SUPPLEMENTARY DATA

Summary information for the crop model GECROS

The crop model GECROS (for version 1.0, see Yin & van Laar 2005) predicts crop biomass and yield as affected by climatic factors (radiation, temperature, wind speed, and vapour pressure) and available amount of soil water and nitrogen. The model represents crop functions and interactive responses of contrasting processes or components to environmental variables, thereby embodying physiological mechanisms that drive crop dynamics and generate emergent feedback features. The contrasting components particularly emphasise carbon (C) vs nitrogen (N) interactions, but also include: root vs shoot, source activity vs sink capacity, and growth vs senescence relationships. Since its first release (Yin & van Laar 2005), GECROS has been updated for a couple of times. Model version 2.0, as used by Yin & Struik (2010), contains algorithms of Yin & Struik (2009) for coupled modelling of leaf photosynthesis and stomatal conductance, while accounting for mesophyll conductance (an important parameter for C₃ photosynthesis). Very recently, the model was further updated (version 3.0) to allow an option that stomatal and mesophyll conductance may vary in parallel in response to environmental conditions (see below). In this supplementary material, I outline model algorithms in (i) modelling carbon assimilation and growth processes, and (ii) modelling nitrogen uptake, root-shoot relation, sink demand, and senescence.

Modelling carbon assimilation, and growth processes

Stomatal conductance, leaf photosynthesis and transpiration, and their extension to canopies GECROS-v.1.0 calculates instantaneous leaf photosynthesis (A) from the C_3 -photosynthesis model of Farquhar et al. (1980), assuming the intercellular : ambient [CO₂] ratio only as a

function of leaf-to-air vapour pressure deficit. This approach was also applied to C4 crops, with additional assumptions (i) to set internal [CO₂] to an arbitrarily high value, and (ii) to consider the extra ATP consumption by the CO₂-concentrating mechanism. In later versions, A was calculated from the analytical algorithms that are based on the model of Farquhar et al. (1980) for C₃-photosynthesis, and its equivalent for C₄-photosynthesis (von Caemmerer & Furbank 1999), coupled with a phenomenological diffusional conductance model (for overview, see Yin & Struik 2009 and references therein; Yin et al. 2009). This analytical approach was formulated according to the numerical framework of Leuning et al. (1995), with modifications to the original g_s equation and incorporation of temperature- and leaf Ndependent mesophyll conductance g_m (in GECROS v.2.0). The analytical cubic polynomials (see Yin & Struik 2009) simultaneously solve stomatal conductance (g_s) , internal [CO₂] level, and leaf photosynthesis rate (A) for a given temperature. The obtained g_s was used in the Penman-Monteith equation (Monteith 1973) for surface energy balance to model leaf transpiration and leaf temperature as affected by factors such as elevated [CO₂]. Leaf temperature was then used for re-calculating leaf photosynthesis and transpiration. The effect of leaf N content on photosynthesis, g_s and transpiration is reflected by the effect of leaf N on parameters (i.e. V_{cmax} , J_{max} and TPU; see the main text for their definition) of the photosynthesis model. This coupled approach allows the decrease of g_s at elevated [CO₂] to be well predicted, in agreement with the finding of Leakey et al. (2006) that there is no longterm acclimation of g_s independent of photosynthetic acclimation to [CO₂]. A further development of GECROS (v.3.0) was to allow an option that g_m varies in proportion with g_s in response to all environmental factors, given recent reports that g_m may resemble g_s in response to various environmental variables (e.g. Flexas et al. 2008; Yin et al. 2009).

Spatial extension from leaf to canopy photosynthesis and transpiration was established using the sun/shade model of de Pury & Farquhar (1997). Temporal extension from instantaneous rates to daily total was performed using the five-point Gaussian integration (Goudriaan 1986) to account for (a)symmetric diurnal course of radiation and temperature, to which photosynthesis and transpiration respond nonlinearly. These approaches for spatial and temporal extensions apply to the case in the absence of water stress.

