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1 **The uncertainty of crop yield projections is reduced by improved temperature**
2 **response functions**

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4 Enli Wang^{1*}, Pierre Martre^{2*}, Zhigan Zhao^{3,1}, Frank Ewert^{4†}, Andrea Maiorano^{2‡},
5 Reimund P. Rötter^{5,6¶}, Bruce A. Kimball⁷, Michael J. Ottman⁸, Gerard W. Wall⁷,
6 Jeffrey W. White⁷, Matthew P. Reynolds⁹, Philip D. Alderman^{9||§}, Pramod K.
7 Aggarwal¹⁰, Jakarat Anothai¹¹, Bruno Basso¹², Christian Biernath¹³, Davide
8 Cammarano^{14¥}, Andrew J. Challinor^{15,16}, Giacomo De Sanctis¹⁷, Jordi Doltra¹⁸, Elias
9 Fereres^{19,20}, Margarita Garcia-Vila^{19,20}, Sebastian Gayler²¹, Gerrit Hoogenboom^{11 φ},
10 Leslie A. Hunt²², Roberto C. Izaurralde^{23,24}, Mohamed Jabloun²⁵, Curtis D. Jones²³,
11 Kurt C. Kersebaum²⁶, Ann-Kristin Koehler¹⁵, Leilei Liu²⁷, Christoph Müller²⁸, Soora
12 Naresh Kumar²⁹, Claas Nendel²⁶, Garry O’Leary³⁰, Jørgen E. Olesen²⁵, Taru
13 Palosuo³¹, Eckart Priesack¹³, Ehsan Eyshi Rezaei⁴, Dominique Ripoche³², Alex C.
14 Ruane³³, Mikhail A. Semenov³⁴, Iurii Shcherbak^{12€}, Claudio Stöckle³⁵, Pierre
15 Stratonovitch³⁴, Thilo Streck²¹, Iwan Supit³⁶, Fulu Tao^{31,37}, Peter Thorburn³⁸,
16 Katharina Waha^{28ç}, Daniel Wallach³⁹, Zhimin Wang³, Joost Wolf³⁶, Yan Zhu²⁷ and
17 Senthold Asseng¹⁴

18
19 ¹CSIRO Agriculture & Food, Black Mountain ACT 2601, Australia.

20 ²UMR LEPSE, INRA, Montpellier SupAgro, 2 place Viala, 34 060, Montpellier, France.

21 ³College of Agronomy and Biotechnology, China Agricultural University, Beijing, 100193, China.

22 ⁴Institute of Crop Science and Resource Conservation (INRES), University of Bonn, 53115,
23 Germany.

24 ⁵University of Goettingen, Tropical Plant Production and Agricultural Systems Modelling
25 (TROPAGS), Department of Crop Sciences, Georg-August-Universität Göttingen, 37077
26 Göttingen, Germany

27 ⁶University of Goettingen, Centre of Biodiversity and Sustainable Land Use (CBL), Büsgenweg 1,
28 37077 Göttingen, Germany.

29 ⁷USDA, Agricultural Research Service, U.S. Arid-Land Agricultural Research Center, Maricopa,
30 AZ 85138, USA.

31 ⁸The School of Plant Sciences, University of Arizona, Tucson, AZ 85721, USA.

32 ⁹Global Wheat Program, International Maize and Wheat Improvement Center (CIMMYT) Apdo,
33 06600 Mexico, D.F., Mexico.

34 ¹⁰CGIAR Research Program on Climate Change, Agriculture and Food Security, Borlaug Institute
35 for South Asia, International Maize and Wheat Improvement Center (CIMMYT), New Delhi
36 110012, India.

37 ¹¹AgWeatherNet Program, Washington State University, Prosser, WA 99350-8694, USA.

38 ¹²Department of Earth and Environmental Sciences and W.K. Kellogg Biological Station,
39 Michigan State University East Lansing, MI 48823, USA.

40 ¹³Institute of Biochemical Plant Pathology, Helmholtz Zentrum München - German Research
41 Center for Environmental Health, Neuherberg, 85764, Germany

42 ¹⁴Agricultural and Biological Engineering Department, University of Florida, Gainesville, FL
43 32611, USA.

44 ¹⁵Institute for Climate and Atmospheric Science, School of Earth and Environment, University of
45 Leeds, Leeds LS29JT, UK.

46 ¹⁶CGIAR-ESSP Program on Climate Change, Agriculture and Food Security, International Centre
47 for Tropical Agriculture (CIAT), A.A. 6713, Cali, Colombia.

48 ¹⁷European Food Safety Authority (EFSA), GMO Unit, Parma, Italy

49 ¹⁸Cantabrian Agricultural Research and Training Centre (CIFA), 39600 Muriedas, Spain.

50 ¹⁹Dep. Agronomia, University of Cordoba, Apartado 3048, 14080 Cordoba, Spain.

51 ²⁰IAS-CSIC, Cordoba 14080, Spain.

52 ²¹Institute of Soil Science and Land Evaluation, University of Hohenheim, 70599 Stuttgart.

53 ²²Department of Plant Agriculture, University of Guelph, Guelph, ON N1G 2W1, Canada.

54 ²³Dept. of Geographical Sciences, Univ. of Maryland, College Park, MD 20742, USA.

