



29 **1. Introduction**

30 The intensification of climate change and increasing pressure on freshwater
31 resources have led to more frequent and severe drought events worldwide (Boretti &
32 Rosa, 2019; Lesk et al., 2016; Vicente-Serrano et al., 2022). Water availability is a
33 key factor regulating crop growth and productivity, as sufficient water promotes
34 biomass accumulation and yield, whereas water deficit can cause substantial
35 reductions (Zlatev & Lidon, 2012). Beyond its direct effects on crop growth, water
36 stress fundamentally alters the allocation of assimilated carbon among plant organs,
37 thereby influencing both plant development and soil carbon inputs.

38 Maize (*Zea mays L.*) and wheat (*Triticum spp.*), as major global staple crops, are
39 highly sensitive to water availability (Hu et al., 2024; Yan et al., 2025). Under
40 drought conditions, crops dynamically adjust carbon allocation to optimize resource
41 acquisition. Moderate water deficit may promote root growth and enhance water use
42 efficiency by increasing carbon allocation belowground (Chen et al., 2019; Oktem,
43 2008), whereas severe drought suppresses carbon assimilation and reduces both
44 aboveground and belowground biomass, ultimately limiting yield formation (Khatun
45 et al., 2021; Li et al., 2021). In wheat, drought responses are stage-dependent, with
46 increased root allocation under mild stress but inhibited root development under
47 severe water deficit (Wang et al., 2024; Xue et al., 2003). In contrast, excessive water
48 conditions such as waterlogging can impair root function and disrupt carbon
49 allocation patterns (Manghwar et al., 2024). Although recent studies have quantified
50 relationships between water availability and biomass allocation (Xu et al., 2025),
51 incorporating these dynamic responses into crop models remains a major challenge.

52 Photosynthate partitioning is a key process linking carbon assimilation to
53 vegetation growth in terrestrial ecosystem models, yet it is typically represented using
54 empirical, fixed, or stage-based partitioning schemes (Hijmans et al., 1994; Wolf et al.,
55 2003). In the Agricultural Production Systems sIMulator (APSIM), assimilate
56 partitioning among organs is regulated by developmental stage, with carbon allocated
57 to leaves during early growth and progressively shifted to stems, reproductive organs,



58 and grains (Keating et al., 2003). The Carnegie–Ames–Stanford Approach model
59 (CASA) (Field et al., 1995) and the Denitrification-Decomposition (DNDC) model
60 (Li et al., 2011), biomass partitioning is largely based on fixed parameters, with the
61 root to shoot ratio (RSR) varying only by vegetation type. In reality, assimilate
62 partitioning is a highly flexible process that responds to changing resource availability,
63 particularly soil moisture conditions, and plays a critical role in regulating both plant
64 growth and soil carbon input. Therefore, developing a mechanistic representation of
65 photosynthate allocation that explicitly accounts for environmental controls is
66 essential for improving model accuracy and physiological realism (Hu et al., 2023).

67 Moreover, the impacts of water deficit on crops involve multiple aspects of plant
68 growth and development, and it remains challenging to quantitatively and precisely
69 describe water stress in crop models. Most crop models use a water stress coefficient
70 (K_s) based on supply–demand balance to adjust assimilate allocation and estimate
71 biomass under stress (Saseendran et al., 2014). For instance, in the APSIM (McCown
72 et al., 1996), CropSyst (Stöckle et al., 1994), and Decision Support System for
73 Agrotechnology Transfer (DSSAT) (Jones et al., 2003), the water stress coefficient is
74 defined as $K_s = 1 - AT / PT$, where AT is the actual daily water uptake and PT is the
75 potential transpiration. When soil water supply is insufficient to meet the crop's
76 transpiration or evapotranspiration demand, the plant experiences water stress.

77 However, in reality, crop water supply primarily depends on root water uptake
78 from the soil (Stedde, 2000). Water transport within the plant is driven by the water
79 potential gradient along the soil–plant–atmosphere continuum, which sustains plant
80 water status and transpiration. Root water uptake is governed not only by the water
81 potential gradient between soil and roots, but also by root hydraulic conductivity.
82 Thus, plant water uptake capacity is jointly determined by these above two factors
83 (Wang et al., 2005; Wang et al., 2013; Yang et al., 2023). In addition, root system
84 architecture, root length density, and the spatial distribution of soil moisture further
85 influence the efficiency of water acquisition, thereby regulating plant water status and
86 its response to water stress (Javaux et al., 2008). Hence, incorporating root water



87 uptake processes provides a more physiologically meaningful basis for representing
88 water stress in crop models.

89 Therefore, to address current limitations in modeling crop responses to varying
90 water availability, this study optimizes the Agro-C model—a biogeophysical
91 framework for simulating crop growth and SOC dynamics (Huang et al., 2009; Yu et
92 al., 2012; Wang et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2017). Specifically, we replace its
93 conventional stage-dependent partitioning strategy with a newly developed,
94 moisture-driven dynamic allocation scheme. Focusing on maize and wheat as
95 representative C4 and C3 crops, we aim to: (1) quantify the non-linear responses of
96 leaf and root partitioning coefficients (PL and PR) to soil water availability while
97 incorporating a drought-induced leaf senescence module (YGR) to represent declines
98 in photosynthetic capacity; (2) improve the water module of the Agro-C model by
99 integrating root water uptake characteristics, allowing water stress to be represented
100 based on crop physiological responses; and (3) validate the model's performance in
101 capturing carbon trade-offs under extreme water regimes.

102 **2. Methods and materials**

103 2.1 Data Sources

104 Up on the datasets used for the meta-analysis by Xu et al. (2025), we further
105 screened studies for model calibration and validation by the following criteria: (i) the
106 study must report belowground biomass (BGB) or aboveground biomass (AGB) for
107 one or more crop growth stages; (ii) the study must provide irrigation amounts or soil
108 moisture conditions throughout the crop growth period; (iii) the study must report
109 fertilizer inputs during the cropping period; and (iv) background and ancillary
110 information such as geographic coordinates, altitude, planting area, planting density,
111 soil type, and bulk density must be described. Meteorological data for the crop
112 growing period were obtained from *ERA5* (<https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/>).

113 Totally we collected 608 observations of AGB and BGB (315 for maize and 293
114 for wheat) from 21 published studies, including 198 at maturity and 411 at earlier



115 developmental stages. In 12 studies (maize: 214, wheat: 164), AGB and BGB were
116 recorded at multiple key growth stages, and these data were used for model
117 calibration. In contrast, 9 studies (maize: 101, wheat: 129) reported AGB and BGB
118 only at maturity or vegetative stages, and these data were used for model validation.
119 The geographic distribution of the dataset is shown in Fig. S1.

120 2.2 Simulations of the crop growth responses to and the budgets of soil water
121 conditions in Agro-C model

122 In Agro-C model, Huang et al. (2009) simulated soil water content based on the
123 principle of soil water balance, using precipitation and actual evapotranspiration at the
124 canopy level. The effects of soil water on photosynthesis were represented as follows:

$$125 \quad F_{w(i)} = \begin{cases} 0 & W_{(i)} \leq W_p \\ \frac{W_{(i)} - W_p}{W_l - W_p} & W_p < W_{(i)} < W_l \\ 1 & W_l < W_{(i)} \leq W_u \\ 0.5 \times \left(1 + \frac{W_{(i)} - 1}{W_u - 1}\right) & W_{(i)} \geq W_u \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

126 where W_p represents the soil water content at the wilting point ($\text{cm}^3 \cdot \text{cm}^{-3}$), while W_l
127 and W_u denote the lower and upper limits of optimal soil water content ($\text{cm}^3 \cdot \text{cm}^{-3}$),
128 respectively. $W_{(i)}$ is the daily mean soil water content in the 0–40 cm layer ($\text{cm}^3 \cdot \text{cm}^{-3}$).
129 The daily soil moisture $W_{(i)}$ is calculated by balancing precipitation and actual
130 evapotranspiration, as expressed in the following equation:

$$131 \quad W_{(i)} = W_{(i)-1} + \frac{PRE_i - EA_i}{h} \quad (2)$$

132 PRE_i and EA_i represent daily precipitation (mm) and evapotranspiration (mm),
133 respectively, while h denotes soil depth (mm). We assumed that precipitation is
134 retained within the 0–40 cm soil layer, neglecting runoff and vertical percolation.
135 Evapotranspiration was determined jointly by the leaf area index (LAI) and potential
136 evapotranspiration (ET_0) (Ritchie, 1998). ET_0 was calculated using the
137 Priestley–Taylor equation (Priestley and Taylor, 1972).

