CHAPTER TWO

A Comprehensive Review of the CERES-Wheat, -Maize and -Rice Models' Performances

Bruno Basso****,1, Lin Liu*, Joe T. Ritchie†

*Department of Geological Sciences, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan, USA

Contents

| 1. | Intro | duction | 28 | | |
|----|------------|--|-----|--|--|
| 2. | 2. Methods | | | | |
| 3. | Results | | | | |
| | 3.1 | Crop Phenology | 31 | | |
| | 3.2 | Grain Yield | 53 | | |
| | 3.3 | Kernel Weight | 66 | | |
| | 3.4 | Kernel Number | 72 | | |
| | 3.5 | Aboveground Biomass and its Components (Excluding Grain Yield) | 73 | | |
| | 3.6 | Harvest Index | 85 | | |
| | 3.7 | Leaf-Related Variables: Leaf Number, Leaf Senescence, and LAI | 87 | | |
| | 3.8 | Soil Nitrogen | 94 | | |
| | 3.9 | Plant Nitrogen Uptake and Plant Nitrogen Content | 101 | | |
| | 3.10 | Soil Temperature | 106 | | |
| | 3.11 | Soil Water Content | 108 | | |
| | 3.12 | Evapotranspiration and Deep Seepage | 113 | | |
| | 3.13 | Other Variables | 118 | | |
| Ac | know | ledgment | 120 | | |
| Re | ferend | ces | 120 | | |

Abstract

The Crop Environment Resource Synthesis (CERES) models have been developed and utilized for the last 30 years to simulate crop growth in response to climate, soil, genotypes and management across locations throughout the world. We reviewed 215 papers found in the literature that contained field observed data where the CERES models were tested. Over 30 simulated variables of the CERES models have been

^{**}W.K. Kellogg Biological Station, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan, USA †Plant, Soil and Microbial Sciences, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan, USA

¹Corresponding author. E-mail address: basso@msu.edu

tested in 43 different countries under various experimental treatments. Across all testing conditions, the CERES models simulated grain yield with a root mean square error (RMSE) of less than 1400 kg/ha (~10% relative error, RE), 1200 kg/ha (~20% RE) and 800 kg/ha (~10% RE) for maize, wheat, and rice, respectively. Phenological development was simulated with less than 7 days difference from the observations in most studies. The CERES models simulated aboveground biomass, harvest index, evapotranspiration, and soil water reasonably well too. The simulations of grain number (up to 4340 root mean square error, RMSE), grain weight (up to 22% error), intercepted photosynthetically active radiation (IPAR, up to 0.41 MJ/plant), leaf area index (LAI, 31.9% error), soil temperature (over 10°C difference), and nitrogen (N) dynamics (up to 80% error) were less accurate. In fact the average error of CERES model simulations tends to be higher under marginal crop growing conditions such as extreme heat or cold, water and nutrient deficit conditions.



1. INTRODUCTION

Food security is one of the most important ecosystem services offered by agriculture (Reid et al., 2005; Zhang et al., 2007). Due to the high demand for food, there has been an expansion and intensification of agriculture (Matson et al., 1997). Considering the increasing food demand by the rising population, the agriculture sector is facing the big challenge to increase food crop productivity. Since about two-thirds of the total daily calorie-intake is from the three staple grains of wheat, rice, and maize, increasing their yields is mandatory (Cassman, 1999). Although we have witnessed extensive efforts in agricultural experiments that aimed at increasing yield and minimizing environmental impact, the results are often site specific and subject to spatial and temporal variability affected by weather, soil, and crop cultivars (Basso et al., 2011). This variability in space and time makes it difficult to transfer crop management information from one location to another for agricultural decision making (Jones et al., 1998). To understand the complex crop-soil-weather system and to facilitate farm-level decision making processes, crop models were developed to help provide the larger combinations of crop yield outcomes as influenced by variety and management for the high degree of variability in weather and soils than would be possible using trial and error experiments. The Crop Environment Resource Synthesis (CERES) models were developed in the early days of the information age. CERES-Wheat (Otter and Ritchie, 1985, Ritchie, 1985),

CERES-Maize (Ritchie, 1986, Ritchie et al., 1986b, Jones et al., 1986), and CERES-Rice (Ritchie et al., 1986a) were initially developed mainly to simulate grain yield, but later served also as a decision support tool when DSSAT became available (Jones et al., 2003). The CERES models are a process-based system that simulates crop growth and development on a daily time step. The major components of phenology, growth, soil water, and nitrogen balance enable the models to simulate crop yield, using the soil water and nitrogen dynamics to provide a limitation on yield. Maize, wheat, and rice are the most tested and used, but models of barley, grain sorghum and pearl millet are included in the CERES models (Ritchie et al., 1998).

While Timsina and Humphreys (2006) reviewed the performance of the CERES-Rice and CERES-Wheat models in the rice-wheat systems, there lacked a comprehensive reviews on the CERES model performance for staple crops. Therefore, the objective of this paper is to summarize published results of worldwide tests of the CERES-Maize, CERES-wheat, and CERES-Rice providing a review of (1) the crop and soil variables that have been tested for the models, (2) the conditions under which those parameters were tested, and (3) the accuracy of the simulated variables.

Testing of models involves comparison of simulated with measured results. When the model results differ from measurements, the apparent error can be a function of the inaccuracy of one or more of the model functions and the resulting feedback, but much of the difference can often be the result of inaccurate input data or initial conditions. The CERES models are intended to be applicable in any weather, soil, and management conditions for any cultivar in which the genetic coefficient information is known and should not require calibration in space and time. Some critical input information for CERES models is often not known and has to be approximated by various procedures. The greatest uncertainty of inputs has proven to be the depth of effective rooting, one or more of the genetic coefficients, and the initial conditions of the soil, water, and nitrogen. When crops are grown under unlimited water and nitrogen, the soil properties and initial conditions are less critical for more accurate simulation. If there is no independent knowledge about the genetic coefficients, the model is often calibrated to make the phenology and yield components match the data sets. The initial conditions are frequently identified by trial and error simulations or through sophisticated parameter estimation techniques to obtain better agreement with the final measurements.



2. METHODS

The reviewed articles were obtained from the ISI Web of Science database. All peer-reviewed articles in the database that met the following criteria were selected for this metadata synthesis paper: (1) written in English, (2) published by Dec. 2014, and (3) primary studies had both field observations and simulation results obtained from the CERES models.



3. RESULTS

A total of 215 field studies tested the three CERES models. Of these, 111 studies tested the CERES-Maize model, 104 studies tested the CERES-Wheat model, and 26 studies tested the CERES-Rice model. The CERES models have been validated in 43 countries across all continents, except Antarctic (Fig. 1). The model simulations have been tested under a wide range of climate conditions: monsoonal (Liu et al., 2013), semiarid tropical (Carberry et al., 1989), subhumid, subtropical (Behera and Panda, 2009), Mediterranean (Hasegawa et al., 2000), oceanic and

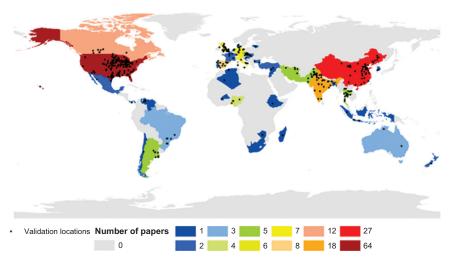


Figure 1 Locations where the CERES models have been validated and the number of studies in each model validation country.

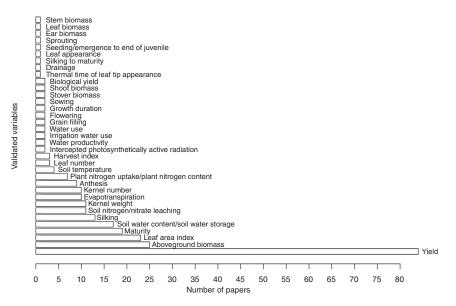


Figure 2 The number of research that validated variables in the CERES-Maize.

continental (Johnen et al., 2012), cold winter, dry summer (Thaler et al., 2012), and humid temperate (Otegui et al., 1996). The validation studies have been conducted extensively in the United States (64 studies), China (27 studies), and India (18 studies) under varied treatments, such as nonlimiting irrigation and fertilization; various irrigation water and fertilizer amounts, timings, and application methods; sowing dates; population densities; CO₂ concentrations; tillage methods; and management intensities (Fig. 1). Grain yield, aboveground biomass, leaf area index (LAI), anthesis, and maturity have been extensively tested. Variables regarding water balance (evapotranspiration and soil water content), nitrogen balance (soil nitrogen and crop nitrogen uptake and content), phonological stage (grain filling, silking, and panicle initiation), and other biomass components (leaf biomass, straw biomass, and shoot biomass; and harvest index) have been less extensively validated (Figs. 2–4).

3.1 Crop Phenology

3.1.1 CERES-Maize

The CERES-Maize model has been tested regarding sowing date (two studies), sprouting (one study), days from seedling emergence to the end of the juvenile stage (one study), leaf appearance (one study), flowering date

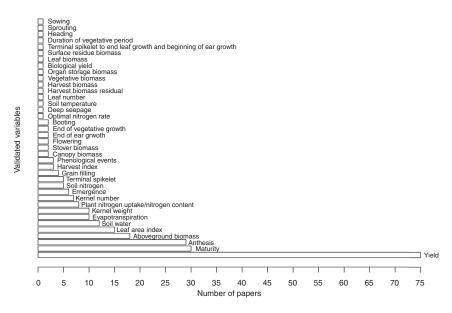


Figure 3 The number of research that validated variables in the CERES-Wheat.

(two studies), anthesis (nine studies), silking (13 studies), grain filling (two studies), silking to maturity (one study), maturity (19 studies), and growth duration (three studies) (Table 1 and Table 2). Strzepek et al. (1999) and Wang et al. (2012) showed that the simulated planting dates for maize grown in Iowa and Missouri (USA) and in one experimental maize station in China matched well with the recorded sowing dates, with at most 1 day of error. The predicted days from seedling emergence to the end of the juvenile stage in a 4-year simulation in Brazil were, on average, 3 days off from the observations (Liu, 1989). Hodges and Evans (1992) tested the leaf tip appearance variable and reported that the simulated days were delayed up to 15 days. Regarding the flowering date simulation, the RMSE was less than 4 days under the sowing date treatment in Portugal (Braga et al., 2008) and within 7 days of error in two US states (Strzepek et al., 1999). Anthesis date has been well predicted under full irrigation and moderate and severe water stress treatments in Italy, with simulation errors being within 6 days and percentage errors ranging from 0 to 2.8% (Ben Nouna et al., 2000; Mastrorilli et al., 2003). In Brazil, anthesis date simulations across irrigated and rain-fed conditions had a normalized RMSE of 1.6% (Soler et al., 2007). Under irrigated and rain-fed conditions in a county in Georgia (USA), with fertilization $(141 \sim 219 \text{ kg N/ha application})$ and planting date (three dates across Mar.)

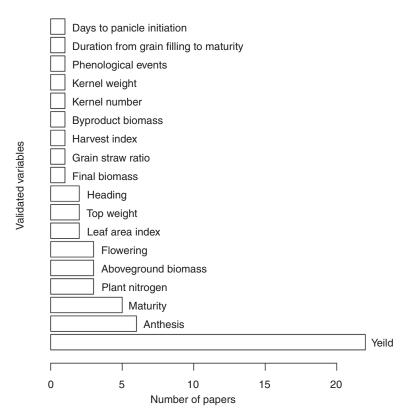


Figure 4 The number of research that validated variables in the CERES-Rice.

treatments, the anthesis date simulations were within 9 days of the measured data (Persson et al., 2009). The simulated days to anthesis for fertilizer trials in Ethiopia were within 7 days (Kassie et al., 2014). The CERES-Maize model has not only estimated anthesis date reasonably well for agriculture experimental stations for over 11 years in Georgia (RMSE = 3.5 days) and Louisiana (RMSE = 4.3 days) but also captured the inter-annual variability (Tsvetsinskaya et al., 2003). Under both irrigation and nitrogen application treatments in Iran and seven irrigation treatments in Pakistan, the days to anthesis simulations had a normalized RMSE of 2.3 ~ 2.6% and RMSEs of less than 2.2 days, respectively (Moradi et al., 2013, 2014; Mubeen et al., 2013). In terms of maize silking date simulation, the reported errors were within 4 days for simulations in Nigeria (Jagtap and Abamu, 2003; Jagtap et al., 1993), Brazil (Liu, 1989), and Venezuela (Maytin et al., 1995). The reported RMSEs were between 2 and 4 days for unfertilized maize

| ₫ |
|-------------|
| \subseteq |
| Ξ |
| _ |
| ă |
| S |
| C |
| 7 |
| |

| Treatment category | Variable name | Countries | Performance | References |
|--|------------------------------|----------------------|-------------------------------|--|
| Rain-fed/nonirrigated | Silking | Croatia | Percentage error: 1% | Vucetic (2011) |
| and well fertilized | | Nigeria Venezuela | Error: <3 days | Jagtap et al. (1993); Jagtap and Abamu (2003); Maytin et al. (1995) |
| Irrigated with a gradient of water/different scheduling time and | Silking | United States, Italy | Differences: $0 \sim 4$ days | Anothai et al., (2013); Ben Nouna et al. (2000) |
| well fertilized | | Australia | RMSE: 10.6 days | Carberry et al. (1989) |
| Well irrigated and | Silking | Nigeria | Differences: 0 ~ 14 days | Gungula et al. (2003) |
| fertilized with a gradient of fertilizer(s) | Grain filling date | Nigeria | Differences: $0 \sim 12$ days | Gungula et al. (2003) |
| Well irrigated and well fertilized only ^a | Planting date | China | Difference: <1 day | Wang et al. (2012); Strzepek et al. (1999) |
| , | Flowering | United States | Error: <7 days | Strzepek et al. (1999) |
| | Silking | United States | RMSE: 4 days | Retta et al. (1991) |
| | | Argentina | RMSE: 6.5 days | Caviglia et al. (2013) |
| | | China | Delay: 1 day | Wang et al. (2012) |
| | Grain filling | China | Error: 1 day | Wang et al. (2012) |
| | Growth duration | China | R: 0.99 | Xiong et al. (2007) |
| | Silking to maturity | Brazil | Mean error: 0.5 days; | Liu (1989) |
| | Emergence to end of juvenile | | Mean error: 3 days | |
| | Silking | | Error: <4 days | |
| | Tip appearance | USA | Error: 15 days | Hodges and Evans (1992 |

| Irrigated with a gradient of water, not fertilized | Flowering date | Portugal, Argentina, United States | RMSE: 6 ~ 8.26 days | Braga et al. (2008); Otegui et al. (1996); |
|--|-----------------|---------------------------------------|-------------------------|---|
| and other treatments | | Officed States | | Tsvetsinskaya et al. |
| and other treatments | | | | (2003) |
| | Silking | Argentina | RMSE: 4.3 days | Otegui et al. (1996) |
| Sowing dates | Flowering | Portugal | RMSE: <4 days | Braga et al. (2008) |
| Planting dates, spacing | Silking | USA | RMSE: $2 \sim 3.4$ days | Yang et al. (2009) |
| Planting dates, | Growth duration | Zimbabwe | Error: <3 days | Makadho (1996) |
| fertilization | | | | |

^aLiterature that did not include treatments were considered as "well irrigated and well fertilized"; for instance, data obtained from local reports.

DIUITO DASSO EL 6

 Table 2
 Summary of the CERES-Maize model performances for anthesis and maturity variable simulations.

| Treatment category | Variables | Countries | Performance | References |
|--|-----------|-----------------------------------|--|--|
| Rain-fed/nonirrigated | Anthesis | Brazil | Normalized RMSE: 1.6% | Soler et al. (2007) |
| and well fertilized | Maturity | Nigeria, Croatia | Difference: 1 ~ 2 days Percentage error: 2% | Jagtap et al. (1993); Vucetic (2011) |
| | | Nigeria | Differences: 7 ~ 10 days | Jagtap and Abamu (2003) |
| Irrigated with a gradient | Anthesis | Italy | Percentage errors: $0 \sim 2.8\%$ | Ben Nouna et al. (2003) |
| of water/different | | Pakistan | RMSE: <2.2 days | Mubeen et al. (2013) |
| scheduling time and | | Australia | RMSE: 10.6 days | Carberry et al., (1989) |
| well fertilized | Maturity | United States, Nigeria | Differences: <5 days | Anothai et al. (2013); Gungula et al. (2003) |
| | | Pakistan | RMSE: 3.7 days | Mubeen et al. (2013) |
| | | Italy | Error: 0 day | Mastrorilli et al. (2003); Ben Nouna et al. (2000) |
| | | Australia | RMSE: 10.2 days | Carberry et al. (1989) |
| Well irrigated and fertilized with a gradient of fertilizer(s) | Maturity | United States, China, Ethiopia | Difference: <1 day | Strzepek et al. (1999); Wang et al. (2012); Kassie et al. (2014) |
| | Anthesis | Ethiopia | Difference: <7 days | Kassie et al. (2014) |

| Well irrigated and well fertilized only ^a | Anthesis | Nigeria, Brazil, Venezuela, Argentina, United States, China, Iran | Difference: <4 days Normalized RMSE: 2.35% | Jagtap et al. (1993); Jagtap and Abamu (2003); Liu (1989); Maytin et al. (1995); Yang et al. (2009); Wang et al. (2012); Moradi et al. (2014) |
|---|-----------------------------------|--|---|---|
| | Maturity | China | Difference: 1 ~ 3 days | Wang et al. (2012) |
| | | Argentina | RMSE: 14.3 days | Caviglia et al. (2013) |
| Irrigated with a gradient | Anthesis | Iran | Normalized RMSE: 2.61% | Moradi et al. (2013) |
| of water and fertilized | | United States | Differences: 1 ~ 9 days | Persson et al. (2009) |
| with a gradient of | Maturity | Portugal | RMSE: <4 days | Braga et al. (2008); |
| fertilizer(s) | | United States | Error: $1 \sim 9$ days | Persson et al. (2009) |
| Other treatments ^b | Anthesis | United States | RMSE: $3 \sim 4$ days | |
| | | | Tsvetsinskaya et al. (2003) | |
| | Maturity United States, Argentina | , | RMSE: <6 days | Yang et al. (2009); Otegui et al. (1996); Tsvetsinskaya et al. (2003) |
| | | | Difference: 9 ~ 11 days ^c | Strzepek et al. (1999) |

^aLiteratures that did not include treatments were considered as "well irrigated and well fertilized"; for instance, data obtained from local reports.

^bOther treatments included sowing dates, planting density, spacing.

Authors pointed out that the large error might be due to the differences between simulated physiological maturity and observed grain maturity.

experiments in Argentina (Otegui et al., 1996) and sowing dates combined with spacing treatments in the USA (Yang et al., 2009). Seventy-five percent silking date simulations had RMSEs of 4 days in the United States (Retta et al., 1991) and an error of 1 day in China (Wang et al., 2012). While the good prediction of silking held for rain-fed conditions in Croatia (error: 1%) (Vucetic, 2011) and irrigation treatments in the United States (error: 0 ~ 4 days) (Anothai et al., 2013), the prediction was moderately accurate for nitrogen unavailability treatments in Nigeria (error of 0-14 days) (Gungula et al., 2003), well-irrigated and fertilized condition in Argentina (RMSE: 6.5 days) (Caviglia et al., 2013), and water stress treatments in Australia (Carberry et al., 1989). Regarding grain-filling validation, it was reported that the differences between the simulated and observed values were mostly 0 or 1 and sometimes up to 2 days under a high nitrogen application rate (90 or 120 kg/ha), but the difference was at least 4 days and sometimes up to 12 days under a low nitrogen application rate (60 kg/ha) in Nigeria (Gungula et al., 2003). Under irrigated treatments in China, the simulated grain filling date was only 1 day delayed as compared to the observed date (Wang et al., 2012). As to maize maturity, the simulated maturity date was reported to be very close to the observations across various sowing dates from May to Jun. in Venezuela (Maytin et al., 1995), across 40–100% full irrigation treatments in Colorado (USA) (Anothai et al., 2013), and under high fertilizer application rates (90 and 120 kg N/ha) in Nigeria (Gungula et al., 2003). Under water availability treatments in Italy, most simulated maturity dates were exactly the same as the observations (Ben Nouna et al., 2000; Mastrorilli et al., 2003). For fertilizer trials in Ethiopia, the difference between the simulated and the observed days to maturity was within 1 day (Kassie et al., 2014). Jagtap et al. (1993) and Vucetic (2011) also reported small errors in maturity date simulations under rain-fed treatments in Nigeria and Croatia, with 1 or 2 day differences and a 2% difference, respectively. The RMSEs for maturity simulations were within 6 days under the sowing dates between late-Apr. and mid-Jun. in treatments in Portugal (Braga et al., 2008), across irrigation treatments (irrigated at various rates and in various amount) in (Mubeen et al., 2013), across four sowing date treatments in Argentina (Otegui et al., 1996), in agricultural stations in Georgia and Louisiana for over 11 years (Tsvetsinskaya et al., 2003), and at 11 locations in North Carolina (Yang et al., 2009). However, Carberry et al. (1989) and Caviglia et al. (2013) reported that the average RMSEs for maturity simulations across full irrigation and severe water stress treatments in Australia

(Carberry et al., 1989) and stress free conditions in Argentina (Caviglia et al., 2013) were over 10 days. Strzepek et al. (1999) and Jagtap (2003) reported that the simulation errors ranged from 7 days to 11 days in the United States and Nigeria, respectively (Jagtap and Abamu, 2003). Persson et al. (2009) simulated maize maturity dates across irrigated and rain-fed land with three levels of fertilization treatment and three planting date treatments in Georgia (USA), and the reported errors ranged from 1 to 9 days for three maize cultivars. Additionally, one study reported the days from silking to maturity in a 4-year study of a Brazilian maize cultivar and had a mean error of 0.5 days (Liu, 1989). The simulated growth durations matched the observations with high correlation coefficients of 0.99 for three production stations in China (Xiong et al., 2007) and less than 3 days of errors in Zimbabwe (Makadho, 1996).

3.1.2 CERES-Wheat

The CERES-Wheat model has been tested for sowing date (one study), sprouting (one study), emergence (six studies), booting (two studies), heading (one study), terminal spikelet (five studies), end of vegetative growth (two studies), end of year growth (two studies), duration of vegetative period (one study), flowering date (two studies), anthesis date (29 studies), grain filling date (four studies), mature date (30 studies), and other phenological events (five studies) (Tables 3–5). Sowing date and sprouting date were tested in Northwest China, with simulation errors of 0 and 2 days, respectively (Wang et al., 2012). Emergence date was tested under a well-irrigated and fertilized treatment with five sowing dates [day of year (DOY)125, 128, 129, 164, and 296] in New Zealand. Delays in the simulated emergence date of two wheat cultivars were observed, except for the DOY125 treatment simulation. The average RMSE for the emergence date of the two wheat cultivars was 12.1 days (Porter et al., 1993). With 110.5 and 241 kg N/ha application treatments in Arizona (USA), the 50% crop emergence date simulation was delayed by 1 day (Thorp et al., 2010b). Chipanshi et al. (1997) reported that the ratios between the simulated and observed emergence dates for 30 years in a long-term agricultural site in Canada were from 0.47 to 0.77 (Chipanshi et al., 1997). When the CERES-Wheat model was used to simulate spring wheat growth in 24 sites across North America, including the United States and Canada between 1930 and 1954, the days from sowing to 50% seedling emergence were underestimated for 94% of the sites, with a RMSE of 5.8 days. The model concordance correlation coefficient and bias correction factor were 0.232 and 0.396, respectively

| _ | _ |
|---|----------|
| 7 | <u></u> |
| 2 | Ξ |
| - | ₹ |
| (| 5 |
| | |
| ζ | 丆 |
| 7 | Z V |
| | スリハハ |
| | COOUR |
| 0 | TUCCO DI |

| Treatment category | Variables | Countries | Performance | References |
|--|--------------------------|---------------|--------------------------------|-------------------------|
| Rain-fed/nonirrigated and | Emergence | Canada | 23 ~ 53% earlier | Chipanshi et al. (1997) |
| well fertilized only | Terminal spikelet | Canada | 36% earlier \sim 62% late | Chipanshi et al. (1997) |
| • | End of vegetative growth | Canada | 23% earlier \sim 44% late | Chipanshi et al. (1997) |
| | End of year growth | Canada | 23% earlier \sim 43% late | Chipanshi et al. (1997) |
| | Grain filling | Canada | 23% earlier $\sim 41\%$ late | Chipanshi et al. (1997) |
| Irrigated with a gradient | Emergence | China | Difference: 0 days | He et al. (2013) |
| of water/different scheduling time and well fertilized | Phenological events | India | RMSE: 4 days | Sarkar and Kar (2008) |
| Well irrigated and fertilized | Emergence | United States | delay: 1 day | Thorp et al. (2010b) |
| with a gradient of fertilizers | Phenological events | Canada | RMSE: 3.15 days | He et al. (2014) |
| Well irrigated and well | Sowing date | China | Error: 0 day | Wang et al. (2012) |
| fertilized ^a | Sprouting date | | Error: 2 days | , , |
| | Emergence | United States | RMSE: 5.8 days | Wang et al. (2009) |
| | | China | 7 days earlier | Liu and Yuan (2010) |
| | Terminal spikelet | China | 6 days earlier | Liu and Yuan (2010) |
| | End of vegetative growth | China | Difference: 1 day | Liu and Yuan (2010) |
| | End of year growth | China | Difference: 8 days | Liu and Yuan (2010) |
| | Flowering | China | R^2 : 0.66 | Zhao et al. (2011) |
| | | China | Difference: <7 days | Wang et al. (2012) |
| | Grain filling | China | 4 days earlier | Liu and Yuan (2010) |
| | Phenological events | China | RMSE: 5.6 days | |
| Sowing dates | Emergence | New Zealand | RMSE: $11 \sim 13.2$ days | Porter et al. (1993) |
| | Booting | United States | RMSE: 5.3 days | Xue et al. (2004) |
| | Heading | United States | RMSE: 4.8 days | Xue et al. (2004) |
| | Terminal spikelet | New Zealand | 15 days earlier ~ 19 days late | Porter et al. (1993) |
| | | United States | RMSE: $4 \sim 7$ days | Xue et al. (2004) |

| Sowing dates, fertilization treatments and wheat rotation systems | Duration of vegetative growth | Czech Republic | Error: $3 \sim 4$ days | St'astna et al.2002 |
|---|---|-------------------|------------------------|-------------------------|
| Sowing dates with varied temperatures | Duration of grain filling | United States | RMSE: <5 days | White et al. (2011) |
| CO ₂ concentration | Booting | United States | 2 days delay | Tubiello et al. (1999a) |
| | Terminal spikelet | United States | 3 days earlier | Tubiello et al. (1999a) |
| | Grain filling | United States | 1 day earlier | Tubiello et al. (1999a) |
| | Phenological events | Germany | Normalized RMSE: <15% | Biernath et al. (2011) |
| 848 complied field dataset | Terminal spikelet to end of leaf growth | Germany | Error: <9.1 days | Johnen et al. (2012) |

^aLiteratures that did not include treatments were considered as "well irrigated and well fertilized;" for instance, data obtained from local reports.

Bruno Basso et a

 Table 4 Summary of the CERES-Wheat model performances for anthesis simulations.

| Treatment category | Countries | Performance | References |
|---|---|---|---|
| Rain-fed/nonirrigated and well | Australia | Difference: <7 days | Alexandrov et al. (2002) |
| fertilized | United States, Australia | RMSE: $1 \sim 6$ days | Xue et al. (2004); Thaler et al. (2012) |
| | United States | RMSE: ≥9 days | Xue et al. (2004) |
| Irrigated at varied rates (and timings) and well fertilized | China | Difference: 0 ~ 2 days | He et al. (2013) |
| | Argentina | RMSE: 2.7 days | Savin et al. (1994) |
| Well irrigated and fertilized at varied rates | United States | Difference: <10 days | Thorp et al. (2010b) |
| | India | RMSE: 5.3 days, normalized RMSE: 7% | Timsina et al. (2008) |
| Well irrigated and well fertilized ^a | United States, United Kingdom, Argentina, Czech Republic, China | RMSE: 4 ~ 8 days | Ottman et al. (2013); Bannayan et al. (2003); Caviglia et al. (2013); Trnka et al. (2004); Liu and Tao (2013) |
| | New Zealand | RMSE: 8 ~ 22 days | Porter et al. (1993) |
| | Italy | Normalized RMSE: 6 ~ 8% | Dettori et al. (2011) |
| | China | Error: ≤9 days | Xiao et al. (2013); Liu and Yuan (2010) |
| | China | Relative absolute error: <12% | Tian et al. (2012) |

| Irrigated with a gradient of water and fertilized with a | Mexico | Difference: $0 \sim 8$ days | Lobell and Ortiz-Monasterio (2006) |
|--|--------------------------|--|---|
| gradient of fertilizer(s) | Spain, Bangladesh, India | RMSE: $4 \sim 7$ days | Timsina et al. (1998); Abeledo et al. (2008) |
| Not irrigated and fertilized with a gradient of fertilizer(s) | United States | 6 days earlier ~ 2 days late than the observations | Saseendran et al. (2004) |
| | Germany | Percentage error: <7% | Bacsi and Zemankovics (1995) |
| CO ₂ concentration | United States | Difference: 1 day | Tubiello et al. (1999a) |
| | | Normalized RMSE: 4% | Tubiello et al. (1999b), ^b |
| Sowing Date | Algeria, United States | RMSE: $4 \sim 5$ days | Rezzoug et al. (2008); White et al. (2011) ^c |
| | India | Difference: ≤9 days | Hundal and PrabhjyotKaur (1997) |
| Spacing | United States | Average error: 0 days | Tsvetsinskaya et al. (2003) |

^aLiteratures that did not include treatments were considered as "well irrigated and well fertilized"; for instance, data obtained from local reports.

