Increased Nitrogen Fixation and Remobilization May Contribute to Higher Seed Protein

Content Without a Yield Penalty in a Soybean Introgression Line

Anna M. Locke* and Martha E. Ramirez

A.M. Locke, USDA-ARS, Soybean & Nitrogen Fixation Research Unit, 101 Ligon St., 4112

Williams Hall, Raleigh, NC 27695-7620, and Department of Crop and Soil Sciences, North

Carolina State University, Raleigh, NC 27695-7620; M.E. Ramirez, USDA-ARS, Soybean &

Nitrogen Fixation Research Unit, 101 Ligon St., 4112 Williams Hall, Raleigh, NC 27695-7620.

*Corresponding author (Anna.Locke@ars.usda.gov); ORCID: 0000-0002-4254-4466

ABBREVIATIONS: DAT, days after transplanting; DAP, days after planting; LAI, leaf area

index

ABSTRACT

The development of soybean varieties with higher seed protein content has been hindered by a

negative correlation between protein content and yield. Benning hi-pro, a genotype that breaks

this tradeoff, was recently developed by introgression of a high protein allele on chromosome 20

into a high yielding parent. Because seed protein is thought to be limited by N, field and growth

chamber experiments were performed to identify the N flux(es) that enable Benning hi-pro's

increased seed protein without a yield penalty. When the N source was completely controlled in

growth chambers, Benning hi-pro was occasionally able to fix more N than its recurrent parent,

but this response depended on the strain of the rhizobia symbiont and was not observed at all

developmental stages. In the field, Benning hi-pro remobilized N from its leaves at a higher rate

relative to C during seed fill, but this response was only observed in one of the two years studied.

The high protein allele and surrounding region of chromosome 20 present in Benning hi-pro

increases its potential for N fixation and N remobilization from vegetative tissue, but those

phenotypes are not consistently expressed and may depend on environmental and sink control.

INTRODUCTION

A substantial portion of the value in soybean [*Glycine max* (L.) Merr.] seed is derived from its meal protein, which is an important source of nutrition for poultry and livestock worldwide. Soybean seed protein content ranges from 35% to over 50% among genotypes (Hwang et al. 2014, Zhang et al 2018). However, the negative correlation between seed protein and yield is a major hurdle in exploiting this phenotypic diversity to breed agronomically elite, high protein soybean varieties (Brzostowski et al., 2017). While yield has steadily increased, seed protein concentration has decreased with year of variety release (Morrison et al., 2000; Mahmoud et al., 2006). It has been hypothesized that the persistence of greenness, which prolongs CO_2 assimilation during seed fill—increasing yield—has reduced the N available for remobilization from vegetative tissue (Kumudini et al., 2002).

N is primarily transported into the seed coat in the form of ureides and from seed coat to developing seed as glutamine and asparagine (Rainbird et al., 1984b), and energy must be expended in the seed for the synthesis of storage proteins. *In vitro* studies of soybean seed development have found that seed protein accumulation is determined by the supply of N into the seed (Saravitz and Raper, 1995; Pipolo et al., 2004). Similarly, in *Brassica napus* and *Brassica carinata*, final seed protein concentration correlated positively with total amino acid content in leaf phloem sap (Lohaus and Moellers, 2000). When the soybean supply/sink ratio was altered by removing pods, seeds accumulated significantly more protein (as % of seed weight) when the assimilate supply per seed was increased (Rotundo et al., 2011).

Three N fluxes could potentially contribute to developing seeds: uptake from the soil, biological N fixation, and remobilization from vegetative tissue. The relative contribution of these components to seed N is highly variable among genotypes and environmental conditions. It

has been hypothesized that the large N demand in developing soybean seeds requires substantial

N remobilization from vegetative tissue, triggering leaf senescence and limiting the seed fill

period (Sinclair and de Wit, 1975, 1976). Other studies have found the proportion of seed N from

remobilization to be anywhere from 30% to 100%, depending on genotype (Zeiher et al., 1982).

Additionally, it has been shown that up to 90% of seed N may be supplied by N fixation, and that

N fixation continues through most of the seed fill period (Leffel et al., 1992; Mastrodomenico et

al., 2013). A study with three high protein and three average protein soybean genotypes found no

correlation between redistributed N from vegetative tissue and total N in mature seeds (Egli and

Bruening, 2007). Discrepancies in the estimated contribution of remobilization to seed N may

be partly linked to genetic improvement of soybean during the 20th century: when varieties

released in the 1930's were compared with varieties released in the 80's and 90's, the genotypes

remobilized the same amount of N from vegetative tissue, but the newer genotypes were able to

accumulate significantly more N during the seed fill period than the older genotypes (Kumudini

et al., 2002).

A genome-wide association study identified 17 loci on 10 chromosomes that are

significantly associated with seed protein content (Hwang et al., 2014). At one of the loci

identified in that study, on chromosome 20, an single nucleotide replacement resulted in mean

protein increase from 41.46% to 44.32%. In a genome-wide analysis including 934 accessions

from MG IV-VI, this high protein locus was refined to a 1 Mbp region (Vaughn et al., 2014), but

the specific gene(s) that determine this trait have yet to be resolved. A high protein locus in this

region of chromosome 20 (hereafter called Gm20) has also been identified in genotypes of *G.*

max and *Glycine soja* (Diers et al., 1992; Warrington et al., 2015). One of these analyses was

performed in a RIL population derived from a cross between Benning, a high-yielding maturity

group (MG) VII cultivar with moderate seed protein (Boerma et al., 1997), and Danbaekkong

(Kim et al., 1996), a lower-yielding MG V variety with very high seed protein. This locus

explained 55% of the variation in seed protein within the bi-parental population (Warrington et

al., 2015). From this population, the Danbaekkong Gm20 locus was introgressed into Benning to

create a Benning hi-pro genotype with ca. 3% increase in seed protein over Benning, similar

agronomic traits, and no yield penalty (Prenger, 2018). While the Gm20 locus is linked to seed

protein, complex epistasis limits its ability to break through the protein-yield tradeoff in most

genetic backgrounds (Brzostowski et al., 2017).

