

1 **UNCERTAINTIES IN PROJECTED IMPACTS OF CLIMATE**
2 **CHANGE ON EUROPEAN AGRICULTURE AND TERRESTRIAL**
3 **ECOSYSTEMS BASED ON SCENARIOS FROM REGIONAL**
4 **CLIMATE MODELS**

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4 *Climatic Change*

1 **Abstract.** The uncertainties and sources of variation in projected impacts of climate
2 change on agriculture and terrestrial ecosystems depend not only on the emission
3 scenarios and climate models used for projecting future climates, but also on the impact
4 models used, and the local soil and climatic conditions of the managed or unmanaged
5 ecosystems under study. We addressed these uncertainties by applying different impact
6 models at site, regional and continental scales, and by separating the variation in
7 simulated relative changes in ecosystem performance into the different sources of
8 uncertainty and variation using analyses of variance. The crop and ecosystem models
9 used output from a range of global and regional climate models (GCMs and RCMs)
10 projecting climate change over Europe between 1961-1990 and 2071-2100 under the
11 IPCC SRES scenarios. The projected impacts on productivity of crops and ecosystems
12 included the direct effects of increased CO₂ concentration on photosynthesis. The
13 variation in simulated results attributed to differences between the climate models were,
14 in all cases, smaller than the variation attributed to either emission scenarios or local
15 conditions. The methods used for applying the climate model outputs played a larger
16 role than the choice of the GCM or RCM. The thermal suitability for grain maize
17 cultivation in Europe was estimated to expand by 30 to 50% across all SRES emissions
18 scenarios. Strong increases in net primary productivity (NPP) (35 to 54%) were
19 projected in northern European ecosystems as a result of a longer growing season and
20 higher CO₂ concentrations. Changing water balance dominated the projected responses
21 of southern European ecosystems, with NPP declining or increasing only slightly
22 relative to present-day conditions. Both site and continental scale models showed large
23 increases in yield of rain-fed winter wheat for northern Europe, with smaller increases
24 or even decreases in southern Europe. Site-based, regional and continental scale models

1 showed large spatial variations in the response of nitrate leaching from winter wheat
2 cultivation to projected climate change due to strong interactions with soils and climate.
3 The variation in simulated impacts was smaller between scenarios based on RCMs
4 nested within the same GCM than between scenarios based on different GCMs or
5 between emission scenarios.

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7

8 **1. Introduction**

9

10 General circulation models (GCMs) are capable of providing information on most of the
11 climate variables of interest in modelling impacts on crops, trees and natural vegetation
12 (e.g. air temperature, precipitation, humidity, radiation and wind speed), but at
13 horizontal spatial scales of several hundreds of kilometres, which is considerably
14 coarser than the typical scale of the impacts (Mearns et al., 2001). The outputs from
15 GCMs are most often unsuitable as direct inputs to impact studies due to their inability
16 to resolve sub-grid scale processes such as those affecting the regional precipitation
17 (Mearns et al., 2003). For this reason GCM outputs are typically extracted at a monthly
18 time scale, and differences between modelled present-day and future climate are used to
19 perturb an observed reference climate.

20 As there is an increasing need to evaluate the impacts of climate change on
21 agriculture and ecosystems at a regional level, the coarse resolution of GCMs has been
22 cited as a serious limitation (O'Brien et al., 2004). Climate scenarios with higher spatial
23 resolution can be obtained by statistically downscaling GCM projections, by using
24 outputs from high or variable resolution GCMs, or by dynamical downscaling with high

1 resolution regional climate models (RCMs) driven by initial and boundary conditions
2 supplied by a GCM (Mearns et al., 2001, 2003). Impacts obtained using downscaled
3 information from GCMs can be different from those obtained using scenarios based on
4 GCM outputs alone (e.g., Carbone et al., 2003; Tsvetsinskaya et al., 2003). However,
5 since there are uncertainties associated with various downscaling procedures, there can
6 be no guarantee that scenarios developed at higher resolution are any more reliable or
7 accurate than those based on direct GCM outputs (Mearns et al., 2003).

8 Besides the uncertainties involved with the generation of climate change
9 scenarios, there are a number of additional uncertainties in climate change impact
10 studies, which also need attention (Figure 1). The socio-economic drivers that influence
11 greenhouse gas emissions (e.g. population, economic development and level of
12 technology) also provide the context in which the impacts of climate change occur and
13 adaptation takes place. The emissions, in turn, determine the levels of atmospheric CO₂
14 concentration that influence plant photosynthesis and water use. Impact models
15 themselves vary in structure and complexity giving rise to different projected impacts,
16 although for ecosystem productivity, models most often given similar results (e.g.,
17 Semenov et al., 1996). The response to climate change is often closely tied to the
18 prevailing soil and climatic conditions in a particular location or region (Wassenaar et
19 al., 1999). Additionally, adaptation, in particular in agriculture, may offset negative
20 impacts or increase benefits compared with assuming unchanged (baseline)
21 management (e.g., Alexandrov et al., 2002). All of these issues will add to the
22 uncertainties in projected impacts of climate change.

23 This paper estimates the uncertainties involved in projecting impacts of climate
24 change on European agricultural and terrestrial ecosystems. It also explores the merits

1 of alternative methods of scenario construction and application for use in impact
2 assessments. The large ensemble of RCM outputs generated for Europe in the
3 PRUDENCE project for the periods 1961-1990 and 2071-2100 (Christensen et al.,
4 2006) are used to compare variations in impacts obtained for scenarios based on many
5 different RCMs, for the variation between RCMs and their driving GCMs, and between
6 RCM-based and GCM-based scenarios assuming alternative greenhouse gas emissions
7 scenarios. A range of different impact models and indices are used for this purpose,
8 with the primary objective to examine the uncertainties involved in applying outputs
9 from RCMs and GCMs in impact studies, compared with the uncertainties involved in
10 scenario application, type of impact model, and effects of location conditions (e.g. soil
11 and irrigation).

12

13

14 **2. Materials and methods**

15

16 The analyses were designed to explore some of the sources of uncertainty shown in
17 Figure 1. A range of impact models was applied at different scales. Not all impact
18 studies considered the full range of uncertainty sources, but together the results give a
19 comprehensive picture of the uncertainties in climate change impacts on agriculture and
20 terrestrial ecosystems, although the interaction with technological improvements and
21 socio-economic drivers was not considered in the analyses.

22 Models of ecosystem impacts were applied at different temporal and spatial scales
23 to simulate present day and future conditions. Climate changes were represented using
24 scenarios based on a range of RCMs, each driven by outputs from one or more GCMs

1 describing baseline climate conditions for 1961-1990 and climate under the SRES A2
2 and B2 emissions scenarios for 2071-2100 (Nakicenovic et al., 2000). Additional
3 comparisons were made with alternative GCMs and with the A1FI and B1 emissions
4 scenarios for 2071-2100.

5

6 2.1. Impact models

7

8 Site-based crop models (Daisy, CERES and CropSyst) were applied to study impacts of
9 climate change on crops and cropping systems in Denmark and Spain, reflecting
10 northern and southern European conditions, respectively. These models require daily
11 climate data, detailed data on soil conditions and information on crop management. The
12 response of terrestrial ecosystem net primary productivity (NPP) across Europe was
13 evaluated using the LPJ-GUESS ecosystem model. The response of potential water
14 availability (PWA) in the Mediterranean region was analysed using a simple water
15 balance model. At the European level, simple indices were used to analyse the
16 suitability for grain maize cultivation, the yield (YLD) of winter wheat and the nitrate
17 leaching (NL) from winter wheat cultivation. These latter models on (sub-)continental
18 scale made use of the CRU 0.5° latitude × 0.5° longitude interpolated monthly
19 observational climate data set (New et al., 1999, 2000).

