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1 Research paper

2 Running title: Climate change and wheat protein

3

4 **Climate change impact and adaptation for wheat protein**

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43

44 **Abstract**

45 Wheat grain protein concentration is an important determinant of wheat quality for human
46 nutrition that is often overlooked in efforts to improve crop production. We tested and applied a

1 32-multi-model ensemble to simulate global wheat yield and quality in a changing climate.
2 Potential benefits of elevated atmospheric CO₂ concentration by 2050 on global wheat grain and
3 protein yield are likely to be negated by impacts from rising temperature and changes in rainfall,
4 but with considerable disparities between regions. Grain and protein yields are expected to be
5 lower and more variable in most low-rainfall regions, with nitrogen availability limiting growth
6 stimulus from elevated CO₂. Introducing genotypes adapted to warmer temperatures (and also
7 considering changes in CO₂ and rainfall) could boost global wheat yield by 7% and protein yield
8 by 2%, but grain protein concentration would be reduced by -1.1 percentage points, representing
9 a relative change of -8.6%. Climate change adaptations that benefit grain yield are not always
10 positive for grain quality, putting additional pressure on global wheat production.

11

12 *Keywords:* food security, climate change impact, climate change adaptation, grain protein, wheat

13

14 **Introduction**

15 If current trends in human population growth and food consumption continue (Bajželj *et al.*,
16 2014), crop production must be increased by 60% by mid-century to meet food demands and
17 reduce hunger (Godfray *et al.*, 2010), but climate change will make this task more difficult
18 (Olesen *et al.*, 2011, Porter *et al.*, 2014, Waha *et al.*, 2013, Wheeler & Von Braun, 2013). Crop
19 models are used to simulate crop growth and development from local up to global scales to assist
20 in climate change impact assessments (Chenu *et al.*, 2017) and to evaluate agricultural adaptation
21 options (Ruiz-Ramos *et al.*, 2017), for example, to investigate potential effects of altering crop
22 management, like sowing crops earlier or later in the season (Porter *et al.*, 2014) or growing
23 cultivars with different crop traits (Semenov & Stratonovitch, 2015, Tao *et al.*, 2017b). A
24 growing number of studies describe climate change impacts on crop yield, but the impacts on the
25 nutritional value of the crops have received much less attention even though this is a critical
26 aspect of food security (Haddad *et al.*, 2016). Grain protein concentration, the ratio of grain
27 protein amount to grain yield, is an important characteristic affecting the nutritional quality but
28 also the end-use value and baking properties of wheat flour (Shewry & Halford, 2002).
29 Globally, wheat provides 20% of protein for humans (Tilman *et al.*, 2011). Grain protein
30 concentration, like yield, depends on a combination of factors such as the crop genotype, soil,

1 crop management, atmospheric CO₂ concentration and weather conditions (Triboi *et al.*, 2006,
2 Wieser *et al.*, 2008). Elevated CO₂ concentration alone can increase the total amount of protein
3 in grain (Broberg *et al.*, 2017), but reduces its concentration (Broberg *et al.*, 2017, Myers *et al.*,
4 2014). Grain protein concentration increases with drought stress and higher temperatures as a
5 result of reduced starch accumulation (Triboi *et al.*, 2006).

6 We aimed to systematically study the combined effects of CO₂, water, nitrogen (N) and
7 temperature on wheat grain protein concentration in a changing climate for the world's main
8 wheat producing regions as part of the Agricultural Model Intercomparison and Improvement
9 Project (AgMIP) (Rosenzweig *et al.*, 2013). This is the most comprehensive study ever done of
10 the effect of climate change on yield and the nutritional quality of one of the three major sources
11 of human food security and nutrition (the others being rice and maize). We previously
12 demonstrated that large ensembles of wheat models accurately simulate wheat yield under
13 different environmental conditions, and especially under high temperatures (Asseng *et al.*, 2015).
14 Here, we used a crop model ensemble to estimate the impact of climate change and a potential
15 adaptation to such changes on global grain protein. To see if crop models can simulate the
16 impact of climate change adequately, we first tested whether an ensemble of 32 different wheat
17 models could reproduce the effects of increased temperature, heat shocks, elevated atmospheric
18 CO₂ concentration, water deficit and the combination of these factors on yield and particularly
19 on grain protein. As there have been many climate change impact studies without adaptation and
20 studies testing the sensitivity of hypothetical traits, here, we included a trait adaptation option
21 based on realistic traits from a wide range of field observations that justify the existence of
22 unique heat stress tolerance traits in wheat.

23

24 **Materials and Methods**

25 *Crop Models*

26 Thirty-two wheat crop models (Supplementary Table S1) were compared within the Agricultural
27 Model Intercomparison and Improvement Project (AgMIP; www.agmip.org), using two data sets
28 from quality-assessed field experiments (sentinel site data) and then applied at representative

1 locations across the world. 18 of these models simulated grain protein. All model simulations
2 were executed by the individual modeling groups.

3

4 ***Field experiments for model testing***

5 Two field/chamber experiments (INRA, FACE Australia) were used for model testing.

6

7 *INRA temperature experiment*

8 The response of the winter wheat cultivar Récital to heat shocks (i.e., 2 to 4 consecutive days
9 with maximum air temperature of 38°C) during the grain filling period was studied during three
10 winter growing seasons at INRA Clermont-Ferrand, France (45.8° N, 3.2° E, 329 m elevation)
11 (Majoul-Haddad *et al.*, 2013, Triboi & Triboi-Blondel, 2002). For details see Supplementary
12 Materials and Methods.

13

14 *FACE Australia experiment (CO₂ × temperature × water)*

15 FACE data were obtained from selected treatments from a designed experiment from Horsham,
16 Australia (36.8° S, 142.1° E, 128 m elevation) (Supplementary Table S3). Details presenting the
17 experimental design (Mollah *et al.*, 2009), the experimental data (Fitzgerald *et al.*, 2016), and
18 modelling analyses (O'Leary *et al.*, 2015a) have previously been published. Data were collated
19 from one cultivar (cv. Yitpi) under two water regimes (rain-fed and supplemental irrigation), two
20 nitrogen fertilization regimes (53 or 138 kg N ha⁻¹), and two sowing dates to create two growing
21 season temperature environments for both daytime ambient (365 ppm) and elevated (550 ppm)
22 atmospheric CO₂ concentrations. For details see Supplementary Materials and Methods.

23

24 ***Field experiments for adaptation***

1 Asseng et al. (2015) recently suggested a combination of delayed anthesis with an increased
2 grain filling rate as possible adaptation for wheat to increased temperature. Such trait
3 combination has never been shown yet to exist in the current available genetic material.
4 Therefore, here we first explored a wide range of existing field experiments. We selected field
5 experiments where a number of cultivars were grown across different temperature environments
6 to search for the existence of such trait combination and if such cultivars are indeed better
7 adapted to a warming climate, i.e., these cultivars yield higher than other cultivars under warmer
8 conditions. In these data sets, we looked for pairs of cultivars where one or more had a delayed
9 anthesis in a warmer environment combined with an increased grain filling rate, and yielded
10 higher in the warmer environment than a control cultivar (without these traits). Only the cultivar
11 pairs which fulfilled these conditions are mentioned here. Four field experiments were
12 considered and included experiments from Egypt, Italy, USA and CIMMYT. In each experiment,
13 cultivars were compared under growing environments with increasing temperatures (through
14 delayed sowing or growing at warmer locations). The Egypt experiment included three cultivars
15 grown over three years under full irrigation (and sufficient N) across four temperature
16 environments along the River Nile with two sowing dates. The Italy experiment, included two
17 cultivars grown over two years under full irrigation (and sufficient N) at one location with two
18 sowing dates. In the Italy experiment, the same experiment was repeated with N limitations. The
19 USA experiment included four cultivars (three cultivars were used as a control) grown for one
20 year under full irrigation (and sufficient N) across 11 temperature environments along a transect
21 in the south-east US with one sowing date. The CIMMYT experiment included data from the
22 International Heat Stress Genotype Experiment (IHSGE) (Reynolds *et al.*, 1994), with two
23 cultivars grown over two years under full irrigation (and sufficient N) across six temperature
24 environments (experiments in different countries) with two sowing dates. For details see
25 Supplementary Materials and Methods.

