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2	CARBON SOURCE-SINK LIMITATIONS DIFFER BETWEEN
3	TWO SPECIES WITH CONTRASTING GROWTH
4	STRATEGIES
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7	Carbon source-sink limitations vary with growth strategy
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25 Crop yield, source, sink, barley, CO₂, carbon, nitrogen, photosynthesis, allocation,

26 growth

27 **ABSTRACT**

28

29 Understanding how carbon source and sink strengths limit plant growth is a critical 30 knowledge gap that hinders efforts to maximise crop yield. We investigated how 31 differences in growth rate arise from source-sink limitations, using a model system comparing a fast-growing domesticated annual barley (Hordeum vulgare cv. NFC 32 Tipple) with a slow-growing wild perennial relative (Hordeum bulbosum). Source 33 strength was manipulated by growing plants at sub-ambient and elevated CO₂ 34 35 concentrations ([CO₂]). Limitations on vegetative growth imposed by source and sink were diagnosed by measuring relative growth rate, developmental plasticity, 36 37 photosynthesis and major carbon and nitrogen metabolite pools. Growth was sink 38 limited in the annual but source limited in the perennial. RGR and carbon acquisition were higher in the annual, but photosynthesis responded weakly to elevated [CO₂] 39 40 indicating that source strength was near maximal at current [CO₂]. In contrast, photosynthetic rate and sink development responded strongly to elevated [CO₂] in 41 the perennial, indicating significant source limitation. Sink limitation was avoided in 42 43 the perennial by high sink plasticity: a marked increase in tillering and root:shoot ratio 44 at elevated [CO₂], and lower non-structural carbohydrate accumulation. Alleviating 45 sink limitation during vegetative development could be important for maximising 46 growth of elite cereals under future elevated [CO₂].

47 **INTRODUCTION**

48

49 Global population growth, economic development and climate change are exerting 50 increasing pressure on our global food supply, raising demand that must be met, in 51 part, by improving crop yields (Ainsworth et al., 2008b; Godfray et al., 2010; Foley et al., 2011; von Caemmerer et al., 2012; Reynolds et al., 2012; FAO et al., 2014; Ort et 52 al., 2015). Increasing yield depends critically on a firm understanding of plant growth, 53 which is in turn underpinned by the interactions between carbon and nitrogen 54 55 sources and sinks (White et al., 2016). Sources provide net uptake of resources from the external environment whilst sinks cause a net internal drawdown of these 56 57 resources. For carbon, mature leaves are sources and roots are sinks, and the 58 balance between them is achieved by well-characterised molecular crosstalk mechanisms (Smith and Stitt, 2007; Lawlor and Paul, 2014; White et al., 2016). 59 Decades of research into the effects of elevated CO₂ have demonstrated that 60 increasing source activity through a stimulation of photosynthesis often does not 61 translate into corresponding yield increases (Long et al., 2006; Ainsworth et al., 62 63 2008a; Leakey et al., 2009), although this depends on the species (Yamori et al., 64 2016). Similarly, increasing sink capacity does not always translate into greater yield under field conditions (Weichert et al., 2010). A holistic approach to growth and yield 65 66 considering both source and sink capacities is therefore essential for developing 67 higher yielding crop varieties (White et al., 2016). In this context, source strength is the product of source activity and size, with an equivalent definition for sinks (Geiger 68 69 and Shieh, 1993; White et al., 2016).

71 One strategy for understanding the fundamental limitations on growth is to 72 investigate the natural diversity of growth rates in wild plants. In wild species, one of the major causes of growth rate variation is life-history (Grime and Hunt, 1975; 73 74 Garnier, 1992). Annual and perennial growth strategies enable plants to allocate resources in a way that is appropriate for their environment: annuals grow quickly 75 and invest everything in reproduction in the first year before they die, whilst 76 perennials grow more slowly and conserve resources for the following season 77 78 (Garnier, 1992; Iwasa, 2000; Bennett et al., 2012). Annuals are typically seen as 79 having flexible growth strategies for exploiting fluctuating environments, whereas 80 perennials have more conservative growth strategies - i.e. lower allocation to 81 reproduction and slower growth (Atkinson et al., 2012, 2014). Although perennials 82 with large storage organs may never be sink limited, annuals generally transition 83 from sink to source limitation during development when they switch from vegetative 84 to reproductive growth (Arp, 1991), and perennials lacking large storage organs are 85 likely to undergo this transition as well. Because perennials grow more slowly than 86 annuals and transition to the reproductive growth stage later, they are therefore likely to be sink limited for a longer period of time. 87

88

Despite this well developed ecological theory, we do not currently know the extent to which slower growth in perennials than annuals arises from greater source or sink limitation. Experimental manipulations of the source:sink ratio provide insights into the relative contributions of source and sink processes to growth rate, and may be achieved through a variety of techniques including: sink removal (Arp, 1991); genetic modification (Ainsworth *et al.*, 2004; Weichert *et al.*, 2010; Zuther *et al.*, 2011); source removal (von Caemmerer and Farquhar, 1984; Bryant et al., 1998; Rogers et

96 al., 1998; Eyles et al., 2013); inhibiting resource export from the source (Ainsworth 97 and Bush, 2011); and increasing source activity using elevated CO₂ (Kinsman *et al.*, 1997; Masle, 2000), reviewed by White et al. (2016). Here, we alter the atmospheric 98 99 CO₂ concentration ([CO₂]) to non-invasively manipulate the source:sink ratio in barley 100 - elevated [CO₂] to increase the source strength and sub-ambient [CO₂] to decrease 101 it - with current [CO₂] as a reference against which to compare the source 102 manipulations. This approach enables analysis of source and sink limitation under 103 current [CO₂], and strong CO₂ treatments are applied in order to produce marked 104 perturbations of the system. In C₃ plants, [CO₂] affects carbon source strength 105 directly through one well-understood process i.e. carbon assimilation by Rubisco, 106 and therefore avoids wounding responses and other confounding effects, which may 107 arise from alternative approaches for source:sink manipulation. We took a holistic 108 approach to investigating source-sink interactions, measuring the responses of 109 development, growth, allocation, photosynthesis and key carbon and nitrogen 110 metabolite pools on the same plants. Together, these simultaneous measurements 111 of growth, carbon uptake and carbon utilization allowed us to diagnose source and 112 sink limitation in our model system. For example, a high concentration of free amino 113 acids indicates carbon source limitation (Paul and Driscoll, 1997; Stitt and Krapp, 114 1999; Isopp et al., 2000; Rogers et al., 2006), whilst a build-up of non-structural 115 carbohydrates in leaves indicates carbon sink limitation (Rogers and Ainsworth, 116 2006; Ainsworth and Bush, 2011).

