



# Biological limits on nitrogen use for plant photosynthesis: a quantitative revision comparing cultivated and wild species

## José L. Rotundo<sup>1</sup> and Pablo A. Cipriotti<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Facultad de Ciencias Agrarias, IICAR – UNR/CONICET, Zavalla, Santa Fe, Argentina; <sup>2</sup>Depto. de Métodos Cuantitativos y Sistemas de Información – IFEVA, Facultad de Agronomía, UBA/CONICET, Buenos Aires, Argentina

Author for correspondence: José L. Rotundo Tel: +54 0341 4970080 Email: jrotundo@unr.edu.ar

Received: 13 September 2016 Accepted: 28 October 2016

New Phytologist (2016) doi: 10.1111/nph.14363

Key words: carbon sequestration, photosynthesis, photosynthetic nitrogen (N)use efficiency, primary productivity, Rubisco.

#### Summary

- The relationship between leaf photosynthesis and nitrogen is a critical production function for ecosystem functioning. Cultivated species have been studied in terms of this relationship, focusing on improving nitrogen (N) use, while wild species have been studied to evaluate leaf evolutionary patterns. A comprehensive comparison of cultivated vs wild species for this relevant function is currently lacking. We hypothesize that cultivated species show increased carbon assimilation per unit leaf N area compared with wild species as associated with artificial selection for resource-acquisition traits.
- We compiled published data on light-saturated photosynthesis (Amax) and leaf nitrogen (LN<sub>area</sub>) for cultivated and wild species. The relationship between A<sub>max</sub> and LN<sub>area</sub> was evaluated using a frontier analysis (90th percentile) to benchmark the biological limit of nitrogen use for photosynthesis.
- Carbon assimilation in relation to leaf N was not consistently higher in cultivated species; out of 14 cultivated species, only wheat, rice, maize and sorghum showed higher ability to use N for photosynthesis compared with wild species.
- Results indicate that cultivated species have not surpassed the biological limit on nitrogen use observed for wild species. Future increases in photosynthesis based on natural variation need to be assisted by bioengineering of key enzymes to increase crop productivity.

#### Introduction

Leaf photosynthesis is the main process of energy capture for the total biosphere (Lange et al., 1987). Understanding ecosystem functioning requires analyzing photosynthesis performance of relevant plant groups from both natural ecosystems and agroecosystems. Light harvesting processes and electron transport, jointly with the enzymatic machinery of carbon (C) metabolism, require large investments in leaf nitrogen (N) in the form of protein (Hohmann-Marriott & Blankenship, 2011). Therefore, N is considered the main limiting nutrient for primary productivity for both agricultural and natural environments (LeBauer & Treseder, 2008). The relationship between leaf N and photosynthesis is a fundamental production-resource function for ecosystem functioning as photosynthesis also provides the energy for heterotrophic consumption (Field & Mooney, 1991; Vitousek et al., 1997). Here we describe the relationship between leaf, light-saturated, photosynthesis ( $A_{\text{max}}$ ;  $\mu$ mol CO<sub>2</sub> m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>) and N per unit leaf area (LN<sub>area</sub>; g m<sup>-2</sup>) for cultivated and wild species using a database compiled from previously published data.

Modern agriculture depends on the productivity of a limited set of species (Geps, 2002; Ross-Ibarra et al., 2007). Cultivated and wild species have been independently characterized for their ability to use leaf N for photosynthesis. Research on cultivated

species focused on practical aspects related to improved N-use efficiency for higher yield, food security, and reduced pollution (Muchow & Sinclair, 1994; Peng et al., 1995; Dreccer et al., 2000; Cassman et al., 2003). Studies evaluating wild species, on the other hand, have usually tested whether the relationship between A<sub>max</sub> and LN<sub>area</sub> reflect evolutionary patterns associated with resource availability and environmental constraints (Field & Mooney, 1991; Poorter & Evans, 1998; Wright et al., 2004, 2005; Hassiotou et al., 2010). Comparing this production function provides a unique opportunity to test whether there has been improvement in the ability to utilize N in cultivated species beyond what is observed for wild species. A comprehensive comparison including major cultivated species upon which human food supply relies is currently lacking.

The  $A_{\text{max}}$ -LN<sub>area</sub> relationship is modified by different environmental factors and/or other nutrient limitations. Reduced water availability impacts this relationship mainly as a result of stomatal limitations for C fixation (e.g. Flexas & Medrano, 2002). Reich et al. (2009) also demonstrated that the initial slope of the relationship decreases with phosphorus deficiency associated with limitations in ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate regeneration. Peterson et al. (1999) showed that increased atmospheric CO2 concentration increased the response of  $A_{\text{max}}$  to LN<sub>area</sub>. Atkinson *et al.* (2010) determined that growing temperature altered the scaling

of the relationship. According to these examples, significant scattering is expected when plotting A<sub>max</sub> vs LN<sub>area</sub> data compiled from independent studies. Under this scenario, a quantile regression approach would be useful to isolate the impact of LN<sub>area</sub> on  $A_{\text{max}}$  in situations where other factors are not limiting. This analysis, performed at the  $90^{th}$  percentile for  $A_{max}$ , will allow the biological limit of the  $A_{\text{max}}$ -LN<sub>area</sub> relationship to be determined for different cultivated and wild species. The relationship cannot change above that limit, but may be reduced when other factors are limiting. Therefore, using a quantile regression approach we will set the limits of this production-resource function (Cade & Noon, 2003; Archontoulis & Miguez, 2015). A quantile regression approach has been developed and successfully utilized to establish the maximum return of water invested in transpiration for crops (i.e. French & Schultz, 1984; Sadras & Angus, 2006). This study is the first to benchmark the upper limit for N use at the leaf level for different cultivated and wild species.

The ratio between  $A_{\rm max}$  and  ${\rm LN}_{\rm area}$  defines the photosynthetic N-use efficiency as the amount of C fixed per unit of N invested in a leaf (PNUE; Poorter & Evans, 1998). As demonstrated by Dreccer *et al.* (2000), PNUE varies as a function of  ${\rm LN}_{\rm area}$ . Obtaining the PNUE from the  $A_{\rm max}$ – ${\rm LN}_{\rm area}$  relationship will also serve to benchmark the maximum PNUE for cultivated and wild species.

The objectives of this paper were: to determine the biological limit of the relationship between  $A_{\rm max}$  and LN<sub>area</sub> by benchmarking the parameters of the function defined in Sinclair & Horie (1989) for major cultivated and wild species; to contrast the relationship between PNUE and LN<sub>area</sub> for major cultivated and wild species; and to determine the maximum PNUE and the LN<sub>area</sub> at which it occurs for cultivated and wild species. We hypothesized that cultivated species will have increased photosynthetic N-use efficiency compared with wild species as possibly associated with artificial selection for resource-acquisition traits (Denison, 2009); this difference would be higher for annual cultivated species compared with cultivated perennials as the latter have a longer intergenerational period and therefore reduced cycles of selection.

#### **Materials and Methods**

### Cultivated database compiled from published literature

To obtain data on cultivated species, a database was built from *ad hoc* species-specific bibliographic search. The search was oriented to papers on ecophysiological plant responses of different cultivated species from outdoor or glasshouse experiments at ambient  $CO_2$  pressure. The papers reported the C exchange rate at light-saturated conditions ( $A_{max}$ ) determined by infrared gas analyzer equipment (e.g. Li-Cor 6400 instrument, Lincoln, NE, or similar), and leaf N content on a leaf area basis ( $LN_{area}$ ) in such a way as to reproduce these variables as  $\mu$ mol  $CO_2$  m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> and g N m<sup>-2</sup>, respectively. Light-saturated conditions were reported in all cases, with light intensity ranging from 1200 to 2000  $\mu$ mol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> depending on the species. We excluded measures in hydroponic conditions or with increases in ambient  $CO_2$  pressure. We obtained 48 papers that studied this relationship for

14 cultivated species, and we generally obtained three to 10 papers for each species (Supporting Information Table S1). The cultivated species were three C<sub>3</sub> winter cereal crops (Triticum aestivum (wheat), Oryza sativa (rice), and Hordeum vulgare (barley)), two summer C<sub>4</sub> cereal crops (Zea mays (maize) and Sorghum bicolor (sorghum)), five C<sub>3</sub> dicotyledonous annual crops (Glycine max (soybean), Helianthus annuus (sunflower), Gossypium hirsutum (cotton), Brassica napus (rapeseed), and Solanum tuberosum (potato)) and four cultivated trees (Malus domestica (apple), (almond), Prunus persica (peach), and Prunus dulcis Citrus × paradise (grapefruit)). For each paper we extracted the results from published scatter plots or data tables as paired observations of  $A_{\text{max}}$  and LN<sub>area</sub>, totaling between 25 and 513 paired observations according to the species. A total of 2874 paired observations of A<sub>max</sub> and LN<sub>area</sub> for cultivated species were compiled from a period spanning from 1980 to 2012 (Tables S1, S2).

