

1 **Climate change impacts on banana yields around the world**

2 Varun Varma<sup>1</sup> & Daniel P. Bebbler<sup>1\*</sup>

3 <sup>1</sup>Department of Biosciences, University of Exeter, Exeter EX4 4QJ, UK.

4 \*Corresponding author: Daniel P. Bebbler, email [d.bebber@exeter.ac.uk](mailto:d.bebber@exeter.ac.uk)

5

6 **Nutritional diversity is a key element of food security<sup>1-3</sup>. However, research on the effects of**  
7 **climate change on food security has, thus far, focussed on the major food grains<sup>4-8</sup>, while the**  
8 **response of other crops, particularly those that play an important role in the developing**  
9 **world, are poorly understood. Bananas are a staple food and a major export commodity for**  
10 **many tropical nations<sup>9</sup>. Here we show that for 27 countries – accounting for 86% of global**  
11 **dessert banana production – a changing climate since 1961 has increased yields by an average**  
12 **of 1.37 T.ha<sup>-1</sup>. While past gains have been largely ubiquitous across the countries assessed,**  
13 **African producers will continue to see yield increases into the future. Moreover, global yield**  
14 **gains could be dampened or disappear in the future, reducing to 0.59 T.ha<sup>-1</sup> and 0.19 T.ha<sup>-1</sup> by**  
15 **2050 under the RCP 4.5 and 8.5 climate scenarios, respectively, driven by declining yields**  
16 **amongst the largest producers and exporters. By quantifying climate-driven and technology-**  
17 **driven influences on yield, we also identify countries at risk from climate change and those**  
18 **capable of mitigating its effects, or capitalising on its benefits.**

19 Bananas are widely cultivated in tropical and sub-tropical regions around the world, where they can  
20 provide a substantial proportion of affordable calories, dietary diversity and income<sup>9-11</sup>. Bananas are  
21 also ubiquitous in their availability in non-producing regions through international trade, which  
22 accounts for 15% of global production<sup>12</sup>. This international trade supplements nutritional diversity  
23 in non-producing countries, while making a large contribution to local and national economies in  
24 producing countries. For example, bananas and their derived products constitute the second largest  
25 agricultural export commodity of Ecuador and Costa Rica<sup>13</sup>. Globally, bananas (together with  
26 plantains) are amongst the top ten crops in terms of area of cultivation, yield and calories  
27 produced<sup>10</sup>. Given the importance of this crop for subsistence and trade, it is surprising how poorly  
28 represented bananas are in global assessments of climate change impacts on food and nutritional  
29 security<sup>4-6</sup>.

30 Quantifying the optimal climatic conditions for banana productivity is central to assessing the  
31 crop's climate sensitivity, and thereafter, predicting the potential impacts of climate change on  
32 banana production systems. Ideally, this requires the collation of data from experiments and field  
33 trials conducted over a range of environmental conditions, including sub-optimal combinations.  
34 While few such experiments have been conducted<sup>14-19</sup>, some of which constitute the core of most  
35 banana production models currently used (e.g. Global Agro-Ecological Zones; GAEZ), major  
36 challenges remain. Firstly, the small number of published studies, coupled with small sample sizes  
37 within them and the limited breadth of environmental conditions assessed, are inadequate to derive  
38 generalisable estimates of optimal conditions for a crop so widely cultivated across the world.  
39 Second, estimates of productivity-climate relationship parameters have not been rigorously  
40 validated against large quantities of observed production data. Consequently, the representation of  
41 bananas in existing crop models is likely to be based on abstractions derived from shared plant  
42 characteristics<sup>1</sup>, which may not accurately predict effects of climate change on productivity.

43 Here we assess the climate sensitivity of global dessert banana (banana, hereafter) productivity or  
44 yield using a combination of national and sub-national production datasets from 27 countries (Table  
45 1) spanning varying time periods (Supplementary table S1), coupled with previously published  
46 expert information on banana physiology. In all, the data used in our analyses account for  
47 approximately 86% of the world's banana production and covers 80% of global area under  
48 cultivation. The selected countries include the world's largest and regionally important producers,  
49 as well as the largest exporters of bananas, e.g. Ecuador, Colombia, Costa Rica, Ivory Coast,  
50 Philippines, etc.<sup>20</sup>. This large geographically stratified set of nations is exposed to diverse climatic  
51 conditions – ideally suited for climate sensitivity assessments. We statistically fitted observed yield  
52 data from the 1281 geographic units over multiple years to elevation corrected mean annual  
53 temperature and total annual precipitation using a beta function<sup>21</sup>. This allowed us to empirically  
54 identify the optimum climate space for banana productivity, and develop a climate-driven relative  
55 yield coefficient model for bananas. Model fitting involved partitioning the observed data into six

56 regional subsets (Table 1), resulting in six regional models and a single global model. Models were  
57 constructed at these two scales to assess the validity of using a single global model for bananas,  
58 given that regions and countries can vary widely in cultivation practices and cultivars of bananas  
59 grown. Thereafter, we employed the regional models to quantify historical climate change effects  
60 on productivity, as well as the contribution of change in cultivation efficiency over time  
61 (technology trend), and project the future impacts of climate change.

62 In our global model, optimum mean annual temperature for banana productivity was estimated at  
63  $26.7^{\circ}\text{C}$  (95% confidence interval =  $\pm 0.04^{\circ}\text{C}$ ; Fig 1; Supplementary table S2), which is very similar  
64 to the commonly used optimum temperature of  $27^{\circ}\text{C}$ <sup>10,22,23</sup>. However, the optimum temperatures for  
65 regional models varied considerably, ranging from  $20.1^{\circ}\text{C}$  (95% CI =  $\pm 0.1^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) for Brazil, to  $30.4^{\circ}\text{C}$   
66 (95% CI =  $\pm 0.1^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) for Africa (Fig 1; Supplementary table S2). Optimum total annual rainfall in  
67 our global model was estimated at 1673 mm ( $\pm 13$  mm), which falls within the range previously  
68 reported<sup>23</sup> (900 mm – 1700 mm). But again, regional models varied substantially (Fig 1;  
69 Supplementary table S2), with India showing the lowest optimum rainfall of  $327 \text{ mm}\cdot\text{y}^{-1}$  (95% CI =  
70  $\pm 16 \text{ mm}\cdot\text{y}^{-1}$ ) and China requiring the highest ( $2924 \text{ mm}\cdot\text{y}^{-1}$ ; 95% CI =  $\pm 27 \text{ mm}\cdot\text{y}^{-1}$ ). Hence, relying  
71 on a single global model to understand the climate sensitivity of banana productivity is likely to  
72 result in considerable error at regional, national and sub-national scales.

