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Article:

Liu, B, Martre, P, Ewert, F et al. (2019) Global wheat production with 1.5 and 2.0°C above pre-industrial warming. *Global Change Biology*, 25 (4). pp. 1428-1444. ISSN: 1354-1013

<https://doi.org/10.1111/gcb.14542>

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1 **Title:** Global wheat production with 1.5 and 2.0°C above pre-industrial warming

2 **Running head:** Global wheat production with 1.5°C warming

3 **Paper type:** Primary research article

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116

117 **Abstract**

118 Efforts to limit global warming to below 2°C in relation to the pre-industrial level are under
119 way, in accordance with the 2015 Paris Agreement. However, most impact research on
120 agriculture to date has focused on impacts of warming >2°C on mean crop yields, and many
121 previous studies did not focus sufficiently on extreme events and yield interannual variability.
122 Here, with the latest climate scenarios from the Half a degree Additional warming, Prognosis
123 and Projected Impacts (HAPPI) project, we evaluated the impacts of the 2015 Paris
124 Agreement range of global warming (1.5°C and 2.0°C warming above the pre-industrial
125 period) on global wheat production and local yield variability. A multi-crop and multi-climate
126 model ensemble over a global network of sites developed by the Agricultural Model
127 Intercomparison and Improvement Project (AgMIP) for Wheat was used to represent major
128 rainfed and irrigated wheat cropping systems. Results show that projected global wheat
129 production will change by -2.3% to 7.0% under the 1.5 °C scenario and -2.4% to 10.5% under
130 the 2.0 °C scenario, compared to a baseline of 1980-2010, when considering changes in local
131 temperature, rainfall and global atmospheric CO₂ concentration, but no changes in
132 management or wheat cultivars. The projected impact on wheat production varies spatially; a
133 larger increase is projected for temperate high rainfall regions than for moderate hot low
134 rainfall and irrigated regions. Grain yields in warmer regions are more likely to be reduced
135 than in cooler regions. Despite mostly positive impacts on global average grain yields, the
136 frequency of extremely low yields (bottom 5 percentile of baseline distribution) and yield
137 inter-annual variability will increase under both warming scenarios for some of the hot
138 growing locations, including locations from the second largest global wheat producer –India,
139 which supplies more than 14% of global wheat. The projected global impact of warming <2°C
140 on wheat production are therefore not evenly distributed and will affect regional food security
141 across the globe as well as food prices and trade.

142

143 **Keywords:** Wheat production, Climate change, 1.5°C warming, Extreme low yields, Food
144 security, Model-ensemble.

145 **Introduction**

146 The global community agreed with the Paris agreement to limiting global warming to 2.0°C,
147 with the stated ambition to attempt to cap warming at 1.5°C (UNFCCC, 2015). While limiting
148 the extent of climate change is critical, the more ambitious 1.5°C mitigation strategy will
149 likely require considerable mitigation effort in the agricultural land use sector (Fujimori *et al.*,
150 2018), with some studies suggesting this would actually have more negative consequence for
151 food security than climate change impacts of 2.0°C (Frank *et al.*, 2017, Ruane *et al.*, 2018a,
152 van Meijl *et al.*, 2018). However, these economic land use studies generally only consider the
153 average effects of climate change and not the changes in yield variability and risk of yield
154 failure, key factors constraining intensification efforts in many developing regions (Kalkuhl *et*
155 *al.*, 2016). Further such studies have generally not considered real cultivars nor typical
156 production conditions.

157 Agricultural production and food security is one of many sectors already affected by
158 climate change (Davidson, 2016, Porter *et al.*, 2014). Wheat is one of the most important food
159 crops, providing a substantial portion of calories for about four billion people (Shiferaw *et al.*,
160 2013). Wheat production systems' response to warming can be substantial (Asseng *et al.*,
161 2015, Liu *et al.*, 2016, Rosenzweig *et al.*, 2014), but restricted warming levels of < 2.0°C
162 global warming of above pre-industrial are underrepresented in previous assessments (Porter
163 *et al.*, 2014). Thus, assessing the impact of 1.5 and 2.0°C global warming of above pre-
164 industrial conditions on crop productivity levels, including the potential benefits of associated
165 carbon dioxide (CO₂) fertilization, and the likelihood of extremely low yielding wheat
166 harvests is critical for understanding the challenges of global warming for global food
167 security.

168 Several simulation studies have assessed the changes of global wheat production due to
169 the changes in climate and CO₂ concentration (Asseng *et al.*, 2015, Asseng *et al.*, 2018,
170 Rosenzweig *et al.*, 2014). However, previous studies have almost all considered more extreme
171 warming and most of current studies investigated the impact of global warming >2.0°C,
172 which means that previous impact assessments lacked details for < 2°C of warming. Also
173 many previous studies did not focus sufficiently on extreme events and yield interannual
174 variability (Challinor *et al.*, 2014, Porter *et al.*, 2014). Therefore, in terms of food security, it
175 is important to analyze the effect of the new 1.5°C and 2.0°C warming scenarios on the
176 interannual variability of crop production. In particular, studies on impact of 1.5°C and 2.0°C
177 global warming on wheat production at a global and regional scale are missing.

178 Process-based crop simulation models, as tools to quantify the complexity of crop growth
179 as driven by climate, soil, and management practice, have been widely used in climate change
180 impact assessments at different spatial scales (Challinor *et al.*, 2014, Chenu *et al.*, 2017,
181 Ewert *et al.*, 2015a, Porter *et al.*, 2014), including multi-model ensemble approaches (Asseng
182 *et al.*, 2015, Asseng *et al.*, 2013, Wang *et al.*, 2017). The multi-model ensemble approach has
183 been proven to be a reliable method in reproducing the main effects anticipated for climate
184 change when simulations are compared with field-experimental observations (including
185 changes in temperature, heat events, rainfall, atmospheric CO₂ concentration [CO₂] and their
186 interactions) (Asseng *et al.*, 2015, Asseng *et al.*, 2013, Asseng *et al.*, 2018, Wallach *et al.*,
187 2018, Wang *et al.*, 2017).

188 Here, we applied a global network of 60 representative wheat production sites and an
189 ensemble of 31 crop models (Asseng *et al.*, 2015; Asseng *et al.*, 2018) developed by the
190 Agricultural Model Intercomparison and Improvement Project (AgMIP) Wheat Team
191 (Rosenzweig *et al.*, 2013) with climate scenarios from five Global Climate Models (GCMs)
192 from the Half a degree Additional warming, Prognosis and Projected Impacts (HAPPI) project
193 (Mitchell *et al.*, 2017, Ruane *et al.*, 2018b) to evaluate the impacts of the 2015 Paris
194 Agreement range of global warming (1.5°C and 2.0°C warming above the pre-industrial
195 period, referred hereafter as ‘1.5 scenario’ and ‘2.0 scenario’) on global wheat production and
196 yield interannual variability. We hypothesize that the mean impacts of warming may not
197 differ greatly between the two scenarios as losses due to accelerated development are
198 compensated by gains from elevated CO₂. However, we expect that the higher frequency of
199 extreme events under 2.0°C (Ruane *et al.*, 2018b) would result in greater damages of heat and
200 drought stress, greater inter annual variability and higher risk of yield failures. Such
201 information could supply important nuance in understanding the implications of the two
202 levels of warming and associated mitigation efforts of the two warming scenarios.

203

204 **Materials and Methods**

205 **Model inputs for global simulations**

206 An ensemble of 31 wheat crop models was used to assess climate change impacts for 60
207 representative wheat growing locations developed by the AgMIP-Wheat team (Asseng *et al.*,
208 2015, Asseng *et al.*, 2018, Wallach *et al.*, 2018). All models in the ensemble were calibrated
209 for the phenology of local cultivars and used site-specific soils and crop management. The
210 multi-model ensemble used here has been tested against observed field data and showed
211 reliable response to changing climate in several previous studies, including responses of

212 model ensemble to elevated CO₂, post-anthesis chronic warming and different heat shock
213 treatments during grain filling (Asseng *et al.*, 2018, Wallach *et al.*, 2018). Ruane *et al.* (2016)
214 and Hoffman *et al.* (2015) showed that a multi-model ensemble can also reproduce some of
215 observed seasonal yield variability. The 60 locations are from key wheat growing regions in
216 the world (Table S1). Locations 1 to 30 are high rainfall or irrigated wheat growing locations
217 representing 68% of current global wheat production. These locations were simulated without
218 water or nitrogen limitation. Details about these locations can be found in Asseng *et al.*
219 (2015). Locations 31 to 60 are low rainfall locations with average wheat yield < 4 t ha⁻¹ and
220 represent 32% of current global wheat production (Asseng *et al.*, 2018).

221 Thirty-one wheat crop models (Table S2) within AgMIP were used for assessing impacts
222 of 1.5°C and 2.0°C global warming above pre-industrial time on global wheat production
223 (Asseng *et al.*, 2018). The 31 wheat crop models considered here have been described in
224 publications. All model simulations were executed by the individual modeling groups with
225 expertise in using the model they executed. All modeling groups were provided with daily
226 weather data, basic physical characteristics of soil, initial soil water and N content by layer
227 and crop management information. One representative cultivar, either winter or spring type,
228 was selected for each location after consulting with local experts or literature. Different wheat
229 types may be used at different locations in one country (e.g. China, Russia and U.S.A), to
230 cover some of the possible heterogeneity in cultivar use (Table S1). Observed local mean
231 sowing, anthesis, and maturity dates were supplied to modelers with qualitative information
232 on vernalization requirements and photoperiod sensitivity for each cultivar. Observed sowing
233 dates were used and cultivar parameters calibrated with the observed anthesis and maturity
234 dates by considering the qualitative information on vernalization requirements and
235 photoperiod sensitivity. More details about model inputs are provided in the supplementary
236 methods and in Asseng *et al.* (2018).

