## **Response to reviewers: Evaluation of JULES-crop performance** against site observations of irrigated maize from Mead, Nebraska

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#### 1 General notes to all reviewers

We thank all the reviewers for their thorough reading of the manuscript and insightful and helpful comments. One thing that has become clear to us after reading the response from all three reviewers is that we have not described the aim of the paper with sufficient clarity. We will address this deficiency in the manuscript and thank the reviewers for drawing our attention to it.

- 5 Our purpose in this study is not to do a comprehensive evaluation of JULES-crop. JULES-crop is an existing crop parametrisation available in the community land surface model JULES since June 2014, which has been in use across the JULES community in studies with a variety of different aims, spatial scales, geographical locations and crops. The original GMD discussion paper that presented this model, Osborne et al 2015, included a range of crop varieties and the performance at global and site scale.
- 10 Instead, this manuscript attempts to address a very particular question: how can one particularly rich dataset (irrigated maize grown at the research station in Mead) be used to probe the appropriateness of the parametrisations for crops within JULES and the input parameters for this one application. In particular, we attempt to test sections of the code in isolation wherever possible, to minimise the risk of tuning one parameter to compensate for a problem elsewhere in the model. This detailed dissection of the model is not something that has been previously carried out, and we believe that it is useful to understand
- 15 the model (both the crop parametrisation but also JULES vegetation in general) and also as a case study for setting up runs with other crops at other sites. Parameter settings for JULES are often inherited from one configuration to another, and a comprehensive re-examining of individual parameter settings against observations is rare. We intend this study to complement other work being carried out across the rest of the JULES community on crops and vegetation in general, such as improvements in the parametrisation of water stress.
- 20 We have submitted this study to GMD, since GMD encourages a wide variety of manuscript types, from the more traditional 'model description' papers (comprehensive presentations of models, with evaluation against standard benchmarks, observations, and/or other model output), to more the specific categories, such as 'technical', 'development', 'model evaluation',

'Methods for assessment of models' and 'experiment description'. We feel that our study falls within the 'model evaluation paper' category, since it adds to the body of evaluation work on a pre-existing model. It is a particular strength of GMD that this category exists.

- In this paper, we have included a discussion on the further work that would be needed before applying the tuned parameter values in this study to other sites or regions, since we felt this was desirable to place the results in the context of other JULES-crop development (and explicitly highlight important aspects not considered by this study, such as the response to water stress). However, in light of the referees' comments, we will de-emphasise this aspect of the paper and edit the text so that it is absolutely clear that we are not claiming that this work in any way 'completes' the validation of the model. We will also remove the discussion of the additional work needed before applying results derived on a site basis to a global run, as we
- 10 think that introducing this issue has contributed to a lack of clarity in the aims of the paper.

Suggested change to manuscript: We have removed the sentence

The implications of our results on the choice of parameters and settings to be used in global runs of JULES-crop are also discussed.

from the abstract. We have changed

15 In this evaluation paper, we have looked in detail at how the input parameters can be tuned for one crop.

to

In this evaluation paper, we have looked in detail at how the input parameters in this pre-existing model can be tuned for one crop.

in the conclusion. We have also changed

20 We have also improved the parameters required in the crop-model part of JULES.

#### to

We have also improved the maize parameters required in the crop-model part of JULES.

and removed the sentence

This configuration would be applicable for a wider set of situations, for example, the ability to model the yield of non-irrigated crops would be a necessary requirement for addressing food security questions.

We have replaced the last paragraph

While this study has been carried out at one particular location, the JULES input parameters for individual crop tiles are designed so that they fully characterise a particular crop variety. Therefore, the logical next step, after addressing the issues described above, would be to test this model feature by investigating how well these new parameters perform at other sites which grow the same variety. To scale this up from the site level to global applications, it is important to consider that there

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is a limit to the number of crop tiles that can be simulated in one run, due to data and computational resource constraints. Therefore each variety within a crop type cannot be simulated as a separate tile, with its own individual set of parameters. Previous JULES-crop global analyses, such as in Osborne et al. (2015), have therefore aimed at a compromise: four main crop types were considered (maize, soybean, wheat and rice), and each of these crop types were given spatially-varying thermal times between emergence and flowering and between flowering and harvest, which were tuned to observed growing season lengths. The other parameters were set to 'generic' parameter values for that crop type. In this way, some of the variation between varieties within a crop type was captured. The parameters given in Table 2 and Table 3 are a good starting point for a generic 'maize' tile, but would need to be tested at locations with different varieties, chosen for different climatic conditions, to determine whether they are able to sufficiently capture the characteristics of maize on a global scale to be able to address useful scientific questions. If not, the use of more than one 'maize' tile should be considered, or key parameters should be identified which could be allowed to vary spatially.

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with one that focuses more on the value of this work as a case study:

While this study has focussed on modelling one crop variety at one site, it also provides a demonstration of how knowledge of the structure of the model can be used to tease apart different components of the model so that they can be tuned or evaluated against observations. This ranged from the tuning of parameters in simple allometric relations such as that relating stem carbon to canopy height, to tuning the canopy parameters using the external representation of the canopy scheme in pySellersTwoStream, up to running JULES with the crop model switched off and prescribed LAI and canopy height, in order to tune GPP without the complication of the feedback between GPP and LAI. It therefore provides a case study which can be followed when setting up and evaluating the model for other crop varieties and sites.

#### 20 2 Response to reviewer 1

Crop phenology simulated by JULES-crop is still purely temperature driven. Many crop models have evolved to include impacts from other factors, such as precipitation, nutrient and day length. The authors should recognize biases it may bring in simulating crop phenology.

While these are important considerations for the model in general, these factors have a minimal effect on the results of this present study since the sowing, emergence, anthesis and harvest dates for each year are set using data from the site PI, and these are used to calculate the thermal times. As we mention in the conclusion, it would be interesting to investigate the performance of JULES at this site given generic values for the thermal times. This investigation would necessarily include consideration of other factors which could affect crop phenology but are not captured by the model.

Suggested change to manuscript: Put this point across more clearly in the conclusion by redrafting

Thirdly, these runs have been tightly constrained by observed sowing, emergence, flowering and harvest dates. For most regions, and for any climate projections, these sorts of data will not be available. Therefore, it would be useful to investigate the performance of the model in individual years at these sites when given generic values for the thermal time parameters.

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Thirdly, these runs have been tightly constrained by using observed sowing, emergence, flowering and harvest dates to generate the thermal times needed as input to JULES. For most regions, and for any climate projections, this sort of data will not be available. Therefore, it would be a useful test of the model to investigate the performance at the Mead sites if the model is given generic values for the thermal time parameters.

Many of the results have not been well presented and discussed. For example, Figure 23 not only shows that the JULES-crop has low bias in simulating LAI, but also shows that the capability of the model to capture interannual variability of LAI is very limited. Why is that? The high bias of GPP and low bias of LAI is intriguing. This should be further explored and explained because it appears implying that models might get good results with wrong reasons.

The exploration of the GPP and LAI biases are key parts of the manuscript. We investigate the high bias of GPP in detail in section 4.1, where we prescribe LAI from the site observations, including investigating whether this is influenced by diffuse radiation fraction, air temperature, vapor pressure deficit or soil moisture (Fig 19 and Fig 20). We also discuss ways to address this problem, including changing the nitrogen distribution through the canopy, increasing  $V_{\text{cmax,norm}}$ , decreasing alpha or

10 changing the curvature parameters used to combine the limiting photosynthesis rates, and say why we decide that there is not a strong enough justification for these options. In our conclusion, we highlight the overestimation of GPP as one of the key results of the study.

Similarly, the underestimation of LAI is also highlighted in the conclusions as one of the key results, and vital in the interpretation of the model GPP when the crop model is switched on. In Section 4.2, we investigate this in more detail by
re-running with different δ and γ parameters, which give better agreement in the years identified as showing large LAI biases compared to the observations. We conclude that the issue is the high sensitivity of the crop in its early life (due to the positive feedback between LAI and GPP). We discuss the possibility of using a different parametrisation of SLA to improve things and we highlight the oversensitivity to initial conditions as one of the key findings of the study in the conclusions.

Suggested change to manuscript: Change

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Including a decrease in leaf nitrogen concentration through the canopy would have the effect of making the light use of the plant more efficient, which would increase model GPP still further. Increasing  $V_{\rm cmax,norm}$  would have the effect of decreasing model GPP at higher APAR values, but this would not solve the issue at mid-range APAR points ~ 800  $\mu$ mol photons (m<sup>2</sup>ground)<sup>-1</sup>s<sup>-1</sup> and would also worsen the fit of the points with high diffuse radiation fractions.

#### 25 to

Including a decrease in leaf nitrogen concentration through the canopy (while keeping the total amount of nitrogen constant) would have the effect of making the light use of the plant more efficient, which would increase model GPP still further. Decreasing  $V_{\rm cmax,norm}$  would have the effect of decreasing model GPP at higher APAR values, but this would not solve the issue at mid-range APAR points ~ 800  $\mu$ mol photons (m<sup>2</sup>ground)<sup>-1</sup>s<sup>-1</sup> and would also worsen the fit of the points with high diffuse radiation fractions.

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to add a clarification and fix a mistake in the text.

The discussion of scaling up from sites to the globe is too superficial. At least, there are tests that the authors can do to facilitate this discussion. For example, the authors can compare the site simulations against global simulations (Osborne et al. 2015) or the site simulations with parameters from. Osborne et al., (2015). This will give us better impression on the uncertainties JULES-crop has now for global simulations. Otherwise, I did not see the reason why this is the conclusion of this study.

Suggested change to manuscript: As discussed above, we did not intend this to to come across as the conclusion of the study and we have removed this section from the conclusions.

It is also important to compare the efforts in JULES-crop with other land surface crop model, such as CLM-crop and ORCHIDEE-crop.

A comparison with other models is beyond the scope of the current study, as we focus on investigating whether the existing 5 crop parametrisation within JULES can be used to model irrigated maize at one site.

Suggested change to manuscript: See changes suggested above, to clarify the aim of the study.

#### 3 Response to reviewer 2

The central component of the paper is well written with a thorough description of the model and the parameter calibration, but the remainder of the manuscript lacks strong detail. For example, the introduction doesn't include much of a motivation for the study. What are the goals of the JULES crop model - yield, carbon, productivity and why is parameterizing for the Mead site a valuable exercise? The results and conclusion are also fairly brief.

Suggested change to manuscript: As discussed above, we have updated the manuscript to clarify the motivation of the study.

The authors mention in the abstract and introduction that they used observations from three MEAD FLUXNET sites, but they only use irrigated sites for model comparison? Why didn't they include the rainfed site in the analysis - especially when most cropland relies on rain to meet water demands?

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While we agree that the ability of a crop model to reproduce rainfed sites is very important, this is beyond the scope of the current study, which focusses on irrigated maize. We have chosen to concentrate on an irrigated crop because when the plant becomes water stressed within JULES, this often dominate the carbon fluxes, and therefore the results become less useful for examining the other factors in e.g. the GPP calculation. Water stress for crops within JULES is parametrised in the same way as water stress for natural PFTs. It is likely that this parametrisation will change in the near future - there is a currently

a community-wide effort to improve the interaction between soil moisture and plant productivity and evapotranspiration in JULES, which will affect both crops and natural PFTS. In the conclusion of this manuscript, we state that the parametrisation of soil moisture stress of maize is the top priority for improving the representation of maize in general at this site.

In Section 2 and 3, some attention to the equations to define the parameters is needed to understand how the model works without reading other papers. The tables do not provide the necessary information to a non-user of JULES.

Suggested change to manuscript: We have edited the tables to include a brief text description of each parameter.

In Section 3, I would like some additional discussion on how the authors chose the parameters calibrated in this study. Was a sensitivity experiment done that indicated these parameters were important or were the parameters chosen in Tables 1-4 because they were convenient given the available observational data? If there was not a sensitivity study, perhaps the authors could highlight which parameters showed the most importance for the model results.

5 We have not carried out a systematic sensitivity study to the parameter values. While this approach can yield valuable information, we believe our approach is complementary to such studies and also has merit, since it improves the understanding of the structure of the model.

Our parameter choice was based on site data where possible and on literature values otherwise. The choice of each individual parameter is discussed in section 3.3, 3.4 and 3.5. Where the choice of parameters is based on the site data, we provide the plot

- 10 to illustrate this, so that the reader can see the fit (Figures 1-16). Where the model is particularly sensitive to input parameters or the parameters are poorly constrained, this is discussed, for example, the nitrogen concentration per leaf area of the top leaf, the nitrogen distribution through the canopy and the specific leaf area at (or shortly after) emergence. In section 4.2, we do additional runs with two parameters varied:  $\delta$  and  $\gamma$ , which are particularly important in the beginning of the run, and show that the results are very sensitive to these parameters. We highlight this as an issue with the model and include it as one of the study's conclusions.
- 15 study's conclusions.

The authors compared the default JULES model without crops with the revised JULES crop model with updated parameters. This seems strange, what is the purpose of calibrating the LAI and height of JULES (without crops) with the newly parameterized JULES crop when a JULES-crop model already exists. I think it might also be more useful to compare the default JULES crop model from Osborne et al. (2015) with the newly revised site-specific parameterization. I also think it might be useful to look at the model performance at other sites.

Our intention in including runs with the crop model switched off and prescribed LAI was not to show that the using the crop model is an improvement over not using the crop model. Rather, the runs with prescribed LAI were used to look at the simulation of GPP with the feedback between GPP and LAI switched off. This allows a cleaner validation of the parameters and parametrisations used in calculating model GPP. Running the model at other sites is beyond the scope of this current study.

Suggested change to manuscript: Clarify this point by adding the extra paragraph to the conclusions described above, which emphasises the use of the prescribed LAI runs to test components of the GPP calculation. Change the paragraph

In previous analyses with JULES-crop, it has been assumed that model photosynthesis and respiration parameters can be set to the default C3 grass values for C3 crops and the default C4 grass values for C4 crops. We have shown that a significant improvement can be made when modelling irrigated maize if these parameters are tuned to results from the literature for maize. We have also improved the maize parameters required in the crop-model part of JULES (such as partition fractions and allometric constants) by tuning directly to observations.