117

In order to elucidate physiological mechanisms underpinning differences in growth rate, this study compared domesticated annual barley (*Hordeum vulgare* cv. NFC Tipple) and a wild perennial relative (*Hordeum bulbosum*). Annual barley is sink

121 limited during grain filling (Schnyder, 1993; Bingham et al., 2007; Serrago et al., 122 2013), yet to our knowledge no study of source- and sink limitation during the 123 vegetative growth stage has been made in this species. The annual barley used here is an elite agricultural spring barley from the HGCA recommended list (HGCA, 124 125 2014) and has a fast-growing life-history strategy. The perennial is a wild species 126 from Turkey, which is able to grow in diverse habitats but generally occupies nutrient-127 rich environments (von Bothmer, 1996). CO₂ treatments were applied at germination 128 and maintained until harvest, which occurred during the vegetative growth phase of 129 the life cycle. We predicted that annual barley, which grows faster than perennial 130 barley, would be sink limited during vegetative growth, and the perennial would be 131 more strongly sink limited (Jaikumar et al., 2014). Based on this hypothesis we would 132 expect the fast-growing annual to show a greater increase in growth and 133 photosynthesis in response to elevated $[CO_2]$ than the perennial (Poorter, 1993; 134 Roumet and Roy, 1996). This is because the elevated [CO₂] alleviates source 135 limitation and will therefore have a greater effect in the plants which are less sink 136 limited (Bryant et al., 1998; Rogers et al., 1998; Ainsworth et al., 2003). In contrast, we expected that the more strongly sink limited, slower-growing perennial would 137 138 show a greater increase in the storage of carbon-rich metabolites under elevated 139 $[CO_2]$

140 MATERIALS AND METHODS

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142 Plant material and growth conditions

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144 Seeds of Hordeum vulgare cv. NFC Tipple and Hordeum bulbosum (Accessions GRA1031 and GRA947) were obtained from Syngenta and IPK Gatersleben 145 respectively. Seeds were germinated on wet filter paper and transplanted to 4-litre 146 147 pots filled with 1:10 sand:vermiculite and topped with an additional layer of sand to 148 aid root development of the seedlings. Plants were grown in controlled environment growth chambers (BDR 16, Conviron, Isleham, UK) at the University of Sheffield, two 149 of which had been modified to scrub CO₂ using soda lime. Plants were grown in three 150 chambers with fixed CO₂ levels of 180 μ mol mol⁻¹, 400 μ mol mol⁻¹ and 1500 μ mol 151 mol⁻¹ for 61 days. 180 and 1500 µmol mol⁻¹ were chosen in order to impose strong 152 carbon source and sink manipulations. All chambers had a 12-hour photoperiod with 153 154 day/night temperatures of 20/18°C, 65% humidity, and daytime light levels of 600 µmol photons m⁻² s⁻¹ at plant height resulting in a daily light integral of 25.92 mols m⁻² 155 day⁻¹. Plants were kept adequately watered with 20% Long Ashton's nutrient solution. 156 During seedling establishment, plants were watered daily - with 150ml Reverse 157 158 Osmosis water for 8 days and with 150ml Long Ashton's solution thereafter. After 17 159 days, plants were watered three times per week with 150ml Long Ashton's solution 160 until 29 days old, 225ml until 45 days old, and 450ml thereafter.

161

Photosynthesis measurements and metabolite harvests were carried out three times in consecutive weeks, between 46 and 61 days after germination (DAG). In each of these harvest weeks, six annuals from each CO₂ level were harvested (three at dawn and three at dusk), giving a total of 54 individuals across three weeks. In the first and third of these harvest weeks, six perennials from each CO_2 level were harvested (three at dawn and three at dusk), giving a total of 36 individuals.

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169 **Relative growth rate, root:shoot ratio and tillering**

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171 RGR was calculated based on the plant mass estimated from weekly imaging of 172 above ground biomass, beginning when plants were two weeks old. Plants were photographed (PowerShot G9, Canon, Tokyo, Japan) six times, from the side against 173 a white background, with the plant rotated 60 degrees between successive 174 photographs. A scale bar of known length was included for calibration. Leaf area in 175 pixels was obtained for each photograph using Image J (U.S. National Institutes of 176 Health, Bethesda, Maryland, USA, http://imagej.nih.gov/ij/), and converted to mm² 177 178 using the area of the scale bar. A batch of 29 additional plants, not used in the main 179 study, was also photographed weekly. At nine time points between 33 and 60 DAG, 180 individuals from this batch were separated into leaf, leaf sheath and root, and oven-181 dried to provide a calibration curve for leaf area and dry mass for each species. 182 These curves were then used to predict dry mass for each plant for each set of six photographs (Fig. S1; $r^2 = 0.97$ for species-based calibration). Individual growth 183 curves showing predicted dry mass over time were obtained for each plant using a 184 185 nonlinear mixed-effects model obtained by stepwise selection and used to estimate 186 RGR at multiple timepoints by differentiation, where more than three timepoints had 187 been measured.

The calibration was also used to predict root:shoot ratio for the plants in the main study. For each of the oven-dried individuals, the relative contribution of shoot and root to whole plant mass was recorded and the mean fraction of root and shoot was calculated. This was then applied to the plant mass predicted for the plants in the main study using calibration of image data, to give an estimate of root:shoot ratio for each individual.

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196 Tillers were counted the day before metabolite harvests were carried out.

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198 **Photosynthesis**

199

200 Diurnal measurements of photosynthesis were made the day before plants were 201 harvested for metabolite assays. 51 annual and 26 perennial individuals were 202 measured (the remaining plants were too small for gas exchange measurements to 203 be performed). Instantaneous net photosynthetic rate was measured every 3.5 hours 204 between 30 minutes after dawn and 30 minutes before dusk, using the LI-6400XT Portable Photosynthesis System (LI-COR Biosciences, Lincoln, NE, USA). Net 205 photosynthetic rate was measured *in situ* within growth chambers, under the ambient 206 207 environmental conditions of each chamber described above. These measurements 208 were used to obtain a curve of photosynthesis during the photoperiod for each plant, 209 and the area underneath was integrated to give a daily rate of net carbon fixation per 210 unit area – i.e. the carbon source activity. This value was multiplied by the projected 211 shoot area to estimate the total daily photosynthesis in the whole shoot - i.e. the 212 carbon source strength.