55 ²⁴Texas A&M AgriLife Research and Extension Center, Texas A&M University, Temple, TX
56 76502, USA.
57 ²⁵Department of Agroecology, Aarhus University, 8830 Tjele, Denmark.
58 ²⁶Institute of Landscape Systems Analysis, Leibniz Centre for Agricultural Landscape Research,
59 15374 Müncheberg, Germany.
60 ²⁷National Engineering and Technology Center for Information Agriculture, Key Laboratory for
61 Crop System Analysis and Decision Making, Ministry of Agriculture, Jiangsu Key Laboratory for
62 Information Agriculture, Jiangsu Collaborative Innovation Center for Modern Crop Production,
63 Nanjing Agricultural University, Nanjing, Jiangsu 210095, China.
64 ²⁸Potsdam Institute for Climate Impact Research, 14473 Potsdam, Germany.
65 ²⁹Centre for Environment Science and Climate Resilient Agriculture, Indian Agricultural Research
66 Institute, IARI PUSA, New Delhi 110 012, India.
67 ³⁰Landscape & Water Sciences, Department of Economic Development, Jobs, Transport and
68 Resources, Horsham 3400, Australia.
69 ³¹Natural Resources Institute Finland (Luke), Latokartanonkaari 9, 00790 Helsinki, Finland
70 ³²INRA, US1116 AgroClim, 84 914 Avignon, France.
71 ³³NASA Goddard Institute for Space Studies, New York, NY 10025, USA.
72 ³⁴Computational and Systems Biology Department, Rothamsted Research, Harpenden, Herts, AL5
73 2JQ, UK.
74 ³⁵Biological Systems Engineering, Washington State University, Pullman, WA 99164-6120, USA.
75 ³⁶PPPS and WSG & CALM, Wageningen University, 6700AA Wageningen, The Netherlands.
76 ³⁷Institute of Geographical Sciences and Natural Resources Research, Chinese Academy of
77 Science, Beijing 100101, China.
78 ³⁸CSIRO Agriculture, Brisbane, Queensland 4102, Australia.
79 ³⁹INRA, UMR 1248 Agrosystèmes et développement territorial (AGIR), 31 326 Castanet-Tolosan,
80 France.
81
82 *These authors contributed equally to this work.
83 ||Authors from P.K.A. to Y.Z. are listed in alphabetical order.
84 †Present address: Institute of Landscape Systems Analysis, Leibniz Centre for Agricultural
85 Landscape Research, 15374 Müncheberg, Germany.
86 ‡Present address: European Commission Joint Research Centre, 21 027 Ispra, Italy.
87 ¶Formerly: Natural Resources Institute Finland (Luke), 00790 Helsinki, Finland.
88 §Present address: Department of Plant and Soil Sciences, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater,
89 OK, 74078-6028, USA.
90 ¥Present address: James Hutton Institute, Invergowrie, Dundee, DD2 5DA, Scotland, UK.
91 ϕPresent address: Institute for Sustainable Food Systems, University of Florida, Gainesville, FL
92 32611, USA.
93 €Present address: Institute of Future Environment, Queensland University of Technology,
94 Brisbane, QLD 4001, Australia.
95 ¢Present address: CSIRO, Queensland Bioscience Precinct St Lucia, St Lucia, Qld 4067,
96 Australia.
97 £The views expressed in this paper are the views of the authors and do not necessarily represent
98 the views of the organization or institution, with which he is currently affiliated.
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110 **Increasing the accuracy of crop productivity estimates is a key element in planning**
111 **adaptation strategies to ensure global food security under climate change. Process-**
112 **based crop models are effective means to project climate impact on crop yield, but**
113 **have large uncertainty in yield simulations. Here we show that variations in the**
114 **mathematical functions currently used to simulate temperature responses of**
115 **physiological processes in 29 wheat models account for >50% of uncertainty in**
116 **simulated grain yields for mean growing season temperatures from 14°C to 33°C.**
117 **We derived a set of new temperature response functions that when substituted in**
118 **four wheat models reduced the error in grain yield simulations across 7 global**
119 **sites with different temperature regimes by 19% to 50% (42% average). We**
120 **anticipate the improved temperature responses to be a key step to improve modeling of**
121 **crops under rising temperature and climate change, leading to higher skill of crop yield**
122 **projections.**

123 Process-based modeling of crop growth is an effective way of representing how crop
124 genotype, environment and management interactions affect crop production to aid
125 tactical and strategic decision making¹. Process-based crop models are increasingly
126 used to project impact of climate change on crop yield². However, current models
127 produce different results, creating large uncertainty in crop yield simulations³. A model
128 inter-comparison study within the Agricultural Model Inter-comparison and
129 Improvement Project (AgMIP)⁴ of 29 widely used wheat models against field
130 experimental data revealed that there is more uncertainty in simulating grain yields
131 from the different models than from 16 different climate change scenarios³. The greatest
132 uncertainty was in modeling crop responses to temperature^{3,5}. Similar results were
133 found with rice and maize crops^{6,7}. Such uncertainty should be reduced before informing
134 decision-making in agriculture and government policy. Here we show contrasting
135 differences in temperature response functions of key physiological processes adopted
136 in the 29 crop models. We reveal opportunities for improving simulation of temperature
137 response in crop models to reduce the uncertainty in yield simulations.

138 We aim to reassess the scientific assumptions underlying model algorithms and
139 parameterization describing temperature-sensitive physiological processes, using
140 wheat, one of the most important staple crops globally, as an example. We hypothesized
141 that: 1) the difference among models in assumed temperature responses is the largest
142 source of the uncertainty in simulated yields; and 2) the uncertainty in the multi-model

143 ensemble results can be reduced by improving the science for modeling temperature
144 response of physiological processes.

145 Temperature affects crop performance primarily through its impact on 1) the rate of
146 phenological development from seed germination to crop maturity, including the
147 fulfillment of cold requirement (vernalization); 2) the initiation and expansion of plant
148 organs; 3) photosynthesis and respiration, considered either separately or combined as
149 net biomass growth simulated using radiation use efficiency (RUE)⁸; and 4) the
150 senescence, sterility or abortion of plant organs. All 29 models simulate these processes,
151 except for sterility and abortion, in response to temperature change.

152 Here, we compare the temperature functions of these four categories of physiological
153 processes built into the 29 wheat models and identify the representative response types.
154 We analyze how different temperature response functions affected simulations of wheat
155 growth compared to observations in a field experiment⁸⁻¹⁰, in which well-fertilized and
156 irrigated wheat grew under contrasting sowing dates and temperature environments
157 (Hot Serial Cereal [HSC] experiment). We further evaluate the impact of the different
158 response types by implementing them in two models (APSIM and SiriusQuality) and
159 analyzing their results against the HSC data and an additional global dataset from the
160 International Heat Stress Genotype Experiment (IHSGE)⁸ carried out by the
161 International Maize and Wheat Improvement Center (CIMMYT). More importantly,
162 we derive, based on newest knowledge and data, a set of new temperature response
163 functions for the key physiological processes of wheat, and demonstrate that when
164 substituted in four wheat models the new functions reduced the error in grain yield
165 simulations across seven global sites with different temperature regimes covered by the
166 IHSGE data.

167 **Results**

168 **Contrasting temperature functions in 29 models.**

169 A wide range of temperature responses was observed in the 29 models (Supplementary
170 Table 1 & 2) which we grouped into four major types (type 1-4) according to how
171 phenological development and biomass growth (RUE) are treated (Fig. 1 and
172 Supplementary Table 3), i.e. whether increasing or decreasing slopes are linear or
173 curvilinear, whether base (T_{\min}), optimum (T_{opt}) or maximum (T_{\max}) temperatures are
174 defined, and whether T_{opt} is a range or a point. The simplest type is a linear increase in

175 developmental rate with temperature from a base temperature (T_{\min}) around 0°C
176 assuming no temperature optimum (T_{opt}) or maximum (T_{\max}) (type 1 Phenology, Fig.
177 1a), and a linear decline of biomass growth rate above a certain temperature assuming
178 no T_{\min} (type 1 Biomass, Fig. 1b). For both processes, the second type defines both T_{\min}
179 and T_{opt} , but assumes no T_{\max} , thus simulating an increasing rate with temperature below
180 T_{opt} and a constant maximum rate above T_{opt} , respectively (type 2, Fig. 1, c and d). Most
181 models define the three cardinal temperatures, simulating an increasing rate with
182 temperature from T_{\min} to T_{opt} and a decreasing rate from T_{opt} to T_{\max} (Fig. 1, e, f, g, and
183 h). Some of the models in this category define T_{opt} as a range (type 3, Fig. 1, e and f),
184 while the rest define it as a single value (type 4, Fig. 1, g and h). Some models
185 implement linear responses to temperature between the cardinal temperatures, the
186 others curvilinear.

