Reconciling competing hypotheses regarding flower-leaf sequences in temperate forests for fundamental and global change biology

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Summary

Phenology is a major component of an organism's fitness. While individual phenological events affect fitness, growing evidence suggests that the relationship between events may be equally or more important. This may explain why temperate deciduous woody plants exhibit considerable variation in the order of reproductive and vegetative events, or flower-leaf sequences (FLSs). There is evidence to suggest that FLSs may be adaptive, with several competing hypotheses to explain their function. Here, we advance existing hypotheses with a new framework that accounts for quantitative FLS variation at multiple taxonomic scales using case studies from temperate forests. Our inquiry provides several major insights towards a better understanding of FLS variation. First, we show that support for FLS hypotheses is sensitive to how FLSs are defined, with quantitative definitions being the most useful for robust hypothesis testing. Second, we demonstrate that concurrent support for multiple hypotheses should be starting point for future FLS analyses. Finally, we highlight how adopting a quantitative, intra-specific approach generates new avenues for evaluating fitness consequences of FLS variation and provides cascading benefits to improving predictions of how climate change will alter FLSs and thereby re-shape plant communities and ecosystems.

30 Introduction

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Phenology, the timing of seasonal life cycle events, allows organisms to synchronize their activity with optimum environmental conditions (Forrest & Miller-Rushing, 2010). It is not only individual phenological stages that affect an organism's performance, but also their chronology (Ettinger et al., 2018; Firmat et al., 2017; Vitasse et al., 2010).

One phenological relationship that has long received scientific interest (see Robertson, 1895) and, recently, increased attention (e.g. Gougherty & Gougherty, 2018; Savage, 2019) is the flower-leaf phenological sequence (FLS) of temperate deciduous woody plants. In a typical model of plant life-history, vegetative growth precedes reproduction. However, for many species in the forests of

Eastern North America (and other temperate regions of the Northern Hemisphere), it is not the green tips of new shoots that mark the commencement of the growing season, but the subtle colors of flowers. Previous work by Gougherty & Gougherty (2018) found that as many as 30% of tree species of the Midwestern United States flower prior to leafout. The prevalence of this FLS may be surprising as it requires plants to invest in reproduction from stored carbohydrates at a time when their reserves are most depleted (Primack, 1987), but this trade-off suggests that flowering-first has some adaptive significance (Rathcke & Lacey, 1985).

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Understanding this phenological pattern is timely because anthropogenic climate change is altering
FLSs. Long-term data shows that the number of days between flowering and leafout is increasing
as a result of climate change, but the rate of change differs up to five-fold among species, with
flowering-first species seemingly more sensitive to climate change (Fig. 1). If FLSs are indeed an
important component of woody plant fitness, this inter-specific variation will exacerbate fitness
differences between species, influencing which species will persist under altered climate conditions.

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Long-term datasets also demonstrate high within-species variability in FLSs. Despite recent advances in understanding the physiology and evolution of FLSs (Gougherty & Gougherty, 2018; Savage, 2019), most analyses have not directly addressed this variability—potentially slowing progress in predicting how FLSs will respond to climate change. While the literature provides some general correlations between flower and leaf phenology (e.g. Ettinger et al., 2018; Lechowicz, 1995), there have been few, if any, analyses of higher-resolution patterns (Gougherty & Gougherty, 2018).

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We propose a new framework for the study of FLSs built on quantitative measures of both interand intra-specific FLS variation. This shift will improve predictions of how FLS patterns will change in the future, and may reveal novel avenues to better understand the fundamental biology of this phenological sequence. Here we 1) review hypotheses of the function of FLS variation 2) evaluate the biological basis of the current categorical FLS framework and 3) present our proposed

- 67 quantitative framework using a detailed case study of long-term phenology records from Harvard
- 68 Forest in Petersham, MA.

