

Quantitative synthesis of temperature, CO2, rainfall, and adaptation effects on global crop yields

David Makowski, Elodie Marajo-Petitzon, Jean-Louis Durand, Tamara Ben

Ari

► To cite this version:

David Makowski, Elodie Marajo-Petitzon, Jean-Louis Durand, Tamara Ben Ari. Quantitative synthesis of temperature, CO2, rainfall, and adaptation effects on global crop yields. European Journal of Agronomy, 2020, 115, 10.1016/j.eja.2020.126041. hal-02903195

HAL Id: hal-02903195 https://hal.inrae.fr/hal-02903195v1

Submitted on 22 Aug 2022

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers. L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.



Distributed under a Creative Commons Attribution - NonCommercial 4.0 International License

Version of Record: https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S1161030120300496 Manuscript_6b6f1888f15c1724a5e38937f76a6e11

- 1 Quantitative synthesis of temperature, CO₂, rainfall, and adaptation
- 2 effects on global crop yields
- 3
- 4 David Makowski^{1,2}, Elodie Marajo-Petitzon³, Jean-Louis Durand⁴ and Tamara Ben-Ari^{1,2}
- 5
- 6 ¹ INRAE, AgroParisTech, Université Paris-Saclay, UMR 211, France
- 7 ² Centre international de recherche sur l'environnement et le développement (CIRED), UMR
- 8 8568 Nogent-sur-Marne, France
- 9 ³ INRAE, SAE2, Rennes, France
- 10 ⁴ INRAE, UR P3F, route de sainte 86600 Lusignan, France
- 11 E-mail : david.makowski@inrae.fr

13 Abstract

14 Climate change is known to impact crop yields, mainly through increased temperatures, 15 changing rainfall patterns and increasing CO₂ concentration in the atmosphere. Although the potential effects of each of these factors have been discussed in a number of separate 16 17 studies, no recent synthesis has been published to provide quantitative estimates of climate 18 change impacts on crop yields, with or without adaptation strategies. In this paper, we 19 synthetize a broad range of experimental or modeling studies to estimate, at the global 20 scale, crop yield changes resulting from the marginal and combined effects of temperature, 21 CO2 concentration and precipitation, with and without adaptation strategies. Crop yield 22 sensitivities are estimated by distinguishing between C3 and C4 crops. For C3 crops, our 23 results show that the positive effects of adaptation (+7.25%) and CO₂ (+9% for +100ppm) are 24 high enough to offset the negative effects of temperature increase (-2.4% for +1°C), even at 25 +4°C. On the other hand, for maize (i.e., the only C4 plant species in our database) the 26 somewhat low positive effect from increased CO₂ concentration and the absence of a 27 significant effect of adaptation lead to higher yield losses, in the order of -10% for +4°C. The 28 minimum level of CO₂ concentration increase requested to achieve a yield gain under 29 increased temperature conditions is much higher for maize than for C3 crops, in particular 30 for wheat. The estimated effects of adaptation are uncertain, especially for soybean and 31 rice, but also for maize, where the absence of a significant adaptation effect is probably at 32 least partly due to limited data availability. Our results demonstrate that CO₂ effects on crop 33 yields should not be overlooked in foresight studies on the impacts of climate change. Our 34 analysis also highlights the importance of improving the reliability of estimating the effects 35 of adaptation strategies on crop yields.

37 Keywords: Adaptation, Climate change, CO₂, ensemble modelling, meta-analysis, yield
38

39 1. Introduction

40 Many studies on the impact of climate change on crop yields, mainly through increased 41 temperatures, changing rainfall patterns and increasing CO₂ concentration have been 42 published in recent years. They are based on the results of experiments (Ainsworth and Long 43 2005, Long et al. 2006, Zhao et al. 2016, Zhao et al. 2017a), on simulations from single or 44 ensemble of mechanistic crop models (Asseng et al. 2013, Bassu et al. 2014, Makowski et al. 45 2015), or on statistical or machine learning models (Crane-Droesch 2018, Lobell & Asseng 46 2017, Lobell et al. 2011, Roberts et al. 2017). These studies provide a better understanding 47 of the impact of climate change on yields, in particular, of the magnitude of the so-called 48 "fertilizing" effect of atmospheric CO₂ concentration on biomass production (Long et al. 49 2006). It is now well established that C3 crops (e.g., wheat, soybean, rice) benefit more from 50 CO₂ concentration increase (Ainsworth and Long 2005; Fitzgerald et al. 2016; Long et al. 51 2006) than C4 crops (e.g., maize, sorghum). However, in practice, the effect of CO₂ on crop 52 yields is often ignored when assessing impact of climate change on crop yield of C3 crops, 53 both in scientific papers (Zhao et al. 2017a, b) and in reports presenting results of foresight 54 studies on climate change (FAO 2018).

55 Climate change impacts crop yields through other factors than CO₂, in particular through 56 temperature and rainfall changes. The rate of crop development and growth strongly 57 responds to temperature (Bonhomme et al 1994, Bonhomme 2000, Soltani and Sinclair 58 2012). Under conditions of increased temperature, the sum of temperature required for 59 development will be met more rapidly, hence reducing the amount of intercepted solar 60 energy and penalizing potential plant growth (Brisson and Levrault 2010). In addition to its 61 effect on the length of the growth cycle, temperature can have deleterious effects on crops when it becomes higher than some thresholds, penalizing yields (Hunt et al. 2018) or 62 accelerating plant senescence by altering its photosystem (De la Haba et al. 2014) or 63 64 reproductive processes (Lizaso et al 2018). Several studies have shown that the effect of 65 rainfall on yields depends on various factors, related to its total amount and distribution 66 within the growing season, soil characteristics, in particular initial soil water conditions, 67 useful soil reserve, and soil rooting depth (Schlenker and Lobell 2010; Ray et al. 2015, Lobell 68 and Asseng 2017). Rainfall effects vary according to agricultural practices, in particular to 69 irrigation but also to the specific water requirements of species and varieties. In fact, various 70 adaptation strategies can be implemented by farmers to mitigate the negative effects of 71 temperature and rainfall changes on yields, including irrigation (Li and Troy 2018, Saadi et al. 72 2015), varietal improvement (Olesen et al. 2011, Nuccio et al. 2018) or changes in harvesting 73 or sowing dates (Caubel et al. 2018).

Although the potential effects of each of these factors have been discussed in a number of separate studies, only a few syntheses have been published to provide quantitative estimates of crop yield changes resulting from changes in temperature, CO₂, and rainfall with or without adaptation strategy. Two meta-analyses published in 2014 synthetized results of several studies (Challinor et al. 2014, Wilcox and Makowski 2014) but these two papers did not include the most recent studies based on ensemble of crop models or global experimental datasets. 81 The objective of our work is to provide a quantitative synthesis of the effects of changes in 82 temperature, CO₂ concentration and precipitation on crop yields from key scientific sources 83 of information. In our analysis, we estimate the yield losses or gains associated with 84 different levels of temperature increase, CO_2 increase, and changes in precipitation patterns, 85 while taking the crop photosynthetic pathway and adaptation strategies into account. We 86 report these effects both individually (i.e., for one variable at a time, with all others set to 87 zero) and in combination. Based on our results, we are hence able to disentangle the effects 88 of temperature, CO₂, rainfall and adaptation.