#### Wild database compiled from published literature

The search was oriented to papers on ecophysiological plant responses of different wild species with similar keywords as for the construction of the 'cultivated' database. Included papers reported outdoor or glasshouse studies that measured  $A_{\text{max}}$  and LN<sub>area</sub> also in such a way to reproduce these variables as  $\mu$ mol CO<sub>2</sub> m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> and g N m<sup>-2</sup>, respectively. All papers included radiation measures and/or stated that A<sub>max</sub> rate was measured under light-saturated conditions, which in most of cases ranged between 800 and 2000 μmol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>. We excluded measures in hydroponic conditions or with modifications in ambient CO<sub>2</sub> pressure. The life form (e.g. trees, grasses, dicotyledonous herbs, etc.) and C metabolism (i.e. C<sub>3</sub> or C<sub>4</sub>) of the wild species were recorded to facilitate comparison against cultivated species characteristics. We obtained 35 papers that studied this relationship for wild species with measurements from the period 1981-2011 and across five continents (Tables S1, S2). In total we obtained 2326 paired observations of  $A_{\rm max}$  and LN<sub>area</sub> for wild species. The wild database included data from the GLOPNET database (Wright et al., 2004).

For both cultivated and wild datasets, observations of LN<sub>area</sub> > 4 g N m<sup>-2</sup> associated with low C exchange rates were eliminated as possible outliers or species having specific adaptations for high investment in N with low return in terms of  $A_{\rm max}$  (e.g. species producing alkaloids). These eliminated data represented < 0.1% of total revised data. All data used in the analysis were compiled into a unified database (Table S2).

# Modeling the $A_{max}$ vs $LN_{area}$ relationship and statistical analysis

The relationship between  $A_{\text{max}}$  and LN<sub>area</sub> was modeled following the logistic model proposed by Sinclair & Horie (1989):

$$A_{\text{max}} = \alpha \cdot \left[ \frac{2}{(1 + e^{(-\beta(\text{LN}_{\text{area}} - \gamma))})} \right] - 1$$
 Eqn 1

where  $\alpha$  is the asymptotic  $A_{\text{max}}$  at high LN<sub>area</sub> values,  $\beta$  represents the curvature of the response between  $A_{\text{max}}$  and LN<sub>area</sub>, and  $\gamma$ 

indicates the LN<sub>area</sub> value at which  $A_{\text{max}}$  is zero. This equation has the versatility to accommodate linear trends if needed through reduced  $\beta$  values. Data for the cultivated and wild species were analyzed by quantile regression for estimating parameters of the Sinclair & Horie (1989) model; conditional quantile functions at the 90<sup>th</sup> percentile from the QUANTREG package (Koenker, 2015) were used (R Core Team, 2013). After fitting models, goodnessof-fit tests such as the likelihood ratio test and a pseudo- $R^2$  were conducted (R<sub>1</sub>; Koenker & Machado, 1999). The R<sub>1</sub> metric is a local measure of goodness of fit at a particular quantile. It compares the sum of weighted deviations from the model of interest with the same sum from a model in which only the intercept appears (null model). In addition, approximate confidence intervals (95%) for each parameter (i.e.  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$ ) were built by bootstrapping (Koenker & Park, 1996; Koenker, 2005). The comparison among crops and wild species (see next section) was based on the punctual and interval estimates for each model parameter.

A leaf area-based analysis of the relationship between leaf photosynthesis and N was chosen as the alternative leaf mass-based approximation (i.e. g<sup>-1</sup> leaf). There were two reasons for this decision. First, as solar radiation capture and C assimilation are intrinsically area-based processes, working on leaf area provides a suitable resource-harvesting framework to better understand N impacts on C capture (Field & Mooney, 1991), which is the major objective of our work. The mass-based analysis has been more appropriate to understand the economics of C and N allocation in species from contrasting habitats (Wright *et al.*, 2004). Second, the amount of area-based data is substantially higher than the amount of mass-based data. Therefore, focusing on mass-based data would have reduced the comprehensiveness of the database by reducing the total number of cases available for analysis.

Photosynthetic N-use efficiency was calculated as the quotient ratio between  $A_{\rm max}$  and LN<sub>area</sub> using the predicted values of the benchmarked model. PNUE was calculated only for the observed range of LN<sub>area</sub> values. Maximum PNUE and LN<sub>area</sub> at maximum PNUE were determined by first-degree derivation of the predicted relationship between PNUE and LN<sub>area</sub>. Confidence intervals for the maximum PNUE across cultivated and wild species were built by propagating the uncertainty of estimates from the original quantile regression on  $A_{\rm max}$  and LN<sub>area</sub>, and assuming a lack of error in the punctual estimation of the LN<sub>area</sub> for maximum PNUE. To conduct this analysis we used the package PROPAGATE (Spiess, 2014) from the R environment, and the comparison among cultivated and wild species was based on the punctual and interval estimates for the maximum PNUE.

## Comparison of cultivated and wild species

Individual cultivated species were compared against the best equivalent wild species functional groups. For instance, cultivated  $C_3$  winter cereals (i.e. wheat, rice, and barley) were compared against wild  $C_3$  graminoids. The  $C_4$  summer cereal crops (i.e. maize and sorghum) were compared against  $C_4$  wild graminoids. The  $C_3$  dicotyledonous annual crops (i.e. soybean, sunflower,

rapeseed, cotton, and potato) were compared against the wild  $C_3$  dicotyledonous herbaceous plants. The perennial fruit/nut cultivated trees were compared against  $C_3$  woody plants. The rationale behind not grouping the cultivated species is that it is highly relevant analyzing these 14 species individually, as they represent most of the primary production worldwide. By grouping the wild species, we sought to determine the limits of PNUE for wild species as a reference group, regardless of the individual species. For each cultivated species and wild functional group, we built the respective scatter plot relating  $A_{\rm max}$  and  $LN_{\rm area}$ .

#### **Results**

### Cultivated C<sub>3</sub> winter cereals vs wild C<sub>3</sub> graminoids

Sinclair & Horie (1989)'s model fitted for the  $C_3$  cultivated cereals and  $C_3$  wild graminoids was significant, with  $R_1$  ranging from 0.28 to 0.64 (Table 1). Wheat and rice had a lower  $A_{\rm max}$  at maximum LN<sub>area</sub> ( $\alpha$  in Eqn 1) compared to the wild  $C_3$  graminoids, while barley was not different from wild species (Table 2; Fig. 1a–c). The curvature of the relation between  $A_{\rm max}$  and LN<sub>area</sub> ( $\beta$  in Eqn 1) was higher for wheat and rice than for the wild  $C_3$  graminoids; there was no difference in this parameter between barley and the wild counterparts (Table 2). The minimum LN<sub>area</sub> for  $A_{\rm max} > 0$  ( $\gamma$  parameter, Eqn 1) was significantly higher for barley when compared to  $C_3$  wild graminoids (Table 2).

