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1 **Updated stomatal flux and flux-effect models for wheat for**
2 **quantifying effects of ozone on grain yield, grain mass and protein**
3 **yield**

4

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1 **ABSTRACT**

2 Field measurements and open-top chamber experiments using nine current European winter wheat
3 cultivars provided a data set that was used to revise and improve the parameterisation of a stomatal
4 conductance model for wheat, including a revised value for maximum stomatal conductance and
5 new functions for phenology and soil moisture. For the calculation of stomatal conductance for
6 ozone a diffusivity ratio between O₃ and H₂O in air of 0.663 was applied, based on a critical review
7 of the literature. By applying the improved parameterisation for stomatal conductance, new flux-
8 effect relationships for grain yield, grain mass and protein yield were developed for use in ozone
9 risk assessments including effects on food security. An example of application of the flux model at
10 the local scale in Germany shows that negative effects of ozone on wheat grain yield were likely
11 each year and on protein yield in most years since the mid 1980s.

12

13 *Keywords:* Ozone, diffusivity ratio, stomatal flux, flux-effect models, wheat, food security

14

15 Capsule

16 Improved parameterizations of ozone stomatal conductance model for wheat and new ozone flux-
17 effect relationships for risk assessments.

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1 **1. Introduction**

2 Tropospheric ozone (O₃) is regarded as the most important gaseous air pollutant affecting
3 vegetation. During the last 100-150 years, the background O₃ concentration has increased by a
4 factor up to five and is predicted to continue to increase (e.g. Marengo et al., 1994; Lelieveld and
5 Dentener, 2000; Vingarzan, 2004). Since the mid 1980s, ground-level O₃ and its impact on human
6 health and vegetation have increasingly come into focus within the LRTAP Convention¹ of the
7 UNECE² and the European Union (EU). There is evidence of widespread adverse effects of O₃ on
8 crops and (semi-)natural vegetation in Europe (Hayes et al., 2007; Mills et al., 2011a). As for all
9 gaseous pollutants, the risk assessment methods for ozone to estimate effects on vegetation used by
10 the LRTAP Convention are based on the exceedance of critical levels (CLs), defined as "the
11 concentration, cumulative exposure or cumulative stomatal flux of atmospheric pollutants above
12 which direct adverse effects on sensitive vegetation may occur according to present knowledge"
13 (LRTAP Convention, 2010).

14 In the 1990s, exposure-response functions, mainly derived from experimental work in open-top
15 chambers, were used to determine concentration-based CLs for ozone in Europe (based on
16 AOT40³). However, one of the basic rules of toxicology is that dose-response relationships can only
17 be established if the effective dose (flux) at the target site (e.g. membranes) or at least the absorbed
18 dose (flux) of the stressor is known (Dämmgen et al., 1993; Grünhage and Jäger, 1996; Dämmgen
19 and Grünhage, 1998; Musselman and Massman, 1999; Massman et al., 2000). Research over the
20 last 10 years has led to significant developments in the methods for estimation of O₃ uptake by
21 plants, modelled as the flux of O₃ from the atmosphere through the stomata (F_{st} ; [nmol·m⁻²·s⁻¹]). It
22 has been shown that the cumulative O₃ uptake (POD_Y , Phytotoxic Ozone Dose; [mmol·m⁻² PLA])
23 above a constant threshold flux of Y nmol m⁻² PLA s⁻¹ (PLA, projected leaf area, i.e. one-sided leaf
24 area index) accumulated over a stated time period during daylight hours (global radiation > 50
25 W·m⁻²),

$$26 \quad POD_Y = \sum_{i=1}^n [\max(F_{st} - Y, 0) \cdot \Delta t]_i \quad (1)$$

27 provides stronger relationships with effects than external exposure indices such as AOT40 (Pleijel
28 et al., 2004) and that flux-based risk maps provide a better fit to effects found in the field than
29 AOT40-based risk maps (Mills et al. 2011a). POD_Y is calculated from hourly values of F_{st} so n
30 denotes the number of hours included in the calculation and $\Delta t = 1$ h. On the basis of these and other
31 results, the LRTAP Convention has recommended that flux-based methods are considered for use in

¹ Convention on Long-Range Transboundary Air Pollution

² United Nations Economic Commission for Europe

³ Accumulated ozone exposure over a threshold of 40 ppb, calculated from the hourly mean ozone concentrations at canopy height during daylight hours.

1 the revision of the Convention's Gothenburg Protocol to protect against effects of acidification,
2 eutrophication and ground level ozone (Executive Body of LRTAP, 2009).

3 Recent progress in the development of a toxicologically appropriate dose metric to protect
4 sensitive vegetation (crops, forest trees, (semi-)natural vegetation) was reviewed at LRTAP
5 Convention workshops held in Ispra, Italy (2009) and as part of the 23rd ICP Vegetation⁴ Task
6 Force Meeting in Tervuren, Belgium (2010). At the latter meeting cumulative stomatal flux-based
7 CLs were revised or derived for ten indicators, including effects on the yield of wheat, potato and
8 tomato (LRTAP Convention, 2010 [updated Modelling and Mapping Manual], with critical level
9 values also included in Mills et al., 2011b). For wheat, the revised/new CLs are based on the
10 stomatal uptake by the flag leaf, which provides "an estimate of the critical amount of ozone
11 entering through the stomata and reaching the sites of action inside the plant" (LRTAP Convention,
12 2010). The statistically derived constant flux threshold Y is interpreted as a provisional estimate of
13 a detoxification threshold, below which it is assumed that O₃ molecules absorbed by the plant will
14 be detoxified in the apoplast before reaching a target site (e.g. membranes).

15 The stomatal flux algorithm for wheat is based on the assumption that the O₃ concentration at the
16 top of the canopy ($c_{O_3}(z_h)$; [nmol·m⁻³]) provides a reasonable estimate of the O₃ concentration at the
17 upper surface boundary of the laminar boundary layer near the flag leaf, if the roughness sub-layer
18 near the canopy is not taken into account (LRTAP Convention, 2010):

$$19 \quad F_{st} = c_{O_3}(z_h) \cdot g_{sto} \cdot \frac{1/(g_{sto} + g_{ext})}{R_b + 1/(g_{sto} + g_{ext})} \quad (2)$$

20 where g_{sto} represents the actual O₃ stomatal conductance of, in this case, the flag leaf of wheat
21 [m·s⁻¹], g_{ext} the conductance of the external leaf surface for O₃ [m·s⁻¹] and R_b the resistance of the
22 flag leaf laminar layer for O₃ [s·m⁻¹]. There is evidence from flux measurements that deposition of
23 O₃ on e.g. external leaf surfaces exhibits diurnal variation (e.g. Gerosa et al., 2004). While work on
24 models for non-stomatal O₃ deposition is in progress, g_{ext} has been provisionally set constant to
25 0.0004 m·s⁻¹.

26 The resistance of the flag leaf laminar layer for O₃ is given by:

$$27 \quad R_b = 1.3 \cdot 150 \cdot \sqrt{\frac{L_{leaf}}{u(z_h)}} \quad (3)$$

28 with L_{leaf} the characteristic crosswind leaf dimension (in the case of the flag leaf 0.02 m) and $u(z_h)$
29 the horizontal wind velocity at canopy height [m·s⁻¹]. The constant 150 has the dimension s^{0.5}·m⁻¹,
30 while the factor 1.3 accounts for the differences in diffusivity between sensible heat and ozone
31 (Massman, 1998, 1999).

⁴ International Cooperative Programme on Effects of Air Pollution on Natural Vegetation and Crops, reporting to the LRTAP Convention.

1 The dependency of the flag leaf stomatal conductance on solar radiation, temperature and water
2 budgets of the atmosphere and soil as well as on the influence of phenology and O₃ is described
3 according to a multiplicative Jarvis-Stewart approach (Jarvis, 1976; Stewart, 1988; Emberson et al.,
4 2000a,b, Pleijel et al., 2007):

$$5 \quad g_{sto} = g_{max} \cdot [\min(f_{phen}, f_{O_3})] \cdot f_{light} \cdot \max\{f_{min}, (f_{temp} \cdot f_{VPD} \cdot f_{PAW})\} \quad (4)$$

6 where g_{max} represents the maximum value of the flag leaf stomatal conductance for ozone and the
7 weighting factors f_x take values between 0 and 1 as a proportion of g_{max} (relative g). The g_{max} value
8 described in Pleijel et al., (2007) was based on published data for six spring wheat cultivars
9 (Kolibri, Astral, Boulmiche, Cadensa, Turbo and Dragon) and one durum wheat cultivar (Janus).

10 Even though it was generally accepted that the flux approach provided a better indicator of risk
11 than the exposure-based CLs, the flux approach in its previous form (Pleijel et al., 2007) had a
12 number of uncertainties. One uncertainty was associated with the fact that the dose-response
13 relationship as well as the maximum value of stomatal conductance were derived from
14 measurements performed in the past on wheat cultivars, most of which are currently not in use in
15 agricultural practice: The cultivars Drabant and Satu (used in the dose-response relationship) as
16 well as Kolibri, Boulmiche, Cadensa, Turbo and Janus (used in the derivation of g_{max}) have not
17 been registered in the EU common catalogue of varieties (EU, 2009) for at least the last five years.
18 Additionally, the relationships were based on spring wheat and durum wheat data, whilst in many
19 parts of Europe winter wheat is the commercially-dominant cereal crop. Other uncertainties in the
20 use of the multiplicative model for regional risk assessments are related to the parameterisation of
21 phenology and soil water potential.

22 Because g_{max} of ozone is related to that of water vapour or carbon dioxide by the ratio of the
23 respective molecular diffusivities, the value of g_{max} depends on an appropriate estimate of the
24 molecular diffusivities. Although no new data were available for improving and validating the
25 wheat dose-response relationship, new data for improvement of the parameterisation of the stomatal
26 flux approach for wheat described by Pleijel et al. (2007) were available from field measurements
27 and open-top chamber experiments on nine winter wheat cultivars that are currently in use
28 commercially.

29 In this paper we describe an update of the Pleijel et al. (2007) model by incorporation of (1) a
30 revised derivation of maximum stomatal conductance for wheat including re-consideration of
31 molecular diffusivity for O₃; (2) revised Jarvis-Stewart functions for soil moisture conditions and
32 phenology, including re-consideration of the toxicologically relevant accumulation period for
33 stomatal uptake; (3) a revised dose-response function for effects on yield quantity and new response
34 functions for effects on yield quality (protein yield and grain mass); and (4) by providing examples
35 of the application of the flux-effect relationships for wheat in risk evaluations on a local scale.

1 Thus, the paper describes the progress made in improving the stomatal uptake-effect
2 methodology in order to improve the accuracy of estimates of the risk of ozone pollution effects on
3 wheat yield quantity and quality.

4 5 **2. Material and methods**

6 *2.1. Stomatal conductance measurements*

7 To improve the derivation of a maximum stomatal conductance for wheat, data from four sites
8 were used: open-top chamber experiments performed in 2006 at Braunschweig, Germany and in
9 2003 from Vårgårda, 60 km northeast of Göteborg, Sweden, and measurements made in 2009 on
10 wheat growing near Giessen and Braunschweig, Germany, and Grignon, near Paris, France. The
11 2006 study in Braunschweig was for the winter wheat cultivars Astron and Pegassos (cf. Schrader et
12 al., 2009), n = 1031, whilst that for Sweden was for the spring wheat cultivar Vinjett (Uddling and
13 Pleijel, 2006), n=120. In the 2009 studies, stomatal conductance was measured on field grown
14 winter wheat cultivars (Opus, Manager, Carenius and Limes (n = 446) in Linden near Giessen,
15 Cubus (n = 254) in Braunschweig, and Soissons (n = 206) and Premio (n = 224) in Grignon. The
16 measurements performed in 2009 in Linden and Braunschweig as well as in 2003 in Vårgårda were
17 used for the revision of the Jarvis-Stewart function for phenology and of the toxicologically relevant
18 accumulation period for stomatal uptake. The measurement performed in Grignon in 2009 on the
19 cultivars Soissons and Premio were used for validation.

