Does Low Stomatal Conductance or Photosynthetic Capacity Enhance Growth at Elevated CO₂ in Arabidopsis?¹

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The objective of this study was to determine if low stomatal conductance (g) increases growth, nitrate (NO_3^-) assimilation, and nitrogen (N) utilization at elevated CO₂ concentration. Four Arabidopsis (*Arabidopsis thaliana*) near isogenic lines (NILs) differing in g were grown at ambient and elevated CO₂ concentration under low and high NO_3^- supply as the sole source of N. Although g varied by 32% among NILs at elevated CO₂, leaf intercellular CO₂ concentration varied by only 4% and genotype had no effect on shoot NO_3^- concentration in any treatment. Low-g NILs showed the greatest CO₂ growth increase under N limitation but had the lowest CO₂ growth enhancement under N-sufficient conditions. NILs with the highest and lowest g had similar rates of shoot NO_3^- assimilation following N deprivation at elevated CO₂ concentration. After 5 d of N deprivation, the lowest g NIL had 27% lower maximum carboxylation rate and 23% lower photosynthetic electron transport compared with the highest g NIL. These results suggest that increased growth of low-g NILs under N limitation most likely resulted from more conservative N investment in photosynthetic biochemistry rather than from low g.

The availability of water varies in time and space, and plants in a given environment are expected to evolve a stomatal behavior that optimizes the tradeoff of CO₂ uptake for photosynthesis at the cost of transpirational water loss. The resource of CO₂ also varies over time, and plant fossils indicate that stomatal characteristics have changed in response to periods of high and low atmospheric CO₂ over the past 65 million years (Beerling and Chaloner, 1993; Van Der Burgh et al., 1993; Beerling, 1998; Kürschner, 2001; Royer et al., 2001). Relatively low atmospheric CO₂ concentrations (less than 320 μ mol mol⁻¹) over the last 23 million years (Pearson and Palmer, 2000) are associated with increased stomatal conductance (g) to avoid CO₂ starvation (Beerling and Chaloner, 1993). Atmospheric CO_2 concentration has risen rapidly from 280 to 400 μ mol mol⁻¹ since 1800 and has resulted in lower stomatal density (Woodward, 1987; Woodward and Bazzaz, 1988; Lammertsma et al., 2011). At the current atmospheric CO_2 concentration (400 μ mol mol⁻¹), further decreases in g reduce water loss but also restrict CO₂ assimilation and, thus, limit the effectiveness of low g in water-stressed environments (Comstock and Ehleringer, 1993; Virgona and Farquhar, 1996). Elevated CO₂ concentration enhances the diffusion gradient for CO_2 into leaves, which allows g to decrease without severely restricting photosynthetic carbon gain (Herrick et al., 2004). Most consider such an improvement in water use efficiency in C_3 plants to be the main driving force for decreased *g* at elevated CO₂ concentration, especially in dry environments (Woodward, 1987; Beerling and Chaloner, 1993; Brodribb et al., 2009; Franks and Beerling, 2009; Katul et al., 2010).

Water is the most common factor limiting terrestrial plant productivity, but declining stomatal density has also occurred in wetland environments where water stress is uncommon (Wagner et al., 2005). Improved water use efficiency at elevated CO₂ concentration may be shifting the most common factor limiting plant productivity from water to nitrogen (N). In herbarium specimens of 14 species of trees, shrubs, and herbs, leaf N decreased 31% as atmospheric CO₂ increased from about 270 to 400 μ mol mol⁻¹ since 1750 (Penuelas and Matamala, 1990). Indeed, many studies have shown that N availability limits the stimulation of plant growth at elevated CO₂ concentration (Luo et al., 2004; Dukes et al., 2005; Reich et al., 2006). That most plants at elevated CO_2 concentration exhibit both lower g and greater N limitation suggests a relationship between these factors.

