1	BUD BREAK RESPONDS MORE STRONGLY TO DAYTIME THAN NIGHTTIME
2	TEMPERATURE UNDER ASYMMETRIC EXPERIMENTAL WARMING
3	Running head: bud break under asymmetric warming
4	Sergio Rossi <sup>1,2,3</sup> *, Nathalie Isabel <sup>4</sup>
5	<sup>1</sup> Département des Sciences Fondamentales, Université du Québec à Chicoutimi, Chicoutimi
6	(QC), Canada
7	<sup>2</sup> Key Laboratory of Vegetation Restoration and Management of Degraded Ecosystems, South
8	China Botanical Garden, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Guangzhou, China
9	<sup>3</sup> Provincial Key Laboratory of Applied Botany, South China Botanical Garden, Chinese
10	Academy of Sciences, Guangzhou, China
11	<sup>4</sup> Natural Resources Canada, Canadian Forest Service, Laurentian Forestry Centre, Québec
12	(Sainte-Foy), QC, Canada
13	*Corresponding author: Département des Sciences Fondamentales, Université du Québec à
14	Chicoutimi, 555 boulevard de l'Université, G7H2B1 Chicoutimi (QC), Canada. Phone 418-545-
15	5011, fax 418-545-5012, email sergio.rossi@uqac.ca
16	Keywords: bud burst; climate change; ecotype; maximum temperature; minimum temperature;
17	Picea mariana; phenology
18	Type of paper: primary research article

#### ABSTRACT

20 Global warming is diurnally asymmetric, leading to a less-cold, rather than warmer, climate. We 21 investigated the effects of asymmetric experimental warmings on plant phenology by testing the 22 hypothesis that daytime warming is more effective in advancing bud break than nighttime 23 warming. Bud break was monitored daily in Picea mariana seedlings belonging to 20 24 provenances from Eastern Canada and subjected to daytime and nighttime warmings in growth 25 chambers at temperatures varying between 8 and 16 °C. The higher advancements of bud break 26 and shorter times required to complete the phenological phases occurred with daytime warming. 27 Seedlings responded to nighttime warming, but still with less advancement of bud break than 28 under daytime warming. No advancement was observed when nighttime warming was associated 29 to a daytime cooling. The effect of the treatments was uniform across provenances. Our 30 observations realized under controlled conditions allowed to experimentally demonstrate that bud 31 break can advance under nighttime warming, but to a lesser extent than under daytime warming. 32 Prediction models using daily time scales could neglect the diverging influence of asymmetric 33 warming and should be recalibrated for higher temporal resolutions. 34

#### **INTRODUCTION**

36 During the last century, mean surface temperature has risen by 0.7 °C at global scale and by 0.5-37 1.5 °C across North America (IPCC, 2013, Zhang et al., 2000). Over the last 50 years the rate of 38 warming has almost doubled attaining 0.13 °C decade<sup>-1</sup> (IPCC, 2013), with a warming of 0.26 °C 39 decade<sup>-1</sup> estimated for the northern regions of North America (McKenney *et al.*, 2006). For 40 North-eastern Canada, temperature increases are predicted to reach 3 °C over the next 50 years 41 (Plummer et al., 2006). Warming is geographically, seasonally and diurnally asymmetric, with 42 changes being greater at the higher latitudes, during winter-spring, and at night (Donat & Alexander, 2012, Plummer et al., 2006). Between 1950 and 1993, the minimum temperatures 43 44 have increased at about twice the rate of maximum temperatures, leading to a less-cold, rather 45 than warmer, climate (IPCC, 2013).

46 The carbon balance of terrestrial ecosystems is regulated by the CO<sub>2</sub> assimilation of plants. 47 Growth reactivation in spring, defined by the phenology of buds and leaves, is mostly triggered 48 by a cumulative effect of cold (autumn and winter) and warm (spring) temperatures, and photoperiod (Körner & Basler, 2010, Laube et al., 2013). Responses to the environmental drivers 49 50 are species specific, and, within the same species, genetically-different populations can exhibit 51 divergent phenologies according to clinal variations in the environmental conditions (Rossi, 52 2015). The timings of reactivation of meristem activity are the result of an evolutionary 53 adaptation of plants to local climate, allowing all physiological processes to be synchronized with 54 the period of the year more favourable for growth and reproduction. Plant development and 55 switches to successive ontogenetic phases are based on chemical, enzyme-catalysed, and

temperature-dependent reactions. Accordingly, they occur earlier and faster at increasing
temperatures (Badeck *et al.*, 2004).

58 Phenological responses to recent climate changes are widely documented, showing marked 59 advancements of bud break and flowering due to the worldwide increase in temperature (Fu et 60 al., 2015, Menzel et al., 2006, Piao et al., 2015). On the one hand, lengthening of the growing 61 season may potentially enhance carbon uptake and net ecosystem productivity of forests 62 (Randerson *et al.*, 1999). On the other, the earlier phenology increases the risk of frost damage to 63 leaves and reproductive structures in temperate and cold biomes and could mismatch the 64 synchronisms with parasite or mutualistic species (Bennie et al., 2010, Thomson, 2010). In 65 addition, such delays or advancements of phenology could create new host-parasite synchronisms 66 between species that were previously mismatched (Nealis & Régnière, 2004). These phenological 67 changes are expected to affect the ecological fitness of species and adaptation of local 68 populations to the climatic conditions. Thus, the challenge is to predict to what extent future 69 climate will modify bud phenology. For this purpose, several phenological prediction models are 70 available, mostly based on species-specific algorithms using thermal degree days as a spring 71 forcing unit (Basler, 2015).