20 The following measurements devices were used: in 2006 in Braunschweig and Sweden a
21 portable photosynthesis system (LI-6400, LI-COR, Lincoln, Nebraska USA), in 2009 in
22 Linden/Giessen and Braunschweig a leaf porometer (SC-1, Decagon Devices, Pullman, Washington
23 USA) and in France in 2009 a portable photosynthesis system (CIRAS-2, PP Systems International,
24 Amesbury, Maryland USA). Instruments were calibrated according to manufacturer's instructions.

25 26 *2.2. Molecular diffusivity for ozone*

27 While in the scientific literature consistent values for the molecular diffusivity constant for water
28 vapour in air have been published, a range of values have been used for O₃. Based on the review of
29 Massman (1998), a literature survey was conducted to clarify the scientific basis for the different
30 diffusivity ratios and to determine the most appropriate one for the ozone flux model (see Appendix
31 A).

32 33 *2.3. Yield response functions*

1 The dose response functions for the effects of O₃ on grain yield, grain mass and protein yield
2 were derived using data sets described by Pleijel et al. (2007) and Piikki et al. (2008). These data
3 were from thirteen experiments performed during 1987 to 1999 with field-grown crops with five
4 cultivars (spring wheat: Minaret, Dragon, Drabant, Satu; durum wheat: Duilio) exposed to different
5 O₃ levels in open-top chambers in four countries (Belgium, Finland, Italy and Sweden).

6 The regression of yield with *POD*₆ (Phytotoxic Ozone Dose above a flux threshold of 6
7 nmol m⁻² s⁻¹ projected leaf area) was based on the approach described by Fuhrer (1994), i.e. for
8 each data set yield was calculated for zero *POD*₆. Thus, zero *POD*₆ was always associated with no
9 effect at the individual experiment level, and relative yield from different experiments became
10 comparable on a common, relative scale.

11

12 2.4. Modelled versus measured stomatal conductances

13 A first validation experiment was performed at a winter wheat field in Braunschweig in 2009.
14 Canopy stomatal conductances derived from measurements with a portable gas exchange chamber
15 system (Burkart et al., 2007) were compared with modelled stomatal conductances at leaf level
16 which were upscaled to canopy level applying an improved version of de Pury and Farquhar (1997)
17 sun-shade model (Grünhage et al., 2011).

18

19 2.5. Local risk evaluation

20 A local risk evaluation was performed applying the SVAT model CRO₃PS (Grünhage et al.,
21 2011) based on the *big-leaf* model PLATIN (PLant-ATmosphere INteraction; Grünhage and
22 Haenel, 1997, 2008) incorporating the revised flux model described here. Risk assessments were
23 conducted with O₃ and meteorological data from the Environmental Monitoring and Climate Impact
24 Research Station Linden near Giessen (www.uni-giessen.de/cms/ukl-en) and using the O₃ data from
25 the monitoring station Radebeul-Wahnsdorf provided by Saxon State Agency for Environment,
26 Agriculture and Geology (LfULG) and the meteorological data of the nearby station Dresden-
27 Klotzsche of the German Weather Service. The calculations were conducted in four steps: (1)
28 upscaling the stomatal conductance of the flag leaf to canopy level, (2) modelling total O₃ flux and
29 calculation of O₃ concentration at canopy top, (3) calculation of flag leaf stomatal uptake and
30 Phytotoxic Ozone Dose *POD*₆, and (4) calculation of potential yield loss.

31

32 3. Results and discussion

33 3.1. Derivation of flag leaf maximum stomatal conductance

1 According to the stomatal flux approach briefly described in the introduction, stomatal uptake
2 estimations depend on the maximum stomatal conductance value for O₃ which can not be measured
3 directly. Generally, the stomatal conductance for O₃ is related to that of water vapour or carbon
4 dioxide by the ratio of the respective molecular diffusivities *D*:

$$5 \quad g_{\text{sto},\text{O}_3} = g_{\text{sto},\text{H}_2\text{O}} \cdot \frac{D_{\text{O}_3}}{D_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}} \quad \text{or} \quad g_{\text{sto},\text{O}_3} = g_{\text{sto},\text{CO}_2} \cdot \frac{D_{\text{O}_3}}{D_{\text{CO}_2}} \quad (5)$$

6 Because the diffusivity of O₃ in air has never been measured, it must be derived from the known
7 diffusivity of another gas or its characteristic properties.

8 The diffusivity ratios published in the literature (Table B1, Appendix B) show a variation of
9 approx. 10 % and are derived applying the model of Chen and Othmer (1962), the model of
10 Gilliland (1934) or Graham's law of diffusion (cf. Mason and Kronstadt, 1967).

11 The mean maximum stomatal conductance for O₃ of 450 mmol m⁻² PLA s⁻¹ derived in Pleijel et
12 al. (2007) from 7 studies published between 1989 and 2003 was based on a diffusivity ratio
13 *D*_{O₃}/*D*_{H₂O} of 0.613, a value which was derived by applying Graham's law of diffusion. As stated by
14 Massman (1998) in his review on molecular diffusivities of trace gases, the application of Graham's
15 law of diffusion for deriving molecular diffusivities from measured ones in air "is in opposition to
16 all theoretical results". Appendix A has been included since Massman's proposed values have been
17 largely ignored by the O₃ flux-effect community. It explains that the Massman diffusivity values at
18 standard temperature and pressure (273.15 K, 1013.25 hPa) are based on a sounder concept.
19 Massman's recommended molecular diffusivity for water vapour of 0.2178 cm² s⁻¹ agreed well with
20 the value of 0.219 ± 0.004 cm² s⁻¹ derived by an independent literature survey of Grünhage and
21 Haenel (1997). Massman's recommended value for the molecular diffusivity of O₃ is 0.1444
22 cm² s⁻¹. Based on the findings described in Appendix A, the ratios *D*_{H₂O, air}/*D*_{O₃, air}= 1.51 and
23 *D*_{O₃, air}/*D*_{H₂O, air}= 0.663 were selected. The change to a diffusivity ratio of 0.663 has implications for
24 several scientific areas including: (1) the parameterisation for total O₃ flux densities in soil-
25 vegetation-atmosphere-transfer models needs to be adapted, (2) the ratio of stomatal and non-
26 stomatal O₃ flux will change, and (3) dose-response functions have to be updated.

27 The results from measurements on 9 winter wheat cultivars currently in use commercially
28 performed in Linden, Braunschweig and Grignon are summarized in Figure 1 and compared with
29 values in Pleijel et al. (2007). All *g*_{max} values for O₃ are based on the diffusivity ratio *D*_{O₃, air}/*D*_{H₂O, air}
30 of 0.663. Overall, the variation in the range of *g*_{max} values is somewhat lower in the "modern" wheat
31 cultivars, i.e. cultivars currently in use, compared to the "older" ones, i.e. cultivars no longer grown
32 but used in the derivation of *g*_{max} by Pleijel et al. (2007). The average of all *g*_{max} values, which are
33 summarized in Table B2 (Appendix B), is 497 mmol O₃ m⁻² s⁻¹ (median: 492 mmol O₃ m⁻² s⁻¹).
34 For modelling purposes, a mean value of 500 mmol O₃ m⁻² s⁻¹ is recommended.

1 Obviously, the value of g_{\max} is the most important factor in stomatal uptake calculations (cf. eq.
2 4). As illustrated in Fig. 1 g_{\max} can vary to some extent from one wheat cultivar to another. For the
3 evaluation of potential yield losses, g_{\max} for the derivation of the stomatal uptake-effect
4 relationships, and the g_{\max} used in any specific crop loss assessment, must be identical. While the
5 improved risk assessment methodology presented in this paper produces more realistic crop loss
6 estimations, these may differ from the actual economic losses due to O_3 for a specific cultivar and a
7 specific site.

8

9 *3.2. Update of the Jarvis-Stewart functions*

10 The stomatal conductance measurements performed on "modern" winter wheat cultivars were in
11 agreement with the parameterizations for f_{light} and f_{temp} described by Pleijel et al (2007) (data not
12 shown) while the functions for phenology and soil moisture needed updating. As a consequence of
13 changing the diffusivity ratio $D_{O_3, \text{air}}/D_{H_2O, \text{air}}$ from 0.613 to 0.663 the coefficients of the Jarvis-
14 Stewart function for O_3 were adjusted. The revised parameterisations of the functions for
15 phenology, soil moisture and ozone are described below; the derivation of the unchanged functions
16 ($f_{\text{light}}, f_{\text{temp}}$) are described Pleijel et al. (2007).

17

18 *3.2.1. Phenology and toxicologically relevant accumulation period*

19 The influence of phenology on flag leaf stomatal conductance (f_{phen}) is parameterised based on
20 temperature sums (LRTAP Convention, 2010). In Pleijel et al. (2007) it was assumed that g_{\max}
21 occurred at mid-anthesis and the function shape was defined via two basic values, the start (A_{start})
22 and the end (A_{end}) of the accumulation period (linear increase of relative g from 0.8 to 1 between
23 A_{start} and day of mid-anthesis ($A_{\text{mid-anthesis}}$), and a linear decrease of relative g from 1 to 0.2 between
24 the day of mid-anthesis and A_{end} . The basis of this parameterisation was stomatal conductance
25 measurements performed in Östad, Sweden, in 1996 and 1999.

26 The stomatal conductance measurements performed on the nine "modern" winter wheat cultivars
27 and one spring wheat cultivar are summarized in Figure 2. Obviously, a decline of relative g from
28 mid-anthesis to A_{start} could not be verified by the new data. Additionally, a linear decrease of
29 relative g after mid-anthesis as assumed in the previous version of the Mapping Manual (LRTAP
30 Convention, 2009) does not fit the new data.

31 Based on these new data sets, the following revised f_{phen} parameterisation based on thermal time
32 accumulation (base temperature 0°C) is proposed. A_{start} will be equal to 200 degree days before
33 $A_{\text{mid-anthesis}}$ and A_{end} to 700 degree days after $A_{\text{mid-anthesis}}$. Accordingly, stomatal uptake is now
34 accumulated over a time period of 900 degree days which is slightly shorter than the period of 970

1 degree days used by Pleijel et al. (2007). As described in LRTAP Convention (2010), in the absence
 2 of observations from phenological networks, the timing of mid-anthesis can be estimated using a
 3 temperature sum of 1075 °C days calculated from plant emergence for spring wheat and after 1
 4 January for winter wheat. This value is supported by the observations in the 2009 experiment in
 5 Grignon: mid-anthesis occurred 1089 °C days after 1 January for the winter wheat cultivar Soissons
 6 and 1102 °C days for the cultivar Premio.

7 Start and end of the integration period are expressed via temperature sums before (f_{phen_e}) and
 8 after (f_{phen_i}) mid-anthesis ($A_{\text{mid-anthesis}}$; f_{phen_f}) with the denotation of f_{phen} taken from LRTAP
 9 Convention (2010) and illustrated in Figure 2. The parameters f_{phen_a} and f_{phen_b} denote fractions of
 10 g_{max} that g_{sto} takes at specific development stages after mid-anthesis defined by f_{phen_g} and f_{phen_h} , if
 11 all other modifying factors are unity. Thus, the parameterization of f_{phen} is given by:

12 when $(f_{\text{phen}_f} - f_{\text{phen}_e}) \leq \text{tt} \leq (f_{\text{phen}_f} + f_{\text{phen}_g})$
 13
$$f_{\text{phen}} = 1 \tag{6a}$$

14 when $(f_{\text{phen}_f} + f_{\text{phen}_g}) < \text{tt} \leq (f_{\text{phen}_f} + f_{\text{phen}_h})$
 15
$$f_{\text{phen}} = 1 - \left(\frac{f_{\text{phen}_a}}{f_{\text{phen}_h} - f_{\text{phen}_g}} \right) (\text{tt} - f_{\text{phen}_g}) \tag{6b}$$

16 when $(f_{\text{phen}_f} + f_{\text{phen}_h}) < \text{tt} \leq f_{\text{phen}_i}$
 17
$$f_{\text{phen}} = f_{\text{phen}_b} - \left(\frac{f_{\text{phen}_b}}{f_{\text{phen}_i} - f_{\text{phen}_h}} \right) (\text{tt} - f_{\text{phen}_h}) \tag{6c}$$

18 where tt is the effective temperature sum in degree days using a base temperature of 0 °C. By
 19 boundary line analysis f_{phen_a} is 0.3, $f_{\text{phen}_b} = 0.7$. $f_{\text{phen}_e} = 200$, $f_{\text{phen}_f} = 0$, $f_{\text{phen}_g} = 100$, $f_{\text{phen}_h} = 525$
 20 and $f_{\text{phen}_i} = 700$ °C days.

