The seasonal timing of warming that controls onset of the growing season

J A M E S   S .   C L A R K * † ,   J E R R Y   M E L I L L O ‡ ,   J A C Q U E L I N E   M O H A N §   and   C A R L   S A L K * ¶ ‖

*Nicholas School of the Environment, Duke University, Durham, NC 27705, USA, †Department of Statistical Science, Duke University, Durham, NC 27705, USA, ‡The Ecosystems Center, Marine Biological Laboratory, Woods Hole, MA 02543, USA, §Odum School of Ecology, University of Georgia, 517 BioSciences Bldg, Athens, GA 30602, USA

Abstract

Forecasting how global warming will affect onset of the growing season is essential for predicting terrestrial productivity, but suffers from conflicting evidence. We show that accurate estimates require ways to connect discrete observations of changing tree status (e.g., pre- vs. post budbreak) with continuous responses to fluctuating temperatures. By coherently synthesizing discrete observations with continuous responses to temperature variation, we accurately quantify how increasing temperature variation accelerates onset of growth. Application to warming experiments at two latitudes demonstrates that maximum responses to warming are concentrated in late winter, weeks ahead of the main budbreak period. Given that warming will not occur uniformly over the year, knowledge of when temperature variation has the most impact can guide prediction. Responses are large and heterogeneous, yet predictable. The approach has immediate application to forecasting effects of warming on growing season length, requiring only information that is readily available from weather stations and generated in climate models.

Introduction

Does average dormant-season temperature control spring budbreak, or will changing seasonality impact growing seasons in unexpected ways? Onset of the growing season is important in models of productivity and diversity, because plants can respond most to warming before soil moisture depletion in summer (Davi *et al.*, 2006; Delpierre *et al.*, 2009; Richardson *et al.*, 2009; Yang *et al.*, 2012). Early spring accounts for much of annual seedling photosynthesis, potentially controlling future biodiversity through its effects on recruitment (Lopez *et al.*, 2008; Kwit *et al.*, 2010). Warming experiments have been one of the largest research investments for understanding global change impacts on terrestrial productivity (Rustad, 2008; Templer & Reinmann, 2011). Evidence for changes in growing season length come both from observational studies and warming experiments, the latter having the advantage of control, randomization, and replication. However, comparisons with observational data suggest that experiments substantially underestimate advance in

budbreak (BB) (Wolkovich *et al.*, 2012). The discrepancy does not depend on species, on the specific methods used for warming, or on whether mean annual temperature (MAT) or mean spring temperature (MST) is used as the predictor. If unmeasured variables bias experimental results, then experiments should not be the basis for forecasts. A growing number of studies point out inconsistent and/or complex results from both experimental and observational data (Linkosalo *et al.*, 2006; Richardson *et al.*, 2006; Cleland *et al.*, 2007; Parmesan, 2007; Ibáñez *et al.*, 2010; Körner & Basler, 2010; Morin *et al.*, 2010; Bauerle *et al.*, 2012; Diez *et al.*, 2012; Wolkovich *et al.*, 2012). More importantly, can either approach provide answers when future climates bring novel patterns of warming in fall, winter, and early spring?

We determined that an unresolved source of error could explain why experiments and observational studies yield different answers, and that it could be resolved with a different method of analysis that quantifies changing effects of warming throughout the dormant season. Current models do not recognize the distinction between phenological development, which is continuous and responds to temperature fluctuations, and observations of development status, which implicitly treat temperature as constant between times of discrete phenological transitions (e.g., budbreak). Mean temperatures or temperature sums (degree days) summarize temperature fluctuations over an interval

¶Present address: Institute of Behavioral Science, University of Colorado, Boulder, CO 80309, USA
‖Present address: International Institute for Applied Systems Analysis, Laxenburg A-2361, Austria

Correspondence: James S. Clark, tel. +919-613-8036, e-mail: jimclark@duke.edu

with a single value for accumulated warmth, whereas plants respond continuously. We develop a continuous development model (CDM) that properly assimilates variable temperature with continuous development and discrete observations. Application to experiments at two latitudes and 15 species over 4 years identifies the critical timing of temperature exposure on a species-specific basis. We summarize why current methods can be misleading, followed by the CDM analysis that avoids bias and provides accurate predictions.

Degree-day models collapse all development into a single number, accumulated temperature preceding a specific date, because only one or a few events are observed, e.g., date of budbreak (BB). Both experiments and observational studies rely on discrete observations to estimate sensitivity, defined as BB advance in days per °C. An inherent problem with these estimates comes from the fact that continuous temperature variation has effects that are only observed as discrete states (Cleland *et al.*, 2007; Hänninen *et al.*, 2007; Lopez *et al.*, 2008; Morin *et al.*, 2010; Caffarra *et al.*, 2011; Hänninen & Tanino, 2011). Ordinal class assignments (Table S2) are recorded at intervals of several days to a week or more. Estimates of sensitivity depend on the number and definition of states recognized by the observer and on elapsed time between observations. Timing is defined as the first occasion (FO) when an individual is observed in a state, i.e. a date sometime after the transition occurred. Errors increase with the length of the interval between observations that determines the lag between the state change and the FO assigned to it. Additional error comes from difficulty assigning continuous phenological development to discrete categories (e.g., bud swelling vs. budbreak) (Linkosalo *et al.*, 2006; Richardson *et al.*, 2006). These effects of interval censoring, widely recognized in survival analysis (Cox & Oakes, 1984), are not included in phenology models.

A second problem comes from use of discrete transitions: if they are to be compared with temperature, then temperature observations must be aggregated over a season or year, such as cumulative (degree days) or mean temperature. These phenology models are limited by the fact that a single aggregate index (degree days at budbreak) does not contain sufficient information to infer multiple parameters (e.g., threshold temperatures for warming and chilling units, total units required for budburst); aspects of this problem are noted by many investigators (Hunter & Lechowicz, 1992; Hänninen, 1995; Chuine *et al.*, 1998; Bailey & Harrington, 2006; Richardson *et al.*, 2006). The timing of temperature effects begins with bud set and follows with winter chilling before breaking dormancy (Hänninen *et al.*, 2007; Hänninen & Tanino, 2011; Cooke *et al.*,

2012). The effects of temperature fluctuations are expected to have effects that change as phenological development progresses. This aggregation affects both observational and experimental studies, but the biases in a given study depend on the different definitions of sensitivity applied to them.

