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Global wheat production with 1.5 and 2.0°C above pre-industrial warming

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Abstract

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

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

Introduction

The global community agreed with the Paris agreement to limiting global warming to 2.0°C, with the stated ambition to attempt to cap warming at 1.5°C (UNFCCC, 2015). While limiting the extent of climate change is critical, the more ambitious 1.5°C mitigation strategy will likely require considerable mitigation effort in the agricultural land use sector (Fujimori

et al., 2018), with some studies suggesting this would actually have more negative consequence for food security than climate change impacts of 2.0°C (Frank *et al.*, 2017, Ruane *et al.*, 2018a, van Meijl *et al.*, 2018). However, these economic land use studies generally only consider the average effects of climate change and not the changes in yield variability and risk of yield failure, key factors constraining intensification efforts in many developing regions (Kalkuhl *et al.*, 2016). Further such studies have generally not considered real cultivars nor typical production conditions.

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

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

Process-based crop simulation models, as tools to quantify the complexity of crop growth as driven by climate, soil, and management practice, have been widely used in climate change impact assessments at different spatial scales (Challinor *et al.*, 2014, Chenu *et al.*, 2017, Ewert *et al.*, 2015a, Porter *et al.*, 2014), including multi-model ensemble approaches (Asseng *et al.*, 2015, Asseng *et al.*, 2013, Wang *et al.*, 2017). The multi-model ensemble approach has been proven to be a reliable method in reproducing the main effects anticipated

for climate change when simulations are compared with field-experimental observations (including changes in temperature, heat events, rainfall, atmospheric CO₂ concentration [CO₂] and their interactions) (Asseng *et al.*, 2015, Asseng *et al.*, 2013, Asseng *et al.*, 2018, Wallach *et al.*, 2018, Wang *et al.*, 2017).

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

Materials and Methods

Model inputs for global simulations

An ensemble of 31 wheat crop models was used to assess climate change impacts for 60 representative wheat growing locations developed by the AgMIP-Wheat team (Asseng *et al.*, 2015, Asseng *et al.*, 2018, Wallach *et al.*, 2018). All models in the ensemble were calibrated for the phenology of local cultivars and used site-specific soils and crop management. The multi-model ensemble used here has been tested against observed field data and showed reliable response to changing climate in several previous studies, including responses of model ensemble to elevated CO₂, post-anthesis chronic warming and different heat shock treatments during grain filling (Asseng *et al.*, 2018, Wallach *et al.*, 2018). Ruane *et al.* (2016) and Hoffman *et al.* (2015) showed that a multi-model ensemble can also reproduce some of observed seasonal yield variability. The 60 locations are from key wheat growing regions in the world (Table S1). Locations 1 to 30 are high rainfall or irrigated wheat growing locations

representing 68% of current global wheat production. These locations were simulated without water or nitrogen limitation. Details about these locations can be found in Asseng *et al.* (2015). Locations 31 to 60 are low rainfall locations with average wheat yield $< 4 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$ and represent 32% of current global wheat production (Asseng *et al.*, 2018).

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

Future climate projections

Baseline (1980-2010) climate data for each wheat modeling site comes from the AgMERRA climate dataset, which combines observations, reanalysis data, and satellite data products to provide daily climate forcing data for agricultural modeling (Ruane *et al.*, 2015a). Climate scenarios here are consistent with the AgMIP Coordinated Global and Regional Assessments (CGRA) 1.5 and 2.0 °C World study (Rosenzweig *et al.*, 2018; Ruane *et al.*, 2018a, 2018b), utilizing the methods summarized below and in the supplementary material and fully described by Ruane *et al.* (2018b). Climate changes from large (83-500 member for each model) climate model ensemble projections of the +1.5 and +2.0°C scenarios from the Half a Degree Additional Warming, Prognosis and Projected Impacts project (HAPPI) (Mitchell *et al.*, 2017) are combined with the local AgMERRA baseline to generate driving climate scenarios from five GCMs [MIROC5, NorESM1-M, CanAM4 (HAPPI), CAM4-2degree (HAPPI), and HadAM3P] for each location (Ruane *et al.*, 2018b). Only five GCMs

here were used due to data availability at the time the study was conducted. Specifically, HAPPI ensemble changes in monthly mean climate, the number of precipitation days, and the standard deviation of daily maximum and minimum temperatures are imposed upon the historical AgMERRA daily series using quantile mapping that forces the observed conditions to mimic the future distribution of daily events (Ruane *et al.*, 2015b; Ruane *et al.*, 2018b). This results in climate scenarios that maintain the characteristics of local climate while also capturing major climate changes. As in previous AgMIP assessments, solar radiation changes from GCMs introduce uncertainties that can at times overwhelm the impact of temperature and rainfall changes, and thus were not considered here other than small radiation effects associated with changes in the number of precipitation days (Ruane *et al.*, 2015b).

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

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

Aggregation of local climate change impacts to global wheat production impacts

Simulation results were up-scaled using a stratified sampling method, a guided sampling method to improve the scaling quality (van Bussel *et al.* 2016), with several points per wheat mega region when necessary (Gbegbelegbe *et al.* 2017). During the up-scaling process, the simulation result of a location was weighted by the production the location represents as described below (Asseng *et al.* 2015). Liu *et al.* (2016) recently showed that stratified sampling with 30 locations across wheat mega regions resulted in similar temperature impact and uncertainty as aggregation of simulated grid cells at country and global scale. And Zhao *et al.*, 2016 indicated that the uncertainty due to sampling decreases with increasing number of sampling points. We therefore doubled the 30 locations from Asseng *et al.* (2015) to 60

locations (Supplementary Table S1) to cover contrasting conditions across all wheat mega regions.

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

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

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

Environmental clustering of the 60 global locations

The 60 global wheat growing locations were clustered in order to analyze the results by groups of environments with similar climates (Fig. S5). A hierarchical clustering on principal components of the 60 locations was performed based on four climate variables for 1981-

2010: the growing season (sowing to maturity) mean temperature, the growing season cumulative evapotranspiration, the growing season cumulative solar radiation, and the number of heat stress days (maximum daily temperature > 32°C) during the grain filling period. All data were scaled (centered and reduced to make the mean and standard deviation of data to be zero and one, respectively) prior to the principal component analysis.

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

Results

Impacts of 2015 Paris Agreement compliant warming

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

Based on baseline climate conditions (1980 to 2010), we categorized the 60 wheat production sites into three environment types (temperate high rainfall, moderately hot low rainfall, and hot irrigated) (Fig. S5). Across these environments, increasing temperatures reduce wheat crop duration due to accelerated phenology (Fig.S22a). As a consequence, the crop duration declines with future climate change scenarios compared with the baseline. For most of the locations from temperate high rainfall and moderately hot low rainfall regions, simulated cumulative growing season evapotranspiration (ET) and growing season rainfall

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

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

The projected changes in growing season climate variables have a significant impact on simulated grain yield under the two warming scenarios at most global locations. As shown in Table S4, a significant negative relationship between simulated grain yield and growing season mean temperature and the number of heat stress days during grain filling were found at most locations, especially for hot irrigated locations, while a significant positive relationship between simulated grain yields and growing season cumulative ET, solar radiation and rainfall (only for rainfed locations) were found in almost all locations. For example, wheat grain yield at Griffith, Australia was projected to decrease by 0.44 t ha⁻¹ per °C increase in growing season mean temperature, and decrease by 0.067 t ha⁻¹ per day increase in heat stress days, but increase by 0.008 t ha⁻¹ per mm increase in growing season

cumulative ET. In addition, shortening the growing season duration was also found to negatively impact simulated wheat yield significantly. For example, wheat yield was projected to decrease by 0.1 t ha⁻¹ per day reduction in growing season duration, in Indore, India. Growing season rainfall also showed significant positive effects on projected grain yield in most rainfed locations (Table S4), however, projected growing season rainfall declined in most locations, except for small rainfall increases in a few hot irrigated locations (Fig. S21b).

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

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

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

When up-scaling the impact for different wheat types (Fig.S26), the impact on global wheat production of the multi-model medians were 0.76% and 1.26% for spring wheat types (planted at 39 global locations) under 1.5 and 2.0 scenario but 3.2% and 5.7% for winter wheat types (planted at 21 global locations), respectively.

More variable yields in hot and dry areas

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

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

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

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

Discussion

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

us to project meaningfully how interannual yield variability will change at regional or global scale, our study supplies important information on how the additional half degree of warming will impact on yield variability, considering the parallel changes in mean yield levels associated with the combined warming and elevated CO₂ levels. This information is urgently required by national governments and international policy makers in assessing the relative risks and costs of mitigating to 1.5°C warming versus 2.0°C warming.

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

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

Despite mostly positive impacts on average yields, projections suggest that the frequency of extreme low yields will increase under both scenarios for some of the hot growing locations (for both low rainfall and irrigated sites), including India, that currently supply more than 14% of global wheat (FAO, 2014). Similarly, an increase in the frequency of crop failures has been shown with 1.5°C global warming above the pre-industrial period for maize,

millet and sorghum in West Africa (Parkes *et al.*, 2017). On the other hand, Faye *et al.* (2018) did not detect a change in yield variability for the same three crops in West African between the 1.5 and 2.0°C warming scenarios using HAPPI climate data. In our study, the change in climate extremes occurs due to projected shifts in mean temperatures (which bring wheat cropping systems closer to heat stress thresholds) as well as shifts in the distribution of daily temperatures, which can increase or decrease the frequency of future heat waves. Coupled changes in projected precipitation may also exacerbate drought and heat stress yield damage.

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

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

Uncertainties

Here, we up-scaled the climate warming impacts from 60 representative global locations to country and globe scales, following the approach by Asseng *et al.* (2015). The 60 locations were selected with local experts to be representative of each region and high-quality model inputs for each location were obtained (Supplementary Table S1). Liu *et al.* (2016) and Zhao *et al.* (2017) recently showed that up-scaled simulations for representative locations, as

suggested by van Bussel *et al.* (2015), have similar temperature impacts to 0.5° x 0.5° global grid simulations or statistical approaches. The projected impact for spring wheat reported here is similar to that reported by Iizumi *et al.* (2017), who reported global spring wheat production to increase by 1.43%-1.60% and 1.43%-1.61% under 1.5 and 2.0 scenarios using a global gridded simulation approach under different Shared Socioeconomic Pathways.

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

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

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

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Figure captions

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

Fig. 2. Projected Impact of the 1.5 and 2.0 scenarios on wheat grain yield and crop duration. Simulated change in grain yield versus (a) growing season mean temperature and (b) mean growing season duration (sowing to maturity) for the 1.5 (orange) and 2.0 (dark cyan) scenarios (HAPPI). (c) Differences in relative change in grain yield between the 1.5

and 2.0 scenario versus growing season mean temperature for 60 representative wheat producing global locations. Relative changes of grain yield were the median across 31 crop models and five GCMs, calculated with simulated 30-year (1981-2010) mean grain yields for baseline, the 1.5 and 2.0 scenarios (including changes in temperature, rainfall and [CO₂]) using region-specific soils, cultivars and crop management. The size of symbols indicates the production represented by each location (using 2014 FAO country wheat production statistics). The vertical and horizontal range crosses indicate the median 25-75% uncertainty range of relative change in grain yields, growing season mean temperature, crop duration across the 31 crop models and five GCMs, respectively. In (a), r^2 of linear regressions were 0.32 and 0.33 under 1.5 and 2.0 scenario, respectively ($P < 0.001$).

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

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

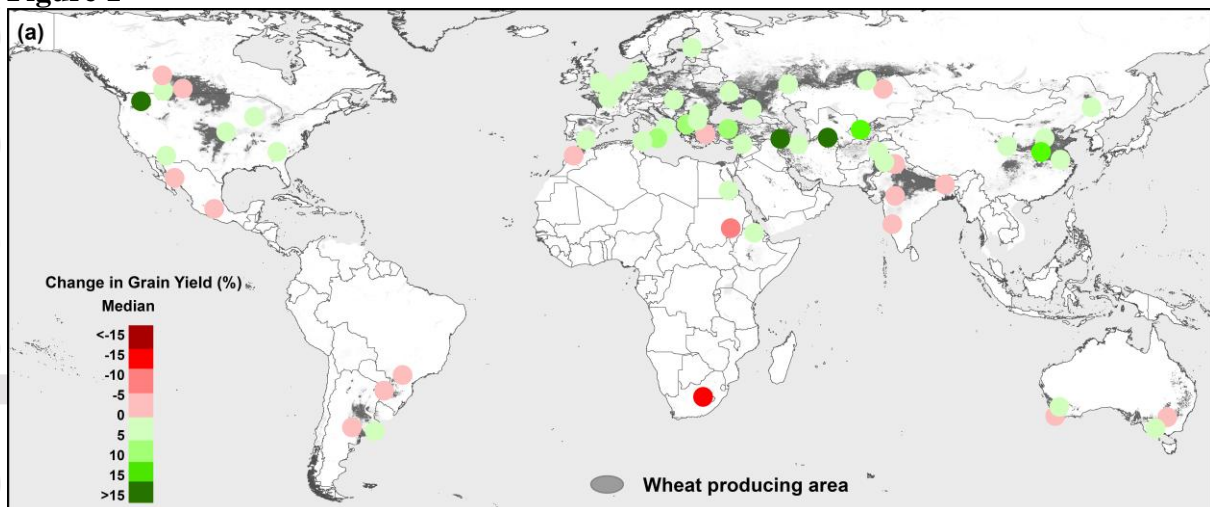
Fig. 5. Projected impacts of the 1.5 and 2.0 scenarios on the probability of extreme low wheat yields. (a) Grain yield distribution at three locations representative of the three main types of environments (see below) for the 1981-2010 baseline and for the 1.5 and 2.0 scenarios (HAPPI; including changes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

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

(a) Relative climate change impacts for the 2.0°C warming scenarios (HAPPI) compared with the 1981-2010 baseline on interannual yield variability (coefficient of variation) at 60 representative global wheat growing locations for clusters of temperate high rainfall or irrigated locations (green; 26 locations), moderately hot low rainfall locations (yellow; 20 locations), and hot irrigated locations (red; 14 locations). In (a), ★ and ★★ indicates the changes of interannual yield variability between warming scenario and baseline was

significant at $P < 0.05$ and $P < 0.01$, respectively. The circles and triangles showed increased and decreased interannual variability, respectively. (b) and (c) Relative climate change impacts for the 1.5 and 2.0 scenarios compared with the 1981-2010 baseline on interannual yield variability (coefficient of variation) in temperate high rainfall or irrigated (26 locations), moderately hot low rainfall (20 locations), and hot irrigated (14 locations) locations. Horizontal thick solid lines are the median change of interannual yield variability for each environment type. The circles are the 60-global locations shown in (a), their size indicates the production represented at each location (using FAO country wheat production statistics) and their color indicated the growing season mean temperature at each location under the 1.5 and 2.0 scenarios. Within each environment type the circles have been jiggled along the horizontal axis to make it easier to see locations with similar probability values, which means that the horizontal positions of circles in each environment type were used to avoid the overlapping of circles, and have no meaning. The shaded areas show the distribution of the data.

Figure 1



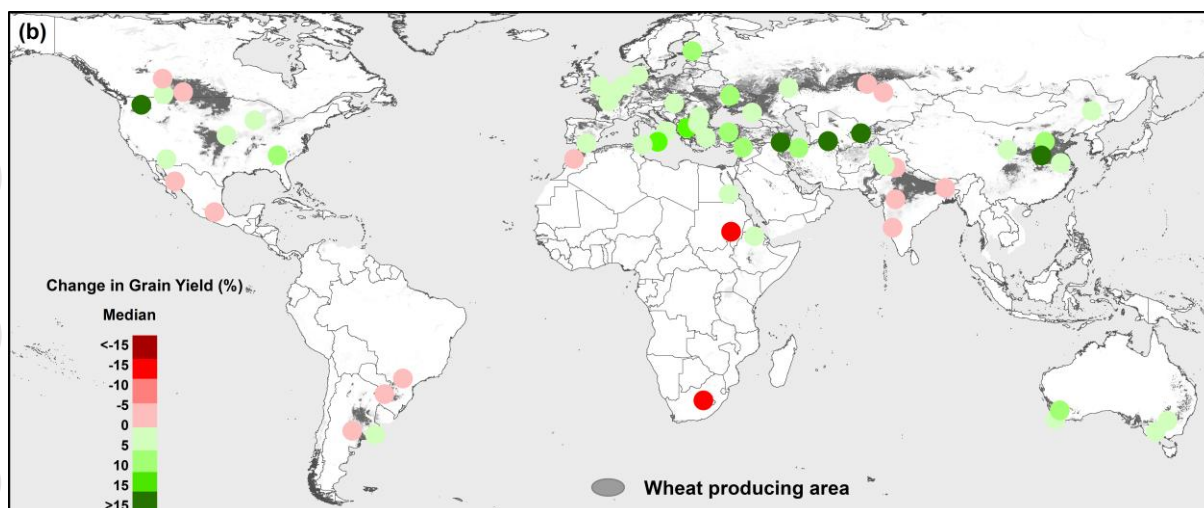


Figure 2

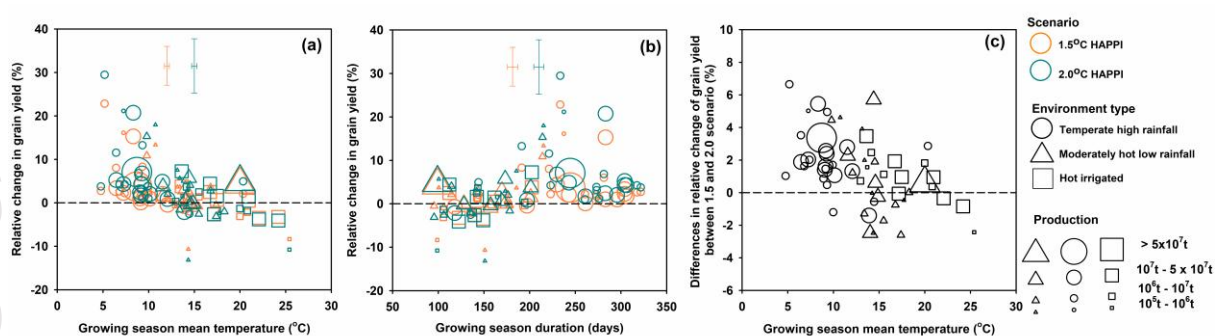
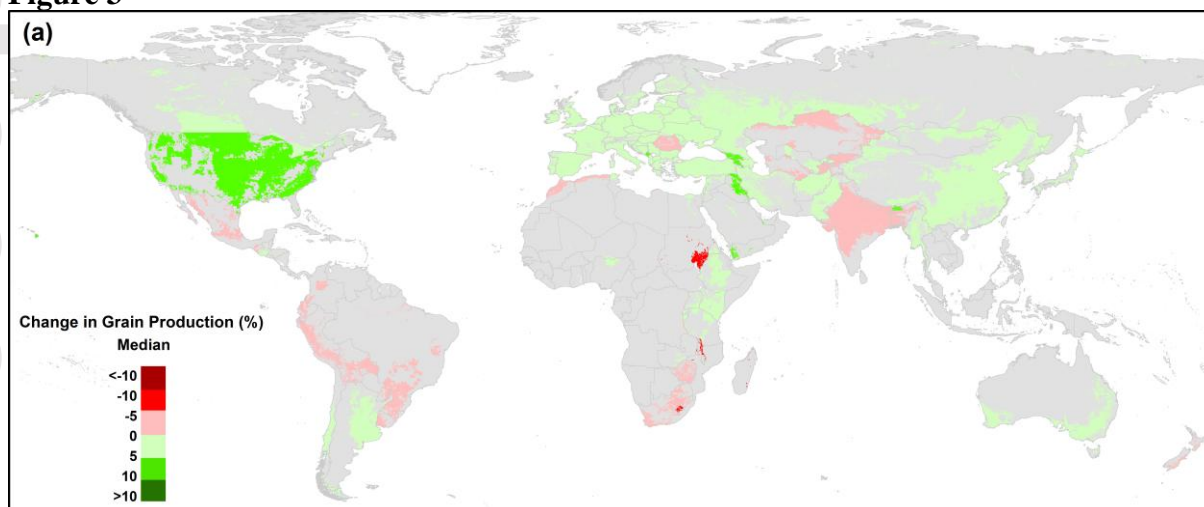