89 Given the high variability of estimated yield responses between sites or between models 90 (Asseng et al. 2013, Bassu et al. 2014, Li et al. 2015, Makowski et al. 2015), we chose to focus 91 only on bibliographic references that present the results from several sources of information 92 in the same analysis (e.g., three or more models). Our synthesis thus includes results from 93 ensembles of crop models (such as those from the AgMip project, Rosenzweig et al. 2014) 94 and from meta-analyses (e.g., Challinor et al. 2014, Wilcox and Makowski 2014, Zhao et al. 95 2016, Zhao et al. 2017a). The articles included in our analysis are systematically selected 96 according to a procedure based on explicit criteria. The data extracted from these articles 97 are analyzed using statistical models commonly used in meta-analysis. The levels of 98 uncertainty associated with our estimates are systematically presented to allow for a 99 transparent assessment of the robustness of our conclusions.

By adopting this approach, we are able to synthesize a large number of studies each using several sources of information to estimate the impact of climate change on yields for a group C3 species as a whole and for four major C3 and C4 crops separately (i.e., maize, wheat, soybean, rice), and to analyze uncertainties associated. Our synthesis is based on aggregated estimates provided by simulations of model ensembles and meta-analyses. As these aggregated estimates are generally less uncertain than those provided by individual studies or models (Koricheva et al. 2013, Wallach et al. 2016, 2019), our synthesis is expected to produce robust conclusions that could be relevant for foresight studies on climate changes, such as those produced by the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change or the FAO.

110

111 2. Material and method

112 2.1. Systematic literature review

A bibliographic search was conducted in the web of science according to the followingresearch equation:

115 TITLE: ((Climat* and (change* or event* or condition* or factor* or variability or
116 regime*)) or future or trend* or projecti* or "warming" or forecast* or 2030 or 2040 or
117 2050 or 2100)

AND TITLE: (Crop or Cereal* or Maize or corn or wheat or rice or barley or sorghum or oat* or rye or triticale or "Sugar plant*" or sugarbeet or sugarcane or beet* or "sugar cane" or Oilcrop* or oleaginous or proteaginous or "oilseed crop*" or Rape* or Soya* or soybean* or Sunflower or "Protein crop*" or pulse* or pea* or "faba bean*" or lupin* or alfalfa or Forages or Grass or fodder or pasture* or canola or bean or grass* or "grain legume*")

AND TOPIC: (meta-analys* OR (meta NEAR analys*) OR meta-model* OR (model*
NEAR inter-comp*) OR (model* NEAR intercomp*) OR (model* NEAR ensemble*))

127 This bibliographic search allowed us to retrieve 113 articles as of 14/05/2018.

128 2.2. Study selection

129 To be selected, an item must meet the following criteria: (i) it must involve an analysis of the 130 climate change impact on crop yield, (ii) it must present the results of at least three different 131 yield estimation methods and/or at least three different crop models, (iii) it must present 132 yield values and the characteristics of the climate change scenarios tested (temperature change, CO₂, precipitation). After application of the selection criteria, the final corpus 133 134 contains 16 review articles, published between 2008 and 2018 (Supplementary 1). The crops 135 represented are wheat (6 items), maize (5), soya (5), rice (7), barley (1) and grassland (1). 136 Depending on the case, these studies are carried out on the scale of a large geographical 137 region (e.g. Europe), a country, or a local site. The most represented countries are China (4 138 articles), Brazil (4 articles), USA (3 articles), India (3 articles) and France (2 articles). In total, 139 15 distinct geographical areas covering both temperate and tropical regions are concerned. 140 The results published in the articles are based on mechanistic (11) or statistical (5) 141 modelling. Two articles analyze a set of experiments. Some articles use several approaches. 142 The number of selected articles is relatively small, but each of them includes several 143 individual studies (3 to 346) and several scenarios.

144 2.3. Data extraction

- 145 The following information has been extracted from the selected articles:
- 146 article references (title, authors, date of publication)
- 147 geographical coordinates for site studies or countries or regions

148	- the crop species concerned
149	- scenarios of changes in temperature, precipitation and CO ₂
150	- the future horizons considered and the reference period
151	- the average impacts of climate change on yields (relative change in yield in $\%$ of
152	baseline estimated by combining all available individual models/studies)
153	- information about the uncertainty of the average impacts reported in the articles

- 154 (standard deviations or confidence intervals)
- 155 the number of individual studies or models analyzed

the adaptation strategies considered (change of sowing dates, irrigation, varietal
 improvement, when tested).

158 Data were extracted from the text or tables of the selected articles. When the data was not 159 directly accessible, the web plot digitizer software was used to extract it from the figures. 160 Finally, some missing data were retrieved directly from the authors. The total number of 161 relative yield change values extracted from the 16 items is 310 (about 40% in temperate 162 areas, 44% in tropical areas, 16% in both). These data are presented in Figure 1 as a function 163 of changes in temperature, precipitation, and CO₂ concentrations considered in the selected 164 articles. The majority of the relative change in yield values are between -10% and +10%. 165 Note that, for maize and rice, the number of scenarios of increasing precipitation is very 166 small (two and one, respectively), and that no scenario of decreasing precipitation is 167 considered in the selected references for these two crops. The file including the data is 168 available on request.

170 2.4. Statistical analysis

The objective of our statistical analysis is to estimate the relative change in yield due to climate change (Y) as a function of changes in temperature (T), precipitation (P), metabolic pathways of carbon fixation (i.e., C3 or C4 plants), atmospheric CO₂ concentration (C) and adaptation to climate change (i.e., change in planting date, varietal choice, and/or irrigation). Given the available data, a global binary variable indicating the application (or not) of adaptation strategies was considered (I), without distinguishing between different types of adaptation.

178 The analysis is performed with a mixed model including a random effect associated with the 179 different studies (defined by the combinations Articles*Sites because the same article can 180 contain several sites). The random effect allows for the heterogeneity between the different 181 studies included in our database. This type of model is often used to manage heterogeneity 182 in meta-analysis (i.e., quantitative synthesis of data collected in different situations). A global 183 model was adjusted for all C3 crops, and other models were adjusted species by species for 184 wheat, maize, soybean and rice. As the only C4 species included in our database is maize, it 185 was not necessary to define a C4 model in addition to the maize model.