Observational studies typically define sensitivity β using regression, $FO_{iy} = \beta MAT_{iy} + \varepsilon_{iy}$, for individual plants $i = 1,\dots, N$ in year y, mean annual temperature MAT_{iy}, and error ε_{iy} (Wolkovich *et al.*, 2012). Estimates of β-sensitivity are not based on a control temperature, relying instead on tracking individuals over time, depending on the MAT_{iy} values that happen to occur during the study. The sensitivity estimate

$$\hat{\beta} = \text{cov}(FO_{iy}, MAT_{iy})/\text{var}(MAT_{iy}) \qquad (1)$$

is biased when fluctuating temperatures within the season or year are aggregated into a single temperature value for the entire season or year. Such aggregated temperature variables include standard degree-day models for warming and chilling requirements (e.g., Kramer, 1994; Hänninen, 1995; Chuine *et al.*, 1998; Kim & Wang, 2005; Linkosalo *et al.*, 2006; Richardson *et al.*, 2006; Hänninen *et al.*, 2007; Chuine, 2010; Morin *et al.*, 2010; Polger & Primack, 2011; Cook *et al.*, 2012; Cooke *et al.*, 2012). By reducing the variance in temperatures that control development to a mean value, aggregation reduces the denominator and thus inflates the estimate of β-sensitivity (Fig. S2c, d). Additional error introduced when the temperature variation that is important to plants is reduced to annual averages can be positive or negative. Thus, β-sensitivity estimates are inflated by aggregation, but the full effects depend on which variation is important for plants that are responding continuously to fluctuations.

For experiments, sensitivity is a ratio of differences between elevated and ambient treatments,

$$\hat{\alpha} = \frac{\overline{FO}_e - \overline{FO}_c}{T_e - T_c} \qquad (2)$$

where T and FO are temperature and the first occasion (date) of observed budbreak, respectively, in elevated (*e*) and control (*c*) treatments. The sensitivity estimate in eqn 2 is based on a difference of average FO responses (indicated by the overbar) for treatment and control, e.g., one comparison per block, per year, or per study (e.g., in a meta-analysis). Eqns 1 and 2 have the same dimension (days per °C), but the estimates differ both in mean and in distribution (Supplement). Unlike β-sensitivity, α-sensitivity benefits from temperature control. Depending on experimental design, T_e and T_c may be fixed, or T_e may track T_c as it fluctuates (Supplement). α-sensitivity does not suffer the inflation that enters eqn 1 when temperatures are averaged, at least

one of the reasons why observational studies can report larger responses. However, α-sensitivity for a treatment may not benefit from observing how the same individuals respond to different treatments. More importantly, neither approach can identify which temperature variation has important control over development; both suffer from the aggregation of temperature variation into a single index for a season or year. A belief that experiments underestimate sensitivity to warming must recognize different analyses applied to the two types of data (eqn 1 vs. eqn 2). Different analyses are motivated by the fact that observational studies cannot isolate the effects of warming on individuals subjected to different temperatures, while controlling for other variables; they can only compare budbreak dates across years, which vary in many ways, including the sequence of temperatures and all other weather-related variables. By tracking ambient temperatures over multiple years, experiments can obtain the advantages of observational studies (responses of the same individuals to multiple budbreak episodes across years) while benefiting from controlled temperature (individuals subjected to different temperatures in the same year), seed source, light availability, and study location.

In this article we summarize a model for continuous development for budbreak that combines with a discrete model for observations. We apply the model to a large phenology experiment conducted near northern and southern range limits of eastern temperate tree species. The approach allows us to identify the timing of important warming in late winter and to estimate precise effects of warming that differ by species and source populations.

Materials and Methods

Model summary

To accommodate the mismatch between continuous responses and discrete observations, we developed a CDM that exploits information on development and temperature response through time. Using a hierarchical state-space framework (Clark *et al.*, 2011), we draw inference on a (latent) continuous development state $h(t)$ for time t (days) that is related to ordinal discrete stages s_t observed at intervals (Fig. 1). Durations of discrete states and transitions between them are not linearly related to phenological development (Fig. 1a, b). The calibration of observed states s_t to continuous state $h(t)$ comes from a multinomial model. The latent development rate dh/dt responds continuously to temperature variation, as well as other predictors related to individuals (seed source) (Viherä-Aarnio *et al.*, 2005), location (Richardson *et al.*, 2006; Cleland *et al.*, 2007; Ibáñez *et al.*, 2010) and past weather (extent and duration of chilling of the preceding winter) (Hänninen *et al.*, 2007; Hänninen & Tanino, 2011). The important interval

