

Spatial and temporal shifts in photoperiod with climate change

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Data Accessibility Should the manuscript be accepted, the data supporting our results will be archived in an appropriate public repository. The OSPREE database will be publicly archived at KNB, doi:10.5063/F1QV3JQR (Wolkovich et al., 2019).

Running head Shifts in photoperiod with climate change

Key words phenology, global warming, range shifts, timing, spring, budburst, daylength

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1 Abstract

2 Climate change causes both temporal (e.g., advancing spring phenology) and geographic (e.g., range ex-
3 pansion poleward) species shifts, which affect the photoperiod experienced at critical developmental stages
4 ('experienced photoperiod'). As photoperiod is a common trigger of seasonal biological responses—affecting
5 plant phenology in 84% of reviewed studies that manipulated photoperiod—shifts in experienced photoperiod
6 may have important implications for future plant distributions and fitness. However, photoperiod has not
7 been a focus of climate change forecasting to date, especially for early-season ('spring') events, often assumed
8 to be driven by temperature. Synthesizing published studies, we find that impacts on experienced photope-
9 riod from temporal shifts could be orders of magnitude larger than from spatial shifts (1.6 hours of change
10 for expected temporal versus one minute for latitudinal shifts). Incorporating these effects into forecasts is
11 possible by leveraging existing experimental data; we show that results from growth chamber experiments
12 on woody plants often have data relevant for climate change impacts, and suggest that shifts in experienced
13 photoperiod may increasingly constrain responses to additional warming. Further, combining modeling ap-
14 proaches and empirical work on when, where, and how much photoperiod affects spring phenology could
15 rapidly advance our understanding and predictions of future spatio-temporal shifts from climate change.

¹⁶ Introduction

¹⁷ Shifts in spring phenology—i.e., the timing of spring events, including budburst, leafout, and flowering in
¹⁸ plants, as well as bird arrival, egg hatching and myriad other biological activities—are some of the most
¹⁹ widely documented signals of climate change. Spring phenology is occurring earlier as temperatures warm,
²⁰ with average shifts of 1.2 to 5.1 days earlier per decade (Bradley et al., 1999; Parmesan and Yohe, 2003;
²¹ Poloczanska et al., 2013; Root et al., 2003) or 1.3 to 5.6 days earlier per °C of warming (Polgar et al., 2013;
²² Wolkovich et al., 2012). These changes are some of the largest climate change-induced shifts observed, with
²³ early spring phenology shifting more rapidly than later season phenology in most cases (Bradley et al., 1999;
²⁴ Menzel et al., 2006).

²⁵ Spring phenology is not controlled solely by temperature, however. Photoperiod is also a critical cue, signaling
²⁶ changes in growth and reproduction across diverse species (e.g., Flynn and Wolkovich, 2018; Lagercrantz,
²⁷ 2009; Bradshaw and Holzapfel, 2007; Howe et al., 1996; Solbakken et al., 1994), and spring phenology is
²⁸ thought to be determined interactively by photoperiod and temperature (Fu et al., 2019, see also Box 1).

²⁹ Photoperiod is a useful cue to synchronize activities with seasonal climatic changes (e.g., Singh et al., 2017;
³⁰ Basler and Körner, 2012; Hsu et al., 2011) because it is consistent across years, especially compared to other
³¹ cues such as temperature and precipitation (Saikkonen et al., 2012). For example, relying on a threshold
³² photoperiod (see *Glossary*), rather than temperature alone, may prevent woody plants from leafing out during
³³ ‘false spring’ events (unusually warm periods during winter and early spring that are followed by a return to
³⁴ cold temperatures, Gu et al., 2008).

³⁵ Recent studies suggest that photoperiod cues may eventually restrict advances in spring phenology in a
³⁶ warmer world. With additional climate change, photoperiod may limit phenological shifts of certain species
³⁷ such that they will not track rising temperatures (Fu et al., 2015; Way and Montgomery, 2015; Basler and
³⁸ Körner, 2012; Körner and Basler, 2010a), and the trend of ever-earlier springs with warming may halt. The
³⁹ idea of photoperiod constraints is controversial, however, as other studies suggest that photoperiod will not
⁴⁰ slow responses to warming for most species (Chuine et al., 2010; Zohner et al., 2016). Resolving this debate
⁴¹ requires a greater understanding of the extent to which daylength constrains phenology and how rapidly
⁴² photoperiod responses can acclimate or adapt to new environmental conditions (Grevstad and Coop, 2015).

⁴³ Perhaps because of these variable and uncertain responses, photoperiod is often not included in forecasts of
⁴⁴ biological responses to climate change, especially in the spring, even though it is known to be an important
⁴⁵ cue for biological activity (but see Duputié et al., 2015; Grevstad and Coop, 2015; Caffarra et al., 2011a).

⁴⁶ The exclusion of photoperiod may be problematic: although photoperiod itself is stable over time, the
⁴⁷ photoperiod that species *experience* at critical developmental stages (henceforth, ‘experienced photoperiod’),
⁴⁸ as they undergo climate change-induced shifts in space and time, is likely to be much less stable (Fig. 1).
⁴⁹ This shift in experienced photoperiod extends to distributional shifts due to climate change, as many species’
⁵⁰ distributions have moved poleward and upward in elevation (i.e., range shifts, Chen et al., 2011; Harsch et al.,
⁵¹ 2009; Parmesan, 2006; Peñuelas and Boada, 2003).

