

Field Crops Research

Assessing crop model improvements through comparison of sorghum (*sorghum bicolor* L. moench) simulation models: A case study of West African varieties

F.M Akinseyea,^{b,*}, M. Adam^{b,e}, S.O Agelec, M.P. Hoffmann^d, P.C.S Traore^b, A.M. Whitbread^{d,f}

^a Department of Meteorology and Climate Science, Federal University of Technology, PMB 704, Akure, Ondo State, Nigeria

^b International Crops Research Institute for the Semi-Arid Tropics (ICRISAT), WCA Region, Bamako, Mali

^c Department of Crop, Soil and Pest Management, Federal University of Technology, PMB 704, Akure, Ondo State, Nigeria

^d Crop Production Systems in the Tropics, Georg-August-Universität Göttingen, Grisebachstraße 6, 37077 Göttingen, Germany

^e CIRAD- UMR AGAP, Avenue Agropolis, 34398 Montpellier Cedex 5, France

^f International Crops Research Institute for the Semi-Arid Tropics (ICRISAT) Patancheru 502324, Andhra Pradesh, India

Field Crops Research
Volume 201, 1 February 2017, Pages 19–31

DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.fcr.2016.10.015>

This is author version post print archived in the official Institutional Repository of

ICRISAT <http://oar.icrisat.org/>

Full Title: Assessing crop model improvements through comparison of sorghum (*sorghum bicolor* L. moench) simulation models: A case study of West African varieties

Article type: Review

Authors: F.M Akinseye^{a, b}, M. Adam^{b,e}, S.O Agele^c, M.P. Hoffmann^d, P.C.S Traore^b, A.M. Whitbread^{d, f}

Affiliation: ^a Department of Meteorology and Climate Science, Federal University of Technology, PMB 704, Akure, Ondo State, Nigeria

^b International Crops Research Institute for the Semi-Arid Tropics (ICRISAT), WCA Region, Bamako, Mali

^c Department of Crop, Soil and Pest Management, Federal University of Technology, PMB 704, Akure, Ondo State, Nigeria

^d Crop Production Systems in the Tropics, Georg-August-Universität Göttingen, Grisebachstraße 6, 37077 Göttingen, Germany

^e CIRAD- UMR AGAP, Avenue Agropolis, 34398 Montpellier Cedex 5, France

^f International Crops Research Institute for the Semi-Arid Tropics (ICRISAT) Patancheru 502324, Andhra Pradesh, India

* **Corresponding author:** F.M Akinseye, International Crops Research Institute for the Semi-Arid Tropics (ICRISAT), WCA Region, Bamako, Mali.

E-mail addresses of authors: F.Akinseye@cgiar.org

Key words *Sorghum bicolor* L. moench; Photoperiod sensitivity; APSIM; DSSAT; Samara

1 **Assessing crop model improvements through comparison of sorghum**
2 *(sorghum bicolor L. moench)* **simulation models: a case study of West African**
3 **cultivars**

4 **Abstract**

5 Better defining niches for the photoperiod sensitive sorghum (*sorghum bicolor L. Moench*)
6 cultivars of West Africa into the local cropping system might help to improve the resilience of
7 food production in the region. In particular, crop models are key tools to assess the growth
8 and development of such cultivars against climate and soil variability. In this study, we
9 compared the performance of three proceed-based crop models (APSIM, DSSAT and
10 Samara) for prediction of diverse sorghum (*Sorghum bicolor L. Moench*) germplasm having
11 widely varying photoperiod sensitivity using detailed growth and development observations
12 from field trials conducted in West Africa semi-arid region. Our results confirmed the models
13 capability to reproduce diverse PPSen for the selected cultivars. Simulated phenology and
14 morphology organs during calibration and validation were within the closet ranged of
15 measured values with the evaluation of model error statistics (RMSE and R²). With the
16 exception of high PPSen cultivar (IS15401), APSIM and Samara estimates indicate the
17 lowest value of RMSE (< 7days) against the observed values for phenology compared to
18 DSSAT model. Across the cultivars, there was over-estimation for simulated leaf area index
19 (LAI) while total leaf number (TLN) fitted perfectly into the observed values. Samara
20 estimates were found to be the closet with the lowest value for RMSE (< 3leaves for TLN
21 and < 1.0m²/m² for LAI) followed by DSSAT and APSIM respectively. Contrary to the good
22 performance of Samara model for simulating phenology and morphology, there was a
23 significant variability and large error estimates between model-simulated and field-observed
24 values for total grain yield and biomass. For both calibration and validation, the estimates by
25 APSIM were found to be closer to the observed with the lowest RMSE, NRMSE (%) and R²
26 followed by DSSAT and Samara models. The uncertainty and large error against the

1 observed values were traced to the models ability to better simulate final biomass and grain
2 yield rather than early vegetative phase of the crop growth (above-ground biomass).

3 **Keywords:** *Model calibration and validation, comparison and improvement, sorghum bicolor*
4 *L. moench, photoperiod sensitivity.*

5

6 **1. INTRODUCTON**

7 Sorghum (*sorghum bicolor* L. MOENCH) is the fifth most important cereal crop in the world
8 and is a dietary staple food of more than 500 million people in more than 30 countries
9 (ICRISAT 2009). Besides, its primary staple food for humans, it serves as an important
10 source of feed and fodder for animals particularly in semi-arid regions. It makes
11 comparatively quick growth and gives not only good yield of grain but also enormous
12 quantities of fodder. In West Africa, sorghum production is primarily grown under rainfed
13 conditions and length of the growing period (LGP) is mainly a function of the date of the first
14 rains (Sivakumar, 1988), which is delayed with latitude and varies widely from year-to-year.
15 Sorghum is a short day photoperiod sensitive crop. Progress towards flowering is
16 accelerated when daylength decreases (Folliard et al., 2004). In West Africa, favourable
17 conditions for sorghum cultivation usually extend from May to November. Most of the plant
18 growth thus takes place under decreasing daylength, explaining why cycle duration shortens
19 when sowing is delayed. Farmers use the photoperiod (PP) sensitive varieties, that allows
20 for grouped flowering at the end of the rainy season for a wide range of planting dates
21 (Traore´ et al., 2000). This feature is useful to minimize grain mold and insect and bird
22 damage, which typically affect early maturing varieties. Furthermore it, avoids incomplete
23 grain filling, a problem for late maturing varieties faced with soil water shortage at end of
24 season (Vaksmann et al., 1996). The extensive genetic and phenotypic diversity of sorghum
25 (Clerget et al., 2008; Murray et al. 2008) and its adaptation to harsh climatic and cropping
26 conditions (Nasidi et al., 2010) offers the opportunity to develop Food-Fodder-Fuel(FFF)

1 plants for a multitude of environmental conditions, including the semi-arid environments
2 found in West Africa.

3 Traditionally, conducting field trials are used to evaluate the performance of the different
4 planting material under a range of climate conditions. However, field trials are time
5 consuming and financially demanding and are difficult to extrapolate to other sites and
6 seasons. Hence, crop-climate models can help with the interpretation of experimental data
7 and, after careful calibration and validation, can be used in a prospective way in conjunction
8 with field data to draw recommendations for improved climate-induced risk adaptation
9 strategies. For sorghum, there are crop models implemented in simulation frameworks such
10 as DSSAT - Decision support for Agro-Technology Transfer (Jones et al., 2003), APSIM -
11 Agricultural Productions Systems sIMulator (Holzwoth et al., 2014) or Samara (Dingkuhn et
12 al. 2011). These models differ in the description of the processes and consequently in their
13 outputs. Thus, comparison of different modelling approaches can help reveal the
14 uncertainties relating to crop growth and yield predictions (Palosuo et al., 2011). These
15 include the uncertainty related to the model structure, which is the most difficult source of
16 uncertainty to quantify (Chafield, 1995). Also, comparison can help to identify those parts in
17 the model that produce systematic errors and require improvements (Adam et al., 2012).

18 Recently, there is a growing body of studies comparing models and outputs (Asseng et al.,
19 2013, Bassu et al. 2014, Li et al. 2015). Though, the selected models are widely used in
20 Africa and elsewhere, our findings show that the models are not very well calibrated and
21 validated for the diverse photoperiod sensitivity sorghum cultivars found in West Africa.

22 Considering the growing importance of crop simulation models in assessing the impacts of
23 current and future climatic conditions, improving the ability of the models to simulate more
24 accurately the response of crops to environmental conditions is an important step in making
25 realistic assessment of impacts of climate and other management practices on crop
26 performance. Therefore, the objectives of this study are to; (i) calibrate and validate sorghum
27 modules implemented in the model framework of APSIM, DSSAT and Samara for the
28 photoperiod sensitivity cultivars given the detailed crop growth data obtained from the field

1 trials (ii) and finally identify major strengths and weaknesses among the models to give
2 recommendations for improvements.

3

4 **2. Materials and Methods**

5 **2.1 Calibration and validation data**

6 The experimental data used for model calibration were collected from on-station field trial
7 during 2013 growing season at the International Crops Research Institute for the Semi-Arid
8 Tropics (ICRISAT), Bamako, Mali Republic (12.52⁰N and -8.07⁰W). The experimental
9 protocol was designed to observed crop phenology, morphology and above ground dry
10 matter dynamics, yield and yield components under non-limited water and nutrient supply.
11 The experiment had cultivar (ten) and sowing date (3) as treatments in a randomized
12 complete block design (RCBD) with four (4) replications. The cultivars were sown on June
13 14 represents early planting date (PD_1), July 9 represent medium planting date (PD_2) and
14 August 5 represents late planting date (PD_3) respectively. These sowing dates covered the
15 widest range of farmer's sowing window for sorghum in the Sudano-sahelian zone. Plant
16 population was 67,000 hills/ha (0.75m between rows and 0.20m between hills), and was
17 thinned to 1plant/ hill15 days after planting (DAP). The crop was fertilized using 100kg/ha of
18 Di-ammonium phosphate at sowing and 50kg/ha of Urea (46%N) at 40 days after planting.
19 Insecticides were used according to local recommendations and weeding was done
20 manually. Each plot was 8 m long by 5.25 m wide and consists of seven (7) rows. The outer
21 two rows were excluded from sampling in order to prevent border effect on the
22 measurements. Leaf area index (LAI) and above-ground biomass (separated into leaf, stem
23 and panicle) were sampled within the three rows at 1m² per sampling time at every 15days
24 interval beginning from 25DAP for PD_1, 27 DAP for PD_2 and 30 DAP for PD_3 until
25 grain filling stage. The samples were oven dried at 72 °C for 72 h. At maturity, harvest was
26 done on 4 m² area within each plot (4-replication per cultivar) for the determination of final
27 biomass and grain yield. The fresh weights of these samples were taken and thereafter sub-
28 sample of 20 % of the total harvested leaves and stems together with the total harvested

1 panicles grain were oven-dried at 72 °C for 72 h. Phenology and leaf development were
2 recorded as emergence, 50% flag leaf date, 50% flowering and maturity dates, total leaf
3 number (TLN) and leaf area index (LAI). Also, the soil of the experimental plot was sampled
4 at a depth of 0- 30cm prior to sowing and application of fertilizers. The soil is a well-drained,
5 sandy loam(55% sand, 35% silt, and 20% clay)Soil organic carbon content was low at
6 0.24%.Nutrient analyses provided 224.5mg/kg total N, available phosphorus (Bray- P1)
7 94.94mg /kg, 2.47cmol/kg CEC and pH of water 5.3.

8 Four (4) out of ten (10) genotypic plant materials experimented were selected and directly
9 calibrated in three contrasted process-based models (as described in section 2.2)from
10 observed data collected over three planting dates in 2013 growing season. The cultivars
11 were CSM63E, CSM335, Fadda and IS15401 respectively. These four cultivars were
12 selected for their sharply contrasting phenology and morphology as well as their responses
13 to photoperiod. The duration of their crop growing cycle varies from early to late maturity and
14 characterized as Guinea landrace plant group (Harlan and de Wet, 1972). Their
15 geographical origin emerged from both Mali and Burkina Faso. CSM63E, locally named
16 “Jakumbe”, is an early (85-100days) maturity, an intermediate height type, low biomass,
17 enough grain and low photoperiod sensitivity (PPSen). CSM335 otherwise called “Tieble”, is
18 a traditional local variety with medium physiological maturity ranging from 105 to 135 days,
19 an intermediate plant height, high biomass, low grain and moderate PPSen. Fadda is an
20 improved hybrid, medium maturity days (100 – 135), high-yielding dual purposes (biomass
21 and grain), intermediate plant height and also moderate PPSen. IS15401 also called
22 Soumalemba is a late maturity cultivar varied from 100 to 155 days, improved traditional tall
23 variety, high-yielding dual purposes (biomass and grain), and high PPSen.