For simplicity, diurnal course of available water is assumed to follow that of radiation. In the presence of water stress (i.e. water availability does not satisfy the requirement for potential transpiration), the available water is partitioned between sunlit and shaded leaves according to the relative share of their potential transpiration to obtain their instantaneous actual transpiration. The actual transpiration is transformed into the actual level of g_s using the Penman-Monteith equation, and the actual g_s was then used as input to the analytical quadratic model (unpublished model algorithms), to estimate the instantaneous actual photosynthesis of the sunlit and shaded leaves. The Gaussian integration is again used to obtain the daily total of the actual photosynthesis.

Crop respiration

Crop respiration was modelled, based on the framework of Cannell & Thornley (2000) that recognises individual relationships between respiration and each process it supports. In this framework, component processes are differentiated: growth, symbiotic N₂ fixation, root nitrogen uptake, nitrate reduction, other ion uptake, phloem loading, and residual maintenance component. Growth efficiency is obtained from the chemical composition of plant material based on carbon fraction and glucose requirement of these chemical components (Penning de Vries et al. 1989). Most of the other processes can also be well quantified and the default carbon costs used in GECROS are: 6 g C (g N fixed)⁻¹, 0.17 g C (g ammonium-N uptake)⁻¹, 0.34 g C (g nitrate-N uptake)⁻¹, 1.71 g C (g nitrate-N reduction)⁻¹. However, the

last process maintenance respiration is less quantifiable but suggested to be related to crop N content (see the main text).

Modelling nitrogen uptake, root-shoot relation, sink demand, and senescence

The following texts will mainly highlight phenomenological equations (which were largely unaltered for various versions of GECROS), further facilitating the C-N modelling.

Nitrogen uptake

In contrast to C assimilation, crop N uptake has been more empirically quantified. Usually N uptake is the minimum of crop N demand and soil N supply; the latter is presented in a soil model. Crop N demand is commonly based on the critical N concentration in above-ground biomass in the course of the growth cycle reported for various crops, in the form of either an empirical equation (Justes et al. 1994) or a tabular function. These functions were derived from experimental data, and different experiments could yield quantitatively different functions for the same crop/cultivar.

Yin et al. (2003b) used an equation to describe crop N demand (N_{dem}):

$$N_{\rm dem} = C_{\rm R} \sigma_{\rm N} = C_{\rm R} \sigma_{\rm C}^2 / ({\rm d}\sigma_{\rm C} / {\rm d}\kappa)$$
⁽¹⁾

where $C_{\rm R}$ is the amount of C in roots. This was based on the analysis of Hilbert (1990) for balanced growth conditions that achieving the optimum plant N:C ratio for a maximised relative C gain requires that relative root activity for N uptake ($\sigma_{\rm N}$) and relative shoot activity for C assimilation ($\sigma_{\rm C}$) be balanced as defined by eqn (1), where $d\sigma_{\rm C}/d\kappa$ is the first-order derivative of $\sigma_{\rm C}$ with respect to κ , the N:C ratio in the whole-plant. The value of $\sigma_{\rm C}$ is defined as: $\sigma_{\rm C} = (\Delta C / \Delta t) / C_{\rm S}$, where $C_{\rm S}$ is the amount of C in shoots; $\Delta C / \Delta t$ is daily crop C gain (which can be calculated from the above-mentioned models for daily canopy photosynthesis and crop respiration). Because the quantity $d\sigma_{\rm C}/d\kappa$ in eqn (1) cannot be analytically calculated given the sophistication of estimating $\sigma_{\rm C}$, it can be numerically calculated by: $d\sigma_{\rm C}/d\kappa = [\sigma_{{\rm C}(\kappa+\Delta\kappa)} - \sigma_{{\rm C}(\kappa)}]/\Delta\kappa$, where $\Delta\kappa$ is a small increment of κ ; $\sigma_{{\rm C}(\kappa)}$ and $\sigma_{{\rm C}(\kappa+\Delta\kappa)}$ are relative shoot activities when plant N:C ratio is κ and ($\kappa+\Delta\kappa$), respectively. This generic method is less trivial than the 'critical N concentration' approach, and can reflect that root N uptake may be vigorously related to crop photosynthetic activity (Triboi & Triboi-Blondel 2002). The method can produce the commonly observed sigmoid shape of cumulative N uptake over a growing season (Yin & van Laar 2005). Simulation shows that the enhancement in the N uptake predicted by eqn (1) may not keep pace with that of C gain by elevated CO₂, as experimentally observed (e.g. Kim et al. 2003). As a result, N concentration of plants under elevated [CO₂] may eventually be lower, which has been observed irrespective of the N availability (Wong 1990; Conroy & Hocking 1993). The 'critical N concentration' approach alone will yield an equal plant N concentration between ambient and elevated [CO₂] if N supply is not limiting.

