

Development of the DO₃SE-crop model to assess ozone effects on crop phenology, biomass and yield. for Xiaoji, China

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Abstract

A substantial body of empirical evidence exists to suggest that elevated O₃ levels are causing significant impacts on wheat yields at sites representative of highly productive arable regions [around the World. Here we extend the DO₃SE model \(designed to estimate total- and stomatal-O₃ deposition](#) ~~of~~ for risk assessment) to incorporate a coupled $A_{net}-g_{sto}$ model to estimate O₃ uptake, an O₃ damage module (that impacts instantaneous A_{net} and the timing and rate of senescence), and a crop phenology, carbon allocation, and growth model based on the JULES-Crop model. The model structure allows scaling from the leaf to the canopy to allow for multiple leaf populations and canopy layers. ~~The DO₃SE-crop model is calibrated and parametrised using O₃ fumigation data from Xiaoji, China~~ [parametrised using O₃ fumigation data from Xiaoji, China](#), for the year 2008 and for an O₃ tolerant and sensitive cultivar. The calibrated model [was tested on data for different years \(2007 and 2009\) and for two additional cultivars and was found to can](#) simulate key physiological variables, crop development, and yield with a good level of accuracy ~~compared to experimental observations~~. [The DO₃SE-crop model simulated accurately evaluated depicted](#) the [phenological stages difference of crop development in yield reductions](#) under ambient and elevated O₃ treatments for [the test datasets wheat cultivars Y16 \(tolerant\) and Y2 \(sensitive\) with regressions of modelled and observed absolute yields resulting in](#) with an R² of 0.959 and an RMSE of 2.59.27 daysg/m². ~~Further, when evaluated for the years 2008 (Y15 and Y19 cultivars), 2007 and 2009 for all cultivars, t~~ The DO₃SE-crop model [was also able to simulated](#) O₃-induced yield losses of ~~~11.44-19.364-25%~~ compared to observed yield losses of 12-34%, with an R² of 0.6873 (n=20) and an RMSE of 7658.41 g/m². Additionally, our results indicate that the variance in yield reduction is primarily attributed to the premature decrease in carbon assimilation to the grains [under elevated O₃ exposure. This is linked to caused by](#) accelerated leaf senescence, which [brings leaf senescence is brought](#) forward by 3-5 days under elevated O₃ treatments.

34 Introduction

35 Ground-level ozone (O₃) is considered the most critical air pollutant causing global damage to
36 [agricultural](#) crops. Elevated O₃ concentrations are particularly problematic in Asia, where decades of
37 rapid economic growth, industrialisation, and urbanisation have seen sharp rises in pollutant
38 emissions associated with burning fossil fuels (Lin et al., 2017) [causing substantial O₃-induced crop](#)
39 [yield losses across the region \(Feng et al., 2022\)](#). At the same time, climate change is considered a
40 substantial threat to arable productivity through changes in average and extreme temperature and
41 precipitation profiles across the region (IPCC, 2021). Reductions in precipitation are considered
42 responsible for poor harvests in recent years (Liu et al., 2010), and rising temperatures that reduce
43 the length of the crop growing season are thought to have caused losses in crop yield -(Malhi [et al.,](#)
44 [2021](#)), [Kaur and Kaushik, 2021](#)). There is now substantial evidence showing that stresses from ~~ozone~~
45 [O₃](#) pollution and climate variability interact, causing either additive, synergistic, or antagonistic
46 responses in crop development, growth, and yield (Sillmann et al., 2021). The threat posed by these
47 stresses is a particular cause for concern in Asia since the continent contributes approximately 43%
48 of the global wheat production, with China contributing the highest production levels at 17% [of the](#)
49 [global wheat supply](#) (Feng et al., 2021). O₃ levels are rising substantially in important wheat-growing
50 areas in China such as the North China Plain and the Yangtze River Delta (Li et al., 2020; Zhang et al.,
51 2023). [This Concern over O₃ impacts](#) led to the implementation in 2013 of a range of policies to try
52 to reduce O₃ precursor emissions across China. [These included e.g.](#) a comprehensive management
53 plan to control volatile organic compounds (VOCs) from key industries, an atmospheric pollution
54 prevention and control law of the People's Republic of China and [the a](#) 2020 VOCs Management
55 Plan (Li [et al., Zhou and Xu,](#) 2021). As a result, nitrogen oxide (NO_x) emissions, an important O₃
56 precursor, have decreased [by 21% significantly](#) from 2013 to 2017 [by 21%](#) (Li [et al., Zhou and Xu,](#)
57 2021). By contrast, VOCs have only slightly decreased by 2% over the same ~~time period~~
58 China has a VOC limited O₃ regime, the reductions in NO_x lead to rather insignificant changes in O₃
59 concentration (Li [et al., Zhou and Xu,](#) 2021) though evidence suggests that reductions in O₃ may be
60 higher in rural than urban areas (Lee et al., 2020). This implies future policies to tackle ground level
61 O₃ pollution in China need to increase their focus on reducing VOCs along with NO_x (Lee et al., 2020)
62 [and also emphasise the importance of being able to make assessments of O₃ damage to key](#)
63 [receptors such as staple crops.](#)

64 At present, methods to assess the risk to crop productivity from changes in O₃ and climate variables
65 ~~have used~~ use a variety of different O₃ risk assessment methods (~~Ronan et al., 2020~~) [\(Ronan et al.,](#)
66 [2020\)](#) and crop models as discussed in depth in Emberson et al. (2018). [In the past, Such O₃ risk](#)
67 [assessment](#) -methods ~~in the past~~ relied heavily on dose-response relationships, empirically derived
68 relationships that assess changes in a response variable (most commonly yield) against an ~~ozone~~ O₃
69 exposure metric (concentration or, more recently, flux-based indices) (Pleijel et al., 2022). By
70 contrast, methods to assess the impact of climate variables (most commonly changes in
71 temperature, precipitation, and CO₂ concentration) tend to use crop models since these allow the
72 integration of the combined effect of a number of different variables acting simultaneously to affect
73 crop development, growth, and yield (Schauberger et al., 2019). [A new generation of crop models](#)
74 [that include O₃ damage are now being developed and applied and have the potential to estimate the](#)
75 [combined effect of O₃ and climate variables on crop development, biomass and yield. Such models](#)
76 [can arguably be classified into two types of crop model. Firstly, those that rely on O₃ metrics \(e.g.](#)
77 [AOT40 or M7\) to modify crop growth determined by radiation use efficiency \(Guarin et al., 2019;](#)
78 [2024\) or evapotranspiration \(Droustas et al., 2020\). Secondly, those that estimate stomatal O₃](#)
79 [uptake to modify crop growth determined by photosynthesis and subsequent carbon assimilation](#)
80 [\(Tao et al., 2017; Schauburger et al., 2019; Nguyen et al., 2024\). The DO₃SE-Crop model falls into the](#)
81 [latter category of photosynthetic-based crop models and was developed to bridge the gap between](#)
82 [O₃ risk assessment modelling methods and crop models.](#)

83 [Recent advances have highlighted the importance of incorporating dynamic ozone stress modules](#)
84 [into these crop models to adjust crop growth parameters in real time based on fluctuating ozone](#)
85 [levels \(Emberson et al., 2018\). Additionally, there is a growing awareness of the need to integrate](#)
86 [genotype-specific responses \(Feng et al., 2022\) and multi-stressor models that account for the](#)
87 [combined effects of ozone and other environmental factors \(Feng et al., 2022\). This holistic](#)
88 [approach provides a more comprehensive assessment of the combined impacts of various stressors](#)
89 [on crops \(Tao et al., 2017; Emberson et al., 2018; Schaubberger et al., 2019\). However, significant](#)
90 [challenges remain, such as the need for extensive data on ozone concentrations and crop responses,](#)
91 [and the necessity for interdisciplinary collaboration to develop robust and integrated models.](#)
92 [Addressing these challenges will enable more accurate predictions and informed decision-making in](#)
93 [agricultural management and policy development.](#)

94
95 The DO₃SE model is an [ozone-O₃](#) deposition model that can be embedded within atmospheric
96 chemistry transport models (e.g. Simpson et al., 2012) and uses either a multiplicative- or coupled
97 A_{net} - g_{sto} model to estimate stomatal [ozone-O₃](#) flux (Pande et al., [sub2024](#)). Accumulated stomatal
98 [ozone-O₃](#) flux has been successfully used as a damage metric (PODy - Phytotoxic Ozone Dose over a
99 threshold γ (LRTAP, 2017)) to predict [ozone-O₃](#)-induced yield loss (Pande et al., [sub2024](#)). The ability
100 of the DO₃SE model to simulate A_{net} , and the inclusion of a process-based [ozone-O₃](#) damage module
101 for both instantaneous A_{net} and early and enhanced senescence (after [Ewert and Porter₇ \(2000\)](#))
102 lends itself to the development of the DO₃SE model as a process-based crop model. The inclusion of
103 resistance algorithms that can assess the transport of O₃ concentrations from a reference height
104 above a canopy down to the canopy top, means the model can [easily](#) be embedded within existing
105 atmospheric chemistry transport schemes and hence applied for regional or global scale O₃ risk
106 [assessment](#) whilst also [accurately](#) modelling O₃ deposition. A comparison of the coupled stomatal
107 [conductance-photosynthesis \(\$A_{net}\$ - \$g_{sto}\$ \)](#) model with the multiplicative g_{sto} model within the DO₃SE
108 framework has been made in Pande et al. ([sub2024](#)) and showed that the A_{net} - g_{sto} model performed
109 equally well, if not better, when used to develop [ozone-O₃](#) dose-response relationships for European
110 wheat. This provides evidence of the suitability of the new photosynthetic based g_{sto} model in
111 DO₃SE.

112
113 In this study, we describe the development of a new ‘DO₃SE-Crop’ model which builds on the
114 modified stomatal deposition component of the DO₃SE model (Pande et al. ([sub2024](#))) so that both
115 CO₂ uptake for carbon assimilation as well as [ozone-O₃](#) uptake via the stomata can be modelled
116 consistently. Further, we have incorporated the UK JULES crop model (Osborne et al., 2015) to
117 allocate assimilated carbon to plant components (roots, leaves, stems and harvest organs) according
118 to crop development stage. We also take account of the modifying effect of [ozone-O₃](#) on
119 instantaneous A_{net} as well as [accumulated \$A_{net}\$ via O₃ effects on](#) the onset and rate of leaf
120 senescence and timing of crop maturity through incorporation of algorithms developed by [Ewert](#)
121 [and Porter₇ \(2000\)](#). The UK JULES crop model is used since this is the UK land surface exchange
122 scheme in the UK Earth System Model (UKESM) (Osborne et al., 2015) which has recently been
123 developed to include exchange and impact of trace gases (including O₃) along with other
124 biogeochemical cycling between the atmosphere and the land surface (Leung et al., 2020). This
125 would [in the future](#) allow comparison [of of](#) the UK JULES Crop model, which [are based on uses O₃](#)
126 [mechanisms that modify instantaneous \$A_{net}\$ to mimic changes in yield consistent with flux-response](#)
127 [relationships](#) (Sitch et al., 2007), with the alternative O₃ damage mechanisms used within DO₃SE-
128 crop.

129
130 Here, we calibrate and evaluate [the](#) DO₃SE-crop model using an experimental FACE dataset collected
131 in Xiaoji, China. This allows us to investigate the ability of the model to simulate O₃ damage for a
132 global region where crop productivity is severely threatened by both [ozone-O₃](#) pollution and climate

133 change. The key objectives of the paper are ~~to~~ to assess the ability of DO₃SE-Crop to simulate i).
134 ~~assess the ability of DO₃SE-Crop to simulate~~ key phenological stages, ii) the relationship between and
135 leaf-level physiological variables, ~~physiological variables, and within canopy stomatal O₃~~
136 profile concentrations, iii) C allocation to different parts of the crop and iv) crop development,
137 biomass, and yield; ii). ~~the ability of DO₃SE-crop to estimate the difference in O₃ induced yield losses~~
138 for tolerant and sensitive cultivars caused due to instantaneous versus long-term senescence effects
139 on photosynthesis, and iii). the applicability of the prescribed UK JULES crop parameters for
140 Chinese conditions.

Methods: DO₃SE-Crop Model development, calibration and evaluation

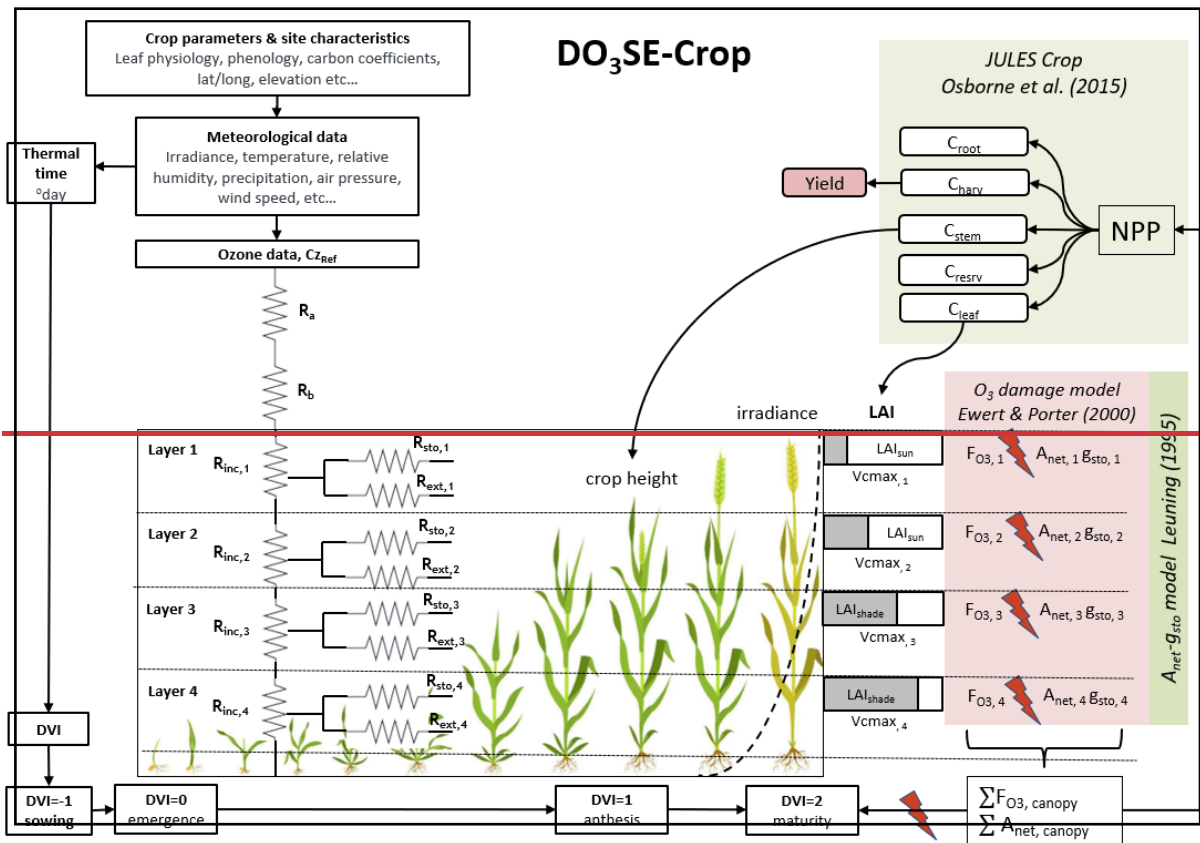
1. DO₃SE-Crop Model

We describe the development and calibration of the 'DO₃SE-Crop' model (version 4 (V4.39.19)), an ozone deposition model (Emberson *et al.*, 2000; Simpson *et al.*, 2012) that has been modified to simulate stomatal conductance from a coupled photosynthesis-stomatal conductance model (Leuning, 1995). Photosynthesis is simulated using a biochemical model (Farquhar, Caemmerer and Berry, 1980; Sharkey *et al.*, 2007). The DO₃SE model has also been extended to include a photosynthetic based crop model based on the UK JULES land surface crop model (Osborne *et al.*, 2015) with ozone damage functions incorporated after (Ewert and Porter, 2000). DO₃SE-Crop is designed to simulate ozone deposition and stomatal uptake and the effects of ozone and climate related variables on crop development, biomass and yield. The DO₃SE-Crop model has been developed to simulate wheat (*Triticum aestivum*) which is widely considered to be one of the most sensitive staple crops to ozone-O₃ (Feng *et al.*, 2018).

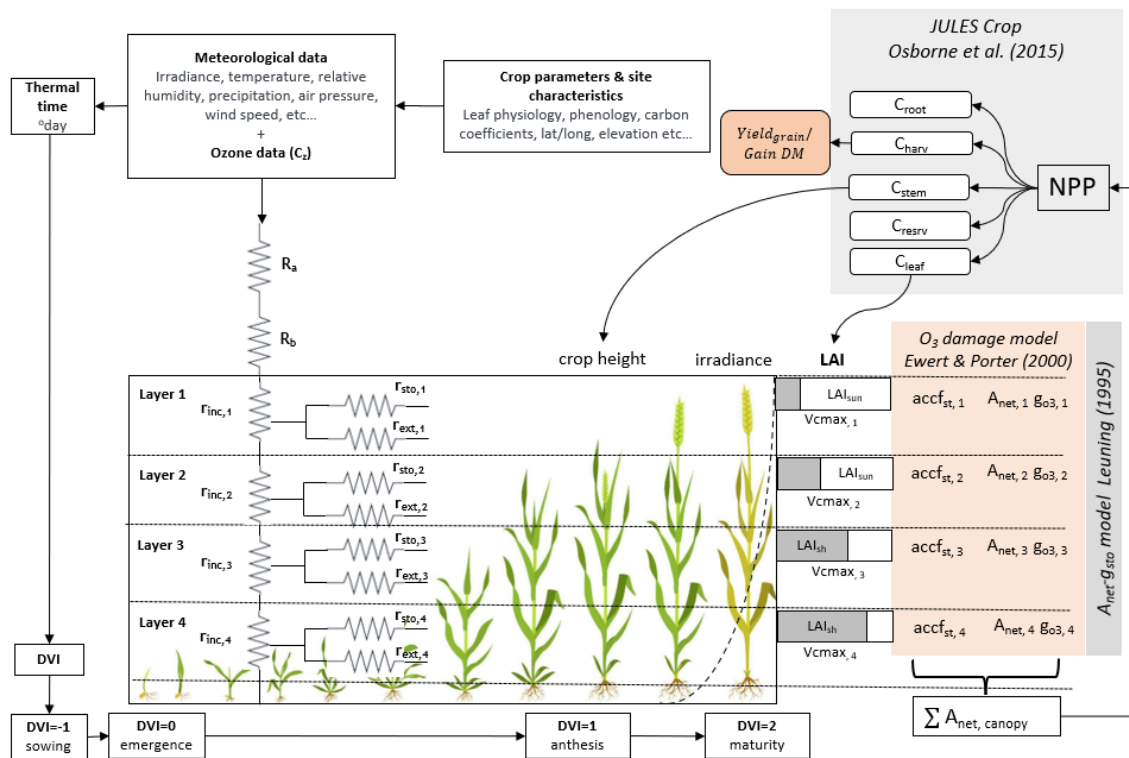
The key components of DO₃SE Crop are illustrated in Fig.1. The model integrates meteorological data, crop parameters, and site characteristics to simulate the impact of O₃ on crop yield. The model uses inputs such as are irradiance, temperature, relative humidity, precipitation, air pressure, wind speed, and ozone O₃ concentration at a reference height (C_{hz}) to calculate atmospheric resistances (R_a) and boundary layer resistances (R_b) for O₃ deposition onto the crop canopy. It further incorporates crop-specific parameters including related to leaf physiology, phenology, and carbon coefficients, alongside site-specific data like (latitude, longitude, and elevation), to accurately simulate crop growth at stages from sowing to maturity, denoted by the Development Vegetative Index (DVI); where -1 depicts sowing, 0 as emergence, 1 as anthesis, and 2 as maturity. Further, the canopy is divided into four vertical layers, each characterised by sunlit (LAI_{sun}) and shaded (LAI_{sh}) leaf area index, which influence the photosynthetic capacity (V_{cmax}) and ozone O₃ uptake in each layer. The model accounts for in-canopy resistance (R_{inc}) and external resistance (R_{ext}) in each layer, affecting the ozone O₃ flux (acc_{e3st}) and its impact on net photosynthesis (A_{net}) and stomatal conductance (g_{sto}). The $A_{net}g_{sto}$ relationship is modeled using the Leuning model (1995). Damage from O₃ is estimated after, which describes the coupling between A_{net} and g_{sto} . The Ewert & Porter (2000) model is employed to estimate ozone damage by calculating these effects across the for different canopy layers canopy, which are then aggregated to assess give the overall O₃ impact on the crop's canopy A_{net} and yield. This model is which is integrated with according to the JULES Crop model (Osborne *et al.*, 2015), which uses the daily accumulated canopy A_{net} to calculate the net primary productivity (NPP). The NPP is then distributed as carbon to various parts of the crop, such as (roots (C_{root}), stems (C_{stem}), leaves (C_{leaf}), harvestable organs (C_{harv})). The C_{harv} provides calculated the yield and grain dry matter; C_{leaf} calculate the LAI and C_{stem} calculated the stemcrop height.

and can be defined as i). crop phenology to ensure the correct length and timing of crop growth for carbon assimilation and ozone exposure; ii). leaf scale processes to ensure leaf level estimates of photosynthesis and stomatal conductance for sunlit and shaded leaves are able to accurately model carbon assimilation and stomatal ozone flux and associated damage over the leaf life span; iii). leaf-to-canopy upscaling that incorporates a within canopy irradiance and ozone concentration gradient and iv). carbon allocation processes to ensure carbon is allocated correctly to different crop compartments (roots, leaves, stem, grain) throughout the growing season.

Fig. 1 Schematic of the DO₃SE-Crop model.



185



186

187 1.1 DO₃SE-Crop Phenology

188 The DO₃SE-Crop model uses thermal time to define the rate of crop development in relation to the
 189 timing of three key developmental stages, TT_{emr} (the period from sowing to emergence), TT_{veg} (the

190 period of emergence to start of grain filling) and TT_{rep} (the period from the start of grain filling to
 191 maturity) based on the method of (Osborne et al., (2015)). $TT_{Thermal}$ time is calculated by
 192 ~~estimating-accumulating~~ an effective temperature (T_{eff}) using base (T_b), optimum (T_o) and
 193 maximum (T_m) cardinal temperatures [as shown in eq. \[1\]](#).

$$194 \quad T_{eff} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } T_{air} < T_b \\ T_{air} - T_b & \text{for } T_b \leq T_{air} \leq T_o \\ (T_o - T_b) \left(1 - \frac{T_{air} - T_o}{T_m - T_o}\right) & \text{for } T_o < T_{air} < T_m \\ 0 & \text{for } T_{air} \geq T_m \end{cases} \quad [1]$$

195 Where, T_{air} is the surface air temperature in °C, T_{eff} is at a maximum when $T_{air} = T_o$, this point
 196 denotes the highest developmental rate. T_{eff} declines as the temperature falls or rises above T_o ,
 197 with a linear decrease in crop development. T_{eff} is zero, i.e. no development, when T_{air} falls below
 198 or rises above T_b and T_m respectively i.e. $T_m \leq T_{air} < T_b$. During the sowing to emergence phase,
 199 development is dependent on T_b , whereas during the vegetative and reproductive phase,
 200 development depends on T_m or T_o .

