

Spatial and temporal shifts in photoperiod with climate change

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Running head Shifts in photoperiod with climate change

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Paper type Review and Synthesis

1 Abstract

2 Climate change causes both temporal and geographic shifts in species; these shifts in turn affect the daylength
3 (photoperiod) that species experience. As photoperiod is a common trigger of seasonal biological responses
4 (e.g., affecting plant phenology in 84% of studies that manipulated photoperiod), such shifts in experienced
5 photoperiod may have important implications for future distributions and fitness of many species. However,
6 photoperiod has not been a focus of climate change forecasting to date, especially for early-season ('spring')
7 events—which are often assumed to be driven by temperature. Here we show that impacts on experienced
8 photoperiod due to temporal shifts could be quite large and may be orders of magnitude larger than impacts
9 due to spatial shifts (e.g., 1.6 hours of change for expected temporal shifts versus only one minute for spatial
10 shifts). Incorporating these effects into forecasts may be possible by leveraging existing experimental data;
11 for example, growth chamber experiments on woody plant spring phenology often have data relevant for
12 climate change impacts. We highlight how combining novel modeling approaches and empirical work on
13 when, where, and how much photoperiod affects spring phenology, could rapidly advance our understanding
14 and predictions of future spatial-temporal shifts due to climate change.

15 Introduction

16 Shifts in the timing of spring events—i.e., phenology, including flowering, bird arrival, egg hatching and myriad
17 other biological activities—are some of the most widely documented signals of climate change. Across taxa,
18 from plants and insects to mollusks and mammals, spring phenology is occurring earlier as temperatures

¹⁹ warm, with average shifts of 1.2 to 5.1 days earlier per decade (Bradley et al., 1999; Parmesan and Yohe, 2003; Poloczanska et al., 2013; Root et al., 2003) or 1.3 to 5.6 days earlier per °C of warming (Polgar et al., 2013; Wolkovich et al., 2012). These changes are some of the largest climate change induced shifts observed, with early spring phenology shifting more rapidly than later season phenology in most cases (Bradley et al., 1999; Menzel et al., 2006), and suggest that temperature is a major driver of spring phenophases.

²⁴ Spring phenology is not controlled solely by temperature, however. Photoperiod is also a critical cue for plants and animals, signaling changes in growth, mating, and reproduction across diverse species (e.g., Flynn and Wolkovich, 2018; Howe et al., 1996; Lagercrantz, 2009; Mcallan et al., 2006; Solbakken et al., 1994).
²⁷ Photoperiod is a useful cue to synchronize activities with seasonal climatic changes (e.g., Basler and Körner, 2012; Hsu et al., 2011; Singh et al., 2017) because it is consistent across years, especially compared to other seasonal cues such as temperature and precipitation (Saikkonen et al., 2012). For example, relying on a threshold photoperiod (see *Glossary*), rather than temperature alone, may prevent woody plants from leafing out during “false spring” events (unusually warm periods during winter that are followed by a return of cold temperatures, Gu et al., 2008). With current rapid warming photoperiod may also potentially slow the observed trend of advancing spring phenology.

³⁴ Recent studies offer inconsistent views about whether photoperiod may eventually restrict advances in spring phenology in a warmer world. Some studies suggest that, with additional warming, photoperiod will limit phenological shifts of certain species such that they will not track rising temperatures (e.g., by leafing out earlier in the spring, Körner and Basler, 2010; Way and Montgomery, 2015). Instead, these species’ responses will increasingly become constrained by daylength and the trend of ever-earlier springs with warming may halt. Other studies, however, suggest that photoperiod will not constrain responses to warming for most species (Chuine et al., 2010; Zohner et al., 2016). The extent to which daylength constrains responses will depend in part on how rapidly photoperiod cues can acclimate or adapt to new environmental conditions, which remains poorly understood (Grevstad and Coop, 2015).

⁴³ Perhaps because of these variable and uncertain responses, photoperiod is often not included in forecasts of biological responses to climate change, especially in the spring, even though it is known to be an important cue for biological activity (but see Caffarra et al., 2011a; Duputié et al., 2015; Grevstad and Coop, 2015).
⁴⁶ The exclusion of photoperiod may be problematic: although photoperiod itself is stable over time, the

⁴⁷ photoperiod that species *experience*, as they undergo climate change-induced shifts in space and time, is
⁴⁸ likely to be much less stable. In addition to shifting activity earlier with recent warming, many species have
⁴⁹ shifted their distributions poleward and upward in elevation (i.e., range shifts, Chen et al., 2011; Harsch et al.,
⁵⁰ 2009; Parmesan, 2006; Peñuelas and Boada, 2003). These spatial and temporal shifts alter the photoperiod
⁵¹ experienced by organisms (Fig. 1); altered photoperiods may have cascading effects on species' performance,
⁵² since daylength can affect the timing of development (Grevstad and Coop, 2015; Muir et al., 1994), migration
⁵³ (Dawbin, 1966), and other important responses.

⁵⁴ The implications of potential climate change-induced shifts in experienced photoperiod are unclear, as the
⁵⁵ magnitude of potential shifts has not been described. Effects of photoperiod shifts may be relatively mi-
⁵⁶ nor, especially because there can be substantial year-to-year variation in experienced photoperiod (Fig. 2).
⁵⁷ Alternatively, photoperiod may begin to constrain species' responses to climate change (Körner and Basler,
⁵⁸ 2010).

