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**Assessing the individual contributions of variations in
temperature, solar radiation and precipitation to crop yield
in the North China Plain, 1961–2003**

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1 **Assessing the individual contributions of variations in temperature, solar**
2 **radiation and precipitation to crop yield in the North China Plain, 1961–2003**

3 Chao Chen*, Walter E Baethgen, Andrew Robertson

4 International Research Institute for Climate and Society,

5 The Earth Institute at Columbia University, Palisades, New York, USA

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17 **Abstract:** An understanding of the relative impacts of the changes in climate variables on grain
18 yield in the last decades can help develop effective adaptation strategies to cope with climate
19 change. This study was conducted to investigate the effects of the interannual variability and
20 trends in temperature, solar radiation and precipitation during 1961–2003 on wheat and maize
21 yields in the double cropping system at two sites in the North China Plain (NCP), and to examine
22 the relative contributions of the three climate variables in isolation. 129 climate scenarios
23 consisting of all the combinations of these climate variables were designed. Each scenario
24 contained a single daily climate variable of the 43 years (e.g. temperature, 1961–2003),
25 combining with a single year of the other two variables (e.g. solar radiation and precipitation of
26 1961). An ensemble of crop model simulation driven by these climate scenarios allows assessing
27 the impact of each single climate variable isolated from the other two.

28 The results showed that year-to-year variations in temperature, solar radiation and precipitation
29 individually resulted in substantial annual differences in crop yield, especially for precipitation.
30 The warming trend alone decreased wheat potential yield at both sites, but not significantly, due
31 to the combined effects of temperature increase during the stages before dormancy (positive
32 effect) and after dormancy (negative effect). Maize potential yield was significantly decreased by
33 $2.7\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$ at the northern site (Beijing), due to increased temperature during the growing season.
34 The decreasing trend in solar radiation showed the strongest isolated impact on simulated yields.
35 Its decrease caused significant reduction in potential yields at Beijing, at the rate of $5.2\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$ for
36 wheat and $4.8\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$ for maize. Although the decreasing trends in rainfed yield of both wheat and
37 maize were large, the large year-to-year variability of precipitation made the trends less
38 prominent.

39
40 **Key words:** Crop modeling; Climate variability; Climate change; Wheat; Maize

1. Introduction

Climate variability and climate change have been documented to have a major impact on agricultural production in many world regions (Rosenzweig and Parry, 1994; Brown and Rosenberg, 1997; Alexandrov and Hoogenboom, 2000; Lobell and Asner, 2003; Parry *et al.*, 2004; Tao *et al.*, 2008), especially in semi-humid and semi-arid areas (Thomson *et al.*, 2006; Tao *et al.*, 2003). This is particularly the case in the North China Plain (NCP), which is vulnerable to climate variability and change. It is one of the largest agricultural production areas in China, covering a total area of 320, 000 km² and being home to more than 200 million people (Zhang *et al.*, 2005). The NCP plays an important role in maintaining national food security, providing more than 50% of the wheat and 33% of the maize produced in China (State Statistics Bureau, 1999). However, agricultural production in the NCP is under stress due to water resources shortage and crop land area reduction, as well as climatic effects.

In the past four decades, the NCP has become warmer, drier and dimmer, together with large seasonal/interannual climate variability (Che *et al.*, 2005; Liu *et al.*, 2005; Ren *et al.*, 2008; Fu *et al.*, 2009, Chen *et al.*, 2010a). These variations in climate have been shown to have great impacts on crop production in the region. A simulation study on crop growth and yield of wheat and maize showed that the combined impact of the changes in climate variables (temperature, solar radiation and precipitation) since 1961 has been to reduce potential (i.e. under full irrigation) yield over the NCP (Chen *et al.*, 2010a). In another climate change analysis, Liu *et al.* (2009) found that, if varietal effects were excluded, warming during vegetative stages from 1981–2000 would shorten the length of the growing period of wheat and maize, generally leading to a reduction in crop yields. Wu *et al.* (2006, 2008) reported that climate-related spatial and temporal variability gave rise to substantial yield variability of wheat and maize in the NCP. However, our knowledge on the extent to which crop yield variability and change could be accounted for by the variability and trends in each one of the above climate variables individually still remains unclear.

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3 66 This is essential for developing strategies to improve adaptation to climate change and ensure
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5 67 sustainable agricultural production in the NCP.
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7 68 Various approaches, such as statistical regression and simulation models, have been used to
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9 69 investigate crop response to climate variations. Lobell and Asner (2003) used regression statistics
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11 70 to study the relationship between climate variation and crop yield in the United States (1982-1998)
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13 71 and concluded that corn and soybean yields were both significantly correlated with observed
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15 72 temperature trends, while precipitation and solar radiation had little effects. However, the
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17 73 statistical regression approach is usually limited due to the arbitrary selection of the independent
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19 74 variables for multiple regressions (Spaeth *et al.*, 1987). Process-based crop models have been
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21 75 proven to be useful tools to investigate potential impacts of climate variations on crop production
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23 76 (Spaeth *et al.*, 1987; Rosenberg, 1993; Easterling *et al.*, 1996; Rosenzweig and Parry, 1994).
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27 77 This study aims to separate the impacts of individual climate factors, i.e. temperature, solar
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29 78 radiation and precipitation on grain yields of the winter wheat and maize double cropping system
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31 79 in the NCP by using crop modeling. Specific objectives are to: 1) create climate scenarios for
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33 80 disentangling the impacts of different climate variables on wheat and maize yields, 2) provide a
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35 81 quantitative understanding of the impacts of the variability and trends in temperature, solar
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37 82 radiation and precipitation during 1961–2003 on crop yield, and 3) identify the relative
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39 83 contribution of these factors to variations in crop yield during the study period.
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43 84 **2. Materials and methods**

44 45 85 2.1. Study sites

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47 86 Two study sites, Beijing (39.30°N, 116.28°E) and Zhengzhou (34.72°N, 113.65°E) were selected
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49 87 (Fig. 1). Beijing is located in the north of the NCP and Zhengzhou is located in the middle and
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51 88 lower reaches of the Yellow River, and they can roughly represent the climate conditions in the
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53 89 northern and southern parts of the NCP, respectively. A major consideration for the site selection
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55 90 is the data availability of daily solar radiation, as well as maximum and minimum temperature
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3 91 and precipitation. Temperature and precipitation in the NCP decrease from the south to the north,
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5 92 while accumulated annual solar radiation increases. The annual mean air temperature was 12.5
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8 93 and 14.8 °C at Beijing and Zhengzhou (1961–2003), respectively; the corresponding annual
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11 94 precipitation at the two sites was 559 and 632 mm, respectively, with more than 75% falling
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13 95 during the summer months (June to September); and accumulated annual solar radiation was
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15 96 5370 and 5010 MJ m⁻², respectively.

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17 97 Winter wheat-summer maize double crop rotation is the currently dominant cropping system in
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19 98 the NCP, including the two study sites. The growing period for winter wheat is from October to
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21 99 May. There is a long dormant period from the end of November to the beginning of March, after
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24 100 which winter wheat begins growing again. In the present study, winter wheat growth period was
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26 101 divided into two stages: before and after dormancy (“turning green”). The stage before dormancy
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28 102 is from October to February. The stage after dormancy is from March to May. For summer maize,
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30 103 the growth period is from June to September.

31 32 33 104 2.2. The agricultural system model

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35 105 The Agricultural Production Systems Simulator, APSIM, (McCown *et al.*, 1996; Keating *et al.*,
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37 106 2003) was used to simulate grain yield of the wheat-maize double cropping system affected by
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39 107 the variability and trends in climate variables. APSIM is a modular modeling framework
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41 108 developed by Agricultural Production Systems Research Unit (APSRU) in Australia. It simulates
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43 109 at daily time steps the crop growth and development, yield, soil water and nitrogen dynamics
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45 110 within a single crop or a cropping system. The model allows crop varieties and agronomic
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47 111 management to be kept constant so that the impacts of climate variables can be separated without
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49 112 the joint effects of others. The following main built-in modules were used in this study: wheat
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51 113 crop (WHEAT), maize crop (MAIZE), soil water (SOILWAT2), soil nitrogen (SOILN2), crop
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53 114 residue (RESIDUE) and management specification (MANAGER). Detailed descriptions of the
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3 115 model structure, its crop and soil modules can be found in Keating *et al.* (2003) or at the APSIM
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5 116 website: <http://www.apsim.info/apsim/>.

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7 117 The APSIM model has been validated and extensively used to predict crop production in studies
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9 118 of the impacts of climate variations (Reyenga *et al.*, 2001; Asseng *et al.*, 2004; Luo *et al.*, 2005;
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11 119 Ludwig and Asseng, 2006; Wang *et al.*, 2009). In our previous work (Chen *et al.*, 2010a, b, c), we
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13 120 evaluated the model performance in simulating crop growth, development and yield of the wheat
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15 121 and maize double cropping system and simulated the response of crop productivity to climate
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17 122 variability and trends over the NCP. It was found that the APSIM model was able to reasonably
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19 123 reproduce the observed crop growth and yield of wheat and maize in the region. The present
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21 124 study built on the above model calibration and validation work for model performance and
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23 125 application. Wheat variety Zhixuan 1 and maize variety Yedan 22 were planted at the Yucheng
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25 126 experimental station during an experiment conducted from 1997–2001 and the derived cultivar
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27 127 parameters (Chen *et al.*, 2010b) were used in the simulations of this study.

28 29 30 31 32 128 2.3. Simulation approach

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34 129 We used 43 years (1961–2003) of observed daily climate data from two sites, obtained from the
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36 130 Bureau of Meteorology, China and used as the baseline climate to analyze the combined and
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38 131 interacting effects of temperature, solar radiation and precipitation on wheat and maize grain
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40 132 yield. An ensemble approach was used to separate the impacts of interannual (and long-term)
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42 133 variations of temperature, solar radiation and precipitation on crop yield. A total of 129 climate
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44 134 scenarios were created by constructing synthetic combinations of the three climate variables
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46 135 during 1961–2003. To assess the impact of daily mean temperature, 43 climate scenarios were
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48 136 generated from the 43-year observed time series. In each scenario, temperature was set to its
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50 137 observed values for the period 1961–2003, and it was combined with each historical year's solar
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52 138 radiation and precipitation copied times (see Table 1). For example, scenario 1 for temperature
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54 139 consisted of the 1961–2003 observed records of temperature, with the solar radiation and
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3 140 precipitation of 1961 and this procedure was used in all 43 years. The crop yields obtained from
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5 141 the 43 climate scenarios were averaged to evaluate the impact of temperature on crop yield under
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7 142 all solar radiation and precipitation conditions of 1961–2003. We also considered the variance
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9 143 ratio:

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$$\hat{\rho} = \frac{\sigma_{mean}^2}{\sigma_{tot}^2} \quad (1)$$

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17 145 where σ_{mean}^2 is the variance of mean simulated grain yield and σ_{tot}^2 is the variance of all simulated
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19 146 grain yields of the 43-member ensembles. Analysis of variance (AMOVA) was used to assess the
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21 147 strength of the forcing by the variance of the isolated climate variable (e.g. temperature), relative
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23 148 to the variability of the other two (e.g. solar radiation and precipitation) (Rowell et al., 1995;
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25 149 Rowell, 1998). The same method was used to create climate scenarios for assessing the impacts
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27 150 of solar radiation and precipitation.