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In previous analyses with JULES-crop, it has been assumed that model photosynthesis and respiration parameters can be set to the default C3 grass values for C3 crops and the default C4 grass values for C4 crops. We have used literature results and the observations available at this site to improve the maize parameters required in both the crop-model part of JULES (such as partition fractions and allometric constants) and the generic vegetation code.

It would also be useful to perform an uncertainty analysis of the parameters. This would be a valuable not only for the current model analysis, but also for extrapolating to other sites or globally. I'm not asking the authors to do this for this publication, but parameter uncertainty should be included in the discussion.

See response to the comment on a 'sensitivity study' above.

Eq. 1 has several parameters for temperature that aren't clearly defined (Table 3?). Relatedly, the second column in Tables 1-4 is not particularly useful to the reader; perhaps more appropriate would be a description for the variable rather than the model assigned parameter name.

15 These temperature parameters are the parameters in a triangular function, as defined by equation 1 and line 10-11 on p3. We will add an extra column to the tables to give a text summary of each parameter. The second column is important for users of JULES, as it removes any ambiguity between the parameters we define in the paper and the JULES name list variables. Suggested change to manuscript: New column added to tables to give a description of the JULES namelist variable in words.

Eq. 3: What is the difference between j and i? Again, it's not clear to a non-user of the model what those parameters are since they are not defined in the text or in the table.

j is defined in line 23 and i is defined in line 21. They are indices representing the four carbon pools. In equation 3, i is a particular instance of a carbon pool, whereas j is the summation index.

Thanks for spotting this omission - we have added this to the new manuscript.

#### Figure 26 & Figure 27: Why does US-Ne2 2010 have no observations?

This was missing because it was not part of the original observational dataset considered in the analysis. However, we have been able to source this missing data and have updated Figure 26 and 27 to include the lines for US-Ne2 observations. Suggested change to manuscript: New data added to plots in Figure 26 and Figure 27.

#### 5 4 Response to reviewer 3

Although the Abstract indicates that observations for maize at all three sites of Mead, Nebraska including one rain fed site (i.e. US-NE3) has been considered in deriving model parameters, according to the Introduction and the other sections, only the model performance for irrigated maize has been evaluated; some results from the rain fed maize might enhance the quality and validity of this study.

As discussed above, this study looks specifically at modelling irrigated maize at this site. Evaluating the performance of the model at the rainfed site would be beyond the scope of this current work and in the conclusion, we recommend that work on the parametrisation of soil moisture stress of maize should be the top priority for improving the representation of maize at this site.

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Suggested change to manuscript: See description of how the manuscript has been changed to clarify the aims of the study.

The JULES-crop simulations were run on crop tiles. At the US-NE2 site, soybean crop is also present in crop rotation on the same crop tile during even-numbered years. It would have been interesting to see how the model simulates crop-rotation on the same crop tile/s, as the paper also mentions that the model has been differently parameterized for C3 and C4 crops. This is very important, especially as the authors have plans for coupled-runs in the future, where the model should be able to simulate the carbon fluxes over a continuous time series. At least some mention/description on the model performance with regard to crop rotation needs to be included.

This particular study is concerned solely with assessing how well JULES-crop is able to model irrigated maize at this site looking at the performance of soybean would be beyond the scope of this study.

There is an intention in the JULES community that JULES-crop will eventually be available for use in coupled model runs. However, a considerable amount of model development would be needed before this would be even technically possible. Once

15 it is technically possible, there would still be large amount of work to test the performance of the crop parametrisation within

the coupled system. We have not intended to give the impression that the work done in this paper shows that the model is ready for such runs, and we have updated the manuscript to remove this ambiguity.

Other work within the JULES community is currently focussing on the modelling of crop rotation for the case of rice and wheat in India and Bangladesh, but this is beyond the scope of this study.

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Suggested change to manuscript: See above for the changes in describing the purpose of the study, in particular taking out the discussion relating to global runs.

The paper is a bit too long; especially the number of figures is too large. Please try to reduce the number of figures, leaving only those that are essential and directly related to the predicted fluxes.

After reading this comment, we have carefully gone through each figure to determine whether it is really necessary to have it in the main body of the paper, and feel that they are all required to fulfil the aims of the paper. As discussed above, we are attempting to pull apart the pieces of the model and see how suitable the parameters and parametrisations are for this particular

10 dataset and provide a case study of how to set runs up for other crops and sites. Therefore, we feel it is valuable to present this process it its entirety, and that the plots used to tune the parameters and test individual model components are, if anything, more useful than the final result for GPP with everything switched on.

Suggested change to manuscript: We have added a section to the conclusion to describe the use of this study as a case study for setting up the model at other locations and for other crops.

Although the text on line 13-14 on p 35 mentions that the use of certain parameters improves the prediction of LAI, the improvement in the magnitude can be seen only during certain years when we compare the Figures 23 and 24. It seems that the model still needs improvement with regard to LAI, as the seasonality is not properly captured by the modeled LAI compared to the observed LAI.

15 We agree that the model is not properly capturing LAI in all years, which we conclude is due to an oversensitivity to initial conditions, and this is one of the key findings that we highlight in the conclusions. As discussed above, this study is looking at a particular application of a pre-existing model, and an important part of this task is pointing out where the model needs further development to perform well for this use case.

The reader hardly can get any information from Tables 1-4; an additional column which describes each parameter listed in columns 1 and 2 might be helpful (or the model terms in column 2 could be replaced with easily understandable descriptors of each parameter). The column heading of the last column may be changed to 'Remarks' (instead of 'Discussion').

Suggested change to manuscript: We will add an extra column giving a text summary of each parameter. We will change the 20 heading of the last column from 'Discussion' to 'Remarks'. The paper does not seem to be in its final form, as still there are some typos and other errors, some of which are described below. So a thorough check on those is also needed.

P3 L13 'resp'should be replaced with 'respectively'

Suggested change to manuscript: We have removed this abbreviation.

P5 L20 has 'a number options'. Please correct it.

Suggested change to manuscript: We have changed 'a number options' to 'a number of options'.

P5 L24 Zenith angle dependence (of what)?

In the sentence "The equations for absorption and scattering at each layer for the incident diffuse beam and the incident direct beam (including the zenith angle dependence) are solved separately, taking into account the distribution of leaf angles.",

5 the 'zenith angle dependence' is in the absorption and scattering at each layer. Suggested change to manuscript: Reorder the sentence to remove this ambiguity i.e. change it to

The equations for absorption and scattering at each layer for the incident diffuse beam and the incident direct beam are solved separately, taking into account the distribution of leaf angles and the zenith angle.

P6 L17 Q10 should be replaced with Q10

#### 10 Suggested change to manuscript: We have replaced this occurrence of Q10 with $Q_{10}$ .

#### P14 L11 Instead of 'downloaded 15.09.2016', please provide a proper reference/web source.

Suggested change to manuscript: We have replaced 'downloaded 15.09.2016' with a reference to the code availability section, which already contains the link to the source. We have added the sentence 'The version used in this study was downloaded on 15.09.2016' to the code availability section.

P15 L24 (and everywhere else) 'Parametrisation' needs to be replaced with 'parameterization'.

We have checked with the Copernicus editorial team, and 'parametrisation' is an accepted spelling variant. We have made sure that this spelling is consistent throughout the document. P 20 Figure 4 has several lines in each color. Unless the authors explain what those are, the figure does not have much meaning to it (e.g. what are those several lines in black color mean? Which site does each of those correspond to?).

This information is already included in the caption of Figure 4, which reads

Green leaf biomass against DVI. Blue, green, red lines are derived from US-Ne1, US-Ne2 and US-Ne3 observations respectively. Black lines are generated using model parameters from Osborne et al. (2015) (left plot, solid lines) and the new, tuned parameters (right plot, dashed lines).

P 47 Heading of Table 5 mentions 'thermal units in degree days', whereas 'degree days' does not appear anywhere else in the text (According to P3 L1 crop development status is parameterized by a crop development index (DVI) which is determined by specific thermal time parameters set by the user (P3 L6-7). Degree days in Table 5 need to be related to the above description on p3.

5 Suggested change to manuscript: We have added the sentence " $T_o$ ,  $T_b$  and  $T_m$  are given in Kelvin and thermal time in units of degree days." to the description on page 3.

#### References

Osborne, T., Gornall, J., Hooker, J., Williams, K., Wiltshire, A., Betts, R., and Wheeler, T.: JULES-crop: a parametrisation of crops in the Joint UK Land Environment Simulator, Geoscientific Model Development, 8, 1139–1155, doi:10.5194/gmd-8-1139-2015, http://dx.doi. org/10.5194/gmd-8-1139-2015, 2015.

# **Evaluation of JULES-crop performance against site observations of irrigated maize from Mead, Nebraska**

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#### Abstract.

The JULES-crop model (Osborne et al., 2015) is a <u>parametrisation parameterisation</u> of crops within the Joint UK Land Environment Simulator (JULES), which aims to simulate both the impact of weather and climate on crop productivity and the impact of crop-lands on weather and climate. In this evaluation paper, observations of maize at three FLUXNET sites

5 in Nebraska (US-Ne1, US-Ne2, US-Ne3) are used to test model assumptions and make appropriate input parameter choices. JULES runs are performed for the irrigated sites (US-Ne1 and US-Ne2) both with the crop model switched off (prescribing leaf area index (LAI) and canopy height) and with the crop model switched on. These are compared against GPP and carbon pool FLUXNET observations. We use the results to point to future priorities for model development and describe how our methodology can be adapted to set up model runs for other sites and crop varieties. The implications of our results on the

10 choice of parameters and settings to be used in global runs of JULES-crop are also discussed.

#### 1 Introduction

The Joint UK Land Environment Simulator (JULES) (Best et al., 2011; Clark et al., 2011) is a process-based model that simulates the fluxes of carbon, water, energy and momentum between the land surface and the atmosphere. It is used in carbon cycle, climate change and impacts studies, and can be run on its own ('standalone' mode) or as a component of a coupled

15 Earth system model. As described in the model description paper Osborne et al. (2015), JULES-crop is a <u>parametrisation</u> parameterisation of crops that has been added to JULES in order to improve land-atmosphere interactions in areas where crops predominate in addition to enabling the simulation of the effect of weather and climate on food and water resources.

JULES treats each vegetation type as existing on a separate tile within a gridbox. Energy and carbon flux calculations are performed separately for each tile and prognostics such as leaf area index (LAI) and canopy height are calculated and stored for

20 each tile separately. Each vegetation tile has a different set of input parameters and leaf-level carbon assimilation is calculated differently depending on whether the tile is modelling a plant with a C3 or a C4 plant photosynthetic pathway. JULES-crop introduces a distinction between natural plant functional types (PFT) and crops. Crop tiles have their growth and development parametrised by a crop development index (DVI) and have different calculations for the allocation to plant carbon pools, leaf area index and height compared to natural PFTs. However, in most other respects, such as the calculation of gross primary productivity (GPP) and respiration, natural PFTs and crops are modelled in the same way within the JULES code. In its current stage of implementation, JULES-crop is available only in offline JULES runs, although there are plans to extend it for use in

5 coupled runs in the future.

In Osborne et al. (2015), global runs of the model were carried out for four generic crop types - maize, soybean, wheat and rice - and the effect of including the new crop <u>parametrisation parameterisation</u> was shown on sensible heat flux, moisture flux and net primary productivity (NPP) for some key countries. The model yield was also compared against global and country FAO crop yields. Site runs were performed at four FLUXNET sites with maize-soybean rotation: Mead (US-Ne2 and US-

10 Ne3), Bondville (US-Bo1) and Fermi (US-IB1). For input parameters which applied to both natural vegetation and crop tiles, C3 crops were given the parameter values of a standard C3 grass tile within JULES and C4 crops were given the values of a standard C4 grass tile. Osborne et al. (2015) speculated that an improved fit to observations could be obtained if these parameters were tuned to be more crop-specific.

The other published study using JULES-crop to date, Williams and Falloon (2015), used the global set up and the generic

- 15 parametrisation parameterisation of the four main crops from Osborne et al. (2015) to investigate the sensitivity of the yield from JULES-crop to the driving data variables, assessing both the relative importance of different variables and whether there is an advantage to using subdaily driving data rather than using daily driving data and performing an internal disaggregation to subdaily timescales. It also investigated the effect on the yield of initialising the model from climatology. No attempt was made to find more appropriate crop parameter values.
- 20 In this model evaluation paper, we use the observations available at the Mead FLUXNET sites US-Ne1, US-Ne2 and US-Ne3 to investigate how well each individual component of JULES performs for maize and how much of an improvement can be achieved by using more appropriate parameter values, taking into account advances in the JULES code since the Osborne
  - This paper is organised as follows. Section 2 describes the JULES-crop model and the other relevant parts of the JULES code. Section 3 gives information about the observations and the model set-up used for the runs presented in this paper, both those with and without the crop model switched on. Section 4 compares the model against the observations. Section 5 contains an overall assessment about the suitability of the model for modelling maize at these sites and discusses ways that the model could be improved. It also comments on the more general applicability of the parameters and methods used in this paper for tuning JULES-crop for other sites and varieties.

et al. (2015) study. We will use these new sets of parameters in JULES-crop runs for irrigated maize at Mead.

#### 30 2 Model description

In this section, we will summarise the relevant features of JULES and the JULES-crop <u>parametrisation parameterisation</u> within it, paying particular attention to new model features available since the Osborne et al. (2015) study (i.e. post version 4.0). These new options are indicated in Table 1, Table 2a, Table 2b, Table 3a, Table 3b, and Table 4.

#### 2.1 Crop model

10

In JULES-crop, the development status of each crop within a gridbox is parametrised by a crop development index (DVI). DVI

5 is -2 before sowing, -1 at sowing, 0 at emergence and 1 at flowering. Under favourable conditions, harvest occurs at a DVI of 2. The DVI has three main functions within the JULES-crop model: it determines the harvest date, the partitioning of NPP between the crop carbon pools and the dependence of the specific leaf area on leaf carbon.