^bTreatments included CO₂ concentration (elevated vs. ambient) combined with two irrigation regimes (well irrigated vs. limit irrigated).

^cTreatments included sowing dates combining with varied temperatures.

| _ |
|-----|
| |
| 5 |
| |
| 2 |
| Č |
| α |
| ر (|

 Table 5
 Summary of the CERES-Wheat model performances for maturity simulations.

| Treatment category | Countries | Performance | References |
|--|---------------------------------|--------------------------------------|--|
| Rain-fed/nonirrigated and well fertilized only | Australia | RMSE: 2.1 days | Thaler et al. (2012) |
| Irrigated with a gradient of water/ | Spain | 15 days earlier ^a | Iglesias et al. (2000) |
| different scheduling time and well fertilized only | Mexico | Difference: 7 days | Lobell and Ortiz- Monasterio (2006) |
| Well irrigated and fertilized with a gradient of fertilizer(s) | India | RMSE: 4.5 days, normalized RMSE 3.4% | Timsina et al. (2008) |
| Well irrigated and well fertilized ^b | Argentina, China | RMSE: <5 day | Caviglia et al. (2013); Liu and Tao (2013) |
| | United Kingdom, Czech Public | RMSE: $7.5 \sim 10$ days | Bannayan et al. (2003); Trnka et al. (2004) |
| | China | Difference: <10 days | Liu and Yuan (2010); Xiao et al. (2013); Zhao et al. (2011); Tian et al. (2012); Wang et al. (2012); He et al. (2013) |
| | United Kingdom | R^2 : 0.68 | Cho et al. (2012) |
| Irrigated with a gradient of water | Spain | RMSE: 11 days | Abeledo et al. (2008) |
| and fertilized with a gradient of fertilizer(s) | Bangladesh | RSME: 2.3 days | Timsina et al. (1998) |
| Not irrigated and fertilized with a gradient of fertilizer(s) | United States | 4 days earlier ∼ 1 day delay | Saseendran et al. (2004) |
| C () | Germany | Difference: >15 days | Bacsi and Zemankovics (1995) |

| CO_2 concentration | United States | 2 days delay | Tubiello et al. (1999a) |
|----------------------|------------------------|-------------------------------|--------------------------|
| | | Normalized RMSE: 4.3% | Tubiello et al. (1999b) |
| Sowing Date | India | 6 days earlier ~ 3 days delay | Hundal and |
| | | | PrabhjyotKaur (1997) |
| | United States, Algeria | RMSE: <5 days | White et al. (2011),c, |
| | | | Rezzoug et al. (2008); |
| | | | Xue et al. (2004) |
| | United States | RMSE: $8 \sim 9$ days | Xue et al. (2004) |
| | Pakistan | RMSE: 23 days | Sultana et al. (2009) |
| | United States | Difference: <10 days | Southworth et al. (2002) |
| Spacing | United States | Average error: 3 days | Tsvetsinskaya |
| | | - | et al. (2003) |

^aThe authors pointed out that the large difference was partly due to they counted harvest date as maturity date, instead of counting physiological maturity.

^bLiteratures that did not include treatments were considered as "well irrigated and well fertilized only"; for instance, data obtained from local reports.

^cTreatments included sowing dates combining with varied temperatures.

(Wang et al., 2009). The emergence dates were perfectly simulated for wheat grown in arid Northwest China under nine irrigation treatments of various amounts and timings (He et al., 2013). However, the calibrated CERES-Wheat model simulated the emergence date as being 7 days earlier for winter wheat grown on six irrigated sites in China (Liu and Yuan, 2010). A booting date simulation was 2 days delayed under elevated CO2 concentration (roughly 450-500 ppmv) in the Intensive Agricultural Biome of Biosphere 2 (Tubiello et al., 1999a) and had an average RMSE of 5.3 days for three wheat cultivars sown in early- and mid-Oct. (Xue et al., 2004). Xue et al. (2004) also reported that the mean RMSE between the observed and simulated heading dates was 4.8 days. The simulated terminal spikelet date was 6 days earlier in one of the irrigated wheat production regions in China (Liu and Yuan, 2010) and 3 days earlier under varied, elevated CO₂ concentrations (Tubiello et al., 1999a). Nonetheless, terminal spikelet emergence was up to 19 days late for one wheat cultivar, but up to 15 days earlier for the other under different sowing date treatments (Porter et al., 1993). A similar study with different planting dates and three wheat cultivars showed an average RMSE for terminal spikelet simulation of 6.2 days (Xue et al., 2004). The reported ratios of simulated and observed terminal spikelet in dry-land Canada ranged from 0.64 to 1.62 (Chipanshi et al., 1997). The end of vegetative growth and the end of year growth were studied using fertilized winter wheat field data in China and Canada. The test results for China indicated that the simulations were 1 and 8 days different from the observed end of vegetative growth and end of year growth, respectively (Liu and Yuan, 2010), and for Canada, the ratios between the simulations and the observations were $0.67 \sim 1.44$ and $0.67 \sim 1.43$, respectively (Chipanshi et al., 1997). The duration of the vegetative period was tested in two production regions in the Czech Republic, yielding underestimated results by 3 or 4 days (St'astna et al., 2002). The simulated flowering dates in wheat production stations in China were correlated with the observations ($R^2 > 0.6$) and were within 7 days of the observations (Wang et al., 2012; Zhao et al., 2011). The anthesis date was extensively tested under a wide variety of treatments and locations. The differences between the simulated and the observed anthesis dates were within 10 days with an elevated CO₂ concentration (about 440 ppmv) treatment (Tubiello et al., 1999a); irrigated fields in Mexico (Lobell and Ortiz-Monasterio, 2006), fertilization treatments in two states of the United States, Colorado (with $0 \sim 112 \text{ kg N/ha}$ application rates) (Saseendran et al., 2004) and Arizona (with 110.5 and 241.0 kg N/ha) (Thorp et al., 2010b); well-irrigated and fertilized experiments in Arizona, USA (Ottman et al., 2013); 15-year

simulations in Austria (Alexandrov et al., 2002); and nine irrigation treatments in China (He et al., 2013). On average, the simulated anthesis date matched the observations for three experimental stations in South Carolina (USA) between 1991 and 1995 (Tsvetsinskaya et al., 2003). The average errors regarding the simulated anthesis date were within 7% across planting dates in late-Sep. and mid-Nov. (Nov. 10 and 16) when combined with high N rates (213 \sim 232 kg/ ha) versus no N application in Germany (Bacsi and Zemankovics, 1995) and three sowing dates in Dec. in Algeria (Rezzoug et al., 2008). The average RMSEs were within 8 days under different water availability treatments combined with various nutrient availability experiments in Bangladesh (Timsina et al., 1998) and Spain (Abeledo et al., 2008), four sites in the United Kingdom (Bannayan et al., 2003), rain-fed fields in Nebraska (Xue et al., 2004), no water or nutrient stress conditions in Argentina (Caviglia et al., 2013), rotation cropping systems with different irrigation schedules and nitrogen application rates in India (Timsina et al., 2008), five wheat production stations in the Czech Republic (Trnka et al., 2004), elevated temperature combined with various sowing dates (White et al., 2011), and dry areas in Northeastern Austria (Thaler et al., 2012). The simulated anthesis dates were within the normalized RMSE of 8% for three wheat varieties in Italy (Dettori et al., 2011) and under an elevated CO₂ concentration treatment (Tubiello et al., 1999b). Nonetheless, two studies reported less accurate anthesis simulations under well-irrigated and fertilized conditions in New Zealand and India, with RMSEs of up to 22 days (Porter et al., 1993) and up to 9 days of error (Hundal and PrabhjyotKaur, 1997), respectively. When applying the CERES-Wheat model to wheat production stations in China, the simulated anthesis dates were within 4.5% error for four of the stations (Liu and Tao, 2013) and less than 5 days for eight of the stations (Xiao et al., 2013). Using 36 wheat observation stations and 42 cropping zones in China, Tian et al. (2012) reported errors of 6.5% for winter wheat and of 12% for spring wheat (Tian et al., 2012). In contrast, Liu and Yuan (2010) reported that the simulated anthesis date was 9 days earlier for winter wheat in the Southern North China Plain. In addition, the root mean square error for the wheat anthesis date simulation in adequate water availability versus early drought experiments was reported to be 2.7 days in Argentina (Savin et al., 1994). For a grain filling simulation, the beginning of the grain filling date was 1 day earlier than the observation under elevated CO₂ concentration conditions (Tubiello et al., 1999a) and, on average, 4 days earlier for four wheat production stations in China (Liu and Yuan, 2010). Chipanshi et al. (1997) reported that the simulated to observed beginning of grain filling date ratios were from 0.77 to 1.41 over 30 years for a long-term

experiment site in Canada. In a heated environment with varying sowing dates, the simulated duration of grain filling showed less than 5 days RMSE (White et al., 2011). Wheat maturity date has been intensively tested under various treatments and locations as well. Under a variety of growing conditions, RMSEs for maturity simulation were less than 11 days. Those conditions and treatments included a combination of water stress (irrigated vs. rain-fed) and nutrient stress (with vs. without nitrogen application) in Spain (Abeledo et al., 2008); water- and nutrient-stress-free fields in Argentina (Caviglia et al., 2013); a heated environment (White et al., 2011); four locations over 3 years in the United Kingdom (Bannayan et al., 2003); five wheat production stations in the Czech Republic (Trnka et al., 2004); wheat rotated with rice or maize or soybean in various soils (Timsina et al., 2008); four wheat stations in China (Liu and Tao, 2013); six irrigated wheat production stations in the North China Plain (Liu and Yuan, 2010); nine wheat cultivars sown on three dates in Dec. (Rezzoug et al., 2008); eight planting dates ranging from Aug. 24 to Nov. 3 with seeding rates of 151, 301, 452, and 603 seeds/m² in Wisconsin (Dahlke et al., 1993; Southworth et al., 2002); eight winter wheats in the North China Plain (Xiao et al., 2013), early- and mid-Oct. sowing dates in fertilized plots in Nebraska (Xue et al., 2004); two locations Henan Plain in China (Zhao et al., 2011); winter wheat in dry regions in Austria for 9 years (Thaler et al., 2012); combinations of two water regimes (well-irrigated and rain-fed) and three nitrogen application regimes (0, 90, and 135 kg/ha) in Bangladesh (Timsina et al., 1998); and fertilized fields with various spacings in the Southeastern United States (Tsvetsinskaya et al., 2003). Studies in China showed a well-simulated maturity date. One study showed that in 36 production stations in China over 38 years, the relative absolute errors for both winter wheat and spring wheat were within 10 days (Tian et al., 2012), and two other studies showed that the errors were within 2 days in their studied regions (He et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2012). Under fluctuating and elevated CO₂ concentrations (about 440 ppmv) (Tubiello et al., 1999a), sowing dates ranging from DOY310 to DOY354 (Hundal and PrabhjyotKaur, 1997), and fertilization application treatments (0 \sim 112 kg N/ha) in rain-fed fields in the United States (Saseendran et al., 2004), the simulated maturity dates were within 7 days of error. Furthermore, the normalized RMSE was reported to be 4.3% for a maturity simulation performed with a 550 ppm CO₂ concentration treatment (Tubiello et al., 1999b). However, the differences between the simulation and the observation were over 15 days for both fertilized (with 213 \sim 232 kg N/ha rate) and unfertilized wheat maturity simulations in four sites in Germany (Bacsi

and Zemankovics, 1995), experimental trials in Pakistan (Sultana et al., 2009), and wheat production sites in Spain (Iglesias et al., 2000). Lobell and Ortiz-Monasterio (2006) indicated that in a no-water-stress situation, the CERES-Wheat simulated maturity date was exactly the same as the observed one, while in a water-stress situation, the difference between the simulation and the observation was up to 7 days. In addition, Cho et al. (2012) reported a high correlation ($R^2 = 0.68$) between the observed and simulated maturity dates. Monzon et al. (2007) reported that the RMSE for simulating both anthesis and maturity in multiple fields in Argentina was 4.9 days. The overall phenological stage was tested in six irrigated wheat production sites in China and with ambient versus elevated CO2 concentrations combined with irrigation treatments (adequate vs. limited water supply); this resulted in an RMSE of 5.6 days (Liu and Yuan, 2010) and a normalized RMSE of up to 15% (Biernath et al., 2011), respectively. The phenological event simulations had RMSEs of 3 ~ 4 days given rice residue treatment (removed vs. remained) with irrigation treatment (Sarkar and Kar, 2008) and under various soils with fertilizer applications in Canada (He et al., 2014). Nonetheless, a study using 848 field datasets in Germany showed that the average difference between the simulated and observed period from terminal spikelet development to the end of leaf growth and the beginning of year growth could be as large as 9.1 days (Johnen et al., 2012).

3.1.3 CERES-Rice

The CERES-Rice model has been tested for heading (two studies), flowering (three studies), anthesis (seven studies), maturity (six studies), days from panicle initiation and grain filling to maturity (two studies), and phenological events (one study). Yun, (2003) tested the duration from transplanting to heading in two crop experiment stations in Korea and reported that the simulation was in good agreement with the observations, with an R^2 of 0.85. Zhang et al. (2013) reported that the RMSEs were within 5 days for a heading date simulation in single- and double-season rice zones in China. Rice flowering duration was tested with 32 field experiments combining various seeding and transplanting dates, planting densities, nitrogen fertilizer rates, and levels of irrigation across India and eight rice ecological stations in China, with reported RMSEs of 4.5 days (Mall and Aggarwal, 2002) and 5.5 days (Yao et al., 2007), respectively. The simulated days to flowering were within 5% error for four rice varieties under fertilization

treatments (0 ~ 150 kg N/ha rates and different timings) in Thailand (Cheyglinted et al., 2001). The anthesis date has been tested with five irrigation levels between 625 and 1225 mm and a seedling density between 1 and 3 seedlings per hill in Pakistan, and the simulated anthesis date was only 1 day earlier than the observed date (Ahmad et al., 2012). In contrast, the percentage error for the simulated anthesis dates given a late-Aug, seeding date treatment was 6.85% (Babel et al., 2011). The anthesis date has also been tested with water availability treatments combined with various nutrient availability experiments in Bangladesh (Timsina et al., 1998), six rice production areas in China (Tao et al., 2008), conventionally tilled soil with residual removal and directseeding, mulch-based cropping systems combined with manure, NPK¹, and dolomite fertilizer applications in Madagascar (Gerardeaux et al., 2011), with RMSEs ranging from 4.2 to 8.2 days. In addition, the differences between the simulated and observed days to anthesis under open field and elevated CO₂ treatments were between 2 and 4 days (Satapathy et al., 2014). The inter-annual variability of the rice anthesis date for three agricultural experiment locations in the Southern US was well-reproduced by the CERES-Rice model (Tsvetsinskaya et al., 2003). The simulated maturity dates matched perfectly with the observations under irrigation and planting density treatments in Pakistan (Ahmad et al., 2012). The reported RMSEs for maturity date simulations were within 10 days for tillage treatments in Madagascar (Gerardeaux et al., 2011), six rice production stations in China (Tao et al., 2008; Zhang and Tao, 2013), and irrigation combined with fertilization treatment in Bangladesh (Timsina et al., 1998). Over 500 experimental rice stations in China, the RMSE for maturity simulation ranged from 10 to 25 days (normalized RMSE: $6.5 \sim 19.8\%$) (Xiong et al., 2008b). The simulated days to the appearance of panicle initiation, flowering and maturity matched well with the observations given varying nitrogen application rates (0 \sim 150 kg/ha) in India, resulting in $3 \sim 5$ days of errors (Swain and Yadav, 2009). The simulated period from grain filling to maturity was reasonably accurate and correlated with the observations ($r^2 = 0.72$) in Korea (Yun, 2003). Phenological events were tested with transplanted and direct-seeded rice with wheat residue and various nitrogen input treatments in rain-fed fields in India. The RMSEs for the phenological event simulations were $4 \sim 5$ days and $10 \sim 11$ days for transplanted and direct-seeded rice, respectively (Sarkar and Kar, 2008). A summary of the phenological variable validations for the CERES-Rice model can be found in Table 6.

¹NPK: 11% N, 22% P₂O₅, 16% K₂O (Gerardeaux et al., 2011).

 Table 6
 Summary of the CERES-Rice model performances for phenology variable simulations.

| • | | ٥, | | |
|--|------------------------------|-----------------|---|---|
| Treatment category | Variables | Countries | Performance | References |
| Rain-fed/nonirrigated and well fertilized | Anthesis | Thailand | Percentage error: 6.85% | Babel et al. (2011) |
| Well irrigated and fertilized with a gradient of nitrogen inputs | Flowering | Thailand | Percentage error: <5% | Cheyglinted et al. (2001) |
| | Maturity | India, China | Error: within $3 \sim 5$ days RMSE: $10 \sim 25$ days | Swain and Yadav (2009); Xiong et al. (2008b) |
| Well irrigated and well fertilized ^a | transplanting to heading | Korea | R^2 : 0.85 | Yun (2003) |
| | Grain filling to maturity | | R^2 : 0.72 | |
| | Heading date | China | RMSE: 5 days | Zhang and Tao (2013) |
| | Flowering duration | China | RMSE: 5.5 days | Yao et al. (2007) |
| | Anthesis | China | RMSE: 5.6 days | Tao et al. (2008) |
| | Maturity | China | RMSE: $2 \sim 6.6$ days | Zhang and Tao (2013); Tao et al. (2008) |
| Irrigated with a gradient of water and | Anthesis | Bangladesh | RMSE: 4.3 days | Timsina et al. (1998) |
| fertilized with a gradient of nitrogen | Maturity | Bangladesh | RMSE: 2.3 days | Timsina et al. (1998) |
| Over 80 treatments ^b | Flowering duration | India | RMSE: 4.5 days | Mall and Aggarwal (2002) |
| Fertilized, irrigated with varied | Anthesis | India | Difference: $0 \sim 1$ day | Ahmad et al. (2012) |
| amount of water and planted with varied densities | Maturity | India | Difference: 0 day | Ahmad et al. (2012) |

(Continued)

Bruno Basso et al

Table 6 Summary of the CERES-Rice model performances for phenology variable simulations.—cont'd.

| Treatment category | Variables | Countries | Performance | References |
|---|----------------------|------------------|---|--|
| Management intensities ^c | Anthesis | Madagascar | RMSE: 8.2 days | Gerardeaux et al. (2011) |
| | Maturity | Madagascar | RMSE: 10.2 days | Gerardeaux et al. (2011) |
| Varied planting dates and nitrogen inputs | Anthesis | United States | Very accurate | Tsvetsinskaya et al. (2003) |
| Open field and elevated CO ₂ | Anthesis Maturity | India | $2 \sim 4 \text{ days}$ $3 \sim 11 \text{ days}$ | Satapathy et al. (2014) Satapathy et al. (2014) |
| Direct seeded and transplanted rice | Phonological events | India | RMSE: $4 \sim 11$ days | Sarkar and Kar (2008) |

^aLiteratures that did not include treatments were considered as "well irrigated and well fertilized"; for instance, data obtained from local reports.

^bTreatments included varied seeding and transplanting dates, planting densities, spacing, nitrogen inputs and irrigations.

^cManagement practices included conventional tillage with residual removal and direct seeding mulch-based cropping system, and fertilized with manure, NPK and dolomite combinations.

3.2 Grain Yield

There were a total of 140 studies on the yield tests for the CERES models. The models have been tested under various experimental conditions, including well-managed fields with adequate irrigation and fertilization application and management treatments such as contrasting irrigation and fertilization application, varied sowing dates and population density, various planting methods, and various tillage methods and CO₂ concentrations. In general, the simulated grain yield matched reasonably well with the observed data, with RMSEs under 1400, 1200, and 800 kg/ha for maize, wheat, and rice yield simulations, respectively.

3.2.1 CERES-Maize

Eighty-four studies have validated CERES-Maize grain yield simulations under a range of conditions. Overall, the average RMSEs for grain yield simulations were mostly ranged between 200 and 1400 kg/ha.

With adequate nitrogen input (240 and 401 kg N/ha) treatments in Florida, US, the RMSE for the maize yield simulation ranged from 305.6 to 539.5 kg/ha (Lizaso et al., 2011). Under well-irrigated and fertilized conditions in Iowa, Louisiana, North Carolina, and Colorado (US), the average RMSEs for the yield simulation were about 1000 kg/ha (Saseendran et al., 2005; Thorp et al., 2007; Tsvetsinskaya et al., 2003; Yang et al., 2009). The average normalized RMSE for eight maize cultivars irrigated and fertilized treatments in Iran was 3.55% (Moradi et al., 2014). In contrast, the reported RMSEs were from 1315 to 2194 kg/ha in Georgia (US), Spain, and in a wheat-soybean-maize rotation system in Argentina (Caviglia et al., 2013; López-Cedrón et al., 2005; Tsvetsinskaya et al., 2003). Nonetheless, Tsvetsinskaya et al. (2003) and López-Cedrón et al. (2005) reported that the errors were less than 4% for yield simulations in the United States. Basso et al. (2007) also reported RMSEs around 2000 kg/ha for a whole field, high-yield zones, and lowyield zones. The average RMSE for simulating five maize production stations in China was 1347.6 kg/ha, but the error was within 20% (Tao and Zhang, 2010). Liu (1989) also reported that the error for a 4-year maize yield simulation in Brazil ranged from 10 to 21%, depending on the soil water initialization. Epperson et al. (1993) showed that for an irrigated field, the simulated yield was not significantly different from the observed yield at a 1% significance level. The differences between simulated and observed maize yields were within 600 kg/ha for 2-year simulations in China and 30-year simulations in Nigeria (Jagtap and Abamu, 2003; Wang et al., 2012). Studies

in two locations in Zimbabwe and a sheltered intercropping system in the United States showed that the simulation errors were within 9% (Makadho, 1996; Mize et al., 2005). The simulations for six locations in Southern Québec, Canada were mostly within 7.7% for overestimation, but the error could be up to 82.2% for underestimation (Brassard and Singh, 2007). The simulated maize yield in experimental stations in Bulgaria was close to the measured yield (Alexandrov and Hoogenboom, 2000). Wang et al. (2011) and Ye et al. (2012) showed that the CERES models were able to capture spatial grain yield variation in China. Link et al. (2006) and Paz et al. (1999) also showed that the CERES model could explain 60% of spatial maize yield variability for over 5 years in Germany and 57% of temporal and spatial yield variability in a farm in the United States, respectively. On a regional scale, the simulated maize yield for over 30 years in a county in Indiana, US, was not significantly different from that in the report (p = 0.05) (Andresen et al., 2001). Heinemann et al. (2002) indicated that the grain yield simulation in Brazil was acceptable on a regional scale. The average root mean square deviations (RMSDs) for yield simulations at a county level for over 9 years in nine states in the United States ranged between 610 and 1520 kg/ ha, with R^2 values from 0.05 to 0.8 (Kiniry et al., 1997). Weak correlations $(r \le 0.7)$ between the simulated and the recorded yield at the county level have been reported for Panama (Ruane et al., 2013) and the United States (Dhakhwa et al., 1997).

Studies have also tested grain yield under both nutrient and water stress conditions (ie, the treatment had contrasting irrigation and fertilization applications or had no nitrogen or no irrigation input). Examining four levels of nitrogen addition ranging between 20 and 280 kg/ha combined with two irrigation treatments involving fixed-versus variable-deficit trigger schedules, Pang et al. (1998) found that the simulated grain yields matched well with the observations for only the 20 and 100 kg N/ha treatments, not for the 180 and 280 kg N/ha treatments; the modeled grain yield was about 1.5 Mg/ha higher than the observed yield. Others, however, demonstrated that the CERES model was able to simulate grain yield accurately across a range of nutrient treatments (zero to high fertilizer input) combined with a range of irrigations, with an average RMSD under 360 kg/ha (Binder et al., 2008), average normalized RMSEs of 5.3% (Moradi et al., 2013), and an R^2 of 0.936 (Pang et al., 1997). Persson et al. (2009) showed that the simulation errors were $0.55 \sim 27.9\%$ for irrigated and rain-fed maize with fertilization and planting date treatments. Sadler et al. (2000) indicated that under rain-fed conditions in South Carolina, US, with a nitrogen input of $0 \sim 220 \text{ kg/ha}$ and a planting density of $0 \sim 15 \text{ plants/m}^2$, the simulated yield matched the measured yield reasonably well for some years, but not for other years.

The CERES models have also been tested given sufficient nutrients and varied available water conditions. The available soil water ranged between 30 and 75% of the maximum allowable depletion treatment. Panda et al. (2004) reported that the average RMSDs for wheat and maize grain yield simulation were under 250 kg/ha. With rain-feeding and 116 kg N/ha application treatments in Florida, the RMSE for the simulated maize yield was 290.8 kg/ha (Lizaso et al., 2011). Given irrigation treatments from optimum to moderate water stress in Pakistan, the RMSEs associated with the simulated yield for 2 years were under 560 kg/ha (Iqbal et al., 2011). Across six irrigation treatments involving 40 ~ 100% full irrigation in Colorado, US, the average normalized RMSE was under 10% (Anothai et al., 2013). Across irrigated and dry land in nine towns in Texas, US, and two irrigation treatments (with 421 and 609 mm irrigation) in Spain, the RMSEs ranged from 630 to 2140 kg/ha (Dechmi et al., 2010; Kiniry and Bockholt, 1998). Furthermore, across well-irrigated versus severe water shortage treatments in Australia and in a rain-fed treatment in Spain, the reported average RMSDs were over 3000 kg/ha (Carberry et al., 1989; López-Cedrón et al., 2008). By comparison, across three water-availability treatments (no, moderate, and severe water stress), the percentage errors were within 24%, and the simulations were more accurate for no-water-stress treatment (<12% error) than for moderate and severe water-stress treatments (>15%) (Ben Nouna et al., 2000; Mastrorilli et al., 2003). A similar pattern has been reported for experiments regarding water-stress versus sufficiently irrigated treatments in Pakistan (Mubeen et al., 2013). The reported average percentage errors for simulated maize yield on irrigated and dry land in the Corn Belt of the United States were within 10% (Hodges et al., 1987; Xie et al., 2001). The grain yield simulation was better in irrigated land than in rain-fed land for four maize hybrids in Brazil as well. The average normalized RMSDs were 3.78 and 8.29% for irrigated and rain-fed maize, respectively (Soler et al., 2007). Interestingly, another study of five rain-fed maize production stations in the North China Plain found that the model underestimated maize yield in dry years with percentage errors of $11 \sim 64\%$ and overestimated the yield in wet years with percentage errors of $26 \sim 55.4\%$ (Wu et al., 1989). Under rain-fed conditions, three studies reported reasonably accurate yield simulations, with errors of 5 kg/ha for 1 year and 357 kg/ ha for the other year in Nigeria (Jagtap et al., 1993), an underestimation

within 10% in Croatia (Vucetic, 2011), and good matching between simulated and observed yields for three sites in Venezuela (Maytin et al., 1995). For a rain-fed maize yield simulation on a regional scale in China, the reported RMSD was 1898 kg/ha, and on a farm scale, the simulated yield was highly correlated ($R^2 = 0.96$) with the observations in four rain-fed maize production stations (Xiong et al., 2007). For rain-fed fields in the Czech Republic, the simulated yield was within 17% error, and ignoring simulations with unusual weather, the simulations were within 12% error (Žalud and Dubrovský, 2002). In rotational rain-fed fields in Canada with tile drainage versus controlled tile drainage-subsurface irrigation treatments, the model efficiencies were 0.987 and 0.998, respectively, and the average normalized RMSDs were 14 and 4.3%, respectively (Liu et al., 2011). Tubiello et al. (2002) indicated that the simulated maize yield matched reasonably well with the observed yield under rain-fed conditions in five US states. Saseendran et al. (2008) tested the model using 3 years of grain yield measurements in Colorado, US, under both line-source sprinkler irrigation (with $23 \sim 106$ mm, $72 \sim 188$ mm, and $46 \sim 299$ mm water) and rain-fed treatments. The authors reported that the simulated RMSDs were 982 and 576 kg/ha for irrigation and rain-fed treatments, respectively. DeJonge et al. (2012) also reported that the model simulated fully irrigated grain yield more accurately than limit-irrigation grain yield, with 2.47% relative error for the full-irrigation yield simulation and 12.90% for the limitirrigation yield simulation. By contrast, DeJonge et al. (2011) simulated grain yield under adequate water and limited water treatments on the same experimental location and reported relative errors of 4.1 and 3.4% for full irrigation and limited irrigation, respectively. The grain yield simulation for an experiment with 100%-, 75%-, and 50%-full irrigation treatments in Turkey also showed that the model underestimated grain yield by 4.9, 1.7, and 9.4%, respectively, 1 year and by 4.6, 3.8and 2.3%, respectively, another year (Gercek and Okant, 2010). The reported mean errors for simulated grain yields at three sites for 3 years were 850, 933.3, and 333 kg/ha for 50%-, 75%-, and 100%-full irrigation treatments, respectively (Dogan et al., 2006). In the same research, the model was tested for overirrigated treatments as well. Given 65%-, 100%-, and 135%-full irrigated treatments for 3 years, the mean errors associated with the simulated yields were 1400, 600, and 3250 kg/ha, respectively (Dogan et al., 2006). One study in Spain considered wind speed's effect on irrigation and compared the grain yield simulations for nighttime irrigation and daytime irrigation (Salmerón et al., 2012). The reported RMSDs for the night irrigation treatment were around 1000 kg/ha

for 3 years, while the RMSDs for the daytime irrigation treatment were over 1200 kg/ha for 2 years and 935 kg/ha for another year (Salmerón et al., 2012). Additionally, the simulated maize yield was highly correlated ($R^2 = 0.66$) with the reported provincial yield under primary rain-fed conditions in South Africa (Estes et al., 2013).