213

214 **Metabolites**

215

216 Plants were harvested from 47 to 61 DAG, within one hour before dawn and one 217 hour before dusk. Samples were flash frozen in liquid nitrogen, stored at -80 ℃, and 218 freeze-dried prior to analysis. For small plants, the entire plant was harvested; for 219 larger plants, representative samples of leaf, leaf sheath and root from both young 220 and old tissue were harvested. In the first week, plants were harvested at 47, 48 and 221 49 DAG. In the second week, plants were harvested at 52, 53 and 54 DAG. In the third week, plants were harvested at 59, 60 and 61 DAG. Three replicates from each 222 species from one chamber were harvested on each date, with the exception of the 223 second week when only annuals were harvested. The order of chambers was 224 225 randomised in each of the three harvest weeks.

226

227 Metabolite analysis was carried out at Brookhaven National Laboratory. Metabolites 228 were extracted from the freeze-dried ground tissue using sequential ethanol 229 extractions.

Ethanol soluble carbohydrates (glucose, fructose, sucrose, low degree of polymerisation (LDP) fructan) were analysed using a continuous enzymatic substrate assay as described previously (Ainsworth *et al.*, 2007) adapted for measuring sucrose in the presence of LDP fructans (Harrison *et al.*, 1997). All biochemical analysis was conducted in standard 96-well microplates (Microtest Plate 96-Well Flat Bottom, Sarstedt, Nümbrecht, Germany), using a robotic liquid handling system (Evolution P³ Precision Pipetting Platform, Perkin Elmer, Waltham, MA, USA).

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The pellets from the ethanol extraction were heated to 95 ℃ in 0.1M NaOH, to solubilise protein. A commercially available protein assay kit (Pierce BCA protein assay kit, Thermoscientific, Rockford, IL, USA) based on the Lowry method was used to measure protein content (Lowry et al., 1951) using BSA as a standard. Following the protein assay, samples were neutralised with HCI.

243

244 For the starch and high degree of polymerisation (HDP) fructan assay, starch and 245 HDP fructans from 40 µl aliquots of the suspended pellet material were digested using enzymes in 60 µl 0.05M acetate buffer as follows. Starch: 0.17U well⁻¹ 246 amyloglucosidase (EC 3.2.1.3) and 0.1U well⁻¹ α -amylase (EC 3.2.1.1); starch and 247 HDP fructan: 0.1U well⁻¹ exo-inulinase (EC 3.2.1.80), 0.1U well⁻¹ endo-inulinase (EC 248 3.2.1.7), 0.17U well⁻¹ amyloglucosidase and 0.1U well⁻¹ α -amylase. Plates were 249 250 incubated overnight at 37 °C. 40 µl of the supernatant from the overnight digest was transferred to each well of a 96-well microplate. 262µg ATP well⁻¹, 349µg NADP well⁻¹ 251 ¹ and 3.6U well⁻¹ glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase (EC 1.1.1.49, grade II) were 252 253 added in a buffer of 0.1M HEPES/KOH, 3mM MgCl₂, ph7.0 to initiate the reaction. 254 Microplates were centrifuged for 1 minute to remove bubbles then inserted into a plate reader and the NADPH associated with the carbohydrates in the sample was 255 256 measured at A₃₄₀ (ELx808, BioTek, Winooski, VT, USA).

257

Starch and HDP fructans were assayed by sequentially adding 1U enzyme in HEPES buffer to each well as follows, using the rationale for the soluble carbohydrates assay (Ainsworth *et al.*, 2007). Starch: hexokinase (EC 2.7.1.1); starch and HDP fructan: hexokinase, phosphoglucose-isomerase (EC 5.3.1.9). HDP fructan values were obtained by subtracting the starch assay values for starch from the starch and fructan

values for combined starch and fructan. This approach was necessary because preliminary recovery experiments had shown that digesting fructan using exoinulinase and endoinulinase also degraded a small amount of starch, leading to an artificially high value for fructan content which was corrected using the approach described here. Starch and HDP fructan content was measured as nmol hexose equivalents using a standard glucose curve loaded on each plate.

Total free amino acids were quantified using fluorescamine. 15µl 0.1M sodium borate buffer, 90µl fluorescamine and 100µl water were combined with 2µl of ethanol extract in a black 96-well microplate (Nunc MicroWell, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). Following a 5 minute dark incubation, fluorescence (360nm excitation, 460nm emission, 40 nm bandwidth) was measured (Synergy HT, BioTex, Winooski, VT, USA) and converted into nmol amino groups using a standard glutamate curve loaded on each plate.

The Griess reaction was used to quantify free nitrate. First, 0.005U well⁻¹ nitrate 276 277 reductase (EC 1.7.1.3) and 50 nmol NADPH in 0.11M potassium phosphate buffer 278 were added to a 10µl aliquot of the ethanol extract. Each microplate was shaken. 279 Following a 30 minute incubation (dark, room temperature), 20µl 0.25mM phenazine methosulfate was added to each well. Plates were shaken again and incubated for a 280 281 further 20 minutes. 45µl 1% w/v sulfanilamide in 5% phosphoric acid followed by 282 45µl 0.02% N(1-Napthyl)ethylendiamine dihydrochloride was added to each well. Following another shake and a 5 minute incubation, A_{540} was measured (ELx808, 283 284 BioTex, Winooski, VT, USA) and converted into nmol nitrate using a standard nitrate 285 curve loaded on each plate.

286

Metabolite data were expressed per g carbohydrate-corrected dry weight, obtained by subtracting the mass of total non-structural carbohydrate (the sum of glucose, fructose, sucrose, LDP and HDP fructan, and starch) from the dry mass of each sample. Technical and analytical replicates were run for all assays (Fernie *et al.*, 2011).

292

293 Statistical Methods

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Analysis was performed using R (2015). Analysis of variance models incorporating error terms reflecting the split-split plot design of the experiment were carried out for each variable measured. Logarithmic transformations were performed on all data prior to analysis to improve the fit of the models.

299

For photosynthesis, TNC, amino acids and amino acid:sucrose (Figs. 2, 4, 6, 7),
small error bars are present but are obscured by symbols.