Wheat and rice had higher maximum PNUE than the wild species, attained at relatively low  $LN_{area}$  (~1 g N m<sup>-2</sup>) (Table 2;

**Table 1** Summary of goodness-of-fit tests for different wild plant functional types and related cultivated species based on the log-likelihood ratio and respective chi-squared tests, and pseudo- $R^2$  measures ( $R_1$ )\* for the Sinclair & Horie (1989) model at the 90<sup>th</sup> percentile

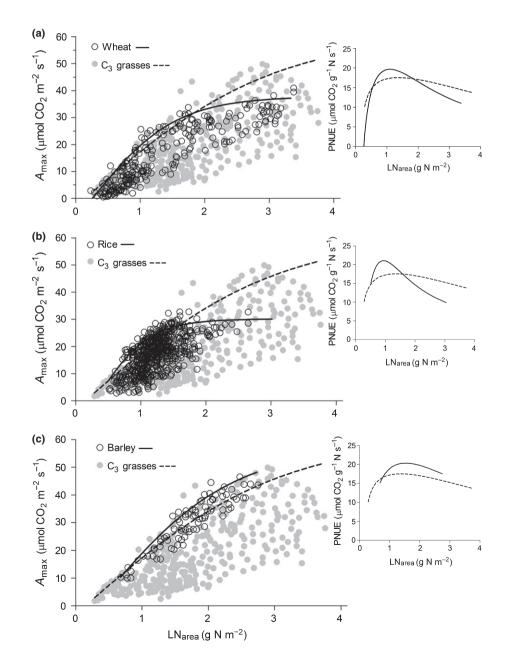
Wild groups and related crops	Log- likelihood null model	Log- likelihood Sinclair	$\chi^{2}_{(2)}$	<i>P</i> -value	R <sub>1</sub>
C <sub>3</sub> graminoids	-1390.5	-1207.08	365.4	< 0.0001	0.43
Wheat	-829.7	-682.7	294.1	< 0.0001	0.50
Rice	-1084.3	-976.5	215.5	< 0.0001	0.28
Barley	-618.6	-456.3	324.6	< 0.0001	0.64
C₄ graminoids	-271.65	-269.48	4.33	0.1146	0.03
Maize	-1136.7	-1079.5	114.4	< 0.0001	0.20
Sorghum	-539.4	-462.8	153.1	< 0.0001	0.43
C <sub>3</sub> dicot herbs	-2347.3	-2054.3	586.1	< 0.0001	0.41
Soybean	-1420.2	-1259.5	321.2	< 0.0001	0.36
Sunflower	-1292.3	-1154.2	276.1	< 0.0001	0.33
Cotton	-1949.5	-1913.1	72.7	< 0.0001	0.07
Rapeseed	-563.5	-528.8	69.5	< 0.0001	0.22
Potato	-275.3	-216.9	116.8	< 0.0001	0.49
C <sub>3</sub> trees	-4061.2	-3648	826.4	< 0.0001	0.31
Apple	-73.6	-39.8	67.6	< 0.0001	0.74
Almond	-272.3	-245.5	56.3	< 0.0001	0.28
Peaches	-254.9	-218.9	71.8	< 0.0001	0.36
Grapefruit	-181.1	-163.9	34.1	< 0.0001	0.22

 $<sup>^*</sup>R_1$  is described as a local measure of goodness of fit at the particular quantile by comparing the sum of weighted deviations for the model of interest with the same sum from a model in which only the intercept appears.

Table 2 Parameters relating light-saturated photosynthesis rate (A<sub>max</sub>) and leaf nitrogen content (LN<sub>area</sub>) for C<sub>3</sub> monocots

Functional group and related crops	Fitted parameters (95% CI)				
	α	β	γ	Max. PNUE (95% CI)	LN <sub>area</sub> at max PNUE
C <sub>3</sub> wild graminoids	61.3 (43.7–78.8)	0.68 (0.41–0.95)	0.15 (0.07–0.22)	17.6 (14.2–18.3)	1.38
Wheat	36.3 (32.8–39.8)	1.61 (1.19–2.02)	0.23 (0.11–0.34)	20.1 (18.1–21.2)	1.01
Rice	33.2 (28.3–38.1)	2.01 (1.06–2.94)	0.22 (0.02–0.42)	21.74 (17.6–22.6)	0.90
Barley	59.1 (44.8–73.4)	0.96 (0.59–1.32)	0.31 (0.25–0.38)	20.2 (16.9–20.7)	1.56

Summary of quantile regression analysis (90<sup>th</sup> percentile) between  $A_{max}$  ( $\mu$ mol  $CO_2$  m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>) and  $LN_{area}$  (g N m<sup>-2</sup>) for  $C_3$  wild graminoids and related crops (wheat, rice and barley). Numbers indicate the punctual estimates for the parameters of the Sinclair & Horie (1989) model model ( $\alpha$ , maximum  $A_{max}$ ;  $\beta$ , the curvature of the relationship; and  $\gamma$ , minimum N leaf area for photosynthesis), as well the maximum photosynthetic nitrogen-use efficiency (PNUE;  $\mu$ mol  $CO_2$  g<sup>-1</sup> N s<sup>-1</sup>), and the punctual  $LN_{area}$  at maximum PNUE. Values between parentheses are the confidence intervals of the estimates.



**Fig. 1** Quantile regression models for the relationship between the light-saturated photosynthesis rate ( $A_{max}$ ;  $\mu$ mol  $CO_2$  m $^{-2}$  s $^{-1}$ ) and the leaf nitrogen content ( $LN_{area}$ ; g N m $^{-2}$ ) for wild  $C_3$  graminoids (dashed line and gray markers) and related crop species (solid line and white markers): (a) wheat; (b) rice; (c) barley. Insets: the predicted photosynthetic nitrogen-use efficiency (PNUE;  $\mu$ mol  $CO_2$  g $^{-1}$  N s $^{-1}$ ) along the same leaf nitrogen content gradient according to the fitted model.

Fig. 1a,b insets); the barley maximum PNUE was attained at a higher LN<sub>area</sub> (1.56 g N m<sup>-2</sup>) compared with the other cultivated species, and was not significantly different from the wild species. Wheat and rice were more efficient than wild  $C_3$  graminoids at LN<sub>area</sub> < 1.5 g N m<sup>-2</sup> (Table 2; Fig. 1 insets).

### Cultivated C<sub>4</sub> cereals vs C<sub>4</sub> wild graminoids

Sinclair & Horie's model fitted for  $C_4$  cultivated species was significant, with  $R_1 = 0.2$  for maize and  $R_1 = 0.43$  for sorghum; however, the model fitted for the wild  $C_4$  graminoid species was not significantly different from the null model represented only by the intercept ( $\alpha = 42.3$ ) (Table 1). Maize  $\alpha$  was significantly higher compared to the  $C_4$  wild graminoids (Table 3). Sorghum had a significantly higher  $\alpha$  than maize and the wild  $C_4$  counterparts (Table 3; Fig. 2b). Owing to the high uncertainty in the estimation of  $\beta$  for the  $C_4$  wild species, there were no significant differences for this parameter between cultivated and wild  $C_4$  grasses. The  $\gamma$  parameter for maize and sorghum was not different from zero, and was not different from wild  $C_4$  estimates (Table 3).

Maize and sorghum maximum PNUE values were approximately half that of wild  $C_4$  species (Table 3). These maximums were also achieved near to the origin (0.28–0.34 g N m<sup>-2</sup>, Table 3; Fig. 2 insets). As wild and cultivated  $C_4$  species present  $\gamma$  estimates < 0, the relationship between PNUE and  $LN_{area}$  showed a decreasing trend from their maximum (Fig. 2 insets). Wild  $C_4$  PNUE was higher than that for the  $C_4$  crops below c. 1 g N m<sup>-2</sup> leaf; above this value, differences between crops and wild  $C_4$  graminoids were not evident (Fig. 2 insets).