Plants primarily absorb N as nitrate (NO₃⁻) in most temperate soils and assimilate a major portion of this NO₃⁻ in shoots (Epstein and Bloom, 2005). Elevated CO₂ increases the ratio of CO₂ to oxygen in the chloroplast, decreasing photorespiration and improving photosynthetic efficiency (Sharkey, 1988) but inhibiting photorespiration-dependent NO₃⁻ assimilation (Rachmilevitch et al., 2004; Bloom et al., 2010, 2012; Bloom, 2014). Greater rhizosphere NO₃⁻ availability tends to enhance root NO₃⁻ assimilation and decrease the influence of elevated CO₂ concentration on plant organic N accumulation (Kruse et al., 2002, 2003; Bloom et al., 2010).

The most important factor regulating chloroplast CO₂ concentration among natural accessions of Arabidopsis

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Figure 1. *g* of four Arabidopsis NILs grown at ambient or elevated CO_2 concentration under 0.2 mm NO_3^- (light-gray bars) or 1 mm NO_3^- (dark-gray bars). Each bar represents the mean of five to six plants \pm sɛ. Means within NO_3^- treatment are significantly different if labeled with different letters.

(*Arabidopsis thaliana*) is *g* and to a lesser extent mesophyll conductance (Easlon et al., 2014). Low *g* may decrease the ratio of CO₂ to oxygen in the chloroplast at elevated CO₂ concentration, enhancing photorespirationdependent NO₃⁻ assimilation. Alternatively, increasing atmospheric CO₂ may down-regulate the need to synthesize enzymes such as Rubisco to support photosynthesis, which conserves organic N, and *g* may decline as a by-product of lower photosynthetic capacity (Sage et al., 1989; Moore et al., 1998).

Here, we examined the influence of atmospheric CO₂ concentration and NO₃⁻ supply on photosynthesis, leaf N, and growth in near isogenic lines (NILs) of Arabidopsis differing in *g*. Arabidopsis accessions differ in many traits (including *g*) and likewise differ in DNA sequence at a large percentage of genes across the genome (Cao et al., 2011). Use of these NILs greatly reduces the proportion of the genome that varies and minimizes the influence of variation in other traits that are frequently associated with low *g* and could limit growth (Arp et al., 1998). We tested the extent to which (1) low *g* was associated with greater CO₂ growth enhancement at low and high NO₃⁻ supply; (2) low leaf intercellular CO₂ concentration (*C*₁) increased shoot NO₃⁻ assimilation; and (3) low *g* at elevated CO₂ concentration was associated with altered N utilization in photosynthetic biochemistry.

RESULTS

Differences in g Were Maintained at Elevated CO₂ Concentration

Arabidopsis NILs maintained the same relative statistical ranking independent of CO₂ and NO₃⁻ treatment (Fig. 1). All the NILs had lower *g* at elevated than at ambient CO₂, ranging from a 4.7% decrease in NIL A at 1 mM NO₃⁻ to a 24.5% decrease in NIL D at 0.2 mM NO₃⁻. NO₃⁻ treatment had a significant effect on *g* at elevated CO₂ concentration (P < 0.001) but not at ambient CO₂ (P = 0.792). Genotype had a significant effect on *g* at both ambient and elevated CO_2 concentrations (both P < 0.001).

Growth and Gas Exchange at Ambient and Elevated CO₂ Concentrations

All Arabidopsis NILs at elevated CO₂ concentration had 93% to 189% more shoot dry weight at harvest (26 d after planting) than those at ambient CO₂ (Fig. 2). Elevated CO₂ had a similar effect on rosette area (Fig. 2). NO₃⁻ treatment had a significant effect on shoot dry weight at both ambient and elevated CO₂ concentrations (both P < 0.001). There was a significant interaction between NO₃⁻ and genotype on shoot dry weight at elevated CO₂ concentration (P < 0.001). When grown at elevated CO₂ concentration, shoot dry weight and rosette area at harvest were higher in the high-g NIL (D) than in the low-g NIL (A) under 1 mM NO₃⁻ and lower in the high-g NIL (D) than in the low-g NIL (A) under 0.2 mM NO₃⁻.