This study aimed to identify differences in N metabolism that contribute to higher seed

protein without a yield loss in Benning hi-pro, which possesses the Danbaekkong Gm20 locus,

compared to its recurrent parent Benning. N uptake and fixation were measured in growth

chamber experiments, while N remobilization from aboveground vegetative tissue was evaluated

in field experiments.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Field experiment

Seeds were sown on 26 May 2016 and 30 June 2017 at Central Crops Research Station in

Clayton, NC. Soybeans at this research station were planted in a three-year rotation with corn

and cotton. In 2016 the experiment was planted in a Norfolk loamy sand, and in 2017 the

experiment was planted in a field with variable Appling sandy loam and eroded Cecil sandy clay

loam. Plots were arranged in a randomized complete block design with four replicates of each

genotype and 38" row spacing. In 2016, plots were 3 rows wide and 12' long; in 2017, plot size

was increased to 6 rows wide and 18' long to facilitate destructive aboveground biomass and leaf

area measurements.

Chamber experiment 1

Seeds of soybean genotypes Benning, Benning hi-pro, Danbaekkong, and NC-Raleigh (Burton et

al., 2006) were surface sterilized with 95% ethanol and 1% NaOCl (Somasegaran and Hoben,

1985) and incubated in rolled, moistened paper towels at 29°C for two days to germinate.

Seedlings were transplanted into 0.5 L pots filled with vermiculite. Three seedlings were

transplanted per pot and thinned to one plant per pot a week after transplanting. Plants were

grown at 26°C day/22°C night with a 9 h photoperiod and a 3 h incandescent night interruption

for the first 35 days to suppress flowering. Cotyledons were removed at 8 days after

transplanting (DAT) to increase reliance on the N treatments.

Plants were assigned to one of four groups: (1) NH_4NO_3 in nutrient solution, (2)

inoculation with *Bradyrhizobium diazoefficiens* strain USDA 110 [formerly classified as

Bradyrhizobium japonicum (Delamuta et al., 2013)], (3) inoculation with *Bradyrhizobium elkanii*

strain USDA 31, or (4) no N fertilizer or inoculation. These N-free plants were included to

monitor for potential *Bradyrhizobium* contamination in the growth chamber or substrate, and

they were harvested to measure N derived from cotyledons prior to their removal at 8 DAT. All

plants were fed a modified 50% Long-Ashton nutrient solution (Hewitt, 1966). Inoculated plants

and N-free plants received nutrient solution without a N source, and the remaining treatment

received the nutrient solution containing 7 mM NH_4NO_3. Inoculations were conducted

immediately after transplanting, by adding 1 ml of a culture containing around 10^8 CFU ml^{-1} of

B. diazoefficiens USDA 110 or *B. elkanii* USDA 31. For the first 4 DAT, each pot received 20 –

30 ml of deionized water. Beginning at 5 DAT, each pot received 50 ml of water daily, and this

was followed by 50 ml of nutrient solution every other day. At 26 DAT, water and nutrient

solution were both increased to 80 ml daily.

Plants were harvested 45 DAT. Organs were separated into shoots, roots and nodules and

dried at 60°C for 3 days for biomass determination, followed by C and N analysis.

Chamber experiment 2

Benning and Benning hi-pro seeds were germinated as described above. Seedlings were

transplanted into 9 L pots filled with vermiculite and approximately 80 g of crushed oyster shells

to control acidification of the rhizosphere in later developmental stages (Israel and Jackson,

1982). Three seedlings were transplanted per pot and thinned to one plant per pot a week after

transplanting. The vermiculite was saturated with water before planting and flushed with N-free

50% Long-Ashton nutrient solution.

Seedlings were inoculated with *B. diazoefficiens* USDA 110 and grown in a controlled

environment growth chamber as described above. For the first 4 DAT, 30 ml of deionized water

were added daily; then, vermiculite was flushed daily with 600ml of deionized water followed by

the addition of 400 ml of N-free nutrient solution. After V5, water and nutrient solution were

increased to 1 L and 400 mL, respectively, twice a day. Whole plants were harvested at 33, 65,

82, and 132 DAT, when the plants were in developmental stages V5, R5, R6, and R8 (maturity).

A non-inoculated set of plants was also harvested at the first sampling data (33 DAT).

At harvest dates, whole plants were separated into organs and dried at 60°C for a

minimum of 3 days. Biomass, C, and N content were measured for dry tissues. At V5, leaves and

stems were collected and measured together as shoots. At other stages, shoots were separated

into stems, pods and leaves. At R5, developing seeds were too small for individual CN analysis,

so whole pods were measured. At R7 and R8, pods were separated into seeds and shells. Roots

and nodules were separated for all plants.

Carbon/nitrogen measurements

In growth chambers, whole plants were harvested by organ at each sampling date. On field

sampling dates, four 2-cm diameter disks were cut from uppermost, fully expanded leaves, and

three pods were removed from main stem nodes in the middle (2016) or upper (2017) third of the

canopy. All samples were dried at 60°C for a minimum of 3 days. Nodules were ground in 2 ml

tubes containing 2 3-mm stainless steel grinding balls, shaken at 1400 strokes min^{-1} for 45 sec in

a homogenizer (Geno/Grinder 2000, Spex CertiPrep, NJ). Leaf, stem, pods and shells were

ground using a Wiley mill (Model 4, Thomas Scientific, NJ). Seeds were ground with a

centrifugal mill (ZM100, Retsch, Germany). Tissue C and N content was measured with an

elemental analyzer (FlashEA 1112, Thermo Scientific, Walham, MA), and the percentage of C

and N per sample was calculated with the instrument's software (Eager Smart, Thermo

Scientific, Walham, MA). Biomass and percent N values were multiplied to estimate total N in

plant tissues.