186 The model for C3 crops (as a group) is defined by:

187
$$Y_{ij} = a_{Ti}T_{ij} + a_P P_{ij} + a_C C_{ij} + a_{CT} C_{ij}T_{ij} + a_A I_{Aij} + \varepsilon_{ij}$$
 (1)

188 Y_{ij} is the relative change in yield in % with respect to site reference i for scenario j, a_{Ti} 189 corresponds to the effect of the increase of one degree Celsius on yield for study i, a_P is a 190 parameter describing the effect of the 1% increase in precipitation on yield, a_C is a 191 parameter describing the effect of increasing by one ppm of CO₂, a_A is the parameter 192 corresponding to the effect of adapting to climate change, a_{CT} is a parameter describing the 193 interaction between the effect of increasing temperature and of increasing CO₂. Variable I_{Aii} is a dummy variable equal to 1 for situations where adaptation is present, and equal to zero 194 195 otherwise. The variables T_{ij}, P_{ij} and C_{ij} are the changes of temperature, rainfalls and CO₂ concentrations on site i and scenario j, respectively. The sites considered are well suited for 196 197 each crop, and our model does not cover regions out of the current cropping area of the 198 respective species. The temperature effect a_{Ti} is assumed to vary from one study to another according to a Gaussian distribution $a_{Ti} \sim N(\mu_T, \sigma_T^2)$, with μ_T the global expected value of 199 a_{Ti} and σ_T the between-study standard deviation of a_{Ti} . This random term recognizes that 200 201 the effect of temperature on yield is likely to vary depending on the characteristics of the 202 environment and crop, but also on the method used (e.g., selected crop models). The term ε_{ij} is a random error distributed according to a Gaussian distribution $\varepsilon_{ij} \sim N(0, \tau_{ij}^2)$, 203 204 describing intra-study variability, with τ_{ij} the residual standard deviation for study i and 205 scenario j. The values of τ_{ij} are assumed to be proportional to the standard deviations 206 extracted from the selected articles in order to give less weight to the most uncertain 207 studies.

Our statistical model cannot be used to simulate the effects of a specific heat stress or drought occurring at certain stages or on certain date because it does not explicitly take into account the dates of occurrence of heat and water stresses. However, the parameters of our statistical models are estimated from data mostly generated by process-based crop models that do simulate the timing of these stresses (albeit imperfectly). Thus, the estimated parameter values of our model are indirectly dependent on the dates of occurrence of heat and water stresses and their corresponding crop growth stages. 215 Several variants of the model (1) were tested under the following assumptions: (i) the effects 216 of precipitation, CO₂, and adaptation vary between studies (such as the temperature effect 217 a_{Ti} presented above), (ii) interactions exist between temperature and precipitation, and 218 between precipitation and CO₂. These variants of the global model (1) were not retained; 219 either they could not be adjusted to the data because of identifiability problems (model too 220 complex compared to available data), or they led to higher AIC values (Akaike information 221 criterion) reflecting a less optimal compromise between likelihood and complexity than that 222 offered by the initial model, or they included non-statistically significant effects. The residual 223 analysis does not reveal any particular issue (Supplementary 2). Quality of fit is similar for 224 both considered sources of data (i.e., model ensembles and meta-analyses), and is better for 225 wheat (R^2 =0.85), maize (R^2 =0.84) and soybean (R^2 =0.89) than for rice (R^2 =0.5). The lower 226 quality of fit obtained for rice is due to the relatively large residuals obtained for 227 temperature change of +6°C. Results obtained for this level of temperature change should 228 thus be interpreted with caution for rice. We tried to fit the model for each continent 229 separately, but the results were not conclusive due to a lack of data.

230 The species-by-species analyses were carried out using the model (1) by estimating its 231 parameters based on the data reported specifically for the species in question. For some 232 species, simplified versions of the model (1) were selected because they led to a reduction in 233 the AIC criterion. Depending on the crop species, the effects of P_{ij} , $C_{ij}T_{ij}$ interaction and/or I_{Aij} adaptation were significant or not (Supplementary 3). The interaction between 234 235 temperature change and CO₂ change was significant (p<0.001) for the C3 model and for the 236 rice model. This means that, in these models, the effect of CO₂ depends on the level of 237 temperature change. Since the interaction parameter here is negative, the positive effect of 238 CO₂ on yield decreases as the temperature change increases.

239 The parameters μ_T , σ_T , a_P , a_C , a_A et a_{CT} were estimated by restricted maximum likelihood 240 using the R Ime4 package. All the estimated parameter values of the selected models are 241 available in Supplementary 3. Once the parameters estimated, the global C3 model and the 242 models selected species by species were used to compute the relative change in yield 243 resulting from temperature increases of +0, +2, +3, +4°C, for CO₂ content increases of +0, 244 +100, and +200ppm, precipitation decreases of 0 and -10%, with and without adaptation to 245 climate change. The proposed models can easily be reused to test other temperature and 246 CO₂ combinations than those considered here. In particular, it is possible to compute the 247 frontier describing the minimum levels of CO₂ concentration increase requested to achieve a 248 yield gain. Thus, based on model (1), a yield gain is expected when the CO₂ concentration 249 increase exceeds the value calculated from

250
$$\frac{-1}{a_{C}+a_{CT}T_{ij}}\left(\mu_{T}T_{ij}+a_{P}P_{ij}+C_{ij}+a_{CT}C_{ij}T_{ij}+a_{A}I_{Aij}\right)$$
(2)

251 Uncertainty was analyzed by computing 95% confidence intervals by bootstrap for all252 relevant quantities.

253

3. Results

In this section we present first the results of the marginal effects of changes in temperature,
precipitation, CO₂ and adaptation (3.1) and then the combined effects of these factors (3.2).

258 3.1. Marginal effects of changes in temperature, precipitation, CO₂ and adaptation

The estimated values of the parameters μ_T , a_P , a_C , a_{CT} , and a_A respectively describe the marginal effects of temperature, precipitation, CO₂ concentration, CO₂-temperature interaction, and climate change adaptation. Each marginal effect quantifies the impact on
yield of a unit increase in one of the factors taken individually, i.e., without taking the effect
of the other factors into account (all set equal to zero). The estimated values of these effects
are presented in Figures 2 and 3.

For temperature (Figure 2A), the estimated values range from -1.42% (for rice, C3) to -4.52% (for maize, C4) yield for an increase of +1°C. The overall estimate for all C3 crops is -2.40%. The estimated values are all significant (p<0.05) except for soybean where the estimated impact of temperature is highly uncertain.

For CO₂ (Figure 2B), the effect of an increase of +1ppm is significant and positive in all cases, but is significantly lower for maize (C4) (+0.02% yield per ppm, or 2% for 100 ppm) than for C3 crops. In average over all C3, the effect is about +9% for +100ppm (+0.09 per ppm). The interaction between temperature and CO₂ is significant for rice (Figure 2C). This interaction is negative, indicating that the positive effect of CO₂ is hampered by temperature increases. For example, this interaction induces an additional rice yield decrease of -0.02% for +1ppm and +1°C or, equivalently, -2% for +100ppm and +1°C.