201 Winter wheat requires vernalisation (a period of exposure to low temperature during germination to
 202 accelerate flowering). Vernalisation alters the length [of \$TT_{veg}\$](#) and hence flowering initiation, with
 203 subsequent effects on later growth stages such as heading. Vernalisation occurs when the minimum
 204 (VT_{min}) and maximum (VT_{max}) daily temperature is less than 15°C and 30°C respectively (Zheng et
 205 al., 2015). Accumulated vernalised days (V_{dd}) are calculated as the sum of vernalised and
 206 devernalised days from emergence to the start of anthesis (Zheng et al., 2015) [as shown in eq. \[2\]](#).

$$207 \quad V_{dd} = \sum(V - V_d), \text{ where} \quad \text{_____} [2]$$

$$208 \quad V = \left(1.4 - 0.778 \times T_{air}, 0.5 + 13.44 \frac{T_{air}}{(T_{max} - T_{min} + 3)^2}\right) \text{ for } VT_{max} < 30^\circ\text{C and } VT_{min} < \\ 209 \quad 15^\circ\text{C}$$

$$210 \quad V_d = (\min(0.5(T_{max} - 30), V_{prev}) \text{ for } VT_{max} > 30^\circ\text{C and } V_{dd} < \\ 211 \quad 10 \text{ days}$$

212 The vernalisation factor (VF) decreases from 1 to 0 as (V_{dd}) increases. VF depends on a cultivar-
 213 specific vernalisation coefficient (PIV) as described by eq. [3].

$$214 \quad VF = 1 - (0.0054545 \times PIV + 0.0003) * (50 - V_{dd}) \quad [3]$$

215 Photoperiod (PP) or day length also affects the occurrence and timing of the flowering stage and is
 216 calculated according to latitude using standard solar geometry to estimate daylength (Jones, 1992).
 217 The photoperiod factor (PF) represents the sensitivity to PP which decreases from 1 to 0 as the
 218 photoperiod shortens and is estimated according to a cultivar-specific photoperiod coefficient (PID)
 219 after Tao et al. (2012) as described in eq. [4].

$$220 \quad PF = 1 - \left[\left(\frac{PID}{10000}\right) \times (20 - PP)^2\right] \quad [4]$$

221 Crop development is related to the development index (DVI) after (Osborne et al., (2015) which
 222 takes values of -1 upon sowing, 0 on emergence, 1 at anthesis and 2 at crop maturity. The DO₃SE-
 223 Crop model DVI equations have been modified from (Osborne et al., (2015) to take account of the
 224 photoperiod and vernalisation for winter wheat (see eq. [5]); for spring wheat these factors are
 225 omitted.

$$226 \quad -1 \leq DVI < 0 \quad \text{for } TT_{eff} < TT_{emr}$$

227 $0 \leq DVI < 1$ for $TT_{emr} \leq TT_{eff} - TT_{td} \times VF \times PF < TT_{veg}$
 228 [5]

229 $1 \leq DVI \leq 2$ for $TT_{veg} \leq TT_{eff} - TT_{td} \leq TT_{rep}$

230 DO₃SE-Crop allows for any number of representative leaf populations (*pop*) and canopy layers (*n*)
 231 to be defined over the course of the crop growing season. In this study, we used a single leaf
 232 population and 4 canopy layers (i.e. *pop* = 1; *n* = 4) for simplicity. The crop sowing is assumed to
 233 be at DVI = -1 (start of TT_{emr}) and emergence at DVI = 0 (start of TT_{veg}). The flag leaf is assumed to
 234 develop at DVI=1, at the commencement of TT_{rep} , marking the initiation of anthesis (A_{start} ,
 235 flowering) and flag leaf emergence, which typically occurs 4-5 days prior to the onset of anthesis
 236 and is further divided into expanding and senescing leaf periods (i.e. tl_{ep} and tl_{se}) with a default
 237 ratio of 0.67 to 0.33 for each of these periods. Maturity is assumed at DVI = 2, at the end of TT_{rep} .
 238 The model allows estimation of the *POD_y* metric by accumulating stomatal ozone-O₃ flux from the
 239 start of anthesis to maturity. The total canopy-leaf life span (TT_{leaf}) of the crop is distributed over
 240 the DVI between 0 and 2. The relationship between these different variables are described in Fig. 2.

241 1.2 DO₃SE-Crop leaf-level physiology

242 Key leaf-level physiological variables of the DO₃SE-Crop model are net photosynthesis (A_{net}) and
 243 stomatal conductance (g_{sto}). Net photosynthesis is simulated using the biochemical photosynthesis-
 244 based model initially developed by (Farquhar, et al., G.D., von Caemmerer, S., Berry, 1980) and since
 245 modified by (Sharkey et al., (2007)). The coupled $A_{net}g_{sto}$ model of (Leuning, (1995) is used to
 246 estimate g_{sto} from A_{net} which means that g_{sto} is regulated by the demand of CO₂ for A_{net} on
 247 consideration of environmental conditions and crop physiology. Ozone stress, causing both
 248 instantaneous effects on A_{net} and long-term effects on A_{net} via leaf senescence, is simulated based
 249 on algorithms developed by (Ewert and Porter, (2000)).

250 1.2.1 Leaf net photosynthesis (A_{net})

251 The A_{net} model assumes that photosynthesis is constrained depending on prevailing environmental
 252 conditions according to three main mechanisms: Rubisco activity (A_c); ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate
 253 (RuBP) regeneration, which is constrained by the speed of electron transport (A_j); and the low rate
 254 of transfer of photosynthetic products (most frequently triose phosphate consumption) (A_p)
 255 (Sharkey et al., 2007a) and by soil water stress (f_{swPAW}); the algorithm for A_c which is based on
 256 (Medlyn et al., (2002) and modified in DO₃SE-crop to include the O₃ damage functions is given in eq.
 257 [6].

258
$$A_c = V_{cmax} \times f_{swPAW} \times \frac{(C_i - \Gamma^*) \times f_{O_{3,s}}(d) \times f_{LS}}{C_i + K_c \left(1 + \frac{O_i}{K_o}\right)}$$

 259 [6]

260 where V_{cmax} ($\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$) is the maximum carboxylation capacity at 25°C, C_i ($\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$) and
 261 O_i (mmol mol^{-1}) are the intercellular CO₂ and O₂ partial pressures; K_c ($\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$) and K_o (mmol
 262 mol^{-1}) are the Rubisco Michaelis-Menten constants for CO₂ and O₂; Γ^* ($\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$) is the CO₂
 263 compensation point in the absence of respiration; $f_{O_{3,s}}(d)$ is the factor that accounts for the
 264 cumulative stomatal O₃ flux effect on V_{cmax} over the course of a day and; f_{LS} is the factor that
 265 accounts for the cumulative stomatal O₃ flux effect over the course of a leaf life span on leaf
 266 senescence. Section 1.2.1.1 gives a full description of the methods used to estimate O₃ damage. The
 267 f_{PAW} factor is calculated by eq. [7].

268 $f_{PAW} = 1$ _____ *for* $PAW_t \leq PAW \leq 100\%$, _____ [7]

269

270 $f_{PAW} = 1 + \{ \min \{ 1, \max \{ f_{min}, f_{min} + (1 - f_{min}) \times \frac{(ASW_{PAW} / PAW_{ASW_{fc}}) \times 100 - ASW_{min}}{PAASW_{max} - ASW_{min}} \} \}$
 271 *for* $PAW \leq PAW_t$

272 ~~Where PAW is plant available water.~~ *PAW is the amount of water in the soil (in % terms) which is*
 273 *available to the plants. At PAW=100% the soil is at field capacity, at PAW=0% the soil is at wilting*
 274 *point. PAW_t is the threshold PAW, above which it is assumed there is no constraint on A_c, h*
 275 *gsto is at a maximum as described f_{PAW} function defined as 50% after (LRTAP₇ (2017) Where: f_{PAW} is*
 276 *the plant available water factor, influencing stomatal conductance. f_{min} is the minimum stomatal*
 277 *conductance under dry soil conditions. ASW represents the available soil water. ASW_{fc} is the*
 278 *available soil water at field capacity, converted to a percentage. ASW_{max} is the plant available soil*
 279 *water below which stomatal conductance will start to reduce, and ASW_{min} is the plant available soil*
 280 *water at which stomatal conductance will equal f_{min} (Nguyen et al., 2024).*

281 *This model scales the stomatal conductance between a minimum value and a value of unity, which*
 282 *represents fully open stomata, based on the available soil water as a percentage of its field capacity.*
 283 The constraint on *A_{net}* ~~photosynthesis~~ due to the rate of electron transport *A_j* is described in eq. [8].

284 $A_j = J \times \frac{C_i - \Gamma^*}{a \times C_i + b \times \Gamma^*}$ [8]

285 where *J* is the electron transport rate ($\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$), the parameters *a* and *b* denote the electron
 286 requirements for the formation of NADPH and ATP respectively (Sharkey et al., 2007)

287 Finally, the ~~photosynthesis~~ *A_{net}* limitation due to the low rate of transfer of photosynthetic
 288 products *A_p* ($\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$) is given in eq. [9].

289 $A_p = 0.5 \times V_{cmax}$ [9]

290 The ~~net leaf net photosynthesis~~ *photosynthesis carbon uptake* (*A_{net}*) in $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ is calculated
 291 by eq. [10]

292 $A_{net} = (A_c, A_j, A_p) - R_d$ [10]

293

294 Where leaf dark respiration (*R_d*) in $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ is calculated as $V_{cmax} \times R_{dcoeff}$ where *R_{dcoeff}*
 295 is the leaf dark respiration coefficient initially set equal to 0.015 after Clark et al. (2011), a value
 296 provided for C3 grasses.

297 1.2.1.1 Short- and long-term O₃ damage to A_c

298 The short-term impact of O₃ on A_c is calculated according to the *f_{O_{3,s}}*(*d*) factor (between 0 and 1)
 299 which allows for an instantaneous effect of O₃ on photosynthesis when stomatal O₃ flux (*f_{st}*), in
 300 $\text{nmol O}_3 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ calculated as described later in section 1.2.3, overwhelms detoxification and repair
 301 mechanisms (Betzberger et al., 2012; Feng et al., 2022), and is estimated following (Ewert and
 302 Porter, 2000). Here, *f_{O_{3,s}}*(*h*) represents the relationship between *f_{st}* and a potential decrease in A_c
 303 calculated for every hour *of the day* by eq. [11].

304 $f_{O_{3,s}}(h) = 1 ;$ *for* $f_{st} \leq \frac{\gamma_1}{\gamma_2}$
 305 $f_{O_{3,s}}(h) = 1 + \gamma_1 - \gamma_2 \times f_{st}$ *for* $\frac{\gamma_1}{\gamma_2} < f_{st} < \frac{1+\gamma_1}{\gamma_2}$ [11]

306 $f_{O_3,s}(h) = 0 ;$ $for f_{st} \geq \frac{1+\gamma_1}{\gamma_2\gamma_2}$

307 where γ_1 (dimensionless) and γ_2 ($\text{nmol O}_3 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$)⁻¹ are both short-term O₃ damage coefficients,
 308 with γ_1 representing the O₃ detoxification threshold below which no damage occurs to the
 309 photosynthetic system and γ_2 determines the effect of f_{st} on A_c once this detoxification threshold
 310 is exceeded; $f_{O_3,s}(d)$ and $f_{O_3,s}(d - 1)$ (i.e. $f_{O_3,s}(d)$ at the end of the previous day), are calculated
 311 by eq. [12].

312 $f_{O_3,s}(d) = f_{O_3,s}(h) \times r_{O_3,s} ;$ $for \text{hour} = 0; PAR \leq 50 W m^{-2}$
 313 $f_{O_3,s}(d) = f_{O_3,s}(h) \times f_{O_3,s}(d - 1)$ $for PAR > 50 W m^{-2} for \text{hour} = 0$
 314 [12]

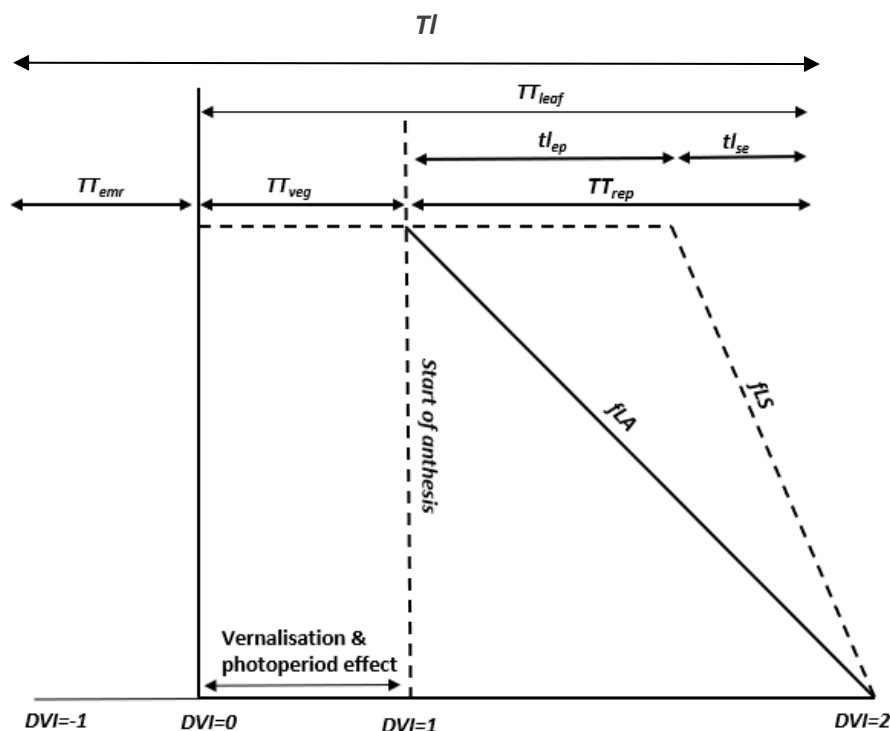
315 where $r_{O_3,s}$ (dimensionless) is-represents incomplete recovery from O₃ overnight which depends on
 316 leaf age according to eq. [13].

317 $r_{O_3,s} = f_{O_3,s}(d - 1) + (1 - f_{O_3,s}(d - 1)) \times f_{LA}$ [13]

318 The long-term impact of O₃ on V_{cmax} represented by the f_{LS} term represents the longer-term
 319 accumulation of stomatal ~~ozone-O₃~~ flux (acc_{fst}) causing degradation to the Rubisco enzyme which
 320 triggers early and enhanced senescence of mature leaves (Gelang et al., 2000; Osborne et al., 2019).
 321 The acc_{fst} term is accumulated from 200°C days before anthesis until maturity to be consistent with
 322 the LRTAP (2017) which defines this as the O₃ sensitive period for wheat. The simulation of f_{LS} (and
 323 f_{LA} used in the short-term O₃ effect) are related to thermal time defined periods over the course of
 324 a leaf population life span TT_{leaf} as described in Fig. 2.

325 **Figure 2.** The division of thermal time defined periods (TT_{emr} , TT_{veg} , TT_{rep} and TT_{leaf} and the
 326 relationship with f_{LA} and f_{LS}) for the canopy, as represented in this study by a single leaf population.

327



328

329 The O₃ effect on f_{LS} is first simulated by estimating a weighted accumulated f_{st} (f_{O3_l}) modified
 330 from (Ewert and Porter, (2000) by eq. [14].

$$331 \quad f_{O3_l} = 1 - \max(\min(\gamma_3 \times (acc_{fst} - CLsO3), 1), 0) \quad [14]$$

332 where γ_3 determines the occurrence of senescence once a critical cumulative stomatal O₃ flux
 333 $CLsO3$ (in mmol/m²) has been exceeded. The rate of senescence is determined by γ_4 , which
 334 determines the onset of senescence and γ_5 which determines maturity as described in eq. [15]

$$335 \quad t_{lep_{O3}} = t_{lep} \times (1 - ((1 - f_{O3_l}) \times \gamma_4))$$

$$336 \quad t_{lse_{O3}} = t_{lse} \times (1 - ((1 - f_{O3_l}) \times \gamma_5)) + zc \quad [15]$$

$$337 \quad zc = t_{lep} - t_{lep_{O3}}$$

338 Where t_{lep} is the ~~effective temperature (T_{eff}) thermal time~~ accumulated by a leaf (LTT) in °C
 339 days between a fully expanded leaf and the start of leaf senescence, $t_{lep_{O3}}$ is t_{lep} with an O₃ effect
 340 which may bring senescence earlier, t_{lse} is the ~~is the LTT in °C days (T_{eff})~~ between the onset
 341 of senescence and maturity and $t_{lse_{O3}}$ is t_{lse} with an O₃ effect which may bring maturity earlier. f_{LS} is
 342 estimated by eq. [16].

$$343 \quad f_{LS} = 1; \quad \text{for } T_{eff}LTT_{teff} \leq TT_{veg} + t_{lep}$$

$$344 \quad f_{LS} = 1 - \frac{T_{eff}LTT_{teff} - TT_{veg} - t_{lep_{O3}}}{t_{lse_{O3}}}; \quad \text{for } TT_{veg} + t_{lep} < T_{eff}LTT_{teff} < TT_{leaf}$$

$$345 \quad f_{LS} = 0; \quad \text{for } T_{eff}LTT_{teff} \geq TT_{leaf}$$

$$346 \quad [16]$$

347

348 **1.2.2 Stomatal conductance (g_{sto})**

349 The coupled photosynthesis-stomatal conductance ($A_{net}g_{sto}$) model based on (Leuning, (1995) and
 350 modified for vapour pressure deficit (VPD) is used to estimate g_{CO_2} , stomatal conductance to CO₂ in
 351 $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ as described in eq. [17].

$$352 \quad g_{CO_2} = [f_{min} + m \times A_{net} \times f_{VPD} / (c_s - \Gamma)] \quad [17]$$

353 where f_{min} ($\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$) is the minimum daytime g_{CO_2} (Leuning, 1990). The parameter m
 354 (dimensionless) is the composite sensitivity of g_{CO_2} to assimilation rate and vapour pressure deficit
 355 (VPD) with the relationship between VPD and relative stomatal conductance (f_{VPD}) estimated by
 356 eq. [18]. ~~A_{net} ($\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$) is estimated from eq [10]. f_{VPD} is calculated by eq. [18].~~

$$357 \quad f_{VPD} = \left(1 + \left(\frac{VPD}{VPD_0}\right)^8\right)^{-1} \quad [18]$$

358 where VPD_0 is an empirical parameter, defined using boundary line analysis, describing the variation
 359 in relative stomatal conductance with VPD (Danielsson et al., 2003; Pleijel et al., 2007). c_s (mmol
 360 mol⁻¹) is the external CO₂ concentration at the leaf surface and is calculated from the external CO₂
 361 concentration at the upper surface of the leaf boundary layer c_a (mmol mol⁻¹) so that

$$362 \quad c_s = c_a - \left(\frac{A_{net}}{g_{bCO_2}}\right) \text{ after (Masutomi, (2023) where } g_{bCO_2} \text{ is the boundary layer conductance to CO}_2$$

$$363 \quad \text{(in mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}\text{), conversion factors for gases and heat across the boundary layer are given in S1a.}$$

364 Finally, g_{CO_2} is converted to g_{O_3} in $\text{mmol O}_3 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ by dividing by 1000 and using the conversion
 365 factor 0.96 which assumes that the ratio of the diffusivities of gases in air are equal to the inverse of
 366 the square root of the ratio of molecular weights (as described in (Campbell & G.S., Norman, 1998)), see also supplementary S1b).

368

369 1.2.3 Stomatal ozone flux (f_{st})

370 Stomatal $[\text{O}_3]$ flux (f_{st} in $\text{nmol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$) is calculated after the method described in the UNECE
 371 Mapping Manual (UNEP/WHO, 2017) described in eq. [19].

$$372 f_{st} = C_l \times g_{O_3 m/s} \times \frac{r_c}{r_{b,O_3} + r_c} \quad [19]$$

373 Where C_l is the $[\text{O}_3]$ at the upper surface of the laminar layer of a leaf ($\text{nmol O}_3 \text{ m}^{-3}$). Ozone
 374 concentration in ppb can be converted to nmol m^{-3} by multiplying O_3 in ppb by $P/(R \times T_{air,k})$ where
 375 P is the atmospheric pressure (1.013×10^5 in Pascal) in Pascal, R is the universal gas constant
 376 (8.31447 J/mol/K) and $T_{air,k}$ is surface air temperature in degrees Kelvin; $T_{air,k}$ (m/s) is
 377 stomatal conductance to O_3 , to convert g_{O_3} ($\text{mol O}_3 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$) to $g_{O_3 m/s}$ (m/s) we assume a standard
 378 temperature T_{st} (20°C) and P , air pressure P_{st} (1.013×10^5 in Pascal) and divide by 41 to give the
 379 conductance value in m/s . The $r_c/(r_{b,O_3} + r_c)$ term represents the O_3 deposition rate to the leaf
 380 through resistances r_b (the quasi-laminar resistance (s/m)) and r_c (the leaf surface resistance (s/m))
 381 which allow for both stomatal and non-stomatal deposition to the leaf surface. r_c is $1/L$
 382 ($g_{O_3 m/s} + g_{ext}$) where g_{ext} is $1/2500$ (s/m). r_{b,O_3} is estimated by eq. [20].

$$383 r_{b,O_3} = 1.3 \times 150 \times \sqrt{\frac{L}{u_l}} \quad [20]$$

384 Where the factor 1.3 accounts of the differences in diffusivity between heat and O_3 (see S1a) and
 385 The value of 150 provides the equivalent conductance leaf layer for O_3 as compared to forced
 386 convection of heat (Campbell, G.S., Norman, 1998), L is the cross wind leaf dimension (m) and u_l is
 387 the windspeed (m/s) at the top of the leaf laminar boundary layer. The leaf boundary layer
 388 resistance to CO_2 is estimated using a value of 1.24 for the difference between heat and CO_2 in place
 389 of the 1.3 value for O_3 (Campbell and G.S., Norman, 1998).

390

391 1.3 DO₃SE-Crop canopy

392 The DO₃SE crop model uses a multi-layer approach to scale from leaf to the canopy. We assume that
 393 wind, irradiance, $[\text{O}_3]$ concentration and leaf nitrogen content are the key environmental conditions
 394 which change with cumulative canopy leaf area index (LAI) and influence leaf physiology and
 395 therefore canopy layer estimates of A_{net} , $g_{st\text{to}O_3}$ and g_{ext} ; other environmental variables (e.g.,
 396 $T_{air,\theta}$ and VPD) are assumed to remain constant over the canopy.

397

398 1.3.1 Canopy irradiance

399 Changes in irradiance through the canopy are described as sunlit and shaded canopy fractions and
 400 the associated quantity of direct and diffuse photosynthetically active radiation PAR (W/m^2), these
 401 are estimated according to increasing levels of cumulative LAI using the methods of (Pury and
 402 Farquhar, 1997); full details are given in the supplementary material (see section S2). Application of

403 this method requires the canopy to be divided into layers of equal LAI (including both green (LAI_G)
404 and brown (LAI_B) LAI).

