157 plot factor was fertilisation treatment, F_L and F_H (fertilisation low or high), and varieties were
158 randomized subplots within each fertilisation treatment. The greenhouse experiment also had
159 a complete split-plot design with four replications, and single pots as experimental units. Main
160 plot factors were combinations of fertilisation (F) treatment, drought (D) treatment and
161 harvest time (H), and the sub-plot factor was variety (V). The fertilisation treatments F_L and
162 F_H ; the drought treatments D0 (no drought), D1 (drought before anthesis) and D2 (drought

163 after anthesis); and three harvest times H1 (seedling stage), H2 (before anthesis and drought
164 treatments) and H3 (ripening), in all relevant combinations (e.g. the combination D2 and H1
165 is not relevant), were randomised within each block. The six varieties of spring wheat were
166 randomised within each treatment combination.

167 **Experimental management**

168 **Field experiment**

169 The field experiment was conducted in 2010 and was situated near Uppsala, Sweden
170 (59°50'N, 17°47'E). The mean temperatures for May, June, July and August were 11.0 °C,
171 15.0 °C, 20.4 °C and 16.5 °C respectively, and the precipitation sums were 54, 38, 69 and 89
172 mm, respectively (climate data from the Ultuna meteorological station situated about 8 km
173 from the experimental site). The previous crop was pea. The experimental plots were 2 × 16
174 m. Destructive sampling was limited to the three outermost meters in each end of the plots,
175 while 10 m in the centre were kept intact for grain yield determination. Sowing took place on
176 29 April, with 550 viable seeds m⁻², which is the standard seed rate for spring wheat in variety
177 trials in Sweden. The row spacing was 12-13 cm and sowing depth 3-4 cm. On 30 April 2010
178 the high fertilisation treatment, F_H, received 81 kg N ha⁻¹ as ammonium nitrate mixed with
179 calcium carbonate and sulfur (0.27 g g⁻¹ N). The low fertilisation treatment, F_L, did not
180 receive any fertiliser. There were sufficient amounts of P and K in the soil of the field
181 experiment, and plant growth could be assumed to be N-limited in both F_L and F_H. Herbicides
182 Ariane S plus Hormotex were applied once to control weeds. There was no need for any pest
183 or disease control.

184 Soil samples were taken in each block to determine soil type (6-7 November 2009) and soil
185 mineral N (14-15 April 2010). At each sampling occasion, twenty subsamples per block were
186 taken at the level 0-30 cm, and 10 subsamples from the levels 30-60 and 60-90 cm; the

187 samples were pooled for each depth. After storage in the freezer, samples for ammonium and
188 nitrate analysis were milled and extracted using 2 M KCl at a 125 g fresh soil: 250 mL KCl
189 ratio and concentrations were determined using an auto analyser (TRAACS 800, Germany).
190 The top 30 cm of the soil was silty clay (British Standards Institution) with 0.056 g g⁻¹ organic
191 matter content. The soil pH (H₂O) was 6.4, 6.9 and 7.1 (0-30, 30-60, 60-90 cm). The mean
192 total amount of ammonium and nitrate N in 0–90 cm of the soil was 95 kg ha⁻¹ before addition
193 of fertiliser in spring.

194

195 **Greenhouse experiment**

196 The greenhouse experiment was carried out from 8 February to 21 May 2010 in a greenhouse
197 in Uppsala, Sweden (59°49'N, 17°39'O). The light regime was ambient light supplemented
198 with 16 h artificial light per day. Day temperature was set to 18 °C and night temperature to
199 12 °C, and the maximum and minimum hourly mean temperatures were 29.4 °C and 9.2 °C
200 respectively. The overall mean temperature was 16.7 °C. Photosynthetically active radiation
201 (PAR, 400-700 nm) was recorded during three days in March at the top of the pots and ranged
202 between 400 and 130 μmol m⁻² s⁻¹ at daytime. White metal stands were placed around each
203 pot to prevent lodging. The experimental units were 5.5-L pots placed on individual plates. A
204 50 cm x 50 cm square of woven plastic cloth was placed in the bottom of each pot. The pots
205 were filled with 4.5 L fine Perlite and washed with 2 L deionised water. The seeds were
206 placed on the moist surface and covered with 0.5 L Perlite, creating a sowing depth of 2-3 cm.
207 Sowing was performed on 8 February 2010 and seven days later most seeds had germinated
208 and the first leaves were 1-2 cm above the Perlite surface. Hence 15 February was used as the
209 day of emergence, day 1 of the experiment. The 19 seeds sown per pot were thinned down to
210 15 plants on day 17. This corresponds to a plant density of 550 plants m⁻². The plants were

211 watered every 2-3 days and treatments were circulated within blocks in a systematic manner
212 on the watering occasions. All pots were placed close to each other without paths. No pests or
213 diseases were observed.