The increase in DVI over the course of the crop's lifetime is determined by crop-specific thermal time parameters, set by the user. If the dependence on photoperiod length is neglected (as in Osborne et al. (2015)), thermal time becomes an accumulation of effective temperature between one development stage and the next, where effective temperature is defined by

$$T_{\rm eff} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } T < T_b \\ T - T_b & \text{for } T_b \le T \le T_o \\ (T_o - T_b)(1 - \frac{T - T_o}{T_m - T_o}) & \text{for } T_o < T < T_m \\ 0 & \text{for } T \ge T_m \end{cases}$$
(1)

i.e. a triangular function, peaking at  $T = T_o$ , which is zero below  $T = T_b$  and above  $T = T_m$ .  $T_o$ ,  $T_b$  and  $T_m$  are parameters specified by the user for each crop.  $T_a$ ,  $T_b$  and  $T_m$  are given in Kelvin and thermal time in units of degree days.

Crop growth is modelled by accumulating net primary productivity over the course of a day (NPP<sup>acc</sup>) and splitting this 15 carbon between the crop root, stem, leaf, harvest and reserve carbon pools for that tile ( $C_{\text{root}}$ ,  $C_{\text{leaf}}$ ,  $C_{\text{stem}}$ ,  $C_{\text{harv}}$ ,  $C_{\text{resv}}$ respectively<del>resp</del>.) according to

$$\Delta C_{\text{root}} = p_{\text{root}} \text{NPP}^{\text{acc}}$$

$$\Delta C_{\text{leaf}} = p_{\text{leaf}} \text{NPP}^{\text{acc}}$$

$$\Delta C_{\text{harv}} = p_{\text{harv}} \text{NPP}^{\text{acc}}$$
20 
$$\Delta C_{\text{stem}} = p_{\text{stem}} \text{NPP}^{\text{acc}} (1 - \tau)$$

$$\Delta C_{\text{resv}} = p_{\text{stem}} \text{NPP}^{\text{acc}} \tau,$$
(2)

where  $\tau$  is the fraction of stem carbon that is partitioned into the stem reserve pool (containing the remobilizable carbohydrates) and  $p_i$  (for i = root, stem, leaf, harv) are the partition coefficients defined by

$$p_i = \frac{\exp\left[\alpha_i + \beta_i \text{DVI}\right]}{\sum_j \exp\left[\alpha_j + \beta_j \text{DVI}\right]},\tag{3}$$

25 where j = root, stem, leaf, harv.  $\alpha_{\text{harv}}$  and  $\beta_{\text{harv}}$  are both set to zero. All other  $\alpha_i$  and  $\beta_i$  are set by the user for each crop. Note that  $\sum p_j = 1$ .

The crop carbon pools are initialised at  $DVI_{init}$ , which is at or just after emergence. At initialisation, the crops are given a certain amount of carbon  $C_{init}$ , which is distributed between the carbon pools according to the values of  $p_i$  at  $DVI = DVI_{init}$ .

Once  $p_{\text{stem}}$  drops below 0.01, carbon from the stem reserve pool is mobilised to the harvest pool, by reducing  $C_{\text{resv}}$  by 10% each day and adding this carbon to the harvest pool (as proposed in de Vries et al. (1989)). Similarly, once the DVI is above a

threshold value  $DVI_{sen}$ , carbon from the leaf pool is mobilised to the harvest pool, by reducing  $C_{leaf}$  by a fraction

 $\mu (\mathrm{DVI} - \mathrm{DVI}_{\mathrm{sen}})^{\nu} \tag{4}$ 

5 each day when  $DVI > DVI_{sen}$  and adding this carbon to  $C_{harv}$ , to simulate leaf senescence.

After  $DVI_{init}$  and if sowing date is prescribed, the model harvests the crop and resets the crop tile if any of the following conditions are satisfied:

- 1. DVI reaches 2 (i.e. the desired harvest condition)
- 2. LAI>15, since once the model reaches such large LAI it is clearly unrealistic,
- 10 3. the temperature of the second soil layer from the top falls below a user defined temperature  $T_{mort}$  at any time after DVI=1
  - 4. DVI > 1.0, the carbon in the roots, leaves, stem and stem reserve pool of the crop falls below  $C_{\text{init}}$  and the amount of carbon in the harvest pool is greater than zero
  - 5. the crop age reaches 1 year, so that a new crop can be sown each year.

#### 15 The crop height h is calculated from the $C_{\text{stem}}$ pool using

$$h = \kappa \left(\frac{C_{\text{stem}}}{f_{C,\text{stem}}}\right)^{\lambda},\tag{5}$$

where  $\kappa$  and  $\lambda$  are allometric constants and  $f_{C,\text{stem}}$  is the fraction of carbon in the dried stem (excluding the stem reserves), all given as input by the user.

The green (i.e. photosynthesising) leaf area index (LAI) is calculated from the leaf carbon and the specific leaf area (SLA) 20 by

$$LAI = \frac{C_{leaf}}{f_{C,leaf}}SLA,$$
(6)

where  $f_{C,\text{leaf}}$  is the carbon fraction of the dry leaves. The SLA depends on the DVI via

$$SLA = \gamma \left( DVI + 0.06 \right)^{\delta},\tag{7}$$

where  $\gamma$  and  $\delta$  are allometric constants which are set by the user.

JULES-crop outputs water-limited potential yield if irrigation is switched off and potential yield if irrigation is on, expressed in kg C m<sup>-2</sup>. This yield is calculated by multiplying the value of  $C_{harv}$  on the day of harvest by a parameter  $f_{yield}$  supplied by the user, which represents the fraction of  $C_{harv}$  that is economically valuable i.e. the maize kernel in our runs.

#### 2.2 Relationship between LAI, canopy height and plant carbon for natural vegetation

When the crop model is switched off, different allometric functions are used to approximate the carbon in the leaf, stem and

5 root pools based on the prognostics LAI and canopy height *h*. These allometric functions make use of a 'balanced' leaf area index (LAI<sub>bal</sub>), which is calculated from canopy height using

$$LAI_{bal} = \left(\frac{a_{ws}\eta_{sl}}{a_{wl}}h\right)^{\frac{1}{b_{wl}-1}},$$
(8)

where  $a_{ws}$ ,  $a_{wl}$ ,  $\eta_{sl}$  and  $b_{wl}$  are all allometric constants, defined in relation to the respiring stem carbon S and the total stem carbon W:

10 
$$S = \eta_{sl} h LAI_{bal}$$
 (9)

$$\mathcal{W} = a_{ws}S \tag{10}$$

$$\mathcal{W} = a_{wl} \left( \text{LAI}_{\text{bal}} \right)^{b_{wl}}.$$
<sup>(11)</sup>

We assume here that S is equivalent to  $C_{\text{stem}}$  and W is equivalent to  $C_{\text{stem}} + C_{\text{resv}}$  in the crop model. Therefore,  $a_{ws}$  is equivalent to  $1 - \tau$  in the crop model and these equations can be compared directly to Eq. 5 until the start of the remobilisation of the crop stem reserve pool.

The size of the leaf carbon pool  $C_{\text{leaf}}$  is calculated by multiplying the LAI by the canopy-averaged specific leaf density  $\sigma_l$  (in kg C (m<sup>2</sup> leaf)<sup>-1</sup>), which is assumed to be constant i.e.

$$C_{\text{leaf}} = \sigma_l \text{LAI.}$$
 (12)

The root carbon  $C_{root}$  is approximated by

20 
$$C_{\rm root} = \sigma_l \rm LAI_{bal}.$$
 (13)

#### 2.3 Canopy

15

JULES has a number of options for calculating the photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) available to leaves at different depths in the plant canopy. In this discussion, we will focus on the canopy radiation scheme used in Osborne et al. (2015) (can\_rad\_mod 5) and the canopy radiation scheme currently recommended for layered canopies in JULES (can\_rad\_mod

6), which both treat the direct and diffuse components of the incident radiation separately (as in Sellers (1985)) and include sunflecks. We also assume a zenith angle dependence (1\_cosz=T). JULES assumes that the incident PAR is half of the incident shortwave radiation. The amount of incident PAR composed of diffuse radiation is given as part of the driving data. The canopy is split into 10 equal layers of green leaf area index (LAI). The equations for absorption and scattering at each layer for the incident diffuse beam and the incident direct beam (including the zenith angle dependence) are solved separately, taking into account the distribution of leaf angles and the zenith angle. The sunlit fraction of the leaf is also calculated, and absorbs light from the direct component of the direct beam radiation ("sunflecks"), in addition to the diffuse light from the

direct beam and light from the diffuse beam. The shaded fraction of the leaf absorbs light scattered from the direct beam and light from diffuse beam only (i.e. no direct sunlight). JULES has two leaf angle distributions currently implemented - spherical

5 and horizontal. As of JULES version 4.6, JULES also includes a canopy clumping factor *a*, which scales LAI within the canopy radiation scheme and represents variation within and across canopy structures.

#### 2.4 Modelling C4 photosynthesis

In JULES, potential leaf-level photosynthesis (unstressed by water availability and ozone effects) is calculated as the smoothed minimum of three rates, following Collatz et al. (1991, 1992): (a) the Rubisco-limited rate  $W_c$ , which depends on the maximum rate of carboxylation of Rubisco, (b) the light-limited rate  $W_{light}$  and (c) the rate associated with the transport of photosynthetic products for C3 plants or PEP-Carboxylase limitation for C4 plants  $W_e$ .

For C4 plants,  $W_c$  is set to the maximum rate of carboxylation of Rubisco,  $V_{cmax}$ .  $V_{cmax}$  is calculated using

$$V_{\rm cmax} = \frac{V_{\rm cmax,norm} f_T(T_c)}{\left[1 + e^{0.3(T_c - T_{\rm upp})}\right] \left[1 + e^{0.3(T_{\rm low} - T_c)}\right]}$$
(14)

where

10

15 
$$f_T = Q_{10,\text{leaf}}^{0.1(T_c - 25)}$$
 (15)

and  $T_c$  is the leaf temperature (which does not vary through the canopy in JULES) and  $V_{cmax,norm}$  is a normalisation constant. Note that  $V_{cmax,norm}$  is not  $V_{cmax}(T_c=25^{\circ}\text{C})$  but, for default JULES C3 grass and C4 grass parameters,  $V_{cmax,norm}$  and  $V_{cmax}(T_c=25^{\circ}\text{C})$  are within 5 % of each other.  $T_{upp}$  and  $T_{low}$  are used to give the leaf an optimum temperature range, which is superimposed on the  $Q_{10}$  Q10 dependence in  $f_T$ .

20 If trait-based physiology is switched off in JULES (l\_trait\_phys=F),

$$V_{\rm cmax,norm} = n_e n_l \tag{16}$$

where  $n_l$  is the mass of nitrogen per mass of carbon in the leaf (with units kg N (kg C)<sup>-1</sup>), which varies through the canopy, and  $n_e$  is a normalisation constant, fitted to data. The input parameters specified by the user are  $n_l^0$  ( $n_l$  at the top of the canopy) and  $n_e$ .

In the JULES canopy radiation scheme can\_rad\_mod 5,  $V_{\text{cmax,norm}}$  is assumed to vary through the canopy according to  $\exp(-k_n \text{LAI}_{\text{layer}}/\text{LAI})$ . In can\_rad\_mod 6,  $V_{\text{cmax,norm}}$  varies through the canopy according to  $\exp(-k_{nl} \text{LAI}_{\text{layer}})$ .  $k_n$ and  $k_{nl}$  are pft-dependent parameters set by the user.

The light-limited rate of leaf photosynthesis for C4 plants is calculated in JULES using

$$W_{\text{light}} = \alpha I_{\text{APAR}} \tag{17}$$

where  $\alpha$  is the quantum efficiency in mol CO<sub>2</sub> (mol PAR photons)<sup>-1</sup> and  $I_{APAR}$  is the absorbed photosynthetically active radiation (APAR) in mol PAR photons m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>. As discussed, can\_rad\_mod 5 and can\_rad\_mod 6 include the effect of

sunflecks by spitting the leaf into a sunlight and a shaded part, which have different values of  $I_{APAR}$  and therefore different  $W_{light}$ .

5 The rate associated with PEP-Carboxylase limitation  $W_e$  in JULES is

$$W_e = 2 \times 10^4 V_{\rm cmax} \frac{c_i}{P_*} \tag{18}$$

where  $P_*$  is the surface air pressure and  $c_i$  is the leaf internal carbon dioxide partial pressure, which is calculated for C4 plants using

$$c_i = (c_a - \Gamma) f_0 \left( 1 - \frac{\Delta q}{\Delta q_{\text{crit}}} \right) + \Gamma$$
(19)

10 where Γ is the photorespiration point (zero for C4 plants) and c<sub>a</sub> is canopy CO<sub>2</sub> pressure. Δq is the canopy level specific humidity deficit, Δq<sub>crit</sub> is the critical specific humidity deficit and f<sub>0</sub> is the ratio of c<sub>i</sub> to c<sub>a</sub> at which the canopy level specific humidity deficit is zero. c<sub>a</sub> is calculated from R<sub>CO2</sub>P<sub>\*</sub>/ϵ, where R<sub>CO2</sub> is the atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> mass mixing ratio and ϵ = 1.5194 is the ratio of molecular weights of CO<sub>2</sub> and dry air. As an example, for zero specific humidity deficit, an atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> mass mixing ratio of 5.6×10<sup>-4</sup> (2003 global average, Dlugokencky and Tans (2016)), f<sub>0</sub> = 0.8 (JULES C4 grass default),
15 the value of W<sub>e</sub> is 5.9V<sub>cmax</sub>.

The rate of gross leaf photosynthesis W is the smoothed minimum of  $W_c$ ,  $W_{\text{light}}$  and  $W_e$  (calculated using non-rectangular hyperbolic functions with the curvature parameters hard-wired). The net potential (i.e. unstressed) leaf photosynthetic carbon uptake  $A_p$  is the gross leaf photosynthesis minus the dark leaf respiration  $R_d$ . The potential leaf photosynthesis is converted to a net photosynthesis by multiplying by a soil water stress parameter  $\beta$ . Stomata at points with negative or zero net photosynthesis

20 or where the leaf resistance exceeds its maximum value are closed (i.e. leaf gross photosynthesis is zero). Leaf resistance is calculated from the net (i.e. water-limited) rate of photosynthesis,  $(c_a - c_i)$ , the leaf temperature and the ratio of leaf resistance for CO<sub>2</sub> to leaf resistance for H<sub>2</sub>O (=1.6).