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30 151 In the simulations, the same wheat cultivar (Zhixuan 1) and maize cultivar (Yedan 22) were used
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32 152 in all the years and at the two study sites, and the impacts of nutrient stress, disease and pests
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34 153 were not considered. Doing so enables to eliminate the effects of other factors, and investigate the
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36 154 impacts of climate factors on crop yield. Winter wheat was planted on October 5th at Beijing and
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38 155 15th at Zhengzhou, and harvested at physiological maturity. Maize was planted on June 12th at
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40 156 Beijing and June 15th at Zhengzhou. Maize was intercropped into wheat if the crop was not
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42 157 mature at the maize sowing date, and was harvested 1 day before sowing winter wheat.

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45 158 The soil data at two sites included the soil physical and chemical characteristics in different layers
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47 159 and were obtained from the State Soil Survey Service of China (1998).

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50 160 Crop yield was simulated under full irrigation conditions (i.e. potential yield) for assessing the
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52 161 impacts of temperature and solar radiation in isolation and of their combined effects. Crop yield
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54 162 without irrigation (i.e. rainfed) was simulated to evaluate the effects of precipitation. Under full
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56 163 irrigation conditions, irrigation water, with the automatic irrigation facility in the APSIM model,

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3 164 was added to the soil up to field capacity when the soil water content within maximum rooting
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5 165 depth (150 cm) fell below field capacity.
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7 166 Correlation coefficients between the anomalies of simulated wheat and maize yield and the
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9 167 anomalies of temperature, solar radiation and precipitation, and the ratio of the variance of mean
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11 168 simulated grain yield (σ^2_{mean}) and that of all simulated grain yield from the ensemble (σ^2_{all}) were
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13 169 also calculated to detect the relationship between the variability of climate variables and grain
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15 170 yields. Linear regression analysis and Kendall-tau statistic (Lobell and Asner, 2003; Chmielewski
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17 171 *et al.*, 2004) were used to detect trends in climate variables and simulated crop yields.
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20 21 172 **3. Results**

22 23 173 3.1. Variability and trends in climate variables

24 174 Anomalies of mean temperature, solar radiation and precipitation and their corresponding trend
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26 175 during the whole year, the wheat growing season, the stages before and after dormancy and the
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28 176 maize growing season from 1961–2003 at Beijing and Zhengzhou were analyzed.
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31 177 At Beijing, annual mean temperature during the period 1961–1980 varied between 1.7 and 0.2°C
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33 178 lower than the mean for the entire period (1961–2003) (Fig. 2a). The subsequent period (1981–
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35 179 2003) was warmer and included the warmest year (1994), with 1.54 °C higher than for 1961–
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37 180 2003. At Zhengzhou, annual mean temperature varied slightly around the values of the normal
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39 181 climate since 1961, except during the last 10 years, when the annual mean temperature was
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41 182 higher than for 1961–2003 (Fig. 2b). Mean temperature during wheat growing season and the
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43 183 stage before dormancy showed similar variations with the annual mean temperature (data not
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45 184 shown). Large variability was observed in in mean temperatures after the wheat dormancy (due
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47 185 to the typical strong variation of general circulation in the spring, Fig. 2c, d) as well as in mean
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49 186 temperatures during the maize growing season (Fig. 2e, f).
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53 187 Overall, mean temperature during the whole year, the wheat growing season, the stages before
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55 188 and after wheat dormancy and the maize growing seasons increased at the two sites since 1961,
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3 189 except during the maize growing season at Zhengzhou (Table 2). The increases in mean
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5 190 temperature during the whole year, the wheat growing season and March-May were statistically
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7 191 significant ($p < 0.01$ or $p < 0.05$) at the both sites. For the maize season, mean temperatures
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9 192 increased significantly at Beijing, but not at Zhengzhou. In general, mean temperature increased
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11 193 more during the wheat season than during the maize season as a result of a larger increase in
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13 194 mean temperature in the winter months observed in the NCP.

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16 195 Annual solar radiation at Beijing showed three clear periods (Fig. 3a): the 1960s and 1970s when
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18 196 solar radiation tended to be above the overall mean, the 1980s when the solar radiation showed a
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20 197 negative linear trend, and the 1990s to the end when solar radiation tended to stabilize at values
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22 198 below the overall mean. At Zhengzhou, annual solar radiation showed variations in cycles of 2-5
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24 199 years (Fig. 3b). The highest solar radiation value was observed in 1978, while the lowest values
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26 200 were observed in 1996 and 2003. The variations found in solar radiation during the wheat
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28 201 growing season, the stages before and after wheat dormancy and the maize growing season were
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30 202 similar to those in annual solar radiation at two sites (data not shown).

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33 203 In the 43 years of our study, solar radiation during the whole year, the wheat growing season, the
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35 204 stages before and after dormancy and the maize growing season at Beijing showed a significant
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37 205 ($p < 0.001$) decreasing trend at the rate of -29.2, -16.2, -7.7 and -13.1 MJ m⁻² yr⁻¹, respectively
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39 206 (Table 2). Zhengzhou also showed a decreasing trend in solar radiation, but not significant during
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41 207 the four study periods (Table 2).

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44 208 Annual precipitation at both Beijing and Zhengzhou showed large year-to-year variability (Fig.
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46 209 4a, b). At Beijing, the variations of precipitation from 1961 to 1984 were characterized by 2-5
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48 210 year fluctuations. The wettest years were 1964 and 1969, with precipitation of about 62% higher
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50 211 than the normal (Fig. 4a). The period of 1985–1998 was a long wet period. After that a long dry
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52 212 period was observed and 1999 was the driest year. On the other hand Zhengzhou did not
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54 213 experience obvious dry or wet episodes. Although the rainfall is relative sparse, there were large
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56 214 interannual variations in precipitation during wheat season, and the stages before and after
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3 215 dormancy (Fig. 4g-h). Precipitation during maize growing season varied similarly as annual
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5 216 precipitation (data not shown), because 75% of the annual precipitation falls during the maize
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7 217 season in the NCP. Precipitation during maize growing season showed significant decreasing
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9 218 trend at both Beijing and Zhengzhou, but it did not decrease significantly during the whole year
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11 219 and wheat growing season (Table 2).

12 220 3.2. Impact of the climate variability and trends on simulated crop yield

13 221 3.2.1. Combined impact of temperature, solar radiation and precipitation

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15 222 We started by analyzing the crop yield simulations, driven simply by the historical record of
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17 223 temperature, solar radiation and precipitation. This constitutes a baseline for subsequent analysis
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19 224 of the individual contribution of each climate variable in isolation performed with the ensemble
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21 225 approach (see sections 3.2.2-3.2.4 below).

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23 226 The baseline simulated wheat and maize yields under both potential and rainfed conditions were
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25 227 found to substantially vary from year to year due to the combined effects of climate variables
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27 228 during the study period (Fig. 5, 6). Under fully irrigated conditions, anomalies of simulated wheat
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29 229 yield expressed as percentage of the mean, varied between -25.9% and 20.0% at Beijing and
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31 230 between -18.8% and 35.3% at Zhengzhou, due to combined effects of temperature and solar
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33 231 radiation anomalies (Fig. 5a, b), while those of simulated maize yield ranged from -47.6% to
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35 232 18.2% and -34.6 to 18.9 at Beijing and Zhengzhou, respectively (Fig. 5c, d). Due to the effects of
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37 233 precipitation anomalies together with anomalies in temperature and solar radiation, simulated
38
39 234 rainfed yield of wheat and maize varied greatly, indicating the large impact of rainfall variability.
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41 235 The minimum yield anomalies were -100.0% for both crops at two sites, while the largest yield
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43 236 anomalies were 303.5 and 130.6% for wheat and 73.4 and 60.5% for maize at Beijing and
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45 237 Zhengzhou, respectively (Fig. 6a-d).

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47 238 Due to effects of temperature increase and solar radiation decrease, simulated yield of both wheat
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49 239 and maize under fully irrigated conditions decreased significantly ($p < 0.01$) in the 43 years of our
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240 study period at Beijing (Fig. 5a, b), while that at Zhengzhou decreased slightly (Fig. 5c, d).
241 Simulated yield for wheat and maize decreased by $48.8 \text{ kg ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ($-22.6\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$) and 88.3 kg ha^{-1}
242 yr^{-1} ($-31.4\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$) at Beijing, respectively. Simulated rainfed yield for both wheat and maize had
243 decreasing trends at Beijing and Zhengzhou (Fig. 6a-d), due to the combined effects of the
244 decrease in precipitation (except Beijing) together with temperature increase and radiation
245 decrease. However, the reduction in rainfed yield for both crops was not significant at either site
246 ($p > 0.05$).

247 3.2.2. Isolated Impact of temperature

248 The ensemble of 43 climate scenarios in Table 1 was then used to isolate the impact of
249 temperature in the yield anomalies and trends. Anomalies of simulated wheat yield caused by
250 temperature anomalies alone varied between -10.1% and 9.4% at Beijing and between -12.5%
251 and 12.1% at Zhengzhou (Fig. 7). The relationship between simulated wheat yield anomalies and
252 temperature anomalies indicated that higher temperatures before dormancy (WD1) tended to
253 increase wheat yield (probably due to higher vegetative growth), while a higher temperature after
254 dormancy (WD2) led to wheat yield decrease (probably due to its effect on shortening the grain
255 filling period) (Table 3, 4). Maize yield was also simulated to vary from year to year during the
256 study period due to effects of temperature variability (Fig. 8). Anomalies of simulated maize yield
257 caused by temperature anomalies varied between -16.8% and 13.2% at Beijing and between $-$
258 9.9% and 12.8% at Zhengzhou. Higher temperature during maize growing season had negative
259 impacts on maize yield probably due to its effect in shortening the grain filling period.

260 A trend analysis of the simulation is presented in Fig. 9. The simulation results showed that the
261 decrease in mean temperature in the 1960s decreased wheat yields and the increase in temperature
262 since 1971 had slightly affected wheat yield at both Beijing and Zhengzhou. Overall, the warming
263 trend during wheat growing season in the 43 years tended to decrease wheat yields, but the
264 decreasing trend was not significant as a result of the combined positive effects of temperature

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3 265 increase before dormancy and the negative impacts after dormancy. The wheat yield reduction
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5 266 was larger at Zhengzhou than at Beijing. This is mainly due to the fact that the temperature at the
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7 267 former is higher, and therefore wheat growth at this site is more sensitive to temperature stress
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10 268 (Fig. 9). The increased temperature during maize growing season resulted in a significant
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12 269 reduction of maize yield at the rate of $30.6 \text{ kg ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ($2.7\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$) at Beijing, and a slight decrease
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14 270 of maize yield at Zhengzhou (Fig. 9).