21 As illustrated in Fig. 2a, the form of the revised phenology function (boundary line) fits to the
 22 measured conductances. Conductance measurements performed in Grignon, France, in 2009
 23 support the new f_{phen} parameterisation (Fig. 2b). However, in comparison with the phenology
 24 relationship vs. °C days in CERES-Wheat (Ritchie and Otter, 1983), the revised phenology function
 25 shows a slightly delayed progress in senescence.

26

27 3.2.2. Soil moisture

28 In the previous versions of LRTAP Convention (2010), a Jarvis-Stewart function describing the
 29 effect of soil moisture on stomatal aperture based on soil water potential was used. This function
 30 was derived from data published in the peer-reviewed literature. Field evidence suggested that this
 31 function did not adequately represent stomatal conductance during periods of drought if the mean

1 soil water potential of the rooted soil layer is used (data not presented), and alternative approaches
 2 were evaluated. A conceptual change from a function based on soil water potential to one based on
 3 available plant soil water content (PAW ; range of soil water in the rooted zone between field
 4 capacity ($PAW = 100\%$) and permanent wilting point ($PAW = 0\%$)) was applied.

5 There is evidence from field studies (Burkart et al. 2004, Grünhage et al. 2010, 2011) that
 6 stomatal conductance responds to PAW below a threshold of 50%. For the revised parameterisation
 7 of stomatal response to soil moisture content of wheat, the function according to Sadras and Milroy
 8 (1996) was selected:

$$\begin{aligned}
 f_{PAW} &= 1 && \text{if } PAW_t \leq PAW \leq 100\% \\
 f_{PAW} &= 1 + \frac{PAW - PAW_t}{PAW_t} && \text{if } PAW < PAW_t
 \end{aligned} \tag{7}$$

10 where PAW is the actual plant available water content of the rooted zone [%] and PAW_t is the
 11 threshold PAW of 50 % above which relative stomatal conductance is at maximum, i.e. unity.
 12 Because the threshold may be depend on soil type, for risk assessments at a specific field site it is
 13 recommended to adapt the PAW_t value for the specific soil conditions.

14

15 3.2.3. Ozone

16 Based on observations of the onset of early senescence due to O_3 (Gelang et al., 2000; Pleijel et
 17 al., 1997), Pleijel et al. (2002) and Danielsson et al. (2003) included a Jarvis-Stewart function (f_{O_3})
 18 in g_{sto} parameterisation to allow for the influence of O_3 on stomatal conductance. The application of
 19 the updated diffusivity ratio required an adjustment of the coefficients used in Pleijel et al. (2007).
 20 The recalculated O_3 function is

$$f_{O_3} = \left(1 + \left(\frac{POD_0}{14} \right)^8 \right)^{-1} \tag{8}$$

22 where POD_0 is the Phytotoxic Ozone Dose accumulated from A_{start} without any threshold.

23

24 3.3. Updated stomatal flux-based response functions for effects on grain yield, grain mass and 25 protein yield

26 Based on the updated parameterisation of the flag leaf stomatal conductance model described
 27 here, the stomatal uptake-effect relationships for effects on wheat were revised and new ones were
 28 derived (Figure 3):

$$\text{relative grain yield} = 1.00 - 0.038 \cdot POD_6$$

29

1 relative grain mass = $1.00 - 0.033 \cdot POD_6$

2 relative protein yield = $1.01 - 0.025 \cdot POD_6$

3 with POD_6 in $\text{mmol} \cdot \text{m}^{-2}$ PLA (PLA is the projected leaf area). The strongest correlations
4 between relative yield (grain yield, grain mass, protein yield) and stomatal flux of O_3 to the flag leaf
5 accumulated in the toxicologically relevant period during daylight hours (POD , Phytotoxic Ozone
6 Dose) were obtained using an O_3 flux threshold of $6 \text{ nmol } O_3 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ PLA s}^{-1}$ (Pleijel et al., 2007). In
7 comparison with Pleijel et al., (2007), the slope of the regression for effects on grain yield declines
8 because the new stomatal uptake parameterization allows for larger stomatal flux. Because the R^2
9 values are similar to the earlier ones (grain yield: $0.83 \rightarrow 0.84$, grain mass: $0.75 \rightarrow 0.71$, protein
10 yield: $0.59 \rightarrow 0.63$) it can be concluded that the model system used is robust. The new flux-effect
11 relationships for relative grain mass (often expressed as "1000-grain weight" in an agronomic
12 context) and relative protein yield (Figure 3b and c) provide comprehensive quality-based
13 functions, particularly relevant in a of food security context.

14 The response functions shown in Figure 3 were used to derive new flux-based critical levels,
15 above which direct adverse effects may occur (see Mills et al., 2011b for further details). The
16 relationships described in Figure 3 are suitable for quantifying impacts of O_3 and assessing
17 economic losses.

18

19 3.4. Modelled versus measured stomatal conductances

20 As illustrated in Figure 4, stomatal conductances calculated according to the new
21 parameterization and upscaled to canopy level fit with canopy stomatal conductances derived from
22 measurements with a portable gas exchange chamber system (Burkart et al., 2007) performed at a
23 winter wheat field in Braunschweig in 2009. The modelled stomatal conductances at leaf level were
24 upscaled to canopy level applying an improved version of de Pury and Farquhar (1997) sun-shade
25 model; for details see Grünhage et al. (2011). T_{\min} was adjusted to $10 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ based on site-specific
26 observations. The experiment in Braunschweig provides the first validation of the new stomatal
27 conductance parameterization at field level.

28

29 3.5. Examples of the application of the revised flux-effect models at the local scale

30 According to the European Council Directive on ambient air quality and cleaner air for Europe
31 (Council Directive 2008/50/EC) local risk assessments for ozone have to be based on the
32 parameters routinely measured by the European air quality monitoring networks. Recently, a SVAT
33 model named CRO₃PS was published (Grünhage et al., 2011) which provides a validated

1 methodology for a local risk evaluation for winter wheat based on the critical level concept
2 described here.

3 A risk evaluation performed for the fields at the Environmental Monitoring and Climate Impact
4 Research Station Linden, Germany, illustrates the potentially strong influence of soil moisture on
5 stomatal O₃ uptake and potential grain yield losses by including and excluding the influence of soil
6 moisture in the rooted zone (Fig. 5). Assuming no soil water limitation on stomatal behaviour, i.e.
7 $f_{PAW} = 1$, annual POD_6 values are 2 to 5 times higher than the *critical level* of 1 mmol m⁻². Such an
8 analysis can be interpreted as a worst-case assessment for potential yield losses due to O₃, which
9 provides the maximum potential yield loss. Depending on soil moisture conditions, POD_6 can be
10 significantly reduced. The differences between both cases can be interpreted as the range of
11 potential yield loss due to O₃ at a given site for a particular growing season. The extent of this range
12 is likely to vary with the climatic conditions of the site, more humid sites having a smaller range.

13 A worst-case O₃ risk evaluation ($f_{PAW} = 1$) over 37 years for relative grain and protein yield is
14 provided in Figure 6 for the monitoring station Radebeul-Wahnsdorf of the air quality monitoring
15 network in Saxony, Germany. This monitoring station exhibits the longest O₃ time series in
16 Germany (since 1974; Fig. 7). The effect of soil moisture could not be considered for this site,
17 because hourly precipitation data are not available.

18 Annual POD_6 values increased gradually until the mid 1990s reaching more or less constant
19 values of 4 to 5 mmol m⁻² (Fig. 6). From the mid 1980s onwards the critical level of 1 mmol m⁻²
20 for relative wheat grain yield was exceeded every year up to a factor of 5 and the critical levels of 2
21 mmol m⁻² for grain mass and protein yield were exceeded up to a factor of 2.5. Relative grain yield
22 losses between 15 and 20 % were estimated since 1995 (Fig. 6a); between 9 and 12 % were
23 predicted for relative protein yield losses (Fig. 6b).

24

25 **4. Conclusions**

26 The improvement of the stomatal conductance model for wheat described in this paper is based
27 on conductance measurements made on nine different European winter wheat cultivars currently in
28 use commercially and on a literature survey regarding the appropriate value for the molecular
29 diffusivity for O₃. As a result of the new parameterisations of $g_{sto, max}$, f_{phen} and f_{PAW} , the modelled
30 stomatal conductances agree well with upscaled conductances from measurements on winter wheat
31 in Braunschweig. The slope of the regression between relative grain yield and POD_6 to the flag leaf
32 as described in Pleijel et al. (2007) changed slightly, with a small improvement in R² from 0.83 to
33 0.84. Based on the data set described in Piikki et al. (2008), additional flux-effect relationships for
34 relative grain mass and relative protein yield were derived for the first time for use in risk

1 assessment. Although the stomatal conductance model has been improved using data from currently
2 grown cultivars of wheat, no new data sets are currently available to validate the above mentioned
3 flux-effect relationships. Thus, the dose-response relationships are based on open-top chamber
4 experiments with spring and durum wheat cultivars grown in the late 1980s and 1990s (cf. Pleijel et
5 al., 2007). New exposure experiments, specifically designed to derive and test flux-effect
6 relationships using the most recent cultivars, are required. However, the sensitivity of the response
7 functions to the changes in the calibration of the conductance model was small, which indicates that
8 the current response functions are robust.

9 Further improvements would include parameterisation of the dynamics of the O₃ detoxification
10 capacity of the plants. Currently, the statistically derived constant flux threshold of 6 nmol m⁻² PLA
11 s⁻¹ is removed from the calculated hourly stomatal flux during the accumulation period to account
12 for detoxification. Obviously, this constant threshold flux does not reflect any temporal variation
13 (diurnal or through the growing season) of the plant defence capacity. Despite these limitations, the
14 improvements and validation of the parameterisations described here have provided robust flux-
15 response relationships using data derived from four European countries with contrasting climates
16 that are applicable for quantifying the growing threat from air pollution to both yield quantity and
17 quality.

18 Using the flux-effect relationship described here, significant potential economic losses have been
19 predicted for a large area of Europe including central European countries such as Germany and
20 France, Mediterranean countries such as Italy, and northern countries such as the UK, Denmark and
21 southern areas of Sweden assuming no soil water limitation on stomatal behaviour (i.e. worst-case
22 assessment; Mills and Harmens, 2011). The improvements described in this paper have thus
23 provided a risk assessment method that has been updated for modern cultivars and can be applied at
24 a range of scales from local to regional to assess the growing threat from ozone pollution to the
25 security of food supplies.

26

27

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3

4

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- 18
- 19

1 Appendix A: Derivation of molecular diffusivity for O₃

2 As mentioned in section 4.1, the diffusivity ratios summarized in Table B1 (Appendix B) are
3 derived applying three different concepts:

- 4 • the model of Chen and Othmer (1962),
 - 5 • the model of Gilliland (1934)
- 6 or
- 7 • Graham's law of diffusion (cf. Mason and Kronstadt, 1967).