237

238 **Future climate projections**

239 Baseline (1980-2010) climate data for each wheat modeling site comes from the
240 AgMERRA climate dataset, which combines observations, reanalysis data, and satellite data
241 products to provide daily climate forcing data for agricultural modeling (Ruane *et al.*, 2015a).
242 Climate scenarios here are consistent with the AgMIP Coordinated Global and Regional
243 Assessments (CGRA) 1.5 and 2.0 °C World study (Rosenzweig *et al.*, 2018; Ruane *et al.*,
244 2018a, 2018b), utilizing the methods summarized below and in the supplementary material
245 and fully described by Ruane *et al.* (2018b). Climate changes from large (83-500 member for

246 each model) climate model ensemble projections of the +1.5 and +2.0°C scenarios from the
247 Half a Degree Additional Warming, Prognosis and Projected Impacts project (HAPPI)
248 (Mitchell *et al.*, 2017) are combined with the local AgMERRA baseline to generate driving
249 climate scenarios from five GCMs [MIROC5, NorESM1-M, CanAM4 (HAPPI), CAM4-
250 2degree (HAPPI), and HadAM3P] for each location (Ruane *et al.*, 2018b). Only five GCMs
251 here were used due to data availability at the time the study was conducted. Specifically,
252 HAPPI ensemble changes in monthly mean climate, the number of precipitation days, and the
253 standard deviation of daily maximum and minimum temperatures are imposed upon the
254 historical AgMERRA daily series using quantile mapping that forces the observed conditions
255 to mimic the future distribution of daily events (Ruane *et al.*, 2015b; Ruane *et al.*, 2018b).
256 This results in climate scenarios that maintain the characteristics of local climate while also
257 capturing major climate changes. As in previous AgMIP assessments, solar radiation changes
258 from GCMs introduce uncertainties that can at times overwhelm the impact of temperature
259 and rainfall changes, and thus were not considered here other than small radiation effects
260 associated with changes in the number of precipitation days (Ruane *et al.*, 2015b).

261 HAPPI anticipates atmospheric [CO₂] for 1.5 scenario (1.5°C above the 1861-1880 pre-
262 industrial period = ~0.6°C above current global mean temperature) (Morice *et al.*, 2012) and
263 2.0 scenario (2.0°C above pre-industrial = ~1.1°C above current global mean temperature) at
264 423 ppm and 487 ppm ([CO₂] in the center of the 1980-2010 current period is 360 ppm).
265 Uncertainty around these CO₂ levels from climate models' transient and equilibrium climate
266 sensitivity is not explored here, although [CO₂] for 2.0°C warming may be slightly
267 overestimated (Ruane *et al.*, 2018b).

268 This large climate × crop model setup enabled a robust multi-model ensemble estimate
269 (Martre *et al.*, 2015, Wallach *et al.*, 2018) as well as analysis of spatial heterogeneity (Liu *et*
270 *al.*, 2016) and inter-model uncertainty. There were 11 treatments (baseline, five GCMs for
271 1.5, and five GCMs for 2.0 scenario) simulated for 60 locations and 30 years (see additional
272 detail on climate scenarios in Supplemental Material and in Ruane *et al.*, [2018b]).

273

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

275 Simulation results were up-scaled using a stratified sampling method, a guided sampling
276 method to improve the scaling quality (van Bussel *et al.* 2016), with several points per wheat
277 mega region when necessary (Gbegbelegbe *et al.* 2017). During the up-scaling process, the
278 simulation result of a location was weighted by the production the location represents as
279 described below (Asseng *et al.* 2015). Liu *et al.* (2016) recently showed that stratified

280 sampling with 30 locations across wheat mega regions resulted in similar temperature impact
281 and uncertainty as aggregation of simulated grid cells at country and global scale. And Zhao
282 *et al.*, 2016 indicated that the uncertainty due to sampling decreases with increasing number
283 of sampling points. We therefore doubled the 30 locations from Asseng *et al.* (2015) to 60
284 locations (Supplementary Table S1) to cover contrasting conditions across all wheat mega
285 regions.

286 Before aggregating local impacts at 60 locations to global impacts, we determined the
287 actual production represented by each location following the procedure described by Asseng
288 *et al.* (2015). The total wheat production for each country came from FAO country wheat
289 production statistics for 2014 (www.fao.org). For each country, wheat production was
290 classified into three categories (i.e., high rainfall, irrigated, and low rainfall). The ratio for
291 each category was quantified based on the Spatial Production Allocation Model (SPAM)
292 dataset (<https://harvestchoice.org/products/data>). For some countries where no data was
293 available through the SPAM dataset, we estimated the ratio for each category based on the
294 country-level yield from FAO country wheat production statistics. The high rainfall
295 production and irrigated production in each country were represented by the nearest high
296 rainfall and irrigated locations (locations 1 to 30). Low rainfall production in each country
297 was represented by the nearest low rainfall locations (locations 31 to 60).

298 For each climate change scenario, we calculated the absolute regional production loss by
299 multiplying the relative yield loss from the multi-model ensemble median (median across 31
300 models and five GCMs) with the production represented at each location. Global wheat
301 production loss was determined by adding all regional production losses, and the relative
302 impacts on global wheat production was calculated by dividing simulated global production
303 loss by historical global production. Similar steps with global impacts were used for
304 calculating the impacts on country scale impacts, except that only the local impacts from
305 corresponding locations in each country were aggregated to the country impacts.

306 We also tested the significance of the differences in the estimated impacts and the
307 changes of simulated yield inter-annual variability between the two warming scenarios. More
308 detailed steps about impact aggregation and significance tests can be found in the
309 supplementary methods.

310 **Environmental clustering of the 60 global locations**

311 The 60 global wheat growing locations were clustered in order to analyze the results by
312 groups of environments with similar climates (Fig. S5). A hierarchical clustering on principal
313 components of the 60 locations was performed based on four climate variables for 1981-2010:
314 the growing season (sowing to maturity) mean temperature, the growing season cumulative
315 evapotranspiration, the growing season cumulative solar radiation, and the number of heat
316 stress days (maximum daily temperature > 32°C) during the grain filling period. All data were
317 scaled (centered and reduced to make the mean and standard deviation of data to be zero and
318 one, respectively) prior to the principal component analysis.

319 After determining the wheat yield impacts for each of the 1.5 and 2.0°C scenarios, yield
320 variability for both scenarios was assessed, including the extreme low yield probability and
321 yield interannual variability. For each location, we determined the yield threshold of the
322 bottom 5% from the yield series for the baseline period and calculated the cumulative
323 probability series of simulated yields under 1.5 and 2.0 °C scenarios. Next, the probability of
324 occurrence for extreme low yield for each scenario was assessed as the corresponding
325 cumulative probability of the yield threshold of the bottom 5% from baseline period from the
326 cumulative probability series. Interannual yield variability was quantified as the coefficient of
327 variation of simulated yields over the 30 year simulation period. In all cases, the multi-model
328 median from the 31 models was employed.

329

330 **Results**

331 **Impacts of 2015 Paris Agreement compliant warming**

332 Compared with the present baseline period (1980 to 2010; 0.67 °C above pre-industrial)
333 the HAPPI scenarios gave projected temperature increases of 1.1°C to 1.4°C [25% to 75%
334 range of 60 locations] for the 60 wheat-growing locations spread over the globe under the 1.5
335 scenario, and 1.6°C to 2.0°C under the 2.0 scenario (Fig. S1). Temperature increase during the
336 wheat growing season (sowing to maturity) typically warm about 0.5°C less than the annual
337 mean under both warming scenarios: 0.7°C to 1.0°C [25% to 75% range of 60 locations]
338 under the 1.5 scenario, and 1.0°C to 1.5°C under 2.0 scenario (Fig. S2). In the HAPPI
339 scenarios, annual rainfall is projected to increase in most of the 60 locations under both
340 warming scenarios (Fig. S3) (Ruane *et al.*, 2018b).

341 Based on baseline climate conditions (1980 to 2010), we categorized the 60 wheat
342 production sites into three environment types (temperate high rainfall, moderately hot low
343 rainfall, and hot irrigated) (Fig. S5). Across these environments, increasing temperatures
344 reduce wheat crop duration due to accelerated phenology (Fig.S22a). As a consequence, the

345 crop duration declines with future climate change scenarios compared with the baseline. For
346 most of the locations from temperate high rainfall and moderately hot low rainfall regions,
347 simulated cumulative growing season evapotranspiration (ET) and growing season rainfall
348 decreased slightly under the 1.5 and 2.0 scenario (Fig. S20b and S21b). In hot irrigated regions,
349 simulated cumulative evapotranspiration decreased (in average by -16 and -25 mm) under
350 both warming scenarios during the crop duration (Fig. S20b), while simulated cumulative
351 rainfall increased slightly (usually less than 10 mm) in more than half of the locations (Fig.
352 S21b) due to projected increase in annual rainfall (Fig. S3). The decrease in cumulative ET
353 was mostly due to shorter crop duration (in average by -4.9 and -7.2 days) due to warming, as
354 shown with significant negative relationship between growing season cumulative ET and crop
355 duration in all hot irrigated locations (Fig. S23). For example, cumulative ET decreased by
356 about 2.2 mm with a shortening of the growing season by one day in Aswan, Egypt. Heat
357 stress days (daily maximum air temperature > 32°C) (Porter and Gawith, 1999) during grain
358 filling already occurs in almost all regions, but their frequency increases under both warming
359 scenarios, particularly in moderately hot low rainfall (in average by 1.0 and 1.6 days) and hot
360 irrigated locations (in average by 1.8 and 2.5 days; Fig. S22b).