⁵⁹ Here, we ask:

- ⁶⁰ 1. How will climate change alter the photoperiod experienced by organisms?
- ⁶¹ 2. What are the implications of altered photoperiods for biological responses to climate change?
- ⁶² 3. Can research apply data from experiments that alter photoperiod to aid in forecasting biological impli-
⁶³ cations of climate change?

⁶⁴ These questions are broadly relevant for diverse species. Here, we use a case study of spring woody plant
⁶⁵ phenology to illustrate our points (Box 1). We focus on spring events, as phenology during this time is one
⁶⁶ of the most widely observed and rapidly changing biological responses to climate change (Parmesan, 2006).
⁶⁷ Woody species are a useful focal group because they have been the subject of decades of growth chamber
⁶⁸ experiments, are at the center of an important and controversial debate on the relative effects of photoperiod
⁶⁹ versus temperature on their phenology, and because their phenology (i.e., the length of the growing season)
⁷⁰ has critical implications for global carbon cycling and feedbacks to the climate system (Richardson et al.,
⁷¹ 2013). We use studies included in Observed Spring Phenology Responses in Experimental Environments
⁷² (OSPREE), a new database of plant growth chamber studies that manipulate photoperiod and temperature
⁷³ to measure plant phenological responses, including budburst and flowering (Wolkovich et al., 2019).

⁷⁴ How will climate change alter the photoperiod experienced by or-
⁷⁵ ganisms?

⁷⁶ Species experience different photoperiod regimes depending on their location on Earth (Fig. 1, 2), the
⁷⁷ seasonal timing of their activity, and inter-annual variation in climate. The daylength experienced by plants
⁷⁸ on the date that spring “green-up” occurs, for example, varies with latitude (Fig. 2a). This is in part
⁷⁹ because latitudinal variation in green-up date, which occurs earlier toward the equator and later toward the
⁸⁰ north pole, is strongly driven by climatic differences that affect phenology, and in part because of latitudinal
⁸¹ variation in photoperiod (e.g., at the north pole, the daylength at the summer solstice is 24 hours; see also
⁸² Fig. 1). A general pattern of longer photoperiod at green-up toward the poles is consistent across years (Fig.
⁸³ 2b) and green-up does not appear to occur at daylengths less than 10 hours. There is strong spatiotemporal
⁸⁴ variation in experienced photoperiod across years (compare the photoperiod at green-up in “early” versus
⁸⁵ “late” years, Fig. 2): experienced photoperiod at green-up can vary by two to three hours from one year to
⁸⁶ the next in the same location (Fig. 2c). Though green-up date corresponds to plant phenology, we expect that
⁸⁷ spatiotemporal patterns of variation in spring phenology would be similar for other organisms (Ovaskainen
⁸⁸ et al., 2013; Peñuelas et al., 2002).

⁸⁹ Against this existing background variation, climate change will cause shifts in experienced photoperiod as
⁹⁰ species respond to warming temperatures. Spatial shifts in species’ ranges and temporal shifts in phenology
⁹¹ will alter the photoperiods experienced by organisms with future climate change. The magnitude of these
⁹² alterations will vary depending on the organism’s location and the type of shift(s) it undergoes. For example,
⁹³ poleward shifts in species’ ranges cause organisms to experience a wider range of daylength throughout the
⁹⁴ year (Fig. 1). Elevational shifts, in contrast, cause minimal changes in the range of daylength throughout
⁹⁵ the year.

⁹⁶ To date, where the scientific literature has addressed shifts in photoperiod with climate change, the focus has
⁹⁷ been on how spatial range shifts will affect photoperiod (e.g., Saikkonen et al., 2012; Way and Montgomery,
⁹⁸ 2015). However, shifting phenology—especially the large changes seen in spring phenology—will also alter
⁹⁹ experienced photoperiod, because of the seasonal patterns of daylength (Fig. 1).

¹⁰⁰ Despite a focus on range shifts, current data suggest that temporal shifts will yield much larger changes in

101 experienced photoperiod than spatial shifts (Fig. 1). For example, consider an insect that emerges from
102 diapause or a tree that bursts its buds at latitude 45°, on average, around day of year 91 (April 2, when
103 daylength is 12.8 hours). If the organism's phenology shifts 30 days earlier over the next century (i.e., a rate
104 of 3 days per decade, as has been observed, Parmesan and Yohe, 2003), it will experience a daylength that
105 is 1.6 hours shorter. This 1.6 hour decrease in daylength is equivalent to moving up 28.5° in latitude on this
106 day of year. However, if the same species shifts its range up in latitude 0.5° (i.e., 60 km over the next century,
107 comparable to observed rates, Parmesan and Yohe, 2003; Chen et al., 2011), it will experience a daylength
108 that differs by less than a minute on the same day of year.

109 In many cases organisms may shift both their ranges and their phenology simultaneously (i.e., due to new
110 climatic conditions, Duputié et al., 2015; Grevstad and Coop, 2015). In addition, photoperiod sensitivity
111 (see *Glossary*) can vary with latitude, likely due to population-level differences in sensitivity (Caffarra et al.,
112 2011b; Gauzere et al., 2017; Howe et al., 1996; Partanen et al., 2005; Saikkonen et al., 2012; Viherä-Aarnio
113 et al., 2006). With future climate change, it is unclear how these complexities will affect the photoperiod
114 experienced by organisms and if these shifts in photoperiod will have important implications for biological
115 responses. This lack of clarity stems, in part, from the fact that phenology both affects and is affected by
116 experienced photoperiod: climate change-induced shifts in phenology alter experienced photoperiod, which
117 in turn affects phenology.