138 In simulating vegetation photosynthesis, the Agro-C model does not account for



139 water stress. Instead, the model determines whether irrigation is required by
140 calculating the difference between soil water content (SWC) and the thresholds
141 defined by the wilting point (W_p) and field capacity (FC).

$$142 \quad W_{diff} = W_{(i)} - ((W_{FC} - W_p) \times 0.5 + W_p) \quad (3)$$

143 where W_{FC} represents the field capacity ($\text{cm}^3 \cdot \text{cm}^{-3}$). When $W_{diff} < 0$, the crop is
144 considered to require irrigation. The irrigation method is defined as follows:

$$145 \quad W_{(i)} = \frac{(W_{(i)} + 100)}{h} \quad (4)$$

146 2.3 Modelling adjustments of the water dynamics and the responsive crop assimilates
147 partitioning

148 In the optimized Agro-C model, crop water stress was determined by calculating
149 the difference ($\Delta W_{(i)}$, mm) between the daily crop water requirement (ET_c , mm) and
150 the actual daily water uptake ($W_{u,(i)}$, mm).

$$151 \quad \Delta W_{(i)} = ET_{c,(i)} - W_{u,(i)} \quad (5)$$

152 When $\Delta W_{(i)} > 0$, drought stress exists; when $\Delta W_{(i)} < 0$, the crops require sufficient
153 water.

154 ET_c is calculated based on crop evapotranspiration and crop coefficient (K_c):

$$155 \quad ET_c = K_c \times ET_0 \quad (6)$$

156 The K_c values at different growth stages were derived from *FAO-56* (Allen et al.,
157 2005).

158 Roots are the primary organs for water and nutrient acquisition. The root water
159 uptake rate per unit volume of soil $W_{u,(i)}$ ($\text{m}^3 \cdot \text{m}^{-3} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$) is driven by the water potential
160 gradient between the soil and the root xylem, and regulated by the root hydraulic
161 conductivity of that layer ($C_{r,(i)}$, $\text{s}^{-1} \cdot \text{MPa}^{-1}$) (Hafner et al., 2020).

$$162 \quad W_{u,(i)} = \Delta \psi_{(i)} \times C_{r,(i)} \quad (7)$$

163 The root-soil water potential difference $\Delta \psi_{(i)}$ is primarily determined by the



164 dynamics of $\psi_{s,(i)}$ (MPa), as plants tend to maintain $\psi_{r,(i)}$ (MPa) within a relatively
165 stable range through osmoregulation (Dodd et al., 2010). For model simplification
166 under well-watered conditions, $\psi_{r,(i)}$ can be treated as an empirical constant derived
167 from literature (Munns and Tester, 2008; Novák et al., 2005).

$$168 \quad \Delta\psi_i = (\psi_{s,(i)} - \psi_{r,(i)}) \quad (8)$$

169 The root hydraulic conductivity ($C_{r,(i)}$) represents the water flux from a unit
170 volume of soil per unit water potential gradient. It is calculated as the product of the
171 total root surface area in that soil volume and the intrinsic hydraulic conductance per
172 unit root surface area ($Lp_r \text{ m} \cdot \text{s}^{-1} \cdot \text{Mpa}^{-1}$).

$$173 \quad C_{r,i} = (M_{r,i-1} \times S_r) \times Lp_r \quad (9)$$

174 where $M_{r,(i-1)}$ is the root dry mass per unit soil volume ($\text{g} \cdot \text{m}^{-3}$), S_r is the specific root
175 surface area ($\text{m}^2 \cdot \text{g}^{-1}$). To avoid circular dependency and ensure numerical stability,
176 root water uptake ($W_{u,(i)}$) was calculated using root biomass from the previous time
177 step. The term ($M_{r,(i-1)} \times S_r$) thus gives the root surface area density. Values of Lp_r for
178 maize (Steudle, 2000; Cai et al., 2022; Rishmawi et al., 2023; Protto et al., 2024) and
179 wheat (Cai et al., 2022; Yang et al., 2023) at different developmental stages were
180 obtained from the literature.

181 2.4 Calibration of photosynthate partitioning coefficients in Agro-C model

182 In the Agro-C model, the crop development index (DVI) is defined as 0 at
183 emergence, 1 at heading for wheat or silking for maize, and 2 at maturity. The DVI is
184 divided into 21 intervals at increments of 0.1. Within each interval, the proportion of
185 assimilates allocated to leaves (PL) and roots (PR) is fixed (Huang et al., 2009), while
186 the proportion allocated to stems is calculated as $1 - (PL + PR)$. During the vegetative
187 growth stage, the allocation of dry matter to roots and leaves decreases with
188 development, whereas during the reproductive stage, all assimilates are allocated
189 exclusively to grains (Table S1).



190 Jiang et al. (2018) demonstrated that under water stress, the assimilate
191 partitioning ratios to roots, stems, and leaves all vary with water availability.
192 Therefore, in the Agro-C model, the pre-optimized partitioning ratios for leaves and
193 roots need to be appropriately adjusted ($\Delta PL_{(i)}$ and $\Delta PR_{(i)}$) to enable the model to
194 capture assimilate allocation mechanisms under different water conditions. The
195 calibrated partitioning coefficients for leaves and roots ($PL_{N(i)}$ and $PR_{N(i)}$) are thus
196 obtained by adding the adjustment terms to the pre-optimized coefficients ($PL_{O(i)}$ and
197 $PR_{O(i)}$).

$$198 \quad PL_{N(i)} = PL_{O(i)} + \Delta PL_{(i)} \quad (10)$$

$$199 \quad PR_{N(i)} = PR_{O(i)} + \Delta PR_{(i)} \quad (11)$$

200 In the initial stage of model calibration, before clarifying the relationships of
201 $\Delta PL_{(i)}$ and $\Delta PR_{(i)}$ with water availability, constant values of $\Delta PL_{(i)}$ and $\Delta PR_{(i)}$ were
202 preliminarily assigned. The feasibility of these values was then evaluated by
203 comparing the simulated aboveground and belowground biomass (Sim_AGB,
204 Sim_BGB) with the observed values (Obs_AGB, Obs_BGB). If both ratios
205 Sim_AGB / Obs_AGB and Sim_BGB / Obs_BGB exceeded 80%, the assigned $\Delta PL_{(i)}$
206 and $\Delta PR_{(i)}$ were considered acceptable (Fig. 1).

207 After the initial calibration of the model, correlation equations between $\Delta PL_{(i)}$,
208 $\Delta PR_{(i)}$, and $\Delta W_{(i)}$ were developed. These equations were then used to replace the
209 initially assigned constant values, thereby providing a more accurate and explicit
210 representation of the changes in assimilate partitioning coefficients under soil water
211 stress.