24 In addition to these data, we gathered a large data set for validation of the models by using
25 results from field experiments carried out between 2000 and 2008. These experiments were
26 part of research study on sorghum physiology project developed by CIRAD and ICRISAT for
27 two locations (Bamako and Cinzana, Mali) and during different cropping seasons. Details of

1 these experiments have been reported by Clerget et al., (2005; 2007). The agronomic
2 practises and relevant observations used for this study are presented in Table 1.

3

4 [Insert Table 1 near here]

5

6 **2.1.1 Environmental conditions**

7 Daily climatic condition was monitored during 2013 growing season using automatic weather
8 station (AWS) installed within the station (less than 500m to the experimental site). The data
9 observed include rainfall, solar radiation, maximum and minimum temperature relative
10 humidity wind speed and direction. Also, the long-term (1970- 2010) daily climatic data was
11 obtained to establish comparison with the cropping year at the station. The record shows
12 that 2013 total rainfall (1190mm) was above long-term average (1970-2010) and classified
13 as a wet year. Also, the analysis of monthly rainfall at the station indicates a distinct mono-
14 modal pattern with the peak amount in August and varied between May and October (Figure
15 1). It was found that over 50% of the total rainfall was received in the month of July and
16 August, while both minimum and maximum temperatures decrease uniformly throughout the
17 growing season.

18

19 [Insert Figure 1 near here]

20

21 To further define the climatology of the station (Table 2), the onset date of growing season
22 was computed after Omotosho et al., (2000), while cessation of rainy season was computed
23 after Traoré et al., (2000). Average monthly air temperature varies from 26.2 °C to 32.3 °C;
24 average solar radiation observed was 18.7MJ/m²/day. Also, growing season astronomical
25 day length varies from 11 h 15 min to 12 h 45 min and civil daylength from 12 h 10 min to 13
26 h 38 min.

1 [Insert Table 2 near here]

2

3 **2.1.2 Calculation of derived parameters**

4 Additional parameters for calibration data calculated as follows:

5 Daily growing degree-days (GDD, °C day) were calculated as (Streck, 2002):

6 $GDD = (T_{mean} - T_b) / day \dots\dots\dots (1)$

7 where T_b is the base temperature, assumed 11°C as found in most literatures for sorghum
8 (Folliard et al., 2004; Clerget et al., 2004) and T_{mean} is the daily mean temperature. The
9 accumulated growing degree-days from planting (AGDD) was calculated by adding up the
10 GDD values, i.e. $AGDD = \sum GDD$.

11 Phyllochron was calculated for each planting date and cultivar by the linear regression
12 between the number of leaves produced and the thermal time in each sampled period. The
13 thermal time (°C) necessary for the appearance of a leaf is equal to $1/b$, where b is the slope
14 t of the regression.

15 The coefficient of light extinction was computed from LAI-2000 plant canopy analyzer (LI-COR
16 Inc., Lincoln, NB, United States). The LAI2000 estimates light transmitted by the ratio of
17 radiative measurements below and above the canopy. The fraction of radiation intercepted
18 was calculated by multiplying the instrument output DIFN (Diffuse Not Intercepted) by a
19 value of 0.94 assuming only 6% of visible light reflected by green canopy (Dingkun et al.,
20 1999). The reliability of this assumption was confirmed by the analysis of spectral reflectance
21 data obtained by field spectroradiometer, data not showed, (Stroppiana et al., 2005). Light
22 extinction coefficient k is then calculated inverting Lambert-Beer's law as:

23 $K_{df} = -\ln (0.94PAR_{transmitted}) * LAI^{-1} \dots\dots\dots (2)$

24 Representative values of k for the two cultivars at different development stages were in both
25 cases derived by regressing of $\ln (PAR_{transmitted})$ vs LAI (Casanova et al., 1998; Dingkuhn et
26 al., 1999). Also, Radiation Use Efficiency (RUE) was calculated as the slope of the linear
27 regression between values of above ground biomass and cumulated APAR - Absorbed
28 photosynthetically active radiation (calculated using Eq. 3) (Sinclair and Muchow,

1 1999). The Photosynthetic Active Radiation (PAR) was calculated from daily solar radiation
2 (SR; obtained from weather station records during growing period), assuming that PAR
3 comprised 45 % of SR (Howell *et al.*, 1983). Meanwhile, daily *f*APAR time series was
4 estimated by Lambert-Beer formula using the *k* values in Lambert- Beer's law

$$5 \text{ APAR}_d = \text{PAR}_d \times f\text{APAR}_d \dots\dots\dots (3)$$

6 In the equation the subscript letter *d* refers to the daily value and $f\text{APAR}_d = 1 - \exp^{-k \cdot \text{LAI}}$.

7

8

9 **2.2 Model Descriptions**

10 The three process-based models were examined for comparison and recommendation for
11 improvement in this study; they are DSSAT, APSIM and Samara. Table 3 provides an
12 overview of the modelling approaches applied regarding the major processes that determine
13 crop growth and development relative to their similarities and differences. All the models
14 used were designed for sorghum crop, and also capable of simulating crop phenology, total
15 above-ground, LAI, leaf number, grain yield, and field water balance components in daily
16 time steps.

17

18 **2.2.1 Model calibration and analysis of differences**

19 Models were calibrated by matching directly both the observed and derived parameters from
20 2013 field experiment. The calibration procedure followed four phases which include
21 phenology, morphology, above-ground biomass and grain yield. All the models considered
22 thermal time after planting and it was computed using an algorithm by Jones and Kiniry
23 (1986), considering that growth speed increases as a linear function of temperature between
24 a base and an optimal temperature, and then decreases linearly between an optimal and
25 maximal temperature. Thus, the cardinal temperatures used across the models were 11°C
26 for base temperature below which no development takes place (Lafarge *et al.*, 2002; Clerget

1 et al., 2004); and 44°C for maximum temperature, above which development is also nil
2 (Ritchie and Alagarswamy, 1989). Instead of a single value for the optimum temperature
3 (34°C according to Ritchie and Alagarswamy, 1989; confirmed by Clerget et al., 2004),
4 resulting in a sharp maximum for development rate, we used an optimal range of
5 temperatures between 28 and 36°C (Dingkuhn et al., 2008). These cardinal temperatures
6 form a doubly broken stick model with a plateau between the two optimal temperatures
7 (Kouressy et al., 2008). The daily civil day length (sun 6° below the horizon at beginning and
8 end of the day) was calculated according to Keisling (1982) based on latitude and Julian
9 calendar date. Plant available water capacity was derived from field measurements.
10 Parameter in APSIM related to water dynamics such as runoff curve number and
11 evaporation terms were defined as Hoffmann et al. (accepted). In DSSAT and APSIM, the
12 nitrogen related parameters in the soil modules were according to soil analysis data obtained
13 from experiment which include organic carbon and initial nitrogen. The Samara model used
14 model default does not need this input as it does not account for nitrogen. Calibration of leaf
15 number in the model followed the leaf appearance rate (phyllochron) calculated from the
16 field-observed data. Also, derived light extinction coefficient (k), and radiation use efficiency
17 (RUE) served as input for the calibration of above-ground biomass and grain yield. The
18 simulated output for each cultivar for different parameters of crop growth and development
19 were analyzed compared to the observed data and relate to the modelling approaches used.
20 While the main differences and similarities in model predictions led to the recommendations
21 for model improvements as provided below.

22

23 [Insert Table 3 near here]

24

25 **2.3 Evaluation of the models**

26 We first calibrated the models using the information from the detailed field trial during 2013.

27 Thereafter, we used the additional data set to independently validate the models (Clerget et

1 al. 2005, Table 1). In the calibration process we aimed to achieve a good agreement with the
2 observed. For calibration and validation we assessed the goodness-of-fit between model
3 simulated and observed values of yield and above-ground biomass as well as phenological
4 events Model-estimated (simulated) were compared with observed using the following listed
5 statistics;

- 6 1. Root mean square error (RMSE):

7
$$RMSE = [n^{-1} \sum (\text{simulated} - \text{observed})^2]^{0.5} \dots\dots\dots Eqn. (4)$$

- 8 2. The normalized root mean square error (NRMSE) express in percent, calculated
9 according to Loague and Green (1991) with eqn.(4)

10
$$NRMSE = [n^{-1} \sum (\text{simulated} - \text{observed})^2]^{0.5} \times \frac{100}{M} \dots\dots\dots Eqn. (5)$$

11 M is the mean of the observed variable. NRMSE gives a measure (%) of the relative
12 difference of simulated versus observed data. The simulation is considered excellent
13 with a NRMSE less than 10%, good if the NRMSE is greater than 10% and less than
14 20%, fair if the NRMSE is greater than 20% and less than 30% and poor if the
15 NRMSE is greater than 30% (Jamieson *et al.*, 1991).

- 16 3. Linear regression (1:1) plot was taken as an indicator to inform whether the models
17 under- or overestimated measured yields, i.e. the direction and magnitude of bias.
18 4. Additionally, for comparison, the traditional R² regression statistic (least-squares
19 coefficient of determination) was calculated though it does not take into account
20 model bias, which is central when assessing the performance of simulation models.

21
22 [Insert Table 4 near here]
23
24
25
26

3. Results

3.1 Calibration

3.1.1 Photoperiod sensitivity

After careful calibration, all models reproduced the diverse photoperiod sensitivity (PPSen) of the cultivars satisfactorily. Furthermore, estimated model-fitted for crop developmental phases (Figure 2a) showed how the cultivars response to PPSen between the emergency and flag leaf initiation (E-FI) stage. These ranged from low PPSen for CSM63E to high PPSen for IS15401. The results show a decrease in thermal time (E-FL) with the late PD_3 observed reducing day length hour, which signified the level of PPSen of across cultivar. CSM63E indicated as low PPSen cultivar with the lowest thermal time E-FI across the sowing dates ranging from 103 to 57⁰Cdays. Also, CSM335 and Fadda indicate as the moderately PPSen cultivars with the observed thermal time E-FI at a medium ranged between 330 and 117⁰Cdays while the high PPSen cultivar (IS15401) observed the longest thermal time E-FI ranging from 464 to 196⁰Cdays.

[Insert Figure 2a near here]

Also, Table 4 presents the final calibrated genetics coefficients for cultivar's PPSen. In APSIM, the critical photoperiod hours 1&2 were the same for all cultivars; the values were adjusted to 12.8h for photoperiod_crit_1 and 13.2h for photoperiod_crit_2. The calibrated photoperiod slope varied between 150⁰C/H (CSM63E) and 900⁰C/H (IS15401). Also, DSSAT presents the photoperiod hour ranging from 12.6H (CSM335 and IS15401) to 13.2H for Fadda with lowest PPSen coefficient (P2) for CSM63E (50 ⁰Cday) and highest value for IS15401 (450⁰Cdays). The PPSen calibration in Samara followed a different modelling approach by using a dimensionless value ranging from 0.3 for highly sensitive cultivars to 0.95 for insensitive cultivars (Dingkuhn et al., 2008). The low PPSen cultivar (CSM63E) was calibrated with coefficient value of 0.85 while high PPSen cultivar (IS15401) obtained a

1 coefficient value of 0.5. As shown on the Table 4, APSIM and DSSAT followed similar
2 pattern in the photoperiod slope values while Samara indicates opposite for the same
3 purpose. For instance, the low coefficient value (0.5) in Samara indicates high PPSen
4 cultivar which contrasts to APSIM and DSSAT models. Also, the calibrated photoperiod
5 critical hours (lower and upper limits) expressed similar pattern for APSIM and Samara. The
6 same values were calibrated for all the cultivars, while DSSAT was calibrated by the
7 photoperiod critical hours (P2O) as a single value for each cultivar, varied from 12.6 hrs
8 (CSM335 and IS15401) to 13.2 hrs (Fadda).

9

10 [Insert Table 4 near here]

11

12 **3.1.2 Development phases**

13 Table 5 presents calibrated cultivars genetics coefficients for the crop development phases,
14 although the models were very similar but name identification was different. The genetics
15 coefficients were obtained by matching the observed phenology with the model-simulated.
16 The models were calibrated for about six or seven coefficients that defined their growth
17 stages between emergence and maturity. In APSIM, CSM63E obtained the lowest value
18 (190°Cday) from emergence to end of the juvenile phase followed by medium cultivars
19 (Fadda and IS15401) while CSM335, the late maturity obtained the highest value of
20 220°Cday . End of juvenile varied across the cultivars, the least value (50°Cday) was
21 obtained by CSM63E while the highest value (180°Cday) was obtained from late maturity
22 cultivar (IS15401). All the cultivars observed similar characteristics from flag leaf to
23 flowering and also from flowering to start of grain, the calibrated values are 170 and
24 80°Cday . DSSAT-CERES-sorghum model coefficients parameter also varied among the
25 cultivars, the early maturity cultivar CSM63E had the lowest value (190°Cday) indicates as
26 P1 (thermal time from seedling emergence to the end of the juvenile phase) while the late
27 maturity cultivar IS15401 had the highest value of 550°Cday . P2 indicates as end of the

1 juvenile phase to panicle initiation, the obtained values ranged between 50°Cday (CSM63E)
2 and 450°Cday (IS15401). P2O (critical photoperiod or the longest daylength hour at which
3 development to occurs at maximum rate) ranged from 12.6h (for CSM335 and IS15401) to
4 13.2h for Fadda. Also, cultivars expressed similar characteristics, thermal time from end of
5 tassel initiation to anthesis (PANTH) except for late variety (IS15401) that differs with
6 calibrated value of 640.5°Cday. The values of P3 (thermal time from the end of flag leaf
7 expansion to anthesis) and P5 (thermal time from beginning of the grain-filling to
8 physiological maturity) varied between cultivars. The calibrated values ranged from 170.5 to
9 300.5°Cday for P3 and 400 to 480°Cday for P5.