To date, experimental manipulations on bud break have investigated responses under
homogenous warming conditions (Rossi, 2015), despite evidence that plants respond differently
to changes in minimum and maximum temperature (Alward *et al.*, 1999, Balducci *et al.*, 2015,
Wan *et al.*, 2009). Moreover, the ongoing diverging increases in daytime and nighttime
temperatures raise the question of whether daily-based models are still appropriate as prediction
tools. Chronologies of spring bud phenology from Europe and the United States have recently

been compared to daytime and nighttime temperatures, finding that dates of leaf onset were more correlated to the former (Piao *et al.*, 2015). At the time of writing, the potential responses of bud break to asymmetric warming are basically unknown and need to be explored in nature and tested under experimental conditions.

82 In this study, we investigated the effects of asymmetric experimental warming on bud phenology 83 in a species with wide geographical distribution. Timing and duration of bud break were 84 monitored daily in black spruce [Picea mariana (Mill.) BSP] seedlings belonging to 20 85 provenances from Eastern Canada and subjected to different daytime and nighttime temperatures. 86 Two experiments were conducted in growth chambers under constant photoperiod at 87 temperatures between 8 and 16 °C. We hypothesised that daytime warming would be more 88 effective than nighttime in advancing bud break. The experimental design also allowed the 89 potential differences to be assessed in the sensitivity of bud break to warming across 90 provenances.

#### MATERIAL AND METHODS

### 93 Origin of the provenances

94 Seedlings were produced from lots of black spruce seeds representing 20 provenances from Eastern Canada. The seeds were collected in mature stands between the 45<sup>th</sup> and 51<sup>st</sup> parallels, 95 96 which mark the latitudinal distribution of the species within the commercial forest of Quebec 97 (Table 1 and Fig. S1). The stands were located in the bioclimatic domains belonging to the mixed 98 forest of the Northern temperate zone and the coniferous forest of the boreal zone. 99 The climate of the area is continental cold to boreal, with short and cool summers. Winters are 100 very cold and harsh, with 173-241 frost days per year (Table 1). Absolute minimum temperatures 101 are below -30 °C, reaching -48.8 °C in Parc Mistassini. Mean annual temperatures range between 102 -0.9 °C in Parc des Laurentides and 5.4 °C in Forêt de Watopeka. Total precipitation is 856-1144 103 mm, moderately decreasing with latitude and longitude across the study region (Table 1). 104 Climatic data of the sites were assessed using BioSIM version 10.3 (Natural Resources Canada, 105 Sainte-Foy), which contains historical and spatially-referenced daily weather records, and 106 provided geographically adjusted long-term data according to the weather stations located near 107 the stands (Régnière & St-Amant, 2007).

# 108 Seedling production

In May 2014, the seeds were sown in plastic containers and the resulting seedlings were grown until October to develop appropriately until completing the first growing season. Each container had 20 seedlings belonging to four different provenances. The seedlings were maintained in an open field covered by a thick layer of snow during winter.

# 113 Experimental design and bud break assessment

In 2015, two warming experiments beginning on January 7<sup>th</sup> and February 20<sup>th</sup> were performed in 114 115 three growth chambers (Conviron, Winnipeg) at different temperatures. Before each experiment, 116 the seedlings were released from snow and transferred to 5 °C in the dark for 30 h to acclimate. 117 Each treatment involved 10 seedlings per provenance distributed in 10 containers per growth 118 chamber, which resulted in a total of 600 seedlings monitored per experiment. The treatments 119 consisted in modifying either daytime or nighttime temperature by 4-8 °C according to the design 120 in Table 2. These temperatures allowed to take into account the warming expected at the 121 beginning of the growing season (Zhang et al., 2000). This resulted in a daytime or nighttime 122 warming, which in experiment 2 was associated to nighttime or daytime cooling. In both 123 experiments, the control was set at day/night temperature of 12/12 °C. Twelve degrees Celsius 124 represent the thermal conditions generally observed during bud break in the southern part of the 125 black spruce distribution (Antonucci et al., 2015, De Barba et al., 2016). Photoperiod was 126 maintained at 12 h in order to attain the same daily heat sum in the treatments, with a lighting condition set at 260-300 µmol photons m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>. This intensity was chosen to avoid potential 127 128 warming effects of lights on buds and needles (Rossi, 2015). RH was 75-85% and CO<sub>2</sub> 450-550 129 µmol mol<sup>-1</sup>. Irrigation was supplied daily to maintain the soil conditions similar to those occurring in black spruce stands during spring. 130

Seedlings were examined daily for assessing the dates of apical bud break, which were reported as days from the beginning of the experiment. The six phases of bud break were: (1) open bud, with the scales starting to separate and a pale spot visible at the tip; (2) elongated bud, with lengthening scales; (3) swollen bud, with smooth and pale-coloured scales but no visible needle; 135 (4) translucent bud, with needles visible through the scales; (5) split bud, with open scales but

136 needles still clustered; and (6) exposed shoot, with needles completely emerged from the

137 surrounding scales and spreading outwards (Dhont *et al.*, 2010).