187 For both phenology and biomass growth, most models agree on a T_{opt} when the rate
188 is maximum (Fig. 1), except for models that lack a T_{opt} (Fig. 1a). At temperatures lower
189 or higher than T_{opt} , the uncertainty in the simulation of phenological development and
190 biomass increases, particularly at higher temperatures. Response types for
191 photosynthesis were consistent, but different cardinal temperatures were used
192 introducing uncertainty (Supplementary Fig. 1, a and b). The simulated temperature
193 responses of respiration differ widely from each other (Supplementary Fig. 1, c and d).
194 When such estimates of respiration and photosynthesis are combined to simulate
195 growth, any uncertainty is compounded at high temperatures. For leaf growth and
196 senescence, contrasting temperature responses were deployed, with much greater
197 uncertainty at temperatures above 25-30°C (Supplementary Fig. 1, e, f, g, and h). For
198 grain growth, the differences in temperature responses are even greater, generating
199 increased uncertainty above 24°C (Supplementary Fig. 1, i and j).

200 **Model performance against HSC data.**

201 Simulation results of the 29 models against the HSC experiment were analyzed by
202 grouping all the models based on the four temperature response types and cardinal
203 temperatures deployed for simulating phenology and biomass growth. The results were
204 standardized at 20°C to remove any systematic bias and compare their response to
205 temperature (Fig. 2). For phenology, the models agreed most closely with each other at
206 a mean growing season temperature around 20°C and matched the observed anthesis
207 and maturity dates well (Fig. 2, a to h). At lower and higher temperatures, the simulated

208 results departed from each other and did not match the observed dates. Three type 4
209 response models (with three cardinal temperatures, Fig. 1g) with low T_{opt} and T_{max}
210 severely underestimated the pre-flowering development rate at temperatures above
211 25°C and thus predicted durations longer than were observed (Fig. 2d). For post-
212 flowering development, 20 out of the 29 models predicted the physiological maturity
213 to be later than was observed at temperatures above 25°C (Fig. 2, e to h), particularly
214 the models that have a T_{max} around 35°C (Fig. 2h).

215 For total above ground biomass and grain yield, the models with type 2 response for
216 biomass growth (no reduction at higher temperatures) tended to overestimate biomass
217 at high temperatures (Fig. 2j). For type 3 (with an optimal temperature range, Fig. 2k)
218 and type 4 (Fig. 2l) responses, the models that have a higher T_{opt} and T_{max} for either
219 RUE (Fig. 1, f and h) or photosynthesis (Supplementary Fig. 1a) also overestimated
220 biomass at temperatures above 25°C (Fig. 2, k and l). The simulated responses for grain
221 yield for the HSC experiment varied in a similar way to those for biomass (Fig. 2, m to
222 p). These findings indicate that improved modeling of temperature responses of
223 phenological development, biomass growth (RUE), photosynthesis and respiration
224 rates is necessary to reduce uncertainty in simulation of grain yield.

225 **Impact of temperature response functions.**

226 While the impact of the temperature functions in different models may be compounded
227 by interactions with other simulated processes, we further evaluated the impact of the
228 different temperature response types (Supplementary Table 3) by implementing 20
229 combinations of temperature response types in the APSIM and SiriusQuality models to
230 simulate the HSC data and the additional IHSGE data from CIMMYT^{8,11,12}. This
231 change caused the two models to predict different grain yields as a result of differences
232 in simulated growth duration, leaf area index, and biomass (Fig. 3). Differences in
233 simulated grain yield were greater than 100%, particularly at low and high temperatures
234 (Fig. 3). The range of simulated grain yield caused by different combinations of
235 temperature response functions in APSIM and SiriusQuality was on average 52%
236 (65%) and 64% (78%) of the uncertainty of the whole ensemble of 29 models for the
237 HSC (IHSGE) data, respectively, highlighting the significant impact of temperature
238 response functions alone on simulated wheat growth in the absence of water and
239 nutrient stresses.

240 **New temperature response functions.**

241 A recent synthesis of available data on phenological development and tissue expansion
242 indicated that rates of pre-anthesis phenological development, tissue expansion, and cell
243 division of crop plants all followed a common Arrhenius-type response curve, and for
244 wheat the response curve has a T_{\min} of 0°C , T_{opt} of 27.7°C , and T_{\max} of 40°C ^{13,14}. We used
245 this information to derive and unify the modeling of the temperature response for wheat
246 phenological development and initiation and expansion of leaves, nodes, tillers, stem,
247 grain, and roots using a non-linear function ($f(T)$)¹⁵ (Fig. 4, a and equation 1). If such a
248 temperature response represents the crop's development of sink capacity¹³, leaf
249 photosynthesis under current CO_2 levels, typical radiation and stress-free conditions
250 should closely follow this response, with T_{opt} around 27.7°C (Fig. 4c), although the T_{opt}
251 of C_3 crops such as wheat may increase under higher CO_2 concentrations and light
252 intensities when photorespiration is suppressed¹⁶.

253 Data on Q_{10} (the factor by which the rate of a process increases when temperature is
254 raised by 10°C) for various species living in a wide temperature range¹⁷ enabled us to
255 derive cardinal temperatures for respiration using the $f(T)$ equation (Fig. 4c). This new
256 function can accurately simulate the decline in Q_{10} with increasing temperature (Fig.
257 5), and is similar to that estimated for *Eucalyptus pauciflora*¹⁸. This clearly demonstrates
258 the need to replace the traditional constant Q_{10} approach to better quantify the temperature
259 response of respiration. The rates of post-anthesis development calculated with data
260 from experiments in outdoor climate chambers¹⁹ and the HSC experiment, together
261 with the $f(T)$ equation, enabled derivation of the cardinal temperatures of post-anthesis
262 development (Fig. 4b). The rates of post-anthesis development increases with
263 temperature up to $25\text{-}30^{\circ}\text{C}$ ^{20,21}.