⁵² The implications of potential climate change-induced shifts in experienced photoperiod are unclear, as the
⁵³ magnitudes of potential shifts have not been described. Effects of photoperiod shifts may be relatively
⁵⁴ minor, especially compared to the substantial year-to-year variation in experienced photoperiod (Fig. 2).
⁵⁵ Alternatively, photoperiod may begin to constrain species’ responses to climate change (Fu et al., 2015; Way
⁵⁶ and Montgomery, 2015; Basler and Körner, 2012; Körner and Basler, 2010a).

⁵⁷ Here, we ask:

- ⁵⁸ 1. How will climate change alter experienced photoperiod for plants?
- ⁵⁹ 2. What are the implications of altered experienced photoperiods for plant responses to climate change?
- ⁶⁰ 3. Can researchers apply data from experiments that alter photoperiod to improve forecasting biological
⁶¹ implications of climate change?

⁶² We focus on spring events, as phenology during this time is one of the most widely observed and rapidly
⁶³ changing biological responses to climate change (Parmesan, 2006). In addition, the role of photoperiod is
⁶⁴ less understood in spring phenology compared with autumn phenophases (reviewed in, e.g., Azeez and Sane,
⁶⁵ 2015; Gallinat et al., 2015; Lagercrantz, 2009; Allona et al., 2008), but recent studies showing declines in
⁶⁶ responses of spring budburst to warming (e.g., Fu et al., 2019; Güsewell et al., 2017; Yu et al., 2010) suggest
⁶⁷ that photoperiod constraints may be imminent. While our questions are broadly relevant for diverse species,
⁶⁸ we use a case study of spring woody plant phenology to illustrate several of our points (Boxes 1-2).

69 How will climate change alter the photoperiod experienced by or-
70 ganisms?

71 Species experience different photoperiod regimes depending on their location on Earth, the seasonal timing
72 of their activity, and inter-annual variation in climate (Fig. 1-2). Consider, as an example, the daylength
73 experienced by plants on the date that spring ‘green-up’ occurs. (We use green-up date as an example because
74 it represents an important spring event, signaling the start of the growing season, and global estimates are
75 available.) Spring green-up varies with latitude (Fig. 2A), in part because latitudinal variation in green-
76 up date, which occurs earlier toward the equator and later toward the poles, is strongly driven by climatic
77 differences that affect phenology, and in part because of latitudinal variation in photoperiod (e.g., at the
78 poles, the daylength at the summer solstice is 24 hours; see also Fig. 1).

79 Some consistent patterns in experienced photoperiod are apparent at a broad scale. Across years, photoperiod
80 at green-up is longer toward the poles (i.e., on the day of year when green-up occurs close to the north pole,
81 daylength approaches 24 hours in both an average year, Fig. 2A, and in an early year, Fig. 2B). In addition,
82 green-up does not appear to occur at daylengths less than 10 hours across North America and Europe.

83 Despite these consistent broad-scale patterns, there is also strong spatiotemporal variation in experienced
84 photoperiod across years. Comparing the photoperiod at green-up in an ‘early’ versus an ‘average’ year (Fig.
85 2) shows that experienced photoperiod at green-up can vary by two to three hours from one year to the next
86 in the same location (Fig. 2C).

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

93 To date, most focus on shifts in photoperiod with climate change has been centered on how spatial range
94 shifts will affect photoperiod (e.g., Saikkonen et al., 2012; Way and Montgomery, 2015). However, shifting

95 phenology—especially the large changes seen in spring phenology—will also alter experienced photoperiod,
96 because of the seasonal patterns of daylength (Fig. 1).

97 Current data suggest that temporal shifts will yield much larger changes in experienced photoperiod than
98 latitudinal shifts (Fig. 1). Consider a tree species that bursts its buds at latitude 45°, on average around
99 day of year 91 (April 2), when daylength is 12.8 hours. If the species' phenology shifts 30 days earlier over
100 the next century (i.e., a rate of 3 days per decade, as has been observed, Parmesan and Yohe, 2003), it will
101 experience a daylength that is 1.6 hours shorter. This 1.6 hour decrease in daylength is equivalent to moving
102 up 28.5° in latitude on this day of year. However, if the same species shifts its range up in latitude 0.5° (i.e.,
103 60 km over the next century, comparable to observed rates, Chen et al., 2011; Parmesan and Yohe, 2003), it
104 will experience a daylength that differs by less than a minute on the same day of year.

105 **What are the implications of altered photoperiods for biological
106 responses to climate change?**

107 Climate change alters the experienced photoperiod, but the implications of this change for plants is currently
108 unclear, in part, because phenology both affects and is affected by experienced photoperiod: climate change-
109 induced shifts in phenology alter experienced photoperiod, which in turn affects phenology. Daylength,
110 often in combination with temperature, can play a role in controlling critical biological functions, including
111 vegetative growth, cell elongation, budburst, and flowering in plants (Fu et al., 2019; Heide and Sønsteby,
112 2012; Heide, 2011; Hsu et al., 2011; Sidaway-Lee et al., 2010; Mimura and Aitken, 2007; Linkosalo and
113 Lechowicz, 2006; Erwin, 1998; Ashby et al., 1962) Climate change-induced shifts in photoperiod are therefore
114 likely to alter these functions.

115 Growth chamber studies show that the magnitude of daylength shifts expected with climate change (i.e., 1-2
116 hours of difference in daylength with temporal shifts over the next century) are substantial enough to affect
117 spring phenology in trees (Table S1). The direction and magnitude of responses will vary, however, because
118 of variation in photoperiod sensitivity, and because photoperiod often interacts with other environmental
119 drivers, such as temperature, to affect phenology (Box 1).