# 138 Statistical analyses

139 All analyses were performed by averaging data of the 5 seedlings growing in the same container, 140 which resulted in two repetitions per provenance and growth chamber. The effect of the 141 treatments on the timings of bud break was evaluated using type I sum of squares in Generalized 142 Linear Models (GLM). The treatment represented a fixed factor and the annual temperature of the 143 stands reported in Table 1 was used as independent variable for quantifying the effect of 144 provenance on bud break. Phenological observations were data repeatedly collected on the same 145 subjects. Thus, mixed models with repeated measurements were performed to assess the effects 146 of the treatment on the time required to complete each phase of bud break. Multiple comparisons 147 between control and treatments were tested by orthogonal contrasts. The distributions of raw data 148 and residuals were checked before and after performing the models, respectively. Statistics were 149 applied using SAS 9.4 (SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC).

#### RESULTS

152 In control seedlings, phase 1 occurred 5.6 and 8.8 days after the beginning of observations in 153 experiment 1 and 2, respectively. The comparisons indicated that the phases of bud break in 154 experiment 2 was significantly delayed by c.a. 3 days in respect to experiment 1, although 155 seedlings had previously been submitted to the same environmental conditions and acclimation. 156 This lag was maintained for phases 2-4, but disappeared for phases 5-6. As the two controls were 157 not equivalent, all models and comparisons were performed separately for experiment 1 and 2. 158 Experiments 1 and 2 lasted for a total of 52 and 62 days, respectively, until all seedlings showed 159 their needles completely emerged from the surrounding scales (phase 6), revealing that the 160 process of bud break had concluded.

### 161 **Timings of bud break**

162 With the exception of open bud in experiment 1, the models were highly significant with F-163 values ranging between 5.32 and 23.64 (P<0.001) (Table 3). Due to the high variability within 164 and between provenances (Fig. S2), the resulting  $R^2$  of significant models were low, at between 165 0.19 and 0.52. Studentized residuals showed no trend and were well distributed around zero in 166 both experiments and for all phases, suggesting that the analysis could be considered acceptable 167 (Fig. S3). The studentized residuals exceeding the 95% confidence interval (the range between -2 168 and 2) were less than 5%, except for phases 2-6 in experiment 1, where 6.0-6.9% of values 169 exceeded the confidence interval.

170 In all significant models, the provenance, represented by the mean annual temperature of the

171 provenance origin, affected bud break (P<0.001) (Table 3). As expected, the provenances

belonging to sites with higher annual temperatures had later bud breaks (Fig. 1). Overall, bud
break was delayed by 0.63 days per additional degree of mean annual temperature of the site.
With the exception of phase 1 in experiment 2, warming had a significant effect on the timings of
bud break, with the lower probabilities being generally calculated for the latest phases of
development. No interaction provenance × treatment was observed, indicating that the treatment
produced the same effect irrespective of the provenance of the seedlings (Table 3).

178 Contrasts revealed a different effect of daytime and nighttime warming, with more evident 179 differences from phase 2 (Table 3). In experiment 1, both treatments differed significantly from 180 the control for phases 2-6, but the higher advancements of bud break were observed with daytime 181 warming from phase 3 (Fig. 1). As an example, exposed shoot (phase 6) occurred 3.8 and 5.6 182 days earlier than the control with nighttime and daytime warming, respectively. In experiment 2, 183 only daytime warming advanced bud break, while no difference was observed between nighttime 184 warming and control (Table 3). Accordingly, seedlings warmed during the day exhibited an 185 advancement of phase 6 of 3.4 days in respect to the control (Fig. 1).

### 186 **Duration of the phases**

187 The duration of each phase of bud break was analysed using mixed models with repeated

188 measurements (Table 4). Both models were significant (P<0.001), and exhibited a  $X^2$  of 79.06

and 114.50 for experiment 1 and 2, respectively. Studentized residuals were homogeneously

- 190 distributed around zero in both experiments, and less than 5% of them exceeded the 95%
- 191 confidence intervals (the range between -2 and 2) (Fig. S4). The models could be considered to
- 192 correctly fit the data.

193 A different number of days was required to complete each phase, as revealed by the significant F-194 values of 436.12 and 306.61 (P<0.001). On average, phases 3 (swollen bud) and 4 (translucent 195 bud) lasted less than 4 days, while phase 5 (split bud) was the longest, requiring 9.2 days to be 196 completed (Fig. 2). In comparison with the control, warming significantly modified the duration 197 of the bud break phases, although the effect was not homogenous for all phases, as shown by the 198 significant interaction phase × treatment (Table 4). Nighttime warming differed from the control 199 only in experiment 1, while the shortest durations were estimated with daytime warming. On 200 average, the differences between this treatment and control were small, i.e. less than one day, 201 although statistically significant.

