



UNIVERSITY OF LEEDS

This is a repository copy of *Breeding implications of drought stress under future climate for upland rice in Brazil*.

White Rose Research Online URL for this paper:
<http://eprints.whiterose.ac.uk/126933/>

Version: Accepted Version

Article:

Ramirez-Villegas, J, Heinemann, AB, Pereira de Castro, A et al. (5 more authors) (2018) Breeding implications of drought stress under future climate for upland rice in Brazil. *Global Change Biology*, 24 (5). pp. 2035-2050. ISSN 1354-1013

<https://doi.org/10.1111/gcb.14071>

© 2018 John Wiley & Sons Ltd. This is the peer reviewed version of the following article: Ramirez-Villegas, J, Heinemann, AB, Pereira de Castro, A et al. (5 more authors) (2018) Breeding implications of drought stress under future climate for upland rice in Brazil. *Global Change Biology*, 24 (5). pp. 2035-2050. ISSN 1354-1013, which has been published in final form at <https://doi.org/10.1111/gcb.14071>. This article may be used for non-commercial purposes in accordance with Wiley Terms and Conditions for Use of Self-Archived Versions.

Reuse

Items deposited in White Rose Research Online are protected by copyright, with all rights reserved unless indicated otherwise. They may be downloaded and/or printed for private study, or other acts as permitted by national copyright laws. The publisher or other rights holders may allow further reproduction and re-use of the full text version. This is indicated by the licence information on the White Rose Research Online record for the item.

Takedown

If you consider content in White Rose Research Online to be in breach of UK law, please notify us by emailing eprints@whiterose.ac.uk including the URL of the record and the reason for the withdrawal request.



eprints@whiterose.ac.uk
<https://eprints.whiterose.ac.uk/>

1 **Title:** Breeding implications of drought stress under future climate for upland rice in Brazil

2

3 Authors

4 Julian Ramirez-Villegas^{1, 2, 3}, Alexandre Bryan Heinemann⁴, Adriano Pereira de Castro⁴,
5 Flávio Breseghello⁴, Carlos Navarro-Racines³, Tao Li⁵, Maria Camila Rebolledo³, Andrew
6 J. Challinor^{1, 2}

7

8 Affiliations

9 ¹ Institute for Climate and Atmospheric Science, School of Earth and Environment,
10 University of Leeds, LS2 9JT, Leeds, UK

11 ² CGIAR Research Program on Climate Change, Agriculture and Food Security, km 17
12 recta Cali-Palmira, AA6713, Cali, Colombia

13 ³ International Center for Tropical Agriculture, km 17 recta Cali-Palmira, AA6713, Cali,
14 Colombia

15 ⁴ Embrapa Arroz e Feijão Rodovia GO-462 km 12 Zona Rural, 75375-000 Santo Antônio
16 de Goiás, GO, Brazil

17 ⁵ International Rice Research Institute, Los Baños, Laguna, Philippines

18

19 Corresponding author

20 Julian Ramirez-Villegas; Tel: +57 (2) 445 0100; Fax: +57 (2) 445 0073; E-mail:

21 j.r.villegas@cgiar.org

22

23 Type of paper: Primary Research Article

24

25 Target journal: Global Change Biology

26

27 Word limit: 8,000 words (Introduction to Acknowledgments)

28

29 Abbreviations: TPE, target population of environments; BC, bias correction; RCP,
30 representative concentrations pathway; GCM, general circulation model; PCEW, actual to
31 potential evapotranspiration ratio.

32 **Abstract**

33 Rice is the most important food crop in the developing world. For rice production systems
34 to address the challenges of increasing demand and climate change, potential and on-farm
35 yield increases must be increased. Breeding is one of the main strategies toward such aim.
36 Here, we hypothesise that climatic and atmospheric changes for the upland rice growing
37 period in central Brazil are likely to alter environment groupings and drought stress patterns
38 by 2050, leading to changing breeding targets during the 21st century. As a result of
39 changes in drought stress frequency and intensity, we found reductions in productivity in
40 the range of 200-600 kg ha⁻¹ (up to 20 %) and reductions in yield stability throughout
41 virtually the entire upland rice growing area (except for the south-east). In the face of these
42 changes, our crop simulation analysis suggests that the current strategy of the breeding
43 program, which aims at achieving wide adaptation, should be adjusted. Based on results for
44 current and future climates, a weighted selection strategy for the three environmental
45 groups that characterise the region is suggested. For the highly favourable environment
46 (HFE, 36–41 % growing area, depending on RCP), selection should be done under both
47 stress-free and terminal stress conditions; for the favourable environment (FE, 27–40 %),
48 selection should aim at testing under reproductive and terminal stress; and for the least
49 favourable environment (LFE, 23–27 %), selection should be conducted for response to
50 reproductive stress only and for the joint occurrence of reproductive and terminal stress.
51 Even though there are differences in timing, it is noteworthy that stress levels are similar
52 across environments, with 40–60 % of crop water demand unsatisfied. Efficient crop
53 improvement targeted toward adaptive traits for drought tolerance will enhance upland rice
54 crop system resilience under climate change.

55

56 Keywords: breeding, adaptation, simulation modelling, drought stress, environment groups

57

58 **Introduction**

59 Rice is the second most important staple crop globally, contributes to ca. 15 % of daily per
60 capita calorie intake, and is the most important food crop across the developing world
61 (Cassman, 1999; Khoury et al., 2014). In Latin America and the Caribbean (LAC), where
62 dependence on rice as a staple food crop is substantial, annual rice consumption ranges
63 between 6 and 57 kg person⁻¹ (Fitzgerald & Resurreccion, 2009; Kearney, 2010). Tropical
64 LAC countries, in particular, have the largest rice consumption rates (Kearney, 2010). In
65 addition to rice's current importance, global demand for rice is expected to increase as a
66 result of population growth and economic development (FAO, 2010; Tilman & Clark,
67 2014). A recent global analysis showed that rice's dietary importance across the developing
68 world has increased by 21 % in the last 30 years (Khoury et al., 2014).

69
70 Particularly for rainfed rice systems, which occupy large production areas in Asia and most
71 of the production areas in Africa and Latin America (Hijmans & Serraj, 2008), concerns
72 have been raised with regard to how rice production systems will be able to sustainably
73 satisfy increasing demand in a context of stagnating potential and on-farm yield, increasing
74 yield gaps and climate change-induced yield reductions (Challinor et al., 2014; Zhao et al.,
75 2016). More specifically, the latest IPCC report showed that, in the absence of adaptation,
76 tropical rice productivity is likely to decrease at a rate between 1.3 % and 3.5 % per degree
77 of warming (Porter et al., 2014). Furthermore, increased temperatures can lead to heat
78 stress-threshold exceedance and substantially lower yield (Li et al., 2015; Zhao et al.,
79 2016). There is thus an increasing need for better adapted cultivars combining improved
80 yield potential and lower drought sensitivity (Lafitte et al., 2006).

81
82 While there may be several potential avenues to increase rice yield, crop breeding is
83 arguably one of the most promising strategies toward such aim (Dingkuhn et al., 2015;
84 Ramirez-Villegas et al., 2015). Higher rice productivity has been attained in irrigated
85 environments by improving yield potential while reducing crop duration, whereas less
86 success has been achieved in drought-prone environments such as upland and rainfed
87 cropping systems (Kamoshita et al., 2008; Serraj & Atlin, 2008). Under climate change,
88 breeding targets may vary depending on how different abiotic stresses act during the

89 growing season, as a result of increased temperature and geographically varying
90 precipitation changes. For instance, a recent study for Australian wheat suggested shifted
91 breeding focus under future climate due to increased prevalence of heat stress during
92 flowering and a concomitant reduction in the importance of drought (Lobell et al., 2015).
93 Similarly, Harrison et al., (2014) reported increased frequency of severe drought stress for
94 maize in Europe. For upland rice in Brazil, where drought is a key limiting factor [30-40 %
95 probability of occurrence, with up to 30 % yield reduction, Heinemann et al. (2008),
96 Rabello et al. (2008)], a recent study by Heinemann et al., (2015) suggested that breeding
97 should take account of drought stress patterns under current climate at early stages of
98 breeding to improve yield under water-limiting conditions. Shifting stress patterns and their
99 breeding implications for rice under future climate, however, are yet to be investigated.

100

101 Here, we assess changes in the prevalence and intensity of drought stress that result from
102 climate change for upland rice in central Brazil (states of Goiás, Rondônia, Mato Grosso
103 and Tocantins), the main upland rice growing area of Brazil and globally, and one of the
104 largest rainfed rice growing area in Latin America. We hypothesise that the complex
105 interplay between changing precipitation and increasing temperature during the rice
106 growing period in central Brazil (November through to January) (Collins et al., 2013) and
107 growth stimulation at elevated CO₂ concentrations (Krishnan et al., 2007; Kimball, 2016),
108 is likely to alter the frequency of environment groupings and drought stress patterns by
109 2050. We discuss breeding implications of these changes and suggest potential future
110 breeding directions for upland rice in Brazil.

111

112 **Materials and methods**

113 Overview

114 We used observed historical (1981-2005) weather from 51 weather stations in central Brazil
115 (states of Goiás, Rondônia, Mato Grosso and Tocantins, Fig. 1) and bias-corrected
116 projections (2041-2065) of an ensemble of 12 General Circulation Models (GCMs) with
117 data for the four Representative Concentrations Pathways (RCPs, 2.6, 4.5, 6.0, 8.5) to
118 simulate growth and development of upland rice. For all locations, we ran simulations with
119 the ORYZA2000 crop model for a range of management scenarios and 7 soil types

120 prevalent in the region. We employed clustering analysis on simulated yield to determine
121 environment groups, and then for each group used the same classification method on the
122 seasonal pattern of the actual-to-potential evapotranspiration ratio (PCEW) to determine the
123 main drought stress patterns. Using the historical and future clustering results we finally
124 assessed changes in the frequency of the environment groups and in the frequency and
125 intensity of the drought stress patterns. We used these results to suggest potential avenues
126 for future breeding.

127

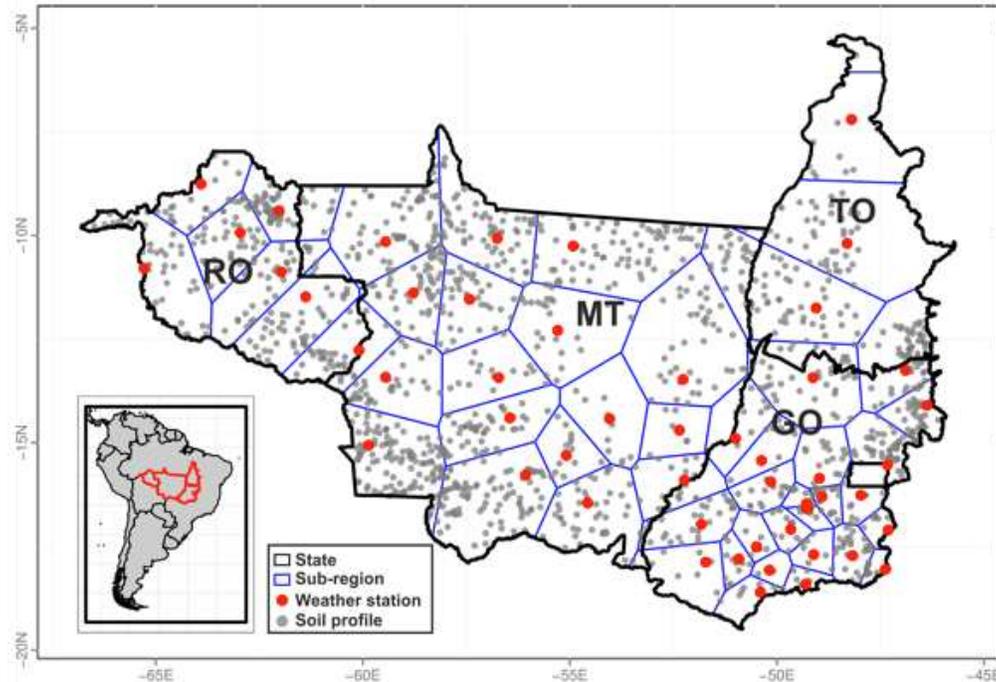
128 Current and future weather data

129 Observed historical 1981-2005 weather data from 51 weather stations within the study
130 region, hereafter referred to as the upland rice TPE (Target Population of Environments),
131 were gathered from a previous study (Heinemann et al., 2015). Briefly, this dataset consists
132 of daily observations of temperature, precipitation and solar radiation originally gathered
133 from the Brazilian Meteorological Institute (INMET, <http://www.inmet.gov.br>), and
134 thoroughly checked for gaps and errors. For all these weather stations, except the one
135 corresponding to Santo Antônio de Goiás (49° 16' 48" S, 16° 28' 12" W, Fig. 1), daily solar
136 radiation was estimated according to Richardson & Wright (1984).