Partitioning between root and shoot

In some crop models, partitioning of newly formed assimilates between root and shoot is assumed simply as a fixed empirical function of development stage (e.g. Penning de Vries et al. 1989). Derivation of these partitioning functions for various crops needs substantial experimental data. More importantly, this approach does not account for the reported plasticity of root-shoot ratios in response to environmental changes (Poorter & Nagel 2000).

Yin & Schapendonk (2004) presented an equation for the partitioning of C between shoots and roots. The equation is based on the classical root-shoot functional balance theory, with an incorporation of the mechanism that plants control root-shoot partitioning in order to maximise their relative C gain. The fraction of the newly assimilated C partitioned to the shoot ($\lambda_{C,S}$), calculated by:

$$\lambda_{\rm C,S} = \frac{1}{1 + (\eta / \sigma_{\rm C}) d\sigma_{\rm C} / d\kappa}$$
(2)

where η is the N:C ratio in newly formed biomass, $d\sigma_C/d\kappa$ and σ_C are the same as defined for eqn (1). A similar equation was derived for estimating the fraction of the newly obtained N partitioned to the shoot (Yin & Schapendonk 2004). Eqn (2) is simple and has no parameter to estimate as all the inputs can be calculated elsewhere in a crop model. The equation, strictly speaking, holds for steady-state growth conditions (Yin & Schapendonk 2004). van der Werf et al. (1993) showed an evidence that partitioning functions, if being related to plant N status, held for both steady-state and general conditions. When incorporated into a crop model, eqn (2) produces a pattern of root-shoot partitioning similar to the observed ones, yet addresses the plasticity of root:shoot ratios in response to environmental conditions (Yin & Schapendonk 2004). The simulated effects of light, nutrients and water on the partitioning agreed with the experimentally observed; the simulated effect of CO₂ was not consistent, which seemed to agree with the meta-result of Poorter & Nagel (2000) that a doubled [CO₂] did not significantly affect the average allocation of C to roots or shoots.

Sink demand

Assimilates distributed to the shoot need to be further modelled for partitioning among the shoot organs; and again a trivial approach is to use partitioning coefficients as a fixed empirical or tabular function of development stage (e.g. Penning de Vries et al. 1989). Alternatively, it is assumed that the strength of growing organs as sinks of available C determines the partitioning (Marcelis 1996); any surplus assimilate goes to the pool of reserves which can be remobilised later if there is assimilate deficit (Fig. 6 in the main text). To that end, the differential form of classical growth functions like the Logistic equation is often used to describe the dynamics of sink demand.