censoring is automatic, because the model correctly interprets observations as states and not as transitions–states are observed, transitions must be estimated (Supplement). The model is a multinomial hidden Markov Model, a type of
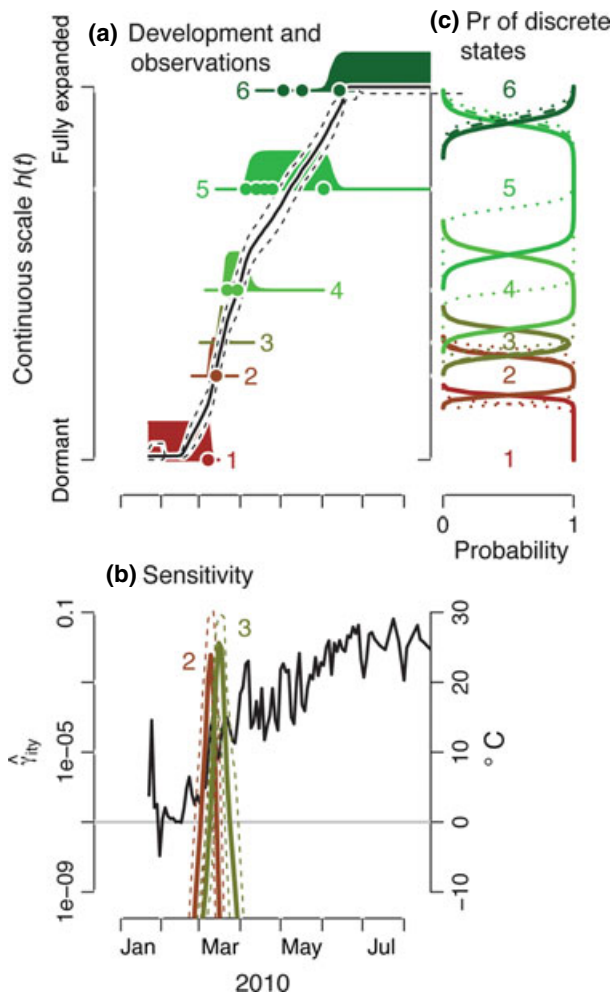

Fig. 1 Relationship between discrete observational states and continuous development. (a) Observations of discrete states $s_t = 1,\ldots,6$ are dots (state 3 is budbreak) for a randomly selected *Acer rubrum* tree, subjected to +3 °C treatment at Duke Forest. Continuous development $h(t)$ is shown as the posterior mean (solid line) and 95% credible interval (dashed lines). Development proceeds when temperatures are above 0 °C (black in c). Also in (b) are shown γ-sensitivity estimates for state 2 (brown) and state 3 (green), with 95% predictive intervals. (c) The probability of being in each discrete state given developmental state $h(t)$ applies to all individuals of the species. Lines are posterior predictive mean (solid), 95% predictive interval (dashed), and prior values (dotted). The latent h scale expands and compresses to relate timing of discrete observations and continuous development. The probabilities for each state $P(s_t|h)$ in (c) are shown as shaded curves in (a), the probability that the individual is in each state on a particular day $P(s_t|h_{iy}(t))$.

hierarchical state-space model. For simplicity, we refer to it as a continuous development model (CDM).

Predictors in the model are daily average temperature, seed source, temperature-seed source interactions, and chilling units. Temperature is an individual/day-scale variable. Seed source is an individual-scale variable, making the temperature-seed source interaction also individual and day. Seed source is a factor for geographic sources north vs. south of the 40°N parallel. Chilling units is an individual and year scale variable, taking to be chilling units accumulated during the preceding winter (Supplement). Soil moisture and vapor pressure deficit were monitored but they do not explain spring phenology in our region, because soil moisture remains near field capacity throughout the time of spring development. Summer droughts do occur, but detectable effects are limited to fall phenology, not spring. This observation is consistent with other studies of spring phenology in moist temperate regions (Cleland *et al.*, 2007). Snow cover was not included because snow was correlated with temperature in this study. Unlike weather station data, which would show large temperature fluctuations throughout winter, our sensors are within the same chambers and at the same heights as plants. Temperatures remain nearly constant during the period of snow cover. Station temperature data would miss this relationship.

Any model can only provide a crude representation of how variation in temperature affects a cumulative process, such as spring phenology. However, the common thermal (degree-day) models and regression models summarize the entire process by one aggregate number for a season or year, the CDM is more sophisticated, but still simple. The 'memory' in the model is the changing state of the organism $h(t)$, which responds to all fluctuations in temperature. Development can commence when a threshold is reached, accelerate on warm days, and decline to zero on cold days. Temperate effects can interact with other environmental variables and attributes of the individual. These effects of daily responses culminate in a discrete event (budbreak), but the entire history of fluctuations control the event, rather than a single number.

We evaluate the three ways to quantify effects of warming using experimental data. We describe the experimental methods followed by application of a new (CDM) to identify timing of warming effects and how they vary within and between species.

Experimental methods

Experimental warming was implemented at two sites, one each in the southern and northern ranges of North America's eastern deciduous forest. The southern site, Duke Forest (DF), is near Hillsborough, North Carolina (36.0°N, 79.1°W; elevation 180 m) and has a mean annual temperature of 14.5 °C and annual precipitation of 1208 mm, nearly all of which falls as rain. The northern site, Harvard Forest (HF), is in Petersham, Massachusetts (42.5°N, 72.2°W; elevation 340 m), and has a mean annual temperature of 7.5 °C with 1183 mm of precipitation. At Harvard Forest, snow cover is typical from December to March.

The experiment used a factorial design to provide replication of three chambers each for all combinations of three temperatures (ambient, ambient + 3 °C, and ambient + 5 °C), and two light levels (gap and understory) for a total of 18 chambers per site. Individual responses to warming treatments were tracked by following seeds through germination and growth, with a special focus on phenology. Air and soil were directly and independently heated.

At each site, we created an artificial gap in the summer of 2008 by removing all trees with minimal soil disruption. Within each gap and intact-canopy stand, we constructed nine rectangular open-topped chambers measuring 5.1 m × 3.2 m. Within each chamber, two 4.6 m × 1.05 m areas were designated as 'experimental strips' for soil heating and seed establishment. Chamber walls consist of transparent plastic greenhouse sheeting attached to wooden frames, with heights of 2.5 m in the gap and 1.5 m in the understory to accommodate different growth rates in the two locations. Three temperature treatments, designated ambient, +3, and +5 were randomly assigned to the chambers within gap and understory light treatments. Three additional control plots had no chamber but did have coarse mesh fencing to exclude large herbivores.