73 Our hindcast analysis, which utilised the regional climate-yield models, suggests that climate  
74 change over the recent past (1961 to 2016) has had a net benefit on global banana yields (Fig 2a),  
75 which have increased at a rate of  $0.024 \text{ T}\cdot\text{ha}^{-1}\cdot\text{y}^{-1}$  (95% CI =  $\pm 0.006 \text{ T}\cdot\text{ha}^{-1}\cdot\text{y}^{-1}$ ). Over the 56 years  
76 of the hindcast assessment this translates to an average global yield increase of  $1.37 \text{ T}\cdot\text{ha}^{-1}$  (95% CI  
77 =  $\pm 0.33 \text{ T}\cdot\text{ha}^{-1}$ ). Of the 27 countries included in our analyses, 21 showed a positive effect of recent  
78 climate change on banana yields, two (Kenya and Colombia) showed no effect, and four (Brazil,  
79 Indonesia, Malaysia and Philippines) showed climate-driven yield declines (Fig 2a; Supplementary  
80 table S3). On aggregating national yield trends to regional averages, we find that Africa, China,

81 India, as well as Latin America and the Caribbean (LAC) show positive effects of climate change  
82 on banana yields, while Brazil, and south-east Asia and Australia (SEAA) have been negatively  
83 affected (Supplementary figure S8a; Supplementary table S3). Changes in yield appear to be  
84 primarily driven by consistent increases in temperature over the recent past (Supplementary figure  
85 S9; Supplementary table S6). Countries where warming has resulted in banana growing areas  
86 experiencing more optimal temperatures have seen productivity increases, while countries where  
87 temperatures have exceeded the regional optimum, show declines. However, we note that the  
88 inclusion of irrigated production in our analyses may obscure the influence of change in  
89 precipitation on yields.

90 In countries such as Brazil and Malaysia, modelled climate-driven yield declines (Fig 2a) are also  
91 reflected in observed country level yield declines (Supplementary figure S10). However, large  
92 increases in observed yields in Indonesia and Philippines (Supplementary figure S10) run counter to  
93 modelled climate-driven yield declines. This could be attributed to the large positive effect of  
94 changes in cultivation efficiency or a positive technology-yield trend (an aggregate term that  
95 captures changes in cultivation practices, inputs, land management and investment in infrastructure,  
96 such as irrigation, etc.), which overwhelms the relatively smaller negative effect of climate change  
97 (Fig 3). Technology-yield trends were positive for most countries considered here, and of  
98 magnitudes much greater than climate-yield trends, thus enhancing observed country-scale yields.  
99 However, in some cases a strong negative technology-yield trend completely counteracted, and  
100 reversed yield gains due to climate change. For example, countries such as Cameroon, Ethiopia and  
101 Panama show a positive effect of climate change on yields, but a strong negative technology trend  
102 (Fig 3), resulting in an overall decline in observed yields over time (Supplementary figure S10).  
103 Hence, the capacity to capitalise on the benefits of increasingly suitable climatic conditions for  
104 banana cultivation, or mitigating against future change is strongly dependent on how countries  
105 invest in maintaining and improving their cultivation efficiency.

106 Regional model based forecasting revealed that by 2050, past positive effects of climate change on  
107 average global banana yields, though likely to continue, will be of lower magnitude. Yield increases  
108 could decline to 0.59 T.ha<sup>-1</sup> (95% CI = ± 1.38 T.ha<sup>-1</sup>) and 0.19 T.ha<sup>-1</sup> (95% CI = ± 1.86 T.ha<sup>-1</sup>)  
109 under the RCP 4.5 and more extreme RCP 8.5 climate scenarios, respectively, relative to yields  
110 modelled using long-term climate averages for 1970-2000 (Fig 2b and 2c; Supplementary tables S4  
111 and S5). Unlike the hindcast analysis, where only four countries in our assessment showed a  
112 negative effect of past climate change on yield, negative responses could be more widespread  
113 amongst countries in the future. Ten countries are predicted to show at least a negative trend, if not  
114 strong declines in yields (RCP 4.5 scenario). Importantly, these include India (the world's largest  
115 producer and consumer of bananas), Brazil (fourth largest producer), as well as Colombia, Costa  
116 Rica, Guatemala, Panama and Philippines, all of which are major exporters. Some countries could  
117 continue to see benefits, or indeed increased benefits, of climate change in the future. These include  
118 all 10 African countries in our assessment, as well as Ecuador (the world's largest exporter) and  
119 Honduras (also a major exporter). When aggregating future yield trends regionally, Africa  
120 unsurprisingly emerges as a key winner, while the strong positive effects of past climate change in  
121 the LAC countries declines to a positive trend. Similarly, China may not see any benefits of climate  
122 change in the future, as it did in the recent past. India could experience a major reversal with  
123 predicted negative effects of future climate change compared to positive effects in the past. Lastly,  
124 both Brazil and SEAA countries will continue along a negative trajectory into the future  
125 (Supplementary figures S8b and S8c; Supplementary tables S4 and S5).

126 Combining forecasted climate-driven changes in yield with the technology-yield trend estimates –  
127 which we assume to represent a country's capacity to adapt to production risks in the future – we  
128 qualitatively classified the climate risk to banana production in each of the 27 countries included in  
129 this study (Fig 4; Supplementary figure S11). Countries where forecasted climate-driven yield  
130 changes were negative, and that had negative or flat technology-yield trends in the past, were  
131 classified as 'at risk'. These included Malaysia, Panama, Nicaragua, the world's fourth largest

132 producer – Brazil , as well as Colombia – a major exporter. The two largest producers, India and  
133 China, along with many LAC countries that are important exporters, as well as Australia, Indonesia  
134 and Philippines were classified as ‘adaptable’. These countries showed potential negative effects of  
135 climate change on yields, but strong positive technology-yield trends that may mitigate climate-  
136 driven yield declines. Amongst the countries classified as at an ‘advantage’ - where forecasted  
137 changes in yield are strongly positive – are some of the largest current exporters (Ecuador and  
138 Honduras), and all 10 African countries that were assessed. However, it is important to note here,  
139 that our classification of risk is climate centric. Hence, realising the climate-driven advantage to  
140 banana productivity in many of the African countries will also be contingent on reversing negative  
141 technology-yield trends, e.g. by improving cultivation practices, investing in infrastructure, etc., in  
142 the future. If cultivation efficiency in the African nations can be improved, it could bolster local and  
143 regional nutritional security. In addition, it could also modify the existing configuration of the  
144 banana export market, especially given the negative impacts expected in some of the major current  
145 exporters.