214 Fertiliser was applied 3 times a week as 50 mL solution. The following standard nutrient mix
215 was used (g L^{-1}): N 51, Ca 3, P 10, Mg 4, K 43, S 4, Mn 0.2, Fe 0.17, Cu 0.015, Zn 0.03, B
216 0.1, Mo 0.004. The mix was diluted in deionised water and applied in increasing amounts as
217 the plants grew larger, so that the N supply ranged between 2.5 and 400 mg N $\text{pot}^{-1} \text{ week}^{-1}$ in
218 the high fertilisation treatment (F_H) and 1/8 of those levels in the low fertilisation treatment
219 (F_L). In the greenhouse experiment, nutrients other than N were added in their corresponding
220 proportions (i.e. higher concentrations in the high than low fertilisation treatment) to avoid
221 that other nutrients than N would limit plant growth. The F_H treatment received a total of 2256
222 mg N per pot and F_L received 287 mg N per pot (corresponding to 150 mg and 19 mg N per
223 plant, respectively). The low fertilisation level was intended to represent a condition with
224 nutrient supply far below optimum, and the high level a condition with nutrient supply close
225 to or above optimum.

226 Three different drought treatments were applied. In the D0 treatment plants were watered
227 throughout the whole experiment. In the D1 treatment drought started on day 45 when plants
in the most developed pot had reached beginning of anthesis (BBCH 61 according to
Lancashire et al. 1991), and the flag leaf of the least developed plants was just visible (BBCH
37) (Table 2). In the D2 treatment drought started on day 64 after plants in all pots in all
230 treatments had reached anthesis. The drought treatments consisted of withdrawn watering for
231 9 (early drought, D1) or 11 days (late drought, D2). The drought was ended and full watering
232 resumed when there were visible differences between the pots in terms of plant condition and
233 many had started wilting. Fertiliser was given throughout the drought periods.
234

Table 2
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235 **Measurements**

236 **Field experiment**

237 Samples of five plants per plot were taken before the major growth period (H1, 24-31 May,
238 around BBCH 13) and after the major growth period (H2, 5-8 July, BBCH 55-69). Each block
239 was sampled within one day. At H1 five plants were chosen randomly from an area of 3×2
240 m at the ends of the plots, while at H2 five plants were chosen randomly only from the second
241 outermost rows of the plots. The plants were uprooted to try and make sure all shoots were
242 included and afterwards cut with scissors at ground level. The plants were stored in plastic
243 bags in a fridge for maximum 2 days, and dried in $60\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ for minimum 3 days. The dried plant
244 biomass was ground using a knife mill, thereafter with a ball mill. The ball mill grinding and
245 the nitrogen analysis were carried out by Waikato Stable Isotope Unit (The University of
246 Waikato, Hamilton, New Zealand) using a Dumas elemental analyser (Europa Scientific
247 ANCA-SL) interfaced to an isotope mass spectrometer (Europa Scientific 20-20 Stable
248 Isotope Analyser) (Europa Scientific Ltd, Crewe, U.K.).

249 The number of plants m^{-2} was assessed on 28 May and 1 June 2010 by counting plants on four
250 running metres in each plot. They were counted on 2 adjacent 1-m sections on the 3rd and 4th
251 row from the side, on two locations in the plot situated diagonal to each other at each end of
252 the plot. Grain yield was determined from the inner 20 m^2 in each plot on 28 August 2010.
253 Subsamples of grains were analysed for water and N concentrations (based on a conversion
254 factor of 5.7 from protein concentration) using the near infrared transmittance (NIT) method
255 (InfratecTM 1241 Grain Analyzer, Foss, Denmark).

256 A final harvest to determine aboveground biomass (B) was carried out on 20 August. A total
257 area of 0.5 m^2 was sampled from each plot, i.e., one square of $0.5 \times 0.5\text{ m}$ in each end of the
258 plot. The samples were dried in $60\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ for 3 days.

259 Greenhouse

260 Harvest 1 (H1) was performed on days 10-12 (BBCH 11), harvest 2 (H2) on days 39-40
261 (BBCH 41-49) and harvest 3 (H3) on days 93-96, around BBCH 91. Separate pots were
262 allocated to each harvest. At H1 and H2, a representative sample of five plants per pot was
263 taken at surface level. At H3 all plants in the pots were harvested and threshing was
264 performed with a sample threshing machine (Saatmeister, Bad Godesberg, Germany).
265 Seedlings, straw and ears were all dried at 60 °C for at least 2 days and weighed.

266 Nitrogen concentration was analysed in aboveground biomass from all harvests, at H3
267 separately in straw and grain, but not including the chaff. Chaff was assumed to have the
268 same N concentration as the straw. The dried plant biomass was ground using a knife mill and
269 then a ball mill. The ball mill grinding and N analysis were carried out by the Waikato Stable
270 Isotope Unit (University of Waikato, Hamilton, New Zealand). The N analysis was performed
271 with a Dumas elemental analyser (Europa Scientific ANCA-SL) interfaced to an isotope mass
272 spectrometer (Europa Scientific 20-20 Stable Isotope Analyser, Europa Scientific Ltd, Crewe,
273 U.K.) or a LECO (Truspec CN determinator, LECO Corporation, US).