10

11 [Insert Table 5 near here]

12

13 For Samara model, only the basic vegetative phase (BVP) differed among the cultivars, the
14 calibrated values ranged from 260°Cday for CSM63E to 450°Cday for IS15401. Maturation
15 phase #1 (SdjMatu1) and maturation phase #2 (SdjMatu2) did not varied much among the
16 cultivars. SdjMatu1 ranged from 350°Cday to 400°Cday and SdjMatu2 obtained a fixed value
17 of 40°Cday across cultivars. Thus, Figure 2b indicates DSSAT total thermal time estimates
18 to be the closest to the field-calculated thermal time for all the cultivars (with exception of
19 IS15401). The differences between the model-simulated and field-calculated could be linked
20 to the modelling approaches described earlier in Table 3.

21

22 [Insert Figures 2b near here]

23

24 Furthermore, the simulated phenology (flowering and maturity) were observed to be in good
25 agreement with the field-observed values (Table 6). The models captured the strong effect of
26 planting date on growth development to a wide extent. Across the cultivars, APSIM and
27 Samara simulations showed the lowest value of RMSE against the observed values for

1 flowering and maturity compared to DSSAT. Also, there were no significant differences of
2 mean between the model-simulated and observed for most of the cultivars except for
3 CSM335 ($P < 0.02$ for flowering) and also Fadda and IS15401 ($P < 0.03$ for maturity).

4

5 [Insert Table 6 near here]

6 **3.1.3 Leaf appearance rate and light interception**

7 As displayed in Table 7, APSIM cultivar's genetics coefficients for leaf appearance rate
8 followed two steps i.e. leaf appearance to develop most leaf ligule (leaf_app_rate_1) and last
9 leaf ligule (leaf_app_rate_2). The calibrated values ($53^{\circ}\text{Cd}/\text{leaf}$ and $26.5^{\circ}\text{Cd}/\text{leaf}$) were the
10 same for all the cultivars. The values justified the increase in the observed leaf number (>20)
11 per plant most of the cultivars; it also prevented over-simulation of TLN against the observed
12 values. DSSAT and Samara followed a similar pattern for all the cultivars; both models
13 expressed the leaf appearance rate as PHINT and Phyllochron interval. DSSAT calibrated
14 values varied from 55 to $60^{\circ}\text{Cd}/\text{leaf}$ while Samara varied from 38 to $40^{\circ}\text{Cd}/\text{leaf}$. The
15 calibrated value was the same for CSM63E, CSM335 and Fadda in both model, $60^{\circ}\text{Cd}/\text{leaf}$
16 in DSSAT and $40^{\circ}\text{Cd}/\text{leaf}$ in Samara. IS15401 indicates slightly lower value of $55^{\circ}\text{Cd}/\text{leaf}$ for
17 DSSAT and $38^{\circ}\text{Cd}/\text{leaf}$ for Samara. This value justified the longer thermal time of vegetative
18 phase resulting to more leaf produced by the cultivar. Although, none of the models
19 reproduced the estimated phyllochron values for PD_3 that had no effect of PPsen but the
20 simulated leaf number showed a close match with observed values for all the cultivars with
21 lowest error statistics estimated (Figure 3). The RMSE and R^2 ranging from 1.3 to 2.2 leaves
22 and 0.66 to 0.97 for the simulated leaf number of all the cultivars and models. Samara and
23 DSSAT simulations showed to be the most accurate for most cultivars while, APSIM
24 performance was the best for IS15401 as indicated by the estimates of RMSE and R^2
25 (Figure 3). Furthermore, the models captured the differences in observed leaf number
26 relative to the sowing dates (Figure 4). There was no significant difference of means ($P <$
27 0.05) between the mode-simulated and observed values. Across planting date, the highest

1 TLN was obtained at early (PD_1) which was significantly higher than medium (PD_2) and
2 both were significantly higher than TLN at late (PD_3). Due to shortening of the vegetative
3 phase, late (PD_3) observed a reduction of about seven (7) leaves compared to early
4 (PD_1) resulting from cultivar's response to variation of sowing date. This result implicated
5 that the end of vegetative phase could be largely dependent on temperature and variation in
6 planting date.

7

8 [Insert Table 7 near here]

9

10 The simulated LAI for the cultivars show over-estimation against the observed LAI with the
11 high values of estimated error statistics. The RMSE and R^2 ranging from 0.56 to 1.46m²/m²
12 and 0.3 to 0.83 for the LAI simulated by all the models (Figure 5). For most cultivars, Samara
13 estimates were closer to the observed values compared to APSIM and DSSAT. The over-
14 estimation could be linked to early senescent rate observed from the field trial for all the
15 cultivars with exception of CSM63E (Figure 6). Leaf senescence might not be properly
16 simulated by the models. Samara simulation was different from APSIM and DSSAT due to
17 its ability to simulate based on organo-genesis of plant growth which including the senescent
18 rate of the leaf production.

19

20 [Insert Figure 3 near here]

21

22 The light extinction coefficients, k values showed that there was no significant difference
23 between cultivars but it slightly differed across the planting dates (result not shown). Pooling
24 the sowing dates together for each cultivar, the estimated mean value of k was 0.8. In
25 addition, observed the analysis of covariance at different growth stages (Akinseye, 2015)
26 indicate no significant difference in k-value among the four cultivars but slightly differed
27 across sowing dates despite the large differences in plant height between the early and late

1 maturity cultivars. The result suggests that aspects of canopy architecture likely to affect k,
2 such as leaf angle distribution, did not differ among these diverse cultivars. As shown on
3 Table 7, the k value of 0.85 was used in DSSAT for all cultivars and Samara (except for
4 Fadda). The high k-value used by the models prevents against under-estimation of above-
5 ground biomass and grain yield outputs. The model-calibrated was closed to the field-
6 estimated which was in agreement to previous studied by Porter *et al.*, (1993) who found
7 that the higher the crop will intercept the value of k, the more of the incident PAR particularly
8 at low LAI, and thus dry matter production could be over-estimated.

9

10 [Insert Figure 4 near here]

11

12 **3.1.4 Radiation use efficiency, and partitioning for yield formation**

13 There was a strong effect of variation of sowing date on estimated RUE between PD_1 and
14 PD_3 from field trial with the high values obtained from early PD_1 and decreased with late
15 PD_3. On the average, the highest value was observed for Fadda (6.9g/MJ), followed by
16 IS15401 and CSM335 (5.8g/MJ and 5.0/MJ) while CSM63E gave the lowest value of 3.3g/MJ
17 respectively. The model-calibrated values confirmed the genotypic differences as estimated
18 from field experiment (Table 7). This estimated RUE was significantly higher than those
19 found in the literatures for sorghum (Kiniry *et al.*, 1989; Muchow, 1989). The high RUE
20 values (>3.0 g/MJ) obtained could be linked to the cultivar-specific traits especially for the
21 PPSen sorghums found in West Africa. For APSIM, RUE was determined as individual value
22 between emergency and maturity during the crop growth period while DSSAT and Samara
23 determined as a single value between emergency and maturity. The APSIM calibrated
24 coefficients ranged from 1.25 g/MJ (CSM63E) to 1.85 g/MJ (Fadda - improved hybrid). In
25 DSSAT, the calibrated RUE value was 3.8 g/MJ for CSM63E, CSM335 and IS15401 while
26 Fadda obtained higher value of 5.2g/MJ, which justified for the high biomass production as
27 hybrid. Also, the T-conversion signifies RUE in the Samara, the values ranged from 4.5g/MJ

1 forCSM63E to 6.9g/MJ for Fadda. Across the models, only Samara calibrated RUE were
2 closer to the field-estimated (except for CSM63E). The model-calibrated was found to be
3 higher than the commonly used range found in the literatures e.g. Sinclair and Muchow,
4 (1999) used 1.2–1.4 g/MJ as calibrated value for sorghum.

5 [Insert Figure 5 near here]

6

7 Interestingly, there was a relatively good agreement between the model-simulated and
8 observed for total above-ground biomass (Figure 7a). APSIM estimated the lowest RMSE
9 (1536 kg/ha), NRMSE (11.5%) and very strong coefficient of determination (R^2 - 0.9) followed
10 by DSSAT with RMSE (1708 kg/ha), NRMSE (12.8 %) and very strong R^2 (0.9) and Samara
11 gave RMSE of 1849 kg/ha, NRMSE (13.8 %) and strong R^2 (0.8).

12

13 [Insert Figure 6 near here]

14

15 [Insert Figure 7a near here]

16

17 The simulated grain yield was a product of grain number and grain size. Maximum grain
18 yield number is a function of the change in plant biomass between panicle initiation and the
19 start of grain filling, while grain size is determined by grain growth rate, the effective grain-
20 filling period, and the re-distribution of assimilates post-anthesis. For DSSAT, the G2 (scale
21 for partitioning of assimilates to the panicle ranged from 0.5 mg/day for CSM63E to
22 2.5mg/day for improved hybrid Fadda and IS15401. Samara estimated as function of
23 $\text{Coeff_Pan_Sink_Pop*Pan_Struct_Mass_Max}/1000$ -grain weight. Panicle structure mass
24 maximum (Pan_Struct_Mass_Max) was calibrated between 3.0g (CSM63E and CSM335)
25 and3.5g (Fadda and IS15401. The simulation outputs showed that APSIM and Samara
26 estimates for grain yield were closer to the observed values compared to DSSAT (Figure

1 7b). Across the cultivar, APSIM indicated a better agreement relative to the observed values
2 with estimated lowest RMSE (397 kg/ha), NRMSE of 20.3% and R^2 of 0.8. Samara and
3 DSSAT slightly over-estimated with the RMSE (538 and 771 kg/ha), NRMSE (27.6 and 39.5
4 %) and R^2 (0.6 and 0.5) respectively.

5

6 [Insert Figure 7b near here]

7

8 **3.2 Validation**

9 **3.2.1 Phenology, total leaf number, total biomass and grain yield**

10 The valuation results for the simulated phenology and total leaf number (TLN) against
11 observed values over the different growing seasons for all the cultivars showed a good
12 matched with a minimum statistical error (Figure 8). For the duration to flowering (Figure 8a),
13 Samara estimated observed the lowest RMSE of 6.6 days and R^2 of 0.8 while APSIM and
14 DSSAT estimates were close with RMSE of 8.3 and 8.7 days. In the case of duration to
15 physiological maturity (Figure 8b), APSIM showed the lowest RMSE value of 7.6days and
16 followed by DSSAT with RMSE of 8.9 days, both had correlation (R^2) of 0.9 while Samara
17 estimates was the highest with the RMSE of 9.2 days and correction (R^2) of 0.8. In general,
18 the model-simulated for phenology shows a slight overestimation against the observed with
19 a reasonable bias error. Samara estimates was the most accurate compared to APSIM and
20 DSSAT for flowering while APSIM estimates indicate the best accurate compared to DSSAT
21 and Samara for physiological maturity. For TLN, Samara estimates indicate the lowest
22 RMSE (0.7 leaf) followed by APSIM and DSSAT (Figure 8c).

23

24 [Insert Figure 8 near here]

25 The model-simulated for both grain yield and total biomass showed significant variations
26 against the observed data (Figure 9). None of the models could closely reproduce

1 observations across the cultivars. The simulated grain yield was slightly under-estimated by
2 APSIM and DSSAT while Samara slightly over- estimated it. The results showed no
3 significant difference of mean at 5% level of probability ($P < 0.05$) between the models and
4 observed values for grain yield. Similarly, average total biomass showed over-estimation for
5 all the models against observed values and well as significantly difference of mean between
6 the models and observed. As displayed in Figure 10, the statistical errors found APSIM
7 estimates to be well corresponds to the observed values with the lowest RMSE, NRMSE (%)
8 and R^2 compared to DSSAT and Samara. For both grain yield and total biomass, APSIM
9 results showed the RMSE (472 and 2452 kg/ha), NRMSE (22.6 and 23.3%) and R^2 (0.7 and
10 0.8). Meanwhile, Samara indicates the highest RMSE (762 and 4058 kg/ha), NRMSE (35.7
11 and 38.8 %) and weak R^2 (0.4 and 0.5) respectively.