#### DISCUSSION

204 The effects of an asymmetric warming on bud break were investigated in black spruce by means 205 of increases in daytime and nighttime temperatures. Two experiments were conducted consisting 206 of a daytime or nighttime warming. In experiment 2, the daytime-nighttime warming was 207 associated with nighttime-daytime cooling, which allowed similar daily heat sums to be 208 maintained between treatments. The higher advancements of bud break and shorter times 209 required to complete the phenological phases were observed with daytime warming in both 210 experiments. Seedlings responded to nighttime warming only in experiment 1, but still with less 211 advancement of bud break than under daytime warming. Our design, performed under controlled 212 conditions, allowed to experimentally demonstrate at a very fine time scale the driving effect of 213 the daily temperature on the bud break process. These findings confirmed the hypothesis that 214 daytime warming would be more effective than nighttime warming in advancing bud break.

215 Higher temperatures speed up the leafing process, as also demonstrated by both long-term 216 observations (Fu et al., 2015, Park et al., 2015), and experimental warmings (Prieto et al., 2009, 217 Wolkovich et al., 2012). The advancement of bud break under climate warming can expose the 218 developing meristems to frost damage during the long nights in early spring or create new 219 opportunities for parasites (Thomson, 2010, Vitasse et al., 2014). Our experiments were 220 performed at temperatures representative of June, when growth reactivation is observed in black 221 spruce (Antonucci et al., 2015, De Barba et al., 2016). At these thermal conditions, seedlings 222 reactivate bud development promptly and quickly, even if the photoperiod is only 12 h. This 223 demonstrated that photoperiod requirements are met in early spring, when days begin to be longer 224 than nights. Thus, warmer temperatures could advance dormancy release of black spruce in May,

when the probability of nighttime frosts and the consequent damage to rehydrating buds ishigher.

#### 227 Asymmetric warming and bud break

228 Under warming conditions, the advancement of bud break is more evident and significant for the 229 last phases. The increase in temperature seems to produce a cumulative effect on the sequential 230 events of the bud break process, which are strictly connected together (Rossi, 2015, Rossi & 231 Bousquet, 2014). When chilling and photoperiod requirements are met, temperature is the main 232 driving force for spring phenology, and bud break can be estimated by thermal time calculated by 233 heat units or growing degree days. Thermal time is commonly represented by the daily mean 234 temperatures above a threshold of 0-6 °C (Antonucci et al., 2015, Wang et al., 2015, Wielgolaski, 235 1999), but some studies demonstrate that hourly temperatures can produce more reliable predictions (Man & Lu, 2010). The diverging results found in this study under different 236 237 (experiment 1) and similar (experiment 2) heat sums indicate that heat units are accumulated at 238 hourly scales, and during daytime. This confirms the need to build phenological models based on 239 hourly rather than daily temperatures, especially when predicting the timing of bud break under 240 future climatic scenarios.

The ongoing changes in the global temperature are producing an asymmetric warming, with nighttime temperatures rising at faster rates than daytime ones. This will lead to a less-cold, rather than warmer, climate. Our study experimentally demonstrated that nighttime warming, if not associated to a daytime cooling, could significantly advance bud break by shortening the time required to complete the phenological phases, although the effects will be less than those expected under daytime warming. Piao *et al.* (2015) showed that leaf onset detected by remote

247 sensing in the northern hemisphere was mainly driven by maximum temperature, and proposed 248 three possible explanations. First, minimum temperature is more likely than maximum to be 249 below the thermal threshold of 0-6 °C (Wang et al., 2015, Wielgolaski, 1999), thus potentially 250 excluding nighttime hours being accounted for in growing degree days. Second, photoperiod 251 interacts with temperature in forcing bud break (Körner & Basler, 2010), and its effect could 252 modify the influence of daytime and nighttime temperatures on growth resumption. In this study, 253 temperatures ranged between 8 and 16 °C, substantially exceeding the thermal threshold of most 254 species (Wang et al., 2015, Wielgolaski, 1999). Moreover, a constant photoperiod of 12 h was 255 used for all treatments, allowing seedlings to experience similar periods of nighttime and daytime 256 temperatures. Consequently, the first and second hypotheses could not applied in explaining the 257 results for black spruce.

258 The third hypothesis proposed by Piao et al. (2015) involved another physiological process of 259 plants. In particular, a higher availability of photosynthates to the developing buds may be 260 expected to accelerate leafing. In evergreen conifers, carbohydrates and photosynthates from the 261 previous year's needles support shoot growth until new needles develop (Hansen & Beck, 1994). 262 As photosynthesis occurs during the day, and the rate of carbon fixation is related to temperature 263 (Kolari et al., 2007, Tan et al., 2015, Turnbull et al., 2002), daytime warming could have 264 enhanced photosynthesis, and, in turn, the bud development rate. The significant effects of 265 nighttime warming on bud phenology during experiment 1 could also be related to an indirect 266 effect on photosynthesis. In the temperature steppe of Northern China, night warming stimulated 267 plant respiration and carbohydrate consumption, producing a compensatory enhancement of 268 photosynthesis during the subsequent days (Wan et al., 2009). However, the supposed influence 269 of photosynthetic rate on bud break conflicts with the results of a previous experiment performed