274 Nitrogen use efficiency

275 Nitrogen use efficiency and NUE components were calculated according to the method of
276 Weih et al. (2011a) (Table 1). The major growth period was the period between the harvests
277 H1 and H2, and H2 in the greenhouse was performed before the initiation of any drought
278 treatment. This means that U_N was calculated based on N uptake prior to any drought
279 treatment. We determined harvest dates and initiation of drought treatments based on fixed
280 points in time rather than the developmental stage that was used by Weih et al. (2011). This
281 difference was considered necessary to ensure that all plants experienced similar
282 environmental conditions between the harvests, thus avoiding different varieties being

283 exposed to different environments when grown in the same experimental treatment. For the
284 field experiment, NUE and its components were calculated per m^2 , while in the greenhouse
285 NUE was calculated per plant. The measures are still comparable since extrapolating the pot
286 values to m^2 would in fact not change the values of NUE and its components. The plant
287 density was instead included as a covariate in the statistical analysis since we expect plant
288 density to affect NUE. For grain and total aboveground biomass (B_g and B , respectively) the
289 values are dependent on the choice of denominator, and we have presented results per plant
290 both from the greenhouse and the field. The variety patterns were unchanged when
291 greenhouse values were extrapolated to an area based measure.

292 **Statistical analysis**

293 The statistics were performed separately for the two experiments. In both cases the NUE
294 components were analyzed with the software SAS[®] procedure mixed, using the REML
295 estimation method and the Kenward-Roger method (Kenward and Roger 1997) for calculating
296 the fixed effects standard errors and degrees of freedom. Homogeneity of variances and
297 normality were examined graphically. Fertilisation treatment and variety were treated as fixed
298 effects and block as random effect. For the greenhouse experiment, drought was also
299 considered a fixed effect while block x fertilisation x drought (for U_N only block x
300 fertilisation) were treated as a random effects. Plant density was used as a covariate for all
301 components in the analysis of field data. In the analysis of greenhouse data plant density was
302 used as a covariate for NUE components related to the last harvest, since although the pots
303 were thinned to 15 plants some re-emerged. For the field analysis, N uptake efficiency (U_N)
304 and NUE were log-10 transformed. For the greenhouse analysis, NUE and U_N were log-10
305 transformed and grain-specific N efficiency ($E_{N,g}$) was square-root transformed.

306 In the greenhouse the variables grain N concentration ($C_{N,g}$), NUE and grain biomass (B_g)
307 showed greater variability in the F_H -D1 treatment combination than in the other combinations.

308 For these variables, a model with residual error variance depending on treatment combination
309 was fitted. This model included two residual error variances, as the F_H -D1 combination had a
310 different residual error variance than the other combinations.

311 All statistics were computed with the software SAS version 9.3 (SAS Institute Inc., 2002-
312 2008). Plots were made with the statistical programming language R version 2.14.2 (R
313 Development Core Team, 2009).

314

315 **Results**

316 **Effect of experimental set-up**

317 Fertilisation treatment affected NUE components both in the field (Figure 1) and in the
318 greenhouse (Figure 2). The comparison of the greenhouse and the field experiment showed
319 similar ranking of the varieties regarding NUE and N uptake efficiency (U_N), in both low and
320 high fertilisation condition (F_L and F_H) in the field compared to the low fertilised and fully
321 irrigated (F_L -D0) treatment in the greenhouse (Figure 3). The variety ranking regarding grain-
322 specific N efficiency ($E_{N,g}$) and grain N concentration ($C_{N,g}$) was different in the two
323 experimental set-ups. When the values from the F_L -D0 treatment in the greenhouse were
324 compared to the F_L and F_H treatments in the field, the U_N values were 3.0 and 5.6 times higher
325 in the field than in the greenhouse, respectively. The corresponding $E_{N,g}$ values were 3.4 and
326 4.4 times higher in the greenhouse compared to the field. The $C_{N,g}$ in the F_L -D0 treatment in
327 the greenhouse compared with the field with the factors 1.1 and 1.0 for F_L and F_H ,
328 respectively. The $C_{N,g}$ in the greenhouse (F_H -D0 treatment) was 2.3 times higher than $C_{N,g}$ at
329 F_H in the field. Overall NUE was between 1.3 times higher in the greenhouse compared to the
330 field at low fertilisation (F_L), and 0.8 times lower in the greenhouse compared to the field at
331 high fertilisation (F_H).

332

333 Effect of experimental treatments

334 Fertilisation had similar effects on N uptake efficiency (U_N) in all varieties in both field and
335 the greenhouse. There was however a significant fertilisation \times variety interaction effect in the
336 greenhouse, possibly due to a smaller increase in Granary than the other varieties at high
337 fertilisation (F_H). Grain-specific N efficiency ($E_{N,g}$) decreased with increased fertilisation, and
338 in the greenhouse Quarna had a smaller reduction than other varieties. Overall NUE increased
339 at F_H both in the field and the greenhouse and the varieties ranked similar. The fertilisation \times
340 variety interaction for NUE was significant in the greenhouse, with the weakest fertilisation
341 response seen in Dala. Of the NUE components, only grain N concentration ($C_{N,g}$) showed
342 significant variety \times fertilisation interaction effects in the field. Quarna had the highest $C_{N,g}$ at
343 F_L in both experiments, but at F_H Quarna and Dala were similarly high in the field while all
344 varieties were similar in the greenhouse.