Twenty-five days after planting, rosette photosynthesis per unit of leaf area was 22% to 41% higher at elevated than at ambient CO₂ concentration (Fig. 3). At elevated CO₂ concentrations but not at ambient CO₂ concentration, rosette photosynthesis per leaf area was faster (elevated, P < 0.001; ambient, P = 0.407), C_i was lower (P < 0.001 and P = 0.166), and leaf carbon isotope composition (δ^{13} C) was smaller (P < 0.001 and P = 0.438) under low than high NO₃⁻. Genotype had a significant effect on C_i and



Figure 2. Shoot dry weight and rosette area of four Arabidopsis NILs grown at ambient or elevated CO_2 concentration under 0.2 mm NO_3^- (light-gray bars) or 1 mm NO_3^- (dark-gray bars). Each bar represents the mean of five to six plants \pm se. Means within NO_3^- treatment are significantly different if labeled with different letters.



Figure 3. Photosynthesis (A), $C_{i'}$ and shoot δ^{13} C of four Arabidopsis NILs grown at ambient or elevated CO₂ concentration under 0.2 mm NO₃⁻ (light-gray bars) or 1 mm NO₃⁻ (dark-gray bars). Each bar represents the mean of five to six plants ± st. Means within NO₃⁻ treatment are significantly different if labeled with different letters.

 δ^{13} C in all NO₃⁻ treatments at ambient and elevated CO₂ concentrations (all *P* < 0.001).

Shoot N at Ambient and Elevated CO₂ Concentrations

Leaves accumulated substantial NO₃⁻ in all treatments except for the low-NO₃⁻ treatment at elevated CO₂ concentration (Fig. 4). Genotype had a significant effect on total organic N under 1 mM NO₃⁻ in both CO₂ treatments (ambient, P = 0.006; elevated, P = 0.02). Shoot organic N concentration was 31% to 40% lower under low than high NO₃⁻ at elevated CO₂ concentration but was similar in both NO₃⁻ treatments at ambient CO₂ concentration (Fig. 5). The low-g NILs (A and B) did not have significantly more organic N than the high-g NILs (C and D) under 0.2 mM NO₃⁻ at either CO₂ concentration (Fig. 4). Shoot organic N concentration, however, was negatively correlated with shoot dry weight at harvest ($r^2 = 0.931$, P < 0.001) in low-NO₃⁻ plants grown at elevated CO₂ concentration but not in any other treatment (Fig. 5).

NO₃⁻ Assimilation after N Deprivation at Elevated CO₂ Concentration

In the second experiment, multiple harvests following transfer from 1 mM NO₃⁻ to 0 mM NO₃⁻ were used to assess the rates of shoot NO₃⁻ assimilation in the lowest and highest *g* NILs (A and D). After transfer from 1 mM NO₃⁻ to 0 mM NO₃⁻, total shoot NO₃⁻ declined 49% to 51% in both low- and high-*g* NILs during the first light period, indicating similar NO₃⁻ assimilation rates in these genotypes (Fig. 6). Root NO₃⁻ declined to undetectable levels after the first light period but recovered partially during the first night. Shoot NO₃⁻ content did not change during the first night. Both shoot and root NO₃⁻ concentrations became negligible by the second day. Shoot growth differences between NILs become apparent as shoot NO₃⁻ declined, but root growth of the NILs was similar throughout the experiment.

N-Sufficient and N-Limited Photosynthesis at Elevated CO₂ Concentration

Photosynthetic CO₂ response curves of the lowest and highest *g* NILs (A and D) were compared 5 d after transfer to 0 mm NO₃⁻ or 1 mm NO₃⁻ nutrient solution (Fig. 7). N limitation had a large effect on maximum carboxylation rate (V_{cmax}) and photosynthetic electron transport (*J*) in both NILs (both *P* < 0.001). At high NO₃⁻, V_{cmax} was 14% lower and *J* was 2% lower in NIL A than in NIL D. Under N limitation, genotype differences in photosynthetic parameters became more pronounced, with V_{cmax} 27% lower and *J* 23% lower in NIL A than in NIL D.