12

13 [Insert Figure 9 near here]

14

15 **4 Discussion**

16 A comparison of crop simulation models served two purposes in this study which include: (i)
17 the modelling assessment for their ability to predict crop growth and development with detail
18 information linked to photoperiodism during calibration and (ii) possible identification of the
19 parts that produce systematic errors for further improvements. When an error has been
20 identified, steps can be taken to improve model performance on the basis of better analysis
21 of the processes involved. Then, complementary processes of the model development and
22 experimentation become cyclic and mutually supportive (Palosuo *et al.*, 2011). Some
23 aspects of the performance of the models were very satisfactory (e.g. Phenology and leaf
24 number) but there was also a clear indication for model improvements should be sought for
25 the parts that present high significant error (e.g. LAI and grain yield).

26

1 [Insert Figure 10 near here]

2

3 **4.1 Improvements to simulated phenology**

4 The calibration process over the three planting dates showed that model-simulated for the
5 phenological phases (duration to flowering and physiological maturity) were well
6 corresponds to the observed values (Table 6). This result underlined the capability of the
7 models to predict crop duration for the agronomic relevant range of sowing dates under
8 varying daylength period. However, the results confounded the models adaptability to predict
9 West African diverse photoperiod sensitivity varieties. Large error (>7days) estimated for the
10 high PPSen cultivar (IS15401) by all models, which suggests further improvement on
11 cultivar's photoperiodism for phenological growth stages.

12 In addition, the validation presented over different growing seasons (non-limiting water and
13 nutrients supply) and locations (Bamako and Cinzana) corroborates the strength of models
14 for simulating phenology growth of sorghums for semi-arid cultivars (Figure 8a&b). The
15 results showed a near perfect fit of for the model-simulated phenology (flowering and
16 maturity) against the corresponding observed values. The large error estimated by APSIM
17 and DSSAT for flowering, DSSAT and Samara for maturity could be linked to the high
18 PPSen cultivar among them. The imperfect model fit can be expected to have significant
19 effect on other parts of the simulation results for example LAI. The result found suggests that
20 crop models be used to determine the crop duration for the widest range of sorghum
21 varieties in West African semi-arid region, reinforcing the studied by Traoré et al., (2007).

22

23 **4.2 Improvements to leaf area development, biomass partitioning and yield** 24 **formation**

25 Model-estimated for TLN agreed jointly with the observed values both for the calibration and
26 validation. Samara ranked as the best estimates with the lowest RMSE, NRMSE (%) and R^2
27 seen for most cultivars except IS15401, followed by APSIM and DSSAT respectively. Also,

1 the model-simulated errors across the cultivars for LAI were seen to be very large with the
2 estimated RMSE and NRMSE (%). In general, the model over-estimated against the
3 observed that could be as a result of early senescent leaves observed. But Samara gave the
4 lowest RMSE and NRMSE (%) and strong R^2 for all the cultivars (with exception CSM63E)
5 compared to APSIM and DSSAT. As observed from the calibration, APSIM and DSSAT
6 simulation for LAI show more response to biomass accumulation development but Samara
7 response to the detail organogenesis procedure for the plant growth beginning from crop
8 emergency. Also, the performance of Samara could be linked to limited crop platform (only
9 sorghum and rice) parameterized in model. In addition, Samara addressed the drawback
10 already mentioned in the literatures by Ewert et al., (2002), Traoré *et al.*, (2007) and Adam *et*
11 *al.*, (2011) in order to better represent the leaf area development in crop model. The
12 approach chosen was derived from the plant level model ECOMERISTEM (Dingkuhn *et al.*,
13 2006) which included the capability to simulate competition for assimilates (supply) among
14 growing organs (demand) and to adjust accordingly the growth rate and final size of different
15 organs in the plant.

16 Furthermore, simulation for above-ground biomass and grain yield suggest a need for
17 significant improvement. The model performances were contrary to the results obtained for
18 the phenology and TLN. APSIM was more accurate in terms of both calibration and
19 validation of grain yield and total biomass compared to DSSAT and Samara. For calibration
20 (Figure 7), the model errors estimated by APSIM were seen to be the lowest values with the
21 RMSE (397 and 1536 kg/ha), NRMSE (20.3 and 11.5 %) and strong R^2 (0.8 and 0.9)
22 respectively. The validation demonstrated a significant variation between the model-
23 simulated and observed values. The results confirmed further that the model uncertainty lied
24 in the prediction of above-ground biomass and grain yield relative to the measured-observed
25 values (Figure 9). Samara estimates for grain yield resulted a slight over-estimation (with
26 high variability against the measured values) while APSIM and DSSAT predicted slight
27 underestimation and less variability. In the case of total biomass, model-simulated showed
28 overestimation with less variability against the observed values. The model error estimated

1 by APSIM was found to be better and accurate in the prediction of grain yield and total
2 biomass compared to DSSAT and Samara models. As observed during the calibration
3 process, the time-course results (figures not shown) across the cultivars indicated only
4 Samara model exhibited ability to reproduce close to the measured-observed values of
5 above-ground biomass at early vegetative stage of the crop sampled at different times
6 during growing season. Due to the large errors estimated for both grain yield and biomass
7 across models, it is therefore suggested that more efforts are still required on model
8 partitioning for simulating aboveground biomass and grain yield formation especially PPSen
9 sorghums.

10

11 **4.3 Sources of uncertainties**

12 As observed from this study, the model uncertainty lied majorly on partitioning for simulating
13 above ground biomass at the early growing phase (vegetative) and grain yield formation
14 particular for the PPSen cultivars. Although, the models captured final biomass and yield
15 values, but the estimated error was too larger compared to phenology and morphology
16 simulation. This uncertainty could be attributed to three possible sources; (i) model structure
17 (ii) bad parameterization or (iii) quality of field trial data. On model structure, all the models
18 simulated above-ground biomass based on light interception/absorbed coefficient (k) and
19 radiation use efficiency (RUE) and water demand but Samara was built on model
20 ECOMERISTEM (Dingkuhn *et al.*, 2006). This platform shows better capability to simulate
21 competition for assimilates (supply) among growing organs (demand) and to adjust
22 accordingly the growth rate, this approach led to reproduction of early growing phase.
23 However, APSIM and DSSAT respond to soil parameterization (e.g. SLPF in DSSAT and
24 initial nitrogen in APSIM) as well nutrients supply. As observed during calibration, there was
25 a carryover effect of soil parameterization and nutrients applied to APSIM and DSSAT
26 resulting to model over-estimation of LAI against the field observed values. The measure
27 was used to prevent model underestimating the final biomass and grain yield. On model

1 parameterization, we pointed out the difficulties to assess critical parameters such as GDD
2 from emergence to end of the juvenile stage. Another factor that observed to be responsible
3 for significant variations between the simulated and observed results was plant population.
4 For instance, the calibrations were performed on a specific planting density
5 (67000plants/hills), thereafter validated with different planting densities. This approach was
6 observed to introduced large error between the models for the simulated grain yield and total
7 biomass e.g. Samara. We thereby suggest that validation of the models could be better for
8 total biomass and grain yield, if the same level of plant populations is considered, the way
9 model response to different level of nutrient supply. Finally, the quality of field trial data, we
10 can discuss the importance of sowing dates trials to assess the phyllochron (Clerget *et al.*,
11 2007) properly while in our case though the late PD_3 sowing was a late sowing, it might not
12 late enough to assess the phyllochron properly. The field trials used for evaluation were
13 considered to be non-limited by nutrients, however, the strong contrast to the simulated yield
14 led to the suspension that there were potentially hidden nutrient deficiencies.

15

16

17 **5. Conclusion**

18 A novel and apparent merit of this study is that commonly used crop growth models for
19 sorghum were tested for diverse PPSen cultivars for calibration and validation. The results
20 established the capability of the process-based models to predict crop duration for the
21 agronomical relevant range of farmer's planting window and photoperiod sensitivity for
22 sorghums cultivars in the region. All the models showed minimum error estimates for
23 phenology and morphology parameter against observed ones obtained over different
24 growing seasons. However, differences in the simulating yield and biomass with the lowest
25 possible error estimates like what we observed for phenology could be trace to the
26 contrasting ways in model partitioning for this parameters. In conclusion, the level of
27 uncertainty in simulating final grain yield and biomass were found to be lower in APSIM and

1 DSSAT compared to Samara. This further confirmed their reliability to predict climate
2 impacts on yield and yield variability. Longer yield series for clearly defined growth and
3 management conditions for calibration that used in this study would greatly enhance the
4 outcome of model comparison studies for subsequent model on the level of uncertainty.

5 **Acknowledgement**

6 This work constitutes part of doctoral research studies funded by WASCAL Graduate
7 research programme and also supported by ICRISAT, Mali for the experimentation. The
8 authors thank Dr. Neil Huith for his assistance during calibration of the cultivars in APSIM
9 and also Dr. Clerget Benoit permission to used part of his data reported on physiology of
10 sorghum project experiments in West Africa for the validation of the models.

11 **References**

- 12 Adam, M., van Bussel, L.G.J., Leffelaar, P.A., van Keulen, H., Ewert, F., 2011. Effects of
13 modelling detail on simulated potential crop yields under a wide range of climatic
14 conditions. *Ecol. Model.* 222, 131–143.
- 15 Adam, M., Corbeels, M., Leffelaar, P.A., Van Keulen, H., Wery, J., Ewert, F. 2012. Building crop models
16 within different crop modelling frameworks. *Agricultural Systems* 113:57–63.
- 17 Adiku, S.G.K., Mawunya, F.D., Jones, J.W. and M. Yangyuru. 2007. Can ENSO Help in
18 Agricultural Decision Making in Ghana? p 205-212. In: M.V.K. Sivakumar and J.
19 Hansen (eds.) *Climate Prediction and Agriculture: Advances and Challenges*.
20 Pub. Springer-Verlag.
- 21 Affholder, F., 1997. Empirically modelling the interaction between intensification and climatic
22 risk in semiarid regions. *Field Crops Res.* 52, 79–93.
- 23 Alagarswamy, G., Ritchie, J.T., Godwin, D.C., Singh, U. 1989. *A User's Guide to CERES*
24 *Sorghum*, V2.00. International Fertilizer Development Center, Muscle Shoals, AL,
25 USA, 86.

1 Asseng, S., Ewert, F., Rosenzweig, C., Jones, J. W., Hatfield, J. L., Ruane, AC. 2013.
2 Uncertainty in simulating wheat yields under climate change. *Nature Climate*
3 *Change*, 3(9).<http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/nclimate1916>.

4 Bellocchi, G., Rivington, M., Donatelli, M., Matthews, K., 2009. Validation of biophysical
5 models: issues and methodologies. A review. *Agron. Sustain. Dev.* 30, 109–130.

6 Baron, C., Reyniers, F.N., Clopes, A., Forest, F., 1999. Applications du logiciel SARRAH à
7 l'étude de risques climatiques. *Agriculture et Développement* 24, 89–97.

8 Boschetti, M., Stefano Bocchi, Daniela Stroppiana, Pietro Alessandro Brivio,
9 2006. Estimation of parameters describing morpho-physiological features of
10 Mediterranean rice varieties for modelling purposes. *Italian Journal of*
11 *Agrometeorology* (3) 40 – 49.

12 Carberry PS, Muchow RC, Hammer GL. 1993. Modelling genotypic and environmental
13 control of leaf area dynamics in grain sorghum II. Individual leaf level. *Field Crops*
14 *Research* 33, 311–328.

15 Casanova, D, Epema, G.F., Goudriaan, J., 1998. Monitoring rice reflectance at field level for
16 estimating biomass and LAI. *Field Crops Res.* 55, 83-92.

17 Chatfield, C., 1995. Model uncertainty, data mining and statistical-inference. *J. Roy. Stat.*
18 *Soc. A Sta.* 158, 419–466.

19 Chapman SC, Hammer GL, Meinke H. 1993. A sunflower simulation model. I. Model
20 development. *Agronomy Journal* 85, 725–735.

21 Chapman SC, Cooper M, Butler DG, Henzell RG 2000. Genotype by environment
22 interactions affecting grain sorghum. I. Characteristics that confound interpretation of
23 hybrid yield. *Australian Journal of Agricultural Research* 51, 197–207.

24 Clerget, B., Dingkuhn, M., Chanterreau, J., Hemberger, J., Louarn, G., Vaksman, M., 2004.
25 Does panicle initiation in tropical sorghum depend on day-to-day change in
26 photoperiod? *Field Crops Res.* 88, 11–27.