With fully irrigated but varying nutrient applications between 0 and 140 kg/ha, the average RMSDs in both summer and spring maize yield simulations were 350 kg/ha lower in China (Binder et al., 2008). In Florida, US, without nitrogen fertilizer application, the RMSE for the simulated grain yield was 116.7 kg/ha (Lizaso et al., 2011). When three nitrogen input rate (300 ~ 400 kg N/ha) and two sowing date (Oct. 15 and Nov. 15) treatments were applied to two maize cultivars in Chile, the average RMSE of the simulated yield was 691 kg/ha (Meza et al., 2008). Two model tests with nitrogen treatments of $0 \sim 150 \text{ kg/ha}$ and $0 \sim 250 \text{ kg/ha}$ ha in Thailand and Hungary, respectively, indicated that the simulated grain yields were close to the observations, except for those without the nitrogen addition treatment (Asadi and Clemente, 2003; Kovacs et al., 1995). Miao et al. (2006) also showed that with fertilization treatments (112 \sim 336 kg N/ ha applications), the simulation errors were mostly within 10%, while in a no-fertilization treatment, the absolute errors were over 20%. In China, maize yield simulations given 0 and 165 kg N/ha application rates had normalized RMSEs of 32 and 23%, respectively (Yang et al., 2013). Similarly, in Canada, while the normalized RMSE for continuous maize with fertilization application treatment was 6%, the normalized RMSE for maize without fertilization application was 37% (Liu et al., 2014). In Ethiopia, with fertilizer addition treatments between 0 and 100 kg/ha, the model overestimated maize yield by about 300 kg/ha (Kassie et al., 2014). A study using 50 years of experimental data reported that the grain yield simulations for maize in fertilized (side-dress nitrogen of 112 kg/ha) versus nonfertilized fields showed a much higher normalized RMSD in the nonfertilized field (82%) than in the fertilized field (39%) (Liu et al., 2010). O'Neal et al. (2002) pointed out that the low correlation ($R^2 = 0.33$) between the observed and simulated grain yields given $127 \sim 227 \text{ kg N/}$ ha application treatments was due to lower levels of fertilizer application in the treatments used. The normalized RMSDs found in the maize grain yield simulation across 0 ~ 400 kg/ha nitrogen application treatments in China were small as well (within 15%) (Liu et al., 2012). In Thailand, using a treatment with mineral fertilizer application rates and four compost fertilizer rates (0 \sim 7500 kg/ha), the grain yield was relatively well-simulated in the

second and third years (normalized RMSE of 11.1 \sim 16.9% and an index of agreement over 0.55) but poorly simulated in the fourth and fifth years (normalized RMSE of 62.8 \sim 107.0% and an index of agreement below 0.45) (Pinitpaitoon et al., 2011). A study in Burkina Faso simulating grain yields given no, inorganic, and organic nitrogen inputs showed that the simulated yield was 667 kg/ha higher than the observed yield (Soler et al., 2011). In addition, with fertilization rates of $60 \sim 120 \text{ kg N/ha}$, the simulated yields were lower at 60 kg N/ha but higher at 120 kg N/ha compared to the observed yield (Jagtap et al., 1999).

Other test conditions included various sowing dates, planting densities, tillage methods, planting methods, soil types, CO2 concentrations, leaf defoliation, and winter cover crops. Simulating various hybrid maize yields using four sowing dates in India (Jun. with 10-day intervals between sowing dates) and Argentina (Aug. 20 ~ Nov.), the average RMSDs were 559 and 3670 kg/ha, respectively (Otegui et al., 1996; Ramawat et al., 2012). In the historical field data for sowing date treatments in Illinois, US, the simulated yield reflected the inter-annual yield variation, and the errors were within 10% (Southworth et al., 2000). In Iran, a validation study was conducted with three maize cultivars and seven planting densities (3, 5, 7, 9, 11, 13, and 15 plants/m²), and it showed that the average normalized RMSD was within 9% (Lashkari et al., 2011). However, a study simulating maize yield with $0 \sim 24 \text{ plants/m}^2$ density at two sites in North America showed that the model did not capture yield reduction in response to the increased planting density at both sites (Ritchie and Alagarswamy, 2003). The reported normalized RMSDs for simulated yield in China were 9, 16, and 23% for conventional tillage, reduced conventional tillage, and no tillage, respectively (Liu et al., 2013). Hook (1994) reported that the grain yield in four types of soil in Georgia, US, was overestimated by 260 kg/ha on average and that the error ranged between an underestimation of 1680 kg/ha and an overestimation of 1120 kg/ha. The grain yield simulation was also tested under nutrient stress combined with tillage method treatments. One research project used 4-year datasets from maize fields under conventional, rational, and dish harrow tillage with various fertilizer applications (including calcium chloride, single super-phosphate, and calcium ammonium nitrate) and calculated the mean absolute errors as 547, 645, and 1030 kg/ha, respectively, for each tillage treatment (Samuhel and Siska, 2007). With a 66% leaf defoliation rate at leaf stages 6 and 12, the CERES-Maize model yield prediction was less than desirable, with absolute percentage errors of 14 ~ 34% (Weiss and Piper, 1992). In general, the simulated maize grain yield matched well with the

observed maize yield across no-cover crop treatments and winter cover crop (barley, oilseed rape, winter rape, and vetch) treatments in Spain, with RMSEs ranging from 530 to 2720 kg/ha (Salmerón et al., 2014).

3.2.2 CERES-Wheat

The model has been validated under a range of conditions, such as irrigation, fertilization, sowing date, and tillage treatments.

Under irrigated and fertilized conditions, the simulated wheat yield accurately depicted the wheat yield trends for several rice-wheat sites in India (Subash and Mohan, 2012). Several studies of wheat production showed that the simulated grain yield matched the observed yield well, with low RMSEs (RMSE: 175 ~ 588.6 kg/ha), low errors (error: <500 kg/ha), and high correlations of determination (R²: 0.9) (Liu and Tao, 2013; Liu and Yuan, 2010; Wang et al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2013; Zhao et al., 2011). Nonetheless, a large RMSE of 897 kg/ha was reported when comparing the simulated grain yield for 141 wheat stations in China and the consensus yield (Xiong et al., 2008a). In general, the model accurately simulated wheat yields for fertilized wheat fields in Italy (RMSEs: <950 kg/ha) (Basso et al., 2007, 2009), two sites in Canada over 30 years (R2: 0.7) (Chipanshi et al., 1999), the Pampas (RMSE: 410 kg/ha, R²: 0.86) (Savin et al., 1995), wheat production stations in Bulgaria (the observations and simulations were scattered around a 1:1 line) (Alexandrov and Hoogenboom, 2000), four sites in the United Kingdom and five stations in the Czech Republic (RMSE: ≤ 930 kg/ha, percentage error: 8.7%) (Bannayan et al., 2003; Trnka et al., 2004), and a site in Austria over 15 years (percentage error: <17%) (Alexandrov et al., 2002). The simulated grain yield was moderately well-matched with the observed yield for three durum wheat cultivars in Italy (average normalized RMSE of 27%) (Dettori et al., 2011), eight sites in Canada over 30 years (percentage error: <28%, with one exception of 58.4%) (Brassard and Singh, 2007), and eight sites in Europe (RMSE: 1603 kg/ha, agreement index: 0.74) (Palosuo et al., 2011). In general, the simulated wheat grain yield for four counties in the United States over more than 4 years matched well with the observations, with R^2 values ranging between 0.4 and 0.72 (Rosenzweig and Tubiello, 1996). In India, the modeled irrigated wheat grain yield was significantly different from the observed yield, but the yearly yield fluctuation was well-simulated (Lal et al., 1998). Tian et al. (2012) reported that the percentage error in grain yield simulation for 36 wheat production stations in China ranged from 11.6 to 33.6%, depending on the calibration methods.

Across available soil water from 10 to 60%, combined with four ratios of N:P₂O₅:K₂O fertilizer application (0, 80:40:40, 120:60:60, and 160:80:80) treatments, the average RMSDs were under 250 kg/ha, with a model efficiency of 0.95 (Behera and Panda, 2009). When simulating grain yield under both fertilizer application and irrigation treatments (five levels of nitrogen addition of $0 \sim 150 \text{ kg N/ha}$ and irrigation $2 \sim 4 \text{ times per growing season}$, the CERES model performed the worst (absolute percentage deviation of 66.45%) when the crop was under the extreme conditions of low irrigation and no fertilization application, while it performed much better (absolute percentage deviation ranging between 0.38 and 12.9%) when the crop was at least fertilized with over 60 kg/ha nitrogen (Singh et al., 2008). Polilaities and Lazauskas (2010) simulated wheat grain yield in two experiments, one with 60 kg N/ha applied at various growing stages, and the other with various management intensities, and they concluded that the CERES model accurately simulated grain yield given 60 kg N/ha fertilizer addition treatment in the years without water shortage but that the accuracy declined when there was a water shortage or the plot did not receive nitrogen. In China, across treatments and with various levels of fertilization and irrigation, the normalized RMSE for gain yield was 5% (Ji et al., 2014). With fertilizer treatment and extreme conditions of both drought and nutrient deficit, the bias errors were 0.31, 0, and 0.74 for nonfertilized, fertilized at 45 kg N/ha, and extreme conditions, respectively (Touré et al., 1995). In experiments in Bangladesh with both nutrient (0 \sim 135 kg N/ha) and water treatments (rain-fed vs. irrigated), Timsina et al. (1998) reported that the overall simulated wheat yield matched well with the observations (RMSD = 467 kg/ha, $r^2 = 0.95$). Compiling 20-year yield data for a maize-wheat rotation given $0 \sim 250 \text{ kg N/ha}$ input treatments, the maize and the wheat yields matched with the observations well $(R^2: 0.82)$ (Kovacs et al., 1995). In contrast, another study in Spain with similar water and nutrient treatments (rain-fed vs. irrigated and fertilized at 0 vs. 250 kg N/ha) showed that the wheat grain yield simulation had an average RMSD of 1060 kg/ha and that ignoring 1 year of rain-fed data, the average RMSD would have been reduced to 790 kg/ha (Abeledo et al., 2008). Similarly, simulating grain yield in an experimental field in India, combining five irrigation treatments of various amounts and timings and four nitrogen application levels from 0 to 180 kg/ha, resulted in an average normalized RMSD of 25%, but this would decrease to 18% if grain yield under extreme irrigation and nutrient treatment were not included (Arora et al., 2007). However, Lobell and Ortiz-Monasterio (2006) indicated that the CERES

model was able to simulate grain yield accurately across ranges of nutrient (low to high levels of nitrogen application) combined with a gradient of water applications (irrigation $3 \sim 5$ times), with an average RMSD of 230 kg/ha. Saseendran et al. (2004) indicated that in rain-fed fields in Colorado, US, with fertilization treatment ($0 \sim 112$ kg/ha), the simulation was more accurate in years in which rainfall was plentiful.

Without nutrient stress but with available soil water ranging between 30 and 75% of the maximum allowable depletion treatment, Panda et al. (2003) reported that the average RMSDs for a wheat and maize grain yield simulation were under 250 kg/ha. Under rain-fed conditions in India, the CERES model simulated wheat yield reasonably well, with index of agreement of 0.87 and a model efficiency of 0.57 (Vashisht et al., 2013). For 13 US states, most of the wheat yield simulations were in good agreement with the recorded yield (Tubiello et al., 2002). Iglesias et al. (2000) found that the CERES model, in general, overestimated the grain yield across seven sites in Spain and that the simulation was more accurate for fully irrigated wheat than dry-land wheat. With a wheat yield simulation in Australia over 9 years, a study showed that the model overestimated yields with high values and underestimated yields with relatively low values, with an average error of 5.1%, and that the error was partly due to water stress (Eitzinger et al., 2003). The simulated grain yield across well-irrigated and early drought wheat fields in Argentina had a root mean square of 20 kg/ha, while the observed grain yield had a mean standard error of 40 kg/ha (Savin et al., 1994). Two studies compared the CERES model grain yield simulation's accuracy between fully available water and limited available water scenarios. Singh et al. (2008) calculated the RMSDs for grain yield simulations given irrigation 2 ~ 4 times per growing season and varied levels of nitrogen input for each irrigation treatment, and they reported that the RMSDs were over 700 and 220 kg/ha for the two least-irrigated treatments and the most frequent irrigation treatment, respectively. The errors for simulating wheat yield under irrigation 0, 1, 2, and 4 times in China ranged from a 390 kg/ha underestimation to a 150 kg/ha overestimation (Yang et al., 2006b). When simulating yield under nine treatments of various irrigation timings and amounts in China, the percentage errors ranged from 1.56 to 8.17% (He et al., 2013). Although accurate grain simulations under water stress have been reported, more studies found that grain yield simulation was not that accurate regarding fully irrigated conditions versus droughts in various growing stages treatments in New Zealand, with an RMSE of over 3000 (Jamieson et al., 1998). Interestingly, a test conducted in rain-fed

experiments in Syria and Italy, involving two wheat cultivars for 2 years showed percentage errors that were mostly over 60% and not more than 21%, respectively (Pecetti and Hollington, 1997). When simulating grain vield under limited versus full water availability combined with elevated versus ambient CO₂ concentration treatments in Germany, the model efficiency was 0.5 (Biernath et al., 2011). While simulated grain yield matched well with reported yield for irrigated and rain-fed wheat in Jordan (RMSE was 586 kg/ha), the simulated yield was weakly correlated with the observed wheat yield at the county level in Canada (correlation between two standardized anomalies was 0.59), Kansas (US) (R: 0.63), and two irrigated and fertilized fields in Mexico (R: 0.72 ~ 0.87) (Al-Bakri et al., 2011; Greene and Maxwell, 2007; Lobell et al., 2005; Mearns et al., 1992). Nonetheless, the model under-predicted yields for 303 wheat fields in England, with an average error of 2600 kg/ha (Landau et al., 1998). Nain et al. (2004) also reported a low correlation (R: 0.67) between the observed and simulated yield deviations (from the average yields) for three locations in India.

The CERES-wheat model has been tested using contrasting fertilization treatments and sufficient irrigation. The average RMSEs for the yield simulations were not larger than 471 kg/ha across various amounts and types of fertilizer application treatments in Pakistan (Bakhsh et al., 2013) and across five levels of nitrogen input with residue treatment in India (Sarkar and Kar, 2008). A study in India showed that a grain yield simulation across rotation cropping systems, with a $0 \sim 160 \text{ kg N/ha}$ application being given to one of the systems, had an average RMSD of 617 kg/ha (Timsina et al., 2008). Wang et al. (2010) showed that for fertilization, irrigation and tillage treatments, the correlation coefficient between simulation and observation was about 0.95 for continuous wheat, while that for wheat rotation field was under 0.85. Zhang et al. (2012) suggested that with a $0 \sim 112 \text{ kg N/ha}$ application to a wheat field, the simulated and observed grain yields were not significantly different (P = 0.05). Given 110.5 and 241.0 kg N/ha application treatments in Arizona, US, the average RMSE for the yield simulation was 7.4% (Thorp et al., 2010b). For six nitrogen input and planting density treatments in Arizona, the yield simulations were acceptable, with errors less than 1 Mg/ha (Thorp et al., 2010a). St'astna et al. (2002) found that for ten treatments, including fertilization rates (40 and 120 kg/ha), different crops preceding the wheat, and planting dates treatments, the CERES model could simulate grain yield relatively well when the crop was not infested by pest. Examining 30 years of field data regarding fertilization and nonfertilization treatments, Moulin and Beckie (1993) reported that the 1:1 line

between the simulation and the observation fell out of 95% confidence band, although there was a significant relationship between the simulated and the observed yield.

Other test conditions included various sowing dates, planting densities, tillage methods, planting methods, soil types, and CO₂ concentrations. A study in India in which wheat was sown between DOY310 and DOY354 showed that the model underestimated yield for both early- and late-sown wheat, with an average percentage error of 21% (Hundal and PrabhjyotKaur, 1997). Studies in Argentina and Pakistan showed that the model simulated wheat grain yield under varied sowing dates reasonably well, with RMSEs under 851 kg/ha (Monzon et al., 2007; Sultana et al., 2009). With experiments consisting of 31 sowing dates across Nebraska, US, for 6 years, the yield simulations for two wheat cultivars had average normalized RMSEs of 39 ~ 46% and RMSEs of about 1178 ~ 1266 kg/ha (Moreno-Sotomayor and Weiss, 2004). With both humid and dry weather in Algeria and using three sowing dates in Dec., the RMSE for simulating grain yield was 790 kg/ ha (Rezzoug et al., 2008). For simulating grain yield using sowing dates between late-Aug. and early-Nov. combined with seeding rates from 14 to 56 seeds/ft.², the simulation accuracy varied greatly, with about 500 kg/ha overestimation for early sown treatment (before DOY247); good estimation for DOY255, 266, and 276; and up to 1600 kg/ha overestimation for latesown treatments (sown after DOY284) (Dahlke et al., 1993; Southworth et al., 2002). Two studies tested the CERES model under a planting density treatment. Across seeding density (350 ~ 400 seeds/m²) combined with sowing date (Sep. 20 ~ Oct. 30) treatments, the average RMSD for the yield simulation was 240 kg/ha (Ghaffari et al., 2001, 2002). Across five planting density treatments, two irrigation levels, various levels of phosphorous input, and various seeding rates in Iran, the normalized RMSE was 5% (Bannayan et al., 2014). Under a wide range of growing conditions and various fertilizer inputs, sowing dates, and planting densities in five US states, the model tended to overestimate the grain yield (up to 36%), and the average overestimation was 8% (Tsvetsinskaya et al., 2003). Cho et al. (2012) reported that the CERES-Wheat model consistently overestimated the wheat yield in experiment fields given fertilization (48 ~ 192 kg/ha), sowing date (Sep. \sim Nov.), and seeding rate (350 \sim 450 seeds/m²) treatments in the United Kingdom for 11 years, with an r^2 of 0.56. With various rotation systems, Staggenborg and Vanderlip (2005) reported up to 22% grain yield overestimation with RMSEs of about 1400 kg/ha for both wheat-sorghumfallow and wheat-fallow systems in Kansas, US. Given a range of tillage

treatments (eg, conventional tillage, surface tillage, minimum tillage, and no tillage), the model simulated grain yield in Spain (RMSEs: 551 kg/ha for conventional tillage and 804 kg/ha for no tillage) and Italy well (errors: 700 ~ 1200 kg/ha) (Castrignano et al., 1997; Soldevilla-Martinez et al., 2013). Langensiepen et al. (2008) noted that depending on the calibration process, the RMSE for wheat grain yield simulation in a wheat-barley-canola rotation field in Germany ranged from 700 to 2200 kg/ha. The grain yield prediction accuracy was reported for yields from various soil types as well. Eizinger et al. (2004) showed that the CERES-Wheat model overestimated the yield by 500 and 900 kg/ha with chernozem and sandy chernozem soils, respectively, and underestimated the yield by 1500 kg/ha with fluvisol soil. He et. al. (2014) reported that the RMSEs for wheat yield simulation were under 1688 kg/ha across silt and clay soil sites in Canada. The model has been tested under ambient versus elevated CO₂ concentrations (550 ppm) in combination with well-watered versus water-deficit treatments, and the normalized RMSEs ranged from 9.2 to 23.3% (Tubiello et al., 1999b).

3.2.3 CERES-Rice

Tests regarding the rice yield of the CERES model are relatively less extensive but have still been performed using a range of treatments. The reported RMSEs mostly ranged from 200 to 1672 kg/ha.

Two studies in China simulating rice yield for six to eight rice ecological stations reported that the average RMSEs for rice yield were within 800 kg/ ha (Tao et al., 2008; Yao et al., 2007). The simulated rice yield was not significantly different from the observed yield over more than 10 years of field experiments in two locations in India (P > 0.01) (Lal et al., 1998). Subash and Mohan (2012) showed that the CERES-Rice model predicted the rice production trends in several production sites for 29 years, although the model tended to overpredict the yield. By contrast, Xiong et al. (2008) reported that the CERES models failed to reproduce the temporal rice yield variability in China. Xiong et al. (2008b) also reported that the RMSEs for rice yield simulations for more than 500 rice stations in China ranged from 1129 to 1672 kg/ha (normalized RMSE: $11.8 \sim 25.6\%$) and that the model, on average, overestimated rice yield by 3191 kg/ha at a regional level. Yun (2003) showed that the correlation of determination between the simulated and observed yields was 0.4, while it was over 0.9 at the regional level when growing acreages were corrected.

Studies have tested grain yield under both water and nutrient stress conditions. Experiments in Bangladesh with both nutrient (0 \sim 135 kg N/ha)

and water treatments (rain-fed vs. irrigated), Timsina et al. (1998) showed that the overall simulated rice yield did not match well with the observations (RMSD = 1279 kg/ha, $r^2 = 0.52$). In contrast, Amiri et al. (2013) reported that the average RMSD was 297 kg/ha under various amounts of irrigations treatment and fertilization treatment (0 ~ 75 kg/ha) in Iran. Using 80 treatments consisting of various sowing dates, population densities, spacings, and fertilization and irrigation treatments, Mall et al. (2002) reported an overall RMSD of 698 kg/ha, but the model did not simulate grain yields accurately when the yield was under 4 Mg/ha (Mall and Aggarwal, 2002). Under rainfed conditions in India, with six nitrogen application treatments (0 ~ 120 kg/ha) and wheat residue treatments (remains vs. removed), the simulated rice yield had a mean bias errors of 131.5 and 64.0 kg/ha for transplanted and direct-seeded rice, respectively (Sarkar and Kar, 2008).

The CERES models have also been tested under varied available water conditions. Combining irrigation water treatment (625, 775, 925, 1075, and 1225 mm) and seedling density (1 ~ 3 seedlings/hill) treatment in Pakistan, the simulated grain yield was on average 11% off of the observation, with a normalized RMSD of 1.4 ~ 2.1% for each seedling density treatment (Ahmad et al., 2012). Under rain-fed conditions with varying transplanting dates from mid-Jun. to early-Aug. in Bangladesh, the average RMSE for rice yield was 1270 kg/ha (Mahmood et al., 2003). Godwin et al. (1994) indicated that the CERES models performed less accurately when rice was under stressed conditions, with satisfactory yield prediction for continuously flooded and fertilized rice fields, heavy underestimation for sprinkled and fertilized rice fields.

With contrasting fertilizer input treatments, the CERES-rice model showed the ability to accurately simulate the rice yield as well. Simulating grain yield under a $0 \sim 150~\rm kg~N/ha$ treatment in India for a medium-duration rice variety showed the worst prediction among 150 kg/ha nitrogen addition treatments, with over 50% error, but the simulation error for the long-duration variety was 4 and 14% for the 150 kg N/ha and 10 kg N/ha treatments, respectively (Swain and Yadav, 2009). With the same fertilization treatment in three locations in Thailand, the biases were 277 $\sim 407~\rm kg/ha$, while with a 75 kg N/ha addition, the biases were only 77 $\sim 142~\rm kg/ha$ (Cheyglinted et al., 2001). In addition, Amien et al. (1999) showed that the model slightly underestimated rice yield and that the simulated yield was highly correlated with the measured yield (r^2 of 0.87) in three regions of Indonesia using various nitrogen fertilizer sources, rates and application methods.

Others tested the CERES-Rice model using sowing date, tillage method, residue removal, elevated CO₂, and elevated temperature treatments. Babel et al. (2011) reported that the average percentage error for simulating both early- and late-sown rice in a field in Thailand was 3.13%. With 18 planting dates ranging from Jan. to Dec. and Jul. to Aug., in India, the yield simulations had indices of agreement ranging from 0 to 0.98 (the overall agreement index was 0.57) (Sudharsan et al., 2013). In Madagascar, the model was tested across two tillage treatments, conventional tillage with residue removal versus direct seeding with mulch-based tillage, and the average RMSD for the harvest weight simulation was 499 kg/ha (Gerardeaux et al., 2011). Sarkar and Kar (2006) reported that when simulating rice yield in rice-wheat rotation systems involving both residue removal and residue remaining, the average RMSDs were 267.34 and 445.21 kg/ha for transplanted rice and direct-seeded rice, respectively. Using an elevated CO₂ treatment in India, the grain yield simulation errors were within 10% (Satapathy et al., 2014). Across temperature treatments $(0 \sim 2 \, ^{\circ}\text{C})$ elevated) combined with CO_2 concentration treatments (380 ppm and 550 ppm), the simulated yield was up to 17.6% underestimated and 9.1% overestimated (Kim et al., 2013).

3.3 Kernel Weight

3.3.1 CERES-Maize

Kernel weight has been tested on the basis of individual kernels, per square meter, and per year given irrigation, fertilization, and cover-crop treatments (Table 7). Six studies tested maize kernel weight under an irrigation treatment. Under water-stressed conditions, the kernel weight was underestimated by about 30%, while under irrigation treatments, the errors were about 3% (Mubeen et al., 2013). Across dry- and irrigated land in Kansas, US, the average RMSE for maize kernel weight was 0.061 g (Retta et al., 1991). Similarly, across well-irrigated and severe water stress treatments in Australia, the average RMSE was 0.13 g (Carberry et al., 1989). In Italy, the kernel weight tended to be underestimated, and the percentage errors were larger with severe water stress (up to 21%) than with moderate or zero water stress (within 15%) (Ben Nouna et al., 2000; Mastrorilli et al., 2003). A study in Brazil indicated that the prediction of kernel weight was worse under rain-fed conditions (normalized RMSE of 6.07%) than under irrigated conditions (normalized RMSE of 4.8%) (Soler et al., 2007). When simulating grain weight in rain-fed fields in Nigeria, the errors were less than

Table 7 Summary of the CERES-Maize model performances for kernel weight^a and kernel number^a variable simulations.

| Treatment category | Variables | Countries | Performance | References |
|--|---------------|---------------------------|--|--|
| Rain-fed/nonirrigated and well fertilized | Kernel number | Brazil | RMSE: 102 ~ 257 Normalized RMSE: 4.56 ~ 12.87% | Soler et al. (2007) |
| | | Nigeria | Difference: $0 \sim 174$ | Jagtap et al. (1993) |
| | | Spain | RMSE: 1700 | López-Cedrón et al. (2008) |
| | Kernel weight | Croatia | Underestimated by 3% | Vucetic (2011) |
| | | Pakistan, Italy, China | Underestimated by 11 ~ 30% | Mubeen et al. (2013); Mastrorilli et al. (2003); Ben Nouna et al. (2000); Guo et al. (2010) |
| | | Croatia | Overestimated by 39% | Vucetic (2011) |
| | | Brazil | Normalized RMSE: <6.07% | Soler et al. (2007) |
| | | Nigeria | Difference: <0.007 g Percentage error: <3% | Jagtap et al. (1993) |
| Irrigated with a gradient of water/different | Kernel number | Italy | Underestimated by 1.7 ~ 21% | Ben Nouna et al. (2000); Mastrorilli et al. (2003) |
| scheduling time and | | Australia | RMSE: 1065 | Carberry et al. (1989) |
| well fertilized | Kernel weight | United States | RMSE: 0.061 g | Retta et al. (1991) |
| | | Australia | RMSE: 0.13 g | Carberry et al. (1989) |
| | | Italy | Percentage error: <15% | Mastrorilli et al. (2003); Ben Nouna et al. (2000) |

(Continued)

DIUITO DASSO EL A

Table 7 Summary of the CERES-Maize model performances for kernel weight^a and kernel number^a variable simulations.—cont'd.

| Treatment category | Variables | Countries | Performance | References |
|---|--------------------------------|----------------------------|---|--|
| Well irrigated and well fertilized (Weiss and Moreno-Sotomayer, | Kernel number | Brazil | RMSE: 102 Normalized RMSE: 4.56% | Soler et al. (2007) |
| 2006) | | Italy | Underestimated by: 8% | Ben Nouna et al. (2000); Mastrorilli et al. (2003) |
| | Kernel weight | Pakistan, Italy, Brazil | Percentage error: 3 ~ 15% | Mubeen et al. (2013); Mastrorilli et al. (2003); Ben Nouna et al. (2000); Soler et al. (2007) |
| | Kernel weight | Argentina | Overestimated it at its low weight range values, underestimated it at its high range values | Otegui et al. (1996) |
| Cover crops | Kernel number Kernel weight | Spain | RMSE: 188 ~ 584 RMSE: 0.012 ~ 0.03 g | Salmerón et al. (2014) |

^aHere only showed individual kernel weight and kernel number per square meter validation results; other relevant validated variables included kernel weight per square meter, kernel weight per year, kernel number per year and kernel number per plant and the results were summarized in the text.

0.007 g (within 3% error) (Jagtap et al., 1993). Under rain-fed conditions in Croatia, the model overestimated kernel weight by 39% (Vucetic, 2011). With cover-crop treatments in Spain, the kernel weight was well-simulated, with low RMSEs between 0.012 and 0.03 g (Salmerón et al., 2014). Grain weight per square meter was tested for dry- and irrigated land in Kansas, and the average RMSE was 152.2 g (Retta et al., 1991). The grain weight per year was tested for agricultural experiment stations in the Southeastern US, and the average RMSE was 59 g (Tsvetsinskaya et al., 2003). In addition, Otegui et al. (1996) indicated that when simulating kernel weight given sowing dates treatments for four maize hybrids in Argentina, the model overestimated the grain weight when it was at the low-range value but underestimated the grain weight when it was at the high-range value.