146 In summary, our study quantified region specific climate-yield relationships for banana cultivation  
147 that suggests that climate change in the recent past has been beneficial to global banana  
148 productivity, but will be less so in the near future. However, we note that our analysis is based on  
149 average climatic conditions and does not account for other climate change driven threats of  
150 increased frequencies of extreme events<sup>24</sup>, as well as the risk posed by established and emerging  
151 diseases<sup>25–27</sup>. In addition, our climate-yield models are based on observed production data rather  
152 than experimental assays. Hence, model fits are likely to be influenced by agro-economic factors in  
153 addition to banana plant physiology, and therefore, model interpretation requires caution (see  
154 Methods). Previous studies have largely assessed climate driven changes in the extent of land  
155 suitable for banana cultivation<sup>10,22,23,28,29</sup>, without considering the potential for competition with  
156 other staple crops and land-use types<sup>30</sup>. In contrast, analyses here focused on the more practical  
157 quantity of yield changes where bananas are already being grown. In addition, we assessed the

158 climate risk to major producer and exporter countries. We infer that future climate risks to banana  
159 production could largely be mitigated to secure local nutritional diversity and security.  
160 Nevertheless, securing supply to non-producing countries, where banana consumption is an  
161 important contributor to dietary diversity, is likely to require a reorganisation of the export market.

162

### 163 **Competing financial interests**

164 The authors declare no competing financial interests.

165

### 166 **Data Availability Statement**

167 All data used are publicly available and open access. All banana production data sources are listed in  
168 Supplementary Table S1. All climatic and topographic data sources are listed in Methods.

169

### 170 **References**

- 171 1. Wheeler, T. & Braun, J. von. Climate change impacts on global food security. *Science* **341**,  
172 508–513 (2013).
- 173 2. Springmann, M. *et al.* Global and regional health effects of future food production under  
174 climate change: a modelling study. *The Lancet* **387**, 1937–1946 (2016).
- 175 3. Hwalla, N., Labban, S. E. & Bahn, R. A. Nutrition security is an integral component of food  
176 security. *Front. Life Sci.* **9**, 167–172 (2016).



- 177 4. Welch, J. R. *et al.* Rice yields in tropical/subtropical Asia exhibit large but opposing  
178 sensitivities to minimum and maximum temperatures. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.* **107**, 14562–  
179 14567 (2010).
- 180 5. Knox, J., Hess, T., Daccache, A. & Wheeler, T. Climate change impacts on crop productivity  
181 in Africa and South Asia. *Environ. Res. Lett.* **7**, 034032 (2012).
- 182 6. Challinor, A. J. *et al.* A meta-analysis of crop yield under climate change and adaptation. *Nat.*  
183 *Clim. Change* **4**, 287–291 (2014).
- 184 7. Lobell, D. B. & Gourdjji, S. M. The influence of climate change on global crop productivity.  
185 *Plant Physiol.* **160**, 1686–1697 (2012).
- 186 8. Rosenzweig, C. *et al.* Assessing agricultural risks of climate change in the 21st century in a  
187 global gridded crop model intercomparison. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.* **111**, 3268–3273 (2014).
- 188 9. Heslop-Harrison, J. S. & Schwarzacher, T. Domestication, genomics and the future for  
189 banana. *Ann. Bot.* **100**, 1073–1084 (2007).
- 190 10. German Calberto, G., Staver, C. & Siles, P. An assessment of global banana production and  
191 suitability under climate change scenarios. in *Climate change and food systems: global*  
192 *assessments and implications for food security and trade*, Aziz Albehri (editor) 266–291  
193 (Food Agriculture Organisation of the United Nations (FAO), 2015).
- 194 11. Vuylsteke, D., Ortiz, R. & Ferris, S. Genetic and agronomic improvement for sustainable  
195 production of plantain and banana in sub-Saharan Africa. *Afr. Crop Sci. J.* **1**, (1993).
- 196 12. Turner, D. W., Fortescue, J. A. & Thomas, D. S. Environmental physiology of the bananas  
197 (*Musa* spp.). *Braz. J. Plant Physiol.* **19**, 463–484 (2007).
- 198 13. World Bank. Available at: <http://databank.worldbank.org>.

- 199 14. Turner, D. & Lahav, E. The Growth of Banana Plants in Relation to Temperature. *Aust. J.*  
200 *Plant Physiol.* **10**, 43 (1983).
- 201 15. Kallarackal, J., Milburn, J. & Baker, D. Water relations of the banana. III. Effects of  
202 controlled water stress on water potential, transpiration, photosynthesis and leaf growth. *Aust.*  
203 *J. Plant Physiol.* **17**, 79 (1990).
- 204 16. Eckstein, K. & Robinson, J. C. Physiological responses of banana (Musa AAA; Cavendish  
205 sub-group) in the subtropics. II. Influence of climatic conditions on seasonal and diurnal  
206 variations in gas exchange of banana leaves. *J. Hortic. Sci.* **70**, 157–167 (1995).
- 207 17. Thomas, D. S., Turner, D. W. & Eamus, D. Independent effects of the environment on the leaf  
208 gas exchange of three banana (Musa sp.) cultivars of different genomic constitution. *Sci.*  
209 *Hortic.* **75**, 41–57 (1998).
- 210 18. van Asten, P. J. A., Fermont, A. M. & Taulya, G. Drought is a major yield loss factor for  
211 rainfed East African highland banana. *Agric. Water Manag.* **98**, 541–552 (2011).
- 212 19. Eckstein, K. & Robinson, J. C. Physiological responses of banana (Musa) AAA; Cavendish  
213 sub-group) in the subtropics. I. Influence of internal plant factors on gas exchange of banana  
214 leaves. *J. Hortic. Sci.* **70**, 147–156 (1995).
- 215 20. FAOSTAT. (2017). Available at: <http://www.fao.org/faostat/en/#data/QC>. (Accessed: 3rd  
216 October 2017)
- 217 21. Yan, W. & Hunt, L. A. An equation for modelling the temperature response of plants using  
218 only the cardinal temperatures. *Ann. Bot.* **84**, 607–614 (1999).