27 Clerget, B., H. F. W. Rattunde, S. Dagnoko, and J. Chanterreau, 2007. An easy way to
28 assess photoperiod sensitivity in sorghum: relationships of the vegetative-phase

1 duration and photoperiod sensitivity. J. SAT Agric. Res. 3, Available at: [http://](http://www.icrisat.org/journal/Sorghum_Millet_other_Cereals3.htm)
2 [www.icrisat.org/journal/Sorghum Millet other Cereals3.htm](http://www.icrisat.org/journal/Sorghum_Millet_other_Cereals3.htm)

3 Clerget B, Dingkuhn M, Gozé E, Rattunde HFW, Ney B 2008. Variability of phyllochron,
4 plastochron and rate of increase in height in photoperiod-sensitive sorghum varieties.
5 Annals of Botany 101, 579–594.

6 Craufurd PQ, Flower DJ, Peacock JM. 1993. Effect of heat and drought stress on sorghum
7 (Sorghum bicolor). I. Panicle development and leaf appearance. Experimental
8 Agriculture 29, 61–76.

9 Craufurd, PQ, Vincent Vadez, SV. Krishna Jagadish, PV. Vara Prasad, M. Zaman-Allah,
10 2011. Crop science experiments designed to inform crop modeling. Agric. Forest
11 Meteorol. doi:10.1016/j.agrformet.2011.09.003.

12 Curtis, D.L., 1968a. The relation between the date of heading of Nigerian sorghums and the
13 duration of the growing season. J. Appl. Ecol. 5, 215–226.

14 Curtis, D.L., 1968b. The relation between yield and date of heading in Nigerian sorghums.
15 Exp. Agric. 4, 93–101.

16 Dalgliesh Neal, Zvi Hochman, Neil Huth and Dean Holzworth, 2012. A protocol for the
17 development of soil parameter values for use in APSIM. CSIRO ecosystem sciences

18 Dingkuhn, M, Johnson, DE, Sow, A, Audebert, AY, 1999. Relationships between upland rice
19 canopy characteristics and weed competitiveness. Field Crops Research 61, 79-95.

20 Dingkuhn M, Luquet D, Kim HK, Tambour L, Clément-Vidal A (2006) Ecomeristem, a Model
21 of Morphogenesis and Competition among Sinks in Rice: 2. Simulating Genotype
22 Responses to Phosphorus Deficiency. Functional Plant Biology 33, 325-337.

23 Dingkuhn, M Kouressy, M Vaksman, M, Clerget, B Chantereau, J. 2008. A model of
24 sorghum photoperiodism using the concept of threshold-lowering during prolonged
25 appetite. Europ. J. Agronomy 28 74–89.

26 Dingkuhn M, Soulié JC, Lafarge T. 2011. Samara V2: A cereal crop model to study G x E x
27 M interaction and phenotypic plasticity, and explore ideotypes. AgMIP Rice
28 International Workshop, 28-30 August, Beijing, China.

1 Ewert, F., Rodriguez, D., Jamieson, P., Semenov, M., Mitchell, R., Goudriaan, J., Porter, J.,
2 Kimball, B., Pinter, P. 2002. Effects of elevated CO₂ and drought on wheat: testing
3 crop simulation models for different experimental and climatic conditions. *Agric.*
4 *Ecosyst. Environ.* 93, 249–266.

5 FAO, 2006. World reference base for soil resources 2006. In: A Framework for International
6 Classification Correlation and Communication. FAO, Rome.

7 Folliard, A, P.C.S. Traore´, M. Vaksman, M. Kouressy,(2004): Modelling of sorghum
8 response to photoperiod:a threshold–hyperbolic approach. *Field Crops Research*
9 89.Pp.59–70

10 Goudriaan, J., van de Geijn, S.C., Ingram, J.S.I., 1994. GCTE Focus 3 Wheat modelling and
11 experimental data comparison workshop report, Lunteren, The Netherlands,
12 November 1993.GCTE Focus 3 Office, University of Oxford, Oxford, UK.

13 Harlan, J.R.,deWet, J.M.J., 1972. A simplified classification of cultivated sorghum. *Crop Sci.*
14 12, 172–176.

15 Holzworth DP, Huth NI, deVoil PG, Zurcher EJ, Herrmann NI, McLean G, Chenu K, van
16 Oosterom E, Snow VO, Murphy C, Moore AD, Brown HE, Whish JPM, Verrall S,
17 Fainges J, Bell LW, Peake AS, Poulton PL, Hochman Z, Thorburn PJ, Gaydon DS,
18 Dalglish NP, Rodriguez D, Cox H, Chapman S, Doherty A, Teixeira E, Sharp J,
19 Cichota R, Vogeler I, Li FY, Wang E, Hammer GL, Robertson MJ, Dimes J,
20 Whitbread AM, Hunt J, van Rees H, McClelland T, Carberry PS, Hargreaves JNG,
21 MacLeod N, McDonald C, Harsdorf J, Wedgwood S, Keating BA(2014) APSIM -
22 Evolution towards a new generation of agricultural systems simulation.
23 *Environmental Modelling & Software* 62: 327-350.

24 Hammer, GL., and R.L. Vanderlip. 1989. Genotype-by-environment interaction in grain
25 sorghum: I. Effects of temperature on radiation use efficiency. *Crop Sci.*29:370–376.

26 Hammer GL, Carberry PS, Muchow RC. 1993. Modelling genotypic and environmental
27 control of leaf area dynamics in grain sorghum. I. Whole plant level. *Field Crops*
28 *Research* 33, 293–310.

1 Hammer GL, Muchow RC. 1994. Assessing climatic risk to sorghum production in water-
2 limited subtropical environments. I. Development and testing of a simulation model.
3 Field Crops Research 36, 221–234.

4 Hammer GL. 2010a. Functional dynamics of the nitrogen balance of sorghum. I. Nitrogen
5 demand of vegetative plant parts. Field Crops Research 115, 19–28.

6 Hammer GL., Erik van Oosterom, Greg McLean, Scott C. Chapman, Ian Broad, Peter
7 Harland and Russell C. Muchow. 2010. Adapting APSIM to model the physiology and
8 genetics of complex adaptive traits in field crops. Journal of Experimental Botany,
9 Vol. 61, No. 8, pp. 2185–2202

10 ICRISAT: Sorghum, 2009. Patancheru (AP): Int'l Crops Research Institute for the Semi-Arid
11 Tropics. Available on the <http://www.icrisat.org/sorghum/sorghum.htm>.

12 Jones, C.A. and Kiniry, J. (1986) CERES-Maize: A Simulation Model of Maize Growth and
13 Development. Texas A & M University Press, College Station, TX.

14 Jones, J.W., Hoogenboom, G., Porter, C.H., Boote, K.J., Batchelor, W.D., Hunt, L.A.,
15 Wilkens, P.W., Singh, U., Gijsman, A.J. and Ritchie, J.T. 2003. The DSSAT Cropping
16 System Model. European Journal of Agronomy, 18, 235-265.

17 Jamieson, PD., Porter, JR., Wilson, D.R., 1991. A test of the computer simulation model ARC-
18 WHEAT on the wheat crop grown in Zealand. Field Crops Res. 27, 337-350.

19 Kassam, A.H., Andrews, D.J., 1975. Effect of sowing date on growth, development and yield
20 of photosensitive sorghum at Samaru, northern Nigeria. Exp. Agric. 11, 227–240.

21 Keating BA, Carberry PS, Hammer GL. 2003. An overview of APSIM, a model designed for
22 farming systems simulation. European Journal of Agronomy 18, 267–288.

23 Keisling, TC, 1982. Calculation of the Length of Day. Journal of Agronomy, Vol. 74 No. 4, p.
24 758-759.

25 Kersebaum, K.C., Hecker, J.M., Mirschel, W., Wegehenkel, M. 2007. Modelling water and
26 nutrient dynamics in soil–crop systems: a comparison of simulation models applied
27 on common data sets. In: Kersebaum, K.C., Hecker, J.M., Mirschel, W., Wegehenkel,

- 1 M. (Eds.), *Modelling Water and Nutrient Dynamics in Soil Crop Systems*. Springer,
2 Dordrecht, pp. 1–17.
- 3 Kiniry, J.R., C.A. Jones, J.C. O'Toole, R. Blanchet, M. Cabelguenne and D.A. Spinel. 1989.
4 Radiation-use efficiency in biomass accumulation prior to grain filling for five grain-
5 crop species. *Field Crops Res.* 20:51–64.
- 6 Kouressy M, Dingkuhn M, Vaksman M, Heinemann AB, 2008. Adaptation to diverse semi-
7 arid environments of sorghum genotypes having different plant type and sensitivity to
8 photoperiod. *Agricultural and Forest Meteorology* 148, Pp 357-371.
- 9 Kpongor, DS, Sommer, R and Vlek,PLG. 2006. Modelling sorghum yield in response to
10 inorganic fertilizer application in semi-arid Ghana. In Conference Proceeding on
11 International Agricultural Research for Development.Tropentag 2006 University of
12 Bonn.
- 13 Lafarge, T.A., Broad, I.J., Hammer, G.L., 2002. Tillering in grain sorghum over a wide range
14 of population densities: identification of a common hierarchy for tiller emergence, leaf
15 area development and fertility. *Ann. Bot.* 90, 87–98.
- 16 Landau, S, Mitchell, RAC, Barnett, V., Colls, J.J, Craigon, J, Moore, K.L, Payne, R.W. 1998.
17 Testing winter wheat simulation models' predictions against observed UK grain
18 yields. *Agric. Forest Meteorol.* 89, 85–99.
- 19 Loague, K., Green, R.E., 1991. Statistics and graphical methods for evaluating solute
20 transport model: Overview and application . *J. contam. Hydrol.*,7.51-73.
- 21 MacCarthy, D.S., Sommer, R. and P.L.G.,Vlek. 2009. Modeling the impacts of contrasting
22 nutrient and residue management practices on grain yield of sorghum (*Sorghum*
23 *bicolor* (L.) Moench) in a semi-arid region of Ghana using APSIM. *Field Crops*
24 *Research.* 113:2, 105-115.
- 25 MacCarthy DS., Paul L.G. Vlek, A. Bationo, R. Tabo, M. Fosu, 2010. Modeling nutrient and
26 water productivity of sorghum in smallholder farming systems in a semi-arid region of
27 Ghana. *Field Crops Research* 118.251–258.

- 1 Monsi, M. & Saeki, T. 1953. On the factor of light in plant communities and its importance for
2 matter production, published in *Annals of Botany* (2005) 95: 549-567.
- 3 Murray SC, Sharma A, Rooney WL, Klein PE, Mullet JE, Mitchell SE, Kresovich S 2008.
4 Genetic Improvement of sorghum as a bio-fuel feedstock: I.QTL for stem sugar and
5 grain non-structural carbohydrates. *Crop Science* 48, 2165–2179.
- 6 Muchow, R.C. 1989. Comparative productivity of maize, sorghum and pearl millet in a semi-
7 arid tropical environment: I. Yield potential. *Field Crops Res.* 20:191–205.
- 8 Muchow RC, Carberry PS. 1990. Phenology and leaf area development in a tropical grain
9 sorghum. *Field Crops Research* 23, 221–237.
- 10 Nasidi M, Akunna J, Deeni Y, Blackwood D, Walker G. 2010. Bio-ethanol in Nigeria:
11 comparative analysis of sugarcane and sweet sorghum as feedstock sources. *Energy*
12 *Environ Sci*; 3:1447–57.
- 13 Omotosho JB, Balogun AA, Ogunjobi K. 2000. Predicting monthly and seasonal rainfall,
14 onset and cessation of the rainy season in West Africa using only surface data. *Int'l*
15 *Journal of Climatology* 20: 865–880.
- 16 Palosuo Taru , Kurt Christian Kersebaum, Carlos Angulo, Petr Hlavinka, Marco Moriondo,
17 Jørgen E. Olesen, Ravi H. Patil, Françoise Ruget, Christian Rumbauc, Jozef Takác,
18 Miroslav Trnka, Marco Bindi, Baris, aldag, Frank Ewert, Roberto Ferrise, Wilfried
19 Mirschel, Levent Saylan, Bernard Siska, Reimund Rötter 2011. Simulation of winter
20 wheat yield and its variability in different climates of Europe: A comparison of eight
21 crop growth models. *European. J. Agronomy* 35, 103– 114.
- 22 Porter, JR, Jamieson, PD, Wilson, DR, 1993. Comparison of the wheat simulation models
23 AFRWHEAT2, CERES-Wheat and SWHEAT for non-limiting conditions of crop
24 growth. *Field Crops Res.* 33, 131–157.
- 25 Ravi Kumar S, Hammer GL, Broad I, Harland P, McLean G. 2009. Modelling environmental
26 effects on phenology and canopy development of diverse sorghum genotypes. *Field*
27 *Crops Research* 111, 157–165.

1 Ritchie and Alagarswamy, 1989. Modelling the Growth and Development of Sorghum and
2 Pearl Millet International Crops Research Institute for the Semi-Arid Tropics.
3 Research Bulletin 12, 24-29.