8 Laisk et al. (1989) and Massman (1998) calculated D_{O_3} [cm²·s⁻¹] applying the Chen-Othmer model:

$$9 \quad D(T, p) = \frac{2.616 \cdot \sqrt{\frac{1}{M_i} + \frac{1}{M_j}} \cdot \left(\frac{T}{T_0}\right)^{1.81}}{\left(\frac{T_{c_i} \cdot T_{c_j}}{10^4}\right)^{0.1405} \cdot \left[\left(\frac{V_{c_i}}{100}\right)^{0.4} + \left(\frac{V_{c_j}}{100}\right)^{0.4}\right]^2} \quad (A1)$$

10 where T is the temperature exposed in K and p the standard pressure of 1 atmosphere. The
11 subscripts "i" and "j" refer to the specific gases under consideration, M_i and M_j are their respective
12 molecular masses [g mol⁻¹], T_{c_i} and T_{c_j} are their respective critical temperature [K] and V_{c_i} and V_{c_j}
13 are their respective critical volumes [cm³ mol⁻¹]. The three characteristic parameters were extracted
14 by Laisk et al. (1989) as well as by Massman (1998) from the "CRC Handbook of Chemistry and
15 Physics", while Massman (1998) refer to edition no. 73 (Lide, 1992) and Laisk et al. (1989) to the
16 older ones no. 37 (Hodgman et al., 1956) and no. 63 (Weast and Astle, 1983).

17 Massman (1998) calculates D_{O_3} in O₂ and N₂. Applying Blanc's law yields for $D_{O_3, \text{air}}$:

$$18 \quad D_{O_3, \text{air}}(T, p) = \left[\frac{0.79}{D_{O_3, N_2}(T, p)} + \frac{0.21}{D_{O_3, O_2}(T, p)} \right]^{-1} \quad (A2)$$

19 The ratio D_{H_2O}/D_{O_3} from Erisman et al. (1994) was derived applying the model of Gilliland (1934)
20 and the values given in Perry (1950):

$$21 \quad D = 0.0043 \cdot \frac{T^{3/2}}{p \cdot (V_i^{1/3} + V_j^{1/3})^2} \cdot \sqrt{\frac{1}{M_i} + \frac{1}{M_j}} \quad (A3)$$

22 with T is the temperature [K], p the atmospheric pressure [atm], the subscripts "i" and "j" refer to
23 the specific gases under consideration, M_i and M_j are their respective molecular masses [g mol⁻¹]
24 and V_i and V_j are their molecular volumes at the normal boiling points [cm²/g.mole]. The ratio given
25 in Erisman et al. (1994) results if gas i is O₃ and gas j is H₂O.

26 The other values given in Table B1 (Appendix B) are based on Graham's law of diffusion. It can be
27 stated as follows: "when two gases interdiffuse at uniform pressure, their fluxes are in the inverse

1 *ratio of the square roots of their molecular weights*" (Mason and Kronstadt, 1967; Mason and
2 Evans 1969; Mason 1971):

$$3 \quad -\frac{J_i}{J_j} = \sqrt{\frac{M_j}{M_i}} \quad (\text{A4})$$

4 As cited in Mason and Kronstadt (1967), the assumption that "*the diffusion coefficients of gases 2*
5 *(identical to gas i in eqs. above) and 3 (identical to gas j in eqs. above) into a reference gas 1 should*
6 *vary inversely as the square roots of the molecular weights of 2 and 3*",

$$7 \quad -\frac{J_2}{J_3} = \frac{D_{12}}{D_{13}} \approx \sqrt{\frac{M_3}{M_2}} \quad (\text{A5})$$

8 is "*only a crude approximation for most systems, although it is correct in the limiting case that the*
9 *reference gas 1 has molecules which are infinitely large and heavy compared to molecules of 2 and*
10 *3*". Obviously, this precondition is not met by air as reference gas 1 and is the explanation for the
11 different values for $D_{\text{O}_3, \text{air}}/D_{\text{H}_2\text{O}, \text{air}}$ given in Table B1 (Appendix B).

12 Massman (1998) stated that "*the misapplication of Graham's law*" according to

$$13 \quad \frac{D_{\text{O}_3, \text{air}}}{D_{\text{H}_2\text{O}, \text{air}}} = \frac{D_{\text{x}, \text{air}} \cdot \sqrt{\frac{M_{\text{x}}}{M_{\text{O}_3}}}}{D_{\text{H}_2\text{O}, \text{air}}} \quad (\text{A6})$$

14 "*is in opposition to all theoretical results*". The coincidence of the ratios of Massman (1998) and
15 Grünhage and Haenel (1997, 2008) can be explained by the choice of O_2 as gas "x" and the applied
16 value of D_{O_2} .

17

1 **Appendix B**

2

Table B1Diffusivity (D) ratios of different gases in air published in the literature. M is molar mass.

$D_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}/D_{\text{O}_3}$	$D_{\text{O}_3}/D_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$	Publication
ACCORDING TO CHEN & OTHMER (1962), CF. APPENDIX A		
1.67	0.599	Laisk et al. (1989)
1.51	0.663	calculated according to diffusivities cited in Massman (1998)
ACCORDING TO GILLILAND (1934) AND PERRY (1950), CF. APPENDIX A		
1.5	0.667	Erismann et al. (1994)
ACCORDING TO GRAHAM'S LAW OF DIFFUSION (CF. MASON & KRONSTADT 1967), CF. APPENDIX A		
$D_{\text{O}_3} = D_{\text{H}_2\text{O}} \cdot \sqrt{(M_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}/M_{\text{O}_3})}$		
1.63	0.613	recalculated from values given in Pleijel et al. (2007)
1.6	0.625	Simpson et al. (2003) after Wesely (1989)
1.67	0.6	Emberson et al. (2000b)
1.64	0.61	Wesely et al. (1982)
1.6	0.625	Wesely (1989)

$D_{\text{O}_3} = D_{\text{O}_2} \cdot \sqrt{(M_{\text{O}_2}/M_{\text{O}_3})} = 0.145 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ with $D_{\text{O}_2} = 0.178 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$		
and $D_{\text{H}_2\text{O}} = 0.219 \pm 0.004 \cdot \text{cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$		
1.51	0.662	Grünhage & Haenel (1997)

$D_{\text{O}_3} = D_{\text{CO}_2} \cdot \sqrt{(M_{\text{CO}_2}/M_{\text{O}_3})} = 0.131 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ with $D_{\text{CO}_2} = 0.137 \pm 0.004 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$		
and $D_{\text{H}_2\text{O}} = 0.219 \pm 0.004 \cdot \text{cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$		
1.67	0.598	calculated from values given in Grünhage and Haenel (1997)

3

4

Appendix B

Table B2

Derivation of mean flag leaf maximum stomatal conductance for ozone ($D_{O_3, \text{air}}/D_{H_2O, \text{air}} = 0.663$)

Wheat type and cultivar	Country	Growing conditions	Measuring apparatus	Time of day	Time of year	g_{max} derivation	g_{max} [mmol O ₃ m ⁻² s ⁻¹ PLA]
Spring wheat, Kolibri	Spain	Field	LI-COR 1600	9 to 13 hrs	14 March to 21 May	cf. LRTAP Convention (2009)	435
Spring wheat, Astral	Spain	Field	LI-COR 1600	9 to 13 hrs	14 March to 21 May	cf. LRTAP Convention (2009)	376
Spring wheat, Boulmiche	Spain	Field	LI-COR 1600	9 to 13 hrs	14 March to 21 May	cf. LRTAP Convention (2009)	366
Spring wheat, Cadensa	Denmark	Field Lysimeter	LI-COR 6200	(Assumed mid-day)	August	cf. LRTAP Convention (2009)	660
Spring wheat, Turbo	Germany	Field	LI-COR 1600	11 to 12 hrs	17 June to 7 August	cf. LRTAP Convention (2009)	525
Spring wheat, Dragon	Sweden	Field OTC & AA	LI-COR 6200	13 hrs	13 August 1996 (AA)	cf. LRTAP Convention (2009)	548
Durum wheat, Janus	Austria	Field	Ventilated diffusion porometer	-	-	cf. LRTAP Convention (2009)	492
Winter wheat, Astron	Germany	OTC (NF)	LI-COR 6400	measured at 10 hrs	24 May to 14 June 2006	653 mmol H ₂ O m ⁻² s ⁻¹	433
Winter wheat, Pegassos	Germany	OTC (NF)	LI-COR 6400	measured at 10 CET	24 May to 14 June 2006	650 mmol H ₂ O m ⁻² s ⁻¹	431
Winter wheat, Opus	Germany	Field	Decagon SC-1	measured at 11 CET	26 May to 02 June 2009	839 mmol H ₂ O m ⁻² s ⁻¹ (adaxial=524, abaxial=315)	556
Winter wheat, Manager - *)	Germany	Field	Decagon SC-1	measured at 10 CET	26 May to 02 June 2009	770 mmol H ₂ O m ⁻² s ⁻¹ (adaxial=439, abaxial=331)	511
Winter wheat, Carenius	Germany	Field	Decagon SC-1	measured at 13 CET	26 May to 02 June 2009	729 mmol H ₂ O m ⁻² s ⁻¹ (adaxial=451, abaxial=278)	483
Winter wheat, Manager + *)	Germany	Field	Decagon SC-1	measured at 11:30 CET	26 May to 02 June 2009	849 mmol H ₂ O m ⁻² s ⁻¹ (adaxial=485, abaxial=364)	563
Winter wheat, Limes	Germany	Field	Decagon SC-1	measured at 11:30 CET	26 May to 02 June 2009	766 mmol H ₂ O m ⁻² s ⁻¹ (adaxial=510, abaxial=256)	508
Winter wheat, Cubus	Germany	Field	Decagon SC-1	measured at 11:30 CET	20 May to 02 June 2009	894 mmol H ₂ O m ⁻² s ⁻¹ (adaxial=595, abaxial=299)	593
Winter wheat, Soissons	France	Field	PP systems CIRAS-2	11 to 16 CET	6 to 27 May 2009	714.4 ± 42.1 mmol H ₂ O m ⁻² s ⁻¹	474
Winter wheat, Premio	France	Field	PP systems CIRAS-2	11 to 16 CET	6 to 27 May 2009	741.6 ± 72.8 mmol H ₂ O m ⁻² s ⁻¹	492

*) Manager - : cultivar Manager grown at a field with non-optimal soil water conditions due to soil texture

Manager + : cultivar Manager grown at a field with optimal soil water conditions due to soil texture

Note: Data from LRTAP Convention (2009) can be found in Pleijel et al. (2007)

1 **Figure captions:**

2

3 **Fig. 1.** Maximum stomatal conductance for wheat ($D_{O_3, \text{air}}/D_{H_2O, \text{air}} = 0.663$) in a range of different
4 cultivars. (dots: g_{max} values described in the previous version of the LRTAP Convention's Mapping
5 Manual; diamonds: g_{max} values derived from measurements on winter wheat cultivars currently in
6 use commercially)

7

8

9 **Fig. 2a.** Relative stomatal conductance and boundary line for the modifying influence of phenology
10 on stomatal conductance vs. thermal time from day of mid-anthesis.

11

12 **Fig. 2b.** Relative stomatal conductance and boundary line for the modifying influence of phenology
13 on stomatal conductance vs. thermal time from day of mid-anthesis. Validation data set.

14

15

16 **Fig. 3.** The relationship between relative yield of wheat and Phytotoxic Ozone Dose above a
17 threshold flux of $6 \text{ nmol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ (POD_6) for the flag leaf based on five wheat cultivars from three or
18 four European countries (BE: Belgium, FI: Finland, IT: Italy, SE: Sweden) using effective
19 temperature sum to describe phenology: a) relative grain yield, b) relative grain mass, and c)
20 relative protein yield. The dashed lines indicate the 95%-confidence intervals.

21

22

23 **Fig. 4.** Modelled leaf level stomatal conductance upscaled to canopy level vs. measured canopy
24 stomatal conductance. Comparison period: 2009-06-06 to 2009-06-17, 11 am to 4 pm CET.