- 219 22. Ramirez, J., Jarvis, A., Van den Bergh, I., Staver, C. & Turner, D. Changing climates: effects  
220 on growing conditions for banana and plantain (*Musa* spp.) and possible responses. in *Crop*  
221 *adaptation to climate change* 426–438 (Wiley-Blackwell, Oxford, UK, 2011).
- 222 23. Van den Bergh, I. *et al.* Climate change in the subtropics: the impacts of projected averages  
223 and variability on banana productivity. *Acta Hortic.* 89–99 (2012).  
224 doi:10.17660/ActaHortic.2012.928.9
- 225 24. IPCC. *Climate Change 2014: Synthesis Report. Contribution of Working Groups I, II and III*  
226 *to the Fifth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change.* (IPCC,  
227 2014).
- 228 25. Ordonez, N. *et al.* Worse comes to worst: bananas and panama disease—when plant and  
229 pathogen clones meet. *PLOS Pathog.* **11**, e1005197 (2015).
- 230 26. Ploetz, R. C., Kema, G. H. J. & Ma, L.-J. Impact of diseases on export and smallholder  
231 production of banana. *Annu. Rev. Phytopathol.* **53**, 269–288 (2015).
- 232 27. Bebber, D. P. Range-expanding pests and pathogens in a warming world. *Annu. Rev.*  
233 *Phytopathol.* **53**, 335–356 (2015).
- 234 28. Machovina, B. & Feeley, K. J. Climate change driven shifts in the extent and location of areas  
235 suitable for export banana production. *Ecol. Econ.* **95**, 83–95 (2013).
- 236 29. Sabiiti, G. *et al.* Adapting agriculture to climate change: Suitability of banana crop production  
237 to future climate change over Uganda. in *Limits to climate change adaptation* (eds. Leal  
238 Filho, W. & Nalau, J.) 175–190 (Springer International Publishing, 2018). doi:10.1007/978-3-  
239 319-64599-5\_10
- 240 30. Foley, J. A. *et al.* Global consequences of land use. *Science* **309**, 570–574 (2005).

241

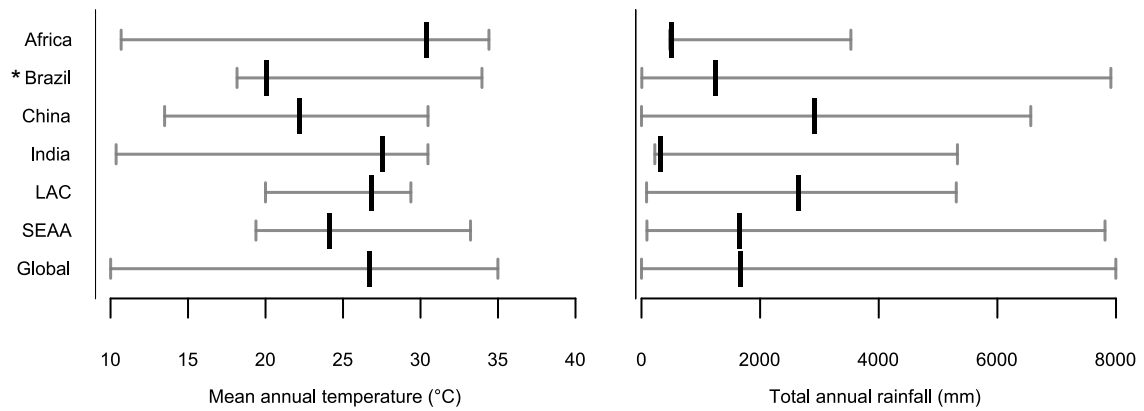
242

243 **Tables**

244 **Table 1.** Banana producing countries (grouped by regions) used in this analysis. Country code is the  
 245 abbreviation by which countries are referred to in figures associated with our analyses. Values for  
 246 area harvested and production are for 2016 (ref. 21). The Exp:Prod variable represents the  
 247 proportion of production that is exported. For regional names: LAC – Latin America and the  
 248 Caribbean, SEAA – South East Asia + Australia.

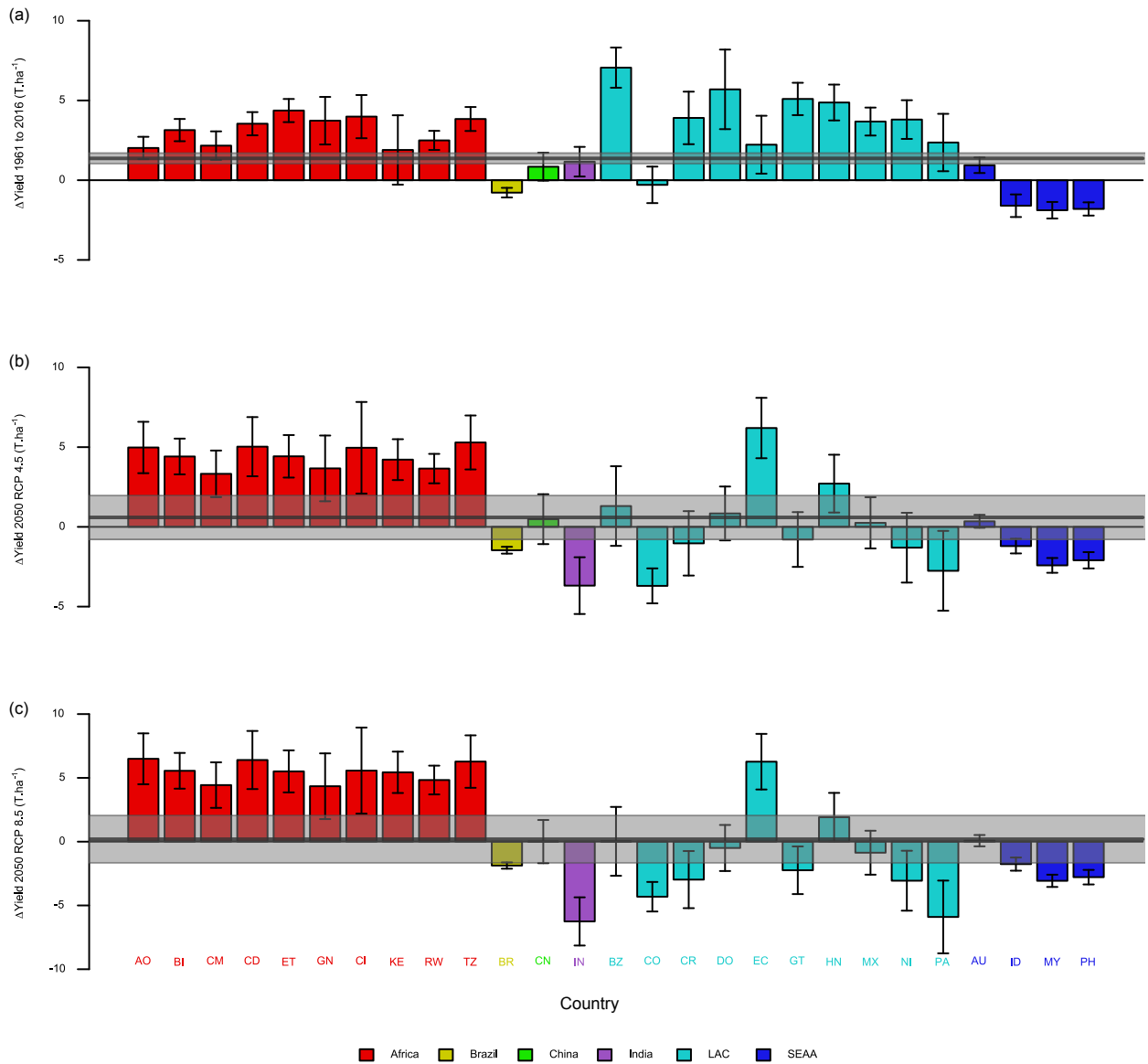
Region	Country	Country code	Area harvested (ha)	Production (T)	Exp:Prod
<b>Africa</b>	Angola	AO	131455	3858066	<0.001
	Burundi	BI	195248	911193	<0.001
	Cameroon	CM	72359	1187547	0.25
	D.R. Congo	CD	83413	311087	0
	Ethiopia	ET	63213	538302	0.02
	Guinea	GN	45459	212874	<0.001
	Ivory Coast	CI	7355	330946	0.98
	Kenya	KE	63299	1288588	<0.001
	Rwanda	RW	322009	3037962	0
	Tanzania	TZ	468470	3559639	0.005
<b>Brazil</b>	Brazil	BR	469711	6764324	0.009
<b>China</b>	China	CN	430046	13324337	<0.001
<b>India</b>	India	IN	846000	29124000	0.004
<b>LAC</b>	Belize	BZ	2472	70619	>0.99
	Colombia	CO	84637	2043668	0.9
	Costa Rica	CR	42410	2409543	0.98
	Dominican Republic	DO	26834	1079781	0.36
	Ecuador	EC	180337	6529676	0.91
	Guatemala	GT	78206	3775150	0.57
	Honduras	HN	24427	707120	0.93
	Mexico	MX	78322	2384778	0.19
	Nicaragua	NI	1680	106437	0.86
	Panama	PA	6455	258891	0.96
<b>SEAA</b>	Australia	AU	16612	354241	<0.001
	Indonesia	ID	139964	7007125	0.001
	Malaysia	MY	28036	309508	0.08
	Philippines	PH	456641	5829142	0.24