20

21 2.1.1. *Site-based crop models*

22

23 The Daisy dynamic soil-plant-atmosphere model (Hansen et al., 1991; Olesen et al.,
24 2004) was used to analyse the interaction of climate change and nitrogen (N) cycling for

1 continuous winter wheat in Denmark. An adaptive response was introduced by
2 assuming the sowing date to be delayed by 5 days for each 1 °C increase in mean
3 temperature (Olesen et al., 2000). The model was run for five different rates of fertiliser
4 N (50 to 250 kg N ha⁻¹), and the optimal N fertiliser rate was estimated for maximum
5 profit at a grain price of 100 €Mg⁻¹ for grain with 85% dry matter and a fertiliser price
6 of 0.5 €kg⁻¹ N (Petersen, 2005). The grain yield and N leaching were then estimated for
7 the optimal N fertiliser rate. The study used daily climate data from site based climate
8 stations as baseline data for the period 1961 to 2000 for perturbing with the climate
9 model outputs (see section 2.3). Data was used for specific climate stations giving site
10 specific responses in grain yield (YLD_s) and N leaching (NL_s).

11 The study of crop production on the Iberian Peninsula applied the CERES
12 dynamic models for wheat (Ritchie and Otter, 1985) and maize (Jones and Kiniry,
13 1986) as included in DSSAT v. 3.5 (Tsuji et al., 1994). These models have previously
14 been calibrated and validated for various locations in the Iberian Peninsula (Mínguez
15 and Iglesias, 1996; Quemada and Tajadura, 2001). The crop management was set for
16 either rain-fed or irrigation, and no nitrogen limitation was assumed. Current sowing
17 dates were assumed for each region. The study used 34 representative soil types, and the
18 link between the geographical distribution of climate and soil data was handled in a
19 GIS. The simulated climate data from the RCM and GCM control runs representing
20 1961-1990 were used for the baseline climate data. The model was used to simulate
21 regional grain yields (YLD_r).

22

23 *2.1.2. Ecosystem model*

24

1 LPJ-GUESS is a process-based model of the dynamics of ecosystem structure and
2 functioning at scales from the site to the globe (Smith et al., 2001; Hickler et al., 2004).
3 It incorporates generalised representations of plant physiology and ecosystem
4 biogeochemistry, derived from the LPJ dynamic global vegetation model (Sitch et al.,
5 2003) and representations of plant population dynamic processes as commonly adopted
6 by forest gap models (Smith et al., 2001). Vegetation in LPJ-GUESS is represented as a
7 mixture of plant functional types (PFTs), differentiated by physiognomic, physiological
8 phenological and life-history attributes. The model simulates coupled changes in
9 ecosystem function (water, energy and carbon exchange) and vegetation structure
10 (distribution, PFT composition, size/age structure) in response to scenarios of changes
11 in climate and atmospheric CO₂ concentrations.

12 Simulations of net primary productivity (NPP) for potential natural vegetation
13 were performed in this study; anthropogenic land use and land management were not
14 taken into account. Simulations began from bare soil (no plant biomass present) and
15 were then “spun up” for 300 model years to achieve near equilibrium with respect to
16 carbon pools and vegetation structure. A 100-year mean disturbance interval,
17 corresponding to typical disturbance regimes for natural vegetation in Europe, was
18 implemented over the entire model domain and simulation period.

19 The model was driven by an observed climatology for the period 1901-1998 from
20 the CRU05 monthly dataset. Climate data for the gap between the observed data and
21 climate input for the scenario period (1991-2070) were derived by first standardizing
22 observed climate data from CRU05 (1961-1990), which were then repeatedly
23 unstandardized using linear trends in means and standard deviations between the RCM
24 output for the control (1961-1990) and the scenario (2071-2100) period. This retains the

1 observed inter-annual variability, but means and variances evolve linearly between the
2 two periods of climate data. RCM data were rescaled such that mean values and
3 standard deviations for the control period (1961-1990) corresponded with the observed
4 data from CRU05. Global atmospheric CO₂ concentrations from 1901 to 1998 from the
5 Carbon Cycle Model Linkage Project (McGuire et al., 2001) were used.

6

7 *2.1.3. Potential water availability for the Mediterranean region*

8

9 The potential water availability (PAW) was calculated from a simple balance of
10 potential evapotranspiration (PET) and precipitation. PET was derived from temperature
11 and daylength using the methodology of Palutikof et al. (1994), which takes account of
12 relative humidity, wind speed, and sunshine. PAW was calculated by subtracting the
13 monthly total PET from the monthly total precipitation for each grid square.

14

15 *2.1.4. Maize suitability*

16

17 The thermal suitability for the successful cultivation of grain maize was estimated with
18 the effective temperature sum (ETS). Daily mean temperatures above 10 °C were
19 cumulated for all days of the year. A location was classified as suitable for grain maize
20 if a threshold of 850 degree-days was attained (Carter et al., 1991), which put the focus
21 on the northern limit of thermal suitability as an indicator of sensitivity to climate
22 warming.

23 As the observed gridded database was available only in monthly time steps, we
24 used a method suggested by Kauppi and Posch (1988) to approximate the ETS,

1 requiring information about the standard deviation of daily mean temperatures about the
2 monthly mean. We derived this by interpolating station data obtained from the
3 European Climate Assessment (Klein Tank et al., 2002) for the observed baseline, and
4 by applying estimates based on daily data for the scenario period 2071-2100 simulated
5 by the HadAM3 GCM.

6

7 *2.1.5 Winter wheat yield and nitrate leaching*

8

9 The Daisy model (section 2.1.1) was run at 9 climate stations across Europe with
10 varying soils, N fertiliser and climate changes in order to develop an empirical function
11 for N leaching as affected by soils, climate and CO₂ concentration. Only a rain-fed
12 winter wheat monoculture without straw incorporation was considered. The model was
13 run for 98 years for each scenario combination and the average yield and N leaching
14 were estimated for each combination. Based on the simulated N response, the optimal N
15 fertiliser rate was calculated for each climate-soil combination and this was used to
16 estimate a multiple linear regression model of N leaching (NL_o) and yield (YLD_o) at
17 optimal N rate on soil and climate variables. The N leaching was fitted to the expo-
18 linear equation (Goudriaan and Monteith, 1990):

$$NL = NL_b + a / b \ln \{1 + \exp [b (N - N_b)]\} \quad (1)$$

19 where NL is mean nitrate leaching (kg N ha⁻¹), N is nitrogen fertiliser input (kg N ha⁻¹),
20 and NL_b , a , b and N_b are parameters. NL_b corresponds to the nitrate leaching at no
21 fertiliser input, and a is the proportion of N input that leaches at high N input. This
22 value was fixed at $a = 0.6$. The other parameters in eqn (1) were estimated using the
23 NLIN procedure of SAS (SAS Institute, 1996), and these parameters were regressed on

1 the soil and climate variables. The variables considered in the multiple linear regression
2 models were atmospheric CO₂ concentration, soil water capacity, and seasonal mean
3 values of temperature and rainfall. Only statistically significant variables were included
4 in the regression models.

5 A temperature constraint for mean minimum temperature in January of no less
6 than -11.5 °C was used to represent areas where severe winters will hinder survival and
7 effective establishment (Harrison et al., 1995). In addition, successful winter wheat
8 cultivation is generally constrained by an annual precipitation greater than 1000 mm
9 (Bunting et al., 1995). Therefore, the regression indices for winter wheat yield and
10 nitrate leaching were not applied in grid boxes where these two simple constraints were
11 exceeded. A European database of soil water-holding capacity was applied for both
12 baseline and future applications (Groenendijk, 1989).

13

14 2.2. Climate change scenarios

15

16 The impact models were driven by outputs from a range of regional climate models
17 (RCMs) (Table I). The RCMs were run both for a control period (1961-1990) and for a
18 future time period (2071-2100). The emission scenarios were the IPCC SRES A2 and
19 B2 scenarios, representing rather high and more modest future greenhouse gas
20 emissions, respectively (Nakicenovic et al., 2000). The RCMs were driven by boundary
21 conditions taken from two different global models, HadAM3H and ECHAM4/OPYC3
22 (Jacob et al., 2006). However, the runs of the HadRM3P regional model used the
23 HadAM3P for boundary conditions (Table I). The Arpège stretched grid simulations has
24 a global coverage, but with a spatial resolution similar to the RCMs over Europe. Not

1 all impact models applied all climate model simulations (Table I). Some of the RCMs
2 had multiple ensembles using different initial conditions, but identical bounding
3 conditions.

4 The atmospheric CO₂ concentrations were taken as the estimates used in the
5 climate modelling experiments, which on average were 333 ppm for the 1961-1990
6 baseline, and 718 and 566 ppm for 2071-2100 for the A2 and B2 scenarios,
7 respectively.