361

362 Simulated impacts on wheat yields for the 1.5 and 2.0 scenario (Fig.1) are negatively
363 correlated with baseline crop season mean temperature (Fig.2a), suggesting that cooler
364 regions will benefit more from moderate warming. For example, most locations with crop
365 growing season mean temperature (sowing to maturity) < 15°C will have mostly positive
366 yield changes, while for growing-season mean temperature > 15°C, any increase in
367 temperature will reduce grain yields (Fig.2a) despite the growth-stimulation from elevated
368 [CO₂]. Generally, regions which produce the largest proportion of wheat globally are
369 projected to have small positive yield changes under both scenarios, but there are exceptions
370 such as India, which is currently the world's second largest wheat producer (Fig. 2).

371 The projected changes in growing season climate variables have a significant impact on
372 simulated grain yield under the two warming scenarios at most global locations. As shown in
373 Table S4, a significant negative relationship between simulated grain yield and growing
374 season mean temperature and the number of heat stress days during grain filling were found at
375 most locations, especially for hot irrigated locations, while a significant positive relationship
376 between simulated grain yields and growing season cumulative ET, solar radiation and
377 rainfall (only for rainfed locations) were found in almost all locations. For example, wheat
378 grain yield at Griffith, Australia was projected to decrease by 0.44 t ha⁻¹ per °C increase in

379 growing season mean temperature, and decrease by 0.067 t ha⁻¹ per day increase in heat stress
380 days, but increase by 0.008 t ha⁻¹ per mm increase in growing season cumulative ET. In
381 addition, shortening the growing season duration was also found to negatively impact
382 simulated wheat yield significantly. For example, wheat yield was projected to decrease by
383 0.1 t ha⁻¹ per day reduction in growing season duration, in Indore, India. Growing season
384 rainfall also showed significant positive effects on projected grain yield in most rainfed
385 locations (Table S4), however, projected growing season rainfall declined in most locations,
386 except for small rainfall increases in a few hot irrigated locations (Fig. S21b).

387

388 When scaling up from the 60 locations, we found that wheat yields in about 80% of
389 wheat production areas will increase under 1.5 scenario, but usually by less than 5% (Fig. 3).
390 Largest positive impacts under 1.5 scenario are projected for USA (6.4%), the third largest
391 wheat producer in the world. Loss in wheat yields under the 1.5 scenario is projected mostly
392 for Central Asia, Africa and South America (Fig. 3), regions with generally high growing
393 season temperatures, shorter crop duration, and more heat-stress days during grain filling (Fig.
394 S14). Further yield declines in these countries are expected with the 2.0 scenario, including in
395 large wheat producing countries like India (-2.9%; Fig. 3).

396 Analysis for the three environment types projects a larger yield increase for temperate
397 high rainfall regions (3.2% and 5.5% under 1.5 and 2.0 scenario, respectively) than for
398 moderately hot low rainfall (2.1% and 2.4%) but a decline in hot irrigated regions (-0.7% and
399 0.02%; Fig. S9 and Fig.S10). These positive values contrast with the negative trend found
400 across a meta-analysis, with a large uncertainty range, with local temperature change of 1.5 to
401 2.0°C, despite positive effects from elevated [CO₂] (Challinor *et al.*, 2014).

402 Up-scaled to the globe, wheat production on current wheat-producing areas is projected
403 to increase by 1.9% (-2.3% to 7.0%, 25th percentile to 75th percentile) under the 1.5 and by
404 3.3% (-2.4% to 10.5%) under the 2.0 scenario (Fig. 4a and Fig.S8a). The differences in
405 estimated ensemble median impacts between the two warming levels may be small, but
406 significant, as indicated by a statistical test for the model ensemble median of the global
407 impacts ($P < 0.001$). Under the Representative Concentration Pathway 8.5 (RCP8.5) for the
408 2050s, with a global mean temperature increase of 2.6°C above pre-industrial, global
409 production grain yields are suggested to increase by 2.7% (Asseng *et al.*, 2018), highlighting
410 the non-linear nature of climate change impact.

411 When up-scaling the impact for different wheat types (Fig.S26), the impact on global
412 wheat production of the multi-model medians were 0.76% and 1.26% for spring wheat types

413 (planted at 39 global locations) under 1.5 and 2.0 scenario but 3.2% and 5.7% for winter
414 wheat types (planted at 21 global locations), respectively.

415

416 **More variable yields in hot and dry areas**

417 While the 30-year average yield is projected to increase under the 1.5 and 2.0 scenario
418 across many regions, the risk of extremely low yields may increase, especially in some of the
419 hot-dry locations. The probability of extreme low yields (yields lower than the bottom 5-
420 percentile of the 1981-2010 distribution) will increase significantly in more than half of the
421 moderately hot low rainfall locations under both scenarios (Fig. 5 and Fig.S19a). For the hot
422 irrigated locations, the probability of extreme low yields will increase significantly in about
423 half of the locations (Fig.S13 and Fig.S19a). In some hot irrigated locations, the likelihood of
424 extreme low yields will increase by up to 5-times, that is from 5% under baseline to 11% and
425 22% under 1.5 warming and 2.0 warming scenario, respectively, e.g. in Wad Medani from
426 Sudan. But in other hot irrigated locations (e.g. Maricopa in U.S.A., Aswan in Egypt, and
427 Balcarce in Argentina) and most of temperate high rainfall locations, the extreme low yield
428 probability will decrease or remain unchanged for the two warming scenarios (Fig.S11 and
429 Fig.S19a). The likelihood of extreme low yields will increase significantly from 1.5 warming
430 to 2.0 warming scenario only at three locations (from 11% to 22% at Wad Medani in Sudan,
431 from 14% to 15% at Swift Current in Canada, and from 7% to 11% at Bloemfontein in South
432 Africa), and remain to be same at all other locations.

433 To determine the reasons for the changes in extreme low yield probability, relationships
434 between changes in growing season variables and changes in extreme low yield probability
435 were quantified with linear regressions. As shown in Fig. S24, only growing season mean
436 temperature, maximum temperature, minimum temperature, heat stress days, and cumulative
437 rainfall (only in rainfed locations) were found to be significantly related to changes in extreme
438 low yield probability (all $P < 0.05$), but with relatively poor correlation (r between 0.26 and
439 0.61). Among these variables, growing season maximum temperature explained most of the
440 changes in extreme low yield probability, with $r= 0.54$ and 0.61 for the 1.5 and 2.0 scenarios,
441 respectively (Fig. S24). The probability of extreme low yields was projected to increase by
442 10% and 9% per °C increase in growing season maximum temperature under 1.5 and 2.0
443 scenarios, respectively.

444

445 Under 1.5 warming scenario, the inter-annual variability of simulated grain yields was
446 projected to increase significantly in only few locations (mostly in hot irrigated locations,
447 Fig.S19b), while moderate warmings of 2.0°C above pre-industrial is projected to increase the
448 inter-annual variability of simulated grain yields in about 50% of hot irrigated locations and
449 parts of moderately hot low rainfall locations significantly, including Sudan, Bangladesh,
450 Egypt, and India (Fig. 6). For example, inter-annual variability of simulated grain yields is
451 projected to increase by 23% to 35% in Wad Medani from Sudan under 1.5 and 2.0 scenario,
452 respectively. The inter-annual variability of simulated grain yields will increase significantly
453 from 1.5 warming to 2.0 warming scenario at five moderately hot low rainfall locations and
454 four hot irrigated locations and remain to be same at all other locations. For example, the
455 inter-annual variability of simulated grain yields will increase 20% and 27% at Bloemfontein
456 in South Africa under 1.5 and 2.0 scenario, respectively. No significant changes in the inter-
457 annual variability of simulated grain yields were found in most of the temperate high rainfall
458 locations under two warming scenarios (Fig. 6 and Fig. S19b).

459 The relationship between changes in growing season variables (including growing season
460 duration, cumulative ET, cumulative solar radiation, cumulative rainfall, mean temperature,
461 maximum temperature, minimum temperature, and heat stress days) and changes in yield
462 interannual variability (CV) were also quantified with linear regressions. As shown in Fig.
463 S25, only growing season duration, cumulative ET, and heat stress days were statistically
464 significantly related to changes in yield interannual variability ($P < 0.05$), but with relatively
465 poor correlation coefficients ($0.24 < r < 0.38$). Among these variables, growing season heat
466 stress days explains most of the changes in yield interannual variability, with $r = 0.38$ and 0.34
467 for the 1.5 and 2.0 scenarios, respectively (Fig. S25). Yield interannual variability was
468 projected to increase by 2.6% and 2.0% per day increase in growing season heat stress days
469 under the 1.5 and 2.0 scenarios, respectively.

470

471 **Discussion**

472 With the latest climate scenarios from the HAPPI project, we used a multi-crop and
473 multi-climate model ensemble over a global network of sites to represent major rainfed and
474 irrigated systems to assess global wheat production and local yield interannual variability
475 under 1.5°C and 2.0°C warming above preindustrial, which considered changes in local
476 temperature, rainfall and global [CO₂]. Under the two warming scenarios, climate impact on
477 wheat yield can be largely attributed to elevated [CO₂], shorter wheat growth duration due to
478 increasing growing season temperature and a decrease in cumulative evapotranspiration in

479 most of the 60 locations (Table S4 and Fig. S20-22). In addition, even with restricted
480 warming levels, increasing weather variability also negatively impact projected wheat
481 production (Table S4 and Fig. S22). However, considering the uncertainty related to [CO₂] in
482 the 1.5 and 2.0°C scenarios (see below), the small differences in yield impact for the two
483 scenarios do not allow concluding on the putative benefits of a limitation of global warming
484 to 1.5°C compared with 2.0°C for global wheat yield production.