264 We used the derived response functions for photosynthesis and respiration combined
265 with the SPASS canopy photosynthesis and growth model²² to generate the temperature
266 response for RUE (Supplementary Fig. 2a, Fig. 4d). The emergent response showed a
267 T_{opt} of 20°C , T_{\min} of -1°C and T_{\max} of 35°C under moderate to high radiation, but T_{opt}
268 shifted towards lower temperatures under low radiation (data not shown), giving a
269 wider T_{opt} range (Supplementary Fig. 2a). The same $f(T)$ equation with these derived
270 cardinal temperatures for RUE (Fig. 4d) is able to explain 99% of the variance of the
271 emergent responses generated from the SPASS model (Supplementary Fig. 2b).

272 The derived temperature response functions captured real responses well, compared
273 to the pre-anthesis developmental rates reported¹³ and calculated from the HSC
274 experimental data (Fig. 4a), post-anthesis developmental rates estimated from an
275 additional data set for a winter wheat cultivar grown in outdoor climate chambers²³ (Fig.
276 4b), and measured leaf photosynthesis rates²⁴ (Fig. 4c). Pooling all data, the derived
277 response functions explained 84% (for post-anthesis development) to 95% (for seedling
278 elongation) of the variation in the rates calculated from measured data (Supplementary
279 Fig. 3). The derived temperature function for RUE (Fig. 4d) matched the response of
280 maximum net biomass growth rates calculated from the HSC, and that of the maximum
281 RUE calculated from LAI, biomass and radiation interception for two additional data
282 sets for winter wheat grown in the field in the North China Plain (NCP)²⁵ and in outdoor
283 climate chambers¹⁹. A comparison of the net biomass growth rate and RUE for the NCP
284 and outdoor climate chamber experiments (Supplementary Fig. 4) demonstrated that
285 under the current CO₂ level, RUE for biomass growth under conditions free of other
286 stresses follows the temperature response shown in Fig. 4d, representing the upper
287 boundary of the calculated RUE across a wide temperature range, and is consistent with
288 previous studies²⁴. Except for the responses of daily biomass growth and RUE where
289 daily average temperatures are used, use of sub-daily temperatures and canopy
290 temperatures may further improve the simulated response.

291 **Improvement in wheat yield simulations.**

292 Implementation of the derived temperature response functions in APSIM and
293 SiriusQuality improved the simulation of wheat phenological development, biomass
294 growth and grain yield across growing temperatures from 15°C to 32°C compared with
295 data from both HSC experiment and the independent IHSGE global experiment (Fig.
296 3). For HSC, only the post-anthesis development rates were used to derive $f(T)$ so that
297 data can be considered as semi-independent. Compared with the original models, the
298 root mean squared relative error (RMSRE) of the models for grain yield with the
299 derived temperature responses was reduced by 58% (from 58% to 24%) and 53% (from
300 53% to 25%) for APSIM and SiriusQuality, respectively against the HSC data. The
301 error reduction for the IHSGE data set was 60% (from 100% to 39%) and 39% (from
302 31% to 19%) for APSIM and SiriusQuality, respectively.

303 The improved temperature functions were tested further using two additional models
304 (SALUS and WheatGrow) with the multi-environment IHSGE experimental data

305 (Table 1). Improvements in simulating total biomass and grain yields were
306 demonstrated in all the four models, with a reduction in RMSE by 28-60% for biomass
307 and 19-59% for grain yield. Less improvement was achieved for modelling
308 phenological development for both models, possibly due to an over-fitting of the
309 original models as phenological data were provided to modelers and models were not
310 fully recalibrated after the implementation of the improved equations. The four
311 improved models had a larger modeling efficiency for both total biomass and grain
312 yield (Table 1), indicating that they better captured the variations of these variables to
313 temperature. We conclude that the common equation $f(T)$ with different parameters for
314 different processes is able to simulate the temperature responses of major physiological
315 processes in wheat and may be potentially applied to other crops to increase certainty
316 in simulating crop yield under climate change^{13,14}.

317 **Discussion**

318 With the increased applications of process-based crop models to address genotype \times
319 environment \times management interactions as they impact on yield under climate change,
320 the science underpinning a model for simulation of crop growth processes and yield
321 needs to be critically examined to ensure high scientific rigor and simulation certainty.
322 Our analyses revealed contrasting differences in the type of mathematical equations
323 used to simulate temperature responses of the key physiological processes of wheat.
324 Such differences are a major cause for large uncertainty in simulated wheat yields
325 across different temperature environments. They also reflect the insufficient
326 understanding of how key physiological processes respond to temperature at the time
327 when the models were originally developed, many of which were only based on limited
328 data and local conditions. We demonstrated that by updating the temperature response
329 functions based on newest science and data, crop models can better capture the impact
330 of temperature change on growth processes and gain yield, unveiling a major step to
331 improve modeling of crops under rising temperature and climate change, leading to
332 higher skill of crop yield projections.

333 The Agricultural Model Inter-comparison and Improvement Project (AgMIP) has
334 enabled a worldwide comparison of agricultural models against global datasets. The
335 inter-comparison of 29 wheat models showed that uncertainty in simulated wheat yield
336 from different models increases with rising temperature, which provides the
337 background and forms the basis for our current study. Previous results from a multi-

338 model ensemble approach for wheat^{3,5}, rice, maize and potato crops^{6,7,26} indicated that
339 the mean simulated crop yield of a multi-model ensemble agreed reasonably well with
340 observations, pointing to the use of a multi-model ensemble approach as an effective
341 way of quantifying and reducing uncertainty in crop yield projections under climate
342 change. However, such agreement will ultimately depend on how the response
343 functions for all major physiological processes compare among the models and how
344 closely they are to the 'true' response to environmental variables like temperature.
345 Although the multi-model ensemble approach provides one useful way of uncertainty
346 quantification, it is expensive and difficult to apply in terms of labor, timing and
347 expertise. In addition, the ensemble approach itself does not necessarily lead to
348 improvement in process understanding, unless a further step is taken to increase the
349 rigor of science underpinning the process submodules by improving algorithms in
350 comparison to data, as demonstrated here.

351 Further analysis of our newly derived response functions reveal that the median
352 responses from all the 29 models closely matched the derived temperature responses
353 for pre-anthesis phenological development from 0°C to 30°C, and for biomass growth
354 rates, RUE and respiration in the range of 0°C to 35°C. However, for post-flowering
355 phenological development, the ensemble median only matched the derived responses
356 up to 25°C, while the median model photosynthesis response matched the derived
357 temperature response of RUE rather than that of photosynthesis (Fig. 4e). The
358 deviations of temperature response functions for various processes in individual models
359 from the newly derived functions based on experimental data imply that there is no
360 guarantee for the multi-model ensemble median or mean to provide the best yield
361 predictor, particularly at high temperatures. Our results highlight the importance of
362 careful ex-ante screening and evaluation of the individual models for their robustness
363 to simulate temperature responses before they are selected in a multi-model ensemble
364 for the purpose of reducing uncertainty in assessment of climate change impact.