26

27 ***Global impact assessment***

28 The two main scaling methods most commonly used in climate change impact assessment
29 studies are sampling and aggregation (Ewert *et al.*, 2015, Ewert *et al.*, 2011). In sampling, the
30 simulated points are assumed to represent an area (van Bussel *et al.*, 2016, van Bussel *et al.*,

1 2015), while in aggregation, an area is simulated with grid cells (Porwollik *et al.*, 2017) or
2 polygons assuming a grid cell (or polygon) is equal to a point. Each method differs in
3 uncertainties with respect to input information (high in gridded simulation (Anderson *et al.*,
4 2015), less in sampling as true point data are used) and representation of heterogeneity (high in
5 gridded simulation, less in sampling which however depends on the sampling strategy (Zhao *et*
6 *al.*, 2016). We have chosen stratified sampling, a guided sampling method which improves the
7 scaling quality (van Bussel *et al.*, 2016), with several points per wheat mega region
8 (Gbegbelegbe *et al.*, 2017). During the upscaling, a simulation result of a location was weighted
9 by the production a location represents (Asseng *et al.* 2015). Liu *et al.* (2016) recently showed
10 that stratified sampling and weighted by the production with 30 locations across wheat mega
11 regions resulted at country and global scale in similar temperature impact and uncertainty as
12 aggregation of simulated grid cells. The uncertainty due to sampling decreases with increasing
13 number of sampling points (Zhao *et al.*, 2016). We therefore doubled the 30 locations from
14 Asseng *et al.* (2015) to 60 locations (Fig. 1; Supplementary Table S4) covering contrasting
15 conditions across all wheat mega regions. All models provided simulations for thirty high-
16 rainfall or irrigated wheat-growing locations (Locations 1 to 30, simulated with no water or
17 nitrogen limitations), representing about 68% of current global wheat production and 30 low-
18 rainfall wheat-growing locations with wheat yields below 4 t DM ha⁻¹ (Locations 31 to 60),
19 representing about 32% of current global wheat production (Reynolds & Braun, 2013). Each
20 location represents an important wheat-growing area worldwide (Fig. 1).

21 **[figure 1 here]**

22 Additional details about the locations 1 to 30 can be found in (Asseng *et al.*, 2015). In contrast to
23 the high-rainfall locations 1 to 30, soil types and N management vary among the low-rainfall
24 locations 31 to 60 (Supplementary Fig. S1-4). For details see Supplementary Materials.

25

26 ***Climate scenarios***

27 There were two steps in global impact simulations. In step 1, six scenarios were simulated for the
28 60 global locations and 30 years of climate. The six climate scenarios had a baseline climate

1 (1981-2010) or baseline climate with main daily temperature increased by 2 or 4°C, crossed with
2 two atmospheric CO₂ concentrations, 360 and 550 ppm (Table 1).

3 The baseline (1980-2010) climate data are from the AgMERRA climate dataset (Ruane *et al.*,
4 2015a), which combines observations, data assimilation models, and satellite data products to
5 provide daily maximum and minimum temperatures, solar radiation, precipitation, wind speed,
6 vapor pressure, dew point temperatures, and relative humidity corresponding to the maximum
7 temperature time of day for each location. These data correspond to carbon dioxide concentration
8 ([CO₂]) of 360 ppm. The Baseline+2°C and Baseline+4°C scenarios were created by adjusting
9 each day's maximum and minimum temperatures upward by that amount and then adjusting
10 vapor pressure and related parameters to maintain the original relative humidity at the maximum
11 temperature time of day. Observations and projections of climate change indicate that relative
12 humidity is relatively stable even as this implies increases in specific humidity as temperatures
13 increase (commensurate with the Clausius-Clapeyron equation; (Allen & Ingram, 2002)).

14 **[table 1 here]**

15 In a second step, wheat production in the 60 global locations were simulated under a climate
16 change scenario corresponding to relatively high emissions for the middle of the 21st century
17 (RCP8.5 for 2040-2069, using 571ppm [CO₂] at 2055 from RCP8.5). Projections were taken
18 from five global climate models (GCMs) (HadGEM2-ES, MIROC5, MPI-ESM-MR, GFDL-
19 CM3, GISS-E2-R), with historical conditions modified to reflect projected changes in mean
20 temperatures and precipitation along with shifts in the standard deviation of daily temperatures
21 and the number of rainy days (Supplementary Fig. S7-8). These scenarios were created using the
22 “Enhanced Delta Method” (Ruane *et al.*, 2015b), and GCMs were selected to include models
23 with relatively large and relatively small global sensitivity to the greenhouse gases that drive
24 climate changes to account for the uncertainty of the fifth coupled model intercomparison project
25 (CMIP5) GCMs ensemble (Ruane & McDermid, 2017).

26 Each scenario was examined with current management as well as under one possible trait
27 adaptation, a cultivar combining delayed anthesis and an increased potential grain filling rate.
28 Therefore, there were 11 treatments and each was simulated for 30 years at each of the 60
29 locations.

1 To consider the diversity of model approaches of the 32 participating wheat models and allow all
2 modelers to incorporate their models, we proposed a simple but still physiological-based trait
3 combination. The proposed traits were simulated in full combination only, to quantify the impact
4 of such a trait combination. The aim of this study was not to analyze the contribution of various
5 individual traits, nor to explore the full range of traits that could possibly assist in an adaptation
6 strategy.

7 The proposed simple trait combination to minimize the impact of future increased temperatures
8 on global yield production included (Supplementary Table S6):

9 1. *Delay anthesis by about 2 weeks under the Baseline scenario* via increased temperature
10 sum requirement, photoperiod sensitivity, or vernalization requirement. No change in the
11 temperature requirement for grain filling duration was considered.

12 2. *Increase in rate (in amount per day) of potential grain filling by 20%* (escape strategy).

13

14 *Testing the climate change response of models without N dynamics*

15 Simulation results from all 32 models were used in the grain yield impact analysis. When
16 analyzing the impacts on grain protein yield and protein concentration, only 18 crop models were
17 used that had routines to simulate crop N dynamics leading to grain protein and had been
18 previously tested with field measurements. The yield distributions and yield impacts simulated
19 with the 32 models and the 18 models used in protein analysis were similar (Supplementary Fig.
20 S10-11).

21 We also applied the Kolmogorov–Smirnov two-sample test to test the differences of the
22 distributions of simulated yield impacts from the 18 models (used in the protein analysis) and the
23 32 models. The distributions of climate change impacts on grain yields were different for the two
24 multi-model ensembles for the climate change scenarios with genetic adaptation, but not without
25 the genetic adaption and for the trait effect (Supplementary Table S7).

26

27 *Aggregation of local climate change to global wheat production impacts*

28 Before aggregating local impacts at 60 locations to global impacts (Fig. 1), we determined the
29 actual production represented by each location. The total wheat production for each country

1 came from FAO country wheat production statistics for 2014 (www.fao.org). For each country,
2 wheat production was classified into three categories (i.e., high rainfall, irrigated, and low
3 rainfall). The ration for each category was quantified based on the Spatial Production Allocation
4 Model (SPAM) dataset (<https://harvestchoice.org/products/data>). For some countries where no
5 data was available through the SPAM dataset, we estimated the ratio for each category based on
6 the country-level yield from FAO country wheat production statistics. The high rainfall
7 production and irrigated production in each country were represented by the nearest high rainfall
8 and irrigated locations (Location 1-30). Low rainfall production in each country was represented
9 by the nearest low rainfall locations (Location 31-60).

10 The global wheat grain and protein production impact was calculated using the following steps:

- 11 1) Calculate the relative simulated mean yield (or protein yield) impact for climate change
12 scenarios for 30 years (1981-2010) per single model at each location.
- 13 2) Calculate the *median across 32 models* (or 18 in case of protein simulations) *and five*
14 *GCMs per location (multi-model [CMs and GCMs] ensemble median)*. Note that CMs
15 and GCMs simulation results were kept separate only for calculating the separate CM and
16 GCM uncertainties (expressed as range between 25th and 75th percentiles).
- 17 3) Calculate the absolute regional production loss by multiplying the relative yield (or
18 protein yield) loss from the multi-model ensemble median with the production
19 represented at each location (using FAO country wheat production statistics of 2014 from
20 www.fao.org, the latest reported yield statistics available at the time of the study).
21 Calculate separately for high rainfall/irrigated and low input rainfed production. This
22 assumes that the selected simulated location is representative of the entire wheat-growing
23 region surrounding this location.
- 24 4) Add all regional production losses to the total global loss.
- 25 5) Calculate the relative change in global production (i.e., global production loss divided by
26 current global production).
- 27 6) Repeat the above steps for the 25th and 75th percentile relative global yield (or protein
28 yield) impact from the 32 (or 18 in case of protein simulations) model ensemble.