345

346 Drought condition was applied only in the greenhouse and decreased grain biomass (B_g), $E_{N,g}$
347 and also overall NUE along with increased $C_{N,g}$ (Fig. 2, Table 4). The early drought (D1)
348 treatment reduced grain biomass more than late drought (D2), resulting in greater effect of the
349 early drought treatment on $E_{N,g}$ and NUE (Fig. 2). Drought response was different between
350 varieties for some characteristics (drought \times variety interaction, Table 4). For example, Dala
351 had the lowest $C_{N,g}$ in D1 but the highest $C_{N,g}$ in D2, while Vinjett was among the highest in
352 D1 but had the lowest $C_{N,g}$ in D2. In the field, where no drought condition was applied, the
353 high fertilisation (F_H) treatment increased grain biomass (B_g). In the greenhouse, with all
354 droughts pooled, F_H decreased B_g due to a negative effect of fertilisation in the drought
355 treatments.

356

357 **Discussion**

358 There were large differences in the magnitude of the values of the NUE components between
359 the two experimental set-ups (mainly in N uptake efficiency, U_N , and grain-specific N
360 efficiency, $E_{N,g}$), but similar ranking of the varieties relative to each other in U_N and NUE in
361 the two set-ups. Significant genotype environment interactions were found both in the
362 greenhouse and in the field, but were more frequently observed in the greenhouse.

363

364 Nitrogen use and N productivity

365 Biomass production per unit nitrogen during the major growth period, or N productivity, is a
366 central process for all plants grown in N-limited conditions (Ågren 1985), and our grain-
367 specific N efficiency ($E_{N,g}$) corresponds to that N productivity. In contrast to $E_{N,g}$, the N
368 utilisation efficiency defined by Moll et al. (1982) cannot be interpreted in the same
369 functional way as N productivity. From a mechanistic perspective, N utilisation efficiency (of
370 Moll et al. 1982) assumes that the final N pool is the functional N pool over the whole
371 growing season, and therefore functionally greatly underestimates the N productivity. For
372 example, for the low fertilisation – no drought (F_L -D0) treatment of our study, the mean N
373 utilisation efficiency according to Moll et al. (1982) would be 38 g g^{-1} , whereas mean $E_{N,g}$
374 was 277 g g^{-1} . There are clear advantages of a functionally sound interpretation of $E_{N,g}$.
375 Nevertheless, the start and end of the major growth period varied between the varieties, and
376 those varietal differences in development are difficult to match in terms of correct sampling at
377 many different points in time within the same experiment. To solve that problem,
378 extrapolating mean N content during the major growth period based on measured values at
379 similar points in time combined with a model accounting for differences in timing of the
380 critical developmental stages assessed non-destructively, would be more appropriate than the

381 simple mean value proposed by Weih et al. (2011). That solution would also allow calculation
382 of mean N uptake efficiency (U_N) in situations where destructive harvests at all critical plant
383 stages are not feasible, as was the case in the drought treatments of our greenhouse study.

384

385 Yields, grain N and limiting factors in greenhouse vs. field

386 In contrast to field, yields in the greenhouse were relatively low, which was probably caused
387 by the high temperature in combination with low light irradiance in the greenhouse (Van
388 Oijen and Ewert 1999). Furthermore, a high biomass to substrate volume ratio in our
389 greenhouse pot experiment could have been another factor limiting biomass production
390 (Poorter et al. 2012). The low fertilisation (F_L) treatment was intended to simulate conditions
391 in which nutrients, particularly N, strongly limit plant growth. Nitrogen-limited plant growth
392 in this study is supported by harvested grain N concentrations being similar to sown grain N
393 concentration and within the range of commonly observed field values. Drought increased
394 harvested grain N concentration slightly, and the high fertilisation treatment (F_H) more than
395 doubled grain N concentration compared with the sown grain, up to values that we consider
396 extreme. The combination of high grain N concentration and low grain yield, here observed
397 especially in the F_H treatment, could indicate low starch content. This has previously been
398 reported under high temperature and nutrient supply along with low light intensities during
399 grain filling (Grashoff and D' Antuono 1997; Triboi and Triboi-Blondel 2002), i.e. conditions
400 characteristic of our F_H treatment in the greenhouse. The results indicate that in the
401 greenhouse the plants grown in the F_L treatment were mostly N-limited, whereas the plants
402 grown in the F_H treatment were mostly carbon (light)-limited. In the field experiment plants at
403 both fertilisation treatments seemed to be N-limited, and this difference in the experimental
404 set-up should be considered in the comparison between them.

405

406 Effect of drought treatments assessed in greenhouse

407 Drought condition significantly reduced yield and NUE, and more so when the drought

408 condition occurred prior to anthesis (D1 treatment) than after anthesis (D2 treatment). Those

409 results support other findings (e.g. Ferris et al. 1998; Ji et al. 2010) and are in line with our

410 first hypothesis that early drought reduces grain yield, grain-specific N efficiency and NUE

411 more than late drought. However, varietal differences in development made it difficult to

412 assess especially the effects of drought on NUE aspects, and we need to improve assessment

413 of N accumulation across varieties with differences in developmental timing in the way

414 previously discussed. We found strong interaction between drought and nutrient supply,

415 because increased nutrient supply decreased yield when the plants were subjected to drought.