250 **Figures**



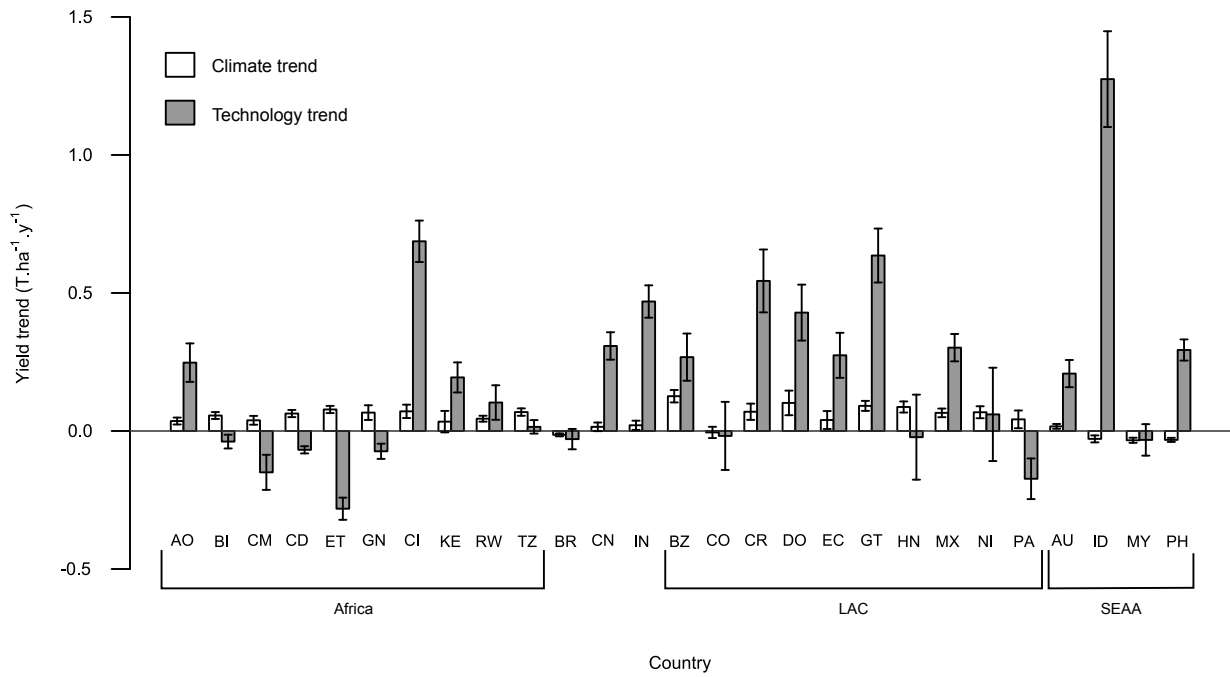
251

252 **Figure 1. Climate-yield model parameter estimates for bananas cultivation.** The minimum  
253 (blue vertical lines), optimum (green vertical lines) and maximum (red vertical lines) temperature  
254 and rainfall cardinal values estimated using beta functions for banana yields. Estimates are  
255 presented for each of the six regional models and a single global banana climate-yield model. For  
256 clarity, 95% confidence limits around the estimated parameters are presented in Supplementary  
257 table S2. Curves fitted to observed data are presented in Supplementary figures S1-S7. (\*) See  
258 Methods for notes on interpreting results for Brazil.



259

260 **Figure 2. Effects of past and future climate change on banana yields.** Modelled contribution of  
 261 climate change between 1961 and 2016 on banana yields in major producing countries from a  
 262 hindcast analysis (a). b,c Predicted changes in banana yields by 2050 relative to yields modelled  
 263 using long-term average climatic conditions (1970 to 2000) under RCP 4.5 (b) and RCP 8.5 (c)  
 264 climate change scenarios. The black horizontal lines and grey areas in each panel represent the  
 265 global area averaged change in yield due to climate change, and associated 95% confidence bounds.  
 266 Error bars in all cases represent 95% confidence intervals. Each bar is associated with a two letter  
 267 country name abbreviation and colour coded by region (see table 1).



268

269 **Figure 3. Effect of changes in climate and cultivation efficiency (technology) on banana yields**  
 270 **(1961 to 2016).** Error bars represent 95% confidence intervals. Countries are colour coded by  
 271 region and two letter country codes (table 1) are used to label each country.

	Country	Climate risk category
Africa	Angola (AO)	●
	Burundi (BI)	●
	Cameroon (CM)	●
	Dem. Rep. Congo (CD)	●
	Ethiopia (ET)	●
	Guinea (GN)	●
	Ivory Coast (CI)	●
	Kenya (KE)	●
	Rwanda (RW)	●
	Tanzania (TZ)	●
LAC	Brazil (BR)	×
	China (CN)	△
	India (IN)	△
	Belize (BZ)	△
	Colombia (CO)	×
	Costa Rica (CR)	△
	Dominican Republic (DO)	△
	Ecuador (EC)	●
	Guatemala (GT)	△
	Honduras (HN)	●
Mexico (MX)	△	
Nicaragua (NI)	×	
Panama (PA)	×	
SEAA	Australia (AU)	△
	Indonesia (ID)	△
	Malaysia (MY)	×
	Philippines (PH)	△

● Advantage    △ Adaptable    × At risk

272

273 **Figure 4. Future climate risk assessment for major banana producing countries (by 2050).**

274 This categorisation was carried out by combining changes in predicted yield under the RCP 8.5

275 climate change scenario and the effect of cultivation efficiency (technology trend) on past yields.