485

486 **Changes in atmospheric CO₂ concentration drive the impacts of 1.5 and 2.0°C scenarios** 487 **on wheat yield**

488 Using four independent methods (Liu *et al.*, 2016, Zhao *et al.*, 2017), global wheat yields
489 had been previously projected to decline by an average of -5.0% for each increase in 1.0°C
490 global warming, but in the absence of concomitant atmospheric [CO₂] increase. Similar
491 findings have been reported for various typical wheat cultivation regions in Europe when
492 applying a systematic climate sensitivity analysis (Pirttioja *et al.*, 2015). In a sensitivity
493 analysis with the same crop model ensemble for the same 60 representative locations, global
494 wheat production could increase by about 15.8% when CO₂ increased from 360ppm to
495 550ppm. The two HAPPI scenarios include 423 ppm and 487 ppm [CO₂] and the impacts
496 from CO₂ fertilization under the two scenarios are a proportion of the impacts with those for
497 550ppm [CO₂]. When assuming a linear response of wheat yield to elevated CO₂ (Amthor,
498 2001), the impacts of elevated CO₂ under 1.5 and 2.0 scenarios would be 5.2% and 10.5%,
499 respectively, if nitrogen was not limiting. As the overall impacts of climate change under 1.5
500 and 2.0 scenarios were 1.9% and 3.3%, thus, we can conclude that most of the projected
501 increases in global wheat production under the 1.5 and 2.0 scenario can be attributed to a CO₂
502 fertilization effect (Fig. 4b and Fig.S8b). This conclusion is consistent with field observations
503 in a range of growing environments (Kimball, 2016, O'Leary *et al.*, 2015), and with a rate of
504 0.06% yield increase per ppm [CO₂] derived from a meta-analysis of simulation results
505 (Challinor *et al.*, 2014). The CO₂ fertilization effect is often found to dominate model-based
506 projections of future global wheat productivity (Rosenzweig *et al.*, 2014, Ruiz-Ramos *et al.*,
507 2017, Wheeler and von Braun, 2013), but with substantial uncertainties and regional
508 differences (Deryng *et al.*, 2016, Kersebaum and Nendel, 2014, Müller *et al.*, 2015).

509 The relatively low warming levels of the HAPPI scenarios (0.6 and 1.1°C above 1980-
510 2010 global mean temperature) but high increases in [CO₂] suggests that CO₂ fertilization
511 effects also dominate here (Kimball, 2016, O'Leary *et al.*, 2015), but could be less, if nitrogen
512 is limiting growth. However, the impacts here could be slightly overoptimistic with estimates

513 of heat stress, as most of crop models do not account for well-established canopy warming
514 under elevated CO₂ (Kimball *et al.*, 1999, Webber *et al.*, 2018). Also, Schleussner *et al.*
515 (2018) have shown that CO₂ uncertainties at 1.5°C and 2.0°C, which is not considered here,
516 are comparable to the effect of 0.5°C warming increments. This indicated possible differences
517 in impacts on wheat production in the simulated 1.5°C or 2.0°C worlds (Seneviratne *et al.*
518 2018), as a transient 1.5°C or 2.0°C world may see higher CO₂ concentrations because of the
519 lagged response of the climate system (peak warming around 10 years after zero CO₂
520 emissions are reached) and differences in aerosol loadings (Wang *et al.*, 2017). Ruane *et al.*
521 (2018b) also noted uncertainties related to CO₂ impacts in the 1.5°C and 2.0°C worlds, as well
522 as peculiarities in the definition of CO₂ concentrations in HAPPI. CO₂ is also identified as the
523 primary cause of increases between 1.5°C and 2.0°C worlds in Rosenzweig *et al.* (2018). Our
524 study focused on stabilized 1.5 and 2.0°C worlds rather than the transient pathways that get us
525 there, which will include gradually increasing CO₂ concentrations even as some scenarios
526 include an overshoot in global mean temperatures. Elevated CO₂ concentrations are expected
527 to have a particularly strong initial effect, although the benefits will saturate as CO₂
528 concentrations increase in RCP8.5 or other higher emission pathways.

529

530 **The interannual yield variability and the risk of extreme low yields will increase in a 1.5** 531 **and 2.0°C world**

532 Unlike the simulated grain yield impacts, aggregating the simulated yield variability from
533 representative locations to regions or globally with a multi-model ensemble approach has not
534 been tested with observed data. Different aggregation method may result in different
535 characteristics of climate-forced crop yield variance at different spatial scales. Therefore, the
536 simulated yield variability at local scale were not aggregated to region or global scale.

537 The fraction of yield interannual variability accounted for by weather-forced yield
538 variability may vary substantially depending on the region (Ray *et al.*, 2015; Ruane *et al.*,
539 2016); therefore, comparing simulated and observed yield interannual yield variability is
540 critical to analyze changes in yield variability. However, there are no time series data which
541 would allow a scientific model-observation comparison for all the 60 global locations and
542 even for regions where historical yield records are available, they usually do not allow an
543 evaluation of model performance due to missing information on sowing date, cultivar use,
544 crop management of fertilizer N and irrigation, soil characteristics, initial soil conditions and
545 bias in the reported yields (Guarin *et al.*, 2018). While for these reasons, it is not possible for
546 us to project meaningfully how interannual yield variability will change at regional or global

547 scale, our study supplies important information on how the additional half degree of warming
548 will impact on yield variability, considering the parallel changes in mean yield levels
549 associated with the combined warming and elevated CO₂ levels. This information is urgently
550 required by national governments and international policy makers in assessing the relative
551 risks and costs of mitigating to 1.5°C warming versus 2.0°C warming.

552 Here we compared our simulated interannual yield variability for the 60 global locations
553 with the estimated global interannual yield variability from statistic yield data in Ray *et al.*
554 (2015) (Fig. S27) and we found that the spatial patterns of interannual yield variability were
555 similar for the two studies. For example, both studies showed interannual yield variability and
556 estimated climate-induced yield variability were high at locations in southern Russia, Spain
557 and Kazakhstan, and were small at locations in western Europe, India and some locations in
558 China. Climate driven yield variability is generally higher in more intensive cropping
559 systems, and many regions around the world now actively pursue intensification of currently
560 low-yielding smallholder cropping systems. Therefore, our current projections of estimates of
561 climate driven yield variability under the two warming scenarios may be conservative, if
562 some regions will experience intensification and climate change simultaneously.

563 Extreme low yielding seasons can impact the livelihood of many farmers (Morton, 2007),
564 but also disturb global markets (e.g. Russian heat wave in 2010) (Welton, 2011), or even
565 destabilize entire regions of the world (e.g. Arab Spring in 2011) (Gardner *et al.*, 2015).
566 Climate scenarios used for this study included monthly mean changes and shifts in the
567 distribution of daily events within a season but did not include changes in interannual
568 variability; these changes are therefore largely the result of warmer average conditions
569 pushing wheat closer to damaging biophysical thresholds. A recent study based on the HAPPI
570 1.5 and 2.0 scenarios also identified an increased frequency of interannual drought conditions
571 in regions with declining or constant total precipitations (Ruane *et al.*, 2018b), although
572 skewness toward drought in the interannual distribution was small and highly geographically
573 variable.

574 Despite mostly positive impacts on average yields, projections suggest that the frequency
575 of extreme low yields will increase under both scenarios for some of the hot growing
576 locations (for both low rainfall and irrigated sites), including India, that currently supply more
577 than 14% of global wheat (FAO, 2014). Similarly, an increase in the frequency of crop
578 failures has been shown with 1.5°C global warming above the pre-industrial period for maize,
579 millet and sorghum in West Africa (Parkes *et al.*, 2017). On the other hand, Faye *et al.* (2018)
580 did not detect a change in yield variability for the same three crops in West African between

581 the 1.5 and 2.0°C warming scenarios using HAPPI climate data. In our study, the change in
582 climate extremes occurs due to projected shifts in mean temperatures (which bring wheat
583 cropping systems closer to heat stress thresholds) as well as shifts in the distribution of daily
584 temperatures, which can increase or decrease the frequency of future heat waves. Coupled
585 changes in projected precipitation may also exacerbate drought and heat stress yield damage.
586

587 **Impact of 1.5 and 2.0°C scenarios on wheat production and food security**

588 Wheat yields have been stagnating in many agricultural regions (Brisson *et al.*, 2010, Lin
589 and Huybers, 2012, Ray *et al.*, 2012). Shifting agriculture pole-wards has been considered
590 elsewhere, but might not be always possible or feasible for adapting to increasing temperature
591 due to land use and land suitability constrains. Measures like change in sowing date and
592 irrigation management, improved heat- and drought-resistant cultivars, reduced trade barriers,
593 and increased storage capacity (Schewe *et al.*, 2017) will be necessary to adapt to changes in
594 temperature and precipitation for improving food security. However, since the largest
595 estimated yield losses and increased probability of extreme low yields occur in tropical areas
596 (that is, in hot environment with low temperature seasonality) and under irrigated systems, the
597 above mentioned measures would probably not be sufficient. Therefore, it will be challenging
598 to find effective incremental solutions and might need to consider transformation of the
599 agricultural systems in some regions (Asseng *et al.*, 2013, Challinor *et al.*, 2014). In this
600 study, the extreme low yield probability and inter-annual yield variability of simulated yield
601 were projected to increase significantly in parts of hot irrigated locations and moderately hot
602 low rainfall locations, and further increase could be expected from 1.5 scenario to 2.0
603 scenario, especially for inter-annual yield variability. This indicated that more efforts will be
604 needed for adaptation for food security in these locations.
605

605

606 **Uncertainties**

607 Here, we up-scaled the climate warming impacts from 60 representative global locations
608 to country and globe scales, following the approach by Asseng *et al.* (2015). The 60 locations
609 were selected with local experts to be representative of each region and high-quality model
610 inputs for each location were obtained (Supplementary Table S1). Liu *et al.* (2016) and Zhao
611 *et al.* (2017) recently showed that up-scaled simulations for representative locations, as
612 suggested by van Bussel *et al.* (2015), have similar temperature impacts to 0.5° x 0.5° global
613 grid simulations or statistical approaches. The projected impact for spring wheat reported here

614 is similar to that reported by Iizumi *et al.* (2017), who reported global spring wheat
615 production to increase by 1.43%-1.60% and 1.43%-1.61% under 1.5 and 2.0 scenarios using a
616 global gridded simulation approach under different Shared Socioeconomic Pathways.