25

26

27 **Fig. 5.** Phytotoxic Ozone Dose (POD_6) and potential grain yield loss for Linden, Hesse, Germany.
28 Risk evaluation according to the LRTAP Convention's Mapping Manual (LRTAP Convention,
29 2010)

30

31 - "black and white" for the printed version

32 - "coloured" for the Web

33

34

35 **Fig. 6a.** Phytotoxic Ozone Dose (POD_6) and potential grain yield loss for Radebeul-Wahnsdorf,
36 Saxony. Worst-case risk evaluation according to the LRTAP Convention's Mapping Manual
37 (LRTAP Convention, 2010)

38 data source: O_3 concentration - air quality monitoring network Saxony, meteorological data - monitoring station
39 Dresden-Klotzsche of the German Weather Service

40

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43

44

1 **Fig. 6b.** Phytotoxic Ozone Dose (POD_6) and potential protein yield loss for Radebeul-Wahnsdorf,
2 Saxony. Worst-case risk evaluation according to the LRTAP Convention's Mapping Manual
3 (LRTAP Convention, 2010)
4 data source: O_3 concentration - air quality monitoring network Saxony, meteorological data - monitoring station
5 Dresden-Klotzsche of the German Weather Service

6
7 - "black and white" for the printed version
8 - "coloured" for the Web

9
10
11 **Fig. 7.** Time series of mean O_3 concentration at the air quality monitoring station Radebeul-
12 Wahnsdorf, Germany

13
14 - "black and white" for the printed version
15 - "coloured" for the Web

16

Figure 1
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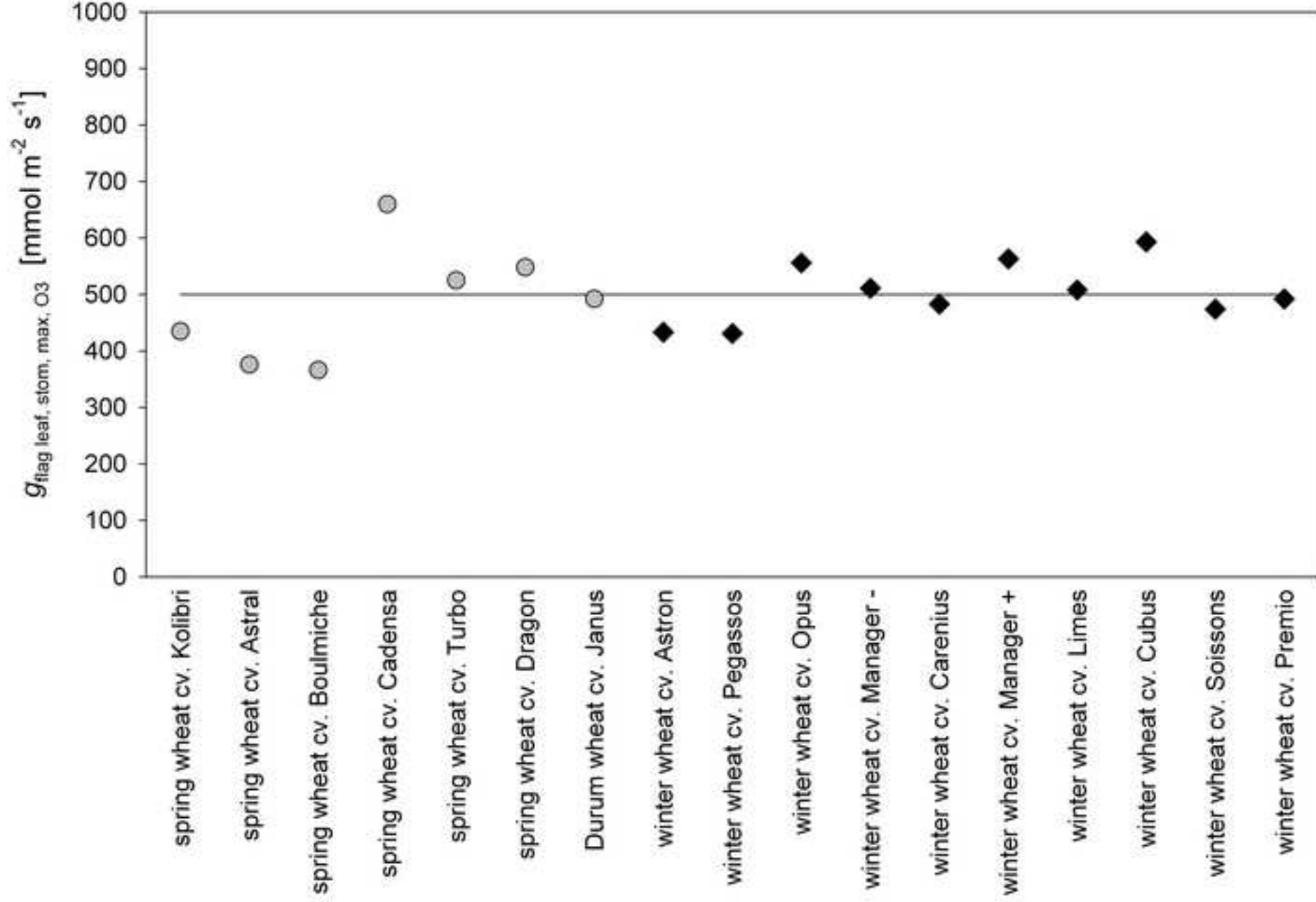
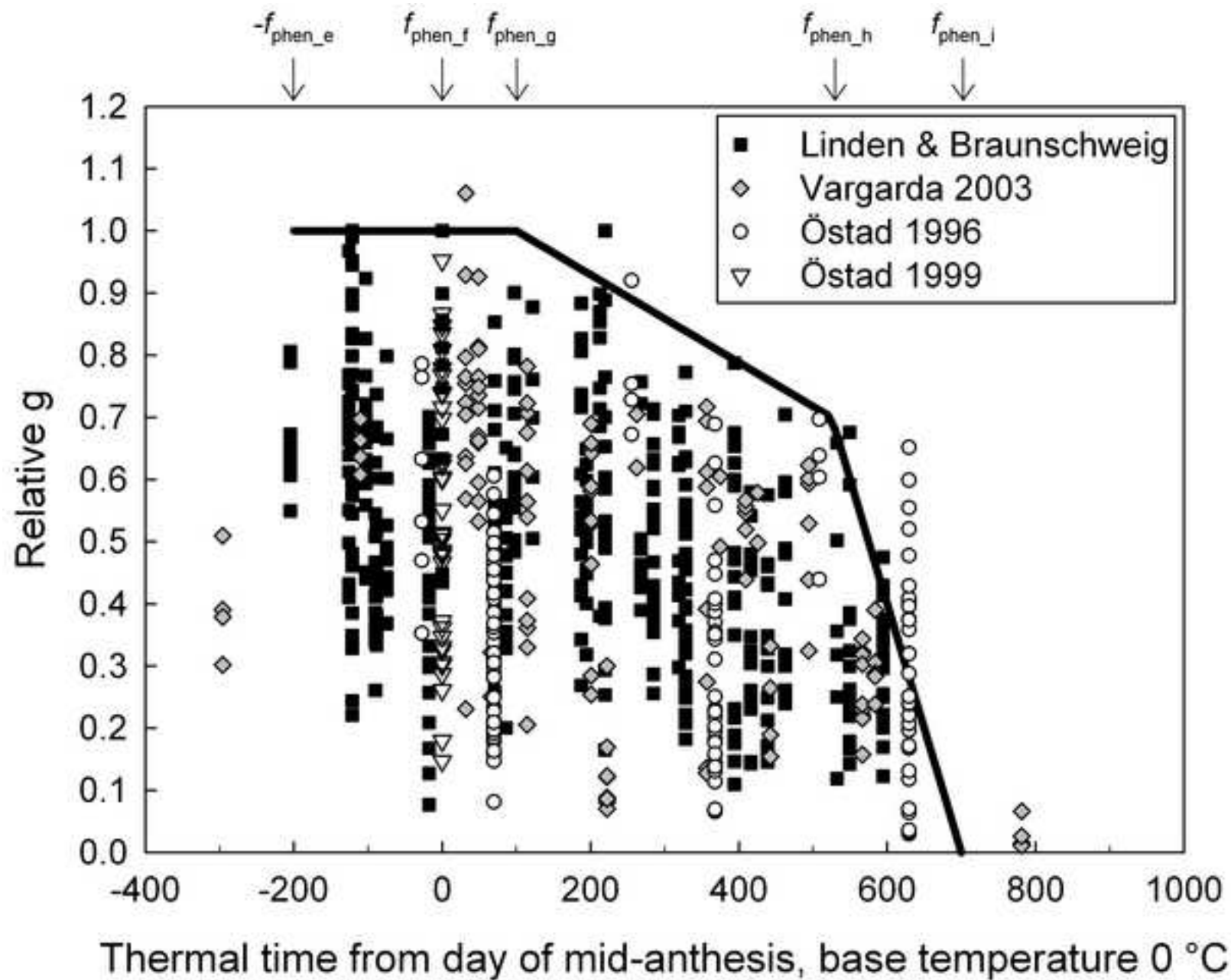


Figure 2a

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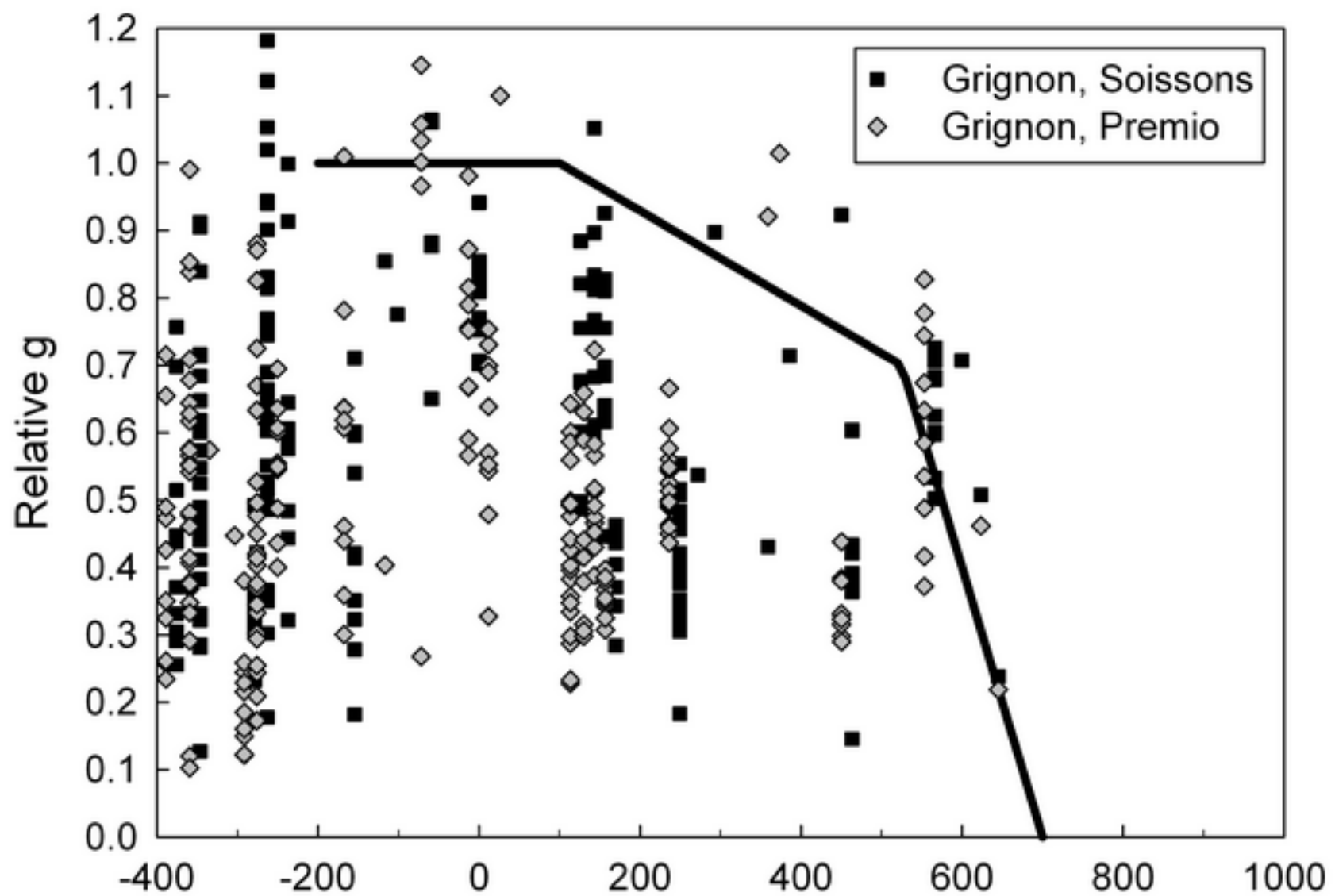