118 **What are the implications of altered photoperiods for biological 119 responses to climate change?**

120 Daylength can play a role in controlling critical biological functions, including vegetative growth, cell elonga-
121 tion, budburst, and flowering in plants (Ashby et al., 1962; Erwin, 1998; Sidaway-Lee et al., 2010; Heide,
122 2011; Heide and Sønsteby, 2012; Hsu et al., 2011; Linkosalo and Lechowicz, 2006; Mimura and Aitken, 2007)
123 and growth rate, maturation, migration, and diapause in animals (Bradshaw and Holzapfel, 2006; Dawbin,
124 1966; Muir et al., 1994; Saunders and Henderson, 1970; Tobin et al., 2008; Zydlewski et al., 2014). Climate
125 change-induced shifts in photoperiod are therefore likely to alter these functions. Indeed, growth chamber
126 studies demonstrate that the magnitude of daylength shifts we can expect with climate change (i.e., 1-2

127 hours of difference in daylength with temporal shifts over the next century) are substantial enough to affect
128 spring phenology in trees (Table S1). The direction and magnitude of responses will vary, however, because
129 of variation in photoperiod sensitivity, and because photoperiod often interacts with other environmental
130 drivers, such as temperature, to affect phenology (Box 1).

131 The climate change-induced trend toward ever earlier springs means that experienced photoperiod may in-
132 creasingly approach threshold photoperiod for many species, constraining their ability to respond to additional
133 warming (Körner and Basler, 2010; Morin et al., 2010; Nienstaedt, 1966; Vitasse and Basler, 2013). Interac-
134 tions between photoperiod and temperature may therefore result in muted phenological shifts, compared to
135 what would be expected based on temperature change alone (Körner and Basler, 2010; Mimura and Aitken,
136 2007; Wareing, 1956). If photoperiod does become limiting, the average trend of earlier phenology with
137 warming (Menzel, 2000; Ovaskainen et al., 2013; Peñuelas et al., 2002; Polgar et al., 2013) may stop.

138 A challenge in understanding the implications of altered photoperiods under climate change, and for force-
139 casting whether and when the trend of earlier phenology with warming may slow or stop abruptly, is the wide
140 range of observed photoperiod sensitivity across species (Flynn and Wolkovich, 2018; Sanz-Perez et al., 2009;
141 Zohner et al., 2016), populations (Tanino et al., 2010), and ecotypes (Howe et al., 1995). How much genotype
142 versus environment explain this variation is an active area of research (e.g., Franks et al., 2014; Gould et al.,
143 2010; Mimura and Aitken, 2010; Fréjaville et al., 2019). Environmental conditions clearly play a role, since
144 different combinations of ambient temperature and photoperiod may explain some of this variation, because
145 temperature cues can override photoperiod requirements under certain conditions (e.g., Tanino et al., 2010).
146 In such cases, climate change-induced phenological shifts may occur at different rates than past shifts with
147 warming. On the other hand, some of this variation may be due to underlying genetic differences, because
148 photoperiod responses can be under strong genetic control (Bradshaw and Stettler, 1995; Keller et al., 2011;
149 Weih, 2004, , see also Box 1). Teasing out the relative roles of genetics versus environmental conditions will
150 be critical to accurate forecasts of future phenology under climate change.

151 Species- and population-level variation in photoperiod sensitivity may result in altered communities as climate
152 change progresses. For example, a species or population that is relatively insensitive to photoperiod can take
153 advantage of warmer springs by having an earlier start to its growing season. Indeed, phenological tracking of
154 temperature (e.g., earlier flowering, leafout, migration with warming) has been linked with higher performance

155 in plants and animals (Cleland et al., 2012; Muir et al., 1994; Willis et al., 2010). Species or populations
156 that are sensitive to temperature but relatively insensitive to photoperiod may therefore outcompete slower
157 growing or later emerging ones that are limited by photoperiod and thus cannot take advantage of longer
158 growing season conditions. To identify where, when, and how communities may be altered, methods for
159 incorporating photoperiod into forecasting future phenology are critical.

160 **Future directions: outstanding questions and incorporating pho-**
161 **toperiod into forecasting**

162 Incorporating photoperiod into forecasting is complex for a few major reasons. Future rates of phenological
163 shifts are unlikely to be straightforward extrapolations from past and current rates. In addition, an organism's
164 experienced photoperiod is both a driver and an effect of phenological shifts.