29 The 18-model ensemble used for protein simulations simulated similar yield impacts compared
30 to the 32-model ensemble (Supplementary Table S7), but small yield differences between the

1 two ensembles made it necessary to normalize the simulated impacts from the two ensembles for
2 the calculation of impacts on grain protein concentration. The reported impacts on grain protein
3 concentration are therefore the normalized numbers. The 32-model ensemble yield impacts and
4 the simulated 18-model ensemble relative grain protein yield impacts are directly reported (i.e.,
5 without this normalizing). The calculation of changes in grain protein concentration is shown
6 with equations below.

7 Yield change (y_c), due to climate change or the introduction of a trait, was calculated as:

$$8 \quad y_C = \tilde{y}_{future}^{(32)} / \tilde{y}_{baseline}^{(32)} \quad (1)$$

9 where $\tilde{y}_{future}^{(32)}$ and $\tilde{y}_{baseline}^{(32)}$ are respectively future (with or without adaptation) and Baseline yield as
10 simulated by the median of 32 models. Grain protein yield change (p_c) is calculated as:

$$11 \quad p_C = \tilde{p}_{future}^{(18)} / \tilde{p}_{baseline}^{(18)} \quad (2)$$

12 where $\tilde{p}_{future}^{(18)}$ and $\tilde{p}_{baseline}^{(18)}$ are respectively future (with or without adaptation) and baseline protein
13 yield as simulated by the median of 18 models.

14 Impact on grain protein concentration uses global mean grain yield in 2014 as a baseline,
15 reported as 3.31 t DM ha⁻¹ (FAO, 2016) and a mean grain protein percentage of 13% (based on
16 dry matter grain weight), which is a weighted average of the simulated results. While there are
17 no global statistics on grain protein, the simulated global grain protein concentration appears
18 reasonable, considering the protein content in the USDA World Wheat Collection has been
19 reported to range from 7% to 22% of the dry weight (Vogel *et al.*, 1976), but generally varies
20 from about 10–15% of the dry weight for wheat cultivars grown under field conditions (Shewry
21 & Hey, 2015). Observed grain protein content in temperate regions, like the Netherlands has
22 been reported to range from 10 to 15% (Asseng *et al.*, 2000)). An average of 13.2% (ranging
23 from 10.5 to 16.3%) grain protein concentration has been reported across 330 wheat varieties
24 from China grown during 2010-2011 (Yang *et al.*, 2014) and an average of 13.4% was reported
25 across wheat fields in Finland during 1988-2012 (Peltonen-Sainio *et al.*, 2015).

1 In the simulated weighted average, the mean of the high rainfall/irrigated locations 1 to 30 has
2 a weight of about 2/3, and the mean of the low rainfall/low input locations 31 to 60 has a weight
3 of about 1/3, according to their contribution to global production. The impact on grain protein
4 concentration ($\Delta GP\%$) was calculated as follows:

$$5 \quad \Delta GP\% = \frac{p_C \times 3.31 \times 0.13}{y_C \times 3.31} - \frac{3.31 \times 0.13}{3.31} = 0.13 \left(\frac{p_C}{y_C} - 1 \right) \quad (3)$$

6 This results in a change in grain protein concentration of -0.59 percentage point when using the
7 changes in grain yield from 32 crop models as used in the analysis. Alternatively, using the
8 changes in yield from the 18 crop models would result in a change in grain protein concentration
9 of -0.36 percentage point (not used here).

10

11 **Results**

12 *Model testing*

13 Results of crop model simulations were compared to observations from outdoor chamber and
14 free-air CO₂ enrichment (FACE) experiments with increased temperature, heat shocks, and
15 elevated CO₂ combined with increased temperature and drought stress. A statistical analysis on
16 model ensemble performance for grain yield, grain protein yield and grain protein content is
17 given in Table S4, showing RMSE for yield from 0.4 to 1.9 t ha⁻¹, with reasonable skill (EF) to
18 simulate the variability for observed yield. RMSE for protein concentration ranged from 0.8 to
19 3.2% with poor skill due to the low variability in the observed protein concentration data (Table
20 S4). Median predictions from this multi-model ensemble reproduced observed grain yields well
21 including those affected by heat shock, high temperature or elevated CO₂ concentration (Fig. 2A-
22 C). Continuous high temperature conditions during the grain filling period (the period when the
23 grain grows) reduced observed and simulated biomass growth and yield more than a 4-day heat
24 shock, applied at different times during the same growth period, but elevated CO₂ increased
25 biomass growth and yield in the observations and simulations. In addition, changes in grain
26 protein yield and protein concentrations were captured well (i.e. similar response in simulations
27 and observations) even under conditions where effects of temperature interacted with effects of
28 CO₂ concentration and water (Fig. 2D-I). The multi-model ensemble median and at least 50% of

1 the simulation results for growth dynamics, final grain and protein yield, and protein
2 concentration were generally within the uncertainty intervals of the measurements (Fig. 2).

3 **[figure 2 here]**

4 *Observed adaptation traits for climate change*

5 Using datasets from observed field experiments (not simulations) at different locations in the
6 world (in USA, Mexico, Egypt, Sudan and Italy), we found in these observations that existing
7 genotypes with a trait of an extended growing period to delay anthesis (also called flowering),
8 combined with a trait with a higher rate of grain filling (i.e. potential grain filling rate which is
9 met when assimilates are available from photosynthesis and/or remobilization), are effective in
10 countering some of the yield declines occurring in non-adapted cultivars when grown in warmer
11 locations or during a warmer part of a season (Fig. 3A). Other cultivars which had a delayed
12 anthesis but not an increase grain filling rate (not shown here), did not yield higher than the non-
13 adapted cultivars. For some locations, where observed grain protein data were available, the
14 combination of delayed anthesis and higher rate of grain filling traits also increased grain protein
15 yield in one cultivar compared to another cultivar (but for several cultivar pairs) when grown
16 under warmer growing conditions, although these traits were not fully expressed under cooler
17 conditions (Fig. 3B).

18 **[figure 3 here]**

19 Observed grain and protein yield increased with this trait combination in warmer climates, but
20 not when N supply was limited (Fig. 4).

21 **[figure 4 here]**

22 However, the relative change in observed grain yield was positively correlated with the change
23 in grain protein concentration, even under limited nitrogen supply (Fig. 5).

24 **[figure 5 here]**

25 *Global climate change impact*

1 Availing of a robust predictor with a multi-model ensemble (Fig. 2) and evidence from field
2 experiments for the existence for traits to counteract detrimental effects from raising temperature
3 on crops (Fig. 3-5), we assessed with crop models what impact climate change would have on
4 overall wheat grain and protein yield and on protein concentration at other locations and globally
5 (Fig. 1). The 32 tested crop models were applied with five bias-corrected global climate models
6 (GCMs) for the representative concentration pathway 8.5 (RCP8.5) for the 2050s. The multi-
7 model median (crop models plus GCMs) impact of climate change and the variation across crop
8 models and GCMs is shown for 60 locations around the globe representing major wheat
9 producing regions and climate zones (Fig. 6). In general, low and mid-latitude locations show
10 negative yield impacts from climate change, while high-latitude locations show some positive
11 yield impacts. Negative impacts on protein yields were predicted at many locations, including
12 high-latitude locations (Fig. 6A).

13

14 *Effect of adaptation*

15 The field-identified trait combination of delayed anthesis and increased grain filling rate was
16 introduced into the crop models (Supplementary Table S6). Simulated yields did not improve in
17 many of the low-rainfall/low-input locations due to a combination of terminal drought and N
18 limitation (Fig. 4). Protein yields that increased with the introduced trait combination were
19 negatively affected by climate change for many locations, including those at high latitudes (Fig.
20 6). But grain yields were improved in most locations with the trait combination of delayed
21 anthesis and increased grain filling rate (Fig. 6B).

22 **[figure 6 here]**

23 The impact of climate change on grain protein concentration, which varies with both grain yield
24 and protein yield, was more variable. Grain protein concentration varied between growing
25 seasons and locations as did the response to climate change and the impact of the adapted trait
26 combination (Fig. 7). While the combined impact of increased temperature, elevated CO₂
27 concentration, and change in rainfall for RCP8.5 indicates that grain yield would increase for
28 many seasons and locations, protein yield increase would not keep pace. This would result in a
29 reduction in grain protein concentration for many situations (Fig. 7). However, climate change

1 and the adapted trait combination could lead to an increase in grain protein concentration for
2 low-rainfall locations, particularly for those locations where yield is projected to decline (Fig. 7).