4 Rosenthal WD, Vanderlip RL, Jackson BS, Arkin GF. 1989. SORKAM: a grain sorghum
5 growth model. TAES Computer Software Documentation Series No. MP-1669.
6 College Station, Texas: Texas Agricultural Experiment Station

7 Traore, P.S.C., Kouressy, M., Vaksmann, M., Tabo, R., Maikano, I, Traore, S.B. and P.,
8 Cooper. 2007. Climate Prediction and Agriculture: What is different about Sudano-
9 Sahelian West Africa. Pp 189-203. In: M.V.K. Sivakumar and J. Hansen (eds.)
10 Climate Prediction and Agriculture: Advances and Challenges. Pub. Springer-Verlag,
11 Berlin.

12 Traoré SB, Reyniers FN, Vaksmann M, Kone B, Sidibe A, Yorote A, Yattara K, KouressyM
13 2000. Adaptation à la sécheresse des écotypes locaux de sorghos du Mali.
14 Sécheresse 11, 227–237.

15 Vaksmann, M., Traore´, S.B., Niangado, O., 1996. Le photopériodisme des sorghos
16 africains. Agric. Développement 9, 13–18.

17 vanOosterom EJ, Borrell AK, Chapman SC, Broad IJ, Hammer GL. 2010a. Functional
18 dynamics of the nitrogen balance of sorghum. I. Nitrogen demand of vegetative plant
19 parts. Field Crops Research 115, 19–28.

20 Samba, A., 1998. Les logiciels DHC de diagnostic hydrique des cultures. Prévision des
21 rendements du mil en zones soudano-sahéliennes de l’Afrique de l’Ouest.
22 Sécheresse 9, 281–288.

23 Sinclair TR, Amir J. 1992. A model to assess nitrogen limitations on the growth and yield of
24 spring wheat. Field Crops Research 30, 63–78.

25 Sinclair, T.R., and R.C. Muchow. 1999. Radiation use efficiency. Adv. Agron. 65:215–265.

26 Streck NA. 2002. A generalized nonlinear air temperature response function for node
27 appearance rate in muskmelon (*Cucumis melo* L.). Revista Brasileira de
28 Agrometeorologia, v.10, p.105-111.

1 Willmott, C.J., 1981. On the validation of models. Phys. Geogr. 2, 184–194

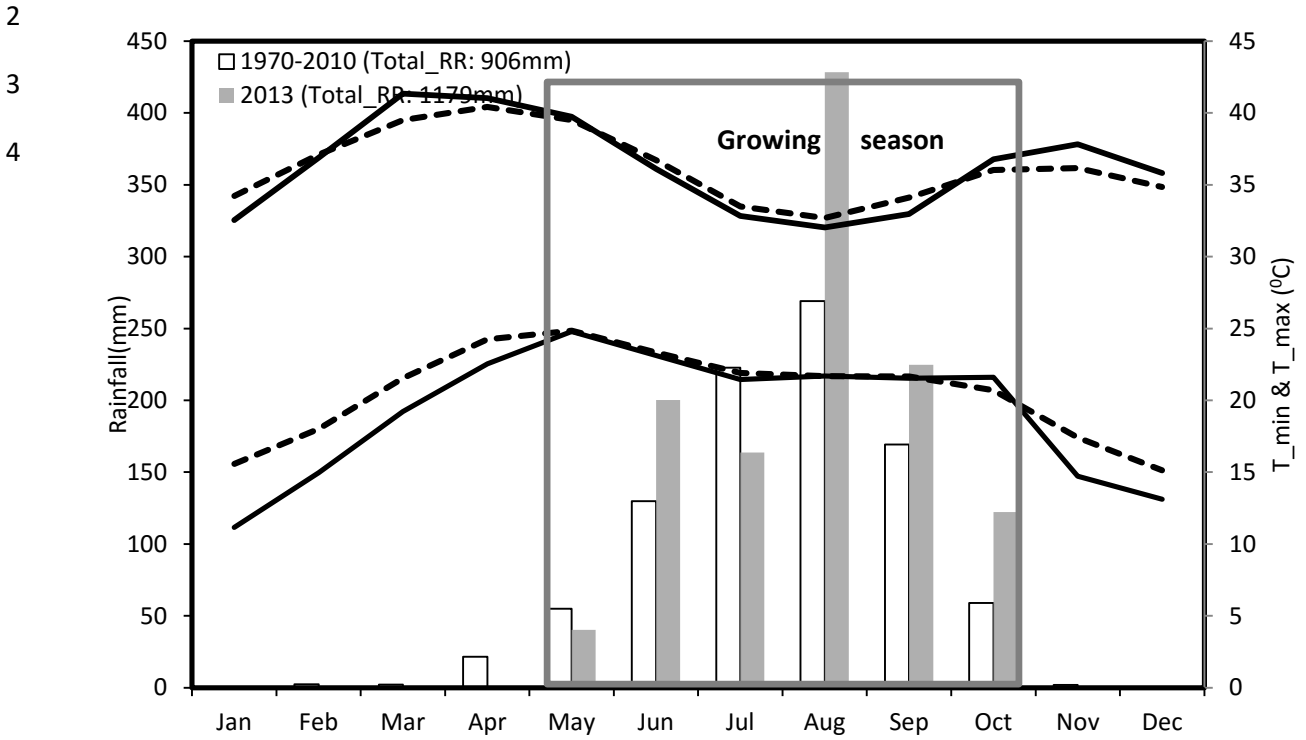


Figure 1: Comparison of the long-term (1970-2010) monthly rainfall, minimum air temperature and maximum air temperature and cropping year 2013

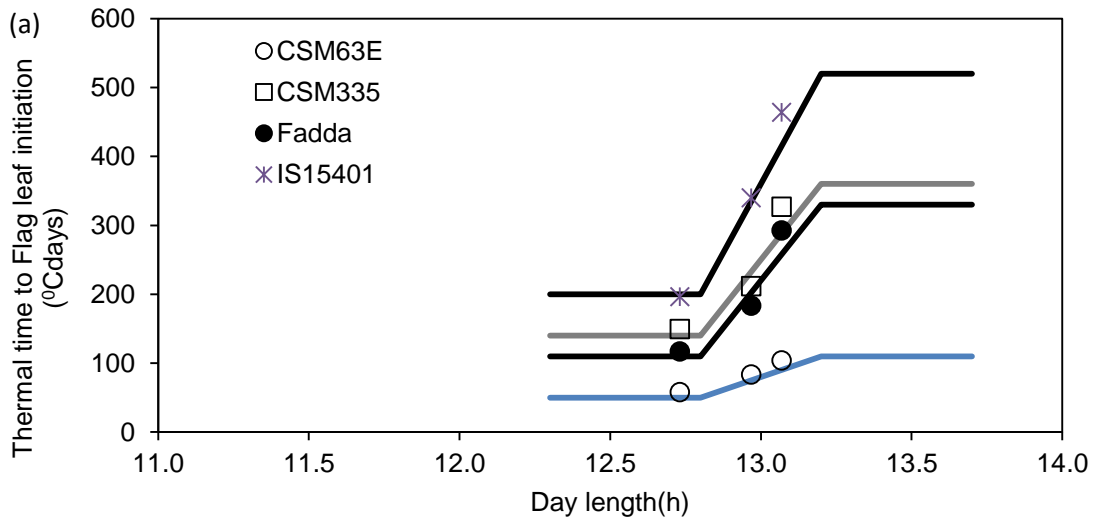
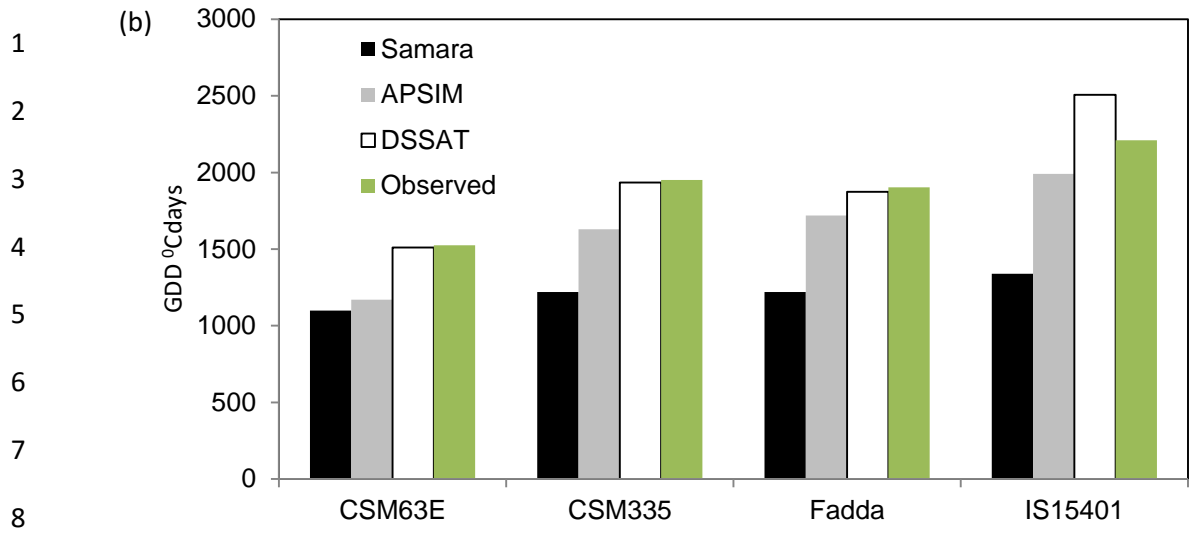
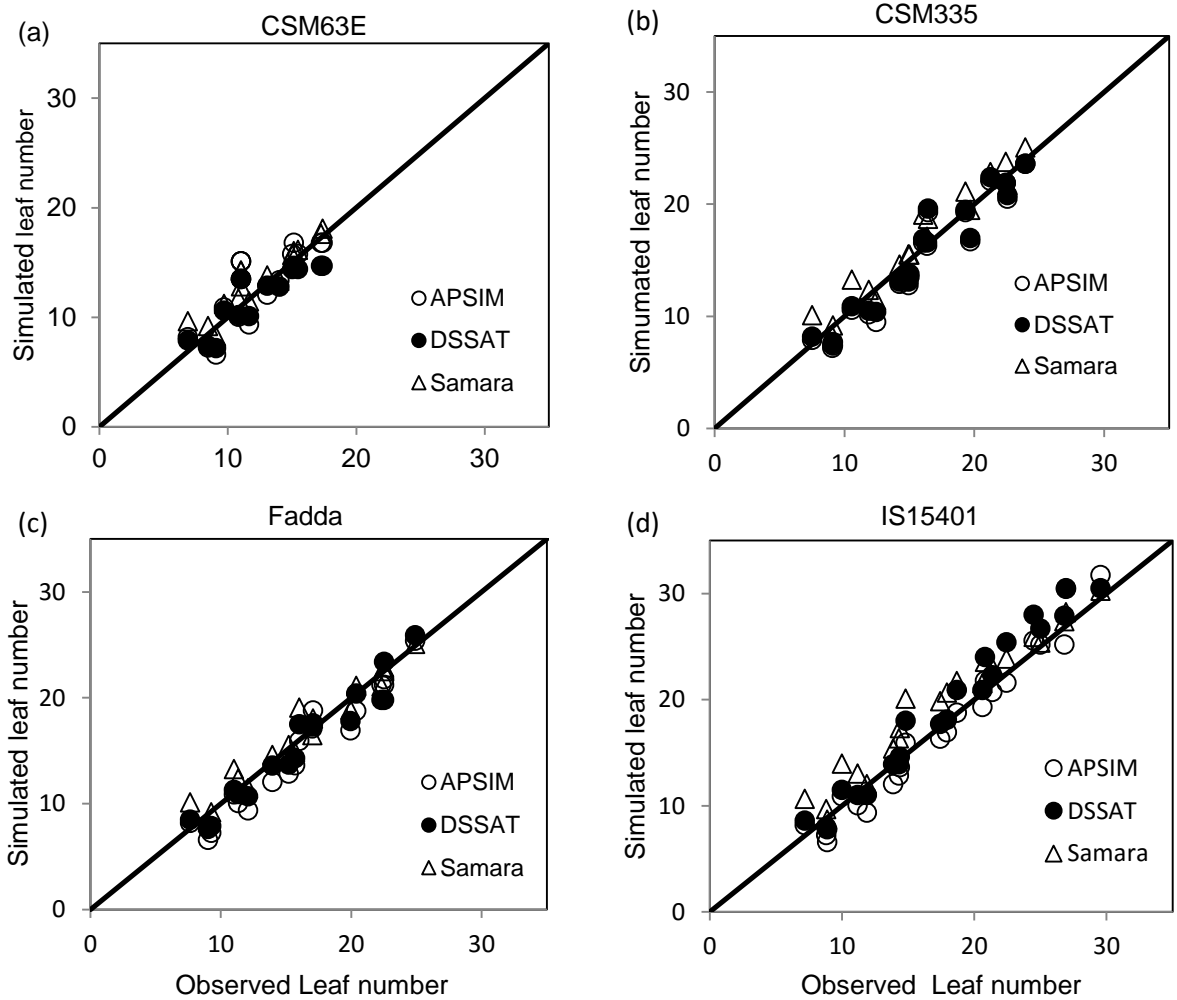


Figure 2a: Estimated model-fitted crop growth stages between emergency and flag leaf initiation (E-FI) indicating cultivar's response to photoperiod sensitivity (PPSen).