120 The climate change-induced trend toward ever-earlier springs means that experienced photoperiod may in-
121 creasingly approach threshold photoperiods (see *Glossary*) for many species, constraining their ability to
122 respond to additional warming (Fu et al., 2019; Vitasse and Basler, 2013; Körner and Basler, 2010a; Morin
123 et al., 2010; Nienstaedt, 1966). Interactions between photoperiod and temperature may therefore result in
124 muted phenological shifts, compared to what would be expected based on temperature change alone (Körner
125 and Basler, 2010a; Mimura and Aitken, 2007; Wareing, 1956). This has been a topic of much interest in
126 the climate change literature because it predicts that as photoperiod becomes limiting, the average trend of
127 earlier phenology with warming (Polgar et al., 2013; Peñuelas et al., 2002; Menzel, 2000) may stop.

128 A challenge in predicting if or when the trend of earlier phenology with warming may slow or stop abruptly
129 is the wide range of observed photoperiod sensitivity (see *Glossary*) across species (Flynn and Wolkovich,
130 2018; Zohner et al., 2016; Sanz-Perez et al., 2009), populations (Gauzere et al., 2017; Saikkonen et al., 2012;
131 Caffarra et al., 2011b; Bradshaw and Holzapfel, 2007; Viherä-Aarnio et al., 2006; Partanen et al., 2005), and
132 ecotypes (Howe et al., 1995). How much genotype versus environment explain this variation is an active
133 area of research (e.g., Fréjaville et al., 2019; Franks et al., 2014; Gould et al., 2010; Mimura and Aitken,
134 2010). Environmental conditions clearly play a role, since different combinations of ambient temperature
135 and photoperiod may explain some of this variation and because temperature cues can override photoperiod
136 requirements under certain conditions (e.g., Tanino et al., 2010). In such cases, climate change-induced
137 phenological shifts may occur at different rates than past shifts with warming. On the other hand, some of
138 this variation may be due to underlying genetic differences driven by local adaptation, because photoperiod
139 responses can be under strong genetic control (Bradshaw and Stettler, 1995; Keller et al., 2011; Weih, 2004,
140 see also Boxes 1, 2). Teasing out the relative roles of genetics versus environmental conditions will be critical
141 to accurate forecasts of future phenology under climate change.

142 Species- and population-level variation in photoperiod sensitivity may scale up to alter communities as climate
143 change progresses. For example, a species or population that is relatively insensitive to photoperiod can take
144 advantage of warmer springs by having an earlier start to its growing season. Indeed, phenological tracking of
145 temperature (e.g., earlier flowering, leafout, migration with warming) has been linked with higher performance
146 in plants and animals (Cleland et al., 2012; Muir et al., 1994; Willis et al., 2010). Species or populations
147 that are sensitive to temperature but relatively insensitive to photoperiod may therefore outcompete slower-

148 growing or later-emerging ones that are limited by photoperiod and thus cannot take advantage of longer
149 growing season conditions. Not all studies, however, find links between performance and high sensitivity
150 to temperature (e.g., Block et al., 2020), and early-season species in most temperate zones risk losing to
151 tissue to frost (Sakai and Larcher, 1987). Thus, the advantages of tracking warming may depend on how
152 quickly mean temperatures versus last frost dates shift (e.g., Inouye et al., 2002), such that in some systems
153 photoperiod cues could prevent species from starting growth or reproduction too early (when they risk losing
154 their investments in new tissue). To identify where, when, and how communities may be altered therefore
155 requires quantifying species-specific temperature and photoperiod sensitivities, and developing methods that
156 incorporate both photoperiod and environmental events that impact fitness (such as frosts).

157 Future directions: outstanding questions and incorporating photoperiod into forecasting

159 The complexity of photoperiod effects on phenology and how warming alters experienced photoperiod high-
160 light that future rates of phenological shifts are unlikely to be straightforward extrapolations from past and
161 current rates. Statistical and process-based models—the two broad categories of forecasting approaches—
162 both acknowledge this difficulty, but differ importantly in how they relate phenology to climate change.
163 Statistical models relating phenology to climate change often assume linear relationships between species'
164 responses and environmental variables (e.g., Flynn and Wolkovich, 2018; Ibáñez et al., 2010), whereas
165 process-based models often incorporate nonlinear threshold relationships (e.g. Chuine and Beaubien, 2001;
166 Morin and Thuiller, 2009). Further, statistical models of phenology under climate change frequently ignore
167 photoperiod, focusing instead on seasonal or annual temperature (e.g. Diez et al., 2012; Ibáñez et al., 2010,
168 but see Richardson et al. (2013)), whereas process-based models of phenology more frequently incorporate
169 photoperiod, along with temperature (Lundell et al., 2020; Duputié et al., 2015; Zhao et al., 2013; Morin
170 and Thuiller, 2009). Process-based models may thus seem superior for integrating photoperiod, but they
171 can be challenging to develop, requiring detailed data that are often not readily available (e.g., daily climate
172 data, nonlinear biological responses to fine-scale changes in temperature). Perhaps because of this, statistical
173 models remain more commonly used in climate change forecasts of biological responses (e.g., García-Valdés

¹⁷⁴ and Morales-Castilla, 2016; Basler and Körner, 2012; Diez et al., 2012; Zhu et al., 2012; Ibáñez et al., 2010).