8 For the analysis of maize suitability additional outputs from six coupled
9 atmosphere-ocean general circulation models (AOGCMs) for the SRES A2 and B2
10 scenarios were obtained from the IPCC Data Distribution Centre. The models utilized
11 are HadCM3, ECHAM4/OPYC, CSIRO-Mk2, NCAR-PCM, CGCM2 and GFDL-R30.
12 These were used directly as input to impact models, and were also pattern-scaled to
13 represent regional climates under the full range of SRES emissions scenarios from B1
14 (lowest) to A1FI (highest) (Ruosteenoja et al., 2006).

15

16 2.3. Methods of scenario application

17

18 Two methods of constructing and applying RCM-based scenarios were tested. The
19 *Direct* method uses the daily outputs from the RCMs directly for both the control and
20 future scenarios. The *D-change* method uses the observed climate series for the baseline
21 climate, and for the future scenarios the observed baseline data are adjusted for the
22 mean monthly differences (for temperatures) or ratios (for precipitation and radiation)
23 between climate model outputs for future and control climates. For the analyses of
24 potential water availability, maize suitability and winter wheat production and N

1 leaching, differences were used for both temperature and (where applicable)
2 precipitation.

3

4 2.4 Statistical analyses of sources of uncertainty

5

6 Uncertainties in impact model estimates attributable to different RCMs, different
7 GCMs, and different emissions scenarios were assessed by an analysis of variance using
8 the GLM procedure of the Statistical Analysis System, SAS (SAS Institute, 1996). The
9 contribution of each source to the uncertainty was evaluated by the Mean Squared Error
10 (MS) calculated as the Type III Sum of Squares divided by the associated degrees of
11 freedom (df), and the significance was evaluated by F-tests. A high MS of one factor
12 compared with other factors show that this factor contributes greatly to explaining the
13 total variation in the simulated results. However, this may still not be significant, if the
14 overall variation explained by the statistical model is low, or if the degrees of freedom
15 of the particular factor are small. The amount of variation in model results explained by
16 the attributed factors is given by the coefficient of determination (R^2), and the size of
17 the error in residuals is given by the root mean squared error (RMSE). Factors
18 contributing to the uncertainty should primarily be evaluated in terms of statistical
19 significance (P-value) and secondly in their MS. Thus, for example significant P-values
20 for RCMs show that different RCMs give different results, which therefore makes it
21 important to consider a range of different RCMs in impact analyses for obtaining valid
22 range of the projected impacts for the particular variable.

23

24

1 **3. Agricultural crops at the national scale**

2

3 3.1 Winter wheat in Denmark

4

5 Both the *Direct* and the *D-change* methods for scenario application were used in the
6 analyses of climate change effects on winter wheat production in Denmark. A range of
7 different GCM and RCM projections for the A2 emissions scenario were used to
8 simulate winter wheat production at two sites and for four different soil types (sand,
9 irrigated sand, loamy sand and sandy loam) in Denmark (Table II). The variation in
10 both indicators (grain yield and N leaching) was dominated by differences between
11 methods of scenario application, locations and soils, whereas there was much less
12 variation between the tested GCMs, RCMs and the different ensembles of these climate
13 model runs.

14 The mean grain yield was increased by 37% with the *Direct* method and 21% for
15 the *D-change* method, whereas the respective increases in N leaching were 16 and 57%.

16 The generally higher increases in grain yield under the *Direct* compared with the *D-*
17 *change* method were due to lower simulated grain yields for some of the GCM and
18 RCM climate runs for the baseline period, primarily due to differences in mean rainfall
19 during the main growing season (April to July) for the climate model control runs. Such
20 effects of errors in simulation of the control climate are not introduced in the *D-change*
21 method.

22 For both methods, the increases in grain yield were larger for Roskilde compared
23 with the Jyndevad climate (data not shown). Roskilde is located in east Denmark with a
24 drier climate than Jyndevad in west Denmark, and this probably affected simulated crop

1 production under the baseline climate. The variation between soil types in average grain
2 yield and N leaching varied 23-39% and 24-58%, respectively.

3

4

5 3.2 Wheat and maize in Spain

6

7 The *Direct* method for scenario application was used in the analyses of climate change
8 effects on crop production in Spain, because there were no observed climatic datasets
9 available for all the regions studied. The response of simulated grain yield varied
10 considerably between cereal species at three regions in Spain (Table III). There was a
11 mean yield increase of 90% for spring wheat, but a yield decrease of 21% for both
12 winter wheat and irrigated grain maize. The variation attributable to different GCMs
13 and RCMs also varied considerably between crop types. Little of the large variation in
14 yield change of spring wheat could be attributed to either climate models or regions, but
15 rather to the interaction between climate models and local soil and climatic conditions.
16 In contrast most of the variation in yield change for winter wheat and grain maize was
17 attributable to differences between climate models, in particular RCMs. The smaller
18 variation attributed to GCMs may be related to the fact that both the HadAM3H and the
19 Arpège models were driven by sea surface temperatures of the same AOGCM
20 (HadCM3).

21 The yield of winter wheat was reduced more in the scenarios in the south
22 (Badajoz) than in the north of Spain (Navarra). Winter wheat is currently cultivated in
23 central and northern areas of the peninsula but not in the South, because the
24 requirements for low temperatures for flower induction (vernalisation) are not fulfilled,

1 and the projected warming enhances this problem. Spring wheat is also sown in late
2 autumn, and the milder winters promote greater crop growth during winter leading to
3 yield increases under the A2 emission scenario (Mínguez et al., 2006).

4

5

6 **4. Water availability in the Mediterranean region**

7

8 Results are presented for projected changes in winter and summer potential water
9 availability (PAW) over the Mediterranean region (Figure 2). Each set of results shows
10 the mean difference between 1961-90 and 2071-2100, averaged over all ensemble
11 members for all models, and the bootstrapped estimates of uncertainty in the mean
12 differences. Thus, each analysis is based on averaging and bootstrapping seven sets of
13 results, three RCMs of which two had three ensembles (Table I). The uncertainty is
14 expressed as the absolute difference between the upper and lower confidence limits at
15 the 5% significance level. These results show differences under the A2 emission
16 scenario only. For example, Figure 2a indicates that, under the A2 scenario, southern
17 France is projected to have about 300 mm less PAW in summer in 2070-2099 compared
18 with 1961-1990. Figure 2b shows that the uncertainty range in this estimate is about 40
19 mm. In other words, PAW in southern France is projected to decline by about 300 mm
20 (± 20 mm, or half the uncertainty range). The spatial patterns under the more moderate
21 B2 scenario are essentially the same, but with much smaller differences (data not
22 shown).

23 Summer PAW can be expected to decline by 300-400 mm (± 20 mm) in most
24 Mediterranean countries (Figure 2a), with Iberia, southern France, and northern Africa

1 being the worst affected areas. In winter (Figure 2c), Western Europe north of the
2 Mediterranean can expect an increase in PAW of 50-100 mm (± 10 -30 mm). The
3 countries bordering the Mediterranean are projected to experience winter deficits in
4 PAW of 50-100 mm (± 10 mm).

5 It is worth noting that the uncertainty in winter PAW generally follows the same
6 spatial structure as the changes in mean PAW. This is not the case for summer PAW,
7 where the uncertainties are largest in Central Europe, whereas the reductions are largest
8 in southern and south-eastern Europe. This emphasises the significance of the projected
9 reductions in summer PAW over Iberia and most of the rest of the Mediterranean
10 region.

11

12

13 **5. Impacts at the European scale**

14

15 5.1. Ecosystem productivity

16

17 LPJ-GUESS predicted an overall increase in ecosystem NPP for Europe, but with large
18 variations across regions (Figure 3; Table IV). NPP increases were most pronounced at
19 high elevations (in the Alps) and at northern latitudes, ranging from 35 to 54% across
20 all scenarios for the northern region. In these areas, higher temperatures, leading to an
21 extended growing season, and elevated atmospheric CO₂ concentrations interacted
22 positively to enhance NPP, often leading to a shift in dominance from coniferous to
23 broadleaved deciduous trees in forest. Tree-line advance is projected in the
24 Fennoscandian Alps.