165 Approaches for forecasting can be grouped into two broad categories: statistical models and process-based
166 models. These two modelling paradigms differ in at least two ways, in terms of relating phenology to
167 climate change. First, statistical models generally assume linear relationships between species' responses and
168 environmental variables (e.g., Flynn and Wolkovich, 2018; Van Belle et al., 2007; Ibáñez et al., 2010), instead
169 process-based models often incorporate nonlinear threshold relationships as well (e.g. Chuine and Beaubien,
170 2001; Morin and Thuiller, 2009; Xie and Hsieh, 1989). Second, statistical models of phenology under climate
171 change have typically ignored photoperiod, focusing instead on seasonal or annual temperature (e.g. Diez
172 et al., 2012; Ibáñez et al., 2010; Van Belle et al., 2007, but see Richardson et al. (2013)). whereas process-
173 based models of phenology more frequently incorporate photoperiod, along with temperature (Duputié et al.,
174 2015; Morin and Thuiller, 2009; Xie and Hsieh, 1989; Zhao et al., 2013). A challenge of process-based models
175 is that they require detailed data that are often not readily available (e.g., daily climate data, nonlinear
176 biological responses to fine-scale changes in temperature). Perhaps because of this challenge, statistical
177 models remain more commonly used in climate change forecasts of biological responses (e.g., Basler and
178 Körner, 2012; Diez et al., 2012; García-Valdés and Morales-Castilla, 2016; Ibáñez et al., 2010; Van Belle
179 et al., 2007; Zhu et al., 2012).

180 Future modelling can incorporate photoperiod by leveraging the large amount of experimental data on pho-
181 toperiod responses (Fig. 3, Table S1), especially when process-based approaches are used. Researchers can
182 use these data to first learn if the study species (or a phylogenetically closely related species) shows a pho-
183 toperiod effect and, ideally, identify its threshold photoperiod and how it varies by population, ecotype, or
184 other factors (Bradshaw and Holzapfel, 2006; Gwinner, 1996; Tobin et al., 2008). If there is evidence of a pho-
185 toperiod response (e.g., *Fagus grandifolia*, or *Tilia americana* with low chilling in Fig. 4), daylength should
186 be added to forecasting models, using the threshold photoperiod to define short-day and long-day conditions
187 (Fig. 6). Given the large change in experienced photoperiod with temporal shifts (Fig. 1), this may be
188 particularly important for phenological forecasting. Since spatial shifts are associated with smaller changes
189 in experienced photoperiod, it may be less important for distribution forecasts. Many species, however, may
190 shift in *both* space and time simultaneously. Thus, even though experienced photoperiod changes little as
191 species distributions shift in space, phenology may be altered significantly.

192 For some species, experimental data can be immediately used in forecasting because experiments manipulate
193 photoperiod at relevant scales (e.g., Basler and Körner, 2014; Heide and Sonsteby, 2015, Figs. 3, 5 A, Table
194 S1). For example, photoperiod treatments from growth chamber experiments with *Fagus sylvatica* span
195 the variation in both current and expected future ranges (Fig. 5A, Duputié et al., 2015), and may allow
196 identification of threshold photoperiods (Fig. 6). In other cases, attempting to incorporate photoperiod
197 into forecasts of future phenology will reveal gaps in our understanding of many aspects of photoperiod
198 responses. For example, photoperiod treatments from existing experiments of *Quercus robur* do not accurately
199 represent experienced photoperiods from current or future estimates (Fig. 5B), making fine scale projections
200 difficult, even for this relatively well-studied species. This gap extends to many species, as most experiments
201 manipulate photoperiod much more dramatically than will occur with climate change (Figs. 3, 5). Although
202 these studies can be useful for understanding mechanistically how photoperiod responses work, extrapolating
203 them to climate change models may not be reasonable.

204 Photoperiod is not fully integrated into most current forecasts of biological responses to climate change (but
205 see Tobin et al., 2008), an omission that could affect the accuracy of forecasts. Forecasts from ecosystem mod-
206 els often incorporate photoperiod, along with other variables such as evaporative demand and temperature
207 (e.g., the Ecosystem Demography model Jolly et al., 2005; Medvigy et al., 2013), but photoperiod is rarely

208 included in species distribution models (e.g., Morin and Thuiller, 2009; Zhu et al., 2012). The sensitivity of
209 model outcomes to assumptions made about experienced photoperiod and threshold responses to photope-
210 riod needs further study, including understanding how variation in photoperiod responses across ecosystems,
211 species, populations, and life stages impacts forecasts.

212 As researchers more fully integrate photoperiod into forecasting, a critical area of further study is under-
213 standing *how* photoperiod acts as a cue. Photoperiod seems to interact with temperature to affect phenology
214 (e.g., Zydlowski et al., 2014); this would explain the divergent effects of photoperiod observed across studies
215 in woody plants (e.g., Fig. 4). However, exactly how it interacts with temperature is not well-defined for most
216 species or populations (Boxes 1, S1). Understanding the drivers, as well as the consequences, of variations
217 in photoperiod responses across species and populations will be particularly beneficial for forecasting. For
218 example, what traits are associated with photoperiod sensitivity and does variation in photoperiod sensitivity
219 or related traits have a strong genetic component? If so, are species or populations from some locations or
220 lineages more likely than others to be constrained by photoperiod in their responses to climate change?

221 Conclusions

222 Organisms may undergo large changes to the photoperiod they experience with climate change, even if they
223 do not shift their ranges spatially. Here we have shown that these altered photoperiods may result in stalled
224 future advances of woody plant phenology with warming (Table S1, Fig. 3), with cascading effects on growth,
225 fitness, and community composition due to the large variation in photoperiod responses across species and
226 populations (Fig. 4). Shifts in photoperiod with climate change have implications for a variety of plant and
227 animal responses, given that daylength affects critical activities for diverse species from insects (Bradshaw
228 and Holzapfel, 2006; Linn et al., 1996) and salmon (Solbakken et al., 1994; Taranger et al., 2003) to birds
229 (Dawson et al., 2001) and marsupials (McCallan et al., 2006; Solbakken et al., 1994). Given what we know,
230 incorporating photoperiod into forecasting of climate change responses should improve model accuracy, and
231 will illuminate additional experiments that could improve our mechanistic understanding of photoperiod as
232 a critical cue for diverse biological responses.