⁶⁹ Hypotheses for flower-leaf sequence variation

wind pollination

- 71 The most prevalent FLS hypothesis suggests that flowering-first is an adaptation for wind-pollination,
- vith leafless flowering allowing for more efficient pollen transfer (Whitehead, 1969)(Fig. 2a). The
- primary evidence for this hypothesis comes from pollen diffusion studies (e.g., particle movement
- through closed and open canopies, Milleron et al., 2012; Niklas, 1985) and suggests canopy structure
- encumbers pollen movement.

76 Water limitation

- 77 Another hypothesis suggests that flowering before leaf development is an adaptation to reduce
- vater stress caused by concurrently maintaining floral hydration and leaf transpiration (Franklin,
- 79 2016) (Fig. 2b). Observations from the dry tropics, where this FLS is also common, confirm that
- the timing of flowering in many species is associated with a water status recovery due to leaf drop
- 81 (Borchert, 1983; Reich & Borchert, 1984), and that flower tissue is more resistance to drought
- damage than leaf tissue (Zhang & Brodribb, 2017). Despite the fact that temperate forests are
- rarely water-limited during the spring when flowering and leafing occur (Polgar & Primack, 2011),
- a recent analysis by Gougherty & Gougherty (2018) found strong associations between flowering-
- 85 first and water use traits for temperate species. This suggests that this hypothesis merits broader
- so consideration and further development for the temperate zone as well (see Supporting Information
- 87 Methods S1, "The water limitation hypothesis in wet temperate forests").

88 Early flowering

A third possibility is that the flowering-first FLS is a byproduct of selection for early flowering (Fig. 2c). Flowering-first species are among the earliest in a community to flower seasonally, which may be an adaptation to accommodate later phenological events such as the maturation of large fruits or seeds (Ettinger et al., 2018; Li et al., 2016; Primack, 1987) or avoiding seed predation (Schermer et al., 2020). This may be particularly important at the high latitudes where selection on flowering time is strong due to a shorter growing season (Munguia-Rosas et al., 2011). Recent work from Savage (2019) demonstrated that spring flower phenology is less constrained by prior phenological events than leaf phenology, which would allow selection to drive flowering into the early season, producing the flowering-first FLS. With this hypothesis there is no specific advantage to a species flowering before or after leafing; all that matters is its absolute flowering time.

99 Constraints

The previous hypotheses suggest that a flowering-first FLS may be adaptive, but the greater diver-100 sity of FLS patterns observed in temperate forests may be the product of phylogenetic (Gougherty 101 & Gougherty, 2018) or physical (Diggle, 1995, 1999; van Schaik et al., 1993) constraints among 102 species (Fig. 2d). It is possible that FLSs are highly conserved traits for which FLS variation 103 reflects macro-evolutionary relationships among taxa. If this is the case, we would expect to see a 104 strong phylogenetic signal for FLS variation as was reported in a recent analysis by Gougherty & 105 Gougherty (2018). A strong phylogenetic pattern in FLS would not preclude any of the adaptive hypotheses presented above, as many different evolutionary processes can yield comparable phylo-107 genetic signals (Revell et al., 2008). 108

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Phylogenetic patterning for FLSs may be driven by developmental or architectural differences among species. For example, the reproductive phenology of species that produce flower from axilary buds set in previous season may be more independent of leaf phenology than species with determinate growth (Borchert, 1983; Rathcke & Lacey, 1985; van Schaik et al., 1993). Previous work also has suggested that differences in xylem anatomy may constrain spring phenology (Lechowicz, 1995), though Savage (2019) determined that for 20 spring-flowering species, reproductive buds were hydrated primarily by the phloem, suggesting the flowering-first FLS may be independent of xylem activity.

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Evidence to date

While decades of inquiry have advanced each of these hypotheses independently, there is no clear consensus regarding their comparative merits. Most previous studies on FLSs have not compared hypotheses, and those that did have generally found support for multiple hypotheses (see Bolmgren et al., 2003; Gougherty & Gougherty, 2018). There is no expectation that FLS hypotheses must be mutually exclusive. Indeed, understanding the relative importance of each one and the relationships between them may provide the most useful path forward, if they can be robustly compared.