The effect of a 1% increase in growing season cumulated rainfall on crop yield is significant and positive for the group of C3 crops (+0.27%), as well as for wheat (+0.43%) and soybean (+0.32%) separately (Figure 2D). For maize, this effect is close to zero and not significant, partly because maize is either cultivated in regions exhibiting rainy growing seasons or irrigated by default in most of the selected studies. For rice, the uncertainty is high and does not allow to robustly conclude.

The effect of adaptation (all types of adaptation combined) (Figure 3) is significant when all
C3 crops are analyzed simultaneously (+7.25%) and for wheat (+10.4%). The effect is close to

zero for maize. For rice and soybean, the results are very uncertain and do not allows us toconclude.

286

287 3.2. Estimation of the combined effect of temperature and CO₂ changes

288 The model (1) was used to estimate the effects of different combinations of temperature 289 and CO_2 concentration increases, with/without adaptation, and with/without a decrease in 290 precipitation for all C3 crops altogether (Figures 4 and 5). Without adaptation, significant C3 291 yield gains of +5.1 to +7.8% (depending on whether rainfall is reduced or not) are obtained 292 when the temperature increase is limited to +2°C and associated with a +200ppm increase in 293 CO₂ (Figure 4A,B). On the other hand, yield losses ranging from -5.1 to -12.2% are estimated 294 in case of a temperature increase of +4°C combined with a 10% decrease in precipitation 295 (Figure 4B).

For C3, the increase in CO₂ has a positive effect on yield, but this positive effect could be partly offset by stronger temperature increase (Figure 5). This is due to the interaction between temperature and CO₂, estimated at -0.01% for +1°C and +1ppm for all C3 crops combined (Figure 2). When temperature increase reaches +4°C, the interaction effect equals -0.04% and partially compensates for the positive CO₂ effect estimated for C3 at +0.09% per ppm. Thus, the level of yield increase due to the positive effect of CO₂ on photosynthesis is smaller at +4°C than at +2°C (Figure 5).

As we said before, adaptation could have a strong effect on yields (+7.25% for C3 in Figure 304 3). The effect of a +2 and +3°C temperature increase combined with respectively a +100 and 305 +200ppm CO_2 concentration increase become positive and significantly different from zero 306 when adaptation is considered and assuming no or small rainfall decrease (Figure 4C 307 compared to 4A and 4D compared to 4B).

308 The selected statistical model for maize (C4) includes a temperature effect and a CO_2 effect, 309 but no precipitation effect, interaction or adaptation (not significant, see Figures 2-3). The 310 absence of effect of precipitation on maize yields is unexpected and could be due to the 311 limited number of scenarios considering water stress in our dataset. For this crop, the 312 combined effect of temperature and CO₂ increases is systematically negative; estimated 313 yield losses range from -4.6% to -17.3% depending on the scenario considered (Figure 6). 314 The estimated losses for +4°C systematically exceed -13% but the levels of uncertainty 315 obtained for this temperature increase are high and significantly higher than those obtained 316 for +2 and +3°C.

317 For wheat (C3), the selected model includes all the effects of model (1) except the 318 temperature/CO₂ interaction which is not significant (Figure 2). When there is no adaptation, 319 the temperature increase is associated with significant yield gains if the CO₂ increase 320 exceeds 200ppm, but it can lead to yield losses when the CO₂ increase is lower (Figure 7AB). 321 Losses are higher in the event of a 10% decrease in rainfall, but despite the negative effect of 322 a rainfall decrease, the yield loss for wheat is not statistically significant when combined with 323 an increase of $+4^{\circ}$ C and 200ppm of CO₂ (Figure 7B). When an adaptation strategy is applied, 324 no significant yield loss is estimated for wheat, with the only exception of a – physically 325 unlikely - situation corresponding to a temperature increase of +4°C but without any CO₂ 326 increase (Figure 7CD). For a CO_2 increase of +200ppm associated with a temperature 327 increase of +4°C, a yield gain of 9 to 13% is estimated for wheat if adapted.

328 Based on the fitted maize and wheat models, we computed the minimum levels of CO₂ 329 increase requested to obtain a positive yield change (yield gain) for +0 to +6°C (Figure 8) and 330 we determined frontiers of CO_2 increase level above (below) which a yield gain (loss) is more 331 likely than not (Eq.2). Here, we assume that no adaptation strategy is applied. Results show 332 that the CO_2 frontier obtained for maize is well above the one obtained for wheat. Thus, at 333 +2°C, an increase in CO₂ concentration of more than +300 ppm would be necessary to obtain 334 a yield gain in maize crops. But, for wheat without adaptation, a yield gain is expected as 335 soon as the CO₂ concentration increases by +50ppm at +2°C and by +150ppm at +4°C (Figure 336 8). The frontier is even lower for wheat in case of adaptation (not shown).

337 For soybean (C3), the selected model includes temperature, CO₂ and precipitation effects, 338 but no adaptation or temperature/CO₂ interaction effects (no significant effect at 5%, see 339 Figures 2-3). The estimates obtained are quite similar to those obtained for wheat without 340 adaptation with slightly lower losses and slightly stronger gains for the same temperature 341 and CO_2 combinations (Figure 9). For CO_2 increases of +200ppm, the estimated yield gain 342 exceeds 10% for +2°C, even if precipitation decreases by 10%. The gain also exceeds 10% for 343 a temperature increase of +3°C if rainfall is not reduced. On the other hand, soybean yield 344 gain becomes not statistically significant at +4°C (Figure 9).

For rice (C3), the selected model includes temperature, CO₂, temperature/CO₂ interaction and adaptation effects, but no precipitation effect (non-significant effect, see Figure 2). Without adaptation, yield losses of -3 to -5% are estimated for a temperature increase of +4°C, but a yield gain is estimated when CO₂ increases by +100 ppm and temperature increases by +2°C (Figure 10A). A slight gain is also estimated if temperature increases by +3°C and CO₂ by +200 ppm. With adaptation, no significant yield loss is estimated for temperature increases less than or equal to +4°C; yield gains can even reach 15% if the temperature only increases by +2°C and the CO₂ content increases by +200ppm or more (Figure 10B).