617 To analyze risks for the extreme low yields, we used a well-tested multi-model ensemble
618 (Asseng *et al.*, 2013, 2015, Asseng *et al.*, 2018, Ruane *et al.*, 2016, Wallach *et al.*, 2018)
619 instead of individual wheat models, as the model ensemble has shown to reproduce observed
620 yields and observed yield interannual variability. In Asseng *et al.* (2015), the multi-model
621 ensemble median reproduced observed wheat yield under different warming treatments, with
622 wheat growing season temperature ranging from 15°C to 32°C, including extreme heat
623 conditions. Asseng *et al.* (2018) recently demonstrated that a multi-model ensemble could
624 also simulate the impact of heat shocks and extreme drought on wheat yield.

625 Global warming will also affect weeds, pests and diseases, which are not considered in
626 our analysis, but could significantly impact crop production (Jones *et al.*, 2017, Juroszek and
627 von Tiedemann, 2013, Stratonovitch *et al.*, 2012). Possible agricultural land use changes were
628 not considered here, which could increase production (Nelson *et al.*, 2014), but also accelerate
629 further greenhouse gas emissions (Porter *et al.*, 2017), adding to the uncertainty of future
630 impact projections.

631
632 Projections in this study were designed to be consistent with the AgMIP Coordinated
633 Global and Regional Assessments (CGRA) of 1.5 and 2.0°C warming, and therefore add
634 additional detail and context to linked analysis of climate, crop, and economic implications
635 for agriculture across scales (Ruane *et al.*, 2018a). Here, the mean impact of 1.5°C and 2.0°C
636 warming above preindustrial on global wheat production is projected to be small but positive.
637 In addition, the significant differences between estimated ensemble median impacts from the
638 two warming scenarios indicate a potential yield benefit from higher global warming level.
639 However, in our study the uneven distribution of impacts across regions, including projected
640 average yield reductions in locations with rapid population growth (e.g. India), the increased
641 probability of extreme low yields and a higher inter-annual yield variability, will be more
642 challenging for food security and markets in a 2.0°C world than in 1.5°C world, particularly
643 in hot growing locations.

644

645 **Acknowledgments**

646 We thank the Agricultural Model Intercomparison and Improvement Project (AgMIP) for
647 support. B.L., L.X. and Y.Z. were supported by the National Science Foundation for
648 Distinguished Young Scholars (31725020), the National Natural Science Foundation of China
649 (31801260), the NSFC-RS International Cooperation and Exchanges Project (3161130182),
650 the Natural Science Foundation of Jiangsu province (BK20180523), the 111 Project
651 (B16026), and the Priority Academic Program Development of Jiangsu Higher Education
652 Institutions (PAPD). S.A. and B.K. received support from the International Food Policy
653 Research Institute (IFPRI) through the Global Futures and Strategic Foresight project, the
654 CGIAR Research Program on Climate Change, Agriculture and Food Security (CCAFS) and
655 the CGIAR Research Program on Wheat. P.M, D.R., and D.W. acknowledge support from the
656 FACCE JPI MACSUR project (031A103B) through the metaprogram Adaptation of
657 Agriculture and Forests to Climate Change (AAFCC) of the French National Institute for
658 Agricultural Research (INRA). F.T. and Z.Z. were supported by the National Natural Science
659 Foundation of China (41571088, 41571493 and 31561143003). R.R. acknowledges support
660 from the German Federal Ministry for Research and Education (BMBF) through project
661 ‘Limpopo Living Landscapes’ project (SPACES program; grant number 01LL1304A).
662 Rothamsted Research receives grant-aided support from the Biotechnology and Biological
663 Sciences Research Council (BBSRC) Designing Future Wheat project [BB/P016855/1]. L.X.
664 and Y.G. acknowledge support from the China Scholarship Council. M.B and R.F. were
665 funded by JPI FACCE MACSUR2 through the Italian Ministry for Agricultural, Food and
666 Forestry Policies and thank A. Soltani from Gorgan Univ. of Agric. Sci. & Natur. Resour for
667 his support. T.P. and F.T. received financial support from the FACCE MACSUR project
668 funded through the Finnish Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry (MMM) and from the
669 Academy of Finland through the projects NORFASYS (decision nos. 268277 and 292944)
670 and PLUMES (decision nos. 277403 and 292836). K.C.K. and C.N. received support from the
671 German Ministry for Research and Education (BMBF) within the FACCE JPI MACSUR
672 project. S.M. and C.M. acknowledge financial support from the MACMIT project
673 (01LN1317A) funded through BMBF. G.J.O. acknowledge support from the Victorian
674 Department of Economic Development, Jobs, Transport and Resources, the Australian
675 Department of Agriculture and Water Resources. P.K.A. was supported by the multiple
676 donors contributing to the CGIAR Research Program on Climate Change, Agriculture and
677 Food Security (CCAFS). B.B. received financial support from USDA NIFA-Water Cap
678 Award 2015-68007-23133. F.E. acknowledges support from the FACCE JPI MACSUR
679 project through the German Federal Ministry of Food and Agriculture (2815ERA01J) and

680 from the German Science Foundation (project EW 119/5-1). J.R.P. acknowledges the support
681 of the Labex Agro (Agropolis no. 1501-003). La. T.P. and F.T. received financial support
682 from the Academy of Finland through the project PLUMES (decision nos. 277403 and
683 292836) and from Natural Resources Institute Finland through the project ClimSmartAgri.

684

685 **Statement on Competing Interests:** The authors declare no competing interests.

686

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896

897

898 **Figure captions**

899

900 **Fig.1. Impact of (a) 1.5 and (b) 2.0 scenarios on wheat grain yield for 60 representative**
901 **global wheat growing locations.** Relative changes of grain yield were the median across 31
902 crop models and five GCMs, calculated with simulated 30-year mean grain yields for
903 baseline, 1.5 and 2.0 scenarios (HAPPI), including changes in temperature, rainfall, and
904 atmospheric [CO₂], using region-specific soils, cultivars and crop management.

905

906 **Fig. 2. Projected Impact of the 1.5 and 2.0 scenarios on wheat grain yield and crop**
907 **duration.** Simulated change in grain yield versus (a) growing season mean temperature and
908 (b) mean growing season duration (sowing to maturity) for the 1.5 (orange) and 2.0 (dark
909 cyan) scenarios (HAPPI). (c) Differences in relative change in grain yield between the 1.5 and
910 2.0 scenario versus growing season mean temperature for 60 representative wheat producing
911 global locations. Relative changes of grain yield were the median across 31 crop models and
912 five GCMs, calculated with simulated 30-year (1981-2010) mean grain yields for baseline, the
913 1.5 and 2.0 scenarios (including changes in temperature, rainfall and [CO₂]) using region-
914 specific soils, cultivars and crop management. The size of symbols indicates the production
915 represented by each location (using 2014 FAO country wheat production statistics). The
916 vertical and horizontal range crosses indicate the median 25-75% uncertainty range of relative
917 change in grain yields, growing season mean temperature, crop duration across the 31 crop
918 models and five GCMs, respectively. In (a), r^2 of linear regressions were 0.32 and 0.33 under
919 1.5 and 2.0 scenario, respectively ($P < 0.001$).

920

921 **Fig. 3. Simulated multi-model ensemble projection of global wheat grain production for**
922 **wheat growing area per country under the 1.5 and 2.0 scenarios (HAPPI).** Relative
923 climate change impacts on grain production under (a) the 1.5 and (b) 2.0 scenarios (including
924 changes in temperature, rainfall and [CO₂]) compared with the 1981-2010 baseline. Impacts
925 were calculated using the average over 30 years of yields and the medians across 31 models
926 and five GCMs, using region-specific soils, current cultivars and crop management. Impacts
927 from 60 global locations were aggregated to impacts on country production by weighting the
928 irrigated, high rainfall, and low rainfall production, based on FAO wheat production statistics.