17 271 *3.2.3. Isolated impact of solar radiation*

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19 272 Here an ensemble of 43 climate scenarios was used to investigate the impact of solar radiation, as
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21 273 shown in Table 1. The observed changes in solar radiation resulted in anomalies of simulated
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23 274 wheat yield (ensemble mean of the 43 scenarios) that varied from -16.7% to 20.0% and -18.5% to
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25 275 36.6% at Beijing and Zhengzhou, respectively (Fig. 10). The simulated results indicate that solar
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27 276 radiation after dormancy plays the key role in final wheat yield (Table 3, 4). Anomalies of
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29 277 simulated maize yield caused by solar radiation anomalies varied between -29.8% and 24.8% at
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31 278 Beijing and between -24.9% and 23.8% at Zhengzhou (Fig. 11). In general, negative anomalies of
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33 279 solar radiation during crop growing season led to lower wheat yield due to reduced
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35 280 photosynthetically active radiation captured by the crops for biomass and yield accumulation.
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37 281 These results suggest that the reduction in solar radiation observed in the NCP would have
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39 282 decreased grain yields of wheat and maize in the 43 years of our study (Fig. 12). Simulated grain
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41 283 yield of both wheat and maize decreased significantly at Beijing ($P < 0.01$) and slightly at
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43 284 Zhengzhou. From 1961–2003, simulated yield decreased by $43.9 \text{ kg ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ($5.2\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$) for wheat
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45 285 and $54.9 \text{ kg ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ ($4.8\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$) for maize at Beijing. The greater reduction in solar radiation
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47 286 observed in Beijing (Fig. 3g) caused the greater reduction in crop yield.

52 287 *3.2.4. Isolated impact of precipitation*

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54 288 The ensemble approach was next applied to isolate the impact of precipitation. Due to the
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56 289 characteristically low precipitation observed in the NCP (Fig. 4), both wheat and maize yields
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3 290 under rainfed conditions are found to be very sensitive to the variations of precipitation (Fig. 13,
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5 291 14). Wheat yield in high precipitation seasons was found to be three- to four-fold higher than the
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7 292 average, while in some drier seasons, there was no grain yield produced. Compared to wheat,
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9 293 anomalies of maize yield were smaller due to the concentrated precipitation during the maize
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11 294 growing season, but the variations were still large due to inter-seasonal precipitation variability
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13 295 (Fig. 4).

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16 296 Simulated yield of wheat and maize showed that precipitation decrease in the studied 43 years
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18 297 tended to reduce crop yields under rainfed conditions (Fig. 15). The decreasing trends were large
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20 298 (for wheat: $-25.7 \text{ kg ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ at Beijing and $-63.3 \text{ kg ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ at Zhengzhou; for maize: -38.8 kg ha^{-1}
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22 299 yr^{-1} at Beijing and $-41.7 \text{ kg ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ at Zhengzhou). However, the large variations in rainfed
23
24 300 yield due to the interannual variation of precipitation caused the trends to be statistically non
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26 301 significant.

302 4. Discussion and conclusions

303 This study used a modeling approach, with climate scenarios built from combinations of observed
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305 climate variables and fixed crop cultivars, to disentangle the influence of the observed changes in
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307 climate variables on crop yields. This approach enabled us to quantify the changes in crop yield
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309 caused by a single weather variable in absence of changes in other climate variables and
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311 management options. Compared with some studies using regression analyses to investigate the
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313 impacts of climate variables and agronomic management on crop yields (Thompson, 1962; Dirks
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315 and Bolton, 1981; Lobell *et al.*, 2007), our approach demonstrates that cropping modeling
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317 facilitates the uncoupling.

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319 Overall, the climate has become warmer, drier and solar radiation has decreased during the 43
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321 years of our study at the two sites in the NCP. The variations in temperature reported here
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323 correspond well with large-scale patterns reported for China (Ding *et al.*, 2007), as well as with
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325 global temperature changes (IPCC, 2007). The variability and trends in solar radiation and
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3 315 precipitation of our study are consistent with the results at regional scale in the NCP and China
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5 316 (Liang and Xia, 2005, Song *et al.*, 2006; Fu *et al.*, 2009). Thus, the simulation results based on
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7 317 the observed climate data at the two study sites are representative of the NCP. Solar radiation
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9 318 variations might be caused by increased air pollution related to human activity (Qian *et al.*, 2006),
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11 319 while the precipitation variability and trends in the NCP have been linked to global drivers
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13 320 (Zhang *et al.*, 2003).

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16 321 Variations in temperature, solar radiation and precipitation in our study period altered simulated
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18 322 yields, and the impacts on crop yield were not uniform during different crop stages and across the
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20 323 NCP. Higher temperatures before the wheat dormancy stage had a positive effect on yields,
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22 324 especially in the northern part of the NCP, while increased temperatures after dormancy
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24 325 decreased wheat yield. In the NCP, the growth and yield of winter wheat is often affected by frost
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26 326 damage during the winter (Jin, 1996). The higher temperatures during the winter lessen the frost
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28 327 impacts on winter wheat and lead to high grain yields. However, temperature increase during the
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30 328 stage after dormancy shortens the growing period for winter wheat which results less time for
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32 329 photosynthesis including shorter grain-filling stage, accumulation of biomass and hence grain
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34 330 yield, which is inherently detrimental to final yield (Song *et al.*, 2006). Maize was negatively
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36 331 impacted by higher temperatures during its growing season. High levels of solar radiation had
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38 332 significant impacts on achieving high yields for both wheat and maize. The variability of wheat
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40 333 yield was mainly caused by the variability of solar radiation during the stage after dormancy.
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42 334 Under rainfed conditions, precipitation is the most important climate factor affecting crop yield in
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44 335 the NCP. Rainfed grain yield for both wheat and maize varied greatly due to precipitation
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46 336 variability, with very low yields in many seasons due to low precipitation, especially for wheat.
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48 337 Previous studies (Tao *et al.*, 2003; Liu *et al.*, 2009) showed that climate change in the past few
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50 338 decades led to negative impacts on crop yield potential in the NCP and especially emphasized the
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52 339 role played by the warming trend. Tao *et al.* (2003) reported that maximum and minimum
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54 340 temperatures in winter and spring during 1981-2000 at Zhengzhou in the NCP were negatively
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3 341 related to wheat yields based on Pearson correlation analyses. Fig. 16 shows the statistical
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5 342 relationship of temperature and baseline wheat yield for the WD1 and WD2 period at Beijing.
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7 343 From our baseline yield simulations, obtained from the combined effects of climate variables (see
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9 344 section 3.2.1), a similar relationship between mean temperature during WD1 and WD2 and
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11 345 simulated wheat yield was also found here. However, these results may be seriously misleading
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13 346 since the effects of other factors (such as solar radiation) were not excluded. Our ensemble
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15 347 simulations show that the changes in solar radiation exert a much stronger impact on the
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17 348 variability and trend on crop yield (Fig. 10-12, Table 3). The temperature increase in 1961-2003
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19 349 resulted in slightly reduced wheat yield due to the joint effects of temperature increase during the
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21 350 stages before and after dormancy, and in decreased maize yield, especially in the northern
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23 351 location of the NCP. The decline in solar radiation decreased significantly crop yields by 5.2%
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25 352 yr^{-1} for wheat and 4.8% yr^{-1} for maize at Beijing, respectively. Compared with the impact of
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27 353 temperature increase, the magnitude of reduction in crop yield caused by solar radiation decrease
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29 354 was larger. The decrease in wheat yield caused by solar radiation was 53.8 times and 1.8 times
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31 355 larger than that caused by temperature at Beijing and Zhengzhou, respectively. The corresponding
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33 356 decrease in maize yield was 1.8 times at Zhengzhou (the decreased maize yield caused by solar
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35 357 radiation in Beijing was similar to that caused by temperature). Although the decreasing trend in
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37 358 rainfed yield was large as a result of precipitation decrease, the huge year-to-year variability of
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39 359 precipitation made the rainfed yield trends less prominent.
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44 360 The simulation results indicated that failure to take into account the effects of solar radiation
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46 361 might result in inaccurate estimates of crop production affected by climate change in the study
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48 362 area. It should be kept in mind that the simulated crop yield change caused by temperature should
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50 363 be interpreted cautiously. The current simulations conducted did not consider the impact of
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52 364 extreme temperature (e.g. heat stress during grain filling) on crop yield. Considering this, the
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54 365 impacts of temperature increase on crop yield might be underestimated.
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3 366 Climate variability and change in the NCP during the last four decades may be partly driven by
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5 367 global warming, and to a large extent, by rapid regional industrial development. The warming
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7 368 trend is predicted to continue in the future 20 to 100 years, with a warming rate that will depend
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9 369 on emission scenarios (Ding *et al.*, 2007). There are many uncertainties regarding future changes
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11 370 in precipitation and solar radiation. One scenario would be that environmental conditions are not
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14 371 improved due to industrial development. In that case, the decreased solar radiation would further
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16 372 reduce the crop potential yields in the future. If environmental conditions are improved in the
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18 373 future and emissions of aerosols are reduced (Wild *et al.*, 2005), solar radiation would increase.
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20 374 However, an increase in solar radiation, together with the projected warmer environment, would
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22 375 lead to worsen water shortages in the NCP, which may ultimately result in decreased crop yield
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24 376 due to crop water stress.