¹⁷⁵ Future modelling of spring plant phenology can incorporate photoperiod by leveraging the large amount of
¹⁷⁶ experimental data on photoperiod responses (e.g., for woody plants, see Fig. 3, Table S1, Box 2), especially
¹⁷⁷ when process-based approaches are used. Researchers can use these data to first learn whether the study
¹⁷⁸ species (or a phylogenetically closely related species) shows a photoperiod effect and, ideally, identify its
¹⁷⁹ threshold photoperiod and how it varies by population, ecotype, or other factors (Tobin et al., 2008; Bradshaw
¹⁸⁰ and Holzapfel, 2006). If there is evidence of a photoperiod response (e.g., *Fagus grandifolia*, or *Tilia americana*
¹⁸¹ with low chilling shown in Box 1), daylength should be added to forecasting models, using the threshold
¹⁸² photoperiod to define short-day and long-day conditions (Fig. 4). Given the large change in experienced
¹⁸³ photoperiod with temporal shifts (Fig. 1), this may be particularly important for phenological forecasting.
¹⁸⁴ Since spatial shifts are associated with smaller changes in experienced photoperiod, it may be less important
¹⁸⁵ for distribution forecasts. Many species, however, may shift in *both* space and time simultaneously. Even
¹⁸⁶ though experienced photoperiod changes little as species distributions shift in space, phenology may be altered
¹⁸⁷ significantly.

¹⁸⁸ For some species, experimental data can be immediately used in forecasting because experiments manipulate
¹⁸⁹ photoperiod at relevant scales (e.g., Heide and Sonsteby, 2015; Basler and Körner, 2014, Figs. 3& S1A,
¹⁹⁰ Table S1). For example, photoperiod treatments from growth chamber experiments with *Fagus sylvatica*
¹⁹¹ span the variation in both current and expected future ranges (Fig. S1A, Duputié et al., 2015), and
¹⁹² may allow identification of threshold photoperiods (Fig. 4). In other cases, attempting to incorporate
¹⁹³ photoperiod into forecasts of future phenology will reveal gaps in our understanding of many aspects of
¹⁹⁴ photoperiod responses. For example, photoperiod treatments from existing experiments of *Quercus robur*
¹⁹⁵ do not accurately represent experienced photoperiods from current or future estimates (Fig. S1B), making
¹⁹⁶ fine-scale projections difficult, even for this relatively well-studied species. This gap extends to many species,
¹⁹⁷ as most experiments manipulate photoperiod much more dramatically than will occur with climate change
¹⁹⁸ (Figs. 3, S1). Although these studies can be useful for a mechanistic understanding of photoperiod responses,
¹⁹⁹ extrapolating them to climate change models may not be reasonable.

²⁰⁰ Photoperiod is not fully integrated into most current forecasts of biological responses to climate change (but
²⁰¹ see Tobin et al., 2008, for an example in insects); this omission could affect forecast accuracy. Photoperiod

202 is incorporated into some ecosystem models (e.g., the Ecosystem Demography model Jolly et al., 2005;
203 Medvigy et al., 2013) used for forecasting but not others (e.g., Richardson et al., 2012), and is rarely included
204 in species distribution models (e.g., Morin and Thuiller, 2009; Zhu et al., 2012). The sensitivity of model
205 outcomes to assumptions made about experienced photoperiod and threshold responses to photoperiod needs
206 further study, including understanding how variation in photoperiod responses across ecosystems, species,
207 populations, and life stages impacts forecasts.

208 As researchers more fully integrate experienced photoperiod into forecasting, a critical area of further study
209 is understanding *how* photoperiod acts as a cue. Photoperiod seems to interact with temperature to affect
210 phenology (e.g., Box 1, Zydlewski et al., 2014); this would explain the divergent effects of photoperiod observed
211 across studies in woody plants (Box 1). However, exactly how it interacts with temperature is not well-
212 defined for most species or populations. For many species, additional experimental and physiological research
213 is necessary, since the dormancy-breaking processes that photoperiod affects require detailed physiological
214 approaches to observe (Box 2, Hänninen et al., 2019; Chuine et al., 2016). Understanding the drivers, as well
215 as the consequences, of variation in photoperiod responses across species and populations will be particularly
216 beneficial for forecasting. For example, what traits are associated with photoperiod sensitivity and does
217 variation in photoperiod sensitivity or related traits have a strong genetic component? If so, are species or
218 populations from some locations or lineages more likely than others to be constrained by photoperiod in their
219 responses to climate change?

220 Conclusions

221 Organisms may undergo large changes to the photoperiod they experience with climate change, even if they
222 do not shift their ranges spatially. Here we have shown that these altered photoperiods may result in stalled
223 future advances of spring phenology with warming (e.g., Table S1, Fig. S1, Fu et al., 2019; Güsewell et al.,
224 2017; Yu et al., 2010), with cascading effects on growth, fitness, and community composition due to the large
225 variation in photoperiod responses across species and populations (Box 1). We have focused on woody plant
226 spring phenology, but 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 and

²²⁸ Holzapfel, 2006) and salmon (Taranger et al., 2003) to birds (Dawson et al., 2001) and marsupials (McAllan
²²⁹ et al., 2006). Given what we know, incorporating photoperiod into forecasting of climate change responses
²³⁰ should improve model accuracy (Fig. 4), and will illuminate additional experiments that could improve our
²³¹ mechanistic understanding of photoperiod as a critical cue for diverse biological responses.