A_{start} : -200 °C days before mid-anthesis

A_{end} : 700 °C days after mid-anthesis

Figure 2b

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Thermal time from day of mid-anthesis, base temperature 0 °C

A_{start} : -200 °C days before mid-anthesis

A_{end} : 700 °C days after mid-anthesis

Figure 3
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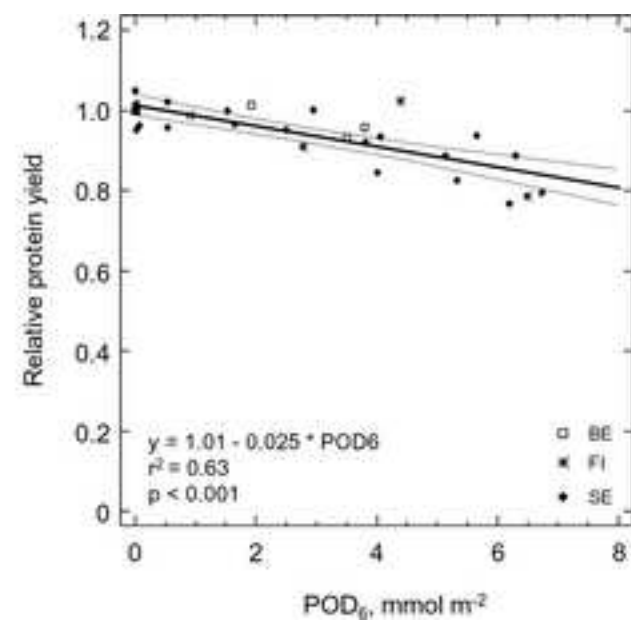
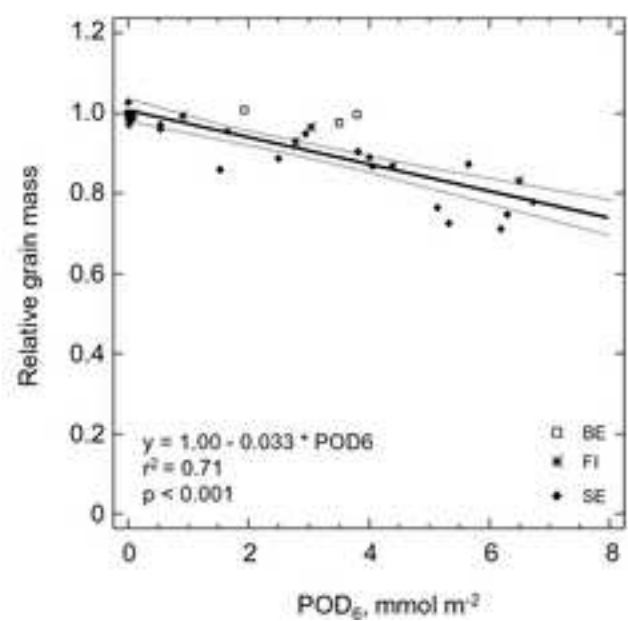
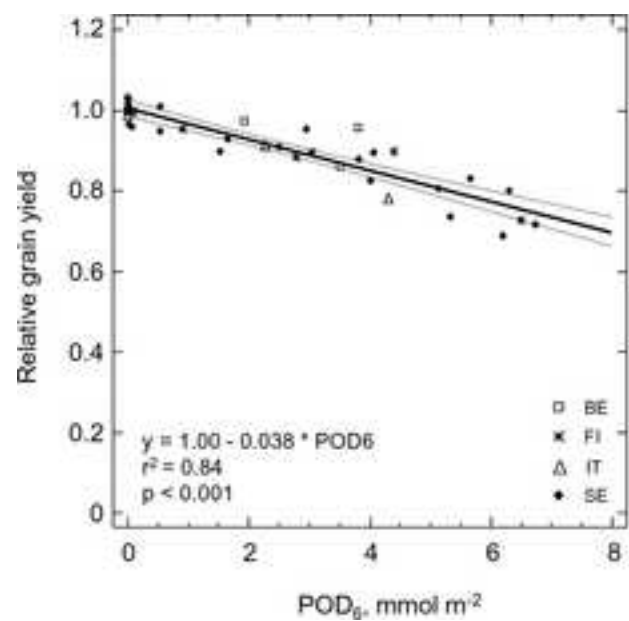


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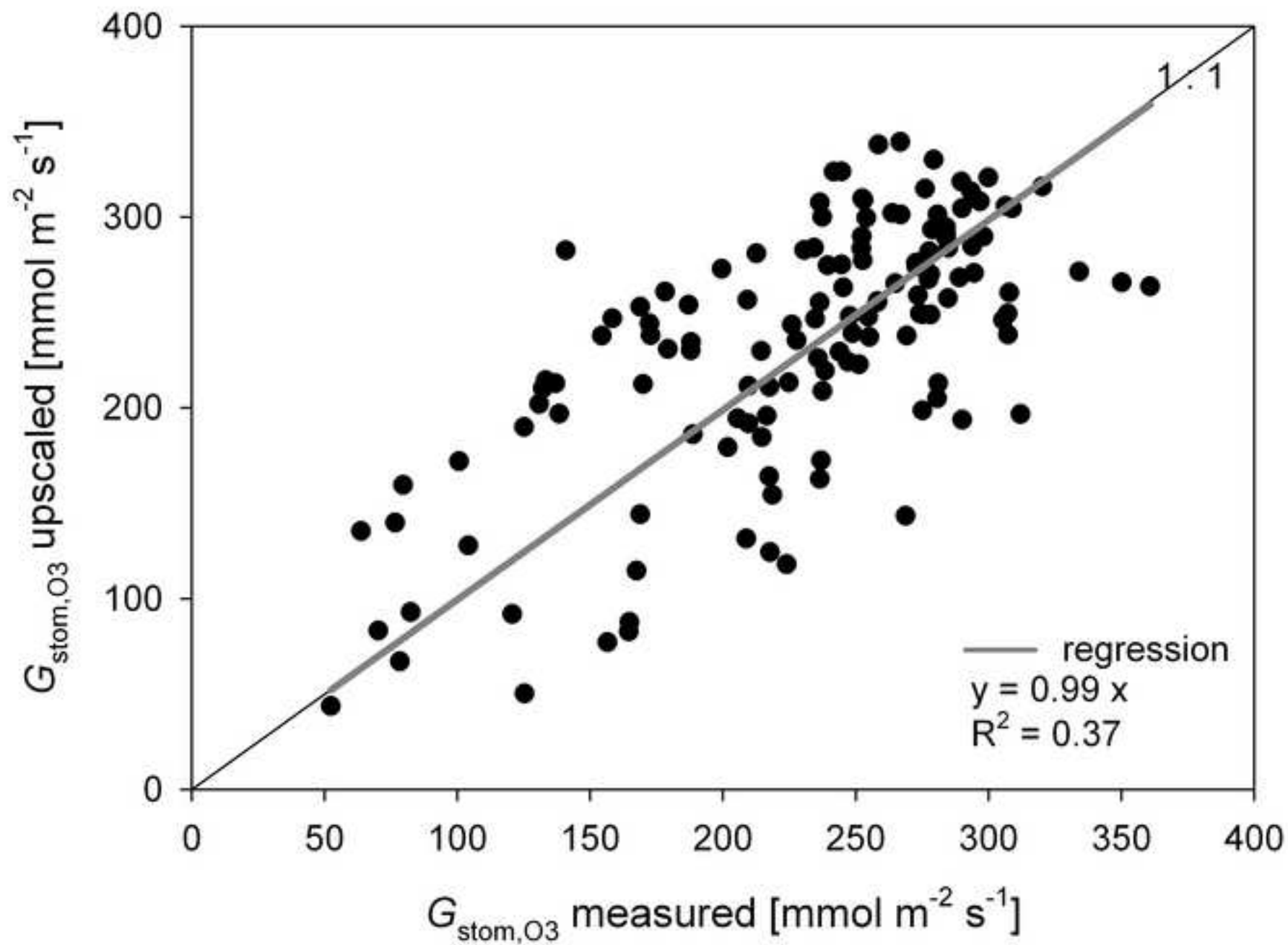