DISCUSSION

Our hypothesis that the low-*g* Arabidopsis NILs would grow faster than the high-*g* NILs at elevated CO_2 concentration under low NO_3^- supply was confirmed (Figs. 2 and 6). Plant responses to elevated CO_2 concentration



Figure 4. Total shoot NO_3^- and organic N in four Arabidopsis NILs grown at ambient or elevated CO_2 concentration under 0.2 mm NO_3^- or 1 mm NO_3^- . Each bar represents the mean of four to six plants \pm st.



Figure 5. Relationship between shoot organic N concentration and shoot dry weight in four Arabidopsis NILs grown at ambient or elevated CO_2 concentration under 0.2 mm NO_3^- or 1 mm NO_3^- . Symbols represent individual plant values.

vary with the degree to which CO_2 is the primary factor limiting growth. Sustained stimulation of growth in long-term CO₂ enrichment studies generally requires heavy fertilization and irrigation, so neither N nor water is a limiting resource (de Graaff et al., 2006; Newingham et al., 2013). Here, the high-g Arabidopsis NILs showed the greatest growth enhancement at elevated CO₂ concentration under high NO_3^- supply (Fig. 2). This agrees with the common view that inherently fast-growing species have the greatest potential for growth enhancement at elevated CO2 concentration (Poorter and Navas, 2003). Conversely, low *g* is usually associated with nutrient- or water-limited environments that constrain growth enhancement by elevated CO₂ concentration. Adaptation to nutrient- or water-limited environments results in a suite of changes in plant allocation and growth, but our use of Arabidopsis NILs minimized differences in plant performance that did not derive from genetic differences in g. Better performance in the low-g NILs under N limitation at elevated CO₂ concentration (Fig. 2) indicates a coupling of low g and improved N utilization or that improved N utilization lowered *g*.

Effect of Low g on C_i and NO₃⁻ Assimilation at Elevated CO₂ Concentration

Shoot NO₃⁻ and shoot organic N content at elevated CO₂ concentration suggest that the low-*g* NILs did not have significantly faster shoot NO₃⁻ assimilation than the high-*g* NILs. At elevated CO₂ concentration, C_i varied by only 24 μ mol mol⁻¹ on a background of about 610 μ mol mol⁻¹ between the highest and lowest *g* NILs. Likewise, δ^{13} C, which is affected by both stomatal and mesophyll conductances (Seibt et al., 2008), indicates that chloroplast CO₂ concentrations mirrored C_i estimates (Fig. 3). This relatively small change in C_i would have negligible effects on the rates of photorespiratory NO₃⁻ assimilation (Bloom et al., 2012). More pronounced decreases in *g* and/or mesophyll conductances would be required to lower chloroplast CO₂ concentration

and stimulate rates of photorespiration similar to those observed at 400 μ mol mol⁻¹ atmospheric CO₂.

If elevated CO_2 concentration suppressed NO_3^- assimilation, shoot NO_3^- accumulation should increase and shoot organic N concentration should decrease. Accordingly, at high NO_3^- supply, total shoot NO_3^- was higher (Fig. 4), and shoot organic N concentration was lower (Fig. 5) at elevated than at ambient CO_2 concentration. Total shoot organic N increased at elevated CO_2 concentration, but this may reflect that elevated CO_2 concentration stimulates root NO_3^- assimilation (Kruse et al., 2002, 2003). Being able to distinguish between shoot and root NO_3^- assimilation would allow us to discern the effects of CO_2 inhibition of photorespiratory NO_3^- assimilation on total shoot organic N content.

Under low N at elevated CO_2 concentration, all four genotypes assimilated all of the available NO_3^- . The large decline in organic N concentration at elevated CO_2 concentration under low NO_3^- supply resulted from an N limitation (Fig. 5). Under N limitation, the low-*g* NILs had higher shoot dry weight and leaf area than the high-*g* NILs (Fig. 2). Shoot dry weight was negatively correlated with shoot organic N concentration at elevated CO_2 concentration under low NO_3^- supply, indicating that improved N utilization may explain the better performance of the low-*g* NILs under N limitation (Fig. 5). This negative correlation was not observed at ambient CO_2 concentration under low NO_3^- supply, most likely because slower growth resulted in a delayed onset of N limitation.