²³³ Glossary

- ²³⁴ • budburst: when one or more leaf buds have visible green tips.
- ²³⁵ • chilling: the intensity and duration of winter temperature, often a certain sum of chilling that is required (e.g., some amount of hours or days of cold temperatures, defined by a specific critical temperature or range of temperatures, such as between 0 and 7.2 °C, Richardson, 1974), that must be experienced for budburst to occur.
- ²³⁹ • daylength: the period of time during a 24-hour period during which an organism receives light.
- ²⁴⁰ • diapause: period of suspended development or growth, usually used to describe invertebrates during unfavorable environmental conditions such as winter
- ²⁴² • dormancy: halted or reduced growth or activity, usually used to describe plants
- ²⁴³ • forcing: warm spring temperatures, often a certain sum of forcing that is required (e.g., some amount of hours or days above a specific temperature) for budburst or flowering can occur.
- ²⁴⁵ • green-up: The beginning of a new cycle of plant growth, usually evaluated at the landscape scale
- ²⁴⁶ • phenology: the timing of life cycle events in organisms
- ²⁴⁷ • photoperiod: the daily duration of light (daylength) and dark to which an organism is exposed; often used synonymously with daylength
- ²⁴⁹ • photoperiod sensitivity: the degree to which phenology is controlled by daylength; may be a nonlinear, or “threshold”, response in plants (Box S1) and animals (Tobin et al., 2008; Grevstad and Coop, 2015).
- ²⁵¹ • photoperiodism: the ability to assess the length of day or night to regulate behavior, physiology, growth, development or reproduction.
- ²⁵³ • threshold photoperiod: length of day that causes an organism to switch from a short- to a long-day response (or vice versa). For example, in European larch (*Larix decidua*), budburst development may be constrained under short-day conditions, when daylengths are less than a threshold photoperiod of 10-11 hours (Migliavacca et al., 2008). Above this threshold photoperiod, the long-day response of unconstrained budburst development can occur.

258 **Box 1. Are photoperiod effects widespread? A case study of woody**

259 **plant spring phenology**

260 Photoperiod responses are particularly well-studied in woody plant phenology. Decades of experimental
261 growth chamber studies have shown that photoperiod is an important cue for spring budburst phenology
262 in woody plants (e.g., Basler and Körner, 2014; Flynn and Wolkovich, 2018; Heide, 1993b). These experi-
263 ments often manipulate photoperiod in combination with temperature to address basic questions about how
264 these two environmental conditions act as biological cues. Temperature has a dual role in regulating woody
265 plant phenology: chilling—the prolonged exposure to cold temperatures after growth cessation in the fall—is
266 required to initiate budburst; and forcing—prolonged exposure to warm temperatures—is required for bud-
267 burst to occur. Thus, chilling and forcing treatments are often altered in addition to photoperiod in growth
268 chamber experiments (e.g., Campbell and Sugano, 1975; Falusi and Calamassi, 1990; Heide, 1977; Laube
269 et al., 2014; Spann et al., 2004).

270 Woody plant growth chamber studies have been conducted for decades, but have only recently been syn-
271 thesized (Wolkovich et al., 2019), revealing that photoperiod sensitivity is widespread, though with wide
272 variation across studies and species. Growth chamber experiments in OSPREE suggest that the dominant
273 photoperiod response in woody plant species is earlier and more rapid budburst with longer days (e.g., Caf-
274 farra and Donnelly, 2011). Thirty-one of the 85 studies in the OSPREE database included two or more
275 different photoperiod treatments. Of these, 26 (84%) found significant photoperiod main effects or significant
276 interactive effects with temperature (i.e., photoperiod x temperature effects), across 176 species (Table S1).
277 Main effects included responses such as growth (e.g., higher growth rates with longer days Ashby et al., 1962)
278 and reproduction (e.g., increased flowering with longer days Heide and Sønsteby, 2012).

279 Growth chamber experiments highlight that responses to photoperiod vary depending on temperature con-
280 ditions. For example, more rapid advancement of budburst was observed under long versus short days with
281 low chilling, than with high chilling in *Betula paynifera* (Hawkins and Dhar, 2012) (Fig. 4). Frequently, long
282 photoperiods can compensate for low amounts of chilling, resulting in enhanced cell growth (Heide, 1993a;
283 Myking and Heide, 1995; Caffarra et al., 2011b).

284 Woody plant growth chamber experiments also demonstrate that, though photoperiod responses are common,

they are variable (Fig. 4). Responses to photoperiod differ by species (e.g., Basler and Körner, 2012, 2014; Flynn and Wolkovich, 2018; Heide, 1993b; Howe et al., 1996; Zohner et al., 2016). For example, with longer chilling treatments some species seem insensitive to daylength (e.g., *Hammamelis* spp., *Prunus* spp., Zohner et al., 2016), whereas others (e.g. *Fagus* spp., Fig. 5A) seem to be highly sensitive to daylength, even with long chilling treatments (Zohner et al., 2016). In addition, some species demonstrated an opposing response to photoperiod than typically observed: *Tilia*, for example, showed delayed budburst with longer daylengths (Fig. 4, Ashby et al., 1962). Photoperiod sensitivity also varies by population and ecotype (e.g., Partanen et al., 2005) (Fig. 4). For example, photoperiod effects on budburst were more significant for lower latitude populations of *Betula pendula* and *B. pubescens* (Partanen et al., 2005).