276 Countries classified as ‘at risk’ are those where yields are predicted to decline due to climate change

277 and that have shown a negative technology trend on past yields. ‘Adaptable’ countries could see

278 future climate-driven yield declines, but mitigation could be possible given past positive technology

279 trends. ‘At advantage’ countries are those that are predicted to experience climate-driven increases

280 in yield by 2050.



## 281 **Methods**

### 282 *Data sources*

283 We used a time series of annual banana production data from 27 countries (Table 1), which  
284 included all the major producer and exporter countries. Our analyses focus on dessert bananas and  
285 we exclude data on plantain production. Consequently, we did not include Uganda in this study  
286 (despite having the highest per capita banana consumption) because the East African Highland  
287 Banana which makes up the majority of Ugandan production, is (a) classified as plantain in  
288 production data available from the FAO, and (b) is cultivated at higher elevations (1400 – 2000m)  
289 than other production systems considered in this study. Data sources, spatial resolution and time  
290 period over which production data were available differed between countries (see supplementary  
291 table S1). Hereafter, we refer to the finest administrative scale at which data were available within  
292 each country as a geographic unit (GU). For example, production data were available at the whole  
293 country scale for countries such as Angola and Malaysia. Hence, in these cases, ‘country’ was  
294 assigned as the GU. On the other hand, for countries such as India and China, data were available at  
295 the district and province scale, respectively. Hence, individual districts or provinces were assigned  
296 as a GU. Data were ‘cleaned’ to remove non-sense values (e.g. where yield values were  
297 unrealistically high, or where production was reported, but area under cultivation was zero) and  
298 other values which indicated poor data quality or reliability. For instance, national scale data  
299 available from FAOSTAT (typically from 1961 to 2016) can contain a combination of officially  
300 reported values, as well as computed values (presumably when official data are not available). In  
301 such cases, we subsetted the time series of production data, such that the first data point  
302 corresponded to the first officially reported values. In the case of data from Brazil, there were many  
303 cases where data from the same GU in successive years were identical, suggesting that data were in  
304 fact not collected annually. In these cases, where three or more successive identical production and  
305 area harvested values were encountered, only the first was retained. Production and area under

306 cultivation was used to calculate yield ( $T \cdot ha^{-1}$ ) – the response variable of interest – for each GU-  
307 year combination in the dataset.

308 Climate data from the CRU TS 4.01 product<sup>31,32</sup> was used to model climate sensitivity of banana  
309 yields, conduct the hindcast analysis and identify the contribution of change in cultivation  
310 efficiency (technology trend) on banana productivity over time. Mean annual temperature and total  
311 annual precipitation were extracted from the CRU dataset and assigned to the respective GU-year  
312 combinations in the production data. The temperature data was corrected for elevation. This was  
313 done to account for the lack of a good quality distribution map of banana growing areas, as well as  
314 the coarse resolution of the CRU dataset, which could result in individual pixels representing  
315 average temperatures over areas of high elevation, where bananas are less likely to grow. In other  
316 words, the relatively large area (approximately 360 km<sup>2</sup>) covered by a single CRU pixel could  
317 encompass areas of low and high elevation, and hence, uncorrected temperature values within a  
318 pixel represent the average temperature experienced across these elevations. Since bananas are less  
319 likely to grow at higher elevations, these uncorrected temperature values do not represent the  
320 temperatures experienced in banana plantations. The elevation based temperature correction was  
321 conducted by overlaying the 90 m resolution Shuttle Radar Telemetry Mission (SRTM) digital  
322 elevation model (DEM) with the CRU temperature dataset. A lapse rate of  $-0.0065 \text{ } ^\circ\text{C} \cdot \text{m}^{-1}$  was used  
323 to recalculate temperatures within each CRU pixel at the resolution of the DEM. Recalculated  
324 temperature values in DEM pixels where elevation was greater than 2000 m were eliminated (we  
325 assumed that there is a very low probability that bananas grow at elevations  $> 2000 \text{ m}$ ). For the  
326 remaining DEM pixels the elevation weighted average temperature was calculated. Weights were  
327 calculated using a logistic function  $1/\{1 + e^{[0.005(\text{elevation} - 1000)]}\}$ . The logistic function used assigns  
328 weights that tend to one for elevations  $< 500 \text{ m}$  above sea level, declines in a near linear fashion  
329 from 500 m to 1500 m, with an inflection point at 1000 m (i.e. weight of 0.5 at 1000 m elevation),  
330 and tends to zero for elevations  $> 1500 \text{ m}$ .

331 In addition to the elevation correction of temperature, climate extraction for Mexico and Australia  
332 (both with country scale production data) was restricted to administrative units where banana  
333 cultivation had previously been reported in published literature<sup>10,22,23</sup>. This was done to avoid  
334 climate data from extremely arid environments (where bananas are unlikely to be cultivated, and  
335 which would not be accounted for with an elevation based temperature correction) influencing the  
336 analysis. For all 10 African countries in this study (country scale production data), no usable  
337 published information of banana growing areas could be used to inform the data extraction.  
338 Therefore, modelled banana cultivation areas<sup>33</sup> were used to restrict climate data extraction.

339 For future climate, mean annual temperature and total annual precipitation for 2050 was extracted  
340 from WorldClim CMIP5 downscaled projections<sup>34,35</sup> (5-minute resolution bioclimatic variables) of  
341 19 and 17 GCMs for the RCP 4.5 and RCP 8.5 climate scenarios, respectively. Change in banana  
342 yields under future climate scenarios (forecast analysis) was calculated relative to yields modelled  
343 using the long term (1970 to 2000) climate averages extracted from WorldClim 2.0<sup>36,37</sup>. Mean  
344 annual temperature data from WorldClim 2.0 and CMIP5 downscaled projections were also  
345 elevation corrected (as had been done with the CRU TS 4.01 temperature data).