Soil and air were heated with independent systems to track ambient temperatures with the consistent +3 °C and +5 °C offsets. Soil was heated with electric resistance cable buried 10 cm deep at 20 cm spacing (Melillo *et al.*, 2002). Temperature offsets were maintained by an automated tracking system. Ambient chambers received buried cables as a disturbance control, but they were not heated. Air was heated indirectly with propane. Heated water with nontoxic propylene glycol was pumped to a heat-exchange coil and air-flow system in +3 and +5 chambers. Air circulating through the ambient chambers was not heated. The temperature offset was maintained by a defined heat delivery rate. By tracking ambient temperatures, warming treatments contain the same fluctuations in temperature, but simply translate them to a larger mean.

Environmental variables monitored in each chamber included soil and air temperatures. Control of soil temperature in the heated chambers was excellent (±1 °C of target), whereas control of the air temperature was less precise, in part due to air scooping on windy days (Fig. 2).

The 17 m² rectangular chambers were gridded into 14 columns and 30 rows at 15 cm spacing, resulting in 420 planting locations along an unplanted access. Cohorts were established annually from seed, beginning in 2009, obtained from sites across eastern North America. For purposes of seed provenance analysis, they were classified as northern and southern source, defined by 40°N latitude. A summary of species, numbers of individuals by species and source populations, and numbers of observations per individual are summarized in Table 1. Seeds from each source were planted in equal numbers at each site. Planting occurred at the times of seed dispersal for each species in the mineral soil horizon at grid locations. Each year existing cohorts were amended with new planting, replacing losses due to death and selective harvest for analysis. Naturally recruited seedlings were also marked and monitored at both sites.
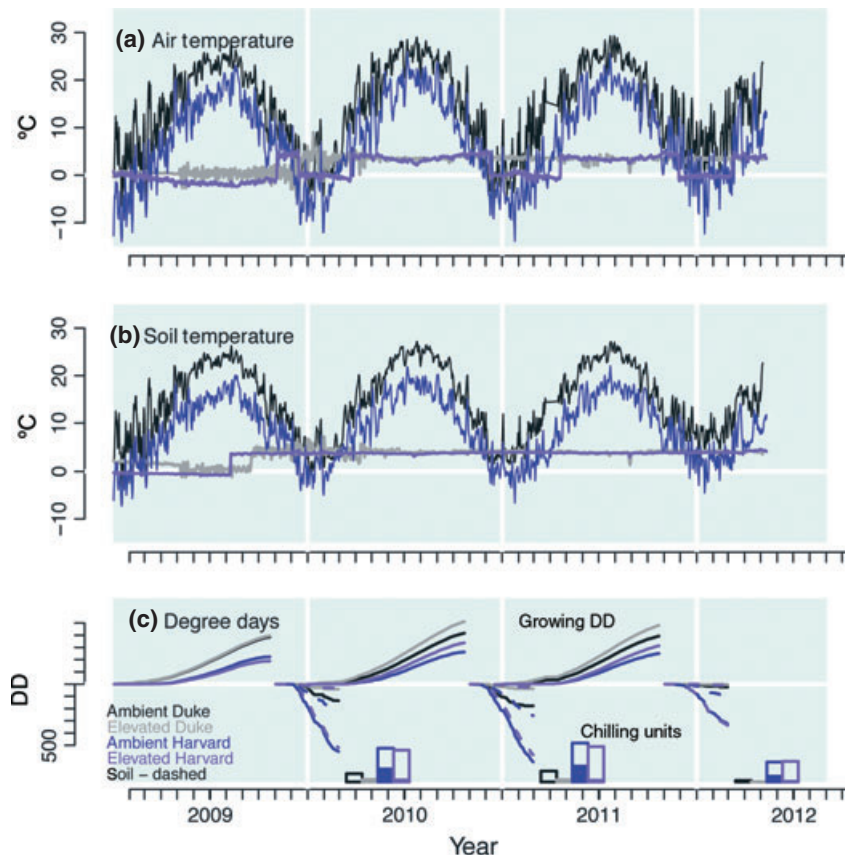
Fig. 2 Temperature and chilling units for both sites. Mean air (**a**) and soil (**b**) temperatures for ambient and elevated (+5 °C) chambers at Duke Forest and Harvard Forest. Elevated treatments are shown as departures from ambient. (c) Growing degree days (positive values) and chilling units (negative values).

Table 1 Sample sizes and models having the lowest deviance information criterion for the CDM. Species codes follow Fig. 2 of the main text. All models include air temperature. Model codes are chill – chilling parameter, seed – seed source, and T X seed for a temperature : seed-source interaction. Species are listed in order of model complexity

Species	Model	Number of trees	Tree years	Number of populations	
				Southern	Northern
List	–	124	383	4	0
Beal	Chill	344	950	0	3
Bepa	Chill	123	359	0	1
Litu	Chill	311	933	6	1
Magr	Chill	69	153	2	1
Pipa	Chill	40	105	3	0
Pire	Chill	62	196	0	1
Pita	Chill	283	838	3	0
Acru	Chill seed T X seed	1649	4260	4	3
Acsa	Chill seed T X seed	191	391	5	3
Fram	Chill seed T X seed	161	321	4	3
Nysy	Chill seed T X seed	148	339	5	3
Pist	Chill seed T X seed	241	685	2	3
Qual	Chill seed T X seed	980	2659	5	2
Quru	Chill seed T X seed	246	622	4	4

Weekly censuses enabled us to quantify germination, demographic, and phenological responses to warming in each experimental year (2009–2012). The opening of buds and development of leaves in the spring were scored on a scale of 1 (no bud activity) to 6 (fully hardened and expanded leaves) (Norby *et al.*, 2003). The six discrete stages of phenological development are included in Table 2. These stages were assigned to each individual at each census. Phenology observations included in the analysis omit the germination year, to avoid effects that could be related to the precise timing of planting and germination. Seed source was a predictor only for individuals having at least 10 survivors from three or more populations both north and south. Whether or not seed source was including in the final model was determined by model selection (and whether or not sufficient seedlings survived from enough sources).

Temperatures, growing degree days, and chilling units for the experimental chambers are shown in Figure 2. Growing degree days accumulate over the season. In degree-day models, a degree-day value is used for the date on which an event occurred (e.g., budbreak), representing the sum of daily temperatures above a threshold value.