In chamber experiment 2 and in the field experiment, biomass and N content were

measured at successive developmental stages. These values were used to calculate N lost from

vegetative tissue or gained in reproductive tissue between developmental stages. Because total N

per organ was destructively measured for separate groups of plants at each developmental stage,

replicated values for N lost or N gained between stages could not be obtained and tested

statistically. However, standard errors (SE) of the means were propagated using the formula:

166
$$SE_{difference} = \sqrt{SE_a{}^2 + SE_b{}^2} \qquad [1]$$

Leaf chlorophyll measurements

In the field, two 2-cm diameter disks were cut from uppermost, fully expanded leaves and flash

frozen in liquid N. These disks were sampled from the same leaves on the same days as the disks

used for leaf C and N measurements. Leaf disks were stored at -80°C until chlorophyll

extraction. Chlorophyll was measured according to Porra et al. (1989). Briefly, frozen leaf disks

were ground in chilled methanol. Methanol was decanted and centrifuged at 2500 rpm for 10

min. The supernatant was transferred to a cuvette, and absorbance was measured at 652.0 nm and

665.2 nm. Chlorophyll concentrations in the supernatant (µg/mL) were calculated using the

equations:

177
$$Chlorophyll\ a = 16.29(A^{665.2}) - 8.54(A^{652.0}) \qquad [2]$$

178
$$Chlorophyll\ b = 30.66(A^{652.0}) - 13.58(A^{665.2}) \qquad [3]$$

179
$$Chlorophyll\ a + b = 22.12(A^{652.0}) + 2.71(A^{665.2}) \qquad [4]$$

Leaf gas exchange

In chamber experiment 2, light- and dark-adapted leaf gas exchange and chlorophyll

fluorescence were measured with a LI-6800 (LI-COR, Lincoln, NE). Light-adapted

measurements were measured at stages V5, R5 and R6, and dark-adapted measurements were

taken at stage R6. Light-adapted measurements were made in the middle of the light period, and

dark-adapted measurements were made 4 h into the dark period. Leaf chamber conditions were

set to ambient growth chamber conditions.

Field biomass and yield measurements

When Benning and Benning hi-pro were in early seed fill, all plants in 1 m of a center row in

each plot were cut down at soil level. These rows had not been used for tissue sampling. Six

plots were harvested at 84 days after planting (DAP), seven at 87 DAP, and the remaining three

plots were harvested at 88 DAP. Leaflets and pods were separated from stems and petioles, and

total leaf area per plant was measured with a leaf area meter (LI-3100, LI-COR, Lincoln, NE).

All tissues were dried at 60°C for a minimum of 7 days, and leaf, seed, pod, and stem + petiole

dry weight was measured for each plant.

At maturity, single rows were harvested with a plot combine (Almaco, Nevada, IA).

After seeds were weighed, seed composition was measured using near-infrared spectroscopy

(DA-7250, Perten Instruments North America, Springfield, IL). Seed composition parameters

are reported on a 13% moisture basis.

Statistical analysis

Chamber experiments 1 and 2 were completely randomized designs, with genotype and

either N treatment or developmental stage treated as fixed effects. Analysis of variance as

performed using a linear model in PROC MIXED (SAS Inc., Cary, NC). Test of effect slices

were calculated within N treatments and developmental stages. When these effects were

significant for N treatments, pairwise differences among genotypes were calculated with *t*-tests,

and *p*-values were adjusted to control the false discovery rate (Benjamini and Hochberg, 1995).

Each year of the field experiment was a randomized complete block design in which plots

were reps were blocked spatially across the field. When the block term was not significant, it was

dropped from the model. Variables measured repeatedly from each plot over the growing season

(C/N, seed weight, chlorophyll) were analyzed using repeated measures ANOVA. To calculate

the rate of N depletion from vegetative tissue during seed fill, the slopes of C/N over time were

analyzed leaf data from only the seed fill period (R5 and R6) in PROC MIXED.

RESULTS

Growth chamber experiments

In chamber experiment 1, all plants were harvested 45 DAT, at which time the plants inoculated

with USDA 110 were approximately at developmental stage V6, plants inoculated with USDA

31 were around V4, and plants fed NH_4NO_3 were around V7. Non-inoculated plants did not form

nodules, and the vermiculite substrate was assumed to contain no plant-available N, so the N in

the no-N plants was entirely derived from stored N prior to cotyledon excision. No-N plants were

extremely stunted and chlorotic, as would be expected for severe N deficiency. The average

cotyledon N value for each genotype was subtracted from total plant N in the NH_4NO_3 fertilizer

and rhizobia inoculation treatments to calculate total N assimilated.

N treatment had a significant effect on total N assimilation ($p < 0.0001$), while genotype

($p = 0.0572$) and genotype × treatment ($p = 0.0820$) were not statistically significant. Plants that

received NH_4NO_3 assimilated the most N (Fig. 1), reflecting the 2-3 weeks after transplanting

and inoculation required to develop functional nodules. Plants inoculated with *B. diazoefficiens*

USDA 110 fixed more N than plants inoculated with *B. elkanii* USDA 31. Given the low

practical risk of accepting a slightly higher type I error rate in the interaction effect to consider

within-group tests, we further tested differences among genotypes within N treatments. Total N

assimilated was not significantly different among genotypes that were fed fertilizer containing

NH_4NO_3, nor was is it significantly different among genotypes inoculated with *B. elkanii* USDA

31. Genotype only had a significant effect on N assimilation among plants inoculated with *B.*

diazoefficiens USDA 110 ($p = 0.0265$), with Benning hi-pro fixing significantly more N than

Benning and Danbaekkong (Fig. 1).

In chamber experiment 2, Benning and Benning hi-pro were inoculated with *B.*

diazoefficiens USDA 110 and harvested at developmental stages V5, R5, R6, and R8 (maturity).

As expected, seed protein at maturity was significantly higher in Benning hi-pro than in its

recurrent parent, and seed C/N was also significantly different between the two genotypes (Table

1). Although the average seed yield per plant was higher in Benning hi-pro, the difference was

not significant. Total N fixed per plant was measured at each developmental stage, but in

contrast to chamber experiment 1, Benning hi-pro only fixed significantly more N at maturity,

132 DAT (Supplemental Table 1). There were limited differences in organ-specific N between

the genotypes (Fig. 2, Supplemental Table 1). Benning hi-pro had significantly more N in pods

(seed + shell) at maturity, which drove the difference in total N fixed at this stage. At R5,

Benning hi-pro had significantly more N in nodules ($p = 0.0285$). Insufficient nodule tissue

remained for C and N measurement at R8.