Figure 3



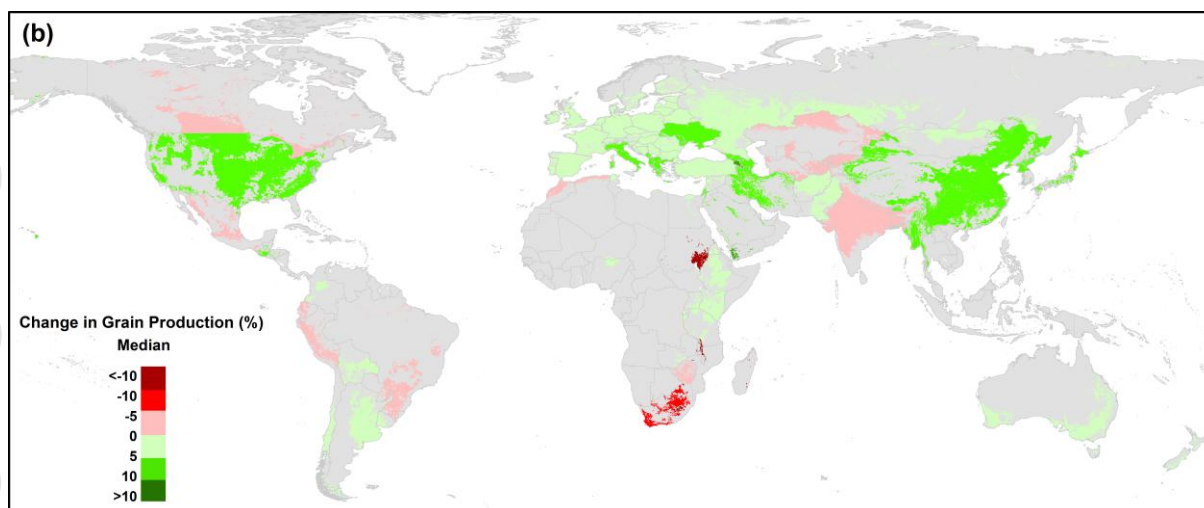


Figure 4

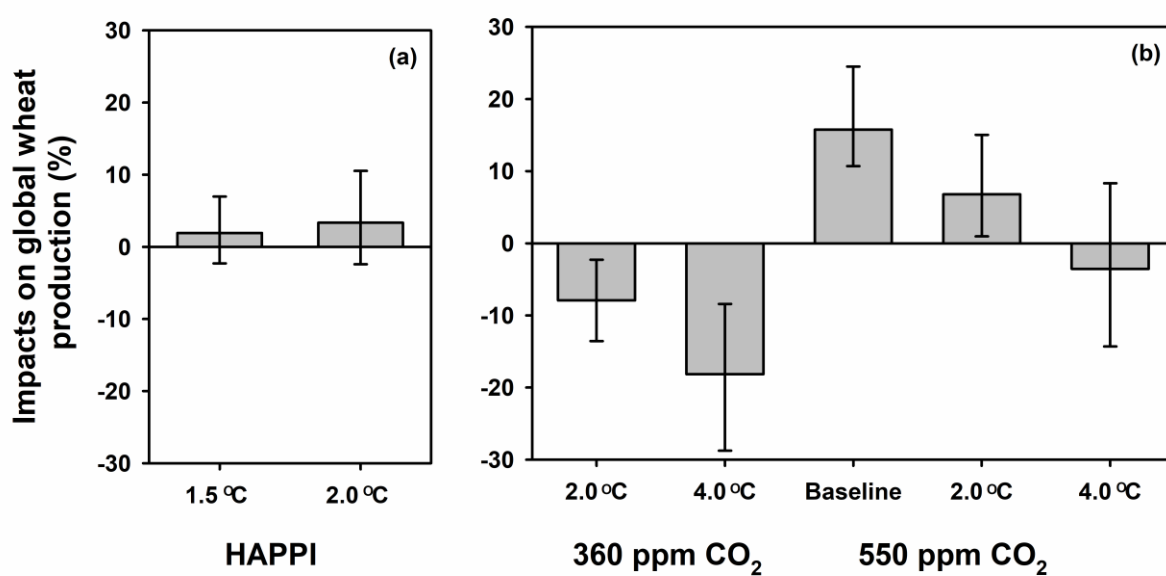


Figure 5

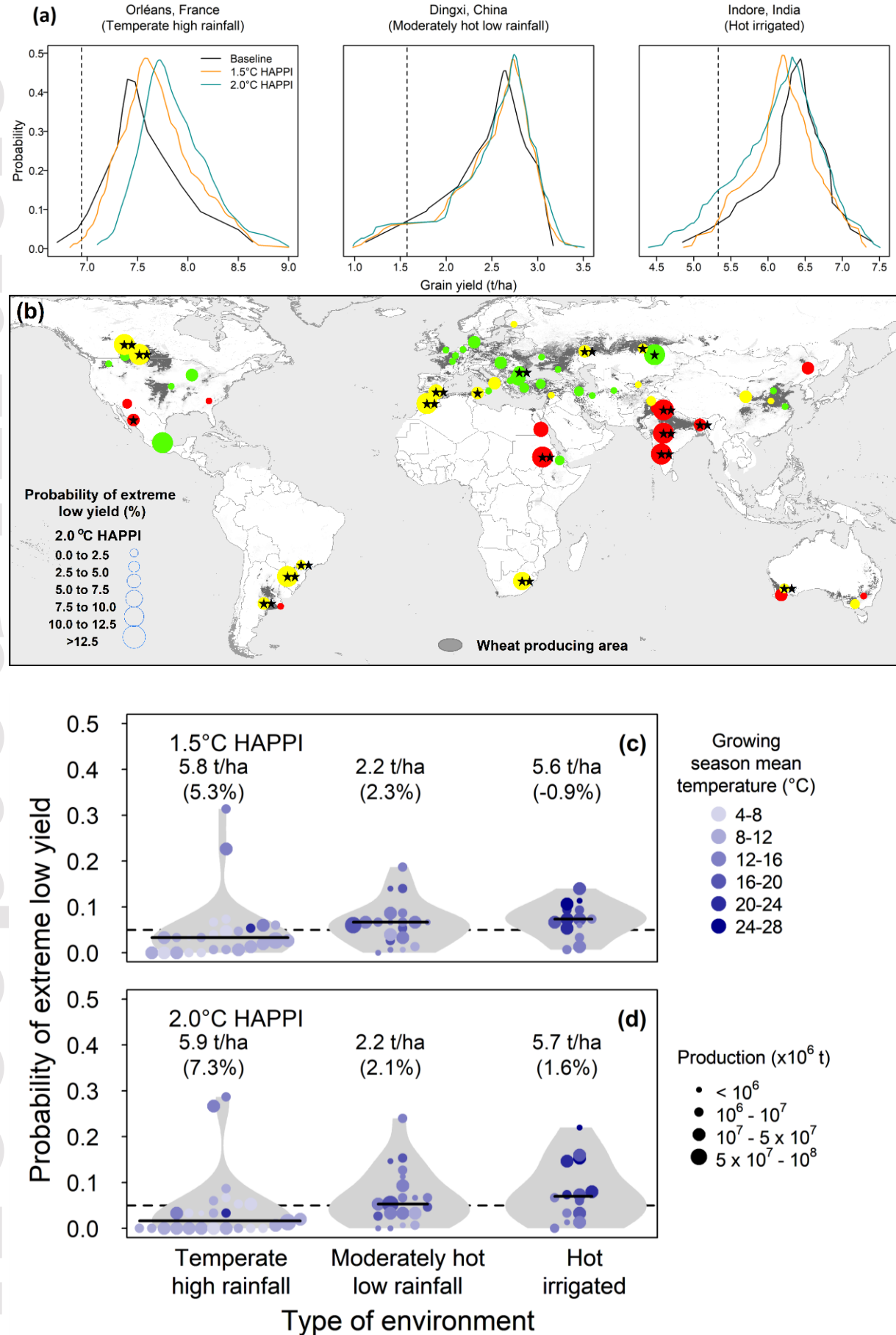
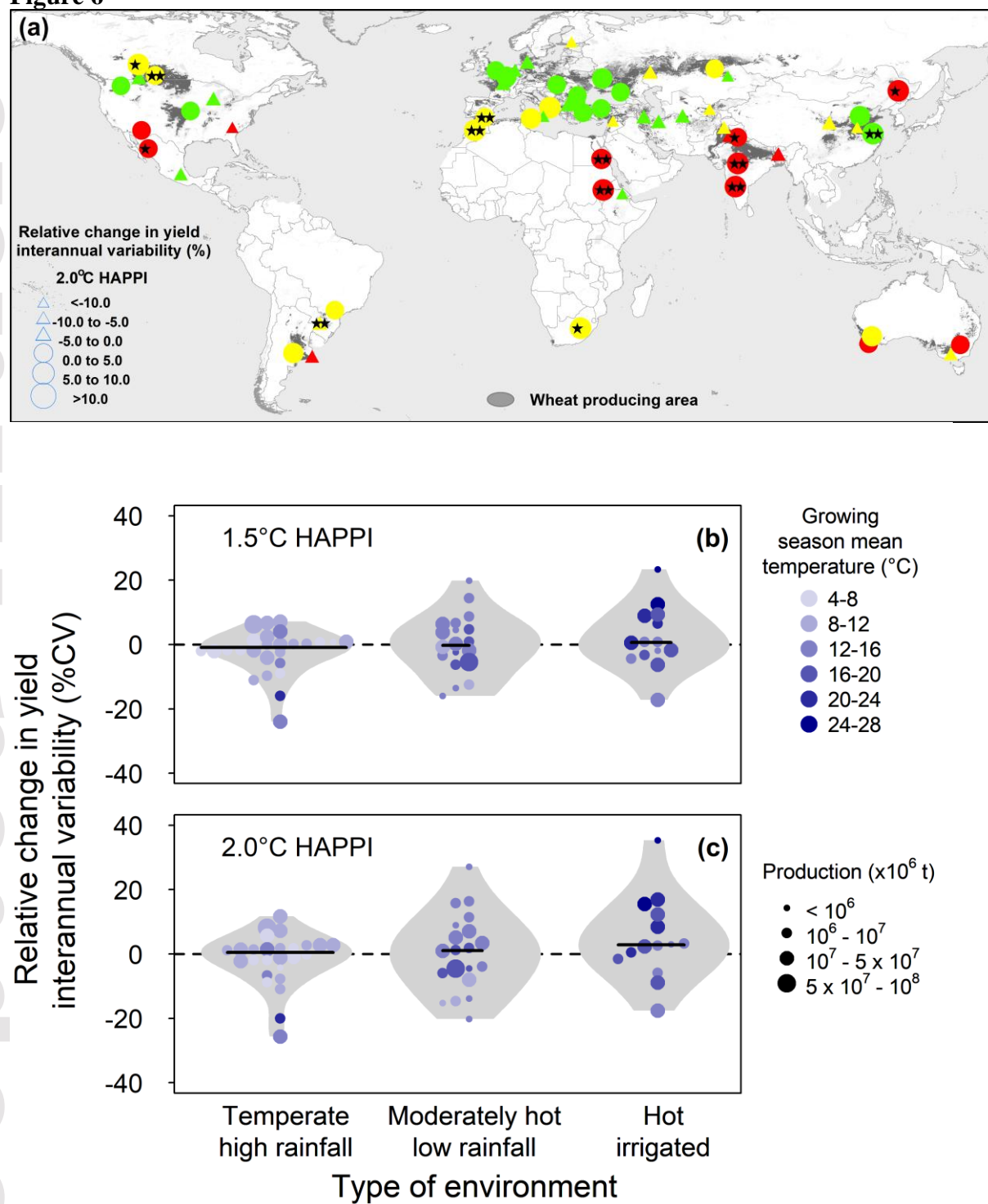


Figure 6



Supporting Information for

Global wheat production with 1.5 and 2.0°C above pre-industrial warming

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SI Materials and Methods

Model inputs for global simulations. Sixty locations from key wheat growing regions in the world were used for a global impact assessment (Table S1). Locations 1 to 30 are high rainfall or irrigated wheat growing locations representing 68% of current global wheat production. These locations were simulated without water or nitrogen limitation. Details about these locations can be found in Asseng *et al.* (2015) and in Table S1. Locations 31 to 60 are low rainfall locations with average wheat yield $< 4 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$. These locations represent 32% of current global wheat production. In contrast to the high-rainfall locations 1 to 30, soil types and N management vary among the low-rainfall locations 31 to 60 according region-specific practices. To carry out the global impact assessment and exclusively focus on climate change, region-specific cultivars were used in all 60 locations. Observed local mean sowing, anthesis, and maturity dates were supplied to modelers with qualitative information on vernalization requirements and photoperiod sensitivity for each cultivar. Modelers were asked to sow at the

supplied sowing dates and calibrate their cultivar parameters against the observed anthesis and maturity dates by considering the qualitative information on vernalization requirements and photoperiod sensitivity.

For locations 1 to 30 sowing dates were fixed at specific dates. For locations 31 to 60, sowing windows were defined and a sowing rule was used. The sowing window was based on sowing dates reported in literature (Table S1). For locations 41, 43, 46, 53, 54, and 59, sowing dates were not reported in literature and estimates from a global cropping calendar were used (Portmann *et al.*, 2010). The cropping calendar provided a month (the 15th of the month was used) in which wheat is usually sown in the region of the location. The start of the sowing window was the reported sowing date and the end of the sowing window was set two months later. Sowing dates and windows are listed in Table S1. Sowing was triggered in the simulations on the day after cumulative rainfall reached or exceeds 10 mm over a 5-day period during the predefined sowing window. Rainfall from up to 5 days before the start of the sowing window was considered. If these criteria were not met by the end of the sowing window, wheat was sown on the last day of the sowing window.

For locations 35, 39, 47, 49, and 55 to 57, anthesis dates were reported in literature. For the remaining sites, anthesis dates were estimated with the APSIM-Wheat model (Fig.S27).

Maturity dates were estimated from a cropping calendar for sites 31 to 32, 37 to 38, 41 to 46, 49 to 54, and 58 to 59 where no information from literature was available. For locations 31 to 60, observed grain yields from the literature (Table S1) were provided to modelers with the aim to set up wheat models to have similar yield levels, as well as similar anthesis and maturity dates. No yields were reported for sites 49 and 56, so APSIM-Wheat yields were estimated and used as a guide (Fig.S28).

Locations 1 to 30 (no water or N limitations) were simulated using the same soil information from Maricopa, USA. Soil information for locations 31 to 60 were obtained from a global soil database (Romero *et al.*, 2012). The soil closest to a location was used, but for locations 39 and 59, soil carbon was decreased after consulting local experts. Soil profile hydrological parameters and soil organic carbon used for locations 1 to 60.

Initial soil nitrogen was set to 25 kg N ha NO₃ and 5 kg N ha NH₄ per meter soil depth and reset each year for locations 31 to 60. Initial soil water for spring wheat sown after winter at locations 31 to 60 was set to 100 mm of plant available water, starting from 10 cm depth down to

100 mm was filled in between permanent wilting point and field capacity. The first 10 cm were kept at permanent wilting point and reset each year. If wheat was sown after summer, initial soil water was set to 50 mm plant available water, starting from 10 cm depth down to 50 mm was filled in between permanent wilting point and field capacity. The first 10 cm were kept at the permanent wilting point and reset each year.

For locations 31 to 60, fertilizer rates were determined from Gbегbelegbe *et al.* (2017) except for site 59 (Ethiopia) where N fertilizer was set to 60 kg N ha⁻¹. Fertilizer rates were set low (20 to 50 kg N ha⁻¹) at locations 31 to 32, 48, 51, 53, 60; medium (60 kg N ha⁻¹) at locations 33 to 43, 45 to 47, 49 to 50, 52, 54, 57 to 59; and relatively high (100 to 120 kg N ha⁻¹) at locations 44, 55 to 56. All fertilizer was applied at sowing.

Future climate projections. In this assessment, baseline (1980-2010) climate data are from the

AgMERRA climate dataset (Ruane *et al.*, 2015), which combines observations, reanalysis data,

and satellite data products to provide daily maximum and minimum temperatures, solar

radiation, precipitation, wind speed, vapor pressure, dew point temperatures, and relative

humidity corresponding to the maximum temperature time of day for each location. Climate

projections for 1.5 and 2.0°C global warming scenarios were taken from five global climate

models (GCMs) [MIROC5, NorESM1-M, CanAM4 (HAPPI), CAM4-2degree (HAPPI), and

HadAM3P], which were selected from the Half a degree Additional warming, Prognosis and

Projected Impacts project (HAPPI; Mitchell *et al.*, 2017). Large (83-500 member) ensembles of

each simulation model were analyzed to produce grid cell ensemble mean change information

for each grid cell (Ruane *et al.*, 2018). Climate scenarios were then created by adjusting the

distribution of observed climate events to mimic projected climate changes for monthly mean

precipitation and minimum and maximum daily temperatures, the standard deviation of daily

maximum and minimum temperatures, and the number of rainy days (Ruane *et al.*, 2018).

Atmospheric carbon dioxide concentrations ([CO₂]) of 360, 423, and 487 ppm CO₂ were used for

baseline conditions and scenarios where global warming is +1.5 and +2.0 °C above pre-industrial

conditions to be consistent with HAPPI protocols (Ruane *et al.*, 2018). There were 11 treatments

(baseline, five GCMs for 1.5, and five GCMs for 2.0 scenario) simulated for 60 locations and 30 years:

1. Baseline (with 360ppm CO₂)
2. GCM MIROC5 (1.5°C with 423 ppm CO₂)
3. GCM NorESM1-M (1.5°C with 423 ppm CO₂)
4. GCM CanAM4 (HAPPI) (1.5°C with 423 ppm CO₂)
5. GCM CAM4-2degree (HAPPI) (1.5°C with 423 ppm CO₂)
6. GCM HadAM3P (1.5°C with 423 ppm CO₂)
7. GCM MIROC5 (2.0°C with 487 ppm CO₂)
8. GCM NorESM1-M (2.0°C with 487 ppm CO₂)
9. GCM CanAM4 (HAPPI) (2.0°C with 487 ppm CO₂)
10. GCM CAM4-2degree (HAPPI) (2.0°C with 487 ppm CO₂)
11. GCM HadAM3P (2.0°C with 487 ppm CO₂)

Climate response tests. The impacts of temperature and CO₂ were further analyzed using a simple delta method that identifies fundamental biophysical responses. The 60 global locations were simulated over 30 years of baseline climate (1981-2010) using 6 variations; three temperature scenarios (with main daily temperature increased by 0, 2, or 4°C), each with two atmospheric [CO₂] (360 for baseline and an elevated 550 ppm). The Baseline+2°C and Baseline+4°C scenarios were created by adjusting each day's maximum and minimum temperatures upward by that amount and then adjusting vapor pressures and related parameters to maintain the original relative humidity at the maximum temperature time of day given that this quantity is not expected to change dramatically with climate change (Allen and Ingram, 2002).

Aggregation of local climate change impacts to global wheat production impacts. Before aggregating local impacts at 60 locations to global impacts, we determined the actual production represented by each location following the procedure described by Asseng *et al.* (2015). The total wheat production for each country came from FAO country wheat production statistics for 2014 (www.fao.org). For each country, wheat production was classified into three categories (i.e., high rainfall, irrigated, and low rainfall). The ration for each category was quantified based

on the Spatial Production Allocation Model (SPAM) dataset (<https://harvestchoice.org/products/data>). For some countries where no data was available through the SPAM dataset, we estimated the ratio for each category based on the country-level yield from FAO country wheat production statistics. The high rainfall production and irrigated production in each country were represented by the nearest high rainfall and irrigated locations (locations 1 to 30). Low rainfall production in each country was represented by the nearest low rainfall locations (locations 31 to 60).

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

- 1) Calculate the relative simulated mean yield impact for climate change scenarios for 30 growing seasons (1981-2010) per single model at each location.
- 2) Calculate the median across 31 models and five GCMs per location (multi-crop models [CMs] and GCMs ensemble median). Note that CMs and GCMs simulation results were kept separate only for calculating the separate CM and GCM uncertainties (expressed as range between 25th and 75th percentiles).
- 3) Calculate the absolute regional production loss by multiplying the relative yield loss from the multi-model ensemble median with the production represented at each location (using FAO country wheat production statistics of 2014 (FAO, 2014)). Calculate separately for high rainfall/irrigated and low input rainfed production. This assumes that the selected simulated location is representative of the entire wheat-growing region surrounding this location.
- 4) Add all regional production losses to the total global loss.
- 5) Calculate the relative change in global production (i.e., global production loss divided by current global production).
- 6) Repeat the above steps for the 25th and 75th percentile relative global yield impact from the 31model ensemble.

Similar steps with global impacts were used for calculating the impacts on country scale impacts, except that only the local impacts from corresponding locations in each country were aggregated to the country impacts. The upscaling method used has been shown to give similar temperature impacts than global-gridded and regression- model based approach (Liu *et al.*, 2016, Zhao *et al.*, 2017).

To test whether the estimated impacts from two warming scenarios is significantly different, we assume that we have a random sample (31 wheat models) from a population of wheat models. As we use the median as the best estimate of the impacts in this study, so the hypothesis for statistical test was that whether the median of the differences between two warming scenarios is statistically different than 0. Here, we did not compare the impacts of 1.5°C and 2°C directly, because the variability in impacts between two warming scenarios came from warming level and wheat models together, but first calculate the difference for each model and test the significance of the differences between two scenarios from 31 models. For each wheat model, the difference can be either >0 or ≤ 0 . So we can treat the differences of impacts from each model as a binomial distribution, with those two categories. Let b be the probability of difference > 0 . If $b=0.5$, then in expectation there are as many values >0 as values ≤ 0 , so the median of delta is 0. If $b>0.5$, then the median is >0 . Therefore, the hypothesis here is whether b is significantly different than 0.5.