270 at different day lengths (Rossi, 2015). Despite the wide photoperiod range tested, from 14 to 22 271 h, the treatment produced at best an advancement of only 3 days in the timings of exposed shoot, 272 which was a marginal advancement with respect to the increase in day length (Rossi, 2015). 273 Hormones such as gibberellins and auxin are also involved in bud break and growth resumption 274 (Hansen et al., 1999, Lavender & Silim, 1986). With respect to nighttime warming, daytime 275 warming associated to higher contents of gibberellins and endogenous auxins resulted in greater 276 enhancements of growth in Arabidopsis thaliana and Pisum sativum, respectively (Grindal et al., 277 1998, Thingnaes et al., 2003). Further manipulation experiments are required to investigate the 278 endogenous factors or physiological mechanisms affecting the asymmetric responses of bud 279 break to daytime and nighttime warming.

### 280 **Population differentiation and bud break**

281 In this study, the provenances were represented by the annual temperature of the provenance 282 origin, which covered an interval of temperature exceeding 6 K, from -0.9 and 5.4 °C, 283 representing the wide range of thermal conditions experienced by black spruce across most of its 284 latitudinal distribution. Seedlings originating from the colder sites had an earlier bud break, 285 which indicated that less heat or accumulation of degree days were needed for resuming growth 286 and confirmed the ecotypic differentiation of local populations in black spruce (Blum, 1988, 287 Rossi, 2015). In colder sites, thermal conditions for growth are reached in late spring, when 288 nights are short, and the risk of damage due to frost events is unlikely. The interaction 289 provenance×treatment was not significant, suggesting that the provenances exhibited similar 290 responses to the asymmetric warming. However, the growth of ecotypes located along a 291 latitudinal gradient resumes under different photoperiods, which could affect the response of bud

292	break to the temperature (Körner & Basler, 2010). Consequently, it is possible that the <i>in situ</i>
293	responses of the provenances could diverge from those observed in our study.

#### 294 Implications for prediction models

295 The ecological effects of the increase in temperature at global scale require a better understanding 296 of the response mechanisms of plants to environmental drivers to build reliable tools to predict all 297 potential changes of bud phenology under climate warming. For technical reasons related to the 298 historical datasets available, most existing phenological prediction models have been calibrated 299 and run using degree days (Basler, 2015). The ongoing increases in minimum and maximum 300 temperatures are temporally and spatially asymmetric, with the former rising at higher rates than 301 the latter (Donat & Alexander, 2012, IPCC, 2013, Plummer et al., 2006). These asymmetric 302 changes in climate need to be associated with the diverging advancements of bud break to 303 daytime and nighttime warming recently observed in the northern hemisphere (Piao et al., 2015) 304 and experimentally confirmed in this study. Based on our findings, the timings of bud break are 305 expected to advance under nighttime warming, but to a lesser extent than under daytime 306 warming. Prediction models using daily time scales could neglect the diverging influence of both 307 asymmetric warming and biological responses of plants and should be recalibrated at higher 308 temporal resolutions. The agreement of our observations with Piao et al. (2015) may indicate a 309 similar response to asymmetric warming at all tree ages. However, based on the well-known 310 ontogenic differences in phenology between young and mature trees (Vitasse, 2013), the results 311 of this study should be carefully validated also on older trees.

### ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

- 314 This work was funded by grants from Natural Resources Canada, Consortium de Recherche sur
- 315 la Forêt Boréale Commerciale, and Canada Foundation for Innovation. The author thanks L.
- 316 Balducci, S. Carles, J. Gravel-Grenier, and S. Rivest for technical support and A. Garside for
- 317 editing the English text.

319

# REFERENCES

320	Alward RD, Detling JK, Milchunas DG (1999) Grassland vegetation changes and nocturnal
321	global warming. Science, 283, 229-231.
322	Antonucci S, Rossi S, Deslauriers A, Lombardi F, Marchetti M, Tognetti R (2015) Synchronisms
323	and correlations of spring phenology between apical and lateral meristems in two boreal
324	conifers. Tree Physiology, 35, 1086-1094.
325	Badeck FW, Bondeau A, Böttcher K, Doktor D, Lucht W, Schaber J, Sitch S (2004) Responses
326	of spring phenology to climate change. New Phytologist, 162, 295-309.
327	Balducci L, Deslauriers A, Giovannelli A, Beaulieu M, Delzon S, Rossi S, Rathgeber CBK
328	(2015) How do drought and warming influence plant survival and wood traits of Picea
329	mariana saplings? Journal of Experimental Botany, 66, 377-389.
330	Basler D (2015) Evaluating phenological models for the prediction of leaf-out dates in six
331	temperate tree species across central Europe. Agricultural and Forest Meteorology, 217,
332	10-21.
333	Bennie J, Kubin E, Wiltshire A, Huntley B, Baxter R (2010) Predicting spatial and temporal
334	patterns of bud-burst and spring frost risk in north-west Europe: the implications of local
335	adaptation to climate. Global Change Biology, 16, 1503-1514.
336	Blum BM (1988) Variation in the phenology of bud flushing in white and red spruce. Canadian
337	Journal of Forest Research, 18, 315-319.
338	De Barba D, Rossi S, Deslauriers A, Morin H (2016) Effects of soil warming and nitrogen foliar
339	applications on bud burst of black spruce. Trees, <b>30</b> , 87-97.
340	Dhont C, Sylvestre P, Gros-Louis M-C, Isabel N (2010) Field guide for identifying apical bud
341	break and bud formation stages in white spruce, Quebec, Natural Resources Canada.