²³² Glossary

- ²³³ • budburst: one or more leaf buds has visible green tips.
- ²³⁴ • chilling: the intensity and duration of winter temperature, often a certain sum of chilling that is required
²³⁵ (e.g., some amount of hours or days of cold temperatures, defined by a specific critical temperature or
²³⁶ range of temperatures, such as between 0 and 7.2 °C, Richardson, 1974), that must be experienced for
²³⁷ budburst to occur.
- ²³⁸ • daylength: the period of time during a 24-hour period during which an organism receives light.
- ²³⁹ • dormancy: halted or reduced growth or activity.
- ²⁴⁰ • forcing: warm spring temperatures, often a certain sum of forcing that is required (e.g., some amount
²⁴¹ of hours or days above a specific temperature) before budburst or flowering can occur.
- ²⁴² • green-up: the beginning of a new cycle of plant growth, usually evaluated at the landscape scale.
- ²⁴³ • phenology: the timing of life cycle events in organisms.
- ²⁴⁴ • photoperiod: the daily duration of light (daylength) and dark to which an organism is exposed; often
²⁴⁵ used synonymously with daylength.
- ²⁴⁶ • photoperiod sensitivity: the degree to which phenology is controlled by daylength; may be a nonlinear,
²⁴⁷ or ‘threshold’, response in plants (Box 2).
- ²⁴⁸ • photoperiodism: the ability of an organism to assess or respond to length of day or night in its behavior,
²⁴⁹ physiology, growth, development, or reproduction.
- ²⁵⁰ • threshold photoperiod: length of day that causes an organism to switch from a short- to a long-day
²⁵¹ response (or vice versa). For example, in European larch (*Larix decidua*), budburst development may

252 be constrained under short-day conditions, when daylengths are less than a threshold photoperiod of
253 10-11 hours (Migliavacca et al., 2008). Above this threshold photoperiod, the long-day response of
254 unconstrained budburst development can occur.

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⁵³⁹ **Figures**

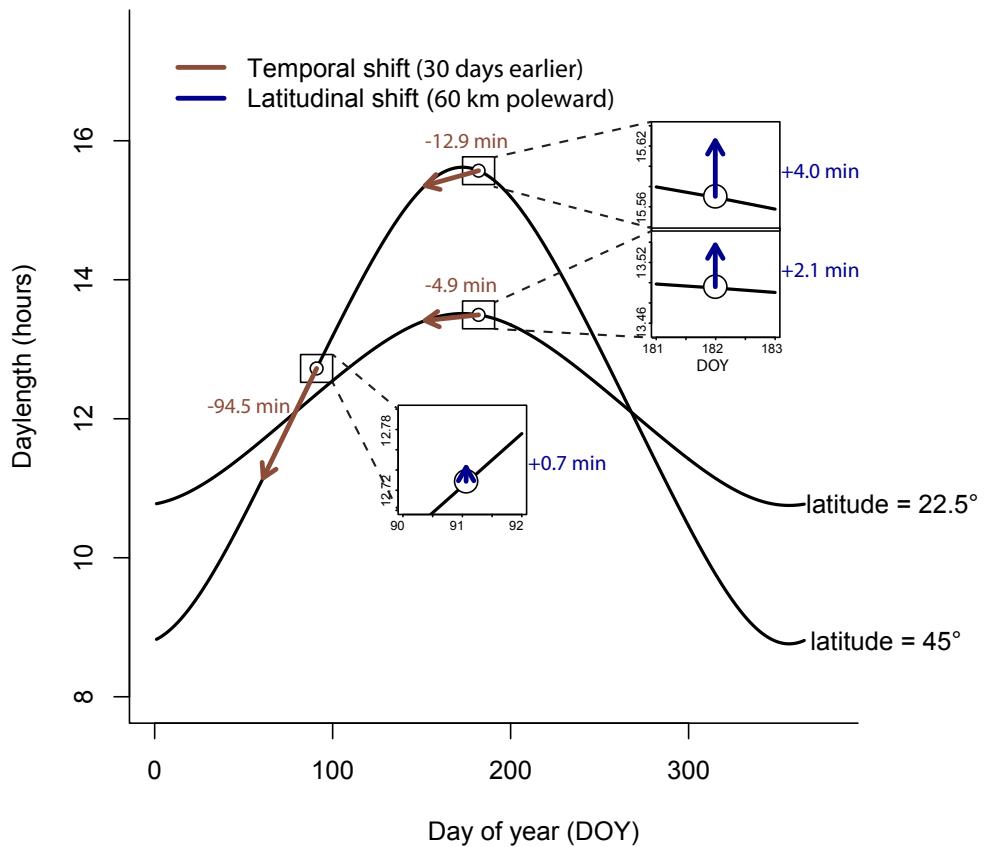


Figure 1: **Temporal (i.e., phenological) shifts in activity yield larger changes in experienced photoperiod compared to spatial (i.e., latitudinal) shifts** on the same day of year, due to patterns in photoperiod variation with latitude and by day of year. Here, we show this variation at two latitudes (22.5° , 45°), using hypothetical spatial and temporal shifts. These shifts are based on observed rates with recent global warming: 6-17 kilometers per decade, or approximately $0.5\text{--}1.5^\circ$ 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). They highlight the greater magnitude in daylength changes from temporal shifts in the early spring, close to the vernal equinox (e.g., day of year 91), versus close to the summer solstice (e.g., day of year 182).