Let n be the number of crop models. Suppose that n' is the observed number of differences between two warming levels >0 . The probability of observing n' if $b=0.5$, using R, is `dbinom (n', size=n, prob=0.5)`. The cumulative probability of $n'-1$ or fewer values >0 is `x=pbinom (n'-1, size=n, prob=0.5)`. The p value (for significance) is $p=1-x$, the probability of getting a value as large or larger than n' , if in fact the median is 0.

Similar statistical tests were conducted for the changes of extreme low yield probability and interannual yield variability between warming scenario and baseline for each location.

Environmental clustering of the 60 global locations. The 60 global wheat growing locations were clustered in order to analysis the results by group of environments with similar climates. A hierarchical clustering on principal components of the 60 locations was performed based on four climate variables for 1981-2010: the growing duration (sowing to maturity) mean temperature, the growing duration cumulative evapotranspiration, the growing duration cumulative solar radiation, and the number of heat stress days (maximum daily temperature $> 32^{\circ}\text{C}$) during the grain filling period. All data were scaled (centered and reduced) prior to the principal component analysis.

179 **Data analysis.** All data were analyzed and plotted using the R language and environment for
180 statistical analysis version 3.4.1 (R Core Team, 2017). The principal component and hierarchical
181 clustering analyses were done with the R package FactoMineR (Le *et al.*, 2008).

182

Table S1. Details of the 60 locations used in this study

Location number	Country	Location	Latitude / longitude (decimal)	Elevation (m a.s.l)	Irrigation (Y/N)	Name	Cultivar			Sowing date or window	Mean 50%-anthesis date	Mean maturity date	Reference used for choosing anthesis date	Environment type ^g
							Growth habit ^a	Vernalization requirement ^b	Photoperiod sensitivity ^b					
01	USA, AZ	Maricopa	33.06 / -112.05	358	Y	Yecora Rojo	S	2	1	25 Dec.	5 Apr.	15 May	-	3
02	Mexico	Obregon	27.33 / -109.9	41	Y	Tacupeto C2001	S	2	2	1 Dec.	15 Feb.	30 Apr.	-	3
03	Mexico	Toluca	19.40 / -99.68	2,667	Y	Tacupeto C2001	S	2	2	10 May	5 Aug.	20 Sep.	-	1
04	Brazil	Londrina	-23.31 / -51.13	610	Y	Atila	S	3	3	20 Apr.	10 Jul.	1 Sep.	-	2
05	Egypt	Aswan	24.10 / 32.90	193	Y	Seri M 82	S	3	2	20 Nov.	20 Mar.	30 Apr.	-	3
06	The Sudan	Wad Medani	14.40 / 33.50	413	Y	Debeira	S	3	2	20 Nov.	25 Jan.	25 Feb.	-	3
07	India	Dharwar	15.43 / 75.12	751	Y	Debeira	S	3	2	25 Oct.	15 Jan.	25 Feb.	-	3
08	Bangladesh	Dinajpur	25.65 / 88.68	40	Y	Kanchan	S	2	2	1 Dec.	15 Feb.	15 Mar.	-	3
09	The Netherland	Wageningen	51.97 / 5.63	12	N	Aminda	W	6	6	5 Nov.	25 Jun.	5 Aug.	-	1
10	Argentina	Balcarce	-37.75 / -58.3	122	N	Oasis	W	5	5	5 Aug.	25 Nov.	25 Dec.	-	3
11	India	Ludhiana	30.90 / 75.85	244	Y	HD 2687	S	1	1	15 Nov.	5 Feb.	5 Apr.	-	3
12	India	Indore	22.72 / 75.86	58	Y	HI 1544	S	0	1	25 Oct.	25 Jan.	25 Mar.	-	3
13	USA, WI	Madison	43.03 / -89.4	267	N	Brigadier	W	6	6	15 Sep.	15 Jun.	30 Jul.	-	1
14	USA, KS	Manhattan	39.14 / -96.63	316	N	Fuller	W	4	4	1 Oct.	15 May	01 Jul.	-	1
15	UK	Rothamsted	51.82 / -0.37	128	N	Avalon	W	3	3	15 Oct.	10 Jun.	20 Aug.	-	1
16	France	Estrées-Mons	49.88 / 3.00	87	N	Bermude	W	6	6	5 Oct.	31 May	15 Jul.	-	1
17	France	Orleans	47.83 / 1.91	116	N	Apache	W	5	4	20 Oct.	25 May	7 Jul.	-	1
18	Germany	Schleswig	54.53 / 9.55	13	N	Dekan	W	5	2	25 Sep.	15 Jun.	25 Jul.	-	1
19	China	Nanjing	32.03 / 118.48	13	N	NM13	W	4	4	5 Oct.	5 May	5 Jun.	-	1
20	China	Luancheng	37.53 / 114.41	54	Y	SM15	W	6	4	5 Oct.	5 May	5 Jun.	-	1
21	China	Harbin	45.45 / 126.46	118	Y	LM26	S	1	5	5 Apr.	15 Jun.	25 Jul.	-	3
22	Australia	Kojonup	-33.84 / 117.15	324	N	Wyallkatchem	S	2	4	15 May	5 Oct.	25 Nov.	-	3
23	Australia	Griffith	-34.17 / 146.03	193	Y	Avocet	S	2	4	15 Jun.	15 Oct.	25 Nov.	-	3
24	Iran	Karaj	35.92 / 50.90	1,312	Y	Pishtaz	S	2	2	1 Nov.	1 May	20 Jun.	-	1

Table S1. Continued

25	Pakistan	Faisalabad	31.42 / 73.12	192	Y	Faisalabad-2008	S	0	2	15 Nov.	5 Mar.	5 Apr.	-	3
26	Kazakhstan	Karagandy	50.17 / 72.74	356	Y	Steklov-24	S	2	4	20 May	1 Aug.	15 Sep.	-	1
27	Russia	Krasnodar	45.02 / 38.95	30	Y	Brigadier	W	6	6	15 Sep.	20 May	10 Jul.	-	1
28	Ukraine	Poltava	49.37 / 33.17	161	Y	Brigadier	W	6	6	15 Sep.	20 May	15 Jul.	-	1
29	Turkey	Izmir	38.60 / 27.06	14	Y	Basri Bey	S	4	4	15 Nov.	1 May	1 Jun.	-	1
30	Canada	Lethbridge	49.70 / -112.83	904	Y	AC Radiant	W	6	6	10 Sept.	10 Jun.	25 July.		1
31	Paraguay	Itapúa	-27.33 / -55.88	216	N	Based on Atilla	S	3	3	25 May – 25 Jul.	- ^d	15 Oct. ^e	(Ramirez-Rodrigues <i>et al.</i> , 2014)	2
32	Argentina	Santa Rosa	-36.37 / -64.17	177	N	Based on Avocet	S	2	4	5 Jun. – 5 Aug.	- ^d	15 Dec. ^e	(Asseng <i>et al.</i> , 2013)	2
33	USA, GA	Watkinsville	34.03 / -83.41	220	N	Based on Brigadier	W	6	6	25 Nov. – 25 Jan.	- ^d	22 Jun.	(Franzlbbers and Stuedemann, 2014)	3
34	USA, WA	Lind	47.00 / -118.56	522	N	Based on AC Radiant	W	4	4	28 Aug. – 28 Oct.	- ^d	31 Jul.	(Al-Mulla <i>et al.</i> , 2009, Donaldson <i>et al.</i> , 2001, Schillinger <i>et al.</i> , 2008)	1
35	Canada	Swift Current	50.28 / -107.78	10	N	Based on Steklov-24	S	2	4	18 May. – 18 Jul.	16 Jul.	28 Aug.	(Hu <i>et al.</i> , 2015)	2
36	Canada	Josephburg	53.7 / -113.06	631	N	Based on Steklov-24	S	2	4	15 May. – 15 Jul.	- ^d	28 Aug.	(Izaurreald e <i>et al.</i> , 1998)	2
37	Spain	Ventas Huelma	37.16 / -3.83	848	N	Based on Basri Bey	S	4	4	18 Dec. – 18 Feb.	- ^d	15 Jun. ^e	(Royo <i>et al.</i> , 2006)	2
38	Italy	Policoro	40.2 / 16.66	14	N	Based on Basri Bey	S	4	4	17 Nov. – 17 Jan.	- ^d	15 May ^e	(Steduto <i>et al.</i> , 1995)	2
39	Italy	Libertinia	37.5 / 14.58	267	N	Based on Basri Bey	S	4	4	26 Nov. – 26 Jan.	4 May	30 May	(Pecetti and Hollington, 1997)	1

40	Greece	Thessaloniki	41.08 / 22.15	36	N	Based on Basri Bey	S	4	4	15 Nov. – 15 Jan.	- ^d	22 Jun.	(Lithourgi dis <i>et al.</i> , 2006)	1
41	Hungary	Martonvásár	47.35 / 18.81	113	N	Based on Apache	S	5	4	15 Nov. – 15 Jan. ^c	- ^d	15 Jun. ^e	(Berzsenyi <i>et al.</i> , 2000)	1
42	Romania	Alexandria	43.98 / 25.35	73	N	Based on Brigadier	W	6	6	7 Oct. – 7 Dec.	- ^d	15 Aug. ^e	(Cuculean u <i>et al.</i> , 1999)	1
43	Bulgaria	Sadovo	42.13 / 24.93	154	N	Based on Brigadier	W	6	6	15 Oct. – 15 Dec. ^c	- ^d	15 Jul. ^e	(Islam, 1991)	1
44	Finland	Jokioinen	60.80 / 23.48	107	N	Based on Steklov-24	S	2	2	1 May – 1 Jul.	- ^d	15 Aug. ^e	(Rötter <i>et al.</i> , 2012)	2
45	Russia	Yershov	51.36 / 48.26	102	N	Based on Steklov-24	S	2	4	6 May – 6 Jul.	- ^d	15 Sep. ^e	(Pavlova <i>et al.</i> , 2014)	2
46	Kazakhstan	Altbasar	52.33 / 68.58	289	N	Based on Steklov-24	S	2	4	15 Mar. – 15 May ^c	- ^d	15 Sep. ^e	(Pavlova <i>et al.</i> , 2014)	2
47	Uzbekistan	Samarkand	39.70 / 66.98	742	N	Based on SM15	W	6	4	5 Nov. – 5 Jan.	7 May	5 Jul.	(FAO, 2010)	2
48	Morocco	Sidi El Aydi / Jemaa Riah	33.07 / -7.00	648	N	Based on Yecora	S	1	1	5 Nov. – 5 Jan.	- ^d	1 Jun.	(Heng <i>et al.</i> , 2007)	2
49	Tunisia	Nabeul / Tunis	36.75 / 10.75	167	N	Based on Pishtaz	S	2	2	1 Dec. – 1 Feb.	29 Mar.	15 Jun. ^e	(Latiri <i>et al.</i> , 2010)	2
50	Syria	Tel Hadya / Aleppo	36.01 / 36.56	263	N	Based on Pishtaz	S	2	2	20 Nov. – 20 Jan.	- ^d	15 Jun. ^e	(Sommer <i>et al.</i> , 2012)	2
51	Iran	Maragheh	37.38 / 46.23	1,472	N	Based on SM15	W	6	4	13 Oct. – 13 Dec.	- ^d	15 Jun. ^e	(Tavakkoli and Oweis, 2004)	1
52	Turkey	Ankara	39.92 / 32.85	895	N	Based on Fuller	W	4	4	1 Sep. – 1 Nov	- ^d	15 Jul. ^e	(Ilbeyi <i>et al.</i> , 2006)	1
53	Iran	Ghoochan / Quchan	37.66 / 58.50	1,555	N	Based on Pishtaz	S	2	2	15 Oct. – 15 Dec. ^c	- ^d	15 Jun. ^e	(Bannaya n <i>et al.</i> , 2010)	1
54	Pakistan	Urmar	34.00 / 71.55	340	N	Based on Yecora	S	1	1	15 Nov. – 15 Jan. ^c	- ^d	15 May	(Iqbal <i>et al.</i> , 2005)	2
55	China	Dingxi	35.46 / 104.73	2,009	N	Based on Pishtaz	S	2	2	15 Mar. – 15 May.	15 Jun.	2 Aug.	(Huang <i>et al.</i> , 2008)	2

Table S1. Continued

56	China	Xuchang	34.01 / 113.51	110	N	Based on Wenmai	W	4	4	10 Oct. – 10 Dec.	25 Apr.	1 Jun.	^f	2
57	Australia	Merredin	-31.50 / 118.2	3000	N	Based on Wyalkatchem	S	2	4	15 May – 25 Jul.	5 Oct.	25 Nov.	(Asseng <i>et al.</i> , 1998)	2
58	Australia	Rupanyup / Wimmera	-37.00 / 143.00	219	N	Based on Avocet	S	2	4	1 May – 1 Jul.	- ^d	15 Nov. ^e	(van Rees <i>et al.</i> , 2014)	2
59	Ethiopia	Adi Gudom	13.25 / 39.51	2,090	N	Based on Debeira	S	2	4	15 Jun. – 15 Aug. ^c	- ^d	15 Dec. ^e	(Araya <i>et al.</i> , 2015)	1
60	South Africa	Glen / Bloemfontein	-28.95 / 26.33	1,290	N	Based on Wyalkatchem	S	2	4	15 May – 15 Jul.	- ^d	15 Nov.	(Singels and De Jager, 1991)	2

Location, name and characteristics of the cultivars, sowing date (locations 1-30) or sowing window (locations 31-60), and mean anthesis and physiological maturity date for the 30 locations (1-30) from high rainfall or irrigated wheat regions and thirty locations from low rainfall (low input) regions (31-60) of the world used in this study.

^a S, spring type; W, winter type.

^b Vernalization requirement and photoperiod sensitivity of the cultivars range from nil (0) to high (6).

^c Sowing date estimated using global cropping calendar.

^d See from Fig.S5 in Asseng *et al.*, 2018.

^e Maturity date estimated using global cropping calendar.

^f Yan Zhu, personal communication, August 4, 2015.

^g 1, 2, 3 in environment type indicated temperate high rainfall, moderately hot low rainfall, and hot irrigated, respectively.

Table S2. List of the 31 wheat crop models used in the AgMIP Wheat study

Code	Name (version)	Reference	Documentation
AE	APSIM-E	(Chen <i>et al.</i> , 2010, Keating <i>et al.</i> , 2003, Wang <i>et al.</i> , 2002)	http://www.apsim.info/Wiki
AF	AFRCWHEAT2	(Porter, 1984, Porter, 1993, Weir <i>et al.</i> , 1984)	Request from John Porter: jrp@plen.ku.dk
AQ	AQUACROP (V.4.0)	(Steduto <i>et al.</i> , 2009)	http://www.fao.org/nr/water/aquacrop.html
AW	APSIM-Wheat (V.7.3)	(Keating <i>et al.</i> , 2003)	http://www.apsim.info/Wiki
CS	CropSyst (V.3.04.08)	(Stockle <i>et al.</i> , 2003)	http://modeling.bsyse.wsu.edu/CS_Suite_4/CropSyst/index.html
DC	DSSAT-CERES-Wheat (V.4.0.1.0)	(Hoogenboom and White, 2003, Jones <i>et al.</i> , 2003, Ritchie <i>et al.</i> , 1985)	http://dssat.net/
DN	DSSAT-Nwheat	(Asseng, 2004, Kassie <i>et al.</i> , 2016)	http://dssat.net/
DR	DSSAT-CROPSIM (V4.5.1.013)	(Hunt and Pararajasingham, 1995, Jones <i>et al.</i> , 2003)	http://dssat.net/
EI	EPIC-I (V0810)	(Balkovič <i>et al.</i> , 2013, Balkovič <i>et al.</i> , 2014, Kiniry <i>et al.</i> , 1995, Williams, 1995, Williams <i>et al.</i> , 1989)	http://epicapex.tamu.edu/epic
EW	EPIC-Wheat(V1102)	(Izaurralde <i>et al.</i> , 2006, Izaurralde <i>et al.</i> , 2012, Kiniry <i>et al.</i> , 1995, Williams, 1995, Williams <i>et al.</i> , 1989)	http://epicapex.brc.tamus.edu
GL	GLAM (V.2 updated)	(Challinor <i>et al.</i> , 2004, Li <i>et al.</i> , 2010)	https://www.see.leeds.ac.uk/research/icas/research-themes/climate-change-and-impacts/climate-impacts/glam
HE	HERMES (V.4.26)	(Kersebaum, 2007, Kersebaum, 2011)	http://www.zalf.de/en/forschung/institute/lsa/forschung/oekomod/hermes
IC	INFOCROP (V.1)	(Aggarwal <i>et al.</i> , 2006)	http://infocrop.iari.res.in/wheatmodel/UserInterface/HomeModule/Default.aspx
LI	LINTUL4 (V.1)	(Shibu <i>et al.</i> , 2010, Spitters and Schapendonk, 1990)	http://models.pps.wur.nl/node/950
L5	SIMPLACE<Lintul-5 SlimWater3,FAO-56, CanopyT,HeatStressHourly	(Gaiser <i>et al.</i> , 2013, Shibu <i>et al.</i> , 2010, Spitters and Schapendonk, 1990, Webber <i>et al.</i> , 2016)	http://www.simplace.net/Joomla/
LP	LPJmL (V3.2)	(Beringer <i>et al.</i> , 2011, Bondeau <i>et al.</i> , 2007, Fader <i>et al.</i> , 2010, Gerten <i>et al.</i> , 2004, Müller <i>et al.</i> , 2007, Rost <i>et al.</i> , 2008)	http://www.pik-potsdam.de/research/projects/lpjweb
MC	MCWLA-Wheat (V.2.0)	(Tao <i>et al.</i> , 2009a, Tao and Zhang, 2010, Tao and Zhang, 2013, Tao <i>et al.</i> , 2009b)	Request from taofl@igsnr.ac.cn
MO	MONICA (V.1.0)	(Nendel <i>et al.</i> , 2011)	http://monica.agrosystem-models.com
NC	Expert-N (V3.0.10) – CERES (V2.0)	(Biernath <i>et al.</i> , 2011, Priesack <i>et al.</i> , 2006, Ritchie <i>et al.</i> , 1987, Stenger <i>et al.</i> , 1999)	http://www.helmholtz-muenchen.de/en/iboe/expertn
NG	Expert-N (V3.0.10) – GECROS (V1.0)	(Biernath <i>et al.</i> , 2011, Stenger <i>et al.</i> , 1999)	http://www.helmholtz-muenchen.de/en/iboe/expertn