For inoculated plants in both growth chamber experiments, total N assimilated was

divided by nodule weight to calculate N fixed per nodule weight. In chamber experiment 1,

Benning hi-pro fixed significantly more N per nodule weight than the other three genotypes

when inoculated with *B. diazoefficiens* USDA 110 but not when inoculated with *B. elkanii*

USDA 31 (Supplemental Table 2). The difference in symbiosis with *B. diazoefficiens* USDA 110

was due to higher total N per plant in Benning hi-pro but similar nodule mass as the other

genotypes. In chamber experiment 2, there was not a significant difference in N fixed per nodule

weight at V5, R5, or R6. N fixed per nodule weight could not be calculated at maturity because

virtually all nodule tissue had degenerated, although this was the only harvest point in chamber

experiment 2 at which total N fixed was significantly greater in Benning hi-pro.

In chamber experiment 2, the amount of N remobilized from vegetative tissue between

developmental stages, as well as the amount of N fixed between developmental stages, was

estimated from differences in mean N content per organ over time. Vegetative N lost was

calculated as the difference in mean vegetative N (leaf, stem, root, and nodule) between

developmental stages. Because the N remaining in abscised leaves was not measured, this value

represents the maximum potential N remobilization from vegetative into reproductive tissue

during seed development. Reproductive N gained was calculated as the difference in mean

reproductive N (seed and pod) between developmental stages. In this experiment, the amount of

reproductive N gained was always greater than vegetative N lost. This difference came from N

fixation, the sole N source for inoculated plants. The two genotypes lost similar amounts of N

from vegetative tissue and gained similar amounts of N in reproductive tissue from R5 to R6

(Table 2). The estimate for N fixed from R5 to R6, calculated from these values, was also similar

between the two genotypes. From R6 to R8, the two genotypes again lost similar amounts of N

from vegetative tissue. During the same period, however, Benning hi-pro gained substantially

more N in its reproductive tissue. Thus, from R6 to R8, Benning hi-pro may have fixed twice as

much N as Benning, and the propagated standard errors for these estimates do not overlap (Table

2).

Higher N fixation per nodule weight may carry a higher energy requirement per nodule

weight. In chamber experiment 2, light-adapted leaf gas exchange was measured at V5 and R5,

and light- and dark-adapted leaf gas exchange and chlorophyll fluorescence were measured at

R6. There were no differences between the two genotypes in CO_2 assimilation rate, dark-adapted

respiration rate, photosystem II operating efficiency, quantum efficiency of CO_2 assimilation, or

the maximum quantum efficiency of PSII photochemistry (Supplemental Table 3).

Field experiments

Seed protein was significantly higher in Benning hi-pro than in Benning for both years, while

yield was not significantly different between the genotypes (Table 3). Yield for both genotypes

was similar to check variety NC-Raleigh in both years. The increase in seed protein content in

Benning hi-pro was greater in 2017 than in 2016: + 4.2% compared to + 3.2%. Although the

seed protein rankings of Benning, Benning hi-pro, and NC-Raleigh were the same in both years,

average seed protein content for all three genotypes was substantially lower in 2017.

Danbaekkong, the high protein locus donor parent of Benning hi-pro, was included in 2017 and

had significantly higher seed protein than all other genotypes but lower yield. Seed C/N

rankings among genotypes were the reverse of those for seed protein in both years, as expected,

although seed C/N at harvest was not significantly different between Benning and Benning hi-

pro (Table 3).

Leaf area index (LAI) and aboveground biomass were measured in 2017 for 1 m rows

harvested at DAP 84-88. Benning, Benning hi-pro, and NC-Raleigh were in R5 at this time, and

Danbaekkong was in late R6. LAI and aboveground biomass were not significantly different

among genotypes (Table 4). Percent N and C were measured for aboveground organs to calculate

total aboveground N as well as vegetative N available for remobilization. There were no

differences among the genotypes in total aboveground N when Benning and Benning hi-pro were

at R5, despite Danbaekkong being closer to maturity. Aboveground N available for

remobilization, calculated as leaf N + stem N, was also not significantly different among the

genotypes. Genotype had a significant effect on reproductive N (seed + shell N) at this stage, but

only NC-Raleigh and Danbaekkong were significantly different in pairwise comparisons (Table

4). At the time of biomass harvest, DAP 84-88, Benning and Benning hi-pro seeds had gained

one-third or less of their final weight (Fig. 3).

The seed N gained from R5 (Benning, Benning hi-pro, and NC-Raleigh) or R6

(Danbaekkong) to R8 was calculated for each genotype, as it was for growth chamber

experiment 2 (Supplemental Table 4). For Benning and Benning hi-pro in the field, the amount

of seed N gained from R5 to R8 was smaller than the amount of aboveground N available for

remobilization from vegetative tissue at R5 (Table 4). The standard error estimates for seed N

gained overlap greatly. Thus, it was not possible to estimate from these data how much N

fixation or soil N uptake occurred during this time period.

Seed growth in Benning and Benning hi-pro was examined in both years. Seed fill began

fewer DAP in 2017, because the planting date was much later that year. In 2016, the overall

effect of genotype on seed dry weight was significant (Fig. 3A). Seed weight tended to be higher

in Benning late in seed fill, but pairwise comparisons were not significant on any specific

sampling date in 2016, and genotype did not have a significant effect on seed weight in 2017

(Fig. 3B). Genotype did not have a significant effect on N per seed in either year, although the

pairwise difference was significant at 104 DAP in 2017 (Fig. 3C, 3D). However, genotype had a

significant effect on seed C/N during seed fill in both years, and the pairwise difference between

genotypes was significantly different on almost every measurement day during the seed fill

period in 2016 (Fig. 3E), and on every measurement day in 2017 (Fig. 3F). In 2017, seeds were

too small on the first sampling date to analyze C and N content.

Leaf C/N was not significantly different between genotypes during vegetative

development or during flowering, but leaf C/N was significantly higher in Benning hi-pro late in

seed fill in 2016, suggesting a steeper slope for N depletion relative to C (Supplemental Fig. 1A).

Leaf C/N data from the seed fill period were then analyzed as a regression to determine the

relative rates of C and N remobilization from vegetative tissue. In 2016, genotype and

genotype*DAP significantly affected leaf C/N during seed fill (Fig. 4A). The slope of leaf C/N

over DAP was higher for Benning hi-pro than for Benning, showing that N was depleted at a

higher rate relative to C in Benning hi-pro leaves during seed fill. However, genotype and

genotype*DAP did not significantly affect the relative C and N remobilization rates during seed

fill in 2017 (Fig. 4B).