3.3.2 CERES-Wheat

Ten studies tested the weight of wheat kernels under a range of treatments (Table 8). The individual-grain-weight simulation had average RMSEs within 0.0076 g under water stress (rain-fed vs. irrigated treatments) combined with nutrient stress conditions (0 ~ 250 kg N/ha) in Spain (Abeledo et al., 2008) and fertilized cropping systems in Argentina (Monzon et al., 2007). Under well-irrigated and fertilized condition in India, the simulated grain weight for 5 years was 88 ~ 113% of the observed grain weight (Hundal and PrabhjyotKaur, 1997). In China, across nine irrigation treatments, the relative absolute errors ranged from 0 to 8.29%, with an average relative absolute error of 5% (He et al., 2013). Across rain-fed and irrigation treatments in Argentina, the grain weight simulation was in good agreement with the observation, with a root mean square of 0.0022 g (Savin et al., 1994). Two studies in Nebraska, US, reported that the normalized RMSEs for kernel weight simulations were about 0.003 g given planting population combined with sowing date treatments and about 0.0024 g given varied sowing date conditions (Moreno-Sotomayor and Weiss, 2004; Weiss and Moreno-Sotomayer, 2006). With five wheat production stations in the Czech Republic, the RMSE for a thousand-grain weight simulation was 7.5 g, which was within 20% error (Trnka et al., 2004). However, the thousand-grain weight was poorly simulated under combinations of CO2 concentration and water availability treatments, with a model efficiency index of 0.44 (Biernath et al., 2011). Another study showed that the model underestimated the thousand-grain weight across experiments in humid and dry weather conditions in Algeria, with an average RMSE of 4.29 g for the model evaluation year (Rezzoug et al., 2008).

Bruno Basso et a

Table 8 Summary of the CERES-Wheat model performances for kernel weight^a and kernel number^a variable simulations.

| Treatment category | Variables | Countries | Performance | References |
|---|---------------|------------------------|--|--------------------------------------|
| Irrigated with a gradient of | Kernel weight | China | Percentage error: <9% | He et al. (2013) |
| water/different scheduling time and well fertilized | | Argentina | Root mean square: 0.0022 g | Savin et al. (1994) |
| | Kernel number | Germany | Model efficiency index: 0.52 | Biernath et al. (2011) ^{,b} |
| Well irrigated, fertilized with a gradient of fertilizer(s) and combined with different sowing dates | Kernel number | Germany Netherlands | RMSE: 3677, R ² : 0.07 RSME: 1808, R ² : 0.77 | Ratjen et al. (2012) |
| Well irrigated and well fertilized | Kernel weight | Argentina | RMSE: 0.0051 g R^2 : 0.32 | Monzon et al. (2007) |
| | | India | Percentage error: ≤13% | Hundal and PrabhjyotKaur (1997) |
| | Kernel number | Czech Republic | RMSE: 2845 Percentage error: <20% | Trnka et al. (2004) |
| | | Argentina | RMSE: 3018 | Monzon et al. (2007) |
| Irrigated with a gradient of water and fertilized with a gradient of fertilizer(s) only | Kernel weight | Spain | RMSE: 0.0076 g Mean percentage error: 22% | Abeledo et al. (2008) |
| ., , | Kernel number | Spain | RMSE: 4340 Mean percentage error: 24% | Abeledo et al. (2008) |

| Sowing dates | Kernel weight | United States | RMSE: $0.0023 \sim 0.0029 \mathrm{g}$ | Weiss and Moreno- |
|--------------|---------------|---------------|---------------------------------------|----------------------|
| | | | Normalized RMSE: | Sotomayer (2006),c; |
| | | | 9 ~ 12% | Moreno-Sotomayer |
| | | | | and Weiss (2004) |
| | Kernel number | United States | RMSE: 3998 ~ 4555 | Moreno-Sotomayer and |
| | | | Normalized RMSE: | Weiss (2004) |
| | | | 35 ~ 42% | |

^aHere only showed individual wheat kernel weight and kernel number per square meter validation results; other relevant validated variables included thousand wheat kernel weight, and thousand kernel number, and the validation results were summarized in the text.

^bTreatment included two irrigation regimes (full irrigation vs. limit irrigation) combined with elevated CO₂ versus ambient CO₂ concentration.

^cTreatments include Planting density combined with sowing dates.

3.3.3 CERES-Rice

One study in Indonesia showed that the CERES-Rice model underestimated the kernel weight by almost 1 mg (Amien et al., 1999).

3.4 Kernel Number

3.4.1 CERES-Maize

Maize kernel number has been tested in the form of grain number per year, grain number per square meter, and grain number per plant. It has been validated with irrigation and fertilization treatments (Table 7). Soler et al. (2007) reported that the grain number simulation for both irrigated and rain-fed fields in Brazil were reasonably good, with average RMSEs of 102 and 257, respectively, and normalized RMSEs of 4.56 and 12.87%, respectively. Jagtap et al. (1993) showed that the CERES model could underestimate the number of grains per year by 21 or overestimate it by 68, depending on the year. With severe water stress, the simulated grain number per year was up to 21% less than the observations for 1 year but only about 1.7% less for another year (Ben Nouna et al., 2000; Mastrorilli et al., 2003). Across two water availability extremes, Retta et al. (1991) reported that the grain number per year simulation across dry- and irrigated-land treatments had an average RMSE of 94, and Carberry et al. (1989) calculated the RMSE to be 127.8 across well-watered and severe water stress treatments. In Argentina, for four sowing dates between late-Aug. and late-Nov., the CERES model overestimated the low-range grain numbers and underestimated the high-range grain numbers (Otegui et al., 1996). Six studies tested the grain number per square meter. Three of them suggested that in general, grain number on a square meter basis did not match very well with the observations under limited-water conditions, with a percentage difference up to 21% (Ben Nouna et al., 2000; Mastrorilli et al., 2003) and an RMSE over 1000 (Carberry et al., 1989). Another study tested grain number per square meter under rain-fed conditions in Nigeria. The grain number per square meter seemed to be reasonably well-simulated, with errors as low as 0 and as high as 174, depending on the simulation year (Jagtap et al., 1993). In Spain, kernel number per square meter simulations with cover crop treatments had a low error (RMSE < 590) as well (Salmerón et al., 2014). By contrast, the RMSE when simulating grain number per square meter under rain-fed conditions in Spain was over 1700 (López-Cedrón et al., 2008). In terms of grain number per plant tests, Lizaso et al. (2001) used 134 treatments over 4 years in Iowa and reported that the CERES consistently overestimated kernel number when it was under 400 kernels per plant but underestimated kernel number per plant by 67 overall.

3.4.2 CERES-Wheat

Seven studies validated wheat kernel number under a range of treatments (Table 8). The reported average RMSE for grains per square meter ranged from 3998 to 4555 across irrigated and rain-fed fields in Spain (Abeledo et al., 2008) and for 31 sowing experiments in the United States (Moreno-Sotomayor and Weiss, 2004). By contrast, the RMSE ranged from 2845 to 3018 under fertilized condition in Argentina (Monzon et al., 2007) and the Czech Republic (Trnka et al., 2004). Under both water availability and CO2 concentration treatments, the average model efficiency index for simulating grain number on a square-meter basis was 0.52 (Biernath et al., 2011). Ratjen et al. (2012) used two datasets from Germany with fertilization (0 \sim 320 kg N/ha) and sowing date treatments (Sep.-Oct.) and from the Netherlands under fertilization and sowing date treatments (varied sowing dates between Oct. 19 and 25) to test grain number per square meter and showed that the RMSEs were 3677 and 1808 grains/m², respectively. Savin et al. (1994) compared the standard error of the mean for the observed thousand-grain number to the root mean square of the simulated thousand-grain number across well-irrigated and early drought treatments, and the statistics were 1.34 and 0.56, respectively.

3.4.3 CERES-Rice

One simulation study used 32 experiments conducted under various locations, weather, and management conditions in India for over 13 years and showed that grain number per square meter was well-simulated when the number was over the range of 15,000–32,000 grains/m² (Mall and Aggarwal, 2002).

3.5 Aboveground Biomass and its Components (Excluding Grain Yield)

3.5.1 CERES-Maize

A total of 31 studies tested the biomass-related variables of the CERES-maize model, including aboveground biomass, LAI, stover biomass, biological yield, and shoot, leaf, stem, and year biomass (Tables 9 and 10). Under the maximum allowable depletion of available soil water in India, the average RMSE for aboveground biomass simulation was 202 kg/ha (Panda et al., 2004). In Turkey, with 50-100% sufficient water treatments, the model underestimated aboveground biomass by $2 \sim 8.6\%$ (Gercek and Okant, 2010). The RMSEs

Xevi et al. (1996); Soler

(2014)

et al. (2007); Liu et al.

Ben Nouna et al. (2000); Mastrorilli et al. (2003)

| Treatment category | Countries | Performance | References |
|------------------------------|----------------------|--------------------------------------|---------------------------|
| Rain-fed/nonirrigated and | Spain | RMSE: >5000 kg/ha | López-Cedrón et al. (2008 |
| well fertilized | Nigeria | RMSE: <400 kg/ha | Jagtap et al. (1993) |
| | Brazil | Normalized RMSE: 10 ~ 25% | Soler et al. (2007) |
| | China | Percentage error: 17% | Guo et al. (2010) |
| | Croatia | Percentage error: 3% | Vucetic (2011) |
| | United States | RMSE: 1701 kg/ha | Retta et al. (1991) |
| Irrigated with a gradient of | Turkey | Underestimated by $2 \sim 8.6\%$ | Gercek and Okant (2010) |
| water/different scheduling | Spain | Overestimated by 7% | Dechmi et al. (2010) |
| time and well fertilized | India, Pakistan | RMSE: 202 ~ 1116kg/ha | Panda et al. (2004); |
| | | _ | Mubeen et al. (2013) |
| | United States, Spain | RMSE: $1600 \sim 1708 \text{ kg/ha}$ | Saseendran et al. (2008), |
| | _ | _ | Dechmi et al. (2010) |
| | Australia | RMSE: over 5000 kg/ha | Carberry et al. (1989) |
| | United States | Normalized RMSE: 22 ~ 26% | Anothai et al. (2013) |
| | Italy | Percentage error: 14 ~ 30% | Ben Nouna et al. (2000) |

0) Ben Nouna et al. (2000), Percentage error: $14 \sim 30\%$ Italy Mastrorilli et al. (2003) Varied nitrogen levels, Normalized RMSE: 15 ~ 23% China Liu et al. (2012) irrigated Well irrigated and well Spain RMSE: 2202 kg/ha López-Cedrón et al. (2005) fertilized RMSE: 1494.17 kg/ha Braga et al. (2008) Portugal

Normalized RMSE: 23 ~ 33%

Percentage error: 5.55%

United States, Brazil,

Canada

Italy

| Not fertilized | Canada | Normalized RMSE: 41% | Liu et al. (2014) |
|-------------------------------|---------------|------------------------|--------------------------|
| Irrigated and fertilized at | United States | Percentage error: <12% | He et al. (2011) |
| varied rates | Iran | Normalized RMSE: 6.6% | Moradi et al. (2013) |
| | United States | Percentage error: ≤16% | Persson et al. (2009) |
| Other treatments ^a | United States | Percentage error: ≤17% | Saseendran et al. (2005) |
| Cover crops | Spain | RMSE: 530 ~ 3990 kg/ha | Salmerón et al. (2014) |

^aOther treatments included sowing dates, planting density, and spacing.

Bruno Basso et a

Moradi et al. (2014)

Lizaso et al. (2011)

Lashkari et al. (2011)

Variables Countries Performance References Treatment category Differences: $3 \sim 701 \text{ kg/ha}$ Rain-fed/nonirrigated Stover biomass Nigeria Jagtap et al. (1993) and well fertilized Harvest index Underestimated by 1.3 López-Cedrón et al. (2008) Spain Croatia Underestimated by 7% Vucetic (2011) Stover biomass Irrigated with a gradient Australia RMSD: 2421 kg/ha Carberry et al. (1989) of water/different Harvest index Underestimated by 13% Dechmi et al. (2010) Spain scheduling time and well fertilized Fertilized with different Thailand Shoot biomass Normalized RMSE: 16.8 ~ 79.1% Pinitpaitoon et al. (2011) types of fertilizers

Normalized RMSE: 4.22%

Agreement index: $0.65 \sim 0.85$

Agreement index: $0.85 \sim 0.9$

Agreement index: >0.9

Agreement index: >0.93 Normalized RMSE: 6.95%

Well irrigated and

Irrigated with a gradient

with a gradient of

Planting densities

of water and fertilized

fertilized

fertilizer

Biological yield

Leaf biomass

Stem biomass

Shoot biomass

Biological yield

Year biomass

Iran

Iran

United States

Table 10 Summary of the CERES-Maize model performances for biomass-related variable (excluding aboveground biomass) simulations.

ranged from 1494.2 to 2202 kg/ha across 23 ~ 188 mm irrigation water treatments in Colorado, US (Saseendran et al., 2008), under well-irrigated and fertilized treatment in Spain (López-Cedrón et al., 2005) and under varied sowing dates treatments in Portugal (Braga et al., 2008). In contrast, the average RMSEs were over 5000 kg/ha across nonwater stress versus severe water stress treatments in Australia (Carberry et al., 1989) and rain-fed fields in Spain (López-Cedrón et al., 2008). When simulating biomass under seven irrigation treatments with different irrigation amounts and timings, the percentage errors were 6%, with average RMSEs over 1700 kg/ha (Mubeen et al., 2013). When simulating top biomass in seven maize production stations under rain-fed conditions in China, the percentage error was 17% (Guo et al., 2010). By comparison, for Croatia, the simulation error for rainfed maize aboveground biomass was 3% (Vucetic, 2011). Under sowing date treatments (sown between late-Apr. and mid-Jun.), the percentage errors for biomass simulation were not larger than 17% (Saseendran et al., 2005). The simulated dry matter yield was within 12% absolute relative error given fertilization rates of 247 and 309 kg/ha and two irrigation (full irrigation and overirrigation) treatments, but the error was 29% given overirrigation with 185 kg N/ha addition treatment (He et al., 2011). Under low- and highirrigation treatments in Spain, the total dry matter was overestimated by 7%, with an RMSE of 1650 kg/ha (Dechmi et al., 2010). Across 40 ~ 100%-full irrigation treatments in Colorado, US, the total biomass simulation had a normalized RMSE of at least 22.7% (Anothai et al., 2013). Under 141 ~ 219 kg N/ha fertilization rates with irrigation (irrigation and nonirrigation) and planting date (three dates across Mar.) treatments, the simulation errors were from 0.091 to 16.2% (Persson et al., 2009). Across three irrigation treatments ($450 \sim 650 \text{ mm}$ irrigation water) combined with four fertilization treatments (0 \sim 450 kg/ha) in Iran, the biomass yield simulation had a normalized RMSE of 6.6% and a model efficiency of 0.89 (Moradi et al., 2013). By comparison, under irrigated conditions in Nebraska, US, the normalized RMSE for simulating aboveground dry matter was 31.9% (Xevi et al., 1996). Others compared aboveground biomass simulation accuracy among treatments. The simulation research in Italy showed that with moderate and severe water stress, the CERES model consistently underestimated aboveground biomass by over 14% and over 24%, respectively, whereas it only underestimated the biomass by 5.55% without water stress (Ben Nouna et al., 2000; Mastrorilli et al., 2003). In Brazil, the aboveground biomass simulation for irrigated fields had normalized RMSEs between 23.6 and 32.9%, while that for rain-fed fields had normalized RMSEs between 10.1 and 24.7%

(Soler et al., 2007). A 2-year experiment in Kansas showed that the CERES model consistently underestimated aboveground vegetative biomass for irrigated fields but overestimated the biomass for dry-land fields. The average RMSE for the two fields was 1701 kg/ha, with a mean bias of 31 kg/ha (Retta et al., 1991). Under rain-fed conditions in Nigeria, the model overestimated the aboveground biomass by less than 400 kg/ha (Jagtap et al., 1993). Liu et al. (2012) reported that the normalized RMSEs were 23.1 and 15.4% when simulating maize aboveground biomass in the North China Plain given nitrogen application rates of 0 ~ 400 and 0 versus 180 kg N/ha, respectively. Using fertilized and unfertilized treatments in Canada, the normalized RMSEs for maize aboveground biomass were 26.8 and 41.2%, respectively (Liu et al., 2014). Given various winter cover-crop treatments, the aboveground biomass simulation under no cover crops and under winter cover crops of oilseed rape and vetch was in agreement with the observations, with an RMSE under 1600 kg/ha, but under winter rape and barley cover crop treatments, the simulations did not agree with the observations, with an RMSE over 2500 kg/ha (Salmerón et al., 2014).

Stover biomass, biological yield, shoot biomass, leaf biomass, stem biomass, shoot biomass, and year biomass have been validated as well. Under fully irrigated versus severe water stress treatments, the average RMSD when simulating maize stover biomass at maturity was 2421 kg/ha (Carberry et al., 1989). In rain-fed fields in Nigeria, the stover biomass was underestimated by 701 kg/ha for 1 year but overestimated by 3 kg/ha for another year (Jagtap et al., 1993).

In Iran, the normalized RMSE for biological yield was 6.95% under planting density treatments (Lashkari et al., 2011) and 4.22% under fertilized and irrigated treatments (Moradi et al., 2014). For shoot biomass, under mineral fertilizer and compost fertilizer treatments in Thailand, the model simulated maize shoot biomass relatively well for the second year but poorly for third ~ fifth years, with normalized RMSEs of 16.8% and 25.6 ~ 79.1%, respectively (Pinitpaitoon et al., 2011). Lizaso et al. (2011) tested leaf biomass, stem biomass, shoot biomass, and year biomass in Florida under rainfed conditions with low nitrogen input (116 kg N/ha) and under irrigated conditions with high nitrogen input (401 kg N/ha), 0 and 240 kg N/ha, as well as with 56 and 224 kg N/ha application treatments in Iowa. The indices of agreement for the leaf biomass simulation were mostly above 0.85, with RMSEs from 584.8 to 1054.5 kg/ha, except for rain-fed fields with low nitrogen input and 0 kg N/ha application treatments in Florida (index of agreement below 0.65 and RMSEs of 1060.5 and 635.3 kg/ha, respectively).

By contrast, for stem biomass simulations, under rain-fed conditions with low nitrogen and 0 kg N/ha input treatments in Florida, the RMSEs were under 215 kg/ha, with index of agreement above 0.9, while under other treatments, the RMSEs were mostly above 1170 kg/ha, with agreement indexes around 0.85. The RMSEs for shoot biomass simulations ranged from 771.3 to 867.8 kg/ha for treatments in Florida and from 1647.7 to 2229.1 kg/ha in Iowa. The year biomass was simulated only for 0 kg N/ha and 240 kg N/ha treatments in Florida and nitrogen application treatments in Iowa. The indices of agreement were all above 0.93, with RMSEs of 396.5 ~ 1155.4 kg/ha (Lizaso et al., 2011).

3.5.2 CERES-Wheat

The aboveground biomass prediction capability of the CERES-Wheat model has been evaluated under several treatments, including water availability treatments, fertilization treatments, sowing date treatments, CO₂ concentration treatments, and management intensity treatments (Table 11). Under rain-fed conditions in India, the aboveground biomass simulation had an index of agreement of 0.98 and an r^2 of 0.95 (Vashisht et al., 2013). The average RMSEs were 333 and 900 kg/ha across irrigation treatments at 30 ~ 75% of the maximum allowable soil water depletion in India (Panda et al., 2003) and across irrigation with various amounts water and at various developmental stages in New Zealand (Jamieson et al., 1998). On average, the CERES-Wheat model underestimated the aboveground biomass by 644 kg/ha for seven production stations in China (Guo et al., 2010). Given different irrigation applications (from no irrigation to full irrigation) combined with different nitrogen fertilizer application rates (from zero to a high rate), the reported RMSEs ranged from 1200 to 2360 kg/ha (Abeledo et al., 2008; Arora et al., 2007; Singh et al., 2008). Under rain-fed and fertilization treatments $(0 \sim 112 \text{ kg N/ha})$ in the United States, the average RMSE was 1247 kg/ ha. Under well-fertilized conditions with conventional and no-till management, the RMSEs were 1999 and 2282 kg/ha, respectively (Saseendran et al., 2004; Soldevilla-Martinez et al., 2013). The average normalized RMSE was 9.5% across two nitrogen application treatments (110.5 and 241 kg N/ha) in the United States (Thorp et al., 2010b), and it was within 19% when simulating aboveground biomass under a CO₂ concentration treatment combined with irrigation treatment (Tubiello et al., 1999b) and 23.1% across three rotation experiments in India, including a wheat-rice field under nitrogen stress treatment (0 \sim 160 kg N/ha) and another wheat-rice field, a wheat-maize, and wheat-soybean fields with sufficient fertilizer input

 Table 11 Summary of the CERES-Wheat model performances for aboveground biomass variable simulations.

| Treatment category | Countries | Performance | References |
|--|---------------|--|--|
| Rain-fed/nonirrigated and well fertilized | India | R^2 : 0.95 | Vashisht et al. (2013) |
| Irrigated with a gradient of | India | RMSE: 333 kg/ha | Panda et al. (2003) |
| water/different scheduling time and well fertilized | New Zealand | RMSE: 900 kg/ha | Jamieson et al. (1998) |
| Well irrigated and fertilized | United States | RMSE: 1247 kg/ha | Saseendran et al. (2004) |
| with a gradient of fertilizer(s) | | Normalized RMSE: 9.5% | Thorp et al. (2010b) |
| | India | Percentage error: 23% | Timsina et al. (2008) |
| Well irrigated and not fertilized | Germany | R: 0.8 | Bacsi and Zemankovics (1995) |
| Well irrigated and well fertilized ^a | China | Underestimated by 644 kg/ha Percentage error: 11.4% | Guo et al. (2010) |
| Irrigated with a gradient of water and fertilized with a | India | RMSE: 1200 ~ 1940 kg/ha Normalized RMSE: 14% | Singh et al. (2008); Arora et al. (2007) |
| gradient of fertilizer(s) | Spain | RMSE: 2360 kg/ha Percentage error: 17% | Abeledo et al. (2008) |
| Conventional versus no tillage | United States | 1999 ~ 2282 kg/ha | Soldevilla- Martinez et al. (2013) |
| CO ₂ concentration with | United States | Percentage error: 5 ∼ 19% | Tubiello et al. (1999b) |
| irrigation regimes | Germany | Normalized RMSE: 27% | Biernath et al. (2011) |
| CO ₂ concentration | United States | Overestimated by 20 kg/ha | Tubiello et al. (1999a) |

| Sowing date | India | Percentage error: <20% (for over 80% of the simulations) | Hundal and PrabhjyotKaur (1997) |
|---|---------|--|------------------------------------|
| | Germany | Percentage error: $<8\%$, $R^2 > 0.95$ | Bacsi and Zemankovics (1995) |
| Planting density combined irrigation treatments; phosphorous input with seeding rates | Iran | Normalized RMSE: 4.8% | Bannayan et al. (2014) |
| Wheat with different fallow scheduling systems | Canada | R: 0.85 | Wang et al. (2010) |

^aLiteratures that did not include treatments were considered as "well irrigated and well fertilized"; for instance, data obtained from local reports.

(Timsina et al., 2008). With continuous wheat and rotation wheat cropping systems in Canada, the correlation coefficients between the simulated and the observed biomass were above 0.8 (Wang et al., 2010). Hundal and PrabhjyotKaur (1997) reported that the CERES model tended to overestimate aboveground biomass for both early- and late-sowing date treatments, but over 80% of the simulated aboveground biomass was within 20% error. Across four experiments with three sowing dates (DOY273, DOY284 and DOY289) and an unfertilized treatment with a sowing date of DOY289, the CERES model also overpredicted the total aboveground biomass at harvest, and the errors were mostly within 8%, except for the fertilized DOY289 treatment (Bacsi and Zemankovics, 1995). Across treatments with different planting densities, irrigation inputs, phosphorous levels, and seeding rates in Iran, the normalized RMSE for aboveground biomass was 4.8% (Bannayan et al., 2014). Under an elevated CO₂ concentration, the simulated aboveground biomass was overestimated by 20 kg/ha (Tubiello et al., 1999a). Across elevated and ambient CO₂ concentration treatments combined with full versus limited irrigation treatments, the average normalized RMSE was 27% for total aboveground biomass simulation (Biernath et al., 2011).

Other biomass-related variable validations, including vegetative biomass, organ biomass, straw biomass, canopy biomass, total biomass, leaf biomass, biological yield, harvest biomass residual, harvest biomass, and surface residue biomass have been reported in the literature (Table 12). Priesack et al. (2006) tested the CERES-Wheat model at an extensive managed plot to which a mixture of inorganic and organic fertilizer was applied and on which a low level of chemical plant protection was used. They reported that the simulated vegetative aboveground and organ storage biomass were close to the observations. Straw biomass has been tested with various fertilization rates. Under nutrient stress (different ratios of nitrogen, phosphorus, and potassium) combined with water stress treatments, the wheat straw biomass simulation had RMSEs of 227.9 and 318.6 kg/ha, depending on the year (Behera and Panda, 2009). Across two types of rotation cropping systems with nutrient stress, the average normalized RMSD was 39.9% (Timsina et al., 2008). Under irrigated and fertilized fields in Arizona, US, the canopy biomass simulation had a normalized RMSE of 18.6% (Thorp et al., 2012). For six experiments involving nitrogen application (about 80 and about 215 kg/ha) and planting density treatments in Arizona, the errors varied greatly, by up to 2000 kg/ha (Thorp et al., 2010a). Across two nitrogen fertilizer treatments in Arizona, the normalized RMSE for leaf mass at the end of the leaf development simulation was 12% (Thorp et al., 2010b). Bakhsh et al. (2013) reported that

 Table 12
 Summary of the CERES-Wheat model performances for biomass-related variable (excluding aboveground biomass) simulations.

| Treatment category | Variables | Countries | Performance | References |
|---|---|------------------|---|----------------------------|
| Well irrigated and fertilized | Straw biomass | India | Normalized RMSE: 40% | Timsina et al. (2008) |
| with a gradient of fertilizer (s)/different types of | Harvest index | India | RMSE: 0.135 Normalized RMSE: 35.1% | Timsina et al. (2008) |
| fertilizers | Leaf biomass | United States | Normalized RMSE: 12% | Thorp et al. (2010)b |
| | Biological biomass | Pakistan | RMSE: <770 kg/ha | Bakhsh et al. (2013) |
| Well irrigated and well fertilized ^a | Canopy biomass | United States | Normalized RMSE: 18.6% | Thorp et al. (2012) |
| Irrigated with a gradient of water and fertilized with a | Total biomass | Spain | RMSE: 2360 kg/ha Mean percentage error: 17% | Abeledo et al. (2008) |
| gradient of fertilizer(s) | Straw biomass | India | RMSE: $227 \sim 318 \text{ kg/ha}$; R^2 : $0.96 \sim 0.97$ | Behera and Panda (2009) |
| | Harvest index | Spain | RMSE: 0.16; percentage error: 24% | Abeledo et al. (2008) |
| CO ₂ concentration | Harvest index | United States | Percentage error: 6% | Tubiello et al. (1999a) |
| Planting density combined with high versus low nitrogen | Canopy biomass | United States | Difference: <2000 kg/ha | Thorp et al. (2010a) |
| Rotation systems | Harvest biomass Harvest biomass residuals | Germany | RMSE: 2100 kg/ha RMSE: 2200 ~ 2400 kg/ha | Langensiepen et al. (2008) |

(Continued)

DIUITO DASSO EL AL

Table 12 Summary of the CERES-Wheat model performances for biomass-related variable (excluding aboveground biomass) simulations.—cont'd.

| Treatment category | Variables | Countries | Performance | References |
|--|--|-----------|---|------------------------|
| Management insensitivity | Vegetative biomass and organ storage biomass | Germany | The simulations were close to the observations | Priesack et al. (2006) |
| Wheat with different fallow scheduling systems | Surface residue biomass | Canada | Error: 1800 kg/ha underestimation ~ 2400 kg/ha overestimation | Wang et al. (2010) |

^aLiteratures that did not include treatments were considered as "well irrigated and well fertilized"; for instance, data obtained from local reports.

the RMSEs for biological yield simulations of 11 fertilization treatments with different amounts and types of fertilizers in Pakistan were within 770 kg/ha. Predictions for harvest biomass residual and harvest biomass were validated using 10-year data from a wheat-barley-canola rotation field in Germany. The RMSEs for harvest biomass residual ranged between 2200 kg/ha and 2400 kg/ha, depending on the genotype calibration processes, while the RMSEs for harvest biomass were about 2100 kg/ha in spite of the different calibration processes (Langensiepen et al., 2008). In continuous and rotation wheat systems in Canada, the surface residue biomass simulation had errors ranging from 1800 kg/ha underestimation to 2400 kg/ha overestimation (Wang et al., 2010).