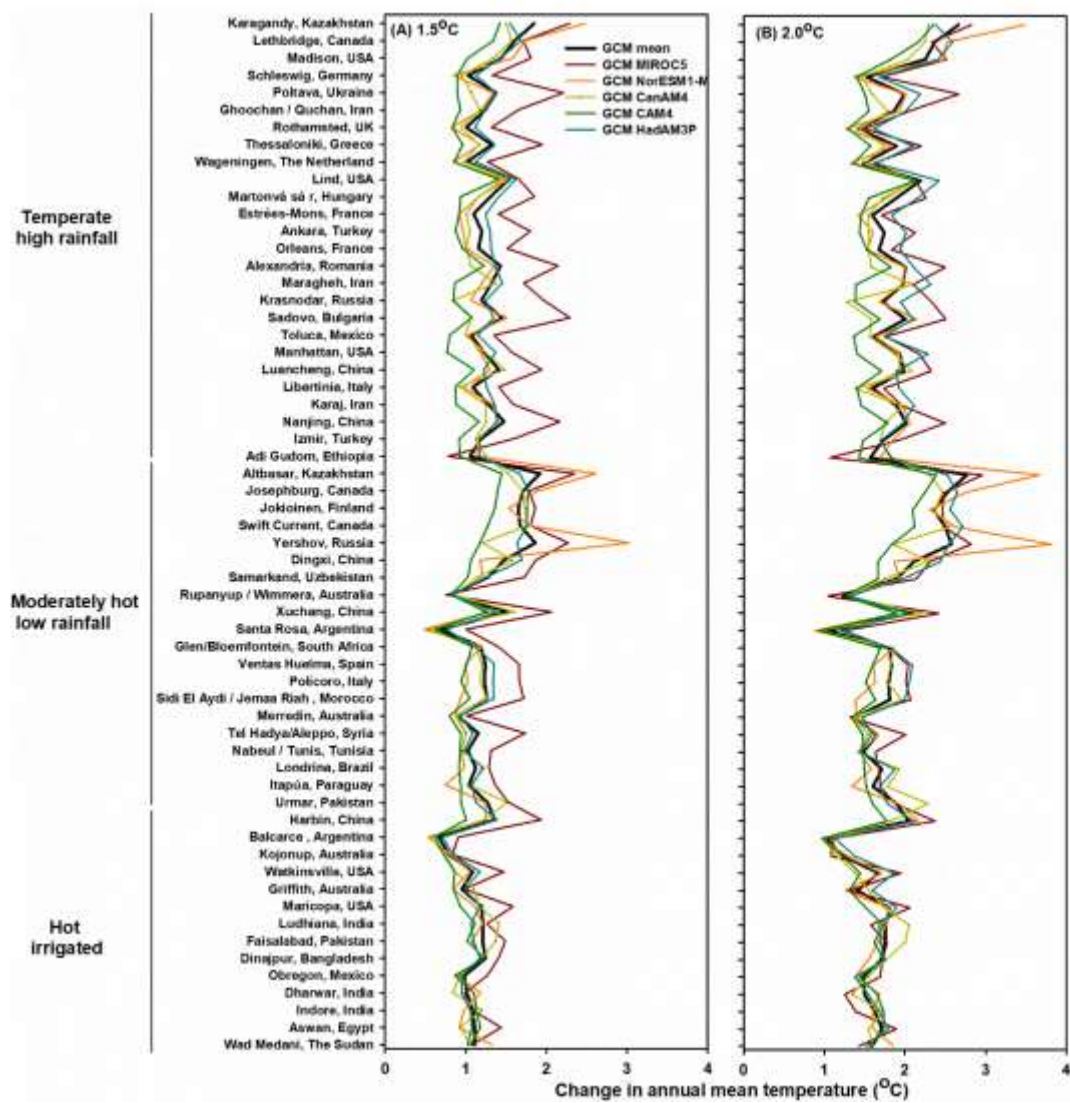
NP	Expert-N (V3.0.10) – SPASS (2.0)	(Biernath <i>et al.</i> , 2011, Priesack <i>et al.</i> , 2006, Stenger <i>et al.</i> , 1999, Wang and Engel, 2000, Yin and van Laar, 2005)	http://www.helmholtz-muenchen.de/en/iboe/expertn
NS	Expert-N (V3.0.10) – SUCROS (V2)	(Biernath <i>et al.</i> , 2011, Goudriaan and Van Laar, 1994, Priesack <i>et al.</i> , 2006, Stenger <i>et al.</i> , 1999)	http://www.helmholtz-muenchen.de/en/iboe/expertn
OL	OLEARY (V.8)	(Latta and O'Leary, 2003, OLeary and Connor, 1996a, OLeary and Connor, 1996b, OLeary <i>et al.</i> , 1985)	Request from gjoleary@yahoo.com
S2	Sirius (V2014)	(Jamieson and Semenov, 2000, Jamieson <i>et al.</i> , 1998, Lawless <i>et al.</i> , 2005, Semenov and Shewry, 2011)	http://www.rothamsted.ac.uk/mas-models/sirius.php
SA	SALUS (V.1.0)	(Basso <i>et al.</i> , 2010, Senthilkumar <i>et al.</i> , 2009)	http://salusmodel.glg.msu.edu
SP	SIMPLACE<Lintul-2 CC,Heat,CanopyT,Re-Translocation	(Angulo <i>et al.</i> , 2013)	http://www.simplace.net/Joomla/
SQ	SiriusQuality (V3.0)	(Ferrise <i>et al.</i> , 2010, He <i>et al.</i> , 2010, Maiorano <i>et al.</i> , 2017, Martre <i>et al.</i> , 2006, Wang <i>et al.</i> , 2017)	http://www1.clermont.inra.fr/siriusquality
SS	SSM-Wheat	(Soltani <i>et al.</i> , 2013)	Request from afshin.soltani@gmail.com
ST	STICS (V.1.1)	(Brisson <i>et al.</i> , 2003, Brisson <i>et al.</i> , 1998)	http://www6.paca.inra.fr/stics_eng
WG	WheatGrow (V3.1)	(Cao <i>et al.</i> , 2002, Cao and Moss, 1997, Hu <i>et al.</i> , 2004, Li <i>et al.</i> , 2002, Pan <i>et al.</i> , 2007, Pan <i>et al.</i> , 2006, Yan <i>et al.</i> , 2001)	Request from yanzhu@njau.edu.cn
WO	WOFOST (V.7.1)	(Boogaard and Kroes, 1998)	http://www.wofost.wur.nl

Table S3. Variability of simulated grain yields for different environments under baseline, 1.5°C and 2.0°C warming scenarios

Type of environment	Scenario	Coefficient of variation (%)			
		Location	Year	Model	GCM
All locations	Baseline	56.1	1.5	22.4	
	1.5°C HAPPI	55.4	1.6	22.7	1.1
	2.0°C HAPPI	55.4	1.6	23.3	1.2
Temperate high rainfall or irrigated	Baseline	47.9	1.6	23.7	
	1.5°C HAPPI	46.4	1.7	23.3	1.2
	2.0°C HAPPI	46.1	1.7	23.9	1.3
Moderately hot low rainfall	Baseline	37.8	5.3	27.7	
	1.5°C HAPPI	37.0	5.4	28.1	1.9
	2.0°C HAPPI	36.9	5.5	28.7	1.9
Hot irrigated	Baseline	26.5	2.7	27.8	
	1.5°C HAPPI	27.1	2.8	28.5	0.6
	2.0°C HAPPI	27.4	2.9	29.2	0.9

Variability due to location was calculated as coefficient of variation (CV) of simulated grain yields for corresponding locations (mean of 30 years, 31 models, and five global climate models [GCMs]). Variability due to year was calculated as CVs of simulated grain yields for 31 years (mean of corresponding locations, 31 models, and five GCMs). Variability due to model was calculated as CVs of simulated grain yields for 31 locations (mean of 30 years, corresponding locations and five GCMs). Variability due to GCM was calculated as CVs of simulated grain yields for five GCMs (mean of 30 years, 31 models and corresponding locations).

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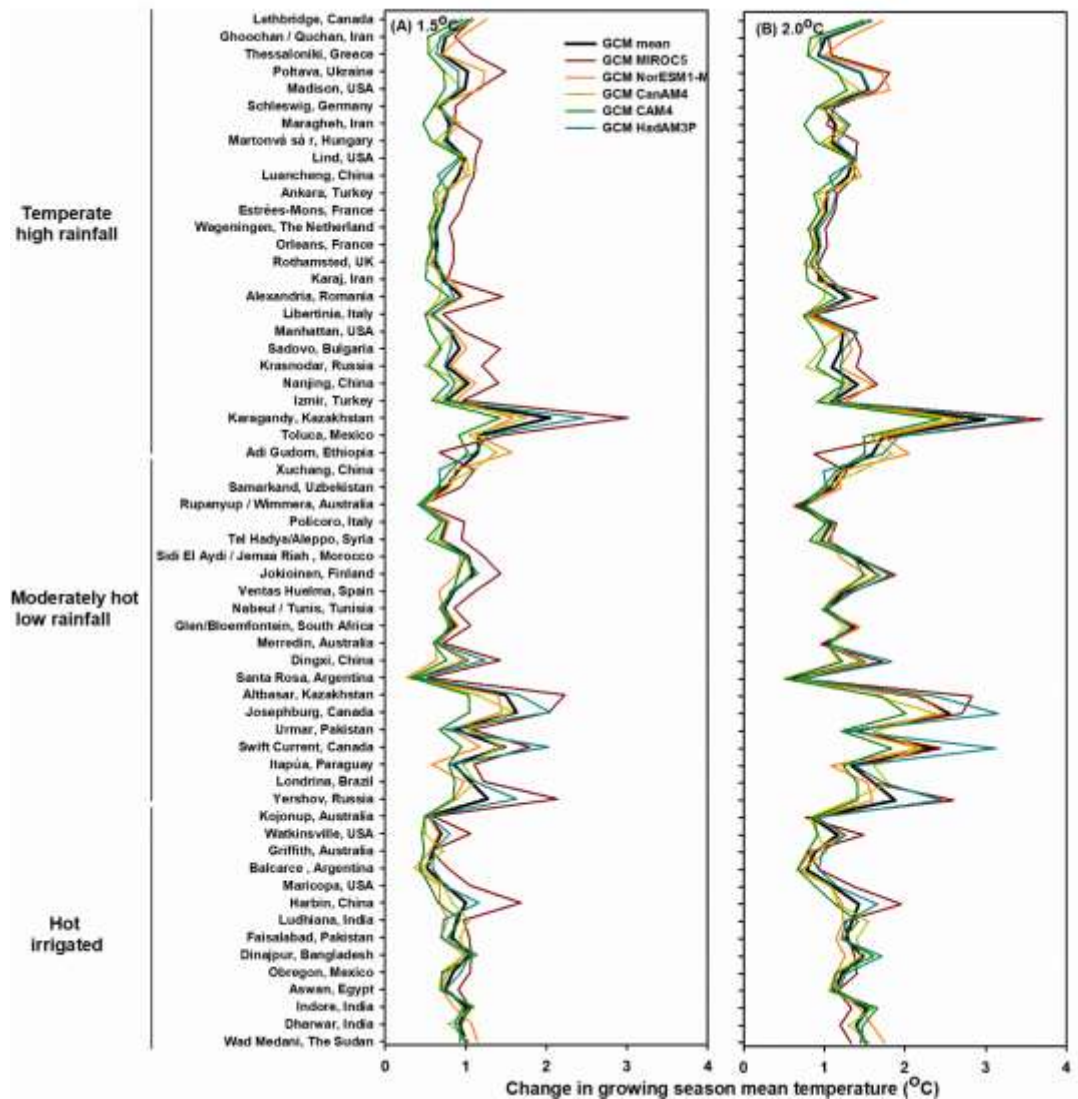
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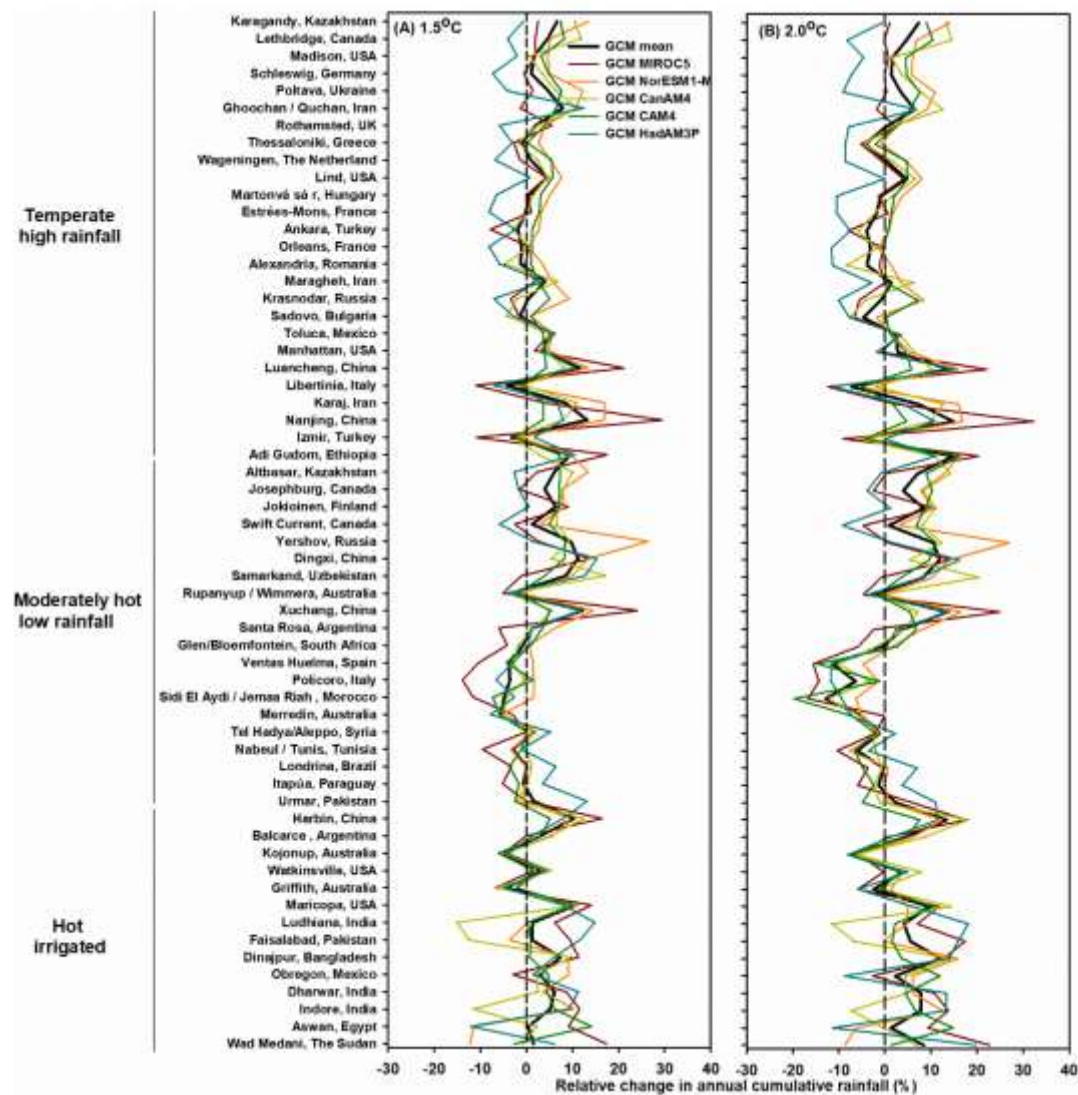
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Fig. S1. Projected changes in annual mean temperature with the five global climate models (GCMs) for the 60 representative global wheat growing locations under (A) 1.5 and (B) 2.0 scenarios (HAPPI). The locations in each environment type were ordered by the annual mean temperature for the baseline period.



10 **Fig. S2. Projected changes in growing season (sowing to maturity) mean temperature with the five global**
11 **climate models (GCMs) for the 60 representative global wheat growing locations under (A) 1.5 and (B) 2.0**
12 **scenarios (HAPPI). The locations in each environment type were ordered by the growing season mean**
13 **temperature for the baseline period.**

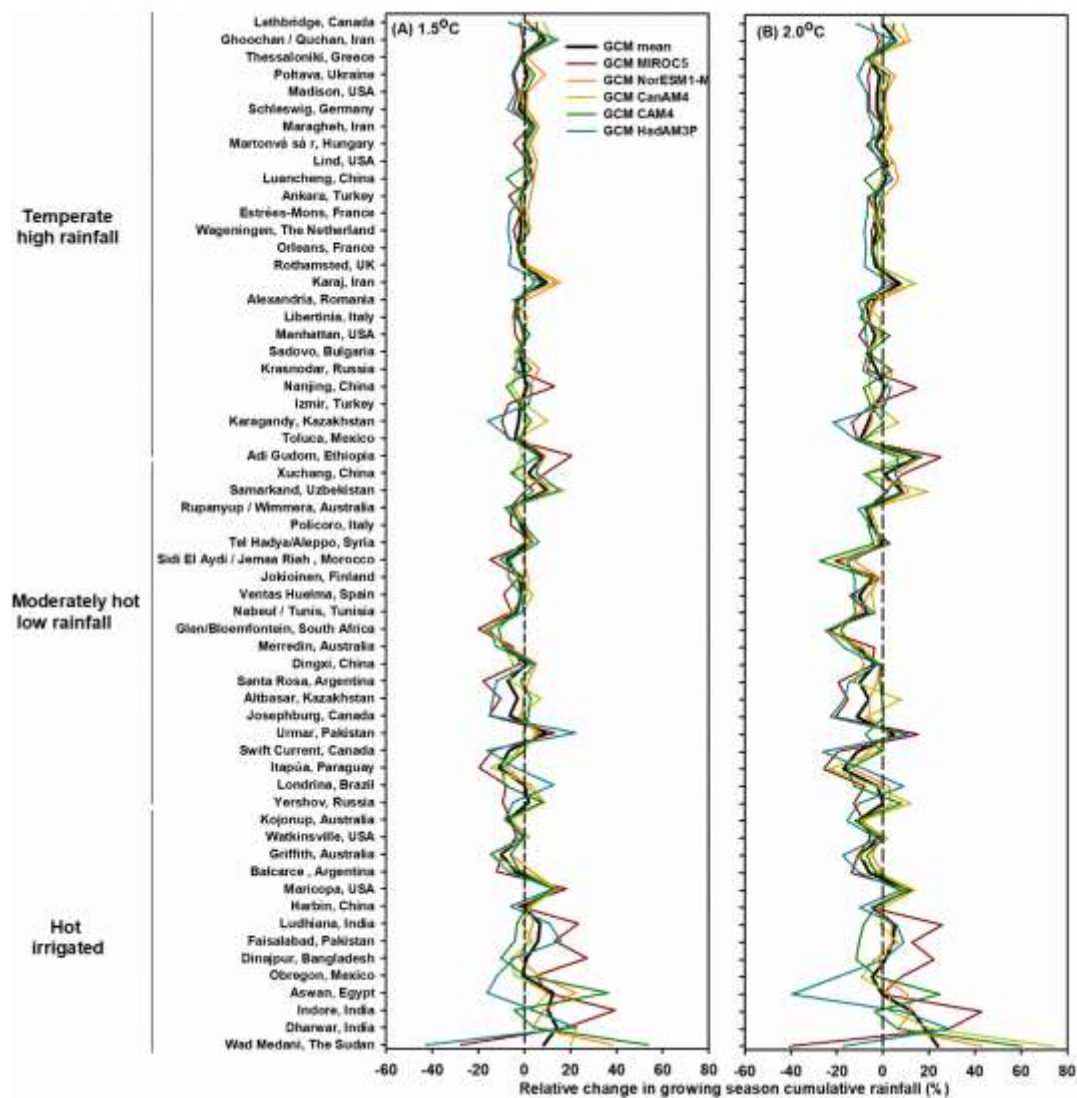


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17 **Fig. S3. Projected relative changes in annual cumulative rainfall with the five global climate models (GCMs) for**
18 **the 60 representative global wheat growing locations under (A) 1.5 and (B) 2.0 scenarios (HAPPI). The locations**
19 **in each environment type were ordered by the annual mean temperature for the baseline period.**

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Fig. S4. Projected relative changes in growing season (sowing to maturity) cumulative rainfall with the five global climate models (GCMs) for the 60 representative global wheat growing locations under (A) 1.5 and (B) 2.0 scenarios (HAPPI). The locations in each environment type were ordered by the growing season mean temperature for the baseline period.

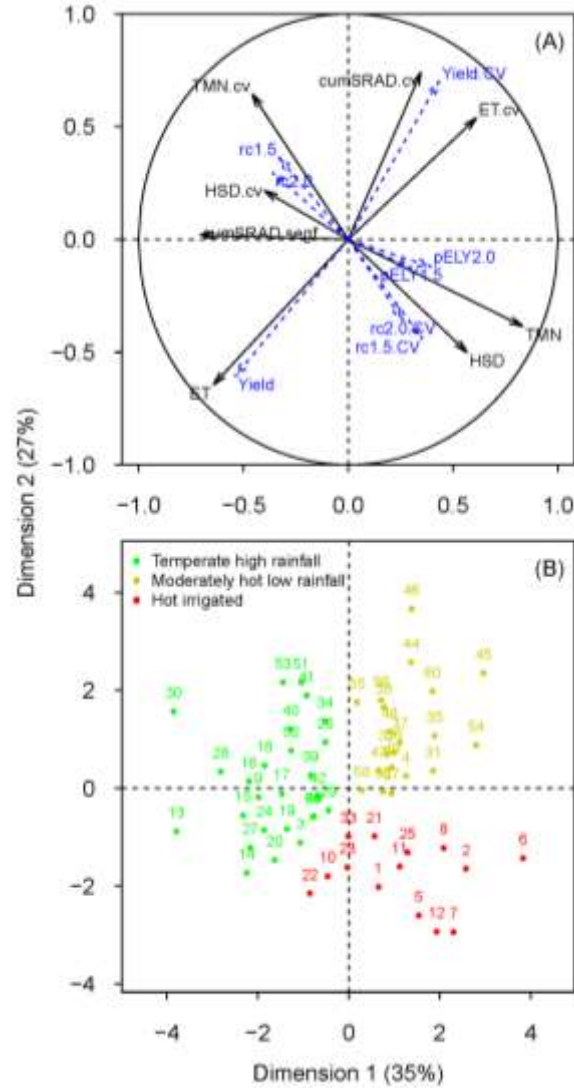


Fig. S5. Hierarchical clustering on principal components of 60 representative global wheat growing locations based on climate variables for 1981-2010. (A) Individual factor map with 30-years average and coefficient of variation for four climate variables (TMN, growing season [sowing to maturity] mean temperature; ET, growing season cumulative evapotranspiration; SRAD, growing season cumulative solar radiation; HSD, number of heat stress days [maximum daily temperature > 32°C] during the grain filling period). Blue, variables (Yield, average yield for the 1981-2010 baseline; Yield.cv, interannual yield variability [coefficient of variation] of yield for the 1981-2010 baseline; rc1.5 and rc2.0, relative changes in average yield for the 1.5 and 2.0 scenarios [HAPPI], respectively; rc1.5.CV and rc2.0.CV, relative changes in interannual yield variability for the 1.5 and 2.0°C warming scenarios, respectively; and pELY1.5 and pELY2.0, probabilities of extreme low yield [< 5% of baseline yield distribution] under the 1.5 and 2.0 scenarios, respectively) projected onto the same factorial plan but not used to construct the axes. (B) Location/cluster map of the principal component analysis. The numbers refer to the location ID given in Table S1.