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We argue that a sensible reconciliation of these hypotheses is possible with a shift to a new conceptual framework for the study of FLSs. Under the current framework, FLSs are described qualitatively, and prescribed at the species level. We suggest that quantitative measures of FLSs which
include observations below the species level are more compatible with the biological processes underlying FLS variation. Below we present an overview of the current approach to describing FLSs
and highlight some of the challenges that can arise when using it.

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4 The current flower-leaf sequence framework

135 Describing FLSs

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The current framework describes three main FLS categories: flowers before leaves (hysteranthy, proteranthy, precocious flowering); flowers with leaves (synanthy); and flowers after leaves (seranthy) (Heinig, 1899; Lamont & Downes, 2011). Some data sources (e.g. Barnes & Wagner, 1981,2004; Burns & Honkala, 1990) include additional categories: "flowers before/with leaves" and "flowers with/after leaves", but it is unclear whether these categories describe intermediate FLS patterns or FLS variability in these species. While these categories are conceptually reasonable, applying them to real phenological sequences is not always straightforward.

Both reproductive and vegetative phenological sequences consist of multiple sub-stages, and this introduces significant ambiguity into how we interpret qualitative FLS descriptions. Consider a species with the following FLS:

flower budbursto leaf budbursto first flowers open o leafout o peak flowering oend of leaf expansion

Observers could justifiably classify this species as: 1) Hysteranthous because flower budburst pre-150 cedes leaf budburst, 2) Synanthous because flowers open during the budburst-leafout inter-phase, 151 3) Seranthous because peak flowering occurs after leafout. This problem extends beyond this sim-152 ple example to real datasets, (e.g. O'Keefe, 2015) where the same ambiguities exist (Supporting 153 Information Fig. S1). Not surprisingly then, different sources may classify the same species dif-154 ferently. We compared species-level FLS descriptions in two of the most comprehensive records 155 of FLSs, Michigan Trees and its companion volume Michigan Shrubs and Vines (MTSV) (Barnes et al., 2016; Barnes & Wagner, 1981,2004) with The USFS Silvics Manual Volume II (Burns & 157 Honkala, 1990). Of the 49 overlapping species, 30% were classified differently. Such different classifications could reflect interesting temporal or geographic variability in FLSs, but—given current definitions—they could equally be the product of observer classification decisions.

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Categorization can often introduce biases in analyses (Edwards et al., 2015) and highlight ambigu-162 ity in hypotheses; this may be particularly prevalent for the study of FLSs. The wind pollination 163 hypothesis hinges on the fact that leaves create a substantial barrier to pollen transfer, which may 164 not be true during the early stages of leaf expansion. Rather, trees that flower during the early 165 stages of leaf expansion should gain a similar advantage to those that complete their flowering 166 before any leaf activity. Therefore it would be most biologically appropriate for this hypothesis 167 to bound the category of hysteranthy to include species for which early leaf development overlaps 168 with flowering (Fig. 2a). Alternatively, because transpiration intensifies as soon as leaves begin 169 to expand (Wang et al., 2018), the water limitation hypothesis asserts there should be a cost to 170 maintaining floral structures during any stage of leaf activity. Here, only species where flowering 171 occurs before any leaf expansion should gain a hydraulic advantage, and to most accurately address 172 this hypothesis, the category of hysteranthy should only include species that flower before any leaf development. (Fig. 2b). 174

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Given the differences in biological processes underlying these hypotheses, statistical relationships 176 between FLSs and traits may fluctuate depending on where categorical boundaries are drawn. For the examples presented above, the strongest test—and thus strongest potential signal—of the wind-178 pollination hypothesis would use a definition of hysteranthy that includes species that flower before 179 and with early leaf development; while the strongest test of the the water limitation hypothesis 180 would use a narrow definition that includes only species that flower before any leaf activity. These 181 contrasts highlight how, if these hypotheses require different categorization schemes to accurately 182 capture the underlying biology, it becomes difficult to compare them in the same modeling frame-183 work. 184