# Cultivated $C_3$ dicotyledonous annuals vs wild $C_3$ dicotyledonous herbaceous

Sinclair & Horie's models fitted for cultivated  $C_3$  dicotyledonous species and  $C_3$  wild herbs were significant, with  $R_1$  in the range 0.07–0.49 (Table 1). The  $\alpha$  parameter for soybean, sunflower, and rapeseed was not different from that for wild  $C_3$  herbs (Table 4; Fig. 3a,b,d); cotton and potato, on the other hand, had a lower  $\alpha$  than wild  $C_3$  herbs (Table 4; Fig. 3c,e). A higher  $\beta$  was

observed for sunflower, cotton and potato than for the wild  $C_3$  herbs (Table 4); soybean and rapeseed were not significantly different from their wild counterpart. For all the  $C_3$  dicotyledonous crops, except potato, the minimum  $LN_{area}$  for photosynthesis ( $\gamma$ ) was higher than zero (0.238–0.615 g N m<sup>-2</sup>) and significantly higher than that for wild  $C_3$  herbs (Table 4; Fig. 3). However, the  $\gamma$  estimate for potato was not different from zero and not different from that for wild  $C_3$  herbs.

The maximum PNUE values for sunflower, cotton, and rape-seed were not different from those for the wild species (Table 4; Fig. 3b–d insets). Soybean and potato have the lowest maximum PNUE, with a significant reduction of 39–47% compared with wild species (Table 4; Fig. 3a,e insets). The difference in the PNUE–LN<sub>area</sub> relationship between cultivated and wild species was a result of the remarkable difference in the  $\gamma$  parameter. The maximum PNUE occurred at a relatively low LN<sub>area</sub> (0.23 g N m<sup>-2</sup>) in wild species, while the maximum PNUE for the cultivated species was observed at intermediate values (0.65–1.72 g N m<sup>-2</sup>) (Table 4; Fig. 3 insets).

#### Cultivated fruit/nut trees vs C<sub>3</sub> woody plants

All Sinclair & Horie's models fitted for cultivated  $C_3$  trees and wild woody  $C_3$  species were significant, with  $R_1$  ranging from 0.22 to 0.74 (Table 1). Grapefruit was the cultivated  $C_3$  tree with the lowest  $\alpha$  compared with both the wild trees and the remaining of the cultivated ones (Table 5; Fig. 4d). Apple, almond, and peach were not different from the  $C_3$  wild trees for the  $\alpha$  parameter (Table 5; Fig. 4a–c). For all  $C_3$  crop trees except almond, the  $\beta$  parameter was not different compared with the wild trees; almond, on the other hand, had a significantly higher  $\beta$  than did the wild trees (Table 5). For all the cultivated  $C_3$  trees,  $\gamma$  was significantly higher compared with the  $C_3$  wild trees (Table 5).

Owing to the negative  $\gamma$  estimate of  $C_3$  wild trees, the PNUE for this group was highest at infinitesimally low  $LN_{area}$  (Fig. 4). Wild trees had a maximum PNUE of 31.6  $\mu$ mol  $CO_2$  g<sup>-1</sup> N s<sup>-1</sup>, attained at 0.11 g N m<sup>-2</sup> (Table 5). The maximum PNUE of cultivated  $C_3$  trees was, on average, 8.6  $\mu$ mol  $CO_2$  g<sup>-1</sup> N s<sup>-1</sup>, attained at an average  $LN_{area}$  of 1.7 g N m<sup>-2</sup>. For all cultivated trees, the values of maximum PNUE and  $LN_{area}$  at highest

Table 3 Parameters relating light-saturated photosynthesis rate (A<sub>max</sub>) and leaf nitrogen content (LN<sub>area</sub>) for C<sub>4</sub> monocots

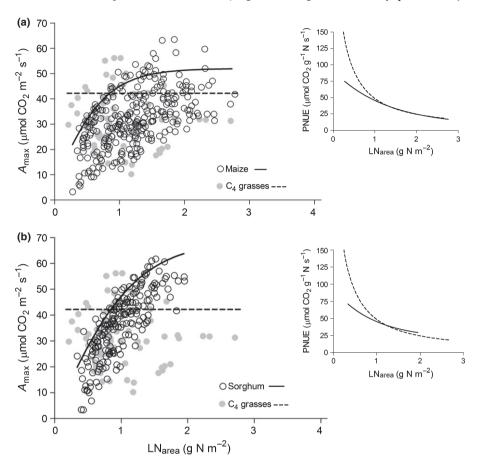
Functional group and related crops	Fitted parameters (CI 95%)			AA DAULE	
	α	β	γ	Max. PNUE (CI 95%)	LN <sub>area</sub> at max. PNUE
C <sub>4</sub> wild graminoids	42.3 (38.9–45.8)	6.25 (-23.1-35.6)	-0.05 (-4.7-4.9)	206.2 (188.8–222.3)	0.21
Maize	52.1 (45.4–58.9)	2.40 (0.81–4)	-0.09 (-0.43-0.25)	74.7 (68.2–81.9)	0.28
Sorghum	59.4 (53.4–64.9)	1.69 (0.79–2.58)	-0.17 (-0.6-0.26)	71.0 (49.8–86)	0.34

Summary of quantile regression analysis (90<sup>th</sup> percentile) between  $A_{max}$  ( $\mu$ mol  $CO_2$   $m^{-2}$   $s^{-1}$ ) and  $LN_{area}$  (g N  $m^{-2}$ ) for  $C_4$  wild graminoids and related crops (maize and sorghum). Numbers indicate the punctual estimates for the parameters of the Sinclair & Horie (1989) model ( $\alpha$ , maximum  $A_{max}$ ;  $\beta$ , the curvature of the relationship; and  $\gamma$ , minimum  $LN_{area}$  for photosynthesis), as well the maximum photosynthetic nitrogen-use efficiency (PNUE;  $\mu$ mol  $CO_2$   $g^{-1}$  N  $s^{-1}$ ), and the punctual  $LN_{area}$  at maximum PNUE. Values between parentheses are the confidence intervals of the estimates.

PNUE were lower and higher, respectively, than those for the wild trees. However, both groups explored a different range of  $LN_{area}$  (Fig. 4). The comparison of the relationship between PNUE and  $LN_{area}$  in the *x*-axis range shared by the cultivated and wild trees showed a near-identical response for these groups in terms of PNUE performance across varying  $LN_{area}$  (Fig. 4).

#### **Discussion**

The development of modern agriculture moved plants from wild environments to cultivated lands with higher resource abundance and lower pest/disease pressure (Evans, 1993). Plant strategy theory predicts trajectories during crop evolution shifting from a

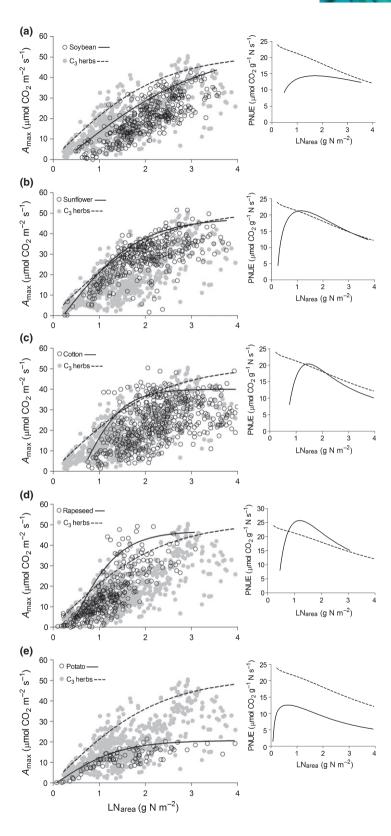


**Fig. 2** Quantile regression models for the relationship between the light-saturated photosynthesis rate ( $A_{max}$ ; μmol CO<sub>2</sub> m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>) and the leaf nitrogen content (LN<sub>area</sub>; g N m<sup>-2</sup>) for wild C<sub>4</sub> graminoids (dashed line and gray markers) and related crop species (solid line and white markers): (a) maize; (b) sorghum. Insets: the predicted photosynthetic nitrogen-use efficiency (PNUE; μmol CO<sub>2</sub> g<sup>-1</sup> N s<sup>-1</sup>) along the same leaf nitrogen content gradient according to the fitted model.