212 Drought stress accelerates leaf senescence, abscission, and mortality, thereby
213 altering the yellow-to-green leaf ratio (YGR) (Seleiman et al., 2021). In addition to
214 calibrating the assimilate partitioning coefficients, we also adjusted the YGR
215 parameter in the pre-optimized Agro-C model. Specifically, correlation equations
216 between the increment of the yellow-to-green leaf ratio ($\Delta YGR_{(i)}$) and $\Delta W_{(i)}$ were
217 developed to represent the calibrated YGR ($YGR_{N(i)}$) under dynamically varying soil

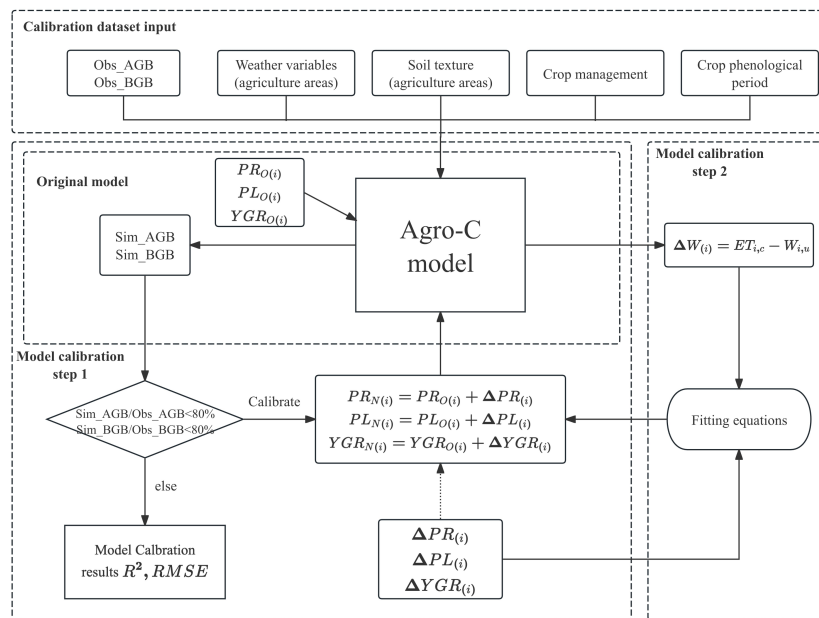


218 water conditions.

219
$$YGR_{N(i)} = YGR_{O(i)} + \Delta YGR_{(i)} \quad (12)$$

220 where $YGR_{O(i)}$ represents the yellow-to-green leaf ratio in the pre-optimized Agro-C
221 model.

222 To simplify the model, we further incorporated the DVI as an additional
223 independent variable in the above equations, thereby accounting for the combined
224 effects of water availability and crop developmental stage on assimilate partitioning.



225

226 Fig. 1 Flowchart of Agro-C model parameter optimization

227 2.5 Data input and model evaluation

228 The input variables included: meteorological data (solar radiation, sunshine
229 duration, daily maximum and minimum temperature, and precipitation); soil data
230 (bulk density, sand and clay content, and total nitrogen content); phenological data
231 (for wheat: emergence, heading, and maturity; for maize: emergence, tasseling, and
232 maturity); and management practices (irrigation amount, fertilizer N application rate,
233 and timing of application).



234 If irrigation amounts (W_{irr}) were recorded at the experimental sites for each crop
235 growth stage, the values were directly input according to the recorded dates. If no
236 specific irrigation amounts were available but the relative available soil water (RAW)
237 during the growing season was recorded, the given RAW was used as the upper
238 threshold to estimate irrigation. Irrigation was triggered when the model-simulated
239 RAW dropped 10% below the site-defined threshold. The soil relative water content
240 used in the model was calculated as follows:

$$241 \quad RAW = \frac{W_{(i)} - W_P}{W_{FC} - W_P} \times 100\% \quad (13)$$

242 where $W_{(i)}$ is the actual soil water content (v/v), W_P is the crop wilting point (v/v), and
243 W_{FC} is the field capacity of the soil (v/v).

244 Irrigation amount was calculated as follows (Ge et al., 2012):

$$245 \quad W_{irr} = (W_u - W_{(i)}) \times \rho \times h \times 0.1 \quad (14)$$

246 where W_u is the target upper limit of soil water content (v/v), ρ is the soil bulk density
247 (g cm^{-3}), and h is the thickness of the soil layer considered (cm).

248 We used the coefficient of determination (R^2) and the root mean squared error
249 (RMSE) as evaluation metrics to assess prediction accuracy, which are defined as
250 follows:

$$251 \quad R^2 = \frac{\sum_i (y_i - \widehat{y}_i)^2}{\sum_i (y_i - \bar{y})^2} \quad (15)$$

$$252 \quad RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \widehat{y}_i)^2}{n}} \quad (16)$$

253 where n is the number of test samples, y_i is the i observed value, \bar{y} is the
254 mean of all observed values, \widehat{y}_i is the i simulate value.

255 3. Results

256 3.1 Optimization equations for photosynthate coefficients in response to soil moisture
257 variation



258 *3.1.1 Parameter optimization equations*

259 To facilitate computation and maintain a balance between physiological
260 resolution and numerical stability, the DVI was divided into 0.2 intervals, each
261 representing a distinct growth stage relevant to crop development. To better capture
262 the intra-stage variation of partitioning coefficients, DVI itself was also included as an
263 independent variable in the equations (Tables 1 and 2). Consistent with the
264 pre-optimized partitioning scheme of the model, we assumed that no leaf senescence
265 occurred during the early vegetative stage ($DVI < 0.6$ for maize, $DVI < 0.8$ for wheat),
266 with $Y_{GR_N} = 0$; and during the late reproductive stage ($DVI > 1.4$), assimilates were
267 allocated only to grains, with the leaf partitioning coefficient set to zero. In the
268 pre-optimized Agro-C model, assimilate allocation to roots (PR_N) was also assumed
269 to cease once the crop entered the reproductive stage under sufficient water supply.
270 However, our previous study (Xu et al., 2025) indicated that under water stress,
271 assimilates may continue to be allocated to roots during the reproductive phase to
272 facilitate water uptake and sustain growth. In addition, during the grain-filling to
273 maturity stages ($DVI=1.4-2.0$), crops gradually enter physiological senescence, and
274 root systems—particularly fine roots—undergo necrosis and shedding, leading to
275 reduced accumulation of root dry matter. Therefore, we further refined the root
276 partitioning scheme during the reproductive stage, building upon the pre-optimized
277 framework.

278



279 Table 1 Wheat increments of Root (ΔPR) and Leaf (ΔPL) Allocation Coefficients,
 280 Yellow-to-Green Leaf Ratio (ΔYGR), and Water Balance Difference ($\Delta W_{(t)}$) Equation

		$a + b*\Delta W_{(t)} + c*DVI + d*\Delta W_{(t)}^2 + e*\Delta W_{(t)}*DVI + f*DVI^2$									
DVI		a	b	c	d	e	f	R ²	n	Range	
(0.0, 0.2]	ΔPR	0.16	-0.29	-0.51	-0.13	1.47	1.40	0.06		[-0.1, 0.05]	
	ΔPL	-0.56	3.32	6.83	1.72	-19.62	-17.95	0.13	438	[0.05, 0.15]	
	ΔYGR				0.00						
(0.2, 0.4]	ΔPR	0.98	-0.62	-4.80	0.27	1.76	5.24	0.57	2150	[-0.2, 0.1]	
	ΔPL	-8.73	-2.84	50.93	0.81	8.29	-72.50	0.20		[-0.1, 0.29]	
	ΔYGR				0.00						
(0.4, 0.6]	ΔPR	0.20	0.12	-1.92	-0.02	-0.17	2.24	0.18		[-0.26, 0.1]	
	ΔPL	-1.99	-1.43	7.92	0.01	2.32	-7.10	0.10	2567	[-0.16, 0.39]	
	ΔYGR				0.00						
(0.6, 0.8]	ΔPR	0.21	-0.11	-1.16	0.02	0.10	1.08	0.47		[-0.1, 0.0]	
	ΔPL	-2.35	-0.51	9.15	0.14	0.71	-8.33	0.16	655	[-0.15, 0.35]	
	ΔYGR				0.00						
(0.8, 1.0]	ΔPR	-0.03	0.01	-0.49	0.00	-0.01	0.58	0.49		[-0.12, 0.15]	
	ΔPL	-5.28	0.37	11.31	0.05	-0.64	-5.64	0.07	439	[-0.17, 0.46]	
	ΔYGR	-0.57	-0.28	0.84	0.01	0.32	-0.72	0.05		[-0.43, 0.25]	
(1.0, 1.2]	ΔPR	3.98	0.79	-7.82	0.00	-0.66	3.77	0.24		[-0.06, 0.06]	
	ΔPL	-27.75	-1.10	54.01	0.07	0.95	-26.12	0.14	388	[0.0, 0.36]	
	ΔYGR	-21.40	-0.95	45.10	-0.06	0.92	-23.86	0.52		[-1.8, 0.4]	
(1.2, 1.4]	ΔPR	-4.72	-0.01	7.46	-0.04	0.06	-2.97	0.14		[-0.1, 0.05]	
	ΔPL	1.40	0.42	-1.82	-0.01	-0.30	0.59	0.17	305	[0.0, 0.2]	
	ΔYGR	-8.49	6.08	12.73	-0.06	-4.76	-6.02	0.35		[-3.85, 0.68]	
(1.4, 1.6]	ΔPR	-21.91	-1.31	28.98	-0.02	0.86	-9.60	0.12		[-0.06, 0.0]	
	ΔPL				0.00				304		
	ΔYGR	-273.12	-5.71	379.64	-0.21	4.35	-133.41	0.14		[-5.0, 0.0]	
(1.6, 1.8]	ΔPR	30.50	1.87	-38.69	0.00	-1.14	12.22	0.09		[-0.06, -0.03]	
	ΔPL				0.00				288		
	ΔYGR	-510.13	1.23	612.27	0.69	-1.96	-184.75	0.11		[-6.4, 0.0]	
(1.8, 2]	ΔPR	9.68	-9.64	-9.06	-0.26	5.31	2.04	0.16		[-0.06, 0.0]	
	ΔPL				0.00				268		
	ΔYGR	-551.31	285.62	548.12	8.42	-157.41	-136.47	0.18		[-7.5, 0.0]	