3 **[figure 7 here]**

4 We scaled the simulated impacts up from fields to globe by weighting each location with
5 reported country wheat production data. Despite the stimulating effect of elevated CO₂ on crop
6 growth, global wheat production would only increase by 2.8% (-7.4 to +14.0%, 25th to 75th
7 percentile range combining crop model and GCM uncertainty) by 2050 under RCP8.5. Most of
8 the gains from elevated CO₂ on crop growth will be lost due to increasing temperature.
9 Simultaneously introducing the trait combination of delayed anthesis and increased grain filling
10 rate could increase global yield to 9.6% (-7.8 to 27.0%) by 2050, with the impact from traits
11 being 6.8%.

12 The growth stimulus from a 100-ppm increase in atmospheric CO₂ concentration is lost with an
13 increase of about 2 °C (increase of 1.0 to 4.2 °C, 25th to 75th percentile range of crop model
14 uncertainty) according to the simulated multi-model ensemble median (Fig. 8).

15 **[figure 8 here]**

16 However, when N limited growth, as is common for low-rainfall environments with low-
17 fertilizer inputs, the growth stimulus was reduced. The multi-model ensemble median, averaged
18 over 30 years, shows a CO₂ effect of 8.4% global yield increase (5.7 to 12.8% for 50% of crop
19 models, weighted by production) per 100 ppm increase in CO₂ (Fig. 8). Protein yields were
20 estimated to change by -1.9% (-9.6 to +5.5% change, 25th to 75th percentile range combining
21 crop model and GCM uncertainty) at the global scale with climate change, with many regions
22 expected to be affected. Crop models account for a dilution of crop N and grain protein
23 concentration at elevated CO₂ concentration (Fig. 9). When the trait combination of delayed
24 anthesis and increased grain filling was introduced, simulated global protein yield changed to -
25 0.2% (-12.1 to +12.0% change) by 2050, with the impact from traits being 1.7%. Similarly,
26 while extremely variable between locations and seasons (Fig. 7), protein concentration is
27 estimated to change by -0.6 percentage points, representing a relative change of -4.6% (-0.3 to -
28 1.0 percentage points, representing a relative change of -2.4 to -7.5%) by 2050 at the global
29 scale. Greater losses in protein concentration would occur in many regions and seasons,

1 amounting to -1.1 percentage points, representing a relative change of -8.6% (-0.6 to -1.5
2 percentage points, representing a relative change of -4.7 to -11.8%), with the impact from traits
3 being -0.5 percentage points, representing a relative change of -4.1%.

4 **[figure 9 here]**

5 ***Impact uncertainty***

6 For the simulated impact estimates, the share of uncertainty from crop models was often larger
7 than from the five bias-corrected GCMs (Fig. S12). Uncertainties tended to increase with
8 adaptation and were larger for impact estimates for protein yield than for grain yield. The largest
9 crop model uncertainties were for low and mid-latitude areas (Fig. S12).

10

11 **Discussion**

12 ***Model testing***

13 Median predictions from this multi-model ensemble reproduced observed grain yields well,
14 consistent with other multi-model ensemble studies (Asseng *et al.*, 2013, Bassu *et al.*, 2014, Li *et*
15 *al.*, 2015, Martre *et al.*, 2015), but here including those affected by heat shock, high temperature
16 and elevated CO₂ concentration, a critical pre-request for simulating climate change impacts.
17 Heat shock and high temperature interaction with elevated CO₂ concentration have never been
18 tested with any impact model before. Multi-model ensemble simulations were recently compared
19 with historical yields and showed that simulated yield impacts from temperature increase were
20 similar to statistical temperature yield impact trends based on historical sub-country, country and
21 global yield records (Liu *et al.*, 2016). This result suggests that interactions between climate and
22 crop models can be insensitive to the methods chosen, thus further supporting the use of the
23 state-of-the-art multi-model ensembles such as the one used for this study.

24 Grain protein concentration is suggested by the simulation to decline globally by -1.1 percentage
25 points, representing a relative change of -8.6%, due to the simulated yield increase (for most
26 locations) from elevated atmospheric CO₂ and the yield-improving trait adaptation. Attributing
27 changes in observed protein trends is often hindered by many confounding factors in the field.

1 For example, a study across fields in Finland from 1988 to 2012 showed a decline in grain
2 protein concentration over this period of up to -0.7 grain protein % during the last third of this
3 period (Peltonen-Sainio *et al.*, 2015). Some of this declined has been attributed to plant breeding
4 for higher yields and a declining response over time of grain protein concentration to N fertilizer
5 (Peltonen-Sainio *et al.*, 2015). In contrast, despite yield increases (by 51%) with variety releases
6 since 1968 in North Dakota, USA, grain protein concentration has not changed during this time
7 (Underdahl *et al.*, 2008).

8 Depending on the target market, required protein concentrations vary from 8% for pastries to
9 >14% for pasta and bread, farmers grow specific wheat categories for specific markets. In
10 addition, farmers might also attempt to manage N applications towards protein outcomes, but
11 their effectiveness is often hampered by in-season variability in growing conditions (Asseng and
12 Milroy 2006). Recent trends in N fertilizer application (total amount of N fertilizer applied in
13 agriculture) in the 20 major wheat producing countries, including China, India, Russia, USA and
14 several European countries have leveled off or even declined like in France and Germany (FAO,
15 2018) and might further reduce wheat grain protein concentrations in the future.

16

17 *Adaptation traits for climate change*

18 Rising temperatures are the main driver of projected negative climate change impacts on wheat
19 yields (Porter *et al.*, 2014). The shortening of the growing period (the time from sowing to
20 maturity) with increasing temperatures has been identified as the main yield-reducing factor in
21 another study, but not implemented (Asseng *et al.*, 2015). In a warmer climate, the growing
22 period is shorter so there is less time to intercept light for photosynthesis resulting in less
23 biomass accumulation and lower yields. To adapt crops to a warmer climate, the growing period
24 could be extended by delaying anthesis. However, grain filling generally occurs during the
25 relatively hot period of the season in most wheat growing regions (Asseng *et al.*, 2011), so yield
26 might be reduced due to the negative effect of even higher temperatures on the sensitive
27 processes of grain set (time when the number of grains is set) and grain filling. Therefore,
28 combining traits for delayed anthesis and higher rate of grain filling, as shown in our study, is an
29 effective adaptation strategy for yield. While grain and protein yield increased with the newly

1 introduced trait combination in warmer climates, grain protein concentration still declined in
2 some cases when other growth restricting factors such as limited N supply also suppressed
3 expression of these traits in a warmer climate. Applying additional N fertilizer application might
4 not be a simple solution for climate change adaptation as major wheat-producing countries, such
5 as France have been reducing N fertilizer application rates since the late 1980s (Brisson *et al.*,
6 2010).

7 A key message from our study is that, our results suggest that the combination of two simple
8 traits through breeding can be used to overcome the antagonism between grain yield and grain
9 protein concentration. That antagonism has continuously reduced the nutritional and end-use
10 value of wheat since the ‘green revolution’ in the 1960ies with strongly increasing grain yields
11 through the introduction of semi-dwarf genotypes combined with irrigation and fertilizers (Triboi
12 *et al.*, 2006). The field-observed positive correlation in field experiments between grain yield and
13 protein concentration could be due to an increase in crop N accumulation at anthesis related to
14 the extended duration of the vegetative phase and a more efficient translocation to grains during
15 grain filling. But, it could also be due to a higher nitrogen remobilization rate and earlier leaf
16 senescence. Hence, there is a need to improve the understanding of the physiological basis for
17 the field-based observed positive correlation between grain yield and protein concentration
18 through new targeted field experiments.

19

20 ***Global climate change impact***

21 While field experiments are critical for developing and testing hypotheses, these are limited to
22 just a few sites and seasons. The application of a multi-model ensemble, combined with evidence
23 from field experiments for the existence for traits to counteract detrimental effects from raising
24 temperature on crops, enabled us to assess what impact climate change would have on overall
25 wheat grain and protein yield and on protein concentration at other locations and globally. By
26 applying the 32 tested crop models with five bias-corrected global climate models (GCMs), we
27 covered a wide range of available GCM outputs (McSweeney & Jones, 2016). The chosen
28 representative concentration pathway 8.5 (RCP8.5) for the 2050s is a high greenhouse gas
29 concentration scenario with emissions continue to increase at current rates. Low and mid-latitude

1 locations show mostly negative yield impacts from climate change, while high-latitude locations
2 show some positive yield impacts, consistent with other global studies and other crops
3 (Rosenzweig *et al.*, 2014), but negative impacts on protein yields were predicted at many
4 locations, including high-latitude locations.