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₅₂₂ **Figures**

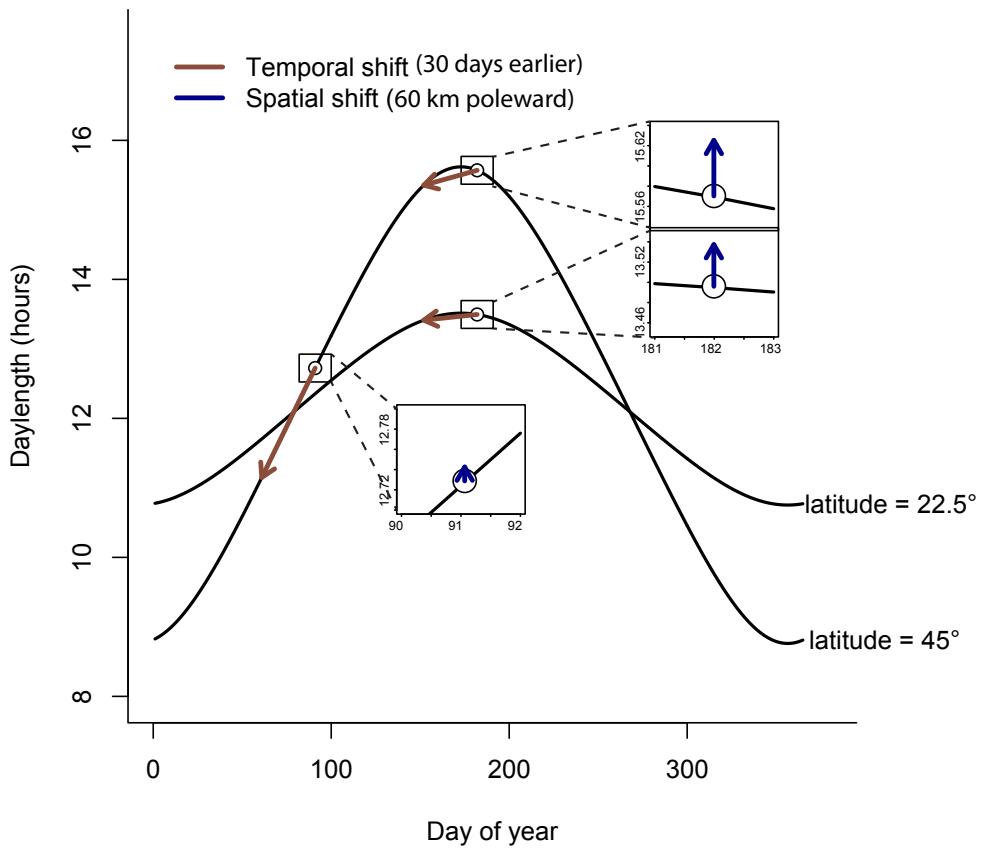


Figure 1: **Photoperiod varies with latitude and by day of year**, such that temporal shifts in activity yield larger changes in experienced photoperiod compared with spatial shifts. Here, we show this variation at two latitudes (22.5° , 45°), using hypothetical spatial and temporal shifts. These shifts, based on observed rates with recent global warming—6–17 kilometers per decade, or approximately 0.5–1.5 degrees in 100 years, for spatial shifts (Parmesan and Yohe, 2003; Parmesan, 2006), and 2–3 days per decade, or 30 days in 100 years, for temporal shifts (Parmesan, 2006; Chen et al., 2011)—highlight the greater magnitude in daylength changes close to the equinox (e.g., day of year 91), versus close to the summer solstice (e.g., day of year 182).