NO₃⁻ Assimilation following N Deprivation at Elevated CO₂ Concentration

In the second experiment, plants were transferred from high NO_3^- supply to a solution without N. In both the highest and lowest *g* NILs, shoot NO_3^- content declined rapidly during the first day and not at night, indicating that NO_3^- assimilation depended on photosynthesis and occurred at similar rates in the highest and lowest *g* NILs (Fig. 6). Indeed, the low- and high-*g* NILs did not differ much in internal C_i (Fig. 3).



Figure 6. Shoot and root NO₃⁻ and dry weight for two NILs grown at elevated CO₂ concentration 0 to 7 d after N deprivation. Each symbol represents the mean of five to six plants for each NIL \pm st. The asterisk indicates a statistically significant difference (P < 0.05).



Photoassimilatory NO_3^- assimilation is relatively insensitive to small changes in C_i at elevated CO_2 concentration (Bloom et al., 2012), so more pronounced differences in *g* and/or mesophyll conductance may be required to observe differences in the rates of shoot NO_3^- assimilation at elevated CO_2 concentration.

N-Sufficient and N-Limited Photosynthesis at Elevated CO₂ Concentration

At elevated CO_2 concentrations but not ambient CO_2 concentration, rosette photosynthesis per leaf area was faster under low than high NO_3^- (Fig. 3). Higher photosynthesis per leaf area under NO_3^- may result from lower specific leaf area under N limitation (Fig. 2); however, shoot organic N concentration was also lower under low than high NO_3^- (Fig. 5). This appears to be in opposition to the well-documented relationship between assimilation and leaf organic N concentration (Field and Mooney, 1986; Evans, 1989). In the second experiment, photosynthesis was higher under high than low NO_3^- (Fig. 7). Differences in photosynthesis between these two experiments may result from gradual versus sudden imposition of N limitation and growth level (350 μ mol m⁻² s⁻¹) versus saturating $(1,000 \ \mu \text{mol} \ \text{m}^{-2} \ \text{s}^{-1})$ photosynthetic photon flux density (PPFD) during gas-exchange measurements. Photosynthetic capacity may have been higher under N-sufficient growth in the first experiment, but higher respiration associated with higher leaf organic N concentration may have resulted in lower photosynthesis under nonsaturating PPFD.

In the first experiment, the high- and low-*g* NILs had similar rates of carbon assimilation, photosynthesis at elevated CO₂ concentration (Fig. 3), but in the second experiment, the two genotypes exhibited differences in their biochemical parameters of photosynthesis. At elevated CO₂ concentration, the low-*g* NIL experienced more of a decrease in V_{cmax} and *J* under N deprivation than the high-*g* NIL (Fig. 7). Lower V_{cmax} (the maximum rate of ribulose 1,5-bisphosphate carboxylation) indicates a lower Rubisco content or less Rubisco activation,

Figure 7. Photosynthetic response curves (*A*) for two NILs grown at elevated CO₂ concentration 5 d after N deprivation or 1 mm NO₃⁻ control treatment. V_{cmax} and *J* were obtained from the photosynthetic CO₂ response curves. Each symbol or bar represents the mean of six plants ± sE. Asterisks represent levels of statistical significance within NO₃⁻ treatment (**P* < 0.05 and ***P* < 0.01).

whereas lower I indicates a lower rate of electron transport driving ribulose 1,5-bisphosphate regeneration. The low-g NIL also had greater growth (Fig. 6) and lower organic N concentration (Fig. 5) than the high-g NIL. Lower V_{cmax} and lower organic N concentration support the interpretation that under N limitation, the low-g NIL invested less N in Rubisco than the high-g NIL and thus was able to continue to grow with a lower leaf organic N concentration. Long-term exposure to elevated atmospheric CO₂ frequently results in a decline in leaf Rubisco content (Sage et al., 1989; Moore et al., 1998). Because Rubisco can constitute as much as 30% of leaf N (Evans, 1989), reallocating N from Rubisco to other components of leaf photochemistry may improve N utilization (Sage et al., 1989; Moore et al., 1998). High rates of Rubisco inactivation at elevated CO₂ concentration suggest that many C_3 plants, even after photosynthetic acclimation to elevated CO₂ concentration, overinvest in Rubisco (Sage et al., 1989). While high investment in photosynthetic biochemistry is beneficial for N-sufficient growth, it may also explain the slower growth of the high-g NIL relative to the low-g NIL under N limitation observed in both experiments (Figs. 2 and 6). Higher photosynthesis at elevated CO₂ concentration can only improve growth if other nutrients are available so that additional carbon fixed can be converted into useful plant tissue (Kirschbaum 2011).