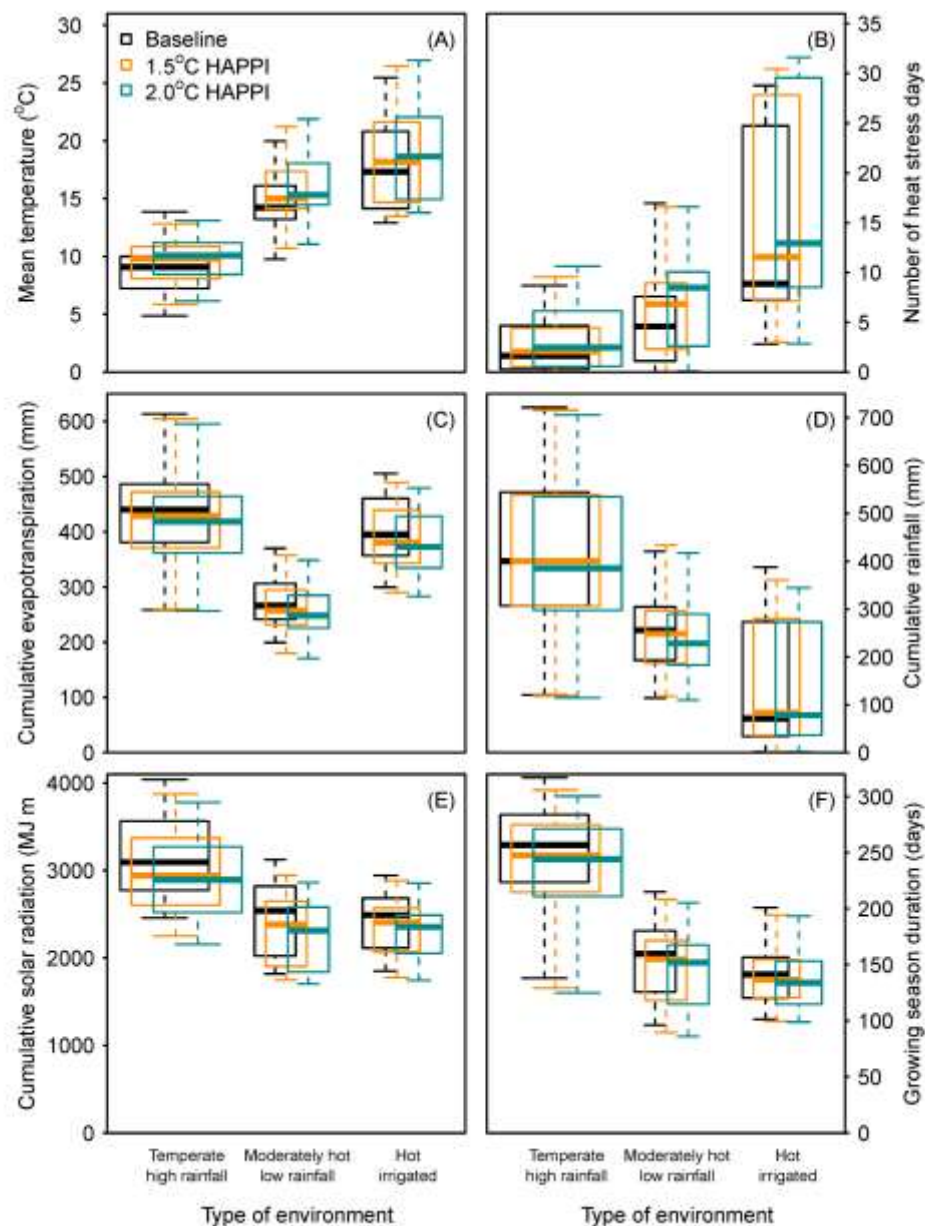


Fig. S6. Weather variables during wheat growing season (sowing to maturity) and crop duration in the three main types of environments for the 1981-2010 baseline and under 1.5 and 2.0 scenario. (A) Growing season mean temperature, **(B)** Number of heat stress days (maximum daily temperature > 32°C) during the post-flowering period. **(C)** Cumulative growing season evapotranspiration. **(D)** Cumulative growing season rainfall. **(E)** Cumulative growing season solar radiation. **(F)** Growing season duration. The width of the boxes is proportional to the percentage of global wheat production of each type of environment. The 60 global locations were clustered using 30-year means and coefficient of variability of the weather variables shown in this Figure S5. In each box plot, horizontal lines represent, from top to bottom, the 10th percentile, 25th percentile, median, 75th percentile and 90th percentile. In hot irrigated locations, growing season rainfall does not include the irrigation amount.

Note: Similar with Fig.3 in the main text, but show the means across crop models and GCMs.

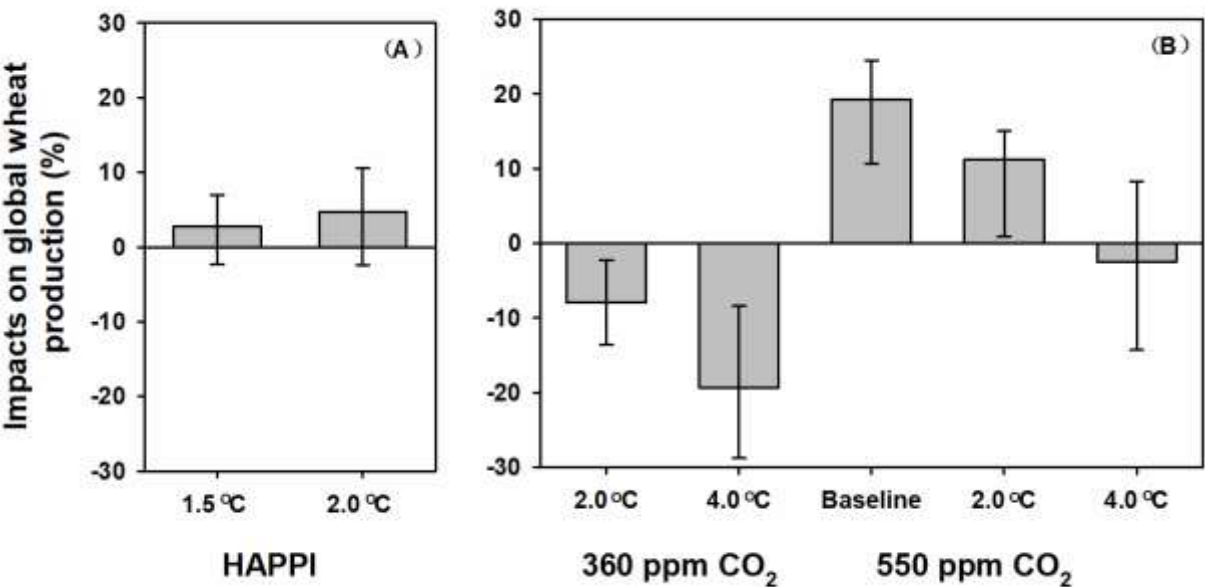
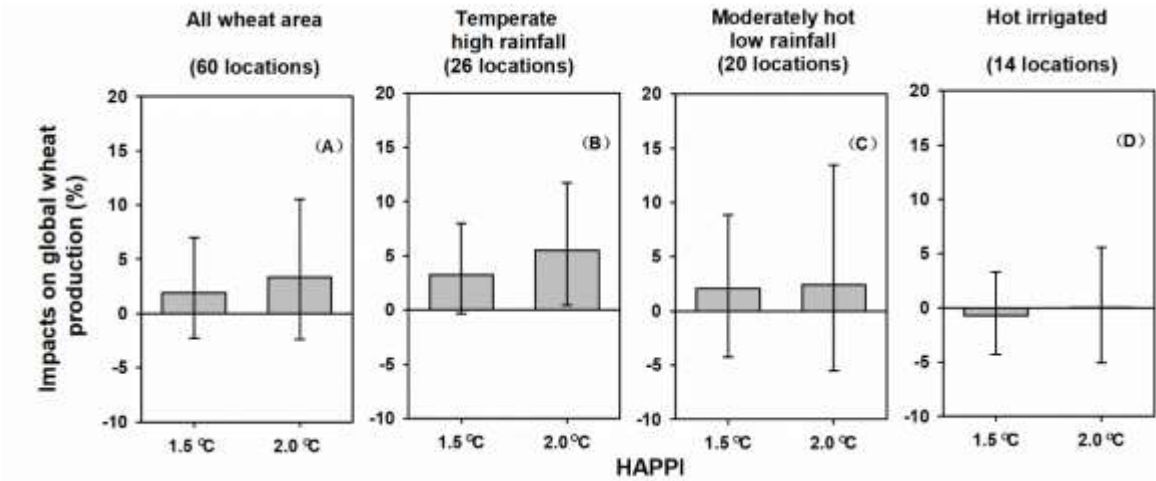


Fig. S8. Simulated global impacts of climate change scenarios on wheat production. Relative impact on global wheat grain production for (A) 1.5 and 2.0 warming scenarios (HAPPI) with changes in temperature, rainfall and atmospheric CO₂ concentration. Atmospheric CO₂ concentration for the 1.5 and 2.0 scenario were 423 and 487 ppm, respectively. (B) +2°C (360 ppm CO₂ +2°C) and +4°C (360 ppm CO₂ +4°C) temperature increase for the baseline period with historical atmospheric CO₂ concentration (360 ppm CO₂) and elevated CO₂ (550 ppm CO₂) for no temperature change (Baseline), +2°C (550 ppm CO₂ +2°C) and +4°C (550 ppm CO₂ +4°C). Impacts were weighted by production area (based on FAO statistics). Relative change in grain yields were calculated from the mean of 30 years projected yields and the ensemble **means** of 31 crop models (plus five GCMs for HAPPI scenarios) using region-specific soils, cultivars, and crop management. Error bars are the 25th and 75th percentiles across 31 crop models (plus five GCMs for HAPPI scenarios).



70

71 **Fig. S9. Simulated global impacts of climate change under 1.5 and 2.0 scenario on wheat production from**
72 **different environments.** (A) All wheat area (60 locations). (B) Temperate high rainfall environment (26 locations).
73 (C) Moderately hot low rainfall environment (20 locations). (D) Hot irrigated environment (14 locations). Impacts
74 from the 60 global locations were weighted by FAO production area. Bars are ensemble **medians** of 31 crop
75 models and five GCMs for 1.5 and 2.0 scenarios (HAPPI), including changes in temperature, rainfall and
76 atmospheric CO₂ concentration, and mean of 30 years using region-specific soils, cultivars, and crop management.
77 Error bars indicate the 25th and 75th percentiles across 31 crop models and five GCMs.

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Note: Similar with Fig.S9, but show the means across crop models and GCMs.

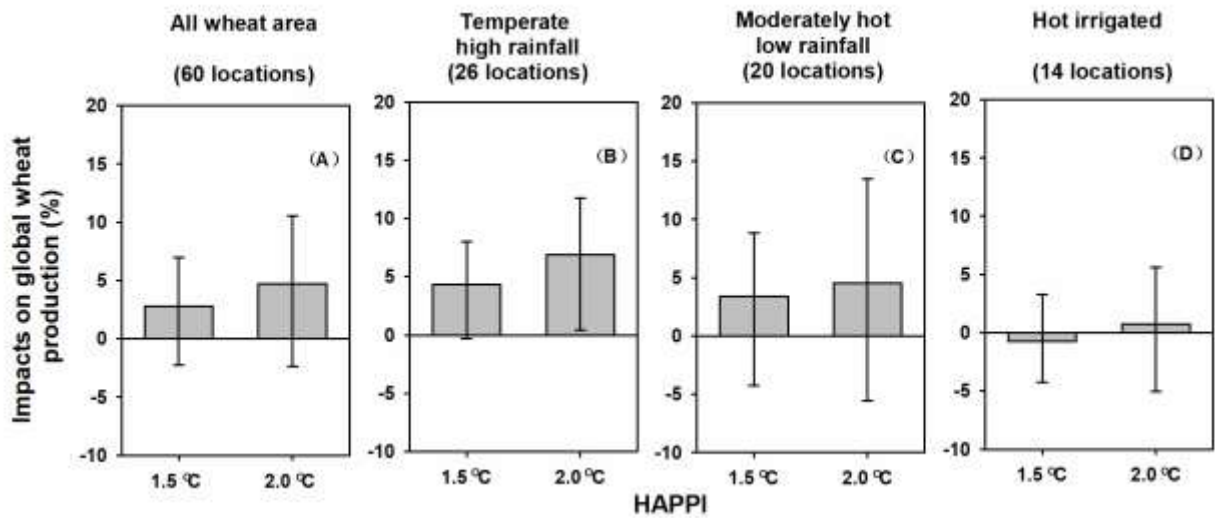


Fig. S10. Simulated global impacts of climate change under 1.5 and 2.0 scenario on wheat production from different environments. (A) All wheat area (60 locations). (B) Temperate high rainfall environment (26 locations). (C) Moderately hot low rainfall environment (20 locations). (D) Hot irrigated environment (14 locations). Impacts from the 60 global locations were weighted by FAO production area. Bars are ensemble **means** of 31 crop models and five GCMs for 1.5 and 2.0 scenarios (HAPPI), including changes in temperature, rainfall and atmospheric CO₂ concentration, and mean of 30 years using region-specific soils, cultivars, and crop management. Error bars indicate the 25th and 75th percentiles across 31 crop models and five GCMs.

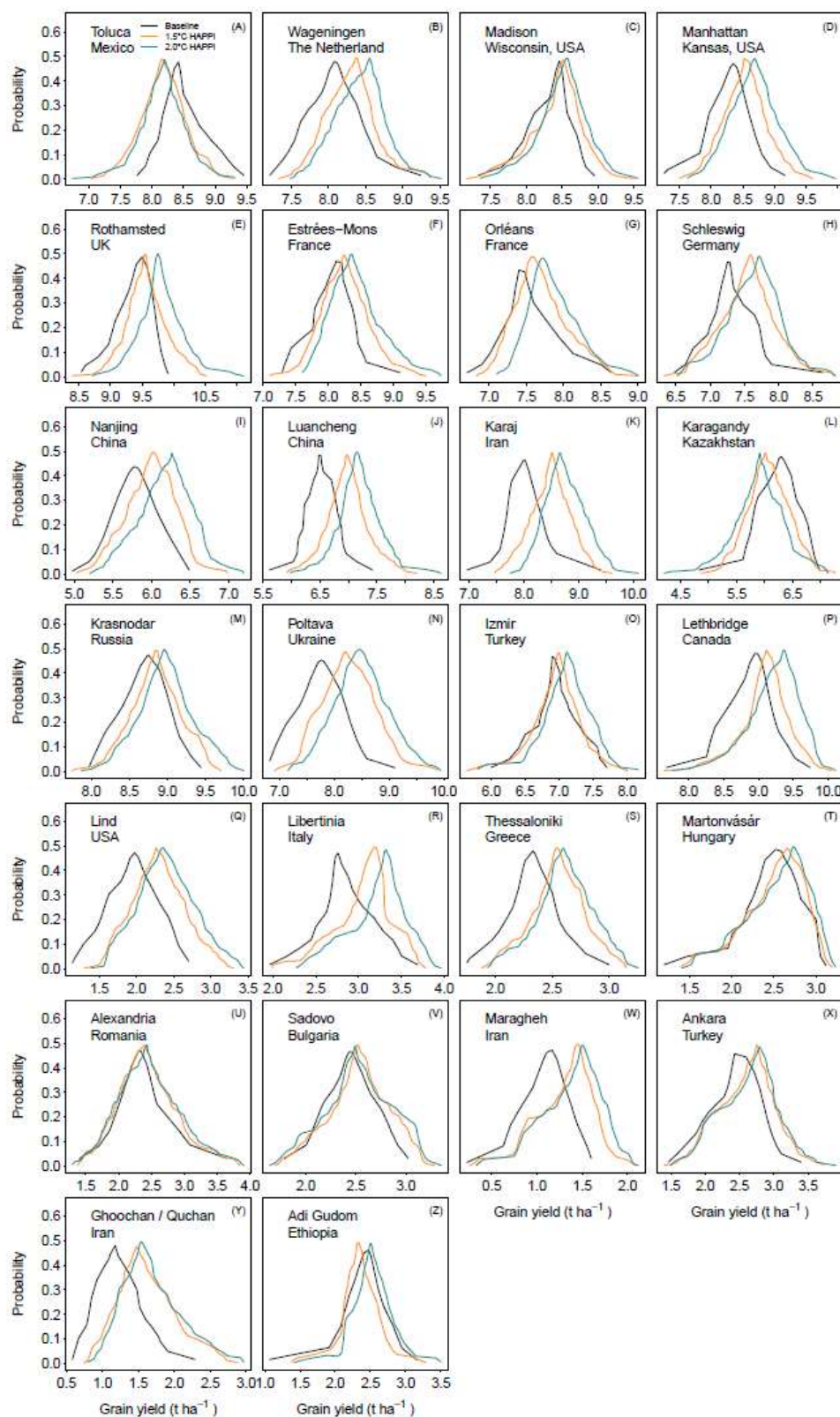


Fig. S11. Yield distribution for the 26 temperate high rainfall global locations for the 1981-2010 baseline and under 1.5 and 2.0 scenarios (including changes in temperature, rainfall and atmospheric CO₂ concentration).

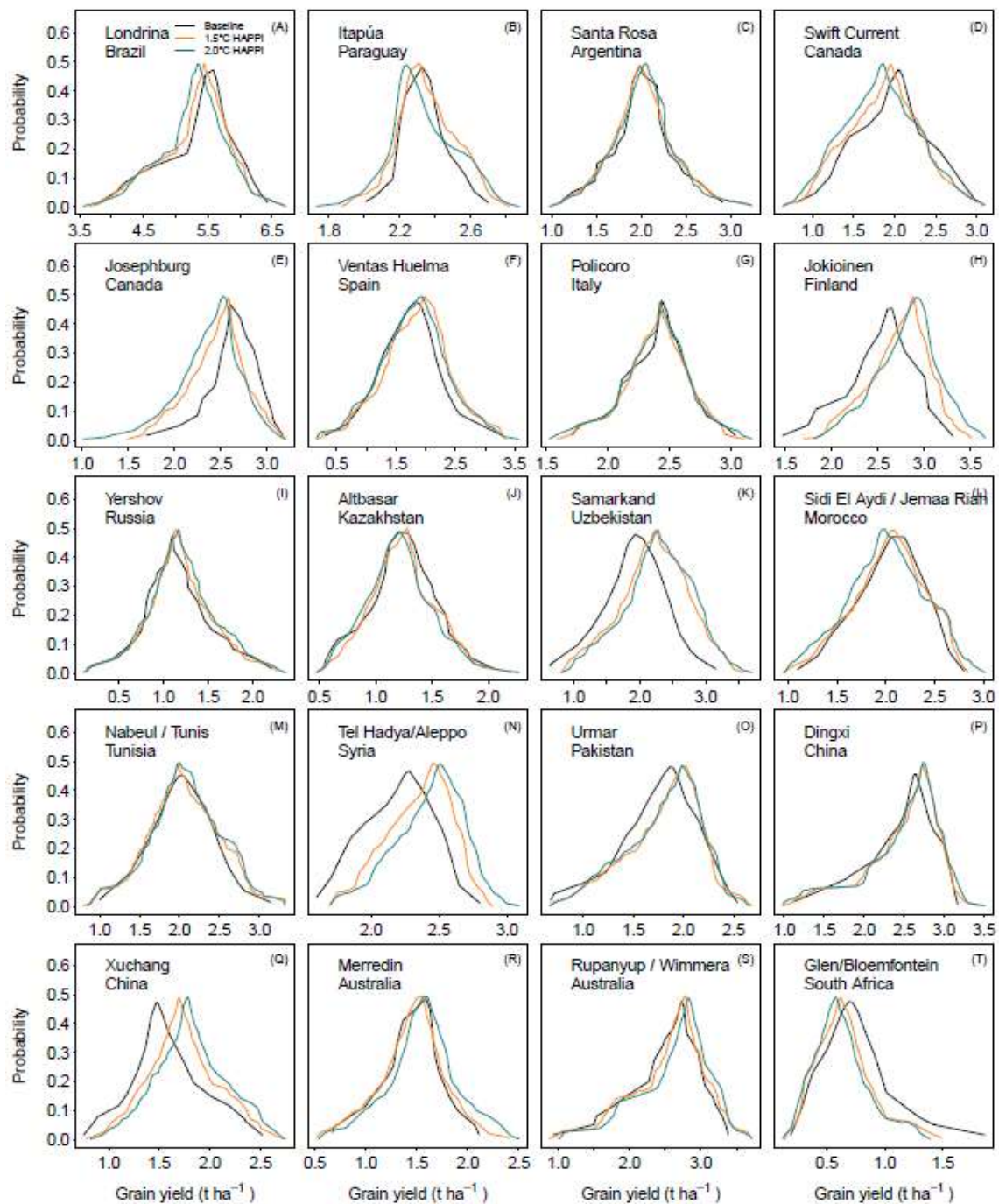


Fig. S12. Yield distribution at 20 moderately hot low rainfall global locations for the 1981-2010 baseline and under 1.5 and 2.0 scenarios (including changes in temperature, rainfall and atmospheric CO₂ concentration).