405 PAR absorbed per unit leaf area is divided into PAR_{dir} , PAR_{diff} which also includes scattered (re-
406 reflected by the canopy) beam calculated by,

$$407 \quad PAR_{dir}(LAI) = (1 - \rho_{cb}(\beta)) K_b' I_b(0) \exp(-k_b' LAI) \quad [21]$$

$$408 \quad PAR_{diff}(LAI) = (1 - \rho_{cd}) K_d' I_d(0) \exp(-k_d' LAI) \quad [22]$$

409 Estimates of the LAI fractions of sunlit (LAI_{sun}) and shaded (LAI_{sh}) parts of each canopy layer (i)
410 are made by eq. 23 and 24.

$$411 \quad LAI_{sun,i} = \left[1 - \exp\left(-0.5 \times \frac{LAI_i}{\sin\beta}\right) \right] \times 2\sin\beta \quad [23]$$

412 Where β is the solar elevation angle (see supplementary section S3)

$$413 \quad LAI_{sh,i} = LAI_i - LAI_{sun,i} \quad [24]$$

414 The DO₃SE-Crop model simulates LAI as part of the crop growth model and LAI is assumed to be
415 evenly distributed across all layers (see section 1.5.2 and eq. 43).

416 Therefore, PAR for the sunlit part of each layer can be described as

$$417 \quad \int_{LAI_i}^{LAI_n} PAR_{sun} = \int_{LAI_i}^{LAI_n} (LAI_{sun,i}) \times (PAR_{sh} + PAR_{bsun}(\beta)) dLAI$$

418 Where $\int_{LAI_i}^{LAI_n} PAR_{dir}$ can be written as $(1 - \rho_{cb}(\beta)) \times K_b' \times I_b(0) \times [\exp(-K_b' LAI_i) -$
419 $\exp(-K_b' LAI_n)]$ and $PAR_{bsun}(\beta) = (1 - \sigma) I_b(0) \frac{\cos\alpha}{\sin\beta}$

420 Similarly, PAR for the shaded part of each layer can be described as

$$421 \quad \int_{LAI_i}^{LAI_n} PAR_{sh} = \int_{LAI_i}^{LAI_n} (LAI_{sh,i}) \times (PAR_{diff} + PAR_{bsun}) dLAI$$

422 Where $\int_{LAI_i}^{LAI_n} PAR_{diff}(LAI)$ can be written as $(1 - \rho_{cd}) \times K_d' \times I_d(0) \times [\exp(-k_d' LAI_i) -$
423 $\exp(-k_d' LAI_n)] dL$ and $\int_{LAI_i}^{LAI_n} PAR_{bs}(LAI)$ is $I_b(0) [PAR_{dir} - (1 - \sigma) k_b \times [\exp(-k_b LAI_i) -$
424 $\exp(-k_b LAI_n)]]$

425

426 1.3.2 Canopy [O₃] concentration

427 O₃ concentration will vary as a function of O₃ loss to the canopy (i.e. deposition via the stomates and
428 external plant parts) and O₃ replacement from ambient air concentrations above the canopy. Limited
429 data have been collected showing how O₃ concentrations vary with canopy depth in semi-natural
430 communities (Jaggi et al., 2006). These data suggest that a minimum, bottom canopy O₃
431 concentration (C_{z_b}), is about 0.2 times that at the top of the canopy (C_{z_h}) and that the O₃
432 concentration difference within the canopy is closely related to the LAI of the canopy layers.

433 Since each canopy layer can be assumed to be a parallel sink, the O₃ flux to a layer depends on the
434 conductance (inverse of resistance) of that layer and the O₃ concentration at the top of the layer (C_i ;
435 with C_0 being C_{z_h} (i.e. the O₃ concentration at height C_h , the top of the canopy)); we follow and
436 generalise the work of Waggoner et al. (1971) by separating the canopy into nL leaf layers. We calculate
437 the O₃ concentration for each layer, C_i , from O₃ intake, I_i , by;

438 $C_i = r_{c,i} I_i$ [25]

439 With $r_{c,i}$ the leaf surface resistance to O_3 for layer i . I_i is calculated as the solution to a system of
 440 linear equations. Relating $r_{c,i}$, I_i , and resistances of the bulk air among the leaves (RR_{ii}), the in-
 441 canopy aerodynamic resistance for layer i . Assuming above the canopy there is a uniform O_3
 442 concentration C_0 , we use generalised equations from Waggoner (1971) Waggoner, 1971 for the
 443 difference in O_3 concentration between the exterior air and leaf interior, which for the top layer is C_0
 444 minus 0, so C_0 and for each lower layer the difference is 0. This O_3 concentration difference is
 445 calculated by;

446 $C_0 = RR_{i+1} \sum_{j=1}^{nL} I_j + r_{c,1} I_1$ [26]

448 For the top canopy layer,

449 $0 = RR_i \sum_{j=i}^{nL} I_j + r_{c,i} I_i - r_{c,i-1} I_{i-1}$
 450 [27]

451 For each canopy layer i between the top layer and the bottom layer, and;

452 $0 = RR_{nL+1} I_{nL+1} - r_{c,nL} I_{nL}$ [28]

454 For the bottom layer of the canopy, between the lowest leaf layer and the ground. These can also be
 455 written into the matrix form;

456
$$\begin{pmatrix} r_{c,1} + R_1 & R_1 & R_1 & \cdots & R_1 \\ -r_{c,1} & r_{c,2} + R_2 & R_2 & \cdots & R_2 \\ 0 & -r_{c,2} & r_{c,3} + R_3 & \cdots & R_3 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & R_{nL+1} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} I_1 \\ I_2 \\ I_3 \\ \vdots \\ I_{nL+1} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} C_0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
 [29]

457 Which can be numerically solved for I_x when $r_{c,1} \neq 0$ and $R_1 \neq 0$.

458 Resistances for each layer are calculated as described in the supplementary material (section S54)
 459 using standard DO_3SE deposition modelling methods (Emberson et al., L.D., Ashmore, M.R.,
 460 Simpson, D., Tuovinen, J.-P. and Cambridge, 2001; Simpson et al., 2012).

461

462 1.3.3 Canopy maximum carboxylation capacity (V_{cmax})

463 We allow for an exponential decrease in leaf N with canopy depth which will influence both the
 464 photosynthetic capacity (V_{cmax}) and hence dark respiration (R_{dc}). Photosynthetic capacity at each
 465 canopy layer i is calculated by eq. [30].

466

467 $V_{cmax,i} = n_e \times n_0 \times e^{-kN \left(\frac{LAI_i}{LAI_{total}} \right)}$ [30]

468 Where n_e ($\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1} \text{ kg C (kg N)}^{-1}$) is a constant relating leaf nitrogen to Rubisco carboxylation
 469 capacity, n_0 ($\text{kg N}[\text{kg C}]^{-1}$) is the leaf N concentration at the top of the canopy and kN is a nitrogen
 470 profile co-efficient initially set at 0.78 after (Clark et al., 2011).

471

472 1.3.4 Canopy Photosynthesis (A_{net_c})

473 Net canopy photosynthesis ($Anet_c$) determines the amount of C assimilated by the entire canopy
 474 that can subsequently be allocated to different plant parts (i.e. less than the C respired for plant
 475 growth and maintenance, see section 1.4.1), the amount of C assimilation will ultimately determine
 476 whole plant biomass. The net photosynthesis for each canopy layer ($Anet_i$) is calculated according to
 477 the LAI fraction of that layer that is sunlit ($LAI_{sun,i}$) and shaded ($LAI_{sh,i}$) within the layer (i),
 478 multiplied by the net photosynthesis of the sunlit ($Anet_{sun,i,j}$) and shaded leaf ($Anet_{sh,i,j}$),
 479 respectively described by eq. [31] and [32].

$$480 \quad Anet_i = LAI_{sun,i} \times Anet_{sun,i} + LAI_{sh,i} \times Anet_{sh,i} \quad [31]$$

481
 482 with $Anet_c$ calculated by,

$$483 \quad Anet_c = \sum_{i=1}^n Anet_i \quad [32]$$

484 $Anet_c$ is converted from $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ to $\text{kg C m}^{-2} \text{ day}^{-1}$ by multiplying by 3600 (converting from
 485 seconds to hours), multiplying by 1.2 (representing the kg of C per mol) and summing each hourly
 486 $Anet_c$ over the course of a day. This $Anet_c$ is used in the equation 37.

487 1.3.5 Canopy Stomatal Conductance ($g_{O_3,c}$) ($g_{stO_3,i}$)

488 Similarly, canopy layer (i) stomatal conductance to O_3 ($g_{O_3,i}$), which is converted from g_{CO_2} by
 489 assuming a diffusivity ratio of 0.96 to convert from CO_2 to O_3 and is calculated by eq. [33] with whole
 490 canopy stomatal conductance calculated by eq. [34].

$$491 \quad g_{O_3,i} g_{stO_3,i} = LAI_{sun,i} \times g_{O_3,sun,i} g_{stO_3,sun,i} + LAI_{sh,i} \times g_{O_3,sh,i} g_{stO_3,sh,i}$$

$$492 \quad [33]$$

$$493 \quad g_{O_3,c} g_{stO_3,c} = \sum_{i=1}^n g_{O_3,i} g_{stO_3,i}$$

$$494 \quad [34]$$

495 This is converted from $g_{O_3,i} g_{stO_3,i}$ in eq. [33] by dividing the conductance value in $\text{mmol m}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ by
 496 41000 (assuming standard temperature (20°C) and air pressure ($1.013 \times 10^5 \text{ Pa}$)) to give conductance
 497 in
 498 m/s .

499

500 1.4 Crop biomass, LAI, height and yield variables

501 The following section describes how to estimate crop biomass, important canopy characteristics
 502 (LAI and crop height (h)) and yield variables from accumulated calculations of $Anet_c$ over the
 503 course of the growing season following (Osborne et al., 2015).

504

505 1.4.1 Crop biomass (NPP and GPP)

506 The simulation of crop growth requires an estimate of the net primary productivity (NPP) which is
 507 calculated at the end of each day and summed over the growing season. Carbon is assumed to be
 508 allocated to five key crop components: root, leaf, stem, harvest, and reserve pools (Osborne et al.,
 509 2015). This carbon allocation is ultimately used to simulate leaf area index (LAI), canopy height (h),
 510 biomass, harvest index, and yield at the end of each day throughout the growing season.

511 Net primary productivity NPP ($\text{kg C m}^{-2} \text{ day}^{-1}$) is accumulated throughout the day using the JULES-
 512 crop approach to model crop growth (Osborne et al., 2015) described in eq. [35].

$$513 \quad NPP = GPP - R_p \quad [35]$$

514 where GPP is the gross primary productivity ($\text{kg C m}^{-2} \text{ day}^{-1}$) and R_p is plant respiration divided into
515 maintenance (R_{pm}) and growth (R_{pg}) respiration ($\text{kg C m}^{-2} \text{ day}^{-1}$) (Clark et al., 2011) where $R_p =$
516 $R_{pm} + R_{pg}$ and where R_{pg} is assumed to be a fixed fraction of the NPP as shown in eq. [36].

$$517 \quad R_{pg} = R_{gcoeff} (GPP - R_{pm}) \quad [36]$$

518 Where R_{gcoeff} is the growth respiration co-efficient which was initially set to 0.25 based on the
519 value for all PFTs (i.e. forests and grasses including crops) in (Clark et al., 2011). GPP is calculated by
520 eq. [37].

$$521 \quad GPP = Anet_c + f_{swPAW} R_{dc} \quad [37]$$

523 where $Anet_c$ is net canopy photosynthesis (see eq. 28) and $f_{PAW} R_{dc}$ is the soil-moisture modified
524 canopy dark respiration ($\text{kg C m}^{-2} \text{ day}^{-1}$) where $R_{dc} = V_{cmax,i} \times R_{dcoeff}$ with R_{dcoeff} initially
525 assumed to be 0.015 based on (Clark et al., 2011); $V_{cmax,i}$ is the maximum carboxylation efficiency
526 for each canopy layer i which decreases from the top to bottom of the canopy (see eq. 30) and
527 f_{swPAW} is calculated in eq. [7].

528 Leaf maintenance respiration (R_{pm}) is assumed equivalent to the soil moisture modified canopy dark
529 respiration, while root and stem respiration are assumed to be independent of soil moisture but to
530 have the same dependencies on C content. We assume a fixed relationship between C and N
531 contents of these organs so that R_{pm} can be estimated by eq. [38].

$$532 \quad R_{pm} = R_{dc} \times (f_{sw} + (\frac{C_{root} + C_{stem}}{C_{leaf}})) \quad [38]$$

533 The C accumulating as NPP each day is divided into five carbon pools i.e. root (C_{root}), leaf (C_{leaf}),
534 stem (C_{stem}), reserve (C_{resv}), and harvest (C_{harv}) ($\text{kg C m}^{-2} \text{ day}^{-1}$) according to partition coefficients
535 (see eq. [39]) allowing for accumulation of C in these pools over the course of the crop growth
536 period.

$$537 \quad \frac{dC_{root}}{dt} = p_{root} NPP,$$

$$538 \quad \frac{dC_{leaf}}{dt} = p_{leaf} NPP,$$

$$539 \quad \frac{dC_{stem}}{dt} = p_{stem} NPP (1 - \tau), \quad [39]$$

$$540 \quad \frac{dC_{harv}}{dt} = p_{harv} NPP,$$

$$541 \quad \frac{dC_{resv}}{dt} = p_{stem} NPP, \tau$$

542 where τ is the fraction of stem C that is partitioned into the reserve pool. p_{root} , p_{leaf} , p_{stem} ,
543 $p_{harv} = 1$. The partition coefficients are related to the crop development stage (DVI) and hence
544 effective thermal time (TT_{eff}) since emergence. The partition coefficients are based on Osborne et
545 al. (2015) and provided as a function of DVI using six parameters to continuously describe varying
546 partition coefficients over the duration of the crop growing season. We use the same multinomial
547 logistic as that described in (Osborne et al., 2015) to define this function according to eq. [40].

$$548 \quad p_{root} = \frac{e^{\alpha_{root} + (\beta_{root} DVI)}}{e^{\alpha_{root} + (\beta_{root} DVI)} + e^{\alpha_{stem} + (\beta_{stem} DVI)} + e^{\alpha_{leaf} + (\beta_{leaf} DVI)} + 1},$$

$$549 \quad p_{stem} = \frac{e^{\alpha_{stem} + (\beta_{stem} DVI)}}{e^{\alpha_{root} + (\beta_{root} DVI)} + e^{\alpha_{stem} + (\beta_{stem} DVI)} + e^{\alpha_{leaf} + (\beta_{leaf} DVI)} + 1},$$

$$550 \quad p_{leaf} = \frac{e^{\alpha_{leaf} + (\beta_{leaf} DVI)}}{e^{\alpha_{root} + (\beta_{root} DVI)} + e^{\alpha_{stem} + (\beta_{stem} DVI)} + e^{\alpha_{leaf} + (\beta_{leaf} DVI)} + 1}, \quad [40]$$

$$p_{harv} = \frac{1}{e^{\alpha_{root} + (\beta_{root} DVI)} + e^{\alpha_{stem} + (\beta_{stem} DVI)} + e^{\alpha_{leaf} + (\beta_{leaf} DVI)} + 1},$$

Where DVI is the development index; α and β partition parameters. These parameters describe the shape of the thermal time varying partition coefficient for leaves, roots and stems.

Once C is no longer partitioned to stems, C from the stem reserve pool will mobilise to the harvest pool at a rate of 10% per day following (Osborne et al., 2015) described by eq. [41].

$$C_{harv} = C_{harv} + (0.1 C_{resv}) C_{resv} = 0.9 C_{resv} \quad \text{for } p_{stem} < 0.01 \quad [41]$$

Total leaf C is divided between green leaf C ($C_{leaf,green}$), and brown leaf carbon ($C_{leaf,brown}$). Carbon from the $C_{leaf,green}$ will mobilise to the harvest pool at the rate of 5% per day after (Osborne et al., 2015) and to the $C_{leaf,brown}$ at a rate of 24% per day once $f_{LS} > 1$ as described in eq. [42]

$$\{C_{harv} = C_{harv} + (0.05 C_{leaf,green}) C_{leaf,green} = 0.86 C_{leaf} \quad C_{leaf} = 0.86 C_{leaf,green} + 0.24 C_{leaf,brown}\} \quad \text{for } f_{LS} > 1 \quad [42]$$

562

1.4.2 Leaf area Index (LAI) and stem height (h)

At the end of each day, the C content of the stem and leaf is used to estimate LAI by eqs. [43] and [44].

$$LAI = (C_{leaf} / f_c) \times SLA \quad [43]$$

$$\text{where } SLA = \gamma (DVI + 0.06)^\delta \quad [44]$$

The values γ and δ were determined by fitting the values to the paired values of DVI and specific leaf area (SLA). The value of f_c is 0.5 (unitless), denotes carbon fraction of dry matter.

The amount of C in the stem is used to calculate the crop height h in m by eq. [45].

$$h = k (C_{stem} / f_c)^\lambda \quad [45]$$

where k and λ were determined by fitting the value C_{stem} and h .

573

1.4.3 Yield variables

According to (Osborne et al., 2015) yield can be calculated from the C allocated to the harvest pool (C_{harv}) at the end of the growing season as described in eq. [46]

$$Yield_{grain} = \frac{(C_{harv} \times (1/f_c) \times D_w \times E_g)}{1000} \quad [46]$$

Where harvested C is converted to total biomass (using the conversion factor $f_c=0.5$), i.e., by multiplying the harvested C by $1/f_c$, and then by $1/0.84$ (D_w) to account for the grain moisture content (Mulvaney and Devkota, 2020). C_{harv} includes both chaff and grain however, O_3 fumigation experimentalists tend to only include grain when calculating total crop yield at the end of the growing season, so we assume 15% of the yield is chaff and include a grain to ear ratio, E_g , of 0.85. Dividing by 1000 converts yield from $kg C m^{-2}$ to $g C m^{-2}$, the unit most often used to describe experimental yield results.

585 Evaluation of the DO₃SE-crop model uses a variety of growth 'dry matter (DM)' metrics. Some of the
586 most important metrics and their calculations are: 'Straw DM' which is calculated as the sum of
587 carbon allocated to C_{stem} , C_{leaf} , and C_{resv} ; 'Ear DM' is calculated from C_{harv} excluding the
588 moisture content (D_w) conversion; 'Grain DM' is calculated from C_{harv} excluding both the moisture
589 content (D_w) conversion and removing the chaff fraction conversion E_g ; 'Above ground DM' is the
590 straw DM plus the Ear DM; 'Below ground DM' is converted from C_{root} ; and 'Harvest index' is
591 the Gain DM divided by the Above ground DM. In all cases the f_c conversion factor is used to
592 convert from e.g. g C m⁻² to g DM m⁻².

593 2. DO₃SE-Crop model calibration

594 2.1 Xiaoji China experimental dataset

595

596

597 The DO₃SE-crop model was used to analyse the O₃-FACE (Free Air Concentration Enrichment)
598 experimental data collected in Xiaoji, Jiangdu, Jiangsu Province, China. The wheat crop was grown in
599 fully open-air field conditions for three consecutive growing seasons from 2007 to 2009. This
600 dataset includes four modern cultivars of winter wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.) grown under ambient
601 (AA) and elevated (E) [O₃], with the elevated treatment being, on average, 25% above the ambient
602 [O₃] concentrations of 45.7 ppb from early March/April to the end of May each year. The four
603 cultivars were Yannong 19 (strong-gluten wheat, hereafter Y19), Yangmai 16 (medium-gluten wheat,
604 hereafter Y16), Yangmai 15 (weak-gluten wheat, hereafter Y15), and Yangfumai 2 (weak-gluten
605 wheat, hereafter Y2) (Zhu et al., 2011).

606 The soil water availability was sufficient for optimum wheat crop growth, so we assumed there
607 was no soil moisture stress (Feng et al., 2012). Any data gaps were filled following the AgMIP-O₃ gap
608 filling protocol (see S4). For large [O₃] data gaps (i.e., greater than 2 weeks) occurring outside the
609 [O₃] fumigation period, we used scaled WFRChem (version 4.2) data for Xiaoji (Conibear et al., 2018)
610 to ensure consistency in model calibration and potential applications across China. The dataset
611 provides grain yield components, including the number of ears per square meter, the number of
612 grains per ear, and the grain dry matter (Grain DM, in g/m⁻²) (Feng et al., 2011; 2016). Additional
613 physiological datasets (i.e., A_{net} , V_{cmax} , J_{max} , and g_{H2O}) (further,
614 converted to g_{O3} in this paper to match the model outputs as described in S1b)) are also
615 provided, but only for the year 2008 for all cultivars (Y2, Y19, Y15, and Y16) and for the flag leaf. The
616 2008 data also include measurements of the Chlorophyll (in mg m⁻²) which can be used to assess
617 the level of senescence experienced by the leaf (Mariën et al., 2019). Since the year 2008 also
618 showed significant differences in Grain DM yield_{grain} between AA and E O₃ treatments (a mean
619 relative yield difference of 6.73 for all cultivars, see Table S3b) therefore, this year 2008 was used
620 to train the DO₃SE-crop model whereas with other years (i.e., 2007 and 2009) are used to test the
621 model.

622 Further experimental details are provided in Feng et al. (2011, 2016). Table 1 describes the average,
623 minimum and maximum values for all measured variables required to run the DO₃SE-Crop model
624 collected at the Xiaoji site for each year. Additionally, the M7 (mean 7-hour O₃ concentration over
625 the exposure period in ppb) is included for both AA and E O₃ treatments. Measurements were taken
626 at a height of 2 metres above the ground surface.