The chilling requirement was evaluated according to standard practice for degree-day models, as the accumulated temperatures below a threshold temperature of 0 °C (e.g., Linkosalo *et al.*, 2006). The degree-day sums are shown with temperature by site and year in Fig. 2c. Chilling units are defined as the sum of daily temperatures below a threshold taken up to 1 January. Chilling units are large for Harvard Forest, especially in 2011, and small for 2012, exceptionally warm at both sites. The degree days and chilling units in Fig. 2c are examples of aggregate values discussed in the Introduction – they collapse all of the variation in Fig. 2a into a single number for a given year. The CDM uses the full variation provided by all combinations of chambers, sites, treatments, and years. Analytical methods are available in the SI text.

Results

Effects of aggregation on temperature data are dramatic (Fig. 3). To isolate the effect of aggregation, as opposed to the error that comes from using weather data distant from the site, we used temperatures experienced by each plant. Smoothed daily temperatures vary substantially over the 4 years, with the largest anomalies occurring during the critical period of spring development (Fig. 3a, b). This variation does not survive the averaging that results in aggregate values (left side of Fig. 3c, d). The loss of variation through aggregation affects both the mean and variance (eqn S1). By substituting MST for MAT as the predictor, we increase variation (center of Fig. 3c, d), and change estimates (open bars of Fig. 4). Not just the variance but also the mean is changed by the shift from MAT to MST. For example, the year 2010 is warmer than 2011 at Harvard Forest based on MAT, whereas the reverse is true based on MST. Both MAT and MST fail to capture the important variation, clearly evident at the daily scale (right side of Fig. 3c, d). A sense of the effect of these different predictors on slope β is gained from the comparison of regression lines that generate them in Fig. S2. Estimates are summarized in Table S1, based on MAT and MST.

The CDM provides estimates of γ-sensitivity, allowing for uncertainty in development, parameters, observations, and variability among individuals (Fig. 1A). In contrast to α- and β-sensitivity, which must omit variation (because only FO is known), γ-sensitivity quantifies the effect of temperature on rate of progress toward BB,

$$\gamma_{iyt} = \frac{\text{increased}\Pr(\text{budbreak})/\text{day}}{\text{increased} \text{temperature}} \quad (3)$$

for the probability that tree i in year y has reached BB (state 3 in Fig 1A) by day t (Supplement, eqn S9). Information on this progress arrives daily, in temperature observations, and at each census interval, in terms of the changing statuses of all individuals in the study, which are properly interpreted as current states, with observation error. Individual γ-sensitivity increases early in the season and subsequently declines (Fig. 1b) (Supplement).

The CDM identifies large species differences. The variables contained in the selected model, based on DIC, are shown in Table 1. Estimates of γ-sensitivity aggregated at the species level span an order of magnitude (solid bars in Fig. 4a), and they are confidently estimated (Fig. S3a). Spring warming disproportionately advances the growing season for *Acer saccharum*, *Betula papyrifera*, *Quercus rubra*, and *Fraxinus americana*. γ-sensitivity depends on temperatures of the preceding winter (Fig. 4b) and on interactions with source population (blue vs. black bars in Fig. 4a). With one exception (*Pinus strobus*) species having a significant seed source effect show greater sensitivity to warming in southern populations. Chilling responses expected from physiological understanding have been difficult to identify (Hänninen *et al.*, 2007; Hänninen & Tanino, 2011). Their effects

Table 2 Six stages of phenology used in this study following Norby *et al.* (2003)

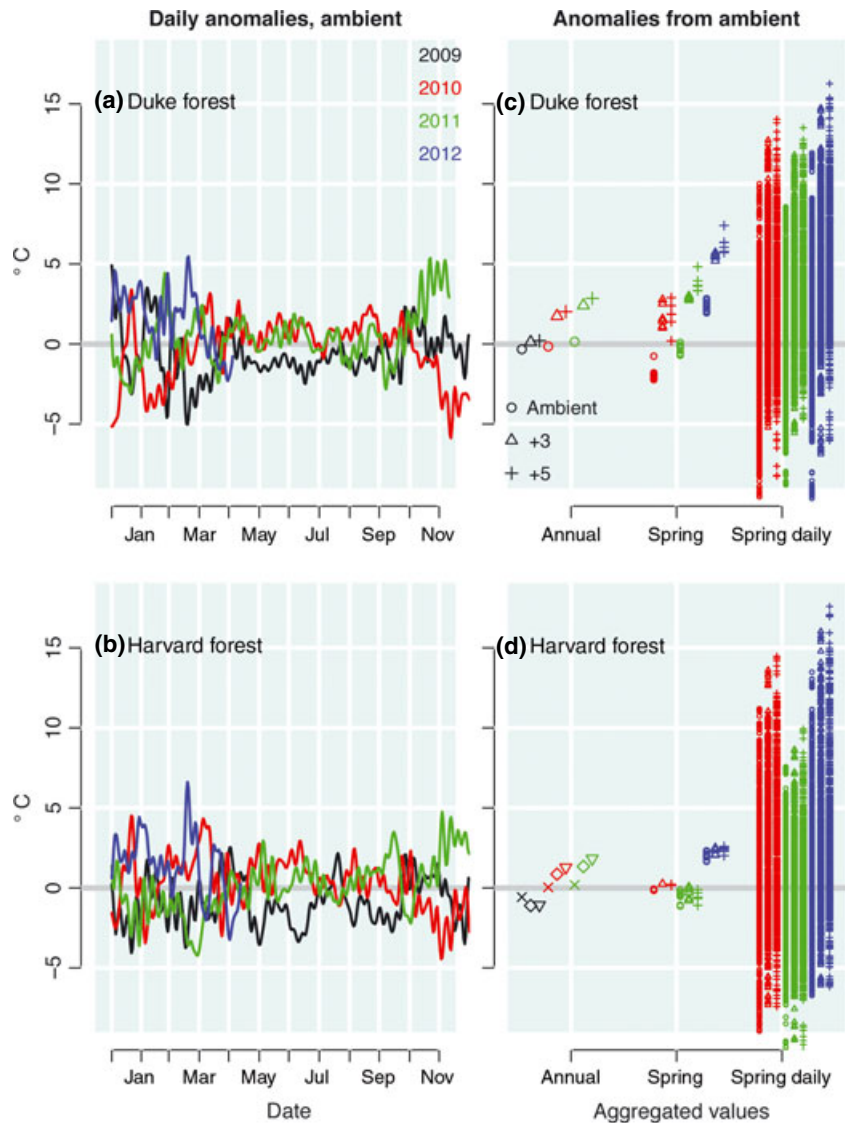| Stage	Hardwoods	Conifers
1	No visible bud swelling	No bud expansion
2	Bud swelling	Stem elongating
3	Bud break has occurred	Needles have emerged from sheathes
4	Leaves unfolding	Needles partly elongated
5	Leaves open, not fully expanded	Needles mostly elongated but unhardened
6	Fully expanded	Needles hardened