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27 377 Attempting to assess the impacts of each climate variable, i.e. temperature, solar radiation and
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29 378 precipitation, this study created climate scenarios consisting of possible combinations of observed
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31 379 climate variations. Although these scenarios are not real, the conclusions drawn from the study
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33 380 help to understand how the variations in climatic factor affected crop production in the NCP. The
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35 381 results also have several implications for evaluating the impacts of future climate variability and
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37 382 change on crop production. The combinations of one climate variable with other variables during
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39 383 the study period were considered because only one scenario cannot prescribe long-term climate
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41 384 mean due to large interannual climate variability, such as precipitation. While only temperature,
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43 385 solar radiation and precipitation were considered in this study, it is necessary to include other
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45 386 factors, such as CO₂ concentration and relative humidity to provide more accurate information for
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47 387 assessing the impact of climate change on crop production. It is essential to further consider how
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49 388 the changes in these climate variables and their interactions affect agriculture in the future. The
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51 389 characteristics of the change in climatic factors during different crop growth stages might have
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53 390 different effects on final grain yield, which also needs further research.
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3 392 **Acknowledgements**
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6
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10
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13 397 NA050AR4311004, and the Earth Institute at Columbia University.
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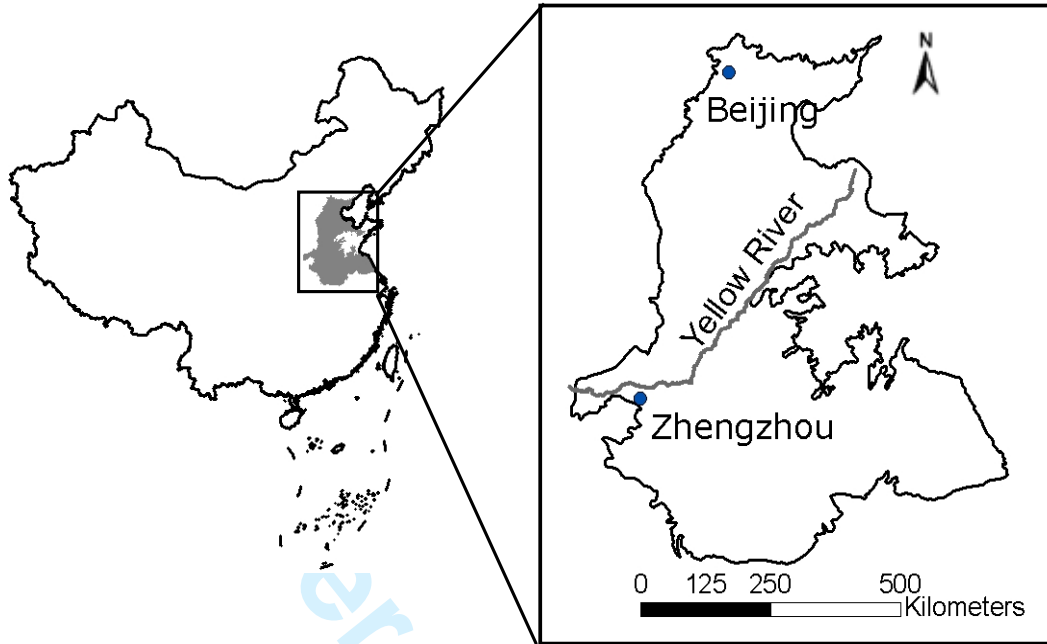
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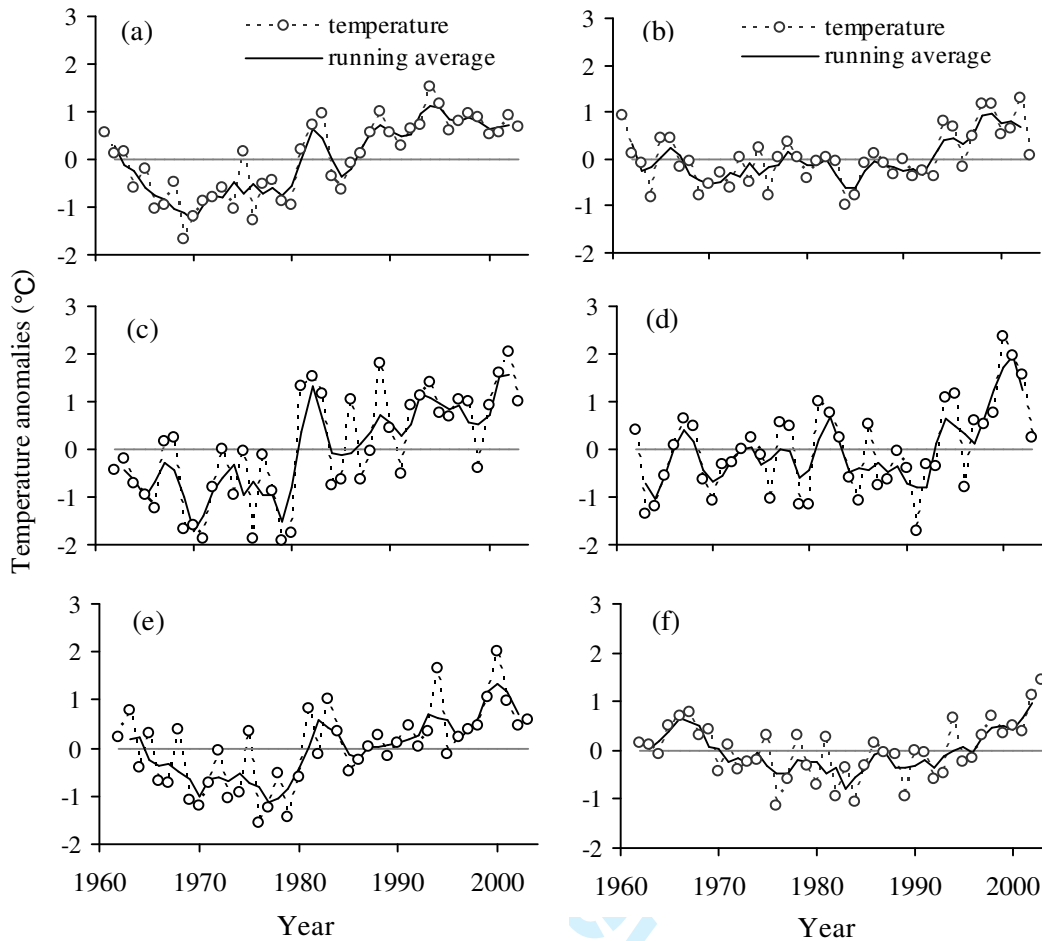
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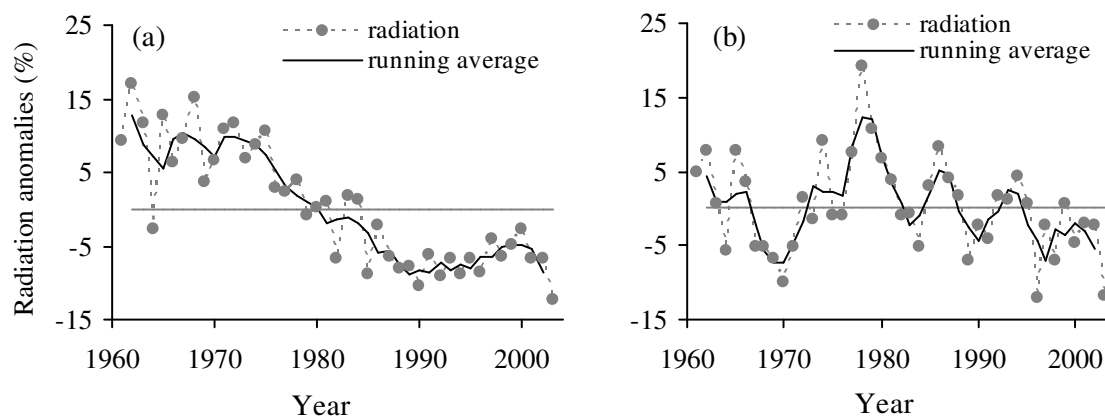
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516 Fig. 1. The North China Plain and the two study sites: Beijing and Zhengzhou.



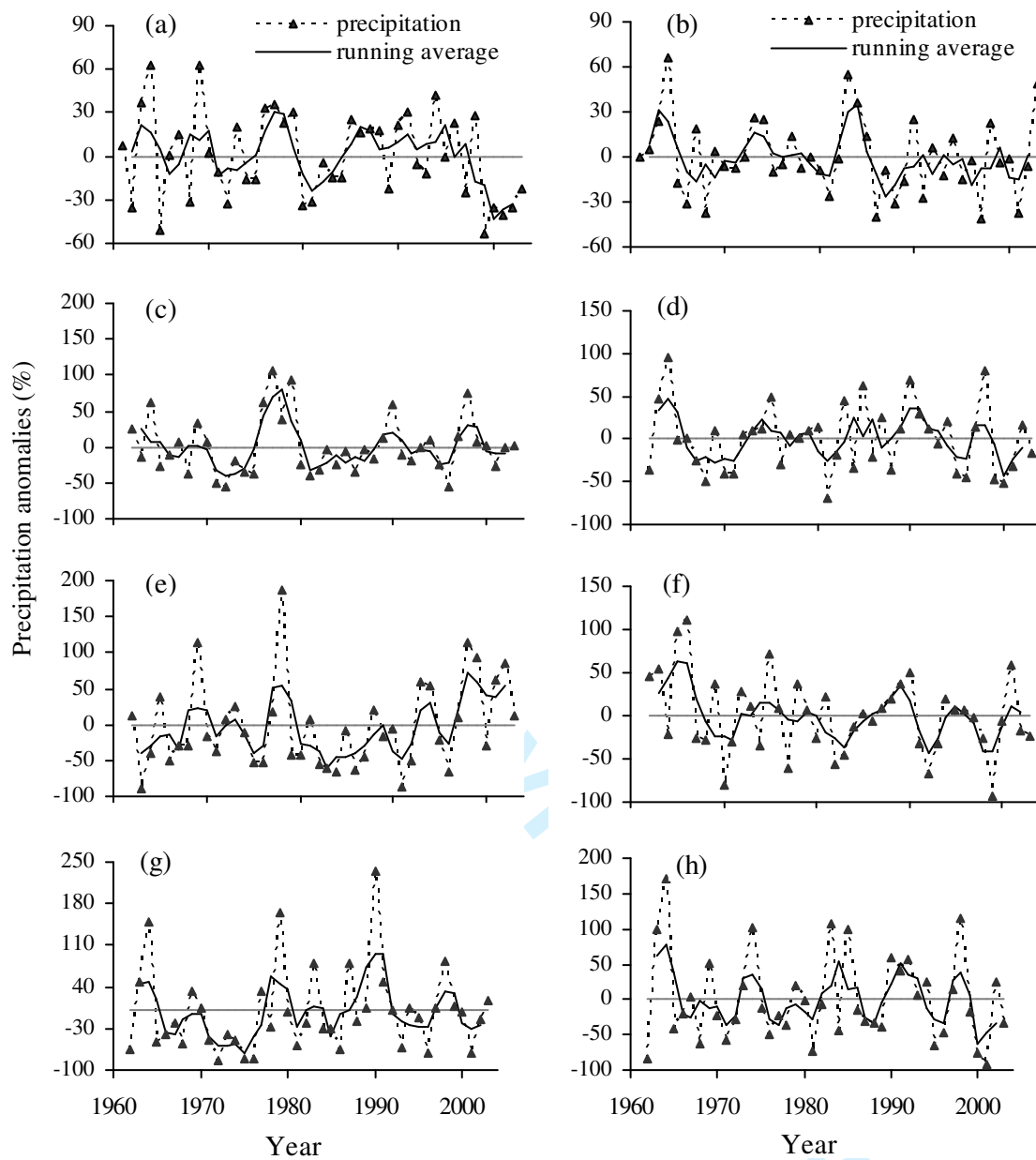
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518 Fig. 2. Anomalies of mean temperature during the whole year (a, b), the stage after wheat
 519 dormancy (c, d) and maize growing season (e, f) from 1961–2003 at Beijing (left panel) and
 520 Zhengzhou (right panel) in the NCP. Obtained time series of temperature anomalies were
 521 smoothed by a 3-yr running average.