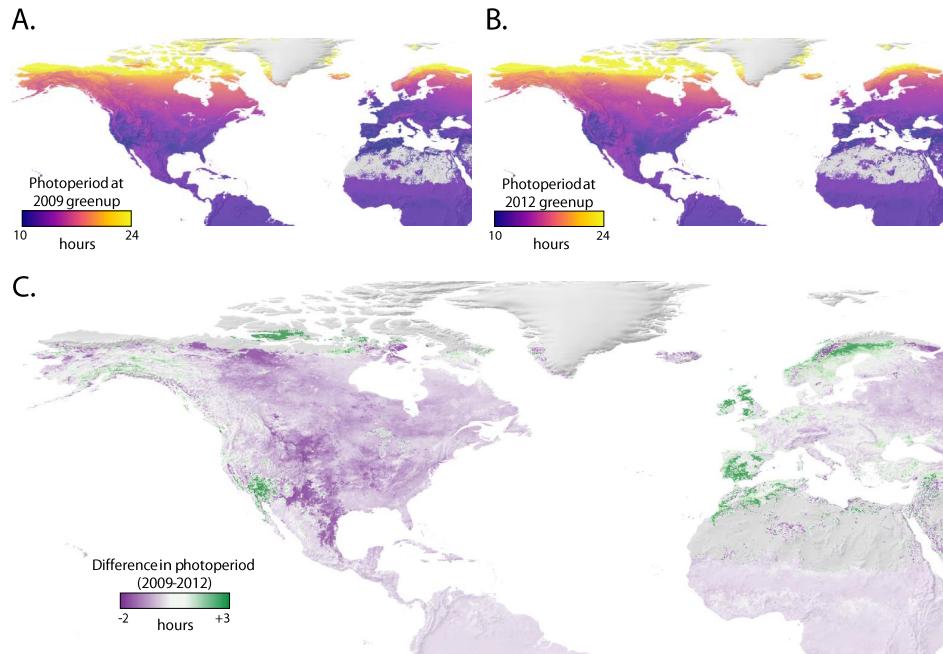


Figure 2: Photoperiod on ‘green-up’ date varies over space and between years ‘Green-up’ date is the beginning of seasonal greening, identified by satellite remote sensing measurements, taken regularly throughout the year, of concentrations of green leaf vegetation. Hours of daylight on the date of spring 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.

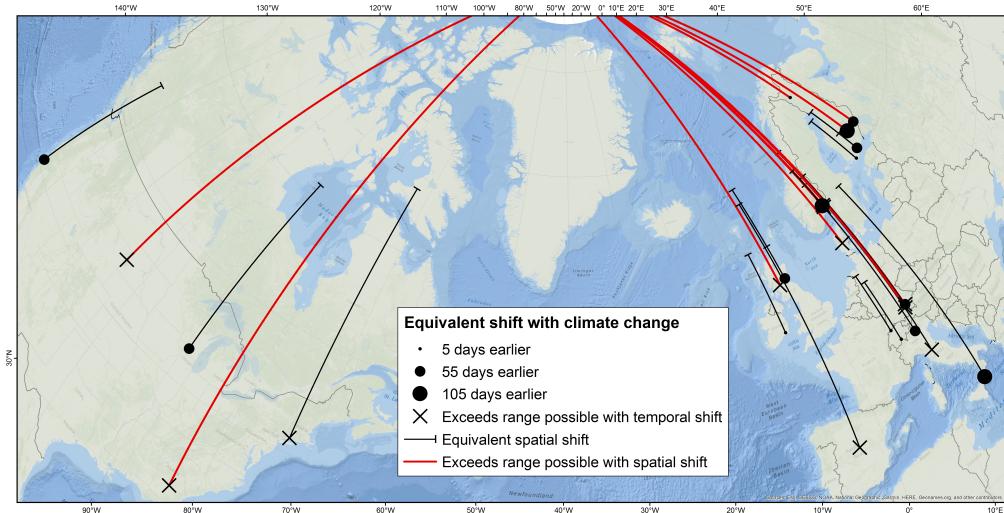


Figure 3: Experimental photoperiod treatments and their equivalent spatial and temporal shifts for experiments in the OSPREE database that manipulated photoperiod (see Box 1). See ‘Mapping temporal and spatial shifts in space and time’ in the Supplemental Materials for details on how we calculated the required spatial (lines) or temporal (circles and Xes) shifts to be equivalent to photoperiod treatments in each experiment.

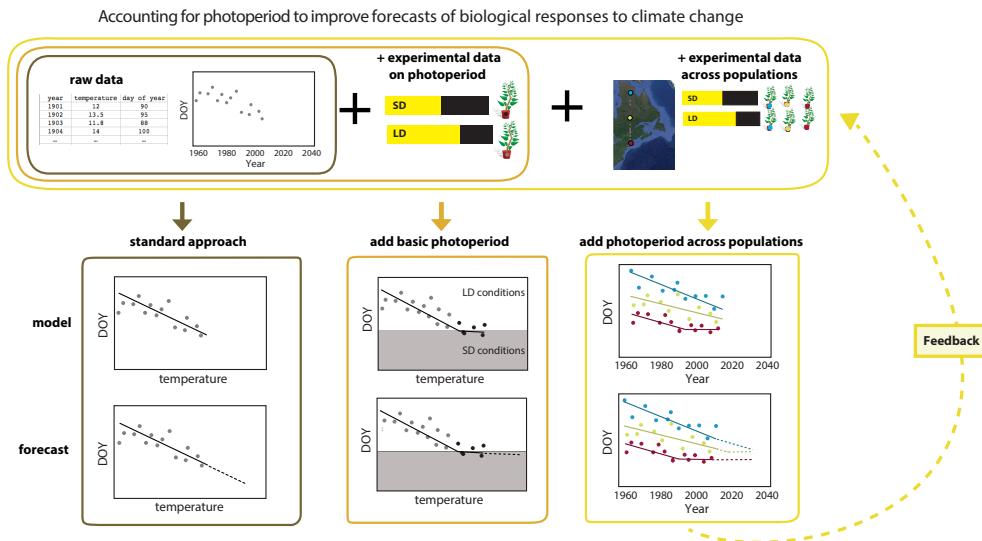


Figure 4: Conceptual diagram of how to include photoperiod in forecasting biological responses to climate change. Current approaches for forecasting spring phenology with climate change frequently rely on linear relationships between historical temperature data and observed dates of spring phenology (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* and Box 2 for details), 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).