Leaf chlorophyll was measured alongside leaf CN to determine if differences in N

remobilization could also be detected through leaf chlorophyll content. Despite the differences in

leaf CN and in the rate of N depletion, the decline of leaf chlorophyll was not significantly

different between Benning and Benning hi-pro (Supplemental Fig. 2A). Additionally, no

significant correlation was observed between CN and chlorophyll over the growing season

(Supplemental Fig. 2B).

DISCUSSION

The primary goal of this study was to identify the N flux(es) that contribute to higher seed

protein without a yield penalty in Benning hi-pro compared to its recurrent parent, Benning. In

these experiments, Benning hi-pro supplied more N to developing seed through greater N

fixation capacity as well as a higher rate of N depletion from vegetative tissue, but these traits

were not observed concurrently or consistently. Strikingly, Benning hi-pro plants inoculated with

B. diazoefficiens USDA 110 in growth chambers fixed over twice as much N on average between

early R6 and maturity. Differences in seed protein between two genotypes of similar yield

potential have previously been linked to higher N fixation during seed fill period (Leffel et al.,

1992). In a greenhouse study, N fixation across reproductive development, measured by

integrating acetylene reduction measurements over time, was found to be significantly and

positively correlated with seed protein content, while integrated N fixation was not significantly

correlated with yield (Fabre and Planchon, 2000).

B. diazoefficiens USDA 110 is more efficient at fixing N than *B. elkanii* USDA 31, and

this has been linked to the presence of a hydrogenase in the nodule which recycles H_2 evolved

from the nitrogenase-catalyzed reaction (Caldwell and Vest, 1970; Schubert et al., 1978). As

expected, plants inoculated with *B. diazoefficiens* USDA 110 in this study fixed more N and had

greater dry weight across genotypes than those inoculated with *B. elkanii* USDA 31. The lower

N fixation efficiency of *B. elkanii* USDA 31 seemed to restrict the higher N fixation potential of

Benning hi-pro that was observed with *B. diazoefficiens* USDA 110. The native rhizobia

population was not characterized for the field experiment, but a prior analysis of a different soil

type at the same research station found the majority of nodules to be infected with rhizobia

belonging to serotypes 31/94, 46/76, and 76 (Ramirez et al., 1997). In that study, about 15% of

the samples isolated from the research station had high N fixation capacity, as does *B.*

diazoefficiens USDA 110, while ca. 20% had low N fixation capacity like *B. elkanii* USDA 31,

and the rest had intermediate N fixation capacity. Thus, it is possible that in our field experiment,

Benning hi-pro's potential to supply more seed N from N fixation was restricted by the

efficiency of rhizobia strain(s) that were present in soil.

The rate of N remobilization from Benning hi-pro leaves was only higher in one of the

two years of the field experiment, despite Benning hi-pro maintaining higher seed protein and

similar yield to Benning in both years. This variability in N remobilization between years,

together with the growth chamber results, do not entirely support the self-destructive hypothesis,

which suggests that high seed N requirements in soybean trigger leaf senescence and thus limit

the seed fill period (Sinclair and de Wit, 1975). Under the artificial, but optimal, environmental

conditions of the growth chambers, the high N requirement in developing seeds was met by

sustained N fixation though seed fill in both Benning and Benning hi-pro, as remobilized N

accounted for less than half of the N in each genotype at maturity. In the field, Benning hi-pro

produced the same seed yield as Benning despite remobilizing N from leaves at a higher rate in

2016. This suggests that under favorable environmental conditions—moderate temperatures and

plenty of light, water, and nutrients, excepting soil N—leaves can continue to assimilate carbon

and thus fuel N fixation well into the seed fill period, and that environmental cues may play a

larger role than seed N demand in triggering leaf senescence. Because the carbon demand for N

fixation is high (Rainbird et al., 1984a), this implies that leaf senescence may actually have been

delayed relative to seed development if photosynthesis continued at rates necessary to sustain

nodule function.

The data from these experiments cannot conclusively determine if seed composition

differences in Benning hi-pro are source- or sink-driven. However, differences in seed C/N

between Benning and Benning hi-pro were established early in seed development, when seeds

had gained less than a third of their final weight. However, the amount of N per seed was not

different between genotypes this early in seed development, and leaf C/N had not yet diverged

between the two genotypes this early in seed development. These observations, alongside the

fact that differences in N fixation and N remobilization rate were only observed intermittently,

suggest that the difference in seed C/N may be driven in part by differences in N sink strength

rather than by constitutively higher N fixation or N remobilization in Benning hi-pro. In growth

chamber experiment 2, the higher total N assimilation in Benning hi-pro was accompanied by

substantially higher seed yield (ca. 20%), congruent with a previous finding that N accumulation

is positively correlated with yield across genotypes (Rotundo et al., 2014). If higher N fixation in

growth chambers was driving seed protein gain, then a greater protein increase (>4%) may have

been expected, considering Benning hi-pro's large increase in N fixed. Instead, the seed protein

gain for chamber-grown Benning hi-pro was similar to that in the field, ca. 3-4%. Perhaps the

capacity for greater N fixation during seed fill in Benning hi-pro contributes to its yield

maintenance despite higher seed protein.

In the field, N accumulation per seed closely mirrored seed dry weight accumulation, and

significant differences were rarely present between the two genotypes on any particular sampling

date. Benning hi-pro also tended to produce smaller seeds than Benning, although the pairwise

differences were not significant in either year. Based on these findings, we hypothesize that

Benning hi-pro's higher seed protein concentration is related to reduced C accumulation in seed

relative to N, but that yield is maintained because the of the plant's ability to remobilize or fix

sufficient N to support a similar weight of seeds. Genotypic differences in seed sink strength for

N were also observed in an *in vitro* study comparing cotyledon N uptake by normal and high

protein genotypes at a range of N concentrations (Hayati et al., 1996). In that study, cotyledon N

concentration in both genotypes responded positively to N availability in solution, but the high

protein genotype's seeds were able to take up more N at every concentration. Seed C/N was

significantly different between Benning and Benning hi-pro through most of seed development,

although the differences were not significant at harvest. The lack of significance for seed C/N

differences at harvest is probably the result of variability through the canopy (Huber et al., 2016).

Harvest samples were taken from the combine, which homogenized all the seed from a row. In

contrast, samples during seed development were selected from the same canopy position.