Fig. 3 Temperature anomalies by site and year. Each curve is calculated as departure from the average across years for that site and date in (a) and (b). In (c) and (d) are shown the differences in temperatures that result from aggregating at annual (left), spring seasonal (center), or daily (right) scales for the three treatment levels.

on continuous development are confidently estimated using the CDM (Fig. S4b). The largest positive values for *Acer saccharum*, *Nyssa sylvatica*, and *Fraxinus americana* suggests that these species might experience unsatisfied chilling requirements during warm winters.

Because we estimate sensitivity by all methods using the same data we can confirm that methods themselves introduce strong biases. α- and β-sensitivity estimates do not agree with one another or with γ-sensitivity (Fig. 4A). The differences in β estimates that come from using MAT vs. MST exceed the average differences between species. In some cases they differ in sign. The

disagreement between them, together with knowledge that they cannot discriminate important temperature variation, makes both α- and β-sensitivity hard to interpret. Neither provides information on the timing of temperature variation that controls budbreak.

The CDM identifies a critical period in late winter/early spring (Fig. 5a). Each individual follows an arc of temperature response, which increases from low values in autumn through midwinter, and then declines from late winter until the time of BB (Fig. 1b). Maximum values are predicted later at northern sites (blue lines in Fig. 5), and they anticipate the main period of budbreak by several weeks.
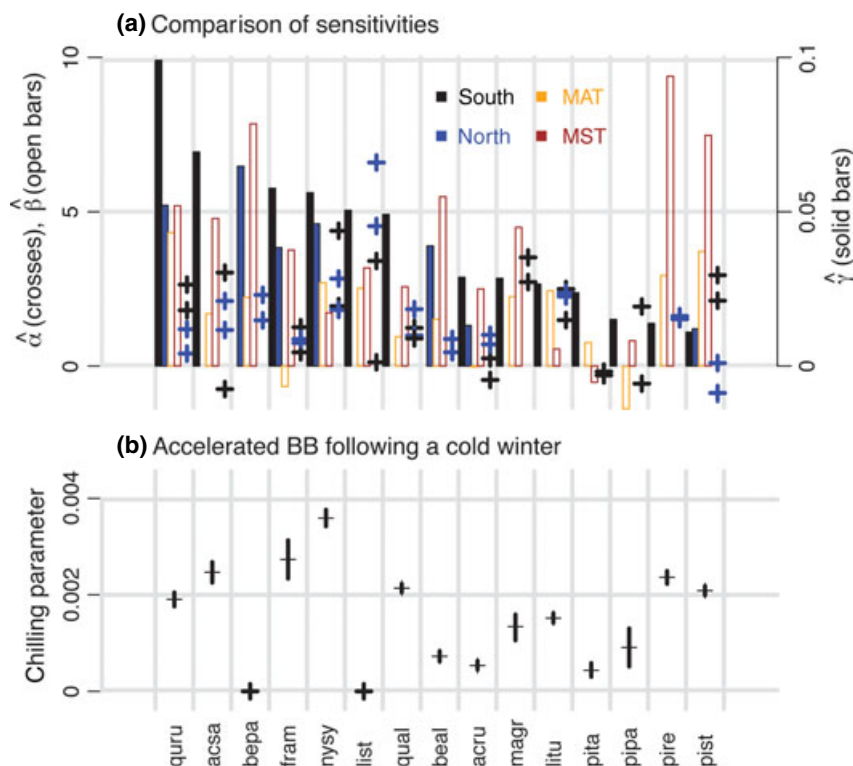
Fig. 4 Temperature sensitivity γ and effect of previous winter chilling on development rate. (a) Ranked temperature response γ (solid bars) differs from that obtained from previous models that omit temperature variation. Where seed source is a significant variable in the model, southern populations (solid black) are more sensitive than northern populations (solid blue). β-sensitivity using MAT (orange) or MST (1 January–15 May, brown) as the predictor produce a different ranking of species sensitivities, and they differ from each other. Alpha-sensitivity (crosses) range from negative to positive values with large standard errors (Supplement). Up to four crosses per species show results for +3 and +5 °C treatments at Duke (black) and Harvard (blue). (b) Cold and long winters accelerate phenology (positive chilling coefficients). Species codes are acru (*Acer rubrum*), acsa (*A. saccharum*), beal (Betula alleghaniensis), bepa (*Betula papyrifera*), fram (*Fraxinus americana*), list (*Liquidambar styraciflua*), litu (*Liriodendron tulipifera*), magr (*Magnolia grandiflora*), nysy (*Nyssa sylvatica*), pipa (*Pinus palustris*), pire (*P. resinosa*), pist (*P. strobus*), pita (*P. taeda*), qual (*Quercus alba*), quru (*Q. rubrum*).

Discussion

There are several broad implications for warming climate and phenology that result from a model of continuous responses to temperature coupled with discrete observations. First, the most accurate and rapid prediction tool for future phenology could focus on a specific period in late winter (Fig. 5). The timing will differ regionally, but the generalization holds for our sites in both northern and southern parts of the eastern deciduous forest.