#### 2.5 Respiration

In JULES, the (non-water limited) leaf dark respiration  $R_d$  (in mol CO<sub>2</sub> (m<sup>2</sup> leaf)<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>) is calculated by

$$P_{d} = \begin{cases} 0.7 f_{dr} V_{cmax} & \text{for } I_{APAR} \Delta LAI > 10 \mu \text{mol CO}_2 (\text{m}^2 \text{ground})^{-1} \text{s}^{-1} \\ f_{dr} V_{cmax} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$(20)$$

to allow for the inhibition of dark respiration during daylight.  $R_d$  is summed over the canopy levels for sunlit and shaded leaves to get  $R_{dc}$ , the canopy dark respiration in (in mol CO<sub>2</sub> (m<sup>2</sup> ground)<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>).

The plant maintenance respiration in kg C (m<sup>2</sup> ground)<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> is calculated (for the setting l\_scale\_resp\_pm=T) using

$$R_{pm} = 0.012R_{dc}\beta \left(1 + \frac{N_{\text{root}}}{N_{\text{leaf}}} + \frac{N_{\text{stem}}}{N_{\text{leaf}}}\right)$$
(21)

$$= 0.012 R_{dc} \beta \left( 1 + \mu_{rl} \frac{C_{\text{root}}}{C_{\text{leaf}}} + \mu_{sl} \frac{C_{\text{stem}}}{C_{\text{leaf}}} \right), \tag{22}$$

where  $N_{\text{root}}$ ,  $N_{\text{stem}}$ ,  $N_{\text{leaf}}$  are the nitrogen in the roots, stems and leaves respectively.  $\mu_{rl}$  is the mass ratio of nitrogen to carbon in the roots divided by the ratio of nitrogen to carbon in the leaves.  $\mu_{sl}$  is the mass ratio of nitrogen to carbon in the stem (not including stem reserves) divided by the ratio of nitrogen to carbon in the leaves. The factor 0.012 relates mol CO<sub>2</sub> to kg C. If the option l\_scale\_resp\_pm=F is set, the root and stem terms do not depend on  $\beta$ .

In JULES, plant growth respiration  $R_{pg}$  is a fixed fraction  $r_g$  (the growth respiration coefficient) of the gross primary productivity ( $\Pi_G$ ) minus the plant maintenance respiration:

$$R_{pg} = r_g (\Pi_G - R_{pm}). \tag{23}$$

Note that this relation results in the correct growth respiration on timescales of order of a day or longer (on the model timestep 10 scale,  $R_{pg}$  will be negative in the night, which is misleading if taken in isolation). The net primary productivity  $\Pi_N$  is therefore

$$\Pi_N = \Pi_G - R_{pm} - R_{pg} \tag{24}$$

$$= (1 - r_g)(\Pi_G - R_{pm}).$$
<sup>(25)</sup>

#### 2.6 Irrigation

5

In JULES, irrigation is implemented such that the water in the top two soil layers is continuously topped up to a critical level (often the field capacity) during the 'irrigation season', if sufficient irrigation water is available. We will consider the irrigation season to last all year (irr\_crop=0) and treat the supply of irrigation as unlimited (l\_irrig\_limit=F). With these settings, the soil water stress parameter  $\beta$  stays approximately equal to one i.e. the plant is not water-stressed.

When irrigation is on, the root distribution has a negligible influence on model performance.

#### 2.7 Nitrogen limitation

20 Although JULES has a nitrogen cycle implemented (as of version 4.4), it can not yet be used in conjunction with the crop model. We therefore make the assumption here that the crops are not nitrogen limited.

#### 3 Experimental Set-up

#### 3.1 Observations

There are three FLUXNET sites at the University of Nebraska Agricultural Research and Development Center near Mead,
Nebraska, which are located within 1.6 km of each other: US-Ne1, US-Ne2 and US-Ne3. Both US-Ne1 and US-Ne2 are irrigated with a central pivot system, whereas US-Ne3 is entirely rainfed (Verma et al., 2005; Suyker et al., 2004, 2005). US-Ne1 grows maize, whereas US-Ne2 and US-Ne3 are maize-soybean rotations. The observations span 2001 to 2015 (although not all variables were available for this entire period).

The observations of the biomass of green leaves, yellow leaves, stem and reproductive parts of maize (kernel, cob, husk, ear shank, silk) were made after the plant material was dried to a constant temperature of 105 degrees Celsius. In the observations,

green leaves encompasses all green leaf material from the collar to the leaf tip, yellow leaves are defined as greater than 50% necrotic (or entirely yellow) leaf and the stem includes stem, leaf sheaths, immature or undeveloped ears and unfurled leaves.

Hourly incident and absorbed PAR (400 to 700 nm) observations are available from the Mead FLUXNET site. Absorbed

5 PAR was calculated using two point quantum sensors above the canopy, pointing up and down, and two line quantum sensors below the canopy, pointing up and down. The line quantum sensors below the canopy integrate over an area 1cm by 1m, in order to even out effects such as sunflecks.

The observations were used in three ways: to determine the input parameters to the JULES runs (air temperature, carbon pools, leaf nitrogen, absorbed PAR, canopy height, LAI), to drive the JULES runs themselves (meteorological variables, LAI, canopy height) and to compare the JULES run results against (GPP, carbon pools, LAI, canopy height).

#### 3.2 Model setup

10

Two types of JULES runs were used in this study:

- 1. Maize is treated as a natural PFT tile (i.e. crop model is switched off), with LAI and crop height prescribed from observations (linearly interpolated to create a daily time series).
- 15 2. Maize is considered as a crop tile (i.e. crop model is switched on).

The runs were driven by hourly observations of downward shortwave radiation, downward longwave radiation, precipitation, air temperature, wind speed, pressure, specific humidity and diffuse radiation fraction. Each year and site was modelled as a separate run, each starting on the 1st March. Annual global  $CO_2$  atmospheric concentrations were taken from Dlugokencky and Tans (2016).

A summary of the model input parameters used in both types of runs are given in Table 1, Table 2a, Table 3b, Table 3a, Table 3b, Table 4. The following sections describe in more detail how the choice of input parameters was made. In setting these parameters, it was assumed that there was no limitation from nitrogen availability or water availability.

#### 3.3 Parameters required for crop tiles only

#### 3.3.1 Crop development parameters

25 The cardinal temperatures  $T_b$ ,  $T_o$ ,  $T_m$  in this analysis have been kept the same as Osborne et al. (2015), which were chosen based on the literature review in Sánchez et al. (2014). As in Osborne et al. (2015), there was assumed to be no dependence of thermal time on the photoperiod.

The thermal times were calculated using the available Mead data for the sowing date, the date at which 50% of the plants had emerged<sup>1</sup>, the date at which 50% of the plants were at the R1 or 'estimated R1' growth stage (i.e. had begun the reproductive phase), the date at which 50% of the plants had reached the R6 growth stage (maturity) and the harvest date, together with the observed hourly air temperature and Eq. 1. These thermal times are given in Table 5. In the runs presented in Section 4,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>emergence dates for 2001-3 were estimated by the site investigator based on weather.

the thermal times for sowing to emergence, emergence to flowering and flowering to harvest for each year at a site are used in JULES-crop directly, to simulate the crop development as closely as possible for a finished crop season, where the harvest date is known.<sup>2</sup>

The sowing date is prescribed (i.e. 1\_prescsow=T). An option for sowing date to be calculated dynamically using rate of change of day length and soil temperature and moisture does exist (1\_prescsow=F), but this is not considered here as it is still under development and not recommended for use (Osborne et al., 2015).

5 Since harvest dates are available,  $T_{mort}$  was set low enough that it did not trigger harvest.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Since these thermal times are meant to represent intrinsic properties of the cultivar, it would be interesting to investigate the use of the mean thermal times. However, unlike the date of physiological maturity, the harvest date depends more practical management conditions. In situations where modelling the yield is more important than modelling the time series of the fluxes, for example, it might be more appropriate to recalibrate the DVI such that the crop reaches DVI=2 at physiological maturity and is harvested immediately.

#### 3.3.2 Carbon partitioning

The carbon partitioning parameters  $\alpha_i, \beta_i$  were tuned to observations of the biomass of green leaves, yellow leaves, stem and reproductive parts of maize. The ratio of carbon to biomass in each part of the plant was assumed to be the same and constant in time. The  $C_{\text{leaf}}$  pool in the model contains green leaves only (since  $C_{\text{leaf}}$  is directly linked to LAI and photosynthesis) and the

- 10  $C_{\text{harv}}$  pool consists of both the reproductive parts of the plants and the yellow leaves. Stem carbon in the model is split between the  $C_{\text{stem}}$  and  $C_{\text{resv}}$  pools. The biomass observations were linearly interpolated to get a daily time series and then differentiated with respect to time. Ratios of these rates were then plotted as a function of DVI (Figure 1). Using these plots alongside the function for root carbon from de Vries et al. (1989) (since there were no direct measurements of root biomass available from the Mead sites), new, tuned values for  $\alpha_i, \beta_i$  were found. These tuned parameters (dashed lines) show an improvement in the
- 15 proportion of the increase in above-ground carbon that goes to the green leaves (Figure 1, top) and the proportion of the increase in above-ground carbon that goes to the stem (Figure 1, middle) for DVI < 0.8 as compared to the parameters used in Osborne et al. (2015) (solid line). However, note that, even after the tuning, the proportion of the increase in above-ground carbon that goes to the green leaves does not drop off sharply enough for DVI > 0.8 compared to the observations. The tuned partition fractions are shown more clearly in Figure 2 (colours), together with the functions given in de Vries et al. (1989) (the  $\alpha_i, \beta_i$  in
- Osborne et al. (2015) were fitted to these functions with minor adjustments as a result of global runs). It was not possible to fit  $p_{root}$  accurately to the expression from de Vries et al. (1989) for approximately DVI 1.0 to 1.4 given the constraints above. In addition, in reality, water stress can also increase the fraction of NPP going to the roots (see discussion in e.g. de Vries et al. (1989) and Song et al. (2013)), but this effect is not taken into account in JULES-crop.

#### 3.3.3 Remobilisation of stem carbon

25 The stem biomass observations were used to tune the value for the stem reserve remobilisation constant  $\tau$ . The relation governing the stem reserve remobilisation can be rearranged to

$$1 - \frac{M_{\text{stem}}}{M_{\text{stem}}^{\text{max}}} = \tau \left( 1 - 0.9^{d_{\text{max}}} \right),\tag{26}$$

where  $M_{\text{stem}}$  is stem biomass (including reserves),  $M_{\text{stem}}^{\text{max}}$  is the maximum value of  $M_{\text{stem}}$  in that site in that year and  $d_{\text{max}}$  is the day since  $M_{\text{stem}}^{\text{max}}$  occurred.

- Therefore, plotting  $1 \frac{M_{\text{stem}}}{M_{\text{stem}}}$  against  $(1 0.9^{d_{\text{max}}})$  should give a straight line with gradient  $\tau$ . Using the assumption that the day with maximum stem biomass was approximately the same day as the day with the maximum stem biomass measurement, a straight line was fitted to the observations and an approximate value of  $\tau = 0.12$  was obtained. However, as can be seen in Figure 3 (which displays both the new, tuned value  $\tau = 0.12$  (black, dashed line) and the value used in Osborne et al. (2015) of  $\tau = 0.35$  (black, solid line), which was obtained from de Vries et al. (1989)), this parameterisation parameterisation does not
- 5 capture the large spread in the observations (blue, green and red lines). The uncertainty this introduces into the model is not critical, since there are no strong feedbacks involved (unlike, for example, uncertainty in SLA just after emergence), but it will affect the outputted yield.

#### 3.3.4 Senescence

The observations of green leaf biomass and above-ground biomass were used to tune the senescence parameters  $\mu$ ,  $\nu$  and

- 10 DVI<sub>sen</sub>. The above-ground biomass measurements were combined with the partition fractions from Section 3.3.2 and the carbon to biomass ratios from Section 3.3.7 and the senescence parametrisation from Eq. 4 to get a time series for green leaf biomass (Figure 4, black lines). This could then be compared to the observed time series for green leaf biomass (Figure 4, black lines). It is clear that, if the <u>parametrisation parameterisation</u> from Osborne et al. (2015) is used (Figure 4, left plot, solid black lines), senescence starts late and then progresses too abruptly as compared to the observations. However, with the
- 15 new parametrisationparameterisation, with the new free parameters μ, ν and DVI<sub>sen</sub>, it is possible to get a much better fit to the observations (Figure 4, right plot, dashed black lines). Note that this tuning partially compensates for the bias in the proportion of carbon going to the leaves between DVI 0.8 and 1.0 in Figure 1 (top). If this bias was not present, senescence could start more gradually, which would enable a better fit to leaf carbon around DVI=1.75. Also, the tuned lines underestimate the leaf biomass at around DVI=1.75, which will help to compensate for the model being unable to capture the drop in photosynthetic capacity in the green maize leaves towards the end of the season.

#### 3.3.5 Crop height

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Stem biomass measurements up until the maximum in each year and the corresponding crop height measurements from the Mead FLUXNET sites were used to fit the allometric constants  $\kappa$  and  $\lambda$ , through rearranging Eq. 5 to  $h = \kappa' M_{\text{stem}}^{\lambda}$  where  $\kappa' = \kappa (1 - \tau)^{\lambda}$ . For consistency, it is important that the  $\tau$  used in this expression is the same value as the  $\tau$  used in Eq. 2. Figure 5 shows the observations (points), along with the fit using parameters from Osborne et al. (2015) (solid black line,  $\lambda = 0.4$ ,  $\kappa' = 3.06$ ) and a tuned fit (dashed black line,  $\lambda = 0.38$ ,  $\kappa' = 3.43$ ).