In summary, a 32% lower *g* in these four Arabidopsis NILs resulted in only a 4% decrease in C_i (Fig. 3). This small change in C_i , particularly at elevated CO₂ concentration,

Table I. Arabidopsis NILs

Arabidopsis NILs were generated from introgression of quantitative trait loci for g and leaf δ^{13} C from Kas-1 into a Tsu-1 genetic background.

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	NIL	Quantitative Trait Locus	Kas-1 Introgression
	А	$\delta^{13}C$	Chromosome 4, 0.17 to 5.6 Mb
	В	g	Chromosome 1, 17.5 to 30.2 Mb
	С	g	Chromosome 1, 25.9 to 30.2 Mb
	D	$\delta^{13}C$	Chromosome 5, 19.6 to 26.9 Mb
-			

should not and did not have a large effect on shoot NO_3^- assimilation. The low-*g* strategy, however, provided an advantage under N limitation, most likely as a result of more conservative investment in photosynthetic biochemistry. Low photosynthetic capacity rather than low *g* is important for N-limited growth at elevated CO_2 concentration in Arabidopsis.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Plant Material

Natural accessions of Arabidopsis (*Arabidopsis thaliana*) vary in g and δ^{13} C, a time-integrated measure of chloroplast CO₂-atmospheric CO₂ ratio (McKay et al., 2003, 2008; Juenger et al., 2005, 2010; Christman et al., 2008; Monda et al., 2011; Des Marais et al., 2012; Lasky et al., 2012; Easlon et al., 2014). A sample of accessions will also differ in many other traits and harbor hundreds of thousands of polymorphisms in coding and noncoding regions (Cao et al., 2011). To minimize the number of genome-wide differences, we selected four NILs of Arabidopsis varying in δ^{13} C. NILs were selected from the NIL library described by Fletcher et al. (2013) based on chromosomal introgressions at quantitative trait loci for g or δ^{13} C from the Kas-1 (CS903) accession with high water use efficiency, low g and photosynthesis, and long flowering time. Tsu-1 is a spring accession with low water use efficiency, high g and photosynthesis, and short flowering time (Easlon et al., 2014).

Hydroponic Growth

Seeds were germinated in GA-7 Magenta vessels on sand saturated with a nutrient solution that contained 1 mM CaSO₄, 0.75 mM K₂HPO₄, 0.25 mM KH₂PO₄, 0.75 mM MgSO₄, and 0.04 g L⁻¹ iron-diethylene triamine pentaacetic acid and micronutrients at 20% (v/v) strength of a modified Hoagland solution (Epstein and Bloom, 2005) with 0.2 mM KNO₃ as the sole source of N. Plants were grown in controlled-environment chambers (Conviron) set at 23°C/20°C light/dark and 50% to 60% relative humidity with 9 h of light per day at 350 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹ PPFD at plant height. After 7 d, seedlings were transferred to 300-mL opaque polyethylene bottles containing the above nutrient solution with 0.2 or 1 mM KNO₃ as the sole source of N. Seedling hypocotyls were placed in a foam rubber plug, and roots were inserted into a hydroponics solution through a hole drilled in the lid.

$CO_2 \times NO_3^-$ Study

In the first experiment, four NILs were grown in chambers at either ambient CO_2 (405 ± 25 μ mol mol⁻¹) or elevated CO_2 (720 ± 20 μ mol mol⁻¹) with either 0.2 or 1 mM KNO₃ as the sole source of N. Six plants per NIL × NO₃⁻¹ combination were grown in each chamber in a complete randomized design (48 plants per CO₂ treatment). At 19 d after transfer to hydroponics, rosettes were photographed for leaf area and plants were harvested. This growth duration was selected to avoid flowering, because flowering has significant effects on gas exchange and N partitioning in Arabidopsis.