5

6 ***Effect of adaptation***

7 The combined impact of increased temperature, elevated CO₂ concentration, and change in
8 rainfall for RCP8.5 indicates that grain yield would increase for many seasons and locations, but
9 protein yield increase would not keep pace and would result in a reduction in grain protein
10 concentration for many situations. However, climate change and the adapted trait combination
11 could lead to an increase in grain protein concentration for low-rainfall locations, particularly for
12 those locations where yield is projected to decline.

13 Most of the gains from elevated CO₂ on crop growth will be lost due to increasing temperature
14 consistent with other simulation and field experimental studies (Asseng *et al.*, 2015, Wheeler *et*
15 *al.*, 1996). Simultaneously introducing the trait combination of delayed anthesis and increased
16 grain filling rate could increase global yield. About a third of the impact on grain yields (2.1%)
17 from this trait combination could be achieved globally by introducing the adaptation in the
18 baseline climate, although yield would be reduced for many of the rainfed locations subject to
19 terminal drought.

20 A simulated growth stimulus from a 100-ppm increase in atmospheric CO₂ concentration is
21 suggested by our study to be lost with an increase of about 2 °C according to the simulated
22 multi-model ensemble median and is consistent with field experiments (Wheeler *et al.*, 1996).
23 Higher yield responses to elevated CO₂ have been reported in field experiments for wheat subject
24 to drought stress compared to well-watered controls (Kimball, 2016, O'Leary *et al.*, 2015b). This
25 did not hold true, however, when N limited growth (Kimball, 2016), as is common for low-
26 rainfall environments with low-fertilizer inputs. The multi-model ensemble median here,
27 averaged over 30 years, shows a CO₂ effect of 8.4% global yield increase per 100 ppm increase
28 in CO₂. By comparison, observations from open top chamber and FACE field studies have
29 shown 10-20% increases in wheat yield per 100 ppm elevated CO₂ (Ainsworth & Long, 2005,

1 Kimball, 2016, O'Leary *et al.*, 2015b), but less or even nil yield change when N is limiting
2 (Kimball, 2016). Additional N supply for crop uptake could therefore become more important in
3 the future. However, acceleration of soil organic matter turnover by higher temperature depletes
4 soil carbon and N stocks, a process captured by some models. Crop models also account for the
5 dilution of crop N and grain protein concentration at elevated CO₂ concentration, giving results
6 similar to experimental wheat data (Pleijel & Uddling, 2012), but do not consider that nitrate
7 assimilation in crops could be inhibited (Bloom *et al.*, 2010), so likely underestimate the
8 reduction in grain protein with climate change.

9 Other processes, like a possible effects of elevated CO₂ via stomata closure on canopy
10 temperature (Kimball *et al.*, 1999), not considered in the current models might also add to under-
11 or overestimation of simulated impacts. The same applies to the poor understanding of genotype
12 and CO₂ interactions that are hence not included in the models (Myers *et al.*, 2014). Other factors
13 not included might also become important for future crop performance, such as rising ground-
14 level ozone exposures, e.g. in southern and eastern Asia (Tao *et al.*, 2017a) and diming of light
15 for photosynthesis in areas with high aerosol pollution.

16 Our analysis of the multi-location field trials suggests that crops with traits of delayed anthesis
17 time and increased grain filling rate could be combined in wheat genotypes to combat the
18 negative effects of increasing temperature on yield. The genetics of wheat anthesis time is
19 determined by known genes so adaptations can be made through breeding or cultivar choice
20 (Griffiths *et al.*, 2009, Le Gouis *et al.*, 2012). Although grain filling results from interactions
21 between multiple physiological processes, some relevant major quantitative trait loci have been
22 identified, and grain filling rate can be increased efficiently through breeding (Charmet *et al.*,
23 2005, Wang *et al.*, 2009). Some studies also showed that the rates of dry mass and N
24 accumulation have common genetic determinisms (Charmet *et al.*, 2005), so breeding for a
25 higher rate of grain filling could improve both grain yield and protein concentration. Importantly,
26 anthesis time and grain filling rate are mostly controlled by different loci (Wang *et al.*, 2009)
27 suggesting that these two traits can be improved concomitantly. The impact on yield and protein
28 from this potential adaptation depends on the availability of nitrogen during the post-anthesis
29 period (Bogard *et al.*, 2011) and might require additional nitrogen remobilization into the grains
30 (Avni *et al.*, 2014, Uauy *et al.*, 2006).

1

2 ***Impact uncertainty***

3 The share of uncertainty from crop models was often larger than from the five bias-corrected
4 GCMs, suggesting a need for more research investments into impact models to reduce climate
5 change impact uncertainty estimates, although the chosen GCMs only represent part of the
6 overall available GCM uncertainties (McSweeney & Jones, 2016). The crop model uncertainty
7 varied across locations, while the GCM uncertainty showed less spatial variation. Uncertainties
8 tended to increase with adaptation and were larger for impact estimates for protein yield than for
9 grain yield, partly because fewer crop models were available for the former. The largest crop
10 model uncertainties were for low and mid-latitude areas.

11

12 ***Conclusions***

13 Our simulation results demonstrate that climate change adaptations that benefit grain yield are
14 not necessarily positive for all aspects of grain quality for human nutrition (Myers *et al.*, 2014),
15 particularly in rainfed and low-input cropping regions. Many of the regions likely to be
16 negatively affected are low and mid-latitude regions that are less resilient to climate change,
17 where populations are growing (Roser & Ortiz-Ospina, 2017) and food demand is increasing
18 rapidly (Godfray *et al.*, 2010).

19

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1 Figure captions

2 **Fig. 1.** The thirty locations representing high rainfall and irrigated wheat regions (blue) and thirty locations
3 representing low rainfall/low input regions (red) of the world used in this study. Wheat area from (Monfreda *et al.*,
4 2008).

5 **Fig. 2.** Measurements and multi-model simulations of total above ground wheat biomass, grain yield, grain protein
6 yield and grain protein concentration for wheat treated with heat shocks, higher temperature, elevated atmospheric
7 CO₂ concentration, and different sowing times or irrigation. (a, b and c) Total above-ground biomass (circles,
8 continuous lines) and grain yields (triangles, dashed lines) for wheat for three different experiments grown in control
9 conditions or with (a) heat shocks of 38°C for 4 h on 4 consecutive days during grain filling; (b) continuous
10 +10°C/+5°C (day/night) temperature increase during endosperm cell division/early grain filling; and (c) elevated
11 CO₂ (550 ppm). Multi-model ensemble medians (lines) and 25th to 75th percentile intervals (shaded areas) based on
12 32 simulation models are shown. Symbols indicate medians and error bars the 25th to 75th percentile intervals of
13 measurements. (d to i) Percent changes in grain yield (d and g) and protein yields (e and h) and absolute changes in
14 grain protein concentration (f and i) in response to chronic high temperature or heat shocks at different
15 developmental stages (d, e and f) and different combinations of atmospheric CO₂ concentration, drought and sowing
16 dates (g, h and i). Data are medians of measured or simulated changes and error bars show 25th to 75th percentile
17 intervals. In all panels, simulations are the median of the 32 (grain yield) or 18 (grain protein) wheat model
18 ensembles.

19 **Fig. 3.** Comparison of the relative performance of measured wheat genotypes with or without both delayed anthesis
20 and accelerated grain filling traits grown under field conditions at different temperatures. Changes in measured grain
21 yield (a and b), grain protein yield (c and d), and grain protein concentration (e and f) versus changes in traits.
22 Symbol colors indicate mean temperatures during the growing season (from sowing to maturity) at each location in
23 increasing order from deep blue, light blue, to red. The advanced wheat lines VA12W-72 and GA06493-13LE6
24 were compared to the standard cultivars AGS2000, Jamestown, and USG3120 in experiments at 10 locations in the
25 U.S.A.. Mean values for AGS2000, Jamestown and USG3120 were used as the control to calculate changes in yield
26 and protein. The modern cultivar Bacanora 88 and the standard cultivar Debeira were grown at one location in
27 Mexico over two consecutive seasons, and at one location in Egypt and one in Sudan both for one season. The
28 cultivars Creso and Claudio were grown at one location in Italy for two consecutive growing seasons. The modern
29 elite cultivars Misr1 and Misr2 and the standard cultivar Sakha93 were grown at four locations in Egypt. Grain
30 protein data were available for Italy and Egypt experiments only. Solid lines are standardized major axis regressions
31 (all $P < 0.001$).