#### 3.3.6 Specific leaf area

The allometric constants  $\gamma$  and  $\delta$  relating specific leaf area to DVI (Eq. 7) are tuned using Figure 6, which plots SLA observations against DVI (points), the tuned fit (dashed line) and the parameters used in Osborne et al. (2015) (solid line). The crop in the model is very sensitive to SLA for low values of DVI because of the feedback between leaf area index and leaf carbon. The model lines in Figure 6 have the steepest gradient for low values of DVI, where there is also a greater spread of observations.

#### 3.3.7 Carbon to biomass ratio in stem and leaves

The observations of carbon fraction of the green leaf biomass (canopy mean) against day after sowing is shown in Figure 7. The mean of all of these observation together is 0.43, although there are possible indications of a slight downward trend in each site in each year with time, which would indicate that this value might be sensitive to the dates on which the carbon is

5 measured and all three sites in 2001 have lower values. In these runs we have used  $f_{\rm C,leaf} = f_{\rm C,stem}$ =0.439. For comparison, de Vries et al. (1989) gives the carbon fraction of leaves and stems for non-leguminous and no-rice crops as 0.459 and 0.494 respectively and Osborne et al. (2015) used  $f_{\rm C,leaf} = f_{\rm C,stem}$ =0.5.

#### 3.3.8 Initial amount of carbon in crops

Assuming that, near emergence, approximately half of the plant carbon is above ground (Figure 2), values for the parameters

- 10 governing initialisation of  $C_{\text{init}} = 8.0 \times 10^{-4}$  and  $\text{DVI}_{\text{init}} = 0.1$  can be derived from the above-ground biomass measurements plotted in Figure 8 and the carbon to biomass ratios. Since there are no measurements below DVI=0.1, and the model is very sensitive to these parameters, we do not attempt to set a  $\text{DVI}_{\text{init}}$  below 0.1 and extrapolate. Note also that the initial value of carbon is very sensitive to the thermal time for emergence. Theoretically, the initial amount of carbon should also be proportional to the planting density, although this difference is not apparent in Figure 8. Figure 8 also shows that the value
- 15  $C_{\text{init}} = 1.0 \times 10^{-2}$  which was used in Osborne et al. (2015) to initialise the crop at  $\text{DVI}_{\text{init}} = 0.0$  is too high to be consistent with the above-ground biomass observations.

#### 3.3.9 Yield fraction

As discussed above, the  $C_{\text{harv}}$  pool in JULES contains both the reproductive parts of the maize crop (kernel, cob, husk, ear shank and silk) and the yellow leaf carbon and the proportion of this carbon pool that contributed to yield carbon  $f_{\text{yield}}$  is set by

- 20 the user. The value of  $f_{yield}$  can be derived using the latest observations in each season of the biomass of the reproductive part of the crop, the proportion of this reproductive biomass which is composed of kernels, and the yellow leaf biomass. The yield fraction is then calculated as the kernel fraction of the sum of the reproductive part of the crop and the yellow leaves, leading to an approximate value of  $f_{yield} = 0.74$  (Figure 9). This assumes that there is no significant change in  $f_{yield}$  between the last measurement of the season and the harvest and also that the carbon fraction of the biomass in the both the reproductive parts
- and the yellow leaves is the same. Typically, an accurate value of  $f_{\text{yield}}$  is not important in impact studies, since this constant can be incorporated into a yield gap parameter.

#### 3.4 Parameters required by natural pft tiles only

To obtain the allometric parameters required to relate the plant carbon pools to plant height and LAI when the crop model is switched off, LAI<sub>bal</sub> was assumed to be approximately equal to LAI up to the maximum LAI at the site for each year. As

discussed in Section 2.2, a<sub>ws</sub> is assumed to be equivalent to 1-τ i.e. a<sub>ws</sub>=0.88. The stem biomass observations can be used to obtain values for a<sub>wl</sub>, b<sub>wl</sub> and η<sub>sl</sub>, for a set ratio of carbon to biomass in the stem (see Section 3.3.7). First, a value for η<sub>sl</sub> of 0.017 kg C m<sup>-1</sup> (m<sup>2</sup> leaf)<sup>-1</sup> was obtained by plotting the stem biomass observations against LAI multiplied by crop height for points up until the maximum LAI for each site in a particular year (Figure 10, left). Secondly, a<sub>wl</sub> and b<sub>wl</sub> simultaneously fitted to (a) the stem biomass observations against LAI for points up until the maximum stem biomass observations, up until the maximum stem biomass measurement for each site in a particular year (Figure 10, right), (b) crop height against stem biomass observations, up until the maximum LAI for each site in a particular year (Figure 11) and (c) LAI<sub>bal</sub> against LAI up until the maximum LAI for each site in a particular year (Figure 12). This gave a<sub>wl</sub>=9.5×10<sup>-3</sup> kg C m<sup>-2</sup> and b<sub>wl</sub>=1.767.

As we saw in Figure 6, Eq. 12 is not a good approximation for maize, particularly when DVI is less than 0.5. For the purposes of these runs, an approximate value at DVI=1 was used.

#### 3.5 Parameters required by both crop tiles and natural pft tiles

#### 3.5.1 Canopy radiation scheme

- 10 The JULES default C4 grass settings for the PAR leaf scattering coefficient  $\omega_{PAR} = 0.17$  and the PAR leaf reflection coefficient  $\alpha_{refl,PAR} = 0.1$  were used (these are very similar to the values quoted in Sellers (1985) for live maize leaves:  $\omega_{PAR} = 0.175$ ,  $\alpha_{refl,PAR} = 0.105$ ) and a spherical angle distribution. These are the same parameter values and options that were used in Osborne et al. (2015) to model maize. The soil albedo was set to 0.133, which was the value from the nearest gridbox in the ancillary used in the HadGEM2-ES model (Collins et al., 2011; Jones et al., 2011), which was used in the Osborne et al. (2015)
- 15 global runs.

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The canopy clumping factor was tuned by comparing the fraction of incident PAR absorbed by the canopy (FAPAR), using absorbed and incident PAR observations and interpolated LAI observations, to the model FAPAR, using observed diffuse radiation fraction and interpolated LAI observations up until flowering. The python package pySellersTwoStream (see Section 6downloaded 15.09.2016) was used to calculate the model FAPAR since it is able to reproduce the results of the JULES radiation scheme exactly but can be called directly from our (python) analysis scripts, without the need for extra JULES runs

for each combination of parameters tested.

Absorbed PAR through the canopy in the model closely follows a exponential decay function. Calculating FAPAR involves integrating this exponential decay over the canopy: Figure 13 (centre row) shows the resulting FAPAR distribution against total LAI for a uniform canopy (canopy clumping factor a = 1). For mostly direct radiation (diffuse radiation fraction 0.2-0.3), the

- rate of decay with layer LAI in the model shows a clear dependence on the zenith angle (Figure 13, centre right), whereas for mostly diffuse radiation (diffuse radiation fraction 0.8-0.9), this zenith angle dependence is greatly reduced (Figure 13, centre left). While the observations (Figure 13, top row) also show a strong zenith angle dependence as the fraction of diffuse radiation decreases, the observations are, in general, consistent with a much lower effective decay constant (in particular, the model FAPAR values are higher than the observations at intermediate LAI values  $\sim 2$ ). The observed FAPAR values also have
- 30 a much larger scatter than seen in the model FAPAR.

Decreasing the canopy clumping factor is equivalent to decreasing the effective decay constant in the model. Figure 14 shows the value of the clumping factor that would be needed to reproduce each FAPAR observation, given the observed LAI and diffuse radiation fraction. While there is a large spread in clumping values derived in this way, these results appear to indicate that a clumping factor between 0.5 and 0.8 would be consistent with the majority of the observations. In this study, we therefore set a = 0.65. Figure 13 (bottom row) shows that using this clumping factor value to calculate model FAPAR gives a better fit to the observations, particularly for the intermediate LAI values.

Erectile, vertical and horizontal leaf angle distributions (for a uniform canopy) were also investigated, but the spherical distribution gave the best fit to the FAPAR observations.

5 The FAPAR observations can not be used to tune the model once green leaf area index has started to drop significantly, as the observations include PAR absorbed by any part of the plant, whereas the JULES canopy scheme models the PAR absorbed by photosynthesising leaves only. Whether the model canopy scheme needs to be extended to include the shading of green leaves by yellow leaves and other non-root biomass depends on the distribution of the remaining green leaves through the canopy (essentially, the model is roughly assuming that all the green LAI is at the top of the plant and so does not get shaded by other

10 plant material). Different approaches have been used in the literature. For example, Sellers (1985) models maize assuming that green and dead leaves are evenly distributed throughout the canopy, whereas de Vries et al. (1989) says that "maximum leaf photosynthesis in a senescencing crop declines with time. The oldest leaves in the base of the canopy are affected first".

#### **3.5.2** Photosynthesis light response curve

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In the literature, the photosynthetic capacity of maize leaves (per leaf area) declines with age and the older leaves are lower in
the canopy Dwyer and Stewart (1986); Stirling et al. (1994). As discussed in Section 2.4, change in photosynthetic capacity through the canopy can be modelled in JULES by a non-zero k<sub>nl</sub>, which we assume is due to change in nitrogen per unit leaf area through the canopy.

The nitrogen per unit leaf area as a function of layer LAI at anthesis (60 days after sowing) in Massignam et al. (2001) for the highest nitrogen availability level (150 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup>, residual soil nitrate 31 kg ha<sup>-1</sup>) was consistent with a  $k_{nl}$  of approximately

20 0.07. Since this is low, in this study, the variation of nitrogen per unit leaf area through the canopy is neglected i.e.  $k_{nl} = 0.0$ . The inclusion of a non-zero  $k_{nl}$  would have the effect of increasing GPP, as the plant would be able to make more efficient use of the incoming radiation.

In this study, trait-based physiology was switched off (i.e.  $l\_trait\_phys = F$ ). However, the same results could be obtained by switching trait-based physiology on and choosing values for the new parameters that are equivalent to the ones used here.

Figure 15 shows the observations of the nitrogen mass per unit carbon mass (left) and per unit leaf area (right) averaged over the canopy. In both plots, nitrogen rapidly decreases with time at the beginning and end of the season, which cannot be captured by JULES. The inclusion of a non-zero  $k_{nl}$  would also not solve this problem, as this would simply increase the nitrogen per leaf area mid-season, as can be seen in Figure 16 for  $k_{nl} = 0.2$ .

- In this study, the temperature dependence of  $V_{\rm cmax}$  is fixed by fitting Eq. 14 to the expression given in de Vries et al. (1989) (Figure 17). The default JULES C4 grass parametrisation of  $V_{\rm cmax}$  is more sharply peaked, has its maximum at a higher temperature and is more asymmetrical. Also plotted is the expression for the temperature dependence for maize  $V_{\rm cmax}$  from Massad et al. (2007). Puntel (2012) modelled  $V_{\rm cmax}$  for maize at the Mead site and fit the results with MaizeGro, using the default temperature dependence, which gives a peak at approximately 33 °C . Puntel (2012) verified this relation by successfully fitting the model to results from modern maize cultivars from Kim et al. (2007), Crafts-Brandner and Salvucci (2002) and Naidu et al. (2003), which all show the peak in  $V_{\rm cmax}$  at approximately the same temperature. Puntel (2012) related the normalisation of  $V_{\rm cmax}$  to the leaf nitrogen per biomass, for example, at 30 g N kg<sup>-1</sup> at the V14 growth stage, maximum assimilation at 25 °C was 37  $\mu$ mol m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>. The temperature dependence of maize at high temperatures was looked at in more
- 5 detail in Crafts-Brandner and Salvucci (2002), which included an investigation into the dependence on the rate of temperature change. The experiment with the more gradual temperature change in Crafts-Brandner and Salvucci (2002) corresponds well to the high temperature dependence of the de Vries et al. (1989) expression.

The canopy average  $V_{\text{cmax,norm}}$  was tuned using the value of  $V_{\text{cmax}}$  at 25 °C at 340 vppm CO<sub>2</sub> at a specific leaf weight of 450 kg h<sup>-1</sup>, which is the canopy average at DVI=1 (for maize cv Pioneer) from de Vries et al. (1989).  $n_{l0}$  was set to the

- 10 approximate value of the observations in Figure 15(left) at DVI=1, which then constrains  $n_e$  (since  $n_e = V_{\text{cmax,norm}}/n_{l0}$  when  $k_{nl} = 0$ ). The quantum efficiency  $\alpha$  was set to the value from de Vries et al. (1989) of 0.055  $\mu$ mol C m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> ( $\mu$ mol photons m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>)<sup>-1</sup> for maize, which was quoted for temperatures lower that 45 °C (above this temperature, it drops sharply an effect which is not reproduced in JULES). This is consistent with values in the literature (e.g. Massad et al. (2007) and references therein) and consistent with the fitted values of  $\alpha$  from Puntel (2012). The value of  $\alpha$  for maize is not dependent on leaf age or
- 15 position (Dwyer and Stewart, 1986). This method of tuning the JULES parameters has assumed that the two limiting rates are predominantly  $W_c$  and  $W_{\text{light}}$ , not  $W_e$ .

Note, however, that the photosynthesis light response curve in de Vries et al. (1989) has an exponential dependence on the absorbed radiation, which causes the shape to vary slightly from the non-rectangular hyperbolae used in JULES (with hard-wired values of curvature from Collatz et al. (1992)), leading to lower values of photosynthesis below approximately 1500  $\mu$ mol photons m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>.

The parameters involved in calculating the leaf internal carbon dioxide partial pressure,  $\Delta q_{\rm crit}$  and  $f_0$  (in Eq. 19), were not expected to strongly limit the results since this current study focusses on carbon fluxes rather than water fluxes, the runs are irrigated and the rate  $W_e$  is not expected to be limiting.  $\Delta q_{\rm crit}$  was left at its default C4 grass value (as in Osborne et al. (2015)) and  $f_0$  was set to 0.4 (consistent with the range of maize measurements quoted in de Vries et al. (1989)).

