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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 N<sub>2</sub>O  
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<sup>-2</sup>, 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<sub>H</sub>, received 81 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> as ammonium nitrate mixed with  
179 calcium carbonate and sulfur (0.27 g g<sup>-1</sup> N). The low fertilisation treatment, F<sub>L</sub>, 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<sub>L</sub> and F<sub>H</sub>. 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<sup>-1</sup> organic  
191 matter content. The soil pH (H<sub>2</sub>O) 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<sup>-1</sup> 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<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> 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<sup>-2</sup>. 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 ( $\text{g L}^{-1}$ ): 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

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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  $3 \times 2$   
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  $\text{m}^{-2}$  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 3<sup>rd</sup> and 4<sup>th</sup>  
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  $20\text{ m}^2$  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 (Infratec<sup>TM</sup> 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  $0.5\text{ m}^2$  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<sup>®</sup> 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  $38 \text{ g g}^{-1}$ , whereas mean  $E_{N,g}$   
374 was  $277 \text{ g g}^{-1}$ . 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

#### 486 **Acknowledgements**

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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) 95<sup>th</sup>  
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) 95<sup>th</sup> 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.

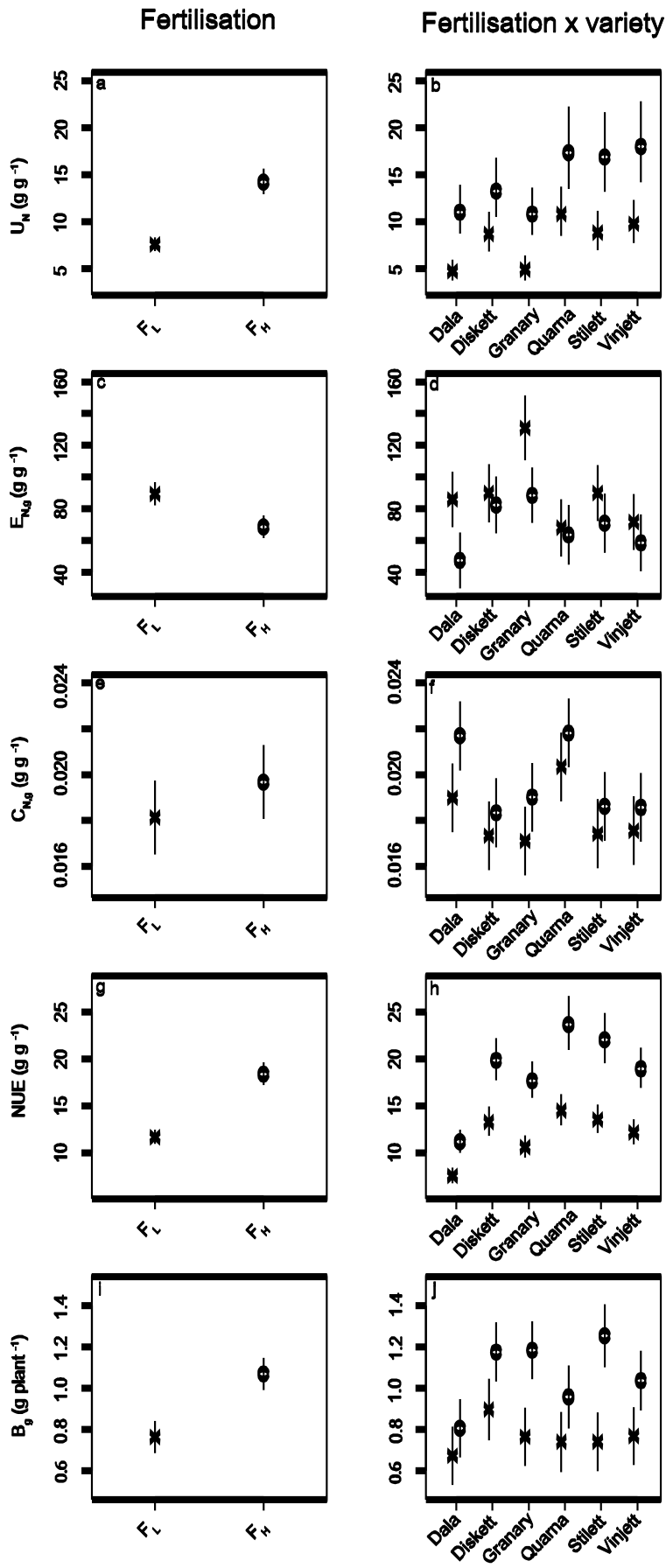
578

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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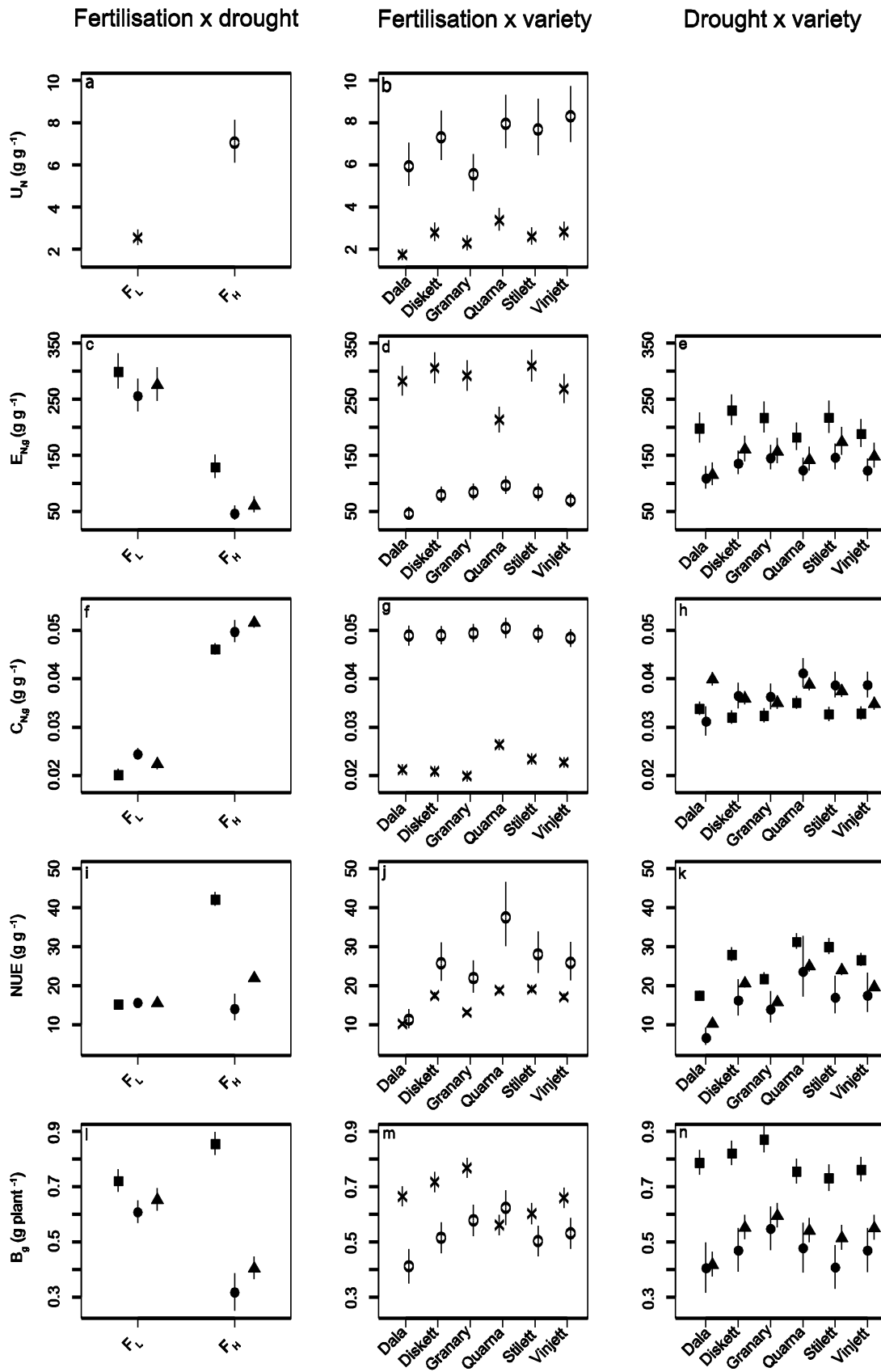
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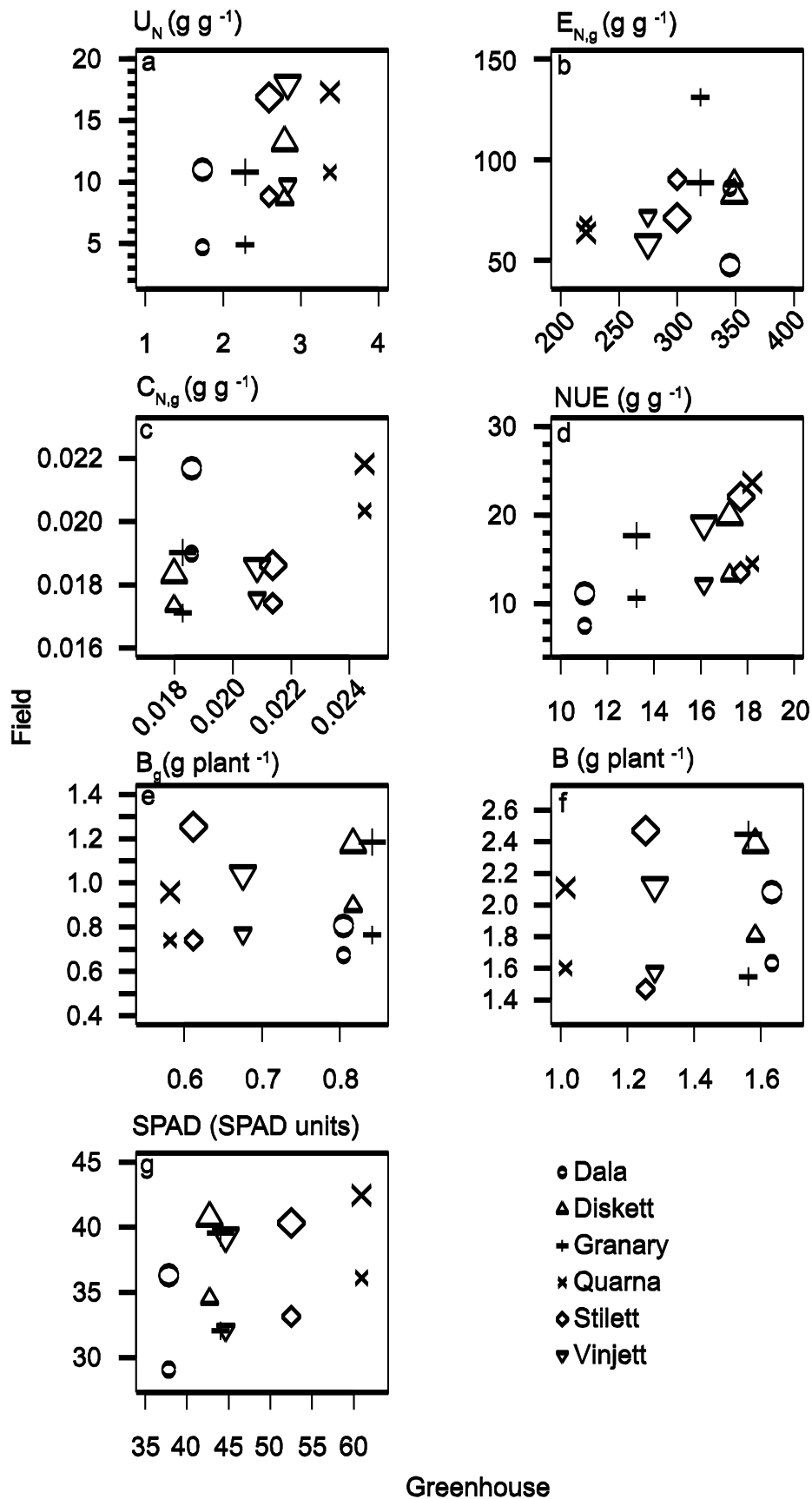
588 Asplund et al. Figure 1.

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