416 A relevant finding in line with our observation is that higher nutrient availability can reduce

417 yields as a result of terminal drought, i.e. water deficit during grain filling (Van Herwaarden

418 et al. 1998). In our experiment water became available again during grain filling, but the

419 additional water apparently could not compensate for the greater drought-induced reduction in

420 yield at the higher fertilisation level. The results indicate that even the relatively short drought

421 periods applied here reduced yield and NUE through grain-specific N efficiency especially at

422 high nutrient supply. According to our results, a critical issue at least under the conditions in

423 Northern Europe is whether drought will become more frequent also early in the growing

424 season, an issue also pointed out by Mäkelä et al. (2008). Genotype by drought interaction for

425 some of the traits (e.g. Table 4) indicates a potential for breeding towards improved drought

426 adaptation (Fischer and Maurer 1978), but the limited amount of genotypes used here does not

427 allow any more detailed conclusions regarding desirable traits for wheat improvement under

428 drought.

429

430 Proof of NUE concept for crop and variety evaluation

431 The components N uptake efficiency (U_N) and grain-specific N efficiency ($E_{N,g}$) greatly
432 differed in magnitude between the experiments while NUE and grain N concentration ($C_{N,g}$)
433 did not. Great variation in U_N and $E_{N,g}$ between the experiments indicates differences in the
434 environmental factors affecting N uptake (e.g. nutrient availability) and grain production per
435 unit plant N. Despite great variation in U_N and $E_{N,g}$ between the two experiments, the overall
436 NUE was similar, partly because the variations in U_N and $E_{N,g}$ cancelled out each other. This
437 means that N accumulation in harvested grain per unit N in seed grain was relatively constant
438 between the two experiments, in spite of much greater variation in two out of the three major
439 NUE components. The results illustrate that NUE assessment, e.g. for identification of
440 desirable crop traits for improved NUE, should not be restricted to single NUE components,
441 but simultaneously analyze the various components contributing to NUE. Such integrated
442 NUE assessment greatly facilitates the interpretation of experiments carried out under
443 different environmental conditions, e.g. the greenhouse and field experiment studied here.

444 Assessment of NUE and its components can be used to evaluate crops and varieties in terms
445 of integrated crop characteristics important for yield and sustainability issues. In future, the
446 integrated crop characteristics investigated here need to be linked to key crop traits that can be
447 directly used as targets in variety selection and breeding. Identification of desirable crop traits
448 for improved nutrient use efficiency currently receives much attention. We conclude that the
449 NUE concept by Weih et al. (2011) can be a useful tool to describe and integrate important
450 NUE components for crops grown in different treatments (fertilisation, drought) and
451 experimental set-ups, i.e. greenhouse and field. We found similar variety ranking in N
452 accumulation (U_N) and overall NUE across experimental set-ups, but different variety ranking

453 in grain-specific N efficiency ($E_{N,g}$) and grain N concentration ($C_{N,g}$), which appear to depend
454 more on interactions between specific variety characteristics and the environment. The
455 absolute values of NUE components are often greatly influenced by experimental set-up and
456 also sampling procedure.

457 A conceptual dilemma in using greenhouse and/or field experiments for crop variety testing
458 and selection is an often untested assumption of similar variety ranking in greenhouse and
459 field conditions on one hand, and the explicit aim to identify different variety responses to
460 particular environmental conditions (genotype environment interaction) on the other hand.
461 Caused by this conceptual dilemma, there are few reports in which the characteristics of
462 identical varieties are investigated under both greenhouse and field conditions, as was done in
463 this study. Similar to numerous other reports, we found partly strong influence of
464 environmental conditions on variety ranking, both in terms of experimental set-ups and
465 particular environmental factors manipulated within an experimental set-up. Major
466 differences between greenhouse and field conditions include substrate and temperature (mean
467 and diurnal course) issues. Interestingly, those differences between greenhouse and field
468 conditions apparently had little influence on variety ranking for characteristics related to N
469 accumulation (i.e. U_N), which is a major component of overall NUE, resulting in stable
470 variety ranking for N accumulation and overall NUE despite of rather different values in
471 absolute terms. Genotypic variation in N accumulation assessed in greenhouse may therefore
472 be relevant also in many field conditions, but that conclusion requires further verification.
473 Contrary, variety ranking differed between experimental set-ups regarding grain-specific N
474 efficiency ($E_{N,g}$) and grain N concentration ($C_{N,g}$), which appear to more depend on
475 interaction between specific variety characteristics and environment, and frequently showed
476 corresponding pattern (i.e. higher $E_{N,g}$ along with lower $C_{N,g}$, and vice versa).

477 An interesting question is whether the observed similarities and differences between varieties
478 and environments mostly reflect peculiarities of the applied method (here for NUE assessment
479 by means of Weih et al. 2011), or true differences between varieties grown in particular
480 environments. Especially if problems caused by varietal differences in development timing
481 are eliminated, e.g. by incorporating a modelling approach adjusting N accumulation period to
482 specific developmental timing of each variety, we believe that the method used here does
483 reflect true differences between varieties, i.e., generated results are relevant for variety testing
484 and selection.

485

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488

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- 564

565 Figure captions

566 Figure 1. Effects of fertilisation and variety on NUE components and yield in the field
567 experiment. The symbols represent adjusted means and error bars (back transformed) 95th
568 percentile confidence intervals from the ANOVA (Table 3). Crosses represent low
569 fertilisation (F_L) and open circles high fertilisation (F_H). Abbreviations of variables according
570 to Table 1.