#### 25 3.5.3 Respiration

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Values for  $\mu_{rl}$  and  $\mu_{sl}$  (from Eq. 22) were obtained for maize from de Vries et al. (1989) of  $\mu_{rl} = 0.39$  and  $\mu_{sl} = 0.43$  (note that this assumes one constant value for the nitrogen per carbon in leaves over the crop season and  $\tau = 0.12$ ).

Fixing the value for the dark respiration coefficient  $f_{dr}$  (used in Eq. 20) is complicated by the inclusion in the code of inhibition of leaf respiration in the light. Also, Atkin et al. (1997) demonstrates that the dark respiration in darkness decreases

- 30 as the time the leaf has been in darkness increases. This complicates the use of the light response curves for fitting this parameter, since this means that parameters measured during the day will not necessarily correspond to those needed in JULES for modelling the average dark respiration over a 24 hour period. Using de Vries et al. (1989) values for the maximum rate of leaf photosynthesis at 450 kg biomass per hectare and maintenance respiration at 25°C for maize gives  $f_{dr}^{24h} = 0.0081$  over the course of 24 hours. Even with a correction for inhibition of dark respiration in the light, this is inconsistent with the spread of fitted values of dark respiration to maximum assimilation to light response curves measured at the site between 10:00 and 14:00 local time, presented in Puntel (2012) (leaf is exposed to ambient light pre-measurements), which are much higher, unless the dark respiration derived from the light curves is assumed to have a contribution from what JULES considers the 'growth respiration'. In general, the dark respiration coefficient estimated from light response curves for maize appears to be
  - 5 higher than the value derived from the maintenance respiration measurement in de Vries et al. (1989) (e.g. Collatz et al. (1992), Dohleman and Long (2009)), which is consistent with there being a component from growth respiration. In our JULES runs, we will use  $f_{dr}$  derived from the maintenance respiration observation in de Vries et al. (1989), corrected assuming that in the

day of measurement 50% of leaves experienced inhibition of the dark respiration by light i.e.  $f_{dr}$  is set to 0.0081/0.85=0.0095 (this assumption was later tested, and found to be accurate to within 2%).

- 10 de Vries et al. (1989) gives a growth respiration coefficient of 0.22, 0.18, 0.19, 0.18 for maize leaves, stem, roots and cob/grain respectively. These values can not be used directly in JULES since, as described earlier, the growth respiration coefficient in JULES is a constant for each carbon pool. Here, we set  $r_g$  is set to 0.25 for every PFT, as in the JULES Global Land (GL4.0) configuration (Walters et al., 2013) (note however that this approximation of a constant  $r_g$  for each plant carbon pool would break down for other crops e.g. soybean).
- It is also worth noting that Puntel (2012) found that the maximum assimilation rate had a much stronger relationship with leaf nitrogen than the leaf dark respiration rate. In addition, Stirling et al. (1994) shows a strong dependence in dark respiration in maize over time (using fits to light response curves), which can not be captured in JULES: at degree day 220 (roughly where the leaf area reaches a maximum), it is approximately twice as high at degree day 50. As we have discussed, maintenance respiration and  $V_{cmax}$  co-vary in JULES, but the growth respiration is linked to net primary productivity, which increases in the crop up until approximately anthesis. Therefore, the total leaf respiration in the model will vary in time, and will have a different dependence on time to  $V_{cmax}$ . However, the issues we have already identified with the modelling of the evolution of
- 5  $V_{\text{cmax}}$  over time will impact the accuracy of the modelling of the maintenance component of the leaf respiration over time. Leaf dark respiration rates also differs between different maize hybrids (Earl and Tollenaar, 1998). There is therefore a large uncertainty in the parameter  $f_{dr}$  and the overall determination of growth respiration.

#### 4 Results

In this section we present the results from the JULES runs and compare with observations from the Mead sites. The runs with the crop model switched off and prescribed LAI and height are useful for evaluating the parameter choices for photosynthesis and respiration, without the additional complication of the feedback between LAI and NPP, so will be discussed first. The results from the full crop model configuration will then be evaluated.

#### 4.1 Results from JULES runs without the crop model

#### 4.1.1 Gross primary productivity

**Figure 1.** Top: ratio of rate of change of  $C_{\text{leaf}}$  to rate of change of above-ground carbon  $C_{ag}$ , middle: ratio of rate of change of  $C_{\text{stem}} + C_{\text{resv}}$  to rate of change of above-ground carbon, bottom: ratio of rate of change of  $C_{\text{harv}}$  to rate of change of above-ground carbon. Solid black line uses the original crop parameters from Osborne et al. (2015), dashed black line uses the tuned parameters. Blue, green, red lines are derived from US-Ne1, US-Ne2 and US-Ne3 observations respectively.



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Figure 2. Partition fractions as a function of DVI using the tuned parameters. The dotted lines are from de Vries et al. (1989).



Figure 3. Stem biomass measurements  $(M_{\text{stem}})$  normalised to the maximum measurement for that site in that year  $(M_{\text{stem}}^{\text{max}})$  against day since the maximum measurement  $(d_{\text{max}})$ . Blue, green, red lines are derived from US-Ne1, US-Ne2 and US-Ne3 observations respectively. The dashed black line uses the tuned value  $\tau = 0.12$ , whereas the solid black line uses the Osborne et al. (2015) value  $\tau = 0.35$ .



Figure 4. Green leaf biomass against DVI. Blue, green, red lines are derived from US-Ne1, US-Ne2 and US-Ne3 observations respectively. Black lines are generated using model parameters from Osborne et al. (2015) (left plot, solid lines) and the new, tuned parameters (right plot, dashed lines).



Figure 5. Crop height against dry stem biomass (including reserves). Crop height against dry stem biomass (including reserves). Dots, vertical crosses (+) and diagonal crosses (x) are US-Ne1, US-Ne2 and US-Ne3 observations respectively. Solid line shows the fit using parameters from Osborne et al. (2015) ( $\lambda = 0.4$ ,  $\kappa' = 3.06$ ) and dashed line shows a tuned fit ( $\lambda = 0.38$ ,  $\kappa' = 3.43$ ). Only points up until the maximum stem biomass for that site in that year are plotted.



Figure 6. Specific leaf area against DVI. Dots, vertical crosses (+) and diagonal crosses (x) are US-Ne1, US-Ne2 and US-Ne3 observations respectively. Solid line shows the fit using parameters from Osborne et al. (2015) ( $\gamma = 22.5$ ,  $\delta = -0.2587$ ) and dashed line shows a tuned fit ( $\gamma = 17.6$ ,  $\delta = -0.33$ ).



**Figure 7.** Carbon to biomass ratio in leaves against day after sowing. Dots, vertical crosses (+) and diagonal crosses (x) are US-Ne1, US-Ne2 and US-Ne3 observations respectively. The years 2001-4 are magenta, blue, cyan and yellow respectively. Solid black line shows the value used in Osborne et al. (2015), dashed black line shows the value used in this analysis.



**Figure 8.** Above-ground biomass measurements against DVI. Dots, vertical crosses (+) are US-Ne1 and US-Ne2 observations respectively. Points from US-Ne3 are not shown. Intersection of the solid black line shows the initialisation used in Osborne et al. (2015), intersection of dashed black line shows the initialisation used in this study.



**Figure 9.** Yield fraction against the sum of the biomass in the reproductive parts of the maize crop (kernel, cob, husk, ear shank and silk) and the yellow leaf biomass, using the last measurement of the season. Dots, vertical crosses (+) and diagonal crosses (x) are US-Ne1, US-Ne2 and US-Ne3 observations respectively. Solid black line shows the value used implicitly in Osborne et al. (2015) and dashed black line shows the new, tuned value.



**Figure 10.** Stem biomass against the product of height and LAI (left) and stem biomass against the LAI (right). Dots, vertical crosses (+) and diagonal crosses (x) are US-Ne1, US-Ne2 and US-Ne3 observations respectively. Solid line shows the fit using the natural PFT parameters from Osborne et al. (2015) and dashed line shows a tuned fit using the relations for natural vegetation described in Section 2.2. Only points up until the maximum LAI measurement for that site in that year are shown.



**Figure 11.** Height against stem biomass. Dots, vertical crosses (+) and diagonal crosses (x) are US-Ne1, US-Ne2 and US-Ne3 observations respectively. Solid line shows the fit using natural PFT parameters from Osborne et al. (2015) and dashed line shows a tuned fit using the relations for natural vegetation described in Section 2.2. Only points up until the maximum stem biomass for that site in that year are plotted.



**Figure 12.** Balanced LAI (calculated from canopy height) against LAI. Dots, vertical crosses (+) and diagonal crosses (x) are US-Ne1, US-Ne2 and US-Ne3 observations respectively. Red: uses natural PFT parameters from Osborne et al. (2015), blue: uses new, tuned parameters. Dotted line shows x = y. Only points up until the maximum LAI measurement for that site in that year are shown.



Figure 13. FAPAR against interpolated LAI observations. Top row uses FAPAR observations, while middle row and bottom rows use model FAPAR with a = 1 and a = 0.65 respectively, using observed LAI and diffuse radiation fractions. Dots, vertical crosses (+) and diagonal crosses (x) show US-Ne1, US-Ne2 and US-Ne3 respectively and all data are between emergence (DVI=0) and flowering (DVI=1). Colours show the cosine of the zenith angle.



Figure 14. Derived value of the clumping factor a against LAI for each combination of FAPAR and observed diffuse radiation fraction. Dots, vertical crosses (+) and diagonal crosses (x) use US-Ne1, US-Ne2 and US-Ne3 LAI observations respectively. Colours show the cosine for the zenith angle (for legend, see Figure 13). Solid black line indicates a = 1 and dashed black line indicates a = 0.65.



Figure 15. Observed ratio of nitrogen mass to carbon mass in leaves (left) and leaf nitrogen per leaf area (right) against day after sowing. Dots, vertical crosses (+) and diagonal crosses (x) are US-Ne1, US-Ne2 and US-Ne3 respectively. The years 2001-4 are magenta, blue, cyan and yellow respectively.  $k_{nl} = 0$  i.e. leaf properties are assumed constant through the canopy.



Figure 16. Observed leaf nitrogen per leaf area at top of canopy against day after sowing assuming a decay through the canopy with decay constant  $k_{nl} = 0.2$ . Dots, vertical crosses (+) and diagonal crosses (x) are US-Ne1, US-Ne2 and US-Ne3 respectively. The years 2001-4 are magenta, blue, cyan and yellow respectively.



Figure 17. Parametrisations of  $V_{cmax}$  against leaf temperature. Solid black line shows default C4 grass in JULES. Dotted line shows the parametrisation parameterisation for maize given in de Vries et al. (1989), black dashed line shows a fit to this using the JULES parametrisationparameterisation. Blue dot-dashed shows the parametrisation parameterisation for maize in Massad et al. (2007).



**Figure 18.** Time series of GPP for irrigated maize at the Mead FLUXNET sites US-Ne1 and US-Ne2. Blue: model, green: observations. JULES runs have the crop model switched off, LAI and canopy height prescribed and the input parameters in Table 1, Table 2a, Table 2b, Table 3a, Table 3b and Table 4.



**Figure 19.** GPP (in  $\mu$ mol CO<sub>2</sub>(m<sup>2</sup>ground)<sup>-1</sup>s<sup>-1</sup>) against absorbed PAR (in  $\mu$ mol photons (m<sup>2</sup>ground)<sup>-1</sup>s<sup>-1</sup>) for the hourly FLUXNET data (left) and hourly output from the model runs (right). LAI is between 3.5 and 4.5 and all points have DVI less than 1. Dots, vertical crosses (+) and diagonal crosses (x) indicate US-Ne1, US-Ne2 and US-Ne3 respectively. Colour: diffuse radiation fraction. JULES runs have the crop model switched off, LAI and canopy height prescribed and the input parameters in Table 1, Table 2a, Table 2b, Table 3a, Table 3b and Table 4.



Plots of modelled GPP (blue) against observed GPP (green) are shown in Figure 18 for years in which irrigated maize was grown at the Mead FLUXNET sites US-Ne1 and US-Ne2. While the overall shape of the plots is good, it is clear that GPP in the model is significantly overestimated after the mid-season peak in observed GPP (corresponding to where LAI declines as the crop leaves senesce). As discussed earlier, the model  $V_{\rm cmax}$  at a certain temperature stays constant whereas in reality it would decline over the crop season. Implementing this decline into JULES would result in a much closer fit between the model GPP and observed GPP.

To a lesser extent, there also appears to be an overestimation of GPP in the model before senescence. This was investigated in more detail by comparing plots of FLUXNET GPP against observed APAR with plots of model GPP against APAR, for hourly measurements before the crop reaches DVI=1, for LAI bins of size 1 for all sites. Figure 19 shows the LAI bin 3.5 to 4.5.

- 5 There is a clustering of points due to the hourly resolution of the data, which is most clearly seen in the model output. Hours with high diffuse radiation fractions (red) are similar in both the FLUXNET data and the model output, although the scatter in the FLUXNET data is higher, as expected from the plots of observed FAPAR (Figure 13). For lower diffuse radiation fractions in the model, GPP decreases due to a combination of the effect of sunflecks and an increase in the effective decay constant of absorbed PAR through the canopy at the beginning and end of the day. Even when the scatter in the FAPAR observations is
- 10 taken into account, the decrease in GPP for lower diffuse radiation fractions does not appear to be as large in the model as in the GPP observations, and this is the source of the overestimation of GPP we saw in the model output in Figure 18 before the onset of senescence.

This effect was investigated further by considering the dependence on air temperature and vapour pressure deficit in the FLUXNET GPP data. As expected, the lower temperature points (Figure 20, top left) and lower VPD points (Figure 20, top

15 right) are clustered at low values of APAR. However, there does not seem to be a dependence on temperature or VPD at a constant APAR across the range of GPP observations.

Soil moisture stress is a factor that we have neglected in our runs, which could, if implemented, reduce GPP when the soil moisture is low. However, as Figure 20 shows for soil moisture content at a depth of 10cm (bottom left) and 25cm (bottom right), at higher APAR values, points below a threshold of 30% appear to be distributed evenly across the range of GPP observations for a constant APAP.

20 observations for a constant APAR.