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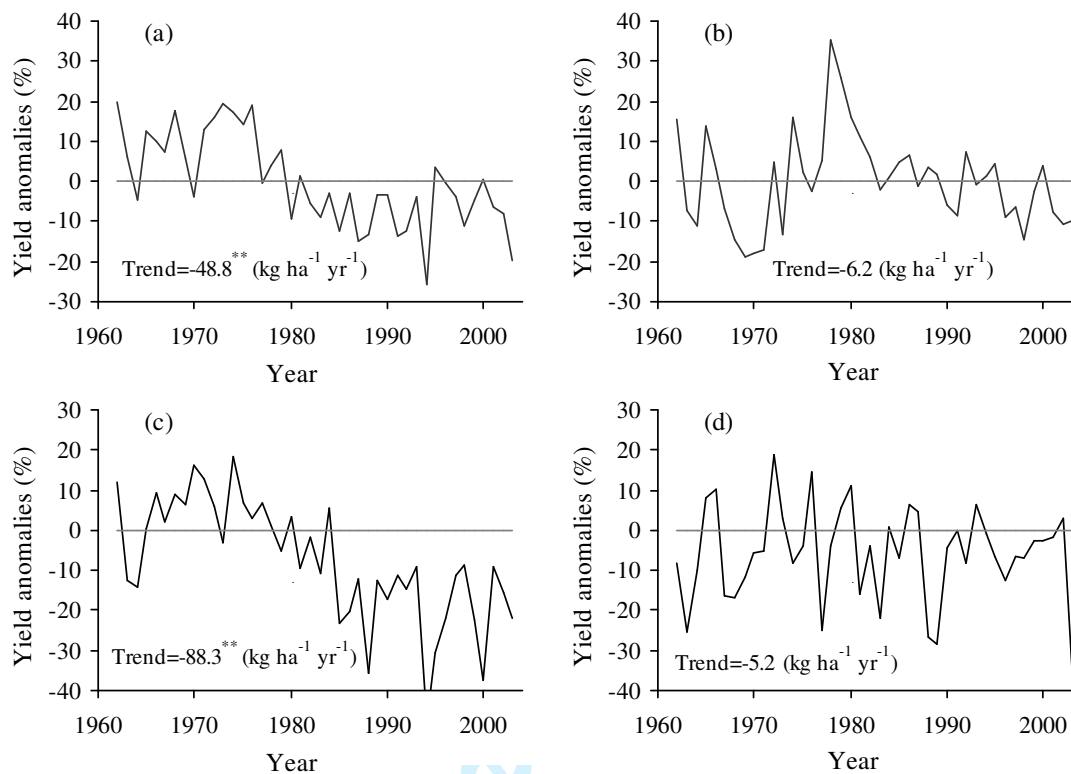
523 Fig. 3. Anomalies of annual solar radiation (a, b) during 1961–2003 at Beijing (left panel) and
524 Zhengzhou (right panel) in the NCP. Obtained time series of solar radiation anomalies were
525 smoothed by a 3-yr running average.



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527 Fig. 4. Anomalies of precipitation during the whole year (a, b), wheat growing season, (c, d), the
 528 stage before wheat dormancy (e, f), the stage after wheat dormancy (g, h) from 1961–2003 at
 529 Beijing (left panel) and Zhengzhou (right panel) in the NCP. Obtained time series of precipitation
 530 anomalies were smoothed by a 3-yr running average.

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Fig. 5. Anomalies of baseline yield from crop model driven by combined effects of temperature,

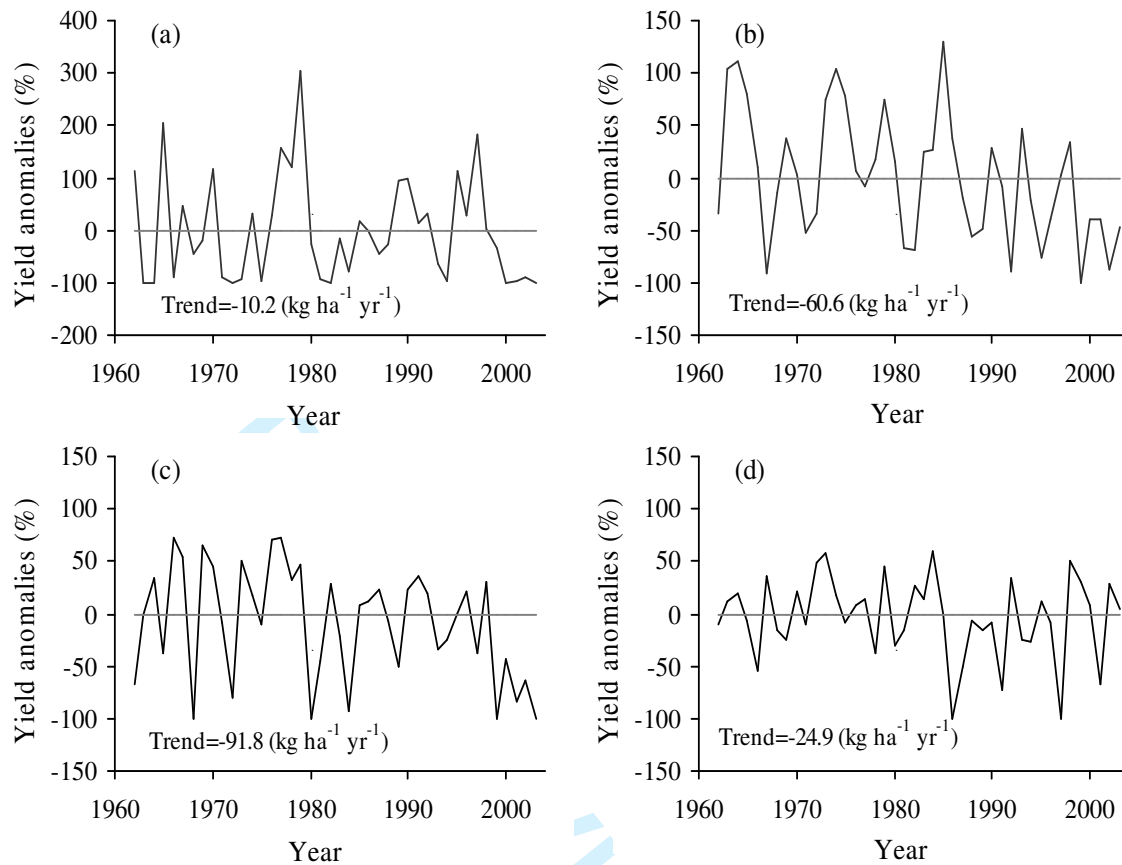
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solar radiation and precipitation under potential conditions for wheat (panels a, b) and maize

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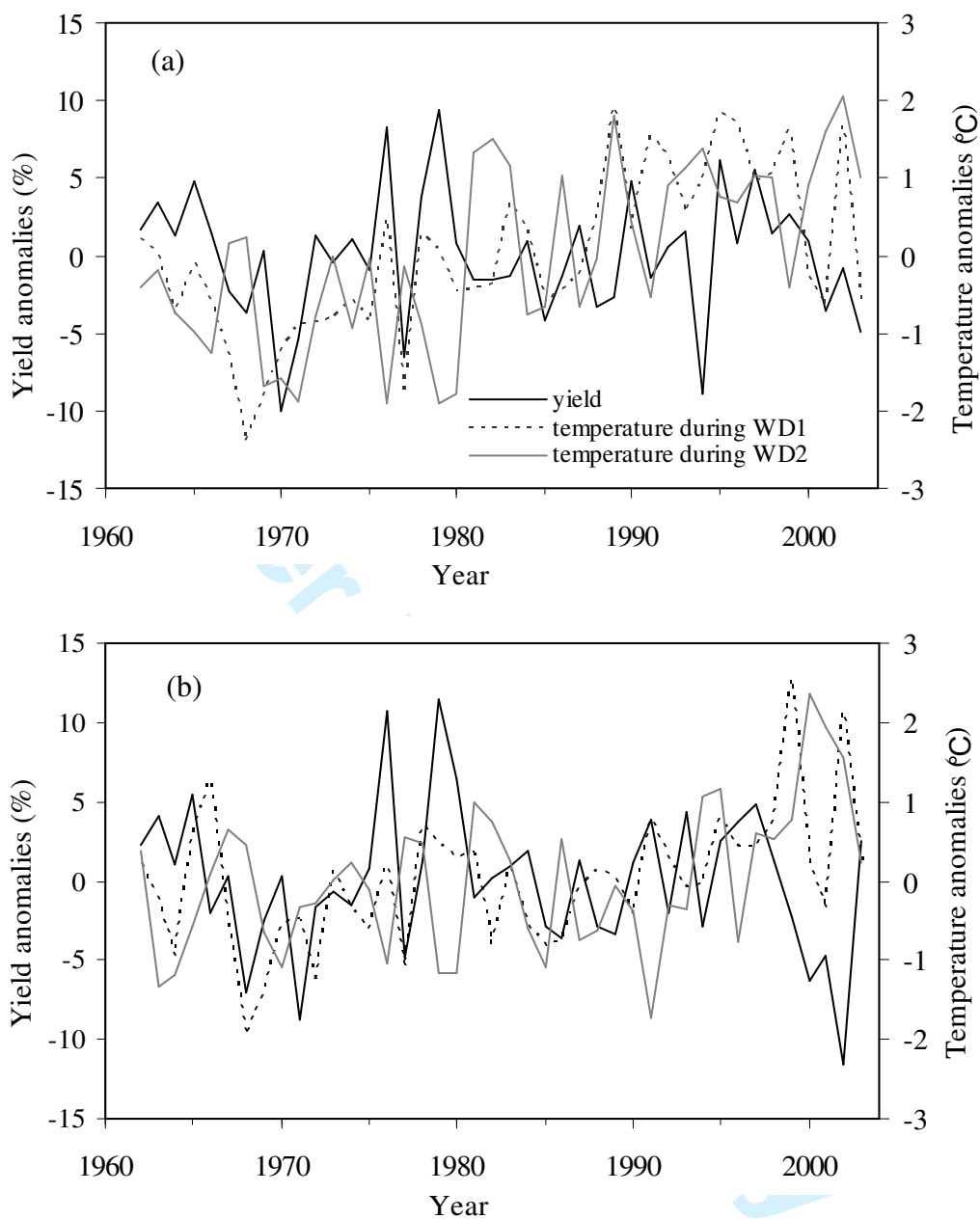
(panels c, d) at Beijing (a, c) and Zhengzhou (b, d).

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537 Fig. 6. Anomalies of baseline yield from crop model driven by combined effects of temperature,
 538 solar radiation and precipitation under rainfed conditions for wheat (panels a, b) and maize
 539 (panels c, d) at Beijing (a, c) and Zhengzhou (b, d).