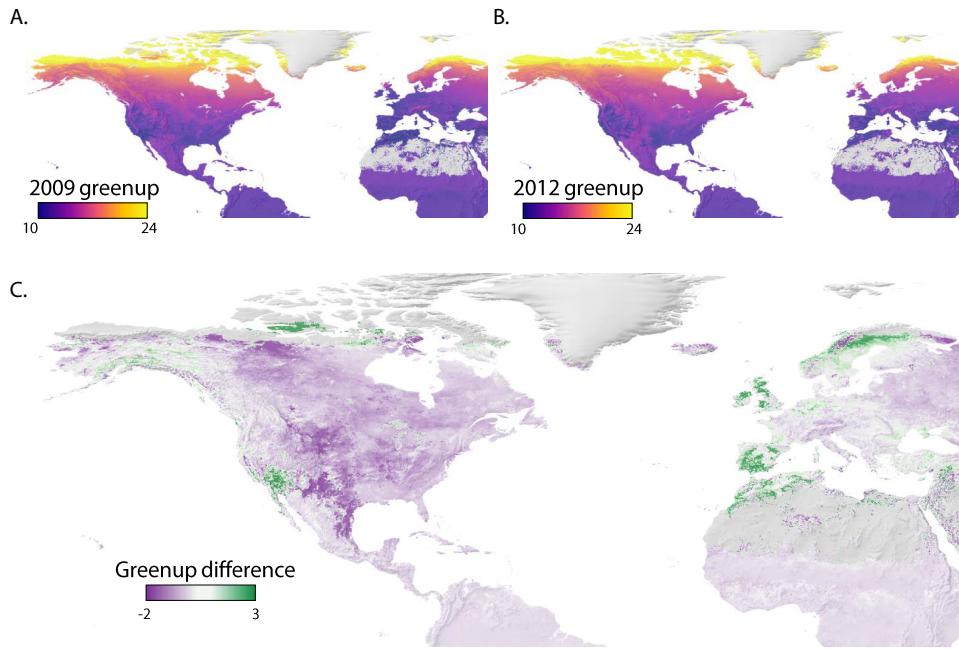


Figure 2: Photoperiod on the “green-up” date varies over space and between years “Green-up” is the beginning of seasonal greening, identified by satellite remote sensing measurements taken regularly throughout the year of the concentrations of green leaf vegetation. Hours of daylight on the date of spring green-up (here from MODIS satellite data) across North America and Europe for an average (2009, A) and early (2012, B) North American start of spring. The differences between the years (in hours of daylength) are shown in (C). A negative difference signifies earlier green-up in 2012 versus 2009; a positive difference is the result of later green-up in 2012 compared with 2009. See ‘Quantifying and mapping differences in green-up across the United States and Europe’ in the Supplemental Materials for more details.

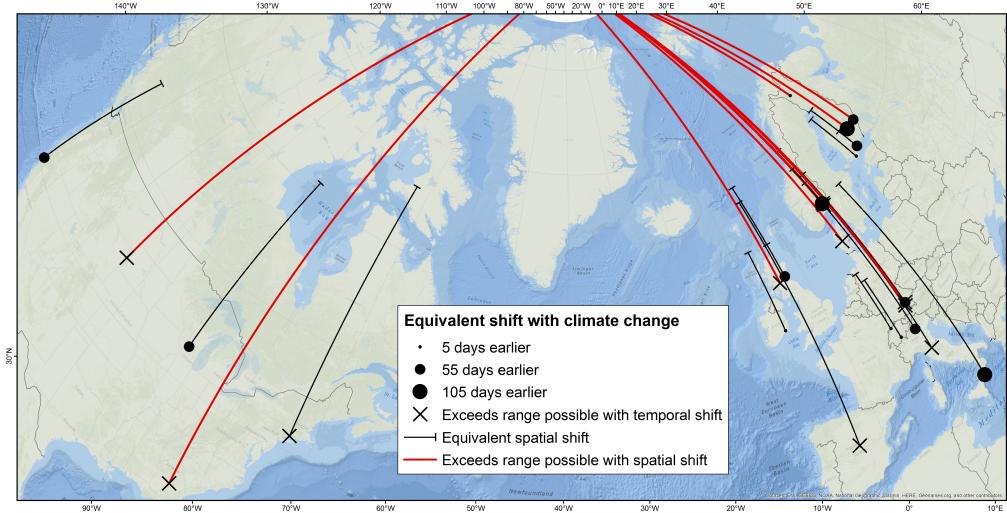


Figure 3: Experimental photoperiod treatments and their equivalent spatial and temporal shifts for experiments in the OSPREE database that manipulated photoperiod. See ‘Mapping temporal and spatial shifts in space and time’ in the Supplemental Materials for details on how we calculated the required spatial (lines) or temporal (circles and Xes) shifts to be equivalent to photoperiod treatments in each experiment.

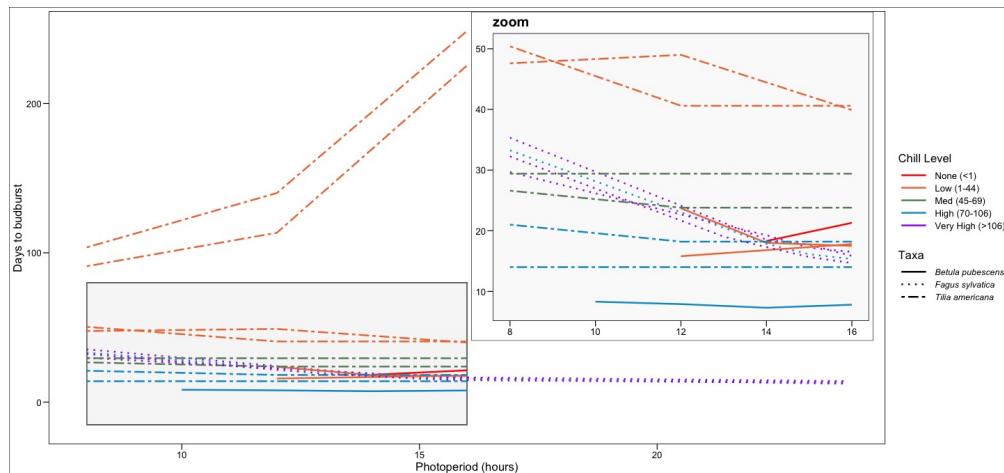


Figure 4: Nonlinearities in phenological responses to daylength are apparent in spring woody plant phenology experiments (from the OSPREE database) in which three or more photoperiod treatment levels were applied. The shape of the response curves for *Betula pubescens* (Caffarra et al., 2011b), *Fagus sylvatica* (Heide, 1993b) and *Tilia americana* (Ashby et al., 1962) differ depending on the amount of winter chilling received (measured in Chill portions). Species and chilling levels with multiple lines represent plant material from different populations.