1 In southern Europe, NPP was projected to decline or increase only slightly
2 relative to present-day conditions (Figure 3). The simulated ecosystem response in the
3 south of Europe was largely driven by projected changes in water availability.

4 The relative importance of different environmental driving forces for the
5 ecosystem response is well illustrated by differences in simulated NPP under the A2 and
6 B2 scenarios generated by the RCAO/ECHAM-OPYC model realization (Figure 3a,b).
7 The A2 scenario is associated with greater overall warming, but a stronger decrease in
8 water availability in the South, compared to the B2 scenario. This results in a lower or
9 negative projected increase in NPP in southern Europe (where the water supply
10 dominates the ecosystem response), but higher NPP in the north (where temperatures
11 are more limiting for production than the water).

12 The very different responses to climate change in different European regions,
13 meant that the overall variation in results were dominated by regional differences (Table
14 IV). However, there were also differences between emission scenarios and climate
15 models with this variation being dominated by the differences between the driving
16 GCMs. There were no significant interactions between region in Europe and the
17 emission scenarios or climate models, indicating that the main differences between
18 climate models are that of overall changes in NPP overlaid on regional differences in
19 response.

20

21 5.2 Maize suitability

22

23 For the observed baseline, the areas fulfilling the condition of thermal suitability for the
24 cultivation of grain maize have their northern border in central Europe, reaching to the

1 north of France through Belgium, and to parts of Germany, Poland and Belarus (Figure
2 4). This is close to the actual limit of cultivation shown by Carter et al. (1991).

3 Estimates based on climate scenarios for 2071-2100 show a substantial northward
4 shift of the northern limits of grain maize suitability. However, the extent of this shift
5 varies considerably across climate scenarios. Figure 4a shows the range of shifts
6 estimated from climate scenarios based on 7 RCMs that were nested in the same GCM
7 (HadAM3H) for the A2 emissions scenario. The extension of the area thermally suitable
8 for grain maize that is common to all 7 scenarios reaches to Ireland and Scotland, and
9 covers most of Southern Sweden and Finland. The uncertainty attributable to different
10 RCMs is illustrated by the area of expansion that is not common for all scenarios. The
11 climate model uncertainty range is largest over central Finland, due to the gentle
12 topography with a relatively weak temperature gradient northwards. The uncertainty
13 range for shifts in maize suitability predicted from six GCMs for the A2 scenario is
14 wider than the RCM range (not shown). However, the widest range is spanned under the
15 four SRES emissions scenarios for the six GCMs (Figure 4b).

16 The changes in area of suitability in Europe estimated from different groups of
17 climate scenarios were mostly determined by emission scenario (Table V). The mean
18 relative increase in suitable area for grain maize was 47, 44, 39 and 42% for the A1FI,
19 A2, B1 and B2 scenarios, respectively. There were much wider ranges of shifts between
20 different GCMs than between RCMs nested within some of these GCMs.

21 All RCMs produced expansion that was reduced (or in one case, slightly
22 increased) relative to expansion induced by the bounding HadAM3H model (data not
23 shown). This indicated stronger growing season temperature increases in the driving

1 GCM than in the RCMs. This observation was repeated for other temperature-based
2 impacts models that are reported elsewhere (Fronzek and Carter, 2006).

3

4 5.3 Winter wheat yield and nitrate leaching

5

6 The highest yields of rain-fed winter wheat under the baseline climate (1961-1990) are
7 estimated in central Europe with more than 8 t ha⁻¹ in France and parts of England
8 (Figure 5a). Smaller yields down to 4 t ha⁻¹ were estimated for north-eastern and
9 southern Europe, in agreement with other European-scale assessments of the
10 productivity of winter wheat (Harrison et al., 1995). Estimates of the changes in
11 productivity for 2071-2100 were very consistent among the nine RCM scenarios with
12 increases in most areas north of the Alps and decreases in southern Europe, especially
13 over the Iberian Peninsula (Figure 5b).

14 The estimates of nitrate leaching from winter wheat cultivation for the baseline
15 remained below 10 kg N ha⁻¹ for most parts of Europe. The highest estimates were
16 given for Southern Sweden, some areas in Eastern Europe, most notably in Belarus, and
17 some areas in Northern Italy (Figure 5c). The spatial pattern of changes by 2071-2100 is
18 far patchier compared to the estimated changes in wheat yield. Decreases in N leaching
19 predominate over large parts of Eastern Europe and some smaller areas in Spain,
20 whereas increases occur in the UK and in smaller regions over many other parts of
21 Europe (Figure 5d). The areas where different climate scenarios resulted in a different
22 direction of change in nitrate leaching were relatively large and occurred across all
23 study regions. Model results were therefore very sensitive to even small changes in
24 temperature and precipitation.

1

2

3 **6. Discussion**

4

5 We have addressed the uncertainties in projected impacts of crop production and
6 ecosystem productivity using different impact models at different scales and separating
7 the variation in simulated relative changes into the sources of variation shown in Figure
8 1. The variation in simulated changes in crop yield, NPP and N leaching attributed to
9 climate models were generally smaller or of the same size as the variation due to local
10 conditions. The methods used for applying the climate model outputs played a larger
11 role for the site-based analyses than the choice of the GCM or RCM. The variation in
12 results between emission scenarios was larger than the variation attributed to the climate
13 models, when the full range of SRES scenarios was considered, whereas there was little
14 difference in simulated change in simulated NPP between the A2 and B2 scenarios.
15 However, the simulated water balance for the Mediterranean region was more negative
16 for the A2 compared with the B2 scenario.

17

18 6.1 Emission scenarios

19

20 The uncertainty that is attributed to any given source of variation in Figure 1 depends on
21 the range explored within each of these categories. This is clearly illustrated for the
22 emission scenarios, which only explained a very small part of the variation in NPP
23 (Table IV), because this study only included the A2 and B2 scenarios, and these
24 scenarios showed very little difference in average impact on NPP. When the full range

1 of IPCC emission scenarios for 2071-2100 were explored as in the analysis of
2 expansion of suitable area for grain maize, the emission scenario became the dominant
3 source of variation (Table V). However, even with this large range of emission
4 scenarios, there was a modest variation of 39 to 47% in mean increase in the thermal
5 suitable area for grain maize. However, when adding the variation due to climate
6 models, the uncertainty increased, although a substantial area in Europe would still
7 increase in suitability for grain maize (Figure 4).

8 The emission scenarios affected modelled NPP in terrestrial ecosystems through
9 different processes in different regions: the strongest NPP increase was modelled in the
10 North, where higher temperatures and CO₂ fertilisation (Cramer et al., 2001; Long et al.,
11 2004) positively affected production. In southern Europe, changes in water availability
12 were more important for the simulated ecosystem response than changes in temperature
13 as also illustrated by the simulated changes in PAW (Figure 2).

14

15 6.2 Climate models and downscaling

16

17 The analysis of the northward expansion of cropping zones in Europe was focused on
18 grain maize, since the northern limit of suitability is overwhelmingly temperature
19 related (Carter et al., 1991; Kenny et al., 1993). The results demonstrate that RCMs only
20 cover a small proportion of the full uncertainty range in climate projections (Figures 4
21 and Table V). This is particularly true when comparing with a range of GCM
22 simulations for different emissions scenarios. However, for the RCM experiments
23 nested in HadAM3H for the A2 scenario, most scenarios were found to give smaller
24 temperature changes than the bounding GCM. If this is a general result, then it implies

1 that the sub-GCM-grid-scale processes incorporated in RCMs may produce systematic
2 differences in projected climate from the GCMs in which they are nested.

3 The variation attributed to different GCMs was smaller than the variation between
4 RCMs, when only considering the GCMs included in the PRUDENCE project, i.e.
5 HadAM3H, HadAM3P, ECHAM/OPYC and Arpège. However, when the span of
6 GCMs was expanded with a broader range of GCMs in the study of grain maize
7 suitability, the variation attributed to GCMs became considerably larger than the
8 variation between RCMs. This shows that the variation among GCMs included in
9 PRUDENCE only represents a small part of the full variation in climate model outputs,
10 and that this variation may be considerably more important to capture than the variation
11 between RCMs.