 $\textbf{Table 4} \ \ \text{Parameters relating light-saturated photosynthesis rate (} \ A_{\text{max}}\text{)} \ \ \text{and leaf nitrogen content (} \ LN_{\text{area}}\text{)} \ \ \text{for } C_3 \ \ \text{dicot herbs}$ 

Functional group and related crops	Fitted parameters (95% CI)			AA DAILIE	
	α	β	γ	Max. PNUE (95% CI)	LN <sub>area</sub> at max. PNUE
C <sub>3</sub> wild herbs	51.3 (45.8–56.8)	0.87 (0.65–1.08)	-0.02 (-0.11-0.08)	23.9 (15.4–28.1)	0.23
Soybean	55.3 (41.8–68.7)	0.65 (0.39–0.91)	0.24 (0.13–0.35)	14.4 (10.8–14.9)	1.72
Sunflower	46.0 (42.4–49.6)	1.33 (1.06–1.6)	0.28 (0.12–0.43)	21.3 (19.2–22.2)	1.15
Cotton	40.0 (37.9–42.2)	2.27 (1.23–3.3)	0.62 (0.31–0.93)	20.4 (15.4–22.5)	1.46
Rapeseed	46.9 (35.6–58.1)	1.92 (0.73–3.12)	0.38 (0.23–0.53)	25.7 (12.7–28.9)	1.19
Potato	20.7 (17.9–23.4)	1.44 (0.95–1.93)	0.07 (-0.1-0.24)	12.6 (10.3–13.9)	0.65

Summary of quantile regression analysis (90<sup>th</sup> percentile) between  $A_{max}$  ( $\mu$ mol  $CO_2$  m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>) and  $LN_{area}$  (g N m<sup>-2</sup>) for  $C_3$  wild dicotyledonous herbs and related crops (soybean, sunflower, cotton, rapeseed, and potato). Numbers indicate the punctual estimates for the parameters of the Sinclair & Horie (1989) model ( $\alpha$ , maximum  $A_{max}$ ;  $\beta$ , the curvature of the relationship; and  $\gamma$ , minimum  $LN_{area}$  for photosynthesis), as well the maximum photosynthetic nitrogen-use efficiency (PNUE;  $\mu$ mol  $CO_2$   $g^{-1}$  N s<sup>-1</sup>), and the punctual  $LN_{area}$  at maximum PNUE. Values between parentheses are the confidence intervals of the estimates.



**Fig. 3** Quantile regression models for the relationship between the light-saturated photosynthesis rate ( $A_{max}$ ;  $\mu$ mol  $CO_2$  m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>) and the leaf nitrogen content ( $LN_{area}$ ; g N m<sup>-2</sup>) for wild  $C_3$  dicotyledonous herbs (dashed line and gray markers) and related crop species (solid line and white markers): (a) soybean; (b) sunflower; (c) cotton; (d) rapeseed; (e) potato. Insets: the predicted photosynthetic nitrogen-use efficiency (PNUE;  $\mu$ mol  $CO_2$  g<sup>-1</sup> N s<sup>-1</sup>) along the same leaf nitrogen content gradient according to the fitted model.

resource-conservation to a resource-acquisition suite of traits (Denison, 2009). In this sense, we expected to see a high proportion of cultivated species surpassing the wild species for the  $A_{\rm max}-$  LN<sub>area</sub> relationship. However, our findings support the concept that the cultivated species have not surpassed the biological limit

of N use for plant photosynthesis observed for wild species. It can be speculated that potential differences between cultivated and wild species are attributed to crop domestication, artificial selection, and/or cultivation environment. Testing some of these hypotheses requires a more targeted comparison between

 $\textbf{Table 5} \ \ \text{Parameters relating light-saturated photosynthesis rate (A}_{\text{max}}) \ \text{and leaf nitrogen content (LN}_{\text{area}}) \text{for C}_{3} \ \text{dicot trees}$ 

Functional group and related crops	Fitted parameters (CI 95%)			AA DAILIE	
	α	β	γ	Max. PNUE (95% CI)	LN <sub>area</sub> at max. PNUE
C <sub>3</sub> wild trees	30.5 (19.2–41.8)	0.54 (0.26–0.82)	-0.27 (-0.42 to -0.13)	31.6 (17.8–36.1)	0.11
Apple	23.2 (19.3–27.1)	0.84 (0.45–1.23)	0.23 (-0.10-0.57)	7.5 (6.3–7.9)	1.46
Almond	22.9 (19.9–25.8)	4.13 (1.55–6.71)	1.63 (1.53–1.74)	8.8 (5.5–9.2)	2.35
Peaches	23.7 (18.1–29.3)	1.22 (0.46–1.97)	0.39 (0.08–0.71)	9.3 (6.5–9.7)	1.52
Grapefruit	16.6 (14.8–18.3)	2.02 (0.16–3.88)	0.51 (-0.08-1.11)	8.6 (2.1–9.4)	1.46

Summary of quantile regression analysis (90<sup>th</sup> percentile) between  $A_{max}$  ( $\mu$ mol  $CO_2$   $m^{-2}$   $s^{-1}$ ) and  $LN_{area}$  (g N  $m^{-2}$ ) for  $C_3$  wild trees and related cultivated species (apple, almond, peaches, and grapefruit). Numbers indicate the punctual estimates for the parameters of the Sinclair & Horie (1989) model ( $\alpha$ , maximum  $A_{max}$ ;  $\beta$ , the curvature of the relationship; and  $\gamma$ , minimum  $LN_{area}$  for photosynthesis), as well the maximum photosynthetic nitrogen-use efficiency (PNUE;  $\mu$ mol  $CO_2$   $g^{-1}$  N  $s^{-1}$ ), and the punctual  $LN_{area}$  at maximum PNUE. Values between parentheses are the confidence interval of the estimates.

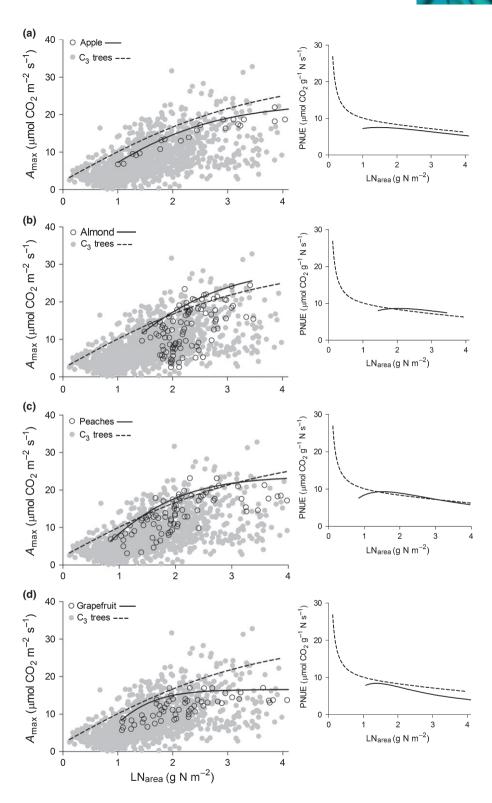
cultivated species and their specific ancestors. For example, in a comprehensive screening of cultivated vs wild ancestors, Milla et al. (2015) showed that wild progenitors of modern crops were already high resource-acquisition and utilization strategists. Preece et al. (2015) also showed that wild progenitors did not have any advantage in terms of resource acquisition compared with wild plants that were not selected for domestication. Similarly, higher PNUE has been observed in undomesticated Glycine soja compared with the domesticated Glycine max cultivars (Rotundo & Borrás, 2016). Domestication seems to have involved changes in other specific traits associated with seed shedding, biomass partitioning, and sensitivity to photoperiod (Ulukan, 2009).