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grain yield

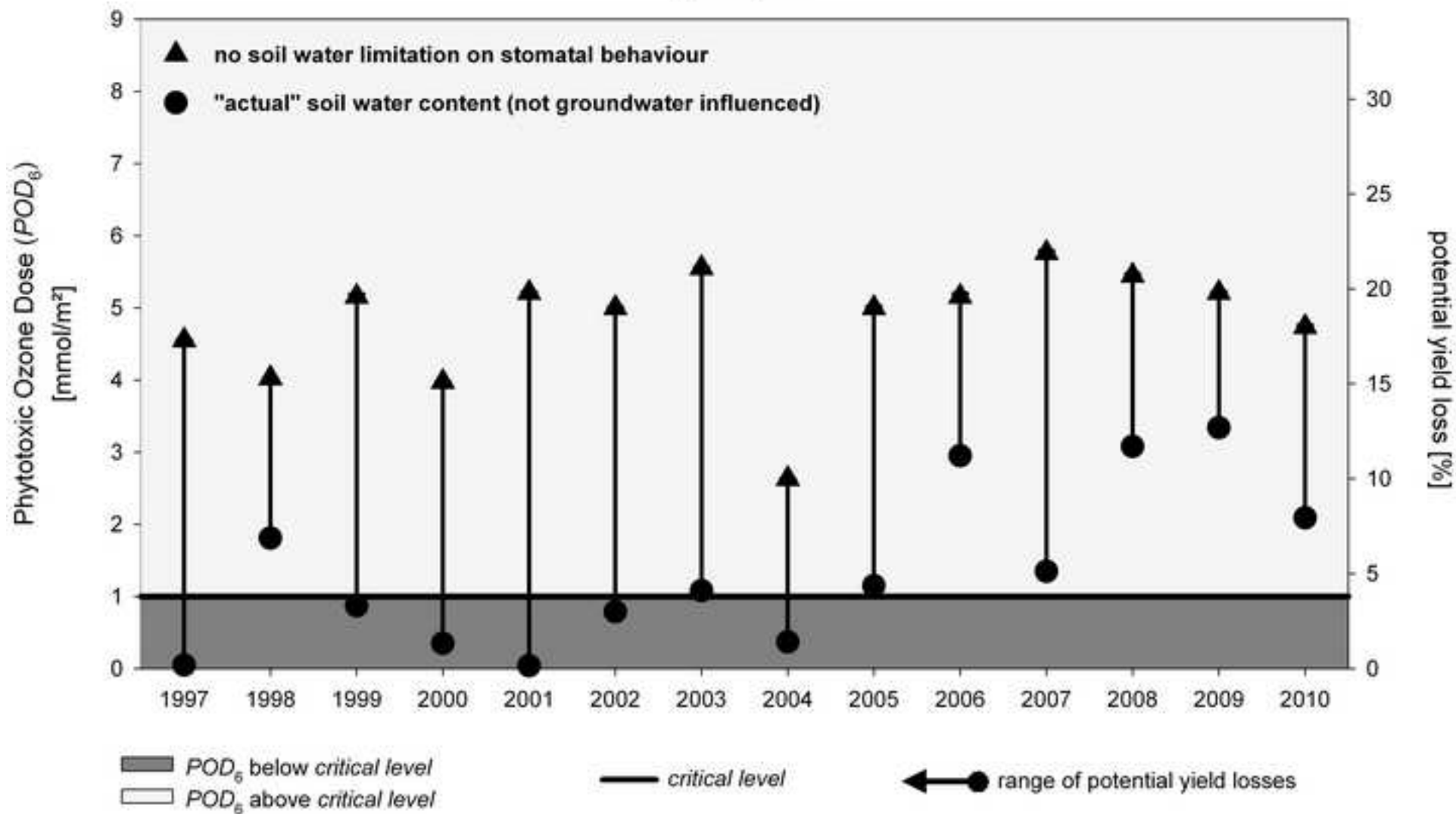


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grain yield

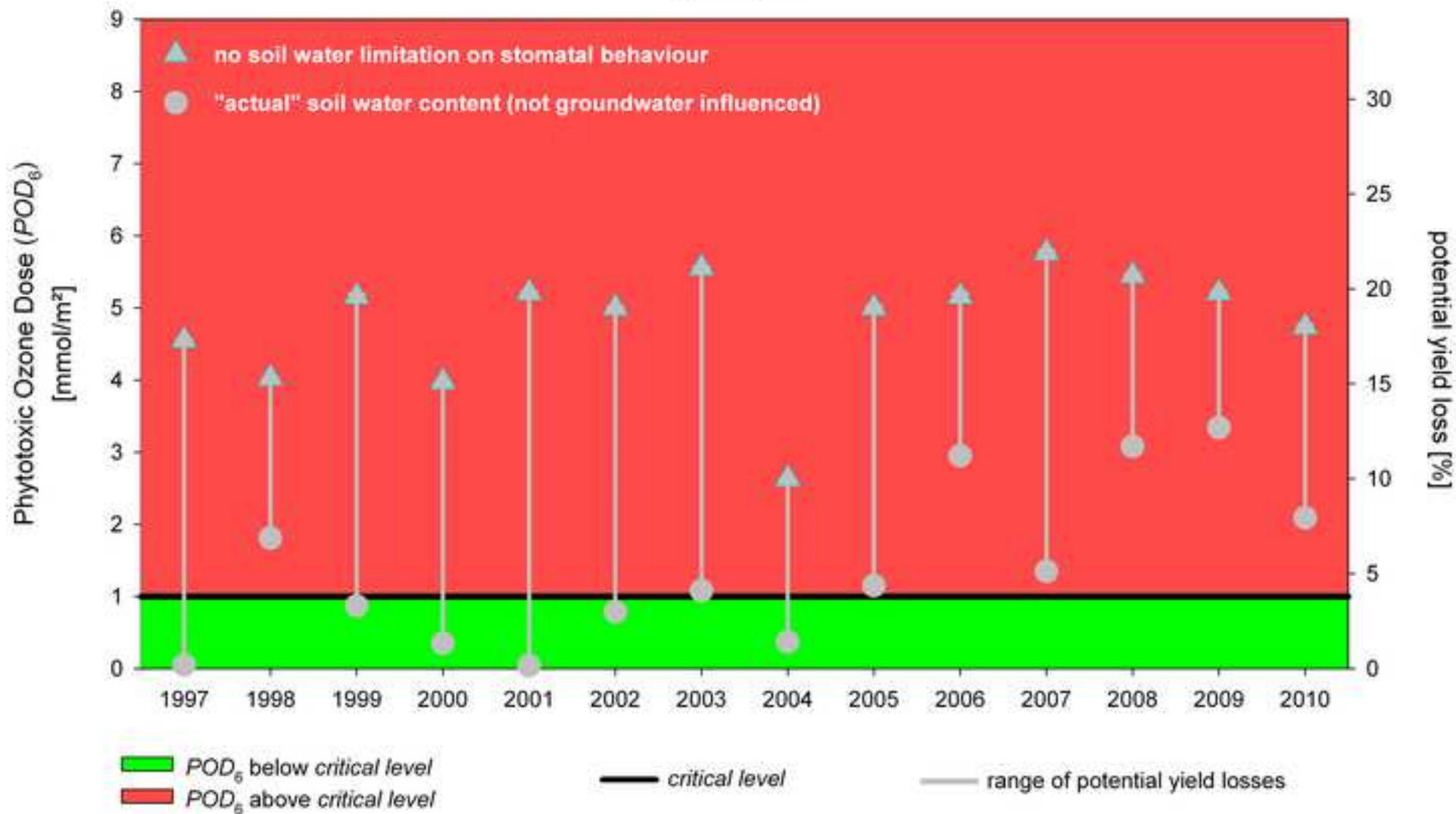


Figure 6a b&w
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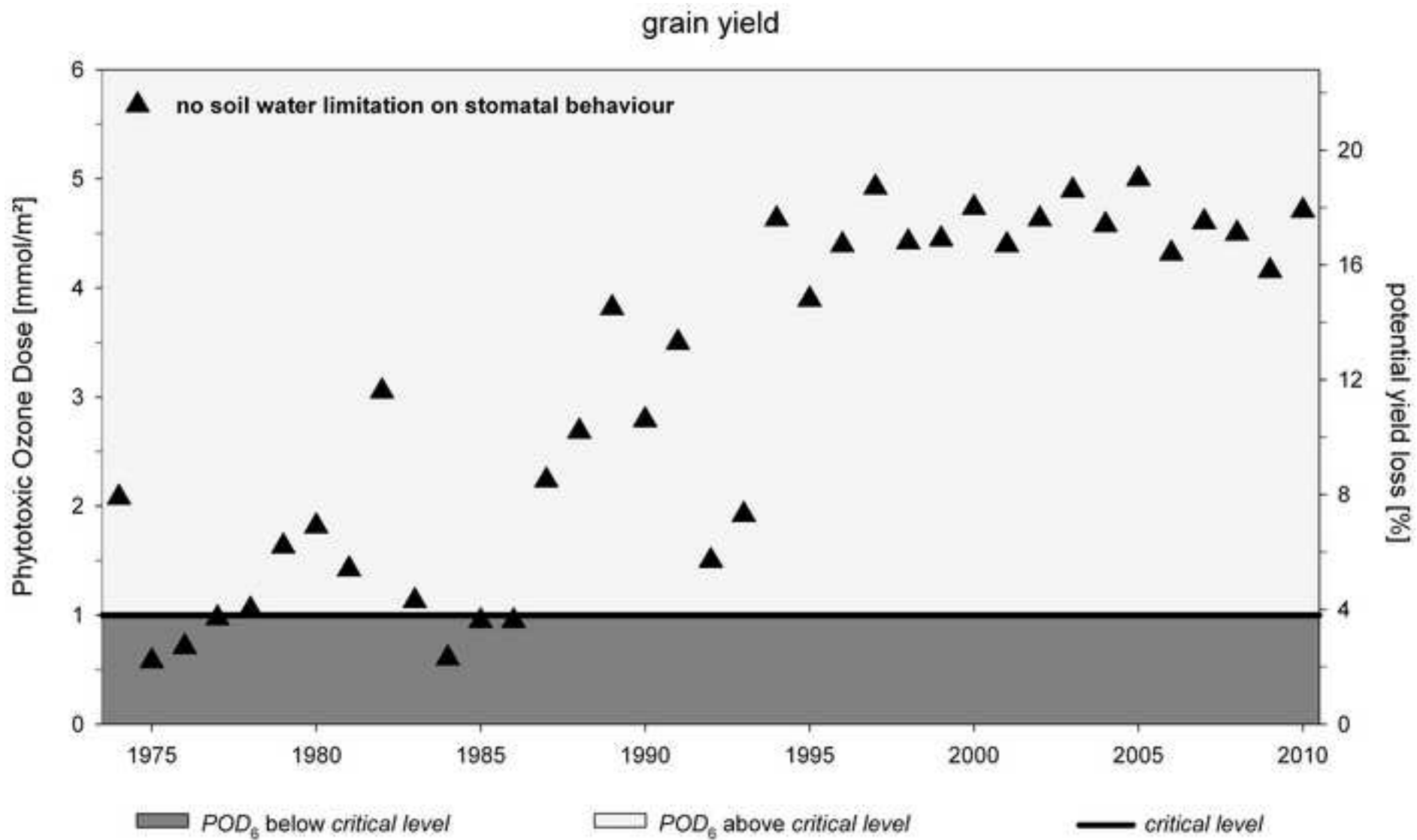


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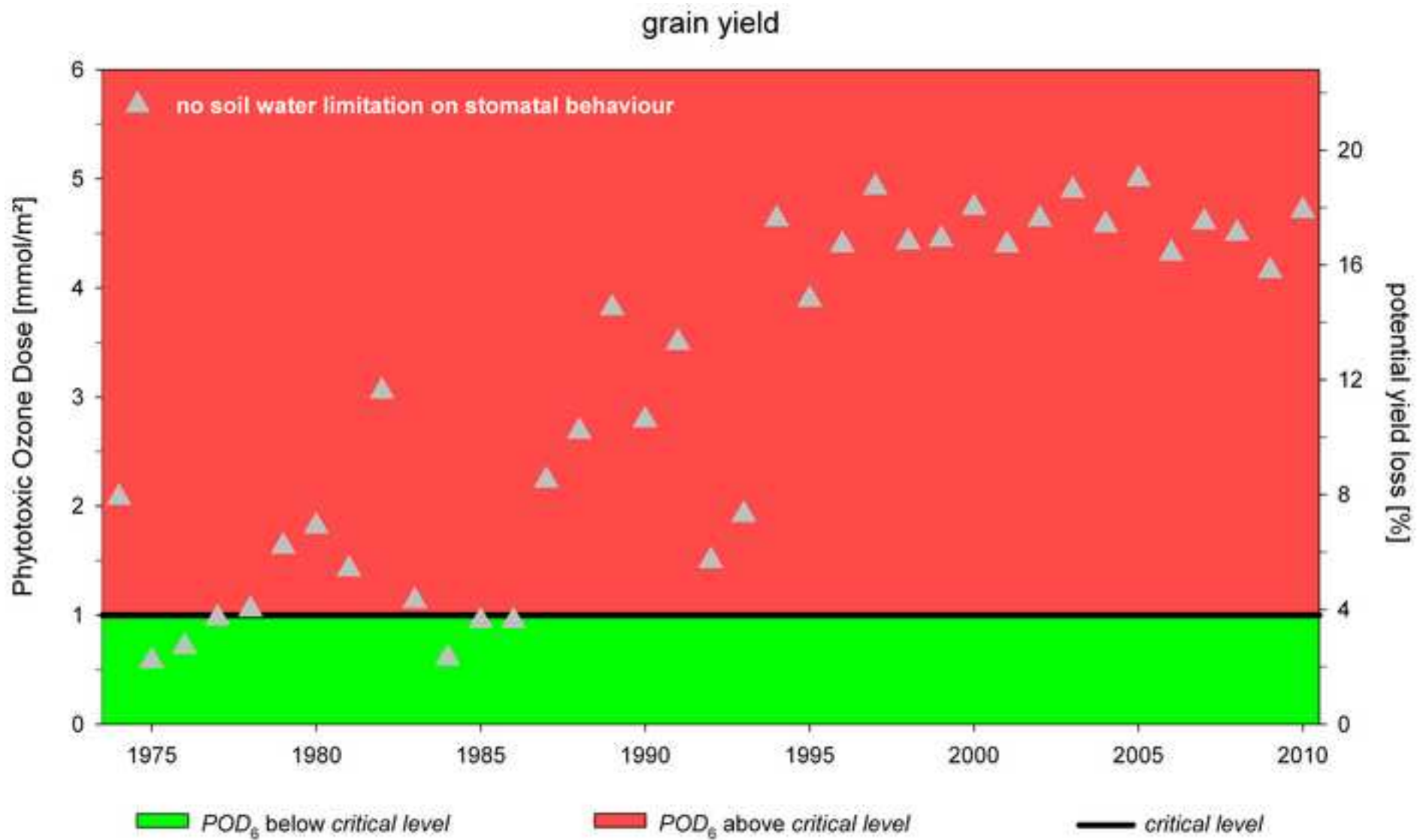