365 Our analyses identified several key knowledge gaps. Very limited data are available
366 to quantify wheat response to extreme temperatures, at both low and high temperature
367 ranges. Further research is needed for the post-anthesis development rate under high
368 temperatures, where models disagree with each other and only few data are available.
369 The models that simulate photosynthesis tend to underestimate T_{opt} for this process and
370 thus need to be reparametrized. There is still a lack of measurement data to quantify

371 how net biomass growth rate responds to temperature, and to verify simulated RUE
372 response to temperature. More generally, variations in vapor pressure deficit (VPD)
373 among environments could introduce noise in the temperature response due to
374 differences in evaporative cooling confounding the association between air and actual
375 plant temperature and thereby reduce the certainty of prediction. Pollination, sterility
376 or abortion of plant organs as affected by abnormal temperatures have rarely been
377 simulated, but can become important under rising temperature, thus needs more
378 attention. While our current analyses focus only on temperature, interactions with other
379 climate drivers will also need to be addressed, for example, interactions with
380 photoperiod on flowering, with radiation on growth rate, with CO₂ concentration
381 change under stressed and non-stressed conditions.

382 **Methods**

383 **Inter-comparison of temperature responses in wheat crop models.** Twenty-nine
384 physiologically based wheat crop models previously used in the AgMIP-Wheat project⁸
385 (Supplementary Table 1, Supplementary Dataset) were compared in terms of how the key
386 temperature-responsive physiological processes are simulated. The different approaches used
387 in the models are summarized in Supplementary Table 2 and Extended Database 1. The
388 algorithms used in these models were extracted and the temperature response equations for key
389 developmental and growth processes were categorized based on whether the cardinal
390 temperatures (i.e., minimum T_{opt} , optimum T_{opt} , and maximum T_{max}) are defined and if so how.
391 For phenology and biomass four temperature types were identified (Fig 1, Supplementary Fig.
392 1, and Supplementary Table 3).

393 **Comparison of model performance against data from the Hot-Serial-Cereal experiment.**

394 The 29 wheat models were tested against field data from a Hot-Serial-Cereal (HSC) experiment
395 in which the spring wheat cultivar Yecora Rojo was grown with different sowing times and
396 artificial infrared heat treatments under field conditions at Maricopa, AZ, USA (33.07° N,
397 111.97° W, 361 m a.s.l.)^{9,27}. Yecora Rojo is of short stature, requires little to no vernalization,
398 has a low photoperiod sensitivity, and matures early²⁸. All crops were well watered and
399 fertilized with temperature being the most variable factor.

400 The inter-comparison of model performance was part of the AgMIP-Wheat project, with
401 four steps and different levels of available information for model calibration⁸. The results used
402 in this study (Fig. 2, Fig. 3) were simulation results from all models that were calibrated against
403 observed phenology (flowering and maturity dates) from all treatments, together with the in-
404 season and final, total above ground, leaf, stem, and grain dry mass and nitrogen, and leaf area

405 index from the highest yielding treatment, i.e., simulation step D “Blind test with calibrated
406 highest yield”⁸.

407 The HSC data set was also used to assess the uncertainty in the multi-model ensemble due
408 to different types of temperature response functions for phenological development, leaf area
409 index, biomass growth and grain yield (see below).

410 **Evaluation of wheat models against global multi-site experiments.** The 29 wheat models
411 were also evaluated against data from the International Heat Stress Genotype
412 Experiments(IHSGE) carried out by CIMMYT (therefore referred to as IHSGE dataset) that
413 had seven temperature environments, including time-of-sowing treatments^{11,12}, in the absence
414 of water and nutrient stresses and free of pest and diseases. The IHSGE experiments included
415 two spring wheat cultivars (Bacanora 88 and Nesser) grown during the 1990-1991, and 1991-
416 1992 winter cropping cycles at hot, irrigated, and low latitude sites in Mexico (Ciudad Obregon,
417 27.34° N, 109.92° W, 38 m a.s.l.; and Tlatizapan, 19.69° N, 99.13° W, 940 m a.s.l.), Egypt
418 (Aswan, 24.1° N, 32.9° E, 200 m a.s.l.), India (Dharwar, 15.49° N, 74.98° E, 940 m a.s.l.), the
419 Sudan (Wad Medani, 14.40° N, 33.49° E, 411 m a.s.l.), Bangladesh (Dinajpur, 25.65° N, 88.68°
420 E, 29 m a.s.l.), and Brazil (Londrina, 23.34° S, 51.16° W, 540 m a.s.l.)^{11,12,29}. Experiments in
421 Mexico included normal (December) and late (March) sowing dates. Bacanora 88 has moderate
422 vernalization requirement and low photoperiod sensitivity and Nesser has low to no
423 vernalization requirement and photoperiod sensitivity. All experiments were well watered and
424 fertilized with temperature being the most important variable. Variables measured in the
425 experiment included plants m⁻², total above ground biomass at 50% anthesis, days to 50%
426 anthesis, days to physiological maturity, final total above ground biomass, grain yield, spikes
427 m⁻², grains spike⁻¹, and average single grain mass at maturity.

428 Model inter-comparison was carried out using standardized protocols and one step of
429 calibration⁸. These experimental data were not publicly available and were therefore used in a
430 blind test. Sowing dates, anthesis and maturity dates, soil type characteristics and weather data
431 for all sites, years, and cultivars were supplied to the modellers. Crop growth data were supplied
432 only for one site (at Obregon) in one year, all other crop growth data were hold back and not
433 supplied to modelers. The IHSGE dataset was also used to assess the uncertainty of the multi-
434 model ensemble due to different types of temperature response functions for phenological
435 development, leaf area index, biomass growth, and grain yield (see below). None of these data
436 were used to derive the improved temperature response functions.

437 **Evaluation of the impact of various temperature response functions on simulation results.**
438 In order to demonstrate the impact of the temperature response types used in different wheat
439 crop models on simulated phenology, total above biomass and grain yield, the four major types

440 of temperature responses summarized from the models (Supplementary Table 3) were
 441 implemented in the APSIM and SiriusQuality models. These two models were chosen because
 442 they were built with different types of temperature response functions (Supplementary Table 3)
 443 and use different approaches to simulate phenology (progress to flowering by calculating the
 444 duration of phases between significant events on the shoot apex vs. tracks development through
 445 leaf appearance, using the prediction of final main stem leaf number), canopy expansion
 446 (branching vs. individual phytomer-based approaches), and biomass growth (radiation use
 447 efficiency of whole canopy vs. individual canopy layers). For phenology, we also separated the
 448 response type 4 into linear and curvilinear responses, resulting in a total of 20 temperature (4 ×
 449 5) response type combinations for models using radiation use efficiency (RUE; Supplementary
 450 Table 3). The two modified models were executed against the HSC and IHSGE experimental
 451 data. For any given observed grain yield, the simulated yield ranges from the multi-model
 452 ensemble (of the 29 wheat models), the APSIM and SiriusQuality models (each with the 20
 453 combinations of temperature response functions), were calculated. The ratios of the simulated
 454 ranges of the APSIM and SiriusQuality with the 20 combinations of temperature response
 455 functions to those of the multi-model ensemble were used to estimate how much variations in
 456 the multi-model ensemble ranges were explained by each of the models together with the
 457 variations in temperature functions.