281



282 Table 2 Maize increments of Root (ΔPR) and Leaf (ΔPL) Allocation Coefficients,
 283 Yellow-to-Green Leaf Ratio (ΔYGR), and Water Balance Difference ($\Delta W_{(t)}$) Equation

284 $a + b \cdot \Delta W_{(t)} + c \cdot DVI + d \cdot \Delta W_{(t)}^2 + e \cdot \Delta W_{(t)} \cdot DVI + f \cdot DVI^2$

DVI		a	b	c	d	e	f	R ²	n	Range
(0.0, 0.2]	ΔPR	-0.15	-0.70	-0.09	0.53	3.76	-1.05	0.98		[-0.2, -0.1]
	ΔPL	0.19	0.56	0.07	-0.42	3.01	0.84	0.89	435	[0.19, 0.23]
	ΔYGR				0.00					
(0.2, 0.4]	ΔPR	0.60	-1.09	-6.22	0.34	3.84	11.35	0.89		[-0.25, -0.2]
	ΔPL	-3.09	4.20	24.02	-1.22	-14.89	-43.57	0.90	383	[0.05, 0.22]
	ΔYGR				0.00					
(0.4, 0.6]	ΔPR	5.47	-0.67	-26.86	0.00	1.52	31.64	0.92		[-0.25, 0.0]
	ΔPL	1.47	0.12	-5.41	0.07	-0.42	4.32	0.76	389	[0.0, 0.22]
	ΔYGR				0.00					
(0.6, 0.8]	ΔPR	-0.89	0.80	2.22	0.02	-1.11	-1.38	0.23		[-0.05, 0.05]
	ΔPL	-1.51	-0.09	3.44	0.00	0.13	-2.27	0.62	348	[-0.1, 0.11]
	ΔYGR	2.26	-2.84	-5.48	-0.09	3.97	3.36	0.24		[-0.03, 0.2]
(0.8, 1.0]	ΔPR				0.00					
	ΔPL	29.56	-0.43	-69.90	0.00	0.48	41.16	0.88		[-0.2, 0.11]
	ΔYGR	-65.17	0.40	151.25	0.00	-0.10	-87.51	0.43	332	[-0.07, 0.35]
(1.0, 1.2]	ΔPR	-6.08	1.11	9.59	-0.01	-1.01	-3.62	0.66		[0.0, 0.12]
	ΔPL	-118.10	2.26	206.59	0.07	-1.74	-90.19	0.42	308	[0.05, 0.45]
	ΔYGR	12.14	-0.05	-19.86	-0.05	0.03	7.99	0.42		[-0.14, 0.3]
(1.2, 1.4]	ΔPR	117.85	-1.74	-172.01	0.04	1.18	62.85	0.38		[0.0, 0.12]
	ΔPL	-213.00	3.34	311.30	-0.07	-2.28	-113.67	0.37	321	[0.0, 0.4]
	ΔYGR	120.52	-2.50	-175.84	0.05	1.72	64.04	0.40		[-0.48, 0.17]
(1.4, 1.6]	ΔPR	174.42	9.21	-247.65	0.13	-6.55	87.92	0.54		[-0.05, 0.12]
	ΔPL				0.00				338	
	ΔYGR	229.20	11.38	-326.10	0.16	-8.11	115.83	0.53		[-0.5, 0.0]
(1.6, 1.8]	ΔPR	259.85	3.67	-295.73	-0.03	-1.96	84.05	0.31		[-0.15, 0.0]
	ΔPL				0.00				370	
	ΔYGR	-838.08	6.24	1010.12	0.12	-4.20	-304.31	0.62		[-0.3, 0.15]
(1.8, 2]	ΔPR	0.80	3.13	-1.45	-0.20	-1.60	0.53	0.34		[-0.15, 0.0]
	ΔPL				0.00				439	
	ΔYGR	-246.13	16.95	263.13	0.90	-9.58	-70.43	0.38		[-0.6, 0.3]



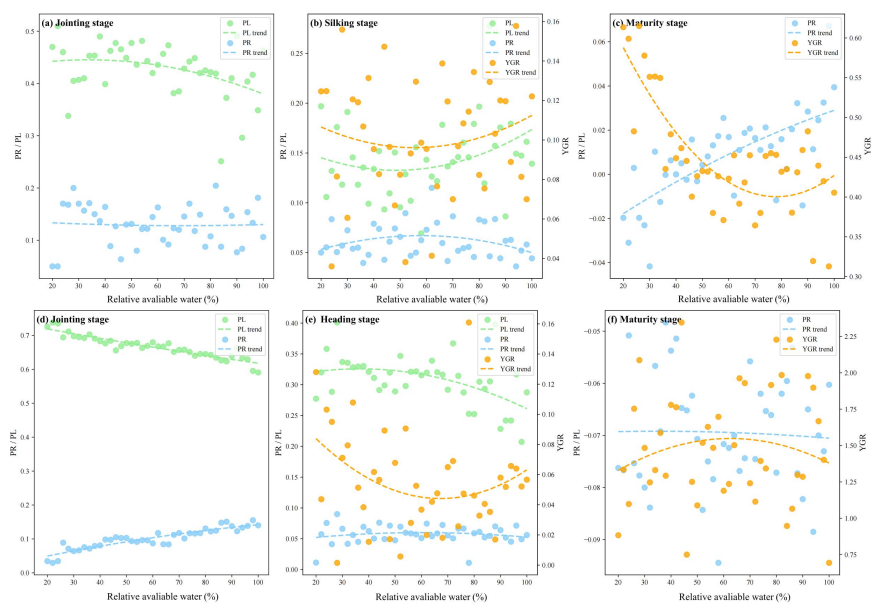
285 *3.1.2 Response of photosynthate allocation coefficients to soil moisture changes*

286 We further analyzed the variation in assimilate allocation coefficients—PR, PL,
287 and YGR—in response to soil moisture levels during key growth stages, including
288 jointing stage, silking stage (maize), heading stage (wheat), and maturity (Fig. 2).

289 At the jointing stage (DVI = 0.4–0.6), maize PL significantly decreased with
290 increasing soil moisture, while PR also showed a slight downward trend (Fig. 2(a)). In
291 contrast, wheat PL was relatively insensitive to moisture changes, but under severe
292 drought stress (RAW < 45%), wheat PR was significantly lower than under
293 well-watered conditions (Fig. 2(d)). During the silking stage of maize (DVI =
294 1.0–1.2), both PL and YGR decreased with increasing soil moisture under moderate
295 (RAW = 45–60%) and severe drought stress. However, under mild drought (RAW =
296 60–70%) to optimal moisture conditions, both PL and YGR increased with rising soil
297 moisture. PR exhibited a non-linear response, increasing first and then decreasing as
298 moisture increased (Fig. 2(b)). Similarly, at the wheat heading stage (DVI = 1.0–1.2),
299 the trend of PR and YGR was comparable to that of maize, but wheat PL continuously
300 decreased with increasing soil moisture, which is in contrast to maize (Fig. 2(e)).