12 The variation attributed to different ensemble runs varied considerably between
13 the study on winter wheat in Denmark (Table II), where very little variation was
14 attributed to different ensembles, and the maize suitability study (Table V), where the
15 variation between ensembles were just as large as between different GCMs. This can
16 probably be attributed to the different sources of sea surface temperatures that formed
17 the basis for the different ensemble runs. In the study on winter wheat, the different
18 ensembles were based on different runs with the same AOGCM, whereas in the study
19 on maize suitability different AOGCMs were used to provide sea surface temperatures
20 for the Arpège model.

21 The simulation of plant productivity and N cycling in natural and managed
22 systems is very sensitive to changes in temperature and rainfall. Small changes in spring
23 and summer rainfall can have large effects on simulated yields, if the rainfall verges on
24 being insufficient for sustaining plant growth (van Ittersum et al., 2003). This is

1 demonstrated by the use of different methods for applying the scenario data as input to a
2 model of wheat production in Denmark (Table II). The use of the GCM and RCM
3 outputs directly as input to the crop models results, in some cases, in very low yields,
4 primarily due to slightly underestimated precipitation relative to the observed climate.
5 The sensitivity of the simulation models to small differences in rainfall makes the
6 impact assessments vulnerable to the method used for applying climate model outputs,
7 and the use of the climate model outputs directly in the simulation models should be
8 avoided, if possible. The RCM model outputs were used directly as input to the CERES
9 crop model for simulating cereal productivity in Spain, and this in combination with the
10 sensitivity to variation in rainfall probably contributed considerably to the large
11 variation between climate models in simulated yield increases. This variation was
12 particularly large for spring wheat, where thresholds in the temperature responses play a
13 critical role for crop development and yield.

14

15 6.3 Impact models

16

17 The response of winter wheat yield and N cycling to climatic change under the A2
18 scenario was analysed using simulation models (DAISY and CERES) and simple
19 regression based indices. The results of the different approaches at regional scale
20 generally agree by showing consistent yield increases across RCMs and GCMs in
21 northern Europe (Denmark) and reductions in yield in parts of southern Europe (Spain).
22 Previous attempts to estimate the effects of global warming on European winter wheat
23 yields have also shown larger increases in northern Europe (Harrison et al., 1995).

24 Continental-scale projections of ecosystem NPP were sensitive to the choice of

1 climate models, but the spatial pattern, including the major driving forces of change in
2 different regions, were rather robust across all scenarios. A similar pattern in
3 productivity changes was projected by the ATEAM project (Schröter et al., 2005). The
4 general agreement among multiple impact models and studies as to the overall direction
5 and broad spatial pattern of future productivity changes in Europe suggests that these
6 (qualitative) features of the projections might be of value as a basis for decision making
7 at the European level. The absolute level of future changes, on the other hand, remains
8 sensitive to the combination of emission scenarios, climate models and impact models
9 employed.

10 The uncertainty in the modelling of impacts probably also depends on the type of
11 impact being modelled. Uncertainties are probably smaller for estimates of NPP and
12 crop productivity under optimal conditions, whereas simulation of actual yields under
13 water and nutrient limitations may involve considerably higher uncertainties (Jamieson
14 et al., 1998). The simulation of climate change impacts on second order effects such as
15 nitrate leaching, probably involves even higher uncertainties, although information on
16 this is to our knowledge not available.

17

18 6.4 Local conditions

19

20 The changes in winter wheat yields were relatively insensitive to the choice of the RCM
21 model. In contrast, estimates of nitrate leaching from winter wheat cultivation under
22 different RCM-based scenarios showed spatial patterns of change that were highly
23 sensitive to specific combinations of climate change and soil type (Figure 5). However,
24 the results indicate a risk of increases in N leaching in large parts of northwest Europe,

1 which currently have intensive winter wheat cultivation. Large differences between sites
2 and soil types with respect to the response of N leaching to climate change were seen
3 for the simulation model results for Denmark (Table II). The N leaching is determined
4 by a complex interaction between transport and transformation processes in soil and
5 plants being influenced by changes in temperature, precipitation and CO₂ concentration
6 (Olesen et al., 2004). This results in large regional and local variations in sensitivity to
7 climate.

8 The large spatial differences obtained in simulated response of N leaching under
9 the A2 scenario has consequences for the protection of freshwater and coastal
10 ecosystems. The effect of the spatial resolution of the RCM on ecosystem responses
11 needs to be further investigated. It may well be that the spatial resolution of the climate
12 model is of particular importance for impacts, which are sensitive to small changes in
13 climatic conditions, such as nitrate leaching from agricultural systems in northern
14 Europe and rainfed cereal production in the Mediterranean region.

15

16 6.5 Spatial differences

17

18 There were distinctly different responses in simulated crops and vegetation for northern
19 versus southern Europe to the GCM and RCM projections for the SRES A2 and B2
20 emissions scenarios for 2071-2100. In northern Europe there is an expansion of suitable
21 cropping areas, as illustrated by maize, increases in crop yields and increases in
22 terrestrial ecosystem NPP. The simulated increases in crop yields and NPP in southern
23 Europe are generally much smaller, and in some regions decreases were simulated, e.g.
24 in parts of the Iberian Peninsula. However, these regional decreases in Southern Europe

1 vary among the impacts studied. This is partly a result of differences in seasonal and
2 spatial changes in water availability (Figure 2).

3 Under the A2 scenario for 2071-2100, the consensus of the RCMs used here is
4 that in summer the Mediterranean will experience temperature increases of around 5 °C,
5 a reduction in rainfall of 50-100 mm, leading to severe reductions in soil moisture. The
6 potential for offsetting the severe depletion of water resources in summer by increasing
7 storage in winter will be reduced by the year-round reduction in water availability.
8 Because of the changes in temperature and water availability, it is likely that agricultural
9 production will experience a shift in season. This was indicated by the increase in yield
10 of spring wheat grown during winter in Spain under the projected climate change.

11

12

13 **7. Conclusion**

14

15 The variation in simulated impacts was smaller between RCMs nested within the same
16 GCM than between different GCMs or between emission scenarios, when the full range
17 of SRES emission scenarios and available GCMs were used. However, when the
18 comparisons were limited to the A2 and B2 emission scenarios and the narrow range of
19 GCMs available in the PRUDENCE project, the variation in simulated impacts were
20 larger between RCMs than between GCMs and emission scenarios.

21 The variation associated with different methods for applying the climate model
22 outputs and with differences in local climate and soil conditions were in most cases
23 larger or equal to the uncertainties in emission scenarios and climate models. This
24 emphasises the need in impact studies to focus on the need for proper consideration of

1 local environmental conditions as well as adaptation of management for agricultural
2 crop, since the uncertainties associated with these components may be of larger
3 importance than the variation due to projected climate change.

4 The ecosystem simulation models are in general very sensitive to variation in
5 temperature and rainfall. This limits the application of RCM output for direct use in the
6 simulation models, since there are often biases in the RCM's representation of current
7 temperature and precipitation climate. For some ecosystem responses like nitrate
8 leaching there is a need for detailed regional spatial analyses. This may necessitate a
9 higher spatial resolution of the RCMs.

10

11

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13

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16

17

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1 **Tables**

2 Table I

3 Regional climate models (RCM) driven by different general circulation models (GCM) and different
 4 SRES emissions scenarios used with the different biophysical models. Some of the RCM's used different
 5 spatial resolutions and were applied for a number of ensemble runs.

RCM	GCM	SRES	No. ensembles	Biophysical models†
	CGCM2	Four‡	1 each	M
	CSIRO-MK2	Four‡	1 each	M
	GFDL-R30	Four‡	1 each	M
	ECHAM4/OPYC3	Four‡	1 each	M
	NCAR-PCM	Four‡	1 each	M
	HadCM3	Four‡	1 each	M
	Arpège*	B2	3	M
	Arpège*	A2	3	C, M
	HadAM3H	A2	1	M, D
HIRHAM (50 km)	HadAM3H	A2	3	C, D, L, P, M, W
HIRHAM (25 km)	HadAM3H	A2	1	D
HadRM3H	HadAM3H	A2	1	C, D, L, M, W
CHRM	HadAM3H	A2	1	C, D, M, W
CLM	HadAM3H	A2	1	C, D, L, M, W
REMO	HadAM3H	A2	1	C, D, L, M, W
PROMES	HadAM3H	A2	1	C, W
RegCM	HadAM3H	A2	1	C, D, W
RACMO	HadAM3H	A2	1	C, D, M, W
RCAO (50 km)	HadAM3H	A2	1	D, L, P, M, W
RCAO (25 km)	HadAM3H	A2	1	D
RCAO (50 km)	HadAM3H	B2	1	L, M
RCAO (50 km)	ECHAM/OPYC	A2	1	D, L, M
RCAO (50 km)	ECHAM/OPYC	B2	1	L, M
HIRHAM (50 km)	ECHAM/OPYC	A2	1	D, L, M
HIRHAM (50 km)	ECHAM/OPYC	B2	1	L, M
HadRM3P	HadAM3P	A2	3	D, P

6 †Biophysical models: D (Daisy), C (CERES), L (LPJ-GUESS), P (potential water availability), M (maize
 7 suitability) and W (winter wheat productivity and N leaching).