N Deprivation at Elevated CO₂ Concentration

The NILs (A and D) that had the lowest and highest *g* according to the first experiment were grown at elevated CO_2 concentration in nutrient solution under 1 mM KNO₃ for the first 12 d in hydroponics. At dawn the next day, plants were transferred to a nutrient solution containing 0 or 1 mM KNO₃. Six N-deprived plants per genotype were harvested 0 h (right after solution change), 9 h (dusk), 1 d, 2 d, 5 d, and 7 d after the solution change. Six control 1 mM KNO₃ plants per genotype were harvested on the last harvest date (six replicates × six harvests × two NILs + six replicates × two NILs = 84 plants).

N Analyses

At each harvest, rosettes were photographed for leaf area, plants were divided into shoots and roots, and roots were rinsed in deionized water. Shoots and roots were oven dried at 55° C for 48 h and weighed. Whole shoots and

roots were ground to a fine powder in centrifuge tubes with ball bearings to determine NO₃⁻ and total N. Subsamples (2–5 mg) were extracted in 1.5 mL of 10 mM CaSO₄ and clarified by centrifugation. Aliquots were analyzed for NO₃⁻ using the Griess reaction (Miranda et al., 2001). In the first experiment, total N and δ^{13} C was determined at the University of California-Davis Stable Isotope Facility (http://stableisotopefacility.ucdavis.edu/). Differences in δ^{13} C between CO₂ treatments must be viewed with caution, as the ¹³C composition of chamber CO₂, especially in the elevated CO₂ concentration chamber, was variable. Organic N was estimated by subtracting NO₃⁻⁻ N from total N. In the NO₃⁻⁻ deprivation experiment, plants were only analyzed for NO₃⁻⁻ because there was not sufficient material to measure total N and δ^{13} C.

Gas Exchange

Whole-canopy gas exchange was measured using a LI-6400 device with a 6400-17 whole-shoot Arabidopsis chamber (Li-Cor). In the first experiment, gas exchange was measured on all plants 18 d after transfer to hydroponics. The Arabidopsis chamber was maintained at 350 μ mol m⁻² s⁻¹ PPFD, leaf temperature was maintained at 23°C, and relative humidity was maintained at 60%. CO₂ was maintained at either 400 or 720 μ mol mol⁻¹ to match environmental chamber conditions. In the NO3⁻ deprivation experiment, photosynthetic response curves were measured on six plants of each genotype from the N-deprived (0 mM NO3-) and control (1 mM NO3-) treatments 17 d after transfer to hydroponics (5 d after N deprivation). Arabidopsis chamber conditions were the same as above, but PPFD was at saturating (1,000 μ mol m⁻² s^{-1}) light and CO₂ was adjusted in a stepwise fashion to obtain photosynthetic response curves. Following gas-exchange measurements for each plant, leaf area was determined from digital photographs of plant rosettes using Easy Leaf Area software (Easlon and Bloom, 2014). Because of large CO2 gradients between the chamber and outside, empty chamber leak corrections were applied to data. V_{cmax} and J were calculated using a least-squares iterative curvefitting procedure (Sharkey et al., 2007) to fit the Farquhar biochemical model for photosynthesis (Farquhar et al., 1980).

Statistical Analyses

We conducted ANOVA using PROC GLM in SAS (SAS 9.3). Mean separations were determined using Tukey's tests (P < 0.05 was considered statistically significant). All data except shoot organic N and NO₃⁻⁻ content satisfied the ANOVA assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variances. One-way ANOVA within each NO₃⁻⁻ treatment (0.2 versus 1 mM) met the assumptions of ANOVA for N data, so N data were analyzed via one-way ANOVA to test for genotypic effects. We estimated correlations among physiological traits as the standard Pearson product-moment correlation.

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