32 **Fig. 4.** Comparison of cultivars with delayed anthesis and accelerated grain filling rate to standard cultivars in
33 different temperature environments in Italy with limited nitrogen (60 kg N ha⁻¹). Relationship of observed (a and b)
34 grain yield and (c and d) protein yield to (a and c) anthesis and (b and d) to grain filling rate.
35 Green (< 13°C), dark red (13 to 15°C) and red (> 15°C).
36

37 **Fig. 5.** Comparison of wheat genotypes with delayed anthesis and accelerated grain filling rate compared to standard
38 genotypes grown in the field in different temperature environments. Relative change in measured grain protein yield
39 (a) and absolute change in grain protein concentration (b) against the relative change in grain yield. Symbol colors
40 refer to mean temperature during growing season (planting to maturity) in increasing order from deep blue, light
41 blue, to red for average temperatures at each location. The cv. Creso and the cv. Claudio were grown at one location
42 in Italy for two consecutive growing seasons, and the modern elite cultivars Misr1 and Misr2 and the standard
43 cultivar Sakha93 were grown at four locations in Egypt. Dashed line is 1:1 and solid lines are standardized major
44 axis regressions.
45

46 **Fig. 6.** Simulated multi-model ensemble projection under climate change of global wheat grain yield (left half) and
47 protein yield (right half), (a) without genotypic adaptation and (b) with genotypic adaptation. Relative climate
48 change impacts for 2036-2065 under RCP8.5 compared with the 1981-2010 baseline. Impacts were calculated using
49 the medians across 32 models (or 18 for protein yield estimates) and five GCMs (circle color) and the average over
50 30 years of yields using region-specific soils, cultivars and crop management.

1 **Fig. 7.** Multi-model impact of climate change with and without cultivar adaptation on the relationship between grain
2 yield and protein concentration. Projections of annual wheat grain yield and grain protein concentration are shown
3 for baseline period 1981-2010 (black) for RCP8.5 climate change impact in 2036-2065 with current cultivars
4 (orange) or with genetic adaptation, i.e. combined delayed anthesis with increased rate of grain filling (cyan) for 30
5 individual years across 60 locations using region-specific soils, cultivars and crop management. **(a)** Grain yield
6 versus grain protein concentration for individual years and locations. Medians across GCMs and 18 crop models are
7 plotted. The ellipses capture 95% confidence levels of data in each treatment. Distributions of values for grain
8 protein concentration **(b)** and grain yield **(c)** for 30 low-rainfall locations (dashed lines) and 30 high rainfall or
9 irrigated locations (solid lines). **(d)** Absolute changes in crop model ensemble medians for grain yield versus grain
10 protein concentration.

11

12 **Fig. 8.** Simulated impacts of increasing temperature on global wheat grain production with 100 ppm increase in
13 atmospheric CO₂ concentration. Relative grain yield impacts were calculated from simulated impacts of 550 ppm
14 versus 360 ppm CO₂ (linearly interpolated) and weighted by production. Center line shows crop model ensemble
15 median of 32 crop models and mean of 30 years using region-specific soils, cultivars, and crop management. The
16 shaded area indicates the 25th percentile and 75th percentile across crop models. Dashed lines are linear extensions to
17 +5°C beyond simulated temperature range impacts. Equations show linear regression for before and after cross-point
18 at 2°C.

19

20 **Fig. 9.** Simulated response to elevated CO₂. In **(a)** relative crop N response versus relative crop biomass response to
21 elevated CO₂. In **(b)** relative protein yield response versus relative grain yield response to elevated CO₂. In **(c)**
22 relative grain protein concentration response versus relative grain yield response to elevated CO₂. Data are multi-
23 model (18 models) ensemble median for 30 individual years during baseline period (1981-2010) across 60 global
24 locations with 360 ppm (baseline) and 550 ppm (elevated) CO₂.

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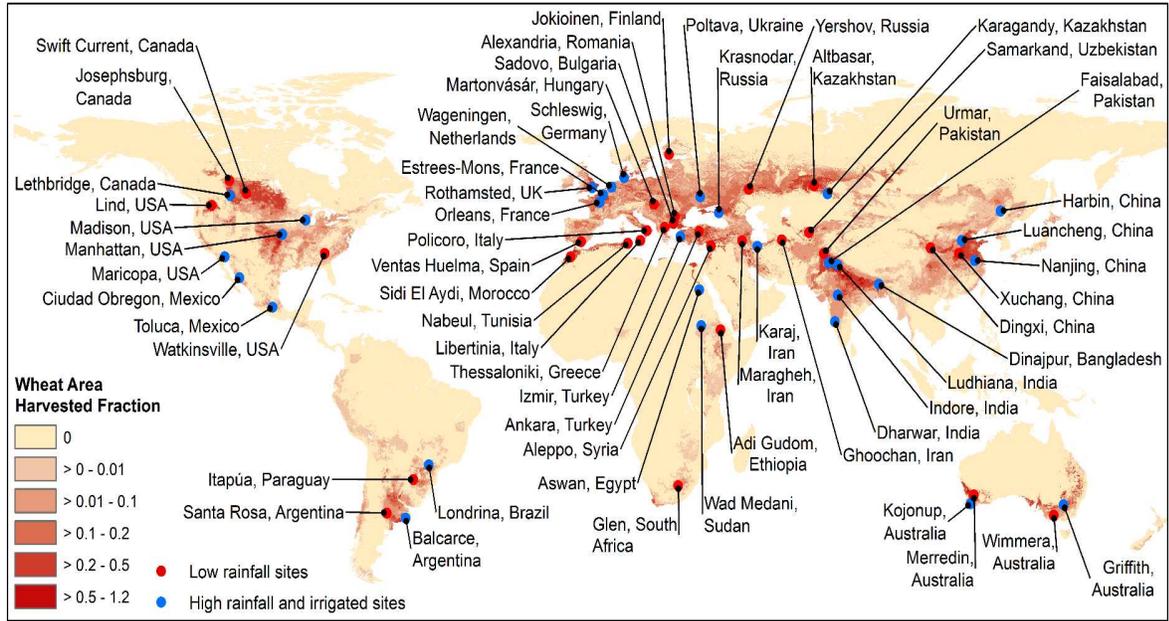
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Table 1. Outline of the baseline and climate change scenarios simulated in this study.

Period	Scenario / GCM	CO₂ (ppm)	Adaptation
1981-2010	Baseline	360	None
1981-2010	Baseline	360	2-traits combination
1981-2010	Baseline +2°C	360	None
1981-2010	Baseline +4°C	360	None
1981-2010	Baseline	550	None
1981-2010	Baseline +2°C	550	None
1981-2010	Baseline +4°C	550	None
2040-2069	HadGEM2-ES	571	None
2040-2069	MIROC5	571	None
2040-2069	MPI-ESM-MR	571	None
2040-2069	GFDL-CM3	571	None
2040-2069	GISS-E2-R	571	None
2040-2069	HadGEM2-ES	571	2-traits combination
2040-2069	MIROC5	571	2-traits combination
2040-2069	MPI-ESM-MR	571	2-traits combination
2040-2069	GFDL-CM3	571	2-traits combination
2040-2069	GISS-E2-R	571	2-traits combination