342	Donat MG, Alexander LV (2012) The shifting probability distribution of global daytime and
343	night-time temperatures. Geophysical Research Letters, 39, L14707.
344	Fu YH, Zhao H, Piao S et al. (2015) Declining global warming effects on the phenology of
345	spring leaf unfolding. Nature, 526, 104-107.
346	Grindal G, Junttila O, Reid JB, Moe R (1998) The response to gibberellin in Pisum sativum
347	grown under alternating day and night temperature. Journal of Plant Growth Regulation,
348	<b>17</b> , 161-167.
349	Hansen E, Olsen JE, Junttila O (1999) Gibberellins and subapical cell divisions in relation to bud
350	set and bud break in Salix pentandra. Journal of Plant Growth Regulation, 18, 167-170.
351	Hansen J, Beck E (1994) Seasonal changes in the utilization and turnover of assimilation
352	products in 8-year-old Scots pine (Pinus sylvestris L.) trees. Trees, 8, 172-182.
353	Ipcc (2013) Climate change 2013: The physical science basis. Contribution of working group I to
354	the fifth assessment report of the intergovernmental panel on climate change, Cambridge,
355	UK, Cambridge University Press.
356	Kolari P, Lappalainen HK, Hänninen H, Hari P (2007) Relationship between temperature and the
357	seasonal course of photosynthesis in Scots pine at northern timberline and in southern
358	zone. Tellus, <b>59B</b> , 542-552.
359	Körner C, Basler D (2010) Phenology under global warming. Science, 327, 1461-1462.
360	Laube J, Sparks TH, Estrella N, Höfler J, Ankerst DP, Menzel A (2013) Chilling outweights
361	photoperiod in preventing precocious spring development. Global Change Biology, 20,
362	170-182.
363	Lavender DP, Silim SN (1986) The role of plant growth regulators in dormancy in forest trees.

*Plant Growth Regulation*, **6**, 171-191.

365	Man R, Lu P (2010) Effects of thermal model and base temperature on estimates of thermal time
366	to bud break in white spruce seedlings. Canadian Journal of Forest Research, 40, 1815-
367	1820.
368	Mckenney DW, Pedlar JH, Papadopol P, Hutchinson MF (2006) The development of 1901-2000
369	historical monthly climate models for Canada and the United States. Agricultural and
370	Forest Meteorology, 138, 69-81.
371	Menzel A, Sparks TH, Estrella N et al. (2006) European phenological response to climate change
372	matches the warming pattern. Global Change Biology, 12, 1969-1976.
373	Nealis VG, Régnière J (2004) Insect-host relationships influencing disturbance by the spruce
374	budworm in a mixedwood forest. Canadian Journal of Forest Research, 34, 1870-1882.
375	Park H, Jeong S-J, Ho C-H, Kim J, Brown ME, Schaepman ME (2015) Nonlinear response of
376	vegetation green-up to local temperature variations in temperate and boreal forests in the
377	Northern Hemisphere. Remote Sensing of Environment, 165, 100-108.
378	Piao SL, Tan JG, Chen AP et al. (2015) Leaf onset in the northern hemisphere triggered by
379	daytime temperature. Nature Communications, 6, 6911.
380	Plummer DA, Caya D, Frigon A et al. (2006) Climate and climate change over North America as
381	simulated by the Canadian RCM. Journal of Climate, 19, 3112-3132.
382	Prieto P, Peñuelas J, Niinemets Ü et al. (2009) Changes in the onset of spring growth in
383	shrubland species in response to experimental warming along a north-south gradient in
384	Europe. Global Ecology and Biogeography, 18, 473-484.
385	Randerson JT, Field CB, Fung IY, Tans PP (1999) Increases in early season ecosystem uptake
386	explain recent changes in the seasonal cycle of atmospheric CO <sub>2</sub> at high northern
387	latitudes. Geophysical Research Letters, 26, 2765-2768.