3.5.3 CERES-Rice

Five studies validated aboveground biomass and the top weight of the CERES-Rice model (Table 13). Under both irrigation treatments (five irrigation levels ranging from 625 to 1225 mm) and seedling density treatments (3 density levels of $1 \sim 3$ seedling/hill), the average RMSE was 385 kg/ha (Ahmad et al., 2012). Two studies in Thailand validated aboveground biomass/top weight under nitrogen application treatment. The authors reported that for each nitrogen application treatment (0 \sim 150 kg/ha), the absolute percentage errors were within 25% and the simulations were more accurate for $50 \sim 100 \text{ kg N/ha}$ treatments (errors were within 10%) (Cheyglinted et al., 2001). Also, the average RMSE for top weight simulation under $0 \sim 188 \text{ kg N/ha}$ application treatments was 1103 kg/ha, with agreement index of 0.98 (Phakamas et al., 2013). Assembling 32 experiments with 80 treatments, including planting dates, planting populations, spacings, nitrogen application rates, and irrigation rates, Mall and Aggarwal (2002) found that overall, the CERES model slightly underestimated the aboveground biomass, especially in the early crop growing stage (Mall and Aggarwal, 2002).

Additionally, by-product biomass prediction with the CERES-rice model was tested with late-seeded rice in Thailand, with a simulation error of 3.13% (Babel et al., 2011). Shoot biomass was validated in an open-field and elevated-CO₂ environment, and the normalized RMSEs were between 8 and 19% (Satapathy et al., 2014).

3.6 Harvest Index

3.6.1 CERES-Maize

For fertilized and rain-fed fields in Spain and Croatia, the harvest index was underestimated by 1.3, with an RMSE of 0.155 (López-Cedrón et al., 2008),

Bruno Basso et a

 Table 13
 Summary of the CERES-Rice model performances for biomass-related variable simulations.

| Treatment category | Variables | Countries | Performance | References |
|---|------------------------------------|-----------|--|---------------------------|
| Well irrigated and fertilized | Aboveground biomass | Thailand | Percentage error: <25% | Cheyglinted et al. (2001) |
| with a gradient of fertilizer(s) only | Top weight | Thailand | RMSE: 1103 kg/ha R^2 : 0.98 | Phakamas et al. (2013) |
| Fertilized, irrigated with varied | Aboveground biomass | India | RMSE: 137 ~ 174 kg/ha | Ahmad et al. (2012) |
| amount of water and planted with varied densities | Top weight | India | RMSE: 385 kg/ha | Ahmad et al. (2012) |
| Over 80 treatments ^a | Aboveground biomass | India | Close to the observations except for early growth stage (up to panicle initiation) | Mall and Aggarwal (2002) |
| Late-seeded rice | Byproduct biomass Harvest index | Thailand | Error: 3.13% Error: 5% | Babel et al. (2011) |
| Open filed and elevated CO ₂ | Shoot biomass | India | Normalized RMSE: 8 ~ 19% | Satapathy et al. (2014) |

^aTreatments included varied seeding and transplanting dates, planting densities, spacing, nitrogen inputs, and irrigations.

and by 7% (Vucetic, 2011), respectively. Across irrigation treatments of 421 ~ 609 mm in Spain, the harvest index was underestimated by 13%, with an RMSE of 0.08 (Dechmi et al., 2010) (Table 10).

3.6.2 CERES-Wheat

Three studies tested the harvest index (Table 11). Across all irrigated versus rain-fed and fertilized versus nonfertilized treatments, the overall RMSE was 0.16, and the mean percent error was 34% (Abeledo et al., 2008). Under various rotation cropping systems and different types of soils, with one of the cropping systems using an unfertilized treatment, the HI simulation had an absolute RMSE of 0.135 and a normalized RMSE of 35.1% (Timsina et al., 2008). In contrast, the error was 6% in an elevated CO₂ environment (Tubiello et al., 1999a).

3.6.3 CERES-Rice

The simulated harvest index was only about 5% off of the observation for a late-sown rice field in Thailand (Babel et al., 2011).

3.7 Leaf-Related Variables: Leaf Number, Leaf Senescence, and LAI

3.7.1 CERES-Maize

The leaf number and LAI prediction capabilities of the CERES-Maize model have been validated under irrigation, fertilization, sowing date, planting density, and spacing treatments in various countries (Tables 14 and 15). Carberry et al. (1989) tested leaf number and leaf senescence under irrigated versus severe water stress treatments in Australia. The authors found that the overall RMSE for leaf number simulation was 2.49 and that the model did not simulate leaf area senescence accurately during the growing season (Carberry et al., 1989). Gungula et al. (2003) simulated leaf number at anthesis date given $0 \sim 120 \text{ kg N/ha}$ treatments and indicated that the simulated leaf numbers were close to the observations given $60 \sim 120 \text{ kg N/ha}$ application treatments. Braga et al. (2008) reported that the RMSE for total leaf number simulation was 0.87.

Twenty-three papers have validated the LAI of the CERES-Maize model (Table 13). Under nonirrigated treatment, the simulated LAI was close to the observed LAI during the growing season (Sandor and Fodor, 2012). With various amounts of irrigation water and various irrigation-timing treatments, the model simulated LAI reasonably well throughout the growing season, with an agreement index over 0.8, and the simulated maximum LAIs

| Table 14 Summary of the CERES-Maize model performance | ances for LAI variable simulations. |
|---|-------------------------------------|
|---|-------------------------------------|

| Treatment category | Countries | Performance | References |
|---|-----------------------------|--|---|
| Rain-fed/nonirrigated and well | Brazil | Percentage error:10 ∼ 24% | Soler et al. (2007) |
| fertilized | Nigeria, India, Croatia | Percentage error: ≤6% | Jagtap et al. (1993); Panda et al. (2004); Vucetic (2011) |
| | Hungary | Close to the observations | Sandor and Fodor (2012) |
| | China | Error: $0.5 \sim 0.7$ | Guo et al. (2010) |
| Irrigated with a gradient of water/ different scheduling time and well | Italy | Percentage error: 26 ~ 46% | Ben Nouna et al. (2000); Mastrorilli et al. (2003) |
| fertilized | Pakistan | Percentage error: 5.9 ~ 23% | Mubeen et al. (2013) |
| | United States, India | Percentage error: <5% | DeJonge et al. (2011); Panda et al. (2004) |
| | India | RMSE: <0.2 | Panda et al. (2004) |
| | Pakistan, United States | RMSE: 0.68 ~ 0.88 | Mubeen et al. (2013); DeJonge et al. (2011) |
| | Australia, United States | RMSE: 0.9 ~ 1.14 | Carberry et al. (1989); Retta et al. (1991) |
| | Spain | Closed to the observed in the early growing stages but not late growing stages | Dechmi et al. (2010) |
| Well irrigated and well fertilized | United States | RMSE: 0.307 | DeJonge et al. (2011) |
| | Italy | Percentage error: 0.97% | Ben Nouna et al. (2000); Mastrorilli et al. (2003) |
| | Brazil, China | Percentage error: 10% ~ 24% | Soler et al. (2007); Guo et al. (2010) |
| | United States | Normalized RMSE: 35.7% | Xevi et al. (1996) |
| | Spain | RMSE: 1.2 ~ 2 | López-Cedrón et al. (2005) |
| | Canada | Normalized RMSE:14 $\sim 50\%$ | Liu et al. (2014) |

| Not fertilized | Canada | Normalized RMSE: 65 ~ 98% | Liu et al. (2014) |
|--|---------------|--------------------------------------|---|
| Irrigated with a gradient of water and fertilized with a gradient of fertilizer(s) | Iran | Normalized RMSE: 5.22% | Moradi et al. (2013) |
| Other treatments ^a | United States | Poorly simulated | Lizaso et al. (2001); Lizaso et al. (2003b) |
| | United States | RMSE: 0.33 ~ 1.47 | Saseendran et al. (2005); Lizaso et al. (2011); Lizaso et al. (2003a) |
| | Iran | RMSE: 12.79 R ² : 0.94 | Lashkari et al. (2011) |

^aOther treatments included sowing dates, planting density, and spacing.

Bruno Basso et al.

 Table 15
 Summary of the CERES-Maize model performances for leaf number variable simulations.

| Treatment category | Variables | Validation Nations | Performance | References |
|--|-------------------------|-----------------------|---|------------------------|
| Irrigated with a gradient of water/different scheduling time and well fertilized | Leaf number | Australia | RMSE: 2.49 | Carberry et al. (1989) |
| Well irrigated and fertilized with a gradient of fertilizer(s) | Leaf number at anthesis | Nigeria | Difference: underpredicted by $0 \sim 5$ Percentage error: $0 \sim 17\%$ | Gungula et al. (2003) |
| Sowing dates | Total leaf number | Portugal | RMSE: 0.87 | Braga et al. (2008) |

were within 23% error (Mubeen et al., 2013). Similarly, for both full and limited irrigation treatments, DeJonge et al. (2011) reported that the LAIs were overestimated over the growing season but were underestimated during the reproductive stage. The authors also compared the model accuracy for final LAI simulation between treatments and showed that the model simulated the LAI better for full irrigation treatments (RMSE = 0.307) than limited irrigation treatments (RMSE = 0.841) (DeJonge et al., 2011). Up to 26.96 and 46.15% underestimation of maximum LAI were found under moderate and severe water stress, respectively, but only a 0.97% overestimation was found under full irrigation condition (Ben Nouna et al., 2000; Mastrorilli et al., 2003). By comparison, when simulating LAI in rain-fed and irrigated fields in Brazil with four different maize cultivars, the normalized RMSEs were $10.4 \sim 24.2\%$ and $10.9 \sim 24.4\%$, respectively (Soler et al., 2007). Others reported that the average difference between simulated and observed LAI was no greater than 0.09 under rain-fed and fertilized condition (Jagtap et al., 1993) and various levels of water availability (Panda et al., 2004). In contrast, the difference between the simulations and the observations was about 0.2 for a rain-fed, fertilized treatment in Nigeria (Jagtap et al., 1993) and an irrigated treatment in the United States (Xevi et al., 1996). Across rain-fed fields in Croatia, the model underestimated the maximum LAI by 4% (Vucetic, 2011). LAI was poorly simulated for both fertilized and unfertilized maize in Canada, with normalized RMSEs of $14 \sim 50\%$ and $65 \sim 98\%$, respectively (Liu et al., 2014). Guo et al. (2010) indicated that the maximum LAI was underestimated by about 0.7 and that the mean LAI was underestimated by about 0.5 for seven stations in China. LAI during the silking developmental stages has been mostly poorly simulated under various treatments in Iowa, including planting dates, nitrogen application rates, fertilization rates, and population densities (Lizaso et al., 2001, 2003b). The LAI at silking simulation had an RMSE of 1.14 across severe water stress and full irrigation treatments in Australia (Carberry et al., 1989). The RMSEs for the LAI simulations were 0.33 and 0.84 for full irrigation and limited irrigation, respectively (DeJonge et al., 2011). The average RMSE for LAI simulation in both dry- and irrigated-land in Kansas, US, was 0.9 (Retta et al., 1991). However, with the maximum allowable depletion of available soil water, 30 ~ 75%, the average RMSE for LAI simulations was 0.194 (Panda et al., 2004). Dechmi et al. (2010) showed that early growing season LAIs were well-simulated for low- and high-irrigation treatments but that the maximum LAIs were underpredicted. The reported average RMSE for

three maize hybrid LAI simulations ranged from 0.33 to 0.78 for three sowing dates between the end of Apr. and mid-Jun. in Colorado, US (Saseendran et al., 2005). The reported average normalized RMSE for the maximum LAI simulation of an irrigation treatment combined with a fertilization treatment in Iran was 5.22% (Moradi et al., 2013). However, others showed that the simulations of LAI were less accurate. For a population density treatment in Minnesota, nitrogen application in Hawaii, and in rain-fed and irrigated fields in Florida, LAI was not well-simulated, with RMSEs from 0.33 to 1.47 (Lizaso et al., 2003a, 2011). The RMSEs for LAI simulations in an experimental site in Spain were 1.21, as best result (López-Cedrón et al., 2005). Lashkari et al (2011) calculated the average RMSE for maximum LAI simulation under planting density treatments, and the value was 12.79 (Lashkari et al., 2011). Xevi et al. (1996) reported a normalized RMSE of 31.9% for LAI simulation for irrigated maize in Nebraska.

3.7.2 CERES-Wheat

One study tested leaf number with nitrogen application treatments in Arizona, US, and showed that leaf number development was reasonably well-simulated (Thorp et al., 2010b).

Fifteen studies reported LAI validation results for the CERES-Wheat model (Table 16). Bacsi et al. (1995) showed that LAI was simulated reasonably well during the course of development given a nonfertilized treatment (Bacsi and Zemankovics, 1995). However, a study in Arizona, US, with various levels of nitrogen input and planting density indicated that the predicted green LAI did not match well with the observations (Thorp et al., 2010a). The average difference between simulated and observed LAI ranged between 0.016 and 0.12 under various conditions, including various combinations of water availability and N:P:K ratios (Behera and Panda, 2009), seven wheat and maize production sites in China (Guo et al., 2010), and various levels of water availability (Panda et al., 2003). However, given $0 \sim 4$ irrigation treatments in China, the differences between the simulated and the observed LAI were between 0.3 and 0.6 (Yang et al., 2006b). Given various combinations of CO₂ concentration and irrigation level, the normalized RMSE for simulated LAI was 1.27% (Biernath et al., 2011). Across different planting densities, irrigation inputs, phosphorous levels, and seeding rates in Iran, the normalized RMSE for LAI was 8% (Bannayan et al., 2014). By contrast, across various levels of irrigation combined with different fertilization application rates, the average RMSEs for LAI at 32, 54, 82, and 124 days after planting were 0.1, 0.5, 0.9, and 0.6, respectively (normalized RMSE of 25 ~ 35%) (Arora et al., 2007).

 Table 16
 Summary of the CERES-Wheat model performances for LAI simulations.

| Treatment Category | Countries | Performance | References |
|---|---------------|---|--|
| Irrigated with a gradient of water/different scheduling time and well fertilized | India | RMSE: 0.108 Percentage error: 1.14% R^2 : 0.92 | Panda et al. (2003) |
| | New Zealand | The simulated LAI did not respond to drought factor | Jamieson et al. (1998) |
| | China | Error: $0.3 \sim 0.6$ | Yang et al. (2006b) |
| Well irrigated and fertilized with a gradient of fertilizer(s) only | United States | Normalized RMSE: 17.9% | Thorp et al. (2010b) |
| Well irrigated and well fertilized | China | Underestimated mean LAI by 0.5 | Guo et al. (2010) |
| | United States | Normalized RMSE: 27.8% | Thorp et al. (2012) |
| Irrigated with a gradient of water and fertilized with a gradient of fertilizer(s) | India | RMSE: $0.069 \sim 0.075$ R^2 : > 0.9 | Behera and Panda (2009) |
| | India | RMSE: 0.1 ~ 0.9 Normalized RMSE: 25 ~ 35% | Arora et al. (2007), ^a |
| | China | RMSE: 0.87 (for all LAIs), 0.67 (for LAI≥3) | Dong et al. (2013)a; Dong et al. (2013)b; |
| | | Normalized RMSE: 20% | Ji et al. (2014) |
| Planting density combined irrigation treatments; phosphorous input with seeding rates | Iran | Normalized RMSE: 8% | Bannayan et al. (2014) |
| Planting densities combined with high versus low nitrogen | United States | Not accurate | Thorp et al. (2010a) |
| CO ₂ concentration combined with two irrigation treatments | Germany | Normalized RMSE: 1.27% | Biernath et al. (2011) |
| Sowing date combined with different nitrogen input | Germany | R^2 : 0.571 | Bacsi and Zemankovics (1995) |

^aTreatments included different irrigation regimes combined with fertilization regimes and four planting dates.

Ji et al. also reported that the normalized RMSE for LAI simulation was about 20% under varied nutrient and water input treatments in China (Ji et al., 2014). Similarly, the normalized RMSEs were 17.9 and 27.8% for LAI simulations under nitrogen application treatments (110.5 kg/ha vs. 241 kg N/ha) and no nutrient stress treatments, respectively, in Arizona, US (Thorp et al., 2010b; 2012). For water availability treatments, including full irrigation, early drought, late drought, and full drought, the CERES model underestimated LAI for most of the treatments, and the simulated LAI did not respond to the drought factor (Jamieson et al., 1998). Additionally, Dong et al. (2013b) found that the CERES-Wheat model overestimated LAI, particularly when the LAIs were less than 3. With four irrigation treatments (0 ~ 675 m³/ha) and four fertilization treatments (0 ~ 225 kg N/ha), Dong et al. (2013a) also reported that the RMSEs for all LAIs and LAI \geq 3.0 simulations were 0.87 and 0.67, respectively.

3.7.3 CERES-Rice

Only two studies tested the LAI variable in the CERES-Rice model (Table 17). Mall and Aggarwal (2002) used data from 32 experiments, which consisted of planting date, planting density, spacing, irrigation, and nitrogen application treatments, and showed that overall, the model simulated LAI well but slightly underestimated LAI, particularly around the flowering stage. Under irrigation and planting density treatments, the RMSEs for LAI simulation were mostly under 1.3 and were 1.12 on average (Ahmad et al., 2012).

3.8 Soil Nitrogen

Soil nitrogen content and nitrate leaching prediction have been validated for the CERES-Maize and CERES-Wheat models. No research has

| Treatment category | Countries | Performance | References |
|--|-----------|---|-----------------------------|
| Over 80 treatments ^a | India | Overall accurate but underestimated LAI around flowering stage | Mall and Aggarwal (2002) |
| Fertilized, irrigated with varied amount of water and planted with varied densities | India | RMSE: 1.08 ~ 1.33, Average RMSE: 1.12 | Ahmad et al. (2012) |

Table 17 Summary of the CERES-Rice model performances for LAI simulations.

^aTreatments included varied seeding and transplanting dates, planting densities, spacing, nitrogen inputs, and irrigations.

reported on soil nitrogen prediction validation for the CERES-Rice model.

3.8.1 CERES-Maize

Soil nitrogen content and nitrate leaching have been tested in both continuous cropping systems and rotation systems using nitrogen availability, legume cover crop incorporation, and irrigation treatments (Table 18). Gabrielle and Kengni (1996) simulated soil mineral nitrogen content using the CERES model for five experiments at three sites over 2 years in France: a Grenoble site with two irrigated fields, one with and one without fertilization; a Laon site with one tilled field with canola straw removal and another with the straw remaining; and a Grignon site with no carbon or nitrogen input. The results showed that the simulated nitrogen for 0–90 or 0–120 cm soil did not match the measured results and mostly underestimated soil nitrogen content. The RMSE of nitrogen content in the 0-30 cm soil was up to 159 kg/ha for the nonfertilized Grenoble experiment and as low as 8.5 kg/ha for the Grignon experiment. The authors also simulated nitrate leaching for the Grenoble site. They reported that the RMSEs were 21.3 and 8.4 kg/ha for the unfertilized and fertilized experiments, respectively (Gabrielle and Kengni, 1996). Given three levels of nitrogen input for 2 years $(20 \sim 280 \text{ kg/ha for 1 year and } 30 \sim 270 \text{ kg/ha for the other year})$, the simulated nitrate leaching was significantly different from the observed leaching $(P \le 0.05)$ (Pang et al., 1998). A similar study with $0 \sim 200 \text{ kg N/ha input}$ treatments in tropical Thailand indicated that the model tended to underestimate nitrate leaching, with a coefficient of determination of 0.86 (Asadi and Clemente, 2003). Another study in Canada showed that the model performed better for soil inorganic nitrogen simulations given afertilized maize treatments (normalized RMSE: 35.8 ~ 57.1%) than unfertilized maize treatments (normalized RMSE: 72 ~ 81%) (Liu et al., 2014). Furthermore, by simulating soil mineral nitrogen content for a year and nitrate—nitrogen loss for 3 years in both fertilized and unfertilized plots in Canada, Liu et al. (2010) calculated that the RMSEs for simulating soil nitrogen content at $0 \sim 13$ cm were 2 and 1.3 kg/ ha for the fertilized and the unfertilized plots, respectively, with normalized RMSEs of 58 and 64%, respectively. They also observed a consistent overestimation of soil nitrate leaching through subsurface tiles for unfertilized plots, with 160% of normalized RMSE. By comparison, in fertilized plots, the nitrogen loss was reasonably well-simulated, with a normalized RMSE of 29% and an RMSE of 12.8 kg/ha (Liu et al., 2010). Nonetheless, nitrate leaching was well-simulated for unfertilized plots and no-till plots in a study

| Table 18 Summary of the | CERES-Maize model performances | for soil nitrogen and nitra | te leaching simulations. |
|-------------------------|---------------------------------------|-----------------------------|--------------------------|
| | | | |

| Treatment category | Variables | Countries | Performance | References |
|--|--|----------------|--|--|
| Well irrigated and fertilized with a gradient of fertilizer(s) | Nitrate leaching | United States | R^2 : 0.5, significantly different from the observed (P \leq 0.05) | Pang et al. (1998) |
| - | | Canada | Matched well with the observations | Beckie et al. (1995) |
| | | Thailand | R^2 : 0.86 | Asadi and Clemente (2003) |
| | | Hungary | Close to the observed | Kovacs et al. (1995) |
| | Soil nitrogen content | Hungary | Close to the observed | Kovacs et al. (1995) |
| Well irrigated and not fertilized | Soil nitrogen content, 0–30cm | France | RMSE: 159 kg/ha | Gabrielle and Kengni (1996) |
| | Soil nitrogen content, 0–13cm and 0–30 cm | Canada | RMSE: 1.3 kg/ha Normalized RMSE: 64 ~ 81% | Liu et al. (2010), Liu et al. (2014) |
| | Nitrate leaching | France | RMSE: 21.3 kg/ha | Gabrielle and Kengni (1996) |
| | | Canada | RMSE: 8.2 kg/ha | Liu et al. (2010) |
| | | Canada | Normalized RMSE: 160% | Liu et al. (2010) |
| Well irrigated and well fertilized | Soil nitrogen content, 0–30 cm | France | RMSE: 8.5 kg/ha | Gabrielle and Kengni (1996) |
| | Soil nitrogen content, 0–13 cm and 0–30 cm | Canada | RMSE: 2 kg/ha Normalized RMSE: 30 ~ 34% | Liu et al. (2010), Liu et al. (2014) |
| | | Canada | Normalized RMSE: 58% | Liu et al. (2010) |
| | Nitrate leaching | France, Canada | RMSE: 8.4 ~ 12.8 kg/ha | Gabrielle and Kengni (1996); Liu et al. (2010 |
| | | Canada | Normalized RMSE: 29% | Liu et al. (2010) |

| Irrigated with a gradient of water and fertilized with a gradient of fertilizer(s) | Nitrate leaching | United States | Difference: 10 ~ 40 kg/ha | He et al. (2011) |
|--|----------------------|---------------|--|------------------------|
| Corn-alfalfa-corn rotation with and without fertilization | Nitrate leaching | United States | Unfertilized corn field nitrate leaching was well simulated; did not well simulate alfalfa effect on nitrate leaching; did not simulate tillage effect either | Gerakis et al. (2006) |
| Wheat-maize rotation with legume cover crop | Soil nitrogen | United States | Underestimated by 25 ~ 150 kg/ha | Hasegawa et al. (2000) |
| Soil types | Soil nitrate content | United States | RMSE: $<8 \mu NO_3^-/soils$ | Garrison et al. (1999) |

of a corn-alfalfa-corn rotation field in the Midwest of the United States. However, the model failed to simulate nitrate leaching in tilled fields and after alfalfa growth (Gerakis et al., 2006). Beckie et al. (1995) mentioned that the simulated nitrate leaching matched well with the observations for two wheat fields with and without fertilization in Canada (Beckie et al., 1995). Kovacs et al. (1995) indicated that the largest errors in nitrate leaching simulation occurred with unfertilized treatments. In their study, maize—wheat rotation fields in Hungary were fertilized with 0, 50, 150, or 250 kg/ha of nitrogen, in addition to phosphorus and potassium addition, and nitrate leaching was measured in $4 \sim 5$ m soils. The test results showed that over 20 years, soil nitrogen balance and accumulative nitrate leaching simulations were in good agreement with field measurements (Kovacs et al., 1995). Garrison et al. (1999) calculated RMSEs for soil nitrate content under fertilized maize fields with two different soils and reported that the RMSEs were within 8 μg-NO₃⁻/soils. For soil nitrogen simulation for a wheat-maize rotation with LCC incorporation cropping systems in the United States, the CERES-Maize model underestimated soil nitrogen by 25–150 kg N/ha in 1 year and by 25–55 kg N/ha in another year under early LCC incorporation conditions (Hasegawa et al., 2000). For six treatments combining three levels of nitrogen input (185 ~ 309 kg/ha) and two levels of irrigation water input (irrigating water use depending on soil moisture versus 1.5 times the first irrigation water use), the CERES model underestimated potential nitrate leaching for the low-nitrogen input treatment, with 10 and 31 kg/ha error for normal and overirrigated treatment, respectively, and it overestimated potential nitrate leaching for the higher nitrogen input treatment, with about 40 and about 10 kg/ha error for the normal- and over-irrigated treatments, respectively (He et al., 2011).

3.8.2 CERES-Wheat

Five studies validated the soil nitrogen variables of the CERES-Wheat model under varied treatments and rotation systems (Table 19). Popova et al. (2005) tested soil nitrate—nitrogen in two soil types with 200 kg N/ha input combined with a range of irrigation water input, from 0 to 183 mm, and reported that the coefficients of determination were 0.38 and about 0.45 for a maize field soil nitrate simulation given nonirrigated and irrigated treatments, respectively (Popova and Kercheva, 2005). When simulating soil nitrogen in a wheat—maize rotation with LCC incorporation experiment, Hasegawa et al. (2000) found that the simulated inorganic nitrogen content in the soil was within 20% error for unfertilized fallow—wheat and wheat—legume rotation systems. Beckie et al. (1995) also indicated that the total and

 Table 19 Summary of the CERES-Wheat model performances for soil nitrogen and plant nitrogen simulations.

| Treatment category | Variables | Countries | Performance | References |
|---|--|---------------|---|--------------------------------------|
| Rain-fed/nonirrigated and well fertilized | Soil nitrate-N | Bulgaria | Reasonably well simulated | Popova and Kercheva, (2005) |
| Well irrigated and fertilized with a gradient of fertilizer(s) | Plant nitrogen content | United States | Normalized RMSE: 10.9% | Thorp et al. (2010b) |
| Varied levels of irrigation and nitrogen | Canopy nitrogen | China | Normalized RMSE: 20% | Ji et al. (2014) |
| Well irrigated and well fertilized only ¹ | Plant nitrogen content | United States | Normalized RMSE: 50.7% | Thorp et al. (2012) |
| Rice-wheat rotation under irrigated at different timing, fertilized with a | Grain nitrogen uptake | India | RMSE: 7.8 kg/ha | Sarkar and Kar (2008) |
| gradient of nitrogen and two rice residue management regimes (removed vs. remained) | Biomass nitrogen uptake | India | RMSE: 8.4 kg/ha | |
| Rotation systems with fertilization treatment | Soil inorganic nitrogen | United States | Percentage error: < 20% | Hasegawa et al. (2000), ^a |
| | Soil nitrate | Canada | Absolute error: <50 kg/ha | Beckie et al. (1995),b |
| | Plant nitrogen | United States | Underestimated by 66.7% | Hasegawa et al. (2000) |
| | uptake | Canada | Acceptable for fertilized treatment but heavily underestimated by over 60 kg/ha | Beckie et al. (1995) |
| Wheat-maize rotation under different nitrogen inputs | Soil nitrogen and nitrogen balance | Hungary | Close to the field measurement with largest disagreement under highest nitrogen input treatment | Kovacs et al. (1995) |

Table 19 Summary of the CERES-Wheat model performances for soil nitrogen and plant nitrogen simulations.—cont'd.

| Treatment category | Variables | Countries | Performance | References |
|--|---------------------------------------|---------------|---|---------------------------------------|
| Soil types | Soil nitrate | France | RMSE: 11.6 ~ 17.8 kg/ha | Gabrielle et al. (2002) |
| Sowing dates combined with population density | Plant nitrogen content | United States | RMSE: 4.5 mgN/g, Normalized RMSE: 9 ~ 17% | Weiss and Moreno- Sotomayer (2006) |
| Sowing dates combined with different fertilizer applications | Grain and plant nitrogen uptake | United States | Percentage error: $0.2 \sim 20\%$ | Bacsi and Zemankovics (1995) |

^aMaize-wheat rotation followed by legume cover crop, wheat was unfertilized.
^bTreatments included five wheat-fallow rotations and continuous wheat fields under fertilized versus unfertilized treatments.

distribution of nitrate–nitrogen were well-simulated, with absolute errors mostly under 50 kg/ha for five wheat rotation and continuous cropping systems in two locations in Canada. In conventionally managed wheat fields in France, the RMSEs for soil nitrate simulations ranged from 11.6 to 17.8 kg/ha, depending on soil type (Gabrielle et al., 2002). Soil nitrogen balance and accumulative nitrate leaching were acceptably well-simulated (Kovacs et al., 1995).