301 At the maturity stage (DVI = 1.8–2.0), photosynthates were no longer allocated
302 to leaves but instead to grains. Under drought stress, maize YGR increased
303 significantly (Fig. 2(c)). Moreover, excess water (RAW > 85%) also led to higher
304 YGR values than under optimal conditions (RAW = 70–85%). PR increased with
305 rising soil moisture during this stage, as extreme drought caused premature root
306 senescence and decay. Conversely, wheat PR and YGR decreased with increasing soil
307 moisture during maturity (Fig. 2(f)). Notably, under severe drought conditions, wheat
308 YGR was lower than under other moisture levels.

309



310

311 Fig. 2 Mean values of the leaf partitioning coefficient (PL), root partitioning coefficient (PR), and
 312 yellow-to-green leaf ratio (YGR) for maize and wheat at jointing, silking/heading, and maturity
 313 stages under different soil moisture conditions, as simulated by the optimized Agro-C model.

314 3.2 Model calibration and validation

315 3.2.1 Calibration results

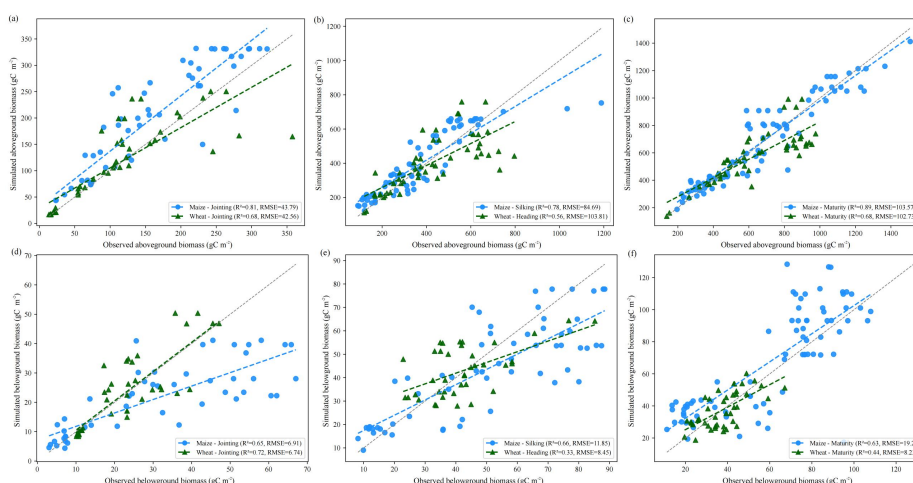
316 We selected datasets that provided detailed records of aboveground biomass
 317 (AGB) and belowground biomass (BGB) at multiple crop growth stages, and which
 318 included experimental treatments under different levels of water stress, to serve as the
 319 calibration dataset. This allowed for more accurate simulation of assimilate
 320 partitioning across developmental stages.

321 Overall, the optimized Agro-C model showed higher accuracy in simulating
 322 AGB, with R^2 values exceeding 0.56 across all growth stages. In contrast, the
 323 simulation accuracy for BGB was relatively lower, with R^2 values ranging from 0.33
 324 to 0.72 (Fig. 3). Notably, the optimized Agro-C model performed well in simulating
 325 AGB at maturity (Fig. 3(c)), with R^2 values of 0.89 for maize and 0.68 for wheat.
 326 Improved accuracy in simulating AGB at maturity contributes to more reliable
 327 estimation of crop productivity. The optimized Agro-C model showed better



328 performance in simulating wheat BGB ($R^2 = 0.72$) at the jointing stage compared to
 329 maize ($R^2 = 0.65$). However, during the reproductive stage (silking to maturity for
 330 maize; heading to maturity for wheat), simulation accuracy was higher for maize. For
 331 maize, the optimized Agro-C model consistently achieved R^2 values above 0.63
 332 across all growth stages, indicating a good performance.

333 Although the optimized Agro-C model showed relatively low R^2 values for
 334 simulating wheat BGB at heading and maturity stages (0.33 and 0.44, respectively;
 335 Fig. 3(e-f)), this was primarily attributed to physiological root senescence during late
 336 reproductive stages, leading to lower root biomass per unit area. Under such
 337 conditions, the absolute values of BGB were small, and even slight deviations
 338 between simulated and observed values could substantially reduce R^2 . Nevertheless,
 339 the RMSE for wheat BGB at heading and maturity were 8.45 and 8.23 gC m^{-2} ,
 340 respectively, indicating relatively small deviations. Therefore, we consider the
 341 optimized Agro-C model to be reasonably reliable and practically applicable for
 342 simulating BGB for wheat during the later reproductive stages.



343

344 Fig. 3 Calibration results of the Agro-C model for aboveground biomass (AGB) and belowground
 345 biomass (BGB) of maize and wheat at the jointing, heading/grain-filling, and maturity stages.

346 (a)–(c) show AGB calibration results; (d)–(f) show BGB calibration results. Blue circles represent
 347 maize, and green triangles represent wheat.



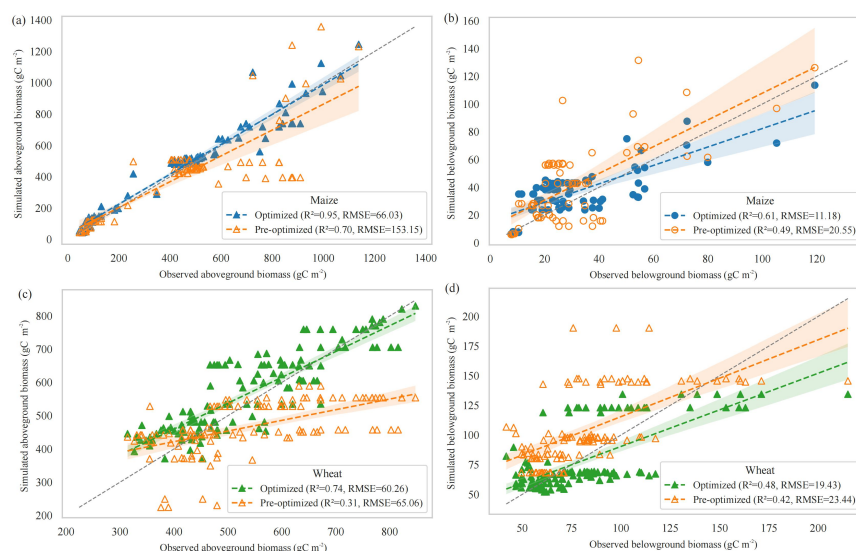
348 *3.2.2 Validation results*

349 Due to limited availability of experimental data, the criteria for selecting the
350 validation dataset were less stringent than those applied to the calibration dataset.
351 Therefore, datasets that included detailed records of water use during the crop growth
352 period (regardless of whether water stress treatments were applied) and biomass data
353 for one or more growth stages were included in the validation dataset.

354 Compared with the pre-optimized Agro-C model, the optimized Agro-C model
355 showed substantial improvements in simulating assimilate production for both maize
356 and wheat (Fig. 4). For maize, the simulation accuracy for AGB improved from $R^2 =$
357 0.70 and $RMSE = 153.15 \text{ gC m}^{-2}$ to $R^2 = 0.95$ and $RMSE = 66.03 \text{ gC m}^{-2}$. Similarly,
358 the BGB simulation improved from $R^2 = 0.49$ and $RMSE = 20.55 \text{ gC m}^{-2}$ to $R^2 = 0.61$
359 and $RMSE = 11.18 \text{ gC m}^{-2}$. Likewise, for wheat, the optimized Agro-C model
360 significantly improved the simulation accuracy for both AGB and BGB, achieving R^2
361 values of 0.74 ($RMSE = 60.26 \text{ gC m}^{-2}$) for AGB and 0.48 ($RMSE = 19.43 \text{ gC m}^{-2}$) for
362 BGB, compared to the pre-optimized Agro-C model, which simulate AGB and BGB
363 much lower R^2 values of 0.31 and 0.42 , respectively. The validation dataset
364 comprised several water-stress treatments, the pre-optimized Agro-C model
365 simulation accuracy declined under these conditions due to the absence of water
366 stress-responsive allocation parameters in the pre-optimized structure.