354

4. Discussion

356 The difference in CO₂ yield response between C3 and C4 plants is consistent with known 357 photosynthesis mechanisms. C4 plants (e.g., maize, sorghum, millet, and sugar cane) have a 358 mechanism for supplying CO_2 to leaf sites where it is fixed on sugars and it is therefore the 359 concentration of photosynthetic enzymes that limits photosynthesis and not the 360 concentration of CO_2 . Their photosynthesis rate hence does not strongly respond to CO_2 361 variations at values higher than current concentration levels. On the contrary, under optimal growing conditions, C3 plants do not have these concentration processes in the leaf and are 362 363 instead limited by atmospheric CO₂ concentration (Ainsworth 2008, Gao et al 2015). 364 However, to benefit from the positive effect of increasing CO₂ concentrations, C3 plants 365 require a concomitant increase in nitrogen supply from the soil (Weigel and Manderscheid 366 2012, Manderscheid et al 2010). If nitrogen supplies are not adjusted, then the positive 367 impact of CO₂ increase is reduced (Lakshmi et al 2017), except for leguminous plants that 368 use part of the photosynthesized sugars to feed their nitrogen fixing symbionts (Li et al 2017, 369 Matsunami et al, 2009, Oikawa et al 2010). In addition, for C3 crops and in particular for rice, 370 we found a negative interaction between CO₂ and temperature change revealing that the 371 positive effect of CO₂ on yield is partly offset by an increase in temperature. For rice, the 372 negative interaction between temperature and CO₂ may come from the fact that the 373 increase in CO₂ itself generates a temperature increase in the rice vegetation cover (Li et al.

374 2015). The divergent effects of CO₂ between C3 and C4 estimated in our study are consistent
375 with the results of Webber et al. (2018) who indicated that climate change could result in
376 yield losses for grain maize but gains for winter wheat.

377 The ability of adaptation strategies to mitigate the potential negative impact of climate 378 change is discussed in a number of published studies (Challinor et al., 2014; Li and Troy, 379 2018; Lipper et al., 2014; Wilcox and Makowski, 2014). The strong effect of adaptation that 380 we found on wheat yields is partly due to the meta-analysis of Challinor et al (2014) which 381 reports a high estimated value for this parameter. Irrigation (when allowed by local water 382 availability) is a direct way to protect against climate change induced droughts (Li and Troy 383 2018). However, irrigation can increase greenhouse gas emissions through energy use, 384 creating a negative feedback on the long term (Lipper et al. 2014). In addition, water 385 availability and water quality (e.g. salinization) are expected to decrease in some areas. An 386 increase in the quantity of water used for irrigation can also generate water use conflicts, 387 e.g., as in California (Grantham and Viers 2014). Its use can be improved by more efficient 388 technologies such as precision irrigation and more efficient deficit irrigation strategies 389 (Wolfe et al. 2018).

Varietal improvement is another adaptation strategy and mostly relies on the use of earlier or later varieties, the modification of the photoperiod (Olesen et al. 2011) or, more rarely, the use of drought-tolerant varieties (Nuccio et al. 2018). Farmers can also adapt to climate change by changing sowing dates, harvesting dates or plant density without necessarily changing the varieties themselves (Caubel et al. 2018). These types of adaptation can be already observed in many parts of the world, for example for French vines with increasingly early harvest dates (Webb et al. 2012, Jones et al. 2005) and for maize in central United
States with increasingly early planting dates (Kucharik 2008).

398 The effectiveness of a few adaptation strategies has been assessed in previous studies 399 (Basso et al. 2015, Challinor et al. 2014, Wilcox and Makowski 2014), including changes in 400 sowing dates, crop varieties or irrigation. The results of these studies show that these 401 strategies partially offset the negative impacts of climate change on crop yields. Other more 402 systemic adaptation strategies exist; they are based on profound changes in agricultural 403 systems e.g., adoption of soil conservation systems (Powlson et al. 2016) or systems based 404 on agroforestry (Verchot et al. 2007), changes in the composition of rotations or substitution 405 between species (Olesen et al. 2011).

406 It is important to keep in mind that the effectiveness of these strategies depends on the 407 socio-economic context, and may present heterogeneous results at the global level (Hoegh-408 Guldberg et al. 2018). In modeling studies, adaptation strategies are tested under optimal 409 conditions, and simulated benefits should thus be considered as potential. Practical or social 410 constraints could reduce the effectiveness of adaptation strategies such as irrigation, and 411 could limit farmers' ability to obtain high yields in the future. Also, extreme weather events 412 and development of pests and diseases induced by climate change could reduce the 413 expected benefit of adaptation strategies (Gouache et al., 2013; Webber et al., 2018).

414 Our approach has several limitations. We present here only a single global statistical model 415 for each crop species, without any regional differentiation. We attempted to fit our 416 statistical models for each continent separately, but the confidence intervals were very large 417 and the estimated values were not informative. Note that our global statistical models could 418 nevertheless be implemented regionally using regional climate data as inputs. Spatialized 419 yield gain/loss resulting from climate change are available in a number of published reports 420 but these studies usually rely on a small number of model outputs. For example, the report 421 of the Joint Research Center (Donatelli et al., 2012) assesses the effects of several climate 422 change scenarios on maize, wheat, rice, rape and sunflower yields in Europe. Some of their 423 results have been taken up and completed in Donatelli et al (2015). This study was carried 424 out both at national level and at the level of NUTS2 regions for all countries of the European 425 Union. Two climate models HadCM3 ("warm scenario") and ECHAM5 ("cold scenario") were 426 used, but only one crop model (BIOMA) was run. No adaptation strategy was considered. 427 Yield projections were made at time horizons close to 2020 (+45ppm CO2) and 2030 428 (+65ppm CO₂) compared to a reference period corresponding to 1996-2005. For maize, yield 429 simulations indicate a gain of +10% and a loss of -9% for the "cold" and "warm" scenarios, 430 respectively. Apart from sunflower, the average losses are therefore somewhat low, and 431 close to zero for maize and rice, -1% for wheat and -2.5% for rapeseed. These average values 432 are close to those obtained for the +2°C and +100ppm CO₂ scenario for wheat and rice in our 433 own study. However, these averages hide significant regional disparities within Europe.

434 Another limit of our study is that it covers a limited number of crop species. Only four major 435 crop species are indeed considered here, namely wheat, maize, soybean, and rice. Some 436 previous studies assessing climate change impacts consider a higher number of crop species, 437 but others studies present aggregated results for large groups of crop species. For example, 438 in the report by Müller et al (2010), yield projections are performed on average over a wide 439 range of crops (wheat, rice, maize, millet, millet, peas, sugar beet, sweet potato, soya, 440 groundnut, sunflower, rape) but simulated yields are averaged over all species and are not 441 presented crop by crop. The results obtained for C3 and C4 plants are therefore not 442 presented separately in this report. About thirty climate scenarios are considered and yields 443 are simulated with the LPJmL model directly at the global scale. Two series of simulations 444 are carried out successively, first without any effect on yields of CO₂ concentration increase, 445 and then taking its effect into account. With CO₂ effect, the results show an average yield 446 gain of 12.4% worldwide. On the other hand, without CO₂ effect, an average loss of -6.5% 447 was estimated. This result is consistent with the strong positive effects of CO₂ on the yields 448 estimated in our study for C3 plants.