Second, the apparent conflict between experiments and observational studies results from the different ways data are analyzed. Both yield valuable data, but must be modeled appropriately. The changing effect of temperature throughout development is sufficiently diluted and changed by aggregation as to distort relationships. The correlation between MAT and BB is too low to be useful for prediction (Fig. 5b). The

upward bias in observational studies relative to experiments is apparent when the different analyses are applied to the same results (β open bars are more often larger than α crosses in Fig. 4a than not), but the loss of information caused by aggregating temperature is not limited to this systematic bias. Our approach can be applied to both; we used experimental data for this application, because it allowed us to compare individuals from the same and different (but known) geographic sources to different combinations of temperature treatment.

Third, clear species differences are resolved (Fig 4 and Fig. S4); in traditional approaches aggregation results in broadly overlapping estimates of response, whereas the CDM finds clear distinction. We have not exhausted all alternative assumptions that could be applied to phenology data. For example, one might test for the correlations between all combinations of vaverage monthly temperatures and budbreak dates.
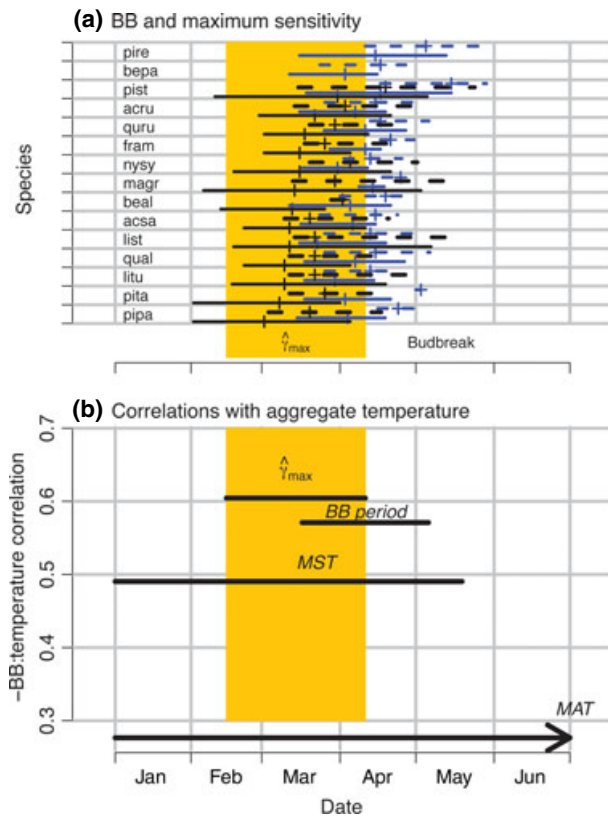
Fig. 5 Timing of maximum sensitivity to warming and budbreak. (a) Period of 95% maximum sensitivity to warming (solid bars) and budbreak (dashed lines) by species for Duke Forest (black) and Harvard Forest (blue) with median values (crosses). Orange shading indicates 95% maximum sensitivity aggregated over species and sites. (b) Negative correlation between temperature indices used to predict timing of BB are weaker than that predicted by γ-sensitivity from the CDM.

The limitation of such an approach is the fact that it still relies on a highly aggregated predictor for an event that depends on continuous development. We have used several example indices common in the literature (Fig. 3) to make the point that a continuous model avoids the aggregation problem entirely.

Fourth, the CDM captures the effects of variation in a way that can be directly implemented in predictive modeling. Future warming will not occur uniformly throughout the year. For example, the southeastern US, which was been slow to warm on average, has witnessed a large increase in climate variation (Li *et al.*, 2011). The CDM captures this variation and predicts that winter warming can accelerate onset of growth, despite small interannual differences in MAT (Fig. 4B and Supplement). Our approach quantifies these effects under current and experimental conditions and, thus, provides guidance not available from other methods. The CDM approach can be applied as a simple

rule-of-thumb predictive interval (Fig. 3) or implemented in models that track daily weather (Fig. 1).

The CDM finding that there is a consistent critical period of temperature variation that differs from currently used indices needs evaluation. If the CDM prediction of critical timing in late winter (Fig. 5a) is correct, then temperatures of this period should be more strongly correlated with BB timing than those based on other intervals. We compared results with temperatures aggregated over the season until the time of BB, as used in degree-day models (Linkosalo *et al.*, 2006; Delpierre *et al.*, 2009; Ibáñez *et al.*, 2010; Morin *et al.*, 2010; Wolkovich *et al.*, 2012) and closely overlapping MST, and with other intervals commonly used in phenology analysis, including MAT and the period when BB is occurring. Although the CDM is calibrated to information throughout the season, and not specifically to BB, we find that it does in fact predict timing better than the traditional indices that are directly calibrated to FO data (Fig. 5B).

Future applications of the model to observational data will extend interpretation to new sites. This first application to experimental data provides opportunity to compare the different methods used to analyze phenology data where both types of analysis can be directly compared.

Acknowledgements

References

Bailey JD, Harrington CA (2006) Temperature regulation of bud-burst phenology within and among years in a young Douglas-fir (*Pseudotsuga menziesii*) plantation in western Washington, USA. *Tree Physiology*, **26**, 421–430.

Bauerle WL, Oren R, Way DA *et al.* (2012) Photoperiodic regulation of the seasonal pattern of photosynthetic capacity and the implications for carbon cycling. *PNAS*, **109**, 8612–8617.

Caffarra A, Donnelly A, Chuine I (2011) Modelling the timing of *Betula pubescens* budburst. II. Integrating complex effects of photoperiod into process-based models. *Climate Research*, **46**, 159–170.

Chuine I (2010) Why does phenology drive species distribution? *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences*, **365**, 3149–3160.

Chuine I, Cour P, Rousseau DD (1998) Fitting models predicting dates of flowering of temperate-zone trees using simulated annealing. *Plant Cell and Environment*, **21**, 455–466.