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We found that associations between FLSs and functional traits related to each hypothesis were highly sensitive to how FLSs were defined (Supporting Information Fig. S2, e.g. pollination syndrome, Supporting Information Fig. S3). We applied two alternative FLS categorizations in two 188 major datasets (MTSV and USFS, see Supporting Information Methods S1); physiological hyster-189 anthy, which allowed for no overlap between floral and leaf phenophases, and functional hysteranthy, 190 which allowed for a degree of overlap (see Supporting Information Methods S1). These alternate 191 categorization boundaries re-shuffled the species included in each classification, affecting both the 192 trait distributions within each category and the phylogenetic patterning across the tree (Supporting 193 Information Fig. S4). 194

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This suggests that a new approach that relaxes the assumptions of categorization could help to
fairly evaluate FLS hypotheses. Below we present a new framework for the study of FLSs built on
1) quantitative measures and 2) intra-specific investigations of FLS variation. This simple shift can
capture biological variation missed by current approaches, and offer novel avenues for understanding
the scope and consequences of FLS variation in an era of global change.

A new framework for flower-leaf sequences

202 Quantitative measures of FLSs

In the current FLS framework species are classified based on sequence alone. The duration of and time between phases, however, also matters (Inouye *et al.*, 2019). When considering measures of time, FLSs of species within each category can be quite different (Fig. 3a). Measures of FLSs based on continuous data—i.e. reporting the number of days between specific phenophases, suggest there is much greater diversity in FLS patterns in a given forest community than provided by the three categories of the current framework.

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Treating FLSs like other quantitative measures of phenology (e.g. the BBCH scale, Finn et al.,

2007) would: 1) improve FLS-trait association models by reducing the noise from unmeasured variation and 2) standardize data across time and space, observer, and analyst. Adopting quantitative measurements would facilitate comparing FLS patterns across larger temporal, geographic, and taxonomic scales, giving researchers more power to accurately address questions about FLS variation.

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An additional benefit of a quantitative approach to FLSs is that it allows for variation to be
evaluated below the species level. We argue that intra-specific inquiries into FLS variation are vital
to answer both questions about the basic mechanisms that generate FLS variation, and applied
questions regarding the magnitude and impact of FLS shifts with climate change.

221 Intra-specific data on FLSs

Quantitative measurements of FLSs reveal significant variation among individuals and years (Fig. 3b). This variation can be leveraged to further improve FLS-trait models at the species level, and to generate and test novel questions about the fitness value of this trait.

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Observations at multiple taxonomic scales should improve FLS-trait association models by allowing researchers to explicitly incorporate multiple levels of variation, for example, by nesting
individual or population level FLS observations within a species grouping in a hierarchical model.
When intra-specific variation for a given trait is high, simply using species' mean trait values could
mis-represent inter-specific differences. Interestingly, this implies that incorporating intra-specific
variation to these models may be one of the most robust ways to accurately assess inter-specific
variation (Smith et al., 2019).

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Intra-specific inquiry is also a critical step to better understand the consequences of FLS shifts.

At the core of each FLS hypothesis is a fitness prediction that is best interrogated below the

species level. If FLSs are functionally important, individual variability in FLSs should correlate

with changes in performance as has been shown for other phenophases (e.g. Schermer *et al.*, 2020).

Evaluating the relationship between FLS variation and performance is critical to determine whether

FLS variation is merely an interesting natural history note of temperate forests or an important

functional trait that will impact the structure and function of these communities in the future.

²⁴² Testing the new framework

3 Quantitative measures

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To compare categorical and quantitative approaches to FLSs, we used long-term phenological records for woody species at Harvard Forest (O'Keefe, 2015). We modeled the associations be-245 tween FLSs and functional traits using both a categorical FLS framework and a simple quantitative metric—the mean number of days between flower and leaf budburst for each species (see Supporting 247 Information Methods S1). We investigated functional traits related to each of the FLS hypotheses: 248 using pollination syndrome as a predictor for the wind pollination hypothesis, mean precipitation 240 across a species' range and two alternative predictors (species' moisture use and minimum temperature across a species' range) as predictors for the water limitation hypothesis; and flowering time 251 and two alternative predictors (mean fruit dispersal time and seed mass) as predictors for the early 252 flowering hypothesis. We accounted for the influence of phylogenetic constraints by running these 253 models in a phylogenetic modeling framework (Ives & Garland, 2010).