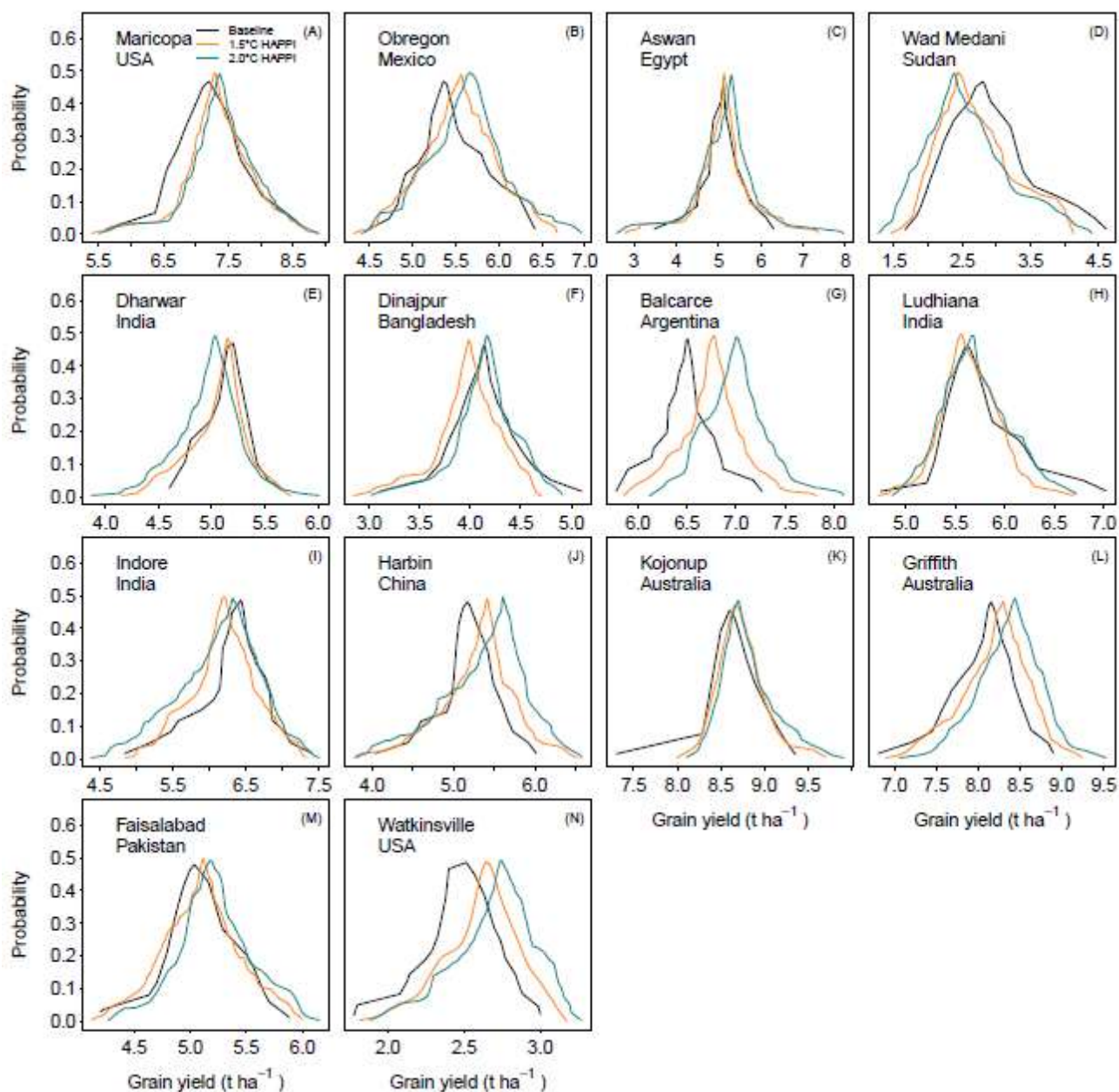


Fig. S13. Yield distribution at 14 hot irrigated global locations for the 1981-2010 baseline and under 1.5 and 2.0 scenarios (including changes in temperature, rainfall and atmospheric CO₂ concentration).

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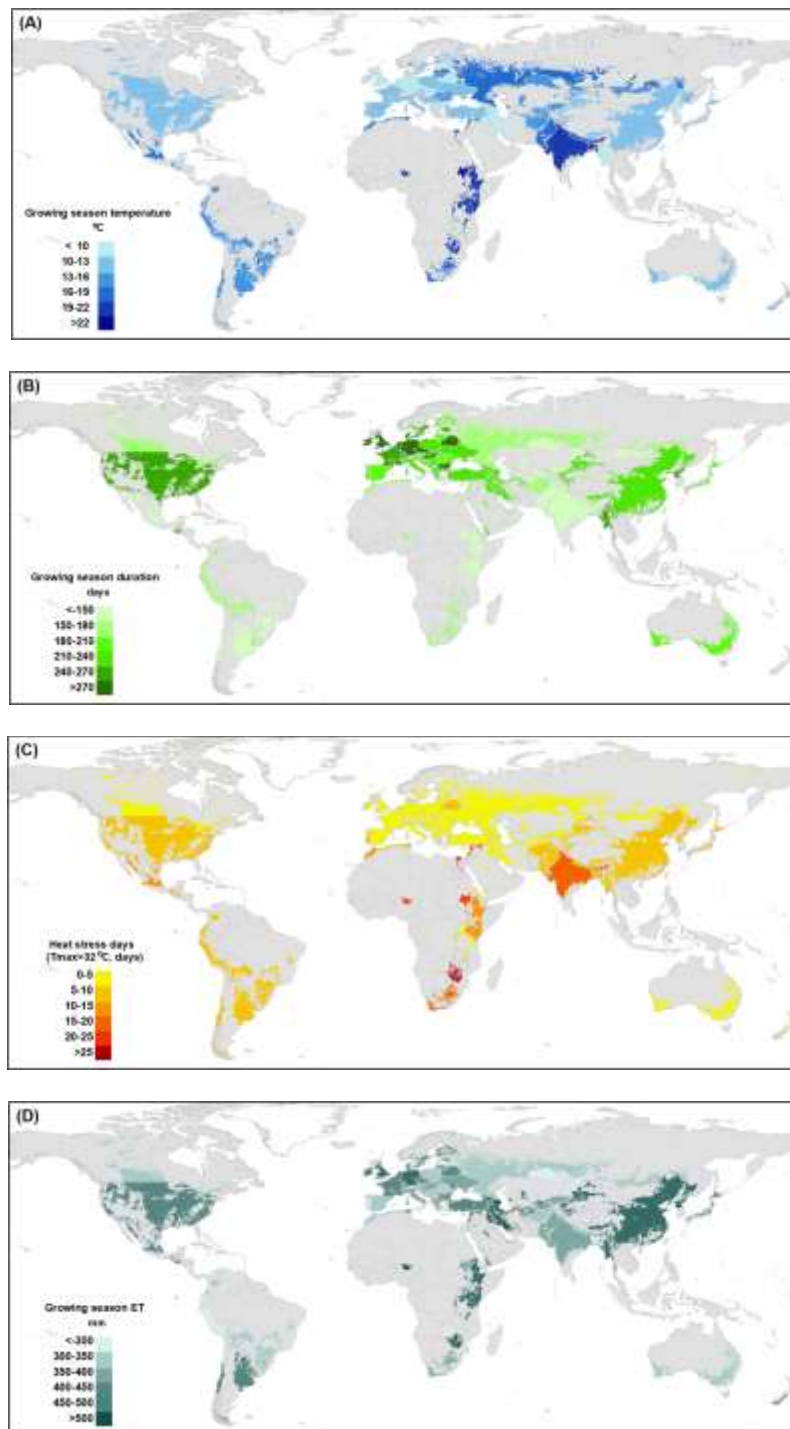
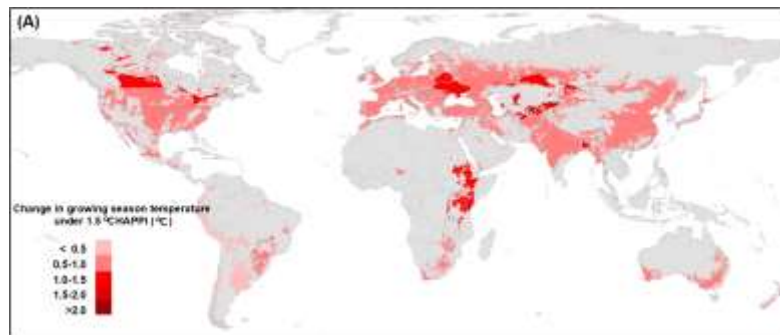


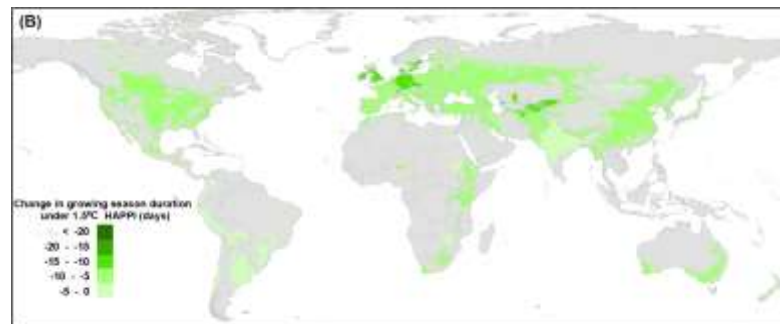
Fig. S14. Simulated multi-model ensemble median of growing season (sowing to maturity) variables by country for the 1981-2010 baseline. (A) Growing season mean temperature. (B) Growing season duration. (C) Heat stress days from anthesis to maturity (daily maximum temperature > 32°C). (D) Growing season evapotranspiration (ET). All growing season variables were calculated from simulated growing season variables at the 60 corresponding locations.

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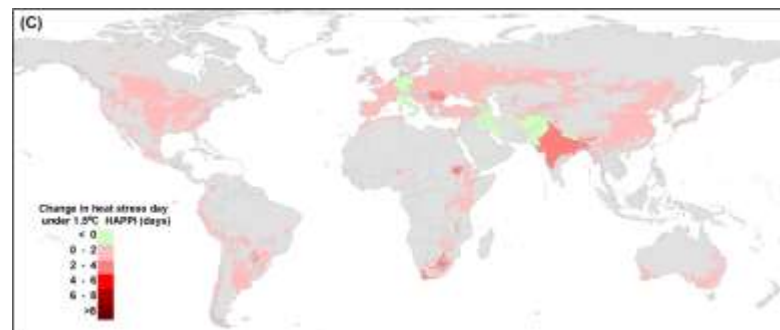
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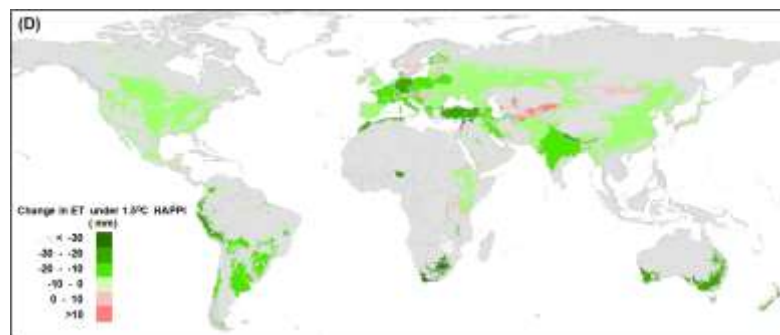
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114 **Fig. S15. Simulated multi-model ensemble median of changes in growing season (sowing to maturity) variables**
 115 **by country under 1.5 scenario.** (A) Growing season mean temperature. (B) Growing season duration. (C) Heat
 116 stress days from anthesis to maturity (daily maximum temperature > 32°C). (D) Growing season evapotranspiration
 117 (ET). All growing season variables were calculated from simulated growing season variables at the 60
 118 corresponding locations.

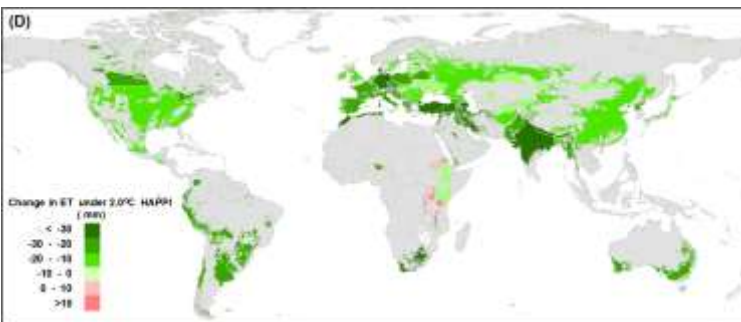
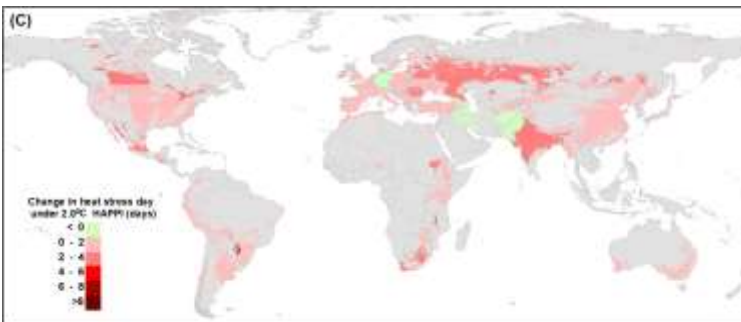
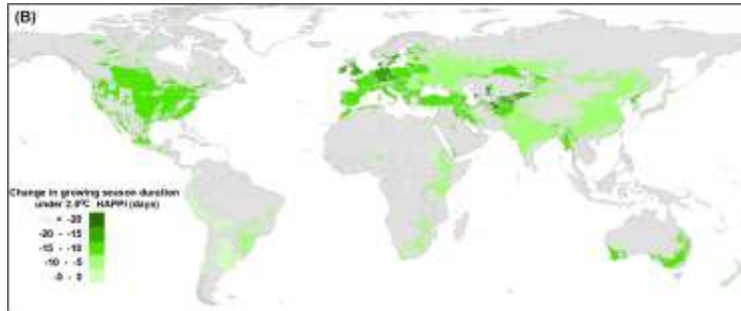
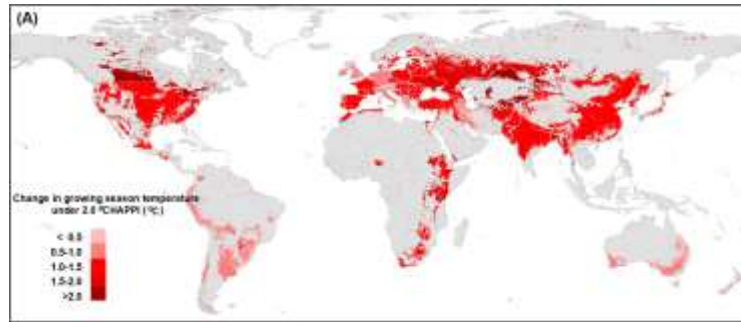
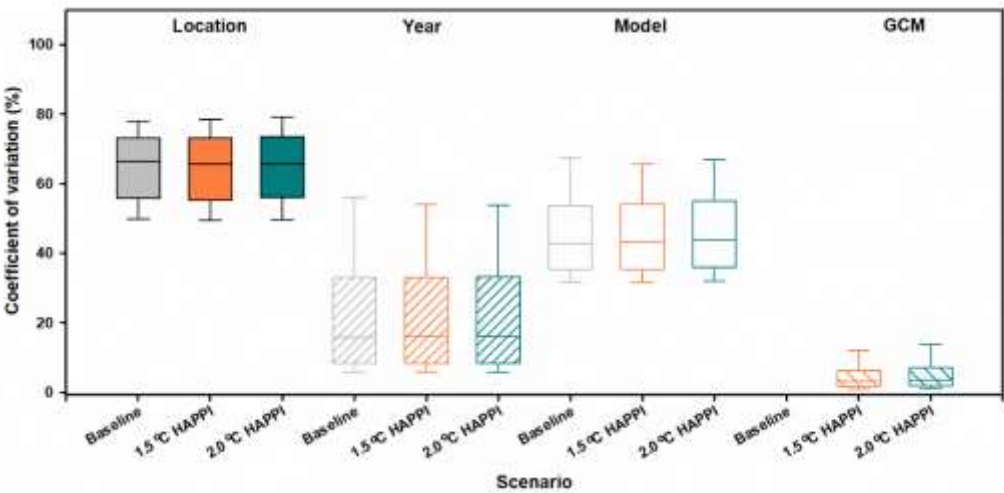


Fig. S16. Simulated multi-model ensemble median of changes in growing season (sowing to maturity) variables by country under 2.0 scenario. (A) growing season mean temperature, (B) growing season duration, (C) heat stress days from anthesis to maturity (daily maximum temperature >32°C), and (D) growing season evapotranspiration (ET). All growing season variables were calculated from simulated growing season variables at the 60 corresponding locations.

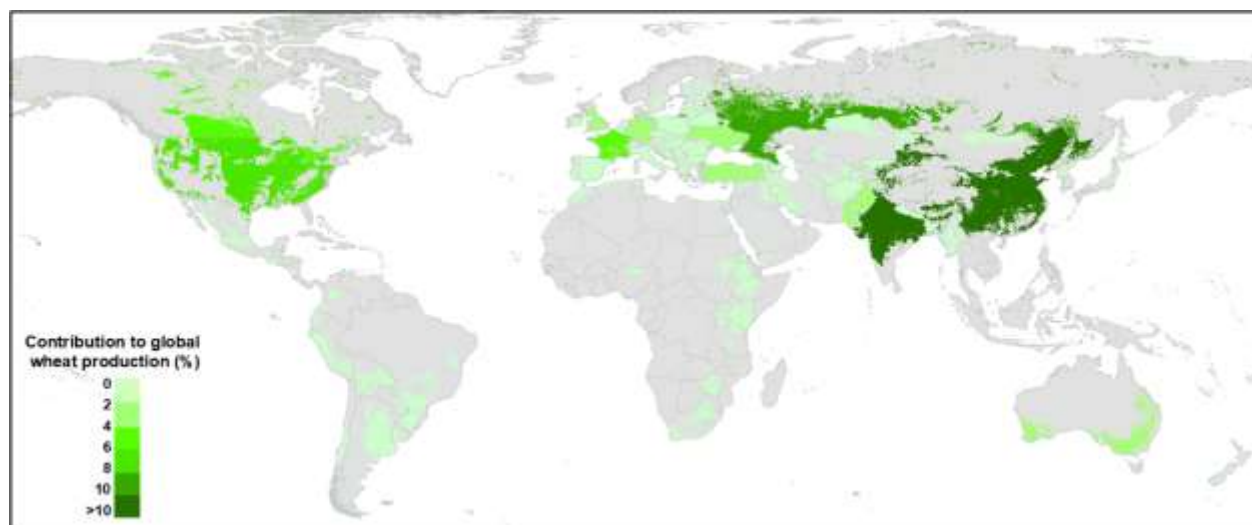


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130 **Fig. S17. Coefficient of variation (CV) of simulated wheat grain yields for the 1981-2010 baseline (grey)**
131 **and 1.5 and (orange) and 2.0 (blue) scenarios.** The distribution of CV for 'Location' shows the CVs of
132 simulated wheat grain yields from the 60 global locations within each combination of crop model, year,
133 and GCM. The distribution of CV for 'Year' shows the CVs of simulated wheat grain yields from the 30
134 years within each combination of crop model, location, and GCM. The distribution of CV for 'Model'
135 shows the CVs of simulated wheat grain yields from the 31 crop models within each combination of
136 location, year, and GCM. The distribution of CV for 'GCM' shows the CVs of simulated wheat grain yields
137 from the five GCMs within each combination of location, crop model, and year. In each box plot,
138 horizontal lines represent, from top to bottom, the 10th percentile, 25th percentile, median, 75th
139 percentile, and 90th percentile of the simulations.