137

138 For the three stations located in the state of Tocantins, which missed data from 1981-1989,
139 were supplemented with other existing databases. More specifically, we gathered data from
140 two databases: ANA (Agência Nacional de Águas, Brazil) and the CPC (Climate Prediction
141 Center). We used ANA data to the maximum extent possible and used CPC data only for
142 filling missing ANA entries. For minimum and maximum temperature and solar radiation
143 we used the WATCH Forcing Dataset – ERA Interim (WFDEI) dataset (GPCC version)
144 (Weedon et al., 2011). Following Hawkins et al. (2013) we `nudged` the means and
145 variability of the WFDEI data for each variable for the period 1980-1989 (10 years), based
146 on correction factors derived from the 10 years following 1989 (i.e. 1990-1999) before
147 merging it with the observed time series 1990-2005. Visual checks of the final time series
148 1981-2005 helped ensuring there were no obvious errors or implausible changes in the
149 behaviour of the time series.

150



151

152 **Figure 1** Upland rice study area in central Brazil. The area, also referred to as a Target Population
 153 of Environments (TPE), is formed by the states of Rondônia (RO), Mato Grosso (MT), Goiás (GO),
 154 and Tocantins (TO). The distribution of weather stations (red dots), their respective sub-regions
 155 (blue polygons), and the distribution of soil data used to construct the 7 soil types (light grey dots)
 156 are also shown.

157 Future climate data used here are from the CMIP5 ensemble (Taylor et al., 2012) for the all
 158 four RCPs and for the four variables needed for simulating rice growth, namely, daily
 159 precipitation, solar radiation, maximum and minimum temperatures. We restricted our
 160 analyses to the 12 GCMs that presented data for all variables and RCPs (Table S1). This
 161 was preferred to using different GCMs for each RCP, or to using fewer RCPs. Since GCM
 162 data at daily scale have inherent errors, bias correction (BC) was necessary before the
 163 future data was used into the crop model (Ramirez-Villegas et al., 2013). We bias-corrected
 164 the data using two different methods: (a) the delta method (DEL, hereafter), which applies a
 165 correction on the means, and (b) and the change factor method (CF, hereafter), which
 166 corrects both the means and the variability of the GCM output (Hawkins et al., 2013). The
 167 use of two bias correction methods allowed quantifying uncertainty from the choice of bias
 168 correction method, an often-neglected source of uncertainty in crop modelling studies [but
 169 see Koehler et al., (2013); Ramirez-Villegas and Challinor (2016)]. A combination of 12

170 [GCMs] x 4 [RCPs] x 2 [BC methods] for a total of 96 different climate scenarios for the
171 period 2041-2065 were used.

172

173 Soil and management information

174 We used soil data from the study of Heinemann et al., (2015), who derived soil properties
175 by applying pedotransfer functions to existing field measurements (Benedetti et al., 2008).

176 A total of seven soil types of differing texture were finally selected for all simulations.

177 Management information herein concerns the choice of cultivar, sowing dates, fertiliser
178 use, and maximum rooting depth, all of which are necessary inputs to the crop model. We
179 used a typical short-cycle cultivar named BRS Primavera (Primavera, hereafter), which is a
180 common check cultivar in the upland rice breeding trials and thus representative of
181 materials that breeders are currently selecting. Our choice of sowing dates is based on the
182 Brazilian Government risk zoning for the upland rice TPE (Heinemann et al., 2015;
183 <http://www.agricultura.gov.br>). We sampled the entire sowing calendar (from 1st November
184 to 10th January) for upland rice at 10-day intervals (n=8), which allowed us to simulate
185 typical farmer behaviour. Since the focus of this work is to quantify the seasonal behaviour
186 of water stress and its impact, we assumed optimum nitrogen supply. Maximum rooting
187 depth was set to 50 cm, based on field observations within the study region (Heinemann et
188 al., 2015).

189

190 Crop model simulations

191 To perform spatially explicit crop simulations, we divided the study area into 51 sub-areas
192 using the Thiessen polygons method (Heinemann et al., 2002), based on the weather
193 stations locations (Fig. 1). For each sub-area, rice growth and development was simulated
194 with the ORYZA2000 crop model (Bouman et al., 2001). ORYZA2000 is a process-based
195 simulation model developed for field-scale simulation of rice productivity that simulates
196 growth and development of rice under optimal, water-limited and nitrogen-limited
197 situations. The model integrates modules for phenology, assimilation and biomass growth,
198 leaf area dynamics, evapotranspiration, nitrogen dynamics, and soil water balance to
199 produce crop simulations at a daily time step (Li et al., 2013). Here, we ran ORYZA2000
200 for rainfed conditions using the PADDY module, which is a one-dimensional water balance

201 model developed to simulate a wide range of situations. For a more comprehensive
202 description of ORYZA2000 the reader is referred to Bouman et al., (2001).

203

204 Simulation of CO₂ response was necessary under future climate. In ORYZA2000, CO₂
205 response acts to increase both initial and maximum assimilation rates following an
206 exponential curve with CO₂ concentrations as the independent variable [Eq. 1-2].

207

$$208 \quad CO2EFF = \frac{1 - e^{-k1CO2 * [CO2]_f - k2CO2}}{1 - e^{-k1CO2 * [CO2]_r - k2CO2}} \quad [Eq. 1]$$

209

$$210 \quad AmaxCO2 = \frac{Amax1CO2}{Amax2CO2} \left[1 - e^{\frac{-Amax3CO2 * ([CO2] - Amax4CO2)}{Amax1CO2}} \right] \quad [Eq. 2]$$

211

212 where CO2EFF and AmaxCO2 are the initial and maximum rates of assimilation,
213 respectively, [CO₂] refers to the concentration of CO₂ in the atmosphere, with sub-indices
214 indicating future (f, here defined by the mean concentration 2041-2065 for each RCP) and
215 reference (r, the mean concentration during 1981-2005). The parameters k1CO2 (Eq. 1) and
216 Amax3CO2 (Eq. 2) act as scaling factors to the response curve, whereas k2CO2=0.222 (Eq.
217 1), Amax1CO2=49.57 (Eq. 2), Amax2CO2=34.26 (Eq. 2), and Amax4CO2=60 (Eq. 2) are
218 here assumed as prescribed constants. These response curves have been derived from
219 observed Free-Air Carbon Enrichment (FACE) and Open Top Chamber (OTC) experiments
220 with a limited number of rice cultivars by the ORYZA2000 development team, and have
221 been built flexible to allow simulating other cultivars with stronger or weaker CO₂
222 fertilisation responses. ORYZA2000 thus simulates the expected response of assimilation,
223 biomass and yield to increasing CO₂ concentrations (Kimball, 2016), although no
224 reductions in stomatal conductance and transpiration are simulated.

225

226 Given that environment and drought stress pattern classifications and drought impact may
227 vary depending on the extent of CO₂ response, we conducted simulations with two sets of
228 parameters that represented the uncertainty envelope in simulated CO₂ response for rice.
229 Specifically, we perturbed the scaling factors (k1CO2, Amax3CO2) in both response
230 functions by increasing and decreasing their default values by 10 %. For k1CO2, the default

231 value was 0.00305, whereas for $A_{max3CO2}$ the default value was 0.208. Thus, our `low
232 stimulation` parameterisation used $k_{1CO2}=0.003355$ (higher than default) and
233 $A_{max3CO2}=0.1872$ (lower than default), whereas the `high stimulation` parameterisation
234 used $k_{1CO2}=0.002745$ (lower than default) and $A_{max3CO2}=0.2288$ (higher than default).
235 We chose to perturb the parameters within $\pm 10\%$ since the resulting uncertainty in
236 assimilation response to CO_2 was $\leq 20\%$, the typical range in observations of C3 crop
237 response to carbon enrichment (Long et al., 2006). However, we note that this resulting
238 uncertainty is lower than multi-model ensemble uncertainty estimates of CO_2 response (Li
239 et al., 2015).

240

241 All simulations were conducted for cv. Primavera using parameter values from a previous
242 study in which the model was thoroughly calibrated and evaluated for Brazilian conditions
243 (Heinemann et al., 2015). In short, Heinemann et al., (2015) parameterised the
244 ORYZA2000 model using data from 6 different field experiments (4 rainfed, 2 irrigated)
245 conducted at Santo Antônio de Goiás (49° 16' 48" S, 16° 28' 12" W) and evaluated the
246 model using data from 11 rainfed experiments conducted at the same location.
247 ORYZA2000 simulated phenology in the evaluation data with less than 5 days of error, and
248 yield with less than 350 kg ha⁻¹ average error for a wide range of rainfed situations (see
249 Heinemann et al., 2015), and is therefore deemed appropriate for this work. Here, for both
250 historical and future climate conditions, we ran simulations for all soil (n=7) and sowing
251 dates (n=8). Historical simulations used observed weather data from each of the 51 sub-
252 regions (each containing one weather station), whereas future simulations were conducted
253 for the 96 individual future climate projections (12 GCMs x 4 RCPs x 2 BC methods) and 2
254 CO_2 parameterisations for the period 2041-2065 at each sub-region. Thus, for each of the
255 51 sub-regions we conducted 7 (soils) x 8 (sowing dates) x 12 (GCMs) x 4 (RCPs) x 2 (BC
256 methods) x 2 (CO_2 parameterisations), for a total of 10,752 future simulations per weather
257 station region, each of 25 years. This totalled ca. 13.7 million model runs for the entire
258 upland rice TPE.

259

260 Environment and drought stress pattern classification

261 We first determined environment groups within the upland rice TPE by clustering water-
262 and radiation-limited (i.e. attainable) yield. Clustering was performed using the entire set of
263 simulations (i.e. all planting dates, soils and sub-regions) but individually for each of the
264 climate-by-CO₂ scenarios (i.e. 1 historical, and 96 x 2 = 192 future projections). We
265 employed an agglomerative hierarchical clustering method with the Euclidean distance as
266 the dissimilarity measure and the incremental sum of squares as the fusion criterion (Ward,
267 1963). For the historical period, the number of environmental groups (clusters) was defined
268 by using the inertia gain [cf. Husson et al., (2011)], the within-group sum of squares and
269 upland rice breeders knowledge of the production area. The latter was used mostly to verify
270 that areas for each environmental group coincided with anecdotal knowledge of the region.
271 For the future scenarios, the number of environmental groups determined in the historical
272 period was kept. We then determined stress patterns for each environment group. To this
273 aim, we first averaged weekly simulations of the actual-to-potential evapotranspiration ratio
274 (PCEW), which acts in ORYZA2000 to reduce photosynthesis daily, and then clustered the
275 phenological sequence patterns of PCEW using the same methods as for the environmental
276 groups. Only simulated PCEW from 21-days after sowing (mid-vegetative stage) until 2
277 weeks before physiological maturity were used as this avoided the bias that would
278 otherwise have been introduced by low PCEW values during crop establishment or during
279 senescence (Heinemann et al., 2015). All clustering analyses were performed using the
280 FactoMineR package in the R statistical framework (R Core Team, 2016).