627 Further experimental details are provided in Feng et al. (2011, 2016).

628 ~~Additional physiological datasets (i.e., A_{net} , V_{cmax} , J_{max} , and g_{O_3}) are also provided but only~~
 629 ~~for the year 2008 for all cultivars (Y2, Y19, Y15, and Y16) for the flag leaf, which were used to~~
 630 ~~parameterize the DO₃SE-crop model's simulations of these variables. The 2008 data also include~~
 631 ~~measurements of Chlorophyll Content Index (CCI), which can be used to assess the level of~~
 632 ~~senescence experienced by the leaf (Mariën et al., 2019).~~

633

634 ~~The DO₃SE-crop model was used to analyse the O₃-FACE (Free Air Concentration~~
 635 ~~Enrichment) experimental data collected in Xiaoji, Jiangdu, Jiangsu Province, China. This~~
 636 ~~dataset includes four modern cultivars of winter wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.) grown under~~
 637 ~~ambient and elevated [O₃] with the elevated treatment being, on average, 25% above the~~
 638 ~~ambient [O₃] of 45.7 ppb for the period early March/April to end of May each year. Plants~~
 639 ~~were grown in fully open-air field conditions for three consecutive growing seasons over~~
 640 ~~2007 to 2009. Table 1 describes the average, minimum, and maximum values for all measured~~
 641 ~~variables required to run the DO₃SE-Crop model collected at the Xiaoji site for each year.~~
 642 ~~Additionally, the M7 (mean 7-hour O₃ concentration over the exposure period in ppb) value for~~
 643 ~~ozone concentration during the exposure period is included for both ambient (AA) and elevated (E)~~
 644 ~~O₃ treatments. Measurements were taken at a height of 2 meters ess above the ground surface and at~~
 645 ~~an atmospheric pressure of 101 kPa. hourly meteorological and [O₃] data that are required to run~~
 646 ~~the DO₃SE-Crop modelmodel, and which are provided at the Xiaoji site.~~

647 ~~Table 1. Summary of Hhourly Meteorological and Oozone Concentration ([O₃]) Ddata at Xiaoji.~~

648 ~~This table provides average, minimum, and maximum values for all measured variables required to~~
 649 ~~run the DO₃SE-Crop model. Additionally, the M7 value for ozone concentration during the exposure~~
 650 ~~period is included. Measurements were taken at a height of 2 meters and at atmospheric pressure of~~
 651 ~~101 kPa.~~

Variable	Unit	Description	Year 2007 (<u>Mmin</u> , <u>Aavg</u> , <u>Mmax</u>)	Year 2008 (<u>mMin</u> , <u>Aavg</u> , <u>Mmax</u>)	Year 2009 (<u>Mmin</u> , <u>Aavg</u> , <u>mMax</u>)
PAR_{total}	W/m ²	Direct and diffuse PAR at the top of the canopy	<u>0</u> , <u>241.94</u> , <u>1759</u>	<u>0</u> , <u>265.15</u> , <u>1810.48</u>	<u>0</u> , <u>262.16</u> , <u>1850.5</u>
T_{air}	°C	Surface air temperature in degrees Celsius	<u>-6.35</u> , <u>10.07</u> , <u>34.10</u>	<u>-9.22</u> , <u>8.24</u> , <u>32.7</u>	<u>-9.17</u> , <u>9.62</u> , <u>33.64</u>
VPD	kPa	Leaf to air vapour pressure deficit	<u>0</u> , <u>0.34</u> , <u>3.77</u>	<u>0</u> , <u>0.3</u> , <u>3.5</u>	<u>0</u> , <u>0.38</u> , <u>3.8</u>
u_z	m/s	Wind speed at a reference height z	<u>0.03</u> , <u>2.14</u> , <u>8.19</u>	<u>0.07</u> , <u>2.11</u> , <u>8.83</u>	<u>0.05</u> , <u>2.10</u> , <u>8.45</u>
p_a	Pa	Surface air pressure			
CO_{3z} (and M7 value) for AA O ₃ treatment value	m/sppb	Ozone concentration at a	<u>0</u> , <u>15.48</u> , <u>129.95</u> (<u>47.2</u>)	<u>0</u> , <u>16.2</u> , <u>137.07</u> (<u>49</u>)	<u>0</u> , <u>15.9</u> , <u>102.02</u> (<u>47</u>)

during O ₃ exposure period)		reference height $z(C_z)z$			
C_z (and M7 value) for E O ₃ treatment value during O ₃ exposure period)	ppb	Ozone concentration at a reference height $z(C_z)$ Ozone concentration at a reference height z	$0_i, 16.83_i, 176.73 (56.1)$	$0_i, 17.46_i, 171.19 (60.7)$	$0_i, 17.95_i, 153.40 (58.7)$
O ₃ exposure period	Days		38	92	92

652

653 The water availability is sufficient for the wheat crop so we assume there was no soil moisture stress
654 (Feng *et al.*, 2012). Any data gaps were filled following the AgMIP-O₃ gap filling protocol (see S4). For
655 large [O₃] data gaps (i.e. greater than 2 weeks) which occur outside the [O₃] fumigation period we
656 use scaled WFRChem (version 4.2) data for Xiaoji (Conibear *et al.*, 2018a) to ensure consistency in
657 model calibration and potential applications across China. The four cultivars were Yannong 19
658 (strong gluten wheat, hereafter Y19), Yangmai 16 (medium gluten wheat, hereafter Y16), Yangmai
659 15 (weak gluten wheat, hereafter Y15) and Yangfumai 2 (weak gluten wheat, hereafter Y2). The
660 dataset provides measurements of key physiological variables for the Y2 and Y16 cultivars (i.e. A_{max} ,
661 V_{cmax} , J_{max} and g_{O_3}) for the flag leaf which were used to evaluate the DO₃SE-Crop model's
662 simulations of these variables.

663

664 Additional data also provide measurements of chlorophyll content Index (CCI), which can be used to
665 assess the level of senescence experienced by the leaf (Mariën *et al.*, 2019). The dataset also
666 provides grain yield components, including the number of ears per square meter, the number of
667 grains per ear and the grain dry matter (*Grain DM*) (the latter in g m⁻²) (Feng *et al.*, 2011, 2016).
668 Further experimental details are provided in (Feng *et al.*, 2011, 2016).

669

670 2.2 DO₃SE-Crop calibration and evaluation

671 Development and calibration of the DO₃SE-Crop model with the The Xiaoji experimental data set
672 analysis followed three main steps: i). sensitivity analysis to identify key model parameters to
673 calibrate; ii). calibration of these key parameters for a single year and both tolerant and sensitive
674 cultivars; and iii). evaluation of key DO₃SE-Crop model outputs for different years and cultivars from
675 those used in model calibration.

676 Initially, a To perform the sensitivity analysis we used ,the SaLIB python library SaLIB was used
677 (Iwanga *et al.*, 2022, , Herman and Usher, 2017). The analysis requires ranges to be specified for the
678 parameters (identified by an initial manual calibration) that are included involved in the sensitivity
679 analysis. For physiological parameters, these ranges were determined by considering the range of
680 these parameters in the literature. For carbon allocation parameters, the range was identified by
681 considering the maximum and minimum values of these parameters that would result in realistic
682 plant response. Once the ranges within which to vary the parameters was were identified, the
683 sensitivity analysis was run using the extended fourier amplitude sensitivity analysis, which has been
684 commonly used by other crop modellers to improve their calibrations (Silvestro *et al.*,
685 2017, Vazquez-Cruz *et al.*, 2014) . From the sensitivity analysis outputs, the parameters whose
686 variation contributes the most to variations in selected modelling outputs (in this case

687 photosynthetic rate and yield) were identified as the key model outputs for calibration. Using this
688 method we were conducted following the approach of Iwanaga et al. (2022) which was [....] and
689 identified the following DO₃SE-crop parameters as those most important to calibrate: (i) leaf
690 photosynthesis parameters (V_{cmax25} , J_{max25} , kN_m , and VPD_0); (ii) C allocation parameters (α_{root} ,
691 α_{leaf} , α_{stem} , γ_A , τ , θ) and related dark respiration coefficients (R_{dcoeff} and R_{gcoeff}), and (iii) O₃
692 damage module parameters related to senescence (γ_3 , γ_4 and γ_5). Phenology parameters were
693 excluded from this sensitivity analysis as earlier studies have shown these are relatively
694 straightforward to calibrate using automated methods for a range of environmental conditions
695 (Nguyen et al., 2024). We note that assessing the probability distribution of these ranges would also
696 be useful but consider this outside the scope of the current paper due largely to data limitations.

697 The DO₃SE-Crop model was then calibrated using the 2008 dataset for the Y2 and Y16 cultivars. The
698 year 2008 was selected since this showed a substantial difference in yield of 208 and 148 g/m²
699 between the AA and EO₃ treatments for the Y2 and Y16 cultivars respectively. These cultivars were
700 chosen since they were identified as the most sensitive (Y2) and tolerant (Y16) cultivars according to
701 the experimental analysis conducted by Feng et al. (2016).

702 The DO₃SE-Crop model was then calibrated using the 2008 dataset for the Y2 and Y16 cultivars. The
703 year 2008 was selected since this showed a substantial difference in yield of 208x and 148y g/m²
704 between the ambient and elevated O₃ treatments for the Y2 and Y16 cultivars respectively. These
705 cultivars were chosen since they were identified as the most sensitive (Y2) and tolerant (Y16)
706 cultivars according to the experimental analysis conducted by Feng et al. (2016).

707 Calibration of the phenology module used only the Y2 cultivar data describing the timing of
708 emergence, anthesis and maturity to calibrate key phenology parameters (T_b , T_0 , T_m , VT_{min} , VT_{max} ,
709 PIV , and PID , TT_{emr} , TT_{veg} and TT_{rep}). Phenology data are only provided for the AA O₃ treatment.
710 The phenology calibration was automated by computationally applying a genetic algorithm (Wang,
711 1997), an optimisation technique with gradient decent to find the best parameters. This uses a
712 combination of crossover strategy (selecting parameters randomly from parameter pairings) and
713 mutation strategy (which takes a parameter range and uses incremental step changes) to identify
714 the parameters which give the highest R² and lowest root mean square error (RMSE) when
715 compared with observations of the timing (day of year) of emergence, anthesis and maturity.

716 Calibration of the phenology module used Y2 cultivar data describing the timing of emergence,
717 anthesis and maturity to calibrate key phenology parameters (T_b , T_0 , T_m , VT_{min} , VT_{max} , PIV , and
718 PID , TT_{emr} , TT_{veg} and TT_{rep}). The phenology calibration was automated by computationally
719 applying a genetic algorithm (Wang, 1997), an optimisation technique with gradient decent to find
720 the best parameters. This uses a combination of crossover strategy (selecting parameters randomly
721 from parameter pairings) and mutation strategy (which takes a parameter range and uses
722 incremental step changes) to identify the parameters which give the highest R² and lowest root
723 mean square error (RMSE) when compared with observations of the timing (day of year) of
724 emergence, anthesis and maturity.

725 Calibration of the leaf physiology, canopy C allocation and O₃ damage DO₃SE-Crop modules was
726 performed manually. This required that an initial value and range be defined for each parameter,
727 which were defined from a combination of observations from the Xiaoji experimental dataset as well
728 as values taken from the literature (see Appendix Tables A1 and A2 for details). The model was
729 manually calibrated until certain conditions were satisfied, as explained below.

730 Calibration of the leaf physiology parameters (V_{cmax} , J_{max} , kN_m , and VPD_0) was performed whilst
731 keeping all other parameters fixed. This calibration aimed to achieve a maximum A_{net} value of 30

732 $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ and a g_{O_3} value of $350 \text{ mmol O}_3 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ PLA s}^{-1}$, consistent with the maximum values
733 observed in the Xiaoji dataset (Zhu et al., 2011). We calibrated V_{cmax} and J_{max} as measurements are
734 only provided for Y2 and Y16 cultivars and only for certain points during the growth period and we
735 know that V_{cmax} and J_{max} can vary seasonally.

736 Calibration of the C allocation parameters (α_{root} , α_{leaf} , α_{stem} , γ , τ and related dark respiration
737 coefficients (R_{dcoeff} and R_{gcoeff}), was also performed keeping all other parameters fixed. This
738 calibration aimed to achieve the following criteria:- a stem dry matter to leaf dry matter ratio (R_{SL})
739 of approximately 2:1 (Huang et al., 2022); relative growth of different plant parts (i.e. leaves, stem,
740 roots, grain) consistent with profiles found in the literature (Osborne et al., 2015; de Vries et al.,
741 1989); a modelled Grain DM within $\pm 30\%$ of the observed; an above ground DM value of
742 between $1200\text{-}1600 \text{ g m}^{-2}$; an LAI value between $4\text{-}7 \text{ m}^2 \text{ m}^{-2}$; and an R_d value of between 30 to 60%
743 of A_{net} (Amthor et al., 2019). We calibrated C allocation parameters as in the JULES-crop model
744 calibration has only been performed for broad, global scale application for wheat (Osborne et al.,
745 2016) and therefore requires further calibration for application under Chinese conditions. Further,
746 the observed dataset does not provide any information with regards to the change in carbon
747 allocation parameters due to ozone. The C allocation parameters were only calibrated for ambient
748 ozone conditions, and we only investigate the effect of ozone on C assimilation (not C allocation).

749 Finally, calibration of the O_3 parameters (γ_3 , γ_4 and γ_5) was performed using 2008 data for both the
750 Y2 and Y16 cultivars whilst again keeping the other parameters fixed. Calibration was targeted so
751 that the difference in Grain DM between ambient and elevated O_3 treatments as close as possible
752 to $\pm 10\%$ of the observed.

753 Evaluation of the DO₃SE-Crop model was conducted using Xiaoji data for 2007 and 2009 for all
754 cultivars, and 2008 data for Y19 and Y16 cultivars. This evaluation tested the ability of the calibrated
755 DO₃SE-Crop model to simulate Grain DM using R^2 and RMSE statistical tests.

756 Calibration of the manual (for leaf physiology, canopy C allocation and O_3 damage DO₃SE-Crop
757 modules was performed manually. This required that an initial value and range be defined for each
758 parameter.) calibration methods. Both methods require defining an initial parameter value and a
759 realistic range over which the parameter value may vary. These parameter values are which were
760 defined from a combination of observations from the Xiaoji experimental dataset as well as values
761 taken from the literature (see supplementary Tables S4 and S5-2 for details). The model is was
762 manually calibrated until certain conditions were satisfied, as explained below:

763 Firstly, we calibrated the leaf physiology parameters (V_{cmax25} , J_{max25} , kN , m , and VPD_0) was
764 performed whilst keeping the all other parameters fixed. This step calibration aimed to achieve a
765 maximum A_{net} value of $30 \mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ and a g_{O_3} value of $350 \text{ mmol O}_3 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ PLA s}^{-1}$,
766 consistent with the maximum values observed in the Xiaoji dataset (Zhu et al., 2011). We calibrated
767 V_{cmax25} and J_{max25} as measurements are only provided for Y2 and Y16 cultivars and only for
768 certain points during the growth period and we know that V_{cmax} and J_{max} can vary seasonally.

769 Secondly, we calibrated the C allocation parameters (α_{root} , α_{leaf} , α_{stem} , γ , τ , λ , θ and
770 related dark respiration coefficients (R_{dcoeff} and R_{gcoeff}), was also, again performed keeping all
771 other parameters fixed. This calibration aimed to achieve the following criteria:- included: a stem
772 dry matter to leaf dry matter ratio (R_{SL}) of approximately 2:1 (Huang et al., 2022); relative growth
773 of different plant parts (i.e. leaves, stem, roots, grain) consistent with profiles found in the literature
774 (Osborne et al., 2015; de Vries et al., 1989); a high R^2 value (above 0.70) when a modelled grain DM
775 Grain DM is plotted against within $\pm 30\%$ of the observed grain DM; an above — ground DM

776 values of between 1200-1600 g m⁻²; an LAI value between 4-7 m² m⁻²; and an R_d/R_a being value of
777 between 30 to 60% of A_{net} the assimilated A_{net} (Amthor et al., 2019).

778 Finally, we calibrated calibration of the O₂ parameters (γ₃, γ₄ and γ₅), was performed using 2008
779 data for both the Y2 and Y16 cultivars whilst again keeping keeping the other parameters fixed.
780 Calibration was targeted so that the difference in Grain DM Yield_{grain} between ambient and
781 elevated O₂ treatments as close as possible to was within ± 10% of the observed. The best
782 calibrated parameters were those that resulted in an R² value above 0.90 when the modeled grain
783 yield difference was compared against the observed grain yield difference for ambient versus
784 elevated O₂ treatments.

785 Evaluation of the DO₂SE-Crop model was conducted using Xiaoji data for 2007 and 2009 for all
786 cultivars, and 2008 data for Y19 and Y16 cultivars. This evaluation tested the ability of the calibrated
787 DO₂SE-Crop model to simulate Grain DM and Yield_{grain} using R² and RMSE statistical tests, to
788 assess the capability of the model to simulate observations.

789

790 The Xiaoji experimental data were split into calibration (year 2008, Y2 and Y16 cultivars) and
791 evaluation (year 2007 & 2009, Y15 & Y19 cultivars). The calibration of DO₂SE-Crop has two main
792 steps, firstly, to calibrate for crop development and growth (i.e. phenology and C allocation). This
793 calibration was performed using the Y2 cultivar. Secondly, the calibration of the O₂ damage module,
794 this was calibrated for using the Y2 cultivar (representing a sensitive cultivar and Y16 (representing a
795 tolerant cultivar), these cultivar sensitivities followed information provided in (Feng et al., 2016).

796

797 Phenology Calibration

798 Calibration of the DO₂SE-Crop model used a combination of automated (for phenology) and manual
799 (for leaf physiology, canopy C allocation and O₂ damage) calibration methods. Both methods require
800 defining an initial parameter value and a realistic range over which the parameter value may vary.
801 These parameter values are defined from a combination of observations from the Xiaoji
802 experimental dataset as well as values taken from the literature (see supplementary Table 2 for
803 details). The model is calibrated until certain conditions were satisfied, as explained below.

804 Calibration of the phenology module used the Xiaoji 2008 dataset for the Y2 cultivar. These data
805 were used to determine the key phenological stages (emergence, anthesis and maturity). For this
806 the thermal life span of the canopy from sowing to maturity (TT_{leaf}) and calibrate key phenology
807 parameters (T_b, T₀, T_m, VT_{min}, VT_{max}, PIV, and PID, emergence td, flag leaf emergence td,
808 A_{start} td, t_{lep} and t_{se}) harvest td) were calibrated. The phenology calibration was automated by
809 computationally applying a genetic algorithm (Wang, 1997), an optimisation technique with gradient
810 descent to find the best parameters. This uses a combination of crossover strategy (selecting
811 parameters randomly from parameter pairings) and mutation strategy (which takes a parameter
812 range and uses incremental step changes) to identify the parameters which give the highest R² and
813 lowest RMSE when compared with observations of the timing (day of year) of emergence, anthesis
814 and maturity. The calibrated phenology parameters were tested for the other years (i.e. 2007 and
815 2009, including all the cultivars; 2008, Y19 and Y16 cultivars) to assess their ability to represent crop
816 development between years. Leaf physiology, carbon allocation and O₂ damage module sensitivity
817 analysis and calibration

818 [First, we conducted a sensitivity analysis to identify the leaf physiology, carbon \(C\) allocation, and](#)
819 [ozone \(O₃\) damage module parameters that were most important to calibrate \(Iwanaga et al., 2022\).](#)
820 [The analysis pinpointed the following DO₃SE-crop parameters for calibration: \(i\) leaf photosynthesis](#)
821 [parameters \(\$V_{cmax}\$, \$J_{max}\$, \$kN\$, \$m\$, and \$VPD_0\$ \), \(ii\) C allocation parameters \(\$a_{root}\$, \$a_{leaf}\$, \$a_{stem}\$,](#)
822 [\$\lambda\$, \$\theta\$ \), \(iii\) dark respiration coefficients \(\$R_{dcoeff}\$ and \$R_{gcoeff}\$ \), and \(iv\) O₃ damage module](#)
823 [parameters related to senescence \(\$\gamma_3\$, \$\gamma_4\$, and \$\gamma_5\$ \). Calibration was performed manually in steps to](#)
824 [find the optimal parameters.](#)

825 [Firstly, we calibrated the leaf physiology parameters while keeping the other parameters fixed. This](#)
826 [step aimed to achieve a maximum \$A_{net}\$ value of \$30 \mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}\$ and a \$g_{O_3}\$ value of \$350 \text{ mmol O}_3\$](#)
827 [\$\text{m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}\$, consistent with the maximum values observed in the Xiaoji dataset \(Zhu et al., 2011\).](#)

828 [Secondly, we calibrated the C allocation parameters, again keeping other parameters fixed. The](#)
829 [calibration criteria included: a stem dry matter to leaf dry matter ratio of approximately 2:1 \(Huang](#)
830 [et al., 2022\); relative growth of different plant parts consistent with profiles found in the literature](#)
831 [\(Osborne et al., 2015; de Vries et al., 1989\); a high R² value \(above 0.70\) when modelled grain DM is](#)
832 [plotted against observed grain DM; above ground DM values between \$1200\text{--}1600 \text{ g m}^{-2}\$; an LAI](#)
833 [between \$4\text{--}7 \text{ m}^2 \text{ m}^{-2}\$; and \$R_d\$ being 30 to 60% of the assimilated \$A_{net}\$ \(Amthor et al., 2019\).](#)

834 [Finally, we calibrated the O₃ parameters, keeping the other parameters fixed. The best calibrated](#)
835 [parameters were those that resulted in an R² value above 0.90 when the modeled grain yield](#)
836 [difference was compared against the observed grain yield difference for ambient versus elevated O₃](#)
837 [treatments.](#)

838 [We applied a sensitivity analysis to identify the leaf physiology, C allocation and O₃ damage module](#)
839 [parameters that were most important to calibrate \(Iwanaga et al., 2022\). The sensitivity analysis](#)
840 [identified the following DO₃SE-crop parameters for calibration: i\). leaf photosynthesis parameters \(\$V_{cmax}\$,](#)
841 [\$J_{max}\$, \$kN\$, \$m\$ and \$VPD_0\$ \); ii\). C allocation parameters \(\$a_{root}\$, \$a_{leaf}\$, \$a_{stem}\$, \$\lambda\$, \$\theta\$ \); iii\). dark](#)
842 [respiration coefficients \(\$R_{dcoeff}\$ and \$R_{gcoeff}\$ \), and iv\). O₃ damage module parameters related to](#)
843 [senescence \(\$\gamma_3\$, \$\gamma_4\$ and \$\gamma_5\$ \). Calibration for these parameters was performed manually and in steps;](#)
844 [firstly, the best parameters are found for leaf photosynthesis i.e. parameters which give a maximum](#)
845 [\$A_{net}\$ value of \$30 \mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}\$ and \$g_{O_3}\$ value of \$350 \text{ mmol O}_3 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}\$ \(consistent with maximum](#)
846 [values observed in the Xiaoji dataset, Xhu et al., 2011\). Secondly, calibration is then performed for](#)
847 [the C allocation parameters, identifying the best parameters which meet each of the following](#)
848 [criteria: a stem dry matter: leaf dry matter ratio of approx. 2:1 \(after \(Huang et al., 2022\)\); relative](#)
849 [growth of different plant parts which are consistent with growth profiles found in the literature](#)
850 [\(\(Osborne et al., 2015\) and de Vries et al., 1989\); an R² value of above 0.90 when modelled](#)
851 [Grain DM is plotted against observed Grain DM; Above ground DM values are between \$1200\text{--}\$](#)
852 [\$1600 \text{ g m}^{-2}\$; a LAI of between \$4\text{--}7 \text{ m}^2 \text{ m}^{-2}\$ and \$R_d\$ is 30 to 60% of the assimilated \$A_{net}\$ \(Amthor et al.,](#)
853 [2019\). Finally, the model is then calibrated for the O₃ parameters, while other parameters remain](#)
854 [fixed, the best calibrated parameters are those that give an R² value of above 0.90 when modelled](#)
855 [Yield_{grain} difference was compared against observed Yield_{grain} difference for ambient versus](#)
856 [elevated O₃ treatments.](#)

857 [Full details and description of the DO₃SE-crop parameters for wheat and their associated ranges are](#)
858 [given in Table S43, S54 and S65.](#)

859 [Validation – Phenology calibration, Leaf physiology, carbon allocation and O₃ damage module](#)

860 [The calibrated phenology, leaf physiology, carbon allocation, and O₃ damage module parameters](#)
861 [were validated/tested for other years in the Xiaoji dataset \(i.e., 2007 and 2009 for all cultivars, and](#)

862 2008 for Y19 and Y16 cultivars) to assess their ability to simulate grain dry matter. A comparison
863 between the modelled test dataset and the observed dataset is presented in Fig. 8.

864 The calibrated phenology parameters were tested for the other years (i.e. 2007 and 2009, including
865 all the cultivars; 2008, Y19 and Y16 cultivars) to assess their ability to represent crop development
866 between years.

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880 **Results**

881 We first examine the model's ability to simulate the key phenological development stages since this
882 is key to simulating the variation in C allocation to different plant parts over the course of the
883 growing season and hence how O₃ exposure will influence growth and yield which is determined by
884 the timing and length of the grain filling period. We also explore how DO₃SE-Crop simulates within
885 canopy [O₃] profiles to understand which layers of the canopy are most important in determining O₃
886 response. We then examine the ability of the model to simulate leaf-level physiology and C
887 allocation to the different parts of the crop. Lastly, the impact of both instantaneous and long-term
888 O₃ damage on the crop's final *Grain DM* is evaluated for different cultivars and years.