3.9 Plant Nitrogen Uptake and Plant Nitrogen Content

3.9.1 CERES-Maize

Seven studies have validated the crop nitrogen uptake or crop nitrogen content of the CERES-Maize model given irrigation and fertilization treatments in both continuous cropping and rotation systems (Table 20). Two studies indicated that the simulated nitrogen uptake was highly correlated with observations for nitrogen application treatments (0 \sim 200 kg/ha) in Thailand and nitrogen application (0 ~ 360 kg/ha) combined with irrigation (20 \sim 100 mm) treatments in the United States. The regression lines between the simulations and the observations had R^2 values over 0.9, constants of 0, and respective slopes of 1.1103 and 1.013 (Asadi and Clemente, 2003; Pang et al., 1997). Another study involving a 20 ~ 280 kg/ha nitrogen input gradient with a water deficit in the United States also showed the that simulated and the observed nitrogen uptakes were not significantly different (P≤0.05), but the difference could reach 70 kg/ha for high levels of nitrogen application (about 280 kg/ha) (Pang et al., 1998). The simulations for leaf nitrogen and vegetative nitrogen content in an experiment with $0 \sim 400 \text{ kg N/ha}$ applications in China were in agreement with the measurements, with average normalized RMSEs of 23.1 and 24.7%, respectively (Liu et al., 2012). The study of a wheat-maize rotation field with LCC incorporation systems showed that most of the simulated maize nitrogen uptakes were within 20% error in 1 year, but they were underestimated by $25 \sim 70 \text{ kg/ha}$ in another year (Hasegawa et al., 2000). For rain-fed maize in Croatia, the grain nitrogen content and nitrogen uptake were overestimated by 30 and 14%, respectively (Vucetic, 2011). Lizaso et al. (2011) tested nitrogen content in shoots, leaves, and stems for varied treatments in Florida and Iowa, US. The RMSEs for shoot nitrogen ranged from 10.2 to 32.6 kg N/ha, with an index of agreement from 0.63 to 0.978. The leaf nitrogen concentration in the percentage simulation had small RMSEs below 0.5% for the 0 and 56 kg N/ha application treatments but large

 Table 20 Summary of the CERES-Maize model performances for crop nitrogen uptake and crop nitrogen content variable simulations.

| Treatment category | Variables | Countries | Performance | References |
|---|--------------------------------------|---------------|--|---------------------------|
| Rain-fed/nonirrigated and well fertilized only | Grain nitrogen content | Croatia | Overestimated by 30% | Vucetic (2011) |
| · | Nitrogen uptake | Croatia | Overestimated by 14% | Vucetic (2011) |
| Well irrigated and fertilized with a gradient of fertilizer(s) only | Nitrogen uptake | Thailand | R^2 : 0.99 | Asadi and Clemente (2003) |
| . , | Leaf and vegetative nitrogen content | China | Normalized RMSE: 23 ~ 24.7% | Liu et al. (2012) |
| | Shoot nitrogen content | United States | Index of agreement: $0.70 \sim 0.97$ | Lizaso et al. (2011) |
| | Leaf nitrogen content | | Index of agreement: $0.74 \sim 0.91$ | |
| | Stem nitrogen content | | Index of agreement: $0.43 \sim 0.93$ | |
| Well irrigated and well fertilized | Shoot nitrogen content | United States | Index of agreement: 0.978 | Lizaso et al. (2011) |
| | Leaf nitrogen content | | Index of agreement: 0.614 | |
| | Stem nitrogen content | | Index of agreement: 0.817 | |
| Irrigated with a gradient of water | Nitrogen uptake | United States | R^2 : 0.946 | Pang et al. (1997) |
| and fertilized with a gradient of fertilizer(s) | | United States | Not significantly different from the observed (P \leq 0.05); Difference: up to 70 kg/ha | Pang et al. (1998) |

| Rain-fed/nonirrigated, well fertilized | Shoot nitrogen content | United States | Index of agreement: 0.632 | Lizaso et al. (2011) |
|--|--|---------------|---|----------------------------|
| | Leaf nitrogen content | | Index of agreement: 0.479 | |
| | Stem nitrogen content | | Index of agreement: 0.0.638 | |
| Maize-wheat rotation with legume cover crop | Nitrogen uptake | United States | Percentage error: <20% | Hasegawa et al. (2000) |
| Soil types combined with different irrigation treatments | Soil nitrogen | Bulgaria | R^2 : 0.38 ~ 0.45 | Popova and Kercheva (2005) |
| Wheat-maize rotation under different nitrogen inputs | Soil nitrogen and soil nitrogen balance | Hungary | Close to the field measurement with largest disagreement under highest nitrogen input treatment | Kovacs et al. (1995) |

RMSEs of above 0.8% for high nitrogen inputs (above 116 kg N/ha application). Regarding stem nitrogen concentration, in the percentage simulation, the RMSEs were $0.521 \sim 1.45\%$ (Lizaso et al., 2011).

3.9.2 CERES-Wheat

Eight studies validated the nitrogen uptake variable of the CERES-Wheat model (Table 19). Given various population density combined with sowing date treatments in the United States, normalized RMSEs for two wheat cultivars' grain nitrogen concentration ranged from 9 to 17%, and the average RMSE was 4.5 mg N/g (Weiss and Moreno-Sotomayer, 2006). Across lowand high-nitrogen-input treatments in Arizona, the average normalized RMSE for grain nitrogen content was 10.9% (Thorp et al., 2010b). The average normalized RMSE for canopy nitrogen content was 20% across various water and nutrient input rates in China (Ji et al., 2014). Across sowing dates in late-Sep. and early- and late-Nov. in Germany, combined with large fertilizer applications (about 230 kg N/ha) to wheat sown in Sep. and mid-Nov. and 0 versus 213 kg N/ha fertilizer input for wheat sown in late-Nov., the percentage errors for crop nitrogen uptake were within 20%, and the grain nitrogen uptake was overestimated by 0.2 ~ 19.6% (Bacsi and Zemankovics, 1995). The simulated nitrogen uptake for wheat in a fallow-wheat rotation was within 20% error, but it was only about one-third of the observed midwinter nitrogen uptake rate seen for the unfertilized wheat (Hasegawa et al., 2000). Beckie et al. (1995) indicated that crop nitrogen uptake simulations were acceptable for fertilized wheat but that the model heavily underestimated nitrogen uptake for unfertilized wheat by over 60 kg N/ha. In a wheat-rice rotation field in India, given a rice residue (removed vs. remained) and irrigation treatment, the nitrogen uptakes according to grain and biomass simulations had RMSEs of 7.8 and 8.4 kg/ha, respectively (Sarkar and Kar, 2008). Nonetheless, the simulation of plant nitrogen content in Arizona, US, had a normalized RMSE of 50.7% (Thorp et al., 2012).

3.9.3 CERES-Rice

Three studies in Iran and India tested nitrogen content and nitrogen uptake given a fertilization treatment (Table 21). In Iran, the nitrogen content in grains and final biomass were simulated across nitrogen inputs between 0 and 75 kg/ha combined with various levels of irrigation. The RMSEs were both 9 kg/ha, and normalized RMSEs were 12 and 20%, respectively (Amiri et al., 2013). In India, when three rice cultivars were given higher-nitrogen-input treatments (0 \sim 150 kg/ha), the simulated nitrogen uptake by the grains matched reasonably well with the measurement for those

 Table 21 Summary of the CERES-Rice model performances for plant nitrogen simulations.

| Treatment category | Variables | Countries | Performance | References |
|--|---|-----------|---|---------------------------|
| Irrigated with varied amount of water and fertilized with varied nitrogen levels | Nitrogen in final biomass Nitrogen in grain | Iran | RMSE: 9 kg/ha Normalized RMSE: 20% RMSE: 9 kg/ha | Amiri et al. (2013) |
| | | | Normalized RMSE: 12% | |
| Well irrigated and fertilized with a gradient of nitrogen inputs | Nitrogen uptake | India | Percentage error: <25% for nitrogen input under 100 kg/ha; Percentage error: 27 ~ 68% for nitrogen input of 100 ~ 150kg/ha | Swain and Yadav (2009) |
| Wheat-rice rotation, rain-fed, fertilized at varied nitrogen rates, residue managements and planting methods | Nitrogen in grain | India | RMSE: 3.59 ~ 12.44 kg/ha | Sarkar and Kar (2008) |

nitrogen addition treatments that were less than 100 kg/ha, with less than 25% error, whereas given high nitrogen inputs of 100 and 150 kg N/ha, the errors were 27 ~ 68% (Swain and Yadav, 2009). Another study in India tested the grain and biomass nitrogen content for transplanted and direct-seeded rice given wheat residue and nitrogen availability treatments. The results showed that the average RMSEs for transplanted and direct-seeded rice grain nitrogen were 12.44 and 3.59 kg/ha, respectively, and that those for biomass nitrogen were 20.78 and 15.38 kg/ha, respectively (Sarkar and Kar, 2008).

3.10 Soil Temperature

Soil temperature variable validation results have been reported only for the CERES-Maize and CERES-Wheat models, not for the CERES-Rice model (Table 22).

3.10.1 CERES-Maize

Four studies have validated soil temperature in the CERES-Maize model. Hasegawa et al. (2000) monitored and simulated soil temperature in a wheatmaize rotation with legume cover crop (LCC) systems. The authors showed that the simulated temperatures did not match well with the observations from Jul. to harvest for maize-LCC rotation and that over half of the simulated temperatures were 2.6 °C different from the observations; some differences were over 10.0 °C (Hasegawa et al., 2000). Under three tillage method treatments, the accuracy of the soil temperatures in a three-layer (0-5 cm, 5-15 cm, and 15-30 cm) simulation varied greatly over various years, layers, and tillage methods, with normalized RMSEs ranging between 22.5 and 49.6%. The results indicated that soil temperature was best simulated under conventional tillage treatment (Liu et al., 2013). Across eight fertilized versus unfertilized combined with irrigated versus unirrigated treatments, the CERES model did not reproduce soil temperature at depths of 5, 10, 20, 40, and 60 cm, with RMSEs of 4.28 °C, 5.5 °C, 6.17 °C, 6.02 °C, and 3.76 °C, respectively (Sandor and Fodor, 2012). Hodges and Evans (1992) tested soil temperature with 4-year field experiments involving row spacing treatments and ten hybrids and reported differences as large as 10 °C and as small as $1 \sim 2$ °C.

3.10.2 CERES-Wheat

Hasegawa et al. (2000) also tested the simulated soil temperature of the CERES-Wheat model in wheat-maize rotation with legume cover crop (LCC) systems. The simulated soil temperature in the 0–15 cm and

 Table 22
 Summary of the CERES-Maize and CERES-Wheat model performances for soil temperature simulations.

| Treatment category | Performance | Countries | Reference | Performance | Countries | Reference |
|---|---|---------------|----------------------------|--|------------------|----------------------------|
| | CERES-mai | ze | | CE | ERES-wheat | |
| Irrigated with a gradient of water and fertilized with a gradient of fertilizer(s) only | RMSE: 4.7 ∼ 6.2°C | Hungary | Sandor and Fodor (2012) | | | |
| Maize-wheat rotation with legume cover crop | Close to the observed through the mid-Aug. but overestimated by up to 10°C in the late season | United States | Hasegawa et al. (2000) | Overestimated by up to 10.7°C, 13.8 °C for 0–15 cm and 15–30 cm, respectively | United States | Hasegawa, et al. (2000) |
| Soybean-maize rotation with | Normalized RMSE: $22.5\% \sim 49.6\%$ | China | Liu et al. (2013) | | | |
| different management intensity ^a | RMSE: 3.8 ~ 7°C | China | Liu et al. (2013) | | | |
| Row spacing | Difference: 1 ~ 10°C | United States | Hodges and Evans (1992) | | | |

^aManagement intensity included conventional tillage, reduced tillage, and nontillage

15–30 cm layers tended to be higher than those measured by up to 13.8 and 10.7 °C, respectively (Hasegawa et al., 2000).

3.11 Soil Water Content

3.11.1 CERES-Maize

Seventeen papers have tested the soil water validity of the CERES-Maize model, and the tests have been conducted with different soils, water, and nutrient treatments (Table 23). Gabrielle et al. (1995) reported that the mean square error for a soil water storage simulation in three locations (one location grew maize, and other two were bare soils) in France ranged between 4 and 12 cm². The results indicated that soil water storage was most accurately simulated for well-drained soil among these three locations in France. In Bulgaria, both soil water content and potential extractable soil water were reasonably well-simulated for both irrigated and dry plots, with normalized RMSEs within 4 and 19%, respectively (Popova and Kercheva, 2005). In Brazil, the normalized RMSEs for simulating soil moisture across rain-fed and irrigated treatments were within 15% (Soler et al., 2007). In Florida, US, the normalized RMSE for soil water content simulation during the early growing season for the whole profile, 0-5 cm, and 5-15 cm were 35.5, 51.0, and 17%, respectively (Ritchie et al., 2009). Asadi and Clemente (2003) reported that with four levels of nitrogen application from 0 to 200 kg/ha in Thailand, the simulated soil water content was reasonably well-simulated, with some notable underestimations of up to 20% error. Liu et al. (2014) reported that the normalized RMSEs for soil water content at the 0-10 cm layer under unfertilized and fertilized treatments in Canada ranged between 25 and 36%. With 119 data points for four types of irrigated soils in Georgia, US, Hook et al. (1994) calculated that the model underestimated soil water content by an average of 5.92 mm and that the accumulative absolute difference was 16.66 mm (Hook, 1994). In another US state, soil moisture was tested in four layers (0–120 cm with 30 cm intervals) on irrigated land as well. The results indicated that soil moistures were generally well-simulated for each layer, with normalized RMSEs under 14.0%, except for the top, 0–30 cm, layer (normalized RMSE of 16.6%) (Xevi et al., 1996). Anothai et al. (2013) showed that given 70%- and 100%full irrigation treatments, the soil water content simulation using the Priestley-Taylor approach to ET estimation performed reasonably well (normalized RMSE of $13.2 \sim 29.0\%$ for $0 \sim 15$ cm) in 1 year but poorly in

 Table 23
 Summary of the CERES-Maize model performances for soil water and plant extractable soil water (PESW) simulations.

| Treatment category | Variables | Countries | Performance | References |
|--|----------------------------------|--------------------------------|--|---|
| Rain-fed/nonirrigated and well fertilized | Soil water content | United States United States | Percentage error: >10% RMSE: 0.043 m ³ /m ³ | DeJonge et al. (2011) Saseendran et al. (2008) |
| | | Spain | Not accurate | López-Cedrón et al. (2008) |
| Irrigated with a gradient of | Soil water content | Brazil | Normalized RMSE: <15% | Soler et al. (2007) |
| water and well fertilized | | United States | Percentage error: <8% | DeJonge et al. (2011); Jara and Stockle (1999) |
| | | United States | RMSE: $0.025 \text{ m}^3/\text{m}^3$ | Saseendran et al. (2008) |
| | Soil water content, | United States | Normalized RMSE: | Anothai et al. (2013) |
| | 0–15 cm | | $13.2 \sim 58.4\%$ | |
| | Soil water content, | | Normalized RMSE: | |
| | 15–45 cm | | $12.7 \sim 44.7\%$ | |
| | Soil water content, | | Normalized RMSE: | |
| | 45–75 cm | | $17.2 \sim 29.3\%$ | |
| | Soil water content, 75–120 cm | | Normalized RMSE: 9.2 ~ 25.0% | |
| | Soil water storage | China | Difference: <27 mm | Yang et al. (2006a) |
| Well irrigated and fertilized with a gradient of fertilizer(s) | Soil water content | Thailand | Underestimated by up to 20% | Asadi and Clemente (2003) |

(Continued)

 Table 23
 Summary of the CERES-Maize model performances for soil water and plant extractable soil water (PESW) simulations.—cont'd.

| Treatment category | Variables | Countries | Performance | References |
|------------------------------------|---|----------------------------|--|---|
| Well irrigated and well fertilized | Soil water content, whole profile | Bulgaria, United States | Normalized RMSE: 4%, 35.5% | Popova and Kercheva (2005); Ritchie et al. (2009) |
| | | United States | RMSE: $0.064 \sim 0.073 \text{ m}^3/\text{m}^3$ | Saseendran et al. (2005) |
| | Soil water content, 30 cm-layers from soil depth of 30–120 cm | United States | Normalized RMSE: <14% | Xevi et al. (1996) |
| | Soil water content, 0–5 cm | United States | Normalized RMSE: 51% | Ritchie et al. (2009) |
| | Soil water content, 5–15 cm | United States | Normalized RMSE: 17% | Ritchie et al. (2009) |
| | Soil water content, 0–30 cm | United States | Normalized RMSE: 16.6% | Xevi et al. (1996) |
| | PESW | Bulgaria | Normalized RMSE:19% | Popova and Kercheva (2005) |
| | Soil water content, 0–10 cm | Canada | Normalized RMSE: 30 ~ 35% | Liu et al. (2014) |
| Not fertilized | Soil water content, 0–10 cm | Canada | Normalized RMSE: 25 ~ 36% | Liu et al. (2014) |
| Soil types | Soil water storage | France United States | Mean square error: $4 \sim 12 \text{ cm}^2$ Average underestimation: 5.92 mm | Gabrielle et al. (1995) Hook (1994) |
| Management intensity ^a | Soil water content in each layers | United States | Average RMSE: $0.042 \sim 0.054$ | Garrison et al. (1999) |
| | | China | RMSE: $0.01 \sim 0.11$ | Liu et al. (2013) |

^aManagement intensity included conventional tillage, reduced conventional tillage, and nontillage.

another year (normalized RMSE of $49.4 \sim 58.4\%$ for $0 \sim 15$ cm). The authors also showed better simulations for deeper soils during both of the growing seasons, with normalized RMSEs of 12.7 \sim 44.7%, 17.2 \sim 29.3%, and $9.2 \sim 25\%$ for 15–45 cm, $45 \sim 75$ cm, and $75 \sim 120$ cm soils, respectively (Anothai et al., 2013). Most of the study results suggested that the simulated soil water content was acceptably matched with the observations, but the model accuracies varied among the studies. Two studies in Colorado, US, with a range of irrigation water treatments showed that soil water simulations were more accurate given fully irrigated treatments. One study reported that the relative error for soil water simulations were under 8.0% for full-irrigation treatments and over 10.0% for limited irrigation treatment (DeJonge et al., 2011). The other reported that the average RMSEs were $0.025 \text{ m}^3/\text{m}^3$ and $0.043 \text{ m}^3/\text{m}^3$ for soils irrigated with a $23 \sim 188 \text{ mm}$ treatment and a rain-fed treatment, respectively (Saseendran et al., 2008). Another study in Colorado involving well-irrigated and well-fertilized treatments reported average RMSEs of $0.064 \sim 0.073$ when simulating soil water for three maize cultivars (Saseendran et al., 2005). In Iowa, US, the average RMSEs ranged from 0.042 to 0.054 cm³/cm³ across both tilled and no-till experiments in two types of soils in Iowa (Garrison et al., 1999). Garrison et al. (1999) also reported that the simulated soil storage was in good agreement with the measurement. A study in China also showed that given four and five irrigations per growing season, the overall errors for soil water storage were under 27.0 mm (Yang et al., 2006a). Under various management intensities, Liu et al. (2013) reported a wide range of RMSEs (from 0.01 to 0.11) for 0-20 cm and 0-30 cm soil water content simulations for various years under conventional tillage, reduced conventional tillage, and nontillage treatments. They also pointed out that the worst simulation may be due to inaccurate soil water content measurement caused by following the gravimetric water content measurement protocol (Liu et al., 2013). Jara and Stockle (1999) reported that the average RMSE for soil moisture simulation across full irrigation, partial irrigation, and no irrigation treatments in California, US, was 0.016 m³/m³, with relative error of 7.64%. In addition, the authors noted that the CERES model tended to underestimated soil moisture in the top 15 cm for field experiments in both Washington State and California. However, a graphical comparison between simulated and measured soil water performed by Lópz-Cedrón et al. (2008) indicated a relatively poor simulation (López-Cedrón et al., 2008).

3.11.2 CERES-Wheat

Twelve studies validated the soil water variable under various soils, water availability treatments, fertilization treatments, and management intensity treatments (Table 25). For low-permeability Vertisol soils in Bulgaria, soil water content was more accurately simulated when the soil was fertilized with a 200 kg N/ha treatment than when an unfertilized treatment was applied, with normalized RMSEs of 1.3 and 4.8%, respectively (Popova and Kercheva, 2005). The potentially extractable soil water simulation was also more accurate given a fertilized treatment (normalized RMSE = 13.3%) than an unfertilized treatment (normalized RMSE = 36.8%). With fertilized moderately permeable Chromic Luvisol soils, the average normalized RMSE for soil water content and potentially extractable soil water were 1.6 and 16.25%, respectively (Popova and Kercheva, 2005). A simulation study in Austria tested the soil water content of three soils for both the whole soil profile and at three soil depths (0-30, 0-60 and 0-90 cm). The results indicated that the soil moisture content simulations were least accurate for sandy Chernozem soil, with normalized RMSEs of 7.0, 3.8, 6.2, and 8.6% for whole soil profile moisture content and soil water content at depths of 30, 60, and 90 cm, respectively, whereas those for Chernozem and fluvisol soils were within 4.0, 1.1, 4.6, and 6.5%, respectively (Eitzinger et al., 2004). In Argentina, across full irrigation and early drought treatments, the simulated soil water content was correlated with the observations ($R^2 = 0.86$) (Savin et al., 1994). With clay and silt soils in Canada, the RMSE for soil water content at varied layers ranged between 0.025 and 0.046 (He et al., 2014). However, the simulated water content for both full-irrigation and full-drought treatments in New Zealand did not match well with the observations, with some heavy underestimation (Jamieson et al., 1998). Given $0 \sim 4$ irrigations during the growing season, the differences between the simulated and observed soil water storages were within 3% for $0 \sim 2$ irrigations, and the largest difference was 56 mm, which occurred given four irrigation treatments (Yang et al., 2006a). For two-fertilizer input (110.5 and 241.0 kg N/ha) treatments in Arizona, the soil water content validation showed that the model simulated deeper soil layers (normalized RMSE of 3.3 ~ 8.7% for 30–120 cm soil layers) better than the top soil layer (normalized RMSE of 18.9% for 0-30 cm soil) (Thorp et al., 2010b). The other soil water test under tillage methods, including conventional moldboard plowing 40-45 cm deep, ripper subsoiling at 60-70 cm deep, surface disc-harrowing at 15-20 cm deep, and minimum tillage with rotary hoeing treatment, was conducted in a farm in Italy. The revised CERES model, in which the evapotranspiration equation was changed and calibrated for this farm, simulated soil water fairly well, with an average standard error of regression of 0.03 cm³/cm³. The simulated soil water was particularly accurate for all soil layers under the ripper subsoiling treatment, except for the 20-40 cm layer, with a linear regression slope that was not statistically different from 1 (P < 0.1). The authors also pointed out that under minimum tillage treatment, the simulated soil water was close to the measurement except for those in a drought period (Castrignano et al., 1997). The simulated soil water storage and content in various layers were in good agreement with the measured values for long-term agricultural experiment sites in Canada for both continuous wheat and wheat rotation cropping systems (Beckie et al., 1995). In another location in Canada, the simulated soil water content was consistently smaller than the measured value for the surface layers, but it was consistently larger than the measured value for deep soils (Wang et al., 2010). Under fertilization treatments of $0 \sim 112 \text{ kg/ha}$ nitrogen addition for 3 years, the RMSEs for soil profile moisture were within 0.074 (Saseendran et al., 2004). By comparing simulated water stress and water moisture monitored by sensors, Povilaitis et al. (2010) found that both the simulated water stress and the measured soil water content provided acceptable soil water information regarding conventional field trials with optimum fertilizer applications, integrated field trials with lower and organic fertilizer application, and no fertilizer application field trials (Povilaitis and Lazauskas, 2010).

3.12 Evapotranspiration and Deep Seepage

The evapotranspiration variable has been validated for the CERES-Maize and the CERES-Wheat models (Tables 24 and 25). The deep seepage of the CERES-Wheat model has been evaluated as well. No research has reported on the ET or deep seepage validation for the CERES-Rice model.

3.12.1 CERES-Maize

Two studies tested crop water use. Yang et al. (2006) simulated maize water use under no irrigation versus two irrigations per growing season and reported that water use was overestimated by 42.7 mm (0.418 mm/day) and 67.4 mm (0.661 mm/day), respectively (Yang et al., 2006a). The other study, in Washington, US, reported that the plant water use simulation had normalized RMSEs of 8.95 and 6.98% for limited and full irrigation, respectively (RMSEs of 0.33 and 0.27 mm/day, respectively) (Jara and Stockle, 1999).

| Г | 7 | |
|---|---|---|
| Š | _ | Š |
| Ξ | | 5 |
| C | |) |
| Г | 7 | Ū |
| ŝ | ĺ | , |
| C | 1 | ١ |
| (| 1 | • |
| | | |
| (| ľ |) |
| · | | |
| | | |

Saseendran et al. (2005)

Treatment category **Variables** Countries Performance References Rain-fed/nonirrigated ET United States Percentage error: >12% DeJonge et al. (2011); and well fertilized DeJonge et al. (2012) Normalized RMSE: <10% Anothai et al. (2013) Irrigated with a gradient of ET Italy, Turkey, Percentage error: Mastrorilli et al. (2003); water and well fertilized Pakistan $2.3 \sim 7.64\%$ Ben Nouna et al. (2000); R^2 : 0.78 Gercek and Okant (2010); Mubeen et al. (2013) United States RMSE: $0.27 \sim 0.33$ Jara and Stockle (1999) Crop water Normalized RMSE: use 7 ~ 9% China Overestimated by Yang et al. (2006)a

 $42.7 \sim 67.4 \text{ mm}$

RMSE: $3.7 \sim 5.1 \text{ cm}$

Table 24 Summary of the CERES-Maize model performances for crop water use and evapotranspiration (ET) simulations.

United States

ET

Sowing date

Table 25 Summary of the CERES-Wheat model performances for soil water, plant extractable soil water (PESW) and evapotranspiration (ET) simulations.

| Treatment category | Variables | Countries | Performance | References |
|---|--------------------|----------------------|--|---|
| Rain-fed and well fertilized | Soil water loss | China | Error: 1 cm | Yang et al. (2006b) |
| Irrigated with a gradient | Soil water loss | China | Error: $13 \sim 43$ cm | Yang et al. (2006b) |
| of water/different | Soil water | Argentina | R^2 : 0.86 | Savin et al. (1994) |
| scheduling time and | content | New Zealand | Did not match well | Jamieson et al. (1998) |
| well fertilized | | China | Percentage error: <3% difference up to 56 mm | Yang et al. (2006a) |
| | | United States | Normalized RMSE: <10% for layers below 30cm, 18.9% for 0–30 cm layer | Thorp et al. (2010b) |
| | ET | New Zealand | Difference: $9 \sim 60 \text{ mm}$ | Jamieson et al. (1998) |
| Well irrigated and fertilized at varied rates | ET | United States | Normalized RMSE: 2.4% | Thorp et al. (2010b) |
| Well irrigated and fertilized ^a | ET | United States, China | Normalized RMSE: <3% | Kang et al. (2009) |
| Irrigated and fertilized at varied rates | ET | India, China | RMSE: 25 mm Normalized RMSE: 4 ~ 9% | Arora et al. (2007) Ji et al. (2014) |
| Rain-fed and varied amount of fertilizer(s) | Soil water content | United States | RMSE: <0.074 | Saseendran et al. (2004) |
| · · | ET | United States | RMSE: 9.2 ~ 13.5 mm | Saseendran et al. (2004) |

(Continued)

Table 25 Summary of the CERES-Wheat model performances for soil water, plant extractable soil water (PESW) and evapotranspiration (ET) simulations.—cont'd.

| Treatment category | Variables | Countries | Performance | References |
|--|----------------------|--------------------------------|---|--|
| Soil types | Soil water content | Bulgaria, Australia, Canada | Normalized RMSE: 1.3 ~ 9% RMSE: 0.025 ~ 0.046 | Popova and Kercheva (2005), ^b ; Eitzinger et al. (2004); He et al. (2014) |
| | PESW | Bulgaria | Normalized RMSE: 13.3 ~ 36.8% | Popova and Kercheva (2005) |
| | ET | Australia | Overestimated by 61 ~ 87 mm | Eitzinger et al. (2004) |
| Tillage methods ^c | Soil water | Italy | Standard error of regression: 0.03 | Castrignano et al. (1997) |
| Wheat-fallow and continuous wheat under different fertilization rate | Soil water levels | Canada | Accurate for 0–30 cm layers with <1 m error, significantly different for most 60–150 cm layers (P=0.05, 0.01) | Beckie et al. (1995) |
| | Soil water content | Canada | $R^2 < 0.64$ | Wang et al. (2010) |
| CO ₂ concentrations with two irrigation regimes | ET | United States | Normalized RMSE: <14% | Tubiello et al. (1999b) |
| Planting densities combined with varied fertilization rates | ET | United States | Difference: $19 \sim 33 \text{ mm}$ | Thorp et al. (2010a) |

^aLiteratures that did not include treatments were considered as "well irrigated and well fertilized";

^bTreatments included soil types combined with different fertilization rate treatments.

^cIncluding conventional moldboard ploughing, ripper subsoiling, surface disc-harrowing, and minimum tillage with rotary hoeing.

For ET simulation validation, two studies in Colorado, US, reported ET simulations that had percentage errors under 7.5% for full-irrigation treatment and over 12.0% for limited irrigation treatment (DeJonge et al., 2011, 2012). When simulating ET given three levels of irrigation water treatments, from nonwater-stress to severe water stress, the model predicted seasonal ET well for all three levels, with zero error under nonwater-stress conditions, up to 3.5% underestimation under moderate water stress conditions, and up to 7.64% under severe water stress condition (Ben Nouna et al., 2000; Mastrorilli et al., 2003). A similar ET simulation for a 2-year experiment with three levels of irrigation, 100%-, 75%-, and 50%-full, showed that the percentage errors were about 3.0%, 2.3%-5.1%, and above 3.7%, respectively (Gercek and Okant, 2010). In Pakistan, across seven irrigation treatments of varying amounts and timings, the coefficients of determination between the simulated and observed ETs were above 0.78 (Mubeen et al., 2013). Across six irrigation treatments in Colorado, US, the average normalized RMSE for ET simulation was within 10%, with an index of agreement above 0.9 (Anothai et al., 2013). With well-irrigated and sowing date treatments, the ET simulations had RMSEs of 3.7 ~ 5.1 cm, depending on the hybrids involved (Saseendran et al., 2005).