571

572 Figure 2. Effects of variety, drought and fertilisation on NUE components and grain biomass
573 in the greenhouse experiment. The symbols represent adjusted means and error bars (back
574 transformed) 95th percentile confidence intervals from the ANOVA (Table 4). Crosses
575 represent low fertilisation (F_L) and open circles high fertilisation (F_H). Filled squares represent
576 no drought treatment (D0), filled circles early drought (D1) and filled triangles late drought
577 (D2). Abbreviations of variables according to Table 1.

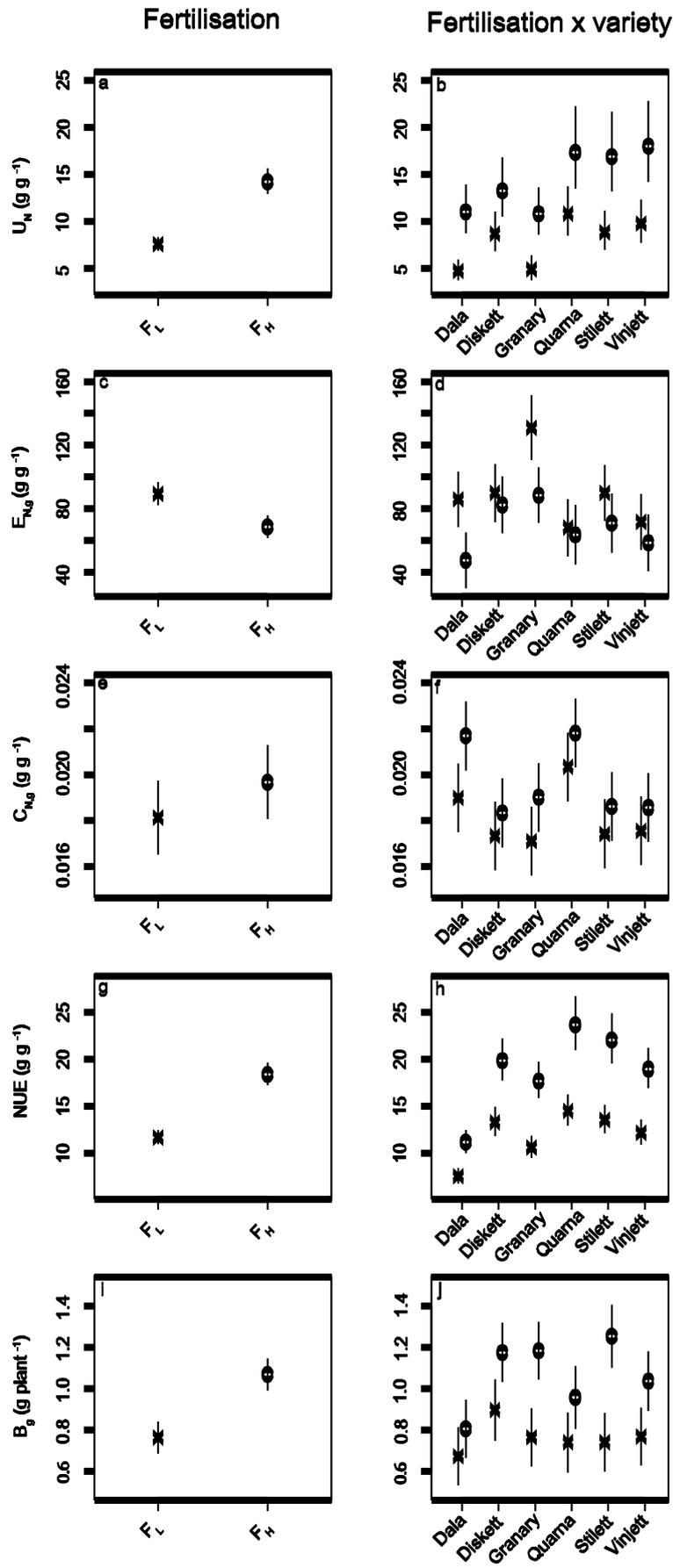
578

579 Figure 3. Comparison of greenhouse and field values of NUE components and other measured
580 variables. The values are the adjusted means from the statistical analysis. The x-axis shows
581 the greenhouse values at low fertilisation and no drought treatment (F_L -D0), and the y-axis
582 shows the field values at low fertilisation, F_L (small symbols) and high fertilisation, F_H (large
583 symbols). Abbreviations of variables according to Table 1.