458 **New temperature response functions of wheat physiological processes derived based on**
 459 **data.** The Wang-Engel (WE) curvilinear temperature response function used to model wheat
 460 phenology¹⁵ in the SPASS (Soil Plant Atmosphere Systems Simulation)-Wheat model³⁰ was
 461 found to be accurate and flexible in simulating the temperature responses of wheat plants^{31,32}.
 462 It has been successfully applied in modeling leaf development and phenology of wheat^{31,32},
 463 maize³³, rice³⁴, and potato crops³⁵.

464 The WE temperature function constructs a curvilinear response based on T_{\min} , T_{opt} , and T_{\max}
 465 of the simulated process. These three cardinal temperatures determine the shape of the response
 466 curve, so they have clear biological meanings. Once the cardinal temperatures are known, no
 467 extra parameters are needed in the model. It simulates the effect [0-1] of temperature between
 468 T_{\min} and T_{\max} as:

$$469 \quad f(T) = \left[\frac{2(T - T_{\min})^\alpha (T_{\text{opt}} - T_{\min})^\alpha - (T - T_{\min})^{2\alpha}}{(T_{\text{opt}} - T_{\min})^{2\alpha}} \right]^\beta; \quad \alpha = \frac{\ln 2}{\ln \left(\frac{T_{\max} - T_{\min}}{T_{\text{opt}} - T_{\min}} \right)}, \quad \beta = 0 \sim 1 \quad (1)$$

470 An extra shape factor β was added here in Equation (1) to account for temperature responses
 471 with more extended T_{opt} (e.g. for RUE at low radiation). For all processes $\beta = 1.0$ was used to

472 describe temperature responses, except for RUE where $\beta = 0.8$ was used to reflect the different
473 shape of the RUE response curve compared to other physiological processes.

474 The cardinal temperatures derived for using Equation (1) to simulate temperature responses
475 of various processes are given in Fig 4. For phenological development, the cardinal
476 temperatures were derived from published data on seedling elongation and pre-anthesis
477 development¹³, and post-anthesis development^{10,23} (see below). For photosynthesis under
478 current CO₂, the cardinal temperatures of pre-anthesis phenological development were used
479 assuming it mimics the development of sink capacity. For respiration rate, Equation (1) with β
480 = 1.0 was used to derive the average Q₁₀ (the factor by which the respiration rate increases when
481 temperature is raised by 10°C) of respiration rate at different temperatures from 5 to 45°C with
482 5°C interval. A genetic algorithm was applied to optimize the three cardinal temperatures (T_{min},
483 T_{opt}, and T_{max}) to match the derived average Q₁₀ to the Q₁₀ estimated at the corresponding
484 temperatures known from the literature¹⁷ (Fig. 5). Finally, for RUE the cardinal temperatures
485 were derived from simulation results using the SPASS canopy photosynthesis and growth
486 model, together with the derived temperature functions for photosynthesis and respiration (see
487 below). All rates were normalized at 20°C.

488 **Calculation of pre- and post-anthesis development rates from data.** Pre-anthesis
489 development rates were calculated from the HSC experiment. The rates of leaf emergence were
490 estimated as the slope of the decimal number of emerged leaves (Haun index³⁶) measured at
491 least twice a week against days from seedling emergence³⁷. The rate of development towards
492 anthesis was calculated as the reciprocal of the duration from emergence to anthesis. The rates
493 of seedling elongation for seven spring wheat cultivars grown in growth chambers with
494 different temperature were also obtained from a recent data synthesis¹³.

495 Post-anthesis rate of development was calculated as the reciprocal of the time from anthesis
496 to physiological maturity from the HSC data¹⁰ and experiments carried at INRA Clermont-
497 Ferrand, France (44.78° N, 3.17° E, 329 m a.s.l.) with the winter wheat cultivar Thésée grown
498 during the 1993-1994, and 1997-1998 winter cropping cycles in outdoor climate chambers
499 under well-watered and fertilized conditions with post-anthesis mean daily temperature ranging
500 from 12.6 to 24.7°C²³. In the HSC experiment, physiological maturity was judged when
501 endosperm of grains becomes firm and almost dry. In the INRA experiments, physiological
502 maturity was calculated as the time when 95% of final grain dry mass was reached by fitting a
503 3-parameter logistic function equation to grain dry mass data plotted against the number of days
504 after anthesis²³.

505 The calculated post-anthesis rate of development from the HSC data was the only data used
506 for derivation of temperature response functions shown in Fig 4. No data from the IHSGE

507 dataset were used in the derivation of temperature functions. Therefore, for model testing, the
508 IHSGE dataset is fully independent data, while the HSC dataset is semi-independent.

509 **Derivation of the emergent temperature response for radiation use efficiency (RUE) using**
510 **a canopy photosynthesis and growth model.** A simplified version of the canopy
511 photosynthesis and growth sub-models in the SPASS-Wheat model³⁰, together with the derived
512 temperature response functions for photosynthesis and respiration rates (Fig 4c), were used to
513 calculate the net biomass growth rate of a wheat canopy and derive the cardinal temperatures
514 and shape parameter of the RUE temperature response function (Supplementary Fig. 2). The
515 model integrates leaf level photosynthesis rate to canopy level. It also calculates the growth and
516 maintenance respiration, then the net assimilation and net biomass growth. All the parameter
517 values used in the simulations are given in Supplementary Table 4.

518 We assumed a wheat canopy at an early developmental stage with a leaf area index (LAI)
519 of $3 \text{ m}^2 \text{ m}^{-2}$ and a total above ground biomass of 3 t ha^{-1} . For any new growth, 20% of assimilate
520 would be partitioned to roots, and 80% to the above ground parts. In the simulations, we used
521 47 years (1957-2003) of daily climate data from Birchip in Victoria of Australia to simulate the
522 daily RUE of the wheat canopy in the absence of water and nutrient stresses. This gave us a
523 daily global radiation range from 10 to 32 MJ d^{-1} and a daily mean temperature range of 3.6 to
524 36°C . We also executed the model for an extra range of daily mean temperature from -5 to 5°C
525 to generate the daily net above ground biomass growth rate. RUE was calculated for different
526 daily temperatures as the net above ground biomass growth rate divided by the radiation
527 intercepted by the canopy.