9 Figure 2b: Comparison of model-estimated growing degree days (GDD) with the calculated
 10 field-observed between emergence and maturity [exclusive of photoperiod sensitivity phases
 (PSP)] of the cultivar



26 Figure 3: Model-simulated leaf number (LN) against the observed LN over the three planting dates. **(a) CSM63E:**
 27 APSIM – RMSE = 2.1 leaves, $R^2 = 0.66$; DSSAT- RMSE= 1.7 leaves, $R^2= 0.71$; Samara - RMSE= 1.6 leaves,
 $R^2= 0.84$. **(b) CSM335:** APSIM – RMSE = 1.7 leaves, $R^2 = 0.92$; DSSAT- RMSE= 1.5 leaves, $R^2= 0.93$; Samara
 - RMSE= 1.5 leaves. **(c) Fadda:** APSIM – RMSE = 1.7 leaves, $R^2 = 0.95$; DSSAT- RMSE= 1.4 leaves, $R^2= 0.94$;
 Samara - RMSE= 1.3 leaves, $R^2= 0.95$. **(d) IS15401:** APSIM – RMSE = 1.5 leaves, $R^2 = 0.97$; DSSAT- RMSE=
 1.8 leaves, $R^2= 0.97$; Samara - RMSE= 2.2 leaves, $R^2= 0.96$.

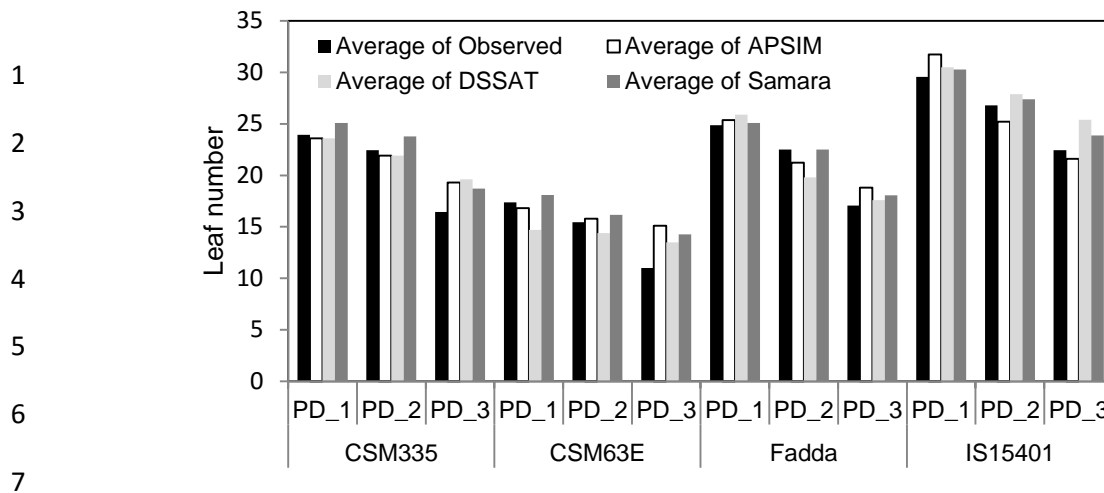


Figure 4: Comparison between the model-simulated and observed for leaf number over the three sowing dates. The significance difference of mean between the models and observed at 5% level of probability ($P < 0.05$) are as follows; 0.24(CSM63E); 0.37(CSM335); 0.77(Fadda) and 0.32 (IS15401) respectively.

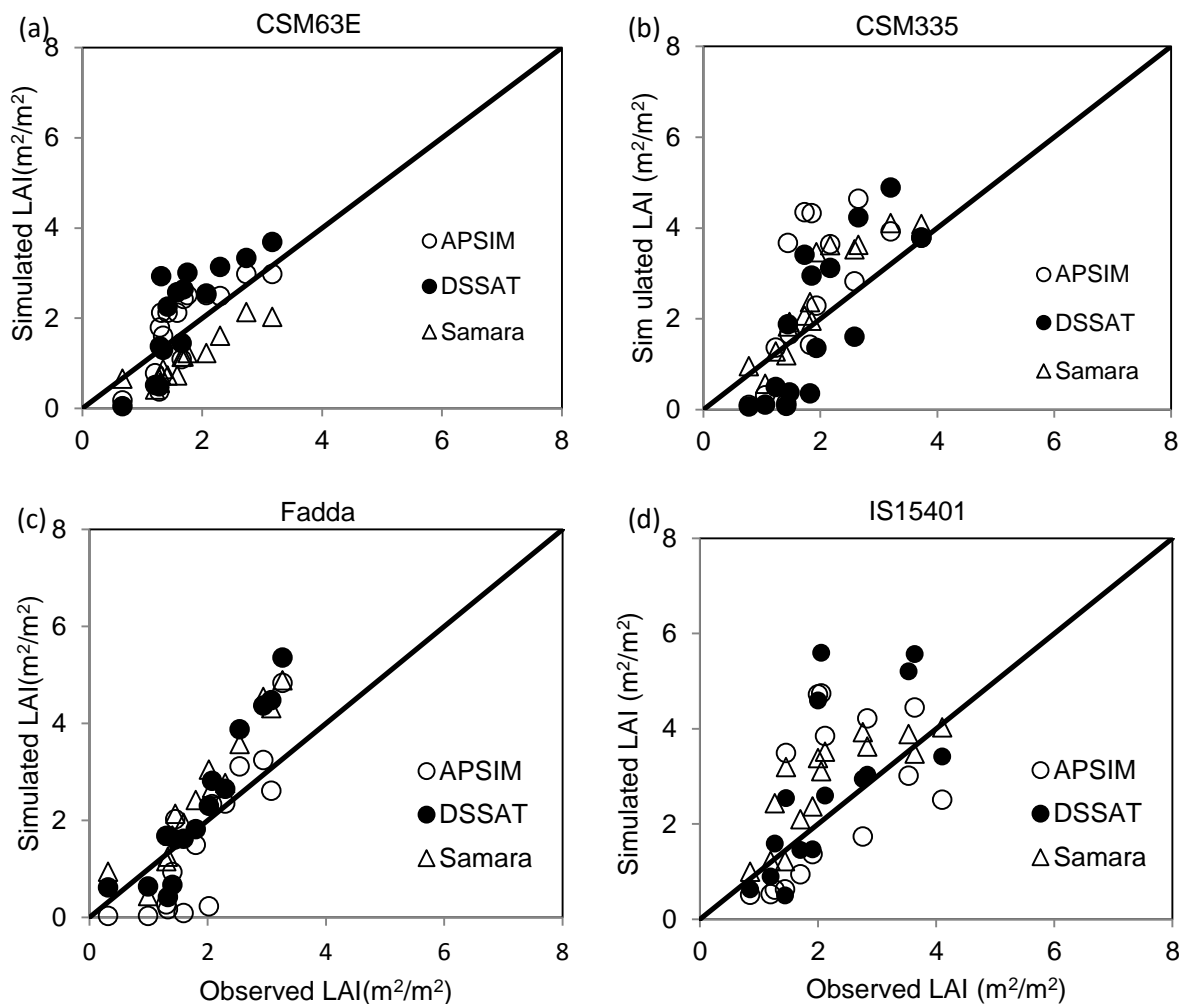


Figure 5: Model-simulated leaf area index (LAI) against the observed LAI over the three planting dates. **(a) CSM63E:** APSIM – RMSE = $0.56 \text{ m}^2/\text{m}^2$, $R^2 = 0.62$; DSSAT- RMSE= $0.81 \text{ m}^2/\text{m}^2$, $R^2= 0.64$; Samara - RMSE= 0.68 , $R^2= 0.87$. **(b) CSM335:** APSIM – RMSE = $1.4 \text{ m}^2/\text{m}^2$, $R^2 = 0.45$; DSSAT- RMSE= $1.1 \text{ m}^2/\text{m}^2$, $R^2= 0.62$; Samara - RMSE= $0.8 \text{ m}^2/\text{m}^2$, $R^2= 0.83$. **(c) Fadda:** APSIM – RMSE = $0.92 \text{ m}^2/\text{m}^2$, $R^2 = 0.73$; DSSAT- RMSE= $0.92 \text{ m}^2/\text{m}^2$, $R^2 = 0.89$; Samara - RMSE= $0.87 \text{ m}^2/\text{m}^2$, $R^2= 0.91$. **(d) IS15401:** APSIM – RMSE = $1.46 \text{ m}^2/\text{m}^2$, $R^2 = 0.31$; DSSAT- RMSE= $1.4 \text{ m}^2/\text{m}^2$, $R^2= 0.68$; Samara - RMSE= $0.9 \text{ m}^2/\text{m}^2$, $R^2= 0.78$.

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9

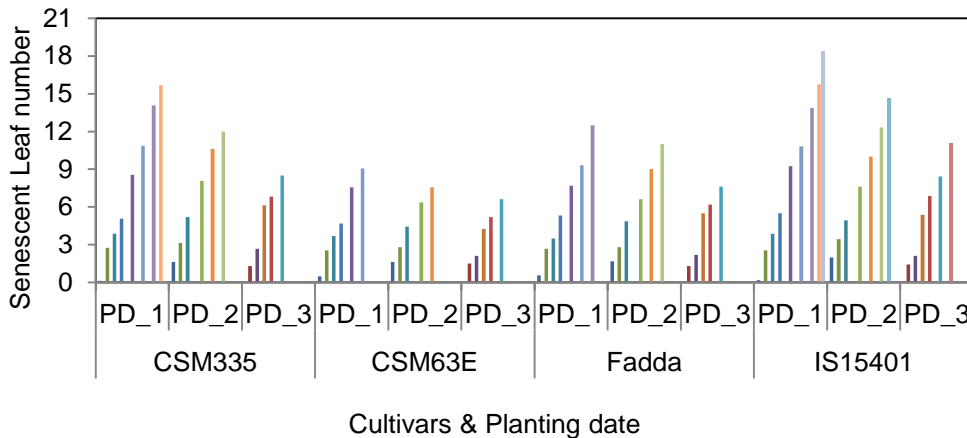


Figure 6. Observed average senescent leaves over four replications for each cultivar in three sowing dates

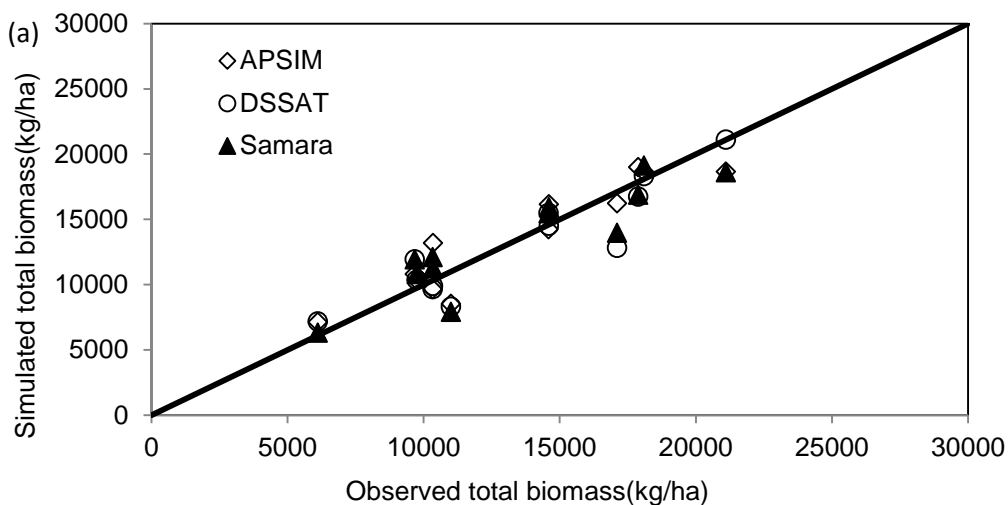


Figure 7a: Simulated total biomass against observed total biomass for all cultivars over the three planting dates. APSIM: RMSE=1536kg/ha, NRMSE (%) =11.5, $R^2= 0.87$; DSSAT: RMSE=1708kg/ha, NRMSE (%) =12.8, $R^2= 0.85$; Samara: RMSE= 1840kg/ha, NRMSE (%) =13.8, $R^2= 0.82$