584

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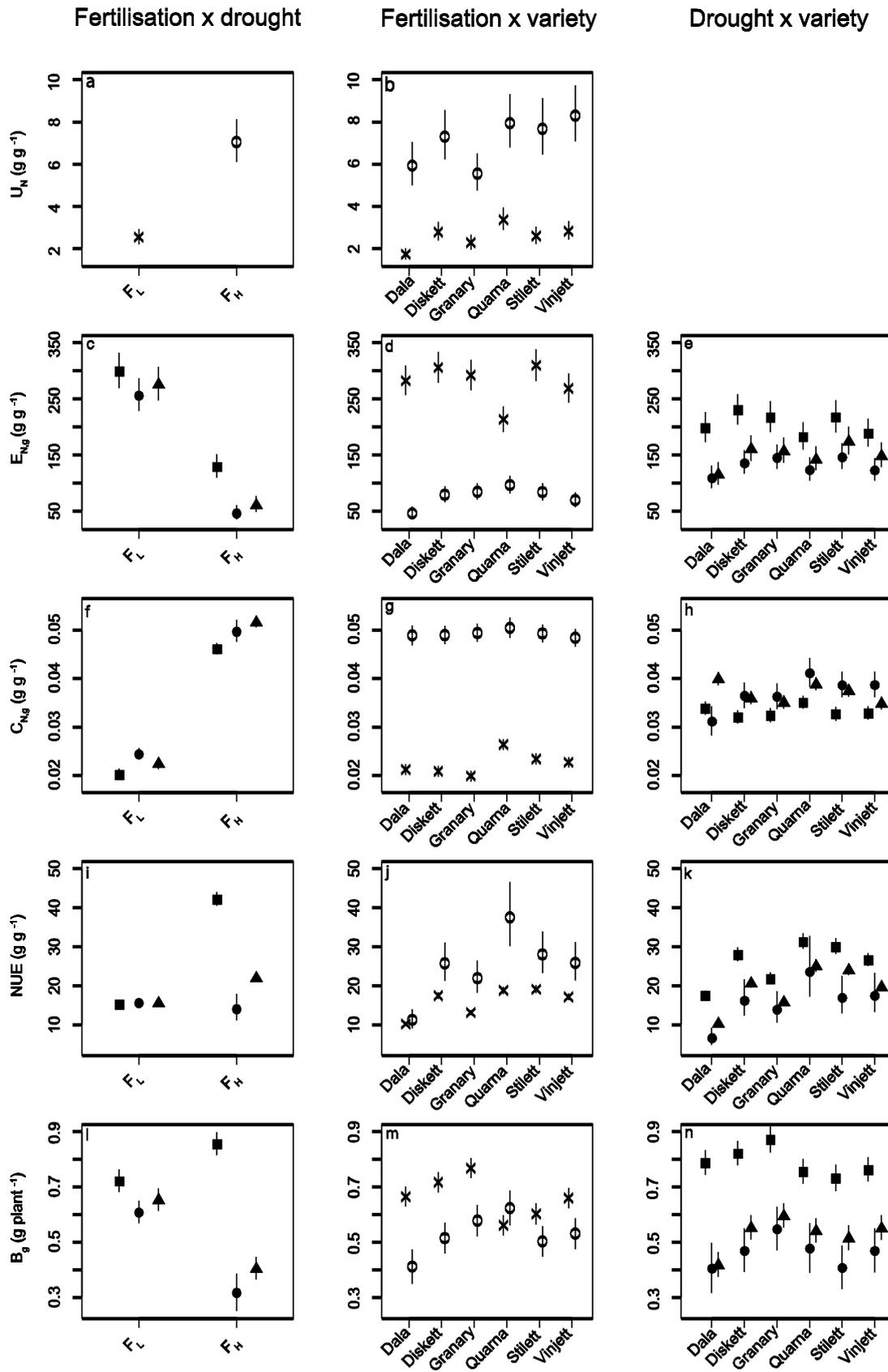
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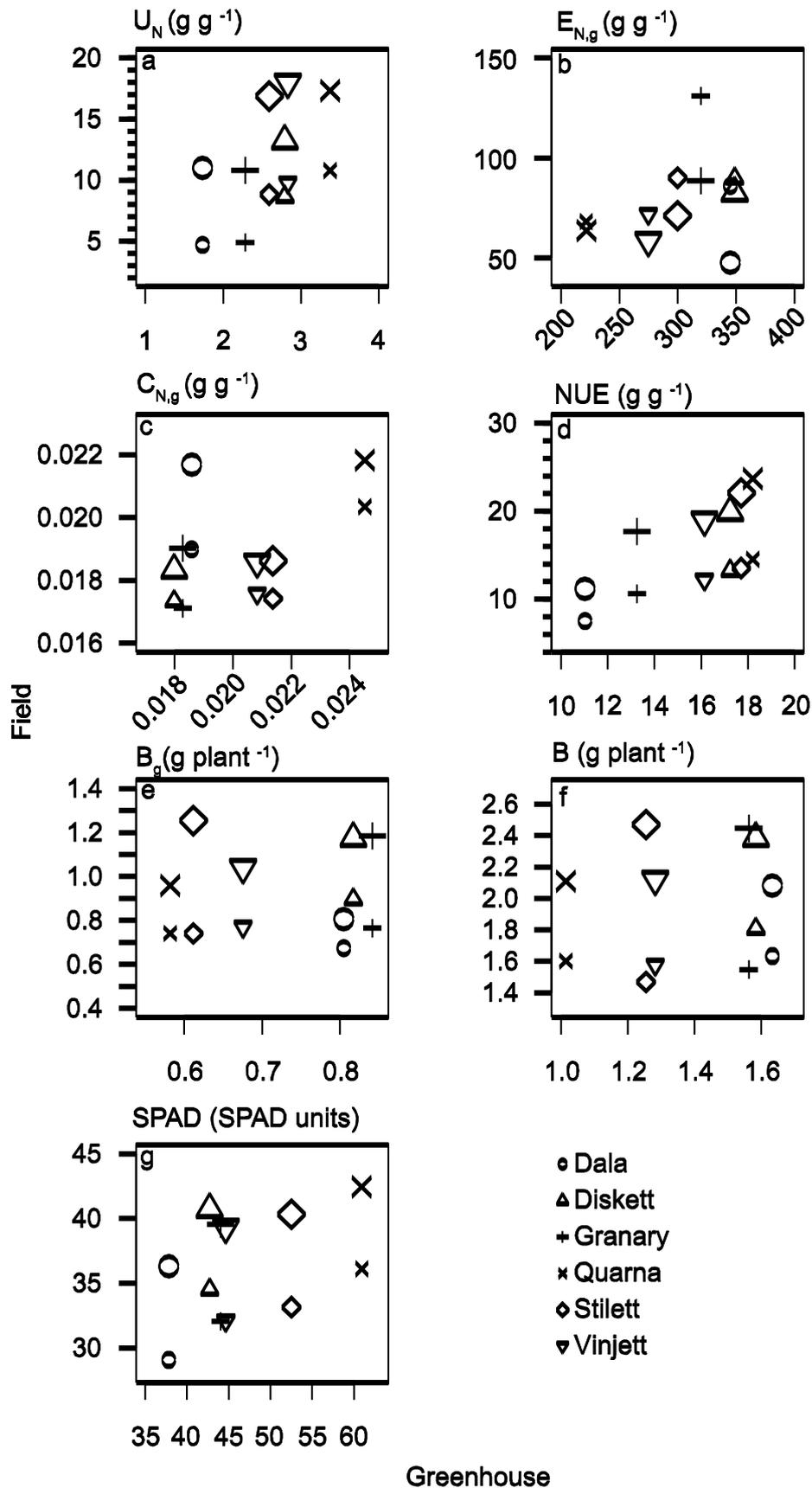
588 Asplund et al. Figure 1.