889 We first examine the model's ability to simulate the key phenological development stages since this
890 is key to simulating the variation in C allocation over the course of the growing season and hence
891 how O₃ exposure will influence growth and yield which is determined by the timing and length of the
892 grain filling period. We also explore how DO₃SE-Crop simulates within canopy [O₃] profiles to
893 understand which layers of the canopy are most important in determining O₃ response. We then
894 examine the ability of the model to simulate leaf-level physiology and C allocation to the different
895 parts of the crop. Lastly, the impact of both instantaneous and long-term O₃ damage on the crop's
896 final grain yield is evaluated.

897 i) Crop Phenology

898 The Xiaoji dataset provides sowing and harvest dates for all cultivars for each year but only provides
899 the date of the timing of anthesis for the years 2008 and 2009 for all cultivars. We assume that DVI =
900 1 is equivalent to the start of anthesis and that this occurs 4-5 days after flag leaf emergence as
901 shown in Fig. 2. We determine the influence of O₃ on the start and end of senescence (SOS and EOS)
902 using the breakpoint method (described in Pande et al., 2024) to assess significant changes in the
903 chlorophyll values that indicate senescence onset and rate of change for the quantification of tl_{ep}
904 and tl_{se} . This method is applied for chlorophyll data collected in 2008 under both AA and E O₃
905 treatments for the Y2 cultivar. We then assume that these key phenology parameters (i.e., TT_{emr} ,
906 TT_{veg} , TT_{rep} , tl_{ep} and tl_{se}) are consistent across cultivars and years. Our results in Fig 3 suggests
907 this is a reasonable assumption however, we appreciate that assuming these phenology parameters
908 will work for a wider variety of cultivar types (e.g., early or late sown and/or maturing) and years
909 with rather different meteorological conditions, needs to be done with caution.

910 Fig S1 shows the modelled vs observed timing of anthesis and harvest for the training dataset. Fig 3
911 shows the same for the test dataset. For the test dataset there is a variation of 2 to 4 days and 1 to 6
912 days for the modelled anthesis and maturity in relation to observed anthesis and maturity
913 respectively, with observed phenology tending to be a little later than modelled. The T_l ranges
914 between 1325 and 1478 °C days for the three years, with crop sowing occurring between 315 and
915 324 days of year and harvests occurring between 135 and 151 day of year (of the following year).
916 The number of days from the modelled crop sowing to harvest was between 181 and 191 for the
917 three years, compared to 198 and 201 for the observations.

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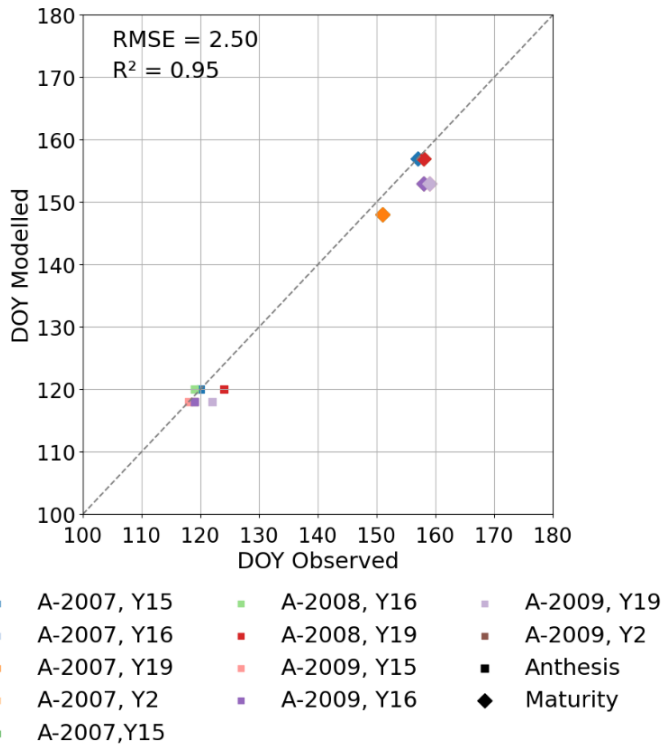
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927 The Xiaoji dataset provides sowing and harvest dates for all cultivars for each year but only provides
928 , however the date of the timing of anthesis is only provided for the year. However, the date of the
929 timing of anthesis is only provided for the years 2008 and 2009 for all the cultivars. We assume that
930 $DVI = 1$ is equivalent to the start of anthesis (and happens and that this occurs 4-5 days after the flag
931 leaf emergence of the flag leaf) as shown in Fig. 2. We determine the influence of O_2 on the start and
932 end of senescence (SOS and EOS) using the breakpoint method (described in Pande et al., 2024) to
933 assess significant changes in the CCIchlorophyll values that indicate senescence onset and rate of
934 change for the quantification of tl_{ep} and tl_{se} . This method is applied for CCIchlorophyll data
935 collected in 2008 under both AA and E- O_2 treatments for the Y2 cultivar. The year 2008, Ambient
936 and elevated dataset is used to determine the start and the end of senescence (SOS and EOS)
937 model is calibrated using the 2008 Y2 data to provide the thermal times for TT_{veg} and TT_{rep} day of
938 the year and the relative uses the CCI data and the associated breakpoint method is used to
939 determine the SOS and the polynomial regression is used to determine the end of senescence (not
940 shown) (Pande et al., 2024) to estimate tl_{ep} and tl_{se} . We then assume that these key phenology
941 parameters (i.e. TT_{emr} , TT_{veg} , TT_{rep} , tl_{ep} and tl_{se}) values are consistent across cultivars and years.
942 Figure 3 suggests this is a reasonable assumption since the phenology module captures the timing of
943 anthesis and maturity for unseen cultivars and years within 2 to 4 days and 1 to 6 days respectively,
944 of the observed timings. However, we appreciate that assuming these phenology parameters will
945 work for a wider variety of cultivar types (e.g. early or late sown and/or maturing) and years with
946 rather different meteorological conditions, needs to be done with caution.

947 Figure S1 shows the timing of crop emergence, anthesis and harvest in relation to simulated anthesis
948 (i.e. at $DVI=1$) for the training dataset. Figure 3 shows the timing of anthesis and harvest for the test
949 dataset. There is a variation of 2-4 to 4-10 days and 1-6 days for the modelled anthesis and
950 maturity in relation to days from crop emergence between years observed anthesis and maturity
951 respectively. The T_t ranges between 1325 and 1478 °C days for the three years with crop emergence
952 occurring between day of year 37-45 and harvest occurring between day of year, with crop sowing
953 occurring between the days of years 315 and 324 and harvests occurring between the days of the
954 years 135-151. The number of days from the modelled crop emergence to harvest was between 100
955 and 104 for the three years.

956 Fig. 3 Modelled vs observed phenological stages provided as day of year (DOY) for the test dataset
957 (i.e., excluding the year 2008 for the Y2 cultivar).

958 Fig.3 The Chinese dataset used to plot modelled phenological stages against experimental dataset
959 for the testing set.



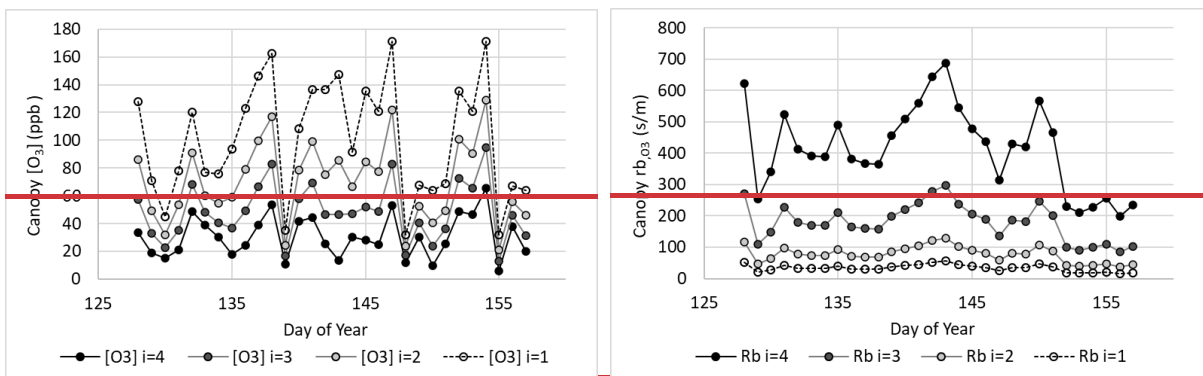
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961 ii) — Within canopy stomatal O₃ profile

962 An important determinant of O₃ deposition and damage is stomatal O₃ deposition (or stomatal O₃
 963 uptake) which is a function of within canopy transfer of O₃ and stomatal and non-stomatal
 964 deposition. The multi-layer aspect of the DO₃SE-Crop model allows within canopy stomatal and non-
 965 stomatal O₃ deposition to be simulated. Figure 3 shows the variation in key variables that determine
 966 total and stomatal O₃ canopy deposition across 4 canopy layers as a mid-day average over the
 967 course of the tl_{ep} period of the flag leaf, for the year 2008 and the Y2 cultivar.

968 Figure 3. Plot showing variation in key O₃ deposition terms as daily maxima by canopy layer (N.B. $i =$
 969 1 is the top canopy layer, $n = 4$) a). $[O_3]$, b). rb_{i,O_3} , c). PAR_{sun} and d). g_{O_3} for the duration of the
 970 flag leaf period for the Y2 cultivar E-O₃ treatment in 2008.

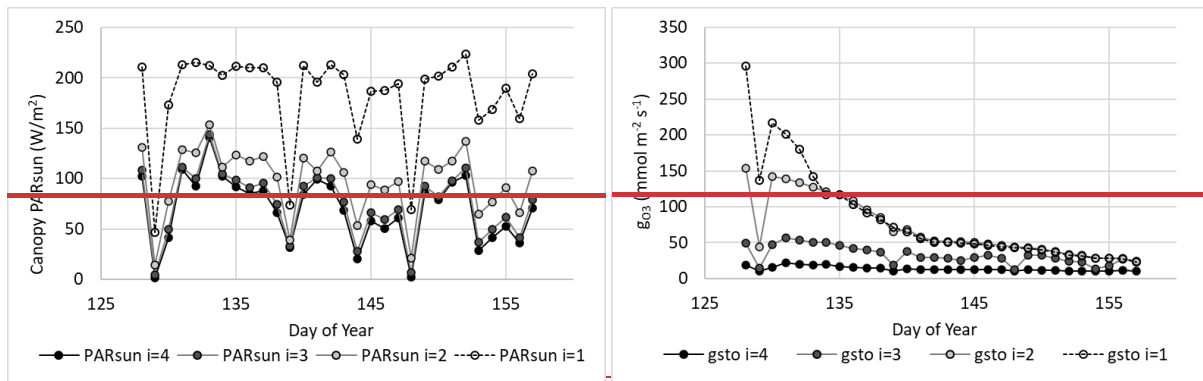
971 a). ————— b).



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974 e). ————— d).



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Figure 3a. shows a decrease of within canopy $[O_3]$ from highs of around 140ppb to values within the range of 10 to 50 ppb between the topmost and bottom canopy layer. Similarly, PAR_{sun} reduces from maximum values of around $200 W m^{-2}$ to values of around $100 W m^{-2}$ on sunny days (see Fig. 3b). The leaf rb_{O_3} (Fig. 3c) also increases with canopy depth from resistances in the region of approximately $100 s m^{-1}$; and g_{O_3} (Fig. 3d) similarly reduces from around 300 to $20 nmol O_3 m^{-2} s^{-1}$ between canopy layers, these differences reduce with the onset of senescence.

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ii.a) Leaf physiology variables (A_{net} , g_{O_3})

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The DO₃SE-Crop model was able to simulate the seasonal A_{net} and g_{O_3} with values ranging from 0 to $27 \mu mol CO_2 m^{-2} s^{-1}$ and 10 to $351 mmol O_3 m^{-2} s^{-1}$ for A_{net} and g_{O_3} respectively over the course of the growing season (see Fig 4). The simulated daily maximum values of modelled g_{O_3} , of $351 mmol O_3 m^{-2} s^{-1}$ were in the range of the observed value of $340 mmol O_3 m^{-2} s^{-1}$. Similarly, the modelled maximum A_{net} is $27 \mu mol CO_2 m^{-2} s^{-1}$ compared to observed value of $28 \mu mol CO_2 m^{-2} s^{-1}$ for the period between anthesis and 10 days before maturity for the year 2008, for the Y2 cultivar. In Fig. 4a and b, the steep decline in modelled A_{net} and g_{O_3} is not seen in the observed dataset. This discrepancy may occur since the simulated A_{net} and g_{O_3} values represent sunlit parts of the upper canopy which comprise both green and senesced leaf material. In contrast, observed A_{net} and g_{O_3} values are measured specifically on the flag leaf and most likely for only the green parts of the leaf, since the LI-6400 photosynthesis system mounted with a 6400-40 leaf chamber fluorometer (used to measure A_{net} and g_{O_3} in the Xiaoji experiment, Feng et al., 2016) will not provide values for senesced leaf material. See also Figure 4 which combines A_{net} and g_{O_3} with observed normalised chlorophyll content and clearly shows the leaf is senescing as predicted by the model. However, the decline in observed chlorophyll values aligns well with the decline in modelled A_{net} and g_{O_3} with the timing of the earlier onset of senescence by 0-3 days between the AA and E O3 treatments being captured well by the model. It is useful to note that the calibrated V_{cmax} and J_{max} values match the observed values within $\pm 2 \mu mol CO_2/m^2/s$.

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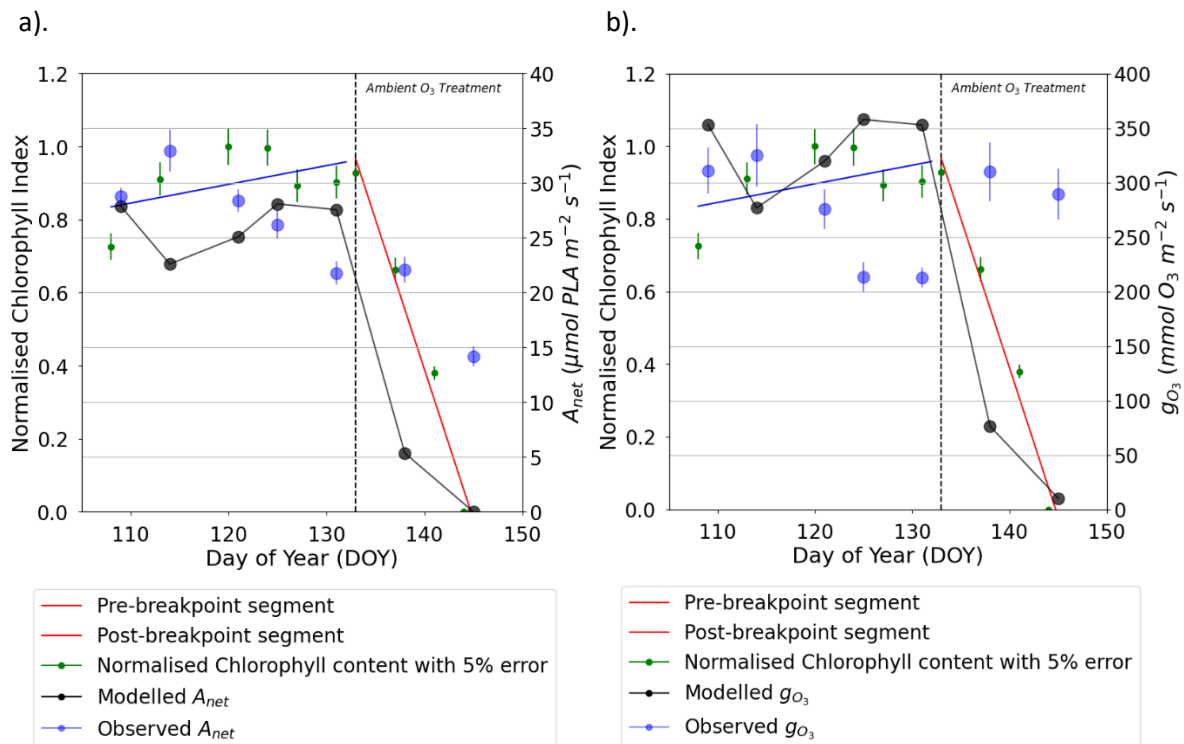
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The DO₃SE-Crop model was able to simulate the seasonal A_{net} and g_{O_3} with values ranging from 0 and to 27 and 10 and to 35110 for A_{net} and g_{O_3} respectively over the course of the growing season (see Figure 4). The simulated daily maximum values of modelled g_{O_3} , of $35110 mmol O_3 m^{-2} s^{-1}$ were in the range of the observed value of $340 mmol O_3 m^{-2} s^{-1}$. Similarly, the modelled maximum A_{net} is $27 \mu mol CO_2 m^{-2} s^{-1}$ compared to observed value of $28 \mu mol CO_2 m^{-2} s^{-1}$ for the period between anthesis and 10 days before maturity for the year 2008, for both the Y2 and Y16 cultivar. In Figure. 4a and b, the steep decline in modelled A_{net} and g_{O_3} is seen as opposed to thenot seen in the observed dataset. This discrepancy may occurs since because the simulated A_{net} and g_{O_3} values represent are for the sunlit parts of the upper canopy which comprise both green and senesced leaf material. In contrast, for the top layer (which also includes some leaves other than the flag leaf as the model divides layer into equal fraction), whereas the observed A_{net} and g_{O_3} values are

measured specifically at the leaf level for on the flag leaf and most likely . In addition to these observed values are often taken only for only the the green parts of the leaf. However, the decline in observed chlorophyll values aligns well with the decline in modelled A_{net} and g_{O_3} . It is useful to note that the calibrated V_{cmax} and J_{max} values match the observed values within ± 22 and $\mu\text{mol CO}_2/\text{m}^2/\text{s}$. which could lead to error if A_{net} and g_{O_3} are only provided for the green part of the leaf.

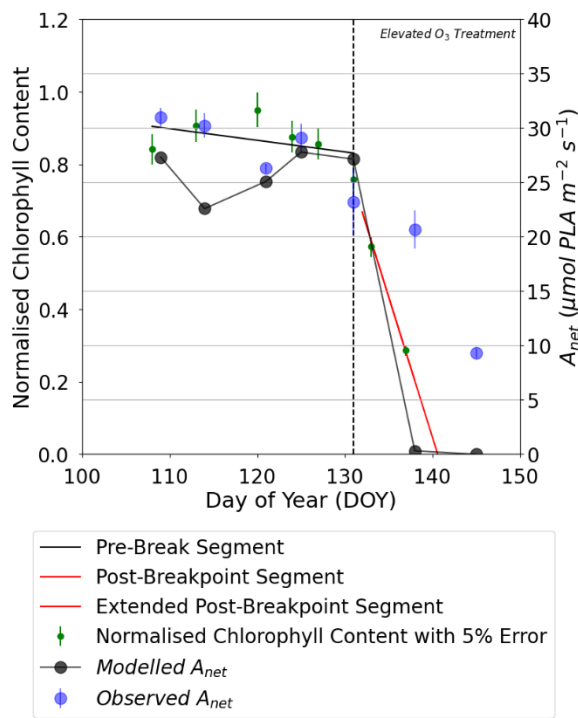
Fig 4. Comparison of daily maxima seasonal profiles of DO₃SE-Crop modelled canopy leaf vs observed flag leaf data for a). AA O₃ treatment A_{net} , and b). AA O₃ treatment g_{O_3} and c) E O₃ treatment A_{net} and d). E O₃ treatment g_{O_3} for the period after anthesis for the year 2008 and the Y16 cultivar. The left (solid blue line) and right (solid red line) represent the segment fits to the relative chlorophyll content values for application of the breakpoint method to define the SOS (Start of Senescence) shown as the solid black dashed line. The black scatter solid dots, along with their standard measurement error, represent the relative observed chlorophyll content values (see Fig 7 for further details)Figure 4. DO₃SE-Crop modelled diurnal profile of a). A_{net} g_{O_3} , and b). A_{net} for a fully expanded flag leaf prior to the start of senescence tl_{ep} for the AA and seasonal profile of daily maxima a). Ambient O₃ treatment A_{net} , and b). g_{O_3} ; c) Elevated O₃ treatment A_{net} , and d). g_{O_3} ; c). g_{O_3} , and d). A_{net} for the flag leaf for the period between tl_{ep} and tl_{se} after anthesis (i.e. period between flowering and fully senescence leaf (maturity))for the AA treatments for the year 2008 and the Y2 cultivar. Black line showing shows the Sstart of senescence (SOs)The left (solid blue line) and right (solid red line) segment fits represent the relative chlorophyll values, with the predicted breakpoint (Start of Senescence, SOS) identified using a piecewise linear regression method and shown as a solid black dashed line. The black scatter solid dots, along with the standard error, represent the relative observed chlorophyll values.



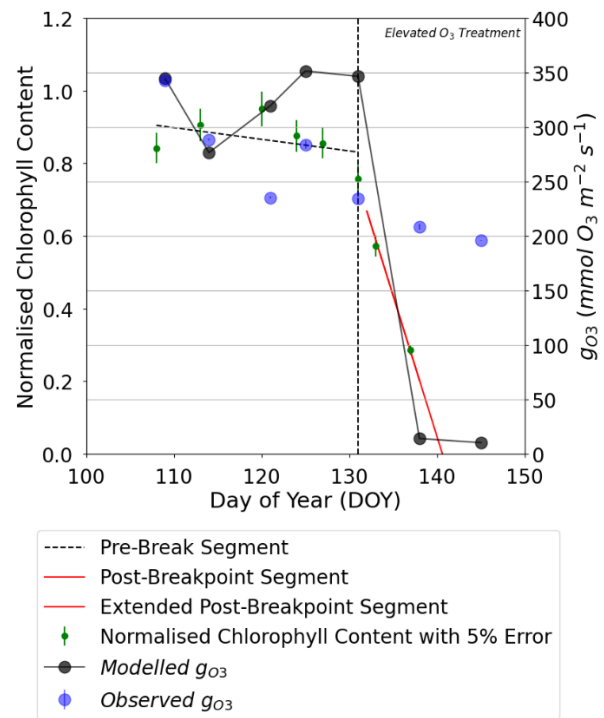
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c).



d).



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1040 ii.b) Within canopy variation in O₃ and physiology

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1043 An important determinant of O₃ deposition and damage is stomatal O₃ deposition (our $gO3_c$) which
 1044 is a function of within canopy transfer of O₃ and stomatal and non-stomatal deposition. The multi-
 1045 layer aspect of the DO₃SE-Crop model allows within canopy stomatal and non-stomatal O₃
 1046 deposition to be simulated. Fig 5 shows the variation in key variables that determine total and
 1047 stomatal O₃ canopy deposition across 4 canopy layers as a mid-day average over the course of the
 1048 tl_{ep} period of the flag leaf, for the year 2008 and the Y16 cultivar.

1049 Fig 5. Plot showing variation in key O₃ deposition terms as daily maxima by canopy layer (N.B. $i = 4$
 1050 is the top canopy layer, $n = 4$) a). O₃ concentration at the top of each layer, b). leaf boundary layer
 1051 resistance by canopy layer ($rb_{i,O3}$), c). PAR for the sunlit LAI component of each layer (PAR_{sun}) and
 1052 d). leaf level stomatal conductance to O₃ (g_{O3}) for the period from anthesis (i.e., flowering to
 1053 maturity) for the Y16 cultivar and for the E O₃ treatment in 2008.

1054 ———— Within canopy stomatal O₃ profile

1055 An important determinant of O₃ deposition and damage is stomatal O₃ deposition (or stomatal O₃
 1056 uptake) which is a function of within canopy transfer of O₃ and stomatal and non-stomatal
 1057 deposition. The multi layer aspect of the DO₃SE-Crop model allows within canopy stomatal and non-
 1058 stomatal O₃ deposition to be simulated. Figure 5 shows the variation in key variables that determine
 1059 total and stomatal O₃ canopy deposition across 4 canopy layers as a mid-day average over the
 1060 course of the tl_{ep} period of the flag leaf, for the year 2008 and the Y2 cultivar.