3.12.2 CERES-Wheat

Ten studies tested the ET of the CERES-wheat model under varying water availability treatments, CO₂ concentrations, nutrient application treatments, and soils (Table 25). Arora et al. (2007) tested the seasonal ET with 5-year data collected from field experiments with varying water regimens (eg, irrigation timing at irrigation water-to-pan evaporation ratios of 1.2, 1.0, and 0.6 after sowing and 1–2 irrigations after sowing) combined with nutrient application regimens (eg, 0–180 kg N/ha, 120 kg N/ha applied at various timings, etc.). They reported that across all the field treatments, the simulated ET had an average RMSE of 25 mm, equivalent to a 9% normalized RMSE (Arora et al., 2007). Yang et al. (2006b) showed that the simulated soil water loss was close to that observed under no irrigation treatment (error: 1 cm), but the simulation did not match well with the observations given a fourirrigation treatment (error: 43 cm). A similar study in China in which wheat fields were irrigated zero to four times showed that the soil water content was mostly well-simulated (percentage error: <3%), but at the end of the growing seasons, the soil water simulation errors ranged up to 56 mm (Yang et al., 2006a). Across nine treatments with various levels of nutrient and water input in China, the normalized RMSE for the ET simulation was

between 4 and 7% (Ji et al., 2014). By contrast, Jamieson et al. (1998) reported that given weekly irrigation treatment, the total ET was underestimated by 135 mm, while under no irrigation treatment, it was overestimated by 60 mm. The authors also indicated that for total ET simulations under early drought and late drought treatments, the absolute errors mostly ranged from 9 to 17 mm, with one exception of 51 mm (Jamieson et al., 1998). When simulating cumulative ET under treatments combining CO₂ concentration (ambient vs. 550 ppm) and irrigation (wellwatered vs. water deficit), the normalized RMSEs were within 14% (Tubiello et al., 1999b). With nutrient applications of $0 \sim 112 \text{ kg N/ha}$ for 3 years, the simulated seasonal ET had RMSEs from 9.2 to 13.5 cm (Saseendran et al., 2004). With 110.5 and 241.0 kg N/ha application treatments, the normalized RMSE was 2.4% (Thorp et al., 2010b). The authors also noticed that the model did not simulate deep seepage, as opposed to the approximately 30 mm of seepage that were measured (Thorp et al., 2010b). Another study in Arizona, with various nitrogen input and population density treatments, showed that the difference between the simulated and observed ET varied from 1.9 to 3.3 cm given a sparse planting and high nitrogen input treatment (Thorp et al., 2010a). One study in Austria tested ET with field experiments on three types of soils. The results indicated that the model overestimated the seasonal ET for the three types of soil by $61 \sim 87 \text{ mm}$ (Eitzinger et al., 2004). Kang et al. (2009) used multiple seasons of wheat field data from two sites in China and the United States to validate the ET calculated by the Priestley-Taylor and Penman equations. The authors reported that the average RMSEs were 2.1 and 2.5 mm (these are either mm/day or mm/ season), respectively (Kang et al., 2009).

3.13 Other Variables

3.13.1 CERES-Maize

Rezzoug et al. (2008) reported that the simulation of number of years per square meter the variable had an RMSD of 74.21 and a mean absolute percentage error of 29.66%. Popova et al. (2005) compared the simulated and the measured accumulative drainage graphically, and the results indicated that the simulated drainage was underestimated for an irrigated maize field in Bulgaria (Popova and Kercheva, 2005). Lizaso et al. (2001, 2003a,b) used two datasets from different sites in Iowa with different treatments to test the intercepted photosynthetically active radiation (IPAR) variable. Comparing the simulated IPAR to the

observed IPAR under two extreme nitrogen rates (0 vs. 224 kg N/ha) combined with different maize hybrids, planting dates, and population density treatments, the authors reported that the IPAR was overestimated, especially for the nonnitrogen application treatment (Lizaso et al., 2001). Using 72 data points from experiments on irrigated maize fields with varying population densities, hybrids, and nitrogen application rates (56 vs. 168 kg N/ha) and nonirrigated maize fields with varying population densities and hybrids, the authors also found that IPAR was overestimated, with a mean error of 0.41 MJ/plant and an RMSE of 0.75 MJ/plant (Lizaso et al., 2003b). In Australia, Carberry (1991) tested the thermal time of the CERES-Maize model and showed that the observed temperature for leaf tip appearance was 48.3 °C, as opposed to the 38.9 °C simulated by the model. Two studies compared simulated irrigation water use to historical irrigation water use records. Salazar et al. (2012) reported that the simulated monthly irrigation water use was in close agreement with the historical record for the South Georgia, US, region, but there was a notable overestimation for early growing seasons when rainfall was not abundant. The study of a wheat-maize rotation field in the North China Plain showed that the simulated highest and lowest water use of the irrigated wheat matched with the records, and for the 5-year simulation, the average difference was 12 mm. When simulating the rotation irrigation water use by two crops, the average difference was 6.1 mm, and the absolute differences for each year ranged between 0 and 69 mm (Yang et al., 2006a).

Two studies in the United States and Turkey calculated and tested the water productivity variable. DeJonge et al. (2012) reported that the simulation was reasonably accurate for full irrigation (RMSD of 3.45 kg/ha per mm and underestimated by 6.53%), but much less accurate for limited irrigation (RMSD of 5.97 kg/ha per mm and underestimated by 26.7%) in a water-use efficiency simulation. By contrast, the similar study in Turkey found that water use efficiency was under-predicted by 1.5% under full irrigation conditions while it was overpredicted by 1.4 and 1.7% for 75%-and 50%-full irrigation treatments, respectively (Gercek and Okant, 2010).

3.13.2 CERES-Wheat

Zhang et al. (2012) compared the simulated and observed cumulative frequency distributions of the optimal nitrogen rate in Oklahoma, US, for 37 years and reported that the optimum nitrogen application rates were well-simulated when nitrogen application was under 67 kg/ha, underestimated for 67 and 90 kg N/ha treatments, and overestimated

for 90 and 112 kg N/ha treatments. Water use efficiency and nitrogen partial factor productivity were validated with varied water and nitrogen input treatments in China, and the normalized RMSEs were $5 \sim 8$ and $5 \sim 6\%$, respectively (Ji et al., 2014).

3.13.3 CERES-Rice

With a fertilization treatment of $0 \sim 150$ kg/ha at various timings in Thailand, Cheyglinted et al. (2001) calculated the grain-straw ratio and reported that the relative absolute percentage errors for the ratio between grain and straw simulations were $21 \sim 32\%$.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

This study was partially funded by the USDA NIFA Water Cap Award 2014–09400. Any opinions, findings, and conclusions or recommendations expressed in this publication are those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect the views of the NSF or USDA. The funders had no role in study design, data collection and analysis, decision to publish, or preparation of the manuscript.

REFERENCES

- Abeledo, L.G., Savin, R., Slafer, G.A., 2008. Wheat productivity in the mediterranean ebro valley: analyzing the gap between attainable and potential yield with a simulation model. Eu. J. Agron. 28, 541–550.
- Ahmad, S., Ahmad, A., Ali, H., Hussain, A., Garcia y Garcia, A., Khan, M.A., Zia-Ul-Haq, M., Hasanuzzaman, M., Hoogenboom, G., 2012. Application of the CSM-CERES-Rice model for evaluation of plant density and irrigation management of transplanted rice for an irrigated semiarid environment. Irrigation Sci. 31, 491–506.
- Al-Bakri, J., Suleiman, A., Abdulla, F., Ayad, J., 2011. Potential impact of climate change on rainfed agriculture of a semi-arid basin in Jordan. Phys. Chem. Earth 36, 125–134.
- Alexandrov, V., Eitzinger, J., Cajic, V., Oberforster, M., 2002. Potential impact of climate change on selected agricultural crops in North-eastern Austria. Glob. Chang. Biol. 8, 372–389.
- Alexandrov, V.A., Hoogenboom, G., 2000. The impact of climate variability and change on crop yield in bulgaria. Agricul. Forest Meteorol. 104, 315–327.
- Amien, I., Redjekiningrum, P., Kartiwa, B., Estiningtyas, W., 1999. Simulated rice yields as affected by interannual climate variability and possible climate change in java. Climate Res. 12, 145–152.
- Amiri, E., Rezaei, M., Bannayan, M., Soufizadeh, S., 2013. Calibration and evaluation of CERES rice model under different nitrogen- and water-management options in semimediterranean climate condition. Commun. Soil Sci. Plant Anal. 44, 1814–1830.
- Andresen, J.A., Alagarswamy, G., Rotz, C.A., Ritchie, J.T., LeBaron, A.W., 2001. Weather impacts on maize, soybean, and alfalfa production in the great lakes region, 1895–1996. Agron. J. 93, 1059–1070.
- Anothai, J., Soler, C.M.T., Green, A., Trout, T.J., Hoogenboom, G., 2013. Evaluation of two evapotranspiration approaches simulated with the CSM-CERES-Maize model under different irrigation strategies and the impact on maize growth, development and soil moisture content for semi-arid conditions. Agricul. Forest Meteorol. 176, 64–76.
- Arora, V.K., Singh, H., Singh, B., 2007. Analyzing wheat productivity responses to climatic, irrigation and fertilizer-nitrogen regimes in a semi-arid sub-tropical environment using the CERES-Wheat model. Agricul. Water Manag. 94, 22–30.

- Asadi, M.E., Clemente, R.S., 2003. Evaluation of CERES-Maize of dssat model to simulate nitrate leaching, yield and soil moisture content under tropical conditions. J. Food Agric. Environ. 1, 270–276.
- Babel, M.S., Agarwal, A., Swain, D.K., Herath, S., 2011. Evaluation of climate change impacts and adaptation measures for rice cultivation in Northeast Thailand. Climate Res. 46, 137–146.
- Bacsi, Z., Zemankovics, F., 1995. Validation—an objective or a tool—results on a winter-wheat simulation-model application. Ecological Modelling 81, 251–263.
- Bakhsh, A., Bashir, I., Farid, H.U., Wajid, S.A., 2013. Using CERES-Wheat model to simulate grain yield production function for faisalabad, pakistan, conditions. Experimental Agriculture 49, 461–475.
- Bannayan, M., Crout, N.M.J., Hoogenboom, G., 2003. Application of the CERES-Wheat model for within-season prediction of winter wheat yield in the united kingdom. Agron. J. 95, 114–125.
- Bannayan, M., Mansoori, H., and Rezaei, E.E. (2014). Estimating climate change, CO₂ and technology development effects on wheat yield in Northeast Iran. 58.
- Basso, B., Bertocco, M., Sartori, L., Martin, E.C., 2007. Analyzing the effects of climate variability on spatial pattern of yield in a maize—wheat—soybean rotation. Eu. J. Agron. 26, 82–91.
- Basso, B., Cammarano, D., Chen, D., Cafiero, G., Amato, M., Bitella, G., Rossi, R., Basso, F., 2009. Landscape position and precipitation effects on spatial variability of wheat yield and grain protein in Southern Italy. Journal of Agronomy and Crop Science 195, 301–312.
- Basso, B., Ritchie, J.T., Cammarano, D., Sartori, L., 2011. A strategic and tactical management approach to select optimal N fertilizer rates for wheat in a spatially variable field. Eur. J. Agron. 35, 215–222.
- Beckie, H.J., Moulin, A.P., Campbell, C.A., Brandt, S.A., 1995. Testing effectiveness of four simulation models for estimating nitrates and water in two soils. Can. J. Soil Sci. 75, 135–143.
- Behera, S.K., Panda, R.K., 2009. Integrated management of irrigation water and fertilizers for wheat crop using field experiments and simulation modeling. Agricul. Water Manag. 96, 1532–1540.
- Ben Nouna, B., Katerji, N., Mastrorilli, M., 2000. Using the CERES-Maize model in a semiarid mediterranean environment. Evaluation of model performance. Eu. J. Agron. 13, 309–322.
- Ben Nouna, B., Katerji, N., Mastrorilli, M., 2003. Using the CERES-Maize model in a semiarid mediterranean environment. New modelling of leaf area and water stress functions. Eu. J. Agron. 19, 115–123.
- Biernath, C., Gayler, S., Bittner, S., Klein, C., Högy, P., Fangmeier, A., Priesack, E., 2011. Evaluating the ability of four crop models to predict different environmental impacts on spring wheat grown in open-top chambers. Eu. J. Agron. 35, 71–82.
- Binder, J., Graeff, S., Link, J., Claupein, W., Liu, M., Dai, M., Wang, P., 2008. Model-based approach to quantify production potentials of summer maize and spring maize in the North China plain. Agron. J. 100, 862.
- Braga, R.P., Cardoso, M.J., Coelho, J.P., 2008. Crop model based decision support for maize (Zea mays l.) silage production in Portugal. Eu. J. Agron. 28, 224–233.
- Brassard, J.P., Singh, B., 2007. Effects of climate change and CO₂ increase on potential agricultural production in Southern Quebec, Canada. Climate Res. 34, 105–117.
- Carberry, P.S., 1991. Test of leaf-area development in CERES-Maize: a correction. Field Crops Res. 27, 159–167.
- Carberry, P.S., Muchow, R.C., McCown, R.L., 1989. Testing the CERES-Maize simulation model in a semi-arid tropical environment. Field Crops Res. 20, 297–315.

Cassman, K.G., 1999. Ecological intensification of cereal production systems: yield potential, soil quality, and precision agriculture. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 96, 5952–5959.

- Castrignano, A., Colucci, R., DeGiorgio, D., Rizzo, V., Stelluti, M., 1997. Tillage effects on plant extractable soil water in a silty clay vertisol in Southern Italy. Soil Tillage Res. 40, 227–237.
- Caviglia, O.P., Sadras, V.O., Andrade, F.H., 2013. Modelling long-term effects of cropping intensification reveals increased water and radiation productivity in the South-eastern Pampas. Field Crops Res. 149, 300–311.
- Cheyglinted, S., Ranamukhaarachchi, S.L., Singh, G., 2001. Assessment of the CERES-Rice model for rice production in the central plain of Thailand. J. Agricul. Sci. 137, 289–298.
- Chipanshi, A.C., Ripley, E.A., Lawford, R.G., 1997. Early prediction of spring wheat yields in saskatchewan from current and historical weather data using the CERES-Wheat model. Agricul. Forest Meteorol. 84, 223–232.
- Chipanshi, A.C., Ripley, E.A., Lawford, R.G., 1999. Large-scale simulation of wheat yields in a semi-arid environment using a crop-growth model. Agricul. Syst. 59, 57–66.
- Cho, K., Falloon, P., Gornall, J., Betts, R., Clark, R., 2012. Winter wheat yields in the uk: uncertainties in climate and management impacts. Climate Res. 54, 49–68.
- Dahlke, B.J., Oplinger, E.S., Gaska, J.M., Martinka, M.J., 1993. Influence of planting date and seeding rate on winter wheat grain yield and yield components. JPA 6, 408–414.
- Dechmi, F., Playan, E., Faci, J., Cavero, J., 2010. Simulation of sprinkler irrigation water uniformity impact on corn yield. Spanish J. Agricul. Res. 8, S143–S151.
- DeJonge, K.C., Andales, A.A., Ascough, J.C., Hansen, N.C., 2011. Modeling of full and limited irrigation scenarios for corn in a semiarid environment. T. ASABE 54, 481–492.
- DeJonge, K.C., Ascough, J.C., Andales, A.A., Hansen, N.C., Garcia, L.A., Arabi, M., 2012. Improving evapotranspiration simulations in the CERES-Maize model under limited irrigation. Agricul. Water Manag. 115, 92–103.
- Dettori, M., Cesaraccio, C., Motroni, A., Spano, D., Duce, P., 2011. Using CERES-Wheat to simulate durum wheat production and phenology in Southern Sardinia, Italy. Field Crops Res. 120, 179–188.
- Dhakhwa, G.B., Campbell, C.L., LeDuc, S.K., Cooter, E.J., 1997. Maize growth: assessing the effects of global warming and CO₂ fertilization with crop models. Agricul. Forest Meteorol. 87, 253–272.
- Dogan, E., Clark, G.A., Rogers, D.H., Martin, V., Vanderlip, R.L., 2006. On-farm scheduling studies and CERES-Maize simulation of irrigated corn. Appl. Eng. Agric. 22, 509–516.
- Dong, Y., Zhao, C., Yang, G., Chen, L., Wang, J., Feng, H., 2013a. Integrating a very fast simulated annealing optimization algorithm for crop leaf area index variational assimilation. Math. Comput. Model. 58, 877–885.
- Dong, Y.Y., Wang, J.H., Li, C.J., Yang, G.J., Wang, Q., Liu, F., Zhao, J.L., Wang, H.F., Huang, W.J., 2013b. Comparison and analysis of data assimilation algorithms for predicting the leaf area index of crop canopies. JSTARS 6, 188–201.
- Eitzinger, J., Stastna, M., Zalud, Z., Dubrovsky, M., 2003. A simulation study of the effect of soil water balance and water stress on winter wheat production under different climate change scenarios. Agricul. Water Manag. 61, 195–217.
- Eitzinger, J., Trnka, M., Hösch, J., Žalud, Z., Dubrovský, M., 2004. Comparison of CERES, WOFOST and SWAP models in simulating soil water content during growing season under different soil conditions. Ecol. Model. 171, 223–246.
- Epperson, J.E., Hook, J.E., Mustafa, Y.R., 1993. Dynamic programming for improving irrigation scheduling strategies of maize. Agricul. Syst. 42, 85–101.
- Estes, L.D., Beukes, H., Bradley, B.A., Debats, S.R., Oppenheimer, M., Ruane, A.C., Schulze, R., Tadross, M., 2013. Projected climate impacts to South African maize and wheat production in 2055: a comparison of empirical and mechanistic modeling approaches. Glob. Chang. Biol. 19, 3762–3774.

- Gabrielle, B., Kengni, L., 1996. Analysis and field-evaluation of the CERES models' soil components: nitrogen transfer and transformations. Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J. 60, 142–149.
- Gabrielle, B., Mary, B., Roche, R., Smith, P., Gosse, G., 2002. Simulation of carbon and nitrogen dynamics in arable soils: a comparison of approaches. Eu. J. Agron. 18, 107–120.
- Gabrielle, B., Menasseri, S., Houot, S., 1995. Analysis and field evaluation of the CERES models water balance component. Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J. 59, 1403–1412.
- Garrison, M.V., Batchelor, W.D., Kanwar, R.S., Ritchie, J.T., 1999. Evaluation of the CERES-Maize water and nitrogen balances under tile-drained conditions. Agricul. Syst. 62, 189–200.
- Gerakis, A., Rasse, D.P., Kavdir, Y., Smucker, A.J.M., Katsalirou, I., Ritchie, J.T., 2006. Simulation of leaching losses in the nitrogen cycle. Commun. Soil Sci. Plant Anal. 37, 1973–1997.
- Gerardeaux, E., Giner, M., Ramanantsoanirina, A., Dusserre, J., 2011. Positive effects of climate change on rice in Madagascar. Agron. Sustain. Dev. 32, 619–627.
- Gercek, S., Okant, M., 2010. Evaluation of CERES-Maize simulation model results with measured data using water pillow irrigation under semi-arid climatic conditions. Afr. J. Agricul. Res. 5, 606–613.
- Ghaffari, A., Cook, H.F., Lee, H.C., 2001. Simulating winter wheat yields under temperate conditions: exploring different management scenarios. Eu. J. Agron. 15, 231–240.
- Ghaffari, A., Cook, H.F., Lee, H.C., 2002. Climate change and winter wheat management: a modelling scenario for South-eastern England. Climatic Chang. 55, 509–533.
- Godwin, D.C., Meyer, W.S., Singh, U., 1994. Simulation of the effect of chilling injury and nitrogen supply on floret fertility and yield in rice. Aus. J. Exp. Agric. 34, 921–926.
- Greene, J.S., Maxwell, E., 2007. Climatic impacts on winter wheat in Oklahoma and potential applications to climatic and crop yield prediction. Int. J. Biometeorol. 52, 117–126.
- Gungula, D.T., Kling, J.G., Togun, A.O., 2003. CERES-Maize predictions of maize phenology under nitrogen-stressed conditions in Nigeria. Agron. J. 95, 892–899.
- Guo, R., Lin, Z., Mo, X., Yang, C., 2010. Responses of crop yield and water use efficiency to climate change in the North China plain. Agricul. Water Manag. 97, 1185–1194.
- Hasegawa, H., Bryant, D.C., Denison, R.F., 2000. Testing CERES model predictions of crop growth and n dynamics, in cropping systems with leguminous green manures in a mediterranean climate. Field Crops Res. 67, 239–255.
- He, J., Dukes, M.D., Hochmuth, G.J., Jones, J.W., Graham, W.D., 2011. Evaluation of sweet corn yield and nitrogen leaching with CERES-Maize considering input parameter uncertainties. T. ASABE 54, 1257–1268.
- He, J.Q., Cai, H.J., Bai, J.P., 2013. Irrigation scheduling based on CERES-Wheat model for spring wheat production in the Minqin Oasis in Northwest China. Agricul. Water Manag. 128, 19–31.
- He, Y., Hou, L., Wang, H., Hu, K., McConkey, B., 2014. A modelling approach to evaluate the long-term effect of soil texture on spring wheat productivity under a rain-fed condition. Sci. Rep. 4, 5736.
- Heinemann, A.B., Hoogenboom, G., de Faria, R.T., 2002. Determination of spatial water requirements at county and regional levels using crop models and GIS an example for the state of Parana, brazil. Agricul. Water Manag. 52, 177–196.
- Hodges, T., Botner, D., Sakamoto, C., Haug, J.H., 1987. Using the CERES-Maize model to estimate production for the U.S. Corn-belt. Agricul. Forest Meteorol. 40, 293–303.
- Hodges, T., Evans, D.W., 1992. Leaf emergence and leaf duration related to thermal time calculations in CERES-Maize. Agron. J. 84, 724–730.
- Hook, J.E., 1994. Using crop models to plan water withdrawals for irrigation in drought years. Agricul. Syst. 45, 271–289.

Hundal, S.S., PrabhjyotKaur, 1997. Application of the CERES-Wheat model to yield predictions in the irrigated plains of the indian punjab. J. Agricul. Sci. 129, 13–18.

- Iglesias, A., Rosenzweig, C., Pereira, D., 2000. Agricultural impacts of climate change in Spain: developing tools for a spatial analysis. Glob. Environ. Chang. 10, 69–80.
- Iqbal, M.A., Eitzinger, J., Formayer, H., Hassan, A., Heng, L.K., 2011. A simulation study for assessing yield optimization and potential for water reduction for summer-sown maize under different climate change scenarios. J. Agricul. Sci. 149, 129–143.
- Jagtap, S.S., Abamu, F.J., 2003. Matching improved maize production technologies to the resource base of farmers in a moist Savanna. Agricul. Syst. 76, 1067–1084.
- Jagtap, S.S., Abamu, F.J., Kling, J.G., 1999. Long-term assessment of nitrogen and variety technologies on attainable maize yields in nigeria using CERES-Maize. Agricul. Syst. 60, 77–86.
- Jagtap, S.S., Mornu, M., Kang, B.T., 1993. Simulation of growth, development and yield of maize in the transition zone of nigeria. Agricul. Syst. 41, 215–229.
- Jamieson, P.D., Porter, J.R., Goudriaan, J., Ritchie, J.T., van Keulen, H., Stol, W., 1998. A comparison of the models afrewheat2, CERES-Wheat, sirius, sucros2 and swheat with measurements from wheat grown under drought. Field Crops Res. 55, 23–44.
- Jara, J., Stockle, C.O., 1999. Simulation of water uptake in maize, using different levels of process detail. Agron. J. 91, 256–265.
- Ji, J., Cai, H., He, J., Wang, H., 2014. Performance evaluation of CERES-Wheat model in guanzhong plain of Northwest China. Agricul. Water Manag. 144, 1–10.
- Johnen, T., Boettcher, U., Kage, H., 2012. A variable thermal time of the double ridge to flag leaf emergence phase improves the predictive quality of a CERES-Wheat type phenology model. Computers and Electronics in Agriculture 89, 62–69.
- Jones, C.A., Kiniry, J.R., Dyke, P.T., 1986. CERES-Maize: a simulation model of maize growth and development. Texas A&M University Press, College Station.
- Jones, J.W., Hoogenboom, G., Porter, C.H., Boote, K.J., Batchelor, W.D., Hunt, L.A., Wilkens, P.W., Singh, U., Gijsman, A.J., Ritchie, J.T., 2003. The dssat cropping system model. Eu. J. Agron. 18, 235–265.
- Jones, J.W., Tsuji, G.Y., Hoogenboom, G., Hunt, L.A., Thornton, P.K., Wilkens, P.W., Imamura, D.T., Bowen, W.T., Singh, U., 1998. Decision support system for agrotechnology transfer: DSSAT v3. In: Tsuji, G., Hoogenboom, G., Thornton, P. (Eds.), Understanding options for agricultural production, vol. 7. Springer, Netherlands, pp. 157–177.
- Kang, S., Payne, W.A., Evett, S.R., Robinson, C.A., Stewart, B.A., 2009. Simulation of winter wheat evapotranspiration in texas and henan using three models of differing complexity. Agricul. Water Manag. 96, 167–178.
- Kassie, B.T., Van Ittersum, M.K., Hengsdijk, H., Asseng, S., Wolf, J., Rötter, R.P., 2014. Climate-induced yield variability and yield gaps of maize (zea mays l.) in the central rift valley of ethiopia. Field Crops Res. 160, 41–53.
- Kim, H.-Y., Ko, J., Kang, S., Tenhunen, J., 2013. Impacts of climate change on paddy rice yield in a temperate climate. Glob. Chang. Biol. 19, 548–562.
- Kiniry, J.R., Bockholt, A.J., 1998. Maize and sorghum simulation in diverse texas environments. Agron. J. 90, 682–687.
- Kiniry, J.R., Williams, J.R., Vanderlip, R.L., Atwood, J.D., Reicosky, D.C., Mulliken, J., Cox, W.J., Mascagni, H.J., Hollinger, S.E., Wiebold, W.J., 1997. Evaluation of two maize models for nine us locations. Agron. J. 89, 421–426.
- Kovacs, G.J., Nemeth, T., Ritchie, J.T., 1995. Testing simulation models for the assessment of crop production and nitrate leaching in hungary. Agricul. Syst. 49, 385–397.
- Lal, M., Singh, K.K., Rathore, L.S., Srinivasan, G., Saseendran, S.A., 1998. Vulnerability of rice and wheat yields in nw india to future changes in climate. Agricul. Forest Meteorol. 89, 101–114.

- Landau, S., Mitchell, R.A.C., Barnett, V., Colls, J.J., Craigon, J., Moore, K.L., Payne, R.W., 1998. Testing winter wheat simulation models' predictions against observed uk grain yields. Agricul. Forest Meteorol. 89, 85–99.
- Langensiepen, M., Hanus, H., Schoop, P., Gräsle, W., 2008. Validating CERES-Wheat under North-German environmental conditions. Agricul. Syst. 97, 34–47.
- Lashkari, A., Alizadeh, A., Rezaei, E.E., Bannayan, M., 2011. Mitigation of climate change impacts on maize productivity in Northeast of Iran: a simulation study. Mitig. Adapt. Strat. Glob. Chang. 17, 1–16.
- Link, J., Graeff, S., Batchelor, W.D., Claupein, W., 2006. Evaluating the economic and environmental impact of environmental compensation payment policy under uniform and variable-rate nitrogen management. Agricul. Syst. 91, 135–153.
- Liu, H.-l., Yang, J.-y., He, P., Bai, Y.-l., Jin, J.-y., Drury, C.F., Zhu, Y.-p., Yang, X.-m., Li, W.-j., Xie, J.-g., Yang, J.-m., Hoogenboom, G., 2012. Optimizing parameters of CSM-CERES-Maize model to improve simulation performance of maize growth and nitrogen uptake in Northeast China. Journal of Integrative Agriculture 11, 1898–1913.
- Liu, H.L., Yang, J.Y., Drury, C.F., Reynolds, W.D., Tan, C.S., Bai, Y.L., He, P., Jin, J., Hoogenboom, G., 2010. Using the dssat-CERES-Maize model to simulate crop yield and nitrogen cycling in fields under long-term continuous maize production. Nutrient Cycling in Agroecosystems 89, 313–328.
- Liu, H.L., Yang, J.Y., Tan, C.S., Drury, C.F., Reynolds, W.D., Zhang, T.Q., Bai, Y.L., Jin, J., He, P., Hoogenboom, G., 2011. Simulating water content, crop yield and nitrate-n loss under free and controlled tile drainage with subsurface irrigation using the DSSAT model. Agricul. Water Manag. 98, 1105–1111.
- Liu, S., Yang, J.Y., Drury, C.F., Liu, H.L., Reynolds, W.D., 2014. Simulating maize (zea mays l.) growth and yield, soil nitrogen concentration, and soil water content for a long-term cropping experiment in ontario, canada. Can. J. Soil Sci. 94, 435–452.
- Liu, S., Yang, J.Y., Zhang, X.Y., Drury, C.F., Reynolds, W.D., Hoogenboom, G., 2013. Modelling crop yield, soil water content and soil temperature for a soybean–maize rotation under conventional and conservation tillage systems in Northeast China. Agricul. Water Manag. 123, 32–44.
- Liu, W.T.H., 1989. Application of CERES-Maize model to yield prediction of a brazilian maize hybrid. Agricul. Forest Meteorol. 45, 299–312.
- Liu, Y., Tao, F., 2013. Probabilistic change of wheat productivity and water use in china for global mean temperature changes of 1°, 2°, and 3 °c. Journal of Applied Meteorology and Climatology 52, 114–129.
- Liu, Y., Yuan, G., 2010. Impacts of climate change on winter wheat growth in panzhuang irrigation district, shandong province. Journal of Geographical Sciences 20, 861–875.
- Lizaso, J.I., Batchelor, W.D., Adams, S.S., 2001. Alternate approach to improve kernel number calculation in CERES-Maize. Transactions of the Asae 44, 1011–1018.
- Lizaso, J.I., Batchelor, W.D., Westgate, M.E., 2003a. A leaf area model to simulate cultivarspecific expansion and senescence of maize leaves. Field Crops Res. 80, 1–17.
- Lizaso, J.I., Batchelor, W.D., Westgate, M.E., Echarte, L., 2003b. Enhancing the ability of CERES-Maize to compute light capture. Agricul. Syst. 76, 293–311.
- Lizaso, J.I., Boote, K.J., Jones, J.W., Porter, C.H., Echarte, L., Westgate, M.E., Sonohat, G., 2011. CSM-IXIM: a new maize simulation model for dssat version 4.5. Agron. J. 103, 766–779.
- Lobell, D.B., Ortiz-Monasterio, J.I., 2006. Evaluating strategies for improved water use in spring wheat with CERES. Agricul. Water Manag. 84, 249–258.
- Lobell, D.B., Ortiz-Monasterio, J.I., Asner, G.P., Matson, P.A., Naylor, R.L., Falcon, W.P., 2005. Analysis of wheat yield and climatic trends in Mexico. Field Crops Res. 94, 250–256.