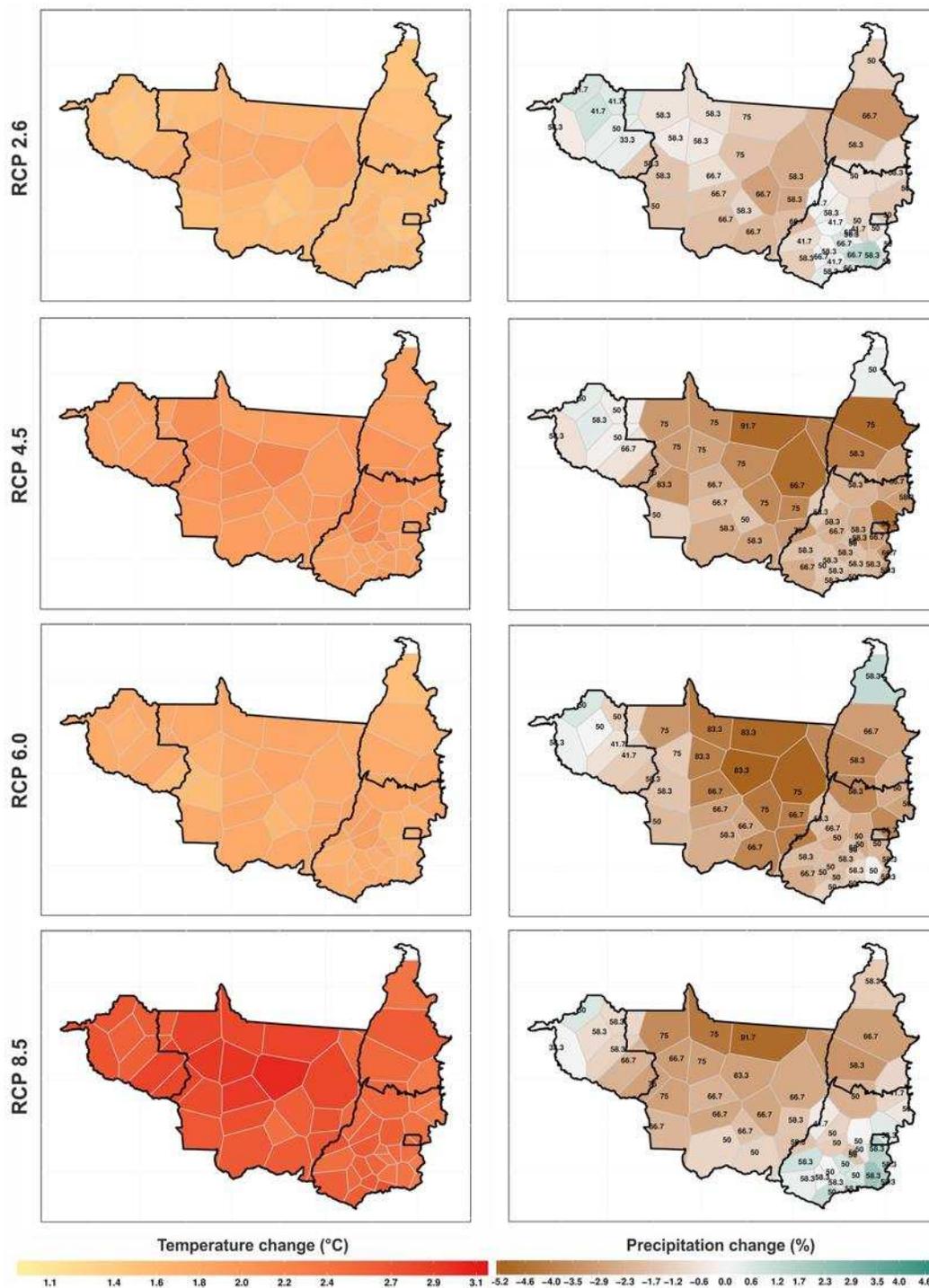
281

282 **Results**

283 Shifted climate conditions under future climate

284 Projected changes in precipitation and temperature are shown in Fig. 2 for all RCPs for the
285 period 2041-2065, relative to 1981-2005. Figures are specific to the rice growing period
286 (November-March). Ensemble mean temperature increases are substantial, ranging from
287 1.5 °C (minimum for RCP 2.6) to 3.1 (maximum for RCP 8.5). The largest temperature
288 increases are projected to occur in the state of Mato Grosso (MT), the largest state within
289 the TPE, whereas the least temperature increases are projected for the state of Tocantins
290 (TO, northeast). Particularly for the northern areas of the TPE, future seasonal mean
291 minimum and maximum temperatures for all RCPs are projected to be above 22 °C and 33

292 °C (respectively), both of which are critical temperature limits for rice fertility (Peng et al.,
 293 2004; Jagadish et al., 2007).



294

295 **Figure 2** Projected changes in seasonal mean temperature (left) and seasonal total precipitation (right)
 296 across the upland rice growing region, for the period 2041-2065, relative to 1981-2005, for the rice

297 growing season (November to January). Bold numbers in the precipitation plots indicate the
298 percentage of GCM projections that agree in the direction of change.

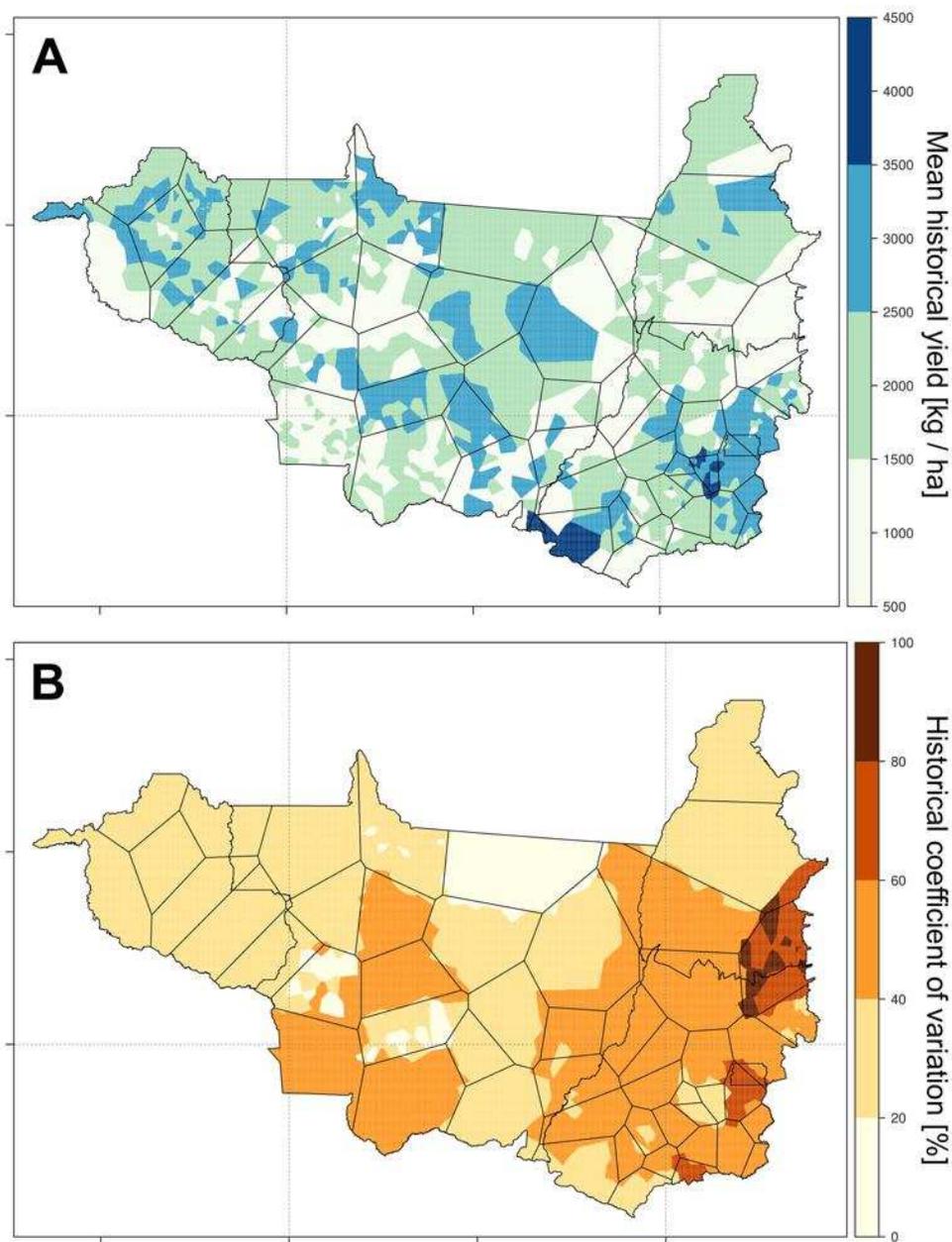
299 In contrast to temperature projections, expected precipitation changes were relatively small
300 (mean regional changes between -2 and -5 %), geographically varied, and in some areas
301 also highly uncertain (Fig. 2). Decreases in precipitation of up to 5 % are projected in the
302 state of MT for all RCPs. Particularly in the northern part of MT, precipitation projections
303 showed substantial (>70 %) agreement in the direction of the projected change. Elsewhere,
304 however, uncertainty was large, with percentage agreement rarely reaching 60 %. For TO,
305 climate change models indicated decreased precipitation. For Rondônia (RO), precipitation
306 gains were projected mostly across the north-western areas. For Goiás (GO) projected
307 precipitation changes differed across RCPs, with RCP 2.6 and RCP 8.5 showing
308 precipitation gains in the south of the state, and RCP 4.5 and RCP 6.0 showing
309 precipitation decreases across all the state. Goiás is also a state where GCM agreement is
310 low (around 50 % in most weather station regions). Thus, future global emissions and
311 climate sensitivity strongly condition future precipitation in the state.

312

313 Yield reduction and yield stability loss induced by climate change

314 Changes in seasonal mean temperature, total precipitation, solar radiation and CO₂
315 concentration interact to change historical mean yield and yield variability (Fig. 3). Current
316 mean yield levels are in the range 500–4,500 kg ha⁻¹. The ensemble of simulations
317 conducted here indicated that mean yield is projected to reduce across a most of the western
318 part of the upland rice TPE, and increase across the east and south-east, with some
319 differences between RCPs (Fig. 4A, B, Supplementary Fig. S1A, B). Mean yield changes
320 ranged from -600 to 600 kg ha⁻¹, with the largest reductions (400 – 600 kg ha⁻¹) projected
321 the central part of MT, followed by north-western and south-western MT (between 200 and
322 400 kg ha⁻¹). In these areas, model agreement, measured as the percentage of model
323 simulations out of the 384 simulations per soil and weather station combination (i.e. 8
324 [sowing dates] x 12 [GCMs] x 2 [BC methods] x 2 [CO₂ parameterisations]) that were in
325 the same direction of the median yield change, was generally above 60% (i.e. roughly two-
326 thirds of the model simulations) for both RCPs, and, for RCP 8.5 specifically, also above
327 80 %. Yield gains were projected across the south-eastern part of GO, as well as across

328 south-eastern and northern TO. Model agreement in these regions was, as in the areas of
329 yield decline, above 60 % and sometimes above 80 % for both RCPs. Only in specific
330 pockets within MT and RO (<10% of total area in the TPE) was model agreement close to
331 50% (no agreement, Fig. 4C, D, Supplementary Fig. S1C, D). In these areas, median
332 projected yield changes were small, likely because of uncertainty in the direction of yield
333 changes across model projections.