Clark JS, Agarwal PK, Bell DM *et al.* (2011) Inferential ecosystem models, from network data to prediction. *Ecological Applications*, **21**, 1523–1536.

Cleland EE, Chuine I, Menzel A, Mooney HA, Schwartz MD (2007) Shifting plant phenology in response to global change. *Trends in Ecology & Evolution*, **22**, 357.

Cook BI, Wolkovich EM, Parmesan C (2012) Divergent responses to spring and winter warming drive community level flowering trends. *PNAS*, **109**, 9000–9005.

Cooke JEK, Eriksson ME, Junttila O (2012) The dynamic nature of bud dormancy in trees: environmental control and molecular mechanisms. *Plant, Cell and Environment*, **35**, 1707–1728.

Cox DR, Oakes D (1984) *Analysis of Survival Data* Chapman and Hall, London.

Davi H, Dufrene E, Francois C *et al.* (2006) Sensitivity of water and carbon fluxes to climate changes from 1960 to 2100 in European forest ecosystems. *Agricultural and Forest Meteorology*, **141**, 35–56.

Delpierre N, Soudani K, Francois C *et al.* (2009) Exceptional carbon uptake in European forests during the warm spring of 2007: a data-model analysis. *Global Change Biology*, **15**, 1455–1474.

Diez JM, Ibáñez I, Miller-Rushing AJ *et al.* (2012) Forecasting phenology: from species variability to community patterns. *Ecology Letters*, **15**, 545–553.

Hänninen H (1995) Effects of climatic change on trees from cool and temperate regions: an ecophysiological approach to modelling of bud burst phenology. *Canadian Journal of Botany*, **73**, 183–199.

Hänninen H, Tanino K (2011) Tree seasonality in a warming climate. *Trends Plant Science*, **16**, 412–416.

Hänninen H, Slaney M, Linder S (2007) Dormancy release of Norway spruce under climatic warming: testing ecophysiological models of bud burst with a whole-tree chamber experiment. *Tree Physiology*, **27**, 291–300.

Hunter AF, Lechowicz MJ (1992) Predicting the timing of budburst in temperate trees. *Journal of Applied Ecology*, **29**, 597–604.

Ibáñez I, Primack RB, Miller-Rushing AJ *et al.* (2010) Forecasting phenology under global warming. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London*, **365**, 3247–3260.

Kim Y, Wang G (2005) Modeling seasonal vegetation variation and its validation against moderate resolution imaging spectroradiometer (MODIS) observations over North America. *Journal of Geophysical Research*, **110**, D04106. doi:10.1029/2004JD005436.

Körner K, Basler D (2010) Phenology under global warming. *Science*, **327**, 1461–1462.

Kramer K (1994) Selecting a model to predict the onset of growth of Fagus sylvatica. *Journal of Applied Ecology*, **31**, 172–181.

Kwit MC, Rigg LS, Goldblum D (2010) Sugar maple seedling carbon assimilation at the northern limit of its range: the importance of seasonal light. *Canadian Journal of Forest Research*, **40**, 385–393.

Li W, Li L, Fu R, Deng Y, Wang H (2011) Changes to the North Atlantic subtropical high and its role in the intensification of summer rainfall variability in the Southeastern United States. *Journal of Climate*, **24**, 1499–1506.

Linkosalo T, Häkkinen R, Hänninen H (2006) Models of the spring phenology of boreal and temperate trees: Is there something missing? *Tree Physiology*, **26**, 1165–1172.

Lopez OR, Farris-Lopez K, Montgomery RA, Givnish TJ (2008) Leaf phenology in relation to canopy closure in southern Appalachian trees. *Amer J Botany*, **95**, 1395–1407.

Melillo JM, Steudler PA, Aber JD *et al.* (2002) Soil warming and carbon-cycle feedbacks to the climate system. *Science*, **298**, 2173–2176.

Morin X, Roy J, Sonie L, Chuine I (2010) Changes in leaf phenology of three European oak species in response to experimental climate change. *New Phytologist*, **186**, 900–910.

Norby RJ, Hartz-Rubin JS, Verbrugge MJ (2003) Phenological responses in maple to experimental atmospheric warming and CO2 enrichment. *Global Change Biology*, **9**, 1792–1801.

Parmesan C (2007) Influences of species, latitudes and methodologies on estimates of phenological response to global warming. *Global Change Biology*, **13**, 1860–1872.

Polger CA, Primack RB (2011) Leaf-out phenology of temperate woody plants: from trees to ecosystems. *New Phytologist*, **191**, 926–941.

Richardson AD, Hollinger DY, Dail DB, Lee JT, Munger JW, O'Keefe J (2009) Influence of spring phenology on seasonal and annual carbon balance in two contrasting New England forests. *Tree Physiology*, **29**, 321–331.

Richardson AD, Bailey AS, Denny EG, Martin CW, O'Keefe J (2006) Phenology of a northern hardwood forest canopy. *Global Change Biology*, **12**, 1174–1178.

Rustad L (2008) The response of terrestrial ecosystems to global climate change: towards an integrated approach. *Sci Total Environm*, **404**, 222–235.

Templer PH, Reinmann AB (2011) Multi-factor global change experiments: what have we learned about terrestrial carbon storage and exchange? *New Phytologist*, **192**, 797–800.

Viherä-Aarnio A, Häkkinen R, Partanen J, Luomajoki A, Koski V (2005) Effects of seed origin and sowing time on timing of height growth cessation of *Betula pendula* seedlings. *Tree Physiology*, **25**, 101–108.

Wolkovich EM, Cook BI, Allen JM *et al.* (2012) Warming experiments underpredict plant phenological responses to climate change. *Nature*, doi:10.1038/nature11014.

Yang X, Mustard JF, Tang J, Hong X (2012) Regional-scale phenology modeling based on meteorological records and remote sensing observations. *Journal of Geophysical Research*, **117**, G03029. doi:10.1029/2012JG001977.