López-Cedrón, F.X., Boote, K.J., Piñeiro, J., Sau, F., 2008. Improving the CERES-Maize model ability to simulate water deficit impact on maize production and yield components. Agron. J. 100, 296–307.

- López-Cedrón, F.X., Boote, K.J., Ruíz-Nogueira, B., Sau, F., 2005. Testing CERES-Maize versions to estimate maize production in a cool environment. Eu. J. Agron. 23, 89–102.
- Mahmood, R., Meo, M., Legates, D. R., and Morrissey, M. L. (2003). The CERES-Rice model-based estimates of potential monsoon season rainfed rice productivity in Bangladesh. 55, 259–273.
- Makadho, J., 1996. Potential effects of climate change on corn production in Zimbabwe. Climate Res. 6, 147–151.
- Mall, R.K., Aggarwal, P.K., 2002. Climate change and rice yields in diverse agro-environments of India. I. Evaluation of impact assessment models. Climatic Chang. 52, 315–330.
- Mastrorilli, M., Katerji, N., Nouna, B.B., 2003. Using the CERES-Maize model in a semiarid mediterranean environment. Validation of three revised versions. Eu. J. Agron. 19, 125–134.
- Matson, P.A., Parton, W.J., Power, A.G., Swift, M.J., 1997. Agricultural intensification and ecosystem properties. Science 277, 504–509.
- Maytin, C.E., Acevedo, M.F., Jaimez, R., Andressen, R., Harwell, M.A., Robock, A., Azocar, A., 1995. Potential effects of global climatic change on the phenology and yield of maize in Venezuela. Climatic Chang. 29, 189–211.
- Mearns, L.O., Rosenzweig, C., Goldberg, R., 1992. Effect of changes in interannual climatic variability on CERES-Wheat yields: sensitivity and 2 x CO₂ general circulation model studies. Agricul. Forest Meteorol. 62, 159–189.
- Meza, F.J., Silva, D., Vigil, H., 2008. Climate change impacts on irrigated maize in mediterranean climates: evaluation of double cropping as an emerging adaptation alternative. Agricul. Syst. 98, 21–30.
- Miao, Y., Mulla, D.J., Batchelor, W.D., Paz, J.O., Robert, P.C., Wiebers, M., 2006. Evaluating management zone optimal nitrogen rates with a crop growth model. Agron. J. 98, 545–553.
- Mize, C.W., Egeh, M.H., Batchelor, W.D., 2005. Predicting maize and soybean production in a sheltered field in the cornbelt region of North central USA. Agroforestry Systems 64, 107–116.
- Monzon, J.P., Sadras, V.O., Abbate, P.A., Caviglia, O.P., 2007. Modelling management strategies for wheat–soybean double crops in the South-eastern Pampas. Field Crops Res. 101, 44–52.
- Moradi, R., Koocheki, A., Mahallati, M.N., 2014. Adaptation of maize to climate change impacts in Iran. Mitig. Adapt. Strat. Glob. Chang.V 19 1223–1238.
- Moradi, R., Koocheki, A., Nassiri Mahallati, M., Mansoori, H., 2013. Adaptation strategies for maize cultivation under climate change in Iran: irrigation and planting date management. Mitig. Adapt. Strat. Glob. Chang.V 18 265–284.
- Moreno-Sotomayor, A., Weiss, A., 2004. Improvements in the simulation of kernel number and grain yield in CERES-Wheat. Field Crops Res. 88, 157–169.
- Moulin, A.P., Beckie, H.J., 1993. Evaluation of the CERES and epic models for predicting spring wheat grain yield over time. Can. J. Plant Sci. 73, 713–719.
- Mubeen, M., Ahmad, A., Wajid, A., Khaliq, T., Bakhsh, A., 2013. Evaluating CSM-CERES-Maize model for irrigation scheduling in semi-arid conditions of Punjab, Pakistan. Int. J. Agricul. Biol. 15, 1–10.
- Nain, A.S., Dadhwal, V.K., Singh, T.P., 2004. Use of CERES-Wheat model for wheat yield forecast in central indo-gangetic plains of India. J. Agricul. Sci. 142, 59–70.
- O'Neal, M.R., Frankenberger, J.R., Ess, D.R., 2002. Use of CERES-Maize to study effect of spatial precipitation variability on yield. Agricul. Syst. 73, 205–225.

- Otegui, M.E., Ruiz, R.A., Petruzzi, D., 1996. Modeling hybrid and sowing date effects on potential grain yield of maize in a humid temperate region. Field Crops Res. 47, 167–174.
- Otter, S., Ritchie, J.T., 1985. Validation of the CERES-wheat model in diverse environments. In: Wheat Growth and Modelling, Springer, pp. 307–310.
- Ottman, M.J., Anthony Hunt, L., White, J.W., 2013. Photoperiod and vernalization effect on anthesis date in winter-sown spring wheat regions. Agron. J. 105, 1017–1025.
- Palosuo, T., Kersebaum, K.C., Angulo, C., Hlavinka, P., Moriondo, M., Olesen, J.E., Patil, R.H., Ruget, F., Rumbaur, C., Takáč, J., Trnka, M., Bindi, M., Çaldağ, B., Ewert, F., Ferrise, R., Mirschel, W., Şaylan, L., Šiška, B., Rötter, R., 2011. Simulation of winter wheat yield and its variability in different climates of Europe: a comparison of eight crop growth models. Eu. J. Agron. 35, 103–114.
- Panda, R.K., Behera, S.K., Kashyap, P.S., 2003. Effective management of irrigation water for wheat under stressed conditions. Agricul. Water Manag. 63, 37–56.
- Panda, R.K., Behera, S.K., Kashyap, P.S., 2004. Effective management of irrigation water for maize under stressed conditions. Agricul. Water Manag. 66, 181–203.
- Pang, X.P., Gupta, S.C., Moncrief, J.F., Rosen, C.J., Cheng, H.H., 1998. Evaluation of nitrate leaching potential in Minnesota glacial outwash soils using the CERES-Maize model. J. Environ. Qual. 27, 75–85.
- Pang, X.P., Letey, J., Wu, L., 1997. Yield and nitrogen uptake prediction by CERES-Maize model under semiarid conditions. Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J. 61, 254–256.
- Paz, J.O., Batchelor, W.D., Babcock, B.A., Colvin, T.S., Logsdon, S.D., Kaspar, T.C., Karlen, D.L., 1999. Model-based technique to determine variable rate nitrogen for corn. Agricul. Syst. 61, 69–75.
- Pecetti, L., Hollington, P.A., 1997. Application of the CERES-Wheat simulation model to durum wheat in two diverse mediterranean environments. Eu. J. Agron. 6, 125–139.
- Persson, T., Garcia, A.G.Y., Paz, J., Jones, J., Hoogenboom, G., 2009. Maize ethanol feedstock production and net energy value as affected by climate variability and crop management practices. Agricul. Syst. 100, 11–21.
- Phakamas, N., Jintrawet, A., Patanothai, A., Sringam, P., Hoogenboom, G., 2013. Estimation of solar radiation based on air temperature and application with the DSSAT v4.5 peanut and rice simulation models in Thailand. Agricul. Forest Meteorol. 180, 182–193.
- Pinitpaitoon, S., Suwanarit, A., Bell, R.W., 2011. A framework for determining the efficient combination of organic materials and mineral fertilizer applied in maize cropping. Field Crops Res. 124, 302–315.
- Popova, Z., Kercheva, M., 2005. Ceres model application for increasing preparedness to climate variability in agricultural planning—calibration and validation test. Phys. Chem. Earth 30, 125–133.
- Porter, J.R., Jamieson, P.D., Wilson, D.R., 1993. Comparison of the wheat simulation models AFR CWHEAT2, CERES-Wheat and swheat for nonlimiting conditions of crop growth. Field Crops Res. 33, 131–157.
- Povilaitis, V., Lazauskas, S., 2010. Winter wheat productivity in relation to water availability and growing intensity. Zemdirbyste-Agric. 97, 59–68.
- Priesack, E., Gayler, S., Hartmann, H.P., 2006. The impact of crop growth sub-model choice on simulated water and nitrogen balances. Nut. Cycl. Agroecosys. 75, 1–13.
- Ramawat, N., Sharma, H.L., Kumar, R., 2012. Simulation, validation and application of CERES-Maize model for yield maximization of maize in North Western Himalayas. Appl. Ecol. Environ. Res. 10, 303–318.
- Ratjen, A.M., Böttcher, U., Kage, H., 2012. Improved modeling of grain number in winter wheat. Field Crops Res. 133, 167–175.
- Reid, W.V., Mooney, H.A., Cropper, A., Capistrano, D., Carpenter, S., Chopra, K., Dasgupta, P., Dietz, T., Duraiappah, A., Hassan, R., 2005. Ecosystems and Human Well-Being: Synthesis. Island Press, Washington, DC.

Retta, A., Vanderlip, R.L., Higgins, R.A., Moshier, L.J., Feyerherm, A.M., 1991. Suitability of corn growth models for incorporation of weed and insect stresses. Agron. J. 83, 757–765.

- Rezzoug, W., Gabrielle, B., Suleiman, A., Benabdeli, K., 2008. Application and evaluation of the dssat-wheat in the tiaret region of Algeria. Afr. J. Agricul. Res. 3, 284–296.
- Ritchie, J.T., 1985. A user-orientated model of the soil water balance in wheat. In: Wheat Growth and Modelling, Springer. pp. 293–305.
- Ritchie, J.T., 1986. The CERES-maize model. CERES Maize: A simulation model of maize growth and development. Texas A&M Univ. Press, College Station, TX 1-6.
- Ritchie, J.T., Alagarswamy, G., 2003. Model concepts to express genetic differences in maize yield components. Agron. J. 95, 4–9.
- Ritchie, J.T., Alocilja, E.C., Singh, U., and Uehara, G., 1986a. IBSNAT and the CERES-Rice model. Weather and rice.
- Ritchie, J.T., Kiniry, J.R., Jones, C.A., Dyke, P.T., 1986b. Model inputs. CERES-Maize: a Simulation Model of Maize Growth and Development. Texas A&M University Press, College Station 37-48.
- Ritchie, J.T., Porter, C.H., Judge, J., Jones, J.W., Suleiman, A.A., 2009. Extension of an existing model for soil water evaporation and redistribution under high water content conditions. Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J. 73, 792–801.
- Ritchie, J.T., Singh, U., Godwin, D.C., Bowen, W.T., 1998. Cereal growth, development and yield. In: Tsuji, G., Hoogenboom, G., Thornton, P. (Eds.), Understanding Options for Agricultural Production, vol. 7. Springer, Netherlands, pp. 79–98.
- Rosenzweig, C., Tubiello, F.N., 1996. Effects of changes in minimum and maximum temperature on wheat yields in the central us a simulation study. Agricul. Forest Meteorol. 80, 215–230.
- Ruane, A.C., Cecil, L.D., Horton, R.M., Gordón, R., McCollum, R., Brown, D., Killough, B., Goldberg, R., Greeley, A.P., Rosenzweig, C., 2013. Climate change impact uncertainties for maize in Panama: farm information, climate projections, and yield sensitivities. Agricul. Forest Meteorol. 170, 132–145.
- Sadler, E.J., Gerwig, B.K., Evans, D.E., Busscher, W.J., Bauer, P.J., 2000. Site-specific modeling of corn yield in the SE coastal plain. Agricul. Syst. 64, 189–207.
- Salazar, M.R., Hook, J.E., Garcia, Garcia, A., Paz, J.O., Chaves, B., Hoogenboom, G., 2012. Estimating irrigation water use for maize in the Southeastern USA: a modeling approach. Agricul. Water Manag. 107, 104–111.
- Salmerón, M., Cavero, J., Isla, R., Porter, C.H., Jones, J.W., Boote, K.J., 2014. Dssat nitrogen cycle simulation of cover crop-maize rotations under irrigated mediterranean conditions. Agron. J. 106, 1283–1296.
- Salmerón, M., Urrego, Y.F., Isla, R., Cavero, J., 2012. Effect of non-uniform sprinkler irrigation and plant density on simulated maize yield. Agricul. Water Manag. 113, 1–9.
- Samuhel, P., Siska, B., 2007. Parameterization of crop simulation model "CERES-Maize" in Nitra-Dolná Malanta. J. Environ. Eng. Landsc. Manag. 15, 25–30.
- Sandor, R., Fodor, N., 2012. Simulation of soil temperature dynamics with models using different concepts. ScientificWorldJournal 2012, 590287.
- Sarkar, R., Kar, S., 2006. Evaluation of management strategies for sustainable rice—wheat cropping system, using dssat seasonal analysis. J. Agricul. Sci. 144, 421.
- Sarkar, R., Kar, S., 2008. Sequence analysis of dssat to select optimum strategy of crop residue and nitrogen for sustainable rice-wheat rotation. Agron. J. 100, 87–97.
- Saseendran, S.A., Ahuja, L.R., Nielsen, D.C., Trout, T.J., Ma, L., 2008. Use of crop simulation models to evaluate limited irrigation management options for corn in a semiarid environment. Water Res. 44,, n/a-n/a.
- Saseendran, S.A., Ma, L., Nielsen, D.C., Vigil, M.F., Ahuja, L.R., 2005. Simulating planting date effects on corn production using RZWQM and CERES-Maize models. Agron. J. 58–71.

- Saseendran, S.A., Nielsen, D.C., Ma, L., Ahuja, L.R., Halvorson, A.D., 2004. Modeling nitrogen management effects on winter wheat production using RZWQM and CERES-Wheat. Agron. J. 96, 615–630.
- Satapathy, S.S., Swain, D.K., Herath, S., 2014. Field experiments and simulation to evaluate rice cultivar adaptation to elevated carbon dioxide and temperature in sub-tropical India. Eu. J. Agron. 54, 21–33.
- Savin, R., Hall, A.J., Satorre, E.H., 1994. Testing the root growth subroutine of the CERES-Wheat model for two cultivars of different cycle length. Field Crops Res. 38, 125–133.
- Savin, R., Satorre, E.H., Hall, A.J., Slafer, G.A., 1995. Assessing strategies for wheat cropping in the monsoonal climate of the Pampas using the CERES-Wheat simulation model. Field Crops Res. 42, 81–91.
- Singh, A.K., Tripathy, R., Chopra, U.K., 2008. Evaluation of CERES-Wheat and cropsyst models for water-nitrogen interactions in wheat crop. Agricul. Water Manag. 95, 776–786.
- Soldevilla-Martinez, M., Martin-Lammerding, J.L., Walter, I., Quemada, M., Lizaso, J.I., 2013. Simulating improved combinations tillage-rotation under dryland conditions. Span. J. Agricul. Res. 11 (3), 820.
- Soler, C.M.T., Bado, V.B., Traore, K., Bostick, W.M., Jones, J.W., Hoogenboom, G., 2011. Soil organic carbon dynamics and crop yield for different crop rotations in a degraded ferruginous tropical soil in a semi-arid region: a simulation approach. J. Agricul. Sci. 149, 579–593.
- Soler, C.M.T., Sentelhas, P.C., Hoogenboom, G., 2007. Application of the CSM-CERES-Maize model for planting date evaluation and yield forecasting for maize grown off-season in a subtropical environment. Eu. J. Agron. 27, 165–177.
- Southworth, J., Pfeifer, R.A., Habeck, M., Randolph, J.C., Doering, O.C., Rao, D.G., 2002. Sensitivity of winter wheat yields in the midwestern United States to future changes in climate, climate variability, and CO₂ fertilization. Climate Res. 22, 73–86.
- Southworth, J., Randolph, J.C., Habeck, M., Doering, O.C., Pfeifer, R.A., Rao, D.G., Johnston, J.J., 2000. Consequences of future climate change and changing climate variability on maize yields in the midwestern United States. Agric. Ecosys. Environ. 82, 139–158
- St'astna, M., Trnka, M., Kren, J., Dubrovsky, M., Zalud, Z., 2002. Evaluation of the CERES models in different production regions of the Czech republic. Rostlinna Vyroba 48, 125–132.
- Staggenborg, S.A., Vanderlip, R.L., 2005. Crop simulation models can be used as dryland cropping systems research tools. Agron. J. 97, 378–384.
- Strzepek, K.M., Major, D.C., Rosenzweig, C., Iglesias, A., Yates, D.N., Holt, A., Hillel, D., 1999. New methods of modeling water availability for agriculture under climate change: the U.S. Cornbelt. JAWRA 35, 1639–1655.
- Subash, N., Mohan, H.S.R., 2012. Evaluation of the impact of climatic trends and variability in rice-wheat system productivity using cropping system model dssat over the indogangetic plains of India. Agricul. Forest Meteorol. 164, 71–81.
- Sudharsan, D., Adinarayana, J., Reddy, D.R., Sreenivas, G., Ninomiya, S., Hirafuji, M., Kiura, T., Tanaka, K., Desai, U.B., Merchant, S.N., 2013. Evaluation of weather-based rice yield models in India. Int. J. Biometeorol. 57, 107–123.
- Sultana, H., Ali, N., Iqbal, M.M., Khan, A., 2009. Vulnerability and adaptability of wheat production in different climatic zones of Pakistan under climate change scenarios. Climatic Chang. 94, 123–142.
- Swain, D.K., Yadav, A., 2009. Simulating the impact of climate change on rice yield using CERES-Rice model. J. Environ. Inform. 13, 104–110.
- Tao, F., Hayashi, Y., Zhang, Z., Sakamoto, T., Yokozawa, M., 2008. Global warming, rice production, and water use in China: developing a probabilistic assessment. Agricul. Forest Meteorol. 148, 94–110.

Tao, F., Zhang, Z., 2010. Impacts of climate change as a function of global mean temperature: maize productivity and water use in China. Climatic Chang. 105, 409–432.

- Thaler, S., Eitzinger, J., Trnka, M., Dubrovsky, M., 2012. Impacts of climate change and alternative adaptation options on winter wheat yield and water productivity in a dry climate in central Europe. J. Agricul. Sci. 150, 537–555.
- Thorp, K.R., Batchelor, W.D., Paz, J.O., Kaleita, A.L., DeJonge, K.C., 2007. Using cross-validation to evaluate CERES-Maize yield simulations within a decision support system for precision agriculture. T. ASABE 50, 1467–1479.
- Thorp, K.R., Hunsaker, D.J., French, A.N., 2010a. Assimilating leaf area index estimates from remote sensing into the simulations of a cropping systems model. T. ASABE 53, 251–262.
- Thorp, K.R., Hunsaker, D.J., French, A.N., White, J.W., Clarke, T.R., Pinter, P.J., 2010b. Evaluation of the CSM-CROPSIM-CERES-Wheat model as a tool for crop water management. T. ASABE 53, 87–102.
- Thorp, K.R., Wang, G., West, A.L., Moran, M.S., Bronson, K.F., White, J.W., Mon, J., 2012. Estimating crop biophysical properties from remote sensing data by inverting linked radiative transfer and ecophysiological models. Remote Sens. Environ. 124, 224–233.
- Tian, Z., Zhong, H., Shi, R., Sun, L., Fischer, G., Liang, Z., 2012. Estimating potential yield of wheat production in China based on cross-scale data-model fusion. Front. Earth Sci. 6, 364–372.
- Timsina, J., Godwin, D., Humphreys, E., Yadvinder, S., Bijay, S., Kukal, S.S., Smith, D., 2008. Evaluation of options for increasing yield and water productivity of wheat in Punjab, India using the DSSAT-CSM-CERES-Wheat model. Agricul. Water Manag. 95, 1099–1110.
- Timsina, J., Humphreys, E., 2006. Performance of CERES-Rice and CERES-Wheat models in rice—wheat systems: a review. Agricul. Syst. 90, 5–31.
- Timsina, J., Singh, U., Badaruddin, M., Meisner, C., 1998. Cultivar, nitrogen, and moisture effects on a rice—wheat sequence: experimentation and simulation. Agron. J. 90, 119–130.
- Touré, A., Major, D.J., Lindwall, C.W., 1995. Comparison of five wheat simulation models in Southern Alberta. Can. J. Plant Sci. 75, 61–68.
- Trnka, M., Dubrovský, M., Semerádová, D., Žalud, Z., 2004. Projections of uncertainties in climate change scenarios into expected winter wheat yields. Theor. Appl. Climatol. 77, 229–249.
- Tsvetsinskaya, E.A., Mearns, L.O., Mavromatis, T., Gao, W., McDaniel, L., Downton, M.W., 2003. The effect of spatial scale of climatic change scenarios on simulated maize, winter wheat, and rice production in the Southeastern United States. Climatic Chang. 60, 37–71.
- Tubiello, F.N., Mahato, T., Morton, T., Druitt, J.W., Volk, T., Marino, B.D.V., 1999a. Growing wheat in biosphere 2 under elevated CO₂: observations and modeling. Ecol. Eng. 13, 273–286.
- Tubiello, F.N., Rosenzweig, C., Goldberg, R.A., Jagtap, S., Jones, J.W., 2002. Effects of climate change on us crop production: simulation results using two different gcm scenarios. Part I: wheat, potato, maize, and citrus. Climate Res. 20, 259–270.
- Tubiello, F.N., Rosenzweig, C., Kimball, B.A., Pinter, P.J., Wall, G.W., Hunsaker, D.J., LaMorte, R.L., Garcia, R.L., 1999b. Testing CERES-Wheat with free-air carbon dioxide enrichment (face) experiment data: CO₂ and water interactions. Agron. J. 91, 247–255.
- Vashisht, B.B., Mulla, D.J., Jalota, S.K., Kaur, S., Kaur, H., Singh, S., 2013. Productivity of rainfed wheat as affected by climate change scenario in Northeastern Punjab, India. Reg. Environ. Chang. 13, 989–998.
- Vucetic, V., 2011. Modelling of maize production in Croatia: present and future climate. J. Agricul. Sci. 149, 145–157.
- Wang, H., Cutforth, H., McCaig, T., McLeod, G., Brandt, K., Lemke, R., Goddard, T., Sprout, C., 2009. Predicting the time to 50% seedling emergence in wheat using a beta model. NJAS - Wagen. J. Life Sci. 57, 65–71.

- Wang, H., Flerchinger, G.N., Lemke, R., Brandt, K., Goddard, T., Sprout, C., 2010. Improving shaw long-term soil moisture prediction for continuous wheat rotations, Alberta, Canada. Can. J. Soil Sci. 90, 37–53.
- Wang, M., Li, Y., Ye, W., Bornman, J.F., Yan, X., 2011. Effects of climate change on maize production, and potential adaptation measures: a case study in Jilin province, China. Climate Res. 46, 223–242.
- Wang, S.F., Li, H.L., Yang, Y.H., Wang, H.J., Yang, Y.M., Jia, Y.G., 2012. Using dssat model to assess spring wheat and maize water use in the arid oasis of Northwest China. J. Food Agric. Environ. 10, 911–918.
- Weiss, A., Moreno-Sotomayer, A., 2006. Simulating grain mass and nitrogen concentration in wheat. Eu. J. Agron. 25, 129–137.
- Weiss, A., Piper, E.L., 1992. Modifying the response to defoliation during vegetative growth in CERES-Maize. Agricul. Syst. 40, 379–392.
- White, J.W., Kimball, B.A., Wall, G.W., Ottman, M.J., Hunt, L.A., 2011. Responses of time of anthesis and maturity to sowing dates and infrared warming in spring wheat. Field Crops Res. 124, 213–222.
- Wu, Y.H., Sakamoto, C.M., Botner, D.M., 1989. On the application of the CERES-Maize model to the North China plain. Agricul. Forest Meteorol. 49, 9–22.
- Xevi, E., Gilley, J., Feyen, J., 1996. Comparative study of two crop yield simulation models. Agricul. Water Manag. 30, 155–173.
- Xiao, D., Tao, F., Liu, Y., Shi, W., Wang, M., Liu, F., Zhang, S., Zhu, Z., 2013. Observed changes in winter wheat phenology in the North China plain for 1981–2009. Int. J. Biometeorol. 57, 275–285.
- Xie, Y., Kiniry, J.R., Nedbalek, V., Rosenthal, W.D., 2001. Maize and sorghum simulations with CERES-Maize, sorkam, and almanac under water-limiting conditions. Agron. J. 93, 1148–1155.
- Xiong, W., Conway, D., Holman, I., Lin, E., 2008a. Evaluation of CERES-Wheat simulation of wheat production in China. Agron. J. 100, 1720.
- Xiong, W., Holman, I., Conway, D., Lin, E., Li, Y., 2008b. A crop model cross calibration for use in regional climate impacts studies. Ecol. Model. 213, 365–380.
- Xiong, W., Matthews, R., Holman, I., Lin, E., Xu, Y., 2007. Modelling china's potential maize production at regional scale under climate change. Climatic Chang. 85, 433–451.
- Xue, Q.W., Weiss, A., Baenziger, P.S., 2004. Predicting phenological development in winter wheat. Climate Res. 25, 243–252.
- Yang, J.M., Yang, J.Y., Dou, S., Yang, X.M., Hoogenboom, G., 2013. Simulating the effect of long-term fertilization on maize yield and soil C/N dynamics in Northeastern China using dssat and century-based soil model. Nutr. Cycl. Agroecosys. 95, 287–303.
- Yang, Y., Watanabe, M., Zhang, X., Hao, X., Zhang, J., 2006a. Estimation of groundwater use by crop production simulated by dssat-wheat and DSSAT-Maize models in the piedmont region of the North China plain. Hydrol. Processes 20, 2787–2802.
- Yang, Y.H., Watanabe, M., Zhang, X.Y., Zhang, J.Q., Wang, Q.X., Hayashi, S., 2006b. Optimizing irrigation management for wheat to reduce groundwater depletion in the piedmont region of the taihang mountains in the North China plain. Agricul. Water Manag. 82, 25–44.
- Yang, Z., Wilkerson, G.G., Buol, G.S., Bowman, D.T., Heiniger, R.W., 2009. Estimating genetic coefficients for the CSM-CERES-Maize model in North Carolina environments. Agron. J. 101, 1276.
- Yao, F.M., Xu, Y.L., Lin, E.D., Yokozawa, M., Zhang, J.H., 2007. Assessing the impacts of climate change on rice yields in the main rice areas of China. Climatic Chang. 80, 395–409.
- Ye, L., Xiong, W., Li, Z., Yang, P., Wu, W., Yang, G., Fu, Y., Zou, J., Chen, Z., Van Ranst, E., Tang, H., 2012. Climate change impact on China food security in 2050. Agron. Sustain. Dev. 33, 363–374.

Yun, J.I., 2003. Predicting regional rice production in South Korea using spatial data and crop-growth modeling. Agricul. Syst. 77, 23–38.

- Żalud, Z., Dubrovský, M., 2002. Modelling climate change impacts on maize growth and development in the Czech republic. Theor. Appl. Climatol. 72, 85–102.
- Zhang, S., Tao, F., 2013. Modeling the response of rice phenology to climate change and variability in different climatic zones: comparisons of five models. Eu. J. Agron. 45, 165–176.
- Zhang, W., Ricketts, T.H., Kremen, C., Carney, K., Swinton, S.M., 2007. Ecosystem services and dis-services to agriculture. Ecol. Econ. 64, 253–260.
- Zhang, X., Wang, S., Sun, H., Chen, S., Shao, L., Liu, X., 2013. Contribution of cultivar, fertilizer and weather to yield variation of winter wheat over three decades: a case study in the North China plain. Eu. J. Agron. 50, 52–59.
- Zhang, X.C., MacKown, C.T., Garbrecht, J.D., Zhang, H., Edwards, J.T., 2012. Variable environment and market affect optimal nitrogen management in wheat and cattle production systems. Agron. J. 104, 1136.
- Zhao, H., Gao, G., Yan, X., Zhang, Q., Hou, M., Zhu, Y., Tian, Z., 2011. Risk assessment of agricultural drought using the CERES-Wheat model: a case study of Henan plain, China. Climate Res. 50, 247–256.