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310 **RESULTS**

311

312 Perennial barley shows greater developmental plasticity in response to 313 elevated [CO₂] than the annual species

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315 Relative growth rate (RGR; the efficiency of whole plant dry mass increase obtained from calibration of shoot area, and measured in $g g^{-1} day^{-1}$) was obtained from 316 317 individual growth curves by differentiation, and represents the sink activity of plant 318 growth. RGR was higher in the annual than perennial plants, and greater at higher 319 CO₂ levels (Fig. 1). Stepwise model selection was used to choose fixed effects, and 320 the effects of species and [CO₂] on the maximum plant size and the time to reach half 321 size were each highly significant (p<0.001) – although these are additive effects with no significant interaction between [CO₂] and species. In both species, the increase in 322 RGR was greater between 180 and 400 µmol mol⁻¹ CO₂ than between 400 and 1500 323 324 µmol mol⁻¹ CO₂. Peak RGR in the annual increased by 17.1% between 180 and 400 μ mol mol⁻¹ CO₂, but only 5.0% between 400 and 1500 μ mol mol⁻¹ CO₂. Peak RGR in 325 the perennial increased by 20.5% between 180 and 400 µmol mol⁻¹ CO₂, but only 326 6.0% between 400 and 1500 μ mol mol⁻¹ CO₂. However the difference between 327 annual and perennial remained relatively consistent: peak RGR in the annual was 328 21.1%, 17.7% and 16.7% higher than in the perennial, at 180, 400 and 1500 µmol 329 mol^{-1} CO₂ respectively. 330

331

The modular nature of plant body plans means that, in order for RGR to increase, plants must either increase the biomass of existing organs, or initiate new structures through branching (tillering, in the case of grasses). Tillering in the perennial

increased by 163% between 180 and 1500 μ mol mol⁻¹ CO₂, whereas the number of tillers in the annual increased by just 15% across the same CO₂ range (Table 1). This highly significant species x [CO₂] interaction (F_(1,80) = 56, p<0.001) indicates greater developmental plasticity in the perennial.

339

Root:shoot ratio also showed a larger response to increasing $[CO_2]$ in perennial than annual barley. In the annual, the root:shoot ratio increased by only 2.8% between 180 and 400 µmol mol⁻¹ CO₂, whilst in the perennial it increased 11.6% between 180 and 400 µmol mol⁻¹, and 4.2% between 400 and 1500 µmol mol⁻¹ (Table 1). This highly significant species x $[CO_2]$ interaction ($F_{(1,77)} = 24$, p<0.001) provides further evidence of greater developmental plasticity in the perennial.

346

347 Perennial barley also shows a greater photosynthetic response to elevated 348 [CO₂] than the annual species

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350 Annual barley generally has a higher photosynthetic rate than the perennial, but the photosynthetic rate in the perennial shows a much stronger response to [CO₂] (Fig. 351 352 2B). In the annual plants, the daily photosynthetic rate increased by 87% between 353 180 and 400 μ mol mol⁻¹ CO₂, but only by 13% between 400 and 1500 μ mol mol⁻¹. In contrast, in the perennial it increased 58% between 180 and 400 µmol mol⁻¹, but 75% 354 between 400 and 1500 μ mol mol⁻¹. This led to a significant species x [CO₂] 355 interaction: $F_{(1,67)} = 4.9$, p<0.05; Fig. 2B. Because the annual is a larger plant than 356 357 the perennial, the difference in whole shoot photosynthetic rate, i.e. carbon source 358 strength (Fig. 2C) is greater than the difference in the rate per unit area, i.e. carbon 359 source activity (Fig. 2B). In the annual, the whole shoot daily photosynthetic rate increased by 177% between 180 and 400 μ mol mol⁻¹ CO₂, but only 25% between 400 and 1500 μ mol mol⁻¹. In contrast, in the perennial it increased 528% between 180 and 400 μ mol mol⁻¹, and 123% between 400 and 1500 μ mol mol⁻¹. There was a highly significant species x [CO₂] interaction: F_(1,66) = 18, p<0.001; Fig. 2C.

364

The ratio of photosynthesis to growth is higher in the annual than the perennial (Fig. 365 3), seen in the plots of individuals (Fig. 3A,B) and means (Fig. 3C,D) with a highly 366 significant effect of species: $F_{(1.61)} = 25$, p<0.001. When expressed in g C g⁻¹ day⁻¹ 367 (Fig. 3A), growth shows three clusters corresponding to the decreasing values of 368 RGR as time progresses over the three harvests. When expressed in g C plant⁻¹ 369 day⁻¹ (Fig. 3B), these clusters are no longer present, and a positive correlation 370 between photosynthesis and growth is seen. The ratio increases with [CO₂] (Fig. 3C) 371 372 and with plant age at harvest (Fig. 3D). There was a highly significant interaction of 373 the harvest week x [CO₂] ($F_{(4,61)} = 16$, p<0.001), such that the photosynthesis:growth 374 ratio is greater at higher [CO₂], but this trend becomes less pronounced at later 375 harvests.

376

Annual barley accumulates more non-structural carbohydrates than the perennial species

379

Pre-dawn measurements indicate the basal level of carbohydrates in plant organs, when metabolites accumulated during the previous photoperiod have been utilised for respiration, exported or consumed by growth at night. Before dawn, annual barley had a higher concentration of total non-structural carbohydrates (TNC, the sum of glucose, fructose, sucrose, fructan and starch) than the perennial, and showed a

greater accumulation of TNC in leaf sheaths and roots when [CO₂] was increased 385 from 180 to 1500 µmol mol⁻¹ (Fig. 4). However, in the leaves, perennial barley 386 387 showed a stronger TNC response than the annual when [CO₂] was increased from 180 to 1500 µmol mol⁻¹ (Fig. 4). Across all TNC data, there was a significant organ 388 389 type x time of day x species interaction ($F_{(2,120)} = 9.2$, p<0.001); a significant organ 390 type x time of day x [CO₂] interaction ($F_{(4,120)} = 18$, p<0.001); a significant organ x 391 species x [CO₂] interaction ($F_{(4,120)} = 22$, p<0.001); and a significant organ x harvest 392 week x $[CO_2]$ interaction ($F_{(8,120)} = 4.5$, p<0.001). In the leaf, TNC was 114% greater in the annual than the perennial at 180 μ mol mol⁻¹ CO₂, 57% greater in the annual at 393 400 µmol mol⁻¹ CO₂, but approximately equal at 1500 µmol mol⁻¹ CO₂ (Fig. 4A). In 394 the leaf sheath, TNC was 29% greater in the annual than the perennial at 180 µmol 395 mol⁻¹ CO₂, 57% greater in the annual at 400 µmol mol⁻¹ CO₂, and 25% greater in the 396 annual at 1500 μ mol mol⁻¹ CO₂ (Fig. 4B). In the root, TNC was 35% greater in the 397 annual than the perennial at 180 μ mol mol⁻¹ CO₂, 56% greater in the annual at 400 398 μ mol mol⁻¹ CO₂, and 97% greater in the annual at 1500 μ mol mol⁻¹ CO₂ (Fig. 4C). In 399 both species, TNC concentration is highest at 1500 µmol mol⁻¹ CO₂ suggesting that 400 401 sinks are replete under these conditions.