528 **Calculation of net biomass growth rate and radiation use efficiency under different**
529 **temperatures.** Net biomass growth rate was calculated from the HSC data as the ratio of total
530 above ground biomass at maturity divided by the number of days from crop emergence to
531 physiological maturity. Measurement data on dynamics of LAI and total above ground biomass
532 from the INRA experiments described above¹⁹ and from five experiments where the winter
533 wheat cultivars SJZ8 and SJZ15 were grown during the 2004-2005, 2005-2006, 2006-2007,
534 and 2009-2010 winter cropping cycles at Wuqiao, North China Plain (NCP, 37.41° N , 116.37°
535 E , 20 m a.s.l.) with ample water and nitrogen supply²⁵, were used to calculate RUE under
536 different temperatures.

537 In the INRA experiments, LAI and total above ground biomass were measured every 4 to 8
538 days starting at anthesis. Only dates when LAI was higher than $2.5 \text{ m}^2 \text{ m}^{-2}$ were used (i.e. before
539 the onset of the phase of rapid canopy senescence), leaving measurements from five to six dates
540 with which to calculate the net biomass growth rate and RUE. Daily radiation interception was
541 calculated as total incident radiation times $(1 - \exp(-K_L \times \text{LAI}))$, where K_L ($0.7 \text{ m}^2 \text{ ground m}^{-2}$

542 green leaf) is the light extinction coefficient. RUE was calculated as the slope of total above
 543 ground biomass versus the cumulative radiation interception and the average net biomass
 544 growth rate was calculated as the slope of total aboveground biomass versus the number of days
 545 after anthesis.

546 In the NCP experiments, LAI and total above ground biomass were measured before
 547 wintering, at greening, and at jointing, booting, anthesis and 10 days after flowering and at
 548 maturity. Daily increases in LAI were estimated through best fit polynomial equations to the
 549 data. Daily radiation interception was calculated as for the INRA experiments but using total
 550 incident radiation estimated from sunshine hours. The cumulative radiation interception for
 551 each period was calculated as the sum of daily radiation interception. RUE for each period
 552 (from jointing onwards) was calculated as the net biomass increase divided by the total radiation
 553 interception and the average net biomass growth rate was also calculated for each period (from
 554 jointing onwards) as the net biomass increase divided by the total number of days.

555 **Calculation of daily mean temperature.** Daily mean air temperature (T_t) in the HSC and
 556 IHSGE experiments was calculated as the sum of eight contributions of a cosine variation
 557 between daily maximum ($T_{\max,\text{daily}}$) and minimum ($T_{\min,\text{daily}}$) daily air temperatures³⁸:

$$558 \quad T_t = \frac{1}{8} \sum_{r=1}^{r=8} T_h(r) \quad (2)$$

$$559 \quad T_h(r) = T_{\min,\text{daily}} + f_r (T_{\max,\text{daily}} - T_{\min,\text{daily}}) \quad (3)$$

$$560 \quad f_r = \frac{1}{2} \left(1 + \cos \frac{90}{8} (2r - 1) \right) \quad (4)$$

561 where T_h (°C) is the calculated 3-hour temperature contribution to estimated daily mean
 562 temperature, and r is an index for a particular 3-hour period.

563 **Evaluation of the improved temperature response functions.** We tested the performance of
 564 the new temperature response functions on how accurately they capture the rates of the
 565 phenological development, tissue expansion, photosynthesis, and biomass growth (RUE)
 566 measured or derived from experimental data at a range of temperatures. This was done by
 567 comparing the rates calculated using the derived functions (Fig. 4) at a given temperature
 568 against the corresponding measured rates from the experiments at the same temperature
 569 (Supplementary Fig. 3-4). Significance of the relationship was tested and the coefficient of
 570 determination (R^2) was used to see how much variation in the measurements could be explained
 571 by the new temperature functions.

572 **Evaluation of the improved skills of four wheat models when using the new temperature**
 573 **responses.** To test the improvement by using the improved temperature response functions,

574 they were also implemented into the APSIM, SiriusQuality, SALUS and WheatGrow models
 575 replacing their original functions. The simulation results were then compared with the
 576 measurements (Fig 3, Table 1). These four models were chosen to have good representation of
 577 different temperature response functions for phenological development and biomass growth
 578 and thus to generalize the improvement in wheat model skills when they use the temperature
 579 response function we derived. One of the models (WheatGrow) uses a photosynthesis and
 580 respiration approach to model biomass growth, while the other three use a RUE approach.

581 Many different measures of the discrepancies between simulations and measurements have
 582 been proposed³⁹. We concentrated on three measures to highlight different aspects of the quality
 583 of simulation with the original and improved models. All measures are based on mean squared
 584 error (MSE), where the mean is over all measurements of a particular variable. The root mean
 585 squared error (RMSE) is the square root of MSE; it has the advantage to express errors in the
 586 same units as the variable. RMSE was calculated as:

$$587 \quad \text{RMSE} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2} \quad (5)$$

588 where y_i is the observed value of the i th measured treatment, \hat{y}_i is the corresponding
 589 simulated value, and N is the total number of treatments.

590 For comparing very different growth environments likely to give a broad range of crop
 591 responses, the relative error can be more meaningful than the absolute error, so the root mean
 592 squared relative error (RMSRE) was also calculated because of the very wide range of total
 593 above ground biomass and grain yields in both the HSC and IHSGE datasets. RMSRE was
 594 calculated as:

$$595 \quad \text{RMSRE} = 100 \times \sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \left(\frac{y_i - \hat{y}_i}{y_i} \right)^2} \quad (6)$$

596

597 Finally, the Nash–Sutcliffe model efficiency⁴⁰ (EF) is a distance measure that compares
 598 model MSE with the MSE of using the average of measured values as an estimator. Therefore,
 599 EF is useful for making statements about the skill of a model relative to this simple reference
 600 estimator. For a model that simulates perfectly, $\text{EF} = 1$, and for a model that has the same
 601 squared error of simulation as the mean of the measurements, $\text{EF} = 0$. EF is positive for a model
 602 that has a smaller squared error than the mean of the measurements. EF was calculated as:

603

$$604 \quad EF = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - \bar{y})^2} \quad (7)$$

605 where \bar{y} is the average over the y_i .

606 **Data availability.** The data extracted from the models to describe their temperature functions
 607 are provided in Supplementary_Data_Set_D1 in Excel format. The experimental data used to
 608 calibrate and validate the models are available in Harvard Dataverse with the identifiers
 609 “doi:10.7910/DVN/1WCFHK”⁴¹ for and HSC data and “doi:10.7910/DVN/ECSFZG”⁴² for the
 610 IHSGE data.