Our evaluation provides parameters for the potential relationship between A<sub>max</sub> and LN<sub>area</sub> for major cultivated species and wild plant functional types, representing two major improvements on previous efforts to compile leaf photosynthesis data. First, previous comparisons focused on smaller sets of cultivated species. Evans (1989) compared only wheat and rice against a set of wild species. Wullschleger (1993) characterized di- and monocots crops as individual groups. Kattge et al. (2009) compared wild functional groups and C<sub>3</sub> cultivated species as a group. Our study is unique in that it reports a comparison of 14 major cultivated species against equivalent wild functional groups. Second, compiling a diverse set of data and performing a unique analysis are always challenging as data were, most probably, obtained under different environmental conditions. The frontier analysis followed here, set at the 90<sup>th</sup> percentile of the A<sub>max</sub>-LN<sub>area</sub> relationship, provides the opportunity to eliminate the influence of any additional factor that is reducing the ability of a leaf to fix C (e.g. climatic conditions, nutrients other than N, etc.). The quantile regression approach, entirely novel to this area, allowed us to benchmark the potential ability to use N for C fixation in major cultivated species for world food and feeding and wild plants from natural ecosystems.

The difference between cultivated and wild species for the parameters of the  $A_{\text{max}}$ -LN<sub>area</sub> relationship depended on each

particular parameter. First, in terms of  $A_{\text{max}}$  at saturating LN<sub>area</sub> (a), only maize and sorghum surpassed the wild species; it was lower in wheat, rice, cotton, potato, and grapefruit, and not different in the remaining eight cultivated species. Operating at high  $LN_{area}$  (and high  $A_{max}$ ) would not be evolutionary stable as this is frequently associated with reduced leaf area, reduced light interception, and reduced fitness (yield) (Sinclair & Horie, 1989). Second, the curvature of the relationship  $(\beta)$  was higher in five cultivated species (wheat, rice, sunflower, cotton, potato, and almond), compared with the wild counterparts. An increased curvature is generally associated with increased  $A_{\rm max}$  at intermediate LN<sub>area</sub> values. Selecting for cultivated populations having increased Amax at intermediate values of LN<sub>area</sub> would not have costs in terms of reduced LAI that may limit light interception and it could be a trait selectable for increased yields. Finally, the minimum amount of LN<sub>area</sub> for photosynthesis was higher compared with wild species in all but five cultivated species that did not differ from their wild counterparts (rice, wheat, maize, sorghum, and potato). The higher  $\gamma$  commonly found in these cultivated species may be associated with relaxed herbivory pressure which allows for more N-expensive leaves that are protected via chemical applications (Coley et al., 1985). An alternative explanation is that the wild database also incorporated species from N-limited environments with inherent low LN<sub>area</sub> (Chapin, 1980).

With few exceptions, cultivated species PNUE values were inferior to, or not different from, those of the wild species. Wheat and rice had a steeper initial slope than did the wild species, determining a high PNUE at relatively low LN<sub>area</sub> (< 2 g N m<sup>-2</sup>). In general, LN<sub>area</sub> changes from early stages to maturity range from 2.0 to 0.9 g N m<sup>-2</sup> and from 1.7 to 0.8 g N m<sup>-2</sup> in wheat and rice, respectively (Ohsumi *et al.*, 2007; Bertheloot *et al.*, 2008). These ranges match well those LN<sub>area</sub> values where PNUE tends to be highest for those crops. The high  $A_{\rm max}$  observed in both crops may be caused by greater N allocation to Rubisco (Makino *et al.*, 1992). Whether the higher PNUE observed in wheat and rice than in the wild C<sub>3</sub> grasses is also going to be valid



**Fig. 4** Quantile regression models for the relationship between the light-saturated photosynthesis rate ( $A_{max}$ ,  $\mu$ mol  $CO_2$  m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>) and the leaf nitrogen content ( $LN_{area}$ ; g N m<sup>-2</sup>) for wild  $C_3$  trees (dashed line and gray markers) and related cultivated species (solid line and white markers): (a) apple; (b) almond; (c) peaches; (d) grapefruit. Insets: the predicted photosynthetic nitrogen-use efficiency (PNUE;  $\mu$ mol  $CO_2$  g<sup>-1</sup> N s<sup>-1</sup>) along the same leaf nitrogen content gradient according to the fitted model.

in a global change scenario remains to be determined. There is evidence that increased  $\mathrm{CO}_2$  concentration has a positive effect on  $A_{\mathrm{max}}$  in  $\mathrm{C}_3$  species (Ainsworth & Long, 2005; Tubiello *et al.*, 2007). The relative responses of  $A_{\mathrm{max}}$  to increased  $\mathrm{CO}_2$  were similar in  $\mathrm{C}_3$  crops and  $\mathrm{C}_3$  grasses (Ainsworth & Long, 2005; Tubiello *et al.*, 2007). Therefore, we can speculate that increases in PNUE associated with increased  $A_{\mathrm{max}}$  would be similar for

these groups of species, maintaining the differences currently observed. However, this positive effect of  ${\rm CO_2}$  on  $A_{\rm max}$  could be cancelled to some degree by increases in temperature (Lobell & Gourdji, 2012).

Maize and sorghum had lower PNUE values,  $< 1 \, \mathrm{g} \, \mathrm{N} \, \mathrm{m}^{-2}$ , compared with  $C_4$  wild grasses. Muchow & Sinclair (1994) showed that, in general, maize and sorghum operate at different

 $LN_{area}$  (1.8 and 1.3 g N m<sup>-2</sup> in maize and sorghum, respectively). In both cases, these  $LN_{area}$  values are within the range of those determining similar PNUE values to  $C_4$  wild grasses.

The  $C_3$  dicotyledonous annual crops had similar PNUE values to the  $C_3$  wild herbs, at least from values of c.  $1\,\mathrm{g}\,\mathrm{N}\,\mathrm{m}^{-2}$  upwards. The exceptions were soybean and potato, having lower PNUE than the wild  $C_3$  herbs in a wide range of LN<sub>area</sub>. Soybean leaves are N storage organs synthesizing vegetative storage protein (Staswick, 1994). This protein can account for almost 50% of total soluble protein in the leaves; the presence of these N-rich proteins may help to explain the low PNUE observed for this crop. Potato, on the other hand, has been reported as a species having inherently low leaf PNUE than other crops (Vos & van der Putten, 1998). The low PNUE can also explain the low NUE observed at crop level (Ospina *et al.*, 2014).

The C<sub>3</sub> cultivated trees were not different in their PNUE response to LN<sub>area</sub> from the C<sub>3</sub> wild woody species. Because of the long times required for commercial tree breeding, it was expected that there would not be meaningful differences from their wild counterparts. One interesting aspect of this comparison is that the  $LN_{area}$  of crop trees was never  $\leq 1$  g N m<sup>-2</sup>, as it was for the wild trees. One hypothesis we propose to explain this finding is that farming ensured more N availability to crop trees, whereas wild trees grow and evolve in climax communities characterized by low availability of soil nutrients, especially those from tropical or subtropical rainforests (Thompson et al., 1992; Reich et al., 1994). In addition, it was reported that the leaf N concentration changed among tree species according to the optimal functioning for C fixation related to the shade tolerance syndrome (Niinemets & Tenhunen, 1997); the wild tree database included some understory species that had low LN<sub>area</sub> associated with this syndrome. Another hypothesis to explain lower LN<sub>area</sub> in wild vs cultivated trees has to do with seasonal variations in temperature and soil water content (Muller et al., 2011; Sugiura & Tateno, 2011); for example, wild tree measurements in the dry season in tropical regions may have reduced LN<sub>area</sub>. Leaf N also depends on the amount of radiation in a vertical gradient of light incident across a dense canopy (Hikosaka, 2016); wild trees may be adapted to reduced amounts of radiation (and hence invest lower LN<sub>area</sub>) as they evolved in dense canopies. In the case of cultivated trees, these species are grown in near isolation, without understory competition from herbaceous communities, and with supplemental fertilization (Tagliavini et al., 1995; Zarate-Valdez et al., 2015). Also, chemical protection in commercial orchards prevented pests and diseases that are more prone to occur in leaves with greater N concentrations (Coley et al., 1985).