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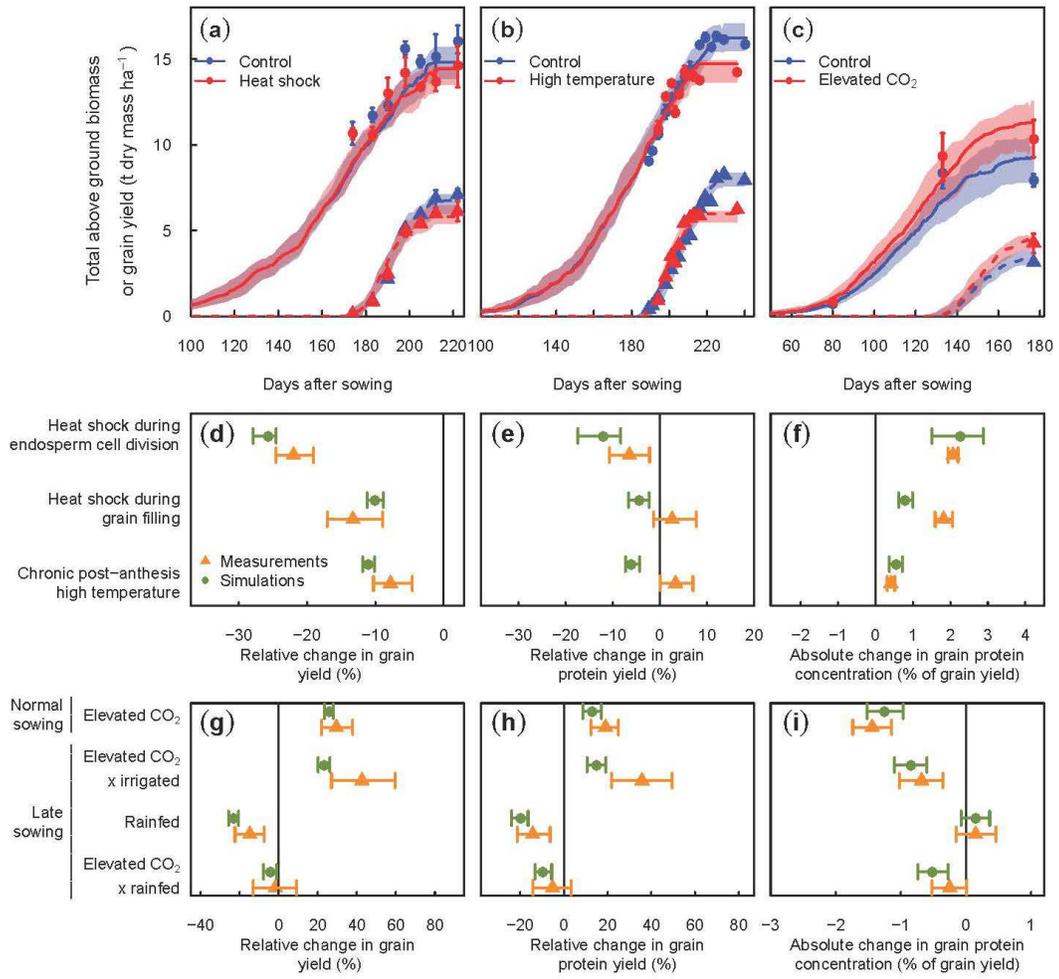
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2 **Fig. 1**

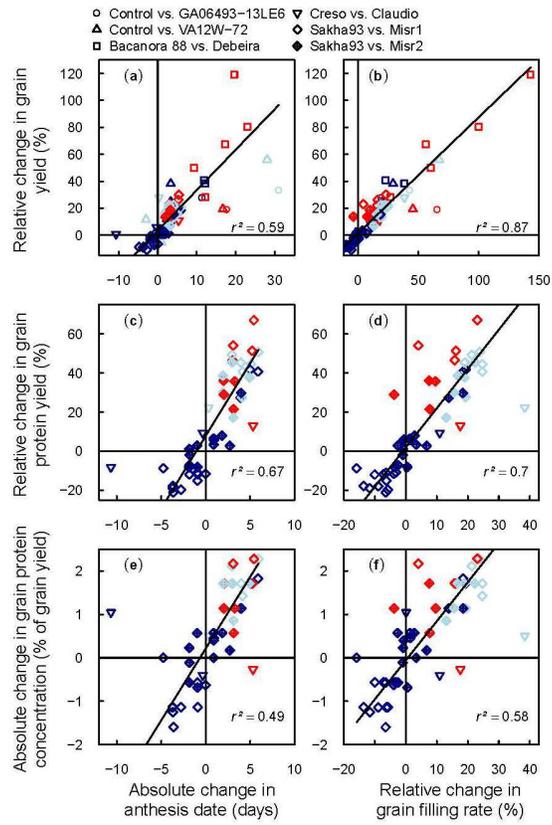
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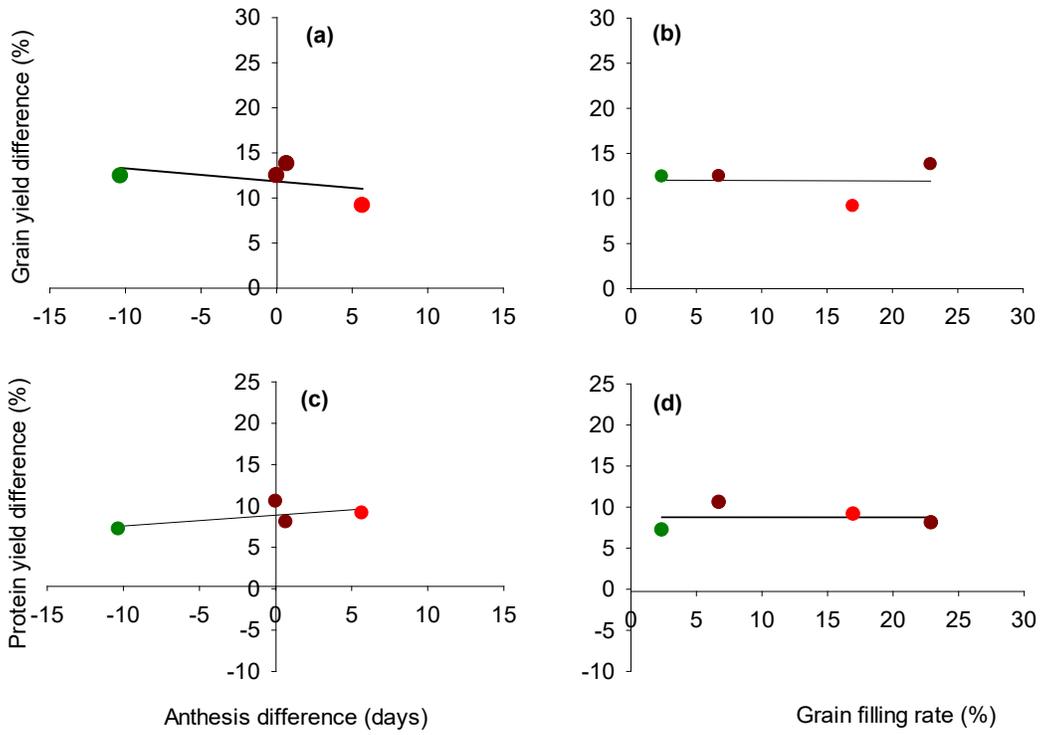
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2 **Fig. 2**

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2 **Fig. 3**
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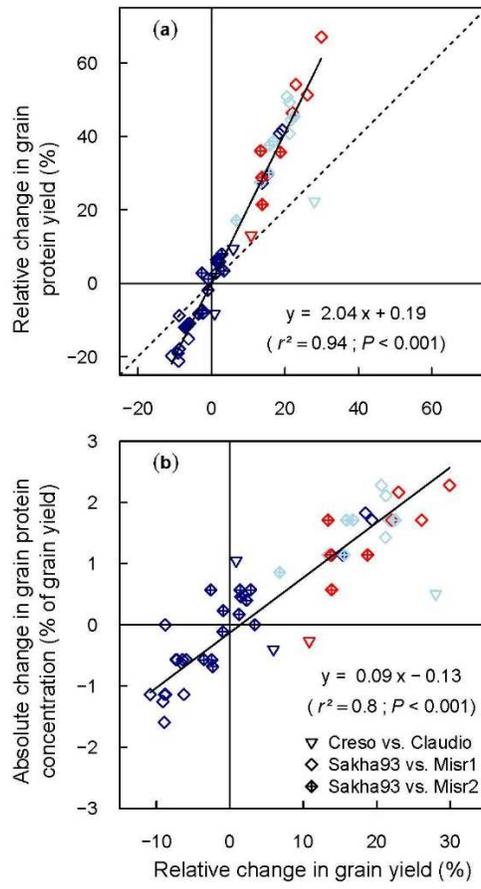