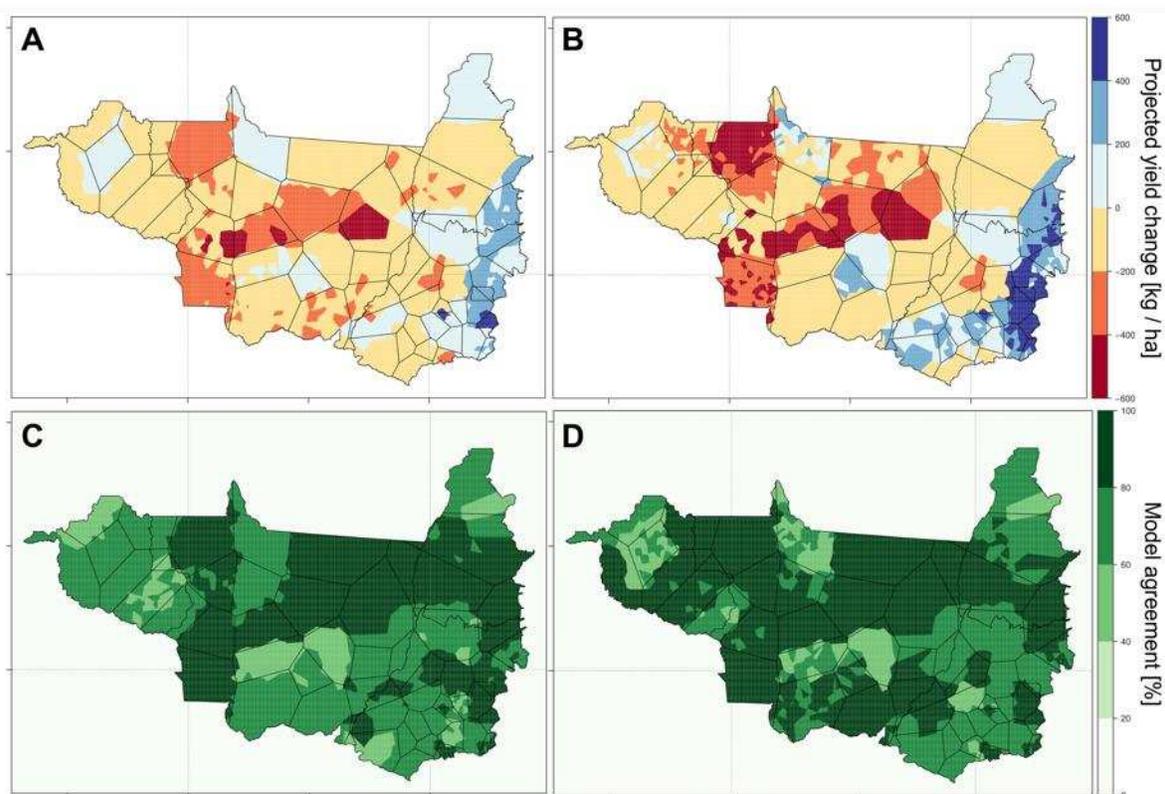


334
335 **Figure 3** Historical mean yield (A) and coefficient of variation (B), as simulated with the
336 ORYZA2000 model.

337

338 Importantly, yield stability is projected to decrease across virtually the entire TPE
339 (Supplementary Fig. S2). Projections of yield coefficient of variation indicated increases in
340 yield variability in all weather station and soil combinations within the TPE, except for
341 south-eastern GO, where decreases in yield CV are projected. For central MT, eastern TO
342 and northern RO, yield CV increases were above 10 percentage points and often above 20
343 percentage points, with high agreement (>80 %) in model projections.

344

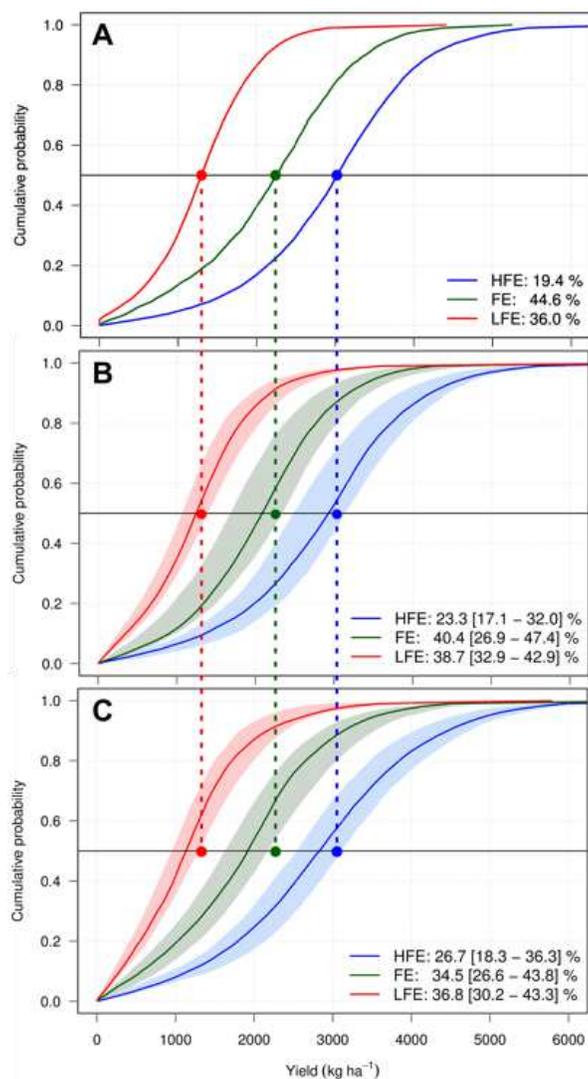


345

346 **Figure 4** Median projected change in mean yield by 2050s (A, B) and model agreement (C, D) for
347 RCP 2.6 (A, C) and RCP 8.5 (B, D) expressed as difference (in kg ha⁻¹) with respect to the historical
348 mean yield. Model agreement (C, D) is calculated as the percentage of simulations out of the 384
349 future scenario simulations (8 sowing dates x 12 GCMs x 2 BC methods x 2 CO₂ parameterisations)
350 that agree in the direction of the change with the median projected change that is shown in A and C.
351 Results for RCP 4.5 and RCP 6.0 are in Supplementary Fig. S1.

352

353 Climate change increases the contrast between high and low yielding environments
 354 Yield variability projections already provide some insight on the changes within growing
 355 environments in the TPE, by suggesting that climate change could enhance the contrast
 356 between the high and low yielding environments found in the historical period. In the
 357 historical period, the upland rice TPE can be divided in three environments (Fig. 5A): a
 358 highly favourable environment (HFE), a favourable environment (FE), and a least
 359 favourable environment (LFE) [also see Heinemann et al. (2015)]. These environments
 360 showed different probabilities of occurrence spatio-temporally and different median yield
 361 in the historical period: HFE is associated with a probability of 19.4 % (median yield 3,023
 362 kg ha⁻¹), FE with 44.6 % (2,184 kg ha⁻¹) and LFE with 36.0 % (1,297 kg ha⁻¹).



363

364 **Figure 5** Current and future upland rice environment groups and their associated cumulative
365 probability density function (CDF) and frequencies of occurrence in the historical period (A) and in
366 2050 for RCP 2.6 (B) and RCP 8.5 (C). Shading indicates the interquartile range of the future
367 scenario simulations. Vertical dashed lines indicate the position of the historical median relative to
368 the future climate CDFs for each environment group. The horizontal black line indicates the median
369 (50th percentile). Numbers on the bottom-right of panel (A) indicate the probability of occurrence of
370 each environment group, and for panels (B, C) they indicate the median for the RCP, with the
371 interquartile range shown in brackets. CDF plots for RCP 4.5 and RCP 6.0 are shown in
372 Supplementary Fig. S3.

373

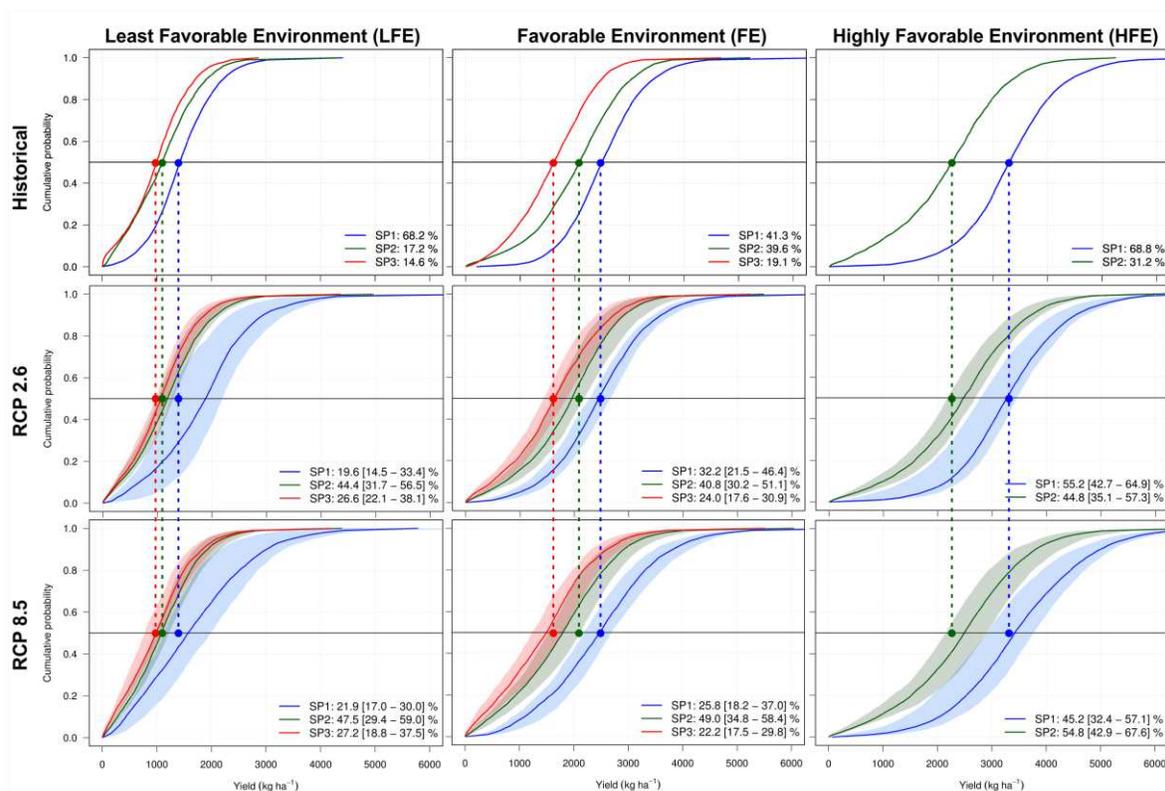
374 A more detailed analysis of environment group probabilities of occurrence and yield under
375 climate change showed reduction in the median yield for the three environments,
376 particularly under RCP 8.5 (Fig. 5B, C, Supplementary Fig. S3). However, perhaps most
377 importantly, we found a change in the probabilities of occurrence of the three environment
378 groups, with significant dependence on the RCP trajectory chosen. Results indicate that,
379 under RCP 2.6, the most likely environment remained to be FE, although with a reduction
380 in its probability of occurrence (40.4 %). For the rest of the RCPs, however, the most likely
381 environment became LFE: 36.6 % probability for RCP 4.5, 41.2 % for RCP 6.0 and 36.8
382 for RCP 8.5. At the same time, HFE also became more likely for all RCPs. In all cases,
383 these changes occurred at the expense of reducing the probability of having FE-type
384 environments, implying increased contrast between high and low yielding upland rice
385 environment groups.