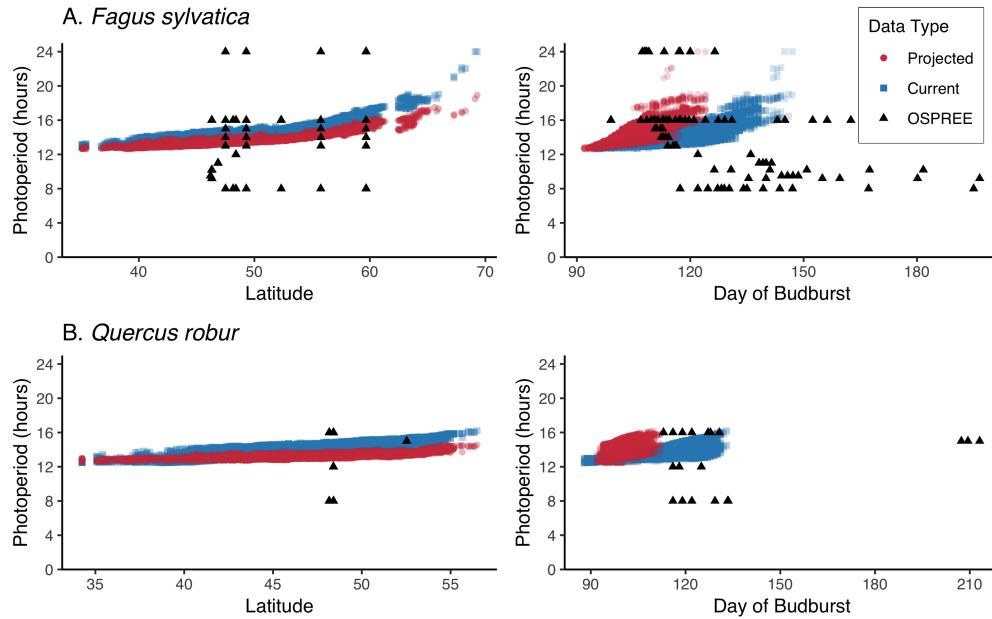


Figure 5: Experienced photoperiods in experiments differ from those in the natural world, shown here by latitude (left panels) and by day of budburst (right panels) for *Fagus sylvatica* (A, upper panels) and *Quercus robur* (B, lower panels). Triangles show experimental treatments of photoperiod in the OSPREE database. To illuminate potential gaps between experiments and the natural world, we show the photoperiod when budburst occurs in its current (1981-2000) and projected ranges (2081-2100, using the A1Fi Phenofit scenario, see Duputié et al., 2015). We scaled the days to budburst for all OSPREE data points by adding the day of budburst from the first Phenofit observation. See Supplemental Materials and Duputié et al. (2015) for additional details.

Accounting for photoperiod to improve forecasts of biological responses to climate change

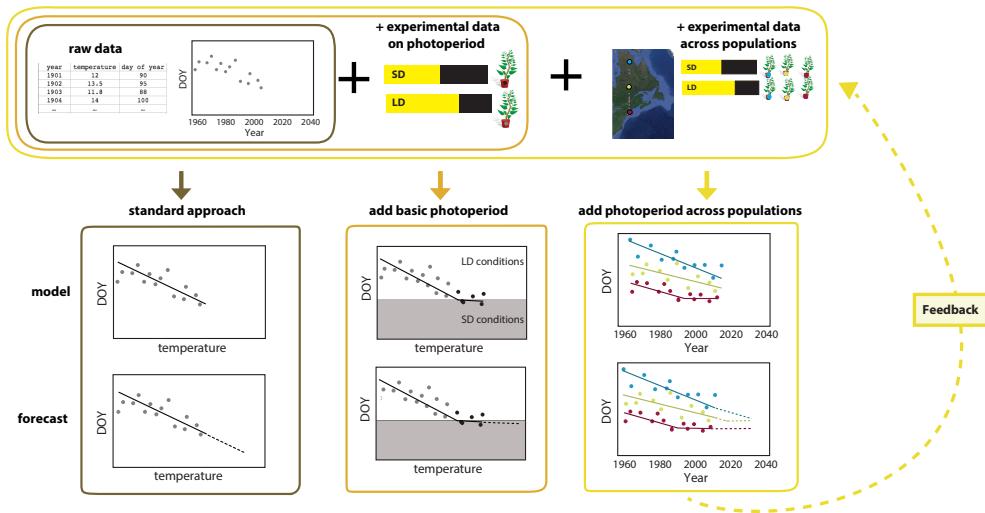


Figure 6: **Conceptual diagram of how to include photoperiod in forecasting biological responses to climate change.** Current approaches for forecasting spring phenology with climate change frequently rely on linear relationships between historical temperature data and observed dates of spring phenology (left panels). Adding responses to photoperiod, which commonly operate as threshold responses to short days (SD) versus long days (LD, see “photoperiod sensitivity” in the *Glossary*), will alter these forecasts (center panel) in ways that differ across species with divergent threshold photoperiods. Other factors that interact with photoperiod, such as population-level variation in photoperiod responses, can be incorporated into forecasts to further improve their accuracy (right panel).