8 * Arpège is a variable resolution atmospheric GCM operating a high resolution over Europe and
 9 employing sea surface temperatures from either the HadCM3 or the Arpège models.

10 ‡A2, B2 (modelled) and A1FI, B1 (pattern-scaled).

11

1 Table II

2 Analyses of variance of mean relative changes in site based grain yield (YLD_s) (%) and nitrate leaching
 3 (YLD_s) (%) of winter wheat at optimal N fertiliser rate from 1961-1990 to 2071-2100 for the SRES A2
 4 scenario at two sites in Denmark (Jyndevad and Roskilde), four soil types. Nine different RCMs were
 5 nested within different combinations of the HadAM3H, HadAM3P and ECHAM/OPYC model, and the
 6 Arpège model was included as the fourth GCM. The ensembles reflect repeated runs of HIRHAM and
 7 HadRM3P RCMs. Two different methods for scenario application (*Direct* and *D-change*) were used for
 8 each climate model. Model $R^2 = 0.65$ and RMSE = 10.5 for N grain yield, and $R^2 = 0.25$ and RMSE =
 9 64.6 for N leaching.

Factor	d.f.	MS	P
<i>Change in grain yield</i>			
GCM	4	136	0.3010
RCM	8	565	<0.0001
Ensembles	2	44	0.6752
Scenario application	1	19089	<0.0001
Location	1	19614	<0.0001
Soils	3	3383	<0.0001
<i>Change in N leaching</i>			
GCM	4	2505	0.6627
RCM	8	8952	0.0320
Ensembles	2	485	0.8902
Scenario application	1	124767	<0.0001
Location	1	51419	0.0005
Soils	3	16905	0.0077

1 Table III

2 Analysis of variance of mean relative changes in regional grain yield (YLD_r) (%) of spring wheat, winter
 3 wheat and irrigated maize from 1961-1990 to 2071-2100 for the A2 emissions scenario for three regions
 4 in Spain (Navarra in Northern Spain, Castilla La Mancha in Central Spain and Badajoz in South- Western
 5 Spain). Nine different RCMs were used nested within the HadAM3H model. Model $R^2 = 0.29$ and RMSE
 6 = 86.3 for spring wheat, $R^2 = 0.87$ and RMSE = 16.1 for winter wheat, and $R^2 = 0.54$ and RMSE = 11.7
 7 for irrigated maize.

Factor	d.f.	MS	P
<i>Spring wheat</i>			
GCM	1	1700	0.6384
RCM	8	3825	0.8304
Region	2	11147	0.2501
<i>Winter wheat</i>			
GCM	1	1129	0.0512
RCM	8	2834	<0.0001
Region	2	2456	0.0015
<i>Irrigated maize</i>			
GCM	1	124	0.3541
RCM	8	300	0.0803
Region	2	248	0.1928

8

9

1 Table IV

2 Analysis of variance of mean relative changes in NPP (%) for 2071-2100 compared with 1961-1990
 3 across five European sub-regions simulated by LPJ-GUESS using outputs of five different RCMs nested
 4 within HadAM3H and ECHAM/OPYC for two emissions scenarios (A2 and B2). Model $R^2 = 0.96$ and
 5 RMSE = 5.1.

Factor	d.f.	MS	P
Emission scenario	1	1	0.8241
GCM	1	113	0.0562
RCM	4	93	0.0313
Region	4	827	<0.0001
Region \times Emission	4	19	0.5913
Region \times GCM	4	30	0.3701
Region \times RCM	16	16	0.8132

6

1 Table V

2 Analysis of variance of expansion of the suitable area for cultivation of grain maize (%) in Europe for
3 different groups of climate scenarios from RCM, AGCM and AOGCM simulations under four different
4 emissions scenarios (A1FI, A2, B1 and B2) in the period 2071-2100 compared with the baseline (1961-
5 1990). Three different ensemble members were available for the Arpège model. Model $R^2 = 0.91$ and
6 RMSE = 1.5.

Factor	d.f.	MS	P
Emission scenario	3	72.8	<0.0001
GCM	8	13.0	0.0298
RCM	9	2.1	0.5404
Ensembles	2	10.9	0.0230

7

8

1 **Figure captions**

2

3 *Figure 1.* Some sources of uncertainties in climate change impact studies. The items shown in italics were
4 specifically considered in the analyses. Arrows indicate flow of information. Thick frames indicate the
5 focal areas of the PRUDENCE project.

6

7 *Figure 2.* Mean change in summer (a) and winter (c) potential water availability (PAW) (mm) over the
8 Mediterranean region for the A2 emissions scenario for 2071-2100 compared with 1961-1990 and the
9 associated uncertainty range (mm) for summer (b) and winter (d). The uncertainty is expressed as the
10 absolute difference between the upper and lower confidence limits at the 5% significance level.

11

12 *Figure 3.* Mean change in net primary production (NPP, kg C m⁻² yr⁻¹) over Europe for 2071-2100
13 compared with 1961-1990 simulated by LPJ-GUESS, driven by the RCAO RCM with two different
14 bounding GCMs, ECHAM/OPYC (a,b) and HadAM3H (c,d), and two different emissions scenarios, A2
15 (a, c) and B2 (b, d).

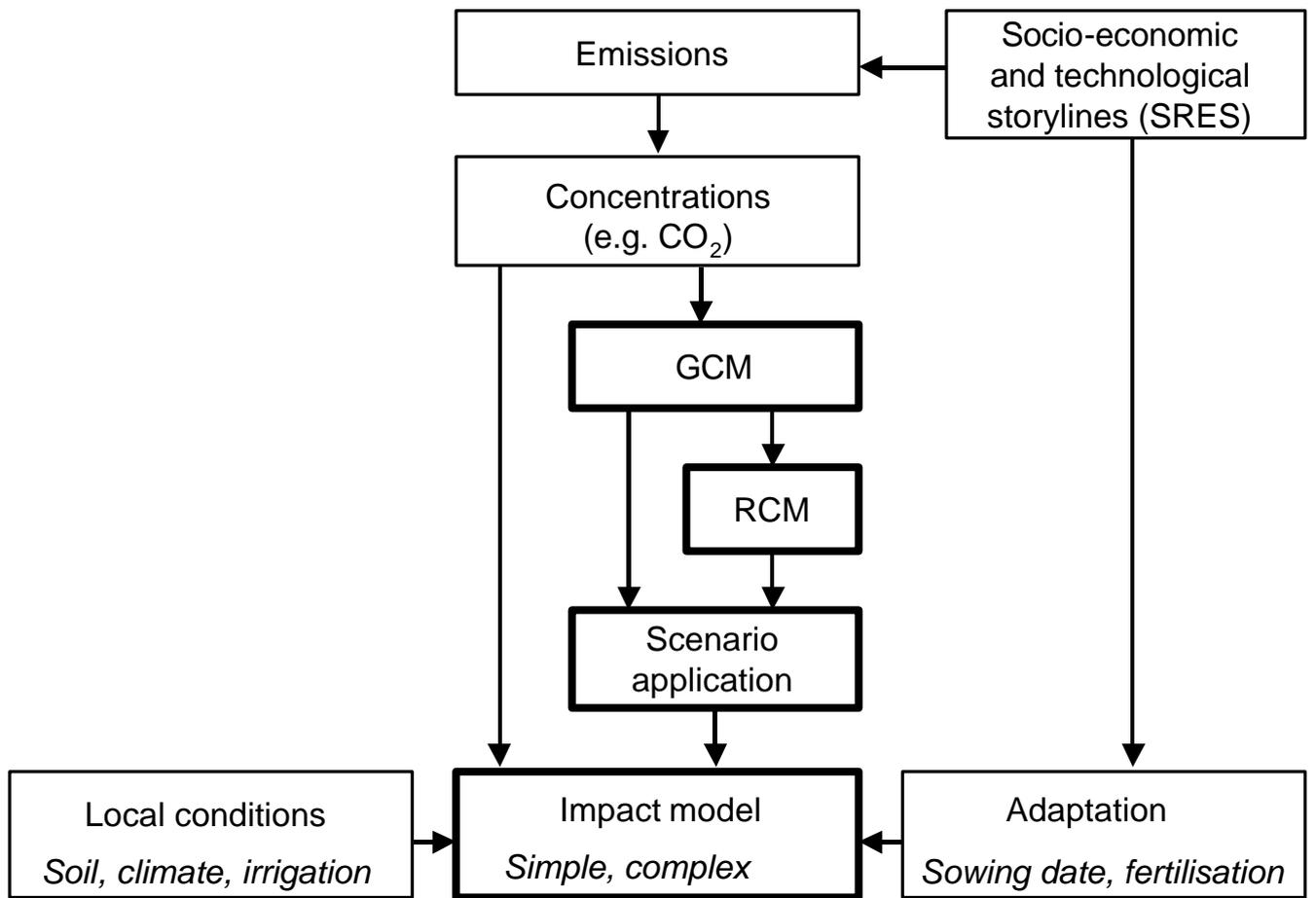
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17 *Figure 4.* Modelled suitability for grain maize cultivation during the baseline (1961-1990) and future
18 (2071-2100) periods for: (a) 7 RCM scenarios driven by HadAM3H for the A2 emissions scenario and (b)
19 24 scenarios from 6 GCMs for each of the A1FI, A2, B1 and B2 emissions scenarios. Green areas show
20 the suitable area for the baseline, red depicts the expansion common under all scenarios and blue the
21 uncertainty range of the respective scenario group. Grey areas are unsuitable under all scenarios.