386

387 Homogenisation of drought stress within environments

388 In setting up breeding priorities under climate change for upland rice, it is important to
389 determine not only the TPE-level environment group composition, but also the within-
390 environment-group composition of drought stress patterns. Under historical conditions,
391 three drought stress profiles were found for LFE and FE, and two for HFE. These profiles
392 are typified depending on the intensity of the drought experienced by the crop, as measured
393 by the PCEW (ratio of actual to potential evapotranspiration). Figure 6 and Supplementary
394 Fig. S4 show the yield probability distribution, whereas Figure 7 and Supplementary Fig.
395 S5 show the seasonal variation in PCEW (top rows correspond to the historical period). For

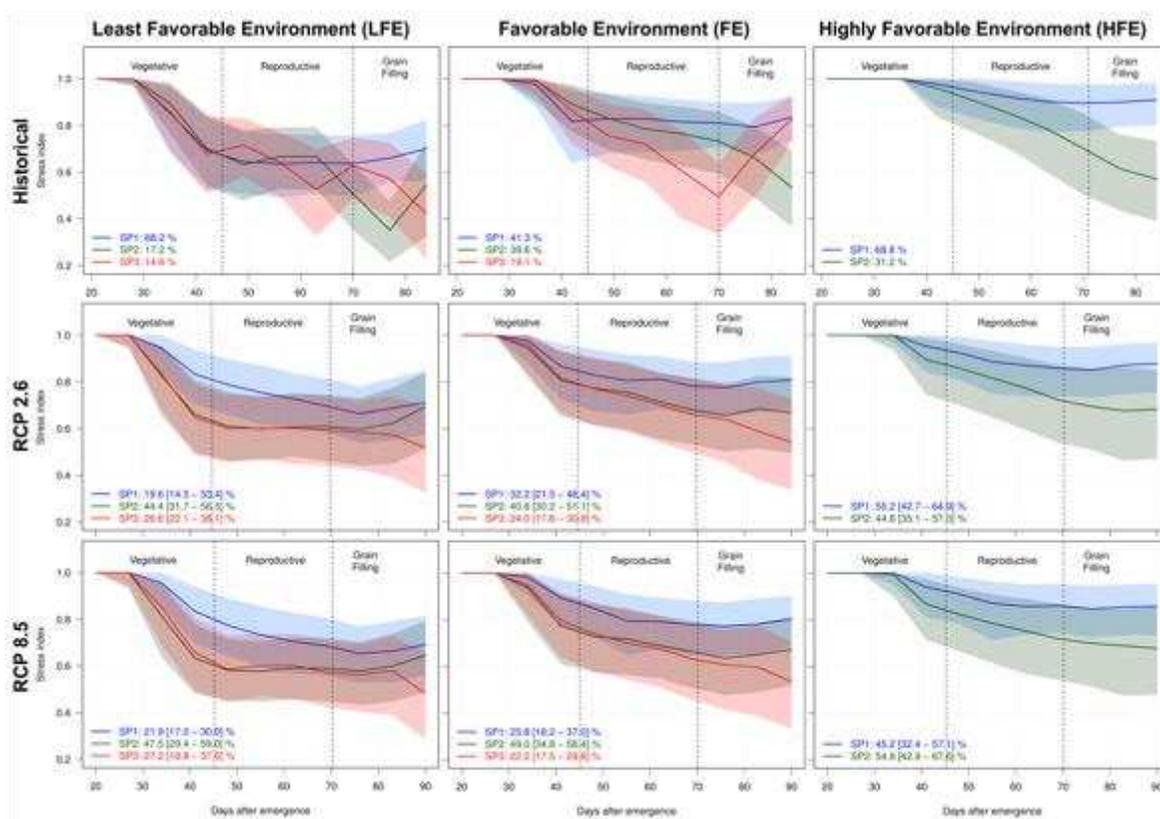
396 LFE, three stress profiles exist, namely, reproductive stress (68 % probability of
 397 occurrence, SP1), reproductive-to-grain filling stress (17 %, SP2), and terminal stress (15
 398 %, SP3). For FE, three stress profiles exist: reproductive stress (41 %, SP1), terminal stress
 399 (40 %, SP2), and severe reproductive stress (19 %, SP3); and for HFE two stress profiles
 400 were found: stress-free (69 %, SP1) and terminal stress (31 %, SP2). In general, despite
 401 differences in the timing of the stress, the intensity of drought is similar across environment
 402 groups. Stress levels, measured as percentage of unsatisfied water demand (i.e. the PCEW),
 403 were typically in the range of 40–60 %.



404
 405 **Figure 6** Cumulative probability density function (CDF) and frequencies of occurrence for upland
 406 rice stress profiles (SP) in the historical period (top row) and in 2050 for RCP 2.6 (middle row) and
 407 RCP 8.5 (bottom row) for all three environment groups: least favourable environment (LFE, left
 408 column), favourable environment (FE, middle column) and highly favourable environment (HFE,
 409 right column). Shading indicates the interquartile range of the future scenario simulations. Vertical
 410 dashed lines indicate the position of the historical median relative to the future climate CDFs for each
 411 environment group. Numbers on the bottom-right of the top row panels indicate the probability of
 412 occurrence of each profile in the environment group, and for the middle and bottom row panels they

413 indicate the median for the RCP, with the interquartile range shown in brackets. CDF plots for RCP
 414 4.5 and RCP 6.0 are shown in Supplementary Fig. S4.

415 Under climate change, we found changes in the composition of each environment group as well as in the
 416 similarity between stress patterns across environment groups. For LFE, two
 417 key differences were observed in the future scenarios with respect to the historical period.
 418 First, there was a three- and two-fold increase in the probabilities of occurrence of SP2
 419 (reproductive-to-grain filling stress) and SP3 (terminal stress), respectively, and a halving
 420 in the probability of SP1 (reproductive stress), indicating a shift in the timing of drought
 421 (Fig. 6, first column). Secondly, SP2 and SP3 became increasingly similar between them,
 422 but more distant to SP1 both regarding yield impact and in the seasonal pattern of PCEW
 423 (Fig. 6-7, first column).



424
 425 **Figure 7** Current and future upland rice stress patterns and frequencies of occurrence in the historical
 426 period (top row) and in 2050 for RCP 2.6 (middle row) and RCP 8.5 (bottom row) for all three
 427 environment groups: least favourable environment (LFE, left column), favourable environment (FE,
 428 middle column) and highly favourable environment (HFE, right column). Shading reflects the

429 interquartile range of the spatio-temporal variation of each stress profile. Numbers on the bottom-
430 right of the top row panels indicate the probability of occurrence of each profile in the environment
431 group, and for the middle and bottom row panels they indicate the median for the RCP, with the
432 interquartile range shown in brackets. Profile plots for RCP 4.5 and RCP 6.0 are shown in
433 Supplementary Fig. S5.

434 For FE, a similar behaviour was observed, whereby SP2 (terminal stress) and SP3 (severe
435 reproductive stress) both became more likely and similar. In this case, the probability of
436 occurrence of SP2 increased by roughly 20 %, whereas that of SP3 increased by roughly 15
437 % (median across the crop-climate ensemble of simulations). In both LFE and FE, SP1
438 (reproductive stress) either increases or maintains its yield levels under future climate
439 scenarios, as a result of reduced stress levels at the beginning of the reproductive period;
440 however, it becomes much less frequent than under historical conditions (ca. 70 %
441 reduction for LFE and 40 % reduction for FE for all RCPs). For HFE, we found a
442 systematic reduction in the probability of occurrence of stress-free conditions (SP1, Fig. 6-
443 7, right column) to the extent that it becomes almost as likely as the terminal stress profile
444 (SP2). At the same time, SP2 becomes less severe. The latter resulted in increased yield for
445 this stress profile.

446

447 At the environment group-level for LFE and FE, therefore, while in the historical period
448 there are three distinct drought stress profiles, results suggest that seasonal drought
449 conditions are likely to become more uniform within these environments under climate
450 change.

451

452 Shifted growing conditions and breeding priorities for upland rice

453 At the TPE level, the above results imply a substantial shift in growing conditions for
454 upland rice, and thus of breeding priorities. In the historical period, there was a general
455 trend for reproductive (52 % overall probability of occurrence) and terminal (29 %) stress
456 to occur separately across the entire upland rice TPE, with only 13 % of probability of
457 occurrence of stress-free conditions and 6 % probability for the crop to jointly experiencing
458 reproductive and grain-filling stress during the season. Under future climate, the probability
459 of occurrence of the joint reproductive and grain-filling stress (i.e. reproductive-to-grain-

460 filling stress) ranged between 25–28 % (depending on the RCP chosen), thus becoming the
461 most important stress after terminal stress (29–40 % overall probability). The probability of
462 reproductive stress reduced to less than half (to 17–21 %, depending on the RCP), whereas
463 the probability of stress-free conditions remained the lowest (12-13 %).

464

465 **Discussion**

466 Implications of projected changes in mean yield and yield stability

467 For upland rice across the savannah region in Brazil, reductions in productivity are
468 expected across most of the TPE, except for the easternmost area (see Fig. 4 and
469 Supplementary Fig. S1). Expected reductions in rice crop yield in these areas have been
470 reported by global studies. A previous global study where gridded simulations of multiple
471 crop models were used reported rice yield declines between 5–10 % by 2100 (Rosenzweig
472 et al., 2014). Another study based on statistical models also reported expected yield losses
473 in the range 3–7 % by 2030 (Lobell et al., 2008). On the contrary, Muller et al. (2015),
474 project little yield impact in Central Brazil. None of these studies, however, reported upland
475 and irrigated rice production systems separately for Brazil, or for other countries or regions,
476 none include or use the ORYZA2000 crop model, and the Lobell et al. (2008) study did not
477 include CO₂ response. Moreover, it is noteworthy that the study of Rosenzweig et al.
478 (2014) reports large uncertainty as a result of the crop model used, with models that
479 consider nitrogen stress showing large yield decreases [also see Webber et al. (2015)]. An
480 earlier global study where the Decision Support System for Agrotechnology Transfer
481 (DSSAT) model was used (Nelson et al., 2010) to perform gridded simulations at a
482 relatively high resolution reported yield decreases between 5–25 % by 2050 in the Brazilian
483 savannah region, though that study assumed cropping systems in the savannah are irrigated.
484 Despite methodological differences, there is some agreement between existing and our
485 estimates of climate change impacts on rice crop yield for the Brazilian savannah region. In
486 addition, the substantial agreement across individual model projections in our analysis
487 suggests our results are robust.

488

489 Increase in yield variability was also projected to occur from climate change

490 (Supplementary Fig. S2). Reduction in yield stability has been reported elsewhere as a

491 major limitation for cropping systems under climate change (Challinor et al., 2014; Porter
492 et al., 2014). To the knowledge of the authors, however, studies specifically addressing
493 climate change impacts on yield variability in rice for Latin America or Brazil, or even
494 globally are scarce or do not exist.

495

496 The implications of high upland rice yield variability and lower mean yield are substantial
497 for both farmers, the national economy, as well as for the global food system (GFS UK,
498 2015). High yield variability and lower mean yield can cause income instability and food
499 insecurity in a region where farmers have limited access to resources and low technology
500 adoption levels (Strauss, 1991; Marcolan et al., 2008). High yield variability under climate
501 change, in particular, will also increase the already high risk of cultivating upland rice,
502 which will likely accelerate the current trend towards reducing upland rice cropped areas
503 (Pinheiro et al., 2006; Marcolan et al., 2008; Ferreira, 2010). Urban centres in Central
504 Brazil can also be impacted due to instability in the flow of produce to the markets and in
505 market prices (Nelson et al., 2010; Chen et al., 2012). Deeper investigation of these
506 impacts is warranted in future studies.