1061 Figure 5. Plot showing variation in key O₃ deposition terms as daily maxima by canopy layer (N.B. $i =$
 1062 14 is the top canopy layer, $n = 4$) a). $[O_3]$, b). $rb_{i,O3}$, c). PAR_{sun} , and d). g_{O3} , for the duration of the

1063 flag leaf period from anthesis (i.e., flowering to end of senescence (maturity)) for the Y2 cultivar E-O₂
 1064 treatment in 2008.

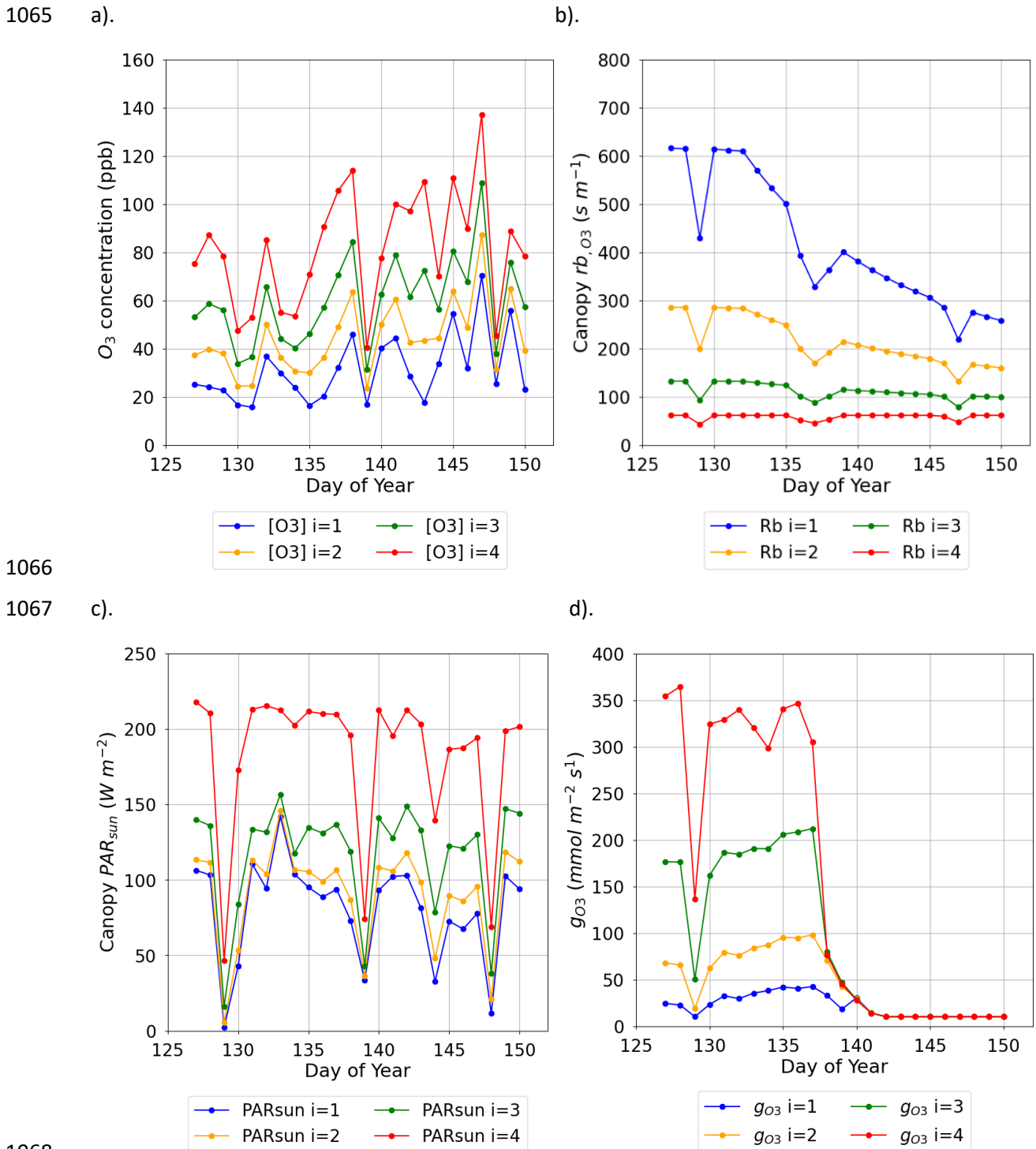


Figure 5a. shows a decrease of within canopy $[O_3]$ concentration from highs of around 140 ppb to values within the range of 10 to 50 ppb between the topmost top of the canopy and bottom canopy layer, the penetration of O_3 into the canopy increases over time as the canopy senescence and O_3 uptake is reduced. Similarly, PAR_{sun} reduces from maximum values of around $200 W m^{-2}$ at the top of the canopy to values of around $100 W m^{-2}$ in the lower canopy layers even on sunny days (see Fig.

1075 5c). The leaf rb_{O_3} (Fig. 5b) also increases with canopy depth from with resistances in the region of
1076 approximately 100 s m^{-1} ; 50 s m^{-1} at the top of the canopy to values of around 600 s m^{-1} at the
1077 bottom of the canopy, this will limit stomatal O_3 uptake in the lower canopy layers, finally and these
1078 factors combine to influence canopy level g_{O_3} (Fig. 5d) which similarly reduces from values of
1079 around 350 at the top of the canopy to $20\text{ nmol } O_3\text{ m}^{-2}\text{ s}^{-1}$ between at the bottom of the canopy
1080 layers, these differences in leaf rb_{O_3} and g_{O_3} reduce with the onset of senescence. This analysis
1081 shows the importance of interplay between these different factors for an accurate whole canopy
1082 estimate of O_3 deposition.

1083 Figure 5a. shows a decrease of within canopy $[O_3]$ from highs of around 140 ppb to values within the
1084 range of 10 to 50 ppb between the topmost top of the canopy and bottom canopy layer. Similarly,
1085 PAR_{sun} reduces from maximum values of around 200 W m^{-2} to values of around 100 W m^{-2} on sunny
1086 days (see Fig. 5c). The leaf rb_{O_3} (Fig. 5b) also increases with canopy depth from with resistances in
1087 the region of approximately 100 s m^{-1} ; 50 s m^{-1} at the top of the canopy to values of around 600 s m^{-1}
1088 at the bottom of the canopy and g_{O_3} (Fig. 5d) similarly reduces from values of around 350 to 20
1089 $\text{nmol } O_3\text{ m}^{-2}\text{ s}^{-1}$ between the top and bottom canopy layers, these differences in leaf rb_{O_3} and g_{O_3}
1090 reduce with the onset of senescence.

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1092 i) iii) Crop development, biomass growth and yield.

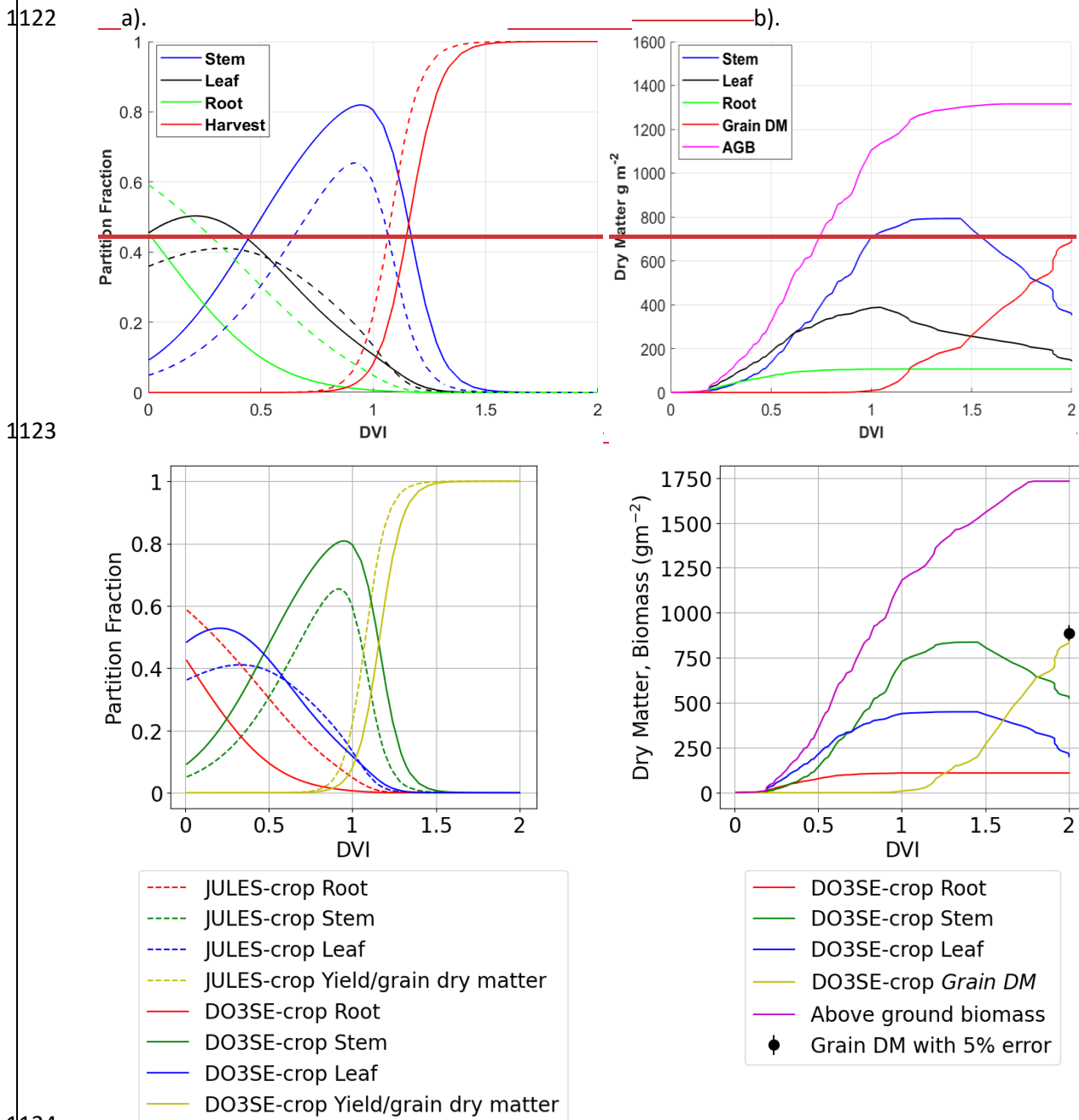
1093 The dry matter dynamics of the different parts of the crop are shown in Fig. 6. The modelled
1094 Grain DM value of 851 g m^{-2} was reasonably close to the observed value of 888 g m^{-2} . The stem to
1095 leaf dry matter ratio (R_{SL}) is 2.1:1 and therefore in the range provided in the literature (Huang et
1096 al., 2022). The above-ground biomass values of 1510 g m^{-2} also match reasonably well against the
1097 1200 to 1600 g m^{-2} range described in the literature (Huang et al., 2022; Liu et al., 2022). Further, the
1098 partition fraction profiles are consistent with those of Osborne et al. (2015) as shown in Fig. 6a) with
1099 the main differences being that the modelled stem and root partition profiles are somewhat higher
1100 and lower, respectively.

1101 The dry matter dynamics of the different parts of the crop are shown in Fig. 6. The modelled
1102 Grain DM value of 843 g m^{-2} matched the observed value of 876 g m^{-2} . The R_{SL} stem to leaf ratio is
1103 2.1:1, in the range provided in the literature (Huang et al., 2022). Above-ground biomass values of
1104 1510 g m^{-2} also match well against the 1200-1600 g m^{-2} range described in the literature (Huang et
1105 al., 2022; Liu et al., 2022). Further, the partition fraction profiles are consistent with those of
1106 (Osborne et al., 2015) (see Fig. 6 a5); the main differences are that the modelled stem and root
1107 partition profiles are somewhat higher and lower, respectively, as compared to (Osborne et al.,
1108 2015).

1109 Fig 6. Seasonal profiles (i.e., plotted against DVI) of carbon allocation variables for the Xiaoji
1110 calibrated DO_3SE -Crop model (i.e. AA O_3 treatment, year 2008 and Y16 cultivar) with a). showing the
1111 partition fractions of the daily accumulated NPP partitioned to roots, stems, leaves, and grains for
1112 the Xiaoji calibrated DO_3SE -Crop model (solid lines) vs the JULES Crop model (dashed line) calibrated
1113 for global application after Osborne et al. (2015)) and b). showing the DM (in g/m^2) of daily
1114 accumulated NPP partitioned to roots, stems, leaves, and grains with the observed final Grain DM
1115 for Y16 cultivar in 2008 also shown (solid dot).

1116 Figure 6a). the partition fractions of the daily accumulated NPP partitioned to roots, stems,
1117 leaves, and grains for the Xiaoji calibrated DO_3SE -Crop modelled (solid lines) vs the JULES-Crop
1118 model (dashed line) calibrated for global application after (Osborne et al., (2015)) plotted against

1119 DVI for AA treatment, year 2008 Y2 cultivar, and b). the DM of daily accumulated NPP partitioned
 1120 to roots, stems, leaves, and grains plotted against DVI for AA O₃ treatment, year 2008 and Y2
 1121 cultivar.



1126 ii) iv.a) instantaneous and long-term O₃ induced yield loss difference between tolerant and
 1127 sensitive cultivars: Instantaneous and long-term senescence impact.

1129 The Grain DM is assumed to be damaged by both the instantaneous impact of O₃ (Farage et al.,
 1130 1991) on photosynthesis as well as a longer-term O₃ effect that can lead to enhanced senescence
 1131 (Feng et al., 2022). To explore which of these damage mechanisms is most important we calculated
 1132 the difference in the Grain DM caused by carbon assimilation for the AA and E O₃ treatments as
 1133 compared to a simulated very low O₃ treatment representing pre-industrial conditions (for which C_z

1134 O₃ concentration did not exceed 15 ppb) for both the tolerant (Y16) and sensitive (Y2) cultivar for
 1135 each of the three years (see Table 2). We found a negligible effect of O₃ (0 to 0.2 %) on Grain DM
 1136 due to the instantaneous effect of O₃ on photosynthesis compared to a highly 9.85 to 31.13 %
 1137 impact due to the long-term O₃ effect on carbon assimilation via the enhancement of senescence on
 1138 final Grain DM.
 1139 The Yield_{grain} is assumed to be damaged by both the instantaneous impact of O₃ (Farage et al.,
 1140 1991) on photosynthesis as well as the long-term O₃ effect that can lead to enhanced senescence
 1141 (Feng et al., 2022). To explore which of these damage mechanisms is most important we calculated
 1142 the difference between the C accumulation that would be partitioned to in the the grain Yield_{grain}
 1143 caused by C assimilation for the AA and E-O₃ treatment as compared to a simulated very low [O₃]
 1144 treatment representing pre-industrial conditions for both the tolerant (Y16) and sensitive (Y2)
 1145 cultivar for each of the three years (see Table 21). We found a negligible effect of O₃ (0-0.2 %) on C
 1146 allocationsassimilation due to the instantaneous effect of O₃ on photosynthesis compared to a highly
 1147 significant (2.86-35.85 %) impact due to the long-term
 1148 O₃ effect on C assimilation via the enhancement of senescence on final Yield_{grain}.
 1149

1150 Table 2. The modelled % *Grain DM*Yield_{grain} loss compared to a pre-industrial O₃ scenario divided
 1151 between that *Grain DM*Yield_{grain} loss caused by the direct and instantaneous effect of [O₃] on
 1152 photosynthesis and that due to the long-term [O₃] impact on senescence.

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Year	Tolerant: Instantaneous O ₃ effect on % Grain DM		Tolerant: Long-term O ₃ effect on % Grain DM	
	Ambient versus pre-industrial	Elevated versus pre-industrial	Ambient versus pre-industrial	Elevated versus pre-industrial
2007	0.01	0.01	18.43	31.13
2008	0	0	13.43	29.14
2009	0.03	0.03	19.5	28.11
Year	Sensitive: Instantaneous O ₃ effect on % Grain DM		Sensitive: Long-term O ₃ effect on % Grain DM	
	Ambient versus pre-industrial	Elevated versus pre-industrial	Ambient versus pre-industrial	Elevated versus pre-industrial
2007	0	0.2	16.60	29.05
2008	0	0	9.85	24.37
2009	0.01	0.01	17.48	25.87

1154

1155 iii) iv.b) Senescence

1156 The breakpoint method (Mariën et al., 2019) was used to determine the onset (SOS) and end (EOS)
1157 of senescence and maturity respectively using the chlorophyll data which was available for the year
1158 2008, and the Y2 and Y16 cultivars. Results in Fig. 7 and Fig. S4 show that the E-O₃ treatment for
1159 cultivars Y16 and Y2 brought forwards the SOS by 3 and 5 days respectively, and EOS by 6 and 9 days
1160 respectively. Fig 7 also shows the f_{LS} profile which denotes the DO₃SE-Crop models accumulated
1161 stomatal O₃ flux effect on senescence, it is clear that f_{LS} is able to simulate the change in relative
1162 chlorophyll content reasonably well. The slope of the ambient f_{LS} is already steep since the ambient
1163 treatment already has rather high O₃ levels as is now made clear in Table 1 with a value of 47ppb.
1164 According to the M7 wheat dose-response relationship this would result in a yield loss of ~ 5%.

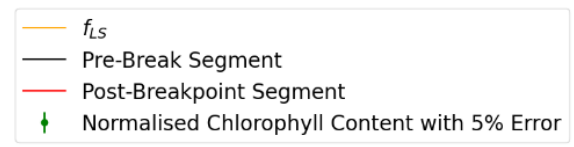
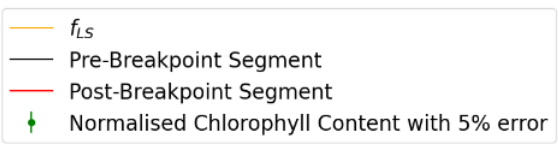
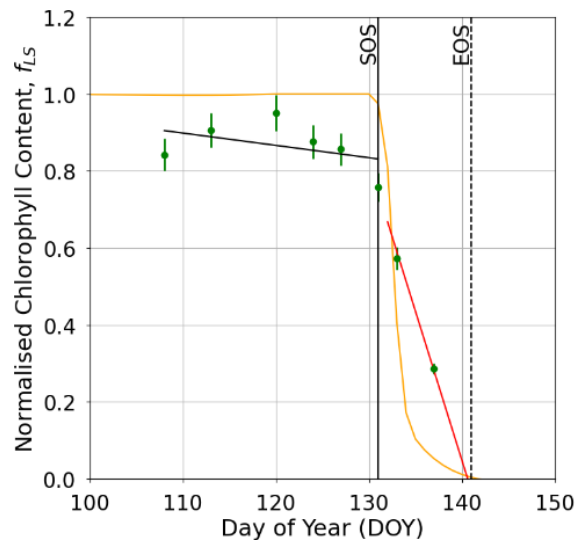
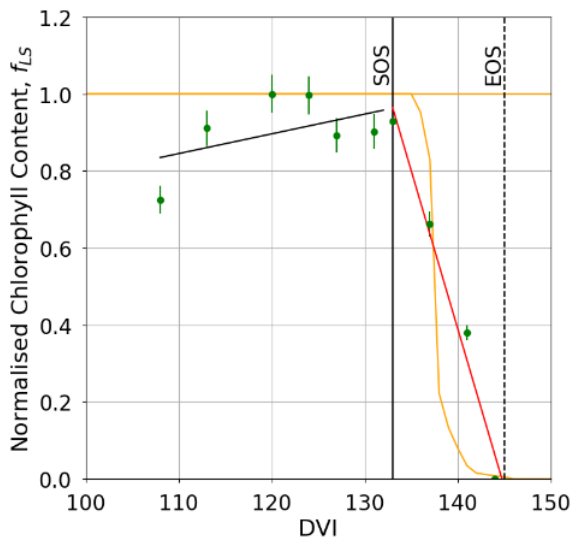
1165 i) Fig 7. Profiles of O₃ induced leaf senescence for the Y16 cultivar for the a). AA O₃ treatment
1166 and b). E O₃ treatment. The timing of the SOS (solid black line) and EOS (dashed black line) were
1167 determined by applying the break point method to the chlorophyll data and are shown in relation to
1168 the f_{LS} simulations of senescence (yellow solid line). The observed relative chlorophyll content data,
1169 shown as filled blue symbols, include error bars representing the standard deviation of the
1170 measurements.The breakpoint method (Mariën et al., 2019) was used to determine the onset (SOS)
1171 and end (EOS) of senescence and maturity respectively using the chlorophyll content index (CCI)
1172 data which was available for the year 2008, and the Y2 and Y16 cultivars. Results showed (Fig. 76)
1173 that the E-O₃ treatment for cultivars Y2 and Y16 brought forwards the SOS by 9 and 7 days
1174 respectively, and EOS by 4 and 2 days respectively.

1175 Figure 76. Leaf senescence profiles of O₃-induced leaf senescence for the Y2 cultivar for the
1176 a). ambient (AA) and b). elevated (E-O₃) O₃. The timing of the SOS (solid black line)
1177 and EOS (dashed black line) were determined by applying the break point method to the CCI
1178 chlorophyll data and are shown in relation to the f_{LS} simulations of senescence (grey solid
1179 line). The observed relative chlorophyll data, shown as filled blue symbols, include error bars
1180 representing the standard deviation of the measurements. The observed relative CCI data are also
1181 shown (open symbols)

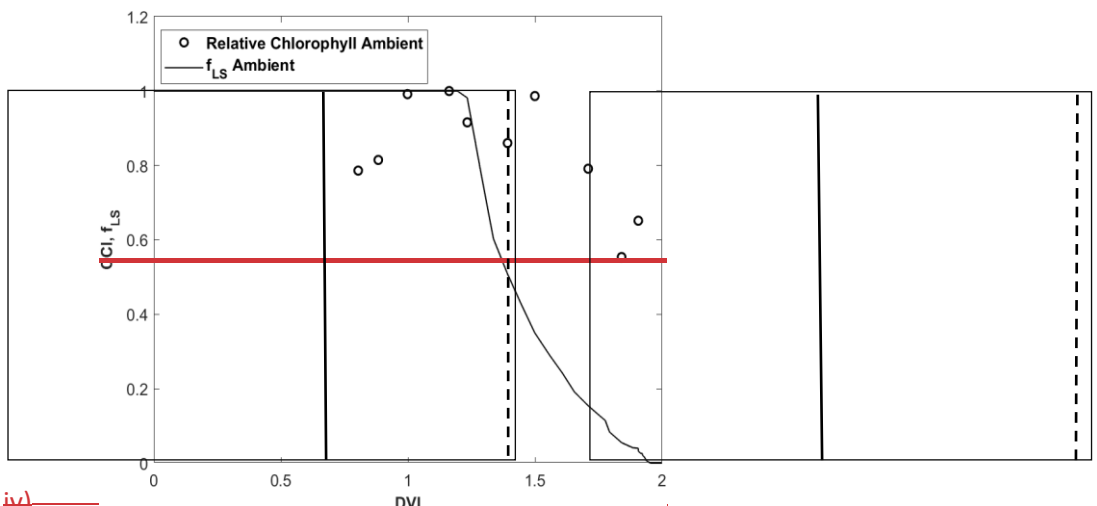
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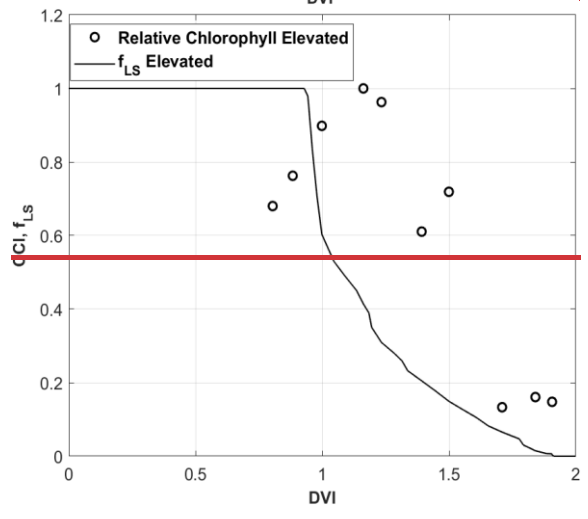
1184 a). _____ b).