22

23 *Figure 5.* Estimated winter wheat yield (YLD_o) (a, b) and nitrate leaching (NL_o) at optimal N fertiliser
24 rate from winter wheat cultivation (c, d) for the baseline 1961-1990 period (a, c), and qualitative changes
25 for 9 RCMs with HadAM3H as bounding GCM for the A2 emissions scenario (b, d) with decreasing

- 1 (blue), increasing (red) and conflicting (green). Grey areas are estimated to be unsuitable for winter
- 2 wheat.
- 3

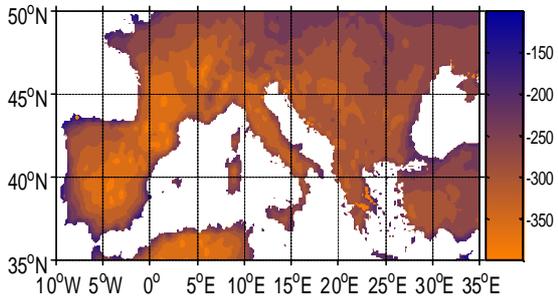


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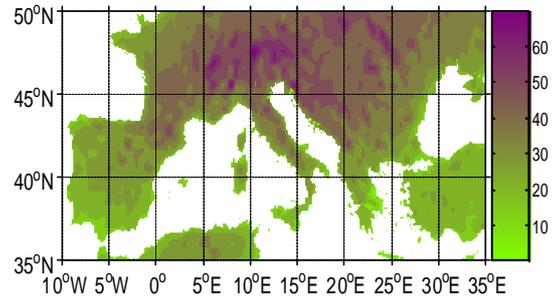
2 Figure 1

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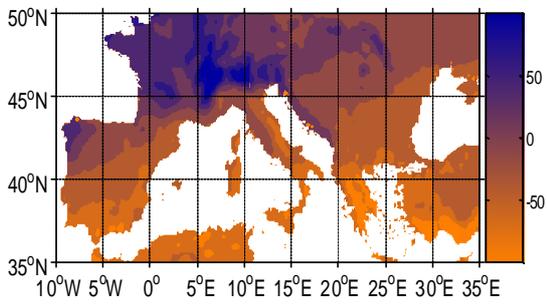
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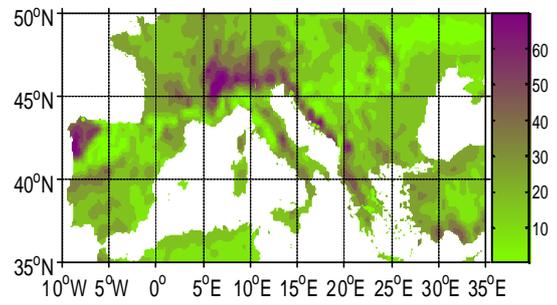
b



c



d



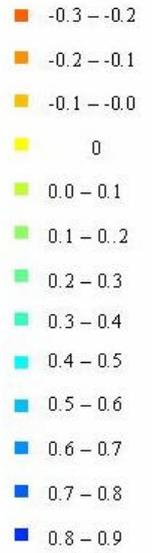
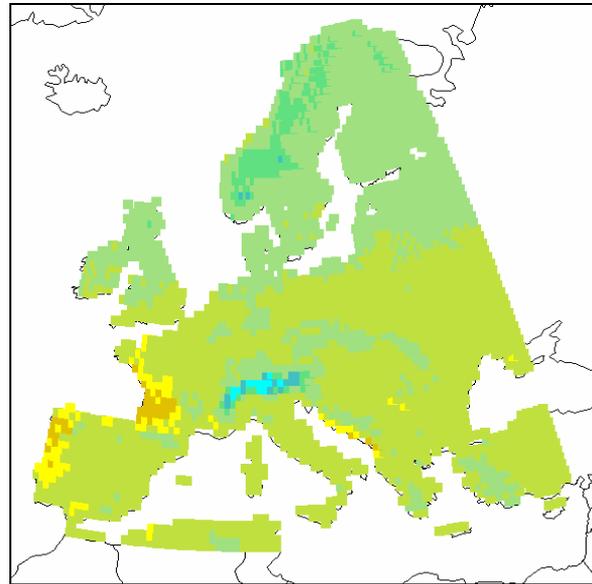
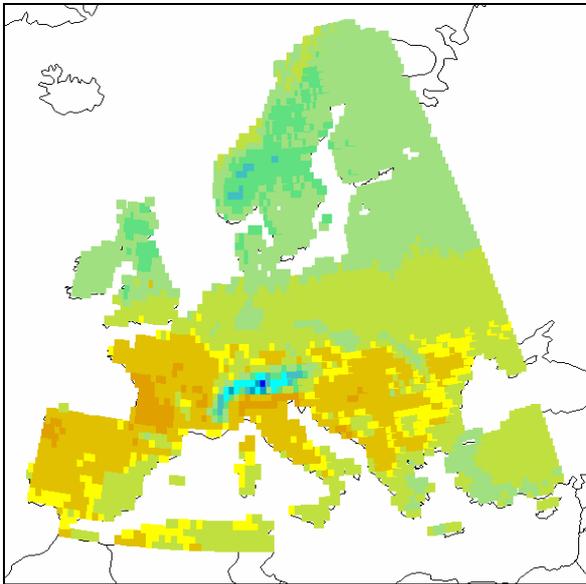
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3 Figure 2