Using the categorical approach, we detected only a weak relationship between hysteranthy and wind-pollination. However, with the improved predictive power of the quantitative approach, we found that increasing time between flower and leaf budburst was strongly associated with wind-pollination and early flowering, and that the longest FLS interphases were found in species with both of these traits (Fig. 4a,b; model results with alternative predictors were comparable to the sign and rank of the main results, see Supporting Information, Fig. S5).

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63 Intra-specific variation

To test how model inference changed when accounting for intra-specific variation, we re-analyzed
the same FLS data from Harvard Forest presented above using a Bayesian hierarchical model
that incorporated within-species variation in FLSs and flowering time (see Supporting Information
Methods S1).

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As in the model based on species' mean trait values, we found strong effects of flowering time, 269 pollination syndrome and phylogeny on FLS variation, with only a weak signal for the water lim-270 itation hypothesis (Fig. 4c, Supporting Information Fig. S3). However, the hierarchical approach 271 leveraged all the available data (n=1636 versus 23 for the mean-based quantitative approach) at 272 the most relevant biological scales, and with this improved power, we identified strong interactions 273 between predictors. Of note, the effect of early flowering on FLS variation was more pronounced in 274 biotic-pollinated taxa despite the fact that wind-pollinated species always had a longer FLS inter-275 phase (days between flower and leaf budburst). Hydraulic demand was associated with increased 276 time between flowering and leafing in biotically-pollinated taxa but not wind-pollinated taxa (Sup-277 porting Information Fig. S6). Together, these systematic differences suggest that flowering-first 278 FLSs in these functional groups may have evolved under different environments and converged in 279 temperate forests. 280

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Even with a quantitative framework, analyses will still inherently be sensitive to the exact phenophases
that define FLSs. We found the estimated effect of traits (representing different hypotheses) varied
when FLSs were defined based on different sub-phases of flowering and leafing; for example, days
between flower budburst and leaf budburst vs. days between peak flowering and leaf expansion
(Fig. S7). However, we further found that incorporating intra-specific variation into the modeling
appeared to reduce this bias, which may allow researchers to robustly compare existing FLS data

8 that are not perfectly standardized with each other (see Supporting Information Tab. S1).

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Future directions:

Our findings suggest that the tendency for previous studies to find support for multiple hypotheses 291 (Bolmgren et al., 2003; Gougherty & Gougherty, 2018; Savage, 2019) is consistent with the biolog-292 ical processes that shape FLSs. Multiple hypotheses should be the starting point for future FLS 293 research. While large scale analyses may continue to be beneficial, a more nuanced understand-294 ing about the function of FLS variation may result from pattern deconstruction (i.e. grouping 295 of species according to sub-clades or trait commonalities, Terribile et al., 2009). For example, it 296 is clear that wind-pollination efficiency is not driving hysteranthous flowering in insect-pollinated taxa, so considering this group of species alone rules out one major FLS hypothesis, allowing for a 298 better evaluation of alternatives. 290

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While trait associations point to past selection, much of the current interest in FLSs relates to how shifting FLS patterns will impact woody plants in the future. Shifting research to focus on 302 intra-specific FLS data may importantly provide insight into the biological levels of organization 303 that determine how species can respond to climate change from the individual to population to 304 species level. Variation among and within individuals provides insights regarding micro-climate 305 effects, heritability, selection and plasticity for FLSs (Denéchère et al., 2019). While not addressed 306 specifically in our data, population level variation in FLSs is also high (Supporting Information Fig. 307 S8), and critical to better understanding the specifics of how environmental conditions shape FLSs 308 (Vitasse et al., 2009), and how FLS variation interacts with landscape scale processes such as gene flow and dispersal (Manel et al., 2003). Taken together, investigations at these lower taxonomic 310 levels could provide a more robust assessment of the potential magnitude of FLS shifts with climate 311 change. 312