449 In our analysis, the effects of temperature, precipitation and CO₂ on crop yields are 450 calculated for a large variety of soil types in different geographical areas. Yield variations 451 presented in our study should therefore be interpreted as average responses and it is 452 important to keep in mind that local values of these responses may be significantly different 453 from the average values under particular soil conditions (Kersebaum and Nendel, 2014). This 454 is particularly true for yield response to precipitation, which is known to be dependent on 455 initial soil water conditions, soil water holding capacity and on plant rooting depth (He and 456 Wang, 2019) and may hence differ from aggregate values across several soil types (Lobell 457 and Burke 2010). It has been shown that the local sensitivity of yields to changes in 458 precipitation may differ from aggregate values across several soil types (Lobell and Burke 459 2010). In addition, in our study, we were unable to explore in detail the effect of rainfall 460 changes on maize and rice yields due to the limited number of scenarios considering rainfall 461 changes for these two crops. For rice and maize, the uncertainty is high and does not allow 462 for robust conclusions on the effect of rainfall changes on yields.

463 Our approach does not directly quantify yield losses due to pests and diseases. However, the
464 effects of climate variables on pests and diseases are multiple and are difficult to estimate.
465 Relative air and soil humidity impact the survival and reproduction of pests and diseases

(Roos et al. 2011). Winter temperatures can have a significant impact on the survival of pathogens and insect pests (Gouache et al. 2013, Bale et al. 2002, Roos et al. 2011). Additional effects on the spatial distribution of insect populations cannot be ruled out (Bale et al. 2002). Recently, it has been shown that climate change could strongly impact the level of crop destruction by insects (between 10 and 25% additional losses for wheat, maize and rice per degree Celsius of warming) via an effect of temperature on insect metabolism (Deutsch et al. 2018).

473 Despite these limitations, we were able to establish simple analytical functions quantifying 474 the individual and combined effect of temperature, CO₂, precipitation and adaptation of 475 practices on yields of several major crop species. Our results show that it is not reasonable 476 to overlook the effect of CO₂ on yields when studying the effect of climate change on crop production. Yet, this effect was disregarded in several recent articles (Zhao et al. 2017a,b) 477 478 and reports (FAO, 2018). Thus, FAO (2018) estimates the impacts of climate change on the 479 yields of different types of crops by 2050 at a global scale. The estimated impacts are 480 derived from FAO-IIASA GAEZ simulations obtained using a set of climate data from five 481 different climate models. RCP scenarios 4.5, 6 and 8.5 were considered successively and 482 these scenarios correspond to temperature increases of about 2.5, 3.5 and 4.5°C 483 respectively. The results of these models suggest that climate change will mainly have 484 negative impacts on yields, with reductions of about 5% globally by 2050 compared to 2012 485 for all crops combined. According to this report, the effect of climate change is negative on 486 wheat yields, including in Europe. However, it is important to note that these results were 487 obtained while neglecting the CO₂ effect, which has a positive effect on yields, particularly 488 on wheat yields, as shown in our study. We believe that our simple models could be used in 489 future foresight studies to take CO₂ effect on crop yields into account.

491 5. Conclusion

Our work is based on a quantitative synthesis of a wide range of studies assessing the impact
of climate change on crop yields and could be relevant for future foresight studies on
climate change.

For C3 plants, our results show that the positive effects of adaptation (+7.25% for all C3) and CO₂ (+9% for +100ppm for all C3) are high enough to offset the negative effects of a temperature increase, even at +4°C (-2.4% for +1°C). On the other hand, for maize (the only C4 plant represented in our database), the low positive effect of CO₂ and the absence of significant effect of adaptation strategies lead to yield losses, in the order of -10% for +4°C. Our results thus clearly demonstrate that effect of CO₂ should not be overlooked when studying climate change impacts on crop yields.

502 Our analysis also highlights the need for more reliable estimates of the effects of key factors 503 influencing crop yields, in particular of climate change adaptation strategies. The effects of 504 adaptation are somewhat uncertain, especially for soybean and rice, but also for maize, 505 where the absence of a significant adaptation effect is probably at least partly due to the 506 limited data available. The mechanisms underlying the interaction between temperature 507 and CO₂ should also be studied more precisely, in particular for rice, a crop for which this 508 interaction is significant.

510 Acknowledgment

511	This work was partly funded by the ACCAF meta-program (COMPROMISE project,
512	COMPROMISE_MP-P10177) and by the CLAND institute of convergence (16-CONV-0003).
513	This work was produced within the framework of the AE2050 INRA-DEPE foresight study.
514	
515	References
516 517 518	Ainsworth E A 2008 Rice production in a changing climate: a meta - analysis of responses to elevated carbon dioxide and elevated ozone concentration <i>Global Change Biology</i> 14, 1642-1650.
519	Ainsworth E A and Long S P 2005 What have we learned from 15 years of free $$ - air CO2 $$
520 521 522	enrichment (FACE)? A meta - analytic review of the responses of photosynthesis, canopy properties and plant production to rising CO2 <i>New Phytologist</i> 165 351–372.
523 524	Asseng S et al 2013 Uncertainty in simulating wheat yields under climate change. <i>Nature Climate Change</i> 3 827–832.
525 526	Bale J S et al. 2002 Herbivory in global climate change research: direct effects of rising temperature on insect herbivores <i>Global change biology</i> 8 1–16.
527 528 529	Basso B et al 2015 Can impacts of climate change and agricultural adaptation strategies be accurately quantified if crop models are annually re-initialized? <i>PLoS One</i> 10 p.e0127333.
530 531	Bassu S et al 2014. How do various maize crop models vary in their responses to climate change factors? <i>Global Change Biology</i> 20 2301–2320.
532 533 534	Bonhomme R, Derieux M, Edmeades, G O 1994 Flowering of diverse maize cultivars in relation to temperature and photoperiod in multilocation field trials. <i>Crop science</i> 34 156-164.
535 536	Bonhomme R 2000. Bases and limits to using 'degree. day'units. <i>European journal of agronomy</i> 13 1-10.
537 538 539 540 541	Brisson N and Levrault F 2010 Climate change, agriculture and forests in France: simulations of the impacts on the main species. The Green Book of the CLIMATOR project (2007–2010) Anfers: ADEME. http://inra-dam-front-resources- cdn.brainsonic.com/ressources/afile/236351-c2f80-resource-synthese- climator.html
542 543	Caubel J et al 2018 Assessing future meteorological stresses for grain maize in France Agricultural Systems 159 237–247.
544 545	Challinor et al 2014 A meta-analysis of crop yield under climate change and adaptation Nature Climate Change 4 287–291