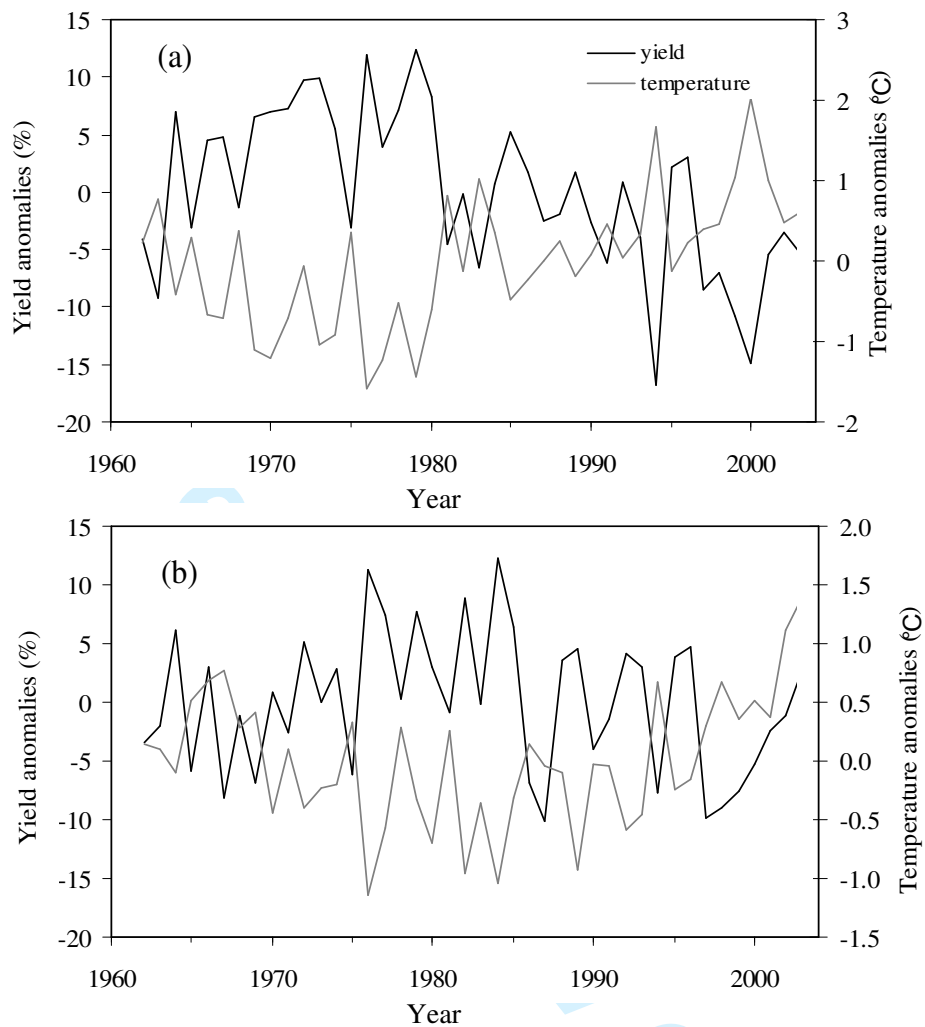


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541 Fig. 7. Isolated impact of temperature on anomalies of wheat yield (%) and temperature

542 anomalies (°C) during the stages before wheat dormancy (WD1) and after wheat dormancy (WD2)

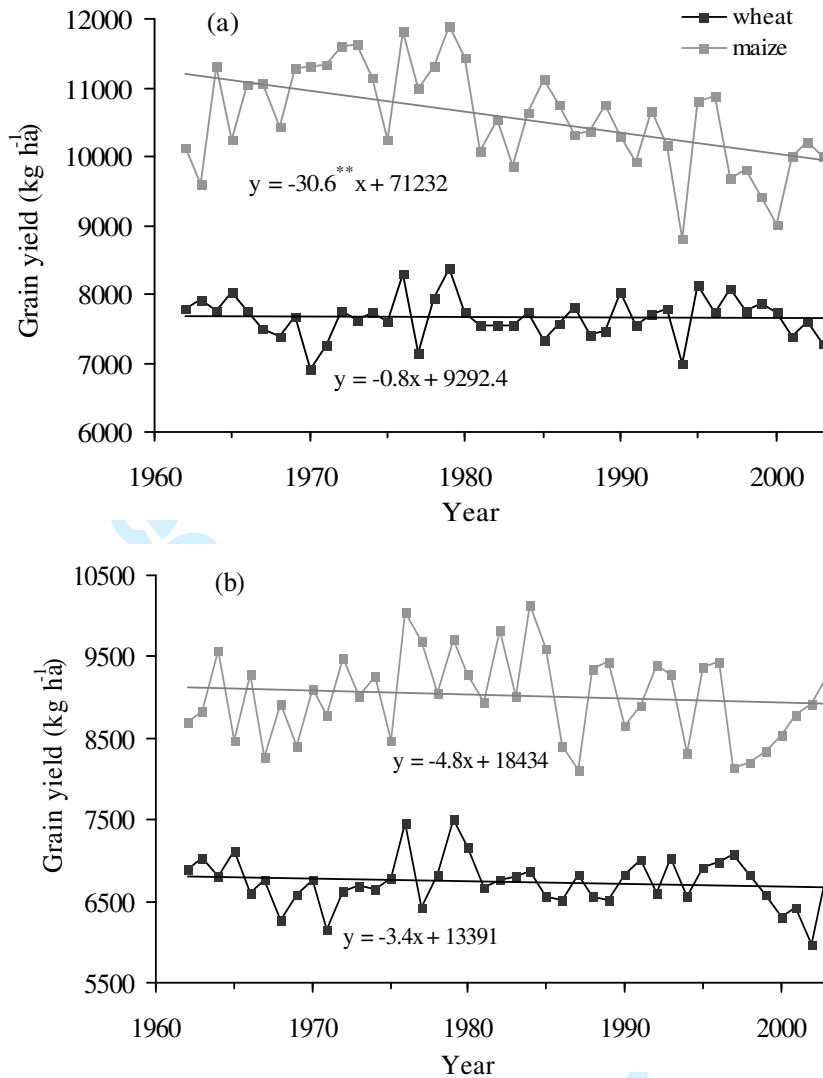
543 at Beijing (a) and Zhengzhou (b).



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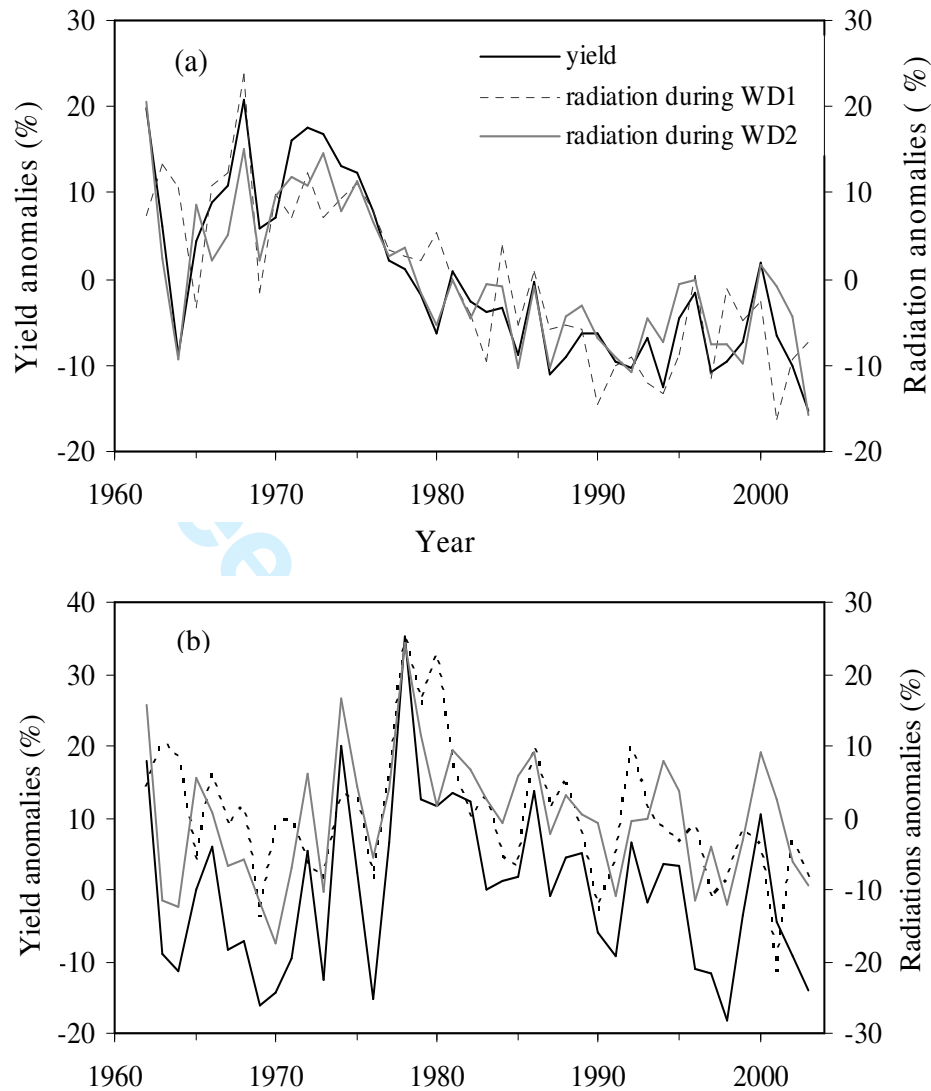
545 Fig. 8. Isolated impact of temperature on anomalies of maize yield (%) and temperature

546 anomalies (°C) during maize growing season at Beijing (a) and Zhengzhou (b).



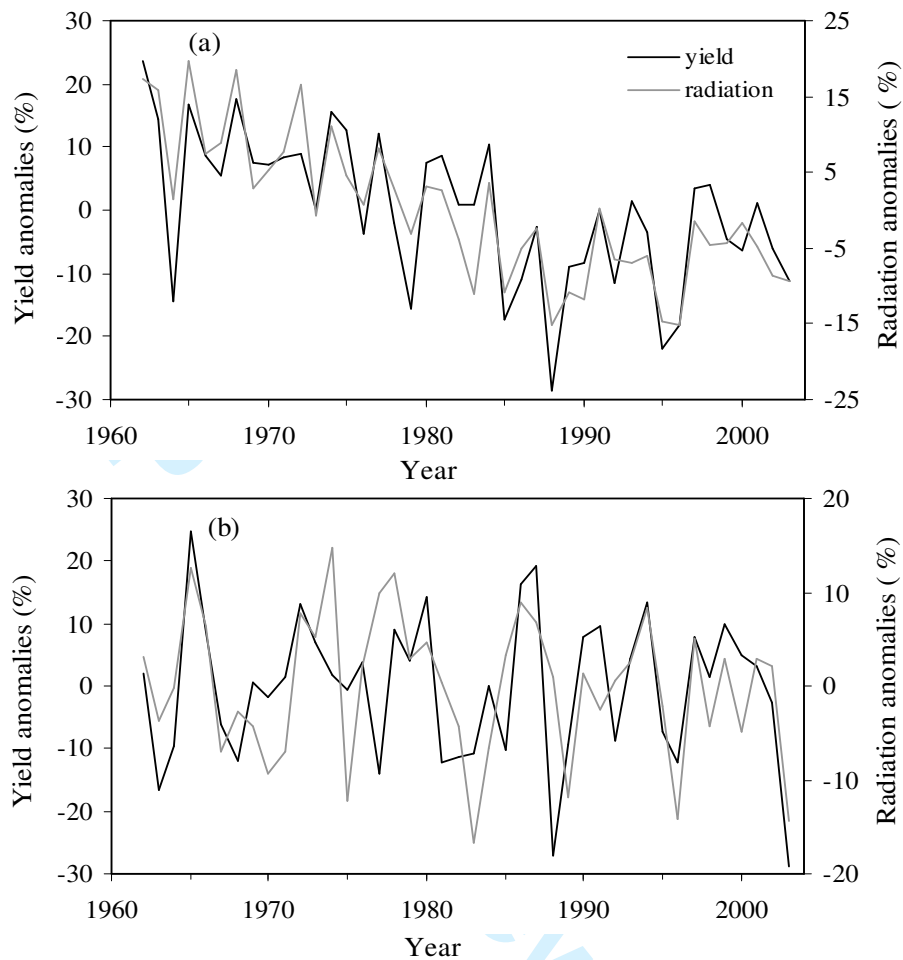
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548 Fig. 9. The simulated yield of wheat and maize under fully irrigated conditions affected by the
 549 changes in temperature from 1962–2003 at Beijing (a) and Zhengzhou (b). Straight lines show the
 550 linear trends. ** Significant at $p < 0.01$.