929

930 **Fig. 4. Simulated global impacts of climate change scenarios on wheat production.**
931 Relative impact on global wheat grain production for (a) 1.5 and 2.0 warming scenarios

932 (HAPPI) with changes in temperature, rainfall and atmospheric [CO₂]. Atmospheric [CO₂] for
933 the 1.5 and 2.0 scenarios were 423 and 487 ppm, respectively. **(b)** Local temperature increase
934 by +2°C (360 ppm CO₂ +2°C) and +4°C (360 ppm CO₂ +4°C) for the baseline period with
935 historical [CO₂] (360 ppm) and elevated [CO₂] (550 ppm) for no temperature change
936 (Baseline), +2°C (550 ppm [CO₂] +2°C) and +4°C (550 ppm [CO₂] +4°C). Impacts were
937 weighted by production area (based on FAO statistics). Relative change in grain yields were
938 calculated from the mean of 30 years projected yields and the ensemble medians of 31 crop
939 models (plus five GCMs for HAPPI scenarios) using region-specific soils, cultivars, and crop
940 management. Error bars are the 25th and 75th percentiles across 31 crop models (plus five
941 GCMs for HAPPI scenarios).

942

943 **Fig. 5. Projected impacts of the 1.5 and 2.0 scenarios on the probability of extreme low**
944 **wheat yields. (a)** Grain yield distribution at three locations representative of the three main
945 types of environments (see below) for the 1981-2010 baseline and for the 1.5 and 2.0
946 scenarios (HAPPI; including changes in temperature, rainfall and [CO₂]). The yield
947 distribution at the 60 global sites is given in Fig. S11, Fig. S12, and Fig. S13. The vertical
948 dashed lines indicate the value of extreme low yields (defined as the lower 5% of the
949 distribution) for the baseline. **(b)** Probability of extreme low yield ($\leq 5\%$ of the baseline
950 distribution) for the 2.0 scenario at 60 representative global wheat growing locations for
951 clusters of temperate high rainfall or irrigated locations (green; 26 locations), moderately hot
952 low rainfall locations (yellow; 20 locations), and hot irrigated locations (red; 14 locations). In
953 **(b)**, ★ and ★★ indicates the changes of extreme low yield between warming scenario and
954 baseline was significant at $P < 0.05$ and $P < 0.01$, respectively. **(c)** and **(d)** Probability of
955 extreme low yields for each type of environment for the 1.5 and 2.0 scenario, respectively.
956 Horizontal dashed lines are the probability of extreme low yield for the baseline (defined as
957 the bottom 5% of the baseline distribution). Horizontal thick solid lines are the median
958 probability of extreme low yield. The circles are the 60-global locations shown in **(c)** and **(d)**,
959 their size indicates the production represented at each location (using FAO country wheat
960 production statistics) and their color the growing season mean temperature at each location for
961 the 1.5 and 2.0 scenarios. Within each environment type, the circles have been jiggled along
962 the horizontal axis to make it easier to see locations with similar probability values, which
963 means that the horizontal positions of circles in each environment type were used to avoid the
964 overlapping of circles and have no meaning. The shaded areas show the distribution of the
965 data. Numbers above each box are the mean yields for the baseline period and in parenthesis

966 the average yield impacts of the 1.5 and 2.0 scenarios compared with the 1981-2010 baseline
967 yield. See Supplementary Material and Methods for more details on clustering of wheat
968 growing environments.

969

970 **Fig. 6. Projected impacts of 1.5 and 2.0 scenario on wheat yield interannual variability.**

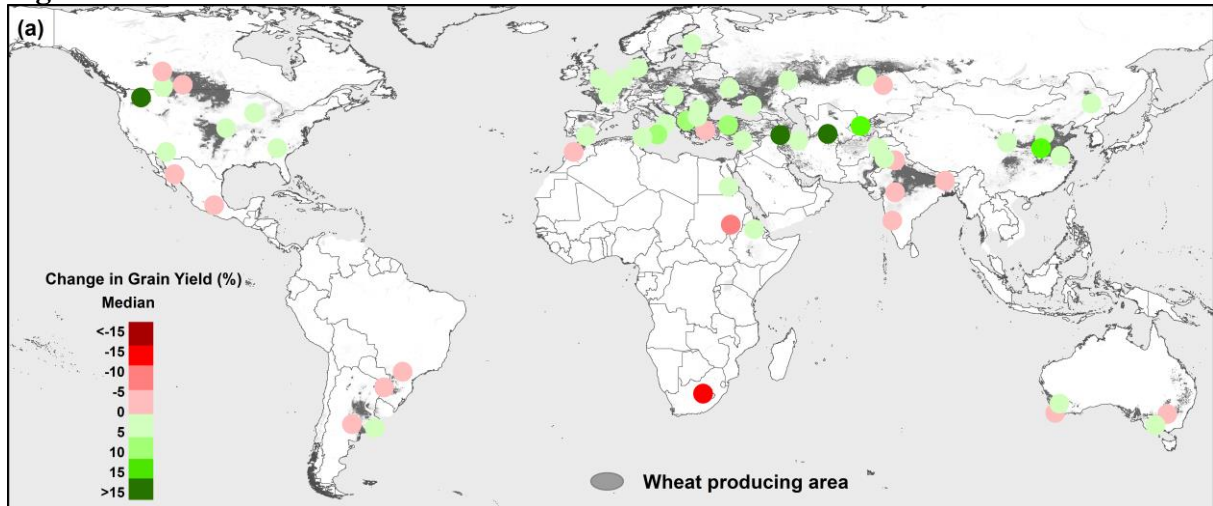
971 (a) Relative climate change impacts for the 2.0°C warming scenarios (HAPPI) compared with
972 the 1981-2010 baseline on interannual yield variability (coefficient of variation) at 60
973 representative global wheat growing locations for clusters of temperate high rainfall or
974 irrigated locations (green; 26 locations), moderately hot low rainfall locations (yellow; 20
975 locations), and hot irrigated locations (red; 14 locations). In (a), ★ and ★★ indicates the
976 changes of interannual yield variability between warming scenario and baseline was
977 significant at $P < 0.05$ and $P < 0.01$, respectively. The circles and triangles showed increased
978 and decreased interannual variability, respectively. (b) and (c) Relative climate change
979 impacts for the 1.5 and 2.0 scenarios compared with the 1981-2010 baseline on interannual
980 yield variability (coefficient of variation) in temperate high rainfall or irrigated (26 locations),
981 moderately hot low rainfall (20 locations), and hot irrigated (14 locations) locations.
982 Horizontal thick solid lines are the median change of interannual yield variability for each
983 environment type. The circles are the 60-global locations shown in (a), their size indicates the
984 production represented at each location (using FAO country wheat production statistics) and
985 their color the growing season mean temperature at each location under the 1.5 and 2.0
986 scenarios. Within each environment type the circles have been jiggled along the horizontal
987 axis to make it easier to see locations with similar probability values, which means that the
988 horizontal positions of circles in each environment type were used to avoid the overlapping of
989 circles, and have no meaning. The shaded areas show the distribution of the data.

990

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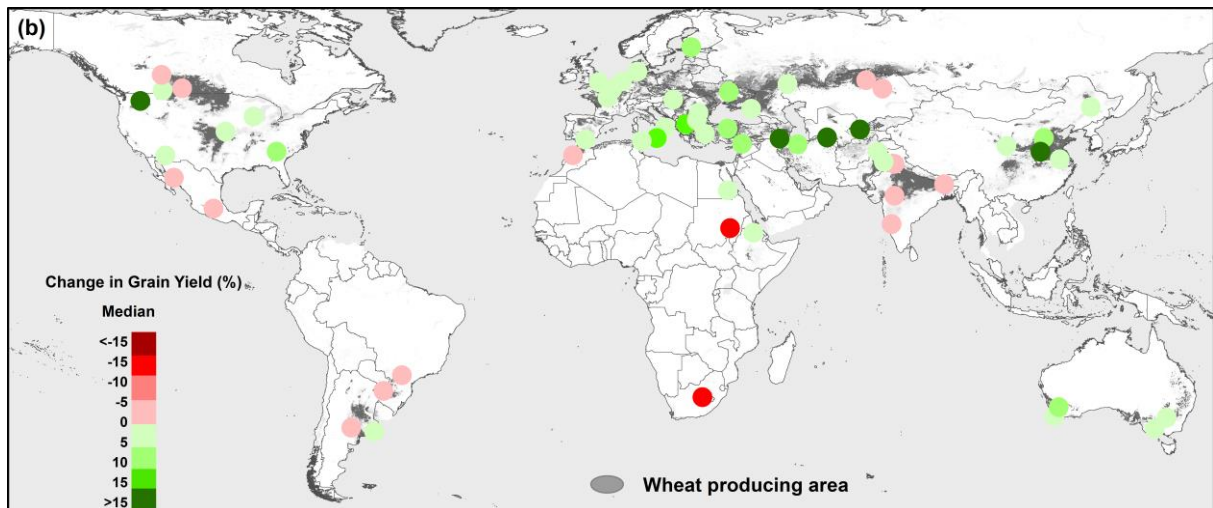
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Figure 1