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2 **Fig. 4**

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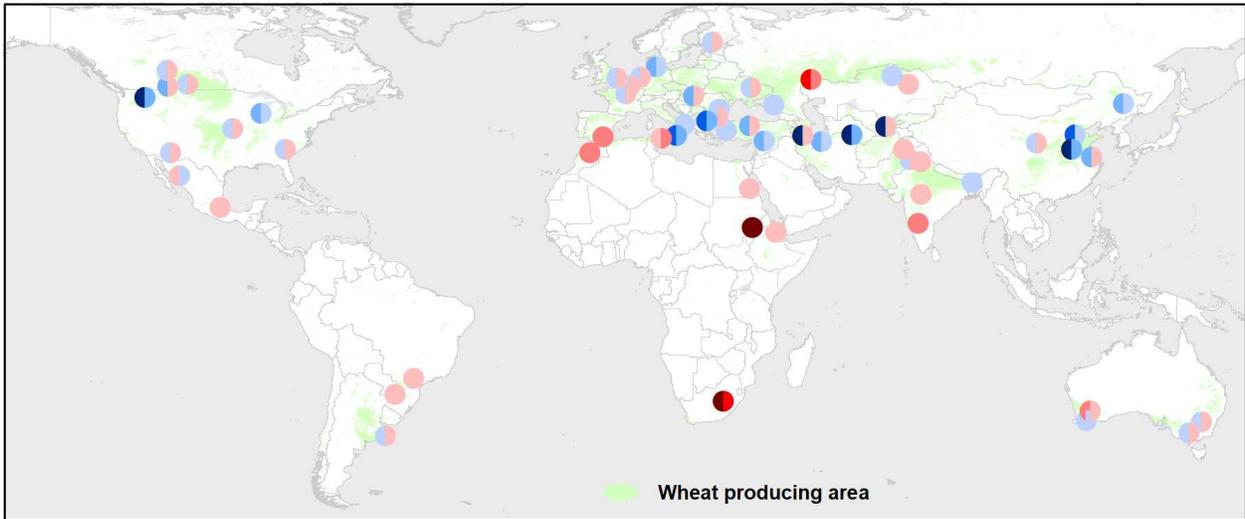


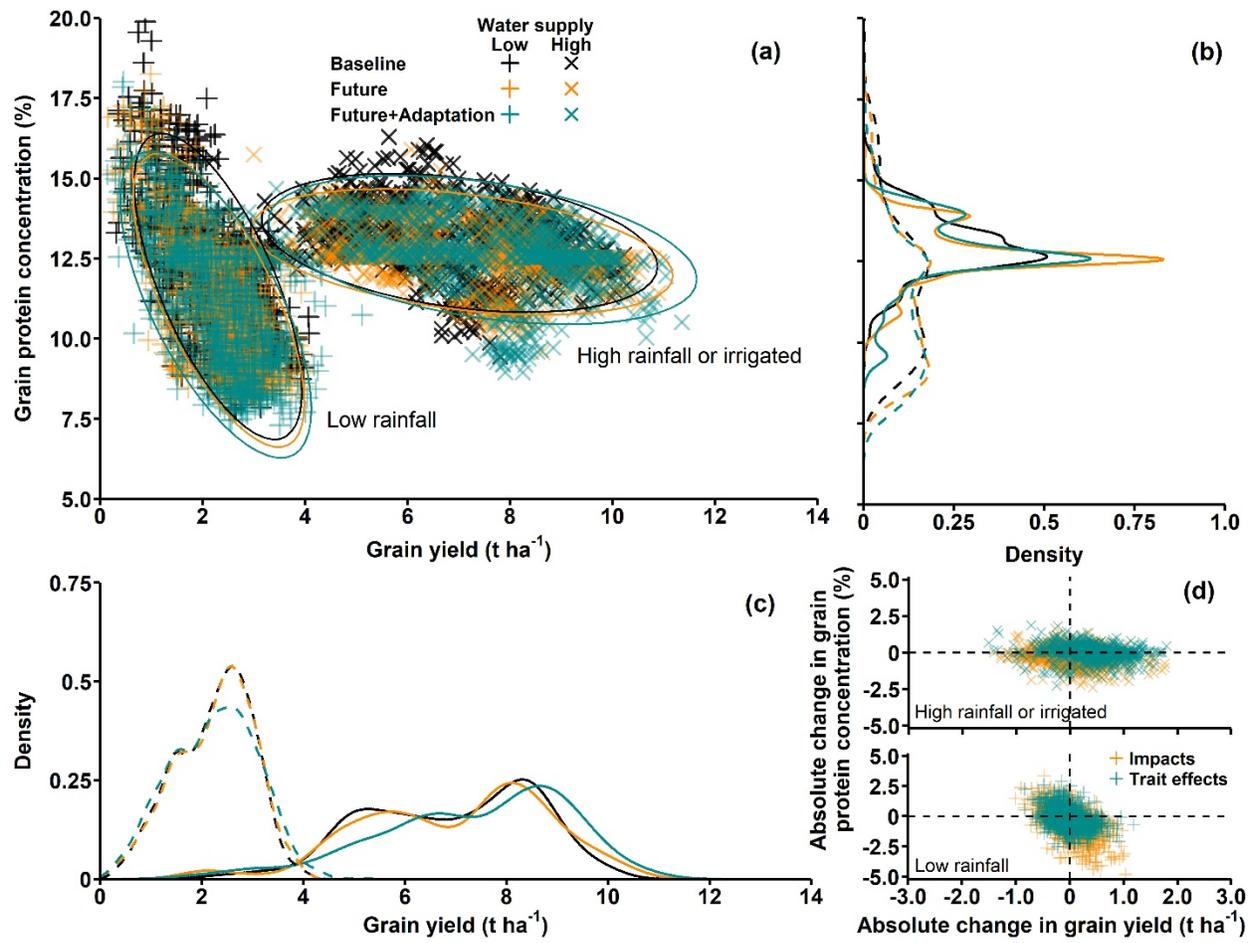
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2 Fig. 5

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1 (a) Change in grain and protein yield for current cultivars

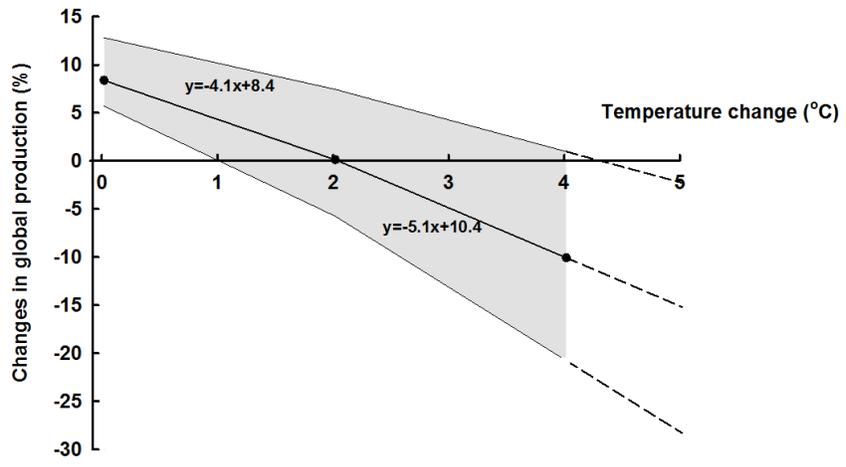




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2 Fig. 7

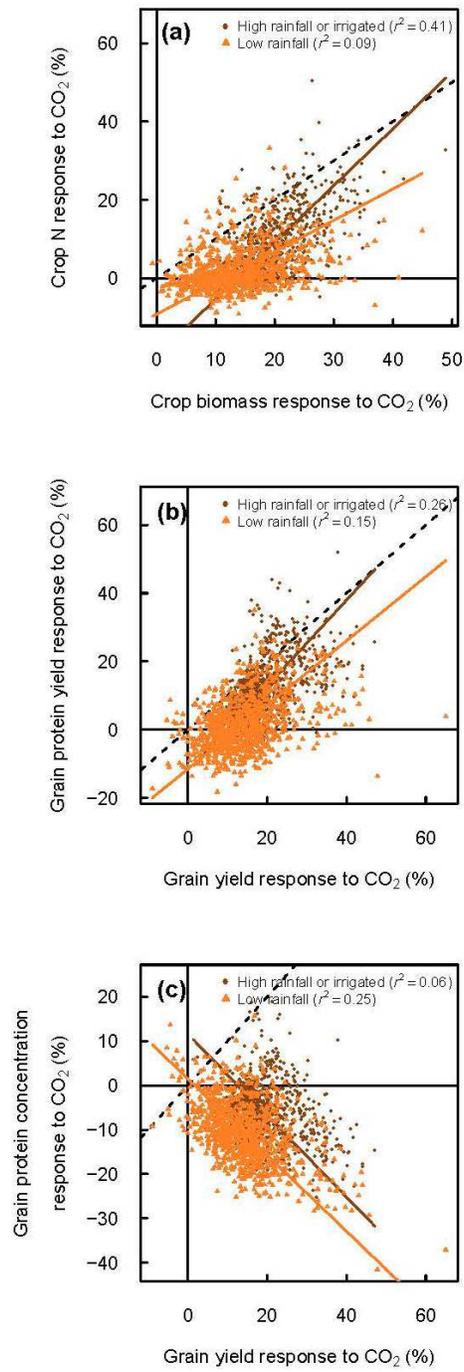
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