Including a decrease in leaf nitrogen concentration through the canopy (while keeping the total amount of nitrogen constant) would have the effect of making the light use of the plant more efficient, which would increase model GPP still further. Decreasing Increasing- $V_{cmax,norm}$  would have the effect of decreasing reducing-model GPP at higher APAR values, but this would not solve the issue at mid-range APAR points ~ 800  $\mu$ mol photons (m<sup>2</sup>ground)<sup>-1</sup>s<sup>-1</sup> and would also worsen the fit of the points with high diffuse radiation fractions.

It is therefore difficult to see a clear way in which the model parameter settings or processes should be improved. It would be possible to improve the validation against observations by decreasing  $\alpha$  or changing the curvature parameter in the nonrectangular hyperbola implemented for light response within JULES (currently hard-wired) but it is difficult to justify this theoretically.

#### 30 4.1.2 Respiration

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The results from the model runs without the crop model can also be used to test the <u>parametrisation</u> parameterisation of respiration.

Using a number of assumptions, the measurements from Mead can be used to get an approximate value for leaf maintenance respiration. First, approximate values for NPP were obtained by linearly interpolating the Mead above-ground biomass measurements to get a daily time series, and then differentiating. The fraction of NPP directed to the roots at each DVI was calculated from the expression for maize in de Vries et al. (1989) (plotted in Figure 2) and then used to obtain the total NPP. Combining these NPP values with the GPP observations and assuming a value for the growth respiration coefficient of  $r_g = 0.25$  and summing over the crop season leads to an estimation of the plant maintenance respiration  $R_{pm}$ . It is necessary to sum over the whole season, since the NPP and GPP calculated in this way appear to be slightly out of step with each other, and this effect dominates the daily time series of derived maintenance respiration.

The interpolated carbon pool observations were used to calculate the factor  $\left(1 + \mu_{rl} \frac{C_{\text{root}}}{C_{\text{leaf}}} + \mu_{sl} \frac{C_{\text{stem}}}{C_{\text{leaf}}}\right)$  that converts between the leaf maintainance respiration and the total plant maintenance respiration. Note that the stem carbon observations had to be corrected using  $\tau$  to get  $C_{\text{stem}}$ . This factor was used to convert the leaf maintenance respiration outputted by the model to the total plant maintenance respiration.

Figure 21 shows the  $R_{pm}$  derived from observed GPP against  $R_{pm}/f_{dr}$  derived from the outputted model leaf maintenance respiration. The x-axis therefore is independent of  $f_{dr}$ , which can be obtained from the gradient. Data from 2010 is not included (since the crop was damaged by hail). Both the default JULES C4 grass  $f_{dr}$  (solid line) and the  $f_{dr}$  used in our maize configuration (dashed line) are shown. It can clearly be seen that the new maize  $f_{dr}$  is a better fit than the default C4 grass

**Figure 20.** Hourly FLUXNET GPP data (in  $\mu$ mol CO<sub>2</sub>(m<sup>2</sup>ground)<sup>-1</sup>s<sup>-1</sup>) against observed APAR (in  $\mu$ mol photons(m<sup>2</sup>ground)<sup>-1</sup>s<sup>-1</sup>). LAI is between 3.5 and 4.5 and all points have DVI less than 1. Dots, vertical crosses (+) and diagonal crosses (x) are US-Ne1, US-Ne2 and US-Ne3 observations respectively. Colour indicates air temperature (top left), vapour pressure deficit (top right), soil water content at 10cm (lower left) and soil moisture content at 25cm (lower right).



10 value. While there are many model and parameter assumptions  $(r_g, \mu_{rl}, \mu_{sl}, \beta = 1, C_{root}, \tau)$  that have gone into this plot, this is still an important consistency check of our parameters.

#### 4.2 Results from JULES runs with the crop model

This section describes the results from the runs for the irrigated maize seasons from the Mead sites, with the crop model switched on and the parameter settings summarised in Table 1, Table 2a, Table 2b, Table 3a, Table 3b, and Table 4

**Figure 21.**  $R_{pm}$  derived from observed GPP against  $R_{pm}/f_{dr}$  derived from the outputted model leaf maintenance respiration. Dots and vertical crosses (+) are US-Ne1 and US-Ne2 respectively. JULES runs have the crop model switched off, LAI and canopy height prescribed and the input parameters in Table 1, Table 2a, Table 2b, Table 3a, Table 3b and Table 4. Black lines pass through the origin and have gradient 0.025 (solid line) and 0.0096 (dashed line), corresponding to the value of  $f_{dr}$  used in Osborne et al. (2015) and this study respectively.





**Figure 22.** Time series of GPP for irrigated maize at the Mead FLUXNET sites US-Ne1 and US-Ne2. Blue: model, green: observations. JULES runs have the crop model switched on and the input parameters in Table 1, Table 2a, Table 2b, Table 3a, Table 3b and Table 4.



**Figure 23.** Time series of LAI for irrigated maize at the Mead FLUXNET sites US-Ne1 and US-Ne2. Blue: model, red: observations. JULES runs have the crop model switched on and the input parameters in Table 1, Table 2a, Table 2b, Table 3a, Table 3b and Table 4.

**Figure 24.** Time series of LAI for irrigated maize at the Mead FLUXNET sites US-Ne1 and US-Ne2. Blue: model, red: observations. JULES runs have the crop model switched on and  $\gamma$ =18.0 and  $\delta$ =-0.45. All other input parameters are as described in Table 1, Table 2a, Table 2b, Table 3a, Table 3b and Table 4.



- Figure 22 compares the model GPP and the observations, and shows very close agreement. This is influenced by a cancellation of two effects: as identified in the previous section, the GPP per APAR in the model is biased high, whereas the outputted LAI is biased low, shown in Figure 23. In part the reduction in modelled LAI compared to observations was deliberately introduced when tuning the senescence parameters, so that a quicker decrease in LAI compensates partially for the model not including a decrease in leaf photosynthetic capacity. However, in some years (2006, 2010, 2011 for US-Ne1 and 2011 for
- 20 US-Ne2), the LAI is too small in the crop season up to anthesis. This is due to the high sensitivity of the plant in its early life to parameter settings, due to the feedback between NPP and LAI. In these site and year combinations (2006, 2010, 2011 for US-Ne1 and 2011 for US-Ne2), temperatures between DVI 0.1 and DVI 0.2 are higher on average, and so DVI is increasing more rapidly, which gives the plant less time to accumulate NPP, leading to a reduced rate of increase of LAI with respect to DVI in the model runs at this growth stage. On the other hand, the SLA observations for these years in the early crop season are particularly high compared to the rest of the distribution, which means that the observations do not show this reduced
- 5 rate of increase of LAI at this growth stage. Fitting  $\gamma$  and  $\delta$  to the SLA observations in just these site and year combinations (2006, 2010, 2011 for US-Ne1 and 2011 for US-Ne2) gives 18.0 and -0.45 respectively. Using these parameters in JULES runs with the crop model gives much better agreement with LAI observations (Figure 24). This is also consistent with the result from US-Ne2 in 2010: since the crop emerges 9 days after the crop in US-Ne1, the period of relatively high temperatures mostly falls before the crop is initialised. It is possible that parameterising parameterising SLA with day after emergence rather
- 10 than with DVI might improve the fit between model and observed LAI by reducing the sensitivity of the SLA parametrisation parameterisation to temperature.

The canopy height is well represented in the runs (Figure 25). The above-ground carbon in the model also fits the observations well (Figure 26). The harvest carbon pool (which includes the reproductive parts of the plant and the yellow leaves) is overestimated in the model, which is consistent with the overestimation of GPP during the senescence period.

**Figure 25.** Time series of canopy height for irrigated maize at the Mead FLUXNET sites US-Ne1 and US-Ne2. Blue: model, red: observations. JULES runs have the crop model switched on and the input parameters in Table 1, Table 2a, Table 2b, Table 3a, Table 3b and Table 4.



**Figure 26.** Time series for above-ground carbon for irrigated maize at the Mead FLUXNET sites US-Ne1 and US-Ne2. Blue: model, red: observations. JULES runs have the crop model switched on and the input parameters in Table 1, Table 2a, Table 2b, Table 3a, Table 3b and Table 4.



**Figure 27.** Time series of the carbon in the harvest pool (reproductive parts of the crop and yellow leaves). Irrigated maize at the Mead FLUXNET sites US-Ne1 and US-Ne2. Blue: model, red: observations. JULES runs have the crop model switched on and the input parameters in Table 1, Table 2a, Table 2b, Table 3a, Table 3b and Table 4.



#### 15 5 Conclusions

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The JULES-crop parametrisation of crops within JULES was introduced to improve the carbon and energy fluxes in the model over croplands and to investigate the effect of weather and climate on food and water resources, at global, regional and local scales. In this evaluation paper, we have looked in detail at how the input parameters in this pre-existing model can be tuned for one crop - maize - at one location - Mead, US - where there are a wide variety of observations to probe how the model components perform, both separately and in combination.

In previous analyses with JULES-crop, it has been assumed that model photosynthesis and respiration parameters can be set to the default C3 grass values for C3 crops and the default C4 grass values for C4 crops. We have <u>used literature results and</u> the observations available at this site to improve the maize shown that a significant improvement can be made when modelling irrigated maize if these parameters are tuned to results from the literature for maize. We have also improved the parameters

25 required in both the crop-model part of JULES (such as partition fractions and allometric constants) and the generic vegetation codeby tuning directly to observations.

With the new parameters, there is good agreement between modelled GPP and observed GPP up until anthesis if the feedback between NPP and LAI is removed by switching the crop model off and prescribing LAI (and canopy height) when the skies are mostly overcast. The model tends to overestimate GPP for clearer skies. After anthesis, there is a much greater overestimation

30 of GPP, due to the model being unable to capture the decrease in photosynthetic capability at the leaf level over time in the crop. The respiration parameters were more difficult to test in isolation, but integrating model respiration over the entire crop season produced results that were consistent with the GPP and carbon pool observations.

Running the full crop model, including all the new parameters, produced GPP time series that were very close to the observations. This was helped partially by a cancellation of two biases - the model GPP for a certain LAI was biased high, as we have just discussed, and the LAI in the model was biased low compared to the observations. There were a few anomalous years in which the peak LAI in the model was approximately two thirds of the peak LAI in the observations, which may imply oversensitivity to initial conditions. The amount of above-ground carbon was reproduced well, although the amount of carbon in the harvest pool was overestimated in most cases.

- 5 There should be three main priorities for extending this work to improve the representation of maize at these sites. Firstly, work should be done to tune the parametrisation of soil moisture stress of maize, so that the water balance of the irrigated sites could be accurately modelled and runs for the non-irrigated site could also be included. This configuration would be applicable for a wider set of situations, for example, the ability to model the yield of non-irrigated crops would be a necessary requirement for addressing food security questions. Secondly, a parametrisation of the maximum rate of carboxylation of Rubisco *V*<sub>cmax</sub>
- 10 should be added that allows it to vary over the course of the crop season. Thirdly, these runs have been tightly constrained by using observed sowing, emergence, flowering and harvest dates to generate the thermal times needed as input to JULES. For most regions, and for any climate projections, this sort of data will not be available. Therefore, it would be a useful test of the model necessary to investigate the performance at the Mead sites if the model is of the model in individual years at these sites when given generic values for the thermal time parameters.

- 15 While this study has focussed on modelling one crop variety at one site, it also provides a demonstration of how knowledge of the structure of the model can be used to tease apart different components of the model so that they can be tuned or evaluated against observations. This ranged from the tuning of parameters in simple allometric relations such as that relating stem carbon to canopy height, to tuning the canopy parameters using the external representation of the canopy scheme in pySellersTwoStream, up to running JULES with the crop model switched off and prescribed LAI and canopy height,
- 20 in order to tune GPP without the complication of the feedback between GPP and LAI. It therefore provides a case study which can be used when setting up and evaluating the model for other crop varieties and sitesbeen carried out at one particular location, the JULES input parameters for individual crop tiles are designed so that they fully characterise a particular crop variety. Therefore, the logical next step, after addressing the issues described above, would be to test this model feature by investigating how well these new parameters perform at other sites which grow the same variety. To scale this up from the
- 25 sitelevel to global applications, it is important to consider that there is a limit to the number of crop tiles that can be simulated in one run, due to data and computational resource constraints. Therefore each variety within a crop type cannot be simulated as a separate tile, with its own individual set of parameters. Previous JULES-crop global analyses, such as in , have therefore aimed at a compromise: four main crop types were considered (maize, soybean, wheat and rice), and each of these crop types were given spatially-varying thermal times between emergence and flowering and between flowering and harvest, which were tuned to observed growing season lengths. The other parameters were set to 'generic' parameter values for that crop type. In this way, some of the variation between varieties within a crop type was captured. The parameters given in and are a good starting point for a generic 'maize' tile, but would need to be tested at locations with different varieties, chosen for different
- 5 elimatic conditions, to determine whether they are able to sufficiently capture the characteristics of maize on a global scale to be able to address useful scientific questions. If not, the use of more than one 'maize' tile should be considered, or key parameters should be identified which could be allowed to vary spatially.

#### 6 Code availability

This study uses JULES revision 5061, which is between the 4.6 and 4.7 releases. The code can be downloaded from the JULES FCM repository at

https://code.metoffice.gov.uk/trac/jules/

(registration required).

The pySellersTwoStream package is available at

5 https://github.com/tquaife/pySellersTwoStream. The version used in this study was downloaded on 15.09.2016.

#### 7 Data availability

Unless otherwise noted, all site observations discussed in this paper was obtained from the Site Information pages of the AmeriFlux website (http://public.ornl.gov/ameriflux/ or personal communication with the Mead sites Research Technologist.