Directly measuring leaf N requires specialized, expensive instrumentation, and requires

destructive sampling. Chlorophyll content also declines as leaves senesce, and chlorophyll can be

chemically extracted in relatively simple assay (Porra et al., 1989) or estimated non-destructively

in the field (e.g., Lichtenthaler et al., 1996; Cassol et al., 2008; Steele et al., 2008). The N in

chlorophyll is not directly exported from senescing leaves (Hörtensteiner and Feller, 2002), but

N from the concurrent breakdown of chloroplast proteins is an important source of N for

remobilization to vegetative tissue (Fischer, 2007; Liu et al., 2008). If a relationship could be

established, measuring the decline in leaf chlorophyll content might be a convenient proxy for

estimating N remobilization in future studies. Thus, we measured leaf chlorophyll in 2016 to

determine if it could be used as a surrogate for N remobilization rates. However, the decline of

leaf chlorophyll content during seed fill did not reveal the difference in N depletion that was

measured in the field in 2016, and chlorophyll did not significantly predict leaf C/N in field-

grown Benning and Benning hi-pro over the course of the field season. These results indicate

that chlorophyll would not be a reliable proxy for detecting subtle but significant differences in

leaf N metabolism.

These experiments revealed that the introgressed region of chromosome 20 from

Danbaekkong in the Benning background can increase N fixation as well as the rate of N

remobilization from senescing soybean leaves, but that the phenotypic expression of these traits

may depend on environment and biotic interactions. Whether the changes in these N fluxes are

source or sink driven remains unresolved, and the molecular mechanisms behind these changes

have yet to be elucidated. Although the Gm20 high protein locus has been narrowed to a <1Mb

region (Vaughn et al., 2014), the protein gain combined with maintaining the high yield potential

of Benning evidently involves multiple genes, as evidenced by large region of Danbaekkong's

chromosome 20 that is present in Benning hi-pro (Prenger, 2018). If the gene(s) involved in this

epistasis can be identified, a new path to improving soybean seed composition through breeding

or biotechnology could be illuminated.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We thank Thomas E. Carter Jr., Paul Cook, Amy Niewoehner, Heather Sims, Jason Pleasant, Cory Callahan, and John Graeber for assistance with planting, tissue sampling, and harvest. We thank Cathy Herring and Travis Lassiter at Central Crops Research Station for field management. We thank Zenglu Li for generously sharing seed for these studies. This research was funded by USDA-ARS project number 6070-21220-069-00-D.

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIAL

Supplemental Table S1. ANOVA results (*p*-values) for main effects, interactions, and slices

within effects for total N fixed and N per organ in chamber experiment 2. Analysis corresponds

with data shown in Figure 2.

Supplemental Table S2. Total N fixed per nodule weight in chamber experiments 1 and 2.

Supplemental Table S3. ANOVA results (*p*-values) for differences between Benning and

Benning hi-pro in leaf gas exchange and chlorophyll fluorescence in chamber experiment 1.

Light-adapted leaf gas exchange measurements were made at V5, R5, and R6. Light-adapted

chlorophyll fluorescence as well as dark-adapted gas exchange and chlorophyll fluorescence

parameters were measured at R6. Table abbreviations: photosystem II operating efficiency

(ΦPSII), quantum efficiency of CO_2 assimilation (ΦCO_2), maximum quantum efficiency of PSII

photochemistry (F_v/F_m).

Supplemental Table S4. Estimated seed N gained from R5 to R8 in the field experiment in

2017. Estimated nitrogen gained was calculated as the difference in mean seed N between R5

and R8. Values are mean ± standard error; errors were propagated as described in the Methods;

$n = 4$.

Supplemental Figure S1. Leaf CN across the growing season for Benning and Benning hi-pro

grown in the field in 2016 (A) and 2017 (B). Leaf tissue was sampled from the uppermost, fully

expanded leaf in the canopy. Significant pairwise differences (adjusted $p < 0.05$) between the

genotypes within days are indicated by asterisks. Points and error bars are means ± standard

error.

Supplemental Figure S2. (A) Leaf chlorophyll content during the 2016 seed fill period, R5 and

R6. Slopes were not significantly different between the two genotypes. (B) Relationship

between leaf C/N and chlorophyll content throughout the 2016 growing season, including

vegetative and reproductive developmental stages. Leaf chlorophyll content did not predict leaf

C/N.

REFERENCES

Benjamini, Y., and Y. Hochberg. 1995. Controlling the false discovery rate: a practical and

powerful approach to multiple testing. J. R. Stat. Soc. Ser. B 57(1): 289–300.

Boerma, H.R., R.S. Hussey, D. V Phillips, E.D. Wood, G.B. Rowan, and S.L. Finnerty. 1997.

Registration of "Benning" soybean. Crop Sci. 37(6): 1982.

Brzostowski, L.F., T.I. Pruski, J.E. Specht, and B.W. Diers. 2017. Impact of seed protein alleles

from three soybean sources on seed composition and agronomic traits. Theor. Appl. Genet.

130(11): 2315–2326.

Burton, J.W., T.E. Carter, M.O. Fountain, and D.T. Bowman. 2006. Registration of 'NC-

Raleigh' soybean. Crop Sci. 46(6): 2710.

Caldwell, B.E., and G. Vest. 1970. Effects of *Rhizobium japonicum* strains on soybean yields.

Crop Sci. 19: 19–21.

Cassol, D., F.S.P. De Silva, A.R. Falqueto, and M.A. Bacarin. 2008. An evaluation of non-

destructive methods to estimate total chlorophyll content. Photosynthetica 46(4): 634–636.

Delamuta, J.R.M., R.A. Ribeiro, E. Ormeño-Orrillo, I.S. Melo, E. Martínez-Romero, and M.

Hungria. 2013. Polyphasic evidence supporting the reclassification of *Bradyrhizobium*

japonicum group Ia strains as *Bradyrhizobium diazoefficiens* sp. nov. Int. J. Syst. Evol.

Microbiol. 63: 3342–3351.

Diers, B.W., W.R. Fehr, and R.C. Shoemaker. 1992. RFLP analysis of soybean seed protein and

oil content. Theor. Appl. Genet. 83: 608–612.