507

508 The area cultivated with upland rice in Central Brazil has been in continuous decline since
509 the early 2000s (Marcolan et al., 2008; Ferreira, 2010). Farmers normally prefer soybean
510 and maize, which are less sensitive to drought stress than rice and count with well-
511 established value chains in the region. The perspective of a less favourable climate only
512 makes it more difficult for upland rice to reverse the trend of declining areas. On the other
513 hand, upland rice is a good option of agronomic rotation with soybean and, in the absence
514 of drought stress, allows similar profitability. Therefore, improving the drought tolerance of
515 upland rice may be the only possibility of maintaining upland rice as a significant
516 component of agricultural systems in Central Brazil. The biological limit of adaptation of
517 this species to drought stress is still unknown.

518

519 Projected changes in crop yield and loss in yield stability will thus bring numerous
520 challenges for upland rice cropping in Brazil, highlighting the need for adaptation.

521 Adaptation strategies for cropping systems are numerous, and range from short-term coping

522 strategies through to longer-term transformations (Rippke et al., 2016). Kim et al. (2013),
523 for temperate rice, found that cultivar and planting date adaptation can counteract negative
524 climate change impacts. For Central Brazil, Heinemann et al. (2015) suggest early planting
525 dates can increase yield. Moreover, efficient breeding and delivery systems are needed
526 under future climate so as to deliver novel varieties that are adapted to and respond well
527 under the specific drought conditions found here (Silva et al., 2009; Breseghello et al.,
528 2011; Challinor et al., 2016).

529

530 Breeding implications of changes in environment groups and stress profiles

531 The current upland rice breeding strategy in Embrapa is composed of two separate breeding
532 programs: (i) the conventional breeding program, focusing on increasing grain yield,
533 stability and adaptability to the undivided TPE; and (ii) a drought tolerance breeding
534 program created in 2004. The conventional breeding program uses two main breeding
535 methods: modified pedigree and recurrent selection. In both methods, the first three
536 generations are conducted in a single location under good environmental conditions (Santo
537 Antonio de Goiás, GO). The fourth generation genotypes ($F_{2:4}$ or $S_{0:2}$) are tested in multi-
538 location trials of at least 5 sites. This implies in exposing the progenies to different local
539 weather conditions, including drought stress. The best progenies, based on the results of
540 these trials' joint statistical analysis, are selected for single plant selection (modified
541 pedigree) or recombination (recurrent selection). With time, the upland rice breeding
542 program is improving its genetic stability while exploiting the GxE interactions through
543 seeking wide adaptability. The same philosophy is applied from generation F_6 to F_{10} of the
544 pedigree method, as the homozygosity gets higher, the number of lines declines, tested in a
545 growing number of sites. The network must represent the TPE, including the stresses that
546 occur routinely (Heinemann et al., 2015). With the modified pedigree methodology and a
547 very broad network represented by the multi-location trials (around 40 trials with F_{10} elite
548 lines in the upland rice production area in Brazil), it is possible to evaluate and select lines
549 with high stability in a wide range of environments. This strategy aims to select high
550 yielding elite lines with the capacity to respond favourably to changes in the environment
551 (i.e. with wide adaptation) and at the same time to have a highly predictable performance in
552 different environmental conditions (Colombari Filho et al., 2013). Currently, the modified

553 pedigree method achieves a yield gain of 2.66 % per cycle (Martinez et al., 2014), but it has
554 a tendency to reduce drought tolerance (Pinheiro et al., 2006; Silveira et al., 2015).

555

556 A drought tolerance breeding program was created in 2004. In such program, the strategy is
557 to select genotypes with high yield potential under optimal conditions that are able to
558 maintain good productivity under drought. This program is conducted in the drought
559 phenotyping site of Porangatu, state of Goiás, Brazil (Martinez et al., 2014). The program
560 started in 2004 with the identification of drought tolerant donors and the cross of those with
561 lines or varieties with a minimum level of drought tolerance. Nowadays, the progenies are
562 in F_{2:4} generations, and the first releases are expected to occur within the next 10 years. All
563 generations are subjected to SP1 and SP2 drought stress patterns.

564

565 Under current climate, we found that unstressed conditions occur roughly 13 % of the time,
566 whereas under future climate we find that this probability of occurrence either remains
567 unchanged or reduces for all RCPs (12 % in RCP 8.5 to 13 % in RCP 2.6). The existing
568 breeding strategy results in high-yielding cultivars with a medium tolerance under stressful
569 conditions, and therefore still leave risks to farmers that adopt such varieties. It enhances
570 wide adaptation and has led to improved genotypic stability, but selection weights equally
571 all stresses, and there is no consideration of environmental co-variables (e.g. weather, soil
572 water contents) in the statistical analysis. Due to the diversity of stresses found, a revised
573 breeding strategy is suggested for upland rice in Brazil both under current and future
574 climate.

575

576 The results shown in this work will improve the breeding program to deal with climate
577 changes aiming to deliver cultivars adapted to the new TPE. Foremost, the early evaluation
578 should be done in sites of the multi-location network chosen based on our clustering
579 analysis of historical and future yield (also see Heinemann et al. 2015), in which the upland
580 area is classified in HFE, FE and LFE. Combining that with the weather data evaluation
581 from each site, will make a detailed weighted selection possible. A better process of
582 selection will help breeders to select the desired progenies, lines, cultivars adapted to the
583 future. Another improvement in the breeding program could be the modification in the

584 drought stress protocol normally used in drought phenotyping site of Porangatu to apply the
585 same type of stress predicted for 2050.

586

587 Under current climate, a differentiated strategy that isolates drought stress profiles is
588 recommended, since this would allow to control for GxE interactions (Heinemann et al.,
589 2015, 2016). The best strategy under current conditions would be: for HFE, specific
590 adaptation to stress-free conditions (i.e. selection for yield potential); for FE, wide
591 adaptation to drought, or selection for yield under drought, weighted by the probability of
592 different drought profile conditions; and for LFE, specific adaptation to reproductive
593 drought stress, or a weighted selection strategy as in FE.

594

595 Results presented here indicated that the selection strategy can be adjusted. For HFE, a
596 weighted selection strategy whereby genotypes are tested both under stress-free and
597 terminal stress conditions may be needed, since these two stress profiles each have ~50 %
598 probability of occurrence. For FE, selection should aim at testing under reproductive
599 (probability of occurrence 62–70 %) and terminal stress (ca. 30–38 %) and then weighting
600 genotype performance according to these probabilities. For LFE, breeders could also adopt
601 a weighted selection strategy, but trials should be conducted for response to reproductive
602 stress (20–25 % probability) and for the joint occurrence of reproductive and terminal stress
603 (75–80 %). As demonstrated by previous studies (though on a different cereal crop),
604 weighted selection can help isolating the environmental components of observed drought
605 impacts from the genotypic component, thus allowing for quicker breeding gains under
606 stressful environments (Chenu et al., 2011). Stress levels were similar across environments,
607 with the percentage of unsatisfied water demand being typically in the range of 40–60 %.

608

609 It is noteworthy that we have focused only on one genotype (Primavera), whereas
610 environment groups and stress patterns may depend on the type of cultivars grown by the
611 farmers (i.e. GxE interaction). While Primavera is currently used as a check cultivar in the
612 conventional breeding program and is hence representative of genotypes released to the
613 public, clearly, as a result of the breeding process at Embrapa, changes have occurred and
614 will continue to occur in the characteristics of the germplasm released and grown by

615 farmers in the last 30-40 years, leading to changes in the environments and stress patterns.
616 In particular, during 1980s and 1990s a major shift from releasing landraces (e.g. cv.
617 Douradão) to releasing modern cultivars (e.g. cv. Primavera) occurred in the breeding
618 program, whereas in late 1990s wide hybridizations were carried out, introducing indica
619 genes into a predominant japonica background with significant increase of yield potential
620 especially under highly favorable conditions (Martinez et al., 2014). These activities have
621 resulted in cultivars with longer growing cycle, and lower root length density, but generally
622 less drought tolerance (Pinheiro et al., 2006; Breseghello et al., 2011). In fact, cv.
623 Primavera has been reported to be more drought sensitive than its predecessors (Pinheiro et
624 al., 2006; Heinemann et al., 2011; Silveira et al., 2015). Further changes will likely
625 continue to occur as upland rice breeding continues in Brazil, especially as genotypes
626 developed by the drought-tolerant breeding program created in 2004 are released and
627 adopted. Therefore, while we argue that the current production situation in central Brazil is
628 well represented by cv. Primavera, continuous updating of environmental groups and stress
629 patterns will be required in the next decades. Future studies that include a wider variety of
630 varieties, with different levels of drought tolerance and different growing cycles can help in
631 analysing the genotypic dependencies of the environmental and stress types identified here.
632 These will further help the breeding program in designing selection trials and defining the
633 selection strategy.

634

635 The costs of conducting breeding and selection trials for a wide range of drought conditions
636 to be able to weight genotype selection across the entire TPE could, however, constrain its
637 applicability. This is particularly true for publicly funded breeding programs. In such
638 situations, a viable option for each environment type or even for the undivided TPE would
639 be to develop genotypes with wide adaptation to drought. Drought tolerance in upland rice
640 can be achieved by selecting for high grain yield in stress environments, or by using
641 marker-assisted selection on less complex traits (Bernier et al., 2008). An example of this
642 strategy comes from the upland rice in Brazil. The last variety released, BRS Esmeralda, is
643 the first variety from Embrapa's breeding program with drought tolerance. BRS Esmeralda
644 was directly selected under a variety of weather conditions, including drought stress. Its
645 high stability is shown by Colombari (Colombari Filho et al., 2013). Additionally, success

646 in other publicly-funded breeding programs such as those of maize in Africa and common
647 beans in Central America and Africa provides evidence of the potential for breeding
648 drought-tolerant materials for adaptation to climate variability and change (Beebe et al.,
649 2011; Cairns et al., 2013).

650

651 Identifying the key physio-morphological traits that confer drought tolerance is also critical
652 for the efficient selection of genetic material in breeding trials. Although more research will
653 be required for a complete understanding of which traits are desirable for a specific
654 environment and drought pattern, existing research suggests that improved root
655 characteristics, shorter cycles (i.e. drought escape), osmotic adjustment, as well as quicker
656 and larger assimilate translocation from stems to panicles would likely be desirable traits to
657 improve drought responses (Fukai & Cooper, 1995; Dingkuhn et al., 2015).

658

659 Uncertainty and decision making in breeding programs

660 Model projections of climate change impacts can help guide decisions on adaptation
661 (Ranger & Garbett-Shiels, 2011), and, in this case, help establishing clear targets for the
662 upland rice breeding program in Brazil. Large uncertainty in model projections, however,
663 can preclude these decisions (Vermeulen et al., 2013). Hence, further to what has been
664 discussed above on the representativeness of cv. Primavera, limitations arise in our
665 analysis, most notably, because future climate projections are inherently uncertain, and
666 because, as in any model-based analysis, the crop model used does not capture crop
667 response perfectly (e.g. limitations in simulating CO₂ response, heat stress, or site-specific
668 farmer management). Here, we accounted for a range of uncertainty sources, namely,
669 emissions pathways (RCPs), simulated climate sensitivity (using multiple GCMs), bias
670 correction methods, and rice crop response to enhanced CO₂ concentrations. Importantly,
671 our study is one of the first crop simulation studies that explicitly quantifies the response of
672 the crop CO₂ concentrations and of different bias correction methods [also see Ramirez-
673 Villegas and Challinor (2016)]. Agreement across model projections of yield and yield
674 stability was found throughout most of the upland rice TPE (see Fig. 4C, D). Also, despite
675 variability across crop-climate model projections for environment-specific yield
676 distributions and drought profiles, differences between the medians were substantial, and

677 overlaps between uncertainty bounds were small, indicating our results are robust towards
678 modelling uncertainties (Fig. 5-6). Recent studies have also shown that predictability can be
679 achieved for certain crop processes (Challinor et al., 2016), at long timescales (Rippke et
680 al., 2016), or for certain model outcomes [e.g. adaptation vs. no adaptation, Ramirez-
681 Villegas and Challinor (2016); Porter et al. (2014)]. The latter studies are particularly
682 relevant to our analysis, since they specifically emphasise that while uncertainty is
683 prevalent in model projections of crop yield, there is robustness as to the direction and
684 impact of adaptation strategies. Nevertheless, we argue that, despite the uncertainties and
685 limitations, the benefits of breeding drought-tolerant upland rice will be substantial during
686 the 21st century. If the current level of drought tolerance is not improved, upland rice may
687 be replaced by other, more drought tolerant, cash crops.