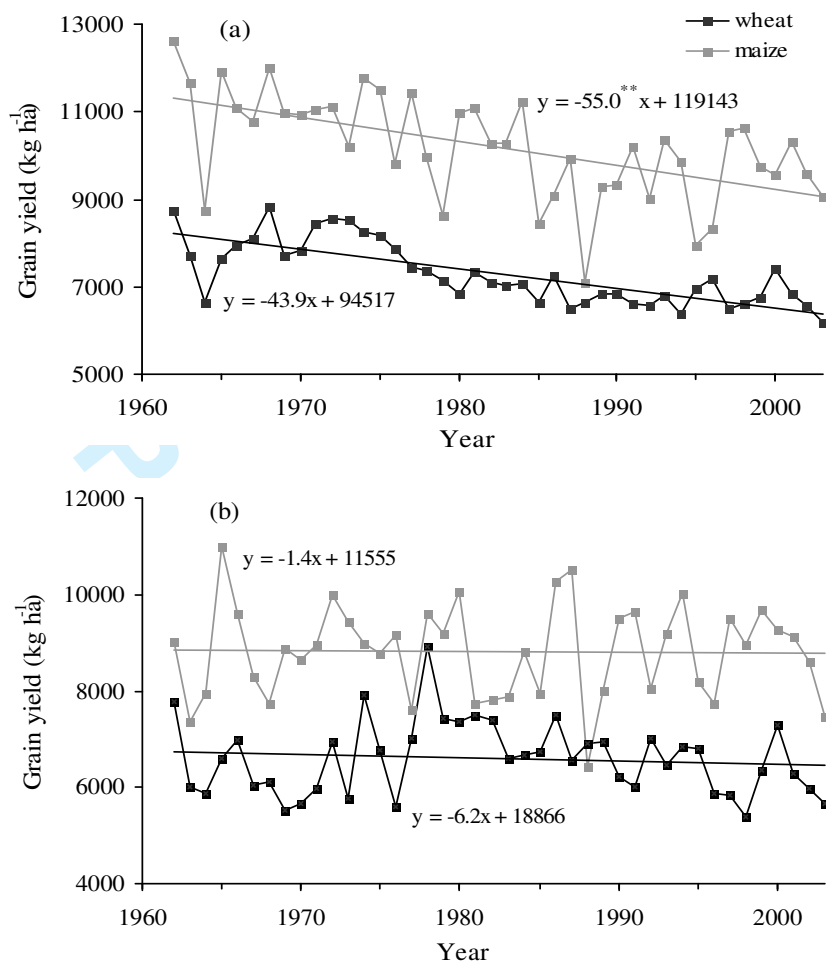
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552 Fig. 10. Isolated impact of solar radiation on anomalies of wheat yield (%) and solar radiation
 553 anomalies (%) during the stages before wheat dormancy (WD1) and after wheat dormancy (WD2)
 554 at Beijing (a) and Zhengzhou (b).



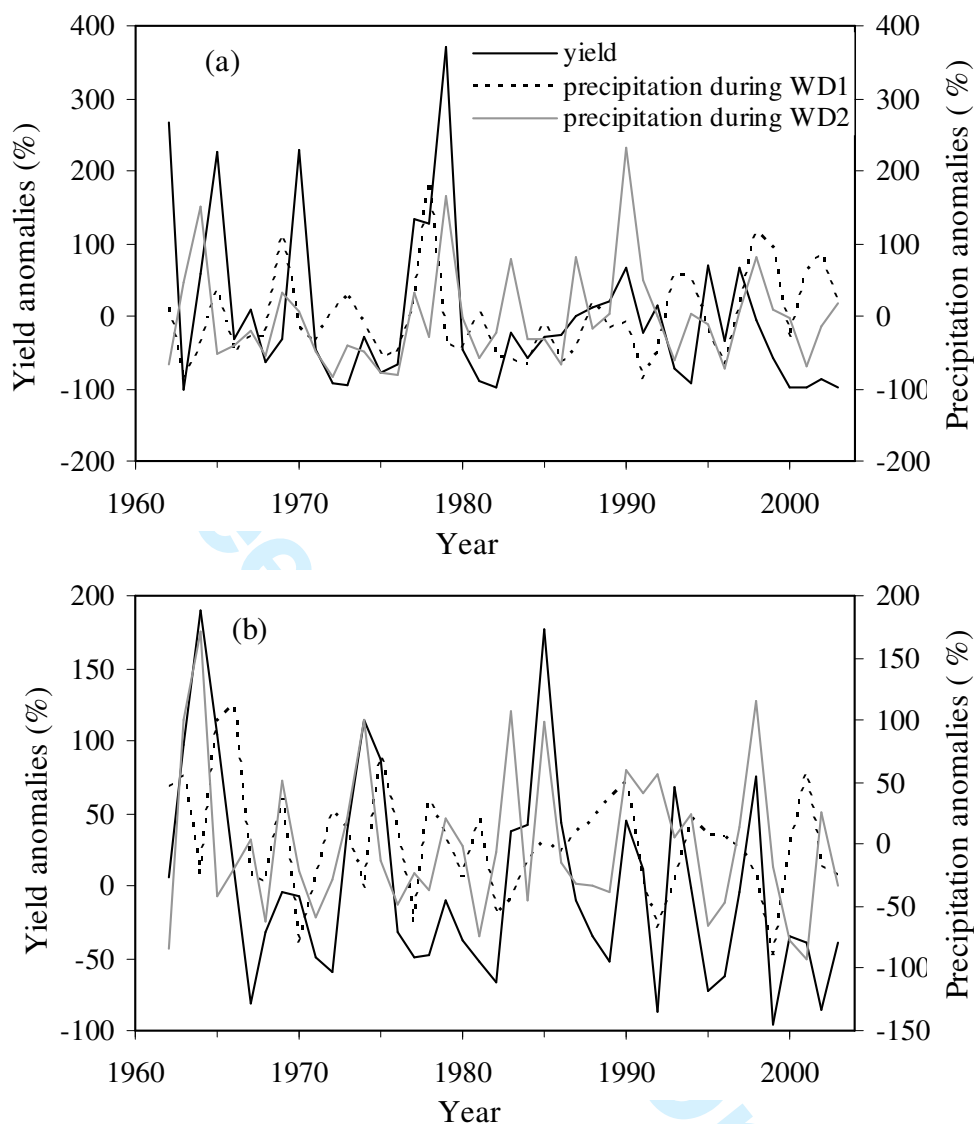
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556 Fig. 11. Isolated impact of solar radiation on anomalies of maize yield (%) and solar radiation
557 anomalies (%) during maize growing season at Beijing (a) and Zhengzhou (b).



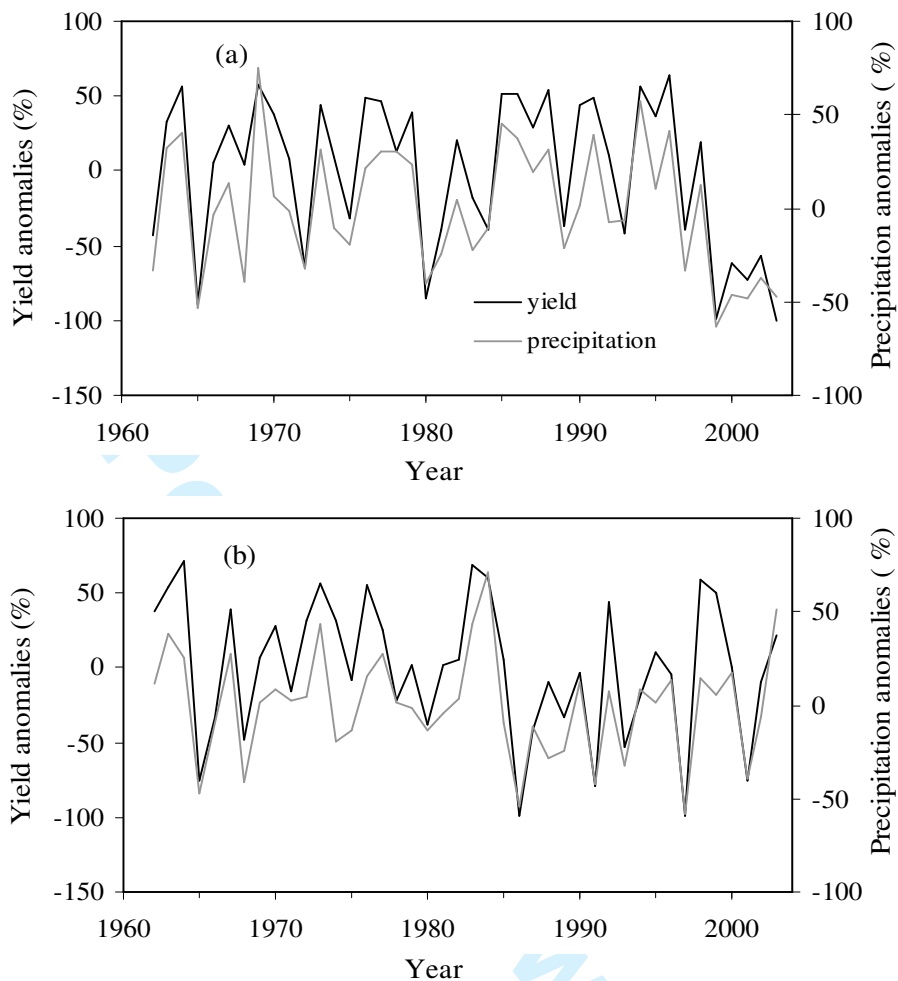
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559 Fig. 12. The simulated yield of wheat and maize under fully irrigated conditions affected by the
 560 trends in solar radiation from 1962–2003 at Beijing (a) and Zhengzhou (b). Straight lines show
 561 the linear trends. ** Significant at $p < 0.01$.