Egli, D.B., and W.P. Bruening. 2007. Nitrogen accumulation and redistribution in soybean

genotypes with variation in seed protein concentration. Plant Soil 301: 165–172.

Fabre, F., and C. Planchon. 2000. Nitrogen nutrition, yield and protein content in soybean. Plant

Sci. 152(1): 51–58.

Fischer, A.M. 2007. Nutrient remobilization during leaf senescence. In:S. Gan, editor,

Senescence Processes in Plants. Blackwell Publishing Ltd, Oxford, UK. p. 87–107.

Hayati, R., D.B. Egli, and S.J. Crafts-Brandner. 1996. Independence of nitrogen supply and seed

growth in soybean: studies using an in vitro culture system. J. Exp. Bot. 47(1): 33–40.

Hewitt, E.J. 1966. Sand and water culture methods used in the study of plant nutrition. 2nd ed.

Commonwealth Agricultural Bureau, London.

Hörtensteiner, S., and U. Feller. 2002. Nitrogen metabolism and remobilization during

senescence. J. Exp. Bot. 53(370): 927–937.

Huber, S., K. Li, R. Nelson, A. Ulyanov, C. DeMuro, and I. Baxter. 2016. Canopy position has a

profound effect on soybean seed composition. PeerJ 4: e2452.

Hwang, E.-Y., Q. Song, G. Jia, J.E. Specht, D.L. Hyten, J. Costa, and P.B. Cregan. 2014. A

genome-wide association study of seed protein and oil content in soybean. BMC Genomics

15: 1.

Israel, D.W., and W.A. Jackson. 1982. Ion balance, uptake, and transport processes in N_2-fixing

and nitrate- and urea-dependent soybean plants. Plant Physiol. 69: 171–178.

Kim, S.-D., E.-H. Hong, Y.-H. Kim, S.-H. Lee, Y.-K. Seong, et al. 1996. A new high protein and

good seed quality soybean variety "Danbaegkong." RDA J. Agric. Sci. 38(1): 228–232.

Kumudini, S., D.J. Hume, and G. Chu. 2002. Genetic improvement in short-season soybeans: II.

Nitrogen accumulation, remobilization, and partitioning. Crop Sci. 42(1): 141–145.

Leffel, R.C., P.B. Cregan, A.P. Bolgiano, and D.J. Thibeau. 1992. Nitrogen metabolism of

normal and high-seed-protein soybean. Crop Sci. 32: 747–750.

Lichtenthaler, H.K., A. Gitelson, and M. Lang. 1996. Non-destructive determination of

chlorophyll content of leaves of a green and an aurea mutant of tobacco by reflectance

measurements. J. Plant Physiol. 148(3–4): 483–493.

Liu, J., H.W. Yun, J.Y. Jun, D.L. Yu, and F.S. Fa. 2008. Protein degradation and nitrogen

remobilization during leaf senescence. J. Plant Biol. 51(1): 11–19.

Lohaus, G., and C. Moellers. 2000. Phloem transport of amino acids in two *Brassica napus* L.

genotypes and one *B. carinata* genotype in relation to their seed protein content. Planta

211(6): 833–40.

Mahmoud, A.A., S.S. Natarajan, J.O. Bennett, T.P. Mawhinney, W.J. Wiebold, and H.B.

Krishnan. 2006. Effect of six decades of selective breeding on soybean protein composition

and quality: a biochemical and molecular analysis. J. Agric. Food Chem. 54: 3916–3922.

Mastrodomenico, A.T., L.C. Purcell, and C. A. King. 2013. The response and recovery of

nitrogen fixation activity in soybean to water deficit at different reproductive developmental

stages. Environ. Exp. Bot. 85: 16–21.

Morrison, M.J., H.D. Voldeng, and E.R. Cober. 2000. Agronomic changes from 58 years of

genetic improvement of short-season soybean cultivars in Canada. Agron. J. 784: 780–784.

Pipolo, A.E., T.R. Sinclair, and G.M.S. Camara. 2004. Protein and oil concentration of soybean

seed cultured *in vitro* using nutrient solutions of differing glutamine concentration. Ann.

Appl. Biol. 144(2): 223–227.

Porra, R.J., W.A. Thompson, and P.E. Kriedemann. 1989. Determination of accurate extinction

coefficients and simultaneous equations for assaying chlorophylls *a* and *b* extracted with

four different solvents: verification of the concentration of chlorophyll standards by atomic

absorption spectroscopy. Biochim. Biophys. Acta 975: 384–394.

Prenger, E.M. 2018. Genetic improvement of soybean seed composition. M.S. Thesis, Univ.

Georgia, Athens.

Rainbird, R.M., W.D. Hitz, and R.W. Hardy. 1984a. Experimental determination of the

respiration associated with soybean/rhizobium nitrogenase function, nodule maintenance,

and total nodule nitrogen fixation. Plant Physiol. 75(1): 49–53.

Rainbird, R.M., J.H. Thorne, and R.W. Hardy. 1984b. Role of amides, amino acids, and ureides

in the nutrition of developing soybean seeds. Plant Physiol. 74(2): 329–334.

Ramirez, M.E., D.W. Israel, and A.G. Wollum II. 1997. Phenotypic characterization of soybean

Bradyrhizobia in two soils of North Carolina. Soil Biol. Biochem. 29: 1547–1555.

Rotundo, J.L., L. Borrás, J.D. de Bruin, and P. Pedersen. 2014. Soybean nitrogen uptake and

utilization in Argentina and United States cultivars. Crop Sci. 54(3): 1153–1165.

Rotundo, J.L., L. Borrás, and M.E. Westgate. 2011. Linking assimilate supply and seed

developmental processes that determine soybean seed composition. Eur. J. Agron. 35(3):

184–191.

Saravitz, C.H., and C.D. Raper. 1995. Responses to sucrose and glutamine by soybean embryos

grown *in vitro*. Physiol. Plant. 93(4): 799–805.

Schubert, K.R., N.T. Jennings, and H.J. Evans. 1978. Hydrogen reactions of nodulated

leguminous plants: II. Effects on dry matter accumulation and nitrogen fixation. Plant

Physiol. 61(3): 398–401.

Sinclair, T.R., and C.T. de Wit. 1975. Photosynthate and nitrogen requirements for seed

production by various crops. Science 44: 565–567.