- 546 Crane-Droesch A 2018 Machine learning methods for crop yield prediction and climate
 547 change impact assessment in agriculture *Environmental Research Letters* 13
 548 p.114003.
- 549 De la Haba P, De la Mata L, Molina E, Agüera E 2014. High temperature promotes early
 550 senescence in primary leaves of sunflower (Helianthus annuus L.) plants *Canadian*551 *Journal of Plant Science* 94 656-669
- 552 Deutsch C A et al 2018 Increase in crop losses to insect pests in a warming climate
 553 *Science*, 361(6405) 916–919.
- Donatelli M et al 2012. Assessing Agriculture Vulnerabilities for the design of Effective
 Measures for Adaption to Climate Change. Joint Research Center.
 https://ec.europa.eu/agriculture/sites/agriculture/files/external studies/2012/avemac/full-text_en.pdf
- Donatelli M, Kumar Srivastava A, Duveiller G, Niemeyer S, Fumagalli D 2015 Climate
 change impact and potential adaptation strategies under alternate realizations of
 climate scenarios for three major crops in Europe. *Environ. Res. Lett.* 10, 075005
- FAO 2018 The future of food and agriculture Alternative pathways to 2050. Rome. 224
 pp http://www.fao.org/3/i8429en/i8429en.pdf
- 563 Fitzgerald G J et al 2016 Elevated atmospheric [CO2] can dramatically increase wheat
- yields in semi arid environments and buffer against heat waves. *Global change biology* 22 2269–2284.
- Gao J et al 2015 Leaf photosynthesis and yield components of mung bean under fully
 open-air elevated CO2 *Journal of Integrative Agriculture* 14 977-983.
- Gouache D et al 2013 Modelling climate change impact on Septoria tritici blotch (STB) in
 France: accounting for climate model and disease model uncertainty *Agricultural and forest meteorology* 170 242–252.
- Grantham T E and Viers J H 2014 100 years of California's water rights system: patterns,
 trends and uncertainty *Environmental Research Letters* 9 p.84012.
- He D and Wang E 2019 On the relation between soil water holding capacity and dryland
 crop productivity *Geoderma* 353 11-24.
- Hoegh-Guldberg O et al 2018 Impacts of 1.5°C global warming on natural and human 575 576 systems. In: Global warming of 1.5°C. An IPCC Special Report on the impacts of global warming of 1.5°C above pre-industrial levels and related global greenhouse gas 577 emission pathways, in the context of strengthening the global response to the threat 578 579 of climate change, sustainable development, and efforts to eradicate poverty [V. Masson-Delmotte, P. Zhai, H. O. Pörtner, D. Roberts, J. Skea, P.R. Shukla, A. Pirani, W. 580 581 Moufouma-Okia, C. Péan, R. Pidcock, S. Connors, J. B. R. Matthews, Y. Chen, X. Zhou, 582 M. I. Gomis, E. Lonnoy, T. Maycock, M. Tignor, T. Waterfield (eds.)].
- Hunt J R et al 2018 Opportunities to reduce heat damage in rain-fed wheat crops based
 on plant breeding and agronomic management *Field Crops Research* 224 126–138
- Jones G V et al 2005 Climate change and global wine quality *Climatic change* 73 319–
 343.
- 587 Koricheva J, Gurevitch J, Mengersen K (eds) 2013 Handbook of meta-analysis in ecology and

- 588 evolution Princeton University Press.
- 589 Kucharik CJ 2008 Contribution of Planting Date Trends to Increased Maize Yields in the
 590 Central United States Agronomy Journal 100 328-336.
- Kristensen K, Schelde K, Olesen JE 2011 Winter wheat yield response to climate variability
 The Journal of Agricultural Science 149, 33-47
- Lakshmi N J et al. 2017 Effect of CO2 on growth, seed yield and nitrogen uptake in sunflower.
 Journal of Agrometeorology 19 195-199.
- Lizaso J I et al. 2018. Impact of high temperatures in maize: Phenology and yield
 components. *Field Crops Research* 216 129-140.
- Li T et al 2015 Uncertainties in predicting rice yield by current crop models under a wide
 range of climatic conditions *Glob. Chang. Biol.* 21 1328–1333
- Li X and Troy T J 2018 Changes in rainfed and irrigated crop yield response to climate in
 the western US *Environmental Research Letters* 13 p.64031.
- Li Y et al. 2018 Elevated CO2 increases nitrogen fixation at the reproductive phase
 contributing to various yield responses of soybean cultivars *Frontiers in plant science* 8 10.
- 604 Lipper L et al 2014 Climate-smart agriculture for food security *Nature climate change* 4
 605 p.1068.
- Lizaso J I et al 2018 Impact of high temperatures in maize: Phenology and yield
 components *Field Crops Research* 216 129-140.
- Lobell D B and Asseng S 2017 Comparing estimates of climate change impacts from
 process- based and statistical crop models *Environmental Research Letters* 12 1–12.
 http://doi.org/10.1088/1748-9326/015001.
- Lobell D B and Burke M B 2010 On the use of statistical models to predict crop yield
 responses to climate change *Agric. For. Meteorol.* 150 1443–52
- Lobell D B and Asseng S 2017 Comparing estimates of climate change impacts from
 process-based and statistical crop models *Environmental Research Letters* 12
 p.15001.
- Lobell D B, Schlenker W, Costa-Roberts J 2011 Climate Trends and Global Crop
 Production Since 1980 Science 333 616–620.
- Long S P et al 2006. Food for thought: lower-than-expected crop yield stimulation with
 rising CO2 concentrations *Science* 312 1918–1921.
- Makowski D et al 2015 A statistical analysis of ensembles of crop model responses to climate
 change factors *Agriculture and Forest Meteorology* 214–215 483–493
- Matsunami et al. 2009 Effect of CO2 concentration, temperature, and N fertilization on
 biomass production of soybean genotypes differing in N fixation capacity *Plant production science* 12 156-167
- Manderscheid R, Pacholski A, Weigel H J 2010 Effect of free air carbon dioxide enrichment
 combined with two nitrogen levels on growth, yield and yield quality of sugar beet:
 Evidence for a sink limitation of beet growth under elevated CO2 *European Journal of Agronomy* 32 228-239.