Yin et al. (2003a) developed an alternative equation for describing any asymmetric sigmoid pattern of a determinate growth. By setting the initial value of a sink organ at the start of its growth as zero, the equation uses three parameters w_{max} , θ_{e} and θ_{m} (where w_{max} is the maximum quantity, which is reached at stage for the end of growth θ_{e} ; θ_{m} is the stage at which the growth rate is maximum). The differential form of the equation, when multiplied by daily development rate (day⁻¹), can describe the daily demand of a sink (e.g. seed, or stem) for C assimilates, Δw , as (Yin & van Laar 2005):

$$\Delta w = \omega w_{\text{max}} \frac{(2\theta_{\text{e}} - \theta_{\text{m}})(\theta_{\text{e}} - \theta)}{\theta_{\text{e}}(\theta_{\text{e}} - \theta_{\text{m}})^2} \left(\frac{\theta}{\theta_{\text{e}}}\right)^{\theta_{\text{m}}/(\theta_{\text{e}} - \theta_{\text{m}})}$$
(3)

where ω is development rate at stage θ . The commonly used classical growth equations have an asymptotic form, meaning that an expected w_{max} can never be achieved, even if source activity is not limiting. In contrast, eqn (3) ensures that w_{max} is achieved exactly at θ_e . The model uses only three parameters (i.e. w_{max} , θ_{m} and θ_e) to define any asymmetric sigmoid pattern that would need at least four parameters to define with classical growth equations. Moreover, θ_e for a given sink organ can be defined physiologically, so its timing can be predicted by the phenology part of crop model. These features allow eqn (3) to suit better than classical growth equations for being embedded in crop models to simulate sink demand.

LAI and senescence

In contrast to modelling growth, there is no well-established method for modelling senescence. A common method is to use empirical, developmental-stage dependent leaf-turnover coefficients (e.g. Penning de Vries et al. 1989; Matthews et al. 1997). These coefficients differ across crops, and across environments (e.g. N supplies), requiring specific calibration for different cases.

Yin et al. (2000) developed an equation for describing LAI (*L*) in relation to the amount of canopy leaf-nitrogen (*N*) as:

$$L = \frac{1}{k_{\rm n}} \log_{\rm e} \left(1 + k_{\rm n} N / n_{\rm b} \right)$$
(4)

where k_n is the coefficient for leaf-N extinction in the canopy, and n_b is a base N content at or below which leaf photosynthetic rate at a saturating light is nil. A broad use of eqn (4) is to describe the generic logarithmic relation between L and N for the full canopy in which the leaf N at the bottom of the canopy is as low as n_b , as confirmed by the post-panicle initiation measurements at two [CO₂] levels of an FACE experiment (see Fig. 4 in the main text). For young canopy where $L \leq 1$, simulation based on eqn (4) showed that the relationship between L and N is virtually linear (Yin et al. 2003b), again confirmed by the FACE data from the early-phase measurements (Fig. 4 in the main text).

A more important use of eqn (4) is to engender a simple robust method to predict the onset and quantity of leaf senescence. The LAI calculated by eqn (4) can be designated as the N limited LAI (L_N). Conventionally, LAI has been calculated from C partitioned to or biomass accumulated in leaves (e.g. Matthews et al. 1997), denoted here as L_C . The rate of the LAI decrease due to senescence can be formulated as $[L_C - \min(L_C, L_N)]/t_c$, where t_c is the time constant, which can be equal to or more than the time step for simulation (Yin et al. 2000). This approach is generic and avoids the use of time-dependent, crop-specific, empirical leafturnover coefficients. The input parameter n_b is required anyway in a crop model for simulating leaf photosynthesis, and the other parameter k_n may be calculated theoretically from light extinction coefficient (Yin et al. 2003b). The approach agrees with a coherent biological picture of leaf senescence in relation to the decreasing amount of N in the bottom canopy, especially during seed growth (Sinclair & de Wit 1975). A similar approach was used in GECROS for describing root senescence, based on root N content. The approach can also predict, to a large extent, high temperature-induced senescence as high temperature accelerates seed filling that requires a fast remobilisation of leaf and root N, thereby causing fast senescence. However, any direct impact of extreme high temperature on senescence needs further modelling studies.

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