688

689 **Conclusions**

690 In this study, we assessed changes in the prevalence and intensity of drought stress due to
691 climate change for upland rice in central Brazil, with a view on the implications that these
692 changes have on the current breeding strategy for upland rice in Brazil. In the face of
693 climate change-induced decreases in mean yield and losses in yield stability, our results
694 suggest that the current strategy of the breeding program can be improved to minimize the
695 impact of drought stress on new cultivars.

696

697 Under climate change scenarios, based on our results and on those of a previous study that
698 focused on historical climates (Heinemann et al., 2015), we recommend a weighted
699 selection strategy for all the environment groups in the TPE. Although only economic ex-
700 ante and/or ex-post technology impact assessments will allow determining whether it is
701 economically feasible to change the current breeding strategy to be modified, it is necessary
702 to consider future projected climatic conditions in the breeding pipeline. Improving the
703 adaptive traits of germplasm to respond better under drought stress will ultimately facilitate
704 upland rice systems adaptation to climate change, improving food security and farmer
705 livelihoods.

706

707 There are a variety of future research avenues that could be pursued based on the results
708 presented here. Although the ORYZA2000 model already simulates heat stress, future
709 studies could use available and/or new experimental data to evaluate heat stress response in
710 the model, and then use it to quantify the occurrence of heat-stressed environments. Heat
711 has been reported as being of major importance for rice globally (Teixeira et al., 2013; van
712 Oort et al., 2015), and specifically also for the southern part of the upland rice TPE studied
713 here (Teixeira et al., 2013). Future work could also involve the validation of the growing
714 environments reported here with field trials, and the determination of potential parents and
715 physio-morphological traits that are key for drought tolerance. Finally, clearly, the drought
716 stress profiles and yield environments that we find can change as new cultivars become
717 available and adopted, and future analyses will be required to determine if the breeding
718 strategy is indeed on track, and yield progress is being made under the different drought
719 types that exist in the target region.

720

721 **Acknowledgments**

722 This work was implemented as part of the CGIAR Research Program on Climate Change,
723 Agriculture and Food Security (CCAFS), which is carried out with support from CGIAR
724 Fund Donors and through bilateral funding agreements. For details please
725 visit <https://ccafs.cgiar.org/donors>. The views expressed in this paper cannot be taken to
726 reflect the official opinions of these organizations. We also acknowledge support by the
727 CGIAR Research Program on RICE. Authors thank Jaime Tarapues for help with scripting
728 GCM bias correction functions. We acknowledge the World Climate Research
729 Programme's Working Group on Coupled Modelling, which is responsible for CMIP, and
730 we thank the climate modelling groups (listed in Supplementary Table S1 of this paper) for
731 producing and making available their model output. For CMIP the U.S. Department of
732 Energy's Program for Climate Model Diagnosis and Intercomparison provides coordinating
733 support and led development of software infrastructure in partnership with the Global
734 Organization for Earth System Science Portals.

735

736 **References**

737 Beebe S, Ramirez-Villegas J, Jarvis A, Rao IM, Mosquera G, Bueno JM, Blair MW (2011)

- 738 Chapter 16: Genetic Improvement of Common Beans and the Challenges of Climate
739 Change (eds Yadav S, Redden R, Hatfield JL, Lotze-Campen H, Hall A). Wiley &
740 Sons.
- 741 Benedetti MM, Sparovek G, Cooper M, Curi N, Carvalho Filho A de (2008)
742 Representatividade e potencial de utilização de um banco de dados de solos do Brasil.
743 Revista Brasileira de Ciência do Solo, **32**, 2591–2600.
- 744 Bernier J, Atlin GN, Serraj R, Kumar A, Spaner D (2008) Breeding upland rice for drought
745 resistance. *Journal of the Science of Food and Agriculture*, **88**, 927–939.
- 746 Bouman BAM, Kropff MJ, Tuong TP, Wopereis MCS, Berge HFM ten, Laar HH van
747 (2001) ORYZA2000: modeling lowland rice. International Rice Research Institute, Los
748 Baños, Philippines, 235 pp.
- 749 Breseghello F, de Moraes OP, Pinheiro PV et al. (2011) Results of 25 Years of Upland Rice
750 Breeding in Brazil. *Crop Science*, **51**, 914.
- 751 Cairns JE, Crossa J, Zaidi PH et al. (2013) Identification of drought, heat, and combined
752 drought and heat tolerant donors in maize. *Crop Science*, **53**, 1335–1346.
- 753 Cassman KG (1999) Ecological intensification of cereal production systems: Yield
754 potential, soil quality, and precision agriculture. *Proceedings of the National Academy
755 of Sciences*, **96**, 5952–5959.
- 756 Challinor AJ, Watson J, Lobell DB, Howden SM, Smith DR, Chhetri N (2014) A meta-
757 analysis of crop yield under climate change and adaptation. *Nature Clim. Change*, **4**,
758 287–291.
- 759 Challinor AJ, Koehler A-K, Ramirez-Villegas J, Whitfield S, Das B (2016) Current
760 warming will reduce yields unless maize breeding and seed systems adapt
761 immediately. *Nature Climate Change*, **6**, 954–958.
- 762 Chen C-C, McCarl B, Chang C-C (2012) Climate change, sea level rise and rice: global
763 market implications. *Climatic Change*, **110**, 543–560.
- 764 Chenu K, Cooper M, Hammer GL, Mathews KL, Dreccer MF, Chapman SC (2011)
765 Environment characterization as an aid to wheat improvement: interpreting genotype-
766 environment interactions by modelling water-deficit patterns in North-Eastern
767 Australia. *Journal of Experimental Botany*, **62**, 1743–1755.
- 768 Collins M, Knutti R, Arblaster J et al. (2013) Long-term Climate Change: Projections,
769 Commitments and and Irreversibility. In: *Climate Change 2013: The Physical Science
770 Basis. Contribution of Working Group I to the Fifth Assessment Report of the
771 Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change* (eds Stocker TF, Qin D, Plattner G-K,
772 Tignor M, Allen SK, Boschung J, Nauels A, Xia Y, Bex V, Midgley PM). Cambridge
773 University Press, Cambridge, United Kingdom and New York, NY, USA.
- 774 Colombari Filho JM, de Resende MDV, de Moraes OP et al. (2013) Upland rice breeding in
775 Brazil: a simultaneous genotypic evaluation of stability, adaptability and grain yield.
776 *Euphytica*, **192**, 117–129.
- 777 Dingkuhn M, Laza MRC, Kumar U et al. (2015) Improving yield potential of tropical rice:
778 Achieved levels and perspectives through improved ideotypes. *Field Crops Research*,
779 **182**, 43–59.

- 780 FAO (2010) *The State of Food Insecurity in the World* (ed FAO). FAO, Rome, Italy.
- 781 Ferreira CM (2010) Overcoming technical despotism in the upland rice productive chain.
782 In: *Proceedings of the International Symposium Innovation and Sustainable*
783 *Development in Agriculture and Food*, 28 June–1 July. Montpellier, France.
- 784 Fitzgerald MA, Resurreccion AP (2009) Maintaining the yield of edible rice in a warming
785 world. *Functional Plant Biology*, **36**, 1037–1045.
- 786 Fukai S, Cooper M (1995) Development of drought-resistant cultivars using
787 physiomorphological traits in rice. *Field Crops Research*, **40**, 67–86.
- 788 GFS UK (2015) *Extreme weather and resilience of the global food system. Final Project*
789 *Report from the UK-US Taskforce on Extreme Weather and Global Food System*
790 *Resilience*.
- 791 Harrison MT, Tardieu F, Dong Z, Messina CD, Hammer GL (2014) Characterizing drought
792 stress and trait influence on maize yield under current and future conditions. *Global*
793 *Change Biology*, **20**, 867–878.
- 794 Hawkins E, Osborne TM, Ho CK, Challinor AJ (2013) Calibration and bias correction of
795 climate projections for crop modelling: an idealised case study over Europe.
796 *Agricultural and Forest Meteorology*, **170**, 19–31.
- 797 Heinemann A., Hoogenboom G, de Faria R. (2002) Determination of spatial water
798 requirements at county and regional levels using crop models and GIS. *Agricultural*
799 *Water Management*, **52**, 177–196.
- 800 Heinemann AB, Dingkuhn M, Luquet D, Combres JC, Chapman S (2008) Characterization
801 of drought stress environments for upland rice and maize in central Brazil. *Euphytica*,
802 **162**, 395–410.
- 803 Heinemann AB, Stone LF, Fageria NK (2011) Transpiration rate response to water deficit
804 during vegetative and reproductive phases of upland rice cultivars. *Scientia Agricola*,
805 **68**, 24–30.
- 806 Heinemann AB, Barrios-Perez C, Ramirez-Villegas J, Arango-Londono D, Bonilla-Findji
807 O, Medeiros JC, Jarvis A (2015) Variation and impact of drought-stress patterns
808 across upland rice target population of environments in Brazil. *Journal of*
809 *Experimental Botany*, **66**, 3625–3638.
- 810 Heinemann AB, Ramirez-Villegas J, Souza TLPO, Didonet AD, di Stefano JG, Boote KJ,
811 Jarvis A (2016) Drought impact on rainfed common bean production areas in Brazil.
812 *Agricultural and Forest Meteorology*, **225**, 57–74.
- 813 Hijmans RJ, Serraj R (2008) Modeling spatial and temporal variation of drought in rice
814 production. In: *Drought Frontiers in Rice: Crop Improvement for increased Rainfed*
815 *Production* (eds Serraj R, Bennet J, Hardy B), pp. 19–29. IRRI, Manila, Philippines.
- 816 Husson F, Lê S, Pagès J (2011) *Exploratory multivariate analysis by example using R*.
817 CRC Press, Boca Raton, FL, USA.
- 818 Jagadish SVK, Craufurd PQ, Wheeler TR (2007) High temperature stress and spikelet
819 fertility in rice (*Oryza sativa* L.). *Journal of Experimental Botany*, **58**, 1627–1635.
- 820 Kamoshita A, Babu RC, Boopathi NM, Fukai S (2008) Phenotypic and genotypic analysis