346

#### 347 Climate-yield relationship estimation

348 Our objective was to statistically fit observed annual banana yield data to prevailing mean  
349 temperature and total annual precipitation. The resulting relationship would be used for further  
350 analyses. We expected the relationship along both climate axes to be represented by a bell-shaped  
351 or unimodal function, which was not necessarily symmetrical around its peak (i.e. around the  
352 optimum). A beta function<sup>38</sup> has been suggested as a suitable candidate model for such a non-linear  
353 process<sup>39</sup>. Here we implemented a modified version of the beta function<sup>22</sup> that has also been used in

354 past banana physiology studies<sup>14,17</sup>. The beta function along the temperature and precipitation  
355 variables are as follows:

$$356 \quad R_t = \left( \frac{T_{max} - T_{obs}}{T_{max} - T_{opt}} \right) \left( \frac{T_{obs} - T_{min}}{T_{opt} - T_{min}} \right)^{\frac{(T_{opt} - T_{min})}{(T_{max} - T_{opt})}} \quad (1)$$

$$357 \quad R_p = \left( \frac{P_{max} - P_{obs}}{P_{max} - P_{opt}} \right) \left( \frac{P_{obs} - P_{min}}{P_{opt} - P_{min}} \right)^{\frac{(P_{opt} - P_{min})}{(P_{max} - P_{opt})}} \quad (2)$$

358 *Where:*

359  $R_t$  = Yield coefficient for temperature

360  $T_{max}$  = Maximum annual average temperature, beyond which banana production stops

361  $T_{min}$  = Minimum annual average temperature, below which banana production stops

362  $T_{opt}$  = Optimum temperature for banana production

363  $T_{obs}$  = Observed annual average temperature

364  $R_p$  = Yield coefficient for precipitation

365  $P_{max}$  = Maximum total annual precipitation, beyond which banana production stops

366  $P_{min}$  = Minimum total annual precipitation, below which banana production stops

367  $P_{opt}$  = Optimum total annual precipitation for banana production

368  $P_{obs}$  = Observed total annual precipitation

369 As both equations (1) and (2) result in a value between zero and one, a scaling coefficient (S) is also  
370 estimated while fitting the yield data to the climate variables. The scaling coefficient represents the

371 maximum average yield under optimum conditions of temperature and precipitation. As such the  
372 function being fit is given by:

$$373 \text{ Yield} = S.Rt.Rp \quad (3)$$

374 The yield and climate data were partitioned in to six regional sub-sets (see Table 1), which were  
375 then fit to equation (3). Regional subsets were created to account for differences in cultivation  
376 practices and cultivars grown (cultivar identity was not explicitly included in our analyses as  
377 available production data does not differentiate between cultivars or varieties). Fitting models to  
378 regional, rather than country-level data subsets was also done to increase resolving power of the  
379 data, especially along the temperature axis. This attention to resolving power is important as  
380 tropical countries, in particular the small and/or island nations, can show a very limited temperature  
381 ranges in space and time, resulting in spurious non-linear model fits with unrealistic parameter  
382 estimates. Hence, relatively small countries, or those for which we only had country-scale data for  
383 were grouped into regions, while large countries (covering a larger climate space) with sub-national  
384 data formed regions by themselves (e.g. India, China and Brazil). In addition, a single ‘global’  
385 model was also fitted. Here, regions were equally weighted, to account for differences in regional  
386 sample sizes.

387 Data were first fitted to equation (3) by brute force ( $10^7$  iterations), such that residual sums of  
388 squares were minimised. The observed data occupied a restricted range along the temperature axis.  
389 This range logically represents the temperature space where commercial cultivation of bananas is  
390 viable, but not necessarily the physiological limits of the banana plant. Hence, estimation of  $T_{min}$   
391 and  $T_{max}$  in equation (1) needed to be informed by expert opinion or previous estimates<sup>10,22,23</sup>.  
392 During the brute force fitting procedure,  $T_{min}$  was constrained between 10°C and 20°C, while  
393  $T_{max}$  was constrained between 30°C and 35°C. Estimation of precipitation parameters in equation  
394 (2) were not similarly constrained as land management or cultivation practices could alleviate  
395 restrictions imposed by low precipitation (use of irrigation) or high precipitation (infrastructure to

396 promote soil drainage). Hence, we assume that banana cultivation is feasible under sub-  
397 optimal/marginal precipitation conditions, subject to management intervention. As a consequence of  
398 production data including both rainfed and irrigated production systems, we treat estimated  
399 precipitation parameters with caution.

400 As parameters estimated for equation (3) by brute force may not represent a true optimised fit,  
401 estimated brute force parameters were used as starting values in a constrained non-linear least  
402 squares curve fitting function (implemented using the *Scipy optimize* module in Python 3.6).  
403 Measures of variation around estimated parameters using the curve fitting function may be  
404 unreliable as estimated parameters often fell outside the bounds of the data (e.g. bananas are  
405 unlikely to be cultivated at their physiological minimum or maximum temperatures). Hence, the  
406 non-linear curve fitting procedure was bootstrapped (100 iterations), where each iteration was fitted  
407 using a resampled dataset with replacement. These bootstrapped estimates were used for  
408 interpretation and further analyses.

409

410 *Past contribution of climate change (hindcast) and cultivation efficiency (technology) to banana*  
411 *yields*

412 Regional models from equation (3) were used to calculate modelled yield for each CRU climate  
413 dataset pixel within the GUs of interest from 1961 to 2016. These modelled annual yields were  
414 averaged at a country-scale. Where sub-national production data were available, the average yield  
415 was weighted by the area under cultivation of GUs within the country. A generalised least squares  
416 (GLS) regression was then fitted to the modelled yield data over time for each country, using the *gls*  
417 function from the *nlme* package in R. The GLS regression allowed for a 1<sup>st</sup> order autoregressive  
418 correlation structure in the residuals, to account for the correlation over time in climate data. The  
419 parameters of the GLS regression represented the climate-driven trend in yields. Modelled annual

420 yield data were then regionally averaged (weighted by area under cultivation within GUs). Regional  
421 climate-driven yield trends were then estimated using region specific GLS regressions.

422 To determine if observed yield trends were driven by changes in temperature or precipitation, the  
423 relative yield coefficients for temperature ( $R_t$ ; equation 1) and precipitation ( $R_p$ ; equation 2) were  
424 calculated for each pixel in each year from 1961 to 2016. As with the hindcast analysis above,  $R_t$   
425 and  $R_p$  were aggregated to the scale of countries. A GLS regression was then fitted to  $R_t$  and  $R_p$   
426 separately, to estimate the trends in  $R_t$  (temperature RYC trend) and  $R_p$  (precipitation RYC trend).  
427 Similarly, trends for changes in mean annual temperature and total precipitation were calculated.  
428 Country-scale temperature RYC trends and precipitation RYC trends were plotted against country-  
429 scale mean annual temperature and total precipitation trends (along with associated 95% confidence  
430 intervals) and visually inspected for consistent patterns.