1185
1186 b).



1187 iv)



1188
1189 iv.c)

iv.c) Grain yield simulations across years and between cultivars

1190

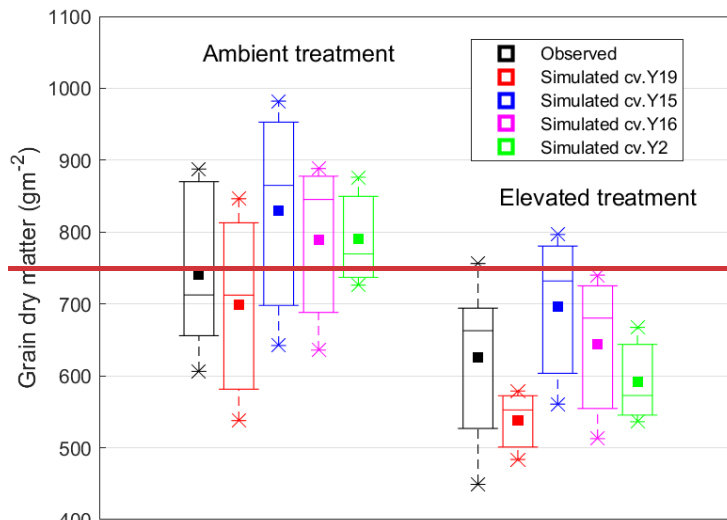
1191 Fig. 8 shows a box plot of the modelled vs observed *Grain DM* for both the sensitive (Y2, Y19) and
1192 tolerant (Y15, Y16) cultivars for each O₃ treatment (AA and E) for the years 2007, 2008 and 2009 (i.e.
1193 all data). Given the variability in the experimental data the model simulates the difference in
1194 *Grain DM* between the AA and E O₃ treatments reasonably well with a simulated reduction in
1195 *Grain DM* of 29 to 131 g m⁻² compared with observed values of 81 to 165 g m⁻² for the tolerant; and
1196 49 to 196 g m⁻² compared with observed values of 54 to 293 g m⁻² for the sensitive cultivars
1197 respectively. The most notable difference is that there is a larger range in the simulated
1198 *Grain DM* losses of the modelled sensitive cultivars though the simulated mean value for absolute
1199 *Grain DM* suggests a more conservative influence of O₃ with yields at 610 g m⁻² vs observed average
1200 yields of 590 g m⁻².

1201 Figure 87 shows a box plot of the modelled vs observed *Yield_{grain}* for both the sensitive (Y2, Y19)
1202 and tolerant (Y15, Y16) cultivars for each O₃ treatment (AA and E-O3), for the years 2007, 2008 and
1203 2009. The model simulates the difference in *Yield_{grain}* between the AA and E-O₃ reasonably well
1204 with a simulated reduction in *Yield_{grain}* of 29 and 131 g m⁻² compared with observed 81 and 165 g
1205 m⁻² for the tolerant and as 49 and 196 g m⁻² compared with observed 54 and 293 g m⁻² sensitive
1206 cultivars respectively. The most notable difference is that there is a larger range in the simulated
1207 *Yield_{grain}*:
1208 Losses of the modelled sensitive cultivar though the mean value is more conservative at 610 g m⁻² vs
1209 an observed value of 590 g m⁻².

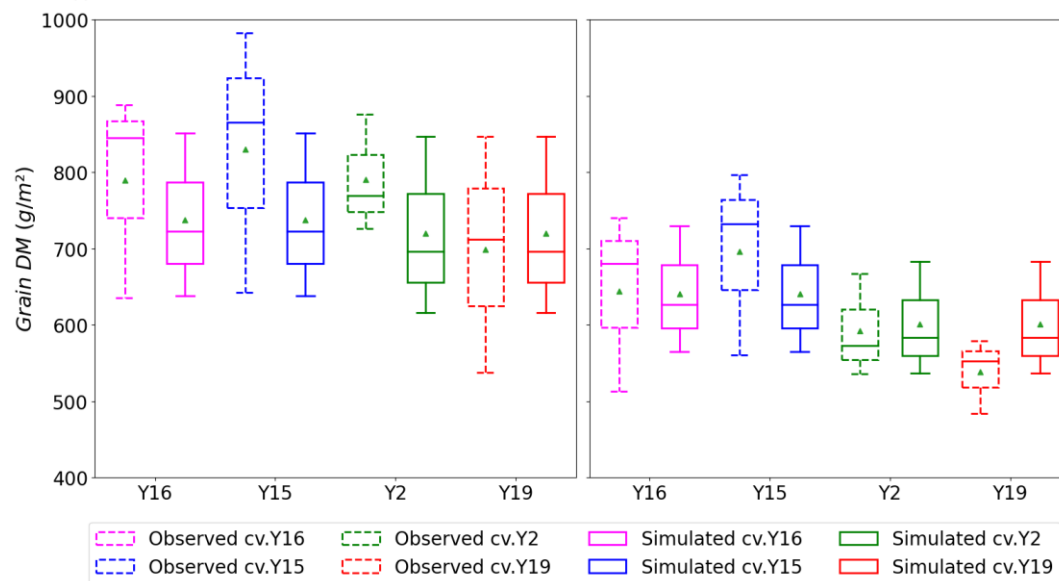
1210

1211 Fig 8. Boxplots (crosses: 0.01 and 0.99 percentiles; box: 0.25 quartile, median and 0.75 quartile;
1212 triangle: mean) of simulated and observed wheat *Grain DM* for the tolerant (Y15 and Y16) and
1213 sensitive (Y2 and Y19) cultivars under a.) AA and b.) E O₃ treatment for the years 2007, 2008 and
1214 2009; these data include all the dataset.

1215 Fig 87. Boxplots (crosses: 0.01 and 0.99 percentiles; box: 0.25 quartile, median and 0.75 quartile;
1216 square: mean) of simulated and observed wheat *Yield_{grain}* for the tolerant (Y15 and Y16) and
1217 sensitive (Y2 and Y19) cultivars under a.) AA ambient and b.) E-O₃ elevated O₃ treatment conditions
1218 infor the years 2007, 2008 and 2009.



1219



1220

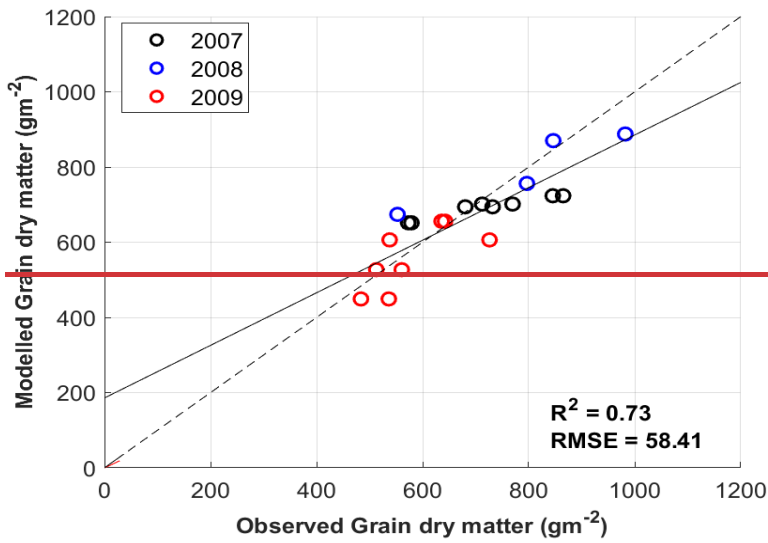
1221 Finally, Fig 9 shows the relationship between modelled vs observed *Grain DM* (in g m⁻²) as a scatter
 1222 plot, a linear regression through these data gives an R² value of 0.68 and RMSE of 76 g m⁻², showing
 1223 the model is able to simulate with reasonable accuracy the differences in absolute yield for different
 1224 cultivars and for different years. There are some instances of both underestimation and
 1225 overestimation, however the deviations from the 1:1 line is not excessively large. These model test
 1226 results compare with an R² of 0.92 and an RMSE of 25.49 g m² for the training dataset (Y2 cultivar
 1227 and year 2008, see Figure S3), the stronger agreement between observed and modelled training
 1228 dataset, as well as the reasonable agreement for the entire dataset would suggest the model is not
 1229 over-fitted. We find that we tend to underestimate the O₃-induced relative yield loss (RYL) by
 1230 between -2.76 and 15.34 (observed less modelled RYL) across all years and cultivars.

1231 Figure 98 shows the relationship between modelled vs observed *Yield_{grain}* (in g m⁻²), a linear
 1232 regression through these data gives an R² value of 0.68 and RMSE of 76 g m⁻²73, showing the model
 1233 is able to simulate the differences in absolute yield for different cultivars and for different years
 1234 reasonably well. There are some instances of both underestimation and overestimation, however
 1235 the deviations from 1:1 line isare not excessively large. This compares with an R² of 0.92 and an RMSE
 1236 of 25.49 g m² for the training dataset (Y2 cultivar and year 2008, see Figure S3), the stronger
 1237 agreement between observed and modelled training dataset, as well as the reasonable agreement
 1238 for the entire dataset would suggest the model is not over-fitted. The data points for 2007

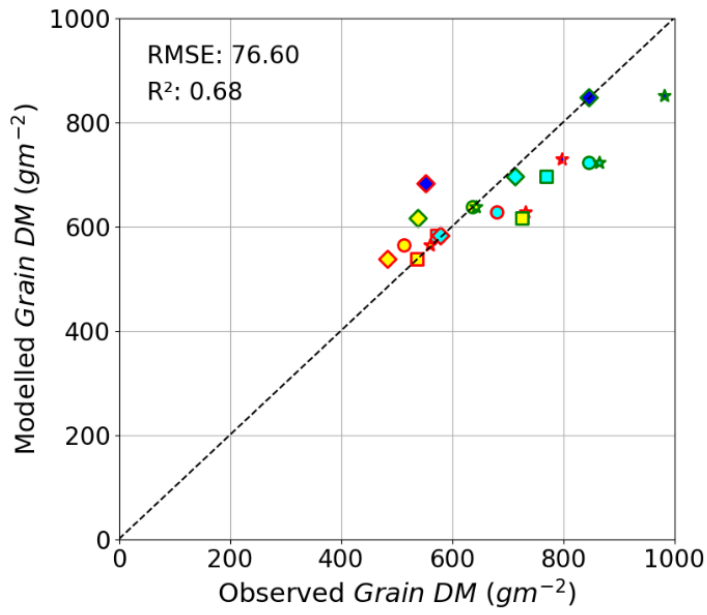
1239 overestimated the $Yield_{grain}$ for the E-O₃ treatments i.e. underestimating the yield loss, this was
1240 due to the O₃ treatment period being substantially shorter for the year 2007 compared to the other
1241 years (i.e. 2008 and 2009) by 38 days compared to 92 days.

1242 Fig. 9. A scatter plot showing modelled vs observed Grain DM (in g m⁻²) for the AA and E O₃
1243 treatments for all 4 cultivars and 3 years of the Xiaoji dataset; these data include those used for
1244 evaluation.

1245 Fig. 98 A scatter plot showing modelled vs observed $Yield_{grain}$ (in g m⁻²) for the ambient and
1246 elevated ozone treatments for all 4 cultivars and 3 years of the Xiaoji dataset; these data include
1247 that used for calibration (i.e. to train that mode; 2008 data for Y2 and Y16 cultivars) and those used
1248 for evaluation (i.e. to test that model; 2007 and 2009 data for all cultivars and 2008 data for Y15 and
1249 Y19).



1250



■ A-2007, Y2	★ E-2007, Y15	◆ A-2009, Y19
■ E-2007, Y2	◆ A-2008, Y19	◆ E-2009, Y19
◆ A-2007, Y19	◆ E-2008, Y19	● A-2009, Y16
◆ E-2007, Y19	★ A-2008, Y15	● E-2009, Y16
● A-2007, Y16	★ E-2008, Y15	★ A-2009, Y15
● E-2007, Y16	■ A-2009, Y2	★ E-2009, Y15
★ A-2007, Y15	■ E-2009, Y2	

1251

1252

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We find that we tend to underestimate the O₃-induced relative yield loss (RYL) by between 2.76 and 15.34 (observed less modelled RYL) across all years and cultivars.

1257 Discussion

1258 The DO₃SE-Crop model was found capable of simulating O₃ damage to grain yield for O₃-FACE
1259 conditions at the experimental site in Xiaoji, China with a good degree of accuracy. Simulated
1260 relative yield losses (RYLs) between AA ambient and elevated E O₃ condition treatments for all years
1261 ranged between 11 to 14% and 13 to 19% 4-19% and 7-25% for tolerant and sensitive cultivars
1262 respectively, these tend to be lower (particularly for the more extreme O₃ induced yield losses of the
1263 sensitive cultivars) than the observed values of 13 to 20% and 10 to 35%. Overall, simulations of
1264 tolerant and sensitive cultivars underestimated RYLs by 4% and 7% respectively on average across
1265 years and cultivars (see data in S6). This would suggest that O₃-induced yield losses can be more
1266 reliably modelled for tolerant cultivars, possibly because additional processes causing O₃-induced
1267 yield losses in sensitive cultivars are not captured. Such processes might include the effect of O₃ on
1268 the allocation of carbon to different plant parts (Feng et al., 2008) or O₃ inducing additional
1269 respiratory costs via the upregulation of defence mechanisms (Biswas et al., 2008). The model was
1270 also able to simulate absolute Grain DM reasonably well. Under AA O₃ levels Grain DM simulated
1271 for all years and cultivars were between 616 and 851 g/m² compared to observations of between
1272 537 and 982 g/m². There is a tendency to overestimate Grain DM under ambient conditions and
1273 underestimate Grain DM under elevated O₃ which is reflected in the RYL values.

1274 However, it should be noted that the model overestimated grain dry matter for the elevated O₃
1275 treatments for the year 2007 (see Fig. 5) due to a shorter exposure period. (Zhu et al., 2011) argued
1276 that despite the delayed and shorter O₃ fumigation period in 2007, the elevated O₃ levels were not
1277 much less than in other seasons and concluded this was the reason for the same level of O₃ impact
1278 on experimental grain yield. However, the accumulated stomatal O₃ flux estimated by the DO₃SE-
1279 model was much higher for the elevated O₃ treatment for the years 2008 and 2009 (at ~ 19 mmol O₃
1280 m⁻²) compared to 2007 (16.3 mmol O₃ m⁻²), hence the greater modelled impact on the relative grain
1281 yield loss (15-18% for 2008 and 2009 versus 4-6% for 2007).

1282 Overall, the DO₃SE-Crop model simulation results compare favourably to results made by the
1283 MCWLA-Wheat model (Tao et al., 2017) which was also calibrated for the Xiaoji experimental
1284 conditions but without distinction between tolerant and sensitive varieties. MCWLA-Wheat
1285 simulations of absolute yield varied between ~5700 and 9000 kg/ha (compared to ~5700 to 9800
1286 kg/ha) for ambient and ~4800 to 8000 kg/ha (compared to ~5200 to 8000 kg/ha) for elevated O₃
1287 treatments. A mean relative yield loss of 14% was simulated by the model.

1288 It is useful to set these site-specific estimates of O₃-induced yield losses in the context of yield losses
1289 estimated using more traditional, concentration based O₃ risk assessment methods. A seminal paper
1290 by Feng et al. (2022) estimated ~~For context~~ mean relative yield losses across East Asia due to
1291 ambient O₃ concentrations at 33% (with a mean range of 28 to 37%) according to a mean monitored
1292 O₃ concentrations of 30.9 ppm h expressed as AOT40 (six-month accumulated daytime O₃
1293 concentration above a threshold of 40 ppb). The mean difference in AOT40 (accumulated over only
1294 75 days) between the AA and E O₃ treatments at Xiaoji across all years was 7.8 ppm h giving a mean
1295 relative yield loss of approximately 10 to 20% depending on year and cultivar. As such, our modelled
1296 results in terms of RYLs between AA and E O₃ treatments are consistent with these broader results
1297 for East Asia.

1298
1299 Crop phenology plays a crucial role in determining the timing of the entire important O₃ exposure
1300 period (i.e., from ~~crop emergence-anthesis~~ to maturity), and hence O₃ damage since steady O₃

1301 accumulation (acc_{fst}) occurring from early on in the crop growth period can cause O_3 detoxification
1302 mechanisms to be overwhelmed. -Evaluation of the The- DO_3SE -crop phenology model shows the
1303 model is able to accurately simulate crop phenology for the three years at Xiaoji ($R^2 = 0.95$ and $RMSE$
1304 $= 2.5$, see Fig. 3). Estimating the correct timing of anthesis is crucial since the period from anthesis to
1305 crop maturity is the O_3 -sensitive period. During this period, accumulated stomatal O_3 flux (acc_{fst})
1306 will contribute to early and enhanced senescence once the critical threshold ($CLsO_3$) is exceeded.
1307 This period also coincides with carbon accumulation in the grain (Kohut et al., 1987; Feng et al.,
1308 2008) which may be limited by O_3 -induced early onset or enhanced senescence. The DO_3SE -crop
1309 model was developed to accommodate the full range of effects of O_3 on senescence with revised
1310 functions, similar to those first developed by Ewert and Porter (2000), able to modify both the O_3
1311 induced onset of senescence as well as the O_3 effect on maturity. This is important since
1312 experimental evidence has shown that O_3 can bring forward the maturity date; for example, the flag
1313 leaf was found to have senesced 25 days earlier in a high O_3 treatment, compared to a charcoal-
1314 filtered treatment (Grandjean and Fuhrer, 1989; Gelang et al., 2000). O_3 was also found to cause
1315 differences in the time to maturity of the flag leaf, with Shi et al. (2009) reporting that maturity was
1316 brought forward by 8 days under an elevated O_3 treatment (50% higher than ambient). Currently,
1317 other crop models with O_3 damage functions (e.g. MLCWLA-Wheat (Tao et al., 2017) and LINTULLCC-
1318 2 (Feng et al., 2022) are only able to bring the O_3 -induced onset of senescence earlier.

1319 The DO_3SE -crop model is also able to simulate differential O_3 uptake in each canopy layer. Fig. 5
1320 shows that the majority of stomatal O_3 uptake occurs in the sunlit layers of the upper canopy. Similar
1321 results were found in an experimental study on a productive grassland in Switzerland (Jaggi et al.,
1322 2006) who found that different levels of O_3 exposure to canopy components predominantly located
1323 in the upper and lower parts of the canopy support a multi-layer approach to modelling O_3 uptake.
1324 Therefore, the focus on the upper canopy by flux-based O_3 metrics (e.g. the phytotoxic ozone dose
1325 POD_y (UNECE, 2017) seems rational in the absence of multi-layer modelling. Crop models such as
1326 LINTULLCC-2 (Feng et al., 2022) also focus on estimating stomatal O_3 uptake at the top of the canopy
1327 to estimate O_3 induced yield losses. For wheat, such an approach is further supported by the fact
1328 that the upper canopy layers consist of the flag leaf, which plays a crucial role in photosynthesis and
1329 grain filling (Pleijel et al., 2007). The multi-layer functionality of the DO_3SE -Crop model may however
1330 become more useful when considering crops that partition assimilated carbon to harvest organs
1331 earlier in their growing season such as potato (Okrah et al. 2023).

1332 Our results show that the DO_3SE -crop model was able to estimate the seasonal course of leaf A_{net}
1333 and g_{O_3} daily maxima observed at the Xiaoji site (see Fig. 4a) and when compared to other literature
1334 describing leaf physiological variables (Guan et al., 2015; Li et al., 2022). This suggests the coupled
1335 $A_{net}g_{sto}$ model is working for Chinese conditions (having previously been applied and evaluated for
1336 European O_3 experimental conditions – see Pande et al., 2024). The leaf physiology parameters used
1337 in this study (i.e. for Asian conditions and cultivars) are higher than parameters for European studies.
1338 For Europe, V_{cmax} values of between 60 and 90 $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ were found in the literature (Feng
1339 et al., 2022; Pande et al., 2024, Van Oijen and Ewert, 1999) compared to the observed mean
1340 maximum value of 137 $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ at Xiaoji which was used in this study. Similarly, European
1341 J_{max} values ranged from 160 to 180 $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ (Feng et al., 2021, Pande et al. 2024, Van Oijen
1342 & Ewert, 1999) compared to the observed Xiaoji mean maximum value of 228 $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$. Even
1343 though these leaf physiology parameters are higher, absolute yields for these Chinese cultivars are
1344 consistent with those found under European conditions. This most likely reflects the importance of
1345 other environmental conditions (e.g., high vapour pressure deficits) limiting leaf carbon assimilation.
1346 Moreover, the complex interactions between O_3 exposure and the plants' physiological responses
1347 also play a crucial role. Ozone significantly affected antioxidative enzymes, thereby limiting overall

1348 [photosynthetic efficiency and yield, particularly in O₃-sensitive cultivars, despite their ability to](#)
1349 [maintain high carboxylation capacity.](#)

1350 Ensuring the seasonal variation in [carbon€](#) allocation to the different components of the crop (i.e.,
1351 roots, stem, leaves and harvest organs) is essential for the simulation of crop growth and yield.
1352 There are limited data in the literature that provide these variables, so we compare our results to
1353 the carbon allocation profiles described for wheat provided in the original JULES Crop model
1354 description, recognising this is intended for wheat grown globally. The DO₃SE-Crop model [carbon€](#)
1355 allocation to the stem and roots is comparatively higher than was simulated by JULES Crop (Osborne
1356 et al., 2015; see Fig. 6a). However, we can justify the carbon allocation coefficients used for Xiaoji
1357 since the DO₃SE-Crop model was able to distribute carbon to different plant components to produce
1358 a well-proportioned plant over the course of the growing season, this was determined by the
1359 calibration to a number of key crop variables (i.e., ratios of plant respiration, *LAI*, stem to leaf dry
1360 matter, above ground components and grain dry matter). [Importantly, the model, was found to](#)
1361 [simulate the Grain DM for the unseen years cultivars under the AA and E O₃ treatments to within](#)
1362 [8.7 to 7.9 % of the observed values \(R²=0.68, 76 g/m² see Fig. 9\). Importantly, the model, was found](#)
1363 [to simulate the grain dry matter for the year 2008 and the cultivar Y16 \(tolerant\) & Y2\(sensitive\)](#)
1364 [under the ambient and elevated O₃ treatment to within 0.08–2.19% of the observed values \(R²](#)
1365 [=0.99, 9.27 g/m² see Fig. S2\).](#)

1366 The DO₃SE-Crop model, similar to other crop models with O₃ damage functions (i.e. MLCWLA-Wheat
1367 (Tao *et al.*, 2017) and LINTULLCC-2 (Feng *et al.*, 2022)) has the capacity to simulate both the
1368 instantaneous and long-term O₃ impact on wheat grain yield. The instantaneous O₃ effect on
1369 photosynthesis may cause leaf cell damage and decrease the supply of carbohydrate precursors
1370 which can significantly decrease g_{O_3} , V_{cmax} and leaf chlorophyll content (Farage *et al.*, 1991).
1371 Elevated O₃ also leads to generation of reactive oxygen species (ROS) in plant cells which can cause
1372 oxidative damage to various cellular components. Rubisco, the enzyme responsible for carbon
1373 fixation in the photosynthetic process, can be particularly susceptible to this damage, leading to a
1374 reduced carboxylation rate (V_{cmax}). Such an O₃ effect on V_{cmax} reduces net photosynthesis and can
1375 also induce early senescence shortening the grain filling period (Triboi and Triboi-Blondel, 2002).