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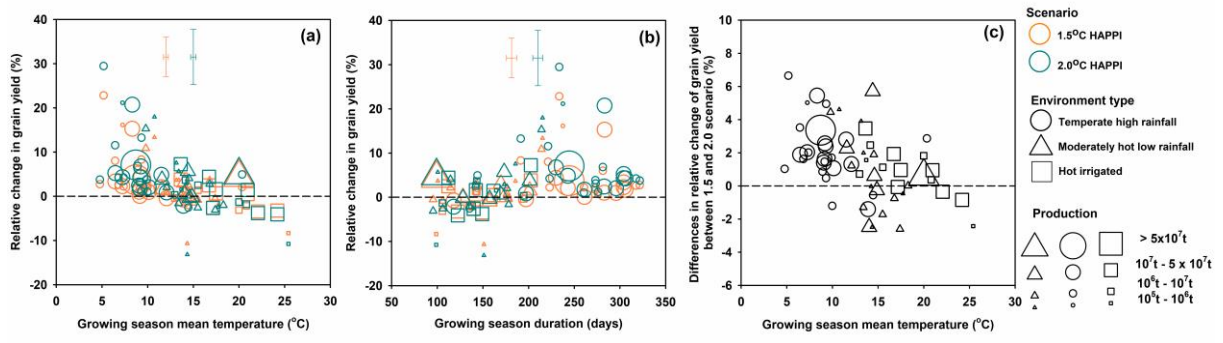


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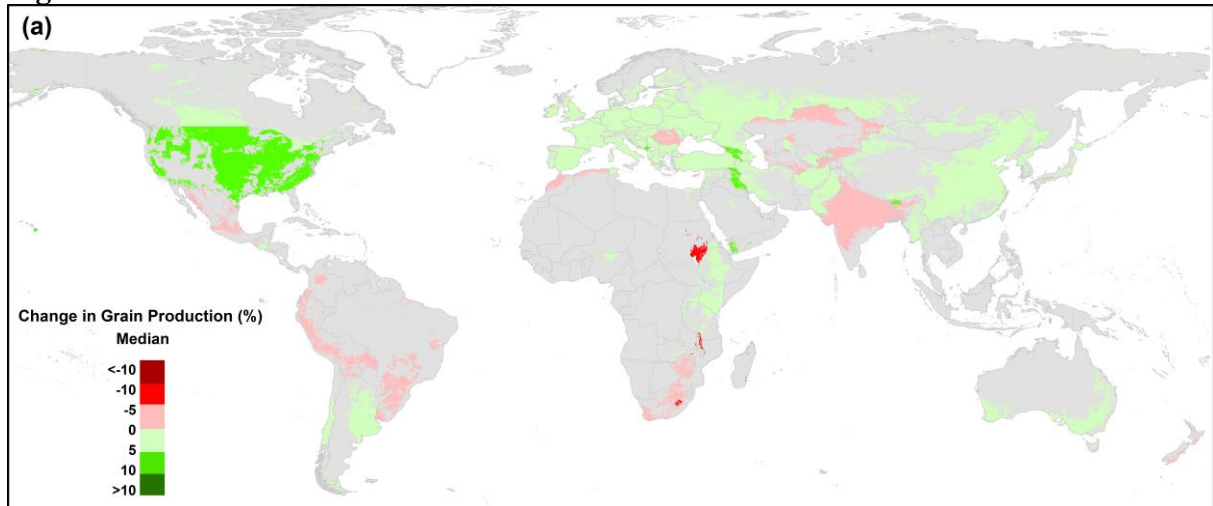
998 **Figure 2**
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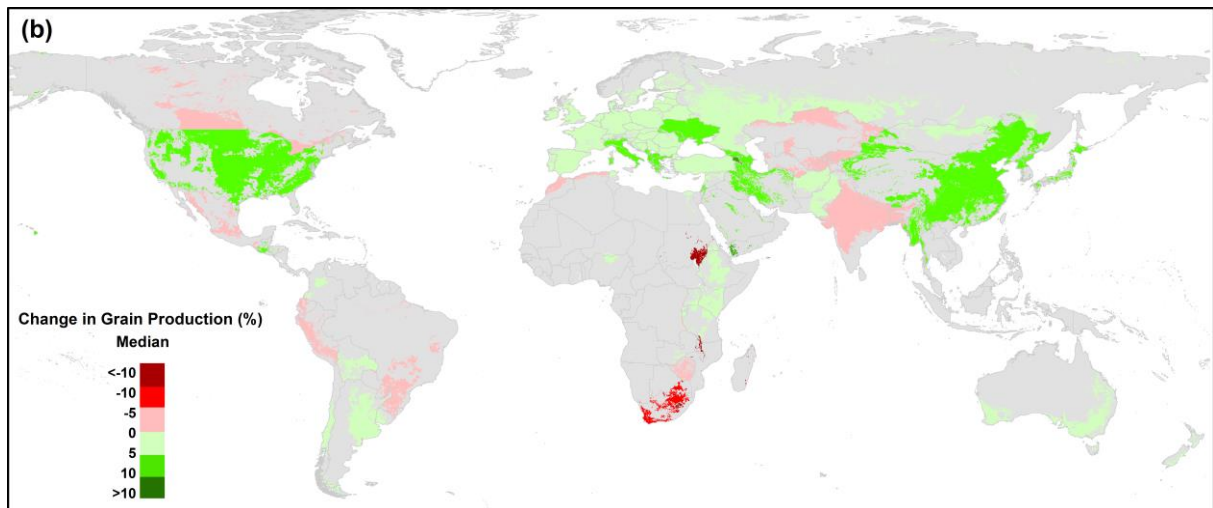
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Figure 3



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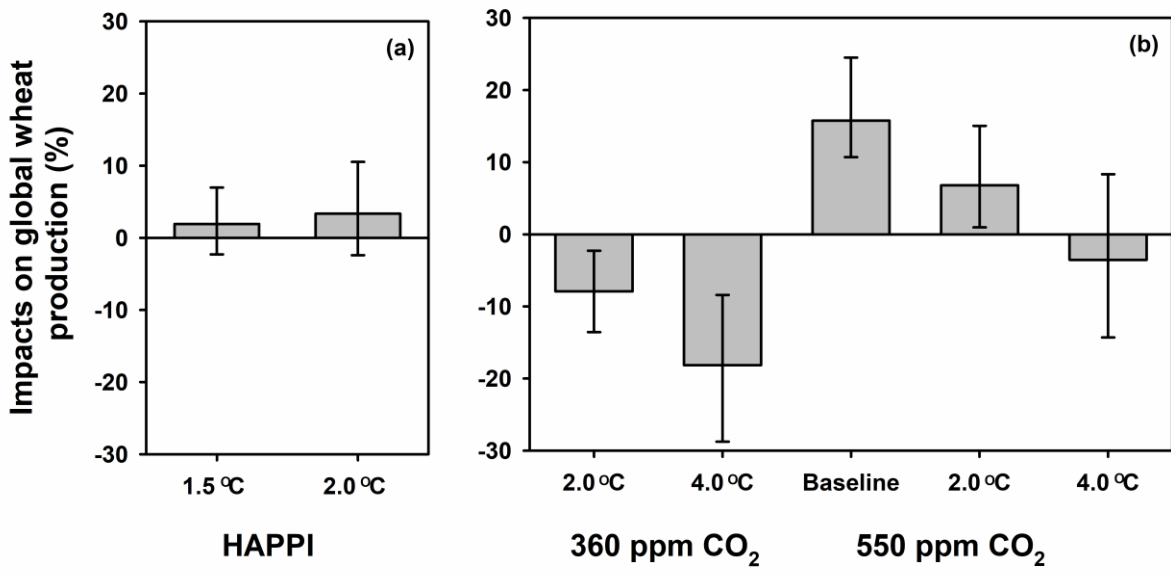
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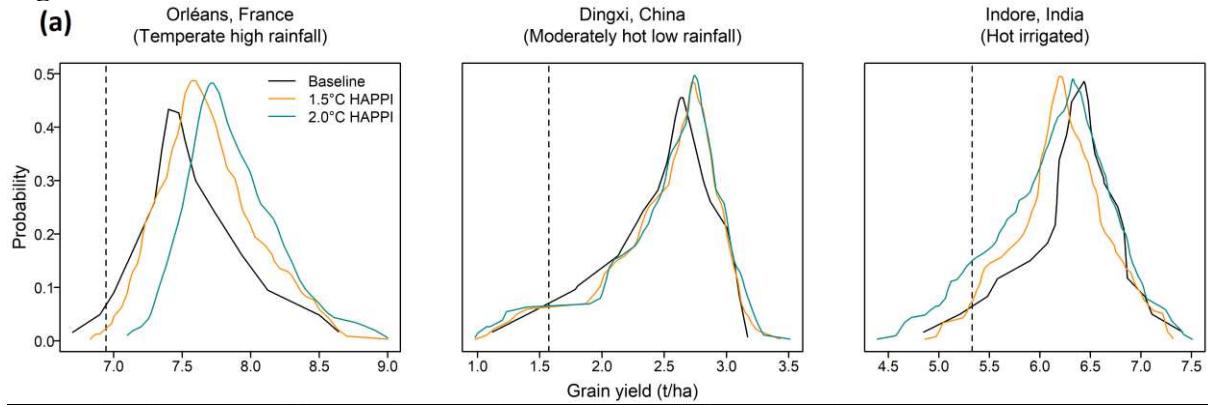
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1008 **Figure 4**