402

Subtracting the mean pre-dawn values from the mean pre-dusk values provides a differential of TNC (Fig. 5), which represents the amount of carbon accumulated during the photoperiod, and is equivalent to the amount of carbon available for respiration, export or growth at night. These differentials are much greater in the leaf than in leaf sheath or root (Fig. 5), since diurnal fluctuations in leaves are more tightly coupled to the diurnal activity of photosynthesis than the distal sinks of leaf sheath and root. The perennial shows a greater TNC differential than the annual in leaves at 410 400 and 1500 μ mol mol⁻¹ CO₂, yet there is little difference in TNC differentials in leaf 411 sheath and root, across the CO₂ concentrations (Fig. 5). Therefore, whilst the basal 412 pre-dawn level of TNC is higher in annuals (Fig. 4), the diurnal accumulation of TNC 413 is greater in perennials for leaves at 400 and 1500 μ mol mol⁻¹ CO₂ (Fig. 5).

414

415 Perennial barley accumulates more free amino acids than the annual species416

417 Free amino acids are an indicator of source limitation (Paul and Driscoll, 1997; Stitt 418 and Krapp, 1999; Isopp et al., 2000). A high free amino acid concentration or high 419 amino acid:sucrose ratio reflects a surplus of available nitrogen for biosynthesis, 420 since source limited plants lack sufficient carbon to use along with this nitrogen for 421 growth and development. The perennial has a higher concentration of free amino 422 acids than the annual (Fig. 6). In both annual and perennial, free amino acid concentration is highest at 180 µmol mol⁻¹ CO₂, which implies a carbon source 423 424 limitation, and decreases as [CO₂] increases (Fig. 6). Before dawn, amino acid 425 concentration is 41% greater in the perennial than the annual at 180 μ mol mol⁻¹ CO₂, 127% greater in the perennial at 400 µmol mol⁻¹ CO₂, and 12% greater in the 426 perennial at 1500 µmol mol⁻¹ CO₂ (Fig. 6A). Before dusk, amino acid concentration is 427 67% greater in the perennial than the annual at 180 µmol mol⁻¹ CO₂, 47% greater in 428 the perennial at 400 µmol mol⁻¹ CO₂, and 64% greater in the perennial at 1500 µmol 429 $mol^{-1} CO_2$ (Fig. 6B). 430

431

There was a highly significant organ x species x $[CO_2]$ interaction for free amino acid concentration: $F_{(4,117)} = 9.3$, p<0.001. A similar trend for the two species and three CO₂ levels is seen for free nitrate (data shown in summary form in Fig. 8) and there

435 was also a significant organ x species x $[CO_2]$ interaction for these data: $F_{(4,116)} = 6.9$, 436 p<0.001. The perennial also has a higher free amino acid:sucrose ratio than the 437 annual (Fig. 7), indicative of carbon source limitation. This ratio is higher pre-dawn 438 since sucrose accumulates during the day, and decreases with $[CO_2]$; for leaves, 439 there is a significant species x $[CO_2]$ x time of day interaction: $F_{(1,70)} = 13$, p<0.001.

440

441 Metabolite data reveal source limitation in the perennial and sink limitation in 442 the annual

443

Figure 8 synthesises the metabolite data, expressed as ratios relative to 400 µmol 444 mol⁻¹ CO₂, in each compartment (leaf, sheath and root), for each species and time of 445 day. In general, the amount of each non-structural carbohydrate was lower at 180 446 μ mol mol⁻¹ and higher at 1500 μ mol mol⁻¹, compared to 400 μ mol mol⁻¹ CO₂ (Fig. 8), 447 448 with short- and long-chain fructans representing the major stores for carbon at 449 elevated CO₂ (Fig. 8). In contrast, free nitrate, free amino acid and protein levels 450 tended to show the opposite trend (especially for the annual, Fig. 8A,B). At 400 µmol 451 mol⁻¹, growth in the annual shows strong evidence of sink limitation, shown by a high 452 rate of photosynthesis (Fig. 2), high TNC accumulation (Fig. 4) and low amino acid 453 concentration and amino acid:sucrose ratio - indicating that sufficient carbon skeletons are available for utilising available amino acids (Fig. 6, 7). At 180 µmol 454 mol⁻¹ CO₂, growth becomes more source limited, with lower carbohydrate and higher 455 nitrate and amino acid concentrations compared to 400 µmol mol⁻¹ (Figs. 4, 6, 8A,B), 456 whilst at 1500 µmol mol⁻¹ CO₂, growth becomes more sink limited, with higher 457 458 carbohydrate and lower nitrate and lower amino acid concentrations (Figs. 4, 6, 8A,B). This trend is seen at both times of day, but is most pronounced before dawn 459

(Figs. 8A,B), since carbon skeletons and reductants from photosynthesis are required to incorporate free nitrate into amino acids and to assimilate amino acids into proteins. As a result, the levels of these metabolites decrease during the day as carbohydrates build up. Although this trend is seen in all organ types, it is most pronounced in leaves, where photosynthesis is strongly coupled to changes in carbon and nitrogen metabolism.