388	Régnière J, St-Amant R (2007) Stochastic simulation of daily air temperature and precipitation
389	from monthly normals in North America north of Mexico. International Journal of
390	<i>Biometeorology</i> , <b>51</b> , 415-430.
391	Rossi S (2015) Local adaptations and climate change: converging sensitivity of bud break in
392	black spruce provenances. International Journal of Biometeorology, 59, 827-835.
393	Rossi S, Bousquet J (2014) The bud break process and its variation among local populations of
394	boreal black spruce. Frontiers in Plant Science, 5, 574.
395	Tan JG, Piao SL, Chen AP et al. (2015) Seasonally different response of photosynthetic activity
396	to daytime and night-time warming in the Northern Hemisphere. Global Change Biology,
397	<b>21</b> , 377-387.
398	Thingnaes E, Torre S, Ernsten A, Moe R (2003) Day and night temperature responses in
399	Arabidopsis: effects on gibberellin and auxin content, cell size, morphology and
400	flowering time. Annals of Botany, 92, 601-612.
401	Thomson JD (2010) Flowering phenology, fruiting success and progressive deterioration of
402	pollination in an early-flowering geophyte. Philosophical Transactions of the Royal
403	Society of London, Series B: Biological Sciences, 365, 3187-3199.
404	Turnbull MH, Murthy R, Griffin KL (2002) The relative impacts of daytime and night-time
405	warming on photosynthetic capacity in Populus deltoides. Plant Cell and Environment,
406	<b>25</b> , 1729-1737.
407	Vitasse Y (2013) Ontogenic changes rather than differences in temperature cause understory trees
408	to leaf out earlier. New Phytologist, 198, 149-155.
409	Vitasse Y, Lenz A, Körner C (2014) The interaction between freezing tolerance and phenology in
410	temperate deciduous trees. Frontiers in Plant Science, 5, 541.

- Wan S, Xia J, Liu W, Niu S (2009) Photosynthetic overcompensation under nocturnal warming
  enhances grassland carbon sequestration. *Ecology*, **90**, 2700-2710.
- 413 Wang H, Ge Q, Rutishauser T, Dai Y, Dai J (2015) Parameterization of temperature sensitivity of
- 414 spring phenology and its application in explaining diverse phenological responses to
- 415 temperature change. *Scientific Reports*, **5**, 8833.
- 416 Wielgolaski FE (1999) Starting dates and basic temperatures in phenological observations of
- 417 plants. *International Journal of Biometeorology*, **42**, 158-168.
- 418 Wolkovich EM, Cook BI, Allen JM et al. (2012) Warming experiments underpredict plant
- 419 phenological responses to climate change. *Nature*, **485**, 494-497.
- 420 Zhang X, Vincent L, Hogg WD, Niitsoo A (2000) Temperature and precipitation trends in
- 421 Canada during the 20th century. *Atmosphere Ocean*, **38**, 395-429.

Table 1 Location and climatic characteristics of the stands where seeds were collected, and corresponding to the 20 provenances used
in the study. Stands are listed at increasing mean annual temperature. Climatic data were assessed using BioSIM version 10.3 (Natural
Resources Canada, Sainte-Foy).

					Ann	ual temperat	ture (°C)		
ID	Provenance	Latitude	Longitude	Altitude	Mean	Absolute	Absolute	Frost days	Total
		(°N)	(°W)	(m a.s.l.)		maximum	minimum	(days)	precipitation (mm)
1	Parc des Laurentides	47°52'	72°47'	892	-0.9	27.5	-45.7	241	1144
2	Parc Mistassini	50°27'	74°22'	408	-0.9	30.5	-48.8	222	869
3	Manicouagan 5	50°40'	69°13'	437	-0.1	28.7	-43.3	213	952
4	Rivière Portneuf	48°30'	71°56'	591	0.5	30.1	-41.6	217	988
5	Nicabau Chibougamau	49°13'	75°55'	405	0.5	31.0	-46.4	214	860
6	Péribonka	49°36'	72°42'	336	0.6	30.8	-48.4	213	885
7	Canton Chaste Abitibi	49°01'	78°25'	300	0.7	31.8	-47.4	210	856
8	Senneterre	48°22'	77°02'	362	0.9	31.6	-49.2	208	859
9	Port Cartier	50°07'	68°50'	113	1.7	27.0	-36.0	196	1016

10	Ile Anticosti	49°37'	64°37'	198	1.7	26.1	-33.9	203	1012
11	Mars Ha! Ha!	48°12'	71°04'	319	1.8	31.6	-43.8	204	886
12	Causapscal	48°30'	68°52'	349	1.9	30.7	-37.6	204	1078
13	Forestville	48°55'	70°52'	168	2.0	31.7	-39.5	199	947
14	Parc de la Vérendrye	47°04'	77°27'	395	2.2	30.9	-46.1	205	904
15	Gravier Bonaventure	48°34'	67°34'	329	2.2	30.0	-35.6	202	1065
16	Lac Pimbina	46°55'	77°30'	387	2.4	31.3	-44.9	204	902
17	Chandler	48°23'	65°07'	193	2.9	29.1	-33.3	195	1077
18	Perthuis	46°55'	73°54'	283	3.2	30.9	-40.7	195	1129
19	Station Valcartier	46°32'	72°42'	130	4.7	32.4	-36.3	176	1102
20	Forêt de Watopeka	45°22'	72°31'	274	5.4	31.9	-36.6	173	1048

427 **Table 2** Thermal conditions of control and treatments set during the two experiments in growth

428 chambers. Photoperiod was maintained at 12 h in order to attain the same daily heat sum between

429 treatments during each experiment.