431 Modelled annual country-scale yields were subtracted from annual yield data available from FAO<sup>20</sup>  
432 for each of the 27 countries in the study. As modelled yields are solely climate-determined, the  
433 resulting difference in yields ( $tYield$ ) represents the influence of ‘technology’ or cultivation  
434 efficiency on yield. We fitted a GLS regression to  $tYield$  over time and the parameter estimates of  
435 the regression represent the effect of a ‘technology trend’ on banana yields.

436 To evaluate model performance, we calculated the correlation coefficient and root mean squared  
437 error (RMSE) between (a) observed yields (country-scale) from the FAO over time and country-  
438 scale yields estimated using regional climate-yield models (hindcast yield values), and (b) observed  
439 yields (country-scale) from the FAO over time and hindcast yield values to which country-scale  
440 technology trends were added (Supplementary figure S30).

441

442 *Future climate change impacts on banana yields (forecast) and climate-risk classification*

443 The impact of future climate change on banana yields was quantified as the change in predicted  
444 yields by 2050 (future yields) relative to modelled yields given long-term average temperature and  
445 precipitation between 1970 and 2000 (current yield). Regional yield models from equation (3) were  
446 used to calculate current yield for each WorldClim 2.0 pixel within the GUs of interest. Similarly,  
447 future yields were calculated using regional models and climate data from WorldClim CMIP5  
448 downscaled projections for 2050. Future yields were predicted using downscaled data from 19  
449 GCMs representing the RCP 4.5 scenario and 17 GCMs for the RCP 8.5 scenario. Differences  
450 between current and future yields were averaged across GCMs for each pixel, and pixel-scale yield  
451 differences were averaged to country-scale (averages weighted by area under cultivation of GUs  
452 within countries were used when sub-national production data were available). Regional average  
453 yield differences were then calculated, weighted by area under cultivation.

454 Climate risk for countries was classified by combining yield differences under the RCP 8.5 scenario  
455 and estimated technology trends. This was a climate centric classification. Hence, if a country was  
456 predicted to show increases in climate-driven yields, it was classified as being at an ‘advantage’,  
457 regardless of its past technology trend. If a country was predicted to show a negative effect or no  
458 effect of climate on yields, and a past positive technology trend, it was classified as being  
459 ‘adaptable’. Lastly, if a country was predicted to show negative effects of future climate on yields,  
460 and negative or flat past technology trend, it was classified as being ‘at risk’.

461

#### 462 *Caveats and unaccounted for sources of variation*

463 The analysis presented has utilised the best and most comprehensive data sources available at the  
464 time of writing. However, we note that further improvements in available data quality would be  
465 beneficial to carry out an even more accurate and fine grained assessment. A few shortcomings of  
466 the data used include – varying spatial resolution of the datasets, non-uniform gaps in the



467 production time series for different regions and countries within regions, lack of variety specific  
468 production data, quantities of agricultural inputs and use of irrigation for cultivation. Fertilisation  
469 effects of increased CO<sub>2</sub> in the atmosphere could also have an effect on banana productivity, but has  
470 not been accounted for in our analyses. Consequently, a level of caution is required in interpreting  
471 results, especially where high variation in yield is observed across climatic gradients. For example,  
472 production data from Brazil showed a large variation across the range of mean annual temperatures  
473 and levels of total annual precipitation encompassed by the dataset. In addition, the best fit beta  
474 model for yield revealed the lowest optimum temperature (20.06°C) compared to the other regions  
475 assessed in this analysis. Such a result could be due to overlapping (and reinforcing) gradients of  
476 climatic conditions and economic indicators. Compared to the north, southern Brazil experiences  
477 cooler and more seasonal climatic conditions, and fares better in economic terms. Higher incomes  
478 in the south could facilitate greater productivity due to greater capacity for the use of agricultural  
479 inputs, and therefore, lower the estimated optimum temperature in our fitted model. Hence, model  
480 interpretation should be carried out with caution and further detailed region-/country-specific  
481 research that incorporates socio-economic variables are a logical next step.

482 Secondly, in the absence of robust experimental data, we have statistically modelled climate-yield  
483 relationships using a top-down approach and observed production data. However, it is important to  
484 note that the distribution of banana producing areas are not solely a consequence of the banana  
485 plant's physiology. Agro-economic considerations, such as available cultivation infrastructure,  
486 transport links and access to markets also influence where bananas are grown. The production data  
487 incorporate these factors, and hence, our model fits cannot be interpreted as a purely physiological  
488 climate-yield relationship. For example, cultivation efficiency and yields can be substantially be  
489 improved in drier areas with irrigation. However, the extent of irrigation in use was not accounted  
490 for in our analyses, and low optimum precipitation estimates (e.g. India) should be interpreted with  
491 care.

492 Lastly, we also acknowledge that our analyses only consider the average annual climatic condition,  
493 and do not account for seasonal variation, nor the occurrence of extreme climatic events. Future  
494 region- and country-specific research would benefit from including these parameters, especially if  
495 more detailed production data are available to cope with increased model complexity.

496

#### 497 **Code availability statement**

498 No custom code was used in the analysis.

499

#### 500 **References (*methods only*)**

- 501 31. Harris, I., Jones, P. d., Osborn, T. j. & Lister, D. h. Updated high-resolution grids of monthly  
502 climatic observations – the CRU TS3.10 Dataset. *Int. J. Climatol.* **34**, 623–642 (2014).
- 503 32. CRU high-resolution gridded datasets. Available at: <https://crudata.uea.ac.uk/cru/data/hrg/>.
- 504 33. You, L. *et al.* Spatial Production Allocation Model (SPAM) 2005 v3.2. (2018). Available at:  
505 <http://mapspam.info>.
- 506 34. Hijmans, R. J., Cameron, S. E., Parra, J. L., Jones, P. G. & Jarvis, A. Very high resolution  
507 interpolated climate surfaces for global land areas. *Int. J. Climatol.* **25**, 1965–1978 (2005).
- 508 35. CMIP5 5-minutes | WorldClim - Global Climate Data. Available at:  
509 [http://worldclim.org/CMIP5\\_5m](http://worldclim.org/CMIP5_5m).
- 510 36. Fick, S. E. & Hijmans, R. J. WorldClim 2: new 1-km spatial resolution climate surfaces for  
511 global land areas. *Int. J. Climatol.* **37**, 4302–4315 (2017).

- 512 37. WorldClim Version2 | WorldClim - Global Climate Data. Available at:  
513 <http://worldclim.org/version2>.
- 514 38. Yin, X., Kropff, M. J., McLaren, G. & Visperas, R. M. A nonlinear model for crop  
515 development as a function of temperature. *Agric. For. Meteorol.* **77**, 1–16 (1995).
- 516 39. Archontoulis, S. V. & Miguez, F. E. Nonlinear regression models and applications in  
517 agricultural research. *Agron. J.* **107**, 786–798 (2015).