466

In contrast to the annual, at 400 µmol mol⁻¹ the perennial shows strong evidence of 467 source limitation, having a lower rate of photosynthesis than the annual (Fig. 2), low 468 TNC accumulation (Fig. 4) and high amino acid concentrations and amino 469 acid:sucrose ratio (Figs. 6, 7). At 180 µmol mol⁻¹ CO₂, the perennial remains source 470 471 limited, so levels of free nitrate and amino acids generally do not increase relative to 400 µmol mol⁻¹ (Fig. 8C,D). Just as the perennial shows a greater response of 472 473 tillering and root allocation (Table 1) and photosynthesis (Fig. 2B) than the annual between 400 and 1500 μ mol mol⁻¹ CO₂, as this alleviates source limitation, it also 474 475 shows a more dramatic decrease in free amino acids and amino acid:sucrose (Figs. 6, 7) as it is better able than the annual to pair additional sugars from photosynthesis 476 477 with existing free amino acids to bring about a growth response. However at 1500 478 µmol mol⁻¹, growth in the perennial transitions to become sink limited, and the plants 479 have a high carbohydrate content, and low nitrate and low amino acid concentrations 480 (Figs. 4, 6, 8A,B). Thus the treatments imposed are sufficiently strong that even the 481 annual becomes more source limited at low [CO₂], and even the perennial becomes 482 more sink limited at elevated [CO₂].

483

485 **DISCUSSION**

486

487 Developmental plasticity in the perennial enables extra CO₂ to be utilised in 488 growth, suggesting source limitation

489

490 Increasing [CO₂] increases the availability of photosynthetic substrate and 491 suppresses photorespiration (Farquhar et al., 1980). This increases the potential 492 rate of carbon uptake into the plant, increasing source strength, alleviating source 493 limitation, and increasing the source:sink ratio. Conversely, decreasing [CO₂] has the 494 opposite effects. The stronger photosynthetic, tillering and root partitioning responses 495 of perennial than annual barley to increasing [CO₂] (Table 1; Fig. 2) suggest that the 496 source is more limiting for growth than the sink in this species during the vegetative 497 stage. This response is not seen to such a great extent in the annual, suggesting that 498 its growth is primarily sink limited and constrained by developmental potential; as a 499 consequence the annual is operating at near-maximum source activity under current ambient conditions (400 μ mol mol⁻¹ CO₂). The ratio of photosynthesis to growth is 500 501 higher in annual barley (Fig. 3), a further indication of sink limitation, and increases at 502 higher [CO₂] and as plants become older and leave the exponential phase of growth. 503 Furthermore, the developmental plasticity seen in the perennial, via its ability to 504 increase tillering and root partitioning in response to greater carbon source strength, 505 suggests that it is better able than the domesticated annual crop to adapt to 506 fluctuating environmental conditions. In general, selective breeding of crops has 507 resulted in plants with fewer tillers because, although additional non-flowering tillers 508 provide a selective advantage through competition in wild plants, they reduce the 509 yield of crop stands by diverting resources away from flowering tillers. To an extent,

510 domesticated barley has retained its tillering capacity (Doust, 2007; Sang, 2009). 511 However, under experimental conditions, the perennial barley was far readier to 512 increase tillering in response to increased [CO₂] than the annual crop.

513

514 Altering the root:shoot ratio enables plants to increase access to the most limiting 515 resources by adjusting allocation to nitrogen- or carbon-acquiring tissues (Stitt and 516 Krapp, 1999; Freschet et al., 2015). Under elevated [CO₂], nitrogen becomes more 517 limiting for growth, making an increase in root:shoot ratio advantageous. The 518 perennial was better able to make this plastic adjustment to growth (Table 1). 519 However, its greater relative increase in allocation to roots (Table 1) would have also 520 tended to offset its growth response, since roots are heterotrophic and root 521 respiration represents a significant carbon sink. This greater allocation to a 522 respiratory carbon sink may explain why the perennial still showed a similar increase 523 in RGR to the annual at higher CO_2 levels (Fig. 1). In combination, these results 524 suggest that the combined response of sink strength (growth and respiration) to 525 [CO₂] was stronger in the perennial than annual. Increasing root allocation enabled the perennial to take up more nitrogen, further increasing its ability to match carbon 526 527 skeletons with amino acids for growth.

528

⁵²⁹ Our findings suggest a more opportunistic growth strategy in the perennial than ⁵³⁰ annual, whereby the use of additional resources is maximised via partitioning into ⁵³¹ more branches above ground and roots below ground. In contrast, the annual ⁵³² appears to be highly constrained in its ability to develop larger sinks at 400 μ mol mol⁻ ⁵³³ ¹ CO₂ (Table 1; Fig. 2), and unable to increase these to the same extent as the ⁵³⁴ perennial. It thus seems that the strategy of the annual is for maximal growth under

535 current $[CO_2]$ – and as a result it is sink limited. The annual has been subjected to 536 intense selective breeding that has maximised growth under current ambient CO_2 537 conditions, but suppressed its developmental plasticity, and growth during the 538 vegetative phase is largely unresponsive to increased $[CO_2]$.

539

540 The annual accumulates carbohydrates whilst having low amino acids, 541 suggesting carbon sink limitation

542

The metabolite data reinforce the pattern of source limitation in the perennial and 543 544 sink limitation in the annual seen in the growth and photosynthesis data. The annual has higher TNC concentration, and lower amino acid concentration and amino 545 546 acid:sucrose ratio than the perennial, indicating an excess of carbon that cannot be 547 invested in growth (Figs. 4, 6, 7, 8). Although many studies into the relationship 548 between amino acid accumulation and carbon source limitation have focused on a 549 single species (Paul and Driscoll, 1997; Isopp et al., 2000), the use of the amino 550 acid:sucrose ratio, which is a more robust measurement, confirms the trend seen for 551 free amino acids, and is one of several lines of evidence pointing towards greater 552 carbon source limitation in the perennial. The lower basal level of TNC in the 553 perennial (Fig. 4) suggests that this species is highly efficient at utilising the carbon 554 acquired each day – by developing new sinks or enlarging existing ones, seen in the 555 strong tillering response to elevated [CO₂] (Table 1), or by increasing TNC storage in 556 the leaf sheath (Fig. 4). Developing new sinks such as tillers increases sink size, 557 whilst increasing storage in existing sink organs increases sink activity; both enable 558 the plant to upregulate its sink capacity (Geiger and Shieh, 1993; White et al., 2016). 559 The high rate of tillering and root allocation in the perennial translates to a higher sink capacity and high demand for photosynthate which could explain the high accumulation of carbohydrates in these organs. As a consequence, the large quantity of leaf carbohydrates accumulated during the day are likely to be exported to developing tillers or other sinks, in addition to the carbon sink of maintenance respiration at night; in future work the use of isotopic CO_2 in a series of staged harvests could enable diurnal carbon utilisation to be tracked (e.g. Ferrieri *et al.*, 2013).