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143 **Fig. S18. Contribution of national wheat production from 122 wheat producing countries to global wheat**
144 **production based on 2014 FAO statistical data.**

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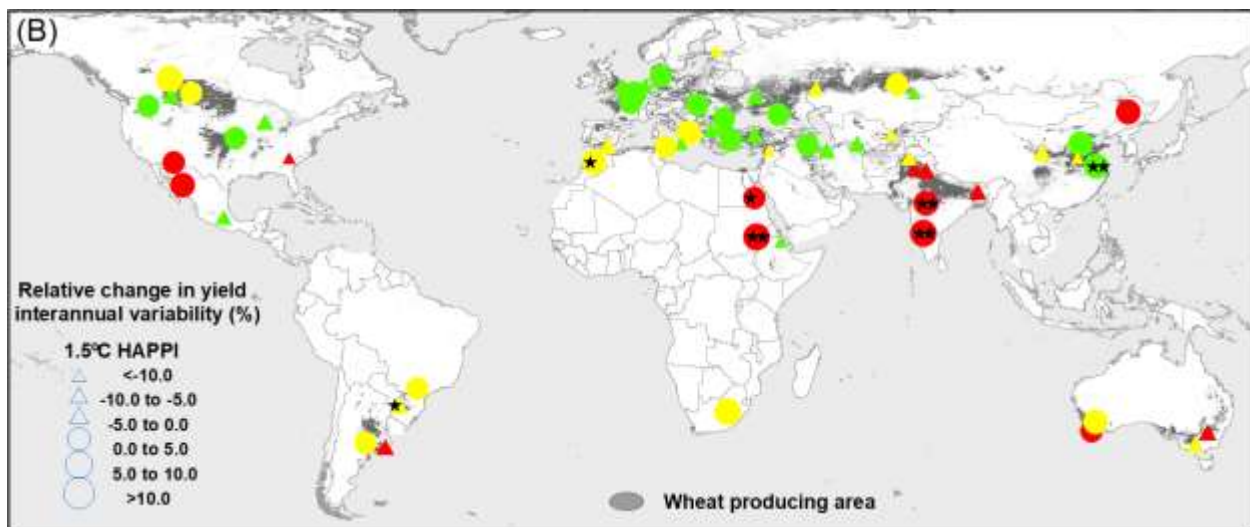
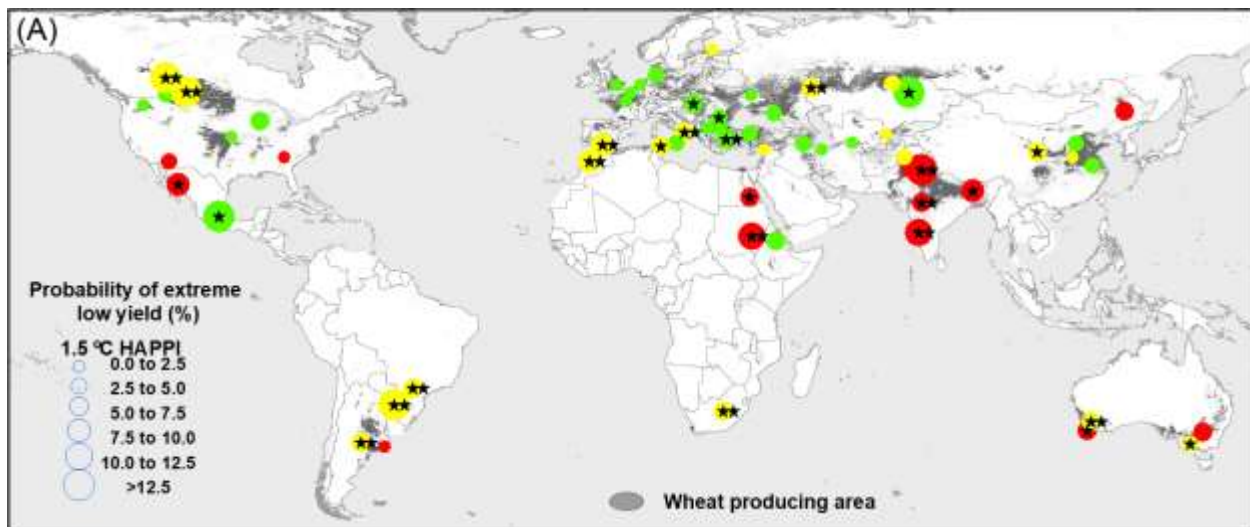


Fig. S19. Projected impacts of the 1.5 scenario on the probability of extreme low wheat yields (A) and wheat yield interannual variability (B) at 60 representative global wheat growing locations for clusters of temperate high rainfall or irrigated locations (dark green; 26 locations), moderately hot low rainfall locations (dark yellow; 20 locations), and hot irrigated locations (dark red; 14 locations). In (A and B), ★ and ★★ indicates the low yield probability and interannual yield variability between warming scenario and baseline was significant at $p<0.05$ and $p<0.01$, respectively. In (B), the circles and triangles showed increased and decreased interannual variability, respectively.

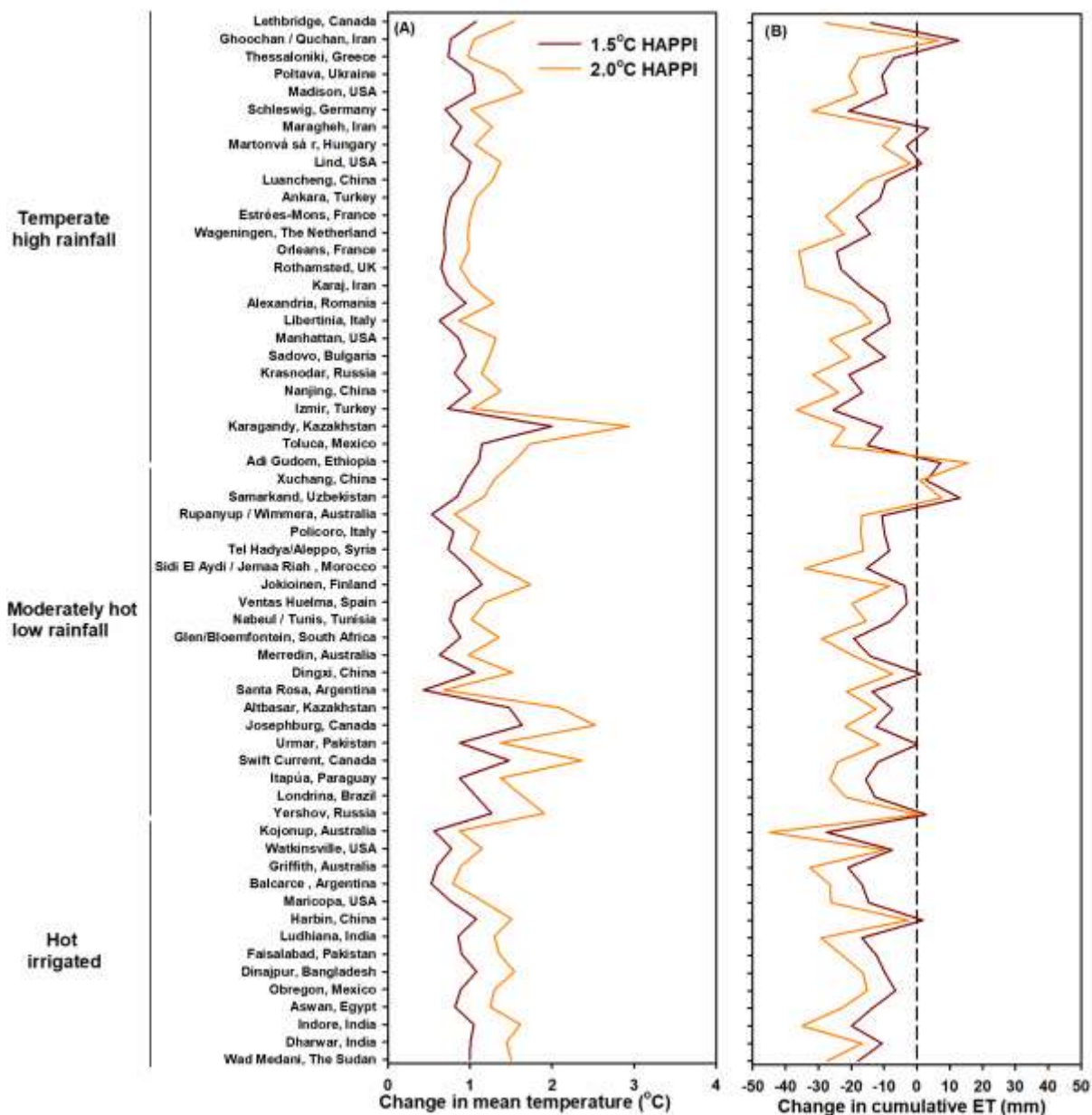


Fig. S20. Projected changes in growing season (sowing to maturity) mean temperature (A) and cumulative ET (B) for the 60 representative global wheat growing locations under 1.5 and 2.0 scenarios (HAPPI). The locations in each environment type were ordered by the growing season mean temperature for the baseline period. All the changes here were the median of 31 crop models and mean of 30 years and the five global climate models (GCMs).

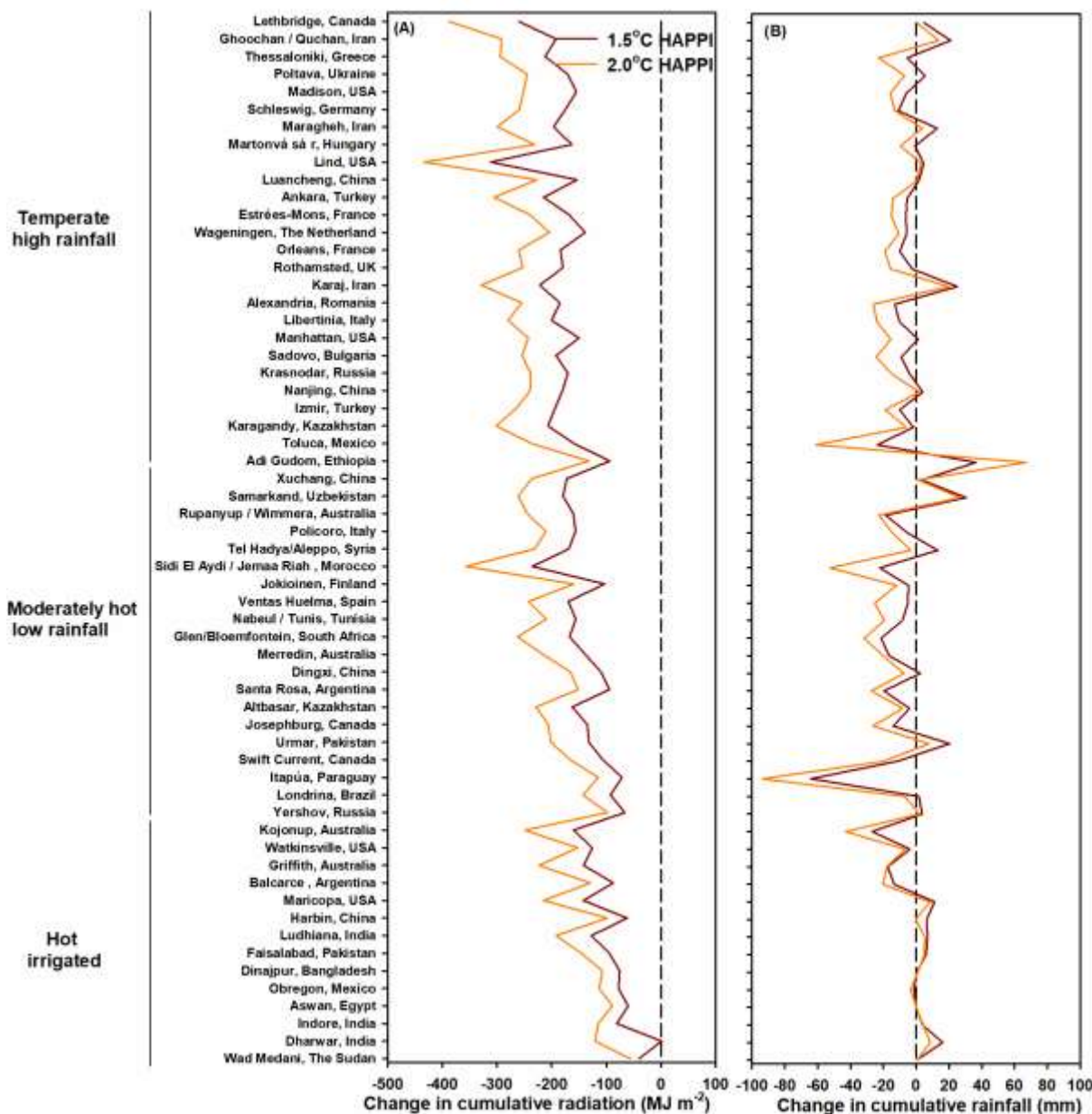


Fig. S21. Projected changes in growing season (sowing to maturity) cumulative solar radiation (A) and cumulative rainfall (B) for the 60 representative global wheat growing locations under 1.5 and 2.0 scenarios (HAPPI). The locations in each environment type were ordered by the growing season mean temperature for the baseline period. All the changes here were the median of 31 crop models and mean of 30 years and the five global climate models (GCMs).

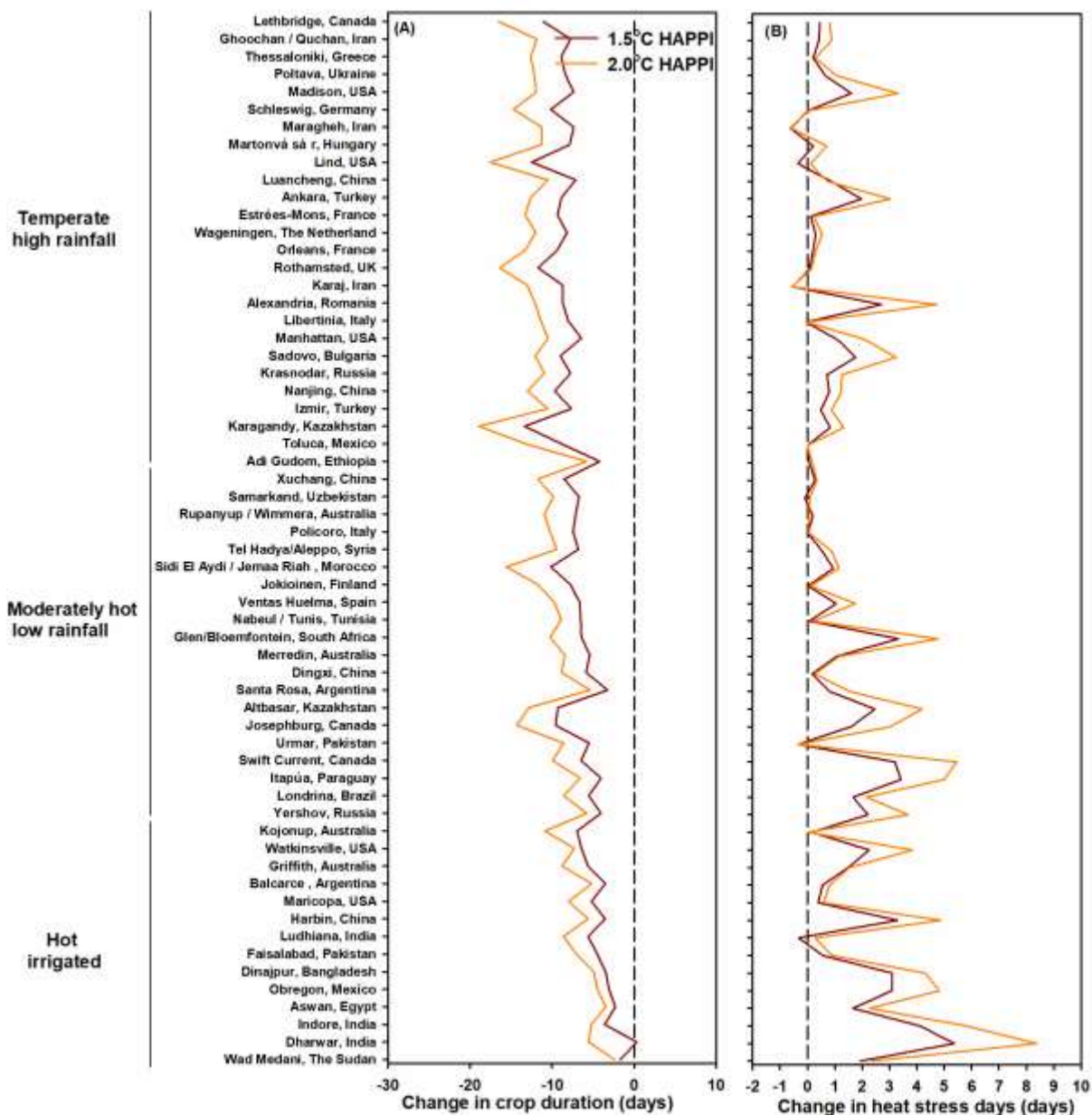


Fig. S22. Projected changes in growing season (sowing to maturity) duration (A) and heat stress days (B) for the 60 representative global wheat growing locations under 1.5 and 2.0 scenarios (HAPPI). The locations in each environment type were ordered by the growing season mean temperature for the baseline period. All the changes here were the median of 31 crop models and mean of 30 years and the five global climate models (GCMs).

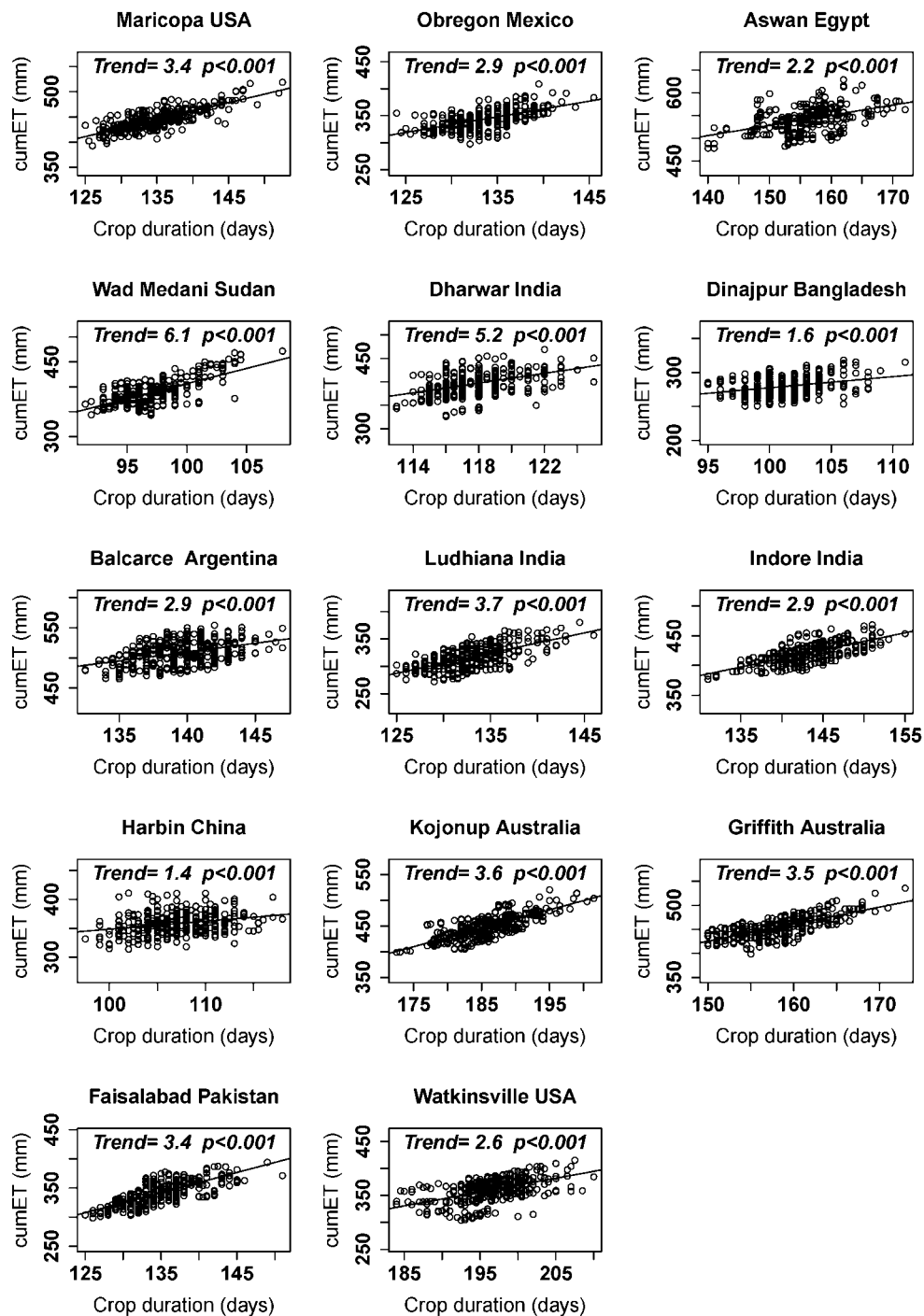


Fig.S23. Relationship between projected growing season (sowing to maturity) cumulative ET and duration for the 14 hot irrigated locations for the 30 growing seasons under different climate scenarios. The locations in each environment type were ordered by the growing season mean temperature for the baseline period. All the simulated data here were the medians of 31 crop models.