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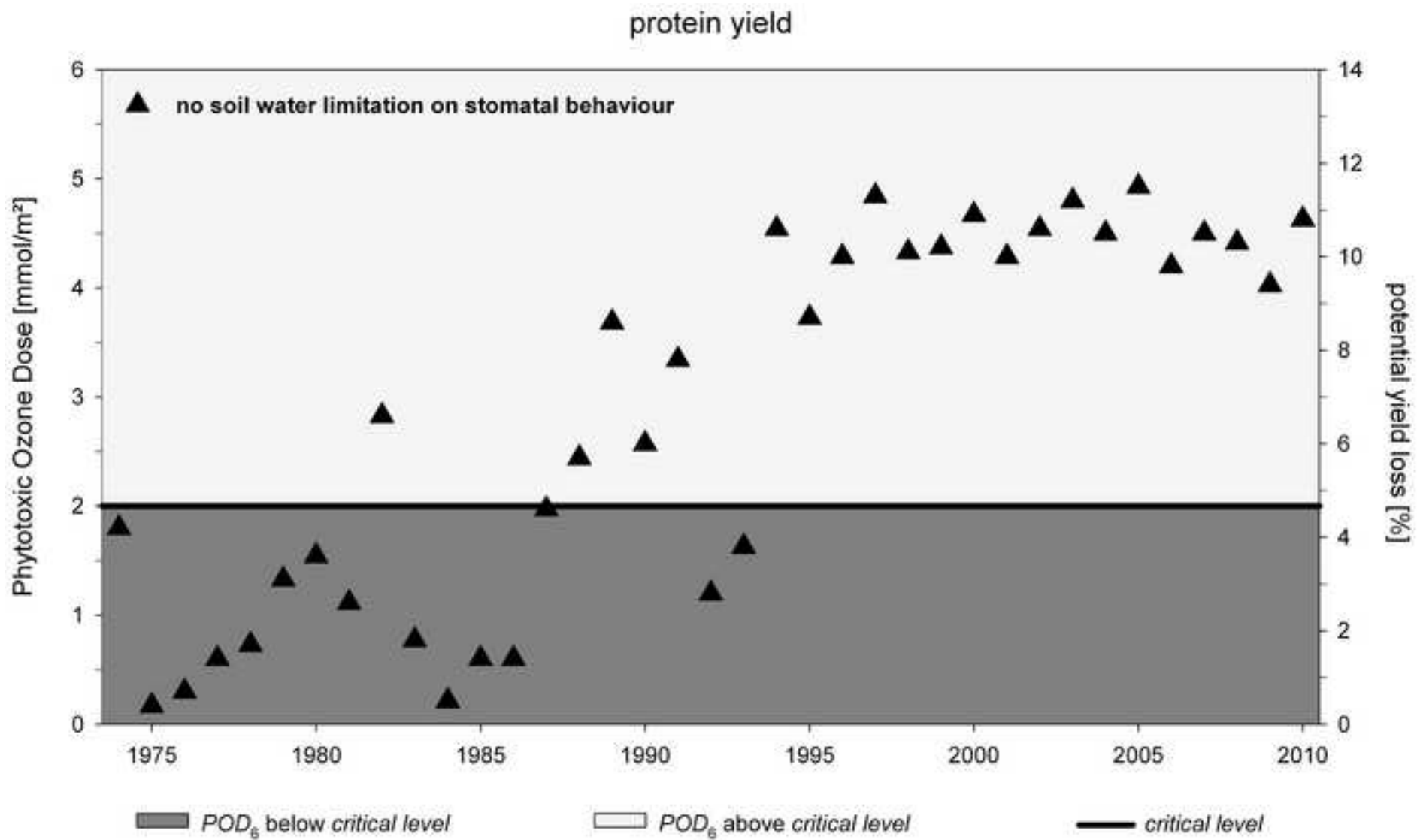


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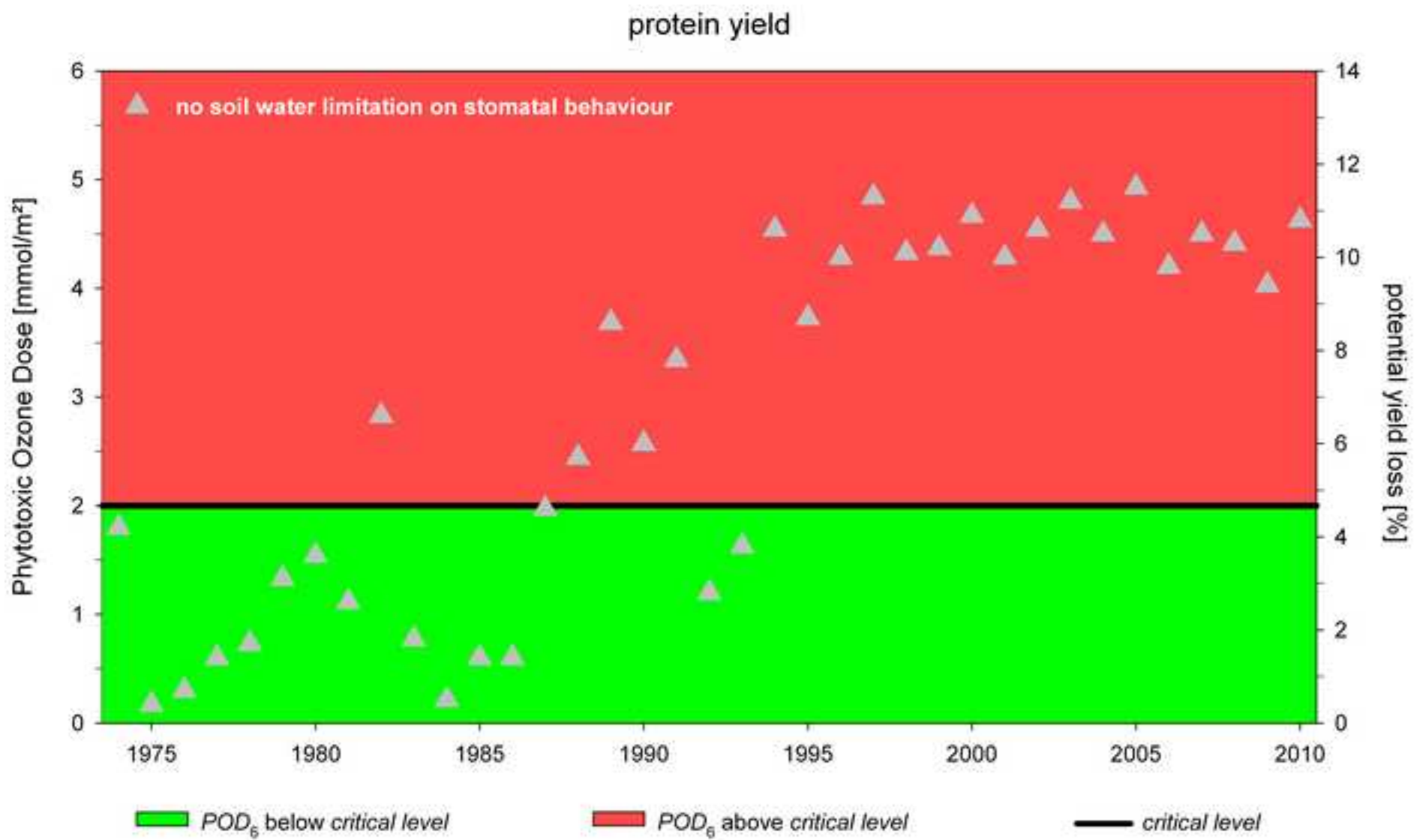


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Radebeul-Wahnsdorf, Saxony, Germany

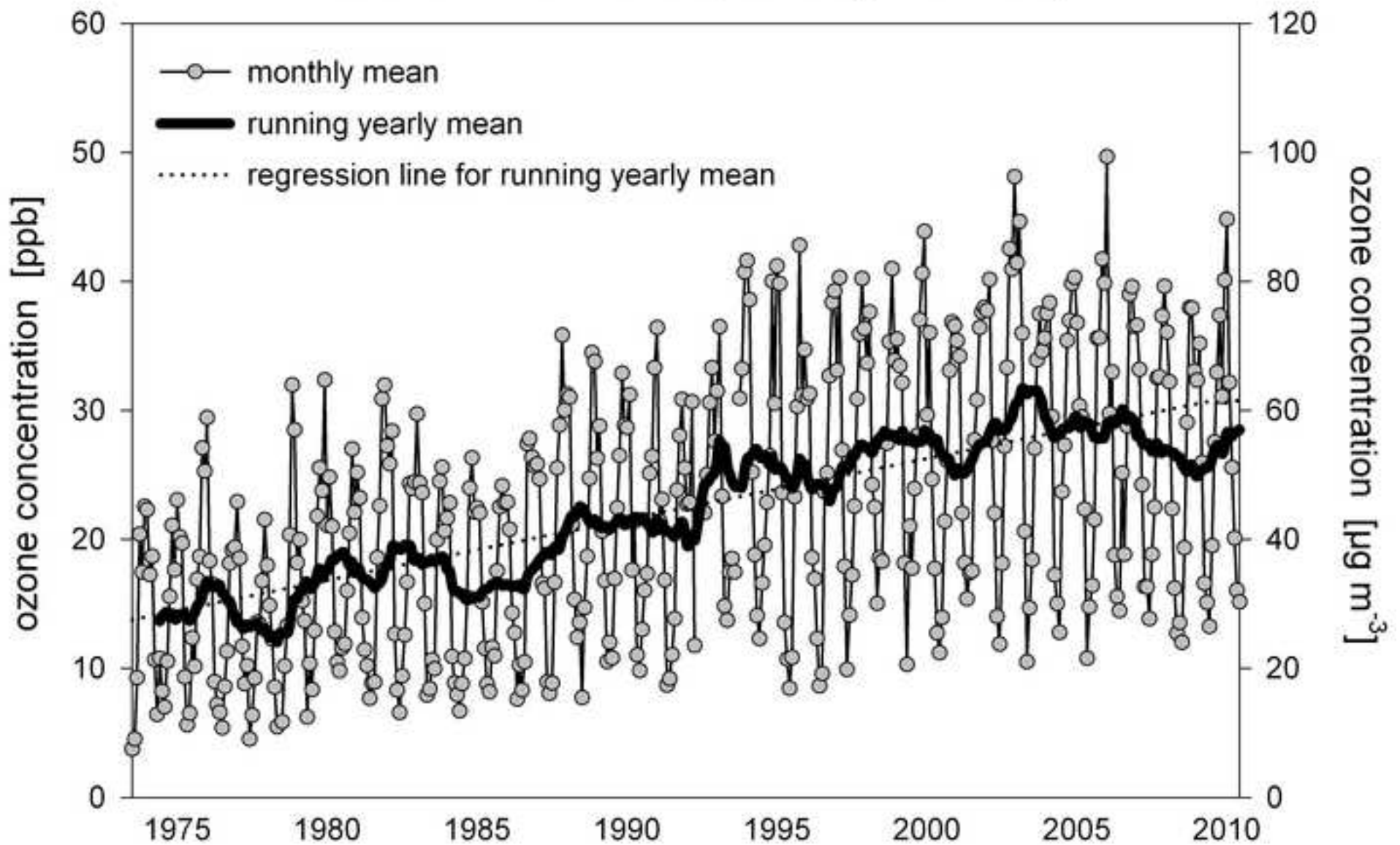


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Radebeul-Wahnsdorf, Saxony, Germany