367 Similar to the calibration results, the optimized Agro-C model exhibited
368 significantly higher accuracy in simulating AGB than BGB for the validation dataset.
369 However, after parameter optimization, the average differences between simulated
370 and observed BGB for maize and wheat were only 5.19 and -2.52 gC m^{-2} , respectively
371 (Fig. S2), indicating relatively small deviations. In addition, compared to
372 pre-optimized Agro-C model, the optimized Agro-C model exhibited consistently
373 smaller deviations from the observed values (Fig. S2), suggesting a relatively reliable
374 parameter calibration scheme.

375



376

377 Fig. 4 Validation results of the pre-optimized and optimized Agro-C model for simulating
 378 aboveground biomass (AGB) and belowground biomass (BGB) of maize and wheat. (a) and
 379 (b) show the validation results for maize AGB and BGB, respectively; (c) and (d) show the
 380 validation results for wheat AGB and BGB, respectively. Blue circles and green triangles
 381 represent the simulation results from the optimized model, while orange hollow circles and
 382 triangles represent the simulation results from the pre-optimized Agro-C model for maize and
 383 wheat, respectively.

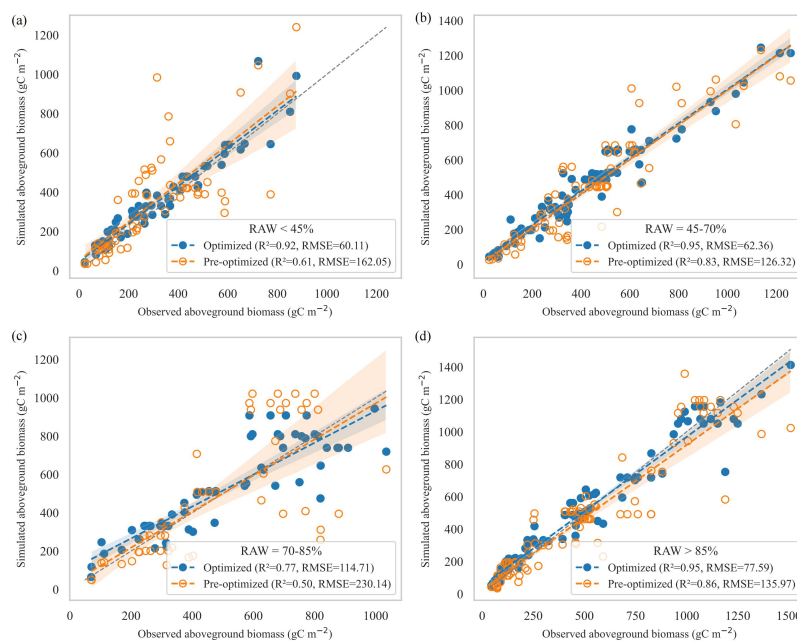
384 3.3 Simulating photosynthetic biomass under different RAW

385 Based on the observed patterns, four distinct soil moisture regimes were defined:
 386 severe drought (RAW < 45%), mild-to-moderate drought (RAW = 45–70%), optimal
 387 moisture (RAW = 70–85%), and excessive moisture (RAW > 85%). Simulations of
 388 maize and wheat AGB and BGB were conducted under each condition (Figs. 5-8).

389 Since the pre-optimized Agro-C model did not adequately account for crop
 390 growth under water-deficit conditions, its performance in simulating photosynthate
 391 production under water stress (RAW < 70%) was unsatisfactory, resulting in low R²
 392 values and relatively high RMSE. However, under optimal moisture conditions, the
 393 pre-optimized model performed well, particularly in simulating AGB, demonstrating
 394 its high applicability in well-watered environments. The optimized Agro-C model
 395 showed marked improvements across all moisture regimes. The R² of AGB
 396 simulation for maize ranged from 0.77 to 0.95, and for wheat from 0.80 to 0.89,

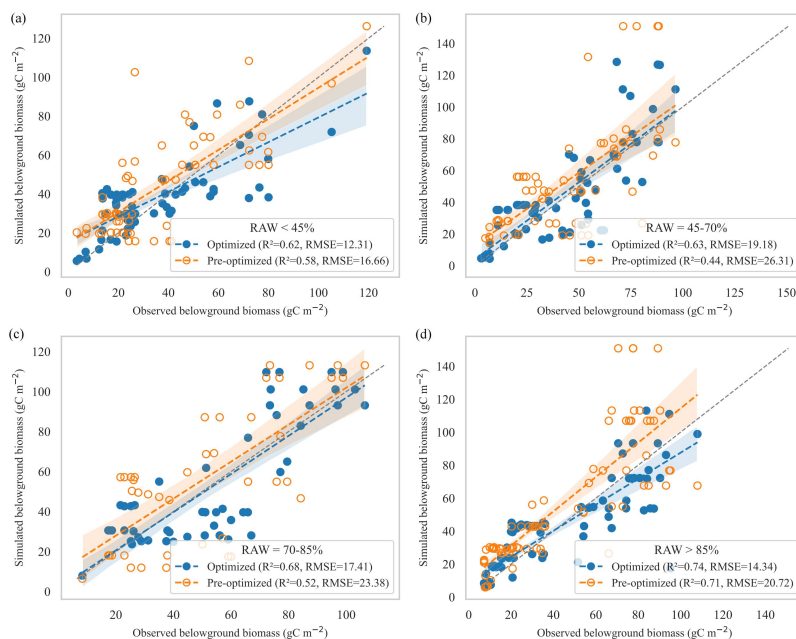


397 respectively (Figs. 5 and 7), demonstrating that the optimized Agro-C model
398 performed well in simulating AGB across different soil moisture conditions. This
399 strong performance enhances its applicability for crop productivity estimation and
400 quantification of straw return to the field. For wheat BGB, the optimized Agro-C
401 model achieved R^2 values of 0.77–0.83 (Fig. 8), greatly improving the accuracy
402 compared to the pre-optimized Agro-C model (R^2 in 0.52–0.78), which previously
403 exhibited large errors in simulating wheat BGB. Under varying soil moisture
404 conditions, the optimized Agro-C model achieved R^2 values of 0.62 to 0.74 for
405 simulating maize BGB, consistently outperforming pre-optimized Agro-C model.
406 Notably, the accuracy of the optimized Agro-C model was significantly improved
407 under severe and mild-to-moderate drought, highlighting its enhanced responsiveness
408 to water stress.



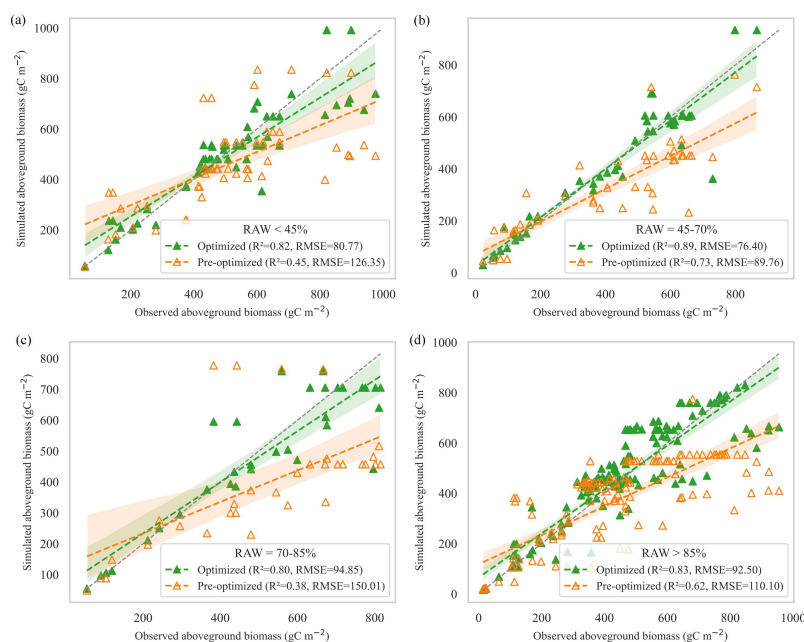
409

410 Fig. 5 Simulated aboveground biomass (AGB) of maize under different relative available
411 soil water (RAW) conditions using the pre-optimized Agro-C model and the optimized
412 Agro-C model. Blue circles represent simulation results from the optimized Agro-C model,
413 and orange circles represent those from the pre-optimized Agro-C model.