Washington, https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/handle/10986/9065 License: CC BY 3.0 IGO. 631 632 Nuccio M L et al 2018 Where are the drought tolerant crops? An assessment of more than two decades of plant biotechnology effort in crop improvement *Plant Science* 633 634 273 110-119 635 Oikawa S et al. 2010 Interactions between elevated CO2 and N2 fixation determine 636 soybean yield- a test using a non-nodulated mutant Plant and Soil 330 163-172 637 Olesen J E et al. 2011 Impacts and adaptation of European crop production systems to 638 climate change European Journal of Agronomy 34 96–112. 639 Powlson D S et al. 2016 Does conservation agriculture deliver climate change mitigation 640 through soil carbon sequestration in tropical agro-ecosystems? Agriculture, 641 Ecosystems & Environment 220 164–174. 642 Ray D K et al. 2015 Climate variation explains a third of global crop yield variability Nat. 643 Commun. 6 5989. 644 Roberts M J et al. 2017 Comparing and combining process-based crop models and 645 statistical models with some implications for climate change *Environmental* Research Letters 12 095010 646 647 Roos J et al. 2011 The impact of global warming on plant diseases and insect vectors in Sweden European Journal of Plant Pathology 129 9–19. 648 649 Rosenzweig et al. 2014 Assessing agricultural risks of climate change in the 21st century in a 650 global gridded crop model intercomparison Proceedings of the National Academy of 651 Sciences of the United States of America 111 3268-3273 doi:10.1073/pnas.1222463110 652 Saadi S et al. 2015 Climate change and Mediterranean agriculture: impacts on winter wheat and tomato crop evapotranspiration, irrigation requirements and yield 653 654 Agricultural Water Management 147 103–115. 655 Schlenker W and Lobell D B 2010 Robust negative impacts of climate change on African 656 agriculture Environmental Research Letters 5 p.14010. 657 Soltani A and Sinclair T R 2012 Modeling physiology of crop development, growth and 658 vield, Wallingford, Oxfordshire, Cambridge, UK: CABI. 659 Verchot L V et al. 2007 Climate change: linking adaptation and mitigation through agroforestry Mitigation and adaptation strategies for global change 12 901–918. 660 Wallach D, Mearns L O, Ruane A C, Rötter R P, Asseng S 2016 Lessons from climate 661 modeling on the design and use of ensembles for crop modeling *Climatic Change* 662 139 551-564 663 664 Wallach D et al. 2019 Working with dynamic crop models: Methods, tools and examples for *agriculture and environment*, Academic Press. Third edition. 665 666 Webb L B et al. 2012 Earlier wine-grape ripening driven by climatic warming and drying and management practices Nature Climate Change 2 259. 667 668 Webber H et al 2018 Diverging importance of drought stress for maize and winter wheat in Europe Nature communications 9:4249. 669 670 Weigel H J and Manderscheid R 2012 Crop growth responses to free air CO2 enrichment and

Müller C, Bondeau A, Popp A, Waha K, Fader M 2010 Climate Change Impacts on Agricultural

World

Bank.

C

World

Bank.

DC:

629

630

Yields.

- 671 nitrogen fertilization: Rotating barley, ryegrass, sugar beet and wheat *European Journal*672 of Agronomy 43 97-107.
- Wilcox J and Makowski D 2014. A meta-analysis of the predicted effects of climate change
 on wheat yields using simulation studies *Field Crops Research* 156 180-190
 doi:10.1016/j.fcr.2013.11.008
- Wolfe D W et al. 2018 Unique challenges and opportunities for northeastern US crop
 production in a changing climate *Climatic Change* 146 231–245.
- 678 Zhao C et al. 2016 Field warming experiments shed light on the wheat yield response to
 679 temperature in China. *Nature Communications* 7 13530.
- 680 Zhao C et al. 2017a Plausible rice yield losses under future climate warming. *Nature*681 *Plants* 3 16202.
- 682 Zhao C et al. 2017b Temperature increase reduces global yields of major crops in four
 683 independent estimates *PNAS* 114 9326-9331
- 684
- 685









Figure 2. Marginal effects (regardless of the level of adaptation) on yield of temperature (A), CO₂ (B), temperature-CO₂ (C) interaction, and precipitation (D) for all C3 crops combined and for each major species (wheat, maize, soybean, rice). The squares correspond to the estimated values and the horizontal bars represent the 95% confidence intervals. Each estimated value is obtained by increasing the corresponding factor by one unit with all others set equal to zero. The size of the square is proportional to the accuracy of each estimate. Numerical values are presented on the right.



Figure 3. Estimated parameter values quantifying the effect of climate change adaptation on relative
 yield variation for all C3 crops combined, and for major species. The squares correspond to the
 estimated values and the horizontal bars represent the 95% confidence intervals. The size of the
 squares is proportional to the accuracy of the estimates. Numerical values are presented on the
 right.



C3 +2°C +0ppm

C3 +2°C +100ppm

C3 +2°C +200ppm

C3 +3°C +0ppm

C3 +3°C +100ppm

C3 +3°C +200ppm

C3 +4°C +0ppm

C3 +4°C +100ppm

C3 +4°C +200ppm





B. 10% rainfall decrease



-20 -15 -10 -5 0 5 Yield change (%)

C. No rainfall decrease & adaptation

D. 10% rainfall decrease & adaptation



Figure 4. Combined effects of different levels of temperature (+2, +3, +4°C) and CO₂ concentration increase (+0, +100, +200ppm) on C3 crop yields. No decrease in precipitation and no adaptation (A), 10% decrease in precipitation without adaptation (B), no decrease in precipitation with adaptation (C), 10% decrease in precipitation with adaptation (D). The squares correspond to the estimated values and the horizontal bars represent the 95% confidence intervals. The size of the squares is proportional to the accuracy of the estimates. Numerical values are presented on the right of the graphs.

- 718
- 719
- 720
- 721



Figure 5. Response of the relative change in C3 crop yield to an increase in CO₂ concentration (+0 to
 +250ppm) for two levels of temperature increase (+2 or +4°C), without decrease in precipitation and
 without adaptation. The dashed lines represent the 95% confidence intervals. The effect of CO₂ is
 smaller for large temperature increases.



Figure 6. Effect of different levels of temperature and CO₂ concentration increase on maize yields.
Note that some combinations are physically unlikely (e.g., an increase of +4°C for 0 ppm). The squares correspond to the estimated values and the horizontal bars represent the 95% confidence
intervals. The size of the squares is proportional to the accuracy of the estimates. Numerical values are presented on the right.



B. 10% rainfall decrease and no adaptation





Figure 7. Effect of different levels of temperature increase (+2, +3, +4°C), CO₂ content (+0, +100, +200ppm) and precipitation on wheat yields. No decrease in precipitation and no adaptation (A), 10% decrease in precipitation without adaptation (B), no decrease in precipitation with adaptation (C), 10% decrease in precipitation with adaptation (D). The squares correspond to the estimated values and the horizontal bars represent the 95% confidence intervals. The size of the squares is proportional to the accuracy of the estimates. Numerical values are presented on the right.





Figure 8. Frontiers of CO₂ increase levels above (below) which a yield gain (loss) is expected
 for wheat (blue) and maize (red). Dotted lines represent 95% confidence intervals.



Figure 9. Effect of different levels of temperature increase (+2, +3, +4°C), CO₂ content (+0, +100, +200ppm) and precipitation on soybean yields. No decrease in precipitation (A), 10% decrease in precipitation (B). The effect of adaptation is not presented because it is not significant for the soybean model. The squares correspond to the estimated values and the horizontal bars represent the 95% confidence intervals. The size of the squares is proportional to the accuracy of the estimates. Numerical values are presented on the right.



Figure 10. Effect on rice yield of different levels of temperature increase (+2, +3, +4°C), and CO₂
 content (+0, +100, +200ppm) with and without adaptation. The effect of a change in precipitation is
 not presented here because it is not significant. The squares correspond to the estimated values and
 the horizontal bars represent the 95% confidence intervals. The size of the squares is proportional to
 the accuracy of the estimates. Numerical values are presented on the right.