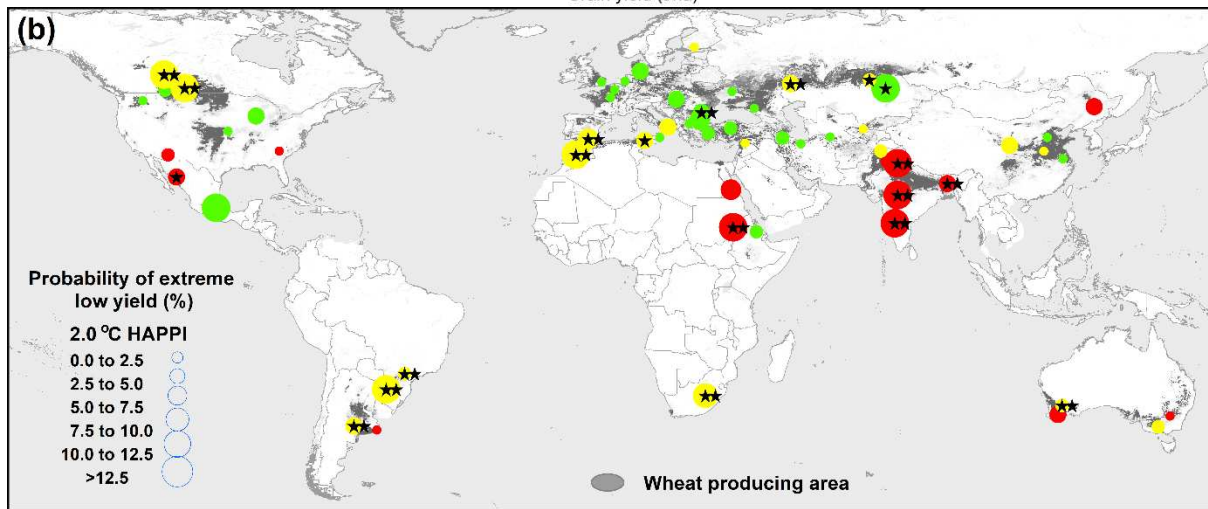


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1011 **Figure 5**

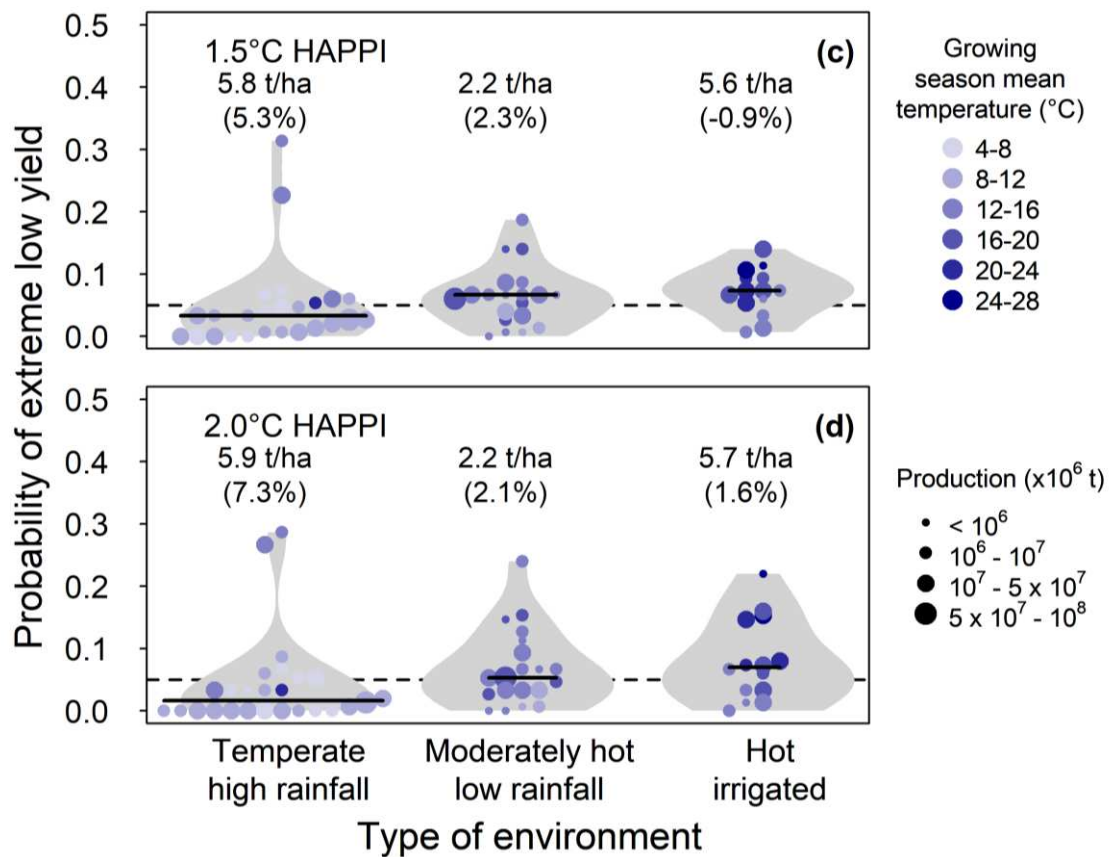


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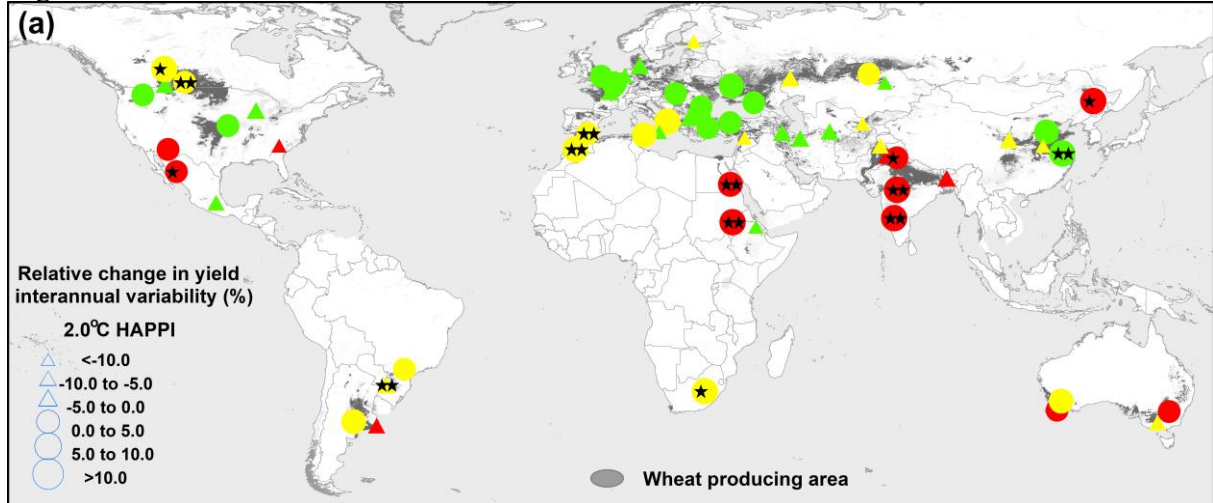
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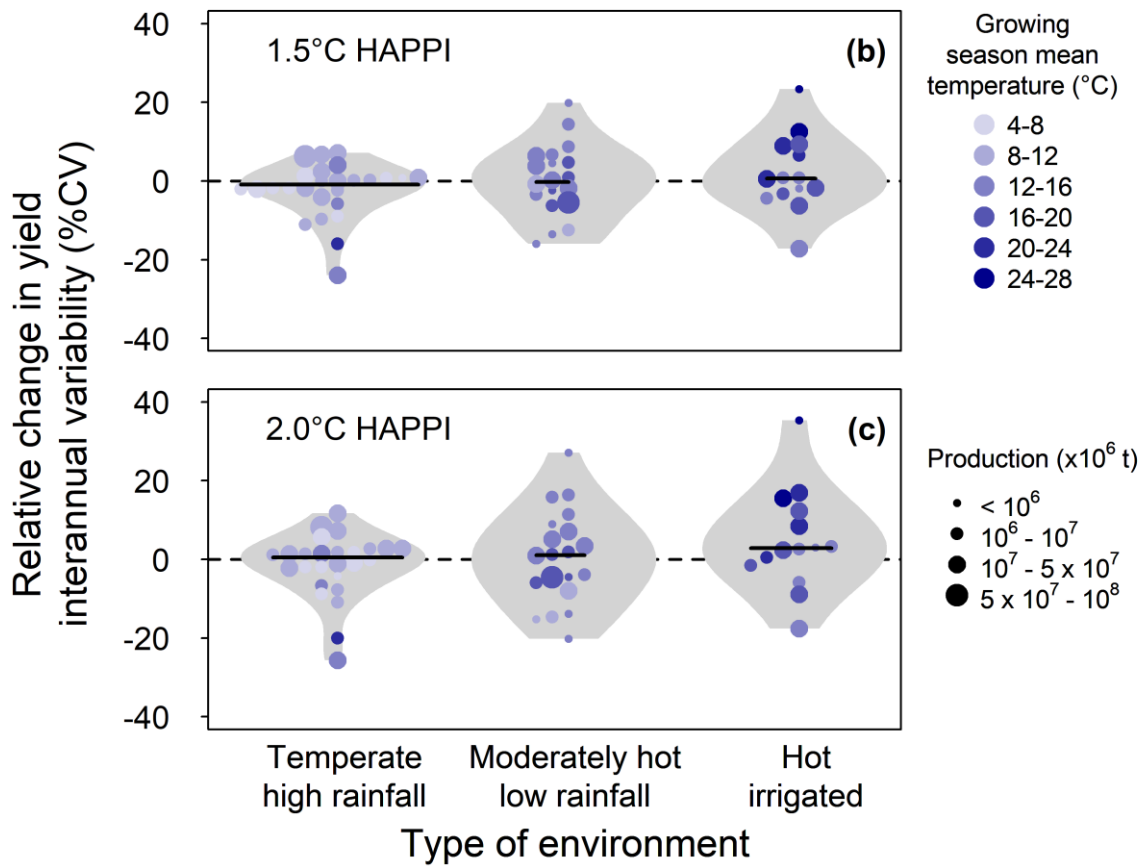
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Figure 6



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