1376
1377 Results from the DO₃SE-crop model found a larger impact on yield due to the long-term O₃ impact
1378 causing relative yield loss of between 2 to 36% compared to only 0 to 0.2% resulting from the
1379 instantaneous O₃ impact on photosynthesis. Previous studies have also found that the long-term O₃
1380 effect has a larger impact on yield compared to the instantaneous effect of O₃ on photosynthesis
1381 (Emberson *et al.*, 2018; Brewster *et al.*, 2024). Senescence is an age-dependent process of
1382 degradation and degeneration that allows nutrients to be re-distributed to different plant organs
1383 (Lim *et al.*, 2007). Under O₃ stress, this process is often found to occur earlier and more rapidly in
1384 leaves as well as at the whole plant or crop canopy scale (Brewster *et al.*, 2024). The causes of this
1385 early and accelerated senescence are not completely understood but may be related to O₃ induced
1386 enhanced expression of many genes involved in natural senescence (Miller *et al.*, 1999). Elevated O₃
1387 was also found to inhibit sugar export from leaves (Singh Yadav *et al.*, 2020; Feng *et al.*, 2024) which
1388 could trigger early onset of leaf senescence.

1389 The DO₃SE-crop model accounts for the impact of O₃ on the Rubisco enzyme by incorporating
1390 modified (Ewert and Porter, 2000) functions for instantaneous and long-term O₃ impact on V_{cmax} as
1391 an important parameter used to characterize the crop photosynthetic capacity (Ewert and Porter,
1392 2000; Osborne *et al.*, 2019). The DO₃SE-crop model assumes that the O₃ will only accumulate on
1393 exceedance of a stomatal O₃ flux threshold of 6 nmol O₃ m⁻² s⁻¹. The long-term O₃ impact mechanism

1394 of the DO₃SE-crop model simulated the effect of senescence on V_{cmax} reasonably well as evidenced
1395 by the reduction in leaf chlorophyll content. We used the breakpoint method (Yang et al., 2016;
1396 Mariën et al., 2019) to estimate the SOS and EOS using the day of the year and measured
1397 chlorophyll content (Fig. S7). It is crucial to accurately model the timing of SOS and EOS correctly as
1398 this determines the O₃ effect on the duration of the grain filling period and hence the difference in
1399 yield loss due to different O₃ treatments. For example, we modelled a difference of 3 to 5 in SOS,
1400 and 6 to 9 days in EOS ~~8 and 3 and 4 and 1 days in SOS & EOS~~ respectively, on average across years
1401 for the sensitive and tolerant cultivar respectively.

1402 China's wheat breeding programme has seen more than 1,850 varieties used across China between
1403 the 1920s to 2014 leading to increased yields from less than 1 to more than 5 tonnes ha⁻¹ (Qin et al.,
1404 2015). Here, albeit with an extremely limited dataset, we parameterise the DO₃SE-crop model for
1405 tolerant and sensitive wheat crop cultivars, since many experimental studies have shown that the
1406 response of different cultivars to O₃ stress differs (Biswas et al., 2008). Based on the available data
1407 the model seemed able to capture the difference in grain dry matter between these different
1408 cultivar groups across different years reasonably well when compared to the observed dataset (R^2
1409 =0.68; see Fig. 8). Such a cultivar sensitivity-based parametrisation can provide additional
1410 information on the certainty of regional yield loss estimates given the large number of wheat
1411 varieties grown across China. However, when applying the model to a broader region, it would be
1412 advisable to calibrate phenology for different agro-ecological zones as the temperature changes
1413 across China, impacting the duration of the key phenological stages such as anthesis and maturity
1414 (Luo et.al., 2021). Additionally, carbon allocation parameters may need adjustment, as studies have
1415 shown changes in dry matter content across different agro-ecological zones (Hussain and Bagash,
1416 2017).

1417 **Conclusions**

1418 We have shown that the newly developed DO₃SE-Crop model can be calibrated for O₃ tolerant and
1419 sensitive wheat varieties for O₃-FACE site conditions at Xioaji in China. The model can simulate crop
1420 phenology, leaf physiology, crop growth and yield reasonably well across different years. The model
1421 is also able to simulate the effect of O₃ stress on grain yield distinguishing the extent of O₃ damage
1422 resulting from the same O₃ treatment on cultivars with differing O₃ sensitivities. The DO₃SE-Crop
1423 model also has the advantage of simulating O₃ transfer and deposition dynamics within the wheat
1424 crop canopy which could in the future improve our understanding of whole canopy O₃ effects for
1425 crops with different carbon allocation profiles. The ability of the model to estimate relative yield
1426 losses across years also suggests the model is 'fit for purpose' to assess the effects of O₃ under a
1427 variety of climate variable and {O₃} concentration conditions.

1428 Appendix A

1429 A1. DO₃SE-Crop variables

Variable	Unit	Description
T_{eff}	°C days	Effective temperature accumulated between sowing to maturity
DVI	-	Development index
T_{air}	°C	Surface air temperature in degrees Celsius
$T_{air,k}$	degrees Kelvin	Surface air temperature in Kelvin
T_{min}	°C	Daily minimum surface air temperature
T_{max}	°C	Daily maximum surface air temperature
LTT	°C d	Thermal time accumulated by a leaf
V_{dd}	days	Accumulated vernalised days
V	days	Vernalised days
V_d	days	Devernalised days
VF	-	Vernalisation factor
PP	hrs	Photoperiod
PF	-	Photoperiod factor
A_{net}	$\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$	Net photosynthesis or rate of CO ₂ assimilation
A_c	$\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$	RuBP (ribulose-1,5-bisphosphate) limited A_{net}
A_j	$\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$	Electron transport limited A_{net}
A_p	$\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$	TPU (triose phosphate) limited A_{net}
R_d	$\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$	Dark respiration
f_{PAW}	-	Fraction of plant available water
PAW_t	-	Threshold of PAW, above which g_{sto} is at a maximum as described f_{PAW} function
PAW	m^3/m^3	Plant available water
C_i	$\mu\text{mol}/\text{mol}$	Intercellular CO ₂ partial pressure
O_i	mmol/mol	Intercellular O ₂ concentrations
Γ^*	$\mu\text{mol}/\text{mol}$	CO ₂ compensation point in the absence of respiration
Γ	$\mu\text{mol}/\text{mol}$	CO ₂ compensation point
J	$\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$	electron transport rate
VPD	kPa	Leaf to air vapour pressure deficit
C_z	ppb	O ₃ concentration at reference height z
C_h	nmol/m^3	O ₃ concentration at the crop canopy height
C_{zh}	nmol/m^3	O ₃ concentration at the top of the crop canopy height
C_{zb}	nmol/m^3	O ₃ concentration at the bottom of the crop canopy height
f_{st}	$\text{nmol O}_3 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$	Leaf level stomatal O ₃ flux
$accf_{st}$	$\text{mmol O}_3 \text{ m}^{-2}$	Accumulated stomatal O ₃ flux
C_l	$\text{nmol O}_3 \text{ m}^{-3}$	O ₃ at the upper surface of the laminar layer of a leaf

$f_{O_3,s}(d)$	-	Effect of daily cumulative stomatal O_3 flux on $V_{c_{max}}$
$f_{O_3,s}(h)$	-	Effect of hourly cumulative stomatal O_3 flux on $V_{c_{max}}$
$f_{O_3,s}(d - 1)$	-	Previous days effect of cumulative stomatal O_3 flux on $V_{c_{max}}$
$r_{O_3,s}$	-	Incomplete overnight recovery of O_3 affected $V_{c_{max}}$
f_{LA}	-	Leaf age related capacity to recover from accumulated stomatal O_3 flux
f_{O_3}	-	Weighted accumulated stomatal O_3 flux that determines the onset of leaf senescence
f_{LS}	-	Accumulated stomatal O_3 flux effect on leaf senescence
tl	°C days	Effective temperature accumulated by a leaf after emergence ($DVI = 0$)
tl_{ep}	-	Effective temperature accumulated by a leaf between full expansion and the onset of leaf senescence
tl_{epO_3}	-	Effective temperature accumulated by a leaf between full expansion and the onset of leaf senescence brought forward by O_3
tl_{se}	-	Effective temperature accumulated by a leaf between the onset of leaf senescence and maturity
tl_{seO_3}	-	Effective temperature accumulated by a leaf between the onset of leaf senescence and maturity brought forward by O_3
g_{CO_2}	$\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ PLA m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$	Stomatal conductance to CO_2
f_{VPD}	-	Relationship between VPD and relative stomatal conductance
c_s	$\text{mol CO}_2/\text{mol}$	External CO_2 concentration at the leaf surface
c_a	$\text{mmol CO}_2/\text{mol}$	external CO_2 concentration at the upper surface of the leaf boundary layer
g_{bCO_2}	$\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$	Quasi laminar boundary layer conductance to CO_2
C_z	$\text{nmol O}_3 \text{ m}^{-3}$	O_3 concentration at reference height (z)
C_l	$\text{nmol O}_3 \text{ m}^{-3}$	O_3 concentration at the upper surface of the laminar layer of a leaf
g_{O_3}	$\text{mmol O}_3 \text{ PLA m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$	Stomatal conductance to O_3
$g_{O_3m/s}$	m/s	Stomatal conductance to O_3
g_{ext}	m/s	External conductance
r_c	s/m	Leaf surface resistance to O_3
r_{b,O_3}	s/m	Quasi laminar leaf boundary layer resistance to O_3
r_a	s/m	Atmospheric resistance to O_3
r_{inc}	s/m	In-canopy resistance to O_3
r_{ext}	s/m	External plant cuticle resistance to O_3
r_{sto}	s/m	Stomatal resistance to O_3
u_z	m/s	Wind speed at a reference height z
u_l	m/s	Wind speed at the upper surface of the laminar layer of a leaf
L	m	Cross wind leaf dimension
LAI	$\text{m}^2 \text{ m}^{-2}$	Leaf Area Index
$PAR_{dir,i}$	W/m^2	Direct PAR in canopy layer i
$PAR_{diff,i}$	W/m^2	Diffuse PAR in canopy layer i
PAR_{total}	W/m^2	Direct and diffuse PAR at the top of the canopy

NPP	kg C m ⁻²	Net primary productivity
GPP	kg C m ⁻²	Gross primary productivity
R_p	kg C m ⁻²	Plant respiration
R_{pm}	kg C m ⁻²	Plant maintenance respiration
R_{pg}	kg C m ⁻²	Plant growth respiration
A_{netc}	kg C m ⁻²	Canopy net photosynthesis
R_{dc}	kg C m ⁻²	Non-water stressed canopy dark respiration
$f_{sw}R_{dc}$	kg C m ⁻²	Water stressed modified canopy dark respiration
C_{root}	kg C m ⁻²	Root C pool
C_{leaf}	kg C m ⁻²	Leaf C pool
C_{stem}	kg C m ⁻²	Stem C pool
C_{resv}	kg C m ⁻²	Reserve C pool
C_{harv}	kg C m ⁻²	Harvest pool
P_{root}	-	Root C pool partition coefficient
P_{leaf}	-	Leaf C pool partition coefficient
P_{stem}	-	Stem C pool partition coefficient
P_{resv}	-	Reserve C pool partition coefficient
P_{harv}	-	Harvest C pool partition coefficient
$C_{leaf,green}$	kg C m ⁻²	Green leaf C
$C_{leaf,brown}$	kg C m ⁻²	Brown leaf C
SLA	m ² kg ⁻¹	Specific Leaf Area
h	m	Crop height
$Yield_{grain}$	g C m ⁻²	Grain yield
k_p'	-	Beam and scattered beam PAR extinction coefficient
k_d'	-	Diffuse and scattered diffuse PAR extinction coefficient
ρ_{cb}	-	Canopy reflection coefficient for beam PAR
ρ_{cd}	-	Canopy reflection coefficient for diffuse PAR
β	Radians	Solar elevation angle
δ	Radians	Solar declination angle
$PAR_{dir} (LAI)$	$\mu mol m^{-2} s^{-1}$	Absorbed beam plus scattered beam PAR per unit leaf area
$PAR_{diff} (LAI)$	$\mu mol m^{-2} s^{-1}$	Absorbed diffuse plus scattered diffuse PAR per unit leaf area
$PAR (LAI)$	$\mu mol m^{-2} s^{-1}$	Total absorbed PAR per unit leaf area
$I_b (LAI)$	$\mu mol m^{-2} s^{-1}$	Direct PAR per unit ground area
$I_d (LAI)$	$\mu mol m^{-2} s^{-1}$	Diffuse PAR per unit ground area
$I_d (0)$	$\mu mol m^{-2} s^{-1}$	Diffuse PAR per unit ground area at the top of the canopy
$I_b (0)$	$\mu mol m^{-2} s^{-1}$	Beam PAR per unit ground area at the top of the canopy
$I_{bs} (LAI)$	$\mu mol m^{-2} s^{-1}$	Absorbed scattered beam PAR per unit leaf area
$PAR_{psun} (LAI)$	$\mu mol m^{-2} s^{-1}$	Beam PAR absorbed by sunlit leaves per unit leaf area

PAR_{sh} (LAI)	$\mu mol m^{-2} s^{-1}$	Beam PAR absorbed byshaded leaves per unit leaf area
PAR_{sun} (LAI)	$\mu mol m^{-2} s^{-1}$	Total PAR absorbed by sunlit leaves per unit leaf area
PAR_{total}	$\mu mol m^{-2} s^{-1}$	Total absorbed irradiance per unit leaf area
LAI	$m^2 m^{-2}$	Cumulative leaf area index from top of canopy (L=0 at top)
$f_{1,2}$ (LAI)	-	Fraction of leaf area in a leaf-angle class
LAI _{sh}	-	Fraction of leaves that are shaded
LAI _{sun}	-	Fraction of leaves that are sunlit
σ	-	Leaf scattering coefficient for PAR
α_1	Radians	Angle of beam irradiance to the leaf normal
$\sin\beta$	-	Solar elevation angle
k_b'	-	Beam and scattered beam PAR extinction coefficient
k_d'	-	Diffuse and scattered diffuse PAR extinction coefficient
σ	-	Leaf scattering coefficient for PAR
α_1	Radians	Angle of beam irradiance to the leaf normal

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1431 A2. DO₃SE-Crop parameters for wheat. Highlighted are the parameters (and their associated ranges) which require calibration when applying DO₃SE-Crop
 1432 to varying environmental conditions.

Parameter	Unit	Default Value	Description	Reference	Range	Calibrated Parameter Value
T_b	°C	0	Base temperature	(Tao, Zhang and Zhang, 2012; Osborne <i>et al.</i> , 2015)	-0.5-1	-0.25
T_o	°C	20	Optimum temperature	(Tao, Zhang and Zhang, 2012; Osborne <i>et al.</i> , 2015)	15-25	17.79
T_m	°C	30	Maximum temperature	(Tao, Zhang and Zhang, 2012; Osborne <i>et al.</i> , 2015)	25-40	23.87
TT_{emr}	°C d	100	Thermal time between sowing and emergence	(Lu <i>et al.</i> , 2018; Luo <i>et al.</i> , 2020)	50-100	220.6
TT_{veg}	°C d	940	Thermal time between emergence and anthesis	Xiaoji experimental dataset	400-940	940
TT_{rep}	°C d	304	Thermal time between anthesis and maturity	(Wang <i>et al.</i> , 2013a); Xiaoji experimental dataset	300-650	304
TT_{leaf}	°C d	1000	Total canopy-leaf life span of the crop, covers period from emergence to maturity, distributed over the DVI between 0 and 2	(Lu <i>et al.</i> , 2018; Luo <i>et al.</i> , 2020)	700-1200	795

T_l	°C d	1400	Total lifespan of the crop, covers the full period from sowing to maturity, corresponding to DVI between -1 to 2	(Ewert and Porter, 2000; Lu <i>et al.</i> , 2018; Luo <i>et al.</i> , 2020)	1300-1500	Year 2007- 1325, Year 2008- 1400, Year 2009- 1478.
PIV		1.5	Vernalisation coefficient	(Tao, Zhang and Zhang, 2012; Wang <i>et al.</i> , 2013)	2.9-4	2.9
PID		40	Photoperiod coefficient	(Wang <i>et al.</i> , 2013; Liu <i>et al.</i> , 2016; Zhao <i>et al.</i> , 2020)	40-57	40
VT_{max}	°C	30	Maximum daily temperature for vernalisation	Zheng <i>et al.</i> , 2015		
VT_{min}	°C	15	Minimum daily temperature for vernalisation	Zheng <i>et al.</i> , 2015		
PAW_t	m ³ /m ³	50	Plant available soil water below which stomatal conductance will start to reduce	LRTAP, 2017		
V_{cmax}	μmol CO ₂ m ⁻² s ⁻¹	90	Maximum carboxylation capacity at 25°C	(Büker <i>et al.</i> , 2012)	90-140	137
J_{max}	μmol CO ₂ m ⁻² s ⁻¹	180	Maximum rate of electron transport at 25°C	(Büker <i>et al.</i> , 2012)	180-250	228
K_c	μmol/mol	404.9	Rubisco Michaelis-Menten constants for CO ₂	(Medlyn <i>et al.</i> , 2002)		
K_0	mmol/mol	278.4	Rubisco Michaelis-Menten constants for O ₂	(Medlyn <i>et al.</i> , 2002)		
Γ^*	μmol/mol	42.75	CO ₂ compensation point in the absence of respiration	(Medlyn <i>et al.</i> , 2002)		
a	-	4	Electron requirement for the formation of NADPH	(Sharkey <i>et al.</i> , 2007)		
b	-	8	Electron requirement for the formation of ATP	(Sharkey <i>et al.</i> , 2007)		
R_{dcoeff}	-	0.015	Leaf dark respiration coefficient	(Clark <i>et al.</i> , 2011)	0.010-0.03	0.01
f_{min}	μmol CO ₂ /m ² /s	1000	Minimum daytime stomatal conductance to CO ₂	(Ewert and Porter, 2000)		
m	-	7	composite sensitivity slope constant	(Büker <i>et al.</i> , 2012)	4-15	5
VPD_0	kPa	2.2	stomatal conductance sensitivity to VPD	UNECE, 2017; Pande <i>et al.</i> 2024		
γ_1	-	0.027	O ₃ short-term damage co-efficient	(Ewert and Porter, 2000)		
γ_2	(nmol O ₃ m ⁻² s ⁻¹) ⁻¹	0.0045	O ₃ short-term damage co-efficient	(Ewert and Porter, 2000)		
γ_3	(μmol O ₃ m ⁻²) ⁻¹	0.00005	O ₃ long-term damage co-efficient	(Ewert and Porter, 2000)	0.00001-0.00009	Tolerant=0.00001 Sensitive=0.00002

γ_4	-	5	O ₃ long-term damage co-efficient determining onset of senescence		5-15	Tolerant=5 Sensitive=15
γ_5	-	0.8	O ₃ long-term damage co-efficient determining maturity		0.5-5	Tolerant=0.8 Sensitive=5
$CLsO_3$	mmol O ₃ m ⁻²	6.5-20.6,20.5	Critical accumulated stomatal O ₃ flux that determines the onset of leaf senescence	(Osborne <i>et al.</i> , 2019; Feng <i>et al.</i> , 2022)	3-21	4.2
r_{ext}	m/s	2500	External leaf cuticular resistance to O ₃ uptake	UNECE, 2017		
L	m	0.02	Cross wind leaf dimension for wheat	UNECE, 2017		
P_{st}	Pa	1.013 x 10 ⁵	Standard air pressure at 20°C	UNECE, 2017		
T_{st}	°C	20	Standard temperature	UNECE, 2017		
R	J/mol/K	8.31447	Universal gas constant	UNECE, 2017		
n_e	mol CO ₂ m ⁻² s ⁻¹ kg C (kg N) ⁻¹	0.0008	Constant relating leaf nitrogen to rubisco carboxylation capacity	(Clark <i>et al.</i> , 2011)		
n_0	kg N [kg C] ⁻¹	0.073	Top canopy leaf N concentration	(Clark <i>et al.</i> , 2011)		
kN		0.78	Nitrogen profile co-efficient	(Clark <i>et al.</i> , 2011)		
R_{gcoeff}	-	0.25	Plant growth respiration coefficient	(Osborne <i>et al.</i> , 2015)	0.15-0.25	0.16
α_{root}	-	18.5	Coefficient for determining partitioning	(Osborne <i>et al.</i> , 2015)	16-19	18.4
α_{stem}	-	16.0	Coefficient for determining partitioning	(Osborne <i>et al.</i> , 2015)	16-17	16.8
α_{leaf}	-	18.0	Coefficient for determining partitioning	(Osborne <i>et al.</i> , 2015)	18-19	18.5
β_{root}	--	-20.0	Coefficient for determining partitioning	(Osborne <i>et al.</i> , 2015)	20-21	-20.9
β_{stem}	-	-15.0	Coefficient for determining partitioning	(Osborne <i>et al.</i> , 2015)	14-16	-14.5
β_{leaf}	-	-18.5	Coefficient for determining partitioning	(Osborne <i>et al.</i> , 2015)	18-19	-18.11
f_c	-	0.5	Carbon fraction of dry matter	(Osborne <i>et al.</i> , 2015)		
Υ	m ⁻² kg ⁻¹	27.3	Coefficient for determining specific leaf area	(Osborne <i>et al.</i> , 2015)	13-28	13.5
δ	-	-0.0507	Coefficient for determining specific leaf area	(Osborne <i>et al.</i> , 2015)		
k	-	1.4	allometric coefficient which relates C_{stem} to h	(Osborne <i>et al.</i> , 2015)		
τ	-	0.4	allometric coefficient which relates C_{stem} to h	(Osborne <i>et al.</i> , 2015)	0.3-0.6	0.4

D_w	-	1/0.84	Conversion factor to allow for grain moisture content	(Mulvaney and Devkota, 2020)		
E_g	-	0.85	Conversion factor for grain to ear ratio	(Nagarajan <i>et al.</i> , 1999; Kutman, Yildiz and Cakmak, 2011)	0.7-0.85	0.85
R_{SL}	-	2:1	Stem dry matter to leaf dry matter ratio	(Huang et al., 2022)		
k_b'	-	$0.46/\sin\beta$	Beam and scattered beam PAR extinction coefficient	(Pury and Farquhar,1997)		
k_d'	-	0.8	Diffuse and scattered diffuse PAR extinction coefficient	(Pury and Farquhar,1997)		
σ	-	0.15	Leaf scattering coefficient for PAR	(Pury and Farquhar,1997)		
α_1	Radians	0.5	Angle of beam irradiance to the leaf normal	(Pury and Farquhar,1997)		

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