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JULES notation	Osborne et	This study	Remarks Discussion-	
can_rad_mod	5 <del>(6 was not available)</del>	6	Selects canopy radiation scheme. Recommended option for layered canopy in vers	
l_irrid_dmd	F*	Т	Switch for turning the irrigation demand model on. See Section 2.6.	
irr_crop	-	0	Selects which method to use to determine the irrigation season. See Section 2.6.	
l_trait_phys	F*	F	<ul> <li>F Switch for using trait-based physiology.</li> <li>See Section 3.5.2.</li> </ul>	
l_scale_resp_pm	F*	Т	<ul> <li>T Switch for whether all plant maintenance respiration is scaled by water stress</li> <li>See Section 2.5.</li> </ul>	
l_leaf_n_resp_fix	F*	-	Switch for bug fix for leaf nitrogen in plant maintenance respiration. Affects Bug fix , affects can rad mod=5 but not can rad mod=6.	
l_prescsow	Т	Т	Switch for whether sowing date is prescribed. See Section 3.3.1.	
l_phenol	T,F	F	<ul> <li>F Switch for turning the phenology model on.</li> <li>Only relevant in runs where the crop model is switched off. non-erop runs-</li> </ul>	

### Table 1. JULES flags relevant to this study. These parameters are all specified in the JULES\_VEGETATION namelist.

**Table 2a.** JULES plant functional type parameters extended to represent maize.  $V_{cmax}$  is the maximum rate of carboxylation of Rubisco.Units are given in brackets, (-) denotes dimensionless. These parameters are all specified in the JULES\_PFTPARM namelist.

	JULES	Osborne et	This study	Remarks Discussion
	notation	<u>al. (2015)</u>		
<del>~ e3-</del>	c3_io	0	0	Integer specifying whether plant is C3 or Maize is a C4plant.
$d_{r}$				<u>0 indicates C4.</u>
$\overline{\sim}$	rootd_ft_io	0.5	1.7	Parameter determining the root depth (m).
				Not important in irrigated runs.
$dq_{\rm crit}$	dq_crit_io	0.075	0.075	Critical humidity deficit (kg H <sub>2</sub> ) per kg air)
				See Section 3.5.2.
fdr <del>fa</del>	fd_io	0.025	0.0096	Scale factor for dark respiration (-).
				See Section 3.5.3.
$f_0$	f0_io	0.8	0.4	Ratio of internal to external CO <sub>2</sub> pressure when canopy
				level specific humidity deficit is zero (-).
				See Section 3.5.2.
$\underline{n_e}_{n_{\rm eff}}$	neff_io	$\underbrace{4.0\text{E-4}}_{4.00} \underbrace{4.00 \times 10^{-4}}_{4.00}$	$\underbrace{5.7\text{E-}45.7\times10^{-4}}_{\underbrace{5.7\text{E-}5.7\times10^{-4}}_{\underbrace{5.7\text{E-}5.7\times10^{-4}}_{\underbrace{5.7\text{E-}5.7\times10^{-4}}_{\underbrace{5.7\text{E-}5.7\times10^{-4}}_{\underbrace{5.7\text{E-}5.7\times10^{-4}}_{\underbrace{5.7\text{E-}5.7\times10^{-4}}_{\underbrace{5.7\text{E-}5.7\times10^{-4}}_{\underbrace{5.7\text{E-}5.7\times10^{-4}}_{\underbrace{5.7\text{E-}5.7\times10^{-4}}_{\underbrace{5.7\text{E-}5.7\times10^{-4}}_{5.$	Scale factor in the $V_{\text{cmax}}$ calculation (mol CO <sub>2</sub> m <sup>-2</sup> s <sup>-1</sup> kg C (kg N) <sup>-1</sup> )
				See Section 3.5.2.
$n_l(0)$	nl0_io	0.06	0.07	Mass of nitrogen per mass of carbon in the leaf at top of canopy (kg N (kg
				See Section 3.5.2.
$T_{\rm low}$	tlow_io	13.0	16.0	Lower temperature parameter in the $V_{\text{cmax}}$ calculation (°C).
				See Section 3.5.2.
$T_{\rm upp}$	tupp_io	45.0	47.0	Upper temperature parameter in the $V_{cmax}$ calculation (°C).
				See Section 3.5.2.
$k_n$	kn_io	0.78	-	If can_rad_mod=5, parameter determines canopy nitrogen profile (-).
				See Section 3.5.2.
$k_{nl}$	knl_io	-	0.0	If can_rad_mod=6, parameter determines canopy nitrogen profile (-).
				See Section 3.5.2.
$Q_{10,\text{leaf}}$	q10_leaf_io	2.0	1.0	$Q_{10}$ factor in the $V_{\rm cmax}$ calculation (-).
				See Section 3.5.2.
$\mu_{rl}$	nr_nl_io	1.0	0.39	Ratio of root nitrogen concentration to leaf nitrogen concentration (-).
				See Section 3.5.3.
$\mu_{sl}$	ns_nl_io	1.0	0.43	Ratio of stem nitrogen concentration to leaf nitrogen concentration (-).
				See Section 3.5.3.
$r_g$	r_grow_io	0.25	0.25	Growth respiration fraction (-).
				See Section 3.5.3.
$\ddot{\sim}$	orient_io	0	0	Integer specifying leaf angle distribution. 0 is spherical.
				See Section 3.5.1.

	JULES	Osborne et al. (2015)	This study	Remarks
α	alpha_io	0.06	0.055	Quantum efficiency (mol CO <sub>2</sub> (mol PAR photons) <sup>-1</sup> ).
$\omega_{\mathrm{PAR}}$	omega_io	0.17	0.17	Section 3.5.2 Leaf scattering coefficient for PAR (-).
$lpha_{ m PAR}$	alpar_io	0.1	0.1	Leaf reflection coefficient for PAR (-).
~	fsmc_mod_io	0*	1	Integer indicating weighting of soil layers in water stress factor.
~	fsmc_p0_io	0.0*	0.65	Scaling factor in water stress factor calculation (-).
				0.65 This value is consistent with e.g.
a	can_struct_a_io	1.0*	0.65	Ray et al. (2002), Bänziger et al. (2000). <u>Canopy clumping factor (-).</u> Section 3.5.1
$a_{ws}$	a_ws_io	1.0	0.88	Allometric constant relating respiring stem carbon to total stem carbon (-).
$\eta_{sl}$	eta_sl_io	0.01	0.0170	Section 3.4 Live stemwood coefficient (kg C m <sup>-3</sup> ). Section 3.4
$a_{wl}$	a_wl_io	0.005	9.5 <u>E-3</u> <del>×10<sup>−3</sup></del>	Allometric constant in relation between total stem carbon and LAI (kg C m <sup><math>-2</math></sup> ).
$b_{wl}$	b_wl_io	1.667	1.767	Section 3.4         Allometric constant in relation between total stem carbon and LAI (-)         Section 3.4
$\sigma_l$	sigl_io	0.05	0.0244	Specific leaf density (kg C m <sup>-2</sup> ). Section 3.4

 Table 2b. JULES plant functional type parameters extended to represent maize. Units are given in brackets, (-) denotes dimensionless. These parameters are all specified in the JULES\_PFTPARM namelist.

 Table 3a. Values of the crop-specific JULES parameters used to represent maize. Units are given in brackets, (-) denotes dimensionless.

 These parameters are all specified in the JULES\_CROPPARM namelist.

	JULES	Osborne et	This study	Remarks Discussion-	
	notation	<u>al. (2015)</u>			
$T_{\rm b}$	t_bse_io	281.15	281.15	Base temperature parameter in thermal time calculation (K).	
				See Section 3.3.1.	
$T_{\rm o}$	t_opt_io	303.15	303.15	Optimum temperature parameter in thermal time calculation (K).	
				See Section 3.3.1.	
$T_{\rm m}$	t_max_io	315.15	315.15	Maximum temperature parameter in thermal time calculation (K).	
				See Section 3.3.1.	
$TT_{\rm emr}$	tt_emr_io	80	Table 5	Thermal time between sowing and emergence (degree days).	
				See Section 3.3.1.	
$TT_{\rm veg}$	tt_veg	Osborne et al. (2015)	Table 5	Thermal time between emergence and flowering (degree days).	
		fig.3		See Section 3.3.1.	
$TT_{\rm rep}$	tt_rep	Osborne et al. (2015)	Table 5	Thermal time between flowering and harvest (degree days).	
		fig.3		See Section 3.3.1.	
$\sim P_{\rm sen}$	pp_sens_io	0.0	0.0	Sensitivity of development rate to photoperiod $(h^{-1})_{\sim}$	
				0.0 indicates DVI assumed to have no photoperiod dependence.	
$\sim \frac{P_{\rm crit}}{2}$	crit_pp_io	24	-	Critical photoperiod (h).	
				Not used when <code>pp_sens_io=0.0</code> , $\sim$	
$\sim^{r_{\rm dir}}$	rt_dir_io	0.0	0.0	Coefficient determining relative growth of roots vertically and horizontally (-).	
				Not important in irrigated runs.	
$lpha_{ m root}$	alpha1_io	13.5	13.5	5 Coefficient for determining partitioning (-).	
				See Section 3.3.2.	
$\alpha_{ m stem}$	alpha2_io	12.5	12.1	Coefficient for determining partitioning (-).	
				See Section 3.3.2.	
$\alpha_{\text{leaf}}$	alpha3_io	13.0	13.1	Coefficient for determining partitioning (-).	
				See Section 3.3.2.	
$\beta_{\rm root}$	beta1_io	-15.5	-15.0	<u>Coefficient for determining partitioning (-).</u>	
				See Section 3.3.2.	
$\beta_{\rm stem}$	beta2_io	-12.5	-12.1	Coefficient for determining partitioning (-).	
				See Section 3.3.2.	
$\beta_{\text{leaf}}$	beta3_io	-14.0	-14.1	Coefficient for determining partitioning (-).	
				See Section 3.3.2.	

 Table 3b. Values of the crop-specific JULES parameters used to represent maize. Units are given in brackets, (-) denotes dimensionless.

 These parameters are all specified in the JULES\_CROPPARM namelist.

	JULES notation	<u>Osborne et</u> <u>al. (2015)</u>	This study	Remarks
$\gamma$	gamma_io	22.5	17.6	Coefficient for determining specific leaf area $(m^2 kg^{-1})$ . See Section 3.3.6.
δ	delta_io	-0.2587	-0.33	Coefficient for determining specific leaf area (-). See Section 3.3.6.
au	remob_io	0.35	0.12	Remobilisation factor (-). See Section 3.3.3.
$f_{C,\mathrm{root}}$	cfrac_r_io	0.5	0.439	Carbon fraction of dry matter for roots (-). Not important in irrigated runs.
$f_{C,\mathrm{stem}}$	cfrac_s_io	0.5	0.439	Carbon fraction of dry matter for stems (-). See Section 3.3.7.
$f_{C,\mathrm{leaf}}$	cfrac_l_io	0.5	0.439	Carbon fraction of dry matter for leaves (-). See Section 3.3.7.
$\kappa$	allo1_io	3.5	3.6	Allometric coefficient relating stem carbon to canopy height (-). See Section 3.3.5.
λ	allo2_io	0.4	0.38	Allometric coefficient relating stem carbon to canopy height (-). See Section 3.3.5.
$\mu$	mu_io	0.05*	0.02	Allometric coefficient for calculation of senescence (-). See Section 3.3.4.
ν	nu_io	0.0*	4.0	Allometric coefficient for calculation of senescence (-). See Section 3.3.4.
$\mathrm{DVI}_{\mathrm{sen}}$	sen_dvi_io	1.5*	0.4	DVI at which leaf senescence begins (-).
$C_{\mathrm{init}}$	initial_carbon_io	0.01*	$8.0 \underbrace{E-4 \times 10^{-4}}_{-4}$	Carbon in crop at emergence (kg C m <sup><math>-2</math></sup> ). See Section 3.3.8
$\mathrm{DVI}_{\mathrm{init}}$	initial_c_dvi_io	0.0*	0.1	DVI at which the crop carbon is set to initial_carbon_io (-).
$T_{\rm mort}$	t_mort_io	t_bse_io*	273.15	Soil temperature (second level) at which to kill crop if DVI>1 (K).
$f_{ m yield}$	yield_frac_io	1.0*	0.74	Fraction of the harvest carbon pool converted to yield carbon (-). See Section 3.3.9.

Table 4. Other relevant JULES parameter values. Units are given in brackets, (-) denotes dimensionless.

JULES notation	Osborne et al. (2015)	This study	Remarks Discussion
diff_frac	0.0	Hourly hourly observations	<u>Diffuse radiation fraction (-).</u> <u>See Section 3.2.</u>
co2mmr	$5.241E-4$ $5.241 \times 10^{-4}$ (JULES default)	Annual observations from annual observations from Dlugokencky and Tans (2016)	Concentration of atmospheric

year	sowing DOY	sowing-emergence	emergence-flowering	flowering-maturity	flowering-harvest	sowing-harvest		
	US-Ne1							
2002	130	85.55	-	-	-	2011		
2003	135	59.71	868.6	-	1001	1938		
2004	125	113.0	844.1	784.7	977.0	1945		
2005	124	107.3	923.2	869.4	1083	2129		
2006	124	59.32	819.8	883.6	1086	1973		
2007	121	84.84	865.7	932.6	1331	2281		
2008	120	64.48	888.4	967.3	1138	2102		
2009	110	89.44	903.6	836.2	959.3	1961		
2010	109	84.62	808.3	935.5	1011	1917		
2011	137	69.71	819.9	827.1	980.1	1885		
2012	114	58.90	718.3	961.6	1275	2062		
			US-Ne2					
2003	134	53.41	830.0	-	1005	1887		
2005	122	95.51	822.8	923.9	1218	2153		
2007	121	96.33	849.6	932.3	1300	2254		
2009	111	93.63	853.0	801.6	884.72	1837		
2010	110	108.2	846.2	-	908.4	1874		
2011	137	67.10	792.0	864.3	1039	1912		
2012	115	55.92	694.1	993.0	1282	2042		
US-Ne3								
2003	133	58.81	802.0	-	999.9	1870		
2005	116	85.06	922.0	875.0	1163	2178		
2007	122	117.66	806.0	919.5	1329	2263		
2009	112	90.88	820.1	786.8	1032	1953		
2011	122	112.7	802.5	923.6	1125	2051		

**Table 5.** Thermal times in degree days based on crop dates recorded at the Mead FLUXNET sites, combined with hourly observed temperatures.