Sinclair, T.R., and C.T. de Wit. 1976. Analysis of the carbon and nitrogen limitations to soybean

yield. Agron. J. 68: 319–324.

Somasegaran, P., and H.J. Hoben. 1985. Methods in Legume-Rhizobium Technology. University

of Hawaii Department of Agronomy and Soil Science, Paia, HI.

Steele, M., A.A. Gitelson, and D. Rundquist. 2008. Nondestructive estimation of leaf chlorophyll

content in grapes. Am. J. Enol. Vitic. 59(3): 299–305.

Vaughn, J.N., R.L. Nelson, Q. Song, P.B. Cregan, and Z. Li. 2014. The Genetic Architecture of

Seed Composition in Soybean Is Refined by Genome-Wide Association Scans Across

Multiple Populations. G3 4(11): 2283–2294.

Warrington, C. V., H. Abdel-Haleem, D.L. Hyten, P.B. Cregan, J.H. Orf, A.S. Killam, N.

Bajjalieh, Z. Li, and H.R. Boerma. 2015. QTL for seed protein and amino acids in the

Benning × Danbaekkong soybean population. Theor. Appl. Genet. 128(5): 839–850.

Zeiher, C., D.B. Egli, J.E. Leggett, and D.A. Reicosky. 1982. Cultivar Differences in N

Redistribution in Soybeans. Agron. J. 74(2): 375–379.

FIGURES AND TABLES

Figure 1. Total nitrogen assimilated per plant (mg) for plants supplied with NH_4NO_3 fertilizer,

inoculated with *B. diazoefficiens* USDA 110, or inoculated with *B. elkanii* USDA 31 in chamber

experiment 1. Whole plants were harvested 45 days after transplanting. Values are mean ±

standard error; $n = 4$. Letters indicate significant differences (adjusted $p < 0.05$) between

genotypes within N treatments.

597 Table 1. Final seed yield, seed protein, and seed C/N from plants relying on nitrogen fixation

598 with *B. diazoefficiens* USDA 110 in chamber experiment 2. Letters indicate significant

599 difference ($p < 0.05$) between genotypes. Values are means for each genotype; $n = 5$.

Genotype	Yield	Seed protein	seed C/N
	g plant^{-1}	%	
Benning	69.0	43.1 **a**	8.2 **a**
Benning hi-pro	82.8	47.4 **b**	6.8 **b**
p-value	0.1554	**<0.0001**	**0.0022**

Figure 2. Total nitrogen (mg) in Benning and Benning hi-pro plants relying on nitrogen fixation

with *B. diazoefficiens* USDA 110 in chamber experiment 2. Values are means (*n* = 5).

Annotations indicate *p*-values for significant differences in organ N content between the two

genotypes. Scale on left applies to V5; scale on right applies to R5 – R8. Ben = Benning; BHP =

Benning hi-pro.

Table 2. Nitrogen lost per plant (mg) from vegetative tissues and nitrogen gained in reproductive

tissues between developmental stages in chamber experiment 2. Estimated nitrogen fixed was

calculated as the difference between reproductive N gained and vegetative N lost (representing

potential remobilization). Values are mean ± standard error; errors were propagated using

equation 1 as described in the Materials and Methods.

Genotype	R5 – R6			R6 – R8		
	Vegetative N lost	Reproductive N gained	Estimated N fixed	Vegetative N lost	Reproductive N gained	Estimated N fixed
	———————————————— mg plant^{-1} ————————————————					
Benning	540 ± 213	1887 ± 153	1373 ± 262	875 ± 164	2363 ± 488	1488 ± 515
Benning hi-pro	867 ± 169	1940 ± 121	1073 ± 208	833 ± 46	3945 ± 359	3112 ± 362

613 Table 3. Mean yield, 100 seed weight, seed protein, and seed C/N at developmental maturity in

614 field experiments. 100-seed weight was measured at approximately 8% moisture, and seed

615 protein is expressed on a 13% moisture basis. Letters indicate significant pairwise differences

616 (adjusted $p < 0.05$) among genotypes within years; $n = 4$.

Genotype	2016				2017			
	yield	100 seed weight	seed protein	seed C/N	yield	100 seed weight	seed protein	seed C/N
	g m^{-2}	g	%		g m^{-2}	g	%	
Benning	206.5	16.9	45.0 **a**	7.8 **ab**	218.1	16.1	34.8 **a**	8.4 **a**
Benning hi-pro	214.6	14.8	48.2 **b**	7.2 **a**	194.3	15.1	39.0 **b**	7.9 **a**
NC-Raleigh	192.4	14.9	41.1 **c**	8.5 **b**	210.5	15.6	32.5 **c**	9.4 **b**
Danbaekkong	—	—	—	—	131.3	16.4	43.7 **d**	6.3 **c**
p-value	0.6307	0.0570	**<0.0001**	**0.0114**	0.0504	**0.0479**	**<0.0001**	**<0.0001**

618   Table 4. Leaf area index, aboveground biomass, and aboveground N measured at 84 – 88 DAP

619   in 2017, when Benning and Benning hi-pro were in developmental stage R5. Letters indicate

620   significant pairwise differences (adjusted $p < 0.05$) among genotypes; $n = 4$.

Genotype	Leaf area index	Aboveground biomass	Aboveground N	Leaf + stem N	Reproductive N
	———————————————— g m^{-2} ————————————————				
Benning	4.484	638.2	19.9	11.2	8.6 **ab**
Benning hi-pro	4.359	595.7	18.2	9.8	8.4 **ab**
NC-Raleigh	4.065	505.9	15.6	9.0	6.6 **a**
Danbaekkong	3.757	617.8	19.7	8.3	11.1 **b**
p-value	0.3835	0.2060	0.2328	0.2304	**0.0108**

Figure 3. Individual seed weight, N, and seed C/N during seed fill for Benning and Benning hi-

pro grown in the field. Significant pairwise differences (adjusted *p* < 0.05) between the

genotypes within days are indicated by asterisks. Points and error bars are means ± standard

error.

Figure 4. Regression analysis of leaf C/N ratio during R5 and R6. Dashed and solid lines are

regressions for the rate of N depletion relative to C in Benning and Benning hi-pro. Arrows

indicate the observed start of developmental stages. *P*-values indicate significance of the

difference between slopes for the genotypes.