540 **Box 1. Are photoperiod effects widespread? A case study of woody**
541 **plant spring phenology**

542 Photoperiod responses are well-studied in woody plant phenology, making this a useful case study to con-
543 sider climate change-induced shifts in photoperiod. Spring woody plant phenology in particular has critical
544 implications for global carbon cycling and feedbacks to the climate system (Richardson et al., 2013), and
545 has been at the center of an important and controversial debate on the relative effects of photoperiod versus
546 temperature on phenology (e.g., Fu et al., 2019; Chuine et al., 2010; Körner and Basler, 2010*a,b*).

547 Experimental growth chamber studies have shown that photoperiod is an important cue for spring budburst
548 phenology in woody plants (e.g., Flynn and Wolkovich, 2018; Basler and Körner, 2014; Heide, 1993*b*). These
549 experiments often manipulate photoperiod in combination with temperature to address basic questions about
550 how these two environmental conditions act as biological cues. Temperature has a dual role in regulating
551 woody plant phenology: chilling—the prolonged exposure to cold temperatures after growth cessation in the
552 fall—is required to initiate budburst, and forcing—prolonged exposure to warm temperatures—is required
553 for budburst to occur. Different photoperiod treatments are typically applied during the forcing treatment
554 phase in growth chamber experiments (e.g., Laube et al., 2014; Spann et al., 2004; Falusi and Calamassi,
555 1990; Heide, 1977; Campbell and Sugano, 1975).

556 Woody plant growth chamber studies have been conducted for decades, but have only recently been syn-
557 thesized to show that photoperiod sensitivity is widespread, with large variation across studies and species.
558 These studies have been synthesized in Observed Spring Phenology Responses in Experimental Environments
559 (OSPREE), a new database of plant growth chamber studies that manipulate photoperiod and temperature
560 to measure plant phenological responses, including budburst and flowering (Wolkovich et al., 2019). The
561 database includes studies that manipulate photoperiod (by applying treatments with different daylength du-
562 rations, applying long-day versus short-day conditions for different lengths of time, and/or applying varying
563 versus constant photoperiods) and temperature (by imposing different chilling and/or forcing treatments).
564 The OSPREE database spans 201 woody plant species; all experiments in the database use dormant plant
565 tissue (grown in greenhouses or taken directly from the field) exposed to experimental conditions for which
566 we could identify forcing, photoperiod, and chilling treatments quantitatively. See Supplemental Methods

567 and Wolkovich et al. (2019) for details.

568 Growth chamber experiments in OSPREE suggest that the dominant photoperiod response in woody plant
569 species is earlier and more rapid budburst with longer days (e.g., Caffarra and Donnelly, 2011). Thirty of
570 the 72 studies in the OSPREE database included two or more different photoperiod treatments. Of these,
571 26 (87%) found significant photoperiod main effects or significant interactive effects with temperature (i.e.,
572 photoperiod x temperature effects), across 176 species (Table S1). Main effects included responses such as
573 growth (e.g., higher growth rates with longer days Ashby et al., 1962) and reproduction (e.g., increased
574 flowering with longer days Heide and Sønsteby, 2012).

575 Growth chamber experiments highlight that responses to photoperiod vary depending on temperature condi-
576 tions. For example, more rapid advancement of budburst was observed under long versus short days with low
577 chilling, than with high chilling in *Betula payrifera* (Hawkins and Dhar, 2012, see figure). Similarly, across
578 species, as chilling accumulates from winter to spring, sensitivity to both forcing and photoperiod sensitivity
579 can decrease (Malyshev et al., 2018). Frequently, long photoperiods can compensate for low amounts of
580 chilling (Caffarra et al., 2011b; Myking and Heide, 1995; Heide, 1993a).

581 Woody plant growth chamber experiments also demonstrate that, though photoperiod responses are com-
582 mon, they are variable, as shown in the figure. Responses to photoperiod differ by species (e.g., Flynn and
583 Wolkovich, 2018; Zohner et al., 2016; Basler and Körner, 2014, 2012; Howe et al., 1996; Heide, 1993b). For
584 example, with longer chilling treatments some species seem insensitive to daylength (e.g., *Hammamelis* spp.,
585 *Prunus* spp., Zohner et al., 2016), whereas others seem to be highly sensitive to daylength (e.g. *Fagus* spp.,
586 Fig. S1A), even with long chilling treatments (Zohner et al., 2016). In addition, some species demonstrate
587 a response to photoperiod opposite to that typically observed: *Tilia*, for example, showed delayed budburst
588 with longer daylengths (see figure, Ashby et al., 1962). Photoperiod sensitivity also varies by population
589 and ecotype (e.g., see figure). For example, photoperiod effects on budburst were more significant for lower
590 latitude populations of *Betula pendula* and *B. pubescens* (Partanen et al., 2005).