- 821 of drought resistant traits for development of rice cultivars adapted to rainfed
822 environments. *Field Crops Research*, **109**, 1–23.
- 823 Kearney J (2010) Food consumption trends and drivers. *Philosophical Transactions of the*
824 *Royal Society B: Biological Sciences*, **365**, 2793–2807.
- 825 Khoury CK, Bjorkman AD, Dempewolf H et al. (2014) Increasing homogeneity in global
826 food supplies and the implications for food security. *Proceedings of the National*
827 *Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, **111**, 4001–6.
- 828 Kim H-Y, Ko J, Kang S, Tenhunen J (2013) Impacts of climate change on paddy rice yield
829 in a temperate climate. *Global Change Biology*, **19**, 548–562.
- 830 Kimball BA (2016) Crop responses to elevated CO₂ and interactions with H₂O, N, and
831 temperature. *Current Opinion in Plant Biology*, **31**, 36–43.
- 832 Koehler A-K, Challinor AJ, Hawkins E, Asseng S (2013) Influences of increasing
833 temperature on Indian wheat: quantifying limits to predictability. *Environmental*
834 *Research Letters*, **8**, 34016.
- 835 Krishnan P, Swain DK, Chandra Bhaskar B, Nayak SK, Dash RN (2007) Impact of
836 elevated CO₂ and temperature on rice yield and methods of adaptation as evaluated by
837 crop simulation studies. *Agriculture, Ecosystems & Environment*, **122**, 233–242.
- 838 Lafitte HR, Bennett J, Tuong TP (2006) Preparing rice for a water-limited future: From
839 molecular to regional scale. *Field Crops Research*, **97**, 1–2.
- 840 Li T, Raman AK, Marcaida M, Kumar A, Angeles O, Radanielson AM (2013) Simulation
841 of genotype performances across a larger number of environments for rice breeding
842 using ORYZA2000. *Field Crops Research*, **149**, 312–321.
- 843 Li T, Hasegawa T, Yin X et al. (2015) Uncertainties in predicting rice yield by current crop
844 models under a wide range of climatic conditions. *Global Change Biology*, **21**, 1328–
845 1341.
- 846 Lobell DB, Burke MB, Tebaldi C, Mastrandrea MD, Falcon WP, Naylor RL (2008)
847 Prioritizing Climate Change Adaptation Needs for Food Security in 2030. *Science*,
848 **319**, 607–610.
- 849 Lobell DB, Hammer GL, Chenu K, Zheng B, McLean G, Chapman SC (2015) The shifting
850 influence of drought and heat stress for crops in northeast Australia. *Global Change*
851 *Biology*, **21**, 4115–4127.
- 852 Long SP, Ainsworth EA, Leakey ADB, Nösberger J, Ort DR (2006) Food for Thought:
853 Lower-Than-Expected Crop Yield Stimulation with Rising CO₂ Concentrations.
854 *Science*, **312**, 1918–1921.
- 855 Marcolan AL, Ramalho AR, Texeira CAD et al. (2008) *Sistema de produção de arroz de*
856 *terras altas* (ed Utumi MM). Porto Velho, RO, Brazil, 31 pp.
- 857 Martinez CP, Torres EA, Chatel M et al. (2014) Rice Breeding in Latin America. In: *Plant*
858 *Breeding Reviews: Volume 38, Vol. 38* (ed Janick J), pp. 187–278. John Wiley &
859 Sons, Inc., Hoboken, New Jersey.
- 860 Müller C, Elliott J, Chryssanthacopoulos J, Deryng D, Folberth C, Pugh TAM, Schmid E
861 (2015) Implications of climate mitigation for future agricultural production.

862 Environmental Research Letters, **10**, 125004.

863 Nelson GC, Rosegrant M, Palazzo A et al. (2010) Food Security, Farming and Climate
864 Change to 2050: Scenarios, Results and Policy Options. International Food Policy
865 Research Institute, Washinton D.C., USA, 131 pp.

866 van Oort PAJ, de Vries ME, Yoshida H, Saito K (2015) Improved Climate Risk
867 Simulations for Rice in Arid Environments (ed Munderloh UG). PLOS ONE, **10**,
868 e0118114.

869 Peng S, Huang J, Sheehy JE et al. (2004) Rice yields decline with higher night temperature
870 from global warming. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United
871 States of America, **101**, 9971–9975.

872 Pinheiro B da S, Castro E da M de, Guimarães CM (2006) Sustainability and profitability
873 of aerobic rice production in Brazil. Field Crops Research, **97**, 34–42.

874 Porter JR, Xie L, Challinor AJ et al. (2014) Chapter 7. Food Security and Food Production
875 Systems. Climate Change 2014: Impacts, Adaptation and Vulnerability. Working
876 Group II Contribution to the IPCC 5th Assessment Report. Geneva, Switzerland, 1-82
877 pp.

878 Rabello AR, Guimaraes CM, Rangel PHN et al. (2008) Identification of drought-responsive
879 genes in roots of upland rice (*Oryza sativa* L). BMC Genomics, **9**, 485.

880 R Core Team (2016) R: A language and environment for statistical computing.

881 Ramirez-Villegas J, Challinor AJ (2016) Towards a genotypic adaptation strategy for
882 Indian groundnut cultivation using an ensemble of crop simulations. Climatic Change,
883 **138**, 223–238.

884 Ramirez-Villegas J, Challinor AJ, Thornton PK, Jarvis A (2013) Implications of regional
885 improvement in global climate models for agricultural impact research. Environmental
886 Research Letters, **8**, 24018.

887 Ramirez-Villegas J, Watson J, Challinor AJ (2015) Identifying traits for genotypic
888 adaptation using crop models. Journal of Experimental Botany, **66**, 3451–3462.

889 Ranger N, Garbett-Shiels S-L (2011) How can decision-makers in developing countries
890 incorporate uncertainty about future climate risks into existing planning and
891 policymaking processes? Centre for Climate Change Economics and Policy; Gantham
892 Research Institute on Climate Change and the Environment; World Resources Report.

893 Richardson CW, Wright DA (1984) WGEN: a model for generating daily weather
894 variables. Washington, DC, USA.

895 Rippke U, Ramirez-Villegas J, Jarvis A et al. (2016) Timescales of transformational
896 climate change adaptation in sub-Saharan African agriculture. Nature Climate
897 Change, **6**, 605–609.

898 Rosenzweig C, Elliott J, Deryng D et al. (2014) Assessing agricultural risks of climate
899 change in the 21st century in a global gridded crop model intercomparison.
900 Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America,
901 **111**, 3268–73.

902 Serraj R, Atlin G (2008) Drought resistant rice for increased rainfed production and poverty

903 alleviation: a concept note. In: *Drought Frontiers in Rice: Crop Improvement for*
904 *Increased Rainfed Production* (eds Serraj R, Bennett J, Hardy B), pp. 385–400. IRRI,
905 Manila, Philippines.

906 Silva EA da, Soratto RP, Adriano E, Biscaro GA (2009) Avaliação de cultivares de arroz de
907 terras altas sob condições de sequeiro em Cassilândia, MS. *Ciência e Agrotecnologia*,
908 **33**, 298–304.

909 Silveira RDD, Abreu FRM, Mamidi S et al. (2015) Expression of drought tolerance genes
910 in tropical upland rice cultivars (*Oryza sativa*). *Genetics and Molecular Research*, **14**,
911 8181–8200.

912 Strauss J (1991) Role of education and extension in the adoption of technology: A study of
913 upland rice and soybean farmers in Central-West Brazil. *Agricultural Economics*, **5**,
914 341–359.

915 Taylor KE, Stouffer RJ, Meehl GA (2012) An Overview of CMIP5 and the Experiment
916 Design. *Bulletin of the American Meteorological Society*, **93**, 485–498.

917 Teixeira EI, Fischer G, Van Velthuizen H, Walter C, Ewert F (2013) Global hot-spots of
918 heat stress on agricultural crops due to climate change. *Agricultural and Forest*
919 *Meteorology*, **170**, 206–215.

920 Tilman D, Clark M (2014) Global diets link environmental sustainability and human health.
921 *Nature*, **515**, 518–522.

922 Vermeulen SJ, Challinor AJ, Thornton PK et al. (2013) Addressing uncertainty in
923 adaptation planning for agriculture. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*
924 *of the United States of America*, **110**, 8357–62.

925 Ward JH (1963) Hierarchical Grouping to Optimize an Objective Function. *Journal of the*
926 *American Statistical Association*, **58**, 236.

927 Webber H, Zhao G, Wolf J et al. (2015) Climate change impacts on European crop yields:
928 Do we need to consider nitrogen limitation? *European Journal of Agronomy*, **71**, 123–
929 134.

930 Weedon GP, Gomes S, Viterbo P et al. (2011) Creation of the WATCH Forcing Data and
931 Its Use to Assess Global and Regional Reference Crop Evaporation over Land during
932 the Twentieth Century. *Journal of Hydrometeorology*, **12**, 823–848.

933 Zhao C, Piao S, Wang X et al. (2016) Plausible rice yield losses under future climate
934 warming. *Nature Plants*, **3**, 16202.

935

936

937 **Figure captions**

938

939 **Figure 1** Upland rice study area in central Brazil. The area, also referred to as a Target
940 Population of Environments (TPE), is formed by the states of Rondônia (RO), Mato Grosso
941 (MT), Goiás (GO), and Tocantins (TO). The distribution of weather stations (red dots),
942 their respective sub-regions (blue polygons), and the distribution of soil data used to
943 construct the soil scenarios (light grey dots) are also shown.

944

945 **Figure 2** Projected changes in seasonal mean temperature (left) and seasonal total
946 precipitation (right) across the upland rice growing region, for the period 2041-2065, relative
947 to 1981-2005, for the rice growing season (November to January). Bold numbers in the
948 precipitation plots indicate the percentage of GCM projections that agree in the direction of
949 change.

950

951 **Figure 3** Historical mean yield (A) and coefficient of variation (B), as simulated with the
952 ORYZA2000 model.

953

954 **Figure 4** Median projected change in mean yield by 2050s (A, B) and model agreement (C,
955 D) for RCP 2.6 (A, C) and RCP 8.5 (B, D) expressed as difference (in kg ha^{-1}) with respect
956 to the historical mean yield. Model agreement (C, D) is calculated as the percentage of
957 simulations out of the 384 future scenario simulations (8 sowing dates x 12 GCMs x 2 BC
958 methods x 2 CO_2 parameterisations) that agree in the direction of the change with the median
959 projected change that is shown in A and C. Results for RCP 4.5 and RCP 6.0 are in
960 Supplementary Fig. S1.

961

962 **Figure 5** Current and future upland rice environment groups and their associated cumulative
963 probability density function (CDF) and frequencies of occurrence in the historical period (A)
964 and in 2050 for RCP 2.6 (B) and RCP 8.5 (C). Shading indicates the interquartile range of
965 the future scenario simulations. Vertical dashed lines indicate the position of the historical
966 median relative to the future climate CDFs for each environment group. The horizontal black
967 line indicates the median (50th percentile). Numbers on the bottom-right of panel (A) indicate

968 the probability of occurrence of each environment group, and for panels (B, C) they indicate
969 the median for the RCP, with the interquartile range shown in brackets. CDF plots for RCP
970 4.5 and RCP 6.0 are shown in Supplementary Fig. S3.

971

972 **Figure 6** Cumulative probability density function (CDF) and frequencies of occurrence for
973 upland rice stress profiles (SP) in the historical period (top row) and in 2050 for RCP 2.6
974 (middle row) and RCP 8.5 (bottom row) for all three environment groups: least favourable
975 environment (LFE, left column), favourable environment (FE, middle column) and highly
976 favourable environment (HFE, right column). Shading indicates the interquartile range of the
977 future scenario simulations. Vertical dashed lines indicate the position of the historical
978 median relative to the future climate CDFs for each environment group. Numbers on the
979 bottom-right of the top row panels indicate the probability of occurrence of each profile in
980 the environment group, and for the middle and bottom row panels they indicate the median
981 for the RCP, with the interquartile range shown in brackets. CDF plots for RCP 4.5 and RCP
982 6.0 are shown in Supplementary Fig. S4.

983

984 **Figure 7** Current and future upland rice stress patterns and frequencies of occurrence in the
985 historical period (top row) and in 2050 for RCP 2.6 (middle row) and RCP 8.5 (bottom row)
986 for all three environment groups: least favourable environment (LFE, left column),
987 favourable environment (FE, middle column) and highly favourable environment (HFE, right
988 column). Shading reflects the interquartile range of the spatio-temporal variation of each
989 stress profile. Numbers on the bottom-right of the top row panels indicate the probability of
990 occurrence of each profile in the environment group, and for the middle and bottom row
991 panels they indicate the median for the RCP, with the interquartile range shown in brackets.
992 Profile plots for RCP 4.5 and RCP 6.0 are shown in Supplementary Fig. S5.

993