		Day/night tempera	tures (°C)
Experiment	Control	Daytime warming	Nighttime warming
1	12/12	16/12	12/16
2	12/12	16/8	8/16

Table 3 GLM comparisons of the phases of bud break in black spruce resulting from the two warming experiments using temperature of the site (TP), treatment (TT) and their interaction (TP×TT) as effects. Control was maintained at a constant temperature of 12 °C, while treatments corresponded to nighttime and daytime warming. LS-means indicate the average day when a given phenological phase was observed. Values with the same letters are not statistically different (p>0.05).

		Mod	el		Effects			LS-means	
Experiment	Phase	<i>F</i> -value	R <sup>2</sup>	ТР	TT	TP×TT	Control	Nighttime warming	Daytime warming
	Open bud	2.11	0.08	0.00	5.13**	0.16	5.66 <sup>a</sup>	5.40 <sup>a</sup>	6.21 <sup>b</sup>
	Elongated bud	6.12***	0.21	13.72***	7.97***	0.46	11.89 <sup>a</sup>	10.79 <sup>b</sup>	10.01 <sup>b</sup>
1	Swollen bud	9.60***	0.30	20.79***	13.02**	0.60	15.49 <sup>a</sup>	14.22 <sup>b</sup>	12.86 <sup>c</sup>
1	Translucent bud	8.92***	0.29	14.00***	15.07***	0.23	18.10 <sup>a</sup>	16.82 <sup>b</sup>	15.09°
	Split bud	23.64***	0.52	17.73***	49.76***	0.48	28.93ª	25.85 <sup>b</sup>	22.98°
	Exposed shoot	22.30***	0.50	19.67***	45.58***	0.34	34.69 <sup>a</sup>	30.85 <sup>b</sup>	29.05 <sup>c</sup>
	Open bud	5.32***	0.19	16.19***	2.71	2.49	8.30 <sup>a</sup>	8.87 <sup>a</sup>	7.74 <sup>a</sup>
2	Elongated bud	9.90***	0.30	30.31***	8.40***	1.20	12.79 <sup>a</sup>	13.74 <sup>a</sup>	11.54 <sup>b</sup>
2	Swollen bud	9.73***	0.30	26.01***	10.40***	0.92	16.26 <sup>a</sup>	17.37 <sup>a</sup>	14.45 <sup>b</sup>
	Translucent bud	9.91***	0.30	27.91***	10.19***	0.64	19.41 <sup>a</sup>	20.61 <sup>a</sup>	17.40 <sup>b</sup>

Split bud	11.83***	0.34	14.54***	21.82***	0.49	28.27 <sup>a</sup>	29.11 <sup>a</sup>	24.54 <sup>b</sup>
Exposed shoot	9.91***	0.30	24.23***	12.36***	0.30	34.14 <sup>a</sup>	35.24 <sup>a</sup>	31.83 <sup>b</sup>

One, two and three asterisks indicate p<0.05, 0.01 and 0.001, respectively

436	<b>Table 4</b> Comparison of the durations of the six phases of bud break resulting from the two
437	warming experiments using mixed models with repeated measurements. Control was maintained
438	at a constant temperature of 12 °C, while treatments corresponded to nighttime and daytime
439	warming. LS-means indicate the predicted duration of the average interval. Values with the same
440	letters are not statistically different (p>0.05).

		Effects			LS-means		
Experiment	$X^2$	Phase	Treatment	Interaction	Control	Nighttime	Daytime
						warming	warming
1	79.06***	436.12***	24.43***	12.83***	5.78 <sup>a</sup>	5.13 <sup>b</sup>	4.83°
2	114.50***	306.61***	7.23***	5.37***	5.87 <sup>a</sup>	5.69 <sup>a</sup>	5.30 <sup>b</sup>

Three asterisks indicate p<0.001

### **CAPTIONS OF THE FIGURES**

Figure 1 Days of occurrence of the six phases of bud break predicted for black spruce by the
GLM models performed on data of the two warming experiments at different night (N) and day
(D) temperatures. Dots represent the different provenances. The phases are reported as days from
the beginning of the experiment.

Figure 2 Duration of the phases of bud break predicted by the mixed models with repeated
measurements performed on data of the two warming experiments at different night (N) and day
(D) temperatures. Interpolations aim to make the interpretation easier, without suggesting any
indication of continuity between the categories shown on the horizontal axis. The six phases are
represented by open bud (1), elongated bud (2), swollen bud (3), translucent bud (4), split bud (5)
and exposed shoot (6).

### SUPPORTING INFORMATION CAPTIONS

455 Fig. S1 Location of the stands corresponding to the 20 black spruce provenances from Eastern456 Canada.

Fig. S2 Days of occurrence of the six phases of bud break observed in black spruce during the
two warming experiments at different night (N) and day (D) temperatures. The phases are
reported as days from the beginning of the experiment.

460 Fig. S3 Studentized residuals vs predicted values resulting from the GLM models performed on

461 data of the two warming experiments at different night and days temperatures. Dots with different

462 colours represent the six phases of bud break. The range between -2 and 2 indicates the 95%

463 confidence interval.

**Fig. S4** Studentized residuals vs predicted values resulting from the mixed models with repeated

465 measurements on data of the two warming experiments at different night and days temperatures.

466 The range between -2 and 2 indicates the 95% confidence interval.