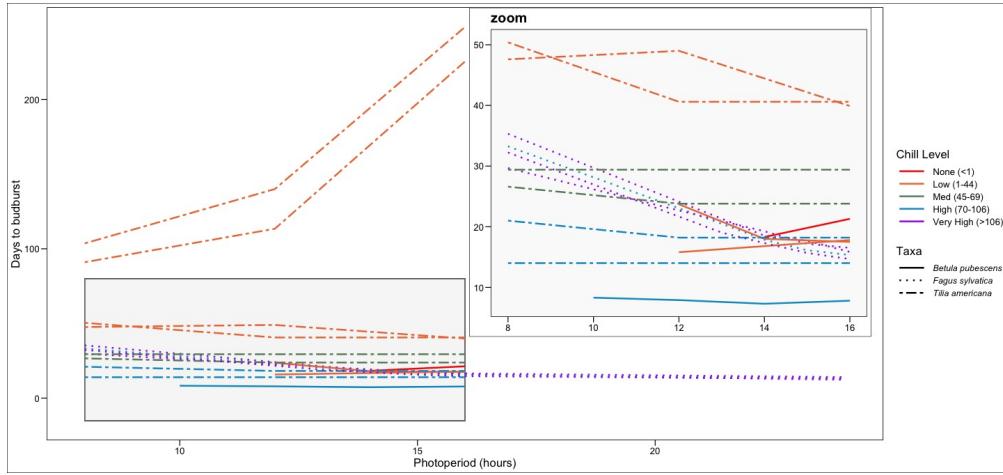


Figure: **Nonlinearities in phenological responses to daylength** are apparent in spring woody plant phenology experiments (from the OSPREE database) in which three or more photoperiod treatment levels were applied. The shape of the response curves for *Betula pubescens* (Caffarra et al., 2011b), *Fagus sylvatica* (Heide, 1993b) and *Tilia americana* (Ashby et al., 1962) differ depending on the amount of winter chilling received (measured in Chill portions Fishman et al., 1987). Species and chilling levels with multiple lines represent plant material from different populations.

Box 2. Dominant models of how photoperiod affects spring woody plant phenology

The cues and molecular pathways underlying photoperiod sensitivity are poorly understood for most organisms, even in relatively well-studied phenophases and taxa, such as spring budburst in woody plants (Ding and Nilsson, 2016). Decades of growth chamber experiments demonstrate that three main cues—chilling, forcing, and photoperiod—control spring budburst for woody species (Flynn and Wolkovich, 2018; Zohner et al., 2016; Heide, 2008), with many models suggesting a dominant role of forcing in most natural conditions. Forcing requirements, however, appear to increase given shorter photoperiods or lower chilling (Caffarra et al., 2011a; Chuine et al., 2010). Research has yet to fully tease out effects of these three cues, their interactions, and their prevalence; photoperiod responses appear variable across species and populations, as well as with different chilling treatments (see Box 1). Not surprisingly, there is currently little agreement on the underlying model for how photoperiod affects spring phenology for most species (Chuine et al., 2016; Hänninen et al., 2019). More physiological research will likely be necessary for major advances, as understanding the exact cellular pathways through which chilling, forcing, and photoperiod act appears increasingly critical to accurate modelling (van der Schoot et al., 2014; Hänninen et al., 2019).

606 Additional cellular and molecular studies may quickly advance understanding and scale up to improved
607 photoperiod models. While our understanding of how plants interpret photoperiod at the molecular-level
608 comes from few species, largely from studies of flowering in the model plant *Arabidopsis thaliana* (e.g.,
609 Suárez-López et al., 2001) and fall budset in woody plant species (e.g., Howe et al., 1996), these studies have
610 proved useful across other species. For example, the ‘external coincidence model’ (where plants sense light
611 via blue light receptors and phytochromes, then interpret photoperiod through a coordinated response to
612 light in relation to the time of day, see Lagercrantz, 2009) has been most widely studied in *Arabidopsis*, but
613 appears to be a relevant mechanism for photoperiod responses in diverse perennial and woody plant species
614 (Singh et al., 2017; Petterle et al., 2013; Andrés and Coupland, 2012; Kobayashi and Weigel, 2007; Davis,
615 2002; Bastow and Dean, 2002; Bünning, 1936). The model proposes the existence of a circadian rhythm of
616 light sensitivity, in which the night-phase is sensitive to light and the day-phase is insensitive to light. As days
617 get longer in the spring, daylight illuminates the light sensitive phase, triggering a response. This provides a
618 clear mechanistic pathway to build into models (Burghardt et al., 2015).

619 We expect progress on spring phenology will benefit from similar physiological research that spans the molec-
620 ular to whole-plant levels. To date, little is known about the genetic pathways responsible for the light-sensing
621 apparatuses involved in spring budburst, and how they may vary across species or populations. Some genes
622 have been identified that play a role in coordinating budburst in poplar (*Populus* spp.), and may occur in
623 other woody species as well. Many similarities exist between the proposed regulatory networks of vegetative
624 growth in *Populus* and those controlling floral initiation in *Arabidopsis*, (Ding and Nilsson, 2016). For exam-
625 ple, vegetative growth and inhibition of budset are promoted by the FLOWERING LOCUS T2 (FT2) gene, a
626 homolog of *Arabidopsis thaliana* gene FLOWERING LOCUS (FT). FT2 expression appears to be controlled
627 by a pathway that is effective in long days and warm temperatures, marking the onset of the growing season
628 (Hsu et al., 2011). Its loss of expression in autumn, when the days are getting shorter, is associated with the
629 onset of dormancy (Glover, 2014).

630 Efforts to better map the genetic and cellular pathways of spring phenology combined with common garden
631 studies can provide a powerful method to test mechanistic understanding and improve models (e.g., Burghardt
632 et al., 2015; Fournier-Level et al., 2016). Here we have mainly outlined how to combine growth chamber studies
633 with long-term data to improve models and forecasting; a greater physiological understanding of at least a

⁶³⁴ few species will likely also be necessary for generating robust predictions with climate change.