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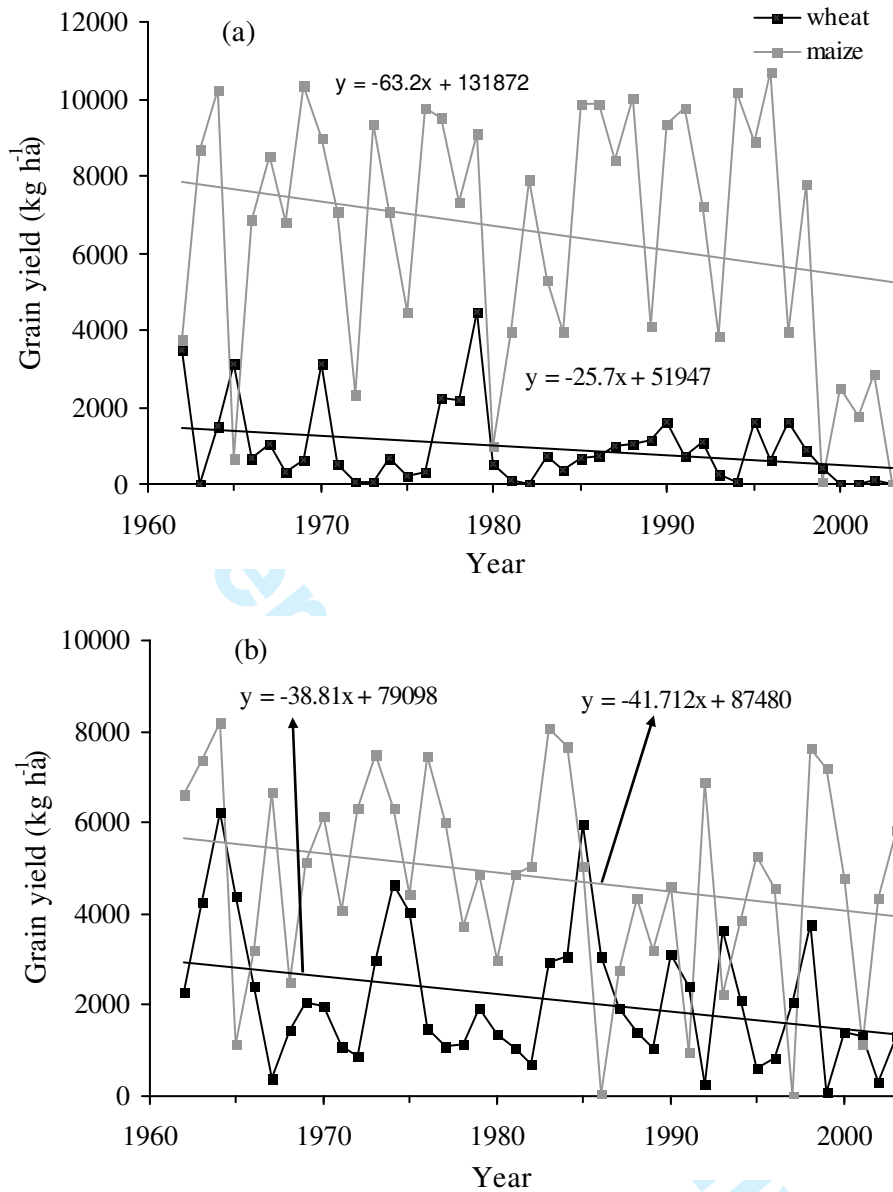
563 Fig. 13. Isolated impact of precipitation on anomalies of wheat yield (%) and precipitation
564 anomalies (%) during the stages before wheat dormancy (WD1) and after wheat dormancy (WD2)
565 at Beijing (a) and Zhengzhou (b).



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567 Fig. 14. Isolated impact of precipitation on anomalies of maize yield (%) and precipitation
 568 anomalies (%) during maize growing season at Beijing (a) and Zhengzhou (b).

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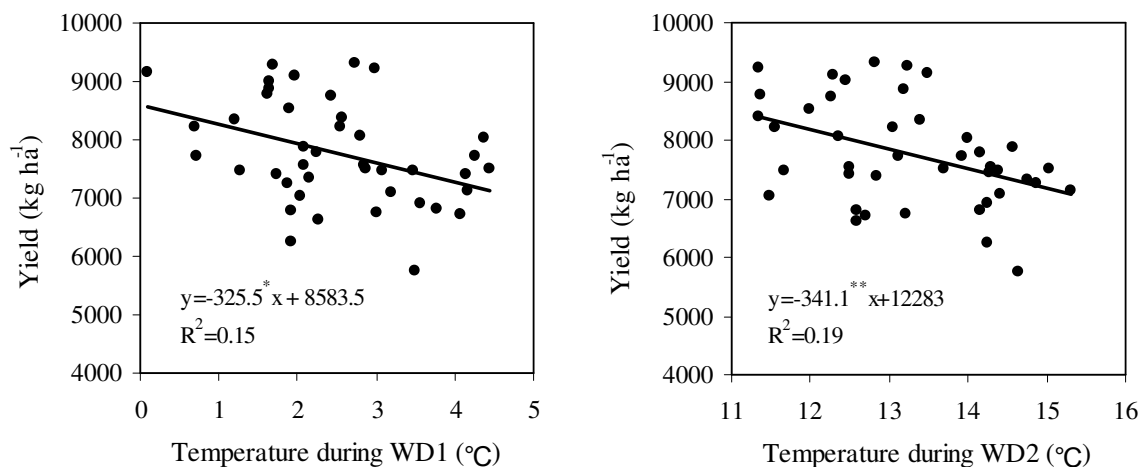


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570 Fig. 15. The simulated yield of wheat and Maize under rainfed conditions affected by the changes

571 in precipitation from 1962–2003 at Beijing (a) and Zhengzhou (b). Straight lines show the linear

572 trends. **Significant at $p < 0.01$.



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574 Fig. 16. Relationship between simulated wheat potential yield and mean temperature during the
575 stages before wheat dormancy (WD1) (a) and after wheat dormancy (WD2) (b) at Beijing.

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576 Table 1 Climate scenarios designed to analyze the effects of the variations in temperature on crop
 577 yield in the simulation study

Scenarios	Time series of Temperature (maximum and minimum)	Time series of Solar radiation	Time series of precipitation
1	1961–2003	1961	1961
2	1961–2003	1962	1962
3	1961–2003	1963	1963
4	1961–2003	1964	1964
5	1961–2003	1965	1965
6	1961–2003	1966	1966
7	1961–2003	1967	1967
8	1961–2003	1968	1968
9	1961–2003	1969	1969
10	1961–2003	1970	1970
11	1961–2003	1971	1971
12	1961–2003	1972	1972
13	1961–2003	1973	1973
14	1961–2003	1974	1974
15	1961–2003	1975	1975
16	1961–2003	1976	1976
17	1961–2003	1977	1977
18	1961–2003	1978	1978
19	1961–2003	1979	1979
20	1961–2003	1980	1980
21	1961–2003	1981	1981
22	1961–2003	1982	1982
23	1961–2003	1983	1983
24	1961–2003	1984	1984
25	1961–2003	1985	1985
26	1961–2003	1986	1986
27	1961–2003	1987	1987
28	1961–2003	1988	1988
29	1961–2003	1989	1989
30	1961–2003	1990	1990
31	1961–2003	1991	1991
32	1961–2003	1992	1992
33	1961–2003	1993	1993
34	1961–2003	1994	1994
35	1961–2003	1995	1995
36	1961–2003	1996	1996
37	1961–2003	1997	1997
38	1961–2003	1998	1998
39	1961–2003	1999	1999
40	1961–2003	2000	2000
41	1961–2003	2001	2001
42	1961–2003	2002	2002
43	1961–2003	2003	2003

578 Table 2 Trends in mean temperature, solar radiation and precipitation in the whole year, wheat season, the stage before dormancy (WD1), the
 579 stage after dormancy (WD2) and maize season during 1961–2003 at the two study sites in the NCP.

Site	Period	Mean temperature		Solar radiation		Precipitation	
		Trend (°C/decade)	R ²	Trend (MJ/m ² / decade)	R ²	Trend (mm/ decade)	R ²
Beijing	Annual	0.43**	0.46	-291.8**	0.72	-15.2	0.01
	Wheat season	0.55**	0.51	-161.5**	0.63	7.2	0.03
	WD1	0.53**	0.40	-86.0**	0.61	3.6	0.01
	WD2	0.58**	0.37	-76.6**	0.46	3.5	0.03
	Maize season	0.34**	0.27	-131.4**	0.59	-24.1*	0.14
Zhengzhou	Annual	0.17**	0.14	-57.3	0.02	-5.6	0.02
	Wheat season	0.32**	0.30	-36.4	0.04	-4.1	0.001
	WD1	0.31**	0.20	-34.4*	0.10	-9.7	0.07
	WD2	0.31**	0.17	-2.5	0.001	-6.0	0.01
	Maize season	0.08	0.03	-18.2	0.02	-1.1*	0.06

580 **Significant at P<0.01;

581 *Significant at P<0.05.

582 Table 3 Correlation coefficients between the anomalies of simulated wheat and maize yield and the anomalies of temperature in isolation, solar
 583 radiation in isolation and precipitation in isolation at Beijing and Zhengzhou. AWH and AMZ represent the anomalies of wheat yield and maize
 584 yield, respectively. ATBD, ATAD, ARBD, ARAD, APBD and APAD represent the anomalies of temperature before dormancy, temperature after
 585 dormancy, radiation before dormancy, radiation after dormancy, precipitation before dormancy and precipitation after dormancy respectively
 586 during wheat growing season. AT, AR, and AP represent the anomalies of temperature, radiation and precipitation during maize growing season

Factors	AWH		Factors	AMZ	
	Beijing	Zhengzhou		Beijing	Zhengzhou
ATBD	0.27*	0.26*	AT	-0.75**	-0.55**
ATAD	-0.21*	-0.33**	AR	0.66**	0.44**
ARBD	0.57**	0.44**	AP	0.79**	0.65**
ARAD	0.79**	0.74**			
APBD	0.07	0.17			
APAD	0.25*	0.31**			

587 **Significant at $P < 0.01$;

588 *Significant at $P < 0.05$.

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589 Table 4 The ratio of variance of mean simulated grain yield (σ^2_{mean}) and that of all simulated grain yield from the ensemble (σ^2_{all}) during 1961-
590 2003. $\sigma^2_{\text{mean,T}}/\sigma^2_{\text{all,T}}$ represents the ratio of σ^2_{mean} and σ^2_{all} where grain yield was affected by temperature; $\sigma^2_{\text{mean,SR}}/\sigma^2_{\text{all,SR}}$ represents the ratio of
591 σ^2_{mean} and σ^2_{all} where grain yield was affected by solar radiation; $\sigma^2_{\text{mean,P}}/\sigma^2_{\text{all,P}}$ represents the ratio of σ^2_{mean} and σ^2_{all} where grain yield was
592 affected by precipitation.

Site	$\sigma^2_{\text{mean,T}}/\sigma^2_{\text{all,T}}$		$\sigma^2_{\text{mean,SR}}/\sigma^2_{\text{all,SR}}$		$\sigma^2_{\text{mean,P}}/\sigma^2_{\text{all,P}}$	
	Wheat	Maize	Wheat	Maize	Wheat	Maize
Beijing	0.11	0.22	0.39	0.62	0.75	0.88
Zhengzhou	0.13	0.16	0.48	0.61	0.88	0.80

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