184 **Table S4 Slopes of linear regression between simulated grain yield and growing season (sowing to maturity) climate variables and growing season duration**
185 **for the 60 global locations under different climate scenarios.** Before conducting the regression, we tested whether there were significant differences between
186 the responses of simulated grain yield to climate variables and growing season duration under three different climate scenarios. If there were no significant
187 differences between different climate scenarios, the regressions were conducted with the simulated data from the 30 growing seasons under baseline and two
188 HAPPI warming scenarios together. And no regressions were conducted when there were significant differences in the responses of simulated grain yield to
189 climate variables and growing season duration between different climates scenarios, which only happened in few locations, as shown as NA in the table below.
190 GST: growing season mean temperature, ET: growing season cumulative evapotranspiration, GSD: growing season duration, HSD: heat stress days during grain
191 filling period, SRAD: growing season cumulative solar radiation, RAIN: growing season cumulative rainfall. All the simulated data used for regressions here were
192 the medians of 31 crop models. *** indicates $p < 0.001$, ** indicates $p < 0.01$, * indicates $p < 0.05$.

Environment type	Location	City	Country	GST (t. ha ⁻¹ . °C ⁻¹)	ET (t. ha ⁻¹ . mm ⁻¹)	GSD (t. ha ⁻¹ . d ⁻¹)	HSD ^a (t. ha ⁻¹ . d ⁻¹)	SRAD (t. ha ⁻¹ ./(MJ.m ²))	RAIN ^b (t. ha ⁻¹ . mm ⁻¹)
Temperate high rainfall	3	Toluca	Mexico	-0.321***	0.01***	na	na	0.003***	
	9	Wageningen	The Netherland	-0.047	0.009***	0.009**	-0.124***	0.001***	
	13	Madison	USA	-0.056*	0.006***	-0.001	-0.004	0.001***	
	14	Manhattan	USA	0.173***	0.003**	-0.003	-0.024***	0.001**	
	15	Rothamsted	UK	na	0.004***	na	-0.037	na	
	16	Estrées-Mons	France	0.033	0.007***	0.01**	na	0.001***	
	17	Orleans	Central France	-0.166***	0.008***	0.015***	-0.074**	0.001***	
	18	Schleswig	Germany	-0.161***	0.008***	0.011***	na	0.001***	
	19	Nanjing	China	0.081*	0.006***	-0.008*	0.077***	0.001***	
	20	Luancheng	China	0.208***	0.005***	-0.021***	0.008	0.001***	
	24	Karaj	Iran	0.374***	-0.006***	-0.015***	-0.075***	-0.0004**	
	26	Karagandy	Kazakhstan	na	0.012***	na	-0.138***	0.002***	
	27	Krasnodar	Russia	-0.01	0.007***	0.011**	-0.034***	0.001***	
	28	Poltava	Ukraine	0.243***	0.012***	0.013**	-0.051***	0.001***	
	29	Izmir	Turkey	-0.126**	0.005***	0.013**	-0.033***	0.001***	
	30	Lethbridge	Canada	0.002	0.008***	0.003	-0.041***	0.001***	
	34	Lind	USA	0.307***	0.011***	0.006**	-0.081***	0.0003*	0.007***
	39	Libertinia	Italy	0.348***	0.01***	0.005	-0.056	-0.001***	0.002***
	40	Thessaloniki	Greece	0.162***	0.008***	-0.001	-0.088***	0.0002*	-0.001***

	41	Martonvásár	Hungary	-0.077**	0.012***	0.016***	-0.062***	-0.001***	0.005***
	42	Alexandria	Romania	0.041	0.01***	0.004	-0.032***	-0.001***	0.006***
	43	Sadovo	Bulgaria	-0.049	0.009***	0.007***	-0.009*	-0.0003*	0.005***
	51	Maragheh	Iran	0.05	0.006***	0.007***	-0.043***	-0.0002	0.004***
	52	Ankara	Turkey	0.087*	0.009***	0.0001	-0.037***	-0.0002*	0.007***
	53	Ghoochan / Quchan	Iran	0.184***	0.009***	0.013***	-0.022	-0.0004*	0.008***
	59	Adi Gudom	Ethiopia	-0.043*	0.005***	0.009**	na	0.0003*	0.001***
Moderately hot low rainfall	4	Londrina	Brazil	-0.356***	0.014***	0.06***	na	0.004***	
	31	Itapúa	Paraguay	-0.104***	0.008***	0.019***	-0.022***	0.001***	0.001***
	32	Santa Rosa	Argentina	-0.116***	0.008***	0.01***	-0.049***	0.0003	0.004***
	35	Swift Current	Canada	-0.252***	0.016***	na	-0.065***	0.003***	0.009***
	36	Josephburg	Canada	-0.164***	0.012***	na	-0.065***	0.001***	0.005***
	37	Ventas Huelma	Spain	-0.393***	0.011***	0.051***	-0.069***	-0.002***	0.006***
	38	Policoro	Italy	-0.058*	0.007***	0.009***	na	-0.0001	0.001***
	44	Jokioinen	Finland	-0.189***	0.016***	na	na	0.002***	0.003***
	45	Yershov	Russia	-0.198***	0.011***	0.049***	-0.028***	0.001***	0.009***
	46	Altbasar	Kazakhstan	-0.087***	0.011***	0.017***	-0.048***	0.0004***	0.008***
	47	Samarkand	Uzbekistan	0.038	0.011***	0.01**	-0.07***	-0.001***	0.007***
	48	Sidi El Aydi / Jemaa Riah	Morocco	-0.202***	0.012***	0.024***	-0.04**	-0.0003*	na
	49	Nabeul / Tunis	Tunisia	-0.244***	0.013***	0.042***	-0.107***	-0.0003	0.006***
	50	Tel Hadya/Aleppo	Syria	0.052	0.007***	0.002	-0.036***	-0.001***	0.002***
	54	Urmar	Pakistan	-0.13***	0.008***	0.018***	-0.014***	-0.001***	0.004***
	55	Dingxi	China	-0.189***	0.011***	0.03***	-0.1***	0.001***	0.008***
	56	Xuchang	China	-0.092**	0.011***	0.001	-0.047***	-0.001***	0.006***
	57	Merredin	Australia	-0.244***	0.008***	0.024***	-0.079***	-0.0005*	0.007***
	58	Rupanyup / Wimmera	Australia	-0.247**	0.011***	0.026***	-0.111***	-0.00003	0.006***
	60	Glen/Bloemfontein	South Africa	-0.033*	0.006***	0.001	-0.031***	0.00001	0.004***
Hot irrigated	1	Maricopa	USA	-0.55***	0.02***	0.074***	-0.102***	0.003***	

2	Obregon	Mexico	-0.427***	0.017***	na	-0.029***	0.002***
5	Aswan	Egypt	-0.315***	na	0.051***	-0.068***	0.001***
6	Wad Medani	Sudan	-0.53***	0.02***	na	-0.116***	0.007***
7	Dharwar	India	-0.364***	0.003***	0.085***	-0.016***	0.001***
8	Dinajpur	Bangladesh	-0.268***	0.006***	0.064***	-0.039***	0.003***
10	Balcarce	Argentina	-0.129**	0.007***	0.033***	-0.051***	0.001***
11	Ludhiana	India	-0.286***	0.012***	0.043***	-0.005	0.002***
12	Indore	India	na	0.02***	0.104***	-0.059***	0.003***
21	Harbin	China	-0.268***	0.007***	0.042***	-0.051***	0.002***
22	Kojonup	Australia	-0.29***	0.004***	0.025***	na	0.001***
23	Griffith	Australia	-0.444***	0.008***	0.047***	-0.067***	0.001***
25	Faisalabad	Pakistan	-0.337***	0.011***	0.047***	-0.036***	0.002***
33	Watkinsville	USA	0.076**	0.009***	0.01**	-0.029***	-0.00003

Notes:

a: **na** indicate no regression conducted due to no heat stress days during wheat growing season.

b: no data was shown for Loc1-30 as automatic irrigation was applied in all the simulations at these locations.

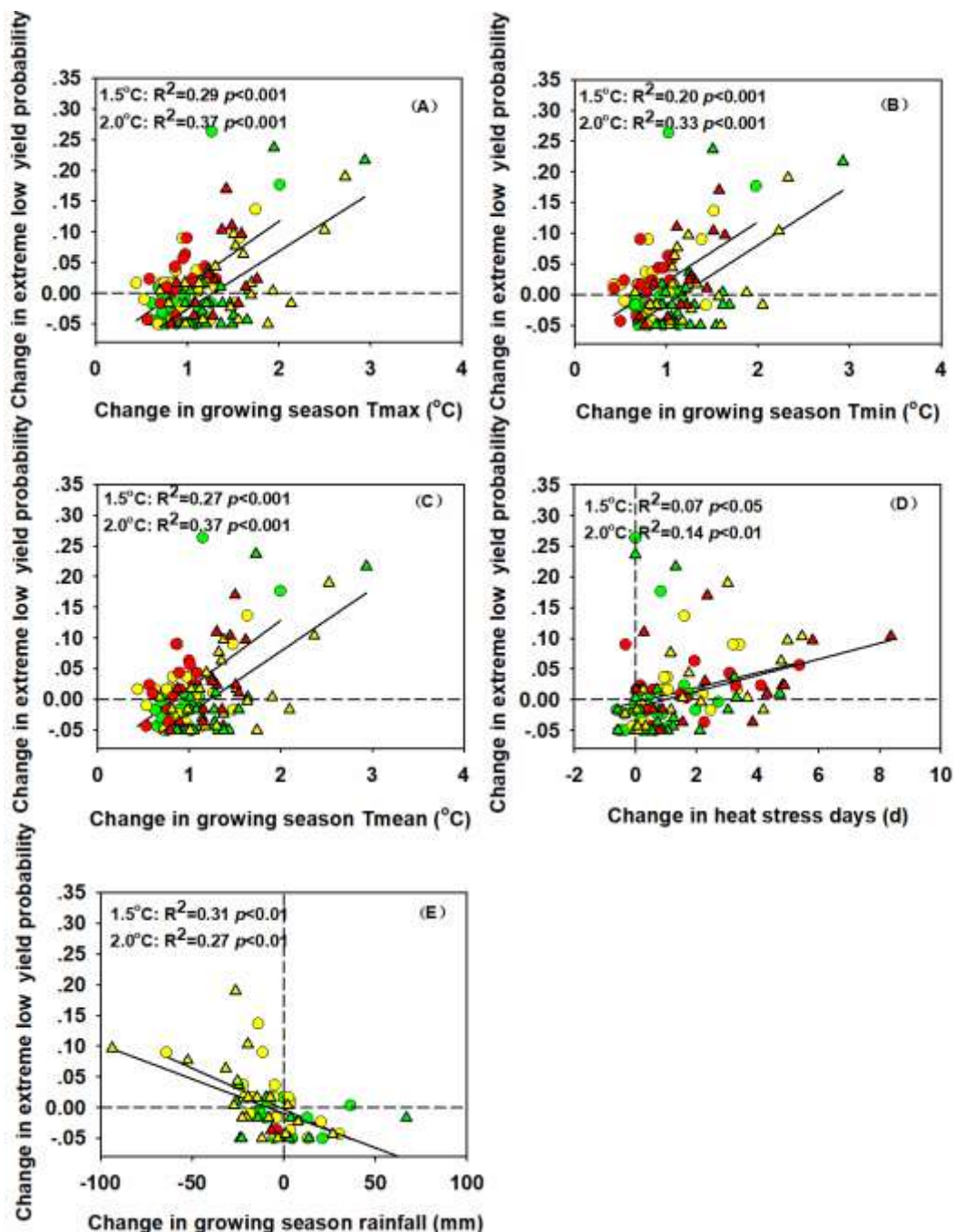


Fig.S24. Relationship between changes in extreme low yield probability and changes in growing season variables under two warming scenarios at 60 representative global wheat growing locations for clusters of temperate high rainfall or irrigated locations (green; 26 locations), moderately hot low rainfall locations (yellow; 20 locations), and hot irrigated locations (red; 14 locations). (A) Growing season maximum temperature (°C), (B) Growing season minimum temperature (°C), (C) Growing season mean temperature (°C), (D) Growing season heat stress days (d), (E) Growing season cumulative rainfall (mm). Circles and triangles indicate changes under 1.5 scenario and 2.0 scenario, respectively. In (E), 30 locations (Loc1-30) where automatic irrigation was used in the simulations were not shown.

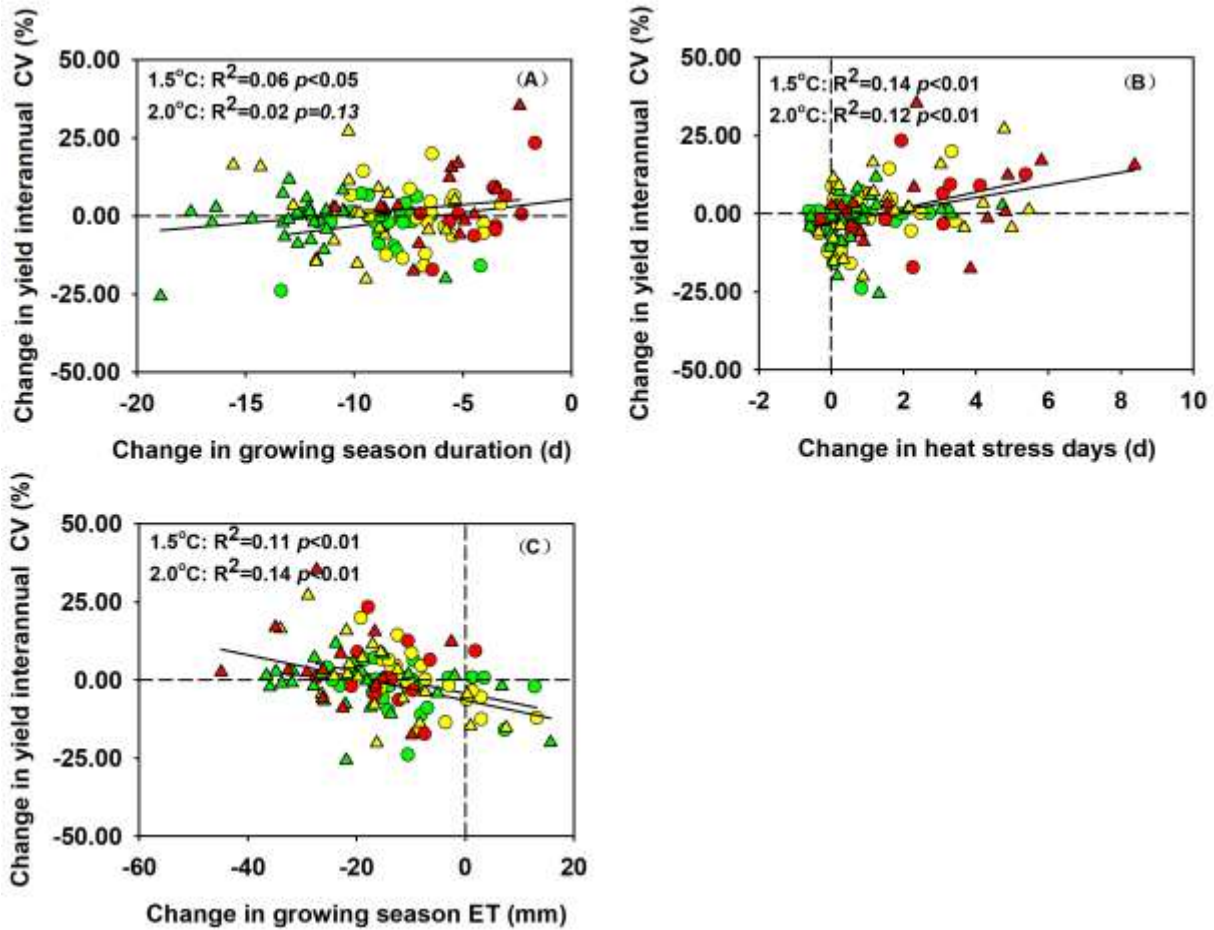


Fig.S25. Relationship between relative changes in yield interannual variability (CV) and changes in growing season variables under two warming scenarios at 60 representative global wheat growing locations for clusters of temperate high rainfall or irrigated locations (green; 26 locations), moderately hot low rainfall locations (yellow; 20 locations), and hot irrigated locations (red; 14 locations). (A) Growing season duration (days), (B) Growing season heat stress days (d), (C) Growing season cumulative evapotranspiration (ET, mm). Circles and triangles indicate changes under 1.5 scenario and 2.0 scenario, respectively.

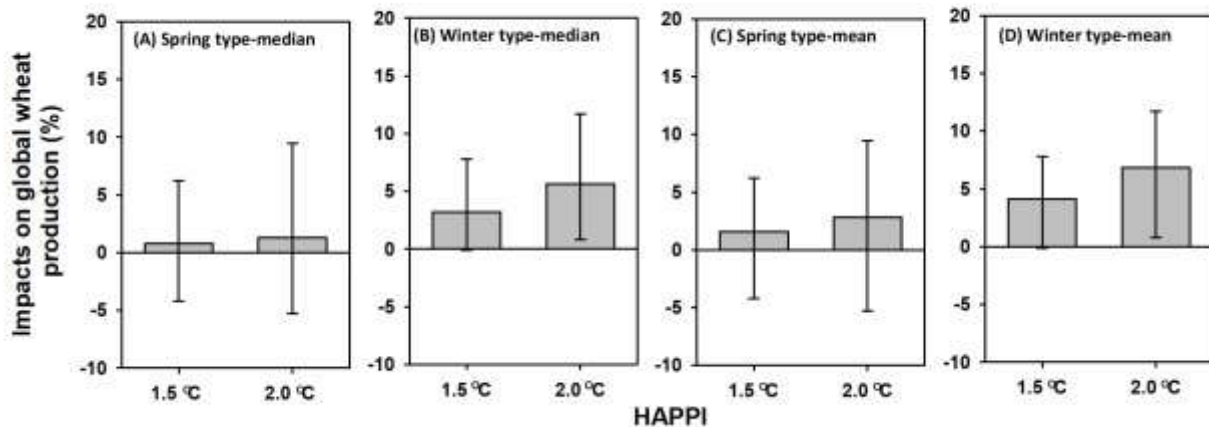


Fig. S26. Simulated global impacts of climate change under 1.5 and 2.0 scenario on wheat production from different wheat types. (A) Spring type wheat from model ensemble medians (39 locations). (B) Winter type wheat from model ensemble medians (21 locations). (C) Spring type wheat from model ensemble means. (D) Winter type wheat from model ensemble means. Impacts from the 60 global locations were weighted by FAO production area. Bars are ensemble **medians or means** of 31 crop models and five GCMs for 1.5 and 2.0 scenarios (HAPPI), including changes in temperature, rainfall and atmospheric CO₂ concentration, and mean of 30 years using region-specific soils, cultivars, and crop management. Error bars indicate the 25th and 75th percentiles across 31 crop models and five GCMs.

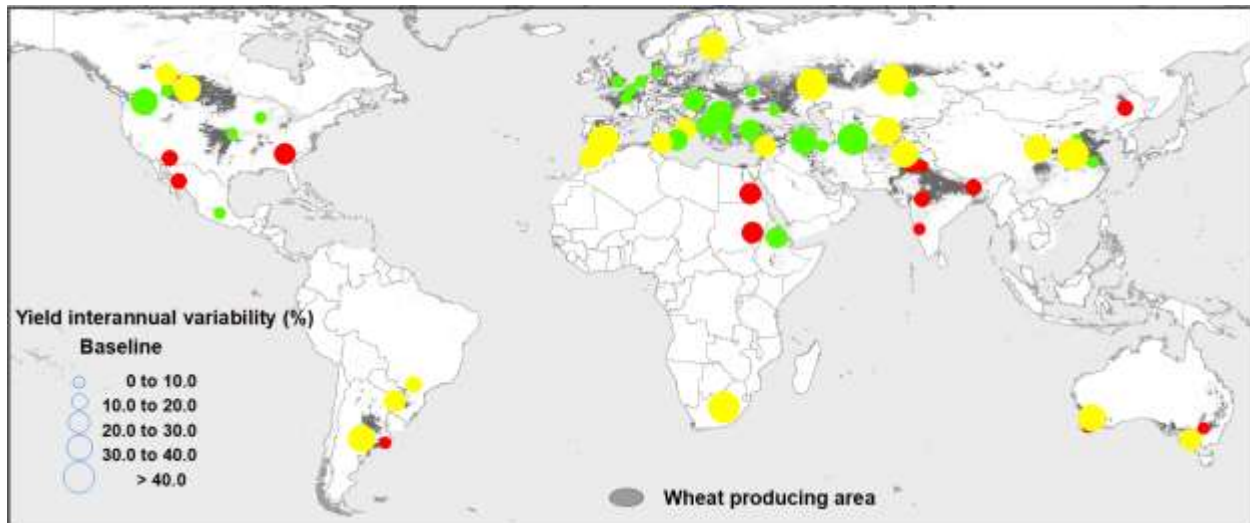


Fig.S27 Simulated interannual yield variability (coefficient of variation) during the 1981-2010 baseline period at 60 representative global wheat growing locations for clusters of temperate high rainfall or irrigated locations (green; 26 locations), moderately hot low rainfall locations (yellow; 20 locations), and hot irrigated locations (red; 14 locations).

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