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723

724 **Author Information:**

725 Correspondence and requests for materials should be addressed to:

726 Enli.Wang@csiro.au; pierre.martre@inra.fr

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766 E.W., P.M., S.A., F.E. motivated the study, E.W. and P.M. designed and coordinated
767 the study, and analyzed data, E.W., P.M., Z.Z., A.M., L.L. and B.B. conducted model
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772 and Y.Z. carried out crop model simulations and discussed the results, B.A.K.,
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774 E.W. and P.M. analyzed the results and wrote the paper.

775

776 **Figure legends**

777 **Figure 1 | Temperature response functions in 29 wheat simulation models. (a, c, e, g and i)**
778 Phenological development (pre-flowering). **(b, d, f, h and j)** Biomass growth (or RUE). **(a and**
779 **b)** Type 1, linear with no optimum or maximum temperature; **(c and d)** type 2, linear or
780 curvilinear with an optimum but no maximum temperature; **(e and f)** type 3, linear with range
781 of optimal temperatures; **(g and h)** type 4, linear or curvilinear with three cardinal temperatures.

782 (i and j) Summary of temperature responses of all models, with red lines representing the
783 median and shaded area the 10% and 90% percentiles for the 29 models. In (a to j) rates are
784 normalized to 20°C. Models are listed in Supplementary Table 1

785 **Figure 2 | Comparison of multi-model simulations against observations and average**
786 **growing season temperature. (a to d)** Simulated days from sowing to anthesis. **(e to h)**
787 Simulated days from anthesis to maturity. **(i to l)** Simulated final total above ground biomass.
788 **(m to p)** Simulated final grain yield. The data were standardized to 20°C and plotted against
789 the mean average daily temperature from sowing to anthesis **(a to d)**, from anthesis to maturity
790 **(e to h)**, and from sowing to maturity **(i to p)**. Models were grouped according to their
791 temperature response types for phenological development **(a to h)** or biomass growth **(i to p)**,
792 as defined in Fig. 1. Simulated and experimental data are for the HSC experiment⁸. Symbols
793 with error bars are experimental means \pm 1 s.d. for n = 3 independent replicates.

794 **Figure 3 | Uncertainty in simulated wheat responses due to variations in the temperature**
795 **response functions of phenological development and biomass growth (RUE).** Comparisons
796 are between observed and simulated grain yield **(a, b, c, d)**, total above ground biomass **(e, f, g**
797 **h)**, crop growth duration **(i, j, k l)**, and in season maximum LAI **(m, n, o, p)** for the HSC and
798 IHSGE data sets. Simulations were executed with the wheat models APSIM and SiriusQuality.
799 Red circles show the measurements (mean \pm 1 s.d. for n = 3 independent replicates). Green
800 areas show uncertainty in simulated values (10th to 90th percentile range) from the 29 models of
801 the AgMIP-Wheat multi-model ensemble⁸. Blue areas show the range of simulated values when
802 using APSIM or SiriusQuality combined with the 20 combinations of the four or five types of
803 response functions for phenological development and biomass growth, respectively, using the
804 cardinal temperatures reported in Supplementary Table 3. Dashed black lines show the
805 simulated values by the original APSIM and SiriusQuality models. Solid black lines show the
806 simulated values by APSIM or SiriusQuality with the improved temperature response functions
807 for phenological development and biomass growth.

808 **Figure 4 | Derived temperature responses of various physiological processes.** The relative
809 rates of pre- **(a)** and post- **(b)** anthesis development, photosynthesis and respiration **(c)**, and
810 biomass growth or RUE **(d)** calculated with data from the literature (symbols) were compared
811 with those estimated using the derived temperature response functions (solid lines). In **(c)** a Q₁₀
812 value of 2 was used for response shown with the dashed line. In **(d)** daily RUE (light blue
813 circles) calculated with the SPASS photosynthesis and plant growth model using daily weather
814 data covering temperature range of -5 to 36°C. The numbers in the brackets in the legends for
815 the response lines indicate the minimum (T_{min}), optimum (T_{opt}) and maximum (T_{max})
816 temperatures. The numbers in the brackets in the legends for the data symbols indicate the
817 literature reference source of data. In **(e)**, the derived responses (lines) were compared with the
818 medians of the temperature responses calculated from all 29 models (symbols). All data were
819 normalized at 20°C and all curves were generated using the f(T) function equation¹⁵ and the
820 cardinal temperatures shown. For all processes $\beta = 1.0$ except for RUE where $\beta = 0.8$.

821 **Figure 5 | Comparison of Q₁₀ for respiration derived from the temperature response**
822 **function in Figure 4C to the temperature dependence of the Q₁₀ of foliar respiration**
823 **rates¹⁷.** Closed symbols are mean Q₁₀ of foliar respiration rate of species of arctic (circles, 49
824 species), boreal (triangles, 24 species), temperate (squares, 50 species), and tropical
825 (diamonds, 3 species) biomes taken from literature¹⁷. Black dotted lines indicate \pm 1 s.d. of all
826 observations across biomes¹⁷. A single linear regression was fitted to all experimental data
827 (solid black line). The Q₁₀ of the respiration rate derived using the non-linear function
828 equation f(T) (equation 1), together with parameters in Figure 4C, is shown (thick blue line).
829 Data are reproduced with permission¹⁷.

Table 1 | Model improvement statistics for simulation of days to maturity, above ground biomass, grain yield and grain number in the independent IHSGE data after implementation of the new temperature response functions of phenological development and biomass growth (RUE) in four wheat models: APSIM, SiriusQuality, SALUS, and WheatGrow

Model	Grain yield		Total above ground biomass		Days to maturity		Grain number	
	Original model	Improved model	Original model	Improved model	Original model	Improved model	Original model	Improved model
<u>Root mean squared error (RMSE)</u>								
	(t ha ⁻¹)		(t ha ⁻¹)		(days)		(grain m ⁻²)	
APSIM	2.99	1.23	5.91	2.38	12.3	8.3	4647	3732
<i>SiriusQuality</i>	1.05	0.67	2.89	1.84	11.1	11.8	4046	2886
Salus	2.00	0.88	2.56	1.85	10.1	10.7	-	-
WheatGrow	2.43	1.98	5.47	2.95	1.4	3.6	-	-
<u>Modeling efficiency (EF)</u>								
	(-)		(-)		(-)		(-)	
APSIM	-1.91	-0.09	-1.53	0.32	-0.10	0.62	-1.63	-0.78
<i>SiriusQuality</i>	-0.02	0.66	-0.14	0.46	0.32	0.41	-1.52	-0.06
Salus	0.05	0.56	0.53	0.63	0.37	0.62	-	-
WheatGrow	-1.73	-0.58	-1.48	-0.71	0.99	0.93	-	-