414

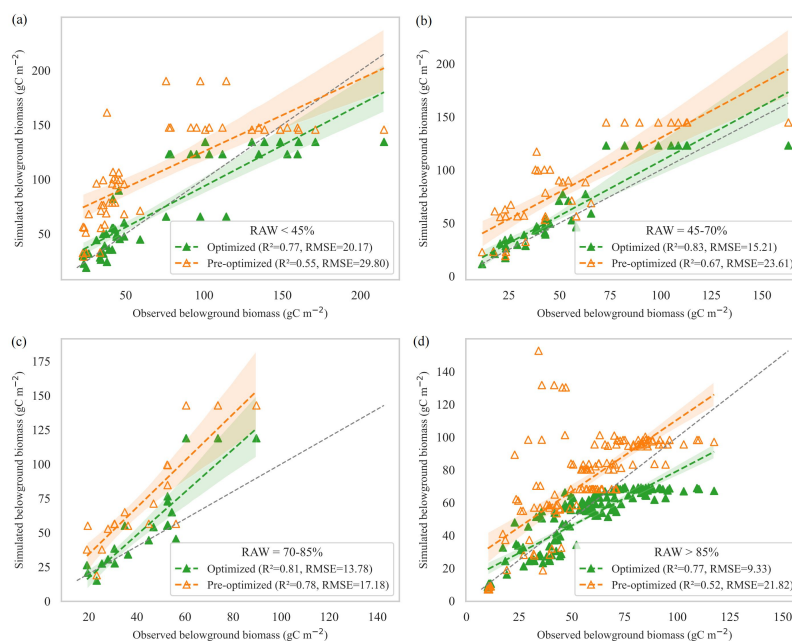
415 Fig. 6 Simulated belowground biomass (BGB) of maize under different relative available
 416 soil water (RAW) conditions using the pre-optimized Agro-C model and the optimized
 417 Agro-C model. Blue circles represent simulation results from the optimized Agro-C model,
 418 and orange circles represent those from the pre-optimized Agro-C model.



419



420 Fig. 7 Simulated aboveground biomass (AGB) of wheat under different relative available soil
 421 water (RAW) conditions using the pre-optimized Agro-C model and the optimized Agro-C
 422 model. Green triangles represent simulation results from the optimized Agro-C model, and
 423 orange triangles represent those from the pre-optimized Agro-C model.



424
 425 Fig. 8 Simulated belowground biomass (BGB) of wheat under different relative available soil
 426 water (RAW) conditions using the pre-optimized Agro-C model and the optimized Agro-C
 427 model. Green triangles represent simulation results from the optimized Agro-C model, and
 428 orange triangles represent those from the pre-optimized Agro-C model.

429 4. Discussion

430 4.1 Model performance evaluation

431 By incorporating dynamic response functions of photosynthate allocation
 432 coefficients to water stress and developmental stage, the optimized Agro-C model
 433 achieved significantly improved simulation accuracy across both crops and growth
 434 phases. Overall, the model exhibited higher accuracy for simulating AGB than BGB,
 435 a trend consistently observed in both the calibration and validation datasets (Fig. 3,
 436 Fig. 4). This likely reflects more abundant observations and better mechanistic
 437 understanding for aboveground processes, improving predictability (Asseng et al.,



438 2013; Li et al., 2015).

439 Although the optimized Agro-C model better simulated wheat AGB and BGB
440 during the jointing stage, its accuracy was surpassed by maize simulations during the
441 reproductive phase. This contrast can be attributed to the distinct allocation strategies
442 between the two crops during the reproductive transition. For wheat, photosynthate
443 allocation during the jointing stage is relatively straightforward, focusing primarily on
444 leaf expansion and root development—processes that are easier to capture through
445 modeling. However, during the reproductive phase, grain filling in wheat relies
446 heavily on the remobilization of stem-reserved assimilates (Bertheloot et al., 2008;
447 Effah et al., 2022), while the root system undergoes rapid senescence (Wang et al.,
448 2014), complicating model representation. The model’s simplified structure does not
449 fully capture belowground complexities, resulting in low R^2 values (0.33-0.44) during
450 heading and maturity. However, due to small BGB magnitudes, even modest
451 deviations result in relatively low RMSE values (8.45 and 8.23 gC m⁻²), indicating
452 reasonable model performance at the magnitude level. In contrast, as a C4 crop, maize
453 relies more directly on continuous leaf photosynthesis for grain formation (Boyer &
454 Westgate, 2004). Water stress markedly suppresses leaf expansion and photosynthetic
455 activity, but leaf area index can recover following rehydration, enhancing
456 aboveground dry matter accumulation (Ma et al., 2025). Therefore, the dynamic
457 adjustment of water and leaf allocation functions enhances model performance for
458 simulating maize biomass during the reproductive stage.

459 The inclusion of multiple water stress trials in the validation dataset,
460 pre-optimized Agro-C model showed unsatisfactory performance (low R^2 , high
461 RMSE) due to lacking water stress response, while the optimized Agro-C model
462 better captured photosynthetic biomass allocation under stress (Figs. 4 and S2). This
463 further demonstrates that incorporating water-sensitive parameters into allocation
464 functions is a critical strategy for enhancing the drought responsiveness of crop
465 models (Monteleone et al., 2023; Hammer et al., 2010). Following parameter
466 optimization, the simulation accuracy of Agro-C was significantly improved across all



467 water regimes, with the most notable enhancement observed in the simulation of
468 belowground biomass. This effectively corrected the bias of pre-optimized Agro-C
469 model in representing root dynamics. Given that BGB is a major contributor to SOC,
470 improved simulation of root biomass reduces uncertainties in SOC modeling, thereby
471 enabling more accurate assessment of SOC stocks.

472 Nevertheless, limitations remain in the current version of the model. The overall
473 accuracy for simulating BGB is lower than that for AGB, suggesting that the dynamic
474 processes governing root growth and senescence are not yet fully captured. Previous
475 studies have highlighted that root architecture (e.g., deep vs. shallow rooting types),
476 interactions among water availability, nitrogen input, and temperature, as well as
477 carbon remobilization mechanisms, can all influence model performance (Lynch et al.,
478 2014; Calleja-Cabrera et al., 2022; Li et al., 2025). These processes should be
479 incorporated into future model development to enhance representation of
480 belowground dynamics.

481 4.2 Effect of soil water on photosynthate allocation across crop growth

482 The response of photosynthate allocation to water stress exhibits strong stage
483 dependence and crop specificity. Using continuous DVI-based allocation functions
484 (Tables 1 and 2), it is evident that during the vegetative stage, both maize and wheat
485 adopt a “root-priority” strategy to enhance water uptake under drought stress, as
486 reflected by a significant increase in the PR and a concurrent decrease in the PL (Fig.
487 2(a) and (d); Çakir, 2004). As crops transition into the reproductive phase, maize at
488 silking and wheat at heading display heightened sensitivity of partitioning coefficients
489 to soil moisture. Under moderate to severe drought conditions ($RAW < 60\%$), both
490 maize and wheat exhibit decreasing trends in PL and YGR with increasing soil
491 moisture (Fig. 2(b) and (e)), likely due to impaired plant capacity to maintain
492 photosynthetic area and delay leaf senescence under water-limited conditions (Vadez
493 et al., 2024). Interestingly, under mild drought to optimal water conditions ($RAW =$
494 $60\text{--}85\%$), maize exhibits increasing PL and YGR with increasing moisture, indicating
495 that appropriate irrigation during this stage effectively alleviates water stress and



496 promotes greater allocation of photosynthates to foliage (Ma et al., 2025).