567

Both species are carbon sink limited at elevated [CO₂]; leaf sucrose is a key driver of 568 569 phloem loading for photosynthate export (Ainsworth and Bush, 2011), yet the 570 increase in TNC at elevated [CO₂] seen here is primarily driven by increases in 571 storage carbohydrates (fructans and starch, Fig. 8) and not transport carbohydrates 572 (sucrose). This provides evidence that the carbohydrate accumulation at elevated 573 [CO₂] arises from sink limitation rather than reflecting the increased phloem loading 574 of recent photosynthate. Indeed, the increased accumulation of carbohydrates will 575 feed back on phloem transport throughout the plant and phloem loading in the leaf (Ainsworth and Bush, 2011), and high foliar TNC concentration is thus an indicator of 576 577 sink limitation in both species. The fact that TNC does not accumulate in roots of the 578 perennial under elevated CO₂ suggests that carbon transport may be more limiting in 579 this species.

580

It is interesting to note that the negative correlation between starch and biomass observed in a range of accessions of *Arabidopsis* (Sulpice *et al.*, 2009) is not borne out by the data of this study – rather, the fast-growing annual species has a higher rate of carbohydrate accumulation despite having greater biomass. However, the

physiology and metabolism of *Arabidopsis* do not always map onto those of crop plants (White *et al.*, 2016), for example the relationship between protein and starch found by Sulpice *et al.* (2009) was uncoupled in these data. Growth in plants with different life forms and life histories may be subject to different constraints; in slow growing *Arabidopsis* accessions, growth is slow because it is sink limited, whereas in perennial barley, growth is slower than the annual because it is source limited and therefore uncorrelated with carbohydrate content.

592

593 Ecological strategies and intrinsic limits to growth

594

The typical growth strategy of wild annual plants can be caricatured as 'live fast, die 595 596 young', leading to the expectation of a growth strategy that is primarily source limited 597 during the lifetime of the plant, and that enables the annual to maximise the use of 598 available CO₂ for growth. We therefore expected the annual to be less sink limited 599 than the perennial during vegetative growth, especially since it is adapted for 600 fertilised soils. In contrast, we expected the perennial to have a more conservative growth habit, 'live slow, live long', which limits photosynthesis and growth but is 601 opportunistic, being better adapted for the possibility of low nutrients in a variable 602 603 environment yet able to capitalise on rising [CO₂] by increasing storage when 604 substrates are available. Although plants are typically sink limited during the 605 vegetative stage and transition to source limitation at reproduction (Arp, 1991), many crops are co-limited by sinks and sources during grain-filling (Álvaro et al., 2008; 606 607 Acreche and Slafer, 2009; Peterhansel and Offermann, 2012; Slewinski, 2012). We 608 anticipated that during the vegetative stage, the 'live slow' perennial would be more

sink limited than the 'live fast' annual (Jaikumar *et al.*, 2014). The results confounded
these expectations.

611

612 The perennial adopts more of a 'live fast' strategy than anticipated; perennials 613 generally store carbon for future use (Atkinson et al., 2012), yet here the perennial 614 showed a dramatic increase in growth under elevated [CO₂] rather than an increase 615 in storage, indicating source limitation. Coming from a fluctuating natural 616 environment, and being able to grow in a variety of habitats including roadsides, ditches and rich grassy meadows and at varying altitudes (von Bothmer, 1996), this 617 618 species has the plasticity to maximise growth when CO₂ is abundant. However, a 619 perennial confined to unproductive habitats might be expected to display slower 620 growth and greater sink limitation.

621

622 Although the perennial displays a greater response to [CO₂] for photosynthetic rate 623 per unit leaf area and leaf TNC concentration, even the maximal values at 1500 µmol 624 mol⁻¹ CO₂ never exceed those of the annual, implying intrinsic physiological or developmental limits that are common to both species. The annual is unable to 625 utilise more photosynthate than it acquires at 400 µmol mol⁻¹ CO₂ by increasing 626 627 partitioning to tillers and roots; the perennial has greater developmental flexibility and 628 is able to utilise the additional photosynthate acquired at the highest CO₂ 629 concentration, but never exceeds the maximum rates of growth and photosynthesis 630 seen in the annual (Figs. 1, 2).

631

The developmental plasticity of the annual species appears to have been alteredthrough selective breeding such that it cannot adapt to live faster when conditions

allow, and the results of this study show that it is sink limited during vegetative growth even under elevated $[CO_2]$, in addition to being sink limited during reproduction (Schnyder, 1993; Bingham *et al.*, 2007; Serrago *et al.*, 2013). It thus seems that the sink strength of barley will limit yield of this important crop in the current global context of rising atmospheric $[CO_2]$, and a concerted effort to increase sink strength would be a vital part of breeding programmes in order to increase yield.

640

641 **CONCLUSIONS**

642

643 Contrary to expectations these results indicate that annual barley is more sink limited 644 and perennial barley is more source limited during the vegetative growth stage. Our findings show that annual barley germplasm is optimised for growth at current [CO₂] 645 646 and that future elevated [CO₂] may be unlikely to facilitate yield increases in this 647 species; the lack of developmental plasticity in the annual means that new sinks are 648 not readily initiated, which could result in a critical lack of flexibility for developing 649 additional grain sinks and thus increasing yield under elevated [CO₂]. The holistic 650 approach taken here enables a broad view of source-sink balance to be taken, 651 encompassing measurements of resource acquisition, storage, allocation to growth, 652 and plant development, in a model system of congeneric species. In order to draw 653 firm conclusions of agricultural relevance, it will be vital to extend such research: 654 including nitrogen as well as carbon source-sink manipulations, following source-sink 655 processes throughout crop development to their impact on yield; investigating these processes in a wider range of cereal varieties and wild species; and carrying out 656 657 agronomically relevant experiments in the field.

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FIGURES & TABLES

Figure 1. Relative growth rate is higher in annual (solid line) than perennial (dashed line) barley, and greater at higher $[CO_2]$. Relative growth rate (RGR) is daily gain in dry mass relative to whole plant dry mass, g g⁻¹ day⁻¹. A, elevated $[CO_2]$: 1500 µmol mol⁻¹; B, current $[CO_2]$: 400 µmol mol⁻¹; C, sub-ambient $[CO_2]$: 180 µmol mol⁻¹.