1 a) RCAO/ECHAM-OPYC/A2

b) RCAO/ECHAM-OPYC/B2

2



3

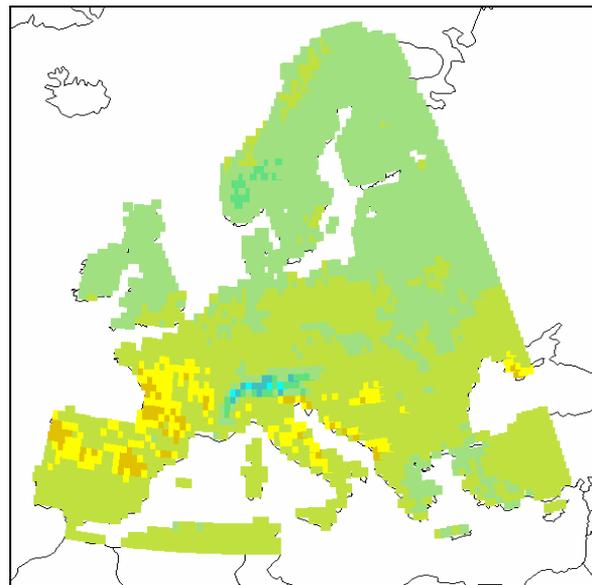
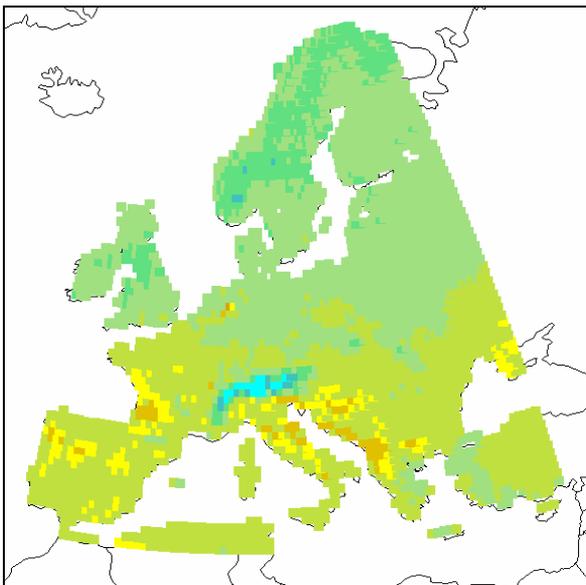
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6 c) RCAO/HadAM3H/A2

d) RCAO/HadAM3H/B2

7

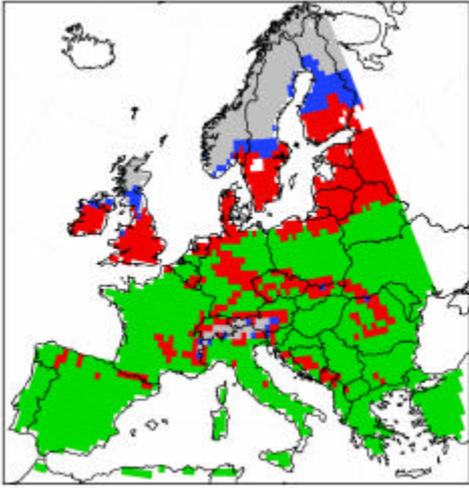


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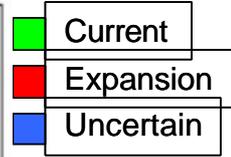
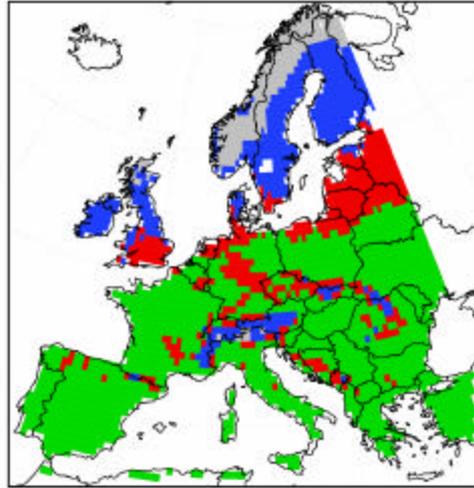
9 Figure 3

1

a



b



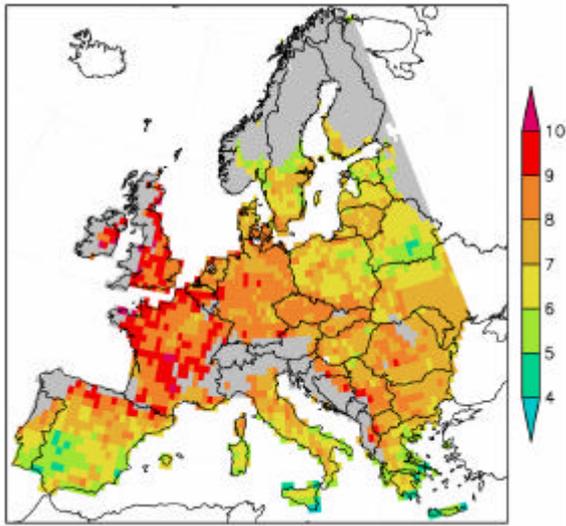
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3 Figure 4

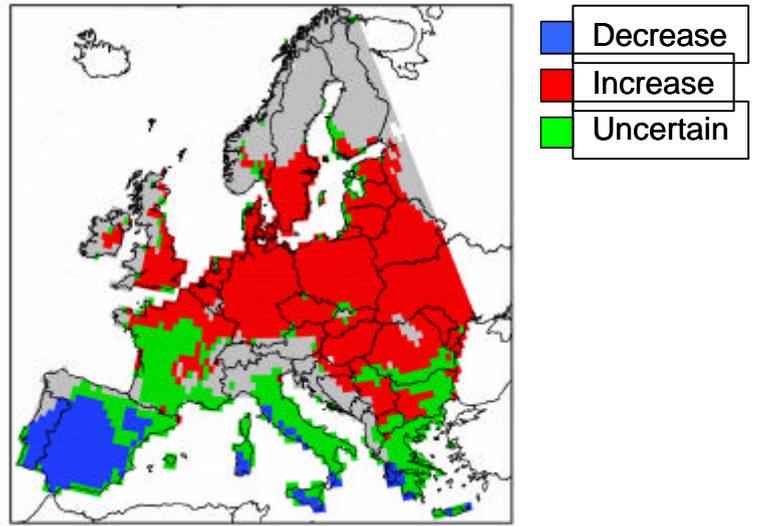
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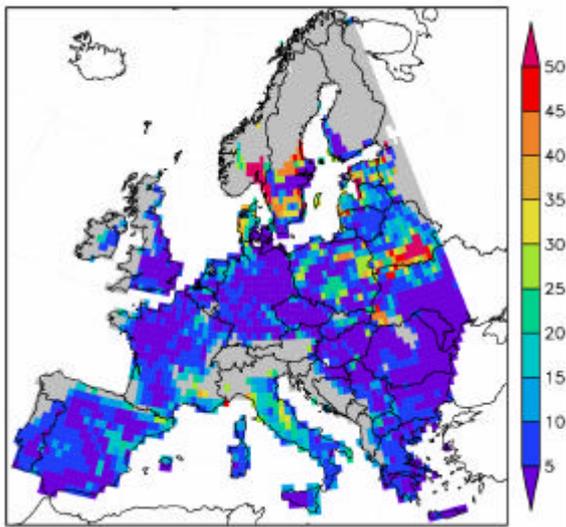
(a) Baseline CRU ($t\ ha^{-1}$)



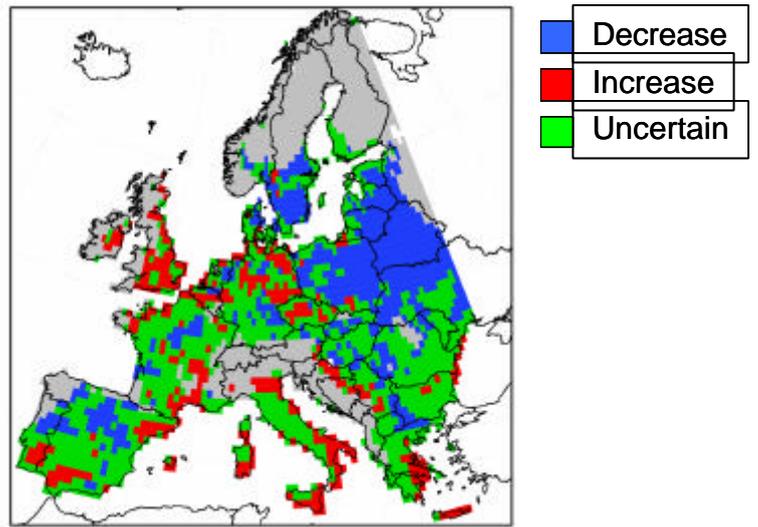
(b) 9 RCMs



(c) Baseline CRU ($kg\ N\ ha^{-1}$)



(d) 9 RCMs



2

3 Figure 5