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As mentioned above, future FLS research should aim to test the performance consequences of FLSs 314 by leveraging intra-specific variation. However, this may require more focus on data at the same 315 scale as FLS variation. For example, the wind-pollination hypothesis suggests that decreasing the 316 time between flowering and leafing should result in reduced pollination success. To test this pre-317 diction, studies tracking individual FLS variation in the field or controlled environments must also 318 track performance metrics at this scale, for example, reproductive outcomes such as pollination 319 success or fruit set. Such studies may prove critical for evaluating the implications of FLS shifts in 320 the future. 321

322

3 Conclusion

In demonstrating our proposed framework for the study of FLSs we found that, in accordance with previous work, flowering time, pollination syndrome and phylogeny are important drivers of hysteranthy (Gougherty & Gougherty, 2018). Our work adds to the growing literature that infers the adaptive significance of FLSs from macro-evolutionary patterns and opens new avenues for testing the effects of FLS variation on woody plant performance below the species level. While it is clear the FLSs are highly variable and shifting with global climate change, research must directly examine the effects of FLS variation to better assess the consequences of future FLS shifts.

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While much of research on the evolution of plant phenology focuses on specific phenophases (e.g. Ollerton & Lack, 1992; Savage & Cavender-Bares, 2013), selection likely acts on phenological sequences. With growing evidence that adaptation drives both the absolute timing of individual phenophases and the relative timing between them we must continue to develop analytical tools that improve our understanding of the drivers of phenological events as part of a phenological syndrome, rather than as discrete, separate events. Our treatment of FLSs here is a small part of this work, but understanding how selection shapes phenology both throughout the whole growing

- season and across years remains a major frontier for the study of phenology (Wolkovich & Ettinger,
- ³⁴⁰ 2014). This is an essential step towards a more complete understanding of the fundamental biology
- of temperate woody plants, and for predicting the fate of these species as global climate continues
- to change.

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346 Author contributions

- DMB developed the concept for the paper; DMB and IMC performed the analysis, DMB and EMW
- wrote the manuscript.

Data and code availability

- Data for the FLS and climate change analysis is publicly available from PEP725 at http://www.pep725.eu/.
- 351 The Harvard Forest phenology data is also publicly available in the Harvard Forest Data Archive
- https://harvardforest.fas.harvard.edu/harvard-forest-data-archive (dataset: HF003-05). The com-
- piled data from the MTSV and USFS guidebooks will be available on KNB upon publication. All
- modeling code will be made available upon request.

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465 Supplemental Information

- Fig. S1: Flower-leaf sequences of species at Harvard Forest 1990-2005.
- 467 Fig. S2: Effect-size summary plots of FLS predictors for the MTSV and USFS case studies.
- 468 **Fig. S3:** Phylogenetic signals for FLS variation.
- 469 Fig. S4: Visualization of FLS patterning across the phylogeny for the MTSV and USFS case
- 470 studies.
- 471 Fig. S5: Effect-size summary plots of models with alternative functional traits as FLS predictors.
- 472 Fig. S6: Marginal effect plots graphically interpreting interactions among predictors for a hierar-
- 473 chical FLS model.
- Fig. S7: Effect-size summary plots of models using alternative flower and leaf sub-phases to define
- 475 FLSs.
- 476 Fig. S8: Population level variation in FLSs for Fraxinus excelsior mapped across Germany.
- 477 **Tab. S1:** Approximate conversions of phenophases described in the Harvard Forest dataset to the
- 478 BBCH scale.
- 479 Methods S1: Methods for: FLS and climate change modeling, modeling FLS variation in MTSV
- and USFS data, modeling FLS variation in the HF data, calculating the phylogenetic signals in
- 481 FLS variation and considerations for applying the water limitation hypothesis in wet temperate
- 482 forests.