Table 1. Responses of tillering and root:shoot ratio to increasing [CO₂]. Annual barley shows very limited tillering and root:shoot ratio responses to increasing CO₂ concentration, whilst the perennial shows a dramatic increase in tillering and a significant increase in root:shoot ratio. Data shown are obtained from 54 annual and 36 perennial individuals across the three treatments. Tillers were counted directly, whilst root:shoot ratio was estimated non-destructively using imaging. Means and their associated standard errors (S.E.) are reported to three significant figures (annual n=18, perennial n=12).

[_		
	Annual, 180	Annual,	Annual,	Perennial,	Perennial,	Perennial,
	µmol mol⁻¹	400 µmol	1500 µmol	180 µmol	400 µmol	1500 µmol
	CO2	mol ⁻¹ CO ₂	mol ⁻¹ CO₂			
Tillers (mean)	13.3	13.4	15.3	12.4	17.4	32.6
Tillers (S.E.)	0.753	0.506	0.676	1.275	1.341	2.464
				_	_	_
Root:Shoot	0.529	0.544	0.547	0.466	0.520	0.542
Ratio (mean)						
Root:Shoot	0.00321	0.00190	0.00187	0.0174	0.00768	0.00309
Ratio (S.E.)						

Figure 2. Perennial barley (dashed line) has a more pronounced photosynthetic response to elevated [CO₂] than annual barley (solid line). A, diurnal timecourse of net leaf photosynthesis in annuals and perennials grown at 400 μ mol mol⁻¹ CO₂. B, daily rate of net leaf photosynthesis per unit area obtained from integrating curves (e.g. A); C, total daily photosynthesis in the whole shoot, obtained by multiplying the daily rate (B) by projected shoot area. Data show mean ± SE (A: annual n=18, perennial n=9; B: at 180, 400, 1500 µmol mol⁻¹ CO₂, annual n=15, 18, 18, perennial n=5, 9, 12; C: at 180, 400, 1500 µmol mol⁻¹ CO₂, annual n=15, 18, 18, perennial n=4, 9, 12).







895 Figure 3. The ratio of photosynthesis to growth is higher in annual than perennial 896 barley and greater at higher [CO₂] and in older plants. A, source activity vs sink 897 activity, plotted as photosynthesis and growth for individual plants at all times and CO_2 levels, expressed in g C g⁻¹ day⁻¹, showing three clusters along the x-axis 898 899 corresponding to the three harvest times with RGR decreasing as time progresses; B, source strength vs sink strength, plotted as photosynthesis and growth for 900 individual plants at all times and CO2 levels expressed in g C plant⁻¹ day⁻¹; C, 901 902 photosynthesis:growth ratio in the three [CO₂] treatments; D, changes in the 903 photosynthesis:growth ratio with respect to the mean plant age at harvest. Data show mean ± SE (C and D: at 180, 400, 1500 µmol mol⁻¹ CO₂, annual n=15, 18, 18, 904 905 perennial n=4, 9, 12).

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Figure 4. Pre-dawn concentrations of total non-structural carbohydrates (TNC) are higher in the annual (solid line) than perennial (dashed line) barley. A, leaf; B, leaf sheath; C, root. The overall CO₂ response is greater for perennials in the leaf, but greater for annuals in the leaf sheath and root. Data are expressed in μ mol glucose equivalents per g carbohydrate-corrected dry weight (CCDW). Data show mean ± SE (annual n=9, perennial n=6).

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Figure 5. The diurnal accumulation of total non-structural carbohydrates (TNC), equivalent to the carbon pool available for nocturnal use or export in the leaf, leaf sheath and root, in annual barley (solid line) and perennial barley (dashed line). Data show the mean pre-dawn concentrations subtracted from mean pre-dusk concentrations, expressed in µmol glucose equivalents per g carbohydrate-corrected dry weight (CCDW). Different plants were harvested at dawn and dusk, so standard errors cannot be calculated for these data (raw data presented in Table S1).

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944	Figure 6. Free amino acid concentration is higher in perennial barley (dashed line)
945	than annual barley (solid line). A, pre-dawn; B, pre-dusk. Data are expressed in
946	μmol amino groups per g carbohydrate-corrected dry weight (CCDW). Data show
947	mean ± SE (annual n=9, perennial n=6).
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Figure 7. Ratio of free amino acids to free sucrose is higher in perennial barley (dashed line) than annual barley (solid line) at 180 and 400 μ mol mol⁻¹ CO₂ in leaves pre-dawn. This is an indicator of carbon source limitation. Metabolites are expressed in μ mol amino groups and μ mol sucrose per g carbohydrate-corrected dry weight (CCDW), respectively. The ratio is lower at higher [CO₂]. Data show mean ± SE (annual n=9, perennial n=6).

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975 Figure 8. Carbon- and nitrogen-based metabolites in annual and perennial barley at pre-dawn and pre-dusk harvests. Data are ratios of metabolite concentrations in leaf, 976 leaf sheath and root of annual and perennial barley at 180 relative to 400 µmol mol⁻¹ 977 CO₂, and 1500 relative to 400 µmol mol⁻¹ CO₂. Blue denotes a decrease and 978 orange/red an increase compared to 400 µmol mol⁻¹, according to the colour scale on 979 the left; a ratio of 1 signifies no change. Low and high DP refer to the degree of 980 981 polymerisation in short- and long-chain fructans respectively. A, Annual pre-dawn; B, 982 Annual pre-dusk; C, Perennial pre-dawn; D, Perennial pre-dusk. Exceptionally high ratios, indicated by asterisks, are as follows: annual pre-dawn (A) at 180 µmol mol⁻¹ 983 CO_2 , nitrate in leaf is 6.5x concentration at 400 µmol mol⁻¹, nitrate in leaf sheath is 984 7.7x concentration at 400 μ mol mol⁻¹ and nitrate in root is 5.5x concentration at 400 985 µmol mol⁻¹; perennial pre-dawn (C), in leaf at 1500 µmol mol⁻¹ CO₂, low DP fructan is 986 23.4x concentration at 400 $\mu mol\ mol^{-1}$ and high DP fructan is 6.3x concentration at 987 400 µmol mol⁻¹; perennial pre-dusk (D), in leaf at 1500 µmol mol⁻¹ CO₂, low DP 988 fructan is 4.8x concentration at 400 µmol mol⁻¹. 989

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Sucrose

Starch

Protein