Findings from our work have implications in both the agricultural and ecological domains. In the agricultural domain, securing food demand requires understanding of ecophysiological constraints to increase C fixation of cultivated species (FAO, 2009; Tilman *et al.*, 2011). Our results show almost no advantages for cultivated species to fix more C in the physiological frontier along a wide range of N leaf contents when compared with wild species. There is evidence, however, that photosynthesis is not fully optimized, suggesting that there are possibilities to

increase crop yields by improving this process (e.g. Murchie *et al.*, 2009). In the near future, it is likely that novel biotechnologies will explore alternative ways to increase  $A_{\rm max}$  and PNUE at the cell level, including synthetic C fixation pathways (Bar-Even *et al.*, 2010; Raines, 2011; McGrath & Long, 2014) able to move up this physiological frontier. In the ecological domain, C fixation and sequestration among wild species in natural terrestrial ecosystems have a prominent role to play in attenuating the consequences of current climate change (Lai, 2004; Davidson & Janssens, 2006).

## **Acknowledgements**

J.L.R. and P.A.C. are profoundly grateful to their teacher, Martín Roberto Aguiar, for introducing them to and guiding them through the first steps of the fascinating world of ecological science and for sharing the happiness of delving into the mysteries of the Patagonian rangelands. This manuscript is only a small piece of our homage to him, and our everlasting acknowledgment of his commitment during more than 30 yr of teaching. We also thank to Amy Austin for her helpful comments on an earlier version of this manuscript. J.L.R. and P.A.C. are members of CONICET, the National Research Council for Argentina.

#### **Author contributions**

J.L.R. and P.A.C. designed the research, compiled the database, analyzed the data, and wrote the paper.

#### References

Ainsworth EA, Long SP. 2005. What have we learned from 15 years of free-air CO<sub>2</sub> enrichment (FACE)? A meta-analytic review of the responses of photosynthesis, canopy properties and plant production to rising CO<sub>2</sub>. *New Physiologist* **165**: 351–372.

Archontoulis SV, Miguez FE. 2015. Nonlinear regression models and applications in agricultural research. Agronomy Journal 107: 786–798.

Atkinson LJ, Campbell CD, Zaragoza-Castells J, Hurry V, Atkin OK. 2010. Impact of growth temperature on scaling relationships linking photosynthetic metabolism to leaf functional traits. *Functional Ecology* 24: 1181–1191.

Bar-Even A, Noor E, Lewis NE, Milo R. 2010. Design and analysis of synthetic carbon fixation pathways. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, USA 107: 8889–8894.

Bertheloot J, Martre P, Andrieu B. 2008. Dynamics of light and nitrogen distribution during grain filling within wheat canopy. *Plant Physiology* 148: 1707–1720.

Cade BS, Noon BR. 2003. A gentle introduction to quantile regression for ecologists. Frontiers in Ecology and the Environment 8: 412–420.

Cassman KG, Dobermann A, Walters DT, Yang H. 2003. Meeting cereal demand while protecting natural resources and improving environmental quality. Annual Review of Environment and Resources 28: 315–358.

Chapin FS. 1980. The mineral-nutrition of wild plants. Annual Review of Ecology and Systematics 11: 233–260.

Coley PD, Bryant JP, Chapin FS. 1985. Resource availability and plant antiherbivore defense. *Science* 230: 895–899.

Davidson EA, Janssens IA. 2006. Temperature sensitivity of soil carbon decomposition and feedbacks to climate change. *Nature* 440: 165–173.

Denison RF. 2009. Darwinian agriculture: real, imaginary and complex trade-offs as constraints and opportunities. In: Sadras VO, Miralles DJ, eds. *Crop* 

- physiology applications for genetic improvement and agronomy. San Diego, CA, USA: Academic Press, 215–234.
- Dreccer MF, Schapendonk A, van Oijen M, Pot CS, Rabbinge R. 2000.

  Radiation and nitrogen use at the leaf and canopy level by wheat and oilseed rape during the critical period for grain number definition. *Australian Journal of Plant Physiology* 27: 899–910.
- Evans JR. 1989. Photosynthesis and nitrogen relationships of C<sub>3</sub> plants. *Oecologia* 78: 9–19.
- Evans LT. 1993. Crop evolution, adaptation and yield. New York, NY, USA: Cambridge University Press.
- FAO. 2009. Global agriculture towards 2050. How to feed the World in 2050. High-level expert forum. [WWW document] URL http://www.fao.org/wsfs/forum2050/wsfs-forum/en/ [accessed 28 October 2016].
- Field C, Mooney HA. 1991. The photosynthesis-nitrogen relationship in wild plants. In: Givnish TJ, ed. On the economy of plant form and function. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press, 22–55.
- Flexas J, Medrano H. 2002. Drought-inhibition of photosynthesis in C<sub>3</sub> plants: stomatal and non-stomatal limitations revisited. *Annals of Botany* 89: 183–189.
- French RJ, Schultz JE. 1984. Water use efficiency of wheat in a Mediterraneantype environment. I. The relation between yield, water use and climate. Australian Journal of Agricultural Research 35: 743–764.
- Geps P. 2002. A comparison between crop domestication, classical plant breeding, and genetic engineering. *Crop Science* 42: 1780–1790.
- Hassiotou F, Renton ML, Evans JR, Veneklaas EJ. 2010. Photosynthesis at an extreme end of the leaf trait spectrum: how does it relate to high leaf dry mass per area and associated structural parameters? *Journal of Experimental Botany* 61: 3015–3028.
- Hikosaka K. 2016. Optimality of nitrogen distribution among leaves in plant canopies. *Journal of Plant Research* 129: 299–311.
- Hohmann-Marriott MF, Blankenship RE. 2011. Evolution of photosynthesis. *Annual Review of Plant Biololgy* **62**: 515–548.
- Kattge J, Knorr W, Raddatz T, Wirth C. 2009. Quantifying photosynthetic capacity and its relationship to leaf nitrogen content for global-scale terrestrial biosphere models. Global Change Biology 15: 976–991.
- Koenker R. 2005. *Quantile regression*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press
- Koenker R 2015. quantreg: quantile regression. R package version 5.11. [WWW document] URL https://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/quantreg/quantreg. pdf [accessed 28 October 2016].
- Koenker R, Machado JAF. 1999. Goodness of fit and related inference processes for quantile regression. *Journal of American Statistical Association* 94: 1296– 1310.
- Koenker R, Park BJ. 1996. An interior point algorithm for nonlinear quantile regression. *Journal of Econometrics* 71: 265–283.
- Lai R. 2004. Soil carbon sequestration impacts on global climate change and food security. Science 304: 1623–1627.
- Lange OL, Bayschlag W, Tenhunen JD. 1987. Control of leaf carbon assimilation – input of chemical energy into ecosystems. In: Schulze ED, Zwölfer H, eds. *Potentials and limitations of ecosystem analysis*. Berlin, Germany: Springer Berlin Heidelberg, 149–163.
- LeBauer DS, Treseder KK. 2008. Nitrogen limitation of net primary productivity in terrestrial ecosystems is globally distributed. *Ecology* 89: 371–379.
- Lobell DB, Gourdji SM. 2012. The influence of climate change on global crop productivity. *Plant Physiology* 160: 1686–1697.
- Makino A, Sakashita H, Hidema J, Mae T, Ojima K, Osmond B. 1992. Distinctive responses of ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate carboxylase and carbonic anhydrase in wheat leaves to nitrogen nutrition and their possible relationships to CO<sub>2</sub> transfer resistance. *Plant Physiology* **100**: 1737–1743.
- McGrath JM, Long SP. 2014. Can the cyanobacterial carbon-concentrating mechanism increase photosynthesis in crop species? A theoretical analysis. *Plant Physiology* 164: 2247–2261.
- Milla R, Osborne CP, Turcotte MM, Violle C. 2015. Plant domestication through an ecological lens. *Trends in Ecology and Evolution* 30: 463–469.