483 Figures

Figure 1: Flower-leaf sequences (FLSs) across Europe for four tree species from 1960 to 2015 suggests climate change has generally increased the time between flowering and leafing, but the direction and rate of change differs across species, which may exacerbate fitness differences within forest communities. To detect the effect of climate change on average FLSs, we used models that allow for shifts in FLS after 1980 (Kharouba et al., 2018). Lines represent the mean trend in FLS variation per species among populations, and the shaded regions indicate historic range of FLS variability (95% credible intervals of the pre-1980 average) from the PEP725 database (Templ et al., 2018). The boxplots compare the FLS measurements prior to 1980 to the recent period (2010-2015), confirming shifts in FLSs over time for most species, but indicate high variability in the FLSs below the species level.

Figure 2: Several hypotheses have been proposed to explain flower-leaf sequence (FLS) variation in temperate, deciduous woody plants. The wind pollination hypothesis (a) suggests that leafless flowering reduces barriers to pollen movement. The water limitation hypothesis (b) suggests the temporal separation between flowering and leafing reduces hydraulic demand. The early flowering hypothesis (c) suggests FLS variation is a byproduct of selection for early flowering, possibly driven by later phenological events (e.g., seed dispersal), and under this hypothesis the relative timing of flowers and leaves is inconsequential compared to the absolute time of flowering. As depicted by the scale bars in the center of the figure, the biology behind each hypothesis predicts different degrees of overlap between flowering and leaf development. Transpiration intensifies as small leaf primordia expand, but leaf development only affects environmental structure once leaves are sufficiently large, therefore the water limitation hypothesis accommodates little overlap between flower and leaves, while the wind pollination hypothesis encompasses some overlap. The early flowering hypothesis predicts no fitness differences whether or not flowers and leaves overlap. Additionally, inter-specific patterns of FLS variation may also be a product of phylogenetic conservatism or lability driven by physical contraints. (d).

Figure 3: The shift from categorical/inter-specific descriptions to quantitative/intra-specific measures of flower-leaf sequences (FLSs) reveals substantial variation. Under the current framework, species are assigned to FLS categories by the order of phenophases alone. However, observations from Harvard Forest in Petersham, MA demonstrate that measuring the time between phenophases reveals substantial differences among species within each category (a). These records (b) show that the time between flowering and leaf activity can vary significantly among individuals (plotted in different colors) and, within an individual, vary across years. In some species like *Quercus rubra* depicted in here, an individual's sequence itself regularly switches across time. This inter- and intra- specific variation is key to understanding the function of FLS variation in deciduous, woody plants. Data comes from O'Keefe (2015).

Figure 4: Mean estimates of the effects of flower-leaf sequence (FLS) predictors on the timing between flower and leaf budburst for woody plants at Harvard Forest between 1990-2015 reveal important differences between categorical and quantitative frameworks of FLSs. With the categorical approach in (a), there is a strong effect of pollination syndrome on FLS variability, with no detectable effect of other predictors. With quantitative measures based on the species level means of days between flower and leaf budburst in (b), there are strong effects and interactions of both flowering time and pollination syndrome. Finally, incorporating variation below the species level through hierarchical modeling in (c), reveals interactions between the predictors. These interactions sugges there are multiple drivers of FLS variability in the temperate zone. All models use standardized predictors to allow for comparisons between them. Symbols represent mean estimated effect of each predictor, with solid lines in (a) and (b) representing the 95% bootstrap intervals of the phylogenetic linear regression models (Ives & Garland, 2010). Soild and dotted lines in (c) represent 50 and 95% credible intervals respectively for a phylogenetic mixed model (de Villemeruil P. Nakagawa, 2014). Graphical interpretation of the model interactions of the hierarchical model can be found in the Supporting Information (Fig. S6). The relative sign and magnitude of the estimated effects remained stable in models using alternative functional traits to represent each hypothesis (Supporting Information Fig. S5).