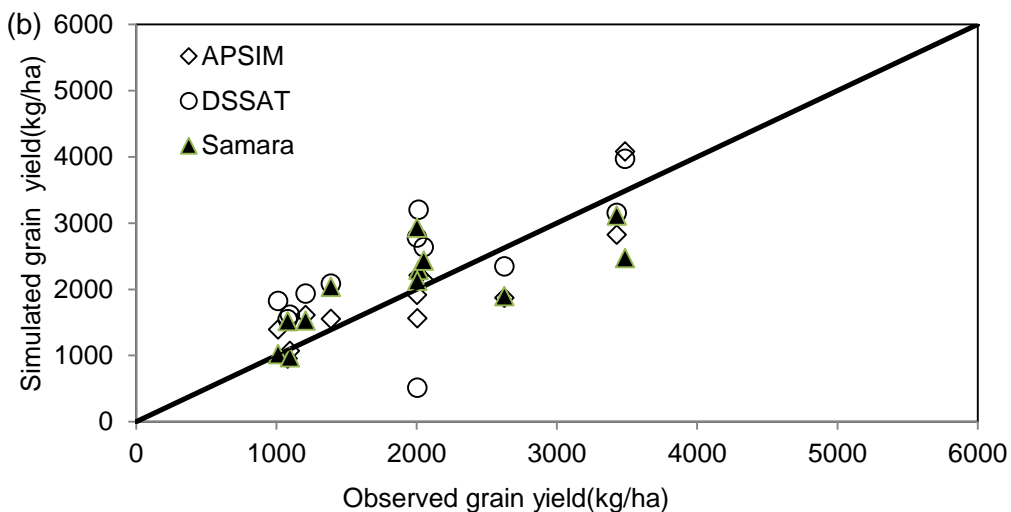


Figure 7b: Simulated grain yield against observed grain yield for all cultivars over the three planting dates. APSIM: RMSE=397kg/ha, NRMSE (%) =20.3, $R^2= 0.8$; DSSAT: RMSE=771kg/ha, NRMSE (%) = 39.5, $R^2= 0.5$; Samara: RMSE= 538kg/ha, NRMSE (%) =27.6, $R^2= 0.6$.

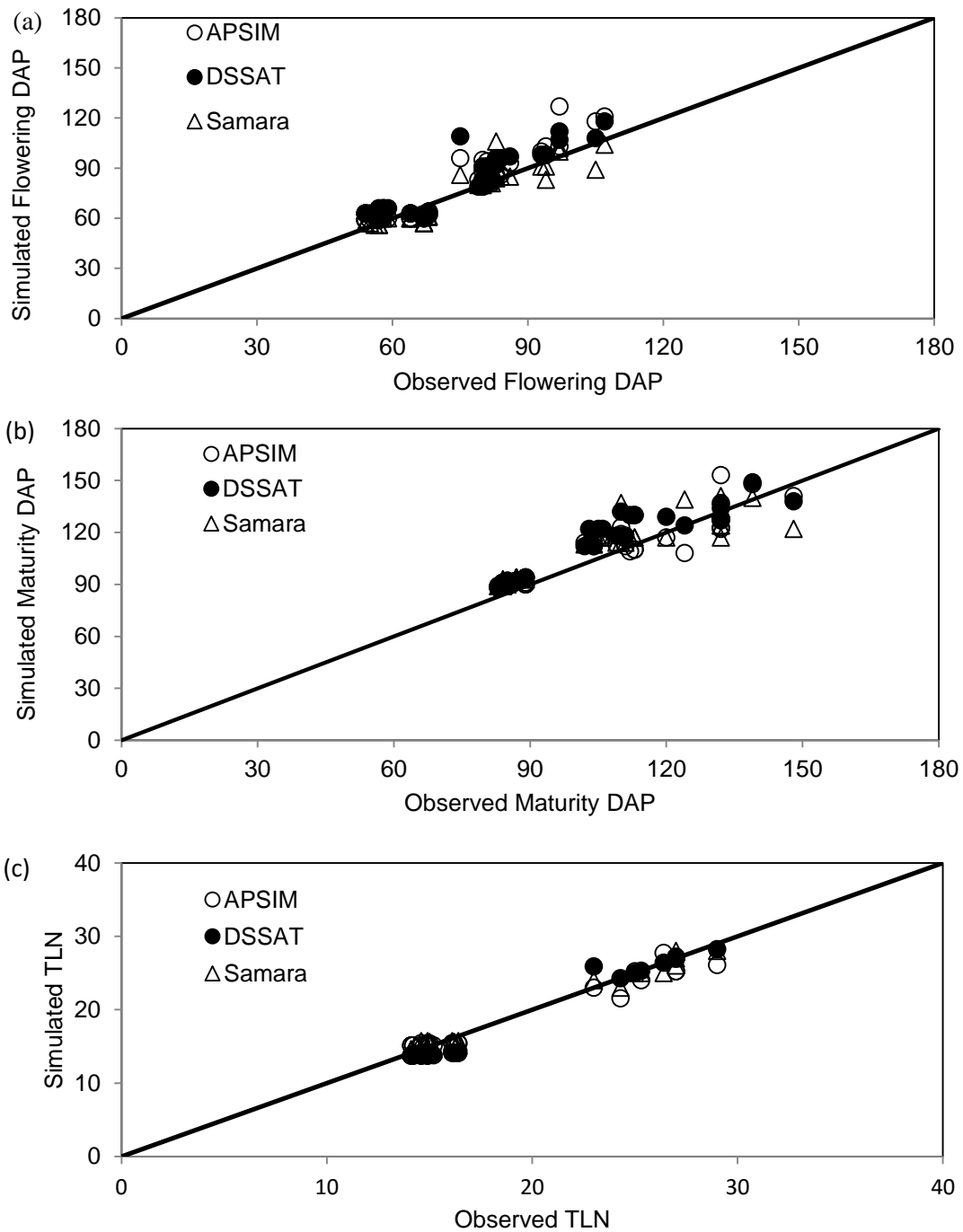
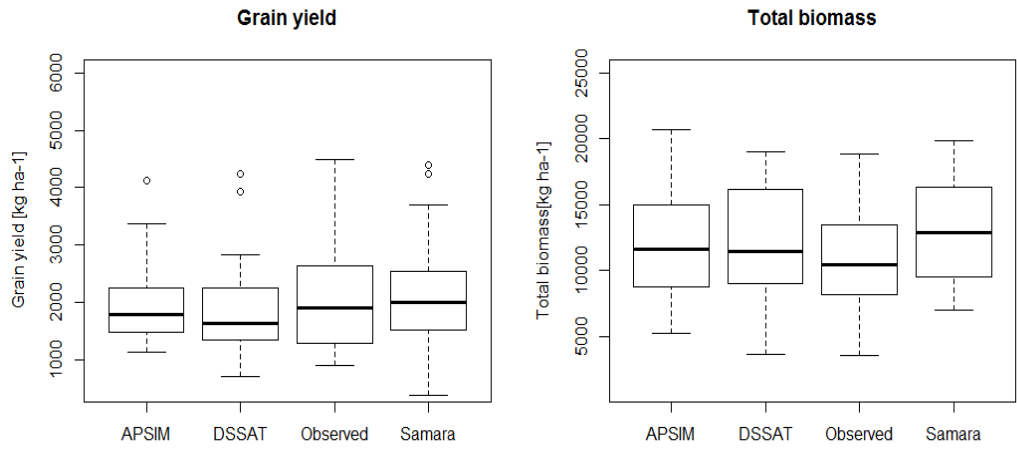


Figure 8: Model comparison for simulated phenology and total leaf number (TLN) against observed values for all the cultivars over different growing seasons, planting density and planting dates. **(a) Flowering:** APSIM - RMSE= 8.3 days; $R^2= 0.9$; DSSAT- RMSE= 8.7 days; $R^2= 0.8$; Samara - RMSE= 6.6 days; $R^2= 0.8$. **(b) Maturity:** APSIM - RMSE=7.6 days; $R^2= 0.9$; DSSAT- RMSE= 9 days; $R^2= 0.9$; Samara - RMSE= 9.2 days; $R^2= 0.8$. **(c) TLN:** APSIM - RMSE=1.2 leaves; $R^2= 0.96$; DSSAT- RMSE= 1.3 leaves; $R^2= 0.97$; Samara - RMSE= 0.7 leaves; $R^2= 0.99$.

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10



values for the all cultivars over different growing seasons, planting density and dates. Boxes indicate the inter-quartile range (25-75 percentiles) and whiskers show the high and low extreme values. The significance difference of mean between the models and observed at 5% level of probability ($P < 0.05$) are as follows; 0.25 for grain yield and 0.00008 for Total biomass.

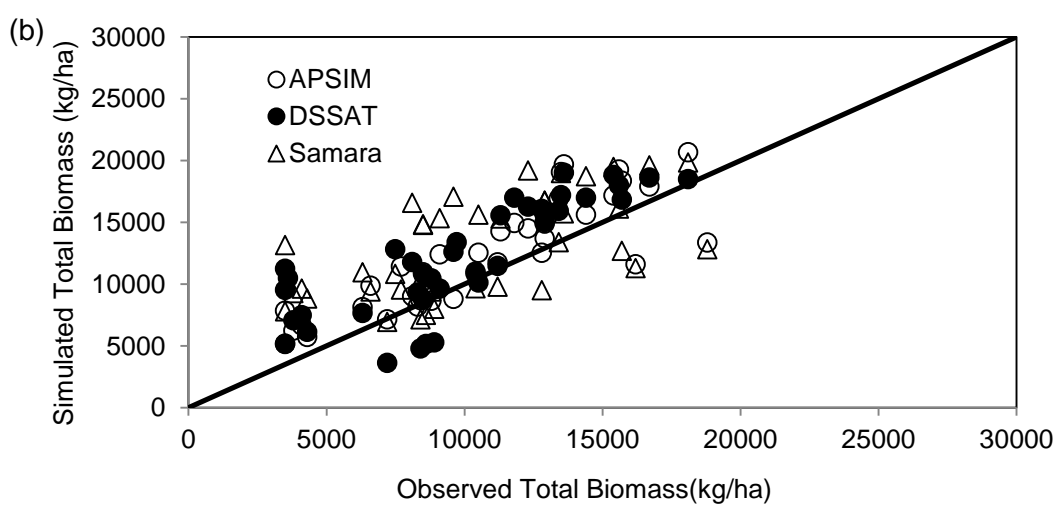
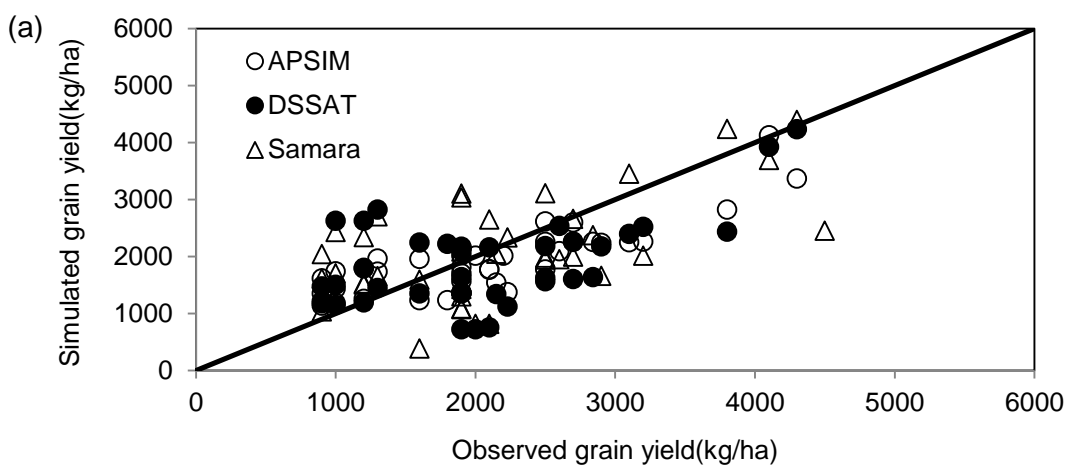


Figure 10: (a) Model comparison for simulated grain yield and total biomass against the observed values for all the cultivars over different growing seasons, planting density and planting dates. **(a) Grain yield:** APSIM - RMSE= 472 kg/ha; NRMSE (%) =22.6; $R^2= 0.68$; DSSAT- RMSE= 719 kg/ha; NRMSE (%) = 34.8; $R^2= 0.4$; Samara - RMSE= 762 kg/ha; NRMSE (%) =35.7; $R^2= 0.4$. **(b) Total biomass:** APSIM - RMSE= 2452kg/ha; NRMSE (%) =23.3; $R^2= 0.75$; DSSAT- RMSE= 3138kg/ha; NRMSE (%) =36.8; $R^2= 0.66$; Samara -RMSE= 4058 kg/ha; NRMSE (%) =38.8 %; $R^2= 0.45$.