589



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591 Asplund et al. Figure 2.



593 Asplund et al. Figure 3.

594 **Tables**

595 Table 1. Definitions of NUE components according to Weih et al. (2011).

Symbol	Component	Calculation	Unit
NUE	Nitrogen use efficiency	$U_N \times E_{N,g} \times C_{N,g} = N_g/N_s$	$g\ g^{-1}$
U_N	Mean N uptake efficiency during major growth period per N content in seed grain	N'/N_s	$g\ g^{-1}$
$E_{N,g}$	Grain-specific N efficiency	B_g/N'	$g\ g^{-1}$
$C_{N,g}$	Grain N concentration at final harvest	N_g/B_g	$g\ g^{-1}$
N_s	N content of seed (sown) grain		g
N_g	N content of produced grain at final harvest		g
N'	Mean plant N content during major growth period	Mean of plant N content at two time points: the beginning and the end of the major growth period.	g
B_g	Biomass of produced grain at final harvest		g
B	Plant biomass at final harvest		g

596

597

598 Table 2. Mean day degrees to anthesis averaged over all factors (SE 7.5 day degrees) and
599 median growth stage (Lancashire et al. 1991) one day after start of the early drought treatment
600 for six spring wheat varieties. The late drought treatment started after growth stage 61 for all
601 varieties.

Variety	Day degrees to anthesis	Growth stage at start of early drought
Dala	988	41
Diskett	935	42
Granary	893	45
Quarna	776	59
Stilett	747	60
Vinjett	821	59

602 Table 3. ANOVA table with *F* and *P* values for NUE components and biomass in the field experiment. Abbreviations of variables according to

603 Table 1. NUE and U_N were log-10 transformed prior to analysis

604

Source of variation	U_N		$E_{N,g}$		$C_{N,g}$		NUE		B_g		B (plant)		SPAD	
	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>
Fertiliser (F)	88.4	<.001	16.9	<.001	99.4	<.001	159.5	0.001	45.3	0.001	34.2	0.001	394.2	<.001
Variety (V)	12.4	<.001	7.2	<.001	44.3	<.001	46.3	<.001	4.5	0.004	0.8	0.568	26.8	<.001
F x V	1.1	0.403	1.6	0.180	3.1	0.023	0.4	0.828	1.9	0.121	1.1	0.365	0.4	0.855

605

606

607 Table 4. ANOVA table with *F* and *P* values for NUE components and biomass in the greenhouse experiment. Abbreviations of variables

608 according to Table 1. NUE and U_N were log-10 transformed prior to analysis, and $E_{N,g}$ was square-root-transformed prior to analysis

609

Source of variation	U_N		$E_{N,g}$		$C_{N,g}$		NUE		B_g		B (plant)		SPAD	
	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>P</i>
Fertiliser (F)	842.5	<.001	615.1	<.001	2333.4	<.001	104.4	<.001	60.0	<.001	37.4	<.001	0.41	0.525
Drought (D)			29.1	<.001	28.2	<.001	141.0	<.001	139.8	<.001	54.3	<.001		
D x F			10.1	0.002	5.7	0.010	159.0	<.001	68.5	<.001	20.1	<.001		
Variety (V)	18.6	<.001	10.5	<.001	6.6	<.001	37.3	<.001	9.3	<.001	33.1	<.001	26.4	<.001
F x V	2.6	0.045	20.1	<.001	3.4	0.012	3.4	0.022	11.6	<.001	2.4	0.045	1.6	0.182
D x V			1.3	0.224	4.6	<.001	3.7	0.001	2.5	0.021	1.4	0.178		
D x F x V			1.5	0.151	3.0	0.005	1.4	0.202	1.7	0.116	0.9	0.566		

610