497 Notably, maize and wheat also exhibit divergent biomass allocation patterns
498 when exposed to water stress at the same developmental stage. During the
499 reproductive transition phase, maize exhibited a significant increase in PL under
500 optimal water conditions, accompanied by a peak in leaf area index (LAI), which
501 helps maintain leaf functionality and ensures successful pollination and kernel
502 formation (Ma et al., 2025). In contrast, wheat showed a continuous decline in PL,
503 suggesting that photosynthates were increasingly diverted to the developing spike
504 during anthesis stage, indicating a reduced dependence on leaf investment (Farooq et
505 al., 2014). This divergence underscores an evolutionary trade-off between C4 and C3
506 crops in carbon-use efficiency. Under water stress, maize prioritizes the protection of
507 leaf function, whereas wheat ensures grain filling through strategic assimilate
508 redistribution (Borrás et al., 2004; Smith et al., 2018). At maturity, maize roots
509 senesce prematurely under drought, leading to a decline in PR, while under optimal or
510 excessive moisture conditions, PR increases (Fig. 2(c)). In contrast, wheat exhibits a
511 consistent decline in both PR and YGR with increasing soil moisture (Fig. 2(f)),
512 confirming that root senescence in late grain filling enables greater carbon allocation
513 to kernels, ultimately enhancing yield potential.

514 In addition, excess water also significantly affects the partitioning of
515 photosynthates. During maize maturity, YGR under conditions of excessive moisture
516 (RAW > 85%) was higher than under optimal water supply, suggesting that
517 overwatering may induce premature leaf senescence and accelerate assimilate
518 translocation to the grain. Excessive soil moisture reduces root aeration and increases
519 respiratory losses, thereby weakening root activity (Shao et al., 2013; Herzog et al.,
520 2015). Thus, excessive water supply can also disrupt the optimal partitioning of
521 photosynthates, ultimately compromising yield formation. For maize, it is crucial to
522 avoid both drought stress and over-irrigation during silking and maturity stages to
523 maintain leaf function and root vitality. For wheat, particular attention should be paid
524 to water supply during the jointing to heading stages to ensure proper spike



525 differentiation and grain development.

526 4.3 Representation of water stress responses in the Agro-C model

527 Existing crop models adopt various approaches to represent water stress. For
528 instance, the DSSAT model constructs stress coefficients based on the ratio of soil
529 water supply to demand, applying them to processes such as photosynthesis,
530 transpiration, leaf area development, and biomass accumulation (Jones et al., 2003;
531 He et al., 2013). While effective in reflecting drought-induced reductions in
532 photosynthetic and transpiration rates, DSSAT often employs fixed or stage-specific
533 allocation schemes, lacking the capacity to dynamically redistribute assimilates
534 among plant organs. The APSIM model uses stress factors to simulate water stress
535 effects on root growth, leaf area expansion, and photosynthesis, with a modular and
536 transparent structure enabling its application across diverse cropping systems (Pasley
537 et al., 2020; Githui et al., 2022; Monteleone et al., 2023). However, APSIM relies on
538 empirical functions and does not explicitly model the dynamic carbon allocation
539 among roots, leaves, and grains, limiting its explanatory power at the organ scale. The
540 AquaCrop model uses threshold-based functions to simulate water stress effects on
541 canopy expansion, stomatal conductance, leaf senescence, and harvest index,
542 performing well for yield and water-use efficiency under drought, though it
543 oversimplifies root biomass by relying on RSR adjustments and lacks mechanisms for
544 root senescence and dynamic carbon allocation (Zhou et al., 2024; Fallah et al., 2025).

545 Compared with the aforementioned models, the optimized Agro-C model
546 developed in this study improves the representation of photosynthate allocation under
547 water stress by more explicitly reflecting underlying physiological regulation. By
548 linking partitioning coefficients (PL and PR) and YGR to both soil moisture and DVI,
549 the model explicitly captures organ-level carbon allocation under water stress. This
550 improves its ability to represent key physiological responses such as root-priority
551 allocation and premature leaf senescence, enhancing simulation accuracy across
552 moisture conditions. Moreover, the optimized Agro-C model captures the
553 water-dependent variability in carbon partitioning during key growth stages



554 overcoming the limitations of conventional models that rely on fixed rules or lack
555 dynamic regulation across stages. Finally, the parameter calibration is based on
556 observed AGB and BGB data, enabling the model to not only simulate yield
557 variations, but also provide mechanistic representation insights into organ-level
558 allocation dynamics, thereby improving its physiological interpretability and
559 robustness.

560 However, the current scheme still simplifies root processes by adjusting root
561 allocation coefficients solely based on water status, without accounting for key
562 parameters such as root architecture and turnover rate—factors that are particularly
563 critical under extreme moisture conditions (Lynch et al., 2014). Overall, the optimized
564 Agro-C model proves capable of capturing carbon allocation under diverse water
565 regimes, suggesting strong applicability. In the future, the proposed framework can
566 potentially be integrated into land surface and Earth system models to improve the
567 representation of carbon–water coupling under future climate scenarios.

568 **5. Conclusion**

569 This study incorporated water stress effects into crop carbon allocation by
570 linking the root and leaf partitioning coefficients (PR and PL) and the yellow-to-green
571 leaf ratio (YGR) to soil moisture and DVI, thereby optimizing the Agro-C model. The
572 optimized Agro-C model addresses limitations of fixed partitioning rules by capturing
573 stage-sensitive responses and dynamic shifts in allocation under drought and
574 over-irrigation. Compared with the pre-optimized Agro-C model, the optimized
575 Agro-C model demonstrated a substantial improvement in simulation accuracy,
576 achieving R^2 values of 0.74-0.95 for AGB and 0.48 - 0.61 for BGB in validation
577 datasets. Moreover, the optimized Agro-C model effectively captured biomass
578 dynamics across a wide range of soil moisture conditions—from drought to excessive
579 moisture—achieving R^2 values of 0.77-0.95 for AGB and 0.62-0.83 for BGB in maize
580 and wheat, thereby demonstrating improved robustness and physiological fidelity.
581 Nonetheless, the representation of root system architecture and turnover remains
582 simplified, highlighting the need for further mechanistic refinement. Overall, the



583 model presents a robust tool for simulating drought-induced carbon allocation
584 strategies and can be applied in broader climate–agriculture interactions to inform
585 sustainable water and carbon management strategies.

586 **Author contributions**

587 WZ, QZ and YY elaborated the algorithmic concept; WX implemented the codes,
588 conducted the numerical experiments, visualized the results, and prepared the
589 manuscript. All authors reviewed and edited the manuscript.

590 **Competing interests**

591 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or
592 personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this
593 paper.

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598 include appropriate place names, the final responsibility lies with the authors.

599 **Code and data availability**

600 The code that support the findings of this study are openly available in Zenodo at
601 Xu et al. (2026; <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.19970992>), reference number
602 19970992. All data used in this study are publicly available. Meteorological data for
603 the crop growing period were obtained from *ERA5* (<https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/>).
604 The calibration data of the model are sourced from Duan (2020); Feng et al. (1997);
605 Feng (2014); Ge et al. (2005); Ge et al. (2012); Gheysari et al. (2017); Jiang (2019);
606 Li et al. (2010); Lu et al.(2020); Wang (2011); Wang et al. (2014); Wang (2014);
607 Zhang (2023). The validation data of the model are sourced from Allard et al. (2013);
608 Cai et al. (2017); Chen et al. (2021); Fang et al. (2017); Liu et al. (2017); Núñez et al.
609 (2022); Pouri et al. (2019); Xu et al. (2020); Zhao et al. (2018); Zou et al. (2021).



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