- Muchow RC, Sinclair TR. 1994. Nitrogen response of leaf photosynthesis and canopy radiation use efficiency in field-grown maize and sorghum. *Crop Science* 34: 721–727.
- Muller O, Hirose T, Werger MJA, Hikosaka K. 2011. Optimal use of leaf nitrogen explains seasonal changes in leaf nitrogen content of an understory evergreen shrub. *Annals of Botany* 108: 529–536.
- Murchie EH, Pinto M, Horton P. 2009. Agriculture and the new challenges for photosynthesis research. *New Phytologist* 181: 532–552.
- Niinemets Ü, Tenhunen JD. 1997. A model separating leaf structural and physiological effects on carbon gain along light gradients for the shade-tolerant species Acer saccharum. *Plant, Cell and Environment* 20: 845–866.
- Ohsumi A, Hamasaki A, Nakagawa H, Yoshida H, Shiraiwa T, Horie T. 2007. A model explaining genotypic and ontogenetic variation of leaf photosynthetic rate in rice (*Oryza sativa*) based on leaf nitrogen content and stomatal conductance. *Annals of Botany* 99: 265–273.
- Ospina CA, Lammerts van Bueren ET, Allefs JJHM, Engel B, van der Putten PEL, van der Linden CG, Struik PC. 2014. Diversity of crop development traits and nitrogen use efficiency among potato cultivars grown under contrasting nitrogen regimes. *Euphytica* 199: 13–29.
- Peng S, Cassman KG, Kropff MJ. 1995. Relationship between leaf photosynthesis and nitrogen content of field-grown rice in tropics. *Crop Science* 35: 1627–1630.
- Peterson AG, Ball JT, Luo Y, Field CB, Reich PB, Curtis PS, Griffin KL, Gunderson CA, Norby RJ, Tissue DT *et al.* 1999. The photosynthesis leaf nitrogen relationship at ambient and elevated atmospheric carbon dioxide: a meta-analysis. *Global Change Biology* 5: 331–346.
- Poorter H, Evans JR. 1998. Photosynthetic nitrogen-use efficiency of species that differ inherently in specific leaf area. *Oecologia* 116: 26–37.
- Preece C, Livarda A, Wallace M, Martin G, Charles M, Christin PA, Jones G, Rees M, Osborne CP. 2015. Were Fertile Crescent crop progenitors higher yielding than other wild species that were never domesticated? *New Phytologist* 207: 905–913.
- R Core Team. 2013. R: a language and environment for statistical computing. Vienna, Austria: R Foundation for Statistical Computing. [WWW document] URL http://www.R-project.org/.
- Raines CA. 2011. Increasing photosynthetic carbon assimilation in C<sub>3</sub> plants to improve crop yield: current and future strategies. *Plant Physiology* 155: 36–42.
- Reich PB, Oleksyn J, Wright IJ. 2009. Leaf phosphorus influences the photosynthesis-nitrogen relation: a cross-biome analysis of 314 species. *Oecologia* 160: 207–212.
- Reich PB, Walters MB, Ellsworth DS, Uhl C. 1994. Photosynthesis-nitrogen relations in amazonian tree species. I. Patterns among species and communities. Oecologia 97: 62–72.
- Ross-Ibarra J, Morrell PL, Gaut BS. 2007. Plant domestication, a unique opportunity to identify the genetic basis of adaptation. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, USA 104: 8641–8648.
- Rotundo JL, Borrás L. 2016. Reduced soybean photosynthetic nitrogen use efficiency associated with evolutionary genetic bottlenecks. *Functional Plant Biology* 43: 862–869.
- Sadras VO, Angus JF. 2006. Benchmarking water-use efficiency of rainfed wheat in dry environments. Australian Journal of Agricultural Research 57: 847–856.
- Sinclair TR, Horie T. 1989. Leaf nitrogen, photosynthesis, and crop radiation use efficiency a review. *Crop Science* 29: 90–98.
- Spiess AN 2014. Propagate: Propagation of uncertainty using higher-order Taylor expansion and Monte Carlo simulation. R package version 1.0-4. [WWW document] URL https://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/propagate/index.html [accessed 28 October 2016].
- Staswick PE. 1994. Storage rroteins of vegetative plant-tissue. Annual Review of Plant Physiology and Plant Molecular Biology 45: 303–322.
- Sugiura D, Tateno M. 2011. Optimal leaf-to-root ratio and leaf nitrogen content determined by light and nitrogen availabilities. *PLoS One* 6: e22236.
- Tagliavini M, Scudellazi D, Marangoni B, Toselli M. 1995. Nitrogen fertilization management in orchards to reconcile productivity and environmental aspects. Fertilizer Research 43: 93–102.
- Thompson WA, Huang LK, Kriedemann PE. 1992. Photosynthetic response to light and nutrients in sun-tolerant and shade-tolerant rainforest trees. II. Leaf

- gas exchange and component processes of photosynthesis. Australian Journal of Plant Physiology 19: 19–42.
- Tilman D, Balzer C, Hill J, Belfort BL. 2011. Global food demand and the sustainable intensification of agriculture. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, USA* 108: 20260–20264.
- Tubiello FN, Soussana JF, Howden SM. 2007. Crop and pasture response to climate change. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, USA* 104: 19686–19690.
- Ulukan H. 2009. The evolution of cultivated plant species: classical plant breeding versus genetic engineering. *Plant Systematics and Evolution* 280: 133– 147.
- Vitousek PM, Aber JD, Howarth RW, Likens GE, Matson PA, Schindler DW, Schlesinger WH, Tilman DG. 1997. Human alteration of the global nitrogen cycle: Sources and consequences. *Ecological Applications* 7: 737–750.
- Vos J, van der Putten PEL. 1998. Effect of nitrogen supply on leaf growth, leaf nitrogen economy and photosynthetic capacity in potato. *Field Crops Research* 59: 63–72.
- Wright IJ, Reich PB, Cornelissen JHC, Falster DS, Groom PK, Hikosaka K, Lee W, Lusk CH, Niinemets A, Oleksyn J et al. 2005. Modulation of leaf economic traits and trait relationships by climate. Global Ecology and Biogeography 14: 411–421.
- Wright IJ, Reich PB, Westoby M, Ackerly DD, Baruch Z, Bongers F, Cavender-Bares J, Chapin T, Cornelissen JHC, Diemer M et al. 2004. The worldwide leaf economics spectrum. Nature 428: 821–827.

- Wullschleger SD. 1993. Biochemical limitations to carbon assimilation in C<sub>3</sub> plants—a retrospective analysis of the A/C<sub>i</sub> curves from 109 species. Journal of Experimental Botany 44: 907–920.
- Zarate-Valdez JL, Muhammad S, Saa S, Lampinen BD, Brown PH. 2015. Light interception, leaf nitrogen and yield prediction in almonds: a case study. European Journal of Agronomy 66: 1–7.

## **Supporting Information**

Additional Supporting Information may be found online in the Supporting Information tab for this article:

Table S1 Bibliographic references included in the meta-analysis

Table S2 Dataset included in the meta-analysis

Please note: Wiley Blackwell are not responsible for the content or functionality of any Supporting Information supplied by the authors. Any queries (other than missing material) should be directed to the *New Phytologist* Central Office.



# About New Phytologist

- New Phytologist is an electronic (online-only) journal owned by the New Phytologist Trust, a **not-for-profit organization** dedicated to the promotion of plant science, facilitating projects from symposia to free access for our Tansley reviews.
- Regular papers, Letters, Research reviews, Rapid reports and both Modelling/Theory and Methods papers are encouraged.
   We are committed to rapid processing, from online submission through to publication 'as ready' via Early View our average time to decision is <28 days. There are no page or colour charges and a PDF version will be provided for each article.</li>
- The journal is available online at Wiley Online Library. Visit **www.newphytologist.com** to search the articles and register for table of contents email alerts.
- If you have any questions, do get in touch with Central Office (np-centraloffice@lancaster.ac.uk) or, if it is more convenient, our USA Office (np-usaoffice@lancaster.ac.uk)
- For submission instructions, subscription and all the latest information visit www.newphytologist.com